Isoforms of RNA-Editing Enzyme ADAR1 Independently Control Nucleic Acid Sensor MDA5-Driven Autoimmunity and Multi-organ Development

Graphical Abstract

Highlights
- ADAR1 is a specific negative regulator of the MDA5-MAVS antiviral response
- A substantial fraction of ADAR1-controlled gene expression is MAVS independent
- ADAR1 is essential for multi-organ development
- ADAR1 isoforms independently contribute to regulation of MDA5 and developmental pathways

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In Brief
ADAR mutations cause Aicardi-Goutières syndrome, a severe human autoimmune disease, but how ADAR1 regulates autoimmunity remains unknown. Stetson and colleagues reveal two functions for ADAR1: prevention of MDA5- and MAVS-dependent autoimmunity and control of multi-organ development.
Isoforms of RNA-Editing Enzyme ADAR1 Independently Control Nucleic Acid Sensor MDA5-Driven Autoimmunity and Multi-organ Development

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SUMMARY

Mutations in ADAR, which encodes the ADAR1 RNA-editing enzyme, cause Aicardi-Goutières syndrome (AGS), a severe autoimmune disease associated with an aberrant type I interferon response. How ADAR1 prevents autoimmunity remains incompletely defined. Here, we demonstrate that ADAR1 is a specific and essential negative regulator of the MDA5-MAVS RNA sensing pathway. Moreover, we uncovered a MDA5-MAVS-independent function for ADAR1 in the development of multiple organs. We showed that the p150 isoform of ADAR1 uniquely regulated the MDA5 pathway, whereas both the p150 and p110 isoforms contributed to development. Abrupt deletion of ADAR1 in adult mice revealed that both of these functions were required throughout life. Our findings delineate genetically separable roles for both ADAR1 isoforms in vivo, with implications for the human diseases caused by ADAR mutations.

INTRODUCTION

Intracellular detection of foreign nucleic acids initiates the production of type I interferons (IFNs) and is essential for host defense against virus infection (Goubau et al., 2013). Characterization of the RIG-I-like receptor-MAVS RNA-sensing pathway and the cGAS-STING DNA-sensing pathway has illuminated the earliest events of virus detection in molecular detail (Wu and Chen, 2014). Given the millions of molecules of RNA and the billions of base pairs of genomic DNA present in all nucleated cells, negative regulation of these pathways has emerged as a key mechanism to prevent autoreactivity. Much of our understanding of this regulation comes from the genetic dissection of a severe human autoimmune disease called Aicardi-Goutières syndrome (AGS), first described more than 30 years ago as a monogenic disorder associated with the aberrant production of type I IFNs (Aicardi and Goutières, 1984; Lebon et al., 1988). Crow and colleagues have identified seven human genes that are mutated in AGS, providing a framework for studying the mechanisms that limit activation of intracellular nucleic acid sensors: TREX1, RNASEH2A, RNASEH2B, RNASEH2C, SAMHD1, ADAR, and IFIH1 (MDA5) (Crow et al., 2015; Crow and Manel, 2015).

Among the best characterized of the AGS enzymes is Trex1, a cytosolic DNA exonuclease. Trex1-deficient mice develop lethal autoimmune disease that is entirely dependent on cGAS, STING, the IRF3 transcription factor, the type I IFN receptor, and lymphocytes, thus defining Trex1 as a specific and essential negative regulator of the intracellular DNA-sensing pathway (Ablasser et al., 2014; Gall et al., 2012; Gao et al., 2015; Gray et al., 2015; Stetson et al., 2008). Similarly, SAMHD1 is a dNTP phosphohydrolase that prevents cDNA synthesis by retroviral reverse transcriptase enzymes, strongly suggesting that the cGAS-STING pathway also drives autoimmunity in AGS caused by SAMHD1 mutations (Goldstone et al., 2011; Hrecka et al., 2011; Laguette et al., 2011; Rehwinkel et al., 2013). Interestingly, identification of the innate immune pathway regulated by RNase H2 is complicated by the early embryonic lethality of RNase H2-deficient mice, caused by accumulation of ribonucleotides in genomic DNA and massive genome instability (Hiller et al., 2012; Reijns et al., 2012).

The identification of AGS mutations in ADAR that encodes the ADAR1 enzyme revealed a disease mechanism that does not fit into the cGAS-STING pathway (Rice et al., 2012). ADAR in mammals encodes two open reading frames that give rise to two protein isoforms: a p110 isoform that is constitutively and ubiquitously expressed and a larger p150 isoform that is IFN inducible and contains two complete zDNA-binding domains that are not found in p110 (Bass, 2002; Schwartz et al., 1999). ADAR1 is a deaminase that converts adenosine to inosine (A to I) within double-stranded regions of RNA (Bass, 2002). In coding regions, inosine is decoded as guanosine (G), leading to amino acid changes or stop codon read-through at edited sites. In introns of mRNAs, editing can create or destroy splice acceptor sites. In double-stranded regions of RNA, the I-U base pair is unstable compared to the parental A-U base pair, leading to changes in secondary structure of RNA that can result in degradation (Wang et al., 2013). In mammals, ADAR1 edits coding RNAs (Hartner et al., 2004), microRNAs (Yang et al., 2006), and the RNA transcripts of the prolific SINE retroelements (Osenberg et al., 2010). Interestingly, ADAR1 deficiency in mice results in embryonic lethality, accompanied by massive
overproduction of type I IFNs and hematopoietic failure (Hartner et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2000). A number of mechanisms have been proposed to explain the dramatic phenotype of Adar−/− mice, including roles for ADAR1 in modulation of microRNA biogenesis (Ota et al., 2013), control of the length of mRNA 3’ untranslated regions (UTRs) (Bahn et al., 2015), physical sequestration of RNAs from RIG-I (Yang et al., 2014), and the direct suppression of RIG-I and MDA5 activity by RNAs that contain inosine (Vitali and Scadden, 2010). In addition, a recent study identified live births of Adar−/−Mavs−/− mice (Mannion et al., 2014). However, the precise innate immune pathways regulated by ADAR1 and the contributions of these pathways to the phenotypes of Adar−/− mice remain undefined.

In this study, we define ADAR1 as a specific negative regulator of the MDA5-MAVS pathway. Moreover, we reveal an essential role for ADAR1 in multi-organ development and homeostasis that is independent of the MDA5-MAVS pathway. We show that the two isoforms of ADAR1 contribute independently to each of these functions.

RESULTS

ADAR1 Is a Specific Negative Regulator of the MDA5-MAVS Pathway

To define the innate immune receptor(s) and signaling pathways responsible for the embryonic lethality of Adar−/− mice, we recovered more than 700 live births of Adar−/− intercrosses, alone and on four additional genetic backgrounds: Tmem173 (Sting)−/−, Mavs−/−, Ifih1 (Mda5)−/−, and Ddx58 (Rig)−/−. Consistent with previous reports defining fully penetrant embryonic lethality of Adar−/− mice (Hartner et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2000), we found no live births of Adar−/− mice (Figure 1A).

Similarly, no Adar−/−Tmem173−/− mice were born, and the frequencies of live Adar−/−Tmem173−/− and Adar−/−Mavs−/− mice were indistinguishable from mice born from the Adar−/− intercross, formally demonstrating that the STING pathway plays no role in the phenotypes associated with ADAR1 deficiency (Figure 1B). In contrast, and consistent with a recent report (Mannion et al., 2014), Adar−/−Mavs−/− mice were born at frequencies that were statistically indistinguishable from expected Mendelian ratios (Figure 1C). Thus, the MAVS pathway, and not the STING pathway, drives the embryonic lethality of Adar−/− mice.

We next evaluated intercrosses of Adar−/− mice with mice lacking the two principal RNA sensors upstream of MAVS: MDA5 (Ifih1) and RIG-I (Ddx58) (Kato et al., 2006). Remarkably, Adar−/−Ifih1−/− mice were born at expected Mendelian frequencies (Figure 1D). The Adar−/−Ddx58 cross was complicated by the embryonic lethality of most Ddx58−/− mice (Kato et al., 2005), which occurs for reasons that remain poorly defined. Therefore, we bred Adar−/− mice to Ddx58−/− mice and analyzed more than 300 live births. We recovered only two Ddx58−/− single mutant mice and no Adar−/−Ddx58−/− mice (Figure 1E).

We performed timed matings of Adar−/− mice on the four backgrounds described above, harvested embryos at day 11.5 of development (E11.5, before the onset of lethality in Adar−/− mice), and assessed the innate immune response via quantitative RT-PCR analysis of six interferon-stimulated genes (ISGs). We found that MAVS deficiency completely reversed the elevated ISG signature of Adar−/− embryos, but STING deficiency had no effect (Figure 2A). Moreover, and identical to Adar−/−Mavs−/− embryos, we found that Adar−/−Ifih1−/− embryos also lacked the increased ISG expression seen in Adar−/− embryos. Importantly, the single Adar−/−Ddx58−/− embryo that we recovered had elevated ISG expression that was identical to control Adar−/−Ddx58+/− embryos (Figure 2B). Taken together, these data define MDA5-MAVS, and not RIG-I-MAVS, as the specific innate immune pathway responsible for both the dysregulated ISG expression and the embryonic lethality of Adar−/− mice.

To extend our findings to human cells, we used a lenti-CRISPR approach to disrupt the endogenous ADAR gene in HEK293T cells. We designed a guide RNA to target an exon shared by both isoforms of ADAR1, transduced and selected targeted cells, and then derived a clonal line of MD5-MAVS activity by RNAs that contain inosine (Vitali and Scadden, 2010). In addition, a recent study identified live births of Adar−/−Mavs−/− mice (Mannion et al., 2014). However, the precise innate immune pathways regulated by ADAR1 and the contributions of these pathways to the phenotypes of Adar−/− mice remain undefined.

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To extend our findings to human cells, we used a lenti-CRISPR approach to disrupt the endogenous ADAR gene in HEK293T cells. We designed a guide RNA to target an exon shared by both isoforms of ADAR1, transduced and selected targeted cells, and then derived a clonal line of ADAR-null cells with frameshift mutations in all three alleles of ADAR (Figure 3A; HEK293T cells are triploid for chromosome 3). We confirmed by immunoblot that these ADAR-null cells lacked expression of both isoforms of ADAR1 protein (Figure 3B). We then introduced expression vectors for either RIG-I or MDA5 into these cells or control cells and measured the IFN response via an interferon-stimulated response element (ISRE)-luciferase reporter. We found that RIG-I responded identically in control and ADAR-null cells at each concentration of transfected expression vector (Figure 3C). Remarkably, the MDA5-activated IFN response was enhanced in ADAR-null HEK293T cells compared to control cells at all concentrations of plasmid (Figure 3C). These findings, together with our analysis of Adar−/− mice and embryos, strongly suggest that ADAR1 deficiency results in the accumulation of
ADAR1 is primarily a negative regulator of gene expression (Figures 4A and 4B). We found more than 900 genes with significantly different expression levels in Adar−/− versus Adar+/+ embryos, 180 of which were ISGs (Figure 4A). As expected, the increased expression of nearly all of these ISGs was restored to normal levels in the Adar−/−Mavs−/− embryos (Figures 4A and 4B, red dots). However, and unexpectedly, we identified more than 200 genes with similarly dysregulated expression in both Adar−/− and Adar−/−Mavs−/− embryos compared to their respective controls (Figures 4A–4C, blue dots). Bioinformatics analysis of these genes revealed highly enriched biological processes and transcription factor networks controlled by ADAR1 in a MAVS-independent fashion. These included genes involved in lipid metabolism and transport, associated with upregulation of PPARG transcriptional targets in Adar−/− embryos (Figures 4D and 4E). Moreover, we identified targets of the TCF1, TCF14, TCFS3, and HOXA13 transcription factors that control cell fate specification during development (Figures 4D and 4E). Importantly, we found no evidence for residual inflammatory gene expression in Adar−/−Mavs−/− embryos (Figures 4D and 4E), suggesting that the entire dysregulated innate immune response caused by ADAR1 deficiency depends on MAVS signaling. Thus, ADAR1 controls expression of two classes of genes: the first class is innate immune response genes driven by MAVS signaling, whereas the second class is MAVS independent and implicated in development and metabolism.

**MDA5-MAVS-Independent Control of Multi-organ Development by ADAR1**

Consistent with the identification of a substantial set of MAVS-independent genes regulated by ADAR1 (Figure 4), we observed a fully penetrant postnatal mortality in both Adar−/−Mavs−/− mice and Adar−/−Ifih1−/− mice, with the majority of neonates dying by 2 days of age (Figures 5A and 5B). We analyzed the phenotypes of the small number of Adar−/−Mavs−/− mice that survived past 1 week of age, comparing them to Adar−/−Mavs−/− littermates. The double knockout mice were severely runted compared to their Mavs−/− littermates, but they appeared to be feeding, as evidenced by the presence of milk in their stomachs (data not shown). However, the Adar−/−Mavs−/− mice were largely unresponsive and immobile, with a “trembling” phenotype (Movie S1). We performed a thorough histological analysis of tissues and organs in three mice of each genotype, revealing a number of novel, MAVS-independent developmental phenotypes caused by ADAR1 deficiency. First, the kidneys of Adar−/−Mavs−/− mice had a profound change in architecture, with multiple discrete lobes of the outer medulla and marked disorganization of the tubules in the corticomedullary junction (Figure 5C). This contrasts with the single-lobed outer medulla of normal rodent kidneys, revealing an unexpected role for ADAR1 in regulation of kidney patterning during development. Second, we observed a dramatic dysregulation of gastrointestinal homeostasis in Adar−/−Mavs−/− mice (Figure 5C). This phenotype was apparent throughout the intestine, although most pronounced in the small intestine. Intestinal lesions included moderate superficial enterocyte vacuolation, mild to moderate villar fusion, and extensive apoptosis of enterocytes that was especially pronounced in the crypts, with mild

**MDA5 and MAVS Deficiency Reverse the IFN Signature in Adar+/− Embryos**

Quantitative RT-PCR on a panel of six ISGs from whole E11.5 embryos. (A) Adar+/+ (white, n = 3), Adar−/− (gray, n = 3), Adar−/− String−/− (blue, n = 4), Adar−/− Mavs−/− (red, n = 5). Interferon signature assessed by Wilcoxon signed rank test compared to Adar+/+. Adar−/− p = 0.03, Adar−/− String−/− p = 0.03, Adar−/− Mavs−/− p = 0.31. (B) Adar+/+Ifih1−/− (white, n = 3), Adar−/− Ifih1−/− (red, n = 3), Adar+/+Ddx58+/+ (white stripes, n = 3), Adar−/− Ddx58+/+ (gray stripes, n = 2), Adar+/+Ddx58−/− (light blue stripes, n = 2), Adar−/− Ddx58−/− (blue stripes, n = 1). Interferon signature assessed by Wilcoxon signed rank test compared to Adar+/+ controls, Adar−/− Ifih1−/− p = 0.56, Adar−/− Ddx58+/+ p = 0.03, Adar−/− Ddx58−/− p = 0.69, Adar−/− Ddx58−/− p = 0.03.

endogenous, immunostimulatory RNAs that are specifically detected by MDA5 and not by RIG-I.

**MAVS-Dependent and MAVS-Independent Gene Expression Changes in Adar−/+ Embryos**

To assess global changes in gene expression caused by ADAR1 deficiency beyond the specific ISGs analyzed in Figure 2, we performed RNA-seq analysis of gene expression in whole E11.5 embryos, comparing Adar−/+ to Adar+/+ embryos, as well as Adar−/−Mavs−/− to Adar+/+Mavs−/− embryos (Figure 4 and Tables S1 and S2). In both cases, the great majority of dysregulated genes exhibited increased expression in the Adar−/+ embryos compared to respective controls.

**Figure 2. MDA5 and MAVS Deficiency Reverse the IFN Signature in Adar+/− Embryos**

proliferation and mild mixed inflammation (enteritis; Figure 5C). Third, we found a near complete lack of organized lymphoid follicles in both lymph nodes and spleens of Adar\(^{-/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice, on both histology (Figure 5C) and immunofluorescence microscopy performed to localize T cells and B cells (Figure 5D). In the spleens of Adar\(^{-/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice, there was extramedullary hematopoiesis of both myeloid and erythroid lineages (Figure 5C). Fourth, flow cytometry analysis of splenocytes revealed a dramatic reduction in the frequency of mature B cells but relatively normal numbers of T cells, as well as increased frequencies of CD11c\(^{+}\) dendritic cells (Figure 5E). These phenotypes of Adar\(^{-/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice reveal an essential role for ADAR1 in the development and homeostasis of multiple organs, independent of its role as a negative regulator of the MAVS pathway (Figure 6B). Remarkably, and unlike the Adar\(^{-/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mouse that died shortly after birth (Figure 5A), most of the Adar\(^{p150+/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice survived to weaning (Figure 6C). Moreover, these mice were active and mobile, ate solid food, and did not tremble, although they were smaller than their control littermates (Movie S1). We performed a histological analysis of Adar\(^{p150+/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice, comparing them to Adar\(^{-/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice (Figure 5) and to controls. We found that the kidney abnormalities that were present in the Adar\(^{-/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice were largely absent in Adar\(^{p150+/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice, demonstrating that p110 is a specific regulator of kidney development (Figure 6D). However, the dysregulated intestinal homeostasis was similar between Adar\(^{p150+/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice compared to the Adar\(^{-/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice (Figure 6E), identical to Adar\(^{p110+/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice (Figure 5E). Thus, expression of the p110 isoform of ADAR1 in Adar\(^{p150+/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice is sufficient to restore kidney development, but not intestinal homeostasis or B cell development.

![Figure 3](image.png)

**Figure 3. ADAR1 Specifically Regulates the MDA5 Pathway in Human Cells**

(A) Generation of Adar-null HEK293T cells by lentCRISPR targeting. The CRISPR target site in exon 4 of Adar is indicated in blue, and the protospacer adjacent motif (PAM) is shown in green. The Cas9 cleavage site is indicated with an arrow. Deletions in the three Adar alleles, each of which results in a frameshift, are shown by the red dashes.

(B) Immunoblot of ADAR1 protein using lysates from control HEK293T cells and an ADAR-lentCRISPR-targeted clone of HEK293T cells.

(C) The indicated HEK293T cells were transfected with 25 ng ISRE-luciferase reporter plasmid, with or without the indicated amounts of plasmids encoding RIG-I or MDA5. Cells were analyzed for relative luciferase units 24 hr after transfection. Mean ± SD; “*”p < 0.0001 in two-way ANOVA test with Tukey’s multiple comparison. Data are representative of four independent experiments.

**Independent Contributions of ADAR1 Isoforms to Regulation of MDA5-MAVS and Development**

We evaluated the relative in vivo contributions of the p150 and p110 isoforms of ADAR1 to regulation of MDA5-MAVS-dependent autoimmunity versus MDA5-MAVS-independent organ development. To do this, we studied Adar\(^{p150+/-}\) mice, which were generated by targeted disruption of the unique promoter and first exon that encodes the amino terminus of the p150 isoform (Ward et al., 2011). Adar\(^{p150+/-}\) mice are embryonic lethal, similar to Adar\(^{-/-}\) mice that lack both the p150 and p110 isoforms of ADAR1 (Ward et al., 2011). Given that the embryonic lethality of Adar\(^{-/-}\) mice is entirely MDA5 and MAVS dependent (Figure 1), we hypothesized that the Adar\(^{p150+/-}\) isoform might specifically regulate the MDA5-MAVS pathway. We performed immunoblot analysis of Adar\(^{p150+/-}\) and Adar\(^{p150+/-}\) MEF extracts and confirmed the absence of p150 protein, but normal levels of the p110 isoform, in these cells (Figure 6A). Next, we intercrossed Adar\(^{p150+/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice and observed complete rescue of the Adar\(^{p150+/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice to birth, demonstrating that the p150 isoform of ADAR1 is the unique and essential negative regulator of the MAVS pathway (Figure 6B). Remarkably, and unlike the Adar\(^{-/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mouse that died shortly after birth (Figure 5A), most of the Adar\(^{p150+/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice survived to weaning (Figure 6C). Moreover, these mice were active and mobile, ate solid food, and did not tremble, although they were smaller than their control littermates (Movie S1). We performed a histological analysis of Adar\(^{p150+/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice, comparing them to Adar\(^{-/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice (Figure 5) and to controls. We found that the kidney abnormalities that were present in the Adar\(^{-/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice were largely absent in Adar\(^{p150+/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice, demonstrating that p110 is a specific regulator of kidney development (Figure 6D). However, the dysregulated intestinal homeostasis was similar between Adar\(^{p150+/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice compared to the Adar\(^{-/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice (Figure 6E), identical to Adar\(^{p110+/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice (Figure 5E). Thus, expression of the p110 isoform of ADAR1 in Adar\(^{p150+/-}\)Mavs\(^{-/-}\) mice is sufficient to restore kidney development, but not intestinal homeostasis or B cell development.
Figure 4. MAVS-Dependent and MAVS-Independent Gene Expression in Adar\textsuperscript{-/-} Embryos
RNA-seq was performed on rRNA-depleted RNA from whole E11.5 embryos of the indicated genotypes. (A) Comparison of gene expression between Adar\textsuperscript{-/-} (n = 3) and Adar\textsuperscript{+/+} (n = 3) embryos. Data are plotted as log\textsubscript{2} fold change in gene expression on the y axis, with normalized log\textsubscript{2} counts per million (CPM) on the x axis. Grey dots denote genes with insignificant differences in expression. Blue dots denote non-ISGs with differential expression (p \leq 0.01). Red dots indicate ISGs with differential expression (p \leq 0.01).

(B) Comparison of gene expression between Adar\textsuperscript{-/-}Mavs\textsuperscript{-/-} (n = 3) and Mavs\textsuperscript{-/-} (n = 3) embryos, using the same criteria as in (A).

(C) Biological pathways enriched among the genes with dysregulated expression in both Adar\textsuperscript{-/-} embryos and Adar\textsuperscript{-/-}Mavs\textsuperscript{-/-} embryos identified in (C).

(D) Biological pathways enriched among the genes with dysregulated expression in both Adar\textsuperscript{-/-} embryos and Adar\textsuperscript{-/-}Mavs\textsuperscript{-/-} embryos identified in (C).

(E) Transcription factor binding sites enriched among the MAVS-independent differentially expressed genes from (C).

For (D) and (E), fold enrichment relative to the representation of these pathways in the genome is shown on the left y axis and the blue bars. Significance of enrichment is indicated by hyper geometric p value on the right y axis and the black symbols/line. Analysis was performed with FunRich software.

of ~20-day-old Adar\textsuperscript{-/-}Mavs\textsuperscript{-/-} and Adar p150\textsuperscript{-/-}Mavs\textsuperscript{-/-} mice. Consistent with the prior study, we found that both the A and B sites of 5-HT2C mRNAs were extensively edited in control Mavs\textsuperscript{-/-} mice and that this editing was absent in Adar\textsuperscript{-/-}Mavs\textsuperscript{-/-} mice (Figure 6F). Interestingly, the Adar p150\textsuperscript{-/-}Mavs\textsuperscript{-/-} mice had normal levels of editing at these sites, demonstrating that ADAR1 p110 is both necessary and sufficient for editing of these sites in vivo (Figure 6F). This finding reveals a specific editing event mediated by p110 and not by p150. These, as well as other potential p110-specific editing events that remain to be identified, might contribute to the phenotypic differences between Adar\textsuperscript{-/-}Mavs\textsuperscript{-/-} mice and Adar p150\textsuperscript{-/-}Mavs\textsuperscript{-/-} mice. Together, these data demonstrate independent roles for ADAR1 isoforms: the p150 isoform regulates the MDA5-MAVS pathway, and both isoforms contribute to development.

ADAR1 Controls Both Innate Immunity and Homeostasis in Adult Mice
Our findings demonstrating roles for ADAR1 in controlling both the MDA5-MAVS pathway and multi-organ development led us
to test whether these functions are similarly required in adult mice. We crossed mice with a floxed Adar allele (Adar\textsuperscript{fl/fl}) (Hartner et al., 2009) to mice expressing a tamoxifen-inducible Ert2-Cre transgene under the control of the broadly expressed UBC promoter (Ruzankina et al., 2007) on both Mavs\textsuperscript{+/+} and Mavs\textsuperscript{−/−} backgrounds. We treated these mice daily for 3 days by intraperitoneal injection of tamoxifen, which resulted in widespread deletion of the floxed Adar alleles in Ert2-Cre-expressing mice as measured by genotyping of ear tissue (Figure 7A). We found that the tamoxifen injections resulted in a drop in body temperature in all treated mice, regardless of Cre expression or Adar genotype (Figure 7B). 1 day after the third tamoxifen treatment, and only 4 days after the initial treatment, we found that the Adar\textsuperscript{−/−}Mavs\textsuperscript{−/−}Ert2-Cre-expressing mice had an exacerbated reduction in body temperature (Figure 7B), were hunched and unresponsive, and required immediate euthanasia. We measured the abundance of 32 serum cytokines and chemokines in these mice and controls and found dramatically elevated
levels of many of them, including TNFα, CXCL10, and IL-10, thus revealing a profound systemic inflammatory response instigated by abrupt Adar deletion on a Mavs+/+ background (Figure 7C). In contrast, the Adar+/+Mavs−/− Ert2-Cre-expressing mice recovered body temperature after cessation of tamoxifen treatments and appeared healthy for 5 more days (Figure 7B). At day 8 after treatment, we noted that these mice were abnormal compared to controls, so we prepared these mice for serum cytokine analysis and histological evaluation. We found that the systemic cytokine response was absent in the Adar+/+Mavs−/− Ert2-Cre-expressing mice, demonstrating that MAVS controls the entire inflammatory response caused by Adar deletion in adult mice (Figure 7C). However, we found that the small intestines of mice with Adar deletion on a Mavs−/− background were shortened relative to Cre-expressing control mice, and their colons were thickened and devoid of formed stools (Figure 7D). Histological analysis revealed a disruption of intestinal homeostasis in these mice (Figures 7E and 7F), reminiscent of the intestinal phenotype of Adar−/−Mavs−/− and Adar p150−/−Mavs−/− mice. Together, these data demonstrate that the requirement for ADAR1 in regulation of both the MDA5-MAVS pathway and tissue homeostasis is maintained in adult mice.

Figure 6. Independent Roles for ADAR1 Isoforms in Regulation of MDA5-MAVS and Development

(A) Immunoblot of ADAR1 protein expression in p150+/+ or p150−/− MEFs.
(B) Live births for mice from the p150+/+ Mavs−/− intercross.
(C) Postnatal survival curves for mice from the p150+/+ Mavs−/− intercross.
(D) Hematoxylin and eosin-stained tissue sections of the indicated organs of p150−/−Mavs−/− mice and controls are shown, with magnification indicated.
(E) Analysis of splenocytes by flow cytometry shows severe B cell deficiency and an increase in CD11c+ myeloid cells in p150+/−Mavs−/− mice. Two-sample t test for p values; p150+/+Mavs−/− n = 3, p150−/−Mavs−/− n = 3; ***p < 0.002, **p = 0.004.
(F) Representative chromatograms of 2-HT2C receptor transcript editing in brains of 15- to 21-day-old mice of the indicated genotypes. Mice in (D) were 15 days old. Mice in (E) and (F) were 21 days old.
DISCUSSION

Our findings reveal two important roles for ADAR1. First, ADAR1 is a specific and essential negative regulator of the MDA5- and MAVS-dependent antiviral response. Second, ADAR1 is a key regulator of multi-organ development and homeostasis, independent of the MDA5-MAVS pathway. These roles are both genetically and temporally separable, with the MDA5-MAVS pathway entirely responsible for the embryonic lethality, and the MDA5-MAVS-independent pathway responsible for the postnatal mortality of Adar−/− mice. Moreover, we demonstrate that ADAR1 isoforms independently contribute to these two functions, with the p150 isoform essential for regulation of the MDA5-MAVS pathway and the p110 isoform contributing to development. Finally, we demonstrate that ADAR1 regulates both innate immunity and tissue homeostasis in adult mice.

Our data provide insight into the ADAR mutations in humans that cause AGS (Crow et al., 2015; Rice et al., 2012). The regulation of the MDA5-MAVS pathway by ADAR1 p150, and not the RIG-I-MAVS pathway, strongly suggests that ADAR1 p150 modifies a discrete pool of RNAs to prevent their specific detection by MDA5. Moreover, our findings reveal a clear genetic pathway linking the ADAR and IFIH1 mutations found in AGS (Rice et al., 2012, 2014), a rationale for the ADAR AGS mutations.
that affect only the p150 isoform of ADAR1 (Crow et al., 2015; Rice et al., 2012), and a biological framework for understanding the numerous IFIH1 polymorphisms in humans that are associated with type 1 diabetes, systemic lupus erythematosus, and Graves disease (Gateva et al., 2009; Nejentsev et al., 2009; Smyth et al., 2006; Sutherland et al., 2007). Given the embryonic lethality and robust IFN signature of Adar−/− mice, as well as the rapid MAVS-dependent inflammatory response that arises after abrupt Adar deletion in adults, we propose that the Adar1-regulated endogenous MDA5 RNA ligands are broadly expressed, highly immunostimulatory, or both. Definitive identification of these RNAs will provide insight into the elusive ligand specificity of MDA5 (Wu et al., 2013), with implications for the underlying mechanisms of self/non-self discrimination by intracellular nucleic acid sensors.

Analysis of Adar−/− and Adar p150−/− mice on a Mavs−/− background revealed isoform-specific contributions of Adar1 to kidney development, intestinal homeostasis, B cell development, and 5-HT2C serotonin receptor editing. Further work will be required to determine whether these functions are mediated by “precision editing” of adenosines in mRNA open reading frames that result in new coding potential (as is the case for 5-HT2C), or whether some of these functions require previously described roles for Adar1 in control of micro-RNA processing, mRNA stability, or mRNA 3′ UTR length (Ota et al., 2013; Bahn et al., 2015).

Importantly, no AGS patients are homozygous for null alleles of Adar, and most AGS mutant Adar1 enzymes are competent for RNA editing in vitro (Rice et al., 2012). Distinct Adar mutations in humans also cause dyschomatosis symmetricta hereditaria ([DSH] OMIM: 127400) (Hayashi and Suzuki, 2013) and bilateral striatal necrosis ([BSN] OMIM: 271930) (Livingston et al., 2014). Some DSH and BSN cases are associated with a mild IFN signature that is less pronounced compared to AGS with Adar mutations, but the clinical presentations of DSH and BSN differ significantly from classical AGS (Livingston et al., 2014; Rice et al., 2012). Our identification of an MDA5-MAVS-independent role for Adar1 in development and tissue homeostasis might shed light on the various human phenotypes associated with Adar1 mutations. We propose that the more than 150 known mutations in Adar represent a spectrum of effects on Adar1 regulation of the MDA5-MAVS pathway versus Adar1 control of tissue homeostasis. Specific disease presentations might reflect the extent to which each pathway is compromised by a particular mutation. For example, AGS mutations probably impact primarily the MDA5-MAVS response controlled by the p150 isoform, leaving the developmental roles of Adar intact.

A very recent study by Walkley and colleagues described the phenotype of knockin mice with a point mutation in the Adar gene that disrupts catalytic activity (E861A) (Liddicoat et al., 2015). Consistent with our findings, they identified two individual AdarE861A/E861A/Ifih1−/− mice that were rescued to birth. Interestingly, and in contrast to our data demonstrating fully penetrant postnatal mortality in Adar−/−/Ifih1−/− mice, the rescued AdarE861A/E861A/Ifih1−/− mice were largely normal in appearance, with no evident gross lesions. It is tempting to speculate that the differences in postnatal phenotypes revealed in our study and theirs might reflect an important distinction between the catalytic mutant and the null allele of Adar. A direct comparison of the null allele and the catalytic mutant allele of Adar on an Ifih1−/− or Mavs−/− background would resolve this issue.

In summary, we have identified independent roles for Adar1 isoforms in regulation of the antiviral response and control of tissue development and homeostasis, with implications for the human diseases caused by Adar1 mutations.

**EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES**

**Mice**

Adar−/− mice were kindly provided by Dr. Stuart Orkin (Hartner et al., 2009) and were bred to B6.129S4-Meox2tm1(C0)Ifih1 mice (RRID: IMSR_JAX:003755) to delete the Adar allele in the germline and to B6;129S-Tg(UBC-cre/ERT2)1Ejb mice (RRID: IMSR_JAX:008085) to allow for tamoxifen-induced widespread deletion of Adar in adult mice. Both Cre-expressing mouse lines were purchased from the Jackson Laboratory (stock numbers 003755 and 008085). The Adar−/− mice resulting from the B6.129S4-Meox2tm1(C0)Ifih1×Adar−/− cross were subsequently bred to Tmimm173 (Sting−/−) mice (Yahikawa et al., 2006), Mavs−/− mice (Gai et al., 2012), Ddx58−/− (Rigi−/−) mice (Kato et al., 2005), or Ifih1−/− (Mda5−/−) mice (Gitlin et al., 2006). Adar p150−/− gametes were generously provided by Dr. M.B.A. Oldstone (Ward et al., 2011). Sentinel mice (C3H/CD1CR; Charles River) were tested quarterly for endo- and ectoparasites, mouse hepatitis virus, mouse parvovirus, and rotavirus and tested annually for Mycoplasma pulmonis, pneumonia virus of mice, reovirus 3, Sendai virus, and Thielcrine encephalomyelitis virus. All experiments were done in accordance with the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee guidelines of the University of Washington.

**Histology**

Tissues were fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin, paraffin embedded, cut into 4- to 5-μm sections, and routinely stained with hematoxylin and eosin. All tissues were coded to remove genotype identification. Tissues evaluated included lung, heart, esophagus, kidney, ureter, bladder, liver, pancreas, spleen, lymph nodes, salivary glands, stomach, small intestine, large intestine, and reproductive tract. Additionally, for the Adar−/− Mavs−/− mice, decalcified cross sectional images of the skull and brain were also evaluated.

**Flow Cytometry and Cytokine Measurements**

Single-cell suspensions from spleen, bone marrow, thymus, or blood were isolated and stained with antibodies for CD3 (145-2C11), CD4 (RM4-5), CD8 (53-6.7, eBioscience), CD4 (RM4-5, eBioscience), and/or Ter119; Cells were analyzed with a FACSCanto (BD Biosciences) and analyzed with FlowJo software (TreeStar; RRID: nif-0000-30575). Measurement of serum cytokines was performed with the Milliplex-70K-FX2 mouse cytokine/chemokine magnetic bead panel (Millipore), according to the manufacturer’s instructions.

**Immunofluorescence Microscopy**

Spleens were frozen in Optimal Cutting Temperature (OCT) media (Sakura). Tissues were cut into 7-μm sections and treated with ice-cold acetone. Sections were stained with directly conjugated antibodies: CD8a (53-6.7, eBioscience), CD4 (RM4-5, eBioscience), and B220 (RA3-6B2, eBioscience). Nuclei were stained with 1 μg/ml DAPI. Stained slides were mounted with Pro-long Gold antifade reagent (Life Technologies), imaged with a Nikon Eclipse 90i microscope, and analyzed with Adobe Photoshop software.

**Quantitative RT-PCR**

Embryos were harvested into TRIzol (Life Technologies) and homogenized through an 18-G needle attached to a 3 ml syringe, followed by RNA extraction according to manufacturer’s instructions. RNA was treated with Dnase (Ambion) and 1 μg was reverse-transcribed using RNA to cDNA EcoDry Premix (Double Primed) (Clontech). cDNA was used for PCR with EVA Green reagents (Bio-Rad Laboratories) on a Bio-Rad CFX96 Real-Time System. The abundance of each interferon-stimulated gene mRNA was normalized to that of
CRISPR Targeting of ADAR1 in Human Cells

For targeting of ADAR with CRISPR-Cas9, we used a lentiviral vector in which an RNA polymerase III promoter-driven guide RNA and an RNA polymerase II promoter-driven Cas9-T2A cassette (including sequence encoding a protein for resistance to puromycin) were constitutively expressed from a single, self-inactivating lentivirus upon integration into the host cell genome. Lenti-virus pseudotyped with vesicular stomatitus virus envelope glycoprotein was produced by transfection of 2.5 × 10⁶ HEK293T cells for 48 hr in 10-cm plates with 10 μg of the CRISPR-Cas9 ADAR targeting construct, 9 μg pSPAX2 (a lentiviral packaging plasmid), and 1 μg pVSV-G (plasmid encoding vesicular stomatitus virus envelope glycoprotein). 2.5 × 10⁶ HEK293T cells were transduced with the viral supernatants on day 3 after harvest, then were selected for 3 days with 5 μg/ml puromycin (Life Technologies). Subsequent single-cell cloning was performed by serial dilution. Targeting of the ADAR locus via CRISPR was evaluated by restriction fragment length polymorphism with an Apal (New England Biolabs) restriction site that overlapped the CRISPR targeting site. Products were separated by electrophoresis through a 3% MetaPhor agarose gel (Lonza). ADAR mutations were identified by PCR amplification of the surrounding sequence, cloning into pCDA3, and sequencing of nine independent plasmids. ADAR1 protein loss was confirmed by immuno-blot analysis of whole-cell extracts with or without 24 hr of human IFN-β treatment (100 U/ml, R&D Systems) with rabbit polyclonal anti-ADAR1 (1:2317; Cell Signaling Technologies) and mouse monoclonal anti-β actin (AC-74; Sigma). The sequences of the guide RNA target sequence is (sense) 5'-GGACGAGAATTTCCGCGC-3'.

ISRE-Luciferase Reporter Assays

1 × 10⁶ HEK293T cells with or without ADAR1 expression in 24-well plates were transfected with 25 ng ISRE-luciferase reporter plasmid (Takara Bio) with 0, 12.5, 25, 50, 100, or 200 ng of pCDNA.3-expressing human RLRs using Lipofectamine 2000 (Life Technologies) and then incubated for 24 hr. Cells were lysed in Passive Lysis Buffer (Promega) and luciferase activity was assessed via the Luciferase Reporter Assay System (Promega) according to the manufacturer’s instructions and read with a Centro LB 960 Luminometer (Berthold Technologies).

Statistical Analysis

Statistical significance of difference between groups was assessed with Wilcoxon Rank Sum, chi square goodness-of-fit, or two-way ANOVA with Tukey’s multiple comparison test, as indicated in the figure legends. Values of p < 0.05 were considered statistically significant. All analyses were performed with Graph Pad Prism 6 (GraphPad, RRID: rid_000081).

ACCESS NUMBERS

Read count and fastq files are available at SRA: SRA310234.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes two tables and one movie and can be found with this article online at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.immuni.2015.11.001.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

K.P. and D.B.S. conceived of the project and wrote the manuscript. K.P. performed the experiments, C.C.F. and N.D.P. analyzed RNA-seq data, J.M.S. and P.M.T. performed the histological analyses. All authors edited the manuscript.

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RNA-Seq Library Preparation

Total RNA was harvested from embryos as described above. Ribosomal RNA was depleted with the RiboZero Magnetic Kit (Human/Mouse/Rat) from Illumina. Libraries were prepared from the Ribo-depleted RNA using the NEBNext Ultra RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (New England BioLabs) with the following modifications: Ribo-depleted RNA was fragmented for 5 min at 94°C to obtain >300 bp fragments and first strand synthesis reaction was incubated for 50 min at 42°C. PCR Library enrichment was performed with the KAPA HiFi DNA Polymerase (KAPA Biosystems) with Illumina barcoded indexed libraries were combined and sequenced with an Illumina NextSeq, resulting in approximately 60 million paired-end 150-base pair sequencing reads per embryo.

Alignment and Analysis of RNA-Seq Data

Fastq files were aligned with STAR 2.4.2a (Dobin et al., 2013), with the following parameters for the indices: STAR-runMode GenomeGenerate-genomeDir /mnt/indices/-genomeFastaFiles /mnt/Genome/Mus.musculus. GRCm38.dna.SORTED.fa-sjdb GTTF ile /mnt/transcriptome/Mus.musculus. GRCm38.81.gtf-runThreadN 32.

Alignment was performed with the following parameters: STAR-genomeDir /mnt/indices/-readFilesIn /mnt/2/data/run2/2/| R1.fastq.gz /mnt/2/data/run2/2/| R2.fastq.gz-readFilesCommand zcat--runThreadN 32-outSAMtype BAM SortedByCoordinate-quantMode GeneCounts-outFilterMismatchNmax 30--outFileNamePrefix /mnt/results/run2/2/|STAR-outFilterMultimapNmax 20--outSAMattrributes All.

All alignments were performed on Amazon EC2 c3.8xlarge instance using a Ubuntu13.04 base AMI. The read count files produced by STAR (unstranded) were used for differential expression analysis using the Bioconductor package edgeR (Robinson et al., 2010). After calculation of the normalization factors, low-expressing genes were discarded. Counts were then subject to the estimateGLMCommonDisp function followed by glmFit. Differential expression for comparison between phenotypes was then performed with the glmLRT function. ISGs were annotated with the Interferome web tool (http://www.interferome.org/interferome/search/showSearch.jsp), defined as all type I IFN-regulated genes in all tissues of Mus musculus with a cutoff of 3-fold expression. Read count and fastq files are available at SRA. For bioinformatics analysis, we used FunRich software to determine the enrichment of specific biological pathways and transcription factor networks among genes with dys-regulated expression in both Adar−/− and Adar−/− Mavs−/− embryos, relative to the representation of these pathways in the genome.

Deletion of ADAR1 in Adult Mice

Tamoxifen-induced deletion was performed according to the protocol available from the Jackson Laboratory. In brief, tamoxifen (Sigma-Aldrich) was dissolved in corn oil (Sigma-Aldrich) at 20 mg/ml overnight at 37°C, filtered through a 0.22 μm Millex GP PES membrane, and stored at 4°C. Mice were administered 100 μl of tamoxifen via i.p. injection once a day for 3 days. On day 4, Adar−/−Mavs+− Cre-positive mice were moribund, so no further injections were given. Mice were sacrificed and analyzed by histology and flow cytometry.
Cambier for bioinformatics analysis; to Brian Johnson, Kerrie Allen, and the staff of UW Histology and Imaging Core for their technical expertise; and to members of the D.B.S. and M. Bevan labs for helpful discussions. D.B.S. is a scholar of the Rita Allen Foundation and a Burroughs Welcome Fund Investigator in the Pathogenesis of Infectious Disease. This work was supported by grants from the NIH (AI084914 to D.B.S. and N.D.P.; T32GM007270 to K.P.) and the Lupus Research Institute (D.B.S.).

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