NK cell co-localization with epithelial cells in pancreatic cancer is influenced by fibroblasts

and ECM components

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Graphical Abstract

Abstract

Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) is the most aggressive and common type of

pancreatic cancer. PDAC has a dense, fibrotic tumor microenvironment (TME) that restricts

immune cell infiltration and contributes to poor immunotherapy responses. While T cell-based

therapies have been largely ineffective, natural killer (NK) cells—which kill tumor cells without

requiring MHC recognition—offer a promising alternative. However, their role in the PDAC

TME remains poorly understood. Here, we show that NK cells are present, active, and spatially

associated with malignant epithelial cells in human PDAC. Using cytometry by time-of-flight

(CyTOF) in murine PDAC, imaging mass cytometry (IMC) in human tumors, and CellChat

analysis of a human PDAC scRNAseq dataset, we found that NK cells interact with extracellular

matrix (ECM) components via CD44. Fibroblast-rich, desmoplastic regions appear to limit NK

cell infiltration. *In vitro* 2D and 3D assays revealed that CD44 neutralization significantly

enhances NK cell matrix invasion. These findings highlight the underappreciated presence and

tumor cell-proximal localization of NK cells in PDAC and identify ECM-CD44 interactions as a

barrier to their infiltration. Targeting these interactions may enhance NK cell-based

immunotherapy in PDAC.

Introduction

Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) is the most common form of pancreatic cancer, with a 5-year survival rate of 12%[1]. PDAC is slated to become the 2nd most common contributor to cancer-related deaths by 2030, thus there is a need for the identification of novel therapeutic approaches[2]. PDAC is considered to be immunologically "cold" as its tumor microenvironment (TME) is primarily desmoplastic as a result of extracellular matrix (ECM) production by cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAFs), accounting for at least 50% of the tumor volume[3]. This causes resistance to therapies, poor immunogenicity, and lack of activated immune cell infiltration[4,5]. Therefore, resolution of intratumoral cellular interactions within the PDAC TME is essential to identifying novel therapeutic approaches to treat this disease.

Natural killer (NK) cells remain critically understudied in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC), despite their therapeutic relevance and prognostic significance. Unlike T cells, NK cells can kill tumor cells independent of antigen presentation, making them uniquely suited to bypass PDAC's immunosuppressive mechanisms[6]. Yet, while the PDAC tumor microenvironment (TME) has been extensively profiled for T cell and myeloid interactions[7,8,9] [10,11,12], the spatial organization, functional states, and microenvironmental constraints on NK cells remain largely uncharacterized. This knowledge gap is especially consequential given our recent findings that higher NK cell infiltration correlates with significantly improved survival in PDAC patients and is required for tumor control in preclinical models[13]. Without a detailed understanding of how NK cells are positioned, regulated, and restricted within the PDAC stroma, it remains unclear whether—and how—they can be harnessed for therapeutic benefit. Our study addresses this unmet need by combining high-dimensional spatial and functional profiling to

define NK cell localization, activation, and interaction with the ECM in human and murine

PDAC.

Here, we used multiple approaches to investigate the spatial and functional relationships

of NK cells within the murine and human PDAC TME. First, we performed imaging mass

cytometry (IMC), a high-dimensional spatial proteomics platform that maintains tissue

architecture while capturing single cell data[14], and found that that activated NK cells co-localize

and form close interaction networks with malignant epithelial cells in human PDAC tumors.

Importantly, this spatial association was inversely correlated with fibroblast abundance and

Collagen I expression, suggesting that ECM-rich regions exclude NK cells. Second, we analyzed

immune cell infiltration in two KPC-derived, orthotopic murine PDAC models (KP1 and mT3-

2D) using cytometry by time-of-flight (CyTOF), which revealed consistent NK cell infiltration,

confirming their presence across model systems. Third, we applied CellChat—a ligand-receptor

interaction inference tool— to a publicly available human PDAC single-cell RNA-seq dataset,

and identified a previously undescribed interaction between CD44 on NK cells and collagens

expressed by malignant epithelial cells and fibroblasts. Based on this, we hypothesized that

ECM–NK cell interactions restrict NK cell invasion. In 2D and 3D *in vitro* collagen-containing

matrix assays, CD44 neutralization significantly enhanced NK cell invasion. These findings

demonstrate that the PDAC TME limits NK cell access via ECM-derived cues and reveal CD44

as a modifiable barrier to NK cell infiltration and potential therapeutic translation.

Results

Spatial proteomic analysis of the human PDAC TME resolves PDAC cell populations

To resolve the spatial landscape of the human PDAC TME, we performed IMC, on a

tissue microarray (TMA) of primary tumor samples from 21 treatment-naive PDAC patients. We

used a custom 40-marker metal-conjugated antibody panel targeting epithelial, immune, and

stromal lineages (**Supplementary Table S1**), and acquired 44 high-resolution pseudoimages

across patients' cores of primary tumor samples from 21 treatment-naive PDAC patients

(**Supplementary Table S2**). Using CyTOF technology, tissue images are reconstructed with

single cell resolution to enable higher order single cell proteomic and spatial analyses[14,15]

Following a known IMC cell segmentation pipeline[16] (**Fig. 1A**), we identified 412,862 cells in 44

IMC pseudoimages from these patients. Single-cell protein expression data were extracted for

downstream single-cell proteomic and spatial analyses[17]. Using Seurat-based analysis,

expression data was log-normalized and cell populations were identified using supervised

clustering approaches[18]. Canonical cell phenotype markers (CD11b, CD16, CD20, CD3,

CD45RO, CD4, CD56, CD68, CD8α, E-cadherin, FAP, NKG2D, αSMA, Pan-cytokeratin,

Vimentin) were used to distinguish between immune cells, epithelial cells, and fibroblasts during

cell clustering, which identified 8 predominant cell types (**Figs. 1B-C**): αSMA^{+} fibroblasts, B

cells, CD4^{+} T cells, CD8^{+} T cells, epithelial cells, FAP^{+} fibroblasts, macrophages, and NK cells.

These main cell types were then subclustered to identify the functional state of these cell

populations using the remaining markers in our IMC panel (**Supplementary Table S1**), and we

identified 29 distinct clusters to define active, proliferative, and apoptotic cell states

(**Supplementary Fig. S1**). As expected in PDAC, the majority of cells were fibroblasts and

epithelial cells, and we were able to define distinct immune cell populations, including NK cells

(**Figs. 1D-F**). We also observed that within our patient samples that there was a similar

proportion of NK cells to that of CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cell populations, suggesting the potential

relevance of NK cells in the human PDAC TME (**Fig. 1D**).

Figure 1: Spatial proteomic analysis of the human PDAC TME resolves PDAC cell

populations. A. Schematic of IMC workflow. **B.** UMAP of IMC-defined cell populations from

21 untreated PDAC patient samples. **C.** Heatmap of scaled log-normalized protein expression

intensities of canonical marker expression used to phenotype segmented human PDAC cell

populations. 15k cells randomly subsampled from the 21 PDAC patient samples are displayed.

D. Bar plot showing percentages of cell populations per PDAC patient. **E.** Representative IMC

pseudoimage of the human PDAC TME highlighting distinctions between epithelial cells (Pan-

cytokeratin and E-cadherin; pink), fibroblasts (αSMA and FAP; blue), and immune cells

(CD45RO; yellow). **F.** Single cell image (Cytomapper) of **E** displaying all identified cell types

from **B-D**.

NK cells and epithelial cells co-localize and interact in murine and human PDAC TME

We next sought to define the spatial interactions of NK cells within the human PDAC

TME using IMC. Qualitative evaluation of the IMC images revealed that NK cells co-localized

with epithelial cells in the human PDAC TME (**Fig. 2A**), which we confirmed using multiplex

immunofluorescence (IF) on 26 additional human PDAC samples (**Figs. 2B–C, Supplementary**

Fig. S2). To systematically quantify spatial relationships, we performed a cellular neighborhood

analysis[19] to classify distinct multi-cellular structures based on their functional status and cellular

interactions[19]. This analysis identified eight distinct cellular neighborhoods (**Supplementary**

Fig. S3). Notably, cellular neighborhoods 2 and 6 marked epithelial-ductal regions, with

neighborhood 2 highly enriched in both epithelial and NK cells (**Supplementary Figs. S3A-B**).

Interestingly, within these epithelial-ductal zones, NK cells were more abundant than CD4$^+$ or

CD8$^+$ T cells (**Supplementary Figs. S3–S4**), suggesting a preferential NK–tumor cell spatial

association. Conversely, epithelial-ductal regions featuring proliferative-epithelial cells, from

cellular neighborhood 6, had more cells from cellular neighborhood 5, which was rich in αSMA$^+$

fibroblasts (**Supplementary Figs. S3–S4**). These observations suggest that fibroblast-rich

regions support epithelial cell proliferation and prevent immune cell infiltration, supporting the

concept that fibroblasts act as immune decoys or deterrents in the PDAC TME.

Fibroblast composition also influenced neighborhood architecture; neighborhood 4

(immune-rich) surrounded epithelial areas with apoptotic features, while neighborhood 5

(αSMA$^+$ fibroblast-rich) was associated with regions of epithelial and fibroblast proliferation,

suggesting that fibroblast-rich zones support tumor cell growth and hinder immune access.

Neighborhood 8, containing active NK cells, had the second highest abundance of apoptotic

epithelial cells, further implicating NK cells in direct anti-tumor responses. Strikingly,

neighborhood 2 also exhibited the highest abundance of IFNγ^+ epithelial cells, with NK cells

being the dominant immune population present (**Supplementary Fig. S4**). These observations

support the hypothesis that NK cells are cytotoxic to malignant epithelial cells in human PDAC

and demonstrate that spatial analysis identifies NK cell-epithelial cell co-localization.

To test for specific cellular interactions, we conducted a permutation-based interaction

analysis[17]. Notably, this demonstrated that NK cells significantly interacted with apoptotic

epithelial cells more than CD8$^+$ T cells (**Fig. 2D**)—a previously undescribed finding in PDAC.

Euclidean distance analysis[8,20] further confirmed that NK cells, but not CD8$^+$ T cells, were

closely associated with epithelial cells, while αSMA$^+$ fibroblasts were the nearest stromal

population to NK cells (**Fig. 2E**), raising the possibility that fibroblasts may spatially restrict

NK–tumor engagement. A cell–cell network analysis[8] reinforced these findings: NK cell nodes

clustered around epithelial and apoptotic epithelial cell nodes but were spatially distant from T

cell nodes (**Fig. 2F**), highlighting the distinct localization and potential cytotoxic role of NK cells

in the PDAC TME.

To corroborate the presence of NK cells observed by IMC and Vectra, we performed

CyTOF analysis of infiltrating immune cells in two orthotopic, KPC-derived murine PDAC

tumor models (**Fig. 3**): KP1 *(LSL-Kras^{G12D}/Trp53$^{flox/+}$/p48-CRE)* and mT3-2D *(Kras$^{+/LSL-G12D}$;*

Trp53$^{+/LSL-R172H}$; Pdx1-Cre)[21]. Using an unsupervised density-based clustering approach, t-

distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (t-SNE)[22], we visualized the immune populations

present in each model (**Figs. 3C, 3G**), with cell identities assigned based on canonical lineage

markers (**Supplementary Fig. S5**). A total of 27 immune subsets were identified through

established gating strategies[23] (**Supplementary Fig. S6**).

NK cells (NK1.1$^+$, NKp46$^+$) were consistently present in both tumor models, representing

a prominent innate immune component despite the overall immunosuppressive

microenvironment (**Figs. 3D, 3H**). In contrast, CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells, while present, were

phenotypically distinct across models—naïve (CD44$^-$CD62L$^+$) in KP1 tumors and exhausted

(PD-1$^+$) in mT3-2D tumors (**Supplementary Fig. S7)**, suggesting a differential capacity for

adaptive immune responses. B cells and granulocytic populations dominated the CD45$^+$ fraction,

while dendritic cells were also present, primarily as conventional type 2 dendritic cells (cDC2).

These findings align with IMC and multiplex IF data that highlight NK cells as consistent and

spatially localized effectors within the tumor microenvironment of KPC-derived PDAC models.

Their presence, independent of T cell infiltration and functionality, suggests that NK cells may

represent a viable target for immunotherapeutic intervention in pancreatic cancer.

Figure 2: NK cells co-localize and interact with epithelial cells in the human PDAC TME.

A. Representative IMC pseudoimages displaying NK cell-epithelial cell co-localization (αSMA

= blue; E-cadherin, Pan-cytokeratin = pink; NKG2D = yellow, scale bar = 100 µm). **B.**

Representative multiplex IF image of human PDAC showing NK cell-epithelial cell co-

localization (Pan-cytokeratin = cyan, NKp46 = yellow, αSMA = magenta, scale bar = 50 µm). **C.**

Quantification of percentages of NCAM$^+$ and NKp46$^+$ NK cells and panCK$^+$ epithelial cells from

B (n = 20). **D.** Cellular interaction analysis (blue = strong avoidance, red = strong interaction;

FDR, $p < 0.01$) of IMC-defined cell subpopulations. **E.** Bar plots of mean relative minimum

distance to NK cells (pixels) per patient (n = 21) revealed that epithelial cells in PDAC are the

196   closest to NK cells. Cell populations that were significantly distant from epithelial cells were

197   calculated using a Kruskal-Wallis test (*$p < 0.05$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$). **F.** Network

198   graph of the top 75% of interactions between all IMC-defined cell

199   populations in human PDAC showing epithelial cells and NK cells exist in similar networks.

Figure 3: Intra-tumoral NK and dendritic cells are in multiple orthotopic, KPC-derived murine PDAC models. A. Schematic representation of *in vivo* experimental design in the KP1 tumor model. **B.** Tumor mass at time of analysis (g). **C.** Identification of major immune subsets based on t-SNE plot. **D.** Further quantification of proportion of immune subsets identified via t-SNE analysis (n=3 per group, each dot representing two to three tumors from individual mice). **E.** Schematic representation of *in vivo* experimental design in the mT3-2D tumor model. **F.** Tumor mass at time of analysis (g). **G.** Identification of major immune subsets based on t-SNE plot. **H.** Further quantification of proportion of immune subsets identified via t-SNE analysis (n=6 per group, each dot representing one to two tumors from individual mice).

Fibroblast abundance and Collagen I expression excludes NK cells in epithelial-ductal regions in the human PDAC TME

While spatial analyses (including neighborhood, interaction, distance, and network modeling) revealed significant colocalization of NK cells with epithelial cells in the human PDAC TME (**Fig. 2**, **Supplementary Figs. S3-S4**), the dense fibroinflammatory stroma characteristic of PDAC—driven by cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAFs)—is known to restrict immune cell infiltration[4]. Therefore, we hypothesized that epithelial-ductal ROIs would show reduced NK cell presence and function. To test this hypothesis, we leveraged previously defined epithelial-ductal regions of interest (ROIs) from our IMC-based cellular neighborhood analysis and used Seurat's[24] CellSelector function to isolate these ROIs for downstream quantification of immune and stromal cell populations (**Supplementary Fig. S3**). Epithelial-ductal ROIs were stratified into 4 quartiles based on their percentage of fibroblast abundance (**Figs. 4A-F**). We confirmed statistically significant increases in fibroblast abundance across the fibroblast

abundance quartiles we defined (**Fig. 4C**). As expected, increasing fibroblast abundance was

associated with a corresponding rise in Collagen I expression (**Fig. 4D**), consistent with

fibroblast-driven matrix deposition. Importantly, NK cell abundance decreased significantly

across fibroblast quartiles (**Fig. 4F**), indicating spatial exclusion of NK cells from fibroblast-rich

epithelial regions. This exclusion was accompanied by a reduction in NKp44^{+} and IFNγ[+]

epithelial cells (**Supplementary Fig. S8E**), cell types previously associated with NK cell-

enriched neighborhoods (**Supplementary Figs. S3-S4**). These findings suggest that fibroblast

accumulation not only limits NK cell infiltration but also attenuates NK cell–epithelial cell

interactions and associated cytolytic signaling. In contrast, CD8^{+} T cell abundance remained

unchanged across fibroblast quartiles (**Supplementary Figs. S8-S9**), supporting prior reports of

T cell preference for stromal over epithelial compartments in PDAC[25].

To determine if decreased NK cell infiltration across fibroblast abundance quartiles

correlated with cell functionality, we further evaluated the cellular-based expression of

functional markers in NK cell populations within these epithelial-ductal ROIs. We found that NK

cells retained expression of activation markers (CD69, CD107a, IFNγ) in low-fibroblast regions,

with a notable increase in Granzyme B expression (**Figs. 4G–J**). Furthermore, αSMA[+]

fibroblasts appear responsible for NK exclusion from epithelial ductal regions, with increased

αSMA[+] fibroblasts associating with reduced NK-tumor cell co-localization (**Figs. 4K-M**). These

data demonstrate that NK cells remain functionally competent where they can access epithelial

tumor cells, and that their exclusion from fibroblast-rich epithelial ROIs is associated with

impaired proximity-dependent cytolytic activity. Together, these findings provide spatial

evidence that the desmoplastic stroma in PDAC acts as a physical and functional barrier to NK

cell infiltration and effector activity within epithelial compartments. This represents a novel

mechanism of immune evasion in PDAC and suggests that stromal remodeling to reduce

fibroblast density or collagen deposition may be required to enable effective NK cell-based

immunotherapies.

Figure 4: Fibroblast abundance and Collagen I expression exclude NK cells in epithelial-ductal regions in the human PDAC TME. A. Representative IMC pseudoimages showing

αSMA (left, light blue) or collagen-I (right, dark blue) with pan-cytokeratin (panCK, pink), E-

cadherin (Ecad, pink), and NKG2D (yellow); scale bar = 100 μm with white boxes of each

fibroblast abundance quartile. **B.** Insets of representative epithelial-ductal ROIs from each

fibroblast abundance quartile (Q1-Q4) shown in the white insets in **A**. Bar plots of percent

cells/ducts (mean ± SEM) of **C.** total fibroblasts, **E.** epithelial cells, and **F.** NK cells in epithelial-

ductal ROIs ranked by fibroblast abundance quartile (2-way ANOVA; ****$p < 0.0001$; n = 952,

total epithelial-ductal ROIs). **D.** Bar plots of percent cells/ducts (mean ± SEM) of total collagen-I

expression in epithelial-ductal ROIs ranked by fibroblast abundance quartile (2-way ANOVA;

*$p < 0.05$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$; n = 230, total epithelial ductal ROIs). Violin plots

showing NK cell-based expression in Q1 and Q4 fibroblast abundance quartiles of **G.** CD69 **H.**

CD107α **I.** IFNγ, and **J.** Granzyme B (Kruskal-Wallis test). **K.** Representative multiplex IF

image of human PDAC showing fibroblast exclusion of NK cells in PDAC epithelial-ductal

regions (Pan-cytokeratin (panCK) = cyan, NKp46 = yellow, αSMA = magenta, scale bar = 200

μm). **L.** Zoomed insets of **K.** displaying NKp46$^+$/panCK$^+$/αSMA$^+$ and (top) NKp46$^-$

/panCK$^+$/αSMA$^+$ (bottom) PDAC epithelial-ductal regions. **M.** Quantification of co-localization

of CD56$^+$/αSMA$^+$, CD56$^+$/panCK$^+$, and CD56$^+$/panCK$^+$/αSMA$^+$ cells in PDAC patient samples

(Pan-cytokeratin (panCK) = cyan, NKp46 = yellow, αSMA = magenta). One-way ANOVA with

Tukey's multiple comparison's test (*$p < 0.05$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$; n = 20).

CellChat identifies CD44 as a potential mediator of interactions between NK cells with

CAFs and malignant epithelial cells in human PDAC

Since IMC analysis of the PDAC TME demonstrated that NK cells preferentially interact with epithelial cells, and their infiltration is inhibited by fibroblasts, we next further elucidated their potential molecular interactions using CellChat to infer L-R interactions among NK cells, fibroblasts, and epithelial cells. CellChat is a tool with a manually curated database to infer L-R interactions from scRNAseq data[26]. We used this analysis pipeline against a recently published human PDAC scRNAseq dataset containing adjacent-normal (AdjNorm) and PDAC patient samples[27]. Because malignant epithelial cells are typically less differentiated than their normal counterparts[28], we used CytoTRACE—a computational tool that predicts cellular differentiation states from scRNA-seq data[29]—to distinguish malignant from normal epithelial populations (**Supplementary Figs. S10A-C**). To further distinguish potential fibroblast L-R pairs with NK cells, we subclustered fibroblasts to identify known PDAC CAF subpopulations and successfully identified myofibroblasts (myCAFs), inflammatory CAFs (iCAFs), antigen-presenting CAFs (apCAFs), normal fibroblasts, and stellate-like fibroblasts[30] (**Supplementary Figs. S10D-E**).

Using CellChat, we assessed the interaction strength of NK cells, fibroblast, and epithelial cell populations to determine which of these populations exhibited significant changes in their outgoing or incoming signaling between AdjNorm and PDAC disease states. CellChat analysis revealed that iCAFs and myCAFs in PDAC exhibited increased outgoing signaling compared to normal adjacent tissue, while NK cells and malignant epithelial cells were prominent signal receivers (**Fig. 5A**). This suggests that CAFs orchestrate interactions amongst these three cell populations in PDAC. Notably, NK cells in PDAC primarily received signals from apCAFs, myCAFs, iCAFs, stellate-like fibroblasts, and malignant epithelial cells (**Fig. 5B**).

Among the enriched signaling pathways, the collagen pathway showed the greatest

increase in PDAC-specific communication, driven by upregulated collagen expression in CAFs

and tumor cells (**Fig. 5C**). Within this pathway, NK cells were targeted by multiple collagen

isoforms via CD44, their primary receptor for collagen binding (**Fig. 5D**). Differential expression

analysis further showed that CD44 was uniquely upregulated in NK cells within the PDAC

TME, while collagen genes were elevated in malignant epithelial cells, iCAFs, and myCAFs

(**Fig. 5D, Supplementary Fig. S11**). These findings suggest that NK cells are sequestered within

collagen-rich regions via CD44, potentially impairing their directed migration toward tumor

targets. Thus, disrupting the CD44–collagen axis may enhance NK cell motility and antitumor

function in PDAC.

Figure 5: CellChat identifies CD44 as a potential mediator of interactions between NK cells

with CAFs and malignant epithelial cells in human PDAC. A. Incoming and outgoing

interaction strength for each cell population grouped by AdjNorm and PDAC disease states. **B.**

Heatmap of differential interaction strengths of target (y-axis) and source (y-axis) cells with bar

plots displaying the absolute values of interactions. **C.** Communication probabilities of signaling

pathways targeting NK cells between AdjNorm and PDAC disease states as measured by

information flow (pathway legend: pink = AdjNorm-specific, teal = PDAC-specific, black =

equally specific). **D.** Significant ligand-receptor pairs from the COLLAGEN signaling pathways

targeting NK cells upregulated in PDAC compared to AdjNorm (interaction legend (x-axis): pink

= AdjNorm, teal = PDAC).

CD44 neutralization increases human donor NK cell invasion *in vitro*

The CD44 glycoprotein is highly expressed by a variety of cell types[31]. While its main

ligand is hyaluronic acid (HA), which can be highly expressed by cancer and stromal cells[31],

CD44 is also known to bind to collagens, laminins, and FN1[32]. CD44 signaling is also known to

affect cellular proliferation, adhesion, and migration[31]. Based on CellChat findings, we

hypothesized that CD44-mediated binding to ECM components restricts NK cell infiltration in

PDAC by anchoring them within the stroma. To test this, we first confirmed CD44 expression of

human donor NK cells by flow cytometry (**Supplementary Fig. S12**). We then evaluated NK

cell invasion through basement-membrane and collagen-containing matrices *in vitro*. In a 2D

Boyden-Chamber Transwell assay, membranes were coated with Matrigel and NK cells were

incubated with or without a CD44-neutralizing antibody (α-CD44) (**Fig. 6A**). We found a

statistically significant increase in NK cell invasion in three of four human donor NK cell lines

upon α-CD44 exposure (**Fig. 6B-E**). To validate these findings in a more physiological context,

we employed a 3D *in vitro* model using a tumor spheroid assay (**Fig. 6F**). We generated

spheroids using the human PDAC PANC-1 cell line and embedded them with human donor NK

cells in a Collagen: Matrigel mixture with or without α-CD44 for 24 hours. After incubation,

spheroids were stained by IF and imaged. To assess NK cell infiltration, we used Pan-cytokeratin

staining to outline the spheroids and measured NK cell infiltration into PANC-1 spheroids.

Again, under conditions of α-CD44 exposure, we observed a statistically significant increase of

NK cell invasion using three human donor NK cell lines (**Figs. 6G-K**, **Supplementary Fig.**

S13).

To confirm that neutralizing CD44-collagen binding was responsible for increased NK

cell invasion, we explored additional potential mechanisms of action for NK cell invasion.

Matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) are known to degrade ECM, including collagen, and play a

role in neutrophil, macrophage, and T cell migration[31,33]. Importantly, MMP expression can be

regulated by CD44[31,33]. Thus, we hypothesized that neutralizing CD44-mediated binding by NK

cells would increase the expression of matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs). Human donor NK

cells were treated for 1 and 4 hours with or without α-CD44, and these cells were assessed for

expression of MMP genes (**Supplementary Table S5**). We found no significant differences in

MMP gene expression across both exposure conditions (**Supplementary Fig. S14**), strongly

suggesting that antibody-based CD44 neutralization mitigates NK cell binding to ECM

components to increase NK cell invasion through matrix-containing environments.

Figure 6: CD44 neutralization increases human donor NK cell invasion *in vitro*. A.

Schematic for Transwell invasion assays. Average relative invasion $\pm$ SEM of **B.** Donor NK #1

(n = 9), **C.** Donor NK #2 (n = 12), **D.** Donor NK #3 (n = 6), and **E.** Donor NK #4 (n = 10) upon

CD44 neutralization. *p < 0.05 as determined by Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test. **F.**

Schematic of spheroid invasion assay. **G.** Representative 20X IF images of outlined (yellow)

PANC-1 spheroids (Pan-cytokeratin; red) embedded with NK cells (CD56; green), pointed out

with white arrows, treated with or without α-CD44. Scale bar = 250 μm. **H.** Zoomed inset of NK

cells in the α-CD44 treatment group in **G** (white box). Average number of NK cells per PANC-1

363   spheroid $\pm$ SEM from **I.** Donor NK #1 (- α-CD44, n = 53; + α-CD44, n = 42), **J.** Donor NK #2 (-

364   α-CD44, n = 29; + α-CD44, n = 43), and **K.** Donor NK #3 (- α-CD44, n = 27; + α-CD44, n =

365   47); n = # of spheroids analyzed; *$p < 0.05$ as determined by Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed

366   rank test.

Discussion

While previous studies have used spatial approaches to examine the PDAC TME

landscape[7,25,34], NK cells have not been systematically analyzed using spatial or single-cell

approaches. We report for the first time that NK cells are the predominant immune cell type co-

localizing with tumor cells in epithelial-ductal regions in PDAC.

Here, we utilized three single cell methodologies to further characterize NK cells in

human PDAC and multiple murine PDAC models. First, we used an IMC spatial proteomics

platform to define the spatial relationships of NK cells within the architecture of the human

PDAC TME and defined distinct epithelial, fibroblast, and immune cell populations. We found

that active NK cells are abundant in the PDAC TME and form strong cellular relationships with

PDAC epithelial cells. Not only are NK cells relatively abundant and active, but they exist in

similar proportions to that of T cell populations across patient samples. Multiplex IF imaging

further confirmed NK cell co-localization with epithelial cells. Spatial proteomic analysis

showed that NK cells, unlike T cells, preferentially localize to epithelial regions of the tumor.

NK cells not only co-localized with ductal epithelial cells, but also exhibited direct spatial

interactions with apoptotic tumor cells. Distance and network analyses confirmed that epithelial

cell populations were the most proximal and strongly connected population to NK cells. Lastly,

spatial analysis showed that NK cell localization is inversely proportional to both fibroblast

abundance and Collagen I expression in the PDAC TME, suggesting that desmoplasia affects

NK cell infiltration in PDAC.

Although previous work has primarily compared epithelial-ductal versus stromal-based

ROIs[7,35,36], they have not focused on the spatial distribution of NK cells. Our findings provide

novel insights into the heterogeneity of the spatial relationships of NK cells in untreated human

PDAC, showing that NK cells preferentially localize to epithelial-rich regions, but are restricted

from heavily fibrotic zones. Importantly, these analyses were performed on surgically resected

primary tumors from untreated patients; hence the spatial and functional relationships of NK

cells from metastases or primary tumors in a therapeutic setting may differ and remain to be

explored. Nonetheless, our data provide a benchmark of NK cell function and localization in an

untreated setting in primary PDAC tumors. Previous work has primarily assessed or leveraged T

cells in monitoring patient prognosis or response to different chemotherapies and

immunotherapies[37]. Our findings support future development of therapies to leverage the

biological properties of NK cells in PDAC.

Given the limitations of our spatial proteomics panel, which prioritized tumor and

fibroblast markers, we performed additional immune profiling in multiple KPC-derived

orthotopic murine PDAC models using CyTOF. This analysis confirmed the presence of NK

cells in both the KP1 and mT3-2D models, regardless of their differential T cell infiltration

levels. Notably, NK cells constituted a similar fraction of viable $CD45^+$ cells even in the

immunologically "cold" KP1 model, suggesting that NK cell infiltration occurs independently of

T cells. Dendritic cell analysis highlighted a predominance of cDC2 subsets, with minimal

conventional type 1 dendritic cells (cDC1) present, which may explain the high proportion of

naïve $CD8^+$ T cells observed. These data underscore the importance of NK cells in the PDAC

immune landscape, independent of canonical T cell–dependent pathways. We have previously

shown that NK cells contribute to therapeutic efficacy in the mT3-2D model treated with a pan-

dipeptidyl peptidase inhibitor, BXCL701, and anti-PD1 (α-PD1) immunotherapy[13]. This

combination, now in a Phase II trial for metastatic PDAC, has shown promising early results[38],

highlighting the therapeutic potential of harnessing NK cells.

Future studies will employ spatial transcriptional profiling of NK cells in the PDAC TME

to expand beyond the resolution of the IMC panel used in these studies and to further dissect NK

cell communication. Here, we employed CellChat analysis of a human PDAC scRNA-seq

dataset[27]. This revealed that NK cells receive strong incoming signals from cancer-associated

fibroblasts (CAFs) and malignant epithelial cells, particularly through extracellular matrix

(ECM)-related ligands such as collagens, laminins, and fibronectin. CD44, a receptor for

multiple ECM components, emerged as the dominant receptor mediating these interactions on

NK cells. Differential gene expression analysis further highlighted CD44 as the only ECM

receptor significantly upregulated on NK cells within PDAC samples. These findings suggest

that CD44 may mediate physical tethering of NK cells within collagen-rich stromal regions,

impairing their directed migration toward tumor targets. To test this hypothesis, we performed

functional assays using both 2D Transwell invasion and 3D tumor spheroid models.

Neutralization of CD44 significantly increased NK cell infiltration through collagen-containing

matrices across multiple donors, supporting a role for CD44-ECM binding in limiting NK

motility. Importantly, CD44 blockade did not alter MMP expression, indicating that the

increased invasion was not due to enhanced matrix degradation but rather the disruption of

CD44-mediated adhesion. These results provide direct evidence that CD44 restricts NK cell

movement within the ECM-rich TME of PDAC.

CD44 is broadly expressed in solid tumors[31] and has been linked to poor prognosis,

metastasis, and macrophage recruitment[39,40,41]. While several studies have examined its role in

immune cell activation, especially in IL-2/IL-15-activated NK cells[42,43], its involvement in NK

cell migration has remained largely unexplored. Notably, a recent pan-cancer analysis identified

CD44-mediated interactions as a key axis between fibroblasts and NK cells, particularly in lung

cancer, where higher CD44 expression on NK cells correlated with poorer patient outcomes[44,45].

These findings align with our observations and support the hypothesis that CD44 limits NK cell

trafficking in desmoplastic solid tumors.

While CAFs and ECM factors, such as Collagen I, limit NK cell infiltration, specific

ablation of these components has been shown to foster immune suppression and accelerate

pancreatic cancer progression[46,47]. Additionally, attempting to directly degrade ECM components

has not been successful as a clinical strategy for the treatment of metastatic PDAC[48]. Thus,

targeting stromal components that impede anti-tumor immune activity is a potentially hazardous

approach in desmoplastic tumors, suggesting that blocking interactions between immune cells

and stromal components may be more successful. Our work identifies CD44 as a potential key

molecular regulator of NK cell localization and provides a mechanistic rationale for targeting

CD44 to enhance NK cell infiltration in densely fibrotic solid tumors. Given that NK cells

contribute to the anti-tumor efficacy of immunotherapies, such as BXCL701 and α-PD1

combinations currently in clinical trials, these findings support the integration of immune cell-

ECM interaction targeting strategies into NK-based therapeutic approaches.

In summary, we show that NK cells co-localize with tumor epithelial cells in PDAC and

that CD44-mediated interactions with the fibrotic stroma restrict NK cell infiltration in PDAC.

Disrupting this axis improves NK cell motility *in vitro*, providing a foundation for future studies

to enhance NK cell-based immunotherapy in PDAC and potentially other desmoplastic cancers.

Methods

Tissue samples, antibody validation, metal-conjugation, and imaging mass cytometry (IMC)

The Lombardi Comprehensive Cancer Center (LCCC) Histopathology & Tissue Shared Resource (HTSR) provided formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded (FFPE) human PDAC and spleen tissue samples. For IMC, we used a LCCC-curated FFPE human pancreas tissue microarray (TMA) slide series containing 2 mm cores from normal pancreas, pancreatitis, pancreatic neuroendocrine tumors, intraductal papillary mucinous neoplasm, pancreatic mucinous adenocarcinoma, PDAC, colon adenocarcinoma, testicle, tonsil, and placenta samples, and PDAC cell lines. Information for all TMA samples are available at doi: 10.5281/zenodo.10582038. The IMC study was restricted to 44 cores from 21 previously untreated PDAC patients who underwent Whipple resections or distal pancreatectomies (**Supplementary Table S2**).

For IMC, we designed a metal-conjugated antibody panel. Carrier-free antibodies not commercially metal-conjugated were validated by IF in PDAC or spleen tissue (**Supplementary Table S1**). Antibodies with expected expression patterns were metal-conjugated using MaxPar X8 Multimetal Labeling Kits (Standard Bio Tools (SBI); (**Supplementary Table S1**). Metal-conjugation was validated by cytometry by time-of-flight (CyTOF) (Hyperion Imaging System; SBI) at the LCCC Flow Cytometry Shared Resource (FCSR). Metal-conjugated antibody dilutions were optimized in the pancreas TMA prior to final IMC staining at the HTSR. Antigen retrieval and staining was performed (SBI) at the LCCC HTSR, while image acquisition was performed at the LCCC Mass Spectrometry and Analytical Pharmacology Shared Resource. A maximum of 2.25 mm^2 regions of interest (ROIs) on TMA cores were selected, laser-ablated and

analyzed by CyTOF to quantitate the metal-conjugated antibodies per ROI, generating multiplex

images[49]. All data were collected using the Hyperion Imaging System (SBI) and qualitatively

validated in MCD Viewer (v1.0.560.6; SBI) and QuPath softwares (RRID:SCR_018257).

IMC image processing, data transformation, and single-cell clustering

Raw IMC data was processed following the widely used ImcSegmentationPipeline[16]

(https://github.com/BodenmillerGroup/ImcSegmentationPipeline). In the Ilastik software

(RRID:SCR_015246), DNA, E-cadherin, pan-cytokeratin, vimentin, and CD45RO markers were

used to pixel-train and generate cell segmentation probability maps for nuclear, cytoplasmic, cell

membrane, and background areas in all IMC images, which were imported into CellProfiler to

generate cell segmentation masks to then extract single-cell protein expression data using

histoCAT[17]. 412,862 cells were identified across 44 images from 21 PDAC patient samples.

Extracted IMC-derived single cell data were imported into R (v4.2.1) for downstream

computational analyses. histoCAT-derived single cell data files generated are available at doi:

10.5281/zenodo.10582038. All scripts adapted from this pipeline for downstream analyses are

available at https://github.com/Weiner-Lab/NaturalKillerCells_PDAC. Single cell protein

expression data was log-transformed, re-integrated, and clustered using Seurat-based analysis[24].

As single cell expression may contain "lateral spillover" into neighboring single cells as a result

of cell segmentation[16], we therefore used a supervised clustering approach to phenotype cells

based on canonical cellular morphology markers (αSMA, CD3, CD4, CD8α, CD11b, CD16,

CD20, CD45RO, CD56, CD68, E-cadherin, FAP, FOXP3, NKG2D, NKp44, pan-cytokeratin,

vimentin), we found that a clustering resolution = 0.35 provided distinct immune, fibroblast, and

epithelial cell populations. Each cell population was subsetted and re-clustered to identify the

functional state of subclusters using the following markers: CD69, CD107α, cleaved-caspase 3,

collagen-I, granzyme B, HLA-A/B/C, HLA-A1, IFNγ, Ki67, MICA, PCNA, perforin, PD-1, PD-

L1, and TGFβ. All cellular subclusters were reintegrated and annotated based on functional

classification: active subpopulations were solely immune cell based and were characterized by

high expression of known immune cell activation markers, CD69, CD107α, and/or IFNγ;

proliferative cell populations were characterized by high expression of proliferation markers

Ki67 and/or PCNA; and inhibitory subpopulations were characterized by high TGFβ expression,

which is known to be immune suppressive. Subclustering identified 29 unique cell populations,

which were validated visually using the Cytomapper R package and the MCD Viewer software.

Seurat objects containing all the PDAC single cell metadata is available at doi:

10.5281/zenodo.10582038 and were converted to SingleCellExperiment[16] objects for

downstream spatial analyses.

IMC spatial analysis

We generated knn-based interaction graphs for the 15-nearest neighbors and used k-

means clustering to group cells into 8 distinct cellular neighborhoods using the

SpatialExperiment and imcRtools R packages[16]. Using the imcRtools package, permutation test-

based cell-cell interaction analysis identified significant interactions or avoidances between cell

populations. Using FDR analysis, cell-cell interactions with $p < 0.01$ were considered

statistically significant. Based on Euclidean distance metadata, distance and network analyses

were performed, as previously described[8]. Seurat's CellSelector function[24] was used to select and

quantify cells in epithelial-ductal ROIs of spatial images. From CellSelector, percentages of cell

populations in each epithelial-ductal ROI were quantified, and epithelial-ductal ROIs were

stratified in quartiles based on fibroblast abundance (Q1 = low fibroblast quartile, Q4 = high

fibroblast quartile). Mean total expression of all markers was quantified in representative

epithelial-ductal ROIs of pseudoimages using MCD Viewer. Cell-based expression in epithelial-

ductal ROIs was performed using Seurat.

Multiplex immunohistochemistry

Sections of 5μm thickness were cut from FFPE tissue blocks containing PDAC tumor

samples. Patient samples were from 12 males and 8 females with age ranges between 45-88, and

had tumor diameters ranging from 0.1-8 cm (**Supplementary Table S3**). Samples were stained

for CD56/NCAM1, CD16, NKp46, panCK, αSMA, and CD68 (**Supplementary Table S4**).

The slides were baked at 60°, deparaffinized in xylene, rehydrated, washed in distilled

water and incubated with 10% neutral buffered formalin (NBF) for an additional 20 minutes to

increase tissue-slide retention. Epitope retrieval/microwave treatment (MWT) for all antibodies

was performed by boiling slides in the respective Epitope Retrieval buffer (ER1, pH6 or ER2,

pH9; Leica Biosystems AR9961 or AR9640, respectively). Protein blocking was performed

using antibody diluent/blocking buffer (Akoya, ARD1001EA) for 10 minutes at room

temperature. Primary antibody/OPAL dye pairings, staining order and incubation conditions are

listed in the table below. The staining was performed using Leica Bond autostainer. Sections

were counterstained with spectral DAPI (Akoya FP1490) for 5 min and mounted with ProLong

Diamond Antifade (ThermoFisher, P36961) using StatLab #1 coverslips (CV102450). The order

of antibody staining and the antibody/OPAL pairing was predetermined using general guidelines

and the particular biology of the panel. General guidelines include spectrally separating co-

localizing markers and separating spectrally adjacent dyes. Multiplex IHC was optimized by

first performing single-plex IHC with the chosen antibody/OPAL dye pair to optimize signal

intensity values and proper cellular expression, followed by optimizing the full multiplex assay.

Slides were scanned at 10X magnification using the Phenoimager Fusion system Automated

Quantitative Pathology Imaging System (Akoya Biosciences). Whole slide scans were viewed

with Phenochart (Phenochart 2.2.0, Akoya) which also allows for the selection of high-powered

images at 20X (resolution of 0.5mm per pixel) for multispectral image capture. Multispectral

images of each tissue specimen were captured in their entirety.

Additional human PDAC samples were used for multiplex IF to assess panCK, E-

cadherin, CD56, and NKG2D (**Supplementary Fig. S2**, **Supplementary Table S3**). Patient

samples were from 4 males and 2 females with age ranges between 44-86, and had tumor

diameters ranging from 3.7-18 cm.

Multiplex staining and imaging were performed as previously described[50], except tissue

images were captured using Akoya Biosciences Inc.'s PhenoImager Fusion imaging platform at

the LCCC HTSR. Images were exported as *.qtiff* files and visualized using QuPath software

(RRID:SCR_018257).

Single-cell RNA-sequencing analysis

To infer ligand-receptor (L-R) interactions in PDAC, we utilized a previously published

human PDAC scRNAseq dataset[27] and subsetted NK cells, fibroblasts, and epithelial cells.

Malignant and normal epithelial cells were differentiated using CytoTRACE, a computational

framework that predicts cellular differentiation states by measuring the number of genes

expressed by each cell[29]. The CytoTRACE scores distribution was observed to be bi-modal and

using a mixed-model, an ideal cut-off value separating the two distributions was determined to

be 0.72 where scores greater than 0.72 indicated a malignant epithelial cells[51] (**Supplementary**

Fig. S10). Fibroblasts were subclustered into known subpopulations and we identified: antigen-

presenting CAFs (apCAFs), inflammatory CAF (iCAFs), myofibroblasts (myCAFs), normal

fibroblasts, and stellate-like fibroblasts[30] (**Supplementary Fig. S10**). We then used CellChat, a

manually curated protein database of approximately 2,000 L-R pairs[26] to infer potential L-R

interactions between epithelial, fibroblast, and NK cell populations. A Wilcox test with a

Bonferroni correction from the FindMarkers Seurat function (v4.3) was used for differential gene

expression analysis of CellChat-identified L-R genes. Genes with an adjusted-$P < 0.01$ were

considered significantly differentially expressed. R scripts for applied CytoTRACE and CellChat

analyses are available at https://github.com/Weiner-Lab/NaturalKillerCells_PDAC.

Cell culture

Human PANC-1 PDAC cells and donor NK cell lines were cultured, as previously

described[52], except donor NK cells received 0.5% v/v of IL-2. Healthy human donor NK cell

lines, Donor NK #1, #2, and #4 were purchased (STEMCELL Technologies, Vancouver,

Canada), and Donor NK #3 cells were isolated from a leukoreduction system (LRS) chamber

(Inova Health System) and isolated via MojoSortTM Human NK Cell Isolation Kit (BioLegend,

CAT#: 480053). Donor NK cells were stimulated with the engineered K562 cell line

(RRID:CVCL_0004), K562-mb21-41BBL (courtesy of Dr. Dean Lee at Nationwide

Children's)[53]. K562-mb21-41BBL cells were cultured in supplemented RPMI (10% FBS, 1%

penicillin/streptomycin). For NK cell stimulation, K562-mb21-41BBL cells were collected (5

minutes, 1,000 rpm, 4°C), resuspended in supplemented RPMI with mitomycin C (Sigma-

Aldrich) ($C_f = 0.01$ mg/ml) and incubated for 4 hours (37°C). Pre-treated K562-mb21-41BBL

cells were collected (5 minutes, 1,000 rpm, 4˚C), resuspended in NK cell medium, then co-

cultured with donor NK cells (E:T = 1:1); this process was repeated at least once per week.

Donor NK cells aged day 1-50 and stimulated 1-3 days prior to *in vitro* assays were used. The

mT3-2D murine pancreatic cancer cell line was a gift from David Tuveson, Cold Spring Harbor

Laboratory, Lauren Hollow, New York, USA[54]. The KP1 murine pancreatic cancer cell line was

a gift from David DeNardo, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, USA[55]. Cells

were cultured in supplemented DMEM media (10% FBS). All cell lines were tested and

determined to be free of mycoplasma and murine cell lines were free of other rodent pathogens.

Flow cytometry

Cells were centrifuged (5 minutes, 1,000rpm, 4˚C) washed twice (1X PBS), then

resuspended in FACS staining buffer (1% BSA in 1X PBS). Human Fc block (BD Pharmigen,

CAT#: 564219) then α-CD44-BV605 (BioLegend, CAT#: 103047) antibodies were added per

manufacturer's recommendations (30 minutes, 4˚C). Cell pellets were washed twice (FACS

staining buffer), resuspended in fixative (1% PFA in 1X PBS), then processed by the LCCC

FCSR in a BD LSRFortessa Cell Analyzer (BD Biosciences). Analysis was performed using

FlowJo (v10.8.1; RRID:SCR_008520).

NK cell 2D invasion assay

The bottom of 5 μm Transwells (Corning) were coated with Matrigel (Corning) diluted

1:3 in NK cell medium. CXCL9 (C_f =100 ng/ml) (R&D Systems)-supplemented NK cell

medium was added to the bottom of each well. Donor NK cells were added to Transwells with or

without an α-CD44 neutralizing antibody (clone IM7; Bio X Cell; C_f = 10 μg/ml) and incubated

for 4 hours (37˚C). Transwells were removed, cells were stained with Trypan Blue Stain (Gibco)

and manually counted on a hemocytometer. Control cells were plated without Transwells to

count total cells to calculate percent invasion. Relative invasion is the percent of cells that

invaded through the transwell normalized to untreated NK cell conditions. A Wilcoxon matched-

pairs signed rank test was performed to determine statistical significance (GraphPad Prism v10;

RRID:SCR_002798).

NK cell 3D spheroid invasion assay

As previously described,[27] PANC-1 cells were seeded in each well of a low-adhesion U-

bottom plate, spun (5 minutes, 1,000 rpm, 4˚C) and cultured overnight. Spheroids were

embedded with donor NK cells in an 80:20 Collagen-I (Invitrogen): Matrigel (Corning) mixture

in chamber wells (Lab-Tek). Embedded spheroids were treated with α-CD44 (clone IM7; Bio X

Cell; C_f = 10 µg/ml) for 24 hours (37˚C) prior to immunocytochemistry (IC). For IC, samples

were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA; 10 minutes, 25˚C), washed with 1X PBS (5

minutes), then permeabilized with 0.5% Triton-X100 (10 minutes). Cells were washed once,

blocked (1% BSA in 1X PBS, 30 minutes), then incubated with human Fc block (BD Pharmigen,

CAT#: 564219). Samples were incubated with pan-cytokeratin-eFluor™ 660 (Invitrogen, CAT#:

50-9003-82) and CD56 (Invitrogen, CAT#: MA1-19129) antibodies overnight (25˚C). An α-

Mouse IgG2a-AF488 secondary antibody (Invitrogen, CAT#: A-21131; 1-4 hours, 25˚C), cells

were washed 3 times, incubated with DAPI (50 ng/ml; 10 minutes, 25˚C), then washed twice.

Coverslips were mounted with anti-fade mountant, then and dried. Z-stacks of spheroids were

imaged using a Leica SP8 AOBS microscope at the LCCC Microscopy and Imaging Shared

Resource. Z-stacks were ≤ 1 µm. Z-stack images were processed and using FIJI software[56]

(v2.14.0; RRID:SCR_002285) for manual NK cell quantitation into PANC-1 spheroids.

Statistical significance was determined using a Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test

(GraphPad Prism v10).

Effects of CD44 neutralization on MMP gene expression in human NK cells

Donor NK cell lines were incubated with or without α-CD44 (clone IM7; Bio X Cell; C_f

= 10 µg/ml) for 1 and 4 hours. Cells were collected (5 minutes, 1,000 rpm, 4˚C) and RNA was

isolated using the PureLink™ RNA Mini Kit (Ambion). RNA concentration was measured using

NanoDrop 8000 (ThermoFisher Scientific), then stored at -80˚C. Diluted RNA (20 ng/µl) was

treated with 10% v/v 10X DNase I Buffer and 10% v/v DNase I (Promega; 15 minutes, 25˚C).

10% v/v of RQ1 RNase/DNase Stop Solution (Promega) and 10% v/v Oligo(dT) nucleotides

(IDT) were added, then heat inactivated at 65˚C (10 minutes) then at 4˚C (5 minutes). cDNA was

synthesized with the GoScript™ Reverse Transcriptase Kit (Promega). qPCR was performed

using GoTaq qPCR Master Mix (Promega) with the StepOnePlus™ Real-Time PCR System

(ThermoFisher Scientific). Gene expression was quantified ($2^{-\Delta C_T}$; Ambion) using *HPRT*

(Forward 3'→5': CTTTCCTTGGTCAGGCAGTA, reverse 3'→5':

TGGCTTATATCCAACACTTCG) as an internal, endogenous control. Fold-change was

calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_T}$ method and a One-Way ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis test was performed

to determine statistical significance (GraphPad Prism v10).

Animal studies

C57BL/6J (female, 7 weeks old) mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar

Harbor, Maine, USA). All studies involving animals were reviewed and approved by the

Georgetown University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (GU IACUC). KP1 and

mT3-2D cells were grown in antibiotic-free DMEM with 10% FBS for at least 2 passages prior

to implantation. Orthotopic PDAC tumors were established as briefly described. In brief, the left

side of the mouse abdomen was shaved, mice were anesthetized using isoflurane and a small, 1

cm incision was made to access the pancreas. Tumor cells, either $5x10^4$ KP1 or $5x10^4$ mT3-2D,

were injected into the pancreas using a 27-gauge needle. Successful injection was verified by the

appearance of a fluid bubble without intraperitoneal leakage. The abdominal wall was closed

with 4-0 PGA absorbable sutures (Med Vet International, Mettawa, IL, USA) and the skin was

closed with 4-0 nylon non-absorbable sutures (Stoelting Co., Wood Dale, IL, USA). Wound clips

(Stoelting Co., Wood Dale, IL, USA) were then used to secure skin sutures. Mice were

euthanized with CO_2 inhalation at designated endpoint or when mice showed signs of pain or

distress, whichever came first. Tumors were harvested, weighed, and dissociated into a single

cell suspension for subsequent CyTOF analysis.

CyTOF analysis

CyTOF analysis was performed using previously described protocols and gating

strategies[22,23]. Single cell suspensions were prepared as previously described[21]. Briefly, single

cell suspensions were obtained from fresh tumor tissue by incubation with a mixture of RPMI-

1640 media containing 10% FBS and 1 mg/mL Collagenase D (11088858001, Sigma Aldrich)

with shaking at 150 rpm for 40 mins at 37 °C and then filtering through a 70 µM strainer.

Samples were incubated with antibodies according to the MaxPar OnDemand Mouse Immune

Profiling Panel Kit (Standard BioTools, San Francisco, CA, USA) and loaded onto a CyTOF

System (Helios, Standard BioTools, San Francisco, CA, USA) for signal detection and single

cell analysis. Data was normalized and then exported. Viable $CD45^+$ cells were identified for

each sample. Each sample was down sampled (DownSample v3.3.1, FlowJo) to 33,333

individual cells and samples were concatenated. Batch correction was performed using

CyCombine (CyCombine 1.0.2, FlowJo). The tSNE was then applied to identify cell populations.

GraphPad Prism 10.0 was used for visualizing results. Gating was done using FlowJo software

(v10.8.1).

Ethics statement

The human pancreas TMA and PDAC slides used in this study were approved by the

Georgetown University LCCC Biospecimen Use Committee. Animal studies were reviewed and

approved by the Georgetown University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee

(IACUC).

Supplementary Materials

Supplementary Figure S1: Subclustered cell populations of spatial proteomic resolved PDAC
cell populations.

Supplementary Figure S2: NK cells co-localize with PDAC epithelial cells.

Supplementary Figure S3: Cellular neighborhood analysis identifies distinct epithelial-ductal
structural regions, containing both NK cells and epithelial cells, in the human PDAC TME.

Supplementary Figure S4: Proportions of PDAC subclustered cell populations per cellular
neighborhood.

Supplementary Figure S5: Expression levels of immune markers on tSNE plots.

Supplementary Figure S6: CyTOF gating strategy for murine PDAC tumors.

Supplementary Figure S7: Functional characterization of immune populations identified via
tSNE analysis.

Supplementary Figure S8: PDAC epithelial-ductal ROI cell subcluster abundance.

Supplementary Figure S9: PDAC epithelial-ductal ROI cell type abundance.

Supplementary Figure S10: Subclustering of epithelial and fibroblast populations in human
PDAC scRNAseq samples.

Supplementary Figure S11: Fibroblast and epithelial cell populations exhibit differential
expression of CellChat-based collagen signaling genes.

Supplementary Figure S12: Human donor and murine NK cells express CD44.

Supplementary Figure S13: CD44 neutralization increases human donor NK cell invasion into
PANC-1 PDAC spheroids

Supplementary Figure S14: CD44 neutralization does not affect expression of MMP genes in
human donor NK cells

Supplementary Table S1: IMC antibody panel and metal assignments.

Supplementary Table S2: PDAC patient information for IMC.

Supplementary Table S3: PDAC patient information for multiplex IF (Vectra®).

Supplementary Table S4: Antibodies and fluorescent dyes for multiplex IF (Vectra®).

Supplementary Table S5: MMP genes primer sequences.

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Author contributions

Z.X.M., A.A.L., and L.M.W. conceived the idea, designed the study, obtained funding, and

wrote the manuscript. Z.X.M. and A.A.L. conducted experiments and analyzed the data. Z.X.M.,

R.K.S., A.D., S.A., and W.J.H. performed or assisted with computational analyses. Z.X.M.,

R.K.S., and S.A. wrote R scripts and generated the computational figures. B.H. and A.D. assisted

with data collection and tissue pathology of human tissue samples. A.A.L., S.A., R.M., A.J.L.,

A.Z., and M.A., assisted with *in vivo* experiments. L.W. and M.C. assisted in performing 2D *in*

vitro invasion experiments. M.C. assisted with RT-qPCR, flow cytometry assays, and 3D *in vitro*

invasion experiments. I.P. and S.H. assisted in IMC data collection. W.J.H., E.J.F., M.A., and

S.A.J. assisted with experimental design. All authors critically reviewed and approved the

manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors have no competing interests to declare.

Code availability statement

Code used to perform IMC and scRNAseq analyses and generate the figures is available at

https://github.com/Weiner-Lab/NaturalKillerCells_PDAC.

Data transparency statement

Code used to perform IMC and scRNAseq analyses and generate the figures is available at

https://github.com/Weiner-Lab/NaturalKillerCells_PDAC. Raw .mcd files for all cores of the

pancreas tissue microarray imaged by IMC and IMC-derived datasets, including histoCAT-

derived single cell files, and Seurat, SingleCellExperiment, Cytomapper and distance data matrix

R objects, to reproduce figures are deposited at doi: 10.5281/zenodo.10582038. Source Data are

provided with this paper. The scRNAseq data was provided to us by the Pasca Di Magliano lab

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00121-4. The authors declare that all other data supporting the findings of this study are available

within the paper or its supplementary information files. All other relevant data are available from

the corresponding author upon request.

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