Immune-Based Prediction of COVID-19 Severity and Chronicity Decoded Using Machine Learning Bruce K Patterson¹, Jose Guevara-Coto³, Ram Yogendra, Edgar Francisco, Emily Long, Amruta Pise, Hallison Rodrigues, Purvi Parikh, Javier Mora², Rodrigo A Mora-Rodríguez² ¹IncellDx Inc, San Carlos, CA ²Lab of Tumor Chemosensitivity, CIET / DC Lab, Faculty of Microbiology, Universidad de Costa Rica ³Department of Computer Science and Informatics (ECCI), Universidad de Costa Rica Summary: Immunologic Modeling of Severity and Chronicity of COVID-19 Corresponding author: Bruce K. Patterson MD 1541 Industrial Road San Carlos, CA 94070 Tel: +1.650.777.7630 Fax: +1.650.587.1528 Email: brucep@incelldx.com Key words: COVID-19, long haulers, chronic COVID, immune profile, cytokines, chemokines Abbreviations: IL-interleukin; RANTES-regulation on activation, normal T-expressed and secreted; CCR-chemokine receptor; IFN-interferon, TNF-tumor necrosis factor; MIP-macrophage inflammatory protein: GM-CSF-granulocyte-macrophage colonystimulating factor; VEGF-vascular endothelial growth factor; HIV; human immunodeficiency virus; HCV hepatitis C virus

47 **ABSTRACT**

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- 49 Individuals with systemic symptoms long after COVID-19 has cleared represent
- 50 approximately ~10% of all COVID-19 infected individuals. Here we present a
- 51 bioinformatics approach to predict and model the phases of COVID so that effective
- 52 treatment strategies can be devised and monitored. We investigated 144 individuals
- 53 including normal individuals and patients spanning the COVID-19 disease continuum.
- 54 We collected plasma and isolated PBMCs from 29 normal individuals, 26 individuals
- 55 with mild-moderate COVID-19, 25 individuals with severe COVID-19, and 64 individuals
- 56 with Chronic COVID-19 symptoms. Immune subset profiling and a 14-plex cytokine
- 57 panel were run on all patients. Data was analyzed using machine learning methods to
- 58 predict and distinguish the groups from each other.Using a multi-class deep neural
- 59 network classifier to better fit our prediction model, we recapitulated a 100% precision,
- 60 100% recall and F1 score of 1 on the test set. Moreover, a first score specific for the
- 61 chronic COVID-19 patients was defined as **S1 = (IFN-γ + IL-2)/ CCL4-MIP-1β**. Second,
- a score specific for the severe COVID-19 patients was defined as S2 = (10*IL-10 + IL-6)
 (IL-2 + IL-8). Severe cases are characterized by excessive inflammation and
- 64 dysregulated T cell activation, recruitment, and counteracting activities. While chronic
- 65 patients are characterized by a profile able to induce the activation of effector T cells
- 66 with pro-inflammatory properties and the capacity of generating an effective immune
- 67 response to eliminate the virus but without the proper recruitment signals to attract
- 68 activated T cells.
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- 70 71

90 INTRODUCTION

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92 Chronic COVID-19 is a group of previously infected individuals, so called "Long 93 Haulers", who experience a multitude of symptoms from several weeks to months after 94 recovering from their acute illness and presumably months after viral clearance. These 95 symptoms include joint pain, muscle aches, fatigue, "brain fog" and others. These 96 symptoms can commonly resemble rheumatic diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis, 97 autoimmune disorders, and others such as fibromyalgia and chronic fatigue syndrome 98 (1). Many of these common disorders are caused by inflammation, hyper- and/or auto-99 immunity and some such as chronic fatigue are associated with viral persistence after 100 an acute infection with pathogens such as Epstein Barr and Cytomegalovirus (2). 101 Recent studies including those from our laboratory have suggested that (CC) may be 102 caused by persistent COVID itself (3). Here, we sought to identify possible immunologic 103 signatures of COVID-19 severity and to determine whether Chronic COVID-19 might 104 represent a distinct immunologic entity compared to mild to moderate (MM) or 105 severe/critical COVID-19. Further, we addressed the guestion whether the immunologic 106 profile represents an immune response indicative of prolonged or chronic antigenic 107 exposure. Using machine learning, we identified algorithms that allowed for accurate 108 determination of chronic COVID and severe COVID immunotypes. Further, we present 109 a quantitative immunologic score that could be used to stratify patients to therapy and/or 110 non-subjectively measure response to therapy.

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112

114 **RESULTS**

115 Immune Profiling

116 To determine if immunologic abnormalities remain in Long Haulers, we performed high 117 parameter immune cell quantification and characterization in a subset of individuals with 118 preserved peripheral blood mononuclear cells. We determined B-cells, T-cells, and 119 monocytes including subsets and including CD4/CD8 activation and exhaustion. Unlike 120 active COVID-19, the CD4 and CD8 T-cell populations were within normal limits and 121 there was no evidence of T-cell exhaustion (co-expression of PD-1, LAG3, and or 122 CTLA-4). B-cells were significantly elevated compared to normal individuals (P<0.001) 123 as was the CD14+, CD16+ monocytic subset (P<0.001) (Table 1). Interestingly, these 124 two immune cell populations have been shown to be chronically infected by different 125 viruses. B-cells are infected by Epstein-Barr and the CD14+, CD16+ monocytic subset 126 by HIV-1 and by HCV (4). 127 To further characterize the immune response in Long Haulers, we performed

quantitative, multiplex cytokine/chemokine panel on 30 normal individuals to establish the normal range of the assay. We then analyzed 64 long haulers and compared the cytokine/chemokine profile (Table 1). IL-2, IL-4, CCL3, IL-6, IL-10, IFN- γ , and VEGF were all significantly elevated compared to normal control (all P<0.001). Conversely GM-CSF and CCL4 were significantly lower than normal controls. Further exacerbating this hyper-immunity was the significant decrease in T regulatory cells compared to normal individuals (P<0.001).

136 Random Forest Binary and Multi-Class Models for Feature Selection and Prediction

We separated the dataset into a training and test split of 90% training and 10% test.
This proportion was used because of the reduced number of instances in the dataset.
Also, to ensure reproducible results we set the same random seed for all the models.

140 The first model we constructed was the multi-class predictor. This model attempted to 141 separate the severe, long hauler and non-severe-non-long hauler class. This classifier 142 achieved 97% precision, 97% recall and a F1 score of 0.97 in the training partition. In 143 the test split, it performed slightly better, with a precision of 100%, a recall of 100% and 144 thus and F1 score of 1.00 (Table 2). This model was then analyzed to identify the most relevant or informative features. This resulted in the identification of 6 features with an 145 146 importance score above the importance median (0.063895) and average (0.07143). The 147 identified features were: IFN-γ, IL-2, IL-6, IL-10, IL-8, CCL4-MIP-1β, in importance 148 order. The full list of ranked features can be seen in figure 2.

149 Regarding the long hauler and non-long hauler binary classifier, our results were 150 consistent between the training and the test set. In both partitions the precision and the 151 recall were 100% (1.00) and thus the F1 score equaled 1.00. The observation that the 152 model had good metrics in the test split when compared to the train set is a valuable 153 indicator that the model is not overfitting, and that it is capable of generalizing the 154 patters identified in the training data. The overview of the precision, recall and F1 score 155 for the binary long hauler model can be seen in table 2. Feature importance analysis of 156 the binary model, revealed that the features identified as important for this model were 157 the same features identified as important for the multi-class predictor. This finding

suggests there is an important group of characteristics or variables that are influential in
the identification of long hauler data points from other instances. These features can be
seen in figure 2.

161 The severe binary model, which classified instances between non-severe and severe 162 resulted in high performance metrics for both the training and test splits. As shown in 163 table 2, the performance of this model was an indicator of no potential overfitting. This 164 model is of special interest given the small number of instances in the severe class. 165 Furthermore, the feature importance analysis of this model revealed that the relevant 166 features were also the same as with the multi-class model and with the long hauler 167 binary classifier (Figure 2). This finding reinforces our notion that these group of 168 relevant features could impact classification, or that could have some biological 169 significance worth exploring by means of other analysis like a separation heuristic.

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171 Deep Neural Network Binary Classifiers using the Full Feature Set

The deep neural network (DNN) classifier was constructed layers of neurons. Each layer transformed the inputs inputs using the rectified linear activation function or ReLU. The DNN model was constructed to have 1 input layer, 3 hidden layers with 10 neurons each, followed by layer with 6 neurons. Finally, the output layer consists of 3 neuros, for the outputs (classes) and the softmax (multi-class) or sigmoid (binary) function. This architecture was used for the multi-class model and the binary models.

The results of the long hauler binary models, revealed differences of ~5% between the 179 180 metrics of the training and the test set (Table 3). Such difference is not significant to 181 attribute overfitting to the training set. In contrast, the severe binary model had 182 significant differences between the performance metrics of the training and the test set 183 (Table 3). This is evident in the precision score, with 98% in the training set and 75% on 184 the test set, and thus the F1 score with a difference of 20% (0.99 on the training set and 185 0.79 on the test set). A potential explanation could be that the severe class has a limited 186 number of data points, but our random forest classifier for the severe class perfumed 187 well. These results suggest that the best approach is a multi-class predictor.

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189 Multi-class Deep Neural Network Classifiers using the Full Feature Set

The multi-class DNN implemented using the full feature set had good metrics (Table 3). The precision, recall and F1 score of 100%, 100% and 1.00 in the test split. This indicates that the model is not overfitting, and validating our notion that this would generalize better than the binary models. The model's performance is supported by its confusion matrix (true class vs predicted) where it is possible to determine how well it can predict the three classes (Figure 3).

The potential of a DNN classifier is that it adjusts multiple parameters transform the inputs into outputs. This is very important because the vast number of parameters allows for the model to better identify hidden signals in the data. Also, DNN require hyperparameter tuning, such as learning rate, number of hidden layers and neurons per hidden layer, as well as the optimizer and activation function, which affect the performance of the model. By adjusting these hyperparameters and castrating a model
 capable of finding the hidden relationships in the data we were able to achieve such
 high results and construct a predictive multi-class system.

204 Reduced Feature Multi-class Deep Neural Network Classifiers

205 The results of the DNN indicated that the multi-class had the highest performance. 206 Based on this, we constructed a DNN using the 6 most important features identified by 207 the random forest variable importance. This model was known as minimal DNN or 208 mDNN. This model was constructed using the same architecture as the full feature set 209 DNN. This model's performance in the training set and the test set (Table 4), revealed a significant difference in both precision and recall, such difference could indicate that 210 211 although the 6 features were identified as the most relevant, it could be possible that all 212 variables contribute to the hidden pattern that makes up the classification of the 213 instances. This idea is supported by the differences in performance between the mDNN 214 and the full feature classifier in both training and test splits (Tables 3 & 4). This is further 215 supported by the comparison of the confusion matrices, where mDNN (figure 4A) 216 misclassifies more instances than the full feature multi-class DNN (Figure 3).

Moreover, we simplified our prediction model by feature engineering of two classification scores based on the top informative features. First, a "Long Hauler Score" was defined as S1 = (IFN- γ + IL-2) / CCL4-MIP-1 β . Second, "Severe Score" was defined as S2 = (10*IL-10 + IL-6) – (IL-2 + IL8). Using a combined heuristic to first classify the Long Haulers (S1>0.4) and second the severe COVID-19 patients (S2>0), we obtained a sensitivity of 97% for Long Haulers with a 100% specificity and a sensitivity of 88% for
severe patients with a specificity of 96% (Figure 4B).

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225 **DISCUSSION**

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Individuals infected with SARS-Cov2 exert distinct severity patterns which have been
associated with different immune activation profiles. Interestingly, in some cases longer
times are required to experience full recovery, representing a particular pathological
type recently described as long-COVID or long haulers (LH). The scientific evidence
generated during the last months strongly supports that the different outcomes on
COVID-19 patients are determined by the immune mechanisms activated in response to
the viral infection.

234 The immune response to SARS-Cov2 induces a release of different molecules with 235 inflammatory properties such as cytokines and chemokines. This event, known as 236 cytokine storm, is an immunopathological feature of COVID-19 and it has been 237 associated with the severity of the disease. The increase in blood concentrations of 238 different cytokines and chemokines such as IL-6, IL-8, IL-10, TNF- α , IL-1 β , IL-2, IP-10, 239 MCP-1, CCL3, CCL4, and CCL5 has been described for COVID-19 patients (5). Some 240 of these molecules have been proposed as biomarkers to monitor the clinical evolution 241 and to determine treatment selection for COVID-19 patients. Nevertheless, it is 242 important to consider that some of these molecules function in a context dependent 243 manner, therefore the clinical relevance of analyzing single cytokine changes is limited.

244 One of the most important challenges during the pandemics is to avoid the saturation of 245 the health systems, therefore the determination of predictive biomarkers that allow a 246 better stratification of the patients is paramount. Even though cytokines such as IL-6 247 and IL-8 have been proposed as indicators of the disease severity, and in some studies 248 they were strong and independent predictors of patient survival (6), their predictive 249 value when analyzed alone is debatable (7). The generation of scores considering blood 250 levels of cytokines and chemokines with different immunological functions incorporates 251 the importance of the context-dependent function of these molecules. 252 In order to predict severe cases, a score was generated considering IL-10, IL-6, IL-2, 253 and IL-8 blood concentrations. In this classification, severe cases are characterized by 254 high IL-6 and IL-10 levels, both cytokines previously attributed to increase the 255 immunopathogenesis of COVID-19 and predictive value in severe cases (6, 8). In 256 different settings, IL-6 has been associated with oxidative stress, inflammation, 257 endothelial dysfunction, and thrombogenesis (9-12) which are characteristic features of 258 severe COVID-19 cases caused by excessive myeloid cell activation (13). Consistently, 259 increased IL-10 levels interfere with appropriate T-cell responses, inducing T-cell 260 exhaustion and regulatory T cell polarization leading to an evasion of the antiviral 261 immune response (14). Furthermore, besides its anti-inflammatory function on T cells, in 262 some settings IL-10 induces STAT1 activation and a pro-inflammatory response in type 263 I IFN-primed myeloid cells (15,16). Therefore, elevated levels of IL-6 and IL-10 promote 264 myeloid cell activation, oxidative stress, endothelial damage, and dampens adequate T 265 cell activation. Additionally, to strengthen the classification, the score presented here,

differentiates the severe cases by the subtraction of IL-2 and IL-8, which are cytokines
 related to proper T cell activation (IL-2) and recruitment (IL-8).

268 According to the score generated for distinguishing LH, these patients are characterized 269 by an increased IFN-y and IL-2 and a reduced CCL4 production. In the context of a viral 270 infection, the combination of IFN-y and IL-2 would induce the activation of effector T 271 cells with pro-inflammatory properties and the capacity of generating an effective 272 immune response to eliminate the virus. However, LH are characterized by longer 273 periods of time with clinical signs and symptoms such as fatigue and lung damage. This 274 suggests that the inflammatory context created by these cytokines to induce T cell 275 activation is not enough to generate an adequate anti-viral response without the proper 276 recruitment signals to attract activated T cells. CCL4 signals through the receptor CCR5 277 to attract T cells to the site of inflammation and depending on the immune context, this 278 molecule recruits differently activated T cells (17,18). Moreover, it was recently shown 279 by single cell analysis a down regulation of CCL4 expression in peripheral myeloid cell 280 compartments in patients with mild and severe COVID-19 (19). In LH, IFN-y and IL-2 281 would create an immune context to induce Th1 polarization, but the low levels of CCL4 282 affect the recruitment of these cells impairing the antiviral response. The effect of 283 increased IFN-y and IL-2 on T cell activation is evident in the reduction of the 284 percentage of exhausted (CD4+PD1+/ CD8+PD1+) and regulatory T cells (FoxP3+) 285 compared to healthy donors. Interestingly, there is an increase in the percentage of 286 circulating CD4+ and CD8+ T cells expressing CTLA-4 in the LH group compared to 287 healthy donors, which is a molecule that affects antigen presentation in secondary 288 lymphoid organs, but its presence in circulating T cells may reflect a compensatory

mechanisms to the low CCL4 levels in the LH group. CTLA-4 induced signaling in T 289 290 cells upregulates the expression of the CCL4 receptor CCR5 (20, 21), in the LH group 291 CTLA-4 upregulation suggests a failed attempt to increase the sensitivity of IFN-y/IL-2 292 activated T cells to CCL4. Therefore, proper T cell activation (high IFN-y+IL-2) but 293 ineffective T cell recruitment (low CCL4) are characteristic features of the failed anti-294 viral response observed in the LH group supporting virus persistence. Additionally, 295 increased IFN-y promotes myeloid cell activation which is observed in the augmented 296 percentage of inflammatory CD14+CD16+ monocytes in the LH group compared to 297 healthy donors, supporting lymphopenia and virus persistence in these patients. This is 298 supported by recent findings describing an increased gene expression in response to 299 IFN-y in mild and severe COVID-19 patients in peripheral myeloid cells (19) and the 300 dysregulation in the balance of monocyte populations by the expansion of the monocyte 301 subsets described in COVID-19 patients (22). Finally, we propose that long-lasting 302 pulmonary damage observed in LH, is caused by a combination of factors including 1) 303 longer virus persistence influenced by LH immune profile characterized by high IFN-y 304 and IL-2 levels inducing Th1 polarization which is ineffective with low CCL4-induced T 305 cell recruitment, leading to an inflammatory myeloid cell activation; and 2) the 306 immunopathological pulmonary effects consequence of this LH immune profile. 307 Regarding the immunopathological effects of LH immune profile, using murine models it 308 has been shown that high IFN-y levels could affect the kinetics of the resolution of 309 inflammation-induced lung injury as well as thrombus resolution (23, 24), which could be 310 related to long-lasting symptoms of LH associated to pulmonary coagulopathy and 311 immune-mediated tissue damage.

Interestingly, COVID-19 individuals (including LH, mild, severe) show high levels of
CCL5, a chemoattractant that like CCL4 signals through CCR5. Indeed, the disruption
of the CCL5-CCR5 pathway restores immune balance in critical COVID-19 patients (4).
In the specific case of LH, despite the high concentrations of CCL5 a reduction on the
CCL4-mediated recruitment of activated T cells is proposed. This could be related to
different factors:

318 (1) Reduction of total recruitment signals in LH with low CCL4 concentrations.

319 (2) Different functional responses of CCL4 and CCL5 to polymorphic variants of the

320 CCR5. Distinct functional features have been reported to CCR5 variants regarding
 321 binding avidity, receptor internalization, Ca++ influx and chemotactic activity (25). Even
 322 though, clear mechanistic differences between CCL4 and CCL5 interaction with CCR5
 323 are missing, it has been suggested that is important to consider the knowledge gained

324 on CCR5 polymorphisms in HIV/AIDS context (26).

325 (3) Signaling through alternative receptors for CCL5. Besides CCR5, CCL5 can signal 326 through the receptors CCR1 and CCR3 (27) whereas CCL4 effects are restricted to 327 CCL5. It has been shown that CCL4 can bind to CCR1 but is not able to induce the 328 intracellular pathway necessary for activating the chemoattractant stimulus (27.28). 329 Therefore, CCL4 has been proposed as an antagonist of CCR1 (28), however further 330 analysis of this needs to be performed. Interestingly, CCR1 is expressed on blood 331 myeloid cells such as monocytes and neutrophils (27), and it is upregulated on COVID-332 19 patients (29). Additionally, high levels of IFN-y (feature of LH) have been associated 333 with an increase CCR1 expression on human neutrophils (30). Therefore, in LH, high

- 334 levels of CCL5 (combined with low levels of potential CCR1-antagonist CCL4) leads to
- a higher recruitment of myeloid cells expressing CCR1.

336

337 MATERIAL/METHODS

- 338 Patients
- 339 Following informed consent, whole blood was collected in a 10 mL EDTA tube and a 10
- 340 mL plasma preparation tube (PPT). A total of 144 individuals were enrolled in the study
- 341 consisting of 29 normal individuals, 26 mild-moderate COVID-19 patients, 25 severe
- 342 COVID-19 patients and 64 chronic COVID (long hauler-LH) individuals. Long Haulers
- 343 symptoms are listed in Figure 1. Study subjects were stratified according to the
- 344 following criteria.
- 345 <u>Mild</u>
- 1. Fever, cough, sore throat, malaise, headache, myalgia, nausea, diarrhea, loss of
- 347taste and small
- 348 2. No sign of pneumonia on chest imaging (CXR or CT Chest)
- 349 3. No shortness of breath or dyspnea
- 350 <u>Moderate:</u>
- 1. Radiological findings of pneumonia fever and respiratory symptoms
- 352 2. Saturation of oxygen $(SpO2) \ge 94\%$ on room air at sea level
- 353 <u>Severe</u>
- 1. Saturation of oxygen (SpO2) < 94% on room air at sea level

- 355 2. Arterial partial pressure of oxygen (PaO2)/ fraction of inspired oxygen (FiO2) <
- 356 300mmHG
- 357 3. Lung infiltrate > 50% within 24 to 48 hours
- 358 4. HR ≥ 125 bpm
- 359 5. Respiratory rate \geq 30 breaths per minute
- 360 <u>Critical</u>
- 1. Respiratory failure and requiring mechanical ventilation, ECMO, high-flow nasal
- 362 cannula oxygen supplementation, noninvasive positive pressure ventilation
- 363 (BiPAP, CPAP)
- 364 2. Septic Shock- Systolic blood pressure < 90mmHg or Diastolic blood pressure <
- 365 60 mmHg or requiring vasopressors (levophed, vasopressin, epinephrine
- 366 3. Multiple organ dysfunction (cardiac, hepatic, renal, CNS, thrombotic disease)
- 367
- 368 Post-acute COVID-19 (Long COVID)
- 369 1. Extending beyond 3 weeks from the initial onset of first symptoms
- 370 Chronic COVID-19
- 1. Extending beyond 12 weeks from the initial onset of first symptoms (Table 1)
- 372
- 373 High Parameter Immune Profiling/Flow Cytometry
- 374 Peripheral blood mononuclear cells were isolated from peripheral blood using
- 375 Lymphoprep density gradient (STEMCELL Technologies, Vancouver, Canada). Aliquots

200 of cells were frozen in media that contained 90% fetal bovine serum (HyClone,
Logan, UT) and 10% dimethyl sulfoxide (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) and stored at 70°C. Cells were stained and analyzed as previously described (4) (Patterson) using a
17-color antibody cocktail. *Multiplex Cytokine Quantification*

- 382 Fresh plasma was used for cytokine quantification using a customized 14-plex bead
- 383 based flow cytometric assay (IncellKINE, IncellDx, Inc) on a CytoFlex flow cytometer as
- 384 previously described using the following analytes: 'TNF- α ', 'IL-4', 'IL-13', 'IL-2', 'GM-

385 CSF', 'sCD40L', 'CCL5 (RANTES)', 'CCL3 (MIP-1α)', 'IL-6', 'IL-10', 'IFN-γ', 'VEGF', 'IL-

386 8', and 'CCL4 (MIP-1 β) (4). For each patient sample, 25 μ L of plasma was used in each

387 well of a 96-well plate. Standard curves with serial 6 point dilutions of antigen were run

388 on each plate for each cytokine. Raw data was analyzed using LegendPlex software

389 (Biolegend, Inc San Diego CA). Samples were run in duplicate.

390

391 Data Processing

Data was imported and processed using Python 2.7, using the *pandas* library (version 1.1.0). and the numeric python module, *numpy* version 1.18.5. Our data consisted of 144 instances representing 4 classes (Normal-n=29, Mild-Moderate-n=26, Severe-n=25, Long Hauler-n=64). Each class had 14 columns, representing the different cytokine/chemokine analytes. Each analyte had different measurements which required a normalization process to reduce outlier effect and to facilitate algorithm convergence.

Normalization was done using Min-Max and based on a linear transformation of the original data. Min-Max maintains the original relationship between the data, while fitting it within a pre-defined boundary. The Python implementation of min-max calculates the range in such a manner that the range of the features will be defined between 0 and 1. For this reason, min-max normalization is also referred to as 0-1 normalization (or scaling). The typical min-max transformation is given in equation 1:

404

405
$$X = \frac{(X - Xmin)}{Xmax - Xmin}$$
 [1]

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407

408 Target Variable Processing

409 Since Min-max normalization, can only be applied to numeric variables a new variable 410 defined as *targets* was created. The variable targets represent the different classes 411 (Long Hauler, Severe, Mild-Moderate, and Normal) for the instances in the dataset. The 412 resulting array has 4 classes for each state. The goal of our analysis is to properly 413 identify/discriminate the instances that belong to the Severe state or the Long-Hauler 414 state compared to other states. This goal can be achieved by building either binary 415 classifiers for the Severe class and for the Long Hauler class, a multi-class predictor. 416 For the construction of both models, t is required to separate the targets to reflect the 417 dosing question: can a predictor discriminate between the Severe, Long Hauler and Other Sates. 418

419 To build the models that answer this question, we grouped the M-M and Normal labels 420 in a new class which was distinct form the Severe and Long-Hauler states. We then 421 proceeded to apply filters based on the task (binary or multi-class classification). For the 422 Severe binary predictor, we conditioned the targets to be exactly Severe or else they 423 were assigned to Not-Severe. This same task was done for Long-Haulers, were either 424 an instance label was exactly labelled Long-Hauler or else it would be assigned to the 425 Non-Long Hauler class. The multi-class predictor processing only requires to define 426 three classes: Severe, Long-Hauler and Non-Severe-Non-Long-Hauler which was 427 composed of the Normal and Mild-Moderate cases.

428

429 One-hot Encoding of Targets

430 The implementation of one-hot encoding on the target variable, is based on the notion 431 that multiple machine learning algorithms are unable to properly process categorical 432 data. It is possible to use numeric replacements, such as integer values, but this can 433 only be useful if there is an ordinal relationship within the variable. Such use would 434 imply that there exists a vectorial relationship between the labels, for example, in our 435 classes we have Normal, Mild-Moderate, Severe and Long-Haulers. If we assigned a 436 vector of integers from 0 to 4 in their corresponding orders to the classes, it would 437 assume the presence of a vectorial distance between Normal and Long Hauler or V0 -> 438 V4.

439 To properly design an experiment that reflects this, we use one-hot encoding After 440 applying one-hot encoding the labels are substituted with 1 and 0, where 1 represents the presence of the class and 0 the absence. The use of one-jot encoding corrects for
the vector-distance assumption of integer or categorical classes, where higher or larger
values could be interpreted as better.

444

445 Definition of precision, recall and F1 score

The precision (equation 2) is a measure of the percentage of the results that are relevant. The metric Recall measures the percentage of the total relevant results that are correctly classified by the predictor (equation 3). The harmonic mean between these two measures is known as the F1 score and ranges from 0 to 1, the closer to is to 1, the better the model performs (equation 4). The F1 score for both false positives (FP) and false negatives (FN) as well as for true positives (TP).

452
$$Precision = \frac{TruePositive}{TruePositive+FalsePositive}$$
[2]

453
$$Recall = \frac{TruePositive}{TruePositive+FalseNegative}$$
[3]

454
$$F1 = \frac{2*Precision*Recall}{Precision+Recall} = \frac{TP}{TP+1/2(FP+FN)}$$
[4]

455

456 Feature Selection and Classification using Random Forest

457 Data pre-processing, target variable processing and the encoding of targets were

458 performed before classification as above. Feature selection is the process of reducing

dimensionality of the dataset by selecting those features or variables that are moreinformative than those that are not.

To perform feature selection, we implemented the RandomForestClassifier method from Sci-kit Learn. Random Forest allows for identification of features that better separate the classes by determining what percentage of the nodes that use those features have a reduction in entropy or impurity (which are measures of how well separated the instances are using a feature).

466 The binary classifier was constructed using the data points and their features with the 467 one-hot encoded target corresponding to: 1) the severe and non-severe model, 2) the long hauler and non-long hauler model and 3) the multiclass model. The model was 468 469 built with the RandomForestClassifier method from Sci-kit Learn, with the number of 470 trees constructed set to 750, the number of features set as the square root of the 471 feature space, and the node depth equal to 4 to avoid overfitting. These parameters 472 were set for binary and multi-class predictors. Model performance was measured using: 473 precision, recall and the F1 score (see supplementary information).

474

475 Predictor Construction Using Deep Neural Networks

The deep neural network (DNN) binary and multiclass classifiers were constructed with a basic DNN architecture built on stacks of perceptrons, where each subsequent layer is connected to the previous one. Each layer transformed the inputs inputs using the rectified linear activation function or ReLU. The DNN models were constructed to have

- 480 1 input layer, 3 hidden layers with 10 neurons each, followed by layer with 6 neurons.
- 481 Finally, the output layer consists of 3 neurons, for the outputs (classes) and the softmax
- 482 (multi-class) or sigmoid (binary) function.
- 483 In order for a DNN to generate the best possible predictions, we minimized the loss
- 484 function or error of the model using the ADAM optimizer to search for the optimal
- 485 combination of hyperparameters. When setting the optimizer, we defined the learning
- 486 rate to 1e-3. The loss function was set to categorical cross entropy because the targets
- 487 are one-hot encoded.
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643	Data and materials availability:
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645	All requests for materials and data should be addressed to the corresponding author
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TABLES and FIGURES

- Figure 1. Symptoms reported by long hauler patients enrolled in the study.



COVID-19 Long Hauler Symptoms

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Table 1. Immunologic parameters of study participants

	Average	CD3+%	CD4%	CD8%	CD4+PD1+%	CD4+LAG3+%	CD4+CTLA4+%	CD4+FoxP3+%	6 CD8+PD1+ %	CD8+LAG3+ 9	6 CD8+CTLA4+9	6 CD19+%	CD14+0	D16-% C	D16+CD14+%	CD16+CD14-%
	Normals	64.45	53.89	33.83	35.62	0.94	1.51	6.21	43.76	4.35	1.39	6.04	42.	79	9.00	32.68
	Lower CI	54.39	43.21	27.20	28.36	0.49	0.75	4.54	33.50	2.71	0.74	5.04	34.	41	4.60	25.49
	Upper Cl	74.50	64.57	40.46	42.89	1.39	2.26	7.87	54.01	5.99	2.03	7.04	51.	16	13.41	39.86
								-								
	Average	CD3+%	CD4%	CD8%	CD4+PD1+%	CD4+LAG3+%	CD4+CTLA4+%	CD4+FoxP3+%	6 CD8+PD1+ %	CD8+LAG3+ 9	6 CD8+CTLA4+9	6 CD19+%	CD14+0	D16-% C	D16+CD14+%	CD16+CD14-%
689	ong Haule	48.98	56.18	35.36	17.78	0.72	4.06	2.58	31.99	0.71	3.11	13.14	19.	07	29.30	33.86
690																
	Avera	age					GM-		CCL5	CCL3						CCL4
	(pg/ı	ml)	$\text{TNF-}\alpha$	IL-4	IL-13	6 IL-2	CSF	sCD40L (RANTES)	(MIP-1α)	IL-6	IL-10	IFN-γ	VEGF	F IL-8	(MIP-1β)
	Norm	nals	9.09	4.18	3.94	6.17	51.27	7192.39	10781.84	22.82	2.21	0.67	1.94	9.32	16.87	76.84
	Lower O		7.37	2.17	1.79	5.53	25.72	5148.85	9764.99	13.05	1.65	0.42	0.63	6.36	13.03	61.00

Average (pg/ml) Normals	TNF-α	IL-4	IL-13	IL-2	GM- CSF	sCD40L	CCL5 (RANTES)	CCL3 (MIP-1α)	IL-6	IL-10	IFN-γ	VEGF	IL-8	CCL4 (MIP-1β)
Normais	5.05	4.10	3.54	0.17	51.27	/152.55	10701.04	22.02	2.21	0.07	1.54	5.52	10.07	70.04
Lower Cl	7.37	2.17	1.79	5.53	25.72	5148.85	9764.99	13.05	1.65	0.42	0.63	6.36	13.03	61.00
Upper Cl	10.81	6.18	6.09	6.82	76.82	9235.92	11798.68	32.60	2.77	0.92	3.26	12.28	20.72	92.67
Long Haulers	7.72	17.03	4.21	16.16	12.46	18302.41	12505.06	97.81	20.47	12.23	86.60	41.03	35.98	35.10
Mild-Mod	6.82	2.33	2.40	5.90	56.13	10673.72	11627.70	18.75	8.74	0.63	1.15	17.39	17.37	94.40
Severe	5.39	2.39	2.26	5.43	20.31	12306.39	11581.47	16.54	144.15	3.10	2.06	25.52	10.87	64.84

Table 2. Performance Metrics for the Random Forest Classifiers in the test split.

Model	Precision %	Recall %	F1 Score
Long Hauler- Full Features	100	100	1.00
Severe- Full Features	100	100	1.00
Multi-Class- Full Features	100	100	1.00

696 Figure 2. Feature importance for multi-class classifier using Random Forest predictor.



705 Table 3. Performance Metrics of the DNN full feature model in the training and test splits

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DNN	Precision %	Recall %	F1 Score
Multi-Class - Full Features -Train	99	97	0.98
Long Hauler - Full Features -Train	100	100	1.00
Severe - Full Features - Train	98	100	0.99
Multi-Class - Full Features -Test	100	100	1.00
Long Hauler - Full Features -Test	94	94	0.93
Severe - Full Features - Test	75	92	0.79

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708 Figure 3. Full-feature multi-class DNN model confusion matrix for the test split.



710 Table 4. Performance metrics for the minimal deep neural network (mDNN) on the

training and test splits.ModelPrecision %Recall %F1 ScoremDNN-
Training98960.97mDNN- Test82890.84

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Figure 4. Classification abilities of the minimal Deep Neural Network (mDNN) and the discrimination heuristic generated using important variables. A) The confusion matrix for the mDNN classifier denoting the presence of false positives for the severe and other classes. B) Discrimination ability of the heuristic with reduced or most important features identified using Random Forest classifier. The dots represent the data points, where yellow are long haulers, green-severe, dark blue-mild/moderate and light blue-normal.