

1 Mapping the antigenic diversification of SARS-CoV-2

2

3 Karlijn van der Straten^{1,3}, Denise Guerra^{1,2}, Marit J. van Gils^{1,2}, Ilja Bontjer^{1,2},
4 Tom G. Caniels^{1,2}, Hugo D.G. van Willigen^{1,2}, Elke Wynberg⁴, Meliawati Poniman^{1,2}, Judith A.
5 Burger^{1,2}, Joey H. Bouhuijs^{1,2}, Jacqueline van Rijswijk^{1,2}, Wouter Olijhoek^{1,2}, Marinus H.
6 Liesdek^{1,3}, A. H. Ayesha Lavell^{2,5}, Brent Appelman⁶, Jonne J. Sikkens^{2,5}, Marije K. Bomers^{2,5},
7 Alvin X. Han^{1,2}, Brooke E. Nichols^{1,2,7}, Maria Prins^{3,4}, Harry Vennema⁸, Chantal Reusken⁸,
8 Menno D. de Jong^{1,2}, Godelieve J. de Bree³, Colin A. Russell^{1,2*}, Dirk Eggink^{1,2,8*}, Rogier W.
9 Sanders^{1,2,9*}

10

11

12 ¹ Amsterdam UMC location University of Amsterdam, Department of Medical Microbiology
13 and Infection prevention, Laboratory of Experimental Virology, Meibergdreef 9, 1105 AZ
14 Amsterdam, The Netherlands

15 ² Amsterdam institute for Infection and Immunity, Infectious diseases, Amsterdam, The
16 Netherlands

17 ³ Amsterdam UMC location University of Amsterdam, Department of Internal Medicine,
18 Meibergdreef 9, 1105 AZ Amsterdam, The Netherlands

19 ⁴ Department of Infectious Diseases, Public Health Service of Amsterdam, GGD, 1018 WT
20 Amsterdam, The Netherlands

21 ⁵ Amsterdam UMC location VU University Amsterdam, Department of Internal Medicine,
22 Boelelaan 1117, 1081 HV Amsterdam, The Netherlands

23 ⁶ Amsterdam UMC location University of Amsterdam, Center for Experimental and
24 Molecular Medicine, Meibergdreef 9, 1105 AZ Amsterdam, The Netherlands

25 ⁷ Department of Global Health, Boston University School of Public Health, Boston, USA

26 ⁸ Centre for Infectious Disease Control, National Institute for Public Health and the
27 Environment, 3721 MA Bilthoven, The Netherlands

28 ⁹ Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Weill Medical College of Cornell University,
29 New York, USA

30 * correspondence to:

31 c.a.russell@amsterdamumc.nl, dirk.eggink@rivm.nl, r.w.sanders@amsterdamumc.nl

32 **Summary**

33 Large-scale vaccination campaigns have prevented countless hospitalizations and deaths
34 due to COVID-19. However, the emergence of SARS-CoV-2 variants that escape from
35 immunity challenges the effectiveness of current vaccines. Given this continuing evolution,
36 an important question is when and how to update SARS-CoV-2 vaccines to antigenically
37 match circulating variants, similar to seasonal influenza viruses where antigenic drift
38 necessitates periodic vaccine updates. Here, we studied SARS-CoV-2 antigenic drift by
39 assessing neutralizing activity against variants-of-concern (VOCs) of a unique set of sera
40 from patients infected with a range of VOCs. Infections with D614G or Alpha strains induced
41 the broadest immunity, while individuals infected with other VOCs had more strain-specific
42 responses. Omicron BA.1 and BA.2 were substantially resistant to neutralization by sera
43 elicited by all other variants. Antigenic cartography revealed that Omicron BA.1 and BA.2 are
44 antigenically most distinct from D614G, associated with immune escape and likely requiring
45 vaccine updates to ensure vaccine effectiveness.

46

47 **Keywords:** SARS-CoV-2, variants of concern (VOCs), convalescent, vaccination,
48 neutralization, antibodies, antigenic cartography

49 **Main text**

50 The COVID-19 pandemic, caused by the SARS-CoV-2 virus, represents an enormous threat to
51 human health and a burden to healthcare systems and economies worldwide. The
52 unprecedented rapid development of efficacious vaccines fuelled hope of curtailing this
53 pandemic and permitting a return to a society without societal restrictions. However,
54 genetic drift of SARS-CoV-2 resulted in the emergence of multiple variants of concern (VOCs)
55 with a higher transmissibility compared to the ancestral strain, and that challenge the
56 effectiveness of public health measures, vaccines and/or therapeutics (World Health
57 Organization, 2021). Based on this definition, the WHO designated the Alpha (Pango lineage
58 B.1.1.7), Beta (B.1.351), Gamma (P.1), Delta (B.1.617.2) and Omicron (B.1.1.529, sublineages
59 BA.1 and BA.2) variants as VOCs. The Alpha, Beta, Gamma and Delta VOCs have
60 approximately 7 to 12 mutations in the Spike protein (S), while Omicron BA.1 with 34
61 mutations, of which 3 deletions, and BA.2 with 28 mutations, differ substantially more from
62 the ancestral strain (Figure 1A)(World Health Organization, 2021). Approximately half of
63 Omicron's S mutations are located in the Receptor Binding Domain (RBD) and eight
64 mutations in the N-terminal domain (NTD), the two most important antigenic site of S.
65 Indeed, sera from COVID-19 patients infected with the ancestral strain and sera from
66 vaccinees show up to 7-fold and 4-fold reductions in neutralization activity against Beta and
67 Gamma, while 20 to 40-fold reductions are observed against Omicron BA.1 (Caniels et al.,
68 2021; Garcia-Beltran et al., 2021; van Gils et al., 2022; Wilhelm et al., 2021).

69 However, the precise antigenic relationships between these VOCs are only starting
70 to become clear. Understanding the differences between the serological antibody responses
71 elicited by these variants is important to assess the risk of re-infections after natural
72 infection and breakthrough infections after vaccination. For seasonal influenza viruses, this
73 type of antigenic data is combined with virus genetic and epidemiological data to quantify
74 the evolution of the virus and guide annual updates of the seasonal influenza virus vaccines.
75 Antigenic cartography can be used to visualize antigenic relationships between viral variants
76 (Fonville et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2004) and is routinely used in influenza virus vaccines
77 strain selection. Until recently, antigenic cartography for SARS-CoV-2 has only been applied
78 to cohorts of COVID-19 patients with uncertainty about their history of previous SARS-CoV-2
79 exposure and COVID-19 vaccinations, and without the usage of Omicron infected human

80 data (Liu et al., 2021; Mykytyn et al., 2022; Wilks et al., 2022). Here, we studied the (cross-
81)neutralizing antibody responses in sera from a well-defined population of convalescent
82 individuals with a sequence confirmed, or high likelihood of, primary infection by the
83 D614G, Alpha, Beta, Gamma, Delta or Omicron BA.1 or BA.2 variants and used this data as
84 input for antigenic cartography to map the antigenic evolution of SARS-CoV-2.

85

86 We collected and analysed a unique set of serum samples from 66 COVID-19 patients with a
87 PCR-confirmed primary SARS-CoV-2 infection who did not receive any COVID-19
88 vaccinations. Blood was drawn 3 to 11 weeks after symptom onset (median 40 days, range
89 24 to 75 days), which corresponds with the peak of the antibody response (Table 1 and
90 Table S1)(Long et al., 2020). In total, n=20 D614G, n=11 Alpha, n=8 Beta, n=4 Gamma, n=11
91 Delta, n=8 Omicron BA.1 and n=4 Omicron BA.2 infected participants were included. Of
92 these participants, 39 had a sequence-confirmed VOC infection. The other 27 participants
93 met our inclusion criteria of a high likelihood of VOC infection (see STAR Methods section
94 and Table S1), of which 20 participants were assumed to be infected with the D614G strain
95 as they were sampled before the emergence of any VOC in the Netherlands, but after
96 D614G became dominant (Korber et al., 2020).

97 We assessed the neutralizing capacity of the convalescent sera in a lentiviral-based
98 pseudovirus neutralization assay against the D614G strain, the Alpha, two Beta, the Gamma,
99 Delta and Omicron BA.1 and BA.2 variants (Figure 1A). The two Beta subvariants differ from
100 each other in the NTD, where one Beta subvariant (L242H, R246I) is based on a very early
101 available sequence while the other (Δ 242-244) is retrospectively more representative for
102 the predominant circulating strains.

103 The highest neutralization titres were generally measured against the homologous
104 virus, as might be expected (Figure 1A and Figure S1A). Only the Beta infected participants
105 showed higher cross-neutralization titres against the Gamma variant compared to
106 homologous neutralization, which is in line with other research(Wilks *et al.*, 2022). This
107 might be explained by the shared RBD mutations, as the RBDs of these variants only differ
108 by one amino acid (K417N in Beta *versus* K417T in Gamma). Our analyses suffer somewhat
109 from a disbalance in hospitalized versus non-hospitalized patients between the different
110 VOC groups(Table 1). However, when comparing only non-hospitalized patients which
111 generally have lower antibody levels compared to hospitalized patients, patients infected

112 with the Alpha variant showed the strongest homologous neutralization (1881 IU/mL, range
113 1658 to 2103 IU/mL), followed by individuals infected with the Gamma variant (median of
114 156 IU/mL, range 22 to 761 IU/mL), the D614G strain (median of 90 IU/mL, range 28 to 237
115 IU/mL) the Delta variant (median of 85 IU/mL, range 10 to 1635 IU/mL), the Omicron BA.2
116 (median of 64 IU/mL, range 10 to 95 IU/mL) and the Omicron BA.1 variant (median of 23
117 IU/mL, range 10 to 90 IU/mL) (Figure S1A). By contrast, none of the Beta infected
118 participants showed substantial homologous neutralization against either Beta subvariants
119 (Figure 1A, Figure S2).

120 Overall, the VOCs differed in their capacity to induce cross-neutralizing antibodies.
121 Individuals infected with the Alpha variant induced the broadest response, followed by
122 D614G strain-infected, Gamma-infected and Delta-infected patients (Figure 1A, Figure 1B
123 and Figure S1B), though there was substantial heterogeneity within all groups. Notably,
124 none of the patients infected with the Beta, Omicron BA.1 or Omicron BA.2 variants showed
125 substantial cross-neutralization activity.

126 Reductions in neutralizing activity against the two Omicron variants were substantial
127 in all groups (Figure 1A and 1B). Omicron neutralization dropped below the limit of
128 detection (10 IU/mL or an ID₅₀ of 100) in 44/66 of the studied individuals for BA.1 and 37/66
129 for BA.2. The median fold-reduction of Omicron BA.1 neutralization versus homologous
130 neutralization was 9-fold (range 1 to 93-fold) when considering all patients, 10-fold (range 3
131 to 93-fold) for patients infected with a D614G strain, 52-fold (range 11 to 89-fold) for Alpha,
132 6-fold (range 1 to 22-fold) for Gamma, and 6-fold (range 1 to 51-fold) for Delta infected
133 patients. The median fold-reduction of Omicron BA.2 neutralization versus homologous
134 neutralization was 5.4-fold (range -3.7 to 134-fold) when considering all patients, 8-fold
135 (range 3 to 47-fold) for patients infected with D614G strain, 68-fold (range 18 to 134-fold)
136 for Alpha, 6-fold (range 1 to 22-fold) for Gamma, and 6-fold (range 1 to 60-fold) for Delta
137 infected patients.

138 To explore the antigenic relationships between the VOCs, we used the neutralization
139 data to construct a SARS-CoV-2 antigenic map (Figure 2A). In this map, homologous sera
140 tend to cluster around the infecting strain, reflecting that homologous neutralization is
141 dominant. The D614G and Alpha viruses cluster tightly together in the centre of the map,
142 while the Beta (L242H, R246I), Gamma, and Delta variants all lie within 2 antigenic units (1
143 unit = 2-fold change in neutralization titre) of the D614G strain suggesting a high degree of

144 antigenic similarity. For influenza viruses, variants are considered to be antigenically similar
145 in case of antigenic distances below 3 antigenic units, i.e. an 8-fold change in neutralization
146 titre, and different when above this threshold (Barr et al., 2014; Prevention, 2021). By
147 analogy, the D614G, Alpha, Beta (L242H, R246I), Gamma and Delta variants belong to one
148 antigenic cluster. Interestingly, the Beta (Δ 242-244) subvariant is antigenically more distinct
149 from the D614G strain compared to Beta (L242H, R246I) (e.g. 3 to 4 units), implying that the
150 deletion at region 242-244 has a substantial effect on antigenicity and illustrates the
151 importance of the NTD as target of neutralizing antibodies and/or in modulating antigenicity
152 of other domains by allosteric means. The distance between the main antigenic cluster and
153 Omicron BA.1 and BA.2 variants is more than 4 antigenic units (>16-fold change in
154 neutralization) implying that Omicron BA.1 and BA.2 are the antigenically most distinct
155 SARS-CoV-2 variants (Figure 2A). One caveat is that it is unclear whether 2-fold changes in
156 pseudovirus neutralization titres are directly comparable to 2-fold changes in
157 hemagglutination inhibition assay titres used to define different antigenic clusters of
158 influenza viruses. However, the change in neutralization between Omicron BA.1 and BA.2
159 and other variants of SARS-CoV-2, including the D614G strain, is striking.

160 We next used neutralization data from sera of 109 COVID-19 naïve vaccinees
161 receiving either two Moderna (mRNA-1273, n=30), Pfizer/BioNTech (BNT162b2, n=49), or
162 AstraZeneca (AZD1222, n=30) vaccines, which are all based on the ancestral S sequence to
163 generate a second antigenic map (van Gils *et al.*, 2022). This map (Figure 2B) agreed well
164 with the infectee maps (Figure 2A), and corroborated that Omicron BA.1 represents a
165 distinct antigenic variant from viruses currently included in vaccines. Interestingly, while the
166 distributions of sera from recipients of different vaccines overlap, there is a skew of sera of
167 mRNA-1273 vaccinees towards Omicron BA.1, suggesting small differences in antigen
168 stimulation among vaccine formulations considered here.

169 We have started to define the antigenic SARS-CoV-2 landscape after two years of
170 antigenic drift, which should inform risk assessment of re-infections as well as strain
171 selection for COVID-19 vaccine updates. We can draw several conclusions. First,
172 homologous neutralization was usually stronger than heterologous neutralization. Second,
173 heterologous responses were broadest and most potent in individuals infected with Alpha
174 and D614G strains, while infection with Delta resulted in narrow-specificity responses. In

175 addition, the individuals infected with the Beta and Omicron BA.1 variant, and to lesser
176 extent Omicron BA.2 infected individuals, developed weak neutralizing responses against
177 any VOC, including the homologous strains, suggesting that the S proteins of Beta and both
178 Omicron variants are less immunogenic compared to the S of other VOCs. Interestingly, the
179 weak homologous and cross-neutralization levels of Beta variant infected individuals are in
180 contrast with the higher titres found by others (Cele et al., 2022; Liu *et al.*, 2021; Rossler et
181 al., 2022; Wilks *et al.*, 2022). It is unlikely that this weak homologous neutralization is caused
182 by a sequence mismatch between the strains causing the infection and the sequence used in
183 our pseudoviruses, as both Beta subvariant pseudoviruses escape homologous
184 neutralization of Beta sera, and the reduction of cross-neutralization of sera elicited by
185 other VOCs against the Beta variants are in line with previous studies (Cele *et al.*, 2022; Liu
186 *et al.*, 2021; Rossler *et al.*, 2022; Wilks *et al.*, 2022). One contributing factor for these low
187 (cross-)neutralization titres by the Beta variant includes cohort specific differences between
188 studies, which is, however, hard to verify due to limited patient characteristic and
189 demographic information available in publications. The weak homologous and cross-
190 neutralization of Omicron BA.1 variant infected individuals is in line with other pre-print
191 data (Mykytyn *et al.*, 2022). Third, the D614G and Alpha strains are at the centre of our
192 antigenic map, which supports the use of the current COVID-19 vaccines based on the
193 ancestral strain, in case of circulation of the Alpha, Beta (L242H, R246I), Gamma and Delta
194 variants. Our data suggest that updated vaccines based on the Beta (L242H, R246I) or Delta
195 variants would not have been appreciably more effective than the ancestral virus-based
196 vaccines. However, the substantial reduction of neutralization in all groups against the Beta
197 $\Delta 242-244$, but especially against the Omicron variants indicates a high risk of re-infections
198 and vaccine breakthrough cases when exposed to these VOCs. The long antigenic distance
199 between Omicron variants and the preceding variants in the antigenic map indicates that
200 the current high rates of Omicron infections are at least partially associated with immune
201 escape and that a vaccine update is required. While finishing this study, several other efforts
202 to antigenically characterize VOCs became available (Mykytyn *et al.*, 2022; Wilks *et al.*,
203 2022). Our antigenic cartography is largely in accordance with these other studies.

204 As in the case of seasonal influenza viruses, the prospect of SARS-CoV-2 becoming an
205 endemic virus with recurring outbreaks implies the need for surveillance of antigenic drift
206 and possibly yearly administration of updated vaccines, especially for individuals at risk for

207 severe COVID-19. Antigenic cartography efforts such as those presented here, can inform
208 future vaccine updates.

209

210 **Acknowledgements**

211 We thank all public health services (GGD) in the Netherlands for their help in contacting
212 participants. We are also thankful to the study personnel and the participants of the COSCA,
213 RECoVERED and the S3-study for their contribution to this research.

214

215 **Author Contributions**

216 Conceptualization, K.vdS., D.G., M.J.vG., C.R., C.A.R., D.E., R.W.S.,
217 Methodology, K.vdS., D.G., M.J.vG., C.A.R., D.E., R.W.S.,
218 Validation, K.vdS., D.G., M.J.vG., I.B.,
219 Formal Analysis, K.vdS., A.X.H., B.E.N., C.A.R.,
220 Investigation, I.B., M.Po., J.A.B., J.H.B., J.vR., W.O.,
221 Resources, K.vdS., I.B., H.D.G.vW., E.W., M.H.L., A.H.A.L., B.A., J.L.S., M.K.B., M.Pr., H.V.,
222 C.R., M.D.dJ, G.J.dB,
223 Writing – original draft, K.vdS., D.G., A.X.H., C.A.R., D.E., R.W.S.,
224 Writing – review & editing, M.J.vG, I.B., T.G.C., H.D.G.vW., E.W., M.Po., J.A.B., J.H.B.,
225 J.vR., W.O., M.H.L., A.H.A.L., B.A., J.J.S., M.K.B., B.E.N., M.Pr., H.V., C.R., M.D.dJ.,
226 G.J.dB.
227 Visualization, K.vdS., T.G.C., A.X.H., C.A.R., R.W.S.,
228 Supervision, C.A.R., D.E., R.W.S.,
229 Project administration, K.vdS., D.G.,
230 Funding acquisition, J.J.S., M.K.B., A.X.H., M.P., M.D.dJ., G.J.dB., C.A.R., R.W.S.,

231

232 **Conflicts of interest**

233 None of the authors have conflicts of interest related to this research.

234

235 **Funding**

236 R.W.S. and C.A.R. are recipients of Vici grants from the Netherlands Organization for
237 Scientific Research (NWO no. 91818627 for R.W.S.). C.A.R. and A.X.H. are also supported by
238 an ERC Consolidator Award. This work was supported by the NWO ZonMw grant agreement
239 no. 10150062010002 to M.D.dJ., and 10430072110003 to G.J. de Bree and the Public Health
240 Service of Amsterdam Research & Development grant number 21-14 to M. Prins

241 (RECoVERED). J.J.S. and M.K.B. are recipients of the NWO grant agreement no.
242 10430022010023 and 10430022010030.

243

244 **Figure legends**

245 **Figure 1. SARS-CoV-2 genetic diversity and neutralization. A.** Molecular models of SARS-
246 CoV-2 S, highlighting the locations of mutations in the D614G strain (blue), Alpha (green),
247 Beta (yellow), Gamma (orange), Delta (red), Omicron BA.1 (magenta) and Omicron BA.2
248 (pink) variants. Midpoint neutralization titres against the VOCs in International Units per mL
249 (IU/mL). The individuals are grouped per VOC and plotted accordingly. Median
250 neutralization titres are highlighted while the individual points are depicted with higher
251 transparency. The light grey bar (10 IU/ml) indicates the neutralization cut-off for all strains
252 except Omicron (cut-off 2 IU/mL, dark grey bar). Non-hospitalized patients are indicated
253 with dots and hospitalized patients with triangles. The individuals that were infected with an
254 Alpha strain that also included the E484K mutation are indicated in green squares. The two
255 individuals in the Omicron BA.1 group that may have been infected with BA.2 instead of
256 BA.1 are indicated in magenta diamonds (see also Table S1). The homologous neutralization
257 is highlighted using a light blue bar. The Wilcoxon signed rank test with Benjamini Hochberg
258 correction was used to compare cross-neutralization titres with the homologous
259 neutralization (see Table S3A for exact p-values). Only statistically significant differences are
260 indicated. * = $p < 0.005$, ** = $p < 0.01$, **** = $p < 0.0001$. **B.** Spider plot of the median
261 neutralization titre (IU/mL) of each group against all VOCs. A cut-off of 10 IU/mL is used for
262 all strains.

263

264 **Figure 2. SARS-CoV-2 antigenic cartography. A.** Antigenic map of SARS-CoV-2 VOCs
265 based on convalescent SARS-CoV-2 infection sera. SARS-CoV-2 variants are shown as circles
266 and sera are indicated as squares. Each square corresponds to sera of one individual and is
267 coloured by the infecting SARS-CoV-2 variant. Both axes of the map are antigenic distance
268 and each grid square (1 antigenic unit) represents a two-fold change in neutralization titre.
269 The distance between points in the map can be interpreted as a measure of antigenic
270 similarity, where the points more closely together show higher cross-neutralization and are
271 therefore antigenically more similar. The left panel included both Beta subvariants used in
272 this study. The right panel is without the Beta ($\Delta 242-244$) subvariant **B.** Antigenic map of

273 SARS-CoV-2 VOCs based on post-vaccination sera from individuals without prior SARS-CoV-2
274 infections. Each serum is coloured by the vaccine that individual received.

275

276 **Table 1. Sociodemographics and clinical characteristics.** A summary of the convalescent
277 SARS-CoV-2 patients included in this study. Table S1 contains a more comprehensive
278 overview per individual.

279 **STAR METHODS**

280

281 **KEY RESOURCES TABLE**

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
DMEM media	Gibco	Cat#: 11966025
Opti-MEM I reduced serum media	Gibco	Cat#: 15392402
Phosphate-buffered saline (PBS)	Gibco	Cat#: 15326239
Bacterial and virus strains		
Chemically competent DH5α <i>Escherichia coli</i>	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#: 12879416
Biological samples		
Human sera, convalescent SARS-Cov-2	This study	N/A
Human sera, post-COVID-19 vaccination	(van Gils <i>et al.</i> , 2022)	N/A
Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins		
FastDigest SacI	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#: 10324720
FastDigest ApaI	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#: 10450280
Polyethylenimine hydrochloride (PEI) MAX	PolySciences	Cat#: 24765-1
Trypsin-EDTA	Gibco	Cat#: 25-200-056
GlutaMAX	Gibco	Cat#: 35050061
Glycylglycine, 99+%	Acros Organics/Thermo Scientific	Cat#: 120141000
Magnesium sulfate heptahydrate, 99.5%, for analysis, Thermo Scientific™	Acros Organics/Thermo Scientific	Cat#: AC21311500
EGTA (ethylene glycol bis(2-aminoethyl ether)-N,N,N',N'-tetraacetic acid) ≥97%, Ultra Pure Grade	VWR	Cat#: 0732-100G
Triton™ X-100 (Electrophoresis), Fisher BioReagents™	Fisher BioReagents	Cat#: BP151-500
Poly-L-Lysine Hydrobromide	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#: P1399
Critical commercial assays		
Gibson Assembly	New England BioLabs	E5510S
QuikChange Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit	Agilent Technologies	Cat#: 200523
Experimental models: Cell lines		
HEK293T cells	American Type Culture Collection	CRL-11268
HEK-293T-hACE2	(Schmidt <i>et al.</i> , 2020)	RRID:CVCL_A7UK
Oligonucleotides		
SARS-CoV-2 D614G spike gene fragment	Integrated DNA Technologies	GenBank:MT449663.1 Mutations in this paper
SARS-CoV-2 Alpha spike gene fragment	Integrated DNA Technologies	GenBank:MT449663.1 Mutations in this paper
SARS-CoV-2 Beta spike gene fragment	Integrated DNA Technologies	GenBank:MT449663.1 Mutations in this paper

SARS-CoV-2 Gamma spike gene fragment	Integrated DNA Technologies	GenBank:MT449663.1 Mutations in this paper
SARS-CoV-2 Delta spike gene fragment	Integrated DNA Technologies	GenBank:MT449663.1 Mutations in this paper
SARS-CoV-2 Omicron BA.1 spike gene fragment	Integrated DNA Technologies	GenBank:MT449663.1 Mutations in this paper
SARS-CoV-2 Omicron BA.2 spike gene fragments	Integrated DNA Technologies	GenBank:MT449663.1 Mutations in this paper
Recombinant DNA		
pCR3 SARS-CoV-2-S _{Δ19} expression plasmid	GenBank	ID: MT449663.1
pHIV-1 _{NL43} ΔEnv-NanoLuc reporter virus plasmid	(Schmidt <i>et al.</i> , 2020)	
Software and algorithms		
ACMACS antigenic cartography software	https://acmacs-web.antigenic-cartography.org	N/A
GraphPad Prism 8.3.0	GraphPad	RRID:SCR_002798; http://www.graphpad.com/
Microsoft Excel	Microsoft	RRID:SCR_016137; https://www.microsoft.com/en-gb/
Other		
Nano-Glo Luciferase Assay System	Promega	Cat#: N1130
GloMax system	Turner BioSystems	Cat#: 9101-002

282

283 RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

284 Lead contact

285 Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will
286 be fulfilled by the lead contact, Rogier W. Sanders (r.w.sanders@amsterdamumc.nl)

287 Materials availability

288 This study did not generate new unique reagents.

289 Data and code availability

290 Neutralisation and patient characteristic data have been deposited as supplementary tables
291 within this manuscript (Table S1 and Table S2) and are publicly available as of the date of
292 publication. Other accession numbers are listed in the key resources table. This paper does
293 not report original code. Any additional information required to reanalyse the data reported
294 in this paper is available from the lead contact upon request.

295

296 EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

297 Study population

298 66 adults (aged 18 to 76) with a PCR proven primary SARS-CoV-2 infection were included in
299 the COSCA-study (NL 73281.018.20) or the RECOVERED study (NL73759.018.20) between
300 June 2020 and April 2022 at Amsterdam UMC and via the Dutch national SARS-CoV-2
301 sequence surveillance program as described previously (Grobben et al., 2021; Wynberg et
302 al., 2021). In short, 3-11 weeks after symptom onset, blood, patient demographics, time
303 between symptom onset and sampling, and admission status were collected (Table 1 and
304 Table S1). The diagnostic oropharyngeal swab was available for 39 participants and were
305 used to determine the SARS-CoV-2 strain causing the infection. The remaining 27 SARS-CoV-
306 2 infected participants fell within the following inclusion criteria: (1) $\geq 95\%$ of circulating
307 strains at time of symptom onset belonged the suspected VOC of infection or (2) $\geq 75\%$ of
308 circulating strains at the time of symptom onset belonged the suspected VOC of infection
309 AND a household member had a concurrent sequence confirmed infection with that
310 particular VOC. Prevalence data of CoVariants.org and the National Institute for Public
311 Health and the Environment were used to determine the current prevalence of a VOC
312 (CoVariants, 2022; Rijksinstituut voor Volksgezondheid en Milieu (RIVM)). Most individuals
313 of which no sequence confirmation of the infected strain was available, were presumed to
314 be infected with the D614G variant ($n=20$) as they were sampled before the emergence of
315 any VOC in the Netherlands and after D614G became predominant in the
316 Netherlands (Korber *et al.*, 2020). More details about the remaining $n=7$ individuals can be
317 found in the Table S1. The two Omicron individuals that may have been infected by either
318 BA.1 or BA.2 are indicated as diamonds in all graphs. Two of the individuals infected with an
319 Alpha strain harbouring the E484K mutation are indicated as squares in all graphs.

320 Neutralization data on COVID-19 naive vaccinee sera were kindly provided by the S3-
321 study of the Amsterdam UMC, The Netherlands (NL73478.029.20) (van Gils *et al.*, 2022). In
322 short, post-vaccination sera was obtained approximately four weeks after the second doses
323 of either Moderna (mRNA-1273), Pfizer/BioNTech (BNT162b2), or AstraZeneca (AZD1222).
324 Post-vaccination serum after Janssen (Ad26.COV2.S) were excluded from analysis because
325 they did not have enough non-threshold titres to be included in the map.

326 All above mentioned studies were conducted at the Amsterdam University Medical
327 Centres, the Netherlands, and approved by the local ethical committees. All individuals
328 provided written informed consent before participating.

329

330 **Pseudovirus design**

331 The D614G strain and the Alpha pseudovirus constructs contained the following mutations:
332 D614G in D614G strain; deletion (Δ) of H69, V70 and Y144, N501Y, A570D, D614G, P681H,
333 T716I, S982A, and D1118H in Alpha. The two Beta subvariants differ from each other in the
334 NTD region 242-246, where one Beta subvariant (L242H, R246I) is based on a very early
335 available sequence while the other (Δ 242-244) is retrospectively more representative for
336 the predominant circulating strains. These two Beta pseudovirus constructs contain
337 therefore the following mutations: L18F, D80A, D215G, L242H, R246I, K417N, E484K, N501Y,
338 D614G, and A701V in Beta (L242H, R246I); L18F, D80A, D215G, Δ 242-244, K417N, E484K,
339 N501Y, D614G, and A701V in Beta (Δ 242-244). Only the D614G infected individuals showed
340 statistically significant reduced neutralization against the Beta (Δ 242-244) subvariant
341 compared to the Beta (L242H, R246I) subvariant (Figure S2). The Gamma pseudovirus
342 constructs contained the following mutations: L18F, T20N, P26S, D138Y, R190S, K417T,
343 E484K, N501Y, D614G, H655Y, and T1027I in Gamma; This Gamma pseudovirus construct
344 differs from the predominant strain in that it lacks a V1176F back bone mutation. However,
345 it is not likely that this mutation, positioned at the S2 domain of the S, will affect escape of
346 neutralization substantially. The Delta and Omicron BA.1 and BA.2 pseudovirus constructs
347 contained the following mutations: T19R, G142D, E156G, Δ 157-158, L452R, T478K, D614G,
348 P681R and D950N in Delta; A67V, Δ 69-70, T95I, G142D, Δ 143-145, Δ 211, L212I, ins214EPE,
349 G339D, S371L, S373P, S375F, K417N, N440K, G446S, S477N, T478K, E484A, Q493K, G496S,
350 Q498R, N501Y, Y505H, T547K, D614G, H655Y, N679K, P681H, N764K, D796Y, N856K, Q954H,
351 N969K, L981F in Omicron BA.1; and T19I, L24S, Δ 125/127, G142D, V213G, G339D, S371F,
352 S373P, S375F, T376A, D405N, R408S, K417N, N440K, S477N, T478K, E484A, Q493R, Q498R,
353 N501Y, Y505H, D614G, H655Y, N679K, P681H, N764K, D796Y, Q954H, N969K in Omicron
354 BA.2. The Omicron BA.1 strain used here harbors a Q493K mutation, while the predominant
355 Omicron BA.1 harbors a Q493R mutation. This mutation did not impacted neutralization of
356 several monoclonal SARS-CoV-2 antibodies tested (data not shown). The spike constructs
357 were ordered as gBlock gene fragments (Integrated DNA Technologies) and cloned SacI and
358 Apal in the pCR3 SARS-CoV-2-S $_{\Delta$ 19 expression plasmid (GenBank: MT449663.1) using Gibson
359 Assembly (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The pseudovirus constructs were made using the
360 QuikChange Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (Agilent Technologies) and verified by using
361 Sanger sequencing. Pseudoviruses were procedures by cotransfecting HEK293T cells

362 (American Type Culture Collection, CRL-11268) with the pCR3 SARS-CoV-2-S_{Δ19} expression
363 plasmid and the pHIV-1_{NL43} ΔEnv-NanoLuc reporter virus plasmid. Transfection takes place in
364 cell culture medium (DMEM), supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, penicillin (100
365 U/ml), streptomycin (100 g/ml). Medium is refreshed once 6-8 hours after transfection. 48
366 hours after the transfection, cell supernatants containing the pseudovirus were harvested
367 and stored at -80 °C until further use.

368

369 **METHOD DETAILS**

370 **SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirus neutralization assay**

371 The pseudovirus neutralization assay was performed as described previously(Caniels *et al.*,
372 2021). Shortly, HEK293T/ACE2 cells were kindly provided by P. Bieniasz(Schmidt *et al.*, 2020)
373 were seeded at a density of 20,000 cells per well in a 96-well plate coated with poly-lysine
374 (50 ug/ml) 1 day before the start of the neutralization assay. The next day, heat-inactivated
375 sera samples were in triplicate serial diluted in threefold steps, starting at 1:20 dilution to
376 test for Omicron BA.1 and BA.2 pseudovirus neutralization and 1:100 for all the other
377 variants. Sera was diluted in cell culture medium (DMEM), supplemented with 10% fetal
378 bovine serum, penicillin (100 U/ml), streptomycin (100 g/ml), and GlutaMAX (Gibco), mixed
379 in a 1:1 ratio with pseudovirus, and incubated for 1 hour at 37°C. These mixtures were then
380 added to the cells in a 1:1 ratio and incubated for 48 hours at 37°C, and lysis buffer was
381 added. The luciferase activity in cell lysates was measured using the Nano-Glo Luciferase
382 Assay System (Promega) and GloMax system (Turner BioSystems). Relative luminescence
383 units were normalized to those from cells infected with SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirus in the
384 absence of sera. The inhibitory neutralization titres (ID₅₀) were determined as the serum
385 dilution at which infectivity was inhibited by 50%, using a nonlinear regression curve fit
386 (GraphPad Prism software version 8.3). The International Standard for anti-SARS-CoV-2
387 immunoglobulins provided by the WHO(Kristiansen *et al.*, 2021) were used to convert the
388 ID₅₀ values into International Units per milliliters (IU/mL). Samples with IU/mL titres <10
389 were defined as having undetectable neutralization against the D614G, Alpha, Beta, Gamma
390 and Delta variant. For Omicron BA.1 and BA.2 neutralization, the start-dilution of 1:20
391 enables a cut-off of <2 IU/mL for all samples except for some Alpha infected individuals. A
392 limited amount of sera was available from the Alpha infected individuals, resulting in a start
393 dilution of 1:100 of n=7 samples against all variants including Omicron BA.1 and BA.2.

394 Neutralization data points of two Alpha infected individuals against BA.1 and BA.2 were
395 excluded from Figure 1A because a neutralization titres <10IU/mL (Table S2). This exclusion
396 did not impact the statistics as written below because a general cut-off of <10IU/mL were
397 used for neutralization against any variant, including Omicron BA.1 and BA.2.

398

399 **Antigenic cartography**

400 Antigenic maps were constructed as previously described (Fonville *et al.*, 2014; Smith *et al.*,
401 2004) using the antigenic cartography software from [https://acmacs-web.antigenic-](https://acmacs-web.antigenic-cartography.org)
402 [cartography.org](https://acmacs-web.antigenic-cartography.org). In brief, this approach to antigenic mapping uses multidimensional scaling
403 to position antigens (viruses) and sera in a map to represent their antigenic relationships.
404 The maps here relied on the SARS-CoV-2 post-infection serology data and post-vaccination
405 serology data shown in Figure 1A and Table S2. The positions of antigens and sera were
406 optimized in the map to minimise the error between the target distances set by the
407 observed pairwise virus-serum combinations in the pseudovirus assay described above and
408 the resulting computationally derived map. Maps were constructed in 2, 3, 4, and 5
409 dimensions to investigate the dimensionality of the antigenic relationships. Both the
410 convalescent (Figure 2A) and post-vaccination datasets (Figure 2B) were strongly two-
411 dimensional with only small improvements in residual mean squared error of the maps as
412 map dimensionality increased.

413

414 **QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

415 Data visualization and statistical analyses were performed in GraphPad Prism software
416 (version 8.3). Spider plots (Figure 1B) were made in Excel 2016. The antigenic maps were
417 produced using the antigenic cartography software mentioned above. Wilcoxon signed rank
418 test with Benjamini Hochberg correction was used to compare cross-neutralization titres
419 with the homologous neutralization (Figure 1A). Mann-Whitney test was used for non-
420 paired group comparisons (Figure S1). All statistics mentioned here were performed by
421 using a general neutralization cut-off of 10IU/mL against any variant of SARS-CoV-2.

422

423 **References:**

424 Barr, I.G., Russell, C., Besselaar, T.G., Cox, N.J., Daniels, R.S., Donis, R., Engelhardt, O.G.,
425 Grohmann, G., Itamura, S., Kelso, A., et al. (2014). WHO recommendations for the viruses
426 used in the 2013-2014 Northern Hemisphere influenza vaccine: Epidemiology, antigenic and

427 genetic characteristics of influenza A(H1N1)pdm09, A(H3N2) and B influenza viruses
428 collected from October 2012 to January 2013. *Vaccine* 32, 4713-4725.
429 10.1016/j.vaccine.2014.02.014.

430 Caniels, T.G., Bontjer, I., van der Straten, K., Poniman, M., Burger, J.A., Appelman, B.,
431 Lavell, A.H.A., Oomen, M., Godeke, G.J., Valle, C., et al. (2021). Emerging SARS-CoV-2
432 variants of concern evade humoral immune responses from infection and vaccination. *Sci*
433 *Adv* 7, eabj5365. 10.1126/sciadv.abj5365.

434 Cele, S., Karim, F., Lustig, G., San, J.E., Hermanus, T., Tegally, H., Snyman, J., Moyo-
435 Gwete, T., Wilkinson, E., Bernstein, M., et al. (2022). SARS-CoV-2 prolonged infection
436 during advanced HIV disease evolves extensive immune escape. *Cell Host Microbe* 30, 154-
437 162 e155. 10.1016/j.chom.2022.01.005.

438 CoVariants (2022). Overview of Variants in Countries. <https://covariants.org/per-country>.

439 Fonville, J.M., Wilks, S.H., James, S.L., Fox, A., Ventresca, M., Aban, M., Xue, L., Jones,
440 T.C., Le, N.M.H., Pham, Q.T., et al. (2014). Antibody landscapes after influenza virus
441 infection or vaccination. *Science* 346, 996-1000. 10.1126/science.1256427.

442 Garcia-Beltran, W.F., St Denis, K.J., Hoelzemer, A., Lam, E.C., Nitido, A.D., Sheehan, M.L.,
443 Berrios, C., Ofoman, O., Chang, C.C., Hauser, B.M., et al. (2021). mRNA-based COVID-19
444 vaccine boosters induce neutralizing immunity against SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variant.
445 medRxiv, 2021.2012.2014.21267755. 10.1101/2021.12.14.21267755.

446 Grobden, M., van der Straten, K., Brouwer, P.J., Brinkkemper, M., Maisonnasse, P.,
447 Dereuddre-Bosquet, N., Appelman, B., Lavell, A.A., van Vught, L.A., Burger, J.A., et al.
448 (2021). Cross-reactive antibodies after SARS-CoV-2 infection and vaccination. *Elife* 10,
449 2021.2005.2026.21256092. 10.7554/eLife.70330.

450 Korber, B., Fischer, W.M., Gnanakaran, S., Yoon, H., Theiler, J., Abfalterer, W., Hengartner,
451 N., Giorgi, E.E., Bhattacharya, T., Foley, B., et al. (2020). Tracking Changes in SARS-CoV-2
452 Spike: Evidence that D614G Increases Infectivity of the COVID-19 Virus. *Cell* 182, 812-827
453 e819. 10.1016/j.cell.2020.06.043.

454 Kristiansen, P.A., Page, M., Bernasconi, V., Mattiuzzo, G., Dull, P., Makar, K., Plotkin, S.,
455 and Knezevic, I. (2021). WHO International Standard for anti-SARS-CoV-2 immunoglobulin.
456 *Lancet* 397, 1347-1348. 10.1016/S0140-6736(21)00527-4.

457 Liu, C., Ginn, H.M., Dejnirattisai, W., Supasa, P., Wang, B., Tuekprakhon, A., Nutalai, R.,
458 Zhou, D., Mentzer, A.J., Zhao, Y., et al. (2021). Reduced neutralization of SARS-CoV-2
459 B.1.617 by vaccine and convalescent serum. *Cell* 184, 4220-4236 e4213.
460 10.1016/j.cell.2021.06.020.

461 Long, Q.X., Liu, B.Z., Deng, H.J., Wu, G.C., Deng, K., Chen, Y.K., Liao, P., Qiu, J.F., Lin, Y.,
462 Cai, X.F., et al. (2020). Antibody responses to SARS-CoV-2 in patients with COVID-19. *Nat*
463 *Med* 26, 845-848. 10.1038/s41591-020-0897-1.

464 Mykytyn, A.Z., Rissmann, M., Kok, A., Rosu, M.E., Schipper, D., Breugem, T.I., van den
465 Doel, P.B., Chandler, F., Bestebroer, T., de Wit, M., et al. (2022). Omicron BA.1 and BA.2
466 are antigenically distinct SARS-CoV-2 variants. bioRxiv, 2022.2002.2023.481644.
467 10.1101/2022.02.23.481644.

468 Prevention, C.o.D.C.a. (2021). Antigenic Characterization.
469 <https://www.cdc.gov/flu/about/professionals/antigenic.htm>.

470 Rijksinstituut voor Volksgezondheid en Milieu (RIVM). Resultaten kiemsurveillance.
471 [https://www.rivm.nl/sites/default/files/2022-](https://www.rivm.nl/sites/default/files/2022-04/Kiemsurveillance%2020220401%20tabel%20NL.pdf)
472 [04/Kiemsurveillance%2020220401%20tabel%20NL.pdf](https://www.rivm.nl/sites/default/files/2022-04/Kiemsurveillance%2020220401%20tabel%20NL.pdf).

473 Rossler, A., Riepler, L., Bante, D., von Laer, D., and Kimpel, J. (2022). SARS-CoV-2
474 Omicron Variant Neutralization in Serum from Vaccinated and Convalescent Persons. *N*
475 *Engl J Med* 386, 698-700. 10.1056/NEJMc2119236.

476 Schmidt, F., Weisblum, Y., Muecksch, F., Hoffmann, H.H., Michailidis, E., Lorenzi, J.C.C.,
477 Mendoza, P., Rutkowska, M., Bednarski, E., Gaebler, C., et al. (2020). Measuring SARS-
478 CoV-2 neutralizing antibody activity using pseudotyped and chimeric viruses. *J Exp Med*
479 217. 10.1084/jem.20201181.

480 Smith, D.J., Lapedes, A.S., de Jong, J.C., Bestebroer, T.M., Rimmelzwaan, G.F., Osterhaus,
481 A.D., and Fouchier, R.A. (2004). Mapping the antigenic and genetic evolution of influenza
482 virus. *Science* 305, 371-376. 10.1126/science.1097211.
483 van Gils, M.J., Lavell, A., van der Straten, K., Appelman, B., Bontjer, I., Poniman, M., Burger,
484 J.A., Oomen, M., Bouhuijs, J.H., van Vught, L.A., et al. (2022). Antibody responses against
485 SARS-CoV-2 variants induced by four different SARS-CoV-2 vaccines in health care
486 workers in the Netherlands: A prospective cohort study. *PLOS Medicine* 19, e1003991.
487 10.1371/journal.pmed.1003991.
488 Wilhelm, A., Widera, M., Grikscheit, K., Toptan, T., Schenk, B., Pallas, C., Metzler, M.,
489 Kohmer, N., Hoehl, S., Helfritz, F.A., et al. (2021). Reduced Neutralization of SARS-CoV-2
490 Omicron Variant by Vaccine Sera and monoclonal antibodies. medRxiv,
491 2021.2012.2007.21267432. 10.1101/2021.12.07.21267432.
492 Wilks, S.H., Mühlemann, B., Shen, X., Türel, S., LeGresley, E.B., Netzl, A., Caniza, M.A.,
493 Chacaltana-Huarcaya, J.N., Daniell, X., Datto, M.B., et al. (2022). Mapping SARS-CoV-2
494 antigenic relationships and serological responses. bioRxiv, 2022.2001.2028.477987.
495 10.1101/2022.01.28.477987.
496 World Health Organization (2021). Tracking SARS-CoV-2 variants
497 <https://www.who.int/en/activities/tracking-SARS-CoV-2-variants/>.
498 Wynberg, E., van Willigen, H.D.G., Dijkstra, M., Boyd, A., Kootstra, N.A., van den Aardweg,
499 J.G., van Gils, M.J., Matser, A., de Wit, M.R., Leenstra, T., et al. (2021). Evolution of COVID-
500 19 symptoms during the first 12 months after illness onset. *Clin Infect Dis.*
501 10.1093/cid/ciab759.
502

Fig.1 A

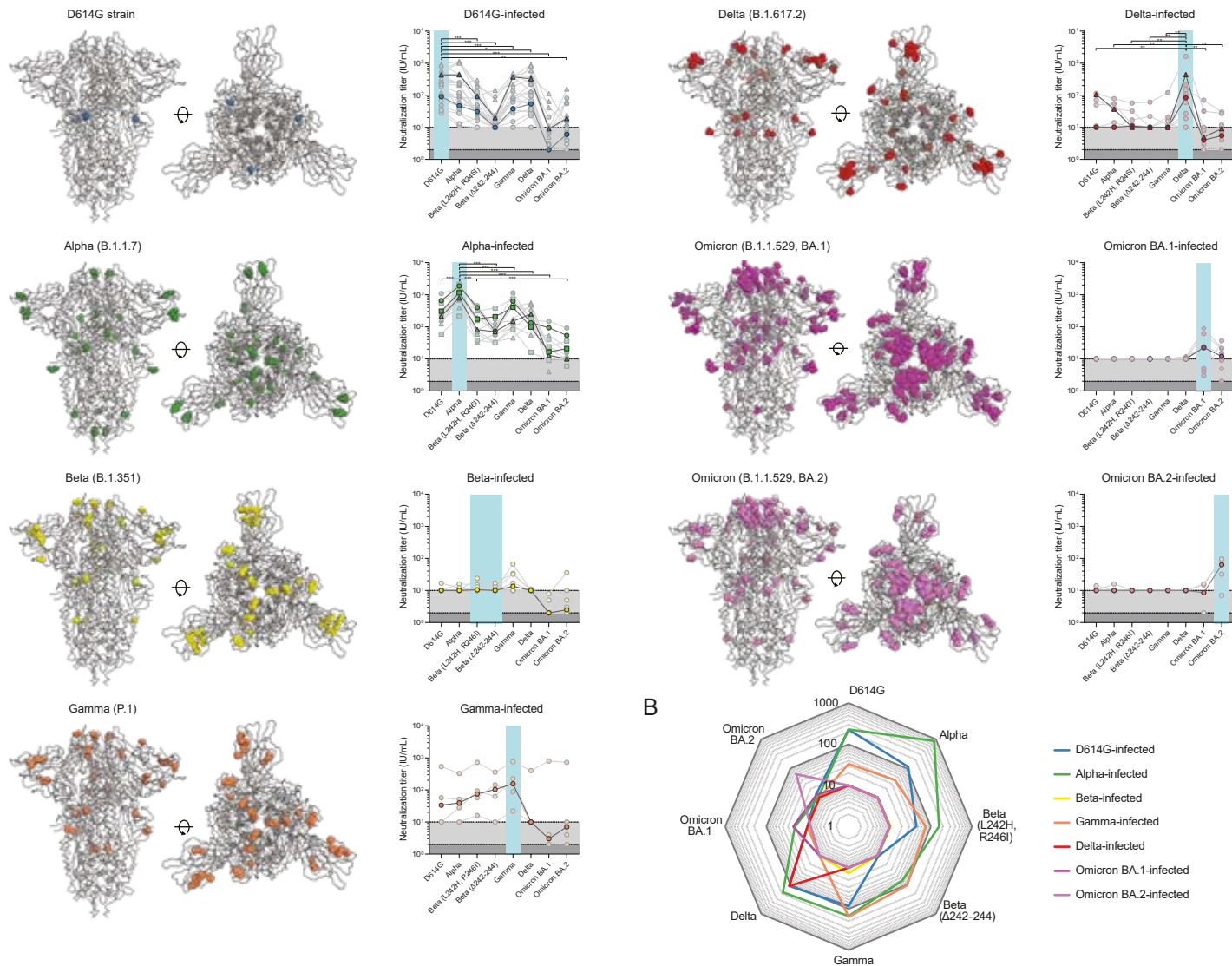
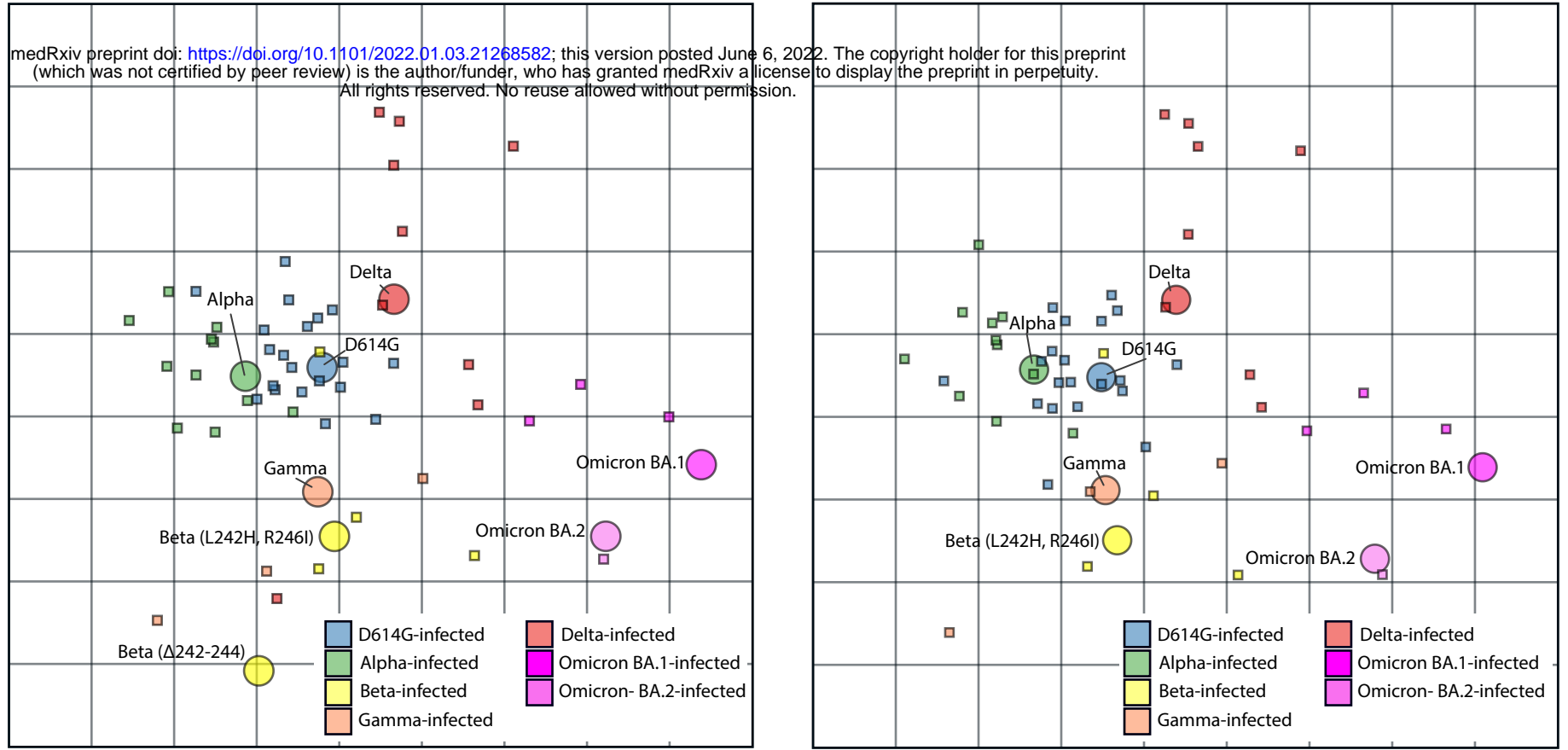
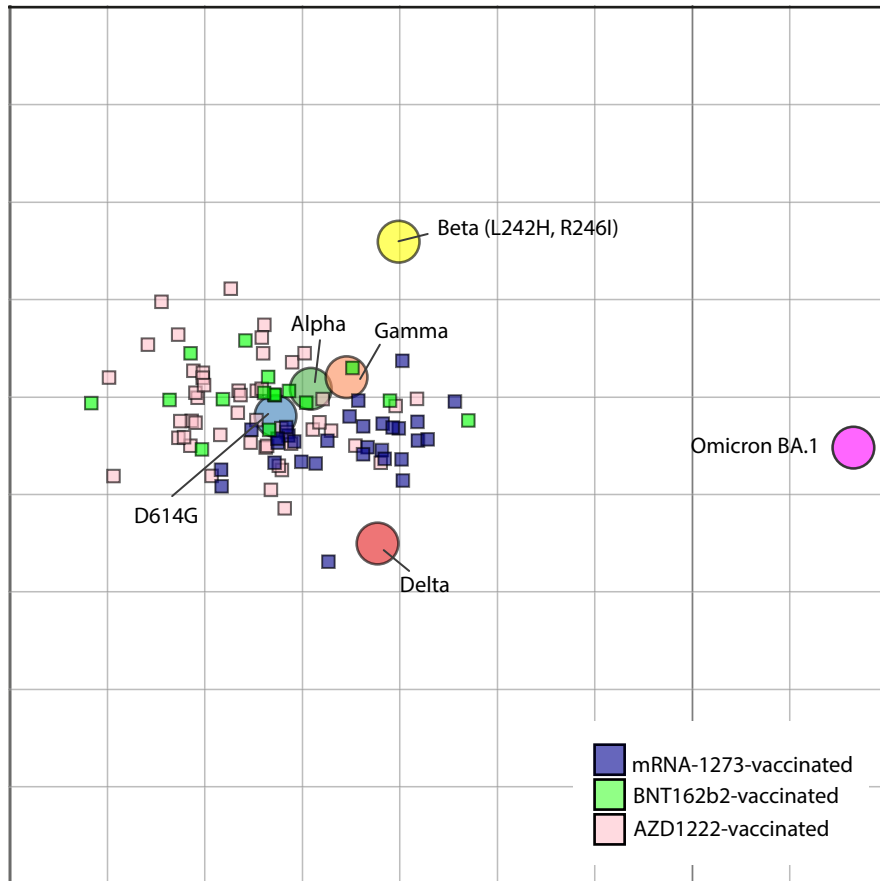


Fig. 2 A



B



Variant of concern	N= (%)	Age (years) median (range)	Male	Hospital admission	Sequence confirmed	Time since symptom onset (days) median (range)
D614G	20 (30%)	53 (22-74)	9 (45%)	9 (45%)	0 (0%)	38 (30-45)
Alpha	11 (17%)	48 (25-76)	6 (55%)	9 (82%)	11 (100%)	39 (24-58)
Alpha + E484K	2/11	62 (48-76)	0	2/2	2/2	41 (24-58)
Beta	8 (12%)	41 (18-53)	3 (38%)	0	7 (88%)	39 (30-63)
Gamma	4 (6%)	35 (27-10)	2 (50%)	0	4 (100%)	40 (38-55)
Delta	11 (17%)	31 (19-63)	6 (55%)	1 (9%)	10 (91%)	46 (36-52)
Omicron BA.1	8 (12%)	31 (21-45)	4 (50%)	0	3 (38%)	44 (25-75)
Omicron BA.2	4 (6%)	51 (31-55)	4 (100%)	0	4 (100%)	40 (39-41)
Total	66	41 (18-76)	34 (52%)	21 (32%)	39 (59%)	40 (24-75)

Table 1. Sociodemographics and clinical characteristics