CD169-mediated restrictive SARS-CoV-2 infection of macrophages induces pro-inflammatory responses

Running title: Innate immune sensing of SARS-CoV-2 in macrophages

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Abstract

Exacerbated and persistent innate immune response marked by pro-inflammatory cytokine expression is thought to be a major driver of chronic COVID-19 pathology. Although macrophages are not the primary target cells of SARS-CoV-2 infection in humans, viral RNA and antigens in activated monocytes and macrophages have been detected in post-mortem samples, and dysfunctional monocytes and macrophages have been hypothesized to contribute to a protracted hyper-inflammatory state in COVID-19 patients. In this study, we demonstrate that CD169, a myeloid cell specific I-type lectin, facilitated ACE2-independent SARS-CoV-2 fusion and entry in macrophages. CD169-mediated SARS-CoV-2 entry in macrophages resulted in expression of viral genomic and sub-genomic (sg) RNAs with minimal viral protein expression and no infectious viral particle release, suggesting a post-entry restriction of the SARS-CoV-2 replication cycle. Intriguingly this post-entry replication block was alleviated by exogenous ACE2 expression in macrophages. Restricted expression of viral gRNA and sgRNA in CD169^{+} macrophages elicited a pro-inflammatory cytokine expression (TNFα, IL-6 and IL-1β) in a RIG-I, MDA-5 and MAVS-dependent manner, which was suppressed by remdesivir pre-treatment. These findings suggest that *de novo* expression of SARS-CoV-2 RNA in macrophages contributes to the pro-inflammatory cytokine signature and that blocking CD169-mediated ACE2 independent infection and subsequent activation of macrophages by viral RNA might alleviate COVID-19-associated hyperinflammatory response.

Author Summary

Over-exuberant production of pro-inflammatory cytokine expression by macrophages

has been hypothesized to contribute to severity of COVID-19 disease. Molecular

mechanisms that contribute to macrophage-intrinsic immune activation during SARS-

CoV-2 infection are not fully understood. Here we show that CD169, a macrophage-

specific sialic-acid binding lectin, facilitates abortive SARS-CoV-2 infection of

macrophages that results in innate immune sensing of viral replication intermediates and

production of proinflammatory responses. We identify an ACE2-independent, CD169-

mediated endosomal viral entry mechanism that results in cytoplasmic delivery of viral

capsids and initiation of virus replication, but absence of infectious viral production.

Restricted viral replication in CD169^{+} macrophages and detection of viral genomic and

sub-genomic RNAs by cytoplasmic RIG-I-like receptor family members, RIG-I and

MDA5, and initiation of downstream signaling via the adaptor protein MAVS, was

required for innate immune activation. These studies uncover mechanisms important for

initiation of innate immune sensing of SARS-CoV-2 infection in macrophages, persistent

activation of which might contribute to severe COVID-19 pathophysiology.

Introduction

Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) is the causative agent of the COVID-19 pandemic, which has claimed nearly 6 million deaths worldwide (https://coronavirus.jhu.edu/). Severe COVID-19 cases have been associated with aberrant bronchioalveolar immune cell activation and persistently high levels of proinflammatory cytokines, including IL-6, TNFα, and IL-1β (1, 2). This protracted immune hyperactivation state marked by uncontrolled proinflammatory cytokine expression (3-6) is a potential driver of acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) in severe COVID-19. Transcriptomic analysis of bronchioalveolar lavage fluid (BALF) samples from SARS-CoV-2 infected individuals revealed extensive lung infiltration by inflammatory monocytes and activated tissue-resident and BALF-associated macrophages with robust induction of interferon-stimulated gene (ISG) expression (7), suggestive of a myeloid cell-intrinsic cytokine signature contributing to ARDS and COVID-19 pathologies (8, 9). However, whether SARS-CoV-2 can establish productive infection in monocytes and macrophages has remained contentious (10-15), and importantly, the molecular mechanisms that contribute to myeloid cell-intrinsic hyperinflammatory phenotype have remained unclear (6, 16-19).

Studies on post-mortem tissues from patients, who succumbed to COVID-19, showed that a subset of tissue-resident alveolar macrophages are enriched in SARS-CoV-2 RNA (20, 21). Additionally, single-cell RNA-seq analysis revealed the presence of viral mRNAs in inflammatory myeloid cell populations in autopsied lung tissues (22, 23). Recent studies suggest that tissue-resident human macrophages are permissive to SARS-CoV-2 infection in humanized mice models, and that inhibition of viral genome replication or type-I interferon (IFN) signaling significantly attenuates chronic macrophage

hyperactivation and disease progression (24). However, whether the presence of viral

RNA in macrophages reflects phagocytosis of infected bystander cells or active virus

replication in tissue-resident macrophages has yet to be defined. In contrast, CD14$^+$

peripheral blood monocytes, monocyte-derived dendritic cells (MDDCs), or monocyte-

derived macrophages (MDMs) were not-permissive to productive SARS-CoV-2 replication

in vitro (10-12, 15). In permissive lung epithelial cells and those expressing the cognate

entry receptor, angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2), SARS-CoV-2 utilizes its spike

(S) glycoprotein to interact with ACE2, which facilitates proteolytic cleavage, plasma or

endosomal membrane fusion, and cytosolic import of viral genome (25-27). Depending

on cell type, different host proteases such as furin, TMPRSS2, or cathepsins are required

for S cleavage and entry of SARS-CoV-2 (26, 28, 29). While circulating monocytes and

macrophages are not known to express ACE2 (30), these cells have been shown to

express low levels of endogenous surface TMPRSS2 (31), and moderate levels of

endosomal cathepsins (32) (33), although the relative expression of these cellular

proteases in the context of SARS-CoV-2 infection and inflammation is not well understood.

Recent reports have highlighted capture of SARS-CoV-2 virus particles by myeloid

cell-specific receptors, such as C-type lectins, in an ACE2-independent manner (16, 17,

19, 34, 35) though virus particle fusion or productive viral infection was not observed. We

and others have previously shown that CD169/Siglec-1 facilitates viral infections of

macrophages or dendritic cell (DC)-mediated trans infection of bystander cells (36-39).

CD169 binds to sialylated viral glycoproteins or viral membrane-associated gangliosides,

GM1 and GM3 (38-44). SARS-CoV-2 S protein is highly sialylated (45, 46), and a recent

report demonstrated that DC-mediated SARS-CoV-2 trans infection of ACE2$^+$ epithelial

cells was facilitated by CD169 (19). CD169 is highly expressed by splenic red pulp and

perifollicular macrophages, subcapsular sinus macrophages (47) and alveolar

macrophages (48, 49). Besides constitutive expression on tissue-resident macrophages,

CD169 expression can be upregulated on peripheral blood monocytes under inflammatory

conditions, especially in response to type I interferons (IFNs) (50-52). Since type I IFNs

are highly upregulated and CD169-expressing myeloid cells are elevated during SARS-

CoV-2 infection (53, 54), we reasoned that SARS-CoV-2 S mediated interactions with

CD169$^+$ macrophages might play a crucial role in driving immunopathology of SARS-CoV-

2 infection.

In this study, we examined the role of CD169 in facilitating SARS-CoV-2 infection

of ACE2-deficient human macrophages and its effect on inducing pro-inflammatory

cytokine expression. Using two different human macrophage models, PMA-differentiated

THP1 cells (THP1/PMA) and primary monocyte-derived macrophages (MDMs), we show

that CD169 binds to SARS-CoV-2 S and mediates SARS-CoV-2 S-dependent viral entry

into macrophages, leading to restricted cytosolic expression of viral genomic and sub-

genomic (sg) RNA. Surprisingly, induced constitutive expression of ACE2 in macrophages

(THP1/PMA and MDMs) restored permissiveness to robust virus replication and

production of infectious progeny virions, suggesting that ACE2 expression overcomes a

post-entry block to SARS-CoV-2 infection in macrophages. While CD169-mediated,

ACE2-independent SARS-CoV-2 entry into macrophages resulted in negligible viral

protein expression and absence of infectious virus production, restricted expression of

viral negative strand RNA and sgRNAs induced pro-inflammatory cytokine expression via

retinoic acid-inducible gene I (RIG-I) and melanoma differentiation-associated gene 5

(MDA-5) dependent sensing of viral replication intermediates. Importantly, expression of

IL-6, TNFα and IL-1β was enhanced, whereas type I IFN responses were muted,

suggesting a novel CD169-mediated, macrophage-intrinsic amplification of pro-

inflammatory responses. These findings suggest that induction of pro-inflammatory

responses in SARS-CoV-2-exposed macrophages requires initial viral RNA synthesis and

that abortively infected macrophages might contribute to the hyperimmune phenotype and

pathophysiology of COVID-19.

Results

SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein can mediate ACE2-independent entry into macrophages

To examine the role of macrophages in SARS-CoV-2 infection and COVID-19

pathogenesis, we differentiated primary MDMs from multiple donors by culturing CD14$^+$

monocytes in the presence of human AB-serum and M-CSF for 6 days (55). Compared

to a control HEK293T/ACE2 cell line retrovirally transduced to stably express human

ACE2, ACE2 expression in primary human MDMs was under the detection limit (**Fig. 1A**

and B). However, similar to HEK293T/ACE2 cells (**Fig. 1C**), MDMs from multiple donors

were robustly infected with a SARS-CoV-2 S-pseudotyped lentivirus (**Fig. 1D**), suggesting

that macrophages can support ACE2-independent S-pseudotyped virus entry.

Furthermore, SARS-CoV-2 S-pseudotyped infections in MDMs were blocked by pre-

treatment with a cathepsin inhibitor (E64D) but not a TMPRSS2 inhibitor (Camostat) (**Fig.**

1D), suggesting that SARS-CoV-2 S facilitates endosomal viral entry into ACE2-deficient

MDMs. Preferential engagement of endosomal entry mechanism for SARS-CoV-2 S

pseudotyped lentiviruses (LVs) in MDMs correlated with lack of active and cleaved form

of serine protease TMPRSS2 expression in THP1/PMA and primary macrophages ((56),

Fig. S1A), and robust cathepsin-L expression in THP1/PMA and MDMs (**Fig. S1B**).

Strikingly, pre-treatment with neutralizing antibodies targeting the N-terminal domain

(NTD) of SARS-CoV-2 S that do not compete with ACE2 binding by S (57), led to

significant reduction in S-pseudotyped lentivirus infection of primary MDMs, suggesting

that specific interaction between SARS-CoV-2 S and ACE2-independent entry factors are

essential to mediate entry and endosomal fusion in macrophages (**Fig. S2**).

CD169 is a SARS-CoV-2 attachment and entry factor in macrophages

Expression of CD169, an ISG, is significantly upregulated in monocytes and alveolar

macrophages isolated from COVID-19 patients, and its expression enhancement

correlates with COVID-19 disease severity (7, 53). While co-expression of CD169 with

ACE2 can enhance ACE2-mediated SARS-CoV-2 S entry in HEK293T cells (16), whether

CD169 plays a role in SARS-CoV-2 infection of ACE2-deficient macrophages is unclear.

To address this question, THP1 cells stably expressing wildtype (wt) CD169, mutant

CD169/R116A which displays an attenuated ability to bind sialylated glycoconjugates (39,

58, 59), ACE2, or both wt CD169 and ACE2 (CD169/ACE2) (**Fig. S3A**) were incubated

with recombinant SARS-CoV-2 S protein, and relative S binding was determined by flow

cytometry. In contrast to parental THP1 monocytes, THP1 cells expressing wt CD169

(THP1/CD169) displayed robust S binding comparable to levels observed with

THP1/ACE2 cells (**Fig. 2A**). There was a significant reduction in S binding to

THP1/CD169-R116A cells, indicating that the sialylated S protein is recognized by CD169

(**Fig. 2A**). Co-expression of CD169 and ACE2 in THP1 cells further enhanced S binding

compared to cells expressing only ACE2 or CD169, suggestive of cooperative binding of

CD169 and ACE2 to SARS-CoV-2 S.

We next sought to determine the role of CD169 in mediating SARS-CoV-2 infection

of macrophages. PMA-differentiated THP1 macrophages expressing wt or mutant CD169,

ACE2, or CD169/ACE2 were infected with SARS-CoV-2 S-pseudotyped lentiviruses.

Expression of wt CD169 on THP1/PMA macrophages enhanced S-pseudotyped lentiviral

infection by ~30-fold compared to parental THP1/PMA macrophages, similar to the levels

of infection observed with ACE2$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages (**Fig. 2B**). In contrast

expression of CD169/R116A did not enhance S-pseudotyped lentiviral infection of

THP1/PMA cells, confirming that recognition of sialylated motifs on SARS-CoV-2 S is

essential for CD169-mediated infection of macrophages (**Fig. 2B**). Co-expression of wt

CD169 and ACE2 further enhanced S-pseudotyped lentiviral infection by greater than 11-

fold and 3-fold when compared to cells expressing CD169 or ACE2, respectively (**Fig. 2B**),

confirming that CD169 facilitates S-mediated entry into macrophages in the absence of

ACE2 and enhances entry in the presence of ACE2. To confirm the role of CD169 in

SARS-CoV-2 S-mediated infection in primary human MDMs, and given the relatively low

and variable expression of endogenous CD169 in primary MDMs (**Fig. S3B**), we used

lentiviral transduction to overexpress either wt CD169 or ACE2 (**Fig. S3C and D**).

Following infection of transduced primary macrophages with S-pseudotyped lentivirus, we

observed that CD169 or ACE2 overexpression in MDMs from multiple donors significantly

enhanced SARS-CoV-2 S-pseudotyped lentivirus infection compared to control MDMs

transduced with empty vector (**Fig. 2C**). Crucially, pre-treatment with anti-CD169 blocking

mAb (7D2) prior to infection with S-pseudotyped lentivirus significantly attenuated

infection of untransduced primary MDMs when compared to non-specific IgG1

pretreatment (**Fig. 2D**). These findings suggest that CD169 facilitates SARS-CoV-2 S-

dependent fusion and entry into both THP1/PMA macrophages and primary MDMs in the

absence of ACE2.

SARS-CoV-2 establishes abortive infection in macrophages lacking ACE2

To investigate whether CD169 expression is sufficient to establish productive SARS-CoV-2 infection and replication in ACE2-deficient macrophages, we infected THP1/PMA and primary MDMs overexpressing CD169, ACE2, or parental cells (lacking both CD169 and ACE2) with replication-competent SARS-CoV-2 (Washington isolate, NR-52281), as previously described (60). To evaluate productive infection, we examined the temporal expression of double-stranded RNA (dsRNA), a viral replication intermediate (61), as well as viral nucleocapsid (N) protein. SARS-CoV-2-infected THP1/PMA macrophages were fixed at various time points post infection and subjected to immunofluorescence analysis using antibodies against dsRNA and SARS-CoV-2 N. In contrast to parental THP1/PMA macrophages that showed background staining of dsRNA and no expression of SARS-CoV-2 N at any time point post infection (**Fig. 3A**), CD169-expressing THP1/PMA cells showed low levels of dsRNA production and small puncta staining of SARS-CoV-2 N that did not significantly increase over the course of infection (**Fig. 3B**). However, both ACE2$^+$ (**Fig. 3C**) and CD169/ACE2 double-positive (**Fig. 3D**) THP1/PMA macrophages showed robust dsRNA and SARS-CoV-2 N production starting as early as 2-4 hours post infection (hpi), which significantly increased over the course of infection. There was a clear distinction in the spatial distribution of viral N protein in infected ACE2$^+$ and CD169$^+$/ACE2$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages over time, as noted by a transition from 6 hpi onward from small cytosolic N protein puncta to homogenous distribution throughout the cytosol (**Fig. 3C** and **D**). Furthermore, there was extensive co-localization between peri-nuclear dsRNA foci and N staining in ACE2$^+$ and CD169$^+$/ACE2$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages at 6 and 24 hpi. In accordance with our S-pseudotyped lentivirus infection data (**Fig. 2B**), co-expression of CD169 and ACE2 led to an increase in SARS-CoV-2

infection compared to ACE2-expressing cells, with higher levels and slightly earlier production of dsRNA and SARS-CoV-2 N (compare **Fig. 3C** and **D**). In contrast, N protein staining was not dispersed in the cytoplasm of CD169$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages and remained as small cytosolic puncta over the course of infection with minimal co-localization with dsRNA staining (**Fig. 3B**). These findings suggest that CD169-mediated SARS-CoV-2 entry in THP1/PMA macrophages results in initiation of viral transcription and moderate viral protein production.

Similar to our findings in THP1/PMA macrophages, we observed SARS-CoV-2 N expression in primary MDMs overexpressing ACE2, whereas we were not able to detect N protein in primary untransduced MDMs or those overexpressing CD169 at 24 hpi (**Fig. S4**). The lack of detection of either N (**Fig. S4**) or dsRNA (data not shown) in primary MDMs compared to the low level of N and dsRNA expression observed in THP1/CD169 macrophages (**Fig. 3B**) could be explained by the inefficient lentivector transduction efficiency and low expression of CD169 in primary MDMs (**Fig. S3B** and **C**) compared to the robust CD169 expression in retrovirally transduced THP1 cells (**Fig. S3A**). We further quantified infectious SARS-CoV-2 particle production from both THP1/PMA macrophages (**Fig. 3E**) and primary MDMs (**Fig. 3F**) by TCID50 assay and detected no infectious virions in culture supernatants from CD169-expressing cells. However, both THP1/PMA and primary MDMs expressing ACE2 showed robust production of infectious SARS-CoV-2 particles, with a marked increase in infectious virus production in THP1/PMA cells co-expressing CD169 and ACE2 compared to ACE2 alone (**Fig. 3E**). These results suggest an absence of post-entry restrictions to SARS-CoV-2 replication in macrophages, if virus entry is mediated by ACE2.

CD169-mediated SARS-CoV-2 infection of macrophages results in *de novo* expression of viral mRNAs

To explore the spatial and temporal distribution of SARS-CoV-2 RNA at single cell level, single-molecule RNA FISH (smFISH) analysis (62) was performed in infected THP1/PMA macrophages. Individual fluorescent spots corresponding to viral gRNAs were detected in CD169$^+$, ACE2$^+$ and CD169$^+$/ACE2$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages, as early as 1 hpi (**Fig. S5**). By 6 hpi, we observed diffuse cytosolic staining and perinuclearly localized bright gRNA foci (**Fig. S5**), which further increased in in ACE2$^+$ and CD169$^+$/ACE2$^+$ but not CD169$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages (**Fig. S5**). In order to distinguish between gRNAs and N gene transcripts, we probed cells at 24 hpi with two probe sets labeled with distinguishable dyes one against SARS-CoV-2 ORF1a and the other against N gene. The former detects only gRNA and the later reports both gRNA and N sub-genomic transcripts **(Fig. 4A)**. The staining, particularly that of N gene, showed diffused cytoplasmic distribution, only in ACE2$^+$ and CD169$^+$/ACE2$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages, especially in the advanced stages of infection.

Dispersion of N transcripts (gRNA and sgRNA) in the cytosol of ACE2$^+$ and CD169$^+$/ACE2$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages mirrors the temporal localization phenotype of viral N protein (**Fig. 3C** and **D**), and might be indicative of formation of N positive viral replication compartments (63). While a majority of virus-exposed CD169$^+$ THP1/MA macrophages expressed fluorescent puncta (gRNA) at 24 hpi (indicated by the white arrowheads showing both ORF1a and N expression**, Fig. 4A and B**), transition to bright gRNA foci or cytosolic expansion was not observed, suggesting that CD169 expression in THP1/PMA cells increased uptake of virus, but without ACE2, failed to establish viral replication foci. It should be noted that the formation of distinct fluorescent puncta in

CD169$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages at 24 hpi is suggestive of *de novo* RNA synthesis and

not virus inoculum, since these puncta were not detected at 1 hpi (**Fig. S5**). While viral

RNAs in the CD169-expressing cells are localized in few distinct granulated puncta,

ACE2-expressing cells exhibited inclusion-like structures, suggesting that differential

engagement of viral entry receptors (such as CD169 and ACE2) leads to altered fate of

the incoming viral genome and subsequent steps in the viral replication cycle.

To further investigate the step at which SARS-CoV-2 replication is restricted in

macrophages, THP1/PMA macrophages or those expressing either CD169, ACE2, or

both CD169 and ACE2 were infected with SARS-CoV-2 and cells lysed and harvested at

2, 4, 6, and 24 hpi to quantify the level of total SARS-CoV-2 N transcripts, +gRNA and

sgRNA, as well as negative sense antigenomic RNA, by RT-qPCR. We detected

increasing levels of total SARS-CoV-2 N transcripts at early time points (2-6 hpi) in

THP1/PMA macrophages expressing CD169, ACE2, or both CD169 and ACE2, whereas

parental THP1/PMA macrophages showed no significant increase in viral N RNA levels

compared to mock infection controls (**Fig. 4C**). Furthermore, there were no significant

differences in gRNA levels at early times post infection (up to 6 hpi) between CD169$^+$,

ACE2$^+$ or CD169$^+$/ACE2$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages suggesting an absence of cell-

intrinsic restrictions to early steps of SARS-CoV-2 replication, such as attachment and

fusion, in CD169+ THP1/PMA macrophages. Interestingly, SARS-CoV-2 N transcripts

peaked at 6 hpi in CD169+ THP1/PMA cells, followed by a progressive decline at 24 hpi

(**Fig. 4C**). In contrast, there was a temporal increase in SARS-CoV-2 N transcripts in cells

expressing ACE2, with markedly higher expression at 24 hpi compared to CD169-

expressing cells. In concordance with SARS-CoV-2 N protein expression (**Fig. 3D**),

THP1/PMA cells expressing both CD169 and ACE2 expressed the highest levels of

SARS-CoV-2 N transcripts at 24 hpi compared to those expressing ACE2 or CD169 alone.

After virus entry and capsid uncoating, the next steps in the SARS-CoV-2

replication cycle are translation of the viral gRNA followed by the formation of viral

replication-transcription complexes, which enables synthesis of the negative sense

antigenomic RNA (64). Negative sense antigenomic RNAs are present at significantly

lower levels than +gRNA and sgRNA, and are templates for synthesis of additional

positive sense gRNA and sgRNAs (64). We employed strand-specific RT-qPCR analysis

to detect negative sense viral RNA (ORF1b) and confirmed viral replication (at 2 hpi) in

CD169^{+} THP1/PMA cells, compared to complete absence of negative sense viral RNAs

in parental THP1/PMA macrophages (**Fig. 4D**). Interestingly, negative sense RNA

expression in CD169^{+} THP1/PMA macrophages plateaued at 6 hpi, suggesting that

CD169-mediated SARS-CoV-2 entry promotes initial steps of viral replication. In contrast,

there was a progressive increase in negative sense RNA levels in ACE2^{+} THP1/PMA

macrophages particularly at 24 hpi, and a further enhancement was observed upon co-

expression of CD169 and ACE2 in THP1/PMA macrophages at later times post infection

(**Fig. 4D**).

To confirm that temporal increases in viral transcripts in CD169^{+} or ACE2^{+}

THP1/PMA macrophages were generated from ongoing virus transcription, THP1/PMA

cells (±CD169 ±ACE2) were pre-treated with remdesivir (RDV), a known inhibitor of

SARS-CoV-2 RNA synthesis, prior to infection with SARS-CoV-2 (24, 63). RT-qPCR

analysis of both gRNA (N transcripts) (**Fig. 4E**) and sgRNA (E transcripts) (**Fig. 4F**)

transcripts harvested at 24 hpi revealed that RDV pre-treatment completely blocked the

increase in viral RNA expression in THP1/PMA macrophages expressing CD169, ACE2,

or both CD169 and ACE2, to levels observed in parental THP1/PMA macrophages.

Furthermore, levels of viral gRNA (**Fig. 4G**) and sgRNA (**Fig. 4H**) in SARS-CoV-2 infected

untransduced MDMs progressively increased over time, and these increases in viral

gRNA and sgRNAs were also suppressed upon RDV pre-treatment. Notably, primary

MDMs harbored higher levels of viral transcripts compared to parental THP1/PMA

macrophages at all times post infection (**Fig. 4E-H**), suggesting that endogenous CD169

expression was sufficient to facilitate entry and initiation of virus replication in primary

MDMs. The marked lower levels of viral transcripts in primary MDMs (**Fig. 4G** and **H**)

compared to CD169$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages (**Fig. 4E** and **F**) might be correlated to the

lower CD169 expression in primary MDMs compared to CD169$^+$ THP1/PMA

macrophages cells which were selected for high CD169 expression (**Fig. S3A**). Taken

together, these results suggest that CD169-mediated viral entry enables initiation of viral

RNA replication and transcription in ACE2-deficient CD169$^+$ macrophages even in the

absence of establishment of robust viral RNA replication foci in macrophages, and that

SARS-CoV-2 infection of macrophages is restricted at a post-entry step of virus replication.

Low level expression of SARS-CoV-2 genomic and sub-genomic RNAs is sufficient

to induce pro-inflammatory cytokines in non-productively infected macrophages

Since CD169 expression in macrophages was sufficient to permit SARS-CoV-2 entry and

initiate restricted viral RNA expression, we investigated whether *de novo* viral RNA

synthesis in the absence of productive virus replication can trigger innate immune

responses. SARS-CoV-2 infected THP1/PMA cells (±CD169 ±ACE2) were lysed at 24 hpi,

and total RNA was analyzed by RT-qPCR for inflammatory cytokine expression (**Fig. 5**).

We observed significant induction of expression of IL-6, TNFα, IL-1β, and IL-18 mRNA in

non-productively infected CD169$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages compared to the parental

THP1/PMA cells (**Fig. 5A**). IL-6 and TNFα mRNA expression in SARS-CoV-2 infected

THP1/CD169 cells was similar to the levels observed in productively infected THP1/ACE2,

but lower than that observed in THP1/CD169/ACE2 cells. Intriguingly, induction of pro-

inflammatory cytokines, IL-1β and IL-18, was only consistently observed in non-

productively infected THP1/CD169 macrophages but not in the productively infected

THP1/ACE2 or THP1/CD169/ACE2 macrophages (**Fig. 5A**). A delayed or impaired type I

IFN response is thought to be a critical mechanism for COVID-19 pathogenesis, though

impaired induction of type I IFN response has mostly been reported in infected lung

epithelial cells (65). Interestingly, we observed muted induction of IFNβ, IP-10 and Viperin

in SARS-CoV-2 infected CD169$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages. In contrast, IFNβ, IFNλ1, IP-

10 and Viperin mRNA expression was dramatically upregulated upon establishment of

productive SARS-CoV-2 infection in THP1/ACE2 and THP1/CD169/ACE2 macrophages

(**Fig. 5A**) and correlated with the extent of viral RNA expression and virus replication in

these cells (**Fig. 3**).

Since previous reports have suggested that macrophage exposure to recombinant

S protein may trigger inflammatory cytokine production (17, 66), we infected parental,

CD169$^+$, ACE2$^+$, or CD169$^+$/ACE2$^+$ THP1/PMA cells with S-pseudotyped lentivirus but

observed no induction of pro-inflammatory cytokines (IL-6, TNFα, IL-1β, and IFNλ1) (**Fig.**

S6). To confirm that the induction of pro-inflammatory cytokine and ISG expression was

due to viral replication and sensing of viral RNA, we infected THP1/PMA macrophages

with SARS-CoV-2 in the presence of RDV. Pre-treatment with RDV which abolished virus

replication (**Fig. 4E** and **F**) completely abrogated IL-6, TNFα, IL-1β and IFNλ1 induction

in CD169$^+$, ACE2$^+$, and CD169$^+$/ACE2$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages (**Fig. 5B**), suggesting

that *de novo* viral RNA transcription and sensing of virus replication intermediates are required for the induction of pro-inflammatory cytokines and ISGs in macrophages. Temporal analysis of inflammatory cytokine induction revealed that while SARS-CoV-2 infection of parental THP1/PMA cells did not result in induction of pro-inflammatory responses (**Fig. 5C**), infection of CD169$^+$ THP1/PMA cells led to rapid induction of IL-6, TNFα, IL-1β, and IFNλ1 mRNA expression (**Fig. 5D**). In fact, fold-induction in levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines at early times post infection (4-6 hpi) was similar between CD169$^+$ and ACE2$^+$ macrophages (**Fig. 5D** and **E**), indicating that early viral RNA production is the key trigger of innate immune activation. Accelerated kinetics and highest magnitude of induced IFNλ1 expression was observed in SARS-CoV-2 infected CD169$^+$/ACE2$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages (**Fig. 5F,** note difference in scale on y axis), which correlated with greater level of negative sense antigenomic RNA (**Fig. 4D**) and highest levels of virus replication in CD169$^+$/ACE2$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages (**Fig. 3E**).

To further confirm the findings obtained from CD169$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages, we pre-treated primary MDMs from multiple donors with RDV for 30 minutes prior to infection with SARS-CoV-2. Total RNA was harvested and subsequently analyzed by RT-qPCR to determine fold-induction of IL-6, TNFα, IL-1β, and IFNλ1 mRNA expression at indicated timepoints (**Fig. 5G**). Similar to the observations in CD169$^+$ THP1/PMA macrophages (**Fig. 5B**), SARS-CoV-2 infection induced IL-6, TNFα, IL-1β, and IFNλ1 mRNA in primary MDMs (**Fig. 5G**), with proinflammatory cytokine induction observed as early as 2 hpi. Furthermore, induction of pro-inflammatory responses in primary MDMs was significantly suppressed by RDV pre-treatment (**Fig. 5G**), confirming that establishment of infection and initiation of viral transcription is required for macrophage-intrinsic innate immune activation. Collectively, these findings suggest that CD169-

mediated restricted SARS-CoV-2 infection of macrophages induces robust inflammatory

responses.

Cytosolic RNA sensing by RIG-I and MDA-5 is required for SARS-CoV-2 induced

inflammation in macrophages

Since innate immune activation in THP1/CD169 cells and primary MDMs requires the

expression of *de novo* viral RNAs (**Fig. 5B** and **G**), we next sought to delineate the nucleic

acid sensing mechanism required for the detection of SARS-CoV-2 gRNA and sgRNAs in

CD169+ THP1/PMA macrophages. Depending on the specific pathogen-derived cytosolic

nucleic acids, numerous host sensors can detect and trigger innate immune activation via

the MAVS and/or STING pathways (67). Viral RNAs can be sensed by RIG-I-like receptors

(RLRs) or endosomal toll-like receptors (TLRs) to activate MAVS or TRIF, respectively,

leading to induction of pro-inflammatory cytokines (68). Innate immune sensing of SARS-

CoV-2 RNAs by RLRs such as RIG-I and MDA-5, or endosomal TLRs (TLR7/8), has been

previously proposed (69, 70). It has also been hypothesized that SARS-CoV-2-induced

mitochondrial damage and release of mitochondrial DNA into the cytosol, a cellular stress

response, could trigger cGAS/STING sensing pathway in infected cells (71, 72). To

investigate which of the nucleic acid sensing pathways are involved in sensing abortive

SARS-CoV-2 infection in macrophages, we stably knocked-down expression of either

RIG-I, MDA-5, UNC93B1 (a protein required for TLR3/7/9 trafficking to endosomes, (73)),

MAVS or STING in CD169+ THP1/PMA cells through shRNA-based lentiviral transduction.

Upon successful selection of transduced cells targeted for knockdown of individual host

proteins, we observed robust decrease in both mRNA (**Fig. 6A**) and protein (**Fig. 6B**)

expression. Knock-down of RIG-I, MDA-5, UNC93B1, MAVS or STING in THP1/CD169

macrophages did not impact infection efficiency of SARS-CoV-2, as shown by RT-qPCR

analysis of viral gRNA and sgRNAs in each cell line (**Fig. 6C** and **D**). While knockdown of

UNC93B1 in virus-infected THP1/PMA CD169$^+$ cells had negligible impact on induction of

pro-inflammatory cytokines (IL-6, TNFα, IL-1β and IFNλ1) compared to scramble control

cells, depletion of either RIG-I or MDA-5 led to dramatic reduction in pro-inflammatory

cytokine expression to near background levels, suggesting both cytosolic viral RNA

sensors, but not endosomal TLRs, are required for innate immune sensing of SARS-CoV-

2 transcripts (**Fig. 6E-H**). Furthermore, knock-down of MAVS but not STING, completely

abrogated SARS-CoV-2- induced innate immune activation in THP1/PMA macrophages,

further confirming the requirement of cytosolic viral RNA sensing for induction of pro-

inflammatory cytokines.

MAVS is essential for SARS-CoV-2 RNA-induced innate immune activation in both

non-productively and productively infected THP1/PMA macrophages

We next sought to determine if MAVS was required for induction for pro-inflammatory

responses not only in CD169-mediated abortive infection but also in ACE2-mediated

productive infection of macrophages with SARS-CoV-2. Parental THP1 cells or those

expressing CD169, ACE2, or both CD169 and ACE2 were transduced with lentivectors

expressing scramble shRNAs (control) or MAVS-specific shRNAs, which led to robust

knock-down of MAVS protein expression in all cell lines (**Fig. 7A**). While MAVS depletion

did not affect subsequent SARS-CoV-2 infection of CD169$^+$, ACE2$^+$ or CD169$^+$/ACE2$^+$

THP1/PMA cells, as quantified by total SARS-CoV-2 N gRNA transcripts (**Fig. 7B**),

induction of pro-inflammatory cytokines (IL-6, TNFα, IL-1β and IFNλ1) was significantly

attenuated in both productively (ACE2$^+$, CD169$^+$/ACE2$^+$) and abortively (CD169$^+$) infected

THP1/PMA macrophages upon MAVS knockdown (**Fig. 7C**). These results suggest that

MAVS plays a pivotal role in pro-inflammatory cytokine induction in both ACE2-dependent

and independent (CD169-mediated) SARS-CoV-2 infection of THP1/PMA macrophages.

Taken together, these findings suggest that CD169-dependent establishment of abortive

SARS-CoV-2 infection in macrophages triggers RIG-I/MDA-5 mediated sensing of viral

gRNA and sgRNAs and MAVS-dependent inflammatory cytokines induction, which might

contribute to the dysregulated hyper-immune phenotype of inflammatory macrophages

and severity of COVID-19 disease.

Discussion

Though monocytes and macrophages have not been directly implicated in productive

SARS-CoV-2 infection, several reports have provided evidence of SARS-CoV-2 RNA and

antigen in circulating monocytes, macrophages, and tissue-resident alveolar

macrophages, although these cells are not known to express ACE2 (**Fig. 1** and (30).

Importantly, macrophage-intrinsic inflammatory phenotype in lung BALF samples has

been associated with COVID-19 disease severity (7). In this study, we examined the

mechanisms by which macrophages potentially contribute to inflammation during SARS-

CoV-2 infection, using THP1/PMA and primary human macrophages expressing a

myeloid cell-specific receptor, CD169, in the presence or absence of ACE2. We showed

that CD169 expression mediated entry and fusion of SARS-CoV-2 S-pseudotyped

lentivirus in both CD169^{+} THP1/PMA and primary macrophages. It was recently reported

that CD169 expressed on dendritic cells captures SARS-CoV-2 particles via binding to

gangliosides exposed on the viral membrane, such as GM1, and mediates trans infection

of bystander cells (19). Our results, however, suggest that CD169 can also bind the

sialylated SARS-CoV-2 S protein. Other studies, including ours, have also described

glycan-dependent interactions of SARS-CoV-2 S protein with C-type lectin receptors (DC-

SIGN, LSIGN) and Tweety family member 2 (TTYH2) (17, 19, 74). While ACE2-

independent mechanisms of SARS-CoV-2 interactions with myeloid cells can be mediated

by diverse virus particle-associated antigens (gangliosides, mannosylated S and

sialylated S), our results suggest that CD169-S interaction is sufficient to promote virus

entry and fusion in macrophages in an ACE2-independent manner.

Pre-treatment with antibodies targeting SARS-CoV-2 S NTD and inhibition of

endosomal cathepsins markedly attenuated S-pseudotyped lentiviral infection in CD169^{+}

macrophages, suggesting that S interaction with CD169 and virus entry mechanisms are

distinct to those targeted by ACE2. This is in agreement with recent data suggesting that

binding epitopes for myeloid cell-specific receptors are found outside the ACE2 binding

domain in the spike receptor binding domain (RBD) (17). Consequently, the results

presented here have implications for antibody treatment in COVID-19 patients, as current

therapies are primarily focused on RBD-binding antibodies (57, 75-78). Targeting non-

RBD epitopes to disrupt ACE2-independent entry in CD169^{+} myeloid cells could serve as

a potential mechanism for preventing myeloid cell-intrinsic immune activation. Indeed,

broadly neutralizing nanobodies and potent NTD-targeting neutralizing antibodies from

COVID-19 patients that block both ACE2-dependent and ACE2-independent entry were

recently described (57, 75-78) and might provide potential benefit in also suppressing

macrophage-intrinsic inflammatory signature.

Efficiency of CD169-mediated S-pseudotyped infection in macrophages was

similar to that mediated by ACE2 (**Fig. 2**). Importantly, CD169-mediated SARS-CoV-2

entry was also similarly efficacious to that mediated by ACE2 in THP1/PMA macrophages,

as evident by the similar number of viral gRNA copies at 6 hpi (**Fig. 4C**), though viral

gRNA and sgRNA expression in THP1/CD169+ macrophages was attenuated at later

times post infection (**Fig. 4E** and **F**). SARS-CoV-2 RNA synthesis occurs within ER-

derived double-membrane vesicles (DMVs). The establishment of viral replication

factories within DMVs in the cytoplasm of infected cells is induced by viral proteins, in

concert with cellular factors (64). Previous reports have utilized dsRNA staining to

visualize these viral replication organelles (79). While viral dsRNA+ cells were observed

in a minor percentage of THP1/CD169^{+} macrophages at 6 hpi (**Fig. 3B**), no further

increase was observed. In contrast, majority of the virus-exposed THP1/ACE2 and

THP1/CD169/ACE2 macrophages were dsRNA+ by 24 hpi (**Fig. 3C** and **D**). Since this

staining strategy requires expression of high levels of viral dsRNA, the paucity of dsRNA

positivity in SARS-CoV-2 infected CD169^{+} macrophages might reflect selective

impairment of formation of DMVs. However, expression of ACE2 in THP-1/PMA and

primary MDMs restored infectious virus particle production, suggesting that macrophages

are permissive to SARS-CoV-2 replication when entry is facilitated by ACE2. Considering

that both CD169 and ACE2 mediated virus entry resulted in similar levels of SARS-CoV-

2 gRNA at 6 h pi but only ACE2-mediated virus entry resulted in productive virus infection,

these results implicate a hitherto unappreciated post-entry role for ACE2 in virus life cycle

in macrophages. Interestingly, expression of both CD169 and ACE2 in macrophages led

to enhanced kinetics and magnitude of infection, reflecting an entry-enhancing effect of

CD169 even in the context of ACE2-mediated infection, though the mechanism of

enhanced kinetics of SARS-CoV-2 replication in CD169^{+}/ACE2^{+} macrophages remains

unclear.

Despite lack of productive infection, cytoplasmic viral RNA expression in CD169$^+$

macrophages potently induced expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines and chemokines.

Thus, CD169-mediated viral entry does not simply enable viral uptake by macrophages

but also initiates SARS-CoV-2 replication and triggers inflammatory cytokine expression.

Critically, pre-treatment with RDV not only blocked *de novo* viral RNA expression but also

significantly reduced pro-inflammatory cytokine expression in non-productively infected

CD169$^+$ macrophages (**Fig. 5**), suggesting that neither S protein interaction with cell

surface receptors nor TLR-mediated sensing of incoming viral genome in the endosomal

lumen is sufficient to trigger robust innate immune activation. Rather newly synthesized

viral RNAs (negative sense gRNA, dsRNA, and/or sgRNAs) are the key drivers of innate

immune activation in non-productively infected macrophages. While mRNA expression of

type I and III IFNs peaked at 24 hpi and correlated with the extent of virus replication

(marked by high levels of IFNλ1 mRNA expression at 24 hpi, **Fig. 5A**), pro-inflammatory

cytokines, IL-6 and TNFα mRNAs were induced to comparable levels in both productively

(ACE2$^+$ and CD169$^+$/ACE2$^+$) and non-productively (CD169$^+$) infected macrophages (**Fig.**

5A). Interestingly, significant induction of IL-1β and IL-18 was only observed in CD169+

THP1/PMA and primary macrophages (**Fig. 5D** and **G**), suggesting that CD169-mediated

virus entry and infection establishment uncouples induction of inflammatory responses

from robust viral replication. Since transcriptional priming of the inflammasome

components, IL-1β and IL-18, was only observed in abortively infected CD169$^+$

THP1/PMA macrophages (**Fig. 5A**), SARS-CoV-2 infected and primed macrophages

might thus uniquely contribute to the inflammasome activation upon delivery of secondary

activation signals and perpetuate the hyper-inflammatory inflammatory phenotype.

Previous reports have implicated both RIG-I and MDA-5 in cytosolic sensing of

SARS-CoV-2 RNAs (80, 81), although the primary RNA sensor might be cell-type

dependent. For instance, recent studies have implicated MDA-5 as the primary viral RNA

sensor in lung epithelial cells (82), while other studies have found both MDA-5 and RIG-I

sense SARS-CoV-2 infection in Calu-3 cells (81, 83). Our results implicate both RIG-I and

MDA-5 in SARS-CoV-2 RNA sensing in macrophages, as knockdown of either RIG-I or

MDA-5 significantly attenuated inflammatory cytokine induction in CD169^{+} macrophages.

Despite previous studies suggesting that induction of IL-6 and TNFα might be MAVS-

independent (84), knock-down of MAVS abrogated viral RNA sensing and induction of

NF-κB-dependent inflammatory cytokines (IL-6, TNFα, IL-1β, IL-18) in productively

infected (ACE2^{+}) and abortively infected (CD169^{+}) macrophages. Thus, we propose a co-

sensing requirement of both RIG-I and MDA-5 for detecting viral replication intermediates

and a pivotal role of MAVS in signal transduction in non-productively infected CD169^{+}

macrophages. Intriguingly, induction of RIG-I/MDA-5/MAVS-dependent IFNβ and ISG

expression was muted compared to the robust upregulation of NF-kB-dependent pro-

inflammatory cytokines in SARS-CoV-2 infected CD169^{+} macrophages. Since RLR

relocalization to the mitochondrial, peroxisomal or ER membranes is thought to initiate

robust MAVS-dependent IRF3 activation (85-87), it is tempting to speculate that during

restricted SARS-CoV-2 infection and diminished expression of viral RNAs, cytosolic

retention or altered intracellular localization of RLRs might control the strength and

specificity of downstream responses and favor NF-kB-dependent proinflammatory

cytokine expression. Future studies will need to address spatiotemporal dynamics of RIG-

I/MDA-5/MAVS interactions upon SARS-CoV-2 RNA sensing in macrophages.

SARS-CoV-2 RNA infection of lung epithelial cells can contribute to innate immune

activation, inflammation, recruitment of inflammatory monocytes and macrophages to the

alveolar space, and activation of tissue-resident alveolar macrophages (80, 81). Alveolar

macrophages and airway epithelial cell-associated macrophages, which are uniquely

positioned as gatekeepers to intercept invading pathogens from the bronchiolar airways,

constitutively express CD169 (58, 88), an ISG, whose expression can be further induced

by type I and type III IFNs (39, 50, 51, 89). While therapeutic use of both type I and III

IFNs have been proposed, clinical benefit has proven inconclusive (90-92), presumably

related to timing of the IFN response. For instance, a delayed and persistent type I IFN

response without resolution has been correlated with disease severity and mortality in

patients with COVIID-19 (68). As was recently suggested (93), the pathological outcomes

associated with a delayed type I IFN response might be partly due to the type I IFN-

induced expression of SARS-CoV-2 entry receptors, such as CD169, in

monocytes/macrophages and increased virus uptake and amplification of inflammatory

responses.

Treatment of COVID-19 patients with remdesivir has been shown to significantly

shorten recovery time and reduce lower respiratory tract infections, despite having

minimal impact on viremia (94, 95). Notably, combination therapy with Baricitinib, an anti-

inflammatory drug led to further improvement in clinical status and significantly lowered

serious adverse events (96). Therefore, targeting macrophage-intrinsic innate immune

activation by either blocking macrophage-specific receptors which can mediate SARS-

CoV-2 uptake, or through administration of RIG-I/MDA-5 antagonists present a novel

therapeutic strategy for combating hyperinflammation in COVID-19 patients. However,

further research is needed to better understand the mechanisms of ACE2-independent

CD169-mediated SARS-CoV-2 infection of macrophages, the post-entry restrictions to

virus replication, and the viral determinants that trigger innate immune activation.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. ACE2-independent SARS-CoV-2 entry in macrophages.

(**A-B**) Representative ACE2 mRNA expression (**A**) and flow cytometry profiles showing

ACE2 surface expression (**B**) of HEK293T cells stably expressing ACE2 and primary

MDMs from multiple donors. (**C-D**) Parental (vector) and transduced (ACE2) HEK293T

cells (**C**) and primary MDMs from 3 donors (**D**) were infected with S-pseudotyped lentivirus

(20 ng based on p24^{Gag}), in the absence or presence of cathepsin inhibitor (E64D) or

TMPRSS2 inhibitor (Camostat), and infection was quantified by measuring luciferase

activity at day 3 post-infection. Mock: no virus added, DMSO: no-treatment. The means ±

SEM from at least 3 independent experiments are shown. *P*-values: paired t-test, two-

tailed comparing to vector control (**C**), or one-way ANOVA followed by the Dunnett's post-

test comparing to DMSO (**D**). ***: $p < 0.001$, ****: $p < 0.0001$, ns: not significant.

Figure 2. CD169 is a SARS-CoV-2 attachment and entry factor in macrophages.

(**A**) Binding of SARS-CoV-2 S protein (Wuhan isolate) to THP1 monocytes expressing wt

CD169, mutant CD169 (R116A), ACE2, or both wt CD169 and ACE2 (CD169/ACE2). (**B**)

THP1/PMA macrophages were infected with S-pseudotyped lentivirus (20 ng p24^{Gag}), and

infection was quantified by measuring luciferase activity at 3 dpi. Relative light units

(RLUs) from each cell line were normalized to no virus control (mock). The means ± SEM

are shown from at least five independent experiments. (**C**) Primary MDMs from three

donors overexpressing either CD169 or ACE2, or control were infected with S-

pseudotyped lentivirus (20 ng p24^{Gag}) for 3 days, followed by analysis of luciferase activity

in whole cell lysates. (**D**) Untransduced primary MDMs (representative of 3 donors) were

pre-treated with anti-CD169 mAb (20 µg/ml, 7D2), IgG1, or empty media for 30 min at 4°C

prior to infection with S-pseudotyped lentivirus (20 ng p24^{Gag}) for 3 days, followed by

analysis of luciferase activity. RLUs from each donor in each group were normalized to

no virus control (mock). The means ± SEM from at least 3 independent experiments are

shown. *P*-values: paired t-test, two-tailed (**A**), one-way ANOVA followed by the Dunnett's

post-test (**B**) or Tukey's post-test comparing to parental (THP1) cells (**C**) or each pre-

treatment condition (D). ***: *p* < 0.001, ****: *p* < 0.0001, ns: not significant.

Figure 3. SARS-CoV-2 establishes restricted infection in CD169$^+$ macrophages.

(**A-D**) Representative immunofluorescence images (100x) of THP1/PMA macrophages

infected with SARS-CoV-2 (MOI=1) and stained for nucleus (DAPI, blue), SARS-CoV-2

dsRNA (green), and SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid (red), at indicated timepoints post

infection. Images shown for each THP1 cell line; untransduced control (parental, **A**),

CD169-expressing (**B**), ACE2-expressing (**C**), and CD169/ACE2 double expressing (**D**).

Bar=25 µm. (**E-F**) Culture supernatants from SARS-CoV-2 infected THP1/PMA cells (**E**)

and primary MDMs (**F**) were harvested at 24 hpi and viral titers determined by TCID$_{50}$

assay. The means ± SEM from at least 3 independent experiments are shown. LOD: limit

of detection of assay.

Figure 4. CD169-mediated SARS-CoV-2 infection of macrophages results in

restricted viral RNA expression.

(**A**) Single molecule RNA FISH analysis for viral RNAs using ORF1a specific probe set

(labeled with Texas Red) and N specific probe set (labelled with TMR) in SARS-CoV-2

infected THP1/PMA macrophages (MOI=10, 24 hpi) (**B**) Percentage of infected cells

based on the presence of SARS-CoV-2 RNAs determined from 10-20 independent fields,

(representative field shown in **A**). Data are representative of 2 independent experiments.

Bar=25 μm. (**C-F**) THP1/PMA macrophages infected with SARS-CoV-2 (MOI=1) in the

absence (**C-D**) or presence (**E-F**) of remdesivir (RDV, 1 μM). Total RNA was harvested at

indicated times post-infection and expression of viral transcripts was quantified by RT-

qPCR. Replication kinetics of SARS-CoV-2 was quantified by (**C**) total N amplification

(values from each group normalized to mock (uninfected) or (**D**) negative strand genome

from strand-specific reverse-transcription and ORF1b amplification (mean Ct values for

each condition). Expression of total N mRNA (**E**) and Envelope sgRNA (**F**) transcripts in

THP1/PMA cells pretreated with RDV was analyzed at 24 hpi. Values from each group

normalized to mock (uninfected). (**G-H**) MDMs from multiple donors were infected with

SARS-CoV-2 (MOI=1), in the absence or presence of RDV (1 μM), and viral replication

kinetics analyzed by RT-qPCR at indicated timepoints for total N mRNA (**G**), Envelope

sgRNA (**H**) transcripts. The means ± SEM are shown from at least 3 independent

experiments, each symbol represents a different donor. Significant differences between

groups were determined by one-way ANOVA followed by the Dunnett's post-test (**E-F**),

comparing to control parental THP1 cells. *P*-values: *<0.1; **<0.01; ***<0.001; ****<0.0001.

Figure 5. Restricted expression of SARS-CoV-2 gRNA and sgRNA induces pro-

inflammatory responses in non-productively infected macrophages

(**A-B**) PMA-differentiated THP1 cells from parental (THP1) or those expressing CD169,

ACE2, or CD169/ACE2 were infected with SARS-CoV-2 (MOI=1, 24 hpi) in the absence

or presence of RDV (1 µM, 30 mins), and total RNA was quantified by RT-qPCR for pro-

inflammatory cytokines and ISGs. Values were normalized to mock-infected control for

each group. Fold-induction for indicated pro-inflammatory cytokines (**A**, top panel) and

ISGs (**A**, bottom panel) in the absence of RDV, or in the presence of RDV (**B**). (**C-F**)

Kinetics of pro-inflammatory cytokine/ISG mRNA expression in the absence of RDV in

parental (**C**), CD169-expressing (**D**), ACE2-expressing (**E**), and CD169/ACE2-expressing

(**F**) PMA-differentiated THP1 cells. (**G**) MDMs from multiple donors were infected with

SARS-CoV-2 (MOI=1, 24 hpi) and total RNA analyzed by RT-qPCR. MDMs were pre-

treated with DMSO (control) or RDV (1 µM, 30 mins) prior to infection, and fold-induction

of indicated cytokine mRNAs normalized to mock-infected controls from each donor. RDV:

Remdesivir, ISGs: interferon-stimulated genes. Minus sign represents DMSO, and plus

sign represents RDV pre-treatment. The means ± SEM from at least 3 independent

experiments are shown. Significant differences between groups were determined by one-

way ANOVA followed by the Dunnett's post-test between groups (**A**) or Tukey's multiple

comparisons test within groups (**B** and **G**), comparing to parental THP1 (**A**) or DMSO-

treated (**B**, **G**) in each group. *P*-values: *<0.1; **<0.01; ***<0.001; ****<0.0001, ns: not

significant.

Figure 6. Cytosolic RNA sensing by RIG-I and MDA-5 is required for SARS-CoV-2

induced innate immune responses in macrophages

(**A-B**) CD169-expressing THP1 monocytes were transduced with lentivectors expressing

shRNA against non-specific control (scramble), or specific sequences against STING,

UNC93B1, MAVS, RIG-I, and MDA-5. Knockdown of host proteins targeted by shRNAs

compared to scramble analyzed by RT-qPCR (**A**), and immune blotting (**B**). (**C-H**) CD169^{+}

THP1 cells with stable knockdown of target genes were PMA-differentiated and infected

with SARS-CoV-2 (MOI=1, 24 hpi), and total RNA was analyzed by RT-qPCR for total

nucleocapsid (gRNA) (**C**), sgRNA (Envelope) (**D**), and pro-inflammatory cytokines/ISGs,

IL6, TNFα, IL-1β and IFNλ1 (**E-F**), normalized to mock-infected controls for each group.

Each knockdown is represented by different colors as in **A**. The means ± SEM from 3

independent experiments are shown, and significant differences were determined by one-

way ANOVA followed by the Dunnett's post-test comparing to scramble THP1 (**C-D**), or

by two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post-test comparing Mock to CoV-2^{+} in each

group (**E-H**). *P*-values: *<0.1; **<0.01; ***<0.001; ****<0.0001), ns: not significant.

Figure 7. MAVS is essential for SARS-CoV-2 RNA-induced inflammatory responses

in macrophages.

(**A**) Parental (THP1) monocytes and those expressing CD169, ACE2, or CD169/ACE2

were transduced with lentivectors expressing shRNA against scrambled sequence (-), or

MAVS sequence (+), and knockdown of MAVS in each cell line analyzed by immune

blotting (**A**, left panel), and quantified (**A**, right panel). (**B-C**) THP1 monocytes with stable

MAVS knockdown were PMA-differentiated and infected with SARS-CoV-2 (MOI=1, 24

hpi), and total RNA analyzed by RT-qPCR for (**B**) total viral transcripts (nucleocapsid),

and (**C**) IL6, TNFα, IL-1β and IFNλ1 mRNA expression, normalized to mock-infected

controls for each group. The means ± SEM from 3 independent experiments are shown,

and significant differences were determined by one-way ANOVA followed by the Tukey-

Kramer post-test within groups (**B**, and **C**), or Dunnett's post-test between groups (**C**). *P*-

values: *<0.05; **<0.01; ***<0.001; ****<0.0001, ns: not significant.

Supplementary Figure Legends

Figure S1. Expression of endogenous TMPRSS2 and Cathepsin-L in human

macrophages

(**A-B**) Western blot analysis for total TMPRSS2 (**A**) and Cathepsin-L (**B**) expression in

wildtype and transduced HT-29 cells (control), HEK293T, THP-1/PMA, and primary MDMs

from multiple donors. β-actin was probed as a loading control.

Figure S2. Infection of primary MDMs by S-pseudotyped lentivirus is blocked by

anti-SARS-CoV-2 NTD antibodies.

SARS-CoV-2 S-pseudotyped lentivirus (20 ng) was pre-incubated with indicated anti-

Spike neutralizing antibodies for 30 mins at 37°C, followed by infection of primary MDMs

for 3 days. Relative infection quantified by luciferase activity from whole cell lysates. NT:

no-treatment with neutralizing antibody. Data are representative of 2 independent

experiments, from 3 different donors each. Mock: no virus added, PBS: no-pre-incubation

of virus with antibody. The means ± SEM are shown. *P*-values: one-way ANOVA followed

by the Dunnett's post-test comparing to untreated (PBS) control, *: $p < 0.05$, **: $p < 0.01$,

***: $p < 0.001$, ****: $p < 0.0001$.

Figure S3. Expression profiles of human CD169 and ACE2 in THP1 monocytes and

primary MDMs.

(**A**) Representative flow cytometry profiles of different THP1 cell lines and primary

MDMs stained for surface expression of CD169 and ACE2. (**A**) Transduced THP1 cell

lines stably expressing wild type (wt) CD169, mutant (R116A) CD169, ACE2, or both wt

CD169 and ACE2. (**B**) Untransduced primary MDMs from multiple donors showing

differential expression of endogenous CD169. After 5-6 days of macrophage

differentiation, cells were either unstained or stained with anti-human CD169 antibody,

and surface expression analyzed by flow cytometry. (**C-D**) Representative flow

cytometry profiles of primary MDMs transduced with wt CD169 (**C**) or ACE2 (**D**)

lentiviruses compared to negative (vector only) control.

Figure S4. Exogenous expression of ACE2 in primary MDMs rescues SARS-CoV-2

replication.

Representative immunofluorescence images (20x) of primary MDMs infected with SARS-

CoV-2 (MOI=1) and stained for nucleus (DAPI, blue), and SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid

protein (red), at 24 hpi. Images from primary MDMs overexpressing either CD169 or ACE2

compared to vector-only control were captured and represent at least 3 independent

donors. Bar = 25 µm.

Figure S5. CD169 and ACE2-dependent temporal enhancement of SARS-CoV-2

RNAs in THP1/PMA macrophages.

Single molecule FISH analysis of viral +gRNA using high fidelity probes in SARS-CoV-2

(MOI=10) infected THP1/PMA macrophages at the indicated timepoints. Representative

fields of cells were hybridized at indicated times with 7 sets of smFISH probes labeled

with Quasar670 targeting the + strand of SARS-CoV-2 ORF1a (NSP1-3) and N

transcripts. Data are representative of 2 independent experiments. Bar = 50µM

Figure S6. Lack of pro-inflammatory cytokine expression in THP1/PMA

macrophages infected with SARS-CoV-2 S-pseudotyped lentiviruses.

PMA-differentiated THP1 cell lines infected with SARS-CoV-2 S-pseudotyped lentivirus

(20 ng) and total RNA harvested at 2 dpi, followed by qRT-PCR analysis. Fold expression

of indicated cytokines normalized to mock (uninfected) condition in each group. Data are

representative of at least 3 independent experiments. The means ± SEM from 3

independent experiments are shown.

Materials & Methods

Ethics statement. This research has been determined to be exempt by the Institutional

Review Board of the Boston University Medical Center since it does not meet the definition

of human subjects research, since all human samples were collected in an anonymous

fashion and no identifiable private information was collected.

Plasmids

The SARS-CoV-2 S/gp41 expression plasmid was a gift from Dr. Nir Hachoen at the Broad

Institute, and has previously been described (74). For ACE2 lentiviral transduction in

THP1 cells, we used a lentiviral plasmid expressing ACE2 and the puromycin resistant

gene (Addgene #145839, hereafter pLenti-ACE2-IRES-puro). Generation of wildtype and

mutant (R116A) human CD169 plasmids (LNC-CD169) was previously described and

validated (39). For transduction of primary MDMs, a 3' LTR-restored lentiviral expression

vector (Addgene #101337, hereafter LV-3'LTR) expressing a GFP reporter was used to

express ACE2 or CD169. For ACE2 cloning, the NotI-XhoI fragment from pLenti-ACE2-

IRES-puro was inserted into the LV-3'LTR backbone. For cloning CD169 into LV-3'LTR

vector, a BglII-AgeI fragment from LNC-CD169 was inserted into LV-3'LTR vector. HIV-1

packaging plasmid psPAX2 and VSV-G expression constructs have been previously

described (39). All lentiviral vectors (pLKO.1) expressing shRNAs used for knockdown of

host proteins were purchased from Sigma.

Cells

HEK293T cells (ATCC) were maintained in DMEM (Gibco) containing 10% heat-

inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Gibco) and 1% pen/strep (Gibco) (39, 40, 97). Vero

E6 cells (ATCC CRL-1586) were maintained in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and

100 µg/mL primocin. THP1 cells (ATCC) were maintained in RPMI/1640 (Gibco)

containing 10% FBS and 1% pen/strep (50). THP1 cells stably expressing CD169 have

previously been described (39). To generate HEK293T/ACE2$^+$, THP1/ACE2$^+$ and

THP1/CD169$^+$/ACE2$^+$ cells, HEK293T, THP1 or THP1/CD169 cells were transduced with

pLenti-ACE2-IRES-puro lentivector and cultured in puromycin-containing media (2 µg/ml).

Cells with robust surface expression of ACE2 and CD169/ACE2 (double-positive) were

sorted using a MoFlo cell sorter (Beckman Coulter) and cultured in puromycin-

supplemented media. All cell lines are routinely tested for mycoplasma contamination and

confirmed negative. For THP1 monocyte to macrophage differentiation, THP1 cells were

stimulated with 100 nM PMA (Sigma-Aldrich) for 48 hours. Human monocyte-derived

macrophages (MDMs) were derived from CD14$^+$ peripheral blood monocytes by culturing

cells in RPMI/1640 (Gibco) media containing 10% heat-inactivated human AB serum

(Sigma-Aldrich) and recombinant human M-CSF (20 ng per ml; Peprotech) for 5-6 days,

(55). To generate MDMs expressing ACE2 or overexpressing CD169, cells were co-

infected with ACE2 or CD169 expressing lentiviruses (100 ng based on p24^{gag} ELISA per

1x10^6 cells) and SIV3+ (Vpx expressing) VLPs. ACE2 and CD169 surface expression was

determined by flow cytometry 3 days post transduction.

Viruses

SARS-CoV-2 stocks (isolate USA_WA1/2020, kindly provided by CDC's Principal

Investigator Natalie Thornburg and the World Reference Center for Emerging Viruses and

Arboviruses (WRCEVA)) were grown in Vero E6 cells (ATCC CRL-1586) cultured in

Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 2% fetal FBS and 100

µg/mL primocin. To remove confounding cytokines and other factors, viral stocks were

purified by ultracentrifugation through a 20% sucrose cushion at 80,000xg for 2 hours at

4°C (60). SARS-CoV-2 titer was determined in Vero E6 cells by tissue culture infectious

dose 50 (TCID$_{50}$) assay using the Spearman Kärber algorithm. All work with SARS-CoV-

2 was performed in the biosafety level 4 (BSL4) facility of the National Emerging Infectious

Diseases Laboratories at Boston University, Boston, MA following approved SOPs.

Generation of SARS-CoV-2 S-pseudotyped lentiviruses expressing spike glycoprotein

has previously been described (74). Briefly, HEK293T cells were co-transfected with HIV-

1 reporter plasmid containing a luciferase reporter gene in place of the *nef* ORF and

SARS-CoV-2 S (74). To generate ACE2 or CD169 expressing recombinant lentiviruses,

LV-3'LTR lentivectors expressing either empty vector, ACE2, or CD169, were co-

transfected with psPax2 (HIV Gag-pol packaging plasmid) and H-CMV-G (VSV-G

envelope-expressing plasmid) in HEK293T cells by calcium phosphate-mediated

transfection (98). Virus-containing supernatants were harvested 2 days post-transfection,

cleared of cell debris by centrifugation (300xg, 5 min), passed through 0.45 µm filters,

aliquoted and stored at -80 °C until use. Lentivirus titers were determined by a p24^{gag}

ELISA (98).

Infection

For RNA analysis, 1x10^6 cells (THPI/PMA, MDMs, HEK293T) were seeded in 12-well

plates. For smFISH analysis, 1x10^6 cells were seeded in 6-well plates containing 3-4

coverslips per well. The next day, cells were infected with purified SARS-CoV-2 at the

indicated multiplicity of infection (MOI). At indicated time points, the cells were either lysed

with TRIzol (for total RNA analysis) or fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin for at least 6

hours at 4°C and removed from the BSL-4 laboratory for staining and imaging analysis in

accordance with approved SOPs. For SARS-CoV-2 S-pseudotyped lentiviral infections of

THP1/PMA macrophages or MDMs, $1x10^5$ cells were seeded in 96-well plates, and

infected via spinoculation the following day with 10-20 ng (p24^{Gag}) of purified S-

pseudotyped lentivirus and SIV_{mac} Vpx VLPs (1 hr at RT and 1100 x g), as previously

described (55). Incubation with virus was continued for 4 additional hours at 37˚C, cells

were then washed to remove unbound virus particles, and cultured for 2-3 days. For

CD169 blocking experiments, primary MDMs from 3 different donors were pre-incubated

with 20 µg/ml anti-CD169 antibody (HSn 7D2, Novus Biologicals) or IgG1k (P3.6.2.8.1,

eBioscience) for 30 min at 4˚C prior to infection. For anti-spike neutralizing experiments,

virus-containing media were pre-incubated with antibodies targeting SARS-CoV-2 spike

NTD for 30 min at 37˚C prior to infection. At indicated timepoints, cells are lysed, cell

lysates were analyzed for luciferase activity using the Bright-Glo luciferase assay kit

(Promega), as previously described (36). The SARS-CoV-2 neutralizing antibodies was

previously characterized (57) and were a kind gift from Dr. Duane Wesemann at Harvard

Medical School.

S binding

To evaluate SARS-CoV-2 S binding to various THP1 monocytes expressing different

surface receptors, approximately $0.25x10^6$ cells from parental THP1 or those expressing

wt CD169, mutant CD169 (R116A), ACE2, or both wt CD169 and ACE2 were incubated

for 30 min at 4 °C with 2 µg of spike glycoprotein (stabilized) from Wuhan-Hu-1 SARS-

CoV-2 containing a C-terminal Histidine Tag, recombinant from HEK293F cells (BEI

resources, #NR-52397). This is followed by secondary staining for 30 min at 4˚C with

APC-conjugated mouse anti-His antibody (BioLegend, #362605, 1:50) or isotype control.

Cells were fixed with 4% PFA (Boston Bioproducts) for 30 min, and analyzed with BD

LSRII (BD). Data analysis was performed using FlowJo software (FlowJo).

Immunofluorescence

In brief, the cells were permeabilized with acetone-methanol solution (1:1) for 10 min at -

20°C, incubated in 0.1 M glycine for 10 min at room temperature and subsequently

incubated in 5% goat serum (Jackson ImmunoResearch) for 20 minutes at room

temperature. After each step, the cells were washed three times in PBS. The cells were

incubated overnight at 4°C with a rabbit antibody directed against the SARS-CoV

nucleocapsid protein (Rockland; 1:1000 dilution in 5% goat serum), which cross-reacts

with the SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid protein, as previously described (99). The cells were

washed four times in PBS and incubated with goat anti-rabbit antibody conjugated with

AlexaFluor594 for 1 hour at room temperature (Invitrogen; 1:200 dilution in blocking

reagent). 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; Sigma-Aldrich) was used at 200 ng/ml for

nuclei staining. For dsRNA staining (61), anti-dsRNA (Pan-Enterovirus Reagent, clone

9D5, Light Diagnostics, Millipore) antibody was used 1:2 overnight and anti-mouse-AF488

(Invitrogen) 1:200 dilution as secondary antibody with DAPI. Images were acquired using

a Nikon Eclipse Ti2 microscope with Photometrics Prime BSI camera and NIS Elements

AR software.

RNA isolation and RT-qPCR

Total RNA was isolated from infected cells using TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen). Reverse

transcription (RT) from purified RNAs was performed using oligo(dT)$_{20}$ primer (Superscript

III, Invitrogen) or strand-specific RT primers as previously described (100). Target mRNAs

were quantified using Maxima SYBR Green (Thermo Scientific), using the primer sets

shown in **Table 1**. Primer sequences for GAPDH, IL-6, TNFα, IL-1β, IP-10, IFNλ1, IL-18,

Viperin and IFNβ have been described previously (97). The C_T value was normalized to

that of GAPDH and represented as a relative value to a 'mock' control using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_T}$

method as described (97, 101).

shRNA mediated knockdown

Stable knockdown of host proteins in THP1 cells was carried out by transduction with

lentivectors expressing individual shRNAs (pLKO.1, 400 ng p24^{Gag} (as measured by

ELISA) per 1×10^6 cells) in the presence of polybrene (Millipore). Cells were washed and

cultured for 5-7 days in the presence of puromycin (2 µg/ml, InvivoGen). Selected cells

were expanded, and knockdown confirmed and quantified by RT-qPCR or western

blotting, prior to any downstream experiments. All shRNA target sequences are listed in

Table 2.

Flow cytometry

To examine cell surface expression of CD169 or ACE2 in transduced THP1 or primary

MDMs, approximately 0.5×10^6 cells were harvested with CellStripper (Corning), stained

with Zombie-NIR (BioLegend, #423105, 1:250) followed by staining for 30 min at 4°C with

the following antibodies; Alexa647-conjugated mouse anti-CD169 antibody (BioLegend,

#346006, 1:50), Alexa647-conjugated mouse anti-ACE2 antibody (R&D systems, 1:200),

or unconjugated goat anti-ACE2 polyclonal antibody (R&D systems, #AF933, 1:200)

followed by Alexa488-conjugated chicken anti-goat antibody (Invitrogen, #A-21467,

1:100). Cells were fixed with 4% PFA (Boston Bioproducts) for 30 min, and analyzed with

BD LSRII (BD). Data analysis was performed using FlowJo software (FlowJo).

smFISH

Probe designs. smFISH probes used to detect different RNA segments of the SARS-CoV-

2 genome (NCBI reference sequence: NC_045512.2) consisted of a set of 48

oligonucleotides, each with length of 20 nt and labeled with different fluorophores (*see*

Table. 3 in supplementary information) for target genes and sequences for each of the

probe sets). Probes were designed using Stellaris™ Probe Designer by LGC Biosearch

Technologies and purchased from Biosearch Technologies. The 3'-end of each probe was

modified with an amine group and coupled to either tetramethylrhodamine (TMR; Thermo

Fisher Scientific), Texas Red-X (Thermo Fisher Scientific), Quasar 670 (Biosearch

Technologies) or Cy5 (Lumiprobe). Coupled probes were ethanol precipitated and purified

on an HPLC column to isolate oligonucleotides linked to the fluorophore via their amine

groups, as previously described by *Raj et.al.* (62).

Hybridization. Cells were cultured on glass coverslips, fixed at appropriate times with 10%

neutral buffered formalin and permeabilized with 70% methanol. Coverslips were

equilibrated with hybridization wash buffer (10% formamide, 2X SSC), and then immersed

in 50 µL of hybridization buffer, which consisted of 10% dextran sulphate (Sigma-Aldrich),

1 mg/mL *Escherichia coli* transfer RNA (Sigma-Aldrich), 2 mM ribonucleoside vanadyl

complexes (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA), 0.02% ribonuclease-free bovine serum

albumin (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 10% formamide, 2X SSC, and conjugated probes with

appropriate concentration (25 ng of pooled probes). This hybridization reaction mixture

was first added as a droplet onto a stretched-out piece of Parafilm (Bemis in North

America, Oshkosh, WI) over a glass plate, and then a coverslip containing the cells was

placed faced down onto the droplet, followed by incubation at 37ºC overnight in a humid

chamber. Following hybridization, the coverslips were washed twice for 10 minutes each

in 1 mL of hybridization wash buffer at room temperature. The coverslips were then

equilibrated with mounting buffer (2X SCC, 0.4% glucose) and mounted in the mounting

buffer supplemented with 1 µL of 3.7 mg/mL glucose oxidase and 1 µL of catalase

suspension (both from Sigma-Aldrich) for each 100 µL preparation. After removing the

excess mounting medium by gently blotting with a tissue paper, the coverslips were sealed

with clear nail polish, and then imaged on the same day.

Image acquisition, pre-processing, analysis and mRNA quantification. Images were

acquired using Zeiss Axiovert 200M (63x oil immersion objective; numerical aperture 1.4)

controlled by Metamorph image acquisition software (Molecular Devices, San Jose, CA).

Stacks of images of 16 layers with 0.2 µm interval at 100- to 2,000-milisecond exposure

times were used in each fluorescence color channel including DAPI. Two representative

coverslips per sample/group were selected and 10-20 regions/fields of interest were

imaged. For cell fluorescence intensity measurements, region of interest was drawn

manually around each cell using DIC and DAPI channels, then average intensity was

measure within the area of each cell using RNA-specific florescence channels.

Immunoblot Analysis

To assess expression of endogenous or transduced proteins, cell lysates containing 30-

40 µg total protein were separated by SDS-PAGE, transferred to nitrocellulose

membranes and the membranes were probed with the following antibodies: mouse anti-

TMPRSS2 (Santa Cruz, #515727, 1:1000), mouse anti-Cathepsin-L (Santa Cruz,

#32320, 1:1000), goat anti-ACE-2 (R&D systems, #AF933, 1;1000), rabbit anti-STING

(Cell Signaling, #13647, 1:1000), rabbit anti-MAVS (Thermo Fisher, #PA5-17256,

1:1000), mouse anti-RIG-I (AdipoGen, #20B-0009, 1:1000), rabbit anti-MDA-5

(Proteintech, #21775-1-AP, 1:1000), rabbit anti-UNC93B1 (Invitrogen, #PA5-83437,

1:1000), rabbit anti-IRF1 (Cell Signaling, #8478S, 1:1000). Specific staining was

visualized with secondary antibodies, goat anti-mouse-IgG-DyLight 680 (Thermo

Scientific, #35518, 1:20000), goat anti-rabbit-IgG-DyLight 800 (Thermo Scientific, #SA5-

35571, 1:20000), or a donkey anti-goat-IgG-IR-Dye 800 (Licor, #926-32214, 1:20000).

As loading controls, actin or tubulin expression was probed using a rabbit anti-actin

(Sigma-Aldrich, A2066, 1:5000), mouse anti-actin (Invitrogen, #AM4302, 1:5000), or

rabbit anti-tubulin (Cell Signaling, #3873, 1;5000). Membranes were scanned with an

Odessy scanner (Li-Cor).

Statistics

All the statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 9. P-values were

calculated using one-way ANOVA followed by the Tukey-Kramer post-test (symbols for p-

values shown with a line) or the Dunnett's post-test (comparing to mock), symbols for p-

values shown with a bracket), or a two-tailed paired t-test (comparing two samples,

symbols for two-tailed p-values shown with a line bracket). Symbols represent, *: $p < 0.05$,

**: $p < 0.01$, ***: $p < 0.001$, ****: $p < 0.0001$. No symbol or ns: not significant ($p \geq 0.05$).

Data availability

The authors declare that the data that support the findings of this study are available within

the paper and from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Table 1

qRT-PCR primers:

Gene	Forward	Reverse
GAPDH	CAAGATCATCAGCAATGCCT	AGGGATGATGTTCTGGAGAG
IL-6	TCTCCACAAGCGCCTTCG	CTCAGGGCTGAGATGCCG
TNFα	CCCAGGGACCTCTCTCTAATCA	GCTACAGGCTTGTCACTCGG
IL-1β	AAACAGATGAAGTGCTCCTTCC	AAGATGAAGGGAAAGAAGGTGC
IL-18	GACCAAGGAAATCGGCCTCTA	ACCTCTAGGCTGGCTATCTTTATACATAC
IFNβ	ATTCTAACTGCAACCTTTCG	GTTGTAGCTCATGGAAAGAG
IP-10	AAAGCAGTTAGCAAGGAAAG	TCATTGGTCACCTTTTAGTG
Viperin	TGGGTGCTTACACCTGCTG	GAAGTGATAGTTGACGCTGGTT
IFNλ1	GGACGCCTTGGAAGAGTCAC	AGCTGGGAGAGGATGTGGT
SARS-CoV-2_ negative strand	ACAGCACCCTAGCTTGGTAGCCGAACAACTGGACTTTATTGA	
nCoVsg_E.rtF	CGAACTTATGTACTCATTCGTTTCGG	
nCoVsg_E.rtR	AGAAGGTTTTACAAGACTCACGTT	
SARS-CoV-2 Nucleocapsid	CACATTGGCACCCGCAATC	GAGGAACGAGAAGAGGCTTG
SARS-CoV-2 Envelope (E)	ACAGGTACGTTAATAGTTAATAGCGT	ATATTGCAGCAGTACGCACACA
TRS 5' leader (forward)	ACCAACCAACTTTCGATCTCTTGT	
N 3' reverse	CACTGCGTTCTCCATTCTGG	
ACE-2	CGAAGCCGAAGGCCTGTTCTA	GGGCAAGTGTGGACTGTTCC
TMPRSS2	CAAGTGCTCCAACTCTGGGAT	AACACACCGATTCTCGTCCTC
STING	ACTGTGGGGTGCCTGATAAC	TGGCAAACAAAGTCTGCAAG
MAVS	GTACCCGAGTCTCGTTTC	GCAGAATCTCTACAACATCC
RIG-I	ATCCAGTGTATGAACAGCAG	GCCTGTAACTCTATACCCATGTC
MDA-5	GGCATGGAGAATAACTCATCAG	CTCTTCATCTGAATCACTTCCC
UNC93B1	TGATCCTGCACTACGACGAG	GCGAGGAACATCATCCACTT

983 **Table 2**

984 **shRNA sequences:**

Gene	Sequence	Reference
STING	GCCCGGATTCGAACTTACAAT	Sigma (TRCN0000163296)

MAVS	ATGTGGATGTTGTAGAGATTC	Sigma (TRCN0000236031)
RIG-I	CCAGAATTATCCCAACCGATA	Sigma (TRCN0000153712)
MDA-5	CCAACAAAGAAGCAGTGTATA	Sigma (TRCN0000050849)
UNC93B1	CAAGGAGAGACAGGACTTCAT	Sigma (TRCN0000138268)

986 **Table 3**

987 **smFISH probe sequences:**

988 See attached excel sheet.

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1000 Author Contributions

1001 S.J., J.O., E.M. and S.G. designed the experiments. S.J., J.O, J.B., A.N., E.L., M.L., H.A.,

1002 Y.B., and S.T., performed the experiments and analyzed the data. S.J., J.O., E.M. and

1003 S.G. wrote the manuscript.

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Figure 1

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