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Distinct evolution of SARS-CoV-2 Omicron XBB and BA.2.86/JN.1 lineages combining increased fitness and antibody evasion

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Abstract

The unceasing circulation of SARS-CoV-2 leads to the continuous emergence of novel viral sublineages. Here, we isolated and characterized XBB.1, XBB.1.5, XBB.1.9.1, XBB.1.16.1, EG.5.1.1, EG.5.1.3, XBF, BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 variants, representing >80% of circulating variants in January 2024. The XBB subvariants carry few but recurrent mutations in the spike, whereas BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 harbor >30 additional changes. These variants replicated in IGROV-1 but no longer in Vero E6 and were not markedly fusogenic. They potently infected nasal epithelial cells, with EG.5.1.3 exhibiting the highest fitness. Antivirals remained active. Neutralizing antibody (NAb) responses from vaccinees and BA.1/BA.2-infected individuals were markedly lower compared to BA.1, without major differences between variants. An XBB breakthrough infection enhanced NAb responses against both XBB and BA.2.86 variants. JN.1 displayed lower affinity to ACE2 and higher immune evasion properties compared to BA.2.86.1. Thus, while distinct, the evolutionary trajectory of these variants combines increased fitness and antibody evasion.

Introduction

Succeeding sub-lineages of Omicron have spread since the appearance of BA.1 in November 2021 [1,2]. More than 90% of the human population have been probably infected by one Omicron subvariant, in the absence of an efficient and long-lasting protection against novel viral acquisitions conferred by previous infections or vaccinations [3-6], allowing the virus to further evolve and diversify. Identified in September 2022, the XBB lineage originated from a recombination of two BA.2-derived variants (BJ.1 and BM.1.1.1) and progressively replaced most of previous Omicron strains. Members of this lineage are characterized by enhanced transmissibility rates and immune evasion properties [7,8]. These variants are responsible for small waves of contaminations in many countries. Their geographical distribution is somewhat heterogeneous. The variants are closely related and carry an additional and limited set of mutations in the spike corresponding to a stepwise accumulation of changes. Convergent evolution may have been associated with this process. For instance, many lineages independently acquired mutations in the Receptor Binding Domain (RBD) of the spike, including F486P or F456L, that are known escape mutations for neutralizing antibodies [9] [10]. Other recombinants increased in frequency in regions of the world but did not spread extensively, for example XBF (a recombinant of BA.5.2.3 and BA.2.75.3 lineages) or XBC (a recombinant of BA.2 and Delta lineages), both noted in Australia or New Zealand and carrying the F486P substitution. This convergent evolution is likely due to a similar selective pressure exerted by imprinted or hybrid immunity triggered by Omicron infection and/or vaccination [11-14].

In August 2023, a lineage named BA.2.86 corresponding to an important evolutionary jump has

been detected in multiple countries, prompting its classification as a Variant of Interest by the World

Health Organization [15]. The effective reproduction number of BA.2.86 is estimated to be higher or

similar than those of XBB.1.5 and EG.5.1 [16]. A high attack rate of BA.2.86 (above 85%) occurred in a

large care home outbreak, confirming its high transmissibility [17]. There is so far no clinical evidence of

increased pathogenicity of BA.2.86. In hamsters, BA.2.86 displays an attenuated phenotype [18] [19,20]. The

impact of this unprecedented combination of mutations on antibody evasion has started to be

deciphered. A few recent articles and preprints reported that NAb responses to BA.2.86 are lower than

BA.2, but comparable or slightly higher than to other simultaneously circulating XBB-derived variants

[16,21-31,20]. Most of these studies were performed with lentiviral or VSV pseudotypes. Isolation of a

BA.2.86 virus confirmed the antibody-escape properties of this strain [20,25]. BA.2.86 spike displays

stronger affinity to ACE2 than other variants [31] [29] [28], but the consequences on viral replication and

tropism remain poorly understood.

The BA.2.86 lineage has then rapidly started to evolve, with the emergence of the JN.1 sub-

lineage in September 2023. In December 2023, JN.1 sharply increased in frequency in Europe and USA.

It became predominant worldwide and was the main variant responsible for the epidemic surge in

December 2023-January 2024. Based on epidemiological modelling, it has been estimated that JN.1

displays a 2.3-fold growth advantage relative to EG.5.1.1 [32]. A preprint using JN.1 pseudotypes reported

enhanced immune evasion properties, particularly to class 1 neutralizing antibodies, associated with a

decreased affinity to ACE2, relative to BA.2.86 [33].

Here, we isolated and characterized 9 viral strains that were circulating late 2023-early 2024.

We performed a side-by-side comparison of their replication in cell lines and relevant human primary

nasal epithelial cells, their binding to ACE2 and fusogenicity. We examined their sensitivity to

previously approved mAbs and antiviral drugs, to sera from recipients of various vaccine regimens, and

to individuals who experienced breakthrough infections during XBB circulation.

Results

Mutations in XBB-derived and BA2.86 spike sequences

XBB variants replaced previously circulating Omicron variants in early 2023 and have been

continuously evolving. In October 2023, the main XBB sub-variants, representing about 80% of

reported viral sequences, were XBB.1.5, XBB.1.9.1, XBB.1.16, XBB.2.3 and the EG.5.1 sublineage (Fig.

1a). EG.5.1 is a descendant of XBB.1.9.2 that was designated in May 2023 and has since then been on

the rise [34]. The set of the spike mutations is depicted Fig. 1b and the resulting phylogenetic tree is

displayed Fig. S1a. In addition to the R346T and N460K substitutions, these most frequent XBB lineages

independently acquired the S486P substitution. Other substitutions were noted at this position in

previous variants, such as 486V in BA.5 (Fig. S1b). These variants have spread worldwide, with local

variations in frequency. The subsequent sequential acquisition of the F456L substitution has been

repeatedly noted in 486P carrying XBB lineages, suggesting an epidemiological advantage for their

combination in this genomic background. More than 65% of genomes shared on GISAID in October

2023 carry both F486L and F456L substitutions.

In contrast to the steady accumulation of substitutions observed in XBB sublineages, the

evolutionary processes that led to the emergence of BA.2.86 have not been captured. BA.2.86 spike

carries a novel and distinct constellation of changes. This leads to a novel branch in the SARS-CoV-2

spike phylogenetic tree (Fig. S1a). Compared with its BA.2 ancestor, the spike contains 34 changes, a

number comparable to the difference between the initial Wuhan virus and BA.1, including novel

insertions, deletions, and substitutions spanning the whole protein (Fig. 1b). Some mutations, such as

G446S, N460K, F486P, and R493Q have been reported in other variants [7][35][8] (Fig. S1b), but others are

less frequent and poorly characterized. Furthermore, BA.2.86 has been quickly diversifying as it

spreads. BA2.86.1 is characterized by two novel mutations in ORF1. JN.1 carries one additional amino

acid substitution (F455S) in the spike (Fig. S1b) along with the ORF1a:R3821K and ORF7b:F19L changes

(Fig. S2).

Isolation of 9 variants circulating in late 2023-early 2024.

We isolated XBB.1, XBB.1.5, XBB.1.9.1, XBB.1.16.1, XBF, EG.5.1.1, EG.5.1.3, BA.2.86.1 and JN.1

variants from nasopharyngeal swabs received at the French National Reference Center of Respiratory

viruses (Paris, Lyon) and Hôpital Européen Georges Pompidou (Paris, France), using either a Vero E6

TMPRSS2+ clone (thereafter termed Vero E6 TMP-2 cells) or IGROV-1 cells. We reported that the

IGROV-1 human ovarian cell line is highly sensitive to SARS-CoV-2 and produces high levels of infectious

virus [36]. After isolation, the 9 viruses were thus amplified by one passage on IGROV-1 cells. The

sequences of the variants after amplification were identical to those obtained from the primary

samples (see GISAID accession numbers in Table S3), indicating that no mutations occurred during this

short culture period. The spike mutations in these 9 variants, compared to BA.2, are depicted in Fig.

1b. We also compared the spike mutations of a larger panel of variants to the Wuhan ancestral strain

in Fig. S1b.

Replication of XBB-derived, BA2.86.1 and JN.1 variants in Vero E6 derivatives and IGROV-1

cells.

We characterized the fitness of the 9 variants by assessing their replication in different cells and

adding as controls D614G, BA.1, BA.5 or BQ.1.1. Since JN.1 was isolated later than the other variants,

it was included in most but not all experiments. We first chose Vero E6 and IGROV-1 cells, that both

naturally express ACE2, but not TMPRSS2, the protease that primes SARS-CoV-2 for fusion, as verified

by flow cytometry (Fig. S3). Vero E6 cells efficiently replicate pre-Omicron strains but are less sensitive

to previous Omicron variants [36]. We thus compared the permissibility of Vero E6 and IGROV-1 cells to

all variants (Fig. S4a). Viral stocks were serially diluted and incubated with the two target cells. After

48h, cells were stained with an anti-SARS-CoV-2 N monoclonal antibody. Foci of infected cells were

automatically scored (Fig. S4b). The ancestral D614G strain was similarly infectious in the two cell lines

(Fig. S4). In contrast, none of the 12 Omicron variants efficiently infected Vero E6 whereas they were

highly infectious in IGROV-1. We then asked whether the poor infectivity of the variants in Vero E6 was

due to the lack of TMPRSS2. We thus selected two Vero E6 subclones engineered to express TMPRSS2.

The first clone (termed Vero E6 TMP-1) was generated in our laboratory [36] and expresses high levels of

TMPRSS2 and rather low levels of ACE2, probably because this receptor can be cleaved by the

protease[37] (Fig. S3). The Vero E6 TMP-2 was previously described [38]. It expresses low surface levels of

TMPRSS2 and ACE2 levels comparable to those in Vero E6 cells (Fig. S3). We thus compared the kinetics

of viral replication in IGROV-1, Vero E6, Vero E6-TMPRSS2 clones 1 and 2. We used Delta and BQ.1.1

as controls (a BA.5-derived Omicron variant), and compared them to XBB.1, XBB.1.5, EG.5.1.3 and

BA.2.86.1 (Fig. 2a). All viruses efficiently replicated in IGROV-1 cells, with a peak of infected cells

detected at day 2 post infection (p.i.). The Omicron variants did not potently infect Vero E6 during the

4-day survey period. The two Vero E6-TMPRSS2 clones behaved differently regarding their sensitivity

to variants. Vero E6 TMP-1 did not support strong replication of Omicron variants, despite allowing

growth of Delta. In contrast, Vero E6 TMP-2 efficiently replicated the novel variants (Fig. 2a). The

differences between Vero E6 TMP-1 and TMP-2 might be due to clonal effects. Alternatively, high levels

of TMPRSS2, and reduced surface expression of ACE2 in Vero E6 TMP-1 might be detrimental for XBB-

derived and BA.2.86.1 variants. Regardless of the underlying mechanisms, our results indicate that the

recent XBB-derived and BA.2.86 variants display a different tropism than pre-Omicron viruses for some

cell lines. Low expression of TMPRSS2 in Vero E6 cells is associated with permissibility of the cells to

XBB-derived and BA.2.86.1 infection.

We further explored the mechanisms underlying the high sensitivity of IGROV-1 to SARS-CoV-2

replication. We examined viral entry pathways in these cells and performed infections in presence of

either Camostat, a TMPRSS2 inhibitor, SB412515, a cathepsin L inhibitor, or E-64d, a pan-cysteine

protease inhibitor acting mainly on endocytic proteases [39] [40]. The drugs were added 2 h before infection

and maintained for 24 h, before scoring infected cells (Fig. S5). We first selected a few pre-Omicron

and recent Omicron variants, (D614G, Delta, BA.1, XBB.1 and XBB.1.16.1) and tested the effect of the

drugs in IGROV-1, Vero E6 and Vero TMP-1 cells. Camostat (100 µM) did not inhibit viral replication in

IGROV-1 and Vero E6 cells, in line with the absence of detection of TMPRSS2 in these cells by flow

cytometry. Camostat inhibited viral replication by 50-80% in Vero E6 TMP-1 cells, confirming that

TMPRSS2 facilitates viral entry when present in target cells. There was no significant difference in the

sensitivity of variants to Camostat in Vero E6 TMP-1 cells. SB412515 and E-64d (both at 10 μM) strongly

inhibited viral infections in IGROV-1 cells (>90% inhibition for all variants) but were less efficient in

Vero E6 cells (Fig. S5). This suggests that endocytic viral entry is particularly active in IGROV-1. With

both SB412515 and E-64d, similar ED50 were obtained for D614G, XBB.1.5, EG.5.1.3 and BA.2.86.1

variants, which may indicate that all variants use similar entry pathways in IGROV-1 cells (Fig. 2b). In

contrast to their strong antiviral effect in IGROV-1 and lower activity in Vero E6 cells, SB412515 and E-

64d were almost inactive in Vero E6 TMP-1 cells, confirming that when TMPRSS2 is present, viral entry

and fusion preferentially occurs at the cell surface [39] [41]. We then assessed the sensitivity of Delta,

BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 to Camostat (100 μM), SB412515, and E-64d (10 μM) in IGROV-1 and Vero E6 TMP-

2 cells. SB412515 and E-64d effectively inhibited the replication of the three variants in IGROV-1 cells.

Camostat inhibited the replication of Delta, BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 in Vero E6 TMP-2 cells, but not in

IGROV-1 cells, confirming the results observed with the other variants (Fig. S6).

Therefore, IGROV-1 are highly sensitive to all SARS-CoV-2 strains, likely because of a strong

endocytic pathway facilitating viral entry.

Fusogenicity and ACE2 binding of XBB-derived and BA2.86.1 variants.

We next investigated the fusogenicity of the spikes and their ability to form syncytia

independently of viral replication. We used a GFP-Split based model in which fused cells become GFP+

(Fig. 3a) [42] [43]. We transfected the spikes into 293T cells expressing the GFP-11 subunit and co-cultivated

them with IGROV-1 cells expressing the GFP1-10 subunit (Fig. 3a). Spike expression on transfected

HEK293T cells was similar across variants, as measured by staining with a pan-coronavirus anti-S2 mAb

(Fig. S7). As previously reported by us and others, the ancestral D614G and Delta strains were more

fusogenic than the early Omicron BA.1 and BA.4/5 variants [44] [36] [40] [45]. BQ.1.1 and XBB.1.5/XBB.1.9.1

spikes partially regained fusogenicity, whereas XBB.1.16.1 and the more recent EG.5.1.1 and BA.2.86.1

spikes displayed a lower fusogenic potential than BA.4/5 spike (Figure 3b,c). This profile of fusogenicity

was similarly observed when Vero E6 cells were used as targets (Fig. 3d). With Vero E6 TMP-1 as target

cells, the number of syncytia was increased by about 2-fold for all variants, when compared to Vero E6

cells (Fig. 3d), indicating that TMPRSS2 enhances their fusogenic activity. Thus, the recent XBB-derived

and BA.2.86.1 variant spikes do not display high fusion properties, when compared to Delta or to their

Omicron predecessors, at least in the cell lines tested.

We next examined the affinity of the different variant spikes to ACE2. To this aim, we infected

IGROV-1 cells with most of the variants for 24h. Cells were stained with an anti-N antibody to visualize

productively infected cells and were exposed to serial dilutions of soluble biotinylated ACE2. Binding

was measured by flow cytometry (Fig. S8a). ACE2 titration binding curves were generated, and EC50

(the amount of ACE2 needed for 50% binding) was calculated (Fig. S8b). The spikes of XBB.1, XBB.1.16.1

and EG.5.1.3 had comparable affinities to ACE2 than Delta, whereas BA.2.86.1 bound more potently

to the receptor (Fig. 3e). Similar results were observed in 293T cells transiently expressing the different

spikes (Fig. 3f), confirming recent reports obtained with recombinant proteins [29] [28].

Replication of XBB-derived and BA2.86.1 variants in primary nasal epithelial cells.

We used primary nasal epithelial cells (hNEC) grown over a porous membrane and

differentiated at the air–liquid interface for 4 weeks (from MucilAirB™), to compare the different

variants in a relevant model of SARS-CoV-2 infection [46] [47] [45]. The cells were infected with each variant

at a similar low viral inoculum (100 µl of viral stocks containing $2x10^3$ infectious units/ml). As reported

[46,48] [45] [44], BA.1 replicated faster than Delta and D614G, as quantified by viral RNA (vRNA) release

monitored every day up to 4 days pi (Fig. 4a, b). Compared to Delta, BA.1 displayed up to 60-fold

increase in vRNA levels measured at 24 h pi. The XBB-derived variants exhibited a replication

advantage compared to BA.1, with EG.5.1.3 displaying a 16-fold increase in vRNA release at 24 h.

BA.2.86.1 replication kinetics resembled those of BA.1 and were not higher than other XBB-derived

variants (Fig. 4a, b). Infectious virus release was monitored at 48 h p.i. (Fig. 4c) and correlated with

vRNA levels. We assessed by immunofluorescence the cytopathic effect induced by the variants.

Infected hNEC were stained at day 4 p.i. with anti-SARS-CoV-2 N antibodies, phalloidin (to visualize F-

actin), anti-alpha tubulin antibodies (to visualize cilia) and anti-cleaved caspase 3 antibodies (to

visualize apoptotic dying cells). When compared to Delta or BA.1, EG.5.1.3 and BA.2.86.1 displayed

elevated markers of cytopathy, including disappearance of the ciliated structure and activation of

caspase 3 (Fig. 4d; Fig. S9).

Therefore, Omicron variants, particularly BQ.1.1 and XBB-derived isolates, exhibit higher

infectivity in hNECs compared to D614G and Delta. Among them, EG.5.1.3 demonstrates the highest

fitness. Additionally, both EG.5.1.3 and BA.2.86.1 variants exhibit significant cytopathic effects in these

cells (Fig. S9).

Sensitivity of XBB-derived, BA2.86.1 and JN.1 variants to antiviral antibodies and small

molecules.

Several anti-spike monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) have been used as pre- or post-exposure

therapy in individuals at risk for severe disease [10]. However, the first Omicron variants BA.1, BA.2 and

BA.5 escaped neutralization from most of the mAbs, leading to changes in treatment guidelines [49]. For

instance, as of mid-2022 and later, Ronapreve (Imdevimab + Casirivimab) or Evusheld (Cilgavimab +

Tixagevimab) cocktails and Sotrovimab were no longer approved [49]. However, Sotrovimab retains some

neutralizing and non-neutralizing Fc-mediated functions against BQ.1.1 and XBB.1.5 [50]. We assessed

with the S-Fuse assay the sensitivity of D614G, XBB.1.16.1, EG.5.1.3, BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 to Ronapreve, Evusheld or Sotrovimab. We included the ancestral D614G strain as a control, which was efficiently neutralized by the mAbs (Fig. 5). Evusheld and Ronapreve combinations were inactive against the recent variants. Sotrovimab remained weakly functional against XBB.1.16.1 and EG.5.1.3 but lost antiviral activity against BA.2.86.1 and JN.1. We examined whether the neutralization profile of Sotrovimab correlated with the ability of the mAb to bind the different spikes. We measured by flow cytometry the binding of Sotrovimab to IGROV-1 cells infected with the corresponding variants (Fig. S10a,b). Cells were stained with the pan coronavirus S2 antibody mAb10 as a control (Fig. S10c). The levels of binding with the different antibodies were quantified (Fig. S10d). Sotrovimab bound to all XBB-derived variants but not to BA.2.86.1. This is likely due to the presence of the K356T mutation in BA.2.86.1 RBD, that has been identified as conferring resistance to Sotrovimab [51] [52].

We then assessed the efficacy of the currently approved anti-SARS-CoV-2 drugs Nirmatrelvir (present in Paxlovid), Remdesivir and Molnupiravir against D614G, XBB.1.5.1, EG.5.1.3 and BA.2.86.1. IGROV-1 cells were exposed to serial dilutions of the compounds, exposed to the variants, and infection was revealed after 24 h (Fig. S5b). The antiviral molecules remained active against the tested variants, with no significant differences in their EC50 (10 nM, 3.4 µM and 0.04 nM for Nirmatrelvir, Molnupiravir and Remdesivir, respectively).

Cohort design

We collected 75 sera from two different cohorts representing a total of 41 vaccinated and/or infected individuals. The characteristics of the participants (dates of vaccination, breakthrough infection and sampling) are indicated in Table S1.

The first cohort includes two groups of individuals. The first group is composed of 21 health-care workers, in Orleans, France (Table S1a). The participants received two doses of Pfizer BNT162b2 vaccine and one or two booster doses with the same monovalent vaccine. 13 out of 21 individuals experienced a pauci-symptomatic breakthrough infection after the third injection. We did not generally identify the Omicron subvariant responsible for the breakthrough infections. 13 individuals were infected between December 2021 and mid-June 2022, a period when BA.1 and BA.2 were successively dominant in France [53]. One individual was infected in August 2022 and was likely positive for BA.5. All individuals received a Bivalent Wuhan/BA.5 Pfizer boost between December 2022 and February 2023. The second group includes 12 vaccinated health-care workers, in Orleans, France, that experienced a breakthrough Omicron infection in August/September 2023, when XBB-derived variants were predominant (Table S1c).

The second cohort includes 8 health-care workers, in Lyon, France, that were longitudinally sampled at day 0, one month and 6 months after their Bivalent Wuhan/BA.5 Pfizer boost (Table S1b).

Sensitivity of XBB-derived and BA2.86.1 variants to sera from vaccinees.

We assessed the sensitivity of the panel of XBB-derived and BA2.86.1 variants to serum

samples from the two cohorts. We first asked whether antibodies elicited by three doses of the original

Pfizer vaccine neutralized the novel subvariants. Twenty-one individuals were analyzed 12 months post

third dose (Tables S1a,bS2a). Among them, 12 individuals experienced a BA.1/BA.2 breakthrough

infection. We measured the potency of their sera against BQ.1.1, XBB.1, XBB.1.5; XBB.1.9.1,

XBB.1.16.1, XBF, EG.5.1.3 and BA.2.86.1. We used as reference the D614G ancestral strain, as well as

BA.1 and BA.5 (Fig. 5a). We calculated the ED50 (Effective Dose 50%) for each combination of serum

and virus. The ED50 were high for D614G (ED50 of 6.7×10^3) and were decreased by 5-fold for BA.1 and

BA.5, confirming the escape properties of these previous sublineages [36]. With the XBB-derived strains,

the ED50 were low, ranging from 2×10^2 to 8×10^1. XBB.1.16.1 and EG.5.1.3 neutralization titers were

the lowest (22 and 30-fold lower than BA.1, respectively). BA.2.86.1 neutralization was about 2-fold

more sensitive to neutralization than EG.5.1.3, confirming recent results [16,21-30].

We then asked how a boost with the bivalent original/BA.5 Pfizer mRNA vaccine modified

these humoral responses. Sera from 20 and 15 individuals were tested one month and six months

(Tables S2b,c) after the bivalent boost, respectively (Fig. 6b-c). After one month, titers were increased

against all tested variants, when compared to individuals that did not receive the boost (Fig. 6a,b). The

highest responses were detected against D614G, and to a lower extent to BA.1 and BA.5, reflecting a

probable imprinting of the immune response. The responses against the recent XBB-derived and

BA.2.86 variants remained about 10-25 fold lower than against BA.5. A similar trend was observed six

months after the boost. Neutralization was reduced against all strains, highlighting the declining

humoral response [54,55]. The neutralizing activity was barely detectable against XBB.1.16.1, EG.5.1.3 and

BA.2.86.1 (Fig. 6c). We confirmed the stimulation and subsequent decline of the response elicited by

the boost by longitudinally analyzing 15 individuals, tested before and one, three and six months after

vaccine administration. The neutralizing titers peaked at one month and then progressively declined

over time (Fig. 6d). The decreases of neutralization titers for all variants, compared to D614G, in the

various categories of sera, are depicted Table S4.

Altogether, these results indicate that the XBB-derived and BA.2.86.1 variants are poorly

neutralized by sera from individuals having received 3 doses of the original monovalent vaccine. A

bivalent boost increased neutralizing titers, which remained however low with EG.5.1.3, XBB.1.16.1

and BA.2.86.1.

Impact of XBB breakthrough infections on neutralization.

We then examined the impact of breakthrough infections on the cross-neutralizing activity of serum antibodies. We analyzed the sera from twelve individuals that were infected in September 2023 (Table S2d), at a time where the main variants circulating in France were XBB.1.9*, XBB.2.3* and XBB.1.16* (representing 49%, 20%, and 14% of the sequenced cases respectively) (GISAID https://www.epicov.org). Samples were analyzed about 3 weeks post-infection (median 19 days; range 10-50 days). A strong augmentation of neutralization against all viruses tested was observed, with ED50 between 1.5×10^3 to 1.4×10^4 (Fig. 6e). Compared to BA.1, the Nab titers were reduced by about 4-fold against EG.5.1.3 and BA.2.86.1 (ED50 of 2×10^3, respectively). Therefore, post-vaccination breakthrough infection during circulation of XBB-related viruses led to an increase in neutralizing antibody titers, with reduced disparities between variants. This suggests that the anamnestic humoral response triggered by XBB infection includes both a recall of a B-cell memory and the induction of a cross-neutralizing immunity.

Comparison of BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 variants.

BA.2.86 worldwide circulation has been associated with a rapid diversification. Multiple sublineages, some carrying substitutions in the spike, have been designated (Fig. 7a). As mentioned above, the JN.1 sublineage became predominant worldwide in December 2023-Januray 2024. We thus compared BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 fusogenicity, affinity to ACE2, replication in hNECs and sensitivity to immune sera (Fig. 7). The fusogenic potential of BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 was globally similar, as assessed by visualizing the syncytia formed upon infection of S-Fuse cells (Fig. 7b). The affinity to ACE2 was measured as described above. The EC50 of ACE2 binding was enhanced by 1.8-fold for JN.1, indicating a decreased affinity for the receptor (Fig. 7c). In hNECs, both variants replicated with no significant differences observed at 24 hours p.i. (Fig. 7d). The sensitivity of JN.1 to neutralization by sera from individuals having received three doses of the original Pfizer vaccine was particularly low, with about a 2-fold decrease in EC50 compared to BA.2.86.1 (Fig. 7e and Table S4). A similar trend was observed after a BA.5 bivalent vaccine boost, which triggered a moderate and short-lasting increase in NAb levels (Fig. 7e). However, a breakthrough XBB infection enhanced neutralization titers to ED50 about 10^3, with no significant differences between BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 (Fig. 7e). Therefore, as described above with other recently circulating XBB-derived variants, an XBB breakthrough infection triggered a cross-protective response allowing a moderate but significant neutralization of JN.1 (Fig. 7e and Table S4).

Thus, JN.1 displays lower affinity to ACE2 and higher immune evasion properties compared to BA.2.86.1, which likely contributes to its success, possibly in combination with epidemiological factors.

Discussion

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We show that the predominant SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variants circulating in the fall 2023 have
progressed towards both increased fitness, as visible in primary cell cultures, and enhanced immune
evasion properties. Independently, a novel variant has emerged, similarly presenting high fitness and
immune evasion despite a distinct constellation of changes. The tropism of the recent variants for cell
lines has also changed. Vero E6 cells no longer allowed efficient replication of EG.5.1.1,
EG.5.1.3,BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 strains. Addition of TMPRSS2 did not necessarily increase replication of
these recent strains in Vero E6 cells, as illustrated by the discrepant results obtained with Vero E6 TMP-
1 and TMP-2 clones. Clonal specificities may explain these differences. However, efficient viral
replication occurred in Vero E6 TMP-2 cells, that express low levels of TMPRSS2, and not in Vero E6
TMP-1, that express high levels of TMPRSS2. This protease primes the spike for fusion, but also cleaves
ACE2 [37]. Initial SARS-CoV-2 variants used both cleaved and uncleaved ACE2 as a receptor, whereas a
shift towards preferential use of uncleaved ACE2 for Omicron variants has been proposed [56]. Our
results strongly suggest that a delicate balance between ACE2 and TMPRSS2 levels is necessary for
optimal replication of recent variants in Vero E6 cells.

We previously reported that IGROV-1 cells are highly permissive to previous SARS-CoV-2
strains[36]. We extend here this observation to XBB-derived and BA.2.86.1/JN.1 strains and explore the
underlying mechanisms. Another study confirmed the sensitivity of IGROV-1 cells to SARS-CoV-2 and
reported that the cells are not defective in their interferon response to infection [57]. We show that
IGROV-1 cells naturally express ACE2 but are negative for TMPRSS2, using a sensitive anti-TMPRSS2
nanobody [58]. Moreover, the TMPRSS2 inhibitor Camostat did not impair infection in IGROV-1 but was
active in Vero E6 TMP-1 cells, confirming the absence of TMPRSS2 in IGROV-1 cells. In contrast, two
cathepsin inhibitors, SB412515 and E-64d strongly inhibited viral infection in IGROV-1, but acted poorly
in Vero E6 cells and were inefficient in Vero E6 TMP-1 cells. Our results indicate that the high
permissibility of IGROV-1 to all SARS-CoV-2 strains is likely due to an efficient TMPRSS2-independent
endocytic viral entry pathway.

We studied the fusogenicity and receptor binding properties of the variant spikes. The EG.5.1,
BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 spikes were not more fusogenic than BA.1 and BA.4/5 spikes, and even less than
BQ.1.1 and XBB.1.5. The selective advantage of the most recent variants is thus not associated to an
increased ability to fuse and to form syncytia, at least in the cell lines tested. Addition of TMPRSS2 in
target cells similarly increased fusion with the different spikes, indicating that they remain sensitive to
the protease. The BA.2.86.1 spike expressed at the surface of infected cells bound with higher affinity
to ACE2 than EG.5.1.3 and XBB.1.16.1 (3.5-fold and 4.3-fold decrease in EC50, respectively). This
confirms recent results obtained with recombinant proteins and might be linked to a better exposure
of the BA.2.86 RBD than those of XBB-derived or EG.5.1 strains [28]. This increased affinity may

contribute to immune escape by itself. In addition, variants with high affinity for ACE2 may have a

stronger evolutionary potential as they could tolerate more escape mutations in the RBD despite their

negative impact on ACE2 binding, as seen for instance with JN.1.

XBB.1-derived variants, BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 rapidly and potently replicated in primary nasal

epithelial cells, amplifying a trend already observed with previous Omicron variants [40,59]. This efficient

replication was previously associated with a greater dependency of Omicron on endocytic entry and a

lower usage of TMPRSS2 in these cells [40,59], although this last point remains debated [41]. We show here

that as soon as 24 h pi, vRNA release of recent variants was up to 380-fold higher than Delta, and 6-

fold higher than BA.1. Among the recent variants, EG.5.1.3 was the fittest and fastest. The cytopathic

effect was particularly marked with EG.5.1.3 and BA.2.86.1. Infection with these two variants was

associated with a strong disappearance of cilia, a phenomenon described with other strains [47], and

with caspase activation. This accelerated replication in respiratory cells likely represents an important

factor explaining the selective advantage and improved transmissibility of the variants. Future work

will help determining how ACE2 affinity, entry pathways, TMPRSS2 usage, likely involving distinct

combinations of changes in XBB and BA.2.86, as well as mutations in other proteins are regulating viral

fitness in this relevant in vitro model.

The antiviral drugs Paxlovid, Remdesivir and Molnupiravir remain active against XBB-derived and

BA.2.86 variants, indicating that this therapeutic arsenal is so far not impacted. However, there is no

approved mAb remaining on the market. Sotrovimab, which retained partial antiviral activity against

BQ.1.1 and XBB.1.5 [50], poorly acted on EG.5.1.3 and no longer binds or inhibits BA.2.86.1 and JN.1. This

novel lineage carries numerous mutations known to allow mAb evasion [28], including the K356T

substitution conferring resistance to Sotrovimab [51] [52]. Novel mAbs are under pre-clinical and clinical

development [11,60,61]. It will be worth scrutinizing their antiviral activity against BA.2.86.1/JN.1 and other

emerging subvariants.

Sera from individuals who had received three doses of COVID-19 Pfizer BNT162b2 vaccine

displayed almost no neutralization activity against the recent XBB-derived or BA.2.86 variants. Bivalent

boosters increased neutralization titers but only for an abbreviated period of time. Six months after

the boost, the efficacy of the sera against EG.5.1.3 and BA.2.86.1/JN.1 was barely detectable. This

confirms reports indicating that these two variants are among the most immune evasive viruses

described so far, even if some variations between studies have been observed [16,21-30].

We further show that breakthrough infections that occurred in September 2023, during XBB

circulation, triggered a broader cross-neutralizing response than bivalent boosters. The differences

between variants were reduced, XBB.1, EG.5.1 and BA.2.86.1 neutralization was globally similar in

individuals who experienced such XBB breakthrough infections. Therefore, in addition to imprinted

memory, other mechanisms linked to hybrid immunity, such as the generation of responses targeting

novel antigens can be efficacious. This observation is in line with reports indicating that XBB.1.5-containing monovalent mRNA vaccines elicit cross-reactive immune responses targeting EG.5.1 and BA.2.86 variants [62,63]. Neutralization titers were however lower against all XBB-derived and BA.2.86 variants than against BA.4/5 [62,63]. There is a debate about the interest of annually administrating vaccines based on the circulating variants, especially in healthy individuals [64]. It will be important to analyze the longevity of the humoral response generated by the recent XBB.1.5-based vaccines, and its link with the duration of clinical efficacy against severe forms of the disease.

We also isolated and analyzed the properties of JN.1, a BA.2.86.1 sublineage carrying the L455S spike substitution, that rapidly expanded worldwide and. JN.1 displays noticeable differences relative to BA.2.86.1. Its affinity to ACE2 is decreased and its immune evasion properties are higher. We did not detect major differences in the replication of BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 in primary hNECs. Future work will help understand whether the high transmissibility of JN.1 in humans is only due to immune evasion or also associated with other viral properties.

There are limitations to our study. Firstly, we analyzed a limited number of serum samples. However, the marked differences between variants and groups of individuals allowed statistical analysis. Secondly, this work did not include other emerging XBB sublineages showing further evidence of convergent evolution and increasing in frequency. Multiple lineages (e.g. GK.1.1 or JD.1.1 from XBB.1.5; HK.3 or JG.3 from XBB.1.9.2; JF.1 from XBB.1.16; or DV.7.1 from BA.2.75) have independently acquired the F455L substitution in addition to F486P and F456L, a change parallel to the L455S substitution noted in JN.1. Thirdly, we did not explore the role of individual mutations within the spike or in other viral proteins known to have changed in Omicron variants [65]. Fourthly, the method employed here to assess the affinity of various variants for ACE2 is less precise than Bio-Layer Interferometry (BLI), which requires the use of recombinant soluble proteins. However, our approach offers the advantage of assessing the conformation of the Spike protein on the surface of infected cells. Our results are however consistent with recent reports [29] [28]. Further research to investigate the mechanisms associated with the modifications of viral properties described here will be relevant in understanding the processes underlying the evolution of SARS-CoV-2.

In summary, we show that SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variants continuously evolve in a context of the mixed immunity of human populations. The selective advantage of EG.5.1 and BA.2.86.1/JN.1 variants combines both convergent increased fitness and replication in respiratory cells, and resistance to the most prevalent antibodies.

Materials & Methods

Our research fulfills all relevant ethical requirements. An informed consent was obtained from all participants. No statistical methods were used to predetermine sample size and the experiments were not randomized. The investigators were not blinded. Sex or gender analysis was not performed due to the limited number of participants.

Cohorts

Serum from bivalent Wuhan/BA.5 Pfizer vaccine recipients or from infected individuals (Orléans, France).

The Neutralizing Power of Anti-SARS-CoV-2 Serum Antibodies (PNAS) cohort is an ongoing prospective, monocentric, longitudinal, observational cohort clinical study aiming to describe the kinetics of neutralizing antibodies after SARS-CoV-2 infection or vaccination (ClinicalTrials.gov identifier: NCT05315583). The cohort takes place in Orléans, France and was previously described [66]. This study was approved by the Est II (Besancon) ethical committee. At enrollment, written informed consent was collected, and participants completed a questionnaire that covered sociodemographic characteristics, clinical information and data related to anti-SARS-CoV-2 vaccination.

Serum from bivalent Wuhan/BA.5 Pfizer vaccinated individuals from Lyon, France.

A prospective, multicentric, longitudinal, interventional cohort clinical study (COVID-SER) is conducted at Hospices Civils de Lyon with the objective to evaluate the effectiveness of commercially developed serological test kits currently in development, which will be used for the diagnosis of patients with suspected SARS-CoV-2 infection. The COVID-SER-VAC ancillary study where blood samples was collected at the time of the injection(s) as per the recommended vaccination schedule was conducted (ClinicalTrials.gov identifier: NCT04341142) [67]. A sub-study aimed to build a collection of biological samples and transfer of residual blood products to external partners for the advancement of scientific knowledge on SARS-CoV-2. We had access to 23 serum samples from hospital staff who were vaccinated with the bivalent Pfizer vaccine. Samples were taken at the time of the injection, 1 month, and 6 months after the injection At enrollment, written informed consent was collected. Virological findings (SARS-CoV-2 RT–qPCR results, date of positive test, screening, or sequences results) and data related to SARS-CoV-2 vaccination (brand product, date of first, second, third and fourth vaccination) were also collected.

Virus strains

The D614G, Delta, BA.1, BA.5 and BQ.1.1 and XBB.1.5 strains have been described [36,50,68,69].

The XBB.1 strain (hCoV-19/France/PAC-HCL022171892001/2022) strain was supplied by the National Reference Centre for Respiratory Viruses hosted by the Hôpital de la Croix-Rousse (Lyon, France) and headed by Dr Bruno Lina.

The XBB.1.9.1 strain (hCoV-19/France/GES-IPP08594/2023) was supplied by the National Reference Centre for Respiratory Viruses hosted by Institut Pasteur (Paris, France). The human sample

from which strain hCoV-19/France/GES-IPP08594/2023 was isolated, was provided by Dr Djoubi from

Massif des Vosges Hospital (France).

The XBB.1.16.1 strain (hCoV-19/France/GES-IPP07712/2023) was supplied by the National

Reference Centre for Respiratory Viruses hosted by Institut Pasteur. The human sample was provided

by Dr Vanessa Cocquerelle from Laboratory Deux Rives (France).

The XBF strain (hCoV-19/France/IDF-APHP-HEGP-81-10-2332993394/2023) was isolated from a

nasopharyngeal swab of individuals attending the emergency room of Hôpital Européen Georges

Pompidou (HEGP); Assistance Publique, Hôpitaux de Paris.

The EG.5.1.1 strain (hCoV-19/France/GES-IPP15954/2023) was supplied by the National

Reference Centre for Respiratory Viruses hosted by Institut Pasteur. (The human sample was provided

by Dr Valérie Herzig from Laboratoire Lenys, Colmar (France).

The EG.5.1.3 strain (hCoV-19/France/BRE-IPP15906/2023) was supplied by the National

Reference Centre for Respiratory Viruses hosted by Institut Pasteur (Paris, France) The human sample

was provided by Dr F. Kerdavid from Laboratoire Alliance Anabio, Melesse (France).

The BA.2.86.1 strain (hCoV-19/France/IDF-IPP17625/2023) was supplied by the National

Reference Centre for Respiratory Viruses hosted by Institut Pasteur. The human sample was provided

by Dr Aude Lesenne from Cerballiance, Lisses (France).

The JN.1 strain (hCoV-19/France/HDF-IPP21391/2023) was supplied by the National Reference

Centre for Respiratory Viruses hosted by Institut Pasteur. The human sample was provided by Dr Bruno

Foucault from Laboratoire Synlab Normandie Maine, La Ferté Macé (France).

All patients provided informed consent for the use of their biological materials. Viral strains were

amplified through one or two passages on Vero E6, Vero E6 TMPRSS2, or IGROV-1 cells. Supernatants

were harvested two or three days after viral exposure. The titration of viral stocks was performed on

S-Fuse cells [36,42]. Viral supernatants were sequenced directly from nasopharyngeal swabs and after

isolation and amplification on Vero E6 or IGROV-1 cells.

For sequencing, an untargeted metagenomic sequencing approach was used, including

ribosomal RNA (rRNA) depletion. In brief, RNA was extracted using the QIAamp Viral RNA extraction

kit (Qiagen) with the provided poly-A RNA carrier. Prior to library construction, carrier RNA and host

rRNA were depleted using oligo(dT) and custom probes, respectively. The resulting RNA from selective

depletion was utilized for random-primed cDNA synthesis with SuperScript IV RT (Invitrogen). Second-

strand cDNA was generated using Escherichia coli DNA ligase, RNase H, and DNA polymerase (New

England Biolabs), and then purified with Agencourt AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter). Libraries

were prepared using the Nextera XT kit and sequenced on an Illumina NextSeq500 platform (2 × 75

cycles). Reads were assembled using Megahit v1.2.9. The sequences have been deposited on the

GISAID EpiCoV database (Table S3).

Cell lines

IGROV-1, Vero E6 and Vero E6 TMPRSS2 clone 1 (Vero E6 TMP-1) and S-Fuse cells were described previously [42] [36]. Vero E6 TMP-2 cells were kindly provided by Dr Makoto Takeda lab [38]. 293T (CRL-3216) and U2OS (Cat# HTB-96) cells were obtained from ATCC. Cells regularly tested negative for mycoplasma.

Infection of IGROV-1, Vero E6, Vero E6 TMP-1 and Vero E6 TMP-2 cells

Six hours before infection, 30,000 cells were seeded in a µClear black 96-well plate (Greiner Bio-One). Cells were then infected with the indicated strains of SARS-CoV-2, as described in legend of Figures 2 and S3 (specifying the variants and quantities of virus used). At days 1 to 4 post-exposure, the cells were fixed using 4% PFA (Electron microscopy cat# 15714-S). The cells were then intracellularly stained with anti-SARS-CoV-2 nucleoprotein (N) antibody NCP-1 (0.1 µg/mL) as described [36]. This staining was carried out in PBS with 0.05% saponin 1% BSA, and 0.05% sodium azide for 1 h. the cells were washed twice with PBS and stained with anti-IgG Alexa Fluor 488 (dilution 1:500, Invitrogen; cat# A11029) for 30 minutes before being washed twice with PBS. Hoechst 33342 (Invitrogen, cat# H3570) was added during the final PBS wash. Images were captured using an Opera Phenix high-content confocal microscope (PerkinElmer). The N-positive area and the number of nuclei were quantified using Harmony Software v4.9 (PerkinElmer).

Test of Antiviral molecules.

Cells were seeded in a µClear black 96-well plate (Greiner Bio-One) and pretreated for 2 hours with Camostat (Sigma, cat# E8640), E-64d (Sigma, cat# SML0057), SB412515 (Cayman Chemical, cat# 23249), Nirmatrelvir (MedChemExpress; cat# HY-138687), Remdesivir (MedChemExpress; cat# HY-104077), or Molnupinavir (MedChemExpress; cat# HY-135853) at concentrations as described in the figure legends. Cells were infected with the indicated SARS-CoV-2 strains. After 24h, infection was revealed as described above. The percentage of inhibition of infection was calculated using the area of N-positive cells as a value with the following formula: 100 × (1 − (value with drugs − value in 'non-infected')/(value in 'no drugs' − value in 'non-infected')).

The monoclonal antibodies used in this study were previously described [36,69]. Neutralizing activity and ED50 were measured as described in the "S-Fuse neutralization assay" section.

Plasmids

SARS-CoV-2 spikes (from D614G, Delta, BA.1, BA.4/5, BQ1.1, XBB.1.5/9, XBB.1.16, EG.5.1, BA.2.86 isolated) were human codon-optimized and produced in silico (GeneArt, Thermo Fisher Scientific) as described [42,44]. Spike sequences were cloned into a phCMV backbone (GenBank: AJ318514) using

Gateway cloning (Thermo Fisher Scientific) or restriction enzyme digestion followed by ligation with

T4 DNA ligase (New England Biolabs). The pQCXIP-Empty plasmid was used as a negative control [42,44].

All plasmids were sequenced by the Eurofins Genomics TubeSeq service. His-tagged recombinant ACE2

ectodomain (amino acids 19–615) was cloned into pcDNA3.1 vector, produced by transient

transfection of HEK293-F cells, and purified by affinity chromatography. Purified ACE2 protein was

biotinylated using the EZ-Link Sulfo-NHS-Biotin kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) as reported previously [70].

Donor Acceptor fusion assay

To assess the fusion of the respective spike constructs, syncytia formation assays were

performed as described [42,44]. Briefly, 293T-GFP-11 cells were transfected in suspension at 37°C for 30

minutes. The transfection mix was prepared using Lipofectamine 2000 (Thermo Fisher, Scientific 179)

with 50 ng of DNA in a 1:10 ratio of SARS-CoV-2-S and pQCXIP-Empty, respectively, before being added

to the cells. Following transfection, cells were washed and resuspended in DMEM with 10% FBS. The

level of transfection was quantified by surface staining of Spike with pan-coronavirus mAb10

antibody[36] 18 h post-transfection. Subsequently, 30,000 transfected HEK293T cells were co-cultured

with 15,000 IGROV-1-GFP-1-10, VeroE6-GFP1-10, or VeroE6 TMP-1 GFP-1-10 cells per well in a µClear

black 96-well plate. 18 h post-transfection, Hoechst 33342 (Invitrogen, cat# H3570) was added to the

media at a 1:10,000 dilution and images were acquired using the Opera Phenix High-Content Screening

System (PerkinElmer). Analysis was performed using Harmony 191 High-Content Imaging and Analysis

Software (PerkinElmer, HH17000012, v.5.0), including the counting of nuclei and the GFP area.

Soluble ACE2 binding

IGROV-1 cells were seeded in a 6-well plate 12 h before infection with the indicated SARS-CoV-

2 variants. The viral inoculum amount was calculated to achieve 50% of infected cells (N-positive cells)

at 24 h post-infection. Afterward, the cells were detached in PBS-EDTA (0.1%) and split into a 96-well

plate, with 200,000 cells per well. Cells were incubated with serial dilutions concentrations of a soluble

biotinylated human ACE2 [70]. Cells were washed twice with PBS and stained with Streptavidin Alexa

Fluor 647 (dilution 1:500, Invitrogen; cat# S32357) for 30 minutes. Cells were then washed twice with

PBS and fixed using 4% PFA (Electron microscopy; cat# 15714-S). Cells were then intracellularly stained

with anti-SARS-CoV-2 nucleoprotein (N) antibody NCP-1, as described above. Cells were acquired using

an Attune NxT Flow Cytometer (Thermo Fisher). Data were analyzed using FlowJo software

(BDBiosciences).

S-Fuse neutralization assay

U2OS-ACE2 GFP1-10 or GFP 11 cells, also termed S-Fuse cells, become GFP+ when they are productively infected by SARS-CoV-2 [42] [71]. Cells were mixed (ratio 1:1) and plated at 8×10^3 per well in a μClear 96-well plate (Greiner Bio-One). The indicated SARS-CoV-2 strains were incubated with serially diluted monoclonal antibodies or sera for 15 min at room temperature and added to S-Fuse cells. Sera were heat-inactivated for 30 min at 56 °C before use. 18 h later, cells were fixed with 2% PFA (Electron microscopy cat# 15714-S), washed and stained with Hoechst (dilution of 1:1,000, Invitrogen, Invitrogen cat# H3570). Images were acquired using an Opera Phenix high-content confocal microscope (PerkinElmer). The GFP area and the number of nuclei were quantified using the Harmony software (PerkinElmer). The percentage of neutralization was calculated using the number of syncytia as value with the following formula: $100 \times (1 - (\text{value with serum} - \text{value in 'non-infected'})/(\text{value in 'no serum'} - \text{value in 'non-infected'}))$. Neutralizing activity of each serum was expressed as the half maximal effective dilution (ED50). ED50 values (in ng/ml for monoclonal antibodies and in dilution values – i.e titers – for sera) were calculated with a reconstructed curve using the percentage of neutralization at each concentration.

Human nasal epithelium cells (hNEC) culture, infection and imaging

MucilAirTM, reconstructed human nasal epithelial cells (hNECs) that had been differentiated for 4 weeks prior to obtention, were cultured in 700 μl MucilAirTM media on the basal side of the air/liquid interface (ALI) cultures and monitored for healthy cilia movements. One hour prior to infection, mucus was removed from the apical side of the culture by washing the apical side with warm 200 μl MucilAir™ media. Cells were then infected with equal virus titres in 100 μL MucilAir™ media for 2 hours. Viral input was removed and stored at -80°C. Cells were then washed 2 times for 10 min at 37°C in warm PBS and then 20 min in 200 μL MucilAir™ media for the day 0 recording. Washing with 100 μl of MucilAir™ warm media was repeated every 24 h for 96 h. Every wash was subsequently centrifuged at 1500 rpm to remove cell debris and frozen at -80°C. After 96 h, cells were fixed on the apical and basal sides with 4% PFA for 45 minutes. For imaging, fixed cells were stained intracellularly with anti-SARS-CoV-2 nucleoprotein (N) antibody NCP-1, anti-alpha tubulin (66031-1-Ig; Proteintech), rabbit anti-cleaved caspase-3 (D175; Cell Signaling Technology) and phalloidin-Atto 565/633 (75784-1MG-F; Sigma) and imaged using the LSM-700 confocal microscope (Zeiss) as described [58] [44].

Staining of ACE2 and TMPRSS2

Surface expression of TMPRSS2 and ACE2 was assessed on live cells by staining with anti-TMPRSS2 VHH-A01-Fc [58] at 1 μg/ml or with anti-ACE2 VHH-B07-Fc (Brelot et al, manuscript in preparation) at 0.5 μg/ml, for 30 min at 4°C in MACS buffer. Then, cells were stained with Alexa Fluor

647-conjugated goat anti-human antibody (Invitrogen; cat# A-21445, 1/500). The control VHH Fc

(R3VQFc) recognizes an unrelated protein (phosphorylated Tau protein).

Phylogenetic tree inference and lineage monitoring

All available SARS-CoV-2 sequences from human infections were downloaded from the GISAID

Epicov database (https://gisaid.org/) on November 27, 2023, and only sequences longer than 29000

nucleotides and with less than 1% ambiguities (Ns) were kept. SARS-CoV-2 contextual sequence names

were retrieved from the Nextstrain build of Sept. 18, 2023 [72]. Sequences were reannotated using

pangolin (v4.3.1, with option --usher), and aligned against the Wuhan-Hu1 reference sequence

(GenBank MN908947) using nextalign v2.14.0. In addition to this global context, BA.2.86 sequences

were added to the dataset, using gofasta v1.2.1 [73]. The alignment used for phylogenetic reconstruction

was made of 2909 sequences (global context sequences with the addition of BA.2.86 sequences and

their closest relatives). Specific positions of the alignment were masked using goalign v0.3.5 (goalign

mask command) to decrease phylogenetic noise. Bootstrap alignments were generated using goalign

v0.3.5 (goalign build seqboot command) and reference and bootstrap trees were inferred using iqtree

v2.2.0 (iqtree -m GTR -ninit 2 -n 2 -me 0.05 -nt AUTO -ninit 10 -n 4). Bootstrap supports were computed

using gotree v0.4.4 (gotree compute support fbp).

Mutations that are common and specific to lineages of interest were computed using the

outbreak.info R package (https://outbreak-info.github.io/R-outbreak-info) on January 16, 2023. Values

for some insertions or deletions were manually computed. Hierarchical relationships between lineages

were retrieved from the pangolin GitHub repository (https://github.com/cov-lineages/pango-

designation).

The evolution of the prevalence of SARS-CoV-2 lineages throughout 2023 was visualized using

R 4.3 and ggplot 3.4.3, using GISAID data from January 1 to December 31, 2023. Data and workflows

used   to   generate   the   figures   are   publicly   available   at

https://github.com/SimonLoriereLab/sarscov2_Oct2023.

All genome sequences and associated metadata used to build Fig. 1 and S1 are published in

GISAID's EpiCoV database. To view the contributors of each individual sequence with details such as

accession number, Virus name, Collection date, Originating Lab and Submitting Lab and the list of

Authors,   visit   https://doi.org/10.55876/gis8.240122bu   (Fig.   1a)   or

https://doi.org/10.55876/gis8.231020kn (Fig. 1b).

Statistical analysis

Flow cytometry data were analysed using FlowJo v.10 (TriStar). Calculations were performed

using Excel 365 (Microsoft). Figures were generated using Prism 9 (GraphPad Software). Statistical

analysis was conducted using GraphPad Prism 9. Statistical significance between different groups was

calculated using the tests indicated in each figure legend.

Data availability

All data supporting the findings of this study are available within the article or from the corresponding

authors upon reasonable request without any restrictions. The raw data generated in this study are

provided in the Source Data file. The sequencing data generated in this study have been deposited in

the GISAID EpiCoV database (EPI_SET ID: EPI_SET_231113yq).

Figure Legends.

Figure 1. SARS-CoV2 evolution in 2023 and Spike mutation patterns of the main lineages. a. Evolution

of the prevalence of main SARS-CoV-2 lineages from January to **December 31**, 2023. The pattern of

emergence and replacement of several lineages, such as XBB.1.5, then XBB.1.9, XBB.1.16 or EG.5.1 and

the emergence of BA.2.86 and JN.1 is shown. The variants with a frame are analyzed in this study. **b.**

Changes specific to lineages studied here in comparison to BA.2 are displayed as colored squares. The

spike domain organization is displayed on the top, with N-terminal domain (NTD), Receptor Binding

Domain (RBD), Receptor Binding Motif (RBM), Single domains SD1 and SD2, S1/S2 cleavage site, and

S2 domains. BA.2.86 and its descendant JN.1 show many new mutations compared to other lineages.

A complete comparison of spike mutations compared to the reference Wuhan_Hu-1 is presented in

Fig. S1b.

Figure 2. Replication kinetics of SARS-CoV-2 variants in Vero E6, Vero E6 TMP-1 and -2 and IGROV-1

cells. a. Cells were infected with the indicated variants, at 3×10^{-2} infectious units per cell. Cells were

stained with a pan-coronavirus anti-N antibody at days 1 to 4 pi. The N-positive areas were plotted on

the graph. Each curve represents an independent experiment. **b.** Comparison of the effect of E-64d

and SB412515 against different variants. IGROV-1 cells were pre-incubated 2 h with serial dilutions of

E-64d or SB412515 (30 to 1.7×10^{-4} µM) and infected with D614G, XBB.1.5, EG.5.1.3, or BA.2.86.1. The

percentage of inhibition is represented. Data are mean ± s.d. of 3 independent experiments.

Figure 3. Fusogenicity and binding to ACE2 of the variant spike proteins. a. Schematic representation

of the coculture system. 293T GFP-11 donor cells were transfected with the indicated variant spike

expression plasmids and cocultivated with IGROV-1, Vero E6 or Vero E6 TMP-1 acceptor cells

expressing GFP1-10. The area of GFP+ fused cells was measured after 18 h. **b.** Representative images

of cell-cell fusion between 293T donor cells and IGROV-1 acceptor cells. Scale bar, 200 μm. **c.**
Fusogenicity of the different spikes with IGROV-1 acceptor cells. Each dot represents a single
experiment. Data are mean ± s.d. of 4-6 independent experiments. One-way ANOVA with Kruskal-
Wallis test followed by Dunn's test for multiple comparisons to compare Delta with respective variants
were conducted. **d.** Effect of TMPRSS2 on the fusion of the different spikes. Cell-cell fusion assays were
performed with Vero E6 or Vero E6 TMP-1 as target cells. Data are mean ± s.d. of 4 independent
experiments. Paired t-test to compare fusion in Vero E6 versus Vero E6 TMP-1 were conducted. **e,f.**
Binding of soluble ACE2 to IGROV-1 infected cells (e) or to 293T cells transiently expressing the Spike
(f). Cells were stained with serial dilutions of soluble ACE2. The EC50 of ACE2 binding (μg/ml) for the
indicated spike proteins is shown. Data are mean ± s.d. of 3-4 independent experiments. One-way
ANOVA with Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test for multiple comparisons to compare Delta
with respective variants were conducted.

Figure 4. Replication of SARS-CoV-2 variants in hNECs. Primary human nasal epithelial cells (hNECs)
cultivated at the air-liquid interface (ALI) were exposed to the indicated SARS-CoV-2 variants. **a.** Viral
RNA release from the apical side of hNECs was measured by RT-qPCR every day up to 4 days p.i..
Replication kinetics of each variant from one representative experiment are represented. **b.**
Comparison of viral RNA release at day 1 pi with the indicated variants. **c.** Infectious viral titers in
supernatants from the apical side were quantified with S-Fuse cells at day 2 p.i. **b,c.** Data are mean ±
s.d. of 4-6 independent experiments. One-way ANOVA with Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test
for multiple comparisons to compare Delta with respective variants were conducted. **d.**
Immunofluorescence of hNECs stained for tubulin (cyan), actin (yellow), SARS-CoV-2 Nucleocapsid
(green) and cleaved caspase-3 (red). Shown is one representative field (150x150 mm) of each variant.
Scale bar = 20 μm.

Figure 5. Activity of neutralizing mAbs and antiviral drugs against SARS-CoV-2 variants. a.
Neutralization curves of previously approved mAbs. Dose–response analysis of neutralization of the
indicated variants by Sotrovimab, Evusheld (Cilgavimab and Tixagevima) and Ronapreve (Casirivimab
and Imdevimab). **b.** Inhibitory curves of antiviral drugs against the indicated variants. Dose-response
analysis of the antiviral effect of Nirmatrelvir, Remdesivir and Molnupiravir. **a,b.** Data are mean ± s.d.
of 3 independent experiments.

Figure 6. Sensitivity of SARS-CoV-2 variants to sera of vaccinated and/or infected individuals.
Neutralization titers of the sera against the indicated viral variants are expressed as ED50. **a.**
Neutralizing activity of sera from individuals vaccinated with 3 doses of Pfizer vaccine. Sera (n= 21)

were sampled 25 – 475 days after the third dose. 13/21 had a breakthrough infection at the time of BA.1/2 circulation. **b,c.** Neutralizing activity of sera from individuals having received the bivalent Wuhan/BA.5 Pfizer boost. Sera were sampled one month (b; n= 20) and six months (c; n=14) after the booster dose. **d.** Temporal evolution of Neutralizing Antibody (Nab) titers against D614G, BA.5, EG.5.1.3 and BA.2.86.1 after bivalent Wuhan/BA.5 booster dose. The Nab titers were calculated at the time of injection (month 0) and at the indicated months after injection. **e.** Neutralizing activity of sera from Pfizer-vaccinated recipients after XBB-derived breakthrough infections (infections occurred in September 2023, when XBB-derived variants were predominantly circulating in France). Sera were sampled 10 to 50 days after the breakthrough (n=12). The dotted line indicates the limit of detection (ED50 = 30). Each dot represents the mean of n=2 independent experiments. Black lines represent the median values. Two-sided Friedman test with Dunn's test for multiple comparisons was performed to compare each viral strain to D614G.

Figure 7. Comparative analysis of BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 variants.

a. Schematic tree describing BA.2.86 expanding diversity. Only substitutions in the spike are noted on branches. **b.** Representative images of cell-cell fusion in S-Fuse cells after infection with BA.2.86.1 and JN.1. Scale bar, 200 μm. **c.** Binding of soluble ACE2 to IGROV-1 infected cells. Infected cells were stained with serial dilutions of soluble hACE2 (left panel). The EC50 of ACE2 (in μg/ml) is displayed (right panel). Data are from two independent experiments in duplicate. **d.** Viral RNA release from the apical side of hNECs was measured by RT-qPCR every day up to 4 days p.i.. Replication kinetics of BA.86.1 and JN.1 variants from one representative experiment out of 2 are represented (left). Comparison of viral RNA release at day 1 pi with the indicated variants (right). **e.** Comparison of neutralization titers against BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 in sera from individuals in the Orléans cohort. Neutralizing activity of sera (n=13) from individuals vaccinated with 3 doses of Pfizer original vaccine, sampled 25-475 days after the third dose (left panel). 9/13 had a breakthrough infection at the time of BA.1/2 circulation. Neutralization activity of sera from recipients of a bivalent Wuhan/BA.5 booster dose. Sera were sampled at 1 (n=12), 3 (n=7) and 6 (n=8) months after the booster dose (middle panel). Neutralization activity of sera from Pfizer-vaccinated individuals with a breakthrough infection in September 2023, when XBB-derived variants were predominantly circulating in France (n=12) (right panel). Sera were sampled 10 to 50 days post-breakthrough infection. The dotted line indicates the limit of detection (ED50 = 30). Each dot represents the mean of n=2 independent experiments. Black lines represent the median values. c,d,e: Paired t-tests were conducted.

Figure S1. Maximum likelihood phylogeny representing the evolution of the main lineages of SARS-CoV-2 since the beginning of the epidemic. **a.** The red circle indicates one of the first sequences

(Wuhan/Hu-1/2019). The BA.2.86 sequences are located inside the BA.2 clade, at the end of a long

branch. Of note, a limitation of the inferred phylogeny is that known recombinant lineages (e.g. XBF

or XBB) were included in the dataset, and their branching should be interpreted with caution. **b.**

Comparison of spike mutations compared to the reference Wuhan_Hu-1 for selected SARS-CoV-2

variants. The color scale reflects the frequency of the mutations within lineages based on the data

available on the GISAID EpiCoV database.

Figure S2. Additional mutations defining lineage JN.1 in comparison to its parent lineage BA.2.86.1.

The genome is drawn to scale, and for mutation leading to an amino acid change, the protein is

specified.

Figure S3. ACE2 and TMPRSS2 expression in cell lines. IGROV-1, Vero E6, Vero E6 TMP-1 and TMP-2

cells were stained with anti-ACE2 or anti-TMPRSS2 antibodies and analyzed by flow cytometry.

Representative examples of the gating strategy in IGROV-1 cells and of the signals obtained in cell lines

are shown.

Figure S4. Permissibility of IGROV-1 and Vero E6 cells to SARS-CoV-2 variants. Viral titrations in

IGROV-1 and Vero E6 cells. Cells were infected with serial dilutions of the indicated variants. At 24

hours post-infection (p.i.), cells were stained with a pan-coronavirus anti-N antibody (green) and

Hoechst to visualize the nuclei (blue). **a.** The N positive areas in IGROV-1 (blue curves) and Vero E6 cells

(grey curves) were compared for each viral dilution. The dotted line corresponds to the signal obtained

with the first dilution (1/20) in IGROV-1 cells, set to the arbitrary value of 1. Data are mean ± s.d. of 3-

5 independent experiments. **b.** Representative images with the indicated viral strains. An identical viral

inoculum was used in the two cell lines. Scale bar, 200 μm.

Figure S5. Effect of the TMPRSS2 inhibitor Camostat and Cathepsin L inhibitors E-64d and SB412515

on viral infection a. IGROV-1, Vero E6 and Vero E6 TMP-1 cells pre-incubated 2 h with Camostat (100

μM), E-64d (10 μM), or SB412515 (10 μM) and exposed to the D614G, Delta, BA.1, XBB.1, or XBB.1.16.1

variants for 24 h. The viral inoculum was determined by titration in each cell line to achieve a similar

N-positive area at 24 h pi. The cells were stained with a pan-coronavirus anti-N antibody. Hoechst was

used to visualize the nuclei for evaluating drug toxicity. The percentage of infection compared to the

control (without drugs, represented by the dotted line) is shown. Data are mean ± s.d. of 3 independent

experiments.

Figure S6. Sensibility of BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 variants to TMPRSS2 inhibitor Camostat and Cathepsin L inhibitors E-64d and SB412515. IGROV-1 (a) and Vero E6 TMP-2 (b) cells pre-incubated 2 h with Camostat (100 µM), E-64d (10 µM), or SB412515 (10 µM) and exposed to the Delta, BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 variants for 24 h. The viral inoculum was determined by titration in each cell line to achieve a similar N-positive area at 24 h pi. The cells were stained with a pan-coronavirus anti-N antibody. Hoechst was used to visualize the nuclei for evaluating drug toxicity. The percentage of infection compared to the control (without drugs, represented by the dotted line) is shown. Data are mean ± s.d. of 2 independent experiments.

Figure S7. Spike expression in 293T cells. Gating strategy and levels of Spike at the cell surface. 293T cells transiently expressing the indicated variant Spikes were stained with a pan-coronavirus anti-S2 mAb 18 h post-transfection and analyzed by flow cytometry.

Figure S8. Binding of variant Spike proteins to ACE2. The affinity of the variant Spike proteins expressed at the surface of IGROV-1 infected cells was assessed by staining the cells and flow cytometry analysis. IGROV-1 cells were infected with the indicated variants. **a.** Representative examples of the gating strategy. **b.** The percentages of biotinylated hACE2+ cells are represented at various dilutions of hACE2-Fc. Data are mean ± s.d. of 3-4 independent experiments.

Figure S9. Immunofluorescence of hNECs stained for cleavage products of caspase-3 and SARS-CoV-2 nucleoprotein. Quantification of total area of cleavaged caspase-3 and SARS-CoV-2 N. Each data point represents one randomly assigned field. One-way ANOVA with Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test for multiple comparisons were conducted.

Figure S10. Sotrovimab binding to infected cells. IGROV-1 cells were infected with the indicated virus for 24h. Then, cells were stained with Sotrovimab or the pan-coronavirus anti-S2 mAb10 antibody. After fixation, cells were intracellularly stained with anti-SARS-CoV-2 nucleoprotein (N) antibody NCP-1 and analyzed by flow cytometry. Representative examples of the gating strategy **(a)** and co-staining of Nucleocapsid and Sotrovimab **(b)** or mAb10 **(c). d.** Quantification of SARS-CoV-2 nucleoprotein+ cells (left), Spike+ cells strained with Sotrovimab (middle) and mAb10 (right). One-way ANOVA with Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test for multiple comparisons were conducted.

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881 **References**
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Figure 1. SARS-CoV2 evolution in 2023 and Spike mutation patterns of the main lineages. a. Evolution of the prevalence of main SARS-CoV-2 lineages from January to December 31, 2023. The pattern of emergence and replacement of several lineages, such as XBB.1.5, then XBB.1.9, XBB.1.16 or EG.5.1 and the emergence of BA.2.86 and JN.1 is shown. The variants with a frame are analyzed in this study. b. Changes specific to lineages studied here in comparison to BA.2 are displayed as colored squares. The spike domain organization is displayed on the top, with N-terminal domain (NTD), Receptor Binding Domain (RBD), Receptor Binding Motif (RBM), Single domains SD1 and SD2, S1/S2 cleavage site, and S2 domains. BA.2.86 and its descendant JN.1 show many new mutations compared to other lineages. A complete comparison of spike mutations compared to the reference Wuhan_Hu-1 is presented in Fig. S1b.

Figure 1

Figure 2. Replication kinetics of SARS-CoV-2 variants in Vero E6, Vero E6 TMP-1 and -2 and IGROV-1 cells. a. Cells were infected with the indicated variants, at 3×10^{-2} infectious units per cell. Cells were stained with a pan-coronavirus anti-N antibody at days 1 to 4 pi. The N-positive areas were plotted on the graph. Each curve represents an independent experiment. b. Comparison of the effect of E-64d and SB412515 against different variants. IGROV-1 cells were pre-incubated 2 h with serial dilutions of E-64d or SB412515 (30 to 1.7×10^{-4} µM) and infected with D614G, XBB.1.5, EG.5.1.3, or BA.2.86.1. The percentage of inhibition is represented. Data are mean ± s.d. of 3 independent experiments.

Figure 3. Fusogenicity and binding to ACE2 of the variant spike proteins. a. Schematic representation of the coculture system. 293T GFP-11 donor cells were transfected with the indicated variant spike expression plasmids and cocultivated with IGROV-1, Vero E6 or Vero E6 TMP-1 acceptor cells expressing GFP1-10. The area of GFP+ fused cells was measured after 18 h. b. Representative images of cell-cell fusion between 293T donor cells and IGROV-1 acceptor cells. Scale bar, 200 μm. c. Fusogenicity of the different spikes with IGROV-1 acceptor cells. Each dot represents a single experiment. Data are mean ± s.d. of 4-6 independent experiments. One-way ANOVA with Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test for multiple comparisons to compare Delta with respective variants were conducted. d. Effect of TMPRSS2 on the fusion of the different spikes. Cell-cell fusion assays were performed with Vero E6 or Vero E6 TMP-1 as target cells. Data are mean ± s.d. of 4 independent experiments. Paired t-test to compare fusion in Vero E6 versus Vero E6 TMP-1 were conducted. e,f. Binding of soluble ACE2 to IGROV-1 infected cells (e) or to 293T cells transiently expressing the Spike (f). Cells were stained with serial dilutions of soluble ACE2. The EC50 of ACE2 binding (μg/ml) for the indicated spike proteins is shown. Data are mean ± s.d. of 3-4 independent experiments. One-way ANOVA with Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test for multiple comparisons to compare Delta with respective variants were conducted.

a.

b. Viral RNA release

c. Viral infectivity

d.

Figure 4. Replication of SARS-CoV-2 variants in hNECs. Primary human nasal epithelial cells (hNECs) cultivated at the air-liquid interface (ALI) were exposed to the indicated SARS-CoV-2 variants. a. Viral RNA release from the apical side of hNECs was measured by RT-qPCR every day up to 4 days p.i.. Replication kinetics of each variant from one representative experiment are represented. b. Comparison of viral RNA release at day 1 pi with the indicated variants. c. Infectious viral titers in supernatants from the apical side were quantified with S-Fuse cells at day 2 p.i. b,c. Data are mean ± s.d. of 4-6 independent experiments. One-way ANOVA with Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test for multiple comparisons to compare Delta with respective variants were conducted. d. Immunofluorescence of hNECs stained for tubulin (cyan), actin (yellow), SARS-CoV-2 Nucleocapsid (green) and cleaved caspase-3 (red). Shown is one representative field (150x150 mm) of each variant. Scale bar = 20 μm.

Figure 5. Activity of neutralizing mAbs and antiviral drugs against SARS-CoV-2 variants. a. Neutralization curves of previously approved mAbs. Dose–response analysis of neutralization of the indicated variants by Sotrovimab, Evusheld (Cilgavimab and Tixagevimab) and Ronapreve (Casirivimab and Imdevimab). b. Inhibitory curves of antiviral drugs against the indicated variants. Dose-response analysis of the antiviral effect of Nirmatrelvir, Remdesivir and Molnupiravir. a,b. Data are mean ± s.d. of 3 independent experiments.

Figure 6. Sensitivity of SARS-CoV-2 variants to sera of vaccinated and/or infected individuals.
Neutralization titers of the sera against the indicated viral variants are expressed as ED50. **a.** Neutralizing activity of sera from individuals vaccinated with 3 doses of Pfizer vaccine. Sera (n= 21) were sampled 25 – 475 days after the third dose. 13/21 had a breakthrough infection at the time of BA.1/2 circulation. **b,c.** Neutralizing activity of sera from individuals having received the bivalent Wuhan/BA.5 Pfizer boost. Sera were sampled one month (b; n= 20) and six months (c; n=14) after the booster dose. **d.** Temporal evolution of Neutralizing Antibody (Nab) titers against D614G, BA.5, EG.5.1.3 and BA.2.86.1 after bivalent Wuhan/BA.5 booster dose. The Nab titers were calculated at the time of injection (month 0) and at the indicated months after injection. **e.** Neutralizing activity of sera from Pfizer-vaccinated recipients after XBB-derived breakthrough infections (infections occurred in September 2023, when XBB-derived variants were predominantly circulating in France). Sera were sampled 10 to 50 days after the breakthrough (n=12). The dotted line indicates the limit of detection (ED50 = 30). Each dot represents the mean of n=2 independent experiments. Black lines represent the median values. Two-sided Friedman test with Dunn's test for multiple comparisons was performed to compare each viral strain to D614G.

Figure 7. Comparative analysis of BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 variants. a. Schematic tree describing BA.2.86 expanding diversity. Only substitutions in the spike are noted on branches. b. Representative images of cell-cell fusion in S-Fuse cells after infection with BA.2.86.1 and JN.1. Scale bar, 200 μm. c. Binding of soluble ACE2 to IGROV-1 infected cells. Infected cells were stained with serial dilutions of soluble hACE2 (left panel). The EC50 of ACE2 (in μg/ml) is displayed (right panel). Data are from two independent experiments in duplicate. d. Viral RNA release from the apical side of hNECs was measured by RT-qPCR every day up to 4 days p.i.. Replication kinetics of BA.86.1 and JN.1 variants from one representative experiment out of 2 are represented (left). Comparison of viral RNA release at day 1 pi with the indicated variants (right). e. Comparison of neutralization titers against BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 in sera from individuals in the Orléans cohort. Neutralizing activity of sera (n=13) from individuals vaccinated with 3 doses of Pfizer original vaccine, sampled 25-475 days after the third dose (left panel). 9/13 had a breakthrough infection at the time of BA.1/2 circulation. Neutralization activity of sera from recipients of a bivalent Wuhan/BA.5 booster dose. Sera were sampled at 1 (n=12), 3 (n=7) and 6 (n=8) months after the booster dose (middle panel). Neutralization activity of sera from Pfizer-vaccinated individuals with a breakthrough infection in September 2023, when XBB-derived variants were predominantly circulating in France (n=12) (right panel). Sera were sampled 10 to 50 days post-breakthrough infection. The dotted line indicates the limit of detection (ED50 = 30). Each dot represents the mean of n=2 independent experiments. Black lines represent the median values. c,d,e, Paired t-tests were conducted.

Figure S1. Maximum likelihood phylogeny representing the evolution of the main lineages of SARS-CoV-2 since the beginning of the epidemic. **a.** The red circle indicates one of the first sequences (Wuhan/Hu-1/2019). The BA.2.86 sequences are located inside the BA.2 clade, at the end of a long branch. Of note, a limitation of the inferred phylogeny is that known recombinant lineages (e.g. XBF or XBB) were included in the dataset, and their branching should be interpreted with caution. **b.** Comparison of spike mutations compared to the reference Wuhan_Hu-1 for selected SARS-CoV-2 variants. The color scale reflects the frequency of the mutations within lineages based on the data available on the GISAID EpiCoV database.

Figure S2. Additional mutations defining lineage JN.1 in comparison to its parent lineage BA.2.86.1. The genome is drawn to scale, and for mutation leading to an amino acid change, the protein is specified.

Figure S3. ACE2 and TMPRSS2 expression in cell lines. IGROV-1, Vero E6, Vero E6 TMP-1 and TMP-2 cells were stained with anti-ACE2 or anti-TMPRSS2 antibodies and analyzed by flow cytometry. Representative examples of the gating strategy in IGROV-1 cells and of the signals obtained in cell lines are shown.

Figure S4. Permissibility of IGROV-1 and Vero E6 cells to SARS-CoV-2 variants.
Viral titrations in IGROV-1 and Vero E6 cells. Cells were infected with serial dilutions of the indicated variants. At 24 hours post-infection (p.i.), cells were stained with a pan-coronavirus anti-N antibody (green) and Hoechst to visualize the nuclei (blue). **a.** The N positive areas in IGROV-1 (blue curves) and Vero E6 cells (grey curves) were compared for each viral dilution. The dotted line corresponds to the signal obtained with the first dilution (1/20) in IGROV-1 cells, set to the arbitrary value of 1. Data are mean ± s.d. of 3-5 independent experiments. **b.** Representative images with the indicated viral strains. An identical viral inoculum was used in the two cell lines. Scale bar, 200 μm.

Figure S5. Effect of the TMPRSS2 inhibitor Camostat and Cathepsin L inhibitors E-64d and SB412515 on viral infection a. IGROV-1, Vero E6 and Vero E6 TMP-1 cells pre-incubated 2 h with Camostat (100 µM), E-64d (10 µM), or SB412515 (10 µM) and exposed to the D614G, Delta, BA.1, XBB.1, or XBB.1.16.1 variants for 24 h. The viral inoculum was determined by titration in each cell line to achieve a similar N-positive area at 24 h pi. The cells were stained with a pan-coronavirus anti-N antibody. Hoechst was used to visualize the nuclei for evaluating drug toxicity. The percentage of infection compared to the control (without drugs, represented by the dotted line) is shown. Data are mean ± s.d. of 3 independent experiments.

Figure S6. Sensibility of BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 variants to TMPRSS2 inhibitor Camostat and Cathepsin L inhibitors E-64d and SB412515. IGROV-1 (a) and Vero E6 TMP-2 (b) cells pre-incubated 2 h with Camostat (100 µM), E-64d (10 µM), or SB412515 (10 µM) and exposed to the Delta, BA.2.86.1 and JN.1 variants for 24 h. The viral inoculum was determined by titration in each cell line to achieve a similar N-positive area at 24 h pi. The cells were stained with a pan-coronavirus anti-N antibody. Hoechst was used to visualize the nuclei for evaluating drug toxicity. The percentage of infection compared to the control (without drugs, represented by the dotted line) is shown. Data are mean ± s.d. of 2 independent experiments.

Figure S7. Spike expression in 293T cells. Gating strategy and levels of Spike at the cell surface. 293T cells transiently expressing the indicated variant Spikes were stained with a pan-coronavirus anti-S2 mAb 18 h post-transfection and analyzed by flow cytometry.

Figure S8. Binding of variant Spike proteins to ACE2. The affinity of the variant Spike proteins expressed at the surface of IGROV-1 infected cells was assessed by staining the cells and flow cytometry analysis. IGROV-1 cells were infected with the indicated variants. a. Representative examples of the gating strategy. b. The percentages of biotinylated hACE2+ cells are represented at various dilutions of hACE2-Fc. Data are mean ± s.d. of 3-4 independent experiments.

Figure S9. Immunofluorescence of hNECs stained for cleavage products of caspase-3 and SARS-CoV-2 nucleoprotein. Quantification of total area of cleavage products of caspase-3 and SARS-CoV-2 N. Each data point represents one randomly assigned field. One-way ANOVA with Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test for multiple comparisons were conducted.

Figure S10. Sotrovimab binding to infected cells. IGROV-1 cells were infected with the indicated virus for 24h. Then, cells were stained with Sotrovimab or the pan-coronavirus anti-S2 mAb10 antibody. After fixation, cells were intracellularly stained with anti-SARS-CoV-2 nucleoprotein (N) antibody NCP-1 and analyzed by flow cytometry. Representative examples of the gating strategy (a) and co-staining of Nucleocapsid and Sotrovimab (b) or mAb10 (c). d. Quantification of the SARS-CoV-2 nucleoprotein+ cells (left), Spike+ cells strained with Sotrovimab (middle) and mAb10 (right). One-way ANOVA with Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's test for multiple comparisons were conducted.

a. **Orléans Cohort: Individuals vaccinated with bivalent Original/BA.5 mRNA Pfizer**

Patients ID	Age	Sex	Dose 3 (Pfizer Monovalent)	Dose 4 (Pfizer Monovalent)	Dose 4 or 5 (Pfizer bivalent)	Breakthrough	Days post-bivalent boost			
							before	1M	3M	6M
#1	59	M	Jan-22		Dec-22		0	30	/	/
#2	53	M	Aug-21	Jan-22	Dec-22		0	35	/	/
#3	59	M	Aug-21	Jan-22	Dec-22	Apr-22	0	42	/	/
#4	Unknown	M	Nov-21		Dec-22	Yes (date unknown)	0	53	/	/
#5	61	M	Nov-21		Dec-22	Mar-22	0	26	96	/
#6	57	F	Nov-21		Dec-22	Mar-22	0	36	97	/
#7	36	F	Feb-22		Dec-22	Jan-21	0	37	93	/
#8	69	M	Dec-21		Dec-22		0	45	94	/
#9	49	F	Nov-21		Dec-22	Mar-22	0	35	93	/
#10	40	F	Nov-22		Dec-22	Mar-22	0	28	91	/
#11	31	F	Nov-21		Dec-22	Mar-22	0	27	84	/
#12	41	F	NA		Dec-22	Jan-22	0	29	/	/
#13	62	F	Nov-21	Jun-21	Jan-23		0	/	/	/
#14	67	F	Jun-21	Aug-22	Feb-23	Dec-21	/	/	/	128
#15	71	M	Aug-21	Aug-22	Feb-23	Dec-21	/	/	/	128
#16	50	M	Aug-21		Feb-22		/	/	/	484
#17	61	M	Feb-22		Dec-22	Aug-21	/	/	/	195
#18	67	M	Sep-21		Feb-23	Jan-22	/	/	/	154
#19	55	M	Aug-21	Jan-22	Dec-22		/	/	/	202
#20	76	M	Sep-21		Dec-22	Aug-22	/	/	/	216
#21	62	M	Aug-21	Jan-22	Dec-22	Feb-22	/	/	/	202

b. **Lyon Cohort_Vaccinated with bivalent Original/BA.5 Pfizer**

Patients ID	Age	Sex	Dose 3 (Pfizer Monovalent)	Dose 4 (Pfizer Monovalent)	Dose 4 or 5 (Pfizer bivalent)	Breakthrough	Days post-bivalent boost		
							before	1M	6M
#1	56	F	Nov-21		Dec-22	Jun-22	0	32	207
#2	37	M	Nov-21	Jan-22	Dec-22	Jul-22	0	31	217
#3	61	F	Dec-21	Jan-22	Dec-22	/	0	28	166
#4	42	F	Dec-21		Dec-22	Feb-22	0	32	218
#5	62	F	Oct-21		Dec-22	/	0	30	136
#6	62	F	Nov-21		Dec-22	/	0	28	165
#7	34	M	Nov-21		Dec-22	Jan-22	0	38	152
#8	62	F	Nov-21		Dec-22	/	0	32	/

c. **Orléans Cohort_Breakthrough infection in September 2023**

Patients ID	Age	Sex	Number of Doses	Vaccine	Days post-infection
#1		M	3	Pfizer	50
#2		M	3	Pfizer	42
#3		F	3	Pfizer	14
#4		F	2	Pfizer	39
#5		F	2	Pfizer	24
#6		F	3	Pfizer	20
#7		M	3	Pfizer	10
#8		F	3	Pfizer	25
#9		F	3	Astra + Pfizer	15
#10		M	2	Pfizer	18
#11		F	3	Pfizer	17
#12		F	2	Pfizer + Moderna	14

a.

Post third dose		
Sex	Female	13
	Male	8
Age (Median; range)		57; (31-69)
Immunodeficiency		0
Previous COVID-19 (known)		13
1st dose		jan - april 2021
2nd dose		jan - nov 2021
3rd dose		aug 2021 - nov 2022
4th dose		june 2021 - jan 2022
Sampling days post-vaccination (median; range)		373 (25-475)
Cohorts	Orléans (Table S1a)	13
	Lyon (Table S1b)	8

b.

1M post-bivalent (Original/BA.5) dose		
Sex	Female	12
	Male	8
Age (Median; range)		56; (31-69)
Immunodeficiency		0
Previous COVID-19 (known)		13
1st dose		jan - april 2021
2nd dose		jan - nov 2021
3rd dose		aug 2021 -nov 2022
4th dose		nov 2022 - jan 2023
Sampling days post-bivalent boost (median; range)		32 (26-53)
Cohorts	Orléans (Table S1a)	12
	Lyon (Table S1b)	8

c.

6M post-bivalent (Original/BA.5) dose		
Sex	Female	6
	Male	9
Age (Median; range)		62; (34-76)
Immunodeficiency		0
Previous COVID-19 (known)		9
1st dose		janv-21
2nd dose		janv-21
3rd dose		june 2021 - feb 2022
4th dose		feb 2022 - feb 2023
Sampling days post-bivalent boost (median; range)		198 (128-484)
Cohorts	Orléans (Table S1a)	8
	Lyon (Table S1b)	7

d.

0.5M post XBB breakthrough infection		
Sex	Female	8
	Male	4
Age (Median; range)		Unknown
Immunodeficiency		Unknown
Nb of participant with 2 doses		4
Nb of participant with 3 doses		8
Sampling days post-BT (median; range)		19 (10-50)
Cohorts	Orléans (Table S1c)	12

Table S2

Variant	Strain	GISAID ID	Reference
D614G	hCoV-19/France/GES-1973/2020	EPI_ISL_414631	Ref 68
Delta	hCoV-19/France/IDF-APHP-HEGP-20-23-2131905084/2021	EPI_ISL_2029113	Ref 65
BA.1	hCoV-19/Belgium/rega-20174/2021	EPI_ISL_6794907	Ref 52
BA.5	hCoV-19/France/CVL-ChuTo-9800086928/2022	EPI_ISL_13660702	Ref 53
BQ.1.1	hCoV-19/Belgium/Rega-IPP_BA2752i/2022	EPI_ISL_15731524	Ref 34
XBB.1.5	hCoV-19/USA/NY-PRL-2021_0412_01L21/2021	EPI_ISL_1635849	Ref 48
XBB.1	hCoV-19/France/PAC-HCL022171892001/2022	EPI_ISL_15619797	This article
XBB.1.9.1	hCoV-19/France/GES-IPP08594/2023 C2 24/04/2023	EPI_ISL_17419152	This article
XBB.1.16.1	hCoV-19/France/GES-IPP07712/2023 C2 21/04/2023	EPI_ISL_17383796	This article
XBF	hCoV-19/France/IDF-APHP-HEGP-81-10-2332993394/2023	EPI_ISL_17763463	This article
EG.5.1.1	hCoV-09/France/GES-IPP15954/2023	EPI_ISL_17949406	This article
EG.5.1.3	hCoV-19/France/BRE-IPP15906/2023	EPI_ISL_17949372	This article
BA.2.86.1	hCoV-19/France/IDF-IPP17625/2023	EPI_ISL_18221650	This article
JN.1	hCoV-19/France/HDF-IPP21391/2023	EPI_ISL_18363371	This article

	BA.1	BA.5	BQ.1.1	XBB.1	XBB.1.5	XBB.1.9.1	XBB.1.16.1	XBF	EG.5.1.3	BA.2.86.1	JN.1
					Fold decrease versus D614G						
3 doses of Pfizer	5	5	23	42	35	84	101	64	136	76	101
1M after Original/BA.5 bivalent boost	9	6	50	107	62	150	144	71	141	125	254
6M after Original/BA.5 bivalent boost	4	7	23	31	37	53	75	37	81	90	180
3 weeks after XBB breakthrough infection	2	1	6	8	4	8	9	5	6	10	20

Table S4