

1 **Whole blood immunophenotyping uncovers immature neutrophil-to-VD2 T-cell**
2 **ratio as an early prognostic marker for severe COVID-19**

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30

31 **Keywords:**

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39 **Abstract**

40 SARS-CoV-2 is the novel coronavirus responsible for the current COVID-19
41 pandemic. Severe complications are observed only in a small proportion of infected
42 patients but the cellular mechanisms underlying this progression are still unknown.
43 Comprehensive flow cytometry of whole blood samples from 54 COVID-19 patients
44 revealed a dramatic increase in the number of immature neutrophils. This increase
45 strongly correlated with disease severity and was associated with elevated IL-6 and
46 IP-10 levels, two key players in the cytokine storm. The most pronounced decrease
47 in cell counts was observed for CD8 T-cells and VD2 $\gamma\delta$ T-cells, which both exhibited
48 increased differentiation and activation. ROC analysis revealed that the count ratio of
49 immature neutrophils to CD8 or VD2 T-cells predicts pneumonia onset (0.9071) as
50 well as hypoxia onset (0.8908) with high sensitivity and specificity. It would thus be a
51 useful prognostic marker for preventive patient management and improved
52 healthcare resource management.

53 **Introduction**

54 Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) first appeared in
55 Wuhan, China in late 2019. It is a novel pathogen responsible for the coronavirus
56 disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic ¹. COVID-19 patients experience a wide
57 spectrum of clinical manifestations that ranges from low-grade fever and mild
58 respiratory symptoms, to more severe forms. This including acute respiratory
59 distress syndrome (ARDS), which requires provision of supplemental oxygen, and in
60 some cases intubation and mechanical ventilation ²⁻⁵. However, it remains unclear
61 how SARS-CoV-2 infection affects the activation of immune cells and their
62 contribution towards the severity of disease outcomes in patients.

63 Previous clinical studies reported associations with clinical blood counts, while
64 others have specifically assessed T-cell subsets for activation and exhaustion
65 markers ⁶⁻⁹. Since strong evidence points to a cytokine storm as the culprit for
66 disease severity ^{10,11}, various groups have investigated cytokine-secreting
67 pathogenic T-cells and inflammatory monocytes that could have triggered this
68 phenomenon ⁶⁻⁹. In addition, flow cytometry analysis in COVID-19 patients has also
69 shown a polarisation towards the Th17 subtype and a highly activated and
70 exhausted CD8⁺ T-cell compartment ^{12,13}. All these studies were carried out on
71 peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs), thus excluding most granulocyte
72 populations ^{12,13}. However, to elucidate all the immune subsets that could potentially
73 trigger severe COVID-19 pathology, it is imperative to perform comprehensive whole
74 blood immunophenotyping of COVID-19 patients which includes granulocyte
75 populations.

76 In this study, we employed high dimensional flow cytometry to analyse a wide
77 spectrum of more than 50 subsets of the myeloid and lymphoid immune cell

78 compartments. The study was carried out during the ongoing SARS-CoV-2
79 pandemic in Singapore with a cohort of 54 COVID-19 patients who presented with
80 varied clinical manifestations ranging from mild to fatal outcomes. This
81 comprehensive immunophenotyping allowed the identification of immature
82 neutrophils, CD8 T-cells and gamma delta (VD) 2 T-cells as key immune cell
83 populations that undergo substantial changes in the cell counts across the spectrum
84 of clinical severity. Their numbers, in fact, represent an early and robust prognosis
85 value as shown by 'receiver operating characteristics' (ROC) analysis.

86 **Results**

87 **Circulating myeloid populations are reduced in COVID-19 patients**

88 A total of 54 patients with laboratory-confirmed SARS-CoV-2 infection were recruited
89 at the National Centre for Infectious Diseases (NCID), Singapore from end March to
90 mid-May 2020 (Supplementary Table 1). Blood was collected from 54 patients upon
91 enrollment at a median 7 days post-illness onset (pio), from 28 patients who had
92 recovered from COVID-19 disease (median 30 days pio, Supplementary Table 1)
93 and 19 healthy donors (Supplementary Table 2). Immunophenotyping of whole blood
94 samples was carried out with three distinct flow cytometry panels to analyse myeloid,
95 granulocyte and lymphoid subsets. (Figure 1A, Supplementary Table 3). Each panel
96 was supplemented with counting beads to allow accurate assessment of cell counts.
97 19 of the 54 acute patients had paired plasma samples that permitted quantification
98 of immune mediators by Luminex multiplex microbead-based immunoassay. The
99 cohort was strongly biased towards males of which two patients had fatal outcomes
100 (3.7%).

101 The FACS analysis revealed a declined cell count for eosinophils, basophils,
102 total T-cells, dendritic cells (DCs), natural killer (NK) CD56 Bright, and plasmacitoid
103 DCs (pDCs) in patients with acute COVID-19 infection (Figure 1B, Supplementary
104 Figure 1A). No significant changes were observed for B-cells, total monocytes, and
105 total NK cells (Figure 1B, Supplementary Figure 1A). Unbiased analysis by Uniform
106 Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) and graph-based clustering however
107 identified with CD169⁺ monocytes and CD11b^{high} neutrophils, two additional clusters
108 with high variation in acute patients (Figure 1C). Further analysis showed that the
109 monocytes presented with an increased expression of CD169 (strong type I
110 interferon signature marker ¹⁴), increased expression of CD11b and HLA-DR, as

111 well as CD33, a constitutive PI3K signaling inhibitor^{15,16} (Figure 1D, Supplementary
112 Figure 1B).

113 Similar to the monocytes, neutrophils showed a significant upregulation of
114 CD11b, CD66b, Siglec 8, CD38 and HLA-DR, suggesting that they were activated in
115 response to SARS-CoV-2 infection (Figure 1E, Supplementary Figure 1C).
116 Interestingly, despite this activation phenotype, an increase in the overall number of
117 circulating neutrophils during acute SARS-CoV-2 infection based on conventional
118 phenotypic markers (CD66b and CD16) was observed only in a small subset of our
119 cohort (Figure 1F). However, in-depth analysis of neutrophil subsets allows
120 discrimination between immature (CD16^{low/high}CD10⁻) and mature (CD10⁺) subsets
121 (Figure 1G)¹⁷⁻¹⁹. Overall, a significant increase of immature neutrophil numbers was
122 observed in acute patients as compared to healthy donors or recovered patients,
123 while the number of mature neutrophils decreased (Figure 1H).

124

125 **CD8 and $\gamma\delta$ T-cell populations are the most affected lymphocyte subsets**

126 To better characterise COVID-19-induced lymphopenia, levels of CD8, CD4, $\gamma\delta$ (i.e.
127 VD1 and VD2), and mucosal-associated invariant T-cells (MAIT,
128 CD3⁺VA7.2⁺CD161⁺) were assessed during acute infection. Results showed a
129 decrease in circulating MAIT, CD8⁺ and VD2 T-cells (Figure 2A). However,
130 circulating VD1 T-cells did not vary in numbers, and CD4⁺ T-cells did not show a
131 significant decrease during acute infection (Figure 2A). Interestingly, levels of
132 regulatory T-cells (Treg) and CD4⁺CD161⁺ T-cells increased in recovered patients as
133 compared to acute patients (Figure 2A).

134 Next, UMAP analysis was done on CD3⁺ cells to visualise changes in
135 differentiation states within the T-cell compartments (Figure 2B). UMAP visualisation

136 suggests that phenotypic modulation in the CD8⁺ cluster was the most pronounced
137 during SARS-CoV-2 infection (Figure 2B). In order to validate this observation,
138 CD45RA and CD27 markers were used to analyse the frequency of naïve
139 (CD45RA⁺CD27⁺), central memory (CM, CD45RA⁻CD27⁺), effector memory (EM,
140 CD45RA⁻CD27⁻) and terminal effector (TEMRA, CD45RA⁺CD27⁻) amongst the T-cell
141 populations (Figure 2C, Supplementary Figure 2A). In agreement with the UMAP
142 analysis, CD8⁺ T-cells showed a change in differentiation profile from naïve in favour
143 of EM and TEMRA (Figure 2C). Noticeably, the frequency of naïve CD4⁺ T-cells
144 decreased but was not reflected in a significant increase of a specific differentiated
145 population (Figure 2C).

146 In addition, UMAP analysis also suggested changes in VD1 and VD2
147 populations that were not reflected in terms of differentiation (Figure 2B-C).
148 Therefore, we investigated the expression of general activation marker CD38 (Figure
149 2D). In this context, we observed that all differentiation stages of CD8⁺ T-cells, VD1
150 and VD2, had higher expression of CD38 except VD2 TEMRA (Figure 2E). On the
151 other hand, CD4⁺ T-cells only showed activation of the TEMRA compartment (Figure
152 2E). Together, our data suggest that while circulating cell counts were generally
153 decreased for T-cells, SARS-CoV-2 differentially impacts the different T-cell subsets
154 in terms cell counts, differentiation and expression of CD38.

155

156 **Granularity of clinical severity is reflected by immune cell counts**

157 In order to associate the data with the clinical severity we separated the patients into
158 four different groups: no pneumonia, pneumonia only, pneumonia and hypoxia, and
159 pneumonia and hypoxia requiring ICU admission (Figure 3A)^{20,21}. This allowed
160 estimation of cell counts in those groups and identification of markers that potentially

161 depict disease severity. Consistent with previous studies on CD4 and CD8
162 lymphopenia^{6,22,23}, CD8⁺, CD4⁺, MAIT, VD1 and VD2 T-cells showed a gradual
163 reduction in the peripheral blood with increasing disease severity (Figure 3B). The
164 effect was more pronounced for CD8⁺ and VD2 T-cells (Figure 3B), suggesting a
165 strong activation and infiltration of these cells in the lungs.

166 Cell counts in various myeloid subsets showed a similar decreasing profile
167 with severity for pDCs, DCs, classical and intermediate monocytes (Figure 3C). In
168 contrast to cell counts, myeloid activation markers showed differential trends with
169 severity (Figure 3D). CD86 expression on DCs, HLA-DR and CD33 expression on
170 monocytes followed a gradual decrease with increasing severity (Figure 3D).
171 Expression of CD169 on monocytes was decreased in ICU patients, while CD86
172 expression on pDCs was consistent across severity groups (Figure 3D). Together,
173 these results suggest that the remaining circulating monocytes and DCs in severe
174 cases have a dysregulated phenotype.

175 While total circulating neutrophils showed no significant change with disease
176 severity, neutrophilia was only observed in some patients with severe clinical
177 complications (Figure 3E). Particularly, there was a change in the composition of
178 neutrophil subsets in accordance to disease severity, where an increase in the
179 immature neutrophil cell count and frequency was accompanied with a decrease of
180 mature neutrophils (Figure 3E). These results suggest that immature neutrophils
181 could reflect disease severity much more accurately than total neutrophil counts.

182

183 **Immature neutrophil absolute count correlates with cytokines**

184 Neutrophil-to-Lymphocyte Ratio (NLR) or Neutrophil-to-CD8 T-cell Ratio (N8R) were
185 proposed to be good diagnostic and prognostic markers for severe COVID-19

186 respiratory disease^{23,24}. However, these studies observed increased neutrophils in
187 severe cases which was not consistent with our observations and in another study²⁵
188 (Figure 1F and 3E). To validate that the identified populations would be good
189 markers of disease severity, a correlation analysis with analyte levels in available
190 paired plasma samples was performed (Figure 4A, Supplementary Figure 3).
191 Interestingly, strong correlation scores were observed between analytes and
192 immature neutrophil counts (Figure 4A, Supplementary Figure 3A), rather than with
193 total neutrophil counts (Figure 4A, Supplementary Figure 3B). The strongest
194 correlations were observed between immature neutrophil counts and IL-6
195 ($\rho=0.6747$, $p=0.0015$), and IP-10 ($\rho=0.7596$, $p=0.0002$) (Figure 4B).

196 In addition, strong correlations were also observed between mature
197 neutrophils, monocytes and intermediate monocytes, as well as CD8 and VD2 T-cell
198 counts (Supplementary Figure 3C). These results suggest that immature neutrophils
199 counts can potentially be used as sensitive and reliable indicators of disease
200 severity.

201

202 **Immature neutrophil to VD2 T-cell ratio as an improved prognostic marker**

203 We next assessed if an immature neutrophil-to-CD8 T-cells ratio (iN8R) or VD2 T-
204 cell counts ratio (iNVD2R) could be a better prognostic marker of disease severity as
205 compared to the current proposed NLR and N8R^{23,24}. To differentiate patients with
206 and without pneumonia, iNVD2R performed better than N8R or iN8R with an area
207 under receiver operating characteristic (AUROC) curve of 0.8451 (95% confidence
208 interval CI: 0.7379-0.9523) vs 0.806 (95% CI: 0.6911-0.9210) and 0.7158 (95% CI:
209 0.5754-0.8562) respectively (Figure 5A). In addition, to differentiate patients with and
210 without hypoxia, an AUROC of 0.9111 (95% CI: 0.8306-0.9916) was obtained for

211 iNVD2R as compared to 0.8931 (95% CI: 0.8044-0.9817) for iN8R and 0.7958 (95%
212 CI: 0.6781-0.9136) for N8R. These results indicate that iNVD2R and iN8R could be
213 good markers for severe respiratory disease.

214 To assess if this analysis could have predictive prognostic value in
215 hospitalisation settings to improve patient management, we repeated the analysis
216 with the samples that were acquired before 7 days pio (24 patients, median pio = 3
217 days). AUROC for iNVD2R showed strong prognostic value for pneumonia onset
218 (0.9071) as well as for onset of hypoxia (0.8908) (Figure 5B, Table 1). Our data
219 show that immature neutrophil counts are better in predicting disease severity as
220 compared to total neutrophil counts. Importantly, they can be used in a ratio with
221 CD8 or VD2 lymphocyte counts to improve the current N8R predictive ratio.

222 **Discussion**

223 In this study, immunophenotyping of peripheral blood from COVID-19 patients
224 revealed a significant shift in the ratio between mature and immature neutrophils
225 associating with severity. The increased numbers of immature neutrophils and the
226 disappearance of mature neutrophils likely reflect gradual and sustained mobilisation
227 of these cells into the lungs in response to an ongoing inflammation, leading to
228 premature release of immature neutrophils from the bone marrow ¹⁹. Supporting this
229 hypothesis, a recent study investigated several myeloid populations between
230 circulating PBMCs and the lung lavage of COVID-19 patients showed that
231 granulocytes represent up to 80% of total CD45⁺ lung infiltrates ²⁶. In addition,
232 autopsies of COVID-19 fatalities showed typical lesions associated with toxic
233 neutrophil effects ^{27,28}. In line with this observation, marked morphological
234 abnormalities of the circulating neutrophils were reported in COVID-19 patients ²⁵.
235 These cells present typical hallmarks of immature neutrophils and their precursors
236 such as band shaped nuclei and a lower expression of CD10 and CD16 ²⁹.
237 Consistent with our data, a recent study on a small number of patients reported that
238 the presence of "low density inflammatory neutrophils" was strongly associated with
239 disease severity and IL-6 levels ³⁰. This CD11b^{int}CD44^{low}CD16^{int} low density
240 neutrophil population is likely constituted primarily of CD10⁻ immature neutrophils.

241 In addition, immature neutrophil numbers strongly correlated with IL-6 and IP-
242 10. IL-6 and IP-10 are consistently upregulated during a cytokine storm and are
243 associated with severe ARDS ^{9,10,31,32}. While some studies report inflammatory
244 monocytes as the source of IL-6 ^{9,33,34}, our results suggest that immature neutrophils
245 could also be a non-negligible source of IL-6 during COVID-19-induced cytokine
246 storm. Indeed, neutrophils have been found to produce biologically relevant amounts

247 of IL-6 after engagement of TLR8, a toll like receptor recognising single strand RNAs
248 of viral or bacterial origin ^{35,36}. Since IL-17 operates upstream of IL-1 and IL-6, and is
249 a major orchestrator of sustained neutrophils mobilisation ³⁷, it is plausible that IL-17
250 could significantly affect the neutrophils compartment in COVID-19 patients.
251 Consistent with this hypothesis, CD4 T-cells in COVID-19 patients are skewed
252 towards a Th17 phenotype ¹³, and we also observed increased CD4⁺CD161⁺ T-cells
253 in recovered patients. These CD4⁺CD161⁺ T-cells are known to be either IL-17
254 producer cells or their precursors ³⁸. Thus, our results could reflect the re-circulation
255 of these cells from the lung or secondary lymphoid organs after infection and support
256 the possibility of IL-17 in mediating neutrophil damage to the lungs. Together, this
257 would support proposed anti-IL-17 or JAK2 inhibitor therapies for severe COVID-19
258 disease ³⁹⁻⁴¹.

259 In addition to the changes in the heterogeneity of neutrophils, a strong
260 decrease in T-cells was observed, especially in subsets that possess cytolytic
261 activity such as CD8, VD1 and VD2 T-cells. These results are consistent with other
262 studies showing a decrease of CD8⁺ during COVID-19 disease ^{12,13}. As for VD2 T-
263 cells, which are not MHC-restricted T-cells ^{42,43}, we showed a general decrease in
264 the periphery with disease severity. This is in line with other inflammatory disease
265 such as psoriasis ⁴⁴ and Crohn's disease ⁴⁵. However, in the lungs, during chronic
266 obstructive pulmonary disease, $\gamma\delta$ T-cell counts have been reported to be
267 significantly lower in induced sputum (IS) and bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) but not
268 in peripheral blood, suggesting unclear inflammatory mechanisms that could
269 influence $\gamma\delta$ T-cells counts in the periphery ⁴⁶. Interestingly, $\gamma\delta$ T-cells, in particular
270 VD2, are known to participate in influenza immune response ⁴⁷, and actively recruit
271 and activate neutrophils to the site of infection or inflammation ^{48,49}. Activated,

272 neutrophils have also been found to inhibit $\gamma\delta$ T-cells functional capacity, promoting
273 the resolution of inflammation^{50,51}. Therefore, it will be essential to investigate the
274 neutrophil to $\gamma\delta$ T-cells relationship present in lungs of SARS-CoV-2 infected
275 patients.

276 During aging, VD2 T-cell counts in the periphery have been shown to
277 decrease with age. Elderly individuals generally have systemic chronic low-grade
278 inflammation, which we previously termed “inflamm-aging”, with higher basal levels
279 of molecules such as CRP, TNF-a and IL-6^{52,53}. These similarities in modulation of
280 VD2 T-cell counts and cytokines between COVID-19 severity and aging could
281 explain why elderly individuals are more susceptible to severe disease, since they
282 have a higher basal level of inflammation and lower level of VD2 T-cells as
283 compared to the young.

284 Our results indicate that an early post illness onset iNVD2R, accessible
285 through a simple 5 colours flow cytometry panel (CD3; VD2; CD66b/CD15; CD10;
286 CD45), would be an excellent prognostic screening tool for predicting probable
287 patient progression to pneumonia or hypoxia. Moreover, CD8 could also be included
288 in the flow cytometry panel as a fallback option since VD2 counts could be
289 decreased by medication, such as Azathioprine, as well as underlying conditions,
290 such as inflammatory bowel disease, aging or psoriasis, which could be risk factors
291 for COVID-19⁴⁵. Analysis of the proposed parameter would allow for a more
292 accurate and earlier prognosis due to the interconnection between neutrophils and
293 V δ 2 T cells, which can then be utilised for early therapeutic interventions, improve
294 patient triage and better healthcare resource management.

295 **Material and Methods**

296 **Study design**

297 This was an observational cohort study of patients with PCR-confirmed COVID-19
298 who were admitted to the National Centre for Infectious Diseases, Singapore. All
299 patients with COVID-19 in Singapore, regardless of the severity of infection, are
300 admitted to isolation facilities until clinical recovery and viral clearance. Supportive
301 therapy including supplemental oxygen and symptomatic treatment were
302 administered as required. Patients with moderate to severe hypoxia (defined as
303 requiring fraction of inspired oxygen [FiO_2] $\geq 40\%$) were transferred to the intensive
304 care for further management including invasive mechanical ventilation where
305 necessary.

306 Sample Size: No power analysis was done. Sample size was based on sample
307 availability. Randomization: No randomization was done. Blinding: Clinical
308 parameters were made available after data analysis.

309

310 **Ethics statement**

311 Written informed consent was obtained from participants in accordance with the
312 tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki. For COVID-19 blood/plasma collection, “A
313 Multi-centred Prospective Study to Detect Novel Pathogens and Characterize
314 Emerging Infections (The PROTECT study group)”, a domain specific review board
315 (DSRB) evaluated the study design and protocol, which was approved under study
316 number 2012/00917. Healthy volunteers samples were obtained under the following
317 IRB “Study of blood cell subsets and their products in models of infection,
318 inflammation and immune regulation” under the CIRB number 2017/2806 from
319 SingHealth (Singapore).

320

321 **Donor information**

322 Patients who tested PCR-positive for SARS-CoV-2 in a respiratory sample from
323 February to April 2020 were recruited into the study ⁵⁴. Demographic data, disease
324 onset date, clinical score and SARS-CoV-2 RT-PCR results during the
325 hospitalisation period were retrieved from patient clinical records. Relevant
326 information are given in Supplementary Table 1. Patients were classified in different
327 clinical severity groups depending on the presence of pneumonia, hypoxia and the
328 need for ICU hospitalisation. For healthy volunteers, demographic data are provided
329 in Supplementary Table 2. Blood was collected in VACUETTE EDTA tubes (Greiner
330 Bio, #455036) or Cell Preparation Tubes (CPT) (BD, #362753) and 100 μ L of whole
331 blood was extracted for each FACS staining panel (Supplementary Table 3).

332

333 **Multiplex microbead-based immunoassay**

334 When available, plasma fraction was harvested after 20 minutes centrifugation at
335 1700 x *g* of blood collected in BD Vacutainer CPT tubes (BD, #362753). Plasma
336 samples were treated by solvent/detergent treatment with a final concentration of 1%
337 Triton X-100 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, #28314) for virus inactivation at RT for 2
338 hours in the dark under stringent Biosafety laboratory 2+ conditions (approved by
339 Singapore Ministry of Health) ⁵⁵. Immune mediator levels in COVID-19 patient
340 plasma samples across acute samples were measured with by Luminex using the
341 Cytokine/Chemokine/Growth Factor 45-plex Human ProcartaPlex™ Panel 1
342 (ThermoFisher Scientific, #EPX450-12171-901). Data acquisition was performed on
343 FLEXMAP® 3D (Luminex) using xPONENT® 4.0 (Luminex) software. Data analysis
344 was done on Bio-Plex Manager™ 6.1.1 (Bio-Rad). Standard curves were generated

345 with a 5-PL (5-parameter logistic) algorithm, reporting values for both mean
346 fluorescence intensity (MFI) and concentration data. Internal control samples were
347 included in each Luminex assay run to allow for detection and normalisation of plate-
348 to-plate and batch-to-batch variation. A correction factor was obtained from the
349 differences observed across the multiple assays with these controls and this
350 correction factor was then used to normalise all the samples. Analyte concentrations
351 were logarithmically transformed to ensure normality. Analytes that were not
352 detectable in patient samples were assigned the value of logarithmic transformation
353 of Limit of Quantification (LOQ).

354

355 **Flow cytometry**

356 Whole blood was stained with antibodies as stated in Supplementary Table 3 (100
357 μ L of whole blood per flow cytometry panel) for 20 minutes in the dark at RT.
358 Samples were then supplemented with 0.5 mL of 1.2X BD FACS lysing solution (BD
359 349202). Final FACS lysing solution concentration taking into account volume in tube
360 before addition is 1X. Samples were vortexed and incubated for 10 min at RT. 500
361 μ L of PBS (Gibco, #10010-031) was added to wash the samples and centrifugated
362 at 300 x g for 5 min. Washing step of samples were repeated with 1 mL of PBS.
363 Samples were then transferred to polystyrene FACS tubes containing 10 μ L (10800
364 beads) of CountBright Absolute Counting Beads (Invitrogen, #36950). Samples
365 were then acquired using BD LSRII 5 laser configuration using automatic
366 compensations and running BD FACS Diva Software version 8.0.1 (build 2014 07 03
367 11 47), Firmware version 1.14 (BDLSR II), CST version 3.0.1, PLA version 2.0.
368 Analysis of flow cytometric data was performed with FlowJo version 10.6.1. Gating

369 strategies for panels A, B and C are presented in Supplementary Figures 4, 5 and 6
370 respectively.

371

372 **Statistical analysis**

373 Statistical analysis was performed using Prism 8 (Graph Pad Software, Inc). For
374 comparisons of absolute cell counts or frequency, Kruskal-Wallis Test corrected with
375 Dunn's method was performed. For comparisons of geometric Mean Fluorescence
376 Intensity (gMFI) between three or more independent groups, Brown-Forsythe and
377 Welch ANOVA using Dunnett T3 correction for multiple comparison was performed.
378 For correlation analysis, spearman rank correlation was performed. p-values < 0.05
379 for correlations, while adjusted p-values < 0.05 for all the other comparisons were
380 considered significant.

381

382 **Data analysis and UMAP visualisation**

383 UMAP: Gated cells were manually exported using FlowJo (Tree Star Inc.). Samples
384 were then used for UMAP analysis using cytofkit2 R Packages with RStudio v3.5.2
385 ⁵⁶. Five healthy, six acute and four recovered patients were each concatenated to its
386 respective groups and 100000 cells were analysed using the ceil method. Custom R
387 scripts were used to generate Z-score and correlation heatmaps.

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394

395 **Author contributions**

396 GC, WX, IK conceptualised, designed the panels, acquired, analysed and interpreted
397 the data, and wrote the manuscript. MYA processed the patient blood, stained and
398 fixed the samples. YHC, SWF, KJP, BL, CYPL,SNA, NKWY, RSLC, WH, AA,
399 acquired and analysed the data. EFB, SSWC, BEY, YSL and DCL designed and
400 supervised sample collection. OR, LR, LGN, AL and LFPN conceptualised,
401 designed, analysed and wrote the manuscript. All authors revised and approved the
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403

404 **Competing interests**

405 The authors declare no competing interests.

406

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416 **Data availability**

417 Data can be obtained upon reasonable request to the corresponding author.

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648

649 **Figure legends**

650 **Figure 1: SARS-CoV-2 infection induces a decrease in immune cells in**
651 **peripheral blood.** (a) Schematic representation of flow cytometry workflow. (b)
652 Heatmap representation of row z-score of mean absolute cell counts across the
653 groups. Individual plots are shown in Supplementary Figure 1A. (c) UMAP clustering
654 of CD45+ immune cells. (d) Heatmap representation of row z-score of monocyte
655 activation markers mean geometric MFI (gMFI) across the groups. (e) Heatmap
656 representation of row z-score of neutrophil activation markers mean geometric MFI
657 (gMFI) across the groups. (f) Absolute neutrophil counts. (g) Representative plot of
658 mature and immature neutrophil gating strategy in healthy control or acute COVID-
659 19 patient. (h) Mature (CD10+) and Immature (CD10-) Neutrophil Abs counts.
660 Absolute counts were analysed by Kruskal-Wallis using Dunn correction for multiple
661 comparison, gMFI was analysed by Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA using
662 Dunnett T3 correction for multiple comparison. For heatmaps, stars shown in acute
663 column represent healthy vs acute comparison. Stars shown in recovered column
664 represent acute vs recovered comparison. ns non-significant. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$,
665 *** $p < 0.001$

666

667 **Figure 2: SARS-CoV-2 infection induces general lymphopenia and CD8, VD1**
668 **and VD2 activation.** (a) Absolute counts of T-cell compartments in healthy donors,
669 acute and recovered COVID-19 patient. (b) UMAP clustering of CD3+ cells. (c) left
670 panel: CD45RA and CD27 gating strategy; right panel: heatmap representation of
671 mean frequencies of T-cell differentiation across the groups, individual plots given in
672 Supplementary Figure 2. (d) Representative histogram of CD38 expression in CD4,
673 CD8, VD1 and VD2 T-cells. (e) Changes in CD38 gMFI in naïve, CM, EM and

674 TEMRA for CD8, CD4, VD1 and VD2 T-cells. Absolute counts were analysed by
675 Kruskal-Wallis using Dunn correction for multiple comparison, gMFI was analysed by
676 Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA using Dunnett T3 correction for multiple
677 comparison. For heatmaps, stars shown in acute column represent healthy vs acute
678 comparison. Stars shown in recovered column represent acute vs recovered
679 comparison. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

680

681 **Figure 3: Patient symptoms are reflected in immune cell variations.** (a)
682 Schematic representation of clinical symptoms in the patient cohort. (b) Absolute
683 counts of T-cells across the severity (c) Absolute counts of antigen presenting cells
684 across the severity. (d) gMFI of activation markers on antigen presenting cells. (e)
685 Absolute counts and frequency in neutrophil compartments. Absolute counts were
686 analysed by Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn multiple testing correction, gMFI was analysed
687 by Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA with Dunnett T3 multiple testing correction.
688 * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

689

690 **Figure 4: Immature neutrophils correlate with several analytes in paired patient**
691 **plasma.** (a) Spearman correlations between total neutrophils or immature
692 neutrophils and plasma analytes. Red cross represents non-significant correlations.
693 (b) Individual plots of Spearman correlations between immature neutrophil counts
694 and IL-6 and IP-10. Line was drawn using simple linear regression.

695

696 **Figure 5: Immature neutrophil to VD2 T-cell ratio is an early prognosis marker**
697 **for pneumonia and hypoxia symptoms.** (a) ROC curve analysis comparison was
698 performed for pneumonia and hypoxia symptoms between absolute counts of total

699 neutrophils to CD8 T-cell ratio, total neutrophils to VD2 T-cell, immature neutrophils
700 to CD8 T-cell ratio, and immature neutrophils to VD2 T-cell ratio. (b) Similar analysis
701 was performed on a subset of 24 early samples taken up to 7 days pio with a median
702 of 3 days pio. ROC curve was analysed using Wilson/Brown method. 95%
703 confidence interval and standard error for panel B are given in Table 1.

704 **Table 1: ROC curve analysis for neutrophils to T-cell ratios in patients with**
 705 **pneumonia or hypoxia compared to those without as presented in Figure 5b.**

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Pneumonia</u>			<u>Hypoxia</u>		
	AUC (95% CI)	Std.Error	p-value	AUC (95% CI)	Std.Error	p-value
Total neutrophils / CD8 T-cells	0.7143 (0.4909- 0.9377)	0.1140	0.0790	0.8319 (.6526-1)	0.09149	0.0121
Total neutrophils / VD2 T-cells	0.8643 (0.7135-1)	0.07694	0.0028	0.8824 (.07239-1)	0.08083	0.0039
Immature neutrophils / CD8 T-cells	0.7929 (0.5884- 0.9973)	0.1043	0.0164	0.8403 (0.6079-1)	0.1186	0.0101
Immature neutrophils / VD2 T-cells	0.9071 (0.7754-1)	0.06723	0.0008	0.8908 (0.7160-1)	0.08915	0.0031

ROC analysis was performed on COVID-19 patients between 2 to 7 days pio (24 patients, median 3 days pio). ROC curve was built by plotting true positive rate (sensitivity) against false positive rate (100%- sensitivity) and AUC was calculated from the plot. ROC, receiver operating characteristic ; AUC, area under curve ; CI, confidence interval ; Std.Error, standard error.

706

Figure 1

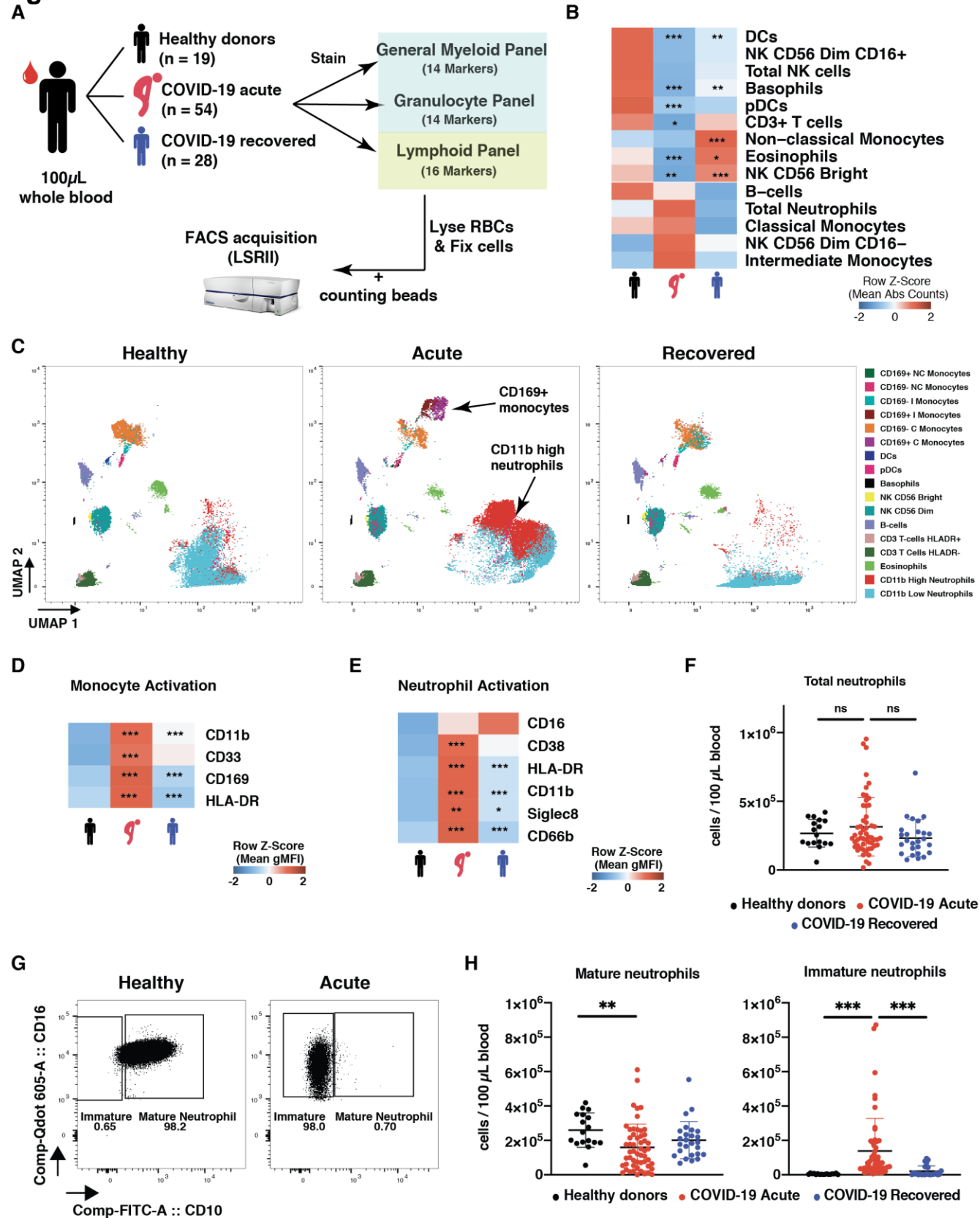


Figure 1: SARS-CoV-2 infection induces a decrease in immune cells in peripheral blood. (a) Schematic representation of flow cytometry workflow. (b) Heatmap representation of row z-score of mean absolute cell counts across the groups. Individual plots are shown in Supplementary Figure 1A. (c) UMAP clustering of CD45+ immune cells. (d) Heatmap representation of row z-score of monocyte activation markers mean geometric MFI (gMFI) across the groups. (e) Heatmap representation of row z-score of neutrophil activation markers mean geometric MFI (gMFI) across the groups. (f) Absolute neutrophil counts. (g) Representative plot of mature and immature neutrophil gating strategy in healthy control or acute COVID-19 patient. (h) Mature (CD10+) and Immature (CD10-) Neutrophil Abs counts. Absolute counts were analysed by Kruskal-Wallis using Dunn correction for multiple comparison, gMFI was analysed by Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA using Dunnett T3 correction for multiple comparison. For heatmaps, stars shown in acute column represent healthy vs acute comparison. Stars shown in recovered column represent acute vs recovered comparison. ns non-significant. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

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Figure 2

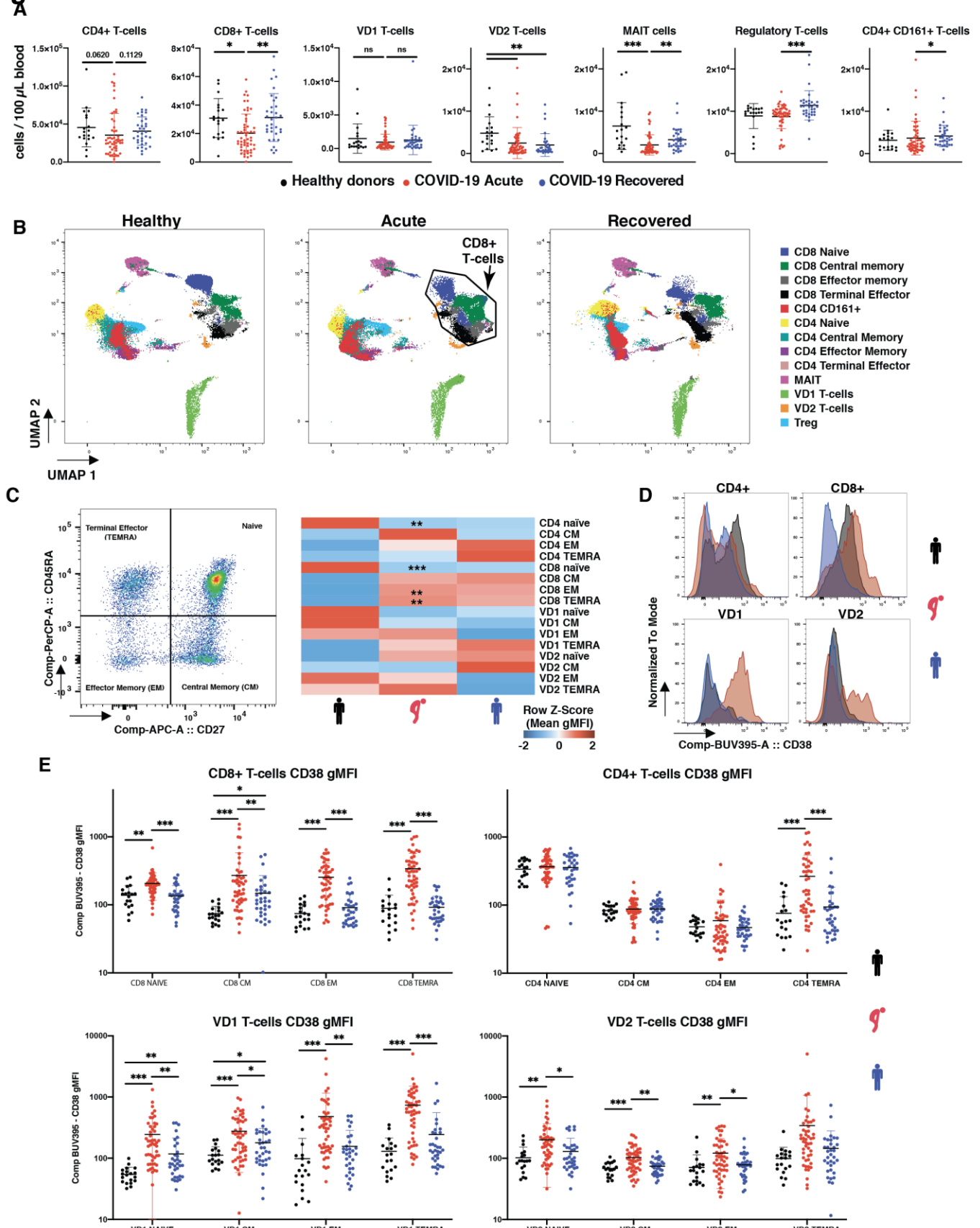


Figure 2: SARS-CoV-2 infection induces general lymphopenia and CD8, VD1 and VD2 activation. (a) Absolute counts of T-cell compartments in healthy donors, acute and recovered COVID-19 patient. (b) UMAP clustering of CD3+ cells. (c) left panel: CD45RA and CD27 gating strategy; right panel: heatmap representation of mean frequencies of T-cell differentiation across the groups, individual plots given in Supplementary Figure 2. (d) Representative histogram of CD38 expression in CD4, CD8, VD1 and VD2 T-cells. (e) Changes in CD38 gMFI in naive, CM, EM and TEMRA for CD8, CD4, VD1 and VD2 T-cells. Absolute counts were analysed by Kruskal-Wallis using Dunn correction for multiple comparison, gMFI was analysed by Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA using Dunnett T3 correction for multiple comparison. For heatmaps, stars shown in acute column represent healthy vs acute comparison. Stars shown in recovered column represent acute vs recovered comparison. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Figure 3

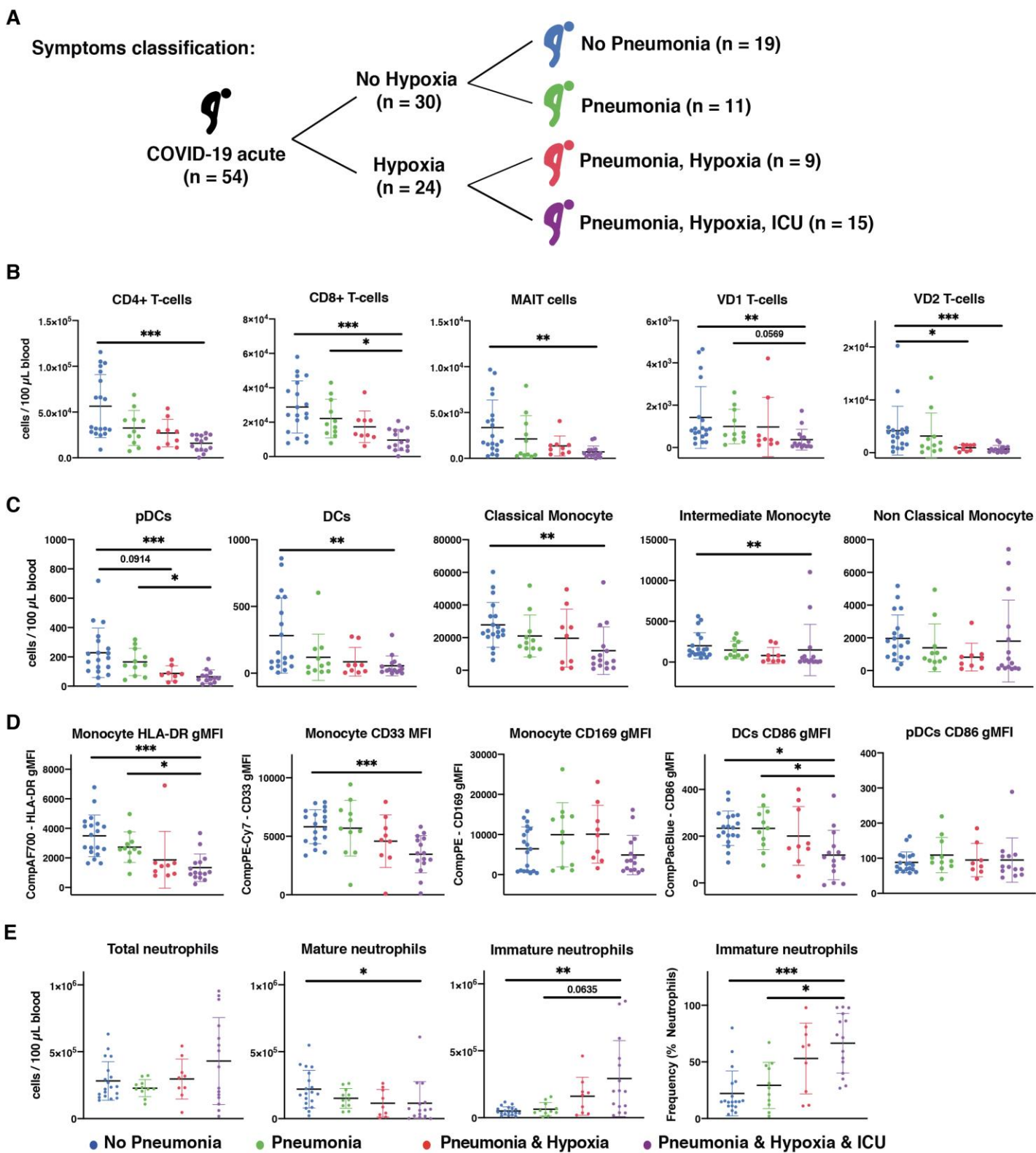
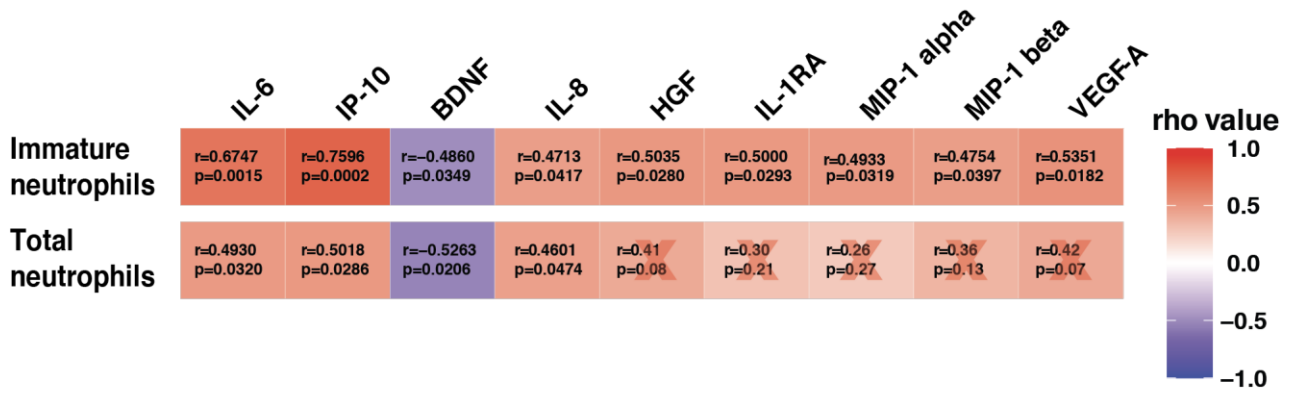


Figure 3: Patient symptoms are reflected in immune cell variations. (a) Schematic representation of clinical symptoms in the patient cohort. (b) Absolute counts of T-cells across the severity (c) Absolute counts of antigen presenting cells across the severity. (d) gMFI of activation markers on antigen presenting cells. (e) Absolute counts and frequency in neutrophil compartments. Absolute counts were analysed by Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn multiple testing correction, gMFI was analysed by Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA with Dunnett T3 multiple testing correction. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Figure 4

A



B

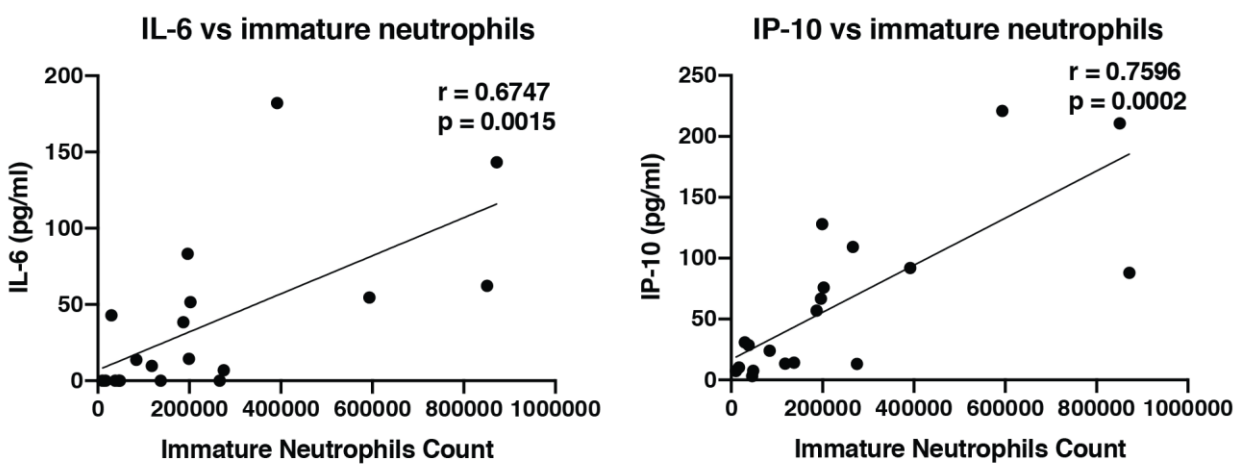
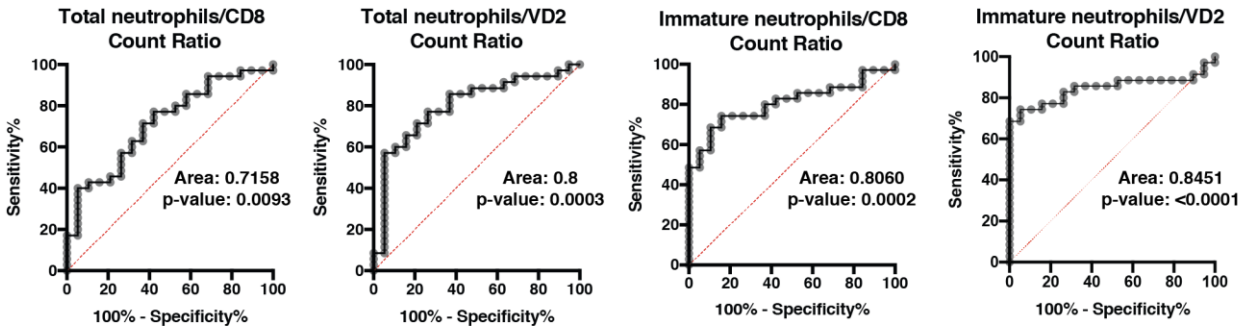


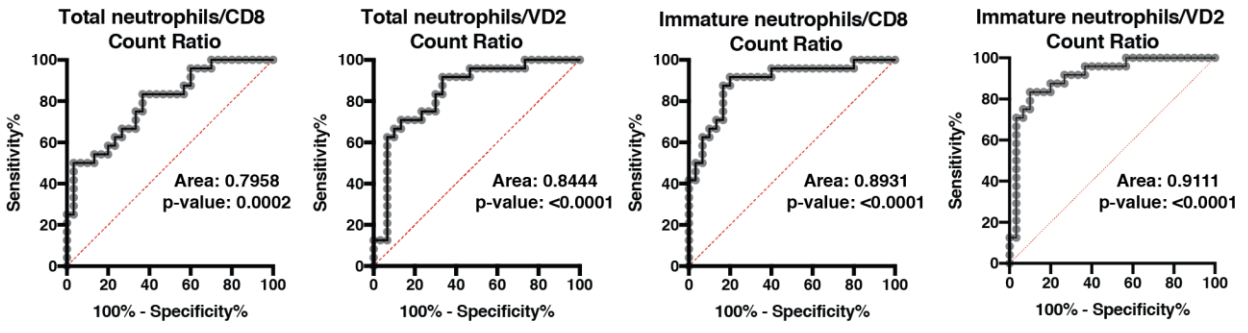
Figure 4: Immature neutrophils correlate with several analytes in paired patient plasma. (a) Spearman correlations between total neutrophils or immature neutrophils and plasma analytes. Red cross represents non-significant correlations. (b) Individual plots of Spearman correlations between immature neutrophil counts and IL-6 and IP-10. Line was drawn using simple linear regression.

Figure 5

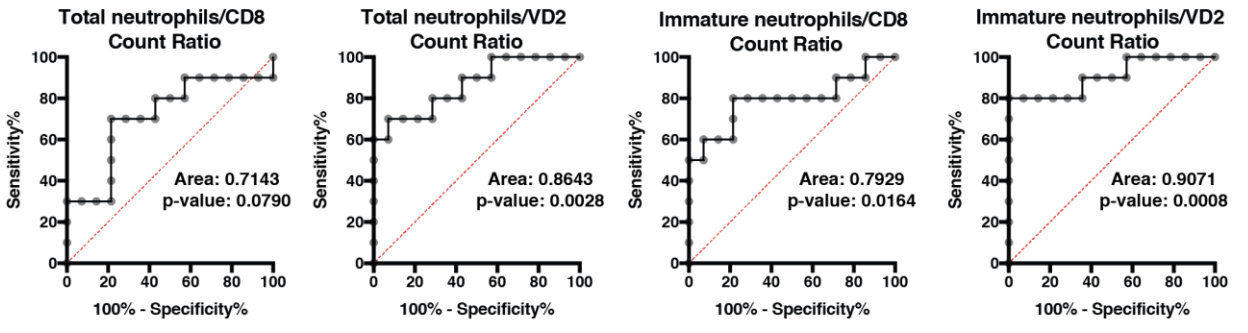
A No pneumonia vs pneumonia - all samples



No hypoxia vs hypoxia - all samples



B No pneumonia vs pneumonia - early sampling median 3 days pio



No hypoxia vs hypoxia - early sampling median 3 days pio

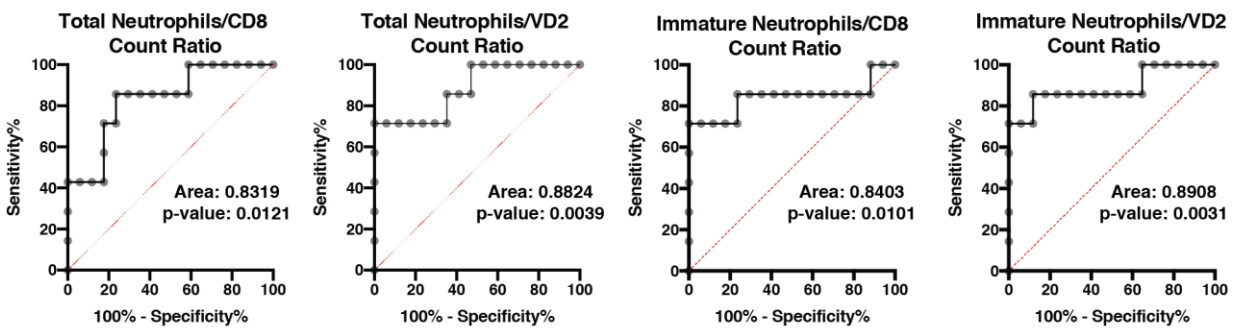


Figure 5: Immature neutrophil to VD2 T-cell ratio is an early prognosis marker for pneumonia and hypoxia symptoms. (a) ROC curve analysis comparison was performed for pneumonia and hypoxia symptoms between absolute counts of total neutrophils to CD8 T-cell ratio, total neutrophils to VD2 T-cell, immature neutrophils to CD8 T-cell ratio, and immature neutrophils to VD2 T-cell ratio. (b) Similar analysis was performed on a subset of 24 early samples taken up to 7 days pio with a median of 3 days pio. ROC curve was analysed using Wilson/Brown method. 95% confidence interval and standard error for panel B are given in Table 1.