Temperature sensitivity of bat antibodies links metabolic state with antigen-recognition diversity

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Running title: Temperature diversifies bat antibodies

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Abstract

Bat immune system features multiple unique properties such as dampened inflammatory responses and increased tissue protection, explaining their long lifespan and tolerance to viral infections. Here, we demonstrated that body temperature fluctuations corresponding to different physiological states in bats exert a dramatic impact on their antibody repertoires. At elevated temperatures typical for flight, IgG from *Myotis myotis* and *Nyctalus noctula* showed elevated antigen binding strength and diversity, recognizing both pathogen-derived antigens and autoantigens. The opposite was observed at temperatures reflecting inactive physiological states. This behavior was not observed for IgG antibodies of human and other mammals, or antibodies of birds. Importantly, diversification of bat antibody specificities resulted in preferential recognition of damaged endothelial and epithelial cells, indicating an anti-inflammatory function. The temperature-sensitivity of bat antibodies was mediated by the variable regions of immunoglobulin molecules. Additionally, we revealed specific molecular features of bat IgG such as low thermodynamic stability and implication of hydrophobic interactions in antigen binding as well as high prevalence of polyreactivity. Overall, our results extend the understanding of bat tolerance to disease and inflammation and highlight the link between metabolism and immunity. This might have important repercussions for human health in the future.

Keywords:

Antibodies; Bats; Immune diversity; Bat immunology; Antigen binding; Body temperature; Metabolism; Disease tolerance; Immune homeostasis; Oxidative stress.

Introduction

Bats (order *Chiroptera*) represent the second largest order of mammals, after rodents, numbering more than 1400 species. They are the only mammals capable of powered flight and possess several exceptional physiological characteristics such as long lifespan, low incidence of age-related diseases, and elevated tolerance to viral infections [1]. Different bat species have been reported to harbor a particularly high diversity of viruses [2-6], some of which can cause severe diseases in humans [7]. Yet, they rarely succumb to immunopathology, thanks to some unique evolutionary adaptations of essential immune pathways [1,7-9]. For instance, bats feature a particular genetic and functional organization of the interferon (IFN) system that can manifest in constitutive tissue expression of IFNs, differential expression of IFN-stimulated genes, and altered kinetics of IFN responses [10,11]. Additionally, in contrast to primates and rodents, many bat species demonstrate impairments in the detection and response to damage-associate patterns (DAMPs), such as cytosolic DNA [12-15].

In addition to the genetic features of their immune components, physiological peculiarities of bats may also play a significant role in tolerance to viral infections. In particular, body temperature in bats can significantly fluctuate on a seasonal and quotidian basis, especially in temperate regions. During the metabolically demanding flight, it is usually around 40 °C, reaching up to 42 °C in some species [16], however, it can drop to ≈20 °C during shallow torpor [17] and even below <10 °C during hibernation [18,19]. Consequently, both high and low body temperatures have been proposed as mechanisms to control infection by providing suboptimal conditions for pathogen replication. In detail, the rise in temperature during flight creates a similar physiological condition as the febrile response in other mammals (so called "flight-as-fever" hypothesis), which is recognized as an evolutionary ancient immune defense mechanism [16,20]. On the other hand, even short torpor bouts have been shown to reduce viral growth rate sufficiently to control infection [17]. Yet, how temperature fluctuations affect the innate and

adaptive immune compartments of bats and how this can contribute to increased pathogen

tolerance is barely known.

In the present work, we aimed to fill this gap by rationally planning experiments based on the

specific life history traits and physiological characteristics of bats. In particular, we

concentrated on antibodies as the major component of the humoral immune response with

central roles in adaptive immune defense against pathogens and maintenance of immune

homeostasis [21]. Our data revealed an unconventional mechanism for diversification of immune

specificity of IgG antibodies driven by temperature in two bat species, the Greater moused-

eared bat (*Myotis myotis,* Borkhausen, 1797) and the Common noctule (*Nyctalus noctula,*

Schreber, 1774). Additionally, we describe unique physicochemical features of bat antibodies

that might explain temperature sensitivity. Finally, we identified potential immune defense,

homeostatic, and anti-inflammatory functions of this phenomenon that contribute to better

understand the mechanisms of the elevated disease tolerance in bats.

Results

Temperature modulates the antigen-binding function of bat IgG antibodies

As a consequence of their specific diurnal and seasonal cycles, bats experience large

fluctuations in body temperature, and so does their immune system [9,16,18,19,22-26]. This might be

particularly relevant to antibodies as they rely on molecular recognition to provide antigen

specificity, a process that is strongly affected by a variety of physicochemical factors. Thus, we

investigated antigen-binding properties of bat antibodies at three different temperatures: 4, 22

and 42 °C, reflecting physiological states of hibernation, shallow torpor, and active flight,

respectively. To this end, we purified total IgG from sera of two bat species, *M. myotis* and *N.*

noctula, as well as from healthy humans and 4 other mammal species. Next, we analyzed

antibody binding as a function of temperature to panels of unrelated mammalian and pathogen-derived proteins and LPS using high-throughput ELISA (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Fig. 1 and. 2). The results revealed only negligible reactivity of polyclonal IgG from both bat species to studied antigens at 4 and 22 °C. However, the same IgG samples demonstrated significant broadening of their antigen recognition potential at 42 °C (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Fig. 1 and 2). At high temperature, bat antibodies augmented their reactivity to almost all antigens in the panel, yet four proteins were identified as preferentially recognized outliers: NS1 protein of tick-borne encephalitis virus (TBEV), rabies virus glycoprotein, measles virus hemagglutinin, and thyroglobulin (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Fig. 1b). In contrast, immune specificity of human IgG, either pooled or from individual donors, was not significantly affected by temperature (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Fig. 1b), whereby it demonstrated significant (and independent from temperature within the range of 4 – 42 °C) binding to LysM (*E. faecalis*), LPS (*E. coli*), SARS-CoV-2 Spike (S) protein, and influenza virus haemagglutinin (HA) (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Fig. 1a and Fig. 2). Notably, at 42 °C, human IgG demonstrated a tendency for reduced binding to LPS. Similarly, temperature did not affect (or affected only negligibly) the binding of IgG purified from sera of other mammalian species – mouse, rabbit, goat, and cattle (Supplementary Fig. 2), or the binding of IgY from four bird species (Supplementary Fig. 3). Notably, birds, much like bats have been reported to increase their metabolic rates and heat production during flight [27].

Next, we applied surface plasmon resonance to quantify the effect of temperature on antigen-binding properties of bat antibodies. We assessed antibody binding to the two antigens recognized with the highest intensity in the previous ELISA experiment: NS1 protein of TBEV and rabies virus glycoprotein (Fig. 1b). The real-time kinetic analysis demonstrated that binding of IgG from *M. myotis* to both proteins progressively increased as a function of temperature. At temperatures within the range of 4 – 16 °C, binding was barely detectable even

at the highest antibody concentrations. In contrast, at the highest temperature achievable with the instrument (40 °C), interaction of bat IgG was considerable and subjectable to global kinetic analysis (Supplementary Fig. 4). These showed that bat IgG bound to NS1 protein and rabies virus glycoprotein with physiologically relevant values of apparent binding affinity (K_D values of 26 and 189 nM, respectively; Fig. 1b and Supplementary Fig. 4).

To understand whether reactivity of bat antibodies is still affected by temperature in a complex biological system, we also performed ELISA experiments using whole sera (Fig. 1c). Again, binding of bat IgG to NS1 of TBEV and rabies virus glycoprotein profoundly increased with temperature, in contrast to binding of human IgG to SARS-CoV-2 S protein and influenza virus HA. (Fig. 1a). These results were in complete agreement with our previous findings obtained with purified IgG. However, we noted that reactivity of bat antibodies to the blocking agent was elevated in complete sera as compared to purified IgG (Supplementary. Fig. 5). This could be explained by the possible binding of immunoglobulin classes other than IgG present in complete sera.

To further confirm that temperature sensitivity of bat antibodies is a species-specific and not an individual trait, we used 12 additional serum pools from *M. myotis* to test IgG binding to NS1 of TBEV. As expected, at temperature typical for high metabolic rate (42 °C), there was a marked increase in IgG binding to the antigen (Supplementary. Fig. 6a). Importantly, the phenomenon was observed in sera collected both before and after hibernation (Supplementary. Fig. 6b), a period associated with a significant suppression of immune functions and a decrease in antibody production [28] .

Finally, using immunofluorescence, we elucidated reactivity of bat IgG to HEp-2 cells, which are human cells traditionally used to detect the presence of autoantibodies. Our results indicated only negligible binding of both human and bat (*M. myotis*) IgG to HEp-2 at 22 °C, with bat antibodies demonstrating higher reactivity (Fig. 1d). However, at 42 °C, bat antibodies

markedly increased their binding to different cellular structures, both cytosolic and nuclear, a typical characteristic of autoantibodies (Fig. 1d); this was not observed with human IgG. In addition, elevated temperature significantly increased the reactivity to HEp-2 cells of IgG purified from three other bat species: *Nyctalus noctula, Myotis blythii* (Lasser mouse-eared bat), and *Myotis capaccinii* (Long-fingered bat) (Supplementary. Fig. 7).

Collectively, these results show that bat IgG (purified or in whole sera) considerably increases its antigen-binding reactivity towards pathogen-derived and mammalian antigens at temperatures typical for high metabolic rate (observed during flight). Conversely, a raise in temperature does not change the reactivity of antibodies from human, other mammals, as well as birds.

Temperature broadens diversity of bat antibody antigen specificities

In order to obtain more integrative insights about the effect of temperature on bat (and human) antibody repertoires, we applied protein array technology. Human proteome arrays HuProt™ display >17 000 different proteins, thus allowing the study of immune reactivity to a huge diversity of targets with different sequences and structural features. In accordance with the previous results (Figure 1), our pool of purified IgG from *M. myotis* manifested only negligible binding to protein targets at 22 °C. However, when the same pool was probed at 42 °C, we observed a marked broadening in the repertoire of recognized proteins (Fig. 2a). At elevated temperatures, bat IgG recognized a significant fraction of tested proteins (>2400 or ≈ 14 % of all proteins) with a high binding intensity (MFI > 1000), whereby only 19 proteins were recognized with a high binding intensity at 22 °C. In contrast, temperature affected binding diversity of human IgG to a considerably lower extent (Fig. 2a). At 42 °C, human antibodies recognized 134 proteins with a high binding intensity – a more limited increase in antigen-

binding diversity as compared to 22 °C where human antibodies interacted strongly with 8

proteins (Fig. 2a). The considerable difference in the diversity of bat and human immune

specificities is particularly obvious when plotted together (Fig. 2b): even though at 22 °C bat

antibodies displayed slightly elevated immune reactivity as compared to human, at 42 °C a

considerable asymmetry in the protein binding landscape was evident (Fig. 2b). Finally, the

plots of Z-scores indicated that at high temperature, a larger set of proteins was recognized with

significantly higher than average binding intensity by bat IgG as compared to human IgG (Fig.

2c). Similar results were obtained from *N. noctula* where antigen binding diversity of pooled

IgG also considerably increased at 42 °C as compared to 22 °C (Supplementary. Fig. 8).

These data indicate that bat antibodies can significantly broaden their antigen binding diversity

at temperatures typical for active metabolic state. On the contrary, antigen binding diversity of

human antibody repertoire is much less affected by temperature variation.

Temperature differentially affects Fab- and Fc-dependent interactions of bat antibodies

Next, we performed experiments to rule out possible non-specific effects of temperature on bat

IgG molecules. First, our aim was to establish if other bat proteins change their specificity as a

function of temperature. Thus, binding of serum albumin purified from *M. myotis* to the

proteins available in a crude extract of *M. myotis* epithelial cells was not affected by an increase

in temperature, contrary to the behavior of IgG purified from the same serum pool

(Supplementary. Fig. 9). With this experiment we showed that the broadened reactivity as a

function of temperature is not typical for all bat proteins.

To demonstrate further that temperature specifically affects the antigen-binding region of bat

antibodies, we generated F(ab')$_2$ fragments from bat IgG by enzymatic digestion with the

bacterial protease IdeS (Fig. 3a). As with whole IgG, binding of bat F(ab')$_2$ to distinct antigens

strongly increased as a function of temperature (Fig. 3b).

Next, we focused on the effect of temperature on interactions mediated by the Fc portion of

IgG molecules. Comparison of sequences of the constant portions of IgG1 of *M. myotis* and

human showed relatively high degree of homology (ca. 67 %, Supplementary Fig. 10). It is

noteworthy that the identity of this region between *M. myotis* and murine IgG subclasses was

lower (ca. 58 % for murine IgG2b, Supplementary Fig. 10). The high sequence identity of their

constant portions can explain the potential of human Fc-binding proteins, such as neonatal Fc

receptor (FcRn), to bind both human and bat IgG with high affinities [29]. This allowed us to

compare the effect of temperature on the Fc-mediated interactions of bat (*M. myotis* and *N.*

noctula) and human IgG with distinct Fc-specific proteins (Fig. 3c). Real-time binding profiles

and kinetic analyses of interactions with complement protein C1q (Fig. 3d), FcRn receptor

(Fig. 3e) and protein G (Fig. 3f) showed that temperature negatively impacts binding of all

studied proteins to both human and bat IgG (Fig. 3d, e, f) – an effect opposite to the one

observed for the Fab-dependent interactions.

Collectively, the results obtained indicate that the phenomenon of increasing antigen binding

diversity in bat IgG at elevated temperatures is specifically associated with the variable regions

of antibodies.

Particular physicochemical qualities of bat antibodies can contribute to their temperature

sensitivity

To get an insight into the molecular mechanism of the noncanonical diversification of immune

specificities in bat antibodies, we studied their molecular properties. First, we estimated the

thermodynamic stability of IgG molecules using a thermal shift assay. The unfolding

temperature (or melting point Tm) of *M. myotis* IgG was significantly lower than that of human

IgG (Fig. 4a), indicating lower thermodynamic stability. This was also confirmed using another

bat species, *Myotis capaccinii*, (Supplementary Fig. 11). It is important to note that this assay

measures global stability of IgG and cannot distinguish the difference in stability of different

domains or fragments of the molecule.

Additionally, we compared the overall hydrophobicity of IgG from human and *M. myotis* using

hydrophobic interaction chromatography. The resulting elution profiles indicated that the

overall hydrophobicity of bat and human IgG molecules showed negligible difference (Fig.

4b). This is in accordance with the relatively high sequence similarity of bat and human Fc

fragments (Supplementary Fig. 10). The estimation of bulk antibody hydrophobicity, however,

cannot provide details about the implications of different types of non-covalent forces during

the interaction with an antigen. To this end, we studied the effect of ionic strength on the

antibody-antigen binding process (Fig. 4c). The IgG from the two bat species, *M. myotis* and

N. noctula, showed specific V-shaped responses to variations in NaCl concentration upon

binding to distinct antigens (Fig. 4c). This pattern was different from the one observed in human

antibodies. Interaction of bat antibodies with antigens was favored in an environment with both

low and high ionic strength. This implies antigen binding involving both polar and hydrophobic

components (Fig. 4c). Notably, these data also suggest that at physiological concentration of

NaCl (0.15 M), the contribution of polar interactions is highly reduced and binding to antigens

is primarily driven by hydrophobic forces (Fig. 4c).

To better understand the difference in binding behavior of bat and human antibodies, we

analyzed the sequences of human and bat antibody variable regions. As annotated V_H family

gene sequences are not yet available for *M. myotis* or any of our study species, we used those

from a previous work on the closely related *Myotis lucifugus* [30]. Sequence comparison of bat

(n=75) and human (n=56) V_H3 genes (the most frequently used in human) revealed no

difference in their overall organization. However, *in silico* analysis (computing the GRAVY

index) showed that heavy chain variable regions of bat antibodies were characterized by

significantly higher hydrophobicity (less negative GRAVY index value, Fig. 4d), most evident

in framework region 1 and CDR H2 (Fig. 4d).

Taken together, the results underline several physicochemical differences in bat antibodies that

are not typically found in their human counterparts. These specific qualities might be associated

with untypical binding properties of bat antibodies as a function of temperature.

Higher prevalence of polyreactive antibodies in bat immune repertoires is associated with

temperature sensitivity

Previous studies on murine monoclonal IgG and human Fab fragments have demonstrated that

polyreactive antibodies (or Fab), contrary to monoreactive ones, bind to an increased number

of antigens at high temperatures [31,32]. To contextualize these findings within our study, we

analyzed the reactivity of ED38, a widely used human monoclonal polyreactive antibody, as

well as of two monoreactive antibodies: VRC01 (specific for gp120 of HIV-1) and S309

(binding to S proteins of both SARS-CoV-1 and SARS-CoV-2). We performed an ELISA at 4,

22 and 42 °C using the same panel of antigens that we used for our bat IgG experiments (Fig.

1a). As expected, the polyreactive ED38 significantly increased its binding to most antigens as

a function of temperature (Fig 5a and Supplementary Fig. 12). An opposite effect was even

observed in the case of monocreactive IgG1 (VRC01), where binding to gp120 slightly

decreased at 42 °C (Fig. 5a). To test whether temperature-sensitivity of bat IgGs was mediated

by elevated prevalence of polyreactive antibodies, we applied a molecular probe, dinitrophenol

(DNP) conjugated to BSA. This has been proven reliable for the estimation of overall levels of

polyreactive antibodies in antibody repertoires [33,34]. Indeed, IgG from *M. myotis* and *N. noctula*

demonstrated a considerably higher reactivity (2-3-fold) to immobilized DNP at 22 °C as

compared to human IgG (Fig. 5b). The same probe successfully distinguished polyreactive

from monoreactive antibodies (Fig. 5c). Similar results were obtained with additional probe for

polyreactivity – the hydrophobic hapten protoporphyrin IX (Supplementary Fig. 13), as well

as by immunoblot and immunofluorescence analyses (Fig. 5d and 5e). There, IgG from *M.*

myotis and *N. noctula* demonstrated high reactivity to proteins present in a *M. myotis* epithelial

cell lysate at 22 °C (MmNep, Fig. 5d). Notably, this binding further increased at lower ionic

strength (Fig. 5d) – another behavior typical for polyreactive antibodies[35]. Polyreactivity and

autoreactivity of bat IgG were also evident by the presence of substantial binding to autologous

epithelial cells (Fig. 5e). Thus, this interaction was detectable even at 22 °C; albeit at

significantly lower extent as compared to elevated temperature (Fig. 5e and 5f, and Fig. 7), In

contrast, human IgG bound only negligibly to human cells at both 22 and 42 °C (Fig 1d, Fig.

6).

Overall, these data suggest that bat antibody repertoires contain considerably higher levels of

polyreactive antibodies. This could partly account for the diversification of their antigen-

binding reactivity at high temperatures.

Elevated temperature preferentially triggers reactivity of bat antibodies to dead cells

To gain insight into the physiological role of temperature-sensitive IgG, we investigated the

capacity of bat and human antibodies to opsonize human endothelial cells. The marked

intensification of bat metabolic rate during flight is associated not only with increased body

temperature but also with the release of ROS, which can result in cell death and liberation of

various endogenous molecules with pro-inflammatory activity (DAMPs) [1]. The temperature-

dependent augmentation of antibody reactivity to mammalian proteins may serve as a

mechanism for clearing damaged or dead cells, which possess potent pro-inflammatory

potential. To test this hypothesis, we modeled induction of cell death by oxidative stress

through the exposure of human endothelial cells (HMEC-1) to hydrogen peroxide. The gating

strategy for identification of necrotic endothelial cells is presented in Figure 6a. Labeling cells

with annexin V and propidium iodide clearly indicated that exposure to oxidative stress

triggered endothelial cell death. To assess the impact of temperature on the reactivity of *M.*

myotis and human IgG to cells with different viability, we incubated antibodies at 22 and 42 °C

and tested their capacity to opsonize alive and dead cells by flow cytometry (Fig. 6b). Both

human and bat IgG exhibited low reactivity to alive HMEC-1 cells, which remained largely

unchanged when incubation was performed at high temperature (Fig. 6b). Antibody reactivity

to dead cells at 22 °C was also low for both human and bat samples, yet bat antibodies

demonstrated a significant increase in binding (Fig. 6c). In contrast, at 42 °C, binding of bat

IgG to dead cells was significantly augmented (Fig. 6b and 6c), while reactivity of human IgG

was not modified by the increase in temperature.

To extend these studies with bat autologous cells, we evaluated the reactivity of *M. myotis* IgG

to live and dead epithelial cells from the same species (Fig. 7). Those experiments demonstrated

the capacity of bat IgG to bind to live and dead cells at 22 °C (Fig. 7b), which further confirmed

the high frequency of polyreactivity and autoreactivity in bat antibody repertoires (Fig. 5).

Importantly, at elevated temperature (42 °C), bat antibodies significantly increased their

binding to dead but not to alive epithelial cells (Fig. 7b and 7c). These results are consistent

with the data obtained with endothelial cells (Fig. 6).

Together, these data indicate that bat antibodies acquire preferential reactivity to dead

endothelial and epithelial cells at elevated temperatures. This likely facilitates the efficient

opsonization and rapid clearance of such cells during a metabolically active physiological state,

thereby exerting an important anti-inflammatory effect.

Discussion

The present study draws a direct link between specific life history traits and physiological characteristics of bats and the function of their immune compartments. In particular, we demonstrated that temperature fluctuations, accompanying daily and seasonal cycles of bats, can regulate the extent of antigen binding strength and diversity in their antibody repertoires. By elucidating the reactivity of IgG antibodies from two temperate bat species, the Greater mouse-eared bat (*Myotis myotis*) and the Common noctule (*Nyctalus noctula)*, we found that elevated temperatures (40-42 °C), typical for the active metabolic state during flight, significantly broadened their spectrum of recognized antigens. On the other hand, at temperatures representing inactive metabolic states (shallow torpor, 22 °C, or hibernation, 4 °C), diversity of antigen binding specificities of bat antibodies substantially collapsed. The same temperature changes did not modulate binding diversity of human antibodies or antibodies from other mammalian and bird species. Of note, these results are derived from several independent experiments with multiple bat serum pools, collected at different times of the year (including before and after hibernation) from three different locations. This reliably proves that antibody temperature-sensitivity is a stable trait in our study species. Furthermore, the application of highly diverse protein microarrays (containing >17000 proteins) in the study indicates that the observed phenomenon is not limited to a particular type of antigens and might have a broad physiological relevance. Lastly, obtaining equivalent results from species belonging to two genera with distinct life history traits indicates that antibody temperature-sensitivity might be widely distributed among order Chiroptera.

The study also demonstrated that the sensitivity of bat antibodies to temperature fluctuations is mediated by the antigen-binding fragment of the immunoglobulin molecule but not by regions in its constant portion. Previous research demonstrated that interactions of murine polyreactive

antibodies, or human polyreactive Fab fragments, were exclusively augmented at high

temperatures in contrast to those of monoreactive antibodies (or Fab fragments) [31,32], an effect

that we confirmed here with human monoclonal IgGs. Indeed, our data from different

orthogonal approaches indicates that bat IgG repertoires have a higher prevalence of

polyreactive antibodies as compared to human repertoires. This likely contributes to

temperature-sensitivity and antibody repertoire diversification in these species. Yet, we do not

exclude the implication of other (not mutually exclusive) mechanisms, especially in the cases

of antigens recognized with high binding affinities (NS1 of TBEV and rabies virus

glycoprotein). Indeed, our biochemical analyses revealed some unusual physicochemical

features of bat IgG, such as significantly lower thermodynamic stability and distinctive

implication of both polar and hydrophobic forces in the antigen binding process. The

thermodynamic stability of proteins is determined by the complexity of noncovalent interaction

networks maintaining the protein fold. Thus, polypeptide chains of less stable proteins are

usually less tightly packed and characterized by increased structural dynamics [36,37], which can

be further enhanced as a function of temperature. This is probably the case of bat antibodies

where higher flexibility of the antigen-binding site probably allows increased binding

adaptability, recognition of a large number of antigens [38-40], or targeting epitopes difficult to

recognize by conventional antibodies [41]. Another physiochemical quality of bat IgG is their

unique reliance on polar and hydrophobic forces for antigen binding upon variation of ionic

strength. Thus, despite the presence of polar groups in antigen binding sites, at physiologically

relevant ionic strength, bat antibody-antigen interaction seems to be mainly driven by

hydrophobic forces. This agrees with the sequence analyses of immunoglobulin genes showing

that some regions in heavy chain variable domains (framework region 1 and CDRH2) in bats

have significantly higher hydrophobicity as compared to their human counterparts. Together,

these findings may explain the temperature effects as it was found that molecular interactions

that are mainly driven by hydrophobic forces increase their strength as function of temperature

[42,43] – a fact in full concordance with our data.

The unconventional mechanism for control of antigen binding diversity, proposed here, could

further explain disease tolerance in bats and may also have other important biological

repercussions. Immunogenetic studies have demonstrated that the diversity of functional gene

segments encoding variable immunoglobulin regions in bats is similar to that of humans and

mice [30,44-46]. Thus, the potential repertoire of bat antibody specificities seems sufficiently large

to cope with high versatility of pathogens, without the need for any extraordinary

diversification strategies. Yet, immune reactivity of bat antibodies that correlates to (and is

controlled by) the state of metabolic activity might be biologically meaningful by providing a

physiological adaptation for optimizing immune response timing. For instance, reducing

antibody reactivity at low temperatures might be an additional strategy to economize energy

and resources during phases of inactivity and suppressed metabolism, i.e., daily torpor or

seasonal hibernation [47,48]. As pathogen replication is severely inhibited at low temperatures

typical for torpor, some immune components may not be necessary to control infection during

this period. This is particularly true for adaptive immune responses that are known to be one

of the most energy-demanding processes in mammals [49,50]. On the other hand, substantial

antibody diversification observed at high temperatures may provide bats with instant protection

upon exiting torpor and returning to body temperatures that are favorable for pathogen

replication. Such acting at the first line of immune defense is typical for polyreactive antibodies

that allow the immune system to rapidly cover a practically infinite antigenic space, albeit with

lower affinity. Interestingly, however, bat IgG also shows a temperature-dependent rise in

binding strength to specific antigens as exemplified by our ELISA and real-time kinetic

experiments with NS1 protein of TBEV and rabies virus glycoprotein. Both have been

previously detected in the bat species used in our study [51-54]. Therefore, the apparent binding

affinity of bat IgG to them at high temperature may indicate immune repertoire shaping as a

result of coevolution with these or other related viruses.

Another important aspect of bat antibody temperature-sensitivity is the potential to control

inflammation induced by the accumulation of dead cells and the release of DAMPs during

active metabolic states. This is in full concordance with previous research suggesting the

evolution of powered flight as a main driver of immune system evolution in bats [9,55,56]. Indeed,

flight in bats is associated with a substantial increase in metabolic rate (>30 folds), rise in body

temperature, and intensification of oxidative processes that can lead to cell damage and the

release of various DAMP molecules such as DNA, misfolded proteins, oxidized phospholipids,

ATP, etc [1,22,57,58]. As an adaptation to such metabolic stress, the activity of innate pathways

sensing these molecules is reduced in bats, thus protecting them from perpetual inflammation

[8,9,55] – a phenomenon that has also been associated with bat tolerance to viral infections [9,59].

Our study provides yet another anti-inflammatory mechanism in bats by showing that bat IgG

preferentially binds and opsonizes dead human endothelial or bat epithelial cells while sparing

living cells at elevated temperatures. Thus, the increase in antibody reactivity during active

metabolic states probably contributes to the clearance of apoptotic cells and damaged

macromolecules *in vivo*. The distinction between healthy and damaged cells by bat antibodies

can be based on one or several hallmarks typical for dying eukaryotic cells – changes in

membrane phospholipids composition, membrane permeabilization, appearance of cryptic and

oxidized epitopes, etc [60, 61, 62]. Studies in mouse models and humans have confirmed the

important role of natural polyreactive antibodies in the maintenance of immune homeostasis

through the clearance of damaged or dead cells [60,63-65]. This is in accordance with our data

showing that a considerable fraction of bat antibodies are polyreactive.

Taken together, the findings from this study uncover new features of bat immune system and

provide additional explanation of bat tolerance to inflammation and disease. We also depict an

alternative mechanism for diversification of immune specificity of antibodies in general and

highlight the link between metabolism and immunity. Further elucidating the mechanism of

temperature sensitivity of bat antibodies will extend our understanding about evolution of

immune system in mammals and can lead to practical discoveries with important repercussions

for human health.

Methods

Bat capture and blood sampling

For this study, we used samples from 4 bat species from two genera: Greater moused-eared bat

(*Myotis myotis*), Lesser mouse-eared bat (*Myotis blythii*), Long-fingered bat (*Myotis*

capaccinii), and Common noctule (*Nyctalus noctula*). Greater moused-eared bats were caught

at Ivanova voda cave, situated in Western Rhodopes mountain, Bulgaria (N41.894, E24.880),

in April 2021 (n = 40), October 2021 (n = 45), May 2022 (n = 29) and October 2023 (n=20) as

well as in Orlova chuka cave, situated in Northern Bulgaria (N 43.5932, E 25.9601), in

September 2023 (n=50). Lesser mouse-eared bats were caught in Ivanova voda in October 2023

(n=18) and in Orlova Chuka cave in September 2023 (n=10). Long-fingered bats were also

caught at Ivanova voda in April 2021 (n = 3), May 2022 (n = 20), and October 2023 (n=12).

Noctule bats were caught at Devetashkata cave, situated in North Central Bulgaria (N43.233,

E24.885), in June 2022 (n=18) and August 2023 (n=71). All bats were caught at cave entrances

at sunset using a harptrap (for Ivanova voda and Orlova chuka) or mistnets (for Devetashkata

cave), then they were kept in individual cotton bags until processing. Their sex, size, weight,

and age group (adult/juvenile) were noted. For species identification, we followed Dietz and

Von Helversen (2004). The research was carried out under permits by the Bulgarian

Biodiversity Act (No 830/19.09.2020 and No 927/04.04.2022).

Blood samples were taken from the uropatagium vein by puncturing it with a sterile disposable

insulin needle and collecting the few drops of leaked blood (most often below 100 µL) using a

sterile disposable hematocrit capillary or a pipette with sterile disposable tips. Blood sampling

of this kind is not supposed to affect survival rates of bats [66]. Blood serum was immediately

separated from plasma by centrifugation for 15 to 30 mins at 2000 rpm. Separated sera were

then frozen at -20 °C. Each sampled bat was given water and mealworms (*Tenebrio*) to

compensate for blood loss when appropriate. We minimized handling time to reduce stress on

the animals. All researchers used personal protective equipment (masks, gloves) and non-

disposable instruments and working surfaces were disinfected between each animal. To obtain

enough material for the experiments, usually we pooled sera from 3 to 10 individuals directly

in the field or in the lab.

Samples from human and other species

In the study we used fresh AB serum samples from ten anonymised healthy human donors,

obtained under the ethical convention between INSERM with Etablissement Français du Sang

#18/EFS/033. Pooled sera from different mammals: mouse (*Mus musculus*), rabbit

(*Oryctolagus cuniculus*), goat (*Capra hircus*), and cattle (*Bos taurus*) were obtained from

Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA).

The sera from four bird species: snowy owl (*Bubo scandiacus*, n=2), Egyptian vulture

(*Neophron percnopterus*, n=2), Eurasian griffon vulture (*Gyps fulvus*, n=2), and Carrion crow

(*Corvus corone*, n=4), are part of the Zoo de la Palmyre (Les Mathes, Charente-Maritime,

France) serobank used as part of a study designed to estimate the circulation of WNV and

USUV flaviviruses in captive avifauna. This study was approved by the Ethics Committee for

clinical Research (ComERC) of Veterinary school of Alfort (EnVA) (Agreement number: 2023-

06-23).

IgG purification

Total IgG from human, bat (*M. myotis*, *M. blythii*, *M. capaccinii* and *N. noctula*), and other

mammalian sera was purified using Melon™ Gel IgG Spin Purification Kit (Thermo Fischer

Scientific, Waltham, MA) according to the manufacturer's protocol, with the sole exception

that centrifugation was performed for 30 sec instead of 10 sec. Concentration of purified IgG

was measured by a Nanodrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Fischer Scientific) and its purity was

confirmed by SDS-PAGE performed in reducing and non-reducing conditions.

Alternatively, IgG from *M. myotis* and *N. noctula* was purified using protein G agarose

(Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Purification of bat albumin

Albumin from *M. myotis* was purified from the eluate of Melon™ Gel matrix obtained after

exposure of the matrix to PBS after purification of IgG. Samples were diluted in a large volume

(5.5 × excess) of binding buffer (50 mM KH_2PO_4, pH 7.0) and applied on a 1 mL HiTrap Blue

HP column (Cytiva, Life Sciences, Wilmington, DE) previously equilibrated with binding

buffer. The column was washed with 30 mL binding buffer and elution was obtained with a

linear gradient of 1.5 M potassium chloride. Albumin purity was confirmed by SDS-PAGE.

The bat albumin was biotinylated using EZ-Link® NHS-SS-Biotin (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Ref#21441) following a protocol recommended by the manufacturer. In brief, albumin (19.6

μM) was exposed to 10 × excess of EZ-Link® NHS-SS-Biotin (10 mM stock in DMSO) for 1

hour at room temperature. The reaction was stopped by adding 1M Tris pH 8 to a final

concentration of 20 mM.

Generation of bat F(ab')₂ fragments

Purified IgG from *M. myotis* was digested by recombinant IdeS protease from *Streptococcus pyogenes* (kindly provided by Dr. Sébastien Lacroix-Desmazes, Centre de Recherche des Cordeliers, Paris France). The reaction was performed in PBS at a 1:25 (enzyme:substrate) ratio for 16 hours at 25 °C. After, the reaction mixture was additionally incubated with protein G agarose (Thermo Fisher Scientific) to remove undigested IgG and Fc fragments. For every 100 µl of sample, 25 µl of protein G-agarose gel slurry was applied.

ELISA assays

- *Temperature dependence of antigen binding of bat and human IgG*

Thermo Scientific™ Nunc 384-Well Clear Polystyrene Plates (Thermo Fischer Scientific) were coated overnight at 4 °C (or alternatively for 2 hours at room temperature, 22-24 °C) with the following molecules: human Factor VIII (Helixate® FS, CSL Behring, King of Prussia, PA); human Factor IX; human von Willebrand factor (both from LFB, Les Ulis, France); human insulin, human hemopexin, human hemoglobin, porcine thyroglobulin, bovine histone III, equine cytochrome C, lipopolysaccharide from *Escherichia coli* O55:B5 (all from Sigma-Aldrich); LysM protein (from *Enterococcus faecalis*, kindly provided by Dr. Stephane Mesnage, University of Sheffield, UK); Asp f1 protein (from *Aspergillus fumigatus*, kindly provided by Dr. Vishu Kumar Aimanianda, Institute Pasteur, Paris); spike protein of SARS-CoV-2 (S protein, Wuhan variant), receptor-binding domain (RBD, SARS-CoV-2 Wuhan variant), human ACE2 (the three proteins were kindly provided by Dr. Hugo Mouquet, Institute Pasteur, Paris, France); gp120 from HIV-1 (strain CN54, kindly provided by NIH AIDS Reagents Program); rabies virus glycoprotein, Ebola Zaire virus glycoprotein, Nipah virus

glycoprotein, Hendra virus glycoprotein, NS1 protein of tick-born encephalitis virus (TBEV),

measles virus mosaic hemagglutinin, HA(ΔTM)(A/California/04/2009)(H1N1), hepatitis D

virus small Ag (HDVAg), Dengue virus 2 Capsid Protein, Chikungunya virus Capsid protein,

HPV-16 L2 protein, Antigen Mpt70 (*M. tuberculosis*/H37Rv), Antigen 85-B (*M.*

tuberculosis/H37Rv), and p47 (*T. pallidum*/Nichols strain). All viral and bacterial proteins

listed afterwards gp120 were obtained from Immune Technology Corp. (New York, NY, USA).

Plates were incubated with proteins usually diluted to 5 μg/ml in PBS; insulin and LPS were

diluted at 10 μg/ml. After the coating step, plates were blocked by incubation for 2 hours with

PBS containing 0.25 % Tween 20. Alternatively, other blocking agents were applied: 1 %

solution of bovine serum albumin (Sigma-Aldrich) in PBS or 1 × solution of synthetic block

(Thermo Fisher Scientific) in PBS. Plates were then incubated with: IgG purified from pooled

sera of two bat species, *M. myotis* and *N. noctula*; IgG purified from pooled sera of healthy

humans; IgG purified from pooled sera of other mammals: mouse (*M. musculus*), rabbit (*O.*

cuniculus), goat (*C. hircus*), and cattle (*B. taurus*); and human monoclonal IgG1 antibodies

ED38 (highly polyreactive), VRC01 (specific for HIV-1 gp120), and S309 (specific for RBD

of SARS-CoV-2), serving as controls. Polyclonal IgG from human, bats, and other mammals

was typically diluted to 0.07 mg/ml (or wherever indicated to 0.02 or 0.1 mg/ml) in PBS

containing 0.05 % Tween 20 (T-PBS). Monoclonal IgG antibodies were diluted to

concentrations of 0.01 and 0.07 mg/ml in T-PBS. In a specific experimental setting, reactivity

of IgG in whole sera from *M. myotis* or human were tested. To this end, sera were diluted 200

× in T-PBS. In another experiment, plates were incubated with sera from different species of

birds: snowy owl (*B. scandiacus)*, Egyptian vulture (*N. percnopterus)*, Eurasian griffon vulture

(*G. fulvus)*, and Carrion crow (*C. corone)*, diluted 100 × in T-PBS. The purified polyclonal IgG

from bats, humans, other mammals or monoclonal human IgG1 antibodies as well as diluted

sera from human, bats and birds, were incubated for 2 hours with immobilized antigens in

parallel at three different temperatures: 4 °C, 22 °C, and 42 °C (one plate per temperature).

After, the microtiter plates were washed 5 × with T-PBS and then incubated for 1 hour at room

temperature with 2 µg/ml of biotinylated recombinant protein G (Pierce™, Thermo Fisher

Scientific) for recognition of IgG antibodies from human, bats, and other mammalian species.

Following thorough washing, streptavidin conjugated with HRP (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher

Scientific) diluted 100 × was added and incubated for 30 min at room temperature. For

detection of bird's IgY antibodies, plates were incubated with goat anti-chicken IgY-HRP

(Southern Biotech, AL, USA), diluted 3000 × in T-PBS. This antibody showed high cross-

reactivity for IgY from different bird species. After thorough washing with T-PBS, reactivity

of antibodies was revealed by adding peroxidase substrate, *o*-phenylenediamine

dihydrochloride (Sigma-Adrich). After stopping the reaction with 2M HCl, the absorbance was

measured with a microplate reader (Infinite 200 Pro, Tecan, Männedorf, Switzerland) at 492

nm.

-   *Titration of bat and human sera*

NS1 protein of tick-born encephalitis virus (TBEV), rabies virus glycoprotein, influenza

hemagglutinin, and SARS-CoV-2 S protein were immobilized at 2 µg/ml on 96-well

polystyrene microtiter plates Nunc MaxiSorp™ (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Following

blocking with 1 × synthetic block (Thermo Fisher Scientific) in PBS, whole sera from human

and *M. myotis* was serially diluted (starting from 60 × to 1920 ×) in T-PBS and incubated for 2

hours at 4 °C, 22 °C, 42 °C with immobilized antigens (human serum with SARS-CoV-2 S

protein and influenza A hemagglutinin; bat serum with TBEV NS1 and rabies virus

glycoprotein). Detection of bound bat IgGs was done by incubation for 1 hour at room

temperature with mouse anti-bat immunoglobulin (L-chain specific, clone BT1-4F10, Novus

Biologicals, CO, USA) diluted to 1 µg/ml in T-PBS followed by incubation for 1 hour with

goat-anti mouse IgG conjugated with HRP (Southern Biotech) diluted 2000 × in T-PBS.

Binding of human IgG was detected by 1 hour incubation at room temperature with anti-human

IgG, conjugated with HRP (clone JDC-10, Southern Biotech) diluted 3000 × in T-PBS.

Succeeding steps of the experiment were identical to those described for the previous ELISA

setting.

- *Comparison of the reactivity of bat albumin and bat IgG with crude extract of bat*

epithelial cells

Total lysate of the nasal epithelial cell line (MmNep) [67] of *M. myotis* was prepared by freezing

thoroughly washed with PBS cells (6.3×10^7 cells in 1 ml PBS). After thawing, the suspension

was immediately sonicated and centrifugated at 10000 rpm for 10 min. The total protein

concentration of the supernatant was determined by Nanodrop. The crude extract was coated

on Nunc 384-Well Clear Polystyrene Plates (Thermo Fischer Scientific) at a concentration of

20 µg/ml in PBS for 2 hours at room temperature. Plates were blocked by a solution of 0.25 %

of Tween 20 in PBS. Purified IgG and biotinylated albumin from *M. myotis,* were incubated at

serial dilutions ranging 200 – 3.125 nM in T-PBS for 1 hour. Identical samples were incubated

at 4 °C, 22 °C, and 42 °C. After washing, plates were incubated for 1 hour with 2 µg/ml

biotinylated protein G in T-PBS for detection of bat IgG. The IgG and albumin reactivity to

cell antigens was detected by incubation for 1 hour with streptavidin-HRP (Thermo Fischer

Scientific) diluted 100 × in T-PBS. Succeeding experimental steps were identical to the

principal ELISA experiment described above.

- *Temperature sensitivity of antigen binding of F(ab')₂ fragments from bat IgG*

Thermo Scientific™ Nunc 384-Well Clear Polystyrene Plates (Thermo Fischer Scientific) were

coated for 2 hours at room temperature with 5 µg/ml of rabies virus glycoprotein, NS1 protein

of tick-born encephalitis virus (TBEV), measles virus mosaic hemagglutinin, Antigen Mpt70

(*M.Tuberculosis*/H37Rv), and p47 (*T. pallidum*/Nichols strain) in PBS. Plates were blocked

with PBS containing 0.25 % Tween 20 for 1 hour at room temperature followed by incubation

for 1 hour with 10 μg/ml of F(ab')$_2$ fragments from *M. myotis* in parallel at 4 °C, 22 °C and 42

°C. Detection of bound bat F(ab')$_2$ fragments was done by incubation for 1 hour at room

temperature with mouse anti-bat immunoglobulin (L-chain specific, clone BT1-4F10, Novus

Biologicals, CO, USA) diluted to 1 μg/ml in T-PBS followed by incubation for 1 hour with

goat-anti mouse IgG conjugated with HRP (Southern Biotech) diluted 2000 × in T-PBS.

-   *Ionic strength dependence of binding of human and bat IgG*

Half-area 96-well polystyrene plates (Greiner-Bio-One, Les Ulis, France) were coated by

incubation for 2 hours at room temperature with 2 μg/ml of NS1 protein of tick-born

encephalitis virus (TBEV), rabies virus glycoprotein, influenza hemagglutinin, measles virus

mosaic hemagglutinin, SARS-CoV-2 S protein, and LysM from *E. faecalis* in PBS. After, plates

were blocked by 1 hour incubation with a solution of PBS containing 1 × synthetic block

(Thermo Fisher Scientific) and 0.25 % Tween 20. Purified human and bat (*M. myotis* and *N.*

noctula) IgG was diluted to 20 μg/ml in 10 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 0.05 % Tween 20 buffer

containing increasing concentrations NaCl: 0, 0.0078 – 4 M, then it was incubated for 2 hours

at 42 °C. Bat antibodies were incubated with: TBEV NS1, measles virus hemagglutinin, and

rabies virus glycoproteins; human antibodies were incubated with: influenza hemagglutinin,

SARS-CoV-2 S protein, and LysM from *E. faecalis.* Following steps were as in the principal

ELISA experiment described above.

-   *Interaction of bat and human IgG with protoporphyrin IX*

Protoporphyrin IX (Sigma-Alrich) was covalently conjugated on the surface of gelatin pre-

coated half-area 96-well polystyrene plates (Greiner-Bio-One) following an amino-coupling

procedure previously described for heme [68]. The hapten-coated plates were blocked for 1 hour

with 0.25 % solution of Tween 20 in PBS. Purified pooled IgG from bat (*M. myotis*) and human

were serially diluted in the range 100 – 1.562 μg/ml (670 – 10.468 nM) in T-PBS and incubated

for 90 min at room temperature. Next steps for the detection of bound IgG were as in the

principal ELISA experiment described above.

– *Assessment of polyreactivity of IgG antibodies*

To assess the level of polyreactive antibodies in polyclonal bat and human IgG samples, we

used an established assay based on the analyses of antibody reactivity to a nitroarene hapten [34].

Ninety-six well polystyrene plates NUNC MaxiSorp™ or NUNC 384-Well Clear polystyrene

plates (Thermo Fisher Scientific) were coated with 2,4-dinitrophenyl conjugated to BSA (DNP-

BSA, Sigma-Aldrich), diluted to 10 μg/ml in PBS and incubated for 2 hours at room

temperature (22-24 °C). As a control, unconjugated BSA was coated under identical conditions.

Plates were blocked by saturation with a 0.25 % solution of Tween 20 in PBS for 1 hour at

room temperature. For evaluation of antibody reactivity to DNP, IgG purified from human and

bat (*M. myotis* and *N. noctula*) pooled sera was diluted to 670 nM (100 μg/ml) in PBS-T,

followed by two-fold serial dilution to 10.468 nM (1.56 μg/ml). Monoreactive (VRC01 and

S309) and polyreactive (ED38) monoclonal IgG1 antibodies were used as controls. These were

first diluted to 400 nM (60 μg/ml) followed by three-fold serial dilutions to 0.0068 nM (0.001

μg/ml) in PBS-T. Polyclonal and monoclonal antibodies were incubated on microtiter plates

for 1 hour at room temperature. Following steps were as described above.

Real-time interaction analyses – temperature dependence of antigen binding of bat IgG

Interaction of bat IgG with selected viral proteins was evaluated by a surface plasmon

resonance-based system – Biacore 2000 (Cytiva, Biacore, Uppsala, Sweden). Recombinant

rabies virus glycoprotein and NS1 protein of TBEV were covalently immobilized on CM5

sensor chips (Cytiva, Biacore) using an amine-coupling kit (Cytiva, Biacore) according to the

procedure recommended by the manufacturer. In brief, viral proteins were diluted to a final

concentration of 10 µg/ml in 5 mM maleic acid, pH 4, and injected over pre-activated sensor

surfaces. Carboxyl groups of the carboxymethylated dextran were activated by exposure of the

surface for 4 min to a mixture of 1-ethyl-3-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-carbodiimide and N-

hydroxysuccinimide. For inactivation of the activated carboxyl groups that were not engaged

in interactions with the amino groups from the proteins, sensor surfaces were exposed for 4

min to 1M solution of enthanolamine.HCl. Covalent immobilization of viral proteins and all

kinetic measurements were performed with HBS-EP (10 mM HEPES pH 7.2; 150 mM NaCl;

3 mM EDTA, and 0.005 % Tween 20) used as running and sample dilution buffer. Prior to real-

time binding analyses, the running buffer was always filtered through a 0.22 µm filter and

degassed under a vacuum.

To measure interactions of bat antibodies with viral proteins as a function of temperature, IgG

purified from a serum pool from *M. myotis* was serially diluted in the running buffer in the

range 100 – 6.25 µg/ml (670 – 41.875 nM) and injected over the sensor surface. The flow rate

during all interaction analyses was set at 30 µl/min. The association and dissociation phases of

bat polyclonal IgG binding were monitored for 4 and 5 min, respectively. Between consecutive

sample injections, the sensor chip surface was regenerated by a brief exposure (30 sec) to a

solution of 2M NaSCN (Sigma-Aldrich). All analyses were performed at the following

temperatures: 4, 6, 16, 24, 32, and 40 °C. Real-time binding curves were obtained after

subtracting bat IgG binding to a reference surface that lacked immobilized viral proteins.

Binding curves obtained at 40 °C allowed reliable evaluation of binding kinetics. To this end,

we used BIAevaluation software v. 4.1.1 (Cytiva, Biacore) performing global kinetics analyses

applying the Langmuir binding model. The apparent binding kinetics and affinity were

evaluated under the assumption that 10 % of all antibodies in the pooled preparation were able

to bind viral proteins.

Real-time interaction analyses – temperature dependence of Fc-dependent interactions of bat

and human IgG

Purified bat (*M. myotis,* n=10; and *N. noctula,* n=35)*,* and human pooled IgG were immobilized

on CM5 sensor chips (Cytiva, Life Sciences, Biacore). To this end, IgG samples were diluted

to a final concentration of 10 μg/ml in 5 mM maleic acid, pH 4, and injected over pre-activated

sensor surfaces. Other parameters of the immobilization procedure were identical as described

above.

To assess the temperature-dependence of Fc-mediated interactions of IgG, the binding of

human C1q (Comptech, TX, USA), recombinant human FcRn (kindly provided by Dr. Sune

Justesen, Immunitrack Aps, Copenhagen, Denmark), and recombinant protein G (Pierce^{TM},

Thermo Fisher Scientific) was elucidated. The real-time interaction analyses with C1q and

protein G were performed in HBS-EP buffer. The analyses of the binding of FcRn to IgG were

studied in a buffer containing 100 mM NaCl, 100 mM Tris pH 5.7 (adjusted with dry citric

acid), and 0.1 % Tween-20. C1q was injected after dilution to 0.625 nM; FcRn was injected at

serial dilutions in the range: 25 - 0.097 nM (2 × dilution step); the binding of protein G was

measured at serial dilutions in the range: 100 – 0.046 nM (3 × dilution step). Buffer flow rate

during all interaction analyses was set at 30 μl/min. The association and dissociation phases of

all interactions were monitored for 4 and 5 min, respectively. Between the injections of Fc-

binding proteins, the sensor chip surface was regenerated by a brief exposure (30 sec) to a

solution of 1.5M NaSCN (in the case of C1q); 100 mM NaCl, 100 mM Tris with pH 7.8 (in the

case of FcRn), and a solution of 2M NaOH and 0.1 M NaOH (in the case of protein G). The

real-time binding measurements were performed as a function of temperature at 4, 22 and 40

°C (for C1q) and at 22 and 40 °C (for FcRn and protein G). For data analyses BIAevaluation

software v. 4.1.1 (Cytiva, Biacore) was used for performing global kinetics analyses applying

the Langmuir binding model.

Immunoblot analyses

Cell lysate of MmNep cells (epithelial cells, *Myotis myotis*) [67] or *Bacillus anthracis* were loaded

to 1-well 4-12% Bis-Tris NuPAGE Novex SDS-PAGE gels (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher

Scientific). Proteins were separated for 45 min at 200 V. After migration, they were transferred

to nitrocellulose membranes using an iBlot electrotransfer system (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher

Scientific). Membranes were blocked overnight with PBS containing 0.1% Tween 20 (T-PBS).

Next, they were conditioned in PBS $1/3 \times + 0.1\%$ Tween 20 for 10 min and fixed on a Miniblot

system (Immunetics, Cambridge, MA). They were then incubated for 1 hour at 22 °C with IgG

from *M. myotis (*n=10 individuals*)* and *N. noctula* (n=35 individuals) in two-fold dilutions,

from 20 µg/ml to 2.5 µg/ml, in phosphate buffer (PBS) with NaCl concentration of eighter 150

mM or 50 mM.

Membranes were washed (6×10 min) with T-PBS and then incubated for 1 hour at room

temperature with 2 µg/mL biotinylated Protein-G (Thermo Fisher Scientific) in T-PBS. Next,

they were washed (6×5 min) with T-PBS 0.1% and incubated with streptavidine coupled with

alkaline phosphatase (Southern Biotech) diluted 2000 ×. Finally, membranes were washed (6

$\times 5$ min) with T-PBS 0.1%, rinsed with water to remove phosphate ions, and revealed by

incubation with SigmaFast BCIP/NBT substrate solution (Sigma-Aldrich). They were then left

to dry for 24 hours and images were taken on the iBright CL1500 Imaging System (Thermo

Fisher Scientific).

Conjugation of human and bat IgG with fluorochromes

Human and bat antibodies were covalently labelled with fluorochromes via amine-coupling reaction. First, polyclonal IgG purified from pooled human and bat (*M. myotis*) sera were diluted to 2 μM in a solution consisting of 1/3 100 mM carbonate buffer, pH 9, and 2/3 PBS. Amine-reactive Alexa Fluor™ 555 NHS ester (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was added to IgG samples to a final concentration of fluorochrome 40 μM and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature with constant gentle agitation. Additionally, human and bat IgG was labelled with Alexa Fluor™ 647 NHS ester under identical conditions. Following the conjugation reaction, we separated labelled IgG from unconjugated fluorochromes by applying PD-10 columns with Sephadex G-25 resin (Cytiva, Marlborough, MA). Conjugation efficacy and conjugated IgG concentration were measured by absorbance spectroscopy using Agilent Cary 100 UV-vis spectrophotometer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA).

Immunofluorescence analyses

To evaluate reactivity of bat (*M. myotis, M. blythii, M. cappaccinii, and N. noctula*) and human IgG to HEp2 cells, we used the AESKUSLIDES® ANA-HEp-2 diagnostic kit for detection of autoantibodies recognizing cellular antigens by immunofluorescence (Aesku Diagnostics, Wendelsheim, Germany). We followed the protocol recommended by the manufacturer with certain modifications. Thus, human and bat IgG conjugated to Alexa Fluor™ 555 was diluted to 50 μg/ml in PBS and incubated for 30 min in a moist chamber with Hep-2 cells pre-fixed on glass slides. To evaluate the reactivity of bat (*M. myotis*) IgG to bat nasal epithelial cells, we cultivated MmNep [67] cells in complete DMEM/F-12+GlutaMAX™ (Gibco™, Thermo Fisher Scientific) containing 10 % fetal calf serum (ATCC) and 1% Penicillin-Streptomycin (Gibco™, Thermo Fisher Scientific) on coverslips (10 mm diameter). After reaching 80 % confluence,

the cells were fixed with 4% PFA mixed with Hoechst dye (Thermo Fisher Scientific) diluted

5000 ×. The coverslips were thoroughly washed after each following step. The cells were

permeabilized with a 0.2% Triton-X-100 solution (Sigma-Aldrich). Next, they were incubated

for 30 min with bat IgG coupled with Alexa Fluor^{TM} at 25 µg/ml. Finally, the cells were

incubated with Phalloidin-iFluor 488 diluted 1000 × (Abcam, Cambridge, United Kingdom)

for 20 min. The Hoechst and Phalloidin staining were used to facilitate cell counting.

To evaluate the effect of temperature on IgG binding, slides with identical samples were

incubated at 22 °C and 42 °C. As a negative control, some cells were incubated with PBS only

or with 50 µg/ml of Alexa Fluor^{TM} 555-streptavidin (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific).

After washing with PBS and applying mounting medium and cover slips, immunofluorescence

was read by Zeiss Axio Observer Z1 microscope (Carl Zeiss AG, Oberkochen, Germany)

equipped with ApoTome system. The acquisition time was 80 ms (HEp-2 cells) or 50 ms

(MmNep cells). Acquired fluorescence images with magnifications of 63 × were coloured

digitally in green. The acquisition and data analyses were performed with ZEN software (Carl

Zeiss AG). Quantification of mean fluorescence intensity (MFI), reflecting antibody interaction

with the cells, was normalized by the number of cells observed in the bright field.

Protein microarrays

To evaluate the effect of temperature on the immunoreactivity of human and bat (*M. myotis*

and N. noctula) polyclonal IgG to a broad repertoire of human proteins (>17 000), we applied

HuProt™ v4.0 protein microarrays (CDI Laboratories, Inc., Baltimore, MD). First, microarray

slides were blocked by incubation for 2 hours at room temperature with PBS containing 1×

synthetic block (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and 0.05 % Tween 20. After washing for 5 min with

PBS containing 0.05 % Tween 20 (PBS-T), chips were incubated for 2 hours at 22 °C or 42 °C

with Alexa Fluor^{TM} 647-conjugated human and *M. myotis* IgG (for 22 °C) and Alexa Fluor^{TM}

555-conjugated human and *M. myotis* IgG (for 42 °C) with constant agitation on an orbital

shaker (at 50 rpm). Alexa Fluor^{TM} 555-conjugated IgG from *N. noctula* was used for analyses

at both 22 and 42 °C. IgG concentration was 5 μg/ml in 5 mL PBS-T. Following incubation

with antibodies, microarray slides were washed 3 × 5 min with PBS-T with constant agitation

(50 rpm). After, salts were removed by soaking the slides in 1/10 solution of PBS in deionized

water and dried by centrifugation (100 × g) for 1 min. Fluorescence intensity at 532 nm and

635 nm was measured by the microarray scanner GenePix 4000B (Molecular Devices, San

Jose, CA). Raw data from microarray chips were quantified and analyzed using Spotxel

software v. 1.7.7 (Sicasys, Heidelberg, Germany).

Thermal shift assay for estimation of thermodynamic stability of IgG

To assess the thermodynamic stability of human and bat (*M. myotis* and *M. capaccinii*) purified

IgG molecules, we used Protein Thermal Shift Dye Kit (Applied Biosystems, Thermo Fisher

Scientific) following the manufacturer's protocol. All IgG samples were diluted in PBS and

tested at a concentration of 80 μg/ml. Protein unfolding reactions and fluorescent signal

detection were performed in Applied Biosystems 7900 HT Fast Real-Time PCR machine

(Applied Biosystems, Thermo Fisher Scientific). For data analyses, we used GraphPad Prism

v. 9.5 software (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA). Melting points (T_m) of IgG molecules

were calculated by fitting experimental data using the Boltzmann equation.

Hydrophobic interaction chromatography

Overall hydrophobicity of human and bat (*M. myotis*) IgG was assessed by hydrophobic

interaction chromatography. To this end, 70 μg of purified IgG were diluted in 1.1 M solution

of ammonium sulfate and injected into a 1 mL HiTrap Octyl FF column (Cytiva, Life Sciences).

The column was previously equilibrated with binding buffer (50 mM sodium phosphate, 1.1 M

ammonium sulfate, pH 7.0). It was further washed with 5 mL binding buffer and elution was

performed with a linear gradient of low ionic strength buffer (50 mM sodium phosphate, pH

7.0) for 20 × column volumes. Chromatograms for both species were exported and overlayed

with GraphPad Prism v. 9.5 software (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA).

Flow cytometry analyses

- *Human endothelial cells*

Human skin endothelial cell line HMEC-1 (ATTC, Manassas, VA) was cultured under standard

conditions in a complete MCDB 131 cell culture medium (Gibco™, Thermo Fisher Scientific)

containing 10 % fetal calf serum (ATCC), 10 ng/mL epidermal growth factor (EGF, Thermo

Fisher Scientific), 1 pg/mL Hydrocortisone (Sigma-Aldrich), and 10 mM glutamine (ATCC).

To create pro-apoptotic conditions, HMEC-1 cells were first starved in a serum free medium

Opti-MEM™ (Gibco™, Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 24 hours, then they were exposed for 24

hours to Opti-MEM™ containing 1 mM of H_2O_2. To represent normal conditions, MCDB 131

medium was not changed. After incubation, the cells were washed with PBS by centrifugation

at 125 × g for 10 min at 4 °C. A sample of cells was stained with Trypan Blue (Gibco™, Thermo

Fisher Scientific) to estimate the percentage of dead cells. Following washing with PBS,

HMEC-1 cells were resuspended in PBS and distributed in FACS tubes with 10^5 cells per tube.

For assessment of cell death by flow cytometry, a part of the samples was labelled with annexin

V-conjugated with APC and propidium iodide (Molecular Probes, Thermo Fisher Scientific).

HMEC-1 cells cultured in pro-apoptotic and normal conditions were distributed and incubated

in the presence of Alexa Fluor™ 555-conjugated polyclonal human and bat (*M. myotis*) IgG at

809 a concentration of 25 µg/ml. To assess the effect of temperature on IgG binding to live and

810 dead cells, samples were incubated for 30 min at 22 or at 42 °C. Cells were then washed with

811 PBS at 1,600 rpm, 4°C for 10 min and binding was analyzed by flow cytometer FACS

812 LSRFortessa™ (BD Bioscience, Franklin Lakes, NJ) using Yellow/Green Ex 561 nm Em

813 586/15 laser for the detection of antibodies. Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) indicating

814 antibody binding was measured using FlowJo Software (LLC, Ashland, OR). The data was

815 normalized by calculating the MFI ratio against the mean negative control.

816 - *Bat epithelial cells*

817 The *Myotis myotis* nasal epithelial cell line MmNep [67] was cultured in complete DMEM/F-

818 12+GlutaMAX™ (Gibco™, Thermo Fisher Scientific) containing 10 % fetal calf serum

819 (ATCC) and 1% Penicillin-Streptomycin. To create pro-apoptotic conditions, MmNep cells

820 were first starved in a serum free DMEM/F-12+GlutaMAX™ (Gibco™, Thermo Fisher

821 Scientific) for 24 hours, then they were exposed for 24 hours to DMEM/F-12+GlutaMAX™

822 containing 1 mM of H_2O_2. To represent normal conditions, DMEM/F-12+GlutaMAX™

823 medium was not changed. After incubation, the cells were detached by Trypsin 0.25%, washed

824 with PBS by centrifugation at $125 \times g$ for 10 min at RT and resuspended in PBS. A sample of

825 cells was stained with Trypan Blue (Gibco™, Thermo Fisher Scientific) to estimate cell number

826 and condition. Following washing with PBS, MmNep cells were placed in FACS tubes with

827 3×10^5 cells per tube.

828 MmNep cells cultured in pro-apoptotic and in normal conditions were distributed and

829 incubated in the presence of Alexa Fluor™ 647-conjugated pooled bat (*M. myotis*) IgG at a

830 concentration of 25 µg/ml. To assess the effect of temperature on IgG binding to live and dead

831 cells, samples and controls were incubated for 30 min at 22 or 42 °C. Cells were then washed

832 with PBS at $125 \times g$, 4 °C for 10 min. For assessment of cell death by flow cytometry, control

samples were labelled with annexin V-conjugated with FITC and propidium iodide (Molecular

Probes, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Binding was analyzed by flow cytometer FACS LSR 2 (BD

Bioscience, Franklin Lakes, NJ) using Red 660/20 for the detection of antibodies. Mean

fluorescence intensity (MFI) indicating antibody binding was measured using FlowJo Software

(LLC, Ashland, OR).

Bioinformatics analyses

Sequences of *M. lucifugus* variable regions (VH3) were retrieved from the literature[30].

Sequences of human variable regions (VH3) from naïve and IgM memory B cells were

obtained from following study [69]. Framework (FR) and Complementarity-Determining (CDR)

regions were delineated based on IMGT unique numbering [70]. Of note, the three first amino

acids at the N-terminal extremity of the FRH1 were not provided for the bat sequences.

Accordingly, these residues were also removed from the analysis of human sequences. GRAVY

index was computed with Gravy Calculator (https://www.gravy-calculator.de). Amino acid

counts were done with Microsoft Excel (version 2018). Statistical analysis was performed with

GraphPad Prism v. 9.5 software.

Sequences of bat constant region were obtained from NCBI Genome Data Viewer [71] selecting

Myotis myotis organism and searching for loci annotated as "immunoglobulin heavy constant

gamma". Among the three hits, we selected those localized on NW_023416326.1 and

NW_023416348.1 (the sequence of the third hit is identical to the sequence on

NW_023416326.1). Human and mouse reference sequences for the constant region of heavy

chains were obtained from IMGT/GENE-DB [72]. Sequence alignments, phylogenetic trees, and

percent of identity were obtained with Clustal Omega [73].

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Acknowledgments

The experimental work was supported by a grant from European Research Council (Project

CoBABATI ERC-StG-678905), awarded to J.D.D. Fieldwork funding was provided by the

Bulgarian National Science Fund (project KP-06-N51/9 "Caves as a reservoir for novel and

reoccurring zoonoses - ecological monitoring and metagenomic analysis in real-time"). NT was

funded by a Ph.D. Fellowship from Karoll Knowledge Foundation and a stipend from the

French Institute, Bulgaria. VZ was supported by a stipend from the French Institute, Bulgaria.

We would like to express our gratitude to the volunteers who assisted us in the field: Boris

Petrov, Petar Velkov, Katrin Dimitrova, Kaloyana Koseva, Kristin Meshinska, and Stela-

Teodora Trendafilova. Our heartfelt thanks go to Dr Lubka Roumenina, and Dr Sebastien

Lacroix-Desmazes (both from Centre de Recherche des Cordeliers, Paris, France) for their

insightful feedback on our ideas and their unwavering intellectual support throughout this study. We thank Dr Hugo Mouquet, Dr Vishu Kumar Aimanianda (both from Institute Pasteur, Paris, France) and Dr Stephane Mesnage, (University of Sheffield, UK) for providing us with some important material (pathogen proteins, antibodies, and plasmids). We also thank Pr. J. Pikula and Dr. V. Kovácová (Department of Ecology and Diseases of Zoo Animals, Game, Fish and Bees, University of Veterinary and Pharmaceutical Sciences Brno) for sharing the MmNep cells.

Author contributions

N.T., V.Z., and J.D.D. conceived the study; N.T., V.Z., N.J., C.P., and J.D.D., designed the experiments; N.T., and V.Z. collected essential samples; N.J. and G.G. provided essential samples and materials; N.T., V.Z., A.R.R., E.H., M.C.D., R.V.L., M.L. and J.D.D. performed the experiments. N.T., V.Z., A.R.R., E.H., R.V.L., M.L., and J.D.D. analyzed the obtained data; J.D.D. supervised the research; J.D.D. wrote the manuscript; all authors contributed to editing of the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Data availability

All raw data supporting the findings of this study are available upon request from the corresponding author.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Temperature modulates antigen binding properties of bat IgG. **a.** Heat map depicting

binding intensity of IgG purified from pooled sera of *N. noctula, M. myotis*, and healthy human

(two different pools) to a panel of antigens. The IgG were purified from sera pools with 4-5

individuals. Reactivity of bat and human IgG was evaluated at 4, 22 and 42 °C by ELISA.

Binding of IgG to the blocking agent (Bckg) is also shown. Binding intensity against each

target represent average optical density (n=2 for *M. Myotis* and human; and n=2 and n=1 for

N. noctula) after subtraction of the background binding (measured after incubation of the

detection reagents with the respective antigens in the absence of antibodies). Violin plots

corresponding to each heat map show the Z-score values of antigen binding. The Z-score for

each target antigen is presented as an individual circle. *P* values were determined using one-

way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Friedman multiple comparison test, $*p < 0.05$,

$***p < 0.001$, n.s., not significant. **b.** Real-time interaction profiles showing binding of *M.*

myotis IgG to Rabies virus glycoprotein and TBEV NS1 immobilized on a sensor chip as a

function of temperature. Antibodies were injected at serial dilutions at a concentration range

670 – 41.875 nM. Apparent binding affinities were evaluated by global kinetic analyses based

on results obtained at 40 °C. Kinetic fits of the same analyses are presented in **Supplementary**

Fig. 4. **c**. Effect of temperature on antigen binding by bat and human IgG in whole sera. Pooled

bat and human sera were serially diluted from 60 × to 1920 × and incubated with immobilized

antigens at 4, 22 and 42 °C. Each data point represents average IgG binding intensity ±SD from

n=3 technical replicates. **d**. Immunofluorescence analyses of bat and human IgG binding to

HEp-2 cells at 22 and 42 °C. The images are representative examples from n=9 fluorescence

acquisitions from two independent experiments (magnification × 63). **e**. Quantification of

fluorescence intensity from immunofluorescence analyses of binding of bat and human IgG to

Hep-2 cells. The graphs show the mean fluorescence intensity of n=9 images, for each

condition, acquired in two independent experiments. Statistical analyses were performed by a

nonparametric t-test, Mann-Whitney test, $****p < 0.0001$. The white bar corresponds to 10

μm.

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Figure 2. Bat antibodies acquire broad reactivity towards diverse proteins at elevated temperature. Presented plots depict summarized results from protein microarray analyses of binding of bat (*M. myotis*) and human pooled IgG to > 17 000 human proteins. **a**. Antibody reactivity at 22 °C was plotted versus reactivity at 42 °C; **b**. Reactivities of bat versus human IgG. Each dot in a and b represent the average MFI (n=2) signifying IgG binding to a single protein in the array, after subtraction of the background reactivity. Red dashed lines represent the threshold of 1000 MFI, identifying antibody specificities with high binding intensity. **c**. Z-scores of antibody binding reactivities to human proteins. Each dot represents the Z-score characterizing binding reactivity to a single protein. The threshold indicated with red dotted lines corresponds to Z=2 and $p < 0.05$.

Figure 3. Temperature sensitivity of bat IgG is mediated by Fab. **a.** A schematic representation of the experimental procedure for the generation of $F(ab')_2$ fragments from IgG of *M. myotis*. **b.** Reactivity of bat $F(ab')_2$ to a panel of antigens as a function of temperature. Binding intensity values were obtained after incubation of 10 µg/ml (67 nM) of $F(ab')_2$ fragments with a panel of immobilized antigens at 4 °C (blue), 22 °C (orange), and 42 °C (red). Each point corresponds to an individual technical replicate for each condition after subtraction of the background (obtained following incubation of the detection reagents with the respective antigens in the absence of $F(ab')_2$ fragments). Control reactivity of bat $F(ab')_2$ to the surface in the absence of antigens is also shown. **c.** A schematic representation of the experimental setting for the evaluation of interactions of C1q, FcRn, and protein G with the Fc-fragment of bat IgG. **d.** Real-time interaction profiles of binding of human C1q (0.625 nM) with immobilized IgG from *M. myotis*, *N. noctula* and human. Binding curves obtained at 4 °C (blue), 22 °C (orange), and 40 °C (red) are depicted. Real-time interaction curves were obtained after subtraction of C1q binding to a control surface without immobilized IgG. **e.** Real-time interaction profiles showing binding of human recombinant FcRn to IgG from *M. myotis*, *N. noctula* and human immobilized on sensor chip. FcRn was injected at serial dilutions in concentration range 25 - 0.097 nM (2 × dilution step) in a buffer with pH 5.7. **f.** Real-time interaction profiles showing binding of recombinant protein G to IgG from *M. myotis*, *N. noctula,* and human immobilized on sensor chip. Protein G was injected at serial dilutions in concentration range 100 – 0.046 nM (3 × dilution step). For **e.** and **f.** Measurements were performed at 22 °C and 40 °C. The values of equilibrium association constants (shown in plots on the right) were evaluated by

global Langmuir kinetics analyses model. The real-time binding profiles after subtraction of reactivity to a control surface are shown by black lines. The global kinetic fit is depicted by red lines. For e. representative results from two independent experiments is shown.

Figure 4. Bat IgG is characterized by untypical physiochemical characteristics. **a.** Melting temperatures of bat (*M. myotis*) and human IgG, obtained by thermal-shift assay. Each dot indicates an individual estimation of the melting temperature. The results of two independent experiments are presented together. Statistical significance was assessed by applying a nonparametric t-test analysis, Mann-Whitney test. $**p = 0.0022$. A comparison of the thermodynamic stability of IgG from another bat species (*M. capaccinii*) with the stability of human IgG is depicted in Supplementary Fig. 11. **b**. Overall hydrophobicity of human and bat IgG. Elution profiles of polyclonal human and *M. myotis* IgG (green and purple lines, respectively) obtained by hydrophobic interaction chromatography. Chromatography profiles were obtained by measuring protein absorbance changes at 280 nm. The normalized profiles are presented. The brown dotted line depicts the elution gradient of buffer with a decreasing ionic strength as assessed by changes in conductivity. A representative result from two independent experiments is shown. **c.** Ionic strength dependence of antigen binding of bat and human IgG. Polyclonal IgG from *M. myotis* (purple symbols and line), *N. noctula* (red symbols and line), and human (green symbols and line) were diluted to 20 μg/ml in 10 mM HEPES buffer containing increasing concentrations of NaCl: 0, 0.0078, 0.0156, 0.0312, 0.0625, 0.125, 0.25, 0.5, 1, 2 and 4M and incubated with the indicated proteins immobilized on ELISA plate. Each data point represents average optical density (n=2) ±SD. **d.** *In silico* comparison of the hydrophobicity of the variable region of human and *Myotis lucifugus* heavy immunoglobulin chains. The hydrophobicity index was calculated by GRAVY calculator (https://www.gravy-calculator.de) (in bulk or by subregions) using amino acid sequences taken from [30] (*M. lucifugus*) and [69] (human). Statistical analyses were performed by using Two-way ANOVA, with Šídák's multiple comparisons test, $** p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$.

Figure 5. Bat antibody repertoires have higher level of polyreactive IgG antibodies. **a.** Heat maps depicting binding intensity of human polyreactive (ED38) and monoreactive (VRC01 and S309) IgG1 to a set of distinct antigens. Reactivity of monoclonal antibodies was evaluated at 4, 22 and 42 °C by ELISA. Binding of IgG to the blocking agent (Bckg) is also shown.

Binding intensity against each target represent average optical density (n=2) after subtraction

of the background binding measured after incubation of the detection reagents with the

respective antigens in absence of IgG. For the analyses, all antibodies were diluted to 10 μg/ml.

Violin plots corresponding to each heat map show the Z-score values of antigen binding. The

Z-score for each target antigen is presented as an individual circle. *P* values were determined

using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Friedman multiple comparison test, *p =

0.0153, **p = 0.0035, n.s., not significant. **b.** and **c.** Binding of increasing concentrations of

human and bat (*M. myotis* and *N. noctula*) IgG antibodies (b) and human monoclonal IgG1

antibodies (c) to immobilized DNP-BSA. Each data point on the graphs represents average

optical density (n=3) ±SD. Representative results from two independent experiments are

shown. **d.** Immunoblot analyses of bat IgG binding to lysate of bat epithelial cells. The figure

shows the reactivity of increasing concentrations (2.5 - 20 μg/ml) of IgG from *M. myotis* and

N. noctula towards proteins from crude extract of MmNep epithelial cells from *M. myotis*. The

antibodies were alternatively diluted in buffer (PBS) with physiological and low ionic strength.

A representative example from two independent experiments is shown. **e.** Immunofluorescence

analyses of binding of *M. myotis* IgG to MmNep cells at 22 and 42 °C. The images are

representative examples from n=12 fluorescence acquisitions from one of two independent

experiments (magnification × 63). The white bar corresponds to 10 μm. **f.** Quantification of

fluorescence intensity from immunofluorescence analyses of bat IgG binding to MmNep cells.

The graph shows the mean fluorescence intensity of n=12 images. Statistical analyses were

performed using Two-way ANOVA multiple comparison test, ****p < 0.0001.

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Figure 6. Temperature triggers preferential binding of bat antibodies to dead endothelial cells.

a. Gating strategy and identification of cell death induction in HMEC-1 cells by oxidative

stress. Dead cells are defined as double positive for annexin V and propidium iodide. **b**. Binding

of bat (*M. myotis*) and human pooled IgG to alive and dead HMEC-1 cells as a function of

temperature. Representative histograms from two independent experiments show binding of

fluorochrome labeled (Alexa Fluor™ 555) pooled IgG at 25 μg/ml at 22 and 42 °C. **c**.

Quantification of bat and human IgG binding to alive and dead HMEC-1 cells. The average

binding ± SD depicting the reactivity of antibodies was calculated from sample replicates (n=2-

4) of mean fluorescence intensity (MFI). Each circle in the graph represents an MFI value.

Statistical significance was evaluated by applying Two-way ANOVA Tukey's multiple

comparison test. ****p < 0.0001.

Figure 7. Temperature triggers preferential binding of bat antibodies to dead bat epithelial

cells. **a**. Gating strategy and identification of cell death induction in *M. myotis* epithelial cells

(MmNep) by oxidative stress. Dead cells are defined as double positive for annexin V and

propidium iodide. **b**. Binding of bat (*M. myotis*) IgG to alive and dead MmNep cells as a

function of temperature. Representative histograms from four independent experiments shown

binding of fluorochrome labeled (Alexa Fluor^{TM} 647) pooled IgG from *M. myotis* at 25 µg/ml

at 22 and 42 °C. **c**. Quantification of bat IgG binding to alive and dead bat epithelial cells. The

average binding ± SD depicting the reactivity of antibodies was calculated from sample

replicates (n=6-9) of mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) obtained in three independent

experiments. Each circle in the graph represents an MFI value. Statistical significance was

evaluated by applying Two-way ANOVA Tukey's multiple comparison test. ****$p < 0.0001$.

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Figure 1

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 Figure 3

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 Figure 7