

1 Emergence of an Antigenically Drifted and Reassorted Influenza B Virus at the end of the 2024-
2 25 Influenza Season

3
4 Elgin Akin^a, David A. Villafuerte^{a,b}, Anne P. Werner^a, Matthew Pinsley^a, Corinne Pierce, Amary
5 Fall^b, Omar Abdullah^b, Julie M. Norton^b, Richard E. Rothman^c, Katherine Z.J. Fenstermacher^c,
6 Yu-Nong Gong^{d,e,f}, Eili Klein^{c,g}, Heba H. Mostafa^{b,#}, Andrew Pekosz^{a,c,#}

7
8 ^aHarry Feinstone Department of Molecular Microbiology and Immunology, Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public
9 Health, Baltimore, MD USA

10 ^bDepartment of Pathology, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, Maryland, USA

11 ^cDepartment of Emergency Medicine, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, Maryland, USA

12 ^dResearch Center of Emerging Viral Infections, College of Medicine, Chang Gung University, Taoyuan, Taiwan;

13 ^eInternational Master Degree Program for Molecular Medicine in Emerging Viral Infections, College of Medicine,
14 Chang Gung University, Taoyuan, Taiwan

15 ^fDepartment of Emergency Medicine, Keelung Chang Gung Memorial Hospital, Keelung, Taiwan

16 ^gCenter for Disease Dynamics, Economics, and Policy, Washington, DC 20005, USA.

17

18 Running Head: Phenotypic effects of IBV C.3.1 reassortant subclade

19

20 #Corresponding Authors:

21 Andrew Pekosz, aekosz1@jhu.edu

22 Heba Mostafa, hmostaf2@jhmi.edu

23

24 Abstract Word Count: 231

25 Importance Word Count: 147

26 Body Word Count: 5143

27

28 References: 59

29

30 ABSTRACT

31
32 Influenza B virus (IBV) is a significant contributor to annual and severe cases of influenza,
33 particularly in the young and elderly. Late in the 2024-25 Northern Hemisphere influenza
34 season, a surge of IBV cases were identified in the Johns Hopkins Hospital Systems. The IBV
35 responsible for the surge, C.3.1/re, was a clade C.3 virus that had reassorted with clade C.5.1
36 viruses and acquired the D197N mutation in hemagglutinin restoring a putative N-linked glycan
37 predicted to mask a key neutralizing antibody epitope. The C.3.1/re viruses preferentially
38 infected children but showed no significant change in disease severity. C.3.1/re viruses were
39 poorly neutralized by pre- and post- influenza vaccination serum in a human cohort. Removal of
40 the glycan at residue 197 restored neutralizing antibody recognition. The C.3.1/re IBV genotype
41 that emerged late in the 2024-25 influenza season was antigenically mismatched with IBV
42 vaccine strains for the 2025 and 2026 Southern hemisphere, as well as the 2025-26 Northern
43 Hemisphere influenza seasons. While the 2026-27 Northern Hemisphere vaccine strain is a
44 C.3.1/re, the egg adapted isolate selected (B/Tokyo/EIS13-175/2025) lacks the 197
45 glycosylation which is predicted to have poor recognition with circulating IBV clades.
46 Phylogenetic analysis of currently circulating IBVs shows a diversification of circulating C.3
47 clades with multiple reassortment events between C.3 and C.5 clades in addition to
48 independent acquisitions of D197N mutations, suggesting IBV is going through a period of
49 significant antigenic and genetic expansion.

50

51

52 IMPORTANCE

53

54 Influenza B viruses are undergoing a period of antigenic and genetic expansion, with several
55 reassorted viruses emerging that also contain point mutations in key hemagglutinin antigenic
56 sites proximal to the receptor binding domain. This has important impacts on vaccine strain
57 choice, as only one IBV component is included in current influenza vaccines. We demonstrate a
58 significant shift in the demographics of IBV infected individuals with the emergence of the
59 antigenically drifted and reassorted IBV C.3.1/re. Furthermore, we show that 197 glycosylation
60 of hemagglutinin is critical for C.3.1/re antigenic drift and we document several emergent C.3
61 reassortments encoding the D197N mutation. With the IBV vaccine component for the Northern
62 Hemisphere 2026-27 season having lost a key N-linked glycan on the hemagglutinin protein,
63 and multiple independent emergences of antigenically drifted and reassorted viruses, attention
64 to IBV infections should be increased in the upcoming Southern and Northern hemisphere
65 influenza seasons.

66

67

68 INTRODUCTION

69 Seasonal influenza epidemics, caused by influenza A and B viruses, remain a major global
70 health burden, resulting in an estimated 250,000–500,000 deaths annually. Although influenza
71 A viruses have received greater attention due to their pandemic potential, influenza B viruses
72 (IBV) contribute substantially to seasonal morbidity and mortality, particularly among pediatric
73 populations^{1–3}. Although IBV evolves more slowly than influenza A virus (IAV), leading to less
74 frequent antigenic drift and extended geographic persistence, it remains capable of driving
75 significant outbreaks and exhibits variable vaccine effectiveness, underscoring the need to
76 further define mechanisms of antigenic evolution⁴. The disproportionate impact of IBV on
77 pediatric populations, combined with evidence of reduced vaccine effectiveness against IBV in
78 certain seasons, underscores the need for vigilant molecular surveillance of circulating strains.

79 Antigenic drift in IBV is primarily mediated by mutations in the hemagglutinin (HA) glycoprotein
80 which enables receptor binding and membrane fusion and is the principal target of neutralizing
81 antibodies^{5–9}. Furthermore, mutations in HA can impact receptor binding^{6–8,10}, while mutations
82 in other gene segments can alter replication efficiency^{11–13}, and innate immune evasion^{14–16}. If
83 two genetically distinct viruses infect the same host cell, the segmented nature of the genome
84 also allows for reassortment, resulting in progeny with novel constellations of gene segments.
85 Such reassortments can affect antigenic properties, virus replication dynamics or antiviral drug
86 sensitivity^{17–20}.

87 Beyond amino acid substitutions, the gain or loss of N-linked glycans can profoundly alter
88 antigenicity by masking epitopes, particularly near the receptor binding site (RBS) in the HA
89 protein^{9,21}. The 190-helix is a structurally constrained region that contributes to receptor
90 engagement and is a known target of neutralizing antibodies, making it highly sensitive to such
91 modifications^{5,22,23}. In IBVs, an asparagine at HA residue 197 (B/Brisbane/06/2008 numbering)
92 has been conserved since the emergence of the B/Victoria lineage, encoding an N-linked
93 glycosylation site proximal to the RBS²⁴. Loss of this glycan has been repeatedly observed
94 during egg adaptation, enhancing viral growth in embryonated chicken eggs and altering
95 antigenic identity^{25–27}. While the antigenic consequences of glycan loss at residue 197 have
96 been characterized in the role of egg-adapted vaccine strains using ferret sera, the effects of
97 glycan gain or restoration at this site during natural human circulation, and more broadly the

98 frequency and immunological impact of glycosylation changes near the 190-helix in circulating
99 IBV populations, remain poorly defined ²⁶.

100 During the 2024–25 Northern Hemisphere influenza season, a late-season surge of IBV cases
101 within the Johns Hopkins Hospital System coincided with a shift in circulating IBV subclades.
102 This increase was driven by the rapid expansion of C.3.1, a C.3-derived lineage. Notably, C.3
103 had persisted at low levels since its initial detection in 2023, whereas the previously dominant
104 C.5.1 subclade and other C.5 descendants, C.5.6 and C.5.7, were detected at unexpectedly low
105 frequencies, motivating investigation into the molecular basis of C.3.1 emergence. C.3.1/re is
106 defined by putative reassortment with C.5.1 and a HA1:D197N reversion that restores a
107 glycosylation motif within the 190-helix, together with a secondary HA1:P208S substitution. It is
108 hypothesized that the 197 glycan may alter epitope accessibility and reduce susceptibility to
109 vaccine-induced neutralizing antibodies. To investigate this, genomic surveillance, phylogenetic
110 reconstruction, infectious IBV clones and serology were integrated to characterize the
111 evolutionary origins and antigenic properties of C.3.1. These data indicate that the reversion of
112 glycosylation at HA residue 197 is associated with reduced neutralization by vaccine-induced
113 sera, consistent with a potential contribution to antigenic drift.

114 RESULTS

115 **Replacement of the Influenza B virus subclade C.5.1 with C.3.1 in the 2024-25 season**

116 Within the Johns Hopkins Hospital System (JHHS), 15% (894/5365) of influenza-positive
117 patients were infected with influenza B virus (IBV) in the 2024-25 season (**Table S1**). IBV cases
118 rose sharply from 65 total cases in February to 372 and 400 cases in March and April
119 respectively (**Fig. 1A and Table S1**). A subset of IBV+ specimens were subject to whole
120 genome sequencing and 58.5% belonged to the C.3 subclade (**Fig. 1B, Table 1**). Subclade
121 C.5.6 was detected at 22.3% and the formerly dominant 2023-24 subclade C.5.1 at 11.5%
122 (**Table 1**). C.5.7 and the parental C.5 subclades were detected in comparatively low abundance
123 at 3.8% and 3.1%, respectively. Nationally, the percentage of C.3 infections was much lower
124 than what was observed in the state of Maryland (18.3 versus 58.5%, **Table 1**).

125 126 **2024–25 C.3 strains infect a younger population compared to C.5 subclade lineages but** 127 **do not impact clinical symptoms or outcomes**

128 To assess whether C.3.1 infections cause more severe disease than C.5 lineages,
129 Demographic, co-morbidity, disease severity and disease outcome data was aggregated for

130 IBV-infected patients presenting to clinics in the Johns Hopkins Hospital System in Baltimore,
131 MD. 123 patients with complete influenza B genome sequences were considered (**Fig. S1**) and
132 10 genomes were excluded due to $\leq 98\%$ coverage across all eight segments to ensure full IBV
133 genomic coverage. This subset (n=113) was used to compare clinical and demographic
134 characteristics between infections caused by C.3 (n = 67) and C.5.X subclades (C.5.1, C.5.6,
135 and C.5.7; n = 46). The median age of patients infected with C.3 viruses was 8 years,
136 significantly younger than those infected with C.5.X viruses (median 13 years) (**Fig. 1C-D**).
137 Notably, 40.3% of C.3-infected individuals were between 6–11 years of age, compared to only
138 17.4% in the C.5.X group (**Fig. 1C-D; Table S2**). Disease severity and clinical outcome between
139 C.3.1 and C.5.X were similar and beyond age, no demographic factors were significantly
140 different infected individuals (**Table S2**).

141
142 **2024-25 C.3 strains encode a HA1:D197N introducing an additional N-linked glycosylation**
143 **motif, and encode NA:E186R and NA:V395I mutations**

144 HA segment sequence alignments revealed that all the 2024-25 strain belonging to the C.3
145 subclade contained an additional N-linked glycosylation (NLG) motif (N-X-S/T) due to a D197N
146 substitution which is absent in the vaccine strain (B/Austria/1359417/2024) and circulating C.5.X
147 subclades (**Fig. 1E -F**). In July, 2025 C.3 viruses encoding two reversion mutations, D197N and
148 P208S, were assigned the C.3.1 clade²⁸. Structural mapping of residue 197 onto the Influenza
149 B virus hemagglutinin (PDB: 4FQM) revealed the site directly overlaps with the receptor binding
150 site (RBS) and the 190-helix—critical regions for receptor attachment and neutralizing antibody
151 recognition (**Fig. 1G**).

152 To assess whether the 2024–25 C.3 viruses acquire an additional N-linked glycan due to the
153 HA1:D197N substitution, HA glycosylation was analyzed by western blot with and without
154 PNGaseF treatment. In untreated samples, the C.3.1/re HA exhibited a higher molecular weight
155 (~80 kDa) compared with C.3 and C.5.1 HAs, consistent with the presence of an additional
156 glycan (**Fig. S2**). Following PNGaseF digestion, which removes N-linked glycans, all HA bands
157 collapsed to a similar lower molecular weight (~60 kDa), confirming that the observed size shift
158 was attributable to differential N-linked glycosylation rather than amino acid substitutions alone
159 (**Fig. S2**). These results verify that C.3.1/re viruses encode an additional N-linked glycan at
160 HA1:N197, introduced by the D197N mutation.

161 All C.3 genomes encode a V395I and a K186R substitution (**Fig. 1H**) in the NA gene that only
162 appear together sporadically in IBV sequences until late 2024/early 2025 (**Fig. 1I**). The V395I
163 mutation is located on the solvent-exposed 380-helix—a known antigenic site accessible to
164 antibodies while K186R is proximal to the NA enzymatic active site and has been previously
165 associated with reduced oseltamivir susceptibility when present in combination with 262T (**Fig.**
166 **1J**)^{29,30}.

167 **C.3.1 subclade viruses in 2024-25 acquired 4 gene segments from C.5 lineages deemed**

168 **C.3.1/re**

169 Time-resolved maximum likelihood phylogenies were generated using complete genome
170 sequences from the JHHS in combination with all available complete IBV genomes deposited to
171 GISAID. To obtain finer resolution of parental ancestry among gene segments, the dataset was
172 enriched during down sampling to include all C.3, C.3.1, and C.3.2 clade viruses deposited to
173 GISAID between October 2020 and March 2026.

174
175 Concatenated genome phylogenies are sensitive visual approaches to reassortment detection
176 through feature and topological incongruence, as segments inherited from disparate parental
177 lineages can appear as long, or conflicting branching patterns compared to gene segments³¹.
178 Concatenated genome phylogenies annotated by HA clade designation revealed that 2024–25
179 C.3.1 viruses originating from JHHS (n = 68) formed a highly divergent, monophyletic clade with
180 a distinct ancestry from previously circulating parental C.3 viruses (**Fig. 2A**). The C.3.1 lineage
181 was not directly connected to the parental C.3 clade in the phylogeny, suggesting a non-clock-
182 like evolutionary rate or an unsampled intermediate ancestor.

183 To determine the putative ancestry of individual genome segments, gene trees were constructed
184 for all eight segments. In the HA phylogeny, 2024–25 C.3.1/re reassortant viruses formed a
185 monophyletic clade directly linked to historical C.3 viruses, consistent with HA segment
186 inheritance from C.3 (**Fig. 2B**). In contrast, the NA phylogeny revealed that these same C.3.1/re
187 viruses clustered exclusively with C.5.1 sequences (**Fig. 2C**), indicating that all C.3.1/re viruses
188 acquired their NA segment from a C.5.1 lineage.

189 To assess C.3.1/re ancestry of the internal segments, tanglegrams were constructed where the
190 tree tips were colored by HA subclade identity and connected by lines to their position in each of
191 the HA-NA-PB2-PB1-PA-NP-MP-NS phylogenies (**Fig. 2D**). Topological incongruence was
192 identified in NA, PA, NP and NS segments where C.3.1 viruses shared direct ancestry with the

193 C.5.1 lineage (**Fig. 2D and Fig. S3**). The precise ancestral clade determination for the NS
194 segment is less clear due to limited genetic differences across C.5, C.5.7 and C.5.1 (**Figs S3-**
195 **S4**). A graphical summary of C.3.1/re genome composition is shown in **Fig. 2E**, indicating
196 C.3.1/re as a 4:4 reassortant virus with 4 segments originating from a C.3.1 ancestor (PB2,
197 PB1, HA, M) and 4 segments likely originating from a C.5.1 ancestor (PA, NP, NA, and NS
198

199 **2024-25 C.3.1/re strains are antigenically drifted from circulating C.5.1 and the 2024-25** 200 **vaccine strain**

201 To assess where baseline or post vaccination serum antibody titers recognize C.3.1/re, serum
202 neutralization assays using clinically isolated infectious viruses were performed against the
203 2024–25 vaccine strain (B/Austria/1359417/2024; subclade C), a parental C.3 virus from the
204 2022-23 season (B/Baltimore/JH-898/2023), a C.5.1 virus from the 2023–24 season
205 (B/Baltimore/JH-547/2024), and a representative C.3.1/re virus from 2024–25 (B/Baltimore/JH-
206 1192/2025) at the time of vaccination (day 0) and 28 days post-vaccination (Table S3-S4). A
207 cohort of 50 individuals from the 2024-25 Johns Hopkins Center of Excellence for Influenza
208 Research and Response (JH-CEIRR) Vaccine Cohort (**Table 2**) was used to assess population
209 immunity. Baseline (Day 0) neutralizing antibody titers quantified by NT₅₀ were similar amongst
210 the homologous vaccine, C.3, and C.5.1 strains (Fig. 3A). However, NT₅₀ titers against C.3.1/re
211 were significantly lower compared to the vaccine and parentals with 84% of individuals (42/50)
212 having no detectable neutralizing antibodies. Following vaccination, NT₅₀ titers were markedly
213 lower to C.3.1 with 78% of individuals (38/50) with geometric mean titers below the limit of
214 detection (**Fig. 3B and Table 2**). Seroconversion rates (≥ 4 -fold NT₅₀ increase) to the vaccine,
215 C.3 and C.5.1 parental strains were similar at 38%, 42%, 36%, respectively. However, only one
216 individual (2%) seroconverted to C.3.1/re following vaccination (**Fig. 3C**). An area under the
217 curve analysis was used to assess fold change between baseline and vaccine geometric mean
218 titers. The mean increase in neutralization AUC titer after vaccination rose 1.2 fold for C.3.1/re
219 (**Fig. 3D**) while titers increased nearly 8-fold for the vaccine and 6.2-fold for the C.5.1 strain and
220 7.7 for the C.3 strain. C.3.1/re AUC titers were significantly different by birthyear with the highest
221 titers in those born between 1960 and 1970 (**Fig. 3E and Fig. S5**). These results indicate the
222 C.3.1/re viruses can evade preexisting population immunity as well as vaccine induced
223 immunity.

224

225 **Removal of the N-linked glycosylation motif at HA residue 197 restores neutralizing**
226 **activity of vaccine sera to C.3.1/re**

227 One of the C.3.1/re clade defining mutations, D197N, is considered a potential contributor to
228 antigenic drift as it may shield a wide footprint of 190-helix neutralizing antibodies. To
229 investigate this, we generated an infectious clone of C.3.1/re mutating the asparagine at residue
230 197 to the parental aspartic acid thus removing the putative NLG motif spanning residues 197-
231 199 (NET to DET). This virus is referred to as rg-C.3.1/re:N197D where rg = reverse genetics.
232 Using the same vaccination sera to assess clinical isolates, we observed restoration of
233 neutralizing antibody titers to rg-C.3.1/re:N197D with NT₅₀ GMT values comparable to the
234 Vaccine, C.3 and C.5.1 (**Fig. 3A-3B**). Baseline and post vaccination titers were observed to be
235 significantly higher than the C.3.1/re clinical isolate. Furthermore, seroconversion rates and
236 AUC fold-change were significantly boosted to those like C.5.1, 36% and x6.5, respectively (**Fig.**
237 **3C-D**). This suggests that in our cohort, neutralizing antibodies both at baseline and post
238 vaccination with B/Austria/13594172021, were focused near or around the site 197 (190 helix).
239 When baseline and postvaccination titers were analyzed with respect to birth year, there was a
240 significant association of older age with neutralization of C.3.1/re, indicating that individuals born
241 after 1970 were more likely to lack neutralizing activity (**Fig. 3E**).

242

243 **C.3.1/re viruses encode a C.5.1 NA with lower sialidase activity compared to the parental** 244 **C.5.1 but remain sensitive to oseltamivir**

245 To determine whether the C.3.1/re NA acquired via reassortment with a C.5.1 parent has
246 altered sialidase activity, NA activity and oseltamivir sensitivity was compared among
247 representative C.3.1/re and C.5.1 isolates (**Fig. 3F-G**). The C.3.1/re virus displayed reduced
248 total NA activity per unit of infectious virus compared to its C.5.1 parent (**Fig. 3F**). Relative
249 reduction in luciferase activity was quantified by normalizing luciferase readouts such that no
250 oseltamivir (i.e., infectious virus alone) represented 0% inhibition of NA activity (NAI), and no
251 virus (i.e., assay buffer alone) represented 100% inhibition of NA activity. Representative
252 C.3.1/re and C.5.1 viruses showed similar IC₅₀, IC₈₀ and IC₉₀ concentrations. These data show
253 that while the C.3.1/re NA has slightly reduced sialidase activity relative to parental C.5.1 NA
254 (**Fig. 3F**), both viruses show comparable sensitivity to oseltamivir (**Fig. 3G**).

255

256 **C.3.1/re persists in the United States with few detectable cases globally**

257 To generalize relative C.3.1/re subclade abundance amongst global regions, all available IBV
258 HA sequences from GISAID between October 2020 and March 18, 2026 were assigned HA
259 clade designations and the relative proportions of all subclades were quantified by global region:

260 North America, South America, West Asia, South Asia, East Asia, Korea/Kapan, Africa, Europe
261 and Oceania (**Fig. 4**).

262 Throughout the late 2024-25 season, C.3.1/re was only detected in the North America (**Fig. 4**),
263 primarily in the eastern United States. Towards the end of the 2024-25 season, C.3.1/re
264 genomes originating from Japan (representative B/TOKYO/EIS-13-175/2025) were reported
265 (**Fig. 4; Fig. S5**). In the 2025-26 season, C.3.1 displaced C.5.1 in North America and has been
266 detected in South America, Europe, Japan and Korea. Most C.3.1/re sequences originate from
267 North America while C.3.1/re appears to be a minor subclade globally As of March 18, 2026,
268 global genomic surveillance data indicate that C.3.1/re viruses were most prevalent in the
269 United States, where they represent the majority of recent IBV detections (**Fig. 3**). Although all
270 IBV subclades appear globally in varying magnitude, the C.5.1 subclade is disproportionately
271 represented in Western regions, whereas the C.5.6 and C.5.7 lineages are more prevalent in
272 Eastern regions (**Fig. 4**).

273 **Additional C.3 reassortments with C.5 lineages is concurrent with a HA:D197N reversion**

274 As of March 18, 2026, the IBV C.3 lineage consists of the following clade designations: C.3,
275 C.3.1 and C.3.2. Following the emergence of the C.3.1/re reassortment event, 2 additional
276 reassortment events where a C.3 HA segment is retained in a C.5-lineage backgrounds (**Fig.**
277 **5A-B**). The first noted event, classified here as C.3/re, encodes a C.3 HA with D197N and
278 shares direct ancestry with C.5.6 while encoding internal segments from either C.5 or C.5.7
279 parental viruses (**Fig. 5A-B**). The C.3/re reassortment event was first detected in Japan in the
280 2025-26 season and has continued to increase in detection frequency. Putative ancestry for
281 non-HA segments was resolved by constructing HA tanglegrams connecting taxa in the
282 corresponding NA-PB2-PB1-PA-NP-MP-NS phylogenies (**Fig. 5B**). The ancestry of non-HA
283 segments in C3/re maps to a putative (C.5.6)-(C.5.6)-(C.5)-(C.5)-(C.5)-(C.5.7)-(unknown), (NA-
284 PB2-PB1-PA-NP-MP-NS), constellation where the NS segment clusters tightly with a clade
285 populated with C.5, C.5.1, and C.5.7 HA-assigned taxa (**Fig. 5B**). A second and minor
286 reassortment event, named C.3/re.1, was detected in the United States in the 2025-26 season
287 (**Fig. 5A and B**). C.3/re.1 encodes a C.3 HA with the D197N and is a putative C.3 and C.5
288 reassortment with a genome constellation of (C.5)-(C.5)-(C.5)-(C.5)-(C.3)-(C.5)-(C.3), (NA-PB2-
289 PB1-PA-NP-MP-NS). Both reassortment events donate a C.3 HA segment encoding a D197N
290 and therefore a NLG motif.

291 DISCUSSION

292 Genomic surveillance of seasonal influenza viruses remains essential for epidemic
293 preparedness and vaccine strain selection. During the 2024–25 influenza season, the C.3.1
294 subclade displaced the previously dominant C.5.1 lineage in Baltimore, MD. Notably, the
295 reassorted C.3.1/re virus disproportionately infected younger individuals (median age 8 years),
296 with 40.3% of cases occurring in children aged 6–11 years. This age distribution is consistent
297 with the broader epidemiology of B/Victoria viruses, which are known to preferentially infect
298 pediatric populations, but such skewing has not been well described between B/Victoria
299 subclades^{32,33}. The known epidemiological tendency of pediatric infection combined with an
300 antigenically naïve population may explain the differences in age seen between C.3.1/re and
301 C.5.X in the 2024-25 JHHS season. However, our neutralizing antibody data with an adult
302 population would indicate a broad C.3.1/re susceptibility across age groups. Despite likely prior
303 exposure to B/Victoria viruses, most adults in our cohort had no detectable neutralizing antibody
304 titers against C.3.1/re either before or after vaccination. This indicates that C.3.1/re effectively
305 escaped both preexisting and vaccine-induced immunity, even in an ostensibly experienced
306 adult population. One contributing factor may be immune imprinting toward epitopes present in
307 recently circulating or vaccine-matched strains, particularly those lacking glycosylation at HA
308 site 197. The absence of serum neutralization against C.3.1/re, contrasted with preserved
309 responses to C.5.1, supports the idea that antigenic drift—rather than age alone—underlies the
310 observed susceptibility patterns. The glycosylation at HA position 197 in C.3.1/re likely masks
311 immunodominant epitopes that were exposed in B/Austria/2021-like viruses, thereby
312 undermining both infection- and vaccine-induced immunity. Further investigation as to the
313 potential immuno-focusing consequences of repeated vaccination and exposure to IBVs which
314 lack the 197 NLG is warranted³⁴.

315 The addition of an N-linked glycan in the hemagglutinin (HA) receptor binding site (RBS) is a
316 well-known determinant of epitope masking in Influenza A and B viruses^{5,21}. Antigenic changes
317 driven by a gain or loss of glycosylation at IBV HA residue 197 have been documented previously
318 and are a known egg adaptation mechanism for IBV vaccine strains²⁶. Historically, B/Victoria
319 lineage viruses retained glycosylation at this site until the emergence of B/Austria/2021-like
320 viruses, which lost this modification^{34–39}. The loss of glycan resulting from egg-adaptation of IBV
321 vaccine strains leads to the production of antibodies with poor recognition of circulating,
322 glycosylated IBV strains^{27,40}. Consistent with prior studies, we find that the presence of this

323 glycan substantially reduces neutralizing antibody recognition, while its removal restores
324 neutralizing antibody titers.

325 Intra-subtype reassortment between human influenza viruses has been previously observed to
326 increase disease severity while further diversifying the repertoire of influenza gene segment
327 combinations^{31,41}. Phylogenetic analyses revealed that C.3.1/re viruses acquired multiple
328 internal gene segments from co-circulating C.5.1 viruses, including the C.5.1 NA segment which
329 carries a surface-facing V395I mutation within the 380 helix antigenic site that may confer
330 escape from some NA binding antibodies⁴². The significance of reassortment on IBV fitness is
331 clear, but not explored well mechanistically^{17,18}.

332
333 IBV is known to have slow global migration with epidemic models supporting differences in age
334 of infection as a likely driver of regional persistence and differences in patterns of global
335 circulation^{4,19}. To our knowledge, the C.3.1/re subclade—corresponding to the C.3.1 HA
336 designation—was first detected in North America. Our analyses do not indicate that C.3.1/re
337 viruses have gained a competitive advantage over C.5 lineages in the Southern Hemisphere;
338 C.3.1/re detections remain rare or absent in available surveillance data. However, the gain of
339 an HA 197 glycosylation site and intraclade reassortment has occurred independently at least
340 three times, suggesting some mechanistic advantage of both to IBV fitness and circulation.

341
342 The emergence of C.3.1/re occurred after IBV vaccine strain selections were made for the
343 2025-26 Northern Hemisphere influenza vaccine and therefore, it was not available to be
344 considered as a vaccine strain candidate³⁷. This highlights the need to shorten the time
345 between influenza vaccine strain selection and the initiation of the fall seasonal influenza
346 vaccine campaign to fully identify and characterize late season virus variants and allow them to
347 be considered as vaccine candidates. The implementation of mRNA vaccine platforms could
348 enable rapid updates against mismatched strains detected after the annual February and
349 September WHO vaccine selection meetings. This approach could improve strain concordance
350 and reduce infections, hospitalization and deaths⁴³.

351
352 The 2024–25 Northern Hemisphere IBV vaccine component was subclade C
353 B/Austria/1359417/2024 (V1A.3a.2), used since 2022. Interim VE, largely against early-season
354 C.5.X viruses, was 58% in Europe but could not be estimated in the U.S. due to limited cases
355^{44,45}. IBV comprised 17.2% of positives (week ending in Jun 28, 2025)⁴⁶. Egg-adapted ferret

356 antisera recognized 96.6% of isolates by HI, mainly C.5.X⁴⁷. Our results would predict that
357 overall, VE against IBV will drop towards the end of the 2024-25 influenza season with the
358 emergence of C.3.1/re with a similar drop in the 2025-26 season.
359 For the upcoming 2026-27 Northern Hemisphere season, the selected IBV vaccine egg
360 component lacks a putative NLG as reported by the WHO (B/Tokyo/EIS13-175/2025-E3/SpE1;
361 EPI_ISL_20373028) which is likely to induce neutralizing antibodies that are blocked by C.3.1
362 HA containing viruses that have the D197N NLG.

363
364
365 This study has several limitations. First, our genomic dataset reflects sequencing efforts in a
366 single hospital system and may not fully capture community transmission dynamics. Broader
367 population-based surveillance was limited, and global representation in publicly available
368 databases such as GISAID remains uneven, potentially obscuring the true geographic
369 distribution of C.3.1/re viruses. Not all IBV positive cases underwent whole-genome sequencing,
370 and thus clade assignments were available for only a subset of patients. Furthermore, time-
371 scaled phylogenies relied on maximum likelihood methods rather than Bayesian inference,
372 which may underestimate uncertainty in time to the most recent common ancestor (tMRCA)
373 estimates and geographic movement.

374

375 MATERIALS AND METHODS

376

377 **Ethical considerations and human subject approval**

378 The Johns Hopkins Institutional Review Board has approved this work. The research was
379 performed under protocols IRB00091667 and IRB00331396. Genomes are available in the
380 Global Initiative on Sharing All Influenza Data (GISAID) database. Accession numbers available
381 in **DOI XXX**. Serologic samples for this study were obtained from healthcare workers (HCWs)
382 recruited from the Johns Hopkins Centers for Influenza Research and Response (JH-CEIRR)
383 during the annual Johns Hopkins Health System employee influenza vaccination campaign in
384 the Fall of 2024. Serum was collected from subjects at the time of vaccination and
385 approximately 28 days later. Virus was isolated for this study from deidentified IBV positive
386 nasal swabs under the JHU School of Medicine Institutional Review Board approved protocol,
387 IRB00288258.

388 **Acute infection study population**

389 Standard-of-care diagnostic influenza testing was conducted at the JHHS. Detection of
390 influenza virus was performed with either the Cepheid Xpert Xpress SARS-CoV-
391 2/Flu/respiratory syncytial virus test (Sunnyvale, CA, USA) or the ePlex RP/RP2 respiratory
392 panels (Roche Diagnostics, Indianapolis, IN, USA). The Xpert Xpress assay targets the matrix
393 the M and NS segments for IBV. Clinical samples were collected between December 2024 and
394 April 2025, and corresponding clinical and demographic metadata were extracted in bulk
395 through JHHS electronic medical charts.

396

397 **Nucleic Acid Extraction and Whole Genome Amplification from clinical specimens**

398 Nucleic acid was extracted using the Chemagic Viral RNA/DNA Kit following the manufacturer's
399 instructions (Revvity, Waltham, MA, USA). The whole genomes of IBV were amplified using
400 Invitrogen Superscript III (Waltham, MA, USA) and universal IBV primer cocktail.⁴⁹ Library
401 preparation was performed with NEBNext ARTIC SARS-CoV-2 Companion Kit (New England
402 Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA), and sequencing was performed following manufacturer's
403 instructions, using R10.4.1 flow cells on a GridION (Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Oxford,
404 UK).

405

406 **Influenza Genome Assembly**

407 Fastq files were demultiplexed using the artic_guppyplex tool (Artic version 1.2.2). Nucleotide
408 sequence assembly was performed using the default settings of the FLU module of the Iterative
409 Refinement Meta-Assembler (IRMA version 1.0.2) which include a minimum average quality
410 score of 24 and a site depth of 100. The alignment of genomes and reference sequences,
411 downloaded from GISAID, was performed using the built-in alignment tool in Nextclade.
412 Quality control scores for sequences were assigned using the built-in pipeline available in
413 Nextclade. Sequences with overall quality scores of 30 and above were excluded from
414 sequence analysis.

415

416 **Cell Culture and media**

417 Madin-Darby canine kidney (MDCK) cells (provided by Dr. Robert A. Lamb, Northwestern
418 University), MDCK-SIAT-1 cells (provided by Dr. Scott Hensley, University of Pennsylvania) and
419 MDCK-SIAT-1-TMPRSSII cells (provided by Dr. Jesse Bloom, Fred Hutchinson Cancer Center)
420 were maintained in complete medium (CM) consisting of Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium
421 (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 100 units/mL penicillin/streptomycin (Life
422 Technologies) and 2 mM Glutamax (Gibco) at 37 °C and 5% CO₂. Human nasal epithelial cells

423 (hNEC) (PromoCell) were cultivated as previously described⁶. Infection media consisted of 0.3%
424 bovine serum albumin, 100 units/mL penicillin/streptomycin (Life Technologies), 2 mM Glutamax
425 (Gibco) and 2.5 µg/mL of N-acetylated trypsin (NAT) from bovine pancreas (Sigma) for MDCK-
426 SIAT-1 infections only (not MDCK-SAIT1-TMPRSS2 or Human Nasal Epithelial cell infections).

427 **Virus Isolation on Human Nasal Epithelial cells (hNECs) and MDCK-SIAT-1-TMPRSSII** 428 **cells**

429 Nasopharyngeal swabs or nasal washes from influenza B–positive individuals were used for
430 virus isolation on MDCK-SIAT-1-TMPRSSII cells or primary human nasal epithelial cell (hNEC)
431 cultures as previously described^{6,10}. MDCK-SIAT-1-TMPRSSII cells were maintained CM. For
432 isolation, specimens were inoculated onto cells, washed, and incubated at 33°C in IM lacking
433 NAT. Supernatants were harvested, and infectious titers were quantified by TCID50 and were
434 expanded to generate seed stocks.

435

436 **Virus plasmid cloning and recombinant virus generation of eg-C.3.1/re:N197D**

437 An eight-plasmid reverse genetics system (pDP2002)^{50,51} was used to rescue recombinant
438 viruses corresponding to B/Baltimore/JH-1192/2025 (C.3.1/re). To evaluate the contribution of
439 HA residue 197 glycosylation to antigenicity, the HA plasmid was site-directed mutagenized to
440 convert N197 to D (NET→DET), thereby removing the N-linked glycosylation motif at residues
441 197–199. All plasmids and rescued viruses were sequence-verified across the coding regions of
442 the modified segment(s). Detailed procedures for cloning and site directed mutagenesis are in
443 the supplemental methods.

444

445 **Virus Stock Preparation**

446 MDCK, MDCK-SIAT-1, and MDCK-SIAT-1-TMPRSSII cells were maintained in CM at 37 °C and
447 5% CO₂. Primary human nasal epithelial cells (hNECs; PromoCell) were cultured as previously
448 described⁶. Influenza B viruses were isolated from IBV-positive nasopharyngeal swabs or nasal
449 washes using MDCK-SIAT-1-TMPRSSII cells or hNEC cultures (see supplemental methods).
450 Infectious titers were quantified by TCID50 on MDCK-SIAT-1 cells (Reed–Muench).

451

452 **Tissue Culture Infectious Dose 50 (TCID50) Assay**

453 MDCK-SIAT-1 cells were seeded in a 96-well plate 2 days before assay and grown to 100%
454 confluence. Cells were washed twice with PBS+ then 180 µL of was added to each well. Ten-
455 fold serial dilutions of virus from 10⁻¹ to 10⁻⁷ were created and then 20 µL of the virus dilution

456 was added to the MDCK-SIAT-1 cells. Cells were incubated for 6 days at 33 °C then fixed with
457 2% formaldehyde. After fixing, cells were stained with Naphthol Blue Black, washed and virus
458 titer was calculated using the Reed and Muench method.

459

460 **Validating hemagglutinin N-linked glycosylation motifs by PNGaseF treatment and** 461 **western blot**

462 To confirm glycosylation differences associated with HA residue 197, MDCK-SIAT-1 cells were
463 infected (MOI 1) and lysates were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and immunoblot with an anti-
464 influenza B HA monoclonal antibody Thermo Fisher MA5-29901 (see supplemental methods).
465 Paired lysates were treated \pm PNGase F prior to electrophoresis to distinguish glycosylation-
466 dependent mobility shifts.

467 **Serum Neutralization Assay (NT₅₀)**

468 Day 0 and day 28 serum samples from JH-CEIRR participants were treated with receptor-
469 destroying enzyme (Denka-Seiken), heat inactivated and serially diluted two-fold. Diluted sera
470 were incubated with 100 TCID₅₀ of infectious virus and then used to infect confluent MDCK-
471 SIAT-1 cells. Following a 1 hour, incubation serum+virus was replaced with IM containing N-
472 acetyl trypsin (2.5 μ g/mL) and incubated for 6 days before they were fixed and stained as
473 previously described¹⁴. Neutralization titers (NT₅₀) were defined as the highest serum dilution
474 associated with \geq 50% reduction in cytopathic effect.

475

476 **Assessment of NA activity and oseltamivir sensitivity**

477 Relative neuraminidase (NA) activity and oseltamivir susceptibility were assessed using the NA-
478 Star-based Influenza Neuraminidase Inhibitor Resistance Detection Kit (Thermo Fisher)
479 according to the manufacturer's protocol. Virus input was normalized by NA-Star per infectious
480 unit (TCID₅₀). Oseltamivir carboxylate (MedChemExpress) was serially diluted and incubated
481 with virus prior to NA-Star substrate addition. Percent NA inhibition was calculated by
482 normalizing luminescence to virus-only (0% inhibition) and no-virus (100% inhibition) controls.
483 IC₅₀ values were estimated by nonlinear regression in GraphPad Prism.

484

485 **Influenza B clade and genotype definitions**

486 Influenza B viruses were classified using algorithmic clade proposals for the HA segment
487 implemented into Nextclade (last accessed March 18, 2026).⁵²⁻⁵⁴ As of March 18, 2026, the
488 recognized C.3 subclades and their clade defining amino acid mutations include C.3 (128K,

489 154E), C.3.1 (197N, 208S), and C.3.2 (197N, 208P) available at: [https://github.com/influenza-](https://github.com/influenza-clade-nomenclature/seasonal_B-Vic_HA/tree/main/subclades)
490 [clade-nomenclature/seasonal B-Vic HA/tree/main/subclades](https://github.com/influenza-clade-nomenclature/seasonal_B-Vic_HA/tree/main/subclades).

491

492 **Influenza B Reassortment Nomenclature**

493 Reassortment was inferred by comparing phylogenies of all eight influenza B virus genome
494 segments. Viruses were classified as reassortants when segment trees were incongruent,
495 specifically when the HA clustered within the C.3/C.3.1 clade while one or more non-HA
496 segments clustered within the C.5 lineage. Reassortant genotypes were labeled using the
497 format “<HA clade>/re[.X]”, where “/re” denotes reassortment and an optional numeric suffix
498 distinguishes independent reassortment events within the same HA clade; designations were
499 updated as HA clade definitions were refined. Complete rationale is available in the
500 supplemental methods.

501

502 **Protein Structure modeling**

503 Mutations in Influenza B **Hemagglutinin** (PDB 4FQM) and Neuraminidase (PDB 4CPL) were
504 visualized using Protein Imager⁵⁵.

505

506 **Phylogenetic Reconstruction of C.3.1/re ancestry using Maximum Likelihood**

507

508 19,689 Influenza B genomes were access from GISAID filtered by original passage and
509 collection date between October 2020 and August 22, 2025. 3836 whole genomes were down
510 sampled by collection week and country implement in augur filter (see [01 ingest.qmd](#))⁵⁶.

511 Concatenated genome- and gene-level phylogenetics (totaling to 9) were constructed using IQ-
512 Tree2 available in the augur tree module^{23,24} and resulting branches were refined using
513 treetime^{56,58}. **(Fig. S3)**. Nextclade was used to call clade and subclade designations (last
514 accessed March 18th, 2026) sequence quality metrics, and putative glycosylation sites⁵³

515

516 **Statistical analyses**

517 Statistical analyses were performed in R (4.3.2) using TidypLOTS⁵⁹ or Graphpad Prism (10.4.2)
518 and described in figure legends Time to the most recent common ancestor estimates and
519 confidence intervals were performed using baltic¹⁷.

520

521

522 **Data availability**

523
524 Genomes queried from the Global Initiative on Sharing All Influenza Data used in this study are
525 available at <https://doi.org/10.55876/gis8.260402we> (EPI_SET_260402we). Genomes
526 generated in from the Johns Hopkins Hospital Network used in this study are available at:
527 <https://doi.org/10.55876/gis8.260511na> (EPI_SET_260511na)

528
529 All scripts generated in this publication are available
530 at https://github.com/elginakin/influenzab_c.3. Interactive gene and genome-level phylogenies
531 Nine genome- and gene-level phylogenies are publicly accessible through Nextstrain Groups at
532 <https://nextstrain.org/groups/PekoszLab-Public/akine/ibvc3/vic/genome>. All datasets used
533 and/or analyzed during the current study are available through the Johns Hopkins Research
534 Data Repository at **[TODO: INSERT DOI WHEN RELEASED]**.

535
536

537 **Acknowledgments**

538 This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health (NIH) contract 75N93021C00045
539 Johns Hopkins Centers of Excellence in Influenza Research and Response, and NIH T32
540 AI007417. The authors thank the healthcare workers who enrolled and participated in the study.
541 We are grateful for the efforts of the clinical coordination team at the Johns Hopkins Hospitals
542 who collected samples. We gratefully acknowledge all data contributors, i.e., the Authors and their
543 Originating laboratories responsible for obtaining the specimens, and their Submitting laboratories
544 for generating the genetic sequence and metadata and sharing via the GISAID Initiative, on which
545 this research is based. A list of laboratories who contributed sequences for strains analyzed in
546 this work is provided through GISAID **EPI_SET_260402we**. The 2024-25 Influenza B vaccine
547 strain component, B/Austria/1359417/2024 was kindly provided by Dr. John Steel through the US
548 Centers for Disease Control (CDC). EA's participation as a student in the 2025 Workshop on
549 Molecular Evolution (MOLE) at the Marine Biological Laboratory in Woods Hole, MA provided
550 important insight into constructing phylogenies and reassortment networks pivotal to this study.
551 We thank the laboratories of Heba Mostafa and Andrew Pekosz for discussion of data and future
552 directions.

553 **References**

554

555 1. van de Sandt CE, Bodewes R, Rimmelzwaan GF, de Vries RD. Influenza B viruses: not to be
556 discounted. *Future Microbiol* 2015;10(9):1447–65.

557 2. Costa JC da, Siqueira MM, Brown D, et al. Vaccine Mismatches, Viral Circulation, and Clinical
558 Severity Patterns of Influenza B Victoria and Yamagata Infections in Brazil over the Decade
559 2010-2020: A Statistical and Phylogeny-Trait Analyses. *Viruses* 2022;14(7):1477.

560 3. Dawood FS. Interim Estimates of 2019–20 Seasonal Influenza Vaccine Effectiveness — United
561 States, February 2020. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* [Internet] 2020 [cited 2025 July
562 11];69. Available from: <https://www.cdc.gov/mmwr/volumes/69/wr/mm6907a1.htm>

563 4. Bedford T, Riley S, Barr IG, et al. Global circulation patterns of seasonal influenza viruses vary
564 with antigenic drift. *Nature* 2015;523(7559):217–20.

565 5. Ni F, Kondrashkina E, Qinghua Wang, Qinghua Wang, Wang Q. Structural basis for the
566 divergent evolution of influenza B virus hemagglutinin. *Virology* 2013;446(1):112–22.

567 6. Swanson NJ, Marinho P, Dziedzic A, et al. 2019–2020 H1N1 clade A5a.1 viruses have better in
568 vitro fitness compared with the co-circulating A5a.2 clade. *Sci Rep* 2023;13(1):10223.

569 7. Wang Y-F, Chang C-F, Chi C-Y, Wang H-C, Wang J-R, Su I-J. Characterization of glycan binding
570 specificities of influenza B viruses with correlation with hemagglutinin genotypes and
571 clinical features. *J Med Virol* 2012;84(4):679–85.

572 8. Nakagawa N, Kubota R, Maeda A, Okuno Y. Influenza B Virus Victoria Group with a New
573 Glycosylation Site Was Epidemic in Japan in the 2002-2003 Season. *J Clin Microbiol*
574 2004;42(7):3295–7.

575 9. Das SR, Hensley SE, David A, et al. Fitness costs limit influenza A virus hemagglutinin
576 glycosylation as an immune evasion strategy. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 2011;108(51):E1417–22.

577 10. Lee JM, Huddleston J, Doud MB, et al. Deep mutational scanning of hemagglutinin helps
578 predict evolutionary fates of human H3N2 influenza variants. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*
579 2018;115(35):E8276–85.

580 11. Bae J-Y, Lee I, Kim JI, et al. A Single Amino Acid in the Polymerase Acidic Protein Determines
581 the Pathogenicity of Influenza B Viruses. *J Virol* 2018;92(13):e00259-18.

582 12. Canaday LM, Resnick JD, Liu H, et al. HA and M2 sequences alter the replication of 2013–16
583 H1 live attenuated influenza vaccine infection in human nasal epithelial cell cultures.
584 *Vaccine* 2022;40(32):4544–53.

- 585 13. Liu H, Grantham ML, Pekosz A. Mutations in the Influenza A Virus M1 Protein Enhance Virus
586 Budding To Complement Lethal Mutations in the M2 Cytoplasmic Tail. *J Virol*
587 2018;92(1):e00858-17.
- 588 14. Wilson JL, Akin E, Zhou R, et al. The Influenza B Virus Victoria and Yamagata Lineages Display
589 Distinct Cell Tropism and Infection-Induced Host Gene Expression in Human Nasal
590 Epithelial Cell Cultures. *Viruses* 2023;15(9):1956.
- 591 15. Rowe T, Fletcher A, Lange M, et al. Delay of innate immune responses following influenza B
592 virus infection affects the development of a robust antibody response in ferrets. *mBio*
593 2025;16(2):e02361-24.
- 594 16. Rowe T, Davis W, Wentworth DE, Ross T. Differential interferon responses to influenza A and
595 B viruses in primary ferret respiratory epithelial cells. *J Virol* 2024;98(2):e01494-23.
- 596 17. Dudas G, Bedford T, Lycett S, Rambaut A. Reassortment between Influenza B Lineages and
597 the Emergence of a Coadapted PB1–PB2–HA Gene Complex. *Mol Biol Evol* 2015;32(1):162–
598 72.
- 599 18. McCullers JA, Wang GC, He S, Webster RG. Reassortment and Insertion-Deletion Are
600 Strategies for the Evolution of Influenza B Viruses in Nature. *J Virol* 1999;73(9):7343–8.
- 601 19. Langat P, Raghvani J, Dudas G, et al. Genome-wide evolutionary dynamics of influenza B
602 viruses on a global scale. *PLOS Pathog* 2017;13(12):e1006749.
- 603 20. Virk RK, Jayakumar J, Mendenhall IH, et al. Divergent evolutionary trajectories of influenza B
604 viruses underlie their contemporaneous epidemic activity. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*
605 2020;117(1):619–28.
- 606 21. Sun X, Jayaraman A, Maniprasad P, et al. N-Linked Glycosylation of the Hemagglutinin
607 Protein Influences Virulence and Antigenicity of the 1918 Pandemic and Seasonal H1N1
608 Influenza A Viruses. *J Virol* 2013;87(15):8756–66.
- 609 22. Sun W, Kang DS, Zheng A, et al. Antibody Responses toward the Major Antigenic Sites of
610 Influenza B Virus Hemagglutinin in Mice, Ferrets, and Humans. *J Virol* 2019;93(2):e01673-
611 18.
- 612 23. Rosu ME, Lexmond P, Bestebroer TM, et al. Substitutions near the HA receptor binding site
613 explain the origin and major antigenic change of the B/Victoria and B/Yamagata lineages.
614 *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 2022;119(42):e2211616119.
- 615 24. Page CK, Mubassir MHM, Chopra P, et al. N-glycosylation at the receptor binding site drives
616 differences in receptor binding specificity between influenza B virus lineages. *J Virol*
617 2025;0(0):e01039-25.

- 618 25. Wilson JL, Zhou R, Liu H, Rothman R, Fenstermacher KZ, Pekosz A. Antigenic alteration of
619 2017-2018 season influenza B vaccine by egg-culture adaption. *Front Virol* [Internet] 2022
620 [cited 2023 Mar 5];2. Available from:
621 <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fviro.2022.933440>
- 622 26. Chen Z, Aspelund A, Jin H. Stabilizing the glycosylation pattern of influenza B hemagglutinin
623 following adaptation to growth in eggs. *Vaccine* 2008;26(3):361–71.
- 624 27. Wilson JL, Zhou R, Liu H, Rothman R, Fenstermacher KZ, Pekosz A. Antigenic alteration of
625 2017-2018 season influenza B vaccine by egg-culture adaption. *Front Virol* [Internet] 2022
626 [cited 2025 May 9];2. Available from:
627 <https://www.frontiersin.orghttps://www.frontiersin.org/journals/virology/articles/10.3389>
628 [/fviro.2022.933440/full](https://www.frontiersin.org/journals/virology/articles/10.3389/fviro.2022.933440/full)
- 629 28. Propose new subclade of C.3 · influenza-clade-nomenclature/seasonal_B-Vic_HA@2afdc08
630 [Internet]. GitHub. [cited 2026 May 11];Available from: [https://github.com/influenza-](https://github.com/influenza-clade-nomenclature/seasonal_B-Vic_HA/commit/2afdc0867b7c2dbaba3d4ca5f9ad325cd2d36393)
631 [clade-nomenclature/seasonal_B-](https://github.com/influenza-clade-nomenclature/seasonal_B-Vic_HA/commit/2afdc0867b7c2dbaba3d4ca5f9ad325cd2d36393)
632 [Vic_HA/commit/2afdc0867b7c2dbaba3d4ca5f9ad325cd2d36393](https://github.com/influenza-clade-nomenclature/seasonal_B-Vic_HA/commit/2afdc0867b7c2dbaba3d4ca5f9ad325cd2d36393)
- 633 29. Brown SK, Tseng Y-Y, Aziz A, Baz M, Barr IG. Characterization of influenza B viruses with
634 reduced susceptibility to influenza neuraminidase inhibitors. *Antiviral Res*
635 2022;200:105280.
- 636 30. Madsen A, Dai Y-N, McMahon M, et al. Human Antibodies Targeting Influenza B Virus
637 Neuraminidase Active Site Are Broadly Protective. *Immunity* 2020;53(4):852-863.e7.
- 638 31. Liu H, Shaw-Saliba K, Westerbeck J, et al. Effect of human H3N2 influenza virus reassortment
639 on influenza incidence and severity during the 2017–18 influenza season in the USA: a
640 retrospective observational genomic analysis. *Lancet Microbe* [Internet] 2024 [cited 2024
641 July 20];0(0). Available from: [https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lanmic/article/PIIS2666-](https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lanmic/article/PIIS2666-5247(24)00067-3/fulltext)
642 [5247\(24\)00067-3/fulltext](https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lanmic/article/PIIS2666-5247(24)00067-3/fulltext)
- 643 32. Vieira MC, Donato CM, Arevalo P, et al. Lineage-specific protection and immune imprinting
644 shape the age distributions of influenza B cases. *Nat Commun* 2021;12(1):4313.
- 645 33. Edler P, Schwab LSU, Aban M, et al. Immune imprinting in early life shapes cross-reactivity to
646 influenza B virus haemagglutinin. *Nat Microbiol* 2024;9(8):2073–83.
- 647 34. Shen J, Kirk BD, Ma J, Wang Q. Diversifying Selective Pressure on Influenza B Virus
648 Hemagglutinin. *J Med Virol* 2009;81(1):114–24.
- 649 35. Nakagawa N, Kubota R, Maeda A, Okuno Y. Influenza B Virus Victoria Group with a New
650 Glycosylation Site Was Epidemic in Japan in the 2002-2003 Season. *J Clin Microbiol*
651 2004;42(7):3295–7.

- 652 36. Gatherer D. Passage in egg culture is a major cause of apparent positive selection in
653 influenza B hemagglutinin. *J Med Virol* 2010;82(1):123–7.
- 654 37. Recommended composition of influenza virus vaccines for use in the 2025-2026 northern
655 hemisphere influenza season [Internet]. [cited 2025 July 11];Available from:
656 [https://www.who.int/publications/m/item/recommended-composition-of-influenza-virus-](https://www.who.int/publications/m/item/recommended-composition-of-influenza-virus-vaccines-for-use-in-the-2025-2026-nh-influenza-season)
657 [vaccines-for-use-in-the-2025-2026-nh-influenza-season](https://www.who.int/publications/m/item/recommended-composition-of-influenza-virus-vaccines-for-use-in-the-2025-2026-nh-influenza-season)
- 658 38. Recommended composition of influenza virus vaccines for use in the 2022-2023 northern
659 hemisphere influenza season [Internet]. [cited 2025 June 30];Available from:
660 [https://www.who.int/publications/m/item/recommended-composition-of-influenza-virus-](https://www.who.int/publications/m/item/recommended-composition-of-influenza-virus-vaccines-for-use-in-the-2022-2023-northern-hemisphere-influenza-season)
661 [vaccines-for-use-in-the-2022-2023-northern-hemisphere-influenza-season](https://www.who.int/publications/m/item/recommended-composition-of-influenza-virus-vaccines-for-use-in-the-2022-2023-northern-hemisphere-influenza-season)
- 662 39. Recommended composition of influenza virus vaccines for use in the 2023-2024 northern
663 hemisphere influenza season [Internet]. [cited 2025 June 23];Available from:
664 [https://www.who.int/publications/m/item/recommended-composition-of-influenza-virus-](https://www.who.int/publications/m/item/recommended-composition-of-influenza-virus-vaccines-for-use-in-the-2023-2024-northern-hemisphere-influenza-season)
665 [vaccines-for-use-in-the-2023-2024-northern-hemisphere-influenza-season](https://www.who.int/publications/m/item/recommended-composition-of-influenza-virus-vaccines-for-use-in-the-2023-2024-northern-hemisphere-influenza-season)
- 666 40. Saito T, Nakaya Y, Suzuki T, et al. Antigenic alteration of influenza B virus associated with loss
667 of a glycosylation site due to host-cell adaptation. *J Med Virol* 2004;74(2):336–43.
- 668 41. Goldstein EJ, Harvey WT, Wilkie GS, et al. Integrating patient and whole-genome sequencing
669 data to provide insights into the epidemiology of seasonal influenza A(H3N2) viruses.
670 *Microb Genomics* 2018;4(1):e000137.
- 671 42. Madsen A, Dai Y-N, McMahon M, et al. Human Antibodies Targeting Influenza B Virus
672 Neuraminidase Active Site Are Broadly Protective. *Immunity* 2020;53(4):852-863.e7.
- 673 43. Haghpanah F, Hamilton A, Klein E. Modeling the potential health impacts of delayed strain
674 selection on influenza hospitalization and mortality with mRNA vaccines. *Vaccine X*
675 2023;14:100287.
- 676 44. Frutos AM, Cleary S, Reeves EL, et al. Interim Estimates of 2024-2025 Seasonal Influenza
677 Vaccine Effectiveness - Four Vaccine Effectiveness Networks, United States, October 2024-
678 February 2025. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* 2025;74(6):83–90.
- 679 45. Rose AM, Lucaccioni H, Marsh K, et al. Interim 2024/25 influenza vaccine effectiveness:
680 eight European studies, September 2024 to January 2025. *Eurosurveillance*
681 2025;30(7):2500102.
- 682 46. National, Regional, and State Level Outpatient Illness and Viral Surveillance [Internet]. [cited
683 2025 July 8];Available from: <https://gis.cdc.gov/grasp/fluview/fluportaldashboard.html>
- 684 47. CDC. Weekly US Influenza Surveillance Report: Key Updates for Week 20, ending May 17,
685 2025 [Internet]. FluView. 2025 [cited 2025 July 8];Available from:
686 <https://www.cdc.gov/fluview/surveillance/2025-week-20.html>

- 687 48. Ben Moussa M, Nwosu A, Schmidt K, et al. National Influenza Annual Report 2023–2024: A
688 focus on influenza B and public health implications. *Can Commun Dis Rep* 50(11):393–9.
- 689 49. Zhou B, Lin X, Wang W, et al. Universal Influenza B Virus Genomic Amplification Facilitates
690 Sequencing, Diagnostics, and Reverse Genetics. *J Clin Microbiol* 2014;52(5):1330–7.
- 691 50. Nogales A, Perez DR, Santos J, Finch C, Martínez-Sobrido L. Reverse Genetics of Influenza B
692 Viruses [Internet]. In: Perez DR, editor. *Reverse Genetics of RNA Viruses: Methods and*
693 *Protocols*. New York, NY: Springer; 2017 [cited 2025 Jan 29]. p. 205–38. Available from:
694 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4939-6964-7_14
- 695 51. Cardenas-Garcia S, Caceres CJ, Rajao D, Perez DR. Reverse genetics for influenza B viruses
696 and recent advances in vaccine development. *Curr Opin Virol* 2020;44:191–202.
- 697 52. Neher RA, Huddleston J, Bedford T, et al. Nomenclature for Tracking of Genetic Variation of
698 Seasonal Influenza Viruses. *Influenza Other Respir Viruses* 2026;20(2):e70230.
- 699 53. Aksamentov I, Roemer C, Hodcroft EB, Neher RA. Nextclade: clade assignment, mutation
700 calling and quality control for viral genomes. *J Open Source Softw* 2021;6(67):3773.
- 701 54. Hadfield J, Megill C, Bell SM, et al. Nextstrain: real-time tracking of pathogen evolution.
702 *Bioinformatics* 2018;34(23):4121–3.
- 703 55. Tomasello G, Armenia I, Molla G. The Protein Imager: a full-featured online molecular
704 viewer interface with server-side HQ-rendering capabilities. *Bioinformatics*
705 2020;36(9):2909–11.
- 706 56. Huddleston J, Hadfield J, Sibley TR, et al. Augur: a bioinformatics toolkit for phylogenetic
707 analyses of human pathogens. *J Open Source Softw* 2021;6(57):2906.
- 708 57. Nguyen L-T, Schmidt HA, von Haeseler A, Minh BQ. IQ-TREE: A Fast and Effective Stochastic
709 Algorithm for Estimating Maximum-Likelihood Phylogenies. *Mol Biol Evol* 2015;32(1):268–
710 74.
- 711 58. Sagulenko P, Puller V, Neher RA. TreeTime: Maximum-likelihood phylodynamic analysis.
712 *Virus Evol* 2018;4(1):vex042.
- 713 59. Engler JB. TidypLOTS empowers life scientists with easy code-based data visualization. *iMeta*
714 2025;4(2):e70018.

715

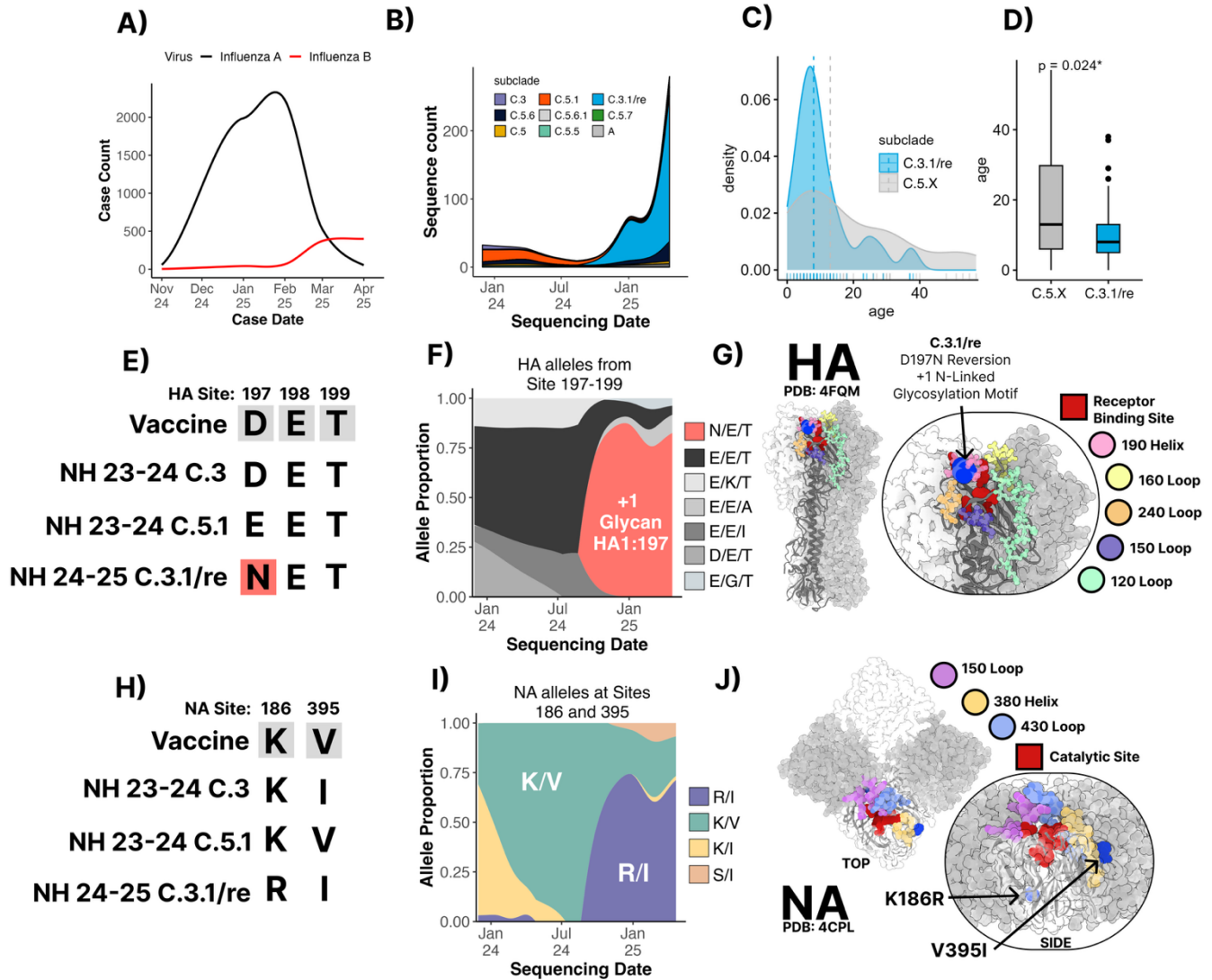


Figure 1. Emergence of Influenza B/Victoria/16/1987-like C.3.1 subclade, acquisition of a novel glycosylation site, and age-related infection bias. (A) Weekly clinical case counts of influenza A (black) and B (red) reported from November 2024 to April 2025. (B) Longitudinal distribution of IBV B/Victoria HA subclades (colored by clade) based on sequencing data. (C) Kernel density estimate of patient age for sequences classified as C.3 (blue) or C.5.X (gray). Tick marks below each curve indicate individual ages. (D) Boxplot comparison of age distribution for C.3 versus all C.5-lineages (C.5.X) (Wilcoxon test, $p = 0.024^*$). (E) Sequence alignment of HA (residues 197–199) protein motifs across the vaccine strain, parental C.5.1, C.3 and 2024-25 C.3 (B/Brisbane/08/2008 numbering). (F) The 2024–25 C.3 subclade acquired an N-linked glycosylation site with a 197N mutation, whereas C.5.1 retained the 197E motif. (G) Structural mapping of the D197N substitution onto the HA trimer (PDB: 4FMQ). Influenza B HA Antigenic sites are annotated. (H) NA sequence alignments reveal substitutions V395I and K186R. (I) the penetrance of mutations at positions 395 and 186 in the population over time. (J) NA structures showing the position of the V395I substitution in the 380-helix antigenic site and the K186R on the basal side of the NA enzymatic active site.

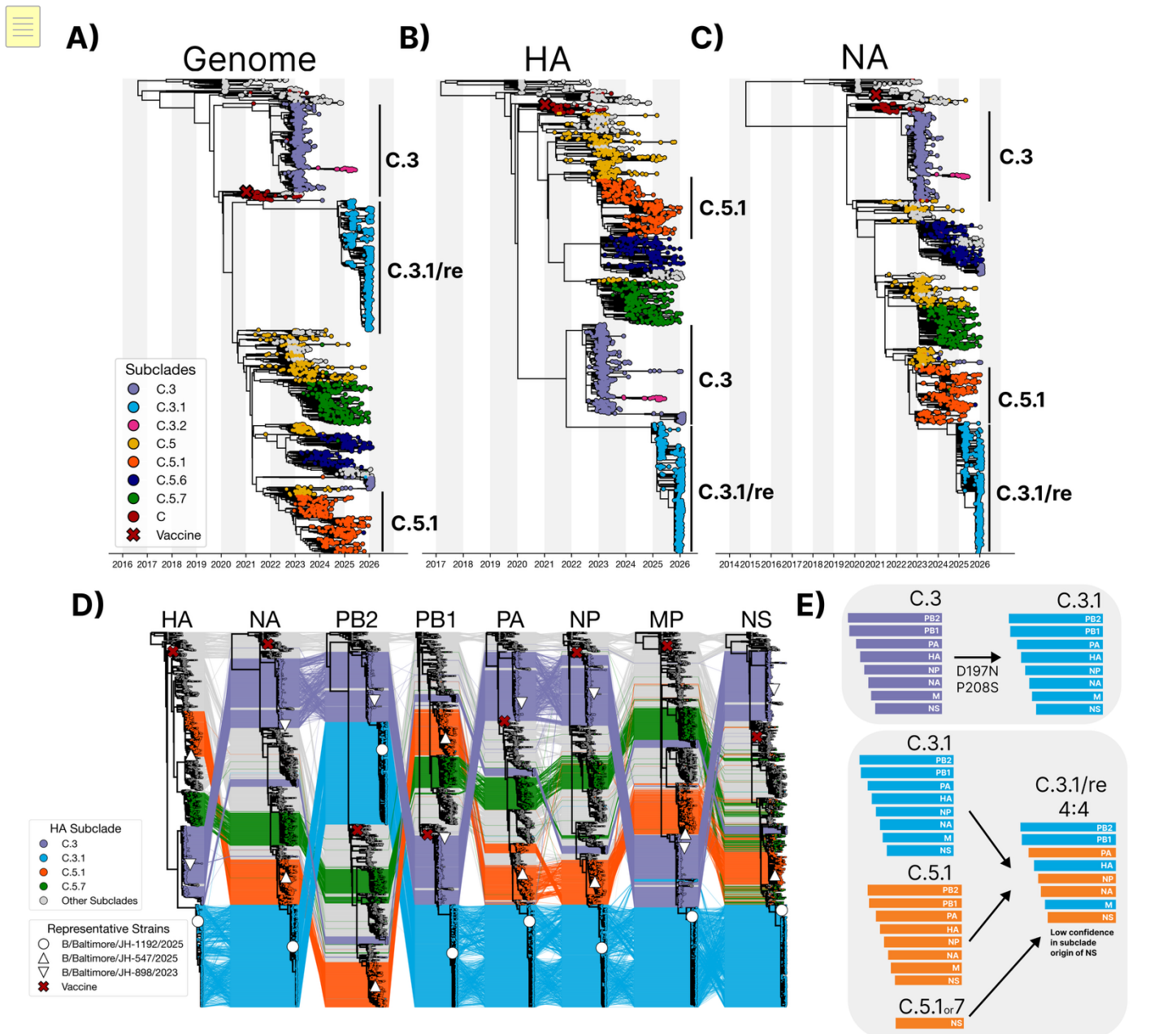


Figure 2 –2024-25 C.3 subclade viruses are 4:4 reassortment progeny with NA and internal segments derived from C.5.1 defined as C.3.1/re.

(A) C.3-enriched maximum-likelihood phylogeny of concatenated genomes or HA **(B)** or NA **(C)** gene trees with tips colored by subclade. Major subclades (C.3, C.3.1, C.3.2, C.5, C.5.1, C.5.6, C.5.7, and C) are annotated by color and the 2024-25 vaccine strain tip (B/Austria/1359417/2021) is annotated by shape (X). Branch lengths were refined to inferred coalescent events using collection (reference strains) or sequencing date (JHH isolates) using augur refine. Tree tips belonging to C.3 in the concatenated **(A)** or NA **(C)** gene trees belong to separate reassortment events discussed in Figure 5. **(D)** A tanglegram consisting of 8 gene trees for each IBV segment interleaved and colored by HA subclade identity reveal a 4:4 reassortment with NA, PA, and NP clustering with the C.5.1 clade of each gene tree. The C.3.1/re NS segment clusters in a diverged cluster containing strains with definitive C.5.1 and C.5.7 HA membership. Auspice JSONs were ingested and visualized using Baltic. **(E)** A cartoon schematic representing the C.3 to C.3.1 clade advance and inferred segment ancestry of C.3.1/re from each of the 8 gene trees in relation to the clinical specimen's HA subclade membership.

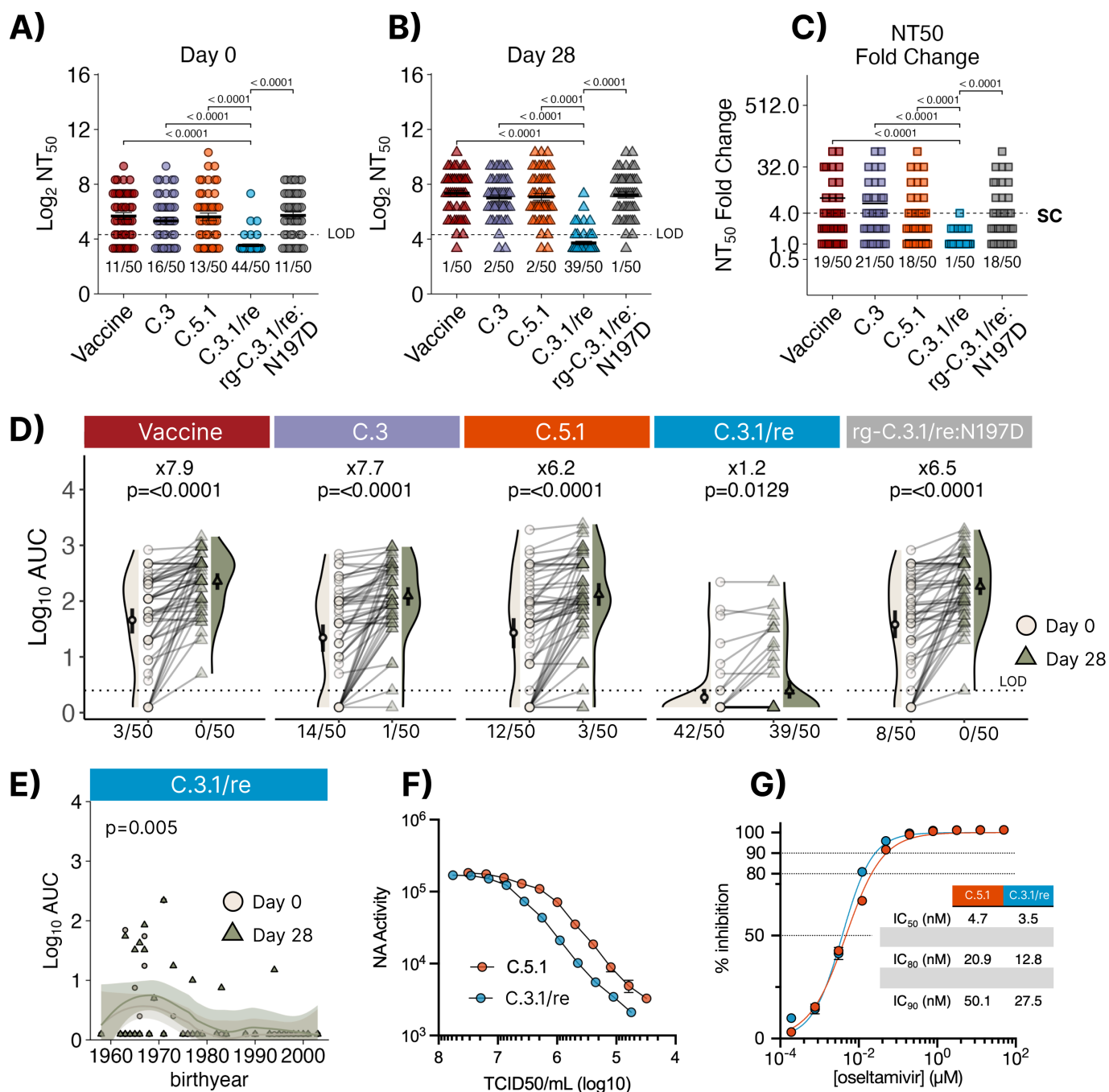


Figure 3. The C.3.re subclade is antigenically drifted compared to parental viruses and encodes a neuraminidase with lower sialidase activity per infectious unit. The Johns Hopkins CEIRR Network influenza vaccine cohort consisted of 50 individuals receiving the 2024-25 trivalent Northern Hemisphere influenza vaccine formulation. Serum neutralizing antibody titers (NT₅₀) with mean and standard error plotted (A) at the time of vaccination (Day 0) and (B) 28 days post vaccination against the 2024-25 B/Victoria vaccine strain (B/Austria/1359417/2021 subclade C) and a representative 2024-25 C.5.1 dominant parental (B/Baltimore/JH-547/2024 subclade C.5.1) or a representative 2024-25 C.3.1/re reassortment virus (B/Baltimore/JH-1192/2025). Each point on the graph represents an individuals' observed titer where circles denote Day 0 and triangles denote Day 28. The number of seronegative individuals over the total number of individuals analyzed are shown under the datapoints for each virus. (C) NT₅₀ fold change for day 0 to day 28 was used to determine seroconversion which was defined as a NT₅₀ ≥ 4. Individuals who seroconverted are shown as a fraction out of 50 beneath each data group. The dotted line represents the limit of detection (LOD), defined as the lowest value considered to be NT₅₀ positive at the starting dilution of 1/20. No neutralizing activity is graphed as one-half the LOD. (D) Area under the curve (AUC) was calculated and used to show changes in titers at day 0 and day 28 post vaccination with an LOD set to 2.5. AUC fold change is shown above pairings. The lines connect the same individual's AUC titers between collection timepoints. The number of seronegative individuals over the total number of individuals analyzed are shown under the datapoints for each virus. Statistical analysis within or between non-transformed NT₅₀ or AUC timepoint values was performed using paired Wilcoxon tests with Bonferroni correction post-hoc. Adjusted p-values are shown above significantly different comparisons. (E) Log₁₀ AUC plotted

against birthyear for C.3.1/re. Each point represents a single participant AUC titer at baseline or 28-days post vaccination. Timepoint AUC values were fit against a non-linear model (loess). Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric test with Bonferroni's correction for age analyses. **F**) Neuraminidase (NA) activity was measured via NA-Star assay across serial dilutions of viral seed stocks. Oseltamivir resistance (**G**) was evaluated using the NA-Star assay. The amount of virus used in each reaction corresponded to the dilution that produced approximately 10^4 RLU. Each symbol represents the mean of eight biological replicates, and error bars denote standard deviation. Inhibitory concentrations (IC_{50} , IC_{80} , and IC_{90}) were derived from nonlinear regression curves fitted using a log(agonist) vs. normalized response model.

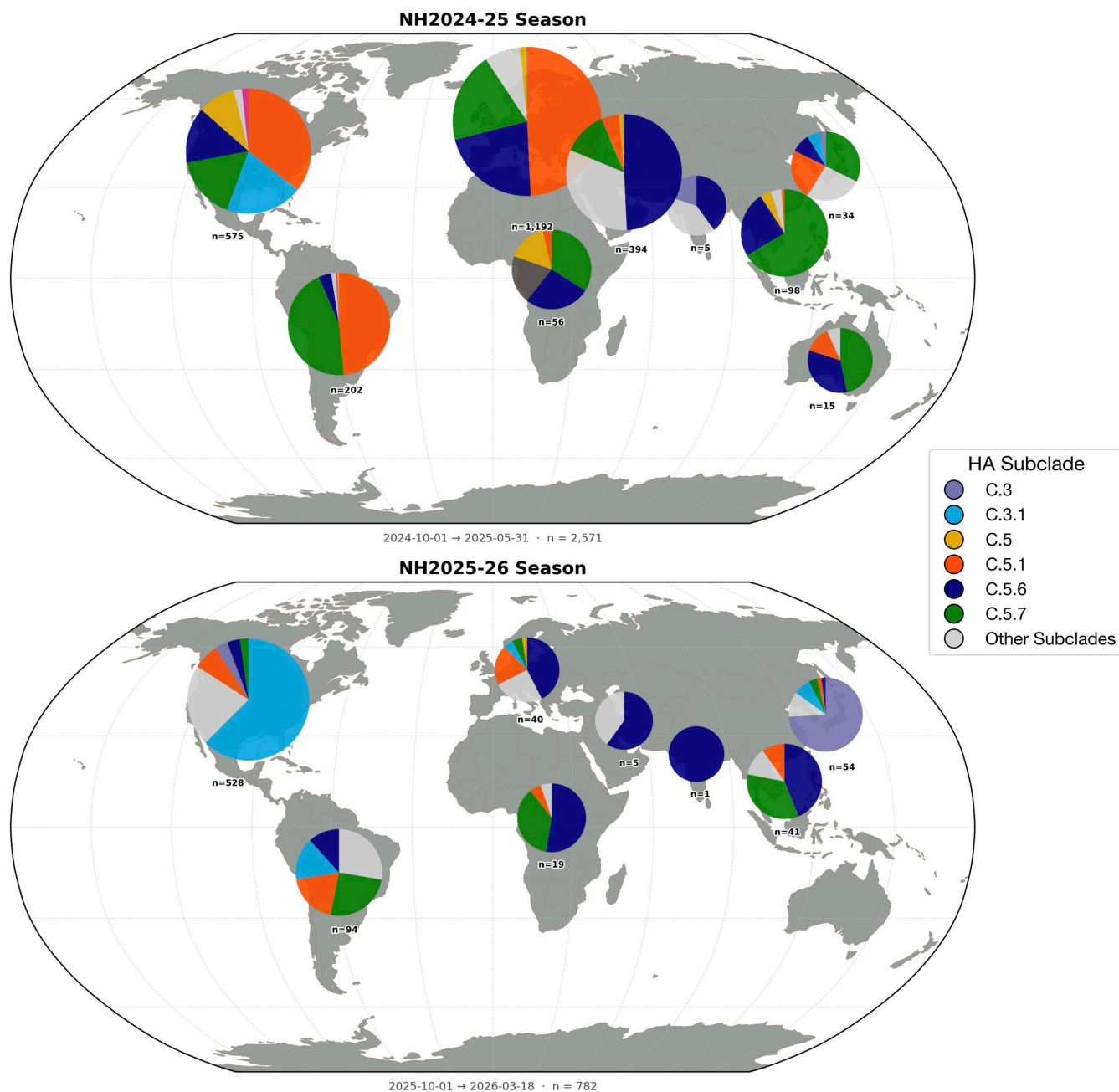


Figure 4. Global distribution of Influenza B subclades across two subsequent Northern Hemisphere Influenza seasons as of March 18, 2026. Bubble size represents relative sequence abundance of IBV hemagglutinin sequences deposited to GISAID between October 2020 and March 18, 2026. Colors represent the fraction of HA subclade abundance as assigned by Nextclade (see methods). The major circulating C.5 lineages and C.3 lineages are highlighted. Other minor circulating clades are colored grey with more detailed regional subclade abundance over time outlined in Supplemental Figure 1. Bubble placement is defined by region: North America, South America, Europe, Africa, West Asia, East Asia South Asia, Japan/Korea and Oceania.

A)

		Putative Segment Ancestry								Genotype	HA1:197 Glycan?
		HA	NA	PB2	PB1	PA	NP	MP	NS		
△	B/Baltimore/JH-547/2025	C.5.1	C.5.1	C.5.1	C.5.1	C.5.1	C.5.1	C.5.1	C.5.1	-	No
▽	B/Baltimore/JH-898/2023	C.3	C.3	C.3	C.3	C.3	C.3	C.3	C.3	-	No
○	B/Baltimore/JH-1192/2025	C.3.1	C.5.1	C.3.1	C.3.1	C.5.1	C.5.1	C.3.1	?	C.3.1/re	Yes
◇	B/TOKYO/EIS14680/2026	C.3	C.5.6	C.5.6	C.5	C.5	C.5	C.5.7	?	C.3/re	Yes
□	B/Pennsylvania/NIRC-AV-1002/2026	C.3	C.5	C.5	C.5	C.5	C.3	C.5	C.3	C.3/re.1	Yes

B)

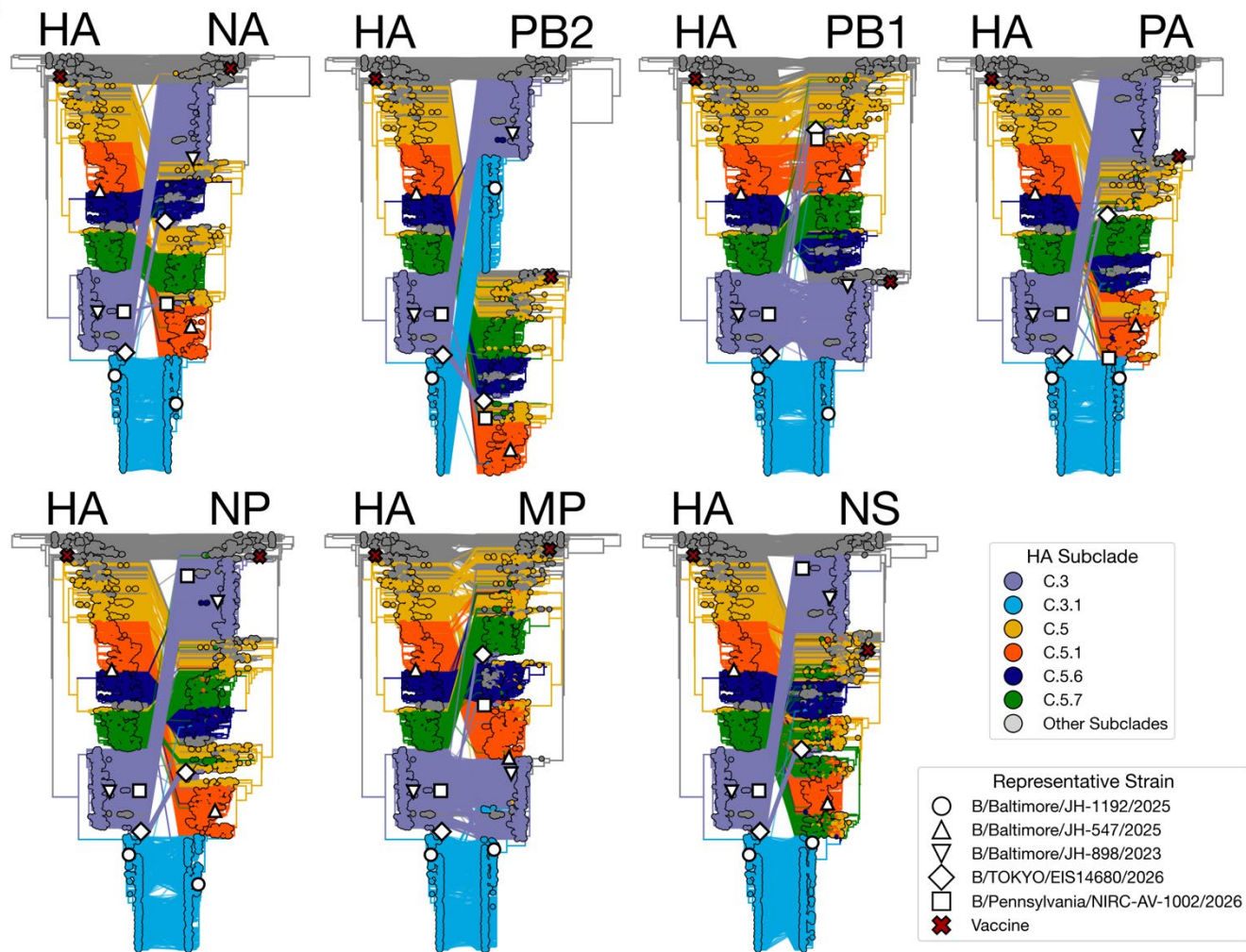


Figure 5. Putative ancestries of 2 additional reassortment events denoted at C.3/re and C.3/re.1. (A) Genome-identity schematics of the non-reassorted C.5.1 or C.3 parental genomes and corresponding C.3.1/re, C.3/re and C.3/re.1 reassortment segment constellations with their corresponding genotype name if reassorted. Each parental virus or reassortment event is a corresponding shape and representative strain which corresponds to its location in each of the 8 segment phylogenies **(B)**. Gene-level phylogenies of all 8 segments were constructed and compared pairwise with the HA gene tree. Segments were assigned HA subclade ancestry based on the HA subclade assignment of their most recent common ancestor (MRCA) within each segment tree. We assigned tree tip colors by HA subclade identity. HA subclade identity was transferred from the HA tree to the same tip in each of the 7 remaining segment trees. Tree tips are colored by HA subclade identity and connected by lines corresponding to their placement in the annotated gene phylogeny. Phylogenies were visualized in Baltic and formatted in Figma 125.9.10

Table 1. 2024-25 Influenza B virus subclade sequence counts submitted by the Johns Hopkins Hospital System (JHHS) or uploaded to GISAID filtered to North American sequences.

Subclade	Global	Johns Hopkins Hospital System (JHHS)	North America - Excluding JHHS
C.2	11 (0.5%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
C.3	5 (0.2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
C.3.1	2 (0.1%)	75 (58.1%)	115 (20.5%)
C.3.2	1 (0%)	1 (0.8%)	10 (1.8%)
C.5	35 (1.7%)	4 (3.1%)	56 (10%)
C.5.1	729 (36.3%)	15 (11.6%)	193 (34.3%)
C.5.6	511 (25.4%)	27 (20.9%)	83 (14.8%)
C.5.6.1	238 (11.8%)	2 (1.6%)	12 (2.1%)
C.5.7	478 (23.8%)	5 (3.9%)	93 (16.5%)

Data Source: JHHS and GISAID between 2024-10-01 to 2025-05-31

Table 2. 2024-25 JHJ-CEIRR Vaccine Cohort characteristics, demographics, and geometric mean titers for all assessments described. Per Internal Review Board (IRB) directive, categories representing less than 4 individuals in total are summarized as <4. For qualitative data and co-morbidities, Fisher's exact test was used to generate p-values shown. For baseline and post-vaccination immunity readouts, adjusted p-values shown were calculated via Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric test with Bonferroni's correction for age analyses, and Dunn's test for multiple comparisons for sex analyses, both with Bonferroni's corrections. Bolded p-values are significant (i.e., $p < 0.05$).

	By sex				By age group				
	Female	Male	Total	p-value	18-44	45-55	56-70	Total	p-value
n (%)	25 (50.00)	25 (50.00)	50 (100.00)		24 (48.00)	12 (24.00)	14 (28.00)	50 (100.00)	
female, n (%)	25 (100.00)	0 (0.00)	25 (50.00)		10 (41.67)	9 (75.00)	6 (42.86)	25 (50.00)	
age in years, mean (SD)	44.44 (13.86)	44.44 (14.12)	44.44 (13.85)	1	31.71 (6.40)	50.25 (2.73)	61.29 (2.84)	44.44 (13.85)	-
BMI, mean (SD)	27.52 (5.75)	27.88 (5.61)	27.70 (5.63)	0.82	25.88 (5.36)	28.36 (4.30)	30.36 (6.26)	27.70 (5.63)	0.06
Vaccine History, n (%)									
seasonal vaccine NH 2024-2025	25 (100.00)	25 (100.00)	50 (100.00)	>0.99	24 (100.00)	12 (100.00)	14 (100.00)	50 (100.00)	>0.99
no seasonal vaccine NH 2023-2024	<4	<4	4 (8.00)	0.61	<4	<4	0 (0.00)	4 (8.00)	0.45
no seasonal vaccine in any of previous 5 seasons	0 (0.00)	<4	2 (4.00)	0.09	<4	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	<4	0.28
Baseline Neutralization Titer 50%, GMT (geom. SD)									
Clade C - B/Austria/1359417/2021	50 (3.25)	53 (3.60)	51 (3.38)	0.859	60 (3.46)	32 (3.18)	59 (3.34)	51 (3.38)	0.440
Clade C.5.1 - B/Baltimore/JH-547/2024	43 (3.79)	56 (3.89)	49 (3.81)	0.447	34 (2.91)	57 (5.82)	84 (3.42)	49 (3.81)	0.117
Clade C.3.1/re - B/Baltimore/JH-1192/2025	11 (1.32)	13 (1.88)	12 (1.63)	0.092	10 (1.00)	13 (2.23)	14 (1.69)	12 (1.63)	0.005
Clade C.3 - B/Baltimore/JH-898/2023	43 (3.79)	56 (3.89)	49 (3.81)	0.447	34 (2.91)	57 (5.82)	84 (3.42)	49 (3.81)	0.117
rg-B/Baltimore/JH1192/2025:[N197D]	50 (3.14)	56 (3.66)	53 (3.36)	0.745	49 (3.21)	34 (4.02)	88 (2.75)	53 (3.36)	0.135
Post-vaccination Neutralization Titer 50%, GMT (geom. SD)									
Clade C - B/Austria/1359417/2021	169 (3.10)	156 (2.91)	162 (2.97)	0.803	165 (2.92)	135 (3.77)	186 (2.58)	162 (2.97)	>0.99
Clade C.5.1 - B/Baltimore/JH-547/2024	132 (2.86)	139 (4.06)	135 (3.41)	0.812	120 (3.06)	143 (4.11)	160 (3.68)	135 (3.41)	>0.99
Clade C.3.1/re - B/Baltimore/JH-1192/2025	11 (1.39)	16 (2.16)	13 (1.84)	0.073	11 (1.22)	14 (2.25)	18 (2.14)	13 (1.84)	0.025
Clade C.3 - B/Baltimore/JH-898/2023	121 (2.83)	135 (2.95)	128 (2.86)	0.774	127 (2.30)	120 (3.81)	138 (3.29)	128 (2.86)	>0.99
rg-B/Baltimore/JH1192/2025:[N197D]	174 (2.57)	128 (3.47)	149 (3.02)	0.470	131 (2.86)	113 (3.69)	238 (2.54)	149 (3.02)	0.290
Baseline AUC, GMT (geom. SD)									
Clade C - B/Austria/1359417/2021	47 (5.96)	44 (8.00)	46 (6.81)	0.807	64 (5.21)	21 (7.94)	50 (8.61)	46 (6.81)	0.415
Clade C.5.1 - B/Baltimore/JH-547/2024	21 (9.85)	34 (9.83)	27 (9.73)	0.427	17 (8.19)	22 (17.18)	71 (6.37)	27 (9.73)	0.188
Clade C.3.1/re - B/Baltimore/JH-1192/2025	2 (2.25)	2 (3.88)	2 (3.08)	0.125	1 (1.00)	2 (4.43)	3 (4.39)	2 (3.08)	0.002
Clade C.3 - B/Baltimore/JH-898/2023	20 (9.18)	24 (7.68)	22 (8.24)	0.883	14 (7.39)	23 (12.97)	44 (6.12)	22 (8.24)	0.441
rg-B/Baltimore/JH1192/2025:[N197D]	36 (7.55)	40 (8.54)	38 (7.87)	0.633	39 (6.86)	13 (10.64)	92 (5.46)	38 (7.87)	0.080
Post-vaccination AUC, GMT (geom. SD)									
Clade C - B/Austria/1359417/2021	228 (3.52)	227 (3.14)	227 (3.29)	0.875	238 (3.07)	160 (4.68)	284 (2.61)	227 (3.29)	0.908
Clade C.5.1 - B/Baltimore/JH-547/2024	125 (4.65)	139 (6.84)	132 (5.61)	0.734	104 (5.67)	156 (6.38)	173 (5.27)	132 (5.61)	0.777
Clade C.3.1/re - B/Baltimore/JH-1192/2025	2 (2.65)	3 (5.14)	2 (3.95)	0.089	1 (1.84)	3 (5.20)	5 (5.87)	2 (3.95)	0.028
Clade C.3 - B/Baltimore/JH-898/2023	117 (3.85)	133 (4.89)	124 (4.30)	0.800	133 (3.15)	93 (6.95)	143 (4.71)	124 (4.30)	>0.99
rg-B/Baltimore/JH1192/2025:[N197D]	211 (2.91)	162 (4.61)	185 (3.71)	0.726	158 (3.16)	118 (5.30)	358 (2.83)	185 (3.71)	0.147
Race, n (%)									
White	19 (76.00)	14 (56.00)	33 (66.00)	0.23	15 (62.50)	9 (75.00)	9 (64.29)	33 (66.00)	0.8
Hispanic/Latino	<4	<4	5 (15.15)	>0.99	<4	<4	<4	5 (15.15)	0.48
Non-hispanic/Non-latino	16 (84.21)	12 (85.71)	28 (84.85)	>0.99	12 (80.00)	7 (78.78)	9 (100.00)	28 (84.85)	0.48
Black	<4	7 (28.00)	10 (20.00)	0.29	5 (20.83)	<4	<4	10 (20.00)	0.53
Hispanic/Latino	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-
Non-hispanic/Non-latino	<4	7 (100.00)	10 (100.00)	-	<4	<4	<4	10 (100.00)	-
Asian/Pacific Islander	<4	<4	<4	>0.99	<4	<4	<4	<4	0.6
American Indian or Alaska Native	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-
Other	<4	<4	<4	>0.99	<4	<4	<4	4 (8.00)	>0.99
N/A	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-
Comorbidities, n (%)									
Transplant recipient	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-
Cancer (ongoing or remission)	<4	0 (0.00)	<4	0.49	0 (0.00)	<4	<4	<4	0.27
Type II Diabetes	<4	5 (20.00)	6 (12.00)	0.19	0 (0.00)	<4	5 (35.71)	6 (12.00)	0.004
Autoimmune disease	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-
Immunosuppressive medication	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-
Methotrexate	-	-	0 (0.00)	-	-	-	-	0 (0.00)	-
Tacrolimus	-	-	0 (0.00)	-	-	-	-	0 (0.00)	-
Mycophenolate	-	-	0 (0.00)	-	-	-	-	0 (0.00)	-
Other	-	-	0 (0.00)	-	-	-	-	0 (0.00)	-
Hepatic disease	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-
Renal disease	<4	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	>0.99	<4	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	<4	>0.99
Cardiovascular disease	<4	<4	4 (8.00)	0.61	0 (0.00)	<4	<4	4 (8.00)	0.088
Chronic lung disease	<4	<4	4 (8.00)	0.61	<4	<4	0 (0.00)	4 (8.00)	0.25
Asthma	<4	0 (0.00)	<4	>0.99	<4	<4	0 (0.00)	<4	>0.99
Other	0 (0.00)	<4	<4	>0.99	<4	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	<4	>0.99
Neurological disorder	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-
Epilepsy	-	-	0 (0.00)	-	-	-	-	0 (0.00)	-
Stroke	-	-	0 (0.00)	-	-	-	-	0 (0.00)	-
Hematological disease	<4	0 (0.00)	<4	0.49	<4	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	<4	>0.99
Sickle cell disease	0 (0.00)	-	0 (0.00)	-	0 (0.00)	-	-	0 (0.00)	-
Anemia (non-sickle cell)	<4	-	<4	-	<4	-	-	<4	-
Other	<4	-	<4	-	<4	-	-	<4	-
Reproductive disease	7 (28.00)	0 (0.00)	7 (14.00)	0.0003	<4	5 (41.67)	0 (0.00)	7 (14.00)	0.09
PCOS	<4	-	<4	-	<4	0 (0.00)	-	<4	-

Endometriosis	0 (0.00)	-	0 (0.00)	-	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-	0 (0.00)	-
Primary ovarian insufficiency	0 (0.00)	-	0 (0.00)	-	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	-	0 (0.00)	-
Hysterectomy (full or partial)	4 (57.14)	-	4 (57.14)	0.02	0 (0.00)	4 (80.00)	-	4 (57.14)	0.0046
Other	<4	-	<4	>0.99	<4	<4	-	<4	>0.99
Endocrine/Metabolic disease	<4	<4	4 (8.00)	0.35	<4	<4	<4	4 (8.00)	0.42
Thyroid	<4	<4	4 (100.00)	0.61	<4	<4	<4	4 (100.00)	0.68
Smoking history	<4	<4	5 (10.00)	>0.99	<4	<4	<4	5 (10.00)	0.84
Current smoker?	<4	<4	<4	>0.99	0 (0.00)	<4	<4	<4	0.58
Past smoker?	<4	<4	<4	>0.99	<4	0 (0.00)	<4	<4	0.58