CITEseq analysis of non-small-cell lung cancer lesions reveals an axis of immune cell activation associated with tumor antigen load and *TP53* mutations

Andrew M. Leader[1,2,3], John A. Grout[1,2,3], Christie Chang[1,4], Barbara Maier[1,2,3], Alexandra Tabachnikova[1,2,3], Laura Walker[1,4], Alona Lansky[1,2,3], Jessica LeBerichel[1,2,3], Naussica Malissen[1,2,3], Melanie Davila[1,4], Jerome Martin[1,2,3,5], Giuliana Magri[1,2,3,#], Kevin Tuballes[1,4], Zhen Zhao[6], Francesca Petralia[7,8], Robert Samstein[1,2,3,9], Natalie Roy D'Amore[10], Gavin Thurston[11], Alice Kamphorst[1,2,3], Andrea Wolf[12], Raja Flores[12], Pei Wang[7,8], Mary Beth Beasley[6], Helene Salmon[1,2,3,&], Adeeb H. Rahman[1,4,7], Thomas U. Marron[1,2,13], Ephraim Kenigsberg[1,7,8,$], Miriam Merad[1,2,3,4,$]

[1]The Precision Immunology Institute, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA.

[2]The Tisch Cancer Institute, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA.

[3]Department of Oncological Sciences, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA.

[4]Human Immune Monitoring Center, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA.

[5]Nantes Université, CHU Nantes, Inserm, Centre de Recherche en Transplantation et Immunologie, UMR 1064, F-44000 Nantes, France ; CHU Nantes, Nantes Université, Laboratoire d'Immunologie, F-44000 Nantes, France

[6]Department of Pathology, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA.

[7]Department of Genetics and Genomic Sciences, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA.

[8]Icahn Institute for Genomics and Multiscale Biology, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA.

[9]Department of Radiation Oncology, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA.

[10]Immuno-oncology Drug Discovery Unit, Millennium Pharmaceuticals, Inc. a wholly owned subsidiary of Takeda Pharmaceutical Company Limited.

[11]Department of Oncology & Angiogenesis, Regeneron Pharmaceuticals Inc., Tarrytown, NY, 10591, USA

[12]Department of Thoracic Surgery, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA.

[13]Division of Hematology/Oncology, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY, USA.

Correspondence should be sent to: miriam.merad@mssm.edu, ephraim.kenigsberg@mssm.edu

[$]Authors contributed equally to this work

[#]Present address: Program for Inflammatory and Cardiovascular Disorders, Institut Hospital del Mar d'Investigacions Mèdiques (IMIM), 08003 Barcelona, Spain

[&]Present address: INSERM U932, Institut Curie, 26 rue d'Ulm, 75005 Paris, France

SUMMARY

Immunotherapy is becoming a mainstay in the treatment of NSCLC. While tumor mutational

burden (TMB) has been shown to correlate with response to immunotherapy, little is known about

the relation of the baseline immune response with the tumor genotype. Here, we profiled 35 early

stage NSCLC lesions using multiscale single cell sequencing. Unsupervised clustering identified

in a subset of patients a key cellular module consisting of *PDCD1+ CXCL13+* activated T cells,

IgG+ plasma cells, and *SPP1+* macrophages, referred to as the lung cancer activation module

(LCAM^{hi}). Transcriptional data from two NSCLC cohorts confirmed a subset of patients with

LCAM^{hi} enrichment, which was independent of overall immune cell content. The LCAM^{hi} module

strongly correlated with TMB, expression of cancer testis antigens, and with *TP53* mutations in

smokers and non-smokers. These data establish LCAM as a key mode of immune cell activation

associated with high tumor antigen load and driver mutations.

INTRODUCTION

Lung cancer is the most common cause of cancer-related death[1], and the most common subgroup of lung cancer is non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC)[2]. In recent years, immune checkpoint blockade (ICB) targeting the PD-1/PD-L1 axis has become first-line therapy for a majority of patients with metastatic and locally advanced disease[3]. Though ICB studies have achieved improved overall survival, fewer than half of patients achieve significant clinical benefit, though still may experience physical and financial toxicity. Biomarkers are lacking to determine optimal treatment regimens for patients, as our understanding of tumor-associated immune phenotypes and immune correlates of response to ICB remains incomplete.

While multiple studies have used single-cell assays to profile NSCLC tumor-infiltrating immune cells in comparison to patient-matched, non-involved lung (nLung)[4,5], blood[6], or both[7,8], or characterized tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes (TIL)[9-12], we continue to lack a comprehensive understanding of how immune cell phenotypes vary across patients. In particular, it remains unclear which immune cell populations and phenotypes are associated with robust, tumor-directed T cell responses and response to ICB, and how these features are connected to tumor-cell intrinsic characteristics such as tumor mutational burden (TMB)[13,14]. A deeper analysis is further required for uncovering the cell types and states associated with immunostimulatory versus immunoregulatory presentation of tumor-associated antigens, as well as parsing the tumor-related effects on tissue-resident and migratory innate cell types. Attempts to integrate these data across the innate and adaptive arms of the immune system are of crucial importance to optimizing rational design of immunotherapies. Furthermore, while response to ICB has been associated with specific patient groups, individual driver mutations, the degree of immune infiltrate, and TMB, the complex interplay between these factors remains poorly understood.

Here, we sought to define the molecular immune states induced in the tumor

microenvironment by profiling an expanded patient cohort compared to previous related studies[5,6]

via multiscale single-cell analyses. We integrated the results of single-cell RNA sequencing

(scRNAseq) of immune cells with cellular indexing of transcriptomes and epitopes by sequencing

(CITEseq)[15], a method allowing for combined scRNAseq and multiplexed single-cell surface

protein measurement. To further elucidate the TCR landscape across T cell phenotypes, we

analyzed these results together with joint scRNAseq/TCRseq. We revealed a pattern of inter-tumor

variability involving innate and adaptive immune responses which we validated in two bulk RNA

datasets, allowing us to detect an association with TMB and tumor driver mutations.

RESULTS

Integrative analyses unify phenotypic mappings across substrates and datasets. To probe

transcriptional states of immune cells in the lung cancer microenvironment, we set out to profile

cells from a cohort of untreated, early-stage NSCLC patients undergoing resection with curative

intent (Figure 1A). The cohort was diverse with respect to age, smoking status, sex, and

histological subtype (Figure 1B). We generated three datasets integrating antibody profiling of

surface marker proteins using CITEseq[15], scRNAseq, and TCRseq with single cell resolution

(Tables S1-S3). We performed CITEseq on matched tumor and non-involved lung (nLung) tissues

from 7 patients, in addition to performing scRNAseq of matched tumor and nLung in 28 additional

patients. Finally, to expand on our annotation of T cell clusters based on the distribution of clonally

expanded populations, we performed paired single-cell TCRseq and scRNAseq on T cells isolated

from 3 patients.

ScRNA profiles in tumor and nLung were clustered together using a batch-aware algorithm we recently developed in order to combine data across patients, while accounting for batch-specific background noise[16] (Figures 1C and S1A-C). To develop a general gene-expression model of clusters representing different cell types and states, we relied only on 19 nLung and 22 tumor samples processed with 10X Chromium 3' V2 chemistry. We then used this model to classify cells from additional samples processed with different protocols or from different datasets showing similar transcriptional profiles. (Figure S1B-D, methods). The RNA-based clustering identified 49 immune clusters within 6 compartments including subsets of T cells, B cells, plasma cells, mast cells, plasmacytoid dendritic cells (pDC), and mononuclear phagocytes (MNP) consisting of macrophages (MΦ), monocytes, putative monocyte-derived dendritic cells (MoDC), and conventional dendritic cells (cDC; Figure 1C and S1E, F). Overall, 377,549 single cells from 35 tumors and 32 matched nLung samples from patients at Mount Sinai were classified into 6 compartments and 30 annotated transcriptional states. CITEseq data further confirmed cell identities using well-established protein markers (Figure 1D). For example, annotation of pDC was based on expression of transcripts associated with this lineage (*LILRA4, IRF8*; Figure 1C) and high expression of known population-defining surface markers (CD123; Figure 1D). While cluster frequencies varied widely among patients, clusters mapped between 590 and 23812 cells, and all clusters included cells from multiple patients (Figure 1E and S1F).

We first compared the variability of samples from different regions within individual tumors to the variability between different patients' tumors with respect to immune cell type composition. To do this, we examined samples from a study that analyzed three regions per tumor in 8 patients[5], mapping cells to the clusters produced with our expanded dataset. Clustering the samples by correlation of cell type frequencies among immune cells demonstrated that samples

almost always clustered by patient (Figure S1G), and similarly, the Euclidean distances between

patient-matched samples of different tumor regions was strongly reduced compared to the

distances between samples from different patients (Figure S1H). Therefore, while the total level

of immune content may still vary regionally in and around tumors[17], these analyses demonstrated

that inter-tumor differences drive lung tumor immune variability in terms of the phenotypic

makeup of the immune cells that are present.

To understand whether the immune changes between tumor and nLung were distinct across

patients or, alternatively, globally similar, we estimated the immune diversity within tumor and

nLung using the Euclidean distances between the log-transformed cluster-frequencies. This

analysis indicated that nLung samples were significantly more homogeneous (Figure 1F; "nLung-

nLung distances") than tumor samples ("Tumor-Tumor distances"; t=8.3; p<2.2e-16). We further

compared distances among nLung and among tumor to the distances between nLung and tumor.

This analysis showed that the diversity between independent (unmatched) tumor and nLung

samples was larger than the diversity within tumor samples (t=19.6; p<2.2e-16) and nLung

samples (t=24.6; p<2.2e-16), suggesting that immune landscapes within the TME were

significantly changed compared to non-involved tissues, and that most tumors harbored many

conserved changes (Figure 1E-F).

We next sought to test if the differences between nLung and tumor could be observed in

an independent cohort. The cell type frequencies of 8 matched tumor-nLung pairs described in

ref.[5] indeed validated the distinct microenvironments we observed in our cohort (Figure 1G). This

result demonstrated that the observed tumor signatures were robust and reproducible, encouraging

us to further study the transcriptional states within it.

The intratumoral dendritic cell compartment is characterized by expansion of monocyte-derived DC. We next investigated the heterogeneity with the myeloid compartment, given that different myeloid cells have various important roles in generating or inhibiting tumor directed immune responses, including antigen presentation, T cell co-stimulation, and shaping the cytokine milieu within the TME[13]. We identified conventional DC1 (cDC1) expressing *IRF8*, *WDFY4*, and *CLEC9A* transcripts (Figure 2A) as well as CD141 and CD26 surface markers (Figure 2B), and cDC2 expressing high *CD1C* and *FCER1A* transcripts as well as CD1c and CD5 protein. We also detected a DC cluster expressing *FSCN1* and *CCR7* transcripts and elevated HLADR, CD86, PD-L1, and CD40 surface protein which we described as mature DC enriched in regulatory molecules (mregDC) in great detail elsewhere[18]; in this study we found mregDC were correlated with tumor-antigen uptake and thus help define antigen-charged DC[18]. This phenotype was also consistent with an activated DC phenotype detected in lung and liver tumors by others[6,19]. We furthermore identified clusters that expressed cDC2 markers such as CD1c and *CLEC10A*, but also expressed high levels of monocyte and MΦ genes including *S100A8, S100A9, C1QA,* and *C1QB*, lacked surface expression of the pre-DC surface marker CD5[20,21], and exhibited increased expression of CD11b and CD14 (Figure 2A, B); we annotated such clusters as MoDC. Importantly, MoDC were distinct from MΦ based on higher levels of CD1c surface protein in addition to their upregulation of the DC2-like transcriptional signature (Figure 1C, clusters 52, 29, and 30). Overall, MoDC were the most prevalent DC subtype and were increased in tumors compared to nLung, whereas mregDC were the rarest (Figure 2C and S2A-C). As we had seen previously[7], the fraction of cDC1 were strongly reduced in tumors (Figure 2C).

Since the activation profile of mregDC is crucial for inducing tumor directed T cell responses[18], we examined the mregDC distribution in tumors by multiplexed

immunohistochemical consecutive staining on a single slide (MICSSS)[22]. We stained for DC-

LAMP and PD-L1, as the transcripts of these genes (*LAMP3* and *CD274*, respectively) were highly

enriched in the mregDC cluster (Figure 2D). We found that mregDC expressing DC-LAMP and

PD-L1 accumulated in tertiary lymphoid structures (TLS) in close proximity to T cells (Figure

2E). CD3-negative areas of TLS, which are putatively analogous to lymph node B cell zones, were

frequently populated by MYH11+ follicular dendritic cells[23], a stromal cell type commonly found

in B cell zones (Figure 2F).

To better understand the relationship between MoDC and other MNP, we searched for

genes that were mutually exclusive among CD14 monocytes, cDC2, and MΦ (Figure S2D, Table

S4). Scoring MoDC using these gene lists in comparison with other MNP populations revealed

that MoDC were distinct from MΦ and CD14+ monocytes. Ordering cells within each of these

compartments by the expression of these distinct monocyte- and cDC2 gene programs

demonstrated anticorrelation of these gene sets among MoDC but not cDC2 (Figure 2G;

rho= -0.33, p<2.2e-16; rho=0.016, p=0.29, respectively), demonstrating that MoDC inhabited a

phenotypic spectrum between monocytes and cDC2-like cells. While some MΦ genes were

expressed in MoDC higher than in cDC2 cells, MoDC were distinct from MΦ based on higher

cDC2 gene expression and lower MΦ gene expression (score distributions are detailed in Figure

S2E).

To further uncover transcriptional programs that were variable among MoDC and cDC

without relying on specific cell classifications, we analyzed the covariance structure of variable

genes among all DC. This approach resulted in distinct sets of co-expressed genes (gene

"modules") that varied together across cells, independent of cluster assignments (Figure S2F, G,

Table S5). Gene module analysis across the DC compartment revealed upregulation in tumors of

multiple modules that were mainly restricted to MoDC and DC2 (Figure S2H, I). The gene

modules most upregulated in tumors compared to nlung included genes associated with glycolysis

(mod39) and cell cycle (mod38), which were mainly expressed in MoDC cluster 52 (Figure S2G-

I). Frequent upregulation of many monocyte- or MΦ-like modules (7, 3, 4, 6, 5, 37, 10) was

consistent with a higher frequency of MoDC compared to cDC in tumors.

We also identified a cDC2 module (mod34) which was enriched in tumor lesions compared

to nLung (Figure S2G, H) and included *CD1A* and *CD207*. These genes mark the lesional cells of

Langerhans cell histiocytosis (LCH), a myeloid inflammatory condition driven by enhanced ERK

activation[24]; we therefore referred to this module as "LCH-like". LCH cells produce many

inflammatory cytokines that promote the accumulation of Tregs and activated T cells in LCH

lesions[25]. Interestingly, *IL22RA2*, encoding the IL22 decoy receptor IL22-BP, was also included

in this module (Table S5). IL22 modulates epithelial cell growth and plays a role in tissue

protection through modulation of tissue inflammation and in promoting tumor growth through

induction of tissue repair[26]. Expression of the IL22 receptor (*IL22RA1*), meanwhile, negatively

correlated with survival in KRAS-mutated lung cancer lesions[27]. These genes were mainly induced

in the *bona fide* cDC2 cluster, but were also upregulated in MoDC (Figure 2H). Probing DC

expression in an independent scRNAseq dataset of NSCLC immune cells[5] confirmed upregulation

of these genes in tumor associated DC transcriptomes (Figure S2J).

Tumors are dominated by monocyte-derived MΦ that are distinct from alveolar MΦ.

While previous studies have demonstrated phenotypic differences between MΦ populating nLung

versus tumors[5,7], they have been limited in their ability to parse specific MΦ subpopulations with

potentially distinct ontogeny and function. Our data showed remarkable heterogeneity within the

MΦ compartment as demonstrated by the varying expression of classical marker genes among

clusters (Figures 3A and S3A). This level of resolution allowed the identification of alveolar MΦ

(AMΦ) clusters expressing *SERPINA1* and *PPARG* and a cluster expressing genes consistent with

interstitial MΦ (IMΦ), which thus far have only been defined to a limited extent in humans[28,29]. In

contrast to AMΦ that self-renew locally independent of blood precursors[30], IMΦ are thought to be

maintained by circulating monocyte pools even in steady state, albeit at lower rates of turnover

than in settings of overt inflammation. IMΦ lacked *PPARG* and expressed *MAF* family

transcription factors, *MERTK*, *CSF1R*, *LYVE1*, and *CX3CR1*[31]. CD14+ and CD16+ monocytes

were defined by the expression of *CD14* or *FCGR3A* respectively and the lack of MΦ markers

MRC1, *VSIG4*, and *SIGLEC1*. Other MΦ clusters expressed genes such as *MAFB*, *CEBPD*,

FCGR2B, and *CSF1R*, which are indicative of monocyte origin and shared by monocytes and

IMΦ; therefore, these clusters were annotated as MoMΦ. A remaining population of MΦ

expressed genes consistent with primary granule formation (*AZU1, ELANE, CTSG*) but distinct

from bone marrow progenitors due to lack of *MPO*, and also lacked elevation of neutrophil marker

genes[6] *CSF3R, LRG1, FFAR4,* and *VASP* compared to other myeloid cells (Figure S3A). This

cluster was referred to as *AZU1+* MΦ.

Using a CITEseq panel of established immune surface markers, we validated the

transcription-based cluster annotations and associated new surface markers with the MΦ

subpopulations. For example, we found that CD10, not previously appreciated as a MΦ marker,

could distinguish AMΦ from other lung myeloid populations (Figures 3B and S3B). This staining

was consistent with RNA expression patterns (Figure S3A) and was verified by

immunohistochemical staining (IHC) of airspace-residing AMΦ in nLung (Figure S3C). MoMΦ

expressed higher levels of CD11c and CD14 than other MΦ populations, whereas IMΦ were

notably CD14+/HLADR+/CD11c^{int}/CD86-/CD10– (Figure 3B). Thus, CITEseq protein staining

confirmed the main MΦ subpopulations identified by the transcriptional classification and defined

potential sorting strategies (Figure S3B).

Gene module analysis across all monocyte and MΦ clusters (Figure S3D-G) revealed three

broad signatures, consistent with genes that were highly expressed in both AMΦ and MoMΦ

(module group I), MoMΦ or IMΦ (module group II), and monocytes (module group III; Figure

S3D). Individual modules could be identifiably associated with cell type annotations as well as

cell states reflecting, for example, interferon response (modules 32 and 19), heat shock genes

(module 49) cell cycle (module 42), HLA class-II expression (module 28), and glycolysis (module

47; Figure S3E). Examining the expression patterns of specific modules across MoMΦ clusters

led us to divide them into MoMΦ subtypes I-IV: MoMΦ-II clusters expressed the highest levels

of the tumor-enriched module 48, which was driven mainly by *SPP1* and also included IL-1

receptor antagonist *IL1RN*, and module 47 consisting of genes indicating a glycolytically active

state (*GAPDH, ENO1, LDHA, ALDOA, TPI1*), and lower levels than other MΦ of *C1Q* and HLA-

class-II transcripts (Figures 3C and S3E, G). MoMΦ-III clusters were enriched in module 24

(including *TREM2* and *LILRB4*) and module 25 (including *APOE* and *GPNMB*). MoMΦ-I and

MoMΦ-IV were less distinctive than the other MoMac subtypes, but each comprised their own

unique gene expression patterns. For example, MoMac-IV expressed the highest levels of module

27 which included *CTSS, CFD,* and *ALDH1A1* and also expressed some genes otherwise confined

to AMΦ (module 36), whereas MoMΦ-I was enriched in module 20 (including chemokine ligands

CCL13 and *CCL2*) while MoMac IV was not. Together, these analyses identify multiple tumor

MoMΦ phenotypes with distinct metabolic and immunomodulatory gene programs that are

enriched in the tumor milieu and likely contribute to defining the tumor microenvironment.

Gene set scores based on mutually exclusive, differentially expressed genes among CD14+

monocytes, AMΦ, and MoMΦ (Figure S3H and Table S4) showed that AMΦ and MoMΦ were

each distinct from CD14+ monocytes (Figure 3D) but that MoMΦ expressed a gradient of the

CD14+ monocyte score (Figure 3E). Analysis of the gene expression patterns of hundreds of genes

within the scores supported the general trends (Figure 3F). MoMΦ clusters were also distinct from

the IMΦ cluster based on many transcripts and surface proteins (Figure 3A, B), although some

MoMΦ, especially those that were the most distant from AMΦ, shared some IMΦ genes such as

CSF1R, *FOLR2*, and *MERTK* (Figures 3A, F and S3A).

The predominant populations that increased in tumors were MoMΦ, while AMΦ were

strongly depleted from tumors and IMΦ frequencies were unchanged (Figure 3G). Monocyte

frequencies were also decreased, possibly reflecting their differentiation to MoMΦ or MoDC.

Given that individual MoMΦ-subsets changed between nLung and tumor to different extents, we

asked how these differences related to the underlying phenotypic heterogeneity within the MoMΦ

compartment, beyond signatures revealed by module analysis. Selecting for a set of highly

expressed transcripts encoding secreted factors demonstrated strong differences between MNP

subsets (Figure 3H). MoMΦ-II, the most tumor-enriched subset, expressed the highest levels of

inflammatory cytokines *TNF* and *IL6*, transcripts encoding the pleiotropic factor SPP1, a broad

collection of matrix metallopeptidases *MMP-7, -9*, and *-12*, as well as CCR2/5 ligands *CCL-2, -8*,

and *-7*. By comparison, other MoMΦ populations expressed less distinct secretory profiles.

Multiple MNP populations expressed the CXCR3-ligand chemotactic factors *CXCL-9,-10,-11*

including MoMΦ, MoDC, and mregDC, while these ligands were distinctly absent from AMΦ,

IMΦ, AZU1+ MΦ*,* monocytes, cDC1, and cDC2. MregDC, meanwhile, expressed distinct

cytokines and chemotactic factors associated with T cell engagement, including *IL12B*, *EBI3*,

CCL17, *CCL22*, and *CCL19*, which were expressed to a minimal or greatly reduced degree in

monocytes, MΦ, or MoDC.

TCRs limited to tumors mark T cells with distinct phenotypic features. CITEseq

characterization of T cells identified populations of CD8+ cells that were characterized by an NK-

like signature ($T_{NK-like}$), high expression of *GZMK* (T_{GZMK}), expression of genes related to tissue-

residence such as *ITGA1* transcript and CD103 and CD69 protein (CD8+ T_{rm}), and a cluster

consistent with activated T cells, expressing high levels of *IFNG, GZMB, LAG3*, *CXCL13*, and

HAVCR2 transcripts, as well as high PD-1, ICOS, and CD39 protein ($T_{activated}$; Figure 4A, B). Other

clusters, which mostly consisted of CD4+ cells, could be separated into T_{reg}, T_{rm}, cells expressing

a profile consistent with either central memory or naïve cells ($T_{CM/Naïve-like-I}$; *TCF7*, *SELL*, *LEF1*,

MAL, and surface expression of CD127), and a group of clusters expressing both intermediate

levels of this signature as well as a tissue-residency signature ($T_{CM/Naïve-like-II}$). Cells within the

$T_{CM/Naïve-like}$ clusters did not otherwise segregate by signatures related to antigen experience, TCR

engagement, activation, or exhaustion state.

While clustering cells using their transcriptional profiles did not result in complete

separation of CD4+ and CD8+ cells, CITEseq allowed for the comparison of CD4+ versus CD8+

cells within otherwise transcriptionally similar groups. The $T_{activated}$ cluster could therefore be

separated into CD4+ and CD8+ components (15.5% and 74.8%, respectively). Differential

expression analysis between these subsets showed that, on average, CD4+ cells in this cluster

expressed increased levels of *CXCL13*, *CD40LG*, *BCL6*, and *IL21* (Figure S4A) consistent with a

phenotype similar to T-follicular-helper. We next asked whether we could use profiles of CD8+

and CD4+ cells within this cluster to classify CD4 and CD8 cells from samples lacking CITEseq

surface staining, which was not available for the majority of our dataset. Learning a signature-

based classifier from a training set consisting of the $T_{activated}$ cells from 2 patients and testing this

signature on the remaining patients with CITEseq staining demonstrated that transcriptional based

classification guided by antibody signals was highly accurate (86% on test set; Figure S4B). This

classification could further discriminate cells that uniquely expressed *CD8-A/B* transcripts or *CD4*

transcripts across the remaining cells in the dataset (84% accuracy; Figure S4C). Applying this

classification generally allowed for the separation of CD4 $T_{activated}$ from CD8 $T_{activated}$ across the

dataset (Figure S4D). Similar to a recent report[32], independent quantification of these cells

separately and comparing their frequencies demonstrated a high correlation across tumors (Figure

S4E; rho=0.58, p=2.7e-4), so they were continued to be grouped for further analysis.

While $T_{activated}$ and T_{reg} were the most increased T cell populations in tumors compared to

nLung (Figure 4C), another cluster, characterized by high expression of cell-cycle genes *MKI67*

and *STMN1*, and surface expression of HLA-DR and CD38, was also significantly increased in

tumors (T_{cycle}; Figure 4A-C). Other than expressing these hallmarks of proliferation, the T_{cycle}

cluster was diverse with respect to RNA and protein expression (Figure 4A, B). Analyzing the

cells comprising T_{cycle} by gene scores constructed from genes differentially expressed among the

other clusters demonstrated that T_{cycle} is a mixture of multiple T cell phenotypes that share the

cycling state (Figure S4F and Table S4). While tumors expressed overall higher frequencies of

cycling T cells (Figures 4C and S4G), $T_{activated}$ and T_{reg} showed the highest frequencies of cycling

cells compared to other phenotypes (Figure S4H).

To understand the clonal relationships among T cell phenotypes in tumor and nLung

tissues, we performed paired scRNAseq and TCRseq using a nested PCR approach on paired

tissues from 3 patients. Classification of the transcriptomes among the clusters and analysis of the

T cell repertoires among these phenotypes confirmed that cells mapping to the $T_{activated}$ cluster were

the most clonal population in tumors (Figure S4I). Furthermore, dividing clones into groups based

on their expansion in nLung or tumor determined the phenotypes of shared clones compared to

clones detected in either tissue specifically (Figures 4D, E,

S4J, K). In nLung samples, the phenotypic distribution of T cells with TCRs either shared with

tumor samples or present only in nLung was similar (Figure 4Ei). In tumors, however, we

observed differences in phenotypic distributions between cells with shared versus tissue-specific

TCRs (Figure 4Eii). Specifically, no $T_{NK-like}$ cells in tumors had TCRs that were uniquely expanded

in tumors. Furthermore, the proportion of T_{cycle}, T_{reg}, and $T_{activated}$ among cells with TCRs uniquely

expanded in tumors were all markedly increased compared to their proportions among cells with

TCRs present in both tissues, and these relationships were not observed in nLung. By controlling

for the distribution of cells with shared TCRs in the tumor, we found that the clonal enrichment in

these populations was not simply due to enrichment of these phenotypes within tumor. Together,

the finding that $T_{activated}$ are enriched in clonally expanded and cycling T cells at the tumor suggests

that their accumulation is at least in part due to local clonal expansion.

B cells and plasma cells are increased in tumors, but the B:plasma cell ratio is conserved

between tumor and nLung.

B and plasma cells represented the most globally increased lineage among immune cells in tumors

compared to nLung across multiple datasets (Figure 1C-E); B cells were increased as a proportion

of immune cells by a median of 6.4-fold (IQR: 2.5-8.4), while plasma cells were similarly

increased by a median of 4.1-fold (IQR: 2.2-9.4). B cells and plasma cells were strongly distinct

both on the RNA and surface marker level (Figure 4F, G). Plasma cell clusters included rare IgD+

plasma cells, which were also the only CD38^{int} population. B cell frequencies overwhelmed plasma

cell frequencies with IgD+ and IgM+ plasma cells being the rarest, but lineage-normalized

frequencies were not different between nLung and Tumor (Figures 1E and S4L). B cells and

plasma cells were therefore found to increase in tumors without significant overall perturbation of

the B:plasma cell ratio or plasma cell isotype ratios.

Ligand-receptor interactions identify potential drivers of an adaptive activation module. In

order to identify links between cellular phenotypes that may drive patient diversity, we performed

correlation analyses across cell type frequencies in tumors normalized within lineage (Figure 5A).

Among the most highly correlated cell types were $T_{activated}$, IgG+ plasma cells, and MoMΦ-II; we

therefore called these cell types collectively the lung cancer activation module (LCAM). The cell

types that were most anticorrelated to this module included B cells, $T_{cm/naïve-II}$, AMΦ, resting cDC,

and AZU1+ MΦ. Sorting patients by these cell types revealed that patients could be broadly

grouped into those with high or low frequencies of LCAM cell types (Figure 5B). We called these

groups LCAM^{hi} and LCAM^{lo}, respectively. Including samples from external datasets in this

stratification supported the overall pattern (Figure 5B and S5A). This stratification was not

strongly associated with changes in lineage frequencies among total immune cells, and

accordingly, samples from both LCAM^{hi} and LCAM^{lo} groups generally displayed lineage-

population shifts in line with overall tumor versus nLung differences, such as decreased NK and

increased B lineage frequencies (Figure 5C). Therefore, while LCAM cell types included some of

the populations that were most enriched in tumor compared to nLung on average, the LCAM axis

was importantly not a reflection of tumor sample purity.

To identify tumor-specific immune dysregulation that may contribute to shaping the

LCAM[hi] vs. LCAM[lo] cellular organization among patients, we performed an unbiased analysis of

ligand-receptor pairs between immune subsets, leveraging a dataset of secreted ligands and their

experimentally validated receptors[16,33] (Figure S5B, C and Table S6), comparing differences in

ligand-receptor (LR) intensity scores[16] between LCAM[hi] and LCAM[lo] groups, as well as between

each group and their respective adjacent nLung tissues (Table S7). Overall, both LCAM[hi] and

LCAM[lo] patients demonstrated correlated modes of LR activation in tumors compared to nLung

(Figure 5D). In particular, tumors in both LCAM[hi] patients and LCAM[lo] patients exhibited strong

intensity scores between T-cell derived CXCL13 and B cell CXCR5, which is likely contributing

to the influx of B and plasma cells seen in tumors (Figure 5E). T cells in LCAM[hi] but not LCAM[lo]

patients also produced other factors in tumors but not nLung capable of stimulating B cells through

the IFNG-IFNGR1 axis and the BTLA-TNFRSF14 axis (Figure 5E). In addition, B cells from

LCAM[hi] but not LCAM[lo] patients highly expressed TNFSF9 (41BBL), which ligates TNFRSF9

(41BB), that we found highly expressed on T$_{activated}$ cells (Figure S5D), indicating B cells from

LCAM[hi] patients participate in activation of T cells via TNFSF9-TNFRSF9 interaction.

In addition, we observed increased IFNG-IFNGR signaling between T cells and myeloid

cells in LCAM[hi] patients (Figures 5F and S5E, F). Potentially in result, LCAM[hi] patients displayed

higher activation of the CXCL9/10/11-CXCR3 axis between myeloid and T cells (Figure 5G-I).

Whereas MΦ and MoDC demonstrated many conserved ligands upregulated in both LCAM[hi] and

LCAM[lo] tumors such as IL10 and OSM (Figure 5G, H; note distribution of highlighted LR pairs

along the diagonal), tumor cDC shared few ligands between the two groups, and rather upregulated

CCL19 higher in LCAM[hi] patients compared to CCL17 in LCAM[lo] patients (Figure 5I); MoDC

also demonstrated the latter pattern, selectively expressing CCL17 in LCAM[lo] patients (Figure

5H), suggesting that DC expression of CCL19 may be a unique feature of cDC necessary for

activation of T cells as well as induction of a humoral immune response. Overall, differences in

ligand-receptor intensity scores between LCAM^{hi} and LCAM^{lo} patients supported such a patient

stratification, and provide possible mechanistic insight into immune-cell crosstalk underlying the

development of the LCAM axis, including IFNg signaling as a major driver.

Projection of bulk-transcriptomic data onto scRNA-derived signatures reveals the presence

of the LCAM^{hi} module in two independent LUAD datasets.

To identify tumor-related correlates of the LCAM module, we aimed to analyze a larger patient

cohort in order to increase statistical power. Therefore, we implemented an unbiased method of

scoring bulk transcriptomic signatures along the LCAM axis[16,34]. Specifically, we identified genes

that were both differentially expressed between LCAM^{hi} and LCAM^{lo} tumor samples (Figure

S6A), and also highly specific to the cell types enriched or depleted in the LCAM^{hi} tumors (Figure

S6B, see methods). Using a published tabulation on estimated immune content of 512 lung

adenocarcinoma (LUAD) patients available from TCGA based on expression of immune genes of

all lineages[35], we saw as expected that scores generated with either gene set were highly correlated

with estimates of overall immune content (Figure S6C, D), but an ensemble LCAM score

computed by the difference of these scores (LCAM^{hi} score – LCAM^{lo} score) was not (Figure S6E).

As predicted by our scRNAseq data, when controlling for the immune content, we generally

observed negative correlations of LCAM^{hi} and LCAM^{lo} gene scores among tumors except for

samples with the 10% lowest immune content (Figure S6F, G), suggesting that the ensemble

LCAM score might measure a mode of immune activation that is independent of the overall

immune infiltration measured by immune content. We excluded the samples with the lowest 10%

immune content from further analysis because probing the immune signatures was likely less

informative within these samples. Sorting the patients by the ensemble LCAM score revealed the

presence of LCAM[hi] and LCAM[lo] patient groups within the cohort (Figure 6A).

To see whether a similar pattern was present in additional datasets, we probed the

independent CPTAC: LUAD cohort, consisting of 110 treatment-naive LUAD patients undergoing

surgical resection on whom bulk RNAseq and WES had been performed (Michael A. Gillette, et

al. *Cell*, In press). Similar to the TCGA cohort, sorting the patients by the ensemble LCAM score

revealed the presence of LCAM[hi] and LCAM[lo] patient groups (Figure S6H), further establishing

the prevalence of this cellular module in a subset of LUAD patients.

LCAM immune response correlates with tumor-genotype and expression of tumor-antigens

in LUAD lesions

While the anti-tumor immune response can be modulated by many tumor-intrinsic and tumor-

extrinsic factors, the tumor-infiltrating immune cells exist as part of a complex microenvironment

that includes many other stromal populations[13,36]. To ask whether the ensemble LCAM score is

associated with other non-tumor, non-immune stromal populations, we derived gene lists that were

specific for individual stromal populations identified in a public dataset of 8 NSCLC patients[5]

(Table S4), and used these genes to quantify enrichment of stromal populations in TCGA LUAD

data. The ensemble LCAM score correlated with a cancer-associated fibroblast (CAF) enrichment

score, anticorrelated with a normal fibroblast enrichment score, and strongly correlated with the

difference of these scores (Figure 6B-D). Meanwhile, it exhibited weak or absent correlations with

a tumor-associated blood endothelial cell (BEC) enrichment score, an nLung BEC enrichment

score, and a lymphatic endothelial score (Figure S6I). These data suggest an intimate link between

development of the LCAM cellular module and a CAF-like fibroblast phenotype, which should be

explored in further detail as CAF have been suggested to act as major regulators of TIL

function[36,37].

We hypothesized that variability in immune and stromal states captured by the LCAM and

CAF signatures could be associated with different tumor properties. While the ensemble LCAM

score demonstrated a small but significant increase in large tumors (t=2.60, p=0.01 between TNM

T-stage=T1 and T-stage>T1), we observed variable LCAM presence among tumors of all stages

(Figure S6J). Furthermore, while PD-L1 expression is the most commonly used biomarker guiding

ICB treatment, we also observed a weak correlation between the ensemble LCAM score and total

CD274 expression (r=0.21, p=2.7e-5). TMB, meanwhile, has been demonstrated to be one of the

most robust predictors of checkpoint response[38], and is supported by the key mechanistic

hypothesis that tumors with many mutations more easily activate and are targeted by the immune

system via the generation of mutated peptides and damage-associated molecular patterns.

Strikingly, the data showed that the ensemble LCAM score was strongly correlated with TMB

both in TCGA (Figure 6E; r=0.47 p<2.2e-16) and in CPTAC (Figure S6K) (r=0.53 p=2.3e-9). By

comparison, other scores measuring overall immune content (Immune ESTIMATE[35]) or specific

aspects of immune state (T cell-inflamed gene expression profile (GEP) score[39,40]) had much

weaker associations with TMB (Figure S6L, M). Importantly, correlation with TMB was observed

broadly across LCAM^hi genes expressed in multiple cell types, whereas conversely, anti-

correlation with TMB was also observed broadly across LCAM^lo genes (Figure S6N). The

ensemble LCAM score correlated with TMB to similar extents among patients grouped within

each TNM T-stage (Figure S6O).

In LUAD cases, TMB is strongly associated with smoking history. Consistent with this

relationship, the ensemble LCAM score correlated with smoking pack-years (rho=0.23, p=4.4e-5).

Therefore, smoking history confounded the correlation we observed between TMB and the

ensemble LCAM score, suggesting that the immune signature could be only indirectly related to

mutations and specifically mutated neoantigens, but rather due to alternate modes of immune

dysregulation related to smoking exposure. To test this hypothesis, we stratified tumors by the

detection of the smoking-related mutational signature characterized by C>A de-aminations within

specific trinucleotide contexts[41,42]. This approach removed uncertainty related to unreliability of

patient-reported smoking statistics and missing clinical data. We observed that both tumors with

and without detection of this signature exhibited significant correlations between TMB and the

ensemble LCAM score (r=0.38; p=9.2e-5 in the undetected smoking signature group) despite

having clearly distinct distributions of TMB (Figure 6E), suggesting that this relationship was

independent of smoking-driven immunomodulation.

We then asked which additional features of the tumors may influence the ensemble LCAM

score beyond the effect caused by differences in TMB. To perform this analysis, we regressed the

ensemble LCAM score onto the LogTMB and correlated candidate variables with regression

residuals, which quantify the difference between the observed and expected LCAM scores based

on this relationship. For example, scores quantifying total predicted single-nucleotide-variant- or

Insertion/deletion-induced neoantigens did not correlate with these differences (Figure S6P, Q),

indicating that these neoantigen prediction scores did not provide more information regarding the

LCAM immune modulation than TMB alone. However, consistent with the hypothesis that

generation of tumor-associated antigens was the key mechanism connecting TMB to an LCAM

response, we found that a score quantifying total tumor associated but not tumor-specific cancer-

testis antigens (CTA) was correlated with the regression residuals (Figure 6F; r=0.16, p=3.4e-3),

suggesting that additional tumor-associated antigens beyond those directly caused by tumor

mutations may also contribute to induction of the LCAM response.

Most adenocarcinoma patients have at least one of a small number of common driver

mutations, including *KRAS, EGFR, STK11,* and *TP53*. Recently, it was shown that LUAD patients

responsive to immune checkpoint blockade frequently have tumors harboring *TP53* mutations, and

that *TP53* mutant status was associated with enrichment of CD8 T cells in the TME[43,44]. However,

immune-related effects of individual mutations have generally not been considered independently

given their correlation with TMB. Specifically, while *TP53*-mutant tumors had higher ensemble

LCAM scores compared to *TP53*-WT/(*EGFR* or *KRAS* or *STK11*)-mut tumors in both TCGA and

CPTAC datasets (Figures 6G and S6R), *TP53* was also most strongly associated with increased

TMB (Figures 6H and S6S). In order to statistically test whether these mutations were associated

with higher LCAM scores while controlling for TMB, we regressed the LCAM score onto the

LogTMB and asked whether any individual mutations were correlated with the regression

residuals. Interestingly, this analysis showed that *TP53*-mutant patients had higher LCAM scores

than expected by a model assuming only correlation with TMB (Figure 6I; p=1.4e-3). *KRAS*-

mutant patients, meanwhile, had lower LCAM scores than expected by this model (Figure 6J;

p=1.6e-4). There was no similar deviation seen in either *STK11*- or *EGFR*-mutant patients (Figure

S6T). Overall, projection of bulk signatures onto axes defined by variation in our scRNAseq cohort

suggested that expression of the LCAM cellular module is a marker of adaptive response against

mutated and ectopically-expressed tumor-associated antigens that is independent from the overall

level of immune infiltration.

DISCUSSION

The analysis of matched tumor and nLung tissues from 35 patients as described here provides the

largest unbiased single-cell map of the immune response of early-stage lung cancer lesions to date.

CITEseq analysis, combining phenotypic classifications based on surface protein expression with

transcriptomic profile, serves here to help unite high-dimensional models of cellular classification

and refine our understanding of the immune cellular landscape in disease lesions. By further

integrating tumor and nLung samples from public datasets, we demonstrated the robustness of the

reported signatures across platforms. Importantly, based on high levels of changes conserved

across tumor lesions, these data support the notion that common immunotherapy treatment

paradigms could be beneficial for large subsets of patients despite existing disease heterogeneity.

Among tumors, patients could, however, be stratified along a dominant LCAM axis that

was independent of overall immune infiltration or changes in proportions of immune lineages.

This axis was defined by a high level of IgG+ plasma cells, activated T cells that were clonally

enriched in the tumor and expressing a proliferation signature, and MoMac-II that expressed *SPP1*,

a glycolysis signature, and a set of inflammatory secreted factors; this module of cell types

anticorrelated with B cells, T cells with a Tcm/naïve-like phenotype, resting cDC, AMΦ, and MΦ

expressing *AZU1*. We therefore propose that LCAM^hi patients are undergoing a more vigorous

antigen-specific antitumor adaptive immune response, whereas LCAM^lo patients fail to mount an

adaptive response to such a degree. Unbiased ligand-receptor analyses showed that, while both

LCAM^hi and LCAM^lo tumors expressed similar patterns of ligand-receptor pairs among immune

cells compared to nLung, LCAM^hi status was specifically related to heightened *CXCL13*

expression by T cells, IFNg signaling from T cells to myeloid and B cells, and CXCL-9,10,11

signaling from myeloid cells; cDC meanwhile expressed more *CCL19* in LCAM^hi tumors

compared to more *CCL17* in LCAM[lo] tumors. These factors likely served to modify the immune

response around a set of conserved changes compared to nLung observed in both LCAM[hi] and

LCAM[lo] tumors.

When analyzed in the context of broader datasets with paired bulk transcriptomics and

whole exome sequencing, an ensemble gene score learned from the LCAM[hi] and LCAM[lo] patients

and associated cell types strongly correlated with measures indicative of high levels of tumor-

associated antigens, namely TMB and a cancer testis antigen score. Interestingly, the LCAM score

was not correlated with the overall immune infiltrate, and was independent of the T-cell inflamed

gene expression profile score commonly used to reflect immune activation in tumor lesions[39,40].

While the ensemble LCAM score was correlated with smoking status and weakly correlated with

stage, the relationship with TMB remained even after controlling for these possible confounders.

Given that TMB has demonstrated predictive power with response to ICB response in NSCLC[14,38],

the relationship between TMB and the LCAM cellular module in treatment-naïve patients suggests

that this effect may be mediated via a conditioning of the immune system that exists prior to

treatment, and that measurement of this cellular module may provide a more direct indicator with

respect to the immune system's propensity for ICB response. Specifically, the fact that many

factors significantly influence the LCAM score, not just TMB, demonstrates how the immune

system integrates multiple types of signals to establish its set point.

Importantly, while previously reported immune signatures have been proposed to reflect

tumor cytolytic activity or T cell and IFNg-driven immune response in association with tumor

antigens and immune evasion modes[39,40,45], the LCAM axis presented here represents an integrated

assessment of the immune cellular organization, based on all immune cell types as defined by

scRNA across patients, likely arising as a direct response to tumor antigens.

An additional question of clinical interest relates to how different driver mutations affect the conditioning of the immune system and ICB response. The analysis presented here shows that the common LUAD driver mutations *EGFR* and *STK11* had little effect on the LCAM response beyond that explained by their association with TMB. While *STK11* mutation status has been shown to be the most prevalent genomic driver of primary resistance to ICB[44,46], there were no patients with *STK11*-mutated tumors in our scRNAseq cohort, so this effect can therefore not be addressed here. Meanwhile, compared to what was expected based on each tumor's TMB alone, *TP53* mutation intensified the LCAM response and *KRAS* mutation blunted it. Interestingly, the latter result is consistent with a recent report demonstrating that pharmacological blockade of KRAS-G12C in preclinical studies resulted in a robust immune response and synergized with anti-PD1 treatment[47]. The mechanisms of these effects remain to be seen, and may relate to the expression of immunomodulatory factors by the tumor, or the re-shaping of the metabolic microenvironment, for example. To elucidate such pathways, close study of the tumor on a broader molecular scale, in conjunction with the immune cell composition and state, is necessary.

A further, surprising result from our bulk RNA analyses was that the LCAM axis was highly consistent with a change in fibroblast phenotype based on signatures derived from scRNAseq of NSCLC stromal clusters[5]. This association could suggest that the development of the tumor fibroblast phenotype is in response to overwhelming immune activation that may be instigated by an adaptive, antigen-specific response.

An important limitation of these findings relates to the site of initiation of the LCAM response; while the LCAM cellular module consists of cells undergoing an apparent active immune response, this study does not demonstrate the extent to which the module is instigated or perpetuated *in situ* at the tumor lesion. Specifically, despite evidence of clonally expanding $T_{activated}$

cells, it remains unclear whether these lineages are primed *in situ* versus in tumor-draining lymph

nodes (TdLN). While understanding the timescale of the tumor specific response will always be

challenging due to variation in patient presentation timelines, it will nevertheless be important to

correlate the cell types and states present in the TdLN in order to determine whether the LCAM

response depends on lymph node priming, as well as to develop a deeper understanding of the

spatial dynamics of the LCAM cell types.

Overall, the model presented here identifies an immune activation signature, derived from

definitions of immune phenotypes defined by single-cell RNA and CITEseq, as an integrator of

tumor-associated antigen load and driver mutation status that is not related to overall immune

content. We believe that this axis, therefore, can serve as a more direct measure of antigen-specific,

anti-tumor immune activation compared to previously suggested immune readouts.

METHODS

Human subjects

Samples of tumor and non-involved lung were obtained from surgical specimens of patients

undergoing resection at Mount Sinai Hospital (New York, NY) after obtaining informed consent

in accordance with a protocol reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board at the

Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai (IRB Human Subjects Electronic Research Applications

10-00472 and 10-00135) and in collaboration with the Biorepository and Department of Pathology.

Tissue processing

Tissues were rinsed in PBS, minced and incubated for 40 minutes at 37°C in Collagenase IV

0.25mg/ml, Collagenase D 200U/ml and DNAse I 0.1mg.ml (all Sigma). Cell suspensions were

then aspirated through a 18G needle ten times and strained through a 70-micron mesh prior to RBC

lysis. Cell suspensions were enriched for CD45$^+$ cells by either bead positive selection (Miltenyi)

per kit instructions or FACS sorting on a BD FACSAria flow sorter (as indicated in Table S1)

prior to processing for scRNAseq or CITEseq.

ScRNA- and TCR-seq

For each sample, 10,000 cells were loaded onto a 10X Chromium single-cell encapsulation chip

according to manufacturer instructions. Kit versions for each sample are indicated in Table S1.

Libraries were prepared according to manufacturer instructions. QC of cDNA and final libraries

was performed using CyberGreen qPCR library quantification assay. Sequencing was performed

on Illumina sequencers to a depth of at least 80 million reads per library.

TCRseq was performed using the Chromium Single Cell 5' VDJ kit, following

manufacturer's instructions. For patients 695 and 706, cells were subject to a CD2+ bead

enrichment (Miltenyi) instead of CD45+ enrichment prior to encapsulation.

CITEseq

For each sample, cell suspensions were split and barcoded using "hashing antibodies"[48] staining

beta-2-microglobulin and CD298 and conjugated to "hash-tag" oligonucleotides (HTOs). Hashed

samples were pooled and stained with CITEseq antibodies that had been purchased either from the

Biolegend TOTALseq catalog or conjugated using the Thunder-Link PLUS Oligo Conjugation kit

(Expedeon). Sample hashing schemes and CITEseq panels are detailed in Tables S1 and S2,

respectively. Stained cells were then encapsulated for single-cell reverse transcription using the

10X Chromium platform and libraries were prepared as previously described[15] with minor

modifications. Briefly, cDNA amplification was performed in the presence of 2pM of an antibody-

oligo specific primer to increase yield of antibody derived tags (ADTs). The amplified cDNA was

then separated by SPRI size selection into cDNA fractions containing mRNA derived cDNA

(>300bp) and ADT-derived cDNAs (<180bp), which were further purified by additional rounds of

SPRI selection. Independent sequencing libraries were generated from the mRNA and ADT cDNA

fractions, which were quantified, pooled and sequenced together on an Illumina Nextseq to a depth

of at least 80 million reads per gene expression library and 20 million reads per ADT library.

MICSSS

FFPE tissues were stained using multiplexed immunohistochemical consecutive staining on a

single slide as previously described[22]. Briefly, slides were baked at 37°C overnight, deparaffinized

in xylene, and rehydrated in decreasing concentrations of ethanol. Tissue sections were incubated

in citrate buffer (pH6 or 9) for antigen retrieval at 95°C for 30 minutes, followed by incubation in

3% hydrogen peroxide and in serum-free protein block solution (Dako, X0909) before adding

primary antibody for 1 hour at room temperature. After signal amplification using secondary

antibody conjugated to streptavidin-horseradish peroxidase and chromogenic revelation using 3-

amino-9-ethylcarbazole (AEC), slides were counterstained with hematoxylin, mounted with a

glycerol-based mounting medium and scanned for digital imaging (Pannoramic 250 Flash III

whole-slide scanner, 3DHISTECH). Then the same slides were successively bleached and re-

stained as previously described[22]. Primary antibodies were: anti-human CD10 (200103, R&D

systems), DC-Lamp (1010E1.01, Novus biologicals), pan-cytokeratin (AE1/AE3, Dako), PDPN

(D@-40, Ventana), CD163 (10D6, Novus Biologicals) and PD-L1 (E1L3N, Cell Signaling Tech).

Analysis of Sequencing data

Transcriptomic and TCR library reads were aligned to the GRCh38/84 reference genome and

quantified using Cellranger (v3.1.0). CITEseq ADT and CITEseq HTO reads were queried for

antibody- and cell-specific oligonucleotide sequence barcodes in the designated read positions,

including antibody sequences within a Hamming distance of 1 from the reference, using the

feature-indexing function of Cellranger. Resulting alignment statistics are reported in Table S3.

TCR data was aligned using Cellranger *vdj* function with default parameters.

CITEseq processing and normalization

Doublets were removed based on co-staining of distinct sample-barcoding ("hashing") antibodies

([*maximum HTO counts*]/[*2nd most HTO counts*] < 5) and cell barcodes with few HTO counts

(*maximum HTO counts* < 10) were also excluded. Cells were then assigned to samples based on

their maximum staining HTO. HTO to sample associations are detailed in Table S1.

To normalize ADT counts across experimental batches given different CITEseq staining

panels and sequencing runs, we performed a quantile-normalization on the ADT count values for

each surface marker for the immune cells in each 10X encapsulation batch. To do this, the

geometric average of the quantile function was computed across batches

$$\overline{F_m^{-1}(p)} = \left(\prod_{b=1}^{N} [F_{m,b}^{-1}(p) + d] \right)^{\frac{1}{N}}$$

where $F_{m,b}^{-1}(p)$ is the quantile function, or inverse cumulative distribution function, for counts of

CITEseq marker *m* on immune cells in each of *N* 10X encapsulation batches *b* and regularization

factor *d*=1 ADT count, evaluated at quantile *p* in interval [0,1]. This geometric average quantile

function provided a reference function for a common mapping of cells based on their single-

channel, batch-specific staining quantile *p* to a normalized staining intensity. Of note, this

normalization method preserved the relationships between channels while constraining the

observed differences in staining across experiments within individual channels.

Unsupervised batch-aware clustering analysis

Immune cells from tumor and nLung samples were filtered for cell barcodes recording > 500 UMI,

with < 25% mitochondrial gene expression, and with less than defined thresholds of expression

for genes associated with red blood cells and with epithelial cells (Table S4). Cells were clustered

using an unsupervised batch-aware clustering method we have recently described[16] with minor

adjustments. This EM-like algorithm, which was also based on earlier studies[49,50], iteratively

updates both cluster assignments and sample-wise noise estimates until it converges, using a

multinomial mixture model capturing the transcriptional profiles of the different cell-states and

sample specific fractions of background noise. We clustered 19 nLung and 22 tumor samples

jointly and 46 additional tumor and nLung samples were mapped onto the final model as described

below.

The model definitions and estimation of model parameters were as described in ([16]).

Specifically, the probability of observing gene i in cell j is defined as:

$$650 \qquad p_{ji} = \frac{1}{Z}\left[K_{reg} + (1 - \eta_{b^j}) \cdot \alpha_{i,map^j} + \eta_{b^j} \cdot \beta_{i,b^j}\right]$$

Where map^j and b^j are assignments of cells j to cell-type and batch respectively; η_{b^j} is the fraction

of UMIs contributed by background noise; α_{i,map^j} is the probability that a molecule drawn from

celltype map^j is of gene i (assuming no background noise) β_{i,b^j} is the probability that a noise UMI

drawn from batch b^j will be of gene i, and K_{reg} is a small regularization constant.

We also used here the pseudo expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm[16] to infer the

model parameters with minor modifications: (1) training set size was 2000 instead of 1000 cells

and (2) the best clustering initiation was selected from 1000 instead of 10000 kmeans+ runs. For

this clustering we included barcodes with more than 800 UMIs and used $K_{reg\_ds} = 0.2$; $(P_1,P_2) =$

$(0^{th},30^{th})$ percentiles; $K_{reg} = 5 \cdot 10^{-6}$; k=60. Genes with high variability between patients were

not used in the clustering. Those genes consisted of mitochondrial, stress, metallothionein genes,

immunoglobulin variable chain genes, HLA class I and II genes and 3 specific genes with

variable/noisy expression*: MALAT1, JCHAIN and XIST* (Table S4). Ribosomal genes were

excluded only from the k-means clustering (Step 2.D as described in ([16])). Samples used to

generate this model included only those that were enriched for CD45+ immune cells using bead

enrichment and were processed with the 10X Chromium V2 workflow.

Integration of additional single-cell data

The resulting clustering model was used to analyze additional data that was both generated in-house or downloaded from public datasets. Single cells were mapped to clusters defined by the previously generated model α. Similarly to the clustering iterations, this process associates single-cells of a sample with multinomial probability vectors defined by the model and estimates the noise fractions of the sample η_b by optimizing the likelihood function ([16]):

$$f(\eta_b) = \sum_j \sum_i U_{ij} \log\left(p_{ji}\right)$$

For p_{ji} as defined above, while α_{i,map^j} are updated using maximum likelihood.

Integrating inDrop data from ([6]) and 10X Chromium 5' data required addressing the systematic differences[51] in gene capture present between these technologies and 10X Chromium 3' data that was used to develop the clustering model. Analysis of the differences in gene expression between the technologies suggested that a multiplicative correction factor C_i per each gene i could adjust for the capture efficiency differences. The following process was used to estimate the correction parameters:

1. Map cells to the original cluster models, as above, assuming absent noise in order to prevent the estimated noise term from being driven by error due to batch differences instead of true noise.

2. Re-calculate models using the average expression of the mapped cells for each cluster to form "data-based models" α^D.

3. Calculate a weight matrix W, that weights individual genes for each cluster. W is calculated by

$$W_{i,j} = \max(\alpha_{i,j}, \alpha^D{}_{i,j}) + w_{reg}$$

689   for original cluster model matrix α, data-based cluster model α^D, gene i, cluster j, and

690   regularization constant $w_{reg} = 10^{-10}$. Since highly detected genes tend to dominate the

691   mapping results, it is important to account for genes that are highly detected in either the

692   original (10X Chromium V2) platform or the new platform

693   4. Construct a vector of gene-specific conversion factors that can operate between platforms:

$$C_i = \sum_j W_{i,j} \left([c + \alpha^D{}_{i,j}] / [c + \alpha_{i,j}] \right)$$

695   for regularization factor $c = 10^{-6}$.

696   5. Generate transformed cluster models $\alpha'_{i,j}$ by multiplying the original models by the

697   conversion vector and dividing by a normalization factor Z:

$$\alpha'_{i,j} = \frac{1}{Z} * C_i \, \alpha_{i}{}_{,j}$$

6. Map cells to transformed models without fixing the noise.

Analysis of the gene expression profiles of the mapped cells in each cluster demonstrated

correspondence between the model and the mapped samples across the different technologies.

(Fig S1B).

Analysis of public datasets

Fastqs of scRNAseq data of tumors and nLung from 8 NSCLC patients[5] acquired using 10X

Chromium protocols was downloaded from ArrayExpress accessions E-MTAB-6149 and E-

MTAB-6653. Sequencing reads were re-aligned using Cellranger as described above . Single-cells

were mapped to clusters as described above. Tumor samples included 3 separate samples from the

core, middle, and edge of each tumor. Regional tumor samples were considered separately for the

intra- versus inter-patient variability analyses (Figure S1G, H). For remaining analyses, cell counts

of projected tumor samples were pooled by patient.

scRNAseq data of tumors from 7 NSCLC patients[6] acquired using inDrop was downloaded

from GEO accession GSE127465. Since neutrophils were not detected in 10X Chromium data,

cells   that   were   annotated   as   neutrophils   in   the

GSE127465_human_cell_metadata_54773x25.tsv.gz file were excluded from analysis. Cells were

classified by projection as described above, using the modified procedure for inDrop data.

TCGA LUAD RNAseq data was downloaded using the *GDCquery* and *GDCdownload*

functions from the *TCGAbiolinks* R package. *GDCquery* options included *project="TCGA-*

LUAD", data.category="Transcriptome Profiling", data.type="Gene Expression

Quantification", workflow.type="HTSeq – FPKM", experimental.strategy="RNA-Seq", and

legacy=F. Whole exome sequencing data was downloaded using the *GDCquery_Maf* function

with arguments *tumor="TCGA-LUAD"* and *pipelines="mutect2"*. Clinical data was downloaded

using   the   *GDCquery_clinic*   function   with   arguments   *project="TCGA-LUAD"*   and

type="clinical".

Processed CPTAC lung adenocarcinoma data was downloaded from the CPTAC Data

Portal https://cptac-data-portal.georgetown.edu/cptacPublic/.

Determination of sample-sample distances

Sample-sample distances were computed as the Euclidean distance between vectors consisting of

the Log_{10}-transformed cell type frequencies, where frequencies were computed as a fraction of

total immune cells. A regularization factor of 10^{-3} was applied prior to applying the log-transform.

Determination of myeloid cell type-specific gene scores

Lists of mutually-exclusive genes were used to compare monocytes, cDC2, and MΦ in Figure 2,

and monocytes, AMΦ, and MoMΦ in Figure 3. For these analyses, genes were identified as

"mutually exclusive" if the average expression was at least 2x greater in a given population than

in the other comparison populations. To account for the large diversity of MoMΦ clusters, the

maximum average expression of each MoMΦ subtype was used instead of the overall average

expression. Resulting gene lists are presented in Table S4. Cells were scored according to the

resulting gene lists as the Log-transformed fraction of UMI belonging to the gene list. Histograms

were generated with the R function *density* using default parameters.

Modules analyses

Gene-gene correlation modules were generated using a similar method to that previously

described. Briefly, cells were downsampled to 2000 UMI prior to selecting a set of variable genes,

similar to the selection of genes in preparation for seeding the clustering[16]. The gene-gene

correlation matrix for this gene set was then computed for each sample over the cell population of

interest. Correlation matrices were averaged following a Fisher Z-transformation. Applying the

inverse transformation then resulted in the best-estimate correlation coefficients of gene-gene

interactions across the dataset. Genes were clustered into modules using complete linkage

hierarchical clustering over correlation distance. Histograms of module expression scores were

generated with the R function *density* using default parameters.

Classification of CD4+ versus CD8+ T_activated cells

CITEseq staining on a subset of patients was used to build a gene-set-based classifier that could

use mRNA UMI data to discriminate CD4+ versus CD8+ cells within the $T_{activated}$ cluster. To

identify these gene sets, cells from 2 patients used as a training set were gated based on a Log_2FC

of raw ADT counts of raw CD4/CD8 > 1 and compared by differential expression. Genes were

filtered by expression > 10^{-4} and a Log_2FC > 1, and nonspecific or noise-related genes such as

those associated with cell-cycle, long-non-coding RNAs, heat shock proteins, immunoglobulin

genes, ribosomal proteins, *XIST*, and histone transcripts. Resulting gene lists are reported in Table

S4. Cells were scored based on the fraction of RNAs belonging to the resulting gene lists, and a

discrimination threshold for the ratio of the CD4 vs. CD8 gene lists was determined based on the

overall accuracy in discriminating between CITEseq-defined CD4+ vs. CD8+ cells in the training

set. This gene score discriminator was validated using cells from a test set comprised of cells from

4 additional patients analyzed by CITEseq (584, 593, 596, 630), and on cells with unique detection

of either *CD4* or at least one of (*CD8A, CD8B*).

Analysis of cycling T cell cluster

To analyze the phenotypic makeup of the cluster of T cells expressing cell-cycle genes, we

generated gene sets based on the other T cell phenotypes described here to score each cell within

the cluster. To do this, we pooled the cells of each other T cell phenotype to compute its average

expression. We then identified a gene list for each phenotype defined by expression > 1e-5 and

Log2FC > 0.25 compared to the maximum of the other phenotypes. From this list, we excluded

variable TCR genes, and other genes associated with noise or cell stress. The gene lists for the

$T_{naive/CM-like}$ cell types were grouped, since these phenotypes were very similar. Resulting gene lists

are reported in Table S4.

For each cell in the cycling cluster, we then computed the fraction of UMI belonging to

each gene signature after removing UMIs belonging to the list of genes associated with the cycling

cluster that was calculated as above. We performed spherical k-means clustering using the function

skmeans() in the *skmeans* R package on these signature fractions in order to group cells within the

cycling cluster according to phenotypic subtype by spherical k-means cluster.

Single-cell TCRseq analysis

Single T cells were grouped by clonotype according to their precise combination of α and β chains

present (uniquely defined by CDR3 sequence and V, D, and J gene usage), with the following

acceptations in order to filter for high quality singlets:

1. Cells with contigs encoding > 3 productive α and β chains were excluded as multiplets.

2. Cells with contigs encoding > 3 productive α and β chains that completely overlapped

with observed cells within the multiplets were also excluded as multiplets.

3. Remaining cells with 3 unique α and β chains that could be uniquely associated with

similar cells displaying 2 unique α and β chains were assumed to be clonally related, whereas cells

that could be similarly associated with multiple distinct sets of cells expressing 2 unique α and β

chains were excluded as doublets.

4. Cells in which a single TCR chain was observed were assumed to be clonally related to

any cells with 2 unique α and β chains to which they uniquely associated.

5. Remaining cells in which a single TCR chain was observed were excluded if they

matched ambiguously to multiple cells with 2- or 3-chains.

Clonality scores were computed for each T cell type in each patient as *1-Peilou's eveness*

over the set of unique TCRs as previously described[52].

Ligand-receptor analysis

Ligand-receptor intensity scores for a set of secreted ligands (ref([33]) and Table S6) were calculated

as previously reported[16]. Briefly, for each ligand-receptor interaction, for each source cell type and

each receiver cell type, the intensity score was equal to the product of ligand generation from the

source cell type relative to the total RNA with the expression of the receptor on the receiver cell

type. Scores were independently calculated for LCAM[hi] and LCAM[lo] patient sets in nLung and

Tumor tissues. To determine these patient sets, patients were sorted by the geometric mean of

lineage-normalized cellular frequencies of LCAM[hi] and LCAM[lo] cell types, and the top half of

patients were defined as LCAM[hi] with the bottom half defined as LCAM[lo]. Only patients analyzed

using 10X Chromium V2 with immune cells purified with magnetic beads were used for this

analysis. The patients included in these groups were: LCAM[hi]: (408, 403, 522, 371, 570, 714, 584,

377, 406, 564, 630, 578, 514); LCAM[lo]: (571, 596, 393, 593, 626, 378, 370, 410, 572, 558, 581,

596, 729).

Identification of LCAM[hi] and LCAM[lo] bulk-RNA gene signatures

To define genes that could probe the presence of LCAM[hi] or LCAM[lo] cell types in bulk RNA

data, we adopted a similar strategy to that used previously for the projection of bulk data onto

signatures defined by cellular axes as measured with scRNA[16,34]. Cells were evenly sampled from

LCAM[hi] and LCAM[lo] patients (1409 cells per patient), and sampled cells were then pooled within

the groups. Differentially expressed genes ($FDR < 10^{-3}$ and Log2FC > 1) were retained. Genes that

were expressed in the filtered epithelial cells > 2x higher than in immune cells on average were

removed. Among the remaining differentially expressed genes, those that were expressed on

average within any LCAM^{hi} or LCAM^{lo} subtype with Log2FC > 3 compared to the highest

expressing subtype in the opposite group were retained. These gene lists were further abbreviated

to include no more than 10 genes per cell type, in order to balance the number of genes coming

from any individual cell type. In order to increase the differential expression effect sizes observed,

only the most extreme 6 LCAM^{hi} and LCAM^{lo} patients processed with CD45+ bead enrichment

and 10X Chromium V2 were included in the differential expression analysis. These patients were

LCAM^{hi}: (408, 403, 714, 522, 371, 570), and LCAM^{lo}: (571, 596, 393, 593, 626, 378).

Calculation of LCAM^{hi}, LCAM^{lo}, and ensemble LCAM scores in bulk-RNA datasets

Bulk RNA expression datasets were log-transformed and z-scored. For each cell type associated

with LCAM^{hi} or LCAM^{lo}, the resulting z-scores of the associated genes were averaged and z-

scored. A summary average of these values was then computed across all the cell types associated

with either LCAM^{hi} or LCAM^{lo} cell types.

Published statistics for TCGA Lung adenocarcinoma patients

Estimates of total immune content present in each TCGA sample (ESTIMATE score)[35] were

download from https://bioinformatics.mdanderson.org/public-software/estimate/.

Scores associating mutational signatures[41] with individual TCGA samples were

downloaded from the mSignatureDB[42] website http://tardis.cgu.edu.tw/msignaturedb/. For the present

study, detection of Signature 4 was used to indicate presence of smoking-related mutations.

Counts of Indel Neoantigens, SNV Neoantigens, and CTA score in TCGA cases were

accessed from Table S1 of ref. ([53]).

Generation of stromal cell type scores

Fibroblast and endothelial cell count matrices from tumor and nLung of 8 NSCLC patients[5] were

downloaded   from

https://gbiomed.kuleuven.be/english/research/50000622/laboratories/54213024/scRNAseq-

NSCLC. Previously-applied[5] cluster annotations were assumed, where endothelial cluster 6 was

defined as "lymphatics", and endothelial and fibroblast clusters were defined based on enrichment

in tumor or nLung: endothelial clusters 3 and 4 were pooled as "Tumor BEC", endothelial clusters

1 and 5 were pooled as "Normal BEC", fibroblast cluster 1 was defined as "Normal fibroblast",

and fibroblast clusters 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 7 were pooled as "CAF". For each of these cell types, gene

scores were defined based on a minimum average expression of 10^{-4} and a minimum fold-change

threshold of 4 compared to any other stromal cell type. Cell type gene-scores were defined in

TCGA lung adenocarcinoma using the average z-scored gene expression of each stromal gene list.

DATA AVAILABILITY

Human scRNAseq, TCRseq, and CITEseq data is available at GEO accession GSE154826.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by National Institutes of Health (NIH) grants 5T32CA078207 (to

A.M.L.). We thank A. Magen, P. Hamon, M. Casanova-Acebes for critical comments on the

manuscript; and the Mount Sinai flow cytometry core, Human Immune Monitoring Center and

Mount Sinai Biorepository for support. Research reported in this paper was supported by the Office

of Research Infrastructure of the National Institutes of Health under award numbers

S10OD018522 and S10OD026880. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does

not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health. Data used in this

publication were generated by the TCGA Research Network, and the National Cancer Institute

Clinical Proteomic Tumor Analysis Consortium (CPTAC). Research support was provided by

Regeneron and Takeda. We recognize the patients and their families for their important

contributions and sacrifices.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

MM and EK conceived the project. AML, AR, and MM designed the experiments. AML, EK, and

MM wrote the manuscript. AML, EK, and MD performed computational analysis. TM, MB, AW,

and RF facilitated access to human samples. AML, JG, CC, BM, AT, LW, JL, NM, GM, and KT

performed experiments. NRD and GT funded part of the study. AL conducted patient consents and

facilitated regulatory items. JG, JM, GM, ZZ, FP, RS, AK, PW, HS, and TM provided further

intellectual input.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

Research support for this work was provided by Regeneron and Takeda. The authors declare no

other competing financial interests.

 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. scRNA- and CITE-seq establish the diversity of transcriptional states in the tumor

microenvironment.

A, Study overview. Resected specimens of tumor tissue and non-involved lung (nLung) were

digested to single cell suspensions, enriched for CD45+ cells, and subjected to single cell assays

including CITEseq and TCRseq.

B, Clinical data of patients undergoing resection indicating summary pathological stage, smoking

history, histological diagnosis, and sex.

C, Expression of cell type marker genes across scRNAseq clusters of immune cells, grouped by

lineage annotation (MNP: mononuclear phagocyte; pDC: plasmacytoid dendritic cell). Heatmap

shows the number of unique molecular identifiers (UMI) per cell. Clusters are shown using an

even number of randomly selected cells from 7 matched tumor and nLung sample pairs who were

analyzed by CITEseq. Cells were downsampled to 2000 UMI/cell.

D, Expression of lineage-defining surface markers on single cells, as measured by CITEseq. Single

cells correspond directly to cells shown in (**C**). CITEseq count values were first quantile

normalized across patients, then row-normalized across cells in the heatmap.

E, Cells per cluster as a percent of total immune cells across 35 tumor and 32 matched nLung

samples. Clusters correspond directly to those shown in (**C**) and (**D**).

F, Box-plots of Euclidean distances between pairs of samples among nLung only (nLung-nLung),

tumor only (tumor-tumor), or between nLung samples and tumor samples (Tumor-nLung).

Distances between pairs of patient-matched samples were excluded from the Tumor-nLung

distribution to prevent confounding due to patient-specific effects. *** P < 0.001, Wilcoxon rank-

sum test.

G, Log-ratios between cell type frequencies in tumor and nLung. Clusters were grouped by cell

type annotation. Crosses represent error bars showing the mean $\pm$ SEM of Log_2FC estimates of

differences in cell type frequency between tumor and nLung using the cohort collected in the

present study (Mount Sinai; x-axis) or the cohort in ref. [5] (y-axis).

Figure 2. Intratumoral DC comprise expanded MoDC and express an LCH-like signature.

A, Expression of key genes discriminating scRNAseq clusters of DC, grouped by cell type

annotation (MoDC: monocyte-derived DC; cDC: classical DC). Heatmap shows the number of

UMI per cell. Clusters are shown using an even number of randomly selected cells from each,

drawing from patients who were analyzed by CITEseq with the DC panel shown in (**B**) (4 matched

tumor-nLung tissue pairs). Cells were downsampled to 2000 UMI/cell.

B, Expression of DC surface markers on single cells, as measured by CITEseq. Single cells

correspond directly to cells shown in (**A**). CITEseq count values were first quantile normalized

across patients, then row-normalized across cells in the heatmap.

C, Differences between tumor and nLung of DC frequencies normalized to total DC; *P<0.05,

**P<0.01, ***P,0.001 (Wilcoxon signed-rank test with Bonferroni correction; N=25 matched

tissue pairs with >50 DC observed in each tissue).

D, Barplots showing average expression of *LAMP3 (DC-LAMP)* and *CD274 (PD-L1)* across DC

clusters.

E, MICSSS imaging showing spatial distribution of DC-LAMP+/PD-L1+ DC in proximity to T

cells in a TLS.

F, Expression of follicular dendritic cell marker MYH11 in TLS in an adjacent section to that

shown in (**E**).

G, Expression among CD14+ monocytes and DC of monocyte, cDC2, and MΦ cell type specific

gene signatures (See Figure S2D, E). Heatmaps show expression of 20 genes from each score

among single-cells evenly sampled by cell type (left) and as corresponding summary scores. Cells

were ordered by the ratio of monocyte:cDC2 summary scores and were downsampled to 2000

UMI.

H, Boxplots showing average expression of LCH-like signature genes across DC populations in

distinct nLung and tumor samples.

Figure 3. Tumors exclude AMΦ and exhibit a diversity of MoMΦ populations.

A, Average cluster expression of lineage-defining monocyte and MΦ clusters based on literature

review, grouped by cell type annotation.

B, Expression of myeloid surface markers on single cells, as measured by CITEseq. Clusters are

shown using an even number of randomly selected cells from each, from patients who were

analyzed with the panel shown (4 matched tumor-nLung pairs). CITEseq count values were first

quantile normalized across patients, then row-normalized across cells in the heatmap.

C, Histograms of gene module scores per cell type (see also Figure S3D-J).

D-F, Expression among CD14+ monocytes, MoMΦ, and AMΦ of cell type specific gene scores.

Gene scores were generated based on sets of mutually exclusive, differentially expressed genes

among AMΦ, MoMΦ, and CD14+ monocytes (see Figure S3I). Cells are plotted by AMΦ and

MoMΦ score, and cell-annotations are indicated by colored dots or contour plots (**D**). Cells are

plotted on similar axes and colored by CD14+ monocyte score (**E**), or by expression of individual

genes (**F**).

G, Differences between tumor and nLung of lineage-normalized monocyte and MΦ frequencies;

*P<0.05; **P<0.01, ***P,0.001 (Wilcoxon signed-rank test with Bonferroni correction; N=32

matched tissue pairs).

H, Average cell type expression of secreted factors across MNP cell types.

Figure 4. CITEseq and TCR analysis of the adaptive immune compartment.

A, Expression of key genes discriminating scRNAseq clusters of T cells, grouped by cell type

annotation. Heatmap shows the number of UMI per cell. Clusters are shown using an even number

of randomly selected cells from each, drawing from patients who were analyzed by CITEseq with

the T cell panel shown in (**B**) (2 matched tumor-nLung tissue pairs). Cells were downsampled to

2000 UMI/cell.

B, Expression of T cell surface markers on single cells, as measured by CITEseq. Single cells

correspond directly to cells shown in (**A**). CITEseq count values were first quantile normalized

across patients, then row-normalized across cells in the heatmap.

C, Differences between tumor and nLung of population frequencies normalized by total NK and

T cells; *P<0.05; **P<0.01, ***P<0.001 (Wilcoxon signed-rank test with Bonferroni correction,

N=32 matched tissue pairs).

D, E, Phenotypic distribution of T cells among tissue-stratified clonotypes. Frequencies of unique

TCRs observed by scTCRseq in nLung (x-axis) or tumor in a representative patient (**D**). In (**E**),

cells were first grouped by TCR tissue tropism categories as defined in (**D**); for 3 patients, the

phenotypic makeup of the cells with unique TCRs, tissue-specific TCRs, or TCRs shared across

tissues is plotted for nLung (**i**) and tumor tissues (**ii**) is plotted as a percent of cells with similarly

tissue-distributed TCRs**.** Each patient is indicated by shape.

F, Expression of key genes discriminating scRNAseq clusters of B and plasma cells, grouped by

cell type annotation. Heatmap shows the number of UMI per cell. Clusters are shown using an

even number of randomly selected cells from each, drawing from patients who were analyzed by

CITEseq with the B cell panel shown in (**G**) (4 matched tumor-nLung tissue pairs). Cells were

downsampled to 2000 UMI/cell.

G, Expression of B and plasma cell surface markers on single cells, as measured by CITEseq.

Single cells correspond directly to cells shown in (**F**). CITEseq count values were first quantile

normalized across patients, then row-normalized across cells in the heatmap.

Figure 5. Cell-cell interactions drive an axis of adaptive activation.

A, Spearman correlation of cell type frequencies after normalization within lineage. Analysis

includes 23 tumors that were processed similarly using 10X Chromium V2 and CD45+ magnetic

bead enrichment.

B, Lineage-normalized cell type frequencies of LCAM^{hi} and LCAM^{lo} cell types among pooled

nLung and Tumor samples from Mount Sinai and refs. ([5,6]) (50 tumor patients with 40 matched

nLung samples). nLung samples are ordered to match the order of tumor samples based on

frequencies of LCAM celltypes.

C, Immune lineage frequencies of nLung and Tumor samples; with columns corresponding to

patient ordering in (**B**).

D-I, Log2 Ratio of ligand-receptor (LR) intensity scores between tumor and nLung of LCAM^{hi}

patients, ("LR ratio"; y-axis) and LCAM^{lo} patients (x-axis). All interactions among T cells, B cells,

MΦ, MoDC, cDC, and monocytes, colored by indication of significance (permutation test, **D**).

Dashed diagonal line indicates unity.

E-I, Showing same data as in (**D**), but highlighting in bold LR ratios for interactions between T

cell ligands and B cell receptors (**E**), T cell ligands and cDC receptors (**F**), MΦ ligands and T cell

receptors (**G**), MoDC ligands and T cell receptors (**H**), and cDC ligands and T cell receptors (**I**).

Labelled interactions are plotted in red.

1008

Figure 6. Tumor features related to the LCAM immune response.

A, Normalized expression of LCAM^{hi} and LCAM^{lo} bulk-RNA signature genes, determined as

shown in Figure S6A, B and as described in the methods, in TCGA lung adenocarcinoma

dataset. Cell type association with sets of genes for each signature is shown. Patients are sorted

along y-axis by ensemble LCAM score.

B-D, Scatter plots of the ensemble LCAM score (y-axis) with signature scores based on genes

that are specific for CAFs (**B**), normal fibroblasts (**C**), or the difference between these scores (**D**)

in TCGA lung adenocarcinoma data. Stromal signatures are based on the stromal data reported in

ref. [5].

E, Scatter plot of LogTMB and ensemble LCAM score. Patients are divided into those with

presence of a smoking-related mutational signature (black) and those without presence of the

signature (red). Black and red lines indicate linear regression relationships computed over each

group of patients independently (r=0.38; p=9.2e-5 in the undetected smoking signature group;

r=0.34; p=1.1e-12 in the detected signature group).

F, Scatter plot of Cancer testes antigen expression score (CTA score), as computed in ref. [53], and

the residuals of the regression of the ensemble LCAM score on the LogTMB.

G and H, Boxplots showing either the ensemble LCAM score (**G**), or TMB (**H**) among TCGA

lung adenocarcinoma patients, divided by combinations of driver mutations.

I and J, Histograms of residuals of the regression of the ensemble LCAM score on the LogTMB,

with patients stratified by *TP53* (**I**) or *KRAS* (**J**) mutational status (Two-sided t-test).

1029

Figure S1. Integration of scRNA samples and datasets for common cell type analysis.

A, Comparison of per-sample estimated noise levels in the training set of cells used for clustering

and model formation (x-axis) compared to the per-sample estimated noise in a withheld test set of

cells that were mapped to the model clusters by probabilistic projection.

B and C, Illustration of how incorporating a fit noise component improves the concordance

between predicted expression and of cells mapped to the T_{reg} cluster and observed expression. Y-

axis shows the predicted expression of T_{regs} in individual samples without accounting for noise (**B**)

or accounting for noise (**C**), against the observed average expression (X-axis)**.** Genes were color-

coded by the ratio between the observed expression and the model without accounting for noise.

Estimation of the noise component is detailed in the methods.

D, Per-sample estimated noise levels in 10X chromium V2 samples that were used for clustering,

10X chromium V2 samples that were analyzed by projection onto the clustering model and not

used in the clustering, 10X chromium 5' samples that were analyzed by projection, and samples

from external datasets[5,6] that were analyzed by projection.

E, Boxplots showing the distribution of UMI per cell in each cluster.

F, Barplots showing number of cells in Mount Sinai dataset mapping to each cluster.

G, Heatmap showing row-normalized cell type frequencies in a public dataset[5] with samples

spanning 3 regions each in a cohort of 8 NSCLC patients. Samples are clustered by spearman

correlation distance. Sample names are colored by patient.

H, Box plots of Euclidean distances based on log-transformed cluster frequencies between samples

of different patients or from the same patient, as in (**G**), from ref. [5]. *** P < 0.001, Wilcoxon rank-

sum test.

1052

Figure S2. Module analysis of DC.

A, Barplots showing total number of cells mapped to each individual DC cluster in the Mount

Sinai cohort.

B, Boxplots showing number of cells mapped to each individual DC cluster per tumor sample in

the Mount Sinai cohort.

C, Differences between tumor and nLung of DC frequencies normalized to total MNP; *P<0.05,

**P<0.01, ***P,0.001 (Wilcoxon signed-rank test with Bonferroni correction; N=26 matched

tissue pairs with >250 MNP observed in each tissue).

D, Log_2FC and expression level distributions of gene sets that are mutually exclusively expressed

in CD14+ monocytes, MΦ, and cDC2 (See Figure 2G).

E. Histograms of cDC2 and MΦ scores, using gene lists generated as shown in (**D**).

F-I, Gene module analysis of DC clusters. Correlation of gene module expression across all DC

(**F**), five example genes from each module, ranked by correlation to the other genes in the module

and colored by total expression in DC (**G**), boxplots showing Log_2FC of module expression among

all DC between patient matched tumor and nLung samples (**H**), and normalized average cluster

expression of modules (**I**).

J, Boxplots showing expression of LCH-like signature genes across DC populations in distinct

nLung and tumor samples from ref. [5].

1071

Figure S3. Diversity of nlung and tumor-infiltrating MΦ populations.

A, Expression of key genes discriminating scRNAseq clusters of monocytes and MΦ, grouped by

cell type annotation. Heatmap shows the number of UMI per cell. Clusters are shown using an

even number of randomly selected cells from each, drawing from 35 tumor and 32 nLung samples.

Cells were downsampled to 2000 UMI/cell.

B, Scatter plots showing normalized CITEseq CD10 and CD206 surface marker counts on AMΦ,

MoMΦ, and CD14+ monocytes in nLung of a representative patient.

C, IHC of CD10 staining AMΦ in the airspaces of nLung tissue.

D-G, Gene module analysis of monocyte and MΦ clusters. Correlation of gene module expression

across all monocytes and MΦ (**D**). Module groups illustrate groups of correlated modules which

are expressed most specifically on AMΦ, MoMΦ, and monocytes (see **G**). Five example genes

from each module, ranked by correlation to the other genes in the module and colored by total

expression in monocytes and MΦ (**E**), boxplots showing Log_2FC of module expression among all

monocytes and MΦ between patient matched tumor and nLung samples (**F**), and normalized

average cluster expression of modules (**G**).

H, Log_2FC and expression level of gene sets that are mutually exclusively expressed in CD14+

monocytes, AMΦ, and MoMΦ (See Figure 3D-F).

1089

1090 **Figure S4. Phenotypic dissection of activated, cycling, and clonally expanded T cells.**

A, Differential expression within the $T_{activated}$ cluster of cells staining for CD4 versus CD8 by CITEseq (y-axis) vs. average $T_{activated}$ expression (x-axis).

B, Classification of $T_{activated}$ cells as CD4+ or CD8+ based on the ratio of CD4-related or CD8-related gene signatures learned from cells of 2 patients (training set; open circles) and validated on cells of 4 additional validation patients (test set; black dots). Red line indicates gene ratio threshold learned from the training set. Only cells where the CITEseq CD4:CD8 count ratio is >2 or <1/2 are considered.

C, Validation of CD4/CD8 classification scheme shown in (**B**) for cells without CITEseq staining. Cells were considered to be CD4+ or CD8+ based on unique RNA detection of either *CD4* (blue points) or at least one *CD8A* or *CD8B* transcript (green points). The discriminant line is equivalent to the gene ratio threshold learned from CITEseq data, shown in (**B**).

D, Expression of key genes in CD4-related and CD8-related gene signatures for discriminating CD4+ and CD8+ activated T cells. Cells are sorted by ratio of these gene signatures, and the line is drawn to indicate the cells discriminated based on the threshold in panel (**B**). Heatmap shows the number of UMI per cell. Cells represent $T_{activated}$ cells from 35 tumors, and were downsampled to 2000 UMI/cell.

E, Frequency of CD8+ or CD4+ $T_{activated}$ cells across 35 patients, as determined by gene signature scores learned from CITEseq (as in **A-D**).

F-H, Spherical k-means sub-clustering on cell type scores of cells within the cycling T cell cluster 18 based on gene scores generated from other T cell clusters. Heatmap of single-cell expression of cell type scores, grouped by sub-cluster (**F**), number of cells in each sub-cluster (**G**; nLung shown in blue, tumor in brown; lines dividing bars horizontally discriminate groups of cells from distinct

patients), and the frequency of cycling T cells of each T cell phenotype (**H**; data points represent

samples with at least 50 cells of the given phenotype).

I, TCR clonality score of phenotypic groups in nLung (blue) and tumor (brown). Dots represent

individual samples with at least 30 cells of indicated phenotype. N=3 patients with tumor-nLung

pairs.

J, Number of cells within each TCR category, determined as in Figure 5D, in matched nLung and

tumor samples of 3 patients, each patient indicated by shape.

K, Number of unique TCRs represented in each TCR category, determined as in Figure 5D.

L, Differences between tumor and nLung of lineage-normalized B and plasma cell type

frequencies. All comparisons were not significant (P>0.05, Wilcoxon signed-rank test, N=32

matched tissue pairs).

1124

Figure S5. Ligand-receptor intaractions in LCAM^{hi} and LCAM^{lo} tumors.

A, Lineage-normalized cell type frequencies of all cell types among pooled nLung and Tumor

samples from Mount Sinai and refs. [5,6] (50 tumor patients with 40 matched nLung samples).

B and C, Column-normalized expression of highly expressed secreted ligands (**B**) and associated

receptors (**C**) across all immune cell types, connected by lines linking ligands to receptors.

Connectors are colored by association with LCAM^{hi} patients (purple), LCAM^{lo} patients (green),

or all tumors (orange).

D-F, Log2 Ratio of ligand-receptor (LR) intensity scores between tumor and nLung of LCAM^{hi}

patients, ("LR ratio"; y-axis) and LCAM^{lo} patients (x-axis) as in Figure 5D, highlighting in bold

LR ratios for interactions between B cell ligands and T cell receptors (**D**), T cell ligands and MoDC

receptors (**E**), and T cell ligands and MΦ receptors (**F**). Labelled interactions are plotted in red.

1136

Figure S6. Projection of bulk RNA samples onto signatures defined by the LCAM scRNA

axis.

A and B, Derivation of the LCAM[hi] and LCAM[lo] gene signatures for scoring bulk RNA samples.

Identification of differentially-expressed genes between averaged scRNAseq samples of LCAM[hi]

and LCAM[lo] patients (**A**), and identification of differentially expressed genes that are specific to

genes in the LCAM[hi] or LCAM[lo] cell types (**B**).

C-E, Scatter plots of immune ESTIMATE score[35] with the LCAM[hi] signature score (**C**), the

LCAM[lo] signature score (**D**), or the difference between the LCAM[hi] and LCAM[lo] signature scores

(i.e. the ensemble LCAM score; **E**).

F, Spearman correlation of the LCAM[hi] and LCAM[lo] signature scores among the deciles of

immune content. Error bars represent the 95% confidence interval around the estimate of the

spearman correlation.

G, Scatter plots of the LCAM[hi] and LCAM[lo] signature scores, showing the 1st (black), 3rd (green),

and 10th (red) deciles of immune content. Labelled trend lines are shown for other deciles.

H, Normalized expression of LCAM[hi] and LCAM[lo] bulk-RNA signature genes in the CPTAC lung

adenocarcinoma dataset.

I, Scatter plots of the ensemble LCAM score (y-axis) with signature scores based on genes that

are specific for tumor blood endothelial cells (BEC; left), normal BEC (center), and lymphatic

endothelial cells. Stromal signatures are based on the stromal data reported in ref. [5].

J, Boxplots showing ensemble LCAM scores among TCGA lung adenocarcinoma patients by

TNM T-stage.

K, Scatter plot of LogTMB and ensemble LCAM score in CTPAC lung adenocarcinoma patients, with linear regression line.

L and M, Scatter plots of the LogTMB and immune ESTIMATE score[35] (**L**) and the T-cell inflamed gene expression profile (GEP[39,40]; **M**) in TCGA lung adenocarcinoma patients.

N, Correlation between individual genes comprising the LCAM[hi] and LCAM[lo] bulk gene signatures and LogTMB in TCGA lung adenocarcinoma patients.

O, Scatter plots of LogTMB and the LCAM ensemble score for patients by T-stage.

P and Q, Scatter plots of the number of indel-induced neoantigens (**P**) and SNV-induced neoantigens (**Q**) as computed in ref. [53], and the residuals of the regression of the ensemble LCAM score on the LogTMB.

R and S, Boxplots showing either the ensemble LCAM score (**G**), or TMB (**H**) among CPTAC lung adenocarcinoma patients, divided by combinations of mutated driver mutations.

T and U, Histograms of residuals of the regression of the ensemble LCAM score on the LogTMB, with patients stratified by *STK11* (**T**) or *EGFR* (**U**) mutational status (Two-sided t-test).

SUPPLEMENTAL TABLES

Table S1. Sample table, with information about patient, tissue, 10X loading, and QC metrics

Table S2. CITEseq panels used

Table S3. QC table of GEX, HTO, and ADT libraries

Table S4. Gene lists used in paper

Table S5. Gene modules

Table S6. Ligand-receptor pairs used in the analysis

Table S7. Ligand-receptor statistics

REFERENCES

1. Siegel, R.L., Miller, K.D. & Jemal, A. Cancer statistics, 2019. *CA Cancer J Clin* **69**, 7-34 (2019).

2. Travis, W.D., Brambilla, E., Burke, A.P., Marx, A. & Nicholson, A.G. Introduction to The 2015 World Health Organization Classification of Tumors of the Lung, Pleura, Thymus, and Heart. *J Thorac Oncol* **10**, 1240-1242 (2015).

3. Remon, J.*, et al.* Immune Checkpoint Inhibitors in Thoracic Malignancies: Review of the Existing Evidence by an IASLC Expert Panel and Recommendations. *Journal of Thoracic Oncology* (2020).

4. Laughney, A.M.*, et al.* Regenerative lineages and immune-mediated pruning in lung cancer metastasis. *Nat Med* **26**, 259-269 (2020).

5. Lambrechts, D.*, et al.* Phenotype molding of stromal cells in the lung tumor microenvironment. *Nat Med* **24**, 1277-1289 (2018).

6. Zilionis, R.*, et al.* Single-Cell Transcriptomics of Human and Mouse Lung Cancers Reveals Conserved Myeloid Populations across Individuals and Species. *Immunity* **50**, 1317-1334 e1310 (2019).

7. Lavin, Y.*, et al.* Innate Immune Landscape in Early Lung Adenocarcinoma by Paired Single-Cell Analyses. *Cell* **169**, 750-765.e717 (2017).

8. Kargl, J.*, et al.* Neutrophils dominate the immune cell composition in non-small cell lung cancer. *Nature Communications* **8**, 14381 (2017).

9. Guo, X.*, et al.* Global characterization of T cells in non-small-cell lung cancer by single-cell sequencing. *Nature Medicine* **24**, 978-985 (2018).

10. Thommen, D.S.*, et al.* A transcriptionally and functionally distinct PD-1+ CD8+ T cell pool with predictive potential in non-small-cell lung cancer treated with PD-1 blockade. *Nature Medicine* **24**, 994-1004 (2018).

11. Li, H.*, et al.* Dysfunctional CD8 T Cells Form a Proliferative, Dynamically Regulated Compartment within Human Melanoma. *Cell* **176**, 775-789 e718 (2019).

12. Wu, T.D.*, et al.* Peripheral T cell expansion predicts tumour infiltration and clinical response. *Nature* **579**, 274-278 (2020).

13. Binnewies, M.*, et al.* Understanding the tumor immune microenvironment (TIME) for effective therapy. *Nat Med* **24**, 541-550 (2018).

14. Rizvi, N.A.*, et al.* Mutational landscape determines sensitivity to PD-1 blockade in non–small cell lung cancer. *Science* **348**, 124 (2015).

15. Stoeckius, M.*, et al.* Simultaneous epitope and transcriptome measurement in single cells. *Nature methods* **14**, 865-868 (2017).

1215   16.   Martin, J.C.*, et al.* Single-Cell Analysis of Crohn's Disease Lesions Identifies a Pathogenic Cellular
1216   Module Associated with Resistance to Anti-TNF Therapy. *Cell* **178**, 1493-1508.e1420 (2019).

1217   17.   Rosenthal, R.*, et al.* Neoantigen-directed immune escape in lung cancer evolution. *Nature* **567**,
1218   479-485 (2019).

1219   18.   Maier, B.*, et al.* A conserved dendritic-cell regulatory program limits antitumour immunity. *Nature*
1220   **580**, 257-262 (2020).

1221   19.   Zhang, Q.*, et al.* Landscape and Dynamics of Single Immune Cells in Hepatocellular Carcinoma.
1222   *Cell* **179**, 829-845.e820 (2019).

1223   20.   See, P.*, et al.* Mapping the human DC lineage through the integration of high-dimensional
1224   techniques. *Science* **356**(2017).

1225   21.   Dutertre, C.A.*, et al.* Single-Cell Analysis of Human Mononuclear Phagocytes Reveals Subset-
1226   Defining Markers and Identifies Circulating Inflammatory Dendritic Cells. *Immunity* **51**, 573-589
1227   e578 (2019).

1228   22.   Remark, R.*, et al.* In-depth tissue profiling using multiplexed immunohistochemical consecutive
1229   staining on single slide. *Sci Immunol* **1**, aaf6925 (2016).

1230   23.   Ioannidis, I. & Laurini, J.A. Use of Smooth Muscle Myosin Heavy Chain as an Effective Marker
1231   of Follicular Dendritic Cells. *Appl Immunohistochem Mol Morphol* **27**, 48-53 (2019).

1232   24.   Allen, C.E., Merad, M. & McClain, K.L. Langerhans-Cell Histiocytosis. *New England Journal of*
1233   *Medicine* **379**, 856-868 (2018).

1234   25.   Senechal, B.*, et al.* Expansion of regulatory T cells in patients with Langerhans cell histiocytosis.
1235   *PLoS Med* **4**, e253 (2007).

1236   26.   Dudakov, J.A., Hanash, A.M. & van den Brink, M.R. Interleukin-22: immunobiology and
1237   pathology. *Annu Rev Immunol* **33**, 747-785 (2015).

1238   27.   Khosravi, N.*, et al.* IL22 Promotes Kras Mutant Lung Cancer by Induction of a Pro-Tumor Immune
1239   Response and Protection of Stemness Properties. *Cancer Immunology Research*,
1240   canimm.0655.2017 (2018).

1241   28.   Chakarov, S.*, et al.* Two distinct interstitial macrophage populations coexist across tissues in
1242   specific subtissular niches. *Science* **363**(2019).

1243   29.   Leach, S.M.*, et al.* Human and mouse transcriptome profiling identifies cross-species homology in
1244   pulmonary and lymph node mononuclear phagocytes. *bioRxiv*, 2020.2004.2030.070839 (2020).

1245   30.   Hashimoto, D.*, et al.* Tissue-Resident Macrophages Self-Maintain Locally throughout Adult Life
1246   with Minimal Contribution from Circulating Monocytes. *Immunity* **38**, 792-804 (2013).

1247   31.   Gibbings, S.L.*, et al.* Three Unique Interstitial Macrophages in the Murine Lung at Steady State.
1248   *Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol* **57**, 66-76 (2017).

1249   32.   Singh, D.*, et al.* CD4+ follicular helper-like T cells are key players in anti-tumor immunity. *bioRxiv*
1250   (2020).

33. Ramilowski, J.A.*, et al.* A draft network of ligand–receptor-mediated multicellular signalling in
human. *Nature Communications* **6**, 7866 (2015).

34. Neftel, C.*, et al.* An Integrative Model of Cellular States, Plasticity, and Genetics for Glioblastoma.
Cell **178**, 835-849.e821 (2019).

35. Yoshihara, K.*, et al.* Inferring tumour purity and stromal and immune cell admixture from
expression data. *Nature Communications* **4**, 2612 (2013).

36. Salmon, H., Remark, R., Gnjatic, S. & Merad, M. Host tissue determinants of tumour immunity.
Nat Rev Cancer **19**, 215-227 (2019).

37. Salmon, H.*, et al.* Matrix architecture defines the preferential localization and migration of T cells
into the stroma of human lung tumors. *J Clin Invest* **122**, 899-910 (2012).

38. Samstein, R.M.*, et al.* Tumor mutational load predicts survival after immunotherapy across
multiple cancer types. *Nat Genet* **51**, 202-206 (2019).

39. Ayers, M.*, et al.* IFN-γ–related mRNA profile predicts clinical response to PD-1 blockade. *The
Journal of Clinical Investigation* **127**, 2930-2940 (2017).

40. Cristescu, R.*, et al.* Pan-tumor genomic biomarkers for PD-1 checkpoint blockade–based
immunotherapy. *Science* **362**, eaar3593 (2018).

41. Alexandrov, L.B.*, et al.* Mutational signatures associated with tobacco smoking in human cancer.
Science **354**, 618 (2016).

42. Huang, P.-J.*, et al.* mSignatureDB: a database for deciphering mutational signatures in human
cancers. *Nucleic Acids Research* **46**, D964-D970 (2017).

43. Dong, Z.-Y.*, et al.* Potential Predictive Value of TP53 and KRAS Mutation Status for Response to
PD-1 Blockade Immunotherapy in Lung Adenocarcinoma. *Clinical Cancer Research*,
clincanres.2554.2016 (2017).

44. Biton, J.*, et al.* TP53, STK11, and EGFR mutations predict tumor immune profile and the response
to anti–PD-1 in lung adenocarcinoma. *Clinical Cancer Research* **24**, 5710-5723 (2018).

45. Rooney, Michael S., Shukla, Sachet A., Wu, Catherine J., Getz, G. & Hacohen, N. Molecular and
Genetic Properties of Tumors Associated with Local Immune Cytolytic Activity. *Cell* **160**, 48-61
(2015).

46. Skoulidis, F.*, et al.* STK11/LKB1 mutations and PD-1 inhibitor resistance in KRAS-mutant lung
adenocarcinoma. *Cancer discovery* **8**, 822-835 (2018).

47. Canon, J.*, et al.* The clinical KRAS(G12C) inhibitor AMG 510 drives anti-tumour immunity.
Nature **575**, 217-223 (2019).

48. Stoeckius, M.*, et al.* Cell Hashing with barcoded antibodies enables multiplexing and doublet
detection for single cell genomics. *Genome Biol* **19**, 224 (2018).

49. Paul, F.*, et al.* Transcriptional Heterogeneity and Lineage Commitment in Myeloid Progenitors.
Cell **163**, 1663-1677 (2015).

50. Jaitin, D.A*., et al.* Massively parallel single-cell RNA-seq for marker-free decomposition of tissues
into cell types. *Science* **343**, 776-779 (2014).

51. Ding, J*., et al.* Systematic comparison of single-cell and single-nucleus RNA-sequencing methods.
Nature Biotechnology (2020).

52. Kirsch, I., Vignali, M. & Robins, H. T-cell receptor profiling in cancer. *Mol Oncol* **9**, 2063-2070
(2015).

53. Thorsson, V*., et al.* The Immune Landscape of Cancer. *Immunity* **48**, 812-830.e814 (2018).

1294

Figure 1

A Study overview

Untreated NSCLC resections

nLung

Tumor

Mechanical & enzymatic dissociation

CD45+ enrichment

Barcode, pool, and surface stain

Single cell encapsulation, reverse transcription, and processing

Included in study:
scRNA expression
-35 tumor samples
-32 matched nLung

Surface protein expression
-7 tumor/nLung pairs

5' TCR
-3 tumor/nLung pairs

B Patient characteristics

smoking pack-years

stage: IA, IB, IIA, IIB, IIIB

Female, Male, LUAD, LUSC

C NK T MNP pDC B & plasma mast

Cluster ID: 13 20 1 50 48 44 18 34 59 51 53 39 19 16 8 55 57 25 54 10 47 5 38 32 33 11 35 2 49 36 58 23 52 30 14 41 45 37 56 43 40 31 17 9 46 28 7

RNA expression

NCR1, SPON2, KLRD1, PRF1, GZMB, CD8A, TRAC, CD3D, C1QA, MRC1, APOE, FABP4, MCEMP1, S100A9, S100A8, FCGR3A, FCER1A, CD1C, CCR7, FSCN1, CLEC9A, IRF8, LILRA4, MS4A1, BANK1, MZB1, XBP1, TPSAB1, TPSB2

Log2(1+ #UMI/2000)
≥3
0

D Surface protein

CD56, CD16, CD3, CD8, CD4, CD206, CD14, HLADR, CD1c, CD141, CD123, CD19, CD38, CD33

Log2(counts / row median)
5
-5

E Log10% of immune cells

nLung Tumor

F Sample-sample distances

nLung-nLung distances

Tumor-Tumor distances

Tumor-nLung distances

***

***

Euclidean distance

G Log2FC: Tumor vs. nLung

Lambrechts

T_activated
B MoMac-II

NK

AM

R²=0.78

Mt. Sinai

Figure S1

Figure 2

Figure S2

Figure 3

Figure S3

Figure 4

Figure S4

Figure 5

Figure S5

Figure 6

Figure S6