Human coronaviruses disassemble processing bodies

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<u>Abstract</u>

A dysregulated proinflammatory cytokine response is characteristic of severe coronavirus

infections caused by SARS-CoV-2, yet our understanding of the underlying mechanism

responsible for this imbalanced immune response remains incomplete. Processing bodies (PBs)

are cytoplasmic membraneless ribonucleoprotein granules that control innate immune responses

by mediating the constitutive decay or suppression of mRNA transcripts, including many that

encode proinflammatory cytokines. PB formation promotes turnover or suppression of cytokine

RNAs, whereas PB disassembly corresponds with the increased stability and/or translation of

these cytokine RNAs. Many viruses cause PB disassembly, an event that can be viewed as a

switch that rapidly relieves cytokine RNA repression and permits the infected cell to respond to

viral infection. Prior to this report, no information was known about how human coronaviruses

(hu CoVs) impacted PBs. Here, we show SARS-CoV-2 and the common cold hu CoVs, OC43

and 229E, induced PB loss. We screened a SARS-CoV-2 gene library and identified that

expression of the viral nucleocapsid (N) protein from SARS-CoV-2 was sufficient to mediate PB

disassembly. RNA fluorescent *in situ* hybridization revealed that N protein-mediated PB loss

correlated with elevated RNA for PB-localized transcripts encoding TNF and IL-6. Ectopic

expression of the N proteins from five other human coronaviruses (OC43, MERS, 229E, NL63

and SARS-CoV-1) did not cause significant PB disassembly, suggesting that this feature is

unique to SARS-CoV-2 N protein. These data suggest that SARS-CoV-2-mediated PB

disassembly contributes to enhanced proinflammatory cytokine production observed during

severe SARS-CoV-2 infection.

Introduction

Processing bodies (PBs) are membraneless ribonucleoprotein (RNP) granules found in the cytoplasm of all cells [1,2] . PBs control cellular gene expression because they either degrade or sequester cellular RNA transcripts, preventing their translation into protein. PBs contain many enzymes required for mRNA turnover, including those needed for decapping (Dcp2 and co-factors Dcp1a and Edc4/Hedls) and decay of the RNA body (5'-3' exonuclease Xrn1 and RNA helicase Rck/DDX6) and some components of the RNA-induced silencing complex [3,4]. Not all coding RNAs are regulated by PBs, but those that are typically encode potent regulatory molecules like growth factors, pro-inflammatory cytokines, and angiogenic factors. One group of protein-coding mRNAs commonly found in PBs bear destabilizing AU-rich elements (AREs) in their 3'-untranslated regions (3'-UTRs) and include most proinflammatory cytokine transcripts [5-7]. These RNAs shuttle to PBs by virtue of interactions between the AU-rich element and RNA-binding proteins (RBPs) [3,8-11]. We and others showed that the presence of PBs correlates with increased turnover/suppression of ARE-mRNAs [7,12-15] . Conversely, when PBs are lost, constitutive ARE-mRNA suppression is reversed, and ARE-mRNA transcripts and/or their translation products accumulate. Therefore, PB disassembly can be viewed as a switch that permits cells to rapidly respond and translate ARE-containing proinflammatory cytokine RNA into molecules such as IL-6, IL-8, IL-1β, and TNF [5]. PBs provide an extra layer of post-transcriptional control enabling the cell to fine tune the production of potent molecules like proinflammatory cytokines.

Although PBs are constitutive, they are also dynamic, changing in size and number in response to different stimuli or stressors. This dynamic disassembly/assembly is possible because PBs behave as biomolecular condensates that form via liquid-liquid phase separation of proteins [16-

19]. PBs form via sequential multivalent RNA-protein interactions, with a small group of

proteins that contain regions of intrinsic disorder serving as the essential scaffold onto which

additional proteins or RNA can be recruited as the PB matures [9,16,20-24]. Despite the

recognition of PBs as dynamic entities, our understanding of the signals that induce PB

disassembly remains incomplete. We and others have shown that stressors which activate the

p38/MK2 MAP kinase pathway, as well as many virus infections elicit PB disassembly

[12,13,15,25,26]. Disassembly can occur by a direct interaction between a viral protein(s) and a

PB component that is subsequently re-localized to viral replication and transcription

compartments (vRTCs) [27-29] or cleaved by viral proteases [30-32]. Viruses can also cause PB

disassembly indirectly by activating p38/MK2 signaling [12,13,26] .

There are numerous reports of viral gene products that trigger PB disassembly, yet corresponding

reports of viral gene products that stimulate PB formation are rare, suggesting that PBs possess

direct antiviral function and their disassembly may favour viral replication in ways that we do

not yet grasp [33,34]. Even though other RNPs, such as stress granules, have emerged as

important components of our antiviral defenses that contribute to sensing virus and triggering

innate immune responses, evidence to support a direct antiviral role for PBs is less well

established [34-37] . A direct-acting antiviral role has been defined for several PB-localized

enzymes that impede viral replication (e.g. APOBEC3G, MOV10). However, in these cases, the

mechanism of viral restriction was attributed to the enzymatic activity of the PB protein(s)

whereas its localization to PBs was not deemed as significant [28,29,31,38-45]. Nonetheless, the

disassembly of PBs by diverse viruses strongly suggests they negatively regulate virus

replication. The reason viruses disassemble PBs may be to limit their antiviral activity; however,

because PBs also control turnover/suppression of many proinflammatory cytokine transcripts,

their disruption by viruses contributes to high proinflammatory cytokine levels, alerting immune

cells to the infection.

The family *Coronaviridae* includes seven viruses that infect humans, including the four

circulating 'common cold' coronaviruses (CoVs), CoV-OC43, CoV-229E, CoV-NL63, and

CoV-HKU1 and three highly pathogenic viruses that cause severe disease in humans: MERS-

CoV, SARS-CoV, and the recently emerged SARS-CoV-2 [46-51] . Severe COVID-19 is

characterized by aberrant proinflammatory cytokine production, endothelial cell (EC)

dysfunction and multiple organ involvement [52-64] . Even with intense study, we do not yet

appreciate precisely how SARS-CoV-2 infection causes severe COVID-19 in some patients and

mild disease in others though a mismanaged or delayed IFN response and an overactive cytokine

response is thought to underlie severe outcomes [65-70] . Despite some contrasting reports, [71-

73], what is clear is that SARS-CoV-2 proteins use a multitude of mechanisms to outcompete

cellular antiviral responses [68,74-85].

To determine if SARS-CoV-2 and other CoVs interact with PBs to alter the cellular antiviral

response, we performed an analysis of PBs after CoV infection. Prior to this research, no

published literature was available on human CoVs and PBs, and only two previous reports

mentioned PB dynamics after CoV infection. Murine hepatitis virus (MHV) was reported to

increase PBs at early infection times, while transmissible gastroenteritis coronavirus (TGEV)

infected cells displayed complete PB loss by 16 hours post infection [86,87]. Observations that

SARS-CoV-2 infection induced elevated levels of many PB-regulated cytokines, such as IL-6,

IL-10, IL-1β and TNF [53,54,57,69,70] suggested that human CoVs like SARS-CoV-2 may

reshape the cellular innate immune response in part by targeting PBs for disassembly. We now

present the first evidence to show that three human CoVs, including SARS-CoV-2 trigger PB

disassembly during infection. By screening a SARS-CoV-2 gene library, we identified that the

nucleocapsid (N) protein was sufficient for PB disassembly. However, this feature is not

common for all human coronavirus N proteins, as overexpression of MERS-CoV-N, OC43-N,

229E-N and NL63-N was insufficient to induce PB loss and expression of SARS-CoV-1 N

protein displayed an intermediate phenotype. SARS-CoV-2 N protein expression was also

sufficient to increase levels of inflammatory transcripts that localize to PBs and are known to be

elevated during SARS-CoV-2 infection: IL-6 and TNF. Taken together, these results show that

PBs are targeted for disassembly by human CoV infection, and that this phenotype may

contribute in part to reshaping cytokine responses to SARS-CoV-2 infection.

Results

Infection with human coronaviruses causes PB loss

Endothelial cells (ECs) have emerged as playing a significant role in severe COVID; as sentinel

immune cells they are important sources for many of the cytokines elevated in severe disease and

are infected by SARS-CoV-2 *in vivo* [56,58-60,88]. However, others have shown that

commercial primary human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs) require ectopic

expression of the viral receptor, ACE2, to be susceptible to SARS-CoV-2 [89]. We recapitulated

those findings and showed that after HUVECs were transduced with an ACE2-expressing

lentivirus (HUVEC^{ACE2}), they were permissive for SARS-CoV-2 (Wuhan-like ancestral Toronto

isolate; TO-1) [90] (Fig S1A). To use HUVEC^{ACE2} for studies on PB dynamics, we confirmed

that ACE2 ectopic expression had no effect on PB number in HUVECs (Fig S1B). Confirming

this, we infected HUVEC^{ACE2} with SARS-CoV-2 (MOI=3) to determine if PBs were altered.

SARS-CoV-2 infected cells were identified by immunostaining for the viral nucleocapsid (N)

while PBs were identified by immunostaining for two different PB resident proteins, the RNA

helicase DDX6, and the decapping cofactor, Hedls. PBs, measured by staining for both markers,

were absent in most SARS-CoV-2 infected HUVECs^{ACE2} by 24 hours post infection (Fig 1A-D).

We quantified the loss of cytoplasmic puncta using a method described previously [91] and

showed that by 24 hours post infection, SARS-CoV-2 infected cells displayed a significant

reduction in PBs compared to mock-infected controls (Fig 1B, D).

To confirm that PBs were reduced by SARS-CoV-2 infection of naturally permissive cells

derived from respiratory epithelium, we infected Calu-3 cells with SARS-CoV-2. Infected cells

were identified by immunostaining for N protein 24 hours after infection and PBs were stained

for DDX6 and Hedls. We observed PB loss in most but not all infected cells (Fig 1E-H). We

quantified PB loss and showed that by 24 hours post infection, SARS-CoV-2 infected Calu-3

cells also displayed a significant reduction in PBs compared to mock-infected controls (Fig F,

H). As the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic has progressed, new variants of concern (VOCs) have

continued to emerge [92,93]. To determine if VOCs also induced PB disassembly, we infected

HUVEC^{ACE2} with SARS-CoV-2 VOCs Alpha, Beta, Gamma and Delta (MOI=2) and compared

PB disassembly to an ancestral isolate of SARS-CoV-2 (Wuhan-like Toronto isolate; TO-1) (Fig

2). Infected cells were identified by immunostaining for N protein 24 hours after infection and

PBs were identified using Hedls. Significant PB disassembly was observed for all VOCs,

although we noted slightly less PB disassembly mediated by TO-1 compared to the experiments

in Fig 1, likely due to the decrease in MOI between these two experiments (Fig 2).

To determine if PBs were lost in response to infection with other human coronaviruses, we

established infection models for the *Betacoronavirus*, OC43, and the *Alphacoronavirus*, 229E.

We found HUVECs were permissive to both OC43 and 229E (Fig S2A-B). We then performed a

time-course experiment wherein OC43-infected HUVECs were fixed at various times post

infection and immunostained for the viral N protein and the PB-resident protein DDX6. We

observed that PBs were largely absent in OC43 N protein-positive cells but present in mock-

infected control cells (Fig 3A-B). 229E-infected HUVECs were stained for DDX6 to measure

PBs and for dsRNA to denote infected cells due to a lack of commercially available antibodies

for 229E. CoV infected cells are known to form an abundance of dsRNA due to viral replication

and transcription from a positive-sense RNA genome making this a suitable marker for virally

infected cells [94] . In parallel, we confirmed 229E infection by performing RT-qPCR for viral

genomic and subgenomic RNA (Fig S2C-D). After 229E infection, we also found that PBs were

significantly reduced (Fig 3C-D). Because of antibody incompatibility, we were unable to co-

stain infected cells for the PB protein Hedls and OC43 N protein or dsRNA. In lieu of this, we

performed additional OC43 and 229E infections and co-stained infected cells using antibodies

for Hedls and DDX6 (Fig S3). We then performed additional quantification of PB loss using the

Hedls marker to label PBs. These data also show robust PB loss in response to infection with

OC43 and 229E (Fig S3).

PBs will disassemble if key scaffolding proteins are lost; these include the RNA helicase DDX6,

the translation suppressor 4E-T, the decapping cofactors Hedls/EDC4 and DCP1A, and the

scaffolding molecule Lsm14A [95] . To elucidate if CoV-infected cells displayed decreased

steady-state levels of PB resident proteins, we immunoblotted infected cell lysates for PB

proteins XRN1, DCP1A, or DDX6, and Hedls (Fig 4) and quantified protein levels by

densitometry (Fig S4). SARS-CoV-2 infection of HUVEC[ACE2] cells did not alter steady-state

levels of these proteins compared to uninfected cells (Fig 4A). OC43-infected HUVECs

displayed comparable levels of XRN1, DCP1A, and Hedls relative to uninfected cells; however,

OC43 infection decreased steady-state levels of DDX6 at both 12 hpi but not significantly at 24

hpi (Fig 4B). 229E-infected HUVECs showed no detectable change in PB protein expression

after infection compared to controls (Fig 4C).

PBs are important sites for the post-transcriptional control of inflammatory cytokine transcripts

containing AU-rich elements, and PB loss correlates with enhanced levels of some of these

transcripts [7,12-15]. To determine if ARE-mRNAs are elevated, and therefore subject to

regulation during CoV infection, we harvested total RNA from SARS-CoV-2-, OC43- or 229E-

infected HUVECs and performed RT-qPCR for five ARE-containing cytokine transcripts, IL-6,

CXCL8, COX-2, GM-CSF, and IL-1β (Fig 5A-C). Although we attempted to quantify TNF

RNA as well, but the low copy number (high Ct value) of TNF RNA in mock control samples

made quantification by RT-qPCR inaccurate and we were unable to measure the fold-increase of

TNF RNA after CoV infection. We observed increased levels of three ARE-containing

transcripts, IL-6, CXCL8, and COX-2, compared to uninfected cells, particularly in SARS-CoV-

2 infected cells (Fig 5A). Taken together, these data indicate that infection with human

coronaviruses including SARS-CoV-2 induces PB loss, and that some PB-regulated cytokine

ARE-mRNAs are elevated during CoV infection.

<u>A screen of SARS-CoV-2 genes reveals mediators of PB loss</u>

The genome of SARS-CoV-2 is predicted to contain up to 14 open reading frames (ORFs). The

two N-terminal ORFs (1a and 1ab) encode two large polyproteins which are processed by viral

proteases into 16 non-structural proteins (nsp1-16) essential for viral genome replication and

transcription [46] . The 3' end of the SARS-CoV-2 genome is predicted to code for ORFs that

are expressed from 9 subgenomic mRNAs [96]. Among these are the four structural proteins

spike (S), envelope (E), membrane (M) and nucleocapsid (N) and up to 9 potential accessory

proteins, not all of which have been validated as expressed in infected cells [96] . To test which

SARS-CoV-2 gene product(s) was responsible for PB disassembly, we obtained a plasmid

library of 27 SARS-CoV-2 genes from the Krogan lab; this library included 14 nsps (excluding

nsp3 and nsp16), all structural (S, E, M, N) and candidate accessory genes (ORFs 3a, 3b, 6, 7a,

7b, 8, 9b, 9c, 10) [96]. We individually transfected each plasmid and immunostained for each of

the SARS-CoV-2 proteins using antibodies to the Strep-tag II and for PBs using anti-DDX6 (Fig

6A, S5). Relative to control cells, many SARS-CoV-2 ORF transfected cells still displayed

DDX6-positive PBs; however, expression of some SARS-CoV-2 genes reduced DDX6-positive

puncta, including N and ORF7b (Fig 6A) to a similar or greater extent than our positive control,

the KapB protein from Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus which we have previously

shown causes PB disassembly (Fig 6B, C) [13,91,97,98]. We quantified the number of DDX6-

positive PBs per cell for each transfection as in [91] and found that the average number of PBs

per cell was reduced relative to our negative control after transfection of eight SARS-CoV-2

genes: nsp7, ORF7b, N, ORF9b, ORF3b, nsp6, nsp1, and nsp11 (Fig 6D-E). This quantification

was performed in two different ways. In most cases, transfected cells were identified by co-

staining for the Strep-tag II fused to each gene (Fig 6A, S5). In such cases, we quantified DDX6-

positive puncta only in those cells that were transfected and not in bystander cells (Fig 6D,

thresholded). These data identified three SARS-CoV-2 proteins that may cause PB loss in a cell

autonomous manner: nsp7, ORF7b and N (Fig 6D). For the remaining transfections (nsp1, nsp5,

nsp6, nsp11, nsp13, nsp14, ORF3b, ORF6, ORF9b, ORF9c) immunostaining for the Strep-tag II

was not robust and we were unable to threshold our PB counts (Fig S5). In these samples, we

quantified PBs in all cells of the monolayer (Fig 6E, unthresholded). These data identified five

additional SARS-CoV-2 proteins from our screen that may cause PB loss: ORF9b, ORF3b, nsp1,

nsp6 and nsp11 (Fig 6E). We verified the expression of all constructs, including low expressors

(nsp1, nsp5, nsp6, nsp11, nsp13, nsp14, ORF3b, ORF6, ORF9b and ORF9c) by immunoblotting

whole cell lysates harvested from parallel transfections (Fig 6F). We were unable to detect nsp4,

ORF9c or ORF10 by immunoblotting; however, we did visualize expression of these proteins by

immunostaining (Fig 6F, S5). We eliminated low confidence hits (nsp7, ORF9b) and low

expressors (nsp6, nsp11) from further studies and proceeded with validation of the top four hits

(ORF7b, N, ORF3b, nsp1).

<u>The nucleocapsid protein of SARS-CoV-2 induces PB disassembly</u>

We tested four top hits from our PB screen in more relevant endothelial cells as these cells can

be infected, express inflammatory cytokines, and stain robustly for PBs. HUVECs were

transduced with recombinant lentiviruses expressing N, nsp1, ORF3b, and ORF7b or empty

vector control lentiviruses. We also included recombinant lentiviruses expressing nsp14 in this

experiment because of its exoribonuclease activity and ability to diminish cellular translation and

interferon responses [84]. Transduced cells were selected for transgene expression and then fixed

and stained for the endogenous PB marker protein DDX6 and for the Strep-tag II on each of

SARS-CoV-2 constructs. We observed robust staining of the viral nucleocapsid (N) protein in

the transduced cell population (Fig 7A) but were unable to detect expression of nsp1, nsp14,

ORF3b or ORF7b by immunostaining (Fig S6A). We quantified PB loss in the selected cells and

observed decreased PB numbers in cell populations expressing N, nsp14, ORF3b and ORF7b;

however, the most robust PB loss was induced in N-expressing cells, which displayed a

significant reduction in PB numbers as well as strong immunostaining (Fig 7B, Fig S6). We were

concerned that we could not detect the other four transgenes by immunostaining; therefore, we

performed immunoblotting for the Strep-II tag on lysates from each transduced cell population

(Fig S6C). Although we detected a strong band of ~50 kDa at the predicted molecular weight for

N, we were unable to detect bands for nsp14, ORF3b and ORF7b, while the most prominent

band for nsp1 did not migrate at the predicted molecular weight of ~20 kDa (Fig S6) [99,100] .

For these reasons, we decided to focus the remainder of our analysis on the N protein.

As PBs are dynamic RNP granules that undergo transient disassembly and assembly under basal

conditions, we wanted to determine whether N-mediated PB loss was caused by enhanced

disassembly of PBs or the prevention of PB *de novo* assembly. To determine this, we treated N-

expressing HUVECs with sodium arsenite, a known inducer of PB assembly [101] and

immunostained PBs for two different PB resident proteins, DDX6 and Hedls. Consistent with

our previous observation, PB loss was observed after N expression in our untreated control (Fig

7C-F). However, in N-expressing cells treated with sodium arsenite, PB formation could still be

observed, and was in fact increased, although the significance of this is unclear at present (Fig

7C-F). This means that N protein expression does not prevent PB formation, but instead triggers

PB disassembly, which can be reversed after an appropriate stimulus. These data showed that N

expression is sufficient to cause PB loss, and that the absence of PBs in N-expressing cells is a

result of enhanced PB disassembly not a block in PB formation.

We showed that human CoVs OC43 and 229E also cause PB loss during infection (Fig 3);

therefore, we were interested to determine if ectopic expression of nucleocapsid proteins from

these or other human CoVs were sufficient to mediate PB disassembly. To test this, we

transduced HUVECs with recombinant lentiviruses expressing the N protein from SARS-CoV-2

as well as N derived from Betacoronaviruses, MERS-CoV N-Flag and OC43 N. Expression of

MERS-CoV and OC43 N proteins did not lead to significant PB loss compared to SARS-CoV-2-

N (Fig 8A-B). We also tested two N proteins from human Alphacoronaviruses, 229E N-Flag and

NL63 N-Flag. 229E N protein failed to induce significant PB loss compared to SARS-CoV-2 N,

while unexpectedly, it appeared the expression of NL63 N protein increased PB numbers (Fig

8C-D). The significance of this increase is not yet clear. We also expressed the N protein from

the more closely related Betacoronavirus, SARS-CoV-1, and observed SARS-CoV-1 N protein

caused moderate PB loss, yet SARS-CoV-1 N protein-induced PB disassembly was not deemed

significant by statistical analysis (Fig 8E-F). We collected protein lysates in parallel and

performed immunoblotting to detect each CoV N protein (Fig 8G-I). We noted that CoV N

proteins are not expressed equally, thus, we cannot fully discount expression level as the reason

for the discrepancy in PB disassembly. This may be especially important for our analysis of

SARS-CoV-1 N protein, which showed an intermediate but non-significant PB disassembly

phenotype but was expressed at a lower level that SARS-CoV-2 N protein (Fig 8I).

Immunoblotting of steady state levels of PB resident proteins after N protein overexpression

showed that most PB proteins tested remained unchanged in the context of ectopic expression

(Fig 8G-I, Fig S7A). The exception to this was the decapping factor, Hedls/EDC4, which was

decreased after expression of SARS-CoV-2 N in one set of experiments but not in others, but

increased after expression of N proteins from MERS and OC43 (Fig 8G-I, Fig S7A). The

significance of this observation is also unclear.

To understand if PB disassembly correlates with changes to PB-regulated inflammatory cytokine

transcripts in our system, we performed immunofluorescence-RNA fluorescent *in situ*

hybridization (IF-FISH) to confirm the localization of inflammatory RNAs to PB foci. RNA

FISH was performed for two PB-regulated cytokine transcripts that contain AREs, those

encoding IL-6 and TNF, and for the GAPDH RNA, which does not contain AREs and is not

expected to localize to PBs [3]. To achieve a better signal-to-noise ratio for detection, we used

TNF to induce their transcription of IL-6 and TNF, which are lowly expressed in untreated cells.

First, we confirmed that TNF treatment alone did not significantly alter PB dynamics (Fig S8).

We then stained PBs using our antibody to Hedls and co-stained with probes that bound

GAPDH, TNF and IL-6 RNA transcripts. We repeatedly observed co-localization of both IL-6

and TNF RNA with PBs; in contrast, we observed extremely limited GAPDH co-localization

with PBs (Fig 9A). IL-6 and TNF transcripts were also present at much lower levels than

GAPDH RNA, consistent with the notion that ARE-containing transcripts are kept low by tight

transcriptional control and constitutive decay in PBs [14]. We then stained N protein-transduced

cells using our probes (Fig 9B). As expected, N protein expression induced loss of Hedls-

positive PB foci (not shown). In N-expressing cells, the signal for IL-6 and TNF RNA

redistributed from PB foci to the cytoplasm, and the probe intensity for both IL-6 and TNF was

markedly increased compared to control cells which lacked N protein (Fig 9B). We quantified

the change in FISH probe signal intensity per cell (Fig 9C). Compared to controls, N protein-

expressing cells displayed strongly increased TNF probe signal intensity and increased IL-6

probe signal intensity, whereas GAPDH probe signal intensity was not increased (Fig 9C). These

data support our hypothesis that PBs directly regulate proinflammatory cytokine transcripts and

that these PB-regulated mRNAs increase upon PB disassembly.

We then asked if N protein from SARS-CoV-2 or other human CoVs would increase ARE-RNA

transcript levels by RT-qPCR. We analyzed IL-6 and TNF transcript level, as well as two other

ARE-containing RNAs, encoding CXCL8 and COX-2 which were elevated after infection with

SARS-CoV-2 and OC43 (Fig 5). In uninduced ECs, the transcription of these mRNAs is

minimal; for example, TNF mRNA could not be readily detected by RT-qPCR without

transcriptional activation. Therefore, we treated control and N-expressing HUVECs with TNF to

activate cytokine transcription and then assessed if N protein expression enhanced cytokine

mRNA level post-transcriptionally. In the absence of TNF, no change of mRNA abundance was

observed for any of the coronaviruses N proteins tested (Fig 10A-C, 0 hour no treatment).

Ectopic expression of SARS-CoV-2 N enhanced transcript levels of IL-6, CXCL8, and TNF 24

hours after transcription was induced; however, this enhancement was not deemed significant by

statistical analysis (Fig 10A-C). In contrast, we did not observe any increase in transcript levels

after expression of N protein from MERS-CoV, OC43, 229E, or NL63 (Fig 10A-C), consistent

with earlier observations that their expression does not induce PB loss.

Taken together, we present the novel finding that three human CoVs induce PB loss and that for

SARS-CoV-2, the nucleocapsid protein is responsible for this loss. Moreover, we tested five

other human CoV N proteins and found that of these, only SARS-CoV-2 N was sufficient to

induce significant PB disassembly and concomitantly redistributed and enhanced levels of two

PB-localized cytokine mRNAs.

Discussion

In this manuscript, we present the first evidence to show that human CoVs, including SARS-CoV-2, induce PB loss after infection. PBs are fundamental sites of post-transcriptional control of gene expression and are particularly relevant to the regulation of cytokine production. Our major findings are as follows: i) Three human coronaviruses, SARS-CoV-2, OC43, and 229E induced PB loss. ii) The SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid (N) protein was sufficient to cause PB loss. iii) N protein expression elevated levels of PB-localized cytokine transcripts encoding IL-6 and TNF. Taken together, these data point to PB loss as a feature of SARS-CoV-2 infection. Moreover, because viral induced PB disassembly elevates some PB-regulated cytokine transcripts, this phenotype may contribute to the dysregulation of proinflammatory molecules observed in severe SARS-CoV-2 infection.

We screened 27 SARS-CoV-2 gene products by transfection in HeLa cells [96] and initially identified eight candidate genes that reduced PB numbers (Fig 6). Validation of a subset of these in HUVECs revealed that the most robust and consistent mediator of PB loss was the SARS-CoV-2 viral N protein (Fig 7). The N protein is the most abundant produced protein during CoV replication [102]. The SARS-CoV-2 N protein is 419 amino acids long and has two globular and three intrinsically disordered protein domains, including a central disordered serine-arginine (SR-rich) linker region [102-104]. The N protein is a multifunctional RNA-binding protein (RBP) essential for viral replication; it coats the viral genome and promotes viral particle assembly [46,104-107]. Several recent reports have shown that N protein undergoes liquid-liquid phase separation with RNA, an event which may be regulated by phosphorylation of multiple serine residues in the SR-region and is an important feature of viral assembly [107-112] . The N

protein is also an important modulator of antiviral responses [85,113,114]. A recent study

showed that low doses of N protein supressed the production of IFN and some PB-regulated

inflammatory cytokines, while high doses of N protein promoted their production [85] . These

observations are consistent with our phenotype of PB disassembly, which correlates with later

infection times, high expression of N protein and immunofluorescent staining throughout the

cytoplasm (Fig 1, Fig 7).

We subsequently screened five other coronavirus N proteins from OC43, MERS, 229E, NL63,

and SARS-CoV-1 discovered that the phenotype of N-mediated PB disassembly was not

conserved among N proteins but was unique to SARS-CoV-2-N, and perhaps SARS-CoV-1 N

protein which appeared to disassemble PBs in two of three independent experiments (Fig 8).

Despite conservation of structural motifs, the N proteins between most human CoVs possess low

sequence conservation at the amino acid level (~25-50%) and have been reported to exhibit

different properties [115] . In contrast, SARS-CoV and SARS-CoV-2 N proteins have ~94%

amino acid identity [116], making it difficult to reconcile our observation that PB disassembly

induced by SARS-CoV-2 N protein was significant, while PB disassembly induced by SARS-

CoV-1 N protein was not (Fig 8). One difference that we observed by immunoblotting was the

presence of a lower molecular weight ~37 kDa band recognized by our anti-N antibody for

SARS-CoV-2. We did not observe the 37kDa N product after OC43 infection, transduction with

OC43 N protein or transduction with C-terminally Flag-tagged N proteins from 229E, NL63,

MERS-CoV or SARS-CoV-1 (Fig 3, Fig 8). Steady state levels of the lower molecular weight N

product increased over the course of SARS-CoV-2 infection, consistent with the timing of PB

disassembly. Other groups have noted that the SARS-CoV-2 variant of concern (VOC), Alpha,

produces an additional subgenomic mRNA from which a truncated version of N, termed N*, can

be produced [68,117,118]. Translation of the N* ORF is predicted to start at an internal in-frame

methionine residue (Met210) within the N protein [117,118]. Alignment of the SARS-CoV-2 N

protein sequence against other N proteins revealed that of the human CoVs, only SARS-CoV-1

and SARS-CoV-2 N retained a methionine at position 210 (229E: NC_002645.1, HKU1:

NC_006577.2, MERS: NC_019843.3, NL63: NC_005831.2, OC43: NC_006213.1, SARS-1:

NC_004718.3, SARS-2: NC_045512.2). However, a lower molecular weight N protein product

was not observed on our immunoblots for SARS-CoV N protein, leading us to speculate that the

downstream Met residue may not be used for translation initiation in this case. Viruses capitalize

on downstream methionine residues to translate truncated protein products with subcellular

localization or functions that differ from their full-length counterparts as a clever way to increase

coding capacity [119,120] . Our ongoing investigation of the precise nature of the SARS-CoV-2

N protein truncation product we observe during infection and overexpression may reveal that it

has a specific role in PB disassembly.

The PB protein MOV10, and other components of RNA processing machinery, were revealed as

potential interactors with the N protein [121] ; however, we do not observe colocalization of N

protein with PBs after immunofluorescent staining of SARS-CoV-2 infected cells or N-

expressing cells. Based on our data, we consider two possible mechanisms of N protein mediated

PB disassembly. First, N protein may mediate PB disassembly by phase separation with a PB

protein(s). This is similar to what has already been shown for N-mediated disruption of

cytoplasmic stress granules, important cytoplasmic biomolecular condensates that correlate with

cellular translational shutdown [35]. N protein localizes to stress granules and binds the essential

protein, G3BP1, preventing its interaction with other stress granule proteins and blocking stress

granule formation [122-124]. Although the precise domain required for this effect has been

debated, more than one report suggests that the N-terminal intrinsically disordered region is

required for stress granule disruption [123,125] . Second, a possible reason for PB loss may be

the indiscriminate binding of RNA by N protein. N protein could be acting as sponge for RNA,

pulling it out of cytoplasm, thereby reducing the RNA-protein interactions required for phase

separation of PBs [24,122]. We are currently engaged in site-directed and truncation mutagenesis

studies to determine the precise region(s) of SARS-CoV-2- N that is essential for PB

disassembly.

Prior to this report, little was known about CoVs and PBs, and the information that was

published was contradictory. Infection with murine hepatitis virus (MHV) was reported to

increase PBs, whereas transmissible gastroenteritis coronavirus (TGEV) decreased PBs [86,87].

Since the initiation of our study, one additional publication used ectopic expression of one of the

SARS-CoV-2 CoV proteases, nsp5, to test if it was capable of PB disassembly. Consistent with

the results of our screen (Fig 6), nsp5 did not mediate PB loss [32]. In this manuscript, we now

confirm that SARS-CoV-2, OC43, and 229E induce PB disassembly (Fig 1-3) [34] . We also

observed that different human CoVs cause PB loss using different viral gene products; SARS-

CoV-2 utilizes N protein but OC43 and 229E do not, a diversity which further underscores that

convergence on PB disassembly by viruses likely benefits viral replication. Because PBs are

composed of numerous cellular molecules with established (e.g. APOBEC, MOV10) or potential

(decapping enzymes and exonucleases that could degrade viral RNA) antiviral activities, it is

possible that viruses may target PBs for disassembly to negate their antiviral activity

[28,29,31,39-45,126]. A recent screen for cellular proteins that bind SARS-CoV-2 viral RNA

captured two PB proteins (Lsm14a and MOV10), which suggests CoV RNA may be shuttled to

PBs [127]. That said, our evidence does not yet discern if the proposed antiviral role of PB-

localized enzymes is promoted by phase separation of molecules into PBs or not; if so, we would

predict that the antiviral function of these molecules is lost when PB granules decondense.

Emerging evidence suggests that activity of the decapping enzymatic complex is increased by

phase separation and decreased in solution [9,24,128]. Thus, we speculate that PBs are direct-

acting antiviral granules that can restrict virus infection when present as visible condensates; for

this reason, they are targeted for disassembly by most viruses.

One possibility is that PBs are antiviral because their proteins help the cell respond to signals that

activate innate immune pathways [28,30,129,130]. In support of this, TRAF6 was shown to

control Dcp1a localization to PBs using ubiquitylation, suggesting that antiviral signaling is

more complex than previously appreciated and integrates transcriptional responses with cytokine

mRNA suppression in PBs [129,131] . Moreover, the PB protein Lsm14A has been shown to

bind to viral RNA/DNA after infection-induced PB disassembly to promote IRF3 activation and

IFN-β production [130]. Although it remains unclear if the higher order condensation of many

proteins into PBs is required for their proposed antiviral activity, what is clear is that the

outcome of PB disassembly is a reversal of the constitutive decay or translational suppression of

cytokine mRNA that would normally occur there [7,12-15,132] . Our data support a role for PBs

as sensors of virus infection that release cytokine transcripts from repression when they

disassemble. Using IF-FISH, we observed that RNAs encoding IL-6 and TNF, two molecules

elevated in severe SARS-CoV-2 disease, localized to PBs. Upon SARS-CoV-2 N-induced PB

disassembly, these transcripts re-localized from PB foci to the cytoplasm, a redistribution that

was also accompanied by an increase in FISH probe signal intensity signifying increase RNA

abundance (Fig 9). Although we did not see a statistically significant increase in IL-6 and TNF

RNA level in SARS-CoV-2 N-expressing cells using a population-based assay like RT-qPCR

(Fig 10), our single-cell analysis by IF-FISH suggests that the biological relevance of our

observation derives from the combination of increased transcript level abundance and the

redistribution of cytokine transcripts from PB foci to the cytoplasm. We speculate that viral

infection causes PB loss and this event is viewed as a danger signal by the cell: it relieves

cytokine mRNA suppression and re-localizes these transcripts, returning them to the cytoplasmic

pool of RNA to permit translation of proinflammatory cytokines that then act as a call for

reinforcements. In this way, PB disassembly is connected to the innate immune response and is

one of many signals that notify the immune system that a cell is infected. In situations where

interferon responses are delayed or defective, as is emerging for SARS-CoV-2 and severe

COVID-19 [65-67], PB disassembly may occur to alert the immune system of an infection, and

may be a contributing factor to pathogenic cytokine responses.

In summary, our work adds to a growing body of literature which describes that many viruses

target PBs for disassembly, supporting the idea that PBs restrict viral infection. We showed that

the N protein of SARS-CoV-2 is sufficient for PB disassembly, and this phenotype correlated

with elevated levels of PB-localized cytokine transcripts encoding IL-6 and TNF, both which are

elevated during SARS-CoV2 infection [53]. Not only does this work describe a previously

uncharacterized cellular event that occurs during CoV infection, but we have identified a novel

mechanism which may contribute to the dysregulated cytokine response exhibited by severe

SARS-CoV-2 infection.

Materials and Methods

Cell Culture and Drug Treatments

All cells were maintained in humidified 37 °C incubators with 5% CO_2 and 20% O_2. Vero E6

(ATCC), HEK293T cells (ATCC), HeLa Tet-Off cells (Clontech) and HeLa Flp-In TREx GFP-

Dcp1a cells (a generous gift from Dr. Anne-Claude Gingras) were cultured in DMEM (Thermo

Fisher) supplemented with 100 U/mL penicillin, 100 μg/mL streptomycin, 2 mM L-glutamine

(Thermo Fisher) and 10% FBS (Thermo Fisher). Calu3 (ATCC) and MRC-5 cells (ATCC, a

generous gift from Dr. David Proud) were cultured in EMEM (ATCC) supplemented with 100

U/mL penicillin, 100 μg/mL streptomycin, 2 mM L-glutamine and 10% FBS (Thermo Fisher).

HUVECs (Lonza) were cultured in endothelial cell growth medium (EGM-2) (Lonza). HUVECs

were seeded onto tissue culture plates or glass coverslips coated with 0.1 % (w/v) porcine gelatin

(Sigma) in 1x PBS. For sodium arsenite treatment, HUVECs were treated with 0.25 mM sodium

arsenite (Sigma) or a vehicle control for 30 min.

Plasmids and Cloning

pLenti-IRES-Puro SARS-CoV-2 plasmids were a generous gift from the Krogan Lab [96].

pLJM1-OC43-N was cloned from pGBW-m4134906, a gift from Ginkgo Bioworks & Benjie

Chen (Addgene plasmid #151960; http://n2t.net/addgene:151960; RRID:Addgene_151960)

using BamHI and EcoRI restriction sites (NEB). pLJM1-NL63-N-FLAG was cloned from

pGBW-m4134910, a gift from Ginkgo Bioworks & Benjie Chen (Addgene plasmid #151939;

http://n2t.net/addgene:151939; RRID:Addgene_151939) using BamHI and EcoRI. pLJM1-229E-

N-FLAG was cloned from pGBW-m4134902, a gift from Ginkgo Bioworks & Benjie Chen

(Addgene plasmid #151912; http://n2t.net/addgene:151912; RRID:Addgene151912) using

BamHI and EcoRI. Codon-optimized pLJM1-MERS-CoV-N-FLAG was cloned from

SinoBiological (cat #VG40068-CF) using BamHI and EcoRI (Table 1). Codon-optimized

pLJM1-SARS-CoV-N-FLAG was cloned SinoBiological (cat# VG40588-NF) using BamHI and

EcoRI. The Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus Kaposin B (KapB, KS lung isolate) clone

in pLJM1 was previously described [91].

Transient Transfections

534 Transient transfections were performed using Fugene (Promega) according to manufacturer's

535 guidelines. Briefly, HeLa Flp-In TREx GFP-Dcp1a cells were seeded in 12-well plates at

536 150,000 cells/well in antibiotic-free DMEM. Cells were transfected with 1 μg of DNA and 3 μL

537 of Fugene for 48 hours before processing.

Production and use of Recombinant Lentiviruses

All recombinant lentiviruses were generated using a second-generation system. HEK293T cells

were transfected with psPAX2, MD2-G, and the lentiviral transfer plasmid containing a gene of

interest using polyethylenimine (PEI, Polysciences). 6 hours after transfection, serum-free media

was replaced with DMEM containing serum but no antibiotics. Viral supernatants were

harvested 48 hours post-transfection and frozen at -80°C until use. For transduction, lentiviruses

were thawed at 37°C and added to target cells in complete media containing 5 μg/mL polybrene

(Sigma). After 24 hours, the media was replaced with selection media containing 1 μg/mL

puromycin or 5 μg/mL blasticidin (ThermoFisher) and cells were selected for 48 h before

proceeding with experiments.

Immunofluorescence

Cells were seeded onto 18mm round, #1.5 coverslips (Electron Microscopy Sciences) for

immunofluorescence experiments. Following treatment, cells were fixed for 10 or 30 (if infected

with SARS-CoV-2) min in 4% (v/v) paraformaldehyde (Electron Microscopy Sciences).

Samples were permeabilized with 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich) for 10 min at room

temperature and blocked in 1% human AB serum (Sigma-Aldrich) in 1X PBS 1 h at room

temperature. Primary and secondary antibodies (Table 2) were diluted in 1% human AB serum

and used at the concentrations in Table 2. Nuclei were stained with 1 µg/ml Hoechst

(Invitrogen). Samples were mounted with Prolong Gold AntiFade mounting media

(ThermoFisher). Images were captured using a Zeiss AxioObserver Z1 microscope with the 40X

oil-emersion objective unless otherwise stated in the respective figure caption. To account for

variability in staining, all experiments contained internal controls (negative control; mock or

EV). During image acquisition, exposure time was kept consistent within an independent

experiment.

Immunofluorescence (IF) RNA Fluorescent *In Situ* Hybridization (FISH)

IF-FISH was performed according to manufacturers protocol (Stellaris IF-FISH protocol).

Briefly, cells were fixed in 4% formaldehyde (Sigma-Aldrich) for 10 mins then permeabilized

with 0.1% Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich) in PBS for 10 mins. Primary Hedls antibody was

diluted in PBS and incubated for 1 h at room temp, following which secondary antibody was

likewise diluted in PBS and allowed to incubate for 1 h at room temp. Cells were again fixed in

4% formaldehyde for 10 mins, washed with 1X PBS, and incubated in Wash Buffer A (LGC

Biosearch) for 5 minutes. Stellaris probes; GAPDH Quasar 670 (VSMF 2151-5), IL-6 Quasar

670 (LGC Biosearch, SMF 1065-5, custom order, probe sequences detailed in Table 4) and TNF

Quasar-670 (LGC Biosearch, SMF 1065-5, custom order, probe sequences detailed in Table 4).

were diluted in Hybridization Buffer (LGC Biocearch) to a concentration of 125 nM and cells

were incubated for hybridization at 37 °C overnight. The following day, cells were washed

sequentially with Wash Buffer A for 30 mins, Wash Buffer A containing 5 ng/mL DAPI

(Invitrogen) for 30 mins, and Wash Buffer B (LGC Biosearch) for 5 minutes. Samples were

mounted with Prolong Gold AntiFade mounting media (ThermoFisher). Images were captured

on a Zeiss LSM 880 confocal microscope with the 63X oil-emersion objective. At least three z-

stacks were acquired per condition, maximal intensity projections (MIPs) are presented.

Immunoblotting

Cells were lysed in 2X Laemmli buffer and stored at -20°C until use. The DC Protein Assay

(Bio-Rad) was used to quantify protein concentration as per the manufacturer's instructions. 10-

15 µg of protein lysate was resolved by SDS-PAGE on TGX Stain-Free acrylamide gels

(BioRad). Total protein images were acquired from the PVDF membranes after transfer on the

ChemiDoc Touch Imaging system (BioRad). Membranes were blocked in 5% BSA in TBS-T

(Tris-buffered saline 0.1% Tween-20). Primary and secondary antibodies were diluted in 2.5%

BSA, dilutions can be found in Table 2. Membranes were visualized using Clarity Western ECL

substrate and the ChemiDoc Touch Imaging system (BioRad). Densitometry was conducted

using ImageJ, area under the curve for each band was calculated, normalized to the respective

actin loading control band, and presented as fold change.

Quantitative PCR

RNA was collected using the RNeasy Plus Mini Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's

instructions and stored at -80°C until further use. RNA concentration was determined using

NanoDrop One^C (ThermoFisher) and 500 ng of RNA was reverse transcribed using qScript XLT

cDNA SuperMix (QuantaBio) using a combination of random hexamer and oligo dT primers,

according to the manufacturer's instructions. Depending on starting concentration, cDNA was

diluted between 1:10 and 1:20 for qPCR experiments and SsoFast EvaGreen Mastermix (Biorad)

was used to amplify cDNA. The ΔΔquantitation cycle (Cq) method was used to determine the

fold change in expression of target transcripts using HPRT as a housekeeping control

gene. Variance in the mock or empty vector samples was calculated by dividing the ΔCt value of

a single replicate by the average ΔCt value of all replicates for that specific gene and condition.

qPCR primer sequences can be found in Table 3. (Table 3).

Virus Stocks and Virus Propagation

Experiments with SARS-CoV-2 and variants were conducted in a containment level-3 (CL3)

facility, and all standard operating procedures were approved by the CL3 Oversight Committee

and Biosafety Office at the University of Calgary. Stocks of SARS-CoV-2 Toronto-01 isolate

(SARS-CoV-2/SB3-TYAGNC) [90] , Alpha, Beta, Gamma and Delta were propagated in Vero

E6 cells. To produce viral stocks, Vero E6 cells were infected at an MOI of 0.01 for 1 hour in

serum-free DMEM at 37˚C. Following adsorption, DMEM supplemented with 2% heat

inactivated FBS and 100 U/mL penicillin/streptomycin/glutamine was added to the infected

wells. 24-60 hours post-infection (hpi), the supernatant was harvested and centrifuged at 500 x *g*

for 5 min to remove cellular debris. Virus stocks were aliquoted and stored at -80˚C for single

use. SARS-CoV-2 titres were enumerated using plaque assays on Vero E6 cells as previously

described [133] using equal parts 2.4% w/v semi-solid colloidal cellulose overlay (Sigma;

prepared in ddH$_2$O) and 2X DMEM (Wisent) with 1% heat inactivated FBS and 1% PSQ.

Experiments with hCoV-OC43 (ATCC VR-1558) and hCoV-229E (ATCC VR-740) were

conducted in under containment level-2 conditions. hCoV-OC43 and hCoV-229E were

propagated in Vero E6 and MRC-5 cells, respectively. Cells were infected at an MOI of 0.01 for

1 hour in serum-free media at 33˚C. Following adsorption, the viral inoculum was removed and

replaced with fresh media supplemented with 2% heat inactivated FBS and 100 U/mL

penicillin/streptomycin/glutamine. After 5-6 days post infection (dpi), the supernatant was

harvested and cellular debris was cleared by centrifugation. Virus stocks were aliquoted and

stored at -80˚C. hCoV-OC43 and hCoV-229E titres were enumerated using Reed and Muench

tissue-culture infectious dose 50% ($TCID_{50}$) in Vero E6 or MRC-5 cells, respectively.

Virus Infection

For experimental infections, cells were seeded into wells to achieve ~80% confluency at the time

of infection. The growth media was removed and replaced with 100 µL of viral inoculum diluted

in serum-free DMEM to reach the desired MOI and incubated at 37˚C for 1 hour, rocking the

plate every 10 min. Following incubation, the virus inoculum was removed and replaced with 1

mL of complete growth media.

Processing Body and FISH Probe Intensity Quantification

Processing bodies were quantified using an unbiased image analysis pipeline generated in the

freeware CellProfiler4.0.6 (cellprofiler.org) [134]. First, nuclear staining was used to identify

individual cells applying a binary threshold and executing primary object detection between 65

and 200 pixels for HUVECs/HUVEC^{ACE2} and 40 and 200 pixels for Calu3s. For each identified

object (nuclei), the peripheral boundary of each cell was defined using the "Propagation"

function. Propagation distance was customized depending on cell type to account for variance in

cell size (150 pixel radius from the nuclei for HUVECs/HUVEC^{ACE2}, 60 pixel radius from nuclei

for Calu3s). Using a subtractive function to remove the nuclei from the total cell area, the

cytoplasm of each cell was defined. The cytoplasm area mask was then applied to the matched

image stained for PB proteins (DDX6 or Hedls) to count only cytoplasmic puncta. Importantly,

multiple nuclei in close proximity (e.g., within the propagation distance) would be divided into

mutually exclusive cells, such that a single PB could not be counted more than once. Cells were

stratified into 'positive cells' (staining for viral proteins or dsRNA) or 'bystander cells'. In

control treatments (e.g., mock infected or EV) PBs in all cells were quantified. In treatment cells

only 'positive cells' were quantified unless otherwise indicated in corresponding figure captions.

Background staining was reduced using the "Enhance Speckles" function. Only DDX6 or Hedls-

positive puncta with a defined size (3-13 pixels) and intensity range were quantified using

"global thresholding with robust background adjustments" function. All thresholds were

consistent within each replicate that used identical staining parameters. PBs were quantified per

cell, either control (EV or mock) or treatment (infected or viral protein expressing). For each

experiment, an equal number of control and treatment cells were analyzed. For Figure 5, puncta

counts were exported and RStudio was used for data analysis and PB numbers in treatment cells

were represented relative to control cells for ease of data interpretation, rather than raw PBs per

cell. For Figure 9, nuclei and cells were defined according to HUVEC boundaries as specified

above. Background of probe specific staining was reduced using a global thresholding strategy

with a minimum cross entropy method of execution. The MeasureImageIntensity function was

then used to identify the total intensity per image which was divided by the number of cells

identified within that image for a final readout of total intensity/cell. A minimum of 40 cells

were quantified per condition.

Statistics

All statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 9.0. 'Per cell' processing body

counts were plotted such that each independent biological replicate (including paired control and

treatment) could be visualized on a single graph. Given that per cell processing body counts are

naturally skewed and thus non-parametric, we elected to use rank-sum statistical methods

(Mann-Whitney U test and Kruskal Wallis test) when appropriate, as indicated in the

corresponding figure caption. In the case of Figure 7, a two-way ANOVA with a Tukey's post-

hoc analysis was used to determine significance to (1) avoid the false discovery rate associated

with multiple T-tests and (2) because sodium arsenite-induced processing bodies appeared to be

parametrically distributed. Parametric distribution was assumed on all normalized data (Fig 5, 6,

9, 10, S4, & S7) and therefore we elected to use unpaired T-tests or one-way ANOVAs with

Dunnett's post-hoc analysis, as indicated in the corresponding figure caption.

Table 1: Plasmids

Plasmid	Use	Source	Mammalian Selection
pLJM1-Puro	Empty Vector Control	[90] [129]	Puromycin
pLJM1-BSD	Empty Vector Control	[129]	Blasticidin
pLJM1-ACE2	Overexpression		Blasticidin
pMD2.G	Lentivirus Generation	Addgene #12259	N/A
psPAX2	Lentivirus Generation	Addgene #12260	N/A
pLJM1-OC43-N	Overexpression	Addgene #151960	Puromycin
pLJM1-229E-N-FLAG	Overexpression	Addgene #151912	Puromycin
pLJM1-NL63-N-FLAG	Overexpression	Addgene #151939	Puromycin
pLJM1-MERS-CoV-N-FLAG	Overexpression	SinoBiological #VG40068-CF	Puromycin
pLJM1-SARS-CoV-1-N-FLAG	Overexpression	SinoBiological # VG40588-NF	Puromycin
pLenti-SARS-CoV-2-IRES-strep	Overexpression library	N Krogan (UCSF) [114]	Puromycin

688 **Table 2: Antibodies**

Antibody	Species	Vendor/Catalog #	Application	Dilution
Strep-Tag II	Mouse	Sigma (71590-M)	Immunofluorescence Immunoblot	1:1000 1:1000
DDX6	Rabbit	Bethyl (A300-461)	Immunofluorescence Immunoblot	1:1000 1:1000
Hedls	Mouse	Santa Cruz (sc-8418)	Immunofluorescence Immunoblot	1:1000 1:1000
Dcp1a	Rabbit	Novus (H00055802-M06)	Immunoblot	1:1000
Xrn1	Mouse	Abcam (ab231197)	Immunoblot	1:1000
Coronavirus OC43 Nucleocapsid	Mouse	Millipore (MAB-9012)	Immunofluorescence Immunoblot	1:500 1:1000
SARS-CoV2 Nucleocapsid	Rabbit	Novus (NBP3-05730)	Immunofluorescence	1:1000
SARS-CoV2 Nucleocapsid	Mouse	Novus (NBP3-05706)	Immunofluorescence Immunoblot	1:1000 1:1000
dsRNA clone J2	Mouse	Millipore (MABE-1134)	Immunofluorescence	1:100
FLAG	Mouse	CST (8146)	Immunofluorescence Immunoblot	1:1000 1:1000
Actin HRP-conjugated	Rabbit	CST (5215)	Immunoblot	1:10,000

704   **Table 3: qPCR primers**

Target	Direction	Sequence 5'→3'
HPRT	Forward	CTTTCCTTGGTCAGGCAGTATAA
HPRT	Reverse	AGTCTGGCTTATATCCAACACTTC
18S	Forward	TTCGAACGTCTGCCCTATCAA
18S	Reverse	GATGTGGTAGCCGTTTCTCAGG
IL6	Forward	GAAGCTCTATCTCGCCTCCA
IL6	Reverse	TTTTCTGCCAGTGCCTCTTT
CXCL8	Forward	AAATCTGGCAACCCTAGTCTG
CXCL8	Reverse	GTGAGGTAAGATGGTGGCTAAT
IL-1β	Forward	CTCTCACCTCTCCTACTCACTT
IL-1β	Reverse	TCAGAATGTGGGAGCGAATG
TNF	Forward	TCGAACCCCGAGTGACAA
TNF	Reverse	AGCTGCCCCTCAGCTTG
GM-CSF	Forward	AAATGTTTGACCTCCAGGAGCC
GM-CSF	Reverse	ATCTGGGTTGCACAGGAAGTT
COX-2	Forward	CCCTTGGGTGTCAAAGGTAA
COX-2	Reverse	GCCCTCGCTTATGATCTGTC
229E 5' Leader	Forward	AGTTGCTTTTTAGACTTTGTGTCT
229E gRNA (ORF1a)	Reverse	CAAGTGTCACACGGTTGCAG
229E sgRNA (N)	Reverse	CCACGTTGTGGTTCAGATGC

709 **Table 4. Probes for RNA Fluorescent in situ hybridization**

Target:	IL-6	TNF
	gatagagcttctctttcgtt	cgtctgagggttgttttcag
	agaaggagttcatagctggg	gggtcagtatgtgagaggaa
	agaaggcaactggaccgaag	atcatgctttcagtgctcat
	cggctacatctttggaatct	caaagtgcagcaggcagaag
	aagaggtgagtggctgtctg	cggggttcgagaagatgatc
	atttgtttgtcaattcgttc	cttgagggtttgctacaaca
	agatgccgtcgaggatgtac	accagctggttatctctcag
	tcacacatgttactcttgtt	ctgatggtgtgggtgaggag
	tctttggaaggttcaggttg	tctggtaggagacggcgatg
	aagcatccatctttttcagc	ctcttgatggcagagaggag
	ctcctcattgaatccagatt	gatagatgggctcataccag
	tgatgattttcaccaggcaa	attgatctcagcgctgagtc
	ctggaggtactctaggtata	caaagtcgagatagtcgggc
	tcctcactactctcaaatct	aaagtagacctgcccagact
	tactcatctgcacagctctg	ctcctcacagggcaatgatc
	caggaactggatcaggactt	ttgggaaggttggatgttcg
	gggtggttattgcatctaga	gtctgaaggaggggggtaata
	tgagatgagttgtcatgtcc	gtggtcttgttgcttaaagt
	aactccttaaagctgcgcag	ctgaatcccaggtttcgaag
	catgctacatttgccgaaga	ttgaattcttagtggttgcc
	acaggtttctgaccagaaga	agggatcaaagctgtaggcc
	aacataagttctgtgcccag	tggtctccagattccagatg
	ctcatactttttagttctcca	cattctggccagaaccaaag
	ttcaaactgcatagccactt	taggtgaggtcttctcaagt
	ccaagaaatgatctggctct	aaggtccacttgtgtcaatt
	atttgaggtaagcctacact	acatctggagagaggaaggc
		cgtgtctcaaggaagtctgg
		ctacatgggaacagcctatt
		caaaagaaggcacagaggcc
		ttggtcaccaaatcagcatt
		agaggctcagcaatgagtga
		gggcgattacagacacaact
		ctttatttctcgccactgaa

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 Figure Legends

Figure 1. Processing bodies are absent in SARS-CoV-2 infected cells. A-D. HUVECs were

transduced with recombinant lentiviruses expressing human ACE2 (HUVEC-ACE2), selected,

and infected with SARS-CoV-2 TO-1 isolate at an MOI of 3 or a time-matched mock infection

control. At 16 hpi or 24 hpi, cells were fixed and immunostained for SARS-CoV-2 N protein

(green) and DDX6 (A, white) or Hedls (C, white). Nuclei were stained with Hoechst (blue).

Representative images from one of three independent experiments are shown (A, C). PBs were

quantified using CellProfiler by measuring DDX6 puncta (B) and Hedls puncta (D) in SARS-

CoV-2-infected cells (thresholded by N protein staining) or in mock-infected cells. These data

represent three independent biological replicates (*n=3*) with >80 cells measured per condition

(mock and infected) per replicate. Each mock and infected replicate pair plotted independently

(B, D); mean (****, $p < 0.0001$). **E-H.** Calu3 cells were infected with SARS-CoV-2 TO-1isolate

(MOI =3) or time-matched mock-infected control. 24 hpi cells were fixed and immunostained for

SARS-CoV-2 N (green), DDX6 (E; white) or Hedls (G; white). Nuclei were stained with

Hoechst (blue). PBs were quantified using CellProfiler as in B and D (F, H). These data

represent three independent biological replicates (*n=3*) with >130 cells measured per condition

(mock and infected) per replicate. Representative images from one experiment of three are

shown (E, G) and each mock and infected replicate pair plotted independently (F, H); mean

(****, $p < 0.0001$). Statistics were performed using a Mann-Whitney rank-sum test. Scale bar =

20 μm.

Figure 2. Processing bodies are absent in SARS-CoV-2 alpha, beta, gamma, and delta

variant infected cells. A. HUVECs were transduced with recombinant lentiviruses expressing

human ACE2 (HUVEC-ACE2), selected and infected with SARS-CoV-2 TO-1, alpha, beta,

gamma, or delta isolates (MOI=2), or a mock infection control. 24 hpi cells were fixed and

immunostained for SARS-CoV-2 N protein (green) and Hedls (white). Nuclei were stained with

Hoechst (blue). Representative images from one of two independent experiments are shown. **B.**

PBs were quantified as in Figure 1. These data represent two independent biological replicates

(*n=2*) with >80 cells measured per condition (mock and infected) per replicate. Each mock and

infected replicate pair plotted independently; mean. Statistics were performed using Kruskal-

Wallis H test with Dunn's correction (*, $p < 0.0332$; ****, $p < 0.0001$). Scale bar = 20 μM.

Figure 3. Processing bodies are absent in OC43 and 229E infected cells. A-B. HUVECs were

infected with OC43 (TCID$_{50}$ = 2 x 10^4) or mock-infected. Cells were fixed at 12 hpi or 24 hpi

and immunostained for DDX6 (PBs; white) and OC43 N protein (green). Nuclei were stained

with Hoechst (blue). These data represent three independent biological replicates (*n=3*) with >80

cells measured per condition (mock and infected) per replicate. Representative images from one

of three experiments are shown. DDX6 puncta in mock or OC43-infected cells were quantified

as in Figure 1. Each mock and infected replicate pair plotted independently; mean. **C-D.**

HUVECs were infected with 229E (TCID$_{50}$ = 2.4 x 10^3) or mock-infected. Cells were fixed at 6

hpi or 12 hpi and immunostained for DDX6 (PBs; white) and double-stranded RNA (proxy for

229E infection; green). Nuclei were stained with Hoechst (blue). These data represent three

independent biological replicates (*n=3*) with >80 cells measured per condition (mock and

infected) per replicate. Representative images from one of three experiments are shown. DDX6

puncta in mock or 229E-infected (dsRNA+) cells were quantified as in Figure 1. Each mock and

infected replicate pair plotted independently; mean. Statistics were performed using a Mann-

Whitney rank-sum test (****, $p < 0.0001$). Scale bar = 20 μM.

Figure 4. Coronavirus infection does not alter steady state levels of most processing body

proteins. A. HUVECs were transduced with human ACE2, selected, and infected with SARS-

CoV-2 TO-1 isolate (MOI=3). Cells were lysed at 6 and 12 hpi and immunoblotting was

performed using XRN1, Hedls, DCP1A, DDX6, SARS-CoV-2 N, and β-actin specific

antibodies. One representative experiment of two is shown. **B-C.** HUVECs were infected with

OC43 (B, $TCID_{50} = 2$ x 10^4) or 229E (C, $TCID_{50} = 2.4$ x 10^3). Cells were lysed at 12 and 24 hpi

(B, OC43) or 6 and 12 hpi (C, 229E). Immunoblotting was performed using XRN1, Hedls,

DCP1A, DDX6, OC43 N protein (B only), and β-actin specific antibodies. One representative

experiment of three is shown.

Figure 5. Steady state levels of selected ARE-mRNAs are elevated during coronavirus

infection. A. HUVECs were transduced with recombinant lentiviruses expressing human ACE2,

selected, and infected with SARS-CoV-2 TO isolate (MOI=3). RNA was harvested 24 hpi and

RT-qPCR was performed using IL-6, CXCL8, COX-2, GM-CSF, IL-1β and HPRT (house-

keeping gene) specific primers. Values are represented as fold change relative to mock-infection.

n=3; mean ± SD (*, *p* < 0.05; **, *p*< 0.01; ns, nonsignificant). **B-C.** HUVECs were infected with

OC43 (B, $TCID_{50}/mL = 3.5$ x 10^4) or 229E (C, $TCID_{50}/mL = 1$ x $10^{3.24}$). RNA was harvested 24

and 12 hpi for OC43 (B) and 229E (C), respectively, and RT-qPCR was performed as in (A).

Values are represented as fold change relative to mock-infection. *n*≥3; mean ± SD (*, *p* < 0.05;

**, *p* < 0.01; ns, nonsignificant).

Figure 6. Identification of SARS-CoV-2 ORFs that mediate processing body loss. A. HeLa

cells expressing GFP-Dcp1a were transfected with an empty vector (EV) or 2xStrep-tagged

SARS-CoV-2 ORFs for 48 hours then fixed and immunostained for Strep-Tag-II (viral ORF;

green) or DDX6 (PBs; white). Nuclei were stained with Hoechst (blue). Staining of select ORFs

from one of three independent experiments are shown in A. **B.** As a positive control for PB

disassembly, HeLa GFP-Dcp1a cells were transfected with EV or the Kaposi's sarcoma-

associated herpesvirus (KSHV) protein, KapB for 48 hours then fixed and immunostained for

KapB (green) or Hedls (PBs; white). Nuclei were stained with Hoechst (blue); Scale bar = 20

μm. **C.** Hedls puncta were quantified as in Figure 1. These data represent three independent

replicates (*n=3*). Statistics were performed using an unpaired T test; (**, *p* < 0.01). **D-E.** DDX6

puncta were quantified using CellProfiler. In D, SARS-CoV-2 ORF-expressing cells were

thresholded by Strep-Tag-II staining intensity. The intensity threshold used was defined as two

standard deviations above mean intensity in vector controls. Only DDX6 puncta in cells above

this threshold were counted. In E, Strep-Tag-II staining could not be visualized above this

threshold; therefore, DDX6 puncta in all cells were counted (unthresholded). Values are

expressed as a fold-change difference normalized to the vector control (hashed line). These data

represent three or more independent replicates (*n≥3*). A one-way ANOVA with a Dunnett's post-

hoc analysis was performed; bars represent SEM (**, *p* < 0.01). N=nucleocapsid protein,

E=envelope protein, M=membrane protein, S=spike protein **F.** HeLa GFP-Dcp1a cells were

transfected as in A. 48 hours post-transfection cells were lysed. Samples were resolved by SDS-

PAGE on 4-15% gradient gels and immunoblotted with a Strep-Tag II antibody.

Figure 7. Ectopic expression of SARS-CoV-2 N elicits processing body disassembly. A-B.

HUVECs were transduced with recombinant lentiviruses ectopically expressing 2xStrep-tagged

SARS-CoV-2 N or empty vector control (EV) and selected with puromycin for 48 hours.

Samples were fixed and immunostained for Strep-Tag-II (N; green) and DDX6 (PBs; white).

Nuclei were stained with Hoechst (blue). Representative images from one of three independent

experiments are shown (*n=3*). Scale bar = 20 μm. DDX6 puncta were quantified per field of

view using CellProfiler as in Figure 1. >30 cells were measured per condition (EV and N) per

replicate. Bars represent the mean. Mann-Whitney rank-sum test was performed (****, $p <$

0.0001). **C-F.** HUVECs were transduced and selected as in A, then treated with 0.25 mM sodium

arsenite ($NaAsO_2$) or a vehicle control (Untreated) for 30 min, fixed and immunostained for

either Hedls (C, white) or DDX6 (D, white) and SARS-CoV-2 N (green). Nuclei were stained

with Hoechst (blue). Scale bar = 20 μm. Representative images from one independent

experiment of three are shown. These data represent three (C, D) or four (E, F) independent

replicates, with >30 cells measured per condition per replicate. Hedls puncta (D) and DDX6

puncta (F) were quantified as in Figure 1. Bars represent the mean. Statistics were performed

using a two-way ANOVA with a Tukey's multiple comparisons test (*, $p < 0.0332$; ****, $p <$

0.0001; ns, nonsignificant).

Figure 8. Processing body disassembly is not a common feature of all human coronavirus N

proteins. A-D. HUVECs were transduced with recombinant lentiviruses ectopically expressing

N protein from the betacoronaviruses MERS-CoV and OC43 (A-B) or N protein from

alphacoronaviruses 229E and NL63 (C-D) or N protein from SARS-CoV-1 (E-F). A control

lentiviral expressing an empty vector (EV) was used as a negative control and SARS-CoV-2 N

protein expressing lentiviruses were used as a positive control in each experiment. Cells were

selected, fixed and immunostained for DDX6 (PBs; white) and either authentic N protein or a

FLAG tag (green). Nuclei were stained with Hoechst (blue). Scale bar = 20 μm. DDX6 puncta in

EV or N-transduced cells were quantified using CellProfiler as in Figure 1. DDX6 puncta were

quantified as in Figure 1. Representative images from one independent experiment of three are

shown. These data represent three independent biological replicates ($n=3$) with >30 cells

measured per condition (EV and N) per replicate. Each EV and N replicate pair plotted

independently; mean. Statistics were performed using Kruskal-Wallis H test with Dunn's

correction (*, $p < 0.0332$; **, $p < 0.0021$; ****, $p < 0.0001$; ns, nonsignificant). **G-I.** HUVECs

were transduced as above, protein lysate was harvested and immunoblotting was performed

using XRN1, Hedls, DCP1A, DDX6, N protein or FLAG, and β-actin specific antibodies. One

representative experiment of three is shown.

Figure 9. ARE-mRNAs colocalize with processing bodies. A. HUVECs were treated with 0.01

ng/L soluble TNF to increase transcription of ARE-containing cellular mRNAs for 24 hours.

Cells were fixed and immunostained for Hedls prior to hybridization with Stellaris probes

specific for GAPDH, IL-6 and TNF. Nuclei were stained with Dapi. Cells were imaged using a

Zeiss LSM 880 confocal microscope with Airyscan using the 63x objective. At least three Z-

stacks were acquired per condition (probe) per replicate and a maximal intensity projection

(MIP) image is presented. One representative experiment of three is shown. Scale bar = 5 μm. **B-**

C. HUVECs were transduced with recombinant lentiviruses ectopically expressing SARS-CoV-2

N or an EV control. Cells were selected, fixed and immunostained for Hedls prior to

hybridization with Stellaris probes specific for GAPDH, IL-6 and TNF. Nuclei were stained with

Dapi. Only probe-specific staining is displayed for simplicity. Scale bar = 20 μm. Representative

images from one of two independent experiments are shown. Total signal intensity per cell was

quantified using CellProfiler and is represented as fold-change relative to the intensity in the EV

control.

Figure 10. Ectopic expression of SARS-CoV-2 N elevates selected ARE-mRNAs. A-C.

HUVECs were transduced with recombinant lentiviruses ectopically expressing alpha- and

betacoronavirus N proteins or empty vector (EV) control, selected, and treated with 0.01 ng/L

soluble TNF to increase transcription of ARE-containing cellular mRNAs. Total RNA was

harvested at 0, 8, 12, and 24 hours post TNF treatment and RT-qPCR was performed using IL-6

(A), CXCL8 (B), TNF (C) and HPRT (house-keeping gene) specific primers. Values are

represented as fold-change relative to EV-transduced cells for each time point. These data

represent three independent experiments ($n=3$); mean ± SD.

Supplemental Figure Legends

Figure S1. HUVEC-ACE2 cells are permissive to SARS-CoV-2. A. HUVECs were

transduced with recombinant lentiviruses expressing human ACE2, selected, and infected with

SARS-CoV-2 (TO-1 isolate; MOI=3). 6- and 24-hours post-infection, virus-containing

supernatant was harvested and titrated by TCID$_{50}$ assay in VeroE6 cells. These data represent

two independent experiments ($n=2$); mean ± SD. **B-C.** HUVECs were transduced with ACE2 as

in A. Cells were fixed and immunostained for DDX6 (B) or Hedls (C) and quantified per field of

view using CellProfiler. These data represent two independent experiments ($n=2$) with >100 cells

measured per condition. Each EV and ACE2 replicate pair plotted independently; mean.

Statistics were performed using a Mann-Whitney rank-sum test (ns, nonsignificant).

Figure S2. HUVECs are permissive to OC43 and 229E infection. A-B. HUVECs were

infected with OC43 ($TCID_{50} = 2 \times 10^4$) or 229E ($TCID_{50} = 2.4 \times 10^3$). 6-, 12-, or 24 hpi, virus-

containing supernatant was harvested and titrated $TCID_{50}$ assay in VeroE6 (A) or MRC5 (B)

cells, respectively. These data represent two independent experiments ($n=2$); mean ± SD. **C.**

HUVECs were infected with 229E as in B or mock infected. Total RNA was harvested 12 hpi

and RT-qPCR was performed using primers specific to 229E genomic RNA (gRNA) or

subgenomic RNA8 (sgRNA8), or HPRT (cellular house-keeping gene). Cycle-threshold (Ct)

values for each primer pair were plotted. These data represent three independent experiments

($n=3$); mean ± SD. Ct values greater than 35 were not deemed biologically relevant and therefore

are scored as N/A. **D.** PCR products from C. were resolved using agarose gel electrophoresis.

gRNA fragment migrated at the expected size of 285 bp. sgRNA fragment migrated at its

expected ~80 bp. Representative images from one of two independent experiments are shown.

Figure S3. Hedls puncta are absent in OC43 and 229E infected cells. A. HUVECs were

infected with OC43 ($TCID_{50} = 2 \times 10^4$) or mock-infected. 12 or 24 hpi cells were fixed and

immunostained for DDX6 (green) and Hedls (white). Nuclei were stained with Hoechst (blue).

Representative images from one of three independent experiments shown. **B.** Hedls puncta in

OC43-infected or mock-infected cells were quantified per field of view using CellProfiler. **C.**

HUVECs were infected with 229E ($TCID_{50} = 2.4 \times 10^3$) or mock-infected. 6 or 12 hpi cells were

fixed and immunostained for DDX6 (green) and Hedls (white). Nuclei were stained with

Hoechst (blue). Representative images from one of three independent experiments shown. **D.**

Hedls puncta in 229E-infected or mock-infected cells were quantified as in B. These data

represent three independent experiments ($n=3$) with ≥ 100 cells measured per condition per

replicate. Each mock and infected replicate pair plotted independently; mean. Statistics were

performed using a Mann-Whitney rank-sum test (****, $p < 0.0001$). Scale bar = 20 μm.

Figure S4. Processing body protein densitometry after human coronavirus infection. A.

HUVECs were transduced with human ACE2, selected, and infected with SARS-CoV-2 TO-1

isolate (MOI=3). Cells were lysed at 6 and 12 hpi and immunoblotting was performed using

XRN1, Hedls, DCP1A, DDX6, SARS-CoV-2 N, and β-actin specific antibodies. The results of

second independent experiment of two is shown. **B-C.** HUVECs were infected with OC43

($TCID_{50}$ = 2 x 10^4) or 229E ($TCID_{50}$ = 2.4 x 10^3) or mock-infected. Cells were lysed at 12 and 24

hpi (B, OC43) or 6 and 12 hpi (C, 229E). Immunoblotting was performed using DDX6, Hedls,

XRN1, DCP1A, and actin. Protein densitometry was determined in ImageJ normalized to actin

and expressed as a fold-change relative to the 12 hpi (B; OC43) or 6 hpi (C; 229E) mock-

infected control. These data represent three independent biological replicates (*n*=3). A one-way

ANOVA with a Dunnett's post-hoc analysis was performed; mean; bars represent SD (*, $p <$

0.05).

Figure S5. Ectopic expression of SARS-CoV-2 ORFs. HeLa cells expressing GFP-Dcp1a were

transfected with an empty vector (EV) control or 2xStrep-tagged SARS-CoV-2 ORFs for 48

hours then fixed and immunostained for Strep-Tag-II (viral ORF; green) or DDX6 (PBs; white).

Nuclei were stained with Hoechst (blue). **A.** SARS-CoV-2 ORFs that could be detected by Strep-

Tag-II staining (thresholded ORFs). **B.** SARS-CoV-2 ORFs that could not be detected by Strep-

Tag-II staining (unthresholded ORFs). Representative images from one of three or more

independent experiments shown. Scale is the same for all images. N=nucleocapsid protein,

E=envelope protein, M=membrane protein, S=spike protein

Figure S6. Validation of processing body loss induced by selected SARS-CoV-2 ORFs in

HUVECs. A. HUVECs were transduced with recombinant lentiviruses expressing 2xStrep-

tagged SARS-CoV-2 nsp1, nsp14, ORF3b, and ORF7b constructs or control lentiviruses (EV)

and selected with puromycin for 48 hours. Cells were fixed and immunostained for Strep-Tag-II

(ORFs; green) and DDX6 (PBs; white). Nuclei were stained with Hoechst (blue). Representative

images from one of three independent experiments shown. Scale bar = 20 μm. **B.** DDX6 puncta

were quantified per field of view using CellProfiler. These data represent three independent

experiments (*n*=3) with >18 cells measured per condition per replicate. Each EV and ORF-

expressing replicate pair plotted independently; mean. Statistics were performed using Kruskal-

Wallis H test with Dunn's correction (**, $p < 0.0021$; ****, $p < 0.0001$; ns, nonsignificant). **C.**

HUVECs were transduced as in A. Cells were lysed and immunoblotting was performed using

the Strep-Tag II antibody on a 4-15% gradient gel.

Figure S7. Processing body protein densitometry after CoV N protein overexpression. A-C.
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HUVECs were transduced with recombinant lentiviruses ectopically expressing N protein from

the betacoronaviruses MERS-CoV and OC43 (A), N protein from alphacoronaviruses 229E and

NL63 (B) or SARS-CoV-1 N (C). A control lentiviral expressing an empty vector (EV) was used

as a negative control and SARS-CoV-2 N protein expressing lentiviruses were used as a positive

control in each experiment. Cells were selected and lysed and immunoblotting was performed

using XRN1, Hedls, DCP1A, DDX6, N protein or FLAG, and β-actin specific antibodies.

Protein densitometry was determined in ImageJ normalized to actin and expressed as a fold-

change relative to the EV control. These data represent three independent biological replicates

(n=3). A one-way ANOVA with a Dunnett's post-hoc analysis was performed; mean; bars

represent SD (*, $p < 0.05$).

Figure S8. TNF treatment does not alter processing body number

HUVECs were treated with 0.01 ng/L soluble TNF for either 6 or 12 hours following which,

cells were fixed and immunostained for Hedls. Nuclei were stained with Hoechst. Hedls puncta

were quantified per field of view using CellProfiler. These data represent two independent

experiments (n=2) with >90 cells measured per condition per replicate. Each mock and infected

replicate pair plotted independently; mean.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors have no competing interests to declare.

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A

Hedls/SARS-CoV-2 N protein/Hoechst

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