

# 1 **Potential impacts of prolonged absence of influenza virus circulation on** 2 **subsequent epidemics**

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## 30 **Summary**

## 31 **Background**

32 During the first two years of the COVID-19 pandemic, the circulation of seasonal influenza  
33 viruses was unprecedentedly low. This led to concerns that the lack of immune stimulation to  
34 influenza viruses combined with waning antibody titres could lead to increased susceptibility  
35 to influenza in subsequent seasons, resulting in larger and more severe epidemics.

## 36 **Methods**

37 We analyzed historical influenza virus epidemiological data from 2003-2019 to assess the  
38 historical frequency of near-absence of seasonal influenza virus circulation and its impact on  
39 the size and severity of subsequent epidemics. Additionally, we measured haemagglutination  
40 inhibition-based antibody titres against seasonal influenza viruses using longitudinal serum  
41 samples from 165 healthy adults, collected before and during the COVID-19 pandemic, and  
42 estimated how antibody titres against seasonal influenza waned during the first two years of  
43 the pandemic.

## 44 **Findings**

45 Low country-level prevalence of influenza virus (sub)types over one or more years occurred  
46 frequently before the COVID-19 pandemic and had relatively small impacts on subsequent  
47 epidemic size and severity. Additionally, antibody titres against seasonal influenza viruses  
48 waned negligibly during the first two years of the pandemic.

## 49 **Interpretation**

50 The commonly held notion that lulls in influenza virus circulation, as observed during the  
51 COVID-19 pandemic, will lead to larger and/or more severe subsequent epidemics might not  
52 be fully warranted, and it is likely that post-lull seasons will be similar in size and severity to  
53 pre-lull seasons.

## 54 **Funding**

55 European Research Council, Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research, Royal Dutch  
56 Academy of Sciences, Public Health Service of Amsterdam.

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59 **Research in context**

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61 *Evidence before this study*

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63 During the first years of the COVID-19 pandemic, the incidence of seasonal influenza was  
64 unusually low, leading to widespread concerns of exceptionally large and/or severe influenza  
65 epidemics in the coming years. We searched PubMed and Google Scholar using a  
66 combination of search terms (i.e., “seasonal influenza”, “SARS-CoV-2”, “COVID-19”, “low  
67 incidence”, “waning rates”, “immune protection”) and critically considered published articles  
68 and preprints that studied or reviewed the low incidence of seasonal influenza viruses since  
69 the start of the COVID-19 pandemic and its potential impact on future seasonal influenza  
70 epidemics. We found a substantial body of work describing how influenza virus circulation  
71 was reduced during the COVID-19 pandemic, and a number of studies projecting the size of  
72 future epidemics, each positing that post-pandemic epidemics are likely to be larger than  
73 those observed pre-pandemic. However, it remains unclear to what extent the assumed  
74 relationship between accumulated susceptibility and subsequent epidemic size holds, and it  
75 remains unknown to what extent antibody levels have waned during the COVID-19  
76 pandemic. Both are potentially crucial for accurate prediction of post-pandemic epidemic  
77 sizes.

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79 *Added value of this study*

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81 We find that the relationship between epidemic size and severity and the magnitude of  
82 circulation in the preceding season(s) is decidedly more complex than assumed, with the  
83 magnitude of influenza circulation in preceding seasons having only limited effects on  
84 subsequent epidemic size and severity. Rather, epidemic size and severity are dominated by  
85 season-specific effects unrelated to the magnitude of circulation in the preceding season(s).  
86 Similarly, we find that antibody levels waned only modestly during the COVID-19 pandemic.

87

88 *Implications of all the available evidence*

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90 The lack of changes observed in the patterns of measured antibody titres against seasonal  
91 influenza viruses in adults and nearly two decades of epidemiological data suggest that post-  
92 pandemic epidemic sizes will likely be similar to those observed pre-pandemic, and challenge

93 the commonly held notion that the widespread concern that the near-absence of seasonal  
94 influenza virus circulation during the COVID-19 pandemic, or potential future lulls, are  
95 likely to result in larger influenza epidemics in subsequent years.

## 96 **Introduction**

97 Seasonal influenza viruses typically cause annual epidemics worldwide, infecting up to 35%  
98 of the human population.<sup>1,2</sup> However, the incidence of seasonal influenza was unusually low  
99 during the first two years of the COVID-19 pandemic,<sup>3,4</sup> likely due to non-pharmaceutical  
100 interventions (NPIs) aimed at reducing transmission and spread of SARS-CoV-2, which are  
101 also effective in limiting exposure to seasonal influenza viruses.<sup>5-8</sup> This global lull in  
102 influenza virus circulation and consequent lack of immune stimulation led to widespread  
103 concerns of increased susceptibility to seasonal influenza viruses due to waning immunity,  
104 potentially resulting in larger and more severe epidemics in upcoming seasons, with studies  
105 predicting substantial increases in epidemic size.<sup>6,9-12</sup> Importantly, however, these studies  
106 fundamentally rely on assumptions concerning the relationship between accumulated  
107 susceptibility and influenza epidemic size. Similarly, the results of these studies are strongly  
108 influenced by assumed, but unmeasured, dynamics of antibody waning within such a period  
109 of abnormally reduced circulation.

110 Here, we performed a data-driven investigation into the extent to which prolonged periods of  
111 absence of influenza virus circulation, such as seen during the COVID-19 pandemic, can be  
112 expected to lead to larger and more severe subsequent epidemics. First, we analyzed two  
113 decades of epidemiological data from 47 countries to investigate the frequency of influenza  
114 lulls in the past and their effects on subsequent epidemic size and severity. Second, to  
115 interrogate the effects of lulls in influenza virus circulation on influenza antibody dynamics,  
116 we investigated the extent to which antibody titres against seasonal influenza viruses waned  
117 during the COVID-19 pandemic, using serum samples collected longitudinally before and  
118 during the COVID-19 pandemic from adults living in the Netherlands.

## 119 **Methods**

### 120 *Epidemiological analysis*

121 To gain insights into the expected effects of influenza circulation lulls on post-lull influenza  
122 epidemic sizes, we investigated the effects that past (sub)type lulls had on subsequent  
123 (sub)type epidemic size. We analyzed virological surveillance data for 47 countries in the  
124 Northern and Southern Hemispheres for the period from 2002 until 2019, deposited in the  
125 WHO FluNet database.<sup>13</sup> We identified (sub)type lull periods as consecutive seasons in

126 which a particular (sub)type was not dominant, for a particular country, where we defined  
127 (sub)type dominance as a (sub)type accounting for  $\geq 30\%$  of detections in a particular  
128 country, in a particular season. Here, a (sub)type being dominant in two consecutive seasons  
129 corresponds to a lull duration of one.

130 Additionally, we estimated (sub)type-specific relative epidemic sizes for 20 countries in  
131 Europe and the Middle East by integrating virological surveillance data with influenza-like  
132 illness (ILI) data from the WHO FluID database.<sup>14</sup> In these estimates, a relative size of one  
133 corresponds to the mean number of influenza virus infections in a single season for a given  
134 country, irrespective of (sub)type.

135 We used Bayesian hierarchical models to investigate the effects of multiple metrics of the  
136 magnitude of influenza virus circulation in preceding years on relative epidemic size. To  
137 investigate the effect of magnitude of prior incidence on epidemic severity, we compared our  
138 computed lull durations to estimated rates of Europe-wide influenza-specific excess mortality  
139 as calculated prior by the EuroMOMO network,<sup>15,16</sup> which we use as a proxy for severity.  
140 Please see the Supplementary Appendix for full methodological details of all analyses  
141 outlined here.

#### 142 *Antibody model*

143 To investigate antibody dynamics during the COVID-19 pandemic, we measured antibody  
144 titres with haemagglutination inhibition (HI) assay against representative strains of each  
145 (sub)type of seasonal influenza (A/H3N2: A/Netherlands/04189/2017; A/H1N1pdm09:  
146 A/Netherlands/10218/2018; B/Yamagata: B/Netherlands/04136/2017; B/Victoria:  
147 B/Netherlands/00302/2018), in longitudinal serum samples collected in the summer of 2020  
148 and 2021 from 100 male adults within the Amsterdam Cohort Studies on HIV infection and  
149 AIDS (ACS),<sup>17</sup> as well as 130 serum samples from a longitudinal cohort of adult COVID-19  
150 patients (the Viro-immunological, clinical and psychosocial correlates of disease severity and  
151 long-term outcomes of infection in SARS-CoV-2 – a prospective cohort study  
152 (RECoVERED)).<sup>18</sup> To compare intra-pandemic against pre-pandemic influenza antibody  
153 dynamics, we additionally measured HI titres to the same strains for the same ACS  
154 individuals using serum samples collected in the summer of 2017, 2018 and 2019, yielding a  
155 total of 630 serum samples across both cohorts. Importantly, all ACS individuals were HIV-

156 seronegative. Individuals from the RECoVERED cohort were confirmed to have not been  
157 vaccinated for influenza in 2020.

158 We used a mathematical model to estimate antibody waning rates, based on the measured  
159 haemagglutination inhibition antibody titres, with a Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)  
160 algorithm used to explore the distribution of model parameters and augmented data. Full  
161 details on virus selection, virus propagation, cohort details, HI assay used and the antibody  
162 waning model can be found in the Supplementary Appendix.

### 163 *Role of the funding source*

164 The funder of the study had no role in study design, data collection, data analysis, data  
165 interpretation, or writing of the report.

## 166 **Results**

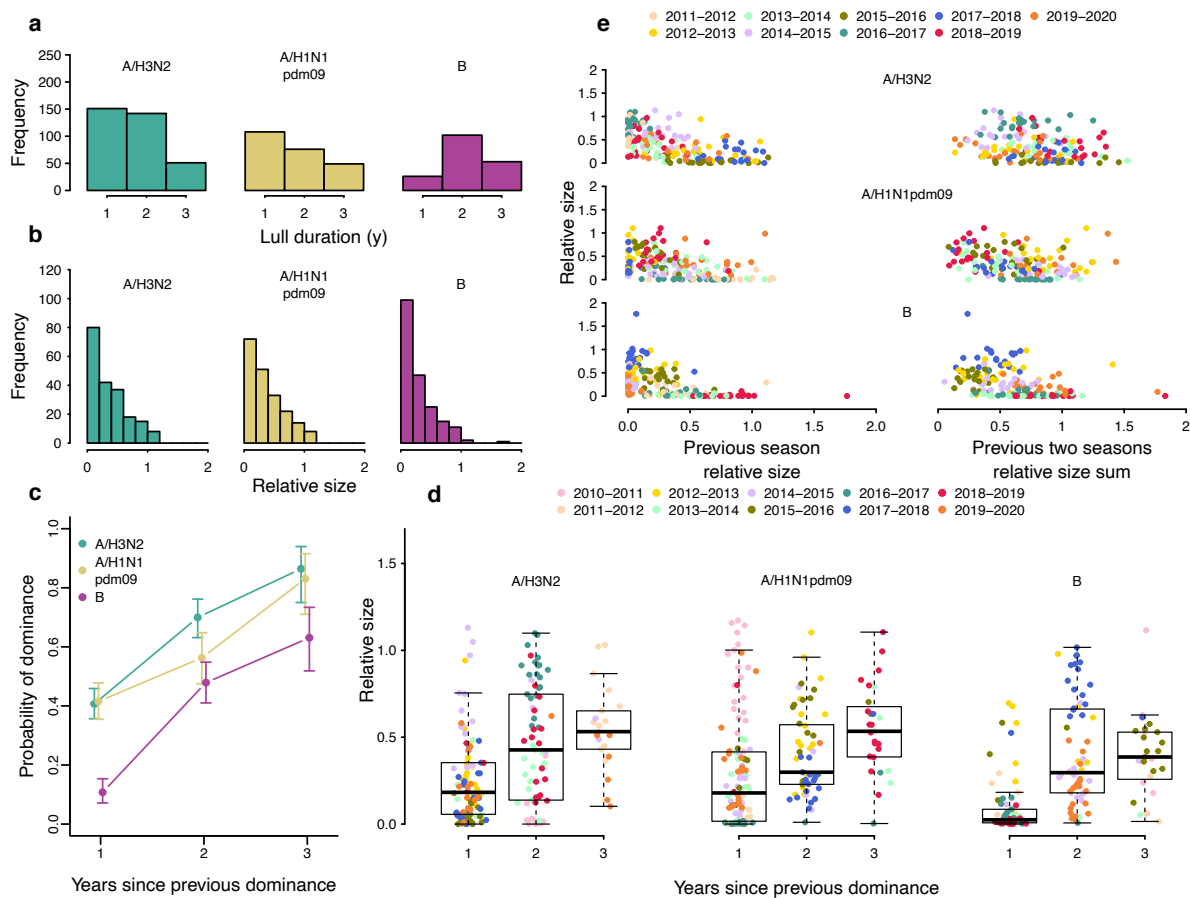
### 167 *Effects of past (sub)type lulls on subsequent (sub)type epidemic size*

168 Prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, seasonal influenza virus circulation was highly  
169 heterogeneous, with individual influenza epidemics in any given country typically being  
170 dominated by one or two influenza virus (sub)types, leading to frequent lull periods lasting 1-  
171 3 years where other seasonal influenza virus subtypes barely circulated. Due to the lack of  
172 immunological cross-reactivity between (sub)types, these lulls are potentially analogous to  
173 the scenario observed in the first two years of the COVID-19 pandemic for individual  
174 (sub)types. Hence, they should yield insight into the effects of these lulls on epidemic size.

175 Between 2003 and 2020, low or near-absent circulation of an influenza virus (sub)type within  
176 a single season occurred frequently, accounting for 41%, 48%, and 62% of all country-season  
177 pairs for A/H3N2, A/H1N1pdm09 and influenza B viruses, respectively. In 53%, 56%, and  
178 88% of country-season pairs for A/H3N2, A/H1N1pdm09, and B viruses, respectively,  
179 (sub)type lulls lasted for more than one year, with some lull periods lasting as long as three  
180 years (Fig. 1a). This indicates that extended periods of relative absence of individual  
181 influenza (sub)types are a regular feature of influenza epidemic dynamics. Very small or  
182 absent (sub)type-specific epidemics (*i.e.* relative epidemic sizes  $< 0.1$ , corresponding to 10%  
183 of the mean influenza epidemic size) were observed for 28%, 23%, and 37% of country-  
184 seasons for A/H3N2, A/H1N1pdm09 and influenza B viruses, respectively (Fig. 1b).



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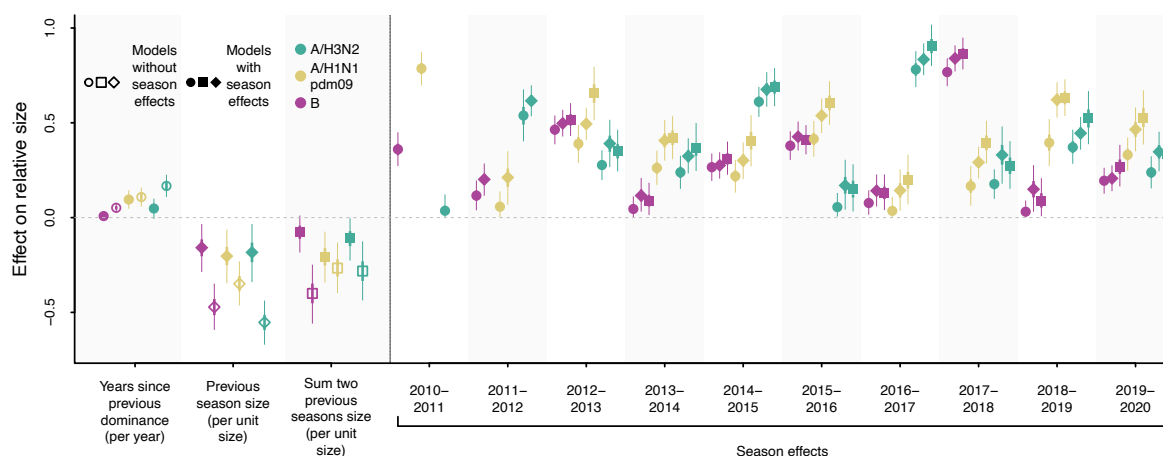
187 **Fig. 1. The effects of previous years' influenza virus circulation on epidemic size and**  
 188 **composition.** **a,** The distribution of lull period durations, by (sub)type, across all country-  
 189 season pairs. A lull duration of one corresponds to the same (sub)type's dominance in the  
 190 previous season and presence in the current season. **b,** The distribution of relative epidemic  
 191 sizes by virus (sub)type, across all countries and seasons. **c,** The probability of (sub)type  
 192 dominance as a function of years since previous dominance. Error bars correspond to 95%  
 193 confidence interval from an exact two-tailed binomial test for proportions. **d,** Relative size of  
 194 a (sub)type-specific epidemic as a function of number of years since previous dominance of  
 195 that (sub)type in that country, colored by season. Each point corresponds to a country-season  
 196 pair, colored by the season. **e,** Relative size of a subtype's epidemic as a function of its size in  
 197 the previous season and the sum of the two previous seasons' sizes. Each point corresponds  
 198 to a country-season pair, colored by the season.

199

200 Investigating the effect influenza virus (sub)type lulls had on epidemic composition and size,  
 201 we found that although both the probability of a (sub)type's dominance and the mean  
 202 epidemic sizes for each influenza virus (sub)type increased with time since previous  
 203 dominance (Fig. 1c-d), epidemic sizes varied substantially for each value of years since last

204 dominance (Fig. 1d). This suggests that background variation in epidemic size, independent  
205 of absence or presence of circulation in preceding years, is substantial. Similarly, while there  
206 is a negative relationship between the relative epidemic size of each (sub)type to its relative  
207 size in the preceding year and the relative summed size over the last two years, there is wide  
208 variation in epidemic size: seasons with very low and very high relative sizes both occurred  
209 frequently following years of low-to-mid incidence (Fig. 1e). Notably, in 9 of the 20  
210 countries included in our dataset, the first A/H3N2-dominant season (2011/2012) after the  
211 2009 A/H1N1pdm09 pandemic did not belong to the three largest A/H3N2 epidemics in the  
212 influenza seasons from 2010/2011 until 2019/2020, despite three years of near-absent  
213 circulation.

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216

217 **Fig. 2. Bayesian hierarchical model correlating relative influenza (sub)type epidemic**  
218 **size to time since previous dominance, previous epidemic sizes and season-specific**  
219 **effects.** Posterior distributions of parameter estimates in the model, with one year since  
220 previous dominance (circles), previous epidemic size (diamonds), or sum of previous two  
221 epidemics' size (squares) as predictors, either with or without season effects. Points, thick  
222 and thin lines correspond to the posterior mean, 50% CI, and 95% CIs, respectively.

223

224 Importantly, for each number of years since dominance, we observed a striking degree of  
225 clustering of relative epidemic sizes across countries by season, suggesting the existence of  
226 season-specific effects on epidemic size, shared among countries in a single season (Fig. 1d).  
227 For example, in the 2013/2014 and 2016/2017 seasons, where A/H3N2 dominated in most  
228 countries two years prior, the relative incidence in 2016/2017 appeared consistently higher

229 than in 2013/2014. We thus hypothesized that the size of (sub)type-specific epidemics could  
230 be jointly explained by a combination of season-specific effects shared among countries and  
231 effects related to the presence or absence of that virus (sub)type in the years preceding an  
232 epidemic. We used a Bayesian hierarchical model to estimate the likely effects of years since  
233 dominance, size in the previous year and the sum of previous two seasons' sizes, as well as  
234 season-specific effects, on epidemic size (Fig. 2). The season effects correspond to the  
235 predicted 'base size' of a country's epidemic in a particular season, independent of the  
236 magnitude of prior circulation. Each of the three predictors individually had non-trivial  
237 effects on epidemic size in models with season effects and estimated effects were  
238 substantially smaller than in models that did not include season effects (Fig. 2).

239 Crucially, across all model formulations, the estimated season effects, shared among  
240 countries, differed substantially between seasons. Models that included season effects  
241 exhibited much better predictive performance than models without season effects  
242 (Supplementary Fig. 1), and between-season differences with regard to season effects were  
243 consistently substantially greater in magnitude than any of the predictors related to prior  
244 incidence. For example, in the model that includes previous season size as predictor for  
245 A/H3N2 epidemic size, the estimated season effects ('base sizes') ranged from 0.17 (95% CI  
246 0.04-0.31) in 2015/2016 to 0.83 (95% CI 0.75-0.92) in 2016/2017: a difference of 0.66.  
247 Conversely, assuming the size of the previous season was the mean A/H3N2 season relative  
248 size (across all included countries and seasons), the effect of previous season size would only  
249 decrease predicted size by 0.06 (95% CI 0.01-0.12) compared to if there were no circulation  
250 in the previous season. Together, these results suggest that there is only a limited impact of  
251 the magnitude of influenza virus circulation in the preceding season(s) on subsequent  
252 epidemic size, consistent with previous work,<sup>19</sup> and that epidemic size is dominated by  
253 season-specific factors, unrelated to the magnitude of prior circulation.

#### 254 ***Effects of past (sub)type lulls on subsequent influenza season severity***

255 To investigate the effect of low influenza virus circulation on subsequent influenza season  
256 severity, as opposed to size, we compared our computed lull durations to Europe-wide  
257 estimates of excess mortality as calculated by the EuroMOMO network.<sup>15,16</sup> Rates of pooled  
258 Europe-wide influenza-attribute excess mortality varied substantially between seasons,  
259 ranging from 0.31 (95% CI 0.24-0.38) per 100,000 in 2013/2014 to 28.58 (95% CI: 28.22-  
260 28.95) per 100,000 in 2014/2015. Hence, in the decade prior to the COVID-19 pandemic,

261 epidemics could differ by up to two orders of magnitude in their severity.<sup>15,16</sup> In the  
262 2011/2012 season, which was A/H3N2-dominant Europe-wide and followed a three-year  
263 A/H3N2 lull in almost all countries, Europe-wide total excess mortality in the winter period  
264 amounted to 6·73 (95% CI 5·26-8·21) per 100,000. In turn, in the 2014/2015 and 2016/2017  
265 seasons, which were also A/H3N2-dominant Europe-wide and followed lull periods of one  
266 and two years in almost all countries, respectively, influenza-specific excess mortality  
267 amounted to 28·58 (95% CI: 28·22-28·95) and 25·65 (95% CI: 25·26-26·05) per 100,000,  
268 respectively.<sup>15,16</sup> Hence, in these seasons, influenza-specific excess mortality was four-to-five  
269 fold higher than total winter period excess mortality in 2011/2012, despite substantially  
270 shorter lull durations. While this coarse analysis can only be performed for seasons  
271 dominated by a single (sub)type, these results suggest that there is no clear relationship  
272 between the magnitude of circulation in the preceding seasons and the severity of subsequent  
273 seasons.

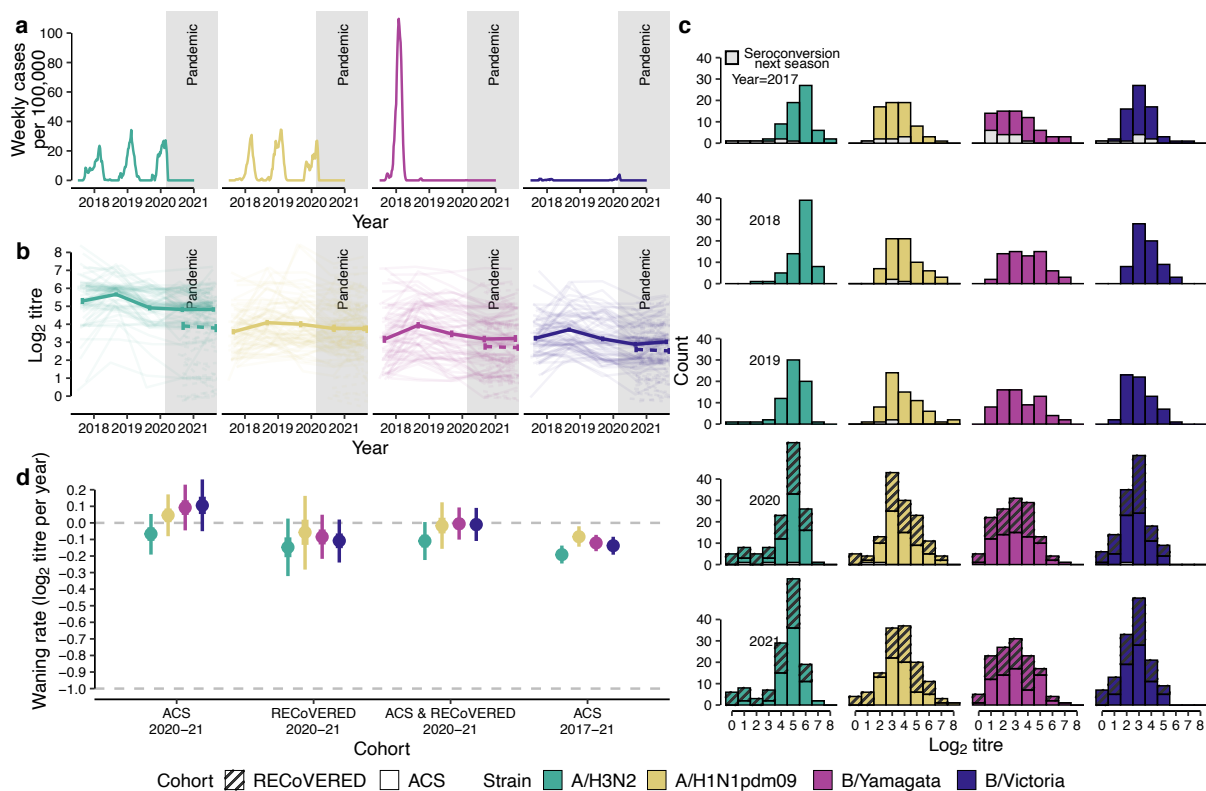
#### 274 *Antibody responses to seasonal influenza virus during the COVID-19 pandemic*

275 Waning of pre-existing immunity due to lack of immune stimulation has been posited to lead  
276 to larger post-lull epidemics, but evidence is lacking on precisely to what degree antibody  
277 immunity against seasonal influenza viruses might change during near-absence of seasonal  
278 influenza, as seen in the COVID-19 pandemic. To explicitly quantify the effects of lack of  
279 influenza virus circulation on antibody titres against seasonal influenza viruses, we performed  
280 an analysis of influenza antibody dynamics in the pre- and intra-COVID-19 pandemic period  
281 in the Netherlands. We quantified the baseline antibody titres of an adult population in the  
282 Netherlands for the seasons preceding the COVID-19 pandemic and the extent of their  
283 decrease during the pandemic. Importantly, antibody responses to the haemagglutinin protein  
284 of influenza viruses are known to be correlates of protection.<sup>20-22</sup>

285 From 2019 to 2021, mean HI titres remained largely unchanged for all influenza virus  
286 (sub)types, including during the COVID-19 pandemic period, for both the ACS and  
287 RECoVERED cohorts (Fig. 3b, Supplementary Fig. 4b). Influenza A/H3N2, A/H1N1pdm09  
288 and B/Yamagata viruses had caused epidemics in the three influenza seasons prior to the  
289 onset of the COVID-19 pandemic (Fig. 3a) and epidemic activity during this period was  
290 consistent with patterns from 2010-2019 (Supplementary Fig. 2). For all seasonal influenza  
291 virus (sub)types, mean HI titres increased after the 2017/2018 influenza epidemic but  
292 returned to pre-2017/2018 levels by summer 2019 in the ACS cohort (Fig. 3b, Supplementary

293 Fig. 4b). Differentiating the year-on-year individual HI titre distributions by titre rises that are  
 294 indicative of recent influenza virus infection ( $\geq 4$ -fold increase,  $\geq 2 \log_2$  units), showed that  
 295 influenza A and B virus infections were most common in individuals with low antibody titres  
 296 in the year prior to infection (Fig. 3c, Supplementary Fig. 4c); consistent with lower antibody  
 297 titers being associated with greater risk of infection. Overall, the HI titre distributions of the  
 298 cohort remained largely unchanged over the study period, including during the first two years  
 299 of the COVID-19 pandemic.

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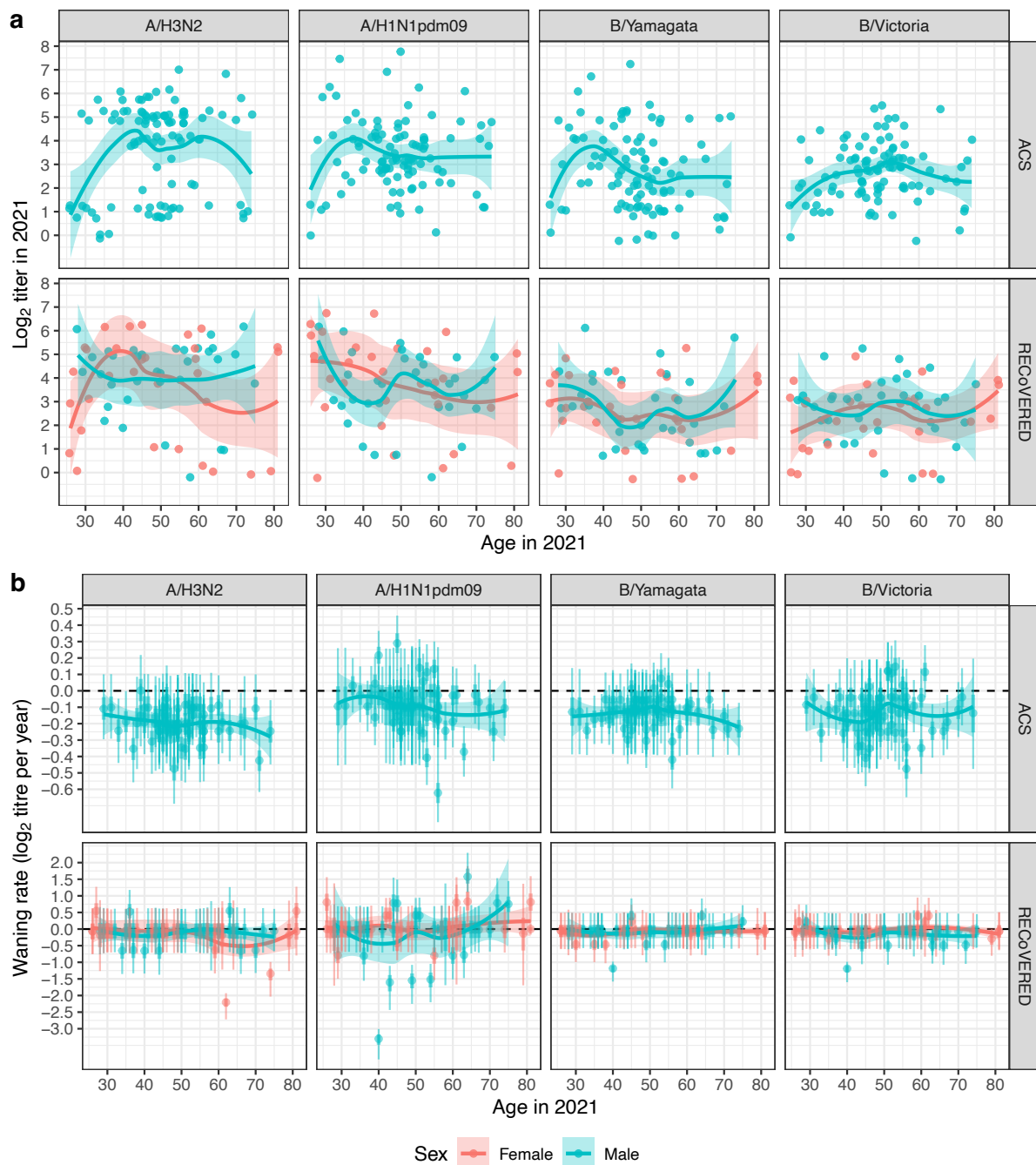
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302 **Fig. 3. Waning antibody titres to seasonal influenza virus before and during the**  
 303 **COVID-19 pandemic. a**, Individual antibody titres against seasonal influenza viruses based  
 304 on haemagglutination inhibition (HI) assay from 2017-2021 among 70 healthy male adult  
 305 participants of the Amsterdam Cohort Studies on HIV infection and AIDS (ACS) cohort for  
 306 each influenza virus (sub)type as well as 65 male and female participants of the  
 307 RECoVERED cohort for years 2020-21 (dashed). Mean antibody titres changes across all  
 308 individuals are drawn in bold lines with error bars indicating the mean standard error. **b**,  
 309 Seasonal influenza virus epidemic activity 2017-2021 in the Netherlands based on virological  
 310 and syndromic surveillance data. **c**, HI titre distributions in the two cohorts following each  
 311 winter epidemic period colored by influenza virus (sub)type. HI titre distributions of  
 312 individuals who experienced a  $\geq 2 \log_2$  units increase in HI titre ( $\geq 4$ -fold increase in HI titre),  
 313 indicating likely infection in the next winter epidemic period, are shown in grey bars. **d**,  
 314 Mean HI antibody titre waning rates by influenza virus (sub)type in adults estimated from HI

315 titres from 70 ACS and 65 RECoVERED participants. Error bars correspond to the 50% and  
316 95% credible interval from the Markov Chain Monte Carlo algorithm used to explore the  
317 distribution of model parameters. Waning rate of -1.0 corresponds to one two-fold decrease  
318 in antibody titre in one year.

319

320 We applied a mathematical model on the HI titres of participants in 2020 and 2021 to  
321 estimate pandemic-period antibody titre waning rates. For the ACS individuals, we estimated  
322 that antibody titres against A/H3N2 viruses waned at  $-0.20 \log_2$  units per year, 95% credible  
323 interval (CI)  $(-0.24, -0.16)$ ; A/H1N1pdm09 viruses at  $-0.10$ , 95% CI  $(-0.12, -0.07)$ ;  
324 B/Victoria viruses at  $-0.13$ , 95% CI  $(-0.16, -0.10)$ ; and B/Yamagata viruses at  $-0.14$ , 95% CI  
325  $(-0.17, -0.11)$  (Fig. 3d, Supplementary Fig. 4d). For the RECoVERED cohort, we estimated  
326 mean waning rates towards A/H3N2, A/H1N1pdm09, B/Yamagata, and B/Victoria to be -  
327  $0.15$ , 95% CI  $(-0.31, 0.01)$ ,  $-0.08$ , 95% CI  $(-0.19, 0.03)$ ,  $-0.08$ , 95% CI  $(-0.20, 0.04)$  and -  
328  $0.10$ , 95% CI  $(-0.22, 0.02) \log_2$  units per year respectively, in agreement with those derived  
329 from the ACS cohort (Fig. 3d). Combining data from both cohorts for the 2020-2021 period,  
330 the estimated mean waning rates remained similar to previous estimates for A/H3N2,  
331 A/H1N1pdm09 and B/Yamagata, and negligible for B/Victoria. We also calculated mean  
332 waning rates using HI titres from the same ACS individuals for the entire 2017-2021 period  
333 (Fig. 3d, Supplementary Fig. 4d), including only individuals who were likely not infected  
334 during the 2017-2021 period (*i.e.* no  $\geq 2 \log_2$  unit increases in HI titre for the entire study  
335 period). For this period, no significant waning of HI titres against any of the viruses was  
336 observed either, and estimates were similar to estimates for the 2020-2021 period, for both  
337 the ACS and the RECoVERED cohorts. We stratified baseline antibody titres by age and sex,  
338 for each (sub)type, but found no consistent age- or sex-related effects on baseline titres (Fig.  
339 4a) or antibody waning rates (Fig. 4b). Measurement error was found to be consistent in both  
340 datasets at  $0.38$ , 95% CI  $(0.36, 0.40)$  and  $0.33$ , 95% CI  $(0.31, 0.36) \log_2$  units for the full  
341 ACS and RECoVERED cohorts respectively, corresponding to a one-sided probability of a 2-  
342 fold error of approximately 5 – 11%.



343

344 **Fig. 4. The effects of age and sex on baseline antibody titre and waning rate. a,**  
 345 **a cross section of antibody titres for both cohorts in 2021, broken down by (sub)type, age and sex. b,**  
 346 **Individual fitted waning rates with 50% (thick lines) and 95% (narrow lines) CIs for the ACS**  
 347 **2017-21 and RECoVERED 2020-21 data, broken down by strain, age and sex.**

348

## 349 **Discussion**

350 Our analysis of two decades of epidemiological data from 47 countries demonstrates that low  
351 country-level prevalence of influenza (sub)types over one or more years was not unique to  
352 the COVID-19 pandemic and occurred frequently in the past, and that periods of low or near-  
353 absent circulation of particular (sub)types did not necessarily lead to substantially increased  
354 epidemic sizes. Additionally, Bayesian statistical modelling shows that the magnitude of a  
355 (sub)type's circulation in preceding years had only limited effect on subsequent size. Instead,  
356 the strong clustering of different countries' epidemic size within particular seasons, supported  
357 by statistical modelling, suggests that epidemic size is more likely influenced by season-  
358 specific effects that are unrelated to the absence or presence of circulation in the prior  
359 season(s). The precise determinants of these season effects are likely manifold, including  
360 factors like the flux of viral seeding, heterosubtypic competition, and antigenic novelty.<sup>19,23,24</sup>  
361 Similarly, the severity of influenza seasons appears to be largely independent of the  
362 magnitude of influenza virus circulation in the preceding seasons. Importantly, this means  
363 that even if there were substantial accumulation of susceptibility, for example during the  
364 COVID-19 pandemic, it is likely that its effect on epidemic size and severity would be  
365 dwarfed by inherent season-to-season variation in epidemic size, unrelated to the absence or  
366 presence of substantial circulation in preceding years.

367 We showed that HI-measured immune protection against recent seasonal influenza viruses  
368 remained largely unchanged in adults since the start of the COVID-19 pandemic. Our  
369 analysis also suggests that substantial waning of antibody titres against seasonal influenza  
370 viruses occurs at timescales substantially longer than the lull in seasonal influenza virus  
371 circulation during the first two years of the COVID-19 pandemic<sup>10</sup>. Crucially, this analysis  
372 demonstrates that waning rates previously used to project post-COVID-19 lull epidemic sizes  
373 (e.g. waning of immunity within a single year<sup>9</sup>, two to four years<sup>6</sup>, or forty weeks<sup>12</sup>) are too  
374 high, and that waning rather happens on longer timescales, even following periods of absent  
375 circulation, in agreement with waning rates previously reported for adults during regular  
376 periods of influenza virus circulation.<sup>25</sup>

377 The serum samples were collected in two independent cohorts, with substantial diversity in  
378 age and sex, accounting for the elderly but excluding children. Due to the complex effects of  
379 immunosenescence, the elderly potentially exhibit differing antibody dynamics. Whilst  
380 studies have shown that vaccine-mediated protection wanes modestly quicker in those over



381 65 years of age,<sup>26,27</sup> there is little evidence to support the notion that serum antibodies wane  
382 significantly faster for this age group. Our results showed similar antibody baseline titres and  
383 waning rates for adults below and above 65 years of age, suggesting that serum antibodies in  
384 both subgroups wane at similar rates.

385 Due to the lack of children in our serological analysis, the extent to which their waning rates  
386 have changed since the start of the COVID-19 pandemic remains uncertain. Immune  
387 dynamics in children are known to differ from those in adults,<sup>28</sup> with potentially higher  
388 waning rates, which could lead to increased susceptibility to infection. Furthermore, the  
389 accrual of additional birth cohorts during prolonged periods of absence of influenza virus  
390 circulation might affect epidemic dynamics. However, the same dynamics of waning in  
391 children and population turnover also occurred in pre-pandemic (sub)type lulls and are thus  
392 fully incorporated in our epidemiological analyses. As such, the absence of child sera is  
393 unlikely to bias our conclusions.

394 We used influenza-like illness data from the WHO FluID database and virologically  
395 confirmed data from the WHO FluNet database in our epidemiological analyses. Bias might  
396 affect both data sources. In particular, the FluID ILI data is non-influenza-specific, and  
397 FluNet data might be biased due to e.g. the presence of convenience samples and  
398 overrepresentation of outpatient surveillance. However, the observed consistency in the  
399 estimated (sub)type-specific epidemic sizes across the 20 countries included in the analysis  
400 for any given season suggests that these data sources broadly capture influenza  
401 epidemiological dynamics. Therefore, our results are unlikely to be substantially affected by  
402 potential year-on-year differences in reporting behavior or unrepresentative sampling.  
403 Additionally, the applicability of our analysis to the post-COVID-19 pandemic-like situation  
404 is predicated on the absence of substantial heterosubtypic immunity. Importantly,  
405 heterosubtypic protection has previously been estimated to be exceedingly short-lived, with  
406 duration on the order of a single day.<sup>28</sup> While we could only perform our severity analysis  
407 using Europe-wide excess mortality data, the clustering of epidemic sizes within seasons  
408 across European countries as observed in our epidemiological analysis suggests that, for any  
409 given season, Europe-wide severity data is likely representative of the country level.

410 Although participants in the RECoVERED cohort were confirmed to be unvaccinated during  
411 the study period, vaccination status for the ACS cohort was not known. However, in the  
412 Netherlands individuals <60 years of age are only eligible for influenza vaccination if they  
413 have underlying health conditions, and assuming population-wide rates of influenza vaccine

414 uptake in the Netherlands, only 3% of the ACS individuals, who importantly were all HIV-  
415 seronegative, would be expected to be vaccinated. This, combined with the similarity in  
416 antibody baseline titres and waning rates when comparing adults below and above 60 years of  
417 age, suggests that lack of vaccination status for the ACS cohort is unlikely to bias our  
418 conclusions.

419 Caution is required when looking at the size of post-pandemic seasonal influenza epidemics  
420 as the COVID-19 pandemic has brought about immense changes in testing behavior, which  
421 render the direct comparison of epidemic sizes before and immediately after the pandemic  
422 difficult. However, preliminary insight into the effects of COVID-19 pandemic related  
423 absence of circulation can be gained from Australia, where surveillance data shows that the  
424 2022 influenza season was not greater in size than the range of epidemic sizes observed in the  
425 decade prior to the COVID-19 pandemic.<sup>29</sup>

426 Past studies into the possible effects of a lull in influenza circulation on subsequent epidemic  
427 size have assumed that the relationship between accumulation of susceptibility and epidemic  
428 size can be predicted using standard SIR-type epidemic models. Here, we show that this  
429 relationship is decidedly more complex, and that season-to-season variation in epidemic size  
430 is dominated by factors not captured in current SIR models, with only a relatively small effect  
431 of the magnitude of epidemics in the preceding year(s). Additionally, our results show that  
432 antibody titres to influenza viruses waned marginally during the COVID-19 pandemic, and to  
433 a smaller extent than assumed in modelling studies. Using multiple sources of data to add  
434 nuance to a complex issue, our results challenge the commonly held notion that post-lull  
435 influenza epidemics will be substantially larger and/or more severe.

436

## 437 **Contributors**

438 S.P.d.J., Z.C.F.G., J.C.G., A.X.H., D.E., M.D.d.J., and C.A.R. designed the research;  
439 Z.C.F.G, S.v.L., M.v.H., K.d.H., and L.E.v.G executed the experimental work; Z.C.F.G. and  
440 S.v.L. generated the antibody titre data; E.W., G.J.d.B, H.D.G.v.W., A.M., M.B., L.v.d.H.,  
441 M.P., N.K., and M.D.d.J. collected the clinical samples; R.P.d.V. and G.J.B. made and  
442 provided the glycan remodelled turkey red blood cells; S.P.d.J. and J.C.G. implemented the  
443 modelling work and performed the data analysis; S.P.d.J.,Z.C.F.G., J.C.G., A.X.H., K.D.H.,  
444 B.E.N., and C.A.R. wrote the first draft of the paper. All authors contributed to the critical  
445 revision of the paper.

## 446 **Declaration of interests**

447 We declare no competing interests.

## 448 **Data sharing**

449 All of the de-identified raw hemagglutination inhibition data, as well as accession codes for  
450 GISAID data, used in this paper is provided as supplementary information files. Raw  
451 surveillance data downloaded from WHO FluNet and FluID can be found in the project  
452 GitHub repository (<https://github.com/AMC-LAEB/waning-immunity-to-flu>). Biological  
453 materials are available for study via the Amsterdam Cohort Studies on HIV infection and  
454 AIDS (ACS) and the Viro-immunological, clinical and psychosocial correlates of disease  
455 severity and long-term outcomes of infection in SARS-CoV-2 – a prospective cohort study  
456 (RECoVERED). Custom scripts used for data analysis and modelling are available at the  
457 project GitHub repository (<https://github.com/AMC-LAEB/waning-immunity-to-flu>). Any  
458 additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available from  
459 the lead contact upon request.

## 460 **Acknowledgements**

461 A.X.H., Z.C.F.G. and C.A.R. were supported by ERC NaviFlu (No. 818353). J.G. and C.A.R.  
462 were supported by NIH R01 (5R01AI132362-04). C.A.R. was also supported by an NWO  
463 Vici Award (09150182010027). R.P.dV. was supported by ERC starting grant 802780 and a  
464 Beijerinck Premium of the Royal Dutch Academy of Sciences. GJB was supported by the  
465 Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (NWO TOPPUNT 718.015.003) and by an  
466 ERC advanced grant (101020769). The RECoVERED cohort is supported by NWO ZonMw  
467 (No. 10150062010002) and the Public Health Service of Amsterdam (Research &  
468 Development grant number 21-14). The Amsterdam Cohort Studies on HIV infection and  
469 AIDS, a collaboration between the Public Health Service Amsterdam, the Amsterdam UMC  
470 of the University of Amsterdam, Medical Center Jan van Goyen and the HIV Focus Center of  
471 the DC-Clinics, are part of the Netherlands HIV Monitoring Foundation and financially  
472 supported by the Center for Infectious Disease Control of the Netherlands National Institute  
473 for Public Health and the Environment. We gratefully acknowledge the authors and  
474 originating and submitting laboratories (supplementary information) for the reference  
475 sequences retrieved from GISAID's EpiFlu Database used in this study. The authors thank all

476 ACS and RECoVERED study participants. We are also grateful to Mr. Reinier van der Palen  
477 of the department of Chemical Biology and Drug Discovery, Utrecht University for his  
478 practical assistance with turkey erythrocyte glycan remodeling.

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