Identification and validation of a novel clinical signature to predict the prognosis in confirmed COVID-19 patients

Shangrong Wu^{1*}, Zhiguo Du^{1*}, Sanying Shen², Bo Zhang², Hong Yang³, Xia Li⁴, Wei Cui⁴, Fangxiong Chen^{1#}, Jin Huang^{1#}

 Department of Clinical Laboratory, Wuhan Fourth Hospital, Puai Hospital, Tongji Medical College, Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan 430030, China
Department of Respiratory Disease, Wuhan Fourth Hospital, Puai Hospital, Tongji Medical College, Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan 430030, China
Department of Emergency Medicine, Wuhan Fourth Hospital, Puai Hospital, Tongji Medical College, Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan 430030, China
Department of Emergency Medicine, Wuhan Fourth Hospital, Puai Hospital, Tongji Medical College, Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan 430030, China
Department of Radiology, Wuhan Fourth Hospital, Puai Hospital, Tongji Medical College, Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan 430030, China

* These authors contributed equally to this study

[#] These authors contributed equally to this study

Corresponding Author:

Fangxiong Cheng and Jin Huang.

Department of Clinical Laboratory, Wuhan Fourth Hospital, Puai Hospital, Tongji Medical College, Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan 430030, China. Email: <u>495818821@qq.com; huangjintjmu@163.com;</u>

Summary

Accel

The signature composed of the five indicators (neutrophil count, lymphocyte count, procalcitonin, older age, and C-reactive protein) was an effective prognostic biomarker, which could provide risk assessment and predict the survival probability of patients with coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19).

Abstract

Background: This study aims to identify a prognostic biomarker to predict the disease prognosis and reduce the mortality rate of COVID-19, which has caused a worldwide pandemic.

Methods: COVID-19 patients were randomly divided into training and test groups. Univariate and multivariate Cox regression analyses were performed to identify the disease prognosis signature, which was selected to establish a risk model in the training group. Furthermore, the disease prognosis signature of COVID-19 was validated in the test group.

Results: The signature of COVID-19 was combined with five indicators, namely neutrophil count, lymphocyte count, procalcitonin, older age, and C-reactive protein. The signature stratified patients into high- and low-risk groups with significantly relevant disease prognosis (log-rank test, P<0.001) in the training group. The survival analysis indicated that the high-risk group displayed substantially lower survival probability than the low-risk group (log-rank test P<0.001). The area under ROC curve (AUC) showed that the signature of COVID-19 displayed the highest predictive accuracy regarding disease prognosis, which was 0.955 in the training group and 0.945 in the test group. The ROC analysis of both groups demonstrated that the predictive ability of the signature surpassed the use of each of the five indicators alone.

Conclusion: The signature of COVID-19 presents a novel predictor and prognostic biomarker for closely monitoring patients and providing timely treatment for those who are severely or critically ill.

, prediction

Introduction

A type of pneumonia with an unknown etiology, termed coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), caused a rapidly spreading outbreak induced by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2)[1-2], and was declared a public health emergency of international concern on January 30, 2020, by the World Health Organization (WHO).

China has enforced the most drastic of all classic public health measures to bring the epidemic under control, but the situation in other countries is not optimistic. Since late February 2020, new cases have been reported daily in other parts of the world. By March 25, 2020, the cumulative number of confirmed cases abroad passed the 340000 mark, with more than 15000 deaths, which far exceeded the cases in China. In addition to taking strict preventative measures against the epidemic to curb rapid large-scale outbreaks, the timely treatment of severely or critically ill patients play a significant role in reducing COVID-19 fatalities.

Previous studies on the emergence of this novel coronavirus and its clinical features suggested that older age, male gender, underlying comorbidities, elevated d-dimer at admission, and progressive radiographic deterioration on follow-up CT might be risk factors for patients infected with SARS-CoV-2[3-4]. Until now, no antiviral treatment or vaccine has proven effective against the coronavirus infection. Infected patients classified as being severely or critically ill may develop multiple organ malfunctions, including acute respiratory distress syndrome and acute cardiac injury[5-7], emphasizing an urgent need to establish a

predictive model for monitoring a patient's risk of developing critical disease symptoms and reducing the mortality rate.

This study identifies a significant, independent COVID-19 signature in patients via multivariate Cox regression, which may serve as a foundation for accurate individual diagnosis and treatment of severely or critically ill patients.

Materials and methods

Study design and Patient characteristics

This research represented a single-center retrospective study performed from January 27, 2020, to February 26, 2020, by Wuhan Fourth Hospital. Here, 270 patients infected with laboratory-identified SARS-CoV-2 were classified into two groups, namely moderately ill and severely or critically ill, according to the Guidance for Corona Virus Disease 2019 (6th edition)[8], as announced by the National Health Commission of China. The definitions of moderately ill, severely ill, and critically ill are shown in Table S1.

The research team consisted of experienced respiratory physicians, radiologists, and laboratory physicians. Missing data or data requiring clarification via the available records were obtained through direct communication with the attending physician and other healthcare providers. Finally, the patients were randomly divided into training and test groups.

The patient characteristics were obtained from electronic medical records and included clinical features, signs and symptoms, comorbidities, imaging features of the chest,

laboratory findings, treatments, and antiviral or anti-inflammatory drugs. This information was documented on a standardized record form.

Laboratory measurements

Real-time Reverse Transcription-Polymerase Chain Reaction Assay (RT-PCR) for SARS-CoV-2

Throat swab samples were collected from the patients suspected of being infected with COVID-19 for the extraction of SARS-CoV-2 RNA. Then, the respiratory samples were transferred into a collection tube containing 2 ml cell lysates, and vortexed for 30 s. The RNA was extracted from the samples using the appropriate kit (Liferiver, Shanghai, China). After 30 min of inactivation at 56°C, the respiratory samples were left to stand for 10 min, after which 200 ul of the inactivated samples were used for nucleic acid extraction and the detection of SARS-CoV-2. Three target genes, namely ORFlab, N, and E, were simultaneously amplified and tested during the real-time RT-PCR assay, which was performed using a novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) Real-Time Multiplex RT-PCR Kit (Liferiver, Shanghai, China) according to the protocol of the manufacturer.

Clinical laboratory measurement

The clinical laboratory investigation included a complete blood count and biochemical serum tests (including liver and kidney function), as well as the determination of the coagulation mechanism and myocardial enzyme spectrum.

The construction of the risk signature in the training group

A previously reported method was adopted for the construction of the signature module[9-11]. First, a univariate Cox regression analysis was used to determine which indicators were associated with disease prognosis, after which 25 significantly correlated indicators were identified (P-value<0.05). Furthermore, a multivariate Cox regression analysis was employed to construct a model consisting of five indicators (neutrophil count, lymphocyte count, procalcitonin, age, and C-reactive protein) to assess the risk of prognosis (P-value <0.05, Concordance Index:0.93 and AIC_{lowest}) and screen for the most powerful determiners. This process allowed for the construction of a model capable of assessing the risk factors of prognosis according to the following equation:

$$\operatorname{Risk}\operatorname{Score}(\operatorname{RS}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} ID_i * Coef_i$$

Where *N* is the representative number of samples in the model, ID_i is the value of each indicator in the respective samples, and $Coef_i$ is a single factor of the Cox regression coefficient. *Risk Score (RS)* represents the multi-node weighted sum of the risk scores. The median value was considered the cutoff, with values exceeding this mark regarded as high-risk, and those below the cutoff as low-risk.

Statistical analysis

The signature of COVID-19 selected above was used to construct a risk model, employing the median risk score as the cutoff value to divide the training and test patients into either high-risk or low-risk groups. Then, the predictive value of the signature in the test dataset was validated using survival analysis, as well as ROC analysis. All assessments were performed using the R project (<u>https://cloud.r-project.org/</u>) (version 3.5.1) with the pROC and disease prognosis packages downloaded from Bioconductor (<u>https://bioconductor.org</u>).

JSCK

Results

Patient characteristics

A total of 270 patients with confirmed COVID-19 participated in this study, of which 203 (75.2%) were moderately ill, and 67 (34.8%) were severely ill. As shown in Table 1, the median age was 62 (IQR, 50-69), while 139 (51.5%) of the patients were male. In this study, the median duration from hospital admission to the eventual result was 9 d (IQR 6-13) for all the patients. Most of the patients (248; 91.9%) exhibited a bilateral distribution of patchy shadows or ground-glass opacity, a trend that was the same for the moderately ill patients (187; 92.1%), as well as those who were severely or critically ill (61; 91%). Furthermore, 139 (51.5%) patients exhibited fundamental diseases, such as hypertension (81; 30%) and diabetes (35; 13.0%), which were the most common comorbidities in both groups. According to the results, fever (202; 74.8%), cough (181; 67%), and fatigue (116; 43%) signified the main symptoms commonly exhibited by the patients. The most common treatment of pneumonia involved antiviral or anti-inflammatory drugs. The laboratory results listed in Table 2 indicates that the neutrophil count ($\geq 6.3 \times 10^9$ /L, 37.3%), neutrophil-lymphocyte

ratio (\geq 3.3, 76.1%), C-reactive protein (\geq 10 mg/L, 87.9%), procalcitonin (\geq 0.05 ng/mL, 81.7%), lactate dehydrogenase (\geq 250 U/L, 83.8%), and d-dimer (\geq 1 mg/L, 55.8%) were higher in the severely or critically ill groups than in the moderately ill patients, while the lymphocyte count (<0.6 × 10⁹ /L, 34.3%) and albumin (<34 g/L, 64.2%) were lower.

Construction of the prognostic signature in the training group

The selected technical route of the prognostic signature of COVID-19 is displayed in Figure 1. The training group (n = 210) was used to explore the association between disease prognosis and the occurrence of the indicators. Univariate Cox regression analysis of the indicator data was initially performed, with the survival time and overall status as the dependent variables. Here, 25 indicators were identified that significantly correlated with the disease prognosis in the patients (P-value <0.05, Figure 2, Table S2). Furthermore, a multivariate Cox regression analysis (Figure 3) was employed to construct a model consisting of five indicators (neutrophil count, lymphocyte count, procalcitonin, age, and C-reactive protein) to assess the risk of the prognosis and screen for the most powerful prognostic determiners. The risk scores (Table S3) of the combination of these five indicators were determined as follows:

$$RS = (1.18 \times ID_{neutrophil count}) + (-0.76 \times ID_{lymphocyte count}) + (2.39 \times ID_{procalcitonin}) + (0.04 \times ID_{age}) + (1.54 \times ID_{C-reactive protein})$$

where *RS* is the risk score, and *ID* is the indicator value.

Determination of the disease prognosis power of the signature of COVID-19 in the training and test dataset.

The analysis represented the risk score of the selected signature of COVID-19 for each patient. A median risk score was used to divide the training group into a low-risk group (n = 104) and a high-risk group (n =106). The results of the survival analysis revealed that the high-risk group demonstrated significantly lower survival rates than the low-risk group (log-rank test P<0.001; Figure 4A). As the duration after disease diagnosis increased, the survival probability of the high-risk group was 0.59, while the low-risk group was not faced with life-threatening risk. The same disease prognosis risk score model was used to calculate the signature-based risk scores of the test group patients, validating the prediction power of the signature. Similarly, the test data set was divided into two groups, namely a high-risk group (n=12) and a low-risk group (n=48). The two risk groups in the test dataset were displayed using survival analysis (Figure 4B). The median survival rate of the high-risk group in the test was significantly lower than in the low-risk group (log-rank test P<0.001). The results indicated that when the disease progressed for 14 days, the survival probability of the high-risk group (survival probability =0.85).

The disease prognosis prediction power of the signature of COVID-19 in the training and test groups

ROC analysis was performed to test the prediction power of the signature of COVID-19, which considered the larger AUC as a better model for predicting the disease prognosis in COVID-19 patients. In the training group, the predictive ability of the five-indicator signature was high (AUC _{Signature}=0.955, Figure. 4C), further demonstrating that the signature in this

study was a novel and highly accurate survival biomarker. A similar, highly accurate result was evident in the test group as well (AUC _{Signature}=0.945, Figure 4D).

Discussion

COVID-19 is a highly infectious disease characterized by a long incubation period, and rapid onset, with no specific treatment method currently available. It is crucial to find a signature that is associated with the survival and prognosis of COVID-19 patients. This study examined the epidemiological, clinical, and laboratory features of moderately and severely or critically ill patients infected with COVID-19 and treated in the Wuhan Fourth Hospital. Based on the retrospective examination, both a univariate Cox regression analysis and a multivariate Cox regression analysis were performed to develop a novel signature of COVID-19 for the evaluation of the disease prognosis. The results of the ROC curve indicated that the signature was a highly accurate disease prognosis biomarker. Therefore, the risk model based on the signature combined with the five indicators can be used to predict the disease prognosis and the survival rate, which is not only considerably useful in providing severely or critically ill patients with timeous treatment but also provides favorable conditions for clinicians to identify the status of patients in time.

Researchers have recently begun exploring clinical predictive models and stratifying the risk of the disease to uncover better indicators for prognosis prediction while helping doctors to identify patients in need of immediate clinical intervention. Dong Ji et al. have demonstrated that underlying comorbidity, older age, elevated LDH, and lymphopenia were high-risk factors for the contraction of COVID-19[12]. Furthermore, a recent study found that cardiac troponin I(≥ 0.05 ng/mL) is also an important predictor for the prognosis of COVID-19[13]. Here, multivariable Cox regression analysis was used to assess the independence of the

signature with an AUC of 0.955 in the training group and 0.945 in the test group, indicating its potential as a powerful survival biomarker. The signature combined with the five indicators (neutrophil count, lymphocyte count, procalcitonin, age, and C-reactive protein) was strongly associated with the physiological status of COVID-19 patients, such as inflammation and immune function. Therefore, the signature could be a more effective biomarker in a multi-dimensional model.

SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV both caused a series of diseases ranging from asymptomatic cases to severe acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) and respiratory failure[14], as did SARS-CoV-2. The main pathogenesis of respiratory infection caused by SARS-CoV-2 is severe pneumonia and acute heart injury[5].

Complement-mediated systemic inflammation may be an underlying mechanism for the pathogenic response to the SARS infection. Previous research found that complement-deficient mice displayed reduced pulmonary neutrophils and an attenuated pro-inflammatory response[15]. Neutrophils infiltrate the tissues infected with coronavirus, promoting the expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines and chemokines, which might induce extensive lung damage in SARS, MERS-CoV, and SARS-CoV-2 infection[5, 16-17]. Furthermore, studies have revealed that a high neutrophil count in patients with SARS when admitted to the hospital, is more likely to present a poor prognosis[18-19]. A recent study found that patients with refractory COVID-19 exhibited higher neutrophil levels on admission[20], corroborating the findings of this study. This result may be closely related to the inflammation caused by neutrophils, which leads to tissue damage.

Both C-reactive protein and procalcitonin can reflect the inflammatory state of the body. Procalcitonin shows a certain correlation with microbial invasion and is one of the most promising biomarkers for the diagnosis of sepsis[21]. C-reactive protein can be induced by inflammation, playing a crucial role in activating the complement system and neutrophils, while promoting the secretion of IL-6, IL-1b, and TNF- α , which contribute to further inflammation[22]. Severely or critically ill patients with COVID-19 may develop sepsis, which is a significant contributor to the mortality rate. C-reactive protein and procalcitonin are reportedly helpful in the diagnosis of sepsis[23], while serum procalcitonin levels appear to correlate with the severity of the microbial attack. Elevated C-reactive protein and procalcitonin levels are more common in COVID-19 patients with heart injury, placing them at a higher risk of hospital death[24]. Moreover, high levels of C-reactive protein and procalcitonin exhibit a significant correlation with pulmonary inflammation[25] and are reportedly associated with patients who are severely ill with COVID-19[26]. In a recent retrospective study involving COVID-19, the C-reactive protein and procalcitonin levels were higher in deceased patients [3, 27], which corresponds with the results of this study. The indicators of the prognostic factors help to identify the severity of the COVID-19 disease while showing that secondary bacterial infections cannot be ignored.

A high lymphocyte count is considered a protective factor for COVID-19 since severe lymphopenia was predictive of poor outcomes[28]. T-cells play a critical role in inhibiting the overactive innate immune response while maintaining immune homeostasis during SARS-CoV infection. T-cells can reportedly recognize and clear infected cells in the lungs and prevent re-infection[29-30]. A previous study indicated that the lymphocyte count is crucial during the early screening, diagnosis, and treatment of critically ill COVID-19 patients[31]. This study found that serious lymphopenia was more common in severely ill patients, indicating that SARS-CoV-2 might affect lymphocytes, while cell-mediated immunity might be associated with disease severity. Research indicated that the depletion of T-cells resulted in immune dysregulation, accompanied by increased inflammation, cytokine storms, and the aggravation of damaged tissue[31], which was consistent with the supposition of this study.

Older age has always been a risk factor for a series of diseases, and this research was no exception. Previous reports indicated that the median age of patients at the time of death was older for SARS-CoV-2 infection[32-33]. As suggested in recent studies on a similar topic[3, 34], this study showed that the median age of severely or critically ill patients was older than that of moderately ill patients. Therefore, it seems that the elderly may have a high likelihood of developing chronic underlying comorbidities (diabetes, hypertension, and heart disease) and are more susceptible to COVID-19 with a poor outcome[6], which could be attributed to the elderly often being physically fragile with weak immune systems. Therefore, people belonging to this age group would experience immune senescence[35], accompanied by decreased immune defense functionality, a weakened ability for the proliferation and differentiation of T- and B-cells in the lymph nodes, reduced effector functionality, as well as poor coordination between innate immunity and acquired immune response, contributing to increased morbidity and mortality[36]. These results indicated that disease prognosis in the elderly requires careful attention and timeous treatment.

The risk score of the selected signature of COVID-19 was calculated to further verify its ability as a prognostic biomarker in patients infected with the disease. The training group was divided into low-risk and high-risk groups according to the median risk score. The results showed that the high-risk group displayed a significantly lower survival rate than the low-risk group. Therefore, the risk model based on the signature combined with the five indicators could be used to predict the disease prognosis and the survival rate, fully utilizing medical resources to provide critically ill patients with better treatment and reducing the mortality rate of COVID-19.

This study exhibited several limitations. First, since this was a retrospective, single-center sample study, potential biomarkers such as underlying diseases, which could predict prognosis of COVID-19, were not included in the model. Therefore, a multi-center large sample study would be preferable for assessing the prognostic markers of COVID-19. Second, although a retrospective study of moderately and severely or critically ill patients was performed to establish the signature combined with the clinical indicators, the laboratory data regarding cardiac troponin I, oxygen partial pressure, and the characteristics regarding BMI were not available. Therefore, these elements were not included in the risk factor analysis due to the severity of the epidemic at that specific time and the shortage of medical resources. Third, notwithstanding these limitations, the consistent correlation of the signature with the overall survival rate in this study indicates that it is a dominant independent signature of COVID-19.

Conclusion

The signature of COVID-19 is an effective prognostic biomarker that can be used during the risk assessment of patients infected with the disease. It allows for close monitoring to provide timely treatment for severely or critically ill patients.

Acknowledgment

We thank the all medical staffs and patients involved in the study.

Authorship

The authors contributed in the following ways: Hong Yang, Xia Li, Wei Cui: data collection, data analysis; Jin Huang, Fangxiong Chen: study design, study supervision; Sanying Shen, Bo Zhang: data collection, final approval of the manuscript; Shangrong Wu, Zhiguo Du: drafting, technical support and critical revision of the manuscript. All the authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Funding

This work was supported by the Applied basic research project of Wuhan Science and Technology Bureau (2019020701011472), Health commission of Hubei Province scientific research project (WJ2019H391), Health commission of Wuhan scientific research project (WX19Q44) and the Scientific Research Subject of the Health and Family Planning Commission of Wuhan Municipality (WX16B14).

Declaration of interests

We declare no competing interests.

References:

- Paules CI, Marston HD, Fauci AS. Coronavirus Infections-More Than Just the Common Cold. JAMA 2020.
- Hui DS, I AE, Madani TA, et al. The continuing 2019-nCoV epidemic threat of novel coronaviruses to global health - The latest 2019 novel coronavirus outbreak in Wuhan, China. Int J Infect Dis 2020; 91: 264-6.
- 3. Zhou F, Yu T, Du R, et al. Clinical course and risk factors for mortality of adult inpatients with COVID-19 in Wuhan, China: a retrospective cohort study. Lancet **2020**.
- 4. Shi H, Han X, Jiang N, et al. Radiological findings from 81 patients with COVID-19 pneumonia in Wuhan, China: a descriptive study. Lancet Infect Dis **2020**.
- 5. Huang C, Wang Y, Li X, et al. Clinical features of patients infected with 2019 novel coronavirus in Wuhan, China. Lancet **2020**; 395(10223): 497-506.
- N C, M Z, X D, et al. Epidemiological and clinical characteristics of 99 cases of 2019 novel coronavirus pneumonia in Wuhan, China: a descriptive study. Lancet (London, England) (Lancet) 2020; 395(10223): 507-13.
- 7. D W, B H, C H, et al. Clinical Characteristics of 138 Hospitalized Patients With 2019 Novel Coronavirus-Infected Pneumonia in Wuhan, China. JAMA (JAMA) **2020**.
- National Health Committee of the People's Republic of China. Diagnosis and Treatment of New Coronavir us Pneumonia (Trial Version 6). 'Available at:' http://www.nhc.gov.cn/yzygj/s7653p/202002/8334a8326dd 94d329df351d7da8aefc2.shtml.
- 9. Hu S, Yin X, Zhang G, Meng F. Identification of DNA methylation signature to predict prognosis in gastric adenocarcinoma. J Cell Biochem **2019**.
- 10. T Y, JL D, C Y, P L, Q G. The lncRNAs RP1-261G23.7, RP11-69E11.4 and SATB2-AS1 are a novel clinical signature for predicting recurrent osteosarcoma. Bioscience reports (Biosci. Rep.) **2020**; 40(1).
- 11. JC G, Y W, Y C, et al. Protein-coding genes combined with long noncoding RNA as a novel transcriptome molecular staging model to predict the survival of patients with esophageal squamous cell carcinoma. Cancer communications (London, England) (Cancer Commun (Lond)) **2018**; 38(1): 4.
- 12. Ji D, Zhang D, Xu J, et al. Prediction for Progression Risk in Patients with COVID-19 Pneumonia: the CALL Score. Clin Infect Dis **2020**.
- 13. Du RH, LR L, CQ Y, et al. Predictors of Mortality for Patients with COVID-19 Pneumonia Caused by SARS-CoV-2: A Prospective Cohort Study. The European respiratory journal (Eur. Respir. J.) **2020**.

- 14. DS H, ZA M, A Z. Severe acute respiratory syndrome vs. the Middle East respiratory syndrome. Current opinion in pulmonary medicine (Curr Opin Pulm Med) **2014**; 20(3): 233-41.
- 15. LE G, TP S, TE M, et al. Complement Activation Contributes to Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus Pathogenesis. mBio (mBio) **2018**; 9(5).
- 16. CK W, CW L, AK W, et al. Plasma inflammatory cytokines and chemokines in severe acute respiratory syndrome. Clinical and experimental immunology (Clin. Exp. Immunol.) **2004**; 136(1): 95-103.
- 17. WH M, OF K, Q Z, HM M, BA S. MERS-CoV infection in humans is associated with a pro-inflammatory Th1 and Th17 cytokine profile. Cytokine (Cytokine) **2018**; 104: 8-13.
- N L, D H, A W, et al. A major outbreak of severe acute respiratory syndrome in Hong Kong. The New England journal of medicine (N. Engl. J. Med.) 2003; 348(20): 1986-94.
- 19. S M, KR W, JA R. Severe acute respiratory distress syndrome (SARS): a critical care perspective. Critical care medicine (Crit. Care Med.) **2003**; 31(11): 2684-92.
- P M, Y X, Y X, et al. Clinical characteristics of refractory COVID-19 pneumonia in Wuhan, China. Clinical infectious diseases : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America (Clin. Infect. Dis.) 2020.
- 21. C W, A P, FM B, P S. Procalcitonin as a diagnostic marker for sepsis: a systematic review and metaanalysis. The Lancet. Infectious diseases (Lancet Infect Dis) **2013**; 13(5): 426-35.
- 22. Du Clos TW, Mold C. C-reactive protein: an activator of innate immunity and a modulator of adaptive immunity. Immunol Res **2004**; 30(3): 261-77.
- 23. Y W, MA M, L B, et al. Effect of procalcitonin-guided antibiotic treatment on clinical outcomes in intensive care unit patients with infection and sepsis patients: a patient-level meta-analysis of randomized trials. Critical care (London, England) (Crit Care) **2018**; 22(1): 191.
- 24. S S, M Q, B S, et al. Association of Cardiac Injury With Mortality in Hospitalized Patients With COVID-19 in Wuhan, China. JAMA cardiology (JAMA Cardiol) **2020**.
- 25. J W, X W, W Z, et al. Chest CT Findings in Patients With Coronavirus Disease 2019 and Its Relationship With Clinical Features. Investigative radiology (Invest Radiol) **2020**; 55(5): 257-61.
- 26. JJ Z, X D, YY C, et al. Clinical characteristics of 140 patients infected with SARS-CoV-2 in Wuhan, China. Allergy (Allergy) **2020**.
- 27. T C, D W, H C, et al. Clinical characteristics of 113 deceased patients with coronavirus disease 2019: retrospective study. BMJ (Clinical research ed.) (BMJ) **2020**; 368: m1091.
- 28. L W, W H, X Y, et al. Coronavirus Disease 2019 in elderly patients: characteristics and prognostic factors based on 4-week follow-up. The Journal of infection (J. Infect.) **2020**.
- 29. Janice OH, Ken-En GS, Bertoletti A, Tan YJ. Understanding the T cell immune response in SARS coronavirus infection. Emerg Microbes Infect **2012**; 1(9): e23.
- J C, YF L, EW L, et al. Cellular immune responses to severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus (SARS-CoV) infection in senescent BALB/c mice: CD4+ T cells are important in control of SARS-CoV infection. Journal of virology (J. Virol.) 2010; 84(3): 1289-301.
- C Q, L Z, Z H, et al. Dysregulation of immune response in patients with COVID-19 in Wuhan, China. Clinical infectious diseases : an official publication of the Infectious Diseases Society of America (Clin. Infect. Dis.) 2020.

- 32. Wang W, Tang J, Wei F. Updated understanding of the outbreak of 2019 novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) in Wuhan, China. J Med Virol **2020**; 92(4): 441-7.
- 33. L W, W H, X Y, et al. Coronavirus Disease 2019 in elderly patients: characteristics and prognostic factors based on 4-week follow-up. The Journal of infection (J. Infect.) **2020**.
- 34. WJ G, ZY N, Y H, et al. Clinical Characteristics of Coronavirus Disease 2019 in China. The New England journal of medicine (N. Engl. J. Med.) **2020**.
- 35. J N. The twilight of immunity: emerging concepts in aging of the immune system. Nature immunology (Nat. Immunol.) **2018**; 19(1): 10-9.
- 36. J N, KS K, CT R, B N, D B, MJ F. SARS-CoV-2 and COVID-19 in older adults: what we may expect regarding pathogenesis, immune responses, and outcomes. GeroScience (Geroscience) **2020**.

Accepted Manuschi

Figure legends

Figure 1 The flow diagram of the study.

Figure 2 Identification of the signature in the training group.

Univariate Cox regression analysis of the indicator expression profiling data in the training group, which is used to predict the power of the prognostic signature of COVID-19 in the training group.

Figure 3 Identity of the disease prognosis signature of COVID-19.

Multivariate cox regression analysis of the signature associated with disease prognosis.

Figure 4 The signature of COVID-19 predicts the disease prognosis in the training and test group.

(A-B). Patients were classified into high- and low-risk groups through disease prognosis curves on the basis of the signature in the sample datasets. P-values were determined through the log-rank test. (C-D). Results of receiver operating characteristic (ROC) analysis.

	Total (n=270)	Moderate (n=203)	Severe or critical (n=67)
Characteristics			
Age, years	62(50-69)	61(50-68)	66(54-73)
Sex			
Male	139(51.5%)	86(42.4%)	45(67.2%)
Female	131(48.5%)	117(57.6%)	22(32.8%)
Time from onset of symptom to hospital admission	10(7-15)	10(7-15)	7(6-10)
Time from hospital admission to outcome	9(6-13)	8(7-13)	10(5-18)
Smoking history	14(5.2%)	7(3.4%)	7(10.4%)
Drinking history	14(5.2%)	6(3%)	8(11.9%)
Respiratory rate, breaths per minute	20(20-22)	20(19-22)	22(20-25)
\geq 24 breaths per min	37(13.7%)	16(7.9%)	21(31.3%)
Distribution of patchy shadows or ground glass opacity			
unilateral	22(8.1%)	16(7.9%)	6(9%)
Bilateral	248(91.9%)	187(92.1%)	61(91%)
Any Comorbidity	139(51.5%)	99(48.8%)	40(59.7%)
Hypertension	81(30%)	59(29.1%)	22(32.8%)
Diabetes	35(13.0%)	27(13.3%)	8(11.9%)
Other heart disease	11(4.1%)	5(2.5%)	6(9.0%)
Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease	10(3.7%)	7(3.4%)	3(4.5%)
Malignancy	9(3.3%)	3(1.5%)	6(9.0%)
Chronic kidney disease	8(3.0%)	4(2.0%)	4(6.0%)
Cerebral infarction	2(0.7%)	1(0.5%)	1(1.5%)

Table 1: Clinical characteristics of patients with COVID-19

Other Comorbidities	37(13.7%)	28(13.8%)	9(13.4%)
Signs and symptoms			
Fever	202(74.8%)	150(73.9%)	52(77.6%)
Cough	181(67%)	132(65%)	49(73.1%)
Sputum	63(23.3%)	43(21.2%)	20(29.9%)
Dyspnoea	45(16.7%)	19(9.4%)	26(38.8%)
Fatigue	116(43%)	84(41.4%)	32(47.8%)
Chest tightness	74(27.4%)	46(22.7%)	28(41.8%)
Nausea	21(7.8%)	13(6.4%)	8(11.9%)
Dizziness	13(4.8%)	7(3.4%)	6(9%)
Headache	13(4.8%)	8(3.9%)	5(7.5%)
Pant	31(11.5%)	20(9.9%)	11(16.4%)
Pantalgia	11(4.1%)	7(3.4%)	4(6%)
Diarrhoea	42(15.6%)	33(16.3%)	9(13.4%)
Nasal congestion	1(0.4%)	1(0.5%)	0(0%)
Vomiting	8(3%)	3(1.5%)	5(7.5%)
Myalgia	4(1.5%)	3(1.5%)	1(1.5%)
Arthralgia	2(0.7%)	2(1%)	0(0%)
Polypnea	46(17%)	34(16.7%)	12(17.9%)
Sore throat	19(7%)	14(6.9%)	5(7.5%)
Rhinorrhoea	2(0.7%)	2(1%)	0(0%)
Haemoptysis	2(0.7%)	2(1%)	0(0%)
Cold intolerance	5(1.9%)	4(2%)	1(1.5%)
Syncope	3(1.1%)	0(0%)	3(4.5%)
Cardiopalmus	7(2.6%)	4(2%)	3(4.5%)
Chest pain	12(4.4%)	8(3.9%)	4(6%)
Abdominal pain	4(1.5%)	4(2%)	0(0%)

Antiviral or anti-inflammatory drugs

Oseltamivir	85(31.5%)	64(31.5%)	21(31.3%)
Lopinavir	134(49.6%)	94(46.3%)	40(59.7%)
Arbidol	89(33.0%)	61(30.0%)	28(41.8%)
Lianhua Qingwen	173(64.1%)	137(67.5%)	36(53.7%)
Traditional Chinese Medicine	39(14.4%)	31(15.3%)	8(11.9%)
Ribavirin	11(4.1%)	7(3.4%)	4(6.0%)
Methylprednisolone	36(13.3%)	11(5.4%)	25(37.3%)
Diammonium glycyrrhizinate enteric-coated capsules	13(4.8%)	10(4.9%)	3(4.5%)
Remdesivir	4(1.5%)	2(1.0%)	2(3.0%)

Data are presented as median (IQR), n (n/N%), where N is the total number of comfirmed patients; COVID-19, coronavirus disease 2019; IQR, inter quartile range.

	Total		Severe or critical
Laboratory finding	(n=270)	Moderate (n=203)	(n=67)
White blood cell count, $\times 10^9$ /L	5.4(4.2-6.9)	5.2(4.2-6.5)	6.3(4.3-9.8)
<3.5	33/270(12.2%)	25/203 (12.3%)	8/67(11.9%)
3.5-9.5	210/270(77.8%)	171/203(84.2%)	39/67(58.2%)
>9.5	27/270(10%)	7/203(3.4%)	20/67(29.9%)
Neutrophil count, $\times 10^9$ /L	3.3(2.5-4.6)	3.1(2.4-4.2)	4.7(2.8-8.5)
<6.3	235/270(87%)	193/203(95.1%)	42/67(62.7%)
≥6.3	35/270(13%)	10/203(4.9%)	25/67(37.3%)
Lymphocyte count, $\times 10^9$ /L	1.2(0.8-1.7)	1.4(1.0-1.8)	0.7(0.5-1.2)
<0.6	30/270(11.1%)	7/203(3.4%)	23/67(34.3%)
0.6-0.8	30/270(11.1%)	19/203(9.4%)	11/67(16.4%)
≥0.8	210/270(77.8%)	177/203(87.2%)	33/67(49.3%)
Neutrophil lymphocyte ratio	2.6(1.6-4.5)	2.2(1.5-3.4)	5.8(3.3-13.0)
<3.3	167/270(61.9%)	151/203(74.4%)	16/67(23.9%))
≥3.3	103/270(38.1%)	25/203(25.6%)	51/67(76.1%)
Monocyte count, $\times 10^9$ /L	0.4(0.3-0.6)	0.4(0.3-0.6)	0.4(0.3-0.7)
Platelet count, $\times 10^9$ per L	229(169.5-297.8)	241(185-306)	190(129-248)
<125	30/270(11.1%)	16/203(7.9%)	14/67(20.9%)
≥125	240/270(88.9%)	187/203(92.1%)	53/67(79.1%)
C-reactive protein, mg/L	12.6(3.4-43.5)	7.1(2.8-21.2)	58.9(29.4-111.0)
<10	113/246(45.9%)	106/188(56.4%)	7/58(12.1%)
≥10	133/246(54.1%)	82/188(43.6%)	51/58(87.9%)
Procalcitonin, ng/mL	0.05(0.03-0.12)	0.04(0.03-0.06)	0.14(0.06-0.43)
<0.05	158/252(62.7%)	147/192(76.6%)	11/60(18.3%)
≥0.05	94/252(37.3%)	45/192(23.4%)	49/60(81.7%)

Table 2. Laboratory results of patients with COVID-19

Erythrocyte sedimentation rate, mm/h	30.5(16.8-54.0)	30.0(16.0-54.0)	32(20.0-68.8)
Alanine aminotransferase, U/L	22.0(16.0-37.3)	21.0(15.0-36.0)	26.0(17.0-45.0)
Aspartate aminotransferase, U/L	27.0(20.0-38.3)	24.0(18.0-32.0)	36.0(28.0-59.0)
<35	192/270(71.1%)	160/203(78.8%)	32/67(47.8%)
≥35	78/270(28.9%)	43/203(21.2%)	35/67(52.2%)
γ-glutamine transpeptidase, U/L	27.0(19.0-48.5)	24.0(17.0-42.0)	37.0(26.0-75.0)
<60	195/270(72.2%)	158/203(78.8%)	37/67(55.2%)
≥60	75/270(27.8%)	45/203(22.2%)	30/67(44.8%)
Total serum protein, g/L	63.4(59.4-68.2)	63.8(59.7-68.3)	62.4(57.9-68.0)
Albumin, g/L (40-55)	34.6(31.8-37.6)	35.5(33.0-38.1)	32.6(29.3-34.9)
<34	116/270(43%)	73/203(36%)	43/67(64.2%)
≥34	154/270(57%)	130/270(64%)	24/67(35.8%)
Serum potassium, mmol/L	4.1(3.7-4.5)	4.1(3.7-4.4)	4.0(3.6-4.6)
Serum sodium, mmol/L	140.0(137.0-143.0)	140.2(137.0-143.0)	139.1(134.9-144.0)
Serum chloride, mmol/L	102(99.1-105.1)	102.5(100-105.5)	100.9(96.9-104)
Total serum calcium,mmol/L	2.14(2.02-2.25)	2.17(2.05-2.27)	2.07(1.93-2.17)
<2.11	119/269(44.2%)	76/203(37.4%)	43/66(65.2%)
≥2.11	150/269(55.8%)	127/203(62.6%)	23/66(34.8%)
Blood urea nitrogen, mmol/L	4.7(3.6-5.7)	4.5(3.5-5.3)	5.1(3.6-7.7)
<8.8	250/269(92.9%)	196/203(96.6%)	54/66(81.8%)
≥8.8	19/269(7.1%)	7/203(3.4%)	12/66(18.2%)
Creatinine, µmol/L	64.3(53.5-79.7)	60.8(51.9-73.9)	73.4(63.1-92.1)
<81	208/269(77.3%)	166/203(81.8%)	42/66(63.6%)
≥81	61/269(22.7%)	37/203(18.2%)	24/66(36.4%)
Uric acid, µmol/L	270.0(216.5-334.5)	270.0(218.0-335.0)	265.0(213.5-332.5)
Creatine kinase, U/L	83.5(52.5-153.5)	68.0(49.0-112.0)	166.0(85.5-493.5)
<200	104/128(81.3%)	85/91(93.4%)	19/37(51.4%)

≥200	24/128(18.8%)	6/91(6.6%)	18/37(48.6%)
Creatine kinase MB, U/L	8.0(5.0-14.0)	6.0(4.0-10.0)	14.0(8.5-19.0)
<24	121/128(94.5%)	88/91(96.7%)	33/37(89.2%)
≥24	7/128(5.5%)	3/91(3.3%)	4/37(10.8%)
Lactate dehydrogenase, U/L	228.0(184.3-310.3)	199.0(166.0-257.0)	353.0(277.5-580.5)
<250	70/128(54.7%)	64/91(70.3%)	6/37(16.2%)
≥250	58/128(45.3%)	27/91(29.7%)	31/37(83.8%)
Prothrombin time, s	11.5(11.0-12.1)	11.4(10.9-11.9)	12.0(11.4-12.8)
<13	189/205(92.2%)	148/153(96.7%)	41/52(78.8%)
≥13	16/205(7.8%)	5/153(3.3%)	11/52(21.2%)
Activated partial thromboplastin time, s	26.1(23.8-29.7)	25.8(23.5-28.9)	28.2(25.2-32.6)
<40	196/205(95.6%)	148/153(96.7%)	48/52(92.3%)
≥40	9/205(4.4%)	5/153(3.3%)	4/52(7.7%)
Thrombin time, s	18.8(17.9-19.9)	19.0(18.1-19.9)	18.3(17.3-19.9)
<21	184/205(89.8%)	139/153(90.8%)	45/52(86.5%)
≥21	21/205(10.2%)	14/153(9.2%)	7/52(13.5%)
Fibrinogen, g/L	3.3(2.5-4.3)	3.2(2.5-4.1)	3.7(2.7-4.8)
<4	143/205(69.8%)	111/153(72.5%)	32/52(61.5%)
≥4	62/205(30.2%)	42/153(27.5%)	20/52(38.5%)
D-dimer, mg/L	0.5(0.3-1.3)	0.5(0.3-1.0)	1.1(0.5-3.0)
<0.55	104/207(50.2%)	89/155(57.4%)	15/52(28.8%)
0.55-1	32/207(15.5%)	24/155(15.5%)	8/52(15.4%)
≥ 1	71/207(34.3%)	42/155(27.1%)	29/52(55.8%)

Data are shown as median (IQR), n (n/N%); COVID-19, coronavirus disease 2019; IQR, inter quartile range.













Figure 4

