

# THE UNIVERSITY of EDINBURGH

# Edinburgh Research Explorer

### Immune cell gene signatures for profiling the microenvironment of solid tumours

#### Citation for published version:

Nirmal, AJ, Regan, T, Shih, B-J, Hume, D, Sims, A & Freeman, T 2018, 'Immune cell gene signatures for profiling the microenvironment of solid tumours', *Cancer Immunology Research*. https://doi.org/10.1158/2326-6066.CIR-18-0342

#### **Digital Object Identifier (DOI):**

10.1158/2326-6066.CIR-18-0342

#### Link:

Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer

**Document Version:** Peer reviewed version

**Published In:** Cancer Immunology Research

#### **General rights**

Copyright for the publications made accessible via the Edinburgh Research Explorer is retained by the author(s) and / or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing these publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

Take down policy The University of Edinburgh has made every reasonable effort to ensure that Edinburgh Research Explorer content complies with UK legislation. If you believe that the public display of this file breaches copyright please contact openaccess@ed.ac.uk providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.



## 1 Immune cell gene signatures for profiling the microenvironment of solid

### 2 tumours

3 Ajit J. Nirmal<sup>1</sup>, Tim Regan<sup>1</sup>, Barbara B. Shih<sup>1</sup>, David A. Hume<sup>1,3</sup>, Andrew H. Sims<sup>2</sup>, Tom C. Freeman<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>The Roslin Institute and Royal (Dick) School of Veterinary Studies, University of Edinburgh, Easter
 Bush, Edinburgh, EH5 9RG, UK.

- <sup>2</sup>Applied Bioinformatics of Cancer, Edinburgh Cancer Research Centre, Institute of Genetics and
   Molecular Medicine, University of Edinburgh, Crewe Road South, Edinburgh, EH4 2XU, UK.
- <sup>3</sup>Mater Research-University of Queensland, Translational Research Institute, 37 Kent St,
   Woolloongabba, Qld 4160, Australia.
- 10
- 11 Running title: Immune cell gene signatures for profiling solid tumours
- 12 **Keywords:** Gene expression, tissue immune cells, immune signatures, network analysis

13

- 14 **Financial support:** AJN is a recipient of The Roslin Institute and CMVM scholarship and Edinburgh
- 15 Global Research Scholarship. AHS is funded by Breast Cancer Now, TR, BJS and TCF are funded by
- 16 MRC consortium grants (MR/M003833/1, MR/L014815/1) and TCF is funded by an Institute Strategic
- 17 Grant from the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (BBSRC) (BB/JO1446X/1).
- 18 Author contributions: AJN performed the majority of work described here with assistance from TR,
- 19 & BJS. AJN, DAH, AHS and TCF wrote and edited the manuscript. TCF supervised the project.

### 20 Corresponding author

- 21 Tom C. Freeman,
- 22 Systems Immunology Group,
- 23 The Roslin Institute and Royal (Dick) School of Veterinary Studies,
- 24 University of Edinburgh,
- 25 Easter Bush, EH25 9RG.
- 26 T: +44 (0)131 651 9203
- 27 F: +44 (0)131 651 9105
- 28 tom.freeman@roslin.ed.ac.uk
- 29
- 30 **Conflict of Interest Disclosure:** The authors declare no potential conflicts of interest.
- 31 Word count: 6432
- 32 Total number of Figures and tables: 5 figures, 3 tables, 5 supplementary tables, 3 supplementary
- 33 figures.

#### 34 Abstract

35 The immune composition of the tumour microenvironment has been shown to regulate processes 36 including angiogenesis, metastasis and the response to drugs or immunotherapy. To facilitate the 37 characterisation of the immune component of tumours from transcriptomics data, a number of 38 immune cell transcriptome signatures have been reported, i.e. lists of marker genes that together 39 are indicative of the presence a given immune cell population. The majority of these gene signatures have been defined through analysis of isolated blood cells. However, blood cells have been shown 40 41 not to reflect the differentiation or activation state of similar cells within tissues, including tumours, 42 and consequently perform poorly on tissue data. To address this issue, we generated a set of 43 immune gene signatures derived directly from tissue transcriptomics data using a network-based 44 deconvolution approach. We define markers for seven immune cell types, collectively named ImSig, 45 and demonstrate how they can be used for the quantitative estimation of the immune content of 46 tumour and non-tumour tissue samples. The utility of ImSig is demonstrated through the 47 stratification of melanoma patients into immuno-subgroups of prognostic significance and the 48 identification of immune cells from single-cell RNA-Seq data of derived from tumours. ImSig is 49 available as an R package ('imsig').

50

#### 51 Introduction

52 Modulating the activity of the immune component of the tumour microenvironment holds great 53 potential in the treatment of cancer. Checkpoint inhibitors are perhaps the most exciting advance in 54 cancer therapy in the past decade, with anti-PD1 and CTLA4 antibodies, in particular, demonstrating 55 remarkable therapeutic results in some patients (1). However, multiple factors within the tumour 56 microenvironment are recognised to influence the response to immunotherapy, in particular, the 57 immune infiltrate prior to treatment (2). Immunohistochemistry and flow cytometry have 58 conventionally been used to study the immune status of tumours, but are limited by the fact that 59 histological analyses are limited to small areas of tissue and a small numbers of markers, and flow 60 cytometry requires tissue disaggregation, which may not always be practical. To overcome these 61 limitations, computational methods have been developed to estimate the immune content of blood 62 and tissue samples from transcriptomic data (3). Two main approaches are currently used to infer 63 the relative proportion of cell types from transcriptomic data. A first type of approach fits reference gene expression profiles from sorted cells to the data in question (4-7) and a second approach, 64 65 employs cell-type specific genes to indicate the presence of certain cell populations (8-11). Both 66 approaches rely on sets of gene markers (gene signatures), however in the first case these genes are

not necessarily cell type-specific in their expression and use supervised learning algorithms to
leverage the additional power needed to distinguish between cell types.

69 A number of computational frameworks, leveraging these approaches have been described to 70 estimate the contribution of different immune cell types to the tissue transcriptome (5,10-14). 71 Across these studies, the range of immune cell types that each method report to detect varies 72 considerably. For instance, collectively the published studies report gene signatures for 22 T cell 73 subtypes. Among the signatures that define marker genes, numerous markers are used 74 interchangeably to define different subtypes and many are expressed by non-immune cell types. 75 Another, shortfall of these signatures is that they are all derived from cultured or blood-derived 76 cells. The expression profiles of the same immune cell from blood (PBMC's) and tissues are 77 significantly different (15) which compromises the predictive value of signatures (16).

78 Genes that contribute to a common biological process or define a given cell type are frequently co-79 regulated, i.e. coexpressed giving rise to expression modules (17,18). We have previously validated 80 gene correlation network (GCN) analysis of large gene expression datasets from human (including 81 cancer), mouse, pig and sheep, as a means to define such expression modules (19-21). Here we have 82 analysed a broad range of human tissue transcriptomic data to identify a set of robustly co-83 expressed marker genes representing seven immune cell types and three cellular pathway processes 84 present in many tissue data. We have named this set of signatures, ImSig. We demonstrate the 85 advantages of ImSig over other reported signatures derived from the comparison of isolated blood 86 cells and its utility in characterising the immune microenvironment of tumours.

#### 87 Methods

#### 88 **Derivation of ImSig**

89 Eight publically available expression datasets derived from human tissue were sourced from the 90 Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) database (22) (GSE11318, GSE50614, GSE75214, GSE38832, 91 GSE23705, GSE24383, GSE58812, GSE65904), based on the criteria that the unprocessed data files 92 were available, they included a variety of normal and diseased samples, represented a variety of 93 array platforms and contained >20 samples (median size 114 samples). The datasets was chosen 94 such as to include the diverse variety of immune cell types and differentiation states. Raw Affymetrix 95 data was processed using oligo package (23) and Illumina data was processed using lumi package 96 (24) in R. The signal intensities were normalised using the robust multi-array average (RMA) and 97 genes with multiple probes were summarised into one by choosing the probe with maximum 98 intensity across samples.

99 The resultant expression matrix was loaded into the network analysis tool Graphia Professional (Kajeka Ltd., Edinburgh, UK), previously known as BioLayout Express<sup>3D</sup> (25,26). Within the tool, a 100 101 correlation network was generated (an r value was chosen so as to include approximately 10,000 102 genes in the analysis) for each dataset and clustered using the Markov Clustering (MCL) algorithm 103 (27). Clusters were manually annotated based on domain knowledge and with the help of Gene 104 Ontology (GO) and Reactome pathway enrichment analyses (28,29). The gene modules representing immune cell types and biological processes were identified for each of the eight datasets. The genes 105 106 within the modules were consolidated into a list of genes for seven immune cell types and three 107 biological processes. In order to identify the core set of genes that represents each cell type or processes, these genes were further refined/filtered using eight independent validation datasets 108 109 (GSE9891, GSE14580, GSE38832, GSE14951, GSE15773, GSE7305, GSE22619, GSE52171) by the 110 following procedure: Robust cell type/pathway signatures were identified by excluding genes that 111 were poorly co-expressed using an unbiased approach. Each dataset was loaded into Graphia (r 112 values were selected so as to include approximately 10,000 genes in the analysis) and clustered 113 using the MCL algorithm. To model the contribution of noise by random genes within signatures, 0 114 to 100% of genes within every MCL cluster were replaced with random genes (using the R function 115 'sample') in a stepwise manner, in 2% increments. For each of these replacements, the resultant 116 median correlation of every cluster was noted. The combined data points were fitted to a sigmoidal 117 curve using the nonlinear least squares method. Based on this model, we estimated the number of genes that might contribute to noise within the signatures, and should be filtered out. To facilitate 118 119 such inverse estimation, the 'investr' package in R was used. For example, based on the median 120 correlation of signature genes, if the model suggested 30% of genes represented noise, then 30% of 121 genes exhibiting the poorest median correlation were discarded. This process was repeated for each 122 signature across the eight validation datasets and the set of genes that survived the filtration 123 process were defined as ImSig. In essence, the approach sought to identify the most robustly 124 correlated genes across datasets to arrive at the final list of genes for the individual ImSig signatures. 125 TopGo was used to identify the five most enriched GO Biological Process (GO\_BP) terms associated 126 with each gene set (28) and *p*-values were generated using the Fisher-exact test.

#### 127 Comparison of ImSig with other published signatures

Seven published immune signatures were sourced from the literature (5,8,10-14). To visualise the concordance between the immune genes defined by the different studies, a chord diagram was built using circlize package (30) in R. Only genes reported as markers of immune cells were used – *ImSig* includes pathway signatures, other studies included signatures for other cells, e.g. fibroblast, endothelial cells etc. Due to the sheer variety of T cell subtype signatures, these were further

explored to identify gene usage between them. Genes that were present in two or more studies and 133 134 ascribed to a T cell or one of its subtypes were identified. Using these genes, a graph was 135 constructed using Cytoscape (31) and visualised with a circular layout. The size of nodes 136 representing individual signatures was adjusted according to the number of connections each 137 signature had with others. A Jaccard similarity index was also calculated between all signatures. For 138 the Newman *et.al* signature genes that were not common between cell types were only considered. 139 For visualisation of the results, genes pertaining to cell subsets (Treg, Th1) were all pooled to 140 represent the parent population (T cells) and the Jaccard similarity index was re-calculated.

#### 141 Comparative analysis of gene signatures in the context of a tissue dataset

142 Seven immune signatures were sourced from the literature (5,8,10-14). The LM22 signature (5) did 143 not provide an absolute signature, i.e. same genes may represent multiple cell types and so only a 144 subset of genes that were unique to cell types was used for this analysis. The median correlation of 145 the signature genes was calculated within the context of a dataset (GSE20436) generated from 146 swabs taken from the eyes of children with symptoms of trachoma or controls (32). The dataset 147 contains transcriptomics data generated from samples taken from three patient subgroups; 20 148 controls with normal conjunctivas; 20 individuals with clinical signs of trachoma but that tested 149 negative for the bacteria C. trachomatis (possibly who were in the resolution stage); and 20 150 individuals with symptoms and active infections. This dataset was chosen due to the well documented immune infiltration associated with this disease and the presence of all immune 151 152 populations defined by ImSig. To be able to directly compare with ImSig, genes pertaining to cell subsets were all pooled to represent the parent population. In addition, analysis of the median 153 154 correlation of non-pooled signatures, i.e. marker sets representing sub-populations of cells, were 155 also analysed in the context of these data.

156 To validate ImSig in tumours, transcriptomic data from single-cell suspensions from lymph nodes of 157 four metastatic melanoma patients were analysed (GSE93722) for which cell type proportions (CD4 T 158 cells, CD8 T cells, B cells, NK cells) measured with flow cytometry was available. In order to perform a 159 direct comparison proportions of CD4 and CD8 T cells were summed to estimate total T cell content. 160 The average expression of ImSig genes were calculated to determine the relative abundance of 161 immune cells in each patient. The predicted and observed abundance were then scaled between 0 162 and 1 to be comparable. This analysis also served to validate the applicability of *ImSig* to RNA-Seq 163 data. To assess the ability of *ImSig* to define known clinical differences between patient subgroups 164 and to illustrate the explorative power of a network-based analysis, we used the trachoma dataset described above. In order to estimate the relative abundance of immune cells across patient groups, 165 166 the average expression of the ImSig signature genes was computed. A two-tailed, unequal variance

167 t-test was conducted between groups to obtain P-values. To explore the wider context of the 168 immune environment and extrapolate immune subsets, a GCN (r > 0.7) was visualised in Graphia. By 169 visual inspection of the network graph, immunologically relevant genes (subtype/differentiation-170 specific) were identified in the vicinity of the *ImSig* modules and their average expression profile 171 across patient groups plotted.

#### 172 Pan-cancer analysis of tumour data (TCGA)

173 Pre-normalised (level 3 data) transcriptomic data from 12 cancers were downloaded from the TCGA 174 database. For each cancer type, the patients were ordered based on the average expression of the 175 individual ImSig signatures and split into two groups based on the median expression value of the 176 signature genes. In cases such as Brain Lower Grade Glioma (LGG), Kidney Renal Clear Cell Carcinoma 177 (KIRC) and Uterine Corpus Endometrial Carcinoma (UCEC), B cell signature genes were not co-178 expressed indicating the likely absence or low abundance of these cells and so were not included in 179 the survival analysis. A univariate Cox-proportional hazard ratio analysis was performed for the rest 180 using the survcomp package in R (33). P-values are based on the log-rank test.

#### 181 Molecular subtyping (patient stratification) of melanoma

182 RNA-Seq data for the SKCM (human skin cutaneous melanoma) was downloaded from the TCGA 183 data portal. Using the expression data of *ImSig* genes, a sample-to-sample correlation plot (r > 0.85) 184 was generated. MCL clustering (inflation value: 1.7) of the sample-sample correlation plot, grouped 185 the patients into 5 clusters. These groupings were mapped as a class-set onto the complete GCN to 186 study the expression patterns of immune cells between groups. A univariate Cox-proportional 187 analysis was also performed using the survcomp package (33) in R between the groups in various 188 combinations. The P-value was calculated using the log-rank test.

An independent melanoma dataset- GSE65904 (51) was used for validation. The dataset was produced on the Illumina HumanHT-12 V4.0 microarrays and composed of samples from 214 melanoma patients. Samples that did not contain necessary information such as disease-specific survival, gender and sample type were removed. After processing and normalisation using the lumi package (24) in R, samples that were not present in the network graph ( $r \ge 0.8$ ) were also removed and the remaining samples (210) were processed as described above for the TCGA dataset.

#### 195 Processing and analysis of single-cell RNA-Seq data

196 Single-cell transcriptomics data (log2 [(TPM/10)+1]) for melanoma (34) and head and neck cancer 197 (HNSCC) (35) downloaded The were from Broad Institute single-cell portal (https://portals.broadinstitute.org/single\_cell). As computation of the relative abundance of cell 198 199 types is based on the average expression of *ImSig* genes, missing values in single-cell data can affect the results. Therefore, to compensate for dropouts, a diffusion-based imputation method was usedto impute missing values (36).

202 To validate the cell type specificity of ImSig, the average expression of B, T, NK cell and macrophage 203 signature genes were calculated from the melanoma cell data dataset and compared to the average 204 expression of the other immune-related ImSig genes. To evaluate the concordance between 205 estimated abundance and measured number of cells, the average expression of signature genes for 206 10 patients were computed (estimated abundance). Correlation between estimated abundance and 207 measured number of cells was calculated and P-values were attained by building a linear regression 208 model. To visually illustrate the concordance of relative proportions, both the estimated abundance 209 and measured number of cells were scaled using the formula [x-min(x)/max(x)-min(x), where x is the210 cell abundance value] and plotted as a stacked bar plot scaled to 100%.

211 In order to predict immune cell types in the HNSCC dataset using the SVM-based algorithm 212 Cibersort, a reference matrix (ImSig as features) was first generated using the melanoma single-cell 213 data as per the requirements. The algorithm was run with the generated reference matrix and 214 HNSCC single-cell data, uploaded on to the Cibersort web portal (https://cibersort.stanford.edu). 215 The output contained a score of B cell, T cell and macrophage for each sample and an associated P-216 value. P-values of <0.05 and a score of >0.75 (upper quartile) were set as defining correct predictions, e.g. a T cell score of >0.75 in a T cell with a P-value of <0.05 was judged as a correct 217 218 prediction.

#### 219 R implementation of ImSig

We implemented *ImSig* as an R package called "imsig". Users should call the "imsig" function, which takes a normalized gene expression matrix (HUGO symbols in rows and samples in columns) as its first argument and a correlation threshold (*r*) as its second argument. Users can also generate network graph of *ImSig* genes and perform survival analysis using the package. A short tutorial is available at https://github.com/ajitjohnson/imsig.

225 This package is available at CRAN (<u>https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/imsig/</u>).

226

#### 227 Results

#### 228 Derivation of ImSig

Using a network-based approach, a set of co-expressed gene modules associated with human tissue immune cell populations and frequently observed biological processes were identified from eight independent tissue transcriptomics datasets. An illustrative example of a gene correlation network 232 (GCN) is shown in Fig. 1A. These initial gene signatures were further refined and validated by testing 233 for co-expression of the genes associated with each signature across an additional eight independent datasets (Fig. 1B). The result was 569 marker genes representative of seven immune 234 235 populations (B cells (37 genes), plasma cells (14), monocytes (37), macrophages (78), neutrophils 236 (47), NK cells (20), T cells (85)) and three biological processes (Interferon response (66), translation 237 (86), proliferation (99)), named collectively ImSig (Table 1,2 & Supplementary Table S1). The datadriven definition of each immune signature is internally-validated by the association of many well-238 239 known markers with the specific signatures, e.g. CD3D and CD3E (T cells), CD19, CD22 and CD79 (B 240 cells), CD14 (monocytes), CD68 and CD163 (macrophages), KIR family (NK cells) and immunoglobulin 241 family members (plasma cells). Furthermore, GO enrichment analysis of the gene signatures and 242 extensive reference to the literature, supported the association of the majority of markers identified 243 with the relevant cell types and processes. The top 5 enrichment terms for all signatures are listed in 244 Supplementary Table S2 and the top term is given in Fig. 1C. In contrast to a number of the 245 published immune gene signatures, we did not define signatures for immune cell sub-types, such as 246 sub-populations of T cells or activation states of macrophages. Across the diversity of tissue datasets, we found no support for distinct modules of co-expressed markers describing T cell or 247 248 macrophage subpopulations. This is consistent with previous analyses of isolated human macrophages responding to different stimuli, which did not support the existence of distinct 249 250 activation states of macrophages but rather a continuum of difference states depending on the 251 stimulus (37). Where present, 'activation-specific' transcripts such as receptors, cytokines or 252 transcription factors, tend to form part of the overall cell expression module. By inference, if a 253 particular gene is strongly co-expressed with a particular cell type-specific signature in the context of 254 a particular dataset, one can conclude that either it is likely expressed by those cells or at least a sub-255 population of them.

#### 256 Comparison between ImSig and published immune signatures

257 The gene content of seven published immune signatures, all derived from the comparison of isolated 258 blood cells (5,8,10-14), were compiled and compared, excluding signatures for non-immune cell types, e.g. endothelial cells, fibroblast etc. When ImSig was added to the list it contained 3,658 259 260 genes (Supplementary Table S3). To compare these the gene signatures a Jaccard similarity index 261 was calculated (Supplementary Table S4) and highlights the poor concordance between signatures 262 (Supplementary Table S4 and Supplementary Fig. S1). The highest observed similarity was between ImSig's and Becht et al.'s B cell signature, Jaccard score = 0.26, which in itself is a not a high Jaccard 263 264 score. Fig. 2A illustrates the lack of consensus between published signatures and ImSig, and 265 highlights the fact that 76.3% of genes are only associated with a single study. Of these 2,794 genes,

266 only a small proportion described unique populations, e.g. erythroblast (297 genes) and 267 megakaryocyte (259) described by Watkins et al. The poor conservation of immune marker genes 268 across studies is likely due to a number of technical and statistical artefacts. For example, 269 proliferation-related genes were identified as part of the signature for activated CD4 (12) and T cells 270 (10). The mitotic index of resting versus activated T cells may be a true difference between them, 271 but cell cycle genes are expressed by all proliferating cells (38) and are therefore poor markers of cell type. Notably, of all signatures proposed, ImSig contains the fewest unique genes (only 60 ImSig 272 273 genes have not been previously been included in other signatures), suggesting a high degree of 274 consensus with other studies overall, but not particularly with any previous signature alone.

275 It is also interesting to note the association of certain genes with different cell types in different 276 studies. Of the 729 genes proposed to represent distinct T cell states, none were common to all 277 seven studies and only 98 were listed by two or more studies. As Fig. 2B illustrates the assignment of 278 markers to cell types across studies is highly complicated. For example, LRRN3, was used to define 279 resting cytotoxic T cells by Abbas et al. and as a Th1 marker by Bindea et al. CTLA4 is annotated as 280 either a marker of Tregs, Th1 and CD4 T cells and by Angelova et al., Bindea et al., and Watkins et al., 281 respectively. CTLA4 can also be expressed on CD8+ T cells (39). There are many such examples of 282 discordance between marker gene/cell type assignations. The ImSig T cell signature, which was 283 designed to be subtype agnostic, exhibited the greatest overlap between all T cell signatures 284 (displayed by the relative node size in Fig. 2B) and includes genes defined as subtype-specific by 285 other studies but for which we found no support as a separate co-expression module. To compare 286 the co-expression of the *ImSig* signatures to previous signatures, the median correlation of each set 287 of signature genes were calculated within the context of a dataset derived trachoma patients. This 288 was selected as one of the few examples we could find of a dataset derived from a tissue, where all 289 immune cell types defined by ImSig are present, these being recruited in response to a bacterial 290 infection. For comparison with previous signatures, those modules representing sub-populations, 291 e.g. T cell subsets were collated into one, e.g. T cells. Their median correlation in the context of the 292 trachoma dataset is shown in Fig. 2C. A non-collated version of the results is provided in 293 Supplementary Table S5. Regardless of whether they were aggregated by broad cell type, or 294 considered separately; none of the blood-derived modules were strongly co-expressed across the 295 set of trachoma patient samples. In contrast, all of the ImSig signatures displayed a high median 296 correlation (co-expression) value. Of the other signatures examined, Becht et al. (8) performed next 297 best. The bacterial infection that gives rise to the pathology of trachoma leads a significant increase 298 in the recruitment of immune cells to the site of infection (32). In order to evaluate the ability of 299 ImSig to estimate the relative abundance of immune cells, the average expression of each gene

signature was used as a proxy for immune cell number in the trachoma dataset. As seen in Fig. 2D, a
 significant increase in all immune populations is associated with patient groups relative to controls,
 particularly in those patients with an active infection.

303 Finally, to validate the applicability of ImSig on RNA-Seq data and in the context of tumour biology, 304 we computed the relative abundance of immune cells in four metastatic melanoma patients for 305 which single-cell suspensions were collected from lymph nodes. A fraction of the cell suspension was 306 used to measure cell type proportions by flow cytometry and the other fraction was used for bulk 307 RNA sequencing. We observed a good agreement (r = 0.91, RMSE = 0.1 and P value = 2.74E-05) 308 between predictions of relative cell number made using *ImSig* and experimentally determined cell 309 numbers (see also Supplementary Fig. S2). This indicates that the relative cell numbers were 310 accurately predicted for all cell types, as confirmed by the low root-mean-square error (RMSE).

#### 311 Deconvolution of tissue data

312 In the context of GCN analyses, the *ImSig* signatures can be used to identify other context-specific 313 genes expressed by immune populations. For example, the T cell and macrophage signatures were 314 correlated with each other, consistent with an immune-mediated inflammatory process, and many 315 immune-related genes were co-expressed with ImSig genes in the context of the trachoma data (Fig. 316 3A). The expression profile of genes such as IFNG, LAG3, CD44, FOX03, FOXP3, CD80, IL20, STAT4, 317 IL17A etc. was correlated with T cell signature genes, indicating that the T cell population included 318 Th17, Treg and Th1 subtypes (Fig. 3B). Similarly, genes associated with the macrophage signature 319 contained many classical M1 markers. Network analysis also supports the wider appreciation of the 320 transcriptional signatures of other cell types present in clinical samples, i.e. when examining the 321 dataset as a whole, many other GCN clusters can be assigned to other cell populations or processes.

322 Satisfied with the performance of *ImSig* in the context of tissue transcriptomics data in general, we 323 set out to explore its utility in the analysis of transcriptomics data derived from cancer.

#### 324 Analysis of immune infiltrates in cancer

325 Our previous analysis of the cancer transcriptome showed that expression signatures of immune 326 cells can be extracted from large cancer datasets, however, this analysis was not correlated with 327 outcomes (20). To test the use of *ImSig* in the study of the tumour microenvironment, the twelve 328 largest TCGA cancer datasets were examined and hazard ratios were computed between high and 329 low immune cell infiltrate groups (Fig. 4A). Whilst the survival analysis was not adjusted for 330 potentially confounding variables (such as tumour stage, grade, age or treatment), the findings were 331 largely consistent with the literature. In melanoma (SKCM), we reaffirmed the known association 332 between tumour infiltrating lymphocytes (TIL) and a good prognosis (40,41). Breast cancer (BRCA) is

not as immunogenic as melanoma, but several studies have associated TIL's with a good prognosis as 333 334 observed here (42). A negative association between TIL's and prognosis was evident in low-grade 335 glioma (LGG) (43,44) and lung squamous cell carcinoma (LUSC) (45,46) in accordance with the 336 previous literature. A novel finding was of the potential prognostic value of the interferon response 337 in low-grade glioma. Another surprising observation was that a high rate of proliferation is 338 associated with a good prognosis in LUSC and colorectal cancers (COAD). This observation has been reported previously in colorectal cancer (47), but not in LUSC. Analysis of individual proliferation-339 340 related genes in LUSC also supported this observation (log2HR: G2E3- 0.66; MND1- 0.56; CHEK2-341 0.53; RFC4- 0.51; CEP192- 0.48; CDKN3- 0.47; CENPA- 0.47; CCND2- 0.47; CDC7- 0.46: p < 0.05). One 342 possible explanation for this counter-intuitive observation is that the mitotic signal in these tissues 343 originates from proliferating immune cells, not from cancer itself (48,49).

344 Extending the analysis above, a molecular subgrouping of melanoma based on ImSig was performed i.e. only the signature genes were used in the grouping of patient samples. Unsupervised clustering 345 346 based on the immune profile revealed five groups of patient samples (Fig. 4B). Clinical features such 347 as the tissue of origin and tumour type (metastatic or primary) did not affect the subtyping. Nearly 348 half the patients were in cluster-1, characterised by a low level of immune infiltrate (Fig. 4C). Hazard 349 ratio (HR) analysis between these low immune (cluster-1) and high immune infiltrate (clusters-2 and 350 -3) tumours revealed a significant difference in survival (HR: 0.38, p = 3E-9). The median survival of 351 patients in the high immune group was 10 years greater than that of patients in the low immune 352 subgroup (Fig. 4D). Within the high immune subgroup, cluster-2 appeared to have a higher level of B 353 cells and plasma cells in contrast to cluster-3 (Fig. 4C) but overall survival (HR) was not significantly 354 different between the two groups (Fig. 4D). Cluster-4 samples displayed higher levels of the 355 interferon response genes and also showed improved survival compared to the low immune group 356 (Fig. 4D). Finally, patients in cluster-5 had a low immune infiltrate but were enriched for keratin 357 related genes and presented the worst survival rates (median survival = 2.34 yr). Whilst patients in 358 clusters-2 and cluster-4 did not show a significant difference in hazard ratio compared to those in 359 cluster-3, they could potentially show other features, such as differing responses to treatment. 360 Following an analogous analysis, we were able to reproduce the five patient groupings on an 361 independent validation dataset (GSE65904) which showed a similar infiltration pattern 362 (Supplementary Fig. S3A) and survival analysis on the same exhibited similar prognostic pattern 363 (Supplementary Fig. S3B). High immune and keratin subgroups have been identified and described 364 previously in melanoma (50,51) but these studies did not describe the type and variation in the 365 immune infiltrate in melanomas. Our analysis provides a greater degree of granularity as to the

exact nature of the immune landscape of these tumours and consequently improved the prognosticpower.

#### 368 Use of ImSig in identifying immune cells in single-cell data

369 To extend these analyses and further validate the ImSig signatures in the context of single-cell data, 370 we examined single-cell data derived from melanomas (34). The immune component of the 371 melanoma single-cell analysis included 515 B cells, 126 macrophages, 52 NK cells and 2,069 T cells. 372 Cell-type specific expression of ImSig markers was observed (P < 7E-15) as illustrated in Fig. 5A. For 373 each patient, the estimated proportion of immune cells was compared to the true proportion. The 374 estimated proportion displayed a high degree of concordance with the measured number of cells (p 375 < 0.05), with the poorest observed correlation being r = 0.97. Randomised permutation analysis with 376 the same sized gene sets produced no significant correlation (Fig. 5B). Fig. 5C illustrates the 377 concordance between the measured and estimated number of cells.

The single-cell community depends on gene markers/signatures and clustering algorithms, to define 378 379 cell types. Here we have attempted to show the utility of ImSig when used in association of 380 classification algorithms, such as support vector machine (SVM), to predict cell types from single-cell 381 RNA-Seq data. To demonstrate such potential for automation, we used the SVM-based 382 deconvolution tool Cibersort (5) with a reference profile generated with ImSig to predict immune 383 cells within a single-cell dataset from head and neck tumours (HNSCC) (35). The immune component 384 of the HNSCC dataset contained 1,473 cells. Prediction using *ImSig* yielded a high degree of accuracy 385 for B cells (88.4%), macrophages (98.8%) and T cells (99.8%) (Table 3). 63 immune cells failed to be 386 categorised into one of the cell types described above (p-value > 0.05). With respect to the other 387 4,087 cells, i.e. myocytes, mast cells, malignant cells, fibroblast, dendritic cells and endothelial cells, 388 only 2.2% of cells were misclassified as macrophages, B or T cells. In contrast, Cibersort's default 389 blood-derived signature (LM22) showed limited ability to identify immune cell types in these data, 390 with an accuracy rate for B cells of 15.2%, macrophages, 0% and T cells, 75.3%. However, LM22 391 signature was not designed to deconvolute single-cell data and its poor performance is likely a 392 cumulative outcome of using a blood-derived signature and a reference gene matrix based on 393 microarrays.

394

#### 395 Discussion

Cellular heterogeneity is a hallmark of cancer, both in terms of the tumours themselves and the normal cells that both support and control their growth. There is now a wealth of transcriptomics data generated from cancer samples and there have been a number of previous studies that report approaches to deconvolute these data in an attempt to define the set of cell types present therein.
However, we and others (16) found that immune signatures derived by comparing the expression
profile of immune cells isolated from blood, do not perform optimally when applied to tissue data.

402 The current work is based on the observation that genes associated with a specific cell population or 403 biological process form highly connected cliques of nodes (Fig. 1A) when large collections of 404 transcriptomics data are subjected to network-based correlation analysis (18,52). Whilst the main 405 goal of this study was to define immune gene signatures for the deconvolution of cancer data, we 406 have derived ImSig from a range of tissue pathologies and platforms to ensure its applicability across 407 different data types and sources. Our aim in defining ImSig was to choose the most robustly co-408 expressed genes for each cell immune cell type directly from the analysis of tissue data, thereby 409 defining a 'core' or invariant cell type-specific signature.

410 In any given tissue, a gene may be expressed by multiple cell types present therein or a cell type may 411 not be present, hence the need to explore a wide variety of tissue data. We also chose to include 412 signatures for interferon signalling, proliferation (mitosis) and translation, as these are commonly 413 observed co-expression modules in tissue and act as additional controls. Validatory analysis of the 414 resultant ImSig signatures showed the gene signatures to be highly enriched with appropriate GO 415 terms (Fig. 1C) and manual inspection of the lists with reference to the literature, also supported the 416 validity of the selected genes. This was further confirmed by the observed co-expression of the ImSig 417 signatures across a wide range of datasets not used for their derivation and their average expression 418 following changes in immune cell numbers, where known, e.g. in trachoma.

419 As the current study is by no means the first to attempt to define sets of signatures for immune cells, 420 we sought to compare ImSig with other published signatures, both in terms of gene content and 421 performance. Definition of cell signatures is not trivial, nor is simple to compare signatures across 422 studies. In the first instance, the published gene signatures all vary in terms of the number of genes 423 they include and the cell populations and sub-populations they seek to define. Secondly, there is no 424 benchmark dataset where the number and nature of immune cells are known in the context of a 425 tissue environment. Comparison of the signatures showed many to include gene markers only 426 defined by that study, and where common to more than one study, there was a highly complex 427 relationship between the assignation of genes to cells across studies; in other words, there is little 428 consensus across published immune marker lists (Figs. 2A&B). What was apparent is that of all the 429 signatures, ImSig contained the fewest unique genes (65), suggesting that rather than the gene 430 content of ImSig being particularly novel, it represents more of a consensus view of other studies, 431 despite being derived independently from them. The comparison of the performance of signatures

again represented a challenge. Where multiple subtypes of cells were defined, the genes associated 432 433 with subtypes were either analysed separately or collapsed into a single signature. We chose to 434 compare the performance of these summarised signatures in the context of the trachoma dataset, 435 where we knew all immune cell types to be present and that their relative level increases during 436 active infection (32). In this context, the degree of co-expression between genes associated with 437 individual ImSig signatures was in many cases dramatically better than others (Fig. 2C). Furthermore, 438 the average expression of ImSig signatures mirrored the known increase in immune cell infiltrate 439 during across patient groups (32) (Fig. 2D).

440 Ever since the first description of major types of immune cells, researchers have sought to define sub-types, i.e. sub-populations and activation states associated with different tissues, developmental 441 442 stages and pathologies. Whilst heterogeneity amongst immune cell populations undoubtedly exists, 443 the number of markers that definitively identify them outside of the context of flow cytometry and 444 immunohistochemical experiments or comparison of isolated populations, is limited. For instance, 445 tissue macrophages are named differently depending on their tissue of origin (microglia, Kupffer 446 cells etc.) or activation state (M1, M2 etc.) and in other cases are referred to as dendritic cells 447 (53,54). Across the previous studies referred to here, signatures for 22 T cell subsets are reported 448 and this does not include all T cell subsets that are defined in the literature (55). In addition, in a 449 given pathological state multiple cellular subtypes or populations whose biology is adapted to 450 different niches are likely to be present. We would argue that it is unrealistic to expect to be able to categorically identify their individual signatures from bulk tissue data, especially when the 451 452 differences between them are more likely to be a spectrum than a series of absolute states (37). Even amongst different myeloid populations, i.e. monocytes, macrophages and neutrophils, we have 453 454 found very few markers that are entirely specific to one population or another, and the markers 455 selected to define the presence of these populations, do so more by their co-expression than 456 absolute expression in the context of tissue.

457 Whilst we suggest that many immune subtype markers are too poorly defined to reliably distinguish immune cell subsets in the context of transcriptomics data derived from tissue, network analysis can 458 459 provide a comprehensive picture of the immune microenvironment. By examination of the genes 460 that closely correlate with the core signature genes (Fig. 3B), even if one cannot with any degree of 461 certainty assign their expression to one cell type or another, it is possible to capture the overall 462 profile the immune microenvironment of a tissue in health or disease. It may after all be the sum of 463 the individual parts that matter. How one translates these finding into immune subset identification 464 we leave to the individual analyst, with the cellular subtypes they recognise and the marker genes 465 that define them.

466 After satisfying ourselves of the validity of ImSig and its superiority over other signatures in defining 467 immune populations in tissue data, we used it to analyse a broad spectrum of large transcriptomics 468 datasets derived from 12 cancer types. In each case, the majority of signature genes were tightly co-469 expressed, apart from instances where we believe the target cell was not present or there in low 470 abundance. When the samples for each tumour type were ranked according to their immune cell 471 content (as defined by the average expression of the signature genes), we were able to demonstrate 472 a clear variation in the immune microenvironment between tumours and the association of specific 473 immune cell populations with a good or poor prognoses (Fig. 4A). Despite an established association 474 between the immune system and survival in melanoma (56), there has been little effort to subgroup 475 patients based upon specific immune cell types present, previous studies merely defining tumours as 476 having a high or low immune content (51,57). We, therefore, explored the use of ImSig in the 477 molecular subtyping melanoma patients. The analysis demonstrated a greater heterogeneity in the 478 immune infiltrate of melanoma than previously reported (50,51) with tumours that have: high levels 479 of T cells, macrophages (cluster 3); a high interferon enrichment (cluster 4); and tumours with high B 480 cell infiltration (cluster 2). This analysis highlights the fact that by treating the immune infiltrate of 481 tumours as an overall signature, loses the potential to identify prognostically significant subgroups. 482 In other cases merging the immune infiltrate into one immuno-subgroup might result in opposing 483 survival differences cancelling each other out, e.g. if T cells were associated with a good prognosis 484 and macrophages a bad prognosis. Understanding the immune heterogeneity tumours may also be 485 key in predicting their response to immunotherapy (58,59).

486 The advent of single-cell transcriptomics and its application to understanding the microenvironment 487 of cancer promises to facilitate the profiling of all the cells of a tumour as never before possible (60) 488 and may eventually circumvent the need to deconvolute tissue data, as described here. The 489 technology to perform these analyses is improving rapidly and may in the future answer many of the 490 questions about immune cell heterogeneity. However, at the present time, the data available is 491 limited and the droplet-based RNA sequencing methods being widely used may not provide a 492 sufficient depth of sequencing to go beyond the identification of cell type. Here we demonstrate 493 how ImSig was able to define the type and relative abundance of immune cells in single-cell data 494 derived from melanoma, and head and neck cancer with a high degree of accuracy. This both further 495 validates the signatures and demonstrates how they may be used in this context. As the quantity 496 and quality of single-cell cancer datasets improve and we understand the expression profile of these 497 cells in many contexts is better appreciated, perhaps then reliable markers may be defined that are 498 able to differentiate between immune subtypes or activation states, specifically in the context of the 499 tumour microenvironment.

501 is not necessarily novel in the context of those reported previously, we believe it to be superior to 502 published immune signatures in terms of being a robust, subtype agnostic means to estimate the 503 relative abundance of these cells across tissue samples. We also demonstrate the ability of *ImSig* to 504 be a powerful companion for the identification of novel biomarkers when applied in the context of 505 network co-expression analyses. We anticipate that *ImSig* will prove to be a valuable resource for

ImSig is the first immune signature to be directly derived from tissue data. Although its gene content

- studying immune cell variation in tumour samples and how they respond to therapy, aiding in the
- 507 discovery of novel predictive biomarkers.

508

500

### 509 References

- Postow MA, Callahan MK, Wolchok JD. Immune Checkpoint Blockade in Cancer Therapy.
   Journal of Clinical Oncology 2015;33(17):1974-82.
   Denkert C, von Minckwitz G, Darb-Esfahani S, Lederer B, Heppner BI, Weber KE, et al.
   Tumour-infiltrating lymphocytes and prognosis in different subtypes of breast cancer: a
   pooled analysis of 3771 patients treated with neoadjuvant therapy. The Lancet Oncology
- 515 2018;19(1):40-50.
  516 3. Hackl H, Charoentong P, Finotello F, Trajanoski Z. Computational genomics tools for
  517 dissecting tumour-immune cell interactions. Nat Rev Genet 2016;17(8):441-58.
- 5184.Gong T, Szustakowski JD. DeconRNASeq: a statistical framework for deconvolution of519heterogeneous tissue samples based on mRNA-Seq data. Bioinformatics 2013;29.
- 5. Newman AM, Liu CL, Green MR, Gentles AJ, Feng W, Xu Y, et al. Robust enumeration of cell
  subsets from tissue expression profiles. Nat Methods 2015;12.
- 5226.Li B, Severson E, Pignon J-C, Zhao H, Li T, Novak J, et al. Comprehensive analyses of tumor523immunity: implications for cancer immunotherapy. Genome Biology 2016;17(1):174.
- Qiao W, Quon G, Csaszar E, Yu M, Morris Q, Zandstra PW. PERT: A Method for Expression
   Deconvolution of Human Blood Samples from Varied Microenvironmental and
   Developmental Conditions. PLoS Comput Biol 2012;8(12):e1002838.
- Becht E, Giraldo NA, Lacroix L, Buttard B, Elarouci N, Petitprez F, et al. Estimating
   the population abundance of tissue-infiltrating immune and stromal cell populations using
   gene expression. Genome Biology 2016;17(1):218.
- 5309.Zhong Y, Wan Y-W, Pang K, Chow LM, Liu Z. Digital sorting of complex tissues for cell type-531specific gene expression profiles. BMC Bioinformatics 2013;14(1):89.
- 53210.Abbas AR, Baldwin D, Ma Y, Ouyang W, Gurney A, Martin F, et al. Immune response in silico533(IRIS): immune-specific genes identified from a compendium of microarray expression data.534Genes Immun 2005;6(4):319-31.
- Abbas AR, Wolslegel K, Seshasayee D, Modrusan Z, Clark HF. Deconvolution of Blood
   Microarray Data Identifies Cellular Activation Patterns in Systemic Lupus Erythematosus.
   PLoS ONE 2009;4(7):e6098.
- Angelova M, Charoentong P, Hackl H, Fischer ML, Snajder R, Krogsdam AM, et al.
   Characterization of the immunophenotypes and antigenomes of colorectal cancers reveals
   distinct tumor escape mechanisms and novel targets for immunotherapy. Genome Biology
   2015;16(1):64.
- 542 13. Watkins NA, Gusnanto A, de Bono B, De S, Miranda-Saavedra D, Hardie DL, et al. A
  543 HaemAtlas: characterizing gene expression in differentiated human blood cells. 2009. e1-e9
  544 p.

545 Bindea G, Mlecnik B, Tosolini M, Kirilovsky A, Waldner M, Obenauf AC. Spatiotemporal 14. 546 dynamics of intratumoral immune cells reveal the immune landscape in human cancer. 547 Immunity 2013;39. 548 15. Schelker M, Feau S, Du J, Ranu N, Klipp E, MacBeath G, et al. Estimation of immune cell 549 content in tumour tissue using single-cell RNA-seq data. Nature Communications 550 2017;8(1):2032. 551 16. Pollara G, Murray MJ, Heather JM, Byng-Maddick R, Guppy N, Ellis M, et al. Validation of 552 Immune Cell Modules in Multicellular Transcriptomic Data. PLOS ONE 2017;12(1):e0169271. Hartwell LH, Hopfield JJ, Leibler S, Murray AW. From molecular to modular cell biology. 553 17. 554 Nature 1999;402:C47. 555 18. Stuart JM, Segal E, Koller D, Kim SK. A Gene-Coexpression Network for Global Discovery of Conserved Genetic Modules. Science 2003;302(5643):249-55. 556 Forrest ARR, Kawaji H, Rehli M, Kenneth Baillie J, de Hoon MJL, Haberle V, et al. A promoter-557 19. level mammalian expression atlas. Nature 2014;507(7493):462-70. 558 559 20. Doig TN, Hume DA, Theocharidis T, Goodlad JR, Gregory CD, Freeman TC. Coexpression 560 analysis of large cancer datasets provides insight into the cellular phenotypes of the tumour 561 microenvironment. BMC Genomics 2013;14(1):1-16. 562 21. Freeman TC, Ivens A, Baillie JK, Beraldi D, Barnett MW, Dorward D, et al. A gene expression 563 atlas of the domestic pig. BMC Biology 2012;10:90-90. 564 Barrett T, Wilhite SE, Ledoux P, Evangelista C, Kim IF, Tomashevsky M. NCBI GEO: archive for 22. 565 functional genomics data sets-update. Nucleic Acids Res 2013;41. 566 23. Carvalho BS, Irizarry RA. A framework for oligonucleotide microarray preprocessing. 567 Bioinformatics 2010;26(19):2363-67. 568 24. Du P, Kibbe WA, Lin SM. lumi: a pipeline for processing Illumina microarray. Bioinformatics 569 2008;24(13):1547-48. 570 25. Theocharidis A, van Dongen S, Enright AJ, Freeman TC. Network visualization and analysis of 571 gene expression data using BioLayout express(3D). Nat Protoc 2009;4. 572 26. Freeman TC, Goldovsky L, Brosch M, Dongen S, Mazière P, Grocock RJ, et al. Construction, 573 visualisation, and clustering of transcription networks from microarray expression data. PLoS 574 Comput Biol 2007;3. 575 27. Enright AJ, Dongen SV, Ouzounis CA. An efficient algorithm for large-scale detection of 576 protein families. Nucleic Acids Res 2002;30. 577 28. Alexa A RJ. topGO: Enrichment Analysis for Gene Ontology. R package 2016; version 2.26.0. 578 29. Fabregat A, Sidiropoulos K, Garapati P, Gillespie M, Hausmann K, Haw R, et al. The reactome 579 pathway knowledgebase. Nucleic Acids Res 2016;44. 580 30. Gu Z, Gu L, Eils R, Schlesner M, Brors B. circlize implements and enhances circular 581 visualization in R. Bioinformatics 2014;30(19):2811-12. 582 31. Shannon P, Markiel A, Ozier O, Baliga NS, Wang JT, Ramage D, et al. Cytoscape: A Software 583 Environment for Integrated Models of Biomolecular Interaction Networks. Genome 584 Research 2003;13(11):2498-504. 585 32. Natividad A, Freeman TC, Jeffries D, Burton MJ, Mabey DCW, Bailey RL, et al. Human 586 Conjunctival Transcriptome Analysis Reveals the Prominence of Innate Defense in Chlamydia 587 trachomatis Infection. Infection and Immunity 2010;78(11):4895-911. 588 33. Schröder MS, Culhane AC, Quackenbush J, Haibe-Kains B. survcomp: an R/Bioconductor 589 package for performance assessment and comparison of survival models. Bioinformatics 590 2011;27(22):3206-08. 591 34. Tirosh I, Izar B, Prakadan SM, Wadsworth MH, Treacy D, Trombetta JJ, et al. Dissecting the multicellular ecosystem of metastatic melanoma by single-cell RNA-seq. Science (New York, 592 593 NY) 2016;352(6282):189-96.

594 595	35.	Puram SV, Tirosh I, Parikh AS, Patel AP, Yizhak K, Gillespie S, et al. Single-Cell Transcriptomic Analysis of Primary and Metastatic Tumor Ecosystems in Head and Neck Cancer.
596		Cell;171(7):1611-24.e24.
597	36.	van Dijk D, Nainys J, Sharma R, Kathail P, Carr AJ, Moon KR, et al. MAGIC: A diffusion-based
598		imputation method reveals gene-gene interactions in single-cell RNA-sequencing data.
599		bioRxiv 2017.
600	37.	Xue J, Schmidt SV, Sander J, Draffehn A, Krebs W, Quester I, et al. Transcriptome-based
601		network analysis reveals a spectrum model of human macrophage activation. Immunity
602		2014;40(2):274-88.
603	38.	Giotti B, Chen S-H, Barnett MW, Regan T, Ly T, Wiemann S, et al. Assembly of a Parts List of
604		the Human Mitotic Cell Cycle Machinery. bioRxiv 2018.
605	39.	McCoy KD, Le Gros G. The role of CTLA-4 in the regulation of T cell immune responses.
606		Immunology And Cell Biology 1999;77:1.
607	40.	Ladanyi A. Prognostic and predictive significance of immune cells infiltrating cutaneous
608		melanoma. Pigment Cell & Melanoma Research 2015;28(5):490-500.
609	41.	Mann GJ, Pupo GM, Campain AE, Carter CD, Schramm S-J, Pianova S, et al. BRAF Mutation,
610		NRAS Mutation, and the Absence of an Immune-Related Expressed Gene Profile Predict Poor
611		Outcome in Patients with Stage III Melanoma. Journal of Investigative Dermatology
612		2013;133(2):509-17.
613	42.	West NR, Kost SE, Martin SD, Milne K, deLeeuw RJ, Nelson BH, et al. Tumour-infiltrating
614		FOXP3+ lymphocytes are associated with cytotoxic immune responses and good clinical
615		outcome in oestrogen receptor-negative breast cancer. Br J Cancer 2013;108(1):155-62.
616	43.	Yao Y, Ye H, Qi Z, Mo L, Yue Q, Baral A, et al. B7-H4(B7x)–Mediated Cross-talk between
617		Glioma-Initiating Cells and Macrophages via the IL6/JAK/STAT3 Pathway Lead to Poor
618		Prognosis in Glioma Patients. Clinical Cancer Research 2016;22(11):2778.
619	44.	Zhang C, Li J, Wang H, Wei Song S. Identification of a five B cell-associated gene prognostic
620		and predictive signature for advanced glioma patients harboring immunosuppressive
621		subtype preference. Oncotarget 2016;7(45).
622	45.	Hiraoka K, Zenmyo M, Watari K, Iguchi H, Fotovati A, Kimura YN, et al. Inhibition of bone and
623		muscle metastases of lung cancer cells by a decrease in the number of
624		monocytes/macrophages. Cancer Science 2008;99(8):1595-602.
625	46.	Shibutani M, Maeda K, Nagahara H, Ohtani H, Sakurai K, Yamazoe S, et al. Prognostic
626		significance of the lymphocyte-to-monocyte ratio in patients with metastatic colorectal
627		cancer. World Journal of Gastroenterology : WJG 2015;21(34):9966-73.
628	47.	Melling N, Kowitz CM, Simon R, Bokemeyer C, Terracciano L, Sauter G, et al. High Ki67
629		expression is an independent good prognostic marker in colorectal cancer. Journal of Clinical
630		Pathology 2016:69(3):209-14.
631	48.	Lefrançais E. Ortiz-Muñoz G. Caudrillier A. Mallavia B. Liu F. Savah DM. et al. The lung is a site
632		of platelet biogenesis and a reservoir for haematopoietic progenitors. Nature
633		2017:544(7648):105-09
634	49	Kallinikos-Maniatis A. Megakarvocytes and Platelets in Central Venous and Arterial Blood
635	151	Acta Haematologica 1969:42(6):330-35
636	50	Network TCGA Genomic Classification of Cutaneous Melanoma, Cell 2015;161(7):1681-96
637	51	Cirenaiwis H Ekedahl H Lauss M Harbst K Carneiro A Enoksson L et al Molecular
638	51.	stratification of metastatic melanoma using gene expression profiling : Prediction of survival
639		outcome and benefit from molecular targeted therapy. Oncotarget 2015;6(14):12297-309
640	52	Shih BB Nirmal AL Headon DL Akhar AN Mabhott NA Freeman TC Derivation of marker
6 <u>4</u> 1	52.	gene signatures from human skin and their use in the interpretation of the transcriptional
642		changes associated with dermatological disorders. The lournal of Dathology 2017 p/a p/a
642	53	Hume DA The Many Alternative Faces of Macronhage Activation. Frontiers in Immunology
644	55.	2015-6-270
077		2013,0.370.

645 646	54.	Hume DA, Mabbott N, Raza S, Freeman TC. Can DCs be distinguished from macrophages by molecular signatures? Nature Immunology 2013;14:187.
647	55.	Kunicki MA, Amaya Hernandez LC, Davis KL, Bacchetta R, Roncarolo M-G. Identity and
648		Diversity of Human Peripheral Th and T Regulatory Cells Defined by Single-Cell Mass
649 650	56	Cytometry. The Journal of Immunology 2018;200(1):336-46. Rangwala S. Tsai KV. Roles of the Immune System in Skin Cancer. The British journal of
651	50.	dermatology 2011:165(5):953-65.
652	57.	Akbani R, Akdemir Kadir C, Aksoy BA, Albert M, Ally A, Amin Samirkumar B, et al. Genomic
653		Classification of Cutaneous Melanoma. Cell 2015;161(7):1681-96.
654	58.	Mignogna C, Scali E, Camastra C, Presta I, Zeppa P, Barni T, et al. Innate immunity in
655		cutaneous melanoma. Clinical and Experimental Dermatology 2017;42(3):243-50.
656	59.	Bender C, Hassel JC, Enk A. Immunotherapy of Melanoma. Oncology Research and
658	60	Treatment 2010;39(0):309-70.
659	00.	genetics : TIG 2015;31(10):576-86.
660		
661		
662		
663		
664		
665		
666		
668		
669		
670		
671		
672		
673		
674		
675		
676		
677		
678		
679		
680		

### 681 Tables

### 682 Table-1: Table of ImSig genes (Immune Signatures)

Signature	Genes
B cells	AFF3, BANK1, BLK, BTLA, CCR6, CD180, CD19, CD22, CD37, CD72, CD79A, CD79B, CR2, EBF1, FAM129C, FCRL1, FCRL2, FCRL3, FCRL5, FCRLA, HLA-DOB, IGHV5-78, KIAA0125, LINC00926, LOC100507616, LY9, MS4A1, P2RX5, PAX5, PNOC, POU2F2, S1PR4, SNX22, STAP1, TCL1A, TLR10, VPREB3
T cells	AMICA1, APBB1IP, ARHGAP15, ARHGAP25, ARHGAP9, BIN2, BTK, C1orf162, CCL19, CCR7, CD2, CD27, CD28, CD3D, CD3E, CD3G, CD48, CD52, CD6, CD8A, CD96, CORO1A, CRTAM, CXCL9, CXCR6, CYTIP, DOCK10, DOCK2, DOCK8, DPEP2, EVI2A, EVI2B, FAM26F, FLI1, FYB, FYN, GAB3, GIMAP2, GIMAP4, GIMAP5, GIMAP6, GIMAP7, GMFG, GPR171, GPR18, GZMK, HCST, HMHA1, HVCN1, ICOS, IL10RA, IL16, IL23A, IL7R, ITGAL, ITK, KLHL6, KLRB1, LCP1, LY86, NCF1B, NLRC3, PARVG, PRKCH, PSTPIP1, PTPRCAP, PVRIG, RASSF5, RCSD1, RGS18, RHOH, SASH3, SH2D1A, SIRPG, SLA, SP140, TARP, TBC1D10C, TNFRSF9, TRAC, TRAF3IP3, TRAT1, TRGC2, TRGV9, UBASH3A
Macrophages	ADAMDEC1, ADORA3, AOAH, ARRB2, ATP8B4, BCL2A1, C1orf54, C1QA, C1QB, C2, C3AR1, C5AR1, CCR1, CCRL2, CD163, CD300A, CD4, CD68, CD74, CD86, CECR1, CLEC7A, CMKLR1, CSF1R, CTSB, CTSS, CYBB, CYTH4, DPYD, EMR2, FCER1G, FCGR1A, FCGR1B, FCGR2A, FCGR3B, FPR3, GPNMB, HK3, HLA-DRB6, IFI30, IGSF6, ITGAM, ITGAX, ITGB2, LAIR1, LAPTM5, LILRB4, LIPA, LY96, MAN2B1, MFSD1, MNDA, MS4A4A, MS4A7, MSR1, MY01F, NCKAP1L, NPL, NR1H3, PLA2G7, PLEKH02, SCPEP1, SLAMF8, SLC15A3, SLC31A2, SLC02B1, SNX10, SPI1, TBXAS1, TLR8, TMEM140, TNFAIP2, TNFRSF1B, TNFSF13B, TRPV2, TYMP, TYROBP, VSIG4
Monocytes	AGTRAP, AIF1, C10orf54, CD14, CD300LF, CD33, CD93, CTSD, EMILIN2, FCN1, FES, FGR, GNS, GRN, HCK, HMOX1, KIAA0930, LILRA6, LILRB2, LILRB3, LRRC25, LST1, NFAM1, NOTCH2, PILRA, PLXDC2, PRAM1, PSAP, PYCARD, RHOG, SERPINA1, SLC7A7, TGFBI, THEMIS2, TIMP2, TPP1, VCAN
Neutrophils	ACSL1, ALPK1, AQP9, BASP1, BCL6, CD97, CEP19, CFLAR, CSF3R, CXCR2, DENND5A, DYSF, FAM65B, FCGR2C, FPR1, GLT1D1, GPR97, IFITM2, IL17RA, KCNJ2, KIAA0247, LILRA2, LIMK2, LINC01002, MGAM, MOB3A, NAMPT, NCF4, PADI2, PHC2, PHF21A, PLXNC1, PREX1, RALB, RNF149, S100A8, S100A9, SLC25A37, SNORD89, SSH2, STAT3, STAT5B, THBD, TLR2, TLR4, TMEM154, TNFRSF1A
NK cells	KIR2DL1, KIR2DL2, KIR2DL3, KIR2DL4, KIR2DL5A, KIR2DS1, KIR2DS2, KIR2DS3, KIR2DS5, KIR3DL1, KIR3DL2, KIR3DL3, KLRC2, KLRC3, KLRC4, KLRD1, PRF1, SAMD3, SH2D1B, TBX21
Plasma cells	GUSBP11, IGH, IGHG3, IGJ, IGKC, IGKV1D-13, IGLC1, IGLJ3, IGLL3P, IGLV@, IGLV1-44, MZB1, TNFRSF17, TXNDC5

#### 690 Table-2: Table of ImSig genes (Pathways Signatures)

	APOL1, APOL6, BATF2, BST2, C19orf66, C5orf56, CMPK2, DDX58, DDX60, DHX58,
	IFI44, IFI44L, IFI6, IFIH1, IFIT1, IFIT2, IFIT3, IFIT5, IFITM1, IRF7, IRF9, ISG15, LAMP3,
Interferon	LAP3, MX1, MX2, OAS2, OAS3, OASL, PARP10, PARP12, PARP14, PARP9, PHF11,
	PML, PSMB9, RNF213, RSAD2, RTP4, SAMD9, SAMD9L, SHISA5, SIGLEC1, SP110,
	STAT1, STAT2, TAP1, TRAFD1, TRIM21, TRIM22, TRIM5, UBE2L6, USP18, XAF1,
	ZNFX1
	ANLN, ASPM, AURKA, AURKB, BIRC5, BUB1, BUB1B, CASC5, CCNA2, CCNB1, CCNB2,
	CCNE2, CDC20, CDC6, CDCA2, CDCA3, CDCA5, CDCA7, CDCA8, CDK1, CDKN3, CDT1,
Proliferation	CENPA, CENPE, CENPF, CENPL, CEP55, CKS1B, DEPDC1, DEPDC1B, DLGAP5,
	DONSON, DTL, E2F8, ECT2, EZH2, FAM72C, FANCI, FBX05, FOXM1, GINS1, GINS2,
	GMNN, HJURP, HMGB3, HMMR, KIAA0101, KIF11, KIF14, KIF15, KIF18B, KIF20A,
	KIF2C, KIF4A, MAD2L1, MCM10, MCM2, MCM4, MCM6, MELK, MKI67, MND1,
	MIFR2, NCAPG, NCAPG2, NDC80, NEK2, NUF2, NUSAP1, OIP5, PARPBP, PBK, PCNA,
	PLK4, POLE2, POLQ, PTIG1, RACGAP1, RAD51, RAD51AP1, RRM1, RRM2, SHCBP1,
	SKA1, SMC2, SPC25, STIL, STMN1, TCF19, TK1, TOP2A, TPX2, TRIP13, TTK, TYMS,
	UBE2C, UHRF1, ZWILCH, ZWINT
	EEF1A1, EEF1B2, EEF1D, EEF1G, EIF3D, EIF3E, EIF3F, EIF3G, EIF3H, EIF3K, FAU,
	GNB2L1, NACA, PFDN5, RPL10, RPL10L, RPL11, RPL12, RPL13, RPL13A, RPL14,
	RPL15, RPL17, RPL18, RPL18A, RPL19, RPL21, RPL22, RPL23, RPL23A, RPL24, RPL27,
Translation	RPL27A, RPL28, RPL29, RPL3, RPL30, RPL31, RPL32, RPL34, RPL35, RPL35A, RPL36A,
Tansiation	RPL37, RPL37A, RPL38, RPL39, RPL4, RPL5, RPL6, RPL7, RPL7A, RPL8, RPL9, RPLP0,
	RPLP2, RPS10, RPS11, RPS13, RPS14, RPS15, RPS15A, RPS16, RPS17, RPS18, RPS19,
	RPS2, RPS20, RPS21, RPS23, RPS25, RPS27A, RPS28, RPS29, RPS3, RPS3A, RPS5,
	RPS6, RPS7, RPS8, RPS9, RPSA, SNHG6, SNHG8, SNRPD2, UXT

691

692 Table-3: Identification of immune cells within single-cell data. *ImSig* was used in conjunction with 693 the SVM based classifier Cibersort, to identify immune cells within the head and neck tumour 694 (HNSCC) single-cell data. The table shows the accuracy of identification. 63 immune cells were 695 unassigned as its p-value was greater than 0.05.

Cells	Correct	Wrong	Accuracy	Error
	prediction	prediction	(%)	(%)
B cells	122	16	88.4	11.6
Macrophages	84	1	98.8	1.2
T cells	1185	2	99.8	0.2
Other cells (4087 cells)		93		2.3

696

#### 697 Figure Legends

Figure 1: Derivation of *ImSig*. (A) An illustrative example of a correlation network generated from a tissue dataset where nodes represent unique genes and edges represent correlations between them above a defined threshold. Groups of nodes sharing the same colour represent gene modules (obtained by MCL clustering), those highlighted being associated with a given immune cell type or biological process. (B) Example plots from the approach used to refine the gene signatures. Blue points represent genes that were kept, i.e. they were highly correlated with other genes in the preliminary signature and red represents genes that were discarded. This approach was applied to eight tissue datasets (only 2 shown here), the most robustly coexpressed genes across the datasets being used to define *ImSig*. **(C)** Bar plot depicting the number of genes within each marker gene signature comprising *ImSig* and the top GO enrichment term for each signature.

708 Figure 2: Comparison of ImSig with other published signatures. (A) Chord diagram showing the 709 overlap between marker genes across studies. In most studies, a significant proportion of genes 710 were unique to the signatures defined by them, while ImSig showed the best overlap (81%) with 711 other studies. (B) Network diagram showing the relationship between T cell subtype-specific genes 712 among six studies and ImSig. Only genes that were present in two or more studies are represented 713 (98 genes i.e. 13.4%) for this plot. Nodes are sized relative to the number of shared genes between 714 one signature and others. ImSig was found to be inclusive of genes describing various subtypes and was the most conserved set among all studies compared. (C) Heatmap of the median correlation 715 716 between genes from published signatures as assessed in the context of the trachoma dataset 717 (GSE20436). Where a cell type signature was split into subsets, subset signatures were combined to 718 represent the parent population. The median correlation values of signatures without combining 719 them into parent population is also available (Supplementary Table S4). (D) Bar plots of the average 720 expression of signature genes (estimated relative abundance) across the dataset, each bar 721 representing the average expression of signature genes in an individual patient sample. Samples are 722 ordered according to T cell content, low-high, (left-right) and this order is maintained for other plots.

Figure 3: Coexpression of other immune genes with *ImSig* core signatures. (A) Correlation network of genes associated with the immune clusters during trachomatis infection. *ImSig* genes are coloured according to the different immune cell types they represent, while the genes co-clustering with the *ImSig* immune genes are shown as nodes without colour and reduced in size. Highlighted with a greater node size and label are a few well known immune modulatory genes present in the immediate vicinity of the signature genes. (B) Bar plots of the average expression intensity of a few well known immune modulatory genes across the three patient groups.

Figure 4: Application of *ImSig* to tumour data. (A) Prognostic map of 12 cancer types based on immune cell content. The average expression of each *ImSig* signature was calculated for each sample/tumour type. Samples were then ordered according to each signature (low-high, black plot in each square) and the hazard ratio calculated between the lowest and highest expressing samples. Blue represents a good prognosis with increased expression of the signature genes and red a poor prognosis. \* = a HR P-value < 0.05. BCLA-Bladder Urothelial Carcinoma, BRCA-Breast invasive 736 carcinoma, COAD-Colon adenocarcinoma, HNSC-Head and Neck squamous cell carcinoma, KIRC-737 Kidney renal clear cell carcinoma, LGG-Brain Lower Grade Glioma, LUAD-Lung adenocarcinoma, LUSC-Lung squamous cell carcinoma, PRAD-Prostate adenocarcinoma, SKCM-Skin Cutaneous 738 739 Melanoma, THCA-Thyroid carcinoma, UCEC-Uterine Corpus Endometrial Carcinoma. (B) Sample-740 sample correlation plot based on expression of ImSig genes in melanoma patients and clustered 741 using MCL algorithm. Here every node is a patient and the edges correspond to the correlation 742 between them. (C) Expression profile of ImSig related genes within the various clusters/grouping as 743 defined in B. Here the y-axis is the average expression of the signature genes and x-axis are the 744 patient groupings as shown in B. (D) Univariate Cox proportional analysis between the patient 745 groups as defined in B.

746 Figure 5: Validation of ImSig using single-cell RNA-seq data from melanoma samples. (A) The 747 immune component of the melanoma single-cell data displayed as a correlation network, each node 748 representing a cell from melanoma. Box plots display the average expression of cell type-specific 749 ImSig genes in their respective cell types compared to the average expression of other ImSig genes. 750 Process-specific ImSig signature genes (proliferation, interferon and translation) were omitted in this 751 analysis. (B) Linear regression plots showing the concordance between the estimated and measured 752 abundance of immune cells in ten patients. For five patients (P1, P3, P5, P7, P9), the regression line 753 was also calculated using a random set of genes to highlight the specificity of ImSig genes. (C) 754 Stacked bar plots showing the concordance between measured and estimated proportions of 755 immune cells.



# Figure 2





Figure 4



Figure 5 **A** 

