1	SARS-CoV-2-specific memory B cells can persist in the elderly despite loss of neutralising
2	antibodies
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5	Anna Jeffery-Smith, ^{1,2,3} Alice R Burton, ¹ Sabela Lens, ¹ Chloe Rees-Spear, ¹ Monika Patel, ² Robin
6	Gopal, ² Luke Muir, ¹ Felicity Aiano, ⁴ Katie J Doores, ⁵ J. Yimmy Chow, ⁶ Shamez N Ladhani, ⁴
7	Maria Zambon, ^{2*} Laura E McCoy, ^{1*} Mala K Maini. ^{1*}
8	
9	¹ Division of Infection and Immunity, Institute of Immunity and Transplantation, University
10	College London, United Kingdom
11	² Virus Reference Department, Public Health England, United Kingdom
12	³ Blizard Institute, Queen Mary University of London, United Kingdom
13	⁴ Immunisation and Countermeasures Division, Public Health England, United Kingdom
14	⁵ Department of Infectious Diseases, School of Immunology & Microbial Sciences, King's
15	College London, London, UK
16	⁶ London Coronavirus Response Cell, Public Health England, United Kingdom
17	
18	*Joint senior authors
19	Corresponding author: Mala K Maini <u>m.maini@ucl.ac.uk</u> ORCID: 0000-0001-6384-1462
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24 Abstract

25 Memory B cells (MBC) can provide a recall response able to supplement waning antibodies with an affinity-matured response better able to neutralise variant viruses. We studied a 26 27 cohort of vulnerable elderly care home residents and younger staff, a high proportion of whom had lost neutralising antibodies (nAb), to investigate their reserve immunity from 28 SARS-CoV-2-specific MBC. Class-switched spike and RBD-tetramer-binding MBC with a 29 30 classical phenotype persisted five months post-mild/asymptomatic SARS-CoV-2 infection, 31 irrespective of age. Spike/RBD-specific MBC remained detectable in the majority who had lost 32 nAb, although at lower frequencies and with a reduced IgG/IgA isotype ratio. Functional 33 spike/S1/RBD-specific recall was also detectable by ELISpot in some who had lost nAb, but 34 was significantly impaired in the elderly, particularly to RBD. Our findings demonstrate 35 persistence of SARS-CoV-2-specific MBC beyond loss of nAb, but highlight the need for careful 36 monitoring of functional defects in RBD-specific B cell immunity in the elderly. 37 38 39 **One sentence summary:** Circulating class-switched spike and RBD-specific memory B cells can 40 outlast detectable neutralising antibodies but are functionally constrained in the elderly. 41 42

44 Introduction

45 The human coronavirus SARS-CoV-2 has had a particularly devastating impact on the elderly, who are at much greater risk of morbidity and mortality.^{1,2} Understanding the nature of a 46 47 successful immune response in those who have avoided these outcomes and cleared SARS-CoV-2 after a mild infection, despite advanced age, is key to protecting this vulnerable group 48 49 in the future. Whether older survivors of SARS-CoV-2 infection are able to mount robust and 50 durable responses with the potential to provide long-term protection from reinfection, and from emerging viral variants, remains to be understood. Insights into the strengths and 51 52 limitations of the immune response in those who have had a successful outcome of natural 53 infection can inform the future optimisation of vaccines. It is also crucial to understand the 54 nature of the immune protection afforded to previously infected individuals whilst they await vaccination, especially with the ongoing delays in rollout and the lag in provision to low and 55 56 middle-income countries.

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58 Antibodies, in particular the neutralising fraction, provide a vital frontline defence to achieve 59 protective immunity against viruses. An initial waning of antibody titres is typically seen after 60 resolution of an acute viral infection.^{3,4} In the case of some viruses, long-lived plasma cells are then able to maintain antibodies for decades.^{5–7} By contrast, in the months following infection 61 62 with other viruses, including human coronaviruses like SARS-CoV-2, neutralising antibodies continue to wane and can drop below the threshold of detection in a proportion of 63 individuals.^{3,8–13} Even if antibodies are maintained, they may fail to provide sufficient 64 65 functional flexibility to cross-recognise viral variants.^{14–16} However, antibody responses of 66 inadequate titre or unable to cross-recognise variants can be compensated by a second line of defence provided by antigen-specific memory B cells (MBC), that are poised to react rapidly 67 upon pathogen re-encounter.^{17–19} Not only can MBC provide a faster response on re-exposure 68 69 to the virus, they are also able to diversify in the face of a mutating virus, resulting in more 70 potent, affinity-matured antibody response and enhanced resistance to viral mutations.^{9,20}

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In this study, we therefore analysed whether MBC develop in elderly subjects following the resolution of SARS-CoV-2 infection and whether they can maintain functionality once neutralising antibodies (nAb) have waned. To address these questions, we studied elderly 75 residents that had recovered from SARS-CoV-2 infection following outbreaks in three care 76 homes in the UK, who had mild or asymptomatic infection, a substantial proportion of whom 77 lost detectable nAb by five months after outbreak resolution. MBC were compared between 78 the elderly care home residents and younger staff to assess the impact of ageing. We 79 identified MBC specific for SARS-CoV-2 spike and RBD that persisted when serum nAb had completely waned. Their frequency, phenotype, isotype and function were analysed 80 according to age and/or nAb loss, to inform the assessment and boosting of durable immunity 81 82 in the elderly.

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84 Results

SARS-CoV2 spike and RBD-specific memory B cells can persist after loss of neutralising
antibodies

To study the role of MBC, we obtained PBMC from a subset (n=32) of a large cohort who survived COVID-19 with mild/asymptomatic infection after outbreaks in three care homes in April 2020 (Methods and Table S1).^{21,22} The care home cohort subset was selected to have a wide range of nAb titres detectable against live virus at the first sampling timepoint (T1, May 2020, Fig.1). By end September 2020 (T2, five months), 32% of all participants sampled had stable or increasing nAb to live virus. In contrast, 22% had declining titres, and 38% had lost detectable nAb (Fig.1a,b).

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95 To compare MBC frequencies in those who had maintained or lost nAb, we stained PBMC with SARS-CoV-2 spike trimer tetramers, made by pre-incubating recombinant biotinylated 96 trimeric spike protein with fluorescently-conjugated streptavadin.¹⁵ Dual staining with spike 97 tetramers with two distinct fluorochromes was used to enhance the discrimination of true 98 antigen-specific MBC (Fig.1c), as described previously.^{23–25} Frequencies of antigen-specific 99 responses were calculated within the memory fraction of B cells (CD19⁺CD20⁺ excluding IgD⁺, 100 101 CD38^{hi} and CD21⁺CD27⁻ naïve fractions, gating strategy in Fig.S1a, as previously described²⁶). 102 A threshold for background non-specific staining was set at mean+ 2SD of staining seen in an 103 uninfected control cohort derived from the same care homes (seronegative at both time 104 points, Table S1) and from pre-pandemic healthy donor samples (Fig.S1b).

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Spike-specific MBC were detectable in 28 of the 32 tested 5 months post-infection (Fig.1d). 106 107 The frequency of spike-specific MBC was reduced in those who had lost nAb compared to those in whom they were still detectable (Fig.1e). Of note, however, most of those (85%) who 108 109 had lost detectable nAb still had some persistent spike-specific MBC, a comparable 110 proportion to that in the group maintaining nAb (Fig.1f). The frequency of spike-specific MBC 111 correlated significantly with the strength of the nAb response (nAb titre to live virus) at 5 months (Fig.1g); however, there was partial discordance due to detection of spike-specific 112 113 MBC in most individuals with no nAb (dotted box, Fig.1g).

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115 Next, we analysed the MBC response specifically directed against RBD since this is the region 116 within spike which many SARS-CoV-2-specific nAb target.^{15,27–29} RBD-specific MBC were 117 identified by gating on dual spike tetramer-staining populations that also stained with a 118 tetramer formed from recombinant biotinylated RBD protein pre-incubated with 119 fluorescently-conjugated streptavidin (Fig.1h). RBD-specific responses were detectable in 26 120 of the 28 with sufficient magnitude spike-specific MBC responses (>20 dual-spike+ cells) to 121 allow analysis of the RBD-co-staining cells (Fig.1i). The frequency of RBD-specific MBC was 122 significantly reduced in the group who had lost nAb compared to those with stable (or waning 123 but still detectable) nAb (Fig.1i). However, as noted with spike-specific MBC, some RBDspecific MBC remained detectable in most of the cohort, irrespective of whether or not they 124 125 had lost nAb (Fig.1j). Overall, the magnitude of RBD-specific MBC correlated with nAb titres, 126 although again there was some discordance due to RBD MBC in those who had lost nAb (dotted box in Fig.1k). Importantly, both the RBD positive and RBD negative components of 127 128 the spike-specific B cell response significantly correlated with nAb titres, though slightly more robustly for the RBD positive subset (Fig.1k, Fig.S1c). This highlights the importance of the 129 130 RBD as the major target for neutralising antibodies, whilst also underscoring the contribution of antibodies targeting regions outside of the RBD (for example the NTD of the spike 131 protein^{15,29–31}) to the neutralising antibody response, at the 5 month timepoint in this cohort. 132

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These data therefore revealed the persistence of detectable, albeit reduced, MBC specific for both spike and RBD in most people whose nAb titres against live virus had fallen below the threshold of detection. Thus, loss of detectable nAb 5 months after asymptomatic/mild

infection is frequently compensated by the presence of a memory response primed torespond upon re-exposure.

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141 Comparable persistence of spike and RBD-specific MBC in elderly care home residents and 142 younger staff

The care home cohort was constructed to sample two comparator groups: elderly residents 143 144 (median age 86yrs, range 66-96) and a control group of younger staff (median age 56yrs, range 41-65). Five months after asymptomatic/mild infection, similar proportions of staff and 145 146 residents had lost detectable nAb (Fig.2a), and those who maintained them had similar titres 147 (Fig.2b). We postulated that there may, nevertheless, be a defect in the maintenance of 148 spike/RBD-specific MBC in the elderly compared to younger age group. However, spike-149 specific MBC were maintained at similar frequencies and in comparable proportions of the 150 elderly residents and younger staff (Fig.2c,d). There were no clear trends for spike-specific 151 MBC to decrease with increasing age, even in residents in their nineties (Fig.2e).

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Similarly, RBD-specific MBC were equally well-maintained in the residents and staff (Fig.2f,g),
with no decline in their frequencies (as a fraction of total MBC) with increasing age (Fig.2h).
RBD-specific MBC comprised a variable proportion of the total spike-specific MBC response
(4.6 to 41.0%; median 24.0%), the remainder representing B cells targeting non-RBD regions
of spike. The proportions of RBD and non-RBD-binding spike-specific MBC again showed no
changes with age (Fig.2i).

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161 *Skewed isotype of spike/RBD-specific B cells associates with loss of neutralising antibodies*

Having identified and quantified antigen-specific B cells with tetramer staining, we were able
to apply high-dimensional multiparameter flow cytometry to phenotype these low frequency
populations without any *in vitro* manipulation. We investigated the immunoglobulin isotype,
memory phenotype, homing markers and transcription factor usage of spike and RBD-specific
B cells, and global B cells (Fig.3).

168 The vast majority of SARS-CoV-2 MBC expressed IgG, with a similar isotype distribution observed between spike and RBD-specific MBC (Fig.3a,b,c). However, individuals with 169 170 persistent nAb had a higher frequency of IgG isotype expressing spike- and RBD- specific MBC 171 than their counterparts who had lost nAb (Fig.3b,c), indicating the establishment of a robust, 172 class-switched memory response in these individuals. In contrast, individuals whose nAb had waned below detectable limits had lost more IgG, and had a relative preservation of IgA class-173 174 switched spike- and RBD- specific MBC (Fig.3b,c). Elderly residents similarly showed a trend 175 towards less IgG on their spike-specific MBC but, overall, no significant skewing of their immunoglobulin class-switching compared to younger staff (Fig.3b,c). Global B cells showed 176 177 the same pattern of expression of different immunoglobulin isotypes on their surface in SARS-178 CoV-2 resolved donors as in uninfected controls, with roughly equal proportions of IgG and 179 IgA and less than 15% IgM (Fig.S2a).

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181 MBC subsets were examined using the combination of CD27 and CD21. The majority of spike 182 and RBD-specific B cells had a classical resting memory phenotype (CD27⁺CD21⁺), 183 characteristic of functional responses and comparable to the global MBC compartment, in 184 both the elderly resident and staff groups (Fig.3d,e,f, Fig.S2b). 'Double negative B cells' have been associated with B cell dysfunction in ageing,^{32–34} and the 'DN2' subset with an 185 extrafollicular short-lived plasmablast response in the acute phase of a cohort with severe 186 187 COVID-19.³⁵ However, at the five month timepoint following mild/asymptomatic infection in our cohort, neither the elderly nor those who had lost nAb showed any expansion of CD27⁻ 188 CD21⁻ B cells (Fig.3e,f) or the DN2 subset (CD27⁻CD21⁻CXCR5^{lo}CD11c^{hi}, Fig.S2c). Instead, there 189 190 was a selective enrichment of the activated MBC subset (CD27⁺CD21⁻, previously described to be expanded in HIV and Ebola infection or after vaccination^{36–38}) in the RBD-binding 191 fraction in elderly residents, with the same trend in those who had lost nAb (Fig.3g). Those 192 193 who had lost nAb also had reduced expression of the B cell homing molecules CXCR3 and 194 CXCR5 on spike-specific and global MBC (non-significant trend and significant respectively, Fig.S2d,ef). T-bet, a transcription factor critical for acute antiviral function in B cells but 195 associated with dysfunction in chronic infections and autoimmunity,^{39–42} also tended to be 196 197 expressed at lower levels in the spike-specific MBC of those losing nAb (Fig.S2e,f).

Taken together, the isotype and memory phenotype of global and antigen-specific B cells was
largely preserved in the elderly care home population, apart from an increase in spike-specific

201 activated MBC. Individuals who maintained nAb had predominantly IgG-expressing antigen-

specific MBC. In contrast, in those who had lost nAb by 5 months, whether staff or residents,

203 residual antigen-specific B cells showed preferential preservation of IgA.

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206 Elderly residents maintain functional spike/RBD-specific B cells but at reduced frequency207 compared to younger care home staff.

Having found that antigen-specific MBC could persist following complete waning of circulating nAb, we wanted to confirm their potential for functional recall upon reencountering SARS-CoV-2. We therefore used cultured B cell ELISpots to examine the capacity of persistent SARS-CoV-2-specific MBC to differentiate into plasmablasts capable of secreting IgG capable of binding recombinant trimeric spike, S1 or RBD proteins.

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ELISpots were performed using PBMC from 24 seropositive care home residents and staff, with the threshold for detection set at the highest observed value in an uninfected controls group (five seronegative care home residents and five pre-pandemic controls). Only individuals with responses detectable in a control total IgG well were included in analysis. Where responses were too numerous to count (TNTC), the highest number of spot-forming cells (SFCs) observed in the maximal response to the respective protein was used (Fig.S3a).

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221 Functional recall responses to SARS-CoV-2 trimeric spike protein were observed in 21 of the 222 24 seropositive individuals tested, with ELISpots tending to be positive in more of those who had maintained nAb (Fig.4a). However, the majority of those who had lost detectable nAb 223 224 still had a spike-specific response by ELISpot, with no significant difference in their magnitude compared to the nAb group (Fig.4a). ELISpots showed similar results for IgG binding S1 and 225 226 RBD, with a trend to a lower proportion of positive results in those who had lost nAb but no 227 significant difference in the magnitude of B cell recall responses in those maintaining serum 228 nAb or not (Fig.4b,c).

The magnitude of RBD recall response assessed by ELISpot showed a significant correlation with both spike and RBD MBC detection by tetramer staining (Fig.4d,e). However, there was some discordance due to individuals who had tetramer-binding spike or RBD B cells that did not produce detectable IgG by ELISpot (dotted boxes, Fig.4d,e), mainly in those who had lost nAb. Importantly, these data revealed that circulating antigen-specific B cells can be detected in the absence of functional recall.

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237 Next, we compared functional responses to all three proteins for each individual, ranked 238 according to nAb status and age. Individuals with strong recall to spike (as measured by 239 ELISpot) tended to also have strong responses to S1 and RBD, whereas others had weak 240 responses to all three antigens (Fig.4f). Functional MBC recall responses decreased with 241 increasing age in both the groups, regardless of maintenance of serum nAb (Fig.4f). Thus, 242 elderly residents had significantly lower ELISpot MBC responses against spike, S1, and 243 particularly RBD, than the younger staff group (Fig.4g,h,i). Focusing on elderly residents who 244 had lost nAb, we found that none of these individuals sustained MBC capable of functional 245 recall to RBD (Fig.4j).

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Overall, the measurement of nAb against live virus combined with assessment of spike and RBD-specific MBC by tetramer staining and functional ELISpot provided complementary insights into B cell immunity (Fig.4k). A substantial proportion of those who had lost neutralising activity against live virus, maintained spike and RBD-specific MBC detectable with one or both assays, regardless of age. However, some of those with persistent antigenspecific MBC could not mount a detectable functional response, particularly the elderly who had lost nAb (Fig.4k).

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255 Discussion

In this study we sampled a cohort of very elderly residents and younger staff who developed mild/asymptomatic SARS-CoV-2 infection during care home outbreaks, a high proportion of whom had lost nAb by five months. This allowed us to dissect the potential for B cell memory to persist beyond serum nAb, providing a back-up reserve to humoral immunity. We 260 demonstrated that the majority of the cohort maintained detectable frequencies of spike and RBD-specific MBC by flow cytometry, even where they had lost circulating antibodies capable 261 262 of live virus neutralisation. Tetramer staining allowed accurate ex vivo quantification and 263 characterisation of antigen-specific MBC, revealing that individuals who had lost nAb had lower frequencies of spike and RBD-specific MBC, with a preserved classical memory 264 phenotype but class-switching skewed away from IgG towards IgA. Elderly and younger 265 recovered individuals infected in the same care home outbreaks maintained similar 266 267 frequencies of spike and RBD-specific tetramer-staining B cells, with comparable phenotypes and isotypes. However functional assessment using ELISpot assays demonstrated that the 268 269 persisting spike, and particularly RBD-specific, MBC had reduced potential for antibody 270 production in the elderly.

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The success of an infection or vaccine in inducing durable humoral immunity is dependent on 272 the generation of long-lived plasma cells and MBC.^{17–19} The longevity of the plasma cell 273 274 response, capable of sustaining antibodies, varies widely following different viral infections.^{5–} 275 ⁷ A recent study has demonstrated the presence of bone marrow plasma cells secreting IgG 276 against SARS-CoV-2 spike protein in fifteen of nineteen individuals examined seven months 277 post infection,⁴³ in line with the durability of some antibodies in the first year after mild 278 infection. Nevertheless, many studies have also highlighted the potential for neutralising 279 antibodies to SARS-CoV-2 to wane to a point where there is an, as yet ill-defined, risk of reinfection.^{44–46} Our study deliberately focuses on the role of MBC in those with waning or 280 281 undetectable nAb to live virus, despite persistence of binding antibodies. MBC, previously 282 identified in younger COVID-19 cohorts,^{11,26,47,48} can provide a crucial back-up by responding 283 quickly to pathogen re-encounter or vaccination to form new plasmablasts, producing potent affinity-matured antibodies with more flexible recognition of viral variants;^{9,20} this is 284 285 consistent with the enhanced nAb response described following vaccination of previously SARS-CoV-2 infected healthcare workers.⁴⁹ Our demonstration that B cells of relevant 286 specificities can still be detected even when nAb titres are waning or completely abrogated 287 288 provides some reassurance that a memory response remains intact in the elderly. Future 289 large-scale studies are needed to assess whether B cell memory serves as an independent 290 correlate of protection or whether reliance on MBC to mount a new response in the absence

of existing antibodies provides a critical window of opportunity for a virus that replicates asrapidly as SARS-CoV-2.

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294 One strategy to combat antibodies that are waning or unable to cross-recognise emerging 295 variants is the use of booster vaccines. Our finding that the elderly have impaired differentiation of their persistent spike/RBD-specific MBC into antibody producing cells 296 297 detected by ELISpot assays provides biological rationale for a potential need for more 298 frequent booster vaccination in this high-risk group. The frequency, phenotype and class-299 switching of antigen-specific B cells did not reveal obvious changes in the elderly group to 300 account for this functional defect, other than an increase in the CD27⁺CD21⁻ subset. The 301 activated CD27⁺CD21⁻ subset of MBC has recently been noted to remain expanded in some resolved COVID-19 patients,⁵⁰ consistent with emerging literature supporting the possibility 302 303 of prolonged antigen persistence, exemplified by a recent study detecting SARS-CoV-2 in the 304 small bowel four months after asymptomatic infection.⁹ Our finding of more antigen-specific 305 CD27⁺CD21⁻ MBC in the older age group raises the possibility there is more prolonged antigen 306 persistence and resultant B cell activation following SARS-CoV-2 infection in the elderly. 307 However, the ageing immune system is characterised by a tendency to low-level chronic 308 inflammation,^{51,52} which could also contribute to prolonged activation of SARS-CoV-2 MBC. 309 Analogous to our findings in elderly care home residents, both older subjects and those with 310 HIV have been found to have persistent circulating MBC but defective plasmablast formation, resulting in reduced influenza vaccine-induced antibodies.^{53,54} Such age-related defects in B 311 cell responses to vaccination have been attributed to a combination of B cell intrinsic 312 313 senescence and defective T follicular helper cells (Tfh) in germinal centres.^{55–57}

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A caveat to our study is that we were only able to study circulating B cells, whilst additional 315 316 recall responses may be compartmentalised within the mucosa. A recent study suggested 317 mild infection can stimulate mucosal SARS-CoV-2-specific IgA secretion in the absence of circulating antibodies.⁵⁸ The bias towards the retention of IgA+ spike/RBD-specific MBC in 318 319 those who had lost all detectable serum nAb to live virus could therefore be reflective of a 320 stronger mucosal response in these individuals. An increase in mucosal-homing IgA responses 321 has been described as a feature of the ageing immune response,⁵⁹ consistent with the older 322 composition of our cohort. Alternatively, the relative preservation of IgA rather than IgG 323 spike/RBD-specific MBC in those with the fastest waning nAb may simply reflect the recent observations that IgA dominates the early nAb response to SARS-CoV-2 infection,⁵⁶ and may 324 not decline as fast as the IgG response.^{9,60} Since our ELISpot assays did not measure the 325 326 function of IgA isotype B cells, we may have under-estimated the full extent of residual SARS-327 CoV-2-specific responses, particularly in those with a more IgA-skewed response. In addition, 328 several studies have shown that the magnitude of the MBC response to SARS-CoV-2 continues to increase beyond six months,^{9,23,50,61} again implying that we may have under-estimated the 329 330 extent of recall potential in our cohort at five months. Future studies should also examine the preservation of non-spike-specific MBC with the potential to produce antibodies mediating 331 332 antiviral effects beyond neutralisation, since other viral proteins (ORF3a, membrane and nucleocapsid) can play a dominant role in triggering antibody-dependent NK cell activation.⁶² 333 334

In conclusion, by focusing on an elderly cohort with a high proportion of nAb loss, we 335 336 demonstrated that this waning in the first line of humoral defence can be compensated by 337 the presence of a reserve of adaptive B cell memory in the majority of cases. Our findings 338 highlight the importance of including measures of B cell memory in larger studies of natural 339 infection and vaccination to determine their role as additional correlates of protection. Our 340 data underscore that identifying antigen-specific B cells by tetramer antigen staining is useful 341 for quantitation and thorough *ex vivo* characterisation, but may not necessarily equate with the preservation of a functional response, as also observed in chronic viral infection.^{42,63} The 342 343 relative preservation of IgA antigen-specific MBC in those with waned serum nAb raises the possibility that mucosal sequestered immunity may outlast that detectable in the circulation. 344 345 Increased expansion of activated MBC in the elderly highlights the need to investigate 346 whether they are more prone to prolonged stimulation from persistent reservoirs of SARS-CoV-2 antigen. A finding of concern was the lack of detectable functional recall to RBD in 347 348 elderly donors who had lost nAb; given that RBD is the dominant site for nAb this supports 349 the need for additional monitoring and/or booster vaccines to maintain sufficient antibodies 350 to neutralise emerging variants in this highly vulnerable group.

352 Materials and Methods

353 Participants

354 SARS-CoV-2 antigen specific memory B cell (MBC) responses were compared between elderly 355 care home resident and younger staff counterparts exposed to the virus within the same environment. Six care homes reporting SARS-CoV-2 outbreaks to Public Health England (PHE) 356 357 were recruited to longitudinal SARS-CoV-2 RT-PCR and serological follow-up in April 2020 (T0).^{1,21} Serostatus of individuals within these homes at one month and five months after the 358 359 outbreaks (T1 and T2 respectively) was established using binding and functional assays as 360 previously described.^{21,22} Briefly, a native virus lysate assay (PHE) and/or receptor binding 361 domain assay (RBD, PHE) determined seropositivity, and a live virus neutralising antibody 362 assay to prototype England.2 SARS-CoV-2 virus was used to determine neutralising antibody titres.^{21,22} 363

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365 A total of 32 SARS-CoV-2 individuals (22 residents; 10 staff) were recruited, all of whom were 366 seropositive by the binding assays described above at both sampling time points (T1: May 367 2020, T2: September 2020), alongside 11 SARS-CoV-2 seronegative control individuals from 368 three of the care homes. Participants donated 30ml of blood to be processed for peripheral 369 blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) and serum five months after the initial outbreaks (T2). The 370 investigation protocol was reviewed and approved by the PHE Research Ethics and Governance Group (REGG Ref NR0204). Written information regarding the study was 371 372 provided to all participants; verbal consent for testing was obtained by care home managers 373 from staff members and residents or their next of kin as appropriate.

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375 Stored pre-pandemic samples from seven healthy individuals were used as controls,

376 recruited under ethics number 11/LO/0421 approved by the 'South East Coast - Brighton

377 and Sussex Research Ethics Committee.

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379 Sample processing and data collection

Venepuncture blood samples collected in lithium heparin coated and serum separation tubes
 were used for isolation of PBMC and serum respectively. PBMC were isolated by density
 centrifugation using Pancoll human (PAN-Biotech). Isolated PBMC were frozen in foetal

- bovine serum (FBS) supplemented with 10% DMSO (Sigma Aldrich). Prior to use samples were
 thawed and washed in PBS. Serum was collected following centrifugation and stored at -80
 degrees prior to use.
- 386
- 387 Clinical and laboratory data including age, gender, symptom status at TO and SARS-CoV-2 RT-
- 388 PCR status at TO were available for all participants. (Table S1)¹
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Protein expression and purification

- Recombinant spike (S) and spike receptor binding domain (RBD) proteins of SARS-CoV-2 for 391 392 antigen-specific B cell flow cytometry and ELISpot were expressed and purified as previously described.¹⁵ Briefly, spike glycoprotein trimer (uncleaved spike stabilised in the prefusion 393 394 conformation (GGGG substitution at furin cleavage site and 2P mutation)⁶⁴ and RBD protein¹² 395 were cloned into a pHLsec vector containing Avi and 6xHis tags. Biotinylated Spike and RBD 396 were expressed in Expi293F cells (Thermofisher Scientific). Supernatants were harvested after 397 7 days and purified. For the production of biotinylated protein, spike and RBD encoding 398 plasmids were co-transfected with BirA and PEI-Max in the presence of 200uM biotin.
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400 Recombinant S1 protein constructs spanning SARS-CoV-2 residues 1-530 for ELISpot were 401 produced as previously described.^{28,30} Briefly, codon-optimised DNA fragments were cloned 402 into mammalian expression vector pQ-3C-2xStrep to create plasmids, which were then 403 transfected into Expi293F cells growing at 37 in 5% CO2 atmosphere using ExpiFectamine 404 reagent (Thermofisher Scientific). Proteins were purified by strep-tag affinity and 405 subsequently size exclusion chromatography.

406

407 Flow cytometry

High dimensional multiparameter flow cytometry was used for *ex vivo* identification of spike
and RBD- specific B cells. Two panels (surface and intranuclear) of monoclonal antibodies
(mAbs) were used to phenotype global and antigen specific subsets (Table S2). Biotinylated
tetrameric spike (1ug) and RBD (0.5ug) were fluorochrome linked for flow cytometry by
incubating with streptavidin conjugated APC (Prozyme) and PE (Prozyme) (Spike), and BV421
(Biolegend) (RBD) for 30 minutes in the dark on ice.

PBMC were thawed and incubated with Live/Dead fixable dead cell stain (UV, ThermoFisher Scientific) and saturating concentrations of phenotyping mAbs (Table S2) diluted in 50% 1xPBS 50% Brilliant Violet Buffer (BD Biosciences). For identification of SARS-CoV-2 antigen specific B cells 1ug per 500ul of stain each of tetrameric Spike-APC and Spike-PE and 0.5ug per 500ul stain of tetrameric RBD-BV421 were added to the cell preparation. Parallel samples stained with an identical panel of mAbs, but excluding the SARS-CoV-2 proteins (fluorescence minus one controls (FMO)) were used as controls for non-specific binding.

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423 Cells were incubated in the staining solution for 30 minutes at room temperature, washed 424 with PBS, and subsequently fixed with either fixation and permeabilization solution (BD 425 Biosciences) or FoxP3 Buffer Set (BD Biosciences) according to the manufacturer's 426 instructions for surface and intranuclear staining respectively. Saturating concentrations of 427 mAbs diluted in 1xPBS were added following permeabilization for the detection of 428 intranuclear proteins. All samples were acquired on a Fortessa-X20 (BD Biosciences) and 429 analysed using FlowJo (TreeStar).

430

B cell subsets were defined as follows: MBC - CD19⁺CD20⁺ excluding IgD⁺, CD38^{hi} and
CD21⁺CD27⁻ naïve fractions, (gating strategy in Supp.Fig1a), DN2 - CD19⁺CD20⁺CD38^{+/-}CD21⁻
CD27⁻CD11c^{hi}CXCR5^{Io}. For analysis of RBD- co-staining cells sufficient magnitude spike-specific
MBC (≥20 dual-spike+ cells) were required. For phenotypic analysis of spike-specific and RBDspecific cells sufficient magnitude responses (≥50 cells in the relevant parent gate) were
required.

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438 MBC recall response to SARS-CoV-2: ELISpot

To activate MBC differentiation, 1x10⁶ PBMC were stimulated with 1ug/ml R848 (TLR7/8
agonist; Resiquimod (Invivogen)) diluted in complete RPMI (cRPMI; RPMI supplemented with
10% FBS plus recombinant human IL-2 (20IU/ml; Peprotech), as previously described.^{65,66}
Activated cells were incubated for six days with a media change on day three.

443

444 ELISpot plates (Mabtech) were pre-coated with recombinant SARS-CoV-2 trimeric spike 445 (1µg/ml), S1 (1µg/ml) and RBD (10µg/ml) and anti-human IgG (1µg/ml Jackson 446 Immunoresearch) overnight at 4°C. Coated plates were blocked with cRPMI with 10% FBS 447 prior to the addition of cells. Cultured PBMC were added at varying concentrations depending on SARS-CoV-2 antigen and incubated at 37°C at 5% CO2 for 18 hours: 50,000 cells/ well to 448 449 detect spike- specific IgG secreting cells; 100,000 cells/well to detect S1 and RBD IgG secreting 450 cells; and 1000 cells/well for detection of total IgG secreting cells. To control for non-specific binding, uncoated control wells were incubated with 100,000 pre-stimulated cells. The 451 following day, ELISpot plates were washed in filtered PBS supplemented with 0.5% Tween 20 452 453 (Merck) and incubated for four hours in the dark at room temperature with 1ug/ml goat anti-454 human IgG horse radish peroxidase antibody (Jackson Immunoresearch). Cells were again 455 washed three times with PBS-Tween 20 (0.5%) and three times with PBS, then developed with 456 3-Amino-9-ethylcarbazole (AEC) substrate (BD Biosciences) according to the manufacturer's 457 instructions. ELISpot plates were washed with ddH20 before analysis using ViruSpot 458 (Autoimmun Diagnostika). All conditions were performed in duplicate and responses 459 averaged.

460

461 Data analysis and statistics

Data were analysed using GraphPad Prism. Descriptive statistical analyses were performed. Continuous data that did not follow a normal distribution were described as medians with interquartile ranges and differences compared using the Mann-Whitney U test, Wilcoxon's paired *t*-test or Kruskal Wallis test with Dunn's post hoc test for pairwise multiple comparisons as appropriate. Contingency table analyses were conducted using Fisher's exact test. Correlations for non-parametric data were assessed using Spearman's rank correlation with 95% Cl.

469

470 Supplementary Materials

471 Fig. S1. Gating strategy and threshold for detection of spike-specific responses

472 Fig. S2. Phenotyping of spike-specific and global MBC

- 473 Fig. S3. Representative ELISpot responses to SARS-CoV-2 proteins
- 474 Table S1. Cohort Characteristics
- 475 Table S2. Antibody list
- 476

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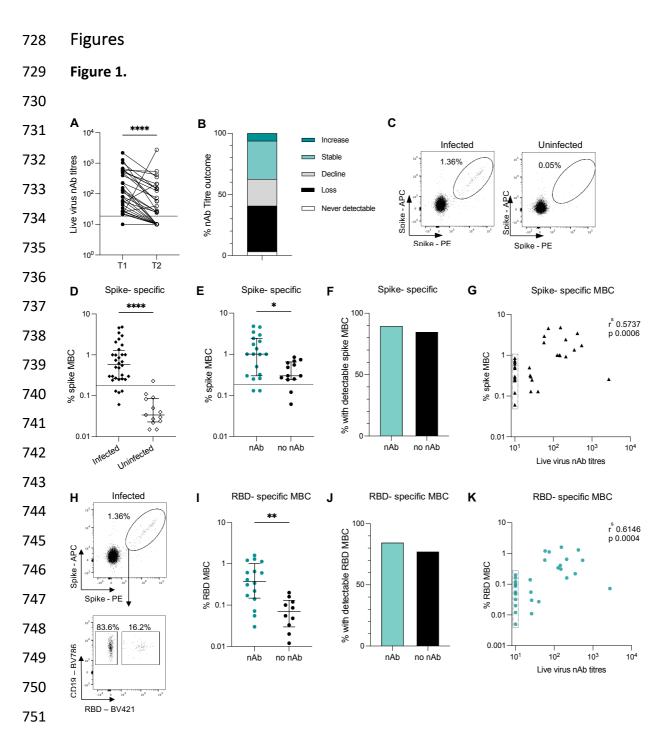
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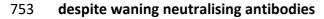
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698 Author contributions

699	Conceptualization: AJS, MZ, LEM, MKM; Methodology: AJS, ARB, LM, KJD, SNL, LEM, MKM;
700	Investigation: AJS, ARB, SL, MP, RG, CRS, LEM; Sample and clinical data acquisition: AJS, FA,
701	SNL, JYC; Analysis: AJS, ARB, SL, MP, RG, LEM, MKM; Funding acquisition: SNL, JYC, MZ, MKM;
702	Supervision: SNL, MZ, LEM, MKM; Writing – original draft: AJS, MKM; Writing – review &
703	editing: All authors
704	
705	Competing interests
706	None declared
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752 Spike and RBD-specific memory B cells persist five months post-SARS-CoV-2 infection

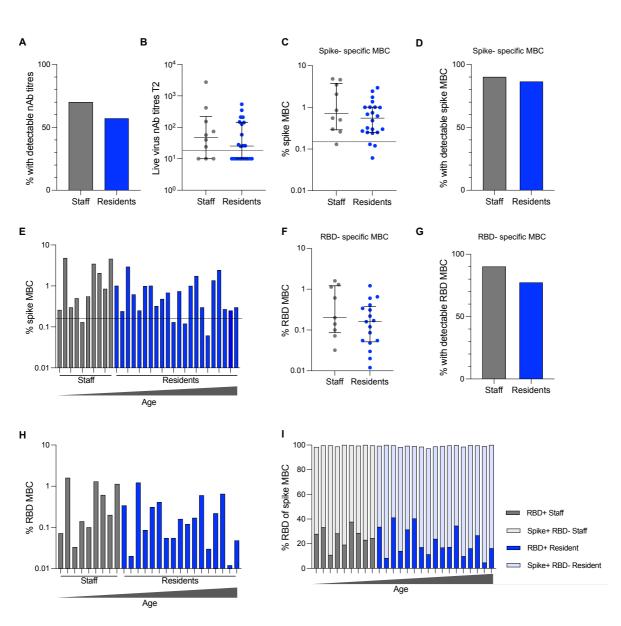


- (A) Paired live virus nAb titres (nAb) at T1 and T2 of individuals infected prior to T1 (n=32).
- **(B)** Proportion of infected individuals with change in nAb indicated between T1 and T2:
- increase = \geq 4 fold rise in nAb; static = >4 fold decrease <4 fold increase; decline \geq 4 fold
- 757 decrease; loss = no detectable nAb titres at T2 from detectable nAb at T1; never detectable
- 758 = absence of nAb titres at T1 and T2 (n=32). (C) Representative FACS plots of dual staining

with SARS-CoV-2 spike tetramers on MBC (CD3-CD14-CD19+CD20+CD38(+/-) IgD- excluding 759 760 naïve (CD21+CD27-)) for previously infected (left) and uninfected (right) individuals. (D, E) 761 Frequency of dual spike-specific MBC (D) in infected (n=32) and uninfected (n=13) and (E) in 762 infected individuals with (nAb, n=19) and without (no nAb, n=13) detectable nAb at T2. Dashed lines indicate threshold for spike-specific responses determined by uninfected 763 controls (Supplementary figure 1b). (F) Proportion of infected individuals with detectable 764 spike-MBC above the threshold stratified by presence (nAb, n=19) and absence (no nAb, 765 766 n=13) of detectable nAb at T2. (G) Correlation between frequency of spike MBC and live virus nAb titres in infected individuals (n=32). (H) Representative FACS plots of dual staining 767 768 with SARS-CoV-2 spike tetramers on MBC (top panel) and RBD tetramer on dual spike 769 specific cells (lower panel) of an infected individual. Minimum number of cells in spike-770 specific gate required for RBD probe analysis = 20 (I) Frequency of RBD- specific MBC in 771 infected individuals with detectable spike-specific responses stratified by presence (nAb, 772 n=16) and absence (no nAb, n=10) detectable nAb at T2. (J) Proportion of infected 773 individuals with detectable RBD MBC stratified by presence (nAb, n=16) and absence (no 774 nAb, n=10) of detectable nAb at T2. (K) Correlation between frequency of RBD MBC and live 775 virus nAb titres in all infected individuals (n=29). (A) Wilcoxon matched pairs, p ≤0.0001. (D, 776 **E**, I) Bars indicate median and interquartile range; Mann Whitney U Test; (**D**) $p \le 0.0001$, (**E**) 777 p=0.0114, (I) p=0.0012. (F, J) Fisher's exact test; (F) p= 0.6285, (J) p= 0.6664. (G, K) Dotted 778 box indicates individuals with discordant MBC and nAb response. Spearman's rank 779 correlation. nAb, neutralising antibody; MBC, memory B cell, RBD, receptor binding domain. 780 Analysis of RBD specific MBC only in those with \geq 20 cells in spike-specific gate. 781 782 783 784 785 786 787 788 789 790



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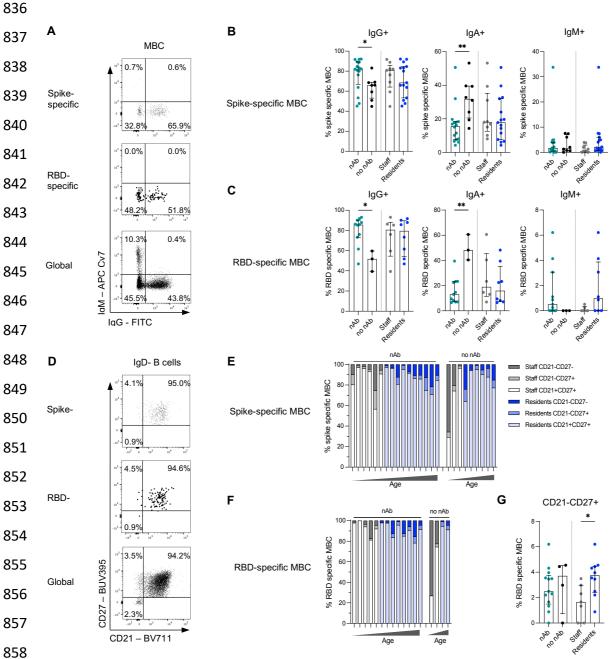


(A) Proportion of staff (n= 10) and residents (n=21) with detectable nAb at T1 who

- 797 continued to have detectable nAb at T2. (**B**) nAb titres at T2 for all infected individuals
- stratified by staff (n=10) and residents (n=22). Dashed line indicates assay threshold for
- 799 detection, undetectable titres assigned a value of 10. (C) Frequency of dual spike-specific
- 800 MBC in staff (n=10) and residents (n=22). (**D**) Proportion of infected individuals with
- detectable spike-MBC stratified by staff (n=10) and resident (n=22) status. (E) Frequency of
- 802 dual spike-specific MBC for staff (grey) and residents (blue) ordered by age from youngest

803	on the left to oldest on the right. (F) Frequency of RBD- specific MBC in staff (n=9) and
804	residents (n=17) with detectable spike specific responses. (G) Proportion of infected
805	individuals with detectable RBD MBC stratified by staff (n=10) and resident (n=22) status.
806	(H) Frequency of RBD-specific MBC for staff (grey) and residents (blue) ordered by age from
807	youngest on the left to oldest on the right. (I) Proportion of dual spike specific cells with
808	specificity for RBD (staff= dark grey; residents = dark blue), or non-RBD region (staff = pale
809	grey; residents = pale blue) in staff (n=9) and residents (n=17). (A, D, G) Fisher's exact test;
810	(A) p>0.9999, (D) p> 0.9999, (G) p= 0.6367. (B, C, F) Bars indicate median and interquartile
811	range; Mann Whitney U test; (B) p= 0.4367, (C) p= 0.2552, (F) p=0.2359. (C, E) Dashed line
812	indicates threshold for spike-specific responses determined by uninfected controls
813	(Supplementary figure 1b).
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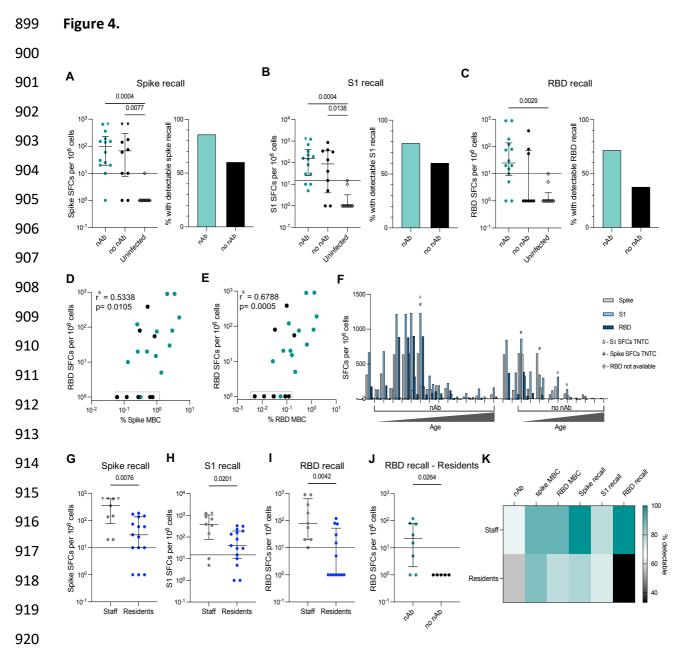




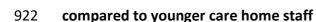
859 Preserved memory phenotype but skewed isotype of spike/RBD-specific B cells with loss 860 of neutralising antibodies

(A) Representative FACS plots of IgM and IgG on spike-specific (top panel), RBD- specific 861 (middle panel), and global (bottom panel) CD19+CD20+CD38lo/neg IgD- MBC from an 862 infected individual. (B) Frequency of IgG+, IgA+ (denoted by IgD-, IgG-, IgM-) and IgM+ spike-863 864 specific MBC stratified by presence (nAb, n=16) and absence (no nAb, n=8) of detectable 865 nAb at T2, and by staff (grey, n=9) and resident (blue, n=15) status. (C) Frequency of IgG+, 866 IgA+ (denoted by IgD-, IgG-, IgM-) and IgM+ RBD-specific MBC stratified by stratified by

presence (nAb, n=11) and absence (no nAb, n=3) of detectable nAb at T2, and by staff (grey, n=6) and resident (blue, n=8) status. (D) Representative FACS plots of CD21 and CD27 gating on spike-specific (top panel), RBD- specific (middle panel), and global (bottom panel) CD19+CD20+CD38lo/neg IgD-MBC from an infected individual. (E) Frequency of CD21-CD27+, CD21+CD27+ and CD21-CD27- MBC subsets of spike- specific MBC stratified by presence (nAb, n=16) and absence (no nAb, n=9) of detectable nAb at T2 ordered by increasing age. (F) Frequency of CD21-CD27+, CD21+CD27+ and CD21-CD27- MBC subsets of RBD- specific MBC stratified by presence (nAb, n=13) and absence (no nAb, n=4) of detectable nAb at T2 ordered by increasing age. (G) Frequency of CD21-CD27+ RBD- specific MBC stratified by presence (nAb, n=13) and absence (no nAb, n=4) of detectable nAb at T2, and by staff (grey, n=7) and resident (blue, n=10) status. (B, C, G) Bars indicate median and interquartile range; Mann Whitney U test; (B) IgG p=0.0382; ns, IgA p=0.0045; ns, IgM ns; ns; (**C**) IgG p=0.0220; ns, IgA p=0.0055; ns, IgM ns; ns; (**G**) ns; 0.0180. Analysis of individuals ≥50 cells in the relevant parent gate for all phenotypic analysis.







(A, B, C) Left panels: SFCs per 1 million PBMC for infected individuals stratified by presence
(nAb) and absence (no nAb) of detectable nAb at T2 and for uninfected controls. Right
panel: proportion of infected individuals stratified by presence (nAb) and absence (no nAb)
of detectable nAb at T2 with detectable recall responses. (A) Spike protein (nAb n=14, no
nAb n=10, uninfected n=10), (B) S1 protein (nAb n=14, no nAb n=10, uninfected n=10), (C)
RBD protein (nAb n=14, no nAb n=8, uninfected n=10). (D, E) Correlation between SFCs per

- 929 10⁶ PBMC to SARS-CoV-2 RBD protein and (**D**) frequency of spike specific MBC, (**E**) frequency
- of RBD positive MBC for those with nAb (green) and without nAb (black). (F) SFCs per 1

931 million PBMC to Spike (grey), S1 (pale blue), and RBD (dark blue) per individual stratified by presence (nAb, n=14) and absence (no nAb, n=10) of detectable nAb at T2 ordered by 932 933 increasing age. (G, H, I) SFCs per 1 million PBMC for infected individuals stratified by staff 934 and resident status, (G) Spike protein (staff n=9, resident n=15), (H) S1 protein (staff n=9, 935 resident n=15, (I) RBD protein (staff n=9, resident n=13). (J) SFCs per 1 million PBMC to RBD 936 protein for infected residents stratified by presence (nAb, n=8) and absence (no nAb, n=5) of 937 detectable nAb at T2. (K) Summary heatmap of proportion of staff and residents with nAb 938 titres detectable at T2, spike- and RBD- specific MBC by flow cytometry, and spike, S1 and 939 RBD recall by ELISpot. (A, B, C) Left panels: Bars indicated median and interquartile range, 940 dashed line indicates threshold indicated by seronegative and pre-pandemic controls. 941 Kruskal Wallis multiple comparison ANOVA with Dunn's correction, significance as indicated. 942 (A, B, C) Right panels: Fisher's exact test (A) p= 0.3413, (B) p= 0.3926, (C) p= 0.1870. (D, E) 943 Dotted box indicates individuals with discordant MBC and ELISpot response. Spearman's 944 rank correlation. (G, H, I, J) Bars indicated median and interquartile range, dashed line 945 indicates threshold indicated by seronegative and pre-pandemic controls. Mann Whitney U 946 Test, significance as indicated. 947 (A, B, G, H) Inverted triangle: individuals where the responses were TNTC, these individuals 948 have been assigned the maximal response observed. (F) δ : SFCs TNTC in response to S1; #: 949 SFCs were too numerous to count in response to Spike. For these individuals values have 950 been assigned the maximum response observed on the plate for analyses. θ : RBD counts

951 unavailable.

952 Individuals with a zero response to any antigen have been assigned a value of 1 to allow

953 plots to be drawn on a logarithmic scale. All statistical analysis performed using original

- values. SFC, spot forming cells; RBD, Receptor binding domain; MBC, memory B cells, TNTC,
- 955 too numerous to count.
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