Development of a Comprehensive Antibody Staining Database using a Standardized Analytics Pipeline

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15 Abstract

Large-scale immune monitoring experiments (such as clinical trials) are a promising direction for
biomarker discovery and responder stratification in immunotherapy. Mass cytometry is one of the
tools in the immune monitoring arsenal. We propose a standardized workflow for the acquisition and
analysis of large-scale mass cytometry experiments. The workflow includes two-tiered barcoding, a
broad lyophilized panel, and the incorporation of a fully automated, cloud-based analysis platform.
We applied the workflow to a large antibody staining screen using the LEGENDScreen kit, resulting
in single-cell data for 350 antibodies over 71 profiling subsets. The screen recapitulates many known
trends in the immune system and reveals potential markers for delineating MAIT cells. Additionally,
we examine the effect of fixation on staining intensity and identify several markers where fixation
leads to either gain or loss of signal. The standardized workflow can be seamlessly integrated into
existing trials. Finally, the antibody staining data set is available as an online resource for researchers
who are designing mass cytometry experiments in suspension and tissue.

28 1   Introduction

Immune monitoring (IM) is a systems biology approach for the quantitative evaluation of the state of
the immune system (Brodin and Davis, 2017, Kaczorowski et al., 2017). Changes in hematopoietic
cell subset composition and in the cytokines and other proteins these cells produce can indicate the
nature and severity of the stress the body is confronting. These immune correlates establish
measurable proxies to the hidden details of disease or the effects of treatment, and are promising to
become a central component of clinical research (Kohrt et al., 2016). Mass cytometry, which can

measure over forty parameters per single cell (Bandura et al., 2009, Bendall et al., 2011), has
potential applications for IM in a wide variety of contexts, including cancer (Lavin et al., 2017),
allergy (Tordesillas et al., 2016, Rust and Wambre, 2017), infectious diseases (Hur et al., 2014, Cliff
et al., 2015, Hamlin et al., 2017, Michlmayr et al, 2018), trauma (Seshadri et al., 2017), organ
transplantation (Mario et al., 2014, Shipkova et al., 2016) and neonatal development (Olin et al.,
2018). Furthermore, there is growing interest in incorporating mass cytometry into large studies such
as clinical trials through the Cancer Immune Monitoring and Analysis Centers (CIMAC) and
Partnership for Accelerating Cancer Therapies (PACT) initiatives[1].

Any large-scale study will introduce challenges such as sample quality control, batch effects, and
inter-operator variability. There are a plethora of methods to address potential data quality issues in
mass cytometry. These include the incorporation of normalization beads into the sample (Finck et al.,
2013), reduction of technical variability and doublets through multi-sample barcoding (Zunder et al.,
2015, Fread et al., 2017), measurement of batch effects using spiked-in references (Kleinsteuber et
al., 2016), compensation of signal spillover across different masses (Chevrier et al., 2018), and
others. However, despite the well-developed ecosystem, there is no clear standard on how to run a
large-scale mass cytometry study, and researchers are often forced to reinvent the wheel by designing
experiments de novo with no clear guidance on best practices.

The situation is even more problematic in the computational biology arena. Numerous mass
cytometry analysis methods have been published. These can be broadly classified into one of two
categories. Clustering algorithms, such as SPADE (Qiu et al., 2011), PhenoGraph (Levine et al.,
2015) and FlowSOM (van Gassen et al., 2015), group cells together based on marker expression
patterns. Dimensionality reduction algorithms, such as t-SNE (van der Maaten and Hinton, 2008,
Amir et al., 2013), embed the single cell data in a two-dimensional map that can be more easily
visualized. These approaches require the operator to review their output and label cells based on his
or her judgement. Despite the existence of automatic methods (Aghaeepour N et al., 2016), attempts
to provide streamlined analysis workflows (Nowicka et al., 2017) and online tools such as Cytobank
(PMID: 24590675), identifying appropriate analysis methods in large scale IM studies remains a
challenge, and many users resort to manual gating (van Lochem et al., 2004), which is time
consuming, error prone, susceptible to operator bias, and not easily scalable.

Finally, the insights gained from mass cytometry ultimately depend on the antibodies used in a given
staining panel, and as with any other antibody-guided assay, antibody selection is a central
component of mass cytometry experiment design. While there is some consensus on appropriate
markers to identify major circulating immune subsets (Maecker et al., 2012), much of the potential of
mass cytometry is in its ability to characterize the roles of less-studied markers (Horowitz et al.,
2013, Bengsch et al., 2018, Good et al., 2018) and, by extension, in identifying relevant biomarkers
for immunotherapy. However, there have been no systematic studies of the expression of a broad set
of markers across a broad set of cell subsets to help guide antibody selection in IM studies. This
problem is further exacerbated for studies involving fixed samples, since fixation can alter surface
epitopes and unpredictably change antibody expression patterns (Dzangué-Tchoupou et al., 2018). A
comprehensive catalog of antibody staining expression patterns across immune cells would represent
a valuable resource to establish a starting point for marker selection and panel design.

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[1] https://www.nih.gov/news-events/news-releases/nih-partners-11-leading-biopharmaceutical-companies-accelerate-development-new-cancer-immunotherapy-strategies-more-patients

In order to address the above, we developed a streamlined mass cytometry pipeline that combines a lyophilized antibody panel, two-tier barcoding, efficient batched sample acquisition and a novel cloud-based analytics service. We applied this efficient sample and data processing pipeline to screen the expression of 326 antibodies across all major peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) subsets from multiple donors on both fresh and fixed cells. This represents one of the largest mass cytometry data sets to date, with approximately 63 million events acquired over a month of operation. The workflow incorporates multiple mechanisms that address and monitor intra- and inter-sample variability, quality control, standardization and automation. The result is a comprehensive antibody staining data set, which screens marker expression in every major immune subset on a single-cell level. These antibody expression data have been made available as an interactive companion website at https://www.astrolabediagnostics.com/antibody_staining_data_set. This represents a powerful resource that allows researchers to quickly identify potential markers for inclusion in novel mass cytometry studies. Finally, the overall workflow represents a systematic framework that can readily by applied for performing IM in large experiments such as clinical trials.

2   Materials and Methods

2.1   Samples and processing

Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) for the primary LEGENDScreen experiment were isolated by Ficoll gradient centrifugation from leukapheresis products derived from 3 independent de-identified donors (New York Blood Center). Additional validation experiments used blood collected from healthy donors under an existing IRB protocol at the HIMC. For the primary screen experiment, approximately 120 million cells from each donor were incubated for 20 minutes at 37°C in RPMI media containing 10% FBS, 1μM Rh103 to label dead cells and 50μM IdU to label actively cycling cells. The samples were then washed, Fc-blocked (FcX, Biolegend) and stained for 30 minutes on ice with a lyophilized core antibody cocktail comprised of markers to allow identification of all major immune subsets (Supplementary Table 1). All the antibodies in the core panel were conjugated in-house using X8 MaxPar conjugation kits (Fluidigm), and the titrated panel was lyophilized and dispensed as single test aliquots (Biolyph). The reconstituted panel was filtered through a 0.1 micron Amicon filter prior to use.

After staining, the samples were then divided into two aliquots, one of which was fixed with freshly diluted 1.6% formaldehyde in PBS for 20 mins, while the other was left untreated. Each of the 6 samples was then barcoded using a combinatorial CD45-based barcoding scheme (Figure 1), allowing the 6 treatments to be combined as a single sample. This pooled sample of ~300 million cells was then evenly distributed across each of the 372 wells of a LEGENDScreen kit (BioLegend) containing reconstituted PE antibodies (Supplementary Table 2), and incubated for 30 minutes on ice. Cells from each well were then washed and fixed with 1.6% formaldehyde in PBS for 20 mins. To reduce the overall number of samples to facilitate subsequent processing and data acquisition, the samples were washed with barcode permeabilization buffer (Fluidigm), and sets of 10 wells were barcoded and pooled using a combinatorial palladium-based barcoding strategy (Figure 1) (Behbehani et al., 2014, Zunder et al., 2015). The pooled samples were then washed and stained with saturating concentrations of 165Ho-conjugated anti-PE antibodies. The samples were then washed and incubated in freshly diluted 2.4% formaldehyde containing 0.02% saponin, 125nM Ir intercalator (Fluidigim) and 300nM OsO4 (ACROS Organics) for 30 minutes. The samples were then washed, frozen in FBS containing 10% DMSO and stored at -80oC until acquisition.

2.2   Data acquisition and initial data processing

Samples were thawed immediately prior to acquisition, washed once in PBS, once in CAS buffer
(Fluidigm) and then resuspended in CAS buffer containing a 1/20 dilution of EQ normalization beads
(Fluidigm). Following routine instrument tuning and optimization, the samples were run at an
acquisition rate of <300 events per second on a Helios mass cytometer (Fluidigm) modified with a
wide-bore injector (Fluidigm). Upon completion of the acquisition, FCS files associated with each
barcoded batch of wells were concatenated and normalized using the bead-based normalization
algorithm in the Fluidigm software resulting in 38 FCS files.

2.3   Mass cytometry data analysis

FCS files were uploaded to the Astrolabe Cytometry Platform (Astrolabe Diagnostics, Inc.) where
transformation, debarcoding, cleaning, labeling, and unsupervised clustering was done. Data was
transformed using arcsinh with a cofactor of 5 and the marker intensities presented in the paper are
all after transformation. Batches were debarcoded using the Ek'Balam algorithm (see below),
resulting in 2,232 individual samples corresponding to one (donor, treatment, antibody) combination.
Data from twelve antibody wells were excluded due insufficient cell recovery or ambiguous
barcoding resulting from a known pipetting errors during sample preparation, resulting in 2,160
samples. For batches 23, 25, and 34, between 50% and 75% of events were removed due to loss of
stability, as described in the main text.

The individual samples were then labeled using the Ek'balam algorithm (Supplementary Table 3).
Each cell subset was clustered using the profiling step in Astrolabe (see below). For the purpose of
the Ek'balam algorithm, gdTCR intensities were compensated by 1.9% of CD8 intensity due to
known signal spillover due to oxide formation from the 146Nd-CD8 channel being detected in the
162Dy gdTCR channel. Platform output was downloaded in the form of R Programming Language
RDS files (R Core Team, 2013) for manual follow-up analysis. Figures were generated using ggplot
(Wickham, 2016). To evaluate the quality of the the debarcoding, clustering and annotation in
Astrolabe and to perform independent analyses, a subsets of samples were processed in parallel using
a Matlab based debarcoding algorithm (Fread et al., 2017) and uploaded to Cytobank for manual
gating of major immune subsets.

2.4   The Ek'Balam algorithm

Ek'Balam is a hierarchy-based algorithm for labeling cell subsets which combines the strength of a
knowledge-based gating strategy with unbiased clustering. It receives a user-defined subset hierarchy
which details gating rules such as "Cells which are CD3+ are T Cells". Subsets can branch through
additional rules, for example, "T Cells which are CD4+ are CD4+ T Cells". The hierarchy is
organized into levels which correspond to parallel steps when gating. For example, the first level
could include "CD3+ are T Cells", "CD19+ are B Cells", and "CD33+ are Myeloids". Ek'Balam then
iterates over the levels. At each iteration, the data is clustered with FlowSOM (van Gassen et al.,
2015), using only the markers that appear in the rules of that level. Each cluster is then labeled
according to the rules of that level. Labeling is done by optimizing the Matthews Correlation
Coefficient (MCC) over the clusters and marker intensity values with a greedy algorithm. The
process continues until all cells are assigned to a label which has no rules branching out of it. A
formal definition of the algorithm is provided in the supplement.

2.5   Cell subset profiling

Profiling refers to a variation of unsupervised clustering using the FlowSOM algorithm. The variant
differs from classic FlowSOM in two significant aspects. One, each cell subset is clustered

separately. This guarantees that the output will not include biologically irrelevant clusters that
combine multiple cell subsets. Two, the clusters are labeled according to the markers that
differentiate between them the most, according to the MCC. The labeling makes the output more
accessible to the researcher by providing an initial intuition about the differences between the
clusters. A formal definition of the profiling algorithm is provided in the supplement.

2.6 Relevance metrics

The following metrics were employed when comparing the computational debarcoding and labeling
results to manual methods. Metrics were calculated for each class separately, where class is either a
barcode (for debarcoding) or a cell subset (for labeling). The class was set as the target and all other
classes as not-target. In all cases, the manual method is assumed to be the correct solution.

TP, FP, TN, and FN are true positive, false positive, true negative, and false negative, respectively.

Precision is the frequency of correctly classified target events out of all events classified as target, or
TP / (TP + FP).

Recall is the frequency of correctly classified target events out of all target events, or TP / (TP + FN).

The F1 score is the harmonic mean of precision and recall, or

$$2 \cdot \frac{Precision \cdot Recall}{Precision + Recall}$$

182 The Matthews Correlation Coefficient (MCC) is the correlation coefficient between the
183 computational and manual classification, or

$$\frac{TP \ x \ TN - FP \ x \ FN}{\sqrt{(TP + FP)(TP + FN)(TN + FP)(TN + FN)}}$$

2.7 Average overlap frequency (AOF)

185 The average overlap frequency is a metric of staining and clustering quality of a given marker (Amir
186 et al., 2018). It assumes that the marker has two modalities, denoted negative and positive. The AOF
187 is a value between 0 and 1, where 0 is complete separation between the modalities and 1 is complete
188 overlap, and is defined as:

$$\frac{1}{2}(\frac{|X_h^-|}{|X^-|} + \frac{|X_l^+|}{|X^+|})$$

where X^- is the values of all events in the negative modality, X^+ is the values of all events in the
positive modality, X_h^- is the negative values that are greater than the 5th percentile of a normal

distribution with a mean and standard deviation of , and X_i^+ is the positive values that are lower than
the 95th percentile of the normal distribution with mean and standard deviation of .

Given a set of samples, we can extend the AOF into a sample quality score by calculating the
Scaled²AOF for each (marker, sample) pair:

$$Scaled^2 AOF_{m,i} = \max \left(\frac{AOF_{m,i} - mean(AOF_m)}{sd(AOF_m)}, 0 \right)^2$$

195 where m indexes over markers and i indexes over samples, and then calculating the *Quality²AOF* for
196 each sample:

$$Quality^2 AOF_i = \text{sum}(Scaled^2 AOF_i)$$

2.8   Percent positive events

For each (profiling subset, antibody), the percent of positive events is the percent of events whose
intensity is greater than the 99th percentile of all events in the Blank LEGENDScreen well (well A1
in plate 1, see Supplementary Figure 3). This well does not include any PE-conjugated antibodies, so
the intensity distribution there is a background for anti-PE measurement using the Helios.

3   Results

**3.1   Design of an Integrated Pipeline for the Acquisition and Analysis of Large Immune
Monitoring Experiments**

Conducting a large-scale immune monitoring experiment over a long period of time using mass
cytometry raises several challenges. One, it is imperative to monitor instrument performance and
evaluate sample data quality to identify transient fluctuations in instrument performance resulting in
features such as diminished staining for one or more markers, higher than usual debris or doublet
count. Two, batch effects due to experimental or instrument variation can be a significant concern.
While researchers should always be aware of how technical sources could lead to variation, this is
especially pertinent when data is gathered and acquired over weeks or months. Experiment design
should therefore include mechanisms that detect both types of failures and alert the researcher
appropriately. Finally, the role of human operators should be minimized in order to reduce human-
introduced variability. Decision making should follow a clear protocol or be entrusted to
computational methods.

The antibody expression data set described in this study integrates multiple techniques to minimize
experimental and technical reproducibility and streamline data acquisition and analysis (Figure 1).
Peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) samples from three healthy donors (Figure 1A) were
stained with a 21-marker antibody panel comprised of markers to unambiguously identify all the
major immune compartments: B Cells, myeloid cells, NK Cells, and T Cells, together with further
granularity for subsets within these compartments (such as CD16+/- monocytes or naive versus
transitional B Cells). This core antibody panel was lyophilized as a single cocktail and the same
batch was used throughout sample acquisition to minimize experimental variability due to reagent
variability or pipetting. The panel only utilizes a subset of the channels available in mass cytometry,
allowing researchers to incorporate an additional 10-15 markers to address experiment-specific
questions.

Following initial core antibody panel staining, the samples were split into two groups to evaluate the
impact of fixation on each of the antibody epitopes subsequently evaluated in this screen. This design
also typifies a common experimental design where a treatment (fixation) is compared to control
(fresh samples). The six patient x treatment combinations were barcoded and pooled using a live cell-
compatible doublet-free barcoding strategy leveraging CD45 antibodies conjugated to 4 distinct
isotopes. This barcode approach streamlines sample processing and minimizes potential variability
due to acquiring different patients or treatments at different times. The isotopes used for barcoding
were specifically chosen to ensure that potential spillover due to isotopic impurities or oxide
formation from these barcoding channels would not influence any of the other antibody channels
being measured in this experiment. Next, the samples were evenly distributed across each of the 372
wells of a LEGENDScreen kit, each of which includes a PE-conjugated antibody against a distinct
epitope. Following this with a metal-conjugated anti-PE antibody enabled the measurement of a
comprehensive set of surface markers across all the cell subsets identified by the broad lyophilized
panel. Finally, to streamline data acquisition, sets of 10 wells were further barcoded and combined
using a combinatorial strategy leveraging five palladium channels.

The resulting 38 batched samples were then acquired using a Helios mass cytometer (Figure 1B).
Acquisition required around 400 hours of instrument time over five weeks of operation and resulted
in a total of 63 million events. Analyzing such a large amount of data manually would have been
time-consuming and risked operator-introduced variability. To avoid these two issues, we employed
the standardized Astrolabe Cytometry Platform to debarcode and clean the data, label cell subsets,
and conduct unsupervised clustering (Figure 3C). The Astrolabe analysis took 24 hours, and the
platform's "Analysis" export was employed in all follow-up analyses.

3.2 Debarcoded Sample Data is Robust and Consistent Across the Screen Samples

The antibody staining data set involves a high number of samples, complex experiment design, a
long acquisition period, and advanced computational analysis, any of which could potentially
introduce variability or other artifacts. Several tests inspect the various stages of the experiment
(Figure 2). First and foremost, accurate debarcoding is critical for all follow-up analyses. This step is
especially challenging due to the two-tiered barcoding scheme employed: CD45-based barcoding of
patient x treatment and palladium-based barcoding of each batch of 10 LEGENDScreen antibodies.
Astrolabe correctly identifies all 60 codes and their channel profile are distinct and follow the
expected design (Figure 2A). In order to validate the computational debarcoding approach, the results
were compared to manually-debarcoded data for one of the batches. The two methods showed high
concordance according to four different statistical metrics (Figure 2B), supporting the use of the more
efficient computational approach to debarcode all 2,232 samples.

The starting point for the data set was blood from three healthy donors. After the fixed versus fresh
treatment and the introduction of the kit's antibodies, each of these individuals leads to several
hundred different samples. However, the individual donor immune profile across each set of samples
are expected to be identical and therefore the acquired data should be highly comparable. This is
reflected in the principal component analysis (PCA) map over the sample cell subset frequencies
(Figure 2C). The samples are distributed across three well-separated islands. Each island corresponds
to one individual, signifying that the immune profile is consistent throughout acquisition.

We further applied Average Overlap Frequency (AOF) as a metric to evaluate individual marker
staining quality across all sample batches (Amir et al., 2018). This QC step identified issues with
staining of multiple markers in three of the batches (Supplementary Figure 1A). Further inspection of

the score highlighted several problematic markers (Supplementary Figure 1B). Evaluation of the
single-cell data for one of these markers, CD27, revealed a time-dependent increase in background
staining resulting in reduced marker resolution over time, which we attribute to a Helios instrument
malfunction during acquisition (Supplementary Figure 1C). However, restricting analysis to only the
events in the first quarter of acquisition window for these batches resulted in AOF values within the
range of other batches, allowing recovery of valid antibody screening data despite the technical issues
(Supplementary Figure 1D). The rapid identification, isolation, and solution of these technical
artifacts was facilitated by a standardized quality control approach using the well-defined AOF
metric.

Except for the batch effects identified by the AOF QC, the data set was consistent across cell subsets
and marker intensities (Figure 2D). For four major cell subsets (from top to bottom: T Cells, B Cells,
NK Cells, and CD14+ Monocytes), we examined the frequency in each sample (top panel of each,
ordered by batch). Subset frequency has very small variation across all the samples of a given donor.
Additionally, the distribution of the canonical marker of each subset (CD3, CD19, CD56, and CD14,
respectively) is also consistent across the samples (bottom panel of each, one box for each batch).

The combination of the above quality control measures highlights the overall robustness of the
antibody staining data set. The overall staining data were cohesive for each donor, and for each cell
subset across donors, and specific acquisition issues were identified and addressed using automated
QC metrics.

3.3   The Astrolabe Platform Correctly Labels Cell Subsets and Provides Meaningful
Unsupervised Clustering

The Astrolabe platform automatically labeled canonical immune cell subsets (Figure 3). As with
debarcoding, it is imperative to verify that automated cell annotation methods correspond to
historical definitions by calculating the overlap with manual gating. The Matthews Correlation
Coefficient (MCC) between the two methods was greater than 0.8 for almost all of the cell subsets
(Figure 3A). Biaxial plots of canonical markers further reinforced the overlap (Supplemental Figure
2A-C). Four of the subsets had a score lower than 0.8, which indicated some discrepancy between
computational labeling and manual gating. In all four cases, the disagreement was due to subjective
thresholding of a specific marker (Supplementary Figure 2D): these are cases where the exact marker
intensity threshold for a given subset is ambiguous, such as where to draw the line on CD24 to
distinguish Naive and Transitional B Cells. Importantly, the automated approach allowed consistent
thresholding across all samples in these ambiguous cases, avoiding potential human subjectivity and
variability in assigning gates across samples.

The marker intensity profiles for each of the subsets labeled by the platform largely follow the
consensus HIPC definitions (Figure 3B, Maecker et al., 2012). Astrolabe consistently identified 11 T
Cell subsets (including CD4+ and CD8+ T cells, and Naive, EMRA, EM and CM subsets within
each), 6 B Cell subsets, several myeloid subsets, NK Cell subsets, granulocytes, and NKT Cells.
Examining cell subset frequencies across the three donors highlighted clear variability in their
respective immune profiles (Figure 3C), which further reinforces the previous PCA results.

The discovery of novel cell subsets defined by previously unappreciated marker expression patterns
is one of the most exciting promises of high-complexity cytometry such as mass cytometry. While
cell subset labeling follows established trends, unsupervised clustering has the potential to unearth
previously unknown signals. Astrolabe includes a profiling step, where each defined cell subset is
clustered separately (Figure 3D). The number of clusters is decided via a heuristic which depends on

the number of cells in each subset and on marker heterogeneity. In the antibody staining data set, the
platform returns 71 profiling subsets, which are then labeled according to the marker or markers that
provide the greatest separation between them. Notably, several CD8+ T Cell subsets are broken down
based on CD161, suggesting MAIT-like T Cells (Ussher et al., 2014). Naive B Cells are
differentiated based on IgD, while NK Cells are broken up according to CD8. Similar to the
canonical cell subsets, profiling subset frequencies vary between the three donors (Figure 3E),
hinting at a wider heterogeneity within the population.

3.4   The Antibody Staining Data Set Defines Expression Patterns of Hundreds of Surface
**   Markers across 71 Cell Subsets**

With 350 measured antibodies over 71 profiling subsets, the antibody staining data set is a rich
source of information about expected expression patterns in a healthy immune system. In order to
provide an initial view into the full expression dataset, we calculated two metrics for each profiling
subset and antibody combination (Figure 4A, Supplementary Figure 3). The first metric is the median
marker intensity, which is most useful in defining expression of markers that show a unimodal
distribution within a given subset. To better reflect bimodal expression patterns, or those in which
only a subset of cells are positive for a given marker, we used a blank well that lacked any PE-
primary antibody to establish a baseline for the second metric, percent positive cells. We set an
arbitrary cutoff at the 99th percentile of the blank well and defined any cell above this value as
positive for the marker. The resulting heat map provides two separate summary statistics of marker
expression over all profiling subsets.

Focusing on any specific section of the heat map reveals a plethora of relevant patterns. The top of
the map is populated with well-established markers (Figure 4B) such as CD7, which is present on all
T Cell and NK Cell profiles, and CD11b, which is most highly expressed by monocytes. This section
also highlights a limitation of the data set with CD5: while this is generally considered a pan-T cell
marker the screen only showed expression on Naive CD4+ T Cells, and not any other CD4+ T Cells.
This idiosyncratic staining pattern could be due to many potential reasons, such as limitations of the
LEGENDScreen kit, antibody clone used, or specifics of the Helios protocol that we employed. This
serves as an important reminder to researchers who are looking to utilize this resource: as with any
other biological screen, specific signals should be further validated before being relied upon.

Lower sections of the heat map allow investigation of many surface markers that appear less
frequently in the scientific literature (Figure 4C). Notably, the screen reproduces the expression of
CD180 in B Cells (Miura et al., 1998) and the expression of CD193 in basophils (Florian et al.,
2006), while revealing new potential patterns such as the expression of CD181 by granulocytes and
basophils. Additionally, many markers are expressed by myeloid cell subsets to some degree. It
remains to be seen whether this is an artifact of the experimental technique employed here, or
whether there is a high degree of myeloid cell heterogeneity that still remains to be defined. This
trend continues throughout the heat map (Figure 4D), as are some more elusive signals, such as
CD371, which has a checkered expression pattern across diverse and seemingly unrelated profiling
subsets.

In order to provide some outside validation for the dataset, we conducted a second independent
LEGENDScreen experiment using PBMCs from a fourth donor and compared marker medians
(Figure 4E) and percent positive (Figure 4F) between the two experiments (Supplementary Table 4).
The metrics are correlated between the experiments (Pearson's rho of 0.78 and 0.73, respectively).
For percent positive, 88.2% of markers are in the bottom left or top right quadrant of the plot,

showing high agreement between the original experiment and validation experiment (McNemar's
Chi-squared test p-value is lower than 2.2-16). Together, these tests show that the trends seen in this
data set are generalizable. With that said, unlike the main data set, CD5 is uniformly expressed across
all T Cell subsets in the validation data (Supplemental Figure 4), further reinforcing the importance
of validation of screens. Examining the set of markers that are distant from the diagonal does not
reveal any clear trends and it is possible that they are a result of donor-specific differences, technical
variation between the experiments, or random noise.

3.5   Several Markers are Differentially Expressed Between CD161+ and CD161- CD8+ T
367   **Cells**

This comprehensive antibody resource offers opportunities to identify markers to further interrogate
or stratify specific immune cell subsets. As a proof of principle of this approach, we leveraged the
inclusion of CD161 in the core antibody staining panel, a marker that is highly expressed on mucosal
associated invariant T (MAIT) cells (Martin et al., 2009). MAIT cells are a subset of T cells that
display innate-like qualities (Napier et al., 2015), including an invariant TCRα chain (Porcelli et al.,
1993) and an inherent capacity to respond to infection (Gold et al., 2013). The Astrolabe profiling
identified CD161hi and CD161lo subsets for both Central Memory (CM) CD8+ T Cells and Effector
Memory (EM) CD8+ T Cells (Figure 3D). These profiling subsets were further explored for
differential marker expression trends (Figure 5). Comparing the percent positive metric for each
antibody and looking for a consensus across all three donors identified six differentially expressed
markers in CM cells (Figure 5A) and four markers in EM cells (Figure 5B).

Two of these trends overlap between the two cell subsets: an increase in CD26 and a decrease in
CD49d. CD26 has been previously associated with MAIT cells (Dusseaux et al., 2011). When
examining anti-PE in the CD26 LEGENDScreen well (Figure 5C), there is a x4.5 fold increase in
intensity on average between CD161- and CD161+ CM cells and a x7.2 fold increase on average
between CD161- and CD161+ EM cells. For CD49d, the average decrease in intensity is x1.2 and
x1.5, respectively, which is to be expected given the overall low intensity for that marker.

CD192 (CCR2) was differentially expressed between CD161hi and CD161low CM cells, with a x3.6
average fold increase in intensity in the CD161hi subset (Figure 5D, left). It was only differentially
expressed for two of the three donors in EM cells (figure 5D, right). CD192 is involved in
recruitment of monocytes to inflammatory sites (Tsou et al., 2007), a function that could potentially
be shared by MAIT cells. When examining marker intensities on a single-cell level, the CD161hi
cells are situated between the CD161low cells and monocytes, and would thus be classified as
CD192mid using standard gating nomenclature. In addition to these markers that were selectively
upregulated on CD161hi cells, the screen highlighted reduced expression of CD183 on CD161hi CM
cells (Figure 5E) and CD57 on CD161hi EM cells (Figure 5F).

One of the limitations of this screening approach is that each of the antibodies is profiled
independently, which precludes co-expression analyses of markers in the screen. To validate and
further explore the co-expression patterns of the markers identified in the screen, we independently
stained a healthy donor PBMC sample with a panel incorporating several of the differentially
expressed markers identified in the screen together with Va7.2 TCR to definitively identify MAIT
cells (Supplementary Table 5). tSNE analysis on the gated CD8 T cells revealed that the CD161hi
population had a distinct phenotype in high dimensional space defined by co-expression of many of
the markers identified in the screen (Figure 5G and Supplementary Figure 5). The differential

expression patterns of CD26, CD192, CD183, and CD57 between the CD161hi and CD161low
largely mirrored those see in the initial screen, independently validating these results (Figure 5H).

3.6   Sample Fixation Leads to Both Loss and Gain in the Intensity of Specific Markers

Formaldehyde fixation is a useful approach to preserve cell samples but has been associated with
changes in cell surface epitopes and marker expression profiles (McCarthy et al., 1994, Dzangué-
Tchoupou et al., 2018, Supplementary Figure 6). However, given the prevalence and importance of
fixation in cytometry experiments, there is an urgent need for a systematic study of the effect of
fixation on marker intensity to better inform marker selection and panel design in studies involving
fixed samples.

The antibody staining data set includes two conditions for each donor and antibody samples: one
stained fresh and stained following fixation with 1.6% formaldehyde. 255 of the LEGENDScreen
markers have cells whose intensity is higher than the blank threshold. For each of these markers, we
calculated the ratio between median expression in each of the conditions over all cell subsets (Figure
6A). We arbitrarily set a threshold of two-fold change as indicative of a significant intensity shift
between the conditions. 173 (68%) of the markers were below that threshold suggesting that they are
not notably affected by fixation.

Sixty-five of the markers have a two-fold or more increase in fixed samples relative to fresh (Figure
6B). In other words, these markers gained additional signal when the sample was fixed. This increase
in expression can either be an artifact of fixation or true expression of an antigen that was not
detected in the corresponding fresh sample. While formaldehyde fixation may be expected to
partially comprise the cell membrane, the samples in this screen were not explicitly treated with any
permeabilizing agents, so we do not anticipate significant exposure of intracellular antigens.
Furthermore, gains in expression were largely seen across most cell subsets, suggesting that in most
cases these reflect non-specific staining artifacts following fixation. At the opposite end of the
spectrum, 17 markers showed a two-fold or more decrease from fresh to fixed and were thus
classified as loss of signal (Figure 6C). Since only an existing signal can diminish, the lost pattern is
specific to certain subsets.

Examining the ratio between the medians enables a broad survey of all antibodies over all subsets.
However, it ignores the single-cell nature of the data. Closer examination of several marker intensity
distributions reveals that when the median is around zero, the underlying distribution is usually
maintained from fresh to fixed as well (Figure 6D). When marker intensity is gained, it typically only
affects some of the cells within the subsets, while the low expression persists in others (Figure 6E).
On the other hand, when signal is lost, it appears that fixation diminishes it completely (Figure 6F).
These trends further reinforce the hypothesis that the signal gained by fixation is due to the protocol
rather than the underlying biology. In almost all cases, changes in markers expression patterns
showed similar trends across subsets expressing that marker. One notable expression was CD22,
which was found to be expressed on both B cells and basophils in the fresh samples using the clone
contained in the Legendscreen panel (S-HCL-1), consistent with previous descriptions of clone-
specific CD22 expression on basophils (Han et al., 1999, Han et al., 2000). However, fixation
resulted in loss of expression specifically on basophils, but not on B cells (Figure 6G), reflecting
differences in the fixation sensitivity of the CD22 conformational epitopes that are differentially
expressed between B cells and basophils (Toba et al., 2002).

The LEGENDScreen kit includes antibodies conjugated to PE which are then measured by mass
cytometry using an anti-PE secondary. It is possible that the effects of fixation observed here are not

due to effects on the underlying antibody, but rather due to a more complex interaction that
potentially includes the marker antibody, PE, and anti-PE. We therefore performed a validation
experiment where seven of the gain or loss markers were incorporated into the mass cytometry panel
(Figure 6H). For the three loss markers, the validation results confirm the effect we saw in the data
set: the same subsets express these markers, and loss their signal after fixation. On the other hand, the
results for the gain markers were mixed. While one of them (CXCR3) fully reproduced the screen
results, the other two only lost their signal in some of the cell subsets.

Cytometry experiment design can be a daunting task due to the high number of variables that needs
to be considered. There are many factors that could influence results in unknown ways, especially
when employing a method such as fixation that has the potential to perturb the chemistry and kinetics
underlying the assay. This antibody staining data set represents an accessible resource to identify and
anticipate such potential effects.

4   Discusion

We present a standardized workflow for the acquisition and analysis of large-scale immune
monitoring studies using mass cytometry. The workflow incorporates several established
experimental techniques in order to reduce signal variation within samples, across samples, and
across operators. One, it utilizes a lyophilized core antibody panel that allows clear identification of
major compartments of the immune system and provides higher resolution into T Cell, B Cell, and
other subsets. Lyophilization streamlines sample processing and eliminates the variability inherent in
pipetting small volumes from a large numbers of individual antibody vials. Two, a two-tiered
barcoding scheme assures that all donors and treatments are acquired together and that samples are
organized into batches. This reduces the technical variation associated with the instrument and its
operation. Three, a fully automated cloud-based analytics platform (Astrolabe) runs the same quality
control, data cleaning, cell subset labeling, and unsupervised clustering over the entire data set.
Taken together, the workflow provides a flexible framework that can be easily adapted to clinical
trial immune monitoring or other large-scale experiments and greatly improve the quality,
reproducibility, robustness and utility of mass cytometry data.

We leveraged this standardized workflow as part of a comprehensive screen to establish the
expression of 350 surface markers across all major circulating immune subsets at single cell
resolution. Acquisition of the entire expression dataset across three donors required more than a
month of Helios operation and culminated in over 60 million events; one of the largest single mass
cytometry datasets recorded to date.

Several quality control approaches were included in order to ensure the accuracy and quality of the
antibody staining dataset. First, we employed a two-tier barcoding approach to minimize technical
variability in performing the screen. The barcoded samples were deconvolved using an automated
debarcoding approach that was directly compared and shown to perform comparably to manual
debarcoding. Second, we used average overlap frequency (AOF) as a metric to evaluate the
consistency of individual marker staining quality across all samples, which allows us to identify and
address acquisition batch effects. Third, we used an automated approach to identify and label cell
subsets, the accuracy of which was validated against manual gating of each of the analogous subsets,
demonstrating high overlap and consistency between these approaches. Fifth, we performed the
screen using three independent donor blood samples to allow for an evaluation of the biological
reproducibility of individual marker expression profiles, and each donor presented a consistent and
distinct cell subset profile across the entire experiment with both the frequencies of the major

immune compartments and the intensities of their canonical markers showing low variability across
the entire acquisition period. Finally, the reproducibility of the antibody expression profiles in our
primary screen were further validated using a second independent screen performed using an
additional donor. Taken together, these steps highlight the fidelity of the antibody staining resource.
However, it is still important to note the limitations of this data set as a high-throughput screen; any
findings require independent follow-up to confirm whether the reported expression patterns truly
reflect hitherto unknown phenotypic diversity or may reflect specific biological or technical aspects
of this screen. As an illustration of this approach, we used the screen to identify potential markers to
characterize CD161+ MAIT cells, and then performed an independent experiment where we
incorporated these markers as part of a single CyTOF panel. This allowed us to both independently
validated the markers identified the screen and to further explore their co-expression patterns,
confirming that CD161hi MAIT cells can be further characterized as being CD26hi, CD192hi,
CD183low and CD57low.

In addition to screening marker expression patterns on fresh cells, we also introduced formaldehyde
fixation as a treatment, thoroughly examining the influence that this standard perturbation could have
on surface marker staining. When examining the effect of fixation on marker expression patterns, 173
out of 255 expressed markers had no change in their intensity. 65 gained some signal from fresh to
fixed. We hypothesize that this gain is an artifact of the fixation protocol rather than a novel
biological signal since it was subset agnostic and only affected some of the cells in each profiling
subset. 17 markers lost their existing signal after fixation. In almost all cases, the loss of signal
affected all expressing subsets. The one exception was CD22, where one expressing subset
(basophils) lost the signal, while another (B Cells) did not. It has previously been suggested that the
CD22 epitope on basophils is conformationally distinct from that on B cells (Toba et al., 2002). Our
data provide further evidence suggesting a difference in the fixation sensitivity of the CD22 epitopes
expressed on these two cell types.

The overall antibody staining data set is a powerful asset for immunologists seeking to investigate the
immune system through the lens of less-explored markers and develop antibody panels to focus on
specific cell subsets. To maximize the utility of this versatile qualitative resource, these results are
fully accessible through an interactive website at
https://www.astrolabediagnostics.com/antibody_staining_data_set. We included two aggregate
statistics for each (marker, subset) combination: median anti-PE intensity and percent positive cells
(which was calculated based on the background intensity available in the Blank LEGENDScreen
well). In addition to interacting with the dataset through heat maps, survey aggregate statistics for
their marker(s) and cell subset(s) of choice, the website allows investigators to delve deeper into the
single-cell resolution and the relevant distributions. Overall, this dataset represents an accessible and
unbiased resource for assessing potential expression of various markers over a large range of immune
subsets in healthy individuals and surveying the statistics in the entire data set reveals intriguing
signals for potential expression of less-studied markers. This study offers a valuable new resource to
aid in the design of high dimensional antibody panels for immune monitoring studies, and further
offers a template for a robust experimental workflow incorporating several components to ensure the
accuracy and robustness of data generated using mass cytometry technology.

5   Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

6   Author Contributions

535 EDA contributed to experiment design, analysis, and writing the manuscript. BL, PB and XVG
536 contributed to sample acquisition and analysis. MM contributed to experiment design and writing the
537 manuscript. AHR contributed to experiment design, sample acquisition and analysis, and writing the
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10   Data Availability Statement

All datasets acquired in the course of this study will be available on ImmPort
(https://www.immport.org) upon manuscript publication.

11   Figure Legends

Figure 1. A standardized workflow for mass cytometry experiments and its implementation in
generating a comprehensive antibody staining reference. A: Blood was acquired from three
healthy donors and stained with a lyophilized panel of 21 metal conjugated antibodies to allow
identification of major immune cell types. The samples were split into two treatments, fresh and
formaldehyde-fixed. Each donor and treatment pair was barcoded using a combination of two out of
four CD45 channels. Samples were divided between the four, 96-well plates of the LEGENDScreen
antibody panel. Finally, the antibodies were organized into batches of ten samples each, which were
in turn barcoded using a combination of two out of five palladium channels. B: The 38 batches were
acquired using a Helios instrument over a period of five weeks, leading to approximately 63 million
events. C: Samples were automatically debarcoded and tested for quality control using the Average
Overlap Frequency (AOF), and immune populations were clustered, annotated, analyzed and
visualized using the Astrolabe Cytometry Platform.

Figure 2. Subset frequency and marker intensity are consistent across the LEGENDScreen
experiment acquisition. A: Debarcoding heat map for one batch out of the 38. Rows are debarcoded
events, columns are barcoding channels. Tile intensity is median of channel in events. Astrolabe
correctly debarcoded all of the codes in this batch. B: Bar plot comparing Astrolabe debarcoding to
manual debarcoding using four accuracy scores: Precision (0.996), Recall (0.914), F1 Score (0.953),
and Matthews Correlation Coefficient (MCC, 0.943). C: Scatter plot of Principal Component
Analysis (PCA) over the cell subset frequency vectors for all samples. Axes are first and second
components, dots are samples color-coded by donor. The three donors are distinct from each other
and internally uniform across the entire acquisition. D: For each pair, the top plot is a scatter plot of
cell subset frequency across all samples, ordered by batch. The bottom plot is a box plot of the
canonical marker intensity across all batches. From top to bottom: T Cells and CD3 intensity, B Cells
and CD19 intensity, NK Cells and CD56 intensity, and CD14+ Monocytes and CD14 intensity. In all
cases, both frequencies and intensities are robust across the acquisition period.

Figure 3. Cell subset and profiling subsets using the Astrolabe platform. Cells were clustered
using the FlowSOM algorithm and labeled according to canonical gating hierarchy. A: Bar plot
comparing Astrolabe labeling to manual gating across all cell subsets using the Matthews Correlation
Coefficient (MCC). Jade line corresponds to MCC of 0.9, grey line to MCC of 0.8. Almost all cell
subsets have a high MCC, denoting agreement between the automated and manual methods. B: Cell
subset heat map for one example sample. Rows are cell subsets, columns are channels. Tile intensity
is median of channel in subset. C: Bar plot of mean cell subset frequencies in each donor. D:
Profiling subset heat map for the same example sample. E: Bar plot of mean profiling subset
frequencies in each donor.

Figure 4. Summary of LEGENDScreen antibody intensities across all profiling subsets. A: Heat
map of all antibodies across all profiling subsets. Rows are antibodies, columns are profiling subsets.
Tile size is percent positive and intensity is median intensity. The three highlighted sections
correspond to panels B, C, and D. B, C, and D: Larger view of these sections of the main heat map.
Sections were chosen to broadly correspond to the top, middle, and bottom of the heat map. E:
Scatter plot comparing median antibody intensity between the LEGENDScreen experiment and an
independent validation experiment using a fourth donor sample that was processed and acquired
separately. X-axis is median intensity in validation, Y-axis is median intensity in LEGENDScreen.
Each dot corresponds to one cell subset and antibody combination (Pearson's rho is 0.78). F: Scatter
plot comparing percent positive between experiments. Percentages are frequency of markers in each
quadrant (McNemar's Chi-squared test p-value is lower than 2.2-16).

Figure 5. Differentially expressed markers between CD161+ and CD161- CD8+ T Cells. A, B:
Scatter plots showing percent positive of each marker in different types of CD8+ T Cells. A
corresponds to Central Memory (CM), B to Effector Memory (EM). X- and Y-axes are percent
positive in CD161- and CD161+ cells, respectively. Each dot corresponds to one marker in one
patient. The red line is linear regression. Markers where absolute standardized regression residual is
greater than 2 for all three donors are colored. C: Biaxial plots and box plots of CD26 expression in
CM (left) and EM (right) cells. X-axis is CD161, Y-axis is CD26, each dot is a cell. Cells and boxes
are color-coded by CD161- (red) and CD161+ (blue). D: Same for CD192 expression. CD192 levels
in monocytes (brown) are provided as reference. E: Same for CD183 expression in CM cells. F:
Same for CD57 expression in EM cells. G: Multiplexed validation of differentially expressed
proteins between CD161+ and CD161- subsets using an independent PBMC sample. tSNE map
highlighting the distinct high dimensional phenotype of the CD161hi cell subset (blue). H: Biaxial

plots showing validation of CD26, CD193, CD183, and CD57 expression in CD161- and CD161+
CD8+ T Cells

Figure 6. Comprehensive assessment of the effect of fixation on marker intensity. A: Box plot
showing the ratio between median intensities in the fixed and fresh samples. X-axis is antibody,
ordered by median ratio, Y-axis is log10 of ratio. Each box is one antibody. The grey line
corresponds to zero, or equal median intensities. B: Heat map of antibodies where signal was gained
from fresh to fixed (log 10 of ratio greater than 0.5). Rows are antibodies, columns are cell subsets.
Tile intensity is fold change between fixed and fresh. C: Heat map of antibodies where signal was
lost from fresh to fixed (log 10 ratio lower than -0.5). Tile intensity is fold change between fresh and
fixed. D: Intensity distributions for two (cell subset, antibody) combinations where median was equal
between fresh (in red) and fixed (in cyan). X-axis is antibody intensity, Y-axis is density. The dashed
line is the 99th quantile of the blank and indicates the background. E: Two (cell subset, antibody)
combinations where median increased in fixed (gain of signal). F: Two (cell subset, antibody)
combinations where median decreased in fixed (loss of signal). G: Left, CD22 antibody in Basophils,
where signal was lost. Right, CD22 antibody in B Cells, where signal remained constant. Fixation
effect differed between the subsets. H: Scatter plot comparing ratio of fixed and fresh between the
LEGENDScreen experiment and a validation experiment where indicated antibodies were part of the
mass cytometry panel (not conjugated to anti-PE). X-axis is ratio in validation, Y-axis is ratio in
LEGENDScreen. Each dot is a (cell subset, antibody) combination. Color is antibody, shape is
category (gain or loss).

A Experiment Design

| Leukapheresis mononuclear cells | Broad 21-marker mass cytometry panel | CD45-barcoding for donor and treatment | BioLegend LEGENDScreen | Pd-barcoding into 10-antibody batches |

Broad 21-marker mass cytometry panel

Mass	Marker
141Pr	IgD
142Nd	CD19
143Nd	CD45RA
144Nd	CD141
145Nd	CD4
146Nd	CD8
148Nd	CD16
149Sm	CD127
150Nd	CD1c
151Eu	CD123
152Sm	CD66b
155Gd	CD27
160Gd	CD14
161Dy	CD56
162Dy	gdTCR
166Er	CD24
168Er	CD3
170Er	CD38
171Yb	CD161
173Yb	CD25
174Yb	HLADR

Donor1
Donor2
Donor3

CD45-barcoding for donor and treatment

		CD45_113	CD45_159	CD45_169	CD45_175
Fresh	Donor1 Fresh	■	■		
	Donor2 Fresh	■		■	
	Donor3 Fresh	■			■
Fixed	Donor1 Fixed		■	■	
	Donor2 Fixed		■		■
	Donor3 Fixed			■	■

Pd-barcoding into 10-antibody batches

	104Pd	105Pd	106Pd	108Pd	110Pd
1	■	■			
2	■		■		
3	■			■	
4	■				■
5		■	■		
6		■		■	
7		■			■
8			■	■	
9			■		■
10				■	■

2,232 total samples

B Batched Acquisition   C Standardized Analysis

~400 hours
62,945,674 events

Automated debarcoding

Staining quality QC

Subset clustering and annotation

CD expression maps and fixation effect evaluation