Title: SARS-CoV-2-specific CD4+ and CD8+ T cell responses can originate from cross-

reactive CMV-specific T cells

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Abstract

Detection of SARS-coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) specific CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells in SARS-CoV-2-unexposed donors has been explained by the presence of T cells primed by other coronaviruses. However, based on the relative high frequency and prevalence of cross-reactive T cells, we hypothesized CMV may induce these cross-reactive T cells. Stimulation of pre-pandemic cryo-preserved PBMCs with SARS-CoV-2 peptides revealed that frequencies of SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells were higher in CMV-seropositive donors. Characterization of these T cells demonstrated that membrane-specific CD4$^+$ and spike-specific CD8$^+$ T cells originate from cross-reactive CMV-specific T cells. Spike-specific CD8$^+$ T cells recognize SARS-CoV-2 spike peptide FVSNGTHWF (FVS) and dissimilar CMV pp65 peptide IPSINVHHY (IPS) presented by HLA-B*35:01. These dual IPS/FVS-reactive CD8$^+$ T cells were found in multiple donors and shared a common T cell receptor (TCR), illustrating that IPS/FVS-cross-reactivity is caused by a public TCR. Importantly, these cross-reactive T cells reduced spreading of SARS-CoV-2 in airway epithelial Calu-3 cells yet they were not phenotypically activated during late-stage COVID-19, indicating that cross-reactive T cells may more likely play a role during early stage of infection. In conclusion, CMV-specific T cells cross-react with SARS-CoV-2, despite low sequence homology between the two viruses, and may contribute to the pre-existing immunity against SARS-CoV-2.

Main text

Introduction

The effectiveness of the innate and adaptive immune system is an important factor for disease outcome during infection with severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) (Brodin, 2021). CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells are important components of the adaptive immune system as CD4$^+$ T cells promote antibody production by B cells and help cytotoxic CD8$^+$ T cells to mediate cytotoxic lysis of SARS-CoV-2 infected cells (Sette & Crotty, 2021). Whilst immunity is commonly measured solely based on antibody titers, research into coronavirus disease (COVID-19) pathophysiology and vaccination effectiveness has associated an effective T cell response with less severe COVID-19 (Bange et al., 2021; Bertoletti et al., 2021; Liao et al., 2020; Rydyznski Moderbacher et al., 2020; Sekine et al., 2020; Sette & Crotty, 2021; A. T. Tan et al., 2021). Additionally, SARS-CoV-2-specific T cell responses have been shown to be present in most individuals 6 months after infection and remain largely unaffected by emerging variants of concern, illustrating their importance in generating durable immune responses (Gao et al., 2022; GeurtsvanKessel et al., 2022; Keeton et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022; Tarke et al., 2022).

Besides *de novo* SARS-CoV-2-specific T cell responses in infected individuals, SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells have also been identified in unexposed individuals (Grifoni et al., 2020; Le Bert et al., 2020; Mateus et al., 2020; Nelde et al., 2021; Weiskopf et al., 2020). This finding indicates that certain T cells which were initially primed against other pathogens are able to recognize an antigen of SARS-CoV-2. This phenomenon is called heterologous immunity and can often be explained by sequence homology between pathogens. Highly homologous sequences are translated into similar proteins which can be processed and presented as epitopes with high sequence similarity in human leukocyte antigen (HLA). For this reason, most research has focused on cross-reactive T cells that are potentially primed by other human coronaviruses (HCoVs) since they share around 30% amino acid sequence homology with SARS-CoV-2 (Bacher et al., 2020; Braun et al., 2020; Johansson et al., 2021; Kundu et al., 2022; Le Bert et al., 2020; Loyal et al., 2021; Mateus et al., 2020). However, it has been postulated that SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells in unexposed individuals could also conceivably be primed by other, non-HCoVs (Le Bert et al., 2020; Peng et al., 2020;

Stervbo et al., 2020; C. C. S. Tan et al., 2021). Furthermore, previous studies, although limited,

have demonstrated the occurrence of cross-reactivity between two epitopes with relatively low

sequence homology (Bijen et al., 2018; Cameron et al., 2013; Clute et al., 2005; Cornberg et al.,

2010; Riley et al., 2018; Su & Davis, 2013). This form of heterologous immunity is poorly

understood and, therefore, predicting such cross-reactivity remains a challenge (Lee et al., 2020).

Pre-pandemic SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells are reportedly present in a relatively high proportion

of the population, independent of geographical location, indicating that a highly prevalent pathogen

could be a potential source of these cross-reactive T cells (Braun et al., 2020; Grifoni et al., 2020;

Le Bert et al., 2020; Mateus et al., 2020; Meckiff et al., 2020; Nelde et al., 2021; Sekine et al.,

2020; Weiskopf et al., 2020). Furthermore, these cross-reactive T cells should be present in

relatively high frequencies, as they are detectable in antigen-induced stimulation assays without

additional amplification steps (Braun et al., 2020; Grifoni et al., 2020; Le Bert et al., 2020; Sekine

et al., 2020; Weiskopf et al., 2020). Cytomegalovirus (CMV) is a highly prevalent pathogen and

usually induces high T cell frequencies, making CMV a potential source for cross-reactive SARS-

CoV-2-specific T cells (Sylwester et al., 2005; Zuhair et al., 2019). This is supported by the finding

that SARS-CoV-2 cross-reactive CD8^{+} T cells have been associated with CMV-seropositive

(CMV^{+}) donors (Alanio et al., 2022; Jo et al., 2021). Moreover, previous CMV infection has been

associated with severe COVID-19 thereby suggesting a potential role for these cross-reactive T

cells. Studies so far indicated that cross-reactive T cells can play a role in COVID-19 but whether

they are protective or pathogenic is unclear (Bacher et al., 2020; Kundu et al., 2022). Taking

together, we hypothesized that cross-reactive SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells might originate from a

memory response against CMV.

In the present study, we aimed to identify SARS-CoV-2-specific cross-reactive CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} T

cells in SARS-CoV-2-unexposed individuals. We found an increased presence of cross-reactive T

cells in CMV^{+} donors and upon isolation and clonal expansion of the spike-reactive CD8^{+} and

membrane-reactive CD4^{+} T cells we confirmed that these T cells were reactive against both SARS-

CoV-2 and CMV. Interestingly, isolated CD8^{+} T cells recognizing a previously described CMV

epitope IPSINVHHY in HLA-B*35:01 were cross-reactive with dissimilar SARS-CoV-2 spike

peptide FVSNGTHWF in HLA-B*35:01, demonstrating that cross-reactivity does not solely depend

on peptide sequence homology. The T cell receptor (TCR) isolated from these CD8^{+} T cells was

found in multiple donors showing that pre-pandemic spike-reactive CD8^{+} T cells can be caused by

a public CMV-specific TCR. Based on the reduced activation status compared to other SARS-

CoV-2 specific T cells in severe COVID-19 patients, we hypothesize that these cross-reactive T

cells are not important for clearing the virus at this late stage of the disease. However, these cross-

reactive CD8^{+} T cells were shown to reduce spreading of SARS-CoV-2 infection *in vitro*, and in 2

out of 2 CMV^{+} severe COVID-19 patients these cross-reactive T cells were detected. This indicates

that early in infection at the stage that no SARS-CoV-2 specific T cells are present yet, these cross-

reactive T cells may play a role in reducing or preventing SARS-CoV-2 infection.

Results

SARS-CoV-2-specific T cell responses in SARS-CoV-2-unexposed PBMCs correlate with

CMV seropositivity

To investigate whether SARS-CoV-2-specific CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cell responses in SARS-CoV-2-

unexposed donors correlate with previous CMV infection, pre-pandemic cryopreserved PBMCs

from CMV seropositive (CMV$^+$, N=28) and CMV seronegative (CMV$^-$, N=39) healthy individuals

were stimulated overnight using SARS-CoV-2 and CMV 15-mer peptide pools. These pools

included spike (S, S1 and S+), membrane (M) and nucleocapsid (N) antigens from SARS-CoV-2

and the most immunogenic CMV antigen, pp65. Memory SARS-CoV-2-specific CD4$^+$ T cells were

characterized as CD154$^+$CD137$^+$ and memory SARS-CoV-2-specific CD8$^+$ T cells were identified

based on expression of CD137 and IFN-y (**Fig. 1A&B** and **S1A**). As expected, all CMV$^+$ donors

displayed a CD4$^+$ and/or CD8$^+$ T cell response upon stimulation with pp65 (**Fig. 1C&E**). No marked

increase of CD4$^+$ T cell responses were observed after SARS-CoV-2 spike and nucleocapsid

stimulation in the CMV$^+$ group compared to CMV$^-$. However, 7 donors in the CMV$^+$ group displayed

a CD4$^+$ T cell response against the membrane peptide pool which was not observed in the CMV$^-$

group (**Fig. 1C**). Furthermore, CD4$^+$ T cell response against the membrane pool was accompanied

by a CD4$^+$ T cell response against pp65 (**Fig. 1D**). In addition, CD8$^+$ T cell responses were detected

against spike peptides in two CMV$^+$ donors which were not detected in CMV$^-$ donors (**Fig. 1E**).

Interestingly, donors with a high CD8$^+$ T cell response against SARS-CoV-2 spike peptides

additionally displayed strong reactivity against pp65 (**Fig. 1F**). Taken together, these results show

that SARS-CoV-2-unexposed CMV$^+$, but not CMV$^-$, individuals had detectable CD4$^+$ T cell

responses against membrane peptides and CD8$^+$ T cells targeting spike peptides. These SARS-

CoV-2 responses were accompanied by T cell responses against pp65 and thus may indicate that

SARS-CoV-2 T cell responses in pre-pandemic samples potentially are memory T cells targeting

pp65.

Figure 1 *Ex vivo* SARS-CoV-2-specific CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T-cell responses in CMV-positive and – negative unexposed donors

Pre-pandemic cryo-preserved PBMCs were stimulated using SARS-CoV-2 spike (S, S1 and S+), membrane (M), nucleocapsid (N) and CMV pp65 peptide pools or not stimulated (DMSO). A) A representative flow cytometry example of a CD4$^+$ T cell response in a SARS-CoV-2-unexposed donor. Numbers in plot represent frequencies of CD137$^+$CD154$^+$ cells of total CD4$^+$ T cells. B) A representative flow cytometry example of a CD8$^+$ T cell response in a SARS-CoV-2-unexposed donor. Numbers in plot represent frequencies of CD137$^+$IFN-γ$^+$ cells of total CD8$^+$ T cells. C) Scatter plot showing frequencies of CD137$^+$CD154$^+$ cells of total CD4$^+$ T cells of CMV$^+$ (green , N=28) and CMV$^-$ (grey, N=39) donors. D) Frequencies of CD137$^+$CD154$^+$ cells of total CD4$^+$ T cells

in the membrane-stimulated condition (membrane response) plotted against pp65-stimulated

condition (pp65 response). 3 letter codes are anonymized codes of CMV$^+$ (green) and CMV$^-$ (grey)

donors. E) Scatter plot showing frequencies of CD137$^+$ IFN-γ^+ cells of total CD8$^+$ T cells of CMV$^+$

(green , N=28) and CMV$^-$ (grey, N=39) donors. F) Frequencies of CD137$^+$IFN-γ^+ cells of total CD8$^+$

T cells in the spike-stimulated condition (spike response) plotted against pp65-stimulated condition

(pp65 response).

Figure 1 – Source data 1

Source data containing the percentages underlying figure 1C-F.

Pre-pandemic SARS-CoV-2-specific CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells recognize pp65 peptides from CMV

To confirm that pre-pandemic SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells are able to recognize peptides from pp65, these SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells were isolated and clonally expanded. SARS-CoV-2-unexposed (pre-pandemic cryopreserved) PBMCs from a CMV$^+$ individual showing a CD4$^+$ T cell response against SARS-CoV-2 membrane protein (donor UGT) were stimulated with the membrane peptide pool and single cell sorted based on CD137 upregulation (**Fig. S1B**). After clonal expansion, 20 out of 27 screened T cell clones produced IFN-γ when stimulated with membrane peptide pool compared to no peptide stimulation (data not shown). T cell clones 4UGT5, 4UGT8 and 4UGT17, all three expressing a different TCR, were used for further experiments (**Fig. S2A**). As hypothesized, the T cell clones were reactive against both SARS-CoV-2 membrane antigen and CMV pp65 when loaded on HLA-matched Epstein-Barr virus lymphoblastoid cell lines (EBV-LCLs) (**Fig. 2A**). Interestingly, IFN-γ production by the T cell clones was significantly increased when stimulated with pp65 peptides compared to membrane peptides indicating higher avidity for CMV compared to SARS-CoV-2 (**Fig. 2B**). To identify which peptide in pp65 is recognized, reactivity of T cell clone 4UGT8 against a pp65 library was measured which resulted in identification of peptide AGILARNLVPM (**Fig. S2B-C**). HLA-mismatched EBV-LCLs were retrovirally transduced with HLA Class II molecules that were commonly shared between donors that had a detectable CD4$^+$ T cell response against the membrane and pp65 peptide pool (**Fig. 1D**). T cell clone 4UGT8 recognized both peptide pools and the AGI peptide only when presented in HLA-DRB3*02:02 (**Fig. 2C**). The SARS-CoV-2 membrane protein epitope recognized by these cross-reactive T cells remains unidentified. A similar approach was applied for CD8$^+$ T cells in which T cell clones were generated after SARS-CoV-2 spike peptide pool stimulation of PBMCs from CMV$^+$ donor UTT (**Fig. S1B**). The isolated CD8$^+$ T cell clones were screened for their reactivity with SARS-CoV-2 spike which showed that 23 out of the 28 T cell clones produced IFN-γ upon spike peptide pool stimulation (data not shown). TCR sequencing revealed that all 23 T cell clones expressed the same TCR (**Fig. S3A**). T cell clone 8UTT6 was selected for further testing and found to recognize both SARS-CoV-2 spike as well as CMV pp65 peptide pools (**Fig. 2D**). The

HLA restriction of T cell clone 8UTT6 was hypothesized to be HLA-B*35:01 as the unexposed

donors with a CD4$^+$ T cell response against SARS-CoV-2 spike (UTT and UBV) both expressed

HLA-B*35:01. This hypothesis was confirmed as T cell clone 8UTT6 recognized the spike peptide

pool presented by K562 cells transduced with HLA-B*35:01 but not transduced with HLA-A*11:01

(**Fig. 2E**). To identify the peptide epitopes, reactivity of clone 8UTT6 against 15-mer spike peptide

library and nonamer combinatorial peptide library (CPL) was measured followed by netMHC 4.0

analysis for predicted binding to HLA-B*35:01, which revealed SARS-CoV-2 peptide

FVSNGTHWF (FVS, S$_{1094-1103}$) and CMV IPSINVHHY (IPS, pp65$_{112-121}$) as the most likely epitopes

(**Fig. S3B-E**). The FVS and IPS peptides were indeed recognized by clone 8UTT6 (**Fig. 2F**).

Importantly, the IPS peptide was recognized with higher avidity compared to the FVS peptide by

clone 8UTT6 (**Fig. 2G**). Supporting these findings, the same TCRβ chain was already described

and demonstrated to be specific for IPS in HLA-B*35:01 (**Fig. S3E**) (Klarenbeek et al., 2012).

Taken together, SARS-CoV-2 reactive CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells in pre-pandemic samples cross-

reacted with CMV and SARS-CoV-2 peptides.

Figure 2 Recognition of SARS-CoV-2 and CMV by pre-existing CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells

Clonally expanded CD4$^+$ T cells from donor UGT and CD8$^+$ T cells from donor UTT were overnight co-cultured with peptide-pulsed stimulator cells. A-B) Percentages of CD154$^+$, CD137$^+$ and/or IFN-γ$^+$ cells of T cell clones 4UGT5 (square), 4UGT8 (circles) and 4UGT17 (triangle) after overnight culture (T cells only) or after overnight co-culture with HLA-matched EBV-LCLs that were not peptide pulsed (no peptide) or loaded with membrane (M) or pp65 peptide pool, measured by flow cytometry. Dots represent experimental repeats. Significance was tested by an one-way ANOVA. C) Bar graphs showing ELISA measurement of secreted IFN-γ after co-culturing of a representative clone, 4UGT8 clone, with HLA-matched or HLA-mismatched EBV-LCLs. HLA-mismatched EBV-LCLs were retrovirally transduced with HLA class II molecule as depicted in figure. Targets were peptide-pulsed with membrane (M) peptide pool, pp65 peptide pool or AGILARNLVPM (AGI) peptide. Data points are experimental duplicates. Black arrows indicate that values were above plateau value of the ELISA calibration curve. D-F) Bar graphs showing ELISA measurement of secreted IFN-γ after co-culturing of a representative clone, 8UTT6 clone, with HLA-matched EBV-LCLs or K562s transduced with HLA-B*35:01 or HLA-A*11:01. Targets were peptide-pulsed with spike (S) peptide pool, pp65 peptide pool, IPSINVHHY (IPS) peptide or FVSNGTHWF (FVS) peptide. Data points are technical triplicates. G) Peptide titration of IPS peptide (blue) and FVS peptide (purple) in a co-culture assay with 8UTT6 clone.

Similarity at the C-terminal part of the peptides could drive T cell cross-reactivity

To understand the molecular basis of T cell cross-reactivity between dissimilar peptides FVS and IPS, we modelled the FVS structure based on the solved structure of the IPS peptide bound to HLA-B*35:01 (**Fig. S4A-B**) (Pellicci et al., 2014). The two peptides share 2 residues (P3-S and P7-H) and also have 2 similar residues (P6-T/V and P9-F/Y). Residue substitutions from the IPS to FVS peptide were possible without major steric clashes with the HLA or peptide residues. The lack of secondary anchor residue at position 5 in the FVS peptide (P5-N/G) might change the conformation of the central part of the peptide, that could be similar to the one observed in the spike-derived peptide IPS ($S_{896-904}$) in complex with HLA-B*35:01 (**Fig. S4C-D**) (Nguyen et al., 2021). The primary anchor in the FVS peptide are P2-V and P9-F, both within the favored residues at those positions for HLA-B35-restricted peptide (Escobar et al., 2008). Overall, the FVS peptide might adopt a similar backbone conformation compared to the IPS peptide, which would place in both peptides a small hydrophobic residue at position 6 (P6-T/V), an histidine at position 7, and a residue with a large side-chain at position 8 (P8-W/H).

IPS/FVS-specific cross-reactive CD8$^+$ T cells are detectable in multiple individuals

To investigate the prevalence and phenotype of IPS/FVS cross-reactive T cells, HLA-B*35:01$^+$ CMV$^+$ healthy donors were screened for IPS/FVS-specific T cells using tetramers consisting of HLA-B*35:01-FVS (B*35/FVS-tetramer) and HLA-B*35:01-IPS (B*35/IPS-tetramer). Tetramer staining of PBMCs from donor UTT demonstrated that not all T cells that bound to B*35/IPS-tetramer were able to bind to the B*35/FVS-tetramer as well. However, all T cells that bound to B*35/FVS-tetramer were also binding to the B*35/IPS-tetramer (**Fig. 3A**). This observation indicates that IPS/FVS cross-reactivity is dictated by specific TCR sequences which was further supported by the lack of binding to B*35/FVS-tetramer by an IPS-specific T cell clone with a different TCR (**Fig. 3B**). Screening of SARS-CoV-2-unexposed, CMV$^+$ and HLA-B*35(:01) donors (N=37) showed that nearly all CMV$^+$ donors had IPS-specific T cells with frequencies above background level and, interestingly, three of the analyzed donors (UTT, UBV and SFW) presented with clearly detectable IPS/FVS-specific T cells (**Fig. 3C**). Furthermore, IPS/FVS-specific T cells displayed an effector memory phenotype (CCR7$^-$CD45RA$^-$), confirming a memory repertoire origin and, interestingly, a less differentiated phenotype compared to IPS-specific T cells (**Fig. 3D**). In summary, IPS/FVS cross-reactivity is dependent on the TCR clonotype and these cross-reactive T cells are detected in multiple donors.

Figure 3 Tetramer detection of IPS/FVS-specific CD8$^+$ T cells in CMV$^+$ and HLA-B*35:01$^+$ donors

Flow cytometry measurement of PBMCs or T cell clones that are binding to B*35/IPS-tetramer (blue), B*35/FVS-tetramer (purple) or to neither (grey). A) Flow cytometry dot plot showing percentages of tetramer-binding cells of total CD8$^+$ T cells in PBMCs from donor UTT. B) Dot plot showing percentages of tetramer-binding of 8UTT6 clone and an IPS-specific clone with their IMGT variable region of T cell receptor β-chain (TRBV) depicted. As a negative control (neg. ctrl.), a T cell clone recognizing a non-relevant peptide in HLA-B*35:01 was included. C) Bar graph showing frequencies of tetramer-binding of total CD8$^+$ from PBMCs of healthy CMV$^+$ and HLA-B*35(:01)$^+$ donors. Error bars represent standard deviation of experimental duplicates. Dotted line represents

268   background level which was based on HLA-B*35:01$^-$ donors (neg. ctrl). D) Dot plot showing

269   expression of CCR7 and CD45RA by total CD8$^+$ T cells and tetramer-binding T cells in PBMCs

270   from UTT, UBV and SFW. Quadrants separates differentiation subsets into naïve (N), central

271   memory (CM), effector memory (EM) and terminally differentiated effector memory (TEMRA).

IPS/FVS cross-reactivity is underpinned by a public TCR

To investigate whether the IPS/FVS-specific CD8$^+$ T cells found in multiple donors expressed a similar TCR, the TCR α- and β-chains of B*35/FVS-tetramer-binding T cells were sequenced. Sequencing was performed for samples with clear detection of IPS/FVS-specific T cells (UTT, UBV, SFW) and one donor with B*35/FVS-tetramer$^+$ T cells below background level (JZX) (**Fig. 3C**). Interestingly, B*35/FVS-isolated T cells from all donors displayed amino acid identical dominant complementary-determining region 3 (CDR3) of the α-chain, CAGNQGGKLIF (CDR3α^{CAGNQG}), and β-chain, CASSLALDEQFF (CDR3β^{CASSLA}) (**Fig. 4A**). This observation thereby shows that IPS/FVS cross-reactivity is caused by a public TCR. These identical CDR3s were not a result of sequencing artefact as nucleotide alignment revealed minor differences between samples (**Fig. S5AB**). In addition to B*35/FVS-isolated T cells, T cells that bound B*35/IPS-tetramer were isolated and sequenced in parallel. Both CDR3α^{CAGNQG} and CDR3β^{CASSLA} were identified in all samples and shown to be among the most dominant TCRs. Remarkably, this was also observed in donor JZX which showed IPS/FVS-tetramer$^+$ T cells below background level, indicating that in more than 3 out of 37 donors this public TCR is present. (**Fig. 4C**). Taken together, IPS/FVS-specific T cells express an identical TCR, found in multiple donors, indicating that public TCRs can exhibit cross-reactive properties.

Figure 4 TCR sequencing of IPS/FVS-specific T cells

PBMCs from healthy CMV[+] and HLA-B*35:01[+] donors were sorted on B*35/IPS- or B*35/FVS-tetramer binding and directly sequenced for their TCR alpha and beta chain. Unique CDR3 sequences are depicted in two-sided bar graphs in which the left side shows abundance of CDR3 sequences from the TCR α-chain (CDR3α) and the right side shows abundance of CDR3 sequences from the TCR β-chain (CDR3β). Bar graphs are purple if the CDR3α has the CAGNQGGKLIF sequence or the CDR3β has the CASSLALDEQFF sequence, all other found sequences are depicted in blue. CDR3s with less than 1% abundance were excluded from the figure. A) Two-sided bar graphs showing abundances of unique CDR3 sequences of samples sorted on binding to B*35/FVS-tetramer. B) Two-sided bar graphs showing abundances of unique CDR3 sequences of samples sorted on binding to B*35/IPS-tetramer.

Figure 4 - Source data 1

Source data containing T cell receptor sequence data underlying figure 4.

IPS/FVS cross-reactive CD8⁺ T cells are able to recognize SARS-CoV-2 infected cells but do not show an activated phenotype during acute disease

To investigate whether IPS/FVS-specific CD8⁺ T cells can play a role during SARS-CoV-2 infection, the function of IPS/FVS-specific T cells in an *in vitro* model and the activation state of these T cells during acute SARS-CoV-2 infection in severe COVID-19 patients was assessed. Firstly, the reactivity of IPS/FVS-specific T cells against K562 transduced with the spike gene was measured which showed that the T cells were able to recognize endogenously processed and presented peptide (**Fig. 5A**). To investigate whether the IPS/FVS-specific T cells can recognize SARS-CoV-2-infected cells and thereby limit viral spread, Calu-3 airway epithelial cells were infected with live SARS-CoV-2 virus (wildtype) and incubated for 6 hours before co-culturing with CD8⁺ T cells (**Fig. 5B**). SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific CD8⁺ T cells from a SARS-CoV-2 vaccinated donor were able to reduce intracellular SARS-CoV-2 RNA copies at both 0.05 and 0.5 MOI 24 hours post infection (hpi) (**Fig 5C-D**). Interestingly, IPS/FVS-specific CD8⁺ T cells were able to reduce SARS-CoV-2 intracellular RNA copies in Calu-3 cells infected with a multiplicity of infection (MOI) (**Fig 5C**). Incubating with 10-fold more virus (0.5 MOI) resulted in no difference in RNA copies compared to the no T cell control (**Fig. 5D**). To further investigate the function of IPS/FVS-specific CD8⁺ T cells *ex vivo*, the activation state of these T cells was evaluated during severe COVID-19 disease in two CMV⁺ HLA-B*35:01⁺ patients. The activation state was measured by expression of activation markers CD38 and HLA-DR as these markers are highly expressed on SARS-CoV-2-specific CD8⁺ T cells during severe COVID-19 (**Fig. 5E**) (Sekine et al., 2020). Interestingly, IPS/FVS-cross-reactive T cells were detected in 2 out of 2 CMV⁺ HLA-B*35:01⁺ patients suffering from severe COVID-19, whereas the cross-reactive T cells were detected in 3 out of 37 healthy CMV⁺ HLA-B*35:01⁺ donors (**Fig. 3C and 5F**). The expression of CD38 and HLA-DR was lower compared to the SARS-CoV-2-specific CD8⁺ T cells and lower compared to IPS-specific T cells that were not cross-reactive with FVS (**Fig. 5E-F**). These results indicate that IPS/FVS-specific CD8⁺ T cells recognize SARS-CoV-2-infected cells and are able to limit SARS-CoV-2 replication at low virus titers. However, IPS/FVS-specific T cells did not show an activated phenotype during acute severe SARS-CoV-2 infection.

Figure 5 *Ex vivo* and *in vitro* evaluation of IPS/FVS-specific T cells

A) IFN-γ release of IPS/FVS-specific CD8^{+} T cells after co-incubation with K562 that were

untransduced or transduced with nucleotide 1 to 2082 (S1) or nucleotide 2052 to 3822 (S2) of the

spike gene. B) Schematic overview of the experimental workflow. Calu-3 cells were transduced to

express HLA-B*35:01 and infected with the wildtype SARS-CoV-2 virus. 6 hours post infection,

IPS/FVS-specific CD8^{+} T cells were added in a 10:1 effector to target ratio. SARS-CoV-2 spike-

specific T cells, isolated from COVID-19 vaccinated individuals, that recognize VASQSIIAY

presented in HLA-B*35:01 (pos. ctrl.) or YLQPRTFLL presented in HLA-A*02:01 (neg. ctrl.) were

taken along. Cells were harvested 24 hpi to measure intracellular viral RNA. C-D) Bar graphs

showing the means of SARS-CoV-2 intracellular RNA copies measured by RT-qPCR, 24 hpi post

infection using a MOI of 0.05 or 0.5. One-way ANOVA was applied test statistical differences

between conditions and only comparisons with $p<0.05$ are shown. (E-F) Flow cytometry analysis

of CD38 and HLA-DR expression on CD8^{+} T cells in PBMCs from severe COVID-19 patients that

were CD137^{+}IFN-γ^{+} after SARS-CoV-2 peptide stimulation (red), only bound to B*35/IPS-tetramer

(blue) or bound to both B*35/IPS- and B*35/FVS-tetramer (purple). All other CD8^{+} T cells are grey.

Two patients were HLA-B*35:01^{+}CMV^{+} (KDH and CHZ) and, as a control, one patient was HLA-

B*35:01^{+}CMV^{-} (CLS). Detection of B*35/IPS- and B*35/FVS-specific T cells and expression of the

activation markers were measured and compared within the same sample.

Discussion

SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells in pre-pandemic cryo-preserved samples have been reported in several studies. The majority of these studies describe T cell immunity against other HCoVs as the main source of these T cells (Bacher et al., 2020; Braun et al., 2020; Johansson et al., 2021; Kundu et al., 2022; Le Bert et al., 2020; Loyal et al., 2021; Mateus et al., 2020). However, some studies have postulated that pre-pandemic SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells could be derived from other sources (Le Bert et al., 2020; Peng et al., 2020; Stervbo et al., 2020; C. C. S. Tan et al., 2021). Our findings demonstrate that CMV pp65-specific CD4^{+} T cells cross-react with the membrane protein from SARS-CoV-2 and CMV pp65-specific CD8^{+} T cells are able to cross-react with SARS-CoV-2 spike protein. The cross-reactive CD8^{+} T cells recognized known CMV epitope IPSINVHHY in HLA-B*35:01 and cross-reacted with the SARS-CoV-2 epitope FVSNGTHWF in HLA-B*35:01. These IPS/FVS-specific CD8^{+} T cells were detected in multiple donors all expressing an identical T cell receptor, indicating that cross-reactivity with SARS-CoV-2 can be caused by a CMV-specific public TCR. Functional and phenotypic assessment of the IPS/FVS-specific CD8^{+} T cells indicated their capacity to reduce SARS-CoV-2 spread *in vitro* but they were not phenotypically active in patients suffering from severe COVID-19.

To our knowledge this is the first study to identify CMV-specific T cells that are cross-reactive with SARS-CoV-2. The cross-reactive CD4^{+} T cells recognized CMV pp65 epitope AGILARNLVPM in HLA-DRB3*02:02 and were able to cross-react with an as of yet unidentified, SARS-CoV-2 membrane epitope in HLA-DRB3*02:02. Previous studies have reported the presence of membrane-specific CD4^{+} T cell responses in SARS-CoV-2-unexposed donors utilizing the same commercially available membrane peptide pool, yet these studies did not aim to identify the peptide-HLA restriction (Bacher et al., 2020; Sekine et al., 2020). The cross-reactive CD8^{+} T cells recognize the CMV epitope IPSINVHHY and SARS-CoV-2 epitope FVSNGTHWF presented in HLA-B*35:01. IPS/FVS-specific T cells were possibly detected previously but never further investigated or characterized (Shomuradova et al., 2020; Tarke et al., 2021). Both cross-reactive CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} T cells displayed a higher avidity for the CMV epitope compared to the epitope derived from SARS-CoV-2. In contrast, other studies have reported an equal or even higher avidity

for the SARS-CoV-2 epitope compared to the epitopes derived from the HCoV for which the T cells

were hypothesized to be primed against (Braun et al., 2020; Johansson et al., 2021; Lineburg et

al., 2021; Mateus et al., 2020). This appears to be contradictive since it has been shown that

repeated exposure results in selection of high avidity T cell clonotypes which are able to clear viral

infection and protect against reinfection (Abdel-Hakeem et al., 2017; Hombrink et al., 2013; Price

et al., 2005; Schober et al., 2018). Cross-reactive T cells would therefore most likely display a

higher avidity for the source pathogen compared to the avidity for SARS-CoV-2, as reported in this

study. This discrepancy could be caused by the fact that previous studies focused on other HCoVs

since they share high sequence homology with SARS-CoV-2, thereby potentially missing the true

source of these particular T cells (Bacher et al., 2020; Braun et al., 2020; Johansson et al., 2021;

Kundu et al., 2022; Le Bert et al., 2020; Loyal et al., 2021; Mateus et al., 2020). Alternatively,

samples frozen down during the pandemic were considered unexposed if the donors displayed

neither SARS-CoV-2-specific antibodies nor a history of COVID-19-like symptoms (Bacher et al.,

2020; Braun et al., 2020; Lineburg et al., 2021). However, SARS-CoV-2 infection does not

necessarily lead to symptoms nor a detectable antibody response (Gao et al., 2021; Steiner et al.,

2021). The described reduced avidity for HCoV therefore could imply that these cross-reactive T

cells were derived from the SARS-CoV-2-induced repertoire. Taken together, whereas cross-

reactive T cells recognizing SARS-CoV-2 have been primarily described to be derived from other

HCoVs, the contribution of these other HCoVs as initial primers of the T cell response may have

been over-estimated due to experimental design. Further studies are required to identify other

potential sources of cross-reactivity with low sequence homology yet high prevalences such as

CMV, EBV, influenza or non-viral pathogens.

The identified cross-reactive CD8^{+} T cells appeared to recognize CMV peptide IPSINVHHY and a

dissimilar peptide FVSNGTHWF derived from SARS-CoV-2. *Ex vivo* detected heterologous CD8^{+}

T cell immunity against two pathogens caused by dissimilar epitopes presented in the same HLA

is rarely reported (Clute et al., 2005; Cornberg et al., 2010). Nevertheless, ample studies have

investigated the underlying mechanisms of such T cell-mediated cross-reactivity. Heterologous

immunity can be caused by the expression of a dual TCR which means that two TCR α- or β-

chains are expressed simultaneously, resulting in two distinctive TCRs within one T cell (Cusick et

al., 2012). However, here we identified a single TCR in cross-reactive T cells excluding this hypothesis. Recognition of two distinct epitopes by a single TCR can be explained by shape similarity once the peptides are bound to the HLA molecule, and this shape similarity, or molecular mimicry, can underpin T cell cross-reactivity (Macdonald et al., 2009). Possible other underlying mechanisms are reduced footprint of the TCR with peptide (Birnbaum et al., 2014; Cole et al., 2016), an altered TCR-docking angle (Adams et al., 2011), or plasticity of the peptide-MHC complex (Adams et al., 2011; Riley et al., 2018) or TCR (Piepenbrink et al., 2013). Here, similarity between the IPS and FVS peptides in backbone conformation and the C-terminal part might underpin the T cell cross-reactivity observed, as the majority of TCR docks preferentially towards the C-terminal of the peptide (Szeto et al., 2020). Solving the crystal structure of the IPS/FVS-TCR binding to HLA-B*35:01-FVS and -IPS would be necessary to provide insight in the binding properties of the public TCR.

IPS/FVS-specific CD8^{+} T cells were able to reduce SARS-CoV-2 spread *in vitro* when exposed to a low virus concentration, which is supported by our finding that two out of two tested severe COVID-19 patients had clearly detectable IPS/FVS-specific CD8^{+} T cells while the prevalence in healthy donors was 3 out of 37. The presence of these cross-reactive memory T cells in circulation may be an advantage during initial SARS-CoV-2 infection as rapid T cell responses were associated with less severe COVID-19 (Loyal et al., 2021; Sette & Crotty, 2021; A. T. Tan et al., 2021). However, the cross-reactive CD8^{+} T cells were less efficient compared to SARS-CoV-2-specific, vaccination-primed T cells in limiting viral spread *in vitro*. This study also demonstrated that IPS/FVS-specific CD8^{+} T cells did not display the same degree of activation as observed for the SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells during severe COVID-19. Additionally, despite the presence of the cross-reactive CD8^{+} T cells, these individuals developed severe disease. Their reduced potency is likely caused by intermediate avidity of these cross-reactive T cells for the SARS-CoV-2 epitope which has been associated with poor COVID-19 outcome in case of CD4^{+} T cells (Bacher et al., 2020). These observations together indicate that IPS/FVS-specific CD8^{+} T cells might be able to reduce SARS-CoV-2 spread at initial infection, but likely do not play a significant role in the pathogenesis of severe COVID-19. One limitation is that our study focused on circulating T cells, and we cannot exclude the possibility that cross-reactive CD8^{+} T cells present in lung tissue did

display an activated phenotype. Another limitation of this study is the small severe COVID-19

cohort that was investigated and literature describing the role of cross-reactive T cells is scarce

(Bacher et al., 2020; Kundu et al., 2022). In summary, additional studies using larger cohorts are

required to fully elucidate the potential role of cross-reactive CD8^{+} T cells in disease.

In conclusion, pre-pandemic SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells can derive from non-homologous

pathogens such as CMV. This expands the potential origin of these pre-pandemic SARS-CoV-2-

specific CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} T cell beyond other HCoVs. The cross-reactive CD8^{+} T cells were reactive

towards dissimilar epitopes and this cross-reactivity was caused by a public TCR, which has been

rarely observed so far. Our data points towards a role of the cross-reactive T cells in reducing

SARS-CoV-2 viral load in the early stages of infection, prior to priming of SARS-CoV-2 specific T

cells. Altogether, these results aid in further understanding heterologous T cell immunity beyond

common cold coronaviruses and facilitates the investigation into the potential role of cross-reactive

T cells in COVID-19.

Methods

Study samples

Bio-banked PBMCs were cryopreserved after informed consent from the respective donors, in

accordance with the declaration of Helsinki. The samples from COVID-19 patients were part of a

trial (NL8589) registered in the Dutch Trial Registry and approved by Medical Ethical Committee

Leiden-Den Haag-Delft (NL73740.058.20). Bio-banked PBMCs from CMV-seropositive (N=28)

and CMV-seronegative (N=39) donors that were frozen down before May 2019 were randomly

selected to assure that the samples are SARS-CoV-2 naïve and represent the European

population (**Table S1**). Prior to cryopreservation, PBMCs were isolated from fresh whole blood

using Ficoll-Isopaque. PBMCs were thawed in culture medium consisting of Iscove Modified

Dulbecco Medium (IMDM; Lonza, Basel, Switserland) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated

fetal bovine serum (FBS; Sigma-Aldrich, Saint Louis, Missouri), 2.7 mM L-glutamine (Lonza), 100

U/mL penicillin (Lonza) and 100 μg/mL streptomycin (Lonza) (1% p/s), and subsequently treated

with 1.33 mg/ml DNAse to minimize cell clumping.

Intracellular cytokine staining assay

Thawed PBMCs were stimulated in culture medium supplemented with 1 μg/mL SARS-CoV-2

peptides pools covering the spike (Miltenyi, Keulen, Germany), membrane (Miltenyi), or

nucleocapsid (Miltenyi) proteins for one hour at 37°C + 5% CO_2. An additional peptide pool

containing 11 amino acid overlapping 15-mer peptides covering the pp65 antigen from CMV (JPT

Peptide Technologies) was included (see **Table S2** for peptide details). After one hour stimulation,

5 μg/mL Brefeldin A (Sigma-Aldrich) was added and the samples were incubated for an additional

15 hours at 37°C + 5% CO_2. The samples were subsequently stained with the viability dye Zombie-

Red (Biolegend, San Diego, California) for 25 minutes at room temperature (RT) after which the

cells were washed in PBS containing 0.8 mg/mL albumin (FACS buffer) and stained with antibodies

against CD4 and CD8 in FACS buffer for 30 minutes at 4°C. Cells were washed in PBS and fixed

in 1% paraformaldehyde for 8 minutes RT followed by a wash and a permeabilization step for 30

minutes at 4°C in FACS buffer supplemented with 1% p/s and 0.1% saponin (permeabilization

buffer). After permeabilization, the cells were stained using an antibody cocktail directed against

CD14, CD19, CD137, CD154 and IFN-γ in permeabilization buffer (see **Table S3** for antibody details) for 30 minutes at 4°C. After staining, the samples were washed, resuspended in permeabilization buffer and measured on a 3-laser aurora (Cytek Biosciences, Fremont, California).

Isolation of SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells

Thawed PBMCs were stimulated for 16 hours at 37°C + 5% CO_2 using 1 µg/mL of spike (Miltenyi) or membrane (Miltenyi) peptide pool in culture medium (see **Table S7** for peptide details). After stimulation, the cells were washed and stained with antibodies directed against CD4, CD8 and CD137 in phenol-red free IMDM (Gibco, Waltham, Massachusetts) containing 2% FBS (Sigma-Aldrich), 1% p/s (Lonza) (sort medium) (see **Table S3** for antibody details) for 30 minutes at 4°C. The cells were subsequently washed and resuspended in sort medium. CD4$^+$ or CD8$^+$ and CD137$^+$ cells were single-cell sorted using an Aria III cell sorter (BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, New Jersey) into a 96-well round-bottom plate containing 1×10^5 35-Gy-irradiated PBMCs, 50-Gy-irradiated EBV-LCL-JYs and 0.8 µg/mL phytohemagglutinin (PHA) (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, Massachusetts) in 100 µL T cell medium (TCM) consisting of IMDM (Lonza) supplemented with 2.7 mM L-glutamine (Lonza), 100 U/mL penicillin (Lonza) and 100 µg/mL streptomycin (Lonza), 5% FBS (Sigma-Aldrich), 5% human serum (Sanquin, Amsterdam, The Netherlands) and 100 IU/mL recombinant human IL-2 (Novartis, Basel, Switzerland). Sorted T cells were clonally expanded to generate T cell clones. T cell clones were restimulated between day 14-20 post stimulation using PHA, PBMCs and EBV-LCL-JYs as described above and used for assays between day 7-20 post stimulation.

Co-culture assays

To test peptide and HLA restriction, T cell clones were washed and co-cultured with stimulator cells in a 1:6 effector to stimulator ratio. Stimulator cells consisted of either autologous or HLA-matched EBV-LCLs or retrovirally transduced K562s. K562 were transduced with a pZLRS or MP71 vector containing a HLA gene of interested linked to a marker gene, transduction was

performed as previously described (Jahn et al., 2015). Cells were enriched for marker gene expression using magnetic activated cell sorting (MACS; Miltenyi) or fluorescent activated cell sorting (FACS) on an Aria III cell sorter (BD Biosciences). Stimulator cells were loaded with peptides through pre-incubation for 30 minutes at 37°C with 0.01-1 µM peptide (**Table S2** for peptide details). To identify the HLA-restriction of the CD4^{+} T cell clones, the peptides were not washed away during the co-culture incubation period and HLA class II was knocked out in the T cell clones as previously described (Morton et al., 2020). However, the protocol was adapted to knock-out Class II Major histocompatibility complex transactivator (CIITA) by designing two reverse guide RNAs: 5'-AGTCGCTCACTGGTCCCACTAGG-3' and 5'-CCGTGGACAGTGAATCCACTGGG-3' (Integrated DNA technologies Inc., Coralville, Iowa). Co-culture assays were incubated overnight and secreted IFN-γ was measured as an indicator of T cell activity by ELISA (Diaclone, Besançon, France) as described by the manufacturer.

To identify the peptide recognition signature of the CD8 T cell clones, a co-culture assay was performed using a nonamer combinatorial peptide library (CPL) (Bijen et al., 2018). The 9-mer CPL scan contains 180 peptide pools with each pool consisting of a mixture of peptides with one naturally-occurring amino acid fixed at one position (Wooldridge et al., 2010). Co-culture assay was performed as described above with small changes; 2×10^4 K562 transduced with HLA-B*35:01 were pre-incubated with 100 µM CPL peptides for 1 hour at 37°C before 5×10^3 T cell clones were added. After overnight incubation, secreted IFN-γ was measured by an IFN-γ-ELISA (Diaclone) and results were analyzed using WSBC PI CPL for viruses (Szomolay et al., 2016; Wooldridge, 2013). Identified peptides following peptide libraries or CPL were analyzed for predicted binding to HLA-B*35:01 using netMHC 4.0 (Andreatta & Nielsen, 2016). Alternatively, peptide recognition by T cell clones was measured using ICS assay as described above.

Peptide-HLA modelling

The binding of FVS in HLA-B*35:01 was modelled based on the solved crystal structure of the HLA-B*35:01-IPS (Pellicci et al., 2014). Each residue of the IPS peptide was mutated to their corresponding residues in the FVS peptide using the mutagenesis wizard in PyMOL (Schrodinger,

539 2015). The residues were mutated into the most favorable rotamer to avoid steric clashes. No

540 major steric clashes with the peptide or HLA were observed.

541 TCR variable beta and tetramer staining

PBMCs or T cell clones were incubated with in-house generated, PE- or APC-conjugated tetramers

for 30 minutes at RT (Hombrink et al., 2013). After tetramer incubation, the cells were washed and

incubated with an antibody mix targeting CD4, CD8, CD45RA, CCR7, CD38 and/or HLA-DR. For

TCR variable beta staining, T cell clones were incubated for 30 minutes at 4°C with Beta Mark

TCR Vbeta Repertoire Kit (see **Table S3** for antibody details). After incubation, cells were washed

and resuspended in FACS buffer and immediately measured on a 3-laser Aurora (Cytek

Biosciences).

550 TCR sequencing

PBMCs were thawed and directly stained with PE-conjugated HLA-B*35:01-FVS or HLA-B*35:01-

IPS tetramers. Tetramers were labelled to beads using anti-PE MicroBeads (Miltenyi) and enriched

through magnetic-activated cell sorting (Miltenyi). The tetramer-enriched cells were washed and

incubated with an antibody cocktail targeting CD4 and CD8 (see **Table S3** for antibody details) in

sort medium. Stained samples were washed in sort medium and bulk-sorted on an Aria III cell

sorter (BD Biosciences) (see **Fig S6B** for a gating example). RNA isolation and TCR sequencing

was performed as previously described (Roukens et al., 2022). In short, cells were directly

collected in lysis buffer for RNA isolation using the ReliaPrep RNA cell Miniprep system (Promega,

Madison, Wisconsin). The total RNA yield of each sample was converted to cDNA using a

template-switch oligo primer (TSO) (Eurogentec, Seraing, Belgium), RNAsin (Promega) and

SMARTScribe reverse transcriptase (Takara Bio, Kusatsu, Japan) (Koning et al., 2017). cDNA was

pre-amplified via an IS region in the Oligo dT primer prior to barcoding on samples containing

cDNA from 500 or fewer cells (Picelli et al., 2013). Barcoded TCR PCR product was generated in

two rounds of PCR: in the first PCR reaction, *TRA* and *TRB* product was generated in separate

PCR reactions using Phusion Flash (Thermo Fisher Scientific), Smartseq2modified PCR primer

(Eurogentec) and TRAC or TRBC1/2 specific primers (Eurogentec) (see **Table S4** for primer list).

The PCR product was then purified using the Wizard SV 96 PCR Clean-Up System (Promega)

and barcoded in a second PCR using two-sided six-nucleotide barcoded primers to discriminate

between TCRs of different T cell populations. PCR products of different T cell populations were

pooled, after which TCR sequences were identified by NovaSeq (GenomeScan, Leiden, The

Netherlands).

SARS-CoV-2 infection assay

Calu-3 lung carcinoma cells (*HTB-55;* ATCC [American Type Culture Collection]) were cultured in

Eagle's minimum essential medium (EMEM, Lonza), supplemented with 9% fetal calf serum (FCS;

CapriCorn Scientific, USA), 1% NEAA (Sigma-Aldrich), 2 mM L-glutamine (Sigma-Aldrich), 1 mM

sodium pyruvate (Sigma-Aldrich) and 100 U/ml of penicillin/streptomycin (P/S; Sigma-Aldrich).

Calu-3 cells were retrovirally transduced with a pLZRS vector containing the HLA-B*35:01

molecule linked via an internal ribosome entry site (IRES) sequence to mouse CD19, transduction

was performed as previously described (Jahn et al., 2015). Mouse CD19 was used as a marker

gene to enrich for successfully transduced cells by adding antibodies directed against mouse CD19

and enriching for stained cells by MACS (Miltenyi) followed by FACS on an Aria III cell sorter (BD

Biosciences) (see **Table S3** for antibody details). For the infection assay, Calu-3 cells were seeded

in 96-well cell culture plates at a density of $3x10^4$ cells per well in 100 µl culture medium. Infections

were done with clinical isolate SARS-CoV-2/Leiden-0008, which was isolated from a

nasopharyngeal sample collected at the LUMC during the first wave of the Corona pandemic in

March 2020 (GenBack: MT705206.1). Cells were infected with SARS-CoV-2 at a multiplicity of

infection (MOI) of 0.05 or 0.5 in 50 µl infection medium. After 1.5h, cells were washed three times

with medium and 100 µl of medium was added. At 6 hours post infection (hpi) medium was

removed again and 100 µl of T cell medium with $3x10^5$ T cells per well was added. At 24 hpi cells

were harvested to collect intracellular RNA by lysing the cells in 100 µl GITC reagent (3M GITC,

2% sarkosyl, 20 mM Tris, 20 mM EDTA) per well. Intracellular RNA was isolated using magnetic

beads and viral RNA was quantified by internally controlled multiplex TaqMan RT-qPCR as

described previously (Salgado-Benvindo et al., 2020).

 Statistics

 Flow cytometry data was unmixed using Spectroflo (Cytek Biosciences) and analyzed using

 FlowJo v10.7.1. (BD Biosiences) to set gates on the samples based on the DMSO negative control

 in ICS assays or adapted to positive control for tetramer staining (see **Fig. S6AB** for a gating

 example). Samples were excluded from the analysis if less than 10,000 events in CD4$^+$ or CD8$^+$

 gate was measured or if after further testing they appeared not to be αβ T cells. For the SARS-

 CoV-2 infection assays, experiments were excluded from the analysis if the positive control had

 higher SARS-CoV-2 intracellular RNA copies compared to no T cell condition. Statistical analysis

 and generation of figures was conducted using GraphPad Prism 9.0.1 (GraphPad Software). Data

 was tested for significance using an one-way ANOVA with *p*-values below 0.05 considered as

 significant. *p*-values are categorized in the figures as: ns=not significant; **p<0.05; **p<0.01 or

 ***p<0.001.

 TCR sequence data were analysed using MiXCR software (v3.0.13) to determine the Vα and Vβ

 family and CDR3 regions using annotation of the IMGT library (http://www.imgt.org; v6) (Bolotin et

 al., 2015). CDR3 regions were analysed in RStudio and CDR3 sequences that were non-functional

 or had ≤50 reads were excluded from the analysis.

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Investigation: CRP, RCD, MT, RSH, MGDK, AKW

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Supplementary Materials

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Supplementary figure 1 Flow cytometry and cell sorting gating example for peptide stimulation

assays

A) Representative example of flow cytometry gating strategy for peptide-reactive CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$

T cells. All events were gated on lymphocytes, single cells, viable cells, CD14 and CD19 negative

and either CD4 or CD8 positive. For CD4$^+$ T cells, activation was measured by upregulation of

CD137 and CD154 compared to DMSO. For CD8$^+$ T cells, activation was measured by

upregulation of CD137 and IFN-γ production compared to DMSO. B) Representative example of

fluorescent-activated cell sorting for peptide-reactive CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells. All events were gated

on lymphocytes, single cells and subsequently selected for CD4 positive or CD8 positive cells.

Activated CD4$^+$ or CD8$^+$ T cells were sorted based on increased expression of CD137 compared

to DMSO.

A

Clone #	Chain	CDR3 (aa)	V (IMGT)	J (IMGT)
4UGT5	α	CAMRGVNTGFQKLVF	TRAV14/DV4	TRAJ8
	β	CASSNSGTRIYEQYF	TRBV19	TRBJ2-7
4UGT8	α	CAVDPILTGGGNKLTF	TRAV8-3	TRAJ10
	β	CASSLKRETYNEQFF	TRBV27	TRBV2-1
4UGT17	α	CARGDAGNMLTF	TRAV8-3	TRAJ39
	β	CASSATLGAGNYEQYF	TRBV2	TRBJ2-7

B

UGT4 pp65

H11 + V3   AGILARNLVPMVATV

C

Supplementary figure 2 TCR sequence and pp65 peptide identification of 4UGT8 clone

Reactivity, as measured by IFN-γ ELISA, of the 4UGT8 clone after co-culturing with HLA-matched
EBV-LCLs and peptides. A) Heatmap showing reactivity of 4UGT8 clone against a CMV pp65
peptide library, depicted as OD-value. Peptide with highest OD-value is shown below the figure.
B) Bar graphs showing IFN-γ secretion after co-culturing 4UGT8 clone with single peptides.
Peptides that were recognized were depicted under the figure with amino acid overlap between
the peptides in black. Data points are technical duplicates.

1002

A

Chain	CDR3 (aa)	V (IMGT)	J (IMGT)
α	CAGNQGGKLIF	TRAV21*02	TRAJ23*01/2
β	CASSLALDEQFF	TRBV12-3/4*01	TRBJ2-1*01

B

H09+V15 FPREGVFVSNGTHWF

H10+V15 GVFVSNGTHWFVTQR

C

Peptide	Affinity(nM)	Bindlevel
FVSNGTHWF	17.28	<= SB
VFVSNGTHWF	3416.18	
GVFVSNGTH	14798.68	
GVFVSNGTHWF	15539.73	
VSNGTHWF	23385.28	
VFVSNGTHW	26065.08	
FVSNGTHW	27437.91	
GVFVSNGTHW	35804.39	
VFVSNGTH	35937.91	
GVFVSNGT	42011.96	

C

E

CPL score	Peptide	Affinity(nM)	Bindlevel
-15,2522	KPSIGEHWS	10598.08	
-17,0164	LISKQTHWY	163.63	<= WB
-17,1607	LNSIVTHLS	23849.06	
-17,5175	IPSINVHHY	33.76	<= SB
-17,5175	IPSINVHHY	27394.30	
-17,5175	IPSINVHHY	18294.40	
-17,8196	LEQIKTHWL	8368.07	
-17,8196	LEQIKTHWL	8964.47	
-17,8927	KPPIGEHWS	6409.98	
-17,9177	VPSIGEHWD	19051.95	

1003

Supplementary figure 3 Peptide identification of 8UTT6 clone

A) Table showing T cell receptor sequencing result of UTT clones (N=23). B) Heatmap showing

reactivity of a representative clone, 8UTT6 clone, against sub pools of SARS-CoV-2 spike peptide

library loaded on K562s transduced with HLA-B*35:01. Reactivity was measured by IFN-γ ELISA.

Peptides that induced highest IFN-γ production were depicted under the figure with amino acid

overlap between the peptides in black. C) Table showing NetMHC 4.0-predicted binding to HLA-

B*35:01 of peptides that were recognized in the spike peptide library. The 10 peptides with highest

binding to HLA-B*35:01 are shown. D) Heatmap demonstrating peptide recognition signature of

8UTT6 clone using the CPL assay. 8UTT6 clone was co-cultured with peptide-loaded K562 cells

transduced HLA-B*35:01. Secreted IFN-γ was measured by ELISA and corrected per row. E)

Table showing the 10 peptides with highest CPL score and their binding affinity to HLA-B*35:01,

as predicted by netMHC 4.0.

1016

Supplementary Figure 4 Structural analysis of the HLA-B*35:01-FVS model

A-B) Structural overlay of HLA-B*35:01-IPF structure with the model of the HLA-B*35:01-FVS. C)

Top view of the HLA-B*35:01-IPF (peptide in chartreuse) and HLA-B*35:01-FVS (peptide in blue)

aligned on the HLA cleft (white cartoon). D) A side view of the same structural overlay as panel A,

with the same colour scheme. The sphere represents the Cα atom of the FVS peptide P5-G

residue.

A

	TRAV (IMGT)	TRAJ (IMGT)	CDR3 (aa)	CDR3α (nt)
UTT	TRAV21*02	TRAJ23*01	CAGNQGGKLIF	TGTGCTGGGAACCAGGGAGGAAAGCTTATCTTC
UBV	TRAV21*01	TRAJ23*01	CAGNQGGKLIF	TGTGCTGGGAAACCAGGGAGGAAAGCTTATCTTC
JZX	TRAV21*02	TRAJ23*01	CAGNQGGKLIF	TGTGCTGGGAACCAGGGAGGAAAGCTTATCTTC
SFW	TRAV21*02	TRAJ23*01	CAGNQGGKLIF	TGTGCTGGGAACCAGGGAGGAAAGCTTATCTTC

B

	TRBV (IMGT)	TRBV (IMGT)	CDR3 (aa)	CDR3β (nt)
UTT	TRBV12-3*01	TRBJ2-1*01	CASSLALDEQFF	TGTGCCAGCAGTTTAGCGCTGGATGAGCAGTTCTTC
UBV	TRBV12-3*01	TRBJ2-1*01	CASSLALDEQFF	TGTGCCAGCAGTTTAGCGCTGGATGAGCAGTTCTTC
JZX	TRBV12-3*01/TRBV12-4*01	TRBJ2-1*01	CASSLALDEQFF	TGTGCCAGCAGTTTAGCGCTCGATGAGCAGTTCTTC
SFW	TRBV12-3*01/TRBV12-4*01	TRBJ2-1*01	CASSLALDEQFF	TGTGCCAGCAGTTTAGCGCTTGATGAGCAGTTCTTC

1023

1024 **Supplementary figure 5** TCR sequencing of B*35/FVS-sorted samples

1025 Nucleotide alignment of the CDR3 α and β sequence of PBMCs sorted on B*35/FVS-tetramer

1026 binding. Segment numbering is depicted according to the international immunogenetics

1027 information system (IMGT) nomenclature. A) Nucleotide alignment of the CDR3α sequences. B)

1028 Nucleotide alignment of the CDR3β sequences.

1029

Supplementary figure 6 Flow cytometry and cell sorting gating example for tetramer staining
assays

A) Representative example of flow cytometry gating strategy for tetramer positive CD8^{+} T cells. All

events were gated on lymphocytes, single cells, viable cells, CD8 positive and subsequently

separated for binding to tetramer consisting of HLA-B*35:01 with IPS peptide or FVS peptide. B)

Representative example of fluorescent-activated cell sorting for tetramer positive CD8^{+} T cells. All

events were gated on lymphocytes, single cells, CD4^{-} and subsequently on CD8^{+}tetramer^{+}.

Supplementary Table 1 Cohort characteristics

Study code	CMV status	Storage date	HLA-A*	HLA-B*	HLA-C*	HLA-DRB1*	HLA-DRB3*	HLA-DRB4*	HLA-DRB5*	HLA-DQA1*	HLA-DQB1*	HLA-DPB1*

 Supplementary Table 2 List of peptides

Peptide pools

Name in study	Antigen	Pathogen	Supplier	Catalogous #	Characteristics
S	Spike	SARS-CoV-2	Miltenyi	130-126-701	15-mer, 11aa overlap
S1	Spike	SARS-CoV-2	Miltenyi	130-127-041	15-mer, 11aa overlap
S+	Spike	SARS-CoV-2	Miltenyi	130-127-312	15-mer, 11aa overlap
M	Membrane	SARS-CoV-2	Miltenyi	130-126-703	15-mer, 11aa overlap
N	Nucleocapsid	SARS-CoV-2	Miltenyi	130-126-699	15-mer, 11aa overlap
pp65	pp65	CMV	JPT	Custom-made	15-mer, 11aa overlap
pp65 library	pp65	CMV	JPT	Custom-made	15-mer, 11aa overlap
Spike library	Spike	SARS-CoV-2	SB Peptides	SB043	15-mer, 11aa overlap

Single peptides

Sequence	Antigen	Pathogen	Supplier	Catalogous #	Characteristics
VFTWPPWQAGILARN	pp65	CMV	LUMC	Custom-made	15-mer
PPWQAGILARNLVPM	pp65	CMV	LUMC	Custom-made	15-mer
AGILARNLVPMVATV	pp65	CMV	LUMC	Custom-made	15-mer
ARNLVPMVATVQGQN	pp65	CMV	LUMC	Custom-made	15-mer
VPMVATVQGQNLKYQ	pp65	CMV	LUMC	Custom-made	15-mer
AQGDDDVWTSGSDSD	pp65	CMV	LUMC	Custom-made	15-mer
SSATACTSGVMTRGR	pp65	CMV	LUMC	Custom-made	15-mer
PKRRHRQDALPGPC	pp65	CMV	LUMC	Custom-made	15-mer
FVSNGTHWF	Spike	SARS-CoV-2	LUMC	Custom-made	9-mer
IPSINVHHY	pp65	CMV	LUMC	Custom-made	9-mer

 Supplementary Table 3 List of antibodies and reagents used for flow cytometry

Antibodies

Antigen	Target species	Format	Clone	Supplier	Catalogous #	RRID
CCR7	Human	BV711	3d12	BD Biosciences	563712	AB_2738386
CD137	Human	APC	4B4-1	BD Biosciences	550890	AB_398477
CD14	Human	FITC	M5E2	BD Biosciences	555397	AB_395798
CD154	Human	Pacific Blue	24-31	Biolegend	310820	AB_830699
CD19	Human	FITC	HIB 19	BD Biosciences	555412	AB_395812
CD4	Human	PE-Cy7	SFCI12TD4	Beckham Coulter	737660	AB_2922769
CD4	Human	FITC	RPA-T4	BD Biosciences	555346	AB_395751
CD4	Human	BV510	SK3	BD Biosciences	562970	AB_2744424
CD45RA	Human	PE-Texas-Red	MEM-56	Invitrogen	MHCD45RA17	AB_10372222
CD8	Human	APC-H7	SK1	BD Biosciences	560179	AB_1645481
CD8	Human	PE-Cy7	RPA-T8	BD Biosciences	557746	AB_396852
CD8	Human	Pacific Blue	RPA-T8	BD Biosciences	558207	AB_397058
IFNγ	Human	Alexa-Fluor 700	4S.B3	Sony	3112600	AB_2922770
IFNγ	Human	BV711	B27	BD Biosciences	564039	AB_2738557
HLA-DR	Human	Alexa-Fluor 700	G46-6	BD Biosciences	560743	AB_1727526
CD38	Human	BV605	HIT2	BD Biosciences	740401	AB_2740131
CD19	Mouse	PE	1D3	BD Biosciences	557399	AB_396682

Other reagents

Product	Supplier	Catalogous #
Zombie-Red	Biolegend	423109
Zombie-Aqua	Biolegend	423101
Brilliant Violet Stain Buffer Plus	BD Biosciences	566385
Beta Mark TCR Vbeta Repertoire Kit	Beckham Coulter	IM3497

1043 **Supplementary Table 4** List of primer sequences used for TCR sequencing

1044

1045

Description	Name	Nucleotide sequence 5'▶3'
cDNA primer	anchored oligo-dT primer	AAGCAGTGGTATCAACGCAGAGTACT30VN, where "N" is any base and "V" is either "A", "C" or "G"
cDNA primer SmartSeq2modified template switching oligo	SS2m_TSO	AAGCAGTGGTATCAACGCAGAGTACAT(G)(G){G}
Pre amplification PCR primer	IS PCR	AAGCAGTGGTATCAACGCAGAGT
PCR primer SmartSeq2modified forward	SS2m_For	GAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCCGATCTAAGCAGT GGTATCAACGCAGAGTACAT
PCR primer TRAC reverse	TRAC_rev	CCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCT ACGGCAGGGTCAGGGTTCTGGATAT
PCR primer TRBC1 reverse	TRBC1_rev	CCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTGTGGGAACACC TTGTTCAGGTCCT*C
PCR primer TRBC1 reverse	TRBC2_rev	CCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTGTGGGAACACG TTTTTCAGGTCCT*C
Barcode primer SS2m region, forward, backbone	BC_R7xx_For	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGAT$_{nnnnnn}$GTGAC TGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCCGAT*C
Barcode primer region, reverse, backbone	BC_R7xx_Rev	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACAC$_{nnnnnn}$A CACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATC*T

Abbreviations: TRA: T-cell Receptor Alpha, TRB: T-cell Receptor Beta, SS2m: SmartSeq2Modified, TSO: Template Switching Oligo, TRAC: T-cell Receptor Alpha Constant, TRBC: T-cell Receptor Beta Constant, For: Forward, Rev: Reverse, AC: Alpha chain, BC: Beta chain, nnnnnn: Identifier sequence

()=RNA, {}=LNA: Locked Nucleic Acid, *:phosphonothioate-binding