

Characterization of SARS-CoV-2 Omicron BA.2.75 clinical isolates

Ryuta Uraki^{1,2*}, Shun Iida^{3*}, Peter J. Halfmann^{4*}, Seiya Yamayoshi^{1,2*}, Yuichiro Hirata³, Kiyoko Iwatsuki-Horimoto¹, Maki Kiso¹, Mutsumi Ito¹, Yuri Furusawa^{1,2}, Hiroshi Ueki^{1,2}, Yuko Sakai-Tagawa¹, Makoto Kuroda⁴, Tadashi Maemura⁴, Taksoo Kim⁴, Sohtaro Mine³, Noriko Iwamoto⁵, Rong Li⁶, Yanan Liu⁶, Deanna Larson⁶, Shuetsu Fukushi⁷, Shinji Watanabe⁸, Ken Maeda⁹, Zhongde Wang⁶, Norio Ohmagari⁵, James Theiler¹⁰, Will Fischer¹¹, Bette Korber^{11¶}, Masaki Imai^{1,2¶}, Tadaki Suzuki^{3¶}, and Yoshihiro Kawaoka^{1,2,3,4¶§}

¹Division of Virology, Institute of Medical Science, University of Tokyo, Tokyo 108-8639, Japan.

²The Research Center for Global Viral Diseases, National Center for Global Health and Medicine Research Institute, Tokyo 162-8655, Japan.

³Department of Pathology, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Tokyo 162-8640, Japan.

⁴Influenza Research Institute, Department of Pathobiological Sciences, School of Veterinary Medicine, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI 53711, USA.

⁵Disease Control and Prevention Center, National Center for Global Health and Medicine Hospital, Tokyo 162-8655, Japan.

⁶Department of Animal, Dairy, and Veterinary Sciences, College of Agriculture and Applied Sciences, Utah State University, Logan, UT 84322, USA.

⁷Department of Virology 1, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Musashimurayama, Tokyo 208-0011, Japan.

⁸Center for Influenza and Respiratory Virus Research, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Musashimurayama, Tokyo 208-0011, Japan.

⁹Department of Veterinary Science, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Tokyo 162-8640, Japan

¹⁰Space Data Science and Systems, Los Alamos National Laboratory, Los Alamos, NM 87545, USA

¹¹Theoretical Biology and Biophysics, Los Alamos National Laboratory, Los Alamos, NM 87545, USA

New Mexico Consortium, Los Alamos, NM 87545, USA

*Equal contributors

¶Corresponding authors

§Lead contact

37 **Abstract (150 words)**

38 The prevalence of the Omicron subvariant BA.2.75 is rapidly increasing in India and Nepal. In
 39 addition, BA.2.75 has been detected in at least 34 other countries and is spreading globally.
 40 However, the virological features of BA.2.75 are largely unknown. Here, we evaluated the
 41 replicative ability and pathogenicity of BA.2.75 clinical isolates in Syrian hamsters. Although
 42 we found no substantial differences in weight change among hamsters infected with BA.2, BA.5,
 43 or BA.2.75, the replicative ability of BA.2.75 in the lungs was higher than that of BA.2 and
 44 BA.5. Of note, BA.2.75 caused focal viral pneumonia in hamsters, characterized by patchy
 45 inflammation interspersed in alveolar regions, which was not observed in BA.5-infected
 46 hamsters. Moreover, in competition assays, BA.2.75 replicated better than BA.5 in the lungs of
 47 hamsters. These results suggest that BA.2.75 can cause more severe respiratory disease than
 48 BA.5 and BA.2 and should be closely monitored.

49
 50 **Key words**

51 BA.2.75, Omicron, Syrian hamster, hACE2-expressing hamster, lung inflammation

52 Introduction

53 Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), first detected in China
54 at the end of 2019, is responsible for COVID-19, which is associated with mild to severe
55 symptoms ranging from cough and fever to severe pneumonia and death. Over two years have
56 passed since the World Health Organization (WHO) declared COVID-19 a pandemic
57 (<https://covid19.who.int/>). Yet, SARS-CoV-2 still imposes huge public health and economic
58 burdens worldwide. The currently circulating Omicron (B.1.1.529) variant emerged at the end
59 of 2021 and has since evolved into complex sublineages; three of the major Omicron lineages
60 have serially transitioned as globally dominant forms: first BA.1, then BA.2, and then BA.5
61 (**Fig. 1a**). The BA.5 lineage is currently the dominant variant circulating globally
62 (<https://covariants.org/per-variant>). BA.5 was just beginning to expand in India in May 2022,
63 when BA.2.75 (a subvariant of the BA.2 sublineage) first emerged there. This subvariant
64 appears to be more transmissible than BA.5 in India and Nepal, where it is gaining prevalence
65 (<https://covariants.org/per-variant>). Recently, WHO has categorized BA.2.75 as a variant of
66 concern (VOC) lineages under monitoring (VOC-LUM).

67 Compared with the original Wuhan Hu-1 strain, the Omicron BA.1 virus had more than
68 30 amino acid differences in the spike protein of SARS-CoV-2 including insertions and
69 deletions (**Fig. S1A**) (by comparison, Delta differed from the original Wuhan Hu-1 by only 11
70 amino acids in its Spike)(Flemming, 2022). BA.2 differed from BA.1 at 27 Spike positions, and
71 BA.5 differs from BA.2 by 5 amino acids in the S protein (**Fig. S1A**). We recently demonstrated
72 that the pathogenicity of BA.1 and BA.2 sublineage viruses is comparable in animal models and
73 attenuated compared with previously circulating variants of concern (VOCs), consistent with
74 clinical data in humans (Halfmann et al., 2022; Uraki et al., 2022a). In addition, our recent data
75 suggest that BA.4 and BA.5 have similar pathogenicity to that of BA.2 in rodent models
76 ((Kawaoka et al., 2022): <https://www.researchsquare.com/article/rs-1820048/v1>). SARS-CoV-2
77 initiates infection through the binding of the receptor-binding domain (RBD) of its spike protein
78 to host cell surface receptors [i.e., human angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (hACE2)]. BA.2.75
79 differs from that of BA.2 by nine amino acids in the Spike, including four in the RBD (i.e.,
80 G339H, G446S, N460K, and the wild-type amino acid at position Q493). Recent studies
81 reported that the RBD of BA.2.75 has a higher binding affinity for hACE2 than that of BA.2
82 ((Cao et al., 2022): <https://www.biorxiv.org/content/10.1101/2022.07.18.500332v1.full>, (Saito et
83 al., 2022): <https://www.biorxiv.org/content/10.1101/2022.08.07.503115v1>), raising the
84 possibility that this property may increase the replicative ability and/or pathogenicity of
85 BA.2.75. Moreover, in addition to the substitutions in the RBD, there are several amino acid
86 differences in the other viral proteins of BA.2.75, which may also alter its replicative capability
87 and pathogenicity (**Fig. S1b**). Here, we assessed the replicative capacity and pathogenicity of

88 authentic BA.2.75 subvariants isolated from COVID-19 patients in established COVID-19
89 animal models.
90
91

Results.

Transitions in Omicron variant prevalence throughout 2022.

SARS-CoV-2 has undergone a series of variant transitions since the Omicron lineage was first observed in November of 2021. The initial global transition from Delta to the Omicron BA.1 lineage was extremely swift and was followed successively by waves of BA.2 and BA.5, with each variant, essentially replacing the previous dominant form (**Fig. 1**). This may indicate that each variant has been more transmissible than the prior variant, particularly in settings with histories of prior infection and vaccination resulting in changes in immune status at the population level. BA.2.75, a BA.2 sublineage, was first detected in India in May of 2022, and since then has been rapid increasing in sampling frequency (**Fig.1, Fig. S2 and S3**). As of this writing, there are more than 3,000 sequences in GISAID (Elbe and Buckland-Merrett, 2017; Khare et al., 2021) with the Pango lineage designation BA.2.75, sampled in 35 nations. Although BA.2.75 is still rare outside of India and Nepal, it has been sampled at least 10 times in 10 nations, and in each of these 10 it is significantly increasing in sampling frequency (**Fig. S2**); the regularity of this pattern suggests that BA.2.75 may have a selective advantage over co-circulating variants. BA.2.75 is established in 12 states in India, and is significantly increasing in frequency throughout India, indicating that its increased prevalence in India is unlikely to be a founder effect or sampling issue (**Fig. S3**). BA.5 was just beginning to expand in India and when BA.2.75 was first detected (**Fig. 1**), and where BA.5 and BA.2.75 are co-circulating, the prevalence of BA.2.75 tends to be increasing faster (**Fig. 1b**). Therefore, BA.2.75 is a likely candidate for the next major transition to a more transmissible form, unless a novel variant emerges with an even greater selective advantage.

BA.2.75 infection in hamsters

To characterize BA.2.75 *in vivo*, we amplified three BA.2.75 clinical isolates in VeroE6/TMPRSS2 cells: hCoV-19/Japan/TY41-716/2022 (TY41-716)(Takashita et al., 2022), hCoV-19/Japan/UT-NCD1757-1N/2022 (NCD1757), and hCoV-19/Japan/UT-NCD1759-1N/2022 (NCD1759). We confirmed that the S protein of all three isolates contained the nine additional amino acid changes (i.e., K147E, W152R, F157L, I210V, G257S, D339H, G446S, N460K, and Q493 (reversion)) (**Fig. S1b**) that distinguish the consensus form of BA.2.75 (<https://cov.lanl.gov/components/sequence/COV/pangocommonforms.comp>) from a BA.2 isolate (hCoV-19/Japan/UT-NCD1288-2N/2022; NCD1288), which carries the most common circulating form of BA.2 in Spike. However, two of the isolates (NCD1757 and NCD1759) had a D574V substitution in the subdomain (SD), in addition to the nine mutations; this and several other distinctive mutations found in other proteins are summarized in **Fig. S1b**.

We first evaluated the pathogenicity of the BA.2.75 isolates in wild-type Syrian hamsters, a well-established small animal model for the study of COVID-19 (Chan et al., 2020; Imai et al., 2020; Sia et al., 2020). Syrian hamsters were intranasally inoculated with 10^5 plaque-forming units (PFU) of BA.2.75 (TY41-716, NCD1757, or NCD1759). For comparison, additional hamsters were infected with clinical isolates of BA.2 (10^5 PFU of NCD1288)(Takashita et al., 2022; Uraki et al., 2022a), BA.5 [10^5 PFU of hCoV-19/Japan/TY41-702/2022 (TY41-702)] (Kawaoka et al., 2022), or B.1.617.2 [10^5 PFU of hCoV-19/USA/WI-UW-5250/2021 (Delta: UW5250)](Halfmann et al., 2022). Intranasal infection with B.1.617.2 resulted in significant body weight loss by 6 days post-infection (dpi) (-5.4%) (**Fig. 2a**), consistent with our previous observations (Halfmann et al., 2022; Kawaoka et al., 2022). By contrast, most of the animals infected with any of the three BA.2.75 isolates gained weight over the 6-day experiment, similar to BA.2-, BA.5-, or mock-infected animals. We also examined pulmonary functions in the infected hamsters by measuring Penh and Rpef, which are surrogate markers for bronchoconstriction and airway obstruction, respectively, by using a whole-body plethysmography system. Inoculation of hamsters with the BA.2, BA.5, BA.2.75 (NCD1757), or BA.2.75 (NCD1759) isolate did not cause substantial changes in either Penh or Rpef at any timepoint post-infection compared to the mock-infected group. Infection with BA.2.75 (TY41-716) caused a slight increase in Penh at 3 and 5 dpi, although no statistically significant differences in Penh values were observed among BA.2-, BA.5-, and BA.2.75 (TY41-716)-infected animals. Consistent with our previous data, infection with B.1.617.2 caused significant changes in Rpef in comparison with the five Omicron isolates (**Fig. 2b**).

We next assessed levels of infection in the respiratory tract of wild-type Syrian hamsters (**Fig. 2c**). Hamsters were intranasally infected with 10^5 PFU of BA.2.75 (TY41-716), BA.2.75 (NCD1757), BA.2 (NCD1288), BA.5 (TY41-702), or B.1.617.2 (Delta: UW5250); at 3 and 6 dpi, the animals were sacrificed, and their nasal turbinates and lungs were collected for virus titration. The virus titers were determined by performing plaque assays on Vero E6-TMPRSS2-T2A-ACE2 cells. BA.2 (NCD1288), BA.5 (TY41-702), BA.2.75 (TY41-716), and BA.2.75 (NCD1757) replicated in the nasal turbinates of the infected animals with no significant differences in viral titers at both timepoints examined. However, the virus titers in the nasal turbinates were significantly lower in the respiratory tract of animals infected with the BA.2, BA.5, BA.2.75 (TY41-716), or BA.2.75 (NCD1757) isolates, compared to animals infected with B.1.617.2 [mean differences in viral titer = 0.75, 0.75, 0.98, or 0.94 and 1.4, 1.6, 1.8, or 1.5 \log_{10} (PFU/g) at 3 and 6 dpi, respectively].

Consistent with our previous report (Kawaoka et al., 2022), the virus titers in the lungs of animals infected with BA.2 or BA.5 were lower than those in animals infected with

164 B.1.617.2 [mean differences in viral titer = 5.0 or 4.2 and 2.2 or 3.4 log₁₀ (PFU/g) at 3 and 6 dpi,
165 respectively], although the difference was not statistically significant between the BA.2- and
166 B.1.617.2-infected groups at 6 dpi. The lung titers in the BA.2.75 (TY41-716)-infected groups
167 were also lower than those in the B.1.617.2-infected groups [mean difference in viral titer = 2.1
168 and 1.7 log₁₀ (PFU/g) at 3 and 6 dpi, respectively], although these differences did not reach
169 statistical significance. The viral titers in the lungs of another BA.2.75 strain
170 (NCD1757)-infected groups were similarly lower than those in the B.1.617.2-infected group at
171 3 dpi [mean differences in viral titer = 2.0 log₁₀ (PFU/g)]; however, animals infected with
172 BA.2.75 or B.1.617.2 had similar titers in the lungs at 6 dpi. The lung titers in the BA.2.75
173 (TY41-716)- and BA.2.75 (NCD1757)-infected groups were higher than those in BA.5-infected
174 groups [for BA.2.75 (TY41-716), mean differences in viral titer = 2.1 and 1.7 log₁₀ (PFU/g), at 3
175 and 6 dpi, respectively; for BA.2.75 (NCD1757), mean differences in viral titer = 2.2 and 2.8
176 log₁₀ (PFU/g), at 3 and 6 dpi, respectively]; however, the differences were not statistically
177 significant among the three groups. At 3 dpi, the virus titers in the lungs were significantly
178 higher in the respiratory tract of animals infected with BA.2.75 (TY41-716), compared to
179 animals infected with BA.2 (NCD1288) [mean difference in viral titer = 2.9 log₁₀ (PFU/g)];
180 however, at 6 dpi, similar titers were detected in the lungs of animals inoculated with BA.2.75
181 (TY41-716) or BA.2. The viral titers in the lungs of the BA.2.75 (NCD1757)-infected groups
182 were also higher than those in the BA.2 (NCD1288)-infected groups [mean differences in viral
183 titer = 3.0 and 1.6 log₁₀ (PFU/g), at 3 and 6 dpi, respectively], although the difference was not
184 statistically significant between the BA.2.75 (NCD1757)- and BA.2-infected groups at 6 dpi.
185 Taken together, these results suggest that the replicative ability of BA.2.75 in the lungs of
186 wild-type hamsters is higher than that of previous Omicron variants, including BA.2 and BA.5.

187 We then investigated the infectivity of BA.2.75 in respiratory organs by using a more
188 susceptible model, specifically transgenic hamsters expressing hACE2 (**Fig. 2d**). At 5 dpi, the
189 virus titers in the lungs and nasal turbinates of hACE2-expressing hamsters infected with
190 BA.2.75 (TY41-716) were lower than those in animals infected with B.1.617 (UW5250) [mean
191 differences in viral titer = 2.7 and 1.1 log₁₀ (PFU/g), respectively], although the differences in
192 the lungs were not statistically significant between the two groups. Similar titers were detected
193 in the lungs of animals inoculated with BA.2.75 (TY41-716) or BA.5 (TY41-702); however, the
194 virus titers in the nasal turbinates of the animals infected with BA.2.75 were slightly but
195 significantly lower than in those infected with BA.5 [mean differences in viral titer = 0.98 log₁₀
196 (PFU/g)]. The virus titers in the lungs were substantially higher in the respiratory tract of
197 animals infected with BA.2.75 (TY41-716) compared with animals infected with BA.2
198 (NCD1288) [mean differences in viral titer = 2.6 log₁₀ (PFU/g)], although animals infected with
199 BA.2.75 or BA.2 exhibited similar viral titers in nasal turbinates. These results suggest that

200 BA.2.75 may have a higher replicative ability than BA.2 in the lungs of hACE2 transgenic
201 hamsters.

202

203 **Histopathological findings in the lungs of SARS-CoV-2 BA.2.75 virus-inoculated Syrian** 204 **hamsters**

205 The lungs of Syrian hamsters that were inoculated with BA.2.75, BA.5, or B.1.617.2
206 were also analyzed histopathologically. Hamsters were intranasally inoculated with BA.2.75
207 (TY41-716), BA.5 (TY41-702), or B.1.617.2 (Delta, UW5250) and euthanized at 3 and 6 dpi
208 for histopathological evaluation; representative images are shown in Figure 3.

209 This examination revealed that inflammation was not obvious in the lungs of either
210 BA.2.75 (TY41-716)- or BA.5-inoculated animals at 3 dpi; however, infiltration of
211 inflammatory cells such as mononuclear cells and neutrophils was observed in peribronchial
212 and peribronchiolar regions in these two groups at 6 dpi (**Fig. 3a, 3b, and S4**). It is noteworthy
213 that focal pneumonia, characterized by patchy inflammation interspersed in alveolar regions,
214 was observed in the lungs of BA.2.75 (TY41-716)-inoculated animals at 6 dpi. Similar
215 histopathological findings (i.e., focal pneumonia) were observed in the lungs of animals
216 inoculated with another BA.2.75 strain (NCD1757) at 6 dpi (**Fig. S5**). However, there was no
217 obvious pneumonia in the lungs of BA.5-inoculated animals at the same timepoint. By contrast,
218 in the lungs of the B.1.617.2-inoculated animals, peribronchial and peribronchiolar
219 inflammation was prominent at 3 dpi, and extensive pneumonia with focal alveolar hemorrhage
220 was observed in the alveolar regions at 6 dpi (**Fig. 3a, 3b and S4**). In addition, we detected viral
221 RNA and protein in the lung tissue of BA.2.75 (TY41-716)-, BA.5- or B.1.617.2-infected
222 hamsters by use of in situ hybridization and immunohistochemistry. These analyses revealed
223 that viral RNA and antigen were readily detected on bronchial/bronchiolar epithelium in both
224 BA.2.75 (TY41-716)- and BA.5-inoculated animals at 3 dpi with a clear decrease in positive
225 cells over time (**Fig. 3a and 3b**). In the alveolar regions, a small number of cells were positive
226 for viral RNA or antigen in the BA.2.75 (TY41-716)-inoculated group at both timepoints
227 examined, and fewer cells were positive in the BA.5-inoculated group at the corresponding
228 timepoints (**Fig. 3a and 3b**). Comparatively, at 3 dpi, the lungs of the B.1.617.2-inoculated
229 hamsters had diffusely positive viral RNA and antigen in the bronchial/bronchiolar areas and
230 patchily positive viral RNA and antigen in the alveolar regions (**Fig. 3a and 3b**). BA.2.75
231 (TY41-716) thus produced mild viral pneumonia in the hamster model with attenuated
232 pathogenicity compared with B.1.617.2, whereas BA.5 did not cause obvious viral pneumonia.
233 In addition, the number of viral RNA/antigen-positive cells in the alveolar regions of the
234 BA.2.75 (TY41-716)-inoculated animals was higher than that in the BA.5-inoculated animals,
235 but lower than that in the B.1.617.2-inoculated ones.

236

237 **The replicative fitness of BA.2.75 compared with that of BA.5 in hamsters**

238 To further investigate the replicative fitness of BA.2.75, we compared the growth of
239 BA.2.75 in wild-type hamsters with that of BA.5, which is currently the dominant variant
240 circulating globally. Wild-type hamsters were intranasally inoculated with 2×10^5 PFU of a
241 mixture of BA.2.75 (TY41-716) and BA.5 (TY41-702) at ratios of 1:1, 1:3, 1:19, or 1:199. At 4
242 dpi, the proportion of each virus in the nasal turbinates and lungs of the infected hamsters was
243 determined by using Next Generation Sequencing (NGS). The proportion was calculated on the
244 basis of the differences between these two viruses across 6 regions in the S protein.

245 NGS analysis revealed that the proportion of BA.2.75 had increased in the nasal
246 turbinates and lungs of all infected animals compared to that in each inoculum for any ratio,
247 except for the lung samples from hamsters 2, 10, and 19 (**Fig. 4**). For animals inoculated with a
248 1:1 or 1:3 ratio of BA.2.75:BA.5, the lung and nasal turbinate samples showed a greater
249 proportion of BA.2.75, except for the lung sample from hamsters 2, 9, and 10 (**Fig. 4a and 4b**).
250 Of note, even though the proportion of BA.2.75 in the inoculum was much lower than that of
251 BA.5 (i.e., a 1:19 or 1:199 mixture of BA.2.75:BA.5), BA.2.75 became dominant in the lungs of
252 four (#s 11, 12, 15, and 20) of the ten animals (**Fig. 4c and 4d**). Taken together, these results
253 suggest that BA.2.75 may have greater replicative fitness than BA.5, especially in the upper
254 respiratory tract.

255 Discussion

256

257 We previously showed that Omicron sublineage BA.2 and BA.5 variants exhibit similar
 258 pathogenicity in rodent models by using several clinical isolates, and showed that both variants
 259 are significantly attenuated compared to previous circulating VOCs (Kawaoka et al., 2022;
 260 Uraki et al., 2022a). Here, we evaluated the replication and pathogenicity of Omicron
 261 sublineage BA.2.75 variants in hamsters. Our data show that there are no substantial differences
 262 in weight change among hamsters infected with BA.2.75, BA.2, or BA.5 (**Fig. 2a**);
 263 however, viral titers in the lungs of BA.2.75-infected hamsters were higher than those in the
 264 lungs of BA.2- or BA.5-infected hamsters (**Fig. 2c**). In addition, in competition assays, BA.2.75
 265 replicated better than BA.5 in the lungs (**Fig. 4**). Of note, in the lungs of BA.2.75-inoculated
 266 hamsters, we observed focal pneumonia, characterized by patchy inflammation interspersed in
 267 alveolar regions, indicating that BA.2.75 can cause mild pneumonia (**Fig. 3 and S5**). In contrast,
 268 BA.5 mainly affected the bronchi, resulting in bronchitis/bronchiolitis, and did not cause obvious
 269 pneumonia (**Fig. 3**). Similar results were observed with hamsters infected with BA.1, BA.2, or
 270 BA.4 ((Halfmann et al., 2022; Kawaoka et al., 2022; Uraki et al., 2022b)). These findings
 271 suggest that among the Omicron variants, the Omicron subvariant BA.2.75 causes the most
 272 severe tissue damage in the lungs of hamsters.

273 Omicron variants, including BA.1 or BA.2, are less likely than Delta variants to be
 274 associated with pneumonia in COVID-19 patients (Christensen et al., 2022; Kozlov, 2022; Li et
 275 al., 2022), consistent with our previous data obtained in a hamster model (Halfmann et al.,
 276 2022; Uraki et al., 2022a). However, in the present study, we found that BA.2.75 can cause focal
 277 viral pneumonia in hamsters, unlike the other Omicron variants (i.e., BA.1, BA.2, BA.4, and
 278 BA.5) (Halfmann et al., 2022; Kawaoka et al., 2022; Uraki et al., 2022a). The reason for this is
 279 unclear; however, it might be due to differences in the binding affinity of the S protein for
 280 hACE2 among BA.1, BA.2, BA.4, BA.5, and BA.2.75. Recent studies have reported that the
 281 RBD of BA.2.75 exhibits higher binding affinity for the hACE2 receptor than that of BA.2 and
 282 BA.4/5 (Cao et al., 2022; Saito et al., 2022). SARS-CoV-2 enters cells in two distinct ways: by
 283 fusion of the viral lipid envelope with the target cell plasma membrane or fusion of the
 284 viral envelope with the endosomal membrane after internalization through the endocytic
 285 pathway (Hoffmann et al., 2020; Jackson et al., 2022; Walls et al., 2020). The internalization of
 286 SARS-CoV-2 via the endocytic pathway is believed to be induced by the binding of the virus to
 287 ACE2 (Bayati et al., 2021; Inoue et al., 2007). The Omicron variants have been shown to
 288 preferentially utilize the endocytic pathway to enter cells (Hui et al., 2022; Meng et al., 2022).
 289 In addition, previous studies have demonstrated that the enhanced binding affinity between
 290 ACE2 and the RBD increases the efficiency of SARS-CoV-2 entry (Ou et al., 2021; Ozono et al.,

291 2021). Therefore, the higher ACE2 binding affinity of BA.2.75 may enhance its ability to infect
 292 the lungs, thereby allowing BA.2.75 to cause viral pneumonia in hamsters. Also, this higher
 293 ACE2 affinity of BA.2.75 may increase its competitive fitness compared to BA.5 in the
 294 respiratory tracts of hamsters, as observed in our *in vivo* competition assay (**Fig. 4**). Further
 295 investigations are required to determine whether ACE2 binding affinity truly influences
 296 Omicron infection.

297 We note two key limitations in this study: (1) although hamsters are one of the most
 298 widely used animals that are known to be susceptible to SARS-CoV-2, including mice and
 299 non-human primates (Chan et al., 2020; Imai et al., 2020; Sia et al., 2020), it is unclear whether
 300 the BA.2.75 variant causes more clinically severe respiratory disease than other Omicron
 301 variants in humans; and (2) our study was performed in immunologically naïve animals;
 302 however, many people have already acquired immunity to SARS-CoV-2 through natural
 303 infection and/or vaccination. Therefore, it remains unclear whether our data reflect the clinical
 304 outcome in patients with immunity against SARS-CoV-2. Clinical studies are needed to
 305 corroborate our findings in the hamster model.

306 In summary, the prevalence of BA.2.75 has increased throughout India, and has been
 307 increasing faster in regions where BA.5 and BA.2.75 are co-circulating, suggesting the potential
 308 for BA.2.75 to become the next globally dominant variant. Our data show that, compared to
 309 BA.5 and BA.2, BA.2.75 can replicate efficiently in the lungs of hamsters and cause more
 310 severe respiratory disease. This higher replicative ability of BA.2.75 in the lower respiratory
 311 tract may affect the clinical outcome in infected humans. Accordingly, the spread of this new
 312 variant should be monitored closely.

313

314 **Materials and Methods**

315

316 **Variant tracking strategies.**

317 Figures 1, S2, and S3 show transitions between variant forms, emphasizing the recent expansion
 318 of the BA.2.75 variant that is indicative of a possible selective advantage. Details of the
 319 methods used to make these figures are described in Korber et al. (Korber et al., 2020), and
 320 web-based updates of these figures based on recent GISAID data can be generated via the
 321 “Embers” and “Isotonic Regression” tools at the Los Alamos National Laboratory SARS-CoV-2
 322 variant analysis website (<https://cov.lanl.gov>). Figure 1 was created using Embers and displays
 323 running weekly counts and proportions of variants at different geographic levels. The Isotonic
 324 Regression analysis explores the dynamics of the transition towards higher frequencies of
 325 BA.2.75 over time, testing whether it is increasing in frequency relative to other variant forms at
 326 the country or state level, everywhere globally that BA.2.75 is well enough established to have
 327 been sampled ten or more times. A resampling statistic was used to evaluate whether the
 328 increasing sampling of BA.2.75 is significant (Elbe and Buckland-Merrett, 2017; Khare et al.,
 329 2021; Korber et al., 2020). The data sets for these figures were uploaded from GISAID
 330 2022-08-15 (Elbe and Buckland-Merrett, 2017; Khare et al., 2021).

331

332 **Cells.**

333 VeroE6/TMPRSS2 (JCRB 1819) cells (Matsuyama et al., 2020) were propagated in the
 334 presence of 1 mg/ml geneticin (G418; Invivogen) and 5 µg/ml plasmocin prophylactic
 335 (Invivogen) in Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s medium (DMEM) containing 10% Fetal Calf
 336 Serum (FCS). Vero E6-TMPRSS2-T2A-ACE2 cells (provided by Dr. Barney Graham, NIAID
 337 Vaccine Research Center) were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% FCS, 10 mM
 338 HEPES pH 7.3, 100 U/mL penicillin-streptomycin, and 10 µg/mL puromycin.
 339 VeroE6/TMPRSS2 and Vero E6-TMPRSS2-T2A-ACE2 cells were maintained at 37 °C with 5%
 340 CO₂. The cells were regularly tested for mycoplasma contamination by using PCR, and
 341 confirmed to be mycoplasma-free.

342

343 **Viruses.**

344 hCoV-19/Japan/UT-NCD1288-2N/2022 (BA.2; NCD1288, Accession ID; EPI_ISL_9595604)
 345 (Takashita et al., 2022; Uraki et al., 2022a), hCoV-19/Japan/TY41-716/2022 (BA.2.75;
 346 TY41-716, Accession ID; EPI_ISL_14011362)(Takashita et al., 2022),
 347 hCoV-19/Japan/UT-NCD1757-1N/2022 (BA.2.75; NCD1757, Accession ID;
 348 EPI_ISL_14321758), hCoV-19/Japan/UT-NCD1759-1N/2022 (BA.2.75; NCD1759, Accession
 349 ID; EPI_ISL_14321760), hCoV-19/Japan/TY41-702/2022 (BA.5; TY41-702, Accession ID;

350 EPI_ISL_13512581) (Kawaoka et al., 2022), and hCoV-19/USA/WI-UW-5250/2021
 351 (B.1.617.2; UW5250) (Gagne et al., 2022; Halfmann et al., 2022) were propagated in
 352 VeroE6/TMPRSS2 cells in VP-SFM (Thermo Fisher Scientific). BA.2.75 (NCD1757) and
 353 BA.2.75 (NCD1759) were subjected to next generation sequencing (NGS) (see Whole genome
 354 sequencing). All experiments with SARS-CoV-2 were performed in enhanced biosafety level 3
 355 (BSL3) containment laboratories at the University of Tokyo and the National Institute of
 356 Infectious Diseases, Japan, which are approved for such use by the Ministry of Agriculture,
 357 Forestry, and Fisheries, Japan, or in BSL3 agriculture containment laboratories at the University
 358 of Wisconsin-Madison, which are approved for such use by the Centers for Disease Control and
 359 Prevention and by the US Department of Agriculture.

360

361 **Animal experiments and approvals.**

362 Animal studies were carried out in accordance with the recommendations in the Guide for the
 363 Care and Use of Laboratory Animals of the National Institutes of Health. The protocols were
 364 approved by the Animal Experiment Committee of the Institute of Medical Science, the
 365 University of Tokyo (approval number PA19-75) and the Institutional Animal Care and Use
 366 Committee at the University of Wisconsin, Madison (assurance number V006426). Virus
 367 inoculations were performed under isoflurane, and all efforts were made to minimize animal
 368 suffering. *In vivo* studies were not blinded, and animals were randomly assigned to infection
 369 groups. No sample-size calculations were performed to power each study. Instead, sample sizes
 370 were determined based on prior *in vivo* virus challenge experiments.

371

372 **Experimental infection of Syrian hamsters.**

373 Six-week-old male wild-type Syrian hamsters (Japan SLC Inc., Shizuoka, Japan) were used in
 374 this study. Baseline body weights were measured before infection. Under isoflurane anesthesia,
 375 five hamsters per group were intranasally inoculated with 10^5 PFU (in 30 μ L) of BA.2
 376 (NCD1288), BA.2.75 (TY41-716), BA.2.75 (NCD1757), BA.2.75 (NCD1759), BA.5
 377 (TY41-702), or B.1.617.2 (UW5250). Body weight was monitored daily for 6 days. For
 378 virological and pathological examinations, ten hamsters per group were intranasally infected
 379 with 10^5 PFU (in 30 μ L) of BA.2 (NCD1288), BA.2.75 (TY41-716), BA.2.75 (NCD1757),
 380 BA.5(TY41-702), or B.1.617.2 (UW5250); 3 and 6 dpi, five animals were euthanized and nasal
 381 turbinates and lungs were collected. The virus titers in the nasal turbinates and lungs were
 382 determined by use of plaque assays on Vero E6-TMPRSS2-T2A-ACE2 cells.

383 For co-infection studies, BA.2.75 (TY41-716) was mixed with BA.5 (TY41-702) at a 1:1, 1:3,
 384 1:19, or 1:199 ratio on the basis of their titers, and each virus mixture (total 2×10^5 PFU in 60
 385 μ L) was inoculated into five wild-type hamsters. At 4 dpi, five animals were euthanized and

nasal turbinates and lungs were collected to determine virus titers. The K18-hACE2 transgenic hamster line (line M41) were developed by using a piggyBac-mediated transgenic approach. The K18-hACE2 cassette from the pK18-hACE2 plasmid was transferred into a piggyBac vector, pmhyGENIE-3, for pronuclear injection (Gilliland et al., 2021). Then, female 6-8-week-old K18-hACE2 homozygous transgenic hamsters, whose hACE2 expression was confirmed, were intranasally inoculated with 10^5 PFU (in 30 μ L) of BA.2 (NCD1288), BA.5 (TY41-702), BA.2.75 (TY41-716), or B.1.617.2 (UW5250). At 5 dpi, the animals were euthanized and nasal turbinates and lungs were collected. The virus titers in the nasal turbinates and lungs were determined by use of plaque assays on Vero E6-TMPRSS2-T2A-ACE2 cells.

Lung function.

Respiratory parameters were measured by using a whole-body plethysmography system (PrimeBioscience) according to the manufacturer's instructions. In brief, infected hamsters were placed in the unrestrained plethysmography chambers and allowed to acclimate for 1 min before data were acquired over a 3-min period by using FinePointe software.

Histopathology

Histopathological examination was performed as previously described (Halfmann et al., 2022; Kawaoka et al., 2022; Uraki et al., 2022a). In brief, excised animal lungs were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and processed for paraffin embedding. The paraffin blocks were sliced into 3 μ m-thick sections and mounted on silane-coated glass slides, followed by hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) stain for histopathological examination. To detect SARS-CoV-2 RNA, in situ hybridization was performed using an RNA scope 2.5 HD Red Detection kit (Advanced Cell Diagnostics, Newark, California) with an antisense probe targeting the nucleocapsid gene of SARS-CoV-2 (Advanced Cell Diagnostics) following manufacturer's instructions. Tissue sections were also processed for immunohistochemistry with a rabbit polyclonal antibody for SARS-CoV nucleocapsid protein (ProSpec; ANT-180, 1:500 dilution, Rehovot, Israel), which cross-reacts with SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid protein. Specific antigen-antibody reactions were visualized by means of 3,3'-diaminobenzidine tetrahydrochloride staining using the Dako Envision system (Dako Cytomation; K4001, 1:1 dilution, Glostrup, Denmark).

Whole genome sequencing

Viral RNA was extracted by using a QIAamp Viral RNA Mini Kit (QIAGEN). The whole genome of SARS-CoV-2 was amplified by using a modified ARTIC network protocol in which

some primers were replaced or added (Itokawa et al., 2020; Quick). Briefly, viral cDNA was synthesized from the extracted RNA by using a LunarScript RT SuperMix Kit (New England BioLabs). The DNA was then amplified by performing a multiplexed PCR in two pools using the ARTIC-N5 primers and the Q5 Hot Start DNA polymerase (New England BioLabs) (Itokawa et al.). The DNA libraries for Illumina NGS were prepared from pooled amplicons by using a QIAseq FX DNA Library Kit (QIAGEN) and were then analyzed by using the iSeq 100 System (Illumina). To determine the sequences of BA.2.75 (NCD1757) and BA.2.75 (NCD1759), the reads were assembled by the CLC Genomics Workbench (version 22, Qiagen) with the Wuhan/Hu-1/2019 sequence (GenBank accession no. MN908947) as a reference. The sequences of BA.2.75 (NCD1757) and BA.2.75 (NCD1759) were deposited in the Global Initiative on Sharing All Influenza Data (GISAID) database with Accession IDs: EPI_ISL_14321758, and EPI_ISL_14321760, respectively. For the analysis of the ratio of BA.5 to BA.2.75 after co-infection, the ratio of BA.2.75 to BA.5 was calculated from the 6 amino acid differences in the S gene between the two viruses. Samples with more than 300 read-depths were analyzed.

Statistical analysis.

GraphPad Prism software was used to analyze the data. Statistical analysis included the Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test, and an ANOVA with post-hoc tests. Differences among groups were considered significant for P values < 0.05 .

Data and code availability.

All data supporting the findings of this study are available in the paper. There are no restrictions in obtaining access to the primary data. The source data are provided with this paper.

No novel code was used in the course of the data acquisition or analysis, the most representative forms of each virus, dynamics plots, and isotonic regression analyses are available at <https://cov.lanl.gov/content/index>.

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Author contributions

R.U., S.I., P.J.H., S.Y., Y.H., K.I.-H., M.Kiso, M.Ito, Y.F., H.U., S.M., M.Kuroda, T.M., T.K., S.M., M.Imai, and T.S. performed the hamster infection experiments, titrated virus in tissues, and/or analyzed pathology. S.Y. performed next generation sequencing. Z.W., R.L., Y.L., and D.L. generated human ACE2 hamsters. S.Y., Y.S.-T., N.I., S.F., S.W., K.M., and N.O. propagated and/or sequenced viruses. J.T. and B.K. analyzed variant dynamics and Spike genomes. W. F. processed viral sequence data for identifying variant-representative full-length genomes. R.U., S.I., P.J.H., S.Y., M.Imai, T.S. and Y.K. obtained funding, conceived the study, and/or supervised the research. R.U., M.Imai and Y.K. wrote the initial draft, with all other authors providing editorial comments.

Competing interests

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Corresponding author

Correspondence to: Yoshihiro Kawaoka, D.V.M., Ph.D., yoshihiro.kawaoka@wisc.edu; Tadaki Suzuki, M.D., Ph.D., tkusuzuki@niid.go.jp; Masaki Imai, D.V.M., Ph.D., mimai@ims.u-tokyo.ac.jp; and Bette Korber, Ph.D., btk@lanl.gov.

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Figure legends

Fig. 1. Pango lineage dynamics between 01-12-2021 and 08-08-2022.

a, BA.2.75 frequencies over time globally and in India, where BA.2.75 is currently most commonly found. Omicron variants have been through waves of global dominance since Omicron began to spread in late 2021. BA.1 (and BA.1.1, both in red) very rapidly replaced Delta globally. BA.2 then replaced BA.1 as the globally dominant form. Within the BA.2 lineage, BA.2.12.1 began to expand in North America, but BA.2, including the BA.2.12.1 sublineage, is being replaced by BA.5, the currently globally dominant form. BA.2.75 is still very rare globally, at only 0.3% of the global sample in the 30 days ending on 08-08-2022, but is being increasingly sampled in India, representing 25% of the last 30-day sample. BA.5 was slower to begin its expansion in India than in most countries, but was still on a trajectory of increasing prevalence when BA.2.75 was first sampled in late May/early June; BA.2.75 is much more rapidly gaining in prevalence in India than BA.5, suggesting a possible selective advantage. **b**, Examples illustrating the increase in prevalence of BA.2.75 relative to BA.5, despite BA.5 being well-established prior to BA.2.75's introduction, at both the state level within India (left), and in countries outside of India (right). Singapore and Nepal were selected as examples from Fig. S2 as they were the two countries with the highest frequency of BA.2.75 outside of India. Maharashtra and West Bengal were selected from Sup. Fig. S3 as they are the states within India that currently have the most available samples. All data are from GISAID; the illustrations we made with the "Embers" web-based tool at cov.lanl.gov (Korber et al., 2020).

Figure 2. The infectivity and pathogenicity of BA.2.75 in hamsters.

a,b, Wild-type Syrian hamsters were intranasally inoculated with 10^5 PFU in 30 μ L of BA.2 (NCD1288) (n=9), BA.5 (TY41-702) (n=9), BA.2.75 (TY41-716) (n=5), BA.2.75 (NCD1757) (n=5), BA.2.75 (NCD1759) (n=5), B.1.617.2 (UW5250) (n=9), or PBS (mock) (n=8). **a**, Body weights of virus-infected and mock-infected hamsters were monitored daily for 6 days. Data are presented as the mean percentages of the starting weight (\pm s.e.m.). **b**, Pulmonary function analyses in virus-infected and mock-infected hamsters. Penh and Rpef were measured by using whole-body plethysmography. Mean \pm s.e.m. Data were analyzed by using a two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test. **c**, Virus replication in infected Syrian hamsters. Hamsters (n =10) were intranasally inoculated with 10^5 PFU in 30 μ L of BA.2 (NCD1288), BA.5 (TY41-702), BA.2.75 (TY41-716), BA.2.75 (NCD1757), or B.1.617.2 (UW5250) and euthanized at 3 and 6 dpi for virus titration (n =5/day). Virus titers in the nasal turbinates and lungs were determined by performing plaque assays with Vero E6-TMPRSS2-T2A-ACE2 cells. Vertical bars show the mean \pm s.e.m. Points indicate data from individual hamsters. The lower

limit of detection is indicated by the horizontal dashed line. Data were analyzed by using a one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test (titers in the lungs at 3 dpi and nasal turbinates at 3 and 6 dpi) or the Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test (titers in the lungs at 6 dpi). **d**, hACE2-expressing Syrian hamsters ($n = 4$) were intranasally inoculated with 10^5 PFU in 30 μ L of BA.2 (NCD1288), BA.5 (TY41-702), BA.2.75 (TY41-716), or B.1.617.2 (UW5250). Infected animals were euthanized at 5 dpi for virus titration ($n = 4$ /group). Virus titers in the nasal turbinates and lungs were determined by performing plaque assays with Vero E6-TMPRSS2-T2A-ACE2 cells. Vertical bars show the mean \pm s.e.m. Points indicate data from individual animals. The lower limit of detection is indicated by the horizontal dashed line. Data were analyzed by using a one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test (titers in the nasal turbinates) or the Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test (titers in the lungs). P values of < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Figure 3. Histopathological findings in hamsters inoculated with BA.2.75.

Syrian hamsters ($n = 5$, per group) were inoculated with 10^5 PFU of BA.2.75 (TY41-716), BA.5 (TY41-702), or B.1.617.2 (UW5250) and sacrificed at 3 or 6 dpi for histopathological examinations. **a**, Representative images of the lungs at low magnification are shown. Left columns, hematoxylin and eosin staining. Right columns, in situ hybridization targeting the nucleocapsid gene of SARS-CoV-2. Scale bars, 1 mm. **b**, Representative images of the bronchi/bronchioles and alveoli at high magnification are shown. Upper rows, hematoxylin and eosin staining. Middle rows, in situ hybridization targeting the nucleocapsid gene of SARS-CoV-2. Lower rows: immunohistochemistry for the detection of SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid protein by a rabbit polyclonal antibody. Scale bars, 100 μ m.

Figure 4. Relative viral fitness of BA.2.75 and BA.5 in hamsters.

BA.2.75 (TY41-716) and BA.5 (TY41-702) were mixed at a 1:1 (**a**), 1:3 (**b**), 1:19 (**c**), or 1:199 (**d**) ratio on the basis of their infectious titers, and the virus mixture (total 2×10^5 PFU in 60 μ L) was intranasally inoculated into wild-type hamsters ($n = 5$). Nasal turbinates and lungs were collected from the infected animals at 4 dpi and analyzed using next generation sequencing (NGS). Shown are the relative proportions of BA.5 and BA.2.75 in the infected animals.

Figure S1. Amino acid differences between representative forms of recently emerged Omicron variants.

a, Amino acid differences in the Spike of Omicron variants. BA.1 was rapidly globally replaced by BA.2; here we used the most common form of BA.2 as the reference Omicron variant. Spike amino acid differences between the Wuhan reference strain WIV04/2019|EPI_ISL_402124|2019

and the baseline form of BA.2 are shown in black. When other Omicron variants share spike BA.2 defining mutations in a given position, they are noted in grey. When they differ, the amino acid change is highlighted in the color assigned to each variant (the same color as used in Figure 1). Deletions are indicated by a dash (-), insertions by a plus sign (e.g., +214EPE means a three amino acid insertion of EPE after position 214). Reversions from BA.2 to the ancestral Wuhan form are indicated by an underscore (_). **b**, Highlighting amino acid differences between BA.2, BA.5, and BA.2.75 throughout the full proteome. Only amino differences from the most representative form of BA.2 are shown in this figure, illustrated as a tick mark. The grey line represents the full proteome. All changes in the most common forms of BA.5 and BA.2.75 relative to BA.2 are noted, as these are candidates for contributing to a selective advantage of BA.5 over BA.2, and of BA.2.75 over BA.5 and BA.2. Because details for the spike protein are shown in **a**, they are not shown here. The amino acids that are distinctive in the three BA.2.75 variants studied in this paper are highlighted at the bottom, BA.2.75 V1–V3. Full length representative forms of Pango lineages are defined as the most common circulating form of a given Pango lineage.

Figure S2. Isotonic regression analysis showing BA.2.75 is increasingly sampled over time in countries where it has become established.

The table provides summary statistics for all countries where BA.2.75 sequences have been sampled more than 10 times with a sampling date between 12-05-2022 and 08-08-2022. Four examples of the data over time are plotted to illustrate the increasing frequency of BA.2.75 sampling. We show the countries with the most available data (India, Singapore, and the US) as well as Nepal, with a lower sampling frequency but higher fraction of BA.2.75 cases – these numbers are highlighted in red in the table. The proportion of BA.2.75 in the total sample (y-axis) is calculated each day samples are available (x-axis). The size of the dot reflects the relative sample size on a given day. The *p*-value is calculated based on a one-sided resampling test with 400 randomizations. All *p*-values in the right-hand column are highly significant, showing that the frequency of BA.2.75 is increasing in every country where it has been sampled more than ten times. The results can be updated using the Isotonic Regression tool at cov.lanl.gov. (https://cov.lanl.gov/content/sequence/ISORG/pango_isorg.html) (Korber et al., 2020). An additional analysis was performed comparing BA.2.75 to just BA.5 at the country level, and these direct comparisons also supported the conclusion that BA.2.75 is expanding significantly faster than BA.5 in regions where they are co-circulating.

Figure S3. Isotonic regression analysis showing BA.2.75 is increasingly sampled over time in all states in India where it has been sampled more than 10 times.

714 These figures follow the format of Figure S2, but at a more geographically restricted. The
 715 analysis establishes that BA.2.75 is increasing in frequency throughout India, providing
 716 evidence that the increase at the country level in India seen in Figs. 1 and S2 are not due to
 717 regional founder effects within India. The four Indian states with the highest number of samples
 718 (the values in red) were selected to illustrate the increases in the lower panels. BA.2.75
 719 prevalence is also increasing in the four US states and two Canadian provinces where it has
 720 been sampled more than 10 times, as well as in England and New South Wales, Australia. An
 721 additional analysis was performed where we compared BA.2.75 to *just* BA.5 at the state level,
 722 and these direct comparisons also supported the conclusion that BA.2.75 is expanding
 723 significantly faster than BA.5 in regions where they are co-circulating.

724

725 **Figure S4. Semi-macroscopic images of the lungs of hamsters inoculated with**
 726 **SARS-CoV-2.**

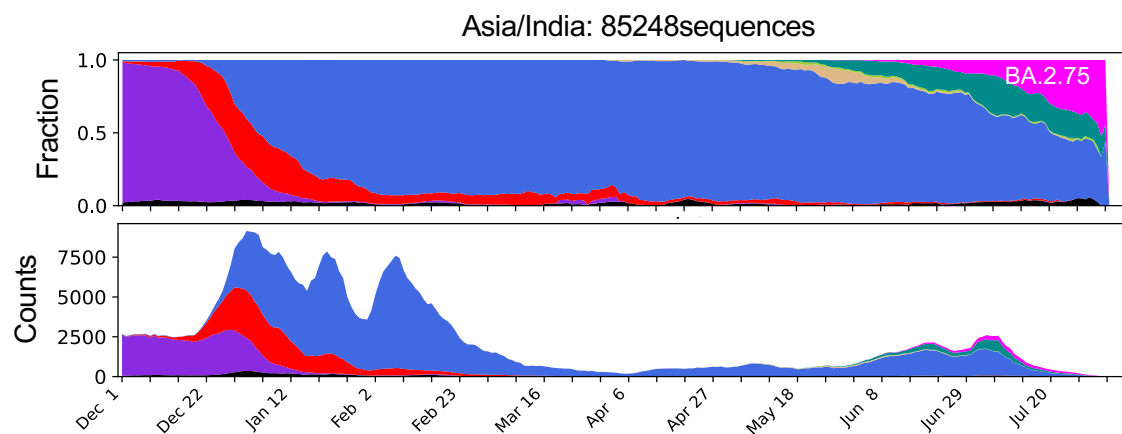
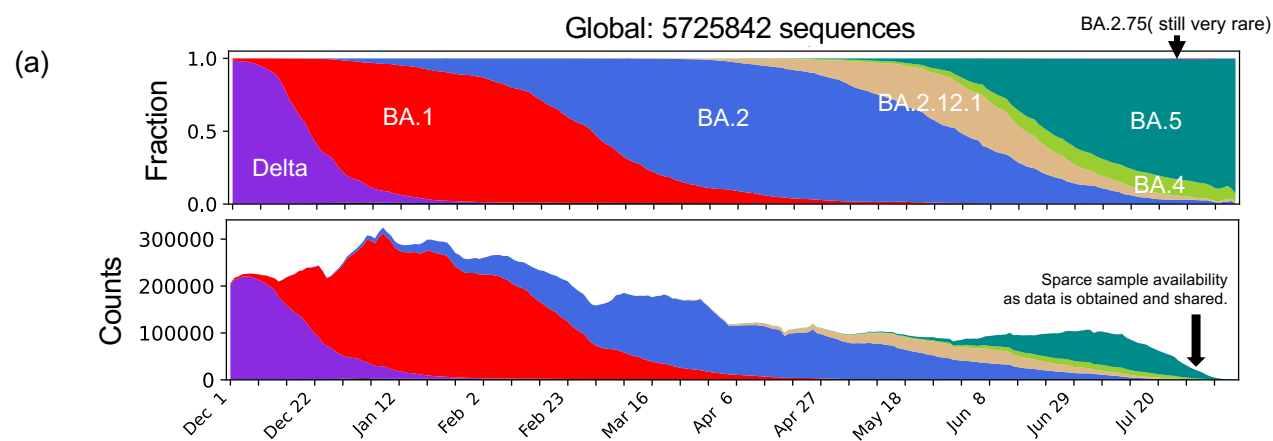
727 Syrian hamsters (n = 5, per group) were inoculated with 10⁵ PFU of BA.2.75 (TY41-716), BA.5
 728 (TY41-702), or B.1.617.2 (UW5250) and sacrificed at 3 or 6 dpi for histopathological
 729 examinations. Semi-macroscopic images (hematoxylin and eosin staining) of the lungs from all
 730 animals examined are shown. Scale bars, 5 mm.

731

732 **Figure S5. Histopathological findings in hamsters inoculated with BA.2.75 (NCD1757).**

733 Syrian hamsters (n = 5) were inoculated with 10⁵ PFU of BA.2.75 (Omicron, NCD1757) and
 734 sacrificed at 6 dpi for histopathological examinations. **a**, Semi-macroscopic images
 735 (hematoxylin and eosin staining) of the lungs from all animals examined are shown. Scale bars,
 736 5 mm. **b**, Representative images (hematoxylin and eosin staining) of the lungs at low
 737 magnification are shown. Scale bars, 1 mm. **c**, Representative images (hematoxylin and eosin
 738 staining) of the bronchi/bronchioles and alveoli at high magnification are shown. Scale bars,
 739 100 µm.

Figure 1



Dec. 1, 2021, to Aug. 8, 2022

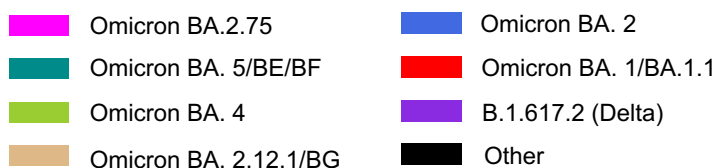
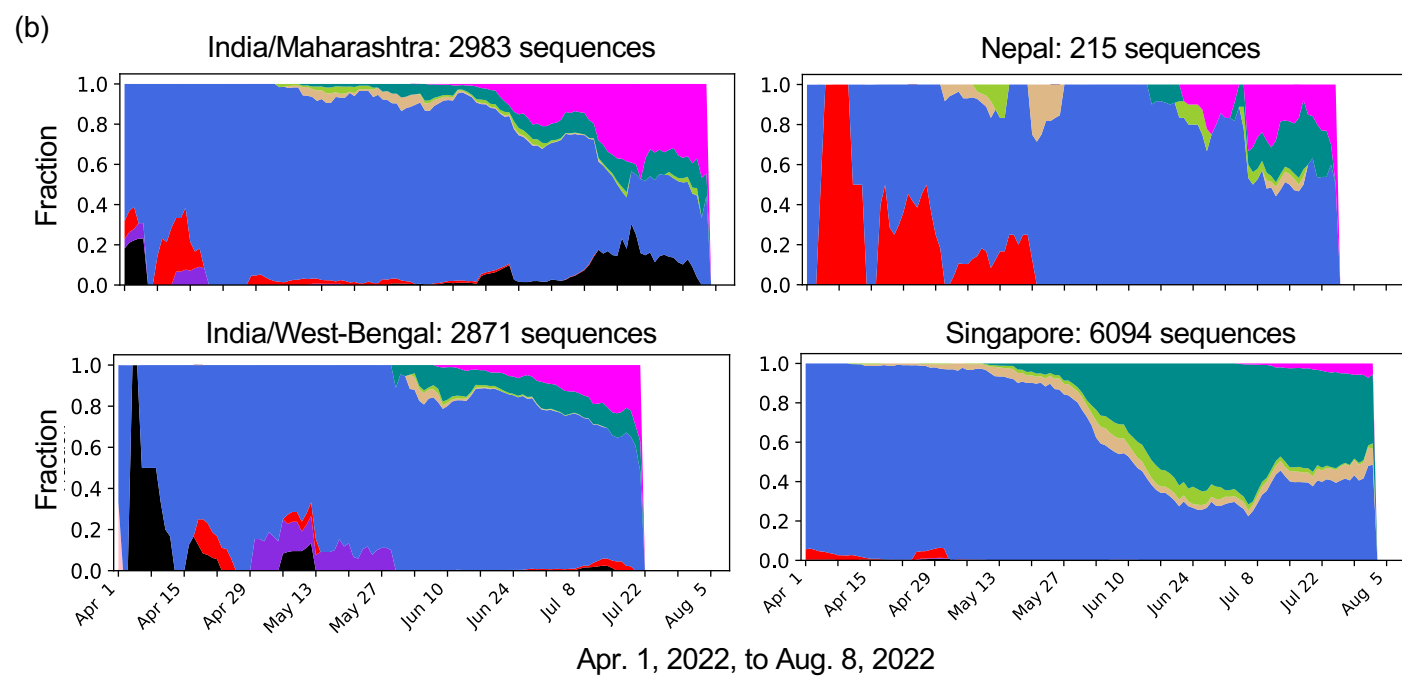


Figure 2

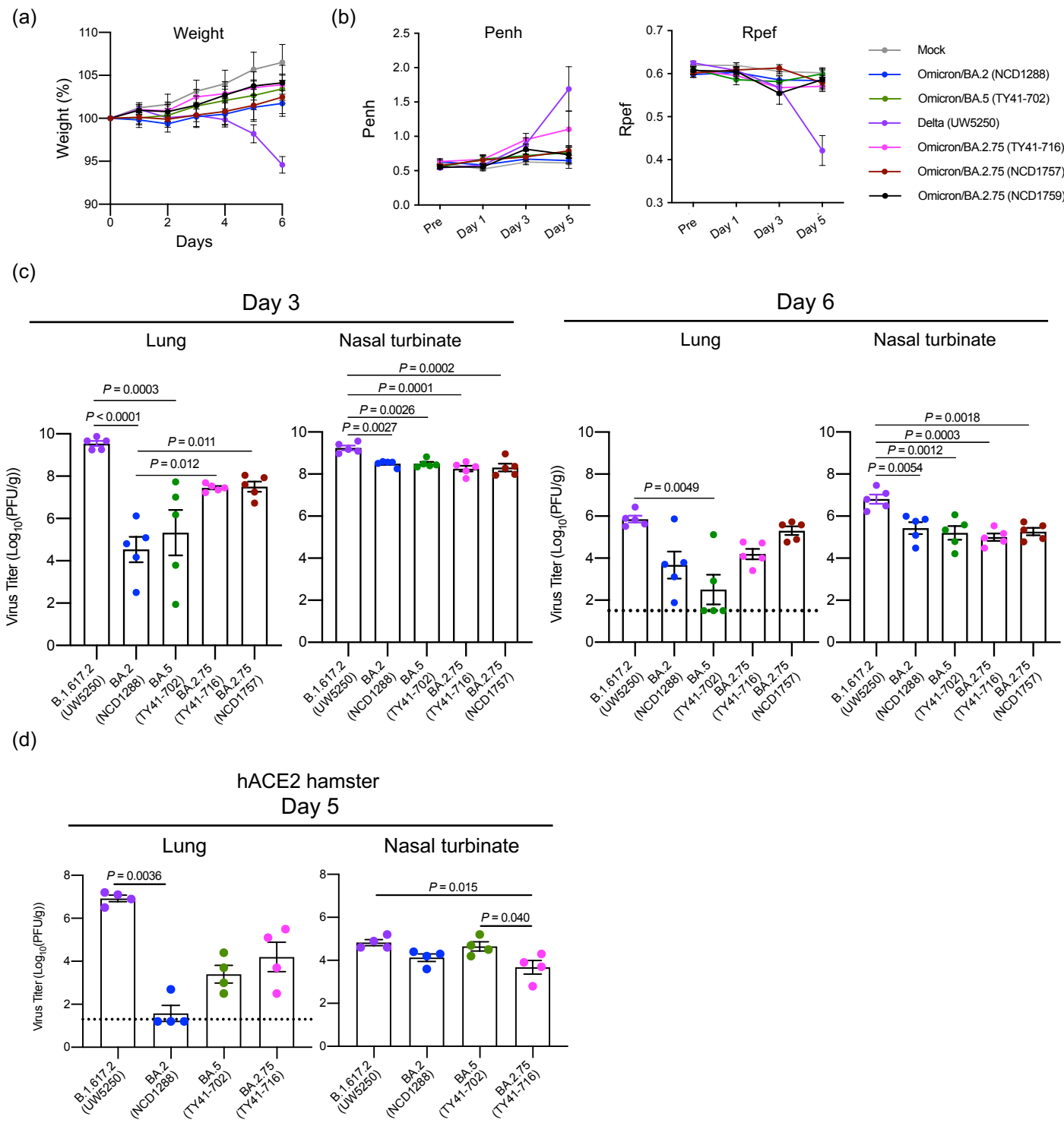


Figure 3 (a)

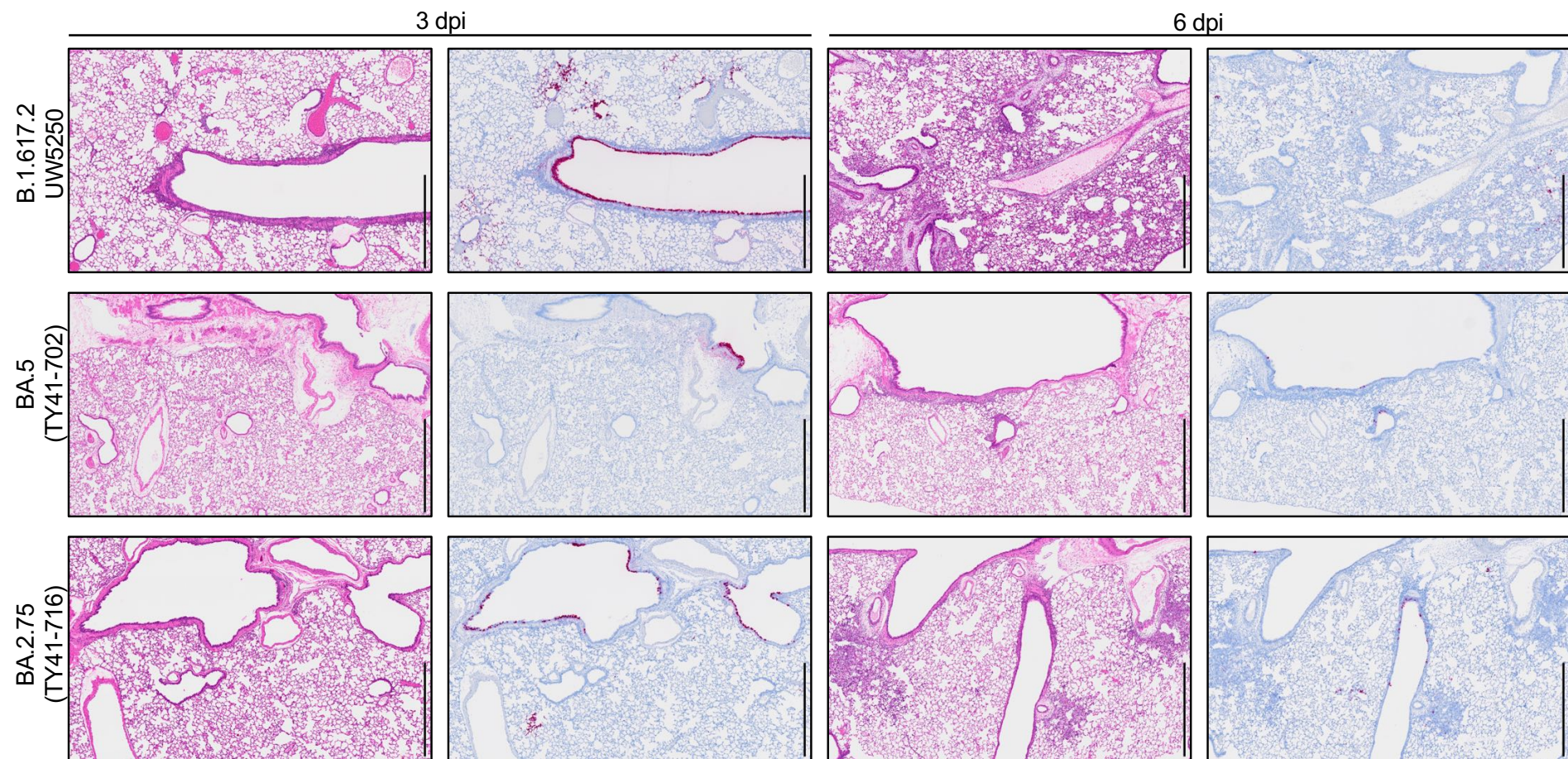


Figure 3 (b)

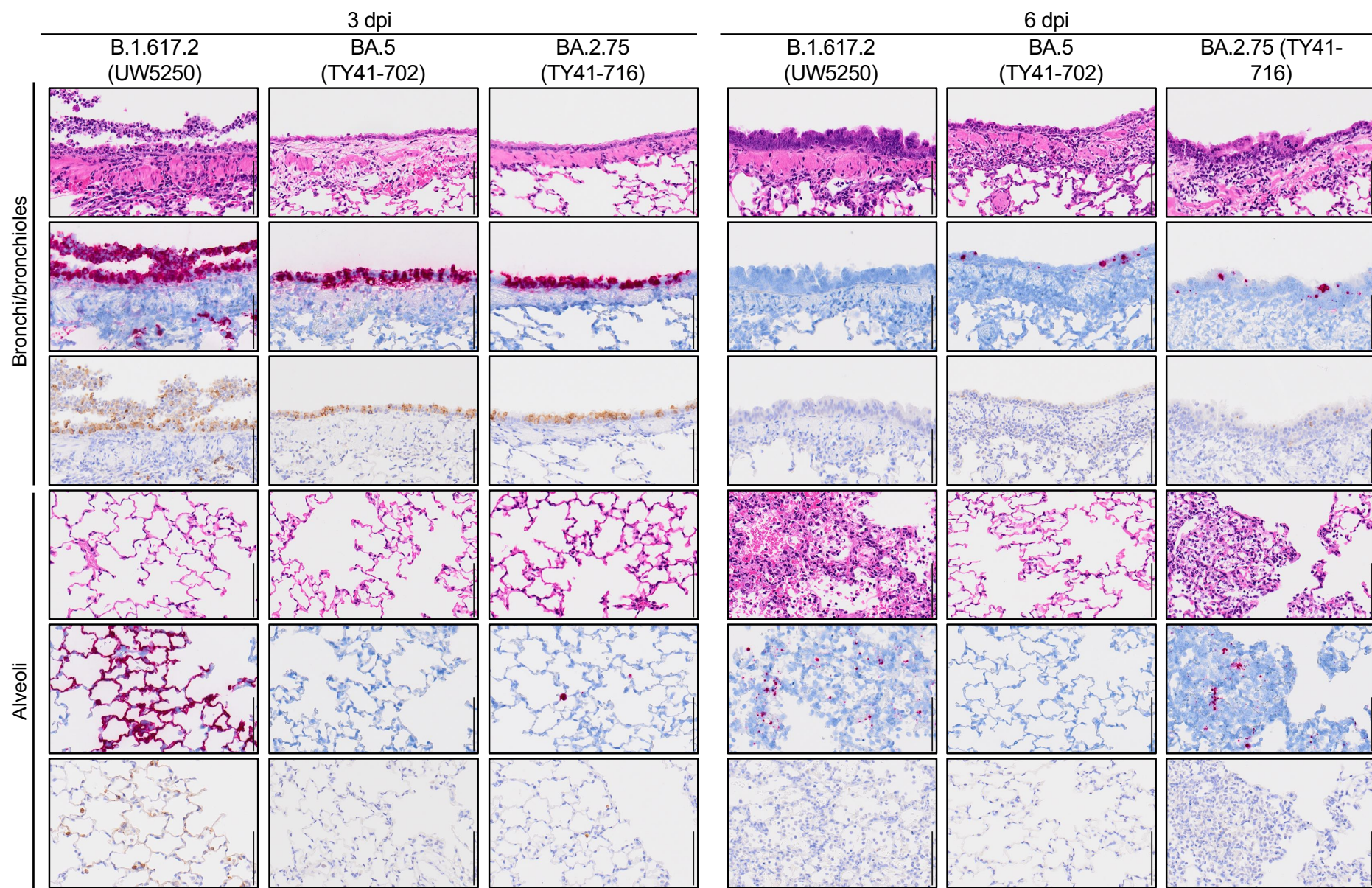


Figure 4

