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Transcriptional response modules characterise IL-1 β and IL-6 activity in COVID-19

Lucy CK. Bell, Cem Meydan, Jacob Kim, Jonathan Foox, Daniel Butler, Christopher E. Mason, Sagi D. Shapira, Mahdad Noursadeghi, Gabriele Pollara

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1 **Title**

2 Transcriptional response modules characterise IL-1 β and IL-6 activity in COVID-19

3

4 **Authors**

5 Lucy CK Bell^{1,2}, Cem Meydan³, Jacob Kim^{4,5}, Jonathan Foox^{3,6}, Daniel Butler^{3,6}, Christopher E. Mason^{3,6,7,8}, Sagi
6 D. Shapira^{4,5}, Mahdad Noursadeghi^{1,2}, Gabriele Pollara^{1,9,10}

7 ¹Division of Infection & Immunity, University College London, London, UK

8 ²Hospital for Tropical Diseases, University College London Hospitals NHS Trust, London, UK

9 ³The HRH Prince Alwaleed Bin Talal Bin Abdulaziz Alsaud Institute for Computational Biomedicine, Weill
10 Cornell Medicine, New York, NY, USA

11 ⁴Herbert Irving Comprehensive Cancer Center, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA

12 ⁵Department of Systems Biology, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA.

13 ⁶Department of Physiology and Biophysics, Weill Cornell Medicine, New York, NY, USA

14 ⁷The WorldQuant Initiative for Quantitative Prediction, Weill Cornell Medicine, New York, NY, USA

15 ⁸The Feil Family Brain and Mind Research Institute, Weill Cornell Medicine, New York, NY, USA

16 ⁹Department of Infection, Royal Free London NHS Trust, London, UK

17 ¹⁰Lead Contact

18

19 **Corresponding author**

20 Dr Gabriele Pollara, Division of Infection & Immunity, Cruciform Building, Gower Street, London, WC1E 6BT,
21 United Kingdom, g.pollara@ucl.ac.uk. Twitter: [@gpollara](https://twitter.com/gpollara)

22

23 **Keywords**

24 COVID-19, transcriptomics, modules, IL-1 β , IL-6

25 Summary

26 Dysregulated IL-1 β and IL-6 responses have been implicated in the pathogenesis of severe Coronavirus
27 Disease 2019 (COVID-19). Innovative approaches for evaluating the biological activity of these cytokines *in*
28 *vivo* are urgently needed to complement clinical trials of therapeutic targeting of IL-1 β and IL-6 in COVID-19.
29 We show that the expression of IL-1 β or IL-6 inducible transcriptional signatures (modules) reflects the
30 bioactivity of these cytokines in immunopathology modelled by juvenile idiopathic arthritis (JIA) and
31 rheumatoid arthritis. In COVID-19, elevated expression of IL-1 β and IL-6 response modules, but not the
32 cytokine transcripts themselves, is a feature of infection in the nasopharynx and blood, but is not associated
33 with severity of COVID-19 disease, length of stay or mortality. We propose that IL-1 β and IL-6 transcriptional
34 response modules provide a dynamic readout of functional cytokine activity *in vivo*, aiding quantification of
35 the biological effects of immunomodulatory therapies in COVID-19.

36

37 *Abstract word count*

38 145 words

39

40 Introduction

41 Severe Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) typically occurs over a week from symptom onset, when viral
42 titres have diminished, suggesting a dysregulated host inflammatory response may be driving the
43 pathogenesis of severe disease (Bullard et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2020; McGonagle et al., 2020). Elevated IL-
44 1β and IL-6 responses have each been associated with disease severity (Huang et al., 2020; Liao et al., 2020;
45 Qin et al., 2020; Ravindra et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2020b). In addition, the
46 hyperinflammatory state in COVID-19 is reported to resemble some aspects of haemophagocytic
47 lymphohistiocytosis (HLH), a condition that may benefit from therapeutic IL- 1β blockade (Mehta et al.,
48 2020). These observations have generated hypotheses that IL- 1β and/or IL-6 may be key drivers of pathology
49 in severe COVID-19, and led to clinical trials of IL- 1β and IL-6 antagonists in this context (Maes et al., 2020).
50 Randomised studies to date investigating the role of tocilizumab, a humanised monoclonal antibody against
51 the IL-6 receptor, have shown no clinical benefit, but immunophenotyping beyond the measurement of
52 single cytokines, before or after drug administration, was not recorded or correlated with clinical responses
53 at the individual patient level (Hermine et al., 2020; Salvarani et al., 2020; Stone et al., 2020).

54 The measurement of individual cytokines at the protein or RNA level may not reflect their biological activity
55 accurately within multivariate immune systems that incorporate redundancy and feedback loops. To address
56 this limitation, we have previously derived and validated gene expression signatures, or modules,
57 representing the transcriptional response to cytokine stimulation, using them to measure functional
58 cytokine activity within genome-wide transcriptomic data from clinical samples (Bell et al., 2016; Byng-
59 Maddick et al., 2017; Dheda et al., 2019; Pollara et al., 2017). However, transcriptional modules to quantify
60 IL- 1β or IL-6 response have not been used in COVID-19 to quantify the bioactivity of these cytokine pathways
61 *in vivo*. In the present study, we have sought to address this gap, describing the derivation and validation of
62 IL- 1β and IL-6 inducible transcriptional modules, and testing the hypothesis that these modules can be used
63 in the molecular assessment of the pathophysiology and the response to therapeutic cytokine blockade of
64 inflammatory conditions, including COVID-19.

65

66 Results

67 *Identification and validation of IL-1 β and IL-6 transcriptional modules*

68 We first sought to derive transcriptional modules that identified and discriminated between the response to
69 IL- 1β and IL-6 stimulation. We have previously derived an IL- 1β response module from cytokine stimulated
70 fibroblasts (table S2) (Pollara et al., 2019). As in our prior studies (Bell et al., 2016; Pollara et al., 2017, 2019),
71 we used the geometric mean of the constituent genes in a module as a summary statistic to describe the

72 relative expression of the module. We demonstrate that in both monocyte-derived macrophages (MDM)
73 and peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) (Boisson et al., 2012; Jura et al., 2008), IL-1 β stimulation
74 induced greater expression of the IL-1 β response module than either IL-6 or TNF α stimulation, where there
75 was no increased expression above unstimulated cells (Fig 1A + B). To identify an IL-6 response module
76 which was able to discriminate from the effects of IL-1 β , we identified one study that had stimulated human
77 MDM with either IL-1 β (15 ng/ml) or IL-6 (25 ng/ml) for 4 hours (Jura et al., 2008). Hierarchical clustering
78 identified genes induced by IL-6 but not IL-1 β , and we termed this the IL-6 response module (table S2).
79 Internal validation of this module confirmed increased expression in IL-6 stimulated MDM (fig 1A). Testing
80 the IL-6 module in other datasets demonstrated elevated expression following IL-6, but not TNF α ,
81 stimulation of human kidney epithelial and macrophage cell lines (Das et al., 2020; O’Brown et al., 2015) (figs
82 1C+D), whereas no elevated expression of the IL-6 module was observed following IL-1 β or TNF α stimulation
83 of MDM or PBMC (figs 1A+B). These findings demonstrated that the IL-1 β and IL-6 response modules could
84 detect the effects of their cognate cytokines, and discriminate these from each other and from an
85 alternative inflammatory cytokine stimulus, TNF α .

86

87 *IL-1 β and IL-6 module expression in chronic inflammation*

88 To determine whether IL-1 β and IL-6 response modules were able to detect elevated cytokine bioactivity *in*
89 *vivo*, we assessed the blood transcriptome of juvenile idiopathic arthritis (JIA) and rheumatoid arthritis (RA)
90 patients. These are conditions in which elevated IL-1 β and IL-6 activity are considered to play a key role in
91 disease pathogenesis, evidenced by clinical improvement following therapeutic antagonism of these
92 cytokines (De Benedetti et al., 2012; Fleischmann, 2017; Nikfar et al., 2018; Ruperto et al., 2012). The blood
93 transcriptome of untreated JIA patients displayed elevated IL-1 β and IL-6 bioactivity (fig 2A) (Brachat et al.,
94 2017), but this was not consistently evident in several RA blood transcriptome datasets (fig S1) (Lee et al.,
95 2020; Macías-Segura et al., 2018; Tasaki et al., 2018). Discrepancies between molecular changes in blood and
96 tissues have been previously described in RA (Lee et al., 2020), and therefore we tested the hypothesis that
97 in contrast to blood, elevated IL-1 β and IL-6 bioactivity was a feature of the synovium in RA. Consistent with
98 this hypothesis, a separate transcriptomic dataset of synovial membrane biopsies from patients with RA
99 (Broeren et al., 2016) showed elevated levels of both IL-1 β and IL-6 response module expression compared
100 to non-RA synovium (fig 2B).

101 We used the elevated cytokine activity in the blood of JIA patients to test the hypothesis that therapeutic
102 cytokine modulation would result in changes in cytokine bioactivity as determined by module expression.
103 We made use of the blood transcriptome of JIA patients 3 days following administration of canakinumab, a
104 human monoclonal antibody to IL-1 β (Brachat et al., 2017). Patients who had a therapeutic response to

105 canakinumab showed elevated IL-1 β module expression which reduced 3 days after canakinumab
106 administration (fig 3A). In contrast, in those who had no treatment response, IL-1 β module expression was
107 lower at baseline and was unaffected by canakinumab (fig 3A). Unlike the differences seen in the IL-1 β
108 module between responders and non-responders, there were no differences between these groups in IL-6
109 module expression at baseline (fig 3B). This indicated that these two cytokine response modules quantified
110 two distinct biological processes. Interestingly, expression of the IL-6 module was also diminished after
111 canakinumab treatment in patients who responded to treatment, suggesting that IL-6 activity may be
112 downstream of IL-1 β in this context. Of note in these populations, the expression of the *IL1B* gene correlated
113 with that of the IL-1 β response module, but the same was not evident between IL-6 module and *IL6* gene
114 expression (fig 3C), illustrating an example in which cytokine gene expression itself may not necessarily
115 reflect the functional activity of that cytokine.

116 *IL-1 β and IL-6 bioactivity in COVID-19*

117 We tested the hypothesis that elevated IL-1 β and IL-6 bioactivity is a feature of COVID-19 disease. We
118 initially explored the induction of IL-1 β and IL-6 activity at the site of COVID-19 disease, by profiling
119 transcriptional responses in nasopharyngeal swabs from 495 control and 155 SARS-CoV-2 infected
120 individuals (Butler et al., 2020; Ramlall et al., 2020). Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) was used as an
121 alternate method of module enrichment scoring (Subramanian et al., 2005), in line with previous analyses of
122 this data set (Ramlall et al., 2020). While the IL-1 β response module was modestly induced by SARS-CoV-2
123 infection, the IL-6 response module was significantly enriched in transcriptional programs induced by this
124 viral infection (fig 4). Moreover, we found that SARS-CoV-2 viral loads were positively associated with
125 cytokine activity, with enrichment of IL-1 β and IL-6 responses observed in individuals with the upper tertile
126 of measured viral loads, while patients with the lowest tertile viral titres did not show induction of responses
127 to either cytokine (fig 4). The greatest IL-6 responses were in fact observed in individuals with intermediate
128 viral titres, in whom significant induction of IL-1 β activity was not seen (fig 4). Together, these findings
129 suggest that both IL-1 β and IL-6 activity are a feature of the host response at the site of SARS-CoV-2
130 infection, and are likely to be driven by increasing viral replication *in vivo*.

131 As clinical deterioration in COVID-19 occurs after peak viral replication in the airways has subsided, we
132 tested the hypothesis that IL-1 β and IL-6 activity was also related to disease severity. We initially explored IL-
133 1 β and IL-6 activity in the blood of 3 patients with mild-moderate COVID-19 disease who were admitted to
134 hospital and recovered (Ong et al., 2020). This dataset was generated using the Nanostring system and
135 consisted of 579 mRNA targets, which included only 7/57 (12.2%) and 7/41 (17.1%) constituent genes of the
136 IL-1 β and IL-6 response modules respectively (table S2). We demonstrated that IL-1 β and IL-6 submodules,
137 generated from these shorter lists of constituent genes, were still able to recapitulate all the findings from
138 fig 3 (fig S2). The expression of these submodules in the blood transcriptome of this small number of COVID-

139 19 patients revealed variation in IL-1 β and IL-6 bioactivity over the period of hospitalisation, with higher
140 expression seen earlier during hospital admission and a reduction as patients recovered (Fig 5A). This time-
141 associated relationship with clinical recovery was not seen for the expression of the *IL1A*, *IL1B* and *IL6* genes
142 (fig 5A). We extended these analyses by assessing the transcriptome of blood samples collected at the time
143 of hospital admission from 32 COVID-19 patients presenting with varying levels of disease severity (Hadjadj
144 et al., 2020). These data, also collected using the Nanostring system, revealed expression of the IL-1 β and IL-
145 6 cytokine submodules was clearly elevated in COVID-19 compared to healthy controls (fig 5B). However,
146 strikingly, there was only minimal variability in IL-1 β and no variability in IL-6 submodule expression between
147 the different levels of COVID-19 disease severity (fig 5B).

148 Finally, we tested the hypothesis that elevated IL-1 β and IL-6 transcriptional activity in blood could predict
149 clinical outcome in COVID-19. We assessed the transcriptome of blood leucocytes from 101 COVID-19 and 24
150 non-COVID-19 patients admitted to hospital (Overmyer et al., 2020). As seen in the whole blood
151 transcriptome analysis (fig 5), leucocytes from COVID-19 patients also demonstrated elevated IL-1 β and IL-6
152 module activity compared to controls (fig 6A), and once again this distinction was not seen in *IL1A*, *IL1B* and
153 *IL6* gene expression (fig S3). Clinical outcome in this cohort was determined from the number of hospital free
154 days at day 45 (HFD-45) following hospital admission, whereby zero days indicated continued admission or
155 death (Overmyer et al., 2020). Prognostication models have identified decreased lymphocyte counts as
156 predictors of clinical deterioration (Gupta et al., 2020). Focusing on COVID-19 patients not requiring ICU
157 admission, we reproduced this observation, demonstrating a positive correlation between HFD-45 and the
158 expression of a transcriptional module that reflects T cell frequency *in vivo* (Pollara et al., 2017) (fig 6B). In
159 contrast, neither IL-1 β nor IL-6 response module expression at the time of study recruitment was associated
160 with HFD-45, indicating that, in this dataset, transcriptional activity of these cytokines was not predictive of
161 clinical outcome from COVID-19 infection (fig 6B).

162 Discussion

163 The protracted clinical course, inverse relationship between viral load and symptom progression, and the
164 association between inflammation and worse clinical outcomes support a hypothesis whereby severe
165 COVID-19 disease is predominantly driven by an exaggerated inflammatory response (Bullard et al., 2020;
166 Huang et al., 2020). Both IL-1 β and IL-6 may play a role in this process (Huang et al., 2020; Liao et al., 2020;
167 Qin et al., 2020; Ravindra et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2020a), and cytokine modulating
168 therapies are now being tested in COVID-19 clinical trials. In this study we utilised transcriptional modules
169 derived from cytokine stimulated cells to demonstrate that their expression, but not that of their cognate
170 cytokine genes, provided a quantitative readout for cytokine bioactivity *in vivo*, both in the context of
171 COVID-19 and chronic inflammatory conditions.

172 We show that in COVID-19, IL-1 β and IL-6 cytokine activity is detectable at a site of disease, the nasopharynx,
173 where greater IL-6 bioactivity in particular is associated with higher levels of SARS-CoV-2 detected. This
174 finding indicates that the presence of viral antigen is associated with IL-6 mediated inflammation, although
175 we cannot ascertain from these experiments whether IL-6 inflammation persists in tissues in the later stages
176 of severe COVID-19 when viral titres diminish (Bullard et al., 2020). The elevated cytokine responses seen in
177 nasopharyngeal tissues were also detectable in the transcriptome of whole blood and isolated leucocytes
178 from COVID-19 patients compared to the control populations available, although this analysis merits being
179 extended to include a wider array of conditions associated with hyperinflammation (Leisman et al., 2020).
180 Although a reduction in cytokine activity tracked clinical recovery from illness, IL-1 β and IL-6 activity at the
181 time of hospital attendance was not predictive for clinical outcome, and, in contrast to the association seen
182 with circulating levels of IL-6 protein (Thwaites et al., 2020), we observed no clear gradient of IL-1 β or IL-6
183 response module expression with disease severity. Our findings may help explain the recent results from
184 randomised studies whereby neutralisation of IL-6 activity by tocilizumab did not show a benefit in mortality
185 or clinical recovery in patients with severe COVID-19 (Hermine et al., 2020; Salvarani et al., 2020; Stone et
186 al., 2020). However, these studies did not record IL-6 activity before or after tocilizumab administration,
187 precluding associations between cytokine activity, neutralisation efficiency and clinical outcomes. We
188 propose that future randomised trials will need to incorporate assessments of cytokine activity in study
189 protocols to permit mechanistic correlations between immunomodulatory interventions and disease
190 outcomes, promoting a stratified medicine approach to host-directed therapies in COVID-19.

191 A consistent observation in our work was that transcriptional modules identified differences between
192 patient groups that would not otherwise have been detected by assessment of cognate gene transcripts. An
193 interpretation of these findings is that the downstream response to cytokine stimulation is more persistent
194 than the expression of the cytokine gene mRNA, the stability of which is subject to trans-regulatory factors
195 and feedback loops (Iwasaki et al., 2011; Seko et al., 2006). Moreover, transcriptional modules are
196 intrinsically composed of genes with co-correlated expression, minimising technical confounding of single
197 gene measurements, demonstrated by the strongly concordant expression between the full and Nanostring
198 subset IL-1 β and IL-6 response modules. These factors may explain the discordance recorded between IL-6
199 gene expression and protein secretion in COVID-19 (Hadjadj et al., 2020). Moreover, cytokine levels after
200 modulation *in vivo* do not necessarily reflect bioactivity, exemplified by the rise in IL-6 in blood following
201 administration of tocilizumab (Nishimoto et al., 2008). We propose that cytokine response modules
202 overcome both issues by integrating the culmination of cytokine signalling events, and may be used as an *in*
203 *vivo* biomonitor of cytokine activity (Hedrick et al., 2020).

204 Limitations of study

205 Our study has limitations. Despite drawing on four independent COVID-19 datasets, the sample sizes
206 assessed in our study were still modest, especially for longitudinal samples, but this was limited by the data
207 available. Assessments of the transcriptome from leucocytes and whole blood in COVID-19 may not be
208 interchangeable and will need cross-validating, although both datasets demonstrated no association
209 between IL-1 β or IL-6 activity and severity of disease. Determining the sensitivity and specificity of the IL-1 β
210 and IL-6 response modules for their respective cognate cytokines was limited by the available datasets and
211 the range of cytokine stimulation conditions performed in those experiments. Comparing the expression of
212 these modules across a wider range of biologically paired cytokine stimulations will allow refinement of their
213 accuracy. As the modules were generated from *in vitro* experiments, we sought to determine their
214 applicability *in vivo*, assessing neutralisation of cytokine activity following immunomodulation with biologic
215 agents *in vivo*. IL-1 β activity in blood and in tissues was diminished days after canakinumab (fig 3) and
216 anakinra (Pollara et al., 2019) administration respectively, but no equivalent datasets were available to
217 assess the IL-6 response module in the same manner. Biobanked samples from ongoing tocilizumab clinical
218 trials in COVID-19 and other diseases may provide an opportunity to validate IL-6 module performance in
219 this way.

220 Conclusions

221 Our data demonstrate elevated activity of the inflammatory cytokines IL-1 β and IL-6 in COVID-19 in blood
222 and tissues, and demonstrate the utility of cytokine transcriptional response modules in providing a dynamic
223 readout of the activity of these pathways *in vivo*. We propose that use of these modules may enhance
224 efforts to investigate the pathology of COVID-19, support development of methods to stratify patients' risk
225 of clinical progression, and aid quantification of the biological effects of host-directed immunomodulatory
226 therapeutics in COVID-19.

227

228 Resource availability

229 Lead Contact

230 Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by
231 the Lead Contact, Dr Gabriele Pollara (g.pollara@ucl.ac.uk).

232 Materials Availability

233 The current study made use of transcriptional modules derived from two open access publications (Jura et
234 al., 2008; Pollara et al., 2019). The gene content for each module is available in table S2. The R code used to
235 calculate geometric mean expression of modules has been previously published (Pollara et al., 2017) and is
236 freely available (<https://github.com/MJMurray1/MDIScoring>).

237 Data and Code Availability

238 This study did not generate new datasets or code. The title, DOI, accession number and repository for all
239 datasets used to support the current study are listed in Table S1.

240

241 Author contributions

242 LCKB, MN and GP conceived the study. LCKB, CM, JK, JF, DB, CEM, SDS and GP performed the analyses. LCKB,
243 SDS, MN and GP critically appraised the results, drafted the manuscript, and agreed on the data presented
244 and the conclusions reached in the final version. All authors reviewed and approved the manuscript.

245 Competing interests

246 No competing interests exist.

247 Data sharing

248 All transcriptional datasets used in this manuscript were derived from public repositories. Their source is
249 detailed in table S1 and software used to analyse these data is described in the methods.

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389

390 Figure legends

391 **Figure 1.** Validation of cytokine response modules. Geometric mean module expression in A) MDM
392 stimulated *in vitro* with either IL-1 β (15 ng/ml) or IL-6 (25 ng/ml) for 4 hours (Jura et al., 2008), B) PBMC
393 stimulated with TNF α (20 ng/ml) or IL-1 β (10 ng/ml) for 6 hours (Boisson et al., 2012), C) human renal
394 proximal tubular epithelial (HK-2) cells stimulated with IL-6 (200 ng/ml) or TNF α (100 ng/ml) for 1.5 hours
395 (O’Brown et al., 2015) and D) human macrophage cell lines (THP-1) stimulated with IL-6 (50 ng/ml) or TNF α
396 (10 ng/ml) for 2 hours (Das et al., 2020). Transcriptomic datasets are designated adjacent to figure panels. *
397 = $p < 0.05$ by Mann-Whitney test.

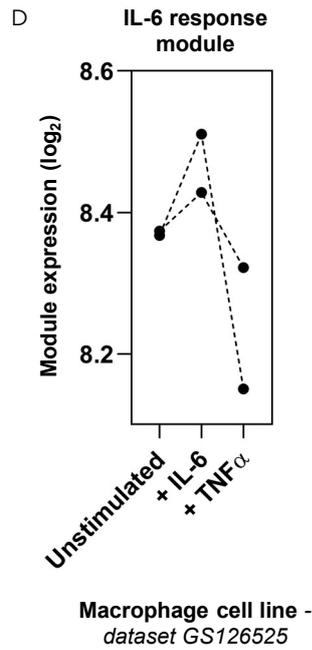
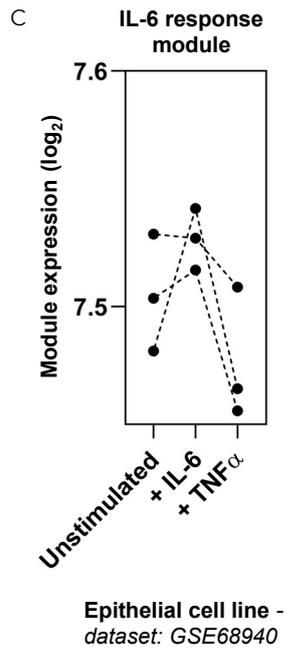
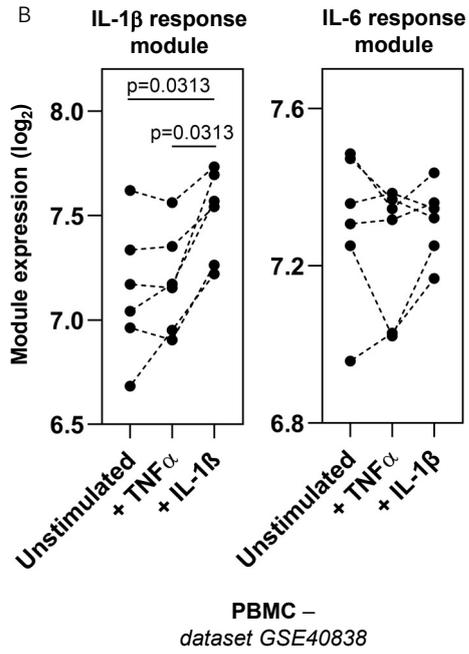
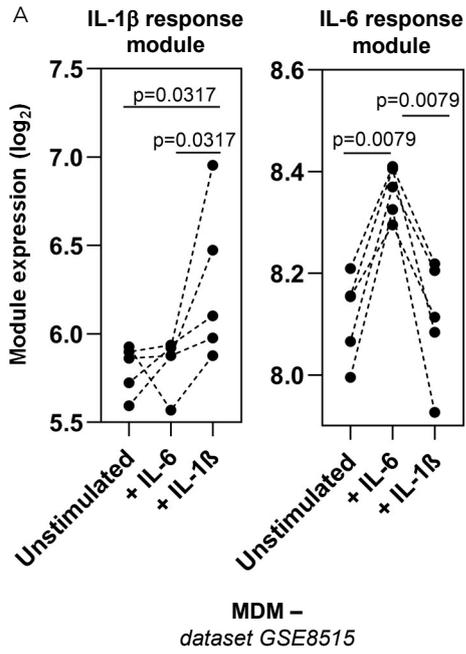
398 **Figure 2.** Cytokine response module expression in chronic inflammatory conditions. Geometric mean
399 expression of IL-1 β and IL-6 cytokine response modules in A) blood of patients with JIA compared to healthy
400 controls (Brachat et al., 2017), and B) in the synovium of RA patients compared to that of healthy controls
401 (Broeren et al., 2016). Transcriptomic datasets are designated adjacent to figure panels. * = $p < 0.05$ by
402 Mann-Whitney test.

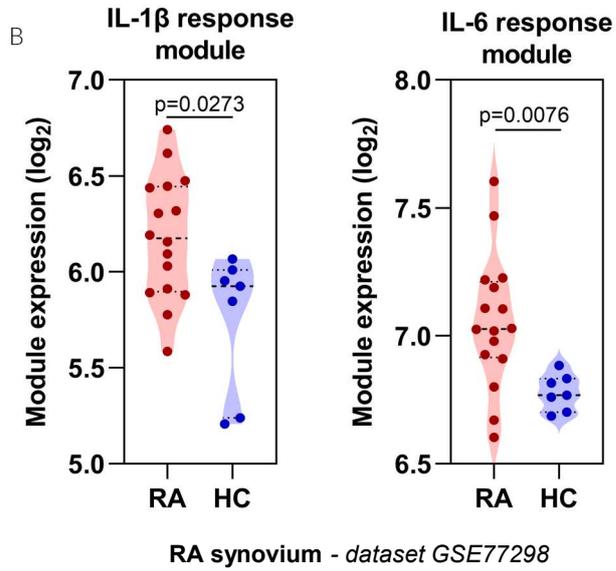
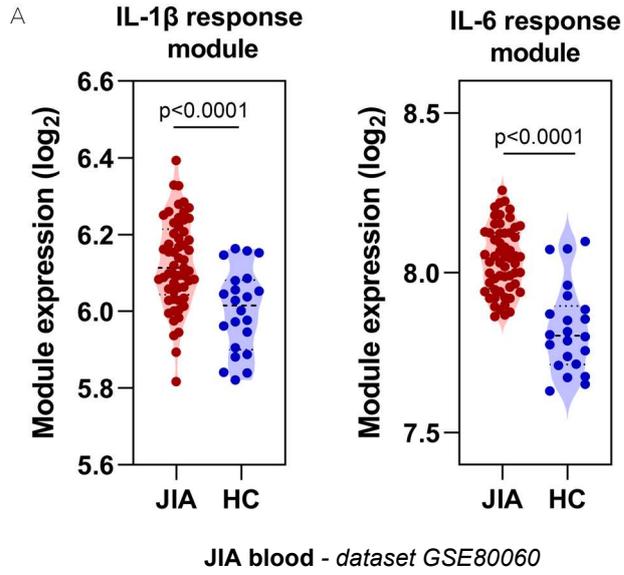
403 **Figure 3.** Effect of canakinumab on expression of cytokine response modules and genes. A) Geometric mean
404 expression of IL-1 β and IL-6 cytokine response modules in JIA patients before and 3 days after administration
405 of canakinumab (Brachat et al., 2017). Patients were subdivided into good responders (90-100%
406 improvement) and non-responders (0-30% improvement). Dotted lines indicate median module or gene
407 expression in healthy controls (HC) population in same dataset. * = $p < 0.05$ by Mann-Whitney test. B)
408 Relationship between expression of cytokine response modules and cytokine genes. Statistical assessment of
409 correlation made by Spearman Rank correlation. r = correlation coefficient. Transcriptomic dataset
410 designated adjacent to figure panels.

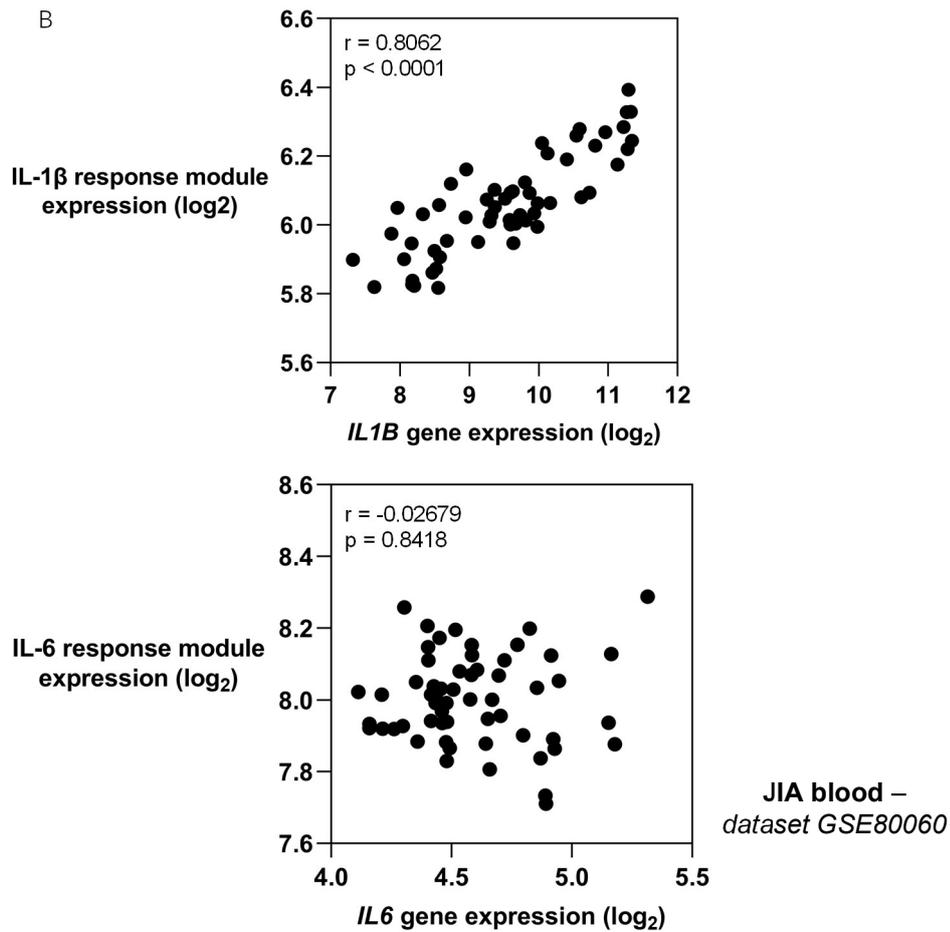
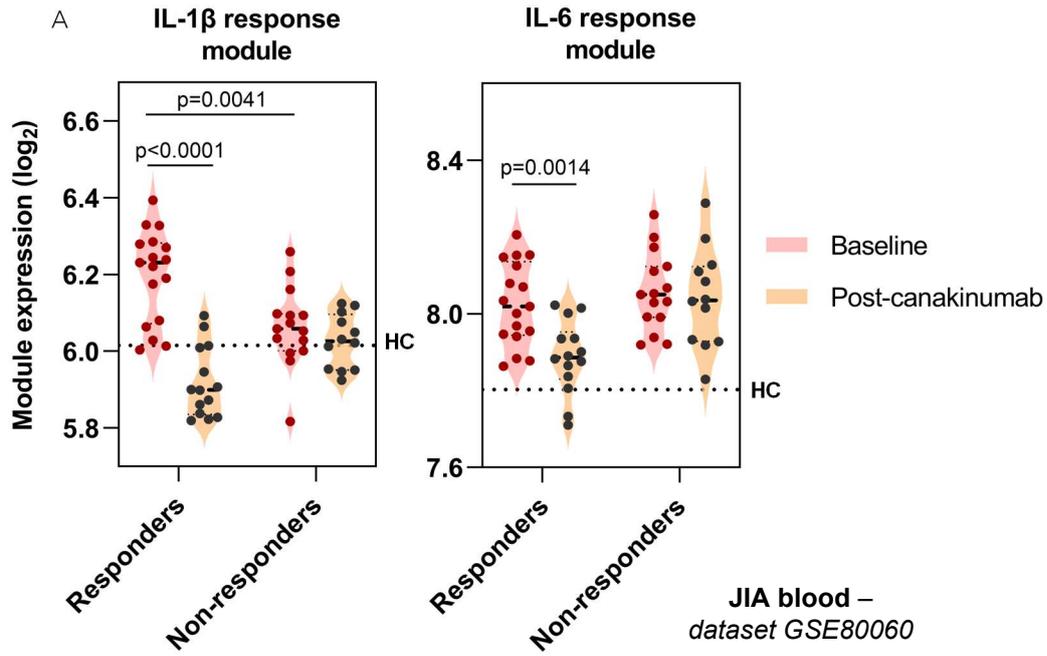
411 **Figure 4.** Cytokine response modules at the site of disease in COVID-19. A) Gene set enrichment analysis
412 (GSEA) of the IL-1 β and IL-6 modules was applied to nasopharyngeal swabs from SARS-CoV-2 infected and
413 uninfected individuals. Patients were stratified into low (pink), medium (orange) and high (red) viral loads as
414 previously described (Ramlall et al., 2020). GSEA was used to determine the level of engagement for the
415 respective modules in the context of SARS-CoV-2 infection (Subramanian et al., 2005), in line with previously
416 published analysis of this data set (Ramlall et al., 2020). Normalised enrichment scores (NES) are shown on
417 the x axes and measurement of statistical significance (false detection rate q-value) is shown on the y axes.
418 The threshold for significance ($q=0.05$) is shown by the dotted lines; data points below the dotted lines are
419 significantly enriched for the relevant module in each group of SARS-CoV-2 positive patients, in comparison
420 to the control group. B) Leading edge enrichment plots from GSEA of the cytokine modules for each
421 comparison.

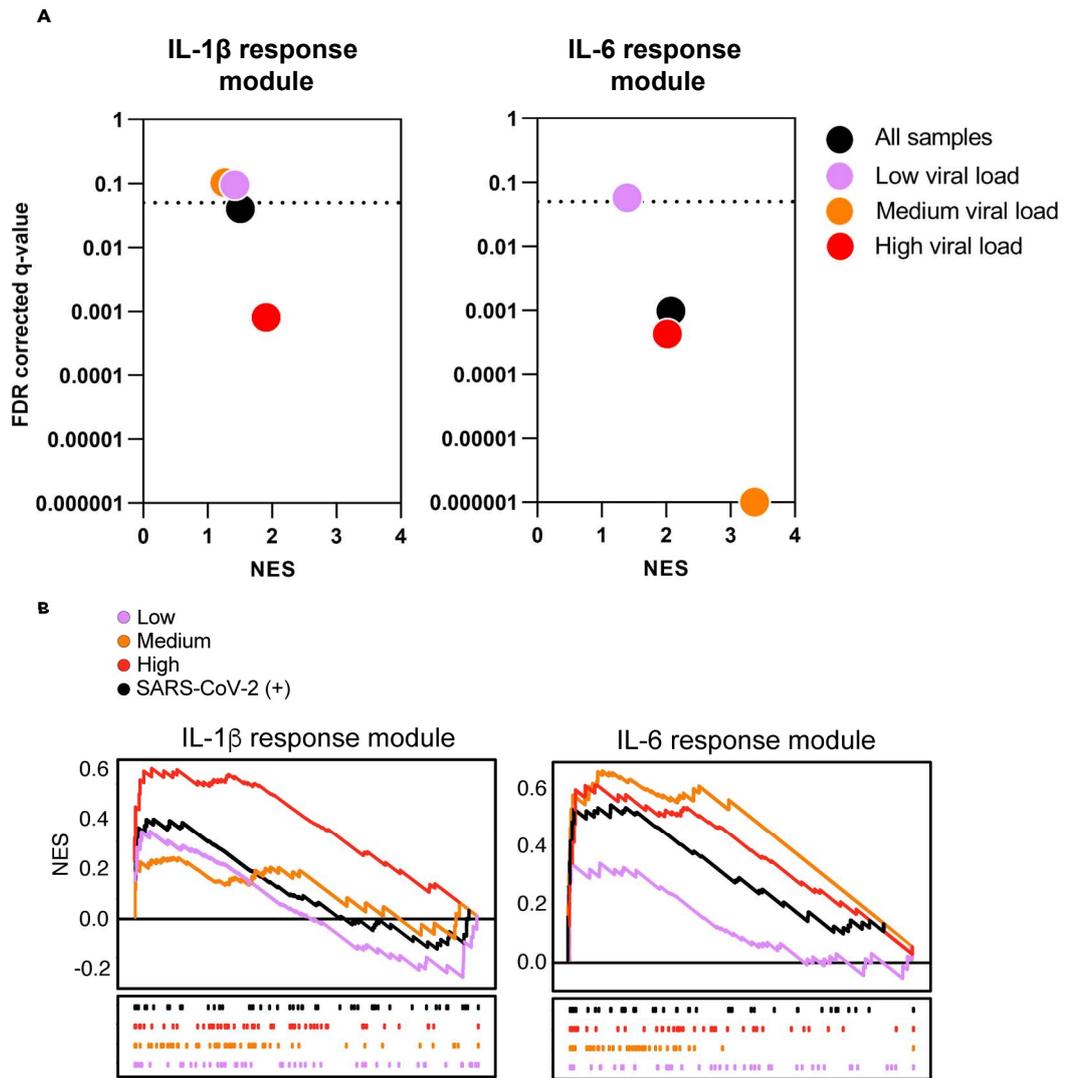
422 **Figure 5.** Cytokine response module and gene expression in COVID-19 blood samples. A) Geometric mean
 423 expression of IL-1 β and IL-6 response module and *IL1A*, *IL1B* and *IL6* gene expression in patients admitted
 424 with COVID-19 (Ong et al., 2020). Number of patient samples at each timepoint designated on first plot of
 425 each row, but applicable for all panels. Where more than one sample was available at any time point, the
 426 mean expression +/- SEM is plotted. Kruskal-Wallis test was performed on binned time points 4-6, 7-9, 10-
 427 12 and 12+ days following hospitalisation, corresponding to 4, 7, 8 and 3 samples in each of these categories.
 428 The p values shown represent Kruskal-Wallis tests with time since hospital admission as the independent
 429 variable, where a threshold of 0.01 (corrected for multiple testing by the Bonferroni method) is required for
 430 a single test to be classed as significant (significant p-values indicated in bold text). B) Geometric mean
 431 expression of IL-1 β and IL-6 response modules in whole blood transcriptomic profiles from patients admitted
 432 with moderate (n=11) severe (n=10) or critical (n=11) COVID-19, in comparison to healthy controls (n=13)
 433 (Hadjadj et al., 2020). In this study, samples were collected from patients at the time of admission to
 434 hospital, a median of 10 days (IQR 9 – 11 days) from symptom onset. A Mann-Whitney test was used to
 435 assess differences in module expression between all COVID-19 patients and healthy controls (* = p < 0.05),
 436 and a Kruskal-Wallis test was used to determine variability in module expression between the grades of
 437 COVID-19 disease severity.

438 **Figure 6.** Relationship between cytokine response module expression at admission in COVID-19 and clinical
 439 outcome. A) Geometric mean expression of IL-1 β and IL-6 response modules in transcriptomic profiles of
 440 blood leucocytes collected from 101 COVID-19 and 24 non-COVID-19 patients. In this study, samples were
 441 collected from patients at a median of 3.37 days from admission to hospital (Overmyer et al., 2020) . B) In
 442 patients from this cohort who were not admitted to ITU, the relationship between expression of cytokine
 443 response modules, or a previously validated T-cell module (Pollara et al., 2017), and the number of hospital
 444 free days at day 45 (HFD-45) following hospital admission (whereby zero days indicated continued admission
 445 or death) is shown. Statistical assessment of correlation made by Spearman Rank correlation. r = correlation
 446 coefficient.

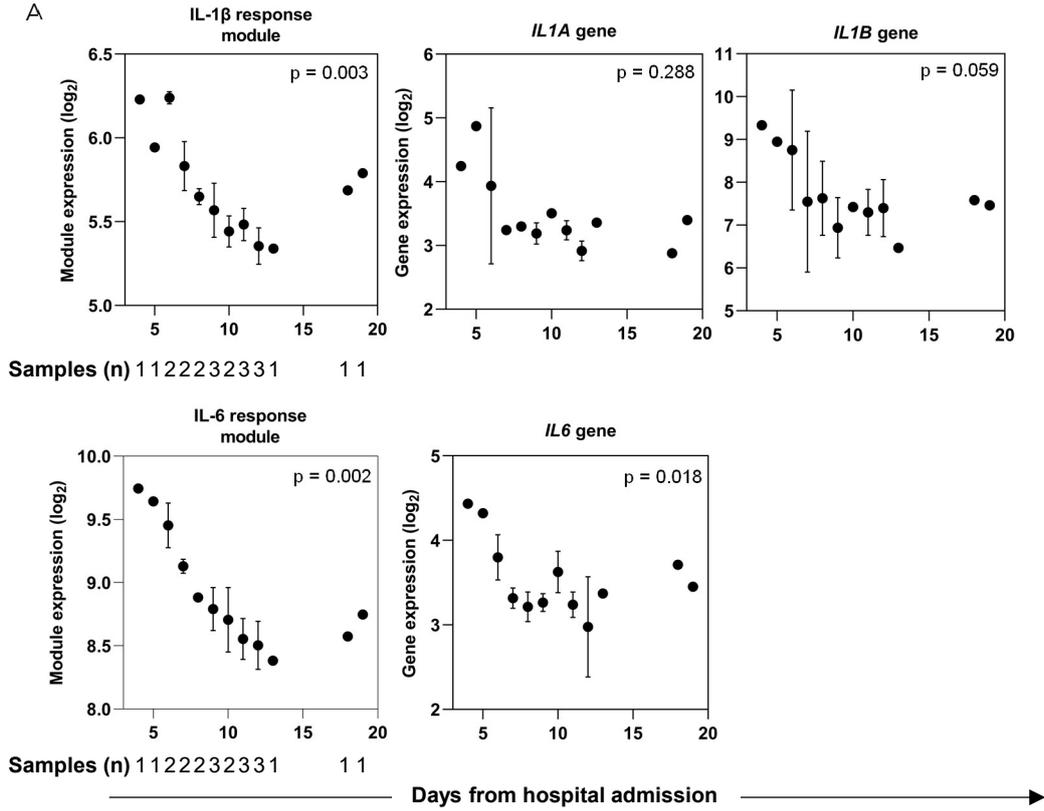






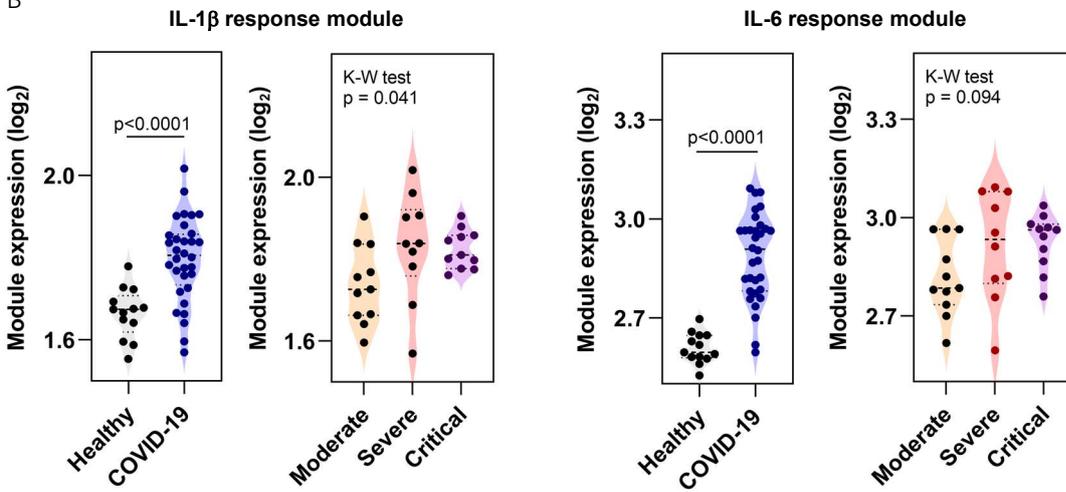


A

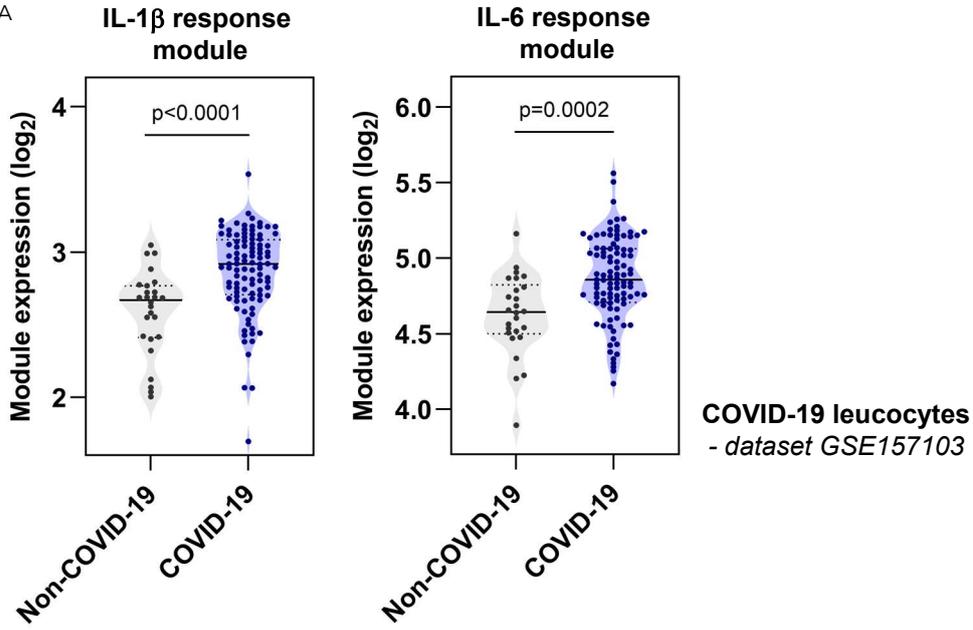


COVID-19 blood –
dataset E-MTAB-8871

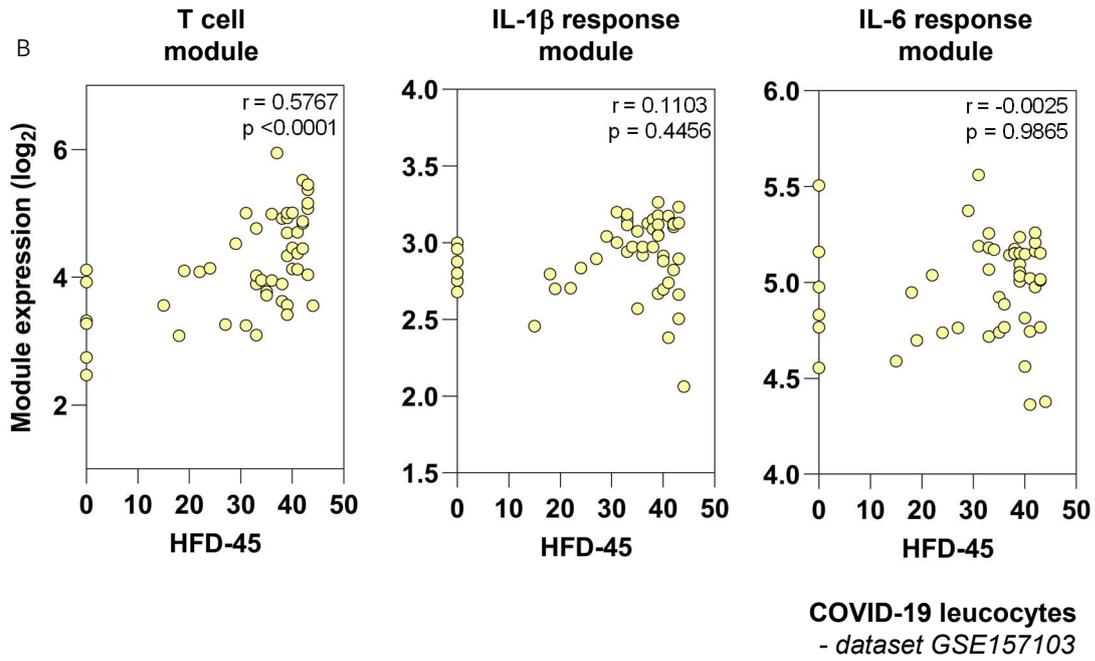
B



A



B



Transcriptional response modules characterise IL-1 β and IL-6 activity in COVID-19

Highlights

- Transcriptional response modules reflect IL-1 β and IL-6 activity in vivo
- Response modules are superior to single gene transcripts in measuring cytokine activity
- Elevated IL-1 β and IL-6 activity are a feature of COVID-19 disease in blood and tissues
- COVID-19 disease severity is not associated with greater IL-1 β or IL-6 activity

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