

**The Nucleocapsid Protein of Coronaviruses Acts as a Viral Suppressor of RNA Silencing in Mammalian Cells**

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2 **Running title: Coronavirus N as VSR in Mammalian cells**

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14 **Abstract**

15 RNA interference (RNAi) is a process of eukaryotic posttranscriptional gene silencing  
16 that functions in antiviral immunity in plants, nematodes, and insects. However,  
17 recent studies provided strong supports that RNAi also plays a role in antiviral  
18 mechanism in mammalian cells. To combat RNAi-mediated antiviral responses, many  
19 viruses encode viral suppressors of RNA silencing (VSR) to facilitate their replication.  
20 VSRs have been widely studied for plant and insect viruses but only few have been  
21 defined for mammalian viruses currently. Here, we identified a novel VSR from  
22 coronaviruses, a group of medically important mammalian viruses including Severe  
23 acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus (SARS-CoV), and showed that the  
24 nucleocapsid protein (N protein) of coronaviruses suppresses RNAi triggered by  
25 either short hairpin RNAs (shRNAs) or small interfering RNAs (siRNAs) in  
26 mammalian cells. Mouse hepatitis virus (MHV) is closely related to SARS-CoV in  
27 the family *Coronaviridae* and was used as a coronavirus replication model. The  
28 replication of MHV increased when the N proteins were expressed *in trans*, while  
29 knockdown of Dicer1 or Ago2 transcripts facilitated the MHV replication in  
30 mammalian cells. These results support the hypothesis that RNAi is a part of the  
31 antiviral immunity responses in mammalian cells.

32 **Importance**

33 RNAi has been well known to play important antiviral roles from plants to  
34 invertebrates. However, recent studies provided strong supports that RNAi is also

35 involved in antiviral response in mammalian cells. An important indication for  
36 RNAi-mediated antiviral activity in mammals is the fact that a number of mammalian  
37 viruses encode potent suppressor of RNA silencing (VSR). Our current results  
38 demonstrate that coronaviruses N protein could function as a VSR through its dsRNA  
39 binding activity. Mutational analysis of N protein allowed us to find out the critical  
40 residues for the VSR activity. Using the MHV-A59 as the coronavirus replication  
41 model, we showed that ectopic expression of SARS-CoV N protein could promote  
42 MHV replication in RNAi-active cells but did not in RNAi depleted cells. These  
43 results indicate that coronaviruses encode a VSR that functions in the replication  
44 cycle, and provide further evidences to support that RNAi-mediated antiviral response  
45 exists in mammalian cells.

#### 46 **Introduction**

47 RNA interference (RNAi) is originally regarded as a mechanism of eukaryotic  
48 posttranscriptional gene regulation mediated by small interfering RNA (siRNA)  
49 induced sequence-specific RNA degradation (1). It is also well known to exert as an  
50 important antiviral defense mechanism in a wide range of organisms, from plants to  
51 invertebrates (2). During the virus infection, the virus-derived long double-stranded  
52 RNA (dsRNA) is cleaved by RNAlII-like endonuclease (named Dicer) into  
53 approximately 21- to 23-nucleotide (nt) siRNA, which is incorporated into the  
54 RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC) and activates the antiviral RNAi for viral  
55 RNA degradation. In mammalian cells, although the activation of RNAi by synthetic  
56 siRNA or short hairpin RNA (shRNA) is widely used as a tool for gene knockdown

57 and antiviral treatment, the RNAi-mediated antiviral mechanism has been debated for  
58 a long time (3), because the interferon (IFN) response of the innate immune system is  
59 well known as the dominant antiviral mechanism (4). However, more and more  
60 evidence has provided strong support for the existence of a natural RNAi-mediated  
61 antiviral response in mammals (5). Moreover, recent studies showed that in  
62 undifferentiated cells and immature mice, the RNAi-mediated antiviral response is  
63 essential (6-8).

64 To overcome the RNAi-mediated antiviral defense, viruses have evolved to encode  
65 viral suppressor of RNA silencing (VSR) (9, 10). For example, in plant viruses, rice  
66 hoja blancavirus NS3, tombusvirus P19 and tomato aspermy virus 2b bind to long  
67 dsRNA or siRNA to block RNAi (11-13). Turnip crinkle virus (TCV) P38 and  
68 cauliflower mosaic virus (CaMV) P6 disrupt the components of RNAi machinery (14,  
69 15). In insect viruses, flock house virus (FHV) B2 blocks RNAi by dsRNA binding  
70 (16, 17), and Wuhan nodavirus (WhNV) B2 was identified as VSR by targeting both  
71 dsRNAs and Dicer-2 (18, 19). Though the majority of VSRs have been identified in  
72 plant and invertebrate viruses, several mammalian viruses were shown to encode  
73 VSRs. For instance, Ebola virus (EBOV) VP35, influenza A virus NS1, vaccinia virus  
74 E3L and Nodamura virus (NoV) B2 act as VSRs by binding dsRNA (20-23). Hepatitis  
75 C virus (HCV) core and HIV-1 Tat block RNAi by inhibiting the activity of Dicer (24,  
76 25). Interestingly, all VSRs identified from mammalian viruses possess IFN or protein  
77 kinase R (PKR) antagonistic properties and are essential for replication and  
78 pathogenesis, suggesting that RNAi and other innate antiviral responses are

79 interrelated (26-28).

80 Coronaviruses (CoVs) are the largest positive single-strand RNA (+ ssRNA) viruses  
81 carrying an RNA genome of 26.2-31.7 kb that infect a wide range of mammalian and  
82 avian species (29). It is reported that coronaviruses generate significant amount of  
83 dsRNAs as replicative and transcriptive intermediates (30, 31). Therefore, it might be  
84 the target of Dicer and thus induce RNAi-mediated antiviral responses. An indirect  
85 evidence was shown that severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus (SARS-CoV)  
86 accessory protein 7a was identified as a VSR (32). However, 7a protein is not  
87 essential for viral replication and transcription at least in cell culture and tested animal  
88 models and is unique to SARS-CoV (33, 34). Consequently, it is interesting to know  
89 whether there is another VSR commonly encoded among coronaviruses family. In this  
90 study, we screened the viral proteins of SARS-CoV as a representative by the  
91 reversal-of-silencing assay and identified the nucleocapsid (N) protein as a novel VSR,  
92 which is conserved and encoded by all the coronaviruses.

93 N protein is a basic protein (with typical pIs of ~10) and has nonspecific binding  
94 activity toward nucleic acids, including ssRNA, single-stranded and double-stranded  
95 DNA (35, 36). It encapsulates viral genomic RNA (gRNA) to protect the genome and  
96 enters the host cell together with the viral RNA to facilitate its replication (37-40).  
97 Furthermore, we have reported that the N protein antagonizes IFN- $\beta$  by targeting the  
98 initial pattern recognition receptor (PRR)-RNA-recognition step and the C-terminal  
99 domain (CTD) is critical for this antagonism (41). Other studies also revealed that the  
100 SARS-CoV N protein contains two distinct RNA-binding domains (N-terminal

101 domain, NTD and CTD) linked by a poorly structured linkage region (Linker)  
102 containing a serine/arginine-rich (SR-rich) domain (SRD) (42-45). The CTD spanning  
103 residues 248-365 shows stronger nucleic acid-binding activity than the NTD (36, 45,  
104 46) and the basic region between residues 248-280 of CTD forms a positively charged  
105 groove that represents a likely binding region for RNA (46). Here, we demonstrated  
106 that N protein of coronaviruses could efficiently inhibit Dicer-mediated dsRNA  
107 cleavage and post-Dicer activities by sequestering dsRNAs and siRNAs. Furthermore,  
108 we showed that N protein deficient in the RNAi inhibition activity was unable to  
109 promote the replication of mouse hepatitis virus (MHV) comparing with the wild type  
110 N protein and knockdown of Dicer1 or Ago2 enhanced the MHV replication. Our  
111 studies identified a novel coronaviral VSR and provide new evidence on the existence  
112 of RNAi-mediated antiviral response in mammalian cells.

### 113 **Materials and Methods**

#### 114 **Plasmids and RNAs**

115 For RNAi suppression assays in mammalian cells, the plasmid eGFP-C1 (Clontech)  
116 was used to express the enhanced green fluorescent (eGFP) protein. The eGFP  
117 specific shRNA (shGFP) and control shRNA targeting luciferase (shLuc) with the  
118 indicated sequences in Table S1 were cloned to vector pSuperRetro driven by H1  
119 polymerase III promoter. The plasmid pCMV-tag2b-N expressing SARS-CoV N  
120 protein and the deletion mutants with flag tag were constructed in our previous work  
121 (41). The open reading frame 6 (ORF 6) expression plasmid with HA tag was kindly

122 provided by Dr. Stanley Perlman. Point mutations were introduced into the N coding  
123 region by PCR mediated mutagenesis, with appropriate primers containing the desired  
124 nucleotide changes (Table S2) and subsequently selected by Dpn1 digestion. The  
125 coding sequences of MERS-CoV N protein was chemically synthesized and cloned  
126 into the pCMV-tag2b vector. Plasmids expressing N protein of coronaviruses MHV,  
127 PEDV and TGEV were gifts from Dr. Shaobo Xiao. The NoV B2 expressing plasmid  
128 with myc tag was provided by Dr Christopher S. Sullivan. For RNAi suppression  
129 assays in *Drosophila* S2 cells, the eGFP reporter gene and the FHV B2 were  
130 constructed into the insect expression vector pAc5.1/V5-HisB. SARS-CoV N protein  
131 and ORF6 were inserted into the EcoRI/NotI sites of pAc5.1/V5-HisB. Nonstructural  
132 protein 14 (nsp14) cloned in pAc5.1/V5-HisB were inserted in to the NotI/XhoI sites.  
133 The primers are shown in Table S2. Full-length cDNA of FHV RNA1 and  
134 RNA1- $\Delta$ B2 (T2739C and C2910A) were described previously (17). In addition, the  
135 siRNAs targeting eGFP (siGFP) were prepared by chemical synthesis (Invitrogen)  
136 while siRNAs targeting mouse Dicer1 and Ago2 were ordered in QIAGEN. The  
137 oligonucleotides are shown in Table S3. The 244-bp dsRNA for eGFP silencing in  
138 *Drosophila* S2 cells was generated by in vitro transcription using MEGAscript Kits  
139 (Ambion).

#### 140 **Cell culture and transfection**

141 Human embryonic kidney 293T cells (HEK293T), mouse Neuro-2a cells (gifts from  
142 Dr. Yan Zhou) and L2 cells (gifts from Dr. Rong Ye) were maintained in Dulbecco's  
143 modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 100 U/ml

144 penicillin and 100 µg/ml streptomycin. *Drosophila* S2 cells were cultured in semi  
145 suspension at 27°C in Schneider's insect medium (Gibco, Carlsbad, CA)  
146 supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Gibco) (18). HEK293T cells were seeded  
147 on 12-well dishes and grown overnight to reach 50% confluence followed by  
148 transfection with standard calcium phosphate precipitation method. Transfection of  
149 *Drosophila* S2 cells was conducted by using FuGene HD reagent (Roche, Basel,  
150 Switzerland) when the cells were grown to reach 80% confluence, according to the  
151 manufacturer's protocol. Neuro-2a and L2 cells were seeded on 12-well dishes and  
152 grown overnight to reach  $1 \times 10^6$  followed by Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen)  
153 transfection. In dose-dependent experiments, empty control plasmid was added to  
154 ensure that each transfection received the same amount of total DNA.

#### 155 **Western blotting analysis**

156 Cells were harvested in cell lysis buffer [50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 150 mM NaCl,  
157 1% NP40, 0.25% deoxycholate and a protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche)], and the  
158 extracts were then subjected to SDS-PAGE and Western blotting, according to our  
159 standard procedures (47). The blots were exposed to luminescent image analyzer  
160 LAS4000 (FUJIFILM). The antibodies used in this study were as follows:  
161 anti-β-actin (Proteintech Group), HRP conjugated anti-eGFP (Santa Cruz  
162 Biotechnology; 1:2000), anti-Flag and anti-HA (Sigma; 1:5000), and anti-Myc  
163 (Roche; 1:2000).

164 **Northern blotting analysis**

165 Total RNA was extracted from cells using TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen), according to  
166 the manufacturer's protocol. For eGFP mRNA detection, 20 µg RNA was subjected  
167 to electrophoresis in 1.2% denaturing agarose gels containing 2.2M formaldehyde.  
168 The separated RNAs were transferred onto a Hybond N+ nylon membrane (GE  
169 Healthcare, Waukesha, WI) and then cross-linked by exposure to UV light. For  
170 siRNA detection, 10 µg low-molecular-weight RNAs extracted from cells using  
171 RNAiso (Takara) were separated on a 12% polyacrylamide gel with 7 M urea, and  
172 transferred to Hybond N+ nylon membranes by electro blotting using a semidry  
173 blotting apparatus. The hybridization with DIG-labeled probes and DIG  
174 chemiluminescent detection were conducted with DIG Northern Starter Kit (Roche  
175 Diagnostics, Indianapolis, IN) according to the manufacturer's instruction. The blots  
176 were exposed to luminescent image analyzer LAS4000 (FUJIFILM). The probe for  
177 detection of eGFP mRNA was complementary to the eGFP ORF region of  
178 nucleotides 1 to 500 (for experiments in mammalian cells) or 501 to 720 (for  
179 experiments in insect cells). The probe for detection of FHV RNA1 and subgenomic  
180 RNA3 specifically targets to the B2 coding region 2738 nt -3058 nt. For eGFP  
181 shRNA and siRNA detection, the sense sequence of eGFP was used to probe the  
182 antisense moiety of shRNA and siRNA of eGFP. All probes were labeled with  
183 digoxigenin (DIG)-UTP by in vitro transcription using DIG Northern Starter Kit.  
184 The templates were made from PCR amplification or annealing with  
185 oligonucleotides listed in Table S1. Ribosome RNAs (rRNAs) or

186 low-molecular-weight RNAs were visualized by staining with ethidium bromide.

#### 187 **Expression and purification of recombinant proteins**

188 The coding sequences of SARS-CoV N protein and WhNV B2 were PCR amplified  
189 and inserted into the BamHI/NotI sites of pGEX-6P-1. BL21 *Escherichia coli*  
190 (Invitrogen) transformed with the expression plasmids were grown to the log phase  
191 and induced with 0.6 mM isopropyl- $\beta$ -D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) followed by  
192 incubation at 16°C for 12 hr. After harvest by centrifugation, the bacterial pellet was  
193 lysed with the lysis buffer [50 mM Tris-HCL (PH 8.0), 150 mM NaCl, 1mM EDTA,  
194 1mM DTT 0.1 mg/ml lysozyme, 0.05% NP40] and the recombinants proteins were  
195 purified with glutathione resin (GenScript) according to manufacturer's instruction  
196 and stored at -80 °C.

#### 197 **Gel shift assay and RNase III-mediated cleavage assays**

198 244-bp DIG-labeled dsRNA, 500 bp dsRNA and 500 nt ssRNA were generated by in  
199 vitro transcription using DIG RNA Labeling Mix (Roche). Gel shift assays for RNA  
200 binding were performed using 15 $\mu$ M of GST, 15 $\mu$ M of GST-WhNV B2 or increasing  
201 concentrations of GST-N up to 15  $\mu$ M and 0.2 pmol of DIG-labeled RNAs in a 20  $\mu$ l  
202 reaction system containing 50 mM Tris-HCL (PH 7.4), 75 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1  
203 mM DTT and 20 U RNA inhibitor (Fermentas). After incubation for 30 min at 25°C,  
204 reaction mixtures were separated on 1.2% Tris-borate-EDTA (TBE)-agarose gel and  
205 subjected to Northern blotting for DIG signal detection. In gel shift assay for siRNA  
206 binding, 0.2 pmol 5'Hex labeled siRNA was incorporated to the reaction. The reaction

207 mixtures were separated on 4% native polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis following  
208 by fluorescent detection with Typhoon 9200 (Amersham Biosciences).

209 RNase III cleavage inhibition assay were conducted using DIG-labeled 500 bp dsRNA  
210 and RNase III (Invitrogen) as described (19). The assay was performed in 20  $\mu$ l  
211 reaction system containing 0.2 pmol DIG-labeled 500 bp dsRNA, 2  $\mu$ l 10 $\times$  RNase III  
212 reaction buffer (Invitrogen) and 15  $\mu$ M GST, GST-WhNV B2 or GST-N. After 30 min  
213 of preincubation at 25°C, 1 U of RNase III was added and the reaction mixtures were  
214 incubated at 37°C for 30min. Reaction products were resolved by 1.2% TBE-agarose  
215 gel electrophoresis and then subjected to Northern blotting for DIG signal detection.

#### 216 **Sequence alignment and analysis of coronavirus N protein**

217 The Clustal X program V2.0 was used to align the sequences of coronavirus N protein  
218 N. The resulting file was transferred to GENDOC to prepare for the graphic figures.  
219 Sequences for SARS-CoV N proteins were collected from the following genome  
220 sequences: SARS-CoV, strain Tor2, NC\_004718; MERS-CoV-Jeddah-human-1,  
221 KF958702.1); Bat-CoV strain HKU9-1 BF\_005I, NC\_009021; MHV-A59,  
222 NC\_001846; IBV strain Beaudette, NC\_001451; TGEV strain PUR46-MAD,  
223 NC\_002306; PEDV Strain CV777, NC\_003436; H-CoV strain 229E, NC\_002645.

#### 224 **Virus infection, and Real-time PCR**

225 24 hrs or 48 hrs post transfection, Neuro-2a cells or L2 cells were infected with MHV  
226 strain A59 at an MOI of 0.1. At 16 hrs post infection, supernatants were collected and

227 the virus titer was determined by plaque assay on L2 cells (48). For mRNA detection,  
228 total RNA was isolated from cells with TRIzol reagent. The RNA was reverse  
229 transcribed to first strand cDNA using M-MLV reverse transcriptase (Promega). The  
230 SYBR Green master mix (Roche) was used for real-time PCR. Mouse Gapdh mRNA  
231 was used as internal control. The primers used in this study were shown in Table S3.

## 232 **Results**

### 233 **Identification of coronaviral N protein as a VSR in mammalian cells**

234 To evaluate whether coronaviruses encode a VSR, we screened the proteins encoded  
235 by SARS-CoV using the reversal-of-silencing assay in HEK293T cells (Fig. 1A, 1B  
236 and 1C). The NoV B2, a well known VSR in mammalian cells (23), was used as a  
237 positive control. The expression level of enhanced green fluorescent protein (eGFP)  
238 reporter gene was tested by Western blotting and fluorescence microscopy, and the  
239 relative eGFP reversion activities of each protein towards NoV B2 were calculated.  
240 As shown in Fig. 1E, SARS-CoV N protein could efficiently revert the expression of  
241 RNAi-silenced eGFP as well as NoV B2. In contrast, the accessory protein 7a, which  
242 was reported as a VSR of SARS-CoV (32), showed extremely limited VSR activity in  
243 the screening assays. We detected the protein expression level of some constructs  
244 including nsp7-16, N, 7a, ORF6, M and B2, and the results showed that most of them  
245 were readily detectable but at variable levels (Fig. 1D). Therefore, the VSR activity  
246 and its strength observed in the initial screening were not conclusive and had to be  
247 verified by further systematic experiments. Because SARS-CoV N showed relatively

248 higher VSR activity in the reversal-of-silencing assay, we continued to characterize  
249 SARS-CoV N as a potential VSR.

250 To confirm the RNAi suppressor activity of SARS-CoV N protein, we assayed the  
251 capability of N protein in suppressing shRNA-induced eGFP silencing at protein and  
252 mRNA level. The eGFP specific shRNA (shGFP) caused a strong decrease of eGFP  
253 expression (Fig. 2A and 2B) and transcription (Fig. 2C) compared to the irrelevant  
254 shRNA that targets luciferase (shLuc). The nsp14 with non-specific RNA binding  
255 activity (49) and ORF6 protein with IFN antagonistic activity (50) were used as  
256 negative controls. Notably, transfection of the N expression plasmid remarkably  
257 resurrected the expression of RNAi-silenced eGFP at both protein and mRNA level as  
258 well as B2, but ORF6 and nsp14 could not (Fig. 2A, 2B and 2C), indicating that N  
259 suppressed the shRNA-induced RNA silencing of eGFP. Importantly, N protein did  
260 not affect the expression efficiency of eGFP in the absence of shRNA (Fig. 2D and  
261 2E), confirming that N protein inhibited the effects of shGFP-mediated RNAi rather  
262 than promoted eGFP transcription or translation. To exclude that the observed effects  
263 specifically exists in the eGFP reporter system, the RNAi suppression activity of N  
264 protein was determined in an endogenous RNAi system (Fig. 2F). We demonstrated  
265 that the presence of N protein restored the endogenous VHL expression silenced by  
266 VHL-specific shRNA (shVHL), whereas the VHL expression level was not affected  
267 in mock vector (pLko.1) transfected cells (Fig. 2F). Since the RNAi pathway is  
268 conserved from plants to animals, some VSRs of mammalian viruses are also  
269 functional in insect cells such as influenza A virus NS1 and vaccinia virus E3L (22).

270 We further confirmed the VSR activity of SARS-CoV N protein using FHV RNA1  
271 replication system (Fig. 2G). Transfection of pRNA1 led to the self-replication of  
272 FHV RNA1 and the transcription of RNA3 in S2 cells. FHV B2 was well known to  
273 inhibit RNA silencing induced by virus RNA replication. B2-deficient mutant  
274 (pRNA1- $\Delta$ B2) failed to accumulate FHV RNA1 and RNA3. This defect could be  
275 partially rescued by co-transfection with plasmids either expressing SARS-CoV N  
276 protein or FHV B2 (Fig. 2G). To explore whether the RNAi inhibition activity of N  
277 protein is universal among coronaviruses, the N proteins from alpha coronavirus  
278 (Porcine epidemic diarrhea virus, PEDV; Transmissible gastroenteritis virus, TGEV)  
279 and beta coronavirus (SARS-CoV; Middle east respiratory syndrome coronavirus,  
280 MERS-CoV; MHV) were tested. As shown in Fig. 2H, the indicated coronavirus N  
281 proteins inhibited shRNA-induced RNAi in varying degrees in the  
282 reversal-of-silencing system, where, MERS-CoV N showed notably low VSR  
283 activity.

284 To investigate whether the VSR activity is dependent on the protein expression levels,  
285 the increasing amount of SARS-CoV N was tested using the reversal-of-silencing  
286 assay (Fig. 3A and 3B). The reversal effect of eGFP silencing increased progressively  
287 both at protein and mRNA level along with the gradual increase of the transfected  
288 N-expressing plasmid (Fig. 3A). We also detected the eGFP expression at different  
289 time points, and the results showed that reversal of eGFP silencing could be observed  
290 as early as 24 hrs post transfection and was more effective at 48 and 72 hrs (Fig. 3C),  
291 indicating that the VSR activity was dependent on the expression level of SARS-CoV

292 N protein.

293 **N protein inhibits Dicer-mediated siRNA generation and siRNA-induced RNAi**

294 The shRNA-induced RNAi pathway requires Dicer-mediated dsRNA cleavage into  
295 siRNA. To find out whether N protein blocks the aforementioned step, small RNAs  
296 harvested from HEK293T cells were subjected to Northern blotting analysis with  
297 DIG-labeled probes which recognized both shRNA and siRNA (Fig. 4A and 4B). In  
298 the presence of SARS-CoV N protein, an increase in the ratio of shRNA to 21-nt  
299 Dicer-processed siRNA was detected. However, the increase was more obviously in  
300 the presence of NoV B2 (Fig. 4A and 4B). This phenomenon is consistent with the  
301 eGFP expression and its mRNA level observed in the reversal-of-silencing assays (Fig.  
302 2). To further demonstrate whether N protein could block RNAi induced by siRNA  
303 (the post-Dicer product), 40 nM eGFP-specific siRNA (siGFP) was used to induce a  
304 remarkable reduction of eGFP expression (Fig. 4C). As shown in Fig. 4D and 4E, the  
305 decrease of eGFP expression and its mRNA level in HEK293T cells was partially  
306 inhibited in the presence of SARS-CoV N protein comparing with NoV B2. We  
307 investigated the capability of RNA silencing repression of N protein in insect cells.  
308 Consistent with the phenomenon observed in cells, the presence of SARS-CoV N  
309 protein efficiently abolished the eGFP-specific RNAi induced by dsRNA  
310 (dsRNA-GFP) while remarkably inhibited the siGFP-induced RNAi in *Drosophila* S2  
311 cells (Fig. 4F). In conclusion, the N protein could inhibit the RNA silencing in  
312 mammalian and insect cells at both Dicer-processing and post-Dicer stages with  
313 different efficiency.

314 **N protein directly binds to RNAs and prevents dsRNA from RNase**  
315 **III-mediated cleavage in vitro.**

316 A number of VSRs could sequester RNA duplexes from Dicer cleavage and the  
317 incorporation of siRNA into RISC by dsRNA binding activity, such as NoV B2,  
318 EBoV VP35 and influenza virus NS1 (20, 22, 23). To investigate the mechanism of N  
319 protein as a VSR, we adopted a gel shift assay after the incubation of recombinant  
320 GST-tagged SARS-CoV N protein (GST-N) and WhNV B2 (GST-B2) with  
321 DIG-labeled 500 nt ssRNA (Fig. 5A), DIG-labeled 244 bp dsRNA (Fig. 5B) and  
322 synthetic 5'-HEX labeled 21 nt siRNA (Fig. 5C), which mimic viral ssRNA, cellular  
323 pre-Dicer dsRNA and post-Dicer siRNA, respectively. As shown in Fig. 5A to 5C, the  
324 shifting amount of all labeled RNAs increased as more SARS N protein was used in  
325 the reaction up to 15  $\mu$ M, while the WhNV B2 could not bind ssRNA. Interestingly,  
326 the mobility of labeled ssRNA (Fig. 5A) and dsRNA (Fig. 5B) decreased as more  
327 SARS-COV N protein used, except that of labeled siRNA (Fig. 5C), suggesting that  
328 one molecule of long RNAs (ssRNA and dsRNA) was bound by the multiple N  
329 proteins. Subsequently, we examined the possibility of SARS-COV N protein to  
330 protect dsRNA from RNase III-mediated cleavage. RNase III is a Dicer homolog and  
331 was widely used as the Dicer substitute *in vitro* as previously reported (51). As shown  
332 in Fig. 5D, in gel shift assay, 500 bp dsRNA formed a high-molecular-weight  
333 complex with GST-N as well as GST-B2, and therefore was protected from RNase III  
334 digestion. However, without the protection of GST-N or GST-B2, dsRNA was  
335 digested into 21-to 23-nt siRNA. These data illustrated that N protein could directly

336 bind dsRNA to prevent the digestion of Dicer and partially sequester siRNA at  
337 post-Dicer stages.

338 **Positively charged residues Lys 258 and Lys 262 of SARS-CoV N protein are**  
339 **critical for the RNAi repression activity.**

340 Mutagenesis and alanine scanning analyses were performed to identify the critical  
341 domain or amino acid (aa) required for the VSR activity of SARS-CoV N protein. The  
342 domain architecture of SARS-CoV N protein is shown in Fig. 6A. Based on domain  
343 truncation analysis, we found that the N-terminal (1-181 aa) and the C-terminal  
344 (365-422 aa) of SARS-CoV N protein are not required for RNAi inhibition activity  
345 (Fig. 6B), suggesting that the functional VSR region might be located at the linkage  
346 region (Linker) and CTD of SARS-CoV N protein (182-365 aa). The expression of  
347 truncated proteins was evaluated (Fig. 6C). Previous studies revealed that this region  
348 possesses an SR-rich domain (182-227 aa) and a positively charged groove (248-280  
349 aa) (Fig. 6A), which might employ positively charged residues arginine and lysine to  
350 mediate electrostatic interaction with the phosphate backbone of RNAs (36, 46, 52,  
351 53). Therefore, multiple sequence alignments of the SR-rich domain (data not shown)  
352 and the positive charged groove of CTD of coronaviruses N protein (Fig. 6A) were  
353 performed, and the single or double mutations of conserved arginine and lysine were  
354 analyzed by the reversal-of-silencing assay in HEK293T cells as shown in Fig. 6D  
355 and Fig. 6E. Further mutational analysis revealed that mutations of conserved Lys 258  
356 and Lys262 in CTD of N protein (K258A and K262A) completely abolished its ability  
357 to repress RNAi induced by shRNA in HEK293T cells (Fig. 6F). Taken together,

358 these data show that the positively charged residues Lys 258 and Lys 262 are critical  
359 for the RNAi repression activity of SARS-CoV N protein, and these results support  
360 the importance of RNA-binding activity of protein N in RNAi suppression.

#### 361 **SARS-CoV N protein and NoV B2 promote the replication of coronavirus MHV**

362 To demonstrate the physiologic function of coronaviruses N protein as a VSR *in vivo*,  
363 we used the coronavirus MHV strain A59, which belongs to the same virus group as  
364 that of SARS-CoV, as a model to investigate the influence of N protein and its  
365 mutants on virus replication. We and others have reported that the multiple functional  
366 N protein is essential for coronavirus, and the expression of N protein either *in cis* or  
367 *in trans* could facilitate the viral replication (40, 54, 55). Therefore, SARS-CoV N  
368 protein, N mutants and NoV B2 provided *in trans* were tested in the *in vivo* system.  
369 As shown in Fig. 7A to 7D, the MHV titer was up-regulated 3-5 fold by SARS-CoV  
370 N protein in a dosage-dependent manner in Neuro-2a cells (Fig. 7A), while the VSR  
371 inactive mutant K258/262A failed to promote the replication of MHV (Fig. 7B). In  
372 contrast, the VSR activity irrelevant mutant K267A (Fig. 6E) exhibited similarly  
373 promotion as wild type N protein (Fig. 7B). Impressively, the typical VSR NoV B2  
374 could also facilitate the replication of MHV (Fig. 7B), further suggesting that the  
375 increase of MHV replication may be due to the general suppression of RNAi in host  
376 cells. The MHV titers were checked by the plaque assays in L2 cells (Fig. 7D). These  
377 results were also confirmed by analyzing the synthesis of viral gene 7 mRNA (mRNA  
378 7) using RT-PCR in Neuro-2a cells (Fig. 7C), and the expression of corresponding  
379 proteins were evaluated (Fig. 7E). As shown in Fig. 7D and 7E, the effect of

380 SARS-CoV N protein on the enhancement of MHV growth was also dose-dependent,  
381 consistent with the previous observation (Fig. 3A and 3B). In the above assays, the  
382 steady-state protein level of K258/262A mutant was similar to that of wild type N  
383 protein with the transfection dosage of 300 ng DNA (Fig. 7E); however, the mutant  
384 K258/262A could not promote MHV growth, but 300 ng wild type N protein could  
385 still significantly enhance virus replication (Fig. 7A, 7D and 7E). Therefore, the  
386 deficiency of K258/262A mutant in VSR activity was not due to reduced expression  
387 level.

388 Coronaviruses N proteins have been reported to have IFN- $\beta$  response inhibition  
389 activity in IFN induction systems (41, 50, 56), suggesting that N might also promote  
390 MHV replication through antagonizing IFN responses in host cells. However,  
391 previous studies on coronavirus infections showed that MHV induces a minimal type  
392 I IFN response in several cell types, and the expression of IFN- $\beta$  is undetectable  
393 (57-60). When Neuro-2a cells were treated with dsRNA analog poly (I:C), low level  
394 of IFN- $\beta$  was produced, but MHV infection did not induce expression of IFN- $\beta$  (Fig.  
395 7F). We also analyzed the transcription of the *Ifn- $\beta$*  mRNA and its downstream gene  
396 *Isg56* mRNA that represent the expression level of type I IFN. As shown in Fig. 7G  
397 and 7H, the mRNA level of *Ifn- $\beta$*  and *Isg56* are neither reduced compared with Nov  
398 B2 and vector control nor significantly changed with N protein and its mutants, which  
399 ruled out the possibility that the N protein increased MHV production by antagonizing  
400 IFN- $\beta$  signaling pathway. These results demonstrated that SARS-CoV N protein  
401 could promote the virus replication independently of IFN signaling pathway and the

402 critical residues Lys 258 and Lys 262 of SARS-CoV N protein for VSR activity are  
403 involved in facilitating MHV replication by inhibiting the RNAi-mediated antiviral  
404 mechanism. Moreover, the irrelevant viral protein NoV B2 could also promote the  
405 replication of MHV, indicating that the MHV replication might be sensitive to the  
406 RNAi-mediated antiviral response.

#### 407 **Knockdown of either Dicer1 or Ago2 facilitated the replication of MHV**

408 To further investigate the function of RNAi-mediated antiviral response when the  
409 IFN-mediated antiviral response is highly repressed by coronaviruses, the Dicer1 and  
410 Ago2 transcripts in mouse Neuro-2a and L2 cells were knocked down by synthetic  
411 siRNAs (siDicer1 and siAgo2). As shown in Fig. 8, the mRNA levels of *Dicer1* and  
412 *Ago2* were markedly reduced in cells transfected with siDicer1-6 and siAgo2-4,  
413 respectively (Fig. 8A and Fig. 8C), while the *Ifn- $\beta$*  mRNA was not significantly  
414 affected (Fig. 8B and Fig. 8D). The RNAi deficient Neuro-2a cells were still  
415 competent in IFN production (Fig. 9A), indicating that RNAi depletion did not  
416 non-specifically abolish IFN pathway. In RNAi-deficient Neuro-2a cells, either in the  
417 presence or absence of SARS-CoV N protein, the replications of MHV were increased  
418 to the same level as in RNAi pathway healthy cells provided with SARS N protein  
419 (Fig. 9B and 9C). Accordingly, there was no reduction in the mRNA level of *Isg56*  
420 observed in the presence of SARS-CoV N (Fig. 9D), indicating that the increase of  
421 MHV replication was affected by the attenuated RNAi pathway but not by  
422 suppression of type I IFN response. In fact, the mRNA level of *Isg56* increased to  
423 some extent whereas the replication of MHV was still promoted in Ago2-knockdown

424 cells (Fig. 9B to 9D), strongly suggesting that RNAi knockdown was involved in  
425 these cells. Moreover, the differences of MHV replication promotion between  
426 wild-type SARS-CoV N protein, NoV B2 and mutant K285/262A of SARS-CoV N  
427 protein observed in Neuro-2a cells (Fig. 7) were eliminated in RNAi knockdown cells  
428 by siDicer1 or siAgo2, respectively (Fig. 9E, 9F, 9H and 9I), while expression of  
429 these proteins did not result in different IFN responses (Fig. 9G and 9J). The VSR  
430 activity was also analyzed in L2 cells that are highly IFN-sensitive. Both healthy and  
431 RNAi pathway-deficient L2 cells could produce high level of IFN- $\beta$  (up to 10000  
432 pg/ml) when infected by Sendai virus (SeV), but the production of IFN- $\beta$  was still  
433 undetectable when infected by MHV (Fig. 9K). In RNAi-competent L2 cells (treated  
434 with siGFP), N protein could significantly increase MHV growth (Fig. 9L).  
435 Interestingly, when the RNA pathway was depleted by siDicer1-6 or siAgo2-4, the  
436 increment of MHV growth was kept in the absence of N or in the presence of  
437 VSR-deficient mutant K258/262A (Fig. 9L). Together, the observations in L2 cells  
438 indicate that either suppression of RNAi by SARS-CoV N or depletion of RNAi  
439 pathway by siRNAs could lead to increment of MHV growth. These results were  
440 consistent with that of Neuro-2a cells.

441 Taken together, these results demonstrate that SARS-CoV N protein is a novel VSR  
442 and the RNAi pathway was involved in anti-coronavirus response in mammalian  
443 cells.

444 **Discussion**

445 Mammalian RNA viruses have evolved many mechanisms to protect their genomic  
446 RNAs and dsRNAs generated as replicative and transcriptive intermediates (30, 31,  
447 59, 61) from host cell recognition. For examples, they associate the  
448 replication-transcription complex (RTC) with the double membrane vesicles (DMV)  
449 to form a protective microenvironment which prevents viral RNA from being detected  
450 by host cell sensors (62, 63); encode several RNA processing enzymes to undergo  
451 RNA modifications such as RNA capping to mimic the host cell RNAs (49, 64); and  
452 adopt RNA binding proteins to protect viral RNAs (65, 66). However, virus-derived  
453 small RNAs were still detectable in 41 human cell lines infected with 6 different RNA  
454 viruses respectively (5). Moreover, several reports showed that virus-specific siRNAs  
455 accumulated in infected mammalian cells, and recently the specific siRNAs of  
456 Encephalomyocarditis virus (EMCV) and Nodamura virus (NoV) were deep  
457 sequenced (6, 7). Therefore, in mammalian cells which possess functional RNAi  
458 pathway, the sequence-specific RNA degradation would still threaten the abundant  
459 viral mRNA in cytoplasm if without VSR during virus infection, especially for  
460 coronavirus, the largest RNA virus as known. In this study, we showed the evidence  
461 that coronaviruses also possess VSR, which was identified as N protein that shares  
462 similar structural architecture and gRNA/subgenomic RNA (sgRNA) binding activity  
463 to enhance the viral transcription, replication and assembly among coronaviruses (37,  
464 38, 40, 65, 66). It is abundantly produced in infected cells to support its multiple  
465 functions as well as VSR. Besides the ssRNA binding activity, we showed that N

466 protein also possesses the dsRNA and siRNA binding activities. Moreover,  
467 SARS-CoV N protein could bind more efficiently with long ssRNA and dsRNA than  
468 siRNAs (Fig. 5), which may be resulted from cooperative binding of multiple N  
469 protein monomers. Coronavirus possess the largest single stranded genomic RNA and  
470 abundant subgenomic RNAs and dsRNA intermediates (29-31, 61). Therefore, we  
471 propose a hypothesis that the coronaviruses N protein might protect viral RNA from  
472 RNAi-mediated gene silencing at three stages (Fig. 10): (1) binding viral ssRNAs to  
473 prevent the positive- and negative-sense genomic or subgenomic RNAs from  
474 formation of unnecessary intramolecular and intermolecular dsRNA; (2) shielding  
475 virus-derived dsRNA from Dicer cleavage through dsRNA binding activity; (3)  
476 binding to virus-derived siRNA to interfere with RISC assembly.

477 In this study, we showed that the VSR activity was highly dependent on the protein  
478 expression levels (Fig. 3A and 3B; Fig. 7D and 7E). In the initial screening assays for  
479 putative VSRs (Fig. 1), we did not evaluate the protein expression levels of different  
480 constructs, and therefore effects observed in the reversal-of-RNA silencing could not  
481 be directly compared and may result in either false-positive or false-negative  
482 outcomes. For example, SARS-CoV 7a, previously reported as a VSR (32), did not  
483 show apparent VSR activity in our assay system. Notably, the MERS-CoV N protein  
484 expression level is higher than that of SARS-CoV N protein, while the VSR activity  
485 of MERS-CoV N protein is less than that of SARS-CoV N protein (Fig. 2H). These  
486 results suggest that the N proteins of coronaviruses may have different intrinsic  
487 activities in suppressing RNAi. We speculate that the low VSR activity of

488 MERS-CoV N might be compensated by a second VSR and one potential candidate  
489 could be the dsRNA-binding IFN antagonist protein 4a (67).

490 Previous studies revealed that the three distinct and highly conserved domains of N  
491 proteins (NTD, SRD and CTD) could bind with viral RNAs in different coronaviruses  
492 (42, 66, 68, 69). The NTD has been found to associate with a stem-loop structure  
493 located at the 3' end of RNA genome, and the CTD was involved in the specific  
494 binding of coronaviral packaging signal within nonstructural protein nsp15 region (43,  
495 70, 71). The critical residues Lys 258 and Lys 262 of SARS-CoV N protein for VSR  
496 identified in current study are located in the positive charged groove of CTD (Fig. 6).  
497 Moreover, Lys 258 was previously reported as a significant determinant of  
498 SARS-CoV N protein CTD binding affinity towards oligo nucleotides (36). Here, we  
499 chose SARS-CoV N protein to promote MHV because SARS-CoV is closely related  
500 to MHV on one side while the CTD of SARS-CoV N protein cannot enhance the  
501 specific selective packaging of MHV gRNA to facilitate the MHV replication (71).  
502 Therefore, that the VSR inactive mutant K258/262A of SARS-CoV N protein led to  
503 the attenuation of MHV replication might imply that the sufficient VSR activity is  
504 important for the coronaviruses replication.

505 Although the IFN-mediated antiviral response is important for mammalian cells, a lot  
506 of studies have indicated that MHV is a poor inducer of type I IFN response (59).  
507 Moreover, MHV is resistant to the pretreatment of IFN- $\alpha/\beta$  and does not induce the  
508 generation of IFN- $\beta$  in various cell types, suggesting that it can suppress IFN  
509 signaling pathway or its downstream gene effects at multiple level (56, 58). In this

510 study, we showed that MHV infection did not induce the production of IFN- $\beta$  in both  
511 mouse Neuro-2a and L2 cells (Fig. 7F and 9A). In primary cells, IFN is induced by  
512 MHV infection in plasmacytoid dendritic cells (pDC) and macrophages (57, 72, 73),  
513 but not in neurons, astrocytes and hepatocytes (57). Therefore, we used coronavirus  
514 MHV strain A59 as a replication model, which might to some extent avoid the impact  
515 of IFN response, to investigate the influence of N protein and its mutants on virus  
516 replication. Here we demonstrate that SARS-CoV N protein could promote MHV  
517 replication both in Neuro-2a cells and L2 cells, the former being low responsive to  
518 IFN induction while the latter highly sensitive (Fig. 7 and Fig. 9). We also test the  
519 VSR activity of N protein in IFN-deficient insect cells (Fig. 2G). These results  
520 indicate that the VSR activity of SARS-CoV N protein is independent of either cell  
521 type or interferon pathway. Moreover, the depletion of critical components Dicer1 or  
522 Ago2 of the RNAi pathway in Neuro-2a and L2 cells results in significant  
523 upregulation of MHV replication, which was not dependent on the changes of  
524 interferon response (Fig. 9), further strengthen the role of SARS-CoV N protein in  
525 IFN-independent RNAi suppression.

526 In the study of Schelle and colleagues (74), the observed role of CoV N protein in the  
527 trans-complementation is most likely related to the virus recovery step before viral  
528 replication, whereas in our experimental system, we are dealing with a wild type virus  
529 that does not require trans-complementation for virus recovery, and thus the role of  
530 SARS-CoV N protein we observed is its effect on virus replication. The modest  
531 increment of MHV replication by SARS-CoV N protein suggests that the natural N

532 protein of MHV may already exert rather effective VSR function and exogenous  
533 SARS-CoV N protein may further increase the anti-RNAi effect. Interestingly, NoV  
534 B2, which has no correlation and structural or sequence similarities with SARS-CoV  
535 N, exhibited the same ability in stimulating MHV replication. These results indicated  
536 that the MHV replication is sensitive to the RNAi-mediated antiviral response.  
537 However, there has been no direct evidence for existence of CoV-derived siRNAs in  
538 infected cells. Generation of a VSR-defective MHV mutant may help to detect  
539 MHV-derived siRNAs in mammalian cells. Currently, viral siRNAs have been  
540 discovered in cell culture for 6 RNA viruses and in vivo for Encephalomyocarditis  
541 virus (EMCV) and NoV (5-7). Our studies provide new evidence for the functional  
542 RNAi-mediated antiviral response in addition to the IFN-mediated innate immunity in  
543 mammalian cells. These two important antiviral mechanisms might work in turn in  
544 different situations and locations to defense the virus infection, which constantly  
545 provide a positive selection toward VSR and viral IFN-antagonist during the  
546 tachytelic evolution of viruses.

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766 **Figure Legend**

767 **Fig. 1 Screening of potential VSR of SARS-CoV by reversal-of-silencing assays.**

768 293T cells were co-transfected with plasmids encoding eGFP reporter (125 ng),  
769 eGFP specific shRNA (shGFP) (1  $\mu$ g) or luciferase specific shRNA (shLuc) (1  $\mu$ g)  
770 and viral protein of SARS-CoV (500 ng), respectively. (A to C) The expression level  
771 of eGFP was determined by Western blotting 72 hrs post transfection. Empty vector  
772 (Vec) and NoV B2 (B2) were used as mock control and positive control. The shLuc  
773 was irrelevant silencing control.  $\beta$ -actin was used as loading control. (D) The  
774 expression of SARS-CoV-encoded proteins as indicated was detected by Western  
775 blotting. (E) The relative eGFP reversion activity of different viral proteins in (A to  
776 C) was normalized by that of typical VSR NoV B2 control and was shown in the bar  
777 diagram.

778 **Fig. 2 N protein of coronaviruses represses shRNA-induced RNAi in**

779 **mammalian cells.** (A) to (C) HEK293T cells were co-transfected with plasmids of  
780 125 ng encoding eGFP reporter, eGFP-specific shRNA (shGFP) or  
781 luciferase-specific shRNA (shLuc) of 1  $\mu$ g and Flag-tagged SARS-CoV N, nsp14,  
782 ORF6 or Myc-tagged NoV B2 of 300 ng respectively. The expression of eGFP  
783 reporter was analyzed 72 hrs after co-transfection. (A) The intensity of eGFP was  
784 observed under fluorescence microscopy. (B) Cell lysates were harvested and  
785 analyzed by Western blotting. (C) Cellular total mRNAs were harvested and  
786 analyzed by Northern blotting. (D) to (E) HEK293T cells were co-transfected with

787 plasmids encoding eGFP and SARS-CoV N protein or NoV B2 respectively. EGFP  
788 fluorescence, protein and mRNA level were determined by fluorescence microscopy  
789 (D), Western blotting and Northern blotting (E), respectively. (F) HEK293T cells  
790 were co-transfected with plasmids of mock vector pLko.1 (1  $\mu$ g) or shRNA targeting  
791 endogenous gene VHL (shVHL) in the presence or absence of SARS-CoV N protein  
792 (300 ng). 72 hrs post transfection, cells were harvested and subjected to Western  
793 blotting to determine the endogenous VHL expression. (G) S2 Cells were transfected  
794 with 0.03  $\mu$ g pFR1 or 0.6  $\mu$ g pFRNA1- $\Delta$ B2 and with SARS-CoV N or FHV B2 as  
795 indicated above. 48 hrs post transfection, FHV RNA transcription was induced by  
796 incubation with CuSO<sub>4</sub> at 0.5 mM. 24 hrs after induction, cellular total mRNA was  
797 harvested for Northern blot analysis by a probe recognizing FHV RNA1 and 3. The  
798 band between RNA1 and RNA3 represents the mRNA transcribed from B2  
799 expression plasmid. (H) HEK293T cells were co-transfected with plasmids encoding  
800 eGFP, shLuc or shGFP and N proteins of different coronaviruses (Flag-tagged N  
801 proteins of SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV, and HA-tagged N proteins of MHV, PEDV,  
802 and TGEV), respectively. The eGFP expression level and mRNA level were  
803 determined by Western blotting and Northern blotting. Empty vector (Vec, Vec1 or  
804 Vec2), nsp14 and ORF6 were used as negative controls while NoV B2 as positive  
805 control. The shLuc was irrelevant control shRNA.  $\beta$ -actin and ribosome RNAs  
806 (rRNAs) were used as loading controls for Western blotting and Northern blotting,  
807 respectively.

808 **Fig. 3 N protein represses shRNA-induced RNAi in a dose-dependent and**

809 **time-dependent manner in mammalian cells.** Increasing amount of the plasmid  
810 expressing SARS-CoV N protein was transfected into HEK293T cells as indicated in  
811 the upper panel in the reversal-of-silencing assay. 72 hrs after transfection, (A)  
812 Western blotting and (B) Northern blotting were performed to determine the eGFP  
813 protein and mRNA level, respectively. (C) Northern blotting (upper panel) and  
814 Western blotting (bottom panel) were performed 24 hrs, 48 hrs and 72 hrs post  
815 transfection, respectively.

816 **Fig. 4 N protein inhibits the production of siRNA and RNAi in both mammalian**  
817 **and insect cells.** (A) HEK293T cells were co-transfected with plasmid as indicated  
818 above, 72hrs after transfection, small RNAs were harvested from the cells and  
819 probed with DIG-labeled oligonucleotides that correspond to the target sites of  
820 siRNA produced from shGFP. Locations of bands corresponding to shRNA and  
821 siRNA are indicated with cartoons on the right side. Short exposure and long  
822 exposure are shown on the left and right, respectively. An ethidium bromide-stained  
823 gel of low-molecular-weight RNA is shown as a loading control. Neg. represents the  
824 mock control transfected with shLuc. (B) The ratio of shRNA to siRNA in (A) were  
825 quantified based on the corresponding exposure signals and shown in the bar  
826 diagram. (C) EGFP expression plasmid (200 ng) was co-transfected with multiple  
827 concentrations (5nM to 40 nM) of synthetic eGFP specific siRNA (siGFP) to  
828 confirm the effective siGFP concentration in HEK293T cells. 72 hrs after  
829 transfection, cell lysates were harvested to determine the reduction in eGFP  
830 expression by Western blotting. (D) to (E) SARS-CoV N protein inhibits siRNA

831 induced RNAi. HEK293T cells were transfected with plasmids as indicated above.  
832 72 hrs after transfection, eGFP fluorescence (D), protein (E) and mRNA (F) were  
833 detected as described in Fig. 2. (F) SARS-CoV N protein inhibits RNAi in  
834 *Drosophila* S2 cells. EGFP specific dsRNA (dsRNA-GFP) and siGFP were used to  
835 induce RNAi in S2 cells. The mRNA of eGFP was detected by Northern blotting.  
836 Empty vector (Vec), nsp14 and ORF6 were used as negative controls. NoV B2 and  
837 FHV B2 were used as positive control. Rp49 was used as a loading control.

838 **Fig. 5 N protein binds to RNAs and inhibits the Dicer-like RNase III cleavage**  
839 **reaction in vitro.** Increasing amount of purified GST-tagged SARS-CoV N protein  
840 (GST-N) from 0 to 15 $\mu$ M was incubated with 0.2 pmol 500 nt DIG-labeled ssRNA (A)  
841 or 244 bp DIG-labeled dsRNA (B) at 25°C for 30 min respectively. Complexes were  
842 separated on 1.2% TBE-agarose gel and subjected to Northern blotting. The free  
843 ssRNA and dsRNA are indicated at the left side. (C) GST-N up to 15 $\mu$ M was  
844 incubated with 0.2 pmol 5'-HEX labeled 21 nt siRNA as described in (A and B).  
845 Complexes were applied to 4% native polyacrylamide gel and the fluorescent signal  
846 was visualized by Typhoon 9200. The free siRNA is indicated at the left side. (D)  
847 DIG-labeled 500 bp dsRNA was incubated with purified proteins as indicated above  
848 at 25°C for 30 min before the processing of Dicer-like RNase III at 37°C for 30 min.  
849 The reaction products were separated on 1.2% TBE-agarose gel and subjected to  
850 Northern blotting. The free dsRNA is indicated at the left side and the cleaved dsRNA  
851 is indicated at the right side. The shifted protein-RNA complexes are indicated by  
852 black arrows at the right side. The protein GST and GST-tagged WhNV B2 (GST-B2)

853 were used as mock control and positive control.

854 **Fig. 6 Conserved residues LysK258 and LysK262 of SARS-CoV N protein are**

855 **critical for RNAi activity.** (A) The schematic diagram of the domain architecture of

856 the SARS-CoV N protein and multiple sequence alignment of CTD spanning

857 residues 248-281 of coronaviruses N proteins. The conserved residues are indicated

858 by solid black box. NTD, N-terminal domain; CTD, C-terminal domain; SR-rich,

859 rich in serine and arginine; Linker, linkage region. (B) and (C) Mapping of critical

860 residues of SARS-CoV N protein for VSR activity. The RNAi repression activity of

861 Flag-tagged truncations of SARS-CoV N protein were analyzed by

862 reversal-of-silencing assay as described in Fig. 2B. The expression of truncated

863 SARS-CoV N proteins was detected by Western blotting (C). (D) to (F) The RNAi

864 repression activity of Flag-tagged mutants of SARS-CoV N protein were analyzed

865 by the reversal-of-silencing assay as described in Fig. 2. (F) The mutants K257A,

866 K258A, K262A and R263A were further analyzed based on the results from (E).

867 **Fig. 7 SARS-CoV N protein promotes MHV replication when provided in trans.**

868 (A) to (B) Mouse Neuro-2a cells were transfected with plasmids as indicated and

869 infected with MHV strain A59 at multiple of infection (MOI) 0.1 at 24 hr post

870 transfection. 16 hrs after infection, culture supernatants were collected and subjected

871 to plaque assay on L2 cells to determine the MHV titers. The relative titer fold of

872 MHV were quantified and showed in the bar diagram. The actual virus titers are in

873 indicated (A) to show MHV replication efficiency. (C) Total RNAs were extracted

874 from the transfected cells and subjected to RT-PCR using the primers targeting the

875 subgenomic RNA7 of MHV. Data were normalized to the abundance of endogenous  
876 mouse Gapdh mRNA. (D) The virus plaque formation was analyzed on L2 cells at a  
877 dilution of  $10^{-6}$ . (E) Protein expression levels in transfected cell lysates were detected  
878 by Western blotting with indicated antibodies.  $\beta$ -actin was used as a loading control.  
879 (F) Neuro-2a cells were infected with MHV strain A59 at an MOI of 0.1 or  
880 transfected with 2 $\mu$ g poly (I:C). 16 hrs post infection or transfection, IFN- $\beta$   
881 production was determined by ELISA. (G) to (H) Total RNAs were extracted from the  
882 transfected cells as described in (B) and subjected to RT-PCR to detect mRNA of *Ifn- $\beta$*   
883 and *Isg56*. Error bars indicate means and standard deviations of triplicate experiments.  
884 \*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$  and no significant (ns) (by unpaired Students's *t*-test).

885 **Fig. 8 Screen for siRNAs targeting mouse Dicer1 and Ago2.** Mouse Neuro-2a  
886 cells were transfected with 40 nM siDicer1 (A and B) or siAgo2 (C and D). 48 hrs  
887 post transfection, total cellular mRNAs were extracted and subjected to RT-PCR to  
888 determine the mRNA levels of Dicer1 (A), Ago2 (C) and *Ifn- $\beta$*  (B and D). siGFP was  
889 used as the negative control. Data were normalized to the abundance of internal  
890 mouse GAPDH mRNA. Error bars indicate means and standard deviations of  
891 triplicate experiments.

892 **Fig. 9 Knockdown of Dicer1 or Ago2 facilitated MHV replication.** (A) Mouse  
893 Neuro-2a cells were transfected with siRNAs as indicated above, and 48 hrs post  
894 transfection, cells were infected with MHV at an MOI of 0.1 or transfected with 2  $\mu$ g  
895 poly (I:C). 16 hrs post infection or transfection, IFN- $\beta$  production was determined by  
896 ELISA. (B) to (J) Mouse Neuro-2a cells were co-transfected with 40 nM siRNA and

897 500 ng protein expression plasmids as indicated and infected with MHV strain A59  
898 at MOI of 0.1 at 48 hrs post transfection. 16 hrs post infection, culture supernatants  
899 were collected and subjected to plaque assays on L2 cells to determine the MHV  
900 titers. (B), (E) and (H) The relative titer fold of MHV were quantified and shown in  
901 the bar diagrams. Total RNAs were extracted from the transfected cells and  
902 subjected to RT-PCR to determine the indicated mRNA levels. MHV RNA7 level  
903 was shown in (C), (F) and (I). *Isg56* mRNA level was shown in (D), (G) and (J). (K)  
904 L2 cells were transfected with siRNAs as indicated above, and 48 hrs post  
905 transfection, cells were infected with MHV or SeV. 16 hrs post infection, IFN- $\beta$   
906 production was determined by ELISA. (L) L2 was transfected and infected similarly  
907 as described for Neuro-2a cells. The MHV titers were determined by plaque assay.  
908 Empty vector (Vec) and siGFP were used as the negative control. Data were  
909 normalized to the abundance of endogenous mouse Gapdh mRNA. Error bars  
910 indicate means and standard deviations of triplicate experiments.

911 **Fig. 10 Model for the suppression of RNAi in mammalian cells by coronaviruses**  
912 **N protein.** Following the entry and un coating of coronaviral virions, the  
913 single-stranded genomic RNA (gRNA) is protected by N proteins and serves as a  
914 template for the synthesis of negative-strand gRNA and a set of subgenomic RNA  
915 (sgRNA). The (-) gRNA and (-) sgRNA are replicated to generate full length gRNA  
916 and a set of (+) sgRNA. The virus-derived double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) could be  
917 generated during the viral transcription and replication. The sgRNA and gRNA  
918 sequence may also form intramolecular hairpin structure. These viral dsRNA may be

919 recognized by Dicer, consequently triggering antiviral RNAi. Coronaviruses N

920 proteins may repress the RNAi at 3 different stages as indicated.



















