

mRNA vaccine induces cytotoxic CD8+ T-cell cross-reactivity against SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variant and regulates COVID-19 severity

Takuto Nogimori

National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health and Nutrition <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6011-9631>

Koichiro Suzuki

The Research Foundation for Microbial Diseases of Osaka University

Yuji Masuta

National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health and Nutrition <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2349-6320>

Mika Yagoto

National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health and Nutrition

Mami Ikeda

National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health and Nutrition

Yuki Katayama

National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health and Nutrition

Ayaka Washizaki

National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health and Nutrition

Hidenori Kanda

KINSHUKAI, Hanwa The Second Hospital

Minoru Takada

KINSHUKAI, Hanwa The Second Senboku Hospital

Shohei Minami

Research Institute for Microbial Diseases, Osaka University

Takeshi Kobayashi

Research Institute for Microbial Diseases, Osaka University

Shokichi Takahama

National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health and Nutrition <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5651-4217>

Yasuo Yoshioka

Research Institute for Microbial Diseases, Osaka University <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7265-9221>

Takuya Yamamoto (✉ yamamotot2@nibiohn.go.jp)

Article

Keywords:

Posted Date: April 11th, 2022

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-1364513/v1>

License:  This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

[Read Full License](#)

1 **mRNA vaccine induces cytotoxic CD8⁺ T-cell cross-reactivity against**
2 **SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variant and regulates COVID-19 severity**

3

4 Takuto Nogimori^{1,2}, Koichiro Suzuki³, Yuji Masuta^{1,4}, Mika Yagoto¹, Mami Ikeda¹, Yuki Katayama¹, Ayaka
5 Washizaki¹, Hidenori Kanda⁵, Minoru Takada⁶, Shohei Minami⁷, Takeshi Kobayashi⁷, Shokichi Takahama^{1,2},
6 Yasuo Yoshioka^{3,8,9,10}, and Takuya Yamamoto^{1,2,4,7,11*}

7

8 ¹ Laboratory of Immunosenescence, National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health and Nutrition, Osaka,
9 Japan

10 ² Research Institute for Microbial Diseases, Osaka University, Osaka, Japan

11 ³ The Research Foundation for Microbial Diseases of Osaka University (BIKEN), Osaka, Japan

12 ⁴ Laboratory of Aging and Immune Regulation, Graduate School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Osaka University,
13 Osaka, Japan

14 ⁵ KINSHUKAI, Hanwa The Second Hospital, Osaka, Japan

15 ⁶ KINSHUKAI, Hanwa The Second Senboku Hospital, Osaka, Japan

16 ⁷ Department of Virology, Research Institute for Microbial Diseases, Osaka University, Osaka, Japan

17 ⁸ Vaccine Creation Group, BIKEN Innovative Vaccine Research Alliance Laboratories, Research Institute for
18 Microbial Diseases, Osaka University, Osaka, Japan

19 ⁹ Laboratory of Nano-design for innovative drug development, Graduate School of Pharmaceutical Sciences,
20 Osaka University, Osaka, Japan

21 ¹⁰ Institute for Open and Transdisciplinary Research Initiatives, Osaka University, Osaka, Japan

22 ¹¹ Department of Virology and Immunology, Graduate School of Medicine, Osaka University, Osaka, Japan.

23

24 * Corresponding author

25 Takuya Yamamoto

26 Laboratory of Immunosenescence

27 National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health and Nutrition

28 7-6-8, Saito-Asagi, Ibaraki City, Osaka 567-0085, Japan

29 Email: yamamotot2@nibiohn.go.jp

30 **ABSTRACT**

31 Understanding the T-cell responses involved in inhibiting COVID-19 severity is crucial for
32 developing new therapeutic and vaccine strategies. Here, we characterized SARS-CoV-2 spike-
33 specific CD8⁺ T cells interacting with overlapping peptides on peripheral blood mononuclear cells
34 from acute-phase COVID-19 patients. Relative to severe COVID-19, patients with mild COVID-19
35 had more frequent antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cells, and significantly increased SARS-CoV-2 spike-
36 specific CD8⁺ T cells simultaneously expressing granzyme A, granzyme B, and perforin, suggesting
37 that inducing highly cytotoxic CD8⁺ T cells during early infection suppresses COVID-19 severity.
38 The BNT162b2 mRNA vaccine induced these antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cells in healthy donors,
39 although lesser than in infected patients, and the induced subpopulation was not maintained long-term
40 after second vaccination. Importantly, these CD8⁺ T cells showed cross-reactivity with the Delta and
41 Omicron strains of SARS-CoV-2. Incorporating factors that efficiently induce CD8⁺ T cells with
42 polyfunctional cytotoxic activity may improve future vaccine efficacy against such variants.

43

44 **Introduction**

45 COVID-19, an infectious disease caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-
46 CoV-2), is an ongoing global pandemic with increasing incidence and mortality¹. SARS-CoV-2
47 infection causes a wide variety of clinical features, ranging from asymptomatic cases to severe cases
48 with an inflammatory response and death^{2,3}. The mortality rate of COVID-19 is lower than that of
49 severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus (SARS-CoV) and Middle East respiratory syndrome
50 coronavirus (MERS-CoV), but much higher than that of seasonal influenza^{4,5}. The emergence of new
51 variants of concern (VoCs) may further increase disease severity. Indeed, it was suggested that variant
52 B.1.1.7, the Alpha strain, first detected in the UK in September 2020, may cause more severe illness
53 than pre-existing variants⁶. B.1.351 (the Beta strain, detected in South Africa⁷), which has the E484K
54 mutation in the spike-protein receptor-binding domain, shows high resistance to vaccine-induced and
55 anti-monoclonal antibodies⁸⁻¹¹. Like the Beta strain, the Delta strain, B.1.617.2 (first detected in India
56 in December 2020) also reduces vaccine efficacy; by mid-April 2021 it was the most commonly
57 reported variant in India, and rapidly spread globally¹². B.1.1.529 (the Omicron strain, which emerged
58 in South Africa in November 2021¹³), has many amino acid mutations in its spike protein, and 15
59 mutations in the ACE2 receptor-binding domain¹⁴. Compared to previous VoCs, Omicron more
60 severely reduced vaccine and monoclonal antibody efficacy¹⁴⁻²⁴. Furthermore, due to its higher
61 transmissibility, there are concerns about faster and wider spread of SARS-CoV-2 infection²⁵.

62 T cells are critical in eliminating many respiratory tract infections in acute phase²⁶. Cytotoxic CD8⁺ T
63 cells, which play a protective role in immune surveillance against viral infection, are an important
64 component of vaccine-induced protective immunity²⁷. The induction of cellular and humoral
65 immunity in response to COVID-19 is important in suppressing symptom severity^{28,29}. Lymphopenia
66 is associated with COVID-19 disease severity³⁰, and the depletion of CD8⁺ T cells, but not CD4⁺ T
67 cells, is associated with poor prognosis of COVID-19 patients³¹. In SARS-CoV-2-infected ACE2-
68 transgenic mice with depleted CD8⁺ T-cell population, the viral load in the lungs elevated 5 d post-
69 infection³², suggesting that CD8⁺ T cells play an important role in the early clearance of SARS-CoV-
70 2. In rhesus monkeys with prior SARS-CoV-2 infection, CD8⁺ T cell depletion reduced their

71 resistance to SARS-CoV-2 re-challenge³³. Analysis of SARS-CoV-2-specific T-cell responses in
72 asymptomatic and symptomatic SARS-CoV-2-infected individuals revealed equivalent frequencies of
73 antigen-specific T cells, although asymptomatic individuals had elevated IFN- γ and IL-2 production.
74 While antigen-specific T-cell IFN- γ production and IL-10 and pro-inflammatory cytokine (IL-6, TNF-
75 α , and IL-1 β) production were proportionate in asymptomatic individuals, their secretion was
76 disproportionate in symptomatic individuals³⁴. In a longitudinal study of SARS-CoV-2-infected
77 patients, from onset to recovery or death, IFN- γ -secreting SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells were induced
78 earlier in individuals with mild disease than in those with severe disease²⁹. Indeed, early functional
79 induction of SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells influences COVID-19 patient prognosis.

80 mRNA vaccines expressing the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein, such as mRNA-1273 (Moderna,
81 Cambridge, MA) and BNT162b2 (Pfizer, New York, NY), which induce antigen-specific T-cell
82 responses³⁵⁻³⁷, are currently being used worldwide against COVID-19. They cause remarkable
83 induction of CD4⁺ T-cell responses, and rapid Th1 and peripheral Tfh cell induction after initial
84 vaccination is associated with CD8⁺ T-cell responses and antibody induction after second
85 vaccination³⁸. Furthermore, although mRNA-vaccine-induced antibody population declines over time,
86 it persists for at least six months^{39,40}. The mRNA-vaccine-induced antigen-specific CD4⁺ T cell
87 frequency remained stable from three to six months after vaccination, with a half-life of 187 days⁴¹. In
88 another study, the frequency of CD4⁺ T cells induced by low-dose mRNA-1273 was maintained even
89 after six months⁴². In contrast, the frequency of CD8⁺ T cells induced by mRNA vaccines decreased
90 after six months⁴¹.

91 Despite of increasing evidence on the dynamics of mRNA vaccine-induced cellular immunity, it
92 remains to be clarified which vaccine-induced T-cell responses better predict protection from disease
93 after SARS-CoV-2 exposure. Furthermore, to respond appropriately to new VoCs, it is necessary to
94 determine mRNA vaccine-induced T-cell cross-reactivity to them. T-cell immunity induced by
95 infection or vaccination may be cross-reactive to mutant strains⁴³⁻⁴⁸. T-cell responses to newly
96 emerged omicron strains have been actively analyzed. For instance, BNT162b2-vaccinated
97 individuals, and those who had recovered from SARS-CoV-2 infection, had antigen-specific T cells

98 that were cross-reactive to the Omicron variant spike protein⁴⁹⁻⁵¹. In vaccine- or infection-induced
99 CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells, exposure to the Omicron-derived Spike-peptide pool, or wild-type spike-
100 protein peptides, caused comparable IFN- γ , IL-2, and TNF cytokine production⁵².

101 Nonetheless, it remains unclear how the mRNA vaccine-induced cytotoxicity of cross-reactive T cells
102 changes over time. To address this in the present study, we first analyzed peripheral blood
103 mononuclear cells (PBMCs) obtained from 30 symptomatic SARS-CoV-2-infected patients, to
104 identify CD8⁺ T cell phenotypes that suppress COVID-19 progression. Since CD8⁺ T cells show
105 antiviral effects mainly by secreting cytotoxic granules^{53, 54}, we examined the cytotoxicity of SARS-
106 CoV-2 spike-specific CD8⁺ T cells: in patients with mild disease, there was a high frequency of
107 subpopulations simultaneously expressing granzyme A (GZMA), granzyme B (GZMB), and perforin,
108 indicating the induction of highly functional CD8⁺ T cells. Next, we examined whether highly
109 cytotoxic CD8⁺ T cells were induced by BNT162b2 vaccines. One month after the second BNT162b2
110 vaccination, subpopulations simultaneously expressing GZMA, GZMB, and perforin were observed,
111 although at lower frequency than that in naturally infected individuals. The subpopulation frequency
112 did not differ for the Delta and Omicron strains, which differ from the vaccine strain, indicating that
113 the mRNA vaccine-induced antigen-specific but cross-reactive CD8⁺ T cells. Nonetheless, the
114 frequencies of this subpopulation decreased three months after the second vaccination, suggesting that
115 highly functional antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cells are not maintained in the long term.

116 **Results**

117 **Acute phase SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific CD8⁺ T-cell response associated with COVID-19**
118 **severity**

119 To characterize the CD8⁺ T cells associated with COVID-19 severity, we enrolled 30 patients infected
120 with Alpha variant of SARS-CoV-2 (Table 1). For the acute-phase, the viral load and anti-spike IgG
121 titer were significantly negatively correlated (Fig. 1a), whereas the antibody titer was not associated
122 with COVID-19 severity (Fig. 1b). Next, we analyzed the SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific CD8⁺ T cells
123 using flow cytometry. A representative gating scheme for flow cytometric analysis is presented in
124 Extended Data Figure 1. The surface markers CD27 and CD45RO were used to define the total
125 memory-cell population, and CD69 and 4-1BB were used to define an antigen-specific-stimulated
126 population (Fig. 1c). CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T-cell frequency was significantly higher in patients with
127 mild disease compared to patients with moderate II/severe disease (Fig. 1d), suggesting that antigen-
128 specific CD8⁺ T cells prevent the progression of COVID-19 pathology.

129 **Functional characteristics of SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific CD8⁺ T cells in acute COVID-19**

130 Next, to further characterize antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cells with respect to COVID-19 inhibition, we
131 calculated the cytokine production of CD8⁺ T cells responding to SARS-CoV-2 spike antigen. IFN- γ ,
132 TNF, and IL-2 expression did not vary significantly with severity (Fig 2a and Extended Data Fig 2).
133 The SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific CD8⁺ T-cell functional profile was not associated with COVID-19
134 severity (Fig. 2b).

135 We next evaluated the cytotoxic activity of SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific CD8⁺ T cells. Most of the
136 CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T cells expressed granzyme A (GZMA), granzyme B (GZMB) and perforin
137 expression tended to decrease with disease severity (Fig 2c and Extended Data Fig 3).

138 Simultaneous expression of different cytotoxic molecules is potentially characteristic of effector cells
139 with strong cytotoxicity. Therefore, we analyzed the simultaneous expression of GZMA, GZMB, and
140 perforin in CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T cells (Fig. 2d). The frequency of subpopulations expressing GZMA,

141 GZMB, and perforin decreased substantially (by 27%) with COVID-19 severity. Moreover, the
142 frequencies of the simultaneously expressed cytotoxic molecules differed significantly between the
143 mild and moderate II/severe disease groups (Fig. 2e). These results suggest that in the acute phase of
144 COVID-19 pathogenesis, polyfunctional cytotoxic CD8⁺ T-cell induction is associated with the
145 control of disease progression.

146 **mRNA vaccine induced antibodies and CD4⁺ T cells against SARS-CoV-2 variants of concern**

147 To measure mRNA vaccine-induced immune responses against SARS-CoV-2 variants of concern, we
148 enrolled 21 healthy adults vaccinated with Pfizer BNT162b2, and obtained samples at three time
149 points: pre-vaccination, four weeks after second vaccination, and twelve weeks after second
150 vaccination. First, we measured the anti-spike IgG endpoint titer in response to wild-type (WT),
151 Delta, and Omicron spikes in plasma samples by performing ELISA (Fig. 3a). At four weeks post-
152 second vaccination, antibody titers were high for all spike types (WT, Delta, and Omicron), but
153 lowered twelve weeks post-booster vaccination, consistent with previous reports^{41, 55}. At each time
154 point, antibody titers were significantly lower in response to Delta and Omicron spikes than to the WT
155 (Fig. 3b). In particular, four weeks post-booster vaccination, the antibody endpoint titer was 84%
156 lower against the Omicron spike than that against the WT.

157 To evaluate the role of T cells in protecting against SARS-CoV-2 VoCs exposure, we used flow
158 cytometric analysis to examine CD4⁺ T cell responses to Delta and Omicron, the recently emerged
159 VoCs of SARS-CoV-2. PBMCs from BNT162b2-vaccinated healthy donors were stimulated with
160 WT, Delta, or Omicron strain-derived spike peptides. Antigen-specific Th1 cells were defined as
161 CD4⁺ total memory T cells expressing CD154 and IFN- γ (gating scheme shown in Extended Data Fig.
162 4a). Antigen-specific Th1 cell frequencies were calculated in stimulated samples by subtracting
163 background of unstimulated samples: relative to the response to the WT, antigen-specific Th1 cell
164 frequency was slightly lower in response to the Omicron variant, but not to the Delta variant (Fig. 3c).
165 We evaluated the correlations between the antibody titers and Th1 cell frequencies: the Th1 cell
166 frequency and the anti-spike endpoint titer were significantly correlated (Fig. 3d), suggesting that

167 mRNA vaccine-mediated induction of Th1 cells is necessary to induce antibodies against VoCs.
168 These results suggest that the response of antigen-specific CD4⁺ T cells is slightly lower to Omicron
169 than to the WT; however, these cells are maintained for at least three months after the second
170 vaccination.

171 **The mRNA vaccine induces CD8⁺ T cells against SARS-CoV-2 variants of concern**

172 We next examined whether these antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cells are induced by the mRNA vaccine,
173 and whether memory T cells are maintained for a long period. The gating scheme was as shown in
174 Figure 1, and the representative plots are shown in Extended Data Figure 4b. CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T
175 cells were induced by the mRNA vaccine, and their frequencies were maintained for at least twelve
176 weeks post-second vaccination (Fig. 4a). Furthermore, the frequency of CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T cells
177 did not differ significantly in response to the WT, Delta, and Omicron variants, suggesting that
178 mRNA vaccine-induced antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cells cross-react with SARS-CoV-2 VoCs.

179 Cytokine production by CD8⁺ T cells responding to SARS-CoV-2 spike peptides was low and
180 difficult to quantify (Extended Data Figure 5). To analyze antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cell cytotoxicity,
181 we evaluated the expression of cytotoxicity-related molecules in CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T cells
182 responding to VoCs at four and twelve weeks after the second vaccination. GZMA was overexpressed
183 in the CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T cells of the vaccinated individuals, as well as in the acute phase of the
184 infected individuals (Fig. 4b, left panels). However, relative to their expression at four weeks,
185 expression at twelve weeks post-second vaccination was significantly lower for GZMA (Fig. 4b, left
186 panels), GZMB, and perforin (Fig. 4b, center and right panels). Next, we evaluated the cytotoxicity
187 spectrum of the CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T cells from vaccinated individuals. The frequency of the T-cell
188 subpopulation simultaneously expressing GZMA, GZMB, and perforin was moderate in vaccinated
189 individuals at four weeks post-second vaccination, whereas it was high in mildly infected donors (Fig.
190 4c). Furthermore, at twelve weeks post-second vaccination, the frequency of this subpopulation was
191 significantly lower than that at four weeks (Figs 4c, d), suggesting that mRNA-induced antigen-
192 specific CD8⁺ T cell cytotoxicity is not long-lasting. In contrast, antigen-specific CD8⁺ T-cell

193 cytotoxicity did not differ significantly among the VoCs (Delta and Omicron) and the WT strain,
194 indicating that mRNA vaccine-induced CD8⁺ T cells cross-react with various VoCs.

195 **Discussion**

196 SARS-CoV-2, which first emerged in 2019 in Wuhan, China, is still raging globally. The mRNA
197 vaccines developed to fight this pandemic, now used worldwide, were approved in a shorter-than-
198 usual period owing to the urgency of the situation. Hence, their long-term efficacy remained unknown
199 and need to be determined. To do this, we first characterized antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cells derived
200 from mildly or severely infected individuals upon restimulation with SARS-CoV-2 spike antigen:
201 antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cells in the acute phase of mild disease simultaneously expressed GZMA,
202 GZMB, and perforin. Healthy BNT162b2 mRNA vaccine recipients also produced this subpopulation
203 of highly cytotoxic CD8⁺ T cells, but at a lower proportion than that observed in infected individuals.
204 Furthermore, the frequency of this subpopulation was lower three months after the second vaccination
205 than at one month, suggesting that although the mRNA vaccine induce CD8⁺ T cells that reduce
206 COVID-19 severity, the effect may not be long-lasting.

207 Expression of cytotoxic molecules in CD8⁺ T cells changes during the course of SARS-CoV-2
208 infection and varies between studies, as determined based on bulk analysis of T-cell responses. For
209 instance, GZMB and perforin expression is higher in SARS-CoV-2-infected patients than in healthy
210 donors⁵⁶, whereas another study reported that CD8⁺ T cell GZMA and perforin expression was
211 comparable between healthy individuals and SARS-CoV-2-infected patients⁵⁷. Consistent with our
212 results, a study based on serum levels rather than intracellular expression analysis revealed that
213 GZMA and perforin serum levels are higher in SARS-CoV-2-infected patients with mild symptoms
214 than in healthy individuals and critically-ill patients⁵⁸.

215 Involvement of CD8⁺ T cells in COVID-19 pathogenesis can be elucidated by analyzing SARS-CoV-
216 2-specific CD8⁺ T cell characteristics. In a study using HLA-A02 tetramer⁵⁹, antigen-specific CD8⁺ T
217 cells (obtained from COVID-19 acute-phase patients) responding to the S₂₆₉₋₂₇₇ epitope of the spike
218 protein predominantly belonged to the subpopulation simultaneously expressing GZMA, GZMB,

219 GZMK, and perforin; however, it remained unclear whether these CD8⁺ T cells can suppress COVID-
220 19 severity. To elucidate this, we stimulated PBMCs derived from COVID-19 patients with varying
221 severity with overlapping peptides, and characterized the antigen-specific CD8⁺ T cells via multicolor
222 flow cytometry. Cytokine production from CD8⁺ T cells in response to antigen stimulation did not
223 differ significantly between mildly and severely infected patients, but the expression of cytotoxic
224 molecules was notably different. Antigen-specific T cell expression of cytotoxic molecules varies
225 with the type of virus⁶⁰. Therefore, our study outcomes showing cytotoxic molecule expression profile
226 during the course of SARS-CoV-2 infection is all the more relevant for developing future strategies to
227 protect against SARS-CoV-2 infection.

228 COVID-19 pathogenesis may involve immune checkpoint molecules, in addition to cytotoxic
229 molecules. Expression of PD-1, an inhibitory receptor, is reportedly upregulated in SARS-CoV-2-
230 infected patients⁶¹⁻⁶³, although its role in COVID-19 severity remains controversial. For instance,
231 analysis of SARS-CoV-2 specific CD8⁺ T cells using the MHC-I multimer⁶⁴ showed that PD-1-
232 expressing CD8⁺ T cells were also likely to express IFN- γ and activation markers such as CD38 and
233 HLA-DR. This indicates that PD-1 expression on CD8⁺ T cells of COVID-19 patients may reflect
234 their activation rather than exhaustion. In our study, PD-1 expression did not vary with COVID-19
235 severity. However, further research is needed to elucidate the association between CD8⁺ T cell
236 exhaustion and COVID-19 progression.

237 Based on the results of multicolor flow cytometry of SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific CD8⁺ T cells in
238 PBMCs obtained from healthy BNT162b2 mRNA vaccine recipients, the frequency of the
239 subpopulation simultaneously expressing GZMA, GZMB, and perforin was 21% in CD69⁺4-
240 1BB⁺CD8⁺ T cells one month after the second vaccination. In the acute phase of COVID-19 mild
241 disease, this frequency was 68%, suggesting less effective induction of highly functional cytotoxic
242 CD8⁺ T cells in vaccinated individuals than in naturally infected individuals. Three months after the
243 second vaccination, this subpopulation significantly reduced to 15%. Although SARS-CoV-2 spike-
244 specific CD8⁺ T cells were present three months after vaccination (based on the presence of CD69⁺
245 and 4-1BB⁺ T cells), their functionality declined gradually. Furthermore, consistent with recent

246 reports⁴⁹⁻⁵¹, subpopulation frequency did not differ significantly between cytotoxic CD8⁺ T cells
247 reactive to the Delta and Omicron strains and those reactive to the vaccine strain, providing further
248 evidence that CD8⁺ T cells induced by the vaccine are cross-reactive to VoCs although we couldn't
249 evaluate the actual killing activity of these CD8⁺ T cells.

250 Our findings suggest that mRNA vaccination induces a subpopulation of CD8⁺ T cells that may
251 reduce COVID-19 severity. Nonetheless, inducing as well as maintaining this subpopulation for long-
252 term remains challenging. To increase the efficacy of future vaccines against VoCs, it is worth
253 considering incorporating factors that more efficiently induce CD8⁺ T cells with polyfunctional
254 cytotoxic activity that can remain in system for long-term.

255

256

257 **Methods**

258 **Human samples**

259 Fifty one individuals (30 individuals infected with SARS-CoV-2 Alpha-variant and 21 BNT162b2-
260 vaccinated healthy individuals) were enrolled in this study (Table 1), and SARS-CoV-2 infection was
261 confirmed by reverse transcription quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR). Viral RNA was isolated using the
262 NucleoSpin RNA Virus (MACHEREY-NAGEL, Düren, Germany), according to the manufacturer's
263 instructions. The viral RNA was reverse-transcribed and quantified using the One Step PrimeScript III
264 RT-qPCR Mix, with UNG (TaKaRa, Maebashi, Japan) according to the Pathogen Detection Manual
265 2019-nCoV v. 2.9.1 (National Institute of Infectious Diseases in Japan). Disease severity was
266 categorized using a diagnostic guide from the Japanese Ministry of Health, Labour, and Welfare. The
267 study protocol and procedures were reviewed and approved by the institutional ethics committees of
268 the National Institutes of Biomedical Innovation, Health and Nutrition (approval no. 137), Osaka,
269 Japan, and The Research Foundation for Microbial Diseases of Osaka University (approval no. 20-
270 02), Osaka, Japan, and complied with the 1975 Declaration of Helsinki. All participants provided
271 written informed consent for participating in the study. PBMCs were isolated via density gradient
272 centrifugation using BD Vacutainer CPT cell preparation tube with sodium heparin (Becton,
273 Dickinson, and Co., Franklin Lakes, NJ), according to the manufacturer's instructions. PBMCs were
274 immersed in CELLBANKER cell freezing medium (TaKaRa) and stored in liquid nitrogen vapor until
275 analysis.

276 **SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific antibody detection**

277 The plasma levels of total IgG-targeting SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific antibodies were determined via
278 enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA). Recombinant spike proteins (WT: Wuhan-1; Alpha:
279 B.1.1.7; Delta: B.1.617.2; and Omicron: B.1.1.529) were obtained from ACROBiosystems (Newark,
280 DE). To calculate spike-specific antibody titers, 96-well plates were coated with SARS-CoV-2 spike
281 protein and incubated overnight at 4 °C. The plates were then washed and incubated for 1 h with
282 blocking buffer, then washed again, and incubated with diluted plasma samples for 2 h at 25 °C. Next,

283 the plates were washed and incubated with biotinylated anti-human total IgG (BD Biosciences, San
284 Jose, CA) for 1 h. The plates were then washed and incubated with HRP-conjugated streptavidin
285 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) for 1 h at room temperature. The plates were then washed
286 and incubated with TMB peroxidase substrate (KPL, Gaithersburg, MD) for color development. After
287 10 min, 2 mol/l H₂SO₄ was added to each well to stop the reaction. Antibody expression was
288 measured by determining optical density at 450 nm using an Epoch 2 Microplate Spectrophotometer
289 (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA). The antibody endpoint titer was determined using a cutoff value of 0.3.

290 **Flow cytometry analysis**

291 For analyzing SARS-CoV-2 Spike-specific T cells, we performed surface and intracellular cytokine
292 staining of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells. Briefly, PBMCs were incubated in 1 ml RPMI 1640 medium
293 containing 50 U/ml benzonase nuclease (Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany), 10% fetal bovine serum,
294 and penicillin–streptomycin for 2 h. Next, cells were incubated in 200 µl medium with or without
295 peptides (17-mers overlapping by 11 residues) corresponding to the full-length SARS-CoV-2 spike
296 (Supplementary Table 1), at a final concentration of 2 µg/ml of each peptide, for 30 min. Thereafter,
297 0.2 µl BD GolgiPlug and 0.14 µl BD GolgiStop (both from BD Biosciences) were added and
298 incubated for 5.5 h. The cells were then stained using the LIVE/DEAD Fixable Blue Dead Cell Stain
299 Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific), and stained with anti-CD3 (SP34-2), anti-CD8 (RPA-T8), anti-CD4
300 (L200), anti-CD45RO (UCHL1), anti-CD27 (1A4CD27), and anti-PD-1 (EH12-2H7) antibodies.
301 After fixation and permeabilization using the Cytofix/Cytoperm kit (BD Biosciences), the cells were
302 stained with anti-4-1BB (4B4-1), anti-CD69 (FN50), and anti-IFN-γ (4S.B3), anti-TNF (MAb11),
303 anti-IL-2 (MQ-17H12), anti-granzyme A (CB9), anti-granzyme B (GB11), and anti-perforin (B-D45)
304 antibodies. Cells were analyzed using a BD FACSymphony A5 flow cytometer (BD Biosciences).
305 The data were analyzed using FlowJo v. 10.8.1.

306 **Statistical Analysis**

307 Data were analyzed using GraphPad Prism 9. *P*-values were determined using the nonparametric
308 Mann-Whitney *U* test and Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test. Correlations were calculated

309 using a nonparametric Spearman's rank test. Analysis and representation of T-cell function was
310 performed using Simplified Presentation of Incredibly Complex Evaluations (SPICE) v. 6.1, provided
311 by Dr. Mario Roederer (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD).

312 **Acknowledgements**

313 We thank Mr. Hiroyuki Suzuki, Mr. Nobuaki Hatori, and Mr. Kohei Kato of The Research
314 Foundation for Microbial Diseases of Osaka University, for sample storage and management. In
315 addition, we thank all the members of the Laboratory of Immunosenescence, National Institutes of
316 Biomedical Innovation, Health and Nutrition, Osaka, Japan, for their excellent technical support. This
317 study was supported by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science Grant-in-Aid for Scientific
318 Research (B) (grant number 20H03728) and the Japan Agency for Medical Research and
319 Development (grant numbers 20pc0101047h0001 and 21nf0101627s0202).

320 **Author contributions**

321 TN and TY conceived the study and designed the experiments. TN, KS, YM, MY, MI, YK, and AW
322 performed the experiments and analyzed the data. SM, TK, ST, and YY contributed reagents,
323 materials, and analytical tools. HK and MT conducted patient data and sample collection TN and TY
324 created the figures and wrote the manuscript. All authors verified and discussed the data.

325 **Competing interests**

326 KS and YY are employees of the Research Foundation for Microbial Diseases of Osaka University.
327 The other authors declare no conflicts of interest.

328 **Materials and Correspondence**

329 The data supporting the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon
330 request. Source data are provided with this paper.

331

332

334

- 335 1. Dong, E., Du, H. & Gardner, L. An interactive web-based dashboard to track COVID-19 in
336 real time. *Lancet Infect Dis* **20**, 533-534 (2020).
- 337 2. Huang, C. *et al.* Clinical features of patients infected with 2019 novel coronavirus in Wuhan,
338 China. *The Lancet* **395**, 497-506 (2020).
- 339 3. Lee, J.S. *et al.* Immunophenotyping of COVID-19 and influenza highlights the role of type I
340 interferons in development of severe COVID-19. *Sci Immunol* **5** (2020).
- 341 4. Petersen, E. *et al.* Comparing SARS-CoV-2 with SARS-CoV and influenza pandemics. *The*
342 *Lancet Infectious Diseases* **20**, e238-e244 (2020).
- 343 5. Piroth, L. *et al.* Comparison of the characteristics, morbidity, and mortality of COVID-19 and
344 seasonal influenza: a nationwide, population-based retrospective cohort study. *The Lancet*
345 *Respiratory Medicine* **9**, 251-259 (2021).
- 346 6. Davies, N.G. *et al.* Increased mortality in community-tested cases of SARS-CoV-2 lineage
347 B.1.1.7. *Nature* **593**, 270-274 (2021).
- 348 7. Tegally, H. *et al.* Detection of a SARS-CoV-2 variant of concern in South Africa. *Nature* **592**,
349 438-443 (2021).
- 350 8. Wang, P. *et al.* Antibody resistance of SARS-CoV-2 variants B.1.351 and B.1.1.7. *Nature*
351 **593**, 130-135 (2021).
- 352 9. Liu, Y. *et al.* Neutralizing Activity of BNT162b2-Elicited Serum. *N Engl J Med* **384**, 1466-
353 1468 (2021).
- 354 10. Hoffmann, M. *et al.* SARS-CoV-2 variants B.1.351 and P.1 escape from neutralizing
355 antibodies. *Cell* **184**, 2384-2393 e2312 (2021).
- 356 11. Zhou, D. *et al.* Evidence of escape of SARS-CoV-2 variant B.1.351 from natural and vaccine-
357 induced sera. *Cell* **184**, 2348-2361.e2346 (2021).
- 358 12. Mlcochova, P. *et al.* SARS-CoV-2 B.1.617.2 Delta variant replication and immune evasion.
359 *Nature* **599**, 114-119 (2021).
- 360 13. Karim, S.S.A. & Karim, Q.A. Omicron SARS-CoV-2 variant: a new chapter in the COVID-
361 19 pandemic. *The Lancet* **398**, 2126-2128 (2021).
- 362 14. Cameroni, E. *et al.* Broadly neutralizing antibodies overcome SARS-CoV-2 Omicron
363 antigenic shift. *Nature* (2021).
- 364 15. Carreño, J.M. *et al.* Activity of convalescent and vaccine serum against SARS-CoV-2
365 Omicron. *Nature* (2021).
- 366 16. Hoffmann, M. *et al.* The Omicron variant is highly resistant against antibody-mediated
367 neutralization – implications for control of the COVID-19 pandemic. *Cell* (2021).
- 368 17. Liu, L. *et al.* Striking Antibody Evasion Manifested by the Omicron Variant of SARS-CoV-2.
369 *Nature* (2021).
- 370 18. Planas, D. *et al.* Considerable escape of SARS-CoV-2 Omicron to antibody neutralization.
371 *Nature* (2021).
- 372 19. Wilfredo F. Garcia-Beltran, K.J.S.D., Angélique Hoelzemer, Evan C. Lam, Adam D. Nitido,
373 Maegan L. Sheehan, Cristhian Berrios, Onosereme Ofoman, Christina C. Chang, Blake M.
374 Hauser, Jared Feldman, Alex L. Roederer, David J. Gregory, Mark C. Poznansky, Aaron G.
375 Schmidt, A. John Iafrate, Vivek Naranbhai, Alejandro B. Balazs mRNA-based COVID-19
376 vaccine boosters induce neutralizing immunity against SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variant. *Cell*
377 (2021).
- 378 20. Dejnirattisai, W. *et al.* SARS-CoV-2 Omicron-B.1.1.529 leads to widespread escape from
379 neutralizing antibody responses. *Cell* (2022).
- 380 21. VanBlargan, L.A. *et al.* An infectious SARS-CoV-2 B.1.1.529 Omicron virus escapes
381 neutralization by therapeutic monoclonal antibodies. *Nat Med* (2022).
- 382 22. Cao, Y. *et al.* Omicron escapes the majority of existing SARS-CoV-2 neutralizing antibodies.
383 *Nature* (2021).

- 384 23. Cheng, S.M.S. *et al.* Neutralizing antibodies against the SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variant
385 following homologous and heterologous CoronaVac or BNT162b2 vaccination. *Nat Med*
386 (2022).
- 387 24. Sievers, B.L. *et al.* Antibodies elicited by SARS-CoV-2 infection or mRNA vaccines have
388 reduced neutralizing activity against Beta and Omicron pseudoviruses. *Sci Transl Med*,
389 eabn7842 (2022).
- 390 25. Dyer, O. Covid-19: Omicron is causing more infections but fewer hospital admissions than
391 delta, South African data show. *BMJ* **375**, n3104 (2021).
- 392 26. Schmidt, M.E. & Varga, S.M. The CD8 T Cell Response to Respiratory Virus Infections.
393 *Front Immunol* **9**, 678 (2018).
- 394 27. Pantaleo, G. & Koup, R.A. Correlates of immune protection in HIV-1 infection: what we
395 know, what we don't know, what we should know. *Nat Med* **10**, 806-810 (2004).
- 396 28. Rydzynski Moderbacher, C. *et al.* Antigen-Specific Adaptive Immunity to SARS-CoV-2 in
397 Acute COVID-19 and Associations with Age and Disease Severity. *Cell* **183**, 996-1012 e1019
398 (2020).
- 399 29. Tan, A.T. *et al.* Early induction of functional SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells associates with
400 rapid viral clearance and mild disease in COVID-19 patients. *Cell Rep* **34**, 108728 (2021).
- 401 30. Tan, L. *et al.* Lymphopenia predicts disease severity of COVID-19: a descriptive and
402 predictive study. *Signal Transduct Target Ther* **5**, 33 (2020).
- 403 31. Urra, J.M., Cabrera, C.M., Porras, L. & Rodenas, I. Selective CD8 cell reduction by SARS-
404 CoV-2 is associated with a worse prognosis and systemic inflammation in COVID-19
405 patients. *Clin Immunol* **217**, 108486 (2020).
- 406 32. Sun, J. *et al.* Generation of a Broadly Useful Model for COVID-19 Pathogenesis,
407 Vaccination, and Treatment. *Cell* **182**, 734-743 e735 (2020).
- 408 33. McMahan, K. *et al.* Correlates of protection against SARS-CoV-2 in rhesus macaques.
409 *Nature* **590**, 630-634 (2021).
- 410 34. Le Bert, N. *et al.* Highly functional virus-specific cellular immune response in asymptomatic
411 SARS-CoV-2 infection. *J Exp Med* **218** (2021).
- 412 35. Sahin, U. *et al.* COVID-19 vaccine BNT162b1 elicits human antibody and TH1 T cell
413 responses. *Nature* **586**, 594-599 (2020).
- 414 36. Mudd, P.A. *et al.* SARS-CoV-2 mRNA vaccination elicits a robust and persistent T follicular
415 helper cell response in humans. *Cell* (2021).
- 416 37. Anderson, E.J. *et al.* Safety and Immunogenicity of SARS-CoV-2 mRNA-1273 Vaccine in
417 Older Adults. *N Engl J Med* **383**, 2427-2438 (2020).
- 418 38. Painter, M.M. *et al.* Rapid induction of antigen-specific CD4(+) T cells is associated with
419 coordinated humoral and cellular immunity to SARS-CoV-2 mRNA vaccination. *Immunity*
420 **54**, 2133-2142 e2133 (2021).
- 421 39. Tartof, S.Y. *et al.* Effectiveness of mRNA BNT162b2 COVID-19 vaccine up to 6 months in a
422 large integrated health system in the USA: a retrospective cohort study. *The Lancet* **398**,
423 1407-1416 (2021).
- 424 40. Doria-Rose, N. *et al.* Antibody Persistence through 6 Months after the Second Dose of
425 mRNA-1273 Vaccine for Covid-19. *N Engl J Med* **384**, 2259-2261 (2021).
- 426 41. Goel, R.R. *et al.* mRNA vaccines induce durable immune memory to SARS-CoV-2 and
427 variants of concern. *Science* **374**, abm0829 (2021).
- 428 42. Mateus, J. *et al.* Low-dose mRNA-1273 COVID-19 vaccine generates durable memory
429 enhanced by cross-reactive T cells. *Science* **374**, eabj9853 (2021).
- 430 43. Collier, A.-r.Y. *et al.* Immune Responses in Fully Vaccinated Individuals Following
431 Breakthrough Infection with the SARS-CoV-2 Delta Variant in Provincetown, Massachusetts.
432 *medRxiv*, 2021.2010.2018.21265113 (2021).
- 433 44. Geers, D. *et al.* SARS-CoV-2 variants of concern partially escape humoral but not T-cell
434 responses in COVID-19 convalescent donors and vaccinees. *Sci Immunol* **6** (2021).
- 435 45. Jordan, S.C. *et al.* T cell immune responses to SARS-CoV-2 and variants of concern (Alpha
436 and Delta) in infected and vaccinated individuals. *Cell Mol Immunol* **18**, 2554-2556 (2021).

- 437 46. Keeton, R. *et al.* Prior infection with SARS-CoV-2 boosts and broadens Ad26.COV2.S
438 immunogenicity in a variant-dependent manner. *Cell Host Microbe* **29**, 1611-1619 e1615
439 (2021).
- 440 47. Riou, C. *et al.* Escape from recognition of SARS-CoV-2 Beta variant spike epitopes but
441 overall preservation of T cell immunity. *Sci Transl Med*, eabj6824 (2021).
- 442 48. Tarke, A. *et al.* Impact of SARS-CoV-2 variants on the total CD4(+) and CD8(+) T cell
443 reactivity in infected or vaccinated individuals. *Cell Rep Med* **2**, 100355 (2021).
- 444 49. Keeton, R. *et al.* SARS-CoV-2 spike T cell responses induced upon vaccination or infection
445 remain robust against Omicron. *medRxiv*, 2021.2012.2026.21268380 (2021).
- 446 50. Tarke, A. *et al.* SARS-CoV-2 vaccination induces immunological T cell memory able to
447 cross-recognize variants from Alpha to Omicron. *Cell* (2022).
- 448 51. Liu, J. *et al.* Vaccines Elicit Highly Conserved Cellular Immunity to SARS-CoV-2 Omicron.
449 *Nature* (2022).
- 450 52. Gao, Y. *et al.* Ancestral SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells cross-recognize the Omicron variant.
451 *Nat Med* (2022).
- 452 53. Barry, M. & Bleackley, R.C. Cytotoxic T lymphocytes: all roads lead to death. *Nat Rev*
453 *Immunol* **2**, 401-409 (2002).
- 454 54. Berke, G. The CTL's kiss of death. *Cell* **81**, 9-12 (1995).
- 455 55. Naaber, P. *et al.* Dynamics of antibody response to BNT162b2 vaccine after six months: a
456 longitudinal prospective study. *Lancet Reg Health Eur* **10**, 100208 (2021).
- 457 56. Ahmadi, P. *et al.* Defining the CD39/CD73 Axis in SARS-CoV-2 Infection: The CD73(-)
458 Phenotype Identifies Polyfunctional Cytotoxic Lymphocytes. *Cells* **9** (2020).
- 459 57. Mazzoni, A. *et al.* Impaired immune cell cytotoxicity in severe COVID-19 is IL-6 dependent.
460 *J Clin Invest* **130**, 4694-4703 (2020).
- 461 58. Li, M. *et al.* Elevated Exhaustion Levels of NK and CD8(+) T Cells as Indicators for
462 Progression and Prognosis of COVID-19 Disease. *Front Immunol* **11**, 580237 (2020).
- 463 59. Habel, J.R. *et al.* Suboptimal SARS-CoV-2-specific CD8(+) T cell response associated with
464 the prominent HLA-A*02:01 phenotype. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **117**, 24384-24391 (2020).
- 465 60. Harari, A., Bellutti Enders, F., Cellerai, C., Bart, P.A. & Pantaleo, G. Distinct profiles of
466 cytotoxic granules in memory CD8 T cells correlate with function, differentiation stage, and
467 antigen exposure. *J Virol* **83**, 2862-2871 (2009).
- 468 61. De Biasi, S. *et al.* Marked T cell activation, senescence, exhaustion and skewing towards
469 TH17 in patients with COVID-19 pneumonia. *Nat Commun* **11**, 3434 (2020).
- 470 62. Song, J.W. *et al.* Immunological and inflammatory profiles in mild and severe cases of
471 COVID-19. *Nat Commun* **11**, 3410 (2020).
- 472 63. Zheng, H.Y. *et al.* Elevated exhaustion levels and reduced functional diversity of T cells in
473 peripheral blood may predict severe progression in COVID-19 patients. *Cell Mol Immunol*
474 **17**, 541-543 (2020).
- 475 64. Rha, M.S. *et al.* PD-1-Expressing SARS-CoV-2-Specific CD8(+) T Cells Are Not Exhausted,
476 but Functional in Patients with COVID-19. *Immunity* **54**, 44-52 e43 (2021).

477

478

Table.1 | Donor characteristics enrolled in this study

Characteristics	Mild (n = 9)	Moderate I (n = 11)	Moderate II/Severe (n = 10)	Vaccinated donors (n = 21)
Demographic				
Age, median years (interquartile range)	62 (48 - 69)	70 (53 - 76.5)	64.5 (49.25 - 72.75)	39 (26-52)
Male (%)	6 (66.7)	5 (45.5)	8 (80.0)	6 (28.6)
Female (%)	3 (33.3)	6 (54.5)	2 (20.0)	15 (71.4)
Time since symptom onset median days (interquartile range)	4 (4-6)	8 (4.5-11.5)	7 (7-8)	NA
Days to recovery median days (interquartile range)	15 (13-15)	22 (16-34)	19 (17-20)	NA
Presenting Symptoms				
Fever no. (%)	6 (66.7)	6 (54.5)	6 (60.0)	NA
Cough no. (%)	3 (33.3)	7 (63.6)	6 (60.0)	NA
Dyspnea no. (%)	1 (11.1)	6 (54.5)	5 (50.0)	NA
Rhinorrhea no. (%)	0 (0)	3 (27.3)	1 (10.0)	NA
Sore throat no. (%)	3 (33.3)	0 (0)	1 (10.0)	NA
Diarrhea no. (%)	0 (0)	1 (9.1)	2 (20.0)	NA
Hematological values (Median, Interquartile range)				
Haemoglobin (g/dL)	14.1 (13.1-14.6)	14.1 (12.45-14.8)	14.9 (14.375-15.25)	NA
WBC (x10 ⁹ /L)	5.5 (4.4-6.4)	5.3 (3.4-6.8)	4.1 (2.6-5.9)	NA
Lymphocytes (x10 ⁹ /L)	25.2 (18.8-27.8)	19.5 (17.15-24.75)	24.5 (22-29.7)	NA
Neutrophil (x10 ⁹ /L)	66.0 (64.4-70.4)	71.4 (66.25-74.8)	66.7 (58.725-73.375)	NA
Platelet (x10 ⁹ /L)	177 (156-189)	201 (133-216.5)	183.5 (132-200)	NA

479

480

481

482

483

484 **Figure legends**

485 **Figure 1. Acute-phase SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific CD8⁺ T-cell response is associated with**
486 **COVID-19 severity.**

487 **(a)** Percentage of anti-spike (Alpha) IgG endpoint titer as a function of viral load ($n = 30$). **(b)** Dot
488 plot representing the anti-spike (Alpha) IgG end-point titer in plasma samples of patients with acute
489 mild ($n = 9$), acute moderate I ($n = 11$), or acute moderate II/severe ($n = 10$) disease. The lines show
490 the geometric mean. **(c)** Representative flow cytometry data showing CD69⁺4-1BB⁺ CD8⁺ T cells as
491 SARS-CoV-2 (Alpha) spike-specific CD8⁺ T cells. The numbers show the frequencies of CD69⁺4-
492 1BB⁺ CD8⁺ T cells in CD8⁺ total memory cells. **(d)** Percentage of CD69⁺4-1BB⁺ CD8⁺ T cells after
493 background subtraction (control DMSO) as a function of viral load. **(e)** Frequencies of CD69⁺4-1BB⁺
494 CD8⁺ T cells of patients with acute mild, acute moderate I, or acute moderate II/severe disease. The
495 lines show the geometric mean. *P*-values were calculated using the nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U*
496 test.

497 **Figure 2. Functional characteristics of SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific CD8⁺ T cells in acute**
498 **COVID-19.**

499 **(a)** Dot plots representing the frequencies of IFN- γ -, TNF-, or IL-2-secreting CD8⁺ T cells (left,
500 center, and right panels, respectively) responding to SARS-CoV-2 Alpha spike peptides in CD8⁺ total
501 memory cells. The lines show the geometric means. **(b)** Frequencies of spike-specific CD8⁺ T cell
502 subpopulations producing IFN- γ , TNF, and IL-2 in cytokine secreting CD8⁺ total memory cells ($n =$
503 23). **(c)** Dot plots representing the frequencies of CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T cells expressing granzyme
504 A (left panel), granzyme B (center panel), or perforin (right panel) responding to SARS-CoV-2 Alpha
505 spike peptides ($n = 23$). The lines show the geometric means. **(d)** Frequencies of spike-specific
506 CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T cell subpopulations expressing different combinations of granzyme A,
507 granzyme B, and perforin ($n = 23$). *P*-values were calculated using the nonparametric Mann-Whitney
508 *U* test. **P* < 0.05. **(e)** Frequency of spike-specific CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T cells with wide-spectrum

509 cytotoxicity expressing granzyme A, granzyme B, and perforin. *P*-values were calculated using
510 permutation tests.

511 **Figure 3. Antibody and CD4⁺ T cells induced by mRNA vaccine against SARS-CoV-2 variants**
512 **of concern.**

513 **(a)** Anti-spike IgG against WT (left panel), Delta (center panel), and Omicron (right panel) endpoint
514 titers over time in plasma samples obtained from BNT162b2-vaccinated individuals ($n = 21$). *P*-
515 values were calculated using the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test. **(b)** Comparison of anti-
516 spike IgG endpoint titer against WT, Delta, and Omicron spike proteins at four and twelve weeks
517 post-second vaccination ($n = 21$). *P*-values were calculated using the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed
518 rank test. **(c)** Comparison of spike-specific Th1 cell frequency against WT, Delta, and Omicron spike
519 peptides in CD4⁺ total memory cells at four and twelve weeks post-second vaccination ($n = 21$). *P*-
520 values were calculated using the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test. **(d)** Correlation of anti-
521 spike IgG endpoint titer and spike-specific Th1 cell frequency against WT (black), Delta (blue), and
522 Omicron (red) spike peptides ($n = 21$). Correlations were calculated using the nonparametric
523 Spearman's rank test.

524 **Figure 4. CD8⁺ T cells induced by mRNA vaccine against SARS-CoV-2 variants of concern.**

525 **(a)** Dot plot representing the frequencies of CD69⁺4-1BB⁺ CD8⁺ T cells in CD8⁺ total memory cells
526 with subtracted background (control DMSO) of cells obtained from vaccinated healthy individuals (n
527 = 21). The lines show the geometric mean. **(b)** Frequencies of CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T cells expressing
528 granzyme A (left panels), granzyme B (center panels), or perforin (right panels) responding to SARS-
529 CoV-2 WT, Delta, or Omicron spike peptides (upper, middle, and lower panels, respectively) (WT, 4
530 weeks, $n = 13$; WT, 12 weeks, $n = 15$; Delta, 4 weeks, $n = 12$; Delta, 12 weeks, $n = 13$; Omicron, 4
531 weeks, $n = 15$; Omicron, 12 weeks, $n = 13$). Lines show medians. *P*-values were calculated using the
532 Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test. **(c)** Frequencies of spike-specific CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T cell
533 subpopulations expressing different combination of granzyme A, granzyme B, and perforin. *P*-values
534 were calculated using the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test. **(d)** Frequency of polyfunctional

535 spike-specific CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T cells expressing granzyme A, granzyme B, and perforin. *P*-
536 values were calculated using permutation tests.

537

538

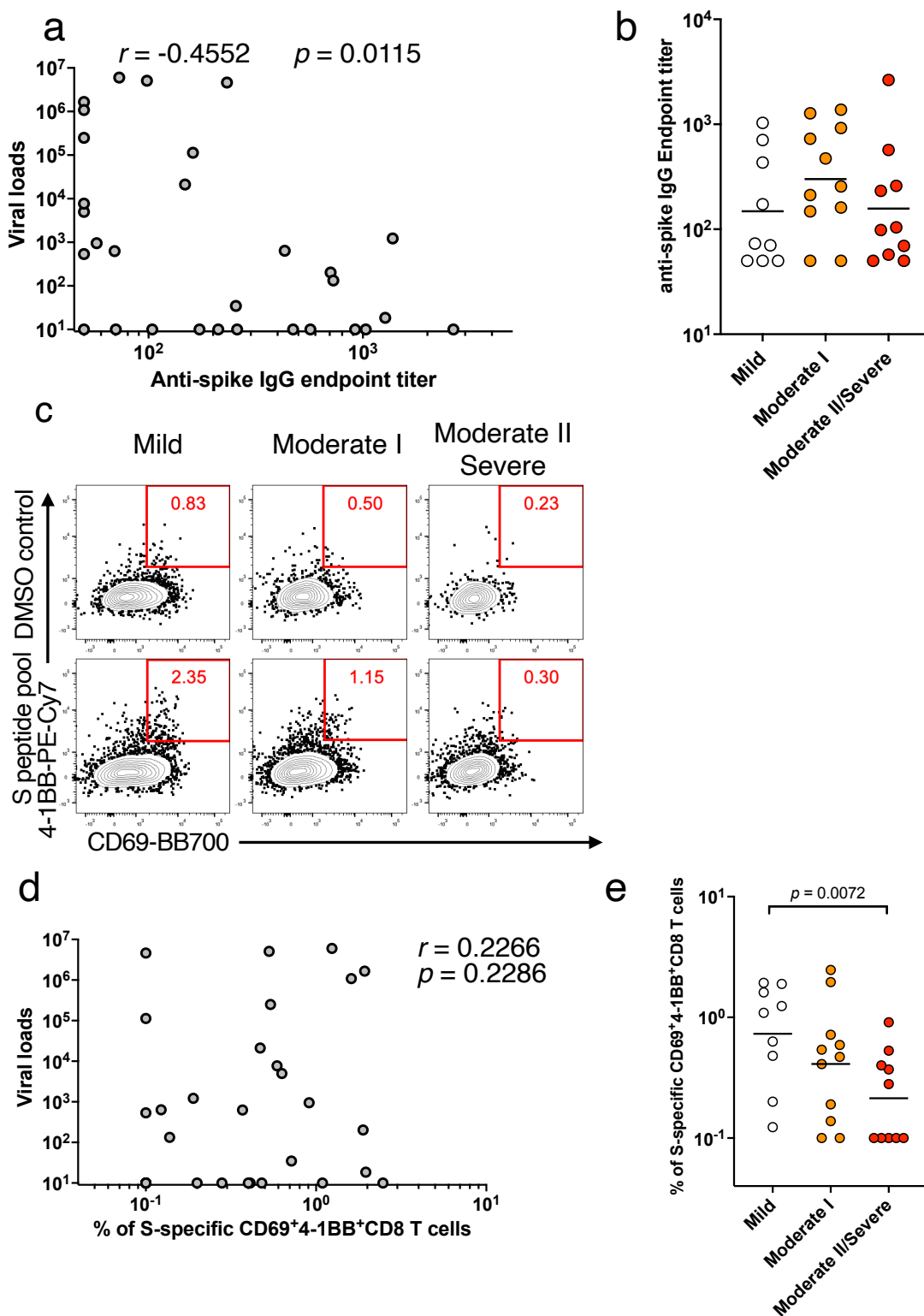


Figure 1. Acute-phase SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific CD8⁺ T-cell response is associated with COVID-19 severity. (a) Percentage of anti-spike (Alpha) IgG endpoint titer as a function of viral load ($n = 30$). (b) Dot plot representing the anti-spike (Alpha) IgG end-point titer in plasma samples of patients with acute mild ($n = 9$), acute moderate I ($n = 11$), or acute moderate II/severe ($n = 10$) disease. The lines show the geometric mean. (c) Representative flow cytometry data showing CD69⁺4-1BB⁺ CD8⁺ T cells as SARS-CoV-2 (Alpha) spike-specific CD8⁺ T cells. The numbers show the frequencies of CD69⁺4-1BB⁺ CD8⁺ T cells in CD8⁺ total memory cells. (d) Percentage of CD69⁺4-1BB⁺ CD8⁺ T cells after background subtraction (control DMSO) as a function of viral load. (e) Frequencies of CD69⁺4-1BB⁺ CD8⁺ T cells of patients with acute mild, acute moderate I, or acute moderate II/severe disease. The lines show the geometric mean. P -values were calculated using the nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test.

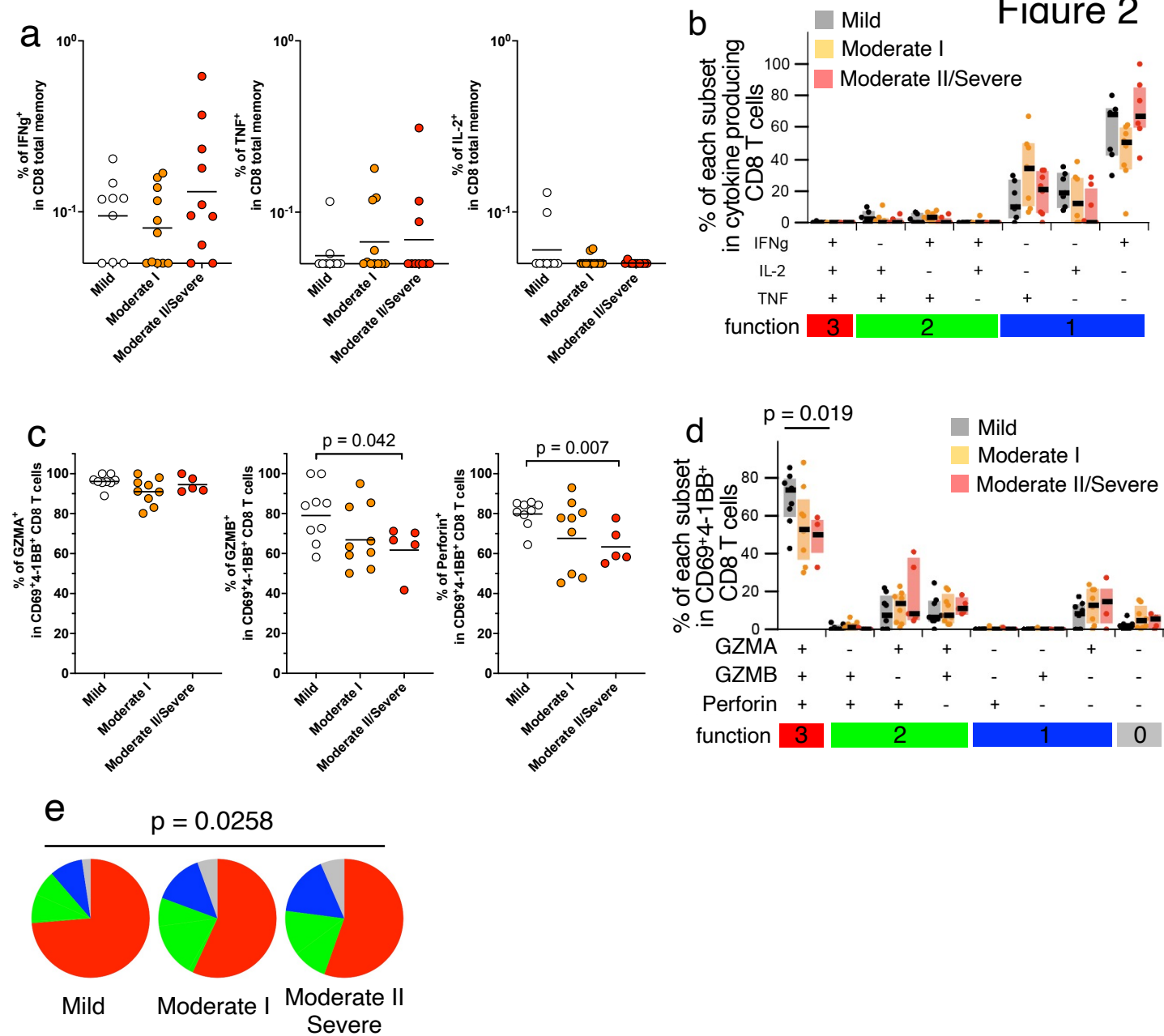


Figure 2. Functional characteristics of SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific CD8⁺ T cells in acute COVID-19.

(a) Dot plots representing the frequencies of IFN- γ -, TNF-, or IL-2-secreting CD8⁺ T cells (left, center, and right panels, respectively) responding to SARS-CoV-2 Alpha spike peptides in CD8⁺ total memory cells. The lines show the geometric means. (b) Frequencies of spike-specific CD8⁺ T cell subpopulations producing IFN- γ , TNF, and IL-2 in cytokine secreting CD8⁺ total memory cells ($n = 23$). (c) Dot plots representing the frequencies of CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T cells expressing granzyme A (left panel), granzyme B (center panel), or perforin (right panel) responding to SARS-CoV-2 Alpha spike peptides ($n = 23$). The lines show the geometric means. (d) Frequencies of spike-specific CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T cell subpopulations expressing different combinations of granzyme A, granzyme B, and perforin ($n = 23$). P -values were calculated using the nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test. * $P < 0.05$. (e) Frequency of spike-specific CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ T cells with wide-spectrum cytotoxicity expressing granzyme A, granzyme B, and perforin. P -values were calculated using permutation tests.

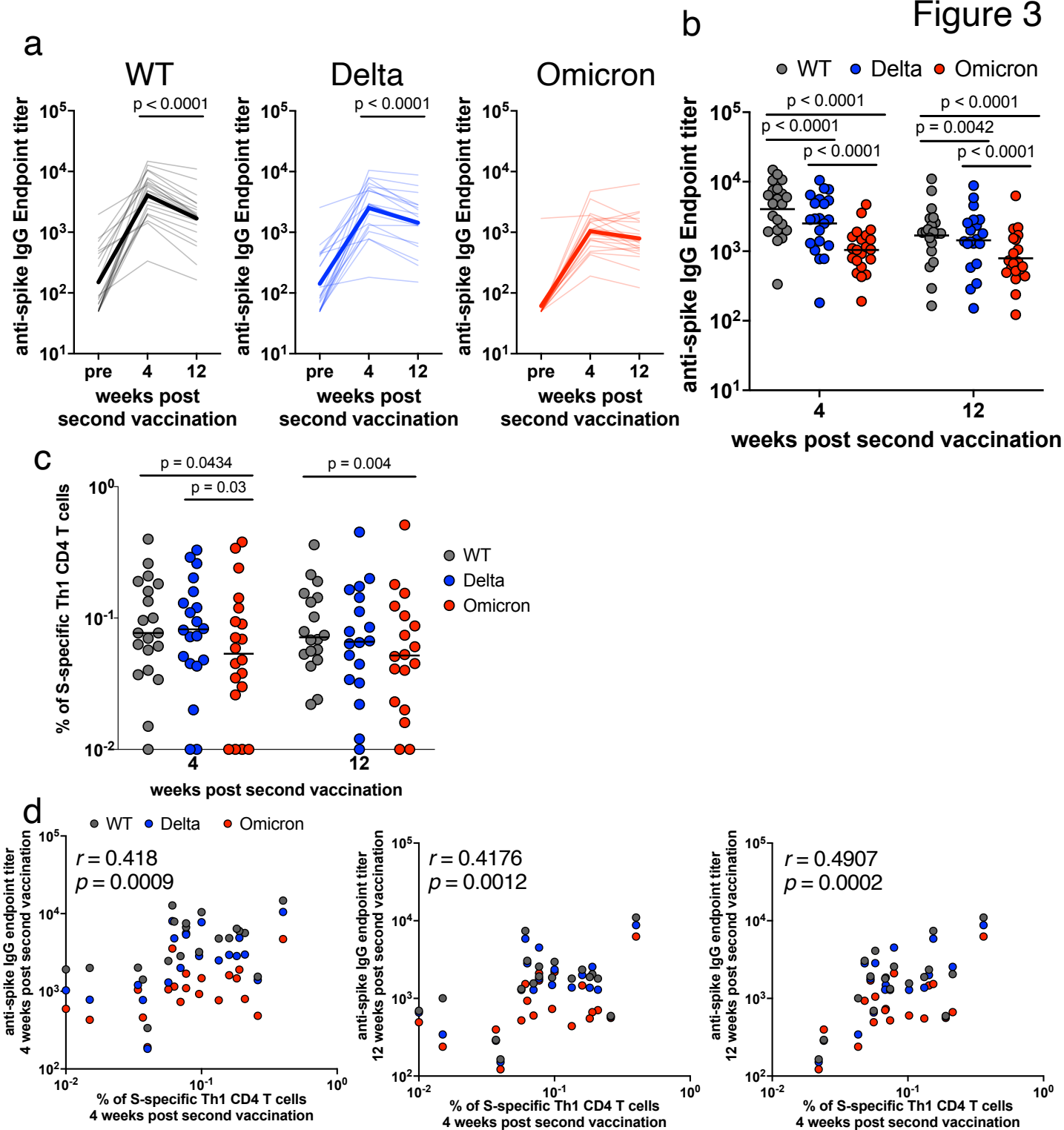
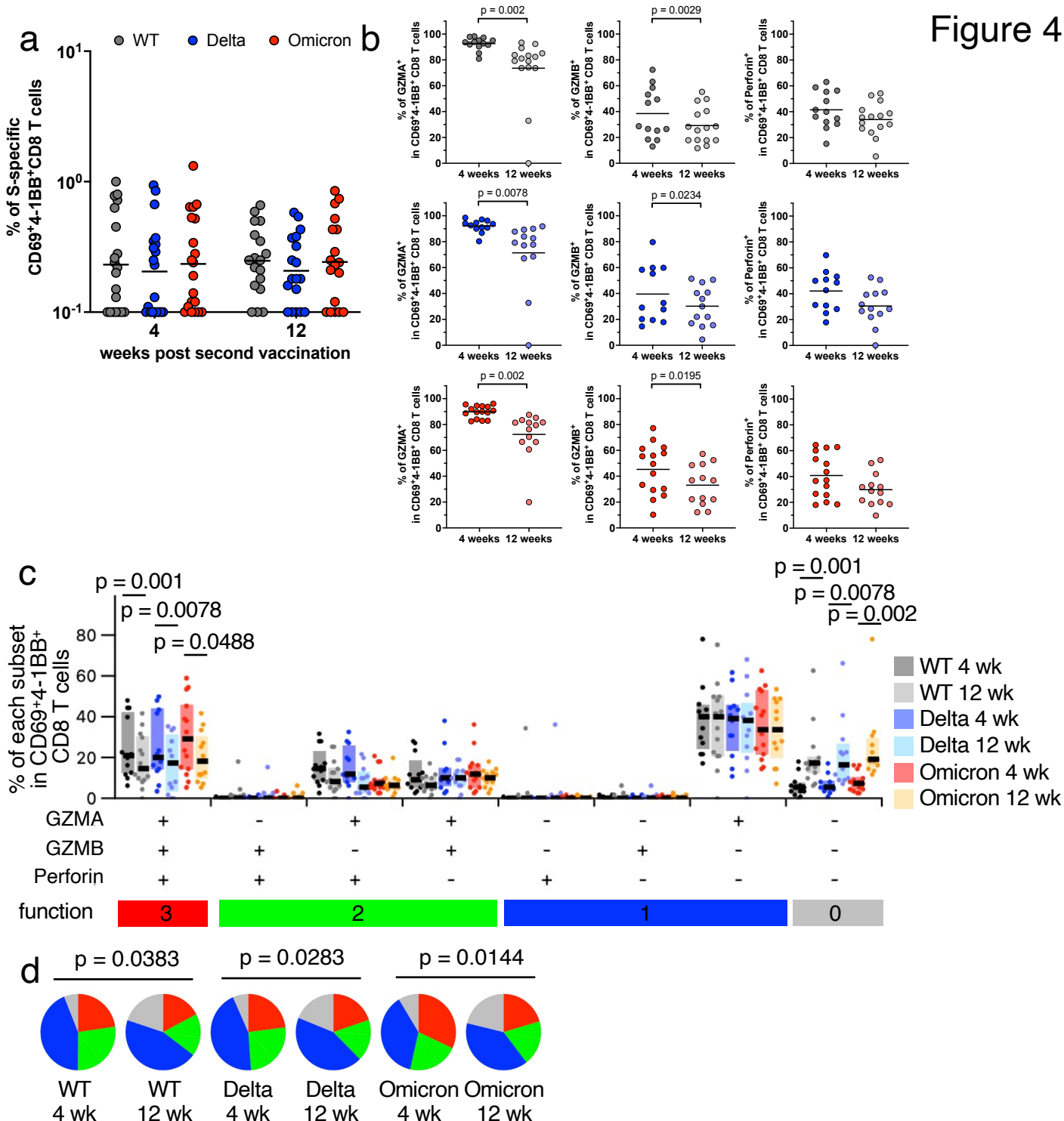
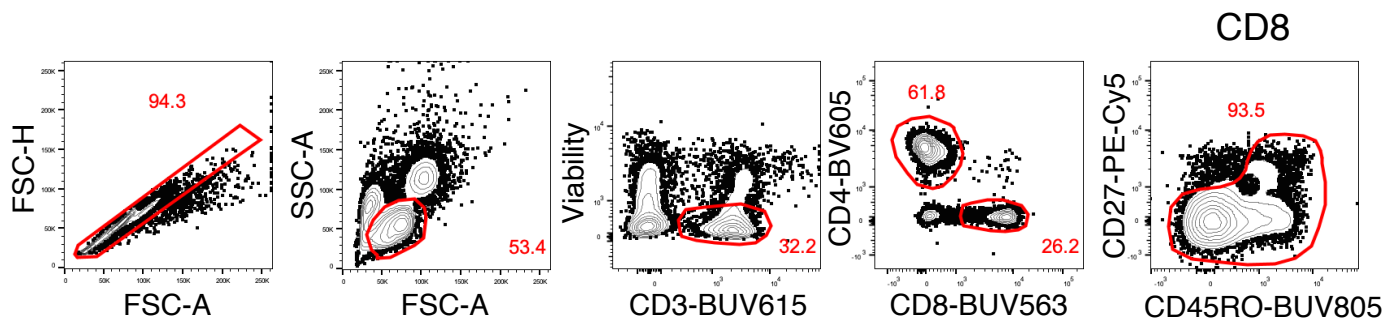


Figure 3. Antibody and CD4⁺ T cells induced by mRNA vaccine against SARS-CoV-2 variants of concern.

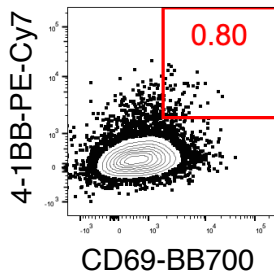
(a) Anti-spike IgG against WT (left panel), Delta (center panel), and Omicron (right panel) endpoint titers over time in plasma samples obtained from BNT162b2-vaccinated individuals ($n = 21$). P -values were calculated using the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test. (b) Comparison of anti-spike IgG endpoint titer against WT, Delta, and Omicron spike proteins at four and twelve weeks post-second vaccination ($n = 21$). P -values were calculated using the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test. (c) Comparison of spike-specific Th1 cell frequency against WT, Delta, and Omicron spike peptides in CD4⁺ total memory cells at four and twelve weeks post-second vaccination ($n = 21$). P -values were calculated using the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test. (d) Correlation of anti-spike IgG endpoint titer and spike-specific Th1 cell frequency against WT (black), Delta (blue), and Omicron (red) spike peptides ($n = 21$). Correlations were calculated using the nonparametric Spearman's rank test.



a



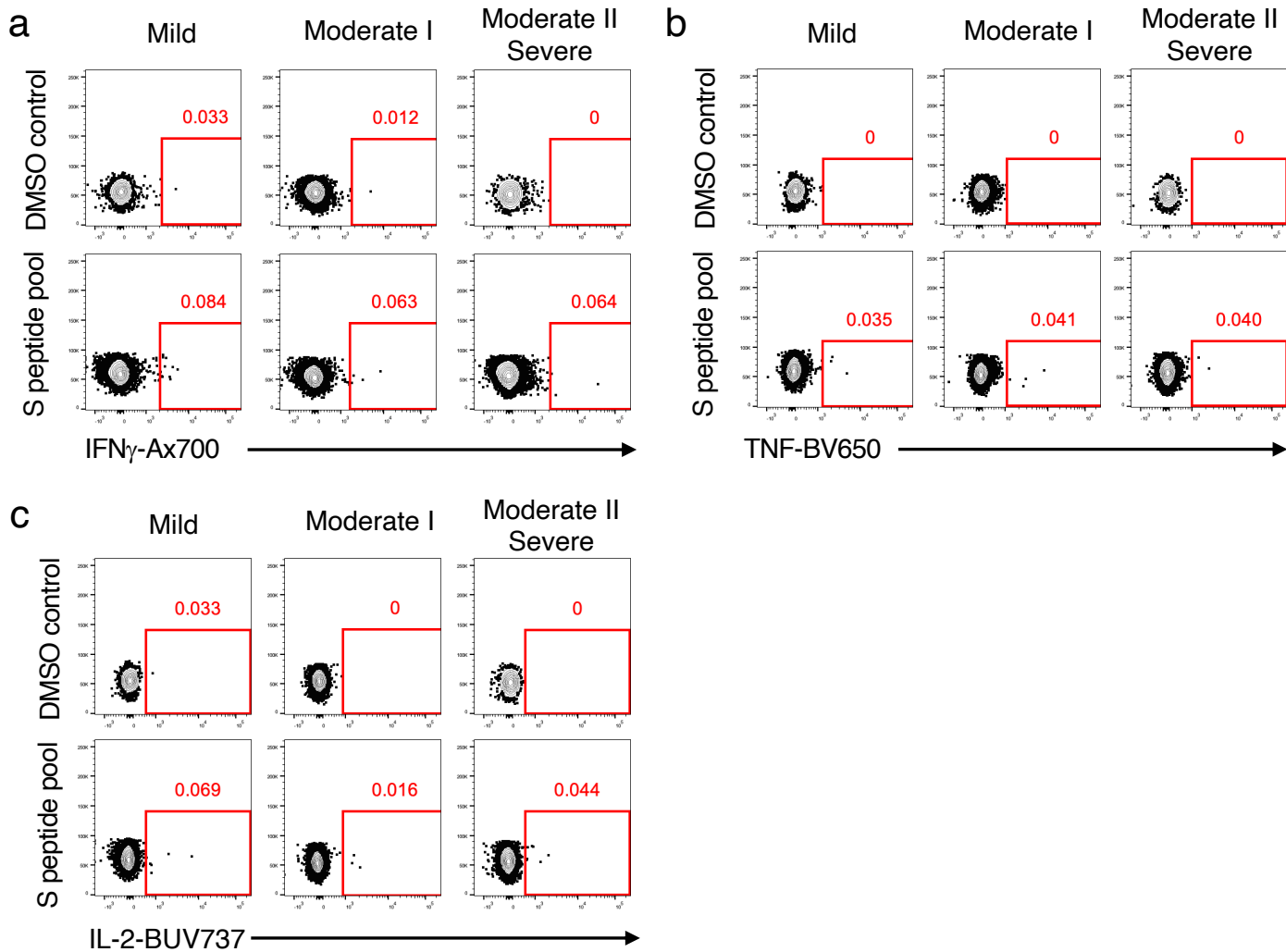
b



Extended Data Fig. 1 | Gating strategy for antigen-specific CD8 T cells (related to Figure 1).

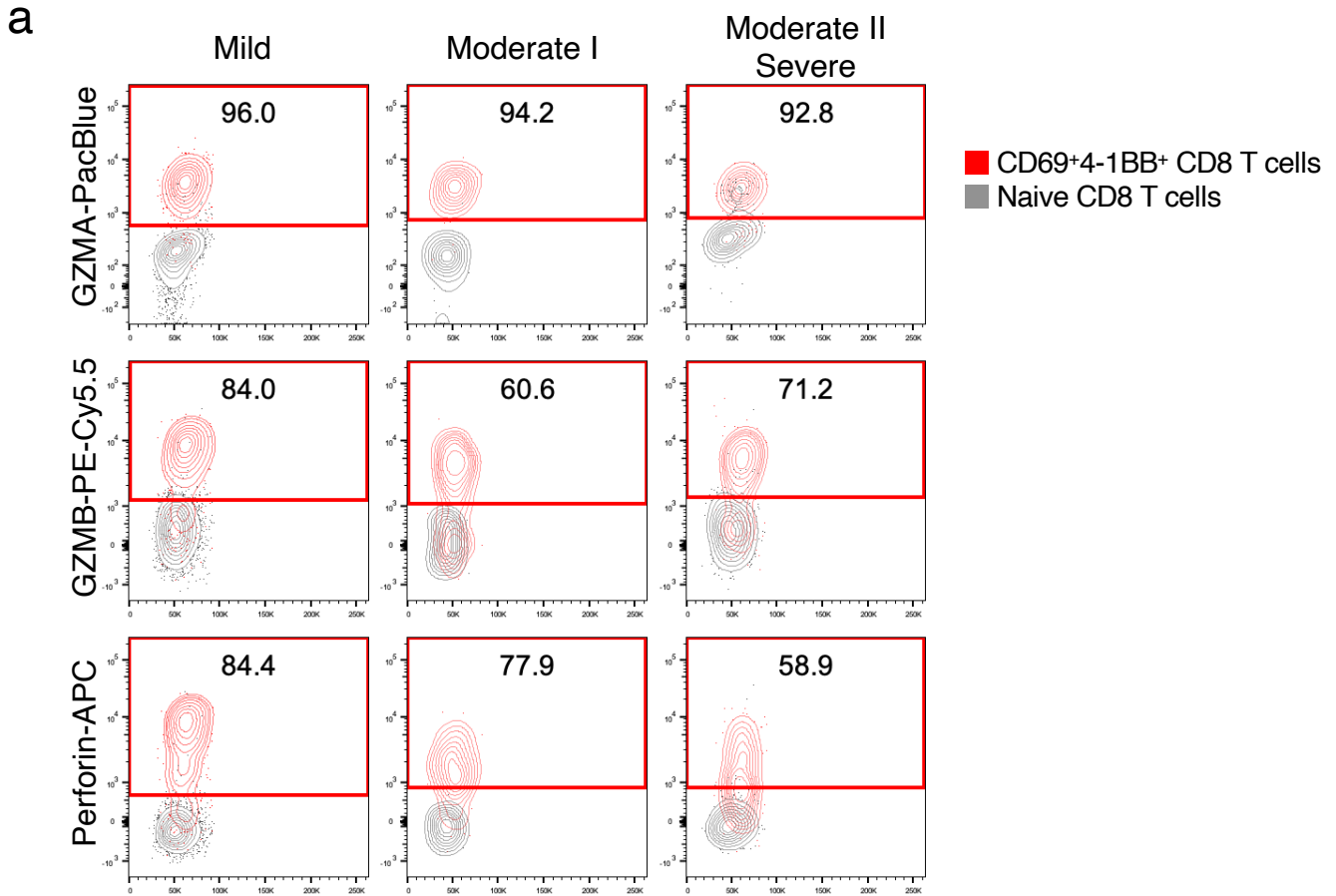
(a) After gating live single T cells, based on forward scatter area and height (FSC-A and -H), side scatter area (SSC-A), live/dead cell exclusion, and CD3 staining, we separated the peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) into CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells. Subsequently, CD8⁺ T cells were further divided into memory phenotypes based on the expression of CD27 and CD45RO. (b) After gating CD8⁺ memory T cells, SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific CD8⁺ T cells were defined as the CD69⁺4-1BB⁺ population.

Extended Data Figure 2



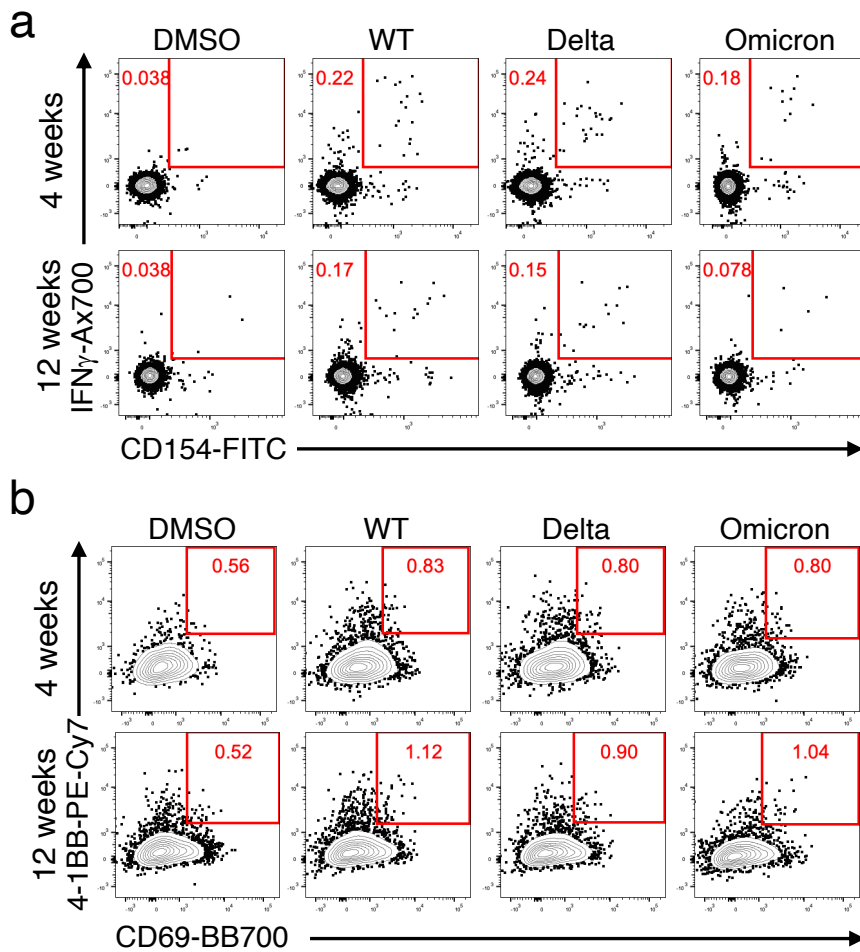
Extended Data Fig. 2 | Gating strategy for antigen-specific CD8 T cells (related to Figure 2).

Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) obtained from SARS-CoV-2-infected patients were either not stimulated (DMSO control) or stimulated with SARS-CoV-2 (Alpha) spike peptides for 6 h. Representative plots of (a) IFN- γ , (b) TNF, and (c) IL-2 production from CD8⁺ memory T cells.



Extended Data Fig. 3 | Gating strategy for antigen-specific CD8 T cells (related to Figure 2).

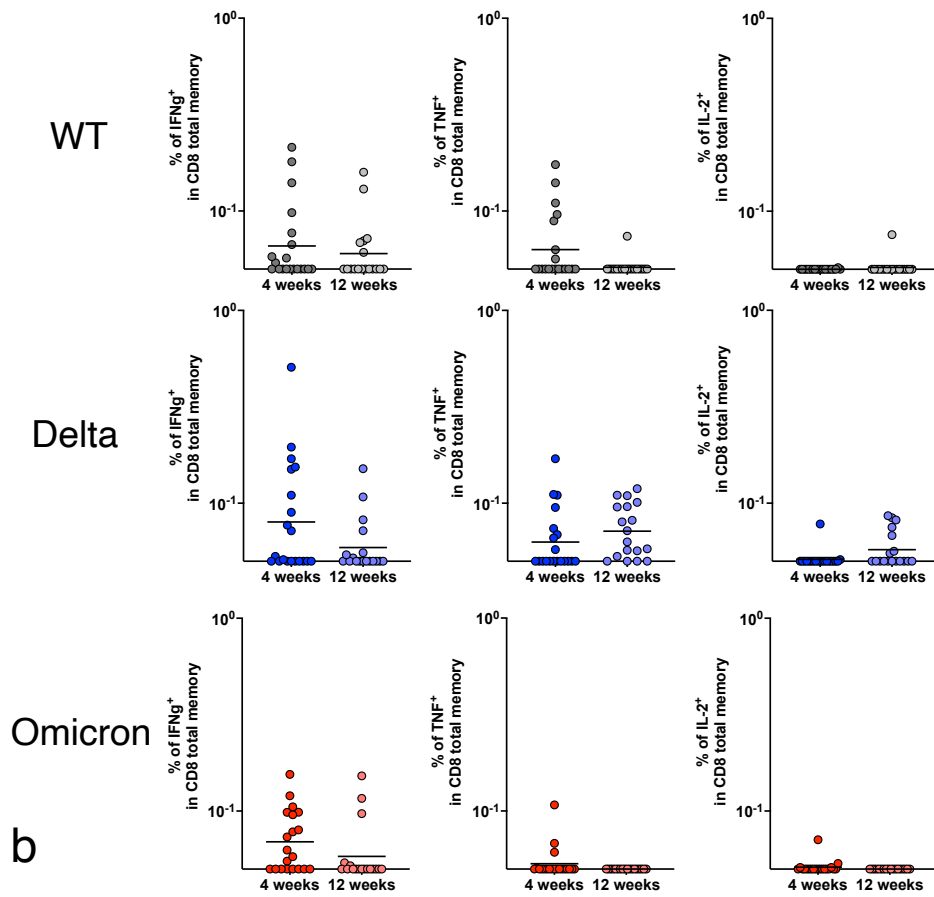
Representative plots of granzyme A (GZMA), granzyme B (GZMB) and perforin expression in CD69⁺4-1BB⁺CD8⁺ memory T cells from patients. The gray contour plots represent the expression of each cytotoxic molecule in CD8⁺ naive T cells.



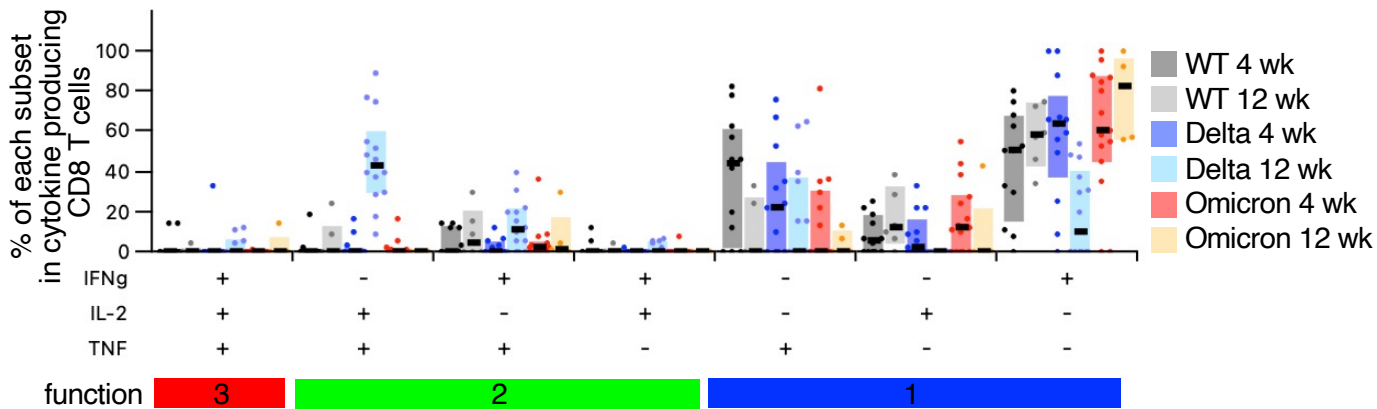
Extended Data Fig. 4 | Gating strategy for antigen-specific CD4 and CD8 T cells (related to Figures 3 and 4).

(a) Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) obtained from BNT162b2-vaccinated healthy individuals at four and twelve weeks post-second vaccination were either not stimulated (DMSO control) or stimulated with SARS-CoV-2 spike peptides (WT, Delta, or Omicron) for 6 h. Th1 cells were defined as CD154⁺IFN- γ ⁺CD4⁺ memory T cells. (b) SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific CD8⁺ T cells from BNT162b2-vaccinated healthy individuals were identified as in Extended Data Figure 1.

a



b



Extended Data Fig. 5 | Functional characteristics of SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific CD8⁺ T cells from vaccinated donors.

(a) Frequencies of IFN- γ -, TNF-, or IL-2-producing CD8⁺ T cells (upper, middle, and lower panels, respectively) responding to SARS-CoV-2 spike peptides in CD8⁺ total memory cells from BNT162b2-vaccinated healthy individuals. The lines show the geometric means. (b) Frequencies of subpopulations of spike-specific CD8⁺ T cells producing IFN- γ , TNF, and IL-2 in cytokine-secreting CD8⁺ total memory cells.

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [SupplementaryTable1.xlsx](#)