

## Severe COVID-19 is associated with elevated serum IgA and antiphospholipid IgA-antibodies

Omar Hasan Ali<sup>1,2,3</sup>, David Bomze<sup>3,4</sup>, Lorenz Risch<sup>5,6</sup>, Silvio D. Brugger<sup>7</sup>, Matthias Paprotny<sup>8</sup>, Myriam Weber<sup>8</sup>, Sarah Thiel<sup>8</sup>, Lukas Kern<sup>9</sup>, Werner C. Albrich<sup>10</sup>, Philipp Kohler<sup>10</sup>, Christian R. Kahlert<sup>10,11</sup>, Pietro Vernazza<sup>10</sup>, Philipp K. Bühler<sup>12</sup>, Reto A. Schüpbach<sup>12</sup>, Alejandro Gómez-Mejía<sup>7</sup>, Alexandra M. Popa<sup>13</sup>, Andreas Bergthaler<sup>13</sup>, Josef M. Penninger<sup>1,14</sup>, Lukas Flatz<sup>2,3,15,16,\*</sup>

1. Department of Medical Genetics, Life Sciences Institute, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada

2. Department of Dermatology, University Hospital Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland

3. Institute of Immunobiology, Kantonsspital St. Gallen, St. Gallen, Switzerland

4. Sackler Faculty of Medicine, Tel Aviv University, Tel Aviv, Israel

5. Labormedizinisches Zentrum Dr. Risch, Vaduz, Liechtenstein

6. Center of Laboratory Medicine, University Institute of Clinical Chemistry, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland

7. Department of Infectious Diseases and Hospital Hygiene, University Hospital Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland

8. Department of General Internal Medicine, Landesspital Liechtenstein, Vaduz, Liechtenstein

9. Department of Pulmonology, Kantonsspital St. Gallen, St. Gallen, Switzerland

© The Author(s) 2020. Published by Oxford University Press for the Infectious Diseases Society of America. All rights reserved. For permissions, e-mail: journals.permissions@oup.com.

10. Division of Infectious Diseases and Hospital Epidemiology, Kantonsspital St. Gallen, St. Gallen, Switzerland

11. Department of Infectious Diseases and Hospital Epidemiology, Children's Hospital of Eastern Switzerland, St. Gallen, Switzerland

12. Institute of Intensive Care Medicine, University Hospital Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland

13. Research Center for Molecular Medicine of the Austrian Academy of Sciences, Vienna, Austria

14. IMBA, Institute of Molecular Biotechnology of the Austrian Academy of Sciences, Vienna, Austria

15. Department of Dermatology, Kantonsspital St. Gallen, St. Gallen, Switzerland

16. Department of Oncology and Hematology, Kantonsspital St. Gallen, St. Gallen, Switzerland

**\*Corresponding author:**

Prof. Lukas Flatz, MD

Kantonsspital St. Gallen, Institute of Immunobiology, Rorschacher Strasse 95, 9007 St. Gallen, Switzerland; **Phone:** +41 79 425 41 13; **Email:** [lukas.flatz@kssg.ch](mailto:lukas.flatz@kssg.ch)

**Related Manuscript:** Parts of this study have been previously reported as a preprint (medRxiv, 24 July 2020, <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.07.21.20159244>)

**Summary:**

Our retrospective cohort study in Liechtenstein and Switzerland found that severe COVID-19 is significantly associated with elevated total IgA and IgA antiphospholipid antibodies. These data suggest that a vigorous IgA response to SARS-CoV-2 may trigger autoimmunity with systemic symptoms.

Accepted Manuscript

## ABSTRACT

**Background:** Severe coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) frequently entails complications that bear similarities to autoimmune diseases. To date, there is little data on possible IgA-mediated autoimmune responses. Here, we aim to determine whether COVID-19 is associated with a vigorous total IgA response and if IgA antibodies are associated with complications of severe illness. Since thrombotic events are frequent in severe COVID-19 and resemble hypercoagulation of antiphospholipid syndrome (APS), our approach focused on antiphospholipid antibodies (aPL).

**Methods:** In this retrospective cohort study clinical data and aPL from 64 patients with COVID-19 were compared from three independent tertiary hospitals (one in Liechtenstein, two in Switzerland). Samples were collected from April 9<sup>th</sup> to May 1<sup>st</sup>, 2020.

**Results:** Clinical records of 64 patients with COVID-19 were reviewed and divided into a cohort with mild illness (mCOVID) (41%), a discovery cohort with severe illness (sdCOVID) (22%) and a confirmation cohort with severe illness (scCOVID) (38%). Total IgA, IgG and aPL were measured with clinical diagnostic kits. Severe illness was significantly associated with increased total IgA (sdCOVID,  $P=0.01$ ; scCOVID,  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ), but not total IgG. Among aPL, both cohorts with severe illness significantly correlated with elevated anti-Cardiolipin IgA (sdCOVID and scCOVID,  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ), anti-Cardiolipin IgM (sdCOVID,  $P=0.003$ ; scCOVID,  $P<0.001$ ), and anti-Beta2 Glycoprotein-1 IgA (sdCOVID and scCOVID,  $P<0.001$ ). Systemic lupus erythematosus was excluded from all patients as a potential confounder.

**Conclusions:** Higher total IgA and IgA-aPL were consistently associated with severe illness. These novel data strongly suggest that a vigorous antiviral IgA-response, possibly triggered in the bronchial mucosa, induces systemic autoimmunity.

**Key words:** COVID-19; immunoglobulin A; autoimmunity; antiphospholipid syndrome; thromboembolisms

Accepted Manuscript

## INTRODUCTION

The novel coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) has become a global pandemic with wide-ranging health and socio-economic implications. After SARS and the Middle East Respiratory Syndrome, it represents the third known spillover of a severe coronavirus-associated disease from animals to humans in the last twenty years [1-3]. SARS-CoV-2 enters human cells by attachment to and subsequent internalization of Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 receptors that are highly expressed by type-II pneumocytes in the deep bronchial system [4], where IgA immunoglobulins produced in the bronchial-associated lymphoid tissue (BALT) are the main line of humoral defense [5]. Indeed, specific IgA against the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein have been shown to appear early in infected patients [6]. However, despite the important role of IgA in mucosal immunity, the rate of total IgA generated by that response and its role in COVID-19 severity remains unexplored.

Autopsies have shown acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) and sepsis to be the most common complications in critically-ill COVID-19 patients [7]. A large case series from Northern Italy that assessed lung histologies of deceased COVID-19 patients present consistent diffuse alveolar damage and necrosis of pneumocytes [8]. A distinctive factor for COVID-19 was a marked presence of diffuse thrombosis of the peripheral small vessels. This is in line with reports of frequent thromboembolisms of patients with severe COVID-19 that occur despite the prophylactic in-hospital use of low weight molecular heparins [9, 10]. While the reasons remain unclear, a recent report describes a case series of severe COVID-19 patients with stroke and elevated levels of antiphospholipid (aPL) antibodies compatible with antiphospholipid syndrome (APS) [11]. APS is an acquired

autoimmune disease that is mediated by autoantibodies directed against phospholipid-binding proteins that leads to hypercoagulability. The most common trigger factor of APS is systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), followed by lung infections with mycobacteria or viruses [12]. These cases suggest that COVID-19 leads to virally triggered APS in severe COVID-19 patients. To our knowledge, complete aPL profiling in mild and severe cases of COVID-19 has never been undertaken. The aim of this study was to explore, whether patients with severe COVID-19 have elevated total IgA as an immediate immune response and aPL compatible with APS.

## **METHODS**

### **Sources and Ethical Statement:**

The multicenter cohort study was conducted at the Landesspital Liechtenstein (LLS) in Vaduz, Liechtenstein, the Kantonsspital St. Gallen (KSSG) in St. Gallen, Switzerland, and the University Hospital Zurich (USZ) in Zurich, Switzerland, in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki guidelines. The collection of patient data and blood samples was approved by the respective local ethics committees of the participating study centers (Project-IDs 2020-00676, 2020-00821, and 2020-00646). All participants agreed to the hospitals' general consent policies allowing further use of clinical data and biologic material (LLS and KSSG) or signed an informed consent (USZ). Where signing of informed consent was not possible due to severe illness and to prevent surface contamination, consent was sought verbally or from the next of kin, which had been approved by the respective local ethics committee.

### **Patient data and sample collection:**

Collection of patient data and samples (serum or plasma) was conducted from April 9, 2020, to May 1, 2020. All samples were obtained within two weeks of symptom onset. Patients with SARS-CoV-2 infection were included that had been confirmed by either real-time reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) of nasopharyngeal swab samples or serology. The methods of RT-PCR used to detect SARS-CoV-2 depended on the study center and were performed as previously described [13, 14]. For confirmation with serology SARS-CoV-2 antibodies were analyzed by two independent antibody tests: a lateral flow immunochromatographic assay (LFIA, gold nanoparticle-based, SGIT flex Covid 19) (Sugentech, Daejeon, South Korea) and an electro-chemiluminescence immunoassay (ECLIA, Elecsys Anti-SARS-CoV-2) (Roche International Diagnostics AG, Rotkreuz, Switzerland). Seropositivity was defined as a positive IgM signal in the LFIA in the acute phase that was confirmed by IgG in the ECLIA after 3-4 weeks.

Patients were categorized into the following cohorts: 1. mild illness without requirement of hospitalization (mCOVID) which were collected at the LLS, 2. a discovery cohort of patients with severe illness (sdCOVID) obtained at the USZ, and 3. an independent confirmation cohort of patients with severe illness (scCOVID) from the KSSG. Mild illness was defined as uncomplicated upper respiratory tract infection with unspecific symptoms or uncomplicated pneumonia, while severe illness for the sdCOVID and scCOVID cohorts required hospitalization and included severe pneumonia, ARDS, and septic shock [15].

### **Immunoglobulins and aPL testing:**

aPL antibodies were determined by fluorescence enzyme immunoassay on a Phadia 250 analyzer (Thermo Fisher Diagnostics AG, Steinhausen, Switzerland) using EliATM Cardiolipin as well as EliATM Beta 2-Glycoprotein 1 assays for IgG, IgA, and IgM isotopes (all Thermo Fisher Diagnostics AG, Steinhausen, Switzerland). Total IgA and IgG were



determined on a Cobas c501 analyzer (Roche International Diagnostics AG, Rotkreuz, Switzerland) with a nephelometric assay (IgA-2, Tina-quant IgA Gen.2, and IgGu2, Tina-quant IgG Gen.2) (Roche International Diagnostics AG, Rotkreuz, Switzerland). IgG against SS-A/Ro, SS-B/La, dsDNA, Sm, chromatin and RNP were simultaneously determined by bead-based suspension array principle on a Bioplex 2200 System (Biorad Laboratories, Cressier, Switzerland). Coefficients of variations, as determined by commercially available control materials were 4.5% for total IgA, <2.0% for total IgG, 4.6% for aPL antibodies, and 3.7% for lupus-antibodies. Measurements were performed at the Labormedizinisches Zentrum Dr. Risch, Vaduz, Liechtenstein.

#### **Statistical methods:**

Point estimates of autoantibody levels were described using the mean and the standard error of the mean. Differences in autoantibody levels between cohorts were assessed using the nonparametric Mann-Whitney test. All *P*-values were adjusted for multiple hypothesis testing using the false discovery rate (FDR) method. Statistical significance was defined at the level of FDR <0.05. All analyses were performed using R software, version 3.5.0 (R Project for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). Furthermore, we generated hierarchical clustering (spearman clustering distance and a complete clustering method) on the median centered values of antibody levels. Missing values were replaced with the respective mean value across the remaining patients.

## RESULTS

### Patient characteristics:

We collected a total of 64 serum or plasma samples from patients with SARS-CoV-2 infection (one sample per patient). The median age of all patients was 62 years (interquartile range [IQR], 46-74) and 32 (60%) were male. The mCOVID cohort comprised 26 (41%) patients with a median age of 57 (IQR, 45-63) years. 9 (35%) of mCOVID patients were male. 38 (59%) patients fulfilled the criteria for severe COVID-19. The median age of all severely ill patients was 70 (IQR, 58-76) years and, as opposed to mCOVID, they were predominantly male (28 [74%]). Of those, the sdCOVID cohort included 14 (22%) patients with a median age of 64 (ICR 56-70) years and the scCOVID cohort 24 (38%) patients with a median age of 73 (64-80) years. For SARS-CoV-2 diagnosis, 59 (92%) of 64 patients were screened by RT-PCR and 7 (11%) patients by serology.

4/26 (15%) patients in the mCOVID cohort had co-morbidities predisposing to severe COVID-19, of which the most frequent was hypertension (3/26 [12%]). In contrast, 26 (93%) severely ill patients had at least one co-morbidity, of which the most common were hypertension (26 [68%]), cardiovascular disease (25 [66%]) and diabetes mellitus (13/38 [34%]). Of note, 13 (34%) of patients with severe COVID-19 developed thromboses during hospitalization, which did not correlate with d-dimer levels ( $P=0.48$ , two-sided t-test). Patient characteristics and laboratory values are listed in Table 1.

### Antibody results:

Severely ill COVID-19 patients had significantly higher total IgA titers compared to mCOVID patients (sdCOVID, mean 2.94 g/l, SD  $\pm 0.46$ ,  $P=0.01$ ; scCOVID mean 3.04 g/l, SD  $\pm 0.19$ ,  $P<0.001$ ), but not higher total IgG (sdCOVID mean 7.69 g/l, SD  $\pm 0.55$ ,  $P=0.09$ ; scCOVID not measured). They also had significantly higher anti-Cardiolipin IgA (sdCOVID mean 6.38 U/ml, SD  $\pm 0.96$ ,  $P<0.001$ ; scCOVID mean 4.86 U/ml, SD  $\pm 0.84$ ,  $P<0.001$ ), anti-Beta2

Glycoprotein-1 IgA (sdCOVID mean 8.50 U/ml, SD  $\pm$ 3.86,  $P$ <0.001; scCOVID mean 4.71 U/ml, SD  $\pm$ 2.17,  $P$ <0.001), and anti-Cardiolipin IgM (sdCOVID mean 4.01 U/ml, SD  $\pm$ 0.88,  $P$ =0.003; scCOVID mean 10.35 U/ml, SD  $\pm$ 5.48,  $P$ <0.001), as shown in Figure 1. With two other aPL antibodies we found a significant difference only in the sdCOVID but not the scCOVID cohort: anti-Cardiolipin IgG (sdCOVID mean 8.23 U/ml, SD  $\pm$ 4.02,  $P$ =0.02; scCOVID mean 2.42, SD  $\pm$ 0.54,  $P$ =0.09) and anti-Beta2 Glycoprotein-1 IgG (sdCOVID mean 1.57 U/ml, SD  $\pm$ 0.23,  $P$ =0.002; scCOVID mean 1.58 U/ml, SD  $\pm$ 0.85,  $P$ =0.15). No significant difference was found among anti-Beta2 Glycoprotein-1 IgM among the cohorts (sdCOVID mean 1.07 U/ml, SD  $\pm$ 0.25,  $P$ =0.16; scCOVID mean 2.00 U/ml, SD  $\pm$ 0.72,  $P$ =0.16), as shown in Figure 2. Hierarchical clustering analysis further demonstrates common elevations of antibody titers among patients with mild and severe COVID-19 (see Figure 3). We could not detect a correlation between sex and IgA-aPL (anti-Cardiolipin IgA male mean 4.46 U/ml, SD $\pm$ 3.70, female mean 3.47 U/ml, SD $\pm$ 3.31,  $P$ =0.26; anti-Beta2 Glycoprotein-1 IgA male mean 3.89 U/ml, SD $\pm$ 8.65, female mean 4.67 U/ml, SD $\pm$ 10.9,  $P$ =0.76), as shown in Supplementary Figure 1. Also, there was no correlation between age and IgA-aPL (anti-Beta2 Glycoprotein-1 IgA  $R$ =0.10,  $P$ =0.45; anti-Cardiolipin IgA  $R$ =0.19,  $P$ =0.12), presented in Supplementary Figure 2.

Since APS is commonly triggered by SLE serology screening was performed for all patients, as described in the methods section. One patient from the scCOVID cohort had elevated anti-La IgG (7.4 U/ml, normal < 1 U/ml) but no other lupus-specific antibodies. None of the other patients were positive for any SLE-associated antibodies.

## DISCUSSION

In this study we measured total IgA and IgG, as well as aPL in COVID-19 patients of similar age and compared the results of mildly ill with severely ill patients from independent tertiary care health care centers. For severely ill patients we established a discovery and

investigation cohort. Our novel finding shows a marked elevation of total IgA that is significantly associated with severe COVID-19, which to our knowledge has not been reported before. There is no significant association with total IgG. These data support our hypothesis, that a strong, IgA-driven immune response possibly emerges from the BALT when SARS-CoV-2 affects the deeper respiratory system [16]. In line with literature, about a third of severely ill patients developed thromboses [10] that did not correlate with d-dimer levels [17, 18]. These thromboses may be explained by an elevation of total IgA and aPL IgA antibodies, which we found to be significantly associated with severe illness. This correlation could neither be seen for total IgG, nor for aPL IgG antibodies. While an association of elevated aPL and severe COVID-19 has been suggested [19], the elevation of total IgA together with IgA-aPL when comparing mild and severe COVID-19 is novel and draws the missing link between immune response and hypercoagulation, as it strongly suggests induction of IgA-dominated APS. APS is most commonly triggered by SLE [12], which was excluded in all patients through serological screening [20]. Another potential trigger of APS is infection, including pneumonia, that leads to autoimmunity via molecular mimicry [21-23]. In the case of COVID-19 such a mechanism may be mediated by pulmonary surfactant, as it is rich in phospholipid-binding proteins [24]. Surfactant is produced by type-II pneumocytes, which express high levels of ACE-2 receptors and are a primary target of SARS-CoV-2 [8, 25]. Pneumocyte necrosis leads to surfactant leakage, exposing phospholipid proteins to the immune system. It is feasible that peptide commonalities between SARS-CoV-2 and surfactant proteins induce APS. Indeed, a high coverage of such peptide commonalities has recently been demonstrated by Kanduc D. et al., who found that almost half of the immunoreactive epitopes on the spike glycoprotein of SARS-CoV-2 share pentapeptides on human surfactant-related proteins [26]. In practice, preliminary results of the COVID-19 therapy (RECOVERY) trial demonstrate a significant benefit of dexamethasone therapy for severely ill patients [27], further suggesting an important role of immune exacerbation in COVID-19 related deaths. The effects of aPL could be further enhanced by toll-like receptor-4, which is upregulated in patients with SARS [28] and has been shown to enhance

hypercoagulation [29]. Importantly, these data support a link between IgA and Kawasaki disease-like multisystem inflammatory syndrome in children (MIS-C). MIS-C is a novel COVID-19 related disease that shows significant overlaps with classical Kawasaki disease (KD) but has a later onset and tends to be more severe [30, 31]. Interestingly, classical KD is most commonly associated with respiratory viruses [32] and rare severe KD has been shown to be associated with organ deposits of IgA-producing plasma cells [33, 34]. This suggests that elevated total IgA may have a causal role in MIS-C.

### **Study limitations:**

Main limitations of the study are its cohort sizes and retrospective design. Furthermore, the study does not include longitudinal measurements of antibodies. Due to an inconsistent availability of data on past history of thrombosis, pro-inflammatory cytokines and clinical outcome, these factors could not be considered. Furthermore, C-reactive protein and d-dimer levels were only available from the severely ill cohorts. Nevertheless, the inclusion of cohorts from independent health care centers, as well as a discovery and a confirmation cohort of patients with severe COVID-19 from different hospitals for additional validation are major strengths of the study.

In conclusion, we present a novel significant association between severe COVID-19, elevated total IgA and IgA-aPL. These findings imply that autoantibodies may hold a causal role in severe COVID-19 and its systemic complications. The data strongly suggest that COVID-19 is a potent inductor of autoimmunity and recommend further studies with larger cohorts, longitudinal sampling and mechanistic exploration.

**Acknowledgements:**

We thank Dorothea Hillmann and Francesca Ferrara (both from Labormedizinisches Zentrum Dr. Risch) for their laboratory analysis contributions.

**Funding:**

This work was supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation [PP00P3\_157448 to L.F., P400PM\_194473 to O.H.A., and PZ00P3\_179919 to P.K.] and the Research Fund of the Kantonsspital St. Gallen [to L.F.].

**Disclosures:**

J.P. is founder and shareholder of Apeiron (Vienna, Austria) developing soluble ACE-2 as a COVID-19 therapy. J.P. has no direct conflict of interest related to the paper or data in the paper. All other authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

## REFERENCES

1. Gorbalenya AE, Baker SC, Baric RS, et al. The species Severe acute respiratory syndrome-related coronavirus: classifying 2019-nCoV and naming it SARS-CoV-2. *Nature Microbiology* 2020; 5:536-44.
2. Drosten C, Gunther S, Preiser W, et al. Identification of a novel coronavirus in patients with severe acute respiratory syndrome. *N Engl J Med* 2003; 348:1967-76.
3. Banerjee A, Baid K, Mossman K. Molecular Pathogenesis of Middle East Respiratory Syndrome (MERS) Coronavirus. *Curr Clin Microbiol Rep* 2019; 6:139-47.
4. Monteil V, Kwon H, Prado P, et al. Inhibition of SARS-CoV-2 Infections in Engineered Human Tissues Using Clinical-Grade Soluble Human ACE2. *Cell* 2020; 181:905-13.e7.
5. Brandtzaeg P, Jahnsen FL, Farstad IN. Immune functions and immunopathology of the mucosa of the upper respiratory pathways. *Acta Otolaryngol* 1996; 116:149-59.
6. Yu H-q, Sun B-q, Fang Z-f, et al. Distinct features of SARS-CoV-2-specific IgA response in COVID-19 patients. *European Respiratory Journal* 2020.
7. Chen T, Wu D, Chen H, et al. Clinical characteristics of 113 deceased patients with coronavirus disease 2019: retrospective study. *BMJ* 2020;368: m1091.
8. Carsana L, Sonzogni A, Nasr A, et al. Pulmonary post-mortem findings in a series of COVID-19 cases from northern Italy: a two-centre descriptive study. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2020.

9. Wise J. Covid-19 and thrombosis: what do we know about the risks and treatment? *BMJ* 2020; 369:m2058.
10. Klok FA, Kruip M, van der Meer NJM, et al. Incidence of thrombotic complications in critically ill ICU patients with COVID-19. *Thromb Res* 2020; 191:145-7.
11. Zhang Y, Xiao M, Zhang S, et al. Coagulopathy and Antiphospholipid Antibodies in Patients with Covid-19. *N Engl J Med* 2020; 382:e38.
12. Schreiber K, Sciascia S, de Groot PG, et al. Antiphospholipid syndrome. *Nat Rev Dis Primers* 2018; 4:17103.
13. Corman VM, Landt O, Kaiser M, et al. Detection of 2019 novel coronavirus (2019-nCoV) by real-time RT-PCR. *Euro Surveill* 2020; 25:2000045.
14. Pfefferle S, Reucher S, Norz D, Lutgehetmann M. Evaluation of a quantitative RT-PCR assay for the detection of the emerging coronavirus SARS-CoV-2 using a high throughput system. *Euro Surveill* 2020; 25:2000152.
15. World Health Organization (WHO). Clinical Management of COVID-19: interim guidance, 27 May 2020. Available at: <https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/332196/WHO-2019-nCoV-clinical-2020.5-eng.pdf>. Accessed 16 August 2020.
16. Pilette C, Ouadrhiri Y, Godding V, Vaerman JP, Sibille Y. Lung mucosal immunity: immunoglobulin-A revisited. *Eur Respir J* 2001; 18:571-88.
17. Yao Y, Cao J, Wang Q, et al. D-dimer as a biomarker for disease severity and mortality in COVID-19 patients: a case control study. *J Intensive Care* 2020; 8:49.



18. Yu B, Li X, Chen J, et al. Evaluation of variation in D-dimer levels among COVID-19 and bacterial pneumonia: a retrospective analysis. *J Thromb Thrombolysis* 2020. Jun 10:1-10.
19. Zhang Y, Cao W, Jiang W, et al. Profile of natural anticoagulant, coagulant factor and anti-phospholipid antibody in critically ill COVID-19 patients. *J Thromb Thrombolysis* 2020. Jul 9:1-7.
20. Aringer M, Costenbader K, Daikh D, et al. 2019 European League Against Rheumatism/American College of Rheumatology Classification Criteria for Systemic Lupus Erythematosus. *Arthritis Rheumatol* 2019; 71:1400-12.
21. Shoenfeld Y, Blank M, Cervera R, Font J, Raschi E, Meroni PL. Infectious origin of the antiphospholipid syndrome. *Ann Rheum Dis* 2006; 65:2-6.
22. Cervera R, Asherson RA, Acevedo ML, et al. Antiphospholipid syndrome associated with infections: clinical and microbiological characteristics of 100 patients. *Ann Rheum Dis* 2004; 63:1312-7.
23. Mendoza-Pinto C, Garcia-Carrasco M, Cervera R. Role of Infectious Diseases in the Antiphospholipid Syndrome (Including Its Catastrophic Variant). *Curr Rheumatol Rep* 2018; 20:62.
24. Fessler MB, Summer RS. Surfactant Lipids at the Host-Environment Interface. Metabolic Sensors, Suppressors, and Effectors of Inflammatory Lung Disease. *Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol* 2016; 54:624-35.
25. Nkadi PO, Merritt TA, Pillers DA. An overview of pulmonary surfactant in the neonate: genetics, metabolism, and the role of surfactant in health and disease. *Mol Genet Metab* 2009; 97:95-101.
26. Kanduc D, Shoenfeld Y. On the molecular determinants of the SARS-CoV-2 attack. *Clin Immunol* 2020; 215:108426.

27. Horby P, Lim WS, Emberson, JR, et al. Dexamethasone in Hospitalized Patients with Covid-19 - Preliminary Report. *N Engl J Med* 2020.
28. Imai Y, Kuba K, Neely GG, et al. Identification of oxidative stress and Toll-like receptor 4 signaling as a key pathway of acute lung injury. *Cell* 2008; 133:235-49.
29. Laplante P, Fuentes R, Salem D, et al. Antiphospholipid antibody-mediated effects in an arterial model of thrombosis are dependent on Toll-like receptor 4. *Lupus* 2016; 25:162-76.
30. Toubiana J, Poirault C, Corsia A, et al. Kawasaki-like multisystem inflammatory syndrome in children during the covid-19 pandemic in Paris, France: prospective observational study. *BMJ* 2020; 369:m2094.
31. Verdoni L, Mazza A, Gervasoni A, et al. An outbreak of severe Kawasaki-like disease at the Italian epicentre of the SARS-CoV-2 epidemic: an observational cohort study. *Lancet* 2020; 395:1771-8.
32. Dietz SM, van Stijn D, Burgner D, et al. Dissecting Kawasaki disease: a state-of-the-art review. *Eur J Pediatr* 2017; 176:995-1009.
33. Rowley AH, Eckerley CA, Jack HM, Shulman ST, Baker SC. IgA plasma cells in vascular tissue of patients with Kawasaki syndrome. *J Immunol* 1997; 159:5946-55.
34. Rowley AH, Shulman ST, Mask CA, et al. IgA plasma cell infiltration of proximal respiratory tract, pancreas, kidney, and coronary artery in acute Kawasaki disease. *J Infect Dis* 2000; 182:1183-91.

**Table 1. Overview of patient characteristics**

Patient characteristics	Mild illness (n=26)	Severe illness, Discovery cohort (n=14)	Severe illness, Confirmation cohort (n=24)
Sex - No. (%)			
Male	9 (35)	8 (57)	20 (83)
Female	17 (65)	6 (43)	4 (17)
Age (median, IQR) - yr	57 (45-63)	64 (56-70)	73 (64-80)
Comorbidities <sup>a</sup> - No. (%)			
No	22 (85)	2 (14)	0 (0)
Yes	4 (15)	12 (86)	24 (100)
Hypertension	3 (12)	10 (71)	16 (67)
Cardiovascular disease	0 (0)	6 (43)	19 (79)
Cerebrovascular disease	0 (0)	0 (0)	6 (25)
Diabetes	1 (4)	5 (36)	8 (33)
Liver disease	0 (0)	0 (0)	5 (21)
Cancer	0 (0)	0 (0)	9 (38)
Kidney disease	0 (0)	5 (36)	7 (29)
Thromboembolisms, No. (%)			
Yes	0 (0)	4 (29)	9 (38)
No	26 (100)	10 (71)	15 (63)
Immunosuppression, No. (%) <sup>b</sup>			
Yes	0 (0)	5 (36)	5 (21)
No	26 (100)	9 (64)	19 (79)
Laboratory parameters (median, IQR)			
C-reactive protein (mg/l) <sup>c</sup>	n/a	228 (95-303)	201 (161-262)
Patients contributing to this calculation (n, %)	0 (0)	14 (100)	24 (100)
D-dimers (mg/l) <sup>d</sup>	n/a	1.69 (1.01- 2.41)	1.94 (0.99- 12.03)
Patients contributing to this calculation (n, %)	0 (0)	10 (71)	21 (88)

<sup>a</sup>Comorbidities only consider diagnoses that are known risk factors for developing severe COVID-19, as listed.

<sup>b</sup>Immunosuppression is defined as systemically administered prednisone  $\geq 7.5$ mg/day (or equivalent), other systemic immunosuppressive drugs, such as calcineurin inhibitors, and chemotherapy.

<sup>c,d</sup> Maximum values of C-reactive protein and D-dimers during hospitalization. Only patients with values available were included (n provided in consecutive line). Percentages adding to >100 are due to number rounding.

Abbreviations: IQR, interquartile range; n/a, not available; mg/l, milligrams per liter; No., number; yr, years.

## FIGURE LEGENDS

**Figure 1. Antibodies significantly associated with severe COVID-19 in both cohorts.** Plot titles indicate the respective protein targets and type of immunoglobulin. Y-axes reflect measured results and units. X-axes display patient counts.

**Figure 2. Antibodies with partial or no significant association with severe COVID-19.** Plot titles indicate the respective protein targets and type of immunoglobulin. Y-axes reflect measured results and units. X-axes display patient counts.

**Figure 3. Hierarchical clustering of antibody levels across patients.** The heatmap depicts common shifts of antibody levels among patients with mild illness and severe COVID-19. Rows show antibodies and columns patients. All antibody levels are median centered and are displayed as fold relative compared to the median, with higher titers colored red and lower titers blue. For missing results, the mean value of the respective antibody/immunoglobulin was used. The scale bar (bottom center) denotes the x-fold levels.



Mild illness

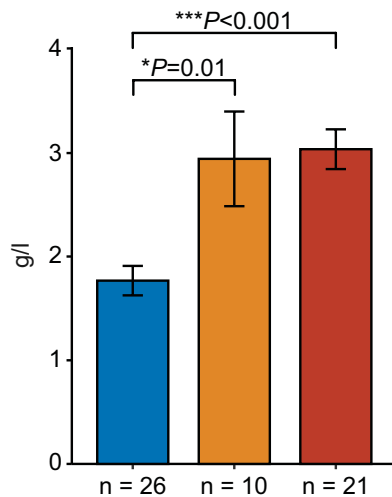


Severe illness,  
Discovery cohort

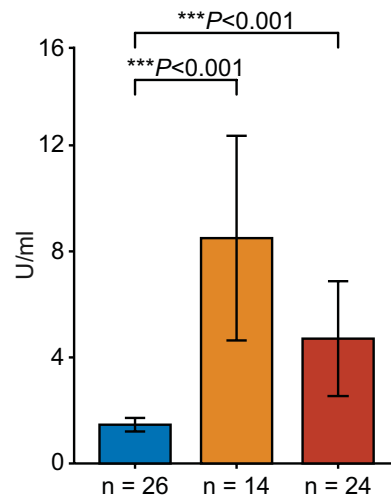


Severe illness,  
Confirmation cohort

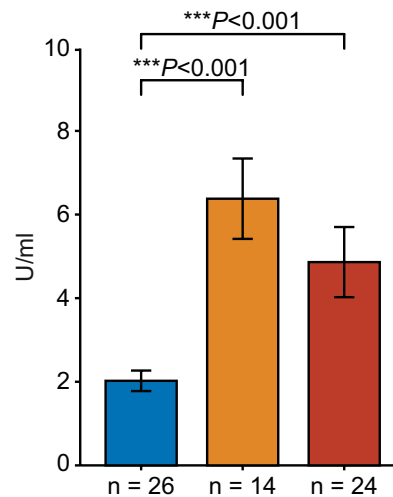
### Total IgA



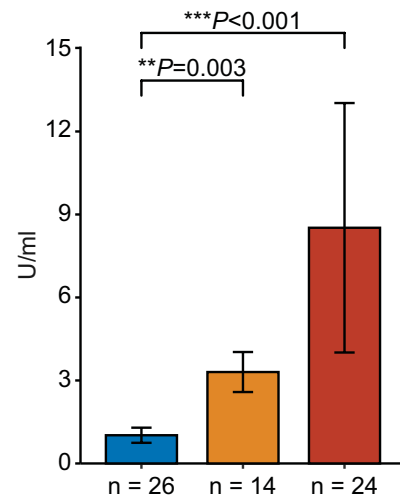
### Beta-2 Glycoprotein-1 IgA



### Cardiolipin IgA



### Cardiolipin IgM





Mild illness

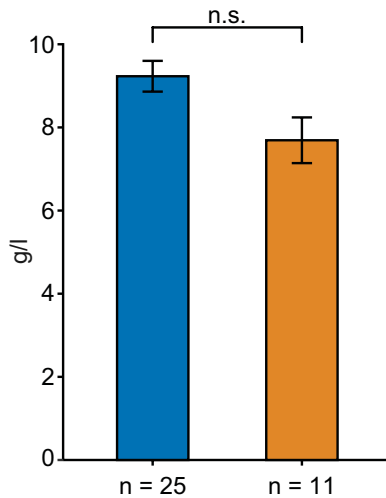


Severe illness,  
Discovery cohort

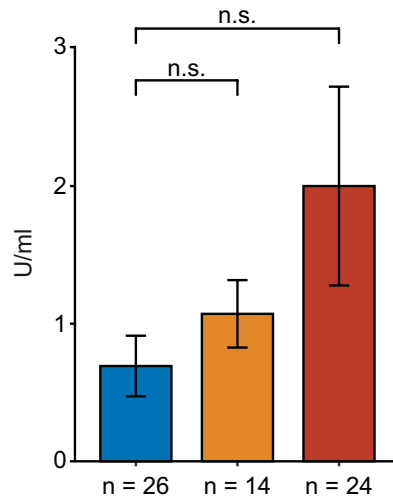


Severe illness,  
Confirmation cohort

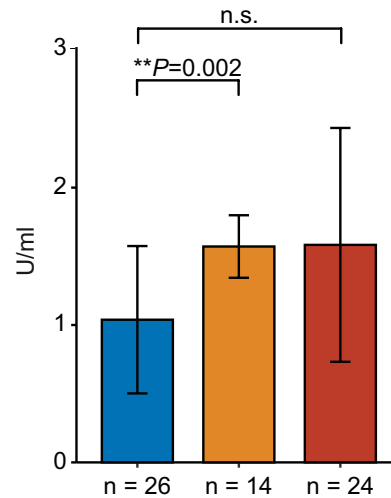
### Total IgG



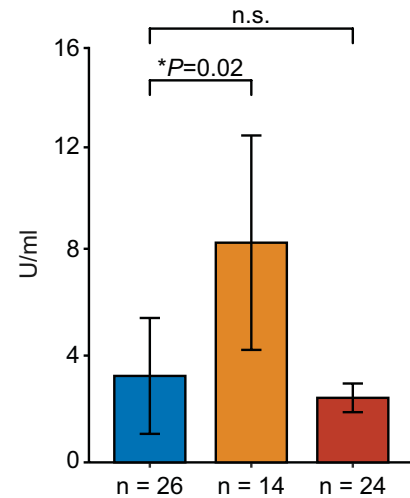
### Beta-2 Glycoprotein-1 IgM



### Beta-2 Glycoprotein-1 IgG

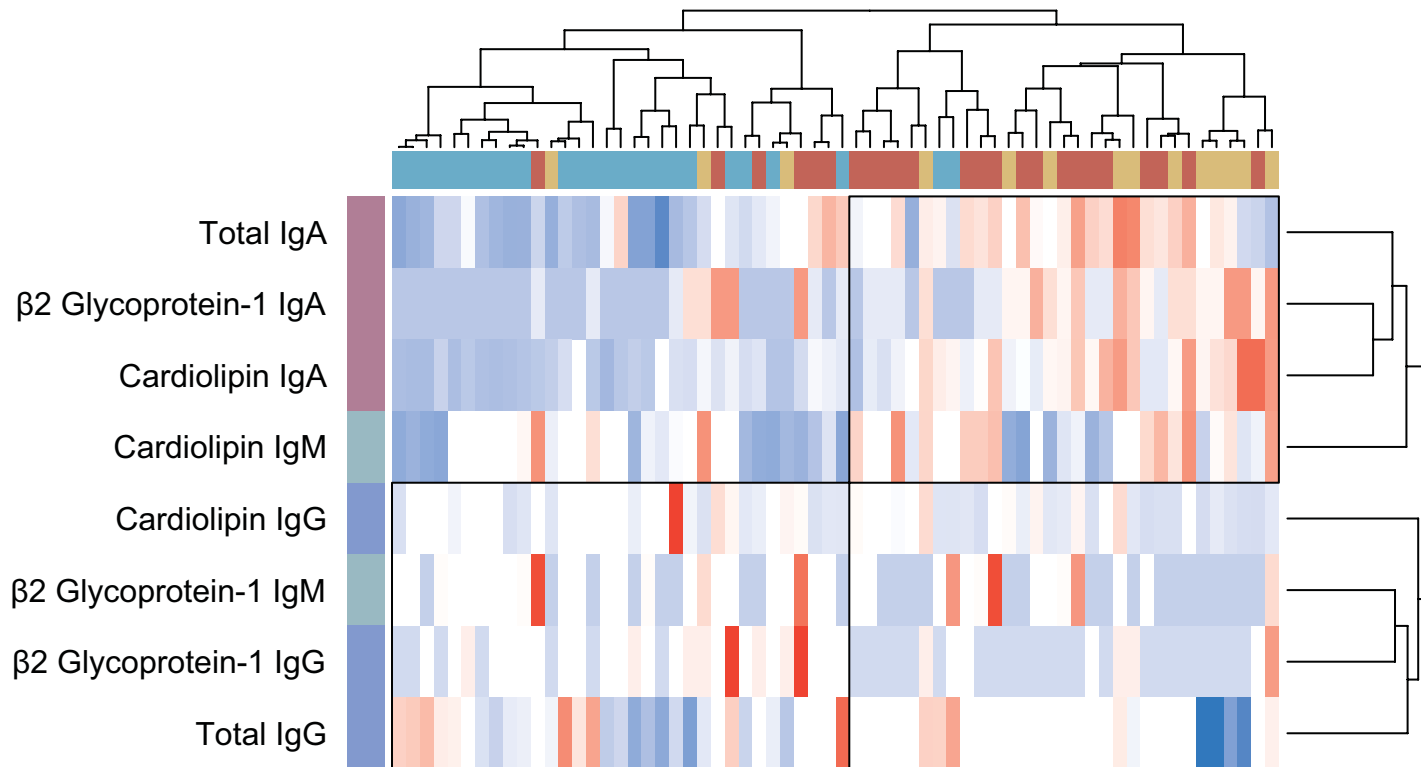


### Cardiolipin IgM



# Patients

Antibodies



Antibody class

IgA  
IgG  
IgM

Ab level

-2 0 2 4

Mild illness

Severe illness, Discovery cohort

Severe illness, Confirmation cohort