Canonical and non-canonical contributions of human Dicer helicase domain in antiviral defense

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ABSTRACT

In mammals, the co-existence of RNAi and the type I interferon response in somatic cells begs

the question of their compatibility and relative contribution during viral infection. Previous

studies provided hints that both mitigating co-factors and self-limiting properties of key

proteins such as Dicer could explain the apparent inefficiency of antiviral RNAi. Indeed, the

helicase domain of human Dicer limits its processing activity and acts as an interaction platform

for co-factors that could hinder its function. We studied the involvement of several helicase-

truncated mutants of human Dicer in the antiviral response. We show that all deletion mutants

display an antiviral phenotype against alphaviruses and an enterovirus. While only one of them,

Dicer N1, is antiviral in an RNAi-independent manner, they all require the expression of PKR

to be active. To elucidate the mechanism underlying the antiviral phenotype of Dicer N1

expressing cells, we analyzed their transcriptome and found that many genes from the interferon

and inflammatory response were upregulated. We could show that these genes appear to be

controlled by transcription factors such as STAT-1, STAT-2, and NF-kB. Finally, we

demonstrated that blocking the NF-kB pathway in Dicer N1 cells abrogated their antiviral

phenotype. Our findings highlight the crosstalk between Dicer, PKR, and the IFN-I pathway,

and suggest that human Dicer may have repurposed its helicase domain to prevent basal

activation of antiviral and inflammatory pathways.

INTRODUCTION

RNAi is an evolutionary conserved cellular defense mechanism against invading nucleic acids. It is based on the detection and cleavage of a trigger molecule, double-stranded (ds) RNA, by Dicer, a type III ribonuclease. The resulting small interfering (si) RNAs act as guides for effector Argonaute proteins that will act on target RNAs in a sequence specific manner (Meister & Tuschl, 2004). By its nature, RNAi has been shown to be a prominent defense mechanism against viruses in plant and invertebrate organisms (Guo *et al*, 2019; tenOever, 2016), but its exact contribution to the innate antiviral response in mammals remains to be firmly established. Although antiviral RNAi appears to be active in specific conditions, in particular in pluripotent stem cells (Maillard *et al*, 2013), it also seems to be incompatible with other innate immune defense pathways that rely on the type I interferon response (IFN-I). As a result, certain studies have shown that inactivating then IFN-I response allows RNAi to take over. The pattern recognition receptors that are inactivated in these studies are members of the RIG-I like receptors (RLR) family and they are also activated by dsRNA (Ahmad & Hur, 2015; Pichlmair & Reis e Sousa, 2007). However, as opposed to Dicer, they do not act by cleaving dsRNA but rather by inducing a phosphorylation cascade that will ultimately result in the production of the autocrine- and paracrine-acting interferon α and ß cytokines followed by the transcriptional activation of hundreds of interferon stimulated genes (ISGs) (Ivashkiv & Donlin, 2014). Thus, in mammalian somatic cells deficient for MAVS or IFNAR, the production of long-dsRNA-derived siRNAs can be detected and are shown to be dependent on Dicer activity (Maillard *et al*, 2016). Besides, the RLR LGP2 has been shown to be directly interacting with Dicer blocking siRNA production and along with TRBP preventing the correct miRNA maturation (Takahashi *et al*, 2018b, 2018a; van der Veen *et al*, 2018). Thus, in mammalian cells RNAi and IFN-I seem to be functionally mutually exclusive and IFN-I is suggested to tone down Dicer involvement in antiviral RNAi.

One interesting observation is that the N-terminal helicase domain is quite conserved between RLRs and Dicer, which might indicate a functional replacement during evolution (Baldaccini & Pfeffer, 2021). In mammalian Dicer, the helicase domain exerts some molecular constraints that limit Dicer's processivity for cleaving long dsRNA molecules (Ma *et al*, 2008). Accordingly, a synthetic Dicer lacking the first two domains of the helicase, Hel1 and Hel2i, and named Dicer N1 displays better cleavage properties of an artificial dsRNA than the full-length version of Dicer (Kennedy et al., 2015). More recently, a naturally occurring isoform of Dicer, lacking the Hel2i domain, has been identified in human stem cells and showed to possess some antiviral properties in an RNAi-dependent manner (Poirier *et al*, 2021). Similarly, a Hel1-truncated version of Dicer, coined Dicer^O, is specifically expressed in mouse oocytes and is better adapted to cleave long dsRNA molecules than pre-miRNAs (Flemr *et al*, 2013). Uncovering the structure of Dicer^O isoform revealed that the N-terminal part of the helicase domain plays an important role for the correct positioning of the pre-miRNA and that removing it potentially increases the affinity for longer dsRNA structures (Zapletal *et al*, 2022). On top of having a molecular self-limiting effect, this helicase domain also allows Dicer to interact with proteins that regulate its activity. We have recently shown that during Sindbis virus (SINV) infection the helicase domain of human Dicer specifically interacts with proteins that are involved in the IFN-I response such as PACT, the RNA helicase DHX9, the adenosine deaminase ADAR1 and the dsRNA-activated protein kinase PKR (Montavon *et al*, 2021). In addition, we reported in the same study that the expression of the helicase-truncated Dicer N1 confers a strong antiviral activity against SINV, and that this phenotype is dependent on the presence of PKR. Similarly, another study shows a genetic link between Dicer and PKR in mouse embryonic stem cells and proposes that Dicer can hinder PKR activity in a non-canonical manner (Gurung *et al*, 2021). Dicer thus seems to have an additional antiviral activity linked to PKR that is limited by its helicase domain.

In this study, we sought to uncover the mechanism underlying Dicer N1 antiviral

activity. By using HEK293T NoDice cells (Bogerd *et al*, 2014) stably expressing either Dicer

WT or N1, we showed that Dicer N1 cells are more resistant than Dicer WT cells to infection

with alphaviruses SINV and Semliki forest virus (SFV), and human enterovirus 71 (HEV71).

However, this antiviral effect was virus-dependent, as Dicer N1 had no impact on vesicular

stomatitis virus (VSV) infection, and we even observed a pro-viral effect of Dicer N1 on SARS-

CoV-2 infection. Interestingly, we found that the antiviral effect of Dicer N1 is RNAi-

independent, as cells expressing a catalytically inactive Dicer N1 were equally protected against

SINV infection. We also tested other helicase-truncated mutants of Dicer and observed that

individual deletion of each subdomain (Hel1, Hel2i or Hel2) also conferred an antiviral property

to Dicer. However, as opposed to Dicer N1, this phenotype appeared to be partially due to

RNAi. Nevertheless, all of the helicase-deletion mutants also required the presence of PKR to

maintain their antiviral effect. We thus focused our investigations on the implication of PKR in

the phenotype of Dicer N1 and showed that it is required for its antiviral activity independently

from its kinase function. Transcriptomic analysis of mock- or SINV-infected cells uncovered

that Dicer N1 expressing cells have a higher basal expression of a large subset of genes,

including a number that are involved in the antiviral response. We further show that those genes

are under the control of transcription factors such as STAT1, STAT2 and NF-kB/p65. Finally,

we confirmed the importance of the latter pathway in the phenotype of Dicer N1 cells by

alleviating the antiviral effect in cells treated with a chemical inhibitor of NF-kB. Based on

these results, we propose that one reason for human Dicer to have maintained a self-limiting

helicase domain is to prevent basal activation of antiviral and inflammatory pathways.

RESULTS

Effect of Dicer N1 expression on SINV viral cycle

We previously showed that a partial helicase-deletion mutant of human Dicer expressed in HEK293T NoDice cells presented an antiviral activity against SINV (Montavon *et al*, 2021). We used the two monoclonal cell lines NoDice FHA-Dicer WT #4 and NoDice FHA:Dicer N1 #6 (afterward respectively referred to as Dicer WT and Dicer N1 cells) to better characterize the impact of Dicer WT or Dicer N1 expression on SINV cycle. We used a non-modified SINV strain and two different GFP-expressing strains that either express the fluorescent protein from a duplication of the subgenomic promoter (SINV-GFP) or from a fusion with the capsid protein (SINV-2A-GFP) (Thomas et al., 2003), the latter expressing GFP at higher levels than the former (Supp. Fig. 1A). We infected Dicer WT or Dicer N1 cells with increasing MOIs of all three viruses and measured the accumulation of infectious particles by plaque assay 24 hours post-infection (hpi) (Fig. 1A). For all viruses, we observed a significant antiviral effect at every MOI in cells expressing Dicer N1 compared to cells expressing Dicer WT. The effect was more pronounced in cells infected with the SINV-2A-GFP, which seems to be attenuated at lower MOIs compared to the two other viral strains (Fig. 1A). We also monitored viral protein accumulation as well as PKR activation in cells infected for 24h at an MOI of 0.02. In Dicer N1 cells, both the Capsid and GFP proteins accumulated to lower levels, or even below detection limits for SINV-2A-GFP, compared to Dicer WT cells (Fig. 1B). PKR phosphorylation could be detected to roughly similar levels in Dicer WT and N1 cells infected with SINV or SINV-GFP. However, it was only detectable in Dicer WT cells but not in Dicer N1 cells, infected with the SINV-2A-GFP, which reflected the attenuation of this virus compared to the two others (Fig. 1B). We also monitored double-stranded (ds) RNA accumulation during infection as a proxy for viral replication. We used the dsRNA-specific J2 antibody (Richardson *et al*, 2010) to perform immunostaining of cells infected for 24h at an

MOI of 0.02 with either of the three SINV strains. Compared to Dicer WT cells, dsRNA

accumulation decreased in Dicer N1 cells for all three viruses, with a stronger effect for the

SINV-2A-GFP virus (Fig. 1C). Finally, to further confirm the impact of Dicer N1 expression

on viral replication, we finally measured the accumulation of genomic RNA by RT-qPCR in

cells infected with SINV-GFP at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. In agreement with the previous results,

Dicer N1 cells showed a very strong decrease of SINV genomic RNA accumulation compared

to Dicer WT cells (Fig. 1D). In parallel, we also performed semi-quantitative strand-specific

RT-PCR on the same samples and observed that the anti-genomic viral RNA accumulated to

lower levels in Dicer N1 cells than in Dicer WT cells. (Supp. Fig. 1B). Collectively, these data

indicate that the antiviral activity of Dicer N1 leads to a defect in SINV viral replication.

Dicer N1 is antiviral against other positive-strand RNA viruses

To see whether the antiviral activity of Dicer N1 could be generalized to other viruses, we

infected Dicer WT and Dicer N1 cells with viruses from different families. We first tested

another *Togaviridae*, Semliki forest virus (SFV), and observed a lower viral titer in the

supernatants of Dicer N1 cells than in Dicer WT cells infected for 24h at an MOI of 1.10^{-4} (Fig.

2A, top panel). In addition, dsRNA accumulation, as assessed by J2 immunostaining, was

barely detectable in Dicer N1 cells, whereas it was very high in Dicer WT cells (Fig. 2A, bottom

panel). We then infected Dicer WT and N1 cells at an MOI of 0.1 with a (+) RNA virus from

the *Picornaviridae* family, human enterovirus 71 (EV71), and measured viral titer in the

supernatant by TCID50 at 24 hpi. We observed that the EV71 titer was again lower in Dicer

N1 compared to WT cells (Fig. 2B, top panel). J2 immunostaining also confirmed a lower

accumulation of dsRNA in Dicer N1 cells compared to WT cells (Fig. 2B, bottom panel). We

also tested the effect of Dicer N1 on a single-stranded negative-sense RNA virus from the

Rhabdoviridae family, *i.e.* vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV). We infected Dicer WT and N1

cells at an MOI of 1.10^{-5} for 24h with an engineered VSV expressing the GFP protein and titrated the virus in the supernatant by plaque assay. We did not detect any significant difference in viral titers between Dicer WT and N1 cells (Fig. 2C, top panel). As previously reported (Weber *et al*, 2006), we were not able to detect dsRNA accumulation by J2 immunostaining, in either Dicer WT or N1 cells infected with VSV-GFP. Since dsRNA is a canonical Dicer substrate upon infection, this result indicates that the absence of dsRNA during VSV infection might prevent the activation and antiviral activity of Dicer N1.

Finally, we infected the two cell lines with the single-stranded positive-sense RNA virus Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2). In order to be able to use this virus in the HEK293T cells we work with, we first transduced them with a lentiviral vector expressing human ACE2 (hACE2), which is an essential receptor for SARS-CoV-2 infection (Hoffmann *et al*, 2020). We verified hACE2 expression by western blot with a specific antibody (Fig. 2D). We infected both hACE2-expressing Dicer WT and Dicer N1 cells with SARS-CoV-2 at an MOI of 1.10^{-3} for 48h, and measured viral nucleocapsid expression by western blot analysis. Nucleocapsid expression could be detected in both Dicer WT and N1 cells and seemed to be slightly higher in the latter (Fig. 2E). We also monitored PKR phosphorylation in this experiment and observed a higher signal in Dicer N1 compared to WT cells. Then, we measured viral titer in the supernatant by TCID50 at 48 hpi. We observed that the SARS-CoV-2 titer was higher in Dicer N1 compared to WT cells (Fig. 2F). We also performed J2 immunostaining on SARS-CoV-2 infected cells, and saw that dsRNA was detected equally well in both Dicer WT and N1 cells (Fig. 2G). Finally, we also measured viral RNA accumulation by RT-qPCR, and saw that both ORF1a and Spike RNAs accumulated to higher levels in Dicer N1 than in Dicer WT cells, although the increase was not significant for Spike RNA (Fig. 2H).

Altogether, these last results suggest that Dicer N1 expression can have an antiviral effect for two different (+) RNA viruses (SFV and EV71), but not for a third one (SARS-CoV-2).

180   This antiviral property does not seem to be active in the case of a (-) RNA virus, VSV, which

181   might be related in this case to the difference in dsRNA accessibility.

RNA interference is not involved in Dicer N1 phenotype

We showed that Dicer N1 expression prevents the accumulation of viral genomic and

antigenomic RNA during SINV infection and of dsRNA during SINV, SFV and EV71

infection. Since it was previously shown that Dicer N1 was more active than Dicer WT to cleave

an artificial dsRNA into siRNAs (Kennedy et al., 2015), we first hypothesized that the

ribonuclease activity of Dicer N1 was responsible for its antiviral activity. To test this

hypothesis, we therefore used an affinity-based purification approach (Hauptmann *et al*, 2015)

to isolate Ago-associated small RNAs from Dicer WT or N1 cells infected with SINV-GFP at

an MOI of 0.02 for 24h and deep-sequenced them. We first mapped the reads to the human and

SINV-GFP genomes and observed that the vast majority of small RNAs had a cellular origin

(Supp. Fig. 2A). Only 0.2 to 1.2% of sequences could be mapped to the viral genome.

Interestingly, the percentage of viral reads was four-to-five-fold lower in Dicer N1 cells than in

WT cells. We further analyzed the viral reads and determined their size distribution. Small

RNAs mapped to both the genomic and to the antigenomic RNA, with a bias in favor of the

former, and showed a peak at 22 nt, consistent with a Dicer-mediated cleavage (Fig. 3A, Supp.

Fig. 2B). However, there was no real difference in size distribution or strand origin between

Dicer WT and N1 cells. Mapping the small RNAs to the viral genome showed a strong

enrichment at the 5' extremity of the genomic RNA in both Dicer WT and N1 cells (Fig. 3B,

Supp. Fig. 2C), in agreement with previous reports (Kong *et al*, 2023; Zhang *et al*, 2021). The

number of reads that mapped to both strands of the viral RNA was however higher in Dicer

WT than in N1 cells. It therefore appears that both Dicer WT and Dicer N1 are competent for

the generation of what looks like viral siRNAs that are loaded in Argonaute proteins, but we

did not see an increase in their number in Dicer N1 expressing cells. At this stage, we therefore

cannot say that the observed antiviral phenotype of Dicer N1 is linked to a stronger RNAi

activity.

To further confirm that the Dicer N1 phenotype was independent of its role in RNAi, we

generated a catalytic-deficient version of Dicer N1 by introducing mutations in both of its

RNAse III domains (Fig. 3C). As previously, we used the HEK293T NoDice 2.20 cell line

(Bogerd *et al*, 2014) that we transduced with lentiviral vectors expressing a Flag-HA-tagged

version of Dicer N1 with mutations in the catalytic domain (N1-CM). We then selected a clone,

NoDice FHA:Dicer N1-CM #2.17 (afterwards called Dicer N1-CM), that expressed Dicer at

levels similar to the Dicer WT and Dicer N1 cell lines previously generated (Fig. 3D). The

levels of PKR and TRBP were mostly similar to the ones in Dicer N1 cells. By blotting AGO2

expression in these cell lines, we observed that it was absent in the Dicer N1-CM cells, which

is expected for a miRNA-free Argonaute protein and is consistent with previous observations

(Gibbings *et al*, 2012). We confirmed the defect in miRNA processing in the Dicer N1-CM

cells by measuring miR-16 accumulation by northern blot analysis. As expected, we saw no

mature miR-16 form and the accumulation of its precursor in Dicer N1-CM cells (Fig. 3E). We

then infected Dicer WT, N1 and N1-CM cells with SINV-GFP at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h and

measured the infection rate by western blot analysis and plaque assay. The level of the capsid

protein was strongly reduced in both Dicer N1 and Dicer N1-CM cells compared to Dicer WT

cells (Fig. 3F). In addition, we could not detect PKR or eIF2α phosphorylation in neither Dicer

N1 nor Dicer N1-CM cells. To confirm these observations, we titrated the infectious viral

particles in the supernatant and observed a strong and significant decrease of viral titers in both

Dicer N1 and Dicer N1-CM compared to Dicer WT cells (Fig. 3G). To rule out any clone-

dependent effect, we performed the same experiment in polyclonal cells expressing Dicer WT,

N1 or N1-CM. As for the monoclonal cell lines, Dicer N1 and N1-CM cells displayed a drop

in Capsid protein accumulation and an absence of PKR activation compared to Dicer WT cells

(Supp. Fig. 2D). Accordingly, the viral titer was strongly reduced in Dicer N1 and N1-CM cells

compared to Dicer WT cells (Supp. Fig. 2E). We showed previously that Dicer N1 could no

longer interact with the Dicer co-factors TRBP and PACT and with the kinase PKR (Montavon

et al, 2021). Thus, we verified by co-immunoprecipitation the interaction of Dicer N1-CM with

these proteins. The results confirmed that Dicer N1-CM behaved similarly to Dicer N1

regarding the loss of these interactions (Supp. Fig. 2F).

Taken together, these results clearly show that the antiviral phenotype of Dicer N1 does

not depend on its catalytic activity, and therefore on RNAi, which is in agreement with our

previous observations that the antiviral effect of Dicer N1 did not depend on AGO2 (Montavon

et al, 2021).

Impact of Dicer helicase subdomain deletions on viral infection

The region deleted in Dicer N1 contains both the Hel1 and Hel2i domains of the helicase, and

was designed based on the presence of an alternative initiation codon at this position (Kennedy

et al., 2015). Other deletion mutants have been reported in the literature, such as the rodent-

specific Dicer^O, which is naturally expressed in oocytes (Flemr *et al*, 2013). Similar to Dicer

N1, this truncated Dicer was shown to be more potent at generating siRNAs, and was further

functionally and structurally studied under the name Dicer ΔHel1 (Zapletal *et al*, 2022). Finally,

another Dicer isoform has been recently reported in human embryonic stem cells and was

coined antiviral Dicer (AviD) for its RNAi-related antiviral property against different viruses

(Poirier *et al*, 2021). This isoform lacks the Hel2i connector domain. To test the behavior of all

these deletion mutants during SINV infection, we generated lentiviral constructs expressing a

Flag-HA tagged version of Dicer ΔHel1, ΔHel2i and a version lacking the third helicase domain

ΔHel2 (Fig. 4A). We used these lentiviral constructs, as well as catalytically inactive version

of them called CM, to generate monoclonal NoDice cell lines. We first verified the correct

expression of the Dicer isoforms and checked their impact on AGO2, TRBP, PACT and PKR

expression (Supp. Fig. 3A). We also checked that the catalytically inactive versions of the

constructs were indeed impaired in miRNA biogenesis by measuring miR-16 expression by

northern blot analysis (Supp. Fig. 3B). We then infected cells expressing Dicer WT, ΔHel1,

ΔHel2i, ΔHel2 or their catalytically inactive versions (CM) with SINV-GFP at an MOI of 0.02

for 24h and monitored Capsid protein accumulation by western blot analysis. The levels of

Capsid were lower in all cell lines expressing helicase truncated versions of Dicer compared to

Dicer WT cells, but seemed to go up when the RNAse III activity was mutated, although slightly

less so in the case of ΔHel2 (Fig. 4B). To really assess the impact of the expression of these

mutants on viral production, we titrated by plaque assay the supernatants of the previous

experiment, using Dicer N1 cells as control. We observed that expression of all helicase

deletion mutants, Dicer ΔHel1, ΔHel2i and ΔHel2, resulted in a significant drop in viral titer,

although slightly less than in Dicer N1 expressing cells, and that this effect was lost in cells

expressing the CM versions of the mutants (Fig. 4C). Altogether, these results suggest that

deleting any helicase subdomain confers an antiviral activity to human Dicer.

We previously showed that Dicer N1 antiviral phenotype was dependent on the

expression of PKR (Montavon *et al*, 2021). We therefore tested the impact of the expression of

the various helicase deletion mutants on viral infection in NoDice compared to NoDiceΔPKR

cells. We transduced the aforementioned cell lines with Dicer WT, N1, ΔHel1, ΔHel2i and

ΔHel2 to generate polyclonal cell lines. We again made sure that these cell lines expressed the

different Dicer constructs, that they expressed similar levels of interacting proteins such as

AGO2, TRBP and PACT (Supp. Fig. 3C), and that they were also competent for miRNA

production (Supp. Fig. 3D). We then infected all those cell lines with SINV-GFP at an MOI of

0.02 for 24h and measured the expression of the Capsid protein by western blot analysis. We

could observe a lower accumulation in NoDice cells transduced with Dicer ΔHel1, ΔHel2 and

ΔHel2i compared to cells transduced with Dicer WT (Fig. 4D), although the effect was less

evident for cells expressing Dicer ΔHel2. On the contrary, in NoDiceΔPKR cells transduced

with Dicer ΔHel1, ΔHel2 and ΔHel2i, we did not observe such a strong decrease in Capsid

protein levels. We then determined the viral titers produced upon SINV-GFP infection of

NoDice or NoDiceΔPKR cells expressing Dicer WT, N1, ΔHel1, ΔHel2i or ΔHel2. While we

confirmed the antiviral effect of the helicase deletion mutants compared to the WT Dicer in

NoDice cells, we saw that this effect was completely abrogated in NoDiceΔPKR cells (Fig.

4E). We can therefore conclude that the antiviral phenotype of Dicer N1 can also be observed

with smaller deletion mutants lacking individual subdomains of the helicase. However, as

opposed to Dicer N1, it seems that in the case of Dicer ΔHel1, ΔHel2i or ΔHel2, this phenotype

is dependent on the catalytic activity of Dicer, and thus is likely RNAi-dependent. Yet, the

phenotype is also lost in cells that do not express PKR, a property which is also seen with Dicer

N1. We thus decided to look more into the role of PKR.

PKR, but not its catalytic activity, is directly involved in the Dicer N1 antiviral phenotype

As shown above, the antiviral phenotype of Dicer helicase mutants seems to be strictly

dependent on the expression of PKR. To validate the implication of PKR, we decided to re-

express it in NoDiceΔPKR cells to see whether this would complement the antiviral phenotype

of Dicer N1. We also designed mutant versions of PKR as indicated in Figure 5A. These

mutants are: K296R, which is not able to bind ATP, homodimerize, autophosphorylate or

phosphorylate its targets (Dey *et al*, 2005), and T451A, which is still able to form homodimers

but loses its ability to autophosphorylate the T451 residue and to phosphorylate its targets

(Taylor *et al*, 2001). We first transduced constructs expressing a MYC:CTRL, MYC:PKR WT,

MYC:PKR K296R or MYC:PKR T451A in NoDiceΔPKR FHA:Dicer WT cells and infected

them with SINV-GFP at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. We analyzed the expression of PKR and its

phosphorylated form by western blot analysis, which confirmed that all constructs were

expressed at high levels, but only WT PKR could be phosphorylated upon SINV infection (Fig.

5B). Interestingly, there was some basal level of phosphorylated PKR in the mock-infected

cells expressing WT PKR, which could be due to a higher expression of PKR in transduced

cells compared to WT cells. The activation of the MYC:PKR WT construct in the infected

condition resulted in an increase in eiF2α phosphorylation compared to the CTRL or mutant

PKR constructs. Even in the absence of PKR or in the presence of catalytically inactive version

of it, some levels of eiF2α phosphorylation could be detected in the SINV-infected conditions,

probably due to the activity of the GCN2 kinase as previously reported (Berlanga et al, 2006).

In terms of viral capsid accumulation, no real difference could be detected between the different

conditions (Fig. 5B). We measured viral particles production by plaque assay in SINV-GFP

infected cells, and could not detect any difference between samples (Fig. 5C). This result

indicates that in the presence of Dicer WT, expression of a WT or inactive mutant PKR has no

significant impact on SINV infection. We then transduced the same MYC:CTRL or PKR

constructs as above in NoDiceΔPKR FHA:Dicer N1 cells and performed the same analysis after

infection with SINV-GFP. The western blot analysis was consistent with the previous one and

confirmed the correct expression of the PKR constructs as well as activation of only the WT

PKR version (Fig. 5D). However, we noted a small reduction of Capsid protein accumulation

in cells expressing MYC:PKR WT, K296R or T451A compared to the MYC:CTRL condition

(Fig. 5D). This was confirmed by the plaque assay analysis that revealed a significant drop in

viral titer in NoDiceΔPKR Dicer N1 cells expressing WT or inactive PKR compared to cells

expressing the negative control (Fig. 5E). We could thus restore the antiviral phenotype of Dicer

N1 by re-expressing PKR in cells where its expression was ablated. Interestingly, this did not

require a catalytically active or homodimerization competent PKR since the same

complementation could be observed with two different mutants that were both unable to phosphorylate their substrates. Overall, these results suggest that the antiviral activity of Dicer N1 is linked to PKR, but does not require the canonical activation of PKR through homodimerization and phosphorylation.

Expression of Dicer N1 induces major changes in the transcriptome

To decipher the mechanism behind Dicer N1 antiviral property, we performed total RNAseq analysis on both Dicer WT and Dicer N1 cells either mock-infected, infected with SINV-GFP at an MOI of 2 for 12h or infected with SINV-GFP at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. We first verified the percentage of viral reads in the libraries and observed that it was higher (about 8-fold for the genomic RNA) in Dicer WT than in Dicer N1 cells (Supp. Fig. 4A). This confirmed the antiviral effect of Dicer N1 at the level of viral replication. Next, we compared the overall profiles of gene expression in the different conditions (Fig. 6A). The analysis identified 5 groups of genes according to their expression patterns. The first group was composed of genes overexpressed in N1 cells compared to WT cells. The second one was composed of genes specifically downregulated in WT cells upon infection, whereas the third one represented genes downregulated upon infection in both cell lines. Finally, the fourth and fifth groups comprised genes that are upregulated in both WT and N1 cells or in WT cells only, respectively. The first two groups were of interest as several genes were upregulated in Dicer N1 cells no matter whether there were infected or not. We then performed a differential gene expression analysis of mRNAs using DEseq2 (Love *et al*, 2014) to determine the impact of the infection on the cell transcriptome. The results confirmed that in Dicer WT cells, infection by SINV resulted in major changes in the expression levels of a large number of mRNAs, which were visible both at 12 and 24 hpi (Fig. 6B, Supp. Fig. 4B). However, in Dicer N1 cells, these changes were substantially more limited at both time points of infection (Fig. 6C, Supp. Fig. 4B), consistent

with the fact that the infection was attenuated in these cells and therefore did not result in a

strong cellular response. Strikingly, when we compared the transcriptomes of mock-infected

Dicer WT and Dicer N1 cells, we found that there was a large number of up-regulated mRNAs,

as well as a smaller number of down-regulated mRNAs (Fig. 6D). It seems therefore that the

expression of Dicer N1 results in changes at the transcriptional level, so we set out to examine

whether any of these perturbations could explain the phenotype we observed in these cells. To

better characterize the phenotypical dynamics underlying differentially expressed genes

(DEGs), we looked at gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) against the Hallmark biological

states and processes gene sets (Fig. 6E, Supp. Fig. 4C, D). In Dicer N1 cells, processes linked

to interferon alpha and gamma, and to inflammatory and NF-kB responses were significantly

enriched (Fig. 6E). Interestingly, the interferon alpha and gamma pathways were already

enriched in mock cells, whereas those pathways were not enriched in WT cells upon SINV

infection. This was confirmed by the increased number of genes linked to interferon and

inflammatory pathways in Dicer N1 cells compared to WT cells, denoting a basal IFN-I

signature linked to a subset of genes in N1 cells (Supp. Fig. 4C). Conversely, those pathways

were not detected in WT cells upon infection (Supp. Fig. 4D).

Altogether, these results highlight transcriptomic differences in Dicer N1 compared to

WT cells in mock and SINV infected cells. Globally, immune-related pathways seem to be

enriched in Dicer N1 cells, and this, even in the steady state.

Dicer N1 expression increases the activation of immune-related transcription factors

Given the seemingly increased RNA Pol II transcription in the Dicer N1 cells, we looked

for transcription factors that are known to play important roles in innate immunity and analyzed

the expression levels of their target genes in the different samples. We retrieved the known

targets of NF-kB/p65, STAT1, STAT2, IRF2 and IRF3 and extracted from these lists genes that

were differentially expressed either during infection in Dicer WT or Dicer N1 cells, or between

mock-infected Dicer WT and Dicer N1 cells. We then computed the cumulative frequencies of

de-regulated transcripts by comparing i) Dicer WT SINV-GFP 24hpi vs. Dicer WT Mock, ii)

Dicer N1 SINV-GFP 24hpi vs. Dicer N1 Mock and iii) Dicer N1 Mock vs. Dicer WT Mock.

This calculation was done for NF-kB/p65 (Fig. 7A) and STAT2 (Fig. 7B), which were the ones

with the greater changes, but also for IRF2 (Supp. Fig. 5A), IRF3 (Supp. Fig. 5B) and STAT1

(Supp. Fig. 5C). The results indicate first that when comparing Dicer WT SINV-infected vs.

Mock and Dicer N1 SINV-infected vs. Mock, there were more target genes either up or down-

regulated in the Dicer WT cells than in the Dicer N1 cells, which again reflects the lower

response of Dicer N1 cells to the infection. Surprisingly, there were significantly more

upregulated transcripts when comparing Dicer N1 Mock to Dicer WT Mock than when

comparing Dicer WT SINV-infected to Dicer WT Mock conditions (see the red vs. black curves

in Fig. 7A, B). A global representation in the form of heatmaps for the same set of genes that

are known targets of NF-kB/p65 or STAT2 also allowed to visualize the stronger changes

induced by the infection in Dicer WT cells compared to Dicer N1 cells, and that a number of

transcripts were more expressed in Dicer N1 Mock than in Dicer WT Mock condition (Fig. 7C,

D). We also represented DEseq2 data on volcano plots for NF-kB/p65 and STAT2 for the Dicer

WT infected vs mock and Dicer N1 mock vs Dicer WT mock comparisons (Supp. Fig. 5D, E).

As seen previously, genes under the control of NF-kB and STAT2 appeared to be more

upregulated in Dicer N1 mock cells than in WT cells either mock or SINV-infected.

We validated the increased expression of some selected target genes by RT-qPCR and

could confirm that PTGS2, APOBEC3B, MX1, OAS3, and IFIT3 mRNAs were indeed

significantly upregulated in mock-infected Dicer N1 compared to Dicer WT cells (Fig. 7E).

Conversely, very mild or no expression increase and sometimes a decrease in expression was

detected for the selected target genes in Dicer N1 infected compared to mock cells, consistent

with the RNAseq analysis (Supp. Fig. 5F). Besides, the expression decrease observed in WT

cells upon infection was expected as SINV blocks RNA Pol II transcription via its nsP2 protein

(Akhrymuk *et al*, 2018).

Overall, the transcriptome changes induced by Dicer N1 expression, which we validated

for selected transcripts by RT-qPCR, allow us to postulate that these cells are in a pre-activated

state that might explain their increased resistance to SINV infection.

The NF-kB pathway is implicated in the antiviral phenotype of Dicer-N1

We showed above that the presence of PKR but not its canonical kinase activity was needed for

the Dicer N1 antiviral phenotype. It has been reported that PKR can be involved in activating

the immune response in a non-canonical manner. In particular, PKR has been described as an

inducer of NF-kB/p65 transcriptional activity independently of its kinase function (Bonnet *et*

al, 2000). Since we also found that targets of NF-kB are induced specifically in Dicer N1 cells,

we investigated whether this pathway was involved in the antiviral phenotype of these cells.

NF-kB/p65 is known to be phosphorylated once IkBα is released from the complex, which

results in NF-kB/p65 activation upon translocation into the nucleus (Christian *et al*, 2016;

Kanarek & Ben-Neriah, 2012). We looked at the expression and phosphorylation levels of NF-

kB/p65 in Dicer WT and N1 cells during a time course of SINV-GFP infection at an MOI of 2

from 3 to 24 hpi (Fig. 8A). In Dicer WT cells, we observed an increase in p65 phosphorylation

at 6 hpi, which corresponds to the end of the first replication cycle. However, at 12 hpi the

phosphorylation decreased and became undetectable at 24 hpi. In Dicer N1 cells, the level of

phosphorylated p65 was already quite elevated in the mock-infected condition and remained

high, independently of PKR phosphorylation, until 12 hpi where it slightly decreased until 24

hpi (Fig. 8A). At the same time, we noticed a higher level of NF-kB/p65 protein at both 12 and

24 hpi.

Given the higher activation levels of p65 in Dicer N1 cells, we then decided to block the

NF-kB pathway to test its role during SINV infection. To do so, we used the chemical

compound BAY 11-7082, which inhibits IkBα phosphorylation by the IKK kinases and thus

prevents NF-kB/p65 activation (Pierce *et al*, 1997). We treated Dicer N1 cells with two

different concentrations of BAY 11-7082 during 1h. Then, we infected cells with SINV-GFP

at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h and evaluated the impact of the drug treatment on the infection

efficiency. As shown in Figure 8B (top panel), we observed a decrease in the phosphorylation

of p65 in mock-infected cells treated with 5 µM of BAY 11-7082 compound compared to cells

treated with DMSO only. Conversely, the level of IkBα was increased in cells treated with the

inhibitor compared to the control (Fig. 8B, lower panel). These results indicate that the

treatment was effective. We further validated that the inhibitor worked as expected by analyzing

the levels of one of the previously validated NF-kB target mRNAs, PTGS2, by RT-qPCR. In

Dicer N1 cells treated with 5 µM of BAY 11-7082, the level of this mRNA was significantly

reduced compared to the control condition (Fig. 8C). The effect of the NF-kB inhibitor on viral

infection could be visualized first by the increased detection of the Capsid protein in SINV-

GFP infected cells treated with 5 µM of BAY 11-7082 compared to DMSO-treated cells (Fig.

8B). Finally, we measured the effect of NF-kB inhibition on viral particles production, and

observed a significant increase in viral titers in Dicer N1 cells treated with 5µM of BAY

compared to the negative control (Fig. 8C). The BAY 11-7082 treatment had no effect on

SINV-GFP infection in Dicer WT cells, as assessed by western blot analysis of the Capsid

protein and by plaque assay (Supp. Fig. 6A, B). Overall, these results indicated that by blocking

the NF-kB/p65 pathway with BAY 11-7082, the antiviral activity of Dicer N1 could be

reverted, suggesting that the antiviral activity of Dicer N1 is partially mediated through the NF-

kB/p65 pathway.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we examined the role played by Dicer during viral infection in human cells. We specifically focused on the importance of its helicase domain, as it is known to play important roles in modulating its activity. Indeed, some of the deletion mutants that we used in our analysis, such as Dicer N1, Dicer ΔHel1 or Dicer ΔHel2i have been reported to display an increased RNAi activity either directed against artificial dsRNA substrate or specific viruses (Kennedy et al., 2015; Poirier et al., 2021; Zapletal et al., 2022). Our results confirmed that helicase-truncated Dicer proteins displayed an antiviral phenotype against some, but not all, viruses. While we observed that the catalytic activity of Dicer was involved for some deletion mutants, we also showed that the presence of the PKR protein was an essential feature for this phenotype. In particular, the Dicer N1 variant, which was shown to be capable of RNAi activity in cells that did not express PKR (Kennedy et al., 2015) was in our hands antiviral only in the presence of PKR, and remained antiviral when rendered catalytically inactive. A link between Dicer and PKR was also proposed in mouse embryonic stem cells where Dicer appears to prevent the PKR-induced IFN-I response (Gurung *et al*, 2021). However, no mechanism was proposed, and the authors hypothesized that it might be linked to miRNA production. Our data seem to indicate that the PKR-mediated antiviral effect observed in cells expressing helicase-truncated Dicer proteins is dominant over the RNAi-mediated effect. One would expect that RNAi would be more potent when PKR is not expressed since it should compete with Dicer for dsRNA binding. The fact that it is not the case during the antiviral response raises interesting perspectives.

PKR is a key effector protein involved in pathways such as apoptosis, autophagy, cell cycle control and immunity (Williams, 1999). Besides its well-known role in translation control *via* phosphorylation of the eIF2α factor (Donnelly *et al*, 2013) it also plays key roles in modulating IFN-I signaling pathways and can negatively regulate STAT1 and STAT3

transcriptional activity in a kinase-dependent manner (Raven *et al*, 2006). It has also been

involved in the NF-kB pathway, but in this case it can do so both in a catalytic-dependent (Gil

et al, 2001) and independent way, via the IKK kinase (Bonnet *et al*, 2000; Ishii *et al*, 2001).

Here, we showed that Dicer N1 expressing cells had a different transcriptome from Dicer WT

expressing cells and that the differentially expressed genes are mostly involved in the interferon

alpha/gamma and inflammatory/NF-kB pathways. Specifically, we could identify among those

a substantial fraction of targets of key immune transcription factors such as STAT2 and NF-

kB. We retrieved and validated the differential expression levels for known antiviral effectors

such as PTGS2, APOBEC3B or OAS3 (Jiang *et al*, 2008; Lehman *et al*, 2022; Manjunath *et al*,

2023; Ryman *et al*, 2002). This observation is reminiscent of other studies that showed that

Dicer could be involved in non-RNAi related signaling pathways. For instance, *Drosophila*

Dicer-2 can induce the expression of a small antiviral peptide, Vago, in a tissue- and virus-

specific manner (Deddouche *et al*, 2008). More recently, plant DCL2 was involved in auto-

immunity activation upon *DCL4* loss and in the activation of defense gene expression such as

nucleotide-binding domain/leucine-rich repeat immune receptors (Nielsen *et al*, 2023). We

showed that by treating Dicer N1 expressing cells with an NF-kB inhibitor, we could abrogate

their antiviral phenotype. We thus partially validated our hypothesis that the transcriptional

deregulation of key genes involved in the innate immune response was responsible for the

observed effect on virus infection. Furthermore, the fact that Dicer N1 cells were not protected

against SARS-CoV-2 infection is also in favor of an involvement of NF-kB or STAT1/2

signaling pathways. Indeed, SARS-CoV-2 is known to benefit from the upregulation of the

inflammatory response, mainly through the NF-kB pathway, which is essential for the

replication and propagation of the virus (Nilsson-Payant *et al*, 2021).

Our study reinforces the non-canonical roles of Dicer in immune signaling pathways and

its interplay with the IFN-I response. Dicer helicase domain sequesters PKR away from its

unconventional signaling function. We showed that Dicer N1 antiviral activity only depends on

the presence of PKR but not on its dimerization or catalytic activity. Even though we cannot at

this stage formally conclude on the mechanism at play, we can speculate that PKR cofactors

TRBP and/or PACT might be involved. Indeed, PKR can be activated by PACT upon stress

(Farabaugh *et al*, 2020; Ito *et al*, 1999). Conversely, TRBP can inhibit PKR directly or sequester

PACT away from PKR (Chukwurah & Patel, 2018; Daher *et al*, 2009). Since both proteins are

also interacting with Dicer, *via* its helicase domain, and thus cannot interact with it anymore in

the Dicer N1 cells, they are therefore expected to preferentially interact with other partners such

as PKR in the Dicer N1 background and they could limit or change its canonical function. This

could in theory explain the activation of the NF-kB pathway in a PKR-dependent manner in the

presence of a helicase-truncated Dicer. Interestingly, it was previously shown that the NF-kB

pathway could promote SINV infection, but only in mature non-dividing neurons (Yeh *et al*,

2019). In the proliferating cell line that we used, we rather showed that the basal activation

level of NF-kB in Dicer N1 cells is antiviral. In agreement with this observation, inhibiting NF-

kB in Dicer WT cells has no effect on SINV, which is similar to what has been reported in the

Yeh et al. study. Our results therefore indicate that in actively dividing cells, the NF-kB status

dictates the fate of SINV infection, and this can be in part controlled by the Dicer isoform

expressed. This also means that in cells that naturally express isoforms of helicase-truncated

Dicer, *i.e.* oocytes and stem cells, it would be important to check whether signaling pathways

are deregulated and whether this contributes to the antiviral effect that has been reported for the

AviD isoform (Poirier *et al*, 2021).

Overall, our study reinforces the idea of a crosstalk between IFN-I and RNAi highlighting

a non-canonical function of human Dicer upon infection. We showed that Dicer helicase

domain is linked to the prevention of the immune signaling pathway, and can therefore prevent

basal activation of this pathway. PKR, free from its interaction with human Dicer, displays an

antiviral IFN-I-triggering role against alphaviruses and an enterovirus that is independent from

Dicer activity.

MATERIAL & METHODS

Plasmids, cloning and mutagenesis

N1 DICER, N1-CM DICER, ΔHEL1 DICER and ΔHEL1-CM DICER were generated by PCR mutagenesis from pDONR-DICER described in (Girardi *et al*, 2015). ΔHEL2i and ΔHEL2 DICER and their catalytic mutants (CM) were generated by InFusion mutagenesis (Takara Bio) on pDONR-DICER and pDONR-DICER catalytic mutant vectors. pLenti Flag-HA-V5 vector was modified from pLenti6-V5 gateway vector (Thermo Fisher scientific V49610) by Gibson cloning. WT, N1, N1-CM, ΔHEL1, ΔHEL2i, ΔHEL2, ΔHEL1-CM, ΔHEL2i-CM and ΔHEL2-CM DICER from pDONR plasmids were cloned in pLenti flag-HA-V5 by Gateway recombination.

pLenti MYC:PKR and pLenti human ACE2 vectors were purchased from VectorBuilder. pLenti MYC:CTRL vector was modified from pLenti MYC:PKR by InFusion cloning (Tanaka Bio). PKR K296R and PKR T451A were obtained by InFusion mutagenesis (Takara Bio) on pLenti MYC:PKR vector.

All primers used are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

Cell lines

HEK293T, HEK293T/NoDice (2.20), HEK293T/NoDiceΔPKR cell lines were a gift from Pr. Bryan Cullen (Duke University, Durham NC, USA) and described in (Bogerd *et al*, 2014; Kennedy *et al*, 2015). Vero E6 cells were bought at ATCC (CRL-1586).

Cell culture and transfection

Cells were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM, Gibco, Life Technologies) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Clontech) in a humidified

556 atmosphere with 5% CO_2 at 37°C. Transfections were performed using Lipofectamine 2000

557 (Invitrogen, Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

BAY 11-7082 treatment

NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 and N1 #6 cells were treated with BAY 11-7082 (Merck) by

replacing the culture medium with a medium containing the indicated BAY 11-082

concentrations at 1μM or 5μM or the corresponding volume of DMSO only in the control

conditions. Treatment was maintained for 1h and media was changed with the infection media

with SINV-GFP at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Proteins, RNA and supernatants were then collected

and analyzed.

Lentivirus production and generation of stable cell lines

The lentiviral supernatant from single transfer vector was produced by transfecting HEK293T

cells with 1.7μg of the transfer vector (either pLenti6 FHA-V5 or pLenti MYC), 0.33 μg of the

pVSV envelope plasmid (Addgene #8454) and 1.33μg of pSPAX2 packaging plasmid

(Addgene #12260) using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen, Fisher Scientific) reagent according

to the manufacturer's protocol. HEK293T were maintained in DMEM (Gibco, Life

Technologies) medium supplemented with 10% Fetal bovine serum (FBS, Clontech). One well

from a 6-well-plate at 70% confluency was used for the transfection. The medium was replaced

6 hours post-transfection. After 48 hours, the medium containing viral particles was collected

and filtered through a 0.45μm PES filter. Different cell lines were transduced: NoDice (for N1,

N1-CM, ΔHEL1, ΔHEL1-CM, ΔHEL2i, ΔHEL2i-CM, ΔHEL2 and ΔHEL2-CM),

NoDiceΔPKR (for WT, NA, ΔHEL1, ΔHEL1-CM, ΔHEL2i, ΔHEL2i-CM, ΔHEL2 and

ΔHEL2-CM), NoDiceΔPKR FHA:CTL or FHA:DICER WT #2 or FHA:DICER N1 #6 (for

CTRL, PKR, K296R, T451A), NoDice:FHA DICER WT #4 or N1 #6 (for ACE2). One well of

a 6-well-plate was transduced using 500µL of filtered lentiviral supernatant either expressing

DICER or PKR or ACE2 constructs, 500µL of DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and

4µg/mL polybrene (Merck, Sigma Aldrich) for 6 hours. Then, the medium was changed with

DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS for 24 hours and the resistant cell clones were selected

with the right antibiotic and subsequently maintained under the selection. For NoDice, the

selection lasted for 2 weeks with blasticidin at 15µg/mL (Invivogen). For NoDiceΔPKR, the

selection lasted for 2 weeks with blasticidin at 10µg/mL (Invivogen). For NoDiceΔPKR

FHA:CTL or DICER WT #2, the selection lasted 11 days with hygromycin at 100µg/mL and

for NoDiceΔPKR FHA:DICER N1 #6 it was the same but with hygromycin at 150µg/mL

(Invivogen). Lastly, the ACE2-tranduced cells were selected for 10 days with zeocin at

15µg/mL (Invivogen).

Viral stocks, virus infection

Viral stocks of SINV WT, SINV-2A-GFP and SINV-GFP were produced as described in

(Girardi *et al*, 2015). SINV-2A-GFP was described in (Thomas *et al*, 2003). Cells were infected

with SINV (strain AR339), SINV-2A-GFP and SINV-GFP at an MOI of 0.02 or for SINV-GFP

at an MOI of 2 and samples were collected at the different indicated time points.

Viral stocks of SFV were propagated in Vero E6 cells from the initial stock (strain

UVE/SFV/UNK/XX1745; EVAg 001V-02468). Cells were infected at an MOI of 1.10^{-4} for 24

hours.

Viral stocks of EV71 were produced by one passage in BHK21 cells from the initial stock

(ATCC VR-1432). Cells were infected at an MOI of 0.1 for 24 hours.

Viral stocks of VSV-GFP were propagated in BHK21 cells from the initial stock (strain Indiana

isolate PI10; described in (Mueller *et al*, 2010)). Cells were infected at an MOI of 1.10^{-5} for 24

hours.

Viral stocks of SARS-CoV-2 were produced by two passages in Vero E6 cells from the initial

stock (strain human/DEU/HH-1/2020; EVAg 002V-03991). Cells were infected at an MOI of

0.01 or 0.001 for 24 or 48 hours.

Analysis of viral titer by plaque assay

For SINV, SINV-2A-GFP and SINV-GFP, Vero E6 cells were seeded in 96-well plates and

infected with 10-fold serial dilutions of infection supernatants for 1 hour. The inoculum was

removed and cells were covered with 2.5% carboxymethyl cellulose and cultured for 72 hours

at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO_2. Plaques were counted manually under the

microscope and viral titer was calculated according to the formula: *PFU/mL = #plaques/*

(Dilution*Volume of inoculum).

For SFV and VSV-GFP, Vero E6 cells were seeded in 24-well plates format and were infected

with 10-fold serial dilutions of infection supernatants for 1 hour. The inoculum was removed

and cells were covered with 2.5% carboxymethyl cellulose and cultured for 48 hours at 37°C

in a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO_2. For plaques visualization, the carboxymethyl

cellulose was removed. Cells were fixed with 4% formaldehyde (Merck, Sigma Aldrich) in

PBS (phosphate buffered saline, Gibco) for 20 minutes at room temperature (RT). Cells were

then stained with a 1X crystal violet solution for 20 minutes at RT (2% crystal violet, Sigma;

20% ethanol; 4% formaldehyde, Merck). Plates were washed with clear water and plaques were

counted manually. The viral titer was calculated according to the formula: *PFU/mL = #plaques/*

(Dilution*Volume of inoculum).

Analysis of viral titer by TCID50

For EV71 and SARS-CoV-2, Vero E6 cells were seeded in 96-well plates already containing

10-fold serial dilutions of infection supernatants. Cells were maintained three to four days at

37°C in a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO_2. Wells containing dead cells were counted

manually under the microscope and viral titer was calculated according the Spearman-Kaerber

50% lethal dose formula described in (Wilham *et al*, 2010; Wulff *et al*, 2012).

Western blot analysis

Proteins were extracted and homogenized in the appropriate volume of ice-cold lysis buffer

(50mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 5mM EDTA, 150mM NaCl, 0.05% SDS, 1% Triton X-100 and

protease inhibitor cocktail (complete Mini, Merck)). Proteins were quantified using the

Bradford method (Bio-Rad) and 30µg of total protein extract were loaded on 10% acrylamide-

bis-acrylamide gels or 4-20% Mini-PROTEAN TGX Precast Gels (Bio-Rad). Proteins were

separated by migration at 135V in 1X Tris-Glycine-SDS buffer (Euromedex). Proteins were

electro-transferred on a nitrocellulose membrane in 1X Tris-Glycine buffer supplemented with

20% ethanol. Equal loading was verified by Ponceau S staining (Merck). Membranes were

blocked for 1 hour at RT under stirring in 5% milk (Roth) diluted in PBS-Tween 0.2% (PBS-

T). Membranes were probed with the following antibodies overnight at 4°C under stirring: anti-

hDICER (1:1000, A301-937A, Euromedex, Bethyl), anti-PKR (1:1000, ab32506 Abcam), anti-

PKR (1:1000, #12297 Cell signaling), anti-p-PKR (1:1000, ab 81303 Abcam), anti-PACT

(1:500, ab75749 Abcam), anti-TARBP2 (1:500, sc-514124, Cliniscience, Santa Cruz), anti-

HA-HRP (1:10000, 12013819001 Merck, Sigma Aldrich), anti-c-Myc (1:1000, ab32072

Abcam), anti-p-eIF2α (1:1000, #9721 Cell signaling), anti-α-Tubulin-HRP (1:10000, 1E4C11

Fisher Scientific), anti-SINV capsid (1:5000, kind gift from Dr. Diane Griffin, Johns Hopkins

University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD), anti-GFP (1:1000, 11814460001 Merck,

Sigma Aldrich), anti-GAPDH-HRP (1:10000, G9545 Merck, Sigma Aldrich), anti-SARS-CoV-

2 Nucleocapsid (1:1000, ab273167 Abcam), anti-AGO2 (1:250, kind gift from Pr. Gunter

Meister, University of Regensburg), anti-ACE2 (1:1000, AF933 Bio-Techne), anti-NF-kB/p65

(1:1000, #8242 Cell signaling), anti-p-NF-kB/p65 (1:1000, #3033 Cell signaling) and anti-

IkBα (1:1000, #4812 Cell signaling). The detection was performed using a specific secondary

antibody coupled to the horseradish peroxidase (HRP): anti-mouse-HRP (1:4000, A4416

Merck, Sigma Aldrich), anti-rabbit-HRP (1:10000, #31460 Fisher Scientific), anti-rat-HRP

(1:10000, #31470 Fisher Scientific) and anti-goat-HRP (1:10000, #A15999 Invitrogen).

Detection was done using Chemiluminescent Substrate or SuperSignal West Femto maximum

sensitivity substrate (Pierce, Fisher Scientific) and visualized with a Fusion FX imaging system

(Vilber).

RNA extraction

Total RNA was extracted using TRI Reagent solution (Invitrogen, Fisher Scientific) according

to the manufacturer's instructions.

Northern blot analysis

5 micrograms of total RNA were loaded on a 17.5% acrylamide-urea 4M gel and resolved in

1X Tris-Borate-EDTA buffer. Small RNAs were electro-transferred onto a nylon Hybond-NX

membrane (GE Healthcare) in 0.5X Tris-Borate-EDTA buffer. RNAs were chemically cross-

linked to the membrane for 90 minutes at 65°C using 1-ethyl-3-[3-

dimethylaminopropyl]carbodiimide hydrochloride (EDC) (Merck, Sigma Aldrich). The

membrane was pre-hybridized for 30 minutes in Perfect Hyb plus (Merck, Sigma Aldrich) at

50°C in rotation. Oligodeoxyribonucleotide probes (see Supp. Table 1) were labeled at the 5'-

end with 25 µCi of [γ-32P]dATP using T4 polynucleotide kinase (Fischer Scientific). The

unbound [γ-32P]dATP was removed with MicroSpin G-25 column (GE Healthcare) and the

probe was incubated overnight at 50°C with the membrane in rotation. The membrane was

washed twice with 5X SSC (Saline-Sodium citrate buffer, Euromedex), 0.1% SDS for 15

minutes at 50°C and once with 1X SSC (Euromedex), 0.1% SDS for 5 minutes at 50°C. The

membrane was exposed on a phosphorimaging plate in a cassette and the signal was recorded

using a Typhoon FLA-7000 laser scanner (GE Healthcare).

RT-qPCR analysis

DNaseI treatment was performed on 1µg of extracted RNAs (Invitrogen). DNase treated RNAs

were then retro-transcribed using a random nonameric primers with the SuperScript IV (SSIV)

reverse transcriptase according to the manufacturer's instructions (Invitrogen, Fisher

Scientific). Real-time quantitative PCR was performed on 1/10 dilution of cDNA using SYBR

green PCR master mix (Fisher Scientific) and the primers listed in Supp. Table 1.

Strand-specific semi-quantitative RT-PCR on SINV antigenome

Negative-strand-specific reverse transcription was performed using a primer specific to the 5'

region of the SINV plus-strand genome (nucleotides 1 to 42 – Supp. Table 1). 100 ng of RNA,

1µL of 2µM specific primer, 1µL of 10mM dNTPs and water up to 13µL final volume were

mixed and incubated at 65°C for 5 min. 4µL of 5X SSIV Buffer (Invitrogen), 1µL of 0.1M

DTT (dithiothreitol), 1µL of RNase inhibitor (Ribolock, Fisher Scientific) and 1µL of SSIV

reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen) were added and the mix was incubated at 55°C for 10 min

then 80°C for 10 min. 1/20 of the cDNA was amplified by PCR using the GoTaq DNA

polymerase mix (Promega) with specific antigenome primers (Supp. Table 1). PCR products

were loaded on a 1% agarose gel and gel pictures were taken with a Fusion FX imaging system

(Vilber).

Immunoprecipitation

Immunoprecipitations were done on tagged proteins. Cells were harvested, infected at the

corresponding MOI and time and washed once with ice-cold PBS (Gibco, Life Technologies)

and resuspended in 600µL of ice-cold lysis buffer (50mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 140 mM NaCl, 1.5

mM $MgCl_2$, 0.1% NP-40 and protease inhibitor cocktail (complete Mini, Merck, Sigma

Aldrich). Cells were lysed for 10 min incubation on ice and lysates were cleared with a 15 min

centrifugation at 12 000g and 4°C. 25µL of the lysates were kept as protein INPUT. Then,

samples were divided in two and 40µL of magnetic beads coated with monoclonal anti-HA or

anti-MYC antibodies were added (MACS purification system, Miltenyi Biotech). The samples

were incubated for 1 hour at 4°C under rotation. Samples were sequentially loaded onto

µColumns (MACS purification system, Miltenyi Biotech). The columns were washed 4 times

with 200µL of lysis buffer. The elution was done with 95°C-pre-heated 2X Laemmli buffer

(20% glycerol, 4% SDS, 125mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 10% (v/v) 2-β-mercaptoethanol, 0.004%

Bromophenol Blue). Proteins were analyzed by western blot.

Immunostaining

Cells were plated on Millicell EZ 8-well slide (Merck Millipore) and infected with the different

viruses at the corresponding MOI and infection time. Then, cells were fixed for 10 minutes at

RT with 4% formaldehyde (Merck, Sigma Aldrich) diluted in PBS 1X (Gibco). Cells were

incubated with a blocking solution (5% normal goat serum, 0.1% Triton X-100, PBS 1X) for

1h at RT. Primary J2 antibody diluted in blocking solution was added at 1:1000 dilution for 3h

at RT. Cells were washed three times with PBS 1X-0.1% Triton X-100 (Phosphate buffered

saline- Triton, PBS-T) and incubated 1h at RT in the dark with a secondary antibody solution

containing goat anti-mouse Alexa 594 (A11032, Invitrogen, Fisher Scientific) fluorescent-

coupled antibody diluted to 1:1000 in PBS-T solution. After three washes with PBS-T, cell

nuclei were stained with DAPI diluted to 1:5000 in PBS 1X for 2 minutes at RT in the dark

(Life technologies, Fischer Scientific). Slides were finally mounted on coverslips and the

Fluoromount-G mounting media (Southern Biotech). Images were acquired using an

epifluorescence BX51 (Olympus) microscope with a mercury source illuminator (U-RFL-T,

Olympus) and with x40 immersion oil objective.

Small RNA cloning and sequencing

NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 or N1 #6 cells were plated in P150mm petri dishes at 25 000 000

cells per dish and infected the following day with SINV-GFP at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Cells

were collected in 1.3mL of ice-cold lysis buffer (50mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 5mM

EDTA, 1% NP-40, 0,5mM DTT, 0,1U/mL of RNase inhibitor and protease inhibitor cocktail

(complete Mini, Merck, Sigma Aldrich)). Cells were lysed by putting the extract on ice for

15min. First, human AGO proteins were immunoprecipitated from whole extract to enrich for

loaded small-RNAs. AGO-IP was done following the protocol described in (Hauptmann *et al*,

2015). Briefly, 50µL of magnetic Dynabeads coupled to G protein (Invitrogen, Fisher

Scientific) were coupled to anti-Flag M2 antibody (F1804, Merck, Sigma Aldrich) overnight at

4°C under rotation. The day after, Flag-TNRC6B WT or mutant (with Tryptophans mutated to

Alanines; called TNRC6B Ala) peptides were incubated with the coupled beads for 3h at 4°C

under rotation. Meanwhile, lysates were cleared with a centrifugation step at 10 000g for 10min

at 4°C and 100µL were kept as INPUT (20µL for proteins and 80µL for RNAs). Then, lysates

were divided in two and put on the beads coupled to the peptides and incubated at 4°C for 3h

under rotation. After 4 washing steps with 300µL of ice-cold washing buffer, beads were split:

280µL were eluted with 1mL of TRI Reagent solution (Invitrogen, Fisher Scientific) and RNAs

were isolated according to the manufacturer's instructions; 20µL were kept for proteins analysis

of IP efficiency by western blot and 20µL of 95°C-pre-heated 2X Laemmli buffer were added

(20% glycerol, 4% SDS, 125mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 10% (v/v) 2-β-mercaptoethanol, 0.004%

Bromophenol Blue).

For small RNA libraries preparation, Illumina TruSeq small RNA library preparation kit was

used according to the manufacturer's protocol (RS-200-0012, Illumina).

Samples were analyzed with a Bioanalyzer device, and only AGO-IPs with TNRC6B wild-type

peptide in infected conditions in triplicates were analyzed for both cell lines, while only one

AGO-IP TNRC6B Ala control was analyzed for each cell line.

Libraries were sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 4000 sequencer as single-end 50 base reads at

the GenomEast platform at the Institute of Genetics and Molecular and Cellular Biology

(Illkirch, France). Image analysis and base calling were performed using RTA version 2.7.7

and bcl2fastq version 2.20.0.422.

mRNA sequencing

NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 or N1 #6 cells were plated in P100mm petri dishes at 5 000 000

cells per dish and infected the following day with SINV-GFP at an MOI of 2 for 12h or 0.02

for 24h. Cells were collected in Trizol reagent (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and RNAs

were isolated according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Library preparation and sequencing were performed at the GenomEast platform at the Institute

of Genetics and Molecular and Cellular Biology (Illkirch, France). RNA-Seq libraries were

generated according to the manufacturer's instructions from 250 ng of total RNA using the

Illumina Stranded mRNA Prep, Ligation kit (Reference Guide - PN 1000000124518) and IDT

for Illumina RNA UD Indexes Ligation (Illumina, San Diego, USA). Briefly, Oligo(dT)

magnetic beads were used to purify and capture the mRNA molecules containing polyA

tails.The purified mRNA were then fragmented at 94°C for 2 min and copied into first strand

complementary DNA (cDNA) using reverse transcriptase and random primers. Second strand

cDNA synthesis further generated blunt-ended double-stranded cDNA and incorporated dUTP

in place of dTTP to achieve strand specificity by quenching the second strand during

amplification. Following A-tailing of DNA fragments and ligation of pre-index anchors, PCR

amplification was used to add indexes and primer sequences and to enrich DNA libraries (30

sec at 98°C; [10 sec at 98°C, 30 sec at 60°C, 30 sec at 72°C] x 12 cycles; 5 min at 72°C).

Surplus PCR primers were further removed by purification using SPRIselect beads (Beckman-

Coulter, Villepinte, France) and the final libraries were checked for quality and quantified using

capillary electrophoresis.

Libraries were sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 4000 sequencer as paired-end 100 base reads.

Image analysis and base calling were performed using RTA version 2.7.7 and bcl2fastq version

2.20.0.422.

Bioinformatics analysis of small RNA sequencing data

Sequencing reads of sRNA-seq libraries were processed and analyzed with the following

workflow. Cutadapt v1.16 (Martin, 2011) was first run to trim the 3' adapter (command:

cutadapt -a TGGAATTCTCGGGTGCCAAGG -e 0.1 --no-indels -O 6 -m 18 --discard-

untrimmed -o <name>-cutadapt.fastq <name>.fastq) and an additional filter was applied to only

keep 18- to 32-nt long trimmed reads for further analyses. Sample quality checks were

performed before and after these preprocessing steps using FastQC v0.11.8

(https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/). Preprocessed reads were then

mapped simultaneously to the human (GENCODE Human (GRCh38.p13) release 41) and

SINV-GFP (private sequence derived from NC_001547.1 – RefSeq database) genomes, using

Bowtie v1.3.1 (Langmead *et al*, 2009) (command: bowtie -q --phred33-quals -v 2 -y -a --best -

-strata -m 30 -x hg38coreGencodeSINVGFP <name>-preprocessed.fastq <name>-

hg38coreGencodeSINVGFP.bwtmap). Only alignments from the lowest mismatch stratum

with at most 2 mismatches were reported for each read, provided that their number was not

exceeding 30. For each library, small RNA reads deriving solely from SINV-GFP were

computationally extracted and further characterized. Representations of their length distribution

and localisation along the viral genome were both made in R with the ggplot2 and Bioconductor

Gviz (Hahne & Ivanek, 2016) packages respectively.

Bioinformatics analysis of mRNA sequencing data

RNA-seq data were processed and analyzed using the following workflow. The first 5'-end base

of each read, a T-overhang added during the library preparation with the Illumina Stranded

mRNA protocol, was first trimmed, before using Skewer v0.2.2 (Jiang *et al*, 2014) in paired-

end mode for average quality read filtering and adapter trimming (command: skewer -Q 25 -x

CTGTCTCTTATACACATCT -y CTGTCTCTTATACACATCT -l 31 -m pe -t 2 -o <name> -

-quiet <name>_R1.fq <name>_R2.fq). Sample quality checks were performed before and after

these   preprocessing   steps   using   FastQC   v0.11.8

(https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/).   Then,   human   full-length

protein-coding transcripts (GENCODE Human (GRCh38.p13) release 41) and SINV-GFP both

genomic and subgenomic transcripts (private sequence derived from NC_001547.1 – RefSeq

database) were quantified using Salmon v1.10.0 (Patro *et al*, 2017) in mapping-based mode

with the selective alignment algorithm and a decoy-aware transcriptome (command: salmon

quant -p 6 -i index/gencode41.hg38.sinv.decoys_index --libType A --seqBias --gcBias --

numBootstraps   30   -1   data/<name>_preprocessed_R1.fq.gz   -2

data/<name>_preprocessed_R2.fq.gz -o salmon-quants/<name>). Transcript-level abundance

and count estimates thus obtained were next imported into R and further analyzed with the

tximport (Soneson *et al*, 2016) and DESeq2 (Love *et al*, 2014) packages. Briefly, original

transcript-level counts were summarized to gene-level estimated counts and an offset was

produced from transcript-level abundance estimates to correct for changes to the average

transcript length across samples. Differential expression analyses between tested conditions

were then conducted at the gene-level, and statistical significance was defined with an adjusted

p-value < 0.05 and an absolute log2 fold change > 1 thresholds. Finally, gene set enrichment

analysis (GSEA) studies were performed using the GSEA_4.3.2 Mac application, as made

available by the Broad Institute and the University of California, San Diego (https://www.gsea-

msigdb.org/gsea/index.jsp) (Mootha *et al*, 2003; Subramanian *et al*, 2005). These analyses were

conducted on the DESeq2 normalized counts of each comparison dataset against the Hallmark

Gene Sets (v2023.1) provided by the Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB), and by using

the Human_Ensembl_Gene_ID_MSigDB.v2023.1.Hs.chip annotation file and all other

parameters by default, except the permutation type which was set to gene_set.

Heatmaps and volcano plots of RNA-seq differential expression data were generated in R using

respectively the pheatmap package and a custom Shiny application based on the ggplot2 and

ggrepel packages, while the global gene set enrichment dot plot was adapted from

VisualizeRNAseq (https://github.com/GryderArt/VisualizeRNAseq).

Analysis of transcription factor enrichment

Lists of NF-kB/p65, STAT1, STAT2, IRF2 and IRF3 regulated genes were downloaded from

Harmonizome (Rouillard *et al*, 2016). Genes from these lists that were differentially expressed

between the indicated RNAseq experimental conditions were selected, and their mRNA

expression log2 fold change was plotted as cumulative distribution histograms. The two-

sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to assess whether each distribution was statistically

different from the distribution of WT DICER cells infected with SINV vs. mock infected. p-

values are indicated on each histogram.

Statistical analysis

All the plaque assay statistical analysis was done with PRISM 9 (GraphPad) using One-way ANOVA with a p-value threshold at $p<0.05$ on the logarithmic values.

All the qPCR statistical analysis was done with PRISM 9 (GraphPad) using One-way ANOVA with a p-value threshold at $p<0.05$ on the log2 values or unpaired t-test on the log2 values.

Detailed statistical analysis for each figure can be found in Supplementary Table 2.

Data availibility

The sequencing data discussed in this publication have been deposited in NCBI's Gene Expression Omnibus (Edgar *et al*, 2002) and are accessible through GEO Series accession numbers XXX and YYY (attribution pending).

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data accompany this manuscript, they consist of Supplementary Figures and Tables Legends, six Supplementary Figures and two Supplementary Tables.

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 FIGURE LEGENDS

 Figure 1. Analysis of Dicer N1 effect on SINV replication

 A, Mean (+/- SEM) of SINV, SINV-GFP and SINV-2A-GFP viral titers in NoDice

 FHA:DICER WT #4 and N1 #6 infected at an MOI ranging from 0.001 to 1 for 24h (n = 3)

 from plaque assay quantification. Ordinary two-way ANOVA test with Bonferroni correction.

 ***: p < 0.001; ****: p < 0.0001. **B,** Western blot analysis of DICER, p-PKR, PKR, CAPSID

 and GFP expression in SINV, SINV-GFP and SINV-2A-GFP infected NoDice FHA:DICER

 WT #4 and N1 #6 cells at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Gamma-Tubulin was used as loading control.

 C, Immunofluorescence analysis on NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 and N1 #6 cells in mock,

 SINV, SINV-GFP and SINV-2A-GFP infected cells at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. J2 antibody

 (red) was used to detect dsRNA upon infection. DAPI was used to stain the nuclei (blue).

 Magnification 40X; scale bar = 100 μm. **D,** RT-qPCR on SINV genome in NoDice

 FHA:DICER WT #4 and N1 #6 cells infected with SINV-GFP at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Mean

 (+/- SEM); n = 3. Unpaired t-test. ****: p < 0.0001.

 Figure 2. Dicer N1 activity against several viruses

 A, (Top) Mean (+/- SEM) of SFV viral titers in NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 and N1 #6 infected

 at an MOI of 1.10^{-4} for 24h (n = 3) from plaque assay quantification. Unpaired t-test. *: p <

 0.05. (Bottom) Immunofluorescence analysis on NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 and N1 #6 cells

 in SFV infected cells. J2 antibody (red) was used to detect dsRNA upon infection. DAPI was

 used to stain the nuclei (blue). Magnification 40X; scale bar = 100 μm. **B,** (Top) Mean (+/-

 SEM) of EV71 viral titers in NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 and N1 #6 infected at an MOI of 0.1

 for 24h (n = 3) from TCID50 quantification. Unpaired t-test. *: p < 0.05. (Bottom)

 Immunofluorescence analysis on NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 and N1 #6 cells in EV71

 infected cells. J2 antibody (red) was used to detect dsRNA upon infection. DAPI was used to

stain the nuclei (blue). Magnification 40X; scale bar = 100 μm. **C,** (Top) Mean (+/- SEM) of

VSV-GFP viral titers in NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 and N1 #6 infected at an MOI of 1.10^{-5}

for 24h (n = 3) from plaque assay quantification. Unpaired t-test. ns: non-significant. (Bottom)

Immunofluorescence analysis on NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 and N1 #6 cells in VSV-GFP

infected cells. J2 antibody (red) was used to detect dsRNA upon infection. DAPI was used to

stain the nuclei (blue). Magnification 40X; scale bar = 100 μm. **D,** Western blot analysis of

human ACE2 expression in NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 and N1 #6. Gamma-Tubulin was used

as a loading control. **E,** Western blot analysis of DICER, p-PKR, PKR and NUCLEOCAPSID

expression in SARS-CoV-2 infected NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 and N1 #6 cells at an MOI

of 0.001 for 48h. GAPDH was used as loading control. **F,** Mean (+/- SEM) of SARS-CoV-2

viral titers in NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 and N1 #6 infected at an MOI of 0.001 for 48h (n =

3) from TCID50 quantification. Unpaired t-test. *: $p < 0.05$. **G,** Immunofluorescence analysis

on NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 and N1 #6 cells in SARS-CoV-2 infected cells at an MOI of

0.001 for 48h. J2 antibody (red) was used to detect dsRNA upon infection. DAPI was used to

stain the nuclei (blue). Magnification 40X; scale bar = 100 μm. **H,** RT-qPCR on SARS-CoV-2

genome (ORF1A and SPIKE) in NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 and N1 #6 cells infected with

SARS-CoV-2 at an MOI of 0.001 for 48h. Mean (+/- SEM); n = 3. Unpaired t-test. *: $p < 0.05$;

ns: non-significant.

1120

Figure 3. Analysis of the importance of Dicer N1 catalytic activity in its antiviral

phenotype

A, Representative histograms of the distribution of viral reads (in percent) per RNA length upon

small RNA sequencing in NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 (left) and N1 #6 (left) cells infected

with SINV-GFP at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Blue: positive strand; red: negative strand. **B,**

Representative graphs of the mapping of 22-nt-reads on SINV-GFP genome in NoDice

FHA:DICER WT #4 (left) and N1 #6 (right) cells. On the bottom: magnification of the mapping

for the first 1000nt. Blue: positive strand; red: negative strand. **C,** Schematic representation of

two Dicer mutants, N1 and N1-CM (catalytic mutant). In N1-CM, the two catalytic mutations

are highlighted in red. **D,** Western blot analysis of DICER, HA, AGO2, PKR and TRBP

expression in the monoclonal cell lines NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4, N1 #6 and N1-CM #2.17.

Gamma-Tubulin was used as a loading control. **E,** Northern blot analysis of mirR-16 expression

in the same samples as in D. Expression of snRNA U6 was used as a loading control. **F,** Western

blot analysis of DICER, p-PKR, PKR, p-eIF2α and CAPSID expression in SINV-GFP infected

cells at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Gamma-Tubulin was used as loading control. **G,** Mean (+/-

SEM) of SINV-GFP viral titers in the same samples as in D, infected at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h

(n = 3) from plaque assay quantification. Ordinary one-way ANOVA test with Bonferroni

correction. **: $p < 0.01$.

1139

Figure 4. Analysis of the importance of the helicase sub-domains for Dicer antiviral

activity

A, Schematic representation of the different Dicer helicase subdomain mutants. **B,** Western blot

analysis of HA (for Dicer) and CAPSID expression in SINV-GFP infected cells at an MOI of

0.02 for 24h. Monoclonal NoDice FHA:DICER helicase mutant and their respective catalytic

mutant cells are represented: WT #4, ΔHEL1 #15, ΔHEL1-CM #1, ΔHEL2 #9, ΔHEL2-CM

#21, ΔHEL2i #27 and ΔHEL2i-CM #21. Gamma-Tubulin was used as loading control. **C,** Mean

(+/- SEM) of SINV-GFP viral titers in the same samples as in B, infected at an MOI of 0.02 for

24h (n = 3) from plaque assay quantification. Ordinary one-way ANOVA test with Bonferroni

correction. ***: $p < 0.001$; ****: $p < 0.0001$; ns: non-significant. **D,** Western blot analysis of

HA (for Dicer) and CAPSID expression in SINV-GFP infected cells at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h.

Polyclonal NoDice FHA:DICER (left) and NoDiceΔPKR FHA:DICER (right) helicase mutant

cells are represented. Gamma-Tubulin was used as loading control. **E,** Mean (+/- SEM) of

SINV-GFP viral titers in the same samples as in D, infected at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h (n = 3)

from plaque assay quantification. Ordinary one-way ANOVA test with Dunnett correction. *:

$p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$; ***: $p < 0.001$; ns: non-significant.

1156

Figure 5. Importance of PKR dimerization and/or catalytic activities in Dicer N1 antiviral

activity

A, Schematic representation of PKR and its two point mutants: K296R and T451A. **B,** Western

blot analysis of DICER, p-PKR, PKR, p-eIF2α and CAPSID expression in SINV-GFP infected

NoDiceΔPKR FHA:DICER WT #2 with a MYC:EMPTY CTRL vector, MYC:PKR, MYC

K296R or MYC:T451A cells at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Gamma-Tubulin was used as loading

control. **C,** Mean (+/- SEM) of SINV-GFP viral titers in the same samples as in B, infected at

an MOI of 0.02 for 24h (n = 3) from plaque assay quantification. Ordinary one-way ANOVA

test with Dunnett correction. ns: non-significant. **D,** Western blot analysis of DICER, p-PKR,

PKR, p-eIF2α and CAPSID expression in SINV-GFP infected NoDiceΔPKR FHA:DICER N1

#6 with a MYC:EMPTY CTRL vector, MYC:PKR, MYC K296R or MYC:T451A cells at an

MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Gamma-Tubulin was used as loading control. **E,** Mean (+/- SEM) of

SINV-GFP viral titers in the same samples as in D, infected at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h (n = 3)

from plaque assay quantification. Ordinary one-way ANOVA test with Dunnett correction. *:

$p < 0.05$.

1172

Figure 6. Transcriptomic analysis of Dicer N1 and WT cells

A, Z-score hierarchical clustering heatmap of genes identified by RNA sequencing analysis as

differentially expressed between WT vs. N1 cells, either mock or SINV-infected cells (MOI 2

12 hpi or MOI 0.02 24 hpi). Gene clusters are delimited with black brackets and numbered from

I to V. **B-D**, Volcano plot for differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between SINV-infected

(MOI of 0.02 for 24h) and mock NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 cells (B); SINV-infected and

mock NoDice FHA:DICER N1 #6 cells (C); mock NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 and mock

NoDice FHA:DICER N1 #6 cells (D). Each gene is marked as a dot (red: upregulated ≥ 2-fold,

blue: downregulated ≤ 2-fold, grey: unchanged). The horizontal line denotes an adjusted p-

value of 0.05 and the vertical ones the Log2 fold change cut-off (-1 and 1). **E,** Biological states

and processes associated terms enrichment performed with GSEA using the hallmark gene sets.

Colors indicate NES (normalized enrichment score) that are either positive (red) or negative

(blue). Dot size corresponds to -log10(FDR q-val) of enrichment.

1186

Figure 7. Analysis of the transcription factors involvement in Dicer N1 and WT cells

transcriptomic changes

A-B, Histograms representing the cumulative probability of differentially expressed genes

controlled by the transcription factors NF-kB/p65 (A) or STAT2 (B), plotted according to their

Log2 fold change. The vertical lines stand for the Log2 fold change cut-off (-1 and 1). The two-

sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to assess whether each distribution was statistically

different from the distribution of NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 cells infected with SINV vs.

mock. p-values are indicated on each histogram. Red: WT SINV-002-24h vs WT MOCK; blue:

N1 SINV-002-24h vs N1 MOCK; black: N1 MOCK vs WT MOCK. **C-D,** Z-score hierarchical

clustering heatmap of genes identified by RNA sequencing analysis as differentially expressed

between WT vs. N1 cells, either mock or SINV-infected cells (MOI 2 12 hpi or MOI 0.02 24

hpi). Each heatmap represents differentially expressed genes controlled by one transcription

factor: NF-kB/p65 (C) or STAT2 (D). **E,** RT-qPCR on upregulated genes in the N1 MOCK vs

WT MOCK condition and controlled by either NF-kB/p65 or STAT2. Mean (+/- SEM); n = 3.

Unpaired t-test. **: p < 0.01; ***: p < 0.001; ****: p < 0.0001.

Figure 8. NF-kB/p65 involvement in Dicer N1 antiviral phenotype

A, Western blot analysis of DICER, p-p65 and p65 (left) and DICER, p-PKR, p-eIF2α and CAPSID (right) expression in SINV-GFP infected NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 and N1 #6 cells at an MOI of 0.02 between 3 and 24h. Gamma-Tubulin was used as loading control. **B,** Western blot analysis of DICER, p-p65, p65 and CAPSID (top) and DICER and IkBα (bottom) expression in SINV-GFP infected NoDice FHA:DICER N1 #6 cells at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Before infection, cells were treated with the NF-kB/p65 inhibitor, BAY 11-7082 or the vehicle (DMSO) at the indicated concentrations for 1 h. Gamma-Tubulin was used as loading control. **C,** RT-qPCR on PTGS2 (NF-kB/p65 target) in NoDice FHA:DICER N1 #6 mock cells treated with BAY 11-7082 or the vehicle (DMSO) at the indicated concentrations for 1h. Mean (+/- SEM), n = 3. Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Sidak correction. **: $p < 0.01$; ns: non-significant. **D,** Mean (+/- SEM) of SINV-GFP viral titers in the same samples as in C, infected at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h (n = 3) from plaque assay quantification. Ordinary one-way ANOVA test with Dunnett correction. **: $p < 0.01$; ns: non-significant.

Figure 1

A

● NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4
■ NoDice FHA:DICER N1 #6

SINV 24 hpi

Viral Titer PFU/mL vs MOI range (0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 1)
**** **** *** ***

SINV-GFP 24 hpi

Viral Titer PFU/mL vs MOI range (0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 1)
**** **** *** ***

SINV-2A-GFP 24 hpi

Viral Titer PFU/mL vs MOI range (0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 1)
**** **** **** ****

B

NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4 | NoDice FHA:DICER N1 #6

MOCK SINV GFP 2A-GFP MOCK SINV GFP 2A-GFP   SINDBIS

kDa		Marker
200 kDa		DICER
70 kDa		p-PKR
70 kDa		PKR
35 kDa / 25 kDa		CAPSID
35 kDa / 25 kDa		GFP
55 kDa		TUBULIN
		PONCEAU

MOI 0.02 24 hpi

C

MOCK | SINV | SINV-GFP | SINV-2A-GFP

NoDice FHA:DICER WT #4
NoDice FHA:DICER N1 #6

100µm (scale bars on each panel)

D

SINV-GFP MOI 0.02 24 hpi

SINV genome/GAPDH

FHA:DICER WT #4 — FHA:DICER N1 #6

NoDice

****

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

A

B

C

SINV-GFP MOI 0.02 24 hpi

D

E

Figure 5

A

	Properties	References
PKR WT	Dimeric kinase	Lemaire et al., 2008
PKR K296R	Loss of activity Monomeric	Dey et al., 2005
PKR T451A	Loss of activity Dimeric	Taylor et al., 2001

B

NoDiceΔPKR FHA:DICER WT + MYC:

C

D

NoDiceΔPKR FHA:DICER N1 + MYC:

E

Figure 6

Figure 7

A NF-kB/p65

B STAT2

C Significant differential expressed NF-kB/p65 target genes (rlog counts, row Z-score)

D Significant differential expressed STAT2 target genes (rlog counts, row Z-score)

E

PTGS2 (NF-kB)

APOBEC3B (NF-kB)

MX1 (NF-kB - STAT2)

OAS3 (STAT2)

IFIT3 (STAT2)

Figure 8

A

B

C

PTGS2

NoDice FHA:DICER N1 #6 - MOCK

D

NoDice FHA:DICER N1 #6