Nuclear RNAi Modulates Influenza A Virus Infectivity By Downregulating Type-I Interferon Response

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ABSTRACT

The role of Argonaute (AGO) proteins and the RNA interference (RNAi) machinery in

mammalian antiviral response has been debated. Therefore, we set out to investigate how

mammalian RNAi impacts influenza A virus (IAV) infection. We demonstrate that IAV

infection triggers nuclear accumulation of AGO2, which is directly facilitated by p53

activation. Mechanistically, we show that IAV induces nuclear AGO2 targeting of TRIM71, a

proposed AGO2 E3 ligase, and type-I interferon-pathway genes for silencing. Hence, the RNAi

machinery is highjacked by the virus to evade the immune system and support viral replication.

We demonstrate that the FDA approved drug arsenic trioxide prevents nuclear AGO2:p53

accumulation, thereby increasing interferon response and decreasing viral replication *in vitro*

and in a mouse model *in vivo*. Our data indicates that targeting the AGO2:p53-mediated

silencing of innate immunity may offer a promising strategy to mitigate viral infections.

INTRODUCTION

Argonaute (AGO) proteins have a central role in RNA interference (RNAi), where they are guided by endogenous miRNA or exogenous siRNA to recognize (partially) complementary sequences on target RNAs [1]. Together, AGO-small RNA (smRNA) constitutes the core of the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC), a multiprotein complex that deregulates RNA transcripts, resulting in target destabilization [1]. RNAi has a well-established role in antiviral defense in certain eukaryotes, including plants, insects and nematodes [2,3]. However, in mammals, the role of RNAi as an antiviral defense mechanism is more controversial: indeed, while some studies described antiviral RNAi functions [4,5], many others reported a lack of evidence for direct antiviral activity [6]. What has not been extensively investigated is whether RNAi could be hijacked by viruses to their advantage. Sparse evidence suggests that loss of RNAi after viral infection may indeed decrease viral titers with concomitant increased expression of antiviral genes [6-8]. The overall picture and detailed mechanisms of action remain, however, elusive.

Upon infection with influenza A virus (IAV), the innate immune system serves as the body's primary defense, swiftly initiating a response to combat invading pathogens [9]. A crucial facet of the innate immune response to IAV is the synthesis of type-I interferons (IFN-Is) by infected cells. These interferons subsequently activate neighboring cells to produce antiviral proteins, which are essential in curtailing the severity and duration of infections [10]. Viral RNAs, in their single-strand or intermediate format, can be recognized by the Toll-like receptors TLR3 and TLR7 to activate IFN transcription via NF-kβ, IRF-3 or IRF-7 [9]. Collectively, viral RNAs therefore activate the immune system by different mechanisms, which all lead to interferon production. Additionally, the tripartite motif (TRIM) family of proteins modulates the production, signaling, and effector functions of IFN-Is, thereby influencing immune responses and host defense against pathogens. Notably, TRIM25, TRIM56, and TRIM71 exert positive regulatory roles in the IFN-I pathway [11].

From the IAV side, the multifunctional nonstructural protein 1 (NS1) of IAV serves as an RNA-binding protein, facilitating mRNA export from the nucleus. Interestingly, NS1 can re-enter the cell nucleus and has a pivotal role in antagonizing host immune responses and facilitating pathogenesis [12-15]. Furthermore, NS1 has been shown to inhibit TRIM25 oligomerization, thus suppressing RIG-I-mediated IFN production [16]. Therefore, NS1 is the key player in IAV innate immune evasion, with multiple functions; notably, NS1 is also able to block RISC ribosylation [7]. It has been shown that ribosylation of the RISC complex leads to

the shutdown of RNAi mechanisms. This is intriguing because it suggests that it is in the virus'
best interest to maintain RNAi function. However, while it was shown that two specific
miRNAs could inhibit interferon-stimulated genes (ISGs) in IFN-treated cells, there are still
open questions regarding global, mechanistic functions of RNAi after viral infections.

Adding to the complexity of viral regulation of RISC function is the identification of
nuclear RNAi. In metazoans, cytoplasmic RNAi processes are well documented [17], yet the core
RISC components – AGOs and miRNAs – have been found in cell nuclei [18-21]. Indeed, various
mechanisms of stress-induced nuclear translocation of AGOs have been proposed, including
DNA damage and viral infection [22,23]. While cytoplasmic AGO2 is well known as a critical
component of RISC and is involved in siRNA/miRNA-mediated gene suppression pathways
[24], little is known about the specific functions of nuclear AGO2. This is particularly relevant to
disentangle the controversies around the role of RNAi in mammals after viral infections.

To comprehensively address the role of RNAi following IAV infection, we combined
in vitro and *in vivo* experimental models with fluorescence-based photoactivatable
ribonucleoside-enhanced crosslinking and immunoprecipitation (fPAR-CLIP) to pinpoint
AGO2 targets at nucleotide resolution. We demonstrate that upon IAV infection, NS1 mediates
AGO2 translocation into the cell nucleus to silence TRIM71 and IFN-pathway-related genes,
thereby increasing viral replication. Our data provide important mechanistic insights into
previously underappreciated modalities of viral resistance.

RESULTS

Viral infection induces nuclear accumulation of AGO2

AGO2 may localize both in the cytoplasm and the nucleus of human cells [25]. For instance, we previously demonstrated the absence of nuclear AGO2 in HEK293 cells [21,25] However, we observed a high degree of nuclear AGO2 in HEK293T cells, which are HEK293 cells transformed with SV40 large T (LT) antigen, the master regulator of polyomaviruses [26] (**Fig 1A**). Biochemical fractionation of HEK293T cells showed a near 50-50 distribution of AGO2 between the cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions (**Fig 1A**). Moreover, transient overexpression of SV40 LT antigen in HEK293 cells led to the translocation of AGO2 into the nucleus (**Fig 1B**), indicating the involvement of SV40 LT antigen in AGO2 nuclear accumulation. These observations prompted us to investigate whether nuclear translocation of AGO2 is a general feature of viral infections.

To address this, we took advantage of PR8 strain of IAV as a model system. HEK293 cells were infected with PR8-IAV at several multiplicity of infection (MOI) 10 for 16 hours, and biochemical fractionation experiments were performed (**Fig 1C**). Remarkably, we observed robust nuclear translocation of AGO2 upon infection with PR8-IAV (**Fig 1C**). Intriguingly, we also observed the nuclear translocation of AGO1, AGO3, and AGO4 proteins at MOI of 10 (**Fig 1C**), suggesting that the nuclear accumulation of RNAi factors is a general phenomenon during IAV infection. To visualize the nuclear accumulation of AGO2 upon viral infection, we utilized a fluorescently tagged PR8 virus strain, which has mCherry inserted within the NS1 protein [27], and performed confocal microscopy (**Fig 1D**).

IAV consists of eight gene segments that encode up to 17 viral proteins [28]. To identify the specific gene segment responsible for AGO2 nuclear accumulation, we transiently expressed each influenza protein in HEK293 cells and performed biochemical fractionation assays. Interestingly, we found that NS1 is the primary viral factor triggering AGO2 nuclear translocation (**Fig 1E**). Furthermore, we observed nuclear co-localization of AGO2 with NS1 after transient expression of mCherry-tagged NS1 protein (**Fig 1F**). Collectively, these findings suggest that viral proteins, including SV40 LT antigen and IAV NS1, induce nuclear accumulation of AGO1-4.

AGO2 interacts with p53 in the nucleus upon viral infection

Having established the nuclear translocation of AGO2, after IAV infection, we next wanted to identify potential interacting partners of AGO2 involved in its translocation or stabilization. Therefore, we retrieved a list of AGO2-associated proteins (**Sup Table 1**) from the

Harmonizome database [29], and performed a protein-protein interaction network analysis by

STRING (**Fig 2A**). We identified that AGO2 directly interacts with p53, as well as with other

well-known components of the RISC complex (**Fig 2A**). Interestingly, SV40 LT antigen also

possesses a p53 binding domain [30], Therefore, we wondered whether p53 may play a role in

the nuclear translocation of AGO2 after viral infection and whether p53 can also interact with

the NS1 component of IAV.

To address these questions, we first examined the subcellular localization of p53 in

HEK293 cells. We observed that p53 levels are low, yet ubiquitous, in HEK293 cells but, as

reported, the majority of p53 translocated into the nucleus when cells are treated with

doxorubicin, a DNA damage-inducing agent, for 24 hours (**Fig 2B**) [31]. Consistent with our

hypothesis, AGO2 also translocated into the nucleus in doxorubicin -treated cells (**Fig 2B**).

Further, by performing a co-immunoprecipitation experiment, we demonstrated a direct

interaction between AGO2 and p53 upon doxorubicin treatment (**Fig 2C**). Interestingly, in

HEK293T (**Sup Fig 1A**), neuroblastomas cells SK-N-BE(2) (**Sup Fig 1B**) and breast cancer

cell line MCF7 (**Sup Fig 1C**) AGO2 and p53 are ubiquitously expressed but interact

exclusively within the nucleus (**Sup Fig 1A-C**).

Next, we investigated the subcellular localization of p53 in response to transient

expression of SV40 LT antigen (**Fig 2D**) and NS1 (**Fig 2E**). Indeed, overexpression of both

viral proteins induced substantial translocation of p53 into the nucleus, together with AGO2

(**Fig 2D,E**). Furthermore, in IAV-infected HEK293 cells, we observed not only nuclear AGO2

but also nuclear p53 accumulation (**Fig 2F**). Finally, to test whether AGO2 and p53 interact

with each other also in response to viral infection, we co-immunoprecipitated AGO2 with p53.

Indeed, we observed an interaction between AGO2 and p53 in virus-infected cells but not in

control cells (**Fig 2G**). Similarly, we found that the p53:AGO2 co-immunoprecipitated after

transient expression of either SV40 LT (**Fig 2H**) or NS1 antigen (**Fig 2I**).

Taken together, our findings suggest that both AGO2 and p53 translocate into the

nucleus where they interact with each other in response to IAV infection. Furthermore, in cells

which already have nuclear AGO2, p53 and AGO2 interact, indicating a potential functional

interplay between these two proteins in the nucleus.

The N-terminus of tetrameric p53 interacts with AGO2 and protects AGO2 from

proteasomal degradation in the nucleus.

We next wanted to examine how AGO2:p53 interact and what functional outcome the

interaction may have in the nucleus. p53 is a 53 kDa protein consisting of an N-terminal

transactivation domain, proline-rich domain, a core DNA binding domain and a C-terminal tetramerization and regulatory domain [32] (**Fig 3A**). The PIWI domain of AGO2 contains tandem tryptophan-binding pockets, which collectively form a region for interacting with TNRC6 or other tryptophan-rich cofactors [33,34]. Interestingly, we observed the presence of three tryptophan residues (Trp23, Trp53, and Trp91) within the flexible N-terminal loop region of p53 (**Sup Fig 2A**), suggesting that the N-terminus may be involved in AGO2 binding. To investigate the possible interaction between the N-terminal region of p53 and AGO2, we generated two flag-p53 mutants by removing amino acids 1-61 (Δ61 mutant) and 1-91 (Δ91 mutant) from the N-terminus (**Fig 3B**). Upon transient overexpression of these mutants in doxorubicin-treated HEK293 cells, we found that AGO2 exclusively interacts with full-length flag-p53, while the interaction was abolished in both N-terminal mutants (**Fig 3C**).

Activated p53 tetramerizes in the nucleus [35] and therefore we next wanted to test if the tetrameric form is essential to interact with AGO2. In SK-N-BE(2) cells, known to possess intact TP53 transcriptional activity, AGO2:p53 interacts in the nucleus (**Sup Fig 1B**) [36]. To explore the effect of p53 monomerization, we treated SK-N-BE(2) cells with increasing concentrations of arsenic trioxide (ATO), a known inducer of p53 monomerization, for 24 hours [37]. Remarkably, we observed a significant reduction in nuclear p53 localization with 0.1 μg/ml ATO treatment, and complete displacement of nuclear p53 at 0.5 μg/ml (**Sup Fig 2B**). Strikingly, AGO2 was also displaced from the nucleus upon treatment with 0.5 μg/ml ATO (**Sup Fig 2B**). Similar results were observed in HEK293T (**Fig 3D**) and MCF7 (**Fig 3E**) cells, where nuclear AGO2 and p53 accumulate in the cytoplasm after ATO treatment. Being able to manipulate p53 into its monomeric state, we next examined whether AGO2:p53 can interact under these conditions. Consequently, we performed co-immunoprecipitation assays in the above-mentioned cell lines, using whole cell lysates, in the presence or absence of ATO, and found that ATO-mediated monomerization of p53 reduces its capability to interact with AGO2 (**Fig 3F,G**), highly suggestive of the fact that p53 and AGO2 only interact in the nucleus.

Having found a robust interaction between AGO2:p53, we next wanted to gauge for its biological significance. To test whether p53 plays a role in the stability of AGO2, we silenced *TP53* using siRNAs. *TP53* silencing resulted in a decrease in AGO2 protein levels in MCF7 and HEK293T cells (**Fig 3H,I**), suggesting that p53 may indeed stabilize AGO2 in the nucleus. However, silencing AGO2 in the same cells did not lead to reciprocal instability of p53 (**Fig 3H,I**) further corroborating the specificity of p53 mediated stability of AGO2. To confirm these findings, we employed p53 low-expressing MCF7 cells (hereafter referred to as TP53L cells).

Biochemical fractionation assays in wildtype (WT) and TP53L MCF7 cells revealed a similar

downregulation of AGO2 protein levels, specifically in the nucleus, upon loss of p53 (**Fig 3J**).

So far, we demonstrated that tetrameric p53 is needed for an interaction with AGO2 in

the nucleus, however, it remained unclear whether p53 is needed for nuclear import of AGO2

or to stabilize AGO2 within the nucleus. Therefore, we tested if AGO2 is degraded by the

ubiquitin-proteasome system when p53 is monomeric, by combining ATO treatment with the

proteasome inhibitor MG132. In cells treated with MG132 and ATO, we found that AGO2 co-

immunoprecipitated with anti-ubiquitin antibodies, indicating that AGO2 is tagged with

ubiquitin for proteasome degradation in the absence of nuclear p53 (**Fig 3K**).

Collectively, our findings demonstrate an interaction between p53 and AGO2 in the

nucleus, mediated by tetrameric p53. The interaction with p53 stabilizes AGO2 and protects it

from proteasomal degradation.

211   Nuclear AGO2 facilitates viral infection

Having observed that there is a significant influx of both AGO2 and p53 into the nucleus upon

viral infection and that p53 stabilizes AGO2 in the nucleus, we next aimed at determining if

and how this phenomenon would influence viral infection. Specifically, we addressed whether

nuclear AGO2:p53 serves as a proviral or an antiviral mechanism. To confirm whether the lack

of p53 inhibits AGO2 translocation to the nucleus upon viral infection, we conducted

biochemical fractionation experiments in WT and TP53L MCF7 cells, with or without viral

infection, and found that AGO2 was predominantly localized in the nucleus of WT MCF7 cells,

regardless of viral infection dose (**Fig 4A**). In contrast, AGO2 remained cytoplasmic in TP53L

MCF7 cells, irrespective of viral infection load (**Fig 4B**). Furthermore, we measured viral gene

expression in WT and TP53L MCF7 cells and observed a significant reduction of NS1 and HA

mRNA levels in p53-low cells (**Fig 4C**). Similarly, we also employed siRNA-mediated

silencing of *TP53* in HEK293 cells followed by IAV infection and quantified the levels of viral

mRNA. We observed a similar decrease in viral NS1 and HA gene expression upon IAV

infection in p53-silenced cells (**Fig 4D, Sup Fig 3A**). To further verify that RNA expression

of viral genes was correlated with viral infectivity, we infected WT and TP53L MCF7 cells

with PR8-mCherry virus and measured mCherry expression in infected cells using flow

cytometry. Indeed, only WT, but not TP53L MCF7 cells, successfully supported viral

replication (**Fig 4E**). Overall, the reduced mRNA expression of NS1 and HA observed upon

viral infection correlated with the lack of AGO2:p53 nuclear translocation (**Fig 4A-C**). Finally,

we investigated the reversibility of this phenomenon by overexpressing p53 in TP53L MCF7

cells. Remarkably, p53 overexpression not only restored viral gene expression (**Fig 4F**) but
also promoted AGO2 nuclear accumulation (**Fig 4G**). Our data indicated that IAV infection is
facilitated through the nuclear localization of AGO2:p53 complexes, however, it could not
distinguish between a key role of either nuclear AGO2 or p53 in mediating the proviral
outcome. Therefore, to test if AGO2 is essential in facilitating viral infectivity, we silenced
AGO2 in HEK293 cells by siRNAs, infected the cells with IAV and finally measured the
mRNA levels of viral genes by qRT-PCR. It is important to consider that silencing *AGO2* did
not affect the stability of nuclear p53 (**Fig 3H-I**). We found that mRNA levels of viral genes
decreased when AGO2 was silenced (**Fig 4H, Sup Fig 3B**). The mRNA levels of viral genes
was similar in siAGO2 *vs* siTP53 and TP53L MCF7 cells, thus indicating that it is indeed
nuclear AGO2 which is responsible for the increased viral gene expression. Overall, we
discovered a clear link between nuclear AGO2 localization and viral mRNA levels, indicating
a pro-viral role of nuclear RNAi.

Nuclear AGO2 downregulates antiviral type-I interferon response
Upon IAV infection innate immunity is the first line of host defense, and the immediate
immune response is mediated by type-I IFN [37]. Type-I IFN are rapidly produced by infected
cells to trigger an antiviral state, thus inhibiting viral replication [38]. Given that AGO2:p53
nuclear translocation increased viral titer, we therefore hypothesized that AGO2:p53 nuclear
translocation might have a proviral function by downregulating innate immune responses.
First, we assessed the steady state levels of IFN-Is by measuring *IFNB* mRNA levels [39] by
qRT-PCR in HEK293 vs HEK293T cells. Interestingly, we observed significantly higher levels
of *IFNB* in HEK293 cells (nuclear AGO2 negative) compared to HEK293T cells (nuclear
AGO2 positive) (**Fig 5A**), indicative of distinct IFN-I regulation between the two cell lines.

Subsequently, we examined the dynamics of *IFNB* levels in HEK293 cells at three
distinct time points following PR8 infection. We observed an initial increase in *IFNB* at 2 hours
post-infection, followed by a decrease at 8- and 16-hours post-infection, where the levels were
lower than baseline (**Fig 5B**). In the same time frame mentioned above, we also performed
biochemical fractionation assays. Strikingly, the decline in *IFNB* production coincided with
the translocation of AGO2 into the nucleus at 8 hours post-infection, suggesting a potential
contribution of nuclear AGO2 in the downregulation of antiviral IFN-I production (**Fig 5C**).

To explore whether the regulation of IFN-I expression is a general feature in cells
positive for nuclear AGO2, we measured *IFNB* in WT and TP53L MCF7 cells. Notably, we
observed low levels of *IFNB* expression in WT MCF7 cells (with nuclear AGO2), while the

TP53L MCF7 cells, lacking nuclear AGO2, displayed significantly higher *IFNB* levels (**Fig 5D**). Having observed that the lack of p53, and consequent lack of nuclear AGO2, allows for the expression of *IFNB*, we next reasoned that we should be able to recapitulate the above observation in nuclear AGO2 positive cells when p53 is monomeric and AGO2:p53 complex is excluded from the nucleus (**Fig 3D,F**). To investigate the impact of p53 monomerization on IFN-I expression we measured *IFNB* levels in HEK293T cells treated with ATO and observed a significant increase in *IFNB* (**Fig 5E**), which is likely due to the exclusion of AGO2:p53 from the nucleus. Furthermore, as expected, HEK293T cells and MCF7 cells treated with ATO and infected with IAV exhibited reduced viral gene expression (**Fig 5F,G**), linked with rescued *IFNB* levels (**Fig 5H,I**). In addition, to further elucidate the role of AGO2:p53 axis in regulating *IFNB* expression, we performed siRNA-mediated knockdown of *AGO2* and *TP53* in HEK293T cells and measured *IFNB* mRNA levels (**Fig 5J**). Silencing either *AGO2* or *TP53* led to an increase in *IFNB* mRNA levels (**Fig 5J**). Importantly, p53 nuclear localization is not compromised with AGO2 silencing (**Fig 3H,I**) hence suggesting a direct role of nuclear AGO2 in *IFNB* regulation.

Type-I IFNs, which are produced by infected cells, trigger a signaling cascade that timely leads to an antiviral state by promoting the expression of interferon simulating response elements (ISRE), via IFNAR1 and IFNAR2 stimulation [38]. Therefore, we next wanted to gauge whether increase in *IFNB* triggered downstream activation of IFNAR-mediated ISRE pathway after IAV infection. In HEK293 cells infected with IAV, we noted a slight reduction in *IFNAR2* expression, coinciding with the nuclear translocation of AGO2 (**Fig 5K**). Importantly, silencing of *AGO2* by siRNA significantly reversed this phenomenon (**Fig 5K**). To assess the downstream effects of interferon response, we measured the expression of ISRE. Utilizing a luciferase reporter assay in both IAV-infected and control HEK293 cells, we found that the ISRE expression was significantly increased in IAV-infected cells only when AGO2 was silenced (**Fig 5L**). Taken together, our findings support the notion that nuclear localization of AGO2 acts as a mechanism to suppress the induction of antiviral IFN-I and its signaling cascade, thereby facilitating viral infection. This resistance mechanism utilized by viruses highlights the intricate interplay between viral pathogens and the host immune response.

Type-I-IFN-pathway-related genes and *TRIM71* are negatively regulated by nuclear RNAi.

As nuclear AGO2 translocation correlated with diminished interferon expression and enhanced viral gene expression, we hypothesized that nuclear RNAi may directly suppress type-I IFNs.

First, to comprehensively understand the transcriptional dynamics of host cellular responses

during IAV infection, we conducted RNA sequencing experiments in HEK293 cells post-IAV

infection. The results of principal component analysis (PCA) demonstrated that IAV infection

elicited a distinctive transcriptomic profile in HEK293 cells (**Sup Fig 4A**). Further, we

identified 1773 differentially upregulated and 352 differentially downregulated RNA

transcripts in response to IAV infection (**Sup Fig 4B** and **Sup Table 2**). As expected, gene

ontology (GO) analysis of biological processes revealed that PR8 infection significantly

induced defense response and regulation of immune effector processes (**Sup Fig 4C**).

Upregulated genes, associated with inflammation and innate immunity, included *ARRD3,*

ITGB1BP2, SOCS1, SOCS3, TRIM72, GADD45B, and *CD68* (**Sup Fig 4B**). Notably, among

the upregulated genes, *TRIM72,* and *SOCS1* emerged as potential inhibitors of the IFN-I

response, with reported interactions with RIG-1, IFNB, and IFNAR, respectively [40-42].

To explore the role of nuclear RNAi and define AGO targets at nucleotide resolution,

we employed fPAR-CLIP assay [43] in two replicas in HEK293 cells with or without IAV

infection, from either cytoplasmic or nuclear fractions and using the T6B peptide, which

recognizes all four AGOs, to isolate AGO-bound RNAs [44] (**Sup Fig 4D**). Overall, we identified

41 743 cytoplasmic and 12 119 nuclear AGO1-4 binding sites in control cells (**Fig 6A**). At 16

hours post IAV infection, we identified 30 083 cytoplasmic and 78 665 nuclear AGO1-4

binding sites, a remarkable 6.5 fold increase of nuclear AGO-targets (**Fig 6A**). A clear

difference in control *vs* IAV-infected nuclear AGO target occupancy was also evident by PCA

analysis (**Sup Fig 4E**). Finally, when mapping the distribution of fPAR-CLIP sequence reads

across target RNAs little changes were observed in AGO target occupancy obtained from the

cytoplasmic fraction, with or without viral infection (**Fig 6A**). Contrary, the striking increase

in nuclear AGO transcript clusters, suggested that, once AGOs enter the nucleus, they expand

their binding preferences and interact with the pre-mRNA sequence. Indeed, the predominant

increase of target occupancy was on intronic sites, but also at 3'UTR and CDS regions within

the nucleus (**Fig 6A**).

Next, we sought to investigate what targets the AGOs regulate upon viral infection. To

better visualize shifts in AGO-binding within the different cellular fractions, we plotted the

fPAR-CLIP signal, for all coding genes, in control (- virus) *vs* IAV-infected (+ virus) cells.

While dots on the axis indicate unique binders, a shift from the dashed line (x=y) denotes

enrichment in the number of AGOs binding to each transcript and/or the number of bound

transcripts. The resulting scatter plots highlighted no changes in the cytoplasmic environment

(**Fig 6B**) but a surge in AGO binding, within the nucleus, post-infection (**Fig 6C**). Taken

together, the results demonstrate that, upon IAV infection, not only is there an enrichment in nuclear AGO targets, but that more AGOs are bound to each transcripts, upon viral infection.

Furthermore, to understand the effect of AGO-binding, we analyzed the best AGO binding targets by cumulative distribution analysis, in relation to RNAseq experiment (**Sup Fig 4B**). Here, a shift of the cumulative distribution function (CDF) curve to the left means that a higher proportion of AGO targets are effectively suppressed, indicating that the RNAi machinery is active and efficient. Consistent with the canonical function of cytoplasmic RNAi, we found that AGO1-4 suppressed its best binding targets in the cytoplasm equally, regardless of IAV infection (**Fig 6D,E**). On the contrary, in the control nuclei, AGO1-4 the differences in fold change between AGO targets and non-targets are minor, as evident by the CDFs and the fact that AGOs are not present in the nucleus in steady state HEK293 cells (**Fig 6F**). However, we observed potent negative gene regulation of nuclear AGO fPAR-CLIP targets, after IAV infection (**Fig 6G**). Further, analysis of the top 10% fPAR-CLIP nuclear targets against COVID-19 related gene sets [45] by enrichment analysis [46-48] identified these genes among the most downregulated genes after COVID-19 infection in ferrets and hamsters (**Sup Fig 4F**).

Our previous data (**Fig 5**) suggested that AGO2 nuclear translocation correlated with a decrease in type-I IFN pathway, which is crucial for antiviral responses. To test whether nuclear AGOs had a direct effect on genes specifically involved in type-I IFN response, we highlighted targets specifically involved in IFN-Is response [49] in the scatter plot and performed CDF using those specific targets (**Fig 6H,I**). Indeed, 124 out of 131 genes were nuclear AGO targets and were substantially downregulated by nuclear RNAi (**Fig 6H,I**).

To further gain insight into what genes AGO1-4 targets in the nucleus during viral infection, we ranked the fPAR-CLIP targets of the AGOs (**Fig 6J, Sup Table 3**). Notably, among the top AGO-bound transcripts in the nuclear fraction from viral-infected cells, three of the top ten targets were in the 3'UTR and intronic regions of *LRP1B*, *TRIM71*, and *SOCS5* (**Fig 6J**). These molecules are well known for their significant roles in the immune response [11,50,51]. Of particular interest is *TRIM71* (also referred to as LIN41), renowned for its positive influence on the IFNβ and ISRE responses but also directly inducing AGO2 and p53 degradation processes [11,52,53]. Further elucidation from a STRING analysis revealed that AGO2 predominantly interacts with TRIM family proteins that plays a positive role in type-I interferon pathway, especially with TRIM56, and TRIM71 (**Sup Fig 4G**). Our fPAR-CLIP data, interpreted via the IGV software [54], clearly showed an enhanced AGO2 binding to *TRIM71*, *LRP1B*, *SOCS5*, *IFNAR2* and *TRIM56* 3'UTR site following IAV infection,

compared to controls (**Fig 6K, Sup Fig 4H-K**). Corroborating this observation, post IAV-infection, there was a significant decrease in TRIM71 and IFNAR2 protein levels (**Fig 6L, Sup Fig 4L**).

Our experimental data indicated that IAV infection promotes AGO2 nuclear translocation, and the fPAR-CLIP results suggest two possible complimentary functions of nuclear RNAi. 1) Direct silencing of genes involved in the type-I IFN pathways and, 2) targeting of TRIM71 to block its direct effect on IFN response but also to prevent AGO2 and p53 degradation. To experimentally test the latter, we overexpressed TRIM71 transiently in IAV-infected HEK293; indeed, we observed a marked reduction in nuclear AGO2 levels (**Fig 6M**). This coincided with diminished p53 levels, aligning with the recognized role of TRIM71 as a p53 and AGO2 E3 ligase [11,52,53]. Consequently, there was an increase in *IFNB* (**Fig 6N**) and other type-I IFN related genes mRNA levels (**Sup Fig 4M**), and a decrease in viral mRNA (**Fig 6O**), attributable to the innate immune function of TRIM71 and decreased presence of nuclear AGO2.

These insights suggest a nuanced viral strategy that involves AGO2-mediated gene silencing combined with TRIM71 and IFNAR2 targeting. The culmination of these actions dampens the type-I IFN pathway, allowing the virus to adeptly evade host immune defenses. In summary, our integrated approach combining RNA sequencing and fPAR-CLIP demonstrates that nuclear AGO2 is crucial for the virus to subvert host immune responses and to ensure a successful infection.

***In vivo* arsenic trioxide treatment reverses AGO2 nuclear translocation in lungs and potentiates innate immune functions.**

Our data demonstrates that AGO2 suppresses type-I IFN in the nucleus and that p53 is essential to mediate AGO2 nuclear translocation. To confirm these mechanisms *in vivo*, we intranasally (i.n.) administered IAV-PR8 to wild-type C57BL/6 mice. Lung tissues were harvested on days 1 and 3 post-infection (d.p.i.) (**Fig 7A**). As expected, mice infected with IAV exhibited markedly elevated viral mRNA levels in lung tissues when compared to controls at 3 d.p.i. (**Fig 7B; Sup Fig 5A**). Next, we isolated single cells from both control and IAV-infected lung tissues for biochemical fractionations assays. Healthy lung cells predominantly showed cytoplasmic AGO2 distribution. In contrast, a notable nuclear accumulation of AGO2 was observed in response to IAV infection (**Fig 7C**). To exclude that the positive AGO2 signal we observed in the nuclear fraction was due to the influx of immune cells in the infected lungs [55], we carried out a negative selection of CD45$^+$ immune cells. We found that AGO2 translocated

to the nucleus in both CD45$^+$ and CD45$^-$ cells, thus confirming that IAV infection induced AGO2 translocation in the epithelial and endothelial cells (**Sup Fig 5B**), thus providing *in vivo* evidence supporting IAV-mediated AGO2 nuclear translocation.

To further explore the effects of AGO2 in the nucleus upon viral infection, we administered the FDA-approved ATO treatment known to monomerize p53 and destabilize nuclear AGO2 (**Fig 3**). Mice received 0.15mg/kg of ATO for 4 days, starting one day before infection, and lungs were harvested at 3 d.p.i. (**Fig 7D**). Two control groups received either daily vehicle injection or daily ATO injection, without infection. The experimental groups received either daily vehicle injection + IAV i.n. infection or daily ATO injection + IAV i.n. infection. At 3 d.p.i. single cells were isolated from lungs. It is important to note that it was not possible to fully assess the efficacy of the ATO treatment *in vivo*. Indeed, when using nuclear p53 levels, as a proxy of efficacy, ATO treatment was successful in only ~50% of treated mice. However, whenever p53 was excluded from the nucleus, we observed that also AGO2 was excluded regardless of IAV-infection, underscoring the critical role p53 plays in nuclear AGO2 accumulation also *in vivo* (**Fig 7E**). Therefore, for our subsequent analysis we only considered mice where ATO treatment excluded p53 from the nucleus. Indeed, we observed a trend towards reduced viral mRNA levels and ~1-log reduction of infectious virus in the lungs of ATO-treated mice (**Fig 7F,G**). TRIM71 was the second top target from our nuclear fPAR-CLIP and a negative regulator of AGO2 and IFN levels. Interestingly, ATO treatment in IAV-infected mice enhanced *Trim71* levels (**Fig 7H**), in line with all the results obtained *in vitro*. Furthemore, ATO-treated, IAV-infected mice had increased *Ifnb* and *Ifnar2* mRNA levels (**Fig 7I,J**), again supporting the *in vitro* mechanistic insights. Taken together, we unraveled a new layer of regulation of IAV infection and propose that targeting either p53 or nuclear AGO2 might serve as a potential therapeutic avenue for IAV modulation.

DISCUSSION

Unveiling mechanisms of viral resistance is crucial for designing effective new therapies to alleviate disease. Here, by combining classical biochemical fractionation experiments with fPAR-CLIP to identify the precise targets of nuclear AGO2 and *in vivo* mouse models we discovered complex events leading to increased viral replication. We identified viral infection as a potent trigger for nuclear AGO2 translocation, in complex with p53. In the nucleus, AGO2 suppresses innate immune genes thus favoring viral replication. By pinpointing the molecular mechanisms involved, we could use the FDA approved drug arsenic trioxide to reverse AGO2 nuclear localization, increase innate immune response and lower viral infectivity.

In our study, we highlighted how certain viral components—specifically the large T antigen from SV40 (a DNA virus) and NS1 from IAV (an RNA virus)—induce the nuclear accumulation of both p53 and AGO2 (**Fig 2D,E**). This adds to the multiple proviral roles of NS1 [56]. A limited number of previous reports already identified nuclear presence of AGO2 upon IAV infection [22,57], however both utilized cell lines (A549 and HEK293T) which are already nuclear-AGO positive at steady state [25], thus complicating the interpretation of the results. Herein, by using HEK293 cells, which are nuclear AGO negative at steady state, we could better mimic what happens in mouse lungs. Indeed, also Wang et al described nuclear accumulation of AGO2, mediated by NS1, and associated with increased virulence *in vivo*, but did not provide any mechanistic explanation of the phenomenon [57]. In general, the translocation of AGO2 from the cytoplasm to the nucleus is an intricate, dynamic process, elicited by a spectrum of cellular stressors, including, but not limited to, DNA damage, activation of oncogenes, and viral infections [20,57,58]. In our investigation, we observed nuclear accumulation of AGO2 specifically in response to high-titer viral infections (MOI=10). This phenomenon was concomitant with the elevated expression of *GADD45B* (log2 fold change: 3.129), a key player in DNA damage repair and cellular senescence. It's noteworthy that infections with high MOI have been linked to the stimulation of cellular senescence [59]. Fascinatingly, the nuclear accumulation of p53 is also a characteristic feature of senescent cells [60]. In addition, here we demonstrate that p53 is necessary to stabilize AGO2 in the nucleus. We postulate that the tandem tryptophan-binding pockets within the PIWI domain of AGO2 may serve as interaction sites with the flexible N-terminus of p53, characterized by three tryptophan residues: Trp23, Trp53, and Trp91 (**Fig 3C,D**). While it was previously reported that, in cancer, p53 and AGO2 interacted within the cytoplasm [61], here we further revealed the strong interaction within the nucleus and complement it by demonstrating that the tetramerization of p53 may enhance the stability of nuclear AGO2 (**Fig 3K**). p53 N-terminus, containing transactivation domains and multiple phosphorylation sites, can also modulate DNA binding, potentially influencing its interaction with proteins like MDM2, a p53 E3 ligase [62]. Further research is needed to understand how AGO2-p53 interactions impact p53's DNA binding and protein stability.

Here, we further elucidated the functional consequences of AGO2 nuclear translocation. In general, RNAi function during viral infections is intricate and hotly debated: it has been shown that RNAi can inhibit viral replication and augment the host immune response, thus acting as an anti-viral factor, or promote viral replication and host immune response evasion as a pro-viral factor [4,7,63,64]. While we have not studied in detail the presence of viral small RNAs in our samples and the potential impact of direct RNAi against IAV,

indirect evidence suggest this is not to play a major role here. Indeed, by silencing p53 we did
not affect overall AGO2 levels, nevertheless we measured differences in viral mRNA, which
was not compatible with a direct antiviral role of RNAi. Notably, diminished levels of AGO2
mRNA are reported in COVID-19 patients in comparison to healthy individuals [65]. Moreover,
AGO4, another effector in the RNAi/miRNA pathway, has illustrated antiviral properties in
mammals [66]. We noted an increase in nuclear AGO4 following PR8 infection, necessitating
further studies to elucidate its impact on the innate immune system. Together, the effects of
AGO2 on viral infection can be governed by diverse variables such as viral quantity, host cell
type, expression level and subcellular localization of AGO2. Thus, a nuanced understanding of
the viral infection context is essential to decrypt the varied roles of AGO2 in viral infections.

Our experimental data, combined with analysis of nuclear AGO targets by fPAR-
CLIP strongly indicated that nuclear AGO2 has a direct role in silencing the antiviral interferon
response in infected cells. This finding is consistent and mechanistically explains, several
sparse observations from previous studies: Backers *et al*. showed that in the absence of small
RNAs, *in vivo* RNA virus infection reached lower titers due to reduced repression of antiviral
genes; further, Seo *et al*, also postulated that inactivation of RISC would facilitate antiviral
response [6,7]. Furthermore, it was recently demonstrated that single cells infected with high MOI
had higher repression of innate immune genes, as compared to single cells infected with lower
MOI [67]. Yet another study identified AGO2 as negative regulator of IFNβ signaling and another
reported that p53 had direct impact on IFN-regulated genes, without relying on its
transcriptional activity [57,68]. Finally, it was also shown that Dicer-2 accumulation had a
negative effect on IFNβ signaling in human cells [69]. Altogether, the studies summarized
provided several pieces of information which we confirmed and expanded here in a
comprehensive mechanistical model, which includes a nuclear function of AGO2.

In our quest to understand the molecular details by which IAV promotes AGO2:p53
accumulation within the nucleus, we utilized fPAR-CLIP to scrutinize the silencing targets of
nuclear AGO. Beside the IFN-pathways genes, discussed above, we underscored the pivotal
roles of nuclear E3 ligases, notably TRIM71 and MDM2. These ligases are instrumental in
determining the degradation pathways of AGO2 and p53, thereby influencing their nuclear
stability [52,70]. Our observations also underlined nuclear AGO targeted entities which are crucial
for p53 stability and its export to the cytosol, namely MDM2 and XPO1. Together, our results
indicate that the virus-induced presence of nuclear AGO2 appears to facilitate the aggregation
of AGO2:p53 in the nucleus and thus serving the dual role of stabilizing the complex and to

repress the antiviral immune response. TRIM71 was one of the top targets and, beside its E3 ligase role, it has not been extensively studied; neverthelessm it has been reported as immune enhancing protein, and, in a recent study, its silencing resulted in increased SARS-CoV-2 viral titers [11,71]. Here we further validated TRIM71 antiviral role and showed it to be associated with viral titer, IFN response and AGO2 stability both *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

The findings from our current work elucidate how the activation of p53, induced by IAV, fosters the nuclear accumulation of AGO2, subsequently leading to the suppression of innate immune genes, a scenario that can aggravate the clinical outcomes of IAV infection. Such insights into the interplay between p53 activation and AGO2 translocation underscore the potential of targeting p53-mediated AGO2 nuclear translocation as a viable therapeutic strategy, as we have demonstrated using arsenic trioxide. Overall, our results could open new avenues to slow down the progression and reduce the severity of viral infections.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Here we demonstrated a link between nuclear AGO2:p53 translocation, the suppression of IFN response and viral loads upon IAV infection. Although likely, we can not generalize our results to other viral pathogens and/or other disease models, like cancers, which show increase accumulation of nuclear AGO2. In addition, while we have individually silenced p53 and AGO2 and shown that the majority of the effects we observe are due to AGO2, we cannot fully exclude that stabilized nuclear p53 will impact transcription thus influencing some of our results. Finally, it is extremely difficult to gauge the efficacy of ATO treatment *in vivo*, thus rendering the interpretation of mouse experiments complicated.

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Gothenburg for animal management. The sequencing was performed at the National Genomics Infrastructure (NGI), which is supported by the National Institutes of Health (NIH).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

H.-C.H. designed the experiments, performed the experiments, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript. D.A., D.G.A, and J.O.W. analyzed the NGS sequencing data. V.L. and I.N generated the PAR-CLIP libraries. C.F. performed immunofluorescent experiments. K.S., A.A.H.P., and C.W. performed animal experiments and analyzed data. V.I.S. provided scientific input and feedback on the manuscript. D.A. and A.A.S. supervised the entire project, designed the experiments, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript. All authors contributed to the manuscript

DECLARATION OF INTEREST

The authors declare no competing interests.

METHODS

Mice and Ethical Statement

All the experiments were conducted according to the protocols (Ethical permit numbers 1666/19, 38/23 and 2071/19) approved by regional animal ethics committee in Gothenburg. Female, 8-12 weeks old C57BL/6 mice were purchased from Janvier, France. They were housed in the specific pathogen-free animal facility of Experimental Biomedicine Unit at the University of Gothenburg.

Cell culture

HEK293 (ATCC, CRL-1573), HEK293T (ATCC, ACS-4500), MCF7 (ATCC, HTB-22), MCF7 TP53L (kind gift from Dr. Marianne Farnebo, Karolinska Institutet) cell lines were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) (Gibco, 11995065), supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Gibco, 11573397) and 100 U/ml penicillin-streptomycin (Gibco, 11548876) in a humidified incubator at 37℃ and 5% CO_2. The SK-N-BE(2) cell line was cultured in the same medium, but with the addition of 1% non-essential amino acids (Gibco, 11140050).

Whole cell lysate and biochemical fractionation

To extract whole cell lysates, the cells were first washed with cold 1xPBS and then lysed on
ice with RIPA lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.6, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1% NP-
40, 1% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate) supplemented with a protease
inhibitor cocktail (Merck Millipore, 04693132001). Samples were cleared with centrifugation
at 12 000 g for 20 minutes and the supernatant collected. Biochemical fractionation assay was
done as previously described [25]. Briefly, cell pellets were gently dissolved in a hypotonic lysis
buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.6, 10 mM NaCl, 3 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.3% NP-40, 10% Glycerol),
supplemented with a protease inhibitor cocktail, with gentle pipetting up and down and
collected with centrifugation for 2 minutes at 200 g. The supernatant was cleared with
centrifugation at 12 000 g for 20 minutes and the supernatant stored as the cytoplasmic fraction.
The remaining nuclear pellet was washed 3 times with the hypotonic lysis buffer and each time
collected by centrifugation for 2 minutes at 200 g. Each time the supernatant was discarded.
From the remaining pellet, the nuclear proteins were extracted using a nuclear lysis buffer (20
mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.6, 150 mM KCl, 3 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.3% NP-40, 10% Glycerol) supplemented
with protease inhibitor cocktail. The lysate was sonicated twice for 10 seconds each time at
60% amplitude (Sonics, VCX130). The nuclear fraction was cleared with centrifugation at
12 000 g for 20 minutes and the supernatant collected. Protein concentration was measured
using Bradford Reagent (B6916, Sigma Aldrich).
586

Western blotting
After protein extraction, as described above, 5-20 ug of protein were used for western blot
experiments. Protein samples were run on 4-12% Bis-Tris gels and transferred onto
Nitrocellulose membrane (Cytiva, 1060000). Proteins of interested were analyzed by
hybridization with their corresponding antibodies (see below) and visualized by
chemiluminescence using Thermo Scientific SuperSignal™ West Dura Extended Duration
Substrate (ThermoFisher, 34076).

FLAG (Merck, M8823)
HA (Sigma, H9658)
AGO1 (CST, 5053S)
AGO2 (Abcam, ab32381)
AGO2 11A9 for IF (Merck, MABE253)
AGO3 (CST, 5054)
AGO4 (CST, 6913S)

Histone H3 (CST, 44995)
p53 (Abcam, ab1101)
p53 (Santa cruz, sc-126)
p53 (ThermoFisher, MA5-11296)
Lamin B1 (Abcam, ab16048)
Lamin A/C (Santa cruz, sc-376248)
GAPDH (Abcam, ab9485)
SV40 (Santa cruz, sc-147)
mCherry (Santa cruz, sc-101529
Ubiquitin (Santa cruz, sc-8017).
TRIM71 (ThermoFisher, PA5-19281)
IFNAR2 (ThermoFisher, PA5-28303)
anti-rabbit IgG, HRP conjugate (Sigma, GENA934)
anti-mouse IgG, HRP conjugate (Sigma, GENA931).
anti-goat IgG, HRP conjugate (ThermoFisher, 10466033)
snti-sheep IgG, HRP conjugate (Merck, AP147P)

Plasmid transfection

Plasmids encoding the Influenza A virus components PB1, PB2, NP, M, HA, NA, NS1, PA and mCherry-NS1 were a kind gift from Dr. Ivan Kosik (NIH, USA). The SV40 Large T antigen and HA-TRIM71 were purchased from Addgene (plasmid # 136616 and #52717, respectively). 3 μg of plasmid was used for transient transfection using X-tremeGENE™ HP DNA Transfection Reagentreagent (Roche, 6366236001) following the manufacturer's instructions.

Viral infection in cells

1 million HEK293 cells were seeded in 10 cm dishes. Cells were allowed to attach for 8 hrs and were infected with PR8 with different MOI (0.1 to 50) for 16 hrs in serum free media. Cells were collected by trypsinization.

Viral titer determination from infected lungs

MDCK cells were seeded at 50,000 cells/well in 96-well plates. After overnight incubation, cells were washed twice with PBS. Harvested lungs were placed in PBS at a constant w/v ratio.

611 Homogenized lungs were 10-fold diluted starting 1:10 in infection media (DMEM containing
612 0.1% BSA (fraction V; Roche), 10 mM HEPES (Corning), 500 μg/ml gentamicin (Gibco), and
613 1 μg/ml TPCK trypsin (Worthington) and incubated on MDCK cells. After 3 days cytopathic
614 effect was visualized after crystal violet staining and $TCID_{50}$ titer was calculated using the
615 Spearman and Karber method.
616

Immunofluorescence staining and microscopy

617
To perform immunofluorescence assay, HEK293 cells were either transfected with mCherry-
NS1 or infected with PR8-IAV, as described above, for 16 hours. Alternatively, HEK293 cells
were infected with mCherry-PR8 for 16 hours. Cells were washed with PBS and fixed with 4%
buffered formalin for 15 minutes at room temperature. Cells were then washed twice with PBS
and blocked with 5% BSA in PBS for 1 hour at room temperature. Finally, cells were incubated
with 1:200 AGO2 (Merck, MABE253) overnight. The next day cells were washed 3x with
PBS and probed with secondary antibodies: 1:2000 Alexa Fluor® 488 Goat Anti-Rat IgG
(Invitrogen, 10729174) or 1:1000 phalloidin (Invitrogen, 10643853) for 2 hours at room
temperature. To visualize the cell nuclei, 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; Invitrogen,
D3571) was added for 5 minutes in the dark. Slides were mounted using 10 μl Prolong Diamont
(Invitrogen, 15372192). Confocal images were taken on a Zeiss LSM780 and the images were
analyzed using ImageJ® software and Affinity Designer®.
630

Doxorubicin treatment

631
632 Doxorubicin (Biotechne (Tocris), 2252) was dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) to
633 prepare a 1 mM stock solution. The stock solutions were stored at -20°C and diluted in the
634 culture medium to 1 μM final concentrations. Cells were incubated with doxorubicin for 24
635 hours.
636

Immunoprecipitation assays and AGO protein affinity purification with T6B peptide

637
Immunoprecipitation was carried out in 1-3 mg of protein lysate and 2 μg of anti-AGO2, anti-
IgG, or anti-p53 antibodies. For purification of AGO1-4, 400 μg Flag-tagged T6B peptide was
used [44]. Dynabead Protein G beads (10004D, ThermoFisher) or anti-Flag M2 beads (M8823,
Millipore) were conjugated with either antibodies or T6B peptide, respectively, for 4 h, washed
and incubated with protein lysates. Next, beads were washed three times with RIPA buffer and
bound proteins were eluted at 95°C for 5 min in 3× SDS Laemmli buffer and assessed by
western blot. The pull-down efficiency was confirmed by western blot.

p53 mutagenesis

The plasmid encoding amino acids 1-393 of the p53 protein with a FLAG tag at the C-terminus (Addgene plasmid #10838) was used as a template for site-directed mutagenesis to delete the N-terminal regions spanning amino acids 1-31, 1-62, or 1-93. The resulting PCR products were cloned into the pcDNA3.1 expression vector (Invitrogen, v79020). The final constructs encoded truncated p53 proteins with a FLAG tag starting at amino acids 32, 63, or 94, respectively. The pcDNA3 constructs were used for transient transfection in HEK293 cells using an X-tremeGENE HP DNA Transfection Reagent (Roche, 6366236001according to the manufacturer's instructions. The expression of the full-length and truncated p53 proteins were verified by western blotting using an anti-FLAG antibody (Merck, M8823).

Arsenic trioxide (ATO) treatment

Arsenic trioxide (Merck, 202673-5G) was dissolved to 100 mg/ml stock solution in NAOH which was further diluted in DMEM to 1 mg/ml. The stock solutions were stored at -20°C and diluted in the culture medium to 0.01, 0.1 or 0.5 μg/ml concentrations before use. Cells were incubated with ATO for 24 hours.

siRNA Gene Silencing of AGO2 and TP53

Small interfering RNA (siRNA) targeting human *AGO2* (siRNA ID: s109013 and ID s25931), *TP53* (siRNA ID s607), and scramble control siRNAs (siRNA ID: 4390843) were purchased from ThermoFisher Scientific. Human HEK293T, MCF7, or SK-N-BE(2) cells were transfected with the siRNAs using Lipofectamine RNAiMAX Transfection Reagent (ThermoFisher Scientific, #13778030) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The cells were harvested 48 hours after siRNA transfection to evaluate AGO2 or p53 knock-down efficiency by quantitative RT-qPCR and protein level by western blotting.

MG132 treatment and ubiquitination assay

MG132 (ThermoFisher, 15465519) were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) to prepare a 10 mM stock solution. The stock solutions were stored at -20°C and diluted in the culture medium to 40 μM concentrations before use. Cells were treated with MG132 or DMSO only for 4 hours. Following the treatment, cells were lysed and/or fractionated and assessed by western blotting.

Structure modelling

To model the structures of p53 (AF-P04637-F1), we downloaded their atomic coordinates from the AlphaFold2 database [72]. We used the PyMOL Molecular Graphics System, Version 2.3.4 (Schrödinger, LLC, https://pymol.org/2/) to visualize and modify the structure figures.

Real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR)

To analyze gene expression levels, real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) was performed on four different cell lines: HEK293, HEK293T, MCF7 and MCF7 TP53L. Total RNA was isolated from each cell line using the Quick-RNA Miniprep Kit (ZYMO Research, R1055) following the manufacturer's instructions. To generate cDNA, 1 µg of total RNA was used in a reverse transcription reaction with the iScript cDNA Synthesis kit (Bio-Rad, 1708891) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The RT-qPCR reactions were performed in a 10 µL mixture, consisting of 1x iQ™ SYBR® Green supermix (Bio-Rad, 1708880), 0.5 µmol/L of each primer, and 10 ng of cDNA template. The RT-qPCR result was acquired by CFX Connect Real-Time PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad) using the following primers:

AGO2 forward: 5'- CAAGTCGGACAGGAGCAGAAAC-3'.

AGO2 reverse: 5'- GACCTAGCAGTCGCTCTGATCA-3'.

P53 forward: 5'- CCTCAGCATCTTATCCGAGTGG-3'.

P53 reverse: 5'- TGGATGGTGGTACAGTCAGAGC-3'.

IFNA forward: 5'- AGAAGGCTCCAGCCATCTCTGT-3'.

IFNA reverse: 5'- TGCTGGTAGAGTTCGGTGCAGA-3'.

IFNB forward: 5'- CTTGGATTCCTACAAAGAAGCAGC-3'.

IFNB reverse: 5'- TCCTCCTTCTGGAACTGCTGCA-3'.

TRIM71 forward: 5'- CGAGGCATAAGAAAGCCCTGGA-3'.

TRIM71 reverse: 5'- GCTTGTTGAGGTTTTGCCGCAG-3'.

IFNAR1 forward: 5'- CGCCTGTGATCCAGGATTATCC-3'.

IFNAR1 reverse: 5'- TGGTGTGTGCTCTGGCTTTCAC-3'.

IFNAR2 forward: 5'- ACCGTCCTAGAAGGATTCAGCG-3'.

IFNAR2 reverse: 5'- CCAACAATCTCAAACTCTGGTGG-3'.

Mouse ifna2 forward: 5'- GAGCCTAGAGACTATCACACCG-3'.

Mouse ifna2 reverse: 5'- TACCAGAGGGTGTAGTTAGCGG-3'.

Mouse ifnb1 forward: 5'- GCCTTTGCCATCCAAGAGATGC-3'.

Mouse ifnb1 reverse: 5'- ACACTGTCTGCTGGTGGAGTTC-3'.

Mouse trim71 forward: 5'- AGATGAAGGCGAAGGTGGTCCA-3'.

Mouse trim71 reverse: 5'- GCAGGAACAGAGACTTCGCCTT-3'.

Mouse b-actin forward: 5'- CATCCGTAAAGACCTCTATGCCAAC-3'.

Mouse b-actin reverse: 5'- CAAAGAAAGGGTGTAAAACGCAGC-3'.

HA forward: 5'-AAGGCAAACCTACTGGTCCTGTT-3'.

HA reverse: 5'- AATTGTTCGCATGGTAGCCTATAC--3'.

NA forward: 5'- AGGCACCAAACGGTCTTACG-3'.

NA reverse: 5'- TTCCGACGGATGCTCTGATT-3'.

NP forward: 5'- AGGCACCAAACGGTCTTACG-3'.

NP reverse: 5'- TTCCGACGGATGCTCTGATT -3'.

NS1 forward: 5'- AAATCAGAAATAACAACCATTGGA-3'.

NS1 reverse: 5' - ATTCCCTATTTGCAATATTAGGCT-3'.

Flow cytometry

MCF7 and MCF7 TP53L cells were infected with PR8-NS1-mCherry at multiplicity of

infection (MOI) 10 for 16 hours. Cells were collected by trypsinization and resuspended in

FACS buffer. Cells were acquired using BD LSR II flow cytometer (BD Bioscience) to

measure the expression of mCherry in MCF7 and TP53L MCF7 cells. Data analysis was

performed using FlowJo V10 software (Treestar).

Luciferase assay

Cells were seeded 200,000 cells in 12 well dishes. The next day, the cells were transfected with

ISRE reporter plasmid (a gift from Dr. Chia-Wei. Li, Academia Sinica, Taiwan) or with the

internal control SV40 renilla plasmid (Promega) for 24 hours and subsequently infected with

PR8 at MOI 10 for an additional 16 hours. Cells were then collected for luciferase assay using

the Dual-Luciferase Reporter assay (Promega, E1910), following manufacturers´ instructions.

Plates were read using CLARIOstar Plate Reader (BMG Labtech).

RNA-sequencing

Total RNA was extracted from HEK293 with or without PR8 infection (MOI:10) for 16 hours,

using the Quick-RNA Miniprep Kit (ZYMO Research) following the manufacturer's protocol.

the concentration and quality of the RNA was analyzed using Agilent 2200 TapeStation

System. RNA samples with RNA Integrity Number higher than 8 were sent to SNP&SEQ

Technology Platform (NGI Uppsala, Sweden). Libraries were prepared from 300 ng RNA

using the Illumina Stranded Total RNA library preparation kit, including Ribo-Zero Plus treatment (20040525/20040529, Illumina Inc.) according to manufacturer's instructions. For indexing Unique Dual Indexes (20040553/20040554, Illumina Inc.) were used. Sequencing was carried out with NovaSeq 6000 system using paired-end 150 bp read length, S4 flowcell and v1.5 sequencing chemistry. As a control sequencing library for the phage PhiX was included and a 1% spike-in in the sequencing run. RNAseq data were preprocessed using the RNAseq nf-core pipeline [73]. Differential expression analysis was done using DEseq2 [74], on genes with at least 10 reads in at least 3 samples. Genes with FDR adjusted p-value < 0.01 and absolute log2 fold change > 0.5 were considered differentially expressed. Hypergeometric tests, implemented in TopGO, were used to look for enriched Gene Ontology annotation among the differentially expressed genes. The fraction of reads mapping to introns and other genomic regions was calculated using ReSQC [75].

Fluorescent PhotoActivatable Ribonucleoside-enhanced CrossLinking and ImmunoPrecipitation (fPAR-CLIP)

AGO fPAR-CLIP was carried out by isolating the proteins using the T6B peptide as mentioned above. fPAR-CLIP library preparation, sequencing and initial data processing was performed as described in [25,43] with minor modifications. Briefly, to obtain AGO proteins RNA footprints, unprotected RNA was digested on beads with 1 U RNase T1 (EN0541, ThermoFisher) for 15 min at RT. Next, the beads were washed three times with RIPA buffer and three times with dephosphorylation buffer (50 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, 10 mM $MgCl_2$). After washing, the protein-bound RNA was dephosphorylated with Quick CIP (M0525S, New England Biolabs) for 10 min in 37°C. Post dephosphorylation the beads were washed three times with dephosphorylation buffer and three times with PNK/ligation buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 10 mM $MgCl_2$). Following, 0,5 μM fluorescently tagged 3' adapter (MultiplexDX) were ligated with T4 Rnl2(1–249)K227Q (M0351, New England Biolabs) overnight at 4°C and washed three times with PNK/ligation buffer. Next, RNA footprints were phosphorylated using T4 PNK (NEB, M0201S) for 30 min in 37°C and washed three times in RIPA buffer. To release the proteins the beads were incubated at 95°C for 5 min in 3× SDS Laemmli buffer. Next, the eluates were separated on a 4-12% SDS/PAGE gels (NW04122BOX, Invitrogen) and AGO:RNA complexes visualized on the IR 680 channel (Chemidoc MP system, Bio-Rad). Subsequently, appropriate AGO:RNA bands were excised from the gel and protein digested with Proteinase K (RPROTK-RO, Sigma Aldrich) and released RNA isolated via phenol:chloroform phase separation. Following, 5' adapter ligation

(MultiplexDX) was performed on the purified RNA samples with 0,5 μM of the adapter and Rnl1 T4 RNA ligase (ThermoFisher, EL0021) for 1 h at 37ºC. Next, the RNA was reverse transcribed using SuperScript IV Reverse Transcriptase (ThermoFisher, 18090010) according to manufacturer's instructions. The libraries were amplified in a series of PCR reactions performed using Platinum Taq DNA polymerase (ThermoFisher, 10966034) and size selected with 3% Pippin Prep (Sage Science, CSD3010). Sequencing of the libraries was carried out on Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform. For data processing Bcl2fastq (v2.20.0), Cutadapt (cutadapt 1.15 with Python 3.6.4) [76], PARpipe (https://github.com/ohlerlab/PARpipe) and Paralyzer [77] were used. The 3' and 5' adaptor sequences and sequencing primers used in the study are listed below. For each target gene, the normalized PAR-CLIP signal was calculated as nr reads with T->C conversions / (total number of PAR-CLIP reads * average TPM for target gene * 1e-6)

Oligo name	Sequence
3' adapter	5'-rAppNNTGACTGTGGAATTCTCGGGT(fl)GCCAAGG-(fl) (MDX-O-226-29.51-2xAF660, Multiplexdx)
5' adapter	5'(aminolinker)GTTCAGAGTTCTACAGTCCGACGATCrNrNr NrN (MDX-O-264, Multiplexdx)
RT Primer	GCCTTGGCACCCGAGAATTCCA
5' short PCR primer	CTTCAGAGTTCTACAGTCCGACGA
5' long PCR primer	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACGTTCAGAGTT CTACAGTCCGA
HEK293 Cont C1 3' Index primer RPI29-C5	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATATTCCTCCGTGACTG GAGTTCCTTGGCACCCGAGAATTCCA
HEK293 Cont C2 3' Index primer RPI30-C6	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATGTGTTCCTGTGACTG GAGTTCCTTGGCACCCGAGAATTCCA
HEK293 Cont N1 3' Index primer RPI23-B11	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATAACCTTGGGTGACT GGAGTTCCTTGGCACCCGAGAATTCCA
HEK293 Cont N2 3' Index primer RPI24-B12	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATATTGCGTGGTGACTG GAGTTCCTTGGCACCCGAGAATTCCA
HEK293 Virus C1 3' Index primer RPI31-C7	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATAAGCACTGGTGACT GGAGTTCCTTGGCACCCGAGAATTCCA
HEK293 Virus C2 3' Index primer RPI32-C8	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATCTAGCAAGGTGACT GGAGTTCCTTGGCACCCGAGAATTCCA
HEK293 Virus N1 3' Index primer RPI27-C3	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATGTACTCTCGTGACTG GAGTTCCTTGGCACCCGAGAATTCCA

HEK293 Virus N2 3' Index primer RPI28-C4	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATGTAACGACGTGACT GGAGTTCCTTGGCACCCGAGAATTCCA

Virus infection in mice

The H1N1 strain of influenza A/PR8 (Puerto Rico/8/34) was propagated in the allantoic cavities of SPF embryonated chicken eggs for 48-72 hours at 37°C. The resulting allantoic fluids were collected, aliquoted, and stored at -80°C until use. Virus titers were assessed by $TCID_{50}$ assay on MDCK cells as previously reported [78]. To infect the mice, they were anaesthetized with isoflurane, and intranasally inoculated with 2000 TCID50 PR8 in 25 μl sterile PBS/0.1%BSA. Control mice received the same volume of PBS intranasally as a mock infection. After three days of infection, lung tissue samples were collected to isolate single cells using the Lung Dissociation Kit (130-095-927, Miltenyl Biotec, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany) following the manufacturer's protocol. RNA and protein were extracted from the isolated single cells to determine viral mRNA and AGO2 distribution. Specifically, the RNA was extracted using a Quick-RNA Miniprep Kit (ZYMO Research) following the manufacturer's protocol, and the protein was extracted using biochemical fractionation method described above. For ATO treatment, mice were injected intraperitoneally with a daily dose of 0.15mg/kg ATO in PBS in a volume of 100ul for 4 days.

Data availability

The raw RNA-Seq and PAR-CLIP data described in this paper are accessible through the GEO database (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/) under accession no. XXX.

Statistical analysis

The data from three individual experiments waere assessed by unpaired t-test or Mann-Whithney U-test (GraphPad Prism Software Inc, San Diego, CA, USA) and presented as mean ± SD (standard deviation). A p-value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant. Cumulative distribution was analyzed using Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test using the R package stats.

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FIGURES

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Figure 1 – IAV virus NS1 induces AGO2 nuclear translocation

(A) Representative AGO2 immunoblots from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) lysates in
HEK293 and HEK293T cells. GAPDH served as cytoplasmic marker and HIST3H3 as nuclear
marker. n=3

(B) Representative AGO2 immunoblots from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) lysates in
HEK293 cells transfected with plasmid expressing SV40 Large T antigen. HEK293T was used

as a positive control. CALR served as cytoplasmic marker and Lamin A/C as nuclear marker. n=3

(C) Representative AGO1, AGO2, AGO3 and AGO4 immunoblots from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) lysates in HEK293 cells infected with PR8 virus at MOI 10 for 16 hours. GAPDH served as cytoplasmic marker and HIST3H3 as nuclear marker. n=3

(D) Immunofluorescence images of AGO2 and PR8-mCherry in HEK293 infected with PR8-NS1-mCherry virus at MOI 10 for 16 hours. Phalloidin and DAPI stained for F-actin and DNA, respectively. n=3

(E) Representative AGO2 immunoblots from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) lysates in HEK293 cells transfected with PB1, PB2, NP, M, HA, NS1, and PA expressing plasmids for 2 days. CALR served as cytoplasmic marker and Lamin A/C as nuclear marker. n=3

(F) Immunofluorescence images of AGO2 and NS1-mCherry in HEK293 infected with NS1-mCherry virus at MOI 10 for 16 hours. Phalloidin and DAPI stained for F-actin and DNA, respectively. n=3

Figure 2 – p53 associates with AGO2 in the nucleus

(A) STRING protein-protein interaction network of AGO2.

(B) Representative AGO2 and p53 immunoblots from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) lysates in HEK293 cells treated with Doxorubicin (Doxo) for 24 hours. GAPDH served as a cytoplasmic marker and HIST3H3 served as nuclear marker. n=3

(C) AGO2 immunoprecipitation (IP) from HEK293 cells treated with Doxorubicin (Doxo) for 24 hours. Representative immunoblots of AGO2 and p53. n=3

(D) Representative AGO2, p53 and SV40 immunoblots from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) lysates in HEK293 cells transfected with SV40 large T antigen expressing plasmid. GAPDH served as a cytoplasmic marker and HIST3H3 served as nuclear marker. n=3

(E) same as in **(D)** except for immunoblots for NS1 in HEK293 cells transfected with NS1 mCherry expressing plasmid for 24 hours. n=3

(F) Representative AGO2 and p53 immunoblots from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) lysates in HEK293 cells infected with PR8 virus at MOI 10 for 16 hours. GAPDH served as cytoplasmic marker and HIST3H3 as nuclear marker. n=3

(G) AGO2 immunoprecipitation (IP) from HEK293 cells treated with PR8 virus at MOI 10 for 16 hours. Representative immunoblots of AGO2 and p53. n=3

1036   **(H)** AGO2 immunoprecipitation (IP) from cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions in HEK293 cells
1037   transfected with SV40 large T antigen expressing plasmid for 24 hours. Representative
1038   immunoblots of AGO2 and p53. n=3

1039   **(I)** same as in **(H)** except for HEK293 cells were transfected with NS1 expressing plasmid for
1040   24 hours. n=3

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Figure 3 – Tetrameric p53 protects nuclear AGO2 from proteasomal degradation

(A) Schematic diagram of human p53 protein and N-terminal truncated Flag-tagged p53 isoforms used in the study.

(B) Representative Flag immunoblots from HEK293 cells transfected with Flag-WT-p53 or N-terminally Flag-tagged p53 mutants. GAPDH served as a loading control. n=3

(C) Flag immunoprecipitation (IP) from HEK293 cells transfected with plasmids expressing Flag-WT-p53 or N-terminally Flag-tagged p53 mutant. HEK293 cells were transfected with the p53 plasmids for 1 day and then treated with 1 µg/mL Doxorubicin (Doxo) for 1 more day. Representative immunoblots of AGO2 and Flag are indicated. n=3

(D) Representative AGO2 and p53 immunoblots from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) lysates in HEK293T cells treated with 0.5 µg/mL arsenic trioxide (ATO) for 24 hours. GAPDH served as a cytoplasmic marker and HIST3H3 served as nuclear marker. n=3

(E) Same as in **(D)** but in MCF7 cells. n=3

(F) p53 immunoprecipitation (IP) from HEK293T cells treated with 0.5 μg/mL Arsenite
trioxide (ATO) for 24 hours. Representative immunoblots of AGO2 and p53. n=3

(G) same as in **(F)** but in MCF7 cells. n=3

(H) Representative AGO2 and p53 immunoblots from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) lysates
in MCF7 cells treated with siRNAs for 24 hours. siCntr: control scramble siRNAs; siTP53:
siRNA specific for TP53; and siAGO2: two different siRNAs specific for AGO2. GAPDH
served as a cytoplasmic marker and HIST3H3 served as nuclear marker. n=3

(I) Same as in **(H)** but in HEK293T cells. n=3

(J) Representative AGO2 and p53 immunoblots from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) lysates
in WT MCF7 cells or TP53L MCF7 cells. GAPDH served as a cytoplasmic marker and
HIST3H3 served as nuclear marker. n=3

(K) AGO2 immunoprecipitation (IP) from MCF7 cells treated with 2 μg/ml MG132 for 2 hours
before additional 24 hours of treatment with 0.5 μg/ml arsenic trioxide (ATO). Representative
immunoblots of ubiquitin (Ub) and AGO2. n=3

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Figure 4 – Nuclear AGO2 supports viral replication

(A) Representative AGO2 immunoblots from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) lysates in WT MCF7 cells infected with PR8 virus at MOI 0.1; 1; 10 for 16 hours. GAPDH served as a cytoplasmic marker and HIST3H3 served as nuclear marker. n=3

(B) Same as in **(A)** but in TP53L MCF7 cells. n=3

(C) Relative expression, as measured by RT-qPCR, of NS1 and HA mRNA levels in WT MCF7 cells and TP53L MCF7 cells upon infection with PR8 virus at MOI 10 for 16 hours. GAPDH was used as a reference gene. Bars are mean and error bars represent ± SD. **** $p<0.0001$ by unpaired t-test. n=3

(D) RT-qPCR of NS1 and HA mRNA levels in HEK293 cells treated with siRNAs against TP53 (siTP53) for 48 hours. 16 hours before the end of incubation, cells were infected with PR8 virus at MOI 10. GAPDH was used as a reference gene. Bars are mean and error bars represent ± SD. **** $p<0.0001$ by unpaired t-test. n=3

(E) Flow cytometry analysis of NS1-mCherry protein expression in WT MCF7 cells and TP53L MCF7 cells upon infection with PR8 virus at MOI 10 for 16 hours. White histogram shows mock-infected cells while yellow histogram is PR8-infected. n=3

(F) Relative expression, as measured by RT-qPCR, of NS1 and HA mRNA levels in WT MCF7 and TP53L MCF7 cells. TP53L MCF7 cells were transfected with Flag-WT-p53 expressing

plasmids for 24 hours. Subsequently, both WT MCF7 cells and TP53L MCF7 overexpressing
WT p53 transiently were infected with PR8 virus at MOI 10 for 16 additional hours. GAPDH
was used as a reference gene. Bars are mean and error bars represent ± SD. ** $p < 0.01$ by
unpaired t-test. n=3

(G) Representative AGO2 and p53 immunoblots from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) lysates
in TP53L MCF7 cells transfected with Flag-WT-p53 expressing plasmids for 24 hours and
infected with PR8 virus at MOI 10 for 16 additional hours**.** GAPDH served as a cytoplasmic
marker and HIST3H3 served as nuclear marker. n=3

(H) Relative expression, as measured by RT-qPCR, of NS1 and HA mRNA levels in HEK293
cells treated with two different siRNAs against AGO2 (siAGO2) for 48 hours. 16 hours before
the end of incubation, cells were infected with PR8 virus at MOI 10. GAPDH was used as a
reference gene. Bars are mean and error bars represent ± SD. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$
by unpaired t-test. n=3

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Figure 5 – Nuclear AGO2 downregulates *IFNB* and other type-I-IFN related genes

(A) Relative expression, as measured by RT-qPCR, of IFNB mRNA levels in HEK293T and HEK293 cells. GAPDH was used as a reference gene. Bars are mean and error bars represent ± SD. * p<0.1 by unpaired t-test. n=3

(B) Relative expression, as measured by RT-qPCR, of IFNB mRNA levels in HEK293 cells infected with PR8 virus at MOI 10 for 2, 8 or 16 hours. GAPDH was used as a reference gene. Bars are mean and error bars represent ± SD. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01 by unpaired t-test. n=3

(C) Representative AGO2 immunoblots from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) lysates in HEK293 cells infected with PR8 virus at MOI 10 for 2, 8 or 16 hours. GAPDH served as a cytoplasmic marker and HIST3H3 served as nuclear marker. n=3

(D) Relative expression, as measured by RT-qPCR, of IFNB mRNA levels in WT MCF7 cells and TP53L MCF7 cells. GAPDH was used as a reference gene. Bars are mean and error bars represent ± SD. ** p<0.01 by unpaired t-test. n=3

(E) Relative expression, as measured by RT-qPCR, of IFNB mRNA levels in HEK293T cells
treated for 24 hours with 0.5 µg/ml arsenic trioxide (ATO). GAPDH was used as a reference
gene. Bars are mean and error bars represent ± SD. **** p<0.0001 by unpaired t-test. n=3

(F) Relative expression, as measured by RT-qPCR, of NS1 mRNA levels in HEK293T cells
treated for 24 hours with 0.5 µg/ml arsenic trioxide (ATO) or vehicle and infected with PR8
virus at MOI 10 for 16 hours. GAPDH was used as a reference gene. Bars are mean and error
bars represent ± SD. * p<0.05 by unpaired t-test. n=3

(G) Relative expression, as measured by RT-qPCR, of IFNB mRNA levels in HEK293T cells
treated for 24 hours with 0.5 µg/ml arsenic trioxide (ATO) or vehicle and infected with PR8
virus at MOI 10 for 16 hours. GAPDH was used as a reference gene. Bars are mean and error
bars represent ± SD. **** p<0.0001 by unpaired t-test. n=3

(H) same as in **(F)** but in MCF7 cells. n=3

(I) same as in **(G)** but in MCF7 cells. n=3

(J) Relative expression, as measured by RT-qPCR, of IFNB mRNA levels in HEK293T cells
treated with siRNAs against TP53 or AGO2 for 48 hours. GAPDH was used as a reference
gene. Bars are mean and error bars represent ± SD. *** p<0.001, **** p<0.0001 by unpaired t-
test. n=3

(K) Relative expression, as measured by RT-qPCR, of IFNAR2 mRNA levels in HEK293 cells
treated with siRNA against AGO2 for 48 hours. 16 hours before the end of incubation, cells
were infected with PR8 virus at MOI 10. GAPDH was used as a reference gene. Bars are mean
and error bars represent ± SD. * p<0.05 by unpaired t-test. n=3

(L) Normalized lucifersase signal of ISRE-transfected HEK293 cells, treated with siRNA
against AGO2 for 48 hours. 16 hours before the end of incubation, cells were infected with
PR8 virus at MOI 10. GAPDH was used as a reference gene. Bars are mean and error bars
represent ± SD. * p<0.05 by unpaired t-test. n=3

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1146 **Figure 6 – Nuclear AGO2 downregulates type-I IFN pathway genes and TRIM71 in IAV-**
1147 **infected cells**

1148 **(A)** Distribution of fPAR-CLIP sequence reads in clusters across target RNA across 3′UTR,
1149 coding sequence, 5′UTR, and introns from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) fractions of

HEK293 cells infected with PR8 virus at MOI 10 for 16 hours. The graph shows the average of 2 independent experiments.

(B) Scatter plot of cytoplasmic fPAR-CLIP log2 normalized signal in control (- Virus) and IAV infected (+Virus) HEK293 cells. Each dots represents a gene and is the average of 2 independent experiments. Blue dashed line shows a perfect correlation. Black dots are genes with higher PAR-CLIP signal in the IAV-infected sample while grey dots are genes with higher PAR-CLIP signal in the control sample.

(C) same as in **(B)** but for nuclear fPAR-CLIP.

(D) Cumulative distribution function of AGO1-4 targets in control cytoplasmic fraction compared to non-targets. Targets are the genes depicted as grey dots in **(B)**

(E) Cumulative distribution function of AGO1-4 targets in virus infected cytoplasmic fraction compared to non-targets. Targets are the genes depicted as black dots in **(B)**

(F) Cumulative distribution function of AGO1-4 targets in control nuclear fraction compared to non-targets. Targets are the genes depicted as grey dots in **(C)**

(G) Cumulative distribution function of AGO1-4 targets in virus infected nuclear fraction compared to non-targets. Targets are the genes depicted as black dots in **(C)**

(H) same graph as in **(C)** but with type-I IFN pathway genes highlighted in golden yellow.

(I) same as in **(G)** but for type-I IFN pathway genes.

(J) Rank plot showing AGO targets, ordered by normalized PAR-CLIP signal, in IAV infected, nuclear fraction of HEK293 cells. Each dot represents a gene and is the average of 2 independent experiments.

(K) TRIM71 IGV track in nuclear fraction of in control (- Virus) and IAV infected (+Virus) HEK293 cells.

(L) Representative TRIM71 immunoblots from whole cell lysates in HEK293 infected with PR8 virus at MOI 10 for 16 hours. GAPDH served as a loading control. n= 3

(M) Representative HA-TRIM71, AGO2 and p53 immunoblots from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) lysates in HEK293 cells transfected with HA-TRIM71 and infected with PR8 virus at MOI 10 for 16 hours. GAPDH served as a cytoplasmic marker and HIST3H3 served as nuclear marker. n= 3

(N) Relative expression, as measured by RT-qPCR, of IFNB mRNA levels in HEK293 cells transfected with HA-TRIM71 and infected with PR8 virus at MOI 10 for 16 hours. GAPDH was used as a reference gene. Bars are mean and error bars represent ± SD. ∗∗ $p<0.01$ by unpaired t-test. n= 3

(O) Relative expression, as measured by RT-qPCR, of HA and NS1 mRNA levels in HEK293 cells transfected with HA-TRIM71 and infected with PR8 virus at MOI 10 for 16 hours. GAPDH was used as a reference gene. Bars are mean and error bars represent ± SD. ∗ $p<0.05$, ∗∗ $p<0.01$ by unpaired t-test. n= 3

Figure 7 – ATO treatment increases IFN-related genes and decrease viral titers *in vivo*.

(A) Schematic representation of the experimental setup for experiments in (B) and (C). Mice were infected i.n. with 2000 $TCID_{50}$ PR8 at day 0 and lungs harvested at 1 and 3 days post-infection.

(B) Relative expression, as measured by RT-qPCR, of NS1 and HA mRNA levels in lung cells isolated from mice at 1 or 3 days post-infection. B-actin was used as a reference gene. Error bars represent ± SD.

(C) Representative AGO2 immunoblots from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) lysates in lung cells isolated from mice at 1 or 3 days post-infection. GAPDH served as a cytoplasmic marker and HIST3H3 served as nuclear marker. n= 2 independent experiments with 2 mice each

(D) Schematic representation of the experimental setup for experiments in (E-J). Mice were treated daily with i.p. injections of 0.15 mg/kg ATO in PBS (or vehicle), starting from day -1.

At day 0 mice were infected i.n. with 2000 $TCID_{50}$ PR8 and lungs harvested at 3 days post-
infection.

(E) Representative AGO2 and p53 immunoblots from cytoplasmic (C) and nuclear (N) lysates
in lung cells isolated from mice treated with ATO and PR8 infected. GAPDH served as a
cytoplasmic marker and HIST3H3 served as nuclear marker. n= 3 independent experiments
with a total of 10 (PR8) and 8 (PR8-ATO) mice.

(F) Graph representing HA mRNA levels in lung cells isolated from mice treated treated with
ATO (or vehicle) and PR8 infected. Shown are the individual mice with bar respresenting the
mean and error bars represent ± SD. Statistical analysis was performed by unpaired t-test. n=
3 independent experiments with a total of 10 (PR8) and 8 (PR8-ATO) mice.

(G) Graph representing $\log_{10}$ $TCID_{50}$/g lung in mice treated treated with ATO (or vehicle) and
PR8 infected. Shown are the individual mice with bar respresenting the mean and error bars
represent ± SD. Statistical analysis was performed by unpaired t-test. n= 3 independent
experiments with a total of 10 (PR8) and 8 (PR8-ATO) mice.

(H) Graph representing the mRNA levels of *Trim71* in lung cells isolated from mice treated
treated with ATO (or vehicle) and PR8 infected. Shown are the individual mice with bar
respresenting the mean and error bars represent ± SD. * $p<0.05$ by unpaired t-test. n= 3
independent experiments with a total of 10 (PR8) and 8 (PR8-ATO) mice.

(I) same as in **(H)** but for *Ifnb*. ∗∗ $p<0.01$ by unpaired t-test.

(J) same as in **(H)** but for *Ifnar2*.