ZBP1 sequesters cGAS in the cytoplasm and sustains type I interferon responses to
mitochondrial DNA

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Graphical abstract

SUMMARY

Mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) is a potent agonist of the cyclic GMP-AMP (cGAMP) synthase (cGAS) – Stimulator of Interferon Genes (STING) – type I interferon (IFN-I) pathway. However, the kinetics of mtDNA detection by cGAS or other nucleic acid sensors and the exact immunostimulatory features of mtDNA remain poorly defined. Here, we show that robust and sustained IFN-I responses downstream of mtDNA stress require the nucleic acid sensor Z-DNA binding protein 1 (ZBP1) in a cell death independent manner. Cells experiencing persistent mtDNA release display robust ZBP1 expression, as well as a marked increase in the cytoplasmic pool of cGAS. Biochemical and microscopy analyses reveal that the receptor-interacting protein homotypic interaction motifs (RHIMs) of ZBP1 bind the N-terminus of cGAS, leading to its entrapment in the cytoplasm. Moreover, we show that genetic and pharmacologic induction of mtDNA stress leads to the mitochondrial and cytoplasmic accumulation of Z-form DNA. Nuclease treatment or deletion of Z-DNA binding domains of ZBP1 reduce its interaction with cGAS and impair cGAMP production downstream of mtDNA stress. Finally, we uncover that ZBP1 is a novel regulator of IFN-I-mediated disease pathology, working in tandem with the cGAS-STING pathway to sense mtDNA instability and sustain IFN-I signaling that contributes to cardiac remodeling and heart failure. These results provide new insight into the molecular mechanisms of mtDNA sensing by the innate immune system and reveal that ZBP1 is a cooperative partner for cGAS. Moreover, our findings highlight ZBP1 as a potential therapeutic target in heart failure and other disorders where mtDNA instability drives disease-promoting IFN-I and inflammatory responses.

INTRODUCTION

The cGAS-STING axis is now recognized as key sensor of endogenous DNA and a major driver of IFN-I and inflammatory responses in human disease (Decout et al., 2021; Lepelley et al., 2021a; Riley and Tait, 2020; West, 2017; West and Shadel, 2017; Zierhut and Funabiki, 2020). Although initially proposed as a cytoplasm-restricted sensor, several elegant studies reported that cGAS is predominantly a nuclear protein (Volkman et al., 2019) that is tightly bound to chromatin (Boyer et al., 2020; Cao et al., 2020; Kujirai et al., 2020; Michalski et al., 2020; Pathare et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2020). Nuclear import and export sequences in cGAS have been identified (Gentili et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2021), and post-translational modifications and protein-protein interactions have also been shown to regulate cGAS distribution during cell division, cancer, and viral infection (Lahaye et al., 2018; Li et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2018). Although cGAS senses cytosolic mtDNA and triggers IFN-I (Rongvaux et al., 2014; West et al., 2015; White et al., 2014), whether cGAS re-localizes in response to mtDNA stress remains unclear. Moreover, the mechanisms that sustain cGAS activity toward mtDNA in conditions of persistent cytosolic release are not well understood.

In addition to cGAS, several other DNA sensors have been implicated in the detection of mtDNA. For example, interferon gamma inducible protein 16 (IFI16) can sense mtDNA that is insufficiently degraded in lysosomes, leading to elevated IFN-I responses that promote cytotoxicity and Parkinson's disease phenotypes in vivo (Matsui et al., 2021). IFI16 was also shown to interact with and potentiate cGAS activity in certain cellular contexts (Almine et al., 2017; Jønsson et al., 2017). Moreover, the nucleic acid sensor ZBP1 has been reported to bind to cytosolic mtDNA during necroptosis and trigger pro-inflammatory responses during oxidative stress in vitro (Chen et al., 2018; Szczesny et al., 2018). However, the mtDNA ligand specificity

of ZBP1 and the physiological relevance of mtDNA sensing by ZBP1 in vivo remain unclear. In

addition, whether ZBP1 works independently of or in concert with cGAS to sustain IFN-I and/or

inflammatory signaling downstream of mtDNA release is a key open question.

Type I interferons (IFN-I) are pleotropic cytokines that function in antimicrobial immunity,

tumor immunity, and metabolic regulation. However, persistent and unrestrained IFN-I signaling

is linked to autoimmune diseases, type I interferonopathies, and organ system failure (Crow and

Stetson, 2021; Lei et al., 2021; McNab et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2016; Yu et al., 2022). We recently

reported that mtDNA instability and chronic activation of cGAS-STING-IFN-I signaling

potentiate age-related tissue pathology in the polymerase gamma (POLG) mutator model of

mtDNA disease (Lei et al., 2021). Elevated expression of ZBP1 and interferon-stimulated genes

(ISGs) were detected in the heart and other organs of POLG mutator mice compared to WT

littermates. Notably, ablation of IFN-I signaling dramatically reduced the development of age-

related cardiomyopathy in these mice, suggesting that the cGAS-STING-IFN-I axis contributes to

heart failure induced by mtDNA instability and mitochondrial dysfunction (Lei et al., 2021).

Studies in other pre-clinical models have linked mtDNA sensing by cGAS or Toll-like receptor 9

to heart failure after ischemic injury and myocardial infarction (Cao et al., 2018; King et al., 2017;

Nakayama and Otsu, 2018; Oka et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2015). However, the mechanisms

governing IFN-I-mediated cardiac damage and the role of additional mtDNA sensors in promoting

heart failure are unclear.

Anthracycline chemotherapeutic regimens, including Doxorubicin (Doxo) and epirubicin,

are leading causes of cancer therapy-related heart failure, and despite numerous cardiovascular

side effects, the widespread use of these agents has persisted for over fifty years due to their

potency against a number of solid tumors and hematologic malignancies (Lipshultz et al., 2013;

Mehta et al., 2018; Vejpongsa and Yeh, 2014; Volkova and Russell, 2011). In fact, a majority of

adult breast and childhood cancer patients receive Doxo or another anthracycline, highlighting the

large number of individuals at risk for cardiotoxicity (Giordano et al., 2012; Lindsey et al., 2014;

Mancilla et al., 2019; Nathan et al., 2016). Anthracyclines can cause arrhythmia, myocarditis,

cardiomyopathy, and congestive heart failure, and symptoms can manifest immediately or years

after treatment (Moudgil and Yeh, 2016; Raj et al., 2014). Although risk factors such as underlying

cardiovascular disease, female gender, and young or old age have been identified (Burridge et al.,

2016; Meléndez et al., 2018; Vejpongsa and Yeh, 2014), at present, it remains impossible to predict

which patients will experience Doxorubicin-induced cardiotoxicity (DIC), or to adequately protect

at-risk patients. Thus, there is an urgent need to advance mechanistic understanding of DIC to

illuminate novel therapeutic avenues for afflicted patients. The molecular and cellular mechanisms

responsible for DIC remain elusive, although mitochondrial dysfunction and mtDNA damage are

hypothesized to be major drivers of cardiotoxicity (Berthiaume and Wallace, 2007; Carvalho et al.,

2014; Serrano et al., 1999; Wallace et al., 2020; Yen et al., 1999; Zhou et al., 2001). Elevated

levels of cardiac pro-inflammatory cytokines (i.e. TNFα, IL-6, and IL-1β) have been observed in

some rodent DIC models (Frantz et al., 2018); however, the cardiac innate immune ligands,

receptors, and downstream signaling pathways driving immune responses to Doxo are largely

unknown. Doxo is a potent inducer of mtDNA stress and IFN-I in vitro (Sistigu et al., 2014; Wu

et al., 2019), yet whether mtDNA stress engages cGAS and/or other cytosolic DNA sensors in the

heart during DIC, and the effects of prolonged Doxo-dependent IFN-I signaling in cardiac cells,

remain unclear.

Here, we report that a novel cytoplasmic complex of ZBP1 and cGAS forms in response

to mtDNA stress to sustain IFN-I responses in vitro and in vivo. Via biochemical and cell-based

analyses, we identify the domains of ZBP1 required for robust binding to cGAS, finding that this

interaction is mediated largely via the ZBP1 RHIM domains and the DNA binding domains of

both proteins. Finally, we show that ZBP1 is highly expressed in cardiac cells and tissues, and we

reveal that the ZBP1-cGAS-STING axis governs Doxo-induced IFN-I responses in vivo. Ablation

of this innate immune pathway limits cardiotoxicity and improves heart function during and after

Doxo-chemotherapy, providing new insight into the molecular mechanisms of DIC.

RESULTS

ZBP1 is required for robust IFN-I activation downstream of mtDNA stress

Multiple cytosolic DNA sensors have been associated with IFN-I signaling (Keating et al.,

2011), and several of them have been shown to bind mtDNA (Matsui et al., 2021; Oka et al., 2012;

Rodríguez-Nuevo et al., 2018; Szczesny et al., 2018). Many of these DNA sensors are IFN-I-

regulated, suggesting a feed forward loop (Schneider et al., 2014). To explore the role of induced

DNA sensors in the detection of mtDNA, we performed RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) analysis in

the TFAM heterozygous knockout model (*Tfam*$^{+/-}$), which exhibits persistent mtDNA nucleoid

instability, cytosolic mtDNA release, and sustained IFN-I signaling (West et al., 2015). Analysis

of mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) revealed elevated expression of additional nucleic acid

sensors, including DNA sensors interferon-inducible IFI200 family members, ZBP1, and several

RNA sensors in *Tfam*$^{+/-}$ compared to wild-type (WT) controls (Figure S1A). MEFs lacking STING

were significantly impaired in ISG responses after *Tfam* silencing, while Mitochondrial Antiviral

Aignaling (MAVS) knockout MEFs were still able to mount high levels of IFN-I responses,

suggesting that RNA sensing pathways are not engaged in our system (Figure S1B). Although the

human IFI200 homolog IFI16 can potentiate cGAS signaling in response to exogenous and viral

DNA (Almine et al., 2017; Jønsson et al., 2017), siRNA knockdown of IFI200 members *Ifi203*

and *Ifi204* did not reduce elevated ISG expression in *Tfam*^{+/-} cells (Figures S1C and S1D). qRT-

PCR and western blotting of *Tfam*^{+/-} cells revealed that ZBP1 was increased at the RNA and

protein levels (Figures S1E and S1F). Strikingly, knockdown of *Zbp1* markedly attenuated ISG

expression in *Tfam*^{+/-} cells (Figure S1G). Silencing of *Zbp1* had no effect on *Ifnb1* or ISG

expression in WT cells transfected with interferon stimulatory DNA (ISD) (Figure S1H, gray bars),

consistent with prior reports indicating that ZBP1 is not required for immediate sensing of short

B-form DNA (Ishii et al., 2008; Maelfait et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2008). In contrast, silencing of

Zbp1 reduced the potentiated expression of ISGs in *Tfam*^{+/-} cells after ISD transfection (Figure

S1H, blue bars). Taken together, these data suggest that ZBP1 is necessary to sustain IFN-I

'priming' in response to mtDNA stress, a phenotype required for potentiated ISG expression in

Tfam^{+/-} cells after secondary ISD challenge.

To expand our analysis of ZBP1 in mtDNA stress responses, we obtained ZBP1-null mice

(Ishii et al., 2008) and crossed them onto the *Tfam*^{+/-} background. RNA-seq analysis indicated that

in contrast to MEFs from *Tfam*^{+/-} mice, *Tfam*^{+/-}*Zbp1*^{-/-} cells did not sustain the elevated ISG

expression profile triggered by mtDNA instability (Figure 1A). Additional qRT-PCR and western

blotting experiments confirmed that loss of ZBP1 was sufficient to largely abrogate the IFN-I

priming of *Tfam*^{+/-} cells (Figures 1B and 1C). In line with our siRNA knockdown data, ZBP1

ablation did not affect ISD-induced IFN-I responses in WT MEFs, but significantly reduced the

potentiated ISG expression of *Tfam*^{+/-} cells after secondary ISD challenge (Figure 1D).

Immunofluorescence microscopy revealed no changes in mtDNA abundance or mitochondrial

morphology in *Zbp1*^{-/-} knockout MEFs (Figure 1E). Moreover, we observed that mtDNA nucleoid

aggregation and mitochondrial hyperfusion in *Tfam*^{+/-} MEFs, which we previously showed are

linked to mtDNA release (West et al., 2015), were not altered by ZBP1 depletion (Figure 1E). This

indicates that reduced IFN-I priming in $Tfam^{+/-}Zbp1^{-/-}$ cells is not due to the alleviation of mtDNA

stress, but instead results from impaired sensing and/or signaling downstream of mtDNA release.

Consistent with our prior work (Wu et al., 2019), we observed that a non-lethal dose of

Doxo, a widely used anthracycline chemotherapeutic that induces mtDNA damage and

mitochondrial dysfunction (Berthiaume and Wallace, 2007; Wallace et al., 2020), also promoted

nucleoid aggregation, cytosolic mtDNA release, and IFN-I signaling (Figures 1F-1H and S1I).

Similar to $Tfam^{+/-}$ cells, low dose Doxo treatment markedly enhanced ZBP1 protein levels (Figure

1H), and robust Doxo-induced ISG expression required ZBP1 (Figures 1I and 1J). Notably, the

Doxo-induced expression of ISG was heavily reliant on signaling via the type I interferon receptor

(IFNAR), but entirely independent of MAVS and RNA sensing (Figures 1K). Collectively, these

results indicate that ZBP1 is an essential sensor mediating the IFN-I program triggered by acute

(Doxo-induced) and persistent ($Tfam^{+/-}$) mtDNA stress.

ZBP1 is a well-appreciated driver of receptor-interacting protein kinase 3 (RIPK3)-mixed

lineage kinase domain-like pseudokinase (MLKL)-dependent necroptosis, an inflammatory form

of cell death that can be induced by interferon that can feed forward to potentiate IFN-I and pro-

inflammatory responses (Baik et al., 2021; Devos et al., 2020; Ingram et al., 2019; Jiao et al., 2020;

Sridharan et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2021). Although MLKL was slightly increased, other

necroptosis factors were not elevated in $Tfam^{+/-}$ MEFs (Figure S1J). To exclude the possibility that

MLKL promotes mtDNA instability and release or IFN-I priming in $Tfam^{+/-}$ cells, we silenced

MLKL by siRNA (Figure S1K). Notably, $Tfam^{+/-}$ MEFs depleted of MLKL continued to show

mtDNA nucleoid aggregation, and also maintained elevated ISG expression (Figures 1L, S1L and

S1M). Moreover, WT and $Tfam^{+/-}$ MEFs exhibited similar cell death kinetics in response to

necroptosis induced by TNFα+zVAD+CHX treatment (Figure 1M). Cell death triggered by high

dose Doxo treatment was also equivalent between WT and $Zbp1^{-/-}$ MEFs (Figure 1N). In sum,

these results suggest that ZBP1 regulates the mtDNA stress-mediated IFN-I program in $Tfam^{+/-}$

and Doxo-treated cells independently of MLKL and a feed forward loop of cell death.

ZBP1 regulates cGAS localization via direct interactions in the cytosol during mtDNA stress

Unlike cGAS, ZBP1 is predominantly expressed in the cytosol (Figure S2A), although it

has been shown to sense viral RNA in the nucleus (Zhang et al., 2020). Interestingly, we observed

a significant increase in the proportion of cytosolic cGAS in $Tfam^{+/-}$ MEFs (Figures S2A and S2B),

where ZBP1 is highly induced, relative to WT. IFNβ treatment increased the overall expression as

well as the cytosolic proportion of cGAS in both WT and $Tfam^{+/-}$ cells, suggesting that the presence

of cytosolic mtDNA and IFN-I signaling promote cGAS redistribution during mtDNA stress

(Figures S2A and S2B). TFAM depletion in human skin fibroblasts (HFFs) also induced interferon

stimulated gene (ISG) expression and drove cGAS into the cytosol (Figures S2C, 2A and 2B).

Similar to TFAM-depletion, low dose Doxo triggered robust cGAS re-localization, with roughly

half of the cellular cGAS protein accumulating in the cytosol after exposure (Figures S2D and

S2E). Therefore, cGAS undergoes a dynamic redistribution to the cytoplasm during both genetic

and pharmacologic induction of mtDNA stress, which is likely necessary to sustain IFN-I signaling

in response to cytosolic mtDNA.

Our prior data indicated that the mtDNA stress-triggered IFN-I program involves the

nucleic acid sensor ZBP1 induction and cGAS redistribution. We further observed significantly

less cytoplasmic cGAS in $Tfam^{+/-}Zbp1^{-/-}$ cells compared to $Tfam^{+/-}$ cells (Figures 2C and 2D),

suggesting that high ZBP1 levels influence cGAS localization. Loss of ZBP1 and cytoplasmic

cGAS in *Tfam*$^{+/-}$*Zbp1*$^{-/-}$ cells also led to markedly lower ISG expression (Figures 1C and 2C),

which led us to hypothesize that ZBP1 and cGAS might work cooperatively to sustain the IFN-I

program triggered by mtDNA stress. To explore this possibility, we first investigated whether these

two mtDNA sensors interact in cells. Endogenous co-immunoprecipitation (co-IP) experiments in

Tfam$^{+/-}$ cells using anti-cGAS antibody revealed strong interactions between cGAS and ZBP1 in

cytosolic, but not nuclear, extracts (Figure 2E). Recombinant mouse IFNβ treatment, which

substantially enhanced the expression of ZBP1, triggered strong interactions of cGAS and ZBP1

in both WT and *Tfam*$^{+/-}$ cells (Figure 2E). Similarly, Doxo induced the upregulation of ZBP1, re-

localization of cGAS to the cytosolic fraction, and increased the co-immunoprecipitation of

cytosolic cGAS-ZBP1 complexes (Figure 2F). Next, to define the domains of ZBP1 necessary for

interaction with cGAS, we generated ZBP1 constructs lacking the first or both Z-form nucleic acid

(Z-NA) binding domains at the N-terminus (ΔZα1, ΔZα1ΔZα2), RHIM domain mutants (mRA,

mRB) or deletions (ΔRA, ΔRB), and a C-terminal signaling domain deletion that also lacks a third

putative RHIM sequence (Kaiser et al., 2008; Kuriakose and Kanneganti, 2018; Takaoka et al.,

2007) (Figure 2G). Upon transient expression of ZBP1-FLAG and cGAS-HA constructs, we noted

that ZBP1-FLAG lacking both Z-NA binding domains was attenuated in pulling down cytosolic

cGAS compared to full length ZBP1 (Figure 2H, compare lane 3 to 1). ZBP1-FLAG lacking the

C-terminus was more attenuated in pulling down cGAS (Figure 2H, compare lane 6 to 1). However,

ZBP1-FLAG constructs possessing mutated (mRA, mRB; Figure 2H) or wholly deleted (ΔRA,

ΔRB; Figure 2I) RHIM motifs were unable to pulldown cytosolic cGAS. Finally, we generated a

ZBP1 construct of roughly 100 amino acids containing the RHIM A and B domains (RA+RB;

Figure 2G) and found that this small construct was sufficient to immunoprecipitate cGAS in

cytosolic co-IP experiments (Figure 2J).

Additional co-IP experiments to identify the domains of cGAS mediating binding to ZBP1

revealed that full-length ZBP1 was able to interact with both the N-terminal 148 aa of cGAS

(cGAS N-term), as well as a construct lacking the first 147 amino acids (ΔN-term) (Figures S2F

and S2G), suggesting that at least two interaction sites bridge cGAS and ZBP1. However, the small

ZBP1 RA+RB fragment more strongly co-immunoprecipitated with the cGAS N-term construct

(Figures S2H). Taken together, our data suggest that ZBP1 and cGAS interact in the cytosol during

mtDNA stress to sustain IFN-I responses. Furthermore, multiple interacting mechanisms are

required for full ZBP1-cGAS binding, but the strongest interactions between the two cytosolic

sensors are bridged by the ZBP1 RHIM domains and cGAS N-terminus (Figure 2K).

ZBP1 restrains cGAS in the cytosol and potentiates its activity during mtDNA stress

Recent work has revealed that cGAS re-localizes to the cytosol in response to DNA

transfection (Michalski et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2021), and our data has revealed this also occurs

after IFNβ treatment or induction of mtDNA stress. Because ZBP1 is strongly induced by mtDNA

stress and interacts with cGAS, we reasoned that ZBP1 might enhance cytosolic retention of cGAS.

Consistent with the endogenous expression pattern in most cells (Volkman et al., 2019), cGAS

primarily localized to the nucleus after transient transfection (Figures 3A and 3B). In contrast, cells

co-expressing cGAS and full length ZBP1 (ZBP1 FL) or the small ZBP1 RA+RB fragment

exhibited an increased abundance of cGAS in the cytoplasm (Figures 3A and 3B), suggesting that

interactions through the ZBP1 RHIM domains are critical for cytosolic cGAS accumulation. Co-

expression of ZBP1 mutants lacking the Z-NA binding domains or the C-terminus were also able

to increase the cytosolic abundance of cGAS (Figures S3A). However, co-expression of the ZBP1

ΔRA construct, which cannot bind cGAS, failed to drive cGAS into the cytosol of COS-7 cells

(Figures 3A and 3B).

We next examined whether binding of ZBP1 affects the enzymatic activity of cGAS during

mtDNA stress. We first confirmed that *Tfam*^{+/-} MEFs produced more cGAMP compared to WT

cells, indicative of enhanced cGAS activity (Figure S3B). Then, we expressed cGAS alone or

cGAS and ZBP1 together in 293FT cells reconstituted with STING (293FT-STING) and examined

ISG expression. ZBP1 alone or cGAS and ZBP1 co-expression did not potentiate ISG expression

in cells without mtDNA instability (siCtrl). However, silencing of TFAM in cells expressing cGAS

elevated ISG expression, with the highest ISG expression being observed in TFAM-depleted cells

co-expressing cGAS and ZBP1 (Figures S3C and S3D). Similar trends were observed in Doxo-

treated cells expressing cGAS and ZBP1 (Figures 3C and 3D). The findings suggest that: 1) ZBP1

alone is not sufficient to trigger IFN-I signaling in response to transfected plasmid DNA, TFAM-

depletion, or Doxo-induced mtDNA stress; and 2) cGAS and ZBP1 work cooperatively to sense

mtDNA stress and fully activate and sustain IFN-I responses. In agreement, *Zbp1*^{-/-} MEFs

produced less cGAMP after Doxo exposure compared to WT (Figure S3E). Finally, we explored

which domains of ZBP1 were essential for maximizing cGAS activity by transfecting 293FT with

cGAS and various ZBP1 constructs (Figure 3E). Interestingly, the Z-NA domains (Zα1Zα2),

RHIM motifs (RA and RB), and the C-terminus of ZBP1 were all required to potentiate cGAS

production of cGAMP upon Doxo-mediated mtDNA stress (Figure 3F).

Since the loss of both Z-NA binding domains (ΔZα1Zα2) of ZBP1 weakens its ability to

bind cGAS (Figure 2H) and limits cGAS activation (Figure 3F), we then explored whether nucleic

acids facilitate cGAS-ZBP1 interactions, and therefore potentiate cGAS activity. We developed a

nuclease assay where benzonase was utilized to significantly degrade cytosolic nucleic acids

before co-IP (Figure 3G). Real time qPCR analysis of mtDNA abundance in 1% NP-40 cellular

extracts revealed that benzonase treatment was effective at degrading over 99% of mtDNA (Figure

3H). After benzonase treatment, ZBP1 was less efficient at pulling down cGAS (Figure 3I),

mirroring weaker interactions between cGAS and ZBP1 ΔZα1Zα2 constructs (Figure 2H). Taken

together, our data suggest two distinct interactions bridge cGAS-ZBP1 complexes in cells, which

together retain cGAS in the cytosol and potentiate and/or sustain cGAMP production and IFN-I

responses to cytosolic mtDNA. We propose that the RHIM domains of ZBP1 bind strongly with

the N-terminus of cGAS, whereas the DNA binding domains of both proteins also interact and are

likely bridged by DNA (Figure 3J).

mtDNA stress promotes the accumulation of Z-form DNA that potentiates IFN-I responses

Viral and endogenous Z-form RNA are key ligands nucleating ZBP1-mediated necroptosis

and inflammation (Devos et al., 2020; Jiao et al., 2020; Kesavardhana and Kanneganti, 2020;

Kesavardhana et al., 2020; Koehler et al., 2021; Maelfait et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2020); however,

ZBP1 can also bind oxidized mtDNA (Saada et al., 2022) and stabilize Z-form DNA (Deigendesch

et al., 2006; Ha et al., 2006, 2008; Schwartz et al., 2001). We have previously shown that cGAS

activation in *Tfam*^{+/-} cells requires mtDNA release (West et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2019), although

Tfam^{+/-} cells do not display enhanced steady-state reactive oxygen species production (Woo et al.,

2012). This argues against a role for oxidized mtDNA, so we next explored whether Z-form DNA

accumulated during mtDNA stress using an antibody specific for left-handed Z-DNA (Buzzo et

al., 2021; Möller et al., 1982). We first validated the specificity of anti-Z-DNA antibody for

immunofluorescence assay by transfecting poly(dA:dT) (high propensity to form B-DNA) and

poly(dG:dC) (high propensity to form Z-DNA) with polyethylenimine (PEI), a polyamine polymer

that has been shown to induce/stabilize Z-DNA formation with poly(dG:dC) sequences (Thomas

et al., 1991). We confirmed that this antibody specifically stained PEI complexed poly(dG:dC),

while SYTOX DNA stain labeled both forms of DNA uniformly (Figure 4A). Utilizing the same

antibody and quantitative immunofluorescence microscopy, we next screened for the presence of

Z-DNA in situ. Notably, we observed increased cytosolic and mitochondrial Z-DNA accumulation

in TFAM-deficient cells (Figures 4B and 4C). Additional Z-DNA accumulation in both

compartments was detected in $Tfam^{+/-}$ MEFs exposed to Hydralazine, a vasodilator that can

stabilize Z-form DNA and is linked to drug-induced lupus (Thomas et al., 1993; Timlin et al., 2019)

(Figures 4B and 4C). qRT-PCR analysis revealed potentiated ISG expression in Hydralazine-

treated $Tfam^{+/-}$ MEFs, indicating that Z-form DNA species generated during mtDNA stress

contribute to the IFN-I program (Figure 4D). Remarkably, ZBP1 was necessary for the

Hydralazine-mediated potentiation of ISGs in TFAM-depleted cells, as IFN-I responses were

drastically reduced in $Zbp1^{-/-}$ MEFs (Figure 4D). Doxo also enriched Z-DNA abundance

colocalizing with the mitochondrial marker TOMM20, as well as in the cytosol (Figures 4E and

4F), further supporting the notion that generalized mtDNA instability promotes the accumulation

of Z-DNA.

To further investigate the immunostimulatory properties of DNA from different subcellular

pools, we isolated cytosolic (Cyto.), mitochondrial (Mito.) and nuclear (Nuc.) fractions from

vehicle- or Doxo-treated MEFs and transfected the purified DNA from each into primary mouse

fibroblasts (Figure 4G). After confirming that the anti-Z-DNA antibody is suitable for detecting

Z-DNA by immunoblotting (Figure 4H), we next investigated the presence of Z-DNA from each

cellular fraction. In agreement with immunofluorescence analyses, slot blotting of pure DNA from

all fractions revealed elevated Z-DNA accumulation in the mitochondrial and cytosolic

compartments after Doxo (Figure 4I). Notably, mtDNA, followed by cytosolic DNA, isolated from

Doxo-exposed cells was significantly more stimulatory than comparable fractions from vehicle-

treated cells. However, nuclear DNA from both groups activated IFN-I responses to the same level

(Figure 4J). Collectively, these results indicate that mtDNA stress induces mitochondrial and

cytosolic Z-DNA accumulation, which is then stabilized by elevated ZBP1 to potentiate IFN-I

signaling.

Doxorubicin induces a robust cardiac IFN-I response that induces mitochondrial and

cardiomyocyte dysfunction

Earlier work and our own data revealed that Doxo drives mtDNA nucleoid aggregation and

cytosolic mtDNA release in cancer cells and fibroblasts (Ashley and Poulton, 2009; Wu et al.,

2019) (Figures 1F and 1G). We therefore hypothesized that Doxo might trigger mtDNA stress and

cytosolic release in cardiomyocytes (CMs), leading to elevated innate immune signaling and CM

dysfunction. In agreement, low dose Doxo exposure to human induced pluripotent stem cell-

derived CMs (hiPSC-CMs) caused pronounced mtDNA nucleoid aggregation, mitochondrial

network hyperfusion, and the accumulation of cytosolic DNA, indicative of mtDNA stress and

mitochondrial dysfunction (Figure 5A). Unbiased transcriptomic and bioinformatic approaches

also revealed innate immune signatures in adult murine hearts and hiPSC-CMs challenged with

Doxo. Gene set enrichment analysis showed that Doxo repressed OXPHOS transcripts, but

increased multiple innate immune and inflammatory genes, including those associated with

interferons, TNFα, and DNA damage (Figure 5B). Furthermore, analysis of 261 differentially

expressed genes across all three datasets (Burridge et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2012) indicated that

type I interferon signaling (Interferon Alpha Response) was the most heavily represented network

(Figure 5C). Additional pathway analysis predicted robust activation of upstream regulators

governing IFN-I responses, including interferon regulatory transcription factors (IRF1/3/7 and

STAT1) and type I interferon cytokines (IFNα and β) (Figure S4A). Moreover, robust enrichment

of STING-dependent *Zbp1* and other ISGs (*Ifit3*, *Cmpk2*, *Cxcl10*) was observed in both Doxo-

exposed murine hearts and hiPSC-CMs (Figure S4A). In line with bioinformatic analyses, Doxo

strongly upregulated type I interferons, ZBP1, and other ISGs in hiPSC-CMs and murine neonatal

CMs (Figures 5D-5F). Blocking the IFN-I receptor with anti-IFNAR antibody significantly

suppressed Doxo-induced ISGs (Figure 5G). Moreover, Doxo failed to induce robust ISG

responses in *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$, *Sting*$^{-/-}$, and *Zbp1*$^{-/-}$ CMs, indicating that their expression is mediated by the

ZBP1-cGAS axis and autocrine/paracrine IFNAR signaling (Figure 5H).

Clinical case reports have linked IFNα immunotherapy to cardiomyopathy and other

serious cardiac complications (Angulo et al., 1999; Benjamini et al., 2007; Khakoo et al., 2005;

Kuwata et al., 2002; Zhao et al., 2014; Zimmerman et al., 1994), yet the direct effects of prolonged

IFN-I on CM function have not been characterized. Interestingly, we observed that hiPSC-CMs

are highly responsive to IFN-I (Figure S4B) and that prolonged exposure increased expression of

genes correlating with CM dysfunction (natriuretic peptides (*Nppa/Nppb*) and β myosin heavy

chain (*Myh7*)) (Figure S4C). Consistent with bioinformatic analyses, prolonged IFN-I also

decreased expression of mtDNA-encoded OXPHOS genes, while elevating some nuclear DNA-

encoded transcripts, suggestive of respiratory chain dysfunction (Figure S4D). Reduced mtDNA-

encoded OXPHOS gene expression was also observed in murine neonatal CMs exposed to acute

IFNβ or Doxo (Figure S4E). In addition, Doxo or IFN-I exposure shortened the beat periodicity

of iPSC-CMs and caused significant CM vacuolization and arrhythmic contractions when

combined (Figure S4F). Together, these results indicate that Doxo-induced mtDNA stress triggers

CM IFN-I responses in vitro and in vivo, and also suggest that prolonged IFN-I signaling has

cardiotoxic effects by enhancing CM mitochondrial dysfunction and contractility defects.

Adjuvant IFNα synergizes with Doxorubicin to enhance cardiac and mitochondrial

dysfunction in tumor-bearing mice

In order to expand our in vitro findings and advance mechanistic understanding of

cardiotoxic synergy between Doxo and IFN-I, we merged an autochthonous melanoma model

(Damsky et al., 2011; Dankort et al., 2009) with an extended Doxo protocol that more closely

resembles clinical timelines in late DIC (Figures 6A and 6B). Doxo chemotherapy significantly

restricted melanoma growth, with adjuvant IFNα providing a modest synergistic effect (Figure

6B). Consistent with the clinical studies, Doxo treatment reduced left ventricular ejection fraction

(EF), fractional shortening (FS) and left ventricle (LV) mass (Figure 6C), while inducing left

ventricle dilation, wall thinning and cardiac fibrosis (Figure 6D-6F). Interestingly, ZBP1 and other

ISGs were elevated in Doxo-exposed hearts relative to mice receiving vehicle only (Figure 6G).

Mice receiving Doxo plus adjuvant IFNα exhibited more pronounced left ventricular dysfunction,

elevated cardiac fibrosis, and higher cardiac ISG expression compared to the Doxo only group

(Figures 6C-6G). Finally, melanoma bearing mice receiving Doxo and IFNα showed reduced

cardiac mtDNA abundance and OXPHOS protein expression (Figures 6H and 6I). These results

suggest that IFN-I signaling synergizes with Doxo to enhance mitochondrial dysfunction, cardiac

fibrosis, and heart failure in vivo.

mtDNA stress triggers a ZBP1-STING-IFNAR-dependent IFN-I program that contributes

to Doxorubicin-induced cardiotoxicity

To dissect the cardiac IFN-I signaling pathway downstream of Doxo-induced mtDNA

stress in vivo, we applied our Doxo dosing regimen (Figure 7A) to multiple genetically modified

mouse stains that are deficient in cytosolic mtDNA sensing and IFN-I signaling. Doxo was

administered for four weeks to adult mice, and cardiac function was assessed by serial

transthoracic echocardiography pre-Doxo exposure (week -1) and every two weeks thereafter until

week ten when animals were sacrificed. Transthoracic echocardiography of WT mice revealed

marked impairments in cardiac functional measures of left ventricular EF (parasternal long axis

B-mode) and FS (short axis M-mode) after Doxo (Figure 7B, black lines). In contrast, mice lacking

ZBP1, STING or IFNAR exhibited higher EF and FS compared to WT throughout the longitudinal

study (Figure 7B, maroon, green and blue lines). In depth analysis of longitudinal

echocardiographic measurements showed that $Zbp1^{-/-}$, $Sting^{-/-}$ and $Ifnar^{-/-}$ mice exhibited lower

Doxo-induced wall thinning, left ventricle dilation, and weight loss compared to WT controls

(Figures 7C and S5A-S5C). To link cardiac dysfunction with sustained IFN-I signaling, we

examined transcript and protein abundance of ISGs seven weeks after the cessation of Doxo

injection. WT mice exhibited sustained expression of ISGs assayed at the week 10 timepoint post-

Doxo. In contrast, ZBP1 and other ISGs were not significantly upregulated in Doxo-exposed $Zbp1^{-/-}$

$^{/-}$, $Sting^{-/-}$ and $Ifnar^{-/-}$ mice compared to vehicle controls (Figures 7E, S6A and S6B). Moreover, all

knockout strains exhibited reduced cardiac expression of genes expressed in the failing heart

(Figures 7F and S6C). In agreement with cardiac transcript expression, histologic analyses of

Doxo-challenged $Zbp1^{-/-}$, $Sting^{-/-}$ and $Ifnar^{-/-}$ mice revealed significantly less CM dropout and

cytoplasmic vacuolization at week 10 compared to WT controls (Figures 7G, S6D and S6E), and

all knockout strains had markedly lower cardiac fibrosis as revealed by Sirius Red staining

(Figures 7H and S6F). Finally, Doxo-induced mtDNA instability and OXPHOS subunit loss was

also significantly lessened in cardiac extracts from *Sting*^{-/-} and *Ifnar*^{-/-} mice (Figure S6G-S6I). In

summary, our data reveal a that the ZBP1-STING signaling axis contributes to cardiotoxic IFN-I

signaling that contributes significantly to the pathobiology of chemotherapy-related heart failure.

DISCUSSION

ZBP1/DLM-1/DAI was initially identified as an ISG in activated macrophages, and later a

cytosolic DNA sensor that binds TBK1 and IRF3 to induce IFN-I responses (Fu et al., 1999;

Takaoka et al., 2007). Subsequent knockdown studies confirmed a role for ZBP1 in the induction

of IFN-I responses in L929 fibroblasts transfected with long B-form DNA, skin fibroblasts infected

with human cytomegalovirus (HCMV), and vaginal epithelial cells infected with herpes simplex

virus 2 (HSV-2) or transfected with HSV-2 DNA (DeFilippis et al., 2010; Triantafilou et al., 2014;

Wang et al., 2008). In contrast, experiments in knockout MEFs, macrophages, and dendritic cells

revealed that ZBP1 is dispensable for IFN-I and pro-inflammatory cytokine induction after

poly(dA:dT) B-form DNA transfection (Ishii et al., 2008) or mouse cytomegalovirus infection

(Maelfait et al., 2017). Thus, the roles of ZBP1 in cytosolic DNA sensing and IFN-I induction

have remained controversial. Our prior work revealed that mtDNA stress and release in *Tfam*^{+/-}

and Doxo-treated cells engages the cGAS-STING pathway, leading to an IFN-I signature

characterized by the high level expression of many ISGs, including ZBP1 (West et al., 2015; Wu

et al., 2019). In this study, we have uncovered that loss of ZBP1 ablates the steady state elevation

of ISGs in *Tfam*^{+/-} cells and severely attenuates IFN-I responses after Doxo treatment. However,

in line with studies from Ishii et al. and Maelfait et al., we find that *Zbp1*^{-/-} cells are fully responsive

to B-DNA transfection and exhibit no impairment in ISG expression compared to controls. More

recent work has shown that ZBP1 is a sentinel of endogenous and microbial RNA during infection,

leading to inflammatory responses and necroptotic cell death (Guo et al., 2018; Jiao et al., 2020;

Kuriakose et al., 2018; Maelfait et al., 2017; Upton et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2020). Although

mitochondrial dsRNA release can trigger IFN-I responses (Dhir et al., 2018; Tigano et al., 2021),

we find that cytosolic RNA sensing via the RIG-I-like receptor (RLR)-Mitochondrial antiviral

signaling (MAVS) pathway is not required for IFN-I signaling in *Tfam*^{+/-} or Doxo treated cells.

Therefore, our data highlight ZBP1 an innate immune sentinel for mtDNA that is uniquely required

for the maintenance of steady state ISG expression and IFN-I priming phenotypes triggered by

mtDNA stress and release.

Recent work has shown that cGAS predominately resides in the nucleus tightly bound to

histones 2A and 2B, which is critical to restrain cGAS and limit autoreactivity against endogenous

DNA (Volkman et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2020). However, the mechanisms governing cGAS

distribution and the interacting partners that influence cGAS compartmentalization remain largely

unclear. We have found that mtDNA stress and release increases the cytosolic pool of cGAS in a

ZBP1-dependent manner. Our data indicate that ZBP1 complexes with and retains cGAS in the

cytoplasm to sustain IFN-I responses to mtDNA. Furthermore, we show that binding of the two

proteins is mediated predominately via the RHIM A (RA) of ZBP1 and the N-terminus of cGAS,

as RHIM mutants fail to immunoprecipitate cGAS or re-localize it to the cytoplasm. The N-

terminus of cGAS contains a nuclear localization sequence (NLS) (Liu et al., 2018), and our data

indicate that the RHIM domains of ZBP1 preferentially interact with this region of cGAS.

Therefore, we posit that during persistent mtDNA stress and elevated ZBP1 expression, ZBP1

RHIM domains obscure the N-terminal NLS of cGAS, leading to cGAS entrapment in the cytosol

for sustained sensing of mtDNA. Our data revealing that a minimal RA+RB construct interacts

most strongly with the cGAS N-terminus and is sufficient to increase cytosolic cGAS intensity is

consistent with this hypothesis. However, our experiments cannot exclude that another protein or

a protein complex links ZBP1 to cGAS, and future experiments are required to define the ZBP1-

cGAS complexosome.

ZBP1 forms homotypic interactions with the RHIM domain-containing proteins RIPK1

and RIPK3 to mediate NF-κB activation and innate immune signaling, as well as promote RIPK3-

MLKL-dependent necroptosis (Kaiser et al., 2008; Kuriakose and Kanneganti, 2018). We

observed that ZBP1 and cGAS interact both endogenously and upon overexpression, although we

did not identify an obvious canonical or degenerate RHIM motif in cGAS. It is possible that the

ZBP1 RHIM domains interact with cGAS in a non-homotypic manner; however, our data cannot

exclude that a second RHIM containing protein bridges the ZBP1-cGAS complex. RIPK3 is a

likely candidate, as DNA sensing by cGAS can activate RIPK3 to trigger necroptosis (Brault et

al., 2018; Sarhan et al., 2019). Recently, ZBP1/RIPK1/RIPK3 was shown to induce a subset of

ISGs in cortical neurons during ZIKA virus infection (Daniels et al., 2019). ZIKA virus induces

mitochondrial damage (Ledur et al., 2020; Yau et al., 2021), and the closely related Dengue

flavivirus can trigger mtDNA release and promote cGAS-STING signaling (Aguirre et al., 2017;

Sun et al., 2017). Therefore, it is possible that RIPK1 and/or RIPK3 participate in the ZBP1-cGAS

complex and help sustain IFN-I signaling and ISG expression downstream of mitochondrial stress.

Although deletion of ZBP1 is sufficient to abrogate IFN-I responses in cells exhibiting mtDNA

instability, we found that ablation of MLKL does not blunt IFN-I responses in TFAM-deficient

cells. In contrast, loss of ZBP1 was sufficient to nearly abolish IFN-I responses in cells exhibiting

mtDNA instability. Thus, cGAS and ZBP1 form a novel complex and function cooperatively to

maintain the IFN-I program downstream of mtDNA release, independently of necroptotic cell

death and a feedforward release of cell-free mtDNA.

Our results also suggest that ZBP1 augments the enzymatic activity of cGAS in response

to mtDNA release, leading to elevated ISG expression. This is not altogether surprising, given that

ZBP1 RHIM-cGAS binding enhances the cytosolic localization of cGAS where it can more readily

sense liberated mtDNA. However, we observed that the ZBP1 DNA binding domains and cytosolic

DNA are also needed for the full binding of both proteins. Moreover, $\Delta Z\alpha 1Z\alpha 2$ mutants are unable

to potentiate cGAMP production after Doxo-induced mtDNA stress. This suggests that ZBP1 may

stabilize short fragments of cytosolic mtDNA and enhance or prolong detection by cGAS.

Alternatively, ZBP1 may promote cGAS dimerization by interacting with its N-terminus (Hooy

and Sohn, 2018) or alter the conformation of mtDNA fragments leading to promote cGAS

laddering (Andreeva et al., 2017). ZBP1 can also localize to GTPase-activating protein-(SH3

domain)–binding protein 1 (G3BP1) positive stress granules, and G3BP1 primes cGAS for

activation (Deigendesch et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2022). Follow-up biochemical studies are

required to clarify these possibilities and define the molecular basis of the ZBP1-cGAS-mtDNA

complex, which may lead to the development of novel compounds to inhibit IFN-I activation by

mtDNA in human disease.

Prior work has shown that the $Z\alpha$ domains of ZBP1 can bind and stabilize Z-form DNA

(Brown et al., 2000; Ha et al., 2008). Left-handed Z-DNA was identified in 1979 and is a higher

energy, and therefore less common, conformation than right-handed B-DNA (Herbert and Rich,

1996; Wang et al., 1979). This unique DNA conformation is more resistant to nuclease degradation

and was shown to be more immunogenic/antigenic than B-DNA (Ravichandran et al., 2019).

Recently, extracellular Z-DNA was revealed as a structural component of the bacterial biofilm

matrix that functions to stabilize biofilms from nuclease degradation, thus impairing innate

immunity and promoting infection (Buzzo et al., 2021). Other studies have linked intracellular Z-

DNA in various human diseases including cancer, neurodegeneration, and autoimmunity

(Ravichandran et al., 2019; Wang and Vasquez, 2007). Interestingly, G-C rich DNA with the

propensity to form Z-DNA is elevated in the serum of patients with systemic lupus erythematosus

(SLE) (Helden, 1985).   Moreover, anti-Z-DNA antibodies have been observed in patients with

SLE and rheumatoid arthritis (RA) (Lafer et al., 1983; Sibley et al., 1984; Suram et al., 2002), as

well as in Lupus-prone, MRL/lpr mice (Bergen et al., 1987). These observations strongly link Z-

DNA to IFN-I-mediated autoimmune disease; however, the upstream signals that provoke Z-DNA

formation and the cellular sources of Z-DNA remain unclear. Computational analysis has revealed

that sequences in the noncoding displacement loop (D-loop) region of mtDNA are competent to

form Z-DNA (Oliveira et al., 2013). Our prior work revealed that the most abundant cytosolic

mtDNA sequences in TFAM-deficient cells are derived from the D-Loop (West et al., 2015).

Therefore, we propose that pharmacological or genetic induction of mtDNA stress increases

mitochondrial Z-DNA formation and cytosolic release. Interestingly, we noted that hydralazine,

an anti-hypertensive drug that stabilizes Z-DNA and induces Lupus-like disease in 5-10% of

patients, robustly stabilized mitochondrial Z-DNA in TFAM-deficient cells. Moreover,

hydralazine treatment increased IFN-I responses only in presence of ZBP1. These data provide

further evidence that mitochondrial Z-DNA is immunostimulatory, and they suggest that high

levels of ZBP1 serve to stabilize mitochondrial Z-DNA and/or brings it into a complex with cGAS

to potentiate cGAMP production and sustain IFN-I responses. Future research is warranted to

define the precise Z-DNA sequences in the mitochondrial genome and to clarify how the ZBP1-

cGAS complex is uniquely tuned to sense this mitochondrial alarmin.

Anthracycline chemotherapeutics, such as Doxo, are among the most effective and widely

used antineoplastic drugs, however their clinical application is limited by adverse cardiac side

effects that occur in many patients (Henriksen, 2018). The molecular mechanisms responsible for

DIC remain elusive, although recent evidence suggests CM-specific Doxo-topoisomerase 2 beta

(Top2β) cleavage complexes induce DNA damage leading to mitochondrial dysfunction and

reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation (Zhang et al., 2012). This is hypothesized to trigger a

self-propagating cycle of ROS and mitochondrial oxidative damage that continues after Doxo

therapy ends and ultimately leads to CM cell death, cardiac remodeling, and heart failure (Lebrecht

et al., 2003). Persistent mitochondrial dysfunction may also synergize with other maladaptive

responses, such as inflammation, to accelerate cardiac damage. We have uncovered that Doxo

induces hallmark mtDNA instability iPSC-CMs and triggers a robust IFN-I signature in CMs and

murine hearts that is dependent on ZBP1, STING, and IFNAR. Expanding on transcriptional

profiling data, we employed a Doxo dosing protocol that more closely resembles clinical timelines

in late DIC. Using this protocol, we observe that ZBP1 and other IFN-I-dependent ISGs remain

elevated in the heart for seven weeks after the last Doxo dose, suggestive of a self-propagating

IFN-I cycle. Moreover, ZBP1, STING, and IFNAR knockout mice are significantly protected from

DIC and display marked improvements in multiple longitudinal echocardiographic measures of

LV function and cardiac output. Finally, mutant mice exhibit reduced cardiomyocyte damage,

cardiac fibrosis, mtDNA damage, and mitochondrial dysfunction. Taken together, we conclude

that the ZBP1-cGAS axis is a key sentinel of cardiac mtDNA stress and Z-DNA, which propagates

cardiotoxic IFN-I responses and enhances cardiac remodeling and heart failure after Doxo

exposure.

IFNα is an FDA-approved immunotherapy for malignant melanoma, AIDS-related

Kaposi's sarcoma, follicular lymphoma, and hairy cell leukemia. IFNα may also be combined with

traditional chemotherapies such as cisplatin, fluorouracil, and Doxo for the treatment of malignant

mesothelioma, unresectable hepatocellular carcinoma, and renal cell carcinoma (Kuwata et al.,

2002; Parra et al., 2001; Yeo et al., 2005). However, as with other chemo- and immunotherapies,

noted cardiac side effects limit the clinical utility of IFNα. In fact, multiple case reports have linked

IFNα immunotherapy to cardiomyopathy and other serious cardiac complications (Angulo et al.,

1999; Benjamini et al., 2007; Khakoo et al., 2005; Kuwata et al., 2002; Zhao et al., 2014;

Zimmerman et al., 1994). Notably, two studies reported significant cardiac dysfunction in patients

who received both Doxo chemotherapy and IFNα (Benjamini et al., 2007; Zimmerman et al.,

1994). Moreover, a study of 15 metastatic melanoma patients treated with high dose IFNα revealed

that 44% exhibited myocardial injury, with biopsies showing significant interstitial edema, CM

vacuolization, mitochondrial swelling, and loss of cristae (Kruit et al., 1994). Collectively, these

studies link IFN-I to myocardial dysfunction, but the mechanisms by which IFNα causes

cardiomyopathy and how it synergizes with Doxo to promote DIC remain open questions of high

clinical significance. Surprisingly, we find that CMs are exquisitely sensitive to interferon, and we

observe that prolonged treatment of iPSC-CMs with recombinant IFN-I enhances the expression

of cardiac damage genes and induces changes in beat rate. Moreover, exposure of CMs to IFN-I

is sufficient to reduce expression of mtDNA-encoded OXPHOS transcripts. These data are

consistent with earlier reports showing that elevated IFN-I signaling represses mtDNA

transcription and OXPHOS activity (Lei et al., 2021), and highlight the novel finding that Doxo

impairs mitochondrial function in CMs and cardiac tissue through elevated and sustained IFN-I

signaling. Moreover, we substantiate findings in non-tumor bearing mice and reveal that adjuvant

IFNα therapy synergizes with Doxo to enhance cardiac dysfunction in a physiologically relevant,

autochthonous model of melanoma. We reveal that IFNα significantly potentiates DIC by

exacerbating mitochondrial dysfunction, increasing fibrosis, and reducing cardiac output,

providing new insight into the cardiotoxic mechanisms of type I interferon.

Our in vitro and in vivo evidence collectively suggest that Doxo-induced mtDNA damage

triggers the ZBP1-STING-dependent production of IFN-I in cardiac cells and tissues, which in

turn drives a feed-forward loop of mitochondrial dysfunction that contributes to cardiac

remodeling and failure. Cardiac complications are frequently associated with both inherited

mitochondrial disorders and autoimmune diseases such type I interferonopathies and Lupus (Crow

et al., 2015; Frazier et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2017; Meyers et al., 2013). Recently, mutations in the

mtDNA maintenance factor ATAD3A have been demonstrated to cause a novel type I

interferonopathy characterized by mtDNA release and enhanced cGAS-STING signaling

(Lepelley et al., 2021b). Cardiac failure has been observed in some patients with ATAD3-mediated

mitochondrial disease, as well as other interferonopathies (Crow and Stetson, 2021; Frazier et al.,

2021; Lei et al., 2021; Lepelley et al., 2021b, 2021a). Our data raises the interesting possibility

that persistent ZBP1-cGAS signaling and elevated IFN-I responses in CMs may directly promote

heart failure in mitochondrial diseases and interferonopathies characterized by mtDNA stress and

release. mtDNA-driven cGAS-STING activation is also linked to IFN-I-mediated

immunopathology in COVID-19 (Di Domizio et al., 2022). Clinical manifestations of SARS-CoV-

2 infected individuals include acute cardiac damage as well as long-term cardiovascular sequelae

in both hospitalized and non-hospitalized individuals, yet the underlying mechanisms are largely

unknown (Long et al., 2020; Nalbandian et al., 2021; Xie et al., 2022). Our findings warrant the

consideration of cardiac mitochondrial damage and mtDNA release as a trigger of cGAS- and

possibly ZBP1-dependent IFN-I responses in myocarditis and other cardiac pathology in COVID-

19.

In conclusion, we have uncovered ZBP1 as a key sensor of mtDNA stress that works

cooperatively with cGAS to sustain IFN-I responses in vitro and in vivo. Mechanistically, ZBP1

increases the cytosolic to nuclear cGAS ratio and amplifies cGAS activity in response to mtDNA

stress, likely via its ability to sense cytosolic Z-form DNA. Recent evidence has linked cGAS and

IFN-I to heart failure (Chen et al., 2019; King et al., 2017; Oka et al., 2012), yet a role for ZBP1

has not been explored. Our findings in two clinically relevant animal models 1) indicate the

presence of a previously uncharacterized IFN-I signaling program in cardiac cells and tissues

exposed to Doxo; 2) connect ZBP1-cGAS cytosolic DNA sensing to Doxo-induced IFN-I

responses in vivo; and 3) support the novel premise that the ZBP1-cGAS-IFNAR axis is a key

innate immune regulator of cardiotoxicity and heart dysfunction following Doxo chemotherapy.

ZBP1 may therefore represent a novel therapeutic target in chemotherapy-related cardiac

dysfunction, as well as other cardiovascular disorders where mtDNA stress sustains disease-

promoting IFN-I and inflammatory responses.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Y.L. and A.P.W. designed the experiments, analyzed the data, and wrote the manuscript. Y.L.

carried out most of the in vivo and in vitro assays, performed statistical analysis, and generated

figures. A.P.W. processed the RNA-Seq data and performed bioinformatic analyses. J.J.V. assisted

with molecular, biochemical, and immunofluorescence assays. Y.C. assisted with transcriptional

analysis of hiPSC-CMs and animal experiments. J.D.B. assisted with in vivo Doxo challenges.

K.B.R. and J.W.U. provided ZBP1 plasmids and advised on in vitro ZBP1 assays. C.W.T. provided

expertise and advice on cardiac measurements. L.C.W. performed melanoma induction and tumor

monitoring. P.L. provided expertise and reagents on cGAS studies. M.W.B. provided the inducible

melanoma model and advice on tumor induction and monitoring. G.S.S. provided the *Tfam*$^{+/-}$

mouse model and provided guidance on mtDNA assays. A.P.W. conceived the project and

provided overall supervision. All authors read and approved the manuscript.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

DATA AVAILABILITY

All data needed to evaluate the conclusions drawn herein are present in the paper and/or the

Extended Data figures. Raw data will be provided upon request. RNA-Seq datasets will be

deposited to GEO upon acceptance of the manuscript.

METHOD DETAILS

Mouse strains

C57BL/6J (strain 000664), *Sting*$^{-/-}$ (*Sting1*^{gt}; strain 017537) and *Ifnar1*$^{-/-}$ (MMRRC Strain

#032045-JAX) mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory. *Mavs*$^{-/-}$ (strain 008634) mice

were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory and were backcrossed onto the C57BL/6J

background for 10 generations before use. *Tfam*$^{+/-}$ mice were previously reported (West et al.,

2015; Wu et al., 2019). *Zbp1*$^{-/-}$ mice (Ishii et al., 2008) were obtained collaboratively from Dr. Ken

Ishii. Breeding colonies of all strains were established and maintained on a pure C57BL/6J

background at Texas A&M University. Mice were group-housed in humidity-controlled

environments maintained at 22 °C on 12-hour light–dark cycles (600–1800). Food and water were

available ad libitum. All animal procedures were approved by the Texas A&M Animal Care and

Use Committee (TAMU IACUC) (Animal Use Protocol (AUP) 2017–0124). The euthanasia

methods employed in the study are consistent with the recommendations of the American

Veterinary Medical Association (AVMA).

Reagents

Doxorubicin (Adriamycin) HCl (S1208, Selleck Chemicals); Hydralazine Hydrochloride (H1289,

Spectrum); ISD (tlrl-isdn), poly(dA:dT) (tlrl-patn), poly(dG:dC) (tlrl-pgcn) (InvivoGen);

polyethylenimine, PEI (43896, Alfa Aesar); Human IFN Alpha Hybrid Protein (11200-1, PBL

Assay Science); Recombinant Human IFN-beta Protein (8499-IF-010), Recombinant Mouse IFN-

beta Protein (8234-MB-010) (R&D Systems); Recombinant Mouse IFN-α (752806, Biolegend);

*InVivo*Plus mouse IgG1 isotype control (BP0083), *InVivo*MAb anti-mouse IFNAR-1 (BE0241)

(Bio X Cell); 4-Hydroxytamoxifen (HB6040, hellobio); 2'3'-cGAMP ELISA Kit (501700,

Cayman); LDH Cytotoxicity Detection Kit (MK401, TaKaRa).

Cell culture

Primary WT, *Tfam*$^{+/-}$, *Zbp1*$^{-/-}$, and *Tfam*$^{+/-}$*Zbp1*$^{-/-}$ MEFs were generated from E12.5–14.5

embryos, maintained in DMEM (D5796, Sigma-Aldrich) supplemented with 10% FBS (97068-

085, VWR), and sub-cultured no more than five passages before experiments. Murine neonatal

cardiomyocytes were isolated from 2-3 day old neonates with Neonatal Cardiomyocyte Isolation

Kit (130-098-373, Miltenyi Biotec). Human iPSC-derived cardiomyocytes were purchased from

Fujifilm Cellular Dynamics (R1117) and cultured as described in the manual. 293FT was

purchased from Invitrogen (R70007), and COS-7 was purchased from ATCC (CRL-1651). siRNA

transfection was performed with 25 nM siRNA duplexes (Integrated DNA Techonologies) and 3

μL of Lipofectamine RNAiMAX reagent (13778150, ThermoFisher Scientific) according to the

manufacturer's protocol. DNA transfection was performed with Lipofectamine 2000 (11668019,

ThermoFisher Scientific) at a ratio of 2:1 Lipofectamine 2000 to nucleic acid according to the

manufacturer's protocol. All siRNA sequences used for transfection can be found in Table 1.

Cloning and retroviral transduction

Murine STING-His (InvivoGen) was subcloned into the pMXs-IRES-Puro vector and replication

incompetent retroviruses were packaged using Platinum-A cells (Cell Biolabs, RV-102) according

to the manufacturer's instructions. 293FT were exposed to supernatants containing pMXs-IRES-

Blast-STING-His retroviruses and 4 μg/mL polybrene (TR-1003-G, Millipore). Two days post

transduction, 10 μg/mL blasticidin was added to select a stable expression population.

Supernatants containing pWZL-hTERT-IRES-Blast retroviruses and 4 μg/mL polybrene were

incubated with human fibroblast (SCRC-1041, ATCC). Two days post transduction, 3 μg/mL

blasticidin was added to select a stable expression population. Mouse ZBP1 FL, $\Delta Z\alpha 1$, $\Delta Z\alpha 1 Z\alpha 2$,

mRA, mRB and ΔC plasmids were previous described (Sridharan et al., 2017). All primer

sequences used for cloning in this study can be found in Table 2.

Co-immunoprecipitation

For Figures 2E and 2F, MEFs were treated with 10 ng/mL of mouse IFNβ for 6 hrs or in 50 nM

of Doxo for 48 hrs, respectively, before co-IP. The cytosolic fraction was obtained by lysing the

cells with NP-40 lysis buffer (50 mM Tris pH7.5, 0.15 M NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1% NP-40 and 10%

Glycerol), and nuclear fraction was acquired using Nuclear Complex co-IP kit (54001, Active

Motif), which allows a gentle release of DNA-bound protein complexes in the nucleus. Rabbit

TrueBlot® Set (88-1688-31, Rockland) was used for both pre-cleaning and co-IP from both

fractions. For co-IPs of cGAS and ZBP1 constructs in 293FT (Figures 2H, 2I, 2J, 3I and S2G,

S2H), Pierce™ Control Agarose Resin (26150, ThermoFisher Scientific) and Anti-DYKDDDDK

Tag (L5) Affinity Gel Antibody (651502, Biolegend) are used for pre-cleaning and IP, respectively.

Due to different subcellular localizations of cGAS mutants, the cytosolic fraction and nuclear

fraction were obtained as described above, combined and then used for co-IPs of cGAS mutants

and ZBP1 in 293FT (Figures S4G and S4H). To degrade cytosolic DNA in Figure 3H-I before co-

IP, samples were treated with 10 U/μL of benzonase (71205-3, Millipore) and incubated at 4 °C

for 4 hrs. BSA was added to the samples that were not treated with benzonase to even protein

concentration. 20 μL of sample was separated and the benzonase was inactivated by adding 0.5 μL

of 0.5 M EDTA and heating to 95 °C for 15 min. 10 ng/µL DNA from this portion was used in

qPCR to amplify mtDNA using primers against mt-ND1.

Subcellular fractionation, DNA isolation and slot blotting

3×10^6 MEFs were seeded in 15 cm dishes overnight and treated with vehicle or 500 nM of Doxo

for 24 hrs. Subcellular fractionation and DNA isolation were performed as previously described

(Bryant et al., 2022). In brief, cells were lysed in digitonin lysis buffer (150 mM NaCl, 50 mM

HEPES pH 7.4, and 5 µg/mL digitonin), incubated end over end for 10 min at 4 °C, and centrifuged

at 950 x g for 5 min at 4 °C. The cytosolic supernatants were transferred into a new tube and saved

as cytosolic fraction, and the pellets were lysed in NP-40 lysis buffer (50 mM Tris pH 7.5, 0.15 M

NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1% NP-40 and 10% Glycerol). After centrifugation of NP-40 lysates at 21130

x g for 10 min at 4 °C, the supernatants were transferred and saved as mitochondrial fraction, and

the nuclei pellets were further lysed in and SDS lysis buffer (20 mM Tris pH 8 and 1% SDS). SDS

lysates were boiled at 95 °C for 5 min and centrifuged at 21130 x g for 5 min at RT. The

supernatants were transferred and saved as nuclear fraction. All fractions were treated with 50

µg/mL of RNase A for 1.5 hrs at 37 °C and 200 µg/mL of Proteinase K for 1 h at 55 °C before

being subjected to Phenol-Chloroform based DNA isolation. After DNA isolation, 200 µg of

cytosolic DNA, 1 mg of mitochondrial DNA and 50 µg of nuclear DNA were blotted onto 0.45

µm Nylon membranes (10416230, Whatman). After air drying, membranes were incubated in

primary antibodies at 4 °C overnight in 1X PBS containing 1% casein, HRP-conjugated secondary

antibody at room temperature for 1 h, and then developed with Luminata Crescendo Western HRP

Substrate (WBLUR0500, Millipore).

Quantitative PCR

To measure relative gene expression by qRT–PCR in cells and tissues, total cellular RNA was isolated using Quick-RNA microprep kit (R1051, Zymo Research). Approximately 0.5-1 μg RNA was isolated, and cDNA was generated using the qScript cDNA Synthesis Kit (95047-100, Quanta). cDNA was then subjected to qPCR using PerfeCTa SYBR Green FastMix (84069, Quanta). Technical triplicates were run each biological sample, and average expression values were normalized against *Rpl37* cDNA using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method (Bryant et al., 2022). For mtDNA abundance assessment, 10 ng/μL of template DNA was used for qPCR, and expression values of each replicate were normalized against nuclear-encoded *Tert or RNA18S* (Bryant et al., 2022). All primer sequences used for qRT-PCR and qPCR can be found in Table 3 and 4.

Immunoblotting

Cells and tissues were lysed in NP-40 lysis buffer or SDS lysis buffer supplemented with protease inhibitor (04693159001, Roche) and then centrifuged at 4 °C to obtain cellular lysate. After BCA protein assay (23235, ThermoFisher Scientific), equal amounts of protein (10–40 μg) were loaded into 10-20% SDS–PAGE gradient gels and transferred onto 0.22 μM PVDF membranes (1620177, Bio-Rad). After air drying to return to a hydrophobic state, membranes were incubated in primary antibodies at 4 °C overnight in 1X PBS containing 1% casein, HRP-conjugated secondary antibody at room temperature for 1 h, and then developed with Luminata Crescendo Western HRP Substrate (WBLUR0500, Millipore). All antibodies used for Immunoblotting can be found in Table 5. For cGAS quantifications in Figures 2D, S2B and S2E, cytosolic cGAS expression was normalized to GAPDH, and nuclear cGAS was normalized to LMNB1. These normalized values were used to

calculate the percentage of cGAS in the cytosolic (cytosolic cGAS/ total cGAS) and nuclear

(nuclear cGAS/ total cGAS) compartments.

Immunofluorescence microscopy

Cells were grown on coverslips and treated as described. After washing in PBS, cells were fixed

with 4% paraformaldehyde for 20 min, permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS for 5 min,

blocked with PBS containing 5% FBS for 30 min, stained with primary antibodies for 1 h, and

stained with secondary antibodies for 1 h . Cells were washed with PBS containing 5% FBS

between each step. Coverslips were exposed to 200 ng/mL DAPI (62247, ThermoFisher Scientific)

for 2 min to label nuclei, then mounted with ProLong Diamond Antifade Mountant (P36961,

Invitrogen) and sealed with clear nail polish. For experiments requiring cytosolic signal

quantification, HSC CellMask Green (H32714, Invitrogen) was added to coverslips at 2 μg/mL

for 30 min, then washed several times in PBS, before DAPI staining. For Figure 4A, SYTOX

(MP33025, Invitrogen) was added to coverslips at 0.17 μM for 15 min, then washed in PBS. For

Figure 1F, images were acquired on a LSM 780 confocal microscope (Zeiss) with a 40x oil-

immersed objective and ZEN 3.3 software. For Figures 1E, 2A, 3A, 4A, 4B, 4E, 5A and S1M,

images were acquired on an ECLIPSE Ti2 (Nikon) with a 60x oil-immersed objective and NIS-

Elements AR 5.21.02 software. Representative images shown in Figures 1E, 2A, 4A-B, 4E, 5A

and S1M were imported into Huygens Essential software (v21.4.0) and deconvolved using the

'aggressive' profile in the Deconvolution Express application. Fluorescence intensity profiles in

Figures 2A and 3A were obtained from the NIS .nd2 files using the intensity analysis tool in NIS-

Elements AR 5.21.02. In Figures 2B, 3B and S3A, the nuclear cGAS intensity in each cell was

quantified within the DAPI positive area, and cytosolic cGAS intensity per cell was quantified in

the CellMask positive area minus the DAPI positive area. In Figures 4C and 4F, the non-nuclear

Z-DNA intensity per cell (cytosolic plus mitochondrial) was calculated from the CellMask positive

area minus the DAPI positive area. Z-DNA signals colocalizing with TOMM20 signals were

quantified as mitochondrial Z-DNA, while the remaining non-nuclear Z-DNA staining was

quantified as cytosolic Z-DNA. cGAS and Cellular Z-DNA intensity were quantified from

Nikon .nd2 files using NIS-Elements AR 5.21.02. All antibodies used for Immunofluorescence

microscopy can be found in Table 5.

Doxorubicin administration

Male and female mice between 8-10 weeks of age housed in a standard 12-hour light/dark cycle

with unlimited access to food and water. Doxorubicin stock solution (10 mg/mL) was prepared in

cell culture grade water (82007-330, VWR) and used within 28 days. Further dilutions were made

in DPBS (D8537, Sigma-Aldrich) on the day of injection. Intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection of

Doxorubicin (5 mg/kg body weight, 100 µL injection volume) was performed weekly for four

continuous weeks (cumulative dose 20 mg/kg body weight).

Mouse melanoma induction, Doxorubicin and adjuvant IFNα therapy

An autochthonous model of melanoma was utilized in Figures 6, and melanomas were induced on

21-day old mice as described in Dankort et al. 2009 (Dankort et al., 2009). First, mice were

anesthetized by isoflurane, then a commercial topical depilatory cream was applied to remove hair

from a 2 centimeter squared region on the lower dorsal region of mice approximately 2 centimeters

from the base of the tail. The next day, mice were anesthetized with isoflurane and 1 µL of a 20

mM solution of 4-hydroxytamoxifen dissolved in ethanol was applied topically to the exposed skin.

Four weeks after melanoma induction, hair was removed from the lower dorsal region of the mice

using hair trimmers to allow confirmation of tumor induction and monitoring of tumor growth.

Tumors were measured for width, length, and height every 2-4 days using digital calipers in order

to calculate tumor volume. Mice received vehicle (PBS) or Doxorubicin (5 mg/kg body weight,

100 μL i.p. injection volume) weekly for four consecutive weeks (cumulative dose 20 mg/kg body

weight). Adjuvant IFNα (20,000 units) was co-administrated together with Doxorubicin in a total

volume of 100 μL or diluted with PBS in a total volume of 50 μL and i.p. injected alone as

indicated in Figure 6B.

Echocardiography

Mice were depilated at the chest area the day before echocardiography measurements. Anesthesia

was induced by placing mice in a box with inhaled isoflurane at 2-3%. Afterwards, light anesthesia

was maintained using a nose cone with inhaled isoflurane at 0.5-1%. Mice were immobilized on a

heated stage, and continuous electric cardiogram (ECG), respiration, and temperature (via rectal

probe) were monitored. Light anesthesia and core temperature were maintained to ensure near

physiological status with heart rate at range of 470-520 beats per minute. Transthoracic

echocardiography was performed using a VisualSonics Vevo 3100 system with a MX550D

imaging transducer (center frequency of 40MHz). Parasternal long-axis (B-mode) and parasternal

short-axis (M-mode) views of each animal were taken. Vevo LAB cardiac analysis package was

used to analyze the data.

Histology

Mice were euthanized and tissues were washed in PBS and incubated for 24 h in 10% formalin

and then transferred to 70% ethanol. Tissue embedding, sectioning, and staining were performed

at AML Laboratories in St. Augustine, FL. Images of the H&E staining slides were acquired on

ECLIPSE Ts2 (Nikon) with a 20x or 40x objective. Blinded scoring of 9 independent fields of

view from 6 hearts per genotype and treatment was performed to determine percent of

cardiomyocytes exhibiting vacuolization post-Doxo. Collagen area was quantified using ImageJ.

RNA sequencing and bioinformatic analyses

Total cellular RNA from WT, $Tfam^{+/-}$, $Zbp1^{-/-}$ and $Tfam^{+/-}Zbp1^{-/-}$ MEFs was prepared using Quick-

RNA microprep kit (R1051, Zymo Research) and used for the Next-generation RNA sequencing

procedure at Texas A&M University Bioinformatics Core. RNA sequencing data were analyzed

using BaseSpace Sequence Hub (Illmina). In brief, STAR algorithm of RNAseq Alignment V2.0.0

software was utilized to align the results to reference genome Mus musculus/mm10 (RefSeq), then

RNA-seq Differential Expression V1.0.0 software was used to obtain raw gene expression files

and determine statistically significant changes in gene expression in $Tfam^{+/-}$, $Zbp1^{-/-}$ and $Tfam^{+/-}$

$Zbp1^{-/-}$ MEFs relative to WT. Heat maps were generated using GraphPad Prism. For Figures 5B,

5C and S4A, GSE40289 and GSE79413 datasets from the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) were

analyzed using Gene Set Enrichment Analysis software (Broad Institute) to identify differentially

regulated pathways, Set Comparison Appyter (Clarke et al., 2021) and Enrichr (Chen et al., 2013;

Kuleshov et al., 2016; Xie et al., 2021) to identify the interactions between datasets and

overlapping genes, or Ingenuity Pathway Analysis software (QIAGEN) to identify putative

upstream regulators and STING target genes in the datasets. Additional raw and analyzed datasets

will be deposited into the NCBI GEO upon acceptance of the manuscript.

Statistical analyses

Error bars displayed throughout the manuscript represent standard error of the mean (s.e.m.) and

were calculated from triplicates unless otherwise indicated. For ex vivo experiments, error bars

were calculated from the average of duplicate or triplicate technical replicates of at least 5 animals

per point. For microscopy quantification, images were taken throughout the slide of each sample

using the DAPI channel to avoid bias of selection. To reduce potential experimental bias, samples

for cardiac function (EF, FS, IVS;s, LVID;s, LVPW;s, LVPW;d and LV mass) and histological

analyses were blinded to researchers when performing analysis. The identities were only revealed

at the final data analysis stage. No randomization or blinding was used for all other animal studies.

No statistical method was used to predetermine sample size. Data shown are representative of at

least 3 independent experiments, including microscopy images, western blots, gene expression

analyses and all other cellular assays.

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Figure 1. ZBP1 is strongly induced by mtDNA stress and is essential to sustain mtDNA-

mediated IFN-I responses, independently of cell death. A, Heatmaps of RNA-seq data

displaying the most up-regulated ISGs in WT, *Tfam*^{+/-}, *Zbp1*^{-/-} and *Tfam*^{+/-}*Zbp1*^{-/-} MEFs. Fold

changes (FC) are normalized to the average of WT MEFs. **B, C,** qRT-PCR analysis (n = 3) (**B**)

and western blots (**C**) of ISGs in resting WT, *Tfam*^{+/-}, *Zbp1*^{-/-} and *Tfam*^{+/-}*Zbp1*^{-/-} MEFs. **D,** qRT-

PCR analysis (n = 3) of ISGs in Interferon Stimulatory DNA (ISD) transfected (2 µg/mL, 6 h) WT,

Tfam^{+/-}, *Zbp1*^{-/-} and *Tfam*^{+/-}*Zbp1*^{-/-} MEFs. **E,** Representative images of WT, *Tfam*^{+/-}, *Zbp1*^{-/-} and

Tfam^{+/-}*Zbp1*^{-/-} MEFs stained with anti-DNA, -HSP60 and -TFAM antibodies. Inset panels are

magnified 4X. **F,** Representative confocal microscopy images of WT MEFs treated with vehicle

or Doxo (500 nM, 24 h) and stained with anti-DNA and -HSP60 antibodies. Inset panels are

magnified 4X. **G,** qPCR analysis (n = 3) of mtDNA abundance in cytosolic (Cyto.) and

mitochondrial (Mito.) fraction from vehicle or Doxo treated WT MEFs. **H,** Western blots of ISGs

in Doxo (48h) treated MEFs. **I, J,** qRT-PCR (n = 3) (**I**) and western blots (**J**) of ISGs in WT and

Zbp1^{-/-} MEFs treated with or without Doxo (50 nM, 48 h). **K,** qRT-PCR analysis (n = 3) of ISGs

in WT, *Ifnar*^{-/-} and *Mavs*^{-/-} MEFs treated with or without Doxo (500 nM, 24h). **L,** Western blots of

ISGs in WT and *Tfam*^{+/-} MEFs transfected with siCtrl and si*Mlkl* for 96 h. **M,** LDH assay (n = 3)

showing cytotoxicity in WT and *Tfam*^{+/-} MEFs after 8 h of TNFα (25 ng/mL) + z-VAD-FMK

(zVAD) (50 µM) + cycloheximide (CHX) (5 µg/mL) treatment. **N,** LDH assay (n = 3) showing

cytotoxicity in WT and *Zbp1*^{-/-} MEFs after 48 h of 500 nM Doxo treatment. Statistical significance

was determined using analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey post hoc test (**B, D, I**), or unpaired

t-test (**G, K, M, N**). *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, and ***P < 0.001. Error bars represent SEM.

Figure 2. ZBP1 directly interacts with cGAS and is required for cytoplasmic relocalization in response to mtDNA stress. A, B, Representative images of human skin fibroblasts (HFF) transfected with Ctrl or *TFAM* siRNA for 72 h and stained with anti-cGAS and -HSP60 antibodies and DAPI (**A**). Inset panels are magnified 4X. Fluorescent intensity profiles of DAPI (red) and cGAS (green) along the white arrows are shown in the histogram. Cytosolic (Cyto.) and nuclear (Nuc.) fractions of cGAS are quantified in (**B**) (n ≥ 20 fields for each siRNA treatment). AU, arbitrary unit. **C, D,** Western blots of the cGAS and ZBP1 subcellular localizations in WT, *Tfam*$^{+/-}$, *Zbp1*$^{-/-}$ and *Tfam*$^{+/-}$*Zbp1*$^{-/-}$MEFs (**C**). Percentages of Cyto. and Nuc. cGAS are quantified in (**D**) (n = 3 different MEF lines of each genotype were used for quantification). **E,** Endogenous cytosolic and nuclear co-immunoprecipitations (co-IP) from WT and *Tfam*$^{+/-}$ MEFs with or without mouse IFNβ (mIFNβ) treatment (10 ng/mL, 6 h). **F,** Cytosolic and nuclear co-immunoprecipitation in WT MEFs with or without Doxo (50 nM, 48 h). **G,** Schematic representation of the mouse ZBP1 full-length (FL), truncations and mutants used in **H-J**. **H-J,** co-IP showing interactions between mouse cGAS and mouse ZBP1 FL, truncations or mutants in 293FT. SE, short exposure; LE, long exposure. **K,** Interaction model of ZBP1 and cGAS indicating the RHIM domain of ZBP1 interacting with N-terminus of cGAS. Statistical significance was determined using unpaired t-test (**B**), or analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey post hoc test (**D**). *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, and ***$P < 0.001$. Error bars represent SEM.

Figure 3. The RHIM and Z-DNA binding domains of ZBP1 are required for full activation of cGAS in response to mtDNA stress. A, B, Representative images of COS-7 cells expressing indicated proteins and stained with anti-HA and -FLAG antibodies and DAPI (**A**). Fluorescent intensity profiles of DAPI (blue), HA (red) and FLAG (green) along the white arrows are shown in the histogram. Cytosolic cGAS-HA intensity is quantified in (**B**) (n ≥ 30 fields for each group. AU, arbitrary unit). **C,** Schematic illustration of plasmid transfection and Doxo treatment in 293FT-STING cells used in **D**. **D,** qRT-PCR analysis (n = 3) of ISGs in 293FT-STING transfected with indicated plasmids (0.4 μg/mL cGAS, 0.8 μg/mL ZBP1 or equivalent amount of empty vector) and with or without Doxo (200 nM) treatment. **E,** Schematic illustration of plasmid transfection and Doxo treatment in 293FT used in **F**. **F,** Fold change of cGAMP production in Doxo (200 nM)-treated, cGAS (0.4 μg/mL)- and ZBP1 (or empty vector, 0.8 μg/mL)-expressing 293FT compared to vehicle treated cells (n = 10). **G,** Schematic illustration of co-IP method used in **I**. **H,** qPCR analysis (n = 3) of mt-Nd1 abundance in cell lysates from **I**. RFU, relative fluorescent unit. **I,** co-IP between mouse cGAS and mouse ZBP1 in 293FT with or without benzonase treatment. **J,** Interaction model of ZBP1 and cGAS indicating the RHIM domain of ZBP1 interacting with N-terminus of cGAS, and DNA bridges the interaction. Statistical significance was determined using analysis of variance (ANOVA) (**H**) and Tukey (**B, D**), or Dunnett (**F**) post hoc test. *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, and ***$P < 0.001$. Error bars represent SEM.

Figure 4. mtDNA stress promotes the accumulation and release of mitochondrial Z-form

DNA that potentiates IFN-I responses. A, Representative images of WT MEFs transfected with

polyethylenimine (PEI) complexed Poly (dA:dT) (B-DNA) or Poly (dG:dC) (Z-DNA) and stained

with anti-Z-DNA antibody and SYTOX. Inset panels are magnified 2.5X. **B, C,** Representative

images of WT MEFs transfected with siCtrl or si*Tfam* for 72 h, treated with or without Hydralazine

(100 μM) and stained with anti-Z-DNA and -TOMM20 antibodies (**B**). Inset panels are magnified

4X. Cytosolic (Cyto.) and mitochondrial (Mito.) Z-DNA fluorescent intensities are quantified in

(**C**) (n ≥ 20 fields for each group). **D,** qRT-PCR analysis (n = 3) of ISGs in WT and *Zbp1*$^{-/-}$ MEFs

transfected with siCtrl or si*Tfam* for 72 h and treated with or without Hydralazine (100 μM) for 24

h. **E, F,** Representative images of WT MEFs treated with vehicle or Doxo and stained with anti-

Z-DNA and -TOMM20 antibodies (**E**). Cyto. and Mito. Z-DNA fluorescent intensities are

quantified in (**F**). (n ≥ 20 fields for each group). **G,** Schematic illustration of DNA extraction and

transfection from different subcellular pools in **I-J**. **H,** Slot blots of Poly (dA:dT) (B-DNA) or Poly

(dG:dC) (Z-DNA) with anti-Z-DNA or anti-DNA antibody. **I,** Slot blots of cytosolic,

mitochondrial, and nuclear DNA isolated from WT MEFs treated with vehicle or Doxo. **J,** qRT-

PCR analysis (n = 3) of ISGs in primary mouse fibroblasts transfected with cytosolic,

mitochondrial or nuclear DNA. Statistical significance was determined using analysis of variance

(ANOVA) and Tukey (**C**) or Šídák (**D, J**) post hoc test, or unpaired t-test (**F**). *P < 0.05, **P <

0.01, and ***P < 0.001. Error bars represent SEM.

Figure 5. Doxorubicin chemotherapy induces mtDNA stress and IFN-I responses in cardiac

cells in vitro and in vivo. A, Representative images of human induced pluripotent stem cell-

derived cardiomyocytes (hiPSC-CMs) treated with vehicle or Doxo and stained with anti-DNA, -

TFAM and -PDH antibodies and DAPI. Inset panels are magnified 7X. **B,** Volcano plots of the

Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) showing the differentially regulated pathways in 3 datasets:

adult mouse hearts challenged with 25 mg/kg Doxo for 16 or 72 h vs saline controls, and hiPSC-

CMs treated with 1 μM Doxo for 24 h vs controls (NES = Normalized Enrichment Score; FDR =

False Discovery Rate). **C,** (left) Venn diagram of differentially expressed genes overlapping across

three datasets analyzed in **B**. The top 5 pathways identified from the 261 commonly expressed

genes from all three datasets (right). Shared gene lists from the top 3 pathways are shown (bottom).

D, qRT-PCR analysis (n = 3) of ISGs in Doxo (24h) treated hiPSC-CMs. **E,** qRT-PCR analysis (n

= 3) *Ifnb1* and ISGs in Doxo (250 nM) treated murine neonatal CMs. **F,** Western blots of ISGs in

Doxo (500 nM, 24h) or mouse IFNβ (1 ng/mL, 4 h) treated murine neonatal CMs. **G,** qRT-PCR

analysis (n = 3) of *Ifnb1* and ISGs in anti-IgG1 or -interferon receptor 1 (α-IFNAR) antibody-

blocked murine neonatal CMs exposing to mouse IFNβ or Doxo. CMs were pre-treated with anti-

IgG1 or -IFNAR antibody at 15 μg/mL for 5 h before subjecting to IFNβ (1 ng/mL, 4 h) or Doxo

(500 nM, 24h) treatment. **H,** Western blots of ISGs in Doxo (500 nM, 24h) treated WT, *Ifnar*^{-/-},

Sting^{-/-} and *Zbp1*^{-/-} murine neonatal CMs. Statistical significance was determined using unpaired

t-test (**D, E, G**). *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, and ***P < 0.001. Error bars represent SEM.

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Figure 6. Adjuvant IFNα synergizes with Doxorubicin to enhance cardiac and mitochondrial

dysfunction in tumor-bearing mice. A, Schematic illustration of melanoma induction. **B,**

Primary melanoma volume of each treated group measured every other week starting from 5 weeks

post 4OHT induction. Mice were i.p. injected with 5 mg/kg Doxo once a week for 4 weeks.

Recombinant mouse IFNα was administered twice weekly for 4 weeks via i.p. injection of 20,000

U per dose. **C,** Left ventricular EF, FS, and mass at week 4 were calculated from parasternal long

axis B-mode. (n = 5 per group). **D, E,** Representative parasternal long axis (**D**) and short axis (**E**)

images from each treatment at week 6 post vehivle, Doxo or Doxo+IFNα challenge. **F,**

Representative Picrosirius Red staining images of heart sections from vehicle-, Doxo- and

Doxo+IFNα treat melanoma mice. Collagen area of each group are quantified and shown at up-

right corner. **G,** Western blots (n = 2) of ISGs in cardiac extracts from vehicle, Doxo and

Doxo+IFNα challenged tumor-bearing mice at week 8. **H, I,** Western blots of mitochondrial

OXPHOS components (n = 2) (**H**) and qPCR analysis (n = 3) of mtDNA abundance (**I**) in cardiac

extracts from vehicle, Doxo and Doxo+IFNα challenged tumor-bearing mice at week 8. Statistical

significance was determined using analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey post hoc test (**B, C,**

F) or unpaired t-test (**I**). *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, and ***$P < 0.001$. Error bars represent SEM.

1440

Figure 7. The ZBP1-STING-IFN-I axis is a novel driver of chemotherapy-related heart

failure. A, Doxo i.p. challenge regimen, longitudinal cardiac monitoring, and cardiac harvest

timepoint diagram. **B,** Left ventricular ejection fraction (EF) and fractional shortening (FS)

calculated from B-mode or M-mode images using Vevo Lab software (n = 6 per genotype). **C, D,**

Representative parasternal long axis images from each genotype pre-Doxo (**C**) and at week 10 post

Doxo challenge (**D**). **E, F,** qRT-PCR analysis of ISGs (**E**) or atrial natriuretic peptides *Nppa* and

the *Myh6/7* expression ratio (**F**) in vehicle- or Doxo-treat WT, *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$, *Sting*$^{-/-}$ and *Zbp1*$^{-/-}$ cardiac

extracts. (n = 3 per genotype per treatment). **G,** Representative H&E staining of heart sections

from 10-week post Doxo WT, *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$, *Sting*$^{-/-}$ and *Zbp1*$^{-/-}$ mice. Arrows indicate significant

cardiomyocyte vacuolization in Doxo-treated WT heart section. **H,** Representative Picrosirius Red

staining images of heart sections from 10-week post WT, *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$, *Sting*$^{-/-}$ and *Zbp1*$^{-/-}$ mice.

Percentages of fibrosis (Collagen area) are shown. Statistical significance was determined using

analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Dunnett (**B**) or Šídák (**E,F**) post hoc test. *P < 0.05, **P <

0.01, and ***P < 0.001. Error bars represent SEM.

1455

Figure S1. ZBP1 mediates mtDNA stress-induced IFN-I responses independently of MLKL.

A, Heatmaps of RNA-seq data displaying up-regulated DNA and RNA sensors in WT and *Tfam*$^{+/-}$

MEFs. Fold changes (FC) are normalized to the average of WT MEFs. **B,** qRT-PCR analysis (n =

3) of ISGs in WT, *Sting*$^{-/-}$ and *Mavs*$^{-/-}$ MEFs transfected with siCtrl, siTfam for 72 h. **C,D,** qRT-

PCR analysis (n = 3) of ISGs in WT and *Tfam*$^{+/-}$ MEFs transfected with siCtrl, si*Ifit203* (**C**) or

si*Ifi204* (**D**) for 72 h. **E, F,** qRT-PCR analysis (n = 3) (**E**) and western blots (n = 2) (**F**) of Zbp1

expression in WT and *Tfam*$^{+/-}$ MEFs. **G, H,** qRT-PCR analysis (n = 3) of ISGs in resting (**G**) or

ISD transfected (2 μg/mL, 6 h) (**H**) WT and *Tfam*$^{+/-}$ MEFs transfected with siCtrl or si*Zbp1* for 96

h. **I,** qRT-PCR analysis (n = 3) of ISGs in Doxo (125 nM) treated MEFs. **J,** Heatmaps of RNA-

seq data displaying necroptosis mediator variations in WT, *Tfam*$^{+/-}$, *Zbp1*$^{-/-}$ and *Tfam*$^{+/-}$*Zbp1*$^{-/-}$

MEFs. Fold changes (FC) are normalized to the average of WT MEFs. **K, L,** qRT-PCR analysis

(n = 3) of *Mlkl* (**K**) or ISG (**L**) expression in WT and *Tfam*$^{+/-}$ MEFs transfected with siCtrl and

si*Mlkl* for 96 h. **M,** Representative fluorescence images of WT and *Tfam*$^{+/-}$ MEFs transfected with

siCtrl and si*Mlkl* for 96 h and stained with anti-DNA and -HSP60 antibodies and DAPI. Inset

panels are magnified 4X. Statistical significance was determined using analysis of variance

(ANOVA) and Tukey post hoc test (**C-D, G-I, K-L**) or unpaired t-test (**B, D**). *P < 0.05, **P <

0.01, and ***P < 0.001. Error bars represent SEM.

1473

Figure S2. Cytoplasmic localization of cGAS is dependent on direct binding to ZBP1. A, B,

Western blots of cytosolic (Cyto.) and nuclear (Nuc.) proteins in WT and $Tfam^{+/-}$ MEFs with or

without IFNβ treatment (10 ng/mL, 6 h) (**A**). Percentages of cytosolic and nuclear cGAS in WT

and $Tfam^{+/-}$ MEFs are quantified in (**B**). 4 different MEF lines of each genotype were used for

quantification. **C,** qRT-PCR analysis (n = 3) of ISGs in HFF transfected with Ctrl or *TFAM* siRNA

for 72 h. **D, E,** Western blots of cytosolic and nuclear proteins in vehicle (veh) or 50 nM

Doxorubicin (Doxo) treated WT MEFs (**D**). Percentages of cytosolic and nuclear cGAS in vehicle

or Doxo treated WT MEFs are quantified in (**E**). 2 different MEF lines are shown in the western

blots, n = 3 different MEF lines were used for quantification. **F,** Schematic representation of the

mouse cGAS full-length (FL) and truncations used in **G-H**. **G, H,** co-IP showing interactions

between mouse ZBP1 and mouse cGAS FL and truncations in 293FT. Statistical significance was

determined using analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey (**B**) post hoc test or unpaired t-test (**C,**

E). *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, and ***$P < 0.001$. Error bars represent SEM.

Figure S3. Complexing with ZBP1 enhances cGAS activity in the cytosol. A, Percentages of

cytosolic cGAS intensity in COS-7 transfected with indicated plasmid (n ≥ 30 fields for each

group). **B,** Fold change (FC) of cGAMP production in *Tfam*$^{+/-}$ MEFs compared to WT MEFs (n =

6). **C,** Schematic illustration of siRNA and plasmid transfection in 293FT-STING used in **D**. **D,**

qRT-PCR analysis (n = 3) of ISGs in 293FT-STING transfected with indicated siRNA and plasmid

(0.25 μg/mL cGAS, 0.25 μg/mL ZBP1 or equivalent amount of empty vector). **E,** Fold change of

cGAMP production in Doxo-treated WT and *Zbp1*$^{-/-}$ MEFs compared to vehicle treated cells (n =

6). Statistical significance was determined using analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey post

hoc test (**A, D**), or unpaired t-test (**B, E**). *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, and ***$P < 0.001$. Error bars

represent SEM.

Datasets
A: Adult mouse hearts 16 h post 25 mg/kg Doxo i.p.
B: hiPSC-CMs 24 h post 500 nM Doxo

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Figure S4. Type I interferons and Doxorubicin synergize to imbalance cardiomyocyte mitochondrial gene expression and disrupt contractility. A, Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) analysis of top upstream regulators and the most enriched STING target genes from adult mouse hearts challenged with 25 mg/kg Doxo for 16 h vs saline controls and hiPSC-CMs treated with 1 μM Doxo for 24 h vs controls datasets. White indicates no change in expression and gray indicates $p < 0.05$ for a given gene. IPA Z-score > 2 or < -2 is significant. **B-D,** qRT-PCR analysis (n = 3) of ISGs (**B**) cardiac damage markers (**C**) and mitochondrial DNA- or nuclear DNA-encoded mitochondrial transcripts (**D**) in hiPSC-CMs treated with or without human recombinant IFNα (10 ng/mL) and IFNβ (10 ng/mL) for 96 h. **E,** qRT-PCR analysis (n = 3) of mitochondrial DNA-encoded mitochondrial transcripts in murine neonatal CMs treated with mouse IFNβ (1 ng/mL) or Doxo (500 nM) for 24h. **F,** Camera-capture assay showing CM beat periodicity and images of hiPSC-CMs after indicated treatments (100 nM Doxo and/or 10 ng/mL of both human recombinant IFNα and IFNβ) for 96 h and 120 h. Yellow arrows indicate cardiomyocyte vacuolization. AU, arbitrary unit. Statistical significance was determined using unpaired t-test (**B-E**). *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, and ***$P < 0.001$. Error bars represent SEM.

Figure S5. Doxorubicin disrupts cardiac structure and function in a ZBP1-STING-IFNAR-

dependent manner. A, Left ventricle wall thickness and internal diameter measurements were

made pre-Doxo (week -1) and at week 4 and 8 weeks post challenge in short axis M-mode (n = 6

of *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$ and *Sting*$^{-/-}$ groups, n = 12 of WT and *Zbp1*$^{-/-}$ groups). **B,** Heart weight changes in WT,

Ifnar$^{-/-}$, *Sting*$^{-/-}$ and *Zbp1*$^{-/-}$ mice at week 8 compared to pre-Doxo treatment (week -1) (n = 6 of

Ifnar$^{-/-}$ and *Sting*$^{-/-}$ groups, n = 12 of WT and *Zbp1*$^{-/-}$ groups). **C,** Representative short axis images

from each genotype pre- and 10 weeks post- Doxo treatment. Statistical significance was

determined using analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey post hoc test (**A**), or unpaired t-test

(**B**). *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, and ***$P < 0.001$. Error bars represent SEM.

Figure S6. Doxorubicin-induced ISG expression, cardiac fibrosis, and mitochondrial

dysfunction are lessened in the absence of ZBP1-STING-IFNAR signaling. A, B, qRT-PCR

analysis (n = 3 per genotype per treatment) (**A**) or western blots (n = 2 per genotype per treatment)

(**B**) of ISGs in cardiac extracts 10 weeks post Doxo challenge. **C,** Relative cardiac expression of

atrial natriuretic peptides *Nppb* in RNA extracts 10 weeks post Doxo challenge (n = 3 per genotype

per treatment). **D,** Representative H&E staining of heart sections from vehicle-treated WT mice

10 weeks after the initial challenge. **E,** Percentages of cardiomyocytes exhibiting vacuolization

from WT, *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$, *Sting*$^{-/-}$ and *Zbp1*$^{-/-}$ heart sections with or without Doxo challenge (n = 4 fields

from 3 mice per genotype per treatment). **F,** Representative Picrosirius Red staining images of

vehicle-treated WT heart sections 10 weeks after the initial challenge. Percentages of fibrosis

(Collagen area) are shown. **G,** 10 kb and 100 bp (control) mtDNA fragments PCR (n = 2 per

genotype per treatment) of vehicle- and Doxo-treated WT, *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$ and *Sting*$^{-/-}$ mice. Densitometry

was used to calculate the 10 kb/100 bp ratio (bottom). **H,** qPCR analysis (n = 3 per genotype per

treatment) of mtDNA abundance in cardiac extracts from vehicle- and Doxo- treated WT, *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$

and *Sting*$^{-/-}$ mice. **I,** Western blots (n = 2 per genotype per treatment) of mitochondrial OXPHOS

subunits in cardiac extracts from vehicle- and Doxo-treated WT, *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$ and *Sting*$^{-/-}$ mice.

Statistical significance was determined using analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Šídák (**A, C, H**)

or Tukey (**E, G**) post hoc test. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, and ***P < 0.001. Error bars represent SEM.

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 KEY RESOURCES TABLES

Table 1. Oligonucleotides used in cloning

Plasmid	Forward and reverse Oligo. sequences
p3xFLAG-CMV-14-Zbp1 FL	ATGCGTGAATTCGCCACCATGGCAGAAGCTCCTGTTGA ATGCGTGGATCCTTGCTTGCTCAGTCCTGTGT
p3xFLAG-CMV-14-Zbp1 ΔRHIMA	AACAGCCACTGTGGTGAGCCAGGTCCCAGGA CTCACCACAGTGGCTGTTGATGTGGCTGTTG
p3xFLAG-CMV-14-Zbp1 ΔRHIMB	GGAGCTCAGGCAGGGAAGCACCCCTCTTATA CTTCCCTGCCTGAGCTCCGTGGGCAACAGGG
p3xFLAG-CMV-14-Zbp1 RHIMA+B	ATGCGTGAATTCGCCACCATGATCTCCATTGCCAATTC ATGCGTGGATCCATCCCCCACGAGGCTCATCT
pcDNA3.1-cGAS FL-HA	ATGCGTGCGGCCGCGCCACCATGGAAGATCCGCGTAGAAG ATGCGTCTCGAGTCAAGCGTAATCTGGAACATCGTATGGG- TAAAGCTTGTCAAAAATTGGAA
pcDNA3.1-cGAS N-term-HA	ATGCGTGCGGCCGCGCCACCATGGAAGATCCGCGTAGAAG ATGCGTCTCGAGTCAAGCGTAATCTGGAACATCGTATGGG- TAGTCCGGTTCCTTCCTGGA
pcDNA3.1-cGAS ΔN-term-HA	ATGCGTGCGGCCGCGCCACCATGGACAAGCTAAAGAAGGTGCT ATGCGTCTCGAGTCAAGCGTAATCTGGAACATCGTATGGG- TAAAGCTTGTCAAAAATTGGAA
pMXs-IRES-Blast-STING-HIS	ATGCGTCTCGAGGCCACCATGCCATACTCCAACCTG AACGCTGCGGCCGCTTAGTGGTGGTGGTGGTGGTGGAT- GAGGTCAGTGCGGA

Table 2. Dicer substrate siRNA used

Gene	Oligo. Sequence
Control	rCrGrUrUrArArUrCrGrCrGrUrArUrArCrGrCrGrUAT rArUrArCrGrCrGrUrArUrUrArUrArCrGrCrGrArUrUrArArCrGrArC
Tfam	rGrCrUrArUrCrCrArArArGrArArArCrCrUrArUrGrArGrUTC rGrArArCrUrCrArUrArGrGrUrUrUrCrUrUrUrGrGrArUrArGrCrUrA
TFAM	rGrCrArGrArArCrUrCrArUrCrUrArGrGrUrArArArArUrUrACA rUrGrUrArArUrUrUrArCrCrUrArGrArUrGrArGrUrUrCrUrGrCrCrU
Ifi203	rArArCrUrCrArGrUrUrCrUrUrCrUrGrArArUrCrUrCrUrUTT rArArArArGrArGrArUrUrCrArGrArArGrArArCrUrGrArGrUrUrCrA
Ifi204	rCrUrGrArArArArCrArArUrUrGrArCrArGrGrCrArArCrCAA rUrUrGrGrUrUrGrCrCrUrGrUrCrArArUrUrGrUrUrUrUrCrArGrGrU
Zbp1	rArUrCrArArGrUrCrCrUrUrUrArCrCrGrGrCrCrUrGrArArAGAA rUrUrCrUrUrCrArGrGrCrGrGrUrArArArArGrGrArCrUrUrGrArUrUrG
Mlkl	rArUrCrArUrUrGrGrArArArUrArCrCrGrUrUrUrCrArGrArUGT rArCrArUrCrUrGrArArArArCrGrGrUrArUrUrUrCrCrArArUrGrArUrArA

*27-mers synthesized by Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT), 10 nmol, standard desalting. For working solution, diluted to 20 μM in nuclease-free duplex buffer (IDT, 11-05-01-12).

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Table 3. Oligonucleotides used in qPCR for mouse samples

Gene	Forward and reverse Oligo. sequences
Ifnb1	CCCTATGGAGATGACGGAGA CCCAGTGCTGGAGAAATTGT
Ifit1	CAAGGCAGGTTTCTGAGGAG GACCTGGTCACCATCAGCAT
Ifit3	TTCCCAGCAGCACAGAAAC AAATTCCAGGTGAAATGGCA
Ifi44	CTGATTACAAAAGAAGACATGACAGAC AGGCAAAACCAAAGACTCCA
Zbp1	TCAAAGGGTGAAGTCATGGA GTGGAGTGGCTTCAGAGCTT
Mx1	TCTGAGGAGAGCCAGACGAT ACTCTGGTCCCCAATGACAG
Ifi203	TCCAGAATCCTCATAAGTCTCCA TGGTACAGTTCCTCTCCTTGGT
Ifi204	GCCAGCCCTAAGATCTGTGAT TCTTTCGGTTCACTGTTTTCTTG
Mlkl	CCTCTGTGGACGGTAGGAGT TGGATTCTTCAACCGCAGA
Tnfa	CCACCACGCTCTTCTGTCTAC AGGGTCTGGGCCATAGAACT
Il6	TGATGCACTTGCAGAAAACA ACCAGAGGAAATTTTCAATAGGC
Nppa	AGCCGAGACAGCAAACATCAG CAAAAGGCCAGGAAGAGGAAG
Nppb	CAGCTCTTGAAGGACCAAGG AGAGACCCAGGCAGAGTCAG
Myh6	CATCGACCTCATCGAGAAGC GCCTTGAAGGTCATGTCTGAG
Myh7	GATGTTTTTGTGCCCGATGA TGTCGAACTTGGGTGGGTT
mt-Cytb	AGTAGACAA AGCCACCTTGA CCGCGATAATAAATGGTAAG
mt-Co1	GCCCCAGATATAGCATTCCC GTTCATCCTGTTCCTGCTCC
mt-Nd1	CACCTACCCTATCACTCACACTAGC GGCTCATCCTGATCATAGAATGGAG
Rpl37	CATCCTTTGGTAAGCGTCGCA TGGCACTCCAGTTATACTTCCT
mtDNA D-Loop	AATCTACCATCCTCCGTGAAACC TCAGTTTAGCTACCCCCAAGTTTAA
mtDNA Cytb	GCTTTCCACTTCATCTTACCATTTA TGTTGGGTTGTTTGATCCTG
nucDNA Tert	CTAGCTCATGTGTCAAGACCCTCTT GCCAGCACGTTTCTCTCGTT

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Table 4. Oligonucleotides used in qPCR for human sample

Gene	Forward and reverse Oligo. sequences
IFNA1	CCCTCTCTTTATCAACAAACTTGC TTGTTTTCATGTTGGACCAGA
IFNB1	CTTTCGAAGCCTTTGCTCTG CAGGAGAGCAATTTGGAGGA
CXCL10	CACCATGAATCAAACTGCGA GCTGATGCAGGTACAGCGT
IFIT1	GCAGCCAAGTTTTACCGAAG GCCCTATCTGGTGATGCAGT
IFIT3	TGGGAACAGCAGAGACACAG AAGTTCCAGGTGAAATGGCA
IFI44L	CAATTTAAGCCTGATCTAACCCC CAGTTGCGCAGATGATTTTC
STAT1	AGGAAGACCCAATCCAGATGT TGAATATTCCCCGACTGAGC
NPPA	CAGGATGGACAGGATTGGAG TCCTCCCTGGCTGTTATCTTC
NPPB	GATGGTGCAAGGGTCTGG TAATGCCGCCTCAGCACT
MYH6	CTCAAGCTCATGGCCACTCT GCCTCCTTTGCTTTTACCACT
MYH7	CCATCCCCACTTTGTACGTT ACCAGGGGGTTGTCCATC
MT-CO1	TTAGCTGACTCGCCACAGTC GGCCACCTACGGTGAAAAGA
MT-ATP6	TCATTCAACCAATAGCCCTGG GCCTGCAGTAATGTTAGCGGT
MT-ND4	CCTAAAGCCCATGTCGAAGC TGCGGCAAGTACTATTGACCC
COX5A	GAGGCCTCCTGCACTCC GCGAGCATCAAACTCCTCAT
NDUFS3	ACAGATTATGGCTTCGAGGG ACCCGCTTCACTTCATCATC
SDHA	AAACTCGCTCTTGGACCTGG TCTTCCCCAGCGTTTGGTTT
TFAM	CCAAAAAGACCTCGTTCAGC TCCAGTTTTCCTTTACAGTCTTCAG
RPL37	AGTGCCTTCTCTTCCGGTCT TTCCAAACGATGACGTTCC
mtDNA ND1	GAACTAGTCTCAGGCTTCAACATCG CTAGGAAGATTGTAGTGGTGAGGGTG
nucDNA 18s	CTTAGAGGGACAAGTGGCG ACGCTGAGCCAGTCAGTGTA

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Table 5. Antibody dilution and application

Name	Company	Cat. #	Dilution	Application
IFIT3	Gift from G. Sen at Cleveland Clinic		1:5000	WB
cGAS	Cell Signaling Technology	31659	1:1000	WB
cGAS	Cell Signaling Technology	D1D3G	1:200	IF
STAT1	Cell Signaling Technology	9172	1:1000	WB
MLKL	Cell Signaling Technology	37705	1:1000	WB
GAPDH	Proteintech	60004-1	1:20000	WB
Histone H3	Proteintech	17168-1-AP	1:1000	WB
LMNB1	Proteintech	66095-1	1:1000	WB
HA	Proteintech	51064-2-AP	1:1000/1:600	WB/IF
TFAM	Proteintech	22586-1-AP	1:200	IF
CANX	Proteintech	10427-2-AP	1:1000	WB
TFAM	Millipore	MABT166	1:1000/1:200	WB/IF
DNA	Millipore	CBL186	1:300/1:250	IF/SB
TOMM20	Millipore	MABT166	1:200	IF
FLAG	Millipore	F1804	1:4000/1:800	WB/IF
PDH	Abcam	ab110333	1:800	IF
RIP	BD Biosciences	610458	1:1000	WB
ZBP1	Adipogen	AG-20B-0010-C100	1:1000	WB
HSP60	Santa Cruz Biotechnology	N-20	1:2000/1:300	WB/IF
Z-DNA	absolute	Ab00783-23.0	1:1000	SB
Z-DNA	Capralogics	P00008	1:200	IF
MTCO1	ThermoFisher Scientific	459600	1:1000	WB
NDUFA9	ThermoFisher Scientific	459100	1:1000	WB
NDUFS3	ThermoFisher Scientific	459130	1:1000	WB

1550 *WB: western blot; IF: immunofluorescence; SB: slot blot