Human coronaviruses disassemble processing bodies

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Abstract

The *Coronaviridae* are a family of viruses with large RNA genomes. Seven coronaviruses

(CoVs) have been shown to infect humans, including the recently emerged severe acute

respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), the causative agent of coronavirus disease

(COVID-19). The host response to CoV infection is complex and regulated, in part, by

intracellular antiviral signaling pathways triggered in infected cells. Pathogenic CoVs can hijack

these antiviral responses, reshaping the production of interferons and proinflammatory cytokines.

Processing bodies (PBs) are membraneless ribonucleoprotein granules that mediate decay or

translational suppression of cellular mRNAs; this is particularly relevant for proinflammatory

cytokine mRNA which normally reside in PBs and are repressed. PBs or their components are

believed to play important direct-acting antiviral roles, providing a compelling reason for their

frequent disassembly by many viruses. Prior to this report, no information was known about how

human CoVs impact PBs. Here, we show that three human CoVs, SARS-CoV-2 and the

common cold CoVs, OC43 and 229E, induce PB loss. Moreover, 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. N protein mediated PB loss correlated with

elevated transcript levels of selected proinflammatory cytokines that would normally be

repressed in PBs. Ectopic expression of the N proteins from four other human coronaviruses

(OC43, MERS, 229E and NL63) did not cause PB disassembly, suggesting that this feature is

unique to SARS-CoV-2 N protein. These data indicate that SARS-CoV-2 disassembles PBs

during infection. As an unintended side effect, the disassembly of PBs may enhance levels of

proinflammatory cytokine mRNAs which normally reside in PBs, thereby reshaping the

subsequent immune response.

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). Once localized to PBs, most RNA transcripts are unable to undergo translation, although in rare cases translation repression can be reversible [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, though it does create the following paradox. 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 as an unintended consequence.

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

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

HCoV-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 and PB-regulated cytokine mRNAs 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. SARS-CoV-

2 N protein expression was also sufficient to increase levels of inflammatory transcripts known

to be elevated in 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 to reshaping cytokine responses to SARS-CoV-2 infection.

<u>Results</u>

<u>Infection with human coronaviruses causes PB loss</u>

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 (Fig 1A). To use HUVEC[ACE2]

for studies on PB dynamics, we confirmed that ACE2 ectopic expression had no effect on PB

number in HUVECs (Fig S1). Confirming this, we infected HUVEC[ACE2] with SARS-CoV-2 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 1B-E). We quantified the loss of cytoplasmic puncta using a method

described previously [90] 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 1C, E).

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 48 hours after infection and PBs were stained

for DDX6. We observed PB loss in most but not all infected cells (Fig 1F). PB loss was more

often associated with cells that displayed N-positive staining throughout the cytoplasm or N-

positive multinucleated syncytial cells and was less frequent in cells that had not yet fused or

displayed punctate N protein staining (Fig 1F). Our attempts to quantify PB loss in infected

Calu-3 were not successful because cell clumping and crowding displayed by these cells made it

difficult for our CellProfiler pipeline to identify discrete infected cells.

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 2A-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 2C-D). 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 viral

infection [91]. After 229E infection, we also found that PBs were significantly reduced (Fig 2D-

E).

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 [92]. 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 3). SARS-CoV-2 infection of HUVEC^{ACE2}

cells did not alter steady-state protein levels of these proteins compared to uninfected cells (Fig

3A). 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 and 24 hpi (Fig 3B). 229E-infected HUVECs showed no detectable change in PB protein

expression after infection compared to controls (Fig 3C).

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 4A-C). We observed increased levels of three of

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

CoV-2 infected cells (Fig 4A). 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 [93]. 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 [93]. 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) [93]. 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

5A). 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 5A). We quantified the number of DDX6-positive PBs per cell for

each transfection as in [90] 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 5B-C). 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, as shown for N, E and ORF7b (Fig 5A). In such cases, we quantified DDX6-

positive puncta only in those cells that were transfected and not in bystander cells (Fig 5B,

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

autonomous manner: nsp7, ORF7b and N (Fig 5B). 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. In these samples, we quantified

PBs in all cells of the monolayer (Fig 5C, 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 5C). 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 5D). We were unable to detect nsp4 by

immunoblotting; however, we did visualize this protein by immunostaining (Fig 5D). 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 6A) but were unable to detect expression of nsp1, nsp14,

ORF3b or ORF7b by immunostaining (Fig S2A). We quantified PB loss in the selected cells and

observed decreased PB numbers in cell populations expressing N, nsp1, nsp14, ORF3b and

ORF7b; however, the most robust PB loss was induced in N-expressing cells, which displayed a

five-fold reduction in PB numbers as well as strong immunostaining (Fig 6B, Fig S2). 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 S2C). 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 S2) [94,95]. 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, we wanted

to determine whether N-mediated PB loss was caused by enhanced disassembly of PBs or the

prevention of their *de novo* assembly. To determine this, we treated N-expressing HUVECs with

sodium arsenite, a known inducer of PB assembly. Consistent with our previous observation, PB

loss was observed post N expression in our untreated control (Fig 6C-F). However, in N-

expressing cells that were treated with sodium arsenite, robust PB expression was still observed

(Fig 6C-F). PBs were immunostained using two different PB resident proteins, DDX6 and Hedls.

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.

We showed that human CoVs OC43 and 229E also cause PB loss during infection (Fig 2);

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 two other 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 7A-B). We also tested two N proteins from human Alphacoronaviruses,

229E N-Flag and NL63 N-Flag and found that neither of these induced significant PB loss

compared to SARS-CoV-2 N (Fig 7C-D). Consistent with this, 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 7E-F). The exception to this was

the decapping factor, Hedls/EDC4, which was slightly decreased after expression of SARS-CoV-

2 N, but slightly increased after expression of the four other N genes tested (Fig 7E-F). The

significance of this observation is not yet clear.

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

transcripts, we performed RT-qPCR for the three AU-rich containing mRNAs, IL-6, CXCL8 and

TNF that were elevated after infection with SARS-CoV-2, OC43 and 229E (Fig 4). PBs control

cytokine transcript levels post-transcriptionally because they modulate mRNA decay; however,

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 significant change of mRNA abundance was observed for any of the

coronaviruses N proteins tested (Fig 8A-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 (Fig 8A-C). However, we did not observe enhanced transcript levels after expression of

N protein from MERS-CoV, OC43, 229E, or NL63 (Fig 8A-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 four

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

disassembly and concomitantly enhance levels of selected AU-rich element-containing 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

and N protein expression elevated levels of PB-regulated cytokine transcripts encoding IL-6 and

TNF. Taken together, these data point to PB loss as a central feature of CoV infection.

Moreover, because viral induced PB disassembly elevates PB-regulated cytokine transcripts, this

phenotype may contribute to the uncontrolled expression of proinflammatory molecules

observed in severe SARS-CoV-2 infection.

We screened 27 SARS-CoV-2 gene products by transfection in HeLa cells [93] and initially

identified eight candidate genes that reduced PB numbers (Fig 5). 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 6). The N protein is the most abundant produced protein during CoV

replication [96]. 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 [96-98]. The N protein is a multifunctional RNA-binding protein (RBP)

essential for viral replication; it coats the viral genome and promotes viral particle assembly

[46,98-101]. 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[101-106]. The N protein

is also an important modulator of antiviral responses [85,107,108]. 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 6).

We subsequently screened four other coronavirus N proteins from OC43, MERS, 229E and

NL63, and discovered that the phenotype of N-mediated PB disassembly was not conserved

among N proteins but was unique to SARS-CoV-2-N (Fig 7). Despite conservation of motifs, the

N proteins from different human CoVs possess low sequence conservation at the amino acid

level (~50%) and have been reported to exhibit different properties [109]. One key 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, or MERS-CoV (Fig 2, Fig 7C). Steady

state levels of the ~37 kDa 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 (B.1.1.7), produces an additional subgenomic mRNA from

which a truncated version of N, termed N*, can be produced [68,110,111]. Translation of the N*

ORF is predicted to start at an internal in-frame methionine residue (Met210) within the N

protein [110,111] . 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). Viruses

often 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 [112,113]. 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 [114]; 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 [115-117]. 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 [116,118]. 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 [24,115]. 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 5), 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, Fig 2) [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

PB disassembly by viruses is intentional and not incidental. 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 [28,29,31,39-45,119]. 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 [120]. 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 [9,24,121]. 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 [28,30,122,123]. 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 [122,124]. 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 [123]. Although it remains unclear if the higher order condensation of many

proteins into the PB regulates 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

mRNAs that would normally occur there [7,12-15,125]. We speculate that when viruses

coordinate an attack to cause PB loss, this event is viewed as a danger signal by the cell: it

relieves cytokine mRNA suppression and increases the production of proinflammatory cytokines

to 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 an important contributing factor to pathogenic cytokine

responses. Ongoing work in our laboratory continues to explore this model of PB regulation of

virus infection.

In summary, our work adds to a growing body of literature highlighting that many viruses target

PBs for disassembly using diverse mechanisms, 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-regulated cytokine transcripts encoding IL-6

and TNF. This is significant, as we know that SARS-CoV2 infection is characterized by elevated

expression of both these cytokines [53]. Not only does this work describe a previously

uncharacterized cellular target of 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 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) were

cultured in EMEM (ATCC) supplemented with 100 U/mL penicillin, 100 µg/mL streptomycin, 2

mM L-glutamine and 10% FBS. 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 [93].

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:Addgene_151912) using

BamHI and EcoRI. pLJM1-MERS-CoV-N-FLAG was cloned from SinoBiological (cat

#VG40068-CF) using BamHI and EcoRI (Table 1).

459 **Transient Transfections**

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

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

462 150,000 cells/well in antibiotic-free DMEM. Cells were transfected with 1 μg of DNA and 3 μL

463 of Fugene for 48 hours before processing.

464 **Production and use of Recombinant Lentiviruses**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

473 proceeding with experiments.

474 **Immunofluorescence**

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

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

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

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

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

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

481 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).

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).

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. qPCR primer sequences can be found in Table 3.

Virus Propagation

Experiments with SARS-CoV-2 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 [126] 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. 24-48 days post-infection (dpi), 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 [127]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 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 grown media.

<u>Processing Body Quantification</u>

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

freeware CellProfiler (cellprofiler.org) [128] described in more detail in [90]. First, nuclear

staining was used to identify individual cells applying a binary threshold and executing primary

object detection between 50 and 250 pixels. For each identified object (the nucleus), the

peripheral boundary of each cell was defined using the "Propagation" function. 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 DDX6 or Hedls-positive cytoplasmic puncta. Only the

cytoplasms of "positive" staining cells (e.g. SARS-CoV-2 N protein channel) were quantified

unless otherwise indicated in corresponding figure legends. Background staining was reduced

using the "Enhance Speckles" function. Only DDX6 or Hedls-positive puncta with a defined size

and intensity range were quantified using "global thresholding with robust background

adjustments" function. All thresholds were consistent between experiments that used identical

staining parameters. For Figure 5, puncta counts were exported and RStudio was used for data

analysis.

Statistics

All statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 9.0. Significance was determined

using a paired Student's t-test unless otherwise indicated in corresponding figure legends.

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
pLenti-SARS-CoV-2-IRES-strep	Overexpression library	N Krogan (UCSF) [114]	Puromycin

565 **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

581   **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

Figure Legends

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

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

SARS-CoV-2 TO-1 isolate at an MOI of 3. At 6 or 24 hours post infection (hpi), virus-

containing supernatant was harvested and titered by $TCID_{50}$ assay. n=2. **B-E.** HUVEC-ACE2

cells were infected with SARS-CoV-2 (MOI = 3) or mock-infected. At 16 hpi or 24 hpi, cells

were fixed and immunostained for SARS-CoV-2 N protein (green) and either DDX6 (B, white)

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

puncta (E) in mock or SARS-CoV-2-infected cells were quantified using CellProfiler and is

expressed as fold-change relative to mock. n=3; mean $\pm$ SD (*, P < 0.05; ***, P < 0.001). **G.**

Calu3 cells were infected with SARS-CoV-2 (MOI =2) or mock-infected. 48 hours later, cells

were fixed and immunostained for SARS-CoV-2 N (green), DDX6 (PBs; white). Nuclei were

stained with Hoechst (blue). Representative images from one of two independent experiments

are shown. n=2. Scale bar = 20 μm.

Figure 2. Processing bodies are absent in OC43 and 229E infected cells. A-B. Each well of

12-well plate of HUVECs were infected with OC43 ($TCID_{50}$ = 2 x 10^4) or 229E ($TCID_{50}$ = 2.4 x

10^3). Supernatants were harvested at 6, 12, and 24 hpi and titrated by $TCID_{50}$ on Vero E6 or

MRC5 cells for OC43 or 229E, respectively. n=2; mean $\pm$ SD. **C.** HUVECs were infected with

OC43 or mock-infected, fixed at 12 hpi or 24 hpi and immunostained for DDX6 (PBs; white)

and OC43 N protein (green). Nuclei were stained with Hoechst (blue) **D.** DDX6 puncta in mock

or OC43-infected cells were quantified as in Figure 1. n=3, mean $\pm$ SD (**, P < 0.01). **E.** Each

well of 12-well plate of HUVECs were infected with 229E ($TCID_{50}$ = 2.4 x 10^3) or mock-

infected, fixed at 6 hpi or 12 hpi and immunostained for DDX6 (white) or dsRNA (green).

Nuclei were stained with Hoechst (blue). **F.** DDX6 puncta in mock or 229E-infected cells as in

Figure 1. n=3; mean $\pm$ SD (*, P < 0.05; ns, nonsignificant). Scale bar = 20 μm.

Figure 3. Coronavirus infection does not alter steady state levels of processing body

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

CoV-2 at an MOI of 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 three is shown. **B-C.** Each well of 12-well plate of 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 24hpi (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 4. 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 (MOI=3). RNA was harvested 24 hpi and RT-qPCR

was performed using IL-6, CXCL8, COX-2, GM-CSF, IL-1β and HPRT specific primers. Values

are represented as fold change relative to mock-infection. n=3; mean $\pm$ 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. $n\geq3$; mean $\pm$ SD (*, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ns, nonsignificant).

Figure 5. Identification of SARS-CoV-2 ORFs that mediate processing body loss. A-C HeLa

cells expressing GFP-Dcp1a were transfected with an empty vector or 2xStrep-tagged SARS-

CoV-2 ORFs for 48 hours then fixed and immunostained for Strep-tag (red) or DDX6 (white).

Nuclei were stained with Hoechst (blue). **A.** Select ORFs are shown; Scale bar = 20 μm. **B-C.**

DDX6 puncta were quantified using CellProfiler. In B, SARS-CoV-2 ORF-expressing cells were

thresholded by Strep-tag 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 C, transfected cells did not stain above this threshold; therefore,

DDX6 puncta in all cells were counted. Values are expressed as a fold-change difference

normalized to the vector control (hashed line). A one-way ANOVA with a Dunnett's post-hoc

analysis was performed, n=3; bars represent SEM; **=P<0.01. **D.** HeLa cells were transfected as

above for 48 hours and lysates were harvested in 2x Laemmli buffer. Samples were resolved by

SDS-PAGE on 4-15% gradient gels (BioRad) and immunoblotted with a Strep-Tag II antibody

(Sigma).

Figure 6. Ectopic expression of SARS-CoV-2 N elicits processing body disassembly. A.

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

SARS-CoV-2 N or controls and selected with puromycin for 48 hours. Samples were fixed and

immunostained for Strep-tag (green) and DDX6 (white). Nuclei were stained with Hoechst

(blue). Scale bar = 20 μm. **B.** DDX6 puncta were quantified per field of view using CellProfiler

as in Figure 1. Values are expressed as fold-change normalized to the control transduction; *n*=3;

mean ± SD (*, P < 0.05). **C-F.** HUVECs were transduced and selected as in A, then treated with

0.25 mM sodium arsenite or a vehicle control 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. Hedls puncta (D) and DDX6 puncta (F) were quantified per

field of view as in (B). *n*=2; mean ± SD.

Figure 7. Processing body disassembly is not a common feature of all human coronavirus N

proteins. A. HUVECs were transduced recombinant lentiviruses ectopically expressing N

protein from the betacoronaviruses MERS-CoV, OC43 or control lentiviruses. SARS-CoV-2 N

protein expressing lentiviruses were used as a positive control. Cells were selected, fixed and

immunostained for DDX6 (white) and either authentic N protein or a FLAG tag (green). Nuclei

were stained with Hoechst (blue). Scale bar = 20 μm. **B.** DDX6 puncta in EV or N-transduced

cells were quantified per field of view by CellProfiler and represented as fold-change relative to

EV-transduced cells. A one-way ANOVA with a Dunnett's post-hoc analysis was performed;

n=3; mean ± SD (**, $P < 0.01$; ns, nonsignificant). **C.** HUVECs were transduced with

recombinant lentiviruses ectopically expressing N protein from the alphacoronaviruses 229E,

NL63 or control lentiviruses. SARS-CoV-2 N protein expressing lentiviruses were used as a

positive control. Cells were fixed and immunostained as in (A). Scale bar = 20 μm. **D.** DDX6

puncta in EV or N-transduced cells were quantified per field of view by CellProfiler and

represented as fold-change relative to EV-transduced cells. A one-way ANOVA with a

Dunnett's post-hoc analysis was performed; *n*=3; mean ± SD (*, $P < 0.05$; ns, nonsignificant). **E-**

F. HUVECs were transduced as in A and C, respectively, harvested in 2x Laemmli buffer 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 8. 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 specific primers. Values are represented as fold-change

relative to EV-transduced cells for each time point. A one-way ANOVA with a Dunnett's post-

hoc analysis was performed; *n*=3; mean ± SD (*, P < 0.05).

Supplemental Figure Legends

Figure S1. ACE2 expression does not alter processing body numbers. A-B. HUVECs were

transduced with recombinant lentiviruses expressing human ACE2 or an empty vector (EV)

control, selected, fixed and immunostained for the PB-resident proteins Hedls (A) and DDX6

(B). Puncta were quantified using CellProfiler and normalized to control (EV) counts. *n*=2; mean

± SD.

Figure S2. Ectopic expression of four SARS-CoV-2 ORFs mediates processing body loss. A.

HUVECs were transduced recombinant lentiviruses expressing 2xStrep-tagged SARS-CoV-2

nsp1, nsp14, ORF3b and ORF7b constructs or control lentiviruses and selected with puromycin

for 48 h. Samples were fixed and immunostained for Strep-tag (red) or DDX6 (white). Nuclei

were stained with Hoechst (blue). Scale bar = 20 μm. **B.** DDX6 puncta were quantified per field

of view using CellProfiler and expressed as a fold-change normalized to the empty vector

control; *n*=2; mean ± SD. **C**. HUVECs were transduced in (A). Lysates were harvested in 2x

Laemmli buffer. Samples were resolved by SDS-PAGE on 4-15% gradient gels (BioRad) and

immunoblotted with a Strep-Tag II antibody (Sigma).

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Conflict of Interest

The authors have no competing interests to declare.

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1143

A

Merge | DDX6 zoom

EV

nsp1

nsp14

ORF3b

ORF7b

DDX6/SARS-CoV-2-N/Hoechst

B

Fold Change Relative to EV

EV nsp1 nsp14 orf3b orf7b

C

Vector nsp1 nsp14 orf3b orf7b N

150 —
75 —
50 —
37 —

25 —

15 —

StrepII

Total Protein