ADAR1 haploinsufficiency and sustained viral RdRp dsRNA synthesis synergize to dysregulate RNA editing and cause multi-system interferonopathy

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SUMMARY

Sensing of viral double-stranded RNA by MDA5 triggers abundant but transient interferon-stimulated gene (ISGs) expression. If dsRNA synthesis is made persistent by transgenically expressing a picornaviral RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp) in mice, lifelong MDA5 activation and marked, global ISG upregulation result. This confers robust protection from viral diseases but in contrast to numerous other chronic MDA5 hyperactivation states, the mice suffer no autoimmune consequences. Here we find they further confound expectations by being resistant to a strong autoimmunity (lupus) provocation. However, knockout of one allele of *Adar*, which by itself is also well-tolerated, breaks the protective state and results in a severe disease that resembles interferonopathies caused by MDA5 gain-of-function mutations. In *Adar*^{+/-} RdRp transgenic mice, A-to-I editing is both dysregulated and increased (numbers of genes and sites). This dsRNA-driven, MDA5-wild type model establishes that viral polymerase-sourced dsRNA can drive interferonopathy pathogenesis and illuminates the autoimmunity preventing role of ADAR1, while the ADAR1-intact viral RdRp model distinctively uncouples chronic MDA5 hyperactivity and autoinflammatory disease.

Keywords: ADAR1; MDA5; innate antiviral immunity; picornavirus; RdRp; autoimmunity; autoinflammation; interferonopathy; lupus

INTRODUCTION

Double-stranded RNA (dsRNA), a requisite intermediate during the replication of RNA viruses, is a pathogen-associated molecular pattern that induces an array of first-line antiviral defenses. Two specialized RNA helicases function as the main pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) that detect viral dsRNA: retinoic acid inducible gene-I (RIG-I) and melanoma differentiation antigen 5 (MDA5). Both of these RIG-I-like receptors (RLRs) are cytosolic sensors that signal through the adaptor MAVS, which instigates signaling cascades that eventuate in expression of numerous ISGs, either directly or via induction of secreted type I interferons (IFN-I).[1] RIG-I in general detects shorter or 5'-ppp containing dsRNAs and MDA5 detects the internal segments of longer (> 1 to 2 kb) dsRNAs.[2-4] A few RNA viruses are exclusively sensed by one RLR[1]. Picornaviral dsRNAs, for example, are detected by MDA5 and not RIG-I.[1,5-8]

The challenge such a system poses for the host is to securely differentiate viral dsRNAs from the vast, diverse pool of cellular RNAs, many of which can also harbor extended RNA duplex segments, particularly within retroelement-derived RNAs that are abundant in mammalian genomes.[9,10] Inappropriate or sustained activations of RLRs and other signaling pathways by endogenous nucleic acid ligands are associated with a variety of autoimmune diseases, which include classical, common syndromes such as systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), type I diabetes mellitus, and psoriasis as well as various and frequently severe genetic conditions known collectively as interferonopathies. These auto-inflammatory conditions are characterized by persistent IFN-I and ISG expression and diverse end organ pathologies.[5,11,12]

The RNA modifying enzyme Adenosine Deaminase Acting on RNA 1 (ADAR1) has recently been identified as a central constraint on dsRNA-triggered autoimmunity.[13-17] Encoded by *ADAR*, ADAR1 catalyzes post-transcriptional editing of host RNAs by deaminating adenosine to inosine, thereby disrupting A-U base-paring and preventing formation of long uninterrupted RNA duplexes.[9,10,18,19] A-to-I editing most prominently prevents detection by MDA5 or protein kinase regulated by dsRNA (PKR) of endogenous retroelement transcripts and other dsRNAs, which averts inappropriate immune activation or translational shutoff.[9,10] Such editing of transcripts can also cause protein recoding,[17,20,21] although the vast majority of A-to-I edits in mammals are in non-coding regions.[22-25] Strikingly, physiologically essential A-to-I editing represents a very small fraction of the editome, and moreover most editing is unnecessary for murine homeostasis in the absence of MDA5.[26,27] Hereditary mutations in *ADAR*, as well as in other genes such as

TREX1, SAMHD1, RNASEH2, RNU7, LSM11, and IFIH1 (MDA5) have been linked to the

development of the rare congenital inflammatory disorder Aicardi-Goutières syndrome (AGS),

which clinically mimics encephalopathies caused by *in utero*-acquired virus infections.[11,14,28-33]

Homozygous *Adar* gene knockout is embryonic lethal in mice, causing mass apoptosis of fetal

liver hematopoietic cells by embryonic day 11.5-12.5.[20,34] In contrast, *Adar*^{+/-} mice are

phenotypically normal and born at expected Mendelian ratios.[18] Early fetal demise of *Adar*^{-/-}

mice has been linked mechanistically to activation of the MDA5 pathway by dsRNA regions in

cellular RNAs, chiefly repetitive elements, that are normally masked by A-I editing.[15,18,20,34,35]

Indeed, constitutive MDA5 activation has been repeatedly observed to cause autoimmune

syndromes such as AGS in both mice and humans.[31,36] In distinctive counterpoint, we have

shown in a mouse model that chronic, systemic MDA5 activation caused by viral polymerase-

generated dsRNA, which causes marked, lifelong ISG upregulation, can be well-tolerated, even

when it is also strongly protective against viral diseases.[37-39] The mice are transgenic for the

RdRp of a neurovirulent mouse picornavirus (Theiler's murine encephalomyelitis virus, TMEV)

expressed under transcriptional control of the non-selective ubiquitin C promoter, which causes

chronic dsRNA-triggered innate immune activation.[37,38] Tissues of the RdRp transgenic mice

(RdRp[tg] mice; see first Methods section for nomenclature) express low levels of the polymerase,

which templates on host RNAs to synthesize dsRNA. Elevated dsRNA is detected in RdRp[tg]

mouse tissues using the J1 anti-dsRNA antibody.[37] In addition, a catalytic center mutant of the

TMEV RdRp lacked all ISG up-regulating activity.[37] RdRp[tg] mice have global, high upregulations

of ISGs and robust protection against ordinarily lethal challenges by a variety of RNA and DNA

viruses, including Theiler's virus itself, EMCV, vesicular stomatitis virus, a DNA herpesvirus

(pseudorabies virus), and Friend retrovirus.[37,38,40,41] The model is mouse strain-independent,

with equivalent phenotypes in FVB/NJ, BALB/c and C57BL/6J mice.

RdRp[tg/-] and RdRp[tg/tg] mice develop normally, with onset of the major ISG expression profile

shortly after birth.[39] The intriguing lack of deleterious effects from their chronically elevated

ISGome differs strikingly from other constitutive MDA5 activation states.[36] Body size,

morphology, organ histology and longevity are normal.[37-39] Crosses with *Ifih1*^{-/-} mice showed that

the sustained innate immune activation is strictly dependent on MDA5, which is congruent with

MDA5 but not RIG-I being the sensor of picornaviral dsRNAs.[1,5-8] It is further dependent on the

downstream adaptor MAVS, and the type I IFN receptor (IFNAR1) and is abolished by knockout

of these genes.[37] Although type I IFNs are not detectably over-expressed in RdRp[tg] mice

tissues, antibody-mediated blockade of the type I IFN receptor in adults terminates the ISG

profile, indicating that some ongoing IFN-I signaling is required to sustain it.[39] *TLR3*, *IFNGR1*

and *RAG1* knockout crosses also showed the ISG profile does not depend on TLR3, interferon

gamma signaling or the adaptive immune system. As expected from the complete abrogation of

ISG upregulation by *Ifih1* knockout, *Ddx58* knockout mouse crosses further confirmed no

dependence on RIG-I (our unpublished data). Thus, the model is distinctive in that it represents

a pure dsRNA-induced MDA5 hyperactivation state, and also one that is mediated through the

wild type MDA5 sensor, and via "viral" dsRNA.

Prompted by the well-tolerated ISG elevations in this model, we here carried out experiments

that demonstrate that RdRp[tg] mice also resist induction of SLE in the BM12 lupus model, which

we find is linked to increased quantities and effector function of regulatory T cells (T$_{reg}$). We

show that introducing single *Adar* allele knockout – which, similar to RdRp transgenesis,

produces no abnormalities by itself – breaks the RdRp[tg] protective state, yielding a severe

autoinflammatory disease. RdRp[tg] mice lacking one *Adar* allele have stunted growth, gray fur,

abnormal dental and skeletal structures, failure to thrive, highly dysregulated ISG expression,

and abnormal A-to-I editing.

These results with a nucleic acid-triggered but MDA5-wild type model help to illuminate an

essential axis between ADAR1 and MDA5 in the regulation of the mammalian innate immune

response and implicate RNA virus polymerase-generated RNAs as possible ligands triggering

autoimmunity, while the *Adar*-intact model uncouples antivirally protective sustained ISG

activation and autoinflammatory disease.

RESULTS

RdRp[tg] mice resist induction of SLE. Since picornaviral RdRp[tg] mice do not exhibit apparent

fitness "costs" of their chronic immune system activation,[37-39] an unanswered question is

whether they may be more autoimmunity-prone like other constitutive MDA5 activation

models.[36,42,43] To address this experimentally, we carried out a strong autoimmunity provocation

by adopting the BM12 inducible SLE model, in which lupus is initiated by injection of

splenocytes from MHC class II-mismatched mice.[44,45] Wild type (WT) and RdRp[tg/-] mice were

injected with 1×10^8 splenocytes isolated from BM12 mice or were control-injected with PBS and

evaluated for disease two weeks later. One of the clearest morphological changes in the BM12

model is splenomegaly, which results from germinal center expansion. Spleens were harvested

and weighed before processing for flow cytometric analyses. As anticipated, we observed a

significant increase in spleen size in WT mouse BM12 splenocyte recipients, indicative of lupus-

like disease initiation (**Fig. 1A**). In contrast, RdRp^{tg} mouse BM12 splenocyte recipients had only

minor, statistically non-significant increases in spleen size (**Fig. 1A**, p = 0.126 as compared with

PBS-injected RdRp^{tg} mice).

We next examined cellular subsets in the spleen, specifically germinal center B cells and

plasma B cells, which expand as they become activated to secrete anti-nuclear antibodies

(ANAs), and T follicular helper (T_{fh}) cells, which provide antigenic stimulus in germinal center

reactions.[46,47] For all three cell populations, WT mouse BM12 splenocyte recipients developed

significant increases, indicative of ongoing germinal center reactions and increased antibody

production (**Fig. 1B,C**). In contrast, and paralleling the spleen measurements, RdRp^{tg} mouse

BM12 splenocyte recipients developed little to no increases in all three cellular populations.

Significant increases over sham-treated animals were only seen in germinal center B cells (**Fig.**

1B,C). Minor changes in overall B cell and T cell populations were also observed, but none that

account for the drastic differences in cellular subsets seen in WT BM12 splenocyte recipient

animals (**Fig. S1A,B**).

To corroborate the results, we collected serum from splenocyte-recipients and control PBS

recipients to measure production of ANAs, which are a hallmark of SLE and drive pathology in

this model.[44,45] We measured ANAs against double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) and Smith antigen

(SmAg), both of which are frequently observed in SLE patients and SLE mouse models[47,48] (**Fig.**

1D). Similar to the changes in cellular populations, there were significant increases in both of

these autoantibodies in WT BM12 splenocyte recipients compared to the PBS recipient controls.

In contrast, the RdRp^{tg} mouse BM12 splenocyte recipients produced less of both

autoantibodies.

T_{reg} cell expansion. Our previous investigations did not reveal significant differences in immune

cell subsets between WT and RdRp^{tg} mice.[38] Here we extended the studies to assess

autoimmune suppressor cells, specifically regulatory T cells (T_{regs}), which are critical for

maintaining immune-tissue homeostasis. Knockout of T_{regs} results in disseminated autoimmune

disease followed by rapid organismal decline and death.[49,50] Here we measured T_{reg} cell subsets

in age-matched animals. There was a highly significant increase in T_{reg} cells in RdRp$^{tg/-}$ mice

compared to WT and specifically an increase in mature, effector T_{regs} (**Fig. 1E**). T_{reg} cell

expansion in RdRp^{tg} mice may aid their tolerance to chronic innate immune activation.

The combined cellular and ANA data indicate that RdRp^{tg} mice are better able to control

disease induction after an autoimmune provocation than WT mice. This result is distinctive

compared to other MDA5-pathway driven hyperimmune mice models, which have been shown

to be equally or more susceptible to autoimmunity induction.[42,43]

Investigation of ADAR1. In addition to Treg cells, we suspected that mechanisms of protection

at the intrinsic cellular level are likely to provide key regulation. Given its known role in

preventing activation of the MDA5 pathway by double stranded segments of endogenously

encoded RNAs, we hypothesized that ADAR1 may prevent adverse inflammatory sequelae in

RdRp^{tg} mice. First, we determined whether *Adar* expression is affected by RdRp genotype

status. *Adar* encodes two functional isoforms, ADAR1 p150, which edits transcripts in the

cytoplasm and is IFN-inducible, and constitutively expressed ADAR1 p110, which is generated

by alternative splicing or by translation from the p150 mRNA by leaky internal ribosome

scanning[51] and edits transcripts in the nucleus.[19,52,53] We observed no significant difference at

either the mRNA or protein levels in expression of the p110 isoform in RdRp^{tg} mice as

compared to WT mice (**Fig. 2A,C**). In contrast, there was a marked increase in expression of

the IFN-inducible p150 isoform (**Fig. 2B,C).** These results suggested that ADAR1 p150, itself an

ISG, is upregulated in RdRp mice, perhaps helping to modulate the ISG activation in these

animals.

We next knocked down *ADAR* expression in human lung epithelial cells (A549) in which we

have engineered and validated inducible TMEV RdRp expression under the control of a

doxycycline (dox) inducible promoter.[37] These cells broadly upregulate ISGs in response to

RdRp induction in a pattern very similar to the RdRp^{tg} mouse.[37] In two separate experiments, we

achieved knockdowns of ADAR p110 and p150 isoforms (**Fig. 2D**). Dox induction of the RdRp

after siRNA transfection led to over three $\log_{10}$ increases in mRNAs for two classical ISGs, *OAS*

and *ISG15*, which were moderately accentuated by *ADAR* depletion in these short-term

experiments (**Fig. 2E**). We therefore proceeded to generate mice with *Adar* gene knockouts.

206 *Adar* **haploinsufficiency, by itself well-tolerated, causes multi-system disease in RdRp^{tg}**

207 **mice.** As noted, by two weeks after birth, RdRp^{tg} mice develop high, sustained upregulations of

208 many ISGs and subsequently tolerate them throughout their (normal) lifespans.[37,39] To

209 determine whether ADAR1 is involved in the protection against deleterious effects of

210 autoinflammation, *RdRp$^{tg/tg}$* mice were crossed with *Adar$^{+/-}$* mice. *RdRp$^{tg/-}$* mice also have

211 elevated ISGs, albeit with more variability in fold-induction than RdRp$^{tg/tg}$ mice (for example, see

212 **Fig. 2B,C** for expression of the ISG Adar p150, and Painter et al[37]). Since in our hands and

213 others *Adar$^{+/-}$* mice have no phenotypic abnormalities, we did not anticipate a major effect in

214 first-generation crosses even in the presence of an RdRp-mediated ISG response, since the F1

215 animals will retain a functional *Adar* allele.

216

217 However, that was not the outcome. First, there were major gross phenotypic differences

218 between *RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$* mice and littermate *RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/+}$* controls (**Fig. 3A-C**). The RdRp^{tg}

219 mice lacking one *Adar* allele were significantly smaller in size (**Fig. 3A, B**), with gray instead of

220 black fur (**Fig. 3A, C**). These features were equivalent in males and females (**Fig. 3A, C**).

221 *RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$* mice also have small, poorly developed, misshapen teeth (**Fig. 3C**). Runting was

222 unrelated to the dental abnormalities, since suckling behavior was unaffected. In addition, the

223 size evaluations were done at the time of weaning, and post-weaning mice were kept on a wet

224 chow diet, which they were also observed to ingest equivalently. *Adar$^{+/-}$* mice were normal in

225 appearance as expected.

226

227 Because of these phenotypic differences, we carried out tissue dissections. Survival of the

228 *RdRp$^{tg/-}$Adar$^{+/-}$* mice began to fall significantly by 10 weeks after birth (**Fig. S2**), so these studies

229 were done at 4-5 weeks. Soft viscera including heart, lungs, liver, spleen, intestines, kidney and

230 brain were proportionately small but the organ morphologies were otherwise not different from

231 WT mice. Histological analysis of tissue sections by a veterinary pathologist did not reveal

232 evidence for tissue inflammation or other abnormalities (**Fig. 3D).** Since some MDA5-driven

233 mouse autoimmune models manifest with kidney impairment, blood urea nitrogen (BUN) values

234 were determined at 4-5 weeks of age. Mean BUN was slightly higher in RdRp^{tg} mice but was

235 not in either *Adar$^{+/-}$* group (**Fig. 3E**). We also measured serum ANAs and found no significant

236 increases in anti-dsDNA antibodies (data not shown as levels for all animals were below the

237 limit of assay detection) or anti-SmAg antibodies (**Fig. 3F**). In addition to the abnormal teeth

238 (**Fig. 3C**), necropsy revealed thin, pale long bones suggesting decreased bone density. Bone

239 frailty was also readily apparent during cervical dislocations, which subjectively required much

less force Similar dental and bone abnormalities can occur in Singleton-Merten Syndrome

(SMS), a rare human autosomal dominant innate immune disorder consisting of

musculoskeletal abnormalities (osteopenia, osteoporosis, skull thickening, small stature,

ligament frailty), dental anomalies (poor, primarily anterior teeth formation), variable arterial

calcification, inflammatory skin changes (psoriasis), and a characteristic facies (high anterior

hair line, broadened forehead, asymmetric ptosis, smooth philtrum, and thin upper

vermillion).[54,55] Genetic studies of individuals with SMS have revealed causation by a subset of

single amino acid missense gain-of-function (GOF) mutations in MDA5 (R822Q, A489T,

T331I/R), which cause constitutive activation.[56-60] There is inter-familial and intra-familial

variation in syndromic manifestations, with partial penetrance evident in some kindreds[55] and

overlap with Aicardi-Goutières syndrome has been reported.[58,59,61] Similarly, two families with

atypical SMS lacking the dental abnormalities were found to have constitutively active single

amino acid mutants of RIG-I rather than MDA5.[62]

As $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$ mice had micrognathia as well as small, misshapen and partially translucent

incisors (**Fig. 3C**), µCT imaging and mechanical property assessments of femurs were

performed to determine whether $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$ mice also had altered underlying changes to

bone architecture or properties. Consistent with the runting observed in 5-week old mice (**Fig.**

3A,B), femurs of 6-week old $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$ were significantly shorter than control groups (**Fig.**

4A,B). As in other RLR-related genetic disorders[55,62], weight, femur length, and other mouse

characteristics were variably penetrant. Bartlett's test demonstrated a statistically significant

(p=0.0142) difference in homoscedasticity for femur length, yet a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test did

not identify any significant (alpha=0.05) deviation from normal distribution for $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$ or

other groups. Thus, we did not separate $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$ mice into 'penetrant' and 'non-

penetrant' subsets in subsequent analyses and graphics, but we labeled mice with gray fur with

light blue symbols in Fig. 4. $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$ femurs had significantly reduced cortical bone

volume fraction and correspondingly reduced measures of cortical thickness, perimeter, area

and porosity (**Fig. 4C**). In contrast, trabecular number and trabecular separation were not

different between groups (**Fig. 4D-E**). Mechanical properties of the femurs were further

investigated using three-point bending to failure. Stiffness and maximum load of $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$

femurs were significantly reduced compared to control groups (**Fig. 4F,G**). Modulus and

ultimate stress of the femurs were calculated from mechanical properties and mid-diaphysis

cross-sectional geometry from µCT. In contrast to the reduced mechanical properties observed,

these material properties of $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$ femurs were not altered (**Fig. 4I-J**), nor was the total

cortical mineral density calculated from the µCT imaging (**Fig. 4H**). These results indicate that

double heterozygosity (*RdRp^tg/- Adar^+/-*) led to femurs having inferior stiffness and strength

stemming from smaller size but not from impaired bone material quality, in addition to their

dental mal-development and fur graying.

Resemblance to classical human SMS was partial since we the mice did not develop aortic or

cardiac valvular calcification (**Fig. S3**), a core feature of the human syndrome, nor was there

aberrant brain calcification (**Fig. S3**) as occurs in AGS[11] and in some SMS-AGS overlap

cases[58,59,61]. Psoriasis is less commonly observed in SMS patients and was not observed in

RdRp^tg/- Adar^+/- animals, leaving fur graying as the identifiable integument abnormality.

Glaucoma can also occur in SMS, but intraocular pressures measured by tonometry in affected

mice were normal and not significantly different from WT mice (data not shown).

Transcriptional changes in *RdRp^tg/- Adar^+/-* mice are consistent with an interferonopathy.

The SMS-resembling phenotype triggered by the combination of one RdRp transgene allele and

one *Adar* null allele, with neither alone producing abnormalities, prompted us to examine tissues

further for differences that may be driving pathogenesis. We performed RNA-seq on brain

tissue, with four biological replicates from each of the four genotypes WT, *Adar^+/-*, *RdRp^tg/-* and

RdRp^tg/- Adar^+/-. Brains were analyzed because we previously observed that brains of RdRp^tg

mice have particularly high ISG elevations compared to other organs, although gene expression

changes are qualitatively similar and substantial across all major organs.[39] Here, in

multidimensional scaling plots, we observed that the samples cluster strongly by genotype along

the M1 axis, which validates that animals of the same genotype have similar gene expression

profiles (**Fig. 5A**). The double heterozygotes (*RdRp^tg/- Adar^+/-*) cluster the farthest from any other

genotype, suggesting they have distinctly different RNA expression patterns. Assessing

expression changes across the groups, the greatest differences were between *RdRp^tg/- Adar^+/-*

mice relative to WT mice and relative to *Adar^+/-* mice, with the majority of upregulated genes

being known ISGs (136 out of 151 and 124 out of 137, respectively) (**Fig. 5B,C**). These

outcomes suggest that *RdRp^tg/- Adar^+/-* mice have an extreme ISG response that likely leads to

the Singleton-Merten interferonopathy-resembling phenotype. Interestingly, when we examined

which genes are changing across genotype comparisons, we saw a largely overlapping set of

ISGs upregulated in the presence of the RdRp transgene or in the absence of one *Adar* allele

(**Fig. 5D**). All three non-WT genotypes (*Adar^+/-, RdRp^tg/-,* and *RdRp^tg/- Adar^+/-*) showed significant

upregulation of overlapping ISGs, but the magnitude of upregulation varies drastically by

genotype (**Fig. 5D**). Consistently the dual heterozygotes have extremely high induction,

elevated 3-5-fold over what we observed in $RdRp^{tg/-}$ mice, while $Adar^{+/-}$ have only low level ISG

induction (**Fig. 5D**). Thus, synergy between the RdRp transgene and the absence of one $Adar$

allele leads to a hyper-induced ISG state in mice that is no longer tolerated.

Pathway Analysis. Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) was used to assess which canonical

molecular pathways are activated or inhibited. $Adar^{+/-}$, $RdRp^{tg/-}$, and $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$ mice

showed activation of genes related to interferon signaling, neuroinflammatory signaling and

PRRs (**Fig. 5E**). Genes associated with dendritic cell (DC) maturation were activated in $RdRp^{tg/-}$

and $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$ mice (**Fig. 5E**). Increased DC maturation, specifically in $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$

animals, may contribute to the observed disease. We also carried out analyses of upstream

regulators that may be responsible for gene expression patterns. In WT-$Adar^{+/-}$, $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/+}$,

and $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$ mice, we not surprisingly identified $Ddx58$ (RIG-I), and $Ifih1$ (MDA5) as

upstream regulators activated in those samples (**Fig. S4**). Main intermediates in interferon

signaling pathways, including IRF7, IRF9, STAT1, and STAT2 were also statistically significant

predicted key regulators. (**Fig. S4**). Only in mice missing one $Adar$ allele ($Adar^{+/-}$ and $RdRp^{tg/-}$

$Adar^{+/-}$ mice) did we also identify predicted regulation by additional PRR proteins, including

TLR3, which recognizes dsRNA, and $ZBP1$ (DAI), which recognizes Z-form nucleic acids,[63] both

resulting in activation of interferon signaling (**Fig. S4**). Interactions with other nucleic acid

sensing molecules besides MDA5 may thus play roles in sensing of ADAR1-edited transcripts.

Molecular and cellular differences in $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$ mice validate RNA-seq analyses and

are consistent with interferonopathy. To characterize the RNA-seq results further, we

determined levels of ISG mRNAs in brain tissues of $Adar^{+/+}$ and $Adar^{+/-}$ mice, with or without the

RdRp transgene. Similar to the RNA-seq data, in $Adar^{+/-}$ mice, there were only small increases

in levels of three classical ISG mRNAs compared to WT mice (about 2- to 5-fold; **Fig. 6A**). In

contrast, and consistent with prior data,[37-39] $RdRp^{tg/-}$ mice had major increases compared to WT

mice. However, the dual heterozygotes ($RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$) had much higher ISG mRNA

elevations, on the order of 200 – 600 fold relative to WT.

Importantly too, breeding to $Ifih1^{-/-}$ mice demonstrated that loss of MDA5 resulted in rescue of

animal growth and a complete abolishment of ISG upregulation observed in $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$

animals (**Fig. S5**), reinforcing the MDA5-dependence of the phenotypes. Given the massively

amplified ISG transcriptional pattern in the double heterozygotes, and the immune cell activation

and maturation pathways enrichment observed (**Fig. 5, Fig. S6**), we next harvested the spleens

of 4-5 week old mice for flow cytometry analyses.

Aberrantly activated immune cell subsets are canonical autoimmune disease features and

identifying them would support the conclusion of a dysregulated immune state in *RdRp*$^{tg/-}$ *Adar*$^{+/-}$

mice. In major immune cell populations in the spleens, including B cells, T cells, neutrophils,

DCs, and granulocytes, we found no major differences in cell population proportions across

different genotypes (**Fig. S7A**). The antiviral protein BST-2 (Tetherin) is a classical ISG with a

high dynamic range of expression in response to type I interferon stimulation in multiple

mammals, including mice,[64-66] and the mRNA was consistently upregulated across comparisons

in the RNA-seq experiments. We therefore determined cell surface BST-2 protein expression in

the various immune cell populations, and found it to be elevated on all cell types of *RdRp*$^{tg/-}$

Adar$^{+/-}$ mice and was slightly upregulated on DCs in WT-*Adar*$^{+/-}$ and *RdRp*$^{tg/-}$ animals and

granulocytes from *RdRp*$^{tg/-}$ animals (**Fig. 6B**), similar to what we have observed previously.[38]

We also examined monocyte and dendritic cell differentiation, maturation and activation in these

animals (**Fig. 6C, D, E**). Monocytes were significantly increased in *RdRp*$^{t/-}$ *Adar*$^{+/-}$ animals (**Fig.**

6C) and cDC1s were slightly decreased also (**Fig. S7B**). Monocytes are circulating precursor

cells that infiltrate into the tissue upon detection of proinflammatory stimuli and differentiate into

effector monocyte-derived DCs (moDCs). An increase in this cell population is suggestive of

increased demand for precursor cells in these animals. In support of this hypothesis, we

observed increased BST-2 expression on all DC subsets from *RdRp*$^{tg/-}$ *Adar*$^{+/-}$ mice, as well as

increased expression of the activation markers CD80/86 on *RdRp*$^{tg/-}$ *Adar*$^{+/-}$ monocytes and

moDCs (**Fig. 6D, E**). Disorders in DC function and activity have been widely implicated in

several autoimmune diseases, including SLE, and may contribute to disease development in

Adar$^{+/-}$ RdRp$^{tg/-}$ animals.

Editome analyses show dual heterozygotes have dysregulated A-I editing. To interrogate

the relationship of the loss of one *Adar* allele to the SMS-like phenotype of *RdRp*$^{tg/-}$ *Adar*$^{+/-}$ mice,

we characterized genome-wide A-to-I editing differences between all four genotypes of animals

(**Fig. 7**). We first carried out whole exome sequencing to eliminate any SNPs that may be

unique to our colony or genotypes (of which very few were detected), as compared to the

reference genome. We then identified all A-to-G changes in RNA-seq data (inosine is decoded

as guanine during sequencing). We found that the majority of edited sites in all four genotypes

were in intergenic regions and 3'UTRs, with a fractionally larger portion for 3'UTRs in RdRp^{tg}

mice. Exons and introns were represented approximately equivalently (**Fig. 7A, B**). Interestingly

and unexpectedly, while edited site locations were similarly proportioned among the four

genotypes (**Fig. 7A**), the number of edited sites increased substantially (50 – 65%) in *RdRp*[tg/-]

Adar^{+/-} mice compared to the other three genotypes (**Fig. 7B**). Numbers of edited genes also

increased. This seemingly paradoxical result in the Singleton-Merten-affected dual

heterozygotes was apparent across all gene regions. In contrast, in the *Adar*^{+/-} and *RdRp*[tg/-]

mice, the number of edited genes decreased compared to WT mice and the overall number of

edited sites remained largely unchanged (**Fig. 7B**). Despite the number of edited sites being

unchanged for WT, *Adar*^{+/-}, and *RdRp*[tg/-] mice, there was a shift from intergenic to extragenic

regions in these animals, and there was a substantial proportionate rise in 3'UTR editing in

RdRp[tg/-] mice of both genotypes, which was quantitatively greater in *RdRp*[tg/-] *Adar*^{+/-} mice.

Because they possess only one functional *Adar* allele, it was unexpected that *RdRp*[tg/-] *Adar*^{+/-}

mice would have these increases in the number of A-to-I edited genes and A-to-I edited sites

(**Fig. 7B**). Thus, there is a dysregulation of A-to-I editing. When we examined overlap of edited

sites or edited genes between genotypes (visualized in Venn diagrams, **Fig. 7C**), we observed

the highest number of uniquely edited genes (719) and sites (695) in *RdRp*[tg/-] *Adar*^{+/-} mice,

indicating that these animals have significantly different editing patterns compared to the other

genotypes. It is notable that *RdRp*[tg/-] *Adar*^{+/-} mice have increased editing in LINEs, SINEs, DNA

transposons and other retrotransposons, since increases in retroelement transcription are

associated with autoimmune disease states.[67] In addition, previous studies have shown ADAR1

to be critical for regulation of retroelement transcript self-reactivity[9,10] Increased ADAR-specific

editing of retroelements is normally protective, but in our double heterozygote mice this alone is

not compensatory enough to prevent disease, indicating that the A-to-I editing process in these

animals is abnormal.

Next, we used RNA-seq to analyze the changes in edited genes, along with relative expression

in each group of mice, to determine associations with activated/inhibited canonical pathways

and enriched diseases and biological functions (**Fig. S8**). Of edited mRNAs in *RdRp*[tg/-] *Adar*^{+/-}

mice, genes associated with disease and biological functions related to apoptosis, cell death,

and necrosis were enriched (**Fig. S8**). Notably, there was a clear reduction in genes involved in

inflammatory disease states that was unique to comparisons with this *RdRp*[tg/-] *Adar*^{+/-} mice (**Fig.**

S8).

To explore the question further, we asked how A-to-I editing of ISG mRNAs, when it occurs,

affects expression of their encoded proteins in *RdRp*^{tg/-} *ADAR*^{+/-} mice. We measured mRNA

levels and performed protein immunoblotting for several ISGs that are uniquely edited in

RdRp^{tg/-} *Adar*^{+/-} mice: Rig-I, Isg15, and Zbp1. Both Rig-I (*Ddx58*) and Zbp1 (*Zbp1*) were also

predicted by the RNA-seq analysis to be key upstream gene regulators (genes with known

activation/inhibition effects on the enriched pathways; **Fig. S4**). Expression levels of Rig-I,

Isg15, and to a much lesser extent and not at the protein level, Zbp1, were increased in *RdRp*^{tg/-}

and *RdRp*^{tg/-} *Adar*^{+/-} mice, but not in *Adar*^{+/-} mice (**Fig. 7D**,**E)** indicating that A-to-I editing does

not reduce expression of these ISGs. Additionally, ADAR1 isoforms were expressed in *RdRp*^{tg/-}

Adar^{+/-} mice at relatively similar levels as their *wild type* counterpart (**Fig. 7E,F**), with slightly

higher p150 protein in *RdRp*^{tg/-} mice and *RdRp*^{tg/-}*Adar*^{+/-} mice. Notably, in *Adar*^{+/-} mice alone, we

observed decreased ADAR1 protein expression (**Fig. 7F**), as would be predicted from loss of an

allele.

Endogenous retroelements are enriched in the 3' UTRs of ISG mRNAs.[68] Despite the increased

ISG mRNA expression in *RdRp*^{tg/-} *Adar*^{+/-} animals compared to WT animals (Figure 5C), the

proportion of uniquely edited sites that were within an ISG RNA versus those of other genes

was not significantly elevated (**Fig. S9**). This was the case despite the double heterozygotes

having an increase in total edited genes and sites (Figure 7C). Compared to the WT and double

heterozygotes, *RdRp*^{tg/-} and particularly *Adar*^{+/-} animals had small, though significant, reductions

in the proportion of uniquely edited sites falling within an ISG. These results suggest that while

ISGs themselves were also edited, the amount of editing within the ISG mRNAs does not

account for the observed dysregulation of Adar editing.

In summary, single *Adar* allelic loss coupled with transgenic expression of the picornavirus

RdRp synergize to cause an extreme ISG response which produces an interferonopathy

remarkably similar to Singleton-Merten syndrome. This work presents a novel model for this

disease, which can be further studied to unlock molecular mechanisms driving the pathology.

The ADAR-intact model is exceptional for its paradoxical combination of tolerated MDA5

hyperactivity with autoimmunity resistance.

DISCUSSION

Precise regulation of intracellular RNA duplex sensing is critical for protecting mammals against the Scylla of viral disease while also evading the Charybdis of autoimmunity. Confining sensing to only exogenous dsRNAs via PRRs such as MDA5 is therefore a bedrock feature of healthy antiviral defense. However, since MDA5 is relatively non-discriminating in its ligand preferences (mainly binding to internal segments of longer dsRNA duplexes on the order of hundreds to thousands of nucleotides in length), it has become clear in the past few years that an additional layer of control, ADAR1 p150 editing of host cellular RNAs, is at play. Nevertheless, the biological significance of the millions of A-to-I edits that modify RNA transcripts are incompletely understood.

In the same year in which he published his Nobel-awarded paper on the YF17D yellow fever vaccine that is still used today,[69] virologist Max Theiler reported his isolation of Theiler's virus and noted its similarities to poliovirus.[70] Here we identify new features of a mouse model in which we express the dsRNA-synthesizing enzyme of this picornavirus outside the viral context in the tissues of mice, providing a continuous dsRNA stimulus to the MDA5-MAVS pathway. In its strict MDA5-MAVS dependence, the model parallels the exclusively MDA5-dependent pattern for sensing of replicating picornaviruses.[1,5-8] Having previously demonstrated the lack of significant autoinflammatory cost to the animals, we found here that RdRp^{tg} mice are further able to resist an autoimmune provocation of induced SLE in the BM12 model (**Fig. 1**). However, the loss of a single *Adar* allele, which by itself is not discernibly harmful in our and others' hands,[18] breaks the autoinflammation-protected state, resulting in a severe disease characterized by extreme ISG elevations, dysregulated and increased A-to-I editing, bone and teeth abnormalities, stunted growth, and prematurely gray hair.

Among ADAR1 mouse models that produce autoinflammatory pathology, this is the only one with a simple haploinsufficient genotype and a wild type remaining *Adar* allele All others are either *Adar* $^{-/-}$ (which is embryonic lethal without an *Mda5* KO rescue) or utilize protein mutants such as *Adar*^{P95A} or *Adar*^{E861A} (see Rehwinkel and Mehdipour 2024[71] for a comprehensive list of existing mouse models). Relatedly, we further emphasize that the present model is nucleic acid-driven rather than MDA5 GOF mutation-triggered. As such it is a mouse model in which 'endogenously' synthesized RNAs generate an autoinflammatory disease via wild type MDA5, with the source of the dsRNA being a genomically-integrated viral polymerase. Since loss of

one *Adar* allele is enough to tilt the immune system in RdRp[tg] mice to a highly pathogenic

autoinflammatory outcome, it can be speculated that in some natural circumstances viral

infections and the inflammatory signaling cascades they induce have roles in triggering human

autoinflammatory diseases, particularly if they also disturb the finely regulated, complex

equilibrium of A-to-I editing. The RdRp[tg/-] *Adar*^{+/-} model complements ADAR1 mutant mouse

AGS models, which differ in utilizing mutant ADAR1 proteins[72-74], and which do not incorporate a

viral polymerase. The pathological outcome in *RdRp*[tg/-] *Adar*^{+/-} mice is variably penetrant, with

about half of mice severely affected, a feature that is common in human SMS kindreds[55,62] as

well ADAR1 mutant protein mouse models of AGS.[24,73]

In some respects, the pathologies observed in *RdRp*[tg/-] *Adar*^{+/-} mice resemble the human

interferonopathy SMS, with notable exceptions, e.g., the lack of aortic and valvular calcification

typically seen in the human syndrome.[54,55] In previous studies phenotypes resembling

AGS/SMS were produced by engineering mice to express the MDA5 constitutive activation

(GOF) mutants mG821S[75] or huR822Q.[76] In mG821S mice, SMS-like features were observed[75]

but the model differs in that while it recapitulates skeletal defects, also seen in *RdRp*[tg/-] *Adar*^{+/-}

mice and human SMS cases,[56,57,59] it did not have the dental deformities or the fur pigmentation

abnormality we observed, nor did we see the deteriorating kidney function found in mG821S

mice. In the picornavirus RdRp[tg] model, constitutive activation of WT MDA5 expressed from the

endogenous locus by upstream provision of sustained dsRNA production is insufficient and

addition of *Adar* haploinsufficiency is needed. It may thus have value as a model of nucleic acid-

induced autoimmunity that reflects the overwhelming majority of patients, who have normal RLR

proteins. In this regard, the G821S and R822W GOF MDA5 mutant proteins do not bind dsRNA

and are always "on". This may be central to the difference.

Why ADAR1, which mediates the most abundant form of RNA editing in Metazoan organisms,[77]

does not edit RdRp-synthesized RNAs sufficiently to prevent activation of WT MDA5 in the

RdRp[tg] but *Adar*^{+/+} mouse is unclear and is an intriguing aspect to investigate in the future. The

data indicate that mammals have a means to prevent viral RdRp-synthesized dsRNA from being

protected (from sensing) by A-to-I editing, even when the RdRp is expressed completely outside

the context of actual viral replication, i.e., without the elaborate replication factory biogenesis

central to the life cycles of all positive strand RNA viruses (and also without Vpg protein capping

in the case of picornaviruses). How this occurs is a key topic for investigation in the field.

In prior reports of *Ifih1* gene duplication or mice carrying MDA5 GOF mutants, which also have

increased expression of ISGs and relative protection against viral diseases, the mice have been

shown to be more prone to either spontaneous or triggered autoimmunity.[36,42,43,75,76] Thus,

RdRp[tg] mice may have distinctive tolerance mechanisms as evidenced by their resistance to

induced SLE. A component of these tolerance mechanisms may be the increase in overall and

effector regulatory T cells (**Fig. 1**), which are key autoimmune suppressors cells.[49]

We conclude from our data that correctly regulated ADAR1 editing is a key suppressor of

interferonopathic outcomes in these animals. The results also suggest that modulation of

ADAR1 activity might potentially be of benefit in some human autoinflammatory diseases.

Despite loss of one allele, ADAR1 levels, specifically the levels of ADAR p150 protein were

increased equivalently in both *RdRp[tg/-]* and *RdRp[tg/-] Adar+/-* animals, indicating that disease is

not driven by a gene dosage effect in which low ADAR1 levels cause hypo-editing of dsRNA.

Consistent with this result, a dysregulation picture emerged in which the overall number of

edited sites and edited genes are increased in the double heterozygotes as compared to all

other genotypes (**Fig. 7**). The dysregulation could contribute to the severe phenotype observed,

but again, the comparison of the degree of p150 elevation with that of *RdRp[tg/-]* mice compels an

interpretation that the level of induced ADAR1 protein is not the main driver. For example,

abnormally high levels of RNA editing have been reported in SLE patients.[78] When we

measured the levels of proteins encoded by several uniquely edited ISG transcripts in *RdRp[tg/-]*

Adar^{+/-} mice, we did not identify an effect of the additional edits. We considered whether

increased ISG expression might lead to increased endogenous retroelement dsRNA

expression, a possibility suggested by the observed increase in editing of SINES and LINES; in

this regard, Zhang et al. showed that such endogenous retroelements are in fact quite enriched

in the 3' UTRs of ISG mRNAs.[68] Here we found that multiple ISG mRNAS were indeed A-to-I

edited but the proportion of uniquely edited sites that were within an ISG RNA versus those of

other genes was not significantly elevated.

ADAR1 activity and editing changes in autoinflammatory diseases that are not directly linked to

ADAR1 mutations are still poorly understood, but our data indicate that simple expression of the

enzyme at physiological or higher levels does equate with proper function. It will be worthwhile

to study changes in ADAR1 expression or dysregulation of A-to-I editing in interferonopathies

and other autoimmune disease not directly linked to ADAR1.

In regard to the premature fur graying, dyschromatosis symmetrica hereditariais (DSH), a rare

autosomal dominant skin pigmentation disorder, is associated with ADAR1 mutations in some

human populations.[79] In these patients there is little correlation between genotype and

phenotype, suggesting other genetic or environmental factors impact disease.[79] *Adar*^{+/-} mice

only develop the fur pigmentation abnormality in the presence of the RdRp transgene,

suggesting a possibility that a second innate immune system trigger, such as exogenous viral

activation of MDA5 signaling, could be involved in DSH. Rice et al. observed that *ADAR*

haploinsufficiency or hypomorph function of missense variants are the probable molecular

mechanisms in DSH.[14]

METHODS

Mice and nomenclature. RdRp transgenic mice on the C57/BL6J background have been

previously described.[37] We here use *RdRp*[tg/-] to designate a mouse with one RdRp transgene

allele and one normal locus lacking the chromosome 6 transgene insertion, *RdRp*[tg/tg] for

transgene homozygotes, and RdRp[tg], without italics, for the general model. *Adar*^{+/-} mice on the

C57/BL6 background generated by Hartner et al.[20] were obtained from the Jackson Laboratory

(MGI 3029789). There is a germline deletion of the gene region spanning exons 7-9, which

results in non-functional p110 and p150 proteins.[20] Mice were backcrossed for two generations

onto our colony before use and genotypes were confirmed using protocols suggested by the

Jackson Laboratory. CD45.1[+] congenic marker line mice were obtained from the Jackson

Laboratory (mouse strain: 002014) and crossed onto the BM12 mouse line (Jackson

Laboratory, 001162). Presence of the CD45.1 gene was confirmed via TransnetYX genotyping

service (Ptprc-2 Mut probe) and confirmed with flow cytometric staining of splenocytes. BM12

genotyping was confirmed as described[45] in *Ifih1* knockout mice on a B6.J background were

obtained from Jackson labs (strain 015812). As much as possible, littermate controls were used

for direct comparison between groups. All experiments use a mix of male and female mice for

analysis. All experiments were performed in accordance with the IACUC guidelines and

approved procedures for the University of Colorado, Anschutz Medical Center (IACUC protocol

no. 00116).

BM12 transfer. BM12 initiation of lupus like disease was done as described.[45] Briefly, 1×10^8

splenocytes isolated from CD45.1[+] BM12 in mice were injected intraperitoneally into

WT(CD45.2) or *RdRp*[tg/tg] (CD45.2) mice. Single cell solution in PBS or PSB alone (sham) was

used for injection in 250 μL total volume. Mice were euthanized at 14 days post injection for

disease evaluation.

Animal Imaging, μCT analysis, Intraocular pressure determinations. Femurs were

evaluated for length, cortical bone structure and trabecular microarchitecture using a Zeiss

Xradia Versa X-ray microscope-520 (μCT, Zeiss, Dublin, CA, USA; 80 kVp, 4x objective,

isotropic voxel size of 4 μm). Regions of interest were located at the femur mid-diaphysis (1 mm

tall) and the distal femur metaphysis (starting at 600 μm proximal to the epiphyseal line and

extending 1,000 μm proximally). Trabecular and cortical bone were segmented and analyzed

using Dragonfly Pro and Bone Analysis software (Object Research Systems, Montreal, Canada)

according to established guidelines.[80] Trabecular bone parameters included bone volume

fraction (Tb.BV/TV), trabecular number (Tb.N), trabecular thickness (Tb.Th), and trabecular

separation (Tb.Sp). Cortical bone measures included cortical bone volume fraction (Ct.BV/TV),

total bone mineral density (TMD), and cortical porosity (Ct.Po). The bending moments of inertia

(Imax and Imin) which contribute to structural stiffness under bending were calculated. Hydrated

femurs were evaluated using three-point bending to failure as described[81,82] to determine

mechanical properties (e.g., stiffness and maximum load) using a MTS Insight II benchtop tester

(MTS Corp., Minneapolis, MN; 250 N load cell, 5 mm/min deflection rate, 7 mm span width) and

analyzed using custom MATLAB code, Mathworks, Natick, MA, USA). Material properties (e.g.,

modulus, ultimate stress) were calculated using standard equations derived from engineering

beam theory.[81] Intraocular pressures were measured with a handheld ocular pneumotonometer

(Model 30 Classic, Medtronic) as described.[83]

Cell culture and siRNA delivery. Triplicate biological replicates were used with three technical

replicates each. A549 cell lines (ATTC, CCL-185) were maintained in Dulbecco's Modified

Eagle's Medium (Corning) containing 10% fetal bovine serum and penicillin/streptomycin/L-

glutamine (Corning, 100x solution). Doxycycline-inducible RdRp-expressing cells were

described previously.[37] Two different siRNAs were used in combination for *ADAR* knockdown

and were purchased from ThermoFisher Scientific (Catalog # 4390824, IDs s1008, s1009,

previously validated). Negative control (ThermoFisher) or anti-*ADAR* siRNA were transfected

into cells (50 pmol per well in a 6-well plate, cells seeded at >50% confluence) using

lipofectamine RNAimax reagent (ThermoFisher) according to manufacturer instructions. Cells

were washed 6 hours post transfection and dox (2 µg/mL) was added at this time. At 48 hours

post dox addition, cells were lysed for protein and RNA analysis.

Western blotting. Western blotting was done as previously described.[37,39] Briefly, cells were

homogenized in RIPA buffer and protein content was determined by Bradford reaction (Bio-

Rad). 30 µg total protein was loaded per well prepared in 6X reducing SDS sample buffer (Bio-

Rad, boil for 5-10 minutes prior to loading). Samples were run on 10% agarose gels (Bio-Rad)

and transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membrane (Bio-Rad). Samples were blocked in 5%

milk in tris-buffered saline containing 0.1% Tween20 (TBS-T). For human cell line derived blots,

rabbit polyclonal anti-ADAR1 (1:1,000 dilution; Cell Signaling, 14175) primary antibody or

mouse anti-tubulin (1:5,000 dilution; Sigma, T5168) were used. For mouse tissue blots, rabbit

anti-Rig-I (1:1,000 dilution, Cell Signaling, 3743), mouse anti-ADAR1 (1:500 dilution, Santa Cruz

Bio, sc-73408), rabbit anti-actin (1:5,000 dilution, Cell Signaling, 4967) or the previously

described tubulin antibody was used. For detection, goat anti-rabbit secondary antibody

conjugated to horseradish peroxidase (1:5,000 dilution; Calbiochem, 401393) or goat anti-

mouse secondary antibody conjugated to horseradish peroxidase (1:5,000 dilution; Invitrogen,

31430) were used for all proteins of interest. Immobilon Crescendo Western HRP substrate

(Millipore) was used for visualization of bands and imaged on a ChemiDoc XRS+ Imaging

System (Bio-Rad).

Bioinformatics and Computational Methods. We used a combination of RNA sequencing

and exome sequencing to evaluate transcriptome-wide patterns of RNA gene expression and

ADAR-mediated A-to-I RNA editing. Specifically, we sequenced four biological replicates from

each of the four genotypes for RNA-seq (WT-$Adar^{+/+}$, WT-$Adar^{+/-}$, $RdRp^{tg/-} Adar^{+/+}$, and $RdRp^{tg/-}$

$Adar^{+/-}$) and a single sample from each genotype for exome sequencing. Exome sequencing

was used to establish a baseline level of germline genetic variation within our mouse colony and

was used as background for identifying RNA-edited sites. Library preparation and sequencing

for single-end RNA-sequencing and paired-end exome sequencing were performed by BGI

(Beijing Genomics Institute). The quality of raw reads was assessed using FASTQC v.0.11.5.

We used Trimmomatic v.0.27 to filter out low quality reads that had a mean Phred quality score

less than 20. Read quality was then reassessed with FASTQC. We used Hisat2 v.2.1.0 to map

reads to the mm10 genome using default single-end parameters for RNA-seq and included the -

-no-mixed --no-discordant flags for the paired-end exome sequencing. Next we used Samtools

v.1.3.1 to convert the sam output files into bam format. Then we used PicardTools v.1.119 to

add read groups, remove PCR duplicates, and coordinate sort the bam files. To evaluate RNA-

seq gene expression patterns across the four genotypes, we first used Stringtie v.1.3.6 to

quantify transcripts abundance, and Stringmerge to merge the output Stringtie GTF files.

CuffDiff2 was to identify significantly differentially expressed genes (DEGs) with an FDR of 0.05

and Benjamini-Hochberg multiple test correction. In order to reduce false positives, we also

required fragments per kilobase per million reads mapped (FPKM) to be at least four, and at 2-

fold differences in expression because of the massive gene expression differences observed

in[37,39] We used CummeRbund and Plotly to visualize our results. The Interferome Database was

used to identify which DEGs were known ISGs. Finally, we used the Canonical Pathways and

Diseases and Biological Functions analyses in IPA to determine which molecular pathways and

biological functions were enriched among our conditions and to predict whether they were likely

to be activated or inhibited based on gene expression patterns in our dataset. To identify RNA-

edited sites, we used REDItools to call SNPs that were present in the RNA-seq, but not present

in the exome sequencing. Because the A-to-I editing performed by ADAR is incorporated as A-

to-G changes by sequencers, we looked for differences in A-to-G changes across conditions.

We required a minimum of 10x coverage and that each putative RNA-editing SNP be

sequenced at least twice to reduce the risk of including sequencing errors. First, we used

Samtools mpileup to call SNPs in the exome sequencing data. We used REDItoolsDeNovo to

call SNPs A-to-I edited sites in the RNA-seq requiring at least 10x coverage and that each SNP

was sequenced at least twice. Putative germline SNPs identified in the exome sequencing were

subtracted from the RNA SNPs. The resulting SNP tables were converted into bed format and

sorted by coordinates using BedTools and we filtered SNPs to those present in all four

biological replicates. We then annotated the SNPs using Homer annotatePeaks.pl to determine

the genomic features in which SNPs occur. A-to-I editing patterns were compared across the

four genotypes in two ways and visualized using SUMO, 1) whether editing occurred in the

same vs. different genomic features, allowing editing sites to occur at different locations within

that feature, and 2) whether editing occurred at identical sites. Finally, we used IPA to identify

significantly enriched molecular pathways and biological functions associated with edited genes

among the 4 genotypes.

Quantitative PCR. For qPCR analysis of mouse samples, RNA was extracted from mouse

tissue using Trizol reagent (Ambion) according to manufacturer instructions. Reverse

transcription PCR (RT-PCR) for cDNA synthesis was conducted using Maxima H Minus First

Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo Scientific) following manufacturer instructions. QPCR

analysis for quantification of cellular transcripts was done using 2X qPCR Green Master Mix

(APEX) with the following primers for mice: 5'-CATGGCCTTCCGTGTTCCTA-3' and 5'-

CTATGTTTCCCGCGGCACGTCAGATCCA-3' for Gapdh; 5'-TTTGTTGTTGTTGTTGTTCGTT-

3' and 5'-GCAGGAATCAGTTGTGATCT-3' for Ifit1; 5'- TGGTACAGAACTGCAGCGAG -3' and

5'- CAGCCAGAACTGGTCTTCGT -3' for Isg15; and 5'-CAAACAAACAAACAAACCCTCTC-3'

and 5'-TCAAGGTGTCACTCTGCAT-3' for Oasl2; 5'-GGTGGAAGACTACGCGTTGGGAC-3'

and 5'-ACGACTGTGTCTGGTGAGGGAACAC-3' for ADARp110; 5'-

GGCCTTGCCGGCACTATGTCTC-3' and 5'-GCGGGTATCTCCACTTGCTATGCTC-3' for

ADARp150; and 5'-CACAGCCCTCTCCATCAACTATAAGCAG-3' and 5'-

CTGTAGGTGAGGTTGATCTTTCCATTCAG-3' for IFNβ. For qPCR analysis from human cell

lines, RNA extractions were done using an RNAeasy kit (Qiagen) according to kit protocol. RT-

and qPCR were performed as described above with the following human primers: 5'-

TGGACCTGACCTGCCGT-3' and 5'-TGGAGGAGTGGGTGTCGC-3' for GAPDH; 5'-

GTGGACAAATGCGACGAACC-3' and 5'-ATTTCCGGCCCTTGATCCTG-3' for ISG15; and 5'-

GGATCTTCTCCCACACTCACATCT-3' and 5'-CACCATCAGGATTCTTCACGAA-3' for OASL.

Transcripts were quantified using the $\Delta\Delta C_T$ method relative to *Gapdh* or β-Actin (*Actb*)

transcripts.

Flow Cytometry. Mice were euthanized by CO_2 asphyxiation and subsequent cardiac puncture.

Spleens were excised and placed in 15 mL conical tubes containing 3 mL of DMEM containing

FBS and antibiotics. Spleen was manually dissociated with a pipette tip and pipetting, then

passed through a 40 µM nylon cell strainer. 100 µL from each sample were combined and used

for the isotype and unstained controls. Cells were gated to exclude debris, doublets, and dead

cells based on viability dye staining. Cell population abundance: samples had at least 1x10^6

cells sorted in the live population and cell types are shown as percent of live cells for all flow

cytometry data. Each cell type described had a minimum of about 0.5% meaning all cell types

described were observed at a frequency of about 5,000 or more per sample. Analysis of cellular

populations was conducted as previously described[38]. Gating strategies are shown in **Figs.**

S10-13. For staining of splenocyte populations, cells were red blood cell depleted as

described.[38] For analysis including FoxP3 staining, intracellular transcription factor staining was

done using Foxp3/Transcription Factor Staining Buffer Set (eBioscience) according to

manufacturer instructions for use in a 96-well plate. DC-specific staining panel has been

previously described.[38] T_{reg} staining panel consists of the following antibodies/cellular stains:

fixable viability dye eFlour780 (eBioscience, 65-0865-14), PE anti-mouse FoxP3 (BioLegend,

126404), PerCP-Cy5.5 anti-mouse CD4 (BioLegend, 100434), Brilliant Violet 421 anti-mouse

CD25 (BioLegend, 101923), APC anti-mouse CTLA-4 (BioLegend, 106310), Brilliant Violet 711

anti-mouse GITR (BD Bioscience, 563390), Brilliant Violet 605 anti-mouse ICOS (BioLegend,

313538), Brilliant Violet 480 anti-mouse CD44 (BD Bioscience, 566116) and FITC anti-mouse

CD62L (BioLegend, 104406). For analysis of B cells (germinal center and plasmablast) the

following antibodies and cellular stains were used: fixable viability dye eFlour780 (eBioscience,

65-0865-14), Brilliant Violet 421 anti-mouse CD138 (BioLegend, 142507), PE anti-mouse Fas

(BD Bioscience, 554258), Alexa Fluor 488 anti-mouse GL-7 (BioLegend, 144612). For T_{FH} cell

analysis and CD45.1 engraftment, the following antibodies and cellular stains were used: fixable

viability dye eFlour780 (eBioscience, 65-0865-14), PerCP-Cy5.5 anti-mouse CD4 (BioLegend,

100434), Brilliant Violett 711 anti-mouse TCRβ (BioLegend, 109243), PE anti-mouse PD-1

(BioLegend, 135205), APC anti-mouse CXCR5 (BioLegend, 145506), and Brilliant Violet 421

anti-mouse CD45.1 (BioLegend, 110732). BST-2 was detected with Pacific Blue anti-mouse

BST-2 (BioLegend, 127108). Gating for B cell and T_{FH} cell analysis was described in ref[45].

Isotype staining for each panel was done in parallel. Gating was set based on fluorescence

minus one controls. Cells were gated to exclude debris, doublets, and dead cells based on

viability dye staining. Gating for DC-subtype determination was described in ref[38]. All data was

acquired on an LSRII (BD Biosciences) and analysis was done using FlowJo software.

ELISAs. Mouse serum was used for ANA detection via ELISA. For detection of anti-dsDNA

antibodies, calf thymus DNA (Sigma, D4522) was digested with S1 nuclease (ThermoFisher,

EN0321) to remove any single stranded DNA (ssDNA). DNA was ethanol precipitated and

resuspended in nuclease free water. Freeze-thaw cycles were avoided to prevent creation of

new ssDNA. Nunc MaxiSorp ELISA plates (Sigma) were coated with Poly-L Lysine (0.01% final,

Millipore Sigma) prior to use. Plates were coated overnight with dsDNA (3 µg/mL) in PBS at

room temperature and blocked with BSA in PBS (3% final, Sigma). For a standard, anti-dsDNA

(Abcam, ab27156) was used between the range of 1 µg/mL – 1.37 ng/mL (3-fold dilutions) and

serum samples were initially diluted 1:10 and then as needed. For anti-smAg ELISAs, plates

were coated with Sm Ag (3 µg/mL, Genway Biotech, GWB-CA4A65) in PBS overnight. Blocking

was done in 1% BSA/PBS. For standard, anti-SmAg (Novus Biologicals, NB600-546) was used

between the range of 1 µg/mL – 15.63 ng/mL (2-fold dilutions) and serum samples were diluted

1:10 before use and then as needed. For both ELISAs, standard and serum samples were

diluted in sample buffer (0.5% Tween20, 1% BSA in PBS) and plates were washed 3-5 times

between incubations with wash solution (0.5% Tween20 in PBS). Plates were incubated with

samples/standard for 2 hours at 37°C. Detection antibody used was goat anti-mouse IgG

peroxidase (1:10,000 dilution; Sigma, A2554) and peroxidase was developed used TMB ELISA

HRP Substrate kit (Seracare) and Sulfuric acid (4N, Fisher Scientific) according to manufacturer

instructions.

Calcium Quantification. Whole-brain tissue was flash frozen at necropsy, homogenized by

sonication on ice in 4x volumes of calcium assay buffer (Calcium Assay Kit, Abcam ab102505),

and free Ca^{2+} ions were quantified following the manufacturer's methods.

Histology. Briefly, approximately 2 cm thick tissue sections were fixed in 10% formalin for 24

hours then washed twice and suspended in 70% ethanol. Tissues were paraffin embedded, cut

and stained for Alizarin Red or H&E by our Research Histology Core Laboratory. Pathological

analysis and scoring was done by a certified pathologist (IDEXX BioAnalytics).

Data availability

The data and associated protocols that support the findings of this study are available from the

corresponding author upon request. The RNA-seq and whole exome sequencing datasets have

been deposited to the NCBI sequence read archive (SRA SUB14698103).

Inclusion and Ethics Statement

This work did not involve human subjects, or samples or materials from other countries, nor are

data from third parties included. All animal experiments were performed humanely in

accordance with the IACUC guidelines and approved procedures (IACUC protocol no. 00116)

for the University of Colorado School of Medicine.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

C.M.M. and J.H.M. conceived, designed and performed experiments, analyzed data and conducted statistical analysis and helped write the manuscript. L.B. performed RNA-seq and editome analysis and statistics and drafted related manuscript sections. R.D. performed experiments and managed the mouse colony. V.F. and E.B. contributed skeletal morphometry and imaging data and analysis and helped write the related manuscript sections. E.M.P. conceived, designed, and directed the project, assisted in plasmid cloning, and wrote the manuscript, with review and input from all authors during revisions.

     Figure Legends

Figure 1. RdRp^{tg} mice resist SLE-like disease induction in the BM12 model of lupus. Ten-

week-old mice were challenged with 100 million BM12-derived splenocytes. Mice were

harvested 14 days post challenge for analyses. **(A)** Splenomegaly. Weights of BM12 and sham-

injected mice spleens were measured. **(B,C)** Germinal center B cells, plasma cells and Tfh

cells. RBC-lysed, single cell suspensions of splenocytes from BM12 or sham injected animals

were generated for flow staining and germinal center B cells and plasma B cells (B), or follicular

helper cell populations (C) were measured by flow cytometry according to gating described in

materials and methods section. **(D)** Anti-nuclear antibodies. Sera from BM12 splenocyte-

injected or sham injected mice were used to measure anti-dsDNA antibodies and anti-SmAg

antibodies by quantitative ELISA. Data in A-D are from n = 7, 6, 8, 8 mice for WT (PBS),

RdRp$^{tg/-}$ (PBS), WT (BM12), and *RdRp$^{tg/-}$* (BM12) groups respectively. **(E)** T$_{reg}$ cells. RBC-lysed

single cell suspensions were generated from spleens of untreated, ten-week-old WT or RdRp^{tg}

mice (n = 5 for each group) and T$_{reg}$ subsets were determined by flow cytometry. Data were

analyzed using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey tests for (A-D) and an unpaired student's T

test for (E). * = $p < 0.05$, ** = $p < 0.01$, *** = $p < 0.001$, **** = $p < 0.0001$. Data points represent

individual animals, graphs show means with standard deviations (s.d.).

Figure 2. ADAR p150 and ADAR p110 levels in RdRp^{tg} mice, and effects of *ADAR*

knockdown on RdRp-dependent ISG expression. RNA isolated from brains of 4 to 5 week

old WT or *RdRp$^{tg/-}$* mice (n = 5 for WT, 6 for *RdRp$^{tg/-}$*) was used to measure **(A)** ADAR p110 and

(B) ADAR p150 transcripts by qPCR. Data points represent individual animals, graphs shown

means, s.d. **(C)** Immunoblotting for ADAR p110 and ADAR p150 in 4 to 5 week old mouse WT

and *RdRp$^{tg/-}$* brain. **** = $p < 0.0001$; n = 3 animals per genotype. **(D)** A549 cells with inducible

Theiler's virus RdRp (Tet-on system). Data are shown from two representative knockdowns. **(E)**

RNAs isolated from the parallel knockdowns done in panel D were used for qPCR analysis to

determine relative levels of the ISGs *OAS* and *ISG15* mRNAs. mRNAs were harvested 54 hours

after *ADAR*-targeting siRNA addition and 48 hours after dox addition. Comparisons were made

between dox-treated and dox-untreated cells and expressed as fold mRNA changes induced by

dox. Transfection controls (cells receiving transfection reagents but no siRNA) showed similar

levels of ISG induction after dox treatment as control siRNA-transfected cells, indicating lack of

contribution of transfected siRNAs to immune activation. Data are means and s.d. of triplicate

biological replicates with three technical replicates each. NS: not significant; unpaired Student's

T test.

Figure 3. Phenotypic and histological differences in RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$ mice. (A) Size and

coat color differences in 5-week-old, littermate *RdRp$^{tg/-}$* and *RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$* mice. **(B)** Weight

differences between 4 week and 5-week-old littermate *RdRp$^{tg/-}$* and *RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$* mice (n = 9

and 5 respectively). **(C)** Dental formation changes between *RdRp$^{tg/-}$* and *RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$* mice.

(D) H & E-stained tissue sections from kidney, brain, lung, liver, heart and spleens from *RdRp$^{tg/-}$*

and *RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$* littermate mice. Pathological grading revealed no significant scoring in

RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$ animals. **(E)** Blood Urea nitrogen from serum from 4-5 week old animals in WT,

Adar$^{+/-}$, *RdRp$^{tg/-}$*, *Adar$^{+/-}$ RdRp$^{tg/-}$* mice. n = 5, 6, 5, 8 for WT, *Adar$^{+/-}$*, *RdRp$^{tg/-}$*, *Adar$^{+/-}$ RdRp$^{tg/-}$*,

respectively. **(F)** Anti-SmAG antibodies from serum from 4-5 week old animals as measured by

quantitative ELISA. Four outlier high values were seen, but two were in the WT group. n = 15, 7,

10, 9 for WT, *Adar$^{+/-}$*, *RdRp$^{tg/-}$*, *Adar$^{+/-}$ RdRp$^{tg/-}$*, respectively. Anti-dsDNA antibody levels from

matched serum was below the limit of detection for all animals tested. Where not indicated, all

data and tissue sections come from a mix of male and female mice. Data in (B) was analyzed

by two-way ANOVA where ****$p < 0.0001$. Data in (E) and (F) were analyzed by one-way

ANOVA where *$p < 0.05$; data points represent individual animals, graphs show means and s.d.

Figure 4: Skeletal and dental features of wild type, *RdRp$^{tg/-}$*, *Adar$^{+/-}$,* and *Adar$^{+/-}$ RdRp$^{tg/-}$*

mice. Femurs from 6-week-old animals were manually de-fleshed and used for all analyses. **(A)**

Femur lengths of WT, *Adar$^{+/-}$*, *RdRp$^{tg/-}$,* and *RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$* mice (n = 8, 6, 10, and 17 animals

respectively). **(B)** Representative µCT images, distal femur sections and whole bone. **(C)**

Cortical bone volume fraction (BV/TV), n = 8, 7, 10, 17. **(D)** Trabecular number, n = 8, 7, 9, 17.

(E) Trabecular separation, n = 8, 7, 9, 17. **(F)** Stiffness, n = 8, 7, 10, 15. **(G)** Maximum load, n =

8, 7, 10, 17. **(H)** Cortical total mineral density, n = 8, 7, 10, 17. **(I)** Modulus, n = 8, 7, 10, 17. **(J)**

Ultimate stress, n = 8, 7, 10, 17. Mice with gray fur are indicated by light-blue symbols. Data

were analyzed first by using a ROUT test to remove outliers (Q = 1%), which resulted in removal

of two mice from one group in one panel (the *RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$* group in Fig. 4F, stiffness testing;

hence there are 15 mice as opposed to the 17 for this genotype in the other panels). A one-way

ANOVA comparing *RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$* to each other group was used followed by a Tukey tests

where * = $p < 0.05$, ** = $p < 0.01$, *** = $p < 0.001$, **** = $p < 0.0001$. Data points represent

individual animals, horizontal bars indicate means.

Figure 5. RNA-seq analysis reveals clear pattern of ISG upregulation suggestive of an

interferonopathy. RNA-seq from neuronal tissue from n = 4 age-matched (5 weeks) mice per

group. Where possible, littermate controls were used for analysis. Two male and two female

mice were used per group. **(A)** Multi-dimensional scaling plot of RNA expression profiles in WT-

WT, *Adar$^{+/-}$*, *RdRp$^{tg/-}$*, and *RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$* mice. **(B)** Heatmap of differentially expressed ISGs

across the four genotypes. FPKM values were log transformed with 1 pseudocount to facilitate

visualization. **(C)** Summary table of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) and proportions of

which are known ISGs as determined by the Interferome database. **(D)** Differentially expressed

genes that are shared across all group comparisons. **(E)** Canonical molecular pathways from

IPA that are significant across group comparisons.

Figure 6. ISG and leukocyte subset differences in RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$ mice. (A) qPCR of three

representative ISGs (*Ifit1*, *Isg15*, and *Oasl2*) in brain tissue of 4-5 week old WT, *Adar$^{+/-}$*, *RdRp$^{tg/}$*,

and *RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$* mice (n = 5, 5, 6, 5, respectively). **(B-E)** Flow cytometry analysis of cellular

populations derived from the spleens of 4-5 week old mice. Single cell, RBC-lysed solutions

were prepared for use in analysis. **(B)** BST-2 expression on the main immune cell subsets in the

spleen including T cells (CD3$^+$), B cells (CD19$^+$), DCs (CD11c$^+$), granulocytes (Ly6G$^+$), and NK

cells (NKp46$^+$). n = 7, 7, 4, 4 for WT, *Adar$^{+/-}$*, *RdRp$^{tg/}$*, *RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$*, respectively. **(C)**

Monocytes populations across all four groups. **(D)** BST-2 expression on monocyte/DC cell

subsets including monocytes, cDC1s, cDC2s, and moDCs. **(D)** Activation (CD80/86 expression)

of monocyte/DC subsets including monocytes, cDC1s, cDC2s, and moDCs. C-E: n = 12, 7, 10,

8 for WT, *Adar$^{+/-}$*, *RdRp$^{tg/}$*, *RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$*, respectively. For all graphs shown, data were

analyzed using a one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey tests to determine significance where *

= $p < 0.05$, ** = $p < 0.01$, *** = $p < 0.001$, **** = $p < 0.0001$. Data points represent individual

animals with the mean and s.d. shown as bars.

Figure 7: Analysis of the A-to-I editome reveals increased editing in *RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$* mice.

Changes in A-to-I edits were determined via comparison of RNA-seq data with whole exome

DNA sequencing. **(A)** Pie charts showing the proportion of editing sites within a given RNA

element for each mouse genotype. **(B)** Table summary of the distribution of overall numbers of

edited genes and sites for each genotype and the breakdown of locations of the edit sites

among different RNA elements. For each of the four genotypes, four animals were sequenced

and to be counted a gene must have been edited in all four animals sequenced but editing can

occur anywhere in the gene. For sites, identical sites must be edited in all four animals of a

genotype. **(C)** Venn diagrams showing overlap of edited genes (top) or sites (bottom) among the

four genotypes. **(D,E)** Immunoblot analysis from two animals per group (D) and gene expression

fold change (E) of three *Adar*$^{+/-}$ *RdRp*$^{tg/-}$ uniquely edited genes in the RNA-seq data set (as

compared to WT) in 5-week-old neuronal tissue. Rig-I, Isg15, and Zbp1 were evaluated as they

are each ISGs that are highly upregulated in mice expressing RdRp and are key regulators of

the antiviral response. **(F)** Expression of *Adar* isoforms in neuronal tissue of 4-5 week old mice

from all four genotypes, as determined by western blot (n = 2 per group).

Supplemental Figure Legends

Figure S1: Overall B cell and T cell populations are marginally changed during BM12 transfer. Single cell, RBC-lysed splenocyte suspensions were made from sham or BM12 transferred animals for flow cytometry analysis. **(A)** Overall B cell populations in animals as defined by cd19 expression. **(B)** Overall $CD4^+$ T cell population in the spleens of experimental animals, as defined by TCRβ and CD4 expression. Data were analyzed using a one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey tests where $*$ = $p < 0.05$, $**$ = $p < 0.01$, $***$ = $p < 0.001$, $****$ = $p < 0.0001$. n = 7, 6, 8, 8 for WT (PBS), $RdRp^{tg/-}$ (PBS), WT (BM12), and $RdRp^{tg/-}$ (BM12), respectively. Data represent individual animals with the mean and s.d. shown as bars.

Figure S2: Reduced survival of $Adar^{+/-}$ $RdRp^{tg/-}$ mice. Survival of animals from each group was followed for 20 weeks and shown as a Kaplan-Meier plot. Data were analyzed using a log-rank test (Mantel-Cox) where $****$ = $p < 0.0001$.

Figure S3: Analysis of organ calcification. Flash frozen brain and formalin-fixed paraffin embedded heart were collected from 6-week-old mice. **(A)** Heart samples were stained with Alizarin Red and calcium depositions were manually counted and shown as Alizarin Red foci per animal (n = 3, 5, 5, 10 for WT, $Adar^{+/-}$, $RdRp^{tg/}$, $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$, respectively). Representative heart section images are shown to the right: (i) positive control heart provided by UCDSOM Research Histology Core Laboratory; (ii) $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$ heart without Alizarin red foci; (iii) $RdRp^{tg/-}$ $Adar^{+/-}$ heart with a positive focus. **(B)** Calcium was quantified from brain tissues (n = 3, 4, 5, 5). Data were analyzed using a one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey tests; there were no significant differences between the groups. ns: not significant.

Figure S4: Predicted upstream regulators. Predicted upstream signaling regulators as determined by IPA in various genotype comparisons between WT, $Adar^{+/-}$, $RdRp^{tg/-}$, and $Adar^{+/-}$ $RdRp^{tg/-}$ mice where red/green indicates whether the gene itself is upregulated/downregulated in the RNA-seq and orange/blue indicates predicated activation/inhibition of the molecular pathway it regulates.

Figure S5: Loss of MDA5 rescues runting phenotype and abolished ISG upregulation. 6-week-old animals were weighed **(A)** and RNA was isolated from whole-brains for qPCR analysis of the ISGs Ifit1 **(B)**, Isg15 **(C)**, and Oasl2 **(D)**. Data were analyzed using a one-way ANOVA

followed by a Tukey tests where * = p < 0.05, ** = p < 0.01, *** = p < 0.001, **** = p < 0.0001.

For (A), n = 4, 5, 6, 10, and 4 for WT, *Adar*$^{+/-}$, *RdRp*$^{tg/}$, *RdRp*$^{tg/-}$ *Adar*$^{+/-}$, and *RdRp*$^{tg/-}$ *Adar*$^{+/-}$ *Ifih1*$^{-/-}$

, respectively. For (B-D), n = 4, 3, 5, 5, and 4. Data points represent individual animals with the

mean for each group shown as a bar.

Figure S6: Disease and Biological Functions. Enriched diseases and biological functions

across comparisons of gene expression changed between WT, *Adar*$^{+/-}$, *RdRp*$^{tg/-}$, and *Adar*$^{+/-}$

RdRp$^{tg/-}$ mice. Orange indicated that the disease or biological function is predicted to be

enriched for and blue indicated is predicted to be inhibited.

Figure S7: Certain immune cell populations are unchanged in *RdRp*$^{tg/-}$ *Adar*$^{+/-}$ mice.

Splenocytes from 4-5 week old mice were harvested and single cell, RBC-lsysed solutions were

made for FACS analysis. **(A)** T cells, B cells, DCs, granulocytes, and NK cells show no

difference across groups measured. n = 7, 7, 4, and 4 for WT, *Adar*$^{+/-}$, *RdRp*$^{tg/}$, and *RdRp*$^{tg/-}$

Adar$^{+/-}$, respectively. **(B)** DC subsets including pDCs, cDC1s, cDC2s, and moDCs show minor

or no difference in populations across groups. n = 12, 7, 10, and 8 for WT, *Adar*$^{+/-}$, *RdRp*$^{tg/}$, and

RdRp$^{tg/-}$ *Adar*$^{+/-}$, respectively. All data was analyzed using a one-way ANOVA followed by a

Tukey test to determine significance. * = p < 0.05. Data represent individual animals, graphs

show means and s.d.

Figure S8: Diseases and Biological Functions enriched for in A-to-I edited genes. Genes

with A-to-I edit sites and RNA-seq-derived expression changes were analyzed using IPA to

determine enriched diseases and biological functions across genotype comparisons (WT,

Adar$^{+/-}$, *RdRp*$^{tg/-}$, and *Adar*$^{+/-}$ *RdRp*$^{tg/-}$). Orange indicates that the disease or biological function is

predicted to be enriched for or activated and blue indicates is predicted to be inhibited.

Figure S9: Proportion of edited sites in ISG RNAs as a fraction of all uniquely edited sites

per animal. Sites of A-to-I editing that were within an ISG were identified and the proportion of

ISG edited sites out of all unique edited sites per animal was calculated. Bars indicate group

means, dots represent individual animals, and the error bars are s.d. Data were analyzed using

a one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey tests where * = p < 0.05, *** = p < 0.001, **** = p <

0.0001, ns = not significant.

Figure S10: Flow cytometry gating strategy demonstrating live/dead cell gates and general

gating strategy for B-cells, T-cells, granulocytes, neutrophils, and IFN upregulation of BST-2.

Figure S11: Flow cytometry gating strategy specific for plasma cells, germinal center B-cells,

and T-cell subtypes.

Figure S12: Flow cytometry gating strategy specific for dendritic cell subtypes identification,

activation and IFN upregulation.

Figure S13: Flow cytometry gating strategy specific for regulatory T-cells and Treg subtypes.

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1263

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

A.

M2 (y-axis), M1 (x-axis)

- ● WT ADAR+/+
- ■ WT ADAR+/-
- ▲ RdRP+/- ADAR+/+
- ◆ RdRP+/- ADAR+/-

B.

WT ADAR+/+ RdRP+/- ADAR+/+ WT ADAR+/- RdRP+/- ADAR+/-

Log₁₀(FPKM+1)

C.

Comparison	Up DEGs	Up ISGs (%)	Down DEGs	Down ISGs (%)	Total DEGs	Total ISGs (%)
WT ADAR+/+ vs. RdRP+/- ADAR+/+	96	84 (87.5%)	6	2 (33.3%)	102	86 (84.3%)
WT ADAR+/+ vs. WT ADAR+/-	30	27 (90.0%)	5	3 (60.0%)	35	30 (85.7%)
WT ADAR+/+ vs. RdRP+/- ADAR+/-	151	136 (90.1%)	75	38 (50.7%)	226	174 (76.9%)
RdRP+/- ADAR+/+ vs. WT ADAR+/-	6	4 (66.7%)	83	73 (87.9%)	89	77 (86.5%)
RdRP+/- ADAR+/+ vs. RdRP+/- ADAR+/-	64	59 (92.2%)	67	35 (52.2%)	131	94 (71.8%)
WT ADAR+/- vs. RdRP+/- ADAR+/-	137	124 (90.5%)	75	37 (49.3%)	212	161 (75.9%)

D.

- ■ WT vs. RdRp$^{tg/-}$
- ■ WT vs. RdRp$^{tg/-}$Adar$^{+/-}$
- ■ RdRp$^{tg/-}$ vs. RdRp$^{tg/-}$Adar$^{+/-}$
- ■ WT vs. Adar$^{+/-}$
- ■ RdRp$^{tg/-}$ vs. Adar$^{+/-}$
- ■ Adar$^{+/-}$ vs. RdRp$^{tg/-}$Adar$^{+/-}$

Fold Change (y-axis)

Bst2, H2-Q4, Ifit1, Ifit3, Ifit3b, Irf7, Isg15, Oas2, Psmb8, Rtp4

E.

VDR/RXR Activation
Th1 Pathway
T Cell Exhaustion Signaling Pathway
Systemic Lupus Erythematosus In B Cell Signaling Pathway
Role of RIG1-like Receptors in Antiviral Innate Immunity
Role of Pattern Recognition Receptors in Recognition of Bacteria and Viruses
Retinoic acid Mediated Apoptosis Signaling
PD-1, PD-L1 cancer immunotherapy pathway
Neuroinflammation Signaling Pathway
LXR/RXR Activation
Interferon Signaling
Dendritic Cell Maturation
Death Receptor Signaling
Activation of IRF by Cytosolic Pattern Recognition Receptors

Activation z-score

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Supplemental Figure 2

A

B

Supplemental Figure 3

Upstream Regulators	WT vs. RdRp$^{tg/-}$		WT vs. Adar$^{+/-}$		WT vs. RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$		RdRp$^{tg/-}$ vs. Adar$^{+/-}$		RdRp$^{tg/-}$ vs. RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$		Adar$^{+/-}$ vs. RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$	
	Expr Log Ratio	Activation z-score	Expr Log Ratio	Activation z-score	Expr Log Ratio	Activation z-score	Expr Log Ratio	Activation z-score	Expr Log Ratio	Activation z-score	Expr Log Ratio	Activation z-score
DDX58	3.222	3.645	1.092	2.988	3.963	4.241	-2.13	-3.78	0.742	3.497	2.872	4.241
EIF2AK2	3.038	3.556	1.055	2.611	3.751	3.952	-1.983	-3.414	0.713	NA	2.696	3.825
IFI16	NA	2.608	2.272	2.784	5.617	2.952	-1.743	-2.952	1.603	2.599	3.345	2.952
IFIH1	3.038	2.923	1.104	2.939	3.915	3.375	-1.934	-3.234	0.878	2.937	2.812	3.234
IL33	-0.237	NA	0.137	NA	-0.885	2.172	0.374	NA	-0.648	2.172	-1.022	2.172
IRF1	NA	4.776	0.445	4.059	1.503	5.423	-0.409	-4.8	0.648	3.542	1.058	5.423
IRF7	4.775	6.158	2.476	5.518	5.927	7.107	-2.299	-6.608	1.152	5.42	3.451	6.894
IRF9	3.408	2.603	1.046	1.944	3.878	1.897	-2.362	-2.603	0.47	1.966	2.832	1.897
Irgm1	3.167	-3.108	0.997	-3.413	4.208	-3.555	-2.17	3.555	1.041	-3.264	3.211	-3.555
PARP9	2.591	2.621	1.003	2.219	3.582	2.178	-1.588	-2.804	0.991	2.433	2.579	2.178
PML	0.878	3.582	0.193	3.44	1.323	3.597	-0.685	-3.843	0.445	3.138	1.13	3.467
PNPT1	0.562	-5.196	0.16	-4.772	1.181	-5.547	-0.403	5.174	0.619	-3.973	1.021	-5.547
SOCS1	NA	-4.28	0.316	-4.286	1.675	-5.01	-0.619	4.506	0.74	-4.171	1.359	-4.915
STAT1	3.57	5.727	0.956	5.108	4.218	6.643	-2.614	-6.128	0.648	5.063	3.262	6.643
STAT2	1.815	3.095	0.403	2.949	2.534	2.987	-1.411	-3.237	0.719	3.084	2.13	2.987
TLR3	0.838	3.494	0.205	3.762	1.315	4.669	-0.633	-4.006	0.477	3.342	1.11	4.269
TRIM21	2.927	-2.197	0.871	-1.961	4.113	-2.197	-2.056	1.961	1.186	-1.961	3.242	-2.197
USP18	5.873	-2.789	2.606	-2.789	6.818	-3.121	-3.267	2.789	0.946	-2.207	4.213	-3.121
ZBP1	NA	NA	2.919	2	5.471	2	-1.094	-2	1.458	2	2.552	1.342

Supplemental Figure 4

Supplemental Figure 5

Diseases or Functions Annotation	WT vs. RdRp$^{tg/-}$	WT vs. Adar$^{+/-}$	WT vs. RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$	RdRp$^{tg/-}$ vs. Adar$^{+/-}$	RdRp$^{tg/-}$ vs. RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$	Adar$^{+/-}$ vs. RdRp$^{tg/-}$ Adar$^{+/-}$
Activation of cells	2.339	1.88	2.069	-2.262	1.501	2.154
Activation of macrophages	1.803	1.282	2.145	-1.803	1.898	1.633
Activation of myeloid cells	1.472	0.943	2.084	-1.472	2.095	1.698
Activation of phagocytes	1.469	0.938	1.765	-1.469	2.095	1.795
Adhesion of blood cells	1.989	NA	2.637	NA	2.132	2.025
Antigen presentation	2.414	NA	2.414	NA	NA	2.414
Antigen presentation by cells	2	NA	2	NA	NA	2
Antimicrobial response	2.787	2.406	2.792	-2.947	NA	2.792
Antiviral response	2.787	2.406	2.792	-2.947	NA	2.792
Antiviral response of cells	2.219	1.982	1.31	-2.219	NA	1.31
Apoptosis	0.916	0.197	1.616	-0.696	1.157	2.443
Apoptosis of tumor cell lines	NA	NA	1.173	-0.889	NA	2.09
Autophagy of cells	2.072	NA	1.363	-1.502	1.095	1.152
Cell cycle progression	2.961	NA	2.195	-2.809	NA	2.448
Cell death of epithelial cells	NA	NA	1.966	NA	NA	2.68
Cell death of tumor cell lines	1.044	NA	1.396	-1.388	NA	2.158
Cell movement of leukocytes	2.904	NA	1.35	-2.394	1.501	1.387
Cell movement of monocytes	2.185	NA	2.083	NA	1.571	2.083
Cell movement of T lymphocytes	2.544	1.948	1.072	-1.824	1.645	1.072
Cellular homeostasis	1.314	1.026	2.089	-1.662	0.957	1.356
Cellular infiltration	2.619	NA	0.842	-1.692	1.402	1.042
Cellular infiltration by leukocytes	2.696	2.342	1.081	-2.13	1.481	1.294
Cellular infiltration by lymphocytes	2.187	NA	0.201	-1.507	0.692	0.201
Cellular infiltration by myeloid cells	1.878	2.091	0.83	NA	0.935	0.791
Contact growth inhibition	2.232	NA	2.467	-2.052	NA	2.467
Contact growth inhibition of tumor	NA	NA	2.022	-1.49	NA	2.022
Coordination	NA	NA	NA	NA	-2.401	NA
Cytostasis	2.442	NA	2.742	-2.522	NA	2.742
Cytostasis of tumor cell lines	1.972	1.451	NA	-1.762	NA	2.232
Cytotoxicity of cytotoxic T cells	2.439	NA	2.635	-1.988	NA	2.438
Cytotoxicity of lymphocytes	2.794	NA	2.605	-2.048	NA	2.412
Cytotoxicity of T lymphocytes	NA	NA	2.332	-1.583	NA	2.112
Degradation of DNA	NA	NA	2.781	NA	NA	2.781
Demyelination of nerves	NA	NA	1.798	NA	2.057	1.541
Differentiation of T lymphocytes	1.859	NA	1.227	-2.1	NA	0.815
Elimination of cells	NA	NA	2.2	NA	1.964	2.2
Encephalitis	-1.515	-1	-2.141	NA	-1.405	-2.141
Endocytosis	2.6	NA	NA	NA	NA	0.566
Fragmentation of DNA	NA	NA	2.598	NA	NA	2.598
Hematologic cancer	NA	NA	-2.752	NA	NA	-2.752
Hematologic cancer of cells	NA	NA	-2.396	NA	NA	-2.396
Hematopoietic neoplasm	NA	NA	-2.032	NA	NA	-2.032
Immune response of brain	-1.745	NA	-2.311	1.992	NA	-2.311
Immune response of cells	3.924	3.1	2.981	-3.066	NA	2.445
Immune response of leukocytes	2.415	1.981	0.755	-1.218	1.004	0.08
Infection by Flaviviridae	-1.732	-1.732	-2	1.732	NA	-2
Infection by Herpesviridae	NA	NA	-2.187	NA	NA	-2.187
Infection by RNA virus	-1.879	-2.019	-2.719	2.088	-1.388	-2.745
Infection of cells	-1.152	NA	-2.341	1.417	-1.2	-2.371
Infection of kidney cell lines	-1.651	-1.337	-2.093	1.651	NA	-2.291
Infection of mammalia	-3.48	-2.662	-3.452	3.388	-1.445	-3.207
Infiltration by T lymphocytes	2.187	NA	0.052	-1.507	0.842	0.052
Inflammation of absolute anatomic	-1.386	-0.851	-2.132	1.358	-0.958	-2.132
Inflammation of organ	-1.311	-0.729	-2.222	1.29	-0.76	-2.173
Inhibition of lymphocytes	NA	NA	2.172	NA	NA	2.172
Inhibition of RNA virus	1.974	NA	2.196	-1.974	NA	1.568
Inhibition of virus	NA	NA	2.415	-2.211	NA	1.848
Innate immune response	2.63	2.219	3.43	-3.132	2.8	3.43
Leukocyte migration	2.991	NA	1.565	-2.488	1.505	1.326
Lymphatic system tumor	NA	NA	-2.592	NA	NA	-2.592
Lymphocyte migration	2.721	2.144	0.753	-2.044	1.211	0.753
Lymphocytic cancer	NA	NA	-2.593	NA	NA	-2.593
Lymphocytic neoplasm	NA	NA	-2.593	NA	NA	-2.593
Lymphohematopoietic cancer	NA	NA	-2.752	NA	NA	-2.752
Lymphohematopoietic neoplasia	NA	NA	-2.032	NA	NA	-2.032
Lymphoid cancer	NA	NA	-2.593	NA	NA	-2.593
Lymphoreticular neoplasm	NA	NA	-2.4	NA	NA	-2.4
Migration of cancer cells	1.342	2	0.213	-1.342	0.956	0.508
Migration of cells	3.179	2.898	1.999	-2.573	0.825	1.285
Morbidity or mortality	-2.789	NA	-1.199	NA	0.575	-0.651
Necrosis	1.494	1.476	2.39	-1.714	2.274	2.989
Necrosis of epithelial tissue	NA	NA	1.737	NA	NA	2.346
Neoplasia of blood cells	NA	NA	-2.512	NA	NA	-2.512
Neoplasia of leukocytes	NA	NA	-2.396	NA	NA	-2.396
Neuromuscular disease	2.219	1.982	1.664	-1.982	1.387	1.664
Polarization of blood cells	NA	NA	NA	NA	2	NA
Polarization of cells	NA	1.982	NA	NA	2.219	NA
Production of protein	1.53	1.217	1.148	-2.096	0.485	0.678
Quantity of blood cells	2.217	1.36	0.079	-2.117	0.041	0.653
Quantity of CD8+ T lymphocyte	2.388	2.191	1.721	-2.207	1.461	1.721
Quantity of cytokine	NA	NA	-2.343	NA	NA	-2.154
Quantity of IFNG in blood	-2.183	NA	-2.4	2.183	NA	-2.4
Quantity of MHC Class I on cell surf	2.207	NA	2.207	-1.981	NA	2.207
Recruitment of leukocytes	2.339	2.339	2.156	-1.666	1.812	1.089
Recruitment of T lymphocytes	1.96	1.96	2.199	-1.96	1.996	NA
Replication of Flaviviridae	-2.643	-2.643	-2.988	2.826	-2.275	-2.988
Replication of flavivirus	-1.963	-2.181	-2.181	2.181	-1.939	-2.181
Replication of Hepatitis C virus	-2.335	-2.111	-2.528	2.324	NA	-2.528
Replication of Herpesviridae	-2.132	-2.828	-3.175	2.525	-2.236	-3.175
Replication of Murine herpesvirus 4	-2.236	-2	-2.828	2.236	NA	-2.828
Replication of RNA virus	-2.875	-3.077	-3.617	3.292	-2.304	-3.497
Replication of vesicular stomatitis v	-2.679	-2.473	-3.129	2.841	-1.702	-3.129
Replication of viral replicon	-2.818	-3.115	-3.56	3.271	-2.782	-3.56
Replication of virus	-3.082	-3.443	-3.924	3.583	-2.607	-3.812
Response of antigen presenting cel	2.219	NA	1.65	NA	NA	0.799
Response of embryonic cell lines	1.96	NA	2.4	-2.2	NA	2.4
Response of epithelial cell lines	1.969	NA	2.404	-2.207	NA	2.404
Response of kidney cell lines	1.969	NA	2.404	-2.207	NA	2.404
Response of phagocytes	2.207	2.207	NA	-2.207	NA	0.845
Transactivation of RNA	NA	1.961	NA	-2.41	NA	NA
Viral Infection	-3.615	-3.851	-4.1	3.801	-2.583	-3.943
Viral life cycle	NA	NA	-3.683	NA	NA	-3.683

Supplemental Figure 6

Supplemental Figure 7

Diseases or Functions Annotation	WT vs. RdRp^tg/-		WT vs. Adar^+/-		WT vs. RdRp^tg/- Adar^+/-		RdRp^tg/- vs. Adar^+/-		RdRp^tg/- vs. Adar^+/- RdRp^tg/-		Adar^+/- vs. Adar^+/- RdRp^tg/-	
	-log(B-H p-value)	z-score	-log(B-H p-value)	z-score	-log(B-H p-value)	z-score	-log(B-H p-value)	z-score	-log(B-H p-value)	z-score	-log(B-H p-value)	z-score
Antimicrobial response	0.00000	2.39	1.97E-09	1.455	NaN	NaN	0.00000	-2.39	1.08E-05	NaN	1.21E-12	0.995
Antiviral response	0.00000	2.39	2.77E-11	1.455	NaN	NaN	0.00000	-2.39	2.82E-06	NaN	6.75E-12	0.995
Apoptosis of breast cancer cell lines	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	0.00146	2.808
Apoptosis of epithelial cells	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	0.00003	2.55
Apoptosis of liver cells	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	0.00146	2.169
Cell death of epithelial cells	0.00251	2.414	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	1.06E-03	0.922	1.41E-05	3.058
Demyelination of nerves	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	0.00001	2.195	NaN	NaN
Differentiation of Th17 cells	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN			NaN	NaN	0.00014	-2.382
Encephalitis	3.09E-04	-1.925	3.72E-07	0.264	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	1.09E-04	-1.361	0.00000	-3.488
Experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis	5.09E-04	-1.639	7.57E-07	0.659	NaN	NaN	1.45E-06	1.881	1.66E-04	-1.37	0.00000	-3.326
Inflammation of absolute anatomical region	8.46E-06	-1.905	5.51E-08	-0.527	NaN	NaN	1.39E-07	1.365	0.00002	-2.537	0.00000	-3.351
Inflammation of organ	3.08E-05	-1.264	1.75E-07	0.255	NaN	NaN	1.71E-07	1.078	0.00001	-2.346	0.00000	-2.881
Inhibition of cells	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	0.00142	2.166
Maturation of phagocytes	NaN	NaN	2.29E-03	-0.169	NaN	NaN	0.00074	-2.183	NaN	NaN	5.47E-04	0.891
Necrosis	8.48E-03	1.117	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	0.00160	2.156	0.00004	2.291
Necrosis of epithelial tissue	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	1.36E-04	1.014	0.00000	2.072
Neuronal cell death	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	0.00476	2.302	0.00006	2.309
Proliferation of antigen presenting cells	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	2.26E-03	-0.865	3.64E-03	NaN	0.00014	2.201
Proliferation of blood cells	0.00421	2.084	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	9.98E-04	0.317	8.85E-06	0.535
Proliferation of immune cells	0.00429	2.084	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	9.14E-04	0.358	1.70E-05	0.808
Quantity of blood cells	0.00064	2.383	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	0.00193	-2.021	1.63E-04	0.487	2.79E-06	0.67
Quantity of IL-12 in blood	0.00002	-2	6.62E-03	NaN	NaN	NaN	0.00002	2	NaN	NaN	0.00007	-2
Quantity of interleukin	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	0.00064	-2
Quantity of leukocytes	0.00046	2.295	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	1.60E-03	-1.906	1.02E-04	0.167	9.96E-07	0.336
Quantity of phagocytes	0.00104	2.191	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	2.21E-03	-1.544	2.25E-05	-0.125	5.80E-05	-0.102
Quantity of protein in blood	0.00769	-2.909	NaN	NaN	NaN	NaN	0.00034	2.088	NaN	NaN	6.48E-04	-1.717
Rheumatic Disease	0.00000	-2.219	7.94E-05	-1	NaN	NaN	7.74E-07	1.179	3.07E-05	-0.503	2.99E-08	-1.157

Supplemental Figure 8

Supplemental Figure 10

B cells

Cell/Debris Gate

Single Cell Gate

Live/Dead Gate

CD19 high Fas+ GL-7+
Germinal Center B cell Gate

CD19lo CD138+
Plasma Cell Gate

T cells

Cells/Debris Gate

Single Cell Gate

Live/Dead Gate

CXCR5+ PD-1+
Tfh Gate

TCRb+ CD4+ T cell
Gate

Supplemental Figure 11

Supplemental Figure 12

Supplemental Figure 13