Non-canonical contribution of human Dicer helicase domain in antiviral innate immune response

Morgane Baldaccini, Léa Gaucherand, Béatrice Chane-Woon-Ming, Mélanie Messmer, Floriane Gucciardi, Sébastien Pfeffer*

Université de Strasbourg, Architecture et Réactivité de l'ARN, Institut de Biologie Moléculaire et Cellulaire du CNRS, 67000 Strasbourg, France

* To whom correspondence should be addressed: s.pfeffer@ibmc-cnrs.unistra.fr

ABSTRACT

In mammalian somatic cells, the relative contribution of RNAi and the type I interferon

response during viral infection is unclear. The apparent inefficiency of antiviral RNAi might

be due to self-limiting properties and mitigating co-factors of the key enzyme Dicer. In

particular, the helicase domain of human Dicer appears to be an important restriction factor of

its activity. We studied the involvement of several helicase-truncated mutants of human Dicer

in the antiviral response. All deletion mutants displayed a PKR-dependent antiviral phenotype

against certain viruses and one of them, Dicer N1, acted in a complete RNAi-independent

manner. Transcriptomic analyses showed that many genes from the interferon and

inflammatory response were upregulated in Dicer N1 expressing cells. We could show that

some of these genes appear to be controlled by NF-kB and that blocking this pathway abrogated

the antiviral phenotype of Dicer N1. Our findings highlight the crosstalk between Dicer, PKR,

and the NF-kB pathway, and suggest that human Dicer may have repurposed its helicase

domain to prevent basal activation of antiviral and inflammatory pathways.

KEYWORDS

Dicer/Innate immunity/NF-kB/RNAi/Virus

INTRODUCTION

RNAi is an evolutionary conserved cellular defense mechanism against invading nucleic acids. It is based on the detection and cleavage of a trigger double-stranded (ds) RNA by Dicer, a type III ribonuclease. The resulting small interfering (si) RNAs serve 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. Indeed, several studies failed to identify virus-derived siRNAs in infected mammalian somatic cells (Girardi *et al*, 2013; Backes *et al*, 2014; Parameswaran *et al*, 2010). It was also reported that molecular mechanisms, such as poly-ADP-ribosylation of AGO2, could prevent the activation of RNAi upon viral infection (Seo *et al*, 2013) or that when viral siRNAs did accumulate, they were inefficiently loaded into Argonaute proteins (Tsai *et al*, 2018). However, antiviral RNAi does appear 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 the 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 receptor (RLR) family and they also recognize 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 directly interact 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). Finally, a recent study showed that the IFN-induced adenosine

deaminase ADAR1 could compete with RNAi to act on dsRNA accumulating during a viral

infection (Uhl *et al*, 2023). Thus, in mammalian cells, RNAi seems to be functionally

incompatible with other innate immune mechanisms, which are suggested to tone down Dicer

involvement in the antiviral response.

One interesting observation is that the amino-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 cleavage processivity on 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 shown 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, 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 (EV71).

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 showed 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 viral life 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 expressed GFP

at higher levels than the former (Appendix Figure S1A). We infected Dicer WT and 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) (Figure 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 both other viral strains (Figure

1A). We also monitored viral protein accumulation in cells infected for 24h at an MOI of 0.02.

In Dicer N1 cells, both the SINV Capsid and GFP proteins accumulated to lower levels, or even

below detection limits for SINV-2A-GFP, compared to Dicer WT cells (Figure 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, Dicer N1 cells showed a decreased dsRNA accumulation for all

three viruses, with a stronger effect for the SINV-2A-GFP virus (Figure 1C). In order to verify

that the drop in viral accumulation in Dicer N1 cells was not simply due to a delay in replication,

we also measured viral titers by plaque assay in cells infected for 48h with SINV-GFP at two

different MOIs (0.01 and 0.001) and for 72h at an MOI of 0.001. In all cases, we could still

observe a significant decrease in viral titers in Dicer N1 cells compared to Dicer WT cells

(Appendix Figure S1B). Finally, to further confirm the impact of Dicer N1 expression on viral

replication, we 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 (Figure 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 (Appendix Figure S1C). 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* family member, the 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} (Figure 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 (Figure 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 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 (Figure 2B, top panel). J2 immunostaining also confirmed a lower

accumulation of dsRNA in Dicer N1 cells compared to WT cells (Figure 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 (Figure 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). 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 (Figure

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 (Figure 2E). 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 (Figure 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 (Appendix Figure

S2A). 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 (Appendix Figure S2B).

Altogether, these last results suggest that Dicer N1 expression can have an antiviral effect

for two different (+) RNA viruses (SFV and EV71), and a proviral effect for a third one (SARS-

CoV-2). This antiviral property does not seem to be active in the case of a (-) RNA virus, VSV,

which 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

(Figure EV1A). 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 viral genomic and antigenomic RNAs, with a bias in favor of the former,

and showed a peak at 22 nt, consistent with a Dicer-mediated cleavage (Figure 3A, Appendix

Figure S3A). However, there was no real difference in size distribution or strand origin between

Dicer WT and N1 cells. Small RNAs mapped to the viral genome showed a strong enrichment

at the 5' extremity of the genomic RNA in both Dicer WT and N1 cells (Figure 3B, Appendix

Figure S3B), in agreement with previous reports (Kong *et al*, 2023; Zhang *et al*, 2021). The

relative number of reads that mapped to both strands of the viral RNA was similar in Dicer WT

and 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. We also checked whether the expression of Dicer N1 had an impact on the miRNA profile. The analysis of the 50 most abundant miRNAs retrieved in the sequencing data did not reveal striking differences between Dicer WT and N1 cells (Figure EV1B). Similarly, the global analysis of all miRNAs identified in the libraries showed that some lowly abundant miRNAs were differentially expressed, but when looking at miRNAs expressed at a level sufficient for exerting a physiologically relevant effect the observed differences were minimal (Figure EV1C).

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 (Figure 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 (Figure 3D). The levels of PKR and TRBP were mostly similar to the ones in Dicer N1 cells. By blotting AGO2 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 (Figure 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 (Figure 3F). 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 (Figure 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 compared to Dicer WT cells (Figure EV1D). Accordingly, the viral titer was

strongly reduced in Dicer N1 and N1-CM cells compared to Dicer WT cells (Figure EV1E).

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 (Figure

EV1F).

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 (Figure 4A). We used these lentiviral constructs, as well as catalytically inactive versions 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 and PKR expression (Figure EV2A). 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 (Figure EV2B). 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 (Figure 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 (Figure 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 cells 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 as well as similar levels of interacting proteins such as

AGO2 and TRBP (Figure EV2C), and that they were also competent for miRNA production

(Figure EV2D). 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 (Figure 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 and

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 (Figure 4E). We also

performed an infection kinetic using SINV-GFP at an MOI of 2 in NoDice and NoDiceΔPKR

cells expressing Dicer WT or the different helicase deletion mutants and monitored GFP

fluorescence every hour for 24h. The results, shown in Figure 4F, confirmed that the percentage

of GFP positive cells increased slower in NoDice cells expressing the different helicase mutants

than in the ones expressing Dicer WT, with a stronger effect in the presence of Dicer N1 or

Dicer ΔHel2i. In NoDiceΔPKR cells, the difference in GFP positive cells accumulation over

time was less marked between conditions and the differences were not significant (Figure 4F).

We confirmed these observations by performing a plaque assay in the same conditions at 12

and 16 hpi. The viral titers were significantly lower at both time points in NoDice cells

expressing Dicer helicase mutants than in the ones expressing Dicer WT, while this was not the

case in NoDiceΔPKR cells, except for a modest effect in NoDiceΔPKR expressing Dicer

ΔHel2i at 16 hpi (Figure EV2E). 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. Surprisingly, the antiviral phenotype of Dicer ΔHel1, ΔHel2i or ΔHel2 is also lost

in cells that do not express PKR, indicating that for these mutants as well, RNAi is not the sole

explanation for their behavior. We thus decided to look more into the role of PKR.

PKR, but not its catalytic activity, is directly involved in the Dicer N1 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 has lost its ability to autophosphorylate the T451 residue and to phosphorylate its targets

(Taylor *et al*, 2001). We first transduced constructs expressing 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

(Figure 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. In terms of viral capsid accumulation, no real difference

could be detected between the different conditions (Figure 5B). We measured viral particle

production by plaque assay in SINV-GFP infected cells, and could not detect any difference

between samples (Figure 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 the activation of only the WT PKR version (Figure 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 (Figure 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

(Figure 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. We also tested

whether the expression of WT or inactive PKR had an impact on SINV infection in the absence

of Dicer. We therefore transduced NoDiceΔPKR FHA:CTRL cells with constructs expressing

MYC:CTRL, MYC:PKR WT, K296R or T451A and infected them for 24h with SINV-GFP at

an MOI of 0.02. Although we could measure a small effect on Capsid protein expression (Figure

EV3A), there was no significant difference in viral titers (Figure EV3B) between conditions,

which indicates that the presence of Dicer N1 is required to observe a PKR-dependent antiviral

effect. Finally, because we observed that Dicer N1 expressing cells appeared to be more

sensitive to SARS-CoV-2 infection, we also tested the effect of removing PKR in this setting.

We therefore transduced hACE2 in NoDiceΔPKR cells and then transduced them with

FHA:Dicer WT or FHA:Dicer N1 constructs before infecting them with SARS-CoV-2 for 48h

at an MOI of 0.001. We verified that these cells expressed ACE2 and the WT or N1 isoforms

of Dicer, and monitored viral Nucleocapsid accumulation by western blot analysis (Figure 5F)

and viral titers by TCID50 (Figure 5G). While NoDice cells expressing Dicer N1 showed the

previously observed increase in viral infection levels compared to Dicer WT cells, we could

not observe the same difference in NoDiceΔPKR cells. The infection levels were globally

higher in these cells compared to NoDice cells, but we did not observe a further increase in

Dicer N1 vs. Dicer WT cells. Overall, these results suggest that the antiviral activity towards

SINV or proviral activity towards SARS-CoV-2 of Dicer N1 is linked to PKR, and in the case

of the antiviral effect, 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 (Figure EV4A). 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 (Figure 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 (Figure 6B, Figure EV4B). However, in Dicer N1 cells, these changes were

substantially more limited at both time points of infection (Figure 6C, Figure EV4B), 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 (Figure 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

determine whether specific clusters of genes were specifically deregulated between Dicer WT

and N1 cells, we looked at gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) against the human Hallmark

gene sets, which represent specific well-defined biological states or processes with coherent

expression (Figure 6E, Figure EV4C, D). In Dicer N1 cells, gene sets linked to interferon alpha,

interferon gamma, inflammatory and NF-kB responses were significantly enriched compared

to Dicer WT cells (Figure 6E). When looking at the individual enrichment plots for hallmarks

such as IFN alpha, gamma or inflammatory response and TNF alpha signaling via NF-kB, we

clearly noticed a strong enrichment score in Dicer N1 vs. Dicer WT mock cells (Figure EV4C).

These results uncovered a basal innate immunity signature linked to a subset of genes in Dicer

N1 cells. In contrast, gene sets belonging to the same hallmarks (IFN alpha, IFN gamma,

inflammatory response and TNF alpha signaling *via* NF-kB) were depleted in Dicer WT

infected vs. mock cells (Figure EV4D).

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

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

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

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

Given the seemingly upregulation of innate immune genes 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 lists

of 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 analysis was done for NF-kB/p65 (Figure 7A) and STAT2 (Figure

7B) targets, which were the ones with the greater changes, but also for IRF2 (Figure EV5A),

IRF3 (Figure EV5B) and STAT1 (Figure EV5C) targets. The results indicate first that there are

more NF-kB target genes that are regulated upon SINV infection in Dicer WT compared to

Dicer N1 cells (see the black vs. red curves in Figure 7A). This was less evident for STAT2

targets, probably due to the lower number of genes involved (Figure 7B). Surprisingly, there

were significantly more upregulated NF-kB and STAT2 targets when comparing Dicer N1

mock to Dicer WT mock than when comparing Dicer WT SINV-infected to Dicer WT mock

conditions (see the blue vs. black curves in Figure 7A, B). A global representation in the form

of heatmaps for the same sets 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 large number of these targets were more expressed in Dicer N1

mock than in Dicer WT mock condition (Figure 7C, D). We also represented DEseq2 results

obtained for NF-kB/p65 and STAT2 targets in Dicer WT infected vs mock and Dicer N1 mock

vs Dicer WT mock comparisons on volcano plots (Figure EV5D, E). Some of the most up-

regulated NF-kB targets are also listed in Figure EV5F. These plots indicate that there are

specific NF-kB and STAT2 target genes upregulated in Dicer N1 mock compared to Dicer WT

cells that are not differentially expressed in Dicer WT SINV-infected compared to mock cells.

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 (Figure 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 (Figure EV5G). Besides, the decrease in mRNA levels observed in

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

protein (Akhrymuk *et al*, 2018). We also verified whether the observed upregulation of NF-kB

targets was accompanied by an increase in basal levels of IFN-I levels in Dicer N1 cells. We

measured expression of *IFNß* mRNA by RT-qPCR in Dicer WT and Dicer N1 cells, but

although there was a tendency for an increased expression in Dicer N1 cells, it was not

significant (Figure 7F). This was not too surprising given the fact that HEK293T cells are

known for expressing low levels of IFNß even when stimulated (Ferreira *et al*, 2020).

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. This state appears to be

more a pre-inflammatory state rather than an overall pre-activation of IFN-I response. We

therefore decided to follow up on the implication of the NF-kB pathway.

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 the activation of 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 (Figure 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 until 12 hpi where it slightly decreased until 24 hpi (Figure 8A). At the same time, we noticed a higher level of NF-kB/p65 protein at both 12 and 24 hpi. To further link the phosphorylation of p65 to a de-regulation of PKR in Dicer N1 cells, we infected NoDiceΔPKR cells expressing FHA:Dicer N1 and transduced with either a MYC:CTRL or a MYC:PKR WT construct and measured the levels of p65, its phosphorylated form and capsid protein by western blot analysis. We confirmed the effect of the lack of PKR on SINV capsid accumulation and observed an increase in phospho-p65 in both mock- and SINV-infected cells only when PKR expression was restored (Figure 8B). The increase in NF-kB activity in Dicer N1 cells expressing PKR could also be validated by measuring expression of its target PTGS2 by RT-qPCR (Figure 8C).

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 8D, we observed a dose-dependent decrease in the

phosphorylation of p65 in mock-infected cells treated with 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. These results indicate that the treatment was

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

levels of the previously validated NF-kB target PTGS2 by RT-qPCR. In Dicer N1 cells treated

with BAY 11-7082, the level of this mRNA was reduced in a dose-dependent manner compared

to the control condition (Figure 8E). The effect of the NF-kB inhibitor on viral infection could

be visualized first by the increased accumulation of the capsid protein in SINV-GFP infected

cells treated with 5 µM of BAY 11-7082 compared to DMSO-treated cells (Figure 8D). Finally,

we measured the effect of NF-kB inhibition on viral particle production, and observed a

significant increase in viral titers in Dicer N1 cells treated with 5µM of BAY compared to the

negative control (Figure 8F). 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 (Appendix Figure S4A, B). Overall, these results indicate that by blocking the NF-

kB/p65 pathway with BAY 11-7082, the antiviral activity of Dicer N1 can 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 increased RNAi activity directed against either 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 the antiviral phenotype of all deletion mutants tested. 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 antiviral in our hands 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. We do not believe that miRNAs are involved in the phenotype of Dicer N1 since there were no dramatic changes in miRNA profiles induced by its expression. 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. Surprisingly, we also observed that expression of Dicer N1 had a proviral effect in the case of SARS-CoV-2, and that this phenotype was also dependent on

PKR expression. This observation definitely rules out the involvement of RNAi since the virus

levels are increased in this case.

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 showed a significant enrichment of gene sets related to IFN alpha/gamma

and inflammatory/NF-kB responses. Specifically, we could identify among the differentially

expressed genes 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). By measuring expression levels of *IFNß* mRNA in Dicer N1 expressing cells, we

could hypothesize that most of the observed effect results from a de-regulation of the NF-kB

pathway without a requirement for cytokine production. We confirmed this hypothesis by

treating Dicer N1 expressing cells with an NF-kB inhibitor, which resulted in the abrogation of

their antiviral phenotype. We can therefore assume that the transcriptional deregulation of key

genes involved in the innate immune response and under the control of NF-kB was responsible

for the observed effect on virus infection. Furthermore, the fact that Dicer N1 cells presented

increased levels of SARS-CoV-2 infection is also in favor of an involvement of NF-kB

signaling. 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). A very recent study confirmed the

proviral role of the NF-kB pathway in SARS-CoV-2 infected lung cells(Bhargava *et al*, 2023).

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

its interplay with other antiviral responses. Dicer helicase domain sequesters PKR away from

its conventional 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 also

interact with Dicer *via* its helicase domain and thus cannot interact with it anymore in the Dicer

N1 cells, they are 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. Of

course, it remains to be seen whether our observations, which were done in one specific cell

line, can be generalized to other cellular systems. In particular, this point is crucial for 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 RNAi and other innate

immune pathways, in this case NF-kB, and highlights a non-canonical function of human Dicer

upon infection (Figure 9). We showed that Dicer helicase domain is linked to the regulation of

immune signaling pathways, and can therefore potentially prevent unwanted activation of these

pathways. This new function depends on a non-catalytic action of PKR, which can activate the

NF-kB pathway, when no longer interacting with Dicer. In turn, depending on the virus, this

activity results either in an antiviral or a proviral effect.

 MATERIALS & 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 (Takara

Bio). PKR K296R and PKR T451A were obtained by InFusion mutagenesis (Takara Bio) on

pLenti MYC:PKR vector.

All primers used are listed in Appendix Table S1.

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 lines were tested

for Mycoplasma contamination.

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

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

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

BAY 11-7082 treatment

626   NoDice FHA:DICER WT and N1 cells were treated with BAY 11-7082 (Merck) by replacing

627   the culture medium with a medium containing the indicated BAY 11-7082 concentrations at

628   1µM or 5µM or the corresponding volume of DMSO only in the control conditions. Treatment

629   was maintained for 1h and media was changed with the infection media with SINV-GFP at an

630   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 reagent (Invitrogen, Fisher Scientific) reagent

according to the manufacturer's protocol. HEK293T cells 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:CTRL or FHA:DICER WT or FHA:DICER N1 (for CTRL,

PKR, K296R, T451A), NoDice or NoDiceΔPKR FHA DICER WT or N1 (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:CTRL or DICER WT, the selection lasted 11 days with hygromycin at 100µg/mL and for

NoDiceΔPKR FHA:DICER N1 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 and for SINV-

GFP at another MOI of 2 and samples were collected at the different indicated time points in a

BSL2 facility.

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 in a BSL2 facility.

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 in a BSL2 facility.

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 in a BSL2 facility.

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

0.001 for 48 hours in a BSL3 facility.

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 plaque 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 to the Spearman-

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

Live-cell imaging

One-hundred thousand NoDice and NoDiceΔPKR polyclonal FHA:DICER WT, N1, ΔHEL1,

ΔHEL2i and ΔHEL2 cells were seeded in a 24-well plate and infected with SINV-GFP at an

MOI of 2. Uninfected cells were used as control. GFP fluorescence and phase contrast were

observed using a CellcyteX live-cell imaging system (Discover Echo). Six images per well

(10X objective) were acquired every 6 hour for 24 h and were analyzed with the Cellcyte Studio

software to determine cell confluency and GFP relative intensity.

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, 150 mM 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 30 μg 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 135 V 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 (Carl Roth) diluted in PBS-Tween (PBS-T)

0.2%. 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).

Panels IkBa (Appendix Figure-S4A), DICER (Figure 4B) and IkBa (Figure 8D) were contrasted

and adjusted uniformly using an image processing software. All the bands were quantified using

the FiJi software (Schindelin *et al*, 2012) and normalized to the housekeeping gene.

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 4 M 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 Appendix Table S1) 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, Fisher Scientific).

DNase treated RNAs were then retro-transcribed using a random nonameric primer 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

Appendix Table S1.

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 – Appendix Table S1). 100 ng of

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

were mixed and incubated at 65°C for 5 min. 4 µL of 5X SSIV Buffer (Invitrogen, Fisher

Scientific), 1 µL of 0.1M DTT (dithiothreitol), 1 µL of RNase inhibitor (Ribolock, Fisher

Scientific) and 1 µL of SSIV reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen) were added and the mix was

incubated at 55°C for 10 min then at 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 (Appendix

Table S1). 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 (50 mM 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 12000 g 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 or N1 cells were plated in P150mm petri dishes at 25000000 cells

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

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

EDTA, 1% NP-40, 0.5 mM DTT, 0.1 U/mL of RNase inhibitor and protease inhibitor cocktail

(complete Mini, Merck, Sigma Aldrich)). Cells were lysed by putting the extract on ice for 15

min. 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, 50 µL 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 3 h at 4°C

under rotation. Meanwhile, lysates were cleared with a centrifugation step at 10000 g for 10min

at 4°C and 100 µL were kept as INPUT (20 µL for proteins and 80 µL 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 300 µL of ice-cold washing buffer, beads were split:

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

were isolated according to the manufacturer's instructions; 20 µL 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).

Small RNA libraries were prepared using the Illumina TruSeq small RNA library preparation

kit 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 or N1 cells were plated in P100mm petri dishes at 5000000 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 mRNAs 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 <sample>-cutadapt.fastq <sample>.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 <sample>-preprocessed.fastq <sample>-

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 localization

along the viral genome were both made in R using a custom Shiny application based on the

ggplot2 (Wickham, 2009) and Bioconductor Gviz (Hahne & Ivanek, 2016) packages

respectively.

Furthermore, expressed human miRNAs (miRBase v22.1 (Kozomara & Griffiths-Jones, 2011),

among which known mirtrons (Wen *et al*, 2015), were also identified and quantified in each

library using BEDTools v2.30.0 (Quinlan & Hall, 2010) by comparing their genomic

coordinates to those of the original aligned reads and by counting only reads overlapping at

least 80% of the miRNAs sequence (command: bedtools intersect -a <sample>-

hg38coreGencodeSINVGFP.bwtmap.bed -b hsa-matmir.bed -f 0.80 -wa -wb -s). Multiple

mapped reads were weighted by the number of mapping sites in other miRNAs, and the final

counts obtained for each miRNA were rounded down before further analysis. Differential

miRNA expression analysis between the two AGO-IP conditions was then performed with the

DESeq2 package (Love *et al*, 2014) by using an adjusted p-value < 0.05 and an absolute log2

fold change > 1as thresholds to define statistical significance. The heatmap of the 50 most

abundant miRs expressed in the AGO-IP samples (regularized-logarithm (rlog) transformed

counts) and the MA plot of the DESeq2 results were made in R with the Heatmaply (Galili *et*

al, 2018) and ggplot2 (Wickham, 2009) packages respectively, inside the same custom Shiny

application as previously mentioned.

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 <sample>

--quiet <sample>_R1.fq <sample>_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/<sample>_preprocessed_R1.fq.gz -2

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

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

with the tximport (Soneson *et al*, 2015) 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) (Liberzon *et*

al, 2015), 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

(Wickham, 2009) and ggrepel (https://github.com/slowkow/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 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 analyes were done with PRISM 10 (GraphPad) using One-way

or Two-way ANOVA with Sidak's or Dunnett's corrections with a p-value threshold at $p<0.05$

on the logarithmic values.

All the qPCR statistical analyses were done with PRISM 10 (GraphPad) using t-test with

Welch's correction 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 the source data file

"Statistics_details.xlxs".

Data availability

The datasets produced in this study have been deposited in NCBI's Gene Expression Omnibus

(Edgar *et al*, 2002) and are accessible through GEO Series accession number GSE241798

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE241798).

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985 DISCLOSURE AND COMPETING INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Figure 1. Dicer N1 decreases SINV viral accumulation in human cells
A. Mean (+/- SEM) of SINV, SINV-GFP and SINV-2A-GFP viral titers in NoDice
FHA:DICER WT and N1 infected at an MOI ranging from 0.001 to 1 for 24h (n = 3 biological
replicates) from plaque assay quantification. Ordinary two-way ANOVA test with Sidak's
correction. ***: $p < 0.001$; ****: $p < 0.0001$. **B.** Western blot analysis of DICER, CAPSID and
GFP expression in SINV, SINV-GFP and SINV-2A-GFP infected NoDice FHA:DICER WT
and N1 cells at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Alpha-Tubulin was used as loading control. Band
intensity was quantified and normalized to Tubulin for three independent biological replicates.
Mean values (+/- SD) are indicated under the corresponding lane. **C.** Immunofluorescence
analysis on NoDice FHA:DICER WT and N1 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). Scale bar = 100 μm, n = 3 biological
replicates. **D.** RT-qPCR on SINV genome in NoDice FHA:DICER WT and N1 cells infected
with SINV-GFP at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Mean (+/- SEM); n = 3 biological replicates.
Unpaired t-test. ***: $p < 0.001$.

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Figure 2. Dicer N1 is antiviral against alphaviruses and an enterovirus but not against a rhabdovirus and a coronavirus.

A. (Top) Mean (+/- SEM) of SFV viral titers in NoDice FHA:DICER WT and N1 cells infected at an MOI of 1.10^{-4} for 24h (n = 3 biological replicates) from plaque assay quantification. Unpaired t-test with Welch's correction. *: $p < 0.05$. (Bottom) Immunofluorescence analysis on NoDice FHA:DICER WT and N1 cells in SFV infected cells. J2 antibody (red) was used to detect dsRNA upon infection. DAPI was used to stain the nuclei (blue). Scale bar = 100 μm, n = 3 biological replicates. **B.** (Top) Mean (+/- SEM) of EV71 viral titers in NoDice FHA:DICER WT and N1 infected at an MOI of 0.1 for 24h (n = 3 biological replicates) from TCID50 quantification. Unpaired t-test. *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p<0.01$. (Bottom) Immunofluorescence analysis on NoDice FHA:DICER WT and N1 cells in EV71 infected cells. J2 antibody (red) was used to detect dsRNA upon infection. DAPI was used to stain the nuclei (blue). Scale bar = 100 μm, n = 3 biological replicates. **C.** (Top) Mean (+/- SEM) of VSV-GFP viral titers in NoDice FHA:DICER WT and N1 infected at an MOI of 1.10^{-5} for 24h (n = 3 biological replicates) from plaque assay quantification. Unpaired t-test. ns: non-significant. (Bottom) Immunofluorescence analysis on NoDice FHA:DICER WT and N1 cells in VSV-GFP infected cells. J2 antibody (red) was used to detect dsRNA upon infection. DAPI was used to stain the nuclei (blue). Scale bar = 100 μm, n = 3 biological replicates. **D.** Western blot analysis of human ACE2 and HA (for DICER) expression in NoDice FHA:DICER WT and N1 cells (n = 3 biological replicates). Alpha-Tubulin was used as loading control. **E.** Western blot analysis of DICER and NUCLEOCAPSID expression in SARS-CoV-2 infected NoDice FHA:DICER WT and N1 cells at an MOI of 0.001 for 48h. GAPDH was used as loading control. Band intensity was quantified and normalized to GAPDH for three independent biological replicates, then represented as mean (+/- SD) under the corresponding lane. **F.** Mean (+/- SEM) of SARS-CoV-2 viral titers in NoDice FHA:DICER WT and N1 infected at an MOI of 0.001 for 48h (n = 3 biological replicates) from TCID50 quantification. Unpaired t-test. *: $p < 0.05$.

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Figure 3. Dicer N1 catalytic activity is not involved in its antiviral phenotype
A. Representative histograms of the distribution of viral reads (in percent) per RNA length upon
AGO proteins immunoprecipitation and small RNA sequencing in NoDice FHA:DICER WT
(top) and N1 (bottom) cells infected with SINV-GFP at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Data from
Replicate 1. 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 (top) and N1 (bottom) cells.
On the bottom: magnification of the mapping for the first 1000nt. Data from Replicate 1. 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, N1 and N1-CM (n = 3 biological replicates). Alpha-
Tubulin was used as a loading control. **E.** Northern blot analysis of mirR-16 expression in the
same samples as in D (n = 3 biological replicates). Expression of snRNA U6 was used as a
loading control. **F.** Western blot analysis of DICER and CAPSID expression in SINV-GFP
infected cells at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Alpha-Tubulin was used as loading control. Band

intensity was quantified and normalized to Tubulin for three independent biological replicates,
then represented as mean (+/- SD) under the corresponding lane. **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 biological
replicates) from plaque assay quantification. Ordinary one-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's
correction. **: $p < 0.01$.
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Figure 4. Dicer helicase sub-domains as well as PKR are important for Dicer antiviral activity

A. Schematic representation of the different Dicer helicase subdomain mutants. **B.** Western blot analysis of 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, ΔHEL1, ΔHEL1-CM, ΔHEL2, ΔHEL2-CM, ΔHEL2i and ΔHEL2i-CM. Alpha-Tubulin was used as loading control. Band intensity was quantified and normalized to Tubulin for three independent biological replicates, then represented as mean (+/- SD) under the corresponding lane. **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 biological replicates) from plaque assay quantification. Ordinary one-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's correction. ***: p < 0.001; ****:

p < 0.0001; ns: non-significant. **D.** Western blot analysis of DICER and CAPSID expression in SINV-GFP infected cells at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Polyclonal NoDice FHA:DICER (top) and NoDiceΔPKR FHA:DICER (bottom) helicase mutant cells are represented. Alpha-Tubulin was used as loading control. Band intensity was quantified and normalized to Tubulin for three independent biological replicates, then represented as mean (+/- SD) under the corresponding lane. **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 biological replicates) from plaque assay quantification. Ordinary one-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's correction. *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$; ***: $p < 0.001$; ns: non-significant. **F.** Mean (+/- SEM) of SINV-GFP fluorescence detection per cell area in the same samples as in D and E, infected at an MOI of 2 between 0 and 24h (n = 3 biological replicates). In NoDice cells, all differences were significant (*: $p < 0.05$) between 9 and 18hpi, but were only significant for Dicer N1 and ΔHEL2i-expressing cells between 19 and 23 hpi. At earlier time points, significance was not reached. In NoDiceΔPKR cells, significance was never reached. Ordinary two-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's correction.

Figure 5. PKR requirements for Dicer N1 anti- or pro-viral activity
A. Schematic representation of PKR and its two point mutants: K296R and T451A. **B.** Western
blot analysis of DICER, p-PKR, PKR and CAPSID expression in SINV-GFP infected
NoDiceΔPKR FHA:DICER WT cells expressing MYC:EMPTY CTRL vector, MYC:PKR,
MYC K296R or MYC:T451A at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Alpha-Tubulin was used as loading
control. Band intensity was quantified and normalized to Tubulin for three independent
biological replicates, then represented as mean (+/- SD) under the corresponding lane; p-PKR
= p-PKR/PKR quantification. **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 biological replicates) from plaque assay

quantification. Ordinary one-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's correction. ns: non-significant.
D. Western blot analysis of DICER, p-PKR, PKR and CAPSID expression in SINV-GFP
infected NoDiceΔPKR FHA:DICER N1 cells expressing MYC:EMPTY CTRL vector,
MYC:PKR, MYC K296R or MYC:T451A at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Alpha-Tubulin was used
as loading control. Band intensity was quantified and normalized to Tubulin for three
independent biological replicates, then represented as mean (+/- SD) under the corresponding
lane; p-PKR = p-PKR/PKR quantification. **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 biological replicates) from
plaque assay quantification. Ordinary one-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's correction. *: p <
0.05. **F.** Western blot analysis of DICER, human ACE2, PKR and NUCLEOCAPSID
expression in SARS-CoV-2 infected NoDice FHA:DICER WT or N1 and NoDiceΔPKR
FHA:DICER WT or N1 cells at an MOI of 0.001 for 48h. GAPDH was used as loading control.
Band intensity was quantified and normalized to GAPDH for three independent biological
replicates, then represented as mean (+/- SD) under the corresponding lane. **G.** Mean (+/- SEM)
of SARS-CoV-2 viral titers in the same samples as in F, infected at an MOI of 0.001 for 48h (n
= 3 biological replicates) from TCID50 quantification. Unpaired t-test with Welch's correction.
*: p < 0.05; **: p<0.01.
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Figure 6. Dicer N1 and WT cells exhibit transcriptomic differences linked to an immune-related response

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 plots for differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between SINV-infected (MOI of 0.02 for 24h) and mock NoDice FHA:DICER WT cells (B); SINV-infected and mock NoDice FHA:DICER N1 cells (C); mock NoDice FHA:DICER WT and mock NoDice FHA:DICER N1 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 (Wald test, DESeq2 package) and the vertical ones the Log2 fold change cut-off (-1 and 1). (n = 3 biological replicates). **E.** Biological states and processes associated terms enrichment performed with GSEA using the hallmark gene sets. Colors indicate NES (normalized

1354   enrichment score) that are either positive (red) or negative (blue). Dot size corresponds to -
1355   log10(FDR q-val) of enrichment.
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Figure 7. NF-kB/p65 and STAT2 transcription factors are involved in Dicer N1 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 cells infected with SINV vs. mock.
p-values are indicated on each histogram. Black: WT SINV-002-24h vs WT MOCK; red: N1
SINV-002-24h vs N1 MOCK; blue: 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
biological replicates. Unpaired t-test. **: $p < 0.01$; ***: $p < 0.001$; ****: $p < 0.0001$. **F.** RT-
qPCR on IFN ß gene in WT and N1 cells in mock condition. Mean (+/- SEM); n = 3 biological
replicates. Unpaired t-test. ns: non-significant.
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Figure 8. NF-kB/p65 is activated by PKR in Dicer N1 cells and is involved in their antiviral
phenotype
A. Western blot analysis of DICER, p-p65, p65 and CAPSID expression in SINV-GFP infected
NoDice FHA:DICER WT and N1 cells at an MOI of 0.02 between 3 and 24h. Alpha-Tubulin
was used as loading control. Band intensity was quantified and normalized to Tubulin for three
independent biological replicates, then represented as mean (+/- SD) under the corresponding
lane; p-p65 = p-p65/p65 quantification. **B.** Western blot analysis of DICER, p-p65, p65 and
CAPSID in SINV-GFP infected NoDiceΔPKR FHA:DICER N1 cells expressing
MYC:EMPTY CTRL vector or MYC:PKR at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Alpha-Tubulin was used
as loading control. Band intensity was quantified and normalized to Tubulin for three
independent biological replicates, then represented as mean (+/- SD) under the corresponding
lane; p-p65 = p-p65/p65 quantification. **C.** RT-qPCR on PTGS2 (NF-kB/p65 target) in the same
samples as in B, in mock condition only. Mean (+/- SEM), n = 3 biological replicates. Unpaired
t-test. ***: $p < 0.001$. **D.** Western blot analysis of DICER, p-p65, p65, CAPSID and IkBα
expression in SINV-GFP infected NoDice FHA:DICER N1 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. Alpha-Tubulin was used as loading control.
Band intensity was quantified and normalized to Tubulin for three independent biological
replicates, then represented as mean (+/- SD) under the corresponding lane; p-p65 = p-p65/p65
quantification. **E.** RT-qPCR on PTGS2 (NF-kB/p65 target) in NoDice FHA:DICER N1 mock
cells treated with BAY 11-7082 or the vehicle (DMSO) at the indicated concentrations for 1h.
Mean (+/- SEM), n = 3 biological replicates. Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Sidak's
correction. **: $p < 0.01$; ns: non-significant. **F.** 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 biological replicates) from

plaque assay quantification. Ordinary one-way ANOVA test with Sidak's correction. **: p <
0.01; ns: non-significant.
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Figure 9. The Dicer N1 antiviral property is primed by PKR activation of NF-kB/p65 in mock cells.

With the first two parts of its helicase domain deleted, Dicer N1 is antiviral against SINV but pro-viral for SARS-CoV-2. This phenotype does not depend on RNAi, but instead relies on the presence of PKR in N1 cells. Nonetheless, PKR catalytic and/or dimerization activities are not required in that case. PKR is needed to activate a basal transcriptional response in Dicer N1 cells relying on immune-related transcription factors such as NF-kB/p65. NF-kB/p65 is directly involved in Dicer N1 antiviral phenotype thanks to its priming in Dicer N1 mock cells. However, we cannot exclude the existence of another mechanism that may favor SARS-CoV-2 infection.

Figure EV1. Dicer N1 retains the same miRNA profile and interacting partners upon infection

A. Representation of small RNA reads distribution (in percent) upon AGO-IP in the three replicates for NoDice FHA:DICER WT and N1. Green: reads mapping to human RNAs only; Red: reads mapping to viral RNAs only; grey: reads mapping to both human and viral RNAs. **B.** Heatmap representing the relative expression levels of the 50 most abundant human miRNAs in all three replicates upon AGO-IP followed by small RNA sequencing in SINV-GFP infected NoDice FHA:DICER WT and N1 cells at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. **C.** MA plot for miRNA enrichment upon AGO-IP followed by small RNA sequencing in SINV-GFP infected NoDice FHA:DICER N1 vs WT cells at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Each dot represents a miRNA either up- (red), down- (blue) or un-regulated (grey). **D,** Western blot analysis of DICER and CAPSID expression in SINV-GFP infected polyclonal NoDice FHA:DICER WT, N1 and N1-CM cells at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Alpha-Tubulin was used as loading control. Band intensity was quantified and normalized to Tubulin for three independent biological replicates, then represented as mean (+/- SD) under the corresponding lane. **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 biological replicates) from plaque assay quantification. Ordinary one-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's correction. ****: $p < 0.0001$. **F.** Western blot analysis of Dicer interacting partners upon HA-IP in NoDice FHA:DICER WT, N1 and N1-CM cells, in mock (left) or SINV-GFP infected (right) conditions at an MOI of 2 for 6h (n = 3 biological replicates). Anti-HA antibodies were used to validate the immunoprecipitation and Ponceau was used as a loading control.

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Figure EV2. The helicase sub-domains as well as PKR are important for Dicer antiviral
activity
A. Western blot analysis of DICER, HA, AGO2, PKR and TRBP expression in the monoclonal
cell lines NoDice FHA:DICER WT, N1, ΔHEL1, ΔHEL2i and ΔHEL2 (left, n = 3 biological
replicates) and ΔHEL1-CM, ΔHEL2i-CM and ΔHEL2-CM (right, n = 2 biological replicates).
Alpha-Tubulin was used as a loading control. **B.** Northern blot analysis of mirR-16 expression
in the same samples as in A (n = 3 biological replicates for ΔHEL1, 2i and 2; n = 2 biological
replicates for ΔHEL1-CM, 2i-CM and 2-CM). Expression of snRNA U6 was used as a loading
control. **C.** Western blot analysis of DICER, HA, AGO2, PKR and TRBP expression in the
polyclonal cell lines NoDiceΔPKR FHA:DICER WT, N1, ΔHEL1, ΔHEL2i and ΔHEL2 (n =
1 biological replicate). Alpha-Tubulin was used as a loading control. **D,** Northern blot analysis
of mirR-16 expression in the same samples as in C (n = 2 biological replicates). Expression of
snRNA U6 was used as a loading control. **E.** Mean (+/- SEM) of SINV-GFP viral titers in the
polyclonal cell lines NoDice and NoDiceΔPKR FHA:DICER WT, N1, ΔHEL1, ΔHEL2i and
ΔHEL2, infected at an MOI of 2 for 12h (left) or 16h (right) from plaque assay quantification
(n = 3 biological replicates). Ordinary one-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's correction. **: p
< 0.01; ***: p < 0.001; ****: p < 0.0001; ns: non-significant.
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Figure EV3. PKR dimerization and/or catalytic activities do not change the infection outcome in NoDiceΔPKR FHA:CTRL cells

A. Western blot analysis of DICER, p-PKR, PKR and CAPSID expression in SINV-GFP infected NoDiceΔPKR FHA:CTRL cells expressing MYC:EMPTY CTRL vector, MYC:PKR, MYC K296R or MYC:T451A at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Alpha-Tubulin was used as loading control. Band intensity was quantified and normalized to Tubulin for three independent biological replicates, then represented as mean (+/- SD) under the corresponding lane; p-PKR = p-PKR/PKR quantification. **B.** Mean (+/- SEM) of SINV-GFP viral titers in the same samples as in A, infected at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h (n = 3 biological replicates) from plaque assay quantification. Ordinary one-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's correction. ns: non-significant.

Figure EV4. Dicer N1 cells express a different gene set from Dicer WT cells
A. SINV-GFP genomic and subgenomic read distribution detected by RNA-sequencing analysis in NoDice FHA:DICER WT or N1 cells uninfected (NI, grey) or infected at an MOI of 2 for 12h (orange) or 0.02 for 24h (purple). The viral reads number (mean +/- SEM) is normalized to the total mapped reads in each condition. TPM: transcripts per million. Ordinary two-way ANOVA test with Sidak's correction. ****: $p < 0.0001$; ns: non-significant. (n = 3 biological replicates). **B.** Volcano plots showing for each gene the log2 fold change and adjusted p value (Wald test, DESeq2 package) between SINV-infected (MOI of 2 for 12h) and mock NoDice FHA:DICER WT cells (left), or SINV-infected and mock NoDice FHA:DICER N1 cells (right). Each gene is marked as a dot (red: upregulated, blue: downregulated, 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). (n = 3 biological replicates). **C-D**, GSEA enrichment plots for selected biological states and processes linked to inflammatory and antiviral pathways for mock NoDice FHA:DICER N1 vs mock NoDice FHA:DICER WT (C), or SINV-infected (MOI of 0.02 for 24h) vs. mock NoDice FHA:DICER WT cells (D).

Figure EV5. Immune-related transcription factors activation is involved in the deregulation of Dicer N1 cells mRNAs

A-C. Histograms representing the cumulative probability of differentially expressed genes controlled by the transcription factors IRF2 (A), IRF3 (B) or STAT1 (C), plotted according to their Log2 fold change. The vertical lines stand for the Log2 fold change cut-offs (-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 cells infected with SINV vs. mock. p-values are indicated on each histogram. Black: WT SINV-002-24h vs WT MOCK; red: N1 SINV-002-24h vs N1 MOCK; blue: N1 MOCK vs WT MOCK. **D-E.** Volcano plots for differentially expressed genes (DEGs) under the control of NF-kB/p65 (D) or STAT2 (E). Each gene is marked as a dot and plotted based on its log2 fold change and adjusted p values (Wald test, DESeq2 package) comparing SINV-infected (MOI of 0.02 for 24h) vs mock NoDice FHA:DICER WT cells (left), or mock NoDice FHA:DICER WT vs mock NoDice FHA:DICER N1 cells (right). The horizontal line denotes an adjusted p-value of 0.05 and the vertical ones the Log2 fold change cut-offs (-1 and 1). **F.** Table of 15 representative upregulated NF-kB/p65 targets from the DEGs in the comparison mock NoDice FHA:DICER N1 vs mock NoDice FHA:DICER WT. Classification was made according to their Log2 fold change values.

1521   padj: adjusted p-value (Wald test, DESeq2 package). **G.** RT-qPCR on selected DEGs controlled
1522   by either NF-kB/p65 or STAT2 in NoDice FHA:DICER WT and N1 cells infected or not with
1523   SINV-GFP at an MOI of 0.02 for 24h. Mean (+/- SEM); n = 3 biological replicates. One-way
1524   ANOVA with Sidak's correction. *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$; ***: $p < 0.001$; ****: $p < 0.0001$;
1525   ns: non-significant.
1526