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Disruption of the CCL5/RANTES-CCR5 Pathway Restores Immune Homeostasis and Reduces Plasma Viral Load in Critical COVID-19 — [Source link](#)

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1 **Disruption of the CCL5/RANTES-CCR5 Pathway Restores Immune**
2 **Homeostasis and Reduces Plasma Viral Load in Critical COVID-19**

3
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28 **ABSTRACT**

29 Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), the causative agent of
30 coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), is now pandemic with nearly three million cases
31 reported to date¹. Although the majority of COVID-19 patients experience only mild or
32 moderate symptoms, a subset will progress to severe disease with pneumonia and acute
33 respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) requiring mechanical ventilation². Emerging results
34 indicate a dysregulated immune response characterized by runaway inflammation,
35 including cytokine release syndrome (CRS), as the major driver of pathology in severe
36 COVID-19^{3,4}. With no treatments currently approved for COVID-19, therapeutics to
37 prevent or treat the excessive inflammation in severe disease caused by SARS-CoV-2
38 infection are urgently needed. Here, in 10 terminally-ill, critical COVID-19 patients we
39 report profound elevation of plasma IL-6 and CCL5 (RANTES), decreased CD8+ T cell
40 levels, and SARS-CoV-2 plasma viremia. Following compassionate care treatment with
41 the CCR5 blocking antibody leronlimab, we observed complete CCR5 receptor
42 occupancy on macrophage and T cells, rapid reduction of plasma IL-6, restoration of the
43 CD4/CD8 ratio, and a significant decrease in SARS-CoV-2 plasma viremia. Consistent
44 with reduction of plasma IL-6, single-cell RNA-sequencing revealed declines in
45 transcriptomic myeloid cell clusters expressing IL-6 and interferon-related genes. These
46 results demonstrate a novel approach to resolving unchecked inflammation, restoring
47 immunologic deficiencies, and reducing SARS-CoV-2 plasma viral load via disruption of
48 the CCL5-CCR5 axis, and support randomized clinical trials to assess clinical efficacy of
49 leronlimab-mediated inhibition of CCR5 for COVID-19.

50

51 **MAIN TEXT**

52

53 Since the initial cases of COVID-19 were reported from Wuhan, China in December
54 2019², SARS-CoV-2 has emerged as a global pandemic with an ever-increasing number
55 of severe cases requiring invasive external ventilation that threatens to overwhelm health
56 care systems¹. While it remains unclear why COVID-19 patients experience a spectrum
57 of clinical outcomes ranging from asymptomatic to severe disease, the salient features of
58 COVID-19 pathogenesis and mortality are rampant inflammation and CRS leading to
59 ARDS^{4,5}. Indeed, excessive immune cell infiltration into the lung, cytokine storm, and
60 ARDS have previously been described as defining features of severe disease in humans
61 infected with the closely related betacoronaviruses SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV^{6,7}.
62 Because SARS-CoV-infected airway epithelial cells and macrophages express high
63 levels of CCL5^{8,9}, a chemotactic molecule able to amplify inflammatory responses
64 towards immunopathology, we hypothesized that disrupting the CCL5-CCR5 axis via
65 leronlimab-mediated CCR5 blockade would prevent pulmonary trafficking of pro-
66 inflammatory leukocytes and reverse cytokine storm in COVID-19.

67

68 Leronlimab, formerly PRO 140, is a CCR5-specific human IgG4 monoclonal antibody in
69 development for HIV therapy as a once-weekly, at-home subcutaneous injection. In five
70 completed and four ongoing HIV clinical trials where over 800 individuals have received
71 leronlimab, no drug related deaths, serious injection site reactions, or drug-drug
72 interactions were reported¹⁰⁻¹³. Self-administration of leronlimab by patients facilitates
73 simple, once-weekly dosing. In contrast to the small molecule CCR5 inhibitors that
74 prevent HIV Env binding to CCR5 via allosteric modulation, leronlimab binds to the CCR5

75 extracellular loop 2 domain and N-terminus, thereby directly blocking the binding of HIV
76 Env to the CCR5 co-receptor via a competitive mechanism. Leronlimab does not
77 downregulate CCR5 surface expression or deplete CCR5-expressing cells, but does
78 prevent CCL5-induced calcium mobilization in CCR5+ cells with an IC₅₀ of 45 µg/ml¹⁴.
79 This ability to specifically prevent CCL5-induced activation and chemotaxis of
80 inflammatory CCR5+ macrophages and T cells suggests that leronlimab might be
81 effective in resolving pathologies involving the CCL5-CCR5 pathway.

82
83 Ten critical COVID-19 patients at the Montefiore Medical Center received leronlimab via
84 FDA-approved emergency investigational new drug (EIND) requests for individual patient
85 use (Table 1). These confirmed SARS-CoV-2 positive patients had significant pre-existing
86 co-morbidities and were receiving intensive care treatment including mechanical
87 ventilation or supplemental oxygen for ARDS. Consistent with previous reports of severe
88 COVID-19 disease², these patients showed evidence of lymphopenia with liver and
89 kidney damage (Supplementary Fig. 1)¹⁵. Four of the patients died during the fourteen-
90 day study period due to a combination of disease complications and severe constraints
91 on medical equipment culminating in medical triage. Although this EIND study lacks a
92 placebo control group for comparison, a recent study of other critically ill COVID-19
93 patients in the New York City area indicates mortality rates as high as 88%¹⁶.

94
95 Hyper immune activation and cytokine storm are present in cases of severe COVID-19⁴.
96 Indeed, at leronlimab treatment baseline, signatures of CRS were present in the plasma
97 of all ten patients in the form of significantly elevated levels of the inflammatory cytokines

98 IL-1 β , IL-6, and IL-8 (Fig. 1a-c) compared to healthy controls. In comparison to patients
99 with mild or moderate COVID-19, only IL-6 was present at significantly higher levels in
100 critically-ill patients. Of note, plasma CCL5 levels in the ten critically ill patients were
101 markedly elevated over those in both healthy controls and mild or moderate COVID-19
102 patients (Fig. 1d). High levels of CCL5 can cause acute renal failure and liver toxicity^{17,18},
103 both common findings in COVID-19 infection. Indeed, the critically ill patients presented
104 with varying degrees of kidney and liver injury, although many had also previously
105 received kidney transplants¹⁵ (Table 1 and Supplementary Fig. 1).

106
107 At study day zero, all ten critically ill patients received a subcutaneous 700mg injection of
108 leronlimab following baseline blood collection. Because defining features of severe
109 COVID-19 disease include plasma IL-6 and T cell lymphopenia^{2,19}, and we observed
110 >100-fold increased CCL5 levels compared to normal controls (Fig. 1d), we longitudinally
111 monitored these parameters for two weeks after leronlimab treatment. A reduction of
112 plasma IL-6 was observed as early as three days following leronlimab and returned to
113 healthy control levels by day 14 (Fig. 2a). In contrast, more variable levels were observed
114 with IL-1 β , IL-8, and CCL5 after leronlimab treatment (Supplementary Fig. 2). Following
115 leronlimab administration, a marked restoration of CD8⁺ T cells (Fig. 2b) and a
116 normalization of the CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell ratio in blood was observed (Fig. 2c). These
117 immunological changes occurred concomitant with full leronlimab CCR5 receptor
118 occupancy on the surface of CCR5⁺ T cells and macrophages (Fig. 2d, 2e). Low levels
119 of SARS-CoV-2 have been detected, but not yet quantified in the plasma of COVID-19
120 patients¹⁹. We used high sensitivity, digital droplet PCR to quantify plasma SARS-CoV-2

121 viremia at baseline. SARS-CoV-2 was found in the plasma of all ten critically ill patients,
122 underscoring the severity of COVID-19 (Fig. 2f). Following leronlimab administration
123 SARS-CoV-2 plasma viremia decreased in all patients at day seven, suggesting more
124 effective anti-viral immunity following leronlimab-mediated CCR5 blockade.

125

126 Finally, to establish an unbiased gene repertoire for these COVID-19 patients, we
127 performed 10X Genomics 5' single cell RNA-sequencing of peripheral blood mononuclear
128 cells to evaluate transcriptional changes between an uninfected healthy donor and two of
129 the severe COVID-19 patients (P2 and P4) for which sufficient baseline, pre-leronlimab
130 treatment COVID-19 samples were available for this analysis. We identified 2,890
131 differentially expressed transcripts between the two groups and found that the two severe
132 COVID-19 patients had a greater abundance of myeloid cells upregulating inflammatory-
133 , interferon (IFN)-, and chemokine-related genes compared to a healthy control (FDR <
134 0.05) (Supplementary Table 2). Notable genes overexpressed in COVID-19 samples
135 included chemokines (CXCL8, CCL4, CCL3), inflammatory and immune activation genes
136 (IL-1b, CD69), and the IFN-related genes (IFI27, IFITM3) (Supplementary Fig. 3). We
137 also observed a downregulation of the effector molecule granzyme A and the
138 immunoregulatory gene KLRB1 compared to the healthy control.

139

140 To identify markers that would inform effective leronlimab treatment we conducted
141 differential expression analysis for the same two severe COVID-19 participants (P2 and
142 P4) for which baseline and day seven post leronlimab samples were available. Our
143 longitudinal COVID-19 single cell dataset profiled an estimated 4,105 cells at baseline

144 and 4,888 cells at the 7-day post leronlimab timepoint. We identified 2,037 differentially
145 expressed transcripts (FDR < 0.05) (Supplementary Table 2). In line with the decrease of
146 IL-6 protein levels observed in plasma, IL-6 transcripts were downregulated between day
147 0 and day 7 in monocytes, (Supplementary Fig. 4), consistent with reports of
148 monocyte/macrophages repolarization following CCR5 blockade²⁰. We observed that
149 myeloid cells expressing chemokine and IFN-related genes such as CCL3, CCL4, CCL5,
150 ADAR, APOBEC3A, IFI44L, ISG15, MX1 were downregulated at day 7 post leronlimab
151 compared to baseline (Fig. 3 and Supplementary Table 3). Within the T cell population,
152 we observed increased expression of granzyme A, suggesting improved antiviral function.
153 These transcriptomic findings further underscore the potential impact of leronlimab-
154 mediated CCR5 blockade on the inflammatory state in COVID-19.

155
156 Here, we report on the involvement of the CCL5-CCR5 pathway in COVID-19 and present
157 data from ten critically ill patients with severe COVID-19 demonstrating reduction of
158 inflammation, restoration of T cell lymphocytopenia, and reduced SARS-CoV-2 plasma
159 viremia following leronlimab-mediated CCR5 blockade. Recent studies have found that a
160 significant number of COVID-19 patients experience increased risks of strokes, blood
161 clots and other thromboembolic events²¹. Platelet activation, which leads to the initiation
162 of the coagulation cascade, can be triggered by chemokines including CCL5²²,
163 suggesting that leronlimab treatment may be beneficial beyond its immunomodulatory
164 effects on inflammation and hemostasis in COVID-19 patients.

165

166 Given medical triage resulting in patient death, we cannot comment on the impact of
167 leronlimab on clinical outcome in these patients. While anecdotal evidence of clinical
168 improvement in COVID-19 patients following leronlimab treatment have been reported²³,
169 randomized controlled trials are required to determine efficacy of leronlimab for COVID-
170 19. Indeed, randomized, double blind, placebo controlled clinical trials are underway to
171 assess the efficacy of leronlimab treatments in patients with mild to moderate
172 (NCT04343651)²⁴ and severe to critical (NCT04347239)²⁵ COVID-19. In summary, we
173 show here for the first time, involvement of the CCL5-CCR5 axis in the pathology of
174 SARS-CoV-2, and present evidence that inhibition of CCL5 activity via CCR5 blockade
175 represents a novel therapeutic strategy for COVID-19 with both immunologic and virologic
176 implications.

177

178 **METHODS**

179 Assessment of plasma cytokine and chemokine levels.

180 Fresh plasma was used for cytokine quantification using a customized 13-plex bead-
181 based flow cytometric assay (LegendPlex, Biolegend, Inc) on a CytoFlex flow cytometer.
182 For each patient sample 25 μ L of plasma was used in each well of a 96-well plate. Raw
183 data was analyzed using LegendPlex software (Biolegend, Inc San Diego CA). Samples
184 were run in duplicate. In addition, split sample confirmation testing was performed by
185 ELISA (MDBiosciences, Minneapolis, MN). A 48-plex cytokine/chemokine/growth factor
186 panel and RANTES-CCL5 (Millipore Sigma) assay were performed following
187 manufacture's protocol on a Luminex MAGPIX instrument. Confirmation testing was also
188 performed in duplicate. Samples falling outside the linear range of the appropriate

189 standard curves were diluted and repeated incorporating the dilution factor into the final
190 average. Cytokine, chemokines and growth factors included: sCD40L, EGF, Eotaxin,
191 FGF-2, Flt-3, Fractalkine, G-CSF, GM-CSF, GRO- α , IFN α 2, IFN γ , IL-1 α , IL-1 β , IL-1ra, IL-
192 2, IL-3, IL-4, IL-5, IL-6, IL-7, IL-8, IL-9, IL-10, IL-12 (p40), IL-12 (p70), IL-13, IL-15,
193 IL-17A, IL-17E/IL-25, IL-17F, IL-18, IL-22, IL-27, IP-10, MCP-1, MCP-3, M-CSF, MDC,
194 MIG, MIP-1 α , MIP-1 β , PDGF-AA, PDGF-AB/BB, RANTES, TGF- α , TNF- α , TNF- β , and
195 VEGF.

196

197 Flow cytometry.

198 Peripheral blood mononuclear cells were isolated from peripheral blood using
199 Lymphoprep density gradient (STEMCELL Technologies, Vancouver, Canada). Aliquots
200 of cells were frozen in media that contained 90% fetal bovine serum (HyClone, Logan,
201 UT) and 10% dimethyl sulfoxide (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) and stored at -70C. Cells
202 were quick thawed, washed, and incubated with 2% solution of bovine serum albumin
203 (Blocker BSA, ThermoFisher, Waltham, MA) diluted in D-PBS (HyClone) for 5 min. Each
204 sample received a cocktail containing 10 μ L Brilliant Stain Buffer (BD Biosciences,
205 Franklin Lakes, NJ), 5 μ L True-Stain Monocyte Blocker (BioLegend, San Diego, CA), and
206 the following surface marker antibodies: anti-CD19 (PE-Dazzle594), anti-CD3 (APC),
207 anti-CD16 (Alexa700), HLA-DR (APC/Fire750), and anti-CTLA-4 (PE-Cy7). The following
208 antibodies were then added to each tube individually: anti-CD8 (BUV496), anti-
209 CD4 (BUV661), anti-CD45 (BUV805), anti-CD103 (BV421), anti-TIM3 (BV605), anti-
210 CD56 (BV650), anti-LAG-3 (BV711), anti-CD14 (BB785), and anti-PD-1 (BB700),
211 followed by a 30 min. incubation in the dark at room temperature. Cells were washed

212 once with 2% BSA solution before fixation and permeabilization. Cells were fixed and
213 permeabilized in a one-step reaction with 1X InceIDx (InceIDx, San Carlos, CA) at a
214 concentration of 1 million cells per mL and incubated for 60 min. in the dark at room
215 temperature. Cells were washed once with 2% BSA solution, and analyzed on a Cytoflex
216 LX with 355nm (20mW), 405nm (80mW), 488nm (50mW), 561nm (30mW), 638nm
217 (50mW), 808nm (60mW) lasers (Beckman Coulter Life Sciences, Indianapolis, IN).
218 Analysis was performed with Kaluza version 2.1 software. The panel used in this study is
219 shown in Supplementary Table 1 and examples of the gating strategy is shown in
220 Supplementary Fig. 5.

221

222 CCR5 receptor occupancy.

223 Because CCR5 is a highly regulated receptor especially in infection, inflammation, and
224 cancer, we determined CCR5 receptor occupancy by leronlimab by using phycoerythrin-
225 labeled leronlimab (InceIDx, Inc) in a competitive flow cytometry assay. CCR5-
226 expressing immune cells including CD4+, CD45RO+ T-lymphocytes, CD4+, FoxP3+ T-
227 regulatory cells, and CD14+, CD16+ monocytes/macrophages were included in the panel
228 using the appropriate immunophenotypic markers for each population in addition to PE-
229 labeled leronlimab. Cells were incubated for 30 min. in the dark at room temperature
230 and washed twice with 2% BSA solution before flow acquisition on a 3-laser CytoFLEX
231 fitted with 405nm (80mW), 488nm (50mW), 638nm (50mW) lasers (Beckman Coulter Life
232 Sciences, Indianapolis, IN Life Sciences, Indianapolis, IN). Receptor occupancy was
233 determined by the loss of CCR5 detection over time in these subpopulations
234 (Supplementary Figure 6) and calculated with the following equation:

235 1-A/B X 100 where A is Day 0 and B is Day 7.

236

237 Measurement of plasma SARS-CoV-2 viral loads.

238 The QIAamp Viral Mini Kit (Qiagen, Catalog #52906) was used to extract nucleic acids
239 from 300-400 μ L from plasma sample according to instructions from the manufacturer
240 and eluted in 50 μ L of AVE buffer (RNase-free water with 0.04% sodium azide). The
241 purified nucleic acids were used immediately with the Bio-Rad SARS-CoV-2 ddPCR Kit
242 (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). Each batch of samples extracted comprised positive and
243 extraction controls which are included in the kit, as well as a no template control (nuclease
244 free water). The Bio-Rad SARS-CoV-2 ddPCR Test is a reverse transcription (RT) droplet
245 digital polymerase chain reaction (ddPCR) test designed to detect RNA from SARS-CoV-
246 2. The oligonucleotide primers and probes for detection of SARS-CoV-2 are the same as
247 those reported by CDC and were selected from regions of the viral nucleocapsid (N) gene.
248 The panel is designed for specific detection of the 2019-nCoV (two primer/probe sets).
249 An additional primer/probe set to detect the human RNase P gene (RP) in control samples
250 and clinical specimens is also included in the panel as an internal control. The Bio-Rad
251 SARS-CoV-2 ddPCR Kit includes these three sets of primers/probes into a single assay
252 multiplex to enable a one-well reaction. RNA isolated and purified from the plasma
253 samples (5.5 μ L) were added to the mastermix comprised of 1.1 μ L of 2019-nCoV triplex
254 assay, 2.2 μ L of reverse transcriptase, 5.5 μ L of supermix, 1.1 μ L of Dithiothreitol (DTT)
255 and 6.6 μ L of nuclease-free water. Twenty-two microliters (22 μ l) from these sample and
256 mastermix RT-ddPCR mixtures were loaded into the wells of a 96-well PCR plate. The
257 mixtures were then fractionated into up to 20,000 nanoliter-sized droplets in the form of a

258 water-in-oil emulsion in the QX200 Automated Droplet Generator (Bio-Rad, Hercules CA).
259 The 96-well RT-ddPCR ready plate containing droplets was sealed with foil using a plate
260 sealer and thermocycled to achieve reverse transcription of RNA followed by PCR
261 amplification of cDNA in a C1000 Touch thermocycler (Bio-Rad, Hercules CA).
262 Subsequent to PCR, the plate was loaded into the QX200 Droplet Reader (Bio-Rad,
263 Hercules CA) and the fluorescence intensity of each droplet was measured in two
264 channels (FAM and HEX). The Droplet Reader singulates the droplets and flows them
265 past a two-color fluorescence detector. The detector reads the droplets to determine
266 which contain target (positive) and which do not (negative) for each of the targets
267 identified with the Bio-Rad SARS-CoV-2 ddPCR Test: N1, N2 and RP. The fluorescence
268 data is then analyzed by the QuantaSoft 1.7 and QuantaSoft Analysis Pro 1.0 Software
269 to determine the presence of SARS-CoV-2 N1 and N2 in the specimen.

270 **Bio-Rad SARS-CoV-2 RT-ddPCR Thermal Cycling Protocol**

Cycling Step	Temperature (°C)	Time	Number of Cycles
Reverse Transcription	50	60 minutes	1
PCR enzyme activation	95	10 minutes	1
Template Denaturation	94	30 seconds	40
Annealing / Extension	55	60 seconds	

Droplet Stabilization	4	30 minutes	1
Hold (optional)	4	Overnight	1

271

272

273 Statistical Analysis.

274 The inflammatory cytokines IL-1 β , IL-6, IL-8, CCL5 levels between groups were compared
275 using non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparison
276 correction to control the experimental wise error rate. To assess reversal of immune
277 dysfunction and CCR5 receptor occupancy as well as cytokine and chemokine levels in
278 severe COVID-19 patients after Leronlimab, Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's multiple
279 comparison correction was used. Changes in SARS-CoV-2 plasma viral loads were
280 assessed using the Mann-Whitney test.

281

282 Patient samples and IRB.

283 All patients were enrolled in this study under an individual patient emergency use
284 investigation new drug (EIND) via FDA emergency use authorization (EUA). The FDA
285 assigned an EIND number for each patient and thus registration in a clinical trial
286 registration agency is not applicable. Informed consent was obtained from patient or their
287 legally authorized representative per 21 CFR Part 50. The Albert Einstein College of
288 Medicine Institution Review Board (IRB) reviewed and approved this study. The IRB was
289 notified within 5 business days of treatment initiation. Within 15 business days of FDA
290 emergency use authorization, Form FDA 3926 along with the treatment plan and the letter
291 of authorization from CytoDyn was submitted to FDA. One 8 mL EDTA tube and one 4

292 mL plasma preparation (PPT) tube were drawn by venipuncture at Day0 (pre-treatment),
293 Day 3, Day 7, Day 14 post-treatment. Blood was shipped overnight to IncelIDX for
294 processing and analysis. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells were isolated from
295 peripheral blood using Lymphoprep density gradient (STEMCELL Technologies,
296 Vancouver, Canada). Aliquots of cells were frozen in media that contained 90% fetal
297 bovine serum (HyClone, Logan, UT) and 10% dimethyl sulfoxide (Sigma-Aldrich, St.
298 Louis, MO) and stored at -70C.

299

300 10X Genomics 5' Single-cell RNA-Sequencing

301 Cryopreserved PBMC cells were thawed in RPMI 1640 complete medium, washed in PBS
302 BSA 0.5%, and cell number and viability measured using a Countess II automated cell
303 counter (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Cells were then diluted to a concentration of 1 million
304 cells per ml for loading into the 10X chip. Single-cell RNA-Sequencing library preparation
305 occurred with the Chromium Next GEM Single Cell Immune Profiling (v.1.1 Chemistry)
306 according to manufacturer's protocols on a Chromium Controller instrument. The library
307 was sequenced using a High Output Flowcell and Illumina NextSeq 500 instrument. For
308 data processing, Cellranger (v.3.0.2) mkfastq was applied to the Illumina BCL output to
309 produce FASTQ files. Cellranger count was then applied to each FASTQ file to produce
310 a feature barcoding and gene expression matrix. Cellranger aggr was used to combine
311 samples for merged analysis. For quality control, we applied the *Seurat* package for cell
312 clustering and differential expression analyses.

313

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321

322 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

323 BKP, HS, KD, KK, JL, SK, NP, JBS conceived of the study, HS and EA coordinated
324 patient care, BKP, HS, AP, EBF, HR, WR, AL, LK, MH, and EH acquired data, BKP, MJC,
325 APSP, CS, BF, HLW, GMW, BSP, SK, JL, AL, LK, MH, EH, LCN, and NP analyzed data,
326 and BKP, MJC, KD, JL, HLW, GMW, BSO, SK, NP, LCN, and JBS wrote the manuscript.

327

328 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

329 All primary data presented in this study are available from the corresponding author upon
330 reasonable request. Primary data exists for all figures.

331

332 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

333 Dr. Sacha has received compensation for consulting for CytoDyn Inc., a company that
334 may have a commercial interest in the results of this research. The potential conflict of
335 interest has been reviewed and managed by Oregon Health & Science University. Drs.
336 Kelly and Pourhassan are employees of CytoDyn Inc., owner and developer of
337 Leronlimab. Dr. Lalezari is a principal investigator for CytoDyn Inc. through his company

338 Quest Clinical Research. Dr. Patterson, Brian Francisco, Amruta Pise, Matthew Ryou,
339 Hallison Rodrigues are employees of IncellDx, Inc., a diagnostic company providing
340 assays to Cytodyn Inc. Dr. Ndhlovu has received compensation for serving on a scientific
341 advisory board for Abbvie. Lama Kdouh and Alina Lelic are employees of Beckman
342 Coulter Life Sciences, and Monica Herrera and Eric Hall are employees of Bio-Rad,
343 Inc. Drs. Kush Dhody and Kazem Kazempour are employees of Amarex Clinical
344 Research, LLC, a company that manages clinical trials and regulatory matters for
345 CytoDyn Inc.

346

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Patient	Age interval/ Gender	Pre-existing conditions	Renal transplant year	Dialysis in hospital	Vasopressors used	Baseline status	Extubated
P1	70-79/M	AKI, HTHD, Prostate CA (s/p prostatectomy), DM, Gout	N/A	Yes	Yes	Intubated	No
P2	70-79/F	ESRD, HTHD, DM, HLD	2018	Yes	Yes	Intubated	No
P3	50-59/M	RF, HTHD, HLD	N/A	Yes	Yes	Venture mask, same day intubated	No
P4	50-59/M	HTHD, Skin CA, Papillary thyroid CA (s/p thyroidectomy), DM	N/A	Yes	Yes	Intubated	Yes
P5	50-59/M	ESRD, CKD stage 3 in renal allograft, recurrent UTI with MDR E.coli, DM, DR, HTHD, HLD	2016	Yes	Yes	Intubated	Yes
P6	40-49/M	FSGS, CKD stage 3, DVT/PE, Gout	2005, 2016	No	No	On 2L NC	N/A
P7	60-69/M	ESRD, Hydronephrosis (s/p stent placement), HTHD, HLD, DM with retinopathy and neuropathy	2018	Yes	Yes	On NRB	Yes
P8	50-59/F	ESRD, lung CA (s/p bilateral upper lobectomy), COPD, Asthma, DM, HTHD, HLD, Hepatitis C	2009	No	No	3-4 L NC*	No
P9	50-59/F	AKI, HTHD, OSA (on Bilevel Positive Airway Pressure)	2006	Yes	Yes	Intubated	No
P10	70-79/M	AKI, CAD, Prostate CA, GERD, HTHD, HLD	N/A	Yes	Yes	Intubated	No

Table 1: Critical COVID-19 Patient Summaries.

N/A = not applicable, s/p = status post-, AKI = acute kidney injury, HTHD = hypertensive heart disease, DM = diabetes mellitus, HLD = hyperlipidemia, ESRD = end-stage renal disease, HD = hemodialysis, CA = cancer, COPD = chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, LUL = left upper lobe, RUL = right upper lobe, MDR = multi-drug resistant, CKD = chronic kidney disease, UTI = urinary tract infection, FSGS = Focal segmental glomerulosclerosis, DVT = deep vein thrombosis, PE = pulmonary embolism, OSA = obstructive sleep apnea, CAD = coronary artery disease, GERD = gastroesophageal reflux disease, RF = renal failure, DR = diabetic retinopathy, NC = nasal canula, NRB = non-rebreather mask, *Patient declined intubation due to poor baseline pulmonary status.

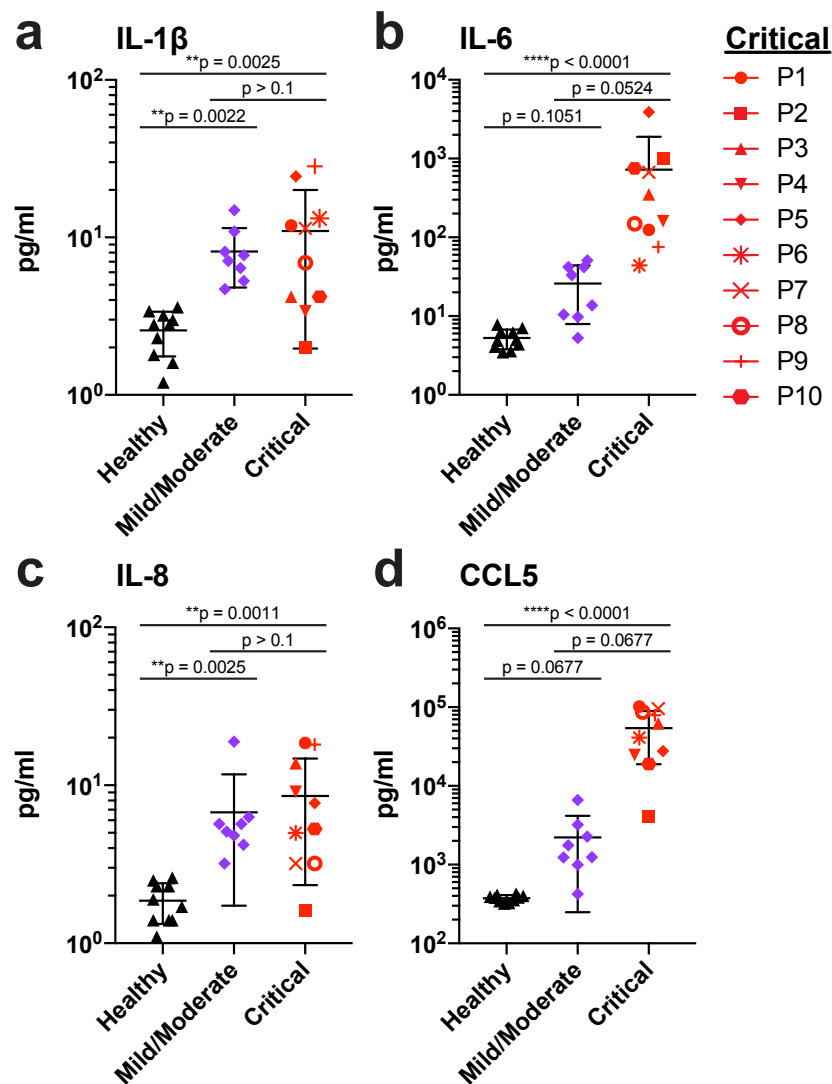


Figure 1. Elevated cytokine and chemokine levels in critically ill COVID-19 patients. a-d, Plasma levels of IL-1 β (a), IL-6 (b), IL-8 (c), and CCL5 (d) in patients with mild/moderate (n=8, purple symbols) and critical (n=10, red symbols) COVID-19 disease, compared to healthy controls (n=10, black symbols). Graphs display p-values calculated by Dunn's Kruskal-Wallis test: *p \leq 0.05, ** p \leq 0.01, ***p \leq 0.001, ****p \leq 0.0001.

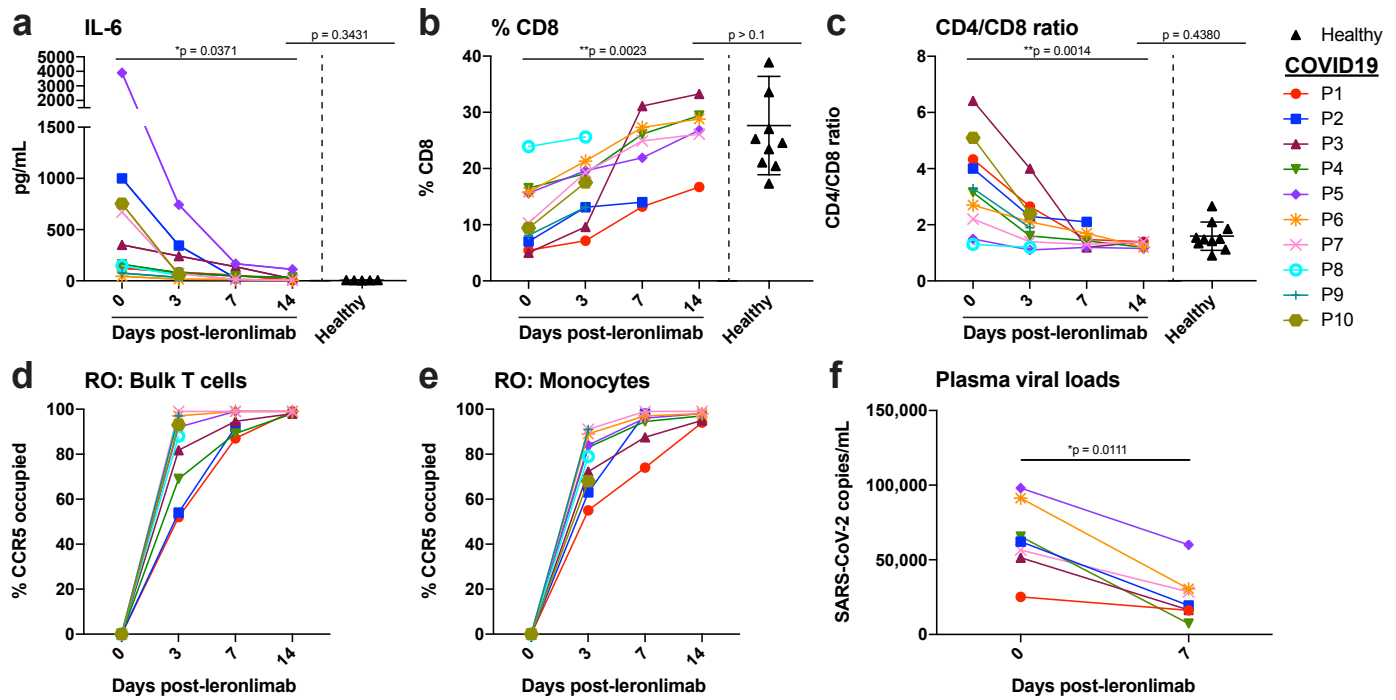


Figure 2. Reversal of immune dysfunction and CCR5 receptor occupancy in critically ill COVID-19 patients after leronlimab administration. **a-c**, Plasma levels of IL-6 (**a**), and peripheral blood CD8+ T cell percentages of CD3+ cells (**b**) and CD4/CD8 T cell ratio (**c**) at days 0 (n=10), 3 (n=10), 7 (n=7), and 14 (n=6) post-leronlimab administration. Healthy controls (n=10) shown in black triangles. Graphs display p-values calculated by Dunn's Kruskal-Wallis test: not significant $p > 0.05$, * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$, **** $p \leq 0.0001$. **d-e**, CCR5 receptor occupancy on peripheral blood bulk T cells (**d**), and monocytes (**e**). **f**, SARS-CoV-2 plasma viral load at days 0 and 7 post-leronlimab (n=7). Graph displays p-value calculated by Mann-Whitney test: * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$, **** $p \leq 0.0001$.

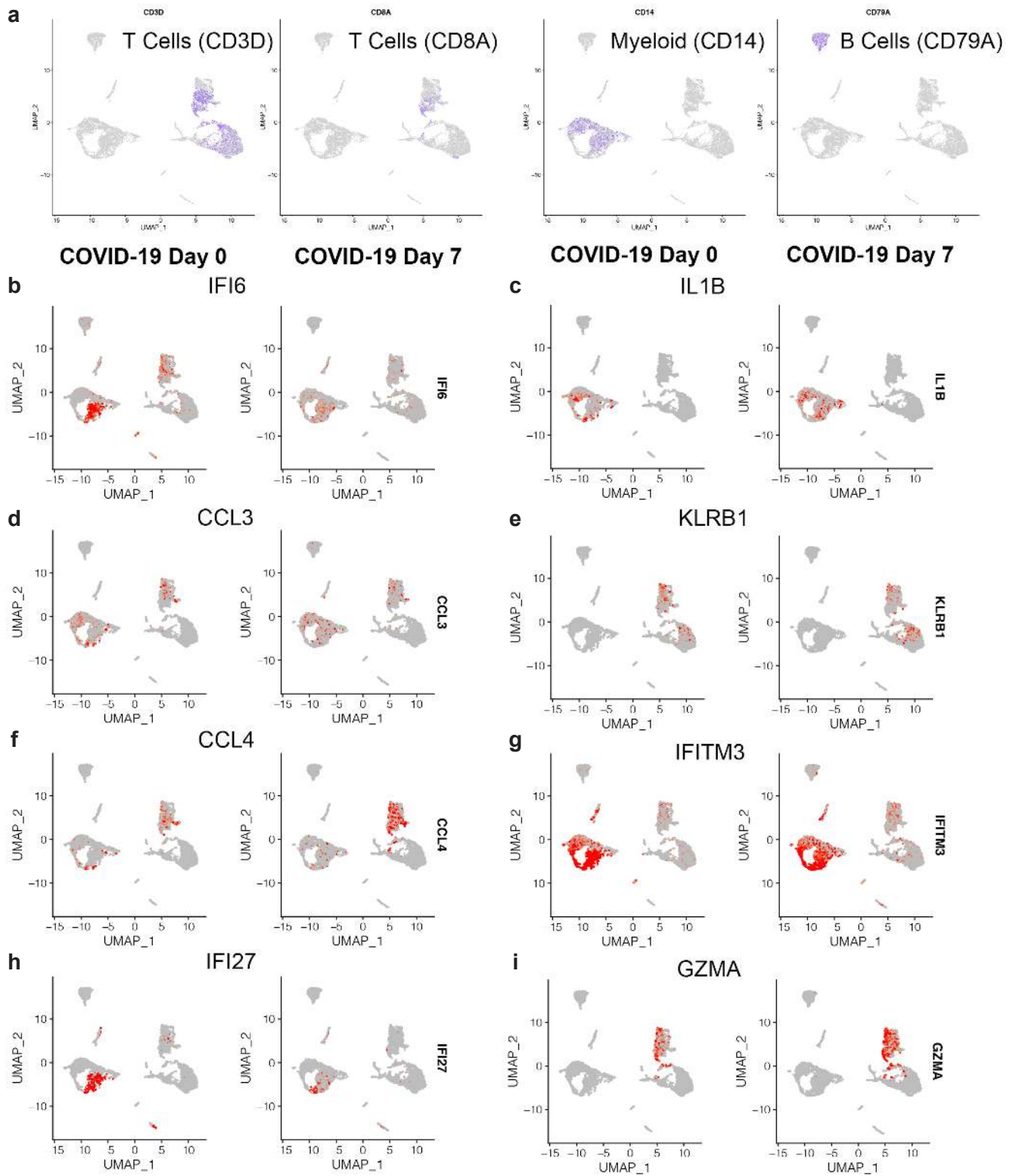


Figure 3. Longitudinal single-cell transcriptomics of COVID-19 following leronlimab.

UMAP feature plots of single-cell transcriptome profiles of CD3 (T cells) versus CD8 (CD8+ T cells) versus CD14 (monocyte/myeloid) versus CD79a (B cells) (a) IFI6 (b), IL-1 β (c), CCL3 (d), KLRB1 (e), CCL4 (f), IFITM3 (g), IFI27 (h), Granzyme A (i), before and 7 days post leronlimab treatment for severe COVID-19 patients P2 and P4.