Transcriptomic analysis reveals immune signatures associated with specific cutaneous

manifestations of lupus in systemic lupus erythematosus

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Abstract

Systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) presents with diverse heterogenous cutaneous

manifestations. However, the molecular and immunologic pathways driving specific cutaneous

manifestations of SLE are poorly understood. Here, we leverage transcriptomics from a large

well-phenotyped longitudinal cohort of SLE patients to map molecular pathways linked to ten

distinct SLE-related rashes. Through whole blood and immune cell-sorted bulk RNA sequencing,

we identified immune signatures specific to cutaneous subtypes of SLE. Subacute cutaneous

lupus (SCLE) exhibited broad upregulation of interferon, TNF-α, and IL6-JAK-STAT3 pathways

suggesting potential unique therapeutic responses to JAK and type I interferon inhibition. While

interferon signaling is prominent in SCLE, discoid lupus, and acute lupus, it is unexpectedly

attenuated in patients with skin and mucosal ulcers. Pathway and cell-type enrichment analysis

revealed unexpected roles for CD14+ monocytes in photosensitivity of SLE and NK cells in

alopecia, mucosal ulceration, and livedo reticularis. These findings illuminate the immune

heterogeneity of rashes in SLE, highlighting subtype-specific mechanistic targets, and

presenting opportunities for precision therapies for SLE-associated skin phenotypes.

Introduction

Systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) is a chronic autoimmune inflammatory disorder

characterized by broad and heterogenous clinical manifestations that reflect complex,

dysregulated immune responses (1). Cutaneous lupus erythematosus (CLE) encompasses

various mucocutaneous manifestations, including acute cutaneous lupus (ACLE, includes malar

rash), chronic cutaneous lupus erythematosus (CCLE, includes discoid lupus and chilblain lupus),

subacute cutaneous lupus erythematosus (SCLE), and lupus panniculitis. However, lupus also

manifests clinically as alopecia, skin and mucosal ulcers, and livedo reticularis (2, 3). A large

subset of patients with SLE will exhibit cutaneous lupus, though not all patients with cutaneous

lupus will progress to SLE(4). These distinct cutaneous manifestations not only contribute to

disease burden but also hint at underlying immunological heterogeneity, suggesting that

different pathways may drive specific phenotypes. Despite advances in our understanding of

SLE immunopathology, the immune drivers of specific SLE-related cutaneous manifestations

amongst patients with SLE remain poorly understood.

At present, we are unable to predict or identify which patients with SLE will exhibit

specific cutaneous manifestations. Although a subset of SLE patients will initially present with a

rash, many patients may initially present with lupus nephritis or neurologic symptoms.

Although malar rash and discoid rash are part of the classification criteria for SLE, we now

recognize that there are other cutaneous manifestations of SLE, not part of the classification

criteria, that have significant clinical and psychosocial impacts on SLE patients (2, 5). Since SLE is

an immunologically complex disorder, identifying molecular pathways that are associated with

specific SLE-related cutaneous lesions and illuminating new molecular targets is of utmost

clinical importance.

High-throughput transcriptomic profiling has proven valuable in mapping immune

dysregulation in autoimmune diseases and identifying disease-specific clinically relevant gene

signatures across many autoimmune and inflammatory conditions including SLE (6–11). To

study the SLE disease heterogeneity, identify biomarkers and discover therapeutic targets,

several studies have utilized bulk RNA sequencing (bulk RNAseq) of whole blood (8), as well as

single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNAseq) of peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) (12) to

identify specific gene signatures in cell types crucial to lupus pathogenesis. In addition, they

have identified key gene signatures related to type I interferon signaling in B cells, plasma cells,

and granulocytes in SLE (13–15). Prior work also has showed how the American College of

Rheumatology (ACR) classification criteria of SLE clusters into subgroups that are related to

specific differences in clinical phenotypes and lupus severity (16)(17), and identified race-

specific and cell-type specific immunologic differences in clinical clusters of SLE patients (18).

Transcriptomic analysis previously identified differentially expressed transposable elements

across all phenotypes that were cell-type and phenotype specific, and were related to genes

primarily involved in antiviral signaling and IFN signaling (19). Methylation analysis of SLE

patients identified 256 differentially methylated CpGs across disease associated with ethnic-

associated clinical outcomes (16). Several prior studies have also utilized bulk RNAseq and

scRNAseq on skin biopsies from healthy patients and SLE patients with discoid lupus or acute

cutaneous lupus to identify a role for infiltration of plasmacytoid dendritic cells and

upregulation of an associated type I interferon signature in cutaneous lesions (20–23). These

previous studies focused primarily on differentiating SLE patients from healthy controls and

identifying gene signatures in whole blood related to global disease activity and cytokine

profiles, and clinical manifestations such as lupus nephritis. However, few studies have focused

on identifying immunologic pathways in the blood that are predictive of cutaneous phenotypes,

and none have a large enough sample size to encompass the entire clinical spectrum of SLE-

related cutaneous manifestations. Furthermore, these studies are often limited to smaller

cohorts with more homogeneous and less diverse demographics, limiting the predictive power

and generalizability.

92   Leveraging a large, high-quality ethnically diverse longitudinal cohort of >400 SLE

patients with carefully curated clinical data from the California Lupus Epidemiology Study

(CLUES), we identify molecular correlates associated with specific cutaneous features of lupus.

Through parallel whole blood and immune cell-sorted bulk RNA sequencing, we describe

transcriptional profiles across ten distinct subtypes of SLE-related rashes, enabling us to

characterize immune pathways and cellular contributors with unprecedented specificity. Our

findings reveal a diverse landscape of immune signatures underlying subtypes of SLE-related

cutaneous manifestations.

Results

Transcriptomic landscape of cutaneous manifestations of SLE in the CLUES cohort

104   Participants were recruited from the California Lupus Epidemiology Study (CLUES).

CLUES is a multi-racial/ethnic cohort of patients with confirmed SLE (Figure 1). SLE diagnosis

was confirmed by board certified study physicians based on the ACR revised criteria from 1982

and updated in 1997 or based upon a confirmed diagnosis of lupus nephritis. These patients

were longitudinally followed from time of enrollment with careful annotation of clinical

characteristics and molecular measurements (Figure S1). In this study, we focused on 10

different rashes and/or cutaneous manifestations related to SLE: acute cutaneous lupus (malar

rash), discoid lupus (DLE), photosensitivity, mucosal ulcers, skin ulcers, alopecia, subacute

cutaneous lupus (SCLE), lupus panniculitis, livedo reticularis, and other rashes related to SLE

(Figure 1). We excluded other clinical phenotypes due to low incidence. We generated two

datasets to be analyzed together. Bulk RNA sequencing of whole blood was conducted on N =

461 samples taken from 276 CLUES patients. The CLUES cohort represents both female and

male patients, though is majority female, across eight different self-reported races spanning a

range of low to high lupus severity as measured by standardized clinical criteria (lupus severity

index) (Table 1). We also evaluated a subset of N = 120 samples from SLE patients with cell-

sorted bulk RNA sequencing of CD4+ T cells, CD14+ monocytes, B cells, and NK cells (Figure 1).

After quality control (Figure S2) and comprehensive analysis of the clinical metadata to

identify specific dermatologic manifestations of lupus, we then conducted differential gene

expression, pathway analysis, and cell-type enrichment on each clinical phenotype to identify

transcriptomic and immunologic signatures associated with SLE related rashes (Figure 1). The

CLUES cohort represents both female and male patients, though is majority female, across eight

different self-reported races spanning a range of low to high lupus severity as measured by

standardized clinical criteria (SLE disease activity index (SLEDAI) score and lupus severity index).

Most patients in this cohort had a history of malar rash, mucosal ulcers, photosensitivity, and

alopecia, with a smaller subset of patients with DLE or SCLE (Figure 2A). Lupus panniculitis, skin

ulcers, livedo reticularis were less common. Principal component analysis (PCA) plots of the

overall bulk transcriptomic data from whole blood for subpopulations of patients with each of

the different SLE-related rashes are shown (Figure 2B, Figure S3). In the first two principal

components, there is no clear separation or clustering of the clinical subsets of the patients

with or without a specific SLE-related rash, suggesting that more subtle molecular effects may

be responsible for different clinical findings. No significant batch effect is seen with the two

runs of samples being collected in parallel. All annotated phenotypes of SLE-related cutaneous

manifestations are shown together with the raw dataset of bulk RNAseq counts across all

samples (Figure S4).

Interactome and disease signatures of distinct SLE-related rashes

To further identify molecular differences underlying SLE-related rashes, we conducted

differential gene expression analyses with Deseq2 (24). First, we conducted differential

expression on the whole blood transcriptomes for each clinical phenotype while controlling for

demographic features and clinical parameters such as sex, race, medication use, replicates, and

batch, and then compared our findings to the differential gene expression on the cell-sorted

bulk transcriptomes from CD4 T cells, CD14 monocytes, CD19 B cells, and NK cells. For each

differential gene expression analysis, we compared patients with and without specific

cutaneous manifestations of lupus. There were 2 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) (FDR <

0.05) in the blood of patients with discoid lupus, 6 DEGs in patients with alopecia, 4 DEGs in

SCLE, 1 DEGs in malar rash, 2 DEGs in livedo, 6 DEG in skin ulcers, 4 DEGs for mucosal ulcers,

and 2 DEGs for photosensitivity (Table 2). 8 DEGs were identified for lupus panniculitis. Utilizing

the identities of these genes, we were able to generate an interactome of SLE-related rashes

based on shared DEGs between each pairwise combination of cutaneous phenotypes (Figure

3A, Figure S5A). We then calculated the log-2-fold-change (log2FC) for the union of each of the

identified DEGs (34 total unique genes) from all clinical phenotypes across whole blood to

visualize the differential expression fingerprint for each gene. Hierarchical clustering of these

manifestations shows similarities between the expression fingerprints of lupus panniculitis, skin

ulcers, and SCLE (Figure 3A).

Since comparatively fewer differentially expressed genes were identified from the

whole blood RNAseq, we then conducted differential gene expression on each SLE-related rash

for the bulk transcriptomes from sorted immune cells from a subset of the CLUES cohort. We

looked at differential gene expression in CD4 T cells, CD14 monocytes, CD19 B cells, and NK

cells, to identify cell-type specific gene signatures for each cutaneous clinical phenotype of

interest. We then plotted the log2FC for the union of all DEGs for each cell type across

phenotypes. The expression fingerprints of all DEGs in the CD4 T-cells (821 total genes) were

plotted for all clinical phenotypes (Figure 3B). In CD4 T-cells, livedo reticularis and SCLE shared

238 DEGs, while 3 DEGs were shared between livedo and mucosal ulcers, 2 DEGs shared

between malar rash and SCLE, and 1 gene shared between SCLE and skin ulcers (Figure 3B,

Figure S5B). Most of the DEGs identified in the CD4 cohort were upregulated genes.

Hierarchical clustering of the clinical phenotypes showed similarity between patients with skin

ulcers and lupus panniculitis, while SCLE and livedo were also closely similar, given the large

number of shared DEGs.

In the CD14 monocytes, surprisingly we identified 14 common DEGs between the malar

rash and skin ulcer phenotypes, and less than 4 shared DEGs between patients with

photosensitivity, mucosal ulcers, and alopecia (Figure 3C, Figure S5C). Expression fingerprints of

all DEGs (589 total genes) in CD14 cells showed closer similarity between patients with skin

ulcers and panniculitis, but opposite gene expression patterns between malar rash and skin

ulcers (Figure 3C). In the CD19 B cells, the gene expression fingerprints of all DEGs in the CD19

cells (383 total genes) showed significant similarity between SCLE and panniculitis with

hierarchical clustering. The most DEGs in common were identified between SCLE and

panniculitis, SCLE and photosensitivity, and panniculitis and photosensitivity (Figure 3D, Figure

S5D). There were 47 DEGs shared between SCLE and panniculitis, 17 shared between SCLE and

photosensitivity. Finally, in the NK cells, the clinical phenotypes clustered separately based on

shared DEGs. Fewer total DEGs were seen across all phenotypes (72 total genes) compared to

the CD4, CD14, and CD19 cell types (Figure 3E, Figure S5E). Very few DEGs were shared

between clinical phenotypes, compared to larger overlaps in the other cell types. Only 3 shared

DEGs were identified for alopecia and malar rash, 2 DEGs for skin ulcers and livedo, and 1 DEG

for other phenotypes.

Global and cell-type specific immunologic pathways dysregulated in cutaneous phenotypes of

SLE

Next, we asked which molecular pathways are dysregulated in the whole blood of

patients with cutaneous manifestations of lupus. We calculated the differential gene expression

profiles from Deseq2 for each cutaneous phenotype and conducted gene set enrichment

analysis using FGSEA (25). We utilized the Hallmark pathways from MSigDB (26) for each SLE-

related rash. We identified several significant upregulated and downregulated pathways for

each SLE-related rash in whole blood (padj < 0.05) (Figure 4A, Figure S6).

In whole blood, interferon alpha and interferon gamma response were globally

upregulated across patients with discoid rash, alopecia, SCLE, livedo, and lupus panniculitis

(Figure 4A). Surprisingly, interferon alpha and gamma pathways were downregulated in

patients with skin ulcers and mucosal ulcers, potentially suggesting that type I interferon does

not directly drive these clinical sub-phenotypes. From hierarchical clustering, SCLE and lupus

panniculitis clustered together in terms of pathway signatures. We also observed that the

pathway signatures more closely clustered for malar rash, discoid rash, livedo, and alopecia.

Separately, we identified that activation of the heme metabolism pathway was the strongest in

patients with alopecia. Lupus panniculitis exhibited upregulation of interferon response

pathways, it exhibits downregulation of heme metabolism, TNF signaling, and UV response

pathways.

Now that we identified global pathway signatures for each clinical phenotypes, we

asked whether pathways detected in specific SLE-related rashes were specific to certain cell

types. More specifically, we carried out similar differential gene expression analyses for CD4,

CD14, CD19, and NK cells (Figure 4B-E). CD4 T cells exhibited upregulation in IFN alpha and

gamma related pathways across several phenotypes including malar rash, discoid rash, SCLE,

panniculitis, and photosensitivity (Figure 4B). The mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR)

pathway which is relevant to CD4 T cell activation and proliferation was also upregulated.

Numerous pathways related to metabolism and cellular respiration and turnover was also

upregulated. Interestingly, TNF pathway activation was only seen in a smaller subset of

phenotypes, including SCLE, alopecia, and livedo reticularis, but not in malar rash or discoid

lupus. The JAK/STAT pathways related to IL2 and IL6 were more strongly prominent in livedo,

alopecia, and photosensitivity, which clustered together with hierarchical clustering.

CD14 monocytes and macrophages are known to be dysregulated in SLE, but their role

in development of cutaneous lupus is poorly understood. Previous studies have shown that

monocytes in SLE exhibit defective phagocytosis as well as aberrant activation in disease

initiation and mediation of end organ damage (27). Globally, CD14 monocytes exhibit varied

differential pathway expression across cutaneous phenotypes. Interferon alpha and gamma

pathways were upregulated in malar rash, discoid rash, SCLE, and photosensitivity. Across all

pathways, malar and discoid rash clustered together along with mucosal ulcers, while SCLE,

photosensitivity, and alopecia clustered together (Figure 4C). Surprisingly, TNF signaling was

upregulated in SCLE, lupus panniculitis, and photosensitivity, but downregulated across malar

and discoid rash, and mucosal ulcers. CD14 monocytes also exhibited significant expression of

downregulated UV response pathways in SCLE and photosensitivity, suggesting that they are

involved in regulating immune responses to UV radiation in those conditions.

CD19 B cells exhibited the broadest number of upregulated proinflammatory pathways

of all the cell types studied. It is well known that B cells play a central role in the pathogenesis

of SLE. Across most clinical phenotypes, type I interferon signaling was upregulated, as well as

the JAK-STAT pathways related to IL2 and IL6 signaling, complement cascade, and TNF signaling

(Figure 4D). In particular, the IL6/JAK/STAT3 pathway was prominently upregulated in acute

cutaneous lupus (malar rash), discoid lupus, and SCLE. They also exhibited strong and significant

upregulation of complement pathways and the IL6/JAK-STAT3 pathways alongside the

interferon pathways. Significant activation of the IL2/STAT5 pathway, which also involves

JAK1/JAK3, were also seen in malar rash, SCLE, and lupus panniculitis. This suggests a potential

supplemental role for JAK signaling in a subset of SLE patients with SCLE and discoid lupus. The

CD19 B cell compartment also showed a high degree of metabolic activity and cell turnover,

suggesting high proliferation rate. As expected, photosensitive conditions such as SCLE, malar

rash, and photosensitivity showed upregulation of the UV response pathways. Hierarchical

clustering identified three sub-clusters of clinical phenotypes within the CD19 compartment. In

particular, the pathway signatures were similar between alopecia, photosensitivity, malar rash,

and mucosal ulcers. Separately, discoid lupus, SCLE, and lupus panniculitis clustered together. In

contrast, livedo reticularis and skin ulcers exhibit fewer upregulated inflammatory pathways.

In the NK cell compartment, we observed fewer differentially expressed genes and

fewer significantly enriched pathways overall. However, upregulated NK cell pathways appear

to play a role in alopecia, skin and mucosal ulcers, discoid lupus, and livedo, but to a lesser

degree in malar rash or photosensitivity (Figure 4E). From hierarchical clustering, we identify

mucosal ulcers and alopecia with similar pathway signatures in NK cells, with upregulation of

pathways related to cellular metabolism, turnover, proliferation, as well as type I interferon and

TNF signaling. Unlike in CD4, CD14, or B cells, NK cells do not experience as significant

upregulation of interferon or JAK/STAT pathways. Interestingly, many inflammatory pathways

in NK cells are downregulated in SCLE and lupus panniculitis, suggesting a potential regulatory

role of NK cells in these subtypes, and that downregulation of inflammatory pathways in NK

cells could be related to these phenotypes. NK cells exhibit few differentially upregulated

pathways for patients with malar rash and photosensitivity.

Cell-type enrichment in cutaneous disease states in SLE

Finally, after defining cell-type specific and globally dysregulated pathway fingerprints

for each lupus-related rash, we then asked the question whether we could detect significant

relative differences in the cell-type enrichment in the blood of patients with specific lupus-

related rashes. We conducted cell type enrichment analysis using XCell (28) on the bulk

transcriptome of whole blood from the same cohort. We identified a total of 17 immune cell

types in the blood that had significant enrichment in the SLE cohort, including CD4 naïve and

memory T cells, naïve and memory B cells, naïve and memory CD8+ T cells, monocytes,

neutrophils, and plasma cells. The strongest normalized cell type enrichments signatures were

seen in the CD4+ memory and naive T cells, naïve and memory CD8+ T cells, monocytes, B cells

(Figure 5A). Larger positive values indicate a higher enrichment score. For several rashes, we

identified statistically significant changes (padj < 0.05) in the cell type enrichment in the blood,

including discoid lupus, mucosal ulcers, alopecia, and in photosensitivity (Figure 5B-E). There

was an increase in class-switched memory B cells and in plasma cells in patients with mucosal

ulcers (Figure 5C). In alopecia and in photosensitivity, there was a decrease in relative

enrichment score in CD8+ naive T cells, suggesting an immunoregulatory role for this cell type

in those rashes. In contrast, there was a corresponding increase in enrichment of CD4+ T cells

for alopecia and photosensitivity (Figure 5B, D). In discoid lupus, there was strong relative

increases in enrichment score for B cells in the blood, including both naive and memory B cells

(Figure 5E). All other comparisons of cell type enrichment in the global blood compartment

were not significant.

Discussion

This study provides a comprehensive, large-scale transcriptomic analysis of cutaneous

phenotypes from a longitudinal cohort of systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) patients, allowing

us to identify key molecular pathways involved in specific skin-related manifestations of lupus.

By utilizing both whole blood bulk RNA sequencing and immune cell-sorted RNA sequencing

data from the CLUES cohort, we have successfully mapped unique molecular correlates

associated with 10 different rashes observed in SLE patients. We conducted parallel analyses of

bulk RNAseq and cell-sorted RNAseq data, which allowed for a more refined understanding of

immune cell contributions to cutaneous manifestations in SLE. The integration of these datasets

allowed us to construct an interactome network by overlapping differentially expressed genes

across various cutaneous manifestations of SLE. This network analysis highlighted shared

pathways between rash subtypes, contributing to a deeper understanding of the molecular

underpinnings of these manifestations. Hallmark pathway analysis of both unsorted and cell-

sorted data identified distinct molecular pathway "fingerprints" for different rashes, providing

critical insight into the immune and molecular mechanisms underlying these skin findings. Cell-

type-specific findings further illuminate the cellular contributors to specific cutaneous

phenotypes. Our results have direct therapeutic implications for patients that suffer from

specific cutaneous phenotypes of SLE.

One key unexpected finding from our analysis was that the type I interferon (IFN-α)

pathway, known as a defining hallmark of lupus disease activity and pathogenesis, is not

universally upregulated across all cutaneous subtypes, suggesting that targeting IFN-α may be

more effective in certain lupus subtypes compared to others. We found that IFN-α and IFN-

gamma pathways were upregulated in patients with acute cutaneous lupus (malar rash),

discoid lupus, SCLE, alopecia, livedo reticularis, and lupus panniculitis. In contrast, patients with

skin ulcers and mucosal ulcers did not have significant upregulation of interferon pathways.

This absence of IFN signaling in certain cutaneous phenotypes suggests that SLE skin

manifestations may involve different immunological pathways, underscoring the heterogeneity

of the disease. This also represents a potential targetable therapeutic opportunity for patients

with refractory lupus cutaneous phenotypes that tend to have stronger type I IFN signatures.

This suggests that anifrolumab (Saphnelo), a biologic medication targeting IFN-α which is

approved in the US for moderate to severe SLE, is a potential treatment for refractory

cutaneous lupus in patients with SLE.

Subacute cutaneous lupus erythematosus is a cutaneous subtype of lupus that is also

poorly understood. Our findings show that patients with SCLE exhibited a broad and strong

upregulation of several cytokine immune pathways, including IFN-α, IFN-γ, TNF-α, IL2-STAT5

signaling, and IL6-JAK-STAT3 signaling particularly in B cells and CD4 T cells. The involvement of

both IFN and multiple JAK-related pathways in specific immune cell types suggests that SCLE

patients with SLE may benefit from treatment with JAK inhibitors as well as type I interferon

blockade. The other cutaneous phenotypes that had strong upregulation of JAK pathways were

in discoid lupus erythematosus and acute cutaneous lupus. These findings is particularly

noteworthy given the emerging role of JAK inhibitors in autoimmune diseases. Several FDA

approved JAK inhibitors include topical (ruxolitinib) and systemic (upadacitinib and abrocitinib)

formulations, which are being used for vitiligo and atopic dermatitis, respectively. Our findings

provide a direct rationale for investigating either systemic or topical JAK inhibitors as a

potential treatment for SCLE and discoid lupus in a real-world clinical trial.

CD4 T cells are known to play a central in the pathogenesis of SLE (29, 30), but the role

of specific pathways dysregulated in the blood compartment related to skin manifestations are

not well studied. From our cell-type specific analysis, we identified significant enrichment of

differentially expressed genes in CD4 T cells and B cells, suggesting a prominent role of these

immune cells in the pathophysiology of both SCLE and livedo reticularis. SCLE and livedo

reticularis shared many common upregulated genes in the CD4 T cell compartment, further

highlighting the importance of T-cell specific responses in these rashes. Similarly, our study

identifies specific pathways involved in UV response that are shared by SCLE and

photosensitivity, indicating a potential unexpected role of CD14+ monocytes in the

pathophysiology of photosensitivity in lupus.

We also identified that alopecia in SLE patients, which is a common and psychosocially

distressing phenotype, was associated with upregulation of heme metabolism pathways. Iron

deficiency has been known to be linked to hair loss conditions such as androgenetic alopecia.

This observation suggests that therapeutic strategies aimed at addressing iron metabolism,

especially in patients with anemia, may be beneficial in treating lupus-related alopecia.

Surprisingly, mucosal ulceration, alopecia, and livedo reticularis were associated with

upregulation of inflammatory programs in NK cells, suggesting that NK cells may play an

underappreciated role in the pathogenesis of these cutaneous manifestations. Cell type

enrichment analysis further predicted differential enrichment of specific immune cell types in

various cutaneous manifestations of SLE, including malar rash, discoid rash, SCLE, alopecia, and

photosensitivity. These findings suggest that different immune cells may be preferentially

involved in the development of distinct rashes, further supporting the notion of immune

heterogeneity in SLE.

A strength of this study is the robust cohort of SLE patients and the availability of high-

quality large-scale transcriptomic data, which allows us to obtain significant insights into the

molecular basis of lupus-related cutaneous manifestations. The CLUES cohort is one of the

largest SLE cohorts in the world with significant genetic and ethnic diversity and rich

phenotyping data. Furthermore, parallel use of bulk RNAseq and immune cell-sorted RNAseq

data allows for a deeper understanding of the specific immune cells contributing to different

rash subtypes. Pathway and interactome analysis identified shared and unique molecular

pathways, with potential therapeutic targets, such as JAK inhibitors for SCLE. We also

discovered unexpected roles for CD14+ monocytes in photosensitivity and NK cells in alopecia,

mucosal ulceration, and livedo reticularis, which identifies new avenues for therapeutic

development. A weakness of this study is the use of bulk RNAseq data from whole blood, which

may not fully capture the complexity of local immune responses at the site of the skin rash. At

the same time, the use of bulk RNAseq allows us to quickly profile several hundred patients at

once across a large cohort, since conducting scRNAseq across such as large cohort is very costly.

Furthermore, scRNAseq can be biased toward immune cell types that are more abundant in

these patients, and are typically only done on PBMCs, ignoring contributions from other

important cell types such as the granulocytes of the myeloid compartment. Although the study

investigates blood immune signatures across multiple cutaneous subtypes, it does not

incorporate skin biopsy samples at the time of blood transcriptomics to directly assess the

immune responses within affected tissues, which could provide additional valuable insights. At

the same time, the goal of the study was to identify molecular signatures from whole blood

that are predictive of rashes without requiring a skin biopsy, which can only be done on active

lesional skin. While our findings support potential therapeutic targets and modalities, including

JAK inhibitors, further clinical validation and functional studies are required to confirm the

efficacy and safety of these treatments in specific subgroups of SLE patients, including those

with low disease burdens. The cohort size and demographic characteristics may limit the

generalizability of the findings, requiring replication in larger, more diverse populations to

confirm the observed molecular pathways and immune cell signatures. One limitation of this

study is related to recruitment primarily patients with SLE disease without matched controls. As

a result, the objective of this study was to identify molecular markers that could be used to

predict cutaneous phenotypes among a cohort with known SLE disease, rather than

differentiate SLE patients from controls. Another limitation of this study is that a subset of

patients in this cohort had historical manifestations of cutaneous lupus that may or may not be

flaring or active at time of clinical sampling. We recognize that all clinical manifestations of

lupus are not fixed, and dynamic fluctuation of disease activity is characteristic of autoimmune

inflammatory conditions.

Taken together, our conclusions represent a significant step forward in understanding

the molecular pathways and immune cell involvement in SLE-related skin manifestations,

spanning both common and rare phenotypes. The identification of pathway "fingerprints" and

novel therapeutic targets holds promise for the development of more personalized and

effective treatments for SLE patients, particularly those with specific cutaneous manifestations,

and may allow us to predict which patients may benefit from specific therapies to advance

personalized medicine for SLE.

Materials and Methods

Study design

Participants were recruited from the California Lupus Epidemiology Study (CLUES) as

outlined previously (*15*). CLUES was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the

University of California, San Francisco. All participants signed a written informed consent to

participate in the study. Study procedures involved an in-person research clinic visit, which

included collection and review of medical records prior to the visit; history and physical

examination conducted by a physician specializing in lupus; a collection of biospecimens,

including peripheral blood for clinical and research purposes; and completion of a structured

interview administered by an experienced research assistant. During the interview,

comprehensive clinical characteristics were documented including overall disease activity

(Systemic Lupus Erythematosus Disease Activity Index score (SLEDAI) and lupus severity index),

medications, self-reported race/ethnicity, sex, and specific cutaneous manifestations related to

SLE. All SLE diagnoses were confirmed by board-certified study physicians based upon one of

the following definitions: (a) meeting ≥4 of the 11 American College of Rheumatology (ACR)

revised criteria for the classification of SLE as defined in 1982 and updated in 1997, (b) meeting

3 of the 11 ACR criteria plus a documented rheumatologist's diagnosis of SLE, or (c) a confirmed

diagnosis of lupus nephritis, defined as fulfilling the ACR renal classification criterion (>0.5

grams of proteinuria per day or 3+ protein on urine dipstick analysis) or having evidence of

lupus nephritis on kidney biopsy. Included in this data collection were cutaneous manifestations

of lupus. In this study, we focused on a subset of 10 different rashes and/or cutaneous

manifestations related to SLE: acute cutaneous lupus (malar rash), discoid lupus (DLE),

photosensitivity, mucosal ulcers, skin ulcers, alopecia, subacute cutaneous lupus (SCLE), lupus

panniculitis, livedo reticularis, and other rashes related to SLE. We focused the analysis on skin

phenotypes that appeared in at least 10 patients within the entire cohort. Clinical phenotypes

that were excluded from our analysis due to low incidence include bullous lupus

erythematosus, calcinosis cutis, lupus perniosis, and sclerodactyly. All clinical data collected at

sampling and the self-reported race was used for downstream analyses.

RNA-seq processing and quality control

The two datasets utilized in this study includes bulk RNA sequencing data from whole

blood and cell-sorted peripheral blood mononuclear cells from the CLUES cohort. Whole blood

was collected from patients into PAXgene tubes and underwent human rRNA and globin RNA

depletion followed by library preparation using the NEBNext library preparation kit. Paired end

Illumina sequencing was then carried out on a Novaseq6000. Host gene counts were generated

by pseudoalignment against the human transcriptome using Kallisto (31). Adapter-trimmed

reads were used as input. We quantified gene expression using raw counts and kept the genes

that showed an average FPKM value across the samples >0.5. FastQC (v0.11.8) was run to

assess the quality of the sequence reads. For the sequencing on sorted immune cells, samples

were isolated from patient donors as outlined previously (16). Cells were isolated from

peripheral blood utilizing magnetic beads (CD14+ monocytes, B cells, CD4+ T cells, and NK cells)

using EasySep protocol from STEM cell technologies on 120 patients totaling 480 samples. RNA

was extracted using a Qiagen column and quality was assessed on Agilent bioanalyzer. Libraries

were sequenced on HiSeq4000 PE150. Salmon v0.8.2 (32) was used for our alignment-free

pipeline. Adapter-trimmed reads were used as input. We quantified gene expression using raw

counts and kept the genes that showed an average FPKM value across the samples >0.5. FastQC

(v0.11.8) was run to assess the quality of the sequence reads. Genes with low expression were

filtered out before statistical testing. The cell sorted data is deposited and publicly available on

the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) website under the accession GSE164457. The other data is

available on request from the authors.

Differential expression and pathway analyses

We performed differential expression gene testing with DESeq2 (v.1.24.0 R package)

(*19*) using default settings. Sequence lane, medication at time of sampling, sex, batch/plate,

and race were entered as covariates within the DESeq2 model using a negative

binomial generalized linear model. We conducted differential expression by comparing patients

with and without specific cutaneous clinical manifestations of SLE. For example, we conducted

differential expression analysis for malar rash using DESeq2 by comparing patients with and

without malar rash, with patients without malar rash as the reference baseline. Similarly, we

conducted differential expression analysis on the cell-sorted bulk RNAseq dataset (CD4, CD14,

CD19, NK cell) in the same manner. Statistical significance was set a 5% FDR (Benjamini-

Hochberg). Differential expression analysis was conducted for all 10 cutaneous phenotypes that

had at least 10 patients exhibiting the phenotype. For pathway analyses to identify immune

pathways and signatures associated with each cutaneous phenotype, we inputted the sorted

differentially expressed gene lists defining the log 2 fold change and the adjusted p-values into

the Bioconductor package fgsea (v 1.10.1) for gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) ([20]) with

Hallmark pathways taken from the MSigDB ([26]).

Cell type enrichment analyses

The XCell package was used to carry out cell type enrichment analyses ([28]). This was

conducted on the merged and normalized bulk RNAseq data for the entire cohort. XCell

performs cell type enrichment analysis from gene expression for 64 immune and stroma cell

types, based on transcriptomic signatures from thousands of pure cell types from various

sources as outlined previously ([28]). The existing compendium of cell type signatures were

filtered to remove cell types not relevant to this analysis. The false discovery rate was

controlled by the Benjamini–Hochberg method.

Statistics and reproducibility

The statistical analyses for each part of the approach are described above. A threshold of P =

0.05 for false discovery rate and for adjusted P-values was set. The code is publicly

available to ensure the reproducibility of our results.

Supplementary Materials

Fig. S1-S6 for supplementary figures.

Figure S1: CLUES cohort demographic histograms.

Figure S2: Quality control of whole blood bulk RNAseq

Figure S3: Principal component plot of whole blood bulk transcriptome and additional clinical

characteristics

Figure S4: Hierarchical clustering of clinical characteristic, highlighting clinical subtypes of SLE-

related rashes

Figure S5: Upset plots on overlapping differentially expressed genes for SLE rash subtypes

Figure S6: Pathway enrichment plots from gene set enrichment analysis of whole blood bulk

RNAseq for each SLE rash subtype

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Data and materials availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author

upon reasonable request.

Figures:

Figure 1: Study overview and design. Patients were recruited from the CLUES cohort and bulk

RNA sequencing was conducted. Data was processed for transcriptome quantification and

quality control. We then associated clinical parameters with cutaneous manifestations of SLE,

and downstream conducted differential gene expression analysis, pathway analysis, and cell

type enrichment analysis.

Figure 2: Transcriptomic landscape of cutaneous manifestations of SLE in the CLUES cohort.

(A) Clinical characteristics and cutaneous subtypes of lupus across the entire cohort. (B) PCA

plots showing whole blood bulk RNAseq and each associated SLE-related rash subtype.

Table 1: CLUES cohort demographic characteristics

Characteristics	Overall (N = 276)
Sex	
Female	244 (88.4%)
Male	32 (11.6%)
Age	44.5 ± 14.0 years
Race	
White	99
Black	29
Asian	102
American Indian	1
Mixed	10
Other	32
Unknown race	3
Lupus severity index	6.9 ± 1.6
Malar rash	139 (50.0%)
Discoid rash	40 (14.4%)
Photosensitivity	103 (37.3%)
Mucosal ulcers	120 (43.5%)
Alopecia	110 (39.9%)
Panniculitis	9 (3.3%)
SCLE	18 (6.5%)

Skin Ulcers	12 (4.3%)
Livedo reticularis	32 (11.6%)
Other SLE related rash	35 (12.7%)
Other Non-SLE rash	25 (9.1%)

Figure 3: **Interactome and disease signatures of distinct SLE-related rashes**. Differential gene

expression analysis identified interactome and disease signatures of each distinct SLE rash

subtype, shown for whole blood (A), and in immune cell-sorted data for CD4 T cells (B), CD14

monocytes (C), CD19 B cells (D), and NK cells (E). Networks of each cutaneous manifestation is

constructed based on number of differentially expressed genes in common. Edge thickness is

directly proportional to the number of overlapping differentially expressed genes in common

between clinical manifestations. Heatmaps show upregulated (yellow) and downregulated

(blue) differentially expressed genes by log2-fold-change taken from the union of all

differentially expressed genes across cutaneous phenotypes.

Table 2: **Differentially expressed genes by SLE cutaneous phenotype type in whole blood and**

immune cell sorted data.

Clinical Feature	Whole blood	CD4 (T cell)	CD14 (monocyte)	CD19 (B cell)	NK cell
Malar	1	58	16	0	20
Discoid	2	1	1	0	18
Photosensitivity	2	1	6	198	5
Other rash SLE	6	1	0	4	6
Mucosal ulcers	4	5	7	16	5
Alopecia	6	0	7	7	19
Panniculitis	8	2	6	85	0
SCLE	4	737	0	178	4
Skin ulcers	6	5	572	2	2
Livedo	2	258	1	1	5
Other rash	2	0	0	0	0

546   **Figure 4**: **Unsupervised clustering of signaling pathways defining cutaneous manifestations of**

547   **SLE.** Unsupervised hierarchical clustering of normalized enrichment scores for biological

548   pathways from GSEA of bulk RNAseq data from whole blood (A), CD4+ T cells (B), CD14+

549   monocytes (C), CD19+ B cells (D), or NK cells (E). Only significant (FDR < 0.05) upregulated (red)

550   or downregulated (blue) pathways are shown.

Figure 5: Cell type enrichment in cutaneous disease states in SLE. (A) Cell type enrichment

calculated with XCell from bulk RNAseq from all CLUES patients (N = 276), with normalized

abundances for each predicted cell type. Significant differences (padj < 0.05) were detected in

enrichment scores for CD4+ and CD8+ T cells for patients with photosensitivity (B), in memory B

cells and plasma cells for patients with mucosal ulcers (C), and in CD4+ and naive CD8+ T cells

for patients with alopecia (D). Significant differences were also observed in enrichment of B

cells including naive and memory B cells in discoid lupus (E).

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