**Title: Single-cell sequencing identifies novel atypical B cell subsets with distinct effector**

**functions**

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**Abstract:** Atypical B cells are a population of activated B cells that are commonly enriched in individuals with chronic immune activation. Prior studies to determine the function of these cells have yielded conflicting results, possibly due to functional heterogeneity among this B cell population. To better define the role(s) of atypical B cells in the host adaptive immune response, we performed single-cell sequencing of transcriptomes, cell surface markers, and B cell receptors in individuals with chronic *Plasmodium falciparum* exposure, a condition known to lead to accumulation of circulating atypical B cells. Our studies identified previously uncharacterized populations of atypical B cells with distinct transcriptional and functional profiles: i) anergy or tolerance, ii) increased ability to interact with T cells, and iii) preparation for high translational activity as seen in pre-antibody secreting cells. We identified a set of cell surface markers to distinguish these distinct atypical B cell subsets and confirmed their presence in malaria-experienced children and adults using flow cytometry. *P. falciparum*-specific cells were present in equal proportions within each of these populations, indicating that all three subsets develop in response to antigen stimulation. Collectively, our findings help explain the conflicting observations in prior studies involving the functions of atypical B cells and indicate the need for reclassification of these cells into multiple distinct subsets to better understand their role in the adaptive immune response in chronic inflammatory conditions.

**One sentence summary:** Atypical B cells consist of distinct subsets that play different roles in the host adaptive immune response

**Main Text:**

**INTRODUCTION**

Humoral immunity to infection relies on the development of memory B cells that circulate through

the blood and secondary lymphoid organs to patrol for antigen, as well as long-lived plasma cells

that home to the bone marrow and function as a source of antibodies that inhibit pathogen

replication and survival. In humans, memory B cells are defined based on the expression of the

surface proteins CD21 and CD27. Upon vaccination or acute infection, other antigen-experienced

B cell populations transiently increase in abundance in the circulation, including CD21⁻CD27⁺

activated B cells and CD21⁻CD27⁻ atypical B cells (also called DN2 cells) (*1-3*). These activated

and atypical B cell populations are thought to be part of a normal immune response and peak in

abundance within 2 to 4 weeks after antigen exposure, followed by a gradual return to baseline

over the course of several months (*1, 4*). However, under conditions of chronic or repetitive

immune activation, as seen during HIV or *Plasmodium* infection, and in autoimmune diseases,

such as systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), atypical B cells accumulate and become a more

prominent presence in the circulation (*5-8*). In healthy adults, atypical B cells make up

approximately 2 - 4% of all circulating B cells, but this can increase to 20 – 40% in individuals with

chronic inflammatory conditions (*5, 6, 9*). Whether these atypical B cells contribute to control of

infections or negatively affect the host immune response remains incompletely understood. A

better understanding of the function of atypical B cells will provide insight into the immune

response to chronic infection and may present ways to overcome immune dysfunction or to

harness these cells by vaccination.

Studies regarding the functionality of atypical B cells in the immune response have highlighted

various differences between atypical B cells and memory B cells. Specifically, atypical B cells

displayed reduced expression of B cell receptor signaling pathway genes and costimulatory

molecules, as well as upregulation of inhibitory receptor expression (*10, 11*). In addition, atypical

B cells were less responsive to B cell receptor engagement by soluble antigen and showed

reduced differentiation into antibody-secreting cells under conditions that efficiently induced

differentiation of memory B cells into antibody-secreting cells (*5, 8-10, 12*). These results initially

led to the conclusion that atypical B cells are exhausted and non-responsive to stimulation.

However, it was recently reported that atypical B cells responded robustly to high-affinity

membrane-associated antigen and showed a markedly reduced response to low-affinity antigens,

a selective mechanism which may serve to limit activation of atypical B cells by low-affinity

antigens, such as auto-antigens (*11, 13*). Despite these new findings, the contribution of atypical

B cells to the host immune response remains subject of debate. Various functions have been

proposed for these cells, including (pre-)antibody secreting cells, based on the presence of

secretory Ig transcripts, and immune-modulatory cells, based on the upregulation of surface

proteins that promote interactions between B cells and T cells (*11, 14-17*). The multiple and

conflicting effector functions previously assigned to atypical B cells are suggestive of functional

heterogeneity among this population.

Here, we used chronic *P. falciparum* exposure as a model to define the heterogeneity of the

atypical B cell compartment. Over the course of many years of repetitive *P. falciparum* infections,

people living in malaria-endemic regions develop an immune response that protects against

disease. As a result, most cases of malaria occur in children under the age of 10, while adults

with life-long exposure have asymptomatic infections. To study atypical B cells induced by

malaria, we performed single-cell transcriptomics analysis with cell surface marker and B cell

receptor profiling on longitudinal samples obtained from two children following malaria. Based on

these sequencing data, we defined three subsets of atypical B cells with distinct transcriptional

profiles that are likely to play different roles in the immune response. Using flow cytometry, we

then analyzed the longevity and *Plasmodium* antigen-specificity among these subsets in samples

from malaria-experienced children and adults.

**RESULTS**

**Single-cell transcriptomics identifies B cell populations:**

The atypical B cell population is strongly expanded in the first few weeks after a malaria episode

and slowly contracts to baseline levels over the course of several months (*4*). To study the

identity of atypical B cells induced as a result of the hyperinflammatory immune response during

malaria and following return to baseline conditions, we selected two children (5 and 7 years old)

for whom peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) samples were collected three weeks after

malaria and six months later (**Figure 1A**, **Table S1**). Both children were free of symptomatic

malaria between the two time points, but had detectable *P. falciparum* parasitemia at both the

three-month and six-month time points (**Figure S1**). Asymptomatic *P. falciparum* infections

result in very low immune activation (*18*), and it can therefore be expected that the atypical B

cell population is only minimally affected by these infections, especially in comparison to the

strong inflammatory response during malaria.

We first isolated naïve and antigen-experienced B cells by fluorescence-activated cell sorting

based on the expression of CD21 and CD27 (**Figure 1B**). Naïve B cells typically make up a

large fraction of the total B cell pool (43 – 60% in the samples used here), but are not of interest

when studying the response of B cells to infection. Therefore, we enriched our samples for

antigen-experienced B cells, but added in some naïve B cells to have representation of all B cell

populations in the final cell pool. (**Table S2**). Each sample was then subjected to single-cell

RNA-sequencing in combination with analysis of select cell surface marker expression and B

cell receptor-sequencing on the 10x Genomics platform. Cells that passed quality control (n =

21,439; **Table S3**) were clustered into nine populations based on gene expression and

visualized by Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) (**Figure 1C**). UMAP

visualizes cell clusters in a 2D plot based on similarity in transcriptional profile. Each of the four

samples was well represented in all nine clusters (**Figure S2; Table S4**). Notably,

immunoglobulin-related genes were excluded during the clustering to prevent antibody isotype

or V(D)J-gene segment usage from influencing these results, as was previously proposed by

Stewart *et al*. (*19*). Comparing the expression levels of individual key genes (**Figure 1D**), as well

as gene signatures of various B cell populations generated by others (**Figure S3**) (*11, 19, 20*),

allowed us to identify the location of major B cell populations in the UMAP. This included

transitional B cells in cluster 7, naive B cells (expressing *BACH2*) in cluster 2, and memory B

cells (expressing *CD27*) in clusters 0, 3, 5, 6, and 8. In total, 82% of all cells in our data set were

found in clusters with a non-naive transcriptional signature, confirming that our data set was

enriched for antigen-experienced cells. Clusters 1, 4, and 5 expressed genes associated with

atypical B cells, such as *ZBTB32*, encoding a transcription factor, and *ITGAX,* encoding the

surface protein CD11c (**Figure 1D**). Together, these two clusters represented almost 30% of all

data (6,088 cells), making this a rich dataset to study heterogeneity among atypical B cells in

malaria-experienced individuals.

**Phenotypically defined atypical B cells have multiple distinct transcriptomic profiles:**

We next sought to determine how well the atypical B cell clusters that we identified based on

transcriptomic profiles corresponded to CD21$^-$CD27$^-$ B cells, which is the phenotypic

classification for atypical B cells most commonly used in the malaria field. We therefore used

cell surface markers CD21 and CD27 to 'gate' cells, similar to how this is commonly done in

flow cytometry (**Figure S4**). Nearly all cells in clusters 1 and 4 were CD21$^-$CD27$^-$, in agreement

with their transcriptomic profile of atypical B cells (**Figure 2A, Figure S5**). However, CD21$^-$

CD27$^-$ B cells also made up about 50% of cluster 5. Cluster 7 was also comprised of

approximately 50% CD21$^-$CD27$^-$ cells, which were transitional B cells that have recently

emigrated from the bone marrow and have yet to upregulate CD21 expression (**Figure S3A**).

These cells were therefore excluded from our analysis. In a recent study by Sutton *et al.*,

atypical B cells were observed to predominantly express CD11c and CXCR3 (*3*). We therefore

also analyzed the distribution of CD11c$^{+/-}$ CXCR3$^{+/-}$ populations among the nine B cell clusters

(**Figure S6**). The large majority of cells in clusters 1 and 4 expressed CD11c (75% and 98%,

respectively), while expression of CXCR3 was observed in only ~45% of all cells in these

clusters (**Figure 2B, Figure S5**). Instead, 79% of cells in cluster 5 were CXCR3$^+$, most of which

also expressed CD11c. These percentages were similar when limiting the analysis to CD21-

CD27- B cells (**Figure S7**). These data suggest that CXCR3 marks a subset of atypical B cells

but cannot be used as a marker to identify all atypical B cells. Next, we analyzed the heavy

chain sequences from the B cell receptor-sequencing libraries to determine isotype usage

among the different clusters. This analysis showed that, as expected, the transitional cells in

cluster 7 and naïve B cells in cluster 2 were unswitched cells, expressing only *IGHM* and *IGHD*.

Cluster 1 was also mainly made up of unswitched B cells, while clusters 3, 4, and 5 contained

larger fractions of class-switched B cells (**Figure 2C, Figure S5**). Cluster 4 in particular showed

a similar distribution of *IGH* transcripts to cluster 3 memory B cells, with the exception of a lack

of *IGHA1* expression, suggesting that cluster 4 atypical B cells have undergone class-switch

recombination at similar rates as memory B cells.

To further delineate the distribution of different B cell populations among our transcriptomics

clusters, we identified B cells by phenotype based on the surface expression of CD21, CD27,

CD11c, IgM, and IgG following recently published guidelines (*21*). Because our cell surface

marker analysis did not include IgD, we made two exceptions to these guidelines. First,

unswitched B cells were not identified based on the presence of IgD but that of IgM, which is

usually co-expressed with IgD. Second, switched B cells were identified based on the presence

of IgG instead of the absence of IgD, isotypes that are mutually exclusive. We first used CD27

and IgM or IgG expression to distinguish naive B cells (NAV, CD27$^-$IgM$^+$), unswitched memory B

cells (unswM, CD27$^+$IgM$^+$), and switched memory B cells (swM, CD27$^+$IgG$^+$). These populations

were further divided into resting (CD21$^+$) and activated (CD21$^-$). The majority of resting switched

memory B cells was located in cluster 3. We also identified DN B cells (CD27$^-$IgG$^+$), which were

divided into DN1 (CD21$^+$CD11c$^-$), DN2 (CD21$^-$CD11c$^+$), DN3 (CD21$^-$CD11c$^-$), and DN4

(CD21$^+$CD11c$^+$) (**Figure S8**). IgM$^+$ atypical B cells are also known as activated naive B cells,

and IgG$^+$ atypical B cells are equivalent to DN2 B cells. We recently reported substantial

differences in intrinsic properties between IgM$^+$ and IgG$^+$ atypical B cells that are likely related to

their origin and function (*22*). Additionally, CD11c has been identified as the marker that best

delineates atypical B cells (*3, 23*). We therefore decided to use the phenotypic definition of DN2

B cells to identify atypical B cells for the remainder of this study: CD21$^-$CD27$^-$IgG$^+$CD11c$^+$

(**Figure 2D**). Of all phenotypically defined atypical B cells, 40% was found in cluster 1, 40% in

cluster 4, and ~20% in cluster 5 (**Figure 2E**). The majority (~80%) of cells in cluster 4 were

atypical B cells, whereas cluster 1 was more mixed, with ~40% atypical B cells and ~30%

activated naïve B cells (**Figure 2E**). Cluster 5 was more diverse with 23% atypical B cells, 19%

activated naïve B cells, 13% resting switched memory B cells, 16% activated switched memory

B cells, and 29% other B cell populations. Collectively, these results show that phenotypically

defined class-switched atypical B cells in malaria-experienced children consist of multiple

distinct subsets with unique transcriptional profiles.

**Differences in gene expression programs of atypical B cells are associated with different roles in the immune response:**

To better understand the identity of the three subsets of atypical B cells identified in this study found in clusters 1, 4, and 5, we compared the expression of genes that have previously been described as part of the unique transcriptional profile of atypical B cells (*10-12*). The up or down regulation of various genes in these clusters as compared to resting switched memory B cells in cluster 3 was consistent with previous reports (**Figure 3A**). Two manuscripts recently posted on bioRxiv showed that the transcription factor *ZEB2* acts as an important regulator for the development of atypical B cells (*24, 25*). ZEB2 was also expressed significantly higher in clusters 1, 4, and 5 as compared to cluster 3 (**Figure 3A**). In contrast, several atypical B cell-associated genes were uniquely expressed in only one of the three clusters (**Figure 3B**). For example, *CD72*, encoding a surface marker that inhibits B cell responses and prevents antibody production (*26*), was more abundantly expressed in cluster 1. In contrast, the integrin-encoding genes *ITGB2* and *ITGB7* were predominantly expressed in cluster 4. *CXCR3* expression was highest in cluster 5, in line with the results of the cell surface marker analysis (**Figure 2B**). These differences in gene expression highlight that bulk atypical B cells are a mixture of various subsets and point to functional differences in activation status and the potential for cell-cell interactions between these subsets.

To gain insight into potential differences in function between cells in clusters 1, 4, and 5, we performed Reactome pathway analysis using genes that were upregulated or downregulated in pair-wise comparisons of the three clusters (**Figure 3C-D, Tables S5 – S6**). Atypical B cells in cluster 5 upregulated 17 out of 99 genes encoding ribosomal proteins (for example, *RPS23*, *RPS21*, and *RPS8*) and were most strongly enriched for pathways related to translation, indicating that these cells may be poised to differentiate into antibody-secreting cells. Atypical B cells in both clusters 1 and 4 upregulated genes in response to stimulation by interferon gamma

and cytokines, but the outcome of this response differed between the two clusters. Atypical B

cells in cluster 1 upregulated genes encoding components of the Activator Protein 1 (AP1)

complex, including *FOS* and *JUN*, as well as interferon-stimulated genes (for example, *ISG20*),

and tubulin genes (for example, *TUBB6*). Additionally, cluster 1 atypical B cells were enriched

for pathways that signified negative regulation of cell cycle progression. Upregulated genes

included the cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitors *CDKN1A/B*, the anti-proliferative genes *BTG1/2*,

and the transcriptional repressor *NR4A1*. Nuclear receptor 4A1 is part of a family of transcription

factors that was recently implicated in a negative feedback loop that rendered B cells more

dependent on T cell help and promoted peripheral B cell tolerance (*27, 28*). The transcriptional

profile of atypical B cells in cluster 1 thus pointed to an interferon-driven response that resulted

in senescence or anergy. On the other hand, atypical B cells in cluster 4 were enriched for

pathways related to antigen processing and presentation, and immunoregulation. Among the

genes upregulated in cluster 4 were genes encoding proteins that promote interactions between

B cells and T cells, such as HLA-DR/DQ, CD86, which is downregulated by NR4A1, and CD74*,

which regulates antigen presentation by class II MHC (*29-31*). In addition, we observed

upregulation of genes encoding class I MHC (*HLA-A* and *HLA-C*) and several genes that are

associated with cytotoxicity, including granzyme M (*GZMM*), cathepsin H (*CTSH*), cystatin 7

(*CST7*) natural killer cell granule protein 7 (*NKG7*, a target gene of T-bet), and natural

cytotoxicity triggering receptor 3 (*NCR3*). This gene signature suggests that these cells have

increased exocytosis activity, which could affect cell-cell interactions and have an

immunomodulatory function. Of note, clusters 1, 4, and 5 were stable at lower clustering

resolution. At higher clustering resolution, cluster 1 was divided into two separate clusters that

contained atypical B cells and activated naïve B cells, respectively (**Figure S9**). The results of

differential gene expression and pathway analysis for the subcluster of atypical B cells were

comparable to those presented above. Collectively, our results indicate that phenotypically

defined IgG$^+$ atypical B cells can have one of three different transcriptional profiles that are

associated with different functions within the immune response.

**Atypical B cells form two separate compartments:**

To study the development of the different subsets of atypical B cells, we turned to an analysis of

their B cell receptor sequences. We assessed the amount of affinity maturation each B cell

population has undergone by determining the level of somatic hypermutation in each cluster.

This revealed that clusters 4 and 5 on average accumulated similar levels of mutations as class-

switched memory B cells in cluster 3, while the average mutation frequency in cluster 1 was

more than 50% lower (**Figure 4A, Figure S10A**). However, this may in part be caused by the

larger fractions of unswitched B cells in cluster 1 (**Figure 2C**). When including only class-

switched atypical B cells, we still observed a higher average level of somatic hypermutation in

clusters 4 and 5 than in cluster 1, although the difference was slightly smaller (**Figure 4B,**

**Figure S10B**). This difference suggests that cluster 1 atypical B cells have not undergone

extensive affinity maturation and seem to be more closely related to naive B cells. Atypical B

cells in clusters 4 and 5 have undergone similar levels of affinity maturation as memory B cells,

which could indicate that they are derived from memory B cells or have a similar developmental

trajectory. However, while somatic hypermutation and affinity maturation typically occur inside

germinal centers, these processes can also occur in extrafollicular sites (*32*) and our results are

therefore not direct evidence for the developmental pathway of atypical B cells.

Next, we wished to better understand the developmental relationship between the three

subsets. To this end, we calculated the level of expansion of clonal B cell lineages within each

cluster at the two time points, as well as the percentage of clonal connections between clusters,

as described in more detail previously (*33*). B cells were considered part of the same lineage if

their heavy chain variable region contained the same *IGHV* and *IGHJ* genes, and shared at

least 85% amino acid sequence identity in the heavy chain (H) CDR3 (*34, 35*). In all three

atypical B cell clusters, there was strong expansion of B cells at 3 weeks post-malaria, with 5 –

16% of B cells within each cluster belonging to the same lineage (**Figure 4C, Figure S11A**).

This was followed by contraction six months later, resulting in a loss of more than 50% of clonal

lineages (**Figure 4C, D**). This contraction points to a return to a resting state and confirms that

minimal immune activation occurred as a result of the asymptomatic infection at 6-months post-

malaria, as compared to the strong humoral immune response elicited by malaria. At 3 weeks

post-malaria, 1.6 – 4.1% of clonal sharing occurred between cluster 1 and clusters 4/5, but

these connections were largely lost six months later. In contrast, the connectivity between

cluster 4 and cluster 5 increased at the second time point, as compared to the time point shortly

after malaria, and this was the only pair of clusters for which this happened (**Figure 4D, Figure

S11B**). These observations suggest that cluster 1 atypical B cells form a separate compartment

from the other atypical B cell subsets, while cluster 4 and cluster 5 atypical B cells are more

strongly connected. Collectively, these results point to different developmental pathways for

atypical B cells that are connected to different functional roles in the immune response.

**All three atypical B cell subsets are found in malaria-experienced children and adults**

**irrespective of parasite exposure levels:**

The identification of atypical B cell clusters by transcriptomics analysis was based on four

samples from two children. To validate our findings in a larger number of malaria-susceptible

children and extend our analysis to malaria-protected adults, we turned to an analysis of these

cells by spectral flow cytometry. In the single-cell transcriptomics analysis, we observed that

differences in expression level of *ITGAX* (encoding CD11c) translated to differences in cell

surface expression of CD11c (high expression in cluster 4, intermediate expression in cluster 1,

and low / intermediate expression in cluster 5, **Figure 5A**). Based on these data, we reasoned

that CD11c in combination with other differentially expressed cell surface markers could be

used to discriminate between the three clusters. We selected *CD86* and *FCRL5* that showed

consistent expression patterns across all four samples and would allow us to distinguish the

three clusters. Cluster 4 expressed high levels of *CD86* and *FCRL5*, cluster 1 expressed only

*FCRL5*, and cluster 5 expressed neither of the two (**Figure 5A**).

Using flow cytometry, we aimed to study the abundance of each atypical B cell subset and their

longevity in the absence of antigen stimulation and infection-driven inflammation. To this end,

we included samples from nine children and ten adults collected following known *Plasmodium*

exposure and months to years later after a period with low *Plasmodium* exposure due to highly

effective insecticide spaying (*36, 37*) (**Figure 5B, Table S1**). B cells were phenotyped using a

panel of 18 surface and intracellular markers that would allow us to identify the three atypical B

cell subsets and analyze these for the expression of markers previously shown to be positively

(CD19, CD20, CD11c, FcRL5, CD83, CD86, CD95, CXCR3, T-bet) or negatively (CD24, CD38,

CXCR5) associated with activated and atypical B cells (*21*). To find the atypical B cell subsets

identified in our transcriptomic analysis, we first gated manually on CD19$^+$CD20$^+$CD21$^-$CD27$^-$

IgG$^+$CD11c$^+$ atypical B cells (**Figure S12**). The atypical B cells from all samples were then

plotted in a composite UMAP based on the expression of the 12 cell surface and intracellular

markers previously shown to be associated with activated and atypical B cells (**Figure S13**).

Next, we used the unsupervised clustering tool FlowSOM to identify three distinct atypical B cell

subsets based on the expression of CD11c, FcRL5, and CD86 (**Figure 5C**). Projection of these

subsets onto the UMAP showed that the expression of *ITGAX*, *FcRL5*, and *CD86* matched the

cell surface expression signatures of subset 1 (CD11c$^{hi}$FcRL5$^+$CD86$^-$), subset 4

(CD11c$^{hi}$FcRL5$^+$CD86$^+$), and subset 5 (CD11c$^{int}$FcRL5$^-$CD86$^-$) (**Figure 5D**). We will refer to

these subsets with the number corresponding to the matching transcriptomics cluster, i.e., flow

cytometry subset 1 for cells matching transcriptomics cluster 1. Next, we determined the relative

abundance of these three subsets among all atypical B cells. In children, most atypical B cells

belonged to subset 1 (~50%) and subset 5 (~40%). The relative abundance of the subsets did

not change between time points (**Figure 5E**, **Figure S14**). This could be the result of the timing

of sample collection. At two months post-malaria in a low transmission setting, transient

changes to the atypical B cell population induced by malaria may have already reverted to

baseline. In adults, the first sample was collected during a period of high *Plasmodium* exposure.

Interestingly, the proportion of subset 4 atypical B cells was larger than in children at the first

time point but decreased to the level seen in children after a period of minimal parasite

exposure (**Figure 5F**). This was also true when expressing the abundance of subset 4 atypical

B cells as a percentage of total B cells (**Figure S14**). Simultaneously, we observed an increase

in the relative proportion of subset 5 among all atypical B cells between the two time points in

the adults, although the percentage of subset 5 atypical B cells among total B cells did not

change (**Figure 5F**, **Figure S14**). Collectively, these results demonstrate that we were able to

distinguish three subsets of atypical B cells by flow cytometry and that the composition of the

atypical B cell population changes in relation to parasite exposure.

**Atypical B cells express higher levels of CXCR3 and CD95 in adults as compared to**

**children:**

To map additional differences in the phenotype between the three subsets of atypical B cells,

we plotted the mean fluorescence intensity of CD21, CD27, and the 12 markers that were

previously observed to be positively or negatively associated with activated or atypical B cells

for all three subsets as well as IgG$^+$ resting memory B cells (CD21$^-$CD27$^-$). We observed that

subset 4 had the most 'atypical' surface marker expression pattern, with the highest expression

of CD19, CD20, CD95, and T-bet (**Figure 6A**, **Figure S15**).

We were also interested in potential differences in phenotype between atypical B cells from

malaria-experienced children and adults. At the second time point, after months to years of no

chronic immune activation, the distribution of atypical B cell subsets was similar between

children and adults (**Figure 5F**). However, we noticed that their atypical B cells had a distinct

localization when projected onto the UMAP (**Figure 6B**). This observation suggests that atypical

B cells from children and adults differ in the expression of one or more other markers.

Overlaying the expression of other markers in our flow cytometry panel onto the UMAP revealed

that atypical B cells in adults extended into the UMAP area where cells expressed high levels of

CXCR3 and CD95 (**Figure 6C**). To quantify this, we analyzed the percentage of CXCR3$^+$ and

CD95$^+$ cells in each subset. Adults showed more CXCR3$^+$ cells in all atypical B cell subsets as

compared to children, and more CD95$^+$ cells in subsets 1 and 5 (**Figure 6D**). Collectively, this

difference in CXCR3 and CD95 expression between children and adults points towards

additional heterogeneity among atypical B cells that may be connected to differences in immune

status or parasite exposure levels.

**All subsets of atypical B cells harbor *P. falciparum*-specific cells:**

To determine whether the different atypical B cell subsets develop in response to antigen during

infection or through bystander activation, we used antigen tetramers to detect B cells with

specificity to two *P. falciparum* proteins: merozoite surface protein 1 (MSP1) and apical

membrane antigen 1 (AMA1). Both antigens are known to elicit strong IgG responses in children

and adults (*38*). Since both MSP1 and AMA1 tetramers were labeled with the same

fluorochromes, all MSP1-specific and AMA1-specific B cells are referred to as MSP1/AMA1-

specific (**Figure S12**). We then determined the percentage of MSP1/AMA1-specific B cells

among the three atypical B cell subsets. First, we overlayed the MSP1/AMA1-specific B cells

onto the previously generated UMAPs of subset 1, 4, and 5 atypical B cells. Antigen-specific

cells were identified in all subsets (**Figure 7A**). We then quantified the number of antigen-

specific cells in each of the three atypical B cell subsets and observed that the distribution of

MSP1/AMA1 B cells over the three subsets mirrored their total size (**Figure 7B**). Finally, we

analyzed CXCR3 and CD95 expression among MSP1/AMA1-specific atypical B cells in adults.

Approximately 25 - 40% of all MSP1/AMA1-specific atypical B cells were CXCR3$^+$, with no clear

pattern related to subset identity (**Figure 7C**). In contrast, nearly all MPS1/AMA1-specific

atypical B cells in all three subsets expressed CD95, which was an increase as compared to all

atypical B cells. Increased CD95 expression was also observed in Spike-specific B cells in

recovered COVID-19 patients (*39*) and suggests that these cells recently underwent antigen-

driven activation. Collectively, these results suggest that all three subsets of atypical B cells

develop in response to antigen stimulation.

**DISCUSSION**

Atypical B cells accumulate in a range of conditions that share chronic immune activation as the

common denominator, including chronic or repetitive infection and autoimmunity. Attempts to

understand the function of these cells have resulted in conflicting observations. We

hypothesized that these different observations are caused by heterogeneity among atypical B

cells and that the underlying subsets are indistinguishable with the markers conventionally used

to define atypical B cells. Here, we used multimodal single-cell measurements to better define

the heterogeneity among atypical B cells using samples from individuals with chronic

*Plasmodium* exposure. We identified novel subsets of atypical B cells, each with a unique

transcriptional program and cell surface marker signature, that are associated with different

effector functions in the host immune response. Using spectral flow cytometry, we confirmed the

presence of these atypical B cell subsets in a cohort of malaria-experienced children and adults

and determined that they can develop in response to antigen stimulation.

Two other recent studies have attempted to assess potential heterogeneity among atypical B

cells using single-cell transcriptomics approaches. Holla *et al*. subclustered 199 B cells from

malaria-experienced individuals with an atypical transcriptomics profile and observed three

subsets that were mainly discriminated by isotype usage (i.e., $IgD^+IgM^+$, $IgD^+IgM^{lo}$, and $IgD^-IgG^+$

atypical B cells) (*11*). Too few cells were present in that data set to observe subclusters within

the $IgD^-IgG^+$ atypical B cell group, which was the focus of our study. Sutton *et al.* analyzed a

larger number of $IgD^-$ B cells (7,167 cells from malaria-experienced individuals and 5,813 cells

from individuals not exposed to *Plasmodium* infection) that were divided into three atypical B

cell clusters and several other B cell clusters (*3*). However, no information was provided on

differences in gene expression programs between these three clusters that may provide insight

into the different identities of these atypical B cell clusters. In our study, we generated data for

almost 21,500 B cells, of which we were able to assign slightly more than 14,000 cells to one of

10 phenotypically defined B cell populations. Among these were just over 4,000 cells that

belonged to three clusters containing phenotypically defined atypical B cells. Using this rich data

set, we confirmed similarities in gene expression between our three atypical B cell clusters and

bulk RNA sequencing transcriptional programs that have previously been reported for atypical B

cells (*10, 12*). However, we also discovered that some genes previously linked to atypical B

cells were expressed in only one of these three clusters and may be connected to the different

functional profiles of these cells. For example, CD72 negatively regulates B cell activation (*26*).

*CD72* was uniquely expressed in cluster 1 that has a profile of senescence or anergy. Cluster 4,

on the other hand, expressed higher levels of the gene encoding CD68, a transmembrane

glycoprotein that is mainly associated with the endosomal/lysosomal compartment in monocytes

and macrophages, but is also expressed by lymphocytes (*40, 41*). This observation may be

related to the pathways of antigen processing and exocytosis that were upregulated in this

cluster. Hopp *et al.* recently showed that atypical B cells upregulate proteins that mediate B – T

cell interactions and can be induced to differentiate into antibody-secreting cells in the presence

of follicular helper T cells, which matches our observations for cluster 4 (*16*). Sullivan *et al*.

reported that a subset of atypical B cells that expressed lower levels of FcRL5 showed more

antibody secretion upon stimulation than FcRL5$^+$ atypical B cells, in line with the profile we

observed for cluster 5 (*10*). The presence of secretory Ig transcripts in atypical B cells also

match the pre-antibody secreting signature of cluster 5 (*14*). Collectively, the functional profiles

of the three clusters of atypical B cells recapitulate many of the observations that have been

made about the atypical B cell population as a whole. Our results indicate that specific subsets

of atypical B cells are likely responsible for conflicting observations related to anergy/tolerance,

immune-modulation, and the ability to differentiate into antibody-secreting cells.

Using differentially expressed surface markers, we were able to identify three corresponding

subsets of atypical B cells by flow cytometry. All three subsets harbored *P. falciparum*-specific B

cells, suggesting that each of these subsets can develop as part of a specific response to

pathogen-derived antigens and not merely through bystander activation. Other stimuli, such as

cytokines and CD40 or TLR engagement may influence the development of atypical B cells into

one of these subsets. With its lower levels of somatic hypermutation and anergic transcriptional

profile, cluster 1 was distinct from clusters 4 and 5 that both seemed to play more functional

roles in the immune response. Indeed, B cell receptor repertoire analysis suggested that cluster

1 formed a compartment that was mostly separated from clusters 4 and 5, which between

themselves showed a higher percentage of clonal connectivity. The percentage of B cell clones

that were shared between clusters 4 and 5 increased over time as the B cell response

contracted to baseline levels. In addition, we observed that the decrease in subset 4 atypical B

cells over time was paralleled by a relative increase in the size of subset 5. Together, these

observations suggest that atypical B cells in subsets 4 and 5 are developmentally related.

Comparing atypical B cells between malaria-experienced children and adults revealed additional

heterogeneity. Adults showed a higher percentage of CXCR3$^+$ cells across all three subsets of

atypical B cells, which did not decrease after a two-year period of minimal *P. falciparum*

exposure. Hopp *et al.* reported that expression of *CXCR3* is upregulated in atypical B cells in

response to malaria in children (*16*). The stable expression of CXCR3 in adults suggests that

this marker is acquired as a result of chronic antigen exposure and may play an important role

in the protective immune response against malaria. Sutton *et al.* observed that *Pf*MSP1-specific

B cells in adults expressed higher levels of CXCR3 than the total memory B cell population,

although the majority of these cells did not have a CD21$^-$CD27$^-$ phenotype (*42*). In this study, we

detected CXCR3$^+$ parasite-specific cells but did not observe the same level of enrichment for

CXCR3 expression among atypical B cells. CXCR3 is an interferon-inducible chemokine

receptor specific for the chemokines CXCL9, CXCL10, and CXCL11 that are themselves also

induced by interferon (*43*). Its function has mainly been studied in T cells where it is required for

trafficking of T cells to sites of inflammation (*44*). The profile of trafficking receptor expression in

atypical B cells, including CXCR3, has been linked to the propensity of T-bet$^{hi}$ B cells to take up

residency in the spleen and bone marrow (*45*). While no data is available for the tissue

distribution of atypical B cells in malaria-experienced individuals, it would make sense for

parasite-specific B cells to home to the spleen, since this is the main anatomical location for the

removal of parasite-infected erythrocytes and cellular debris from the circulation. In this regard,

it is interesting to note that the elevated expression of T-bet and CD74 in subset 4 atypical B

cells fits the profile of memory B cells that reside in the spleen (*45, 46*), indicating that the loss

of these cells in the circulation could be the result of migration into the spleen. However, the

observation that the percentage of CXCR3$^+$ atypical B cells does not change over time with

minimal parasite exposure suggests that the expression of this marker by itself does not direct

homing of B cells to tissues. This notion is strengthened by the recent finding that CXCR3

ablation in murine B cells has no effect on the establishment and maintenance of lung-resident

memory B cells (*47*). Instead, CXCR3 should probably be considered a marker of activation or

prior activation.

One of the complications of studying atypical B cells is that different markers have been used to

define atypical B cells. In this study, our definition of atypical B cells is based on how these cells

are typically identified in the HIV and malaria fields (CD21$^-$CD27$^-$) and information from a recent

single-cell RNA sequencing study that reported CD11c as the most informative cell surface

marker for the identification of atypical B cell lineages (*3*). Our definition of atypical B cells as

IgG$^+$CD21$^-$CD27$^-$CD11c$^+$ also fits the definition of DN2 B cells, which is how these cells are

commonly referred to in the autoimmunity field (IgD$^-$CD27$^-$CD21$^-$ CD11c$^+$) and follows recently

published recommendations for how these cells should be defined (*21*). Not all of the cells that

fall within our definition of atypical B cells are T-bet$^+$, which may complicate translating our

findings to studies that use T-bet (with or without CD11c) as a defining marker for atypical B

cells (*42, 48, 49*). Another caveat of this study is the inclusion of samples obtained ~2 months

post-malaria in children for flow cytometric analysis. Because of the timing of sample collection,

it is likely that we missed the peak of atypical B cell expansion (*3, 4*). Also, because of low *P.*

*falciparum* exposure levels around the time of sample collection, these children had relatively

low baseline levels of atypical B cells. As a result, few changes were observed between the two

time points and relatively few antigen-specific B cells were detected.

In conclusion, we found that atypical B cells can be divided into at least three functionally

distinct subsets. These findings reconcile many of the conflicting observations that have been

made about atypical B cells and provide insight into their function in the immune response

against infection. Our study also highlights that the composition of the atypical B cell population

can alter with changes in pathogen exposure levels. The selection of individuals and timing of

sample collection therefore warrants careful consideration when analyzing atypical B cells and

their functional profile. Although the transcriptomes of atypical B cells in chronic infections and

autoimmunity are remarkably similar (*11*), our observations about atypical B cells in malaria-

experienced individuals will need to be confirmed in other disease models. Collectively, our

results suggest that a large fraction of atypical B cells contributes to a productive and antigen-

specific immune response against infection.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Study design and ethics approval**

The objective of this study was to assess transcriptional and functional heterogeneity among

atypical B cells to determine the function of these cells in the host immune response to infection.

Individuals included in this study (n = 21) were residents of the Nagongera sub-county in Tororo

District, Uganda. This region was historically characterized by extremely high malaria

transmission intensity, with an estimated annual entomological inoculation rate of 125 infectious

bites per person per year (*50*). Since 2015, multiple rounds of insecticide spraying (IRS) have

dramatically reduced malaria incidence compared with pre-IRS levels (*36*). Individuals were

selected for inclusion into this study based on age and *P. falciparum* exposure. In addition,

children were selected based on the availability of samples collected at set times relative to a

malaria episode (**Table S1**). All individuals included in this study were enrolled in The Program

for Resistance, Immunology, Surveillance, and Modeling of Malaria (PRISM) program (*51*) and

have provided written consent for the use of their samples for research. The PRISM cohort

study was approved by the Makerere University School of Medicine Research and Ethics

Committee (SOMREC), London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine IRB, and the

University of California, San Francisco Human Research Protection Program & IRB. The use of

cohort samples for this study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the University

of Texas Health Science Center at San Antonio.

**B cell isolations**

Cryopreserved PBMCs were thawed in a 37°C water bath and immediately mixed with pre-

warmed thawing medium (IMDM/GlutaMAX supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FBS (USA

origin) and 0.01% Universal Nuclease (Thermo, cat. no. 88700). After centrifugation (250 × g, 5

min), the cell pellet was resuspended in thawing medium. A sample of cells was mixed 1:1 (v/v)

with 0.2% trypan blue solution in PBS, and viable cells were counted using a Cellometer Mini

(Nexcelom) automated cell counter. Next, cells were centrifuged (250 × g, 5 min) and

resuspended in isolation buffer (PBS supplemented with 2% heat-inactivated FBS and 1 mM

EDTA) at 50 million live cells/mL and filtered through a 35 µm sterile filter cap (Corning, cat. no.

352235) to break apart aggregated cells. B cells were isolated using the EasySep Human B Cell

Isolation Kit (StemCell, cat. no. 17954) or the MojoSort Human Pan B Cell Isolation Kit

(BioLegend, cat. no. 480082) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

**Flow cytometry staining for single-cell analysis**

Isolated B cells were washed with PBS (250 × g, 5 min), resuspended in 1 ml of PBS containing 1 μl live/dead stain (LIVE/DEAD Fixable Aqua Dead Cell Stain Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, cat. no. L34965), and incubated for 30 min on ice. Subsequently, cells were washed with cold PBS containing 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA) (250 × g, 5 min) and incubated in labeling buffer (total volume of 100 μl) containing PBS, 1% BSA, 5 μl Human TruStain FcX (Biolegend, cat. no. 422301) and 1% dextran sulfate (Sigma-Aldrich, cat. no. 42867-5G) for 10 min at 4°C before incubating a further 30 min at 4°C with an antibody cocktail to label B cell surface markers (**Table S7**). Before acquisition on a BD FACS AriaII cell sorter, cells were washed with cold PBS containing 1% BSA, centrifuged (250 × g, 5 min, 4ºC), diluted to 20-30 million cells/mL in cold PBS containing 1% BSA, and filtered into a FACS tube through a 35 μm sterile filter cap (Corning, cat. no. 352235) to break apart aggregated cells. Lymphocytes were gated using forward and sideward scatter, followed by doublet exclusion. Cells were then gated on live cells, followed by $CD19^+CD10^-CD20^+$ B cells. Naive B cells ($CD21^+CD27^-$) and antigen-experienced B cells (all other B cells) were separated based on CD21 and CD27 expression and sorted into cold PBS containing 1% BSA. An average of 37,000 antigen-experienced B cells were mixed with naïve B cells up to a total of 50,000 B cells (**Table S2**). This resulted in an enrichment of antigen-experienced cells from an average of 49% in the original B cell pool to an average of 74% in the final cell suspension. Cells were immediately processed for single-cell sequencing.

**Single-cell gene expression, V(D)J, and feature barcoding library preparation**

B cells were counted with a hemocytometer and run on a Chromium 10x controller (10x Genomics) in individual lanes with a targeted recovery rate of 10,000 cells per lane, according to the manufacturer's instructions. Library preparation was completed following the

recommended protocols for Chromium Single Cell 5' Gene Expression kit as well as 5' Feature

Barcode and V(D)J Enrichment kits (**Table S8**). Libraries were sequenced using the Illumina

NovaSeq6000 (paired-end 150 bp) and HiSeq (paired-end 100 bp) platforms.

**Single-cell RNA-seq data analysis**

Sequencing reads were mapped to the human reference genome (hg38) and assigned to

individual cells of origin using cell-specific barcodes in Cell Ranger (10x Genomics) version

3.1.0. The sequencing data were then processed using Seurat version 3.2.3, following their

default pipeline as follows. Low-quality cells with high (>2500) or low (<200) UMI counts were

filtered from the samples. In addition, to prevent antibody isotype or V(D)J-gene segment usage

from influencing the clustering of cells, we removed all IGH, IGK and IGL transcripts from the

single cell data before clustering and UMAP visualization, as proposed by Steward *et al*. (*19*).

Gene expression levels for each cell were normalized by total expression, multiplied by a scale

factor (10,000), and log-transformed. Cells with > 5% mitochondrial reads were excluded

because these are likely damaged or dying cells that have lost much of their cytoplasmic

mRNA. Gene expression values for all genes in all clusters are provided in **Table S9**. We

determined the top 2000 most variable genes based on their average expression and

dispersion. Principal component analysis was performed on highly variable genes to reduce the

dimensionality of the data. We performed clustering using the Louvain algorithm implemented in

the *FindClusters* function of Seurat (algorithm = 1, resolution = 0.5, dims. use = 1:20) and

displayed the clusters using UMAP. One outlier cluster consisting of 13 cells that were most

likely T cells was removed from further analysis. Because cells from all sample were distributed

evenly across the UMAP (**Figure S3**), no batch corrections were performed. We identified the

cluster-specific marker genes conserved across different samples using the

*FindConservedMarkers* function (default parameters) from Seurat. To identify differentially

expressed genes between a pair of clusters, we used the *FindMarkers* function from Seurat

(with parameters *min.pct* = 0.20, and log2FC = 0.25), and additionally filtered genes using a

false discovery rate of 0.05. Violin plots, dot plots, and UMAP plots overlaid with gene

expression level were generated using standard Seurat functions. Reactome pathway analysis

was performed using differentially expressed genes that were upregulated in pairwise cluster

comparisons. The top 3 - 5 pathways with FDR-adjusted P value < 0.01 were selected for visual

representation in **Figure 3C**. The full set of Reactome analysis results and differentially

expressed gene lists are provided in **Tables S5** and **S6**.

**Single-cell RNA-sequencing gene signature score analysis**

We performed gene signature score analysis as described in (*11*). Briefly, gene expression data

from the Seurat object were scaled (z-score across each gene) to remove bias towards highly

expressed genes. A cell-specific signature score was computed by first sorting the normalized

scaled gene expression values for each cell followed by summing up the indices (ranks) of the

signature genes. These signature scores were then projected onto the transcriptomics-based

UMAP.

**Single-cell surface marker analysis**

From the single-cell RNA sequencing Seurat object, we extracted the antibody capture

component (assay = ADT), normalized the antibody matrix using CLR normalization (Seurat

method *NormalizeData*), and then scaled the antibody matrix using Seurat routine *ScaleData*.

This normalized and scaled antibody matrix was then used to define the following populations of

B cells by phenotype: 1) DN1 B cells: CD27$^-$IgG$^+$CD21$^+$CD11c$^-$ , 2) DN2 B cells: CD27$^-$

IgG$^+$CD21$^-$CD11c$^+$, 3) DN3 B cells: CD27$^-$IgG$^+$CD21$^-$CD11c$^-$, 4) DN4 B cells: CD27$^-$

IgG$^+$CD21$^+$CD11c$^+$, 5) Resting naïve B cells: CD27$^-$IgM$^+$CD21$^+$, 6) Activated naïve B cells:

CD27$^-$IgM$^+$CD21$^-$, 7) Resting switched memory B cells: CD27$^+$IgG$^+$CD21$^+$, 8) Activated switched

memory B cells: CD27$^+$IgG$^+$CD21$^-$, 9) Resting unswitched memory B cells: CD27$^+$IgM$^+$CD21$^+$,

and 10) Activated unswitched memory B cells: CD27$^+$IgM$^+$CD21$^-$. The UMAP plots highlighting

corresponding cell categories were generated using Seurat. Distributions of cell surface

expression of the markers CD21 and CD27 (**Figure S4**), as well as CD11c and CXCR3 (**Figure**

**S6**) for individual clusters were plotted using the above mentioned normalized and scaled

antibody matrix, and employing the 2D kernel density function *kde2d* from the R package

*MASS*.

**Single-cell B cell receptor analysis**

Single-cell B cell receptor sequencing data was first processed using the command *changeo-*

*10x*. Single-cell heavy chain variable region sequences were then analyzed using the

Immcantation pipeline. First, the Immcantation package Change-O (v0.4.4) was used to align

lymphocyte receptor sequences to germline sequences for downstream analyses (*52*). Isotype-

specific data files were converted into standardized tab-delimited database files required for

subsequent Change-O modules to operate using IgBLAST (v1.14.0), which is included in

Change-O. The frequency of somatic hypermutations was calculated as described previously

(*22*). Average frequencies for each donor and cluster are reported.

To calculate the percentage of clonal expansion within clusters or clonal connections between

clusters, genotyping was performed using the routine *tigger-genotype*, followed by analysis of

clonally related B cell receptor sequences using a custom Perl script available for download at

https://github.com/embunnik/clonal_scores, as described in detail elsewhere (*33*).

**Flow cytometry staining for spectral flow analysis**

C-terminally biotinylated full-length *P. falciparum* 3D7 MSP1 and AMA1 were produced as

described previously (*38*). Antigen tetramers were synthesized by incubating protein with

fluorophore-conjugated streptavidin overnight at 4°C at a molar ratio of 6:1 with rotation (**Table**

**S10**). Isolated B cells were washed with PBS, centrifuged (250 × g, 5 min), resuspended in 1 ml

of PBS containing 1 µl live/dead stain (Zombie UV Fixable Viability kit (Biolegend, cat. no.

423107)) and incubated on ice for 30 min. Cells were subsequently washed with cold PBS

containing 1% BSA (250 × g, 5 min, 4°C), resuspended with a cocktail of 25 µM of each antigen

tetramer diluted in PBS containing 1% BSA to a volume of 100 µl, and incubated at 4°C for 30

min. Next, the cells were washed twice with cold PBS containing 1% BSA (250 × g, 5 min, 4°C)

and incubated at 4°C for 30 min with a B cell surface marker antibody cocktail (**Table S11**) with

10 µl Brilliant Stain Buffer Plus (BD, cat. No. 566385) diluted in PBS containing 1% BSA up to a

volume of 100 µl. The cells were then washed with cold PBS containing 1% BSA (250 × g, 5

min, 4°C), resuspended in 1 ml of Transcription Factor Fix/Perm Concentrate (Tonbo, part of

cat. no. TNB-0607-KIT), diluted with 3 parts Transcription Factor Fix/Perm Diluent (Tonbo), and

incubated at 4°C for 1 hour. After the incubation, the cells were washed twice with 3 ml of 1×

Flow Cytometry Perm Buffer (Tonbo) (300 × g, 8 min, 4°C) and resuspended in 1× Flow

Cytometry Perm Buffer with an intracellular marker antibody (**Table S11**). After an incubation at

4°C for 30 min, the cells were washed twice with 3 ml cold 1× Flow Cytometry Perm Buffer (300

× g, 8 min, 4°C) and once with 3 ml cold PBS containing 1% BSA, resuspended in cold PBS

containing 1% BSA to 20 – 30 million cells/ml and filtered into a FACS tube through a 35 µm

sterile filter cap. Cells were analyzed by flow cytometry immediately following intracellular

staining.

**Spectral flow cytometry analysis**

B cells were analyzed on a Cytek Aurora spectral flow cytometer equipped with five lasers.

SpectroFlo QC Beads (Cytek, cat. no. SKU N7-97355) were run prior to each experiment for

performance tracking. Quality control and LJ tracking reports were used to ensure machine

performance and that settings between different runs were comparable. Paired samples were

processed in the same experiment and experiments performed on separate days contained

technical replicates. B cells isolated from pooled PBMCs from two malaria-naïve US donors

were used for the compensation of the live/dead stain, for the unstained control, and for

technical replicates. Between runs, the expression of cell surface and intracellular markers

showed a high correlation between these technical replicates (Spearman r = 0.98, **Figure S16**).

UltraComp eBeads Plus Compensation Beads (Thermo, cat. No. 01-3333-41) were used for

compensation of all other fluorophores. The cytometry analysis software OMIQ (Dotmatics) was

used for the integration and dimension reduction analysis. In short, atypical B cells were first

pre-gated on single/live/$CD19^+$/$CD20^+$/$CD21^-$/$CD27^-$/$CD11c^+$/$IgG^+$ cells. UMAPs were then

created using the expression of CD19, CD20, CD24, CD38, CD83, CD86, CD95, CXCR3,

CXCR5, CD11c, FcRL5, and T-bet as features with default parameters (neighbors = 15,

minimum distance = 0.4, metric = Euclidean, random seed = 9258) and included all 38 Ugandan

donor samples used in this study for initial projection. To define the three atypical B cell subsets,

FlowSOM (*53*) was used to identify three clusters based on CD11c, FcRL5, and CD86

expression using the default parameters (metric = Euclidean, random seed = 1226). For the

projection of antigen-specific B cells onto the UMAP, gates were manually set to identify

populations of interest using two-dimensional displays, which were then overlaid onto the UMAP

projection. Mean fluorescence intensities of cell surface and intracellular markers in select B cell

subsets were calculated for each sample individually in OMIQ, and then averaged across

samples. To visualize mean fluorescence intensities in a heatmap, the average value for each B

cell subset was expressed as a percentage of the highest mean fluorescence intensity among

all subsets.

**Supplementary materials**

Figure S1: Schematic overview of malaria history.

Figure S2: Contribution of individual samples to the total data set.

Figure S3: Comparisons between B cell clusters identified in this study and previously published

gene signatures.

Figure S4: Cell surface expression of CD21 and CD27 in each cluster as determined by feature

barcoding.

Figure S5: Distribution of cell surface marker expression and immunoglobulin heavy chain

transcripts per transcriptional cluster in each sample.

Figure S6: Cell surface expression of CD11c and CXCR3 in each cluster as determined by

feature barcoding.

Figure S7: Distribution of CD11c and CXCR3 among all cells and CD21$^-$CD27$^-$ cells in the three

clusters that contain atypical B cells.

Figure S8: Phenotypically defined B cell subsets projected onto the transcriptomics-based

UMAP.

Figure S9: Clusters obtained at a range of resolutions in Seurat.

Figure S10: Levels of somatic hypermutation in each cluster per sample.

Figure S11: Clonal expansion within and clonal connections between all transcriptomics-based

clusters

Figure S12: Gating strategy used to identify atypical B cells and antigen-specific B cells.

Figure S13: Projection of the 12 surface and intracellular markers used to generate the

composite UMAP of atypical B cells onto this UMAP.

Figure S14: Percentage of atypical B cell subsets among total and non-naïve B cells.

Figure S15: Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of cell surface and intracellular markers used for

the flow cytometric analysis of atypical B cell subsets.

Figure S16: Spectral flow cytometry technical replicates. The frequency of cells positive for the

markers CD11c, FcRL5, CD86 and all other surface and intracellular markers used in the study,

with the exception of CD19 and CD20, are shown.

Table S1: Information about all individuals included in the study.

Table S2: Number of cells sorted and pooled for quality control.

Table S3: Summary of sequence stats.

Table S4: Numbers of cells per sample in each cluster.

Table S5: Differentially expressed genes between clusters 1, 4, and 5.

Table S6: Reactome pathway analysis results.

Table S7: Antibodies used for flow sorting and single cell sequencing.

Table S8: Reagents used for single-cell immune profiling and Feature Barcoding.

Table S9: Average gene expression values for all genes in all clusters.

Table S10: Streptavidin conjugates used for spectral flow cytometry.

Table S11: Antibodies used in spectral flow cytometry analysis.

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**Figures:**

**Figure 1: Single-cell sequencing of B cells in malaria-experienced children. A)** Timeline of

sample collection at three weeks post-malaria (TP1) and six months later (TP2) in two children.

Children did not experience malaria between the first and second sample collection. **B)** Flow

cytometry strategy to enrich for antigen-experienced B cells. A majority of antigen-experienced

B cells were mixed with naïve B cells and used for library preparation using the 10x Genomics

platform. This yielded three different libraries for each sample to study gene expression, V(D)J

sequences, and cell surface marker expression in the same cells. **C)** UMAP of all B cells that

passed quality control (QC+), showing 9 transcriptomic B cell clusters. Major subsets identified

based on the expression of key genes and previously published gene signatures are indicated.

**D)** Expression levels of genes characteristic for naïve B cells (*BACH2*), memory B cells (*CD27*),

and atypical B cells (*ZBTB32* and *ITGAX*). TP, time point.

**Figure 2: Phenotypically defined atypical B cells are found in three transcriptionally**

**distinct clusters. A)** Distribution of CD21$^{-/+}$ CD27$^{-/+}$ B cells among all transcriptional clusters. **B)**

Distribution of CD11c$^{-/+}$ CXCR3$^{-/+}$ B cells among all transcriptional clusters. **C)** Distribution of

immunoglobulin heavy chain transcripts among all transcriptional clusters. **D)** Projection of

phenotypically defined atypical B cells (shown in red) onto the transcriptomics-based UMAP. All

non-atypical B cells are shown in gray. **E)** The distribution of each B cell population over the

different clusters (left) and the percentage of phenotypically defined B cell populations within

each cluster (right). The direction in which the values in the rows (left) or columns (right) add up

to 100% is indicated with an arrow. The atypical B cell population (left heatmap) and clusters 1,

4, and 5 (right heatmap) mentioned in the text are highlighted with borders. Rest., resting; act.,

activated; NAV, naïve, unswM, unswitched memory; swM, switched memory; DN, double

negative.

**Figure 3: Phenotypic and functional differences between clusters of atypical B cells. A)**

Expression of genes previously identified as part of the unique transcriptional signature of

atypical B cells that are consistently expressed higher or lower in all three clusters of atypical B

cells as compared to class-switched resting memory B cells (swM; cluster 3). **B)** Differential

expression of atypical B cell-associated genes between the three clusters of atypical B cells. **C)**

Selected reactome pathways that were significantly enriched (FDR-corrected P value < $10^{-4}$) in

pair-wise comparisons between the three clusters that contain atypical B cells. Key differentially

expressed genes in these pathways that are shown in panel D are indicated. **D)** Select

differentially expressed genes in atypical B cell clusters that were present in enriched Reactome

pathways and are discussed in the text.

For heatmaps in panels A, B, and D, gene expression values for the four samples were first

divided by the average value for all clusters for that donor to account for donor-to-donor

variation. The data points were then z-scored across all clusters and samples prior to plotting

heatmaps using the color palette 'Hiroshige' from the R package MetBrewer. The four columns

represent the four samples subjected to single-cell RNA-sequencing analysis. C1, cluster 1; C3,

cluster 3; C4, cluster 4; C5, cluster 5

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**Figure 4: Differences in somatic hypermutation frequency and clonal connectivity of**

**atypical B cells. A)** Levels of somatic hypermutation among the transcriptomics-based B cell

clusters. **B)** Levels of somatic hypermutation among phenotypically defined atypical B cells in

clusters 1, 4, and 5. In panels A and B, the median is shown as a solid horizontal lines, while the

quartiles are represented by dashed horizontal lines. A one-way ANOVA was used to test for

statistically significant differences between the groups. P values are shown from Tukey's post

hoc test. **** $P < 0.0001$. **C)** Clonal expansion within clusters (along the diagonal in each

quadrant of the heatmap) and clonal connections between clusters (off-diagonal cells) for the

three clusters that contain atypical B cells at 3 weeks post-malaria (TP1) and six months later

1017    (TP2). **D)** The percentage change in clonal expansion/connections between the first and the

1018    second time point for the three clusters that contain atypical B cells. TP, time point

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**Figure 5: Identification of atypical B cell subsets in malaria-experienced children and**

**adults. A)** Gene expression profiles of differentially expressed genes encoding cell surface

proteins CD11c, FcRL5, and CD86 in atypical B cell clusters 1, 4, and 5, as well as resting

switched memory B cells (swM, cluster 3), used to distinguish atypical B cell subsets by flow

cytometry. The top row shows cell surface expression of CD11c to highlight the correlation

between gene expression and protein expression for this marker. **B)** Schematic overview of

sample collection for children and adults during known *P. falciparum* (*Pf*) exposure and in the

absence of exposure to *P. falciparum*. **C)** UMAP projection of atypical B cells from all 19

samples. Subsets were defined based on expression of CD11c, FcRL5, and CD86 and were

named according to the corresponding clusters defined by single-cell RNA-sequencing analysis.

**D)** CD11c, FcRL5, and CD86 expression projected onto the UMAP of all atypical B cells as well

as each of the three subsets individually. **E)** Relative size of each atypical B cell subset in

children (n = 9) and adults (n = 10) at the first time point (TP1; circles) and second time point

(TP2; triangles). **F)** Comparison of relative subset sizes between children and adults at each

time point. Statistical analysis was performed using a Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test

for paired data (E) or a Mann-Whitney test for unpaired data (F) with a 10% false discovery rate

using the two-stage step-up method of Benjamini, Krieger, and Yekutieli. * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$;

*** $P < 0.001$

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1041     **Figure 6: Detailed phenotyping of atypical B cell subsets. A)** Relative MFI of 14 surface and

1042     intracellular markers in subsets (S) 1, 4, and 5 and in resting switched memory B cells (swM).

**B)** Density UMAP plots of atypical B cells detected at the second time point in children and adults. **C-D)** Projection of CXCR3 (C) and CD95 (D) expression in atypical B cells at the second time point projected onto the UMAPs for children and adults. **E-F)** Percentage of CXCR3$^+$ (E) and CD95$^+$ (F) cells within atypical B cell subsets. For each subset, only individuals with >50 cells at both time points were included in the analysis. Statistical analysis was performed using a Mann-Whitney test with a 10% false discovery rate using the two-stage step-up method of Benjamini, Krieger, and Yekutieli. * P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01; *** P < 0.001

**Figure 7: Detection of MSP1/AMA1-specific cells among the three atypical B cell subsets.**

**A)** Projection of MSP1/AMA1-specific B cells (red) onto the UMAPs of atypical B cell subsets,

1054    shown separately for time point 1 (TP1) and time point 2 (TP2) in children (n = 9) and adults (n

1055    = 10). **B)** Distribution of MSP1/AMA1-specific B cells over the three atypical B cell subsets in

1056    children and adults. Data from both time points were combined. **C)** Percentage of CXCR3$^+$

1057    antigen-specific cells in each atypical B cell subset for adult samples. **D)** Percentage of CD95$^+$

1058    antigen-specific cells in each atypical B cell subset for adult samples.