Early 2022 breakthrough infection sera from India target the conserved cryptic class 5 epitope to counteract immune escape by SARS-CoV-2 variants

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Abstract:

During the COVID-19 pandemic, the vast majority of epitope mapping studies have focused on sera from mRNA-vaccinated populations from high-income countries. In contrast, here we report an analysis of 164 serum samples isolated from breakthrough infection patients in India during early 2022 who received two doses of the ChAdOx viral vector vaccine. Sera were screened for neutralization breadth against wildtype, Kappa, Delta, and Omicron BA.1 viruses. Three sera with the highest neutralization breadth and potency were selected for epitope mapping using charged scanning mutagenesis coupled to yeast surface display and Next Generation Sequencing. All of these sera primarily targeted the recently identified class 5 cryptic epitope along with the class 1 and class 4 epitopes, targeted to a lesser extent. The class 5 epitope is completely conserved across all SARS-CoV-2 variants and for the majority of the Sarbecoviruses. In line with these observations, a major fraction of the serum samples, including the selected three, show broad neutralizing activity against recent Omicron subvariants including XBB.1.5. This is in contrast with the results obtained with the sera from individuals receiving multiple doses of original and updated mRNA vaccines, where impaired neutralization of XBB and later variant of concerns was observed. Our study demonstrates that two doses of the ChAdOx vaccine in a highly exposed population was sufficient to drive

substantial neutralization breadth against emerging and upcoming variants of concern, thus

paves the path towards the development of future vaccine candidates.

Importance

Worldwide implementation of COVID19 vaccine and parallel emergence of newer SARS-CoV-

2 variants has shaped the humoral immune response in a population specific manner. While

characterization of this immune response is important for monitoring the disease progression

at population level, it is also imperative for the development of effective countermeasures in

the form of novel vaccines and therapeutics. India has implemented the world's second largest

COVID19 vaccination drive and also encountered large number of post vaccination

"breakthrough" infections. From a cohort of breakthrough infection patients, we identified

individuals whose sera showed broadly cross-reactive immunity against different SARS-CoV-

2 variants. Interestingly, these sera primarily target a novel cryptic epitope which was not

identified in previous population level studies conducted in western countries. This rare cryptic

epitope remains conserved across all SARS-CoV-2 variants including the recently emerged

ones and also for the SARS-like coronaviruses that may cause future outbreaks, thus

representing a potential target for future vaccines.

Key Words: SARS-CoV-2, spike protein RBD, epitope mapping, breakthrough infection,

convalescent serum, yeast display library, neutralizing antibodies, class-5/ RBD8 epitopes,

immune escape, Omicron subvariant-XBB.1.5.

Introduction

Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) has been

circulating in the human population for over four years and rapidly evolving, causing the

emergence of more than 50 different variants to date (1). Multiple waves of infections were

caused by the new variants despite of massive vaccination programs, and their emergence

was largely driven by the host immunity generated through natural infections and vaccination

(2). Detailed molecular-level understanding of the humoral immunity conferred by different

vaccination regimens coupled with ongoing viral exposures is important for the development

of effective countermeasures against the current and future variants of SARS-CoV-2 and other

Sarbecoviruses that may emerge in future.

More than 5.55 billion people, 72.3% of the world population, have received a single

dose of COVID-19 vaccine (3), though in Africa, this number is less than 40% (4). India ranks

second highest after China in the number of COVID-19 vaccine doses administered (2.2 billion

doses) (5). The vaccination drive started in India on 16th January 2021, at the end of the first

wave of infections caused mainly by the circulating B.1.1.7 (Alpha) and B.1.135 (Beta)

variants. While the vaccination program was ongoing, the highly infectious B.1.617.2 (Delta)

variant emerged and caused the second wave of the pandemic (March to October 2021),

which resulted in the highest number of daily infections with high disease severity and mortality

rate (6, 7). By January 2022, more than 77% of the Indian population were immunized; the

new highly transmissible and heavily mutated B.1.1.529 (Omicron) variant emerged and led

to the third wave of infection but was associated with milder symptoms and lower fatality rates

(8). A significant fraction of the vaccinated population in India got infected during the second

and third waves of the pandemic, leading to the large number of "breakthrough infections" (9).

These breakthrough infections shaped the transmission dynamics and contributed to the

overall evolution of the virus (10). After 2021, there was little vaccine uptake in the country and

the percentage of the population that received a third (booster) dose was only about 10%.

The SARS-CoV-2 spike protein (S) is the main surface glycoprotein that mediates the

interaction with the host angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) receptor and subsequent

fusion of the viral envelope with the host cell membrane that marks the initiation of the

infectious cycle (11, 12). The S protein is the primary target for neutralizing antibodies elicited

through natural infection as well as vaccination (13–15). The spike constitutes a trimer where

individual protomers are comprised of two subunits, S1 and S2 (16). S1 harbours the N-

terminal domain (NTD), the Receptor Binding Domain (RBD), and the S2 houses the fusion

peptide, the heptad repeats 1 and 2 (HR1, HR2), the transmembrane domain (TM) and the C-

terminal domain (CD). The majority of human neutralizing antibodies, isolated from

convalescent or vaccinated sera, target conformational epitopes in the RBD Receptor Binding

Motif (RBM) or in the conserved core of RBD (17–19) . In the context of the spike trimer, the

individual RBDs can be either in the up or down conformation, with only the former able to

bind the ACE2 receptor.

The epitopes targeted by neutralizing antibodies can be classified into four major

classes (Class 1-4) (20). Class 1 and class 2 epitopes overlap with the ACE2 binding site, and

antibodies targeting these sites competitively inhibit receptor binding. While class 1 epitopes

are accessible when RBD is present in the up conformation, class 2 epitopes are accessible

in both up and down conformations (21). For certain class 2 epitope targeting antibodies

(C144), the long complementary determining region (CDR) of the heavy chain acts as a bridge

between adjacent RBDs from neighbouring protomers in the down conformation, thus locking

the S trimer into the prefusion closed conformation; an unusual mode of neutralization (21). In

general, the antibodies targeting class 1 and class 2 epitopes have strong neutralizing activity.

However, different SARS-CoV-2 variants escape neutralization by these antibodies by

acquiring mutations in the RBM region that is part of the class 1 and 2 epitopes, compromising

their efficacy. Both class 3 and class 4 antibodies bind to the RBD core region away from the

ACE2 binding site. N343 glycan and the surrounding residues are accommodated in class 3

epitopes (22). S309 antibody, a class 3 antibody isolated from a SARS-CoV infected individual,

exhibited broad cross-reactivity against SARS-CoV and SARS-CoV-2, although many SARS-

CoV-2 VOCs acquired mutations in class 3 epitopes to escape neutralization by these

antibodies (21). The cryptic epitope around the RBD base (first described for CR3022

antibody) constitutes the highly conserved class 4 epitope and is accessible only in the RBD

up conformation (23–26). Despite their rare prevalence in convalescent sera, antibodies

targeting class 4 epitopes are suggested to protect against emerging VOCs and other

sarbecoviruses. Additionally, a highly conserved class 5 epitope has been recently identified

and characterized as a target for broadly neutralizing antibodies (27, 28).

Mapping monoclonal antibody epitopes can inform about viral evolution and aid in the

development of epitope-based vaccines and therapeutics. However, mapping conformational

epitopes targeted by polyclonal sera remains challenging. Mapping these epitopes can

elucidate how escape mutations in the viral antigen impact the neutralization potency of the

human polyclonal sera harbouring a heterogeneous mixture of antibodies. In the present

study, we have conducted a comprehensive analysis of human sera collected from individuals

vaccinated with two doses of the ChAdOx1 nCoV-19 viral vectored vaccine and subsequently

had undergone breakthrough infections. Neutralization efficacies of 164 sera samples were

screened against SARS-CoV-2 pseudoviruses representing the parental strain WA.1 or VOCs

B.1.617.1, B.1.617.2 and B.1.1.529. Nine individuals whose serum samples exhibited broader

neutralization were subjected to longitudinal sampling and three of them were selected for

epitope mapping due to their high neutralization breadth and potency. Utilizing charge

scanning mutagenesis (29, 30), a library of individual charged substitutions at all the solvent-

exposed positions of the wild-type RBD was generated and displayed on the yeast surfaces

to map the epitopes targeted by the polyclonal sera. A high fraction of antibodies targeting

either class 1 epitopes or the rare cryptic class 5 epitope, also denoted as RBD8 (31), were

observed in all three sera tested. The class 5/ RBD8 epitope residues identified in this study

are highly conserved across all SARS-CoV-2 variants, consistent with the observed

neutralizing potency of the selected serum samples against heavily mutated Omicron BA.1,

BA.5, and the recent XBB.1.5 variant. Our findings illustrate how a combination of vaccination

and breakthrough infections in a highly exposed population can elicit diverse antibody classes

that confer potent neutralizing activity with broad cross-reactivity. This in turn provides insights

into why deaths and hospitalizations have remained low post-2021 in virtually all low and

middle-income countries (LMICs) even in the absence of variant updated vaccine boosters.

Results

Study cohort

In contrast to vaccination alone, hybrid immunity resulting from SARS-CoV-2

breakthrough infections has been shown to boost neutralizing antibody titers while increasing

their breadth at the same time (32, 33). We selected individuals who received two doses of

the ChAdOx1 nCoV-19 viral vector vaccine between April and November 2021 and then were

infected between November 2021 and January 2022, which marks the transition between the

second and third waves of the pandemic in India, caused by the B.1.617.2 (Delta) and

B.1.1.529 (Omicron) variants, respectively (34) (Fig 1A, B). We hypothesized that such

individuals would have developed broadly cross-reactive neutralizing antibodies that are

effective against different variants of concern (32, 33). Blood samples, along with

questionnaires about gender, age and symptoms, were collected from 164 selected individuals

who were voluntarily recruited by a separate consent for this study. All participants were

confirmed positive by RT-PCR for SARS-CoV-2 infection during the abovementioned time

frame, which is within 2-4 months post-second dose of vaccination. The serum samples were

collected from the individuals within 4-6 weeks of their breakthrough infection (Fig 1A, B). The

study cohort consisted of 90 males and 74 females; the median age was 36 and 34 years,

respectively (Fig 1C). Most volunteers showed mild symptoms like fever, head and body ache,

cough, chest congestion and loss of smell with no cases of hospitalizations. Only 5.84% (10

individuals) of the individuals showed severe to critical illness with declining oxygen saturation

and breathlessness along with abovementioned symptoms.

Neutralization profile of the polyclonal serum samples against SARS-CoV-2 variants.

We employed a high throughput neutralization assay based on reporter lentiviruses

pseudotyped with spike proteins from SARS-CoV-2 parental WA.1, B.1.617.1 (Kappa),

B.1.617.2 (Delta) and B.1.1.529 (Omicron) strains (35). For human convalescent sera, such

pseudoviruses show neutralization titers comparable to the live SARS-CoV-2, thus can serve

as an effective proxy for the live virus neutralization assay (36). Pseudoviruses were incubated

with dilutions of serum samples ranging from 10^{-2} to 10^{-4} before infecting HEK-293T cells

overexpressing ACE2. The reporter signal was measured as a proxy of the infectivity, which

was the highest for the mock-treated cells and the lowest for a polyclonal antibody preparation

that binds the spike protein and has high neutralization activity (Novus Biologicals, NB100-

56578). The neutralization efficacies of 164 serum samples (all three dilutions) against WA.1

and different VOCs was represented as a heatmap with colours ranging from red (high

neutralization) to green (low neutralization) (Fig 2A). Overall, the serum samples from this

study exhibited maximum neutralizing activity towards the Delta variant followed by the Kappa

variant with a geometric mean (GM) of 93% and 90%, respectively (Fig 2B). Reduced

neutralizing activity was observed against the parental WA.1 strain (GM-73%), which was

further lowered against the Omicron variant (GM-46%) (Fig 2B). These results suggest that

the majority of the individuals in the study cohort had breakthrough infections caused by the

Delta variant. Most of the serum samples neutralized Delta and Kappa variants to similar

extents, which was better than WA.1 (Fig 2A, B), likely due to the high similarity between the

spikes of both variants (37). Interestingly, certain sera (BCRTH 29, 30, 33, 35, 45, 46) showed

potent neutralization against WA.1 but failed to neutralize other tested VOCs, especially at

higher dilutions (Fig 2A). This suggests that for certain individuals, vaccination and subsequent

infections have induced a strong immune response towards the parental strain but failed to

generate antibodies that are broadly cross reactive against the VOCs, as also reported

previously (38). A few serum samples showed high neutralization activity against the Omicron

variant (Fig 2A, B). Limited neutralization activity against the Omicron variant results from the

high number of mutations conferring extensive immune escape from vaccine and infection

sera (39).

The breadth and cross-reactivity of the selected polyclonal serum.

In the initial screening, 29 out of the 164 breakthrough infection sera (17%) showed

broadly cross-reactive neutralizing activity against WA.1, Kappa, Delta and Omicron variants

at 10^{-2} dilution (Fig 2C & Fig 2A, red diamonds); hence, were considered as broadly

neutralizing serum samples. We tracked these 29 individuals, and selected 9 volunteers who

had not been infected and had not received any vaccine booster post the first round of blood

collection. Subsequently, second set of serum samples (designated "late") were collected from

the 9 selected individuals with proper consent, 4-6 weeks post the first set (designated "early")

(Fig 1A, B), and both early and late sets of serum samples were subjected to further analysis.

Neutralization efficacies of the selected serum samples were determined against

WA.1, Delta and the Omicron variants using the pseudovirus neutralization assay (Fig S1, A,

B) and neutralization titers were represented in the form of IC_{50} (Fig 3A, B). Amongst the nine

serum samples collected at the early time point, four showed the highest IC_{50} values for Delta,

three for the parental WA.1 strain and two for the Omicron; a trend that matched with the

overall neutralizing activity of the larger cohort of 164 samples (Delta> WA.1> Omicron; Fig

2B). Interestingly, this was not the case for the serum samples collected from the same

volunteers at the later time point (Fig 3A, B). A moderate to sharp decline in neutralizing activity

(2-18 fold change in IC_{50}) was observed for most serum samples between early and late time

points (Fig 3 C, D). Interestingly, a few sera had an increase or maintained similar variant-

specific neutralization titers at both time points. Compared to the early time point neutralization

profile, BCRTH01 and INK41 showed a significant decline in neutralization titer against WA.1

but a slight increase in neutralization titer against the Omicron variant, at the late time point

(Fig 3 C, D). This may reflect the higher durability of the variant specific (Omicron or Delta)

antibodies generated by the breakthrough infections with respect to the parental strain (WA.1)

specific antibodies elicited through vaccination. Interestingly, BCRTH01, INK09, INK36 and

INK41 sera maintained high neutralization titers against all the pseudoviruses tested and at

both time points, with INK36 being the most potent neutralizing sera (Fig 3C, 4C and Fig 5B).

As the majority of the neutralizing antibodies target the receptor binding domain (RBD)

of the spike protein (17–19), we sought to test the binding activity of the four serum samples

(BCRTH01, INK09, INK36 and INK41) to the spike RBD. Enzyme-linked immunosorbent

assay (ELISA) was performed with recombinant purified spike RBD derived from the WA.1,

Omicron BA.1 and BA.5, which are used as coating antigens. As expected, all four serum

samples bound well to the RBD, with the BCRTH-01 sera showing highest binding affinity for

all three RBD variants. This suggests high abundance of RBD-targeted antibodies in the

selected convalescent serum (Fig 4 A). In general, the serum samples showed highest IgG

titres against WA.1 and marginally lower titres against BA.1 and BA.5 (3– 4.2 fold reduction)

(Fig 4B, C). BA.5 RBD exhibited higher sensitivity than BA.1, but lower sensitivity than WA.1

for binding to all four serum samples tested. As all of the four serum samples showed

comparable neutralization titers against RBD, we selected three of them, namely BCRTH01,

INK09 and INK36, for epitope mapping study.

Comprehensive mapping of RBD epitopes targeted by the selected human serum.

We employed a charged scanning mutagenesis library of SARS-CoV-2 RBD displayed at the

yeast surface as a novel approach to identify the epitopes targeted by the antibodies present

in the polyclonal serum samples (Fig 5A). WA.1 RBD (332-532) was used as the template for

library construction and all RBD residues with solvent accessibility >15% were individually

mutated to negatively charged Aspartate, with the exception of negatively charged residues,

which were mutated to the positively charged Arginine. The generated RBD library was

displayed on the yeast surface and subjected to binding with a saturating concentration of the

polyclonal serum sample as determined by sera titration on the yeast surface (Fig S2 A).

Binding was detected using fluorescently labelled antibodies, and the yeast cell populations

were sorted into different bins through Fluorescence Activated Cell Sorting (FACS) (FigS2, B-

D). Yeast populations within these bins were subjected to deep sequencing to identify the

mutations responsible for abolishing binding to the serum. The deep sequencing reads were

analyzed as described in the methods section. Briefly, the binding and expression signals of

each mutant RBD were normalized with respect to the wildtype and the MFI ratio between the

normalized Mean Fluorescence Intensities for expression (MFI-expression) and binding (MFI-

binding) for each of the RBD variants was calculated.

Epitope mapping was performed with all three of the selected serum samples

(BCRTH01, INK09 or INK36) and RBD residues whose mutation resulted in MFI_{Ratio} one

standard deviation higher than the mean MFI_{Ratio} were considered epitopes (Fig 5B, Table 1).

A high value of MFI_{Ratio} (darker shades of red) indicates that the charged substitution

significantly perturbed the binding of the serum samples with minimum or no effect on

expression. The MFI_{Ratio} of the identified epitope residues were mapped on the RBD structure

(Fig 5C). Overall, the identified epitopes (highlighted in lighter to dark shades of red) for all

three serum samples were clustered in two major groups; (i) epitopes that overlap with the

ACE2 binding motif (RBM- designated by black line on the RBD structure, Fig 5C) and (ii)

epitopes that are away from the RBM. Interestingly, for BCRTH01 serum, an enrichment in

non-RBM over RBM epitope residues was observed. However, this was not the case for INK36

or INK09, where epitope residues across different RBD regions were enriched to similar levels

(Fig 5C).

To this end, we aimed to validate the results of the yeast-display screening and deep

sequencing, by individually mutating the epitope and non-epitope residues in RBD and

evaluating their impact upon serum binding. Considering that validating all of the library

residues would be difficult, we selected three epitope and three non-epitope residues that are

identified in the context of all three serum samples (BCRTH-01, INK-09 and INK-36) and

reintroduced these mutations into the RBD individually. Subsequently, extent of binding of

these mutant RBDs by all three serum samples were evaluated by yeast surface display

followed by flow cytometry (Fig S3 A-C). We selected the non-RBM epitope residues (T430,

T437 and R466) as they showed high values of MFI_{Ratio} compared to the wildtype. As shown,

charged substitution at the putative epitope residues significantly impacted the binding to the

serum samples while charged substitution at putative non-epitope residues had no effect upon

the binding (Fig 5 D). The impact of mutating the epitope residues was most prominent for

BCRTH-01 and higher than INK-09 and INK-36, possibly because of the highest abundance

of the RBD specific antibodies in BCRTH-01 serum. This data validates the epitope residues

identified through the current study and establishes the robustness of the charged scanning

mutagenesis approach for the identification of epitope residues targeted by polyclonal human

serum.

Antibodies in the selected sera target a cryptic epitope that is broadly conserved across

different SARS-CoV-2 variants.

Previous epitope mapping studies on convalescent polyclonal serum samples showed

enrichment of antibodies targeting the class-1, -2 and -3 epitopes and to a lesser extent the

class-4 epitope (39–43). Hence, we analysed the different epitopes identified in the present

study and compared them to the epitopes reported in the literature. The majority of the

neutralizing epitope residues in the RBD are categorized into four major classes, class 1-4

(Fig 6 A and Table 2). Out of the 26 epitopes residues identified, eight were classified as Class

1, two as Class 2, two as Class 3 and five as Class 4. Surprisingly, 11 out of the 26 (42%)

epitope residues do not belong to any of these major classes (except for K356 which is shared

with class 3 and T470 which is shared with class 2), but instead belong to a rare epitope (44,

45), situated away from the receptor binding motif of RBD (Fig 6A). These residues are part

of a recently identified cryptic epitope designated as a class 5 or RBD8 class epitope. (31).

. The class 5 or RBD8 epitope spans diagonally across the base of the RBD (Fig 6A)

and is situated on the opposite surface of the ACE2 binding motif, thereby remaining buried

and inaccessible in the prefusion closed conformation of the spike trimer (Fig 6B). Hence,

binding of class 5 antibodies, such as BIOLS56, IMCAS74, WRAIR-2063/ S2H97/ WRAIR-2057/ WRAIR-2134, to this rare epitope requires extensive opening of the pre-fusion structure, thereby inducing rapid and premature transition to the post-fusion conformation and S1 shedding (27, 31, 46, 47). These antibodies cross-reacted with all SARS-CoV-2 VOCs, including Delta, Omicron BA.4/BA.5, BQ.1.1, and the recent highly immune escaping variant XBB1(31, 46). Supporting this notion, class 5 epitope residues identified in our analysis were highly conserved across all the different SARS-CoV-2 VOCs (Fig 6C) and also across different Sarbecoviruses (Fig S4). All these data together highlights the class 5 antibodies as potential broadly cross reactive universal vaccine candidate against SARS-like betacoronaviruses. Interestingly, the BCRTH01 serum had the highest number (total 10) of class 5 identified epitope residues compared to the INK09 and INK36 (7 and 8 residues, respectively) (Fig 6A, Table 2), which explains its breadth and high cross-reactivity against the different SARS-CoV-2 variants tested. In contrast, INK36 has the highest number of class 1 and class 2 epitopes (8 and 2, respectively) that are targeted by ACE2 competing antibodies, consistent with its highest neutralization activity amongst the three selected serum samples.

To evaluate the effect of charged substitutions on neutralizing activity of the polyclonal sera, we selected four of the identified RBD-epitope residues and individually mutated them to charged substitutions in the WA.1 backbone to generate mutant pseudoviruses. Two mutations, R403D and G416D, are situated within the RBM and are expected to perturb class 1 or class 1/ 4 epitope-specific antibodies, respectively while the other two mutations, T430D and R466D, are situated away from the RBM. T430D is expected to interfere with the binding of class 4 and class 5/ RBD8 epitope-specific antibodies, while R466D is expected to exclusively disturb the latter (Fig 6C, Table 2).

We tested the sensitivity of WT and mutant pseudoviruses to neutralization by BCRTH01, INK09 and INK36 serum (Fig 7A). As expected, all of the mutations reduced the neutralization activity of all three polyclonal serum in comparison to the WT pseudovirus. BCRTH01 showed highest sensitivity towards R466D and R403D mutations with drastic 132-fold and 48.9-fold

reduction in the neutralization titer (IC_{50}), respectively (Fig 7 B). In contrast, T430D and G416D

mutations showed moderate and comparable effects with 3.55- and 4.12-fold reduction in IC_{50}

values, respectively. On the other hand, INK36 showed high 35.5-fold and 27.8-fold reduction

towards R403D and G416D mutations, moderate 11.5-fold reduction towards R466D mutation

and negligible 1.3-fold reduction for T430D mutation respectively. INK09 showed same trend

as INK36, but with less prominent reductions towards the abovementioned mutations. It is to

be noted that T430 residue has been identified as epitope for BCRTH01, but not for the INK09

or INK36 serum samples and hence its mutations showed negligible reduction towards the

neutralization titers of the these two sera. Together, our data suggests that the BCRTH01 sera

harbours the highest fraction of class 5/ RBD8 and class 1 antibodies while the INK36 and

INK09 possesses higher fraction of class 1 and class 4 antibodies and lower fraction of the

class 5/ RBD8 antibodies. This combination of ACE2 competing (class 1) and non-competing

(class 5/ RBD8 and class 4) antibodies imparts high neutralization efficacy and broad cross

reactivity to all of these serum samples, which render it effective against different variants of

SARS-CoV-2, including the currently circulating ones.

Pre-XBB serum neutralizes the recent Omicron subvariant XBB.1.5.

The heavily mutated Omicron subvariant, XBB and XBB.1, emerged in late 2022 and

soon, XBB and its descendants accounted for the majority of infections in the whole world (48,

49). The variant XBB.1.5 harbours a rare mutation, F486P, which demonstrates superior

transmissibility and immune escape towards vaccines and monoclonal antibodies, accounting

for its rapid spread in more than 100 counties (50–55). Interestingly, the epitopes identified in

this study remain completely conserved for XBB.1.5 (Fig 6C), suggesting that the selected

serum samples should neutralize this more recent subvariant of SARS-CoV-2. Thus, we

generated pseudoviruses harbouring either WA.1, Omicron BA.1 or Omicron XBB.1.5 spike

proteins at their surface and performed neutralization assays with the BCRTH01, INK36 and

INK09 serum samples which were collected in early 2022, well before the emergence of XBB.

Interestingly, all three serum samples showed neutralizing activities against Omicron BA.1 and

XBB.1.5 comparable to the parental WA.1 strain (Fig 8A).

It is possible that the XBB.1.5 neutralization activity showed by the three selected

serum samples may be an outcome of random stochasticity and do not represent a general

trend of the larger study cohort. To investigate this, we evaluated the neutralizing activity of

the all 29 serum samples, which showed broader cross-reactivity against all of the tested

SARS-Cov-2 variants in the initial screen (Fig 2C). WA.1 or the XBB.1.5 pseudoviruses were

neutralised with different concentration of the serum samples (Fig S5) and the respective

neutralization titers are plotted in Fig 8B. As evident, all of the serum samples showed

comparable neutralizing activity towards WA.1 and XBB.1.5 with a maximum of 7 fold

reduction for the later. This data indicates that a significant fraction (17%) of the participating

volunteers, who had breakthrough infections following vaccination during the Delta/ Omicron

wave (December 2021) of the pandemic, generated humoral immunity that remained effective

even against recently emerged subvariants (February-March 2023). This, in turn, establishes

the potential importance of the identified epitopes as a target for developing vaccine

candidates against future SARS-CoV-2 variants.

Discussion.

Hybrid immunity generated by breakthrough infections have been reported to induce

enduring humoral immunity and generate broadly neutralizing antibodies (33, 56, 57) against

SARS-CoV-2 variants through several different mechanisms (58). First, vaccination and

infection select different B cell clones leading to the generation of broadly cross-reactive

neutralizing antibodies (59, 60) . Second, the antibodies generated through primary antigen

response directly modulate the secondary response against SARS-CoV-2 by blocking or

enhancing the naïve B cell recruitment (61). Third, timely spaced repeated antigen contacts

through vaccination and subsequent infection promote more extensive germinal centre

reactions resulting in high affinity cross-reactive neutralizing antibodies (62, 63). These

together explains why breakthrough infections with specific omicron variants activates specific

memory B cells that recognizes conserved cross-variant epitopes rather than promoting naïve

B cell recruitment (64, 65). In this study we examined the hybrid immunity and characterized

the epitopes targeted by the antibodies generated in a small cohort of breakthrough infection

patients from India.

Human high-resolution epitope mapping studies following vaccination and/or infection have

been largely focused on sera from US or European populations that were primarily immunized

with mRNA vaccines (19, 43, 66, 67) while a few studies focused on sera from individuals

vaccinated with CoronaVac whole virus inactivated vaccine, with or without breakthrough

infection (54, 68, 69). Little is known about the humoral response in LMICs and China, which

are home to ~85% of the world's population. In the present study, we describe epitope

mapping of sera from an Indian population where participating volunteers received two doses

of viral vector vaccine and had a "breakthrough infection" within 4-6 weeks post-second dose.

The timing of the study was deliberately chosen at the intersection of the second and third

waves of the pandemic instigated by the B.1.617.2 (Delta) and B1.1.529 (Omicron) variants,

which, in theory, were expected to enhance the breadth and potency of antibodies generated

through vaccination (parental strain WA.1) and subsequent infections by different VOCs (33).

Around 18% of the serum samples exhibited > 65% neutralizing activity against the parental

strain and different VOCs including Kappa, Delta, and Omicron (Fig 2C). Furthermore, via

longitudinal sampling, three serum samples were identified that not only maintained their

broad neutralizing activity up to 12 weeks post-infection but also demonstrated effectiveness

against the recent circulating Omicron subvariant XBB.1.5. Although prior exposure to

Omicron spike, including BA.1 bivalent vaccination has been reported to generate XBB.1.5

specific antibodies (70), the neutralizing activity remained low compared to the parental WA.1

or D614G strains (52, 70–72). Several studies have demonstrated a substantial escape of

XBB variants from neutralization by convalescent and vaccinated sera, with more than 20-fold

reduction in neutralization titres compared to WA.1 (41, 54, 71, 73). Strikingly, 29 out of 164

(18%) broadly cross reactive serum samples (from Fig 2C) showed comparable WA.1 and

XBB.1.5 neutralizing titers (≥ 7 fold reduction for XBB.1.5) (Fig 8B), hence representing proof

towards the role of hybrid immunity in generating highly potent, durable, and broadly cross-

reactive neutralizing antibodies.

We employed an aspartate scanning mutagenesis and yeast surface display coupled

with flow cytometry and deep sequencing to map epitope residues which, upon charged

substitution, severely impacted the binding of the serum antibodies without affecting the

expression. Charge scanning mutagenesis has been previously proven to be effective in

identifying residues buried at protein-protein interaction interface (74, 75). While Deep

Mutational Scanning has been previously employed to identify serum escape mutations on

SARS-CoV-2 RBD (19, 76), the relatively smaller size of the aspartate scanning library,

together with the unique barcoding strategy of the individual mutant ORFs employed by us

simplify library construction and downstream analysis. Using this method, we identified a total

of 26 surface-exposed amino acid residues as potential epitopes targeted by the sera. The

majority of these residues have been previously identified as part of epitopes for different

classes of RBD neutralizing monoclonal antibodies (77), thus supporting the robustness of the

novel screening approach in identifying epitopes targeted by polyclonal sera.

The epitopes identified using the proposed analysis can be broadly categorized into

two main groups: RBM epitopes overlapping with the ACE2 binding motif and non-RBM

epitopes. The RBM epitopes consist primarily of class 1 and class 2 epitopes which are

targeted by antibodies that competitively hinder receptor engagement and virus attachment to

host cells. While antibodies targeting these epitopes are responsible for the high neutralizing

activity of polyclonal serum used in this study (17, 21, 78–80), higher frequencies of escape

mutations in these regions limits their breath and cross-reactivity in the emerging VOCs (25,

26, 47, 81). For example, the R403K mutation, in the class 1 epitope, has been classified as

"vaccine escape mutation", leading to higher infectivity and lower neutralizing activity of

vaccine-elicited antibodies against the recent JN.1 subvariant of Omicron (82). Interestingly,

the R403D mutation resulted in 48.9 fold reduction in neutralizing activity of the BCRTH01

serum as evidenced in our study. Another identified class 2 epitope residue substitution L452R, was associated with a massive expansion and immune escape of the Delta variant from vaccine-elicited class1 and class 2 antibodies (43) during the second year of the pandemic (83). Similarly, the F456L mutation (class 1 epitope) is associated with heightened ACE2 binding, infectivity, and immune evasion from the XBB.1.5 neutralizing antibodies (84) leading to the global spread of EG.5 (Eris) subvariant (85) in the recent past. The K356T mutation in JN.1, in the class 3 epitope, drives resistance towards Sotrovimab, a class 3 antibody (S309) based antiviral drug (86). In contrast to classes 1-3, the class 4 epitopes targeted by the selected sera described above show high conservation (Fig 6C). These class 4 epitopes are situated in the RBD core region, away from the RBM except for the G416, which resides within RBM. Class 4 antibodies targeting G416 (COVA1-16, C118 and C022) and surrounding residues sterically hinder ACE2 binding (25, 26) thereby resulted in high neutralizing activity.

A major fraction (11/26) of the epitope residues identified in the present study belong to a newly identified epitope (44, 45, 87), rarely seen in the repertoire of antibodies from convalescent sera (40–43). Recently, this epitope has been categorized as class 5 or the RBD8 class of epitopes (27, 31). These antibodies are reported to get enriched by breakthrough infections caused by Omicron subvariants (54). The amino acid residues constituting these epitopes are clustered together at the opposite surface from the ACE2 binding motif of RBD and remain inaccessible in the closed trimeric form of the spike (S) (Fig 6B). Such epitopes can only be accessible through breathing of the prefusion structure of the trimeric S protein (Fig 6B) whereby antibody binding ultimately leads to shedding of the S1 subunit (31). Additionally, it has been proposed that the binding of class 5 antibodies leads to premature, receptor-independent conversion of S from pre- to post-fusion conformation, ultimately blocking viral entry and syncytium formation (88). Interestingly, class 5 epitope residues remain completely conserved across all SARS-CoV-2 variants and for a number of different Sarbecoviruses, indicating the cross-reactivity and increased breadth of class 5 antibodies against these viruses. Consistent with this, the selected serum samples, enriched

for RBD8 epitope antibodies, effectively neutralized WA.1, Delta, Kappa, Omicron BA.1 and

XBB.1.5.

Lately, antibodies targeting non-RBM epitopes in the spike protein have emerged as

prime candidates for developing broad-spectrum vaccines or therapeutics against SARS-CoV-

2 variants (28, 89, 90). Some of these antibodies showed cross reactivity against different

Sarbecoviruses, thus further extending the prophylactic/therapeutic potential of such

antibodies against future emerging SARS-like coronaviruses. However, non-RBM antibodies

are limited by their weak neutralization activity. Rao et al., have shown that the RBD8 antibody

(BIOLS56) can rescue the immune escape caused by an RBM targeting antibody (IMCAS-

L4.65), together ensuring strong neutralizing activity and broad neutralizing efficacy against

different Omicron variants (31). In this study, we show that an immune response elicited by

hybrid immunity and containing a combination of class-1 (RBM targeting) and class 5/ RBD8

antibodies can achieve neutralization potencies against different SARS-CoV-2 variants

including WA.1, Kappa, Delta and multiple Omicron subvariants including the more distant

XBB.1.5. Characterizing such combination of different classes of antibodies is important for

optimizing novel vaccine recipes against existing and yet to be emerging sarbecovirus.

Interestingly, mutation of a single class5/ RBD8 epitope residue (R466D) resulted in 132 fold

reduction in the neutralization titer, which is even higher than that observed in the case of

mutations of class 1 (R403D) epitope (48.9 fold), suggesting high abundance and comparable

neutralization efficacy of these two different classes of antibodies (class 5/ RBD8 and class 1)

in the one of the selected serum samples (BCRTH01) used for epitope mapping analysis. This

contrasts with the previously conducted epitope mapping studies from the convalescent

polyclonal serum samples, which led to the identification of class 1-4 epitope targeting

antibodies (40–43).

In conclusion, antibodies targeting different classes of epitopes may synergistically

contribute to achieving high neutralizing activity (Class 1+2 epitopes) and broader cross-

reactivity (Class 4 and RBD8) against all variants of SARS-CoV-2. Notably, RBD8 constitutes

a significant portion of the epitopes identified in all three serum samples, which differs from

the typical composition of the convalescent serum samples analysed previously (40–43). In

India, after the Delta wave in mid-2021, there was little masking or isolation, and likely

continued extensive viral exposure. This, coupled with the relatively young population (median

age 28.4 years) may have contributed to the generation of broadly cross reactive antibodies

targeting novel cryptic epitope presented here. These findings need to be confirmed in larger

epitope mapping studies where the humoral immune response, abundance of specific classes

of antibodies should be correlated with the clinical manifestation of the disease. Greater

understanding of this adaptive strategy implemented by the host would pave the way towards

the development of universal vaccines and therapeutics against newly emerging SARS-CoV-

2 variants and future sarbecovirus outbreaks.

Materials and methods

Cell line

Human embryonic kidney (HEK) 293T cells (ATCC #CRL-3216) were maintained in

Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum

(FBS) along with antibiotics like penicillin, streptomycin and anti mycotic agent (Gibco) at 37°C

and 5% CO_2.

Plasmids:

Plasmid pHAGE2-EF1aInt- ACE2-WT, expressing human ACE2 gene (BEI#NR-

52514) was used for overexpressing ACE2 in HEK 293T cells. Plasmid HDM-IDTSpike-fixK

(BEI#NR-52514) was used for expressing the codon-optimized spike protein from SARS-

CoV-2, Wuhan-Hu-1 strain (Genbank NC_045512). Plasmids pcDNA3.3-SARS2-B.1.617.1,

expressing spike protein of Kappa variant (addgene#172319), pcDNA3.3-SARS2-B.1.617.2

SARS-CoV-2, expressing spike protein of Delta variant (addgene#172320) (91) and SARS-

CoV-2 Omicron strain spike gene in Human codon_pcDNA3.1(+) expressing spike protein of

Omicron variant (B.1.1.529) (GenScript# MC_0101274) were utilized in the study (35). XBB1.5

spike expression plasmid construct was a kind gift from Dr. Rajesh P. Ringe, Institute of

Microbial Technology, Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR), India.

Antibodies:

NB100-56578 is a polyclonal antibody raised in rabbits against SARS CoV-2 spike

protein and was obtained from Novus Biologicals (USA). Serum from the pre-COVID era

(Single donor human serum off the clot, ISERS2M-2019-33108-07) was obtained from

Innovative Research, Inc.

Bioinformatics and Structural Analysis:

Genome sequences of 47 different SARS-CoV-2 viruses that infect humans and 11

different sarbecovirus spike RBD sequences were obtained from the GISAID database.

Multiple sequence alignment was performed in Bioedit software using ClustalW multiple

alignment function. Further representation of the spike proteins' aligned RBD amino acid

sequences was performed using JALVIEW or the Multlin sequence alignment tool. Structural

alignment was performed in Pymol using specific PDB files of post-fusion spike protein

structures of SARS-CoV-2 viruses (PDB id: 6M0J).

Construction of SARS-CoV-2 S mutant plasmid constructs:

Plasmid HDM-IDTSpike-fixK expressing a codon-optimized spike protein from SARS-

CoV-2 was subjected to site-directed mutagenesis to generate R403D, G416D, T430D and

R466D, respectively, using the QuikChange II Site-directed mutagenesis kit (Agilent) according

to the manufacturer's instructions. Mutations generated in the SARS-CoV-2 S protein were

further verified using Sangers sequencing.

Generation of SARS-CoV-2 S pseudotyped lentiviruses:

Generation of SARS-CoV-2 lentivirus particles pseudotyped with either full-length WT,

different VoCs or mutation at SARS-CoV-2 spike protein (R403D, G416D, T430D and R466D)

were generated by transfecting HEK293T cells with the respective set of plasmids by using the

protocol as described previously by Crawford et al., 2020 (92). Briefly, a lentiviral backbone

plasmid, pHAGE-CMV-Luc2-IRES-ZsGreen-W (BEI #NR-52516) bearing a CMV promoter to

express luciferase, was co-transfected with a set of other lentiviral plasmids like pHDM-

Hgpm2, expressing the HIV-1 gag and pol (BEI #NR-52517), pRC-CMV-rev1b, expressing the

HIV-1 rev (BEI #NR-52519), pHDM-tat1b, expressing the HIV-1 tat (BEI # NR- 52518), and

respective different WT or mutant spike protein-expressing plasmids. Post transfection, the

SARS CoV-2 pseudoviruses were collected by passing the supernatant through a 0.45 um

filter and used freshly.

Pseudovirus-based Serum Neutralization Assay:

Serum samples collected from the volunteers were inactivated at 65^0C for 30 minutes

prior to use. Serially diluted serum samples were incubated with either WT or different VoC/

mutant pseudoviruses at 37^0C for 1h. Serum-neutralized viral inoculum was then used to infect

hACE2-expressing HEK 293T cells at $37^\circ C$ for 1h in the CO_2 incubator in the presence of

polybrene till 18h. Successful neutralization of the pseudovirus results in a several fold

reduction in reporter virus activity, which were measured using a multimodal plate reader

(GloMax® Explorer Multimode Microplate Reader, Promega). Polyclonal SARS CoV-2

(NB100-56578) antibody served as a positive control, whereas sera from the pre-COVID era

were used as a negative control for the study.

Charged scanning library construction and yeast surface display:

Substitutions to Aspartate and Arginine are chosen for introduction in scanning

mutagenesis as analysis of existing DMS data suggests that these are the most disruptive for

binding. A charged scanning library of SARS CoV-2 spike RBD was generated using site-

directed mutagenesis. Exposed positions with accessibility >15% (total 125 residues) were

individually mutated to Aspartate or Arginine (for negatively charged residues), and each

mutant was fused by PCR to a unique 6 nucleotide barcode of known sequence to simplify

analysis and eliminate the need for long read sequencing. Upon mutagenesis by overlap PCR,

all the PCR products from each individual mutated position were pooled and transformed into

yeast via two fragment recombination by electroporation.

Human sera screening

Three human sera were selected for screening based on their high neutralization titres.

The sera were first titrated on yeast surface displaying WT-RBD and a saturating concentration

was chosen from the titration curve to be used for epitope mapping. The binding of these sera

with the aspartate library was analysed by flow cytometry, sorted into multiple gates and then

subjected to deep sequencing. Briefly, the pooled library of yeast cells expressing each of the

charged mutants was inoculated in 5 ml of SDCAA medium and grown overnight at 30°C, 250

rpm. The next day, a secondary inoculation from the overnight culture of the library was grown

at 30°C until an OD600 of 3–4, followed by induction in SGCAA medium at 20°C for 16 hr. A

total of 1×10^7 cells of this library were washed twice with FACS buffer (1XPBS, pH 7.4 and

0.5% BSA) and then incubated at 4°C for 1 hr with a selected dilution of sera to probe for

binding and chicken anti-CMyc antibody (1:300 dilution) as a probe for the expression. The

cells were washed twice with FACS buffer and subsequently labelled with Alexa Fluor 633 goat

anti-human (1:1200 dilution) (catalogue no. A21091), plus Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-chicken

(1:300 dilution), (catalogue no. A11039) for 20 min at room temperature in the dark. After

washing thrice with FACS buffer, cells were resuspended in 1 mL of FACS buffer, subjected to

flow cytometry, and sorted on an Aria-III cell sorter (BD Biosciences).

Deep sequencing and analysis

The sorted yeast cells from each gate were grown separately in liquid SDCAA medium

to saturation at 30°C for 24 hr, and the plasmids were extracted using EZ Yeast plasmid

miniprep kit (G Biosciences) according to the manufacturer's instructions and then subjected

to PCR. The PCR primers were designed to amplify the barcode region only (150 bp) and in a

way such that for both, the forward and reverse end reads, the first 3 bases are NNN followed

by 6 bases of unique sequence tag (MID) and the 21 bases of the primer sequence

complementary to the gene. Each forward MID sequence represents a particular serum, while

each reverse MID sequence represents a specific gate. The PCR for all the gates from three

sorted sera samples was carried out using Phusion polymerase for 15 cycles. Following

agarose gel electrophoresis and gel band purification, an equal amount (~100 ng) of PCR

product from each sample was pooled and then gel-band purified, followed by sequencing on

the NovaSeq platform. The fraction of each mutant (Xi) distributed across all the bins was

calculated as in (Equation 1) and then the reconstructed MFI for each mutant was calculated

by the summation of the product obtained from multiplying the fraction of a particular mutant

in a particular gate (Xi) with the MFI of that gate that was obtained from the FACS experiment

(Fi), (Equation 2).

Fraction of mutant in each gate $X_i = \dfrac{N_i}{\sum_1^n N_i}$ (Equation 1)

Ni: Number of reads of a specific mutant in bin i.

Reconstructed MFI= $\sum_1^n X_i * N_i$ (Equation 2).

The ratio of MFI expression/MFI binding for all positions was represented by a heat map using

GraphPad Prism software. The mutants with Ratio (Normalized MFI of expression: Normalized

MFI of binding), one standard deviation higher than the mean MFI were considered as epitope

residues.

Statistical analysis:

All experiments were performed in triplicates, and each data was repeated at least

three times except for the epitope mapping experiments, which were performed in

duplicates. Graphs are plotted using Graphpad Prism 10.1.2 and represented as mean

standard deviations (n = 3). Results were compared by performing a two-tailed Student's t-test.

Significance is defined as P < 0.05, and statistical significance is indicated with an asterisk (*).

*P < 0.001 were considered statistically significant.

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Performing experiments—I.D.J., K.K., and S.R. Manuscript writing—A.M., R.V., I.D.J. and
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1133 **Tables**
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1136 **Table 1. MFI ratios for the potential epitope residues**
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SI No.	Residue	MFI-expression/ MFI-binding		
		BCRTH-01	**INK-09**	**INK-36**
1	351	1.295788	1.273718	1.157062
2	355	1.219729	1.239262	1.197349
3	356	1.17089	-	-
4	359	-	-	1.081459
5	364	1.182295	-	-
6	380	-	1.148814	1.077429
7	381	1.260786	-	-
8	387	1.230637	-	-
9	403	1.292267	1.172926	1.120017
10	416	1.329536	1.175896	1.101252
11	420	1.163761	-	1.072276
12	421	1.218064	1.168982	1.115263
13	424	-	1.192174	1.081695
14	430	1.270088	-	-
15	437	1.301646	1.107961	1.117455
16	452	-	-	1.076026
17	456	1.185845	1.252503	1.192579
18	457	1.225249	1.222689	-
19	464	1.246659	1.128143	1.087599
20	465	1.225858	-	1.080284
21	466	1.341557	1.187018	1.116536
22	467	1.242733	1.221766	1.118558
23	470	1.178698	-	1.063863
24	473	1.169721	1.145745	1.100281
25	475	-	-	1.102217
26	489	-	1.234014	1.144957

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1142 **Table 2. Classification of epitopes.**
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Residue No.	Epitopes for serum samples			Epitope class	Antibody	Reference
	BCRTH-01	**INK-09**	**INK-36**			
351	+	+	+	Class 5/ RBD8	N-612-056; BIOLS56/ IMCAS74/ WRAIR-2057/ WRAIR-2134	(31, 44–46)
355	+	+	+	Class 5/ RBD8	N-612-056/ BIOLS56 IMCAS74/ WRAIR-2063/ S2H97/ FD20/WRAIR- 2057/WRAIR-2134	(27, 31, 44–46, 93, 94)
356	+	-	-	Class3/ Class 5/ RBD8	S309/	(22, 31, 44, 46)

				N-612-056/ IMCAS74/ WRAIR-2134	
359	-	-	+	Class3	S309	(22)
364	+	-	-	Unclassified	-	-
380	-	+	+	Class4	COVA1-16, CR3022	(25, 95)
381	+	-	-	Class4	COVA1-16, CR3022	(25, 95)
387	+	-	-	Unclassified		-
403	+	+	+	Class1	C002, C102, C121	(21)
416	+	+	+	Class1/ Class4	C105, COVA1-16, C118, C022,	(25, 26, 96)
420	+	-	+	Class1	C105, LY-CoV-016	(40, 88, 96)
421	+	+	+	Class1	C102	(21)
424	-	+	+	Class 5/ RBD8	BIOLS56/ IMCAS74/ WRAIR-2057/ WRAIR-2134	(31, 46)
430	+	-	-	Class4/ Class 5/ RBD8	C022/ BIOLS56/ IMCAS74/ WRAIR-2057/ WRAIR-2134	(26, 31, 46)
437	+	+	+	Class 4	C118	(26)
452	-	-	+	Class2	C144, C002	(21)
456	+	+	+	Class1	C002, C102, C121	(21)
457	+	+	-	Class 5	N-612-056, 6D6; WRAIR-2057/WRAIR-2134	(44, 46)
464	+	+	+	Class 5/ RBD8	N-612-056/ 6D6 & 7D6/ BIOLS56/ IMCAS74/ WRAIR-2063/ S2H97/ WRAIR-2057/ WRAIR-2134	(27, 31, 44–46, 93, 94)
465	+	-	+	Class 5/ RBD8	N-612-056/ 6D6 & 7D6/ BIOLS56/ IMCAS74/ WRAIR-2063/ S2H97/ WRAIR-2057/ WRAIR-2134	(27, 31, 44–46, 94)
466	+	+	+	Class 5/ RBD8	N-612-056/ 6D6 & 7D6/ BIOLS56/ IMCAS74/ WRAIR-2063/ S2H97/ WRAIR-2057/ WRAIR-2134	(31, 44, 45)
467	+	+	+	Class 5/ RBD8	N-612-056; IMCAS74/ WRAIR-2063/ S2H97/ WRAIR-2057/ WRAIR-2134	(31, 44)
470	+	-	+	Class2/ Class 5/ RBD8	C144/ 7D6, 6D6/ WRAIR-2057	(21, 45)
473	+	+	+	Class1	C102	(21)
475	-	-	+	Class1	C102	(21)
489	-	+	+	Class1	C102	(21)

Figure Legends

FIG 1. Study cohort and timeline. (A) Schematic representation of study design. (B)

Distribution of the study cohort as a function of the timeline of vaccination and breakthrough

infection in the context of the second and third wave of pandemics caused by different VOCs

of SARS-CoV-2. Red bars indicate the time points of serum sample collection for the entire

cohort (early) and subsequently for the selected individuals (late). (C) Age distribution of male

and female volunteers included in the study cohort.

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FIG 2. **Neutralizing activity of the polyclonal serum samples isolated from the study**

cohort. (A) Heatmap of neutralizing activity of the 164 serum samples (at dilutions; 0.01,

0.001, 0.001) against the parental strain and different VOCs of SARS-CoV-2 with green to red

representing the lowest to highest extent of neutralization (%). (B) Comparison of the relative

neuralization efficacies of the serum samples (at 0.01 dilution) against parental strain and

different VOCs. (C) Venn diagram showing cross-reactivity of the selected serum samples

displaying more than 65% neutralization (at 0.01 dilution) towards at least one of the

pseudoviral variants tested in this study. A total of 29 serum samples with >65% cross-

reactivity towards all the VOCs tested in this study were designated as broadly cross-reactive

sera (red diamonds in A). Each image shown here are a representative of three independent

experiments performed in triplicates.

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FIG 3. Comparative neutralizing activities of the selected serum samples collected at

early and late time points. (A) Comparative analysis of the neutralization titers (IC_{50}) of serum

samples isolated from the selected 9 volunteers during 1st (early) and second (late) batches

of sample collection, against WA.1, B.1.617.2 and BA.1. (B) Heatmap showing fold change in

the IC_{50} values for B.1.617.2 and BA.1 with respect to the parental WA.1 strain with red to

white indicating higher to lower neutralization titers. (C) Comparative analysis of the

pseudovirus neutralization titers of the serum samples isolated at early and late time points.

(D) Heatmap representing variant-specific fold change in IC_{50} values. All data shown are

averages of the results of at least three independent experiments ± SD.

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FIG 4. **The serum samples show high binding affinity towards spike RBD**. (A) ELISA was

performed to determine the binding affinity of the polyclonal serum samples towards spike

RBD derived from WA.1 and Omicron subvariants BA.1 and BA.5. (B) Comparison of binding

affinity of different serum samples (presented in the form of IC50) towards different RBD

variants. (C) Fold change in IC50 values for the BA.1 and BA.5 variants with respect to the

WA.1. Each data shown is a representative of at least three experiments performed

independently.

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FIG 5. Identification and validation of RBD epitope residues through yeast display

analysis. (A) Schematic representation of the yeast display screening as described in the text.

(B) The heat map represents the ratio of MFI-expression to MFI-binding extracted from deep

sequencing reads analysis. The higher to lower ratios are represented in a red to blue gradient.

The higher the ratio (*Red*), the more sera escape at that position. (C) The MFI-expression/

MFI-binding ratios are mapped on the RBD structure (PDB ID: 6M0J) following the same color

scheme. The RBM is demarcated on the structure using a black line. (D) Validation was carried

out using FACS by quantifying the binding of WT and the mutant RBDs, harboring mutations

at the epitope and non-epitope residues, to BCRTH-01, INK09 and INK36 serum samples.

The MFI-binding of WT and mutant RBDs w.r.t to the three serum samples are presented.

Each image is a representative of two independent experiments performed in triplicates.

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FIG 6. Epitope classification and characterization. (A) Individual epitope residues, as
identified for the BCRTH01, INK09 and INK36 serum samples, are mapped on the surface of
the RBD (PDB ID: 6M0J) and are color-coded based on the previously published epitope
classes. (B) Class 5/ RBD8 epitopes identified in this study are mapped on the pre-fusion
trimeric structure of the spike in its closed (PDB ID: 6VXX) and open (PDB ID: 6VYB)
conformations. (C) Matrix representing the conservation of identified epitope residues across
all major SARS-CoV-2 variants. Mutations of a specific residue in a particular variant are
represented in red square. Epitope classes are designated using coloured diamonds.

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1213 **FIG 7**. Neutralisation titers (IC50) for WT and mutant pseudoviruses w.r.t selected serum
1214 samples. (A) Neutralisation curves for pseudoviruses with WT (WA.1) or mutant spike
1215 proteins, harbouring specific mutations at the epitope residues, with serial dilutions of the
1216 BCRTH-01, INK-09 and INK-36 sera as indicated. (B) Neutralisation titers (IC50) for WT and
1217 mutant pseudoviruses for three sera samples as indicated.

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FIG 8. A considerable fraction of the study cohort shows neutralization activity against
Omicron XBB.1.5. (A) Neutralisation curves for WA.1, BA. 1 and XBB. 1.5 pseudoviruses
with serial dilutions of BCRTH-01, INK-09 and INK 36 sera. (B) Neutralisation titers (IC50) of
29 serum samples (from FIG. 2C) w.r.t WA.1 and XBB.1.5 pseudoviruses are plotted. Fold
change of the IC50 for XBB.1.5 w.r.t the WA.1 are marked in salmon red. All data shown are
averages of the results of at least three independent experiments ± SD. $*$= P < 0.001,$****$ =
P < 0.0001 (unpaired Student's t-test). Images shown are representative of three independent
repeats.

FIG S1. Neutralization of the WA.1, B.1.617.2 and BA.1 pseudoviruses with nine serum
samples collected from the selected volunteers during 1st batch (early) (A) and second batch
(late) (B) of sample collection. 100% neutralization is considered as obtained by the

Polyclonal SARS CoV-2 (NB100-56578) antibody. All data shown are averages of the results

of at least three independent experiments ± SD.

Fig S2. (A) The binding profile of the selected serum samples to wild type RBD displayed on

the yeast surface. (B-D) Histograms showing yeast cells binding to the indicated serum

samples, were sorted into eight gates based upon low to high binding affinity and the frequency

of each variant's barcode in individual gates was determined by Illumina sequencing.

Fig S3. Validation of the epitope mapping results was carried out by quantifying the binding of

WT and the selected RBD mutants to BCRTH-01, INK09 and INK36 serum (A-C) Histograms

showing binding of the yeast cells displaying WT or mutant RBDs to the indicated serum

samples, sorted into gates based upon low to high binding. Each image is a representative of

two independent experiments performed in triplicates.

FIG S4. Multiple sequence alignment of different sarbecovirus spike RBD sequences showing

conservation of the Class5/ RBD epitope residues marked by black triangles.

FIG S5. Shortlisted 29 sera show neutralising activity against XBB. 1.5. Neutralisation curves

for WA. 1 and XBB. 1.5 pseudoviruses with serial dilutions of all the 29 shortlisted sera as

indicated.

A

2-4 months post vaccination | 2-4 weeks post infection (early) | 2-4 weeks post 1st batch collection (late)

COVID19 Vaccination   Infection   Neutralisation using convalescent serum

B

C

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FIG 6.

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1288   **Acknowledgement:**
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