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SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid protein inhibits the stress response through RNA-binding domain N2b

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ABSTRACT

The nucleocapsid protein N of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-

2) enwraps and condenses the viral genome for packaging but is also an antagonist of the

innate antiviral defense. It suppresses the integrated stress response (ISR), purportedly by

interacting with stress granule (SG) assembly factors G3BP1 and 2, and inhibits type I

interferon responses. To elucidate its mode of action, we systematically deleted and over-

expressed distinct regions and domains. We show that N via domain N2b blocks PKR-

mediated ISR activation, as measured by suppression of ISR-induced translational arrest and

SG formation. N2b mutations that prevent dsRNA binding abrogate these activities also

when introduced in the intact N protein. Substitutions reported to block post-translation

modifications of N or its interaction with G3BP1/2 did not have a detectable additive effect.

In an encephalomyocarditis virus-based infection model, N2b - but not a derivative defective

in RNA binding - prevented PKR activation, inhibited β-interferon expression and promoted

virus replication. Apparently, SARS-CoV-2 N inhibits innate immunity by sequestering dsRNA

to prevent activation of PKR and RIG-I-like receptors. Observations made for the N protein of

human coronavirus 229E suggests that this may be a general trait conserved among

members of other orthocoronavirus (sub)genera.

SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid protein N is an antagonist of innate immunity but how it averts virus detection by intracellular sensors remains subject to debate. We provide evidence that SARS-CoV-2 N, by sequestering dsRNA through domain N2b, prevents PKR-mediated activation of the integrated stress response as well as detection by RIG-I-like receptors and ensuing type I interferon expression. This function, conserved in human coronavirus 229E, is not affected by mutations that prevent posttranslational modifications, previously implicated in immune evasion, or that target its binding to stress granule scaffold proteins. Our findings further our understanding of how SARS-CoV-2 evades innate immunity, how this may drive viral evolution and why increased N expression may have been a selective advantage to SARS-CoV-2 variants of concern.

INTRODUCTION

Vertebrate cells are provided with a diversity of interconnected sensors and effectors to timely detect and counter viral infection. Particularly dsRNA, an inevitable product of RNA and DNA virus replication, triggers a vigorous intracellular antiviral response (1). For example, binding of dsRNA by 2'-5'oligoadenylate (2-5A) synthase (OAS) leads to enzyme activation and production of 2-5A, which in turn activates RNase L to stall the synthesis of viral proteins through non-specific RNA degradation (2-7). Another dsRNA-activated pathway, the integrated stress response (ISR) with proteinase kinase R (PKR) as key sensor, entails inhibition of translation initiation and ultimately cell death. Upon dsRNA binding, PKR dimerizes, autophosphorylates and then proceeds to phosphorylate the alpha subunit of eukaryotic initiation factor eIF2, turning it into competitive inhibitor of guanine nucleotide exchange factor eIF2b. In consequence, the production of eIF2-GTP-(Met)tRNA$_i^{Met}$ ternary complex is downregulated, recognition of the initiation codon is blocked and cap-dependent translation-initiation prevented (8-11). Polysome dissociation, ensuing activation of the stress response, results in an excess of stalled 48S preinitiation complexes, which are stored in cytoplasmic membraneless organelles called stress granules (SGs) (12-14).

SGs are dynamic ribonucleoprotein assemblies that are formed through liquid-liquid phase separation with RNA binding protein Ras GTPase-activating protein-binding proteins 1 and 2 (G3BP1 and -2) functioning both as a molecular switches and main protein scaffolds together with T-cell-restricted intracellular antigen 1 (TIA1) and TIA1-related protein (TIAR) (15-19). The SGs thus serve as deposits from which mRNAs, poised for translation through association with critical components of the translation machinery (40S ribosomal subunits, eIF4E, eIF4G, eIF4A, eIF4B, Poly(A) binding protein, eIF3, and eIF2), can be rapidly retrieved. SGs, however, are also considered a coordinating hub for the activation other antiviral defense mechanisms like those of RIG-I-like receptors (RLRs). Indeed, RIG-I and MDA5, RLR-regulating PKR-activating protein (PACT), RLR-modulating ubiquitin ligases TRIM25 and TRAF2, and polyubiquitin chains are all recruited to ISR-induced SGs (20-23).

The antiviral mechanisms elicited by dsRNA are highly effective, even to such an extent that all known mammalian viruses code for one or more antagonists (11). Coronaviruses, positive-stranded RNA viruses of exceptional genetic complexity, code for a universally conserved endonuclease (EndoU) that efficiently prevents simultaneous activation of host cell dsRNA sensors OAS, PKR and MDA5 through dsRNA decay (24-26). Illustrating the

importance of EndoU, mutants defective for EndoU are attenuated in vivo, and in vitro can

be propagated exclusively in cells deficient in IFN-I expression or sensing, and in cells lacking

both RNase L and PKR (25). EndoU is derived by proteolytic processing of a large replicase

polyprotein pp1ab, translated from the incoming viral genome, and essential to evade early

innate and intrinsic antiviral host cell responses. Apparently, however, EndoU may not be

sufficient to suppress dsRNA-mediated antiviral activities during later stages of the viral life

cycle. To express the open reading frames (ORFs) downstream of the replicase gene, CoVs

produce a 3' co-terminal nested set of subgenomic mRNAs from which the structural

proteins are translated in addition to a variety of so-called accessory non-structural

proteins. Some of the latter also have been shown to counteract dsRNA-mediated antiviral

host responses. For example, the ns4a protein of Middle East Respiratory Syndrome

coronavirus (MERS-CoV) prevents PKR-mediated stress by sequestering dsRNA (27, 28),

whereas the MERS-CoV ns4b protein is a phosphodiesterase (PDE) and antagonizes the OAS-

RNase L pathway by enzymatically degrading 2-5A activators (29). Non-related PDEs, ns2

proteins, are found in members of the subgenus *Embecovirus*, including human coronavirus

OC43 (30). Finally, a specific inhibitor of the ISR was found in gammacoronaviruses of

cetaceans. The beluga whale coronavirus accessory protein 10 (BWCoV acP10) blocks p-eIF2-

eIF2B association to allow continued formation of the ternary complex and unabated global

translation even at high p-eIF2 levels that would otherwise cause translational arrest (31).

Apparently, CoVs rely on redundancy in antagonists and antagonistic mechanisms to

effectively counter dsRNA-induced antiviral host responses. Likewise, the current pandemic

severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) codes for an ISR inhibitor

additional to EndoU (32). Its nucleocapsid protein (N) was reported to block the ISR and to

inhibit SG formation in a PKR- and G3BP1-dependent fashion (33-35). In apparent

concordance, proteomics studies and structural analyses provided evidence for physical

interactions between N and the SG key components G3BP1 and G3BP2 (33, 36-39).

Coronavirus N proteins have a modular structure with N-terminal and C-terminal RNA-

binding domains, called N1b and N2b respectively, bounded by largely disordered regions.

Here, we took a reductionistic approach involving systematic deletion and individual

transient expression of the different regions and domains. We show that the N2b domain is

critical and sufficient to counter the ISR. Single site mutations in N2b that block dsRNA

binding prevent PKR activation. This activity is not affected by posttranslational

modifications elsewhere in the N protein that are known to regulate RNA binding nor

dependent on physical interaction with G3BP1 and G2BP2. Using the encephalomyocarditis

virus as a surrogate infection system we show that N2b domain prevents PKR-mediated

activation of the ISR and suppresses IFNβ expression also in virus-infected cells. Our findings

suggest that in addition to a function in replication and genome packaging, SARS-CoV-2 N

functions as a classical antagonist of dsRNA-induced host defense.

RESULTS

SARS-CoV-2 N inhibits PKR-induced ISR. Previously, we showed that transfection of cells

with specific expression plasmids like pEGFP-N3 may trigger the ISR through dsRNA-

mediated PKR activation, resulting in translation arrest and the formation of SGs. This

phenomenon allows for a convenient method to identify potential viral ISR antagonists by

transiently expressing these proteins genetically fused to enhanced green fluorescent

protein (EGFP) (27). The expression levels of these fusion proteins can then be compared to

that of EGFP alone while SG formation can be assessed by immune fluorescence analysis

(IFA) by staining the transfected cells for established SG markers like G3BP2 or eIF3. While

using this procedure to probe SARS-CoV-2 proteins for a potential role in ISR inhibition, we

noted suppression of SG formation in cells expressing nucleocapsid protein N. Like the well-

established PKR antagonists influenza A virus (IAV) ns1 and MERS-CoV ns4a, SARS-CoV-2 N

significantly reduced the number of transfected cells with stress granules both in HeLa as

well as in A549 cultures (Fig. 1A). Moreover, expression levels of the SARS-CoV-2 N-EGFP

fusion protein were strongly increased as compared to the EGFP control, indicative for

suppression of ISR-induced translational arrest. Again, like IAV ns1 and MERS-CoV ns4a, but

unlike AcP10 of beluga whale CoV, N-GFP had only a modest effect on SG formation in

arsenite-treated cells (Fig. 1B). The results are consistent with SARS-CoV-2 N inhibiting the

ISR and SG formation by acting as a PKR inhibitor.

The N protein of another betacoronavirus, MERS-CoV, was previously noted to suppress

SG formation too (35). Interestingly, we observed inhibition of translational arrest and SG

formation also in cells expressing the N protein of human alphacoronavirus 229E (HCoV-

229E) (Fig. 1 C). Apparently, N-mediated suppression of the ISR is not unique to

betacoronaviruses but may well be a general trait conserved among members of other

orthocoronavirus (sub)genera.

Domain N2b is essential and sufficient for suppression of SG formation. The N proteins

from the four CoV genera share only 27 to 30% sequence identity but are conserved in their

modular organization (Fig.2A) ((40, 41) for a review see (42)). They are comprised of two

ordered domains, the N-terminal domain (N1b also called NTD) and the C-terminal domain

(N2b aka CTD) (in SARS-CoV-2 N, residues 49-175 and 247-365, respectively). N1b and N2b

are separated and flanked by segments, predicted to be at least partially disordered (N1a,

N2a and N3). N1b and N2b have been implicated in RNA binding and, in case of N2b, also in

N dimerization. Indeed, in infected cells and upon heterologous expression, CoV N proteins

form homodimers that, in turn, assemble into tetramers mediated by N3 (43). The N2a

central spacer contains a serine- and arginine-rich (SR) region, immediately downstream of

N1b, the regulated phosphorylation of which is deemed important for N function during

different stages of the CoV replication cycle (44-46). The primary function of N is in virus

assembly. It condenses newly produced gRNA into helical nucleocapsids, apparently with

N2b controlling target selectivity (47, 48), and then drives envelopment by binding to the

viral membrane protein M via N3. However, N has several functions auxiliary to virion

morphogenesis. At the very start of the infectious cycle, N is essential for the initiation of

infection by the incoming gRNA through association of SR with the cytosol-exposed

ubiquitin1 domain of replication organelle pore protein nsP3 (46, 49). Moreover,

purportedly relevant to ISR suppression, N binds to G3BP1 and 2 through segment N1a (39,

50, 51).

To determine the molecular basis for ISR suppression, we constructed a library of N

mutants with partially disordered regions and domains either systematically deleted or

expressed in isolation. As shown in **Fig. 2**, suppression was lost upon deletion of subdomain

N2b. Moreover, expression of N2b in isolation caused a reduction in SGs to an extent similar

to that of full-length N. The data therefore suggested that ISR inhibition and SG suppression

as observed for the intact N protein is mediated at least in part by N2b.

N2b mutations that disrupt dsRNA binding abrogate suppression of SG formation. N2b

binds both single and double stranded oligonucleotides, whether RNA or DNA (42, 52, 53).

Hence, a possible mechanism for N2b to prevent PKR-induced activation of the ISR is by

sequestering dsRNA. Crystal structural analysis revealed that N2b homodimers form a

rectangular slab with wide faces of 45 Å × 35 Å in dimension (52). One is comprised of an

interlaced inter-molecular four-stranded β-sheet and predominantly negatively charged, the

other of two α-helical regions separated by a shallow central, positively charged groove

thought to be the oligonucleotide binding site (42, 52, 54, 55). Within the groove, there are

several conserved positively charged residues with their surface-exposed side chains

seemingly poised for interaction with nucleic acid, in particularly Lys^{257} and Lys^{261} (**Fig. 3A**).

The binding by bacterially-expressed N2b of synthetic RNA oligonucleotides, whether single

or double-stranded, SARS-CoV-2 derived (highly conserved 3' UTR stem-loop II motif, s2m;

(56)) or a scrambled version thereof, can be readily demonstrated by electrophoretic

mobility assay (EMSA) (**Fig. 3B**).

To test whether Lys^{257} and Lys^{261} are involved in RNA binding and whether such binding is

important to counteract the ISR and suppress SG formation, they were replaced by Ala,

separately and in combination. Indeed, dsRNA binding was either significantly reduced or

lost beyond detection upon substitution of Lys^{257} and Lys^{261}, respectively (**Fig. 3B**). In

accordance, Ala substitution of Lys^{261} and Lys^{257} failed to rescue protein synthesis (**Fig. 3C**)

and reduced SG suppression either in almost all or in about 60% of the transfected HeLa

cells, respectively (**Fig. 3D**). Notably, Ala substitution of other surface-exposed charged

residues (Gln^{272}, Gln^{289}, Arg^{276}, Arg^{293}), not located within the RNA binding groove but rather

implicated in N2b inter-dimer association (42, 53), did not detectably affect SG formation

(**Fig. 3D**).

Importantly, also in the intact N protein, Lys^{261}Ala substitution abrogated inhibition of

translational arrest as well as SG formation and so did the Lys^{257}Ala mutation (**Fig. 3C, D**). It is

unknown why the latter mutation exerts a stronger effect in the context of the full-length

protein than in N2b. The combined data, however, do show that Lys^{261} and Lys^{257} are

required for nucleic acid binding by N2b and suggest that this capacity to bind RNA is

essential for SG suppression. Moreover, the observation that also for the intact N protein SG

suppression was reduced to background levels by single site Lys^{261}Ala and Lys^{257}Ala

substitutions suggests that ISR inhibition by SARS-CoV-2 N critically relies on N2b and N2b-

mediated RNA binding. Notably, the N protein of alphacoronavirus HCoV-229E also lost its

capacity to block SG formation when the orthologous N2b residues, Lys^{246} and Lys^{250}, were

substituted (**Fig. 3D**), suggestive of a common mechanism for ISR inhibition through the

binding of RNA.

N2b-mediated inhibition of SG formation is not affected by posttranslational modifications

of N nor by disruption of the G3BP1/2 binding motif. Previous studies identified N as a

multifunctional protein involved in different aspects of the viral replication cycle beyond

viral assembly. Its activity apparently is regulated by posttranscriptional modifications such

as differential phosphorylation of the SR domain, which alters RNA binding affinity (57, 58),

and acetylation at Lys^{375}, reportedly essential for liquid–liquid phase separation of N-RNA

ribonucleoprotein complexes (59). Arginine methylation of SARS-Cov-2 nucleocapsid protein

at Arg^{95} and Arg^{177} was reported to regulate RNA binding and its ability to suppress stress

granule formation (33). Moreover, an ΦxFG motif within N1a (residues 15-18), required for

association with G3BP1 and 2 (39), was recently proposed to rewire the G3BP1/2

interactome to disrupt stress granules (37).

To test the importance of each of these posttranscriptional modifications as well as of

G3BP1/2 interaction on N2b-mediated inhibition of SG formation, we performed site-

directed mutagenesis. Suppression of SG formation by the full-length N protein was not

affected by Ala substitution of Arg^{95}, of Arg^{276}and Arg^{293} combined, or of Lys^{375} nor by

disruption of the N1a ΦxFG motif (51) through joined substitution of Arg^{14} and Ile^{15} (**Fig. 4**).

An N derivative in which phosphorylation of the SR segment was prevented through Ala

substitution of 13 out of 14 Ser residues (13S>A) displayed a cellular distribution distinctively

different from that of the parental wildtype protein, accumulating in large aggregates

together with G3BP1 and often also eIF3. These deposits differed in size and appearance

from typical SG, complicating the interpretation of the data. Importantly, however, the

expression levels of the N-13S>A mutant were like those of wildtype N, as judged by

fluorescence intensity observed in IFA, and consistently higher than those of EGFP (data not

shown). We interpret the findings to indicate that the SR mutations may cause the N protein

to aggregate but not to affect inhibition of ISR-induced translational arrest.

Suppression of PKR-induced ISR by coronavirus N proteins is mediated predominantly by

N2b. To corroborate our observations, we measured N-mediated rescue of ISR-induced

translational arrest also by flow cytometry. To this end, we used a cotransfection assay with

red fluorescence protein (RFP) expressed from vector pcDNA-RFP serving as reporter

(Rabouw et al., 2016). Co-transfection with ISR-inducing plasmid pEGFP-N3 strongly inhibited

RFP production (**Fig. 5**, top; see also **Fig. S1**). RFP expression was rescued in cells co-

expressing N2b but not by its RNA-binding deficient derivative N2b-K^{257}A/K^{261}A. RFP

expression was also rescued by the intact N proteins of either SARS-CoV-2 or HCoV-229E and

to similar levels by SARS-CoV-2 N mutants defective for G3BP1/2 binding (N-R^{14}A/I^{15}A) or

N1b methylation (N-R^{95}K) (**Fig. 5**). In contrast, inactivation of N2b through the K^{257}A/K^{261}A

double mutation in the intact N protein of either SARS-CoV-2 or HCoV-229E significantly

reduced RFP expression (**Fig. 5**). Intriguingly, however, RFP expression levels were still higher

than those observed for EGFP (p-value 0.0014) or N2b-K^{257}A/K^{261}A (p-value 0.0195). The data

suggest that suppression of the ISR by coronavirus N proteins is mediated predominantly by

the N2b domain though not exclusively. Apparently, N counteracts translational arrest also

through other domains via alternative mechanisms, but this contribution only becomes

detectable upon N2b inactivation. Remarkably, substitutions in segment N1a known to

disrupt N-G3BP1/2 interactions (51) did not have an additive effect when tested in

combination with the N2b mutations (**Fig. 5**; panel 'SARS2 N N1a-N2b mut').

N2b-mediated suppression of the ISR and type I interferon response in virus-infected cells.

Whereas the results provide conclusive evidence for ISR suppression upon transient

expression of N in transfected cells, the question arises whether this phenomenon also

occurs during natural infection and whether it is relevant for evasion of the innate host

immune response. Unfortunately, the essential functions of N at multiple stages of the

coronavirus life cycle, both during early replication as well was in genome packaging during

virion assembly, precludes a straightforward reverse genetics approach. Thus, the

construction of recombinant SARS-CoV-2 mutants with an N protein defective in N2b RNA

binding was deemed a nonviable option. We therefore resorted to a well-established

alternative model based on recombinant encephalomyocarditis virus mutant EMCV-L^{zn}, in

which the autologous ISR antagonist (the leader protein L) is inactivated. The mutant virus is

no longer able to counteract the ISR and hence provides a convenient platform to identify

and characterize ISR antagonists of other viruses.

Our initial experiments were performed with an EMCV mutant that coded for a chimeric

polyprotein with N2b at its N-terminus, genetically fused to residues 1 through 5 of EMCV L^{zn}

plus two additional residues encoded by an engineered *Xho*I site . This virus, however, failed

to suppress the ISR. We noted that in the fusion protein, two negatively charged residues, E^6

(from L) and E^8 (encoded by the *Xho*I sequence) are immediately upstream of N-terminal

N2b residues K^{248} and K^{249} (residues 9 and 10 of the chimera) and proximal to critical N2b

residues K^{257} and K^{261} **Fig. S2**). Arguing that this might affect N2b RNA binding, we introduced

into the EMCV-L^{zn} genome an N-terminally extended N2b with the N2a region serving as a

spacer (**Fig. 6A, Fig. S2**). Indeed, in cells, infected with the resulting virus EMCV-L^{zn}-

N2aN2b^{wt}, SG suppression was restored to 70% of that of wildtype EMCV, i.e. to levels

similar to those reported for EMCV derivatives with L replaced by established PKR inhibitor

MERS-CoV ns4a (**Fig. 6B, C**). In accordance, in cells infected with the N2aN2b^{wt} virus , levels

of phosphorylated PKR were consistently low, comparable to those in mock- or in wildtype

EMCV-infected cells and 3 to 4 fold lower than those in cells infected with EMCV-L^{zn-}. Thus, in

its activity N2aN2b^{wt} mimicked MERS-CoV ns4a which prevents PKR activation by

sequestering dsRNA (27) but differed from AcP10 which inhibits the ISR at a level

downstream of PKR (31). Like MERS-CoV ns4a and AcP10, N2aN2b restored replication

efficacy of EMCV-L^{zn} to near wildtype levels as based on expression of the viral capsid

proteins (**Fig. 6D**). To test whether N2aN2b, like ns4a, also suppresses the type I interferon

response, levels of IFN-β mRNA were determined by qRT-PCR. Indeed, in cells infected with

EMCV-L^{zn}-N2aN2b^{wt} IFN-β expression was reduced as compared to EMCV-L^{zn} infected cells to

levels observed in cells infected with EMCV wt or EMCV-L^{zn}-MERS-ns4a (**Fig. 6E**). In contrast,

in cells infected with EMCV-L^{zn}-N2aN2b-K^{257}A+K^{261}A, encoding an inactive N2b, there was no

detectable suppression of SG formation, PKR was phosphorylated, and viral replication was

delayed to similar if not larger extent than in EMCV-L^{zn}-infected cells (**Fig. 6B-D**). EMCV-L^{zn}-

N2aN2b-K^{257}A+K^{261}A also lost the capacity to suppress the type I IFN response although this

was noticeable only at 8 hr post infection (**Fig. 6E**), which may be attributed to the

considerable delay in virus replication and a consequential late onset of IFN induction.

We conclude that SARS-CoV-2 N2b functions as an antagonist of the ISR in EMCV-infected

cells and can functionally replace the EMCV L protein by acting as a classical PKR antagonist

and preventing activation of the ISR by sequestering dsRNA. This mode of action differs from

that of beluga whale CoV AcP10 and Aichivirus L, which counteract the ISR by salvaging

global translation through competitive inhibition of p-eIF2–eIF2B association (31). The data

lend support to the notion that N through N2b may inhibit the ISR and SG formation also in

the context of SARS-CoV-2-infected cells.

DISCUSSION

To successfully establish infection, viruses must subdue the intracellular host defense long enough to complete their replication cycle and vigorously enough to prevent the infected cells from raising the alarm. The detection of dsRNA, an inevitable byproduct of both RNA and DNA virus replication is central to activation of the innate antiviral defense. The activation of RLRs must be averted that would otherwise culminate, through intra- and intercellular signaling, in the production of type I interferons and other proinflammatory cytokines. Also, while host cell protein synthesis should best be inhibited and kept at a minimum, efficient unperturbed production of viral proteins must be ensured by preventing translational suppression due to activation of the OAS/RNaseL pathway and PKR-dependent induction of the ISR. Recent publications implicated SARS-CoV-2 N protein as an inhibitor of SG formation and an RLR antagonist (33-35, 60-62). Here, we confirmed and extended these observations using a convenient procedure to assess PKR-induced ISR activation based on transfection of ISR-inducing plasmid DNA to drive the expression of putative ISR antagonists genetically fused to EGFP. We showed by IFA that SARS-CoV-2 N inhibits translational arrest and ensuing SG formation and corroborated our findings by flow cytometry. Moreover, we showed that the N protein of human alphacoronavirus 229E (subgenus *Duvinacovirus*) also prevents translational arrest and suppresses SG formation to similar extent and via a similar mode of action. These findings suggest that this property may yet be widely conserved among members of different orthocoronavirus (sub)genera.

To study the mechanism of ISR inhibition, we performed a systematic deletion and site-directed mutational analysis of SARS-CoV-N. We found that inhibition of SG formation was lost upon deletion of N2b in accordance with findings of Zheng et *al.*, (35). However, we crucially extend their observations by showing that N2b when expressed in isolation, is sufficient to impair transfection-induced ISR-mediated translational shut off as well as the formation of SGs. Apparently, N2b counteracts the ISR by binding dsRNA. Ala substitution of conserved Lys residues (Lys^{257} and/or Lys^{261}) in the RNA-binding cleft of N2b that abolished dsRNA binding also abolished ISR inhibition. Importantly, these substitutions also caused the intact N proteins of SARS-CoV-2 and HCoV-229E to lose their activity as ISR antagonists. The observations thus strongly support a model in which coronavirus N proteins through their N2b domain prevent activation of the ISR by PKR by sequestering dsRNA, like the other viral PKR inhibitors IAV ns1 and MERS-CoV ns4a that were used as controls throughout.

The N protein plays a crucial role during the very early steps of the CoV infection cycle

(52, 63-65) and is indispensable for virus morphogenesis. Evidently, this impedes a direct

mutational reverse genetics approach to study the occurrence and relevance of N-mediated

inhibition of the ISR in CoV-infected cells. However, by using a mutant EMCV as a platform,

we showed that an extended protein N2aN2b can functionally replace the autologous

enterovirus L protein and can salvage the EMCV replication defect caused by L inactivation,

like we previously showed for MERS-CoV ns4a and BWCoV ACP10 (27, 31). Like MERS-CoV

ns4a, but unlike BWCoV AcP10 -which blocks the ISR downstream of PKR-, N2aN2b

prevented PKR phosphorylation apparently via N2b-mediated RNA binding. The findings

provide proof of principle that N2b can promote viral replication by preventing PKR and

ensuing ISR activation, supporting the notion that N through its N2b domain may do so as

well during CoV infection.

Adding relevance to our observations, selection for enhanced innate immune escape

apparently favored SARS-CoV-2 variants with increased N expression (66). Moreover, a

three-nucleotide change in Gamma also present in Alpha and Omicron variants of concern

created a new (cryptic) transcription regulating sequence to drive the synthesis of a novel

subgenomic mRNA species from which a truncated N-protein, N*, may be translated

corresponding with the C-terminus of the protein and initiating at in frame Met^{210} (66, 67). If

N* is indeed expressed, our findings strongly support a role in dsRNA sequestration and

innate antagonism.

The native coronavirus N proteins are subject to extensive posttranslational modifications

in domains and segments other than N2b. Some have been implicated in liquid-liquid phase

separation (59, 68), RNA binding (33), SG formation and inhibition of innate immunity (33,

59), prompting the question whether these modifications promote or hinder its function as

an ISR antagonist. Reportedly, methylation of Arg^{95} in the SARS-CoV-2 N1b segment by host

protein arginine methyltransferases is required for RNA binding and for the inhibition of

arsenite-induced formation of G3BP1-containing SGs (33). In our hands, however, an N

mutant with Arg^{95}Lys substitution, described to block N-mediated suppression of SGs (33),

still prevented PKR-induced ISR-associated translational repression to identical extent as the

wildtype protein and likewise prevented SG formation. In another recent study, Wang et *al.*

(59) reported suppression of MAVS signaling by intact SARS-CoV-2 N protein but not by an N

derivative from which N2b had been deleted. They attributed this to N-induced and N2b-

dependent liquid-liquid phase separation (LLPS) subject to acetylation of N3 residue Lys[375].

In accordance, we find that in EMCV-infected cells, N2aN2b, like MERS4a, suppresses β-

interferon (IFN-β) expression and show that this activity is blocked by mutations that abolish

N2b-mediated RNA binding. In apparent contrast to the observations of Wang et *al*. (59),

however, we find that acetylation of Lys[375] is not essential for RNA binding by N2b and that

Lys[375]Arg substitution does not detectably affect inhibition of the PKR-induced ISR by the

intact N protein. Our findings suggest that N through autonomous activity of the N2b

domain acts not only as a classical PKR inhibitor to thwart ISR activation but -by shielding

dsRNA- may also prevent RLR activation and thus block induction of the type I IFN response.

Our conclusions would seem at odds with the firmly established physical interaction with

N and SG scaffold proteins G3PB1 and -2 (33, 38, 39, 51, 69) which would suggest a role of

this interaction in SG suppression. The findings may be reconciled, however, by assuming

that coronavirus N proteins have been evolutionary selected to interfere with the formation

and function of SGs through distinct mechanisms at multiple levels during different stages of

the viral life cycle, mediated by different domains and regulated by distinct posttranslational

modifications. Possibly, such subtleties are missed in over-expression experiments and

overshadowed by the robust ISR inhibition by N2b. G3BP1/2-N association through

subdomain N1a (39, 50, 51) and N2b, directly via protein-protein interaction and/or

indirectly, promoted by RNA binding (70), may well hamper SG assembly and/or thereby

impede recruitment and SG-facilitated activation of RLRs and PKR (20-23) already early in

infection when levels of N are still low. Indeed, this would be consistent with observations by

others (35, 70) that SARS-CoV-2 inhibits induction of type I IFNs by targeting G3BP1 and

suppressing SG-associated RLR activation. It has also been proposed that N counteracts the

intracellular antiviral response by interfering with innate immune signaling at the level of

MAVS and impeding MAVS-RIG-I association (59). The relative importance of these and

other activities of N for suppression of innate immunity during coronavirus infection clearly

requires further study as well as the interplay with other viral antagonists of innate

responses such as EndoU (25), SARS-CoV-2 ns6 (71, 72) and ns9b (66, 67).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell lines. HeLa-R19, A549 and BHK21 cells were maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% (V/V) fetal calf serum (FCS) and 100 units/ml penicillin and streptomycin.

Recombinant EMCV viruses. Recombinant EMCV viruses were derived from the pM16.1-derived pStrep2-VFETQG-Zn-M16.1 infectious clone (27, 73). This vector carries a Zn-finger mutation to inactivate EMCV L as well as coding sequences for a Strep2-tag and a synthetic optimized 3Cpro recognition site (VFETQG). The coding sequences for N2b and N2a2b were PCR amplified from SARS-CoV-2-derived cDNA (sequences deposited in EVA database; Ref-SKU: 026V-03883) and inserted into XhoI/NotI-digested pStrep2-VFETQG-Zn-M16.1 yielding pStrep2-SARS-CoV-2-N2b-VFETQG-Zn-M16.1 and pStrep2-SARS-CoV-2-N2aN2b-VFETQG-Zn-M16.1, respectively. Mutations to substitute N2b Lys^{257} and Lys^{261} by Ala were introduced by Q5 side-directed mutagenesis (New England Biolabs, NEB) generating pStrep2-SARS-CoV-2-N2aN2b K^{257}A/K^{261}A-VFETQG-Zn-M16.1. The vectors were linearized with BamHI, used for *in vitro* transcription with the RiboMAX kit (Promega) and the resulting RNA was purified using the NucleoSpin RNA mini kit (Machery-Nagel) following the manufacturer's protocol. Viruses were recovered by transfecting BHK-21 cells, grown to subconfluency in T125 flasks, with 1.5 µg of the run-off RNA transcripts using Lipofectamine2000 (Invitrogen) transfection reagent according to the manufacturer's protocol. After 2-4 days, when total cytopathic effect was apparent, the cultures were subjected to three freeze-thaw cycles, cell debris was pelleted at 4,000x*g* for 15 minutes and virus was concentrated from the supernatants by ultracentrifugation though a 30% sucrose cushion at 140,000x*g* for 16 hours at 4°C in a SW32Ti rotor. Virus pellets were resuspended in phosphate-buffer saline (PBS). The viruses were characterized by isolating viral RNA from 150-µL aliquots of the cell culture supernatant with the NucleoSpin RNA Virus kit (Macherey-Nagel) followed by conventional RT-PCR and bidirectional Sanger sequence analysis of the inserted SARS-CoV-2 sequences and flanking regions. Viral titers, determined by endpoint titration and calculated by the Spearman-Kaerber formula, are averages from three independent experiments.

Plasmids for eukaryotic and prokaryotic expression. Eukaryotic expression plasmids were

constructed by cloning PCR-amplified sequences of interests, flanked by NheI and BamHI

restriction sites, into NheI/BamHI digested vector pEGFP-N3 (ClonTech) such that the

encoded viral proteins are C-terminally fused to enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP).

pcDNA-RFP was purchased from Addgene.

Procaryotic expression plasmid pGEX2T-Hisx6-N2b encoding N-terminally His-tagged

SARS-CoV-2 N2b was created by linearizing vector pGEX2T, amplifying the N2b coding

sequences by Q5-PCR, and assembling the fragments by NEBuilder HiFi DNA Assembly (NEB)

according to the manufacturer's instructions. Mutations (N2b $K^{257}A$, N2b $K^{261}A$ and N2b

$K^{257}A+K^{261}A$) were generated by Q5 site-directed mutagenesis (New England Biolabs, NEB).

All constructs were sequenced to confirm their integrity.

Immunofluorescence assay. HeLa-R19 and A549 cells were seeded onto 12 mm glass cover

slips in 24-well plates (Corning Costar) at $5x10^4$ cells and grown for 24 hr. They were then

transfected with 500 ng total DNA/well using Lipofectamine2000 (Invitrogen) according to

the instructions of the manufacturer. At 24 hr post transfection, cells were either left

untreated or treated with 500 μM sodium arsenite ($NaAsO_2$, Riedel-de Haën) for 30 min at

37^oC and subsequently fixed in PBS + 3.7% paraformaldehyde (PFA). HeLa-R19 cells were

infected with recombinant EMCV viruses at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10 $TCID_{50}$/cell

and incubated for 6 or 8 hr. Cells were fixed with paraformaldehyde (3.7% in PBS), incubated

with PBS + 0.1% glycine for 10 min to quench the fixative, permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-

100/PBS+s for 10 min at RT and subsequently blocked in blocking buffer (PBS + 1% BSA +

0.1% Tween-20) for 30min in a dark humidified chamber at 37^oC. The cells were then

incubated in blocking buffer containing mouse anti-dsRNA (1:1000; English & Scientific

Consulting), goat anti-eIF3η (1:200, SantaCruz) and rabbit anti-G3BP2 (1:200; Bethyl

Laboratories) for 1h at room temperature (RT). After three washing steps with

PBS+0.1%Tween-20, cells were incubated with secondary antibody donkey anti-mouse Cy2

(1:100; The Jackson Laboratory), donkey anti-goat Alexa594 (1:200; Invitrogen), donkey anti-

rabbit Alexa647 (1:200; Invitrogen) in block buffer for 1h at RT. The cells were then washed

three times with PBS+0.1%Tween-20, once with distilled water and mounted on glass

microscope slides in ProLong Diamond Antifade (Invitrogen) mounting medium. Cells were

examined by conventional wide-field (Olympus) and confocal immunofluorescence

microscopy (Nikon A1R) in most cases also in a blinded fashion by a second independent

observer.

Flowcytometry analysis. HeLa cells were seeded in a 12-well cluster (10^5 cells/well) and,

after overnight incubation, transfected with the indicated plasmids (500 ng well; 250

ng/plasmid) using Lipofecatmine2000 (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's

instructions. At 24 hr post transfection, cells were detached with trypsin, washed once PBS,

and fixed in PBS, 3.7% PFA for 10 min. The samples were washed once in FACS buffer (PBS +

0.02% Na-azide and 0.5% BSA) and kept in FACS buffer at 4°C. RFP fluorescence intensity was

recorded with a CytoFLEX LX flow cytometer (Beckman Coulter) and the data were analyzed

by FlowJo^{TM} v10 software (BD Biosciences). Samples were gated for live single cell

populations and then gated for negative, low (L) and high (H) RFP expressing cells. For bar

graphs [H/L] ratios were normalized with the ratio calculated for the relevant wildtype

protein set at 100%.

Electrophoretic Mobility Shift Assay (EMSA). To purify the wildtype N2b domain and its

mutated derivatives, *E. coli* BL21 cells (Sigma-Aldrich), transformed with pGEX2T-Hisx6-N2b

or its mutated derivatives, were grown in LB medium containing ampicillin (50 μg/ml) at

37°C until the optical density at 600 nm (OD_{600nm}) reached 0.3. The temperature was then

reduced to 18°C, and when the OD_{600nm} reached 0.5, protein expression was induced with

0.5 mM IPTG. Following expression for 16 hours, the cells were harvested by centrifugation

and resuspended in lysis buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl pH=8, 300 mM NaCl, 10 mM imidazole,

0.1% Triton X-100, 5% Glycerol) complemented with lysozyme (0.25 mg/ml; Merk) and

cOmplete Protease Inhibitor (Roche). The samples were sonicated and centrifuged at

15,000g for 45 min at 4°C to pellet cell debris. The cleared lysates were passed through a

0.45-μm filter and incubated with 1 ml of Ni-NTA (nitrilotriacetic acid) resin (Thermo

Scientific) at 4°C over-night (O/N) on a roller. The beads were washed twice with wash buffer

(100mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 300mM NaCl, 10mM Imidazole) and then eluted with a buffer

consisting of 100 mM Tris-HCl, 300 mM NaCl, and 500 mM imidazole (pH 8). The eluted

proteins were subjected to dialysis in 20mM Tris-HCl, 150mM NaCl and flash-frozen in 20-μl

aliquots.

For the EMSA, 1 µM of a 32-mer single stranded RNA oligonucleotides corresponding to

SARS-CoV-2 (GenBank accession no. MZ558051.1) sequence 5'-

CGAGGCCACGCGGAGUACGAUCGAGGGUACAG-3' and a scrambled version thereof, 5'-

GGCACGGAGUAUACCGGACGAGCGGAACGGCU-3', each were mixed 1 :1 with their

respective complimentary RNA oligonucleotides in denaturing buffer (10 mM $NaH_2PO_4\cdot H_2O$,

50 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.01% NaN_3, pH 7.4 at 25°C), incubated at 90°C for 4 min and then

allowed to anneal at RT for 30 min. For the ssRNA sample preparation, the oligonucleotide

was diluted in denaturing buffer, incubated at 90°C for 30 sec to destroy possible secondary

structures and rapidly cooled on ice. Proteins were diluted in protein buffer (20mM Tris-HCl

(pH=8), 150mM NaCl) to a concentration of 100 ng/µl and mixed in 10X, 20X or 40X fold

molar excess with 10 ng ssRNA or 10 ng dsRNA in binding buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, 100 mM

NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1mM TCEP, 0.02% Tween-20, pH 7.0 at 25°C) in 5 µl reaction volumes. The

samples were incubated for 30 min on ice, then supplemented with glycerol to a final

concentration of 5% (v/v) and separated in ultrathin (10 ml; 75 x 50 mm) RNase-free 1%

agarose gels in 0.5x TB buffer (45 mM Tris base, 45 mM boric acid, pH 8.2-8.5) at 200V. RNAs

were stained by incubating the gels in 50 ml 2X Invitrogen™ SYBR™ Gold nucleic acid gel

stain (ThermoFisher) in 0.5x TB buffer, diluted from a 10.000X concentrate, for 15 min under

agitation and de-stained for 21 min with 0.5 X TB buffer refreshing the buffer 3 times.

Stained RNA was visualized with the Gel Doc System (BioRad).

Western-blot analysis. HeLa R19 cells were seeded in 6-well clusters (4x10^5 cells/well) and

after a 16 hr recovery were infected with recombinant EMCVs at MOI 10. The infection was

allowed to proceed for 6 or 8 hours after which cells were released by trypsin and lysed in

ice-cold lysis buffer (Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 50mM, NaCl 150mM, EDTA 1mM, NP40 1%, cOmplete

Mini Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Roche) and phosphatase inhibitor PhosSTOP (Roche)) for 30

min at 4°C under constant agitation. Cell debris was pelleted for 20 min 12000 rpm at 4°C.

Cleared lysates were harvested and protein concentrations determined by the Pierce BCA

assay (ThermoFisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Samples of

each lysate, corresponding to 100 µg protein, were separated by SDS-PAGE in reducing 10%

polyacrylamide gels. The proteins were then blotted onto 0.2 µm nitrocellulose membranes

by wet electrophoretic transfer. Membranes were washed three times in TBST (20 mM Tris,

150 mM NaCl + 0.1% Tween-20), 5 min each, and incubated in blocking buffer (TBST + 2%

BSA) for 1h at RT. Membranes were successively incubated with primary antibodies diluted

in blocking buffer (mouse anti-PKR, 1:1000, BD Biosciences; rabbit anti-PKR-P, 1:1000,

Abcam; mouse anti-βactin, 1:5000, Invitrogen; rabbit anti-mengovirus capsid, 1:1000, kindly

provided by Prof. Ann Palmenberg) for 16 hr at 4°C, and then for 30 min at RT with goat-α-

mouse-IRDye680 (Li-COR, 1:15000) or goat-α-rabbit-IRDye800 (Li-COR, 1:15000) diluted in

blocking buffer. Between and after the incubations, the membranes were washed, thrice

each time, with TBST. Finally, membranes were washed once with PBS and scanned using an

Odyssey Imager (Li-COR).

RT-qPCR analysis. HeLa R19 cells, seeded in 24-well clusters (5×10^4 cells/well), were

inoculated with recombinant EMCVs at MOI 10 as above. At 6 or 8 hours post infection cells

were lysed and cellular RNA was isolated using the total RNA isolation kit (Machery-Nagel)

according to manufacturer's instructions. Reverse transcription was set up using TaqMan

Reverse Transcription Reagents (Applied Biosystem) as indicated in the manufacturer's

instructions. qPCR analysis of human IFN-β, human actin mRNA and EMCV viral RNA was

performed mixing the Fast SYBR green Master Mix (ThermoFisher) with cDNA and 1μM of

the forward and reverse corresponding primers: IFN-β (5'-ATGACCAACAAGTGTCTCCTCC-3'

and 5'-GCTCATGGAAAGAGCTGTAGTG-3'), actin (5'-CCTTCCTGGGCATGGAGTCCTG-3' and

5'GGAGCAATGATCTTGATCTTC-3') and EMCV rna (5'-TCTGTTCTGCCTGTGTTTG-3' and 5'-

AAAGAAGAGGGTGCCGAAAT-3'). Amplification occurred in a Roche Light Cycler using the

following program: polymerase activation (95°C for 5min), amplification (45 cycles: 95°C for

10 sec, 60°C for 5 sec, 72°C for 30 sec), melting curve (95°C for 5 sec, 65°C for 1 min) and

cooling (40°C for 10 sec). The experiments were carried out in triplex for each data point.

The relative quantification of the IFN-β gene expression was determined using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$

method (74), then the relative IFN-β mRNA levels were normalized to the EMCV-zn IFN-β

mRNA level set as 100.

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     LEGENDS

Fig. 1. SARS-CoV-2 N inhibits PKR-induced ISR, preventing translation arrest and SG

formation in HeLa and A549 cells. (***A***) HeLa and A549 cells were transfected with expression

vector pEGFP-N3 (EGFP) or pEGFP-N3 derivatives encoding SARS-CoV-2 N, MERS-4a, IAV-NS1

or Bw-CoV-AcP10 genetically fused to EGFP. Induction of the ISR via dsRNA-mediated PKR

activation or suppression thereof was assessed by comparing EGFP fluorescence intensity

and SG formation as detected by immunofluorescence staining for G3BP2. (left panel)

Transfected HeLa cells; (immune)fluorescence microscopy images, representative results.

Scale bars: 50 μm. (right panel) Bar graphs for Hela and A549 cells showing the percentage

of EGFP expressing cells containing G3BP2-positive SGs. The results are representative of

three independent experiments counting >200 cells per sample. Standard deviation

indicated by error bars; *** p=0.001, **** p< 0.001, ns = not significant (one-way ANOVA

with Dunnett post hoc test). (***B***) HeLa cells were transfected as in A. and treated with 500 μM

of sodium arsenite (NaAsO$_2$) to also trigger the ISR by inducing oxidative stress.

(Immuno)fluorescence analysis (left panel), quantitative representation of the results and

statistical analysis as in A (right panel). (***C***) Inhibition of SG formation and translational arrest

by pEGFP-N3-expressed N proteins of MERS-CoV and HCoV-229E. (Immuno)fluorescence

analysis (left panel), quantitative representation of the results and statistical analysis as in A.

Fig. 2. Nucleocapsid domain N2b suppresses translational arrest and SG formation. (***A***)

Schematic representation of truncated derivatives of SARS-CoV-2 N protein fused to EGFP

(left panel). The proteins were overexpressed from pEGFP-N3-based vectors in HeLa cells

and percentages of SG-positive cells were determined as in Fig. 1A (right panel). The data are

representative of three independent experiments with more than 200 cells counted for the

presence of G3BP2-positive SGs per individual sample. Standard deviation indicated by error

bars. For a statistical analysis of the results, see **Table S1**. (***B***) Representative results from

(immuno)fluorescence analysis of HeLa cells transfected to express the SARS-CoV-2 N

protein derivatives. Scale bar: 50 μm.

Fig. 3. N2b mutations that disrupt dsRNA binding abrogate suppression of translational arrest and SG formation. (**A**) (left panel) Cartoon representation of the SARS-CoV-2 N2b dimer (PDB ID code 7C22; (75) generated with PYMOL (pymol.sourceforge.net) with monomers in grey and orange. Top view displaying the positively charged central RNA-binding groove. Side chains of Lys^{257} and Lys^{261}, shown for both monomers and marked for one, in sticks and colored by element with carbon atoms in magenta. (right panel) Electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) with bacterially expressed N2b and single (ss) and double-stranded (ds) RNA oligonucleotides, designed after SARS-COV-2 stem-loop II motif (s2m). Assays were performed with N2b in 10- or 20-fold molar excess. Non-bound RNA was included as a control (np, no protein). (**B**) The effect of N2b amino acid substitutions on binding of s2m dsRNA (left) or a scrambled version thereof (right). EMSAs performed with N2b and mutant derivatives in 20-fold molar excess. (**C-D**) Mutational analysis of SARS-CoV-2 N2b, full-length SARS-CoV-2 N and full-length HCoV-229E N. Select surface-exposed charged residues were substituted by Ala either individually or in combination as indicated and the effect on IRS-induced translational arrest (C) and SG formation (D) was analyzed in HeLa cells as in Fig. 1. For a statistical analysis of the results, see **Table S2**.

Fig. 4. N-mediated suppression of SG formation and ISR-induced translational arrest is not affected by posttranslational modifications or G3BP1/2 interaction. (**A**) The effect on N-mediated ISR inhibition by mutations introduced to prevent posttranslational modifications (K^{375}Q, K^{375}R, R^{95}K), to disrupt the G3BP1/2 binding site (R^{14}A+I^{15}A), to prevent phosphorylation of the SR element (13S>A) or to hamper N2b dimer-dimer interactions (R^{276}A+R^{293}A) was tested in HeLa cells by (immune)fluorescence analysis as in Fig. 1. Scale bar: 50 μm. (**B**). Quantification of the results in (A) representative of three independent experiments, with >200 cells counted per sample as in Fig. 1.

Fig. 5. Quantitative assessment of N-mediated rescue of ISR-induced translational arrest. HeLa cells were transfected to express EGFP, SARS-CoV-2 N2b, the full-length N proteins of SARS-CoV-2 and HCoV-229E, and mutants thereof from pEGFP-N3-based expression vectors

to induce PKR-activated ISR. The capacity of these proteins to rescue translational repression

of red fluorescent protein (RFP) *in trans* or lack thereof was measured by flow cytometry at

24 hr post transfection (left panels) and fluorescence microscopy (see **Fig. S1**).

Representative flow cytometry histograms shown. The transfected cells were divided into

non-RFP-expressing, low (L) RFP-expressing and high (H) RFP-expressing populations (see

dashed lines in histograms). For each mutant protein, the [H/L] ratio was calculated and

normalized, with those of the corresponding wildtype proteins set at 100%. The bar graphs

show mean values with standard deviations based on three independent experiments

(unpaired t-test; ****, $P<0.001$; ns, non-significant) (right).

Fig. 6. The N2b domain inhibits PKR phosphorylation, prevents SG formation, and reduces the type I interferon response in EMCV infected cells. (***A***) Structure of the polyprotein of recombinant EMCV-L^{zn}-N2aN2b. Schematic representation and a close-up of the N-terminal region with mature cleavage products shown as boxes. Red asterisks indicate the locations of mutations ($C^{19}A/C^{22}A$) in the Zn-finger domain of leader protein L, which abolish its function as EMCV-autologous antagonist of the host innate immune response. The red arrowhead indicates the location of a newly engineered EMCV 3C cleavage site. The yellow box depicts the native N-terminus of the EMCV polyprotein, i.e. the six N-terminal residues of L and two residues encoded by a synthetic *Xho*I cloning site (see **Fig. S2** for details). The location of the introduced SARS-CoV-2 N2a2b element is given, with the N2b domain in blue and a Strep2 tag in grey. (***B***) SG formation in EMCV-infected cells is prevented by SARS-CoV-2 N2a2b. HeLa cells were infected at MOI 10 with EMCV-L^{zn} recombinant viruses expressing N2a2b or a derivative 'N2a2b-Mut' in which the N2b RNA binding site was abolished by $Lys^{257}Ala$ and $Lys^{261}Ala$ substitutions. Cells infected with parental wildtype EMCV or EMCV-L^{zn} served as controls as were cells infected with recombinant EMCV-L^{zn} derivatives encoding established coronavirus ISR antagonists MERS 4a and BW-Acp10. Cells were fixed at 8 hpi and analyzed by immunofluorescence staining for dsRNA as a marker for infection and for SG scaffold protein G3BP2. (***C***) Percentages of infected cells with stress granules at 6 and 8 hpi. Bar graphs show the means of three independent experiments with more than 200 infected cells counted per sample. Standard deviations indicated by error bars; **** $p< 0.0001$, ns = not significant (two-way ANOVA with Dunnett post hoc test). (***D***) Western-blot analysis for

PKR, phosphorylated PKR (p-PKR), EMCV capsid proteins and β-actin. HeLa cells, mock-

infected or infected with recombinant EMCVs at MOI 10, were lysed at 6 or 8 hpi. Images

shown are representative of three independent experiments. (*E*) Suppression of type I

interferon response in EMCV-infected cells by N2a2b but not N2aN2b-Mut. HeLa cells, mock

infected or infected at MOI 10 with the indicated recombinant EMCV-L^{zn} viruses, were lysed

at 6 or 8 hpi. Total RNA was isolated and used for RT-qPCR analysis for IFN-β and actin. The

IFN-β levels were calculated as fold induction compared to levels in mock-infected cells,

after correction for actin mRNA levels, and normalized with EMCV-L^{zn} IFN-β levels set at

100%. Data represent means of three independent experiments. Standard deviations

indicated by error bars; statistical significance compared to the results for EMCV-L^{zn} or

EMCV-L^{zn}-N2aN2b infected cells calculated by two-way ANOVA with the Dunnett post hoc

test; ** $p<0.01$; *** $p<0.001$; **** $p<0.0001$.

Fig.1

A

B

	EGFP	wt N	1-247	1-175	49-247	49-175	176-215
G3BP2							
EGFP							
merge							

	176-365	176-419	210-419	248-419	248-365	366-419
G3BP2						
EGFP						
merge						

Fig.2

Fig.3

A

B

Fig.4

Fig.5

Fig.6