Immune phenotypes that predict COVID-19 severity

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Article

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Abstract

Severe COVID-19 causes profound immune perturbations, but pre-infection immune signatures contributing to severe COVID-19 remain unknown. Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) identified strong associations between severe disease and several chemokine receptors and molecules from the type I interferon pathway. Here, we define immune signatures associated with severe COVID-19 using high-dimensional flow cytometry. We measured the peripheral immune system from individuals who recovered from mild, moderate, severe or critical COVID-19 and focused only on those immune signatures returning to steady-state. Individuals that suffered from severe COVID-19 showed reduced frequencies of T cell, MAIT cell and dendritic cell (DCs) subsets and altered chemokine receptor expression on several subsets, such as reduced levels of CCR1 and CCR2 on monocyte subsets. Furthermore, we found reduced frequencies of type I interferon-producing plasmacytoid DCs and altered IFNAR2 expression on several myeloid cells in individuals recovered from severe COVID-19. Thus, these data identify potential immune mechanisms contributing to severe COVID-19.

Introduction

The recent COVID-19 pandemic caused an unprecedented global health crisis. Demographic and socioeconomical factors affect disease severity and mortality (*1*). Underlying health conditions such obesity and diabetes or gender with higher risk for males have been associated with disease severity (*1*). Additionally, genetic predisposition contributes to the development of severe COVID-19 (*2, 3*). GWAS identified several genes encoding for pro-inflammatory chemokine receptors and molecules from the type I interferon pathway, such as OAS1, DPP9, TYK2 and IFNAR2, that associate with the development of severe COVID-19 (*2, 3*). Thus, tissue distribution of immune cells and the responsiveness of innate immunity to infection may be key factors to prevent severe outcome in COVID-19. While GWAS enable the identification of associations between genetic variants and disease severity, such studies fall short of providing insights into the mechanisms by which these genetic traits manifest disease susceptibility. Nearly all of the SNPs identified in GWAS are regulatory and not coding in nature; the altered regulation could be expressed on subsets of immune cells rather than organism-wide. Thus, immunological studies such as immunophenotyping at the single cell level are necessary to gain mechanistic understanding of how genetics affect immune responses (*4*).

Chemokine receptors are crucial in regulating leukocyte trafficking and thereby orchestrating immune responses (*5, 6*). Thus, chemokine receptors are critical in all aspects of immune responses including adaptive immunity in lymphoid organs (*6*), early influx of innate immune cells (*7*) and migration of cells in inflamed tissues (*8*). Their expression is tightly regulated and depends on the immune milieu (*5*). Imbalance or perturbations in the homeostasis of chemokine and chemokine receptor expression are associated with inflammatory and autoimmune diseases (*8*).

The innate immune system ensures rapid and effective immune responses against viruses and is impaired in severe COVID-19 (*9-11*). IFNAR2 is critical for type I interferon mediated immunity; homozygous mutations, which abrogate IFNAR2 expression, are

70 associated with fatal outcome in viral infections (*12*). The role of type 1 interferon remains

71 controversial in SARS-CoV2 (*13*). Severe COVID-19 is associated with low serum levels

72 of type I interferon (*14*). In contrast, robust type I interferon response occurs in lung

73 tissues from severe but not mild COVID-19 cases (*15*). Furthermore, neutralizing

74 autoantibodies against type I interferon (*16*) or loss-of-function mutations in type I

75 interferon pathway (*17*) occur more frequently within severe COVID-19 cases. Thus, while

76 excessive type I interferon response may exacerbate inflammation and severity of

77 COVID-19, it is likely that the lack thereof is also detrimental.

78

79 Based on the GWAS data (*2, 3*) we hypothesized that immune signatures at steady-state

80 (i.e. prior to infection and following recovery) impact the outcome of COVID-19 severity.

81 This may manifest as a variety of phenotypes: altered level of expression or altered

82 regulation of certain subsets of immune cells. Here we tested this hypothesis using high-

83 dimensional, comprehensive immunophenotyping in peripheral blood mononuclear cells

84 (PBMC) of individuals that recovered or substantially improved from mild, moderate,

85 severe and critical COVID-19 (Extended Data Figs. 1-2). Particularly, we focused on the

86 expression of chemokine receptors and IFNAR2 identified by GWAS (*2, 3*). We identified

87 several immune signatures at steady-state which differed between individuals recovered

88 from non-severe and severe COVID-19. This included altered expression of various

89 chemokine receptors on NK and MAIT cells as well as altered abundance of innate

90 immune subsets. In addition, our data revealed reduced levels of type I interferon

91 producing pDCs (*18*) and increased expression of IFNAR2 on several myeloid cell

92 subsets at steady-state in individuals recovered from severe COVID-19, pointing towards

93 impaired type I interferon responsiveness. Thus, these data define predictable immune

94 signatures associated with severe COVID-19 outcome and improve our understanding of

95 pathogenesis of COVID-19.

Results

Expression profile of chemokine receptors, IFNAR2 and functional receptors

We assessed the immune profile in PBMC from 173 healthy individuals using 28-color flow cytometry (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Tables 1-2). We measured immune cell subsets with two backbone panels focusing on either B cells and myeloid cells or innate-like and conventional T cells as well as NK cells (referred to as BDC and TNK panels, respectively; Table S1). We used each backbone panel with two sets of chemokine receptors (CR1 and CR2). Thus, for each sample, we measured a total of 4 unique sets of markers. Manual definition of immune subsets and functional marker expression profile on these subsets are shown in supplementary material (Supplementary Data 2-7).

Immune subsets showed heterogenous expression of various chemokine receptors, the Ecto-NTPDase CD39, co-stimulatory receptors CD40 and CD86, Interferon-alpha receptor 2 (IFNAR2) and co-inhibitory molecule TIGIT (Fig. 1a). We focused our subsequent analysis on immune traits for which the lineage showed discernible expression. For instance, XCR1 and CCR3 were only expressed on cDC1s and Basophils, respectively, while B cells did not express CCR1, CCR2, CCR3, CCR4, CCR8, CXCR6 and CX3CR1. The remaining 1758 out of 3787 immune traits consisted of frequency of immune cell subsets (N = 349), cells expressing functional markers (N = 620) or the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI; N = 789) of functional markers.

Prolonged immune perturbations after recovery from COVID-19

We aimed to identify immune signatures at steady-state which contribute to severe COVID-19. However, cohorts with baseline PBMC samples from patients who had not yet been infected with COVID-19 are not available. Thus, we looked for traits post-recovery and selected those traits for analysis which might be most informative based on GWAS. COVID-19 induced immune perturbations can persist after viral clearance and recovery (*19, 20*). We hypothesized that immune cells could experience different fates during acute COVID-19 including i) not affected and remaining at baseline, ii) affected and deviating from healthy individuals only during active viral disease or iii) persistently affected even after viral clearance. The latter results in delayed normalization back to

127 baseline levels. We first aimed to identify these persisting immune perturbations which

128 may contribute to long-lasting COVID19-related symptoms known as long COVID (*19*).

129 To this end, we analyzed PBMC collected after recovery from mild, moderate, severe and

130 critical COVID-19 (Extended Data Fig. 1 and 2). We focused on the moderate and severe

131 COVID-19 group as these groups showed the largest time range between symptom onset

132 and sample collection (Extended Data Fig. 1a; Moderate, 24-129 days; Severe, 16-184

133 days). We applied two strategies to identify persistently affected immune traits. These

134 included i) linear regression of immune traits and time between symptom onset and

135 sample collection, and ii) comparison of samples collected before and after 60 days of

136 symptom onset using a Wilcoxon test. We opted to abstain from multiple testing correction

137 in order to avoid the inclusion of marginally significant true positive immune traits (i.e.

138 immune traits which truly change over time) in our analysis of stable immune traits. The

139 two strategies showed similar results (Fig. 1b). We assessed the top hits from both

140 analyses (p<0.001 in at least one analysis, N = 24) to further delineate persistent immune

141 perturbations in COVID-19 (Fig. 2a).

142

143 The most prominent persisting perturbations occurred within switched (containing

144 memory B cells and plasmablasts) and memory $CD20^+IgD^-CD38^{-/+}CD27^{-/+}$ B cells (Fig.

145 2a). Switched and naïve B cells did not change in moderate COVID-19 over time but

146 significantly decreased and increased, respectively, in severe cases (Spearman's rank

147 correlation; Naïve: R^2 = 0.36, P = 0.002; Switched: R^2 = 0.44, P = $4*10^{-4}$) to levels

148 observed in healthy individuals (Fig. 2b). Both naïve and switched B cells did not differ

149 between study groups (Fig. 2b). Similar dynamics occurred for $CD38^+HLA-DR^-$ and $CD38^-$

150 $HLA-DR^-$ CD4 naïve T cells which showed an increase and decrease, respectively, over

151 time in the severe COVID-19 group (Spearman's rank correlation; $CD38^+HLA-DR^-$ CD4

152 naïve: R^2 = 0.42, P = $5.8*10^{-4}$; $CD38^-HLA-DR^-$ CD4 naïve: R^2 = 0.42, P < $6.5*10^{-4}$) with

153 later timepoints reaching levels observed in healthy individuals (Fig. 2c). In addition,

154 decreased $CD38^+HLA-DR^-$ and increased $CD38^-HLA-DR^-$ CD4 naïve T cells occurred in

155 individuals recovered from severe and critical COVID-19 (Bonferroni-adjusted P-value

156 range 0.02 – $1.46*10^{-4}$) (Fig. 2c).

157

158　Cross-presenting cDC1s induce potent CD8 T cell responses. Timepoints early after

159　onset of symptoms had reduced levels of cDC1s in severe COVID-19 cases, but these

160　increased later to levels observed in healthy individuals, suggesting perturbations of

161　cDC1s during active COVID-19 (Spearman's rank correlation; R^2 = 0.29, P = 0.0069) (Fig.

162　2d). We also observed changes in the expression levels of receptors over time (Figs. 2a,

163　e and f). Basophils expressed reduced levels of CCR3 early after symptom onset while

164　levels were closer to healthy individuals at later timepoints within the severe COVID-19

165　group (Spearman's rank correlation; R^2 = 0.46, P = $2.8*10^{-4}$) (Fig. 2e). CCR3 expression

166　was reduced in basophils from severe and critical COVID-19 cases (Bonferroni-adjusted

167　P-value range 0.01 – $2.11*10^{-7}$). Furthermore, CD95 expression decreased over time in

168　early NK (Spearman's rank correlation; R^2 = 0.26, P = 0.011) and NK2 cells (Spearman's

169　rank correlation; R^2 = 0.37, P = 0.002) in severe COVID-19 (Fig. 2f). CD95 expression

170　was significantly elevated in both subsets from critical COVID-19 compared to all other

171　groups (Bonferroni-adjusted P-value range 0.00965 – $1.43*10^{-7}$). In conclusion several

172　immune traits in severe COVID-19 required prolonged time - up to 100 days after

173　symptom onset - to reach baseline levels which can be several months which agrees with

174　previous studies (*19, 20*).

175

176　**Predictive potential of lymphocyte immune traits**

177　Next, we hypothesized that stable immune traits (N = 1365) between symptom onset and

178　sample collection remained at or returned early to pre-infection baseline. We aimed to

179　identify differences in these traits between individuals recovered from mild (N = 19) and

180　moderate (N = 24) COVID-19 (combined and referred to as non-severe group, N = 43)

181　and severe (N = 25) and critical (N = 30) COVID-19 cases (combined and referred to as

182　severe group, N = 55). Such differences may give clues about pre-infection immune

183　signatures which favor the development of severe COVID-19. We identified distinctive

184　immune features between these two groups using logistic regression (N = 150, FDR-

185　adjusted P-value cut-off < 0.01) as described in the Online methods (Extended Data Fig.

186　3). Despite substantial improvement, some patients from the severe (N = 6) and critical

187　(N = 21) COVID-19 group were still hospitalized at sample collection (Extended Data Figs.

188　1d and e). These samples may bias the analysis due to persistent immune perturbations

189   or pathologies; we therefore repeated the analysis and only included individuals which

190   were discharged prior to or at the day of sample collection (Extended Data Figs. 4a and

191   b). We obtained similar results with this smaller sample set (Non-severe, N = 43; Severe,

192   N = 28, FDR-adjusted P-value cut-off < 0.012), compared to all individuals, with highly

193   correlated P-values between both analyses (Spearman's rank correlation, R = 0.88, P <

194    $2*10^{-16}$) (Extended Data Fig. 4c). In fact, 65 significant hits (FDR-adjusted P_{ALL} < 0.01,

195   FDR-adjusted $P_{Non-hospitalized}$ < 0.012) were shared between these two analyses using

196   either all patients or only non-hospitalized patients at the time of sample collection

197   (Extended Data Fig. 4d). Only 6 new immune traits were discovered with the non-

198   hospitalized sample set (FDR-adjusted P < 0.012). However, 85 significant immune traits

199   (FDR-adjusted P < 0.0017) were only discovered when all patients were analyzed. This

200   may be due to the lower statistical power with the smaller sample set as suggested by

201   the strong correlation of P-values (Extended Data Fig. 4c).

202

203   We primarily focused our analysis on traits which significantly differed between non-

204   severe and severe COVID-19 cases in both sample sets (all vs. non-hospitalized, N = 65,

205   FDR-adjusted P_{ALL} < 0.01, FDR-adjusted $P_{Non-hospitalized}$ < 0.012) (Extended Data Figs. 3b

206   and 4b). NK cells are critical for antiviral defense (21) and impaired in severe COVID-19

207   (22). We discovered several chemokine receptor signatures on NK cells (N = 8)

208   associated with the development of severe COVID-19, including up-regulated CX3CR1

209   expression on early NK cells (Fig. 3a) and increased levels of CCR4, CCR9 and CXCR3

210   on terminal NK cells (Fig. 3b). However, the expression of these molecules by other cell

211   types were not associated with severity, underscoring the need to perform multiparameter

212   analysis at the single cell level.

213

214   We also identified several potentially predictive traits (N = 75) within conventional T cells.

215   Naïve and transitional memory (TM) CD8^{+} T cells from individuals suffered from severe

216   and critical COVID-19 expressed higher levels of CCR4 (Bonferroni-adjusted P-value

217   range 0.03 - $7*10^{-5}$). This pattern did not occur on naïve and TM CD4^{+} T cells (Fig. 3c).

218   Furthermore, stem cell-like memory (TSCM), central memory (CM) and terminal effector*

219   (TE*) CD8^{+} T cells exhibited reduced TIGIT expression in individuals recovered from

220   severe and critical COVID-19 (Bonferroni-adjusted P-value range 0.01 - 7.21*10^{-6}) (Fig.

221   3d). In contrast, naïve CD8^{+} T cells and MAIT cells expressed similar levels between

222   study groups or elevated levels of TIGIT in individuals suffered from severe and critical

223   COVID-19, respectively (Bonferroni-adjusted P-value range 0.04 - 0.004).

224

225   The frequency of MAIT cells was decreased in severe and critical COVID-19 (Extended

226   Data Fig. 4e) (Bonferroni-adjusted P-value range 3.99*10^{-4} - 2.96*10^{-6}). Furthermore,

227   more individuals recovered from severe and critical COVID-19 showed reduced

228   frequencies of central memory (CM) CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} T cells (defined as CD45RA^{-}

229   CCR7^{+}CD27^{+}) (Bonferroni-adjusted P-value range 0.02 - 7.61*10^{-6}) (Extended Data Fig.

230   4f). In addition, individuals recovered from critical COVID-19 had elevated levels of

231   activated (defined as CD38^{+}HLA-DR^{+}) CD8^{+} effector and terminal memory T cells

232   (Bonferroni-adjusted P-value range 5.46*10^{-4} - 1.04*10^{-6}) (Fig. 3e).

233

234   We did not identify many B cell traits predictive for COVID-19 severity. However, patients

235   with severe COVID-19 had lower baseline frequencies of marginal zone (MZ) B cells,

236   which produce natural IgM mostly targeting bacterial glycans and are considered an early

237   wave of immune defense (Fig. 3f) (Bonferroni-adjusted P-value range 0.00192 - 1.84*10^{-4}) (*23*).

238

239

240   **Predictive potential of myeloid immune traits**

241   Innate immune signatures determine the trajectories of disease severity early during

242   active COVID-19 (*24*). We assessed several innate immune subsets such as monocytes

243   and dendritic cells (DCs) in the periphery (*25, 26*) as well as several critical markers for

244   stimulation of adaptive immune responses including CD40 and CD86. Individuals

245   recovered from severe and critical COVID-19 had reduced frequencies of plasmacytoid

246   DCs (pDCs) and CD14^{+} DC3s (Bonferroni-adjusted P-value range 0.00226 - 3.71*10^{-7})

247   (Fig. 4a).

248

249   The chemokine receptor profile on dendritic cells did not differ substantially between

250   individuals recovered from non-severe and severe COVID-19. We observed increased

251 expression of CX3CR1 on pDCs and cross-presenting cDC1s associated with disease

252 severity (Bonferroni-adjusted P-value range 0.00301 - 1.83×10^{-5}) (Fig. 4b). Frequency of

253 monocyte subsets did not differ between groups. However, classical and intermediate

254 monocytes from individuals recovered from severe COVID-19 had reduced expression of

255 pro-inflammatory chemokine receptors CCR1 and CCR2 (Bonferroni-adjusted P-value

256 range $0.04 – 2.07 \times 10^{-9}$) (Fig. 4c). In contrast, non-classical pro-inflammatory monocytes

257 showed no differences of CCR1 and CCR2 expression between COVID-19 severity

258 groups (Fig. 4c).

259

260 Genome-wide association studies identified IFNAR2 as a risk factor for severe COVID-

261 19 (*2, 3*). Furthermore, type I interferon response is critical for effective immune

262 responses against COVID-19 (*10, 11, 13, 14*). We measured expression of IFNAR2 on

263 monocytes, dendritic cells and B cells. IFNAR2 expression was lowest on naïve B cells

264 and highest on pDCs and cDC1s, but expression could be detected on most subsets

265 including cDC2s, DC3s and monocyte subsets (Fig. 1a). We found increased expression

266 of IFNAR2 on monocyte and dendritic cell subsets, except for cDC1s and pDCs, in

267 individuals recovered from severe and critical COVID-19 (Bonferroni-adjusted P-value

268 range $0.04 - 4.95 \times 10^{-5}$) (Figs. 4d and e). In non-myeloid cells, IFNAR2 expression was

269 elevated in basophils but no substantial change in expression of IFNAR2 occurred in

270 other non-myeloid cells with disease severity (Figs. 4d and e). IFNAR2 was slightly

271 reduced in several CD38^{low} memory B cell populations severe and critical COVID-19 (Fig.

272 4d). However, these CD38^{low} memory B cell subsets were not significantly different

273 between non-severe and severe COVID-19 group (Extended Data Fig. 3b).

274

275 **Unsupervised cluster analysis**

276 Next, we used unsupervised clustering to extend our analysis and identify potential

277 immune signatures not revealed by our manual gating analysis. We split cells from both

278 chemokine receptor panels into main lineages based on manual gating and defined 388

279 clusters using FlowSOM as described in the Online methods (Supplementary Data 8-13

280 and Supplementary Tables 3 and 4). Subsequently, we excluded persistently perturbed

281 immune clusters (N = 97) as described for manually defined traits in Figure 1b (Extended

282   Data Fig. 5a). Next, we identified distinct immune traits between non-severe and severe
283   COVID-19 after recovery using logistic regression (Figs. 5a and b). Results with all
284   samples and with only the non-hospitalized individuals strongly correlated (Spearman's
285   rank correlation, R = 0.9, P < 2.2e-16) confirming that hospitalization was not a major
286   driver (Extended Data Figs. 5b and c).

287

288   We focused on 42 significant clusters (p_{FDR} < 0.01) across all lineages (Figs. 5a and b).
289   From each chemokine receptor panel (CR1 and CR2) 5 and 6 significant clusters (p_{FDR} <
290   0.01) resembled innate-like T cells, respectively. Four clusters (clusters 34, 35, 37 and
291   38) from CR1 and one (cluster 3) from CR2 panel were MAIT cells as defined by T cell
292   receptor (TCR) Vα7.2 and CD161 (Fig. 5c). These clusters were reduced in severe
293   COVID-19 (Bonferroni-adjusted P-value range 0.04 – 3.71*10^{-7}) (Fig. 5d) matching the
294   overall decreased frequency of MAIT cells (Extended Data Fig. 4e). Vδ2Vγ9 T cell
295   clusters 20 and 25 from CR2 panel were expanded in severe and critical COVID-19
296   (Bonferroni-adjusted P-value range 0.00564 – 6.39*10^{-8}) and characterized by CCR9,
297   CXCR3 and TIGIT expression (Fig. 5d). In contrast Vδ2Vγ9 T cell cluster 24 expressed
298   higher levels of CCR4 and CCR8 but lacked CXCR3 and TIGIT (Fig. 5d).

299

300   Within myeloid cells, CD123$^+$CD5$^-$ pDCs (CR1: 24, CR2: 28) and CD123$^+$CD5$^+$ pre-DCs
301   (CR1: 28, CR2: 29) were significantly reduced (Bonferroni-adjusted P-value range 0.04 –
302   4.11*10^{-6}) in individuals recovered from severe and critical COVID-19. These cells were
303   characterized by expression of CD38, CCR5 and high levels of CXCR3. CCR1, CCR2
304   and IFNAR2 were expressed at higher levels on pDCs while co-stimulatory CD86 was
305   lower and CD40 expression was lacking on both. CD14$^-$ DC3s (CR1: 22; CR2: 21) and
306   CD14$^+$ DC3s (CR1: 11) differ between individuals recovered from non-severe and severe
307   COVID-19 (Figs. 6a and b) in agreement with our manual analysis (Fig. 4a and Extended
308   Data Fig. 3).

309

310   We further examined myeloid cells from mild and severe COVID-19 cases using tSNE.
311   Clusters shown in Figure 6a exhibited reduced density on the tSNE map in severe cases
312   (Fig. 6c and Supplementary Data 9). We analyzed the relationship between the subsets

313   identified in panels CR1 and CR2 which showed high overlap suggesting the identification

314   of similar populations with both panels (Fig. 6d).

315

316   Overall, unsupervised analysis reveals similar immune subsets which differ between

317   individuals recovered from non-severe and severe COVID-19 compared to the manually

318   defined subsets. However, the unsupervised analysis enabled more detailed insights into

319   the unique expression patterns of chemokine receptors and other functional molecules

320   on these subsets.

Discussion

We lack mechanistic insights into how pre-infection immune signatures contribute to the development of life-threatening COVID-19. GWAS identified several genes associated with COVID-19 severity (*2, 3*). The most predictive genes encode for pro-inflammatory chemokines such as CCR2, CCR3, CXCR6 and XCR1 and molecules from the type I interferon pathway including IFNAR2 (*2, 3*). However, these GWAS associations do not indicate potential mechanisms (e.g., altered expression of CCRs on subsets of leukocytes). Thus, immunological studies such as immunophenotyping are needed to better understand the mechanisms by which these immune traits impact disease severity. In addition, most studies focused on finding distinctive immune signatures during active severe COVID-19 (*14, 15, 22, 24, 27, 28*). Here, we hypothesized that pre-infection immune signatures determine the trajectories of COVID-19 severity. Thus, we measured the immune composition using high-dimensional flow cytometry in peripheral blood of individuals recovered from mild, moderate, severe and critical COVID-19 to identify immune signatures associated with COVID-19 severity. After pathogen clearance the human immune system rapidly reverts to steady-state with a composition comparable prior to infection (*29*). Therefore, samples taken after recovery from COVID-19 reflect the immune system at steady-state and are comparable to pre-infection. Thus, our study provides potential immune mechanisms at the earliest events of COVID-19 which determine the trajectory of disease severity.

Our study identifies several distinct chemokine receptor signatures between individuals recovered from non-severe (mild/moderate) and severe (severe/critical) COVID-19. Chemokine receptors are important for protective immune responses against viral infections such as West Nile Virus and Influenza (*30, 31*) and their expression is altered in severe COVID-19 (*24, 27*). In our study, individuals recovered from severe COVID-19 had increased expression of lung-homing chemokine receptors CCR4, CXCR3 and CX3CR1 on NK cell subsets (Figs. 3a and b). These receptors result in exacerbated lung inflammation and impaired immune responses against viruses (*32-34*). In addition, NK cells can facilitate inflammation during viral infections (*35*). Thus, increased baseline

352   expression of lung-homing chemokine receptors on NK cells may facilitate NK cell

353   migration and exacerbate lung inflammation in COVID-19. We also identified elevated

354   CCR4 levels on transitional memory CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} T cells in these individuals (Fig. 3c)

355   highlighting that enhanced homing of T cells to the lung might exacerbate COVID-19.

356

357   In contrast, individuals recovered from mild and moderate COVID-19 expressed higher

358   levels of TIGIT (Fig. 3d). TIGIT expression prevents immune pathologies of viral infections

359   in mice and reduces lung damage in influenza infection (*36*). Thus, increased levels of

360   TIGIT might play a protective role against severe lung damage and consequently the

361   development of life-threatening COVID-19.

362

363   Furthermore, we observed reduced expression of CCR1 and CCR2 on monocyte subsets

364   from individuals recovered from severe COVID-19 (Fig. 4c). CCR2 can play a protective

365   role in the early phase of mouse-adapted SARS-CoV2 infection (*37*). Similarly, CCR1 and

366   CCR2 knock-out mice exhibited exacerbated immune pathologies in SARS-CoV (*38*).

367   These studies and our results suggest a protective role of CCR1 and CCR2 in early

368   immune responses against coronaviruses. Both CCR1 and CCR2 interact with pro-

369   inflammatory chemokines which are upregulated in the lungs of severe COVID-19

370   patients (*27*). Thus, altered expression of CCR1 and CCR2 at steady state might

371   influence the severity of COVID-19.

372

373   Type I interferon is crucial for antiviral immune responses and orchestrates the induction

374   of chemokines and pro-inflammatory cytokines (*10, 13*). We observed reduced levels of

375   pDCs, the main source of type I interferon during viral infections (*18*). Thus, reduced

376   frequencies of pDCs at baseline may contribute to the impaired or delayed type I

377   interferon response in severe COVID-19 (*14, 15*). Similar delayed type I interferon

378   responses occur in SARS and MERS and are associated with worse disease outcome

379   (*39-41*). Therefore, dysregulated and delayed type I interferon response can be

380   detrimental for the host in coronavirus infections.

381

382   On the contrary, we observed increased expression of IFNAR2 on basophils and myeloid

383   cells but not on B cells and pDCs in individuals recovered from severe COVID-19 (Fig.

384   5d). This is in contradiction with inferences from a recent study which combined GWAS

385   and bulk transcriptomics and identified reduced expression of IFNAR2 in lung and whole

386   blood as a risk factor for severe COVID-19 (*2*). In contrast to bulk transcriptomics, we

387   show at the single-cell level that IFNAR2 is only affected on certain blood immune cell

388   populations in individuals recovered from severe COVID-19. Notably, we measured

389   IFNAR2 only on B cells, basophils and myeloid cells and can therefore not determine

390   whether its expression is downregulated in other blood cell types. The dichotomy between

391   reduced pDC frequencies and elevated IFNAR2 expression on myeloid cells is puzzling.

392   However, interaction between type I interferon and its receptor results in endocytosis (*42*)

393   and it is therefore possible that constitutively expressed type I interferon might regulate

394   IFNAR2 expression at steady-state (*43*). Nevertheless, the increased levels of IFNAR2

395   might potentiate the responsiveness of myeloid cells to type I interferon and thus drive

396   exacerbated inflammation.

397

398   Most immune perturbations caused by COVID-19 disappear within 60 days post-infection,

399   but some immune perturbations persist for weeks after viral clearance (*19, 20*). In our

400   study, the majority of immune traits were at baseline in recovered patients (Fig. 1b).

401   Nonetheless, we identified several immune traits which did not fully return to baseline

402   even weeks after symptom onset (Figs. 1b and 2). Most of these long-term perturbations

403   occurred in severe COVID-19, likely due to increased immune activation (*24*), and

404   affected mainly B and T cells (Fig 2). The half-life of peripheral lymphocytes is longer

405   compared to myeloid cells. Models suggest that peripheral dendritic cells and monocytes

406   are replenished every few days (*44-46*) while turnover of memory and naïve T cells can

407   be in the order of several weeks (*47*) and years (*48*), respectively. Thus, the prolonged

408   immune cell half-life might interfere with the replacement of impaired lymphocytes after

409   COVID-19 infection. Furthermore, naïve T cells are maintained by homeostatic

410   proliferation while thymic output declines in aging (*48*) which might contribute to sustained

411   immune perturbations.

412

413

414 In summary, we identified several single cell-based immune signatures associated with
415 the development of severe COVID-19 outcome. We specifically identified components of
416 innate immunity, NK cells and innate-like T cells which are important for the earliest
417 events in orchestrating efficient immune responses and in the clearance of other
418 pathogens potentially worsening the disease outcome. Our data support current clinical
419 efforts to modulate immune cell trafficking using chemokine receptor inhibitors or
420 administration of interferon to treat severe COVID-19 patients (*27, 49-51*).

421

Online Methods

423

424   Detailed information of buffers and cell culture media is listed in Supplementary Table 5

425   and staining reagents are listed in Supplementary Table 2.

426

427   <u>Samples</u>

428   PBMC samples from 173 healthy individuals enrolled as part of the VRC clinical trial

429   program served as control group. Convalescent samples from individuals recovered from

430   mild and moderate COVID-19 were collected at the NIH (Mild, N = 14; Moderate, N = 10)

431   and Evergreen in Washington State (Mild, N = 5; Moderate, N = 14). In addition, PBMCs

432   from individuals recovered from severe (N = 25) and critical (N = 30) COVID-19 were

433   obtained from Washington University. Distinction between severe and critical cases was

434   based on required ventilation. All individuals from the mild and moderate group resolved

435   symptoms by the time of sample collection while all individuals from the severe and critical

436   groups showed at least substantial improvement of symptoms. Information about time

437   between symptom onset and sample collection was unavailable for two samples from the

438   mild COVID-19 group. Detailed demographics are shown in Extended Data Figs. 1 and

439   2. Informed consent was obtained from individuals in compliance with IRB procedures.

440   Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were purified using density gradient

441   centrifugation and cryopreserved in 10% DMSO in liquid nitrogen.

442

443   <u>Flow cytometry</u>

444   Staining reagent cocktails were prepared in staining buffer (RPMI without phenol red and

445   4% HINCS) containing Brilliant Buffer Plus (1:5 diluted) and TrueStain Monocyte Blocker

446   (5µl/100µl). Antibody cocktails were tested on irrelevant PBMC sample to validate

447   completeness prior to sample processing. After successful validation of staining reagent

448   cocktails, PBMCs were thawed in RPMI containing 10% fetal bovine serum, 100 IU/ml

449   Penicillin, 100µg/ml Streptomycin and 292µg/ml L-Glutamine (referred to as R10)

450   containing 50U/ml Benzonase using a tube adaptor to facilitate and standardize the

451   thawing process as described (*52*). Cells were washed once with 5ml R10 and transferred

452   to a V-bottom, 96-well plate (Corning). After two washes with 200µl PBS, cells were

453   stained in 100μl fixable Live/Dead Blue viability dye containing human BD Fc receptor

454   block (5μl/100μl) for 20 minutes at room temperature protected from light. Afterwards,

455   cells were distributed into two 96-V bottom plates and stained with 50μl of either B

456   cell/myeloid cell (BDC) or T cell/NK cell (TNK) backbone staining mix for 30 minutes at

457   room temperature. Samples were subsequently distributed into two wells and stained with

458   either chemokine receptor panel 1 (CR1) or 2 (CR2) for 30 minutes at room temperature.

459   Subsequently, we washed cells three times with 250ul staining buffer followed by fixation

460   with 0.5% paraformaldehyde in PBS overnight at 4C. Cells were acquired the next day

461   with a FACSymphony (BD Biosciences) cytometer. Detailed instrument configuration is

462   described elsewhere (*53*). Initial centrifugation for thawing was performed at 700g for

463   5min and all subsequent centrifugation steps were done at 860g for 3min.

464   Samples were processed in two batches and samples from the different cohorts/study

465   groups were equally distributed across the two experiments to mitigate potential issues

466   with batch effects. PBMCs from the same blood draw and batch from a healthy individual

467   was measured in both experiments to assess reproducibility.

468

469   <u>Data analysis</u>

470   Irregular events and outliers in the raw data were determined and excluded using R-

471   implemented (R version 4.0.0) FlowAI (version 1.18.5) (*54*). Subsequently, correction for

472   spectral overlap (compensation) was performed in FlowJo 10.1.7 (BD Biosciences) using

473   single-stained beads. A new set of fcs files only containing viable, high-quality (based on

474   FlowAI) cells was generated for subsequent analysis of immune cell traits with FlowJo

475   10.1.7. For the BDC-CR1 panel, gates from two donors required adjustments due to slight

476   signal shifts caused by irregularities in data acquisition which were not detected by

477   FlowAI. Otherwise, identical gates were used across all samples and batches. Markers

478   were divided in two groups based on their purpose to either define immune cell subsets

479   or functional markers/characteristics (Supplementary Table 1). Three different

480   parameters were extracted for subsequent analysis, namely frequency of immune cell

481   populations, frequency of cells expressing functional markers and mean fluorescence

482   signal. Biologically relevant expression was assessed and immune traits with insufficient

483 frequencies or irrelevant expression patterns were manually excluded which resulted in
484 1758 out of 3787 manually defined immune traits.

485

486 For tSNE and FlowSOM analysis, CD4$^+$ T cells and CD8$^+$ T cells (both gated from
487 CD3$^+$CD4$^+$Vγ9$^-$Vδ1$^-$Vδ2$^-$CD1d:PBS57$^-$ conventional T cells), B cells (HLA-DR$^+$CD20$^+$),
488 myeloid cells (HLA-DR$^+$CD20$^-$), innate-like T cells (NKT cells, MAIT cells and cells
489 positive for TCR-γ or -δ reagents) and NK cells/innate lymphoid cells (CD3$^-$HLA-DR$^-$)
490 were separately concatenated from the two chemokine receptor panels CR1 and CR2.
491 The same individuals were included as described for the manual gating analysis, with the
492 exception that we excluded the two samples from the BDC-CR1 panel data which had
493 slight signal shifts as described above. Subsequently, dye aggregates were removed by
494 manual gating to avoid artefacts. The cleaned events were exported as new fcs files and
495 used for R-implemented tSNE (version 0.15) and FlowSOM (version 1.20.0). For
496 FlowSOM, 40 clusters were defined for CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells and 30 clusters for all
497 other immune subsets. For clustering, markers used to initially define and extract these
498 immune subsets were excluded from the clustering analysis (Supplementary Table 3).
499 We excluded these markers to avoid parsing of background signal or uniform expression
500 into artificial subpopulations (*55*). Clusters with unusual expression pattern occurred likely
501 because of residual immune cell contaminations and were removed from downstream
502 analysis (Supplementary Table 4). Raw data output from FlowSOM and tSNE analysis
503 are visualized in Supplementary Data 8-13. Subsequent analysis was performed with
504 remaining 388 FlowSOM clusters (B cells, N=60; myeloid cells, N=60; innate-like T cells,
505 N=78; conventional CD4 T cells, N=76; conventional CD8 T cells, N=76; and NK cells,
506 N=38). For tSNE, 50000 cells (27583 cells for innate-like T cells and 25000 for NK cells)
507 from each severity group were concatenated prior to tSNE analysis (perplexity = 30, theta
508 = 0.5, 5000 iterations) in order to maintain priority for tSNE computation equal among
509 patient groups. Fewer cells were used for TSNE in the case of innate-like T cells due to
510 limited numbers of cells in the critical COVID-19 group (total 27583 cells from all patients).
511 We expected lower diversity of NK cell subsets and therefore used 25000 cells per study
512 group for tSNE.

513

514

515 <u>Statistical analysis</u>

516

517 *Exclusion of individuals*

518 Samples with considerable number of missing manually defined immune trait values were

519 excluded using the missCompare (version 1.0.3) package in R. A cut-off of 10% was

520 applied (i.e. samples with more than 10% missing values were excluded). Two individuals

521 were excluded based on missingness of values for immune traits. None of the immune

522 traits were excluded based on missingness (Cut-off of 80% missing values). For

523 FlowSOM analysis, same samples were used according to the missingness analysis on

524 manually defined traits. Of note, the FlowSOM model was trained on all samples

525 irrespective of missingness to ensure maximum number of cells per study group to train

526 the FlowSOM model.

527

528 *Assessment of long-term immune perturbations*

529 We distinguished immune traits which were affected by long-term immune perturbations

530 or at steady-state within moderate and severe COVID-19 group. We focused on these

531 two study groups because they span across the longest period between symptom onset

532 and sample collection enabling the most precise analysis of long-term immune

533 trajectories after symptom onset (Extended Data Fig. 1a). Of note, age correlated with

534 hospitalization length in severe but not critical cases and was significantly shorter in

535 severe COVID-19 cases (Extended Data Figs. 1b and c). We used linear regression

536 between rank-normalized immune traits derived from both unsupervised clustering and

537 manual analysis and length of time in days between symptom onset and sample

538 collection. In addition, we compared immune traits in samples with less or more than 60

539 days between symptom onset and sample collection using Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

540 Long-term perturbated traits were defined as manually defined immune traits with

541 unadjusted $P < 0.001$ in at least one of the analyses (N = 24).

542

543 *Identification of immune traits predictive for COVID-19 severity*

544   Immune traits and FlowSOM clusters with unadjusted P > 0.05 in both analyses described

545   above (linear regression and Wilcoxon signed-rank test) were defined as stable immune

546   traits at steady-state (1365 manually defined immune traits and 291 FlowSOM clusters)

547   and were used to predict immune signatures associated with the development of severe

548   COVID-19. We rank-normalized the data and used logistic regression between

549   mild/moderate (group non-severe) and severe/critical (group severe) cases and corrected

550   for age and experiment (batch). P-values were adjusted using Benjamini-Hochberg false

551   discovery rate (*56*) and adjusted P-values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

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Author contribution

Conceptualization: T.L and M.R.

Experiments: T.L and Y.I.

Data curation: T.L, M.M. and M.R.

Formal analysis: T.L, M.M. and M.R.

Funding acquisition: M.R.

591   Methodology: T.L and M.R.

592   Project administration: T.L and M.R.

593   Resources: All other

594   Supervision: T.L and M.R.

595   Validation: T.L, M.M. and M.R.

596   Visualization: T.L and M.R.

597   Writing—original draft: T.L and M.R.

598

599   **Competing interests**

600   None

601

602

603   **Data and materials availability**

604   All data are available in the main text or the supplementary materials. Flow cytometry

605   data corrected for spectral overlap (compensated) are available on FlowRepository

606   (LINK) and contains pre-gated viable cells.

607

608

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Figures

898 **Figure 1: Expression of functional markers and temporal dynamics of immune**

899 **traits in COVID-19**

900 **a)** Expression of chemokine receptors, CD40, CD86, IFNAR2, CD39 and TIGIT (rows) on

901 immune cell populations (columns) is depicted. Median of mean fluorescence intensities

902 (MFI) derived from 173 healthy individuals is visualized by min-max normalized color

903 gradient. Dot size corresponds to median percentage of cells expressing these markers.

904 Missing dots indicate that marker was not measured.

905 **b)** Immune traits (N = 1779) at baseline or affected by long-term perturbations were

906 distinguished in individuals recovered from moderate (left) and severe (right) COVID-19

907 cases. A combination of I) linear regression analysis between immune traits and days

908 between symptom onset and sample collection and II) comparison of samples collected

909 before and after 60 days of symptom onset using a Wilcoxon test was used as described

910 in Online methods. Plot shows unadjusted -log10 P-values from both analyses. Dot size

911 increases with significance from Wilcoxon test. Trait types are colored (Frequency of

912 immune subset in blue, Frequency of expressing functional marker in orange and MFI

913 values in green). Red line highlights threshold for unadjusted significance (P = 0.05).

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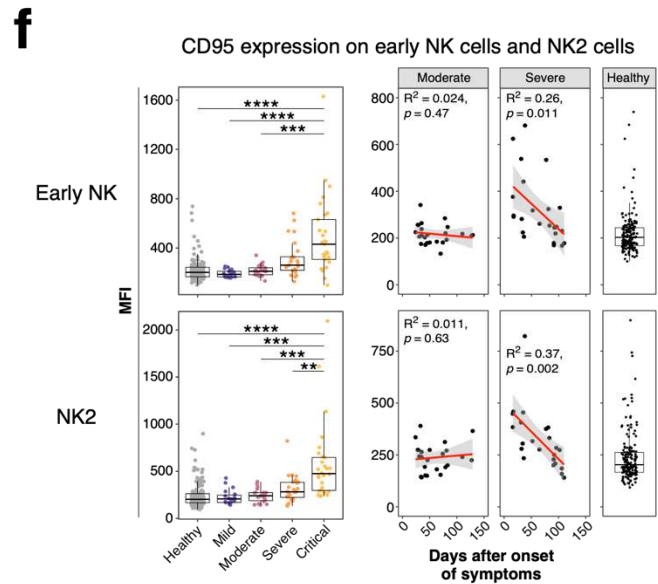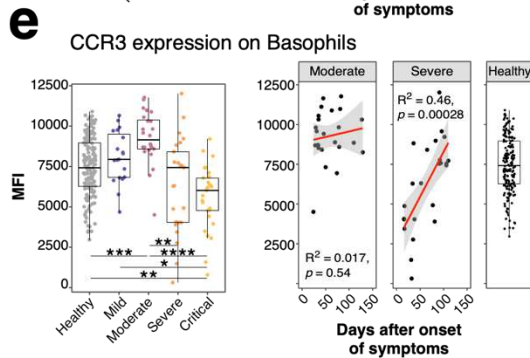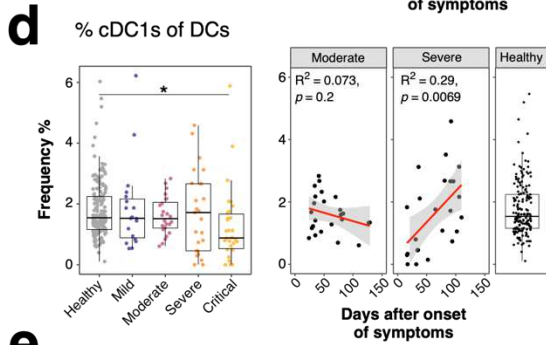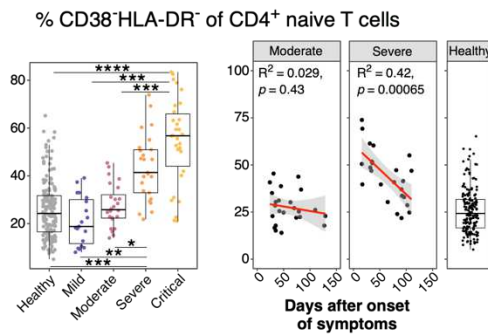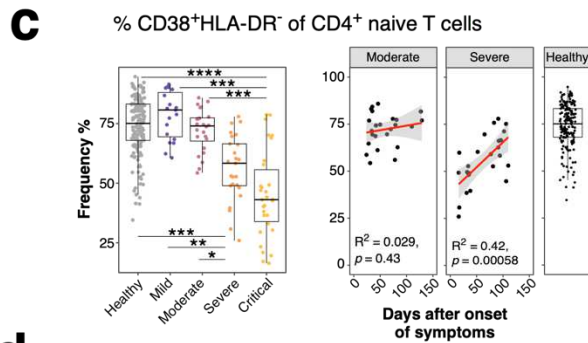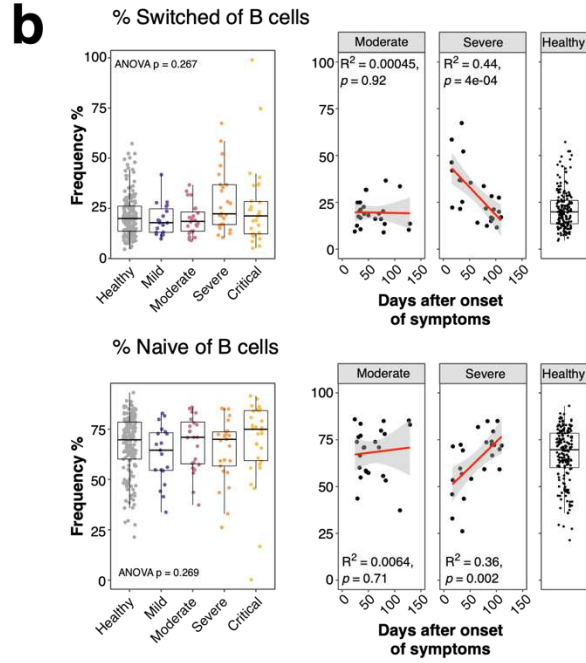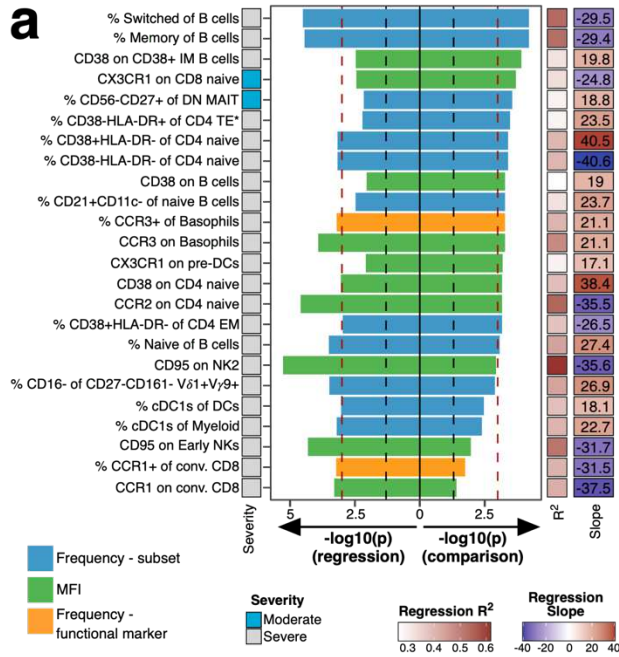
916 **Figure 2: Long-term perturbations of immune traits in COVID-19**

917 **a)** Top immune traits affected by long-term perturbations are depicted. Traits are derived

918 from analysis in Figure 1b and selected for P-value <0.001 in one of both analysis (linear

919 regression and/or Wilcoxon test). Bars pointing to the left and right are derived from linear

920 regression and Wilcoxon test, respectively, and are colored based on trait type

921 (Frequency of immune subset in blue, Frequency of expressing functional marker in

922 orange and MFI values in green). Colored bar on the left depicts severity group from

923 which the significant trait is derived. R^2 and slope from linear regression are shown as

924 colored bars on the right. Values in the right bar are slope values from linear regression.

925 Red and black dashed lines show P-value cut-off of 0.001 and 0.05, respectively.

926 **b)** Frequencies of switched (top row) and naïve (bottom row) B cells of total B cells are

927 shown. Plot on the left shows frequencies as boxplots for healthy subjects (grey) and

928 individuals recovered from mild (purple), moderate (burgundy), severe (orange) or critical

929 COVID-19 (yellow). The two plots on the right show the frequency of cells as a function

930 of time between symptom onset and sample collection for individuals recovered from

931 moderate and severe COVID-19. Far right plot shows the distribution of the traits in 173

932 healthy individuals. Similar to Fig. 2b, dynamics of **c)** CD38$^+$HLA-DR$^-$ (left) and CD38$^-$

933 HLA-DR$^-$ of CD4 naïve T cells (right), **d)** frequencies of cDC1s of total DCs, **e)** CCR3 MFI

934 of basophils and **f)** CD95 MFI of early NK and NK2 cells are shown.

935 Age-corrected residuals from linear regression were used for statistical analysis. For

936 comparison between groups, one-way ANOVA was used on residuals to test for overall

937 significant difference prior to Wilcoxon test with Bonferroni correction. Second and third

938 plot show dot plots with linear regression (red line) and 95% confidence interval for

939 individuals recovered from moderate and severe COVID-19, respectively. * P < 0.05, **

940 P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, **** P < 0.0001

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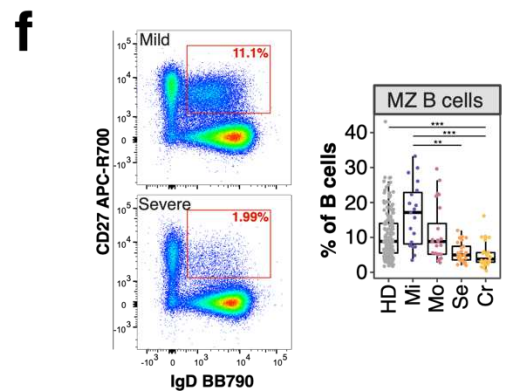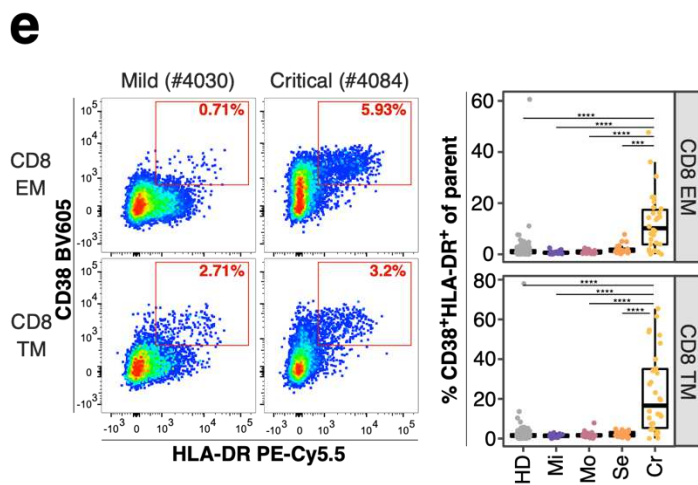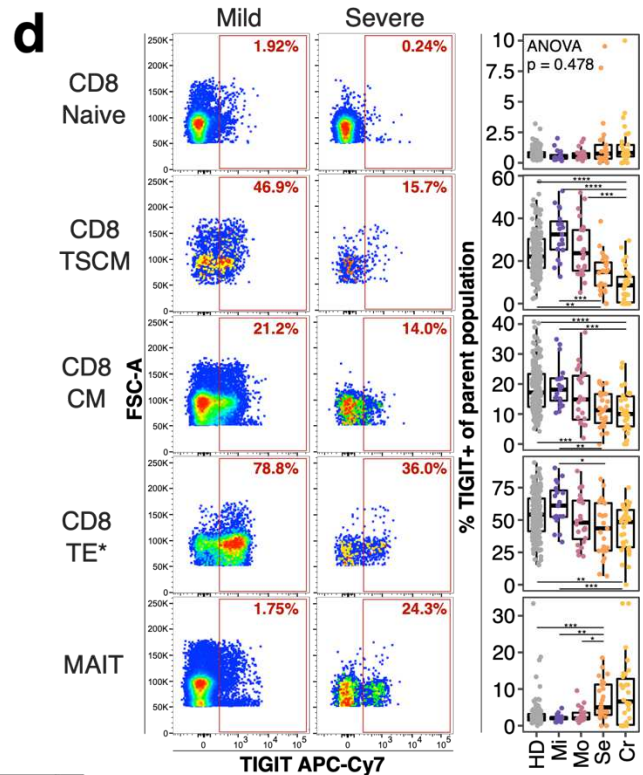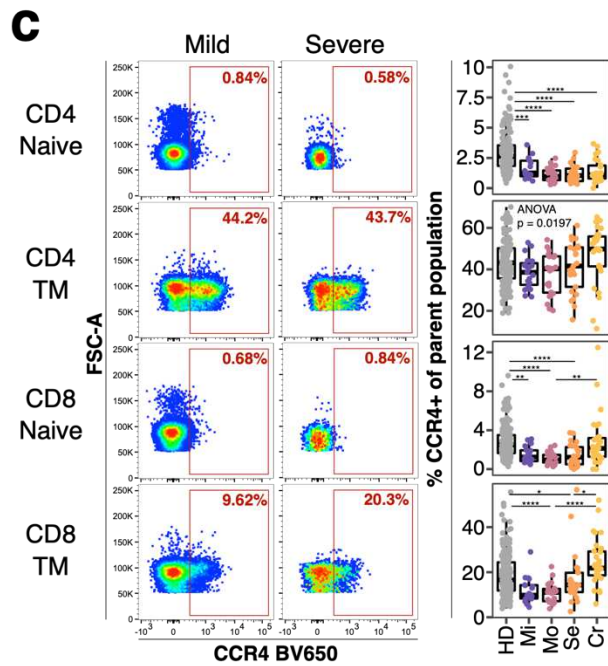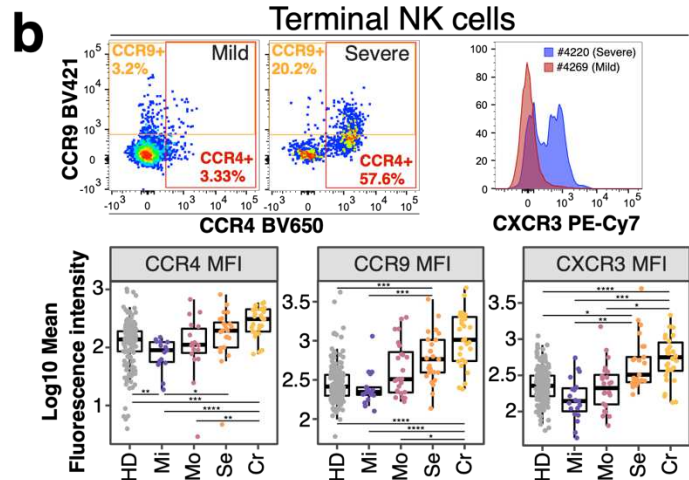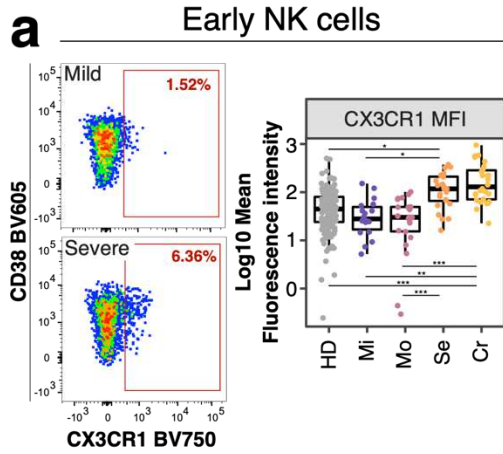
Figure 3: Potential immune features at baseline predicting COVID-19 severity

a) Flow cytometry data (left) depicts CX3CR1 expression on early NK cells from an individual recovered from mild (top) and severe (bottom) COVID-19. Quantification of mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of CX3CR1 on early NK cells is shown as boxplot for all study groups.

b) Flow cytometry dot plots on top row (left and middle plot) depicts expression of CCR4 and CCR9 for a mild and severe COVID-19 case. Histogram overlay shows CXCR3 expression for the same cell subset and donors. MFI values for the same receptors are shown as boxplots for all groups (bottom row).

c) Flow cytometry plot depicts expression of CCR4 on CD4$^+$ naïve (top row), CD4$^+$ transitional memory (TM, second row), CD8$^+$ naïve (third row) and CD8$^+$ TM (bottom row) T cells from an individual recovered from mild (left column) or severe (right column) COVID-19. Quantification of these subsets in all study groups are shown as boxplots (right).

d) Flow cytometry plot depicts TIGIT expression on CD8$^+$ naïve (top row), CD8$^+$ stem-cell like memory (TSCM, second row), CD8$^+$ central memory (CM, third row), CD8$^+$ terminal effector* (TE*, fourth row) T cells and MAIT cells (bottom row) from an individual recovered from mild (left column) and severe (right column) COVID-19. Quantification of these subsets in all study groups are shown as boxplots (right).

e) Flow cytometry data (left) depicts CD38 and HLA-DR expression on CD8 effector (EM; top) and terminal (TM; bottom) memory T cells from an individual recovered from mild (left) and critical (right) COVID-19. The gate defines CD38$^+$HLA-DR$^+$ activated T cells. Quantification of these subsets in all study groups are shown as boxplots (right).

f) Flow cytometry example data (left) for gating of marginal zone (MZ) B cells from total B cells in an individual recovered from mild and severe COVID-19 is shown. Boxplot (right) shows frequencies of MZ B cells of total B cells in all study groups.

Residuals from linear regression between immune trait and age were used to calculate statistics on age-corrected data. ANOVA with subsequent Wilcoxon test and Bonferroni correction on residuals was performed for statistics highlighted in boxplots. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, **** $P < 0.0001$
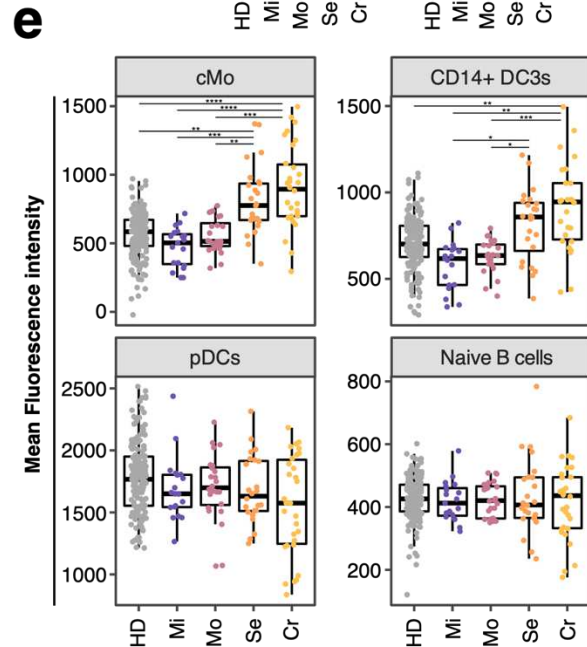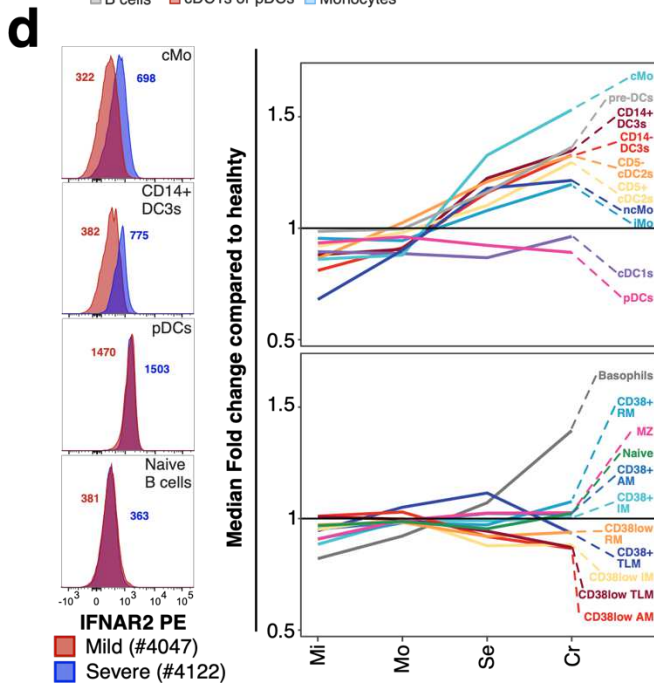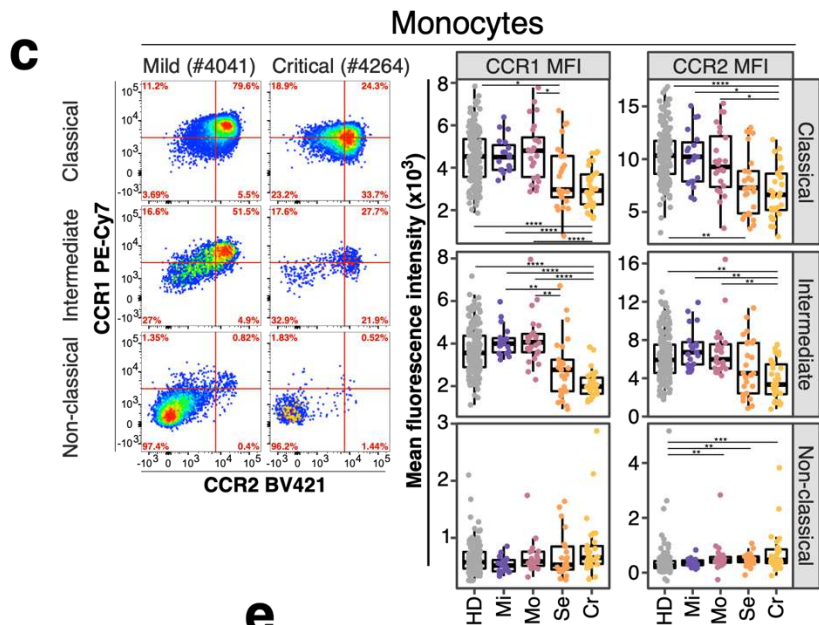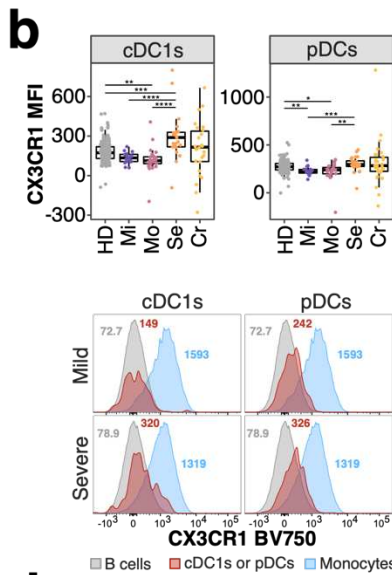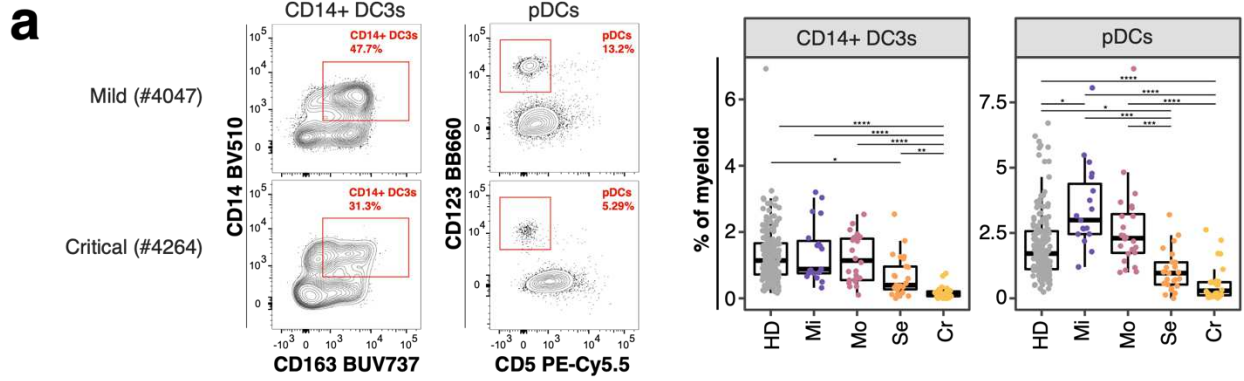
Figure 4: Innate immune signatures predict COVID-19 severity

a) Example flow cytometry data for frequencies of pDCs from myeloid cells and inflammatory CD14$^+$ DC3s of total DC3s is shown from an individual recovered from mild (top) and critical (bottom) COVID-19. Corresponding enumeration for all subjects based on study group are shown as boxplots (right). Precise delineation of pDCs is shown in Supplementary Data 1.

b) Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of CX3CR1 on cDC1s (left) and pDCs (right) is shown for all study groups as boxplot (top row). Example flow cytometry data for CX3CR1 signal (red peak) on cDC1s (first column) and pDCs (second column) is shown as histogram for an individual recovered from mild (top row) and severe (bottom row) COVID-19. B cells (grey) and Monocytes (blue) are overlaid as reference populations known to lack and express CX3CR1, respectively. Numbers in histogram plots highlight MFI.

c) Flow cytometry data (left) depicts CCR1 and CCR2 expression on classical (top), intermediate (middle) and non-classical (bottom) monocytes from a patient recovered from mild (left column) and critical (right column) COVID-19. Boxplots (right) show MFI values of CCR1 (first column) and CCR2 (second column) on the same monocyte populations for all study groups.

d) Expression of IFNAR2 from an individual recovered from mild (red) and severe (blue) COVID-19 is shown as overlaid histogram (left) for classical monocytes (top), CD14$^+$ DC3s (second row), pDCs (third row) and naïve B cells (bottom). Plot on the right depicts fold change of median IFNAR2 expression of each disease severity group compared to median IFNAR2 expression of healthy individuals on all defined myeloid (top) and non-myeloid (bottom) subsets.

e) Boxplots show IFNAR2 MFI for all study groups for classical monocytes, CD14+ DC3s, pDCs and naïve B cells.

Residuals from linear regression between immune trait and age were used to calculate statistics on age-corrected data. ANOVA with subsequent Wilcoxon test and Bonferroni correction on residuals was performed for statistics highlighted in boxplots. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, **** P < 0.0001
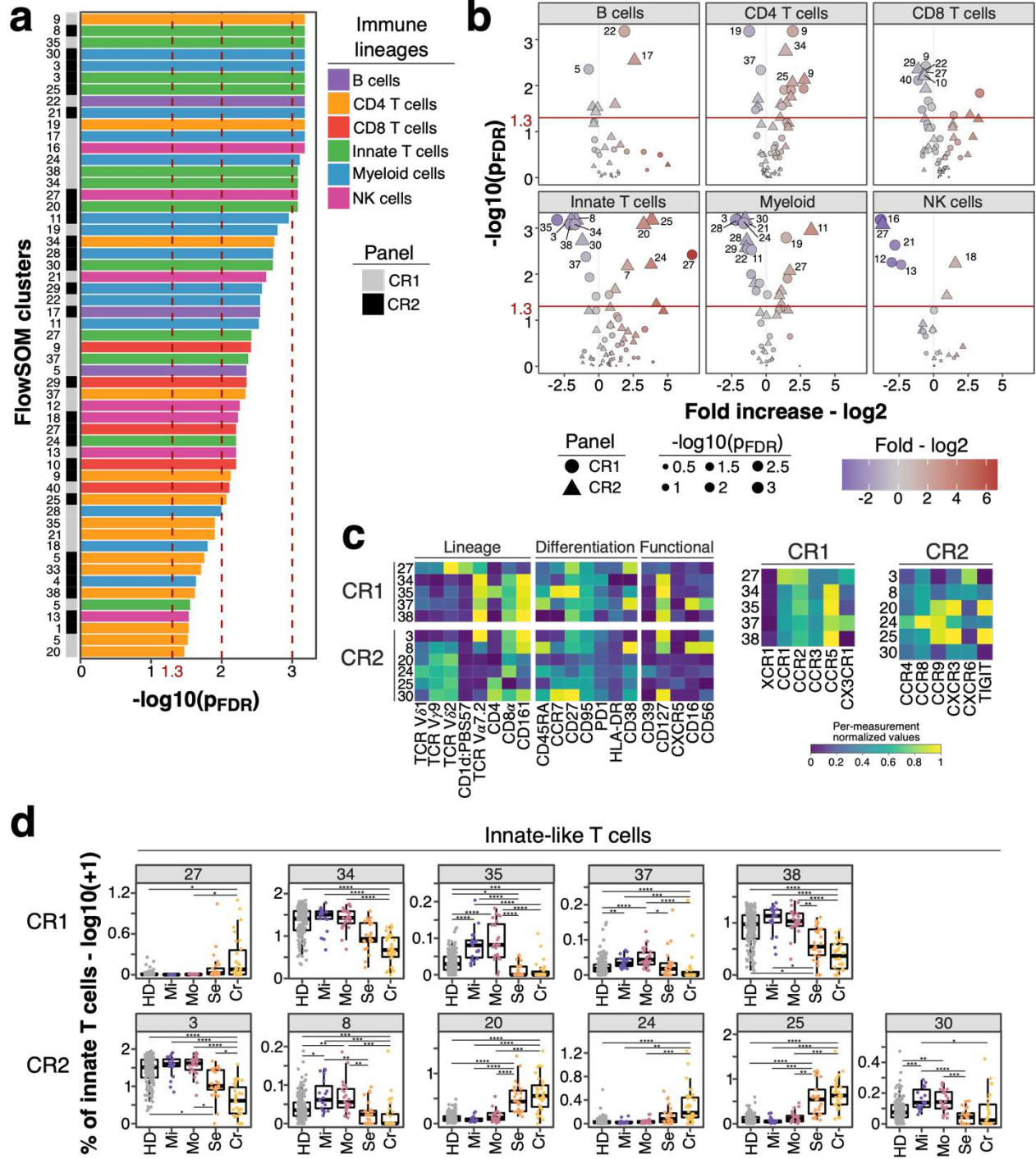
Figure 5: Unsupervised analysis of immune system in individuals recovered from non-severe and severe COVID-19

a) FDR-adjusted -log10 P-values of FlowSOM clusters (N = 55) which differ significantly (P < 0.05) between individuals recovered from non-severe (mild/moderate) and severe (severe/critical) COVID-19 are shown. Bars are colored based on lineage (B cells, purple; CD4 T cells, orange; CD8 T cells, red; innate-like T cells, green; myeloid cells, blue; NK cells, pink). Bar on the left indicates whether traits originate from chemokine receptor panel 1 (CR1, grey) or 2 (CR2, black).

b) Volcano plots show FDR-adjusted -log10 P-values and log2 fold change derived from comparison of FlowSOM clusters between individuals recovered from non-severe and severe COVID-19 cases. Main lineages are depicted in separated plots and contain FlowSOM clusters from both panels CR1 (circle) and CR2 (triangle). Data point size corresponds to -log10 P-values and color indicates log2 fold change.

c) Heatmap depicts normalized median fluorescence intensity (MFI) values for lineage, differentiation and functional markers from top significant innate-like T cell clusters (Fig. 5a, P < 0.01). Values derived from CR1 (top) and CR2 (bottom) panels are separated. Heatmaps on the right highlight expression of markers specific for CR1 and CR2 panels including chemokine receptors, co-stimulatory markers and IFNAR2. Values are normalized based on trimmed 1-99% percentile values. Complete heatmaps for all innate-like T cell clusters are shown in Supplementary Data 12.

d) Frequencies for same clusters described in Figure 5c are shown as boxplots based on study group. Values are log10(+ 1) transformed and plotted on linear scale.

Logistic regression with correction for age and experiment batch was used to identify significant clusters between non-severe and severe COVID-19. Only FlowSOM clusters (N = 291) which did not show temporal changes within moderate and severe COVID-19 cases are shown as described in the Online methods section and results (Extended Data Fig. 5a). Residuals from linear regression between immune trait and age were used to calculate statistics on age-corrected data. ANOVA with subsequent Wilcoxon test and Bonferroni correction on residuals was performed for statistics highlighted in boxplots. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, **** P < 0.0001
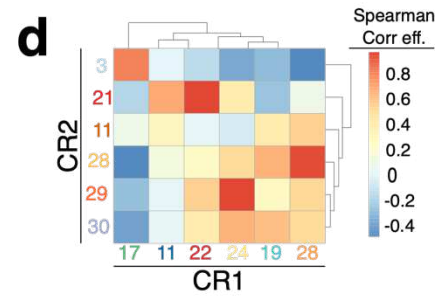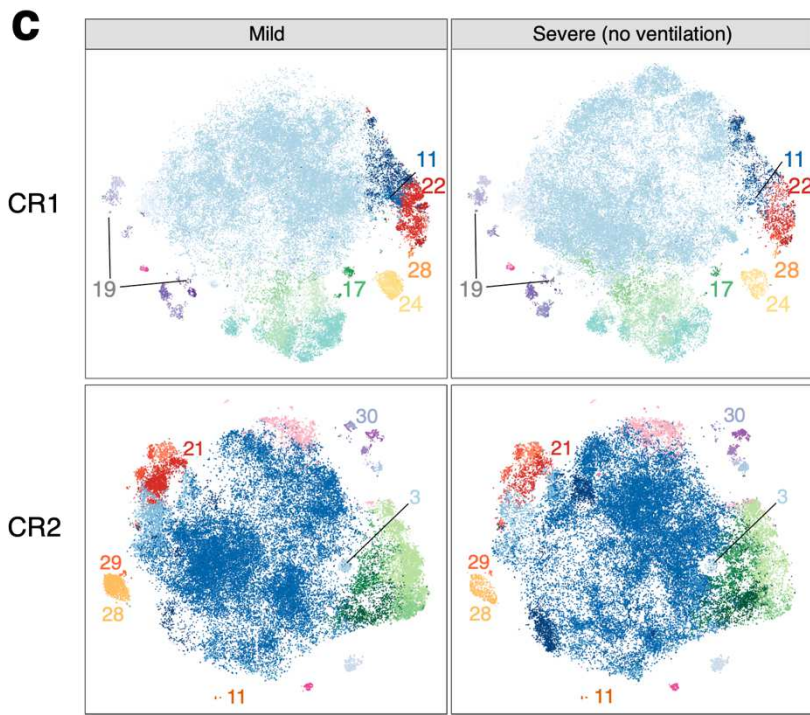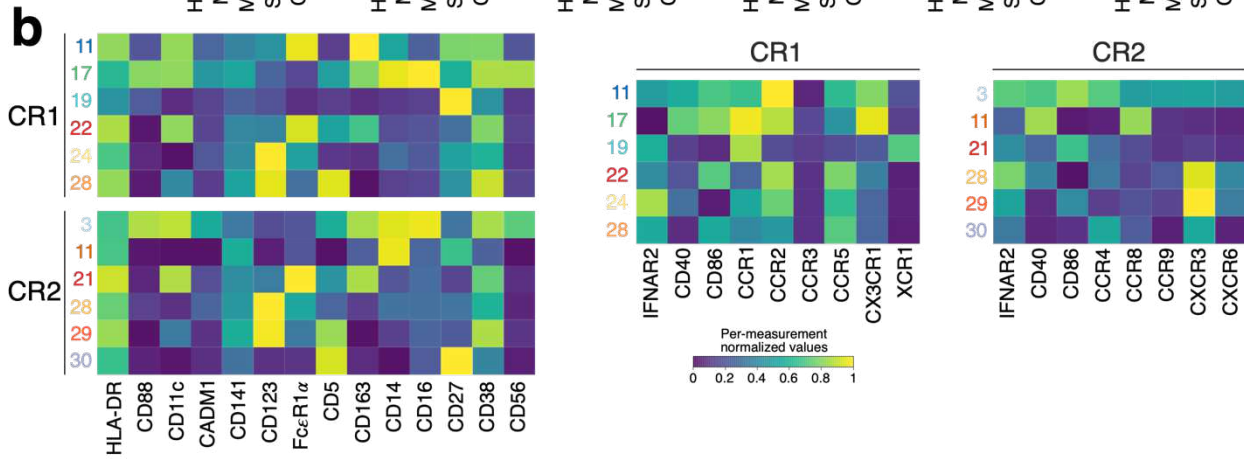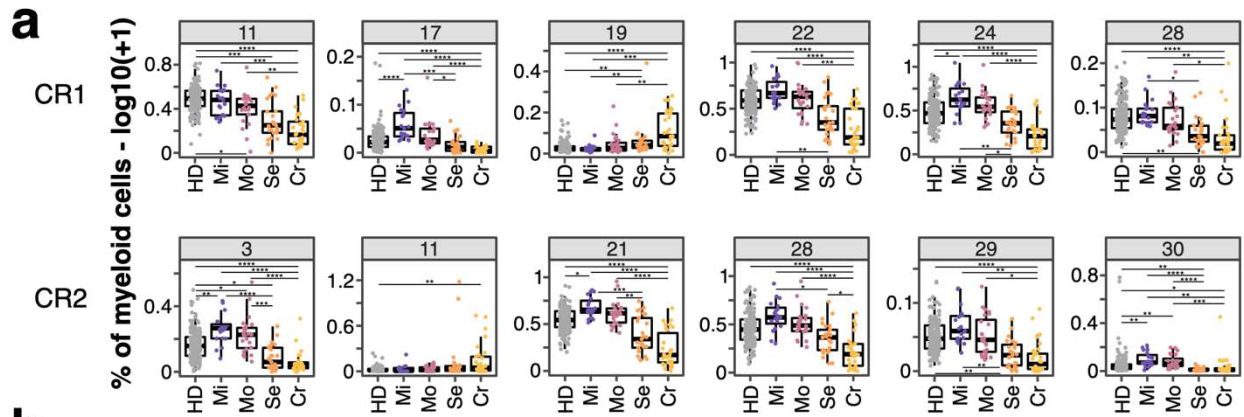
1046 **Figure 6: Myeloid cell populations from FlowSOM analysis as potential predictor**

1047 **for disease outcome**

1048 **a)** Frequencies (log10 +1) of myeloid cell clusters among top hits (P < 0.01) described in

1049 Figure 5a are shown for CR1 (top row) and CR2 panel (bottom row). Values are log10(+

1050 1) transformed and plotted on linear scale. Residuals from linear regression between

1051 immune trait and age were used to calculate statistics on age-corrected data. ANOVA

1052 with subsequent Wilcoxon test and Bonferroni correction on residuals was performed for

1053 statistics highlighted in boxplots. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, **** P < 0.0001

1054 **b)** Heatmaps showing normalized median fluorescence intensity (MFI) values for clusters

1055 described in Figure 6a are shown. Heatmaps on the left show markers used to delineate

1056 immune cell subsets. On the right, heatmaps depict CR panel-specific markers. Values

1057 are normalized based on trimmed 1-99% percentile values.

1058 **c)** tSNE plots with myeloid cells from individuals recovered from mild (left column) or

1059 severe (right column) COVID-19 are shown. Data from panels CR1 and CR2 are shown

1060 in the top and bottom row, respectively. Each plot contains 50'000 subsampled myeloid

1061 cells (gating shown in Supplementary Data 1). Dots are colored based on FlowSOM

1062 cluster annotation and full data is shown in Supplementary Data 9. Clusters described in

1063 Figs. 6a and b are annotated and highlighted.

1064 **d)** Spearman analysis of normalized MFI values between clusters described in Figure 6a

1065 is shown in order to estimate the phenotypic overlap between CR1 and CR2 panel.

1066 Heatmap depicts Spearman correlation coefficient.

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Extended Data Figures

Title: Immune phenotypes that predict COVID-19 severity

Thomas Liechti[1], Yaser Iftikhar[1], Massimo Mangino[2,3], Margaret Beddall[1], Charles W. Goss[4], Jane A. O'Halloran[5], Philip Mudd[6], Mario Roederer[1]

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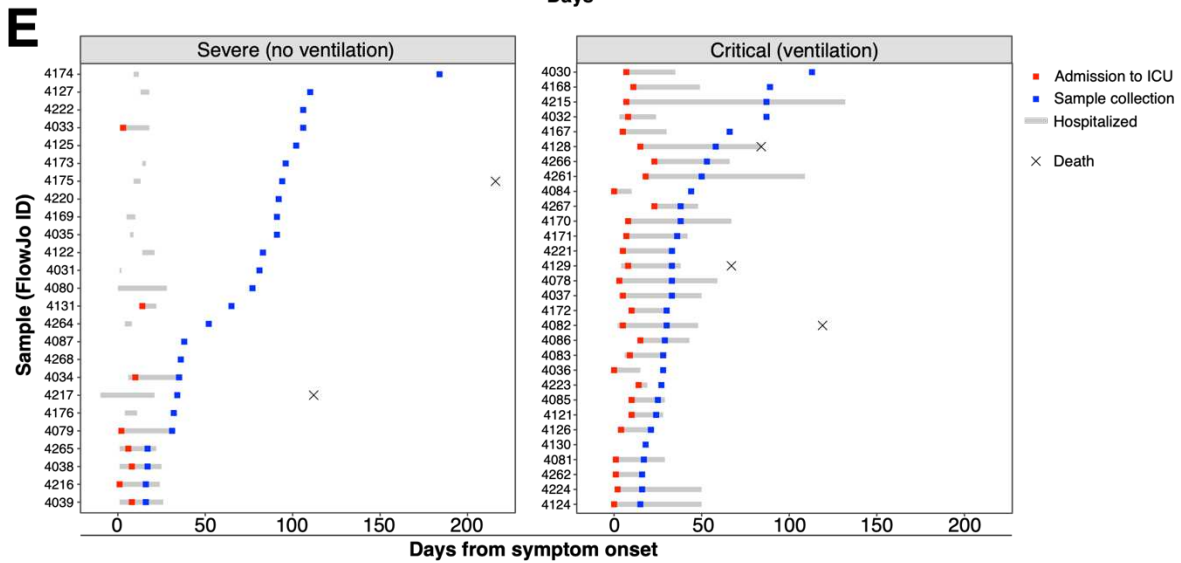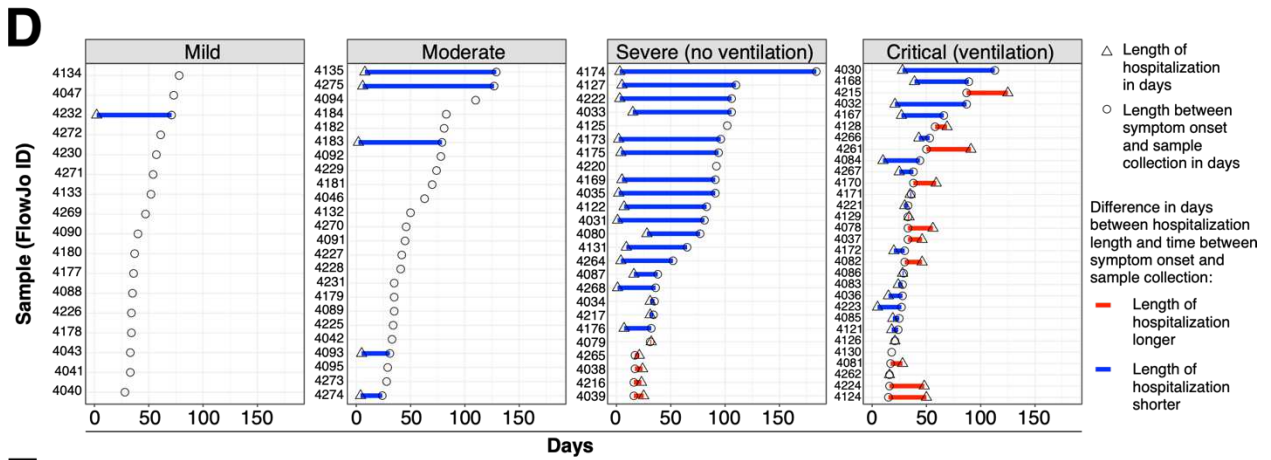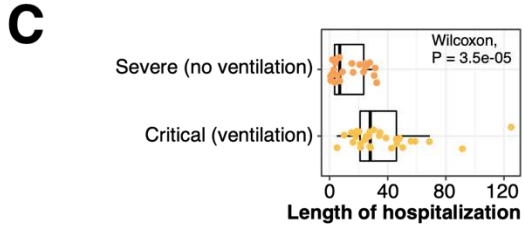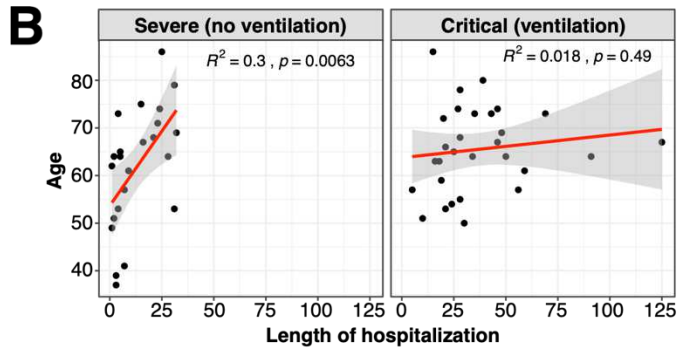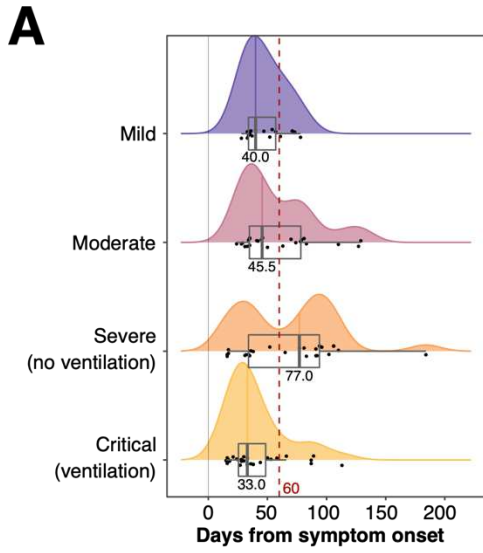
Extended Data Figure 1: Cohorts and timing of sample collection

a) Distribution of days between symptom onset and sample collection is shown as histograms and boxplots for individuals recovered from mild, moderate, severe and critical COVID-19 cases. Individuals are highlighted as dots within boxplot. Red dashed line indicates 60 days cutoff which was used for analysis shown in Figures 1b and 2a and Extended Data Figure 5a. Information about time between symptom onset and sample collection was unavailable for two samples from the mild COVID-19 group.

b) Linear regression between length of hospitalization in days and age is shown for severe and critical COVID-19 cases.

c) Boxplot shows length of hospitalization in days for severe and critical COVID-19 cases. Wilcoxon test was performed to determine significant difference between severe and critical COVID-19 cases.

d) Length of hospitalization in days (x-axis) is shown as triangle and circles highlight length in days between symptom onset and sample collection. Donors are depicted in rows (y-axis). Symbols from hospitalized individuals are connected by colored bar. Blue or red bars highlight if length of hospitalization is shorter or longer, respectively. COVID-19 study groups based on severity are shown separately.

e) Length of hospitalization (grey bar), admission to ICU (red symbol) and sample collection (blue symbol) based on days from symptom onset is shown for severe and critical COVID-19 cases. Death is indicated by cross.

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	Healthy	Mild	Moderate	Severe (no ventilation)	Critical (ventilation)
Samples (N)	173	19	24	25	30
Age median (IQR)	50 (36-60)	39 (33.5-49)	50.5 (32-59)	64 (51-69)	64.5 (57.5-72.75)
Age range	18-70	26-59	22-77	37-86	43-86
Gender (F/M)	76 / 97	7 / 12	13 / 11	9 / 16	11 / 18*
Median days between symptom onset and sample collection (IQR)	NA	40 (34-57)	45.5 (34.75-78.25)	77 (34-94)	33 (25.5-48.5)
Range days between symptom onset and sample collection	NA	28-78	24-129	16-184	15-113
Hospitalized (N)	NA	1	5	23	30
Median days hospitalized (IQR)	NA	2	5 (4-6)	7 (3.5-23.5)	28 (21-46)
Range days hospitalized	NA	2	2-8	1-32	5-125
ICU (N)	NA	NA	NA	8	30

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46 * Gender information not available for one individual.

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49 **Extended Data Figure 2: Demographics summary**

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a All samples

b Decreased in Severe COVID-19 / Increased in Severe COVID-19

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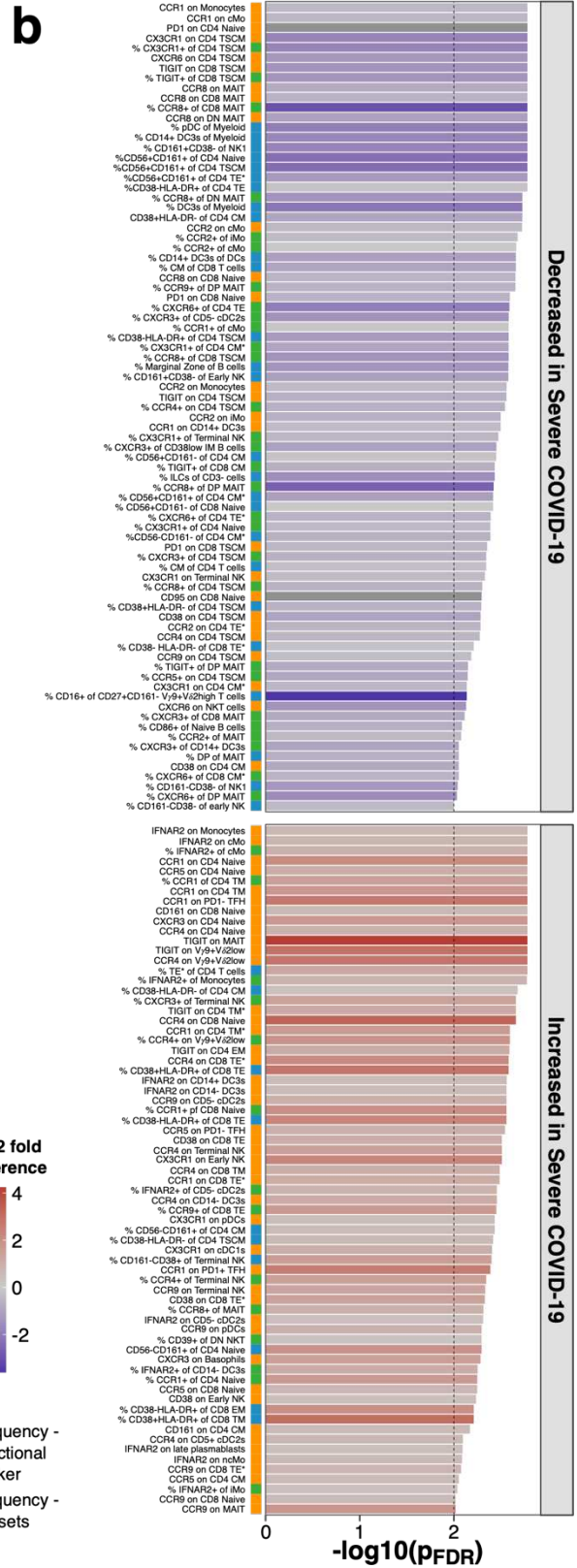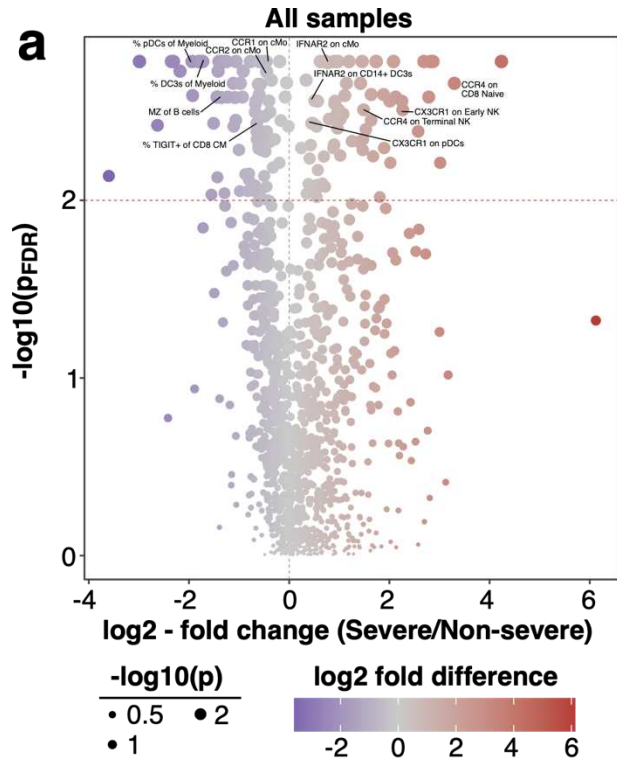
Extended Data Figure 3: Comparison of individuals recovered from non-severe and severe COVID-19

a) Volcano plot shows comparison of individuals recovered from non-severe (mild/moderate) and severe (severe/critical) COVID-19. P-values were obtained from logistic regression, included correction for age and experiment and were corrected for multiple testing using Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery rate. Log2 fold change was calculated based on the mean of immune traits within non-severe and severe COVID-19 cases. P-values are shown as -log10.
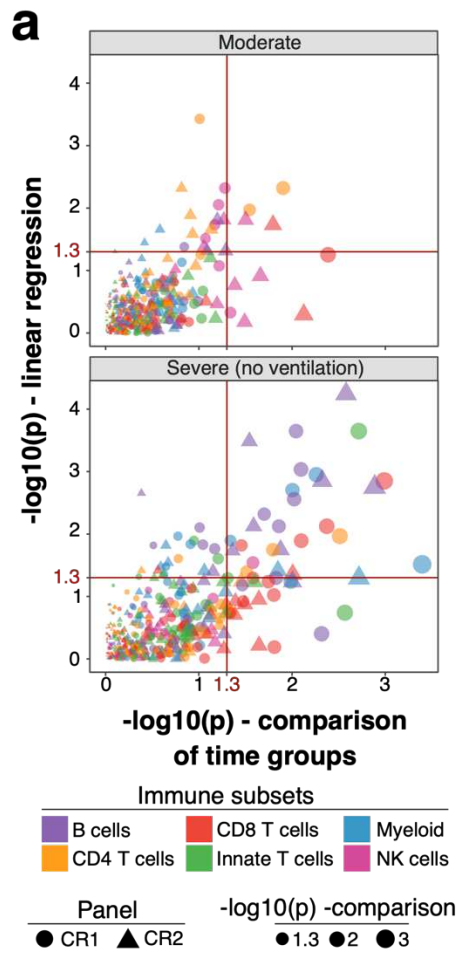
b) Bar graph shows FDR-adjusted -log10 P-values for significant immune traits with P < 0.01 derived from Extended Data Figure 3a. Bars are colored based on log2 fold change and split based on decrease (top) or increase (bottom) in individuals recovered from severe COVID-19. Bar on the left indicates trait type.

a Only individuals not hospitalized or released at sample collection

b Decreased in severe COVID-19 / Increased in Severe COVID-19

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d Overlap of significant immune traits

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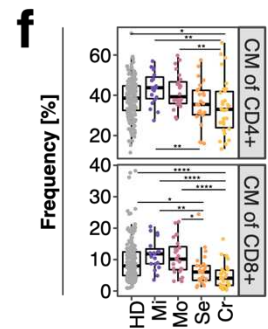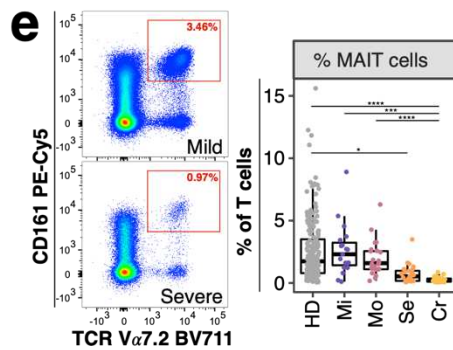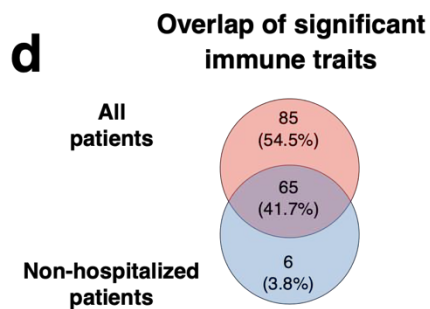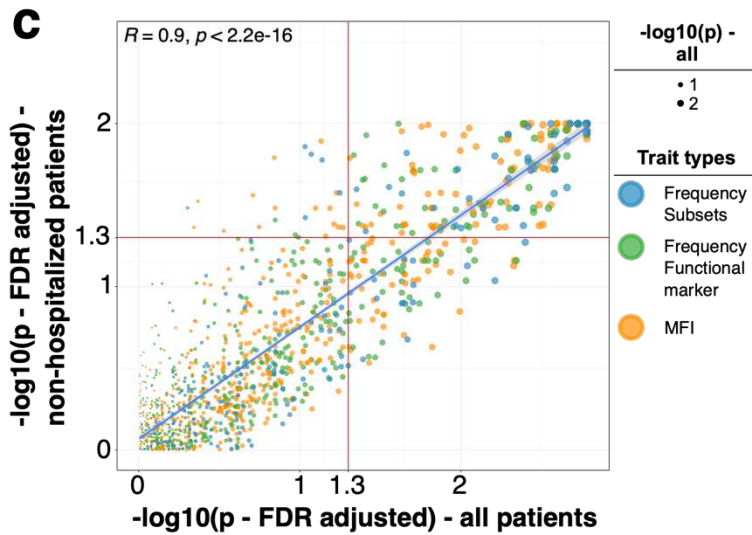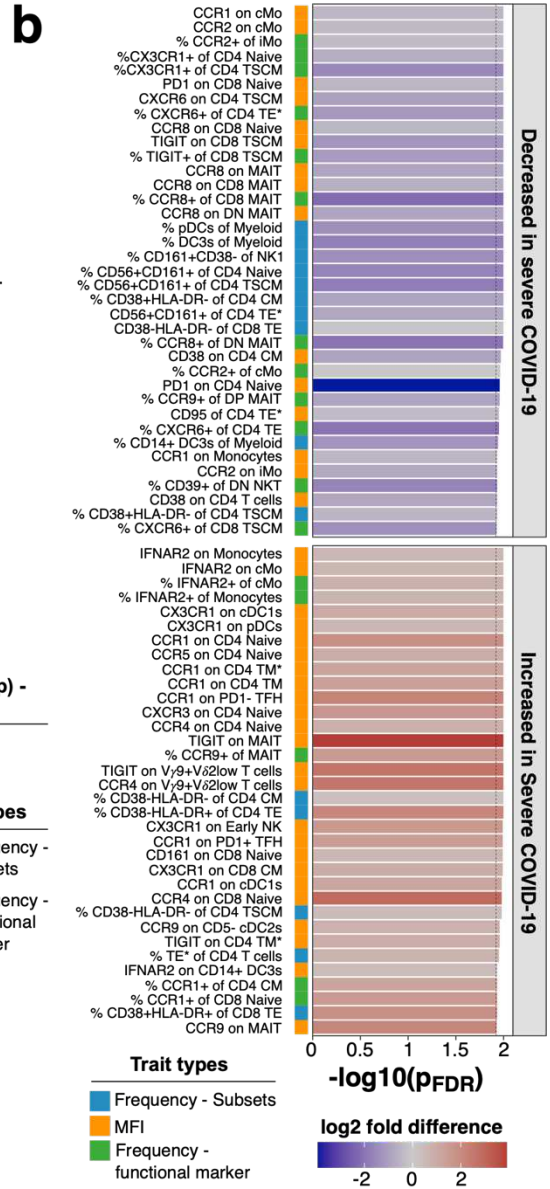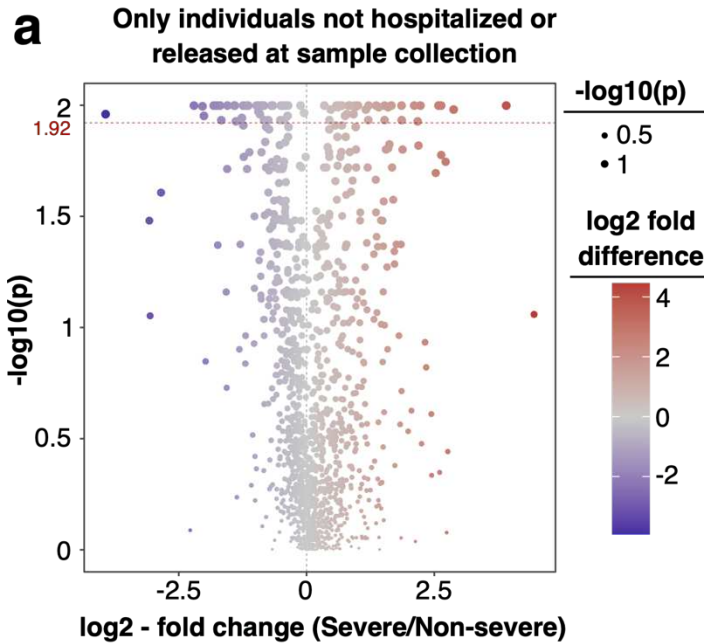
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79 **Extended Data Figure 4: Comparison of analysis between all and non-hospitalized**

80 **individuals at time of sample collection**

81 **a)** Volcano plot shows comparison of individuals recovered from non-severe

82 (mild/moderate) and severe (severe/critical) COVID-19. Only individuals not hospitalized

83 or discharged at day of sample collection are included. P-values were obtained from

84 logistic regression, included correction for age and experiment and were corrected for

85 multiple testing using Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery rate. Log2 fold change was

86 calculated based on the mean of immune traits within non-severe and severe COVID-19

87 cases. P-values are shown as -log10.

88 **b)** Bar graph shows FDR-adjusted -log10 P-values for immune traits significantly

89 different between non-severe and severe COVID-19 cases (cut-off for P-value < 0.012).

90 Plot is similar to Extended Data Figure 3b but depicts P-values obtained with only

91 individuals not hospitalized or released at day of sample collection. Bar on the left

92 indicates the immune trait type. Color of bars indicate log2 fold change between non-

93 severe and severe COVID-19 cases calculated as the ratio between the mean of

94 immune traits between the two severity groups.

95 **c)** Comparison of stable immune traits between non-severe and severe COVID-19

96 cases including either all individuals (x-axis) or only individuals not hospitalized or

97 released at day of sample collection (y-axis) is shown. Plot shows FDR-adjusted -log10

98 P-values for manually gated immune traits (N = 801). P-values were obtained by logistic

99 regression and corrected for age and experiment batch. Size of symbols is based on -

100 log10 P-values from analysis including all individuals. Color depicts the type of trait.

101 **d)** Venn graph depicts overlap of immune traits which differed between non-severe and

102 severe COVID-19 group obtained from analysis including all (red circle, traits from

103 Extended Data Fig. 3b) or only non-hospitalized individuals (blue circle, traits from

104 Extended Data Fig. 4b).

105 **e)** Example flow cytometry data and gating of MAIT cells is shown (left) for one donor

106 recovered from mild and severe COVID-19. Boxplot (right) shows frequency of MAIT cells

107 per group. More detailed gating information is shown in Supplementary Data 3.

108 **f)** Boxplots show frequencies of CD4 (top) and CD8 (bottom) central memory (CM) cells

109 of conventional CD4 and CD8 T cells, respectively, from all study groups.

a

Moderate

Severe (no ventilation)

-log10(p) - linear regression

-log10(p) - comparison
of time groups

Immune subsets

B cells
CD4 T cells
CD8 T cells
Innate T cells
Myeloid
NK cells

Panel
● CR1 ▲ CR2

-log10(p) -comparison
● 1.3 ● 2 ● 3

b

$R = 0.9, p < 2.2e\text{-}16$

-log10(p_{FDR}) - Severe/Non-severe COVID
(non-hospitalized)

-log10(p_{FDR}) - Severe/Non-severe COVID (all patients)

Immune subsets

B cells
CD4 T cells
CD8 T cells
Innate T cells
Myeloid
NK cells

Panel
● CR1 ▲ CR2

-log10(p_{FDR}) all
● 0.5 ● 2
● 1 ● 3

c

Overlap of singificant FlowSOM clusters

All patients: 27 (57.4%) 18 (38.3%) 2 (4.3%) : Non-hospitalized patients

Extended Data Figure 5: Dynamics of FlowSOM clusters in COVID-19

a) FlowSOM clusters affected by long-term perturbations were identified in individuals recovered from moderate (top) or severe COVID-19 (bottom) either by linear regression of cluster frequency and days between symptom onset and sample collection or Wilcoxon analysis of cluster frequency between early and late timepoints (cut-off >60 days between symptom onset and sample collection). -log10 P-values from both analyses are shown for All 388 FlowSOM clusters. P-value cutoff of 0.05 is shown by red line. Symbols are colored based on lineage and shaped based on CR1 (circle) or CR2 (triangle) panel. Symbol size is according to -log10 P-value from Wilcoxon analysis.

b) Graph shows FDR-adjusted -log10 P-values derived from comparison of stable FlowSOM cluster (N = 291) frequencies between individuals recovered from non-severe and severe COVID-19. Analyses included either all individuals (x-axis) and only individuals not hospitalized or released at day of sample collection (y-axis). P-values were obtained by logistic regression correcting for age and experiment batch. Symbols are colored based on lineage and shape corresponds to CR1 or CR2 panel. Symbol size is based on FDR-adjusted -log10 P-value derived from analysis with all individuals.

c) Venn graph shows overlap of significant FlowSOM clusters between individuals recovered from non-severe and severe COVID-19 from analysis including either all individuals (red circle) or only individuals not hospitalized or released at day of sample collection (blue circle).

138 **Extended Data Figure 6: Expression pattern of significant innate-like T cell**

139 **clusters between non-severe and severe COVID-19**

140 Expression (logicle-transformed fluorescence signal) of markers from CR1 (A) and CR2

141 (B) panel for innate-like T cell clusters are shown as overlaid histograms. T cell clusters

142 are described in Figure 5c and d and are significantly different between individuals

143 recovered from non-severe and severe COVID-19. All remaining clusters within innate-

144 like T cells are depicted in grey and labeled as "Rest" as a reference population.

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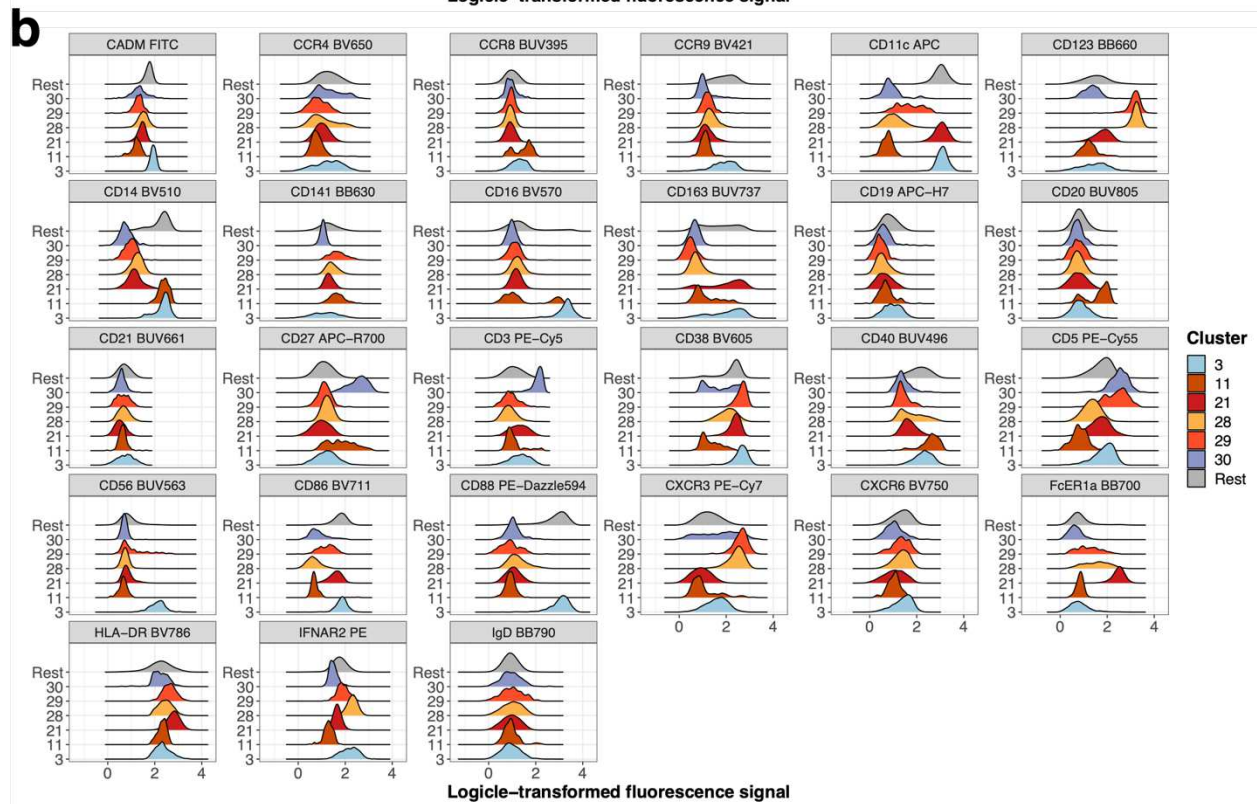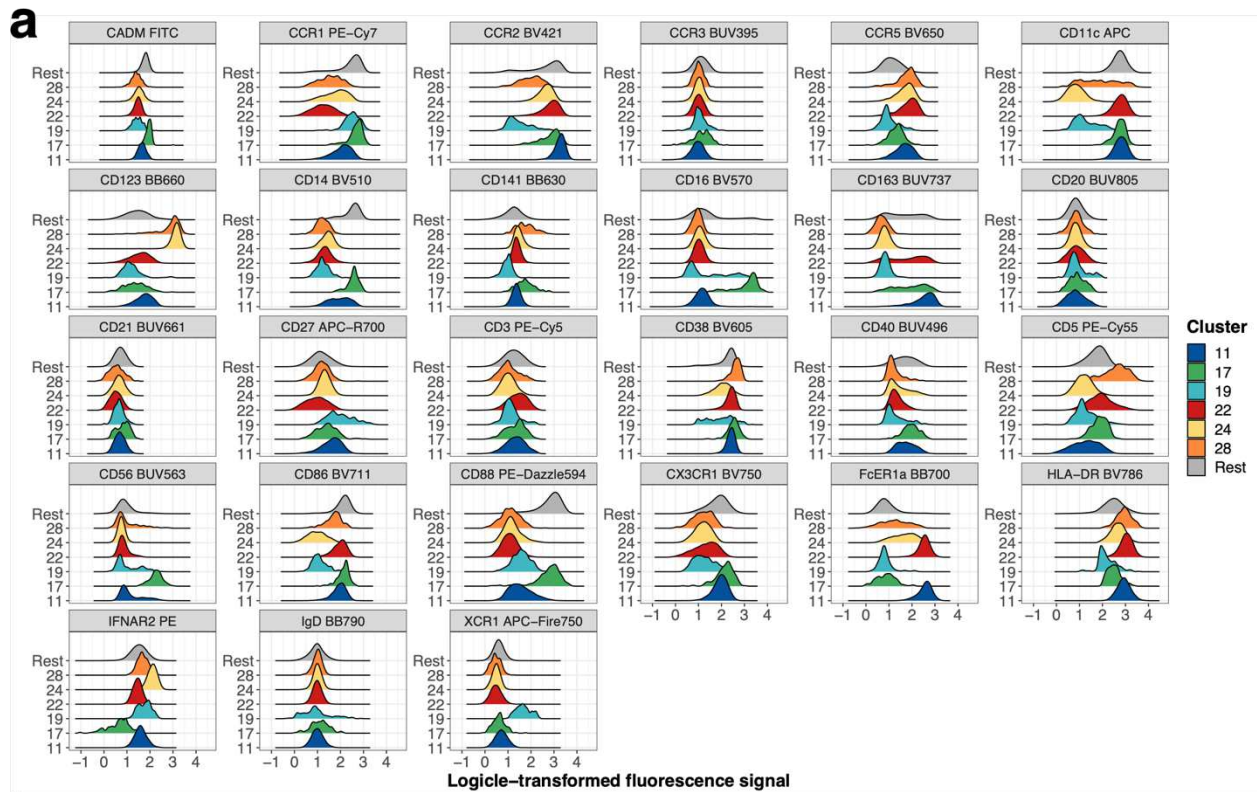
151 **Extended Data Figure 7: Expression pattern of significant myeloid cell clusters**

152 **between non-severe and severe COVID-19**

153 Expression (logicle-transformed fluorescence signal) of markers from CR1 (A) and CR2

154 (B) panel for myeloid cell clusters are shown as overlaid histograms. Myeloid cell

155 clusters are described in Figure 6 and are significantly different between individuals

156 recovered from non-severe and severe COVID-19. All remaining clusters within myeloid

157 cells are depicted in grey and labeled as "Rest" as a reference population.

158

1   Supplementary Data

2

3   Title: Immune phenotypes that predict COVID-

4   19 severity

5

6   Thomas Liechti[1], Yaser Iftikhar[1], Massimo Mangino[2,3], Margaret Beddall[1], Charles W.

7   Goss[4], Jane A. O'Halloran[5], Philip Mudd[6], Mario Roederer[1]

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15 [5]Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Internal Medicine, Washington University

16 School of Medicine, St. Louis, MO, USA

17 [6]Department of Emergency Medicine, Washington University School of Medicine, St.

18 Louis, MO, USA

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Supplementary Data 1: Gating of myeloid cells (Monocytes/Dendritic cells)

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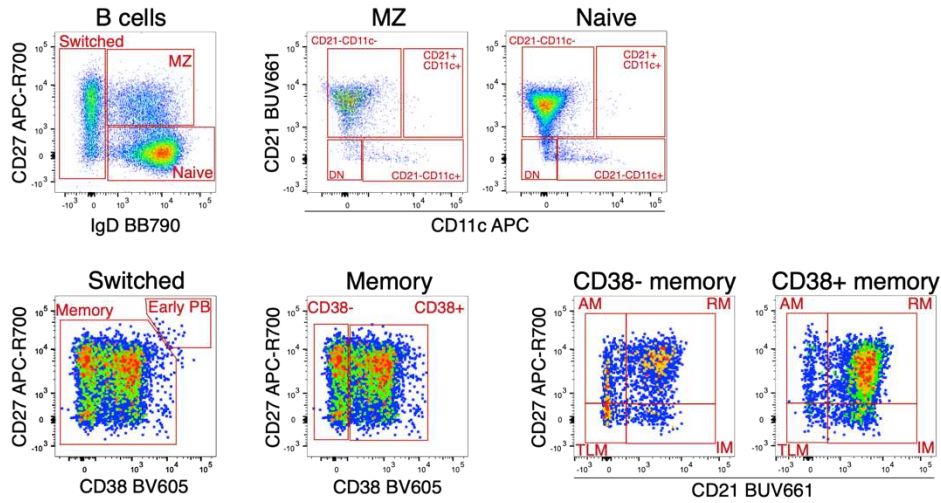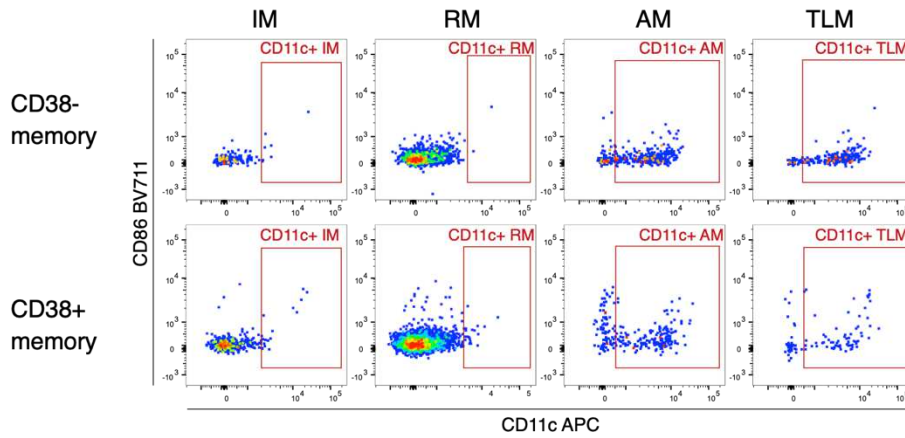
Supplementary Data 2: Gating of B cell subsets

Gating of **a)** B cell subsets and **b)** CD11c^{+} B cells within memory B cell subsets
(Intermediate memory, IM; Resting memory, RM; Activated memory, AM; Tissue-like
memory, TLM) of CD38^{-} (top row) and CD38^{+} (bottom row) memory B cells is depicted.
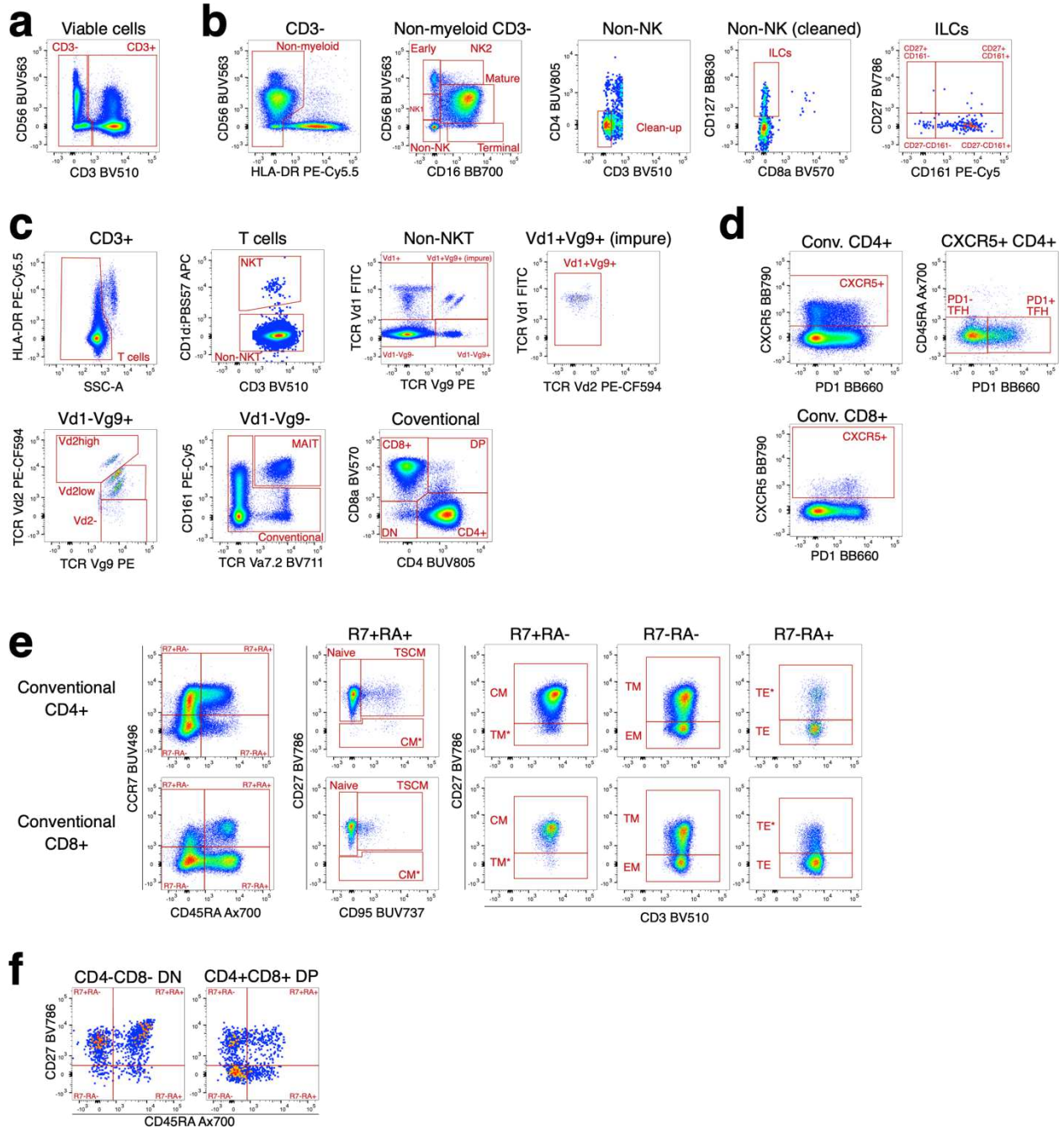
Supplementary Data 3: Gating of innate-like and conventional T cell subsets and NK cells

a) Definition of CD3- and CD3+ cells is shown. **b)** Gating of NK cells and innate lymphoid cells (ILCs) is depicted. HLA-DR expressing cells were excluded prior to

47   defining NK cells based on CD56 and CD16. We further removed residual

48   contaminating cells within CD56$^-$CD16$^-$ cells based on CD4 and CD8 prior to defining

49   CD127 expressing ILCs and subsets of ILCs based on CD27 and CD161 expression. **c)**

50   Definition of unconventional and conventional T cells is shown after excluding residual

51   myeloid cells based on SSC-A and expression of HLA-DR. **d)** Definition of CD4$^+$ and

52   CD8$^+$ T cell memory subsets is depicted. **f)** We further defined subsets from CD4$^-$CD8$^-$

53   double-negative (DN) and CD4$^+$CD8$^+$ double-positive (DP) T cells based on expression

54   of CD27 and CD45RA.
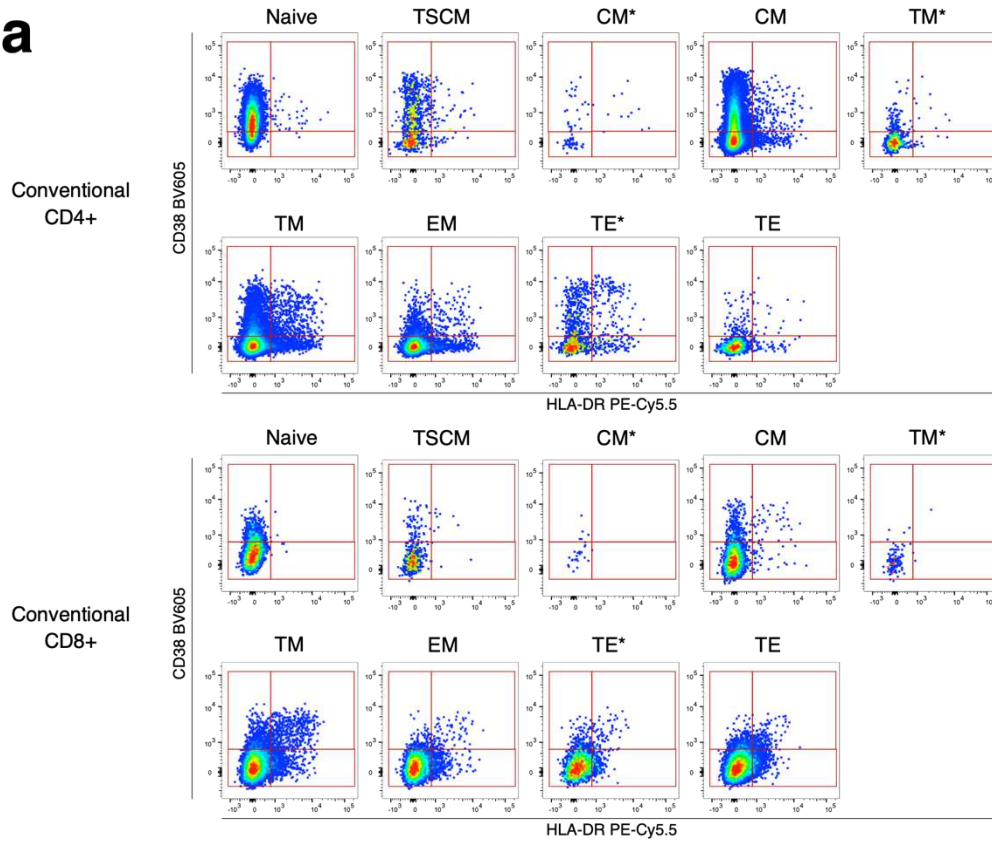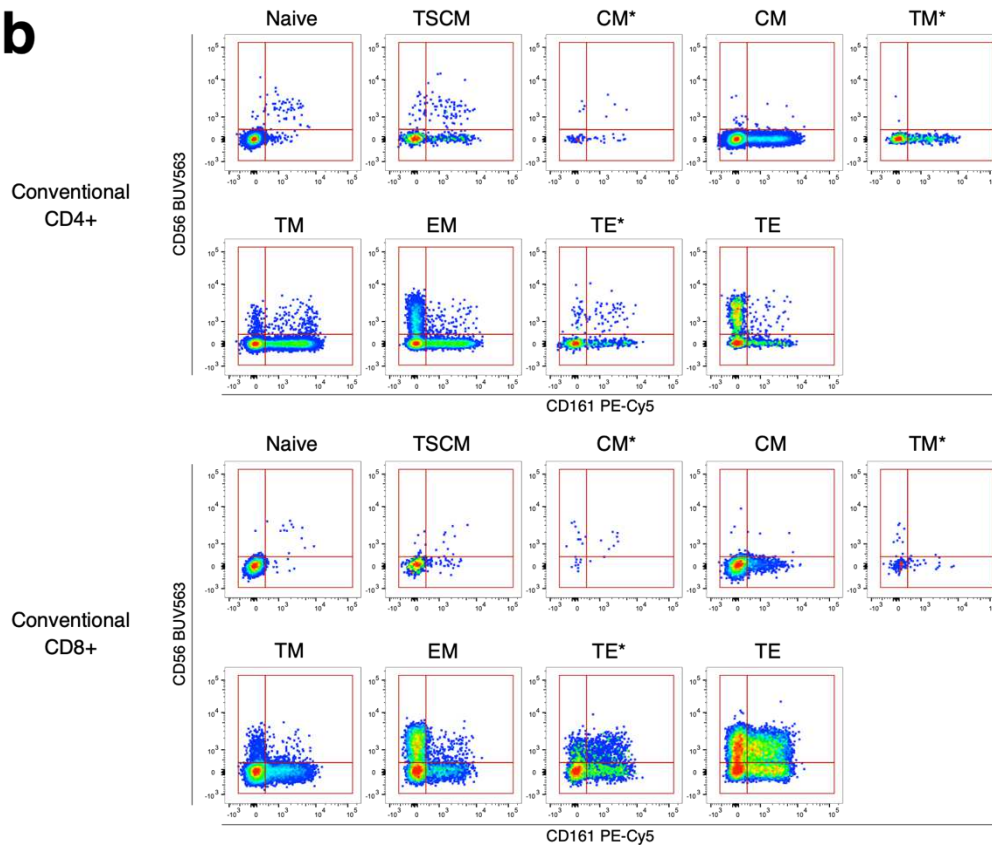
56 **Supplementary Data 4: Gating conventional T cell subsets based on CD38, HLA-**

57 **DR, CD56 and CD161**

58 Definition of subsets within conventional CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ naïve and memory T cell

59 populations based on **a)** CD38 and HLA-DR or **b)** CD56 and CD161 expression.
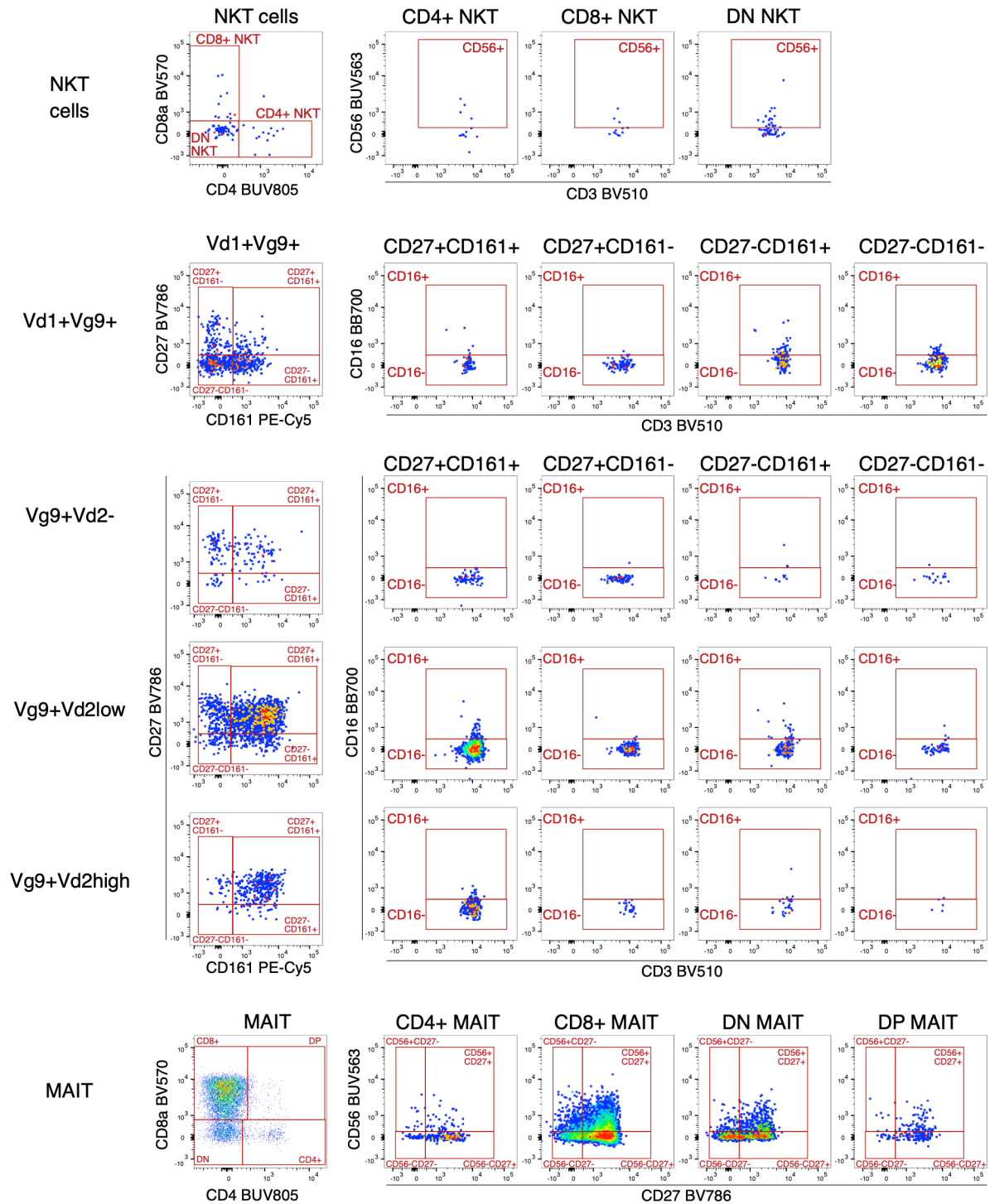
Supplementary Data 5: Gating of several differentiation stages within innate-like T cell subsets

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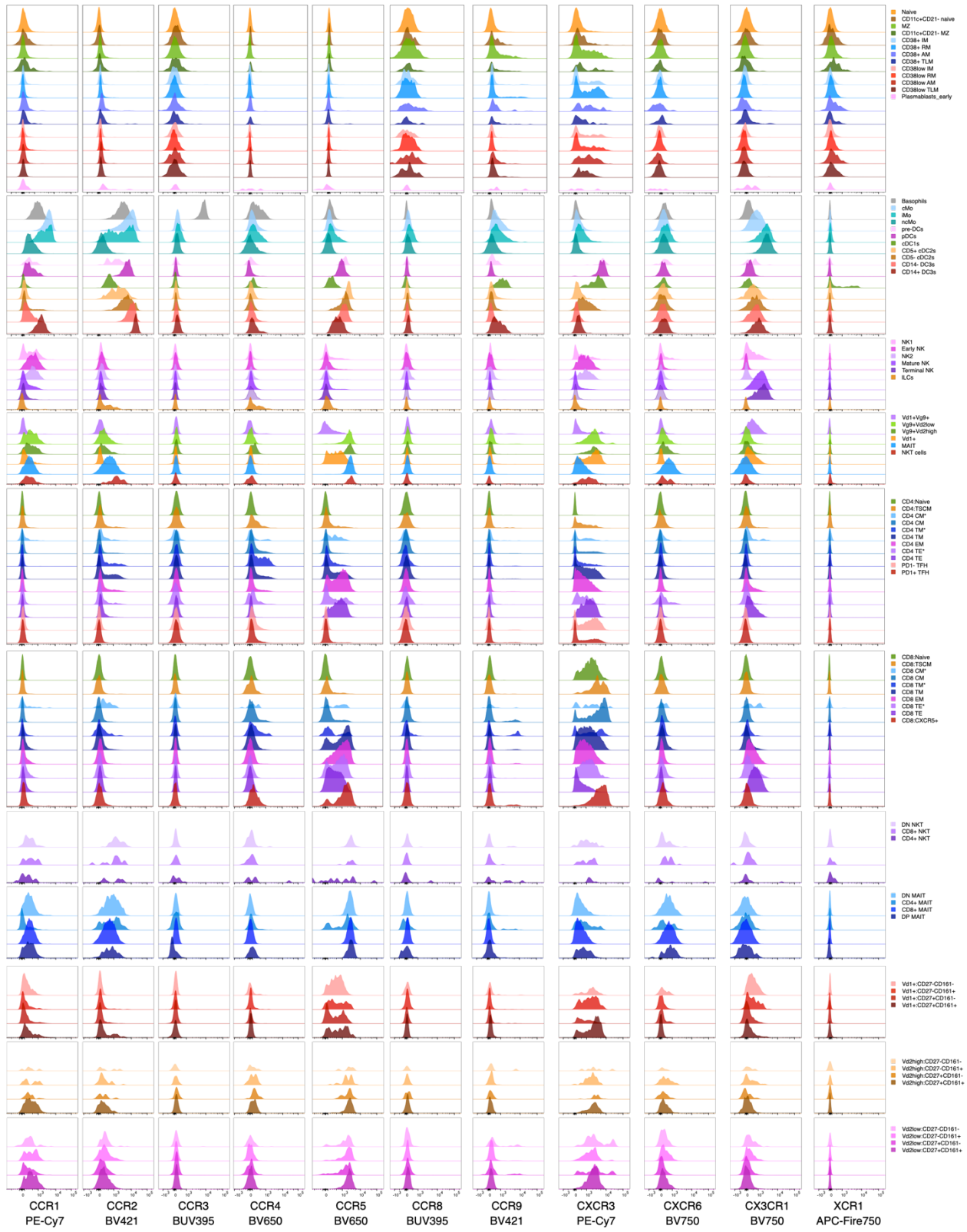
69 **Supplementary Data 6: Expression of chemokine receptors**

70 Shown is the expression of chemokine receptors on all main lineages/immune subsets

71 as overlaid histograms. Data derives from one healthy donor.

72
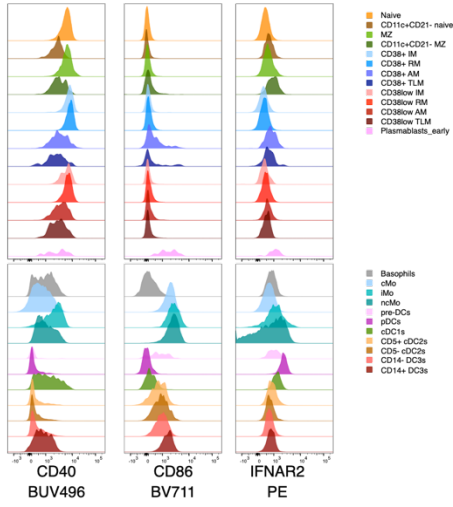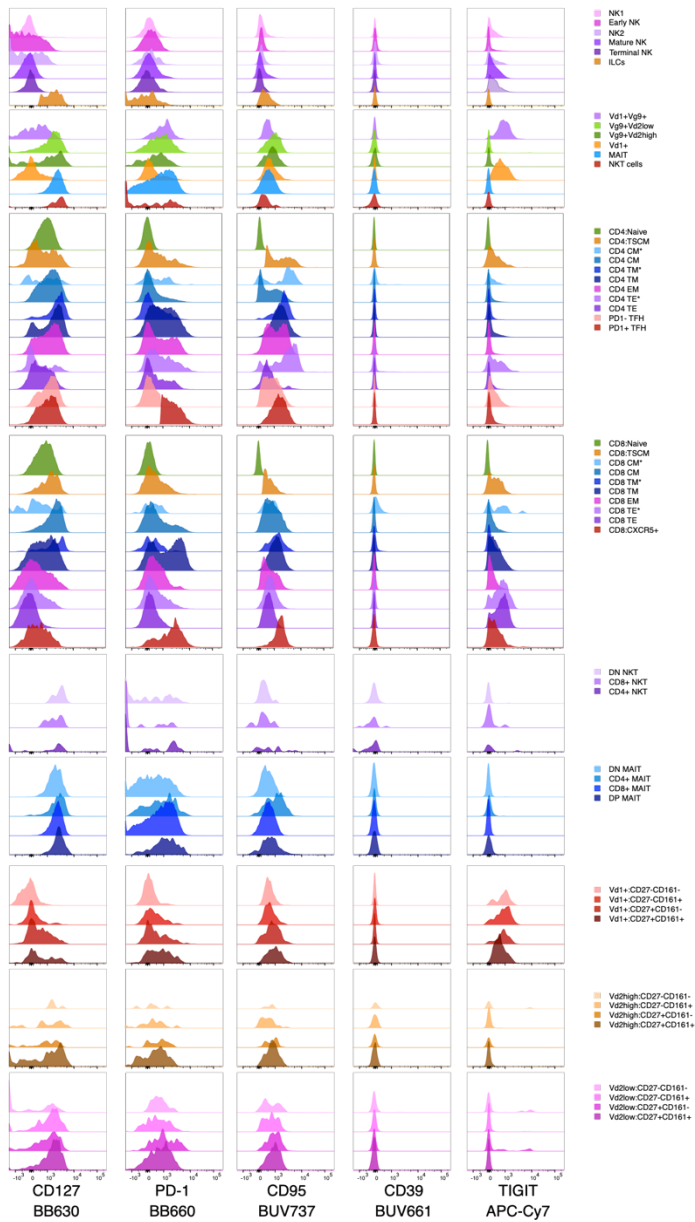
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75 **Supplementary Data 7: Expression of functional receptors**

76 Shown is the expression of functional receptors on main lineages/immune subsets as

77 overlaid histograms. Markers are panel specific. Markers only measured with the **a)** B

78 cell/myeloid cell or **b)** T cell/NK cell panel backbone are shown as highlighted in

79 supplementary table 2. Data derives from one healthy donor.

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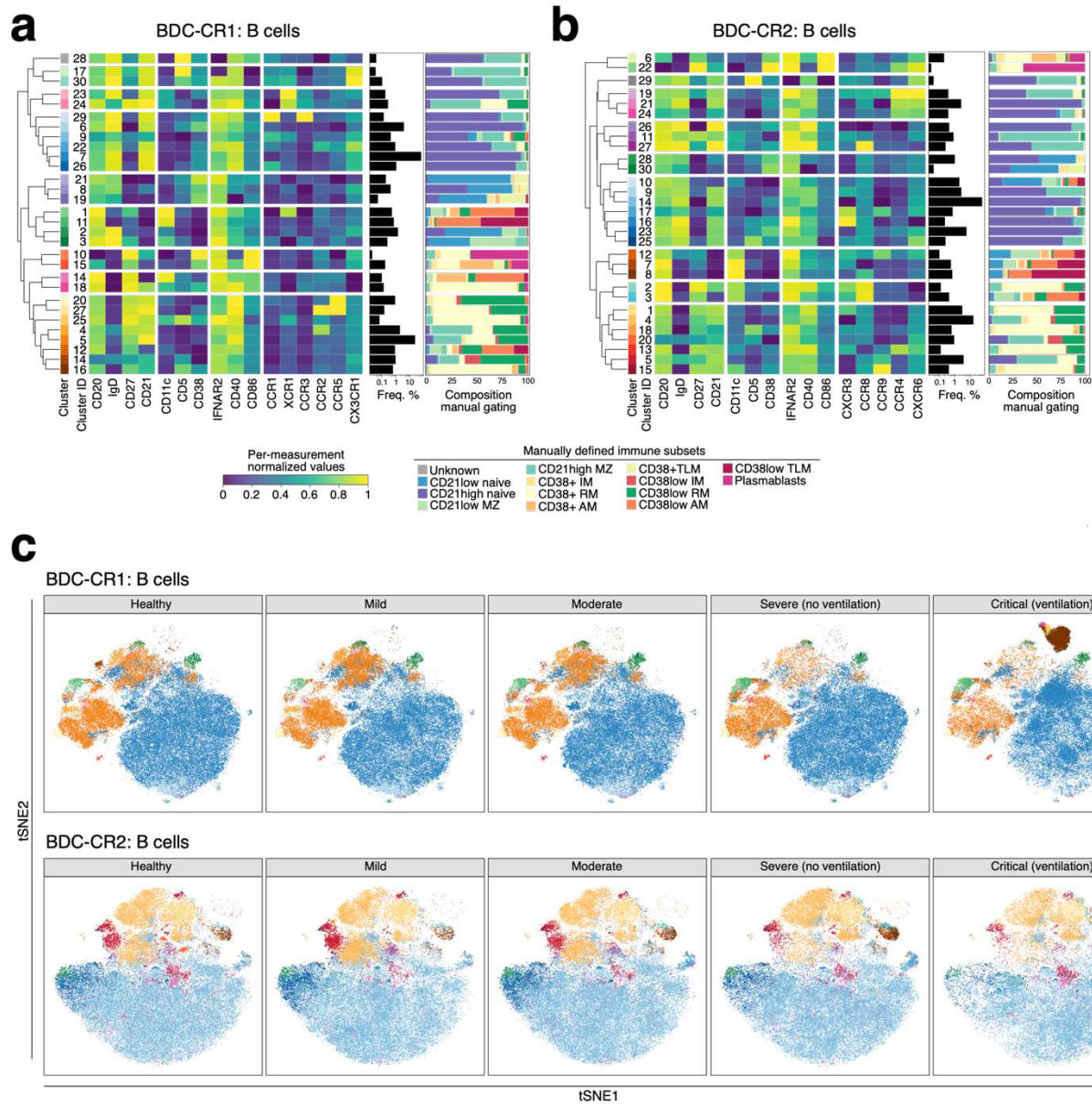
Supplementary Data 8: FlowSOM analysis for B cells

Heatmaps show per-measurement normalized median fluorescence intensity based on

trimmed 1-99% percentile values for each FlowSOM cluster (rows). Only markers

included in clustering (columns) are sown. Bar on left shows coloring of each FlowSOM

cluster and FlowSOM clusters were clustered based on similarity of MFI values using

hierarchical clustering (indicated by dendrogram and gap between rows). Bar graph in

90   the middle shows the frequency of each cluster and bar graph on the right the

91   composition of each cluster based on manual gating annotation. Heatmaps for panels **a)**

92   CR1 and **b)** CR2 are shown. **c)** tSNE plots for CR1 (top) and CR2 (bottom) panel are

93   shown delineated based on COVID-19 severity group. Dots are colored based on

94   FlowSOM cluster annotation. Each tSNE plot contains 50'000 randomly subsampled

95   cells and not equally distributed across each individual sample.

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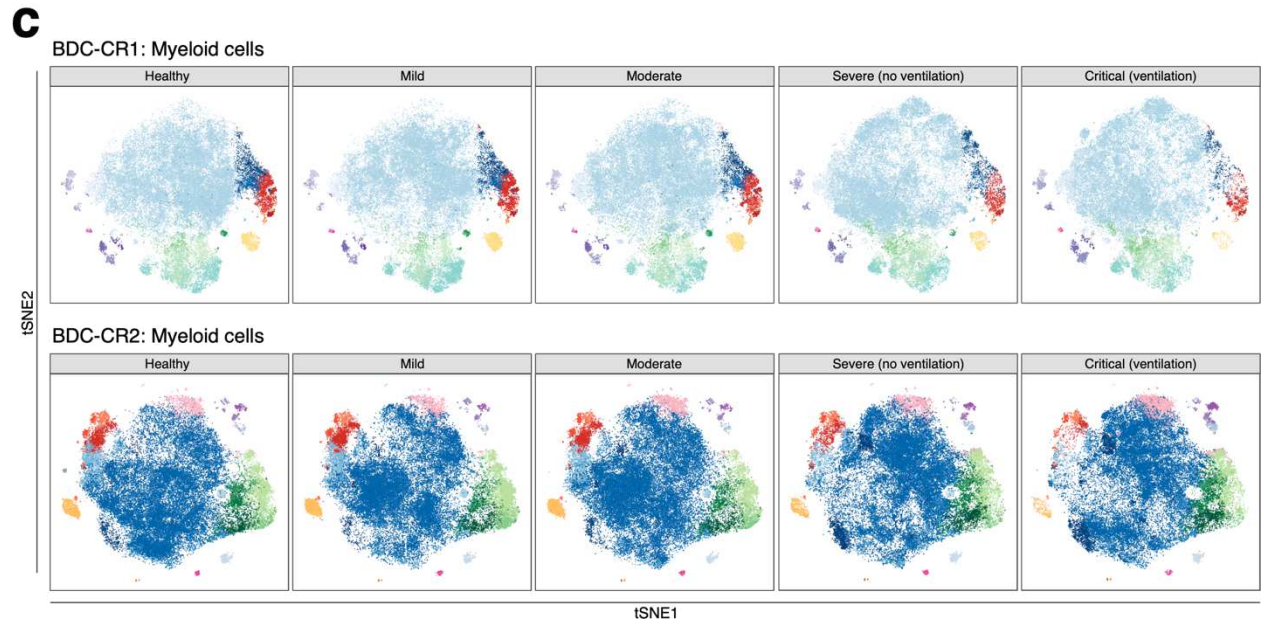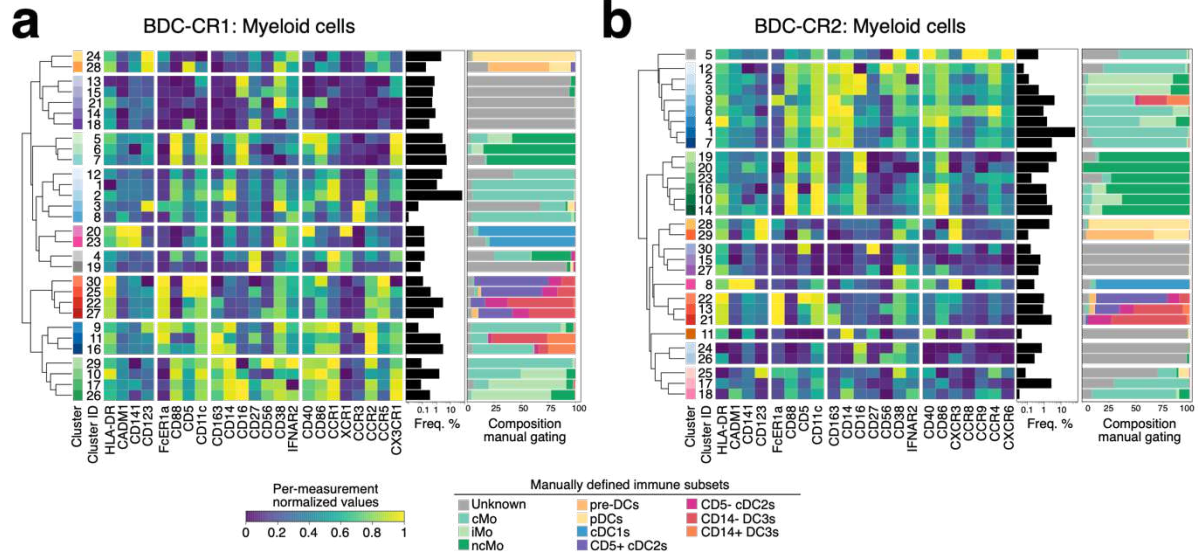
Supplementary Data 9: FlowSOM analysis for myeloid cells

Same as Supplementary Data 8.

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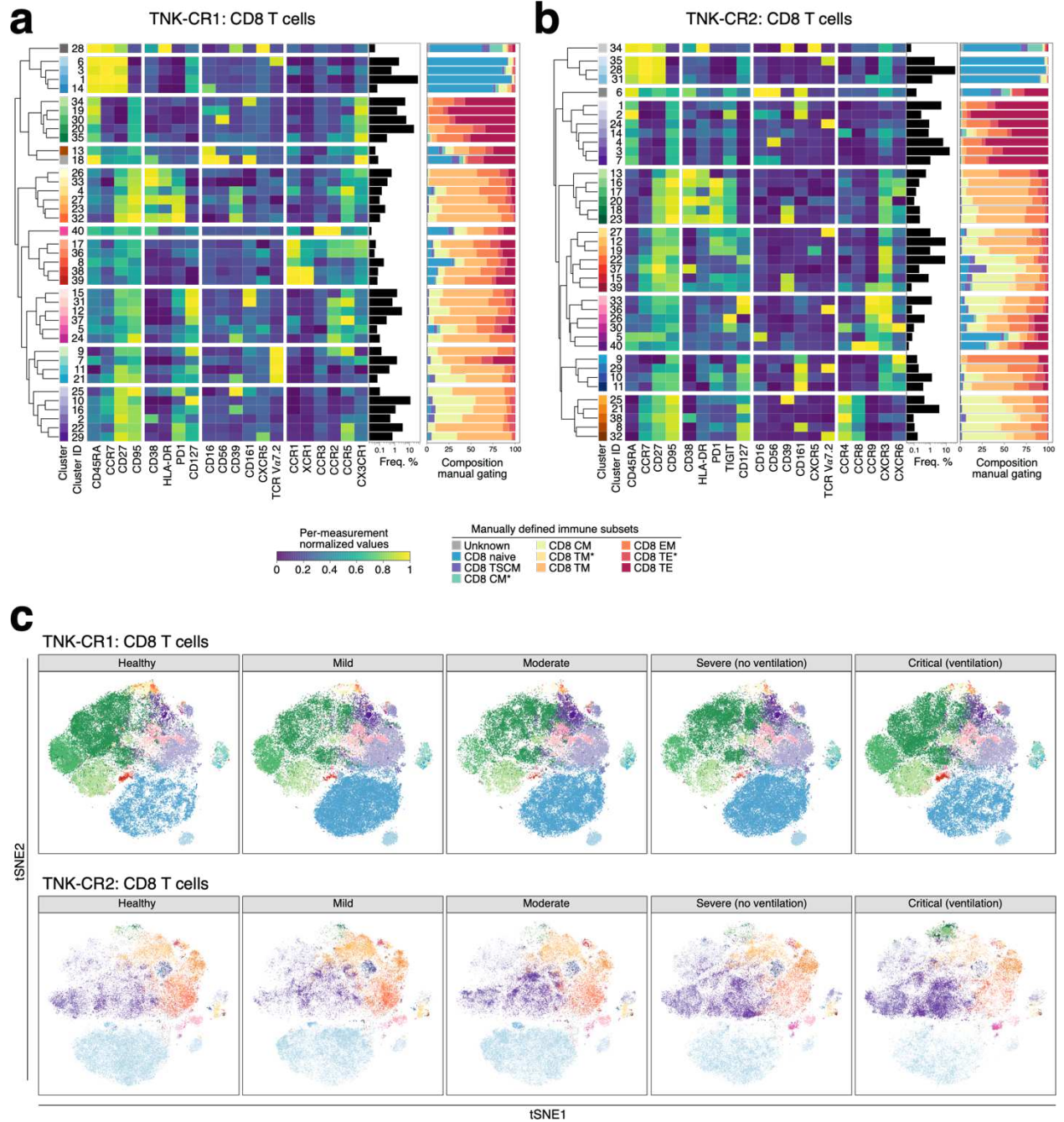
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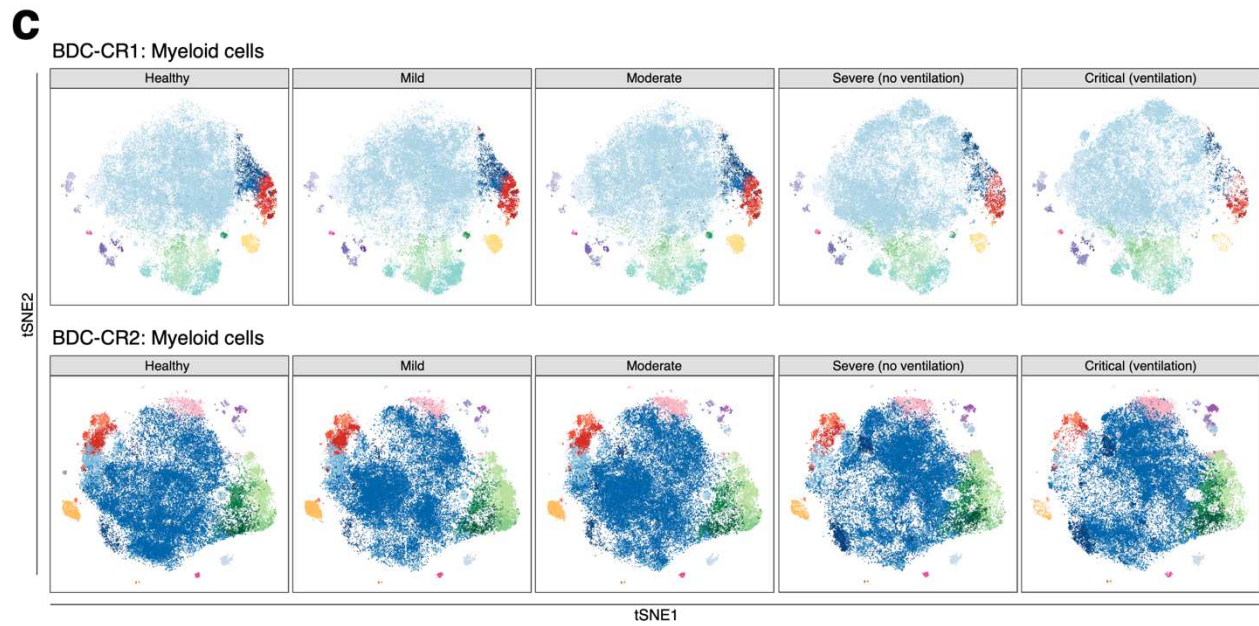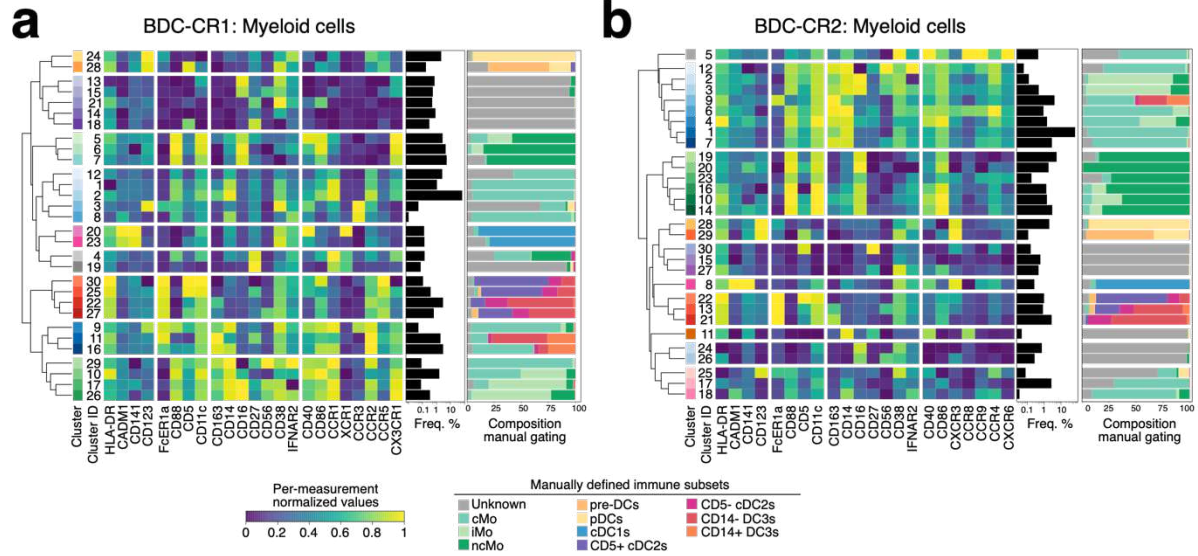
Supplementary Data 10: FlowSOM analysis for CD4 T cells
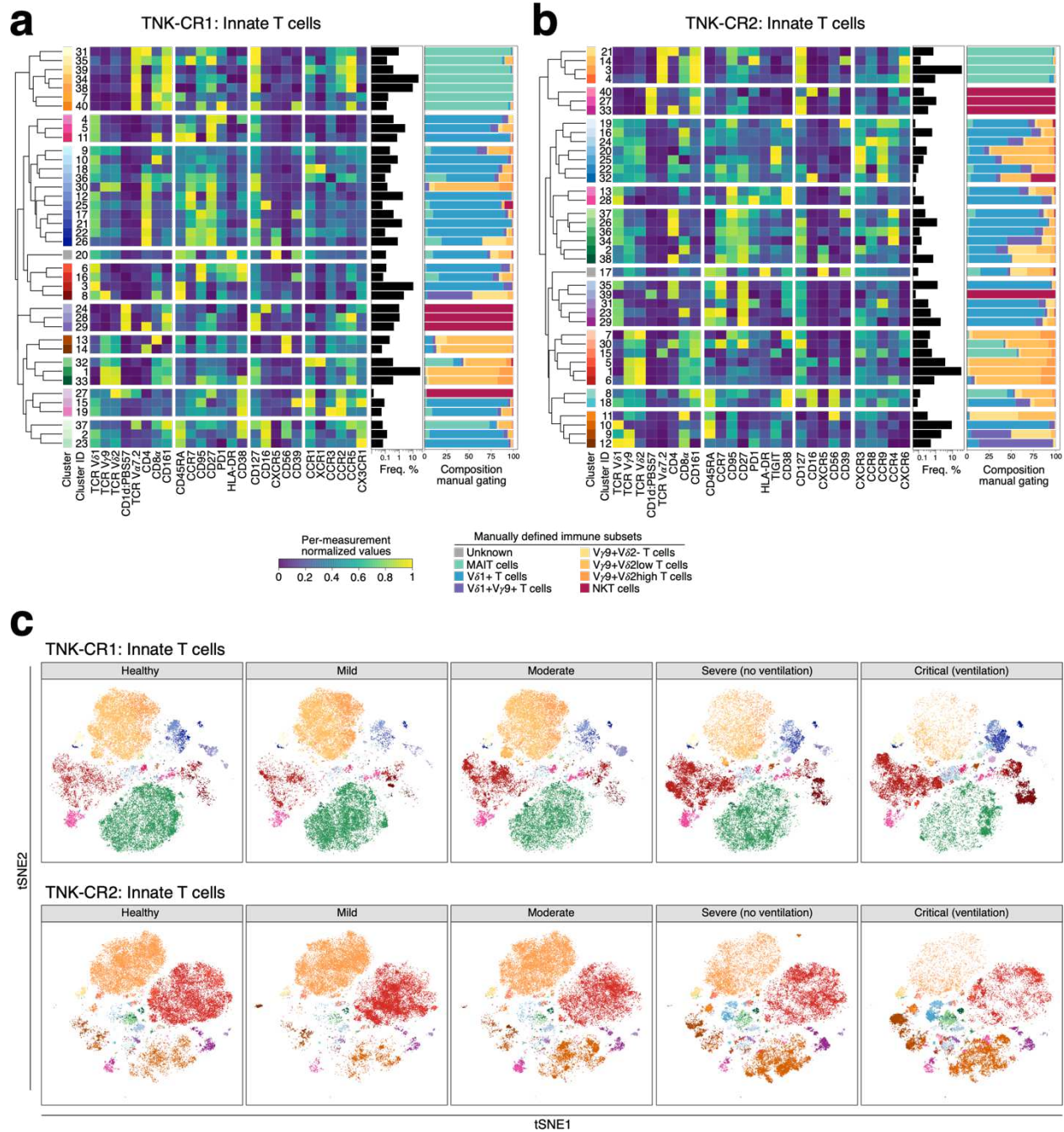
Same as Supplementary Data 8.

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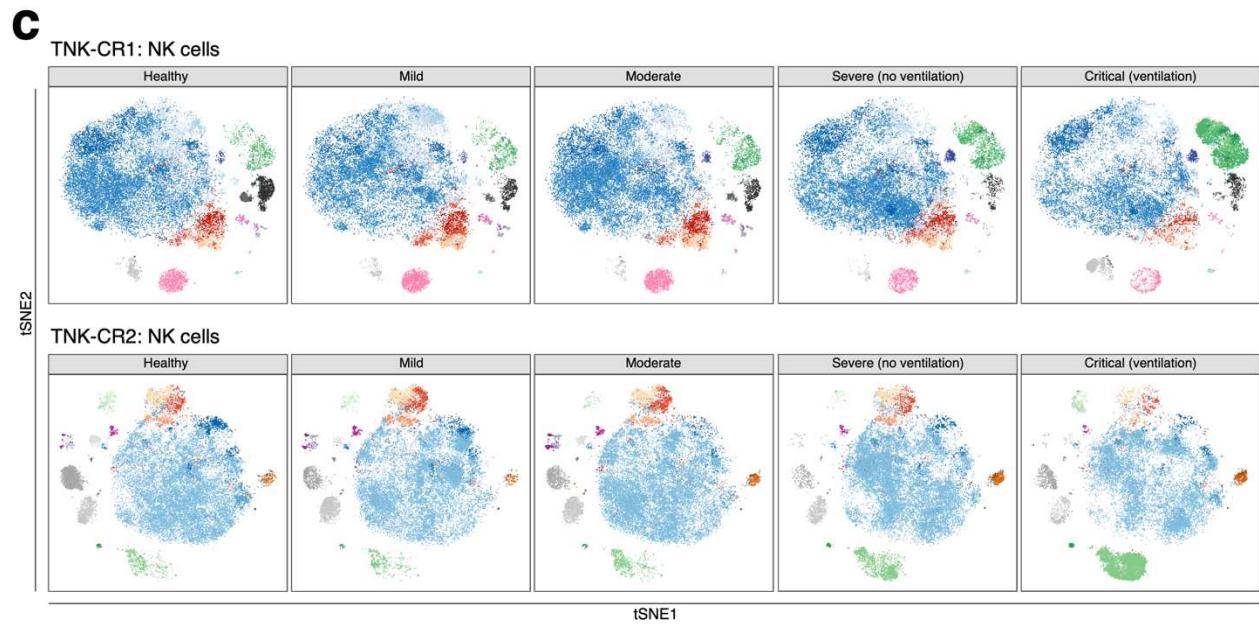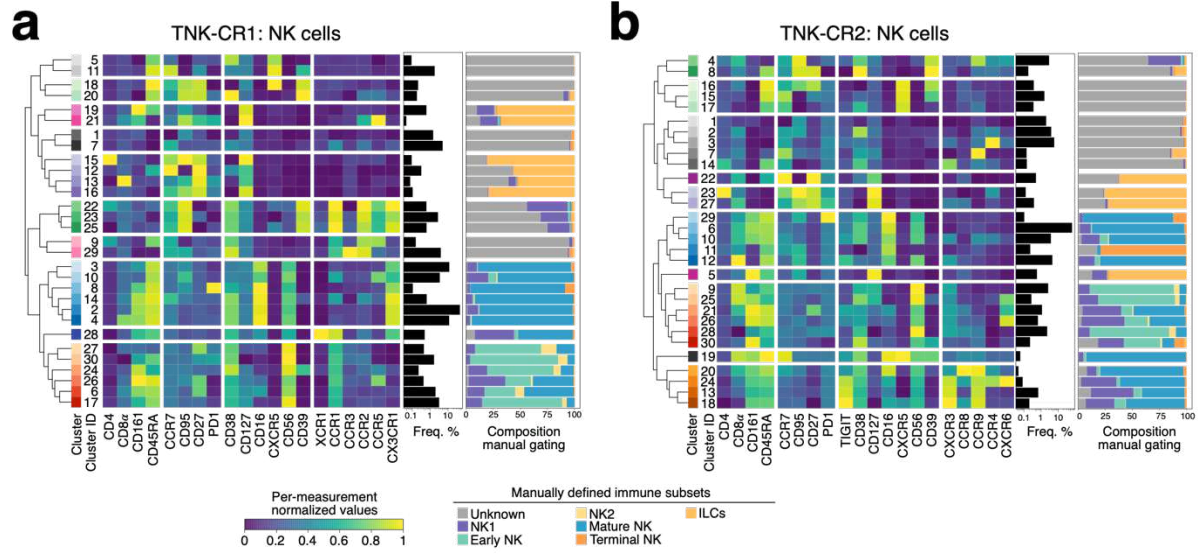**Supplementary Data 11: FlowSOM analysis for CD8 T cells**

Same as Supplementary Data 8.

111

112

113 **Supplementary Data 12: FlowSOM analysis for innate-like T cells**

114 Same as Supplementary Data 8. From each group 27583 cells were included for tSNE

115 computation.

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118

Supplementary Data 13: FlowSOM analysis for NK cells

Same as Supplementary Data 8. From each group 25000 cells were included for tSNE computation.

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- 220218Supplementarytables.pdf