

NOD2 dependent signalling exacerbates the intestinal epithelium injury and limits murine Norovirus propagation

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Abstract. Over 90% of epidemic nonbacterial gastroenteritis are caused by human Noroviruses (NoV) which are persisting in a substantial subset of people allowing their spread worldwide. It leads to a significant number of endemic cases and up to 70,000 children deaths in developing countries. NoVs are primarily transmitted through the fecal-oral route. To date studies have focused on the influence of the gut microbiota on viral clearance by enteric immunity. In this study, the use of the persistent mouse Norovirus S99 strain (MNoV S99) allowed us to provide evidence that bacterial sensing by nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain 2 (Nod2) promotes the noroviral associated pro-inflammatory pathology in a dextran sodium sulphate induced colitis mouse model. By contrast, the establishment of the pathology in the colon is improved in the absence of Nod2. We also show in our cellular models a greater phosphorylation of Signal Transducer and Activator of Transcription1 (STAT1) in macrophages infected by MNoV_S99 when compared with mock-infected cells. This increased STAT1 phosphorylation is associated with an induction of NOD2 expression in macrophages. This in turn enhances myeloid cells response to muramyl dipeptide (MDP) resulting in downstream pro-inflammatory cytokine secretion. Hence, our results uncover a previously unidentified virus-host-bacterial interplay that is particularly important for protecting against several common illnesses, such as Crohn's disease.

Introduction. With the development of high throughput sequencing techniques, we are progressively gaining a better knowledge of the composition of the enteric virome (ensemble of gut virus communities)¹. This is of particular importance for unravelling the pathogenesis of viruses that are establishing persistent infections^{2,3}. Amongst enteric viruses yielding proinflammatory phenotypes, noroviruses (NoV) are responsible for the majority of non-bacterial gastroenteritis worldwide. These single stranded RNA (+) viruses, belonging to the family of Caliciviridae have been studied for several years. Until recent progress in cultivation methods of noroviruses from genogroups I, II, IV, VIII and IX⁴⁻⁶ that infect humans (HuNoVs), mechanistic details were mostly obtained from studies using the mouse norovirus (MNoV)⁷. Indeed, MNoVs can be easily produced in vitro in macrophages or dendritic cells⁸. Several MNoV strains have been described based on their shedding time in the stool and classified as persistent or acute (non-persistent) strains⁹. Multiple intracellular pattern recognition receptors (PRR) have been associated with indirect noroviral detection, especially during NoV genome replication, when double stranded RNA intermediates are generated 10. The Toll like receptor 3 (TLR3) that recognizes any dsRNA in the endosomal compartment and the melanoma differentiation associated protein-5 (MDA-5), a member of the RIG-I like receptor (RLR) family that recognizes long dsRNA, have been shown to participate in the detection of the MNoV 1 strain and its plague isolate the MNoV CW3¹¹. Amongst the Nod like receptor (NLR) family, Nlrp6 was shown to bind with the encephalomyocarditis virus (EMCV), a single strand RNA (+) enteric virus, via the RNA helicase Dhx15. Following the formation of these complexes, interferon (IFN) type I and III signalling responses are triggered via the recruitment of the mitochondrial antiviral signalling (MAVS) protein. Interestingly, this study also showed that, Nlrp6^{-/-} mice infected with MNoV_1 had higher viremia, suggesting similar mechanisms of NoV sensing by Nlrp6¹². Another member of the NLR family, the nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain 2

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(NOD2) mostly known as a sensor of muropeptides from Gram positive and negative bacteria¹³, was also shown to directly bind with the genome (ssRNA-) of the respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) to induce antiviral responses¹⁴. The recruitment of MAVS by NOD2 was needed to activate the interferon-regulatory factor 3 (IRF3) dependent signalling and provoke IFN-B production. So far, no PRR has been identified as a direct sensor of noroviruses. However, NOD2 dependent signalling was shown to potentiate gut inflammation and increase lethality in an E. Coli and MNoV_1 co-infection mouse model¹⁵. Another molecular player that is essential to activate antiviral signalling is the cytosolic protein signal transducer and activator of transcription 1 (STAT1). MNoV 1 infections were shown to be lethal in STAT1 knock-out mice¹⁶. And STAT1 dependent interferon responses were shown to limit MNoV_1 replication and dissemination in vivo¹⁷. Owing to the variety of circulating NoV strains, strain-dependent effects are expected to occur and should be studied more in details. Even a single amino acid change in the NS1/2 viral protein is sufficient to switch the acute MNoV CW3 strain to a persistent state 18, showing the high degree of adaptability of NoV genomes and hence their versatility to counteract host defence mechanisms. Type III interferon (IFN- λ) response has been shown to control the *in* vivo propagation of the persistent MNoV CR6 strain¹⁹, while type I and II interferons mediate innate immune responses against acute MNoV infections ^{16,20}. Interestingly, Cadwell and colleagues have demonstrated how infection with the MNoV persistent strain CR6 rendered Atg16l1^{HM} mice more susceptible to dextran sodium sulphate (DSS)-induced colitis²¹. Functional autophagy is critical for microbial elimination. And NOD2's interaction with ATG16L1 was shown to regulate the autophagy clearance of pathogenic bacteria²². Improper detection of microbial content in the digestif tract leads to intestinal inflammation²³ and loss-of-function point mutations of either NOD2 or ATG16L1 predispose humans to Crohn's disease^{24,25}. Insights into the mechanisms of how the loss of

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tolerance of NOD2 against gut microbial communities can lead to uncontrolled proinflammatory signalling are still missing. In this study, we have investigated the underlying mechanism of the pathogenesis of the persistent MNoV strain S99 (Berlin)²⁶. MNoV S99 dependent inflammatory response to DSS was compared in WT vs Nod2^{-/-} mice. NOD2-dependent signalling pathways activation was further examined in response to MNoV S99 during early or prolonged times of infection in Raw264.7 cell line, bone marrow derived macrophages, monocytes and dendritic cells. Finally, we have evaluated whether the priming effect of MNoV_S99 can fine-tune Nod2

Results.

MNoV_S99 exacerbates the DSS-induced inflammation

dependent pro-inflammatory signalling.

Since MNoV_S99 is a natural strain commonly found in animal facilities that is able to establish persistent infections²⁶, we decided to assess MNoV_S99's implication in the vulnerability to inflammatory responses of the intestinal mucosa. Hence, we examined MNoV_S99's impact in a chemically-induced colitis model. C57BL/6J mice were first infected with a single dose of 10⁷ TCID₅₀PFU/mL of MNoV_S99 or mock-treated with PBS. One week later, drinking water was replaced with either a 3% DSS or 5% DSS solution for a period of seven consecutive days (Fig. 1A). Weight-loss was monitored on a daily basis. With both concentrations of DSS, the pre-treatment with MNoV_S99 had induced a more significant weight loss (purple and orange curves Fig. 1B and C). After 7 days of DSS treatment, mice were sacrificed. Histological analysis of colon sections revealed an increased infiltration of inflammatory cells and epithelial damage in infected mice treated with DSS when compared to similarly challenged animals that were not infected (Fig. 1D). Next, we

quantified the muscle thickness from these colon sections. An increased thickness was measured in mice treated with the virus in presence of both 3 and 5% DSS in comparison with Mock-treated control mice (Fig. 1E). Similarly, histological scoring of the haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) stained colonic sections expectedly showed significantly more severity in mice treated with MNoV_S99 + 3% or 5% DSS than DSS alone (Fig. 1F). Upon mice sacrifice, resected colons were measured. A significantly reduced length was obtained in mice infected with MNoV_S99 and treated with 5% DSS in comparison with non-infected control animals (PBS) (Fig. 1G). The increased level of colitis was also evidenced by a significantly augmented secretion of the pro-inflammatory cytokine interleukin-6 (IL-6) in the supernatants of over-night *in vitro* cultured colon explants from MNoV_S99 infected + 5% DSS treated mice versus those from DSS only mice (Fig. 1H). Taken together, these data clearly show a much worse inflammation state in mice infected with MNoV_S99 in our chemically induced colitis model.

MNoV_S99 associated inflammation is abrogated in *Nod2*-/- mice

unleash a pro-inflammatory response from *Nod2* expressing cells. This was further confirmed after mice were autopsied. Colon tissue sections staining confirmed the decreased levels of colonic inflammation from MNoV_S99 infected Nod2^{-/-} vs WT mice (Fig. 2C). In agreement, muscle thickness quantification from these colon sections showed significantly increased thickness in MNoV_S99-infected WT mice under 3% DSS treatment vs 3% DSS alone (Fig. 2D). While in *Nod2*-/- mice subjected to similar conditions, the excess of inflammation caused by the viral infection was lost. Consequently, the variations of colon length measurements that were induced upon MNoV_S99 infection were absent in Nod2^{-/-} mice when compared to WT infected mice (Fig. S1A). Similarly, differences in histological scores measured from MNoV S99-infected WT mice vs DSS alone were also lost in Nod2^{-/-} infected mice (Fig. S1B). And we could observe a clear trend in the increased levels of secretion of Tumour necrosis factor α (TNFα) in the supernatants of *in vitro* cultured colon explants from WT mice infected with MNoV S99 and treated with 3% DSS vs those with DSS only. This effect was absent in the supernatants from *Nod2*^{-/-} mice infected and treated similarly (Fig. S1C). Overall, these data show the importance of bacterial sensing by NOD2 and the excessive inflammatory response measured in the presence of MNoV_S99 in our DSS-induced colitis mouse model.

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MNoV_S99 associated inflammation relies on NOD2 associated signalling

macrophages and dendritic cells. Recently it was shown that Tuft cells belonging to the gut epithelial cellular lineages, that possess the CD300lf MNoV receptor can also be targeted by the MNoV_CR6 strain²⁸.

Making use of the GFP-Nod2 reporter mice line, we first examined in which cellular lineages Nod2 is expressed. We failed to observe GFP-Nod2 expression in epithelial cells, while plenty of signal was detectable in the bulk of the cells bellow the lamina propria where

Mouse noroviruses are known to have a tropism for the myeloid cell lineages, namely

myeloid cells are located (Fig. 3A). Hence, our investigations regarding NOD2 expression variations in response to MNoV S99 infection focused on macrophages and monocytes in our in vitro cellular models. Interferon production being one of the most common response to the intracellular presence of RNA genomes of foreign origin, we examined if the STAT1 signalling pathway that lays upstream of ATG1611-mediated interferon production was activated in response to murine norovirus infection. To this end, bone marrow derived macrophages (BMDM) from WT mice were infected with several MNoV strains at a multiplicity of infection (Moi) of 1, for 1h and pSTAT1 levels of expression from cell lysates were measured by western blot (Fig. 3B). In contrast to the nonpersistent strain MNoV_CW3 that caused a striking increase in pSTAT1 level, the persistent strains S99 and CR6 infections induced a much milder STAT1 signalling pathway activation. The CW1 strain was associated with the lowest level of activation. Since MNoV_S99 is a natural strain commonly found in animal facilities that is able to establish persistent infections, we further analysed the mechanistic details behind its infection in our cellular models. Using the macrophage cell-line Raw264.7, we confirmed that MNoV_S99 is able to induce phosphorylation of STAT1 (Tyrosine 701) at different times at Moi 1 (Fig. S3). pSTAT1 was detectable as early as 15 minutes post-infection and its expression further increased at 30 min and 1h, while total STAT1 was detectable in control non-infected cells and its expression only slightly increased at later time-points. In addition to the STAT1 activation through the Janus kinases JAK1 and Tyk2, we also examined the status of NFkB activation, another proinflammatory signalling pathway. For this purpose, pIkBa levels were quantified from infected cell lysates. Despite basal low-level activation in mock-infected cells, pIκBα intensity increased slightly at 30 min and 1h post-infection. However, no significant increase

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231 was measured. When checking PI3K-AKT or the MAPK-ERK signalling axes in the same time frame, MNoV S99 failed to induce any activation of these signalling pathways (Fig. 232 S2). Next, we analysed the response of BMDM derived from WT or Nod2^{-/-} mice that were 233 infected with increasing doses of MNoV_S99 for 30 or 60 minutes (Fig. 3C). STAT1 234 235 activation increased over the course of the acute infection in cells derived from WT mice. In contrast, the levels of pSTAT1 were barely detectable in Nod2^{-/-} cells at Moi 1. However, at a 236 237 higher dose (Moi 5), Nod2-dependent STAT1 activation was only observable at the 30 238 minutes time point. At 60 minutes post-infection, the decrease in pSTAT1 levels in response 239 to MNoV_S99 infection was not significant anymore when compared with WT cells. Next, we examined if Stat1 activation was detectable after prolonged times of infection. 240 241 Indeed, we measured significant differences in pStat1 expression levels between WT and *Nod2*^{-/-} MNoV S99-infected cells 24h post-infection at Moi 0.1 (Fig. 3D). 242 243 To examine whether the Mitochondrial antiviral signalling (MAVS) adaptor protein is 244 required for sensing MNoV_S99, BMDM derived from Mavs-deficient mice where compared 245 to WT cells. Interestingly, the higher pStat1 levels measured in WT cells (Moi 0.1, 1h) were significantly decreased in cells derived from Mavs^{-/-} cells (Fig. 3E). 246 247 Altogether, these data show a mild but significant activation of pro-inflammatory signalling 248 pathways following MNoV S99 infection in our *in vitro* cellular models. These signalling responses can be at least partially abrogated in the absence of MAVS and NOD2. 249

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MNoV_S99 persistence is decreased with loss of tolerance to Bacterial MDP

To investigate the mechanisms behind the excessive inflammatory response induced by MNoV_S99 infection in our *in vivo* experiments, we further explored how NOD2 expression levels were affected by the viral infections.

255 NOD2 expression was determined by RT-qPCR in Raw264.7 cells or BMDM derived from WT mice treated with MNoV S99. Interestingly, NOD2 expression levels are significantly 256 257 increased in response to the viral infection in both cellular models (Fig. 4A and 4B). 258 Thus, augmented NOD2 expression plus STAT1 activation following MNoV_S99 infection 259 suggests a proinflammatory signalling loop, that could ultimately limit viral propagation on 260 one hand and induce increased levels of inflammation on the other hand. The norovirus 261 induced NOD2 up-regulation could explain the viral-induced pathogenesis that we observed 262 in our colitis model. Accordingly, when we analyzed the viral replication in BMDM derived from WT or Nod2^{-/-} 263 264 mice infected in vitro with MNoV_S99 (Moi 0.1 for 24h), the quantity of viral genomes was 265 significantly lower in the WT cultures (Fig. 4C). 266 Several reports in the literature have shown an interplay between gut microbiota composition 267 and the intestinal epithelium that modulates the interferon response that in turn favors MNoV infection especially for the MNoV_CR6 persistent strain¹⁹. WT and Nod2^{-/-} mice were 268 269 cohoused for 4 weeks before we measured the viral load in stools by RT-qPCR after RNA 270 extraction. In line with our in vitro data on viral replication in BMDM, we could not detect any viral genome in stools from non-cohoused WT mice (Fig. 4D). $5.49 \cdot 10^2 \pm 1.78 \cdot 10^2$ mean 271 (± sem) genome copies numbers were measured in Nod2^{-/-} mice co-housed with WT mice and 272 $4.12\ 10^2\pm2.63\ 10^2$ in WT mice co-housed with Nod2^{-/-} animals. These preliminary results 273 274 need to be further explored but they hint towards the hypothesis that the knock-out of NOD2 275 favors the multiplication of one or more phylum of the gut microbiota that in turn allows a 276 prolonged persistence of MNoV_S99. 277 In order to have a better comprehension of how these dual stimuli are articulated together, we 278 examined Stat1 and IκBα signalling pathways activation in response to MNoV S99 infection 279 followed by secondary MDP (commonly expressed by all bacteria) treatment in monocytes

isolated from WT mice. As previously shown with BMDM or Raw264.7 cells, MNoV_S99 infection did also induce Stat1 activation (Fig. 4E and 4F) in monocytes. Similarly, IκBα was not activated by the viral infection alone. Though, relatively high basal levels were already detectable in mock-infected cells. As expected the treatment with the peptidoglycan MDP alone triggered potent IκBα activation without activating Stat1 (Fig. 4E, MNoV_S99-, MDP+ condition). Interestingly, while IκBα activation by single MNoV_S99 infection was not achievable (Fig. 4E, MNoV_S99+, MDP- condition), MNoV_S99 infection followed by secondary MDP treatment was associated with both pathways' moderate but significant activation (Fig. 4F, MNoV_S99+, MDP+ vs mock treated cells).

- Similarly, we noticed a significantly augmented pro-inflammatory cytokine TNF α response to
- 290 MDP in dendritic cells that were first primed with Noroviral RNA (Fig. 4G).
- 291 Finally, we compared WT and $Nod2^{-/-}$ derived BMDM cultures' TNF α response to
- 292 MNoV_S99 infection followed by MDP treatment. TNFa levels were increased with
- increasing doses of virus in WT cells, while they remained undetectable (Moi 0.1) or much
- lower (Moi 1) in $Nod2^{-/-}$ cells (Fig. 4H).
- Overall, these in vitro data fit nicely with our in vivo models where excessive bacterial-
- induced inflammatory responses were observed when mice were infected with MNoV S99
- and treated with DSS. The increase in Nod2 transcription levels in response to noroviral
- 298 infection favours in turn excessive inflammatory signalling pathways activation. This suggest
- that MNoV_S99 induces a loss of tolerance to bacterial MDP in WT mice.

Discussion

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The breach in gut flora homeostasis termed dysbiosis is becoming central in the onset of chronic inflammatory bowel disease, such as Crohn's disease^{29,30}. With the development of molecular biology techniques, alterations in the virome relevant to disease pathogenesis are

thoroughly under investigation². The cytosolic sensor NOD2 is very well known for its pathogen associated molecular pattern recognition activity against bacteria¹³, and recently it appears it can also participate in detection of certain viruses¹⁴. Hence, the combination of genetic susceptibility factors and opportunistic viral infections could be one of the triggers of CD³¹. Using pro-inflammatory signalling activation downstream of NOD2 as a read-out, we have analysed if NOD2 can also participate in MNoV detection. All our *in vitro* experiments with monocytic lineage derived primary cells (e.g. BMDM, BMDC and BM) and cell line (e.g. Raw264.7) infected with different MNoV strains showed activation of the STAT1 signalling pathway implicated in the pro-inflammatory IFN response. By contrast, these responses were abrogated in *Nod2*^{-/-} and *Mavs*^{-/-} mice derived BMDM. Amongst enteric viruses commonly found in the microbiota, the Norovirus is considered as a good candidate in the hypothesis of an environmental-driver in genetically susceptible hosts at the origin of Crohn's disease onset. MNoV_CR6 strain was shown to induce colitis in Atg1611^{HM} mice presenting defective autophagy in a DSS colitis model²¹. Several PRR are implicated in viral sensing. MDA-5 and TLR3 have been shown to participate in detection of either MNoV_1 or CW3¹¹. These are both strains which do not persist in vivo, contrary to the S99 (Berlin) MNoV strain²⁶ that was used in our study. Our *in vivo* data show significantly exacerbated inflammation when applying either 3% or 5% DSS colitis protocol to WT mice. The excessive MNoV-S99 associated inflammatory response was abrogated in Nod2^{-/-} mice or in BMDM derived from these mice showing NOD2's implication in the pathogenesis and the viral sensing respectively. The genetic ablation of NOD2 also improved the disease risk conferred by MNoV_CR6 in Atg1611 HM mice (data not shown). Hence, NOD2 dependent signalling adds a layer of regulation in viral sensing and finetunes the immunopathology levels caused by the infection. While in our Norovirus + DSS model

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knocking-down NOD2 prevents gut inflammation, it has the opposite effect with Influenza A virus (IAV) infection in the lung of Nod2^{-/-} or Ripk2^{-/-} mice³². Indeed, the NOD2-RIPK2 signalling axe has been shown to downmodulate the NLRP3 dependent mitophagy activation and the associated inflammatory response in the lung tissue of infected mice. Noroviruses propagation or prolonged persistence is tightly regulated by the interplay between several signalling pathways. MNoV 1 replication was shown to be inhibited in macrophages following LPS mediated NF-κB activation that in turn triggers IFN-β dependent JAK-STAT antiviral activity³³. Interestingly, in our cellular models, in addition to the phosphorylation of STAT1 that we observed when cells were infected with MNoV_S99 alone, the subsequent treatment with MDP induced an increased NfkB signalling pathway via IκBα activation. The synergistic activation of these two pro-inflammatory signalling pathways results in the inhibition of the MNoV_S99 propagation on one hand and the augmented production of the pro-inflammatory cytokine TNFα on the other hand. Hence, the aggravated inflammatory pathology we observed in our DSS colitis model can be explained by this NOD2-dependent dual signalling activation in MNoV S99 infected mice. Similarly, in vitro the signalling and cytokine responses were NOD2 dependent since they were only observed in cultures derived from WT but not in Nod2^{-/-} mice, at least at a lower dose (Moi 0.1) of infection. At higher doses, NOD2-independent alternative mechanisms seem to be active to promote Stat1 activation and TNF α production, but still at a lesser level than in WT cells. In conclusion, our study shows a NOD2 dependent mechanism that prevents low level propagation of the persistent MNoV_S99 strain. When the noroviral infection is coupled with digestif tract injury a positive signalling loop generates a potent pro-inflammatory response that limits viral propagation.

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355 356 357 **Methods:** Unless otherwise indicated, all media and reagents were purchased from ThermoFischer 358 359 Scientific. 360 Colitis mouse model and viral infection 361 362 All animal experiments were approved by the local ethical committee n° CEEA-2016030717519903. Age and gender related Nod2^{-/-} and wild type littermates C57BL/6J mice 363 (CDTA, Orléans, France) were housed 4-6 per cage, under strict pathogens-free environment. 364 Mice were gavaged with 10⁷ TCID₅₀PFU/mL of MNoV_S99 diluted in 200µl PBS or mock 365 treated with PBS only. 7 days post-infection, drinking water was substituted with a 3-5% 366 367 dextran sodium sulphate (DSS) (35,000-40,000 MW; TdB Consultancy) solution replaced 368 every 2 days for a total duration of 7 days. For cohousing experiments, WT or Nod2^{-/-} (n = 5 each) C57BL/6J mice (CDTA, Orléans, 369 370 France) coming from non-specific pathogen free area were cohoused for 4 weeks. A group of 371 non-cohoused WT mice (n = 5) were kept separated. Stools were collected and kept frozen (-372 80°C) until processed for RNA extraction and RT-qPCR measurement of viral genomes (see 373 below). **Cells and virus** 374 375 Mouse leukemic monocyte macrophage cell line RAW264.7 were purchased from ECCAC 376 (Sigma-Aldrich) and maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM), supplemented with 10% (v/v) foetal bovine serum, 1% penicillin/streptomycin and 1% 377 378 sodium pyruvate.

Bone marrow derived macrophages (BMDM) were isolated from femurs of wild-type, Nod2^{-/-} or Mavs^{-/-} mice of C57BL/6J background ³⁴. Briefly, bone marrow cells were flushed out of the bones, red blood cells were lysed using a 160mM NH4CL and 170mM Tris solution for 5 minutes at RT. 3 to 6.10⁶ viable cells were plated in non-cell-culture-treated petri dishes and grown for 5-7 days in Iscove's modified Dulbecco's medium (IMDM), supplemented with 10% foetal bovine serum, 1% penicillin/streptomycin, 1% non-essential amino acid, 1% sodium pyruvate, 1% glutamine, and 20% (v/v) conditioned-media form L929 cells. Bone marrow derived dendritic cells were isolated similarly as BMDM cells. Then, 2.10⁶ viable cells were plated in non-cell-culture-treated petri dishes and grown for 7 days in RPMI 1640, supplemented with 10% FBS, 1% P/S, 1% L-glutamine, 1% HEPES and 20% (v/v) conditioned-media from J558 cell line producing murine granulocyte monocyte colony stimulating factor (GM-CSF). Monocytes were isolated from bone marrow cells by using the mouse Monocyte Isolation Kit (Miltenyi Biotec) and a QuadroMACS separator. The MNoV-S99 strain (GenBank accession no. DQ911368) was provided by Prof. P. Maris from ANSES Fougères Laboratory (France) and was propagated in RAW 264.7 cells. Concentration of stock was determined by plaque assay. Mice were infected orally by pipette with $3x10^7$ plaque forming units (PFU) resuspended in 25μ L PBS. For in vitro infection experiments, 3-5.10⁵ viable cells were seeded in 6 wells plates. The next day, just before viral infection, cells were counted from 1 well to determine precisely the multiplicity of infection (Moi). In the remaining wells medium was removed and replaced with variable quantities of MNoV-S99 from a common viral stock in a final volume of 1 mL fresh medium per well. Mock treated cells were incubated in parallel with matching quantities of culture media from non-infected cells that was generated at the same time as viral stocks.

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403 At various time-points after infection, supernatant was removed and cells were washed once 404 with PBS, before lysis in RIPA buffer for WB analysis or RLT buffer for total RNA 405 extraction (RNAeasy kit, Quiagen) for RT-qPCR experiments.

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Immunohistochemistry, ELISA, western blot and RT-qPCR analysis

408 For immunohistochemistry analysis, formalin-fixed colon samples were embedded in paraffin. 5µm sections were stained with H&E. Slides were imaged with an AxioPlan 2 409 410 (Zeiss) microscope and blindly scored for inflammation severity by two investigators as previously described³⁵. 411 412 For ELISA analysis, briefly 1cm colon samples were recovered from mice, luminal content 413 was flushed with PBS, samples were cut opened and resuspended over-night in 250µl DMEM 414 supplemented with 1% P/S in 24 wells plate at 37°C. The following day, supernatants were 415 collected and stored at -80°C before cytokine measurement. TNFα and Interleukin-6 proteins 416 levels were measured specifically using pre-coated 96 wells ELISA plates (R&D System) 417 following manufacturers indications. For TNFα ELISA from BMDC, 5.10⁵ cells were plated in 24 wells plate and treated with 418 MNoV S99's ssRNA (extracted with RNeasy Quiagen kit) ± MDP or MDP-DD (Invivogen) 419 420 over-night and supernatants were measured for TNF α levels. For TNFα ELISA from BMDM, 2.10⁵ cells were plated in 96 wells plate infected with 421 422 MNoV_S99 (Moi 0.1 or 1) for 6h prior to MDP treatment (10ug/mL) over-night and 423 supernatants were measured for TNF α levels. 424 For western blot analysis, total proteins from cell lysates were quantified by BCA protein 425 assay kit (Pierce), equalized amounts of proteins (10-20µg) were resolved by 4-15% gradient 426 SDS-PAGE gels and transferred to nitrocellulose membranes. Membranes were blocked in 427 0,05% PBS-Tween, 5% skimmed milk solution, before incubation subsequently with primary

and secondary antibodies diluted (see Table 1) in blocking solution. Following secondary antibodies incubations, signals of interest were detected using a chemiluminescence reader (ImageQuantTM Las 4000, GE Healthcare Life Sciences), images were processed and band ROI were quantified with Image J software (NCBI). Mean band intensities \pm SD of protein of interest were normalized to β-actin. Relative values to control mock-infected conditions were compared between different experiments. For Nod2 quantification from MNoV_S99 infected BMDM or RAW264.7 cells, total RNA extraction was performed using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen). One µg of RNA was reversed transcribed in the presence of 2.5mM of oligo-dT using the Reverse Transcriptor kit (Roche) following the manufacturer's instructions. 75ng of cDNAs were amplified using Q5 High-Fidelity 2X Master Mix (New England BioLabs). Primers used in PCR amplification are available upon request. Actb was used as an internal reference gene in order to normalize the transcript levels. Relative mRNA levels $(2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct})$ were determined by comparing (a) the PCR cycle thresholds (Ct) for *Nod2* and *Actb* (Δ Ct) and (b) Δ Ct values for treated and control groups ($\Delta\Delta$ Ct). MNoV_S99 load was determined by measuring MNoV genome copy numbers by RT-qPCR analysis as previously described³⁶. Briefly, total RNA was extracted from BMDM cell cultures using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) and from stool using QIAamp Viral RNA Kit (Qiagen). 5µL of RNA were used per reaction of RT-qPCR. Viral genome levels were determined using the TakyonTMDry No Rox One-Step RT Probe Mastermix (Eurogentec). Viral specifically amplified genomes were using the Fwd 5'GTGCGCAACACAGAGAAAACG3' and Rev 5'CGGGCTGAGCTTCCTGC3' primers that target MNoV ORF1 region combined to a TaqMan probe using the Stratagene Mx3005P (Agilent Technologies). The quantification of viral genome copies was obtained using a

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standard curve with serial dilutions of the plasmid pMNoV1 corresponding to the full genome of

MNoV1 (Dr Christiane Wobus, University of Michigan, USA).

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NOD2^{GFP} immunohistochemistry imaging

- 456 NOD2^{GFP} mice³⁷ in the C57BL/6 background were maintained at the Institut Pasteur Central
- 457 Animal facility. We used heterozygous NOD2^{GFP} mice since the presence of one functional
- 458 copy of NOD2 ensures that physiological responses dependent on functional NOD2 are not
- 459 impaired. Heterozygous NOD2^{GFP} female mice (8-12 weeks of age) were sacrificed and
- several centimetres of the distal ileum were removed, opened longitudinally and washed in
- PBS. The tissue was spread flat over a 4% w/v LMP agarose (Merck) pad and fixed with 4%
- v/v paraformaldehyde (VWR). The ileal tissue was then embedded in a 4% LMP agarose
- block and cut into 200µm-thick sections using a Microm HM 650 V Vibration microtome.
- 464 For staining, tissues were blocked, permeabilized and marked with an anti-GFP (rabbit
- polyclonal antibody A-11122) primary antibody and secondary Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-
- rabbit antibody. Tissues sections were counter stained with DAPI (1µg/mL, BD Biosciences)
- 467 and Phalloidin- iFluor 647 (1:200 dilution, Abcam and mounted using ProLong Gold
- 468 Antifade reagent. Confocal acquisitions were performed using a Leica HyD SP5 confocal
- 469 microscope. Image analysis was performed using Icy version 2.4.2.0³⁸.

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Authors' contribution. G.M. and M.T. performed the majority of the experimental procedures. T.G. contributed to the preclinical studies in mice. M.D., T.G. and O.B. performed RT-qPCR and ELISA analysis. M.D. contributed to histological analysis of colon sections. E.W. performed viral genome quantification by RT-qPCR. R.W. and I.G.B. performed histological analysis of tissue sections from NOD2-β-Gal reporter mice. All authors contributed to interpretation of raw data and critically reviewed and/or modified the manuscript. G.M. and M.C. conceived, designed and wrote the paper.

Figures legends:

Figure 1: MNoV S99 aggravates inflammation in DSS-induced colitis

A)- In vivo experimental design, C57BL/6J mice were orally gavaged with PBS or MNoV_S99 (10⁷ TCID₅₀PFU/mL), 7 days later, all the mice were given DSS in drinking water for a week. Mice were weighed daily for weight loss comparison. B)- 3% DSS-induced colitis ± MNoV_S99 (n = 6). C)- 5% DSS-induced colitis ± MNoV_S99 (n = 6). In B) and C), statistical differences were determined by 2 ways ANOVA test, * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001. D)- Representative images from H&E staining of colon sections from mock-treated (Control) or 3% DSS ± MNoV_S99 treated mice. Insets showing higher magnifications from each image are presented next to each image. E)- Muscle wall thickness was determined with Image J from colon section images. Percentages of increase are plotted after baseline subtraction relatively to the values obtained from Control mice (n = 6). F)- Histological intestinal epithelial inflammation scores comparison between Control, 3% or 5% DSS ± MNoV_S99 treated mice (n = 6). G)- Colon length comparison between Control and 5% DSS ± MNoV_S99 treated mice (n = 6). Statistical differences were determined with Student's t-Test in E, F, G and H.

Figure 2: MNoV S99 associated inflammation is NOD2 dependent

Weight loss comparison in A)- 3% DSS-induced colitis \pm MNoV_S99 in WT mice (n=6) and B)- in $Nod2^{-/-}$ mice (n=6), statistical differences were determined by 2 ways ANOVA test, * p < 0,05, ** p < 0,01, *** p < 0,001. C)- Representative images of H&E staining of colon sections from mice in A). Insets showing higher magnifications are presented below each image. D)- Percentages of increase of muscle wall thickness from colon section images are plotted after baseline subtraction relatively to the values obtained from WT mice treated only with DSS (n = 6), statistical differences were determined with Student's t-Test.

Figure 3: MNoV_S99 associated pro-inflammatory signalling is Nod2 and MAVS-dependent in myeloid lineage cells

A)- Representative image showing an intestinal villus from a $Nod2^{GFP}$ mouse (GFP is shown in green, Phalloidin in grey and DAPI in blue); scale bare represents 50 µm. B)- Representative western blot showing STAT1 signalling pathway activation after 1h infection (Moi 1) with the mentioned MNoV strains in BMDM. Below are shown quantification of pSTAT1 bands intensities normalized to β-actin and relative to mock-infected cells (n = 3, mean \pm SEM), statistical differences were determined by 1 way ANOVA test * p < 0,05, ** p < 0,005. C)- STAT1 activation in response to MNoV_S99 (Moi 1 or 5) in BMDM from WT vs Nod2-/- infected for 30 or 60 minutes. The lower panel shows quantification of pSTAT1, bands intensities normalized to β-actin and relative to mock-infected cells (n = 3, mean \pm SEM). Statistical differences were determined by 2 ways ANOVA test * p < 0.05. **D**)-STAT1 activation in response to MNoV S99 (Moi 0.1) in WT or Nod2^{-/-} BMDM infected for 24h. Relative quantification of pSTAT1 (n = 3, mean \pm SEM) is shown in the lower panel, statistical differences were determined by 2 ways ANOVA test *** p < 0,0005. E)- STAT1 activation in response to MNoV_S99 (Moi 0.1) in BMDM from WT vs Mavs infected for 60 minutes. Relative quantification of pSTAT1 (n = 4, mean \pm SEM) are shown below. The lower panel shows the mock vs Moi 0.1 infected cells quantification of pSTAT1. Statistical differences were determined by 2 ways ANOVA test * p < 0.05.

Figure 4: NOD2 dependent pro-inflammatory signalling associated with MNoV_S99 infection and bacterial MDP

Quantification of *Nod2* mRNA levels measured by RT-qPCR in **A)**- in Raw264.7 cells infected with MNoV_S99 (Moi 0.1 or 1, for 24h) and in **B)**- in BMDM from WT mice (Moi 0.1, for 24h) normalized to *ActB* and relative to mock-infected cells (n = 3). **C)**- MNoV genome quantification from WT and *Nod2*-- BMDM cells infected with MNoV_S99 (Moi 0.1 for 24h) (n = 3). **D)**- Representative western blot showing STAT1 and IκBα signalling pathways modulation in cell lysates from monocytes that were either infected with MNoV_S99 (Moi 5, 2h), treated with MDP (10ng/mL, 2h), or a combination of both. **E)**- Quantification and comparison of pSTAT1 and pIκBα signals between MNoV_S99 infected alone cells or in combination with MDP (10ng/mL, 2h), (n = 3), with the band intensity being normalized to β-actin and relative to mock-treated cells. **F)** Mouse norovirus genome quantification from stool of non-cohoused WT mice (WT), Nod2-- mice cohoused with WT mice (CH-WT_{Nod2--}) or WT mice cohoused with Nod2-- (CH-Nod2--) (CH-Nod2--) (CH-Nod2--) (D) TNFα production by BMDM cells infected with MNoV_S99 (Moi 0.1 or 1) for 6h, prior to being treated with MDP (10µg/mL) overnight. **H)** TNFα production by BMDC subjected to MNoV_S99's ssRNA (10µg/mL) alone, or supplemented with either MDP (1µg/mL) or MDP-DD (1µg/mL) overnight. In all experiments statistical differences were analyzed with Student's t Test.

Supplementary Figures

Supplementary Figure 1: Analysis of MNoV_S99 associated NOD2 dependent inflammation measurements from mice showed in Figure 2

A) Colon length comparison from WT and $Nod2^{-/-}$ 3% DSS \pm MNoV_S99 treated mice, statistical differences were determined with a t-Test, * p <0,02. **B)-** Histological scores comparison between WT and Nod2^{-/-} \pm MNoV_S99 treated mice, statistical differences were determined with a t-Test, * p <0,05. **C)-** TNF α production of explants (ON) from WT and Nod2^{-/-} 3% DSS \pm MNoV_S99 treated mice was measured by ELISA.

Representative western blot showing STAT1, $I\kappa B\alpha$, AKT and ERK signalling pathways' modulation in cell lysates from Raw264.7 that were either infected with MNoV_S99 (Moi 1) for various times or mock treated for 60 min. β -actin was used as loading control.

Tables:

Table1: Antibodies used for Western Blotting		
Primary antibodies	Dilution	Supplier
anti-phosphoStat1 (Tyr 701) (58D6) (85kDa)	1/1000	
anti-Stat1(D1K9Y)(85kDa)	1/1000	
anti-phospholκBα (Ser32/36) (5A5) (40kDa)	1/1000	
anti-IκBα (44D4) (39kDa)	1/1000	Cell
anti-phosphoAKT (Ser473) (D9E) (60kDa)	1/1000	Signaling
anti-AKT (60kDa)	1/1000	Technology
anti-phospho44/42 MAPK (Erk1/2) (Trh202/Tyr204) (197G2) (42, 44 kDa)	1/1000	
anti-p44/42 (Erk1/2) (42, 44 kDa)	1/1000	
anti-βactin (45kDa)	1/500	
Secondary antibodies	Dilution	Supplier
anti-Rabbit_HRP (#711-035-152)	1/5000	Jackson
anti-Mouse_HRP (#115-005-003)	1/5000	Laboratories