Improvement of affinity and potency of a monoclonal antibody against *Shigella flexneri* 3a O-antigen via phage display and whole-cell in-solution panning

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Abstract:

As rates of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) among bacterial pathogens continue to rise, the discovery and development of novel classes of therapeutics that can serve as alternatives or adjuncts to traditional small-molecule antibiotics, such as monoclonal antibodies (mAbs), is a public health priority. Some of the most promising antigen targets for antibacterial mAbs are surface polysaccharides such as O-antigen, a component of the lipopolysaccharide found on the outer membrane of gram-negative bacteria. However, developing mAbs against bacterial surface polysaccharides with sufficient breadth and potency to be clinically viable is difficult in part because antibodies against polysaccharides are generally low affinity, and the challenging biochemistry of polysaccharides often precludes further affinity maturation of mAbs against these targets *in vitro*. Here, we use a phage display library and a whole-cell in-solution panning strategy to successfully improve the affinity of a mAb against *Shigella flexneri* 3a O-antigen (O-Ag) *in vitro* without requiring the purification of the target antigen. We demonstrate that a single mutation can improve apparent affinity approximately 10-fold without detectably increasing polyreactivity, and increased affinity correlates with enhanced potency in antibacterial effector function and anti-virulence assays. In addition, the most potent variants also gained increased breadth, successfully coordinating complement deposition and complement-independent opsonophagocytosis against *S. flexneri* 3b, a serotype weakly recognized by the parent mAb. Altogether, this work represents an important first step towards expanding the antibody engineering toolkit for bacterial surface polysaccharides, which will aid the development of novel mAb therapeutics against AMR bacterial pathogens.

Author Summary:

Monoclonal antibodies are a type of therapeutic that hold promise for the treatment of infections cause by antibiotic-resistant bacteria. The best antibody targets on bacteria are often complex sugars (called polysaccharides) on the bacterial surface. Unfortunately, antibodies against these sugars usually bind their targets weakly, meaning they are not potent enough to be effective therapies. Improving these antibodies in the laboratory is difficult, because polysaccharide biochemistry is challenging. In this paper, we use a novel strategy to improve the potency of an antibody against a bacterial polysaccharide

without needing to chemically isolate the polysaccharide. We create a library of antibody
mutants that we display on bacterial viruses called phage, and then mix these phages
with whole bacterial cells. After washing the mixture, we can knock the phage off the cells
and use DNA sequencing to measure which mutants stuck best (and specifically) to the
target bacterium. Using this approach, we found mutations in our antibody that help it bind
the target polysaccharide better, and we show that this improvement leads to more broad
and potent antibacterial effects *in vitro*. Altogether, this fast and easy approach may be
used to develop better antibody therapeutics against bacterial pathogens.
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Introduction:
Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) among pathogenic bacteria is a rapidly growing threat that
necessitates the development of novel therapeutics to supplement existing antibiotics(1).
Monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) may be complementary to antibiotics because they can
prevent and treat AMR infections by both recruiting effector cells to kill bacteria via Fc-
mediated effector functions (i.e., complement-driven bactericidal activity or complement
independent opsonophagocytosis), and by directly interfering with bacterial virulence(2).
Some of the most promising antigens for antibacterial immunotherapies are
polysaccharides on the bacterial surface. Surface polysaccharides are well validated
targets for approved bacterial vaccines (e.g., those against *Haemophilus influenzae* b,
Streptococcus pneumoniae, *Neisseria meningitidis*, and *Salmonella typhi*) (3–7). This
provides a strong rationale for developing anti-polysaccharide mAbs, and anti-
polysaccharide mAbs against several bacterial species have been shown to be effective
in preclinical animal models (8–17). However, to date, few of these mAbs against bacterial
polysaccharides have been evaluated in clinical trials. Panobacumab, an IgM mAb
against O-antigen (O-Ag) from serotype O11 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* obtained
promising results in a phase IIa trial among patients with pneumonia, though the effect
size was modest and no control arm was present (18), so additional studies are required
to fully assess clinical benefit. Gremubamab, a bispecific mAb targeting the
exopolysaccharide Psl and the protein PcrV, has entered the clinic (19) and recently
shown promise in treating *P. aeruginosa* infections in patients with bronchiectasis, though
similarly, this was a proof-of-concept trial and more studies are required to ensure
reproducible clinical efficacy (20).
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One reason for the small number of both clinical trials and anti-polysaccharide mAb
candidates in the pipeline is that discovering and engineering anti-polysaccharide mAbs
that have sufficient breadth and potency to be clinically viable is challenging. Breadth for
a given anti-polysaccharide mAb is often too narrow for clinical use because the chemical
structures of most surface polysaccharides are highly variable (even within the same
bacterial species (21). Bacterial strains of a given species are typically grouped into
serotypes (often dozens or more) based on the specific chemical structure of key surface
polysaccharides (such as the O-Ag, which is a component of gram-negative
lipopolysaccharide), and antibody responses against these bacteria are usually serotype-
specific (22,23). In addition to breadth, potency is another challenge for anti-
polysaccharide mAbs since B cells targeting repetitive polysaccharide antigens undergo
T cell independent responses that generate short-lived plasma antibody responses, which
are predominately IgM with minimal somatic mutation and low affinity for the target

antigen (24). While there are examples of high affinity anti-bacterial polysaccharide mAbs
that have undergone extensive affinity maturation isolated from the peripheral blood
mononuclear cells of convalescent donors (16), it is unclear how widespread this
phenomenon is. In principle, additional high-potency mAbs against bacterial surface
polysaccharides can be developed by engineering high-affinity variants of known anti-
bacterial polysaccharide mAbs through *in vitro* affinity maturation. The chemical
heterogeneity, inherent complexity of polysaccharide biochemistry, and the
conformational flexibility of these polysaccharides (leading to a high entropic cost for
binding for mAbs (25)) makes achieving *in vitro* affinity maturation of these mAbs is
difficult using standard approaches.
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To date, relatively few successful attempts at *in vitro* affinity maturation of anti-glycan
mAbs have been reported (26–35). Most of these efforts have targeted glycans that are
easier to purify and lack the variable, highly repetitive architecture of polysaccharides like
O-Ag or capsular polysaccharide. To our knowledge, the only bacterial O-Ag or capsular
polysaccharide for which successful *in vitro* affinity maturation has been reported is the
O-Ag from *Salmonella* serogroup B. However, the impact that improving the affinity of
these mAbs had on antibacterial effector functions was not explored (32,33,36). As a
result, the relationship between antibody binding affinity and the potency of specific
effector functions is less well characterized for mAbs against bacterial polysaccharides
than for those against mammalian glycans.
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Here, we utilize a creative whole-cell in-solution phage display panning strategy, coupled
with next-generation sequencing, to overcome these challenges and improve the affinity
of a prototypical anti-O-Ag mAb specific for *Shigella flexneri* serotype 3a. We demonstrate
that one to two mutations are sufficient to not only improve potency across effector
functions against the target serotype, *S. flexneri* 3a, but to also expand breadth to
serotype 3b. Importantly, a lack of polyreactivity against other bacterial strains or common
polyreactivity reagents such as single stranded DNA (ssDNA) indicates that these
improvements in binding are specific. Interestingly, binding affinity and potency are
generally correlated for most effector functions, but are not necessarily interdependent,
particularly for complement-independent opsonophagocytosis. Altogether, these data
provide a framework for affinity maturing mAbs against bacterial polysaccharides *in vitro*
and demonstrate that (at least in this test case) few mutations are needed to significantly
improve the breadth and potency of an anti-O-Ag antibody.
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Results:
hFlex3a2 functions as a chimeric huIgG1, but not as an scFv
hFlex3a2 is a murine hybridoma IgG3 that binds to *S. flexneri* 3a O-Ag and can coordinate
complement-mediated bacteriolysis of this serotype in an antibody bactericidal assay
(37). We determined the sequence of this mAb (Table S1) and found that it has many of
the properties commonly associated with anti-O-Ag mAbs. The putative variable gene
segment of the heavy chain of hFlex3a2 differs from the germline segment IGHV1-4*02,
its closest germline progenitor, by only four amino acids, while the putative variable gene
segment of the light chain of hFlex3a2 is entirely identical to its closest germline segment
IGKV5-39*01 (Figure 1A). The high degree of similarity to its closest predicted germline

progenitor suggests that immunizing mice with purified lipopolysaccharide (LPS) did not
stimulate high levels of somatic mutation *in vivo.* The putative VH and VL genes were
grafted onto the human IgG1 constant regions to create a chimeric huIgG1 and this
antibody was confirmed by ELISA to bind to *S. flexneri* 3a outer membrane vesicles
(OMVs) (Figure 1B), a proxy for the bacterial cell surface (38), as well as to coordinate
complement-mediated bacteriolysis of *S. flexneri* 3a in a luminescent antibody
bactericidal assay (L-ABA, Figure 1C). Additionally, hFlex3a2 was highly serotype-
specific, binding to only the surface of *S. flexneri* 3a that expresses wildtype O-Ag, when
screened against a panel of serotypes and an O-Ag knockout mutant (Figures S6A and
1D). Thus, the low level of somatic mutation, combined with its narrow breadth, make
hFlex3a2 representative of a canonical mAb against a bacterial surface polysaccharide.
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We sought to improve the affinity of hFlex3a2 against *S. flexneri* 3a O-Ag using phage
display. Since hFlex3a2 would be displayed as an scFv, we wanted to confirm that the
antibody retains functionality in this format. However, binding of *S. flexneri* 3a OMVs by
hFlex3a2 in an scFv format could not be detected by ELISA (Figure 2A). This is not
surprising, as scFvs often exhibit lower target affinity and are less stable than their IgG
counterparts (39,40). In an attempt to restore function to hFlex3a2 as an scFv, we
identified two residues in the framework region of the VH and one in the VL that were rare
and thus may be potentially problematic (41). We mutated all three of these residues to
the amino acid most frequently found at their respective positions when compared to a
database of other murine antibodies. We called this new mAb hFlex3a2_v2 (Figure 1A).
Two of these new mutations were away from the closest germline sequence, while the
other reverted that position back to its predicted germline amino acid (Figure 1A). As an
scFv, binding of hFlex3a2_v2 to *S. flexneri* 3a OMVs, but not to the unrelated antigen
ovalbumin, was observed (Figure 2A). Antigen binding was further confirmed by surface
staining, which demonstrated that hFlex3a2_v2 scFv, but not the original hFlex3a2 scFv
binds to the surface of *S. flexneri* 3a (Figure 2B). Importantly, as a chimeric huIgG1,
hFlex3a2_v2 exhibited antigen binding similar to the parent mAb, demonstrating that the
rare residues we identified did not impact IgG antibody binding (Figure 2C). Since
hFlex3a2_v2 retained binding as a huIgG1, and restored binding as an scFv, while
retaining antigen specificity, affinity maturation by phage display was completed using the
hFlex3a2_v2 background.
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Whole-cell in-solution panning enriched for mutations in the VL
To test whether phage display can be used to identify single mutations that improve
hFlex3a2_v2 affinity, we designed two double-barcoded site-saturated mutagenesis
scanning libraries: one for VH and one for VL. Each library contained single amino acid
substitutions besides a cysteine at every site of either the VH or VL, leading to total library
sizes of 2,223 and 1,995 variants for the VH and VL libraries respectively. Flanking
synonymous codons were used to barcode mutation sites, enabling bioinformatic
identification of sampled positions for mutation enrichment analysis. Initial efforts to fix
purified *S. flexneri* 3a lipopolysaccharide to a plate for selection via solid-phase panning
were unsuccessful. Whole-cell in-solution panning was previously used to discover
antibodies that bind to bacterial surface carbohydrates (42), and so we adopted a similar
panning strategy for affinity maturing our existing O-Ag antibody (Figure 3A). The phage

display libraries were panned in solution for two rounds against either the target bacterium
S. flexneri 3a or *S. sonnei*, which is a closely related bacterium with an entirely different
O-Ag structure (43). Input and output page libraries were subsequently sequenced by
next-generation sequencing. We reasoned that variants enriched specifically after
panning against *S. flexneri 3a*, but not *S. sonnei*, were likely to exhibit improved binding
to the target relative to the parental mAb, and these variants could be evaluated further.
This approach also had some advantages over other panning strategies. Specifically, the
approach did not require large-scale purification of O-Ag, and the approach also allowed
for panning on O-Ag in its native conformation and abundance without any biochemical
modifications.
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After two rounds of panning with the VH library, no enrichment of hFlex3a2_v2 variants
was detected (Figure S1A and S1B). In contrast, specific enrichment did occur for variants
in the VL library. Despite all the variants being of roughly equal abundance in the input
library, by the second round of panning, positively and negatively enriched variants were
identified when panned against *S. flexneri* 3a as well as *S. sonnei* (Figure 3B). After two
rounds of panning against *S. flexneri* 3a, a strong increase in the frequency of next-
generation sequencing reads for variant mutations mapping to residues that cluster
around the VL CDRs was observed (Figure 3C). This enrichment was driven by the
accumulation of reads mapping to either a single variant or a subset of variants at these
sites (Figure S2). In some cases, such as at residue S30, a single variant was found to
dominate relative to other variants with mutations at that site, while at other residues,
such as N90, a few variants were found to be similarly abundant (Figure 3D). To
determine whether highly enriched variants identified during phage display screening
were of higher affinity than the parental antibody, we picked four variants — S30, L33,
A51, and N90 — for further investigation. We chose these variants because all four had
large increases in read frequencies after panning, suggesting that these residues may be
important. Additionally, each variant was specifically enriched following panning against
S. flexneri 3a relative to *S. sonnei* (Figures 3E and S3 and Table 1). Lastly, these variants
are located in or adjacent to CDRL1 (S30 and L33), CDRL2 (A51) or CDRL3 (N90). Since
no variants in the VH were enriched for, we will refer to the hFlex3a2_v2 variants solely
by their VL mutation(s) from here on.
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Variants enriched in phage display improve mAb binding to *S. flexneri* 3a O-Ag as
chimeric huIgG1s
We hypothesized that the selected variants of hFlex3a2_v2 that were highly enriched
against *S. flexneri* 3a but not *S. sonnei* (S30G, L33N, A51R, and N90H) were likely to
have genuinely higher affinity against *S. flexneri* 3a O-Ag relative to the parent mAb. For
a comparison, we chose one additional variant — H34A — that was highly enriched
against both *S. flexneri* 3a and *S. sonnei* (Figures 3D, 3E, S3, and Table 1). All the
selected variants were produced as chimeric huIgG1s for further characterization (Table
1).
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Surface staining showed that all the variants retained their ability to bind to the surface of
S. flexneri 3a (Figure 4A). Titration ELISA also confirmed binding to *S. flexneri* 3a OMVs
(Figure 4B) and showed that all four of the variants that were specifically enriched against

S. flexneri 3a (S30G, L33N, A51R, and N90H) had higher apparent affinities than their
parental mAb hFlex3a2_v2, while the variant that was enriched against both *S. flexneri*
3a and *S. sonnei* (H34A) had a lower apparent affinity (Figure S4A). The ELISA binding
curves were used to calculate EC_{50s} (Table 1 and Figure 4C). The parent mAb
hFlex3a2_v2 had an EC_{50} of 57.81 nM. L33N, the variant with the highest apparent
affinity, had an EC_{50} of 4.99 nM, while variant H34A had the lowest apparent affinity (EC_{50}
205.09 nM). This is consistent with the hypothesis underlying our panning strategy, that
specific enrichment against *S. flexneri* 3a provides a means of identifying variants that
improve target affinity.
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We next wanted to determine whether combining the most beneficial single amino acid
mutations — S30G, L33N, and A51R — would synergize with one another to further
improve the affinity of hFlex3a2_v2. We constructed all the possible double and triple
combinatorial mutants. Since all the combinatorial variants retained their ability to bind *S.*
flexneri 3a (Figure 4A), we performed ELISA to determine their apparent affinities. All of
the combinatorial variants except L33N + A51R had synergistic improvements in apparent
affinity, meaning that the combinatorial variant had a lower EC_{50} than that of any single
mutation contained in the combination (Table 1, and Figures 4B, 4C, and S4A). Variant
S30G + L33N was the most potent binder, with an EC_{50} = 2.56 nM. We also tested a
variant combining all 5 of the single mutations and found that its apparent affinity (EC_{50} =
201.35 nM) was similar to that of H34A alone, suggesting that the presence of mutation
H34A may be dominantly detrimental over the other beneficial mutations. Due to the
oligomeric structure of O-Ag, it is difficult to accurately measure its molar concentration
in solution, complicating efforts to precisely measure the binding kinetics between the
mAbs and purified O-Ag *in vitro*. However, biolayer interferometry (BLI) confirmed that
the parent mAb, and the most potent and least potent variants in ELISA, S30G + L33N
and H34A respectively, can all bind purified *S. flexneri* 3a O-Ag (Figure 4D). Consistent
with the selected mutations affecting binding behavior, at both concentrations of O-Ag
tested, S30G + L33N reached a higher plateau in BLI than the parental mAb, while H34A
reached a lower plateau. Lastly, a panel of polyspecificity reagents were used in ELISA
to demonstrate that the mAb variants had limited polyreactivity against the antigens
tested, confirming that the better binding variants retained their antigen specificity (Figure
S4B).
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Improving binding of hFlex3a2_v2 enhances effector and anti-virulence functions
To probe the relationship between improved O-Ag affinity and potency across
antibacterial functions, we tested our panel of hFlex3a2 variants in a series of effector
function and virulence assays. A Luminescent Antibody Bactericidal Assay (L-ABA),
which measures the ability of antibodies to coordinate complement-mediated
bacteriolysis, showed that the parent antibody was already potent at this effector function
(IC_{50} = 1.86 nM, Table 1, Figures 5A and S5A). Nonetheless, the best binding single
amino acid variant, L33N, modestly but reproducibly improved upon the parent mAb
(IC_{50}= 1.32 nM, $p=0.04$), while the best binding combinatorial variant, S30G + L33N, had
a more substantial ~2.7-fold improvement in potency (IC_{50} = 0.68 nM, $p<0.0001$). The
worst binding variant H34A had the weakest potency in L-ABA (IC_{50} = 4.86 nM, $p<0.0001$),
showing that binding strength and *in vitro* complement-mediated bacteriolysis are

correlated (R^2=0.91, Figure S5B). Similarly, when hFlex3a2_v2 was tested in a
complement-independent opsonophagocytosis assay (OPA) at a 30 nM concentration,
17.7% of monocytes were cell trace violet positive (CTV+), indicating that they had
phagocytosed *S. flexneri* 3a that was opsonized with this mAb (Figure 5B). The gating
strategy for OPA is shown in Figure S4C. Although hFlex3a2_v2 already had the ability
to facilitate OPA activity, L33N, the best binding single amino acid variant, was almost 2-
fold more potent at the same concentration (33.7% CTV+, p = 0.02). The best binding
combinatorial variant S30G + L33N was the most potent at facilitating OPA (38.6% CTV+,
p <0.005). Despite having little improvement in binding and L-ABA compared to the
parental mAb, variant N90H was the third most potent in OPA (32.2% CTV+, p = 0.04).
Similarly, despite exhibiting lower apparent affinity, H34A and the combination of all 5
mutations had similar potency in OPA to the parent antibody at 30 nM (Figure 5B). This
demonstrates that, while largely correlated, other factors beyond binding strength also
impact O-Ag mAb function in the OPA.
291
In addition to promoting effector functions that modulate the immune system, mAbs can
also directly neutralize bacterial virulence. As an intracellular pathogen, invasion of
colonic epithelial cells is an indispensable step in the pathogenesis of *S. flexneri*. An *in*
vitro invasion assay showed that, relative to PBS or a non-binding control mAb,
hFlex3a2_v2 does not significantly block *S. flexneri* 3a invasion of a monolayer of HeLa
cells (Figure 5C). However, the highest affinity single amino acid variants and
combinatorial variants all blocked *S. flexneri* 3a invasion by at least 60% (Figure 5C). This
demonstrates that for anti-O-Ag antibodies, increasing affinity can help to directly
neutralize bacterial virulence.
301
Improving affinity of hFlex3a2_v2 against *S. flexneri* 3a increases its functional
potency against *S. flexneri* 3b
Lastly, we wanted to determine whether higher affinity variants of hFlex3a2_v2 would also
have increased breadth compared to their parent mAb. Although the precise epitope of
hFlex3a2_v2 is not known, we reasoned that many of the components of *S. flexneri* 3a
O-Ag are also found in the O-Ag of other *S. flexneri* serotypes, and some of the variants
may have increased affinity against some O-Ag component common to other *S. flexneri*
serotypes. We performed a surface staining experiment with a panel of *S. flexneri*
serotypes that all share the same core O-Ag sugars, but with different modifications, as
well as *S. sonnei*, which has an entirely unrelated O-Ag composition (Figure 6A). As
previously shown, all hFlex3a2_v2 variants bound to *S. flexneri* 3a and binding to a
mutant *S. flexneri* 3a O-Ag- strain (Figure S6A) was 10-fold lower than to *S. flexneri* 3a
that expresses wildtype O-Ag, confirming that O-Ag is necessary for binding. For all the
hFlex3a2 variants tested, no reactivity to *S. flexneri* serotypes 1b, 2a, 2b, Y, or *S. sonnei*
was observed (Figure 6B). In contrast, surface staining against *S. flexneri* 3b showed that
hFlex3a2_v2 weakly cross-reacts with this serotype. The single amino acid variant L33N
and the combinatorial variant S30G + L33N had surface staining median fluorescence
intensities that were 4-fold and 5.7-fold higher, respectively.
320
Since surface staining experiments showed that the higher affinity variants of
hFlex3a2_v2 bind to *S. flexneri* 3b, we wanted to further characterize their effect on

binding and effector function. ELISA measuring binding to *S. flexneri* 3b OMVs, in
agreement with the surface staining experiment, showed that hFlex3a2 weakly binds to
S. flexneri 3b O-Ag (Figure 6C and Figure S6B). The variants showed the same pattern
in relative apparent affinities as against *S. flexneri* 3a. Specifically, single amino acid
variants S30G, L33N, and A51R all increased apparent affinity. N90H bound similarly to
the parent antibody and H34A had a lower apparent affinity than the parent antibody. All
combinations of the beneficial single mutations were found to be synergistic except for
L33N + A51R. The combination of all 5 mutations bound poorly, similarly to H34A alone.
The best binding single mutation was L33N, and the best binding combinatorial mutation
was S30G + L33N, which had EC_{50} values of 322.5 nM and 165.3 nM respectively. We
next wanted to determine whether these improvements in affinity for *S. flexneri* 3b O-Ag
are sufficient to drive effector functions against this serotype. We compared the parent
mAb to the best binding single variant, L33N, and the best binding combinatorial variant,
S30G + L33N, in an L-ABA assay. In this assay, hFlex3a2_v2 displayed weak
complement-mediated bactericidal activity against serotype 3b, only reaching 37% killing
at 90 nM, the highest concentration of antibody tested (Figure 6D). Both the single L33N
mutation and combination of S30G + L33N mutations were more potent in this assay, with
IC_{50} values of 30.4 nM and 18.0 nM, respectively. Similarly, in an OPA assay,
hFlex3a2_v2 was able to facilitate opsonophagocytosis at a concentration of 30 nM,
leading to 7.4% CTV+ monocytes (Figure 6E). At the same concentration of mAb, the
most potent single amino acid variants were ~3-fold more potent at OPA, while the most
potent combinatorial variants were ~4.5-fold more potent (Figure 6E). However, despite
improving affinity and potency in effector function assays, the higher affinity variants of
hFlex3a2_v2 did not block *S. flexneri* 3b invasion (Figure 6F). Together, this data shows
that panning against *S. flexneri* 3a was able to increase the functional breadth of this
antibody to also exhibit effector functions against *S. flexneri* 3b, likely by improving the
affinity to a shared epitope on these two serotypes that was weakly recognized by the
parent mAb.
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Discussion
Here, we report the development of a panning strategy that enabled the rapid affinity
maturation of a mAb against the O-Ag of *S. flexneri* 3a. We demonstrate that variants with
improved affinity exhibit more potent effector functions against both *S. flexneri* 3a and the
related but distinct serotype *S. flexneri* 3b. By pairing whole-cell in-solution panning with
NGS and using both the target bacterial strain and a related strain with a completely
unrelated O-Ag, we were able to efficiently identify specific mutations that could increase
affinity against the target strain. It is notable that out of the four tested variants that met
the criteria for specific enrichment (S30G, L33N, A51R, and N90H), three of them (S30G,
L33N, A51R) improved affinity by ELISA, and all four exhibited improved potency in at
least one effector function assay. One of these mutations, L33N, was sufficient to
increase apparent affinity in ELISA by approximately 10-fold over the parent mAb, which
is comparable to what has been reported for germline mAbs against *Chlamydia* core
lipopolysaccharide (28). In contrast, H34A, which was enriched against both bacterial
species (possibly indicating that this mutation improves a non-specific parameter such as
display efficiency on phage), had lower affinity than the parent, supporting the rationale
of this approach.

Unexpectedly, while variants in the hFlex3a2 VL library were successfully enriched
following panning, no variants were enriched from the VH library (Figure S1). It is possible
that the VH is already optimized, and we were simply unable to find point mutations that
conferred additional advantage. This is supported by the observation that, while the VL
protein sequence of hFlex3a2 is identical to germline, the VH sequence already contains
somatic mutations that result in four amino acid substitutions (Figure 1A). However, the
fact that no enrichment was observed against either *S. flexneri* 3a or *S. sonnei* (which
would not be expected, as at least some variants should be nonspecifically enriched for
reasons of improved display efficiency or scFv stability), leaves open the possibility that
this was a technical issue with the panning process rather than a biological one. Further
experiments would be needed to definitively determine whether any additional VH
mutations can further improve binding and function of hFlex3a2. The identification and
characterization of VH mutations that further synergize with the already identified VL
mutations will be of interest in future studies.

As expected, higher affinity hFlex3a2 variants were generally more potent across all
assays (Figure 5), with some notable exceptions. In L-ABA, affinity was tightly correlated
with potency (Figure S5B), suggesting that potency in this assay has a linear relationship
with affinity. Similarly, higher affinity variants were able to block invasion by *S. flexneri* 3a,
while the parent mAb was not (Figure 5C). However, even these enhanced variants were
unable to block invasion by serotype 3b (Figure 6F). While it is possible that the
mechanism of action by which hFlex3a2 and its variants are inhibiting *S. flexneri* 3a
invasion is not applicable to *S. flexneri* 3b, we suspect that this observation is more likely
due to invasion inhibition requiring a greater affinity than L-ABA or OPA activity. Even
though some hFlex3a2_v2 variants are more potent against *S. flexneri* 3b than the
parental mAb, the best variants have weaker affinity and potency against serotype 3b
than 3a. Given the inherent biological variability of the invasion assay compared to L-ABA
or OPA, and that the parent mAb does not measurably inhibit invasion against even 3a,
we think that the best variants simply lack sufficient affinity to reach the threshold where
a decrease in invasion by 3b is consistently measurable in this assay. It is possible that
panning against 3b with the hFlex3a2_v2 library would identify variants that further
improve activity against this serotype.

The relationship between OPA and affinity was more complex than those between affinity
and the L-ABA or invasion assay. While the highest affinity variants tested here (L33N
and S30G + L33N) did exhibit higher degrees of opsonophagocytosis than the parent
mAb, N90H, which does not have detectably higher affinity and was not more potent in
L-ABA, also improved macrophage uptake of both *S. flexneri* 3a and 3b (Figure 5B and
6E). Similarly, H34A, which has lower affinity and L-ABA potency than the parent,
performed similarly to the parent mAb in the OPA (Figure 5B and 6E). A similar
phenomenon has been observed for some mAbs targeting the human immunodeficiency
virus (HIV) glycoprotein gp120 as they exhibit different capacities to drive antibody-
dependent cellular cytotoxicity against HIV-infected cells displaying gp120, despite being
from the same lineage, having the same affinity, and binding the same epitope (44). In
that study, it was proposed that these differences are a consequence of either subtle

variations in the structural recognition of the epitope or other changes in the binding
dynamics between the mAb and the antigen. We suspect similar factors, such as changes
in the kinetics of binding (but not necessarily equilibrium affinity) may allow N90H to
coordinate opsonophagocytosis more efficiently than the parent mAb despite having the
same apparent equilibrium affinity. Unfortunately, because purified *S. flexneri* 3a O-Ag is
present at a range of molecular weights, it is not currently possible to obtain accurate
kinetic measurements to test this hypothesis. However, future studies on the relationship
between affinity and effector function potency among mAbs against bacterial
polysaccharides may provide more mechanistic insights. Altogether, these data support
the hypothesis that higher affinity generally improves antibacterial function performance
for anti-O-Ag mAbs, with some notable exceptions and potential caveats.
426
Most importantly, this work informs the development of therapeutic mAbs targeting
bacterial polysaccharides. More test cases are required to establish the generalizability
of this approach. However, these data demonstrate that in principle, this whole-cell in-
solution panning approach can rapidly identify variants with improved affinity without the
need for antigen purification, and these improvements lead to direct functional
improvements. More interestingly, the observed enhancement of activity against *S.
flexneri* 3b suggests that if a mAb is targeting an epitope shared with other bacterial
serotypes, it may be possible to improve functional breadth alongside potency. This
supports the development of clinically relevant mAbs against bacterial polysaccharides,
because discovery campaigns can now prioritize mAbs that have relatively high breadth
by binding sugars common to many bacterial polysaccharides. Broad binders can then
be rapidly improved using this method. Future work will explore the potential of more
complex panning strategies that incorporate multiple serotypes, which can further
facilitate the identification of variants with improved breadth. Altogether, these results are
an important step towards expanding the mAb engineering toolkit for anti-polysaccharide
mAbs, which in turn may help develop novel therapeutics against AMR bacterial
pathogens.
444

Materials and methods
Bacterial strains and growth conditions
447 Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study can be found in Table S2. *Shigella* strains
448 were maintained at -80 °C in tryptic soy broth (TSB) containing 20% (vol/vol) glycerol.
449 *Shigella* was grown aerobically at 37 °C on TSB agar with 0.01% Congo red dye.
450 For all assays, bacteria were grown in the desired medium overnight, then subcultured
451 1:100 into fresh growth medium and grown aerobically at 250 rpm, 37 °C.
452

Cell culture conditions
HeLa cells were grown in high glucose DMEM (Gibco) + 10% FBS + 2 mM glutamine and
1x Pen/Strep. THP-1 cells were grown in RPMI (Gibco) + 10% FBS + 10mM Hepes pH
7.4 + 1 mM Sodium Pyruvate + 55 µM beta-mercaptoethanol and 1x Pen/Strep. For
assays involving bacteria, HeLa and THP-1 cells were first washed into fresh media that
does not contain Pen/Strep. Expi293™ cells were grown in Expi 293™ Expression
Medium (Gibco).
460

10x sequencing of hybridomas

An unsequenced hybridoma expressing the mAb hFlex3a2, which was discovered and described previously by WRAIR and collaborators (37), was provided to IAVI by WRAIR. Single cells were isolated using a BD FACSMelody™ cell sorter, and heavy and light chain variable domains were sequenced using the 10X single cell genomics platform (10X Genomics, Inc.). Sequence analysis to predict CDRs, align to germline, and identify rare residues was done using IMGT/V-Quest, IgBLAST, and abYsis (45–47). The VH and VL sequences were cloned into a modified pcDNA3.2 expression vector and purified as full IgG as described below. The mAb was confirmed to have properties consistent with the parental hybridoma mAb (Figure 1).

Construction of plasmids

Primers and plasmids used in this study can be found in Table S3. For periplasmic expression of scFvs, hFlex3a2 and hFlex3a2_v2 were designed as scFvs in the following orientation — PelB signal sequence, hFlex3a2 VH, (GGGGS)3X linker, hFlex3a2 VL — ordered as gBlocks (Integrated DNA Technologies), then cloned between the NcoI and BamHI restriction sites of the bacterial expression vector pET28b (+) using NEBuilder® HiFi DNA Assembly following the manufacturer's instructions (New England Biolabs). For expression as huIgG1, the variable regions of hFlex3a2 and hFlex3a2_v2 were cloned into a pcDNA3.2-based human antibody expression vectors containing the relevant huIgG1 or Ig kappa constant domains. For single amino acid mAb variants, primers were designed to insert the mutations into the appropriate VL sequence by HiFi DNA Assembly (New England BioLabs). Combinatorial variants of hFlex3a2 and hFlex3a2_v2 VL chains were ordered as gBlocks and inserted into the appropriate human antibody expression vector using NEBuilder® HiFi assembly.

Construction of *Shigella* mutants

Shigella flexneri 3a and 3b *tolR* mutants that hyperproduce OMVs (48), and *S. flexneri* 3a *waaL* mutant (O-Ag knockout) (49) were produced by the gene-gorging method as previously described (50). Briefly, a mutation cassette consisting of 500 bp of *Shigella* genomic DNA upstream of the target mutation site, the kanamycin resistance gene from plasmid pKD4, and 500 bp of DNA downstream of the target mutation site, flanked on both sides of the mutation cassette by the restriction site I-SceI was constructed using splice by overlap extension PCR (51). The mutation cassette was A-tailed and ligated into the plasmid pGEM®-T Easy (Promega) to create a donor plasmid. The donor plasmid was electroporated into the desired *S. flexneri* strain that had previously been electroporated with plasmid pACBSR. Strains containing both the donor plasmid and pACBSR were grown for 6 hours at 30 °C in LB + chloramphenicol + 0.4% arabinose to induce genomic recombination and then plated on TSBA + Kanamycin for single colonies. Colonies were passaged multiple times at 37 °C to promote the loss of pACBSR. After multiple passages, colonies were confirmed to be kanamycin resistant but chloramphenicol sensitive, indicating loss of donor plasmid, and the successful insertion of the genomic mutation was verified by Sanger sequencing.

Phage library construction and panning

Double-barcoded site-saturated mutagenesis scanning libraries of the VL and VH of
hFlex3a2_v2 were designed and ordered from Twist Biosciences. The libraries were
amplified with primers to introduce SfiI sites and then ligated into the SfiI site of phagemid
pCOMB3XSS (52). To produce phage, the phagemid libraries were electroporated into
XL1-Blue (Agilent), recovered in 5 mL of SOC, and then grown (37 °C, 250 RPM) to OD_{600}
~0.5 in 10 mL of Super Broth + Tet + Carb before being super infected with M13ko7 helper
phage (New England Biosciences) at an MOI of 20, expanded, and grown overnight (30
°C, 250 rpm) in 200 mL of super broth + Tet + Carb + Kan.
514
Phage was precipitated from the supernatant with 0.5 M NaCl and 4% PEG-8,000 as
previously described (53) and then panned against whole bacteria in-solution, based on
a previously published method (42). Briefly, 1 x 10^9 cfu of *S. flexneri* 3a or *S. sonnei* were
blocked in 3% nonfat milk in PBS and then each bacterial species was incubated with 5
x 10^{10} pfu of blocked phage particles for 15 min to 2 h. Non-binding phage was washed
5x with PBS + 5% Tween-20 after round 1 of panning and washed 10x after round 2.
Binding phage was eluted by mixing with 0.1 M HCl pH 2.2 (pH adjusted with glycine) for
ten minutes at room temperature, then neutralized with 2 M Tris base and used to reinfect
XL1-Blue cells to generate phage for the second round of panning. XL1-Blue containing
the input library, post-panning round 1 phagemids, and post-panning round 2 phagemids
were maxiprepped, the variable chain sequences were PCR-amplified and deep-
sequenced by MiSeq (Illumina) using Amplicon-EZ platform (Genewiz). The relative
enrichment of phage library variants against *S. flexneri* 3A and *S. sonnei* after rounds 1
and 2 of panning was quantified using an in-house Python script.
529
Antibody and antigen purification
For purification of IgGs, Expi293 cells were co-transfected with the desired heavy chain
and light chain pair at a ratio of 1:2.5 with FectoPRO® (Polyplus) in Expi293™ Expression
Medium (Gibco). The cells were supplemented with 3 mM valproic acid (Sigma-Aldrich)
and 0.4% D-(+)- glucose (Sigma-Aldrich) 24 h after transfection. The supernatant was
harvested on day 5 post-transfection, IgGs were purified using Praesto AP+ agarose resin
(Purolite), and then buffer exchanged and concentrated using 30 kDa cutoff spin filter
(Amicon).
538
scFv purification was based on a previously described method (54). Briefly, BL21
containing the desired scFv cloned into pET28b (+) was grown to OD_{600} 0.6-0.8 in terrific
broth (37 °C, 250 rpm) and then induced with 1 mM IPTG overnight (18 °C, 250 RPM).
Bacteria were collected, resuspended in 40 mL of TES buffer (0.5 M Sucrose, 0.5 mM
EDTA, and 0.2 M Tris-HCl pH 8.0), incubated at 4 °C for 30 min, and then osmotically
shocked with 80 mL of ice-cold ddH_2O for 1 h at 4 °C. Lysed bacteria were pelleted, the
supernatant was collected, adjusted to 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM $MgCl_2$, 20 mM imidizaole,
and incubated with 1 mL of Ni-NTA resin (Anatrace) at 4 °C for at least 1.5 h. scFv bound
resin was packed onto gravity columns, washed extensively with wash buffer (150 mM
NaCl, 2 mM $MgCl_2$, 30 mM imidazole), and then eluted with elution buffer (150 mM NaCl,
2 mM $MgCl_2$, 300 mM imidazole) before buffer exchanging and concentrating with PBS
using a 10 kDa cutoff centrifugal filter (Amicon).
551

To purify OMVs, supernatant was collected from *S. flexneri* 3a or 3b tolR::kan mutants grown overnight in SSDM (48) supplemented with 40 mg/L l-methionine and 20 mg/L tryptophan. The supernatant was filter-sterilized through a 0.2 µM filter (Sartorius) and then concentrated to ~ 50 mL by tangential flow filtration using a Vivaflow® 100 kDa cutoff filter (Sartorius®). The concentrated supernatant was ultracentrifuged at 200,000 x g for 1.5 h to pellet OMVs, which were then resuspended in 1 mL of PBS and stored at -20 °C for future use. Total protein content of OMVs was quantified by Micro-BCA™ assay (Thermo Fisher) following the manufacturer's instructions. OMV amount was normalized by total protein content for ELISA assays.

O-Ag was purified from whole bacteria by acetic acid hydrolysis (55). Acetic acid was added at a final concentration of 2% to a culture of stationary phase *S. flexneri* 3a and incubated at 100 °C for 5 h. After hydrolysis, the culture was neutralized to pH ~ 6 with ammonium hydroxide (Sigma-Aldrich). Bacterial debris was pelleted, the supernatant was buffer exchanged by tangential flow filtration using a VivaFlow 30 kDa cutoff filter (Sartorius) first into 1 M NaCl, and then into ddH$_2$O.The buffer exchanged supernatant was concentrated to ~50 mL. Citrate buffer (20 mM, pH 3) was added to the supernatant, and it was incubated at room temperature for 30 min, centrifuged at 12,000 x g for 30 min and then passed through a Sartobind® IEX S75 cationic exchange filter (Sartorius). After cation exchange, the supernatant was precipitated once more with 18 mM Na$_2$HPO$_4$, 24% ethanol, and 200 mM CaCl$_2$ at room temperature for 30 min, then buffer exchanged as described above before being concentrated to approximately 1 mL in ddH$_2$O using a 30 kDa cutoff spin filter (Amicon). The purified O-Ag was quantified using a Total Carbohydrate Assay Kit (Sigma-Aldrich) following the manufacturer's instructions. Contaminating DNA and protein levels were assessed by nanodrop analysis and Micro-BCA™ assay, respectively, and confirmed to be at least 10-fold lower than carbohydrate concentration.

ELISA assays

All ELISA assays were performed in 384-well high binding ELISA plates (Corning). Wells were coated overnight at 4 °C with antigen in PBS at a concentration of 2.5 µg/mL for OMVs or 5 µg/mL for ovalbumin, CHO-SMP, insulin, and ssDNA. Antigen-coated wells were blocked in PBS containing 3% BSA and 0.05% Tween-20 at 37 °C for 1 h. Antibodies to be tested were diluted in 1% BSA + 0.017% Tween-20 at the desired antibody concentration and incubated with the blocked antigen at 37 °C for 1 h. After incubation with the test antibody, wells were washed 3x with PBS + 0.05% Tween-20 and incubated with the appropriate secondary antibody at room temperature for 1 h. Secondary antibodies used were either AP-conjugated anti-Flag M2 (Sigma-Aldrich) for scFvs or AP-conjugated anti-Human Fc (Jackson ImmunoResearch) for huIgG1s, both at a 1:1000 dilution in PBS + 1% BSA + 0.017% Tween-20. After washing three times more, AP substrate tablets (Sigma-Adrich) were dissolved and diluted to 1 mg/mL in AP buffer (50 mM MgCl$_2$, 100 mM NaCl, 1%Tween 20). ELISAs were developed with AP substrate (20 min for IgGs or 40 min for scFvs) at room temperature. Absorbance at 405 nm was read on a BioTek Synergy microplate reader.

Luminescent Antibody Bactericidal Assays (L-ABA)

L-ABA was adapted from previously published protocols (37,56). Briefly, the desired *S.*
flexneri serotype was grown to mid-log phase in TSB (BD Biosciences) and resuspended
at a concentration of 3 x 10^5 CFU/mL in 100 µL of assay buffer (HBSS + 0.1% Gelatin,
pH 7.4) with 7.5% Baby Rabbit Complement (Pel-Freez Biologicals), and the test antibody
at the desired concentration. The L-ABA reaction was incubated for 3 h at 37 °C, washed
once with 100 µL of fresh assay buffer, mixed 1:1 with BacTiter-Glo™ (Promega), and
incubated for 5 min at room temperature. Luminescence was read on a BioTek Synergy
plate reader. Adalimumab (57) expressed as a chimeric macaque IgG1 was used as a
control mAb. To normalize for differences in bacterial growth, the data was fit with a
sigmoidal four parameter logistic curve on GraphPad Prism, and each curve was
normalized to the Top best-fit value of their curve to determine their fraction maximal
luminescence.
610
Opsonophagocytosis Assays (OPA)
For OPA, the desired *S. flexneri* strain was grown to OD_{600} of approximately 0.5 in TSB,
washed with PBS, and stained with a 1:50 dilution of CellTrace™ Violet (CTV, Thermo
Fisher) for 15 min at 37 °C. Excess dye was quenched with FACS buffer (PBS + 1%
FBS), the bacteria were washed in PBS and resuspended in assay buffer (HBSS + 0.1%
gelatin, pH 7.4). 2.5 x 10^6 CFU of bacteria were mixed with the desired concentration of
mAb in assay buffer and incubated at 37 °C for 30 min. Opsonized bacteria were then
mixed with 5 x 10^4 THP-1 cells and incubated for 30 min at 37 °C in 5% CO_2. After 30
min, the OPA reactions were stained on ice in the dark for 30 min with Live/Dead Near-
IR dye (Thermo Fisher) diluted 1:2000 in PBS and FITC-conjugated anti-CD45 antibody
(BD Biosciences) diluted 1:4000. The cells were then fixed with 4% PFA for 30 min, on
ice. To determine relative OPA activity, the percentage of THP-1 cells incubated with *S.*
flexneri opsonized with the mAbs of interest that were Near IR-, CD45+, and CTV+ was
quantified by flow cytometry using a FACSCelesta (BD Biosciences).
625
Invasion Assays
Invasion was measured by a gentamicin protection assay (58). *S. flexneri* was grown to
an OD_{600} of approximately 0.7 in TSB (37 °C, 250 RPM), washed in PBS, resuspended
at a concentration of 1 x 10^9 CFU/mL, and incubated with 1 µM of the desired mAb or
PBS (control) for 30 min at 37 °C. 10 µL of bacteria (~1 x 10^7 CFU, MOI = 20) was added
to a monolayer of approximately 5 x 10^5 HeLa cells in a tissue culture-treated 24-well
plate (Corning) and centrifuged at 900 x g for 10 min. The plate was incubated for 30 min
at 37 °C and 5% CO_2, washed two times with PBS, the media was replaced with DMEM
containing 25 µg/mL gentamicin, and the plate was incubated for an additional 1 h. The
wells were washed twice more with PBS and then lysed with 0.1% Triton X-100. Serial
dilutions of the mAb-treated and control bacteria were plated, and percent invasion was
calculated. Adalimumab (57) expressed as a chimeric macaque IgG1 was used as a
control mAb.
639
Bacterial surface staining
To measure bacterial surface staining, *S. flexneri* was grown to an OD_{600} of approximately
0.5, washed and resuspended in PBS to a concentration of 2 x 10^9 CFU/mL. The desired
mAb was added to 25 µL of bacteria at a final concentration of 50 nM and incubated at

37 °C for 30 min. The bacteria were washed with PBS and then incubated with a 1:100
dilution of the appropriate secondary antibody for 30 min at room temperature. For scFvs,
the secondary antibody was Alexa Fluor 647-conjugated anti-Flag antibody (Abcam), and
for huIgGs this was BV421-conjugated anti-Human IgG (BD Biosciences). Bacteria were
then fixed with 4% PFA for 30 min on ice. Median fluorescence intensity was determined
by flow cytometry on a FACSSymphony A5 (BD Biosciences).
650
Biolayer interferometry
Binding of hFLex3a2_v2 variants to *S. flexneri* 3a O-Ag was characterized by BLI using
an Octet® R8 (Sartorius) with Octet AHC Biosensors (Sartorius). All antibodies and
antigens were in PBS + 0.02% Tween-20 + 0.01% BSA. The BLI protocol was as follows:
300 seconds baseline, 120 seconds loading with 1 μM mAb, 180 seconds baseline, 360
seconds association with 100 μg/mL of *S. flexneri* 3a O-Ag or 540 seconds with 20 μg/mL
of *S. flexnei* 3a O-Ag, and 600 seconds dissociation. BLI results were analyzed on Octet
Analysis Studio (Sartorius) and plotted with GraphPad Prism. hFlex2a1 (37) expressed
as a chimeric huIgG1 was used as a control mAb.
660
O-Ag visualization
To visualize O-Ag, crude protein-free LPS extract was purified from *S. flexneri* 3a and *S.*
flexneri 3a waaL::kan (O-Ag-) following the method of Darveau and Hancock (59).
Bacterial LPS extract was separated by SDS-PAGE and stained with Pro-Q™ Emerald
300 Lipopolysaccharide Gel Stain Kit (Thermo Fisher) following the manufacturer's
instructions. Stained gels were visualized on a ChemiDoc MP Imaging System (Bio-Rad).
667
Fig 1: Analysis of binding and function of putative hFlex3a2 as a huIgG1 chimera.
(A) Alignment of putative hFlex3a2 VH and VL protein sequences to their closest germline
progenitors shows high levels of similarity. Residues that were modified to create mAb
hFlex3a2_v2 are denoted by (*). Alignment and CDR predictions were determined with
IMGT/V-Quest and rare residues were identified with abYsis (45,46). (B) Titration ELISA
measures the binding of increasing concentrations of hFlex3a2 huIgG1 to 2.5 μg/mL of
S. flexneri 3a OMVs. This experiment is the average of three independent replicates each
performed in duplicate. (C) L-ABA measuring the ability of increasing concentrations of
hFlex3a2 huIgG1 and a non-binding control mAb, to coordinate complement-mediated
bacterial killing of *S. flexneri* 3a. L-ABA is the average of three biological replicates
performed in duplicate. (D) Surface staining with 50 nM of mAb shows that hFlex3a2, and
not a non-binding control mAb, binds specifically to *S. flexneri* 3a wildtype O-Ag. This
experiment is the average of three experimental replicates. Error bars represent standard
deviation.
682
Fig 2: Analysis of binding of hFlex3a2 and hFlex3a2_v2 as an scFv. (A) Titration
ELISA shows that at concentrations above 100 nM of scFv, hFlex3a2_v2, but not
hFlex3a2, binds to *S. flexneri* 3a OMVs (2.5 μg/mL). Neither scFv bound to the unrelated
antigen ovalbumin (5 μg/mL). This experiment was repeated three times, and a
representative experiment is shown. (B) Titration ELISA of hFlex3a2_v2 reformatted as
a chimeric huIgG1 and the original hFlex3a2 huIgG1 shows similar binding to *S. flexneri*
3a OMVs (2.5 μg/mL). This experiment is the result of two independent replicates. (C)

Surface staining confirms that in the scFv format, hFlex3a2_v2, but not hFlex3a2, binds
S. flexneri 3a. scFvs were tested at a concentration of 1μM. This experiment represents
two replicates. Error bars represent standard deviation.
693
Fig 3: Whole-cell in-solution panning enriches for VL variants. (A) Whole-cell in-
solution panning strategy. To identify better binding variants of hFlex3a2_v2 scFv, we
panned a phage-displayed site-saturated mutagenesis scanning library of VL or VH
against either *S. flexneri* 3a or *S. sonnei* in-solution for two rounds and sequenced output
phage by next-generation sequencing to identify variants that were specifically enriched
against *S. flexneri* 3a. (B) log10 enrichment of variants in the VL library after two rounds
of panning against *S. flexneri* 3a and *S. sonnei*. Dotted line is 20 standard deviations
above the mean mutation enrichment in the input library and indicates a stringent
threshold set to distinguish bacteria-mediated enrichment from background variability. (C)
Fold-change in the frequency of next-generation sequencing reads for variant mutations
at each site on hFlex3a2_v2 VL after panning, relative to their frequency in the initial
library, shows that certain residues that cluster in and around the CDRs have a large
increase in read frequency. (D) The percent distribution of all variants for each site of the
CDRs after two rounds of panning against *S. flexneri* 3a shows that at some sites (I29,
S30, H34) a single variant, or at other sites (L33, A51, N90, S93) a handful of variants
were enriched for. (E) Specificity of mutational enrichment was determined. Each dot
represents the enrichment of a variant against *S. flexneri* 3a relative to *S. sonnei* at the
indicated residue after two rounds of panning. Positive numbers indicate variants that
were enriched against *S. flexneri* 3a relative to *S. sonnei*, zero indicates similar
enrichment against both bacterial species, and negative numbers indicate variants that
were enriched for against *S. sonnei* relative to *S. flexneri* 3a. Dotted line is 20 standard
deviations above the mean mutation enrichment in the input library.
716
Fig 4: Binding analysis of hFlex3a2_v2 variants specifically enriched against *S.*
***flexneri* 3a and produced as huIgG1 chimeras** (A) Surface staining experiment
confirms that 50 nM of the parental mAb (red), single amino acid variants (green), and
combinatorial variants (blue) bind *S. flexneri* 3a ~100-fold higher than a non-binding
control mAb (black) as indicated by a median fluorescence intensity. Surface staining is
the average of three biological replicates. Error bars represent standard deviation. (B)
Binding curves from a titration ELISA against *S. flexneri* 3a OMVs (2.5 μg/mL) show
relative binding potencies of the parent mAb (red), single amino acid variants (green),
and combinatorial variants (blue). ELISA binding curves are the average of three
independent replicates each performed in duplicate (C) EC_{50} values calculated from the
ELISA in panel B show relative steady-state apparent affinities of hFlex3a2_v2 variants.
Black line indicates the median EC_{50}. (D) Binding of hFlex3a2_v2, H34A, S30G + L33N,
and a non-binding control as huIgG1s to purified *S. flexneri* 3a O-Ag was assessed by
BLI. This experiment is the average of two experiments performed with independently
purified batches of mAbs.
732
Fig 5: Functional analysis of hFlex3a2_v2 variants against *S. flexneri* 3a. (A) L-ABA
assay comparing the ability of hFlex3a2_v2 variants and a non-binding control to
coordinate complement-mediated bacteriolysis of *S. flexneri* 3a. L-ABA is the average of

three biological replicates each performed in duplicate. p-values were calculated on
$logIC_{50}$ values by repeated measure Anova with Dunnett's correction for multiple
comparisons. (B) OPA assay measures the percent of THP-1 cells that have
phagocytosed *S. flexneri* 3a that was opsonized with 30 nM of the indicated mAb. This
experiment is the result of five biological replicates each performed in duplicate, and p-
values were calculated by repeated measure ANOVA with Dunnett's correction for
multiple comparisons. Error bars represent standard deviation. (C) Invasion assay shows
the percent invasion of *S. flexneri* 3a incubated with 1μM of the indicated mAb normalized
to the invasion rate of *S. flexneri* 3a in PBS. This experiment is the result of four biological
replicates each performed in duplicate, and p-values were calculated by repeated
measure ANOVA with Dunnett's correction for multiple comparisons. Errors bars
represent standard error of the mean (S.E.M.). For all plots, p values < 0.5 are denoted
by a *.
749
Fig 6: Binding and functional analysis of hFlex3a2_v2 variants against *S. flexneri*
3b. (A) Schematic depicting the O-Ag structures of our panel of *S. flexneri* serotypes. (B)
Surface staining with 50 nM of hFlex3a2_v2 variants and a non-binding control mAb to a
panel of *S. flexneri* and *S. sonnei* serotypes. This experiment is the average of two
replicates. (C) Binding curves from a titration ELISA against *S. flexneri* 3b OMVs (2.5
μg/mL) show relative binding potency of the parent mAb (red), single amino acid variants
(green), and combinatorial variants (blue). ELISA binding curves are the average of two
replicates. (D) L-ABA assay comparing the ability of hFlex3a2_v2, L33N, and S30G +
L33N to coordinate complement-mediated bacteriolysis of *S. flexneri* 3b. L-ABA is the
average of four biological replicates each performed in duplicate. (E) OPA assay
measures the percent of THP-1 cells that have phagocytosed *S. flexneri* 3b that was
opsonized with 30 nM of the indicated mAb. This experiment is the result of five biological
replicates each performed in duplicate, and p-values were calculated by repeated
measure ANOVA with Dunnett's correction for multiple comparisons. Error bars represent
standard deviation. (F) Invasion assay shows the percent invasion of *S. flexneri* 3b
incubated with 1μM of the indicated mAb normalized to the invasion rate of *S. flexneri* 3b
in PBS. This experiment is the result of four biological replicates each performed in
duplicate. Error bars represent standard error of the mean (S.E.M.). for all plots, p values
< 0.5 are denoted by a *.
769
Fig S1: **Mutation enrichment in the VH library after panning.** (A) Fold-change in the
frequency of next-generation sequencing reads for variant mutations at each VH site of
hFlex3a2_v2 after two rounds of panning, relative to their frequency in the input library.
(B) log10 enrichment of variants in the VH library after two rounds of panning against *S.*
flexneri 3a and *S. sonnei*. Dotted line is 20 standard deviations above the mean mutation
enrichment in the input library and indicates a stringent threshold set to distinguish
bacteria-mediated enrichment from background variability.
777
778 **Fig S2: Distribution of next-generation sequencing reads across the VL library**
779 **variants after panning.** A heatmap showing the percentage of all reads belonging to the
780 indicated hFlex3a2_v2 variant after two rounds of panning against *S. flexneri* 3a.
781

Fig S3: Enrichment of VL mutations for increased affinity to the surface of *S. flexneri 3a* after two rounds of panning. Enrichment of the indicated amino acids in the library variants after panning against *S. flexneri* 3a was calculated relative to the enrichment against *S. sonnei*. All data is log10 transformed. White squares with an "X" through them indicate variants for which no reads were detected in either the input or output libraries, suggesting that these variants may not have been successfully synthesized.

Fig S4: hFlex3a2_v2 variant *S. flexneri* 3a OMV and polyreactiviy ELISAs (A) The same ELISA as Figure 4B is reproduced here, but with all variants labeled. (B) ELISA measuring non-specific binding of hFlex3a2_v2 variants to 5 μg/mL of insulin, CHO-SMPs, or ssDNA. A known poly-reactive mAb (4E10 targeting HIV-1) and a known non-polyreactive mAb (Adalimumab) serve as positive and negative controls, respectively. This experiment is the result of three replicates. (C) Gating strategy for quantifying OPA. Cells are gated first by size, then by CD45+ Dead- populations. An unrelated, nonbinding mAb negative control is used to determine the %CTV+ gate.

Fig S5: L-ABA analysis of hFlex3a2_v2 variants against *S. flexneri* 3a (A) L-ABA from Fig 5A is reproduced here, but with all variants labeled. (B) log10 IC_{50} from L-ABA and EC_{50} from ELISA are correlated. R^2 represents Pearson correlation coefficient.

Fig S6: hFlex3a2_v2 variant ELISA against *S. flexneri* 3b OMVs. (A) SDS-PAGE of crude LPS extract from *S. flexneri* 3a and *S. flexneri* 3a waaL::kan (O-Ag-) confirms that knocking out waaL eliminates O-Ag expression. Gel was stained with Pro-Q Emerald 3000. (B)The ELISA from Fig 6C is reproduced here, but with all variants labeled.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Antibody	3a fold enrichment	Sonnei fold enrichment	3a ELISA EC50 (nM)	3a L-ABA IC50 (nM)	3a OPA (%CTV+)	3a Invasion assay (% of PBS)	3b ELISA EC50 (nM)	3a L-ABA IC50 (nM)	3b OPA (%CTV+)	3b Invasion Assay (% of PBS)
hFlex3a2_v2	—	—	57.8	1.86	17.7	118.3	2,140	125.80	7.4	151.7
S30G	243.5	1.0	9.9	1.35	25.6	34.5	367	—	12.6	—
L33N	129.9	0.8	5.0	1.32	33.7	19.8	323	30.40	22.8	121.3
H34A	15.9	61.2	205.1	4.86	21.8	—	112.634	—	11.0	—
A51R	128.5	0.7	11.2	1.38	29.6	44.4	750	—	28.7	—
N90H	105.2	3.7	37.2	1.60	32.2	—	3,074	—	26.9	—
S30G + L33N	—	—	2.6	0.68	38.6	32.8	165	17.96	31.3	93.33
S30G + A51R	—	—	3.5	0.63	29.7	15.7	249	—	33.4	—
L33N + A51R	—	—	7.8	0.92	27.6	30.1	412	—	25.3	—
S30G + L33N + A51R	—	—	3.0	0.80	25.4	18.7	202	—	25.4	—
All 5	—	—	201.3	4.50	18.5	—	20,313	—	4.1	—

Table 1

Figure S1

Figure S2

Figure S3

Figure S4

Figure S5

Figure S6

hFlex3a2 protein sequence	
Heavy Chain	QVQLQQSAPELARPGASVKMSCKASGYTFTSYTIHWVKQRPGQGLEWIGYI SPSSGYTEYNQKFKDKTTLTADKSSITAYMQLSSLTSEDSAVYYCARLDNN YVYFDYWGLGTTLTVSS
Light Chain	DIVMTQSPATLSVTPGDRVSLSCRASQSISDYLHWYQQKSHESPRLLIKYAS QSISGIPSRFSGSGSGSDFTLSINSVEPEDVGVYYCQNGHSFPLTFGAGTKLEL K
hFlex3a2_v2 protein sequence	
Heavy Chain	QVQLQQS**G**PELARPGASVKMSCKASGYTFTSYTIHWVKQRPGQGLEWIGYI SPSSGYTEYNQKFKDKTTLTADKSS**S**TAYMQLSSLTSEDSAVYYCARLDNN YVYFDYWGLGTTLTVSS
Light Chain	DIVMTQSPATLSVTPGDRVSLSCRASQSISDYLHWYQQKS**G**ESPRLLIKYAS QSISGIPSRFSGSGSGSDFTLSINSVEPEDVGVYYCQNGHSFPLTFGAGTKLEL K

Underlined residues indicate sites that are different between hFlex3a2 and hFlex3a2_v2

Red residues indicate sites of amino acid changes for affinity matured variants:
S30G, L33N, H34A, A51R, and N90H

Table S1

Table S2. Strains and plasmids used in this study.

Strain or plasmid	Description	Reference/Source
E. coli		
NEB5α	Cloning strain	New England Biolabs
XL1-Blue	Phage library construction	Agilent Technologies
BL21	Protein expression	New England Biolabs
Shigella		
S. flexneri 210059	Serotype 1b	(1)
S. flexneri 2457T	Serotype 2a	WRAIR
S. flexneri CDC 3591-52	Serotype 2b	ATCC 12022
S. flexneri J17B	Serotype 3a	WRAIR
S. flexneri WS-016	Serotype 3b	This study
S. flexneri WS-037	Serotype Y	This study
S. sonnei 53G lvp::kan	LVP stable *S. sonnei*	
S. flexneri J17B *tolR*::kan	tolR knockout, overproduces serotype 3a OMVs	This study
S. flexneri J17B *waaL*::kan	waaL knockout, serotype 3a O-Ag negative strain	This study
S. flexneri r08028 *tolR*::kan	tolR knockout, overproduces serotype 3b OMVs	This study
Human		
HeLa	Virulence assays	ATCC CCL-2
Expi293	Antibody transfection	Thermo Fisher Scientific
THP-1	OPA	ATCC TIB-202
Plasmids		
pACBSR	Gene-gorging mutagenesis vector	(2)
pKD4	Kan resistance casette	(3)
pGEMTeasy	Donor plasmid for gorging	Promega
pET28b (+)	Protein expression vector	Sigma Aldrich
pCOMB3XSS	Phage display vector	(4)

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Name	Sequence (5'-3')	Purpose
pKD4F	GTGTAGGCTGGAGCTGCTTC	Amplify Kan cassette
pKD4R	CATATGAATATCCTCCTTAG	Amplify Kan cassette
waaL_downstreamSceIF	TGGCGGCCGCGGGAATTCGATTTAGGGATAACAGGGTAAT TTGGCCGCTGCTCAC	Amplify downstream for waaL mutagenesis
waaL_downstreamR	GAAGCAGCTCCAGCCTACACGTAAAAAATAAAAAAGGCTGC	Amplify downstream for waaL mutagenesis
waaL_upstreamF	CTAAGGAGGATATTCATATGGTCATCTTATCTCCGATG	Amplify upstream for waaL mutagenesis
waaL_upstreamSceIR	GCCGCGAATTCACTAGTGATATAGGGATAACAGGGTAAT GCGATTATGCTATCGCA	Amplify upstream for waaL mutagenesis
tolR_upstreamSceIF	TAGGGATAACAGGGTAATTTGCTTCTGCTTTAACTCGG	Amplify upstream for tolR mutagenesis
tolR_upstreamR	GAAGCAGCTCCAGCCTACACTAAACATCTGCGTTTCCCTTGCTTG	Amplify upstream for tolR mutagenesis
tolR_downstreamF	CTAAGGAGGATATTCATATGCATGGCTTACCCCTTGTTGC	Amplify downstream for tolR mutagenesis
tolR_downstreamSceIR	TAGGGATAACAGGGTAATTCTGGAATCGAACTCTCTCG	Amplify downstream for tolR mutagenesis
phage_library_Amp_F	CTCAGTGGCCCAGGCGGCC	Amplify phage display library for pCOMB3xss
phage_library_Amp_R	CTCAGTGGCCGGCCTGGCC	Amplify phage display library

		for pCOMB3XSS
S30G_F	GAGTATTGGTGACTACTTACA	Clone hFlex3a2_v2 variants
S30G_R	TGTAAGTAGTCACCAATACTC	Clone hFlex3a2_v2 variants
L33N_F	GACTACAATCACTGGTATCA	Clone hFlex3a2_v2 variants
L33N_R	TGATACCAGTGATTGTAGTC	Clone hFlex3a2_v2 variants
H34A_F	GACTACTTAGCGTGGTATCA	Clone hFlex3a2_v2 variants
H34A_R	TGATACCACGCTAAGTAGTC	Clone hFlex3a2_v2 variants
A51R_F	CAAATATCGTTCCCAATCCA	Clone hFlex3a2_v2 variants
A51R_R	TGGATTGGGAACGATATTTG	Clone hFlex3a2_v2 variants
N91H_F	ACTGTCAACATGGTCACAGC	Clone hFlex3a2_v2 variants
N91H_R	GCTGTGACCATGTTGACAGT	Clone hFlex3a2_v2 variants