1 The SARS-CoV-2 Omicron Variant and its Multiple Sub-lineages: Transmissibility,

2 Vaccine Development, Antiviral Drugs, Monoclonal Antibodies, and Strategies for

- 3 Infection Control a Review
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44 Frontispiece



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50 Abstract

The Omicron (B.1.1.529), fifth variant of concern (VOC) of SARS-CoV-2, initially identified following a steep increase in COVID-19 cases in Southern Africa in November 2021. It is a highly-mutated variant and is more contagious as compared with the Delta variant, however less deadly. Due to its high transmission rate, it spreads dramatically, and causing huge surges worldwide. It causes "mild infection", with hospitalisations less likely to occur. However, this variant is known to show resistance to neutralizing antibodies (nAbs) 57 generated through vaccination and/or prior infection as well as to monoclonal antibodies 58 (mAbs) used to treat COVID-19 patients. In many countries, booster doses of vaccines have 59 been recommended to increase the protective levels of antibodies in vaccinated individuals. 60 Along with the implementation of appropriate prevention and control strategy measures, 61 current efforts are also focussed on the development of better vaccines and mAbs to counter 62 this variant. This review highlights the global health concerns and challenges posed by 63 the Omicron variant and present an update on its sub-lineages.

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66 **1. Introduction**

The current COVID-19 pandemic, caused by the emergence of SARS-CoV-2 in December 67 2019 in China, is the most long-running pandemic ever to happen. This virus, along with its 68 multiple variants, will almost have been around globally for three years. The Omicron variant 69 of SARS-CoV-2 was first documented in November 2021, mostly in South Africa/Botswana 70 but also in Hong-Kong.^[1,2] This variant, classified as the fifth variant of concern (VOC) by 71 72 the WHO and the most mutated variant, induced a rapid increase in COVID-19 cases worldwide, and this fast-moving variant has posed new mysteries in virus transmission, 73 74 severity and evolutionary dynamics of SARS-CoV-2 that have resulted into global health concerns.^[3-7] From a genomic point of view, it shares several mutations with the previously 75 76 identified Alpha (B.1.1.7), Beta (B.1.351), Gamma (P.1), and Delta (B.1.617.2) variants (VOC), but it also harbors a large number of specific mutations in the receptor-binding 77 domain (RBD) and NTD region (Fig. 1), which impact on pathogenicity, transmissibility, and 78 immune evasion.^[5,8,9] This fast-moving variant is currently the dominant strain around the 79 80 globe.^[6] It is spreading four times faster than the deadlier Delta variant and has mutated into a large number of sub-variants, including BA.1-5.^[2,10] The aim of this article is to provide an 81 overview of the global health concerns and challenges posed by the Omicron variant and 82 present an update on its sub-lineages. 83



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Figure 1. Spike (S-) protein substitution in (a) Delta variant (PDB ID: 7W92), (b) Omicron variant (PDB ID: 7TGW) (reproduced from ref-11) (<u>www.rcsb.com</u>)

88 2. Evolution of the Omicron variant

89 The genome of SARS-CoV-2 has evolved significantly since it was first reported in China in

90 December 2019. The Omicron variant that has emerged since November 2021 has been

91 continuously evolving to give several new sub-variants (Fig. 2).

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Figure 2. Evolution of SARS-CoV-2 variants (Showing 2942 of 2942 genomes sampled
between Dec 2019 and Oct 2022) [reproduced from ref-12] obtained from
<u>https://nextstrain.org/ncov/gisaid/global (accessed on 30-10-2022).</u>

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The Omicron variant was identified as a new monophyletic clade, different from other 99 variants. Genomic studies revealed that it showed increased similarity with the Alpha variant, 100 in contrast to the Delta variant that was close to the Beta type.^[13] Further studies showed that 101 it differed significantly with the previous Delta variant and had no common ancestors. It was 102 also noted that Omicron had emerged from the Lambda variant and that this variant 103 (Omicron) could have emerged due to non-synonymous mutations.^[14] In silico analysis and 104 evolution predictions indicated that the Omicron variant was distantly related to both the 105 original SARS-CoV-2 virus and the Gamma variant that had evolved in the later stages of the 106 pandemic.^[15] 107

Among nearly 50 mutations discovered in the Omicron variant, 30 mutations were detected 108 on the spike (S-) protein and RBD. Two new and unique mutations (N211 and ins214EPE on 109 the N-terminal domain of the RBD) were not present in previous variants of SARS-CoV-2. 110 Several mutations were common between the Omicron and the Delta variant. However, one 111 mutation (L452A) that was present in the Delta variant was absent in the Omicron variant. 112 This mutation, which favoured the attachment of the virus to the angiotensin-converting 113 enzyme 2 (ACE2) receptors on host cells, made the Delta variant responsible for causing 114 more severe infection.^[16] Mutations on N501Y, Q498R, H655Y, N679K, and P681H increase 115 the ability of Omicron to attach to ACE2 receptors and improve cell to cell infections, 116 thereby increasing its transmissibility. Other mutations identified in the Omicron variant 117 (K417N, Q493K, E484A, N501Y, Q498R, and Y505H, G446S, T478K, S477N, G496S, and 118 N440K) contribute to inhibit the antibody-binding ability, and thereby help the virus to 119 escape the host's immune response. Mutations on K417N, T478K, E484A, and N501Y 120 specifically help Omicron to increase its binding ability to ACE2 receptors and reduce its 121 interactions with antibodies.^[17] Experimental studies have suggested that the high degree of 122 genetic variation observed in Omicron could be explained because of a jump of this virus 123 from the humans to animals. This sudden change in the host may have been responsible for 124 125 the increased number of mutations especially at the spike protein region, potentially facilitating viral adaptability and infectivity in the new host.^[18] The progenitor of Omicron 126 has been suggested to jump from humans to mice, rapidly gained mutations facilitating to 127 infect this new host, and then again jumped back into humans via an inter-species (human-128 mice-human) evolutionary trajectory and rapid spread resulting into the Omicron 129 outbreaks.^[18] The identification of unique sites (K417, E484, Q493, Q498, and N501) on the 130 genome that are associated with mutations (Q493K, Q498H, Q498Y) favouring adaptability 131 in mouse cells supports the hypothesis that Omicron may have potentially evolved from 132 mice.^[19] After adjusting to the animal host, the virus reverted back to humans and may have 133 developed the ability to efficiently adapt and further undergo mutations to develop into 134 several sub-lineages. The WHO's Technical Advisory Group on Virus Evolution (TAG-VE) 135 identified BA.1 and BA.2 as the first sub-lineages of Omicron. Other sub-lineages were 136 subsequently coded as BA.3, and BA.4/5.^[2, 10] 137

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139 **3. Omicron sub-lineages**

140 **3.1. BA.1 sub-variant**

The BA.1, BA.1.1, BA.2, BA.2.2 and BA.3 sub-variants of Omicron possess substantial 141 genomic differences. The BA.1 (member of the B.1.1.529 family) sub-lineage of Omicron 142 was the first to have been discovered. It is now the most dominant sub-lineage of Omicron 143 causing infections worldwide. Around 99% of all the current COVID-19 cases in the United 144 States are caused by this sub-variant. Its high spread across the globe matched that of the 145 Delta variant. This sub-variant has the ability to escape the neutralizing effect of the 146 antibodies elicited by existing COVID-19 vaccines. However, infections caused by BA.1 are 147 being quickly replaced by a new sub lineage called BA.2. Both lineages share some common 148 149 mutations and possess unique ones. This may be attributed to the protection imparted by the cross-reacting immunity among people infected with these lineages.^[20] Increased genome 150 sequencing has also identified a newer BA.1 variant (known as BA1.1) with an additional 151 mutation (BA.1+R346K mutation).^[21] This may have additionally contributed to the immune 152 escape by the virus as evidenced by breakthrough infections after vaccination, and re-153 infections. Almost all the currently available neutralizing monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) are 154 inefficient against the sub-lineage BA.1.^[21] 155

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157 **3.2. BA.2 sub-variant**

The BA.2 sub-variant (also known as Nextstrain clade 21L) is a new contagious strain of 158 Omicron that has an initial spreading rate of about 30%. This sub-variant appears to be more 159 contagious than the original Omicron variant.^[2,10] The rapid spread of BA.2 quickly overtook 160 the original Omicron variant first identified in Southern Africa. It is currently displacing and 161 competing with BA.1.^[22] BA.2 is the current dominant variant in countries like the UK, 162 Denmark, India, Norway and South Africa. Although it has been reported that some 163 164 infections caused by BA.2 may occur shortly after BA.1 infections, these are rare. However, it is still important to understand whether BA.2 can specifically escape immunity acquired 165 after BA.1 infection.^[23] Although its origin is still a mystery, BA.2 was first reported in 166 November 2021 in the Philippines. Studies have further confirmed that BA.2 had 8 additional 167 168 mutations that were not seen in the BA.1 sub-lineage and lacked around 13 unique mutations present in BA.1. Also noted was the fact that the antigenic variations showed by these sub-169 170 lineages were distinct from each other and from the parent SARS-CoV-2 virus. Almost all the currently available mAbs are inefficient against BA.2.^[21] 171

172 In silico studies and the use of mathematical models have revealed that among the SARS-

173 CoV-2 variants and the Omicron sub-lineages (BA.1, BA.2, and BA.3), BA.2 appears to be

the most dominant in terms of transmissibility, potential to evade the immune system, and 174 resist vaccines.^[24] Evidence suggests that BA.2 spreads in clusters and is the most dominant 175 sub-lineage globally.^[25,26] BA.1 and BA.2 differ by up to 40 non-synonymous mutations and 176 deletions, including the key mutations in NTD and RBD of the s-gene, both regions that 177 influence the immune response.^[27] Immunity induced by Omicron original version (BA.1) 178 has been found to protect against the emerging BA.2 subvariant alike vaccination, hence 179 BA.2 might not pose a major pandemic wave in people earlier infected during BA.1 wave of 180 infection.^[28] 181

182 **3.3. BA.3 sub-variant**

The BA.3 sub-variant is currently the least prevalent among the Omicron sub-lineages. 183 Studies thus far have identified 33 mutations in BA.3 wherein it was found to share 10 184 mutations (A67V, T95I, N211I, G446S, H69del, V70del, V143del, Y144del, Y145del, and 185 L212del) with BA.1 and two (D405N and S371F) with BA.2. It was also noted that BA.3 had 186 lost six mutations (ins214EPE, S371L, T547K, G496S, L981F and N856K) from BA.1 and 187 acquired two mutations from BA.2 (D405N and S371F). These mutations could be the reason 188 189 as to why BA.3 infectivity and spread is slower compared to the BA.1 and BA.2 sublineages.^[29] Almost all the currently available neutralizing mAbs are inefficient against the 190 sub-lineage BA.3.^[21] 191

Among the circulating Omicron sub-lineages, 21 common mutations were identified in BA.1 192 (39), BA1.1 (40), BA.2 (31), and BA.3 (34). A recent study revealed that all the Omicron 193 sub-lineages had higher positive electrostatic surface charge on the RBD that may increase 194 the affinity to bind to the negatively-charged human ACE2 receptors. Mutations such as 195 Q493R, T478K, Q498, N501Y, and Y505H on the RBD may have contributed to such 196 increased affinity.^[29] This may explain why Omicron and its sub-lineages are more 197 transmissible compared to the parent SARS-CoV-2 virus. BA.2 and BA.3 revealed higher 198 transmissibility compared to BA.1 and BA1.1.^[30] 199

200 **3.4. BA.2.2 sub-variant**

Very recently, a new BA.2.2 sub-variant of Omicron was detected in Thailand. Reports identified the strain as one first reported in Hong-Kong.^[31] Two COVID-19 patients with the BA.2.2 strain were later identified in Israel with mild symptoms (fever, headaches and muscle aches). Moreover, the BA.2.2 strain also expected in China, India and other countries.^[32] There is still, however, insufficient information on BA.2.2 to be able to

accurately predict the severity or transmissibility of this new strain. However, the Global 206 Initiative on Sharing Avian Influenza Data (GISAID) has not yet confirmed officially BA.2.2 207 as a new variant. BA.2.2 is very contagious and its main symptoms include dizziness and 208 fatigue. A very similar sub-variant, named BA.2.3, was recently reported in the 209 Philippines.^[31,33] Recent evidences have suggested the emergence of the recombinant strains 210 of the Omicron sub lineages, and a few emerging recombinants of the Delta variant and 211 Omicron sub variants.^[34, 35] The XE is a recombinant of BA.1 and BA.2, and XF and XD are 212 recombinants that emerged from Delta and Omicron BA.1. 213

214 **3.5. BA.2.75 sub-variant**

BA.2.75 shows some unique mutations in the RBD regions (D339H, N460K, G446S and 215 R493Q) and NTD regions (K147E, F157L, W152R, I210V, and G257S) of its spike 216 protein.^[36, 37] It also contains additional mutations outside the spike protein (P1640S, S1221L, 217 and N4060S at ORF1a, G662S and E:T11A at ORF1b). Such mutations provide BA.2.75 218 with immuno-evasive capabilities that help facilitate re-infections, including in vaccinated 219 individuals. In particular, the R494Q mutation can increase the ability of BA.2.75 to attach to 220 ACE2 receptors thereby favouring virus entry and replication within the host's cells. Having 221 said that, there is still potential for the current vaccines to provide antibodies against BA.2.75. 222 223

224 3.6. BA.4/5 variant

BA.4 and BA.5 have a high ability to evade immune responses following infection and 225 vaccination.^[38] This is due to the presence of additional mutations (L452R, F486V, and wild 226 type Q493) in the RBD region of their S-protein (unlike the BA.2 variant). Post-vaccination 227 neutralizing antibody titer studies have noted that there is decrease in the concentration of 228 nAbs against BA.4/5 compared to what is observed for BA.1 and BA.2 variants.^[39, 40] One 229 study confirmed that people vaccinated with the BNT162b2 (Pfizer) or Ad26.CoV (Johnson 230 and Johnson) vaccines had more than a 7-fold reduction in their neutralizing antibodies 231 232 against the BA.4/5 variants.

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234 **3.7. XBB variant**

XBB is a new hybrid variant that emerged from the combination of BA.2.10.1 and
BA.2.75.^[41] This sub-variant has a breakpoint in the S1 region and possesses additional
mutations including V83A, Y144, Q183E, H146Q, V213E, G252V, R346T, G339H, L368I,

238	G446S, V445P, N460K, F486S, and F490S. XBB and other currently circulating variants
239	(e.g. BA.2.3.20, BA.2.75.2, BM.1.1.1, BR.2, CA.1, BN.1, BQ.1.1, BF.7 and BU.1) have
240	additional specific mutations in the RBD region that favor transmission and provide immuno-
241	evasive properties, in turn increasing transmission. The XBB and BQ.1.1 sub-variants show
242	resistance against mAbs that target RBD and demonstrate increased binding affinities to
243	ACE2 receptors. ^[36, 42] A comparison of mutations in the spike proteins of the different
244	Omicron sub-lineages is provided in Fig. 3 and Table 1. ^[36,43-45]
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WHO Classification	Name	Lineage	Spike mutations of interest	Country of origin (month/year)
VOC	Omicron	BA.1	Δ69-70, T95I, A67V, G142D, Δ143- 145, N211I, Δ212, ins215EPE, G339D, K417N, S373P, S371L, S375F, S477N, T478K, N440K, E484A, G446S, Q493R, Q498R, G496S, N501Y, D614G, Y505H, H655Y, T547K, N764K, N679K, D796Y, P681H, N969K, N856K, L981F, Q954H	Botswana, South Africa, (November, 2021)
		BA.2	G142D, N211I, Δ212, S371F, V213G, S373P, S375F, G339D, T376A, K417N, N440K, D405N, S477N, R408S, T478K, Q498R, N501Y, E484A, Y505H, Q493R, H655Y, N679K, D614G, D796Y, Q954H, P681H, N969K, N764K	South Africa, (November, 2021)
		BA.3	A67V, Δ69-70, Δ143-145, N211I, Δ212, G339D, S375F, S371F, D405N, S373P, G446S, K417N, S477N, N440K, Q493R, T478K, Q498R, E484A, D614G, N501Y, H655Y, Y505H, D796Y, N679K, P681H, N969K, Q954H	South Africa, (November, 2021)
		BA.4	L452R, F486V, wild type Q493	South Africa, (January, 2022)
		BA.5	L452R, F486V, wild type Q493	South Africa, (February, 2022)

246 **Table 1.** Comparison of spike protein mutations of Omicron sub-lineages

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Figure 3. (a) Comparison of spike protein mutations of Omicron sub-lineages, (b) Position of RBD mutations of Omicron sub-lineages (grey surface with the ACE2 footprint in dark green) (reproduced from ref-45).

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253 **4. Transmissibility and mortality**

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The Omicron variant (initially discovered in Southern Africa in November 2021) has a high 255 transmissibility and ability to escape immunity. It quickly became a dominant strain 256 worldwide resulting in a high surge in COVID-19 cases. Interestingly, it caused less severe 257 infections than the parent SARS-CoV-2 virus.^[6,7] Omicron and its BA.1 sub-lineage have 258 mutations on the spike protein and RBD region which interfere with their ability to attach to 259 ACE2 receptors.^[46] If infected with Omicron, vaccinated individuals will show only mild 260 symptoms whilst unvaccinated people risk developing serious infections and will show a 261 higher mortality rate.^[47] The high transmissibility of the BA.2 sub-lineage has been linked to 262 the presence of a unique mutation (C12525T).^[48] Despite their increased transmissibility and 263 immuno-evasive ability, the BA.1 and BA.2 sub-lineages, lead to milder infections and lower 264 mortality rates than the parent SARS-CoV-2 virus.^[10] However, further emergences of future 265 variants may still remain a continuing threat especially when the virus replicates in the people 266 with immunodeficiency disorders. Also, variants may emerge when the virus spills over to an 267 animal host and re-infects humans. Such evolutionary changes may still contribute to the 268 development of more virulent strains or otherwise in the future. 269

270 5. Diagnostics tests

The Omicron (B.1.1.529) lineage has been linked to an increased risk of re-infection in 271 convalescent and vaccinated people compared to other VOCs. At the time of its discovery, 272 273 Omicron escaped detection in many of the PCR diagnostic tests available. Screening using the non-amplification of S-gene (S-gene drop) was later used to identify Omicron cases.^[49] 274 275 Omicron sub-variants can now be detected using lateral flow (rapid) tests and PCR. A new RT-qPCR test (using the Δ 31-33 amino acid deletion in the N-gene) has recently been 276 277 developed to specifically detect Omicron and its sub-variants (BA.1, BA.2, and BA.3) with the opportunity to differentiate BA.1 from BA.2/BA.3.^[50,51] 278

The Omicron variant presents high mutations in its spike/RBD regions compared to previous SARS-CoV-2 variants. This could lead to false negative results in the PCR assays that are equipped only to detect the S-gene. Fortunately, many current PCR tests detect other genes, including the N-gene, e-gene, and RdRp gene, along with the S-gene. This helps with the detection of Omicron, which otherwise would not have been possible.^[52] The Omicron variant also present mutations in regions coding for nucleocapsid proteins. Lateral flow tests rely on the detection of such proteins and it is not completely evident how this may affect the
 diagnosis of Omicron cases.^[53]

287 6. Vaccine development

The emergence of Omicron variant and its sub-lineages have led to increased global efforts to 288 develop new (variant-specific) vaccines and urgently deploy such vaccines worldwide.^[54-56] 289 The available COVID-19 vaccines show low effectiveness against the Omicron sub-lineages, 290 but, they still remain effective in preventing disease severity, hospitalization, and death.^[57-61] 291 The Omicron variant has a substantial ability to evade immunity from prior infection or 292 vaccination. This is associated with an increased risk of breakthrough infection in vaccinated 293 individuals and re-infection in recovered patients.^[6,62,63] Studies have shown that the present 294 COVID-19 vaccines provide less immunity to Omicron than to other variants^[64] and that the 295 sera from vaccinated individuals have lower neutralizing ability (~40%) against Omicron 296 than the wild-type SARS-CoV-2.^[65] However, more data about the effectiveness of the 297 current COVID-19 vaccines are needed to ultimately conclude the levels of protection and 298 whether they can effectively protect against the Omicron variant or not. In such scenario, the 299 300 recommendation of booster shots of vaccines needs to be promoted so as to increase and improve the protective levels of immunity to counter Omicron and other variants of SARS-301 CoV-2.^[66] 302

A third (booster) dose of the Pfizer-BioNTech and Moderna vaccines has been reported to 303 potentially increase protective antibody levels and provide protection against Omicron. The 304 Omicron variant RBD binds to the human ACE2 receptors with enhanced affinity^[67] and it 305 replicates better (over 70 times more) in the bronchi than in the lung tissue compared with the 306 Delta variant.^[68] Its lower replication ability in the lungs leads to less disease severity 307 compared to the Delta variant. The immunity induced from the COVID-19 vaccines, booster 308 doses, and previous SARS-CoV-2 infections may be responsible for the lower hospitalization 309 and lesser mortality observed with Omicron infected cases. Several research efforts are 310 currently underway to develop a pancoronavirus vaccine that may be useful against the 311 multiple variants occurring worldwide.^[63] The U.S. National Institute of Allergy and 312 Infectious Diseases (NIAID) and researchers in academia are working on a vaccine to cover 313 all human coronaviruses that come under the Sarbecovirus family.^[69,70] A multitope subunit 314 vaccine (UB-612) developed against SARS-CoV-2 have been found to provide long-lasting B 315 cell (viral-neutralizing antibodies) and T cell immunity against Delta and Omicron variants 316

along with a potent booster effect on memory immunity with increased cross-reactive
 neutralizing titers.^[71]

Despite the concerns of immune escape and breakthrough infections with Omicron VOC and 319 its sublineages, it was noted that the booster doses of vaccines prepared from the original 320 Wuhan SARS-CoV-2 spike protein may still be able to produce adequate quantities of 321 neutralization antibodies against the BA.1, and BA.2.^[72] Moreover, neutralizing antibody 322 concentrations were recently analyzed after the booster dose vaccination with BNT162b2 323 vaccine. The results of this study suggested that similar quantities of both the BA.1, and BA.2 324 neutralizing antibodies were noticed.^[73] Lower concentrations of neutralizing antibodies 325 against the RBD of Omicron variant were demonstrated among people who received 2-doses 326 of BNT162b2-vaccine. Also noted were the reduced binding abilities of the Omicron RBD 327 with the ACE2 receptors in contrast to the previous Delta, Beta, and other previous VOCs.^[74] 328 Booster dose vaccination with BNT162b2 COVID-19 vaccine was able to produce significant 329 concentrations of neutralizing antibodies irrespective of the age of the vaccine recipients. 330 Therefore, a booster vaccination dose is recommended for some protection against the 331 Omicron VOC.^[75] 332

333 7. Anti-viral drugs & Oral drugs, and mAbs

The BA.2 sub-lineage has increased rapidly worldwide since January 2022. In Hong Kong, 334 the exceptionally high transmissibility of the BA.2 sublineage may be due to the unique 335 mutation C12525T.^[76] Continual genomic surveillance is highly recomended in monitoring 336 the emergence of epidemiologically important Omicron sub-variants. BA.2 has increased 337 vaccine evasion properties as compared to the other Omicron lineages.^[73] The current 338 COVID-19 vaccine boosting regimens may provide sufficient protection against Omicron-339 induced disease.^[72] More recently, antiviral oral drugs such as Molnupiravir and 340 Nirmatrelvir-Ritonavir have shown promising results in treating COVID-19 patients and a 341 high hope against Omicron and other SARS-CoV-2 variants.^[77-79] Analysis of the studies 342 with regards to the antibody evasion characteristics of Omicron sublineages have more 343 recently revealed that any of the authorized mAbs therapy could provide adequate protection 344 against all sublineages, except for recently authorized LY-CoV1404 (bebtelovimab).^[21] 345

Variable susceptibility to mAbs was observed with the Omicron sub-lineages (BA.2 and
BA.2). Bamlanivimab, Etesevimab, Casirivimab, Cilgavimab, Imdevimab, Tixagevimab and
Sotrovimab, Adintrevimab (ADG20), and Regdanvimab were tested for their usefulness in

the treatment of infections against Delta variant, and sub-lineages of SARS-CoV-2, and the 349 Omicron, respectively. The quantities of the neutralizing antibody titers among the patients 350 who received the monoclonal antibody dose showed significant reduction in response to 351 BA.2 (9-fold), and BA.1 (344-fold). However, mAbs were able to significantly inhibit the 352 Delta VOC. The BA.2 was found sensitive to cilgavimab, moderately responsive to 353 Imdevimab and resistant to Adintrevimab and Sotrovimab.^[80] Considering that most of the 354 available mAbs target the RBD and because the BA.2 developed 16 mutations in the same 355 region with 12 shared mutations with the BA.1 sub lineage, the efficacy of the mAbs remain 356 357 highly questionable against both the sub lineages. The activities of remdesivir, molnupiravir, and nirmatrelvir against the Omicron and BA.2 sub lineage were like the Wuhan strain. 358 However, monoclonal antibodies including imdevimab, casirivimab, tixagevimab, 359 cilgavimab, and sotrovimab precursor showed lower neutralizing capacity against the BA.2 360 sub lineage.^[81] Sotrovimab and CR3022 are a amongst the selected group of mAbs that target 361 conserved sites of the SARS-CoV-2 and therefore could still be effective in the management 362 of patients infected with the Omicron VOC.^[82] 363

- The mutations in BA.2.75 may facilitate resistance of the viral variant to neutralizing 364 monoclonal antibodies (mAbs).^[83] Experimental studies that assessed the activities of 365 366 neutralizing monoclonal antibodies against different Omicron sub lineages like B.1 (D614G), BA.2, BA.4/5, BA.2.12.1, and BA.2.75 have demonstrated that bebtelovimab and others 367 showed high neutralizing potential against BA.2.75 on par with other sub lineages. However, 368 BA.2.75 showed decreased susceptibility to vaccine induced neutralizing antibodies unlike 369 the BA.2, BA.4, and BA.5 Omicron sub lineages.^[84-86] This could possibly suggest the fact 370 that BA.2.75 could be equipped with other characteristics in addition to vaccine escape 371
- abilities that potentially favour infection.^[87]
- It was noted that BA.2.75 showed more than 10-fold reduced susceptibility to Cilgavimab 373 374 (mAb) when compared with its predecessor BA.1 (D614G) and other sublineages like BA.5. However, the activities of Cilgavimab on BA.2.75 was better when compared to BA.2. The 375 study also observed that Casivirimab, imdevimab, bamlanivimab, and etesevimab showed 376 reduced neutralizing activity against BA.2.75.^[88] Neutralizing antibodies demonstrated after 377 BA.1 and BA.2 infections revealed that these antibodies showed cross reactivity against other 378 Omicron sub lineages. This was evident by the occurrence of high concentrations of 379 neutralizing antibodies against BA.2.75 in patients infected with BA.1 and BA.2. 380

381 8. Strategies for infection control

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As per the preliminary data, the RBD mutations impact the neutralizing activity of mAbs and vaccine immune sera.^[89,90] Further, multiple mutations in RBD region (especially E484K mutation) also lead to breakthrough infection.^[91] Although COVID-19 vaccines are rapidly developed and in the beginning it was thought that the end of the pandemic however due to the emergence of several virus variants and their lineages, decline of vaccine efficacy and massive breakthrough infections among vaccinated populations emphasized the need for the development of next-generation and mutation-proof vaccines.^[92-96]

As the efficacy of current COVID-19 vaccines on the Omicron variant and vaccination 389 strategies are debatable, other preventive measures including adequate social distancing, 390 391 wearing of well-fitting face masks, regular hand washing, use of recommended sanitary and hygienic practices and other public health measures still remain the mainstay to counter the 392 spread of COVID-19.^[60,61,97] Only 64% of the world population is fully vaccinated as on 05 393 July 2022, apart from Africa.^[98] Proportionately, a lesser population in African continent is 394 fully vaccinated, which may explain why the variants have emerged from Africa. Vaccine 395 inequity and vaccine hesitancy may be possible reasons for the emergence of multiple 396 variants of SARS-CoV-2.^[1] So, the vaccination programs must be strictly implemented and 397 be enhanced towards obtaining herd immunity at earliest feasible time. Any failure to timely 398 tackle infections caused by the current Omicron variant and sub-variants will facilitate the 399 400 continued emergence of newer variants of SARS-CoV-2 and would pose situations of a never ending COVID-19 pandemic. The implementation of adequate prevention and control 401 measures and designing newer vaccine strategies are the priority requirements to counter 402 SARS-CoV-2 infections caused by Omicron, other variants and variants of future. The 403 continuous vigilance, reporting and comparative analyses of the genomic sequences of the 404 various Omicron sub-lineages are also crucial in understanding how this pathogen evolves, 405 which would help in designing effective prevention and control strategies to limit the spread 406 of the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic.^[99,100] 407

408 9. Conclusion

A huge surge in infections caused by the Omicron variant has been noted worldwide since late 2021. Cases have increased substantially again recently due to the emergence of several Omicron sub-lineages presenting extensive mutations in their genomes that provide the virus with immuno-evasive capabilities. Despite their high transmissibility and immune evasion capabilities, these sub-lineages are not causing severe infections. However, there is still an

opportunity for severe variants/sub-lineages to further emerge quickly. Therefore, every 414 effort should be focussed on speeding up testing, improving genome sequencing capacity and 415 continuously monitoring evolving variants/ sub-lineages to assess how specific mutations 416 may influence disease severity and clinical outcomes. This genomic surveillance can also 417 assist in the development of improved vaccines and mAbs that may protect against current 418 and future emergent variants/sub-lineages. The existing COVID-19 vaccines are likely to 419 require modifications to be able to fully protect against future variants. The next generation 420 of vaccines should ideally include a pancoronavirus vaccine, variant-specific vaccines, 421 422 multivariant (multiple antigen-based) and mutation-proof vaccines. Further studies should also focus on discovering effective mAbs and antiviral drugs against any future emerging 423 SARS-CoV-2 variants. 424

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427 Keywords: Anti-viral drugs; Omicron sub-lineages; Strategies for infection control;
428 Transmissibility; Vaccine development.

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725 **TOC**

The course of SARS-CoV-2 pandemic has been extremely complex and highly intriguing. 726 727 Given the persistence of the virus and its continued influence on people's health throughout the world despite the availability of vaccines augment further understanding of the evolution 728 729 of virus. The viral variants have been continuously emerging and the currently circulation 730 Omicron variant has been re-emerging into sublineages. The BA.1, BA.2, BA.3, BA.4, BA.5, BA.2.75, and the XBB lineages have been replacing the preceeding ones and it is not clear 731 when the virus slows down mutating and adapts to settle in the environment like the 732 733 Influenza virus. Moreover, restricting viral spread has become difficult due to mutations in 734 the spike protein that are favoring vaccine and monoclonal antibody resistance and causing breakthrough infections. Therefore, strategies to control the viral spread could still be 735 essential in prevention of infections and the emergence of newer variants. 736



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