Title: Engineered receptor binding domain immunogens elicit pan-coronavirus neutralizing antibodies

Authors: Blake M. Hauser[1*], Maya Sangesland[1*], Evan C. Lam[1], Jared Feldman[1], Ashraf S. Yousif[1], Timothy M. Caradonna[1], Alejandro B. Balazs[1], Daniel Lingwood[1] and Aaron G. Schmidt[1,2]

[1]Ragon Institute of MGH, MIT and Harvard, Cambridge, MA, 02139, USA

[2]Department of Microbiology, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02115, USA

Key words: immunogen design, protein engineering, broadly neutralizing antibodies, SARS-CoV-2, coronavirus

*equal contribution

Correspondence:

Daniel Lingwood
Tel:857-268-7180; E-mail: dlingwood@mgh.harvard.edu

Aaron G. Schmidt
Tel: 857-268-7118; E-mail: aschmidt@crystal.harvard.edu

Running title: Eliciting cross-neutralizing antibodies with a pan-coronavirus vaccine

Abstract

Effective countermeasures are needed against emerging coronaviruses of pandemic potential, similar to severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2). Designing immunogens that elicit broadly neutralizing antibodies to conserved viral epitopes on the major surface glycoprotein, spike, such as the receptor binding domain (RBD) is one potential approach. Here, we report the generation of homotrimeric RBD immunogens from different sarbecoviruses using a stabilized, immune-silent trimerization tag. We find that that a cocktail of homotrimeric sarbecovirus RBDs can elicit a neutralizing response to all components even in context of prior SARS-CoV-2 imprinting. Importantly, the cross-neutralizing antibody responses are focused towards conserved RBD epitopes outside of the ACE-2 receptor-binding motif. This may be an effective strategy for eliciting broadly neutralizing responses leading to a pan-sarbecovirus vaccine.

Main Text

The emergence of the novel severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) and the subsequent global pandemic has highlighted the disruptive threat posed by viruses for which humans have no prior immunity. Rapid development of potential vaccines has led to an unprecedented 13 candidates already in Phase 3 clinical trials in the last 6 months; while differing in modality (e.g., mRNA, adenovirus), the primary immunogen for many of these candidates is the SARS-CoV-2 spike ectodomain (*1*). With the continued global spread of SARS-CoV-2, in conjunction with potential vaccinations, it is likely that a large proportion of the global population will eventually develop an immune response to SARS-CoV-2. However, even after potentially achieving herd immunity sufficient to slow the spread of SARS-CoV-2, there remains a constant threat of emerging coronaviruses with pandemic potential. Indeed, surveillance efforts have identified numerous unique coronaviruses within various animal reservoirs, raising the possibility of zoonotic transmission (*2, 3*). Such events are likely to increase in frequency as a result of human impact on the environment (*4*). While the current SARS-CoV-2 pandemic has an estimated infection fatality rate of between ~1-2%, with numerous cases likely undetected, previous SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV outbreaks were more lethal with ~10% and ~35% case fatality rates, respectively, raising the possibility that future novel coronaviruses have potentially high mortality (*5-7*). Additionally, elicited immunity to SARS-CoV-2 infection may not protect against even closely related novel coronaviruses from the same sarbecovirus subgenus (*8*). It is therefore critical to not only address the current pandemic, but also develop vaccine platforms that can be readily adapted to potential emerging coronaviruses.

While we cannot readily predict which coronaviruses will next emerge into the human population, a proactive approach to generate broadly protective immunity is to design immunogens that elicit humoral responses targeting conserved sites on the coronavirus spike glycoprotein. Such sites may include the receptor binding domain which engages host-cell receptors necessary to facilitate viral cell entry; these spike-mediated interactions are conserved across coronaviruses (*9*). Indeed, a subset of spike-directed antibodies from convalescent patients can potently neutralize SARS-CoV-2; comparable neutralizing antibodies against SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV have also been identified (*6, 10-15*). Some spike-directed antibodies that neutralize SARS-CoV-2 also bind the SARS-CoV spike protein, highlighting the presence of cross-reactive neutralizing epitopes (*10,*

16, 17). Multimerized versions of the receptor binding domains (RBDs) of several coronaviruses

have previously been shown to be potent immunogens (*18*). Here, we describe a customizable

vaccine that elicits pan-sarbecovirus neutralization against both SARS-CoV-2 and the potentially

emergent WIV1-CoV (*19*). This approach focuses antibody responses to conserved, protective

RBD epitopes shared across sarbecoviruses. Its flexible nature allows facile interchanging of

potential vaccine strains updated to confer neutralization against new emerging coronaviruses.

Importantly, this approach was applied in context of "pre-existing" SARS-CoV-2 humoral

immunity with the goal of broadening neutralization while simultaneously boosting the

neutralizing antibody response to SARS-CoV-2, similar to the "back boost" effect of seasonal

influenza immunizations (*20*). Thus, it has the potential to provide protection against currently

circulating SARS-CoV-2, while proactively generating neutralizing antibody responses against

emerging coronaviruses.

We designed a cystine-stabilized and hyperglycosylated variant of a GCN4 trimerization tag to

generate a homotrimeric immunogen "cassette" to rapidly exchange RBDs from various

coronaviruses (**Figure 1A, S1**). Using a hyperglycosylated GCN4 allows the RBDs to remain

trimerized while the tag is "immune silent" (*21*). As a proof-of-concept for our immunization

approach, we selected the SARS-CoV, SARS-CoV-2, and WIV1-CoV RBDs as our starting

immunogens. We overexpressed RBD homotrimers in mammalian cells to maximize glycan

complexity and purified to homogeneity via size exclusion chromatography; the trimeric species

was confirmed using SDS-PAGE analysis under non-reducing conditions (**Figure 1B-C**). Their

antigenicity was assayed using conformational-specific antibodies CR3022 and/or B38 using

biolayer interferometry; the RBD homotrimers had comparable affinities in comparison to RBD

monomers (**Figure S2**). The purification tags were removed by enzymatic cleavage prior to

immunization.

To understand how preexisting immunity to SARS-CoV-2, whether acquired through natural

infection or vaccination, could affect immune responses to our immunogens, we primed our

cohorts with recombinant spike or RBD protein (*22, 23*). Our two control arms followed this prime

with subsequent homologous boosts of recombinant SARS-CoV-2 spike ("spike" cohort) or RBD

("RBD" cohort); the latter is necessary for comparing the effect on immunogencity of monomeric

versus trimeric RBDs. Our experimental arms both received the spike prime and included a SARS-

CoV-2 RBD homotrimer boost ("homotrimer" cohort) and an equimolar boosting cocktail of

SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, and WIV1-CoV RBD homotrimers ("cocktail" cohort) (**Figure 2A**).

All cohorts received the same total amount of protein in each immunization. We evaluated the

serum response against coronavirus-derived antigens using ELISAs (**Figure 2B-C, S3**). All four

immunization regimens resulted in similar patterns of serum reactivity. Each cohort demonstrated

a significant decrease in reactivity against SARS-CoV RBD as compared to the SARS-CoV-2

RBD or spike, though the magnitude of this difference was relatively small. The cohort which

received the RBD homotrimer cocktail boost had the highest overall endpoint titers, while the

cohort that received the monomeric SARS-CoV-2 RBD had the lowest overall endpoint titers; the

latter observation is consistent with other previous reports and likely due to the inefficiency of

monomeric RBDs effectively stimulating B cell receptors. We confirmed the non-immunogenic

nature of the hyperglycosylated GCN4 tag by assaying sera from the wildtype homotrimer cocktail

boost against another viral glycoprotein, hemagglutinin, with the same tag (**Figure S4**).

We next evaluated whether the serum response was directed towards cross-reactive, and

potentially broadly neutralizing RBD epitopes. Conservation across SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV,

and WIV1-CoV RBDs primarily occurs outside of the ACE-2 receptor binding motif (RBM)

(**Figure S5A**). Indeed, the previously characterized CR3022 and S309 antibodies have footprints

that together cover much of this conserved region, with epitope buried surface area (BSA) of 917

$Å^2$ and 795 $Å^2$ respectively in comparison to BSA of 869 $Å^2$ for ACE-2 (*16, 17, 24*). We performed

serum competition by incubating RBD-coated ELISA plates with IgGs B38, P2B-2F6, CR3022,

and S309, representing each of the four previously defined "classes" of SARS-CoV-2 RBD

epitopes (*25*) (**Figure S5B**). We then assessed binding of mouse serum IgG. In all cohorts,

competition with both CR3022 and S309 significantly reduced serum titers against the SARS-CoV

and WIV1-CoV RBDs (**Figure 2D**). However, only the cohort receiving the RBD homotrimer

cocktail showed a significant reduction in serum titers against the SARS-CoV-2 RBD in

competition with both CR3022 and S309 (p = 0.0340) (**Figure 2D**). This result suggests a higher

degree of focusing to this region elicited specifically by the homotrimer cocktail immunogens.

To compare to the observed sera responses, we measured the IgG B cell receptors expanded by

the immunization regimens. We engineered a SARS-CoV-2 RBD variant that has two additional

glycans on the RBM which effectively block ACE-2 engagement (**Figure S6**). This variant

allowed us to bin SARS-CoV-2 spike-directed B cells into 3 populations: those that bound RBM

epitopes; those that bound the non-RBM epitopes on the RBD; and those that bound the

"remainder" of the spike protein (**Figure S7**). As a subset of SARS-CoV-2 spike-directed B cells,

the proportion of B cells specific for the SARS-CoV-2 RBM and non-RBM portion of the RBD

were considerably higher in the cohorts receiving the SARS-CoV-2 RBD homotrimer and RBD

homotrimer cocktail boosts (p = 0.0070) (**Figure 3A**). We also binned B cells that bound to both

the SARS-CoV-2 spike and either the SARS-CoV RBD or WIV1-CoV RBD (**Figure 3B**). We

found that cross-reactive IgG B cells predominantly targeted epitopes outside the RBM (the spike

remainder a result of the prime), mirroring what we observed in sera responses.

We next determined the neutralization potency from each of our cohorts using SARS-CoV-2,

SARS-CoV, and WIV1-CoV pseudoviruses (*8*). We observed a significant increase in WIV1-CoV

neutralization in the cohort that received the homotrimer cocktail boost compared to all other

cohorts (p = 0.0012) (**Figure 4A**). Importantly, this did not result in any significant loss in serum

neutralization potency against SARS-CoV-2 (p = 0.6594) (**Figure 4B**). We also observed higher

levels of SARS-CoV neutralization in the cohort that received the homotrimer cocktail boost as

compared to the cohort boosted with the SARS-CoV-2 RBD homotrimer and the SARS-CoV-2

monomeric RBD, though this trend was not significant (p = 0.2370) (**Figure 4C**). Thus, compared

to other cohorts, immunization with the RBD homotrimer cocktail resulted in a neutralizing

antibody response with both retrospective (e.g., SARS-CoV) and prospective breadth (e.g., WIV1-

CoV) even in context of preexisting immunity to SARS-CoV-2.

We wanted to determine what fraction of SARS-CoV-2 neutralization could be attributed to the

non-RBM RBD-directed response. To that end, we performed adsorption of pooled sera from each

cohort using MERS-CoV RBD (negative control), SARS-CoV-2 RBD, and a SARS-CoV-2 RBD

with four additional glycans engineered onto the RBM (SARS-CoV-2 ΔRBM RBD) (**Figure S6,**

S8). This construct was designed to block all RBM-directed antibodies as opposed to the one used

in flow cytometry, which only block antibodies that directly compete with ACE-2. Compared to

the samples adsorbed using MERS RBD, the samples adsorbed with either the SARS-CoV-2 RBD

or the SARS-CoV-2 ΔRBM RBD demonstrated a significant loss of SARS-CoV-2 neutralization

(p = 0.0343) (**Figure 4D, S9**). This indicates that non-RBM RBD-directed antibodies alone are

able to confer significant SARS-CoV-2 neutralization.

Here, we demonstrate that a cocktail of homotrimeric sarbecovirus RBDs can effectively generate

a neutralizing response to all components without a bias resulting from a SARS-CoV-2 imprinting

and without compromising SARS-CoV-2 neutralization. We find that this cross-neutralizing

antibody response is predominantly directed to RBD epitopes outside of the RBM. This is in

contrast to SARS-CoV-2 infection which does not appear to reliably generate cross-neutralizing

antibodies (*8*). Furthermore, previously reported vaccine candidates that aim to generate such a

cross-neutralizing response have not been shown to successfully refocus immunity towards cross-

neutralizing epitopes following an initial SARS-CoV-2 spike immunization (*26*). However, our

results suggest that following an initial SARS-CoV-2 exposure (e.g., commercial vaccination,

infection), subsequent boosting with a surveillance-informed selection of sarbecovirus RBD

homotrimers could result in pan-sarbecovirus immunity that protects against future pandemics.

Acknowledgements

We thank members of the Schmidt and Lingwood Laboratories for helpful discussions. We

acknowledge funding from NIH R01s AI146779 (AGS), AI124378, AI137057 and AI153098

(DL), and a Massachusetts Consortium on Pathogenesis Readiness (MassCPR) grant (AGS);

training grants: NIGMS T32 GM007753 (BMH and TMC); T32 AI007245 (JF); F31 Al138368

(MS). We thank Dr. Jason McLellan from University of Texas, Austin for the spike plasmid. We

thank Nir Hacohen and Michael Farzan for the kind gift of the ACE-2 expressing 293T cells to

ABB.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization, BMH, MS, JF, TMC, DL, AGS; Methodology, BMH, ECL, TMC, ABB, DL,

AGS; Investigation, BMH, MS, ECL, JF, ASY; Writing – Original Draft, BMH and AGS; Writing

– Review and Editing, all authors; Funding Acquisition, ABB, DL, AGS; Supervision, ABB, DL,

AGS.

Materials and Methods

Receptor Binding Domain and Homotrimer Expression and Purification

Receptor binding domains (RBDs) were designed based on the following sequences: SARS-CoV-2 RBD (Genbank MN975262.1), SARS-CoV RBD (Genbank ABD72970.1), WIV1-CoV RBD (Genbank AGZ48828.1), and MERS-CoV RBD (Genbank AHI48572.1). Constructs were codon optimized by Integrated DNA Technologies, cloned into pVRC, and sequence confirmed by Genewiz. The spike plasmid was obtained from Dr. Jason McLellan at the University of Texas, Austin. It contained a Foldon trimerization domain as well as C-terminal HRV 3C-cleavable 6xHis and 2xStrep II tags. Proteins were expressed in Expi293F cells (ThermoFisher) using Expifectamine transfection reagents according to the manufacturer's protocols. All proteins included a C-terminal HRV 3C-cleavable 8xHis tag to facilitate purification. Monomeric RBD proteins also contained SBP tags, while homotrimeric constructs contained a previously published hyperglycosylated GCN4 tag with two additional C-terminal cystines (*21*). Versions of the MERS-CoV RBD, SARS-CoV-2 ΔRBM RBD with four additional putative glycosylation sites (Figure S5), and SARS-CoV-2 RBD with C-terminal 8xHis and SNAP tags (*27*) were also generated.

Transfections were harvested after 5 days and clarified via centrifugation. Cell supernatants were passaged over Cobalt-TALON resin (Takara) for immobilized metal affinity chromatography via the 8xHis tag. After elution, proteins were passed over a Superdex 200 Increase 10/300 GL (GE Healthcare) size exclusion column in PBS (Corning). Prior to immunization, 8xHis tags were cleaved using HRV 3C protease (ThermoScientific). Cleaved protein was repurified using Cobalt-TALON resin in order to remove the protease, cleaved tag, and any uncleaved protein.

Fab and IgG Expression and Purification

Genes for the variable domains of the heavy and light chains were codon optimized by Integrated DNA Technologies and cloned into pVRC constructs containing the respective constant domains as previously described (*28, 29*). Heavy-chain Fab constructs contained a HRV 3C-cleavable 8xHis tag, while heavy-chain IgG constructs contained HRV 3C-cleavable 8xHis and SBP tags.

240   Transfections and purifications were performed according to the same protocols used for the RBDs

241   and homotrimers.

Biolayer Interferometry

Biolayer interferometry (BLI) experiments were performed using a BLItz instrument (ForteBio).

Fabs were immobilized on a FAB2G biosensor (ForteBio), and CoV proteins were the analytes.

All proteins were diluted in PBS at room temperature. Titrations were performed to determine

binding affinities. Single-hit concentrations at 10 μM were performed to get an approximate K_D,

and then subsequent titrations at appropriate concentrations (at least three). A final K_D estimate

was determined using a global fit model with a 1:1 binding isotherm using vendor-supplied

software.

Immunizations

C57BL/6 mice (Jackson Laboratory) received 20 μg of protein adjuvanted with 50% w/v Sigma

adjuvant in 100 μL of inoculum. All immunizations were administered through the intraperitoneal

route. Mice were primed (day 0) and received boosting immunizations at day 21 and day 42.

following the initial prime (day 0). Serum samples were collected on day 56 for characterization,

with flow cytometry occurring between days 56 and 63. In this study, female mice aged 6-10 weeks

were used. All experiments were conducted with institutional IACUC approval (MGH protocol

2014N000252).

Flow Cytometry

Spleens were isolated from mice and single cell suspensions were generated by straining through

a 70 μm cell strainer. Red blood cells were removed by treating with ACK lysis buffer and washed

with PBS. Single cell suspensions were first stained with Aqua Live/Dead amine-reactive dye

(0.025 mg/mL) before applying the following B and T cell staining panel using the staining

approach described previously (*30, 31*). This included the following mouse-specific antibodies:

CD3-BV786 (BioLegend), CD19-BV421 (BioLegend), IgM-BV605 (BioLegend), IgG-

PerCP/Cy5.5 (BioLegend).

Streptavidin-conjugated fluorophores were used to label the SBP-tagged proteins as probes for
flow cytometry. For the cohorts that received the SARS-CoV-2 spike prime followed by either the
SARS-CoV-2 RBD homotrimer boost or the RBD homotrimer cocktail boost, the following probes
were generated: SARS-CoV-2 RBD-APC/Cy7 (streptavidin-APC/Cy7 from BioLegend), SARS-
CoV-2 spike-StreptTactin PE (StrepTactin PE from IBA Lifesciences), SARS-CoV-2 ΔRBM
RBD-PE/Cy5.5 (streptavidin-PE/Cy5.5 from BioLegend). The panel for the cohort that received
the SARS-CoV-2 spike prime followed by the RBD homotrimer cocktail boost also included
SARS-CoV RBD-APC (streptavidin-APC from BioLegend) and WIV1-CoV RBD-BV650
(streptavidin-BV650 from BioLegend). For the cohort that received three SARS-CoV-2 spike
immunizations, the following probes were generated: SARS-CoV-2 RBD-APC/Cy7 (streptavidin-
APC/Cy7 from BioLegend), SARS-CoV-2 spike-StreptTactin PE (StrepTactin PE from IBA
Lifesciences), SARS-CoV-2 ΔRBM RBD-APC (streptavidin-APC from BioLegend).
Conjugations were performed as previously described (32). Briefly, fluorescent streptavidin
conjugates were added in 5 increments with 20 minutes of incubation with rotation at 4°C in
between to achieve a final molar ratio of probe to streptavidin valency of 1:1. The final conjugated
probe concentration was 0.1 μg/mL. Flow cytometry was performed on a BD FACSAria Fusion
cytometer (BD Biosciences). Analysis of the resultant FCS files was conducted using FlowJo
(version 10).

Serum ELISAs
Serum ELISAs were performed by coating Corning 96-well clear flat bottom high bind microplates
with 100 μL of protein at 5 μg/mL in PBS. Plates were incubated overnight at 4°C. Coating
solution was removed, and plates were blocked using 1% BSA in PBS with 1% Tween for 60
minutes at room temperature. Blocking solution was removed. Sera were diluted 1:40 in PBS, and
5-fold serial dilution was performed. CR3022 IgG at a starting dilution of 5 μg/mL with 5-fold
serial dilution was used as a positive control. 40 μL of primary antibody solution was applied to
each well. Primary incubation occurred for 90 minutes at room temperature. Plates were then
washed three times with PBS-Tween. HRP-conjugated rabbit anti-mouse IgG antibody (Abcam)
at a concentration of 1:20,000 in PBS and a volume of 150 μL was used as a secondary antibody.
Secondary incubation occurred for 60 minutes at room temperature. Plates were then washed three

times with PBS-Tween. 1xABTS development solution (ThermoFisher) was applied as outlined

in the manufacturer's recommendations. Development was stopped after 30 minutes with a 1%

SDS solution. Plates were read at 405 nm using a SectraMax iD3 plate reader (Molecular Devices).

Competition ELISAs

Competition ELISAs were performed using a similar protocol to serum ELISAs. The primary

incubation consisted of 40 μL of the relevant IgG at 1 μM. Incubation occurred at room

temperature for 60 minutes. Mouse sera were then spiked in at a final concentration in the linear

range of the serum ELISA titration curve (1:800 for the cohort that received three SARS-CoV-2

RBD monomer immunizations, 1:12,800 for all other cohorts). Plates were incubated at room

temperature for an additional 60 minutes. The primary solution was removed, and plates were

washed three times using PBS-Tween. HRP-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG, human/bovine/horse

SP ads antibody (Southern Biotech) was applied at a concentration of 1:4000 and a volume of 150

μL as a secondary antibody. Plates were then incubated, washed, and developed using the same

procedure as the serum ELISAs.

ACE-2 Cell Binding Assay

ACE-2 expressing 293T cells (*33*) (a kind gift from Nir Hacohen and Michael Farzan) were

harvested and washed with PBSF. Cells were allocated such that 200,000 cells were labelled for

each condition. Cells were incubated with 100 μL of 200 nM antigen in PBS for 60 minutes on

ice. Following two washes with PBS supplemented with 2% FBS, cells were incubated with 50

μL of 1:200 streptavidin-PE (Invitrogen) on ice for 30 minutes. Cells were washed twice and

resuspended in 100 μL of PBS supplemented with 2% FBS. Flow cytometry was performed using

a Stratedigm S1000Exi Flow Cytometer. FCS files were analyzed using FlowJo (version 10).

Serum Adsorption

SNAP-tagged (*27*) MERS-CoV RBD, SARS-CoV-2 ΔRBM RBD with four additional putative

glycosylation sites (Figure S5), and SARS-CoV-2 RBD were conjugated to SNAP-Capture Pull-

Down resin (New England BioLabs). For each conjugation, 20 μL of settled resin was resuspended

in 100 μL of protein at 1 mg/mL per the manufacturer's recommendations. Both MERS-CoV RBD

and SARS-CoV-2 RBD conjugation reactions also included 1 mM DTT to improve conjugation

efficiency. Wildtype-like reactivity to conformationally specific Fabs (CR3022, S309, and B38 for

SARS-CoV-2 RBD; m336 for MERS RBD) in the presence of 1 mM DTT was confirmed prior to

conjugation (*14, 16, 17, 34*). Conjugation occurred with rotation overnight at 4°C.

Following conjugation, the resin was washed 5 times with PBS via resuspension followed by

centrifugation and the removal of the supernatant. Sera from the mice in each cohort were pooled

and diluted 1:40 in PBS to a total volume of 100 μL. Diluted sera were added to the conjugated

resin and incubated with rotation overnight at 4°C. Resin was filtered from the sera following

incubation, and the adsorbed sera was used for neutralization assays and ELISAs.

Serum Adsorption ELISAs

Serum adsorption ELISAs were performed using a similar protocol to the serum ELISAs. For the

primary antibody incubation, adsorbed serum solution was diluted 1:2, and subsequent serial 5-

fold dilutions were generated. The remainder of the assay was performed according to the serum

ELISA procedure.

Pseudovirus Neutralization Assay

Serum neutralization against SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, and WIV1-CoV was assessed using

lentiviral particles pseudotyped with the respective spike proteins as previously described (*8*).

Lentiviral particles were produced via transient transfection of 293T cells. The titers of viral

supernatants were determined via flow cytometry on 293T-ACE2 cells (*33*) and via the HIV-1

p24^{CA} antigen capture assay (Leidos Biomedical Research, Inc.). Assays were performed in 384-

well plates (Grenier) using a Fluent Automated Workstation (Tecan). For mouse sera, samples

were initially diluted 1:9, with subsequent serial 3-fold dilutions. For sera that had previously been

adsorbed, the adsorbed sample was used for the first dilution, and serial 3-fold dilutions were

performed. Serum sample volume in each well was 20 μL, and 20 μL of pseudovirus containing

125 infectious units was added. The combination was incubated for 60 minutes at room

temperature. Afterwards, 10,000 293T-ACE2 cells (*33*) in 20 μL of media containing 15 μg/mL

polybrene was added. The plates were then incubated at 37°C for 60-72 hours.

A previously described assay buffer was used to lyse the cells (*35*). A Spectramax L luminometer

(Molecular Devices) was used to quantify luciferase expression. Percent neutralization at each

serum concentration was determined by subtracting background luminescence from cells only

sample wells, then dividing by luminescence of wells with only virus and cells. GraphPad Prism

was used to fit nonlinear regressions to the data, which allowed IC_{50} values to be calculated using

the interpolated 50% inhibitory concentration. IC_{50} values were calculated for all samples with a

neutralization value of at least 80% at the highest serum concentration.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analyses and curve fitting were performed using GraphPad Prism (version 9). To

compare two populations of continuous variables without evidence of conforming to a normal

distribution, the non-parametric two-tailed Mann-Whitney U test was used. To compare multiple

populations meeting this description, the Kruskal-Wallis test was used with post hoc analysis using

Dunn's multiple comparison testing. The ratio paired t-test was used to compare two populations

with evidence of normality. P values were corrected for multiple comparisons, and a p value <

0.05 was considered significant.

References

1.   F. Amanat, F. Krammer, SARS-CoV-2 Vaccines: Status Report. *Immunity* **52**, 583-589
(2020).
2.   S. J. Anthony *et al.*, Global patterns in coronavirus diversity. *Virus Evol* **3**, vex012 (2017).
3.   M. F. Boni *et al.*, Evolutionary origins of the SARS-CoV-2 sarbecovirus lineage
responsible for the COVID-19 pandemic. *Nat Microbiol*, (2020).
4.   National Research Council (US) Committee on Achieving Sustainable Global Capacity for
Surveillance and Response to Emerging Diseases of Zoonotic Origin, *Sustaining Global*
Surveillance and Response to Emerging Zoonotic Diseases. P. M. Keusch GT, Gonzalez
MC, et al., Ed., (National Academies Press (US), Washington (DC), 2009), vol. 3.
5.   S. Jiang, C. Hillyer, L. Du, Neutralizing Antibodies against SARS-CoV-2 and Other
Human Coronaviruses. *Trends Immunol* **41**, 355-359 (2020).
6.   L. Du *et al.*, The spike protein of SARS-CoV--a target for vaccine and therapeutic
development. *Nat Rev Microbiol* **7**, 226-236 (2009).
7.   W. Yang *et al.*, Estimating the infection-fatality risk of SARS-CoV-2 in New York City
during the spring 2020 pandemic wave: a model-based analysis. *Lancet Infect Dis*, (2020).
8.   W. F. Garcia-Beltran *et al.*, COVID-19 neutralizing antibodies predict disease severity and
survival. *medRxiv*, (2020).
9.   D. M. Knipe, P. M. Howley, *Fields virology*. (Wolters Kluwer/Lippincott Williams &
Wilkins Health, Philadelphia, PA, ed. 6th, 2013), pp. 2 volumes.
10.   A. Z. Wec *et al.*, Broad neutralization of SARS-related viruses by human monoclonal
antibodies. *Science*, (2020).
11.   M. Yuan *et al.*, Structural basis of a shared antibody response to SARS-CoV-2. *Science*,
(2020).
12.   S. J. Zost *et al.*, Potently neutralizing and protective human antibodies against SARS-CoV-
2. *Nature*, (2020).
13.   T. F. Rogers *et al.*, Isolation of potent SARS-CoV-2 neutralizing antibodies and protection
from disease in a small animal model. *Science*, (2020).
14.   Y. Wu *et al.*, A noncompeting pair of human neutralizing antibodies block COVID-19
virus binding to its receptor ACE2. *Science* **368**, 1274-1278 (2020).
15.   L. Du *et al.*, MERS-CoV spike protein: a key target for antivirals. *Expert Opin Ther Targets*
21, 131-143 (2017).
16.   M. Yuan *et al.*, A highly conserved cryptic epitope in the receptor binding domains of
SARS-CoV-2 and SARS-CoV. *Science* **368**, 630-633 (2020).
17.   D. Pinto *et al.*, Cross-neutralization of SARS-CoV-2 by a human monoclonal SARS-CoV
antibody. *Nature* **583**, 290-295 (2020).
18.   L. Dai *et al.*, A Universal Design of Betacoronavirus Vaccines against COVID-19, MERS,
and SARS. *Cell* **182**, 722-733 e711 (2020).
19.   V. D. Menachery *et al.*, SARS-like WIV1-CoV poised for human emergence. *Proc Natl*
Acad Sci U S A **113**, 3048-3053 (2016).
20.   J. M. Fonville *et al.*, Antibody landscapes after influenza virus infection or vaccination.
Science **346**, 996-1000 (2014).

21.   K. Sliepen, T. van Montfort, M. Melchers, G. Isik, R. W. Sanders, Immunosilencing a
426   highly immunogenic protein trimerization domain. *J Biol Chem* **290**, 7436-7442 (2015).
427   22.   J. Pallesen *et al.*, Immunogenicity and structures of a rationally designed prefusion MERS-
428   CoV spike antigen. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **114**, E7348-E7357 (2017).
429   23.   K. S. Corbett *et al.*, SARS-CoV-2 mRNA vaccine design enabled by prototype pathogen
430   preparedness. *Nature* **586**, 567-571 (2020).
431   24.   J. Lan *et al.*, Structure of the SARS-CoV-2 spike receptor-binding domain bound to the
432   ACE2 receptor. *Nature* **581**, 215-220 (2020).
433   25.   C. O. Barnes *et al.*, SARS-CoV-2 neutralizing antibody structures inform therapeutic
434   strategies. *Nature*, (2020).
435   26.   A. A. Cohen *et al.*, Mosaic RBD nanoparticle elicit neutralizing antibodies against SARS-
436   CoV-2 and zoonotic coronaviruses. *bioXriv*, (2020).
437   27.   A. Keppler *et al.*, A general method for the covalent labeling of fusion proteins with small
438   molecules in vivo. *Nat Biotechnol* **21**, 86-89 (2003).
439   28.   A. G. Schmidt *et al.*, Immunogenic Stimulus for Germline Precursors of Antibodies that
440   Engage the Influenza Hemagglutinin Receptor-Binding Site. *Cell Rep* **13**, 2842-2850
441   (2015).
442   29.   A. G. Schmidt *et al.*, Viral receptor-binding site antibodies with diverse germline origins.
443   *Cell* **161**, 1026-1034 (2015).
444   30.   M. Sangesland *et al.*, Germline-Encoded Affinity for Cognate Antigen Enables Vaccine
445   Amplification of a Human Broadly Neutralizing Response against Influenza Virus.
446   *Immunity* **51**, 735-749 e738 (2019).
447   31.   G. C. Weaver *et al.*, In vitro reconstitution of B cell receptor-antigen interactions to
448   evaluate potential vaccine candidates. *Nat Protoc* **11**, 193-213 (2016).
449   32.   N. Kaneko *et al.*, Loss of Bcl-6-Expressing T Follicular Helper Cells and Germinal Centers
450   in COVID-19. *Cell* **183**, 143-157 e113 (2020).
451   33.   M. J. Moore *et al.*, Retroviruses pseudotyped with the severe acute respiratory syndrome
452   coronavirus spike protein efficiently infect cells expressing angiotensin-converting enzyme
453   2. *J Virol* **78**, 10628-10635 (2004).
454   34.   T. Ying *et al.*, Exceptionally potent neutralization of Middle East respiratory syndrome
455   coronavirus by human monoclonal antibodies. *J Virol* **88**, 7796-7805 (2014).
456   35.   E. Siebring-van Olst *et al.*, Affordable luciferase reporter assay for cell-based high-
457   throughput screening. *J Biomol Screen* **18**, 453-461 (2013).
458
459

     Figures

Figure 1. Immunogen design, expression, and purification. (**A**) Design schematic for generating RBD homotrimers appended onto a cystine-stabilized (red stars) hyperglycosylated GCN4 tag. (**B**) Representative size exclusion trace with (*) was the homotrimeric construct. (C) SDS-PAGE analysis of purified homotrimers under non-reducing (NR) and reducing (R) conditions. The engineered disulfide bond at the C-terminus of the hyperglycosylated GCN4 tag separated under reducing conditions. Panel includes monomeric RBDs run under reducing conditions for comparison.

Figure 2. Serum response to immunization regimens. (**A**) Four immunization cohorts were used for this study (n=5 mice, per cohort). (**B, C**) Serum was assayed in ELISA at day 56 with different coronavirus antigens. (**D**) Competition ELISAs using S309 and CR3022 (+) or no IgG (-) and SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, and WIV1-CoV RBDs as coating antigens. Sera from each cohort are color-coded. Statistical significance was determined using Kruskal-Wallis test with post-hoc analysis using Dunn's test corrected for multiple comparisons ($*$ = $p < 0.05$, $**$ = $p < 0.01$, $***$ = $p < 0.001$); ns = not significant.

Figure 3. SARS-CoV-2-specific IgG B cells expanded following immunization. **(A)** Spike-directed responses were binned into RBM, RBD remainder (excluding RBM epitopes), and spike remainder (excluding RBD and RBM epitopes) populations using relevant probes in flow cytometry. Data is shown as a percentage of total spike-specific IgG B-cells. We evaluated the distribution of SARS-CoV-2 spike-directed responses and found evidence of focusing towards non-spike RBD epitopes in the cohorts boosted with the SARS-CoV-2 RBD homotrimer and the RBD homotrimer cocktail versus the cohort that received three SARS-CoV-2 spike immunizations ($p = 0.0070$ via Mann-Whitney U test) (A). **(B)** The cocktail cohort was additionally assayed for SARS-CoV or WIV1-CoV RBD reactivity, as described in (**A**).

499
500

Figure 4. Pan-sarbecovirus serum neutralization using pseudoviruses. Day 56 serum from each cohort was assayed for neutralization against (**A**) SARS-CoV-2, (**B**) SARS-CoV, and (**C**) WIV1-CoV pseudoviruses. Statistical significance was determined using Kruskal-Wallis test with post-hoc analysis using Dunn's test; * = $p < 0.05$, ** = $p < 0.01$. No significant difference in SARS-CoV neutralization between the control cohorts and the RBD homotrimer cocktail boost cohort (Mann-Whitney U test; p = 0.2370) (B), there was a significant difference in WIV1-CoV neutralization (Mann-Whitney U test; p = 0.0012) (C). (**D**) Serum adsorption to remove antibodies from pooled sera from each cohort directed towards MERS-CoV RBD (negative control), SARS-CoV-2 ΔRBM RBD, and SARS-CoV-2 RBD. Sera adsorbed with MERS-CoV RBD had significantly greater neutralization than those adsorbed with SARS-CoV-2 ΔRBM RBD and SARS-CoV-2 RBD (Mann-Whitney U test; p = 0.0343). The spike cohort had the greatest MERS-adsorbed neutralization.

513
514