Macrophages display spatiotemporal specificity in intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma and drive tumour progression via OSM and THBS1

Short title: Spatiotemporal macrophage profile in ICC progression

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Data availability:

The scRNA-seq data generated in this study are available from the GEO database under accession code GSE308574. The remaining data are available within the manuscript, supplementary information, or from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

ABSTRACT

Background & Aims: Tumour-associated macrophages (TAMs) are abundantly found in intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (ICC) and are associated with poor prognosis, yet their spatiotemporal dynamics and role in ICC progression remain unclear. This study aimed to elucidate the transcriptional regulation heterogeneity of TAMs and uncover their interactions with ICC cells in driving tumour malignancy beyond immune suppression.

Methods: Using a time-resolved AKT1/NICD1 ICC model and patient datasets, we mapped the spatiotemporal macrophage landscape and their role in tumour progression. By integrating cell-cell communication analysis with phosphoproteomics, we validated key signalling cascades using TAM-ICC co-culture, multiplex immunofluorescence, gene silencing, and conditional knockout mouse models. Single-cell ATAC-seq further revealed epigenomic profiles of TAM subsets and identified their regulatory networks.

Results: Immune response Mφ_CXCL9 and inflammatory Mφ_S100A were enriched in early ICC lesions, while in advanced tumours an M2-like subset— Mφ_VEGFA— with high *VEGFA, ARG1, GPNMB, SPP1*, and *C1QA*, emerged as the major population and correlated with poor prognosis. Spatial transcriptomics revealed abundant Mφ_VEGFA infiltration at tumour boundaries with secretory and proliferative signatures. Further, Mφ_VEGFA drove tumour cell proliferation via the OSM-OSMR-STAT3-CCND1 axis and promoted invasion through THBS1-CD47-mTOR-DNB1 signalling. Lastly, MAFB directed M2 polarisation and upregulated *OSM/THBS1* in Mφ_VEGFA.

Conclusions: Mφ_VEGFA TAMs accumulate at the tumour boundary in late-stage ICC,

driving proliferation and invasion via *OSM* and *THBS1* signalling, underscoring the

potential of macrophage-targeted therapy in ICC.

Impact and implications

Our integrative spatiotemporal single-cell and spatial analyses define functionally

distinct TAM subsets in ICC and identify a boundary-enriched Mφ_VEGFA population

with Mafb-driven M2 programs that promotes tumour growth and invasion via OSM-

OSMR and THBS1-CD47 signalling, supporting macrophage-directed combination

therapy, as dual blockade showed synergistic anti-tumour activity. These findings are

relevant to hepatobiliary oncologists, immunologists, translational researchers, and

patients, since boundary Mφ_VEGFA prevalence correlates with poor outcomes and

serves as a biomarker for risk stratification. Clinically, physicians can apply TAM

signatures (e.g., CD68, VEGFA, OSM/OSMR, THBS1/CD47) to guide patient

selection and trial design, while researchers explore macrophage reprogramming and

policymakers prioritise biomarker-driven combinations. Our conclusions stem from

single-cell/spatial profiling analyses with preclinical validation; prospective multi-

centre studies are required to confirm efficacy, safety, and generalisability across stages

and populations.

Introduction

Intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (ICC), originating from the intrahepatic bile duct epithelium, shows rising global incidence. Its subtle early symptoms, aggressive nature, and chemotherapy resistance drive a 5-year survival rate below 10%.[1] Targeted therapies and immune checkpoint inhibitors benefit some solid tumours, but responses in ICC remain inconsistent owing to its complex tumour microenvironment (TME).[2] Tumour-associated macrophages (TAMs), the most abundant immune cells in the ICC TME, promote immune suppression, angiogenesis, and stromal remodelling,[2,3] fuelling progression and metastasis. Current TAM-targeting strategies—depletion, reprogramming, recruitment control, and functional regulation—show variable efficacy.[4,5] Heterogeneity is a major barrier: CD163+ macrophages have low CSF-1R, reducing CSF-1R inhibitor response; CCL2 inhibitors are of limited use as CCR2 is also expressed on T and NK cells; and prolonged macrophage depletion disrupts immune homeostasis, causing adverse effects.[4] Thus, dissecting communication cascades between ICC cells and TAMS is critical to identify therapeutic targets that directly modulate ICC.

Distinct TAM phenotypes are associated with ICC progression. MARCO+ TAMs correlate with epithelial mesenchymal transition (EMT), angiogenesis, and hypoxia.[6] *S100P* and *SPP1*—markers distinguishing perihilar and peripheral cholangiocarcinoma—show differential macrophage infiltration tied to prognosis and grade.[7] Moreover, TAM states are highly dynamic. Prior multi-omics studies largely used patient samples, failing to track temporal polarisation across tumour stages.

Epigenetic regulation is also critically involved, but a temporal atlas of macrophage

epigenetics in ICC is lacking.

Spatial distribution further influences TAM functions.[8] Spatial-omics have

highlighted TAM heterogeneity.[9, 10] TAMs at invasive fronts mainly express pro-

angiogenic factors such as VEGFA, while core TAMs activate immunosuppressive

pathways.[6] Moreover, TAM plasticity is shaped by cues such as extracellular matrix

(ECM) gradients, lactate accumulation, and cytokines.[9] However, the spatial dynamics

of TAMs in ICC remain poorly defined.

Here, we developed a temporal ICC mouse model, tracked TAM evolution, and

identified shared human subpopulations, mapping their transcriptional and regulatory

landscapes. Using cell-cell communication analysis, co-culture, multiplex

immunofluorescence, and knockout models, we validated key TAM factors in ICC

progression. These findings are expected to support macrophage-targeted

immunotherapy for ICC.

Materials and methods

Materials and methods for sample preparation, bioinformatic analysis, and

experimental procedures are described in supplementary file.

Results

Mφ_VEGFA is dominant at the ICC boundary and linked to poor prognosis

To dissect macrophage subsets driving ICC malignancy, we established an AKT1/NICD1 induced ICC mouse model via hydrodynamic tail vein injection and collected liver tissue at day 7 (early ICC), day 15 (mid ICC), day 25 (mid/advanced ICC), and day 31 (advanced ICC). Single cell RNA sequencing (scRNAseq) was performed at all stages and spatial transcriptomics sequencing (spRNAseq) was performed at day 31, with integrated analysis of public human datasets (Table S1, Fig. S1A-F).

Four conserved TAM subsets were identified in mouse and human ICC: Mφ_CXCL9(human)/Mφ_Cxcl9(mouse),Mφ_S100A/Mφ_S100a,Mφ_C1QA/Mφ_C1 qa, and Mφ_VEGFA/Mφ_Vegfa (Fig. 1A-B, S1，Table S2). Mφ_Cxcl9 and Mφ_S100a dominated early/mid-stage mouse ICC (Fig. 1B), while in humans, Mφ_CXCL9 localised to adjacent liver and elevated expression of *CXCL9*, *CXCL11*, and *CCL5* (Fig. S1C, S1G), while Mφ_S100A was enriched in human ICC tissues with elevated *CD68*, *VCAN*, *S100A4*, *S100A8* (Fig. 1C, S1C, S1G), suggesting an inflammatory early ICC microenvironment. In contrast, Mφ_C1QA/Mφ_C1qa and Mφ_VEGFA/Mφ_Vegfa were enriched in human ICC and advanced mouse ICC, with similar transcriptional signatures (Fig 1C). Mφ_VEGFA showed elevated *GPNMB*, *VEGFA*, *ARG1*, *APOE*, *TREM2*, and *SPP1* levels (Fig 1C，S1C, S1G), consistent with M2-like, tumour-promoting macrophages.[11, 12] Mφ_VEGFA showed significant enrichment in cytokine secretion and tumour proliferation pathways (Fig. S1H). Similar TAM subtypes and

temporal patterns were confirmed in AKT1/YAP1 ICC mice (Figure S2A–C). Kupffer

cells (*Clec4f⁺Mrc1⁺ and Vegfa/Gpnmb/Spp1*-low)*, were abundant in AKT1/NICD1 and

AKT1/YAP1 ICC tissues, likely from liver damage caused by hydrodynamic injection

(Fig. 1C, S1G, S2A–D).

Analysis of dynamic macrophage temporal distribution using pseudo-time analysis

showed that Mφ_Cxcl9 andMφ_S100a predominated the early pseudo-time branch,

while Mφ_Vegfa progressively expanded in later branches (Fig 1D), indicating that

Mφ_VEGFA is the dominant population in advanced ICC tissues. Prognostic analysis

across three independent cohorts (GSE89749,[13] GSE107943,[14] GSE244807[15])

confirmed the robust association of Mφ_VEGFA with poor outcome of patients with

ICC (Fig. 1E, S2E).

In mouse ICC allografts, established by co-injection of BMDMs with BR ICC cells,

tumour growth was significantly enhanced by macrophages, characterised by F4/80⁺

and CD206⁺ (Fig. 1F-i, S3A-G), while depletion of macrophages using clodronate

liposome (Fig. S4A-D) suppressed tumour progression (CD11b⁺F4/80⁺/CD45⁺),

evidenced by increased liver-to-body weight ratio (Fig. 1F-ii).

Using spatial transcriptomics of day 31 mouse tumours and public human ICC

data,[16] we resolved non-malignant, boundary, and core regions and resolved their

underlying cell compositions (Fig. 1G–H, S5A–C). The M_Vegfa/Mφ_VEGFA cluster

was enriched at the tumour boundary, with *VEGFA*, *SPP1, CD206*, and *CD68*

enrichment (Fig. 1G–H, S5A-C). IF and IHC in human ICC tissue microarrays and

mouse tissues validated the presence of CD206⁺/CD68⁺ macrophages adjacent to ICC

cells that were Ki-67$^+$/CK19$^+$ (Fig. S5 D–E).

Co-culture of ICC cells with macrophages caused M2-like polarisation of

macrophages, with robust upregulation of M2 polarisation markers including *ARG1*,

VEGFA, *IL10*, and *MRC1* (Fig. S6A-F), using non-contact Transwell co-cultures or

treatment with tumour-conditioned medium (TCM)(Fig. S6B-D). In Transwell co-

culture systems, EdU incorporation assay and migration assay demonstrated that

macrophage co-culture significantly enhanced ICC cell proliferation (Fig. S7A-D) and

migration (Fig. S7E). Together, these findings indicate that M2-like Mφ_VEGFA

accumulate at the ICC boundary, driving proliferation and invasion through cytokine

secretion.

Mφ_VEGFA promotes ICC proliferation via the *OSM-OSMR-STAT3-CCND1* axis

To explore the mechanisms underlying Mφ_VEGFA-mediated ICC progression, we re-

clustered and obtained seven epithelial cell subpopulations from human and

AKT1/NICD1 mouse ICC. Within human/mouse shared subtypes, E_Alb in mice or

E_ALB in human were normal hepatic epithelial cells with high *ALB* levels (Fig. 2A,

2B, S8A). E_Fxyd2 (mouse) or E_FXYD2 (human) were normal cholangiocytes with

high *FXYD2* levels (Fig. 2A, 2B, S8A). In contrast, E_Jun/E_Spp1 (mouse) and

E_CD74/E_IGFBP7 (human) showed high CNV scores (Fig. S8B) and were identified

as ICC cells. Specifically, E_Jun (mouse)/E_Cd74 (human) displayed high expressions

of *STAT3*, *JUN*, *HSPA1A* and *CCND1* (Fig. 2A, S8A), indicating their stress-responsive

and highly proliferative nature.[17, 18] Meanwhile, E_Jun/E_Spp1 (mouse) and

E_IGFBP7 (human) exhibited high levels of the EMT-related genes *VIM, COL4A1*, and

FN1 (Fig. 2A, S8A). In addition, E_Mki67 (mouse)/E_MKI67 (human) displayed high

expressions of MKI67 but low expressions of receptor genes.

Integration of three cell-cell communication approaches (CellChat, CellphoneDB,

NicheNet) to analyse interactions between Mφ_VEGFA and ICC cells with high

proliferation and EMT features and the downstream signalling pathways, revealed that

Mφ_Vegfa engages with ICC cells via *Osm* and *Thbs1* ligands (Fig. 2C–D). *OSM*,

enriched in Mφ_Vegfa (mouse) and Mφ_VEGFA (human), interacted with ICC cells of

E_Jun in mice and E_CD74 in human via *OSMR* and *LIFR*, which in turn activated the

genes involved in cytokine response and epithelial proliferation (Fig. 2E, S8C–D).

To test whether OSMR and LIFR are required for ICC progression, we generated *Osmr*-

or *Lifr*- liver conditional knockout mice Osmr$^{fl/fl}$;Alb-cre and Lifr$^{fl/fl}$;Alb-cre, followed

by hydrodynamic injection of AKT1/NICD1 via tail vein. Compared with Lifr $^{fl/fl}$ mice,

Lifr $^{fl/fl}$; Alb-Cre mice showed no significant difference in liver-to-body weight ratio

upon AKT1/NICD1 injection (Fig. 2F–G, S9A-B). However, Osmr $^{fl/fl}$;Alb-Cre mice

exhibited a marked reduction of liver-to-body weight ratio after AKT1/NICD1 injection

compared to Osmr $^{fl/fl}$ mice (Fig. 2F–G, S9A-B). qRT-PCR revealed that *Osm* and *Osmr*

levels increased with tumour progression (Fig. S9C). Spatial interaction analysis,

scRNAseq in ICC cohorts (GSE210066 and GSE201425, Table S1, Fig. S10), and

spatial mapping by multiplex IF confirmed the presence of OSM$^+$ macrophages (CD68$^+$)

in the vicinity of OSMR$^+$ tumour cells (CK19$^+$) (Fig. 2H, S10).

Functionally, RAW264.7 and QBC939 co-cultures increased *OSM*, *VEGFA*, and

IL10 in macrophages, and *OSMR* in QBC939 cells (Fig. 3A, S11A). Similarly, co-culture with BMDMs increased OSMR protein levels in BR cells (Fig. S3B-i). Recombinant OSM increased OSMR mRNA and protein levels, and viability of ICC cells (Fig. 3B). OSMR knockdown (siRNA) significantly suppressed ICC cell viability (Fig. S11C-D). Similarly, CRISPR-Cas9-mediated knockout of *OSMR* resulted in significantly decreased proliferation, viability, and clonogenicity of ICC cells (Fig. 3C, S11E).

Phosphoproteomics of QBC939 cells treated with recombinant OSM revealed enrichment of PI3K-AKT, MAPK, and cell cycle-related pathways (Fig. 3D). Moreover, *Osmr* in the tumour subtype E_Jun was involved in epithelial cell proliferation, cytokine response, and MAPK pathways, and interacted with *Stat3* and *Ccnd1* (Fig. 3E). Thus, OSM-OSMR may activate STAT3-CCND1 signalling in tumour cells. To test this hypothesis, we used Osmr$^{fl/fl}$;Alb-Cre mice injected with AKT1/NICD1. H&E and IHC staining demonstrated that ICC lesions formed in Osmr$^{fl/fl}$;Alb-Cre mice were significantly smaller than those in Osmr$^{fl/fl}$ mice (Fig. 3F, S12A). Notably, *Osmr* knockout did not alter F4/80$^+$ and CD206$^+$ macrophage infiltration levels (Fig. S12B). However, the levels of the downstream proteins CCND1, BCL2, and p-STAT3 were markedly reduced (Fig. 3G), indicating that Mφ_VEGFA promotes ICC growth via OSM-OSMR signalling and downstream STAT3 phosphorylation, suggesting that deficiency of OSM-OSMR signalling leads to retarded ICC growth in mice.

Mφ_VEGFA TAMs promote ICC invasion through the *THBS1-CD47-mTOR-

***DBN1* axis**

In addition to *OSM, THBS1* is secreted by Mφ_VEGFA which may promote ICC development. Cell communication analysis showed that *THBS1* interacted with E_Jun and E_Spp1 in AKT1/NICD mouse ICC tissues and with E_IGFBP7 in human ICC via *CD47* (Fig. 4A, Fig. S13A). Using NicheNet, we found that *THBS1*-regulated target genes in ICC cells were mainly enriched in EMT-related signalling (Fig. 4B, S13). Subsequently, we validated the THBS1-CD47 interaction both in vitro and in vivo. In vitro, recombinant THBS1 exhibited moderate growth-promoting and enhanced pro-migratory effects in ICC cells (Fig. S14A, B). Specifically, treatment with 10 ng/mL recombinant THBS1 significantly enhanced wound-healing (Fig. 4C) and migration of ICC cells (Fig. 4D). Correspondingly, *CD47* silencing significantly impaired the stimulatory effects of THBS1 in promoting ICC cell migration (Fig. 4E–F, Fig. S14C, D). Stable knockdown of *Cd47* in BR cells significantly inhibited the proliferation, colony formation capability and viability of ICC cells (Fig. 4G–J). Co-culture with BMDMs promoted BR migration ability, whereas *Cd47* knockdown blocked this effect (Fig. 4K). Similarly, *Cd47* silencing inhibited subcutaneous allograft growth in mice (Fig. 4L, Fig. S14E, F). Moreover, *Cd47* knockdown markedly suppressed ICC dissemination in a peritoneal metastasis mouse model, as evidenced by reduced metastatic nodule formation and decreased ascites accumulation (Fig. 4M(i-ii), Fig. S14G, H). Consistently, CD47 silencing attenuated ICC growth and local invasion into the surrounding hepatic parenchyma in the primary ICC mouse model (Fig. 4M-iii).

To elucidate the role of *THBS1*-mediated EMT in ICC, we performed western

blotting, which revealed that recombinant THBS1 induced rapid induction of EMT-related proteins at 10 min with a peak at 2 h, accompanied with increased levels of p-mTORC1 and downstream p-RPS6 (Fig. 5A, S15A). Phosphoproteomic analysis of HuCCT1 cells treated with recombinant THBS1 at 0, 2, and 12 h revealed elevated phosphorylation of PI3K-AKT and EMT-related signalling proteins at 2 h (Fig. 5B). In comparison, differential protein phosphorylation was enriched in cell adhesion and RNA metabolism pathways at 12 h (Fig. 5B, S15B). Specifically, ranking differentially phosphorylated sites by fold change (2 h vs 0 h) identified DBN1 Ser142 as the most strongly upregulated phosphorylation site at 2 h (Fig. 5C).

Co-culture of ICC cells with BMDM led to increased *Arg1, Vegfa*, and *Thbs1* in BMDMs, CD47, p-mTORC1, p-DBN1 and Vimentin in ICC cell lines (Fig. 5D, Fig. S16A–B). The upregulation of *Thbs1* and *Cd47* was also detected by qRT-PCR in AKT1/NICD1-induced liver tissues (Fig. S16C–D). Inhibition of mTORC1 by rapamycin substantially suppressed the pro-migratory effect of BMDMs on ICC cells (Fig. 5E) and completely abrogated the THBS1-induced migration (Fig. 5F), indicating that THBS1 promotes ICC cell migration via mTORC1 activation. Meanwhile, inhibition of DBN1 via its inhibitor BTP2 significantly blocked the migration of ICC cells (Fig. 5G). Notably, BTP2 exerted its inhibitory effect by decreasing phosphorylation at Ser142 of DBN1 (Fig. 5H, Fig S16E). Together, these results demonstrate the critical roles of p-mTORC1 and DBN1 Ser142 phosphorylation in the THBS1-mediated migration signalling pathway.

Finally, we examined the role of THBS1 in ICC progression by combing the

AKT1/NICD1 ICC model with Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$;Lyz-Cre mice (Fig. 5I). Myeloid-specific

deletion of *Thbs1* significantly reduced liver-to-body weight ratios and tumour burden,

resulting in smaller liver size and fewer, smaller tumour foci (Fig. 5J–K). Western

blotting revealed that *Thbs1* deletion was accompanied by significant downregulation

of CD47, DBN1, p-DBN1, p-mTORC1, and Vimentin levels in ICC tissues (Fig. 5L).

Collectively, these findings establish THBS1 as a master EMT regulator via PI3K-

AKT-mTOR activation and DBN1 phosphorylation in ICC.

300　Combined blockade of OSM and THBS1 effectively inhibits ICC progression

Since *OSM* promotes proliferation and *THBS1* enhances invasiveness, we asked

whether dual inhibition could synergistically suppress ICC. We analysed *THBS1* and

OSM expression in 833 patients from 9 ICC/Cholangiocarcinoma cohorts (Table S1),

and calculated the mean expression levels of *THBS1* and *OSM* in each cohort. An ICC

sample was defined as double-positive if both genes had expression levels greater than

the mean value of the cohort. Using this criterion across 9 datasets, the proportion of

THBS1/OSM double-positive ICC samples ranged from 13.33% to 29.53%, and

exceeded 20% in five datasets (Fig. 6A). Next, we genetically ablated macrophage-

derived *THBS1* using Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$; Lyz-cre mice and pharmacologically inhibited OSM-

OSMR interaction via intraperitoneal administration of OSM-SMI-10B, an OSMR

inhibitor.[19] *Thbs1* deletion or *Osmr* inhibition alone suppressed ICC progression

moderately, while combined blockade attenuated ICC development more robustly, as

evidenced by further reduced tumour burden using H&E staining and a decreased liver-

to-body weight ratio (Fig. 6B–D). These results collectively indicate that combined

blockade of OSM and THBS1 may generate synergetic therapeutic effects for ICC

treatment.

Mafb promotes M2 polarisation and enhances *OSM* and *THBS1* expression in

macrophages

We next examined epigenetic modification in macrophages. Liver tissues from

AKT1/NICD1 ICC mice at middle/advanced stages and vector controls were subjected

to time-series single cell ATAC sequencing (scATAC-seq) to map regulatory elements

in Mφ_VEGFA (Fig. S17A–C). Accessibility profile analysis of cell type markers using

ArchR (V1.0.3) and integrated AKT1/NICD1 scRNA-seq and scATACseq data

identified seven major cell types (CAF, TEC, EPI, B, NEU, T_NK, and TAMs; Fig. 7A,

S17A–B). Further, re-clustering of TAMs revealed three subtypes—Mφ_Clec4f,

Mφ_Vegfa, and Mφ_S100a (Fig. 7A, S17C). ArchR to analyze chromatin accessibility

and transcription factor (TF) motifs across TAM subtypes revealed that Mφ_Vegfa and

Mφ_S100a subsets exhibited markedly distinct regulatory landscapes (Fig. 7B). In

Mφ_S100a, the Klf transcription factor family exhibited specific activation (Fig 7B,

S17D), with TF *Klf3* showing the highest expression and regulating inflammation

response genes including *S100a4* and *S100a8* (Fig. 7C, 7D, S17D, S17E). In

comparison, Mφ_Vegfa displayed preferential chromatin accessibility of *Maf*

transcription factor family (Fig 7B), with *Mafb* showing the highest expression (Fig.

7C). Notably, *Mafb* regulated genes were enriched in cell differentiation pathways—

Mafb was predicted to regulate M2 polarisation markers (*Cd163*, *Mrc1*, *Il10*) and *Osm* (Fig. 7D, S17F). *MAFB* was highly expressed at the tumour boundary in mouse and human ICC tissues and thus overlapped with Mφ_VEGFA localisation (Fig. 7E). *Mafb* also showed significantly increased chromatin accessibility in Mφ_Clec4f (Kupffer cells). Mφ_Clec4f exhibited high accessibility of *Cd163* and *Mrc1* but low expression of *Osm* and *Thbs1* (Fig. S17G), indicating that the regulatory role of *Mafb* on *Osm/Thbs1* is specific to Mφ_VEGFA. Together, these data suggest that *Mafb* plays an important role in regulating macrophage M2 polarisation.

To confirm the role of Mafb in Mφ_Vegfa, we performed cell-cell communication analysis, which revealed that E_Jun ICC subcluster interacted with Mφ_Vegfa in mouse via the Tgfb2-Tgfbr2 ligand-receptor pair, that regulated *Mafb* expression (Fig. S18A–B). In the Transwell co-culture system, *TGFB2* was upregulated in ICC cells, while *Tgfbr2* was upregulated in BMDMs (Fig. S18C). As TGF-β2 regulates M2 polarisation,[20] We found that TCM or recombinant TGF-β2 significantly upregulated the expression of M2 markers in BMDMs, including *Mrc1* (Cd206), *Arg1*, and *Mafb*-regulated genes *Tgfbr2*, *Thbs1*, and *Osm* (Fig 7F, 7G, Fig S18D, E). Crucially, siRNA knockdown of *Mafb* significantly reduced expression of *Arg1, Vegfa, Osm*, and *Thbs1* (Fig. 7H). These results indicate that *MAFB* could regulate macrophage M2 polarisation via *OSM* and *THBS1* signalling.

Discussion

The roles of TAMs in ICC have been linked to poor prognosis through promotion of tumour growth and invasiveness.[21, 22] Recent single-cell omics studies have revealed the molecular diversity and functions of TAMs in cancer,[23] but the specific subgroups driving ICC malignancy and its interactions with tumour cells remain unclear. Using a time-resolved ICC mouse model with integrated multi-omics, we identified Mφ_VEGFA as a poor-prognosis TAM subset in ICC. Spatial transcriptomics confirmed its boundary localisation and functional niche. Mφ_VEGFA displayed mainly M2-like traits with distinct marker genes separating it from other TAMs. Its prognostic significance was also observed in hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC),[11] underscoring relevance across liver cancer, highlighting Mφ_VEGFA as a therapeutic target for both ICC and HCC.[24] Mechanistically, Mφ_VEGFA promotes ICC proliferation and invasion through coordinated multiple pathway via OSM-OSMR signalling, activating STAT3 phosphorylation and CCND1 induction, similar to glioblastoma [25] This observation is consistent with the finding that OSM promotes cancer cell proliferation and differentiation in breast cancer and pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma.[26] Its pro-invasive function depends on the secreted matricellular glycoprotein THBS1, which activates CD47 signalling in ICC cells. THBS1 derived from tumour-infiltrating monocyte-like cells reportedly induces an immunosuppressive TME and contributes to cancer metastasis.[27] Notably, we demonstrate that *CD47* activates mTOR in ICC cells but not IL6/STAT3, resulting in DBN1 Ser124 phosphorylation, as also observed in oral squamous cell carcinoma.[28] While

THBS1/CD47 mediate immune evasion, our study reveals its direct role in ICC

proliferation and invasion.

Our findings offer a new therapeutic strategy for ICC treatment aiming at macrophages.

OSM/OSMR and THBS1/CD47 axes mediate macrophage-ICC interactions,

suggesting their potential as therapeutic targets for ICC. Although administration of

single OSM or mTOR inhibitors (blocking CD47 signalling) achieved limited

inhibitory effect on ICC growth, combined blockade of OSM-OSMR and

THBS1/CD47 signalling generated synergetic anti-tumour effects in an ICC mouse

model. Consistently, a clinical trial showed that targeting OSM/OSMR signalling alone

led to poor outcome or drug resistance.[29] Thus, targeting dual modulators of

Mφ_VEGFA provides a potentially more robust therapeutic option. Further, OSM and

THBS1 were concurrently upregulated in 13–29% of patients with ICC and

OSM/OSMR and THBS1/CD47 signalling promoted ICC proliferation and migration,

respectively. Therefore, combination therapy targeting these two signalling pathways

may be effective in patients with ICC at different stages.

Lastly, our study indicates that Mφ_VEGFA polarisation is dependent on MafB and

demonstrates a metabolic profile with highly active lipid metabolism. MafB has been

reported with c-Maf functioning as a self-renewal blocker in monocytes and

macrophages, and deficiency of these two genes enables extended expansion of mature

monocytes and macrophages in culture while maintaining their differentiated

phenotype and function.[30] In addition, macrophages express acute inflammatory

response genes in a Maf-dependent manner upon bacteria exposure and simultaneously downregulate Maf through accelerated degradation via the proteasome pathway and microRNA-mediated silencing.[31] In this study, we further demonstrate that MAF is required for macrophage polarisation in the TME and highlight the roles of MAF in orchestrating macrophage activation and polarisation.

Abbreviations

TAMs, tumour-associated macrophages; ICC, intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma; TME, tumour microenvironment; EMT, epithelial mesenchymal transition; Mal, malignant tumour cells region; Bdy, tumour boundary; nMal, adjacent non-malignant region; B, B cells; DC, dendritic cells; CAF, cancer-associated fibroblasts; CHO, cholangiocyte; HPE, hepatocyte; T_NK, T and NK cells; TEC, tumour endothelial cells. NEU, neutrophils. EPI, epithelial cells. BMDMs, bone marrow–derived macrophages. scRNAseq, single cell RNA sequencing; spRNAseq, spatial transcriptomics sequencing; scATACseq, single cell ATAC sequencing.

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Figure legends

Fig. 1. Spatiotemporal heterogeneity of macrophages in mouse and human ICC tissues.(A) (i)

UMAP visualisation of TAMs from patients with ICC p (datasets GSE138709 and GSE189903). (ii)

Stacked bar plots showing the distribution of TAM subclusters across malignant (Mal), boundary

(Bdy), and adjacent non-malignant (nMal) regions. (B) (i) UMAP of TAM subclusters in

AKT1/NICD1 mice. (ii) Scatter plot of M2 polarisation scores of TAMs. (iii) Temporal distribution

of TAM subtype, WT (healthy, N=2), D7 (early stage, N=2), D15 (middle stage, N=3), D25 (middle

to advanved stage, N=2), D31 (advanced stage, N=3). (C) Bubble plots displaying the expression

of TAM marker genes in patients with ICC and the AN model. Color indicates expression levels,

bubble size reflects cell proportion. (D) (i) Temporal dynamics of TAM subclusters in the AN model.

(ii) Mφ_S100a and Mφ_Vegfa scores across the time axis, with red indicating mean expression

levels above the 90th percentile. (E) Scatter–pie plots illustrating prognostic associations of distinct

TAM subclusters. Pie chart illustrating cell prognosis outcomes in each TAM subtype. Blue, survival.

Red, death. Grey, no significant association.(F) (i) Overview of in vivo study with FVB mice. (ii)

Macrophage infiltration levels (CD11b$^+$F4/80$^+$ cells within CD45$^+$ population; F4/80$^+$ cells within

CD11b$^+$ population) analyzed via flow cytometry and correlated with liver-to-body weight ratio

using scatter plots and correlation analysis. Data are presented as mean ± SD. Significance was

determined by two-tailed unpaired t-test (**p < 0.01).(G) (i) Spatial segments of AKT1/NICD1

tissue. (ii) Stacked bar plots showing cell-type composition across spatial clusters (xCell). (iii)

Contour maps highlighting spatial expression of Mφ_Vegfa. (iv) Spatial distribution of *Mrc1*

(*Cd206*) and F4/80 (*Adgre1*) in AKT1/NICD1 tissue. (H) (i) Spatial transcriptomics identified seven

cell populations in human tissue. (ii) RCTD-based analysis of cellular composition across spatial

domains; (iii) Scatter plot showing cell functional regions predicted by Cottrazm. (iv) Contour maps

of Mφ_VEGFA. (v) Spatial distribution of *MRC1*. spRNAseq, spatial RNA sequencing.

Fig. 2. Mφ_VEGFA promotes ICC proliferation via OSM-OSMR. (A) UMAP plot (left) and

bubble plot (right) illustrating the distribution of epithelial cells in AKT1/NICD1 mice and the

profile of their corresponding cell type features. (B) UMAP plots showing the patients' epithelial

subtypes. (C) Venn diagram showing overlap of ligand genes that are significantly upregulated in

Mφ_VEGFA which exhibit strong interactions with tumor cells as identified by three cell

communication methods (CellphoneDB,CpDB; CellChat, and NicheNet). (D) Heatmap showing the

interaction intensity between TAMs and tumour cells in AKT1/NICD1-mediated *OSM* signalling.

Bar illustrates interaction probability. (E) Bubble chart visualising pathway enrichment for

downstream target genes of *OSM* in E_Jun (AN) and E_CD74 (Human) via NicheNet. Bubble size

depicts enrichment score and colour showcasing significance (-log10(p.adj), Clusterprofiler). (F)

Schematic of in vivo experimental design. Representative images of livers from Lifr$^{fl/fl}$ and Osmr$^{fl/fl}$

control mice and Lifr$^{fl/fl}$;Alb-Cre and Osmr$^{fl/fl}$;Alb-Cre mice injected with AKT1/NICD1. (G) Bar

graphs showing liver-to-body weight ratios analysis of Osmr and Lifr transcript levels in liver tissues

from Lifr$^{fl/fl}$, Lifr$^{fl/fl}$;Alb-Cre, Osmr$^{fl/fl}$, and Osmr$^{fl/fl}$;Alb-Cre mice injected with AKT1/NICD1. Data

are presented as mean ± SD. Statistical significance was analyzed by one-way ANOVA ($p < 0.05$)

followed by Dunnett's test (ns, not significant, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$; ****$p < 0.0001$). (H)

Multiplex immunofluorescence showing spatial co-localisation between CD68$^+$OSM$^+$ TAMs and

OSMR$^+$KRT19$^+$ tumour cells in ICC patients. Scale bar, 200 μm.

Fig. 3. Mφ_VEGFA promotes ICC proliferation by upregulating p-STAT3 and CCND1 in ICC cells. (A) Bar plot showing gene expression levels in co-culture. Statistical significance was analyzed by one-way ANOVA ($p < 0.05$) followed by Dunnett's test (ns, not significant, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$; $****p < 0.0001$). R, Raw264.7. Q, QBC939. (B) CCK-8 assay measuring cell viability of HuCCT1 and QBC939 cells treated with 2.5 ng/mL or 5.0 ng/mL OSM, or left untreated, for 5 consecutive days. (C) (i) EdU incorporation assay in QBC939 cells transduced with control vector or OSMR-targeting sgRNAs (sgOSMR-1, sgOSMR-2). (ii) CCK-8 assay measuring viability of HuCCT1 and QBC939 cells transduced with control vector or sgOSMR-1 at days 1, 3, and 5 after seeding. (iii) Colony formation assay with crystal violet staining of HuCCT1 and QBC939 cells transduced with control vector or sgOSMR-1. Scale bar, 200 μm. (D) Bar plot showing KEGG pathway enrichment among proteins with differential phosphorylation after OSM treatment in QBC939 cells. Blue, downregulation; Red, upregulation. (E) Network showing OSMR pathways. (F) H&E staining and IHC staining for OSMR, OSM, CK19, and Ki-67 in paraffin-embedded liver sections from Osmr$^{fl/fl}$ and Osmr$^{fl/fl}$; Alb-Cre mice injected with AKT1/NICD1. Scale bar, 200 μm. (G) Western blot analysis of OSMR, CCND1, BCL2, phosphorylated STAT3 (p-STAT3), phosphorylated mTORC1 (p-mTORC1), and OSM protein levels in liver tissues from Osmr$^{fl/fl}$ and Osmr$^{fl/fl}$; Alb-Cre; mice injected with AKT1/NICD1. GAPDH served as a loading control. Data are presented as mean ± SD. Significance was determined by two-tailed unpaired t-test ($***p < 0.001$) for B and C.

Fig. 4. Mφ_Vegfa promotes ICC invasion via *THBS1-CD47* signaling. (A) (i) Heatmap of interactions between TAMs and tumor subtypes in THBS1 signaling. Sender,ligand source. Receiver,

receptor. Color intensity indicates importance. (ii) Top, bar plot showing receive contributions of

ligand THBS1. Bottom row shows *Cd47* expression across epithelial subclusters in AKT1/NICD1

data (iii) Spatial patterns of *THBS1-CD47* interaction. (B) Bubble chart visualising pathway

enrichment for downstream target genes of *THBS1* in E_Jun (AKT1/NICD1 mouse) and E_IGFBP7

(Human) via NicheNet. Bubble size depicts enrichment score and colour showcasing significance

(-log10(p.adj), clusterProfiler). (C) Representative scratch wound healing images of HuCCT1 cells

treated with 10 ng/mL Thbs1 or control at 0 h, 12 h, and 24 h; and RBE cells treated with 10 ng/mL

Thbs1 or control at 0 h, 36 h, and 72 h. Scale bar, 150 μm. (D) Representative crystal violet–stained

Transwell migration images of primary BR cells and HuCCT1 cells treated with 10 ng/mL THBS1

or control. Scale bar, 150 μm. (E) qRT-PCR analysis of *CD47* levels in HuCCT1 cells transfected

with siScramble control, siCD47-1, or siCD47-2 for 48 h. Data are presented as mean ± SD.

Statistical significance was analyzed by one-way ANOVA ($p < 0.05$) followed by Dunnett's test

(****$p < 0.0001$).(F) Representative crystal violet–stained Transwell migration images of HuCCT1

cells transfected with siScramble or siCD47-2. Scale bar, 150 μm. (G) qRT-PCR and western blot

analyses of CD47 transcript and protein levels, respectively, in BR cells transduced with LV3-shNC

control lentivirus or LV3-shCD47; gene silencing efficiency confirmed by qRT-PCR and western

blot. (H) EdU incorporation assay assessing proliferation of BR cells transduced with LV3-shNC or

LV3-shCD47 lentivirus. Scale bar, 50 μm. (I) Colony formation assay comparing BR cells

transduced with LV3-shNC or LV3-shCd47 lentivirus. (J) CCK-8 assay measuring cell growth of

BR cells transduced with LV3-shNC or LV3-shCd47 lentivirus from day 1 to day 5 after seeding.

(K) Representative crystal violet–stained Transwell migration images and corresponding chamber

images of BR cells transduced with LV3-shNC or LV3-shCd47 co-cultured with BMDMs or

cultured with complete medium for 24 h. Scale bar, 150 μm. (L) Subcutaneous allograft tumour

growth curves and representative tumour images of BR cells transduced with LV3-shNC or LV3-

shCd47 lentivirus. (M) Representative images of mouse abdominal phenotypes at tumour endpoint

after intraperitoneal injection of BR cells transduced with LV3-shNC or LV3-shCd47; tumour sites

indicated by white arrows; quantification of metastatic nodules and volume of ascites collected.

Data are presented as mean ± SD. Significance was determined by two-tailed unpaired t-test (***p

< 0.001) for E, G, J and L.

Fig. 5. Mφ_Vegfa promotes ICC invasion via mTOR-mediated phosphorylation of DBN1. (A)

Western blotting shows the expression of p-mTOR, p-RPS6, EpCAM, N-cadherin, Vimentin, and

the internal control GAPDH in HuCCT1 cells after THBS1 protein stimulation. (B) Bar plot

displaying pathway enrichment analysis for HuCCT1 at 6 h and 2 h following the addition of

exogenous THBS1 protein. (C) Circos plot displaying differentially phosphorylated sites at multiple

time points after adding exogenous THBS1. From inner to outer rings: phosphorylation-site

proportions, phosphopeptide expression intensity (inner heatmap), sample groups, and enriched

signaling pathways; the outermost ring lists gene symbols and phosphosites unique to each treatment.

Colored links show shared phosphosites-gray, common to control and treatments. Brown, mTOR-

related. Red, fibrosis-related. Green, mesenchymal-related. Large and small ticks denote 50 and 5

phosphopeptides, respectively. (D) Western blot analysis of DBN1, phosphorylated DBN1 (p-

DBN1), and Vimentin protein levels in BR cells cultured alone or co-cultured with BMDMs for 24

h or 48 h; GAPDH served as a loading control. (E) Representative crystal violet–stained images

from Transwell migration assays of HuCCT1 and BR cells co-cultured with BMDMs, with or

without Rapamycin treatment. N = 5. Scale bar, 200 μm. (F) Representative crystal violet–stained

images from Transwell migration assays of HuCCT1 and BR cells treated with THBS1, with or

without Rapamycin blockade; groups include control, THBS1 treatment, and THBS1 combined

with Rapamycin. N = 5. Scale bar, 200 μm. (G) Representative chamber and crystal violet–stained

images of Transwell migration assays for HuCCT1 cells (i) treated with 0, 5, 25, and 125 μM BTP2

inhibitor, and BR cells (ii) treated with 0, 25, and 125 μM BTP2 in the lower chamber. Scale bar,

200 μm. (H) Western blot analysis of phosphorylated DBN1 (p-DBN1, Ser142), total DBN1,

phosphorylated mTOR (p-mTOR, Ser2448), Vimentin, CD47, and GAPDH protein levels in

HuCCT1 and RBE cells treated with 50 μM BTP2 for 24 h. (I) Schematic of AKT1/NICD1-induced

ICC mouse model established by hydrodynamic tail vein injection in Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$;Lyz-Cre and Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$

mice. (J) Representative images of liver phenotypes and quantification of liver-to-body weight ratios

in Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$;Lyz-Cre and Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$ mice injected with AKT1/NICD1. Data are presented as mean ±

SD. Significance was determined by two-tailed unpaired t-test (*$p < 0.05$), N = 6. (K) H&E staining

of liver sections showing whole-slide and magnified tumour areas. Scale bar, 100 μm. (L) Western

blot analysis of THBS1, CD47, DBN1, p-DBN1, phosphorylated mTOR (p-mTOR, Ser2448), and

Vimentin protein expression in tumour tissues from Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$;Lyz-Cre and Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$ mice injected

with AKT1/NICD1; GAPDH served as loading control.AN, AKT1/NICD1.

Fig. 6. Combined intervention with OSM inhibitor and THBS1 knockout effectively delays

   ICC progression. (A) Stacked bar plot illustrating the prevalence of OSM⁺THBS1⁺ dual-positive

   patients within distinct ICC cohorts. (B) Representative liver phenotype images from four

   experimental groups in the *THBS1/OSM* combination blockade experiment: (1) Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$ + vehicle

control; (2) Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$ + OSM-SMI-10B; (3) Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$; Lyz2-Cre + vehicle control; (4) Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$;

Lyz2-Cre + OSM-SMI-10B. (C) Statistical analysis of liver-to-body weight ratio across different

treatment groups in the *THBS1/OSM* combination blockade experiment. Data are presented as

mean ± SD. Statistical significance was analysed by one-way ANOVA ($p < 0.05$) followed by

Dunnett's test (*$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$; ****$p < 0.0001$). (D) H&E and IHC staining

of liver sections from the *THBS1/OSM* combination blockade experiment. Ki67 and Ck19

positively identifies ICC tumour nest regions. Scale bar, 200 μm.

Fig. 7. Epigenetic regulatory profile of ICC TAM subtypes and key regulators in Mφ_Vegfa.

(A) (i) UMAP of major subtypes identified by scATAC-seq in AKT1/NICD1. (ii) Chromatin

accessibility of representative marker genes for each cell type. (B) Volcano plot showing differences

in motif deviation scores (chromVAR) between Mφ_S100a and Mφ_Vegfa macrophage subclusters.

X-axis: mean motif difference; Y-axis: -log10(FDR). Red dots mark the top 10 transcription factors

with the largest accessibility changes (mean difference > 0.05, FDR < 0.05; Wilcoxon test in ArchR).

(C) (i) Venn diagram showing transcription factors with the most distinct motifs between the two

subclusters and their overlap with factors expressed >1. (ii) UMAP scatter plots depicting chromatin

accessibility distribution for representative differential motifs. (D) Bubble plots depicting pathway

enrichment of putative target genes regulated by transcription factors *Klf3* in Mφ_S100a(i) and *Mafb*

in Mφ_Vegfa(ii). (E) Spatial expression patterns of the key transcription factor *MAFB* in

AKT1/NICD1 mice and human tissues. (F) qRT-PCR analysis of *Tgfbr2*, *Mafb*, *Thbs1*, and *Osm*

after BMDM polarising with TCM for 2, 6, 12, 24, 36, and 48 hours. (G) qRT-PCR evaluating

Tgfbr2, Mafb, Thbs1, and *Osm* transcript levels under different culture conditions. (H) qRT-PCR

analysis of *Arg1, Vegfa, Osm*, and *Thbs1* in siScramble non-polarised, siScramble TCM polarised,

and siMafb-1 or siMafb-2 TCM treated groups. Data are presented as mean ± SD. Statistical

significance was analysed by one-way ANOVA ($p < 0.05$) followed by Dunnett's test (*$p < 0.05$,

**$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$; ****$p < 0.0001$) for F, G and H.

Figures

667 **Fig.1.**

Fig. 2.

Fig. 3.

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682   **Fig. 6.**

Fig. 7.