Periductal Fibroblast Density Defines Lymphocyte Exclusion via a CD44-Dependent Stromal Checkpoint in Pancreatic Cancer

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Graphical Abstract

Abstract

Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) exhibits dense fibrosis and immune exclusion.

While fibrosis has been studied globally and at the region-of-interest level, its impact on stromal-

ductal architecture and immune cell localization remains unknown. Here, we establish cancer-

associated fibroblast (CAF)-stratified ductal spatial architecture as a fundamental determinant of

immune exclusion in PDAC. Focusing on malignant PDAC epithelial ductal regions, the critical

interface where immune cells must access tumor epithelium, we demonstrate that periductal

fibroblast organization dictates leukocyte proximity. Through integrative analysis of treatment-

naïve patient samples from three independent cohorts – including imaging mass cytometry,

multiplex immunohistochemistry, and single-cell RNA sequencing – we uncovered that

activated, pro-inflammatory leukocytes preferentially localized near malignant ducts in regions

with low fibroblast density. Stratifying epithelial-ductal regions by CAF abundance revealed a

graded constraint: increasing fibroblast content corresponded to reduced leukocyte–epithelial

proximity and elevated collagen I deposition. Despite their exclusion in high-CAF ducts,

leukocytes in low-CAF ducts retained functional competence. Mechanistically, ligand–receptor

inference implicated collagen–CD44 signaling as an adhesion axis anchoring immune cells

within fibroblast-rich zones, with CD44 blockade enhancing natural killer cell invasion and

motility in fibrotic spheroid models. Thus, by establishing ductal regions as critical spatial units

of immune exclusion, these findings provide a framework for dissecting stromal–immune

interactions and reveal targetable "stromal checkpoints" that can be leveraged to overcome CAF-

driven barriers to leukocyte motility and infiltration in PDAC.

Introduction

Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) has a 5-year survival rate of 12%[1]. PDAC is considered to be an immunologically "cold" tumor with minimal infiltration by activated leukocytes and immunotherapy-based clinical trials using checkpoint inhibitors have been largely unsuccessful[2-4]. This resistance can be at least partly attributed to the tumor's desmoplastic stroma, driven by extracellular matrix (ECM) deposition from cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAFs)[5]. The resulting fibrotic barrier increases tissue stiffness while restricting activated leukocyte infiltration and access to malignant ductal epithelial cells[6, 7]. Therefore, defining how CAF spatial organization within the periductal stroma constrains activated leukocyte-epithelial cell interactions is critical to creating successful immune-based therapeutic approaches.

Recent studies have explored the impact of CAFs on tumor cell progression in PDAC and characterized the landscape of the PDAC TME using multiple spatial molecular profiling technologies[8-18]. While these studies have provided insights into immune dysfunction, CAF subtype heterogeneity, and desmoplastic remodeling, they have primarily focused on global tissue-level patterns or pre-selected regions (i.e. juxtatumoral vs. panstromal). Furthermore, the complex cellular interactions between CAFs, immune cells, and tumor cells within PDAC malignant ductal regions remain unknown. These ducts are the sites of tumor origin, progression, and metastasis that shape the global PDAC TME and its consequent biology, making the study of cellular colocalization and signaling in these sites critical to understand PDAC carcinogenesis[19-22]. Since these ductal regions represent the critical interface between malignant epithelium and infiltrating immune cells, defining the stromal barriers that restrict immune access in these regions is crucial for understanding and overcoming immune exclusion in PDAC.

Here, we identified periductal CAF density in malignant ducts within invasive PDAC as a

key tumor organizational feature that dictates immune access to tumor epithelium. Using

complementary spatial approaches, including imaging mass cytometry (IMC) and multiplex

immunohistochemistry (mIHC), in separate cohorts of PDAC samples, we mapped periductal

cellular interactions and found that periductal fibroblast organization is the principal determinant

of leukocyte infiltration in malignant ductal regions. Increased periductal fibrosis correlated with

increased collagen I deposition and increased proliferation of epithelial cells and corresponded

with reduced leukocyte-epithelial proximity, particularly with regards to natural killer (NK)

cells. Ligand-receptor inference analysis of a recently published scRNA-seq dataset[23] of PDAC

samples from 16 patients revealed increased collagen signaling from CAFs to leukocytes via

CD44, and CD44 neutralization *in vitro* increased NK cell motility through the ECM. These

results indicate that (1) periductal CAF architecture governs leukocyte access while promoting

malignant epithelial cell proliferation and (2) targeting stromal checkpoints, such as CD44, may

improve leukocyte infiltration and overcome ECM-mediated immune exclusion. Collectively,

CAF-stratified ductal spatial architecture defines a new framework for analyzing PDAC fibrotic

restrictions to leukocyte infiltration that can potentially be overcome through neutralization of

stromal checkpoints in PDAC and other highly fibrotic tumors.

Results

Fibroblast composition organizes spatial architectures that determine immune access to malignant epithelial ducts in PDAC

We first performed IMC on a tissue microarray (TMA) of primary tumor samples from 21 treatment-naïve PDAC patients to define the major cellular compartments of the tumor microenvironment (TME). IMC is a high-dimensional spatial proteomics platform that maintains tissue architecture while capturing single-cell protein levels[24]. We used a custom 40-marker metal-conjugated antibody panel targeting cells from epithelial, immune and stromal lineages (**Supplementary Table S1).** Following imaging and cell segmentation, we identified 412,862 cells in 44 IMC pseudoimages, with two or more primary tumor cores being imaged for some patient **(Supplementary Table S2)**. Using a Seurat-based analysis pipeline[25-29], single-cell protein expression data were log-normalized, and cell populations were identified using clustering approaches[30], which resolved eight principal cell types encompassing malignant epithelial cells, cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAFs), leukocytes, and other stromal populations (**Supplementary Fig. S1**). Subclustering distinguished functional states: active, proliferative, or inhibitory, within each lineage (**Supplementary Fig. S2**). This cellular map established the framework for subsequent analyses of how CAF organization around malignant ducts constrains leukocyte access within the PDAC TME.

Having defined major cellular lineages by IMC, we next examined how these populations are spatially organized within the PDAC TME. Using cellular neighborhood analysis[31], we classified distinct multi-cellular structures based on their cellular composition and proximity[31]. This analysis identified eight distinct cellular neighborhoods (**Figs. 1A-B**) each defined by

characteristic combinations of epithelial, fibroblast, and immune populations. Fibroblast

composition influenced neighborhood architecture: FAP+ fibroblast-rich regions (neighborhood

6) were associated with proliferative epithelial areas, while αSMA+ fibroblast-rich regions

(neighborhood 7) were enriched for CD4+/CD8+ T cells and macrophages (**Fig. 1C**). In contrast,

immune-enriched neighborhood 4 showed the majority of apoptotic epithelial cells and was

largely depleted of FAP+ or αSMA+ fibroblasts, consistent with reduced stromal barriers in

immune-accessible regions (**Fig. 1C, Supplementary Fig. S3**). Notably, neighborhood 2 was

enriched for IFNγ+ positive epithelial cells, a marker of immune activation[32] (**Fig. 1C,**

Supplementary Fig. S3). These epithelial neighborhoods also contained a higher density of

leukocytes relative to fibroblasts (**Supplementary Fig. S3**), supporting that immune cell

accumulation occurs preferentially in epithelial compartments with reduced stromal architecture.

Consistent with previous reports in untreated PDAC[11], adaptive lymphoid cells (CD4+/CD8+ T

cells, B cells) were confined to their own distinct neighborhood (3) and were spatially segregated

from epithelial rich regions (**Fig. 1C**). In contrast, activated NK cells, based on Granzyme B

expression, were observed in epithelial-dominant neighborhoods (1, 2, 6, and 8), suggesting that

innate immune cells mediate the primary immune interactions at malignant ducts.

Although CAF-mediated immune exclusion has been reported in PDAC[9, 16], our analysis

defines how distinct fibroblast subsets establish reproducible spatial architectures that dictate the

degree of immune access to malignant ducts. Epithelial dominant neighborhoods (1, 2, 6, and 8)

displayed variable leukocyte abundance depending on surrounding fibroblast density (**Fig. 1C**).

Collectively, these analyses reveal that immune accessibility in PDAC is determined not by total

stromal content, but by the local fibroblast organization encasing malignant epithelial ducts,

prompting a focused analysis of epithelial-ductal regions to quantify how fibroblast abundance

constrains leukocyte access within the TME.

Given that neighborhood analysis captures higher-order organization but not direct

cellular interactions, we next applied a permutation-based interaction analysis[28], which identifies

significant deviations from a random cellular arrangement, to infer colocalization between

PDAC cellular subsets identified via IMC. Specifically, this analysis reveals which cellular

subsets are spatially interacting more or less frequently than expected due to random variation.

As expected, epithelial cells, fibroblasts, and immune cells tended to localize with cells of the

same type (**Fig. 1D**). Confirming neighborhood analysis, activated NK cells, but not T cells,

frequently interacted with apoptotic epithelial cells (**Fig. 1D)** while activated CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T

cells primarily associated with one another rather than with epithelial or stromal cells (**Fig. 1D**).

Macrophages, on the other hand, most often interacted with αSMA$^+$ fibroblasts (**Fig. 1D**).

To visualize these multicellular relationships within the TME, we performed a cell–cell

network analysis defined from the average distance of spatial neighbors[33], which shows that

macrophage and αSMA$^+$ fibroblast nodes have the closest cross-lineage connectivity, whereas

NK cell nodes clustered near epithelial cell nodes, distinct from CD4$^+$/CD8$^+$ T cell and B cell

networks (**Fig. 1E**). This network structure suggest that fibroblast organization not only

structures epithelial–stromal interfaces but also constrains immune cell localization within the

PDAC TME.

Validation in an independent cohort of PDAC tumors ($n = 17$) using multiplex

immunohistochemistry (mIHC) confirmed the spatial relationships observed by IMC

(**Supplementary Fig. S4A**). Fibroblasts and epithelial cells constituted the majority of the

PDAC TME (**Supplementary Fig. S4B**). Notably, αSMA$^+$ fibroblast content was inversely

correlated with NK cell, but not macrophage, abundance (**Supplementary Fig. S4C**). CD16^{+} NK

cells and macrophages, consistent with a pro-inflammatory phenotype[34, 35], were reduced with

higher αSMA^{+} fibroblast content in tumors, supporting cell-cell network analysis and suggesting

a selective exclusion of effector leukocytes in fibroblast-rich regions (**Fig. 1E**). Overall, these

analyses demonstrate that fibroblast organization determines immune architecture in PDAC,

limiting the spatial access of pro-inflammatory, cytotoxic leukocytes to malignant epithelial

ducts.

Figure 1: Fibroblast composition organizes spatial architectures that determine immune access to malignant epithelial ducts in PDAC. A. Corresponding patient IMC pseudoimage for CN spatial plot in **B** (αSMA = blue; E-cadherin, Pan-cytokeratin = pink; NKG2D = yellow, scale bar = 200 μm). **B.** Representative spatial plot of CNs in the human PDAC TME (CN1 = teal, CN2 = yellow, CN3 = purple, CN4 = red, CN5 = blue, CN6 = orange, CN7 = lime, CN8 = pink). **C.** Cellular neighborhood (CN) analysis revealed 8 distinct cellular neighborhoods (y-axis: cellular neighborhoods; red = high proportion of cell subpopulation of interest (x-axis) within cellular neighborhoods, blue = low proportion of cell subpopulation of interest within cellular neighborhoods). **C. D.** Cellular interaction analysis (blue = strong avoidance, red = strong interaction; FDR, $p < 0.01$) of IMC-defined cell subpopulations. **E.** Network graph of the top 75% of interactions between all IMC-defined cell populations in human PDAC showing epithelial cells and NK cells exist in similar networks.

CAF-stratified ductal spatial architecture governs immune access in PDAC

Given that increased αSMA[+] fibroblasts are inversely correlated with effector leukocyte infiltration (**Supplementary Fig. S4C**), we next sought to understand how per-ductal fibroblasts influence leukocyte infiltration in regions near the duct. Using epithelial-ductal regions of interest (ROIs) defined from IMC-based cellular neighborhood analysis, we applied Seurat's[27] CellSelector function to isolate and quantify immune and stromal populations across 952 epithelial-ductal ROIs. These ROIs were stratified into 4 quartiles (Q1-Q4) according to fibroblast abundance, with Q1 representing fibroblast-low and Q4 representing fibroblast-high ducts. This stratification revealed a consistent CAF-stratified ductal spatial architecture (**Figs. 2A-B**) where increasing fibroblast content corresponded to progressive restriction of leukocyte–

epithelial proximity. Fibroblast abundance increased significantly across quartiles (**Fig. 2C**),

driven predominantly by αSMA$^+$ fibroblasts, rather than FAP$^+$ fibroblasts (**Supplementary Fig.**

S5), supporting previous reports that αSMA$^+$ fibroblasts cluster in periglandular regions[36]. As

expected, increasing fibroblast abundance was associated with a corresponding rise in Collagen I

expression (**Fig. 2D**), consistent with fibroblast-driven matrix deposition[37]. While total epithelial

cells decreased with increasing fibroblast content (**Fig. 2E**), proliferative epithelial cells

increased (**Fig. 2E**), supporting the interpretation that periductal fibroblast infiltration supports

epithelial cell growth.

We next assessed the impact of fibroblasts on the spatial associations of activated

leukocytes with ductal epithelial cells. Expression of NKG2D, an activating receptor expressed

on human lymphocytes[38], declined as fibroblast and collagen content increased (**Fig. 2B**).

Among immune subsets, NK cells showed the strongest sensitivity to fibroblast density; their

abundance was highest in fibroblast-low ducts (Q1) and decreased progressively across quartiles

(**Fig. 2F**), indicating fibroblast-dependent exclusion of cytotoxic innate lymphocytes. In contrast,

CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cell levels remained relatively stable (**Fig. 2F**), consistent with their

preferential localization to stromal rather than malignant ductal epithelium[39]. The loss of NK cell

infiltration was accompanied by reduced IFNγ$^+$ epithelial cells (**Supplementary Fig. S6E**),

implicating diminished NK-epithelial cell interactions and associated cytolytic signaling. In

fibroblasts-sparse ducts(Q1-Q2) , NK cells retained high expression of activation markers

(CD69, CD107a, IFNγ) (**Supplementary Fig. S7**), and displayed significant increases in

Granzyme B expression (**Fig. 2G**), confirming preserved effector function where malignant

epithelial cell access is maintained.

Collectively, these findings establish CAF-stratified ductal spatial architecture as a

defining architecture feature of PDAC, whereby periductal fibroblast density promotes malignant

epithelial proliferation while restricting NK cell infiltration and activation. This represents a

novel mechanism of immune evasion in PDAC and suggests that periductal stromal remodeling

to reduce fibroblast density or collagen deposition may be required to enable effective

lymphocyte-based immunotherapies.

Figure 2: CAF-stratified ductal spatial architecture govern immune access in PDAC.

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 with corresponding numbers. **B.** Insets of representative epithelial-ductal ROIs from each fibroblast abundance quartile (Q1=238, Q2= 235, Q3=240, Q4=239) shown in the white insets in **A**. **C.** Bar plot of percent cells/ducts (mean $\pm$ SEM) of total fibroblasts, **D.** Bar plot of percent cells/ducts (mean $\pm$ SEM) of total collagen-I expression in epithelial-ductal ROIs ranked by fibroblast abundance quartile (2-way ANOVA; *$p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$; Q1=55, Q2= 58, Q3=57, Q4=60). **E.** Connecting line plot of percent cells/ducts (mean $\pm$ SEM) of total epithelial cells and proliferative epithelial cells (2-way ANOVA; *$p < 0.05$, ****$p < 0.0001$; all quartiles compared to Q1). **F.** Connecting line plot of percent cells/ducts (mean $\pm$ SEM) of NK cells, CD4$^+$ T Cells, and CD8$^+$ T Cells (2-way ANOVA; *$p < 0.05$, ****$p < 0.0001$; all quartiles compared to Q1). **G.** Violin plot showing NK cell-based expression in Q1 and Q4 fibroblast abundance quartiles of Granzyme B (Kruskal-Wallis test).

Cell-cell communication analysis implicates CD44 as a stromal checkpoint mediating NK-ECM interactions

Because NK cell access to malignant ducts was inversely correlated with periductal fibroblast density (**Fig. 2F–G**), we next sought to identify the molecular pathways that could mediate these fibroblast-NK cell interactions within the PDAC tumor microenvironment. We applied ligand-receptor inference of cell to cell communication with CellChat[40] to a reference immune-enriched human PDAC scRNAseq dataset containing matched adjacent-normal

(AdjNorm) and PDAC tumor samples[23]. To distinguish malignant from normal epithelial cells,

we used CytoTRACE to infer differentiation states[41,42]. We also subclustered fibroblasts to

resolve canonical CAF subsets, including myofibroblasts (myCAFs; *FAP, MMP11, HOPX,*

POSTN, COL12A1)[9], inflammatory (iCAFs; *CFD, DPT, AGTR1, CXCL12, CCL2*)[9], antigen-

presenting (apCAFs; *HLA-DRA, HLA-DPA1, HLA-DQA1*)[9], normal fibroblasts, and stellate-like

fibroblasts (*MYH11, RGS5*)[43, 44] (**Supplementary Figs. S8A-E**).

Because NK cells were the immune population most affected by periductal fibroblast

density (**Fig. 2G–H**), we next examined whether fibroblasts engage in molecular signaling that

could underlie this selective exclusion. CellChat analysis revealed that CAFs in PDAC,

particularly iCAFs and myCAFs, exhibited increased outgoing signaling compared with

adjacent-normal fibroblasts, whereas NK cells and malignant epithelial cells served as prominent

signal receivers (**Fig. 3A-B**). This suggests that CAF-derived signaling networks may directly

modulate NK cell behavior and epithelial interactions, extending their role beyond structural

confinement.

Among enriched signaling pathways, collagen signaling showed the largest PDAC-

specific increase, driven by upregulation of multiple collagen isoforms (**Fig. 3C**). Within this

network, NK cells were predicted to receive collagen-derived signals through CD44 (**Fig. 3D**), a

principal receptor mediating cell–matrix adhesion on leukocytes[45]. Differential expression

analysis confirmed upregulated CD44 expression in NK cells within the PDAC TME, concurrent

with transcriptional upregulation of collagen genes in malignant epithelial cells, iCAFs, and

myCAFs (**Fig. 3D, Supplementary Fig. S9**).

Together, these findings implicate the collagen–CD44 axis as a critical CAF-to-NK

communication route that reinforces stromal confinement of cytotoxic lymphocytes. This

represents a stromal checkpoint mechanism in which NK cells are sequestered within collagen-

rich regions. We hypothesize that this CAF-NK cell signaling pathway limits the migration of

NK cells toward tumor targets. Hence, disrupting CD44–collagen interactions could restore NK-

cell motility and enhance antitumor function in PDAC.

Figure 3: Cell-cell communication analysis implicates CD44a stromal checkpoint mediating NK- ECM interactions. 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 (x-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 blockade enhances NK cell invasion *in vitro*

Given that NK cells in the PDAC TME primarily engage the collagen pathway through CD44 (**Figs. 3C-D**), we hypothesized that CD44-mediated interactions with ECM components physically restrict NK cell infiltration by anchoring them within the stroma. To test this, we first confirmed CD44 expression on human donor NK cells by flow cytometry (**Supplementary Fig. S10**). We then evaluated NK cell invasion through basement-membrane and collagen-containing matrices *in vitro.* In a 2D Transwell assay, membranes were coated with Matrigel (rich in ECM components[46]), and NK cells were incubated with or without a CD44-neutralizing antibody (α-CD44) (**Fig. 4A**). CD44 blockade significantly enhanced NK cell invasion in three of four human donor NK cell samples (**Figs. 4B-E**).

To validate these findings in a more physiological context, we employed a 3D *in vitro* model using a collagen-rich tumor spheroid assay (**Fig. 4F**). Human PANC-1 spheroids were embedded with donor NK cells in a Collagen I–Matrigel matrix and cultured for 24 hours with or

without α-CD44. Immunofluorescence imaging showed increased NK-cell penetration into

PANC-1 spheroids upon CD44 blockade across three donor NK cells (**Figs. 4G-K**,

Supplementary Fig. S11). To determine whether this enhanced invasion involved CD44-

dependent modulation of extracellular matrix degradation[47, 48], we analyzed matrix

metalloproteinase (MMP) gene expression in human donor NK cells treated with or without α-

CD44 for 1 or 4 hours[47, 48]. No significant differences were observed (**Supplementary Fig. S12,**

Supplementary Table S5), strongly suggesting that CD44 neutralization facilitates NK cell

invasion primarily by disrupting adhesion to collagen, rather than altering proteolytic activity.

Together, these results demonstrate that CD44 functions as an inhibitory anchor for NK

cells within the collagen-rich PDAC stroma. Blocking CD44–collagen binding restores NK-cell

mobility and invasive capacity, providing a mechanistic rationale for targeting stromal

checkpoints to enhance lymphocyte infiltration in desmoplastic tumors.

Figure 4: CD44 blockade enhances 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 spheroid ($\pm$ SEM)

319   from **I.** Donor NK #1 (- α-CD44, n = 53; + α-CD44, n = 42), **J.** Donor NK #2 (- α-CD44, n = 29;

320   + α-CD44, n = 43), and **K.** Donor NK #3 (- α-CD44, n = 27; + α-CD44, n = 47); n = # of

321   spheroids analyzed; *$p < 0.05$ as determined by Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test.

Discussion

Recent reports characterizing immune-stromal interactions in PDAC using single-cell

technologies have characterized the stromal heterogeneity and impact of CAFs on the PDAC

TME[8-18]. However, the impact of stromal architecture on CAF, tumor cell, and leukocyte

interactions and leukocyte infiltration in malignant ductal regions, the critically important tumor-

immune interface, remains unexplored. Here, we define CAF-stratified ductal spatial architecture

as a key organizational feature of the PDAC TME that dictates leukocyte access to malignant

epithelium. Utilizing an approach that combines IMC, mIHC, and scRNA-seq to map periductal

cellular interactions, we have demonstrated that periductal fibroblast organization is a critical

determinant of leukocyte infiltration in malignant ductal regions. IMC and mIHC analyses

collectively revealed that fibroblast abundance inversely correlated with immune accessibility,

with NK cells being the leukocyte subset most sensitive to fibrous density. These data establish

periductal fibroblast composition, not total fibrosis, as the dominant structural determinant of

immune exclusion in PDAC.

Cell-to-cell communication analysis revealed that CAFs function as the dominant senders

of signals within the PDAC TME, engaging both epithelial and NK cells through collagen-

mediated pathways. The collagen-CD44 axis emerged as the principal CAF-to-NK signaling

pathway, positioning CD44 as a stromal checkpoint that restricts leukocyte motility and

reinforces fibroblast-mediated immune exclusion at malignant ducts. Functionally, CD44

blockade restored NK cell infiltration through collagen-rich matrices without altering MMP

expression, indicating that neutralizing CD44–collagen adhesion, not ECM degradation,

overcomes such barriers.

In PDAC, stromal elements, including CAF-derived chemokines (e.g., CXCL12)[49] and

ECM-derived ligands, such as fibronectin that engage inhibitory receptors like ILT3[50], have been

shown to modulate immune suppression within the TME. For example, elevated stromal

CXCL12 correlates with the exclusion of cytotoxic T cells from tumor nests, while fibronectin

engagement of the inhibitory receptor ILT3 on intra-tumoral myeloid cells induces a suppressive

phenotype, collectively demonstrating that stromal components can directly regulate immune

positioning and activation. Together, these findings indicate that the desmoplastic stroma

functions not only as a physical barrier but also as an active regulatory element, acting as a

"stromal checkpoint," in which CAF-derived and ECM-mediated signals restrict leukocyte

access and engagement with malignant epithelial cells. Our data extend this framework by

identifying impaired immune trafficking as a key regulatory mechanism mediated through

CD44–ECM interactions. Given that broad stromal ablation and ECM degradation have proven

unsuccessful in restoring intra-tumoral leukocyte functionality or limiting tumor growth

preclinically and clinically[51, 52], our data highlight the potential of instead targeting stromal

checkpoints, such as CD44, to enhance NK cell motility and infiltration, thus improving the

efficacy of NK cell-dependent immunotherapies in PDAC.

In summary, our findings establish fibroblast composition as a central determinant of

PDAC tissue architecture and immune accessibility. Focusing on malignant ductal regions, we

define CAF-stratified ductal spatial architecture as the structural basis of immune exclusion and

identify CD44 as a molecular mediator of this stromal checkpoint. High-CAF ducts promote

epithelial cell proliferation while restricting lymphocyte access, particularly NK cells, whereas

low-CAF ducts preserve effector function and cytolytic ability. Thus, targeting stromal

checkpoints, in combination with immunotherapy and KRAS inhibitors, presents an opportunity

to increase leukocyte infiltration irrespective of ECM degradation in PDAC and other solid

tumors.

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[53]. 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[54]

(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[28]. 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[27].

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

of cell segmentation[54], 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[54] 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[54]. 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[33]. Seurat's CellSelector function[27] 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 (mIHC)

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

samples. Patient samples were from 10 males and 7 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, CD16, CD335, 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.

Multiplex staining and imaging were performed as previously described[55], except tissue

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

the LCCC HTSR. Images were exported as *.qptiff* files and visualized and processed using

QuPath software (RRID:SCR_018257).

mIHC image processing and analysis

mIHC images were processed using QuPath software (v0.6.0)[56]. Spectrally unmixed

images were visualized and a ROI grid, with each ROI measuring 500 μm via 500 μm, was

overlaid on each image. Cells within each ROI were then automatically segmented using the

StarDist machine-learning based pipeline[57], with the DAPI channel used to delineate nuclear

staining, normalized percentile set at (1, 99), threshold set at 0.5, and pixel size set at 0.5

μm/pixel. After cell segmentation, duplicate channel training images were created for each

marker to create an object classifier for each cell type. Under the direction of an experienced

pathologist, an object classifier was trained for each marker. This was repeated for three separate

images. Afterwards, object classifiers for each marker were then applied to each image for cell

phenotyping. Percentage of cells was calculated by dividing cells detected for marker of interest

by total cells in each ROI. All ROIs were then averaged to get a total value for each cell type of

interest for each image. Only ROIs with at least 500 cells were analyzed, with biologically

incompatible markers excluded from analysis.

Single-cell RNA-sequencing analysis

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

human PDAC scRNAseq dataset[23] 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[41]. 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[58] (**Supplementary**

Fig. S8). Fibroblasts were subclustered into known subpopulations and we identified: antigen-

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

fibroblasts, and stellate-like fibroblasts[43] (**Supplementary Fig. S8**). We then used CellChat, a

manually curated protein database of approximately 2,000 L-R pairs[40] 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[59, 60], 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)[61]. 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. All cell

lines were tested and determined to be free of mycoplasma.

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[62]

(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).

Ethics statement

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

Georgetown University LCCC Biospecimen Use Committee.

Supplementary Materials

Supplementary Figure S1: Spatial proteomic analysis of the human PDAC TME resolves PDAC
cell populations.

Supplementary Figure S2: Subclustered cell populations of spatial proteomic resolved PDAC
cell populations.

Supplementary Figure S3: Proportions of PDAC subclustered cell populations per cellular
neighborhood.

Supplementary Figure S4: Pro-inflammatory NK cell and Macrophage Content is Inversely
Correlated with αSMA+ Fibroblasts.

Supplementary Figure S5: PDAC epithelial-ductal ROI cell type abundance.

Supplementary Figure S6: PDAC epithelial-ductal ROI cell subcluster abundance.

Supplementary Figure S7: NK cells retain expression of activator markers in fibroblast-rich
periductal regions.

Supplementary Figure S8: Subclustering of epithelial and fibroblast populations in human PDAC
scRNAseq samples.

Supplementary Figure S9: Fibroblast and epithelial cell populations exhibit differential
expression of CellChat-based collagen signaling genes.

Supplementary Figure S10: Human donor NK cells express CD44.

Supplementary Figure S11: CD44 neutralization increases human donor NK cell invasion into
PANC-1 PDAC spheroids.

Supplementary Figure S12: 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.,

A.A.L., 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. 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. M.A., E.J.F, and

L.M.W. edited the manuscript. All authors critically reviewed and approved the manuscript.

Competing interests

Z.X.M. is currently employed by AstraZeneca. E.J.F. was on the scientific advisory board of

Resistance Bio and a consultant for Mestag Therapeutics. L.M.W. sits on the Scientific Advisory

Boards of Celldex Therapeutics, Bobcat Bio, Kuiper and Cytomx Therapeutics, is an advisor for

Fortress Biotech and is founder and Chair of the Board of PushCART Therapeutics.

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

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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 reasonable request.

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