Longitudinal profiling of B cells primed by mRNA vaccine and recalled by Omicron variants uncovers antibodies broadly neutralizing sarbecoviruses

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Abstract

Regarding to the impact of ancestral SARS-CoV-2 immune imprinting on antibody responses to emerging variants, to what extent memory B cells elicited by wild-type (WT) spike can develop neutralizing breadth and potency in immune recalls is a key question. Here, we longitudinally tracked B cells recognizing WT spike in two individuals of mRNA vaccine, from convalescence of breakthrough infection to acute phase of reinfection. Comprehensive characterization of 632 monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) from those B cells reveals that mAbs cloned after reinfection have dramatically enhanced neutralizing breadth and potency, including 11 mAbs that potently neutralize all tested SARS-CoV-2 variants from WT to KP.3. Among the 11 mAbs, 5 mAbs are classified into public clonotypes encoded by IGHV3-53 or IGHV3-66, whereas the rest belong to a rare clonotype encoded by IGHV3-74. Notably, IGHV3-74 mAbs can even neutralize SARS-CoV-1 with a minimum IC50 of 0.055 µg/ml. Structural and functional analysis further suggests that IGHV3-74 mAbs target a novel epitope on receptor-binding domain, and the best mAb, termed KXD352, is highly resilient to variations on this epitope. Overall, this study demonstrates that both public and rare antibody clonotypes primed by prototype mRNA vaccine can achieve extraordinary neutralizing breadth and potency in repeated Omicron infections.

Introduction

Adaptive immune system adopts multiple mechanisms to ensure specific and diverse antibody responses against various pathogens. During B cell development, V(D)J recombination generates a vast diversity of B cell antigen receptors (BCRs) for naïve B cells (*1*). When infection or vaccination occurs, a small portion of naïve B cell repertoire get activated as their BCRs recognize corresponding antigens by chance (*2*). Activated B cells either differentiate into short-lived plasmablasts (PBs) to produce the initial wave of antibodies, or enter germinal centers (GCs) to undergo repeated rounds of somatic hypermutation and affinity-dependent selection, a process known as antibody affinity maturation (*3*). The evolved GC B cells eventually differentiate into long-lived plasma cells (PCs) to constantly secrete antibodies for months to years, or memory B cells to wait for future encounter with the same or similar antigens (*3*). Compared with primary antigen exposure, secondary antigen exposure typically leads to much faster and stronger antibody responses as recalled memory B cells rapidly differentiate into PB/PCs to secrete high-affinity antibodies (*4*). In addition, memory B cells can be recruited into newly formed GCs to further mature upon secondary antigen exposure (*4*). Overall, these mechanisms work in concert to establish antibody-mediated immune protection against infections.

Since the outbreak of SARS-CoV-2, numerous studies on human antibody responses against spike protein of this emerging virus have been conducted to inform the development of vaccines and antibody therapeutics (*5-7*). Early in the pandemic, extensive isolation and characterization of monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) from convalescents reveals that neutralizing antibodies primarily target epitopes on receptor-binding domain (RBD) and to a lesser extent on N-terminal domain (NTD) of spike (*8, 9*). Furthermore, RBD-specific neutralizing antibodies are categorized into seven major

groups according to their binding modes and fine epitopes (*10*), whereas NTD-specific neutralizing

antibodies largely target a single supersite (*11, 12*). Although spike-specific antibodies from different

convalescents are highly diverse, a series of public antibodies (i.e. antibodies generated by different

individuals while sharing common genes and antigen recognition modes) have been widely reported,

including antibodies encoded by IGHV3-53, IGHV3-66, IGHV1-58 and IGHV1-69 (*13-16*). In addition,

longitudinal profiling of memory B cells from peripheral blood of convalescents demonstrates that

spike- or RBD-specific memory B cells display increased somatic hypermutation, binding affinity and

neutralizing potency over time, reflecting long-lasting GC responses elicited by primary SARS-CoV-2

infection (*17-19*). Compared with SARS-CoV-2 infection, two doses of SARS-CoV-2 mRNA vaccines

lead to equivalent plasma neutralizing activity and similar amount of RBD-specific memory B cells

(*20*). Spike- or RBD-specific mAbs cloned from vaccinees and convalescents recognize common

epitopes and share frequently-used antibody genes (*20*). Moreover, analysis of draining lymph node

samples from vaccinees indicates that mRNA vaccines provoke persistent GCs, which last for at least

six months and enable the maturation of spike-specific B cells (*21, 22*).

Under the immune pressure established by infection and vaccination, SARS-CoV-2 variants,

represented by Alpha (B.1.1.7), Beta (B.1.351), Gamma (P.1), Delta (B.1.617.2) and Omicron

(B.1.1.529), emerged successively in the first two years of the pandemic. Among them, Omicron

exhibited most striking evasion to neutralizing antibodies induced by ancestral SARS-CoV-2 spike

and therefore caused a new wave of infections worldwide (*23*). Omicron infection in individuals

administrated with mRNA vaccines predominantly recalls cross-reactive memory B cells elicited by

vaccination whereas rarely induces *de novo* Omicron-specific B cells responses, highlighting that

ancestral SARS-CoV-2 imprints B cell responses to Omicron (*24-27*). Consequently, plasma

neutralizing activity against ancestral SARS-CoV-2 and Omicron are enhanced synchronously (*24-*

27). Moreover, B cell clones with more mutations and higher affinities towards Omicron progressively

remodel spike-specific memory B cell repertoire, suggesting that cross-reactive memory B cells can

undergo further affinity maturation in new GCs induced by Omicron breakthrough infection (*28, 29*).

With the rapid emergence of Omicron-derived variants, such as BA.2.75, BA.5, BF.7, BQ.1, XBB.1.5,

XBB.1.16, EG.5.1, BA.2.86 and JN.1, repeated infections with these variants have become common

and updated vaccines have been applied accordingly in some countries (*30*). In individuals with prior

exposures to wild-type (WT) spike, antibody responses boosted by subsequent exposures to

emerging Omicron variants, either through infection or vaccination, display biased neutralizing

activities to ancestral SARS-CoV-2 and earlier Omicron variants, suggesting that immune imprinting

may impede the elicitation of neutralizing antibodies against more recent and future variants (*31-35*).

Nonetheless, mAbs from those individuals dramatically surpass mAbs elicited by WT spike in

neutralizing breadth and potency, indicating that immune imprinting is potentially beneficial for the

development of broadly neutralizing antibodies (bnAbs) (*28, 36*).

As the evolution of SARS-CoV-2 shows no signs of stop, repeated exposures to emerging SARS-

CoV-2 variants will constantly happen in the future. Regarding to the impact of ancestral SARS-CoV-

2 immune imprinting on antibody responses to emerging variants, to what extent memory B cells

elicited by WT spike can develop neutralizing breadth and potency in immune recalls is a key question.

To address this question, we performed a 7-month longitudinal study of B cells recognizing WT spike

in two individuals of mRNA vaccine, from convalescence of breakthrough infection to acute phase of

reinfection. Functional and genetic analysis of 632 mAbs from those B cells reveals that mAbs cloned

after reinfection have dramatically enhanced neutralizing breadth and potency, which is likely due to

recall of pre-existing memory B cells and maturation of those cells either before or after reinfection.

Among the 11 mAbs that potently neutralize all tested SARS-CoV-2 variants from WT to KP.3, 5 mAbs

are classified into public clonotypes encoded by IGHV3-53 or IGHV3-66, whereas the rest belong to

a rarely reported clonotype encoded by IGHV3-74. Notably, IGHV3-74 mAbs can even neutralize

SARS-CoV-1 with a minimum IC50 of 0.055 µg/ml. Structural and functional analysis shows that

IGHV3-74 mAbs can block the binding between RBD and ACE2 by targeting a novel epitope

consisting of E340-R346, V367-S375, N436-G446 and Q498-V503. Moreover, the best IGHV3-74

mAb, termed KXD352, is highly resilient to variations on this epitope. Overall, this study demonstrates

that both public and rare antibody clonotypes primed by ancestral SARS-CoV-2 mRNA vaccine have

potential to achieve extraordinary neutralizing breadth and potency in repeated Omicron infections.

Results

Reinfection enhances plasma neutralizing antibody responses

In our previous study, we recruited a cohort to study antibody responses elicited by breakthrough

infection (*37*). Among them, Donor 1 and 2 received two doses of mRNA vaccines in the middle or

beginning of 2021 and were infected by BA.5 or BF.7 in the end of 2022 (Figure 1A). With their blood

samples collected about two months (T1) after infection, we have identified multiple mAbs with broadly

neutralizing capacity (*37*). To longitudinally track B cell responses in these two donors, we also

collected blood samples about 3 months (T2) and 6 months (T3) after infection. Donor 1 showed

symptoms of infection and was confirmed by SARS-CoV-2 antigen test on August 25 2023, when

EG.5.1 caused a new round of infections in China (*38*). Eleven days later (T4), blood was collected

again from Donor 1 to study acute phase antibody responses evoked by reinfection. In parallel, we

also collected blood from Donor 2 at T4, though Donor 2 reported no symptoms and negative test

results during several waves of infections before this time point.

We measured neutralizing antibody titers of plasma from four time points against a panel of 18

pseudoviruses bearing spikes from ancestral SARS-CoV-2 (WT), Alpha, Beta, Gamma, Delta, BA.1,

BA.4/5, BA.2.75, BQ.1, XBB, XBB.1.5, EG.5.1, HK.3, BA.2.86, JN.1, KP.2, KP.3 and SARS-CoV-1

(Figure 1B and Figure S1). Overall, the plasma neutralizing titers (NT50s) of both donors gradually

decrease from T1 to T3 with a maximum of 10.7 folds. After reinfection, plasma from Donor 1 at T4

shows substantially increased neutralizing titers against most strains by a maximum of 20.7 folds

compared to T3. The titers of plasma from Donor 2 continuously decline or sustain from T3 to T4 for

most strains, whereas increase by 1.9 to 2.7 folds for strains including Gamma, BA.1 and XBB. As

latest variants of XBB and BA.2.86 lineages, HK.3 and KP.3 are least sensitive to neutralization,

highlighting the continuous neutralization escape (Figure 1C). Nonetheless, plasma at T4 from Donor

1 displays relatively stable neutralizing titers across all SARS-CoV-2 variants, indicating that

reinfection enhances the breadth of neutralizing antibody response in Donor 1.

Monoclonal antibodies cloned from WT-spike-specific B cells after reinfection exhibit

improved neutralizing breadth and potency

As memory B cells elicited by ancestral SARS-CoV-2 mRNA vaccine typically maintain their

specificities to WT spike in recalled responses (*24-29, 31-35*), we used WT-spike as bait to track

memory B cells initially induced by mRNA vaccine in peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs)

from these two donors. Consistent with plasma neutralizing titers, the frequencies of WT-spike-

specific B cells in Donor 1 drop sequentially from T1 to T3 and then rise back to initial level (Figure

2A). Unexpectedly, Donor 2 displays similar dynamic changes as Donor 1, suggesting that Donor 2

may have experienced an asymptomatic infection between T3 and T4.

To examine the binding and neutralizing properties of antibodies from those WT-spike-specific B

cells, we cloned the variable regions of antibodies from those B cells into expression vectors through

single-cell RT-PCR. Then we transfected HEK293T cells with those vectors and harvested

supernatant for ELISA and neutralization assay (Figure 2B). In ELISA, the supernatant was tested

with RBD, NTD, S1, S2 and spike (S) from WT SARS-CoV-2 and spikes from Omicron variants

including BA.4/5, XBB.1.5, EG.5.1 and JN.1. In neutralization assay, the supernatant was tested

against WT, BA.4/5, XBB.1.5, EG.5.1 and JN.1 pseudoviruses.

With published mAbs at T1 included, we identified 448 and 184 WT-spike-specific mAbs from Donor

1 and Donor 2 respectively. The main targets of these mAbs are RBD, NTD and S2, with the

proportions of mAbs to each domain slightly varying from T1 to T4 (Figure 2C). Regarding to cross-

binding with different spikes, the frequencies of RBD-specific mAbs that bind WT and one Omicron

variant, either BA.4/5, XBB.1.5, EG.5.1 or JN.1, decline from T1 to T3 and then ascend (Figure 2D,

Figure S2A). However, similar trend is not observed in NTD- and S2-specific mAbs.

By defining 70% inhibition as cutoff, we identified 127 mAbs that are able to neutralize WT

pseudoviruses (WT-neutralizing mAbs), with 77 from Donor 1 and 50 from Donor 2 (Figure 2E).

Among them, only 5 mAbs target NTD while the others exclusively recognize RBD. Regarding to

cross-neutralizing activity, around 20-30% of mAbs at T4 are able to neutralize all 5 tested

pseudoviruses, whereas only 2 out of 61 mAbs from T1 to T3 have such capacity (Figure 2F).

Moreover, the frequencies of mAbs that cross-neutralize WT and one Omicron variant drop from T1

to T3 and then jump to highest levels at T4 (Figure 2G, Figure S2B).

To further compare the breadth and potency of neutralizing mAbs from different time points, we purified those mAbs and measured their IC50s against 14 representative pseudoviruses including WT, Delta, BA.1, BA.4/5, BA.2.75, BQ.1, XBB.1.5, EG.5.1, HK.3, BA.2.86, JN.1, KP.2, KP.3 and SARS-CoV-1 (Figure 3A). Four neutralizing mAbs screened by supernatant were not included in this analysis because of low yields. Among all tested mAbs, 4 mAbs from Donor 2 are able to neutralize all SARS-CoV-2 variants and SARS-CoV-1. In addition, 2 mAbs from Donor 1 and 5 mAbs from Donor 2 can neutralize all SARS-CoV-2 variants from WT to KP.3. Notably, these 11 mAbs are exclusively identified from PBMCs collected at T4. Along with this finding, differences are observed in the overall neutralizing breadth of mAbs at T1 to T4 (Figure 3B, Figure S3A). T1 and T4 have higher frequencies of neutralizing antibody against BA.1, BA.4/5, BA.2.75, BQ.1, XBB.1.5 and BA.2.86 than T2 and T3, which is consistent with neutralization results of supernatant. Moreover, T4 has higher proportions of neutralizing antibody against EG.5.1, HK.3, JN.1, KP.2 and KP.3 than the other time points.

Regarding to neutralizing potency, the overall IC50s of mAbs at T4 are lower than that of mAbs at T2 and T3 against most strains (Figure 3C, D, Figure S3A). In addition, mAbs at T4 also display superior neutralizing potency than mAbs at T1 against Delta, EG.5.1, HK.3, JN.1 and KP.2. In contrast, significant differences in IC50s are generally not observed among mAbs at T1 to T3 by statistical analysis. We also combined mAbs at T1 to T3 together and compared them with mAbs at T4, which further confirms that mAbs isolated after reinfection have superior neutralizing breadth and potency than mAbs before reinfection (Figure S3B-D). Taken together, these data suggest that mAbs cloned from WT-spike-specific B cells after reinfection have enhanced neutralizing breadth and potency.

Reinfection recalls pre-existing memory B cells

To explain the enhanced neutralizing breadth and potency of mAbs cloned after reinfection, we moved

on to analyze the sequences of mAbs from T1 to T4. Binding mAbs from both donors use a wide

range of V genes (Figure 4A, B). The frequencies of each V gene from T1 to T4 are more consistent

for mAbs from Donor 1 than those from Donor 2, likely due to fewer mAbs isolated from Donor 2 at

T2 and T3. The most frequently-used V genes for heavy chain include IGHV3-30, IGHV3-66, IGHV3-

53, IGHV3-33, IGHV1-69 and IGHV1-46. Among them, IGHV3-30 and IGHV3-33 are primarily used

by mAbs targeting S2, whereas IGHV3-66, IGHV3-53 and IGHV1-69 are preferentially used by mAbs

recognizing RBD (Figure S4A). The most frequently-used V genes for light chain include IGKV1-39,

IGKV3-20, IGKV3-15, IGKV3-11, IGKV1-33, IGKV1-5 and IGKV1-9, which are less biased toward

mAbs targeting a certain domain than V genes for heavy chain (Figure S4A). In contrast to binding

mAbs, neutralizing mAbs are predominantly encoded by IGHV3-66, IGHV3-53 and IGHV1-69 (Figure

4A, B). Furthermore, in these neutralizing mAbs, IGHV3-66 and IGHV3-53 typically pair with IGKV1-

33, IGKV1-9 and IGKV3-20, whereas IGHV1-69 commonly pair with IGLV1-40 (Figure S4B). It is

worth mentioning that the pair of IGHV3-74 and IGKV3-20 is used by 10 out of 50 neutralizing mAbs

from Donor 2. Nonetheless, the overall profiles of V gene usage are rather consistent from T1 to T4.

According to V and J genes and CDR3 similarity, we defined 401 and 145 unique clonotypes

respectively from 448 and 184 mAbs (Figure 4C). The expanded clonotypes are primarily found in

mAbs at T4, particular for Donor 2, further indicating that T4 is also in acute phase of reinfection for

Donor 2. As an evidence of recall of pre-existing memory B cells, multiple clonotypes found at T1 to

T3 are extensively expanded at T4, particular for neutralizing clonotypes such as Clonotype 204 and

223 from Donor 1 and Clonotype 88 and 92 from Donor 2 (Figure 4D).

On the other hand, mAbs at T4 have more somatic mutations than those from earlier time points, which can be either due to recall of pre-existing memory B cells with more mutations, or due to further maturation of pre-existing memory B cells in new GC reactions (Figure 4E). Taken together, these data suggest that the enhanced neutralizing breadth and potency of mAbs at T4 is attributed to recall of pre-existing memory B cells and maturation of those cells either before or after reinfection.

Both public and rare antibody clonotypes can develop extraordinary neutralizing breadth and potency

After longitudinal analysis of overall B cell responses in these two donors, we moved on to characterize the 11 mAbs with extraordinary neutralizing breadth (Figure 3A, Figure 5A). Clonotype analysis reveals that they belong to 5 unique clonotypes including Clonotype 92, 82 and 75 from Donor 2 and Clonotype 240-2 and 212-1 from Donor 1. Clonotype 92 is encoded by IGHV3-74 and IGHV3-20, which is rarely reported in RBD-specific antibodies against SARS-CoV-2 (*16*). This clonotype contains 10 neutralizing mAbs, with 1 from T2 and 9 from T4. Among them, KXD350, KXD352, KXD355 and KXD358 can neutralize all tested viruses while KXD371 and KXD372 can neutralize all SARS-CoV-2 variants. The other 4 mAbs in this clonotype are completely escaped by at least one SARS-CoV-2 variant. With IC50s ranging from 0.002 to 0.008 µg/mL against SARS-CoV-2 variants and IC50 of 0.055 µg/mL against SARS-CoV-1, KXD352 ranks as the best neutralizing mAb in this study. According to the phylogenetic tree, mAbs in this clonotype can be divided into two major clades, suggesting that neutralizing breadth can be developed through diverse evolution pathways.

The other four clonotypes belong to previously defined IGHV3-53/3-66 public antibody clonotypes (*16*). Clonotype 82 is encoded by IGVH3-66 and IGKV1-33 and contains 8 neutralizing mAbs from

T4. However, only KXD357 is able to neutralize all SARS-CoV-2 variants, with IC50s ranging from

0.003 to 0.224 µg/ml. Similar as Clonotype 92, Clonotype 82 also has two major clades. Although

mAbs in both clades are extensively mutated, mAbs in Clade-2 exhibit superior neutralizing breadth

than mAbs in Clade-1. Encoded by IGHV3-53 and IGKV3-15, Clonotype 75 contains previously

published KXD02 from T1 and two addition mAbs from T4. In our previous study, we have shown that

KXD02 broadly neutralizes SARS-CoV-2 variants from WT to HK.3 (*37*). However, KXD02 is soon

escaped by variants in BA.2.86 lineages including JN.1, KP.2 and KP.3. In contrast, KXD353 and

KXD356 from T4 maintain neutralizing activities against all SARS-CoV-2 variants, with IC50s ranging

from 0.002 to 0.216 µg/ml. In line with increased neutralizing breadth and potency, KXD353 and

KXD356 are also more evolved than KXD02 according to phylogenetic analysis. As singletons from

Donor 1, Clonotype 240-2 (KXD470) is encoded by IGHV3-66 and IGKV1-9, whereas Clonotype 212-

1 (KXD472) is encoded by IGHV3-53 and IGKV1-5. Although both mAbs are able to neutralize all

SARS-CoV-2 variants, they are less potent to KP.2 and KP.3 than bnAbs from Donor 2.

As all these clonotypes are identified with WT spike, we assume that they are initially primed by

ancestral SARS-CoV-2 mRNA vaccine but not by BA.5 or BF.7 breakthrough infection. To confirm

this assumption, we synthesized the putative germline antibodies of each clonotypes and measured

their binding avidities to WT and BA.4/5 spikes expressed on HEK293T cells (Figure 5B). BF.7 was

not tested since it has only one amino acid different from BA.5 in RBD. All the germlines, except GL-

4, show strong to moderate binding to WT spike. In contrast, they all display weak or even

undetectable binding to BA.4/5 spike. The biased recognition towards WT spike suggest that these

clonotypes are more likely to be activated by mRNA vaccine. Taken together, these data suggest that

both public and rare antibody clonotypes primed by ancestral SARS-CoV-2 mRNA vaccine have

potential to develop ultra-broad and potent neutralizing activities in repeated Omicron infections.

IGHV3-74-encoded bnAbs target a novel epitope and exhibit dramatic resilience to mutations

on the epitope

To evaluate the neutralizing potential of these mAbs to future SARS-CoV-2 variants, we moved on to

explore the structural basis for their neutralizing breadth. We first performed competition ELISA to

roughly map their epitopes with ACE2, CR3022, S309, P2S-2E9, BD55-5483, BD56-1854 and BD55-

1205 as references (Figure 6A). As reported, CR3022 binds to a cryptic epitope on the inner face of

RBD whereas S309 recognizes N343 proteoglycan epitope on the outer face of RBD (Figure S5A)

(*39, 40*). P2S-2E9 and BD55-5483 (analogue of BD55-5514) both target the previously defined "mesa"

of RBD, respectively biased to the outer face and inner face (*10, 41, 42*). As representatives of IGHV3-

53/3-66 public antibodies, BD56-1854 and BD55-1205 target receptor-binding-motif (RBM) (*43*).

We tested four SARS-CoV-1-neutralizing mAbs (KXD350, KXD352, KXD355 and KXD358) from

Clonotype 92 (IGHV3-74 mAbs) and five mAbs (KXD353, KXD356, KXD357, KXD470 and KXD472)

from other clonotypes (IGHV3-53/3-66 mAbs) (Figure 6A). IGHV3-53/3-66 mAbs compete with BD55-

5483, BD56-1854 and BD55-1205 but not with S309 and P2S-2E9. In contrast, IGHV3-74 mAbs

compete with S309, P2S-2E9 and BD55-5483 while not with BD56-1854 and BD55-1205. Moreover,

no competition is observed between these mAbs and CR3022 except for some minor competition

between KXD358 and CR3022. In addition, they all compete with ACE2, suggesting that they

neutralize SARS-CoV-2 through receptor blockade.

To define the fine epitopes of these mAbs, we performed structure prediction with AlphaFold 3. The

predicted structures of IGHV3-53/3-66 mAbs in complex with WT RBD are similar to the structure of

BD55-1205 in complex with XBB.1.5 RBD (Figure S5B). According to these structures, we defined

the common epitope of IGHV3-53/3-66 mAbs, which largely overlap with the epitope of ACE2 (Figure

6B, C).

On the other hand, AlphaFold 3 generated various structures for the complexes of IGHV3-74 mAbs

and WT RBD. However, only one type of structures is consistent with epitope mapping by competition

ELISA. Here, KXD355 is taken as an example to present the results. Binding to the previously defined

"escarpment" of RBD (10), KXD355 clashes with S309, P2S-2E9 and BD55-5514 (analogue of BD55-

5483) but not with BD55-1205 and CR3022 (Figure S5C). As this epitope is exposed on both up and

down RBDs, KXD355 can bind RBDs in both conformations (Figure 6D). In details, the long CDRH3

of KXD355 extends into a groove formed by three helices on the "escarpment" of RBD (Figure 6E).

Meanwhile, the other CDRs attach to "mesa" of RBD to provide support for CDRH3. Accordingly, the

epitope of KXD355 includes 22 residues distributed on E340-R346, V367-S375, W436-G446 and

Q498-V503 (Figure 6F).

To confirm the predicted epitopes, we constructed a panel of single-mutated KP.3 spikes and

measured their escape to those mAbs in binding and neutralization (Figure 6G). Compared to KP.3,

most mutants show similar or slightly lower expression levels on HEK293T cells, which is indicated

by a NTD-specific mAb. In contrast, nearly half of these mutants display reduced binding to ACE by

different extent. Regarding to the binding with mAbs, mutants including K403D, D420N, Y421K,

L456V, L456S, K460F, A475V, N487K, Y489A, Y489D, R498A and R498D completely lose binding

to at least one IGHV3-53/3-66 mAb. To a lesser extent, mutants like N343A, N343F, K440D, L441S

and H445D show decreased binding to IGHV3-74 mAbs. Consistent with reduced binding, the

aforementioned mutants also display dramatic escape of neutralization to corresponding mAbs. In

addition, mutants such as T345A, T345F, K444A and K444D are also resistant to certain IGHV3-74

mAbs, although they only partially lose binding to those mAbs. It is worth mentioning that KXD352 is

only completely escaped by L441S, which also impairs ACE2 binding, whereas maintain low IC50s

against all the other mutants (Figure S6). In addition, although SARS-CoV-1 has more than 10

mutations on the epitope of IGHV3-74 mAbs compared with SARS-CoV-2 variants, KXD352 can

neutralize SARS-CoV-1 with a low IC50 of 0.055 µg/ml, highlighting that KXD352 is highly resilient to

variations on its epitope (Figure 5A, Figure S7A).

To evaluate the likelihood that these mAbs are escaped by future circulating SARS-CoV-2 strains,

we collected 25332 spike sequences published between June 1 to October 1 in 2024. With KP.3 as

reference, we analyzed the mutations on the epitopes of these bnAbs (Figure 6H, Figure S7B). With

extremely low frequency, multiple confirmed escape mutations for IGHV3-53/3-66 mAbs are found in

the circulating strains, including D420N (0.0079%), A475V (0.02882%), N487K (0.0079%). In contrast,

confirmed escape mutations for IGHV3-74 mAbs are not found in the circulating strains. Overall, these

data predict that IGHV3-74 mAbs, particular KXD352, will not be easily escaped by SARS-CoV-2 in

near future.

Discussion

The key scientific question of this study is to what extent memory B cells elicited by WT spike can

develop neutralizing breadth and potency in immune recalls. Strategically, we used WT spike as bait

to track those B cells as they typically maintain specificities to WT spike in immune recalls (24-29, 31-

35). A recent study pointed out that pre-existing memory B cells induced by ancestral SARS-CoV-2

could redirect their specificities to emerging variants in repeated Omicron exposures (*44*). As our

focus was memory B cells broadly recognizing SARS-CoV-2 from WT to emerging variants, we did

not take into account those memory B cells with redirected specificities. Regarding to the samples, we collected blood from 2 individuals of mRNA vaccines at four time points, which are 2 months, 3 months, 6 months and 9 months after BA.5 or BF.7 breakthrough infection. In addition, Donor 1 experienced a symptomatic reinfection at 11 days before the last time point, while Donor 2 experienced an asymptomatic reinfection shortly before the last time point, as suggested by our data. Therefore, the timeline of this longitudinal study is ranging from convalescence of breakthrough infection to acute phase of reinfection, which enables us to track the evolution of memory B cells elicited by ancestral SARS-CoV-2 mRNA vaccine in repeated Omicron infections.

A major finding of this study is that mAbs cloned after reinfection have superior neutralizing breadth and potency, which is accompanied with expansion of pre-existing clonotypes and increased mutation levels. According to the antigen exposure history of these two donors, this finding can be explained by two possibilities. First, a fraction of pre-existing memory B cells, which have already undergone extensive maturation and developed superior neutralizing breadth and potency, are recalled by reinfection. Second, a fraction of pre-existing memory B cells are recalled by reinfection and then acquire further maturation in new GC responses. Non-mutually exclusive, these two possibilities differ in whether an addition round of maturation occurs after reinfection. Previous studies suggest that BA.1 breakthrough infection or booster vaccination can both lead to affinity maturation of pre-existing memory B cells induced by mRNA vaccines (*28, 29, 45*). Here, we are not able conclude whether memory B cells induced by mRNA vaccines can undergo two rounds of affinity maturation sequentially driven by breakthrough infection and reinfection. We plan to address this issue by long-term tracking of WT-spike-specific B cells after reinfection in these two donors.

A highlight of this study is the identification of 4 bnAbs against SARS-CoV-2 and SARS-CoV-1.

These bnAbs belong to a clonotype encoded by IGHV3-74, which is rarely used by RBD-specific

antibodies (*16*). Structural analysis indicates that these IGHV3-74 bnAbs bind to an epitope consisting

of E340-R346, V367-S375, N436-G446 and Q498-V503. In an early study, epitopes on RBD are

classified into seven groups, with RBD-1 to RBD-3 on the top face, RBD-4 and RBD-5 on the outer

face, RBD-6 and RBD-7 on the inner face (*10*). More recently, a cryptic epitope recognized by human

mAb BIOLS56 and IMCAS74 is defined as RBD-8 (*46*). Referred to these epitope categories, the

epitope of these IGHV3-74 bnAbs stretches across RBD-3 and RBD-5 and is therefore a novel epitope.

Identification of escape mutations demonstrates that KXD352 is highly resilient to variations on this

epitope. According to structures predicted by AlphaFold 3, we speculate that this resilience is due to

the plasticity of its long CDRH3, which plays a key role in contacting with its epitope.

As a byproduct of defining a novel broadly neutralizing epitope on RBD, our study represents an

example of epitope mapping with AlphaFold 3. In our practice with AlphaFold 3, it is straightforward

to predict the structures of IGHV3-53/3-66 mAbs, probably because the structures of similar

antibodies have been reported in a large amount. In contrast, various structures are predicted for

IGHV3-74 bnAbs. In this case, traditional epitope mapping with competition ELISA is necessary to

pick the best candidates for further confirmation. Overall, our attempt to apply AlphaFold 3 in fine

epitope mapping turned out to be successful.

Similar to a preprint posted recently (*47*), we identified multiple IGHV3-53/3-66 public antibodies

with ultra-broad neutralizing activities against SARS-CoV-2. In addition, we observed the expansion

of clonotypes encoded by IGHV3-53/3-66. According to phylogenetic analysis, the improved

neutralizing breadth and potency of IGHV3-53/3-66 public antibodies is somehow not always

correlated to the extent of somatic hypermutation, supporting the view that bystander mutations

generated in a stochastic manner are critical for the development of bnAbs against SARS-CoV-2 (*48,*

49).

Currently, ancestral SARS-CoV-2 immune imprinting has been acknowledged as a great challenge

for the update of SARS-CoV-2 vaccines (*32-35*). In one preprint we posted recently, we find that

immune imprinting can facilitate the development of bnAbs against SARS-CoV-2 (*50*). Here, we

further show that memory B cells elicited by prototype mRNA vaccine have potential to develop

exceptional neutralizing breadth and potency. Together, our studies suggest that vaccines based on

emerging variants are able to enhance antibody responses against current and future variants in the

presence of immune imprinting. From the aspect of antibody therapeutics, KXD352 exhibits broad

and potent neutralizing activity against SARS-CoV-2 and SARS-CoV-1. In addition, KXD352 targets

a novel epitope and tolerates mutations on this epitope. Therefore, KXD352 is an ideal candidate for

antibody therapeutics against future SARS-CoV-2 variants and related sarbecoviruses.

Materials and methods

Ethics statement

This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of Hefei Institutes of Physical Science, Chinese

Academy of Sciences (Approval Number: YXLL-2023-47). All donors provided written informed

consent for collection of information, analysis of plasma and PBMCs, and publication of data

generated from their samples.

Human samples

Peripheral blood samples were collected from 2 donors. Plasma and PBMCs were isolated from blood

through Ficoll density gradient centrifugation.

Protein expression and purification

The extracellular domains of spikes from WT, BA.4/5, XBB.1.5, EG.5.1, JN.1 were constructed with a

foldon-trimerization-motif, a His-tag, a tandem Strep-tag II and a FLAG-tag at C-terminal. S1, NTD

and RBD of WT spike were constructed with a Strep-tag II at C-terminal. S2 of WT spike was

constructed with a His-tag at C-terminal. Human ACE2 (huACE2, 1-740) was constructed with a

Strep-tag II at N-terminal. All recombinant proteins were expressed in FreeStyle 293F cells and

purified with Streptactin Agarose Resin 4FF (Yeasen, 20495ES60) or Ni-NTA Agarose (Qiagen,

30210).

Cloning and expression of mAbs

As previously described (*37*), PBMCs were first incubated with 200nM WT spike. After wash, cells

were stained with antibodies targeting CD3, CD19, CD27, CD38, human IgM, human IgD, His-tag

and FLAG-tag along with DAPI. WT-spike-specific B cells were gated as DAPI$^-$CD3$^-$CD19$^+$CD27$^+$IgD$^-$

His$^+$FLAG$^+$ and sorted into 96-well PCR plates with one cell per well. After reverse transcription

reaction, variable regions of antibody heavy and light chains from single B cells were amplified by

nested PCR and cloned into human IgG1 expression vectors. Paired heavy and light chain plasmids

were co-transfected into HEK293T cells or FreeStyle 293F cells. Antibodies were purified with Protein

A magnetic beads (GenScript, L00273).

ELISA

Indicated antigens were coated onto 96-well ELISA plates (100 ng/well) at 4°C overnight. After

blocking with blocking buffer (PBS with 10% FBS), undiluted HEK293T supernatant was added to the

wells and incubated at 37°C for 1hr. After wash, HRP-conjugated goat anti-human-IgG antibodies

(Zen-bio, 550004) were added and incubated at 37°C for 1hr. After wash, TMB substrate (Sangon

Biotech, E661007-0100) was added and incubated at room temperature for 5 minutes. Then the

reaction was stopped with stop solution and absorbance at 450 nm (OD450) was measured.

Pseudovirus neutralization assay

To generate pseudoviruses, HEK293T cells were transfected with psPAX2, pLenti-luciferase and

spike-encoding plasmids (WT, Alpha, Beta, Gamma, Delta, BA.1, BA.4/5, BA.2.75, BQ.1, XBB,

XBB.1.5, EG.5.1, HK.3, BA.2.86, JN.1, KP.2, KP.3, SARS-CoV-1 and KP.3 mutants) using

polyetherimide (PEI). Pseudoviruses supernatants were collected 48hrs after transfection. 3-fold

serially diluted plasma (starting at 1:20), HEK293T supernatant (starting at 1:4.5), or mAbs (starting

at 10 µg/ml) were mixed with pseudoviruses at 37˚C for 1hr. HEK293T-hACE2 cells ($1.5×10^4$ per well)

were added into the mixture and incubated at 37˚C for 48hrs. Cells were lysed to measure luciferase

activity by Bright-Lite Luciferase Assay System (Vazyme Biotech, DD1204-02). The percentages of

neutralization were determined by comparing with the virus control. The data were analyzed and

plotted with GraphPad Prism.

Competition ELISA

Purified huACE2, CR3022, S309, P2S-2E9, BD55-5483, BD56-1854 and BD55-1205 were labeled

with HRP (ProteinTech, PK20001). WT RBD was coated onto 96-well ELISA plates (50 ng/well). After

blocking with blocking buffer (PBS with 10% FBS), blocking mAbs were added and incubated at 37

˚C for 1 hr. Then HRP-labeled detecting reagents were added in the presence of blocking mAbs and

incubated at 37˚C for 1 hr. The ratio of blocking and detecting reagents was 100:1. After wash, TMB

substrate (Sangon Biotech, E661007-0100) was added and incubated at room temperature for 30

minutes. Then the reaction was stopped with stop solution and absorbance at 450 nm (OD450) was

measured. The percentages of signal reduction caused by blocking mAbs were calculated.

Binding activity measured by FACS

The plasmids encoding spikes of WT, BA.4/5, KP.3 and KP.3 mutants were transfected into HEK293T cells. After 48hr, cells were harvested. To compare the binding activity of germline and mature antibodies to WT and BA.4/5 spikes, cells were incubated with 3-fold serially diluted germline or mature mAbs (starting at 10 µg/ml) for 30 min at 4˚C. To compare the binding with KP.3 and KP.3 mutants, cells were incubated with 1 µg/ml mAbs or 10 nM biotinylated ACE2 for 30 min at 4˚C. After wash, cells stained with mAbs were further stained with DAPI and goat anti-human IgG FITC (Proteintech, SA00003-12), whereas cells stained with ACE2 were further stained with DAPI and streptavidin APC (Biolegend, 405243). After wash, cells were analyzed by CytoFLEX (BECKMAN COULTER). FACS data were analyzed with Flowjo V10 to determine the percentages of positive cells. To compare the binding activity of germline and mature antibodies to WT and BA.4/5 spikes, the percentages were ploted with GraphPad Prism. To compare the binding with KP.3 and KP.3 mutants, the percentages for KP.3 mutants were divided by the percentages for KP.3 and the ratios were recorded.

Sequence analysis

Variable regions of antibody heavy and light chains from single B cells were analyzed with IgBlast (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/igblast/). Using Python 3.12, clonotypes were analyzed with the Bio, pandas, and numpy packages. Antibodies with same V and J genes and more than 85% similarity in CDR3 (nucleotide sequence) for both heavy and light chains were defined as clones within the same clonotype. Spike sequences, uploaded from June 1 2024 to October 1 2024, were obtained from NCBI Virus. Sequences with lengths outside the range of 1250–1290 or containing 'X' were removed. Sequence alignment was performed using Muscle5, and statistical analysis was conducted with Python 3.12.

Statistics and reproducibility

All statistical analyses were performed with GraphPad Prism. The numbers of biological repeats for each experiment and tests for statistical significance are described in corresponding figure legends.

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Author contributions

Conceptualization, L.J. and T.Z.; Validation, X.C., L.L., R.D., Z.W.; Formal Analysis, X.C., L.L., R.D.,

Z.W. and Y.L.; Investigation, X.C., L.L., R.D., Z.W., Y.L., Y.S., R.Q., H.F., L.H., X.C., M.L., X.H. and

L.J.; Writing – Original Draft, X.C., L.L., R.D., Z.W., Y.L., L.J. and T.Z.; Writing – Review & Editing, L.J.

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Competing interests

L.J., T.Z., X.C., L.L., R.D. and Z.W. are inventors on a patent application for antibodies including

KXD350, KXD352, KXD355, KXD358. The other authors have no competing interests.

Figures and figure legends

Figure 1. Longitudinal analysis of plasma neutralizing antibody responses in two individuals.

(A) Basic information of donors and samples. (B, C) Summary of plasma neutralizing antibody titers

(NT50). NT50s are calculated with results from three independent experiments, in which duplicates

are performed.

Figure 2. Isolation and characterization of mAbs.

(A) FACS plots representing the percentages of WT-spike-specific B cells in DAPI⁻CD3⁻ CD19⁺CD27⁺IgD⁻ B cells. (B) ELISA and neutralization results of 632 mAbs from two donors. Supernatant of HEK293T is tested against 9 antigens by ELISA, and tested against 5 pseudoviruses by neutralization assay. For ELISA, supernatant is not diluted. For neutralization, supernatant is diluted by 4.5 folds. The results are mean values from two independent experiments, in which duplicates are performed. (C) Frequencies of mAbs targeting each domain among mAbs binding to WT spike (WT-binding mAbs). (D) Frequencies of cross-binding mAbs among RBD-specific, NTD-specific, and S2-specific mAbs. (E) Frequencies of mAbs targeting RBD or NTD among mAbs

575   neutralizing WT pseudoviruses (WT-neutralizing mAbs). (F) Frequencies of mAbs with different

576   neutralizing breadth. Breadth indicates the number of pseudoviruses can be neutralized by mAbs. (G)

577   Frequencies of cross-neutralizing mAbs.

Figure 3. Neutralizing potency of mAbs against SARS-CoV-2 and SARS-CoV-1. (A) IC50s of

mAbs against 14 pseudoviruses. The highest antibody concentration used to determine IC50 is 10

μg/ml. IC50s are calculated with results from two independent experiments, in which duplicates are

performed. The black asterisk indicates mAbs with broadly neutralizing activity against SARS-CoV-2

variants from WT to KP.3. The red asterisk indicates mAbs with broadly neutralizing activity against

SARS-CoV-2 and SARS-CoV-1. (B) Frequencies of neutralizing mAbs against each pseudoviruses

586   among mAbs from T1 to T4. (C) Geometric mean IC50s of mAbs from T1 to T4 against each

587   pseudoviruses. (D) Comparison of IC50s. Statistical analysis is performed by Mann-Whitney test. ns

588   (not significant) P > 0.05, *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001.

Figure 4. Sequence analysis. (A, B) Frequencies of V genes used by mAbs binding to WT spike

(WT-binding mAbs) and mAbs neutralizing WT pseudoviruses (WT-neutralizing mAbs) from Donor 1

and Donor 2. (C) Clonotype analysis of WT-binding mAbs from Donor 1 and Donor 2. Values in

parentheses indicate number of clonotypes/number of mAbs. Different clonotypes are distinguished

by alternating colors, and identical clonotypes across different time points are connected by gray lines.

(D) Bubble plot of clonotypes comprising two or more mAbs. Dot size indicates number of mAbs. The

red asterisk indicates clonotypes containing neutralizing mAbs. (E) Somatic hypermutation on

598 variable regions of heavy and light chains based on DNA sequences. Statistical analysis is performed

599 by two-tailed unpaired T test. *P<0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001.

Figure 5. Clonotypes containing mAbs with extraordinary neutralizing breadth and potency.

(A) Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic trees of each clonotype and IC50s of each mAbs. (B) Binding

of germline antibodies to WT and BA.4/5 spikes expressed on HEK293T cells.

Figure 6. Epitope mapping and escape mutations of mAbs with extraordinary neutralizing

breadth and potency. (A) Competition ELISA. The blocking indicates signal (OD450) reduced by

blocking mAbs. The results are mean values from two independent experiments, in which duplicates

are performed. (B) Epitope of IGHV3-53/3-66 mAbs on WT RBD (PDB: 7A94). (C) Epitope of ACE2

on WT RBD (PDB: 7A94). (D) The predicted structure of KXD355 in complex with WT RBD is aligned

to up RBD and down RBD on WT spike (PDB: 7A94). (E) Detailed view of KXD355 in complex with

WT RBD. (F) Epitope of KXD355 on WT RBD (PDB: 7A94). (G) Binding and neutralizing activities

against single-mutated KP.3. The binding activities are measured by FACS. NTD-mAb, a mAb

targeting NTD, is used to evaluate the expression levels of KP.3 mutants. The results of binding

activities are mean values from two independent experiments. For neutralizing activities, IC50s are

calculated with results from two independent experiments, in which duplicates are performed. N/A

(not applicable) indicates that neutralization assay is not done because we are not able to generate

pseudoviruses for the mutant. (H) Frequencies of mutations on the indicated sites among a total of

25332 spike sequences with KP.3 as reference. The confirmed escape mutations of IGHV3-53/3-66

and IGHV3-74 bnAbs are located on these sites.

Figure S1. Plasma neutralizing antibody titers. (A) Plasma neutralizing antibody titers against a

panel of pseudoviruses. The data are represented as mean ± SD and they are from three independent

experiments, in which duplicates are performed. The published data for plasma from T1 are not used

here. Instead, we measured the neutralizing tiers of plasma from T1 again, along with plasma from

other time points.

Figure S2. Cross-binding and cross-neutralizing mAbs from Donor 1 and Donor 2. (A)

Frequencies of cross-binding mAbs among RBD-specific, NTD-specific, and S2-specific mAbs from

Donor 1 and Donor 2. (B) Frequencies of cross-neutralizing mAbs from Donor 1 and Donor 2.

Figure S3. IC50s of mAbs. (A) Summary of IC50s. The numbers below the line indicate the geometric

mean IC50s and the numbers above the line represent the percentage of mAbs that is able to

neutralize the corresponding pseudoviruses (IC50 below 10 µg/ml). (B) Frequencies of neutralizing

mAbs against each pseudoviruses among T1-T3 group and T4 group. (C) Geometric mean IC50s of

mAbs among T1-T3 group and T4 group. (D) Comparison of IC50s. The numbers below and above

indicate the geometric mean IC50s and the percentages of neutralizing mAbs, respectively. Statistical

analysis is performed by Mann-Whitney test. ns (not significant) $P > 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ****$P < 0.0001$.

Figure S4. Analysis of V gene usage. (A) Frequencies of V genes used by mAbs targeting RBD,

NTD and S2. (B) Paring of V genes for heavy and light chains in neutralizing mAbs. The number in

each box indicates the count of mAbs using the corresponding pair.

Figure S5. Published structures and predicted structures. (A) The published structures of ACE2

(PDB: 7A94), CR3022 (PDB: 6W41), S309 (PDB: 7TLY), P2S-2E9 (PDB: 7XSA), BD55-5514 (PBD:

7Y0W), BD55-1205 (PDB: 8XEA) in complex with RBD. (B) The predicted structures of KXD353,

KXD356, KXD357, KXD470 and KXD472 in complex with WT RBD. (C) The predicted structure of

KXD355 in complex with WT RBD is aligned with published structures of CR3022, S309, P2S-2E9,

BD55-5514 and BD55-1205.

	KXD356	KXD357	KXD353	KXD470	KXD472	KXD352	KXD355	KXD350	KXD358
KP.3	0.006	0.089	0.216	0.763	1.635	0.007	0.008	0.026	0.019
K403D	0.043	>10	>10	>10	>10	0.006	0.009	0.041	0.05
D420N	0.126	2.407	>10	>10	>10	0.005	0.007	0.067	0.016
Y421K	0.08	>10	>10	>10	>10	0.002	0.005	0.043	0.023
L456V	0.038	0.958	1.114	>10	>10	0.022	0.014	0.117	0.023
L456S	0.243	>10	>10	>10	>10	0.012	0.015	0.072	0.028
K460F	0.057	>10	3.384	>10	>10	0.004	0.008	0.053	0.023
A475V	0.148	>10	>10	>10	>10	0.005	0.013	0.039	0.016
K484A	0.003	0.015	2.174	2.529	1.612	0.003	0.005	0.018	0.006
K484D	0.007	0.03	0.631	>10	9.051	0.005	0.009	0.037	0.012
N487K	>10	>10	>10	>10	>10	0.006	0.008	0.044	0.017
Y489A	>10	>10	>10	>10	>10	0.003	0.002	0.006	0.004
Y489D	>10	0.986	>10	>10	>10	0.001	0.002	0.008	0.002
R498A	0.385	0.017	>10	3.665	>10	0.004	0.006	0.029	0.011
R498D					N/A				
P499A	0.004	0.053	0.086	>10	5.506	0.008	0.013	0.042	0.026
P499S	0.008	0.077	0.195	>10	>10	0.016	0.029	0.162	0.024
N343A	0.003	0.029	0.022	>10	3.81	0.021	0.01	>10	>10
N343F	0.004	0.051	0.061	7.918	2.951	0.063	0.273	>10	>10
T345A	0.004	0.035	0.104	6.648	3.247	0.013	0.005	>10	1.66
T345F	0.003	0.049	0.05	3.132	2.047	0.001	0.001	>10	0.484
K440D	0.013	0.074	2.37	>10	>10	0.191	0.55	0.141	>10
L441A	0.003	0.095	0.263	0.361	3.986	0.004	0.004	0.013	0.852
L441S	0.004	0.066	0.162	9.55	1.348	>10	>10	>10	>10
K444A	0.008	0.048	0.181	4.152	5.256	0.023	0.297	5.636	0.907
K444D	0.003	0.011	0.366	>10	>10	0.072	0.382	>10	>10
H445D	0.003	0.095	0.263	0.361	3.986	0.004	0.004	0.013	0.852
R346A	0.001	0.023	0.164	5.175	1.807	0.002	0.01	0.042	0.019
R346D	0.002	0.009	0.358	0.803	2.898	0.006	0.014	0.35	0.037
V367A	0.005	0.026	0.039	4.553	3.388	0.013	0.02	0.064	0.056
V367S	0.004	0.045	0.071	4.755	4.669	0.014	0.02	0.04	0.103
F371A	0.003	0.017	0.373	1.352	0.94	0.004	0.007	0.033	0.009
F371S	0.003	0.007	0.08	0.303	0.241	0.005	0.005	0.021	0.005
F374A	0.008	0.016	0.385	0.985	2.43	0.01	0.011	0.054	0.018
F374S	0.004	0.006	0.1	0.39	0.293	0.01	0.01	0.019	0.016
F375A	0.004	0.073	1.254	1.477	4.554	0.006	0.007	0.063	0.018
F375S	0.002	0.077	1.785	1.608	1.025	0.015	0.017	0.151	0.266
W436A					N/A				
W436S					N/A				
H445A	0.008	0.027	0.134	0.773	0.265	0.009	0.021	0.049	0.02
S455A	0.004	0.062	0.101	2.99	7.856	0.008	0.009	0.045	0.013
S455F	0.005	0.012	0.12	0.621	0.102	0.009	0.016	0.047	0.026
K460D					N/A				

Figure S6. IC50s (μg/ml)against KP.3 mutants.

Figure S7. Variations on the epitopes of IGHV3-53/3-66 and IGHV3-74 mAbs. (A) Alignment of

RBD sequences from SARS-CoV-2 variants and SARS-CoV-1 tested in neutralization assay. The

epitopic regions of IGHV3-74 mAbs are indicated by black frames. (B) Frequencies of mutations on

the indicated sites among a total of 25332 spike sequences with KP.3 as reference. These sites are

within the epitopes of IGHV3-53/3-66 and IGHV3-74 mAbs while escape mutations have not been

identified on these sites.