Whole blood transcriptional profiles and the pathogenesis of tuberculous meningitis

Hoang Thanh Hai[1]*, Le Thanh Hoang Nhat[1]*, Trinh Thi Bich Tram[1], Artika P Nath[6], Joseph Donovan[1,5],

Nguyen Thi Anh Thu[1], Dang Van Thanh[1], Nguyen Duc Bang[2], Dang Thi Minh Ha[2], Nguyen Hoan Phu[1,3], Ho

Dang Trung Nghia[1,3,4], Le Hong Van[1], Michael Inouye[6,7], Guy E Thwaites[1,5], Nguyen Thuy Thuong

Thuong[1,5#]

[1] Oxford University Clinical Research Unit, Ho Chi Minh City, Viet Nam

[2] Pham Ngoc Thanh Hospital, Ho Chi Minh City, Viet Nam

[3] Hospital for Tropical Diseases, Ho Chi Minh City, Viet Nam

[4] Pham Ngoc Thach University of Medicine, Ho Chi Minh City, Viet Nam

[5] Centre for Tropical Medicine and Global Health, Nuffield Department of Medicine, University of Oxford,

United Kingdom

[6] Cambridge Baker Systems Genomics Initiative, Baker Heart and Diabetes Institute, Melbourne, Victoria,

Australia

[7] Cambridge Baker Systems Genomics Initiative, Department of Public Health and Primary Care,

University of Cambridge, Cambridge, United Kingdom

*equal contribution, #corresponding author

Keywords: tuberculosis meningitis, mortality, prognostic, RNA sequencing, gene expression, weighted

gene co-expression network analysis

eLife

No maximum length for Research Articles, but try not to exceed 5,000 words, **word count: 4073 / 5000**

(excluding the Materials and methods, References, and Figure legends)

No limits on the number of display items, **9 figures + 3 tables**

Abstract

Background: Mortality and morbidity from tuberculous meningitis (TBM) are frequent and strongly associated with the inflammatory response to *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* infection. However, the mechanisms driving the associations are uncertain. We sought to identify the gene modules, hubs and pathways associated with the pathogenesis and mortality from TBM, and to identify which best-predicted death.

Methods: We used whole blood RNA sequencing to obtain transcriptional profiles from 281 Vietnamese adults with TBM (207 HIV-negative; 74 HIV-positive), 295 with pulmonary TB (PTB), and 30 healthy controls. The TBM cohort was divided randomly into a discovery cohort (n=142) and a validation cohort (n=139). Weighted gene co-expression network analysis identified clusters of genes (or 'modules') and hub genes associated with death or disease severity. An overrepresentation analysis identified pathways associated with TBM mortality, with a consensus analysis identifying consensual patterns between HIV-positive and HIV-negative individuals. A multivariate elastic-net Cox regression model selected the candidate predictors of TBM mortality, then model prediction performance using logistic regression and internal bootstrap validation to choose best predictors.

Results: Overall, TBM mortality was associated with increased neutrophil activation and decreased T and B cell activation pathways. Death from TBM was associated with increased angiogenesis in HIV-positive adults, and with activated TNF signaling and down-regulated extracellular matrix organization in HIV-negative adults. PTB and TBM have similar transcriptional profiles compared to healthy controls, although inflammatory genes were more activated in HIV-positive than HIV-negative TBM. The expression of four hub genes – *MCEMP1*, *NELL2*, *ZNF354C* and *CD4* – were strongly predictive of death from TBM (AUC 0.80 and 0.86 for HIV-negative and HIV-positive, respectively).

48   **Conclusions:** Whole blood transcriptional profiling revealed that TBM is associated with a characteristic

49   systemic inflammatory response, similar to that invoked by pulmonary tuberculosis, but with key gene

50   modules, hubs and pathways strongly associated with death. Our analysis suggests a novel 4-gene

51   biomarker for predicting death from TBM, but also opens a new window into TBM pathogenesis that

52   may reveal novel therapeutic targets for this lethal disease.

Introduction

Of 7.1 million new tuberculosis (TB) cases in 2019, tuberculous meningitis (TBM) is estimated to have developed in 164,000 adults, around 25% of whom were living with HIV [1]. TBM is the most severe form of TB, causing death or neurological disability in half of all cases. Overall, TBM mortality is around 25%, but rises to around 50% in those with HIV, with most deaths occurring in the first 3 months of treatment [1,2].

The poor outcomes from TBM are strongly associated with the inflammatory response [3,4], with both a paucity and an excess of inflammation linked to death from TBM [5-11]. However, the mechanisms behind these observations remain uncertain. Immune responses in TBM are thought to be compartmentalized within the central nervous system. Studies have shown that immune cell counts, cytokine concentrations, metabolites and transcriptional responses differ between the peripheral blood and the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) [10,12,13]. In adults with TBM, leukocyte activation is higher in the CSF than in peripheral blood, although a marked myeloid response in peripheral blood has been reported [10]. Blood transcriptomic analysis has found increased neutrophil-associated transcripts and inflammasome signaling in those with HIV-associated TBM and immune reconstitution inflammatory syndrome [5]. In children with TBM, whole blood transcriptional profiles showed increased inflammasome activation and decreased T-cell activation [12]. Taken together, these studies suggest the inflammatory response associated with TBM may have a greater systemic component than originally thought and its characterization may help define the immune mechanisms leading to death and disability.

The accurate and early detection of patients at highest risk of complications and death from TBM may help to target treatment for those most in need. The British Medical Research Council (MRC) grades have been used to categorize TBM severity for almost 80 years [14], and the system strongly predicts TBM

mortality[15]. Previously, we and others developed new prognostic models from studies of 1699 adults

with TBM using clinical and laboratory parameters, including MRC grade[4,15]. These models predicted

outcome more accurately than MRC grade alone. However, they might be improved by measures of host

inflammatory response. Host-based peripheral blood gene expression analysis has been used to identify

active or progressive pulmonary TB and in pulmonary TB treatment monitoring [16,17], but has yet to be

applied to TBM.

In the current study, we investigated whole blood transcriptional profiles in 281 Vietnamese adults with

TBM, 295 with pulmonary TB (PTB), and 30 healthy controls. Our objective was to use weighted gene co-

expression network analysis, an unbiased and well-evaluated approach, to identify the biological

pathways and hub genes associated with TBM pathogenesis and assess the predictive value of gene

expression for early mortality from TBM.

Results

Characteristics and outcomes of the cohorts

Four cohorts (all ≥18 years) were used in the study, representing a total of 606 participants. The

characteristics of these cohorts are provided in **Table 1**. There were 281 adults with TBM; 207 HIV-

negative and 74 HIV-positive. In the HIV-negative TBM adults, the median age was 46 years (IQR 34, 58),

127 (61%) were male, and the median Body Mass Index (BMI) was 20.2 (IQR 18.2, 22.3). HIV-positive

adults were more likely than HIV-negative adults to be male, younger, have lower BMI, have previously

received TB treatment, and to have microbiologically confirmed TBM. Total white cell counts in blood

and CSF in HIV-positive adults were lower than in HIV-negative adults. The PTB cohort consisted of 295

adults with the median age of 44 years (IQR 31, 52), 228 (77%) were male, the median of BMI was 19.4

(IQR 17.7, 21.6) and 129 (48%) had pulmonary cavities on chest X-ray. Of the 30 healthy controls, 11

(37%) were male, and the median age was 33 (IQR 29, 37) (**Table 1**).

The clinical variables associated with three-month mortality of the 281 adults with TBM are given in

Table 2. The discovery (n=142) and validation (n=139) cohorts had similar characteristics (**Table 2**).

47.5% (133/280) had definite TBM [18], with microbiologically confirmed disease, accounting for 45.9%

(101/220) of survivors and 52.4% (32/61) of those who died. The overall three-month mortality rate was

21.7% (61/281): 16.4% (34/207) in HIV-negative and 36.5% (27/74) in HIV-positive (p<0.001). We did not

observe differences in mortality by sex, age and diagnostic category. Greater disease severity, MRC

grades 2 and 3 at enrolment, was associated with increased mortality compared to grade 1 (p<0.001). In

those who died, CSF and peripheral blood neutrophil counts were higher and peripheral blood

lymphocyte count lower, compared to those who survived.

Whole blood transcriptional profiles of the four cohorts

We analyzed the whole blood transcriptomics, using bulk RNA sequencing from 606 participants in the 4

cohorts. On average 35.1 million reads/sample and 57% reads mapping accuracy to human reference

genome (GRCh.38 release 99) was obtained. The study objectives and cohorts flow are presented in

Figure 1. Principal component analysis on the transcriptomic profile of the top 20,000 genes with most

variation across 4 studies showed distinct separation between healthy controls from both PTB and TBM

cases (**Figure 2**). The PTB profile substantively overlapped with TBM, with some separation between

HIV-negative and HIV-positive TBM (**Figure 2**).

Enrichment scores from single sample gene set enrichment analysis (ssGSEA), which based on

expression rank of genes relevant to pathways, were measured in some pathways already known to be

important mediators of TB or TBM pathogenesis (**Figure 2**). As anticipated, inflammatory response,

cytokine signaling, interferon signaling, TNF signaling, and inflammasome activation pathways, were

enriched in PTB and TBM cohorts as compared to healthy controls. In TBM, enrichment of genes in these

pathways were generally higher in HIV-positive than in HIV-negative individuals (**Table S1, Table S5**).

Transcriptional gene modules associated with TBM severity and mortality

Transcriptional profiles associated with TBM mortality were generated by identifying differentially

expressed genes. Of the top 20,000 genes with most variation, we observed 724 (3.6%) genes that were

differentially expressed (FDR <0.05, absolute fold change (FC) >1.5) in all those with TBM (**Figure 3,**

Table S2). Next, we applied weighted gene co-expression network analysis (WGCNA) to 5000 most

variable genes from 281 TBM samples (n= 207, HIV-negative; n=74, HIV-positive) to define clusters of

highly correlated genes (modules) associated with TBM severity and mortality. Gene modules are

clusters of genes that have highly interconnected expression, usually related to their biological

functions. Hub genes are genes with high connectivity to other genes within a respective module. First,

we used WGCNA to construct a network of gene modules in the discovery cohort. Then we validated the

presence of these transcriptional modules in the validation cohort, labelling the modules with different

colors. In the discovery cohort (n=142), 15 modules were identified overall, consisting of 44 to 1350

genes per module (**Figure S1, Table S6**). All 15 modules were preserved in the validation cohort (n=139)

through the preservation analysis (**Figure S2**).

The associations between the 15 modules and TBM severity and mortality are presented in **Figure 4** for

both the discovery and validation cohorts. Modules were linked to each other in a hierarchical structure,

with major biological processes annotated. Associations of the modules with TBM disease severity (MRC

grade) at baseline were estimated by Spearman correlations between MRC grade and the first principle

component (PC1) of each module. Similarly, associations of the modules with mortality were measured

by hazard ratio (HR) per increase 1 unit of PC1 using Cox regression model adjusted for age, HIV status

and dexamethasone treatment (**Figure 4**) in both discovery and validation cohorts.

Of the 15 preserved modules, five modules were significantly associated with mortality in the discovery

and validation cohorts, with false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.05 (**Figure 4**). These five modules were

separated into two big module clusters. The first cluster contained the blue module (n=799 genes),

involved in inflammatory and innate immune responses, and the cyan module (n=44 genes) with

unknown biological function. These modules were upregulated in those who died, as shown in the heat-

map in **Figure 4** (HR: 3.0 and 2.2 for the blue module, and 2.2 and 1.7 for the cyan module, FDR < 0.05

for all comparisons). The black (n= 207 genes), brown (n=698 genes) and red (n=229 genes) modules

were in the second cluster and were generally involved in adaptive immunity including T and B cell

signaling pathways. These three modules were down-regulated in those who died (HR: 0.43 and 0.36 for

brown, 0.46 and 0.39 for red, 0.59 and 0.49 for black) (**Figure 4**).

It is known that TBM MRC grade before treatment initiation strongly predicts outcome from TBM. Here,

we investigated correlations between each module and MRC grade and their association with mortality.

The pink module, involved in hemostasis and platelet activation, was positively correlated with MRC

grade, but not mortality. Of the five modules associated with death from TBM, all were correlated with

MRC grade (**Figure 4**). Four of these five modules, were enriched for immune responses.

Transcriptional hub genes associated with TBM severity and mortality

We next identified hub genes within the four biologically functional modules associated with TBM

mortality in both the discovery and validation cohorts. Hub genes showed higher connectivity within the

modules, and stronger association with TBM mortality as compared to less connected genes within a

module (**Figure S3**). Seven hub genes (*ETS2, PGD, UPP1, CYSTM1, FCAR, KIF1B* and *MCEMP1*) were

upregulated in death, all from the acute inflammation (blue) module. Hub genes from the brown, red

and black modules were downregulated in death and were involved in adaptive immune response. Ten

hub genes associated with mortality (*CD96, TNFRSF25, TBC1D4, CD28, ABLIM1, RASGRP1, NELL2, TRAF5,*

TESPA1, TRABD2A) were from the brown module, three (*EVL, PLCG1, NLRC3*) from the red, and six (*CD2,*

CD247, TGFBR3, ARL4C, KLRK1, MATK) from the black module (**Figure 5, Table S7**).

We examined patterns of shared and distinct gene expression of some hub across the four cohorts

(healthy controls, PTB, and TBM with and without HIV-infection) to reveal disease progression and

pathogenesis of different TB forms (**Figure 6**). There were two upregulated genes from the acute

inflammation module (*FCAR* and *MCEMP1*) and six downregulated genes (*NELL2, TRABD2A, PLCG1,*

NLRC3, CD247 and *MATK*) from the other three adaptive immunity modules. The patterns of up and

downregulation, relative to healthy controls, were similar in PTB and TBM, although tended to be more

pronounced in those with TBM as well as those with HIV (**Figure 6**).

Transcriptional immune pathways associated with TBM mortality

To better understand the biological functions of the five modules associated with TBM mortality, a gene

set associated with mortality in each module was functionally annotated using known pathway

databases, such as gene ontology (GO) and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG)[19].

Pathway enrichment analysis was performed using fold enrichment to determine if the prevalence of

genes in a pathway were different from that expected by chance. We also used ssGSEA enrichment

scores based on gene expression ranking of genes in a particular pathway within a single individual, to

show the activity of this pathway between death and survival TBM as well as across 4 cohorts. These

analyses helped to identify the pathways linked to mortality within the gene modules.

In the blue module, we found TBM mortality was associated with upregulated inflammatory and innate

immune response transcripts, particularly in pathways involved in the acute inflammatory response and

the regulation of inflammatory responses, including responses to bacteria and neutrophil activation.

KEGG pathway analysis suggested this signal was associated with transduction and immune system

pathways, such as toll-like receptor signaling, TNF signaling, NF-kappa B signaling and neutrophil

extracellular trap formation (**Figure 5, Table S8**).

We did not find any pathway significantly associated with mortality in the upregulated cyan gene

module, although in the hierarchical clustering the cyan module was highly correlated with the blue -

inflammatory response module (**Figure 4**). In contrast, analyses of the down-regulated brown, red and

black modules highlighted pathways involved in adaptive immunity, predominantly those mediated by

lymphocytes. These included downregulations of lymphocyte proliferation, T cell activation, B cell

activation, natural killer cell mediated cytotoxicity and their signaling pathways such as antigen

receptor-mediated, T and B cell receptor (**Figure 5**, **Table S8**).

We also investigated the association between pathways known to be important to TB pathogenesis and

mortality (**Figure 7**). Looking at those who died vs. survived amongst HIV-positive TBM, there was little

difference between the groups with respect to inflammatory response, cytokine signaling, and icosanoid

and inflammasome activation. This was also the case for HIV-negative individuals. However, interferon

and TNF pathways were more active in those with HIV, and TNF signaling expression was significantly

higher in HIV-negative adults who died rather than survived.

HIV influence on modules, hub genes, and pathways associated with TBM mortality

Transcriptional profiles associated with TBM mortality stratified by HIV status are shown in **Figure 3**. In HIV-negative individuals, 786 (3.9%) genes were differentially expressed, whereas in HIV-positive the number was 1620 (8.1%) genes (**Figure 3, Table S2 & S3**). We hypothesized that host transcriptional signatures associated with TBM mortality differ according to HIV status. To test this hypothesis, we constructed gene co-expression networks from all genes in HIV-negative (n=207) and HIV-positive (n=74) individuals separately, then performed consensus gene co-expression network analysis (**Figure S4**). Modules were identified with colors and to discriminate them from the modules linked to mortality alone we added an annotated function on the module name. We focused on modules that failed to form consensus associations with mortality due to opposite associations in the two cohorts.

Sixteen gene co-expression modules (**Figure 8**, **Table S9**), ranging from 60 to 958 genes, were obtained from the HIV-negative and positive cohorts. Of these, 12 modules formed consensus association with mortality (**Figure 8**). Of the 4 modules which failed to form consensus association, two modules were significantly associated with mortality (FDR<0.05). The blue-angiogenesis module was up-regulated in death in HIV-positive adults (HR: 1.7) and the yellow-extracellular matrix organization (EMO) module was down-regulated in death in HIV-negative adults (HR: 0.31) (**Figure 8**).

Hub genes associated with mortality, which are highly correlated with other genes in the module, were identified in the two modules. Five hub genes, with three downregulated (*ZNF354C, ZNF721* and *ETAA1*) and two upregulated (*CEP295NL* and *RNF24*), were identified in the blue-angiogenesis module. Other five hub genes, with four downregulated (*IL11RA*, *CD4*, *ZNF395* and *BCL9L*) and one upregulated (*PPP4R2*), were identified in the yellow-EMO module (**Figure 8, Table S10**). Expression of some hub

genes across the four cohorts showed the patterns of up (*RNF24*) and downregulation (*ZNF721, BCL9L*

and *IL11RA*), and relative to healthy controls they were similar in PTB and TBM. Expression of *RNF24* and

ZNF721 genes were significantly associated with death in HIV-positive adults, whereas expression of

BCL9L and *IL11RA* genes were significantly associated with death in HIV-negative adults (**Figure S5**).

Pathway enrichment analysis showed genes in the blue-angiogenesis module were significantly enriched

for angiogenesis or blood vessel development, leukocyte and neutrophil activation, and signal

transduction pathways (**Figure 8**, **Table S11**). Gene expression in the yellow- module was strongly

enriched in extracellular matrix organization, cell-substrate adhesion and protein localization pathways

(**Figure 8**, **Table S11**). Hierarchical clustering of modules indicated that these two modules were highly

correlated (**Figure 8**) suggesting they share similar functions, which appeared in some pathways such as

angiogenesis and extracellular matrix organization.

In addition, almost all of the pathways significantly associated with TBM mortality were similar in HIV-

negative and positive cohorts, confirming that these important pathways were common to all TBM

(**Figure S6**). However, pathway enrichment scores were higher in HIV-positive than in HIV-negative,

especially for the TNF signaling pathway and TNF transcripts (**Figure 9**). Death in HIV-negative TBM was

associated with increased enrichment of these pathways, but with less TNF transcript compared to HIV-

positive individuals. The enrichment scores indicated mortality was strongly associated with

downregulation of adaptive immune responses, including T cell activation, T and B cell receptor signaling

pathways, with little impact of HIV status on these pathways (**Figure 9**). These data suggest an

inadequate adaptive immune response contributes to disease pathogenesis and mortality in all those

with TBM, regardless of HIV status.

Predictors of TBM mortality

We aimed to identify baseline gene signatures that might help predict death or survival from TBM. We

selected potential gene predictors from 26 common and 10 HIV-specific hub genes; these hub genes

represented the dominant modules associated with mortality. Three predefined clinical factors known

to be associated with outcome (age, MRC grade and CSF lymphocyte count) were also used for

candidate predictor selection. Using a multivariate Cox elastic-net regression model for 39 predictors, six

predictors were selected for HIV-negative TBM (MRC grade, age, CSF lymphocyte count, gene set 1:

MCEMP1, *TRABD2A* and *CD4*), and 6 predictors were selected for HIV-positive TBM (MRC grade, age,

CSF lymphocyte count, gene set 2: *NELL2*, *MCEMP1* and *ZNF354C*) (**Table S12**). Gene expression and

association with mortality of five distinct genes in gene sets 1 and 2 were presented in **Figure S7**. By

combining the two gene sets above and reducing genes in the same module, we generated gene set 3

(*MCEMP1*, *TRABD2A*, *CD4* and *ZNF354C*) and gene set 4 (*MCEMP1*, *NELL2*, *ZNF354C* and *CD4*). These two

gene sets, with and without clinical factors (MRC grade and age), were tested for their performance in

HIV-negative and HIV-positive cohorts together with a reference model [15]. Model 7 from gene set 4 and

clinical factors outperformed other gene sets and reference model, with the best overall model

performance (lowest optimism-corrected Brier score, 0.11 and 0.14 for HIV-negative and HIV-positive,

respectively) and the best discriminant performance (highest optimism-corrected AUC 0.80 and 0.86 for

HIV-negative and positive) (**Table 3, Figure S8**).

Discussion

The biological pathways involved in pathogenesis of TBM are unclear. In general, previous studies

investigating TBM pathogenesis have been small, testing for relatively small numbers of selected genes

or molecules, and have been unable to take an unbiased and broader view of the inflammatory

response. This study investigated the pathways associated with death from TBM at a whole-genome

transcriptome level, characterizing a global dysregulation in immune responses, including inflammation,

and revealing specific functional pathways and hub genes involved in TBM and the mechanisms leading

to death.

We sought to understand better the pathogenesis of TBM by identifying pretreatment blood

transcriptional gene modules associated TBM disease severity and three-month mortality. Four out of

five identified modules were involved in immunological functions, indicating multiple functional

pathways of systemic immunity are involved in the pathogenesis of TBM. In particular, mortality was

strongly associated with increased acute inflammation and neutrophil activation, and decreased

adaptive immunity and T and B cell activation. Whilst there appeared to be many common pathways

involved in TBM mortality in HIV-positive and negative individuals, there were differences: death was

associated with increased expression of angiogenesis genes in HIV-positive adults, and with TNF

signaling and down regulated extracellular matrix organisation in HIV-negative adults. We also identified

a four-gene signature as a potential host response biomarker for mortality, regardless of HIV status.

TBM mortality was associated with increased acute inflammatory responses, the regulation of

inflammatory responses, and neutrophil activation. Previous blood transcriptome studies have shown

that IFN-inducible neutrophil-driven transcripts were over-expressed in blood neutrophils from active TB

patients compared to those with latent TB[20,21]. Another study described that TBM adults who developed

IRIS during treatment, also had significantly more abundant neutrophil-associated transcripts that

preceded the development of TBM-IRIS [5]. Our own earlier studies have also suggest a role for

neutrophils in TBM pathogenesis, with high pretreatment CSF bacterial loads being correlated with high

neutrophil numbers in both CSF and blood and more frequent new neurological events or paradoxical

inflammatory complications [8].

Taken together with previous studies, our findings support an important role for over-activation of neutrophil-mediated inflammatory responses in TBM pathogenesis and its lethal complications. Looking further into specific pathways, TBM mortality was neither associated with inflammatory response and cytokine signaling pathways in general, nor with interferon or inflammasome activation. However, increased transcripts in some specific immunity pathways, including TNF signaling, Toll-like receptor, NF-kappa B and neutrophil extracellular trap formation, were associated with TBM mortality. These pathways are involved as activators or effectors in the process of neutrophil activation and regulation, leading to an exacerbated inflammatory response [22-24].

We found blood transcriptional responses of T cells and B cells were under-expressed in those who died from TBM, indicating an impairment in adaptive immunity in fatal disease. A reduction of activities in both T cell and B cell receptor signaling pathways in death were identified, independent of over-expression of neutrophil-mediated immune responses, indicating that multiple functional pathways influence TBM mortality. TBM pathogenesis is known to be associated with T cell impairment. Previous studies have shown lower numbers of T cells, reduced ability to respond to *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* antigens or reduced expression of activation markers and cytokine production in TBM compared to PTB and healthy individuals [10,25,26]. This impaired T cell function has correlated with disease severity and poor clinical outcomes in participants with PTB and TBM [10,27,28].

B cells and antibodies also influence humoral immunity against *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. Studies have shown a decreased memory B cell proportion, and lower levels of IgG, IgM antibodies and Fcγ receptors binding capacity in plasma in those with active lung TB compared to those with latent TB or healthy volunteers [29,30]. But little is known about the role of B cells in TBM. The observed association

between TBM mortality and decreased transcriptional responses in B cell activation and B cell receptor

signaling pathways suggest an unanticipated role for B cells and humoral immunity in TBM pathogenesis

that needs further investigation.

Transcriptomic profiles from four cohorts, including healthy controls and PTB, provide a broad view of

host responses in different TB clinical forms. Our data showed common transcriptional pathways and

genes between PTB and TBM. A range of immune responses, involving in inflammation, cytokines,

interferon, inflammasome and neutrophil signaling pathways, were activated in both PTB and TBM, but

with significantly greater activation in HIV-positive TBM than HIV-negative TBM. This finding aligns with

our previous data showing a dyregulated hyper-inflammation in HIV-associated TBM, with significantly

higher CSF cytokine concentrations than in those without HIV infection [7]. These data suggest that

different forms of TB are associated with similar inflammatory responses, but with different degrees of

host responses, exemplified by hyper-inflammation in those with HIV.

The HIV-driven differences in TBM-associated inflammation appear sufficient to influence response to

adjunctive anti-inflammatory therapy with corticosteroids. An earlier randomized controlled trial of

corticosteroids in 545 predominantly HIV-negative Vietnamese adults showed they significantly

improved survival [31]. Our group recently completed a similar sized trial exclusively in HIV-positive adults

without any clear benefit upon mortality (NEJM 22-16218.R2, in press). Therefore, the differences in

gene expression associated with TBM mortality in the current study – with angiogenesis activation

linked to HIV-positive TBM mortality only, for example – may provide an explanation for the poor

response and offer alternative therapeutic strategies. Recent studies have shown that angiogenesis is

induced by *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* infection, which then contributes to inflammation, tissue

damage and is correlated with disease severity [32].

Developing prognostic models for TBM is important for guiding clinical decision making and improving outcomes. Several studies have developed and validated prognostic models for TBM using clinical, laboratory and radiological variables. These models have demonstrated moderate to high accuracy in predicting mortality and functional outcomes from TBM patients [15,33-35]. In this study, we used blood transcriptional signatures and co-expression network analysis to identify module-representative hub genes. We identified a four-gene set at the start of treatment (*MCEMP1*, *NELL2*, *ZNF354C* and *CD4*) whose expression strongly predicted three-month TBM mortality. Our prognostic models combining this four-gene host response in blood and two routine clinical predictors achieved very good performance, with AUC 0.80 and 0.86 for HIV-negative and HIV-positive individuals with TBM, respectively. This is proof-of-concept that whole blood RNA host response might be a useful pre-treatment biomarker to predict early TBM mortality. Although further investigation and validation is needed, we have identified potential gene candidates for future development as prognostic biomarkers.

In summary, we present a comprehensive and unbiased analysis of the gene transcripts associated with TBM severity and mortality. Our data open a new window on TBM pathogenesis, with dysregulation in both innate and adaptive immune responses strongly associated with death from TBM. Furthermore, we have identified similarities and differences in the inflammatory responses associated with TBM in HIV-positive and negative adults, which may explain the different therapeutic effects of adjunctive corticosteroid treatment. We also revealed a 4-gene host response signature in blood that might represent a novel biomarker for defining those at highest risk of death, regardless of their HIV status.

Materials and Methods

Participants

We collected data and whole peripheral blood samples for transcriptomic profiling from adults (≥18

years) with TBM enrolled into two randomized controlled trials conducted in Vietnam. The two trials

investigated whether adjunctive dexamethasone improves outcome from TBM and the protocols for

both trials have been published[36,37] The ACT-HIV trial (NCT03092817) completed enrolment and follow-

up of 520 HIV-positive adults with TBM in April 2023, with the results accepted for publication (NEJM

22-16218.R2, in press). The LAST-ACT trial (NCT03100786) completed enrollment of 720 HIV-negative

adults with TBM in March 2023, with the last participants due to complete follow-up in March 2024.

Peripheral blood samples were taken from 281 trial participants: the first 207 consecutively enrolled

HIV-negative participants from the LAST-ACT trial, and 74 randomly selected HIV-positive participants

from the ACT-HIV trial. The samples were taken at enrollment, when patients could not have received

more than 6 days of anti-tuberculosis drugs. All trial participants then received standard 4-drug anti-

tuberculosis treatment for 2 months, followed by 3 drugs for 10 months, and were randomly allocated

to dexamethasone or identical placebo for the first 6-8 weeks[36,37]. The investigators remain blind to the

treatment allocation until the last participant completes follow-up and the database has been locked.

Therefore, an analysis of the direct influence of corticosteroids on inflammatory response and outcome

is not included in the current study.

Peripheral blood samples were taken for transcriptional profiling from two other cohorts: 295 adults

with PTB and 30 healthy controls. The PTB cohort was enrolled in Pham Ngoc Thach hospital and District

TB Units in Ho Chi Minh city, from a prospective observational study of the host and bacterial

determinants of outcome from PTB. Participants had culture-confirmed PTB, either drug susceptible TB

or a new diagnosis of multidrug-resistant TB. All participants in this cohort had <7 days of anti-TB drugs

at enrolment and did not have clinical evidence of extra-pulmonary TB. Healthy controls were enrolled

in Hospital for Tropical Diseases in Ho Chi Minh city, from a prospective study for epidemiological

characteristics of human resistance to *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* infection. Participants in this cohort

were adults without signs or symptoms of TB nor history of TB contact within the last two years.

Ethics approval was obtained from the institutional review board at the Hospital for Tropical Diseases,

Pham Ngoc Thach Hospital and the ethics committee of the Ministry of Health in Vietnam, and the

Oxford Tropical Research Ethics Committee, UK (OxTREC 52-16, 36-16, 24-17, 33-17 and 532-22). All

participants provided their written informed consent to take part in the study, or from their relatives if

they were incapacitated.

Study design

The objectives and cohorts used in this study are presented in **Figure 1** and a workflow of data analysis is

shown in **Figure S9**. Briefly, blood transcriptional profiling was generated from four cohorts of 207 TBM

HIV-negative, 74 TBM HIV-positive, 279 PTB and 30 healthy controls. To define transcriptional signatures

associated with TBM mortality, data from all 281 TBM participants were used. To ensure reproducibility,

in our main analysis we randomly split our TBM data into two datasets, a discovery cohort (n=142) and a

validation cohort (n=139). After identifying gene modules associated with mortality, related functional

pathways and hub genes were determined with more details of the data analysis provided in **Figure S9**.

In a broader view, gene enrichment and expression from significant pathways and hub genes were

illustrated across all four cohorts. Finally, outcome prediction models were developed for TBM.

Sample processing and RNA-seq

Whole blood samples, collected from participants at enrollment, were stored in PAXgene collection

tubes at -80^{0}C. RNA samples were isolated at the same time using the PAXgene Blood RNA kits (Qiagen,

Valencia, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions, except for an additional washing step

before RNA elution. DNA was digested on columns using the RNase-free DNase Set (Qiagen, Valencia,

CA, USA). Quality control of the RNA extraction was performed using the Epoch spec for quantity and

quality, and Tapestation Eukaryotic RNA Screentape for integrity. Samples with RNA integrity number

below 4 were exclude for further steps. RNA-seq was performed by the Ramaciotti Centre for Genomics

(Sydney, Australia). One microgram of total RNA was used as input for each sample, using the TruSeq

Stranded Total RNA Ribo-zero Globin kit (Illumina). Libraries were generated on the Sciclone G3 NGS

(Perkin Elmer, Utah, USA) and the cDNA was amplified using 11 PCR cycles. Libraries were pooled 75

samples per pool and sequenced using NovaSeq 6000 S4 reagents at 2x100bp to generate about 30

million reads per sample.

RNA-seq data quality control and pre-processing

Quality control and alignment were performed using an in-house pipeline modified from previously

published practices for RNA-seq analysis [38,39] in linux command line. Briefly, the quality of the

sequencing fastq files was analyzed using FastQC (v0.11.5) and poor quality samples were excluded from

further analysis. Sequence reads were adapter and quality trimmed using Trimmomatic (v0.36), followed

by duplicated optical read removal using BBMap (v38.79) tool. STAR aligner (v2.5.2a) was used to align

the reads to the human reference genome (GRCh38 build 99) downloaded from Ensembl, allowing for

maximum 2 mismatches in each 25 bp segment and a maximum of 20 alignment hits per read [40,41]. The

alignment results were sorted and indexed for downstream analyses as BAM format files. The aligned

reads were further utilized to generate gene expression counts using FeatureCounts (v2.0.0) against the

human reference annotation (GRCh38 build 99) [42]. Next, 60,067 genes in the expression matrix were

first normalized by variance stabilizing transformation method built in DESeq2 package in R [43].

Subsequently, the batch effect was removed for 20,000 most variable genes using combat function in

the SVA package [44].

Statistical analysis

The primary outcome examined in this study was TBM three-month mortality. In the descriptive

analysis, we summarized and tested association of patient characteristics with three-month mortality

using univariate Cox regression analysis. We presented the proportion for binary variables and median

(1st and 3rd interquartile range) for continuous variables.

To explore transcriptional profiles associated with mortality in TBM, differential expression analysis was

performed on the 20,000 normalized gene expression matrix to find differentially expressed genes

(DEGs). We constructed the contradicted matrix with survival and death status adjusted for covariates

including: age, HIV status, dexamethasone treatment (LAST-ACT trial investigators remained blind), and

sequencing batch. Linear models were used to assess DEGs using limma R package. Empirical Bayes

moderated-t p-values were computed for each genes and Benjamini-Hochberg were used for correcting

multiple testing (FDR). We defined the DEGs with the parameters (fold change > 1.5 and FDR <0.05). To

visualize samples clustering in the 4 cohorts, a unsupervised principal component analysis was

performed on 20,000 normalized genes, and the first principle component was plotted against the

second principle component. The 95% confidence ellipse was drawn for each group using multivariate t-

distribution ellipse. To compare enrichment activity of interested pathways between death vs survival,

TBM vs PTB or healthy controls, enrichment scores of these pathways were calculated for single patient

using single sample Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) algorithm (ssGSEA). Pairwise Wilcoxon rank

sum test was used for comparison between any two cohorts.

In the primary analysis, we initially conducted *weighted gene co-expression network analysis* (WGCNA)

on the whole-blood transcriptomic profiling of the discovery cohort to identify clusters of genes (or

'modules') in the gene co-expression network among host transcriptomic genes. We then performed a

network modules preservation analysis to assess the reproducibility of these modules and the network

in the validation cohort. Subsequently, we conducted a *module-trait association analysis* to identify

modules associated with the clinical traits of mortality and TBM severity. For the association analysis

with mortality, we used a *Cox regression model* with the PC1 of the module as an independent variable.

We adjusted the model for age, HIV status, and corticosteroid treatment (dexamethasone vs. placebo).

To analyze the association with TBM severity, we calculated the *Spearman correlation* between TBM

severity (MRC grade) and the module's PC1. We corrected for false discovery rate (FDR) for the

dependent hypotheses by using the Benjamini-Yekutieli procedure. Target modules were defined as

modules associated with mortality in both the discovery and validation cohorts at FDR < 0.05. Hub genes

within each targeted module were identified based on 3 criteria: protein coding gene, module

membership cut off 0.85 (MM) and high rank of gene significance rank (GS). MM defined as correlation

between individual gene and the module's PC1. GS defined as -$\log_{10}$ p value association of gene with

mortality using Cox regression model adjusted for age, HIV status and treatment. Genes were first

filtered for protein coding function and MM above 0.85. Genes then was ranked based on its GS and top

3% were selected if number of genes in module above 500, otherwise top 5% were selected. Overlap

hub genes between discovery and validation cohort were consider validated.

In the subsequent analysis, to determine the biological funcions or processes potentially related to each

module we conducted *overrepresentation analysis* (ORA) using ShinyGO v0.77 [19]. Genes were first filters

for association with three-month mortality at $p < 0.05$ and then were input into ShinyGO. We used both

GO and KEGG databases for this analysis. We pre-specified significant pathways with overlap gene in

pathway > 5 and FDR < 0.05.

Furthermore, to compare *enrichment activity* of resulting pathways between death vs survival, TBM vs

PTB or healthy controls, enrichment scores of these pathways were calculated for single patient using

ssGSEA algorithm [45]. Pairwise Wilcoxon rank rum test were applied for comparison between 2 cohorts.

To compare or visualize the difference of pathway effect on mortality between HIV-negative and HIV-

positive TBM, *fold change enrichment* of interested pathways were calculated using Quantitative Set

Analysis for Gene Expression (QuSAGE) method [46].

In the secondary analysis, we performed a *consensus analysis* to identify consensus patterns of co-

expression networks between HIV-positive and HIV-negative conditions in our TBM cohort. We

conducted similar association analyses for TBM severity and mortality as in the preceding WGCNA

analysis for both the HIV-negative and HIV-positive cohorts. We visualized the results using a heatmap.

We defined strongly associated modules in HIV-positive or HIV-negative cohort as HIV-positive-specific

signals and HIV-negative-specific signals. Additionally, we functional enrichmet ORA was performed for

these consensus modules and the HIV-specific modules

We then performed variable selection using a *multivariate elastic-net Cox regression model* to select the

important predictors for HIV-negative and HIV-positive TBM prognosis separately. Candidate predictors

in HIV-negative TBM consisted of the combination of common hub genes, HIV-negative specific hub

genes and clinical biomarkers: age, TBM severity and CSF lymphocyte count. Similarly, for HIV-positive

TBM, candidate predictors consisted of common hub genes, HIV-positive specific hub genes and clinical

biomarkers. We performed the analysis with 1,000 bootstrap sampling with replacement. The chosen

variables were 1) among the top 75% of selected variables and 2) one representative hub gene per

module. Subsequently, we developed a prediction model based on a *logistic regression model*

incorporating only the chosen variables. We also assessed the overall model performance (by *optimism-*

corrected Brier score), the discrimination (by *optimism-corrected AUC*), and calibration (by *optimism-*

corrected calibration-slope) of the developed model [47].

More details on performing ORA, SSGSEA, QuSAGE and WGCNA preservation and consensus analyses

can be found in the *Supplementary method document.*

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank and the clinical staff who recruited patients into our study from Hospital for

Tropical Diseases and Pham Ngoc Thach hospital, Ho Chi Minh city, Vietnam, and all participants.

Funding

This work was supported by Wellcome Trust Fellowship in Public Health and Tropical Medicine to NTTT

(206724/Z/17/Z), Wellcome Trust Investigator Award to GT and Wellcome Trust to Vietnam Africa Asia

Programme.

Conflicts of Interest

No conflicts of interest

References

1.   Dodd, P.J. *et al.* The global burden of tuberculous meningitis in adults: A modelling study. *PLOS*
Glob Public Health **1**, e0000069 (2021).
2.   Stadelman, A.M. *et al.* Treatment Outcomes in Adult Tuberculous Meningitis: A Systematic
Review and Meta-analysis. *Open Forum Infect Dis* **7**, ofaa257 (2020).
3.   Wilkinson, R.J. *et al.* Tuberculous meningitis. *Nat Rev Neurol* **13**, 581-598 (2017).
4.   Huynh, J. *et al.* Tuberculous meningitis: progress and remaining questions. *Lancet Neurol* **21**,
450-464 (2022).
5.   Marais, S. *et al.* Inflammasome Activation Underlying Central Nervous System Deterioration in
HIV-Associated Tuberculosis. *J Infect Dis* **215**, 677-686 (2017).
6.   Rohlwink, U.K. *et al.* Biomarkers of Cerebral Injury and Inflammation in Pediatric Tuberculous
Meningitis. *Clin Infect Dis* **65**, 1298-1307 (2017).
7.   Thuong, N.T.T. *et al.* Leukotriene A4 Hydrolase Genotype and HIV Infection Influence
Intracerebral Inflammation and Survival From Tuberculous Meningitis. *J Infect Dis* **215**, 1020-
1028 (2017).
8.   Thuong, N.T.T. *et al.* Pretreatment Cerebrospinal Fluid Bacterial Load Correlates With
Inflammatory Response and Predicts Neurological Events During Tuberculous Meningitis
Treatment. *J Infect Dis* **219**, 986-995 (2019).
9.   van Laarhoven, A. *et al.* Clinical Parameters, Routine Inflammatory Markers, and LTA4H
Genotype as Predictors of Mortality Among 608 Patients With Tuberculous Meningitis in
Indonesia. *J Infect Dis* **215**, 1029-1039 (2017).
10. van Laarhoven, A. *et al.* Immune cell characteristics and cytokine responses in adult HIV-
negative tuberculous meningitis: an observational cohort study. *Sci Rep* **9**, 884 (2019).

11.   Cresswell, F.V. *et al.* Recent Developments in Tuberculous Meningitis Pathogenesis and
Diagnostics. *Wellcome Open Res* **4**, 164 (2019).
12.   Rohlwink, U.K. *et al.* Tuberculous meningitis in children is characterized by compartmentalized
immune responses and neural excitotoxicity. *Nat Commun* **10**, 3767 (2019).
13.   Ardiansyah, E. *et al.* Tryptophan metabolism determines outcome in tuberculous meningitis: a
targeted metabolomic analysis. *Elife* **12**(2023).
14.   STREPTOMYCIN treatment of tuberculous meningitis. *Lancet* **1**, 582-96 (1948).
15.   Thao, L.T.P. *et al.* Prognostic Models for 9-Month Mortality in Tuberculous Meningitis. *Clin Infect
Dis* **66**, 523-532 (2018).
16.   Sweeney, T.E., Braviak, L., Tato, C.M. & Khatri, P. Genome-wide expression for diagnosis of
pulmonary tuberculosis: a multicohort analysis. *Lancet Respir Med* **4**, 213-24 (2016).
17.   Penn-Nicholson, A. *et al.* RISK6, a 6-gene transcriptomic signature of TB disease risk, diagnosis
and treatment response. *Sci Rep* **10**, 8629 (2020).
18.   Marais, S. *et al.* Tuberculous meningitis: a uniform case definition for use in clinical research.
Lancet Infect Dis **10**, 803-12 (2010).
19.   Ge, S.X., Jung, D. & Yao, R. ShinyGO: a graphical gene-set enrichment tool for animals and
plants. *Bioinformatics* **36**, 2628-2629 (2020).
20.   Berry, M.P. *et al.* An interferon-inducible neutrophil-driven blood transcriptional signature in
human tuberculosis. *Nature* **466**, 973-7 (2010).
21.   Singhania, A. *et al.* A modular transcriptional signature identifies phenotypic heterogeneity of
human tuberculosis infection. *Nat Commun* **9**, 2308 (2018).
22.   Geng, X. *et al.* Whole transcriptome sequencing reveals neutrophils' transcriptional landscape
associated with active tuberculosis. *Front Immunol* **13**, 954221 (2022).
23.   Castro-Alcaraz, S., Miskolci, V., Kalasapudi, B., Davidson, D. & Vancurova, I. NF-kappa B
regulation in human neutrophils by nuclear I kappa B alpha: correlation to apoptosis. *J Immunol*
169, 3947-53 (2002).
24.   Sabroe, I., Dower, S.K. & Whyte, M.K. The role of Toll-like receptors in the regulation of
neutrophil migration, activation, and apoptosis. *Clin Infect Dis* **41 Suppl 7**, S421-6 (2005).
25.   Davoudi, S. *et al.* CD4+ cell counts in patients with different clinical manifestations of
tuberculosis. *Braz J Infect Dis* **12**, 483-6 (2008).
26.   Shridhar, A. *et al.* Prevalence of primary immunodeficiency syndromes in tuberculous
meningitis: A case-control study. *J Infect Public Health* **15**, 29-35 (2022).
27.   An, H.R. *et al.* The relationship between absolute counts of lymphocyte subsets and clinical
features in patients with pulmonary tuberculosis. *Clin Respir J* **16**, 369-379 (2022).
28.   Hemingway, C. *et al.* Childhood tuberculosis is associated with decreased abundance of T cell
gene transcripts and impaired T cell function. *PLoS One* **12**, e0185973 (2017).
29.   Lu, L.L. *et al.* A Functional Role for Antibodies in Tuberculosis. *Cell* **167**, 433-443 e14 (2016).
30.   La Manna, M.P. *et al.* Impact of Mycobacterium tuberculosis Infection on Human B Cell
Compartment and Antibody Responses. *Cells* **11**(2022).
31.   Thwaites, G.E. *et al.* Dexamethasone for the treatment of tuberculous meningitis in adolescents
and adults. *N Engl J Med* **351**, 1741-51 (2004).
32.   Kumar, N.P., Banurekha, V.V., Nair, D. & Babu, S. Circulating Angiogenic Factors as Biomarkers of
Disease Severity and Bacterial Burden in Pulmonary Tuberculosis. *PLoS One* **11**, e0146318
(2016).
33.   Thao, L.T.P. *et al.* Dynamic Prediction of Death in Patients With Tuberculous Meningitis Using
Time-updated Glasgow Coma Scale and Plasma Sodium Measurements. *Clin Infect Dis* **70**, 827-
834 (2020).

34. Feng, B. *et al.* Prognostic factors of adult tuberculous meningitis in intensive care unit: a single-
center retrospective study in East China. *BMC Neurol* **21**, 308 (2021).
35. Sharawat, I.K. *et al.* Development and Validation of a Prognostic Model and Bedside Score for
the Neurological Outcome in Children with Tuberculous Meningitis. *Am J Trop Med Hyg* **107**,
1288-1294 (2022).
36. Donovan, J. *et al.* Adjunctive dexamethasone for the treatment of HIV-uninfected adults with
tuberculous meningitis stratified by Leukotriene A4 hydrolase genotype (LAST ACT): Study
protocol for a randomised double blind placebo controlled non-inferiority trial. *Wellcome Open*
Res **3**, 32 (2018).
37. Donovan, J. *et al.* Adjunctive dexamethasone for the treatment of HIV-infected adults with
tuberculous meningitis (ACT HIV): Study protocol for a randomised controlled trial. *Wellcome*
Open Res **3**, 31 (2018).
38. Yalamanchili, H.K., Wan, Y.W. & Liu, Z. Data Analysis Pipeline for RNA-seq Experiments: From
Differential Expression to Cryptic Splicing. *Curr Protoc Bioinformatics* **59**, 11 15 1-11 15 21
(2017).
39. Conesa, A. *et al.* A survey of best practices for RNA-seq data analysis. *Genome Biol* **17**, 13 (2016).
40. Dobin, A. *et al.* STAR: ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner. *Bioinformatics* **29**, 15-21 (2013).
41. Bolger, A.M., Lohse, M. & Usadel, B. Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina sequence
data. *Bioinformatics* **30**, 2114-20 (2014).
42. Liao, Y., Smyth, G.K. & Shi, W. featureCounts: an efficient general purpose program for assigning
sequence reads to genomic features. *Bioinformatics* **30**, 923-30 (2014).
43. Love, M.I., Huber, W. & Anders, S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-
seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol* **15**, 550 (2014).
44. Leek, J.T., Johnson, W.E., Parker, H.S., Jaffe, A.E. & Storey, J.D. The sva package for removing
batch effects and other unwanted variation in high-throughput experiments. *Bioinformatics* **28**,
882-3 (2012).
45. Barbie, D.A. *et al.* Systematic RNA interference reveals that oncogenic KRAS-driven cancers
require TBK1. *Nature* **462**, 108-12 (2009).
46. Yaari, G., Bolen, C.R., Thakar, J. & Kleinstein, S.H. Quantitative set analysis for gene expression: a
method to quantify gene set differential expression including gene-gene correlations. *Nucleic*
Acids Res **41**, e170 (2013).
47. Steyerberg, E.W. *et al.* Internal validation of predictive models: efficiency of some procedures
for logistic regression analysis. *J Clin Epidemiol* **54**, 774-81 (2001).

Overview of blood transcriptional profiling and
Comparisons of known immune pathways & genes associated with TB pathogenesis
in 4 cohorts: 207 TBM HIV-negative, 74 TBM HIV-positive, 295 PTB and 30 HC

Figure 2

Defining of blood transcriptomic signatures associated with TBM mortality
by gene modules, hub genes and pathways
in all TBM and TBM stratified by HIV status (n=281)

Figure 3, 4, 7

Comparisons of hub genes and pathways associated with TBM mortality
through gene expression level and pathway enrichment score
in 4 cohorts: TBM HIV-negative, TBM HIV-positive, PTB and HC

Figure 5, 6, 8, 9

Prediction models for TBM prognostics
in 2 cohorts: TBM HIV-negative, TBM HIV-positive

Table 2, 3

Figure 1. Objectives and cohorts flow
TBM: TB meningitis, HIV: human immunodeficiency virus, PTB: pulmonary TB, HC; healthy controls

Figure 2: Blood transcriptomic profiles of four cohorts: healthy controls (n=30), PTB (n=295), HIV-negative TBM (n=207) and HIV-positive TBM (n=74)
(**A**) Principle component analysis (PCA) of whole transcriptomic profile of HC, PTB PTB and TBM with and without HIV. Each symbol represents one individual with color coding different cohorts. The x-axis represents principle component (PC) 1, while y-axis represents PC2. (**B-G**) Enrichment scores of known innate immunity pathways associated with TBM pathogenesis. Gene list of these pathway were depicted in additional file 1, table S5. Pathway enrichment scores were calculated using single sample GSEA algorithm (ssGSEA) (Barbie DA, et al 2009). Each dot represents one participant. The box presents median, 25th to 75th percentile and the whiskers present the minimum to the maximum points in the data.

Figure 3: Blood transcriptomic profiles of three-month mortality at baseline in all TBM and TBM stratified by HIV status
Volcano plot showed differential expression (DE) genes by fold change (FC) between death and survival in all TBM **(A)**, HIV-negative **(B)** and HIV-positive TBM **(C)**. Each dot represents one gene. The x-axis represents $\log_2$ FC. The y-axis showed $-\log_{10}$ FDR of genes. DE genes were colored with red indicating up-regulated, blue indicating down-regulated genes which having fold discovery rate (FDR) <0.05 and absolute FC > 1.5.

Figure 4. Blood transcriptional modules associated with mortality in TBM

(A) Associations between WGCNA modules with two clinical phenotypes TBM disease severity (MRC grade) and three-month mortality in discovery and validation cohorts, and their associated biological processes. The heatmap showed the association between principle component 1 (PC1) of each module and the phenotypes, particularly Spearman correlation r for MRC grade and hazard ratio per increase 1/10 unit of PC1 (HR) for mortality. The HRs were estimated using a Cox regression model adjusted for age, HIV status and dexamethasone treatment. False discovery rate (FDR) corrected based on Benjamini & Yekutieli procedure, with significant level denoted as * < .05, ** < .01 and *** <.001. Gradient colors were used to fill the cell with green indicating negative r or HR < 1, red color indicating positive r or HR > 1. The order of modules was based on hierarchical clustering using Pearson correlation distance for module eigengene. On the left, biological processes, corresponding to modules, were identified using Gene Ontology and KEGG database. **(B)** Validation of the association between WGCNA modules and mortality in discovery and validation cohorts. X-axis represents –log$_{10}$ FDR in discovery cohort and Y-axis represents –log$_{10}$ FDR in validation cohort. Red dash lines indicate FDR = 0.05 as the threshold for statistically significant in both cohorts. Five modules (blue, brown, red, black and cyan) with FDR < 0.05 were validated.

Figure 5. Biological processes, pathways and hub genes of validated modules associated with mortality

(A-D) showed biological processes and pathways identified in four mortality associated modules: blue, brown, red and black module, by over representation analysis (ORA). Bar plots show the top representative GO biological processes or KEGG pathways. The bars indicates biological processes or pathways having ORA FDR < 0.05 and size corresponding to fold enrichment calculated as the ratio of gene number of pathway in the input list divided by the ratio of gene number of the pathway in reference. **(E-H)** showed gene co-expression networks and hub genes of blue, brown, red and black module, respectively. Each node represents one gene. Each edge represents the link between two genes. Hub genes were shown by bigger nodes and bold text. The gradient color of node corresponds to its HR to mortality, with red indicating HR > 1, and blue HR < 1.

Figure 6. Gene expression of representative hub genes in healthy controls (n=30), PTB (n=295), HIV-negative TBM (n=207) and HIV-positive TBM (n=74)
Each dot represents gene expression from one participant. **(A, B)** expression of FCAR and MCEMP1 hub genes from the blue module. **(C, D)** expression of NELL2 and TRABD2A hub genes from the brown modules. **(E, F)** expression of PLCG1 and NLRC3 hub genes from the red module. **(G, H)** expression of CD247 and MATK hub genes from the black module. The box presents median, 25th to 75th percentile and the whiskers present the minimum to the maximum points in the data. Comparisons were made between dead (red) with survival (blue) or between HIV-negative and HIV-positive TBM by Wilcoxon rank sum test with p-values displayed as significance level above the boxes and the horizontal bars (* < .05, ** < .01, *** <.001).

* HIVneg S: HIV-negative TBM survival, HIVneg D: HIV-negative TBM death, HIVpos S: HIV-positive TBM survival, HIVpos D: HIV-positive TBM death

Figure 7: Relationship between known pathways associated with TBM pathogenesis and mortality
Enrichment scores of known immune pathways associated with TBM pathogenesis. Gene list of these pathway were depicted in additional file 1, table S5. Pathway enrichment scores were calculated using single sample GSEA algorithm (ssGSEA) (Barbie DA, et al 2009). Each dot represents one participant. The box presents median, 25th to 75th percentile and the whiskers present the minimum to the maximum points in the data. The comparisons were made between survival and death using Wilcoxon rank sum test. Only significant results are presented with * < .05, ** < .01, *** <.001.

A Biological process GO annotation

Biological process GO annotation	HIV-negative		HIV-positive		Consensus		Module
	Severity	Death	Severity	Death	Severity	Death	
B cell activation ‡	-0.19 **	0.77	-0.23 *	0.73	-0.19 *	0.77	pink
Cell division; Organelle fission	-0.23 ***	1.1	-0.077	0.63	-0.077	NA	purple
Circulatory system process	-0.25 ***	0.41 *	-0.039	0.81	-0.039	0.81	cyan
T cell activation; Adaptive immune response	-0.41 ***	0.4 **	-0.41 ***	0.58 *	-0.41 ***	0.58 *	brown
T cell activation	-0.4 ***	0.3 ***	-0.33 **	0.72	-0.33 **	0.72	Ered
B cell activation	-0.3 ***	0.34 ***	-0.29 *	0.81	-0.29 *	0.81	black
Wnt signaling pathway	-0.41 ***	0.31 ***	-0.31 **	0.6	-0.31 **	0.6	midnightblue
Blood vessel development; Angiogenesis	0.22 **	0.94	0.26 *	1.7 *	0.22 *	NA	blue
Extracellular matrix organization; Cell-substrate adhesion	-0.13	0.31 **	-0.057	1.1	-0.057	NA	yellow
Neutrophil activation; NET	0.077	1.5	0.23 *	1.2	0.077	1.2	salmon
Interferon-gamma; Response to virus	0.16 *	1.4	0.25 *	1.2	0.16 *	1.2	greenyellow
Type I interferon signaling pathway; Response to virus	-0.038	1.1	0.12	1.2	NA	1.1	tan
Neutrophil activation; TNF signaling pathway	0.45 ***	3.7 ***	0.46 ***	1.7 *	0.45 ***	1.7 *	turquoise
Erythrocyte development	0.13	1	0.34 **	1.3	0.13	1	green
Platelet activation; Hemostasis	0.22 **	1.2	0.34 **	1.1	0.22 **	1.1	magenta
Cell junction organization	0.068	1.1	0.033	0.9	0.033	NA	grey

‡: Pathway do not meet criteria for statistical significance

Correlation r: -1 -0.5 0 0.5 1

HR: 0 0.5 1 1.5 2

B Blue module in HIV-positive

Pathway	Fold enrichment
Rap1 signaling pathway	4.6
Small GTPase mediated signal transduction	3.5
Angiogenesis	3
Positive regulation of cellular component movement	2.9
Positive regulation of locomotion	2.9
Neutrophil activation involved in immune response	2.8
Myeloid cell activation involved in immune response	2.8

Database: BP GO, KEGG

C Yellow module in HIV-negative

Pathway	Fold enrichment
Neg. reg. of establishment of protein localization	6.5
Cell-substrate adhesion	3.8
Extracellular matrix organization	3.7
Gland development	3.4

Database: BP GO

D Hub genes in blue module

ZNF721, ETAA1, CEP295NL, ZNF354C, RNF24

E Hub genes in yellow module

BCL9L, IL11RA, CD4, ZNF395, PPP4R2

Figure 8. Consensus transcriptional modules associated with TBM mortality stratified by HIV-infection

(A) Associations between 16 consensus WGCNA modules with two clinical phenotypes TBM severity (MRC grade) and mortality in HIV-negative (n=207) and HIV-positive (n=74) TBM participants, and their associated BP Gene ontology or KEEG database. The heatmap showed the association between modules and the phenotypes, with Spearman correlation r for MRC grade and hazard ratio per increase 1 unit of PC1 of module (HR) for mortality in HIV-positive and HIV-negative cohorts. The consensus sub-panel presented associations of the consensus modules and clinical phenotypes with same trend detected in both HIV cohorts, otherwise were annotated with missing (NA) values. False discovery rate (FDR) corrected using Benjamini & Yekutieli procedure, with significant level denoted as * < .05, ** < .01 and *** <.001. Gradient colors were used to fill the cell with green indicating negative r or HR < 1, red color indicating positive r or HR > 1. The order of modules was based on hierarchical clustering using Pearson correlation distance for module eigengene. It is noted that these consensus modules were not identical to the identified modules in the primary analysis in Figure 1. **(B-C)** Functional enrichment analysis of HIV-positive pathway (blue module) and HIV-negative pathway (yellow module), respectively. **(D-E)** Gene co-expression network of blue and yellow modules. Each node represents one gene. Each edge represents the link between two genes. Hub genes were shown by bigger nodes with bold text. The gradient color of node corresponds to its HR to mortality, with red indicating HR>1, and blue HR<1.

Figure 9. Enrichment score of immunity pathways in healthy controls (n=30), PTB (n=295), HIV-negative TBM (n=207) and HIV-positive TBM (n=74)

Pathway enrichment scores were calculated using single sample GSEA algorithm (ssGSEA) (Barbie DA, et al 2009). Each dot represents one participant. **(A-C)** showed box-plots depicting enrichment scores of the innate immunity pathways from the blue module. **(E-H)** enrichment scores of the adaptive immunity pathways from the red and brown modules. **(D)** normalized expression of TNF. Gene list of these pathway were depicted in additional file 1, table S5. The box presents median, 25th to 75th percentile and the whiskers present the minimum to the maximum points in the data. Comparisons were made between dead (red) with survival (blue) or between HIV-negative and HIV-positive TBM by Wilcoxon rank sum test with p-values displayed as significance level above the boxes and the horizontal bars, respectively (* < .05, ** < .01, *** <.001).

Table 1. Baseline characteristics of TBM, PTB, and healthy controls

Characteristics	HIV-negative TBM n=207		HIV-positive TBM n=74		PTB n=295		Healthy controls n=30	
	n	Summary	n	Summary	n	Summary	n	Summary
Age (years)	207	46 (34, 58)	74	34 (29, 40)	295	44 (31, 52)	30	33 (29, 37)
Male sex	207	127 (61)	74	56 (76)	295	228 (77)	30	11 (37)
BMI (kg/m2)	205	20.0 (18.2, 22.3)	72	19.3 (17.2, 20.4)	295	19.4 (17.7, 21.6)		
Symptom duration (days)	207	14 (11, 20)	73	16 (10, 30)	294	20 (10, 30)		
History of TB treatment	204	5 (2.5)	74	15 (20)	295	100 (34)		
Glasgow coma score	207	14 (12, 15)	72	14 (13, 15)				
Cavity chest X-ray					270	129 (48)		
TB microbiological tests								
MGIT culture positive	199	50 (25)	69	41 (59)	295	279 (95)		
Xpert/Ultra positive	198	42 (21)	70	39 (56)	295	287 (97)		
Microscopy positive	205	48 (23)	67	35 (52)	203	169 (83)		
Blood (10^6 cells/ml)								
Leucocyte count	204	9.4 (7.0, 11.9)	74	6.4 (5.0, 9.2)	242	9.2 (7.4, 11.4)	26	6.4 (5.6, 7.2)
Neutrophil count	204	7.1 (4.8, 9.1)	74	5.0 (3.3, 6.9)	241	6.1 (4.7, 8.2)	26	3.4 (3.1, 4.1)
Lymphocytes count	204	1.2 (0.9, 2.0)	74	0.7 (0.4, 1.2)	242	1.9 (1.4, 2.3)	26	2.2 (1.9, 2.6)
CSF (10^3 cells/ml)								

Leucocyte count	207	142 (19, 323)	73	124 (10, 453)			
Neutrophil count	207	0 (0, 39)	73	17 (0, 144)			
Lymphocyte count	207	106 (18, 223)	73	58 (10, 216)			

Values were displayed as median (1st and 3rd interquartile) for continuous variables and frequency (%) for categorical variables.

TBM = tuberculous meningitis, PTB= pulmonary tuberculosis, CSF= cerebrospinal fluid

Table 2. Association between baseline clinical characteristics with TBM mortality

Characteristics	n	All TBM					Discovery cohort		Validation cohort	
		Survival n=220	Death n=61	HR*	95% CI	p value*	Survival n=111	Death n=31	Survival n=109	Death n=30
Male sex	281	144 (65)	39 (64)	1.01	0.99, 1.02	0.3	70 (63)	19 (61)	74 (68)	20 (67)
Age (years)	281	41 (32, 53)	39 (30, 60)	0.92	0.55, 1.56	0.8	41 (32, 53)	47 (33, 64)	41 (32, 53)	34 (29, 58)
HIV infection	281	47 (21%)	27 (44%)	2.34	1.41, 3.89	**< 0.001**	24 (22%)	14 (45%)	23 (21%)	13 (43%)
**Diagnostic category	280									
definite TBM		101 (46%)	32 (52%)				55 (50%)	17 (55%)	46 (42%)	15 (50%)
possible TBM		43 (20%)	6 (9.8%)	1.01	0.59, 1.72	0.9	20 (18%)	2 (6.5%)	23 (21%)	4 (13%)
probable TBM		75 (34%)	23 (38%)	0.50	0.21, 1.19	0.12	35 (32%)	12 (39%)	40 (37%)	11 (37%)
***MRC grade	281									
grade 1		114 (52%)	7 (11%)				58 (52%)	3 (9.7%)	56 (51%)	4 (13%)
grade 2		100 (45%)	35 (57%)	4.96	2.20, 11.2	**< 0.001**	51 (46%)	18 (58%)	49 (45%)	17 (57%)
grade 3		6 (2.7%)	19 (31%)	26.4	11.0, 63.2	**< 0.001**	2 (1.8%)	10 (32%)	4 (3.7%)	9 (30%)
Blood (10^6 cells/ml)										
Leukocyte count	278	8.1 (6.2, 10.7)	10.1 (6.7, 12.2)	4.49	1.13, 17.9	**0.033**	7.8 (6.2, 10.6)	8.6 (6.4, 12.0)	8.4 (6.4, 10.7)	10.8 (7.6, 12.4)
Neutrophil count	278	6.0 (4.0, 8.1)	8.0 (5.0, 10.3)	7.44	2.34, 23.6	**< 0.001**	5.9 (4.0, 8.1)	6.7 (4.9, 9.6)	6.4 (4.0, 8.2)	9.0 (5.8, 10.3)
Lymphocyte count	278	1.2 (0.8, 1.9)	0.9 (0.5, 1.2)	0.31	0.15, 0.66	**0.002**	1.2 (0.7, 2.0)	1.0 (0.6, 1.3)	1.3 (0.9, 1.9)	0.8 (0.5, 1.2)
CSF (10^3 cells/ml)										

Leukocyte count	280	129 (19, 340)	148 (15, 360)	0.98	0.72, 1.33	0.9	130 (17, 348)	148 (15, 444)	124 (27, 335)	146 (25, 283)
Neutrophil count	117	0 (0, 49)	0 (0, 97)	1.97	1.03, 3.76	**0.040**	3 (0, 53)	0 (0, 106)	0 (0, 36)	25 (0, 94)
Lymphocyte count	280	101 (18, 229)	91 (14, 176)	0.83	0.60, 1.16	0.3	104 (16, 208)	123 (10, 214)	97 (21, 248)	86 (14, 147)

Values were displayed as median (1st and 3rd interquartile) for continuous variables and frequency (%) for categorical variables.

*Association of the corresponding variables with three-month mortality using a Cox regression model. Hazard ratio (HR) and p-value from the Cox regression model were presented in the table.

** Diagnostic categories were assigned according to the consensus case definition [18].

*** MRC grade denotes modified British Medical Research Council criteria [14].

TBM = tuberculous meningitis, CSF= cerebrospinal fluid

Table 3. Comparison of gene signatures in distinguishing survival and death in TBM prognostic models

No.	Predictor set	All TBM n=281		HIV-negative cohort n=207		HIV-positive cohort n=74	
		AUC	Brier score	AUC	Brier score	AUC	Brier score
1	**Reference model** (PMID: 29029055)	0.78	0.14	0.77	0.12	0.82	0.18
2	**Gene set 1** (MCEMP1, TRABD2A, and CD4)	0.78	0.14	0.78	0.11	0.65	0.23
3	**Gene set 2** (MCEMP1 ,NELL2 and ZNF354C)	0.78	0.14	0.77	0.11	0.75	0.20
4	**Gene set 3** (MCEMP1, TRABD2A, CD4 and ZNF354C)	0.78	0.14	0.77	0.11	0.73	0.21
5	**Gene set 4** (MCEMP1 ,NELL2, ZNF354C and CD4)	0.79	0.14	0.77	0.11	0.75	0.20
6	**Gene set 3** and clinical risk factors	0.82	0.13	0.80	0.11	0.84	0.15
7	**Gene set 4** and clinical risk factors	0.82	0.13	0.80	0.11	0.86	0.14

Clinical risk factors were age and MRC grade [14]. The prediction models for three-month mortality were based on multivariable logistic regression models with top-hit genes and clinical risk factors. Area under the curve (AUC) and Brier score were corrected for optimism using internal bootstrap resampling over 1,000 iterations to evaluate the model performance. The Brier score is an overall performance measure,

calculated as the mean squared difference between the predicted probability and the actual outcome, with smaller values indicating superior model performance.