Comprehensive Landscape of Non-muscle Invasive Bladder Cancer Tumour Microenvironment and Prognostic value of Cancer-Associated Myofibroblasts

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ABSTRACT

Background: Non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer (NMIBC) is challenging due to high

recurrence and progression rates. Bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG) is the standard

treatment for high-risk NMIBC, but emergence of anti-PD-1/PD-L1 drugs necessitates a

deeper understanding of the tumour microenvironment (TME) for improved prognostic

markers and therapies.

Objective: To extensively analyse NMIBC's TME, focusing on cellular composition, PD-L1

expression, and the role of cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAFs) in prognosis.

Design, Setting, and Participants: A prospective study between December 2019 and

December 2022 collected 98 NMIBC and non-pathological tissue (NPT) samples from

cytology-positive/suspicious patients (66 patients in final analysis).

Intervention(s): Assessment of immune and non-immune cell subsets and PD-L1

expression using flow cytometry. Transcriptomic data and histology validated findings

and evaluated prognostic markers.

Outcome Measurements and Statistical Analysis: We assessed the distribution of 11

cell types and PD-L1 expression in NMIBC, comparing them to NPT and across

pathological stage and grade. Statistical methods evaluated the association of

myofibroblasts (myoCAFs) and other CAF subsets with progression-free and recurrence-

free survival.

Results and Limitations: Compared to NPT, NMIBC's TME exhibited microvascular

alterations, increased fibroblast and myoCAF presence, and varying immune cell

distribution. Heterogeneous PD-L1 expression was observed across subsets, with cancer

cells as primary potential anti-PD-L1 binding targets. MyoCAFs were associated with

high grade tumours and poor prognosis, while other CAF subsets were not. Study

limitations included a modest sample size and a relatively short follow-up period.

Conclusions: This comprehensive analysis provides a roadmap to establish the full

NMIBC's TME, highlighting myoCAFs as potential prognostic markers. Understanding its

complexity may enhance therapeutic strategies and risk stratification for NMIBC

patients. Further research is essential to validate findings and explore myoCAF

implications in NMIBC therapy.

Patient Summary: We described the composition of non-muscle invasive bladder

cancer, identified cellular components associated with aggressive tumors, and found

markers to predict outcome.

INTRODUCTION (342)

The tumour microenvironment (TME) varies among tumours, main elements including immune cells, stromal cells, blood vessels and non-cellular components such as the extracellular matrix [1]. While there is a wealth of works that study the TME in advanced bladder cancer (BLCA) [2–6], this topic has been neglected in non-muscle invasive BLCA (NMIBC), specially for the non-immune TME. TME components can impact on therapy response, as has been shown for many solid tumours, including advanced BLCA. Hence, a better characterisation of the TME in NMIBC is important in order to fully understand the biology of these tumours and to improve their management.

The use of anti-programmed death ligand-1 (PD-L1) check point inhibitors is rising as a novel treatment in high risk NMIBC due to limited efficacy of Bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG) therapy [7], where up to 50-70% of BCG-treated patients will experience a high-grade recurrence despite the instillations [8]. Despite promising preliminary results, the response to these drugs varies among patients [9,10]. A deeper insight of the molecules targeted by these immunotherapies is pivotal to identify which patients might respond to them. While assessment of PD-L1 expression is valuable for patient stratification in certain cancers, its usefulness in BLCA is a matter of debate, especially in NMIBC. Besides, not only tumour cells but other TME subsets express PD-L1, which may impact on therapy response and prognosis.

We hypothesized that a better characterisation of the TME composition and PD-L1 expression in NMIBC may help understanding the tumour biology and find new prognostic biomarkers and targets. This work is a prospective study in which tumour and non-pathological tissue from 66 NMIBC patients were analysed. While presence of T cell

subtypes are well characterised in NMIBC, we focused on less studied myeloid and non-

immune populations. Here, we provide a reference map of the frequencies of 11 cell

subsets in NMIBC and quantified accurately PD-L1 expression in all cell populations.

Utilizing computational tools we found that aSMA-expressing cancer-associated

fibroblasts (myoCAFs) serve as prognostic biomarkers in these patients, and validated

these findings with different techniques and patient cohorts.

MATERIALS (PATIENTS) AND METHODS (811)

Patients and samples

We recruited 98 patients with BLCA diagnosis between December 2019 and December 2022 at an academic tertiary referral hospital. Patients with muscle-invasive bladder cancer (MIBC), carcinoma in situ and those from whom we could not obtain an acceptable sample were excluded. The study was enriched for high grade, high risk tumours based on the greater clinical need for this patient population. Clinical and demographic data are summarized in supplementary table 1. This study was approved by Research Ethics Committee of the University Hospital "12 de Octubre" and informed consent was obtained from all patients.

Tissue processing

Biopsies were carefully cut into small pieces and digested to obtain single cell suspensions (supplementary methods). Then, cells were stained with Zombie aqua (BioLegend) and used for immunofluorescence staining [11]. All antibodies and kits used can be found in supplementary table 2. Samples were run in a LRSFortessa X20 flow cytometer (BD Biosciences) and analysed using the FlowJo software (FlowJo, LLC) and OMIQ platform. Computational analysis of flow cytometry data can be found in supplementary methods.

IHC and immunofluorescence

Nineteen FFPE BLCA sections (7 G1, 9 G2 and 2 G3) were stained with antibodies against aSMA, CD163, PanCK and DAPI. Antigen retrieval was performed using a pressure cooker (Dako, Agilent Technologies). Primary antibodies were incubated overnight. Antibodies

used are shown in supplementary table 2. The IHC signal was amplified with a biotin-

avidin-peroxidase system (ABC Elite Kit Vector) and visualized using diaminobenzidine

(DAB Kit, Vector Laboratories). For immunofluorescence, 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole

(DAPI) was used to stain nuclei and images were taken with a Zeiss Axioimager 2

fluorescence microscope. Cytometry analysis of immunofluorescent tissue sections can

be found in supplementary methods.

Single cell RNA-seq analysis

Single cell data from Chen et al. was analysed from raw fastq data. Briefly, reads were

pseudoaligned to GRCh38 cDNA sequence assembly using 'kallisto bus' command

(Kallisto software, default parameters) and sparse matrices were generated bustools

program and BUSspaRse R package as described [12]. Individual sample matrices loaded

with Seurat package were merged in a common object. Data was normalized

(sctransform and log normalization for the top 2000 variable genes) and stored as two

different slots of the same Seurat object. Linear dimensionality reduction was

performed using the first 20 principal components (PC) according to elbow plot

visualization. Non-linear dimensional reduction (UMAP) and clustering were performed

using these PCs. Cluster stability was visualized in a clustree analysis (resolution set to

0.2). FindAllMarkers was used for cell annotation. Macrophages were extracted and

reanalysed as an independent object. Functional analysis was performed using VISION

R package [13] and the resulting signature scores were incorporated as metadata to the

Seurat object. Construction of gene-signature scores was done using 2 and 4-fold change

differentially expressed genes for each subset or by previously published gene sets, all

shown in supplementary table 3. Scores were calculated by averaging gene expression

z-scores within a signature.

Tissue microarray

Cores from formalin-fix paraffin embedded tissue blocks were used to construct tissue

microarrays (TMA; 1.5-mm core diameter), with at least two duplicate cores per case (n

= 29), using a standard manual method (Beecher Instruments) [14]. TMAs were stained

with H&E and sections were reviewed to confirm the presence of representative tumour

tissue. Demographic, clinical and pathological data is summarised in supplementary

table 4.

Statistical Analysis

Categorical variables were expressed as absolute and relative frequency. Continuous

variables were expressed as median (interquartile range; IQR) according to a normality

test (Kolmogorov–Smirnov test). Comparisons were performed using the Wilcoxon–

Mann–Whitney test (for two groups) or the Kruskal–Wallis test (for more than two

groups) with Dunn´s multiple comparison test. The Spearman correlation analysis

method was used to determine the correlation strength and direction between

variables.

The survival analyses were performed using the Kaplan–Meier method and described by

median and range. Differences between groups were tested using the log-rank test. A

Cox proportional hazards model was fitted to estimate hazard ratio (HR) and the

corresponding 95% confidence interval (CI). A multivariable model was created with all

confounding and relevant factors and had a p-value of <0.1 in the univariate analysis.

The best multivariable statistical model was selected using Akaike Information Criterion.

A logistic regression model was created to evaluate the risk factors associated with

tumor grade. The study was completed with a multivariable analysis. A step-by-step

selection process was used to highlight the most relevant factors, to identify the

significant sets among variables and to avoid confusion in the model. We used odds

ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) to present the results of the regression

analysis.

All analyses were done using Stata InterCooled for Windows version 16 (StataCorp.

2019. Stata Statistical Software Release 16, StataCorp LLC, College Station, TX, USA),

GraphPad Prism version 9 for Windows (GraphPad Software, Boston, Massachusetts

USA) and R (version 4.2.1; R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria) and

a level of significance of 5%.

Data Sharing Policy

Data are available for bona fide researchers who request it from the authors.

RESULTS (1333)

Clinical and pathological information

We prospectively collected and processed 98 fresh tumour and non-pathological tissue

(NPT) samples according to the schematic in figure 1A. After quality control, we included

66 NMIBC tumour samples and 62 NPT biopsies in the final analysis (84.4% matched

tumour-NPT ratio). Among the 66 tumours, 27 were T1 and 39 were Ta, with grade

classifications of 15 grade 1, 18 grade 2, and 33 grade 3 (68% high risk). Supplementary

Table 1 offers a detailed summary of clinical and histopathological information.

Tumour microenvironment landscape of NMIBC

We designed two multicolour panels for immune and non-immune subset detection,

including PD-L1 expression, which allowed identification of 11 cell types (figure 1A).

Gating strategy described in supplementary figure 1A-B. Relative proportions varied

widely between NPT and tumours (figure 1B). NPT samples had abundant T cells (28.26

± 15.17%). Tumours primarily had cancer cells (44.1 ± 29.5%) followed by T cells (19.11

± 16.96%). Stromal cells, T cells, NK cells, and cDC2 were all decreased in tumors, while

macrophages were increased, in accordance to literature. To mitigate the impact of the

urothelial cell content in tumour samples, we examined cellular compartments (figure

1C). TME showed increased endothelial cells, suggesting angiogenesis. All non-immune

stroma subsets differed significantly between NPT and tumours. The immune

compartment changes paralleled those from whole tissue results, indicating differential

recruitment in tumours. We found also fibroblast activation and M2-like differentiation

of macrophages increased in tumours (supplementary figure 1C). These results suggest

overall cancer-associated inflammation in NMIBC, as expected.

Figure 1. Analysis of cell subset frequencies from total and cellular compartments. A)

Schematic representation of the prospective study design. Non-pathological and tumour

tissue biopsies were collected and digested to obtain single cell suspensions. Samples

were then stained for surface and intracellular markers and analysed in a flow

cytometer. B) Frequencies for the indicated cell lines were determined for 62 NPT and

66 tumour samples. Mean and standard deviation (in brackets) of the frequencies from

total cells for each cell subset is shown. C) Frequencies of cell subsets within the

corresponding cell compartment. Each dot represents one patient data. Statistical

analysis in B and C was done by Wilcoxon–Mann–Whitney test. * p-value<0.05; ** p-

value<0.005; *** p-value<0.0005;**** p-value<0.0001. MSC= mesenchymal stromal

cells; NK cells=natural killer cells; cDC=conventional dendritic cells.

To analyse how the NMIBC TME changes as tumour progresses, we analysed pT2G3

tumours (n=8) (supplementary figure 2). Stromal infiltration increased from pTa to pT2,

but leukocyte enrichment remained unchanged (supplementary figure 2A-B and D-E).

Only Mesenchymal Stromal Cells (MSCs) and Natural Killer (NK) cells showed significant

association to pT stage (supplementary figure 2C). Regarding tumour grade, cDC2 were

decreased, while MSCs and fibroblasts increased in G3 tumours (supplementary figure

2F). Our results reveal that despite the lack of muscle invasion, NMIBC tumours, present

a diverse microenvironment with prominent recruitment of structural and myeloid cells.

Increased PD-L1 expression in NMIBC comes from the TME

Anti-PD-L1 therapies have emerged for NMIBC management, prompting PD-L1

expression assessment in tumour compartments. NMIBC presented elevated bulk PD-

L1+ cells vs. NPT (figure 2A & B, upper panels). Notably, PD-L1+ cell increase in tumours

stemmed mainly from infiltrate, while cancer cells showed similar PD-L1 to urothelium

(figure 2A & B). Subset analysis shows that macrophages had the most PD-L1+ cells, with

anti-inflammatory M2-like macrophages especially rich in PD-L1 (figure 2C). cDC2 and

tumour cells followed, the later averaging 20% (± 14.42) PD-L1+ cells, along with non-

immune stromal cells. Of note, aSMA-expressing fibroblasts had higher proportion of

PD-L1+ cells than total fibroblasts. NK and T cells had lower PD-L1 levels as expected.

Next, we sought to highlight key anti-PD-L1 treatment potential binding targets in

NMIBC. We gated out total PD-L1+ cells and then applied our previous gating

(supplementary figure 1A and B). Cancer cells emerged as the primary binding target,

constituting 60% of PD-L1+ cells, surpassing macrophages and aSMA+ fibroblasts which

showed high proportion of PD-L1+ cells (figure 2D). Notably, cells with less understood

PD-L1 function like Neutrophils and T cells accounted together for a relevant 10% of anti-

PD-L1 targets. This underscores the need for further investigating PD-L1's role in TME

subsets. While we quantified PD-L1+ cell dynamics with tumour progression in major

compartments, no significant correlations emerged between cancer stage or grade and

PD-L1+ cell proportions (supplementary figure 3).

Figure 2. Heterogeneous expression of PD-L1 in cancer and TME cells in NMIBC. A-B)

Percentage of PD-L1+ cells was calculated using fluorescent minus one controls (blue

overlay) for all cells and main cellular compartments, and representative examples (A)

and dispersion plots (B) are shown. Each dot represents one patient data. Comparisons

were done by Wilcoxon–Mann–Whitney test. * p-value<0.05; *** p-value<0.0005; ns

non-significant. SSC-A= scatter signal channel area. NPT, non-pathological tissue. C) Box

plots showing percentage of PD-L1 positive cells within the indicated cell subsets. Each

dot represents one different patient. Median and interquartiles are shown. Subsets are

ordered from higher median of PD-L1+ cells to lowest. D) PD-L1 positive cells were gated

from total cells and subset analysis was run in this set of cells. Each dot represents one

different patient. Median and interquartiles are shown. Subsets are ordered from higher

to lower frequency median. MP = macrophages; cDC = conventional dendritic cells; ECs

= endothelial cells; Fibs = fibroblasts; MSCs = mesenchymal stromal cells.

M2-like macrophages and myofibroblasts are associated to high grade NMIBC

We used our flow cytometry data to identify markers linked to aggressive NMIBC.

Employing computational tools in an agnostic approach, we first fine-tuned our method

by comparing NPT and tumour samples, verifying findings which paralleled the manual

gating (supplementary figure 1 and 4). Subsequently, we focused on tumour samples

and generated optimized clustering in both datasets (figure 3A and F), revealing multiple

high-grade enriched cell clusters. In the myeloid panel, cluster k7-5 exhibited

macrophage markers and variable M2-like-associated markers (figure 3B-D). Manual

gating confirmed the enrichment of total macrophages and M2-like macrophages in

high-grade NMIBC, aligning with prior research [11]. For the stromal/lymphoid dataset,

two high-grade enriched clusters emerged, although only one could be defined with the

available information (figure 3G-I). Cluster k15-04 presented high CD90 and podoplanin

expression, hence being designated as cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAFs), and showed

expression of aSMA. Manual gating confirmed the association of total and aSMA+

fibroblasts with high-grade NMIBC (figure 3E and J). In summary, our unbiased analysis

pinpointed two cell types with distinct functional phenotypes enriched in high-grade

NMIBC, holding promise as potential cellular prognostic biomarkers.

Figure 3. Total and specific macrophage and fibroblast subsets are enriched in high

grade NMIBC. Computational analysis of flow cytometry data from the myeloid panel

(A-E) and stromal/lymphoid panel (F-J). (A and F) Dimensions reduction was done using

optSNE and semi-supervised clustering by FlowSOM setting at 7 and 15 the number of

metaclusters for the myeloid and stromal/lymphoid panel respectively. (B, G) G1/G2

versus G3 comparison was done by EdgeR method to determined clusters

underrepresented/enriched in G3 tumours. (C, H) Differentially represented cell clusters

are shown in the optSNE maps. (D, I) Color-coded optSNE maps show the expression of

the indicated markers. Dotted lines highlight differentially represented clusters. (E, J)

Results from manual gating validation for the indicated cell subsets. Each dot represents

one different patient. Median and interquartiles are shown. Statistical analysis was done

by Wilcoxon–Mann–Whitney test. * p-value<0.05; ** p-value<0.005.

296   M2-like macrophages and myoCAF crosstalk changes with tumour progression

Reports show macrophage-fibroblast crosstalk in solid tumours, but it is unexplored in

NMIBC. We observed a positive correlation between M2-like macrophages and

fibroblasts in NMIBC (figure 4A), suggesting crosstalk. However, this correlation

decreased in high-grade tumours (figure 4B). To investigate this, we used aSMA and

CD163 as markers for CAFs and M2-like macrophages, respectively, in tumour sections.

Image quantification hinted at more CAFs in G3 tumours, while we could not confirm

higher percentage of CD163+ macrophages (figure 4C). Analysing their spatial

relationship, CD163+ macrophages were farther from CAFs in G1 tumours (figure 4D and

E). This changed drastically in G2 tumours with closer proximity, while G3 tumours

presented increased separation, indicating evolving microenvironment dynamics.

Figure 4. Fibroblast-macrophage interactions decrease in high-grade NMIBC. A)

Correlation plot of M2-like macrophage and fibroblast frequencies from total cells in all

NMIBC samples analysed. B) p-value against correlation coefficient in all samples and

G1-2 and G3 groups. Dotted line marks statistical significance for data points above (grey

area non-significant). C-E) FFPE tissue sections were stained for Cytokeratins (PanCK),

M2-like macrophages (CD163) and myoCAFs (aSMA), plus DAPI to stain nuclei. Using the

Qupath software, cytometric analysis was applied to determine the area of aSMA

staining, excluding the vasculature, and percentage of CD163 positive cells (C). D)

Representative examples for grade 1, 2 and 3 tumour stainings. E) Quantification of the

minimum distance to non-vasculature aSMA+ areas for all CD163-negative (non-MPs)

and CD163-positive (CD163+ MPs) cells. P-values and significance (asterisks) by

Wilcoxon–Mann–Whitney test are shown. ** p-value<0.005; **** p-value<0.0001.

Macrophage subset gene signatures fail to predict NMIBC prognosis

To predict patient prognosis, and given short follow-up periods of our prospective

cohort, we explored transcriptomic data from NMIBC patients. Using a single-cell RNA-

seq dataset [5], we identified 8 macrophage clusters, with clusters 1, 2, and 3 showing M2

marker expression and resembling our flow cytometry data (supplementary figure 5A-

B). These clusters also exhibited high scores for immunosuppressive TAM subsets [15]

(supplementary figure 5C). We generated gene signatures for all relevant TAM subsets

(supplementary table 3) and challenged one of the largest NMIBC patient cohorts [16]. We

found a significant association between TAM cluster 2 and progression-free survival, but

all the other comparisons failed to predict prognosis (supplementary figure 5D-E). Thus,

immune suppressive macrophage subsets may not be a significant prognostic factor in

NMIBC.

MyoCAFs serve as cellular predictors of bad prognosis in NMIBC

We also assessed the patient cohort with gene signatures for total fibroblasts (panCAFs),

inflammatory CAFs (iCAFs), and myofibroblasts (myoCAFs), described in various solid

tumours [3]. PanCAFs and iCAFs showed no prognostic value in NMIBC patients for

recurrence-free (RFS) and progression (to MIBC)-free survival (PFS), confirmed with a

well-established panCAFs signature (supplementary figure 6A-B). Conversely, the

myoCAF signature associated with worse PFS and RFS, with statistical significance for

the latter (figure 5A). We confirmed this association using an alternative myoCAF

signature, resulting in this case in statistical association with both PFS and RFS

(supplementary figure 6C). We validated this association in an independent cohort,

highlighting a robust link between myoCAFs and RFS (figure 5A). Furthermore, myoCAFs

were enriched in the most aggressive UROMOL transcriptomic classes 2a and 2b

tumours (figure 5B), whereas panCAFs and iCAFs mainly associated with class 2b

tumours (supplementary figure 6D). Additionally, myoCAFs were enriched in genomic

classes 2 and 3 (figure 5C), linked to poorer RFS, unlike panCAFs and iCAFs

(supplementary figure 6E).

Figure 5. Abundance of myoCAFs associates with bad prognosis in NMIBC. A) A gene

signature score was generated for myoCAFs to challenge two independent

transcriptomic data cohorts of NMIBC. Patients were ranked according to this score and

three groups were formed. Kaplan–Meier plots for probability of progression-free

survival (PFS, upper panel) and recurrence-free survival (RFS, lower panels) for the two

cohorts are shown. Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test was used to calculate statistical

significance between curves. B-C) Dotplox showing myoCAF scores for patients grouped

according to UROMOL 2021 transcriptomic classes (B) and genomic classes (C). Each dot

represents one patient. P-values ** < 0.005; *** < 0.0005; **** < 0.0001 Statistical

analysis was done with Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn´s correction for multiple

comparisons. D-E) Overview of hazard ratios calculated from univariate Cox regressions

of progression-free (D) and recurrence-free (E) survival using clinical and molecular

features. Dots indicate hazard ratios and horizontal lines show 95% confidence intervals

(CI). P-values and sample sizes, n, used to derive statistics are indicated. CIS= carcinoma

in situ, EORTC= European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer, EAU=

European Association of Urology. F) Representative immunohistochemistry images

showing aSMA expression in primary tumour sections from NMIBC patients. Histological

analyses and staining was performed in a TMA with duplicates for each tumour (n = 29).

All sections were scored from 0 to 3 according to aSMA staining density in non-

vasculature areas, to exclude pericytes. G) Kaplan–Meier plot for recurrence-free

survival in patients stratified by aSMA staining score. Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test was

used to calculate statistical significance between curves.

Univariate Cox regression identified the myoCAF score as predictor of PFS (figure 5D).

Conversely, both myoCAF category and score strongly predicted RFS in NMIBC (figure

5E), with similar results in an independent cohort (supplementary figure 6F). Receiver

operating characteristic (ROC) analysis for progression prediction using logistic

regression models demonstrated a modest increase in accuracy when combining the

EAU risk score with concomitant CIS, growth pattern, and myoCAF category

(supplementary figure 6G). Similarly, combining the EAU risk score, transcriptional class

2a, and myoCAF score improved recurrence prediction (test of homogeneity p=0.0397),

from 0.532 to 0.576 (supplementary figure 6G). TMA using aSMA staining for myoCAFs

revealed a trend towards lower recurrence-free survival in patients with high myoCAF

staining (Log-rank test p-value = 0.0848) (figure 5G). Overall, these findings support

myoCAFs as potential biomarkers of recurrence in transcriptomic-based NMIBC

datasets.

DISCUSION (828)

Several studies have aimed at characterising the TME of NMIBC, with most

investigations making use of transcriptomic-based methods [16–20]. While very informative

intra-study, this type of analysis provides scores that are difficult to compare between

studies and are not well-suited in clinical practice. Immunohistological staining offers

comparative quantification of cell types, in addition to relevant spatial information, but

is limited by the number of markers that can be analysed simultaneously. Therefore,

most studies have focused on specific cell types, finding associations to therapy

response and prognosis, but failing to provide a wider picture of the NMIBC TME

landscape [21–23]. Our study is first to provide a reference map of relative proportions of

11 cell types. Comparison with non-pathological tissue allowed us to show cancer-

associated changes in the bladder mucosae. The compartment analysis provides a clear

picture of non-previously shown changes in NMIBC affecting the microvasculature, as

well as increased fibroblasts and MSC within the non-immune stroma. The differences

in the leukocyte compartment are in line with previous publications, with lower

presence of T cells but higher of macrophages and NK cells in tumours, which is further

exacerbated in MIBC [20,24] and supplementary figure 2C. This suggests a tumor promoting

role for these cells, as indicated in therapy response studies [22,25,26].

Immune checkpoint inhibitors targeting the PD-1/PD-L1 pathway have shown benefits

in MIBC, constituting a promising new treatment strategy in BCG-unresponsive high-

grade (HG) NMIBC and are under investigation in BCG naïve HG-NMIBC. Despite these

therapeutic results, the use of these targets as prognosis and predictive biomarkers is

much more controversial. Some studies have shown a significant association of high PD-

L1 expression to bad prognosis [27,28], to good prognosis [18,29–31], or no association [21,32–34].

Lack of concordance among techniques is unlikely to cause these discrepancies [35].

Nonetheless, most studies measure PD-L1 expression in the whole tissue section and/or

separating only tumour and immune-infiltrating cells, lacking the required biological

resolution. Our results show broad heterogeneity of PD-L1 expression among TME

subsets, suggesting most studies lack the granularity required to properly assess value

as a good prognosis biomarker. Furthermore, we demonstrate that, while relevant TME

cells express important levels of PD-L1, relative cellular abundancy suggests cancer cells

may act as a sink for anti-PD-L1 drugs. In addition, as opposed to other cancers [36], PD-L1

expression in NMIBC cells is similar to healthy urothelium. This suggests that immune

evasion via this molecule is a late event in BLCA progression.

CAFs have shown mostly a protumorogenic role in BLCA [37], although resident fibroblasts

have been shown to restrain tumour development in the early phases in a carcinogen-

induced mouse model [38]. These evidences suggest a switch in function as fibroblasts

differentiate into CAFs. Most studies addressing CAFs in BLCA have focused only on

MIBC or mixed cohorts, leaving NMIBC CAFs broadly ignored. We show here that

fibroblasts populate NMIBC, especially in high-grade tumours, with no differences

between Ta and T1 (data not shown). These results evidence that fibroblast recruitment

depend on cancer cell biology rather that level of invasion. Using different approaches,

we found that myoCAFs, but no other CAF subset, associate with bad prognosis in NMIBC

patients, as has been reported in MIBC [39,40]. Using immunohistochemistry, Mezheyeuski

et al tested CAF-associated markers in BLCA finding they also associated with HG-NMIBC

[41]. They found fibroblast activation protein (FAP) as the best predictor of poor outcome

although not when separating Ta, T1 and T2-4. Interestingly, aSMA was not statistically

associated to worse prognosis in the full cohort but it was for T1 tumours, in accordance

with our findings. In addition, a different CAF subset, named irCAFs, have been described

in a mix cohort of MIBC and NMIBC patients. irCAFs associate with worse overall survival

and neoadjuvant and immunotherapy response, including NMIBC, likely through

promotion of cancer stemness [3]. Future studies should apply more discriminatory

panels, and resolve the spatial distribution of cell types, to better characterise CAF

subsets in NMIBC.

We also found that CAF-macrophage crosstalk may change over NMIBC progression.

Increased interactions in early phases may correlate with co-attraction of both subsets

by BLCA cells via CXCL1 [42] and feedback loops via CCL2 and GM-CSF production by CAFs

[43]. According to our data, myoCAF-Macrophage crosstalk is reduced in high-grade

NMIBC, but this interaction is recovered in MIBC as described by others. These

observations likely reflect the dynamic nature of the TME as BLCA progresses, likely

influenced by cancer cell intrinsic characteristics plus evolution of the inflammatory

milieu since it appears tied to tumour grade progression.

Our results support a detrimental role of myoCAFs in NMIBC. Other authors have

proposed that bladder CAFs can promote BLCA growth via various factors [44-46], including

TGFβ [47-49], a key factor in myoCAF phisiology [50]. We show here that CAFs express PD-L1

and that this expression is increased in the myoCAF subset. It would be interesting to

measure expression on PD-L1 in other settings where PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors are being

tested, such as BCG-unresponsive patients.

CONCLUSIONS (67)

The NMIBC TME is composed by a heterogeneous distribution of cancer, immune and

non-immune cells. These cell types exhibit differential features, such as PD-L1

expression, which study may contribute to improve patient management. Our results

strongly suggest that myoCAFs play an important role in NMIBC. Future studies, should

elucidate how and why myoCAFs associate with worse prognosis in order to find

appropriate targets to modulate their function.

TAKE HOME MESSAGE (37)

• The tumour microenvironment of NMIBC is rich in immune and non-immune

cells, with PD-L1 expression spread across multiple cell types.

• Cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAFs) and macrophages are enriched in high-

grade NMIBC.

• MyoCAFs predict bad prognosis in NMIBC patients.

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