Adjuvant Discovery via a High Throughput Screen using Human Primary
Mononuclear Cells

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Motivation

Vaccines are a key biomedical intervention to prevent the spread of infectious diseases, but their efficacy can be limited by insufficient immunogenicity and nonuniform reactogenic profiles. Adjuvants are molecules that potentiate vaccine responses by inducing innate immune activation. However, there are a limited number of adjuvants in approved vaccines, and current approaches for preclinical adjuvant discovery and development are inefficient. To enhance adjuvant identification, we developed a protocol based on *in vitro* screening of human primary leukocytes.

Summary

We describe a methodology utilizing high-throughput and high-content screening for novel adjuvant candidates that was used to screen a library of ~2,500 small molecules via a 384-well quantitative combined cytokine and flow cytometry immunoassay in primary human peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) from 4 healthy adult study participants. Hits were identified based on their induction of soluble cytokine (TNF, IFNγ and IL-10) secretion and PBMC maturation (CD 80/86, Ox40, and HLA-DR) in at least two of the four donors screened. From an initial set of 197 compounds identified using these biomarkers—an 8.6% hit rate—we downselected to five scaffolds that demonstrated robust efficacy and potency *in vitro* and evaluated the top hit, vinblastine sulfate, for adjuvanticity *in vivo*. Vinblastine sulfate significantly enhanced murine humoral responses to recombinant SARS-CoV-2 spike protein, including a four-fold enhancement of IgG titer production when compared to treatment with the spike antigen alone. Overall, we outline a methodology for discovering immunomodulators with adjuvant potential via high-throughput screening of PBMCs *in vitro* that yielded a lead compound with *in vivo* adjuvanticity.

Keywords: Vaccines, Adjuvants, Screens, CpG, R848, High Throughput, Vinblastine,

Cytometry, AlphaLISA, Immunoassay.

Introduction

Other than clean drinking water, vaccines are the most impactful public health intervention

in history. The World Health Organization estimates that childhood vaccines have eliminated

diseases like measles and rubella from >80 countries and prevent ~2.5 million deaths each year

(MacDonald et al., 2020). In the United States, the economic burden of vaccine-preventable

diseases was $9 billion in 2015 alone (Ozawa et al., 2016). However, the recent emergence of

the severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) has precipitated a global

pandemic, which has resulted in >500 million cases and nearly six million deaths as of April 2022.

Early estimates anticipate nearly ~$16 trillion in economic losses from this pandemic (Cutler and

Summers, 2020). Overall, there remains an unmet need for novel vaccines to protect against

microbes for which there are no currently approved immunizations (e.g., respiratory syncitial virus,

human immunodeficiency virus) or for which improved vaccines are needed (e.g., pertussis,

tuberculosis, influenza, coronavirus).

Several challenges exist in the modern vaccine development, including waning immunity

and the need to vaccinate immunologically distinct populations such as older adults. The

protection conferred by vaccines for a range of infections such as influenza, mumps, and pertussis

wanes over time (Cohen, 2019). Waning immunity raises a deeper challenge, considering the

prevalence of antigenic drift common in the influenza virus (Collier et al., 2021) and the high

mutability of certain pathogens, such as emerging variants of SARS-CoV-2 (Lauring and Malani,

2021). Even vaccines capable of conferring broad protection against these heterovariant strains

may   not   be   sufficiently   effective   in   individuals   with   distinct   immunity,   such   as   the

immunocompromised, neonates/infants, and older adults (Angelidou et al., 2020; Collier *et al.*,

2021; Pettengill et al., 2016; van Haren et al., 2016b)

These challenges highlight the need for novel adjuvants that enhance the immunogenicity

and effectiveness of vaccines (Nanishi et al., 2020; O'Hagan and Valiante, 2003; Pulendran et

al., 2021; Reed et al., 2013). Adjuvants represent a broad class of vaccine components that

improve vaccine efficacy, stability, and/or durability. Of these broad class of adjuvants, a subset

of small molecules function to improve the immunogenicity of vaccines by activating toll-like

receptors (TLRs) on antigen presenting cells (APCs), such as dendritic cells or macrophages

(Pulendran *et al.*, 2021). This activity stimulates innate immune responses, including the induction

of proinflammatory cytokines. This innate immune activation then helps promote the efficacy and

durability of the adaptive immune responses, from improved antibody (Ab) functionality and

magnitude to enhanced $CD4^+$ T helper cell responses (Burny et al., 2017; Francica et al., 2017;

Petitdemange et al., 2019).

The most longstanding adjuvants are aluminum salts (alum), which induce a robust

humoral response in a safe and cost-effective manner (Kool et al., 2012). However, alum has

limited ability to elicit strong T helper 1 (Th1) cellular immunity, instead skewing largely toward a

Th2 response, especially in a pediatric context (Dowling and Levy, 2015). This skew limits the

effectiveness and applicability of alum as an adjuvant in vaccines against intracellular pathogens

(Oleszycka et al., 2018). These limitations have precipitated the development of novel adjuvant

systems, including squalene-in-water-emulsions, monophosphoryl lipid A (MPLA), and other

small molecule combinations (Reed *et al.*, 2013). Growing the adjuvant pipeline by providing a

consortium of immunostimulatory profiles will enable development of more precise, adaptable,

and effective vaccine formulations (Soni et al., 2020b) (NIAID, 2018).

High-throughput screening (HTS) is a powerful approach for the discovery of new

adjuvants. HTS enables rapid and effective investigation of the immunomodulatory profiles of

thousands of small molecules to identify potential adjuvanticity. Most successful screening

campaigns leverage well-defined cell lines to discover immunomodulatory qualities using very

precise but limited measurements (Hu et al., 2021; Spangenberg et al., 2021; Wong et al., 2015).

While these screens yield precise and controlled results, they do not always accurately capture

the fuller diversity of the immune system since these non-diverse cell lines cannot recapitulate

the full human immune response. Human primary immune cells may more accurately model the

diverse human immune system by enabling the simultaneous study of a variety of relevant cell

types. However, several challenges have been identified in screening paradigms that leverage

primary cells (Dunne et al., 2009), contributing to the dearth of primary cell screening campaigns.

Innate immune activation is important to robust responses across a range of vaccines

(Fourati et al., 2021), providing a conceptual basis for an adjuvant screen based on biomarkers

of innate immune activation. *In vitro* systems that leverage human leukocytes can accurately

model and have predicted the action of adjuvants and vaccines *in vivo* (Levy et al., 2006; Nanishi

et al., 2022; Oh et al., 2016; Philbin et al., 2012; Sanchez-Schmitz et al., 2018). Similarly, the

utilization of autologous plasma, which contains age-specific soluble mediators of immunity, may

help capture relevant leukocytic responses (England et al., 2021; Pettengill et al., 2014). Here,

we describe a robust methodology for HTS utilizing human PBMCs cultured in autologous plasma

for multiplexed soluble (TNF, IFNγ and IL-10) and cellular (CD80/86, Ox40, and HLA-DR)

biomarkers, through which we identified four leading hits that were validated and titratable *in vitro*,

with two of these compounds demonstrating adjuvanticity *in vivo.*

Results

Initial Primary Cell Screen Identifies 197 Hits

To discover novel adjuvant candidates, we screened 2,296 compounds from seven

distinct library plates to assess their potential immunostimulatory qualities. We stimulated

cryopreserved human PBMCs from four young adult study participants (aged 23–27) with these

compounds for 72 hours (Figure 1A-B). To capture the diversity of immunological profiles and

activity, we used a multiplexed readout platform that captured cellular receptor activity of B cells,

T cells, and monocytes using flow cytometry. We also measured cytokine production (TNF, IFN-

γ, and IL-10) using AlphaLISA technology (Figure 1C). This multi-analyte system captures

diverse dimensions of soluble cytokine/interferon primary innate immune responses while also

enabling the discovery of cellular subtype activation and maturation. This comprehensive

soluble and cellular approach is particularly attractive since effective adjuvants activate both

innate and adaptive immunity (Coffman et al., 2010; Sui et al., 2010).

Using a compound concentration of 33 μM, hits were identified as activating zero (black),

one (yellow), two (green), three (blue) or four (red) participant samples, with Z scores ranging

from ~2 – 30 for cytokine induction (Figure 2A), ~2 – 4 for monocyte activation/maturation (Figure

2B), ~2 – 60 for T-cell activation (Figure 2C), ~2 – 15 for B-cell activation/maturation (Figure 2D).

This screen initially identified 197 compounds that demonstrated a sufficient immunomodulatory

characteristic in any of the readouts for $\geq$ 2 of the 4 study participants, providing a hit rate of 8.6%

(Figure 2E). Using TNF as an example readout, 89 compounds hit on one donor sample (yellow),

21 hit on two (green), six hit on three (blue) and four hit on four (red) (Figure 2A). When

considering both receptor-based and cytokine readouts, these 197 compounds demonstrated

non-uniform and variable immunological activity (Figure 2A-E). Similarly, 65 compounds (2.8%)

of these 197 (8.6%) were active in $\geq$3 of the 4 study participants and only 15 (0.65%) were active

in all 4 participants (Figure 2E). The strong negative correlation (R^2 = 0.9958) between number

of study participants and a natural log transformed potential hit rate explains a negative, exponential relationship between these two factors. There were exponentially fewer hit compounds as sample size increased, reflecting the diversity of immune capabilities and responsiveness represented in the human population (Tsuchiya and Ohashi, 2015).

Typically, biological variability is substantially greater than technical variability (Blainey et al., 2014). For the same reason of variability within the population, a demonstration of consistency and reproducibility of the results is imperative. To this end, we tested each compound twice and measured absolute value differences between technical replicates (i.e., if compound X induces Y (replicate 1) and Z (replicate 2) pg/ml TNF, the variability will be calculated at $|Y-Z|$). Across all study participants, compound-induced biomarkers demonstrated a high level of reproducibility, with most absolute value differences between identical wells aggregating near zero (Figures 3A-D). Of the readouts measured, IFNγ and IL-10 (Figures 3B-C) demonstrated the greatest reproducibility between replicates, followed by TNF (Figure 3 A), while combined flow cytometry demonstrates the least (Figure 3D). Similarly, across all assay plates, most positive (R848) and negative (DMSO) control values present coefficient of variance values < 50 (Figure 3E). Even if the hit-calling methodology adjusts and accounts for outliers, these data indicate that the results are highly consistent and reliable across all readout systems.

Hit Confirmation Assays Reconfirm 19 Compounds from Screen

To validate the potential hits attained from the initial screen, we re-tested the 197 potential hit compounds using the same quantitative assays as the initial screen. Results from this confirmation screen informed the downselection of 20 compounds for their ability to induce a Z score >2 for cytokine production (Figure 4A) and/or expression of both monocytic cell-surface antigens (Figure 4B). Bearing in mind the key role of monocytes in regulating both innate and adaptive immunity (Leon and Ardavin, 2008; Varga and Foell, 2018), monocyte receptor expression was prioritized over the other flow cytometry-based measurements. To capture this

dual function, compounds were evaluated for their ability to induce expression of the cell-surface

antigens CD80/86 and HLA-DR. These complexes play an immunostimulatory role in T-cell

activation (Boussiotis et al., 1993; Cheadle, 1993; Fleischer et al., 1996; Wang et al., 2018) and

can skew the immune system towards Th1 or Th2 differentiation (Slavik et al., 1999), suggesting

potential clinical relevance for adjuvanticity (Dhar et al., 2003; Martins et al., 2015) and a possible

association with APC maturation (Dowling et al., 2008). As a result, only these 20 compounds

that demonstrated the ability to cause sufficient induction of both CD80/86 and HLA-DR

expression (Z score >2) were selected for further screening. Confirmation of one biomarker did

not necessarily correspond to confirmation of other biomarkers (Supplementary Figure 1).

Further, not all hits in the primary screen were validated in the confirmation assays, likely due to

the more stringent validation parameters. With each successive confirmation or validation

experiment, compounds were downselected with increasingly rigorous standards.

Concentration Titration and Cytokine QA Assays Identify Four Lead Hits

The 19 compounds validated in the hit confirmation experiment were next re-arrayed onto

separate plates from their original chemical library plates, and tested at concentrations ranging

from 0.25 – 33 μM. For this portion of the screen, we carefully chose a panel of six cytokines,

three as a confirmation from the primary screen and three associated with DC maturation and Th-

polarization (Arango Duque and Descoteaux, 2014; Striz et al., 2014). Initially, at the

therapeutically relevant dosage of 11 μM, four compounds (Figure 4C, Blue) were identified as

lead candidates due to consistent performances across these cytokine biomarkers.

These four lead compounds were lexibulin, amphotericin B, silmitasertib, and vinblastine

sulfate (Figure 5). At maximal efficacy, all four candidates demonstrated a clear separation from

the other compounds (Figure 4C). Additionally, these compounds demonstrated an important

concentration-dependent response for many of the cytokines measured (Figure 5). As a result of

this demonstrated efficacy, titratability, and potency, these four compounds were chosen as lead

adjuvant candidates. The selection criteria prioritized efficacy and titratability while maintaining a

lower floor for potency (Supplementary Table 2). This decision accounted for the importance of

potency, as measured by Log EC_{50}, in ensuring any true adjuvants could be administered at

therapeutically relevant dosages while also aiming to find compounds that could potentially induce

a clinically relevant response. Overall, TNF was the most effectively induced cytokine, with

lexibulin demonstrating the largest maximal efficacy of the downselected candidates (3867

pg/mL), followed by silmitasertib (1627 pg/mL), vinblastine (1622 pg/mL), and lastly amphotericin

B (844.8 pg/mL).

Of note, one compound, not included in this list of four lead adjuvant candidates, triciribine

phosphate, demonstrated very high efficacy in parts of the initial screen but did not perform well

in downselection assays. Triciribine had significantly greater activity in nearly all of the AlphaLISA

assays when compared to the next highest compound, demonstrating ~thousand-fold greater

activity in the confirmation experiment (Supplementary Figure 2). However, it had little activity in

the multiplexed dose titration assays, including TNF induction (Supplementary Figure 3).

To investigate the source of this discrepancy, we tested triciribine with the other four

adjuvant candidates in a quality assurance (QA) assay. In typical AlphaLISA assays, donor beads

specifically bind to the cytokine of interest and acceptor beads attach to the same cytokine at a

different site. When both beads come into close proximity to one another, a light wave is emitted,

enabling measurements of overall luminescence to capture the concentration of the cytokine

(Figure 6A). In this QA assay, compounds were tested in varying sets of conditions with respect

to the assay reagents: with only the acceptor beads (Figure 6B), without any beads (i.e.,

molecules only) (Figure 6C), with only the donor beads (Figure 6D), or with both sets of beads

(Figure 6E).

In all conditions, triciribine demonstrated a significantly larger luminescence ($p < 0.0001$,

one-way ANOVA) when compared to all other tested compounds (Figure 6B-E). In fact, even

without any reagent materials from the AlphaLISA assay, triciribine demonstrated appreciable

luminescence (Figure 6C). This result suggests that triciribine likely functioned as an acceptor

bead mimetic such that when it is excited with 680 nm light wave, the compound emits a 615 nm

light wave that is picked up by the plate reader as an artificial signal (Figure 6D). As a result,

triciribine represents a false positive for the cytokine measurements, as shown by this quality

assurance assay. No similar trends were seen with other compounds, which further corroborated

the adjuvant potential of these compounds.

Post-HTS Evaluation of Adjuvantation

To further advance and validate these screening results in an accepted assay system, we

tested the four adjuvant candidates as well as triciribine for TNF induction using a sandwich

enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA). As expected, the four adjuvant candidates

demonstrated a sufficient TNF induction at a therapeutically relevant dosage of 11 µM (Figure

7A) and clear titratability (Figure 7B), thereby confirming the results of the previous rounds of

screening. This result justified the examination of these compounds for potential adjuvanticity *in*

vivo.

We chose the top compound that demonstrated an appropriate efficacy and potency,

vinblastine sulfate, for *in vivo* investigation. This compound was formulated with spike protein and

administered in a 14-day prime-boost regimen (Figure 7C). At day 14, the vinblastine-adjuvanted

group elicited significantly higher levels of anti-spike IgG than the spike-alone and spike-alum

vaccine conditions [geometric mean titers (GMTs) of 308, 85, and 101, respectively; $p < 0.0001$]

(Figure 7D). By Day 28, both the vinblastine-adjuvanted group (3992 GMT) and the spike-alum

formulated group (6815 GMT) demonstrated greater anti-spike Ab titers than the spike-alone

group (938 GMT). Of note, when compared to the spike-alum formulated group, the vinblastine-

adjuvanted group demonstrated superior Ab titer production at Day 14 ($p<0.0001$) and non-

inferior Ab titers at Day 28, (Figure 7E).

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Discussion

Novel vaccine formulations are some of the most impactful and effective strategies against

the emergence and spread of infectious diseases, as illustrated by the current SARS-CoV-2

pandemic. However, current vaccine development pipelines cost an estimated $1–2 billion per

formulation and can take decades to reach FDA approval (Light et al., 2009; Oyston and

Robinson, 2012). Adjuvant discovery and formulation contribute to this financial and temporal

bottleneck, largely due to the difficulty in finding sufficiently immunogenic, safe, and durable

components that can improve vaccine efficacy. Phenotypic screens, which probe biologically

relevant systems to discover novel phenotypes or functionality of compounds within a tested

library, can aid this expensive and difficult discovery process (Moffat et al., 2017; Zheng et al.,

2013). However, there have been very few successful phenotypic screening campaigns for the

discovery of immunomodulatory compounds, much less for adjuvant discovery. Further, the few

reported HTS campaigns incorporate single, well defined cell lines, limiting the biological

relevance of their results. Here, we discuss a novel methodology and screening campaign that

successfully leverages human primary cells to enable the identification of four screening hits

demonstrating immunomodulation, with one compound presenting adjuvanticity. This

methodology proffers a relatively cheap, fast, and effective strategy for adjuvant discovery.

Our screen identified four screening hits (Supplementary Table 3) that are known

medications and bioactives used in a non-vaccine context. Of these, lexibulin, triciribine, and

silmitasertib have known antiviral properties (Bouhaddou et al., 2020; Kalkeri et al., 2020; Porcari

et al., 2003). Consistient with our findings, another hit, amphotericin, has been proposed as a

TLR2 agonist adjuvant (Salyer et al., 2016). Our screen also identified our lead screening hit

vinblastine sulfate, a vinka alkaloid extracted from the flowering herb *Vinca minor* (periwinkle) that

prevents cell division by binding microtubular proteins in the mitotic spindle. While typically

conceived of as an inhibitor of mitosis, vinblastine sulfate has also been noted to enhance DC

maturation (Tanaka et al., 2009), consistent with our findings.

While phenotypic screens have been proposed to expand the pipeline of

immunostimulatory adjuvants (Tom et al., 2019), few successful screens have been reported

(Buckner et al., 2006; Garcia-Cordero et al., 2013; Wong *et al.*, 2015). Further, these existing

adjuvant-oriented screens exclusively utilize single, well defined cell lines, such as murine

macrophage reporter cell lines or cultured bone marrow-derived dendritic cells. This approach

enables the study of precise readouts and conditions in a reproducible and readily scalable

manner, which is attractive considering the high levels of variability inherent in many screening

paradigms (Ding et al., 2017; Fallahi-Sichani et al., 2013). However, the major limitation of this

approach is that it fails to represent the robust and diverse functionality of the immune system,

instead de-contextualizing cellular functions from the nuanced and highly interactive systems that

exist in natural immunity.

Using human primary cells, as opposed to these conventional and non-diverse samples,

enables the study of a variety of cell types and therefore provides a more robust and complete

immunological profile of screened compounds. Notably, PBMCs include a diverse range of human

immune cells including monocytes, dendritic cells, macrophages, T cells, B cells, and natural killer

cells (Kleiveland, 2015). This cell composition captures not only the adaptive immune response

from T and B cells also the innate immune response mounted by monocytes, NK cells, and

importantly DCs. Monocytes, macrophages, and DCs are largely responsible for TLR-mediated

responses in immunological contexts (Kawasaki and Kawai, 2014). However, TLR expression

patterns have been demonstrated to be largely variable, including amongst these cell subtypes

(Applequist et al., 2002; Zarember and Godowski, 2002). Thus, PBMCs can be valuable models

of investigation in screening paradigms due to their capacity to advantageously capture broad

TLR activity (Slavik *et al.*, 1999) while also capturing the adaptive immune response mediated by

innate immune activation. In turn, this approach may therefore enable more relevant and effective

identification of adjuvant candidates in screening campaigns.

In our HTS platform, we tested 2,296 compounds, identified 197 hits, confirmed and

downselected to 20 compounds, finalized four robust immunostimulatory leads, and tested the

top candidate for *in vivo* adjuvanticity. When formulated with spike protein and tested in a murine

in vivo model, the adjuvant candidate, vinblastine sulfate, enhanced humoral immune responses,

as demonstrated by increased Ab titers compared to spike protein alone. Remarkably, this titer

was significantly greater than the anti-spike Ab titers induced by an alum and spike formulation at

Day 14 and was non-inferior to the alum-adjuvanted formulation at Day 28. Thus, starting from

~2,500 compounds, this HTS program identified a compound, vinblastine sulfate, that performed

comparably *in vivo* to the AH adjuvant benchmark. Of note, despite using human primary cells in

a context of high-content HTS, the results were highly consistent, suggesting that our approach

was able to control the added biological variability of utilizing primary cells while enabling the

discovery of small molecule adjuvants.

Overall, our innovative screening approach presents clear advantages and strengths,

including: (a) providing a rapid, reliable, and cost-effective system capable of testing

immunomodulatory profiles of thousands of small molecules; (b) using an unbiased human

primary immune cell screening platform, including the use of autologous plasma, a rich source of

immunomodulatory factors (Pettengill *et al.*, 2014; Sanchez-Schmitz et al., 2020; van Haren et

al., 2016a), to enable more informative HTS evaluations as compared to more commonly

leveraged cell lines; and (c) demonstrating system efficacy through the identification of three novel

adjuvant candidates. Limitations of this methodology include: (a) inherent variability of human

primary cells as compared to cell lines due to the diversity of human immune responses; (b)

limited diversity of immunological readouts; and (c) utilization of chemical plates of known

bioactive compounds, which have higher baseline likelihood of immunological activity.

Neverthless, this methodology establishes the validity, potential, and precedent for larger-scale

screens using human primary cells for adjuvant discovery.

Our screening methodology provides considerable flexibility in measuring soluble (eg,

cytokine) and cell-associated (e.g., surface receptor) biomarkers. This powerful and innovative

approach enables future screens that tailor soluble and cellular biomarkers for optimized

discovery and precise functionality without sacrificing the added depth of information that comes

from testing human primary cells. In future screens, more diverse and novel chemical libraries

can be tested to discover truly novel small molecule adjuvants and further develop the existing

library of approved and available adjuvants (Pulendran *et al.*, 2021). These opportunities will

hopefully allow researchers to push adjuvant discovery and formulation development to progress

in parallel with our growing knowledge of prevalent infectious diseases.

356 **Stars Methods**

357 **Key resource table**

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
CD134 (OX40) Antibody, anti-human, APC, REAfinity™ (Clone- REA621)	Miltenyi Biotec	Order Number: 130-122-227
CD80 Antibody, anti-human, PE, REAfinity™ (Clone-REA661)	Miltenyi Biotec	Order Number: 130-123-253
CD19 Antibody, anti-human, VioBlue, REAfinity™ (Clone-REA675)	Miltenyi Biotec	Order Number: 130-120-031
HLA-DR Antibody, anti-human, FITC, REAfinity™(Clone- REA805)	Miltenyi Biotec	Order Number: 130-111-788
CD86 Antibody, anti-human, PE, REAfinity™ (Clone-REA968)	Miltenyi Biotec	Order Number: 130-116-160
HRP-conjugated anti-mouse IgG	Southern Biotec	Catalog Number #1036-05
HRP-conjugated anti-mouse IgG1	Southern Biotec	Catalog Number #1071-05
HRP-conjugated anti-mouse IgG2c	Southern Biotec	Catalog Number #1036-05
Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins		
Full-length SARS-CoV-2 Spike glycoprotein	Barney S. Graham (NIH Vaccine Research Center)	GenBank: MN90894
Dimethyl Sulfoxide ACS	MP Biomedicals	Catalog Number: 191418
Dimethyl Sulfoxide-D6	Sigma-Aldrich	Product Number: 1.03424
Paraformaldehyde, 16% w/v aq. Soln., methanol free	Alfa Aesar	Stock Number: 43368
Sterile Water for Irrigation, USP, 100mL	Baxter International	SKU: 2F7114
Reagent Alcohol (Denatured Alcohol), 70% (v/v)	Ricca Chemical Company	Catalog Number: 2546.70-1
UltraPure™ Distilled Water	Invitrogen	Reference Number: 10977-015
100% PEG-300	Fisher Scientific	Catalog Number: NC0630366
0.9% Sodium Chloride Injection, USP	Hospira, Inc.	Item Code: NDC00409-4888-03
Tween-80	Fisher Scientific	Catalog Number: NC1629718
Heparin Sodium Injection, 10,000 USP units per 10 mL	Fresenius Kabi	Item Code: NDC63323-540-05
Ficoll-Paque™ Sterile Solution	Cytiva	Item Code: 17544203
Resiquimod	Fisher Scientific	Item Code: 501493020
ODN2395	Fisher Scientific	Catalog Number: NC9909905
Vinblastine Sulfate	Fisher Scientific	Item Code: 501363895

Amphotericin B	Fisher Scientific	Item Code: 501874070
Lexibulin	Fisher Scientific	Item Code: 501968239
Triciribine Phosphate	Fisher Scientific	Item Code: 501360934
Silmitasertib	Fisher Scientific	Item Code: 501873883
Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium	Gibco	Reference Number: 10566-106
Trypan Blue Stain (0.4%)	Gibco	Reference Number: 15250-061
Dulbecco's Phosphate Buffered Saline	Gibco	Reference Number: 14190-144
BD OptEIA™ Substrate Reagent Set	BC Biosciences	Manufacturer ID: BD 555214
Tween-20	Fisher Scientific	Catalog Number: BP337-500
Bovine Serum Albumin	Sigma-Aldrich	Product Number: A7030-500g
Sulfuric Acid	Millipore Sigma	Catalog Number: ååSX1244-5
UltraPure™ 0.5 M EDTA, pH 8.0	Invitrogen	Reference Number: 15575-038
Critical commercial assays		
TNF-α AlphaLISA Detection Kit, 5,000 Assay Points	PerkinElmer	Product Number: AL208F
IFN-γ AlphaLISA Detection Kit, 5,000 Assay Points	PerkinElmer	Product Number: AL217F
IL-10 AlphaLISA Detection Kit, 5,000 Assay Points	PerkinElmer	Product Number: AL218F
Human TNF alpha Uncoated ELISA Assay Kit	Invitrogen	Reference Code: 88-7346-88
Customized Fluorometric bead-based array Multiplex kit	Sigma-Aldrich	Product Code: HCYTA-60K
Experimental models: Organisms/strains		
BALB/cJ mice	Jackson laboratory	Stock #000651
Software and algorithms		
GraphPad Prism v8.3.1 for MacOS	GraphPad	https://www.graphpad.com
FlowJo v10	Becton Dickinson & Company	https://www.flowjo.com
R v4.1.0	R Core Team	https://www.r-project.org

Resource Availability

Lead Contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be

fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Dr. David Dowling (David.dowling@childrens.harvard.edu).

Materials availability

This study did not generate new unique reagents.

Data and Code Availibåity

- All data reported in this paper will be shared by the lead contact upon request.
- Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this article is available from the lead contact upon request.

Experimental Model and Subject Details

Human Peripheral Blood Samples

Peripheral blood (PB) was collected from healthy adult volunteers (n = 4 individual participants; Age and Sex: 23F, 25M, 27F, 27F) with approval from the Institutional Review Board of the Boston Children's Hospital (protocol number X07-05-0223). Blood was anticoagulated with 1000 United States Pharmacopeia (USP) units heparin per mL of blood (Fresenius Kabi, Bad Homburg, Germany). Heparinized human blood was layered onto Ficoll-Hypaque gradients and the mononuclear cell (MC) layer was collected. PBMCs were washed 2 times with phosphate buffered saline (PBS), and live cell count determined using trypan blue (Sigma Aldrich; St Louis, MO). PBMCs were stored at -80°C with 50 million cells/1 mL for a total 1 mL per cryopreservation tube, with the liquid phase constituting 90% autologous plasma and 10% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO). After overnight freezing at 80°C in isopropanol-insulated containers to ensure linear freezing, the tubes were moved to long term liquid nitrogen storage. All study participants signed an informed consent form prior to enrollment.

Animals

388 3-month-old female BALB/c mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME).

389 Mice were housed under specific pathogen-free conditions at Boston Children's Hospital, and all

390 the procedures were approved under the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC)

391 and operated under the supervision of the Department of Animal Resources at Children's

392 Hospital (ARCH) (Protocol number 19-02-3897R).

Method Details

Human PBMC Preparation for Screening

Cryopreserved human PBMCs were thawed for screening use. First, autologous plasma was

thawed and centrifuged (25°C, 3000 x g, 10 min). Cryopreserved cells were thawed in a 37°C

water bath for 3 min. 1 mL of autologous heparinized plasma was added to the tubes of

cryopreserved cells and the cells were transferred to a 50 mL conical tube. Then, 3 mL of

autologous plasma and 45 mL of DMEM were added dropwise as the tube was swirled. The cells

were centrifuged at 500 g for 10 min and resuspended to 10 mL in DMEM with 10% autologous

plasma, stained with trypan blue (Sigma Aldrich), and counted using a hemocytometer. Once

counted, PBMCs were diluted in DMEM supplemented with 10% autologous plasma to a

concentration of 50,000 cells/30 μL (1.67×10^6 cells/mL). PBMCs in 10% autologous plasma were

then added to 384 well Corning 3656 microplates (Corning, Corning, NY) using a Multidrop Combi

Reagent Dispenser (ThermoScientific, Waltham, MA).

Compound Libraries and Pinning

2,296 molecules were screened (Supplementary Table 1) and derived from the rolling and curated

ICCB-Longwood Screening Facility at Harvard Medical School. All plates used a 384 well format.

704 molecules were chosen for known activity toward PBMCs; these molecules filled up two

library plates and originated from the ChemDiv6 library (ChemDiv Inc, San Diego, CA). Another

1592 molecules were chosen from the Selleck bioactive chemical plates (Selleck Chemicals LLC,

Houston, TX). The compounds (stored at 10 mM in dessicated conditions) were pinned at a

volume of 100 nL, for a final concentration of 33 μM in a 384 well format. 5 μL of 0.3%

DMSO(Millipore, Burlington, MA) diluted in DMEM, the negative control, and the TLR9 agonist

ODN2395 and the TLR7/8 agonist R848 (both from Invivogen, San Diego, CA), the positive

controls, were added to the wells manually for final concentrations of 1μM and 25 μM respectively.

PBMCs were then stimulated for 72 hours at 37˚C, 5% CO_2 in a humidified ThermoScientific

Forma CO_2 Incubator (Waltham, MA).

Supernatant Collection

After 72 hours, plates were centrifuged at 500 g for 10 min at 25˚C with low brake, and

supernatants collected using an Agilent Velocity 11 VPrep. 15 μL of supernatant were removed

and transferred to an Eppendorf twin.tec PCR Plate 384 (Cat. 951020729, Hamburg, Germany).

Plates were centrifuged at 500 g for 10 seconds and three aliquots of 2 μL of supernatant

transferred to PerkinElmer AlphaPlate 6005359 (Waltham, MA) twice (using up a total of 4 μl of

the supernatant). The three AlphaPlates were sealed with aluminum plate sealers and stored at -

80˚C.

Preparation for Flow Cytometry

After supernatants were harvested, plates with cells were centrifuged at 500 g for 10 min at 4˚C

and the remaining supernatant removed. Using a Combi reagent dispenser, 20 μL of cold 250

mM EDTA was added to each well. Plates were shaken using a Labline 4625 Titer Plate Shaker

(Labline Instruments, Melrose Park, IL) at 700 rpm for 10 min and then centrifuged at 750 g for

10 minutes at 4˚C. EDTA was removed and cells were washed with 30 μL of PBS. After the wash,

an antibody cocktail consisting of Miltenyi REAfinity Recombinant antibodies HLA-DR Ox40 APC

REA621 (Bergisch Gladbach, Germany) was diluted 1:100 in PBS and 5 µL were added to each

well using the Combi reagent dispenser. Plates were incubated at 4°C for 1 hr prior to washing

cells with 40 µL PBS. Plates were centrifuged at 750 g and 20 µL of 1% paraformaldehyde was

added to each well. Plates were then stored at 4°C. Before acquisition of cells by flow cytometry

(which occurred at least one day but no longer than a week post fixation), plates were centrifuged

at 750 g for 10 min at 4°C, paraformaldehyde removed via a wash and 20 µL of PBS was added.

Flow Cytometry on iQue

High-throughput flow cytometry was completed using a Sartorius IntelliCyt iQue3 with 384 well

cellular acquisition, employing iQue Forecyt Software (Essen BioScience, Ann Harbor, MI).

Acquisition was designed to analyze populations of monocytes, B cells, and T cells, with the

following percent positive metrics calculated for each well: HLA-DR$^+$ Monocytes, CD80/CD86$^+$

Monocytes, HLA-DR/CD80/CD86$^+$ Monocytes, HLA-DR$^+$ B Cells, CD80/CD86$^+$ B Cells, HLA-

DR/CD80/CD86$^+$ B Cells, and Ox40$^+$ T cells. Supplementary Figure 4 describes the typical gating

strategy.

Cytokine Quantification for the PBMC Screen

Concentrations of tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF), interferon gamma (IFN-γ), and interleukin

10 (IL-10) were quantified in the supernatant from the PBMCs using an AlphaLISA assay

(PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA). AlphaPlates containing 2 µL of supernatant were thawed at 25°C

for 15 minutes. The provided assay procedure was followed, and the reagents were dispensed

using a Combi reagent dispenser. In brief, for TNF, Anti-TNFα Acceptor beads and Biotinylated

Antibody Anti-TNFα Mix were prepared per the manufacturer's instructions and 8 µL of this

cocktail were added to all wells. The plates were centrifuged at 500 g for 10 min at 25°C with low

brake to bring the reagents to the well bottom. Plates were covered but not sealed and incubated

in the dark at 25°C for 1 hr. Streptavadin Donor bead mixture was prepared per the manufacturer's

instructions and 10 µL were added to all wells. Plates were covered with another plate and

incubated at 25°C in the dark for 30 minutes. For IFN-γ, the same procedure was followed except

for the reagents in the respective kit. For IL-10, the mixes were prepared and 2 µL of the Anti-IL-

10 Acceptor beads and Biotinylated Antibody Anti IL-10 Mix was added to each well. The plates

were incubated for 60 min and then 16 µL of the Streptavadin Donor bead mixture was added to

each plate. Plates were read using a PerkinElmer Envision Plate Reader (PerkinElmer, Waltham,

MA) according to the following specifications: A1-384 aperture, Mirror Module Barcode 444, EMS

filter Barcode 244 (570nm).

Hit Calling Methodology

All well-based data from the high throughput AlphaLISA luminescence readings were exported

as comma-separate values (CSV) files from the Envision Plate Reader. High throughput flow

cytometry data were analyzed employing iQue ForeCyt analysis software and results exported as

CSV files. Data were initially analyzed and transformed by the quality assurance team at ICCB-

L. Statistical analyses were conducted on a plate-by-plate basis. A Z' factor was calculated for

each assay plate based on positive controls (25 µM R848 and 1 µM ODN2395) in column 24 and

negative controls (0.3% DMSO) in column 23. Prior to hit calling for the luminescence readings

from all AlphaLISA readouts, luminescent intensity values were $\log_{10}$-transformed and the median

of each plate calculated. The absolute difference between the $\log_{10}$ of each value and the median

of the corresponding plate was calculated. The median of the absolute differences was also

calculated. From the median and median absolute difference, a z-score based on the $\log_{10}$ of

each value was calculated. For hit calling criteria, if the z-score was >2 for both duplicates, the

molecule was considered a hit for that donor in that readout. The hit calling methodology for the

percent positive readings from the high-throughput flow cytometry was identical to the

luminescence readings except that instead of $\log_{10}$, the raw percent positive was used in the

calculation of the plate median, median absolute difference, and z-score. Each of the 2,296

compounds screened in the PBMC screen was tested in duplicate for each of the four donors. A

molecule was registered as a potential hit for a particular donor if any of the readouts registered

the molecule as a hit. Further, a molecule was moved onto the confirmation screen if it registered

as a potential hit in two of the four donors.

Confirmation Screen Readouts and Hit Calling

To more closely align with the results seen in the primary screen, PBMCs from the same four

donors were utilized. PBMCs were thawed, cultured in 10% autologous plasma and 90% DMEM,

and plated as in the primary screen. The 197 potential hit compounds were arrayed into a

polypropylene 384-well at a concentration of 10 mM and a volume of 1.5 μL. 13.5 μL of DMEM

was added to each well and 1 μL was then added to the plated PBMCs for a final concentration

of 33 μM, as per the primary screen. PBMCs were incubated with the molecules for 72 hr.

Harvesting of supernatants, cytokine assay, and flow cytometry were performed as in the primary

screen. As the hit calling method in the primary screen could not be employed (z score calculated

based on the entire plate would give inaccurate hits), a new method of z score calculation was

used. A z-score was determined for each value based on the average and standard deviation of

the negative control (DMSO). Accordingly, thresholds were adjusted so that a z-score > 3 in both

duplicates was a hit in that donor for a given readout. If a compound scored positive in one donor

for cytokine or monocyte readouts, regardless of whether this was the positive readout from the

primary screen, it was considered a confirmed hit and advanced to a dose titration confirmation.

AlphaLISA Quality Assurance Assay

For quality assurance (QA), we assessed whether hit molecules truly induced cytokine production

or were false positives by artefactually enhanced signal in the AlphaLISA assay. Confirmed

compounds were incubated with Anti-TNF Acceptor beads and Biotinylated Antibody Anti TNF

Mix and Streptavadin Donor beads, Anti-TNF Acceptor beads and Biotinylated Antibody Anti TNF

Mix only, or Streptavadin Donor beads at concentrations of 33 or 100µM and incubated per the

AlphaLISA protocol as above. For the conditions that only received one type of bead, buffer

without beads was added at the other time point (eg. Acceptor only condition received 10 µL of

buffer instead of donor beads). Plates were read using an Envision Plate Reader per the following

specifications: A1-384 aperture, Mirror Module Barcode 444, EMS filter Barcode 244 (570nm).

Dose Titration Confirmation

PBMCs from the same four donors were used in order to align with the results seen in the primary

and confirmation screen. PBMCs were thawed and plated in the same manner as the primary and

confirmation screen. Using a Hewlett Packard HPD300e, compounds were serially diluted in

duplicate at 1:2 in an 8-point dose titration curve with a top concentration of 33µM and 0.3%

DMSO in each well. Controls included 0.3% DMSO, 1 µM ODN 2395, and 25 µM R848. PBMCs

(30µL, 50,000 per well) were then plated on top of the molecule using a Combi reagent dispenser.

PBMCs were incubated with the molecules for 72 hr prior to harvesting supernatants using an

Angilent Vprep. 10 µL of the supernatants were stored in Eppendorf twin.tec PCR Plates at -80˚C

and subsequently analyzed for IFN-γ, IL-1β, IL-10, IL-12p70, CXCL-10, and TNF using a

fluorometric bead-based array Multiplex kit (Millipore; Billerica, MA) and a Luminex Multiplex

Instrument (Millipore), following the manufacturer's recommendations.

Further *in vitro* and *in vivo* Assays

Cryopreserved PBMCs from seven additional study participants were used to evaluate the top hit

molecules in further *in vitro* assays. PBMCs were thawed in the same manner as the primary and

confirmation screens and diluted to 300,000 cells/180 µL (1.67×10^6 cells/mL). The top hit

molecules from the screen were run side-by-side with negative (1% DMSO) and positive (R848;

top 100µM) controls in an 8-point dose-response experiment starting at a top concentration of

100 µM and going down to 46 nM, with each molecule and R848 tested in triplicate for each donor.

DMSO was tested in duplicate per donor. 180 µL of cells and 20 µL of diluted compound were

added to a Falcon 353227 TC-treated U-Bottom 96 well plate (Corning, Corning NY). The cells

were then stimulated for 24 hours at 37˚C, 5% CO_2 in a humidified ThermoScientific Forma CO_2

Incubator (Waltham, MA). After 24 hours, the plates were spun down at 500 g for 10 minutes at

25˚C with low brake and the supernatants were manually collected. TNF concentrations in the

supernatants were measured by ELISA (Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, Cat# 88-7346).

The top adjuvant candidate, Vinblastine, was injected into mice at 50 nmol per treatment. Mice

were injected with 1 µg of full-length SARS-CoV-2 spike glycoprotein (M1-Q1208, GenBank

MN90895) formulated with or without candidate adjuvants. A mock treatment group received a 50

µL injection of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Intramuscular injections were administered in

the caudal thigh on days 0 and 14, and serum was collected 2 weeks following each immunization.

Serum IgG, IgG1, and IgG2a concentrations were measured by antibody binding ELISA, using

an established protocol.

Quantification and Statistical Analysis

Statistical analyses employed Prism v9.0.2 (GraphPad Software) and R software environment

v4.0.4. Data were analyzed by one-way ANOVAs followed by post-hoc Tukey's test for multiple

comparisons in Figure 7. For all statistical significance: *$p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$, **** $p < 0.001$,**** p

< 0.0001. Individual n values in figure 7A-B represents individual human samples from different

study participants and individual n values in Figure 7D-E represent individual mice. Mean and

SEM was used for all precision measures.

Graphics

Figures 1, 3E, 6A, and 7C were made using Biorender.com.

Acknowledgements

We thank the members of the BCH *Precision Vaccine Program* for helpful discussions. We thank Drs. Kevin Churchwell, Gary Fleisher, David Williams, and Mr. August Cervini for their support of the *Precision Vaccines Program*. D.J.D. thanks Ms. Siobhan McHugh, Ms. Geneva Boyer, Mrs. Lucy Conetta and the staff of Lucy's Daycare, the staff the YMCA of Greater Boston, Bridging Independent Living Together (BILT), Inc., and the Boston Public Schools for childcare and educational support during the COVID-19 pandemic. This study was supported in part by US National Institutes of Health National Institutes of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (NIAID) awards, including Adjuvant Discovery (HHSN272201400052C and 75N93019C00044) and Development (HHSN272201800047C) Program Contracts to O.L. D.J.D.'s laboratory is supported by NIH grant (1R21AI137932-01A1), Adjuvant Discovery Program contract (75N93019C00044). The *Precision Vaccines Program* is supported in part by the BCH Department of Pediatrics and the Chief Scientific Office. The high throughput screen was conducted at the ICCB-Longwood Screening Facility at Harvard Medical School and the authors thank the ICCB-L team for their support.

Author contributions

BL and KC designed, performed, and analyzed the experiments in addition to writing and editing the manuscript. EN, TRO, MDL, DS, performed the experiments and edited the manuscript. JAS provided design feedback and edited the manuscript. HSS and SDP expressed and purified SARS-CoV-2 spike protein. AO and JBS provided design feedback and contributed to the statistical analysis. OL, SVH, and DJD conceived the project, designed the experiments, and edited the manuscript.

Declaration of Interests

SVH, OL, EN, TRO, and DJD are named inventors on vaccine adjuvant patents assigned to Boston Children's Hospital. OL served has served as a paid consultant to Moody's Analytics and the Mid-Size Bank Coalition of America. These commercial or financial relationships are unrelated to the current study.

Figures

Figure 1: Graphic overview of a multiplexed high throughput screen for novel

immunomodulators using human primary cells.

A. Human peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were isolated and cryopreserved in 10%

DMSO and 90% autologous plasma for long-term liquid nitrogen storage. **B**. The cells were

thawed, cultured in 10% autologous plasma and 90% DMEM, and distributed onto a 384 well

plate. These wells stimulated with screening compounds dissolved in DMSO for a 72 hour

incubation at 37ºC. **C**. PBMCs were fixated with antibodies for iQue advanced flow cytometry,

and cytokine concentrations measured in supernatants employing AlphaLISA. Hit compounds

from this initial screen were selected for confirmation assay. **D**. Confirmed hits were tested in a

quality assurance (QA) experiment by AlphaLISA and further tested in a dose titration and

multiplexed cytokine assay.

Figure 2: Overview of primary High Throughput Screen data.

A. Distribution of z scores, indicating induction of the cytokines (IFN, IL-10, and TNF). **B**. Distribution of z scores, representing the percentage of monocytes with activated HLA-DR and/or CD80/86 receptors. **C**. Distribution of z scores, representing the percentage of T-Cells with activated Ox40 receptors. **D**. Distribution of z scores, representing the percentage of B-Cells with activated HLA-DR and/or CD80/86 receptors. **E.** graphical representation of small molecule hit rate in varying number of donors. natural log of hit rate. **F**. Strong negative correlation between number of donors. Each dot represents one of the 2,296 compounds from the primary screen. The dashed line represents the donor threshold of a z score of 2 and representative z scores were chosen such that any compound above the threshold represents a hit in the screen.

Figure 3: Consistency of HTS results across study participants.

A-D. Distribution of absolute value differences between technical replicate values for cytokine (TNF, IL-10, and IFN), and high-throughput flow cytometry results (CD80/86, HLA-DR. OX-40), respectively. Each dot represents an individual absolute value difference between technical replicates. Red lines indicate the quantile lines for the absolute value differences for each donor. **E**. Distribution of the coefficient of variation (CV) for positive control compounds (R848 and CpG ODN) across all study participants. Dotted lines represent thresholds of CV quality measures. Dashed lines demarkate typically accepted thresholds for excellent (<10) , good (<30), acceptable (<50) , and poor (>50) CV values.

Figure 4: Confirmation and titration of high throughput screening hits.

A. Distribution of z scores, representing the percentage of monocytes with activated HLA-DR and/or CD80/86 receptors. The dashed line represents the hit threshold of a z score of 2. All receptor combinations must be increased for a compound to be classified as a confirmed hit.

B. Distribution of z scores, representing production of IFN, IL-10, and TNF. The dashed line represents the hit threshold of a z score of 2. **C**. Rank order of mean cytokine induction (± SEM) at 11 µM for the 19 compounds selected for the multiplexed concentration titration assay based on the results of the monocyte receptor activation and cytokine induction in the confirmation experiment.

Figure 5: Experimental and compositional characteristics of the top four high throughput screen hits. Selection criteria for the top screening hits include demonstrations of titratability, robust efficacy in inducing multiple cytokines, and satisfactory potency. Chemical structure, well identification, and multiplexed concentration titration experimental data shown for these top screening hits: **A.** Lexibulin, **B.** Amphotericin, **C.** Silmitasertib, and **D.** Vinblastine.

Figure 6: Quality assurance assay identifies a false positive compound that is an acceptor

bead mimetic. Triciribine, a screening hit with low efficacy, low potency, and non-titratability, was

found to be a potential acceptor compound in the AlphaLISA assay**. A**. Schematic representation

of triciribine's acceptor bead mimetic functionality.**B-E**. Luminescence of leading screen hits under

different combinations of donor and acceptor bead additions. Results for each combination were

analyzed by one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey's test for multiple comparisons. For

statistical significance calculations: *$p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$, **** $p < 0.001$,**** $p < 0.0001$**. F.**

Luminescence of triciribine, under four AlphaLISA kit conditions summarized. Data for this

compound were analyzed by one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey's test for multiple

comparison

Figure 7: *Assessment* of downselected high-throughput hits for *in vitro* and *in vivo*

adjuvanticity. **A**. TNF induction of leading screen hits at 11 µM. Data for each combination were

analyzed by one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Dunn's test for multiple comparison. Black

stars indicate comparison to the DMSO control group. N=10 per condition. **B**. TNF induction by

the four screening hits and triciribine phosphate for cryopreserved human PBMCs in a dosage-

dependent manner. Results shown are mean ± SEM TNF concentration and fold change over

DMSO negative control. N=10 per condition. **C.** Schematic representation of the prime-boost

vaccination paradigm. Female 3-month-old BALB/c mice were immunized IM on days 0 and 14

with 1 µg of SARS-CoV-2 spike trimer. **D.** Anti-spike IgG titers at Day 14. Data for each

combination were analyzed by one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Turkey's test for multiple

comparisons. Blue-green stars indicate comparison to the spike-only control group. N=7 per

condition. **E.** Anti-spike IgG at Day 28. Data for each combination were analyzed by one-way

ANOVA followed by post-hoc Turkey's test for multiple comparison. Blue-green stars indicate

comparison to the spike-only control group. N=7 per condition. For statistical significance

calculations: *$p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$,**** $p < 0.0001$

Supplementary Figures

Supplementary Figure 1: Triciribine Phosphate Historical AlphaLISA Performance

Triciribine average z score in each AlphaLISA assay is compared to the highest non-Triciribine z score in the corresponding experiment. While the raw z scores are calculated differentially in the cherry pick experiment and the primary screen, triciribine demonstrated a consistently sizeable luminescence that ranges from ~3 fold up to ~1000 fold greater than the next highest luminescence.

Supplementary Figure 2: Triciribine Phosphate Concentration Titration Assay Results

Human PBMCs were cultured in 90% DMEM and 10% autologous PPP and stimulated with triciribine phosphate at an 8-point concentration titration from 0.25 µM to 33 µM. Cytokine induction was measured using a Millipore multiplex assay. Evidently, Triciribine demonstrates a weak cytokine induction outside of the AlphaLISA assay system, indicating that Triciribine is a weak immunomodulator.

Supplementary Figure 3: UpSet Plot demonstrating Intersections of Biomarkers from the

Confirmation Assay

Frequencies of intersecting hit biomarkers demonstrate a non-uniform and non-predictive relationship between biomarker system.

  Supplementary Figure 4: Representative Gating Strategy

The gating strategy was used for the identification of activated or naiive B cells, T cells, and

monocytes. The activation markers used were HLA-DR and CD80/86 for monocytes and B cells

as well as Ox40 for T cells.

Supplementary Table 1: Screened Compounds

The 2,296 compounds are identified by their compound name (if applicable), well and plate

identification, molar concentration, and chemical vendor.

A

Cytokine	Log EC50	Log EC50 Rank	Max Efficacy (pg/mL)	Max Efficacy Rank
TNF	2.414	6	3867	1
IL10	0.6176	9	12.23	2
IP10	0.4567	12	398.2	5
IFN	0.1167	8	1897	3
IL1β	0.2333	11	1140	3
IL12P70	1.295	14	5.871	2

C

Cytokine	Log EC50	Log EC50 Rank	Max Efficacy (pg/mL)	Max Efficacy Rank
TNF	3.959	8	1627	3
IL10	0.9383	11	10.5	5
IP10	1.235	16	260.1	8
IFN	-0.2688	3	112	8
IL1β	0.6775	15	576.4	5
IL12P70	-0.2816	3	2.806	8

B

Cytokine	Log EC50	Log EC50 Rank	Max Efficacy (pg/mL)	Max Efficacy Rank
TNF	5.955	11	844.8	5
IL10	0.3946	7	10.72	4
IP10	-0.9525	2	71.715	17
IFN	0.01218	6	271.6	6
IL1β	0.1478	10	905.6	4
IL12P70	1.668	18	2.795	9

D

Cytokine	Log EC50	Log EC50 Rank	Max Efficacy (pg/mL)	Max Efficacy Rank
TNF	0.0636	3	1622	3
IL10	0.4163	8	9.382	6
IP10	-0.1818	8	82.49	16
IFN	-0.2352	5	398.7	4
IL1β	-0.08816	6	413.5	6
IL12P70	0.9511	10	2.578	11

703 **Supplementary Table 2: Potency and Efficacy Summaries for Screening Finalists in the**

704 **Concentration Titration Experiment.**

705 Potency and efficacy as measured by EC_{50} and maximal cytokine induction for each biomarker

706 shown for **A.** Lexibulin**, B.** Amphotericin, **C.** Silmitasertib**,** and **D.** Vinblastine Four parameter

707 line curve estimations and EC_{50} calculations employed GrahPad Prism 9.0.

Drug	Diseases	Regulatory Status	Previously Recorded Immunological Activity	Alternative Mechanism of Action
Lexibulin	Multiple Myeloma, Glioblastoma.	Phase II Discontinued	Potential Antiviral Activity	Rapid Reorganization of Microtubules
Vinblastine	Breast cancer, Testicular cancer, Neuroblastoma, Hodgkin's and Non-Hodgkin's Lymphoma, and Histiocytosis.	FDA Approved	Dendritic Cell maturation, Potential Adjuvanticity.	Microtubule Assembly Inhibition
Silmitasertib	Breast Cancer*, Severe Covid 19*, Advanced Cholangiocarcinoma**.	Phase II*, Orphan Drug Status**	Potential Antiviral, Antifungal Activity	Protein Kinase CK2 Inhibition
Amphotericin B	Fungal Infections, Visceral Leishmaniasis, Primary Amoebic Meningoencephalitis.	FDA Approved	Antifungal and Antiparasitic Activity	Cell Membrane Disruption

709 **Supplementary Table 3: Top HTS Campaign Hits**

710 The four lead screening hits are described by their utility as known bioactives in addition to their

711 current regulatory status. Any relevant recorded immunological activity of these hits and known

712 mechanisms of action relevant to their bioactive status are included.

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