Evidence for Deleterious Original Antigenic Sin in SARS-CoV-2 Immune Response

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Competing Interests:

None.

Acknowledgements:

We thank Professor Elizabeth Bess and Professor Stacey Schultz-Cherry for helpful conversations, Kristin Gabriel for initial bioinformatics analysis, and the patients who generously donated their plasma samples (IRB# 2012-8716). We gratefully acknowledge the support of the UCI COVID-19 Basic, Translational and Clinical Research Fund (CRAFT), the Allergan Foundation, and UCOP Emergency COVID-19 Research Seed Funding. G.S.S and A.M.S thank the Minority Access to Research Careers (MARC) Program, funded by the NIH (GM-69337). J.L.R. was supported by the National Center for Research Resources and the National Center for Advancing Translational Sciences from the NIH (TR001414).

Abstract

A previous report demonstrated the strong association between the presence of antibodies binding to an epitope region from SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid, termed Ep9, and COVID-19 disease severity. Patients with anti-Ep9 antibodies (Abs) had hallmarks of original antigenic sin (OAS), including early IgG upregulation and cytokine-associated injury. Thus, the immunological memory of a previous infection was hypothesized to drive formation of suboptimal anti-Ep9 Abs in severe COVID-19 infections. This study identifies a putative original antigen capable of stimulating production of cross-reactive, anti-Ep9 Abs. From bioinformatics analysis, 21 potential "original" epitope regions were identified. Binding assays with patient blood samples directly show cross-reactivity between Abs binding to Ep9 and only one homologous potential antigen, a sequence derived from the neuraminidase protein of H3N2 Influenza A virus. This cross-reactive binding affinity is highly virus strain specific and sensitive to even single amino acid changes in epitope sequence. The neuraminidase protein is not present in the influenza vaccine, and the anti-Ep9 Abs likely resulted from the widespread influenza infection in 2014. Therefore, OAS from a previous infection could underlie some cases of COVID-19 disease severity and explain the diversity observed in disease outcomes.

Introduction

Original antigenic sin (OAS) occurs when the immune responses adapted for a primary (or "original") infection instead target a similar, but not identical, pathogen (Fierz & Walz, 2020). Since B-cells undergo affinity maturation post-primary infection, affinity-matured Abs from previous infections can sometimes outcompete naïve Abs with specificity for the new antigen (Brown & Essigmann, 2021). The phenomenon has been observed for immune responses to dengue fever, influenza, respiratory syncytial virus and human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) (Park, Kim, Park, Lee, & Park, 2016; Welsh & Fujinami, 2007). OAS ideally accelerates pathogen clearance by targeting highly conserved antigens; however, suboptimal targeting by non-neutralizing Abs binding to the antigen can exacerbate disease conditions by either enhancing viral infection or hyperactivating the innate immune response (Brown & Essigmann, 2021). The wide range of outcomes observed in SARS-CoV-2 infected individuals, from asymptomatic to fatal, has been hypothesized to result from a patient's unique immunological memory (Fierz & Walz, 2020; Kohler & Nara, 2020).

Reports of OAS in COVID-19 patient have largely focused on the phenomenon's beneficial or benign impacts on the immune response. For example, Abs from individuals naïve for SARS-CoV-2 infection, but exposed to other common human coronaviruses (hCoV), could cross-react with SARS-CoV-2 spike protein and neutralize SARS-CoV-2 pseudotypes (Ng et al., 2020). Plasma collected before the pandemic had Abs cross-reactive with SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid (NP) and spike proteins; these Abs did not confer protection against severe COVID-19 outcomes (Anderson et al., 2020). Though higher rates of prior cytomegalovirus and herpes simplex virus 1 infections have been reported for hospitalized COVID-19 patients versus patients with milder symptoms, no Ab signature linked to a molecular mechanism has been shown (Shrock et al., 2020). Humoral immunity to hCoVs, NL63 and 229E, has been associated with more severe COVID-19 disease (Focosi et al., 2021).

Recently, we reported the association of severe COVID-19 with the presence of Abs

binding specifically to a 21-mer peptide derived from SARS-CoV-2 NP, an epitope region termed

Ep9. The patients, described as αEp9(+), comprised about 27% of the sampled, SARS-CoV-2-

infected population (n = 186). The αEp9(+) patients (n = 34 in this report chosen for having

sufficient sample availability) had high, early levels of αN IgGs, typically within the first week,

compared to αEp9(-) patients; cytokine-related, immune hyperactivity also appeared in the

αEp9(+) individuals (Sen et al., 2021). These two observations suggest an OAS-based

mechanism for the disease severity observed in αEp9(+) patients. Here, we explore the epitope

homology landscape and αEp9 Ab cross-reactivity to potentially identify the original antigen

driving Ab-based immune response in αEp9(+) patients.

Results and Discussion

Assays measured levels of αEp9 IgGs and IgMs from αEp9(+) patients whose plasma was

collected at various times post-symptom onset (PSO). Consistent with the hallmarks of OAS

tracing a prior infection, αEp9 IgG levels appeared elevated as early as one day PSO in one

patient; similar IgG levels were observed in the patient population over >4 weeks (one-way

ANOVA, p = 0.321) (Figure 2A). Levels of αEp9 IgMs amongst patients at various times PSO

were also similar (one-way ANOVA, p = 0.613). The signals measured for αEp9 IgM levels were

significantly lower than the equivalent αEp9 IgG levels (t-test, p = 0.0181) (Figure 2B); this

difference could reflect lower IgM affinity, quantity, or both.

Searches for homologs to Ep9 in protein sequence and structural homology databases

suggested candidate primary antigens or potential OAS epitopes. The Basic Local Alignment

Sequence Tool (pBLAST) (Altschul et al., 1997) and Vector Alignment Search Tool (VAST)

(Madej et al., 2014) identified structurally homologous regions from betaherpesvirus 6A and 14

other proteins with Ep9 sequence homology spanning >7 residues. Additionally, Ep9-orthologous

regions from six common human coronaviruses (SARS-CoV, MERS, OC43, HKU-1, NL63, 229E)

were also chosen for production and assays (Figure 1 A, Figure 1- supplement 1). To expedite

the binding measurements, the potential OAS epitope regions were subcloned into phagemids

encoding the sequences as fusions to the M13 bacteriophage P8 coat protein. DNA sequencing

and ELISA experiments demonstrated successful cloning and consistent phage display,

respectively. Two of the 21 epitopes failed to display on phage and were omitted from subsequent

investigations (Figure 1- supplement 3A).

The potential OAS epitopes to αEp9 Abs were tested by phage ELISA. To assess average

response within a patient population, pooled plasma from three sets of five αEp9(+) and five

αEp9(-) COVID-19 patients were coated onto ELISA plates, and tested for binding to the phage-

displayed potential OAS epitopes. Commercially sourced plasma from healthy individuals

provided an additional negative control. Confirming previously reported results, SARS-COV-2

Ep9 along with a homologous epitope from SARS-CoV-1 (90% similarity) bound only to plasma

from αEp9(+) patients (Sen et al., 2021). Since only 75 cases of SARS-CoV-1 were reported in

the US during the 2003 outbreak, this binding is unlikely to drive OAS (World Health Organization,

2013).

The panel of potential epitopes revealed a candidate epitope from the neuraminidase (NA)

protein of an H3N2 influenza A strain, which circulated in 2014 (A/Para/128982-IEC/2014,

Accession No. AIX95025.1). This epitope is termed EpNeu here. The plasma from αEp9(-)

patients and healthy individuals did not bind to EpNeu (p<0.0001, two-way ANOVA *ad hoc* Tukey

test) (Figure 1C, D). Surprisingly, SARS-CoV-2 Ep9 and EpNeu share only 38% amino acid

sequence similarity. Other candidate epitope regions had significantly higher homology, but failed

to bind to αEp9(+) plasma (Figure 1- supplement 1).

Figure 1

Potential OAS epitopes for binding αEp9 Abs suggested by bioinformatics and tested by phage ELISA. (A) Cladogram depicting sequence homology of the Ep9 sequence from SARS-CoV-2 to the bioinformatics-identified, closest homologs. Sequence alignments used pBLAST and VAST, and the cladogram was generated by iTOL (Letunic & Bork, 2019). **(B)** Structures of SARS-CoV-2 NP RNA binding domain (PDB: 6M3M) and the Flu A 2014 H3N2 NA protein (modeled by SWISS-Model (Waterhouse et al., 2018)). SARS-CoV-2 NP highlights Ep9 residues

(light and dark blue) and the region homologous region to EpNeu (dark blue). The depicted model
of Flu A 2014 H3N2 NA highlights the EpNeu putative antigen (pink). (**C**) ELISAs examined
binding of phage-displayed potential OAS epitopes to Abs from three sets of pooled plasma from
five αEp9(+) patients, or five αEp9(-) patients. Pooled plasma from healthy patients was an
additional negative control. The colors of the heat map represent the mean binding signal
normalized to phage background negative controls (signal from phage without a displayed
peptide). (**D**) Expansion of data from panel C shows ELISA signals from the independently
assayed individual pools shows results from the individual pools (****p <0.0001 for a two-way
ANOVA comparing binding of phage-displayed epitopes listed in panel C to different groups of
pooled plasma, *ad hoc* Tukey test). (**E**) Using EpNeu as the search template to generate
homologous sequences (shown in next panel), ELISAs examined EpNeu homologs' binding to
pooled plasma from αEp9(+), αEp9(-), or healthy individuals. The data are represented as
described in panel C (****p <0.0001 for two-way ANOVA c phage-displayed epitopes, *ad hoc*
Tukey and Dunnett's test as shown). (**F**) Amino acid sequence alignment of the closely related
Flu A NA homologs of EpNeu from pBLAST(Altschul et al., 1997). Blue and orange residues
represent conserved and mismatched amino acids, respectively, relative to Ep9. Bolded residues
are important for epitope recognition by αEp9 Abs. Here, the term Flu refers to influenza.

The strain specificity of αEp9 Abs binding to H3N2 influenza A NA protein was tested next.

The EpNeu sequence provided the template for pBLAST homolog searching. Closely aligned NA

sequences isolated from human, avian, and swine hosts in North America were chosen for further

analysis (Figure 1F, Figure 1- supplement 1). The six sequences were phage-displayed as before.

Despite their close similarity to EpNeu (up to 92.3% similarity or only one residue difference),

none of the EpNeu homologs bound to Abs from αEp9(+) patients (Figure 1E). A single EpNeu

amino acid substitution, K142N (numbering from full-length NA, Accession No. AID57909.1)

occurs in an H1N2 swine flu from 2016; the single substitution dramatically decreased binding

affinity to Abs from αEp9(+) patients (p<0.0001 one-way ANOVA *ad hoc* Tukey). The epitope from

H4N6 avian influenza A from 2010 omits residue S141, but includes the conserved K142, also

greatly reduced binding to Abs from αEp9(+) patients (p<0.0001 one-way ANOVA *ad hoc* Tukey)

(Figure 1E, F). Therefore, S141 and K142 are critical for binding to αEp9 Abs.

Figure 2

Early upregulation of αEp9 IgGs and cross-reactive Ab binding to both Ep9 and EpNeu.
ELISA of αEp9 (**A**) IgG and (**B**) IgM levels in αEp9(+) patients (n = 34) from plasma collected at
the indicated time periods post-symptom onset (PSO). Statistical analysis was conducted using
one-way ANOVA, *ad hoc* Tukey test. The solid line represents the median value, and dashed
lines represent quartiles. (**C**) Comparing normalized levels of phage-displayed Ep9 and EpNeu
binding to plasma-coated wells from individual αEp9(+) patients (n = 34). A strong correlation is
observed, as shown by the depicted statistics. Each point in panels A through C represents data
from individual patients. (**D**) A schematic diagram of the sandwich ELISA to examine cross-
reactivity of αEp9 Abs. The assay tests for bivalent Ab binding to both Ep9 and EpNeu. Pooled
plasma from five αEp9(+) patients or five αEp9(-) patients with other αNP Abs was tested for
bivalent binding to both eGFP-fused Ep9 and phage-displayed EpNeu. Healthy patient plasma
was used as a negative control. For additional negative controls, phage-FLAG and eGFP-FLAG
replaced Ep9 and EpNeu, respectively (****p <0.0001 one-way ANOVA, *ad hoc* Tukey and
Dunnett's test shown, with healthy plasma in the presence of EpNeu and Ep9 as negative control).
Error bars represent SD. Individual points on bar graph represent technical replicates.

Next, ELISAs were used to determine whether Ep9 and EpNeu epitopes bind to the same

Abs. Assays of 34 αEp9(+) patients demonstrated a strong and highly significant correlation

between levels of Abs binding to Ep9 and EpNeu epitopes in patient plasma, suggesting the two

epitopes may bind to the same Abs (Figure 2C). This cross-reactivity was confirmed by a

sandwich-format assay requiring bivalent, simultaneous binding by Abs to Ep9 and EpNeu (Figure

2D, Figure 2- supplement 1). In this assay, Ep9 was fused to the N-terminus of eGFP, and EpNeu

was phage-displayed. The results demonstrated binding of Abs to both Ep9 and EpNeu epitopes

in pooled plasma from αEp9(+) patients, but not in αEp9(-) patients with other αNP Abs or healthy

donors. Thus, we conclude that αEp9 Abs also recognize the EpNeu epitope region.

Figure 3
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Flu A 2014 Neuraminidase (N2)- SWISS-Model

Binding interactions of αEp9 Abs with the predicted EpNeu epitope. (**A**) Linear and structural
B-cell epitope prediction tools Bepipred 2.0 and Discotope 2.0 suggested an extended, linear
epitope region from the influenza A H3N2 2014 NA, including the eight residues of Ep9 Neu (light
blue) with an additional ten, C-terminal residues (dark blue). This extended, predicted epitope is
termed EpPred. Structural epitope predictions are underlined. Residues on EpNeu that are not
aligned with Ep9 are depicted in orange. (**B**) Structural model depicting the influenza A H3N2
2014 NA. The model was generated using SWISS-Model based on the NA structure from
influenza A H3N2 Tanzania 2010 (PDB: 4GZS). The NA structure highlights the EpNeu region
(light blue), the extended residues in EpPred (dark blue), potential glycosylation sites (light pink),
and the residues S141 and K142 (red), which are important for αEp9 Ab recognition. (**C**) Dose-
dependent ELISA comparing binding of αEp9 Abs to Ep9, EpNeu and EpPred. Pooled plasma
from five αEp9(+) patients and five αEp9(-) patients were tested in triplicates with varying
concentrations of eGFP-fused epitopes. The data demonstrates the strongest interactions

occurred between αEp9 Abs and Ep9 with an approximately 2-fold decrease in αEp9 Abs binding
affinity for EpNeu. EpPred bound slightly stronger to αEp9 Abs than EpNeu; the difference in trend
lines of EpNeu and EpPred are statistically significant (p<0.0001, Comparison of Fits). Trendlines
represent non-linear regression fit with Hill slope analysis.

We then investigated whether EpNeu could present a viable antigen during the 2014 H3N2

(NCBI: txid1566483) infection. Linear epitope analysis of the whole NA protein using Bepipred

2.0 (Jespersen, Peters, Nielsen, & Marcatili, 2017) predicted a candidate antigen with eight

residues from EpNeu, including S141 and K142 plus ten additional residues (146-155). This

predicted epitope region, termed EpPred, includes the conserved catalytic NA residue D151

targeted for viral neutralization by the immune system (Gentles, Wan, Eichelberger, & Bloom,

2020) (Figures 3A, Figure 3- supplement 1A). Using a modelled structure of the 2014 H3N2 NA

from Swiss-Model (Bienert et al., 2017; Guex, Peitsch, & Schwede, 2009; Studer et al., 2021;

Waterhouse et al., 2018), the structural epitope prediction tool, Discotope 2.0 (Kringelum,

Lundegaard, Lund, & Nielsen, 2012), also identified potential epitopes within EpPred (Figures 3A,

Figure 3- supplement 1B).

EpPred was overexpressed as an eGFP-fusion protein (Figure 1-supplement 3B). Pooled

plasma from five αEp9(+) patients was tested for Ab binding to EpPred, EpNeu, Ep9, and a

negative control (eGFP FLAG). The αEp9 Abs bound to Ep9 with approximately two-fold higher

apparent affinity than to EpNeu (Figure 3C). The increased binding strength of Ep9 could result

from additional rounds of Ab affinity maturation post-primary infection (Brown & Essigmann,

2021). The longer length EpPred modestly improved upon the binding of EpNeu to αEp9 Abs

(Figure 3C). Thus, αEp9 Abs likely target a larger epitope of H3N2 2014 NA beyond regions

homologous to Ep9, though expression of NA makes this difficult to test (Lipničanová, Chmelová,

Godány, Ondrejovič, & Miertuš, 2020). Furthermore, the phage-displayed and bacterially

overexpressed epitopes applied here do not include post-translational modifications. Taken

together, the results support the hypothesis that the αEp9 Abs found in severe COVID-19 disease

may have originated from a primary infection with H3N2 influenza A.

Unfortunately, patient histories only rarely include previous influenza infections, and such

information was unavailable for patients in this study. The H3N2 2014 NA sequence was isolated

from Para, Brazil, and the strain's spread in North America remains unknown. However, a severe

outbreak of influenza A H3N2 was recorded; in 2014, an antigenic shift from the vaccine strain

A/Texas/50/2012(H3N2) resulted in low vaccine efficiency (14%), and high levels of other strains

spread (Flannery et al., 2016; Xie et al., 2015). Since only hemagglutinin was sequenced for strain

identification in 2014 (Flannery et al., 2016), the candidate OAS strain from the current

investigation could not be effectively traced as only its NA sequence was available. Our data

reveals that the EpNeu homologous sequence of the vaccine H3N2 strain (identical to Flu A 2015

H3N2 NA, Accession No. ANM97445.1) cannot bind αEp Abs (Figure 1 E, F). Therefore, αEp Abs

must have been generated against a primary influenza infection and not the vaccine.

This report offers a molecular mechanism for OAS underlying the high-rate of severe

COVID-19 in αEp9(+) patients. Specifically, we demonstrate cross-reactive binding between

αEp9 Abs and a predicted NA epitope from a 2014 influenza A strain. Interestingly, a study of an

Italian patient cohort correlated COVID-19 disease outcomes with previous RSV and

herpesviruses, but not influenza A infections (Wang et al., 2020). Future studies could examine

correlation between a country's rate of the H3N2 2014 influenza and severe COVID-19.

Additionally, health systems might have recorded such primary infections in specific patients,

which could also be searched for correlation. Examining epitope conservation and Ab cross-

reactivity could predict OAS-based immune responses and disease outcomes in future infections.

Identifying detrimental, benign or beneficial OAS pathways could also guide vaccine design for

increased efficacy and reduced risk.

Materials and Methods

Sequence and structural alignment analysis

To identify possible sources of primary infection responsible for αEp9 Ab generation, sequence and structural alignment with Ep9 residues and the SARS-CoV-2 NP was conducted. Alignment of Ep9 sequence with the orthologs from other human coronaviruses (hCoVs) such as SARS-CoV, MERS, HKU-1, NL63, 229E and OC43 was conducted using the Benchling sequence alignment tool (Benchling, 2017) (https://benchling.com). To explore a wider range of human host pathogens pBLAST (Altschul et al., 1997) (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) was used to search for Ep9 homology in a database of non-redundant protein sequences; common human-host viruses were specified in the organism category. The queries were conducted with the blastp (protein-protein BLAST) program (Altschul et al., 1997) with search parameters automatically adjusted for short input sequences. Alignments spanning >7 residues were included here. The Vector Alignment Search Tool (VAST) (Madej et al., 2014) (https://structure.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Structure/VAST/vast.shtml) was used to find structural alignment between SARS-CoV-2 Ep9 and proteins from other viral and bacterial human host pathogens. Alignment for NP from common hCoV were not further examined, as they had been included in sequence alignment analysis. The aligned sequences were sorted by the number of aligned residues as well as root-mean square deviation (RMDS). The top 50 structurally aligned proteins were then examined for structural homology in the Ep9 epitope region. Regions of proteins that aligned with the Ep9 region were selected for subsequent analysis.

Cloning

Predicted OAS epitopes were subcloned for phage display using the pM1165a phagemid vector (Levin, 2006) with an N-terminal FLAG-tag and a C-terminal P8 M13-bacteriophage coat protein. OAS constructs were subcloned using the Q5 site-directed mutagenesis kit (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA) as per manufacturer's instructions. After cloning, cells were transformed

298   into XL-1 Blue *E. coli* and spread on carbenicillin-supplemented (50 µg/ml) plates. Individual

299   colonies were then inoculated into 5 ml cultures, and shaken overnight at 37 °C. The phagemid

300   was isolated using the QIAprep spin miniprep kit (Qiagen, Germantown, MD) as per

301   manufacturer's instructions. Cloned sequences were verified by Sanger sequencing (Genewiz,

302   San Diego, CA).

Phage propagation and purification

The Ep9 homologs were expressed as N-terminal fusions to the P8 coat protein of M13

bacteriophage. Plasmids were transformed into SS320 *E. coli* and spread onto carbenicillin-

supplemented (50 µg/ml) LB-agar plates before overnight incubation at 37 °C. A single colony

was inoculated into a primary culture of 15 ml of 2YT supplemented with 50 µg/ml carbenicillin

and 2.5 µg/ml of tetracycline, and incubated at 37 °C with shaking at 225 rpm until an optical

density at 600 nm (OD_{600}) of 0.5 to 0.7 was reached. 30 µM IPTG and M13KO7 helper phage at

an MOI 4.6 was added to the primary culture, and the culture was incubated for an additional 37

°C with shaking at 225 rpm for 45 min. 8 ml of the primary culture was then transferred to 300 ml

of 2YT supplemented with 50 µg/ml of carbenicillin and 20 µg/ml of kanamycin. The cultures were

inoculated at 30 °C with shaking at 225 rpm for around 19 h.

The phage propagation culture was centrifuged at 9632 x *g* for 10 min at 4 °C. The

supernatant, containing the phage, was transferred into a separate tubes pre-aliquoted with 1/5th

volume of phage precipitation buffer (20% w/v PEG-8000 and 2.5 M NaCl), and incubated on ice

for 30 min. The solution, containing precipitated phage, was centrifuged for 15 min at 4 °C, and

the supernatant was discarded. The precipitated phage was centrifuged a second time at 1,541

x *g* for 4 min at 4 °C, and then dissolved in 20 ml of resuspension buffer (10 mM phosphate, 137

mM NaCl, pH 7.4 - 8.0 with Tween-20 0.05%, v/v and glycerol 10% v/v). The resuspended pellet

solution was divided into 1 ml aliquots, which were flash frozen with liquid nitrogen for storage in

-80 °C. Prior to use in ELISA binding assays, the aliquoted phage-displayed constructs were re-

precipitated in 0.2 ml of phage precipitation buffer after incubation for 30 min on ice. Aliquots were

centrifuged at 12298 x g for 20 min at 4 °C and the supernatant was discarded. The phage pellets

were re-centrifuged at 1968 x g for 4 min at 4 °C, and then resuspended in 1 ml of 10 mM

phosphate, 137 mM NaCl, pH 7.4.

Expression and Purification of eGFP fusion peptides

pET28c plasmids encoding eGFP fusions to C-terminal Ep9-FLAG, EpNeu-FLAG,

EpPred-FLAG and FLAG (negative control) and N-terminal His_6 peptide epitopes, were

transformed into BL21DE3 Star *E. coli* chemically competent cells. Transformants were spread

on carbenicillin-supplemented (50 μg/ml) LB-agar plates and incubated at 37 °C overnight. Single

colonies of each construct were selected to inoculate 25 ml LB media supplemented with

carbenicillin (50 μg/ml). After incubation at 37 °C with shaking at 255 rpm overnight, 5 ml of seed

cultures were used to inoculate 500 ml of LB media supplemented with carbenicillin (50 μg/ml).

Expression cultures were incubated at 37 °C with shaking at 225 rpm until an OD_{600} of ~0.5 was

reached. The cultures were induced with 0.5 mM IPTG and incubated at 25 °C for 18 h. The cells

were pelleted by centrifugation at 9632 x g for 20 min and resuspended in Tris-HCl lysis buffer

(20 mM Tris-HCl, 250 mM NaCl, pH 8). Cells were lysed by sonication and the insoluble fractions

were pelleted by centrifugation at 24696 x g. The supernatant was affinity-purified using

Profinity™ IMAC (BioRad, Hercules, CA) resin charged with nickel sulfate. The protein lysate was

batch bound overnight to the IMAC resin and purified using gravity columns. Columns were

washed with lysis buffer supplemented with 20 mM imidazole, and the elution fractions were

collected from lysis buffer containing 250 mM imidazole. The elution fractions were then buffer-

exchanged with lysis buffer lacking imidazole using Vivaspin® 20 Ultrafiltration Units (Sartorius,

Goettingen, Germany) with a molecular weight cutoff of 10 kDa. The final buffer imidazole

concentrations were calculated to be ~0.1 mM. Purified and buffer-exchanged protein fractions

were then visualized using 10% SDS-PAGE with Coomassie dye staining.

Patient Sample Collection

Samples were collected as previously described (Sen et al., 2021). Briefly, the UC Irvine

Experimental Tissue Resource (ETR) operates under a blanket IRB protocol (UCI #2012-8716)

which enables sample collection in excess of requirements for clinical diagnosis, and allows

distribution to investigators. Plasma was collected from daily blood draws of COVID(+) patients,

initially confirmed with pharyngeal swabs. After immediate centrifugation, plasma from heparin-

anticoagulated blood was stored for 3-4 days at 4 °C prior to its release for research use. Personal

health information was omitted and unique de-identifier codes were assigned to patients to comply

with the Non-Human Subjects Determination exemption from the UCI IRB. At the research facility,

SARS-CoV-2 virus in plasma samples was inactivated through treatment by incubation in a 56 °C

water bath for 30 min (Pastorino, Touret, Gilles, de Lamballerie, & Charrel, 2020) prior to storage

at -80 °C.

Phage ELISAs

As described in previous reports (Sen et al., 2021), pooled plasma from five αEp9(+) patients, five

αEp9(-) patients, or healthy patients (Sigma-Aldrich, Saint Louis, MO) were separately prepared

in coating buffer (50 mM Na_2CO_3, pH 9.6); the plasma was diluted 100-fold during this step.

Plasma samples were then immobilized in 96 well microtiter plates by shaking the plasma

solutions at 150 rpm at room temperature (RT) for 30 min. After aspiration and washing by plate

washer (BioTek, Winooski, VT), each well was blocked with 100 μL of ChonBlock Blocking Buffer

(CBB) (Chondrex, Inc., Woodinville, WA) for 30 mins, shaking at 150 rpm at RT. Wells were

subsequently washed three times with PBS-T (0.05% v/v Tween-20 in PBS). Next, 1 nM phage-

displayed candidate "original" epitopes and controls prepared in CBB was incubated in microtiter

wells for 1 h at RT with shaking at 150 rpm. Unbound phage were aspirated and removed using

three washes with PBS-T. The peroxidase-conjugated detection antibody, αM13-HRP (Creative

Diagnostics, Shirley, NY), was diluted 1000-fold in Chonblock Secondary Antibody Dilution

(Chondrex, Inc., Woodinville, WA) buffer; 100 μl of this solution was added to each well before

incubation for 30 min at RT with shaking at 150 rpm. Following aspiration and three washes (100

μl each), 1-Step Ultra TMB-ELISA Substrate Solution (ThermoScientific, Carlsbad, CA) was

added (100 μl per well). Absorbance of TMB substrate was measured twice at 652 nm by UV-Vis

plate reader (BioTek Winooski, VT) after 5 and 15 min of incubation. The experiment was

repeated three times using plasma from different αEp9(+) and αEp9(-) patients for each

experiments, using a total of 15 patients for each group. Each experiment was conducted in

technical duplicate.

αEp9 IgG and IgM ELISA

Plasma from 34 patients, previously tested for the presence of αEp9 Abs using phage

ELISAs (Sen et al., 2021), were used to test levels of αEp9 IgGs and IgMs. 2 μM eGFP-Ep9 or

eGFP-FLAG in PBS pH 8.0 were immobilized onto 96 well microtiter plates via overnight

incubation with shaking at 150 rpm at 4 °C. Excess protein was aspirated and removed with three

consecutive PBS-T washes. Wells were blocked by adding CBB (100 μl) before incubation at 30

min at RT with shaking at 150 rpm. Next, αEp9(+) patient plasma, diluted 1:100 in CBB (100 μl),

was added to duplicate wells before incubation at RT for 1 h with shaking at 150 rpm. The

solutions were discarded and sample wells were washed with PBS-T three times. αEp9 Abs

binding to the potential epitopes was detected using horse radish peroxidase (HRP) conjugated

αHuman Fc IgG (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham MA) or αIgM μ-chain specific (Millipore

Sigma, Temecula, CA) Abs diluted 1:5000 in ChonBlock Sample Antibody Dilution buffer. 100 μl

of detection Abs were added to each sample well, and incubated for 30 min at RT with shaking at

150 rpm. Sample wells were aspirated and washed three times in PBS-T, and the binding signal

was detected after addition of TMB substrate (100 µl per well).

Bivalent Abs binding ELISA

eGFP-Ep9 or eGFP-FLAG was serially diluted (120 nM, 40 nM, 13 nM and 4 nM) in PBS

pH 8.0, and added to the appropriate wells in 96 well microtiter plates, followed by shaking

overnight at 150 rpm at 4 °C. Excess unbound protein was removed, and the plate was washed

three times in PBS-T. Wells were then blocked in CBB and incubated for 30 min at RT. After

blocking, pooled plasma (100 µl per well) from either five αEp9(+) patients, or five non-αEp9,

αNP(+) patients, or healthy individuals was added to the appropriate wells. Plasma from pooled

patients was diluted 100-fold in CBB. As a positive control αFLAG Ab was used as a 1:2000

dilution in CBB. Samples were incubated for 1 h at RT with 150 rpm shaking. The solution was

removed by aspiration, and the plate and washed three times with PBS-T. Then 1 nM EpNeu

displaying phage or the phage negative control with no epitopes displayed was diluted in CBB.

100 µl phage solution was added to microtiter wells and incubated for 30 min at RT with shaking

at 150 rpm. After aspirating and washing off unbound phage, binding of phage-displayed EpNeu

to plasma αEp9 Abs was visualized using αM13-HRP Ab diluted 1:10,000 in ChonBlock Sample

Antibody Dilution buffer. Samples were incubated for 30 min at RT with 150 rpm shaking, and

unbound Abs were removed through washing with PBS-T three times before addition of TMB

substrate (100 µl). Experiments were conducted in technical triplicates and repeated three times

with different αEp(+) and αEp(-) patient samples.

Dose-dependent ELISA

Wells of microtiter plates were coated with serially diluted concentration of eGFP-Ep9,

EpNeu and EpPred or eGFP-FLAG, and incubated overnight at 4 °C before blocking as described

above. Next, pooled plasma (100 µl per well) from either five αEp9(+) patients, or five αEp9(-)

patients, or healthy individuals at 1:100 total plasma dilution in CBB was added to the appropriate

wells. Samples were incubated for 1 h at RT with shaking at 150 rpm. After incubation, unbound

solution was removed, and the plates were washed three times with PBS-T. αEp9 IgG levels were

detected by adding αFc IgG-HRP diluted 1:5000 in ChonBlock Sample Dilution buffer, followed

by incubation for 30 min at RT with shaking at 150 rpm, followed by addition of TMB substrate

(100 μl per well). Experiments were conducted in technical triplicates and repeated three times

with different αEp(+) and αEp(-) patient samples.

Linear B-cell Epitope Prediction

Linear epitopes from the Influenza A/Para/128982-IEC/2014(H3N2) neuraminidase

protein were predicted using the partial sequence with Accession AIX95025.1 from the National

Center for Biotechnology Information's GenBank and the linear B-cell epitope prediction tool,

Bepipred 2.0 (Jespersen et al., 2017) (http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/BepiPred-2.0/). The

prediction thresholds were set to 0.5. The specificity and sensitivity of epitope prediction at this

threshold is 0.572 and 0.586, respectively.

Structure-based B-cell epitope prediction

The structure of Influenza A/Para/128982-IEC/2014(H3N2) neuraminidase protein was

modelled using Swiss-Model (Bertoni, Kiefer, Biasini, Bordoli, & Schwede, 2017; Bienert et al.,

2017; Guex et al., 2009; Studer et al., 2020, 2021; Waterhouse et al., 2018)

(https://swissmodel.expasy.org/interactive). Using the ProMod3 3.2.0 tool (Studer et al., 2021), a

structural model was generated based on the crystal structure (2.35Å, PDB 4GZS 1.A) of a

homologous H3N2 neuraminidase with 96.39% sequence identity. Modelling methods and quality

assessments are further detailed in the report below.

The structural model of Influenza A/Para/128982-IEC/2014(H3N2) neuraminidase was used to

predict structure-based epitopes. Using the *in silico* online platform Discotope 2.0 (Kringelum et

al., 2012) (http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/DiscoTope-2.0/), structure-based epitope propensity

scores were calculated to predict likely B-cell epitope residues. The score of -3.7 was set as the

threshold for epitope prediction, which estimates a specificity and sensitivity of 0.75 and 0.47,

respectively (Figure 3 – supplement 1).

Statistical Analysis

The ELISA data were analyzed in GraphPad Prism 9 (https://www.graphpad.com). Since

the ELISA assays of 21 potential OAS epitopes were conducted over several microtiter plates for

repeated experiments, the raw absorbance values for every patient sample were normalized and

represented as the ratio of phage negative control to the signal. For heatmaps, two-way Analysis

of variance (ANOVA) with a Tukey adjustment for multiple comparisons tests were conducted for

the entire dataset of epitopes. For column comparisons of two groups, for example IgM levels and

IgG levels in the αEp(+) patients, unpaired, two-tailed, parametric t-tests were applied.

Additionally, for column comparisons between more than two groups, for example IgM or IgG

levels groups by weeks PSO, One-way ANOVA with a Tukey adjustment for multiple comparisons

tests were used. Where indicated, an ANOVA with a Dunnett's adjustment were performed to

compare results to healthy Abs interactions to αEp9(+) patient results. Graphs represent SD error

bars for technical replicates, defined as replicates of the same conditions in multiple wells of the

same plate. Whereas error bars are shown as SEM when an experiment is repeated with different

patient sample sets. Correlations between Ep9 and EpNeu levels in patients were determined by

plotting normalized values on an XY graph and performing a linear Pearson's correlation

coefficient test, where a r coefficient between 1.0-0.7 were considered strong correlations, values

between 0.7 and 0.5 were considered a moderate correlation, and values below 0.5 were

considered a weak correlation (Mukaka, 2012). The significance of the correlation was evaluated

based on p-value <0.05.

Figure 1-supplement 1: Potential "original" epitopes targeted by αEp9 Abs

Construct #	Pathogen	Target protein	Accession No.	Residues	Epitope sequences	Similarity % template: Ep9 or EpNeu
Phage-displayed constructs						
1	SARS-COV-2 (Ep9)	Nucleocapsid	QQX29443.1	152-172	ANNAAIVLQLPQGTTLPKGFY	-
2	SARS-COV-1	Nucleocapsid	YP_009825061.1	153-173	NNNAATVLQLPQGTTLPKGFY	90.5
3	MERS	Nucleocapsid	YP_009047211.1	141-151	NNDSAIVTQFAPGTKLPKNFH	66.7
4	Human coronavirus HKU1	Nucleocapsid	YP_173242.1	166-186	TTQEAIPTRFPPGTILPQGYY	57.1
5	Human coronavirus NL63	Nucleocapsid	YP_003771.1	119-136	NQKPLEPKFSIALPPELS	13.8
6	Human coronavirus OC43	Nucleocapsid	YP_009555245.1	167-187	SSDEAIPTRFPPGTVLPQGYY	71.4
7	Human coronavirus 229E	Nucleocapsid	AGW80953.1	122-138	SEPEIPHFNQKLPNGVT	21.4
8	Human adenovirus 61	Hexon	AQQ81927.1	123-164	ANNAATPQVVFYTEDVNLEMPDTHLVFKPAVPNGTIASESLL	17.6
9	Human mastadenovirus E	PVIII	YP_068038.1	76-114	AALVYQEIPQPTTVLLPRDAQAEVQLTNSGVQLAGGATL	31
10	Influenza A virus (A/Utah/40/2017)	PB2 polymerase	AVH77902.1	225-244	GSVYIEVLHLTQGTCWEQMY	41.7
11	Influenza A virus (EpNeu) (A/Para/128982-IEC/2014(H3N2)	Neuraminidase, partial	AIX95025.1	34-46	ALGQGTTLSKGHS	38.1
12	Influenza B virus (B/California/88/2019)	Neuraminidase	QIA55965.1	67-79	ATKGVVLLLPEPE	28.6
13	Influenza C virus (C/Singapore/DSO-070193/2006)	Polymerase PB1, partial	AFV68302.1	119-145	AATALQLTVDAIKETEGPFKGTTMLEY	34.4
14	Human respiratory syncytial virus A	Fusion protein	ASU44644.1	87-100	NNAVTELQLLMQST	38.1
15	Human respiratory syncytial virus A	Attachment glycoprotein	ART28426.1	106-116	GTTPQSTTIPA	28.6
16	Human metapneumovirus	Nucleoprotein, partial	ABO15448.1	11-33	TTTAVTPSSLPQEITLLCGEILY	34.8
17	Human metapneumovirus	Attachment glycoprotein, partial	AEW90340.1	57-72	PQQTTDKHTALPKSIY	30.8
18	Human betaherpesvirus 6A	Immediate Early protein 2	AGJ52064.1	1396-1422	AATPIDFVGAVKTCNKYAKDNPKEIVL	10
19	Verrucomicrobia bacterium	NADH-quinone oxidoreductase (NOX)	PYJ45937.1	76-89	AGVVLQLPQGTTL	57.1

20	Clostridium butyricum	Bifunctional methylenetetrahydrofolate dehydrogenase/methenylte trahydrofolate cyclohydrolase (MTHFD2)	MBE6063617.1	94-104	IILQLPLPKKF	**47.6**
21	Fusobacterium mortiferum	Type II secretion protein	WP_118233983.1	77-99	VENGAIVLQYDKEIYLGLTENFF	**48**
22	Fusobacterium mortiferum	Autotransporter outer membrane protein	WP_005886362.1	449-460	NGAIVGDLVQGT	**38.1**
23	Influenza A virus (A/swine/Missouri/A01774733/2016(H1N2) or A/Para/129501-IEC/2014(H3N2))	Neuraminidase	ANK78229.1 / AIX95013	133-145/ 24-36	ALGQGTTLSNGHS	**92.3**
24	Influenza A (A/swine/Minnesota/A01394278/2013(H3N2))	Neuraminidase	AHA57095.1	134-146	ALGQGTTLNNGHS	**92.3**
25	Influenza A virus (A/California/04/2009 (H1N1))	Neuraminidase	AJI76397.1	75-89	TFFLTQGALLNDKHS	**46.7**
26	Influenza A virus (A/California/111/2015(H3N2))	Neuraminidase	ANM97445.1	133-145	ALGQGTTLNNVHS	**84.6**
27	Influenza A virus (A/mallard/California/1156/2010(H4N6))	Neuraminidase	AEK50939.1	133-142	ALSQGTTLKG	**84.6**
28	Influenza A virus (A/California/33/2011(H3N2))	Neuramidase	AGL06761.1	133-145	ALGQGTTLSNVHS	**84.6**
29	Influenza A virus (**EpNeu Pred**) (A/Para/128982-IEC/2014(H3N2))	Neuraminidase, partial	AIX95025.1	34-56	ALGQGTTLSKGHSNNTVRDRTPY	**-**
eGFP-fusion constructs						
30	Influenza A virus (**EpNeu**) (A/Para/128982-IEC/2014(H3N2))	Neuraminidase	AIX95025.1	34-46	ALGQGTTLSKGHS	**-**
31	Influenza A virus (**EpNeu Pred**) (A/Para/128982-IEC/2014(H3N2))	Neuraminidase	AIX95025.1	34-56	ALGQGTTLSKGHSNNTVRDRTPY	**-**

Figure 1 –supplement 2: Primers used to subclone potential original epitopes

Construct #	Primer names:	Oligonucleotide sequence
Phage-displayed constructs		
1	primer_1_F	tcaagggactaccttgcccaaggggttctatGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_1_R	ggtaattgtaacacgattgcagcgttattagcTCCACTTCCTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATC
2	primer_2_F	acttccacagggaacgacactgccaaagggatttGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_2_R	tgcagtacagtggcagcattgttatttccacttccTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
3	primer_3_F	tccgggtacaaagttaccaaagaacttccacGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_3_R	gcaaattgagtaactatcgctgaatcattgttTCCACTTCCTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATC
4	primer_4_F	tccccggaactattttacccccaaggatactatGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_4_R	gggaatctagtgggaatcgcctcctgagtagtTCCACTTCCTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATC
5	primer_5_F	agtattgccttgccacctgagttatctGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_5_R	aaatttcggttcaagcggcttttgattTCCACTTCCTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATC
6	primer_6_F	tccgggtactgttttgcctcagggttactacGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_6_R	ggaaaccgcgttgggatggcctcatcagagctTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
7	primer_7_F	ccagaaattgccgaacggcgttactGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_7_R	ttaaagtgagggatctctggctcgctTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
8	primer_8_F	TTCTAAATTCACATCCTCAGTATAGAACACGACTTGTGGGGTTGCTGCATTGTTGGCTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
	primer_8_R	ATGCCAGATACTCATTTGGTCTTCAAACCTGCGGTCCCGAATGGCACGATTGCTAGTGAATCTCTCCTCggtggaggatccgggagc
9	primer_9_F	ACGCGGGAGCAGCACTGTAGTCGGCTGAGGGATTTCCTGGTACACCAGGGCGGCTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
	primer_9_R	GACGCGCAAGCCGAGGTCCAGTTGACAAACAGCGGTGTACAATTGGCTGGCGGTGCCACTCTGggtggaggatccgggagc
10	primer_10_F	acacaaggcacttgctgggagcaaatgtatGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_10_R	gaggtgcagcacttcaatatagactgacccTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
11	primer_11_F	gctttctaagggccacagcGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_11_R	gtggtgccttggcccaatgcTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
12	primer_12_F	gctgcttccggagccagagGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_12_R	agcacgacgcctttcgtagcTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
13	primer_13_F	gactgaaggtccttttaagggcacgacaatgttggaatatGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_13_R	tctttaatggcatcgaccgtaagttggagagccgtcgctgcTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
14	primer_14_F	caactcctcatgcagtctacaGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_14_R	aagttctgtgacagcattgttTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
15	primer_15_F	gacaaccatccctgcaGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_15_R	gattgaggcgtagtcccTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
16	primer_16_F	ggaaatcactctcttgtgcggcgaaatcttatatGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_16_R	tgcggcaggctagatggcgtaactgccgtagtagtTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
17	primer_17_F	acggcactgccgaagtccatctacGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_17_R	atgcttgtcagtggtctgttgtggTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
18	primer_18_F	caacaaatacgctaaggacaatccgaaagagatcgtgcttGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_18_R	caggtcttgacagctccgacgaagtcgatgggcgtagccgcTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
19	primer_19_F	tccacaaggcaccacccttGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_19_R	agctgcagcacgacgcccggcTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
20	primer_20_F	gttacctaagaaattcGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_20_R	ggaagctgcaaaataatTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
21	primer_21_F	agagatttacctggggctgacagagaacttttttGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_21_R	ttgtcgtactgtaatacaattgcgccgttctccacTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
22	primer_22_F	gatttagtacagggtaccGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_22_R	gcctacaatggcaccattTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
23	primer_23_F	CGCTTTCTAAtGGCCACAGCG
	primer_23_R	TGGTGCCTTGGCCCAATG
24	primer_24_F	CACCACGCTTaacaatGGCCACAGCG
	primer_24_R	CCTTGGCCCAATGCTTTAT
25	primer_25_F	tcttttgaacgacaagcattcaGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_25_R	gctccctgagtcagaaagaatgtTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
26	primer_26_F	attaaataacgttcatagtGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_26_R	gtagtaccctggcccaaggcTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
27	primer_27_F	tgcgaacggtacgattcatgatcgttccccattcGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_27_R	tgacgacctttcagtgtcgtgccttgagataacgcTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
28	primer_28_F	tttgtcgaatgtacactccGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_28_R	gtggtaccctggccaagagcTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
29	primer_29_F	ctcgaacaacaccgttcgcgaccgtactccgtacGGTGGAGGATCCGGGAGC
	primer_29_R	tgccctttagacagagttgtcccttggcccaaagcTTTATCATCGTCATCTTTATAATCAACCAATGC
eGFP-fusion constructs		
30	primer_30_F	gctttctaagggccacagcAGCGGAAGTGGAGATTATAAAGATGAC
	primer_30_R	gtggtgccttggcccaatgcGGAGCTCCCGGATCCTCC
31	primer_31_F	ctcgaacaataccgtccgcgatcggactccgtacAGCGGAAGTGGAGATTATAAAGATGAC
	primer_31_R	tgacccttgctcaaagtagtaccctgcccaagcgcGGAGCTCCCGGATCCTCC

Figure 1 – supplement 3

Expression of phage-displayed and eGFP-fused potential OAS epitopes. (**A**) ELISA demonstrating the display of N-terminal FLAG-tagged potential epitopes fused to the N-terminus of the P8 coat protein. Immobilized αFLAG Abs in microtiter wells bind the displayed FLAG-tag and epitope, and binding is detected with αM-13-HRP Abs as usual. Phage with no epitope displayed provide the negative control. Epitopes for mastadenovirus protein (mAdV) P8 and *V. bacterium* NADH oxidoreductase (NOX) did not display. Error bars represent SD values. (**B**) 10% SDS-PAGE gel stained with Coomassie Blue shows His-tag affinity-purified and buffer-exchanged eGFP-fused epitopes, EpPred, EpNeu, FLAG negative control and Ep9.

Figure 2 –supplement 1

Optimization of assay to determine cross-reactivity of αEp9 Ab to Ep9 and EpNeu.
Sandwich ELISA testing the binding of Abs from the pooled plasma of five αEp9(+)
patients, five αEp9(-) patients with other αNP Abs and healthy individuals. This
experiment examines bivalent binding to various doses of immobilized eGFP-fused Ep9
epitope (120, 40, 13 and 4 nM) and phage-displayed EpNeu in solution. The data shows
that Abs from αEp9(+) patients, but not αEp9(-) or healthy individuals, bivalently bind
both EpNeu and Ep9. The positive control (αFLAG 1:2000 fold dilution) at 100 nM eGFP
demonstrates concentrations appropriate for bivalent binding to immobilized and in-
solution tags. The schematic diagram illustrates the binding observed for bivalence in
αEp9 Abs, where the antibody bridges plate-bound eGFP at its high concentrations.
Therefore, Figure 2 in the main text uses 4 nM of eGFP Ep9 coated on the plate, and the
FLAG positive control uses eGFP at 100 nM. Error bars represent SD.

Figure 3 –supplement 1

Linear and structural epitope mapping prediction of Influenza A H3N2
Neuraminidase. (**A**) Linear epitope mapping prediction of the Flu A 2014 H3N2 using
Bepipred 2.0 (Jespersen et al., 2017) demonstrates high prediction scores in a region
spanning 18 residues, which includes eight residues from EpNeu (underlined). The
additional 10 predicted residues were included as part of an extended epitope termed
EpPred. (**B**) Structural epitope mapping, using Discotope 2.0 (Kringelum et al., 2012), of
the modelled neuraminidase protein from Flu A 2014 H3N2 (SWISS-model
(Waterhouse et al., 2018)), predicts an epitope of five residues. These were captured by
EpPred, including three found in EpNeu.
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