An ancestral vaccine induces anti-Omicron antibodies by hypermutation

Running Title: Hypermutation and antibody specificity

Seoryeong Park[1,2*], Jaewon Choi[3,4*], Yonghee Lee[5], Jinsung Noh[5,6], Namphil Kim[5], JinAh Lee[7],

Geummi Cho[1,8], Sujeong Kim[1,8], Duck Kyun Yoo[1,8], Chang Kyung Kang[9], Pyoeng Gyun Choe[9],

Nam Joong Kim[9], Wan Beom Park[9], Seungtaek Kim[7], Myoung-don Oh[9], Sunghoon Kwon[3,5,6],

Junho Chung[1,2,8]

[1]Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Seoul National University College of

Medicine, Seoul 03080, Republic of Korea

[2]Interdisciplinary Program in Cancer Biology Major, Seoul National University College of

Medicine, Seoul 03080, Republic of Korea.

[3]Interdisciplinary Program in Bioengineering, Seoul National University, Seoul, Republic of

Korea

[4]Integrated Major in Innovative Medical Science, Seoul National University, Seoul, Republic of

Korea

[5]Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, Seoul National University, Seoul,

Republic of Korea

[6]Bio-MAX Institute, Seoul National University, Seoul, Republic of Korea

[7]Zoonotic Virus Laboratory, Institut Pasteur Korea, Seongnam 13488, Republic of Korea

[8]Department of Biomedical Science, Seoul National University College of Medicine, Seoul

03080, Republic of Korea

[9]epartment of Internal Medicine, Seoul National University College of Medicine, Seoul 03080,

Republic of Korea

[9]Department of Laboratory Medicine, Seoul National University College of Medicine, Seoul

03080, Republic of Korea

*These authors contributed equally to this work.

Corresponding author

S. Kim. (seungtaek.kim@ip-korea.org), M. Oh (mdohmd@snu.ac.kr), S. Kwon

(skwon@snu.ac.kr) or J. Chung (jjhchung@snu.ac.kr).

The immune escape of Omicron-sublineage variants significantly subsides by the third dose

of an mRNA vaccine. However, it is unclear how Omicron variant-neutralizing antibodies

develop under repeated vaccination. We collected blood samples from 41 BNT162b2

vaccinees following the course of three injections and analyzed their B-cell receptor (BCR)

repertoires at six time points in total. Five Omicron variant-neutralizing BCR heavy chain

(HC) clonotypes were tracked chronologically in identical vaccinees before and after the

third dose. Before the third injection, all five BCR HC clonotypes showed reactivity to the

ancestral receptor-binding domain (RBD), and two BCR HC clonotypes developed similar

reactivity to the Omicron RBD. The other three BCR HC clonotypes showed minimal or

reduced reactivity to the Omicron RBD before the third dose, which induced further

somatic hypermutation (SHM) and dramatically increased their affinity for the Omicron

RBD. In the public IGHV3-53/3-66 and IGHJ6 clonotypes found in 19 vaccinees (46%),

concomitant reactivity to the ancestral and Omicron RBDs resulted from SHMs such as

Y58F and F27V and diversification of HCDR3 by SHM. Our findings suggest that SHM

occurrence in the BCR space to broaden its specificity for unseen antigens is a

counterprotective mechanism against the immune escape of virus variants.

Main

Since the emergence of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), over 14

million sequences of variants have been collected and shared via the Global Initiative on Sharing

All Influenza Data (GISAID)[1]. While most mutations have little effect or are detrimental to the

virus, a small subset of mutations may provide a selective advantage leading to a higher

reproductive rate[2]. The spike protein, a viral coat protein that mediates viral attachment to host

cells and fusion between the virus and the cell membrane, is the primary target of neutralizing

antibodies[3]. Serological analysis has shown that the receptor-binding domain (RBD) of the spike

protein is the target of 90% of neutralizing activity in the immune sera[4,5]. In this context, the

RBD has become the essential component of most mRNA-, adenovirus-, and recombinant

protein-based vaccines[6]. However, Omicron variant BA.1 has accumulated 15 mutations in

RBD[7], resulting in a 22-fold reduction in neutralization by plasma from vaccinees receiving two

doses of the BNT162b2 vaccine[8]. This has led to reduced efficacy of most commercially

available monoclonal antibodies and antibodies under development against Omicron variant

BA.1[7,9]. Although bivalent vaccines have been developed to overcome the immune evasion of

Omicron variants[10,11], the majority of the population has received only monovalent vaccines to

date. Fortunately, it has been proven that a third dose of the BNT162b2 monovalent vaccine can

neutralize Omicron variant BA.1[12]. However, the mechanism by which Omicron variant-

neutralizing antibodies are generated through repeated exposure to the ancestral spike protein

remains unclear. In this study, we analyzed the chronological B-cell receptor (BCR) repertoires

of BNT162b2 vaccinees and traced the development of Omicron variant-neutralizing antibodies.

Omicron RBD vaccination and plasma antibody levels

We followed 41 healthcare workers from Seoul National University Hospital who received two

doses of the BNT162b2 mRNA vaccine with a three-week interval and a third dose at

approximately nine months after the first dose (Fig. 1a). Peripheral blood samples were collected

six times: once before the first dose, three times after each dose, and two times between the

second and third doses. The vaccinees did not report a history of COVID-19 infection, and the

absence of plasma IgG against the nucleocapsid (N) protein of SARS-CoV-2 was confirmed in

all vaccinees (Extended Data Fig. 1). In an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA),

plasma levels of IgA and IgG against the ancestral RBD were significantly increased after the

second dose (Fig. 1b and Extended Data Fig. 2). However, when vaccination was performed

against the Omicron (BA.1) RBD, a third dose was essential to achieve elevated levels of IgA

and IgG, which also reacted to the RBD of Omicron subvariant BQ1.1 (Fig. 1b, Extended Data

Figs. 2 and 3). This observation was in accord with prior reports that neutralizing activity of

plasma against the Omicron variant was detectable only after the third dose[13-15], while the second

dose could induce Omicron variant-neutralizing memory B cells[16].

Selection and characterization of Omicron RBD-binding antibody clones

We selected six vaccinees and generated a single-chain variable fragment (scFv) phage display

library using cDNA prepared from the sixth blood sample. For the selection of these vaccinees,

we reconstituted the *in silico* chronological BCR repertoires of vaccinees by next-generation

sequencing (Supplementary Data 1) and compared the frequency of BCR heavy chain (HC)

clonotypes listed in the CoV-Ab Dab[17] database binding the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein.

Vaccinee Nos. 32, 35, 39 and 43 and vaccine Nos. 22 and 27 showed a higher frequency of

clonotypes binding to the Omicron and ancestral spike proteins, respectively, and were selected.

In this study, the BCR HC clonotype was defined as a set of immunoglobulin heavy chain

sequences that exhibit the same immunoglobulin heavy variable (IGHV) and immunoglobulin

heavy joining (IGHJ) genes and homologous heavy chain complementarity-determining region 3

(HCDR3) amino acid sequences with a minimum sequence identity of 80% to a reference

sequence.

From six libraries, Omicron (BA.1) RBD-binding scFv clones were selected based on

biopanning and phage ELISA. A cluster of scFv clones composed of 27-60 clones and 51 other

clones sharing IGHV3-53/3-66, IGHJ6, and the same HCDR sequences at the amino acid level

was selected from five libraries (Table 1 and Supplementary Data 2). We have previously

reported that an IGHV3-53/3-66 and IGHJ6 BCR HC clonotype is present not only in the

majority of convalescent patients from ancestral strains but also in normal human populations

not exposed to SARS-CoV-2 and can neutralize the virus[18]. The frequent use of the IGHV3-53/3-

66 and IGHJ6 gene pair in SARS-CoV-2 neutralizing antibodies was further confirmed by a

subsequent report[19-21]. Six scFv clones carrying the IGHV1-69 gene were selected from two

libraries, which frequently encoded RBD-reactive antibodies found in convalescent patients from

both the ancestral strain and Omicron BA.1 variant[22]. Two additional scFv clones were selected

from the two libraries.

In the recombinant scFv-human Fc-hemagglutinin (HA) fusion protein format, seven scFv clones

showed reactivity against the RBD of the ancestral virus, alpha, beta, gamma, and delta variants

and Omicron-sublineage variants (BA.1, BA.2, BA.4/5 and BQ.1.1) (Extended Data Fig. 4a),

with half-maximal effective concentrations (EC50) below 350 pM. The 27-60 clone and 35-15

clone showed dramatically reduced reactivity to BA.4/5 and BQ.1.1 RBDs and BQ.1.1 RBD,

respectively. In a microneutralization assay, all clones neutralized the ancestral SARS-CoV-2

strain with a half-maximal inhibition concentration (IC50) range of 0.44 to 10.03 μg/ml

(Extended Data Fig. 4b). Four clones (35-8, 35-46, 35-68, and 35-78) showed slightly decreased

neutralizing activity against the Omicron BA. 1 variant with an IC50 below 15 μg/ml, while the

activity of others was increased to 25.79 to 74.12 μg/ml. All clones neutralized Alpha, Beta,

Gamma, and Delta variants with IC50 below 100 ug/ml.

Omicron RBD-reactive clonotypes in BCR HC repertoires

BCR HC clonotypes of Omicron RBD-binding clones (Omicron RBD-reactive BCR HC

clonotype) were mapped to 293 sequences in the repertoire of 23 vaccinees (Table 1 and

Supplementary Data 3). The most frequently identified BCR HC clonotype was 27-60, found in

19 vaccinees (46%), followed clonotypes by 43-09 and 35-46, found in five and two vaccinees

(12% and 5%), respectively (Extended Data Table 1). Six BCR HC clonotypes were found only

in one vaccinee. Five BCR HC clonotypes, including 27-60, were not found in vaccinees in

whom the antibody clones were found. This type of discrepancy is expected to inevitably

originate from the incomplete *in silico* reconstitution of the BCR HC repertoire due to the

limitation of the throughput of next-generation sequencing[23]. In this regard, the BCR HC

clonotypes are expected to be present in a larger population than we observed herein.

Among the 293 BCR HC sequences, 57 and 216 BCR HC sequences were present in the third

and sixth repertoires, respectively. Only 20 BCR HC sequences were found in other

chronological BCR repertoires. This skewed distribution originated from the expansion and

proliferation of B cells encoding the Omicron RBD-reactive BCR HC clonotype immediately

after the second and third doses of the vaccine. Thus, we limited our statistical analysis to BCR

HC sequences present in the third and sixth repertoires. Rapid class switch recombination (CSR)

following vaccination was evident, as the main immunoglobulin subtype of Omicron RBD-

reactive BCR HC sequences was IgG_1 in the third repertoire, followed by IgG_2, which was

maintained in the sixth repertoire (Extended Data Table 1 and Extended Data Fig. 5a). This rapid

CSR resulting in the dominance of the IgG_1 subtype among RBD-reactive BCR HC sequences

was also observed in convalescent patients infected with the ancestral virus[18].

Additionally, somatic hypermutation (SHM) of Omicron RBD-reactive BCR HC clonotypes

occurred mainly after the third dose. The average number of SHMs in the IGHV gene of

Omicron RBD-reactive BCR HC clonotypes in the sixth repertoire was dramatically increased

compared to that in the third repertoire with statistical significance (Extended Data Fig. 5b). The

diversity of the HCDR3 sequence also increased from the third repertoire to the sixth repertoire

(Extended Data Fig. 5c). Five Omicron RBD-reactive BCR HC clonotypes were mapped to eight

vaccinees in both the third and sixth repertoires (Extended Data Fig. 5d). The increase in the

average number of SHMs was evident, and statistical significance was confirmed in three

vaccinees with the 27-60 clonotype and one vaccinee with the 43-34 clonotype.

Development of concomitant reactivity to ancestral and Omicron RBDs via SHM

Clone 27-60 was encoded by IGHV3-53/IGHV3-66 (Fig. 2a), in which CDR1 and CDR2 are

known to have two key motifs providing reactivity to ancestral RBD[18,24]. The BCR HC of clone

27-60 had two SHMs in its IGHV gene sequence, and when we back-mutated the V27 residue in

CDR1 or the F58 residue adjacent to CDR2 to the germline sequence, its affinity for the ancestral

and Omicron RBDs was decreased 8.7-fold and greatly diminished, respectively (Fig. 2b). This

observation showed that the reactivity of clone 27-60 toward the Omicron RBD depended on the

SHM to a greater degree than its reactivity to the ancestral RBD.

Thereafter, we selected the most frequent BCR HC sequences of the 27-60 clonotype in the third

and sixth BCR repertoires of six vaccinees and analyzed their sequences (Fig. 2a). All the BCR

HC sequences found in the sixth repertoires had more SHMs than their pairs in the third

repertoires. All six BCR HC sequences in the sixth repertoire gained the Y58F mutation,

increasing the affinity of IGHV3-53/IGHV3-66 antibodies for the ancestral RBD[25,26]. There was

also diversity in their HCDR3 sequences limited to a motif of three amino acid residues. As the

HCDR3 sequence can diversify either at the stage of germline VDJ gene recombination by P-

and N-nucleotide addition/deletion or later by SHM, it was not possible to determine the

germline HCDR3 sequence of clones 27-60. To analyze the influence of the HCDR3 sequence on

reactivity to ancestral and Omicron RBDs, we generated a scFv phage display with the

randomized HCDR3 sequence of ARDLXX(A/V)GGMDV, arbitrarily selected 672 phage clones

and checked their reactivity to both RBDs. For the ancestral RBD, 200 phage clones (30%)

showed positive reactivity (Fig. 2c, Extended Data Fig. 6 and Supplementary Data 4). However,

for the Omicron RBD, only 18 phage clones (3%) were reactive. All 18 clones were dual-

reactive to both RBDs. Six mono-reactive and six dual-reactive phage clones were arbitrarily

selected for expression as recombinant scFv-hFc-HA fusion proteins and tested for their affinity

for both RBDs. The EC50 values of mono-reactive scFv proteins to the ancestral and Omicron

RBDs were in the ranges of 0.84–3.80 nM and 3.83–17.25 nM, respectively. In addition, dual-

reactive scFv proteins showed EC50 values of 0.16–1.29 nM and 0.35–1.26 nM for the ancestral

and Omicron RBDs, respectively (Fig. 2d). These observations proved that it is relatively rare for

ancestral RBD-reactive BCR HC clonotypes encoded by the IGHV3-53/3-66 and IGHJ6 genes

with the HCDR3 sequence of ARDLXX(A/V)GGMDV (BCR HC XXA/V clonotypes) to

develop increased compatible reactivity to the Omicron RBD. This dual reactivity is likely to be

achieved among the large population of antigen-stimulated and proliferating B cells through

SHM, rather than in a small number of B cells in the stage of germline VDJ gene rearrangement.

Indeed, only one BCR HC XXA/V sequence was found in only one vaccinee in the preimmune

repertoire (Extended Data Fig. 7 and Supplementary Data 5). After the first, second, and third

injections, 3, 58, and 138 BCR HC XXA/V sequences were found in two, ten and sixteen

vaccinees, respectively. The average frequency of BCR HC XXA/V sequences also increased

from 6.06×10^{-6} under preimmune status to 2.85×10^{-5}, 1.91×10^{-5}, and 2.41×10^{-5} after the first,

second, and third doses, respectively.

To check the effect of SHM accumulation on the affinity for RBDs in 27-60 BCR HC

clonotypes, six pairs of BCR HC sequences were coupled with the light chain gene of clone 27-

60 and expressed as recombinant scFv-hFc-HA fusion proteins. Then, their affinity for the

ancestral RBD and Omicron RBD was determined by ELISA. For the ancestral RBD, all six

scFvs of the third repertoire showed notable affinities, with EC50 values less than 7.5 nM.

However, only one scFv from vaccine No. 1 showed comparable affinity for the Omicron RBD

(Fig. 2e and Supplementary Data 6). In the sixth repertoire, four additional scFvs showed affinity

for the Omicron RBD, with EC50 values less than 4.5 nM.

We also analyzed the BCR HC sequences of four additional clonotypes (35-15, 35-46, 43-09 and

43-34) found in both the third and sixth repertoires of identical vaccinees (Fig. 3a). All BCR HC

sequences in the sixth repertoires showed more SHMs than their paired sequences in the third

repertoires. Then, we prepared eight recombinant scFv-hFc-HA fusion proteins in pairs with the

light chains of four scFv phage clones. In ELISA, all scFvs from the third repertoire showed a

remarkable level of affinity for the ancestral RBD, with EC50 values less than 200 pM, which

were well maintained within a 2-fold difference in their paired sequences in the sixth repertoire.

It was exceptional that the BCR HC sequences of the 35-46 clonotype in the third library were

encoded by IGHV1-69/IGHJ3 genes without any SHM and showed a significantly high affinity

for the Omicron RBD. In the 35-15, 43-09 and 43-34 BCR HC clonotype pairs, the affinity for

the Omicron RBD was significantly increased from 0.59, 1.12 and 7.91 nM in the third repertoire

to 0.13, 0.09 and 0.14 nM in the sixth repertoire, respectively.

Our study showed that the third dose of the mRNA vaccine encoding the ancestral viral spike

protein induced the accumulation of SHMs in ancestral RBD-reactive antibody clones and

caused significantly enhanced additional reactivity to Omicron-RBD in some of them, which

may contribute to the dramatically increased plasma Omicron RBD-reactive antibody level. We

believe that this expansion in the specificity of the BCR repertoire to unseen antigens via SHM is

a counterprotective immune mechanism that evolved in response to the challenge of viral

immune escape.

References

1.   Meredith, L. W. et al. Rapid implementation of SARS-CoV-2 sequencing to investigate
cases of health-care associated COVID-19: a prospective genomic surveillance study.
Lancet Infect. Dis. **20**, 1263–1272 (2020).

2.   Harvey, W. T. et al. SARS-CoV-2 variants, spike mutations and immune escape. *Nat. Rev.*
Microbiol. **19**, 409–424 (2021).

3.   Letko, M., Marzi, A. & Munster, V. Functional assessment of cell entry and receptor
usage for SARS-CoV-2 and other lineage B betacoronaviruses. *Nat. Microbiol.* **5**, 562–
569 (2020).

4.   Liu, L. et al. Potent neutralizing antibodies against multiple epitopes on SARS-CoV-2
spike. *Nature* **584**, 450–456 (2020).

5.   Piccoli, L. et al. Mapping neutralizing and immunodominant sites on the SARS-CoV-2
spike receptor-binding domain by structure-guided high-resolution serology. *Cell* **183**,
1024–1042.e21 (2020).

6.   Basta, N. & Moodie, E. COVID-19 vaccine development and approvals tracker.
https://covid19.trackvaccines.org/ (2020).

7.   Cao, Y. et al. Omicron escapes the majority of existing SARS-CoV-2 neutralizing
antibodies. *Nature* **602**, 657–663 (2022).

8.   Cele, S. et al. Omicron extensively but incompletely escapes Pfizer BNT162b2
neutralization. *Nature* **602**, 654–656 (2022).

9.   Dejnirattisai, W. et al. SARS-CoV-2 Omicron-B.1.1.529 leads to widespread escape from
neutralizing antibody responses. *Cell* **185**, 467–484.e15 (2022).

10. Chalkias, S. et al. A bivalent omicron-containing booster vaccine against covid-19. *N.*

Engl. J. Med. **387**, 1279–1291 (2022).

11.   Zou, J. et al. *Improved Neutralization of Omicron BA.4/5, BA.4.6, BA.2.75.2, BQ.1.1, and*

XBB.1 with Bivalent BA.4/5 Vaccine (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, 2022).

12.   Muik, A. et al. Neutralization of SARS-CoV-2 Omicron by BNT162b2 mRNA vaccine-

elicited human sera. *Science (New York, N.Y.)* **375**, 678–680 (2022).

13.   Carreño, J. M. et al. Activity of convalescent and vaccine serum against SARS-CoV-2

Omicron. *Nature* **602**, 682–688 (2021).

14.   Nemet, I. et al. Third BNT162b2 vaccination neutralization of SARS-CoV-2 omicron

infection. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **386**, 492–494 (2022).

15.   Yu, J. et al. Neutralization of the SARS-CoV-2 omicron BA.1 and BA.2 variants. *N. Engl.*

J. Med. **386**, 1579–1580 (2022).

16.   Kotaki, R. et al. SARS-CoV-2 omicron-neutralizing memory B cells are elicited by two

doses of BNT162b2 mRNA vaccine. *Sci. Immunol.* **7**, eabn8590 (2022).

17.   Raybould, M. I. J., Kovaltsuk, A., Marks, C. & Deane, C. M. CoV-AbDab: the

coronavirus antibody database. *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)* **37**, 734–735 (2021).

18.   Kim, S. I. et al. Stereotypic neutralizing V(H) antibodies against SARS-CoV-2 spike

protein receptor binding domain in patients with COVID-19 and healthy individuals. *Sci.*

Transl. Med. **13**, eabd6990 (2021).

19.   Barnes, C. O. et al. SARS-CoV-2 neutralizing antibody structures inform therapeutic

strategies. *Nature* **588**, 682–687 (2020).

20.   Cao, Y. et al. Potent neutralizing antibodies against SARS-CoV-2 identified by high-

throughput single-cell sequencing of convalescent patients' B cells. *Cell* **182**, 73–84.e16

(2020).

272 21. Zhang, Q. et al. Potent and protective IGHV3-53/3-66 public antibodies and their shared

273   escape mutant on the spike of SARS-CoV-2. *Nat. Commun.* **12**, 4210 (2021).

274 22. Yan, Q. et al. Shared IGHV1-69-encoded neutralizing antibodies contribute to the

275   emergence of L452R substitution in SARS-CoV-2 variants. *Emerg. Microbes Infect.* **11**,

276   2749–2761 (2022).

277 23. Lee, H. et al. Optimization of peripheral blood volume for in silico reconstitution of the

278   human B-cell receptor repertoire. *FEBS Open Bio* **12**, 1634–1643 (2022).

279 24. Yuan, M. et al. Structural basis of a shared antibody response to SARS-CoV-2. *Science*

280   *(New York, N.Y.)* **369**, 1119–1123 (2020).

281 25. Tan, T. J. C. et al. Sequence signatures of two public antibody clonotypes that bind

282   SARS-CoV-2 receptor binding domain. *Nat. Commun.* **12**, 3815 (2021).

283 26. Tian, X. et al. The prominent role of a CDR1 somatic hypermutation for convergent

284   IGHV3-53/3-66 antibodies in binding to SARS-CoV-2. *Emerg. Microbes Infect.* **11**,

285   1186–1190 (2022).

287   **Tables**

288   **Table 1.** Omicron RBD-reactive scFv clones and their BCR-HC clonotypes

scFv clone	scFv library (vaccinees)	HCDR3 sequences	IGHV	IGHJ	No. of vaccinees with the corresponding BCR HC clonotype
27-60	22, 27, 32, 39, 43	ARDLMEAGGMDV	*IGHV3-53/3-66*	*IGHV6*	19
35-08	35	AREIGYSGSGSAKYFDP	*IGHV1-69*	*IGHJ5*	1
35-15	35	ARAEDHGTYYSDSSGYHFDY	*IGHV1-69*	*IGHJ4*	1
35-46	35	ARVHGYSGYGANDAFDI	*IGHV1-69*	*IGHJ3*	2
35-68	35	AREVGYSGFGASPKFDP	*IGHV1-69*	*IGHJ5*	1
35-78	35	AREPGILGYCSSTSCYID	*IGHV1-69*	*IGHJ4*	1
43-09	43	ARTGSGWTDAFDI	*IGHV3-30*	*IGHJ3*	5
43-27	43	ATTYHYDTDGPYGEFYY	*IGHV5-51*	*IGHJ4*	1
43-34	43	ARVRGYSGYGASGYFDN	*IGHV1-69*	*IGHJ4*	1

Figure legends

Fig. 1 Vaccination, blood sampling and plasma antibody levels. a, Vaccinees received the first two doses at a three-week interval and the third dose between the 31st and 39th weeks after the first dose. Blood was collected six times: pre-vaccination (1st); 1 week after the first dose (2nd); 1, 6, and 30 weeks after the second dose (3rd, 4th, and 5th); and one to four weeks after the third dose (6th). **b,** Plasma levels of antibodies against SARS-CoV-2 ancestral and Omicron RBDs were measured after 2,500-fold dilution. All experiments were performed in duplicate, and the average value for each vaccinee was plotted. The P value was calculated using one-way ANOVA. ns, not significant, $p > 0.05$; *, $p < 0.05$; ***, $p < 0.001$; ****, $p < 0.0001$. The increases and decreases in antibody levels are marked with red and green asterisks, respectively.

Fig. 2 Characterization of the 27-60 BCR HC clonotype. a, BCR HC sequences found in six vaccinees in their third and sixth BCR repertoires with the highest frequency. **b,** Reactivity of the recombinant 27-60 scFv-hFc-HA protein and its clones back mutated to the germline sequence. **c,** Reactivity of scFv-displaying phage clones from the HCDR3-randomized library to the ancestral and Omicron RBDs. The clones labeled in red and green were selected for expression as recombinant scFv-hFc-HA protein. **d,** Reactivity of recombinant scFv fusion proteins of HCDR3-randomized (ARDLXX(A/V)GGMDV) clones to the ancestral and Omicron RBDs. **e,** Reactivity of recombinant scFv-hFc-HA proteins encoded by individual BCR HC sequences and the light chain gene of clone 27-60 to the ancestral and Omicron RBDs.

Fig. 3 Characterization of 35-15, 35-46, 43-9, and 43-34 BCR HC clonotypes. a, BCR HC sequences of four clonotypes found in vaccinees in their third and sixth BCR repertoires with the highest frequency. **b,** Reactivity of recombinant scFv-hFc-HA proteins encoded by individual

312   BCR HC sequences and the light chain gene of each scFv clone to the ancestral and Omicron

313   RBDs.

314   **Figures**

316   **Fig. 1**

318 **Fig. 2**

Fig. 3

Methods

Study participants

Peripheral blood sampling was approved by the Institutional Ethics Review Board of Seoul

National University Hospital (IRB approval number, 2102-032-1193). The vaccinees had a

median age of 30 years (range 23-62) and showed a nearly equal distribution of males and

females (46% and 54%, respectively). Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) and plasma

were separated using Lymphoprep (STEMCELL) Ficoll (Cytiva) following the manufacturer's

instructions. Total RNA was isolated using TRIzol Reagent (Invitrogen) according to the

manufacturer's instructions.

ELISA

Plasma and phage ELISAs were performed in 96-well microtiter plates (Corning, 3690) coated

with 100 ng of recombinant SARS-CoV-2 proteins (Sino Biological, Ancestral RBD, 40592-

V08H; Alpha RBD, 40592-V08H82; Beta RBD, 40592-V08H85; Gamma RBD, 40592-V08H86;

Delta RBD, 40592-V08H90; Omicron BA.1 RBD, 40592-V08H121; Omicron BA.2 RBD,

40592-V08H123, Omicron BA.4/5 RBD, 40592-V08H130; Omicron BQ.1.1 RBD, 40592-

V08H143; Ancestral N, 40588-V08B) in coating buffer (0.1 M sodium bicarbonate, pH 8.6) as

described previously[18]. Briefly, the plates were coated with the antigen by incubation at 4°C

overnight and blocked with 3% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in PBS for 1 hour at 37°C. Then,

serially diluted serum (100-, 500-, 2,500-fold) or phage supernatant (twofold) in blocking buffer

was added to the wells of microtiter plates, followed by incubation for 1 hour at 37°C. Then, the

plates were washed three times with 0.05% PBST. Horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated

goat anti-human IgA and IgM (Invitrogen, A18781 and A18835, 1:5,000), rabbit anti-human IgG

antibody (Invitrogen, 31423, 1:20,000) and HRP-conjugated anti-M13 antibody (Sino

Biological, 11973-MM05T-H, 1:4,000) were used to determine the amount of bound antibody or

M13 bacteriophage. A 3,3′,5,5′-tetramethylbenzidine liquid substrate solution (Thermo Fisher

Scientific Inc.) was used as an HRP substrate, and the absorbance was measured at 450 or 650

nm using a microplate spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Multiskan GO)

depending on the use of 2 M sulfuric acid as the stop solution. All assays were performed in

duplicate.

In ELISA for the recombinant scFv-hFc-HA fusion proteins, the wells of microtiter plates

(Corning) were first coated with 100 ng of mouse anti-His antibody (Invitrogen, MA1-21315)

and blocked. Then, the recombinant SARS-CoV-2 RBD protein with a polyhistidine tag (100

nM) was added to the wells. After brief washing, the scFv-hFC-HA fusion proteins were serially

diluted fourfold from 1 μM to 0.24 pM in blocking buffer and added to wells of a microtiter

plate. HRP-conjugated rat anti-HA antibody (Roche, 12013819001, 1:1,000) was used to

determine the amount of bound antibody. All assays were performed in duplicate.

Next-generation sequencing

Genes encoding the variable domain of the heavy chain (V_H) and part of the first constant

domain of the heavy chain (CH1) domain (V_H-CH1) were amplified using specific primers, as

described previously[18]. All primers used are listed in Supplementary Data 7. Briefly, total RNA

was used as a template to synthesize complementary DNA (cDNA) using the SuperScript IV

First-Strand Synthesis System (Invitrogen) with specific primers (primer No. 1–8) targeting the

CH1 domain of each isotype (IgM, IgD, IgG, IgA, and IgE) according to the manufacturer's

protocol. After cDNA synthesis, 1.8 volumes of SPRI beads (Beckman Coulter, AMPure XP)

were used to purify cDNA, which was eluted in 35 μl of water. The purified cDNA (15 μl) was

subjected to second-strand synthesis in a 25 μl reaction volume using IGHV gene–specific

primers (primer No.9–14) and a KAPA Biosystems kit (Roche, KAPA HiFi HotStart). The PCR

conditions were as follows: 95°C for 3 min, 98°C for 30 s, 60°C for 45 s, and 72°C for 6 min.

After second-strand synthesis, dsDNA was purified using 1 volume of SPRI beads, as described

above. V_H-CH1 genes were amplified using purified dsDNA (15 μl) in a 25 μl reaction volume

using primers containing indexing sequences (primers 15 and 16) and a KAPA Biosystems kit.

The PCR conditions were as follows: 95°C for 3 min; 25 cycles of 98°C for 30 s, 60°C for 30 s,

and 72°C for 1 min; and 72°C for 5 min. PCR products were subjected to electrophoresis on a

1.5% agarose gel and purified using a QIAquick gel extraction kit (QIAGEN Inc.) according to

the manufacturer's instructions. The gel-purified PCR products were purified again using 1

volume of SPRI beads and eluted in 20 μl water. The SPRI-purified sequencing libraries were

quantified with a 4200 TapeStation System (Agilent Technologies) using a D1000 ScreenTape

assay and subjected to next-generation sequencing on the Illumina NovaSeq platform.

NGS data processing

Raw sequencing reads obtained from sequencing the V_H-CH1 region of B cells in peripheral

blood were processed using a custom pipeline. The pipeline included adapter trimming and

quality filtering; unique molecular identifier (UMI) processing; V(D)J gene annotation;

clustering; quality control; and diversity analysis.

The forward reads (R1) and reverse reads (R2) of the raw NGS data were merged using paired-

end read merger (PEAR) v0.9.10 with the default settings[27]. The merged reads were q-filtered

under the q20p95 condition, resulting in 95% of base pairs in the reads having a Phred score

greater than 20. Primer positions were identified in the quality-filtered reads, and primer regions

were trimmed to remove the effects of primer synthesis errors while allowing one substitution or

deletion.

Based on the primer recognition results, UMI sequences were extracted, and reads were clustered

according to the UMI sequences. To eliminate index misassignment, we subclustered the

clustered reads based on the similarity of the reads (allowing 5 mismatches in each subcluster)

and matched the majority subcluster to the UMI. The subclustered reads were aligned using the

multiple sequence alignment tool Clustal Omega v1.2.4 with the default settings[28,29]. Consensus

calling was performed by selecting major frequency bases at every position of the aligned

sequences. The number of reads in the consensus sequence was redefined as the number of UMI

subclusters belonging to the consensus sequence.

Sequence annotation consisted of isotype annotation and V(D)J annotation. The consensus

sequence was divided into a V(D)J region and a constant region. The isotype of the consensus

sequence was annotated by aligning the extracted constant region with the constant gene of the

International Immunogenetics Information System (IMGT)[30]. Then, the V(D)J region of the

consensus sequence was annotated using an updated version of IgBLAST (v1.17.1)[31]. Among the

annotation results, the IGHV genes, IGHJ genes, HCDR3 sequences, and number of SHMs were

extracted for further analysis. The number of SHMs was counted only in the aligned IGHV

genes. The nonfunctional consensus reads were defined and filtered using the following criteria:

(i) sequence length shorter than 250 base pairs, (ii) presence of a stop codon or frameshift in the

entire amino acid sequence, (iii) failure to annotate one or more HCDR1, HCDR2 and HCDR3

regions, and (iv) failure to annotate the isotype.

Construction of scFv phage display library

Six human scFv phage display libraries were constructed using the total RNA prepared from the

sixth blood sample for vaccine Nos. 22, 27, 32, 35, 39 and 43 as described previously[18]. Briefly,

for the V_H and V_κ/V_λ genes, total RNA was employed to synthesize cDNA using the SuperScript

IV First-Strand Synthesis System (Invitrogen) with gene-specific primers targeting the J_H and

$C_{\kappa/\lambda}$ genes (primer No.17–22), respectively. After cDNA synthesis, 1.8 volumes of SPRI beads

(Beckman Coulter) were used to purify cDNA, which was eluted in 20 µl of water. The purified

cDNA (11.25 µl) of the V_H gene was subjected to second-strand synthesis in a 25 µl reaction

volume using IGHV gene-specific primers (primer No. 23–32, 7.5 µl) and a KAPA Biosystems

kit (Roche). The reaction conditions were as follows: 95°C for 3 min, 98°C for 1 min, 60°C for 1

min, and 72°C for 5 min. In the case of the V_κ/V_λ gene, the eluted cDNA (17.25 µl) was used for

the first round of PCR synthesis in a 25 µl reaction volume using $V_{\kappa/\lambda}$ and $J_{\kappa/\lambda}$ gene-specific

primers (primer No. 33–69, 0.75 µl). The PCR conditions were as follows: 95°C for 3 min; 4

cycles of 98°C for 1 min, 60°C for 1 min, and 72°C for 1 min; and 72°C for 10 min. After

second-strand synthesis for the V_H gene or PCR amplification of the V_κ/V_λ gene, double-stranded

DNA (dsDNA) was purified with 1 volume of SPRI beads and eluted in 40 µl of water. V_H and

V_κ/V_λ genes were amplified using 10 µl of purified dsDNA, 2.5 pmol of the primers (primer No.

70–73), and KAPA Biosystems kit components in a 50 µl total reaction volume with the

following thermal cycling program: 95°C for 3 min; 30 cycles of 98°C for 30 s, 60°C for 30 s,

and 72°C for 1 min; and 72°C for 10 min. Then, the amplified V_H and V_κ/V_λ genes were

subjected to electrophoresis on a 1.5% agarose gel and purified using a QIAquick gel extraction

kit (QIAGEN Inc.) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The purified V_H and V_κ/V_λ gene

fragments (100 ng) were mixed and subjected to overlap extension PCR to generate scFv genes

using 2.5 pmol of the overlap extension primers (primer No. 74 and 75) using the KAPA

Biosystems kit. The PCR conditions were as follows: 95°C for 3 min; 25 cycles of 98°C for 20 s,

65°C for 15 s, and 72°C for 1 min; and 72°C for 10 min. The amplified scFv gene was purified

and cloned into a phagemid vector as described previously[32].

Selection of Omicron RBD-binding clones

Human scFv phage display libraries with 7.1×10^8, 6.1×10^8, 8.1×10^8, 8.3×10^8, $7.9 \times$

10^8, and 7.4×10^8 colony-forming units were generated using cDNA prepared from vaccinee

Nos. 22, 27, 32, 35, 39 and 43, respectively. The libraries were subjected to five rounds of

biopanning against the recombinant SARS-CoV-2 Omicron RBD protein (Sino Biological Inc.)

as described previously[33]. Immune tubes (SPL, 43015) coated with 17 µg of the Omicron RBD

were used for the first round, and 5×10^6 magnetic beads (Invitrogen, Dynabeads M-270

epoxy) conjugated with 1.4 µg of the Omicron RBD protein were used for the other rounds. After

each round of biopanning, the bound phages were eluted and amplified for the next round of

biopanning. For the selection of Omicron RBD-reactive scFv phage clones, individual phage

clones were amplified from the titration plate of the last round and subjected to phage ELISA as

described previously[34]. The genes encoding Omicron RBD-reactive scFv clones were identified

using phagemid DNA prepared from phage clones and Sanger nucleotide sequencing as

described previously[33]. A recombinant scFv protein fused with human IgG1 FC and the HA

peptide (scFv-hFc-HA) was expressed using a mammalian expression system and purified as

described previously[35].

HCDR3-randomized scFv phage display library

The gene fragment encoding the V_H region with a randomized HCDR3 sequence and another

gene fragment encoding the rest of the scFv were amplified using phagemid DNA of clone 27-

60, primers for randomization (primer No.76-79) and the KAPA Biosystems kit. The PCR

conditions were as follows: 95°C for 3 min; 25 cycles of 98°C for 20 s, 65°C for 15 s, and 72°C

for 1 min; and 72°C for 10 min. Then, the amplified genes were subjected to electrophoresis on a

1.5% agarose gel and purified using a QIAquick gel extraction kit (QIAGEN Inc.) according to

the manufacturer's instructions. The purified gene fragments (200 ng) were mixed and subjected

to overlap extension PCR to generate scFv genes using 2.5 pmol of the overlap extension primers

(primer No.76 and 79) and the KAPA Biosystems kit. The PCR conditions were as follows: 95°C

for 3 min; 25 cycles of 98°C for 20 s, 65°C for 15 s, and 72°C for 1 min; and 72°C for 5 min.

The amplified scFv genes were purified and cloned into a phagemid vector as described

previously[32]. For phage ELISA, individual phage clones were amplified from the titration plate

and subjected to phage ELISA as described previously[34].

Microneutralization assay

The ancestral SARS-CoV-2 (βCoV/Korea/KCDC03/2020 NCCP43326), Alpha B.1.1.7 (hCoV-

19/Korea/KDCA51463/2021 (NCCP 43381), Beta B.1.351 (hCoV-19/Korea/KDCA55905/2021

(NCCP 43382), Gamma P.1 (hCoV-19/Korea/KDCA95637/2021 (NCCP 43388), Delta B.1.617.2

(hCoV-19/Korea/KDCA119861/2021 (NCCP 43390), and Omicron B.1.1.529 (hCoV-

19/Korea/KDCA447321/2021 NCCP43408) viruses were obtained from the Korea Disease

Control and Prevention Agency. The viruses were propagated in Vero cells (ATCC, CCL-81) in

Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM, Welgene) in the presence of 2% fetal bovine

serum (Gibco, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.), as described previously[18,36].

Neutralization assays were performed as described previously[18,37]. Briefly, Vero cells were

seeded in 96-well plates (1.5×10^4 or 0.5×10^4 cells/well) in Opti-PRO SFM (Thermo Fisher

Scientific Inc.) supplemented with 4 mM L-glutamine and $1\times$ Antibiotics-Antimycotic (Thermo

Fisher Scientific Inc/) and grown for 24 h at 37°C in a 5% CO_2 environment. Recombinant scFv-

hFc proteins were diluted from 100 to 0.1953 µg/ml (twofold) in phosphate-buffered saline

(PBS, Welgene) and mixed with 100 or 500 $TCID_{50}$ of SARS-CoV-2. Then, the mixture was

incubated for 30 min at 37°C and added to the cells in tetrads, followed by incubation for 4 or 6

days at 37°C in a 5% CO_2 environment. The cytopathic effect (CPE) in each well was visualized

following crystal violet staining 4 or 6 days postinfection. The IC_{50} values were calculated using

the dose–response inhibition equation of GraphPad Prism 6 (GraphPad Software).

Data and code availability

NGS data preprocessing was performed as described in a previous study (Kim, S. I. *et al*. Sci

Transl Med 13 (2021)). The code use in this study is available upon request for academic

research purposes.

Methods references

18.   Kim, S. I. et al. Stereotypic neutralizing V(H) antibodies against SARS-CoV-2 spike

502   protein receptor binding domain in patients with COVID-19 and healthy individuals. *Sci.*

503   *Transl. Med.* **13**, eabd6990 (2021).

504   27.   Zhang, J., Kobert, K., Flouri, T. & Stamatakis, A. PEAR: a fast and accurate Illumina

505   Paired-End reAd mergeR. *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)* **30**, 614–620 (2014).

506   28.   Sievers, F. et al. Fast, scalable generation of high-quality protein multiple sequence

507   alignments using Clustal Omega. *Mol. Syst. Biol.* **7**, 539 (2011).

508   29.   Sievers, F. & Higgins, D. G. Clustal Omega for making accurate alignments of many

509   protein sequences. *Protein Sci.* **27**, 135–145 (2018).

510   30.   Lefranc, M. P. IMGT® databases, web resources and tools for immunoglobulin and T cell

511   receptor sequence analysis, http://imgt.cines.fr. *Leukemia* **17**, 260–266 (2003).

512   31.   Ye, J., Ma, N., Madden, T. L. & Ostell, J. M. IgBLAST: an immunoglobulin variable

513   domain sequence analysis tool. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **41**, W34–W40 (2013).

514   32.   Andris-Widhopf, J., Steinberger, P., Fuller, R., Rader, C. & Barbas, C. F. Generation of

515   human scFv antibody libraries: PCR amplification and assembly of light- and heavy-

516   chain coding sequences. *Cold Spring Harb. Protoc.* **2011**, pdb.prot065573 (2011).

517   33.   Lee, Y., Kim, H. & Chung, J. An antibody reactive to the Gly63-Lys68 epitope of NT-

518   proBNP exhibits O-glycosylation-independent binding. *Exp. Mol. Med.* **46**, e114 (2014).

519   34.   Barbas, C. F., Scott, J. K. & Silverman, G. J. *Phage Display: A Laboratory Manual* (Cold

520   Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, 2001).

521   35.   Park, S., Lee, D. H., Park, J. G., Lee, Y. T. & Chung, J. A sensitive enzyme immunoassay

522   for measuring cotinine in passive smokers. *Clin. Chim. Acta* **411**, 1238–1242 (2010).

36.   Reed, L. J. & Muench, H. A simple method of estimating fifty per cent endpoints12. *Am.*

J. Epidemiol. **27**, 493–497 (1938).

37.   Jiang, L. et al. Potent neutralization of MERS-CoV by human neutralizing monoclonal

antibodies to the viral spike glycoprotein. *Sci. Transl. Med.* **6**, 234ra259 (2014).

Acknowledgements

This research was supported by the Korea Dementia Research Center (KDRC, HU29C339), the

BK21 FOUR program, the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF-2020R1A3B3079653

NRF-2020M3H1A1073304, NRF-2017M3A9G6068245, NRF-2022M3A9J1081343 and NRF-

2023M3A9G6057281), the SNUH Research Fund (03-2021-0080), and the Inter-university

Semiconductor Research Center. The pathogen resources (NCCP43326, NCCP43381,

NCCP43382, NCCP43388, NCCP43390, NCCP43408) for this study were provided by the

National Culture Collection for Pathogens. J. Choi is grateful for financial support from the

Hyundai Motor Chung Mong-Koo Foundation.

Author contributions

S.P. designed and conducted all experiments, performed analyses, interpreted experimental

results, and wrote and revised the paper. J. Choi. performed the bioinformatic analyses,

visualized and interpreted the results, and wrote and revised the paper. Y.L., J.N. and N.P.K.

performed the bioinformatic analysis. J.L. conducted experiments related to the

microneutralization assay. D.Y. conducted experiments related to the construction of repertoire

libraries for NGS. G.C. and S.J.K. contributed to experiments related to the expression of

recombinant proteins. K.K., P.C., N.J.K., and W.P. enrolled the study participants and collected

the study samples. M.O. conceived and designed the study, and interpreted all results. S.T.K.

supervised all the experiments with infectious viruses and microneutralization assay. S. Kwon

conceived the study and designed and supervised the bioinformatics analysis. J. Chung

conceived the study, designed and supervised all experiments, interpreted all results, and wrote

the paper.

Competing interests

553 S.P., J. Choi, Y.L., J.N., N.P.K., J.L., G.C., W.P., S.T.K., M.O., S. Kwon and J. Chung are

554 inventors on a patent application for the antibodies described in this article. The remaining

555 authors declare no conflict of interest.

Additional information

Supplementary Information is available for this paper

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to J. Chung.

Correspondence and requests for materials

Peer review information

Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints.

Extended data figure/table legends

Extended Data Fig. 1 Plasma levels of antibodies against the SARS-CoV-2 N protein.

Reactivity of plasma from 41 vaccinees to the SARS-CoV-2 N protein (Sino Biological) was

tested by ELISA. The wells of microtiter plates were coated with the SARS-CoV-2 N protein and

blocked. After washing, plasma samples diluted in blocking buffer (1:2,500-fold) were added to

wells. The amount of bound antibody was determined using a horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-

conjugated rabbit anti-human IgG antibody (Invitrogen).

Extended Data Fig. 2 Plasma levels of antibodies against ancestral and Omicron RBD.

Plasma levels of antibodies to SARS-CoV-2 ancestral and Omicron RBDs were measured in 41

vaccinees after 100-fold (**a**) or 500-fold (**b**) dilution. All experiments were performed in

duplicate, and the average value for each vaccinee was plotted. The P value was calculated using

one-way ANOVA. ns, not significant, $p > 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$; ****, $p < 0.0001$.

The increases and decreases in antibody levels are marked with red and green asterisks,

respectively.

Extended Data Fig. 3 Plasma levels of antibodies against the RBD of Omicron subvariant

BQ1.1. Plasma levels of antibodies to the Omicron subvariant BQ1.1. RBD (Sino Biological)

were determined after 100- (**a**), 500- (**b**) or 2,500-fold (**c**) dilution. All experiments were

performed in duplicate, and the average value for each vaccinee was plotted. The P value was

calculated using one-way ANOVA. ns, not significant, $p > 0.05$; ***, $p < 0.001$; ****, $p <$

0.0001.

Extended Data Fig. 4 Characteristics of Omicron RBD-binding scFv clones. a, Reactivity of

Omicron RBD-binding scFv clones from the phage display library was tested against SARS-

CoV-2 ancestral, alpha, beta, gamma, delta, and Omicron sublineage (BA.1, BA.2, BA.4/5 and

BQ.1.1) RBD proteins in the form of a recombinant scFv-hFc protein. **b,** The neutralization

efficacy of Omicron RBD-reactive scFv clones was tested in a microneutralization assay using

ancestral SARS-CoV-2 (βCoV/Korea/KCDC03/2020 NCCP43326), Alpha B.1.1.7 (hCoV-

19/Korea/KDCA51463/2021 (NCCP 43381), Beta B.1.351 (hCoV-19/Korea/KDCA55905/2021

(NCCP 43382), Gamma P.1 (hCoV-19/Korea/KDCA95637/2021 (NCCP 43388), Delta B.1.617.2

(hCoV-19/Korea/KDCA119861/2021 (NCCP 43390), and Omicron B.1.1.529 (hCoV-

19/Korea/KDCA447321/2021 NCCP43408) strains.

Extended Data Fig. 5 The characteristics of the BCR HC sequences of nine Omicron RBD-

reactive clonotypes mapped to the third and sixth repertoires. a, The isotype compositions of

the BCR HC sequences in the third and sixth repertoires (n = 57 and 216, respectively). **b,**

Numbers of SHMs in BCR HC sequences at the third and sixth repertoires (n = 57 and 216,

respectively). The P value was calculated using a two-tailed independent *t* test. ****, p < 0.0001.

c, Diversification of BCR HC sequences occurred from the third to the sixth repertoire through

SHM and HCDR3 sequence variation. The numbers of unique BCR HC sequences and HCDR3

sequences are counted at the nucleotide level. **d,** Numbers of SHMs in the BCR HC sequences of

clonotypes found in the third and sixth repertoires of the same vaccinee. The P value was

calculated using the Mann–Whitney U test.

In the case of repertoires for which statistical significance is not indicated, statistical significance

was not calculated, as the number of clones included in the third or sixth repertoire was only one

or two. ns, not significant, p > 0.05; *, p < 0.05; **, p < 0.01; ***, p < 0.001; ****, p < 0.0001.

Extended Data Fig. 6 Determination of the threshold for RBD-reactive clones in the

HCDR3-randomized scFv phage display library. After phage ELISA using both ancestral and

Omicron-RBDs, the absorbance of each well was determined. The absorbance value was

approximated with a Gaussian distribution by the binned kernel estimation method under the

Gaussian kernel setting (black line). The chosen threshold absorbance value for a positive clone

was 0.81 (red vertical line), which corresponded to the valley point in the distribution plot.

Extended Data Fig. 7 The frequency distribution and sequence diversity of BCR-HC

XXA/V clonotypes after the first, second, and third injections. a, The frequency distribution

of BCR HC XXA/V clonotypes. The BCR HC XXA/V clonotypes with the same HCDR3 amino

acid sequence are plotted in the same color. **b**, Diversity of BCR HC XXA/V sequences in

individual repertoires. The numbers of unique BCR HC sequences and HCDR3 sequences are

counted at the nucleotide level.

Extended Data Table 1. Characteristics of Omicron RBD-reactive BCR HC clonotypes

Extended data

Extended Data Fig. 1

Extended Data Fig. 2

Extended Data Fig. 3

635 **Extended Data Fig. 4**

Extended Data Fig. 5

Extended Data Fig. 6

644　**Extended Data Fig. 7**

 Extended Data Table 1. Characteristics of Omicron RBD-reactive BCR HC clonotypes

BCR HC clonotype	Chronological repertoire	Vaccinee(s) with the corresponding BCR HC clonotype	Isotype (%)	No. of BCR HC sequences	SHM	Frequency (X 10^{-6})
	1st	35* (1)	M (100)	1	8	6.06
	2nd	36, 39 (2)	G1 (100)	4	0-1	3.27–327
	3rd	1*, 4*, 21, 22*, 34, 35*, 40, 48, 52* (9)	M (7.8), D (2.0), G3 (2.0), G1 (66.6), G2 (21.6)	51	0-15	1.64–302
27-60	4th	1*, 4*, 14, 28 (4)	M (20), G1 (80)	5	2-7	2.54–6.52
	5th	1*, 32, 35* (3)	G1 (83.3), G2 (16.7)	6	6-19	1.99–5.39
	6th	1*, 4*, 21*, 22*, 28, 30, 32, 33, 35*, 38, 39, 43, 45, 52* (14)	M (1.6), G1 (48.8), A1 (0.8), G2 (47.2), G4 (1.6)	125	0-22	1.84–381
35-08	6th	43 (1)	G1 (100)	16	8-25	3.32–242
35-15	3rd	43* (1)	G1 (100)	1	4	7.77
	6th	43* (1)	G1 (100)	7	21	3.32–6.65

	3rd	35* (1)	G1 (100)	1	0	4.80
	5th	35* (1)	M (50), G1 (50)	2	10	2.69
35-46	6th	35*, 50 (2)	G1 (77.3), A1 (18.2), G2 (4.5)	22	6-27	2.53–116
35-68	6th	43 (1)	G1 (100)	1	13	129
35-78	6th	43 (1)	G1 (100)	5	3-15	3.32–275
	2nd	7, 52 (2)	M (50), G1 (50)	2	5-11	2.23–2.57
43-09	3rd	23*, 44 (2)	M (50), D (50)	2	0-3	1.61–2.02
	6th	23*, 43 (2)	G1 (100)	5	7-17	3.32–259
43-27	6th	43 (1)	G1 (93.3), G2 (6.7)	15	2-13	3.32–242
43-34	3rd	43* (1)	M (50), D (50)	2	1	3.25–23.30
	6th	43* (1)	G1 (100)	20	9-22	3.32–246

* The Vaccinees having the identical clonotype in both the third and the sixth repertoires.