Gene Expression Meta-Analysis Identifies Molecular Changes Associated with SARS-CoV Infection in Lungs

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Abstract

Background: Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) corona virus (SARS-CoV) infections are
a serious public health threat because of their pandemic-causing potential. This work uses mRNA
expression data to predict genes associated with SARS-CoV infection through an innovative meta-
analysis examining gene signatures (*i.e.*, gene lists ranked by differential gene expression between
SARS and mock infection).

Methods: This work defines 29 gene signatures representing SARS infection across seven strains
with established mutations that vary virulence (infectious clone SARS (icSARS), Urbani, MA15,
ΔORF6, BAT-SRBD, ΔNSP16, and ExoNI) and host (human lung cultures and/or mouse lung
samples) and examines them through Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA). To do this, first
positive and negative icSARS gene panels were defined from GSEA-identified leading-edge genes
between 500 genes from positive or negative tails of the GSE47960-derived icSARSvsmock
signature and the GSE47961-derived icSARSvsmock signature, both from human cultures. GSEA
then was used to assess enrichment and identify leading-edge icSARS panel genes in the other 27
signatures. Genes associated with SARS-CoV infection are predicted by examining membership in
GSEA-identified leading-edges across signatures.

Results: Significant enrichment (GSEA $p < 0.001$) was observed between GSE47960-derived and
GSE47961-derived signatures, and those leading-edges defined the positive (233 genes) and negative
(114 genes) icSARS panels. Non-random (null distribution $p < 0.001$) significant enrichment
($p < 0.001$) was observed between icSARS panels and all verification icSARSvsmock signatures
derived from human cultures, from which 51 over- and 22 under-expressed genes were shared across
leading-edges with 10 over-expressed genes already being associated with icSARS infection. For the
icSARSvsmock mouse signature, significant, non-random enrichment (both $p < 0.001$) held for only
the positive icSARS panel, from which nine genes were shared with icSARS infection in human
cultures. Considering other SARS strains, significant ($p < 0.01$), non-random ($p < 0.002$) enrichment
was observed across signatures derived from other SARS strains for the positive icSARS panel. Five
positive icSARS panel genes, CXCL10, OAS3, OASL, IFIT3, and XAF1, were found in mice and
human signatures.

Conclusion: The GSEA-based meta-analysis approach used here identified genes with and without
reported associations with SARS-CoV infections, highlighting this approach's predictability and
usefulness in identifying genes that have potential as therapeutic targets to preclude or overcome
SARS infections.

1   Background

Human β-coronaviruses (CoV) are enveloped, positive-sense RNA viruses that infect humans and a
variety of animal species (Li et al., 2019). Human CoV infections typically cause mild upper
respiratory distress, referred to as the common cold, and are generally non-lethal (Sims et al., 2013;
Li et al., 2019). However, in 2002 a novel CoV was found to cause the potentially life-threatening
disease, severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) with the initial outbreak of SARS-CoV infecting
an estimated 8,400 people with over a 9% mortality rate (Boulos, 2004; Lai, 2005; Yount et al., 2005;
Sims et al., 2013). Limited therapeutic options to treat SARS infections were available at the time.
Ribavirin and corticosteroids were the cornerstones of treatment during the SARS outbreak despite
Ribavirin showing a lack of efficacy in several studies and corticosteroid efficacy requiring further
investigations in controlled trials (Lai, 2005). In 2012, another highly lethal CoV causing Middle
East respiratory syndrome (MERS) emerged with an over 30% mortality rate (Bahadur et al., 2020;
Petrosillo et al., 2020). MERS treatment options were limited also, with most therapies being existing
drugs for other disease indications shown to target MERS-CoV replication *in vitro* (Modjarrad,
2016). Fortunately, both the SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV outbreaks were quickly contained through
aggressive infection control measures, though efforts are still ongoing to control the pandemic of
SARS-CoV2, a closely related coronavirus strain with almost 80% genome similarity to SARS-CoV.
SARS-CoV2 is the causative agent of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), which is currently
ravishing the globe and already responsible for hundreds of thousands of deaths worldwide (Yi et al.,
2020). Therefore, an improved understanding of the molecular changes driving SARS infections can
assist in the development of new therapies to fight COVID-19 and other future β-coronavirus
outbreaks.

Many studies have been done to elucidate molecular changes associated with a SARS infection with
a few studies specifically examined gene expression changes. These studies use differential
expression analysis of individual genes using statistical methods such as fold change and/or T-test
p-value to identify genes of interest (Yoshikawa et al., 2010; Gralinski et al., 2013; Mitchell et al.,
2013; Sims et al., 2013; Totura et al., 2015; Menachery et al., 2018). This approach generates an
exhaustive list of several thousand genes that meet pre-established statistical criteria (*e.g.*, fold
change <2 and/or T-test p-value<0.05). Functional enrichment was performed to interpret generated
gene lists using a variety of bioinformatic approaches including network analysis (Gralinski et al.,
2013; Mitchell et al., 2013; Totura et al., 2015; Gralinski et al., 2018) and/or hypergeometric test-
based approaches (*e.g.*, Fisher's Exact Test) that utilize established gene sets from public
knowledgebases like Gene Ontology (Yoshikawa et al., 2010; Gralinski et al., 2013; Sims et al.,
2013; Menachery et al., 2018). These studies identified several molecular changes associated with
SARS infection including increased immune and inflammatory response as seen by increased
expression of inflammatory mediators IL-6, IL-8, CXCL10, and IFN-λ in SARS-infected human lung
cultures and mouse lung samples (Yoshikawa et al., 2010; Totura et al., 2015; Gralinski et al., 2018).
Hypergeometric test-based approaches are known to be limited because only genes that meet an
established cut-off (*e.g.*, T-test p-value<0.05) are considered (Subramanian et al., 2005). To
overcome this limitation by considering all genes in an expression dataset, other studies utilized Gene
Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) to calculate the enrichment of an established gene set from a public
knowledgebase (*e.g.*, MSigDB, Blood Transcriptional Modules, and/or Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes

and Genomes (KEGG) pathways) in a gene signature, which is defined as a gene list ranked by
differential expression between mock- and SARS-infected samples by an appropriate statistical
method (Mitchell et al., 2013; Gardinassi et al., 2020). Findings from these studies included
positively enriched modules associated with antiviral IFN, cell cycle and proliferation, and
monocytes and dendritic cells in peripheral blood mononuclear cells from SARS patients (Gardinassi
et al., 2020). Further, by combining GSEA with a network analysis approach, regulatory genes
associated with the pathogenicity of SARS have been identified (Mitchell et al., 2013), demonstrating
that a GSEA-based approach is also good for gene candidate identification. While reported studies
have identified molecular changes associated with SARS infection, the lack of available treatment
options suggests that further examinations are needed.

In a prior study to identify novel genes associated with macrolide resistance in *Streptococcus*
pneumoniae, we demonstrated a GSEA-approach for gene identification that compared differential
gene expression between mRNA expression datasets (Goad and Harris, 2018). This study
successfully identified known and novel genes though it was limited due to incomplete genome
annotation, a common problem for many microbial genomes (Kolker et al., 2004; Sivashankari and
Shanmughavel, 2006; Mohan and Venugopal, 2012; Bharat Siva Varma et al., 2015; Ijaq et al., 2015;
Islam et al., 2015; School et al., 2016; Omeershffudin and Kumar, 2019). Applying our GSEA-
approach to mRNA expression data derived from a species with a more completely annotated
genome, such as human or mouse, overall results would improve. Therefore, in this paper we use the
GSEA-approach previously used on *Streptococcus pneumoniae* to identify gene expression changes
associated with SARS-CoV infection in human lung cell cultures and mouse lung samples. Using
GSEA in this way generates a list of gene candidates associated with SARS-CoV infection which is
similar in nature to gene candidate lists generated previously by using single-gene analysis. Rather
than using a network analysis approach as done previously to refine our gene candidate list and allow
for prioritization of gene candidates for future experimental examination, we performed a GSEA-
based meta-analysis that incorporates over 20 different gene signatures. We hypothesize that
therapeutically targeting gene candidates identified from our nested GSEA meta-analysis has the
potential to improve treatment options for SARS-CoV and other β-coronavirus infections.

2   Methods

2.1   mRNA Expression Resources

To identify molecular changes associated with SARS infection in human lung cell cultures, we
searched the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) repository (Edgar et al., 2002; Barrett et al., 2011;
Barrett et al., 2013) to find seven datasets for use in our study (Table 1). Since most datasets
contained samples infected with an infectious clone of SARS-CoV Urbani (icSARS), we selected the
published SuperSeries GSE47963, which contained three independent datasets (GSE47960,
GSE47961, and GSE47962) that examined gene expression in icSARS- and mock-infected human
primary tracheobronchial epithelium cells (Mitchell et al., 2013), to identify and verify gene
expression changes associated with icSARS infection mechanisms. These three datasets also
contained gene expression data for cells infected with icSARS-dORF6, the icSARS strain with a
genetic deletion causing a lack of expression of ORF6 which encodes an interferon antagonist protein
that increases virulence by blocking human nuclear translocation (Yount et al., 2005; Mitchell et al.,
2013; Sims et al., 2013), or SARS-BatSRBD, a SARS-CoV like virus isolated from bats that was
synthetically modified to contain the spike receptor binding domain (SRBD) from the wild type
Urbani strain to allow for infection of human and non-human primate cells (Becker et al., 2008;
Mitchell et al., 2013). To extend our verification of identified gene expression changes associated

with icSARS infection into another lung cell type, we selected unpublished datasets GSE37827 and
GSE48142 that examined gene expression in icSARS- and mock-infected human lung
adenocarcinoma 2B-4 cells. GSE37827 also contained SARS-BatSRBD infected samples, and
GSE48142 had samples infected with mutant strains containing either a genetic modification of
NSP16 (deltaNSP16), which encodes a non-structural 2'O methyltransferase whose disruption
increases sensitivity to type 1 and 3 interferon responses (Menachery et al., 2018), or ExoNI, which
has no formal description in public knowledgebases . All gene expression data for these five datasets
were profiled on the commercial probe name version of the Agilent-014850 Whole Human Genome
Microarray 4x44K G4112F platform (GEO GPL6480). Further, we selected GSE33267 because it
had mock-, icSARS-, and dORF6-infected samples of Calu-3 cells, from which 2B-4 is a clonal
derivative. GSE33267 was profiled on the feature number version of the Agilent-014850 Whole
Human Genome Microarray 4x44K G4112F (GEO GPL4133). To compare identified changes
associated with icSARS infection to changes associated with the icSARS's parent Urbani SARS
strain, we selected GSE17400 since it had samples of 2B-4 with mock or Urbani infection
(Yoshikawa et al., 2010). GSE17400 was profiled on the Affymetrix Human Genome U133 Plus 2.0
Array (GEO GPL570).

To determine if the molecular changes associated with SARS infection observed in human lung cell
cultures are reproducible in an *in vivo* mouse model, we selected four datasets that examined lung
samples from mock- or SARS-infected 20-week-old C57BL6 mice. GSE50000 contained samples
from mice infected with icSARS, SARS-BatSRBD, or MA15, a mouse adapted SARS-CoV strain, at
two different inoculation doses (10^4 and 10^5). GSE33266 had samples over an inoculation dose range
(10^2, 10^3, 10^4, and 10^5). GSE49262 had samples from mice infected with MA15 (10^5 inoculation
dose) or dORF6 mutant strains, and GSE49263 had samples infected with MA15 (10^5 inoculation
dose) or dNSP16 mutant strains. All gene expression data for these datasets were profiled on the
Probe Name version of the commercial Agilent-014868 Whole Mouse Genome Microarray 4x44K
G4122F platform (GPL7202), except for GSE33266 which was profiled on the Feature Number
version of the same platform (GPL4134).

All datasets measured gene expression over a time course, so we used time-matched samples
collected at 48hrs post-infection unless otherwise stated. Expression data provided by GEO for all
datasets except GSE49262 and GSE49263 were unlogged intensities, so we z-scored across all
samples within the dataset for normalization prior to use when appropriate. We converted probes to
Entrez ID for each gene using the GEO provided platform data table when necessary. Probes with no
provided Entrez ID were removed from analysis. If multiple probes with the same Entrez ID existed,
the probe with the highest coefficient of variance across duplicate probes was selected.

2.2   Defining Gene Signatures

From these datasets, we measured differential gene expression by Welch's two-sample T-test score
of z-score or log2 normalized values. We then defined 29 gene signatures (*i.e.*, gene lists ranked by
differential gene expression between SARS- and mock-infected samples), which included 17 gene
signatures from human lung cultures and 12 signatures from mouse lung samples (Table 2).
Specifically, we defined seven icSARSvsmock signatures (six in human cultures, one in mouse
samples), one SARSvsmock signature with the Urbani strain in human cultures, eight MA15vsmock
signatures doses in mouse samples representing varying inoculation, five ORF6vsmock signatures
(four in human cultures, one in mouse samples), five BATSRBDvsmock signatures (four in human
cultures, one in mouse samples), two NSP16vsmock signatures (one in human cultures, one in mouse
samples), and one ExoNIvsmock signature from human cultures. Genes that are over-expressed in

SARS- compared to mock-infected samples (*e.g.*, positive T-score) fall within the positive tail of the
gene signature while under-expressed genes (*e.g.*, negative T-score) fall in the negative tail
(Figure 1A). Genes with no substantial change in expression between SARS- and mock-infected
samples (*e.g.*, T-score around 0) are located toward the middle of the gene signature. Therefore,
genes that fall within the tails of a gene signature likely change in response to a specific SARS
infection. We note that three signatures were substantially skewed (*i.e.*, rank of genes where T-score
crosses from positive to negative is in top or bottom quartile of signature). For substantially skewed
signatures, we adjust all T-scores in the signature by the T-score of the gene at mid-point so that
genes in the signature are balanced between positive and negative T-scores.

2.3 Overview of Gene Set Enrichment Analysis

Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) is a statistical method that estimates enrichment between a
query gene set (*i.e.*, unranked list of genes) and a reference gene signature (Subramanian et al.,
2005). GSEA uses the statistical metric used to rank genes in the reference signature (*e.g.*, T-score) to
calculate a running summation enrichment score where hits (*i.e.*, matches between query set and
reference signature) increase the enrichment score proportional to the ranking statistical metric
(*e.g.*, T-score) and a miss (*i.e.*, non-matches between query set and reference signature) decreases the
enrichment score. From this, GSEA determines a maximum enrichment score for the specific query
set and reference signature. Leading-edge genes contribute to reaching the maximum enrichment
score, indicating leading-edge genes are associated with cellular response to a specific β-coronavirus
infection. Further, GSEA calculates a normalized enrichment score (NES) from 1000 permutations of
the reference signature to estimate the significance of enrichment between a specific query set and
reference signature. This work used the javaGSEA Desktop Application release 3.0 version of GSEA
available from Broad Institute.

2.4 Identification of icSARS Associated Genes

To identify gene expression changes associated with icSARS infection, we generated two icSARS
gene panels (Figure 1B). To do this, we selected 500 genes from the positive and negative tails from
the GSE47960-derived icSARSvsmock gene signature and used them to form two individual query
gene sets. GSEA compared each query gene set to the GSE47961-derived icSARSvsmock gene
signature (reference). Leading-edge genes from each analysis were used to define the two icSARS
gene panels, one panel per tail. Pathway enrichment analysis was performed on both icSARS gene
panels using Database for Annotation, Visualization and Integrated Discovery (DAVID) v6.8.

2.5 Verification of icSARS Gene Panels

To verify the icSARS gene panels, we performed GSEA between icSARS gene panels and
GSE47962-derived, GSE37827-derived, GSE48142-derived, and GSE33267-derived icSARSvsmock
signatures (Figure 2A). To assess if results generated from GSEA could be achieved randomly, we
randomly selected 1000 gene panels consisting of either 233- or 114-genes, to match the number of
genes in the positive and negative icSARS panels, respectively, selected from the GPL6480 platform
used to define gene signatures (queries) for GSEA against GSE47962-derived, GSE37827-derived,
GSE48142-derived and GSE33267-derived icSARSvsmock signatures (references). These analyses
generated a null distribution of NES to which we compared the NES achieved by icSARS gene
panels for each reference gene signature and count the number of equal or better NES to estimate
significance (*i.e.*, distribution p-value). Histogram data and associated graphs (*e.g.*, distribution
curves and box and whiskers plot) were calculated using XLStat version 2020.3 (XLSTAT, 2013;
Addinsoft, 2019).

2.6 Comparison to icSARS-induced Gene Expression Changes in Mice and Across Other
SARS Strains

To examine differential gene expression of genes from the icSARS gene panels in mice, we
performed GSEA between icSARS gene panels (queries) and the GSE17400-derived icSARSvsmock
signature from mock- or icSARS-infected mouse lung samples (reference, Figure 2B). To compare
gene signatures across infections caused by other SARS strains, we performed GSEA between
icSARS gene panels (queries) and 22 signatures from samples from cells infected with strains other
than icSARS, such as Urbani, MA15, SARS-BATSRBD, and mutants in ORF6, ExoNI, or NSP16
(references, Figure 2B). Eleven of these gene signatures came from mouse samples and 11 signatures
came from human lung cultures with all SARS strains except ExoNI having strain-matched samples
(*i.e.*, wild-type and mutant) in both mouse samples and human lung cultures. Random modelling for
all comparisons were done as previously described. Any icSARS panel genes that were not included
the dataset's platform still received consideration when examining across identified leading-edge
genes. Heat maps were generated by Morpheus, https://software.broadinstitute.org/morpheus.

3   Results

3.1 Gene Signature Approach Identified Gene Expression Changes Associated with icSARS
Infection for Human Lung Epithelium Cells *in vitro*

To identify genes associated with response to an icSARS infection, we began by defining the
GSE47960-derived icSARSvsmock and GSE47961-derived icSARSvsmock gene signatures
(Table 2) We used GSE47960-derived icSARSvsmock to generate two gene sets containing the 500
most differentially expressed genes from the positive and negative tails of GSE47960-derived
icSARSvsmock (T-score >2.9 and <-3.2 for positive and negative tails, respectively) , capturing
maximum coverage of the signature that was allowable by GSEA (Subramanian et al., 2005). To
assess similarity between these two gene signatures, we calculated enrichment using GSEA between
either GSE47960-derived icSARSvsmock positive or negative tail gene sets (individual queries) and
the GSE47961-derived icSARSvsmock (reference), and achieved NES=3.28 and NES=-1.87 for
positive and negative tail query gene sets, respectively, both with a GSEA p-value<0.001. We
defined separate positive and negative icSARS gene panels from the 233 and 114 leading-edge genes
identified (Supplemental Material STable 1), representing over- and under-expressed genes
associated with icSARS infection.

Among genes in positive icSARS panel, we found 13 genes (5.5% of the panel) had previously
reported associations with icSARS infections via single-gene analysis with minimum fold change of
2.0 and maximum false discovery rate-corrected p-value of 0.05 between mock and icSARS time-
matched samples (Mitchell et al., 2013), demonstrating the predictive ability of our gene signature
approach. There were no genes in the negative icSARS gene panel with established associations with
icSARS infection. We also identified genes with no prior association with icSARS infection. These
genes included 12 genes had a zinc finger in addition to the two that were already reported (5.2% of
the panel), six genes encoding interferon induced proteins (2.6%), five genes from the solute carrier
family (2.1%), and six genes encoding for uncharacterized proteins (2.6%) in the positive icSARS
gene panel. In the negative icSARS gene panel, we found three zinc finger protein genes (2.6%),
three genes from the solute carrier family (2.6%), and five genes encoding for uncharacterized
proteins (4.4%). We speculate that these identified genes without previously reported associations
with icSARS infections in human lung epithelium cultures are also associated with an icSARS
infection.

3.2   Enrichment of icSARS Gene Panels and Specific icSARS Panel Genes Verified in
Independent Datasets

To verify our icSARS gene panels are associated with response to an icSARS infection, we used
GSEA to calculate enrichment between our icSARS panels (individual queries) and four verification
gene signatures, GSE47962-derived icSARSvsmock, GSE37827-derived icSARSvsmock,
GSE48142-derived icSARSvsmock, and GSE33267-derived icSARSvsmock, (Table 2), derived from
independent datasets (individual references). We found significant similarity between positive and
negative icSARS panels and GSE47962-derived icSARSvsmock (NES=3.51, Figure 3A, and
NES=-3.05, Figure 3B, for positive and negative icSARS panel, both GSEA p-value<0.001). To
determine how likely the NES achieved for icSARS panels would be achieved by random chance, we
generated 1000 randomly selected 233- or 114-gene panels from the GSE47960-derived
icSARSvsmock gene signature to match the size and potential composition of our icSARS panels.
We then repeated GSEA using these randomly generated gene panels (individual queries) and the
GSE47962-derived icSARSvsmock (reference) to generate a null distribution of NES achieved via
random chance. From this, we found random NES ranged from 1.47 to -1.66 and 1.56 to -1.95 for the
233- and 114-gene panels, respectively (Figure 3C), illustrating that NES achieved by our icSARS
panels are non-random (null distribution p-value<0.001). For GSE37827-derived icSARSvsmock, we
again observed similarity between positive and negative icSARS panels and GSE37827-derived
icSARSvsmock (NES=2.96, Figure 3D, and NES=-2.16, Figure 3E, for the positive and negative
icSARS panels, both GSEA p-value<0.001). Random NES ranged from 1.45 to -1.60 and 1.55 to -
1.72 for the 233- and 114-gene panels, respectively (Figure 3F), showing it was non-random (both
null p-value<0.001). For GSE48142-derived icSARSvsmock, we again observed similarity between
positive and negative icSARS panels and GSE48142-derived icSARSvsmock (NES=3.16, Figure 3G,
and NES=-2.15, Figure 3H, for the positive and negative icSARS panels, both GSEA
p-value<0.001). Random NES ranged from 1.34 to -1.52 and 1.56 to –1.61 for the 233- and 114-gene
panels, respectively (Figure 3I), showing it was non-random (both null p-value<0.001). For
GSE33267-derived icSARSvsmock, we observed similarity between positive and negative icSARS
panels and GSE33267-derived icSARSvsmock (NES=3.55, Figure 3J, and NES=-2.30, Figure 3K,
for the positive and negative icSARS panels, both GSEA p-value<0.001). Random NES ranged from
1.46 to -1.71 and 1.61 to -1.83 for the 233- and 114-gene panels, respectively (Figure 3L), showing it
was non-random (both null p-value<0.001). Taken together, these results demonstrate that the
enrichment achieved from our icSARS panels was true.

To determine which of our icSARS panel genes were verified across all signatures, we examined
leading-edge genes identified by GSEA for each verification signature. Leading-edge genes for
GSE47962-derived icSARSvsmock, GSE37827-derived icSARSvsmock, GSE48142-derived
icSARSvsmock, and GSE33267-derived icSARSvsmock are listed in Supplemental Material
STable 2, respectively. We observed 51 genes from the positive icSARS panel and 22 genes from the
negative icSARS panel were shared across all verification signatures. Of the 51 positive icSARS
panel genes, we noted 10 genes had reported associations with icSARS infection via single-gene
analysis with minimum fold change of 2.0 and maximum false discovery rate-corrected p-value of
0.05 between mock and icSARS time-matched samples (Mitchell et al., 2013): nuclear factor of
kappa light polypeptide gene enhancer in B-cells inhibitor, alpha (Entrez ID 4792), zinc finger
CCCH-type containing 12A (ID 80149), cysteine-serine-rich nuclear protein 1 (ID 64651), zinc
finger protein 433 (ID 163059), hairy and enhancer of split 1 from Drosophila (ID 3280), transformer
2 beta homolog (ID 6434), V-rel reticuloendotheliosis viral oncogene homolog B (ID 5971), pim-3
oncogene (ID 415116), chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 2 (ID 2920), and C-X-C motif chemokine
ligand 10 (ID 3627). These data together verify our shared leading-edge genes are associated with

icSARS infection in human lung cultures and support the hypothesis that identified genes without
previously reported associations are also associated with icSARS infection in human lung cultures.

3.3   Genes Associated with icSARS Infection in Mice Revealed through Enrichment between
Positive icSARS Gene Panel and Mouse-derived icSARS Gene Signature

To determine if our icSARS gene panels are also associated with response to an icSARS infection in
a mouse model, we examined the GSE50000-derived icSARSvsmock gene signature (Table 2),
representing differential gene expression associated with icSARS infection in a mouse model. We
used GSEA to calculate enrichment between our icSARS panels (individual queries) and the
GSE50000-derived icSARSvsmock signature (reference) and observed significant enrichment with
the positive icSARS panel (NES=1.54, GSEA p-value<0.001, Figure 4A) but not the negative
icSARS panel (NES=0.81, p-value=0.848, Figure 4B). Achieved NES were non-random for the
positive icSARS panel (NES range: -1.65 to 1.57, null distribution p-value=0.002, Figure 4C), but
not for the negative icSARS panel (NES range: -1.72 to 1.64, p-value=0.601). These results suggest
that genes in the positive icSARS panel are associated with an icSARS infection in both in human
lung cultures and mouse lung samples, but the same cannot be concluded for the negative icSARS
panel. Therefore, we do not consider leading-edge genes identified by GSEA from the negative
icSARS panel.

When examining leading-edge genes identified by GSEA from the positive icSARS panel
(Supplemental Material STable 3), we found nine of the 51 genes verified across human lung cultures
(Figure 4D): interferon-induced protein with tetratricopeptide repeats 3 (human Entrez ID: 3437,
mouse Entrez ID: 15959, gene symbol: IFIT3), C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 10 (human: 3627,
mouse: 15945, symbol: CXCL10), XIAP associated factor 1 (human: 54739, mouse: 327959,
symbol: XAF1), 2'-5'-oligoadenylate synthetase 3 100kDa (human: 4940, mouse: 246727, symbol:
OAS3), zinc finger CCHC domain containing 2 (human: 54877, mouse: 227449, symbol: ZCCHC2),
interferon induced protein 35 (human: 3430, mouse: 70110, symbol: IFI35), yrdC domain containing
(human: 79693, mouse: 230734, symbol: YRDC), poliovirus receptor-related 4 (human: 81607,
mouse: 71740, symbol: PVRL4), and cyclin L1 (human: 57018, mouse: 56706, symbol: CCNL1).
We also noted that several icSARS panel genes were not included in this dataset's platform
(Supplemental Material STable 4) with 11 of these genes contained in leading-edges for all icSARS
gene signatures derived from human cell cultures, so we did not exclude them from further
consideration. A heat map of differential gene expression (*i.e.*, T-scores) for these 20 genes across all
six icSARS gene signatures revealed that only XAF1 was statistically significant (Welch's two-
sampled, two-sided T-test p-value<0.05) in all icSARS gene signatures (Figure 3E), highlighting the
advantage of using a GSEA-based rather than single-gene (*e.g.*, T-score only) meta-analysis, which
would have likely missed the other genes identified here because of borderline significance in at least
one signature.

3.4   Positive icSARS Gene Panel is Significantly Enriched Across Other SARS Strains
Regardless of Strain Virulence Levels and Mechanisms

After identifying and verifying genes associated with an icSARS infection, we set out to find
differential gene expression similarities between icSARS infection and infections from other SARS
stains (Urbani, MA15, ΔORF6, BAT, ΔNSP16, and ExoNI) with varying levels of virulence caused
by established strain mutation variations. Identified gene similarities represent genes associated with
a SARS infection regardless of, and we hypothesize these shared genes may be useful targets
clinically to preclude or overcome SARS infection. To identify genes associated with SARS infection
across strains, we first compared icSARS gene panels to 18 gene signatures derived from samples of

human lung cultures or mouse lungs mock- and SARS-infected with one of six SARS strains
(Urbani, MA15, ΔORF6, BAT-SRBD, ΔNSP16, and ExoNI; Table 2) using GSEA to calculate
enrichment. We found the positive icSARS panel significantly enriched (NES>1.66, GSEA
p-value<0.01) across all 18 gene signatures (Figure 5A) while the negative icSARS panel was
significantly enriched across all signatures (NES<-1.52, p-value<0.01) except two BATvsmock
signatures (Figure 5A), the GSE47961-derived signature from human cultures (NES=-0.95,
p-value=0.569) and the GSE50000-derived signature from mouse samples (NES=-0.81,
p-value=0.846). These data support our previous findings that enrichment of the negative icSARS
panel was inconsistent in icSARS signatures (Figure 3B). We confirmed that achieved significant
positive NES were non-random (null distribution p-value<0.002, Figure 5B and Figure 5C) via
random modelling as previously described for all signatures except for the GSE33266-derived
MA15(10^2)vsmock signature, which is the lowest infectious dose examined in this study. Due to this
finding, we remove the MA15(10^2)vsmock signature from further analysis.

3.5   Meta-analysis of Leading-edge Genes from Positive icSARS Panel GSEA Revealed Five
Top Gene Candidates

To determine which positive icSARS panel genes may make good therapeutic targets for SARS
infections caused by specific strains with varying virulence levels and mechanisms, we compared
inclusion of leading-edge genes identified by GSEA across 22 gene signatures derived from five
SARS strains (Supplemental Material STables 5-13). We began by examining leading-edge gene
inclusion in each SARS strain specifically (Figure 6A). Genes identified through leading-edge
intersections represent genes associated with infection of that specific SARS strain. We identified
several genes with known associations to infection with specific SARS strains, such as *fos* and *jun*
that were found in leading-edges from signatures derived from dORF6 (Sims et al., 2013) and Urbani
(Yoshikawa et al., 2010) infections in human lung cell cultures. We also found several genes with no
previously reported associations to that specific SARS infection. Taken together, these findings are
akin to findings from our meta-analysis of icSARS infection earlier that demonstrate the ability of
our meta-analysis approach to identify genes associated with specific SARS infections and predict
new genes associated with infections of specific SARS strains.

To determine which positive icSARS panel genes may be best therapeutic targets to preclude or
overcome SARS infections regardless of strain, we analyzed the intersection of common leading-
edge genes across all six SARS strains examined in this study. We found five positive icSARS panel
genes, interferon-induced protein with C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 10 (CXCL10), 2'-5'-
oligoadenylate synthetase 3 (OAS3), 2'-5'-oligoadenylate synthetase-like (OASL), tetratricopeptide
repeats 3 (IFIT3), and XIAP associated factor 1 (XAF1), in all 22 positive icSARS panel leading-
edges (Figure 6B). Differential gene expression (*i.e.*, T-scores) heat maps illustrated the strong
consistency and extent of expression changes observed across gene signatures (Figures 4C and 6C),
further supporting the conclusion that these five genes are associated with SARS infection regardless
of strain.

4   Discussion

This paper used a GSEA-based meta-analysis approach incorporating 29 different gene signatures
into identifying gene expression changes associated with SARS-CoV infection in human lung cell
cultures and mouse lung samples and prioritize generated gene candidate lists to select five top gene
candidates, CXCL10, OAS3, OASL, IFIT3, and XAF1, for future experimental examination to
develop novel treatment options for SARS-CoV and potentially other β-coronavirus infections. Some

of our identified top gene candidates had previously reported associations to SARS infections. For
example, CXCL10 is already well established with infections of several SARS strains, specifically
icSARS (Mitchell et al., 2013) and Urbani (Yoshikawa et al., 2010) in human lung cell cultures and
MA15 in mouse lung samples (Gralinski et al., 2018). The two OAS genes (OAS3 and OASL) both
had reported associations with Urbani infections in human lung cell cultures (Yoshikawa et al.,
2010). While IFIT3 was not specifically named in prior reports examining these datasets, IFIT1 had
reported associations with MA15 infections in mouse lung samples (Totura et al., 2015; Gralinski et
al., 2018), so it is not surprising to see IFIT3 included among identified top gene candidates. It was
surprising to find XAF1, an apoptotic gene whose reduced or absent expression in tumor samples and
cell lines leads to poorer survival in gastric adenocarcinomas (Xia et al., 2006; Shibata et al., 2008),
among identified top gene candidates. This paper is the first study to report an association between
XAF1 and SARS infections for any strain, to the best of our knowledge, though a recent report
examining differential gene expression associated with SARS-CoV-2 infection identified increased
expression of CXCL10, OAS3, IFIT3, and XAF1 in human epithelial lung cells and lung samples
from *Cynomolgus maca* (cynomolgus monkey) and mice (Hachim et al., 2020). We speculate that
applying our GSEA-based meta-analysis approach to examine gene expression datasets across
β-coronavirus infections may produce some interesting and novel insights into molecular changes
associated with all β-coronavirus infections which potentially could contribute to the identification of
therapeutic targets.

4.1 Dataset Platform and Signature Considerations

Defining a gene signature with the most unique genes possible is critical in optimizing achievable
results from GSEA (Subramanian et al., 2005). There are several factors that impact how a gene
signature is defined and thus impact the overall outcome of the GSEA-based meta-analysis approach.
Such factors include gene presence in a platform and gene annotation. For example, if a gene is not
included in a dataset's platform (*e.g.*, XAF1 in GSE33266-derived signatures, Figure 6C), it cannot
be analyzed. We also notice a substantial loss of platform genes (Table 1) due to incomplete or
incompatible genome annotation (*i.e.*, probe has no gene symbol and/or Entrez ID). This can become
more problematic when analyzing genes across different species since not all human genes have
homologs in other species. While both issues can be avoided if all datasets selected for analysis are
profiled on the same platform, these issues must be considered when comparing signatures across
platforms and species as done here. We could not improve initial gene inclusion in a platform or gene
annotation to recover lost genes, but we included icSARS panel genes that were not represented in
each signature specifically alongside identified leading-edge genes while considering genes
associated with infection with a specific SARS strain to ensure no genes were lost during our meta-
analysis. As a result, not all signatures have expression data for our final gene candidates (Figures 4
and 6).

Signature skew can substantially affect obtainable results from GSEA. In strongly skewed signatures
(Table 2), such as the icSARSvsmock validation signature derived from GSE33267 (T-score range:
12.2 to -12.2 with a midpoint around 1996 of 19751 genes), GSEA was unable to calculate
enrichment scores. To overcome this problem but maintain gene ranking, we adjusted all T-scores in
the strongly skewed signature by the T-score of the gene at that signature's actual midpoint. We did
not expect this adjustment to affect the overall results of this study since there were similarities in
leading-edge gene membership between adjusted and non-adjusted signatures. We recommend
caution when interpreting leading-edge gene membership from skewed signatures as membership
does not necessarily reflect the true expression relationship (*e.g.*, membership in a positive leading-
edge may arise from a raw negative T-score in that signature).

Another important consideration is signature inclusion in our meta-analysis. We included MA15-
infected mouse signatures over a range of inoculation doses (Figure 6) to mimic the range of
infection severity that would be encountered clinically (i.e., asymptomatic to severe patient
presentation). Including these signatures identified genes across inoculation doses with the best
therapeutic potential regardless of infection severity. We also removed the GSE33266
MA15(10^2)vsmock signature from inclusion in our meta-analysis because its observed enrichment
was not statistically different from NES achieved randomly (Figure 6). However, we noted that IFIT3
was the only top candidate in the leading-edge of the MA15(10^2)vsmock signature and it was not
statistically significant individually (Welch's T-test p-value=0.160). These findings suggest there is a
lower inoculation dose limit to our approach's ability to detect relevant genes, which should be
considered when applying our meta-analysis to future research.

4.2   icSARS Panel Generation and Timepoint Selection Considerations

There are several factors to consider with respect to how this study was conducted, particularly
icSARS panel generation (*i.e.*, query gene set size and signature selection) and time point selection.
To determine how query gene set sizes might impact our overall results, we ran GSEA between
GSE47961-derived icSARSvsmock (reference) and GSE47960-derived icSARSvsmock gene sets
ranging in size (queries) and found significant enrichment (p-value<0.05) with gene set sizes down to
100 genes (Supplemental Material SFig 1), again showing the high degree of similarity between
GSE47960-derived icSARSvsmock and GSE47961-derived icSARSvsmock gene signatures.
However, we noted that four of the five gene candidates identified here were only included in query
gene sets sized 400 genes or above and CXCL10 was only included in the 500 gene query set size
used in this study. Since 500 is the largest recommended query set size for accurate GSEA
calculations (Subramanian et al., 2005), this discussion supports our decision that 500 was an optimal
query gene set size to use in this study.

Further, we noticed that enrichment did not substantially change if positive and negative tail query
gene sets were generated from GSE47961-derived icSARSvsmock and compared to GSE47960-
derived icSARSvsmock as reference (Supplemental Material SFig 1). This highlights the similarity
between these signatures. When examining identified positive leading-edge genes, we noted that the
size of the positive icSARS panel did not substantially change from 233 genes (Table 1) to 240 genes
(Supplemental Material STable 14) and that this subtle change did not affect observed enrichment
across 27 signatures (Supplemental Material SFig 2) or the inclusion of our five gene candidates
across leading-edges. We also noted that the size of the negative icSARS panel did change
significantly (114 to 331 genes), but enrichment for the 331 gene icSARS panel was inconsistent
across signatures which was similar to what we originally observed with the 113 gene icSARS panel.
From this we conclude that reversing which signature is used as reference and to derive query gene
sets does not change the overall result (*i.e.*, identification of five top gene candidates) of our study,
and assume the same overall result would be observed if we derived query gene sets from any other
signature used in this study due to use of a meta-analysis approach.

Since gene expression changes throughout a time course (Sims et al., 2013), we repeated the process
of defining icSARS gene panels over a range of time points (24, 72, and 96hrs) and found that
enrichment was consistently significant across the 72 and 96hr time points for all query gene set sizes
regardless of signature was selected for deriving query gene sets, as previously observed for the 48hr
time point (Supplemental Material SFig 1). However, significant enrichment is inconsistent for the
24hr timepoint, suggesting gene expression changes generated by an icSARS infection become more
predictable later in the growth curve. Based on these data, we used the 48hr time point since

identified leading-edge genes represent over- and under-expressed genes associated with icSARS
infection at the earliest time point with consistent detectable gene signature similarities. We further
noted all five gene candidates identified here were included in leading-edges identified by the 500
gene query set size at the 72hr and 96hr time points, suggesting that these gene candidates likely
would have been identified if later time points were selected for use, thus not altering our overall
result.

4.3   Considerations on Pathway Enrichment and Potential Therapeutic Options

To expand on our analysis, we examined the cellular roles that genes in the icSARS panels are
involved in. We used DAVID to calculate enrichment between the icSARS panels and pathways in
commonly used knowledgebases. We noted that Gene Ontology (GO) Biological Processes (BP)
database returned the most identified significantly enriched pathways compared to other databases
(data not shown), so we focused this discussion on GO-BP data to avoid confusion from overlapping
pathway and gene inclusion variations across different knowledgebases. DAVID identified 49
significant GO-BP pathways (EASE score p-value<0.05) from the positive icSARS panel and 10
significant pathways from the negative icSARS panel (Supplemental Material STable 15). Most
significantly enriched pathways have experimentally established associations with icSARS and other
β-coronavirus infections, such as up-regulation of NF-kappaB processes (transcription factor activity:
GO:0051092, p-value=0.001; signaling: GO:0043123, p-value=0.043), p38MAPK cascade
(GO:1900745, p-value=0.015) and apoptotic process (GO:0006915, p-value=0.018) and down-
regulation of cilium morphogenesis (GO: 0060271, p-value=0.038) and assembly (GO: 0042384,
p-value=0.0.030), demonstrating our gene signature approach's ability to detect pathways associated
with response to an icSARS infections (Mizutani et al., 2004; Fung and Liu, 2019; Wehbe et al.,
2020). We also find several pathways, such as SMAD protein signal transduction (GO:0060395,
p-value=0.037), with no prior associations to icSARS infection though they have been identified in
mouse infections with the dORF strain (Sims et al., 2013). Therefore, we speculate that pathways
without prior association to icSARS infections identified here are also involved in response to an
icSARS infection.

Finally, we consider how our findings can be translated into possible therapeutic options using the
Comparative Toxicogenomics Database (Mattingly et al., 2003; Davis et al., 2019) to identify
chemicals that interact with each gene candidate identified here. We then compared across chemical
lists from each gene candidates and found eight chemicals that interact with all gene candidates:
benzo(a)pyrene, bisphenol A, cyclosporine, estradiol, (+)-JQ1 compound, nickel, tobacco Smoke
Pollution, and tributyltin. Of these, (+)-JQ1 compound and tributyltin were reported to decrease
expression of all gene candidates which is an important consideration since our results show the gene
candidates are usually over-expressed during SARS infection. Tributyltin is toxic to mammals
(Kotake, 2012), so it cannot be considered further. JQ1 is a thienotriazolodiazepine that strongly
inhibits the BET family of bromodomain proteins including BRD2, BRD3, and BRD4 (Shi et al.,
2018; Lambert et al., 2019). We noted that BRD1 is among our positive icSARS panel genes
(Table 1) though none of the BRD genes showed consistent changes in expression across signatures
(Supplemental Material SFig 3). Several studies have examined the use of BET inhibitors structurally
similar to JQ1 to treat a variety of cancers (Da Costa et al., 2013; Lochrin et al., 2014; McCleland et
al., 2016; Jiang et al., 2020), and are reported to promote viral re-activation (Banerjee et al., 2012;
Chen et al., 2017). We also considered how drugs that are frequently discussed for treating COVID-
19 might interact with our gene candidates (Group et al., 2020; Pooladanda et al., 2020; White et al.,
2020). We noted that acetaminophen reportedly decreased expression of XAF1 and OAS3 in human
liver cells (Elferink et al., 2011; Jiang et al., 2015) but had mixed reports in how it affected CXCL10

and IFIT3 expression. Hydroquinone was reported to decrease XAF1 and IFIT3 expression but
increase OASL expression in human epidermal melanocytes (Pyo et al., 2019). Interestingly,
hydroxychloroquine was reported to increase expression of CXCL10 and IFIT3 in human lung
carcinoma cells and mouse macrophages (Wang et al., 2015), the opposite of the desired effect
proposed from our computational findings. This finding is surprising since other compound affect
expression of some of our gene candidates in a manner consistent with our computational findings,
and the efficacy of hydroxychloroquine in treating COVID-19 is debated (Agarwal et al., 2020;
Badgujar et al., 2020; Meo et al., 2020; Rosenke et al., 2020). Further work is needed to assess the
viability of these therapeutic options and interpret findings presented here for the advancement
therapeutic options for SARS and other β-coronavirus infections.

5 Conflict of Interest

545 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
546 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

6 Author Contributions

548 L.H. lead manuscript preparation. A.P. generated the supplemental materials and time course data.
549 All authors contributed to the interpretation of results and manuscript review.

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Figure 1. Gene Signature Definition and Generation icSARS Gene Panels

A) Schematic definition of a gene signature. Differences in gene expression between two groups,
such as SARS- and mock-infected lung cells, are measured by Welch's two-sample T☐test score.
Gene signatures are ranked lists of genes from high (red) to low (blue) differential mRNA expression
between groups. B) Generation of icSARS gene panels for use in this study. To identify differentially
expressed genes associated with icSARS infection in human airway epithelial cell cultures, query
gene sets containing either the 500 most over- or under-expressed genes from positive or negative
tails of the gene signature generated from the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) accession number
GSE47960 mRNA expression dataset. The positive and negative tail query sets were compared
individually to the gene signature generated from the GEO GSE47961 dataset, which was used as
reference for Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA). From this GSEA computed two enrichment
plots, one for each query set, and their associated normalized enrichment score (NES) and p-value
which represent the extent of enrichment between query set and reference signature. GSEA also
identified leading-edge genes, which are genes that contribute most to achieving maximum
enrichment. Two gene panels were defined from leading-edge genes identified in each query set.
These gene panels were used in this study for three purposes: 1) identification of gene expression
changes associated with icSARS infection in human airway epithelial cell cultures, 2) verification of
identified findings in independent datasets, and 3) comparison to other gene signatures representing
changes in gene expression associated with other SARS infections.

Figure 2. Schematic of icSARS Panel Verification and Comparison Across SARS Infections

A) Gene signatures used for verification of icSARS panels. Four verification signatures were defined
from datasets containing cultures of mock- and icSARS-infected human airway epithelial cells
(GSE47962) or lung adenocarcinoma cells (GSE36727, GSE48142, and GSE33267). (B) Gene
signatures used for comparison to icSARS panels. Twenty-three comparison signatures were defined
from SARS strains varying in virulence (icSARS, Urbani, MA15, BAT-SRBD, ORF6, NSP16, and
ExoNI) with 11 comparison signatures derived from human lung adenocarcinoma cultures (solid
ovals) and 12 comparison signatures derived from mouse lung samples (dashed ovals).

Figure 3. Verification of icSARS Gene Panels in Independent Datasets

A) Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) detected significant enrichment, as determined by
normalized enrichment score (NES), between the positive icSARS gene panel and the positive tail of
the GSE47962-derived gene signature. B) GSEA detected significant enrichment between the

negative icSARS panel and the negative tail of the GSE47962-derived signature. C) Distribution plot
of NES from 1000 randomly generated gene panels (individual queries) compared to the GSE47962-
derived signature (reference) shows that NES achieved in (A) and (B) are non-random. D) GSEA
found significant enrichment between the positive icSARS panel and the positive tail of the
GSE37827-derived gene signature. E) GSEA detected significant enrichment between the negative
icSARS panel and the negative tail of the GSE37827-derived signature. F) Distribution plot of 1000
randomly generated NES from the GSE37827-derived signature (reference) illustrated that NES
achieved in (D) and (E) are non-random. G) GSEA detected significant enrichment between the
positive icSARS gene panel and the positive tail of the GSE48142-derived gene signature. H) GSEA
detected significant enrichment between the negative icSARS panel and the negative tail of the
GSE48142-derived signature. I) Distribution plot of 1000 randomly generated NES from the
GSE48142-derived signature (reference) illustrated that NES achieved in (G) and (H) are non-
random. J) GSEA detected significant enrichment between the positive icSARS panel and the
positive tail of the GSE33267-derived gene signature. K) GSEA found significant enrichment
between the negative icSARS panel and the negative tail of the GSE33267-derived signature.
L) Distribution plot of 1000 randomly generated NES from the GSE33267-derived signature
(reference) shows NES achieved in (J) and (K) are non-random.

Figure 4. Positive icSARS Panel Enrichment in icSARS Infected Mouse Model Revealed Genes
Associated with icSARS Infection

A) Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) detected significant enrichment, as determined by normalized enrichment score (NES), between the positive icSARS gene panel and the positive tail of the GSE50000-derived gene signature. B) GSEA did not detect enrichment between the negative icSARS panel and the negative tail of the GSE50000-derived signature. C) Distribution plot of 1000 randomly generated NES from gene panels (individual queries) compared to the GSE50000-derived signature (reference) illustrated that the NES achieved by the positive icSARS panel in (A) is non-random while NES achieved by the negative icSARS panel in (B) can be randomly generated.

D) Venn diagram illustrated the overlap of positive icSARS panel genes between human genes with
verified association to icSARS infection in human cultures (found across all positive icSARS leading
edges in Figure 2 unless not included in platform) and mouse genes from either the GSE50000 gene
signature's leading-edge in (A) or genes not included in the platform used to profile GSE50000.
E) Heat map of T-scores for overlapping genes from (D) showed extent of over-expression across
icSARS gene signatures.

Figure 5. icSARS Panel Enrichment Detect Differential Gene Expression Similarities Across SARS
Strains with Varying Virulence

A) Heat map of Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) calculated normalized enrichment score
(NES) show consistent significant enrichment of the positive icSARS panel across SARS strains with
varying levels of virulence in both human lung cultures and mouse lung samples. The negative
icSARS panel is consistent across all SARS strains except BAT-SRBD and low inoculation doses of
MA15. B) Box and whiskers plot of NES from 1000 randomly generated gene panels containing 233
genes (individual queries) compared to 23 comparison gene signature (individual references,
Figure 1) demonstrate that the NES achieved by comparing the reference gene signature to the
positive icSARS gene panel used as query in (A) is better than NES obtained randomly. C) Box and
whiskers plot of NES from 1000 randomly generated gene panels containing 114 genes (individual
queries) compared to 23 comparison gene signature (individual references) demonstrate that the NES

achieved by comparing the reference gene signature to the negative icSARS gene panel used as query
in (A) is consistently better than NES obtained randomly for all strains except BAT-SRBD and low
inoculation doses for MA15.

Figure 6. Meta-analysis Across 28 Gene Signatures Representing Seven SARS Strains Varying in
Virulence Identifies Five Over-Expressed Genes Associated with SARS Infection

A) Venn diagrams illustrated the inclusion and overlap of positive icSARS panel genes in identified
leading-edges and dataset platforms across human cell culture (*in vitro*) and mouse infection (*in vivo*)
models using SARS strains that are 1) fully virulent (top-left), 2) isolated from bats and synthetically
made to infect animal cells (top-right), 3) lacking ORF6 function resulting in less virulence (bottom
left), and 4) lacking NSP function resulting in less virulence (bottom right). Overlapping positive
icSARS panel leading-edge genes represent genes that change in response to a SARS infection with a
specific SARS strain. B) Venn diagram showed the intersection of positive icSARS panel leading-
edges from 22 verification and comparison gene signatures across seven strains (icSARS, Urbani,
MA15, BAT-SRBD, dORF6, dNSP16, and ExoNI) in both human cultures and mouse samples that
identified five shared genes. Overlapping positive icSARS panel leading-edge genes represent genes
associated with SARS infection regardless of virulence strength and mechanism. C) Heat map of
T-scores for the five positive icSARS panel leading-edge genes identified in (B) showed the extent of
over-expression in each gene signature from SARS strains with varying virulence levels.

Table 1. SARS Infection Datasets Utilized for this Study

Dataset	Description[1]	Platform	Probes	IDs	Genes
GSE47960	Unlogged cultures of human primary tracheobroncial epithelium cells with mock, infectious clone SARS-CoV (icSARS) derived from Urbani strain, SARS-dORF6, or SARS-BatSRBD infection	GPL6480	32067	25666	16479
GSE47961	Unlogged cultures of human primary tracheobroncial epithelium cells with mock, icSARS, SARS-dORF6, or SARS-BatSRBD infection	GPL6480	33421	26500	16978
GSE47962	Unlogged cultures of human primary tracheobroncial epithelium cells with mock, icSARS, SARS-dORF6, or SARS-BatSRBD infection	GPL6480	32388	25897	16603
GSE37827	Unlogged cultures of 2B4 cells (a clonal derivative of human lung adenocarcinoma Calu-3 cells) with mock, icSARS, or SARS-BatSRBD infection	GPL6480	41000	30936	19596
GSE48142	Unlogged cultures of human lung adenocarcinoma 2B4 cells with mock, icSARS, icSARS-ExoNI or icSARS-dNSP16 infection	GPL6480	33321	26212	16794
GSE33267	Unlogged cultures of human lung adenocarcinoma Calu3cells with mock, icSARS, or SARS-dORF6 infection	GPL4133	45015	32696	19751
GSE17400	Unlogged cultures of human lung adenocarcinoma 2B4 cells with mock or Urbani strain of SARS-CoV (SARS) infection	GPL570	54675	44134	21182
GSE50000	Unlogged lung samples from 20-week-old C57BL6 mice infected with mock, icSARS, either 10^4 or 10^5 plaque-forming unit wild-type mouse-adapted SARS MA15 or SARS-BatSRBD	GPL7202	41174	34907	21200
GSE33266	Unlogged lung samples from 20-week-old C57BL6 mice infected with mock or wild-type mouse-adapted SARS MA15 at 10^2,10^3, 10^4, or 10^5 plaque-forming units over a time course	GPL4134	45057	36933	21608
GSE49262	Log2 normalized lung samples from 20-week-old C57BL6 mice infected with mock,10^5 plaque-forming unit wild-type SARS MA15, or SARS-dORF6	GPL7202	41174	34907	21200
GSE49263	Log2 normalized lung samples from 20-week-old C57BL6 mice infected with mock,10^5 plaque-forming unit wild-type SARS MA15, or SARS-dNSP16	GPL7202	41174	34907	21200

[1]All datasets collected samples over a time course. 48hr samples were used for this study unless otherwise stated. Unlogged samples were
z-scored across all dataset samples regardless of time or treatment for normalization before use.
Platform, Gene Expression Omnibus platform identifiers. Probes, number of platform probes with expression data in dataset. IDs, number of
probes with Gene Expression Omnibus provided Entrez identifiers. Genes, number of unique Entrez identifiers used for gene signature
definition with representatives for duplicate Entrez identifiers being selected by highest coefficient of variation. Values provided in the
Genes column reflect the number of genes in gene signatures defined for this study.

Table 2. Gene Signatures Defined in this Study

Dataset	Group 1 (N)	Group 2 (N)[1]	Gene signature	Use	High[2]	Low[2]	Cross[3]
GSE47960	icSARS (4)	mock (3)	icSARSvsmock	I	12.5	-13.2	7245
	dORF6 (4)	mock (3)	ORF6vsmock	C	12.5	-13.2	8738
	BatSRBD (3)	mock (3)	BATSRBDvsmock	C	11.6	-12.1	8076
GSE47961	icSARS (4)	mock (3)	icSARSvsmock	I	12.0	-13.1	8285
	dORF6 (4)	mock (3)	ORF6vsmock	C	13.1	-12.1	9026
	BatSRBD (4)	mock (3)	BATSRBDvsmock	C	12.1	-6.7	8421
GSE47962	icSARS (3)	mock (3)	icSARSvsmock	V	12.1	-12.1	8703
	dORF6 (3)	mock (3)	ORF6vsmock	C	12.2	-12.2	8225
	BatSRBD (3)	mock (3)	BATSRBDvsmock	C	12.2	-12.2	9157
GSE37827	icSARS (3)	mock (3)	icSARSvsmock	V	12.2	-12.2	8261
	BatSRBD (3)	mock (3)	BATSRBDvsmock	C	12.2	-11.8	8843
GSE48142	icSARS (3)	mock (3)	icSARSvsmock	V	12.2	-12.2	6918
	ExoNI (3)	mock (3)	ExoNIvsmock	C	12.2	-9.9	7570
	dNSP16 (3)	mock (3)	NSP16vsmock	C	12.2	-12.2	6638
GSE33267	icSARS (3)	mock (3)	icSARSvsmock[4]	V	15.9	-8.6	9874
	dORF6 (3)	mock (3)	ORF6vsmock	C	12.2	-12.2	7378
GSE17400	SARS (3)	mock (3)	SARSvsmock	C	12.2	-12.2	10571
GSE50000	icSARS (5)	mock (4)	icSARSvsmock	C	6.8	-7.7	10007
	MA10^5 (4)	mock (4)	MA10^{5}vsmock	C	9.4	-10.2	9882
	MA10^4 (4)	mock (4)	MA10^{4}vsmock	C	14.1	-14.1	9759
	BatSRBD (5)	mock (4)	BATSRBDvsmock	C	9.9	-9.5	10185
GSE33266	MA10^5 (5)	mock (3)	MA10^{5}vsmock[4]	C	13.6	-14.6	10803
	MA10^4 (5)	mock (3)	MA10^{4}vsmock	C	14.0	-14.1	11654
	MA10^3 (5)	mock (3)	MA10^{3}vsmock[4]	C	12.8	-6.6	10803
	MA10^2 (5)	mock (3)	MA10^{2}vsmock[4]	C	7.3	-6.4	10803
GSE49262	MA10^5 (3)	mock (3)	MA10^{5}vsmock	C	4.5	-2.5	10073
	dORF6 (3)	mock (3)	ORF6vsmock	C	4.4	-2.5	10211
GSE49263	MA10^5 (4)	mock (3)	MA10^{5}vsmock	C	4.8	-2.5	10384
	dNSP16 (4)	mock (3)	NSP16vsmock	C	5.0	-2.6	10188

[1]Same mock samples used across signatures in same dataset.

[2]These values define the range of Welch's two-sample T-scores that were used to rank genes in the

signature.

[3]Values in the Cross column reflect where (*i.e.*, which gene) in the signature the T-score crosses 0.

[4]T-scores in gene signature adjusted so Cross (T-score=0) occurs near center of the signature.

C, comparison; I, identification; N, number of samples; V, verification.

A

	Pos. icSARS panel	Neg. icSARS panel	
GSE17400 Urbanivsmock	✦	✦	H
GSE49262 MA15(10⁵)vsmock	✦	✦	M
GSE49263 MA15(10⁵)vsmock	✦	✦	M
GSE50000 MA15(10⁵)vsmock	✦	✦	M
GSE50000 MA15(10⁴)vsmock	✦	✦	M
GSE33266 MA15(10⁵)vsmock	✦	✦	M
GSE33266 MA15(10⁴)vsmock	✦	✦	M
GSE33266 MA15(10³)vsmock	✦		M
GSE33266 MA15(10²)vsmock	✦	✦	M
GSE47960 BATvsmock	✦	✦	H
GSE47961 BATvsmock	✦		H
GSE47962 BATvsmock	✦	✦	H
GSE36827 BATvsmock	✦	✦	H
GSE50000 BATvsmock	✦		M
GSE47960 ORF6vsmock	✦	✦	H
GSE47961 ORF6vsmock	✦	✦	H
GSE47962 ORF6vsmock	✦	✦	H
GSE33267 ORF6vsmock	✦	✦	H
GSE49262 ORF6vsmock	✦	✦	M
GSE48142 NSP16vsmock	✦	✦	H
GSE49263 NSP16vsmock	✦	✦	M
GSE48142 ExoNIvsmock	✦	✦	H

normalized enrichment score

4.0   0   -4.0

white stars = GSEA p-value<0.05

H = human   M = mouse

A

Urbani LE genes (30) — ((13)) shared MA15 LE genes (24) — ((0)) genes not in Urbani platform (2); ((18)) genes not in MA15 platforms (30) — ((10))

pos icSARS panel (233 genes)

shared BAT LE genes (27) — ((12)) BAT LE mouse genes (40) — ((0)) genes not in BAT platforms (42); ((10)) genes not in BAT platform (40) — ((10))

pos icSARS panel (233 genes)

shared ORF6 LE genes (27) — ((12)) ORF6 LE mouse genes (27) — ((0)) genes not in ORF6 platforms (1); ((10)) genes not in ORF6 platform (31) — ((4))

pos icSARS panel (233 genes)

NSP16 LE genes (37) — ((43)) NSP16 LE genes (21) — ((0)) genes not in NSP16 platform (0); ((19)) genes not in NSP16 platform (31) — ((2))

pos icSARS panel (233 genes)

LE=leading-edge, solid line = human cell cultures, dotted line = mouse model

B

icSARS (20), SARS (41), BAT (32), overlap (5), ExoNI (73), NSP16 (64), ORF6 (26)

pos icSARS panel (233 genes)

C

	OASL	OAS3	XAF1	CXCL10	IFIT3	
H						GSE17400 Urbanivsmock
M						GSE49262 MA15(10^5)vsmock
M						GSE49263 MA15(10^5)vsmock
M						GSE50000 MA15(10^5)vsmock
M						GSE50000 MA15(10^4)vsmock
M						GSE33266 MA15(10^5)vsmock
M						GSE33266 MA15(10^4)vsmock
M						GSE33266 MA15(10^3)vsmock
H						GSE47960 BATvsmock
H						GSE47961 BATvsmock
H						GSE47962 BATvsmock
H						GSE36827 BATvsmock
M						GSE50000 BATvsmock
H						GSE47960 ORF6vsmock
H						GSE47961 ORF6vsmock
H						GSE47962 ORF6vsmock
H						GSE33267 ORF6vsmock
M						GSE49262 ORF6vsmock
H						GSE48142 NSP16vsmock
M						GSE49263 NSP16vsmock
H						GSE48142 ExoNIvsmock

Genes

T-score 0 — 20

M=mouse   H=human

black stars = T-test p-value<0.05

black boxes = not included in platform