The cellular diversity of human cerebrospinal fluid following intraventricular hemorrhage revealed by

single-nucleus RNA sequencing

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Abstract

Background. Intraventricular hemorrhage (IVH) is a common and severe complication of hemorrhagic brain

injury. Current treatments offer limited improvement in long-term neurological outcomes. Inflammatory responses

in the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) after IVH are thought to drive secondary injury, but the cellular mechanisms

underlying this inflammation remain poorly defined.

Methods. We performed single-nucleus RNA sequencing of leukocytes isolated from CSF collected through

external ventricular drains in subjects with intracerebral (n = 6) or subarachnoid (n = 1) hemorrhage. We

characterized transcriptionally distinct subpopulations of neutrophils, monocytes, and lymphocytes by

comparison to reference datasets. Cell–cell signaling networks were analyzed to infer cytokine-mediated

communication, and a flow cytometry panel was developed to validate transcriptomic findings in independent

CSF samples.

Results. We obtained 11,191 high-quality nuclei comprising neutrophils (53.8%), monocytes (26.1%),

lymphocytes (17.8%), and non-immune cells (2.4%). Neutrophils segregated into Nascent, Quiescent, and

Interferon-Activated states. Monocytes exhibited classical phenotypes that include interferon-activated states

(characterized by expression of *VCAN* or *PROK2*) and CXC-chemokine expressing states (characterized by

expression of *CXCL5* or *CXCL8*). Lymphocytes were mainly naïve and central memory CD4$^+$ T cells. Cell–cell

signaling analysis predicted strong CXC chemokine signaling from monocytes to neutrophil subsets and IL-1

family–driven inflammatory responses across multiple populations. Type I and III interferon signaling defined a

neutrophil population not previously described in the central nervous system.

Conclusion. This study delineates the diverse cellular immune landscape of CSF after IVH. Transcriptomic

profiles reveal interferon, IL-1, and CXC chemokine signaling networks as potential therapeutic targets to

mitigate secondary injury.

Introduction

Bleeding into the cerebral ventricles, known as intraventricular hemorrhage (IVH), is an ominous complication of

hemorrhagic brain diseases, including intracerebral hemorrhage (ICH), subarachnoid hemorrhage (SAH), and

traumatic brain injury (TBI). In adults, it results in death or severe disability in over 50% of cases[1]. The

development of elevated intracranial pressure and hydrocephalus contribute to morbidity and mortality[2–4].

Treatment options are limited, and while around 50% of patients require temporary drainage of cerebrospinal

fluid (CSF) with an external ventricular drain (EVD)[5,6], lifelong CSF shunting via ventriculoperitoneal shunting is

needed in up to 40% of subjects[7,8]. Intraventricular injection of tissue plasminogen activator does not improve

functional outcomes or reduce the rate of shunting[7].

As new prognostic and treatment approaches are sought for this morbid disease, promising strategies may arise

from the critical role of inflammation in IVH. The deposition of blood into the cerebral ventricles stimulates a

profound inflammatory response that recruits leukocytes into the central nervous system[9,10]. In the first several

days after injury, this response is dominated by myeloid cells: first neutrophils, then monocytes and macrophages.

These cells interact with CNS resident cells, with both pathological and reparative consequences. On one hand,

inflammation after IVH can cause neuronal injury, cerebral edema, and hydrocephalus; on the other, it may

stimulate neurogenesis and clearance of hemorrhagic debris[11–14]. Because of the numerous and pleiotropic

contributors to inflammation in IVH, comprehensive approaches are needed to characterize this process.

Here, we sought to characterize the CSF inflammatory response in patients after IVH, using single-nucleus RNA

sequencing. Our approach identified distinct states of neutrophils and monocytes in the CSF, including a

population of interferon-induced neutrophils not previously described in the central nervous system. These

findings illustrate the complex cellular inflammatory response to IVH and point to potential novel therapeutic

targets for further investigation.

Results

A snRNA-seq atlas for cellular diversity of ventricular CSF in the context of intraventricular hemorrhage.

Previous scRNA-seq studies of CSF samples from patients with IVH did not capture its full cellular diversity.

Based on prior CSF cell count data in IVH[15], we anticipated that the CSF samples we collected would be highly

represented in neutrophils and other fragile populations that could be depleted during sample processing. We

reasoned that single-nucleus RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq) could provide a means to limit these processing-

induced biases and might yield a more representative cellular atlas of IVH. We obtained ventricular CSF of seven

study participants who presented with IVH, either directly to the University of Maryland Medical Center or after

emergent transfer from another institution (**Fig. 1A**; **Table 1**). Six subjects presented after ICH, with etiologies

including hypertension and coagulopathy/anticoagulation-related hemorrhage, with one subject whose etiology

was unknown. One subject presented with aneurysmal SAH. Of the seven subjects, five presented with severe

deficits in level of consciousness as quantified by Glasgow Coma Scale (GCS) between 3-8 and two presented

with a mild deficit (GCS 13-15). Standardized scales of disease severity were consistent with moderate to severe

disease. For subjects with ICH, hemorrhages originated in deep structures of the brain in a majority of cases. All

subjects had IVH, either at presentation or subsequently in their hospital course. When CSF is obtained for

clinical purposes, excess fluid that would otherwise be discarded is sometimes available. We collected this CSF

immediately after it was aspirated. As these are convenience samples, they were obtained at a range of time

points after disease onset. Non-contrast CT scans of the head from these subjects demonstrate the presence

of IVH and show the EVD tip in the lateral ventricles near the foramen of Monro (**Fig. 1B**). CSF is therefore

sampled directly from the ventricles, unlike lumbar puncture, which samples CSF from the lumbar cistern in the

lower back. CytoSpin cytology data available from the electronic health record for sample aliquots from five of

the seven patients indicated extensive infiltration of leukocytes into the CSF, primarily comprised of neutrophils,

monocytes/macrophages, and T cells (**Fig. 1C**).

snRNA-seq of CSF from these seven study participants yielded 11,191 high-quality nuclear transcriptomes (**Fig.**

2A, B). Neutrophils (n = 6,017; $S100A8^+$, $CXCR1^+$, $FCGR3A^+$, $FCGR3B^+$) were the most abundant cell type,

followed by monocytes (n = 2,920; $VCAN^+$, $CXCL8^+$, $CCL2L1^+$), and lymphocytes (n = 1,990; $CD247^+$) (**Table**

S1). We also identified a small number of cells expressing glial or neuronal markers (n = 264; e.g., *PTPRD,*

RSPO3, FLT1, CLDN10, RYR2, RBFOX1, DLG2) (**Fig 2C**). These cells may derive from damage to the cerebral

grey matter during or after the placement of the EVD and were not analyzed further. Cell type proportions

identified by snRNA-seq were in the same range as those obtained using CytoSpin columns (**Fig. 1C**), although

our pooling strategy does not allow us to match individual samples across the two technologies. Overall, our

data represent a relatively unbiased atlas for the cellular diversity of the CSF in the context of IVH.

Participants' cells were preserved for snRNA-seq processing by two different methods, comparing distinct cell

processing protocols in which nuclei were isolated directly from frozen cell pellets vs. cells that had been

cryopreserved with DMSO and briefly thawed. snRNA-seq of nuclei derived from pelleted vs. cryopreserved cells

yielded a larger number of nuclei from the cryopreservation method, but this method also produced lower RNA

counts per nucleus and higher mitochondrial counts per nucleus (**Fig. 2B, Fig. S1 A-C**). The library derived from

cryopreserved cells contained a smaller fraction of neutrophils and larger fraction of lymphocytes. It is unclear

whether these differences correspond to biological variation among the participants, or whether they reflect a

greater vulnerability of neutrophils during cryopreservation and thawing. Nevertheless, these data suggest that

all of the cell types in the CSF can be obtained for snRNA-seq by either cell processing strategy.

Neutrophil diversity in the ventricular CSF

Next, we sought to characterize leukocyte populations in greater detail. Re-integration of the 6,017 nuclei

identified as neutrophils revealed eight transcriptionally-distinct neutrophil sub-clusters. All eight of these sub-

clusters were detected in both preservation methods (**Fig. S2A-D**), but with varying proportions. We annotated

these neutrophil sub-clusters via comparisons to scRNA-seq of neutrophil states in the blood and in lumbar

CSF[16], enabling us to merge the eight sub-clusters into three broad neutrophil populations (**Fig. 3A, Table S4**).

The majority of neutrophils form a continuum from Nascent Neutrophils (21.29%) (neu4, neu6, neu8), which

expressed *S100A8*, *S100A9*, and *SELL*, to Quiescent Neutrophil states (65.43%) (neu1, neu2, neu5, and neu7),

which expressed markers such as *MALAT1* and *CXCL8* (**Table S2**). In addition, a third population expressed

genes that are activated during interferon (IFN) responses (13.28%) (neu3), including *IFIT1*, *IFIT2*, *IFIT3*, and

FCGR3B. These IFN-Activated Neutrophils are a cell population with diverse but not fully characterized

functions[17,18]. To our knowledge, they have never been described in the CSF previously.

To further characterize these neutrophil populations, we scored them on the activity of marker genes for

neutrophil populations identified in the blood in two previous scRNA-seq studies by Wigerblad et al.[16] (**Fig. 3B,**

Tables S3, S8) and Kwok et al.[19] (**Fig. S3A, Tables S3, S8**). We also scored neutrophils for the activity of 12

gene co-expression modules (N1-N12) computed within the neutrophils from our snRNA-seq data to describe

distinct patterns of activity across the neutrophil populations (**Fig. 3C, S4A Table S4**).

Nascent Neutrophils were defined by elevated expression of markers for the "Nh0" immature neutrophil

population from the Wigerblad dataset (adjusted p = 2.86×10^{-153}), as well as markers for two immature neutrophil

populations from the Kwok dataset (S100A8-9 hi neutrophil markers (adjusted p = 6.10×10^{-219}) and IL1R2$^+$

immature neutrophil markers (adjusted p = 2.55×10^{108}). Nascent Neutrophils also displayed high expression of

gene co-expression module N7 (adjusted p = 7.27×10^{-99}). Genes in this module were over-represented for NF-

κB activation genes (GO:0051092) and signaling pathways for pattern recognition protein receptors

(GO:0002221), Toll-Like receptors (GO:0002224), and cytokine receptors (GO:0019221, GO:0004896),

including cytokine-signaling pathways related to IL-12 (GO:0032655), and IL-1 (GO:0032651, GO:0005149).

Quiescent Neutrophils were defined by the expression of long noncoding RNAs that modulate with inflammatory

responses (e.g., *MALAT1*, *NEAT1*, and *LUCAT1*[20–23]) and genes that are associated with neutrophil migration

and chemotaxis (e.g., *SSH2*, *DOCK5*, *CXCL8*[24–26]). While markers of the Wigerblad 'Nh2' "transcriptionally

inactive" cluster had overall low expression in our dataset, Quiescent Neutrophils had a modestly increased

expression of these markers relative to the other neutrophil populations ($\log_2$FC = 0.190, adjusted p = 4.94×10$^-$

^{37}). Several gene co-expression modules were upregulated in Quiescent Neutrophils, including N5 (adjusted p =

3.02×10^{-16}), N3 (adjusted p = 1.61×10^{-39}), N10 (adjusted p = 1.24×10^{-27}), and N11 (adjusted p = 1.88×10^{-64}).

MALAT1 and *NEAT1* were members of N5, suggesting a role for this module in the epigenetic regulation of

inflammatory responses. N5, N3, and N11 were over-represented in genes associated with serine/threonine

kinase activity (GO:0004674), with the strongest upregulation of *SIK3*, *STK4*, and *CAMK1D*. Serine/threonine

kinases, including *STK4* and *CAMK1D*, have been reported to play a variety of roles in neutrophils[27–29], but their

functional significance in the Quiescent Neutrophil population is unclear. Interestingly, *CAMK1D* and *MALAT1*

have also been found to be co-expressed in a subset of granulocytes in the blood[30].

The neutrophil module N12 consists of several genes that play roles in cell adhesion and migration (ADGRG3,

ADGRE2, MYADM, ADAM8). The elevated expression of this module in nascent (adjusted p = 5.03×10^{-74}) and

quiescent neutrophils (adjusted p = 9.55×10^{-06}) may suggest an active recruitment of these cells at the time of

sample collection.

IFN-Activated Neutrophils were defined by elevated expression of many canonical interferon-stimulated genes,

genes. Markers of the 'Nh3' "IFN inducible" neutrophil population in the Wigerblad dataset were strongly induced

(adjusted p < 2.23×10^{-308}), as was gene co-expression module N8 (adjusted p = 1.31×10^{-269}), whose hub genes

included canonical interferon-stimulated genes such as *IFI6, IFI30, IFI44, IFI44L, IFIT1, IFIT2* and *IFIT3*. Other

marker genes annotated as activated in response to symbionts (GO:0140546), viruses (GO:0051607), cytokines

(GO:0034097), and interferons (GO:0034341, GO:0034340, GO:0035456) included *MX1, IFITM3, IFIT5, IFI6,*

CD74, CXCR4, and SELL. This cell state also had decreased expression of the *IL1B*-containing module N10

(adjusted p = 1.24×10^{-63}), consistent with the suppressive effects of interferons on IL-1 production[31].

Monocyte/Macrophage diversity in the ventricular CSF

We performed similar analyses to characterize monocyte lineages in ventricular CSF (**Fig. 4**). By sub-clustering

the 2,920 monocyte-lineage cells, we identified 6 transcriptionally distinct Seurat clusters annotated based on

gene expression markers in the literature as classical monocytes (four clusters, 90.6%), macrophages (5.2%),

and dendritic cells (4.2%) (**Fig. 4A, Fig. S5A-D, Table S5**). We further characterized these clusters of

monocytes/macrophages based on comparison to publicly available gene expression data for monocyte clusters

in the MoMac data set[32], which integrated monocytes in health and disease states from 41 studies in 13 different

tissues (**Fig. 4B, Fig. S6A, Table S6**). We also performed genes co-expression module detection and obtained

11 transcriptionally distinct modules (M1-M11), which helped us better define the cell states we observed (**Fig.**

4C, Fig. S7A, Table S7).

Classical monocyte markers (*SELL, CSF1R, ITGAX, CD163, CSF3R, S100A8*, *S100A9*, *S100A12, ALOX5AP*)

were split between four distinct clusters that also expressed markers associated with monocyte activated or

inflammatory states (*HLA-DRA, HLA-DRB1, CD163, IL1B, CXCL8, CCL3, CCL4, CXCL5,* members of the TNF

family); hence we have labelled them Activated Classical Monocytes (AC Mono). We defined each of the four

AC Mono subtypes by its most differentially expressed genes encoding secreted proteins: ACMono-VCAN

(36.68% of all monocyte/macrophage cells), ACMono-PROK2 (36.1%), ACMono-CXCL8 (15.24%), and

ACMono-CXCL5 (2.53%). The first two subtypes were the most abundant and had in common a pro-

inflammatory signature including interferon-induced genes, while the latter two were defined by their high

expression of neutrophil-attracting chemokines.

ACMono-VCAN was the most abundant monocyte subtype. Its eponymous marker *VCAN* (avg log$_2$FC = 2.64,

adjusted p = 1.53×10^{-268}), encodes versican, a chondroitin sulfate proteoglycan that modulates inflammatory

responses in many cell types[33,34]. It has been reported that *VCAN* activation in monocytes/macrophages is

dependent on Type I interferon signaling[35]. Consistent with this, we observed elevated expression of the

interferon-induced genes *IFI44* and *IFI44L.* ACMono-VCAN also had upregulation of genes in co-expression

modules M2 (adjusted p = 1.35×10^{-118}) and M3 (adjusted p = 1.05×10^{-113}), enriched for viral defense responses

and endocytic/phagocytic genes, respectively (**Table S7**). For instance, scavenger protein genes such as *STAB1*

(avg log$_2$FC = 1.83, adjusted p = 1.18×10^{-117}) and *CD163* (avg log$_2$FC = 1.76, adjusted p = 2.25×10^{-83}) were

upregulated, along with components of the THBS pathway (**Fig. 5C**), suggesting that this is an interferon-

activated cell state responding through modification of the cell matrix. By contrast, ACMono-VCAN appeared not

to be activated by other cytokines such as interleukin-1, as it had decreased expression of M5 (adjusted p =

7.42×10^{-164}), a gene co-expression module enriched in genes involved in cellular response to interleukin 1

(GO:0071347), apoptotic process (GO:0006915), and NF-κB signaling (GO:0007249) module.

ACMono-PROK2 was characterized by the expression of *PROK2* (avg log$_2$FC = 1.76, adjusted p = 1.68×10^{-38}),

encoding prokineticin-2, a peptide with chemokine–like activity that is highly expressed in many classical

monocytes[36] with roles in cell migration[37,38] and differentiation[39,40] and neurogenesis[41,42]. More broadly, the

ACMono-PROK2 gene signature suggests a pro-inflammatory state, with elevated expression of gene co-

expression module M8 (adjusted p = 3.52×10^{-115}), including the cytokines *TNF*, *IL6*, and *IL1B*, and genes related

to NF-κB signaling. Comparisons to MoMac revealed overlap with MoMac clusters 1 (adjusted p = 2.35×10^{-126})

and 8 (adjusted p = 4.13×10^{-101}), both of which are subtypes of CD16$^+$ monocytes with high expression of

inflammatory genes.

ACMono-CXCL8 was defined by elevated expression of pro-inflammatory ligands such as *CXCL8*, *CCL3*, and

CCL4, markers of activated M1-like monocytes that act as chemoattractants for other monocytes, neutrophils,

NK cells, and T-cells[43]. ACMono-CXCL8 had high expression of markers for Module M5 (adjusted p = 1.60×10^{-142}

), which was enriched for Gene Ontology terms related to vesicle secretion (e.g., Proton-Transporting V-type

ATPase (GO:0033180), positive regulation of exosomal secretion (GO:1903543), and multivesicular body

secretion (GO:0032585) and with the interleukin-1-mediated signaling pathway (GO:0070498). Similarly,

ACMono-CXCL8 had elevated expression of Module M9 (adjusted p = 6.07×10^{-101}), which consists primarily of

genes associated with vesicle production. This cluster also highly expressed markers of the "IL1B" MoMac

Cluster 15 (adjusted p = 2.30×10^{-141}), as well as the NF-κB transcription factor inhibitor *NFKBIA,* which regulates

the pro-inflammatory activities of NF-κB downstream of TLR4. Collectively, these enrichments suggest that

ACMono-CXCL8 may have M1-like activity.

ACMono-CXCL5, the smallest monocyte population, expressed activated monocyte ligands such as *CXCL5* and

CXCL3 that are known for their roles as chemoattractants for myeloid cells. In common with ACMono-CXCL8,

ACMono-CXCL5 had elevated expression Module M9 (adjusted p = 2.85×10^{-6}), and MoMac Cluster 15 (adjusted

p = 2.95×10^{-12}).

Macrophages (Mac) represented 5.24% of cells in the monocyte lineage. In addition to genes that are largely

expressed in macrophages such as *GPNMB, PLD3* and *CTSD*, these cells were marked by high expression of

pro-inflammatory genes such as *HIF1A-AS3*[44] *FTL*[45], and *MDM2*[46]. *FTL* expression in macrophages has been

associated with exposure to oxidized low-density lipoprotein[47]. Consistent with this, we found high expression of

several genes associated with lipid-associated macrophages (e.g., *CSTB*, *CTSD*, *GPNMB*, *LGALS3*, *PLD3*, and

PLIN2[48])*,* which are also induced in macrophages in a murine model of stroke[49]. Interestingly, we also detected

high expression for markers of MoMac cluster 3 (adjusted p = 1.50×10^{-26}), a TREM2$^+$, M2-like population. Overall,

these annotations demonstrate the presence of macrophages in the CSF after IVH and provide evidence for

heterogeneous reactive states.

The final sub-population (4.21%) expressed markers of dendritic cells (DC). We annotated these cells as DC

based on shared markers with MoMac cluster 14 (adjusted p = 5.54×10^{-22}), described by the MoMac authors as

dendritic cell contamination. We note, however, that dendritic cells share several markers with intermediate

monocytes, making a definitive annotation difficult. Some cells in the cluster expressed intermediate monocyte

markers such as *CIITA*, suggesting a mixed population (**Fig. S5D**). Notably, this population was also

distinguished by elevated expression of MHC class II markers such as *HLA-DRA, HLA-DRB1, HLA-DQA1 and*

HLA-DQA2, suggesting that these cells may have the ability to interact with and activate CD4$^+$ T cells.

Lymphocyte diversity in the intraventricular CSF

The 1,990 nuclei identified in our data as lymphocytes expressed canonical pan-lymphocyte and T cell markers,

such as *PDE3B*, *FOXP1*, *MBNL1*, *ANK3*, *BCL2*, *FYN*, *SKAP1* and *CD247*. A small population of these cells

expressed B-cell markers (*CD19*, *CD20*, *CD21*), consistent with observations for intraparenchymal hematoma

and CSF in subarachnoid hemorrhage by flow cytometry[15,50]. *De novo* clustering of lymphocytes did not clearly

define known T- or B-cell subtypes, most likely because of the relatively small number of cells representing each

subtype. Therefore, to better characterize lymphocyte populations, we performed a label transfer analysis by

integrating our lymphocytes with those from a large PBMC reference atlas and projected our data onto the UMAP

from the reference data to identify shared marker genes and confirm annotations[51] (**Fig. 5**). This analysis

suggested that most of the lymphocytes we detected were CD4$^+$ subtypes, especially central memory T-cells

(28.5%) and CD4$^+$ naïve T-cells (41.6%). CD8$^+$ effector memory T-cells represented an additional 14.7% of

lymphocytes. Double-negative CD4$^-$CD8$^-$ T-cells represented 10.4% of all lymphocytes, suggesting an

enrichment of activate T-cell states. Consistent with this, further sub-clustering revealed a population expressing

pro-inflammatory markers such as *S100A8*, *S100A9*, *CSF3R*, *IFITM2*, and *CXCR2*, a marker of γδ T-cells[52].

Intercellular communication networks in the intraventricular CSF

Chemokine ligands and their receptors were markers for several sub-populations of neutrophils, monocytes, and

lymphocytes. For instance, the chemokine *CXCL8* was expressed almost exclusively by ACMono-CXCL8, while

its receptor, CXCR2, was expressed primarily by neutrophils. The specific expression of these ligand-receptor

pairs provides the potential for signaling between populations. To more rigorously investigate this putative cell-

cell communication, we made use of Immune Dictionary[53] and the CellChat[54,55] package in R.

The Immune Dictionary provides single-cell transcriptomic profiles of 17 immune cell types in response to

treatment with each of 86 cytokines in mice. We reasoned that similarities between cells in our data set and

those responsive to specific cytokines in the Immune Dictionary imply common stimuli. We observed expression

of IL-1α-induced genes in all three neutrophil populations (**Fig. 6A, Table S8**). In the IFN-activated neutrophil

population, expression signatures of interferon responses (Type I and Type II) and IL-1 signaling (IL-1α, IL-1β,

IL-15, IL-18, and IL-36α) were evident. While IFN-activated neutrophils were IL-1 responsive, they were not IL-

1 productive, as they were negatively associated with co-expression module N10, a hub gene of which was *IL1B*.

This is consistent with observations that Type I interferon can suppress IL-1 production[31]. In contrast, monocytes

generally showed a greater expression of genes that are suppressed by IFN-α1 and IFN-γ stimulation (**Fig. S8**

A-D). Monocytes also expressed IL-1α- and IL-1β induced genes at high levels. Interestingly, PROK2 monocytes

expressed higher levels of genes that were both induced and suppressed by IL-1α and IL-1β, suggesting a

complex remodeling of the IL-1-modulated transcriptome. ACMono-VCAN, ACMono-CXCL5, and DC cells

expressed a signature observed in monocytes treated with IL-33 (**Fig. 6B**), which is an IL-1 family cytokine that

is released in response to cell stress or damage. Macrophages shared with monocytes an IFN-α1 and IFN-γ

suppressed expression profile, but also highly expressed genes that were suppressed by IL-1α.

We further delineated intercellular communication networks using CellChat, which uses the expression patterns

of receptor-ligand pairs to identify cell types with the potential for cell-cell communication. Doing so, we found

that the expression of ELR-motif CXC chemokines linked ACMono-CXCL5 and ACMono-CXCL8 to chemokine

receptor CXCR1- and CXCR2-expressing neutrophils. This pathway is particularly important for neutrophil

recruitment and activation, suggesting a role for macrophages in facilitating this function. In addition, ACMono-

CXCL8 contribute CC chemokines that tie them to IFN-activated neutrophils specifically. CellChat also revealed

interactions between subtypes of neutrophils, mediated by ADGRE and SELPLG/SELL. Other interactions are

shown in **Fig. 6C and 6D**.

Integrating observations from Immune Dictionary and CellChat suggested complex behaviors not evident from

either data set alone. For example, from Immune Dictionary we observed that ACMono-CXCL5 shared common

gene expression features with macrophages stimulated by the IL-1 family cytokine IL-33. CellChat indicated that

ACMono-CXCL5 also contribute IL-1, suggesting an IL-1 signaling positive feedback loop in this macrophage

subtype.

Development of a flow cytometry panel for neutrophil and monocyte diversity in the ventricular CSF

Our snRNA-seq data suggest that specific immune cell subtypes are enriched in the CSF of IVH patients

compared to their prevalence in other contexts. Monitoring the abundance and dynamics of these immune cell

subtypes could potentially reveal biomarkers that predict clinical outcomes. However, snRNA-seq is not a

practical method to track these populations in clinical settings. Leveraging our snRNA-seq data, we sought to

develop a panel of cell surface markers to distinguish neutrophil and monocyte subtypes by flow cytometry.

We therefore developed a flow cytometry panel to delineate functional states of neutrophils and monocytes, the

two most common cell types observed in our snRNA-seq data. To leverage the insights of our snRNA-seq data,

we derived this panel empirically from our data set, as opposed to relying on existing cytometry-based

classifications. After identifying cluster of differentiation (CD) genes enriched in specific clusters, we used

FluoroFinder (Broomfield, CO) to select a subset of markers for which reliable antibodies with compatible

fluorophores existed.

Using this panel, we performed flow cytometry analysis of CSF samples on three samples from two participants

with IVH not included in the snRNA-seq analysis. Both participants had experienced thalamic ICH with IVH, one

as a result of hypertension and other as a result of a ruptured arteriovenous malformation. As expected, CD45+

immune cells could be distinguished as granulocyte, monocyte, and lymphocyte populations using CD3 and

CD14 gating, which were further confirmed by forward and side scatter profiles (**Figure 6A**). Based on neutrophil

clustering from our snRNA-seq data, we hypothesized that three canonical neutrophil surface markers (CD10,

CD62L, and CD16b) could help resolve distinct neutrophil subsets[56]. The dominant population (>90% of

neutrophils) was CD10$^+$CD62L$^+$CD16b^{high}, consistent with mature circulating neutrophils.

CD10 presented a particular interpretive challenge: while transcriptional data, including our own and that from

Wigerblad et al.[16], suggest CD10 as a marker of nascent neutrophils, it is better established as a surface protein

associated with mature neutrophils. Consistent with this, we observed a small population of CD10$^-$

CD62L$^+$CD16b^{high} neutrophils (<2%) consistent with a nascent phenotype, but no CD10$^+$CD62L$^+$CD16b^{high}, as

otherwise might have been predicted directly from our transcriptomic data **(Figure 6B)**. From our transcriptomic

data, we would infer that quiescent neutrophils are CD10$^-$CD62L$^-$CD16b^{low}. However, we again anticipated that

the protein-level expression of CD10 would differ for these cells, and that quiescent cells should be CD10$^+$CD62L$^-$

CD16b^{low}. Though both populations are small, the CD10$^+$CD62L$^-$ CD16b^{low} population is much more common in

our flow cytometry data than is the CD10$^-$CD62L$^-$ CD16b^{low} population **(Figure 6B).** A distinct subset of a CD10$^-$

CD62L$^-$ population is CD10$^-$CD62L$^-$ CD16b^{high}. Cross-referencing with our snRNA-seq data, this population is

most consistent with interferon-activated neutrophils, though the markers shown here do not directly test for that

state. Additionally, we identified by flow cytometry a CD10$^+$CD62L$^-$CD16b$^+$ subset not resolved in our snRNA-

seq clustering analysis but reported in the literature as T cell–suppressive neutrophils[57]. Similarly, we

hypothesized that monocyte subtypes could be distinguished using the markers CD163, CD62L, CXCR1,

CXCR2, CD50, and CD87. We found that of these, CD163, CD62L, and CXCR1 were the only markers with

discriminating power in our flow cytometry data set **(Figure 6C).**

We note that we detected nascent, quiescent, and interferon-activated populations — which together dominate

the snRNA-seq neutrophil profile -- at very low levels in our flow cytometry data. It is unclear whether this arises

from greater sensitivity of snRNA-seq; misclassification by snRNA-seq due to mismatch between gene and

protein expression; limitations of the flow cytometry panel; or patient-specific differences in neutrophil subtype.

Taken together, however, our flow cytometry results indicate that it may be possible to translate leukocyte

functional states inferred from single-nucleus transcriptomics into clinically-feasible flow cytometry panels.

Discussion

In this study, we generated a single-nucleus transcriptomic atlas of the ventricular CSF in IVH. We leveraged

nuclear extraction as a strategy to enrich for cell types — specifically neutrophils — that are often challenging to

capture in single-cell experiments because of their fragility. Our results revealed a diversity of cell types, including

distinct subpopulations of neutrophils, monocytes, and lymphocytes. Notably, we captured a large and diverse

population of neutrophils, including a population of interferon-activated neutrophils that has not been described

in the central nervous system previously. As single-nucleus RNA sequencing is not feasible for clinical diagnostic

purposes, we validated potential flow cytometry markers for cellular sub-clusters we identified. This

demonstrates the feasibility of translating biomarkers derived from snRNA-seq data into clinically practical flow

cytometry markers.

A strength of our study that distinguishes it from previous studies is the detection of a large population of

neutrophils in the CSF. Neutrophils are expected to be among the most common leukocytes present in the CSF

during the first several days after hemorrhage[58]. Neutrophil depletion has been shown to be protective in a range

of hemorrhagic brain disease models[59–61]. Yet previous sequencing studies in these diseases have selected

against neutrophils in sample processing. Sansing and colleagues reported single-cell RNA sequencing data

from the intraparenchymal hematoma of a patient who underwent clot evacuation after an intracerebral

hemorrhage as part of the MISTIE III phase III clinical trial[62] and have recently extended this work to a larger

group of subjects undergoing clot evacuation[63]. Their study provides a rich time-dependent atlas of leukocytes

in the intracerebral hematoma, but only a small population of neutrophils was detected because they subjected

samples to a specific granulocyte depletion. Similarly, the two reported single-cell studies of CSF in subarachnoid

hemorrhage[64,65] specifically selected against neutrophils, one profiling PBMCs and the other profiling

CD8^{+}CD161^{+} cells. Until recently, neutrophils were thought to display a relatively limited functional repertoire,

owing to their relatively low transcriptional activity and short lifespans. Single-cell RNA sequencing has revealed

that, in fact, neutrophils are highly diverse cell populations[16,66,67,68]. This expanded understanding of the diversity

of neutrophils prompted us to investigate this cell population more comprehensively in IVH.

Neutrophils may be particularly challenging to capture in single-cell studies. They are often short-lived and highly

sensitive , rendering them difficult to capture with methods that have long or complex workflows. This raises the

question of why we were able to identify a large population of neutrophils when others have not. We analyzed

CSF instead of parenchymal hematoma, and these may have different cell populations. However, numerous

neutrophils can be isolated from parenchymal hematoma by flow cytometry[69]. It is likely that differences in our

sample preparation account for the preservation of neutrophils. The use of single-nucleus instead of single-cell

RNA sequencing may improve the identification of neutrophils, as all cells undergo lysis, reducing the bias

against fragile neutrophils. While we cannot fully exclude the possibility that the nuclei we identified as deriving

from neutrophils actually arise from other cell types, the expression of canonical neutrophil markers in these cells

supports their assignment.

A strength of single-nucleus RNA sequencing over traditional cytometric approaches is the ability to distinguish

subtle cellular phenotypes and activation states. The advent of these methods has revealed that neutrophils,

previously thought to be a relatively homogenous cell type, in actuality exhibit a variety of states[16]. In this case,

we identified three major neutrophil functional states, though we anticipate that with larger sample sizes and

improved isolation techniques, it is likely we would be able to classify these states even more specifically. We

have shown that these are consistent with classifications of neutrophils derived from peripheral blood in

independent data sets[16,19].

One particularly interesting neutrophil state is the IFN-activated neutrophil. To our knowledge, this subtype of

neutrophils has not been reported in the human central nervous system previously, though it has been detected

in rodents[70]. Interferons have been known to stimulate neutrophils for nearly half a century[71]. It was recently

reported that interferon-activated neutrophils play an important role in tumor control[17,72] and the response to

SARS-CoV-2 infection[18]. Knockout of the Type I interferon receptor results in increased neutrophil accumulation

in infected tissue[73,74], while interferon-gamma decreases neutrophil accumulation in such tissue[75]. Our analysis

based on Immune Dictionary suggests that Type I and II responses may be particularly relevant to IFN-activated

neutrophils in IVH.

A study of soluble factors in the CSF after IVH identified time-dependent increases in the Type II interferon IFN-

γ that were augmented in patients treated with intraventricular tissue plasminogen activator; no subjects in our

study underwent such treatment[76]. Similarly, IFN-γ levels in the CSF were associated with white matter damage

in premature infants with posthemorrhagic hydrocephalus[77]. Little is known about the role of Type I interferons

in human IVH, though a nonsense single-nucleotide polymorphism in the gene encoding IFN-ε is associated with

the development of ICH[78]. In a rat germinal matrix hemorrhage model, treatment with Rh-IFN-α improved

neurological function[79]. Our findings suggest that the Type I interferon response in general, and interferon-

activated neutrophils in specific, merit further investigation in the pathophysiology of intraventricular hemorrhage.

This represents a potentially targetable pathway for modulating neutrophils for future therapies.

Our data also reflect a diversity of monocytes/macrophages that occupy a range of functional states. These

states corresponded to strong differential expression of genes encoding certain secreted proteins, which may

give some indication to their role in IVH and other acute brain injuries. The distinction we observed between

macrophages expressing lipid metabolism genes and monocytes expressing cytokine-stimulated genes was

previously noted for tumor-associated cells[32]. We further classified monocytes into four activated states

defined by their expression of genes encoding specific secretory proteins. *VCAN ACMono* and *PROK2*

ACMono exhibited transcriptomic profiles that could be described broadly as pro-inflammatory and interferon-

responsive, gene co-expression network analysis revealed markedly different profiles for these cellular states.

Increased deposition of versican (encoded by *VCAN*), a protein that is involved in myelination, has been noted

in the brains of rabbit pups subjected to IVH[80]. Overexpression of *PROK2* has been shown to reduce

neurodegeneration and functional deficits in a mouse model of TBI[81]. Both the VCAN ACMono and PROK2

ACMono express interferon-response genes, again supporting an outsize role of interferon signaling in the

immune response to IVH. Further insight can be gleaned receptor-ligand interactions, such as CXCL8 and

CXCR2, which we have characterized more extensively using CellChat. These results indicate cross-talk within

subtypes of individual cell types (e.g., PROK2 with CXCL8 ACMono) or between cell types (e.g., PROK2

ACMono with IFN-activated neutrophils). Major roles for the ELR-motif CXC chemokines, CC chemokines, IL-1

family cytokines, and interferons were observed. We also observed monocyte/macrophage phenotypes that

have been associated with disease. For example, both snRNA-seq and flow cytometry revealed a substantial

number of CD163+ monocytes/macrophages, a population that has been associated with disease severity in

aneurysmal subarachnoid hemorrhage[82].

The distribution of lymphocytes we observed in the CSF is intriguing and merits further investigation. The majority

of cells were CD4+ T cells. It has been reported that the majority of T cells in the CSF under normal conditions

exhibit a central memory phenotype[83]. This was one of the major subtypes we observed in IVH, though not the

most common. These cells have been purported to enter the CSF via the choroid plexus[84].

Limitations of our study include a small sample size and insufficient material for genotyping, both of which reduce

our ability to delineate differences inflammatory profiles that are associated with disease severity. These samples

were convenience samples that were obtained when specific clinical events (EVD placement, EVD removal, or

diagnostic testing) prompted CSF sampling, increasing the heterogeneity of the samples and potentially creating

sampling bias. In addition, low cell counts from individual subjects further limit the generalizability of our results.

Nevertheless, our study is one of very few single-cell or single-nucleus transcriptomic studies of cerebrospinal

fluid for hemorrhagic brain disease, and substantially increases the data available in the literature. While we

hypothesize that the single-nucleus approach has allowed us to capture difficult-to-detect neutrophil states, this

approach does have drawbacks. Nuclei contain substantially fewer transcripts than do whole cells, potentially

diminishing our ability to identify transcriptionally regulated pathways relevant to disease biology. Nevertheless,

even small nuclear transcriptomes have proven reliable for cell type classification in our study. While single-cell

transcriptomic methods are unlikely to be translatable directly to clinical diagnostics, they may generate

candidates for the development of flow cytometry panels. We provide a proof-of-concept for this here, but with

too few subjects to demonstrate the utility of these markers for diagnostic or prognostic purposes.

It would be valuable to extend our approaches to elucidate time-dependent changes in blood and CSF leukocytes

across a larger cohort of patients in ICH, SAH, IVH, and TBI. Previous studies report divergence in leukocytes

sampled from the blood and central nervous system over time[15,62]. The distinct immune profile in the CSF and

brain after IVH may yield insights into the risk for common complications, such as persistent hydrocephalus.

Such information could help to inform the timing of surgical interventions and reveal strategies to guide treatment

of post-hemorrhagic hydrocephalus.

Taken together, our results provide the most comprehensive cellular atlas of the CSF in IVH to date. This atlas

reveals a rich diversity of cellular populations, including myeloid states not previously described in the human

central nervous system, including interferon-responsive neutrophils. We have further demonstrated that

transcriptional markers from these populations can in many cases be validated at a protein level with flow

cytometry. We anticipate that these results will set the stage for larger studies that elucidate the relevance of

specific leukocyte subtypes to disease severity, progression, and outcome. Eventually, this will yield new

diagnostic tools and therapeutic targets for intraventricular hemorrhage, a common, catastrophic disease with

few effective treatments.

Materials and Methods

Sex as a biological variable

As we collected convenience samples and batched nuclei for sequencing (see below), we were unable to

interrogate sex as a biological variable specifically; N=6 samples were from male subjects and N=1 sample was

from a female subject. For the period of enrollment, a recruitment flow chart is shown in **Figure S9**.

Statistics

Statistical methods used in this study are described in the sections pertaining to each specific assay or analytical

tool.

Study approval

Subjects (N=7; ICH=6, SAH=1) are a subset of those included in a prospective cohort study of patients aged 18-

88 with potentially life-threatening neurologic illness (*NCT04189471*). The University of Maryland, Baltimore,

institutional review board (IRB) approved this study, entitled "Improving Outcomes for Patients with Life-

Threatening Neurologic Illnesses," approval: number HP-00056063, date: August 1, 2013. Written informed

consent was obtained from subjects (if they had decision-making capacity) or their legally authorized

representatives. Study procedures were performed in accordance with the ethical standards of the responsible

committee on human experimentation and with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975. Detailed clinical characteristics

of study participants were recorded in a secure database, including Cytospin cytology and computed tomography

(CT) scans obtained from the participants as part of the standard of care.

Sample preparation and single-nucleus RNA sequencing.

Of the CSF aspirated from the proximal port of the EVD during routine clinical practice, excess sample was

obtained and transported to the laboratory for immediate processing. Obtained CSF was collected on EDTA

(purple top vacutainers), with a processing time <1 hour from the time of collection. RNAse and

Proteinase/phosphatase were inhibited by adding 1uM DEPC (Sigma D5758) and 1XHALT (Invitrogen 1861281).

The cellular component of CSF was obtained by spinning the sample at 350g for 10 min. The pellet was

resuspended, and red blood cells were depleted using EasySep magnetic beads (StemCell Technologies

cat18170), and Miltenyi microcolumns (Miltenyi cat130-042-701). Samples were then washed and stored at -

80C. Half of the samples were stored as pellets and half in cryopreservation media (Cryostor, StemCell

Technologies cat 100-1061). All the samples were stored at -80°C for <3 months. For pelleted samples, nuclei

extraction was performed directly from the pellets. For samples stored in cryopreservation media, nuclei isolation

was performed on the cellular fraction after washing with PBS+1% BSA at 350g/5 minutes at 4C. Nuclei isolation

was performed using a detergent-free nuclei isolation kit, Invent (cat IN-024), according to the manufacturer's

instructions. Briefly, nuclei were resuspended in buffer A, then vortexed for 20s at level 9 on Genie2 Vortex, then

placed on the spin column at 16000g/30s. The pass-through was washed with buffer B and counted on a

MoxiGoII (Orflo) using 1uM Propidium Iodide (Sigma P-4864). We loaded two pools, one pool containing

samples stored as pellets and other with cellular fraction cryoprotected. A total of 30K isolated nuclei per pool in

PBS+1% BSA were loaded in a 10X Chromium X. Sequencing libraries were prepared by the Maryland

Genomics core facility at the Institute for Genome Sciences using Chromium Single Cell 3' Kit v3.1 reagents,

according to manufacturer's instructions. Libraries were sequenced on a NovaSeq6000 sequencer (Illumina) to

an average depth of at least 25,000 raw reads per cell.

Flow cytometry.

CSF samples were acquired from the EVD buretrol chamber. Samples were stabilized in EDTA tubes during

transport from the intensive care unit to the laboratory and kept at room temperature. Samples were then spun

at 300g for 5 min, at 4ºC. Pellets were then resuspended in 100 µL of staining buffer (phosphate buffered saline

with 1% bovine serum albumin and 1% EDTA - A9418 and 324506, Sigma Aldrich), and incubated for ten minutes

on ice with Fc Block (ThermoFisher). Pellets were resuspended in 50 µL of staining buffer mixed with antibodies

and incubated for an additional 15 minutes in dark. A 13-antibody panel was used for this experiment. Antibodies

included mouse anti-human anti-CD45 (363-0459-41, ThermoFisher), mouse anti-human anti-CD3 (344825,

BioLegend), mouse anti-human anti-CD14 (367109, BioLegend), human anti-human anti-CD16b (130-123-643,

Miltenyi Biotec), mouse anti-human anti-CD163 (333611, BioLegend), human anti-human anti-CD50 (130-115-

309, Miltenyi Biotec), mouse anti-human anti-CD183 (353721, BioLegend), goat anti-human anti-CD121a

(FAB269F-025, R&D Systems), mouse anti-human anti-CD62L (567989, BD Biosciences), mouse anti-human

anti-CD10 (312241, BioLegend), human anti-human anti-CD181 (130-115-950, Miltenyi Biotec), human anti-

human anti-CD182 (130-131-233, Miltenyi Biotec), mouse anti-human anti-CD87 (749063, BD Biosciences). 100

µL of staining buffer were added, cells were mixed and then spun at 300g for five minutes at 4º C. The supernatant

was removed, cells resuspended in 200 µL of staining buffer, and 2 µL of 7-amino-actinomycin D (7-AAD)

(420404, BioLegend) were added before flow acquisition. Flow acquisition was performed on a Cytek Aurora 4

Spectral Cytometer (Cytek Biosciences, Freemont, CA, USA) (lasers: 355nm, 405nm, 488nm, 640nm) at the

University of Maryland Greenebaum Comprehensive Cancer Center Flow Cytometry Shared Service. At least

5,000 events were acquired and analyzed with FCS Express V7 software (De Novo Software, Pasadena, CA,

USA).

snRNA-seq cell clustering and annotation.

Initial data processing was performed with CellRanger (7.2.0), yielding a cell x gene matrix for each pooled

sample. Seurat[51] v4.0.5 was used for batch integration and clustering, using the following parameters. We

selected high-quality cells with at least 300 unique molecules and a maximum of 20 percent mitochondrial counts.

SCT integration was performed with 5000 variable genes and 20 anchors. Louvain clustering was performed

using 20 principal components. An optimal clustering resolution was determined by using the mrtree clustering

optimization method[85], which was given resolutions from 0 to 5, with 3.5 (35 clusters) being optimal for the entire

population. Cell clusters were annotated to established cell types based on canonical markers from immune cells

in other contexts[86–88]. Subsequently, the most abundant major cell types — neutrophils and monocytes — were

sub-clustered, following the same procedures starting from the SCT integration step. Cellular populations derived

from sub-clustering were compared to neutrophil and monocyte data sets that have been described by scRNA-

seq in other contexts[16,19,32]. Cells in our snRNA-seq dataset were scored using the combined expression of

marker genes from comparison datasets with the AddModuleScore() function in Seurat. Genes from reference

datasets were selected with a $\log_2 FC > 0.585$ (greater than 1.5 fold change) and adjusted p-value < 0.05. We

also considered cell annotations derived from label transfer using the Seurat FindTransferAnchors and

TransferData functions with 30 principal components and otherwise default parameters. Label transfer was

performed separately for monocytes and lymphocytes using level 2 annotations from scRNA-seq of human

peripheral blood mononuclear cells[51].

Gene co-expression networks in neutrophils and monocytes.

Gene co-expression modules were identified through k-means clustering of imputed read counts, as previously

described[89]. First, we performed a zero-preserving imputation with ALRA[90] to reduce dropouts and improve

correlation structure. Next, we performed k-means clustering (parameters). Modules with tightly correlated

centroids were merged, and genes with insufficient correlation to the centroids of the merged modules were

dropped. These steps were performed using the cells from Pool 2, then projected onto the cells from Pool 1.

This strategy reduces the potential for batch effects and provided an independent test set to evaluate the

robustness of the modules. Gene Ontology annotations for the modules were obtained using the enrichR

package in R from the GO Molecular Function 2023, GO Cellular Component 2023 and GO Biological Process

2023 databases.

Cell-cell signaling networks

Cytokine signaling activity among cell types was predicted by two methods: We used the CellChat[54] (v 2.2.0)

package in R to predict the incoming and outgoing signals and the associated pathways for each cell type. Cell

populations with fewer than 50 cells were excluded due to insufficient data. Incoming) cytokine responses were

further evaluated by scoring each cell (for the activity of signatures defined by the set of genes up- or down-

regulated (FDR < 0.05) in immune cell populations after exposure to each of 86 cytokines[53]. As the Immune

Dictionary was generated in mice, our analysis used human genes with one-to-one orthology. Scores were

calculated with Seurat AddModuleScore() for each cytokine / cell type condition in which at least ten differentially

expressed genes were detected.

Data availability

We have made our expression data available on the Neuroscience Multi-Omic Analytics (NeMO) platform[91]

(https://nemoanalytics.org/p?s=c4d7a449) to facilitate secondary data visualization and analysis.

Sequencing data will be available on dbGaP (pending). Code generated for this study is available at

https://github.com/Ciryam-Lab/vCSF-Hemorrhage.git.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Clinical characteristics of study participants. A. Study design (Created in

https://BioRender.com). B. Computed tomography (CT) scans. Axial images (slice thickness=3 mm) from the

first CT study obtained after EVD placement for a subject with ICH (i,ii) and SAH (iii, iv). i. Thalamic ICH with IVH

most prominent in right lateral ventricle (RLV) and ventriculomegaly consistent with hydrocephalus (HC), with

EVD visible in left lateral ventricle. ii. More caudal slice from same CT as in (i) showing IVH in the third ventricle

(3V) and bilateral lateral ventricles (LVs). iii. Aneurysmal SAH with small amount of IVH in bilateral LVs, with

EVD visible at the foramen of Monro. iv. More caudal slice from same CT as in (iii) showing blood in the basal

cisterns in classical aneurysmal SAH pattern, with dilated temporal horns consistent with HC. C. Cell proportions

in ventricular CSF assessed by cytospin columns.

Figure 2. snRNA-seq of ventricular CSF after IVH. A. Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP)

plot for snRNA-seq of ventricular CSF (11,191 nuclei from seven study participants). B. Quality metrics

comparing cell processing methods. C. Dot plot showing expression of canonical marker genes across cell types.

Figure 3. Neutrophil diversity in CSF after IVH. A. UMAP indicating neutrophil subtypes. B. Annotation of

neutrophil subtypes by scoring with marker genes from neutrophil subtypes identified in the blood[16]. C. Gene co-

expression modules differentially expressed across neutrophil subtypes. Wilcoxon rank-sum test (one-sided for

reference marker scoring, two-sided for gene co-expression networks) with Bonferroni correction used for

statistical significance testing (see Tables S3, S4). $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, $****p < 0.0001$.

Figure 4. Monocyte diversity in CSF after IVH. A. UMAP indicating monocyte subtypes. B. Annotation of

monocyte subtypes by scoring with marker genes from select subtypes identified in a meta-analysis of

monocytes and macrophages from healthy and diseased samples (MoMac)[32]. C. Gene co-expression modules

differentially expressed across monocyte subtypes. Wilcoxon rank-sum test (one-sided for reference marker

scoring, two-sided for gene co-expression networks) with Bonferroni correction used for statistical significance

testing (see Tables S6, S7). $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, $****p < 0.0001$.

Figure 5. Lymphocyte diversity in the ventricular CSF. A. UMAP showing reference annotations in blood

from the Azimuth data set[51]. B. Annotation of lymphocyte subtypes in CSF after IVH based on label transfer

analysis. (C.,D.) Dot plots showing expression of marker genes in the reference set (C) and our lymphocyte

population in CSF after IVH (D).

Figure 6. Intracellular communication in ventricular CSF. A. Neutrophils in CSF scored by genes upregulated

in Neutrophils from the Immune Dictionary upon IFNa1 exposure. B. Monocytes, dendritic cells and

macrophages in CSF scored by genes upregulated in Monocytes from the Immune Dictionary upon IL33

exposure. C. Circos plot showing strength of outgoing and incoming signals across cell states in the vCSF, based

on CellChat analysis. D. Heatmap of outgoing and incoming signal patterns for cytokine classes across all the

cell states in the vCSF, based on CellChat analysis.

Figure 7. Flow cytometry of CSF after IVH. Aggregate data from n=3 samples from n=2 patients is shown, for a

total of 72,725 events. A. Gating strategy for identifying the singlet, live, $CD45^+$ cell population (53,424 events)

with CD3 and CD14 used to distinguish neutrophils (orange), monocytes (blue), and lymphocytes (green). Back

gating onto the SSC-A vs. CD45 plot shows separation of these populations based on the characteristic

distribution of these cells types by side scatter. B. Neutrophil population is further gated by CD10 and CD62L.

Each quadrant is subsequently gated by either CD16b, CXCR1, or CXCR2. C. Monocyte population is further

gated by CD62L and CD163. Each quadrant is subsequently gated by CXCR1.

Supplementary Figure S1. UMAPs of ventricular CSF colored by quality metrics. UMAPs of snRNA-seq of

ventricular CSF (11,191 nuclei from seven study participants) colored by A. Preservation method. B. RNA Counts.

C. Percentage Mitochondrial Counts.

Supplementary Figure S2. UMAPs of the neutrophil subset colored by quality metrics. UMAPs of snRNA-

seq of the neutrophil subset colored by A. Preservation method. B. RNA Counts. C. Percentage Mitochondrial

Counts. D. Dot plot showing marker genes for neutrophil subtypes.

Supplementary Figure S3. Annotation of neutrophil subtypes. Violin plots of neutrophil subtypes scored by

marker genes from cell states found in blood during sepsis response[19].

Supplementary Figure S4. Gene co-expression Modules. 12 neutrophil gene co-expression modules

differentially expressed across neutrophil subtypes.

Supplementary Figure S5. UMAPs of the monocyte subset colored by quality metrics. UMAPs of snRNA-

seq of the monocyte subset colored by A. Preservation method. B. RNA Counts. C. Percentage Mitochondrial

Counts. D. Dot plot showing marker genes for monocyte subtypes.

Supplementary Figure S6. Annotation of monocyte subtypes. Violin plots of monocyte subtypes scored by

marker genes from all the cell states found in the MoMac dataset[32].

Supplementary Figure S7. Gene co-expression Modules. 11 monocyte modules differentially expressed

across monocyte subtypes.

Supplementary Figure S8 Cytokine Response Scores. Heatmap showing of CSF A. neutrophils, B.,

monocytes, C. macrophages, and D. dendritic cells showing mean log fold changes of scores based on

differential gene expression in response to specific cytokines derived from Immune Dictionary. All interleukin and

interferon cytokines eliciting a response in that cell type in Immune Dictionary are plotted.

Supplementary Table S1. Marker genes for all cell types.

Supplementary Table S2. Marker genes for neutrophil subtypes.

Supplementary Table S3. Neutrophil subtype marker genes from prior studies and enrichment scores.

Supplementary Table S4. Neutrophil gene co-expression module membership and functional enrichment.

Supplementary Table S5. Marker genes for monocyte subtypes.

Supplementary Table S6. Monocyte subtype marker genes from prior studies and enrichment scores.

Supplementary Table S7. Monocyte gene co-expression module membership and functional enrichment.

Supplementary Table S8. Cytokine activity scores using Immune Dictionary signatures and CellChat.

Supplementary Table S9. Flow chart of subject recruitment.

Acknowledgments

P.C. received funding from the Henry M. Jackson Foundation for the Advancement of Military Medicine, Neurocritical Care Society, and Passano Foundation. P.C. and S.A.A. received funding from the Brain Aneurysm Foundation. S.M. was supported by NIH R01 MH052716. The authors thank Flow Cytometry Shared Service of the University of Maryland Marlene and Stewart Greenebaum Comprehensive Cancer Center. This publication was supported by funds through the Maryland Department of Health's Cigarette Restitution Fund Program – CH-649-CRF and the National Cancer Institute - Cancer Center Support Grant (CCSG) - P30CA134274. Graphical abstract and Figure 1 schematic created in BioRender (https://BioRender.com/q4n1xt9).

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A

CSF from IVH (n=7)

Flow Cytometry

Pelleted   Cryopreserved

Cell Populations

Neutrophils
Monocytes
Lymphocytes
Non-Immune

Cell States in literature

Cell States in vCSF

Gene Co-expression Modules

Cell-cell Communication

Single Nucleus RNA Sequencing

Side scatter (SSC)
Forward scatter (FSC)
Antigen B Intensity
Antigen A Intensity

UMAP2
UMAP1

B

i — IVH in RLV, Thalamic ICH, EVD, HC — ICH

ii — IVH in 3V, IVH in LVs — ICH

iii — EVD, IVH in LVs — SAH

iv — Cisternal blood, Dilated temporal horns (HC) — SAH

C

Cell Type Proportions

Subject 1   Subject 3   Subject 5   Subject 6   Subject 7

Celltypes

Granulocytes   Monocytes   Lymphocytes

A Preservation Method

- Pelleted
- Cryopreserved

B RNA Counts

Counts

C Percentage Mitochondrial Counts

Percentage

D

Nascent Neu
Quiescent Neu
IFN Activated Neu

S100A9 S100A8 S100A12 S100A6 PROK2 CD177 SELL MALAT1 LUCAT1 NEAT1 CXCL8 IFIT1 IFIT2 IFIT3 FCGR3B MX1

Average
Expression

0.9
0.6
0.3
0.0

Percent
Expressed

25
50
75

A

A

A

A

```
Screened (39)
   │
   ├────────────────→ HIV (1)
   ↓
Screened In (38)
   │
   ├────────────────→ Unable to approach (10)
   ↓
Approached (28)
   │
   ├────────────────→ Declined participation (11)
   │                  Incomplete forms (2)
   ↓
Consented (15)
   │
   ├────────────────→ Samples not collected (4)
   ↓
Samples Collected
(Subjects=11, Samples=15)
   │
   ↓
Samples Selected
for Sequencing (7)
```