

Virological characteristics of the SARS-CoV-2 BA.2.86 variant

Tomokazu Tamura^{1,2,3,4,5,6#}, Keita Mizuma^{7#}, Hesham Nasser^{8,9#}, Sayaka Deguchi^{10#}, Miguel Padilla-Blanco^{11,12#}, Keiya Uriu^{13,14#}, Jarel Elgin M. Tolentino^{13,15#}, Shuhei Tsujino¹, Rigel Suzuki^{1,2}, Isshu Kojima⁷, Naganori Nao^{2,3,16}, Ryo Shimizu⁸, Michael Jonathan⁸, Yusuke Kosugi^{13,14}, Ziyi Guo¹³, Alfredo A Hinay Jr.¹³, Olivia Putri^{13,17}, Yoonjin Kim^{13,18}, Yuri L Tanaka¹¹, Hiroyuki Asakura¹⁹, Mami Nagashima¹⁹, Kenji Sadamasu¹⁹, Kazuhisa Yoshimura¹⁹, The Genotype to Phenotype Japan (G2P-Japan) Consortium, Akatsuki Saito^{11,20,21}, Jumpei Ito^{13,22}, Takashi Irie²³, Jiri Zahradnik^{12*}, Terumasa Ikeda^{8*}, Kazuo Takayama^{10,24*}, Keita Matsuno^{2,3,7,16*}, Takasuke Fukuhara^{1,2,3,4,5,6,24,25*}, Kei Sato^{13,14,15,22,26,27,28,29,30,31*}

¹ Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Faculty of Medicine, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan

² Institute for Vaccine Research and Development (IVReD), Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan

³ One Health Research Center, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan

⁴ Graduate School of Medicine, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan

⁵ School of Medicine, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan

⁶ Institute for the Advancement of Higher Education, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan

⁷ Division of Risk Analysis and Management, International Institute for Zoonosis Control, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan

⁸ Division of Molecular Virology and Genetics, Joint Research Center for Human Retrovirus Infection, Kumamoto University, Kumamoto, Japan

⁹ Department of Clinical Pathology, Faculty of Medicine, Suez Canal University, Ismailia, Egypt

¹⁰ Center for iPS Cell Research and Application (CiRA), Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan

¹¹ Department of Veterinary Science, Faculty of Agriculture, University of Miyazaki, Miyazaki, Japan

¹² First Medical Faculty at Biocev, Charles University, Vestec-Prague, Czechia

¹³ Division of Systems Virology, Department of Microbiology and Immunology, The Institute of Medical Science, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan

¹⁴ Graduate School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan

¹⁵ Graduate School of Frontier Sciences, The University of Tokyo, Kashiwa, Japan

¹⁶ International Collaboration Unit, International Institute for Zoonosis Control, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan

¹⁷ Department of Biomedicine, School of Life Sciences, Indonesia International Institute for Life Sciences (i3L), Jakarta, Indonesia

- 43 ¹⁸ Department of Life Sciences, Faculty of Natural Science, Imperial College
 44 London, London, United Kingdom
 45 ¹⁹ Tokyo Metropolitan Institute of Public Health, Tokyo, Japan
 46 ²⁰ Center for Animal Disease Control, University of Miyazaki, Miyazaki, Japan
 47 ²¹ Graduate School of Medicine and Veterinary Medicine, University of Miyazaki,
 48 Miyazaki, Japan
 49 ²² International Vaccine Design Center, The Institute of Medical Science, The
 50 University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan
 51 ²³ Graduate School of Biomedical and Health Sciences, Hiroshima University,
 52 Hiroshima, Japan
 53 ²⁴ AMED-CREST, Japan Agency for Medical Research and Development
 54 (AMED), Tokyo, Japan
 55 ²⁵ Laboratory of Virus Control, Research Institute for Microbial Diseases, Osaka
 56 University, Suita, Japan
 57 ²⁶ CREST, Japan Science and Technology Agency, Kawaguchi, Japan
 58 ²⁷ International Research Center for Infectious Diseases, The Institute of Medical
 59 Science, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan
 60 ²⁸ Collaboration Unit for Infection, Joint Research Center for Human Retrovirus
 61 Infection, Kumamoto University, Kumamoto, Japan
 62 ²⁹ CREST, Japan Science and Technology Agency, Kawaguchi, Japan
 63 ³⁰ Twitter: @SystemsVirology
 64 ³¹ Lead Contact
 65 # These authors contributed equally
 66
 67 *Corresponding authors:
 68 jiri.zahradnik2@gmail.com (Jiri Zahradnik),
 69 ikedat@kumamoto-u.ac.jp (Terumasa Ikeda),
 70 kazuo.takayama@cira.kyoto-u.ac.jp (Kazuo Takayama),
 71 matsuk@czc.hokudai.ac.jp (Keita Matsuno),
 72 fukut@pop.med.hokudai.ac.jp (Takasuke Fukuhara),
 73 KeiSato@g.ecc.u-tokyo.ac.jp (Kei Sato)
 74
 75 **Short title:** Characteristics of SARS-CoV-2 BA.2.86 (37/50 characters)
 76 **Keywords:** SARS-CoV-2; COVID-19; BA.2.86; pathogenicity

77 **Abstract** (149/150 words)

78 In late 2023, a lineage of SARS-CoV-2 emerged and was named the BA.2.86
 79 variant. BA.2.86 is phylogenetically distinct from other Omicron sublineages
 80 identified so far, displaying an accumulation of over 30 amino acid mutations in
 81 its spike protein. Here, we performed multiscale investigations to reveal the
 82 virological characteristics of the BA.2.86 variant. Our epidemic dynamics
 83 modeling suggested that the relative reproduction number of BA.2.86 is
 84 significantly higher than that of EG.5.1. Experimental studies showed that four
 85 clinically-available antivirals were effective against BA.2.86. Although the
 86 fusogenicity of BA.2.86 spike is similar to that of the parental BA.2 spike, the
 87 intrinsic pathogenicity of BA.2.86 in hamsters was significantly lower than that of
 88 BA.2. Since the growth kinetics of BA.2.86 is significantly lower than that of BA.2
 89 in both *in vitro* cell cultures and *in vivo*, it is suggested that the attenuated
 90 pathogenicity of BA.2.86 is due to its decreased replication capacity.

91 Introduction

92 In November 2023, the SARS-CoV-2 XBB descendants, mainly EG.5.1
 93 (originally XBB.1.9.2.5.1), are predominantly circulating worldwide according to
 94 Nextstrain (<https://nextstrain.org/ncov/gisaid/global/6m>). However, a lineage far
 95 distinct from XBB unexpectedly emerged and named BA.2.86 on August 14,
 96 2023 ¹. Notably, BA.2.86 bears more than 30 mutations in the spike (S) protein
 97 compared to XBB and the parental BA.2, which are assumed to be associated
 98 with immune evasion ². According to the higher number of amino acid
 99 substitutions in this variant, the WHO immediately designated BA.2.86 as a
 100 variant under monitoring on 17 August 2023 ³. As of October 31, 2023, the
 101 BA.2.86 variant has been identified globally, with an increasing frequency in viral
 102 genome surveillance. To date, over 1,400 sequences of BA.2.86 and its related
 103 lineages have been reported on GISAID (<https://gisaid.org/>).

104 The immune evasive potential of BA.2.86 has been evaluated in recent
 105 studies including ours ^{2,4-9}. Additionally, some studies addressed the virological
 106 features of BA.2.86, such as the affinity of the receptor-binding domain (RBD) of
 107 the BA.2.86 S to ACE2 receptor ^{5,8} and the fusogenicity of BA.2.86 S ⁷. Moreover,
 108 Khan et al. have recently reported the growth kinetics of a clinically isolated
 109 BA.2.86 live virus in *in vitro* cell cultures ⁷. However, the sensitivity of BA.2.86 to
 110 clinically available antiviral drugs and the intrinsic pathogenicity of BA.2.86 in
 111 hamsters remain unknown. Here, we elucidated the virological features of a
 112 newly emerging SARS-CoV-2 BA.2.86 variant.

113 Results and Discussion

114 Epidemic dynamics of BA.2.86

115 BA.2.86 is phylogenetically distinct from other Omicron sublineages that have
 116 emerged to date, exhibiting the accumulation of over 30 amino acid mutations in
 117 the S protein (**Figures 1A and S1A**). This indicates that BA.2.86 may have
 118 unique characteristics when compared to other Omicron subvariants. To assess
 119 the epidemic potential of BA.2.86, we estimated its relative effective
 120 reproduction number (R_e) (**Figures 1B, 1C, and S1B and Table S1**). Although
 121 we previously estimated the R_e of BA.2.86, that study did not conclusively
 122 determine whether BA.2.86 shows significantly higher R_e than EG.5.1, the
 123 currently dominant lineage globally². This was mainly due to the considerable
 124 uncertainty on the estimated R_e of BA.2.86, attributed to a limited sequence
 125 dataset at that time. In our current analysis, we more accurately estimated the
 126 relative R_e of BA.2.86 by incorporating genome surveillance data from six
 127 countries where BA.2.86 is proliferating using a Bayesian hierarchical
 128 multinomial logistic model^{10,11}. This method enabled us to estimate the R_e of
 129 each variant within individual countries (**Figure S1B**) as well as a global R_e
 130 average (**Figure 1B**). We show that the global average R_e of BA.2.86 is 1.07-fold
 131 higher than EG.5.1 (**Figure 1B**). Additionally, in each country examined, the R_e
 132 of BA.2.86 significantly exceeded that of EG.5.1 (**Figure S1B**). Indeed, BA.2.86
 133 is gradually growing in European countries such as Denmark, where EG.5.1
 134 predominantly circulated (**Figure 1C**). Collectively, our data suggest that
 135 BA.2.86 will spread globally and become more prevalent gradually.

136

137 Virological phenotype of BA.2.86 S

138 To investigate the virological features of BA.2.86 S, we set out to measure the
 139 binding affinity of BA.2.86 S RBD to ACE2 receptor by the yeast display
 140 technique¹². We have demonstrated that the RBD of XBB.1.5 exhibits the
 141 highest binding affinity to ACE2¹³. Notably, the ACE2 binding affinity of BA.2.86
 142 S RBD was comparable to that of XBB.1.5 S RBD and significantly higher than
 143 those of the S RBDs of ancestral B.1.1, XBB.1, XBB.1.16, EG.5.1 and the
 144 parental BA.2 (**Figure 2A**).

145 To investigate the impact of hallmark mutations in the RBD of BA.2.86
 146 S on the binding affinity to ACE2 receptor, we generated a set of reverse
 147 mutations based on BA.2.86 S RBD. As shown in **Figure 2A**, only a substitution,
 148 the K403R, significantly increased the K_D value when compared to the parental
 149 BA.2.86, suggesting that the R403K substitution can lead to increased ACE2
 150 binding affinity. The decreased K_D values by the R403K substitution in the S
 151 RBDs of XBB.1, XBB.1.5 and BA.2 support the observation in BA.2.86 S RBD
 152 (**Figure 2A**). However, the K_D value of B.1.1 R403K was significantly larger than
 153 that of parental B.1.1 (**Figure 2A**), suggesting that the effect of R403K is

154 epistatic and the increase of ACE2 binding affinity is observed only in the case of
155 the backbone of BA.2-related S RBD.

156 To test the impact of S mutations in viral infectivity, we performed an
157 infection assay using HIV-1-based pseudovirus ². The assay showed that
158 pseudoviruses with B.1.1 or EG.5.1 S showed significantly higher infectivity than
159 that with BA.2 S protein, but pseudovirus with BA.2.86 S protein was
160 comparable to that with BA.2 S protein (**Figure 2B**). To test the effect of each
161 mutation on pseudovirus infectivity, we generated a total of 33 BA.2 derivatives
162 that bear respective mutations in BA.2.86 (**Figure 2B**). Most of the mutations did
163 not affect BA.2 S pseudovirus infectivity or significantly decreased it (**Figure 2B**).
164 On the other hand, consistent with our previous reports ^{11,13,14}, certain mutations
165 in the RBD, such as N460K and F486P, increased the pseudovirus infectivity
166 (**Figure 2B**). Interestingly, three novel mutations in the N-terminal domain (NTD)
167 of the BA.2.86 S protein, F157S, N211del, and A264D, significantly increased
168 the pseudovirus infectivity (**Figure 2B**). To assess the association of TMPRSS2
169 usage with a cell entry of BA.2.86, we used HEK293-ACE2/TMPRSS2 cells and
170 HEK293-ACE2 cells, on which endogenous surface TMPRSS2 is undetectable
171 ¹⁰, as the target cells. As shown in **Figure S2A**, the impact of TMPRSS2
172 expression on the infectivity of BA.2.86 pseudovirus was relatively minor,
173 suggesting that TMPRSS2 expression is not associated with a cell entry of
174 BA.2.86.

175 To examine the cleavage efficiency of S protein in the cells, the cells
176 used for pseudoviruses production were subjected to western blotting (**Figure**
177 **2C, S2B and S2C**). Interestingly, the band intensity of S2 in the cells expressing
178 BA.2.86 S protein was higher than that of the cells expressing BA.2 S protein
179 (**Figure 2C, S2B, S2C, S2D, and S2E**). The results from respective point
180 mutants based on BA.2 S protein showed that multiple mutations, such as R21T,
181 S50L, F157S, N211del, L212L, H245N, A264D, K356T, R403K, V445H, N450D,
182 N460K, and V483del contributed to increased efficiency of S cleavage (**Figure**
183 **2C, S2B, S2C, S2D, and S2E**). In addition to the S cleavage efficacy in the cells,
184 the level of S2 in the virions pseudotyped with BA.2.86 S protein was higher than
185 that with BA.2 S protein (**Figure 2C, S2B and S2C**). While the levels of
186 virion-incorporated S2 protein of respective BA.2-based point mutants were
187 different from each other, three mutant S proteins (F157S, A264D, and N460K)
188 with increased cleavage efficacy in the cells exhibited increased incorporation of
189 S2 proteins in the released viral particles (**Figure 2C, S2B and S2C**).

190

191 **Fusogenicity of BA.2.86 S**

192 We then investigated the fusogenicity of BA.2.86 S protein by the S
193 protein-mediated membrane fusion assay in Calu-3/DSP₁₋₇ cells ¹⁵. The surface
194 expression level of BA.2.86 S protein was comparable to that of the parental

195 BA.2 S protein (**Figure S2F**). Some mutations detected in BA.2.86, such as
196 HV69-70del, Y144del, F157S, I332V, K356T, R403K, L452W, F486P, R493Q,
197 P681R, and P1143L significantly increased the expression level of BA.2 S
198 protein on the cell surface (**Figure S2F**).

199 Consistent with our previous reports ^{10,16,17}, B.1.1, XBB.1.5, and EG.5.1
200 S proteins were significantly more fusogenic than BA.2 S protein (**Figure 2D and**
201 **S2G**). Notably, the fusogenicity of BA.2.86 S protein was significantly greater
202 than that of BA.2 S protein (**Figure 2D and S2G**). This result prompted us to
203 determine the amino acid residues responsible for the increased fusogenicity.
204 We found that four mutations in the NTD (S50L, L212I, H245N, A264D), and two
205 mutations in the RBD (N450D and E484K) significantly increased the S protein
206 fusogenicity (**Figure 2D and S2G**). Interestingly, we have demonstrated that the
207 P681R substitution, a hallmark mutation in the Delta variant, significantly
208 increased the fusogenicity of ancestral B.1.1-based S protein ¹⁸. However, the
209 P681R substitution did not affect the fusogenicity of BA.2 S protein (**Figure 2D**
210 **and Figure S2G**). Similar to the effect of R403K substitution on ACE2 binding by
211 yeast surface display (**Figure 2A**), our results suggest that the effect of certain
212 substitutions (e.g., R403K and P681R) on the virological feature of SARS-CoV-2
213 S is epistatic.

214 215 **Immune evasion of BA.2.86**

216 We have recently reported that BA.2.86 is more resistant to XBB BTI sera than
217 EG.5.1 ². To evaluate the sensitivity of BA.2.86 to antiviral humoral immunity
218 elicited by the breakthrough infection (BTI) with other Omicron sublineages, we
219 performed neutralization assays using BA.2 BTI sera (n = 13) and BA.5 BTI sera
220 (n = 17). As shown in **Figure S2H**, the 50% neutralization titer (NT₅₀) of BA.2 BTI
221 sera against BA.2.86 was significantly (43-fold) lower than those against the
222 B.1.1 ($P < 0.0001$) as well as EG.5.1. A similar trend was observed in the BA.5
223 BTI sera (20-fold, $P < 0.0001$) (**Figure S2I**). These results suggest that BA.2.86
224 has a potent immune evasion ability from a humoral immunity induced by
225 BA.2/BA.5 BTI. In the case of BA.2 BTI, the NT₅₀ values of BA.2.86 were
226 comparable to that of EG.5.1 (**Figure S2H**). Interestingly, however, the NT₅₀ of
227 BA.5 BTI sera against BA.2.86 showed a higher value than EG.5.1 ($P = 0.02$,
228 **Figure S2I**), suggesting that BA.2.86 is more sensitive to BA.5 BTI sera than
229 EG.5.1.

230 231 **Growth kinetics of clinically isolated BA.2.86 in cell cultures**

232 To investigate the growth kinetics of BA.2.86 in *in vitro* cell cultures, clinical
233 isolates of BA.2.86, EG.5.1, and BA.2 were inoculated into Vero cells (**Figure**
234 **3A**) and VeroE6/TMPRSS2 cells (**Figure 3B**). In Vero cells, the growth efficacy
235 of BA.2.86 was significantly lower than that of EG.5.1 and BA.2 (**Figure 3A**). On

the other hand, in VeroE6/TMPRSS2 cells, the growth kinetics of BA.2.86 and BA.2 was comparable, while BA.2.86 was less replicative than EG.5.1 (**Figure 3B**). An immunofluorescence assay at 72 h postinfection (h.p.i.) further showed that VeroE6/TMPRSS2 cells infected with BA.2.86 exhibited lower GFP intensity than EG.5.1-infected cells (**Figure 3C**). These results suggest that BA.2.86 showed a poorer replication capacity compared to EG.5.1 and BA.2.

Antiviral effect of clinically available compounds against BA.2.86

We evaluated the sensitivity of BA.2.86 to four antiviral drugs, EIDD-1931, remdesivir, ensitrelvir, and nirmatrelvir (also known as PF-07321332). Clinical isolates of BA.2 and EG.5.1 were used as controls. The viruses were inoculated into human iPSC-derived lung organoids, a physiologically relevant model, and treated with the four antiviral drugs. Nirmatrelvir showed the strongest antiviral effects, and no differences in antiviral efficacy were observed between the three variants [50% effective concentration (EC_{50}) = 4.3 nM, 0.91 nM, and 1.9 nM for BA.2, EG.5.1, and BA.2.86, respectively] (**Figure 3D**). Remdesivir and ensitrelvir showed significant antiviral effects on the three isolates, while EIDD-1931 showed moderate antiviral effects on the three isolates ($EC_{50} > 2 \mu M$) (**Figure 3D**).

Intrinsic pathogenicity of clinically isolated BA.2.86 in cell cultures

To investigate the virological features of BA.2.86 *in vivo*, clinical isolates of BA.2.86, EG.5.1, and BA.2 [2,000 50% tissue culture infectious dose ($TCID_{50}$)] were intranasally inoculated into hamsters under anesthesia. All infected hamsters exhibited the loss of body weight (**Figure 4 A, left**). However, the loss of body weight of BA.2.86-infected hamsters was significantly less than those of the hamsters infected with EG.5.1 and BA.2 (**Figure 4 A, left**).

We then analyzed the pulmonary function of infected hamsters as reflected by two parameters, enhanced pause ($Penh$) and the ratio of time to peak expiratory flow relative to the total expiratory time (R_{pef}). Infection of EG.5.1 and BA.2 resulted in significant differences in these two respiratory parameters at 3 days postinfection (d.p.i.) (**Figure 4 A, middle and right**). On the other hand, these two parameters of BA.2.86-infected hamsters were constant (**Figure 4 A, middle and right**). These results suggest that BA.2.86 is less pathogenic in hamsters than EG.5.1 and BA.2.

To evaluate viral spread in infected hamsters, we routinely measured the viral RNA load in oral swabs and the two lung regions, lung hilum and

periphery. The viral RNA load of the hamsters infected with EG.5.1 and BA.2 were comparable (**Figure 4 B**). On the other hand, the viral RNA load of BA.2.86-infected hamsters was significantly lower than those of EG.5.1- and BA.2-infected hamsters (**Figure 4 B**), suggesting that the replication efficacy of BA.2.86 *in vivo* is lower than that of EG.5.1 and BA.2.

In summary, here we elucidated the virological characteristics of BA.2.86. In our previous investigations, we observed that the S cleavage efficacy, fusogenicity, and intrinsic pathogenicity in hamsters were well correlated with each other^{10,18-20}. For instance, the Delta S protein is efficiently cleaved by furin and is highly fusogenic, and the Delta isolate is more pathogenic than ancestral SARS-CoV-2 variants¹⁸. In sharp contrast, the Omicron BA.1 S protein is faintly cleaved by furin and poorly fusogenic, and the BA.1 isolate is less pathogenic than ancestral SARS-CoV-2¹⁹. Here, we showed that BA.2.86 S is more efficiently cleaved by BA.2 S, but the fusogenicity of BA.2.86 S and BA.2 S is similar. More notably, although the fusogenicity of the S protein of BA.2.86 and BA.2 were comparable, the intrinsic pathogenicity of BA.2.86 in hamsters was significantly lower than that of BA.2. This discrepancy can be explained by the replication capacity of BA.2.86. In fact, we showed that the replication kinetics of BA.2.86 is significantly lower than that of BA.2 in *in vitro* cell culture (at least in Vero cells) and *in vivo*. Therefore, our results suggest that the attenuated pathogenicity of BA.2.86 is attributed to its decreased replication capacity.

296	STAR[®]METHODS
297	• KEY RESOURCES TABLE
298	• RESOURCE AVAILABILITY
299	○ Lead Contact
300	○ Materials Availability
301	○ Data and Code Availability
302	• EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS
303	○ Ethics Statement
304	○ Human serum collection
305	○ Cell culture
306	• METHOD DETAILS
307	○ Phylogenetic analysis
308	○ Epidemic dynamics analysis
309	○ Viral genome sequencing
310	○ Plasmid construction
311	○ Yeast surface display analysis
312	○ Pseudovirus infection
313	○ Western blotting
314	○ SARS-CoV-2 S-based fusion assay
315	○ SARS-CoV-2 preparation and titration
316	○ SARS-CoV-2 infection
317	○ Immunofluorescence staining
318	○ RT–qPCR
319	○ Antiviral drug assay using SARS-CoV-2 clinical isolates and human
320	iPSC-derived lung organoids
321	○ Animal experiments
322	○ Lung function test
323	• QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS
324	Supplemental Information
325	Additional Supplemental Items are available upon request.

326 **Author Contributions**

327 All authors reviewed and proofread the manuscript.
328 The Genotype to Phenotype Japan (G2P-Japan) Consortium contributed to the
329 project administration.

331 **Conflict of interest**

332 Jumpei Ito has consulting fees and honoraria for lectures from Takeda
333 Pharmaceutical Co. Ltd. Kei Sato has consulting fees from Moderna Japan Co.,
334 Ltd. and Takeda Pharmaceutical Co. Ltd. and honoraria for lectures from Gilead
335 Sciences, Inc., Moderna Japan Co., Ltd., and Shionogi & Co., Ltd.

337 **Acknowledgments**

338 We would like to thank all members belonging to The Genotype to Phenotype
339 Japan (G2P-Japan) Consortium. We thank Dr. Kenzo Tokunaga (National
340 Institute for Infectious Diseases, Japan) and Dr. Jin Gohda (The University of
341 Tokyo, Japan) for providing reagents. We thank to all members belonging to
342 Japanese Consortium on Structural Virology (JX-Vir). We appreciate the
343 technical assistance from The Research Support Center, Research Center for
344 Human Disease Modeling, Kyushu University Graduate School of Medical
345 Sciences. We gratefully acknowledge all data contributors, i.e. the Authors and
346 their Originating laboratories responsible for obtaining the specimens, and their
347 Submitting laboratories for generating the genetic sequence and metadata and
348 sharing via the GISAID Initiative, on which this research is based. The
349 super-computing resource was provided by Human Genome Center at The
350 University of Tokyo.

351 This study was supported in part by AMED SCARDA Japan Initiative
352 for World-leading Vaccine Research and Development Centers "UTOPIA"
353 (JP223fa627001, to Kei Sato), AMED SCARDA Program on R&D of new
354 generation vaccine including new modality application (JP223fa727002, to Kei
355 Sato); AMED SCARDA Kyoto University Immunomonitoring Center (KIC)
356 (JP223fa627009, to Takao Hashiguchi); AMED SCARDA Hokkaido University
357 Institute for Vaccine Research and Development (HU-IVReD) (JP223fa627005,
358 to Katsumi Maenaka); AMED Research Program on Emerging and Re-emerging
359 Infectious Diseases (JP21fk0108574, to Hesham Nasser; JP21fk0108493, to
360 Takasuke Fukuhara; JP22fk0108617 to Takasuke Fukuhara; JP22fk0108146, to
361 Kei Sato; JP21fk0108494 to G2P-Japan Consortium, Keita Matsuno, Shinya
362 Tanaka, Terumasa Ikeda, Takasuke Fukuhara, and Kei Sato; JP21fk0108425,
363 to Kazuo Takayama and Kei Sato; JP21fk0108432, to Kazuo Takayama,
364 Takasuke Fukuhara and Kei Sato; JP22fk0108534, to Takashi Irie, Terumasa
365 Ikeda, and Kei Sato; JP22fk0108511, to Yuki Yamamoto, Akatsuki Saito,
366 Terumasa Ikeda, Keita Matsuno, Shinya Tanaka, Kazuo Takayama, Takao

367 Hashiguchi, Takasuke Fukuhara, and Kei Sato; JP22fk0108506, to Akatsuki
368 Saito, Kazuo Takayama and Kei Sato); AMED Research Program on HIV/AIDS
369 (JP23fk0410047, to Akatsuki Saito; JP23fk0410056, to Akatsuki Saito;
370 JP23fk0410058, to Akatsuki Saito; JP22fk0410055, to Terumasa Ikeda; and
371 JP22fk0410039, to Kei Sato); AMED Japan Program for Infectious Diseases
372 Research and Infrastructure (JP22wm0125008 to Keita Matsuno); AMED
373 CREST (JP21gm1610005, to Kazuo Takayama; JP22gm1610008, to Takasuke
374 Fukuhara; JP22gm1810004, to Katsumi Maenaka); JST PRESTO
375 (JPMJPR22R1, to Jumpei Ito); JST CREST (JPMJCR20H4, to Kei Sato;
376 JPMJCR20H8, to Takao Hashiguchi); JSPS KAKENHI Grant-in-Aid for Scientific
377 Research C (22K07103, to Terumasa Ikeda); JSPS KAKENHI Grant-in-Aid for
378 Scientific Research B (21H02736, to Takasuke Fukuhara); JSPS KAKENHI
379 Grant-in-Aid for Early-Career Scientists (22K16375, to Hesham Nasser;
380 20K15767, Jumpei Ito); JSPS KAKENHI grant JP20H05873 (to Katsumi
381 Maenaka); JSPS Core-to-Core Program (A. Advanced Research Networks)
382 (JPJSCCA20190008, to Kei Sato); JSPS Research Fellow DC2 (22J11578, to
383 Keiya Uriu); JSPS Research Fellow DC1 (23KJ0710, to Yusuke Kosugi); JSPS
384 Leading Initiative for Excellent Young Researchers (LEADER) (to Terumasa
385 Ikeda); World-leading Innovative and Smart Education (WISE) Program 1801
386 from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT)
387 (to Naganori Nao); Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW) under grant
388 23HA2010 (to Naganori Nao and Keita Matsuno); Research Support Project for
389 Life Science and Drug Discovery [Basis for Supporting Innovative Drug
390 Discovery and Life Science Research (BINDS)] from AMED under the Grant
391 JP22ama121001 (to Takao Hashiguchi) and JP22ama121037 (to Katsumi
392 Maenaka); The Cooperative Research Program (Joint Usage/Research Center
393 program) of Institute for Life and Medical Sciences, Kyoto University (to Kei Sato
394 and Katsumi Maenaka); International Joint Research Project of the Institute of
395 Medical Science, the University of Tokyo (to Akatsuki Saito, Terumasa Ikeda, Jiri
396 Zahradnik, and Takasuke Fukuhara); The Tokyo Biochemical Research
397 Foundation (to Kei Sato); Takeda Science Foundation (to Terumasa Ikeda and
398 Katsumi Maenaka); Mochida Memorial Foundation for Medical and
399 Pharmaceutical Research (to Terumasa Ikeda); The Naito Foundation (to
400 Terumasa Ikeda); Mitsubishi Foundation (to Kei Sato); Japanese Government
401 MEXT Scholarship- Research Category (220235, Jarel Elgin Tolentino) and the
402 project of National Institute of Virology and Bacteriology, Programme EXCELES,
403 funded by the European Union, Next Generation EU (LX22NPO5103, to Jiri
404 Zahradnik).

405

406

407 **Consortia**

408 The Genotype to Phenotype Japan (G2P-Japan) Consortium

References

1. GitHub (2023). "2nd-Generation BA.2 Saltation Lineage, >30 spike mutations (3 seq, 2 countries, Aug 14) (August 14, 2023)". <https://github.com/cov-lineages/pango-designation/issues/2183#issue-1849123156>.
2. Uriu, K., Ito, J., Kosugi, Y., et al. (2023). Transmissibility, infectivity, and immune evasion of the SARS-CoV-2 BA.2.86 variant. *Lancet Infect Dis* **23**, e460-e461, 10.1016/S1473-3099(23)00575-3.
3. WHO (2023). "Tracking SARS-CoV-2 variants (October 26, 2023)" <https://www.who.int/en/activities/tracking-SARS-CoV-2-variants>.
4. Lasrado, N., Collier, A.Y., Hachmann, N.P., et al. (2023). Neutralization escape by SARS-CoV-2 Omicron subvariant BA.2.86. *Vaccine* 10.1016/j.vaccine.2023.10.051.
5. Wang, Q., Guo, Y., Liu, L., et al. (2023). Antigenicity and receptor affinity of SARS-CoV-2 BA.2.86 spike. *Nature* 10.1038/s41586-023-06750-w.
6. Sheward, D.J., Yang, Y., Westerberg, M., et al. (2023). Sensitivity of the SARS-CoV-2 BA.2.86 variant to prevailing neutralising antibody responses. *Lancet Infect Dis* **23**, e462-e463, 10.1016/S1473-3099(23)00588-1.
7. Qu, P., Xu, K., Faraone, J.N., et al. (2023). Immune Evasion, Infectivity, and Fusogenicity of SARS-CoV-2 Omicron BA.2.86 and FLip Variants. *bioRxiv* 10.1101/2023.09.11.557206.
8. Yang, S., Yu, Y., Jian, F., et al. (2023). Antigenicity and infectivity characterisation of SARS-CoV-2 BA.2.86. *Lancet Infect Dis* **23**, e457-e459, 10.1016/S1473-3099(23)00573-X.
9. Khan, K., Lustig, G., Reedoy, K., et al. (2023). Evolution and neutralization escape of the SARS-CoV-2 BA.2.86 subvariant. *MedRxiv* doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.1109.1108.23295250>.
10. Yamasoba, D., Kimura, I., Nasser, H., et al. (2022). Virological characteristics of the SARS-CoV-2 Omicron BA.2 spike. *Cell* 10.1016/j.cell.2022.04.035.
11. Saito, A., Tamura, T., Zahradnik, J., et al. (2022). Virological characteristics of the SARS-CoV-2 Omicron BA.2.75 variant. *Cell Host Microbe* **30**, 1540-1555 e1515, 10.1016/j.chom.2022.10.003.
12. Zahradnik, J., Marciano, S., Shemesh, M., et al. (2021). SARS-CoV-2 variant prediction and antiviral drug design are enabled by RBD in vitro evolution. *Nat Microbiol* **6**, 1188-1198, 10.1038/s41564-021-00954-4.
13. Uriu, K., Ito, J., Zahradnik, J., et al. (2023). Enhanced transmissibility, infectivity, and immune resistance of the SARS-CoV-2 omicron XBB.1.5 variant. *Lancet Infect Dis* **23**, 280-281, 10.1016/S1473-3099(23)00051-8.
14. Ito, J., Suzuki, R., Uriu, K., et al. (2023). Convergent evolution of

- 450 SARS-CoV-2 Omicron subvariants leading to the emergence of BQ.1.1
451 variant. Nat Commun **14**, 2671, 10.1038/s41467-023-38188-z.
- 452 15. Begum, M.M., Ichihara, K., Takahashi, O., et al. (2023). Virological
453 characteristics correlating with SARS-CoV-2 spike protein fusogenicity.
454 BioRxiv doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.1110.1103.560628>.
- 455 16. Tamura, T., Irie, T., Deguchi, S., et al. (2023). Virological characteristics
456 of the SARS-CoV-2 XBB.1.5 variant. BioRxiv doi:
457 <https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.1108.1116.553332>.
- 458 17. Tsujino, S., Deguchi, S., Nomai, T., et al. (2023). Virological
459 characteristics of the SARS-CoV-2 Omicron EG.5.1 variant. BioRxiv doi:
460 <https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.1110.1119.563209>.
- 461 18. Saito, A., Irie, T., Suzuki, R., et al. (2022). Enhanced fusogenicity and
462 pathogenicity of SARS-CoV-2 Delta P681R mutation. Nature **602**,
463 300-306, 10.1038/s41586-021-04266-9.
- 464 19. Suzuki, R., Yamasoba, D., Kimura, I., et al. (2022). Attenuated
465 fusogenicity and pathogenicity of SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variant. Nature
466 10.1038/s41586-022-04462-1.
- 467 20. Kimura, I., Yamasoba, D., Tamura, T., et al. (2022). Virological
468 characteristics of the novel SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variants including BA.4
469 and BA.5. Cell *in press*, doi:
470 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2022.1009.1018>.
- 471 21. Hadfield, J., Megill, C., Bell, S.M., et al. (2018). Nextstrain: real-time
472 tracking of pathogen evolution. Bioinformatics **34**, 4121-4123,
473 10.1093/bioinformatics/bty407.
- 474 22. Ozono, S., Zhang, Y., Ode, H., et al. (2021). SARS-CoV-2 D614G spike
475 mutation increases entry efficiency with enhanced ACE2-binding affinity.
476 Nat Commun **12**, 848, 10.1038/s41467-021-21118-2.
- 477 23. Ferreira, I., Kemp, S.A., Datir, R., et al. (2021). SARS-CoV-2 B.1.617
478 mutations L452R and E484Q are not synergistic for antibody evasion. J
479 Infect Dis **224**, 989-994, 10.1093/infdis/jiab368.
- 480 24. Motozono, C., Toyoda, M., Zahradnik, J., et al. (2021). SARS-CoV-2
481 spike L452R variant evades cellular immunity and increases infectivity.
482 Cell Host Microbe **29**, 1124-1136, 10.1016/j.chom.2021.06.006.
- 483 25. Yamamoto, M., Kiso, M., Sakai-Tagawa, Y., et al. (2020). The
484 anticoagulant nafamostat potently inhibits SARS-CoV-2 S
485 protein-mediated fusion in a cell fusion assay system and viral infection *in*
486 *vitro* in a cell-type-dependent manner. Viruses **12**, 10.3390/v12060629.
- 487 26. Matsuyama, S., Nao, N., Shirato, K., et al. (2020). Enhanced isolation of
488 SARS-CoV-2 by TMPRSS2-expressing cells. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A
489 **117**, 7001-7003, 10.1073/pnas.2002589117.
- 490 27. Li, H. (2018). Minimap2: pairwise alignment for nucleotide sequences.

- 491 Bioinformatics **34**, 3094-3100, 10.1093/bioinformatics/bty191.
- 492 28. Jackson, B. (2022). gofasta: command-line utilities for genomic
493 epidemiology research. Bioinformatics **38**, 4033-4035,
494 10.1093/bioinformatics/btac424.
- 495 29. Capella-Gutierrez, S., Silla-Martinez, J.M., and Gabaldon, T. (2009).
496 trimAl: a tool for automated alignment trimming in large-scale
497 phylogenetic analyses. Bioinformatics **25**, 1972-1973,
498 10.1093/bioinformatics/btp348.
- 499 30. Minh, B.Q., Schmidt, H.A., Chernomor, O., et al. (2020). IQ-TREE 2: New
500 Models and Efficient Methods for Phylogenetic Inference in the Genomic
501 Era. Mol Biol Evol **37**, 1530-1534, 10.1093/molbev/msaa015.
- 502 31. Yu, G. (2020). Using ggtree to visualize data on tree-like structures. Curr
503 Protoc Bioinformatics **69**, e96, 10.1002/cpbi.96.
- 504 32. Chen, S., Zhou, Y., Chen, Y., and Gu, J. (2018). fastp: an ultra-fast
505 all-in-one FASTQ preprocessor. Bioinformatics **34**, i884-i890,
506 10.1093/bioinformatics/bty560.
- 507 33. Li, H., and Durbin, R. (2009). Fast and accurate short read alignment with
508 Burrows-Wheeler transform. Bioinformatics **25**, 1754-1760,
509 10.1093/bioinformatics/btp324.
- 510 34. Li, H., Handsaker, B., Wysoker, A., et al. (2009). The sequence
511 alignment/map format and SAMtools. Bioinformatics **25**, 2078-2079,
512 10.1093/bioinformatics/btp352.
- 513 35. Cingolani, P., Platts, A., Wang le, L., et al. (2012). A program for
514 annotating and predicting the effects of single nucleotide polymorphisms,
515 SnpEff: SNPs in the genome of Drosophila melanogaster strain w1118;
516 iso-2; iso-3. Fly (Austin) **6**, 80-92, 10.4161/fly.19695.
- 517 36. Niwa, H., Yamamura, K., and Miyazaki, J. (1991). Efficient selection for
518 high-expression transfectants with a novel eukaryotic vector. Gene **108**,
519 193-199, 10.1016/0378-1119(91)90434-d.
- 520 37. Dejnirattisai, W., Huo, J., Zhou, D., et al. (2022). SARS-CoV-2
521 Omicron-B.1.1.529 leads to widespread escape from neutralizing
522 antibody responses. Cell **185**, 467-484 e415, 10.1016/j.cell.2021.12.046.
- 523 38. Yamasoba, D., Uriu, K., Plianchaisuk, A., et al. (2023). Virological
524 characteristics of the SARS-CoV-2 omicron XBB.1.16 variant. Lancet
525 Infect Dis **23**, 655-656, 10.1016/S1473-3099(23)00278-5.
- 526 39. Tamura, T., Ito, J., Uriu, K., et al. (2023). Virological characteristics of the
527 SARS-CoV-2 XBB variant derived from recombination of two Omicron
528 subvariants. Nat Commun **14**, 2800, 10.1038/s41467-023-38435-3.
- 529 40. Kaku, Y., Kosugi, Y., Uriu, K., et al. (2023). Antiviral efficacy of the
530 SARS-CoV-2 XBB breakthrough infection sera against omicron
531 subvariants including EG.5. Lancet Infect Dis **23**, e395-e396,

- 10.1016/S1473-3099(23)00553-4.
41. Uriu, K., Kimura, I., Shirakawa, K., et al. (2021). Neutralization of the SARS-CoV-2 Mu variant by convalescent and vaccine serum. *N Engl J Med* **385**, 2397-2399, 10.1056/NEJMc2114706.
42. Mlcochova, P., Kemp, S.A., Dhar, M.S., et al. (2021). SARS-CoV-2 B.1.617.2 Delta variant replication and immune evasion. *Nature* **599**, 114-119, 10.1038/s41586-021-03944-y.
43. Meng, B., Abdullahi, A., Ferreira, I.A.T.M., et al. (2022). Altered TMPRSS2 usage by SARS-CoV-2 Omicron impacts tropism and fusogenicity. *Nature* 10.1038/s41586-022-04474-x.
44. Uriu, K., Cardenas, P., Munoz, E., et al. (2022). Characterization of the immune resistance of SARS-CoV-2 Mu variant and the robust immunity induced by Mu infection. *J Infect Dis* 10.1093/infdis/jiac053.
45. Ozono, S., Zhang, Y., Tobiume, M., et al. (2020). Super-rapid quantitation of the production of HIV-1 harboring a luminescent peptide tag. *J Biol Chem* **295**, 13023-13030, 10.1074/jbc.RA120.013887.
46. Ikeda, T., Shimizu, R., Nasser, H., et al. (2023). APOBEC3 degradation is the primary function of HIV-1 Vif determining virion infectivity in the myeloid cell line THP-1. *mBio* **14**, e0078223, 10.1128/mbio.00782-23.
47. Nasser, H., Shimizu, R., Ito, J., et al. (2022). Monitoring fusion kinetics of viral and target cell membranes in living cells using a SARS-CoV-2 spike-protein-mediated membrane fusion assay. *STAR Protoc* **3**, 101773, 10.1016/j.xpro.2022.101773.
48. Kondo, N., Miyauchi, K., and Matsuda, Z. (2011). Monitoring viral-mediated membrane fusion using fluorescent reporter methods. *Curr Protoc Cell Biol* **Chapter 26**, Unit 26 29, 10.1002/0471143030.cb2609s50.
49. Reed, L.J., and Muench, H. (1938). A simple method of estimating fifty percent endpoints. *Am J Hygiene* **27**, 493-497.
50. Kimura, I., Yamasoba, D., Nasser, H., et al. (2022). The SARS-CoV-2 spike S375F mutation characterizes the Omicron BA.1 variant. *iScience* **25**, 105720, 10.1016/j.isci.2022.105720.
51. Hashimoto, R., Tamura, T., Watanabe, Y., et al. (2023). Evaluation of Broad Anti-Coronavirus Activity of Autophagy-Related Compounds Using Human Airway Organoids. *Mol Pharm* **20**, 2276-2287, 10.1021/acs.molpharmaceut.3c00114.

570 Figure legends

571

572 Figure 1. Virological features of the SARS-CoV-2 BA.2.86

573 (A) Maximum likelihood (ML) tree based on the complete genome of
574 representative SARS-CoV-2 sequences. Twenty sequences were randomly
575 sampled from each clade defined by Nextclade ²¹ and were included in the
576 analysis. An asterisk represents a node with >0.95 bootstrap value. The scale
577 bar represents genetic distance.

578 (B) Estimated relative R_e of each viral lineages, assuming a fixed generation
579 time of 2.1 days. The relative R_e of EG.5.1 is designated to 1 (horizontal dashed
580 line). The graph includes: the posterior distribution enclosed within the 99%
581 Bayesian confidence interval (CI; violin), the 95% CI (line), and the posterior
582 mean (dot). The global average values estimated by a hierarchical Bayesian
583 model ¹⁰ are presented. See also **Figure S1B**.

584 (C) Estimated lineage dynamics of BA.2.86 and the representative SARS-CoV-2
585 sub-lineages in six countries where ≥ 20 BA.2.86 sequences were documented.
586 The genome surveillance data from April 1, 2023, to October 2, 2023 were
587 analyzed. The posterior mean is illustrated as the line, while the 95% Bayesian
588 CI is shown as the ribbon.

589 See also **Figure S1 and Table S1**.

590

591 Figure 2. Virological phenotype of BA.2.86 S

592 (A) Binding affinity of the receptor binding domain (RBD) of SARS-CoV-2 S
593 proteins to angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) by yeast surface display.
594 The dissociation constant (K_D) value indicating the binding affinity of the RBD of
595 the SARS-CoV-2 S protein to soluble ACE2 when expressed on yeast is shown.
596 Each dot indicates the result of an individual replicate. The dashed horizontal
597 lines indicate the value of BA.2. Statistically significant differences versus each
598 parental S protein and those between BA.2 were determined by two-sided
599 Student's t tests.

600 (B) Pseudovirus assay. HOS-ACE2/TMPRSS2 cells were infected with
601 pseudoviruses bearing each S protein. The amount of input virus was
602 normalized based on the amount of HIV-1 p24 capsid protein. The percent
603 infectivity compared to that of the virus pseudotyped with the BA.2 S protein are
604 shown. Assays were performed in quadruplicate. The presented data are
605 expressed as the average \pm standard deviation (SD). Each dot indicates the
606 result of an individual replicate. The dashed horizontal lines indicate the value of
607 BA.2. Statistically significant differences versus each parental S protein and
608 those between BA.2 were determined by two-sided Student's t tests.

609 (C) Western blotting of S protein in cells and virions. Representative blots of
610 S-expressing cells (labelled with 'Cell') and supernatants (labelled with 'Virion')

are shown. Tubulin and HIV-1 p24 were used for the internal controls of 'Cell' and 'Virion', respectively. kDa, kilodalton.

(D) S-based fusion assay in Calu-3 cells. The recorded fusion activity (arbitrary units) is shown. The dashed green line indicates the result of BA.2. The red number in each panel indicates the fold difference between BA.2 and the derivative tested at 24 h post coculture. Assays were performed in quadruplicate. Statistically significant differences versus BA.2 across timepoints were determined by multiple regression. The familywise error rates (FWERs) calculated using the Holm method are indicated in the figures.

See also **Figure S2**.

Figure 3. Growth kinetics of BA.2.86 and the antiviral effect of clinically available compounds against BA.2.86

(A and B) Growth kinetics of BA.2.86 in cell cultures. Clinical isolates of BA.2.86, EG.5.1 and BA.2 were inoculated into Vero cells **(A)** and VeroE6/TMPRSS2 cells **(B)**. The copy numbers of viral RNA in the culture supernatant were routinely quantified by RT-qPCR.

(C) Immunofluorescence staining. Infected VeroE6/TMPRSS2 cells (m.o.i. = 0.01) at 72 h.p.i. were stained with anti-SARS-CoV-2 N antibody. Higher-magnification views of the regions indicated by squares are shown. Scale bars, 1,000 μ m. Left, representative panels. Higher-magnification views of the regions indicated by squares are shown at the bottom. Right, the GFP intensity of the stained cells was measured.

(D) Effect of antiviral drugs against BA.2.86. Antiviral effects of the four drugs [EIDD-1931, Remdesivir, Ensitrelvir, and Nirmatrelvir (also known as PF-07321332)] in human iPSC-derived lung organoids. The assay of each antiviral drugs was performed in triplicate, and the 50% effective concentration (EC_{50}) was calculated.

Figure 4. Virological features of BA.2.86 *in vivo*

Syrian hamsters were intranasally inoculated with BA.2.86, EG.5.1 and BA.2. Six hamsters of the same age were intranasally inoculated with saline (uninfected).

(A) Time-course analysis. Six hamsters per group were used to routinely measure body weight **(A, left)**, Penh **(A, middle)**, and Rpef **(A, right)**.

(B) Viral RNA load. Four hamsters per group were euthanized at 2 and 5 d.p.i. and quantified viral RNA load in oral swab **(B, left)**, lung hilum **(B, middle)**, and lung periphery **(B, right)** by RT-qPCR.

In **A,B**, data are presented as the average \pm SEM.

In **A,B**, statistically significant differences between EG.5.1, EG5.1.1 and other variants across timepoints were determined by multiple regression. In **A**, the 0

d.p.i. data were excluded from the analyses. The FWERs calculated using the Holm method are indicated in the figures.

Table S1. Estimated relative R_e values of viral lineages by a hierarchical Bayesian model, related to Figure 1

Table S2. Human sera used in this study, related to Figure S2

Table S3. Primers used in this study, related to Figure 2

Table S4. Summary of unexpected amino acid mutations detected in the working virus stocks, related to Figure 3

Figure S1. Epidemic dynamics of BA.2.86, related to Figure 1

(A) Mutation frequencies in BA.2.86 (including BA.2.86.1) and other SARS-CoV-2 lineages BA.2, BA.2.75, XBB.1, and XBB.1.5. Mutations with a frequency of >0.5 values in at least one but not all subvariants of interest are demonstrated.

(B) Estimated relative R_e of each viral lineage in each country. The graph includes: the posterior distribution enclosed within the 99% Bayesian confidence interval (CI; violin), the 95% CI (line), and the posterior mean (dot). The country-specific values estimated by a hierarchical Bayesian model¹⁰ are shown.

Figure S2. Virological features of BA.2.86 S, related to Figure 2

(A) TMPRSS2 usage. Fold increase in pseudovirus infectivity based on TMPRSS2 expression was tested by infecting HEK293-ACE2 cells and HEK293-ACE2/TMPRSS2 cells with pseudoviruses bearing each S protein. Assays were performed in quadruplicate. The presented data are expressed as the average \pm standard deviation (SD). Each dot indicates the result of an individual replicate. The dashed horizontal lines indicate the value of BA.2. Statistically significant differences versus each parental S protein and those between BA.2 were determined by two-sided Student's t tests.

(B and C) Western blotting of S protein in cells and virions. Representative blots of S-expressing cells (labelled with 'Cell') and supernatants (labelled with 'Virion') are shown. Tubulin and HIV-1 p24 were used for the internal controls of 'Cell' and 'Virion', respectively. kDa, kilodalton.

(D and E) S cleavage efficiency. Each bar indicates S2/(S + S2) ratio relative to BA.2 with the mean \pm SD from 4 independent experiments. The dashed horizontal lines indicate the value of BA.2. Statistically significant differences

692 versus each parental S protein and those between BA.2 were determined by
693 two-sided Student's *t* tests.

694 **(F)** S protein expression on the cell surface. Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI)
695 of surface S protein by flow cytometry. The summarized data are shown. Assays
696 were performed in triplicate. The dashed horizontal lines indicate the value of
697 BA.2. Statistically significant differences versus each parental S protein and
698 those between BA.2 were determined by two-sided Student's *t* tests.

699 **(G)** S-based fusion assay in Calu-3 cells. The recorded fusion activity (arbitrary
700 units) is shown. The dashed green line indicates the result of BA.2. The red
701 number in each panel indicates the fold difference between BA.2 and the
702 derivative tested at 24 h post coculture. Assays were performed in
703 quadruplicate. Statistically significant differences versus BA.2 across timepoints
704 were determined by multiple regression. The familywise error rates (FWERs)
705 calculated using the Holm method are indicated in the figures.

706 **(H and I)** Neutralization assay using BA.2 breakthrough infection (BTI) sera **(H)**
707 and BA.5 BTI sera **(I)**. Neutralization assays were performed with pseudoviruses
708 harboring the S proteins of B.1.1, BA.2, EG.5.1 and BA.2.86. The following sera
709 were used. I, J Convalescent sera from fully vaccinated individuals who had
710 been infected with BA.2 after full vaccination (9 2-dose vaccinated and 4 3-dose
711 vaccinated). 13 donors in total) **(H)**, and BA.5 after full vaccination (1 2-dose
712 vaccinated donors, 15 3-dose vaccinated donors and 1 4-dose vaccinated
713 donor). 17 donors in total) **(I)**. Assays for each serum sample were performed in
714 triplicate to determine the 50% neutralization titer (NT₅₀). Each dot represents
715 one NT₅₀ value, and the geometric mean and 95% confidential interval (CI) are
716 shown. Statistically significant differences were determined by two-sided
717 Wilcoxon signed-rank tests. The P values versus B.1.1 or EG.5.1 are indicated
718 in the panels. The horizontal dashed line indicates the detection limit (40-fold).
719 Information on the convalescent donors is summarized in **Table S2**.

720 **STAR[®]METHODS**

721

722 **KEY RESOURCES TABLE**

723 **RESOURCE AVAILABILITY**

724 **Lead Contact**

725 Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed
726 to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Kei Sato
727 (KeiSato@g.ecc.u-tokyo.ac.jp).

728

729 **Materials Availability**

730 All unique reagents generated in this study are listed in the Key Resources
731 Table and available from the Lead Contact with a completed Materials Transfer
732 Agreement.

733

734 **Data and Software Availability**

735 All databases/datasets used in this study are available from GenBank database
736 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/>) the GISAID database
737 (<https://www.gisaid.org>; EPI_SET_230919bh; EPI_SET_231030mc).
738 Computational codes used in this study are available on the GitHub repository
739 (https://github.com/TheSatoLab/BA.2.86_full).

740

741 **EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS**

742 **Ethics statement**

743 All experiments with hamsters were performed in accordance with the Science
744 Council of Japan's Guidelines for the Proper Conduct of Animal Experiments.
745 The protocols were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use
746 Committee of National University Corporation Hokkaido University (approval ID:
747 20-0123 and 20-0060). All protocols involving specimens from human subjects
748 recruited at Interpark Kuramochi Clinic were reviewed and approved by the
749 Institutional Review Board of Interpark Kuramochi Clinic (approval ID:
750 G2021-004). All human subjects provided written informed consent. All protocols
751 for the use of human specimens were reviewed and approved by the Institutional
752 Review Boards of The Institute of Medical Science, The University of Tokyo
753 (approval IDs: 2021-1-0416 and 2021-18-0617).

754

755 **Human serum collection**

756 Convalescent sera were collected from fully vaccinated individuals who had
757 been infected with BA.2 (9 2-dose vaccinated and 4 3-dose vaccinated; 11–61
758 days after testing. n=13 in total; average age: 45 years, range: 24–82 years,
759 62% male) (**Figure S2H**), and fully vaccinated individuals who had been infected
760 with BA.5 (1 2-dose vaccinated, 15 3-dose vaccinated and 1 4-dose vaccinated;

10–23 days after testing. n=17 in total; average age: 52 years, range: 25–73 years, 53% male) (**Figure S2I**). The SARS-CoV-2 variants were identified as previously described^{10,20}. Sera were inactivated at 56°C for 30 minutes and stored at –80°C until use. The details of the convalescent sera are summarized in **Table S2**.

Cell culture

HEK293T cells (a human embryonic kidney cell line; ATCC, CRL-3216), HEK293 cells (a human embryonic kidney cell line; ATCC, CRL-1573), LentiX-293T (a derivative of HEK293T cells for superior lentivirus packaging; TaKaRa, Cat# 632180) and HOS-ACE2/TMPRSS2 cells (HOS cells stably expressing human ACE2 and TMPRSS2)^{22,23} were maintained in DMEM (high glucose) (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# 6429-500ML) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Sigma-Aldrich Cat# 172012-500ML) and 1% penicillin–streptomycin (PS) (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# P4333-100ML). HEK293-ACE2 cells (HEK293 cells stably expressing human ACE2)²⁴ were maintained in DMEM (high glucose) containing 10% FBS, 1 µg/ml puromycin (InvivoGen, Cat# ant-pr-1) and 1% PS. HEK293-ACE2/TMPRSS2 cells (HEK293 cells stably expressing human ACE2 and TMPRSS2)²⁴ were maintained in DMEM (high glucose) containing 10% FBS, 1 µg/ml puromycin, 200 µg/ml hygromycin (Nacalai Tesque, Cat# 09287-84) and 1% PS. Calu-3/DSP₁₋₇ cells (Calu-3 cells stably expressing DSP₁₋₇)²⁵ were maintained in EMEM (Wako, Cat# 056-08385) containing 20% FBS and 1% PS. Vero cells [an African green monkey (*Chlorocebus sabaeus*) kidney cell line; JCRB Cell Bank, JCRB0111] were maintained in Eagle's minimum essential medium (EMEM) (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat#M4655-500ML) containing 10% FBS and 1% PS. VeroE6/TMPRSS2 cells (VeroE6 cells stably expressing human TMPRSS2; JCRB Cell Bank, JCRB1819)²⁶ were maintained in DMEM (low glucose) (Wako, Cat#041-29775) containing 10% FBS, G418 (1 mg/ml; Nacalai Tesque, Cat#G8168-10ML) and 1% PS.

METHOD DETAILS

Phylogenetic analysis

A total of 15,991,922 SARS-CoV-2 genome sequences and their metadata were downloaded from the GISAID database with a released date of September 14, 2023 (<https://www.gisaid.org/>). To prepare dataset for lineages other than BA.2.86, the dataset was then filtered based on the following criteria: (i) retained only distinct Accession IDs, (ii) host labeled as 'Human', (iii) the collection date recorded, (iv) the PANGO lineage column should not be empty, none or unassigned, and (v) retained sequences with less than 1% proportion of ambiguous bases. We assigned Nextclade clade information to individual viral sequences using the Nextclade v2.14.1 CLI workflow

(<https://clades.nextstrain.org/>). Subsequently, we randomly sampled 20 sequences from each Nextclade clade. To prepare dataset for BA.2.86 (including BA.2.86.1), we extracted sequences in which PANGO lineage is BA.2.86 or BA.2.86.1 from the GISAID metadata. Subsequently, we applied the same filtering criteria as mentioned above (i-iv) and additionally set the threshold for ambiguous bases below 3%. We set this relaxed threshold for BA.2.86 because most of BA.2.86 sequences have a large undetermined regions just before S gene due to the presence of mutations in the primer site. After the filtering, 89 sequences of BA.2.86 were included in the final dataset.

To construct the phylogenetic tree, viral genome sequences (EPI SET ID: EPI_SET_230919bh) were mapped and aligned to the reference sequence of Wuhan-Hu-1 (GenBank accession number: NC_045512.2) through minimap v2.24²⁷, and the resulting sam format file was converted to fasta format using gofasta v1.2.0²⁸. During this conversion, the alignment sites corresponding to 1–265 and 29674–9903 positions on the reference genome were masked, typically converted to 'NNN'. Alignment sites with more than 10% of sequences containing gaps or uncertain nucleotides were subjected to trimming using trimAl v1.2²⁹. Phylogenetic tree construction was accomplished via the three-step protocol: (i) the initial tree was constructed, (ii) the external branch lengths of the initial tree were filtered using Grubb's test and the *p* value threshold was set to 1.0E-5 enabling those tips with longer external branch to be removed, (iii) the final tree was constructed with the similar parameter as the initial tree¹⁴. A maximum likelihood (ML) phylogenetic tree of the genome was inferred by IQTree v2.2.2.6 with the GTR nucleotide substitution model³⁰. The node support value was computed by 1000 bootstrap iterations. The visualization of the final tree was generated in R v4.3.1 using the ggtree package³¹.

828

829 Epidemic dynamics analysis

To estimate the global average and country-specific R_e values of SARS-CoV-2 lineages, we analyzed the GISAID genome surveillance data spanning from April 1, 2023 to October 2, 2023. Genomic and surveillance data of 16,063,834 sequences with a released date of October 2, 2023, were acquired from the GISAID database (<https://www.gisaid.org/>). We excluded the sequence records with the following features: i) a lack of collection date information; ii) sampling in animals other than humans; iii) sampling by quarantine; or iv) without the PANGO lineage information. We then allocated Nextclade clade information to individual viral sequences using the Nextclade v2.14.1 CLI workflow (<https://clades.nextstrain.org/>). For the definition of lineages other than BA.2.86, we used the Nextclade clade classification: 23A (XBB.1.5), 23B (XBB.1.16), and 23F (EG.5.1). Since BA.2.86 (including BA.2.86.1) has not been annotated in the Nextclade clade, we instead used PANGO lineage classification assigned by

Nextclade for these lineages. BA.2.86 sublineages (e.g., BA.2.86.1) are summarized as BA.2.86. We then analyzed the datasets of the countries with ≥ 20 available BA.2.86 sequences: Denmark, France, Spain, Sweden, UK, and USA (analyzed dataset: EPI_SET_231030mc). Subsequently, we counted the daily frequency of each viral lineage in each country and fit a Bayesian hierarchical multinomial logistic model^{10,11} to the lineage frequency data to estimate the global average and country-specific R_e of the lineages. The relative R_e of each viral lineage l in each country s (r_{ls}) was calculated according to the country-specific slope parameter, β_{ls} , as $r_{ls} = \exp(\gamma\beta_{ls})$ where γ is the average viral generation time (2.1 days)(http://sonorouschocolate.com/covid19/index.php?title=Estimating_Generation_Time_Of_Omicron). Similarly, the global average relative R_e of each viral lineage was calculated according to the global average slope parameter, β_l , as $r_l = \exp(\gamma\beta_l)$. For parameter estimation, the intercept and slope parameters of the EG.5.1 were set at 0. As a result, the relative R_e of EG.5.1 was fixed at 1, and the R_e of other viral lineages were estimated relative to that of EG.5.1. Parameter estimation was conducted via the MCMC method implemented in CmdStan v2.33 (<https://mc-stan.org>) with CmdStanr v0.6.1 (<https://mc-stan.org/cmdstanr/>). Four separate MCMC chains were executed, consisting of 1,000 steps as the warmup iterations, and 2,000 steps as the sampling iterations. We verified the successful convergence of our MCMC runs by assuring that all the estimated parameters had showed <1.01 R-hat convergence diagnostic values and >200 effective sampling size values. Information on the estimated parameters is summarized in **Table S1**.

Viral genome sequencing

Viral genome sequencing was performed as previously described²⁰. Briefly, the virus sequences were verified by viral RNA-sequencing analysis. Viral RNA was extracted using a QIAamp viral RNA mini kit (Qiagen, Cat# 52906). The sequencing library employed for total RNA sequencing was prepared using the NEBNext Ultra RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (New England Biolabs, Cat# E7530). Paired-end 76-bp sequencing was performed using a MiSeq system (Illumina) with MiSeq reagent kit v3 (Illumina, Cat# MS-102-3001). Sequencing reads were trimmed using fastp v0.21.0³² and subsequently mapped to the viral genome sequences of a lineage B isolate (strain Wuhan-Hu-1; GenBank accession number: NC_045512.2)²⁶ using BWA-MEM v0.7.17³³. Variant calling, filtering, and annotation were performed using SAMtools v1.9³⁴ and snpEff v5.0e³⁵.

Plasmid construction

Plasmids expressing the codon-optimized SARS-CoV-2 S proteins of B.1.1 (the parental D614G-bearing variant), BA.2, EG.5.1, and BA.2.86 were prepared in our previous studies ^{2,17,20}. Plasmids expressing the codon-optimized S proteins of BA.2.86 and BA.2 S-based derivatives were generated by site-directed overlap extension PCR using the primers listed in **Table S3**. The resulting PCR fragment was digested with KpnI (New England Biolabs, Cat# R0142S) and NotI (New England Biolabs, Cat# R1089S) and inserted into the corresponding site of the pCAGGS vector ³⁶. Nucleotide sequences were determined by DNA sequencing services (Eurofins), and the sequence data were analyzed by Sequencher v5.1 software (Gene Codes Corporation). Nucleotide sequences were determined by DNA sequencing services (Eurofins), and the sequence data were analyzed by Sequencher v5.1 software (Gene Codes Corporation).

895

896 **Yeast surface display analysis**

Utilizing yeast surface display (**Figure 2A**), we conducted an analysis of the interaction between selected RBD variants and mACE2, following established protocols ^{11-14,17,37-39}. The pJYDC plasmids bearing SARS-CoV-2_RBD-WT, BA2 XBB, XBB.1.5, XBB.1.16 and EG.5.1 variants were used in our previous research ^{2,10,13,17,38-40}. The gene for RBD-BA.2.86 with *S. cerevisiae* codon usage was obtained from Twist Biosciences. The mutations in RBDs were incorporated by restriction-free cloning. All PCR reactions were conducted using the KAPA HiFi HotStart ReadyMix kit (Roche, Cat# KK2601) and the pJYDC1 plasmid (Addgene, Cat# 162458), as previously outlined ^{2,10,13,17,38-40}. A detailed list of the primers used can be found in **Table S3**. Verified plasmids were transformed into yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strain EBY100 (ATCC, MYA-4941) through electroporation and selected on SD-Trp selection plates. Yeast colonies were grown for 24 h in the liquid culture (SDCAA, 30°C, 220 rpm) and the yeast expression proceeded for 48 h at 20°C in 1/9 media. Expressed yeasts were washed with PBS supplemented with bovine serum albumin at a concentration of 1 g/l (PBSB). The cells were then exposed to a range of mACE2 concentrations (4 pM to 10 nM, in a dilution series with a factor of 2) and 20 nM bilirubin (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# 14370-1G), washed with PBSB and the recorded data included RBD expression and ACE2 signal, captured using automated acquisition from 96-well plates by the FACS CytoFLEX Flow Cytometer (Beckman Coulter). Background binding signals were subtracted, and fluorescence spill of eUnaG2 signals into the red channel was compensated. Subsequently, the data were fitted to a standard noncooperative Hill equation through nonlinear least-squares regression, utilizing Python v3.7 (<https://www.python.org>) as previously detailed ^{2,10,13,17,38-40}.

922

923 **Pseudovirus infection**

Pseudovirus infection (**Figures 2B and S2A**) was performed as previously described^{19,23,24,41-44}. Briefly, lentivirus (HIV-1)-based, luciferase-expressing reporter viruses were pseudotyped with the SARS-CoV-2 S protein. One prior day of transfection, the LentiX-293T or HEK293T cells were seeded at a density of 2×10^6 cells. The LentiX-293T or HEK293T cells were cotransfected with 1 μ g psPAX2-IN/HiBiT (a packaging plasmid encoding the HiBiT-tag-fused integrase⁴⁵, 1 μ g pWPI-Luc2 (a reporter plasmid encoding a firefly luciferase gene⁴⁵ and 500 ng plasmids expressing parental S protein or its derivatives using TransIT-293 transfection reagent (Mirus, Cat# MIR2704) or TransIT-LT1 (Takara, Cat# MIR2300) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Two days posttransfection, the culture supernatants were harvested and filtrated. The amount of produced pseudovirus particles was quantified by the HiBiT assay using the Nano Glo HiBiT lytic detection system (Promega, Cat# N3040) as previously described⁴⁵. In this system, HiBiT peptide is produced with HIV-1 integrase and forms NanoLuc luciferase with LgBiT, which is supplemented with substrates. In each pseudovirus particle, the detected HiBiT value is correlated with the amount of the pseudovirus capsid protein, HIV-1 p24 protein⁴⁵. Therefore, we calculated the amount of HIV-1 p24 capsid protein based on the HiBiT value measured, according to the previous paper⁴⁵. To measure viral infectivity, the same amount of pseudovirus normalized with the HIV-1 p24 capsid protein was inoculated into HOS-ACE2/TMPRSS2 cells, HEK293-ACE2, and HEK293-ACE2/TMPRSS2 cells. At two days postinfection, the infected cells were lysed with a Bright-Glo luciferase assay system (Promega, Cat# E2620), and the luminescent signal produced by firefly luciferase reaction was measured using a GloMax explorer multimode microplate reader 3500 (Promega) or CentroXS3 LB960 (Berthold Technologies). The pseudoviruses were stored at -80°C until use. To analyze the effect of TMPRSS2 for pseudovirus infectivity (**Figure S2A**), the fold change of the values of HEK293-ACE2/TMPRSS2 to HEK293-ACE2 was calculated.

Western blotting

As previously described, sample preparation for western blotting was performed with minor modifications^{15,46}. For western blotting, HEK293T cells (2×10^6 cells) were cotransfected with 2 μ g of psPAX2-IN/HiBiT, 2 μ g of pWPI-Luc2, and 1 μ g of plasmids expressing SARS-CoV-2 S using TransIT-LT1 according to the manufacturer's protocol. At 2 days posttransfection, cell culture supernatants were collected, filtered, and subjected to ultracentrifugation using 20% sucrose ($22,000 \times g$, 4°C , 2 hours). Then, virions were dissolved in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). To quantify HIV-1 p24 antigen in the pseudovirus, the amount of pseudoviruses in the cell culture supernatant was quantified by the HiBiT assay using a Nano Glo HiBiT lytic detection system (Promega, Cat# N3040). After

normalization with HiBiT value, the samples were diluted with 2 × SDS sample buffer [100 mM Tris-HCl (pH6.8), 4% SDS, 12% β- mercaptoethanol, 20% glycerol, 0.05% bromophenol blue] and boiled for 5–10 minutes at 100°C. For cell lysate preparation, the transfected cells were detached, washed twice with PBS, and lysed in lysis buffer [25mM HEPES (pH7.2), 20% glycerol, 125 mM NaCl, 1% Nonidet P40 substitute (Nacalai Tesque, Cat# 18558-54), protease inhibitor cocktail (Nacalai Tesque, Cat# 03969-21)]. Quantification of total protein in the cell lysates was done by protein assay dye (Bio-Rad, Cat# 5000006) according to manufacturer's instruction. Then, cell lysates were diluted with 2 × SDS sample buffer and boiled for 5–10 minutes. After cooling down, viral (pseudovirus) and cell lysates were mixed with diluted sample buffer (proteinsimple, Cat# 99351). Then, 5 × Fluorescent Master mix (proteinsimple, Cat# PS-ST01EZ-8) was added at a ratio of 4:1. Simple Western System, Abby (proteinsimple) was used for protein analysis. For protein detection, the following antibodies were used: rabbit anti-SARS-CoV-2 S (Novus Biologicals, Cat# NB100-56578, viral lysate; 1:40, cell lysate; 1:40). mouse anti-HIV-1 p24 monoclonal antibody (HIV Reagent Program, ARP-3537, 1:500), mouse anti-α tubulin monoclonal antibody (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# T5168, 1:100), anti-rabbit secondary antibody (proteinsimple, Cat# 042-206), and anti-mouse secondary antibody (proteinsimple, Cat# 042-205). Bands were visualized and analyzed using Compass for Simple Western v6.1.0 (proteinsimple).

986

987 **SARS-CoV-2 S-based fusion assay**

988 A SARS-CoV-2 S-based fusion assay (**Figures 2D, S2F and S2G**) was
 989 performed as previously described ^{10,11,14-17,19,20,24,39,47}. Briefly, on day 1, effector
 990 cells (i.e., S-expressing cells) and target cells (Calu-3/DSP₁₋₇ cells) were
 991 prepared at a density of 0.6–0.8 × 10⁶ cells in a 6-well plate. On day 2, for the
 992 preparation of effector cells, HEK293 cells were cotransfected with the S
 993 expression plasmids (400 ng) and pDSP₈₋₁₁ ⁴⁸ (400 ng) using TransIT-LT1
 994 (Takara, Cat# MIR2300). On day 3 (24 hours posttransfection), 16,000 effector
 995 cells were detached and reseeded into a 96-well black plate (PerkinElmer, Cat#
 996 6005225), and target cells were reseeded at a density of 1,000,000 cells/2
 997 ml/well in 6-well plates. On day 4 (48 hours posttransfection), target cells were
 998 incubated with EnduRen live cell substrate (Promega, Cat# E6481) for 3 hours
 999 and then detached, and 32,000 target cells were added to a 96-well plate with
 1000 effector cells. *Renilla* luciferase activity was measured at the indicated time
 1001 points using Centro XS3 LB960 (Berthold Technologies). For measurement of
 1002 the surface expression level of the S protein, effector cells were stained with
 1003 rabbit anti-SARS-CoV-2 S S1/S2 polyclonal antibody (Thermo Fisher Scientific,
 1004 Cat# PA5-112048, 1:100). Normal rabbit IgG (Southern Biotech, Cat# 0111-01,
 1005 1:100) was used as a negative control, and APC-conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG

1006 polyclonal antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch, Cat# 111-136-144, 1:50) was
1007 used as a secondary antibody. The surface expression level of S proteins
1008 (**Figure S2F**) was measured using CytoFLEX Flow Cytometer (Beckman
1009 Coulter) and the data were analyzed using FlowJo software v10.7.1 (BD
1010 Biosciences). For calculation of fusion activity, *Renilla* luciferase activity was
1011 normalized to the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of surface S proteins. The
1012 normalized value (i.e., *Renilla* luciferase activity per the surface S MFI) is shown
1013 as fusion activity.

1014

1015 **SARS-CoV-2 preparation and titration**

1016 The working virus stocks of SARS-CoV-2 were prepared and titrated as
1017 previously described ^{10,11,14,17-20,24,39,43}. In this study, clinical isolates of BA.2.86
1018 (strain TKYnat15020; GISAID ID: EPI_ISL_18233521), EG.5.1 (strain
1019 KU2023071028; GISAID ID: EPI_ISL_18072016) ¹⁷, and BA.2 (strain TY40-385;
1020 PANGO lineage BA.2, GISAID ID: EPI_ISL_9595859) ²⁰ were used. The
1021 working virus stocks of BA.2 and EG.5.1 were prepared in our previous studies
1022 ^{17,20}. To prepare the working virus stock of BA.2.86, 100 µl of the seed virus was
1023 inoculated into VeroE6/TMPRSS2 cells (1,000,000 cells in a one-well of 6-well
1024 plate). After 1 h absorption, the cells were cultured with DMEM (low glucose)
1025 (Fujifilm Wako, Cat# 041-29775) containing 2% FBS and 1% PS. At 3 d.p.i., the
1026 culture medium was harvested and then, subjected to inoculation into the naïve
1027 VeroE6/TMPRSS2 cells (10,000,000 cells in a 100-mm culture dish). After 84
1028 h.p.i., the culture medium was harvested and centrifuged. The resultant
1029 supernatants were collected as the working virus stock.

1030 The titer of the prepared working virus was measured as the 50%
1031 tissue culture infectious dose (TCID₅₀). Briefly, one day before infection,
1032 VeroE6/TMPRSS2 cells (10,000 cells) were seeded into a 96-well plate. Serially
1033 diluted virus stocks were inoculated into the cells and incubated at 37°C for 4 d.
1034 The cells were observed under a microscope to judge the CPE appearance. The
1035 value of TCID₅₀/ml was calculated with the Reed–Muench method ⁴⁹.

1036 For verification of the sequences of SARS-CoV-2 working viruses, viral
1037 RNA was extracted from the working viruses using a QIAamp viral RNA mini kit
1038 (Qiagen, Cat# 52906) and viral genome sequences were analyzed as described
1039 above (see "Viral genome sequencing" section). Information on the unexpected
1040 substitutions detected is summarized in **Table S4** and the raw data are
1041 deposited in the GitHub repository
1042 (https://github.com/TheSatoLab/BA.2.86_full1).

1043

1044 **SARS-CoV-2 infection**

1045 One day before infection, Vero cells (10,000 cells) and VeroE6/TMPRSS2 cells
1046 (10,000 cells) were seeded into a 96-well plate. SARS-CoV-2 [100 TCID₅₀ for

Vero cells (**Figure 3A**) and VeroE6/TMPRSS2 cells (**Figure 3B**) was inoculated and incubated at 37°C for 1 h. The infected cells were washed, and 180 µl culture medium was added. The culture supernatant (10 µl) was harvested at the indicated timepoints and used for RT-qPCR to quantify the viral RNA copy number (see “RT-qPCR” section below).

Immunofluorescence staining

Immunofluorescence staining (**Figure 3C**) was performed as previously described ^{18,19}. In brief, one day before infection, VeroE6/TMPRSS2 cells (10,000 cells) were seeded into 96-well, glass bottom, black plates and infected with SARS-CoV-2 (100 TCID₅₀). At 72 h.p.i., the cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) (Nacalai Tesque, 09154-85) for 1 h at 4 °C. The fixed cells were permeabilized with 0.2% Triton X-100 in PBS for 1 h and blocked with 10% FBS in PBS for 1 h at 4 °C. The fixed cells were then stained using rabbit anti-SARS-CoV-2 N poly-clonal antibody (GeneTex, GTX135570, 1:1,000) for 1 h. After washing three times with PBS, cells were incubated with an Alexa 488-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG antibody (Thermo Fisher Scientific, A-11008, 1:1,000) for 1 h. Fluorescence microscopy was performed on an All-in-One Fluorescence Microscope BZ-X800 (Keyence). Captured images were reconstructed and the fluorescent intensity was measured by using a BZ-X800 Analyzer software (Keyence).

RT-qPCR

RT-qPCR was performed as previously described ^{10,11,14,16-20,24,39,50}. Briefly, 5 µl culture supernatant was mixed with 5 µl 2 × RNA lysis buffer [2% Triton X-100 (Nacalai Tesque, Cat# 35501-15), 50 mM KCl, 100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 40% glycerol, 0.8 U/µl recombinant RNase inhibitor (Takara, Cat# 2313B)] and incubated at room temperature for 10 m. RNase-free water (90 µl) was added, and the diluted sample (2.5 µl) was used as the template for real-time RT-PCR performed according to the manufacturer’s protocol using One Step TB Green PrimeScript PLUS RT-PCR kit (Takara, Cat# RR096A) and the following primers: Forward N, 5'-AGC CTC TTC TCG TTC CTC ATC AC-3'; and Reverse N, 5'-CCG CCA TTG CCA GCC ATT C-3'. The viral RNA copy number was standardized with a SARS-CoV-2 direct detection RT-qPCR kit (Takara, Cat# RC300A). Fluorescent signals were acquired using QuantStudio 3 Real-Time PCR system (Thermo Fisher Scientific), CFX Connect Real-Time PCR Detection system (Bio-Rad), Eco Real-Time PCR System (Illumina), qTOWER3 G Real-Time System (Analytik Jena) or 7500 Real-Time PCR System (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Antiviral drug assay using SARS-CoV-2 clinical isolates and human iPSC-derived lung organoids

Antiviral drug assay (**Figure 3D**) was performed as previously described⁴³. Human iPSC-derived lung organoids were generated as previously described⁵¹. The human iPSC-derived lung organoids were infected with either BA.2, EG.5.1, or BA.2.86 isolate (100 TCID₅₀) at 37°C for 2 h. The cells were washed with DMEM and cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% FCS, 1% PS and the serially diluted EIDD-1931 (an active metabolite of Molnupiravir; Cell Signalling Technology, Cat# 81178S), Remdesivir (Clinisciences, Cat# A17170), Ensitrelvir (MedChemExpress, Cat# HY-143216), or Nirmatrelvir (PF-07321332; MedChemExpress, Cat# HY-138687). At 72 h after the infection, the culture supernatants were collected, and viral RNA was quantified using RT-qPCR (see “RT-qPCR” section above). The assay of each compound was performed in triplicate, and the 50% effective concentration (EC₅₀) was calculated using Prism 9 software v9.1.1 (GraphPad Software).

Animal experiments

Animal experiments (**Figure 4**) were performed as previously described^{10,11,14,16-20,39,50}. Syrian hamsters (male, 4 weeks old) were purchased from Japan SLC Inc. (Shizuoka, Japan). Baseline body weights were measured before infection. For the virus infection experiments, hamsters were anaesthetized by intramuscular injection of a mixture of either 0.15 mg/kg medetomidine hydrochloride (Domitor®, Nippon Zenyaku Kogyo), 2.0 mg/kg midazolam (FUJIFILM Wako Chemicals, Cat# 135-13791) and 2.5 mg/kg butorphanol (Vetorphale®, Meiji Seika Pharma), or 0.15 mg/kg medetomidine hydrochloride, 2.0 mg/kg alphaxalone (Alfaxan®, Jurox) and 2.5 mg/kg butorphanol. Clinical isolates of SARS-CoV-2 (BA.2.86, BA.2, and EG.5.1) (2,000 TCID₅₀ in 100 µl), or medium (100 µl) were intranasally inoculated under anesthesia. Oral swabs were collected at 2 and 5 d.p.i. Body weight, enhanced pause (Penh) and the ratio of time to peak expiratory flow relative to the total expiratory time (Rpef) were routinely monitored at indicated timepoints (see “Lung function test” section below). Respiratory organs were anatomically collected at 1, 3 and 5 d.p.i. (for lung) or 1 d.p.i. (for trachea). Viral RNA load in the respiratory tissues and oral swab were determined by RT-qPCR. The respiratory tissues were also used for histopathological and IHC analyses (see “H&E staining” and “IHC” sections below). Sera of infected hamsters were collected at 16 d.p.i. using cardiac puncture under anesthesia with isoflurane and used for neutralization assay (see “Neutralization assay” above).

Lung function test

1127 Lung function test (**Figure 4A**) was performed every day as previously
 1128 described^{10,11,14,16-20,39}. Respiratory parameters (Penh and Rpef) were measured
 1129 by using a whole-body plethysmography system (DSI) according to the
 1130 manufacturer's instructions. In brief, a hamster was placed in an unrestrained
 1131 plethysmography chamber and allowed to acclimatize for 30 seconds, then, data
 1132 were acquired over a 2.5-minute period by using FinePointe Station and Review
 1133 softwares v2.9.2.12849 (STARR).

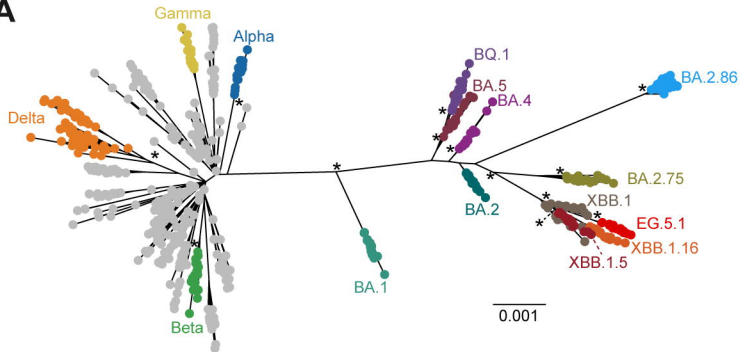
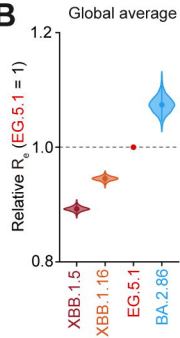
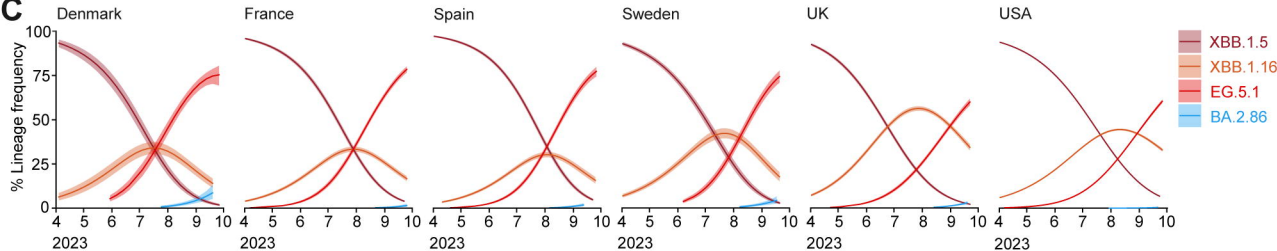
1134

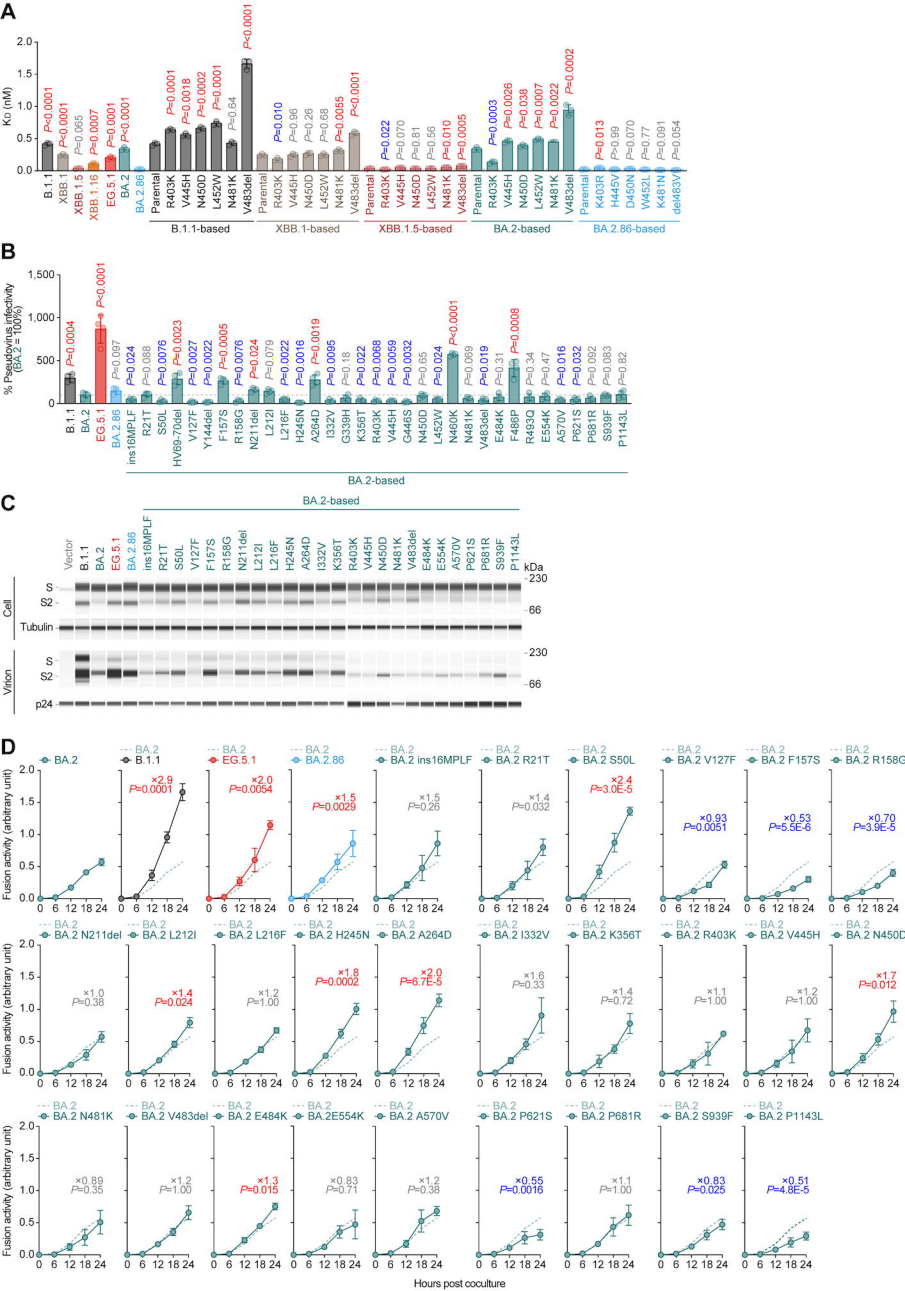
1135 **QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

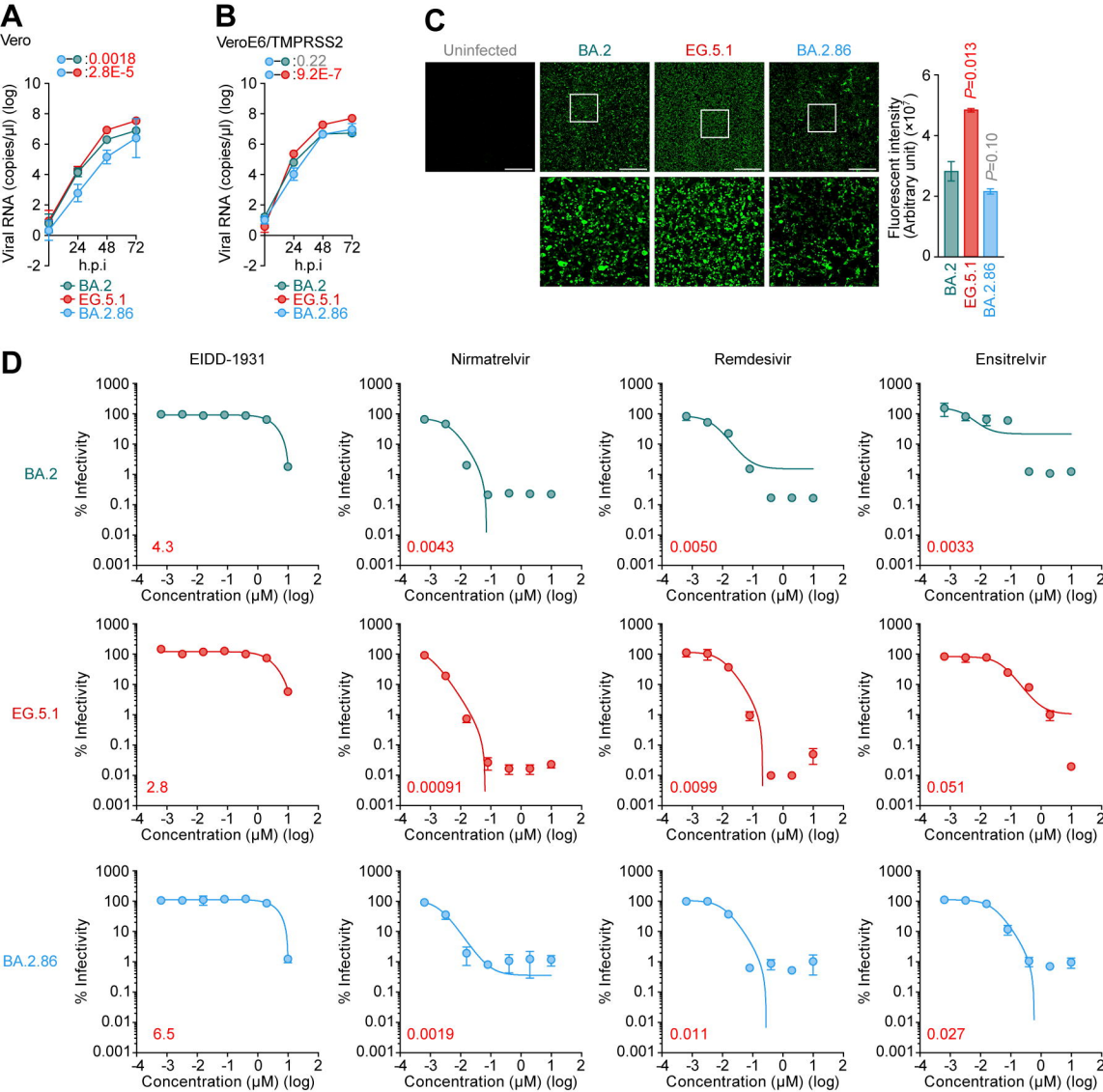
1136 Statistical significance was tested using a two-sided Mann–Whitney *U* test, a
 1137 two-sided Student's *t* test, a two-sided Welch's *t* test, or a two-sided paired *t*-test
 1138 unless otherwise noted. The tests above were performed using Prism 9 software
 1139 v9.1.1 (GraphPad Software).

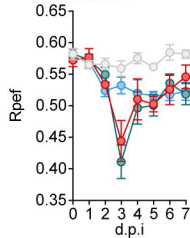
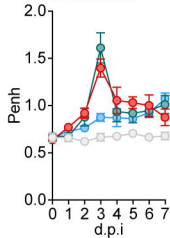
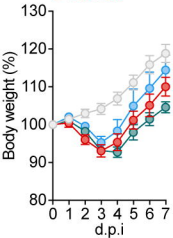
1140 In the time-course experiments (**Figures 2D, 3A, 3B, 4A, 4B, and**
 1141 **S2G**), a multiple regression analysis including experimental conditions (i.e., the
 1142 types of infected viruses) as explanatory variables and timepoints as qualitative
 1143 control variables was performed to evaluate the difference between
 1144 experimental conditions thorough all timepoints. The initial time point was
 1145 removed from the analysis. The *P* value was calculated by a two-sided Wald test.
 1146 Subsequently, familywise error rates (FWERs) were calculated by the Holm
 1147 method. These analyses were performed in R v4.1.2 (<https://www.r-project.org/>).

1148 In **Figure 3C**, photographs shown are the representatives of 57 fields
 1149 of view taken for each sample of at least two independent experiments.

A**B****C**





A

Legend:

- Uninfected (grey circles)
- BA.2 (teal circles)
- EG.5.1 (red circles)
- BA.2.86 (blue circles)

B