SPP1[+] macrophages promote the growth and metastasis of intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma via OSM and THBS1 signaling

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The authors declare no conflicts of interest to this work.

Abbreviations

TAMs, tumor-associated macrophages; ICC, intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma; TME,

tumor microenvironment; EMT, epithelial mesenchymal transition; BMDMs, bone

marrow-derived macrophages. scRNA-seq, single cell RNA sequencing; spRNAseq,

spatial transcriptomics sequencing.

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The scRNA-seq data generated in this study are available from the GEO database

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Abstract

Background & Aims: Tumor-associated macrophages (TAMs) are abundant in intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (ICC), correlate with poor prognosis, but their spatiotemporal behavior and non-immune-suppressive roles in ICC progression remain unclear. This study sought to define transcriptional heterogeneity of TAMs and map their interactions with ICC cells that promote malignancy beyond immune suppression.

Methods: We employed three mouse ICC models, four clinical ICC patient datasets, and three spatial transcriptomic platforms to chart the macrophage landscape over time and space. Cell-cell communication analysis plus phosphoproteomics guided functional validation via TAM-ICC co-culture, cytokine treatment, gene silencing/knockout, orthotopic and metastatic ICC models, and three conditional knockout mice. A prognostic ICC tissue microarray with multiplex immunofluorescence and combinatorial blockade in mice tested the efficacy of dual target inhibition.

Results: In advanced ICC tissues, an M2-like subset Mφ_SPP1, defined by high expression of *SPP1*, *VEGFA*, *ARG1,* and *GPNMB*, emerged as the major macrophage population, correlating with poor prognosis and spatially localizing to the tumor boundary. Further, Mφ_SPP1 drove ICC cell proliferation via the OSM-OSMR-STAT3-CCND1 and promoted invasion through THBS1-CD47-mTOR-DBN1 signalling. OSM and THBS1 were co-elevated in ICC patient samples; dual blockade of both targets in mouse models resulted in superior

inhibition of ICC progression.

Conclusions: Mφ_SPP1 TAMs accumulate at the tumor boundary in late-stage ICC,

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

potential of macrophage-targeted therapy in ICC.

Keywords: Intrahepatic   cholangiocarcinoma,   Spatiotemporal   omics,

SPP1$^+$Macrophage, OSM, THBS1

Introduction

Intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (ICC), originating from the intrahepatic bile duct epithelium, shows a rising global incidence. Its subtle early symptoms, aggressive nature, and chemotherapy resistance contribute to a 5-year survival rate of below 10%.[1]

Targeted therapies and immune checkpoint inhibitors provide benefits in some solid tumors, but responses in ICC remain inconsistent owing to its complex tumor microenvironment (TME).[2] Tumor-associated macrophages (TAMs), the most abundant immune cells in the ICC TME, promote immune suppression, angiogenesis, and stromal remodelling,[2, 3] fueling progression and metastasis. Current TAM-targeting strategies—depletion, reprogramming, recruitment control, and functional regulation—show variable efficacy.[4, 5] 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]

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 and underlying mechanisms of TAM to promote ICC

development remain poorly defined.

Here, we integrated temporal-spatial transcriptomics to track TAMs' evolution,
mapping their transcriptional and regulatory landscapes, and uncovering the
human-mouse conserved TAM population driving ICC progression. Using cell-cell
communication analysis, cell-cell co-culture, multiplex immunofluorescence, and
knockout mouse models, we validated the critical TAM-ICC signaling axes,
encompassing the key ligand-receptor pair and its downstream pathway, which
promote ICC proliferation and migration. These findings are expected to elucidate
direct, non-immunosuppressive pro-tumoral mechanisms in TAMs, ultimately
supporting the development of macrophage-targeted immunotherapy for ICC.

Materials and methods

Animal Models

Wild-type FVB and C57BL/6 mice were purchased from Beijing Vital River
Laboratory Animal Technology Co., Ltd. (Beijing, China). Genetically modified mice
were provided by Shulaibao Biotechnology Co., Ltd. (Wuhan, China). All
laboratory mice were kept in a specific pathogen-free environment. Experimental
protocols involving animals were approved by the Ethics Committee of Huazhong
University of Science and Technology. Detailed information on the animals used in
this study is provided in Supplementary Table S1.

Cell source

The human cholangiocarcinoma cell lines HuCCT1, RBE, and QBC939, as well as
the mouse fibroblast cell line L929 and macrophage cell line RAW 264.7, were used
in this study. HuCCT1 was obtained from the Japanese Collection of Research
Bioresources Cell Bank (JCRB, Osaka, Japan; accession number JCRB0425). RBE
was acquired from the China Center for Type Culture Collection (Wuhan, China;
accession number GDC0765). QBC939 was purchased from Shanghai Jinyuan
Biological Technology Co., Ltd (Shanghai, China; product code JY-Y1457). The
mouse cell lines L929 (ATCC® CCL-1™) and RAW 264.7 (ATCC® TIB-71™) were

purchased directly from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA). All cells were cultured according to the providers' recommendations and were routinely tested for mycoplasma contamination.

BR cells, isolated from BMI1/NRAS-driven primary ICC tissues in FVB mice, were maintained in RPMI-1640 complete medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and 1% penicillin-streptomycin at 37 °C with 5% CO_2 in an incubator. These cells displayed consistent in vitro growth characteristics and were capable of forming tumors in both subcutaneous and orthotopic liver implantation models in wild-type FVB mice. IHC and histopathological analysis confirmed the presence of ICC features.

Establishment of the ICC mouse model

Hydrodynamic tail vein injection was performed in 6–8 week mice to establish primary ICC mouse models. For the AKT1/NICD1 ICC mouse model, a mixture of plasmids, including 15 μg pT3-EF1aH-myr-AKT, 15 μg pT3-EF1a-NICD1, and 1.5 μg pCMV-SB, was diluted in 2 mL of sterile saline and filtered through a 0.22 μm membrane to remove impurities. For the AKT1/YAP1 ICC mouse model, a mixture of plasmids, including 15 μg pT3-EF1aH-myr-AKT, 15 μg pT3-EF1αH-YAPS127A, and 1.5 μg pCMV-SB, was diluted in 2 mL of sterile saline. For the sgP19/KRAS high-metastasis ICC model, a mixture of plasmids, including 10 μg CRISPR-Cas9-sgP19, 25 μg pT3-EF1α-KRAS, and 5.0 μg pCMV-SB, was diluted in 2 mL of sterile saline. The injection volume for a mouse weighing 20 g was 2 mL and adjusted according to body weight. Mice were restrained on a tail vein visualization platform, and the injection was completed within 5–7 s. Mice were euthanized and dissected upon reaching predefined tumor endpoint criteria.

The plasmids were generously provided by Dr. Xin Chen (University of Hawai'i Cancer Center). Bacterial cultures were grown in Luria-Bertani medium containing 100 μg/mL ampicillin at 37°C with shaking at 180 rpm for 12 h, followed by plasmid extraction using the Omega plasmid purification kit.

165 Detailed protocols for all other *in vivo* and *in vitro* experiments, along with analytical

166 procedures, are described in the Supplementary Methods.

167 **Bioinformatic analyses**

168 scRNA-seq, spatial transcriptomics, and phosphoproteomics were performed.

169 Detailed methods are provided in the Supplementary Methods.

Results

Mφ_SPP1 is enriched in ICC and is associated with poor prognosis of patients with ICC

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), 15 (middle ICC), 25 (middle/advanced ICC), and 31 (advanced ICC). Single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) was performed at all stages (Table S2, Fig. S1A). We identified macrophage and the other eight cell types (Fig. 1A, S1A). Then, we re-clustered macrophage cells and obtained six subtypes (Mφ_Cxcl9, Mφ_Clec4f, Mφ_Mki67, Mφ_S100a, Mφ_Dnajb1 and Mφ_Spp1, Fig. 1B). By conducting the tissue distribution via $R_{o/e}$ values and pathway enrichment analysis of macrophage subtypes, Mφ_Mki67 and Mφ_S100a were evenly distributed across all stages of ICC progression in mice and enriched with pathways related to self-proliferation and anti-tumor immune, suggesting they are not related to ICC progression (Fig. 1B, S1B-C). Mφ_Cxcl9 and Mφ_Clec4f showed dominated infiltration in the early and middle-stages of ICC progression, and were enriched for pathways related to anti-tumor immune response and pathways connected to tissue repair and maintenance of homeostasis, respectively (Fig. 1B, S1B). Therefore, they are macrophage subtypes not related to ICC progression as well. In contrast, Mφ_Dnajb1 and Mφ_Spp1 were markedly infiltrated in the middle/advanced or advanced stages and enriched with pathways promoting the proliferation of epithelial cells (Fig. 1B) Of note, Mφ_Spp1 expressed high level of M2-like signature genes, suggesting that it may play a role in driving ICC (Fig. 1B, S1B-C).

We further analyzed these six macrophage subtypes in human ICC by integrating two human ICC datasets (GSE138709[11] and GSE189903[12], Table S2). Interestingly, we found that Mφ_DNAJB1 was dominated in non-malignant tissues, different with its pattern in mouse (Fig. 1C-D, S1D). Further, we analyzed the correlation between macrophage subtypes and ICC prognosis using the Scissor algorithm[13], and found that

Mφ_SPP1 showed the strongest association with mortality among ICC patients in the

GSE89749[14] and GSE107943[15] (Table S2, Fig. 1E). In addition, we selected the top

10 signature genes specifically highly expressed in the subtype Mφ_SPP1 (Table S4)

and performed survival analyses. The results showed that patients with high

expression of Mφ_SPP1 signatures (Mφ_SPP1 High) had significantly worse

outcomes (Fig. 1E), further confirming the role of Mφ_SPP1 in the malignant

progression of ICC.

We then conducted in-vivo experiments to validate the function of TAMs in ICC. We

established ICC allografts by co-injection of BMDMs (Bone marrow-derived

macrophages) with BR ICC cells (isolated from Bmi1/NRAS mouse ICC tissues).

Flow cytometry analysis revealed an increased infiltration of F4/80$^+$CD11b$^+$

macrophages in the BR BMDM co-injection group, which was associated with a

significant enhancement in tumor growth (Fig. 1F-G, S2). Next, we initiated

intraperitoneal clodronate liposome treatment every three days starting on day 14 to

deplete macrophages after hydrodynamic tail-vein injection of AKT1/NICD1 to

induce ICC in mouse livers (Fig. 1H, S3). Macrophage depletion suppressed ICC

progression, reflected by reduced liver tumor size (Fig. 1I). Moreover, macrophage

infiltration (CD11b$^+$F4/80$^+$ within CD45$^+$ and F4/80$^+$ within CD11b$^+$) positively

correlated with the liver-to-body weight ratio (Fig. 1I). Together, these findings

indicate that TAMs in ICC is associated with malignant progression of ICC.

Mφ_SPP1 predominate from tumor boundary to the core and promote ICC

progression

Considering the strong association of Mφ_SPP1 with malignant progression of ICC,

we further validated its presence in the ICC patient using multiplex

immunofluorescence (mIF). We observed a pronounced signal of SPP1$^+$CD68$^+$

macrophages at the periphery of CK19$^+$ ICC cells (Fig. 2A). Interestingly,

SPP1$^+$CD68$^+$ macrophages showed the highest level of infiltration within 0－20 μm

from the boundary of ICC nodules, indicating a potential s cell-cell interaction

between Mφ_SPP1 and ICC cells. Therefore, we further analyzed spatial

transcriptomics to unravel the relation between Mφ_SPP1 and ICC progression.

Using high-resolution 10x Visium HD assay and the BANKSY method [16], we

identified seven cell types in human ICC tissues (Fig 2B, S5C). The results also

showed the spatial proximity between the Mφ_SPP1 and ICC cells (Fig 2B, S5C).

Moreover, Mφ_SPP1 showed evident co-occurrence with ICC cells and was

predictive of the abundance of CK19$^+$ ICC cells by mistyR [17] (Fig. 2B).Next, using

spatial transcriptomic data from human ICC tissues [18], we segmented ICC tissues into

malignant, boundary, and non-malignant regions (Fig. 2C). Mφ_SPP1 scores (mean

expression of the Mφ_SPP1 signatures) significantly increased from non-malignant to

boundary regions, peaking in malignant regions (Fig. 2C). Kyoto encyclopedia of

genes and genomes (KEGG) and gene ontology (GO) analysis indicated that genes

related to cell cycle related pathway and epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT)

were increased from the vicinity of ICC nodules to tumor boundary (Fig. 2C).

Next, we investigated the stimulatory roles of Mφ_SPP1 on ICC cells using multiple

cell-cell co-culture systems is (Fig. S4A). We found that non-contact Transwell

co-cultures of RAW264.7 cells or BMDMs with QBC939 or BR derived

tumor-conditioned medium (TCM) generated TMAs with robust upregulation of

SPP1 and M2 markers including *ARG1*, *VEGFA*, *IL10* and *CD206*(Fig. S4B–F). EdU

incorporation and migration assays demonstrated that macrophage co-culture

significantly enhanced ICC cell proliferation (Fig. 2D) and migration, respectively

(Fig. 2E). These results indicate that SPP1$^+$ macrophages promotes ICC cell

proliferation and migration in an contact-independent manner.

Mφ_SPP1 promotes ICC proliferation via the OSM-OSMR-STAT3-CCND1 axis

To explore the mechanisms underlying Mφ_SPP1 mediated ICC progression, we

re-clustered and obtained eight epithelial cell subpopulations from scRNAseq data of

AKT1/NICD1 mouse ICC tissues (Fig. 3A). Among these cell populations, E_Alb

was defined as hepatocytes and E_Fxyd2 as cholangiocytes, confirmed with lowest

CNV scores for non-malignancy (Fig. 3A, S5D). In contrast, E_Jun and E_Cd44 had

the highest CNV scores and enriched proliferation-associated pathways including cell

cycle, cell population proliferation and MAPK cascade, and cell invasion and

metastasis related signaling including mesenchyme development and cell motility.

These results indicate that E_Jun and E_Cd44 were ICC cell populations with high

proliferative capacity and malignancy. Next, we integrated three cell-cell

communication approaches (CellChat, CellphoneDB, NicheNet) to analyze

interactions between Mφ_SPP1 and ICC cell population E_Jun and E_Cd44 in mice

(Fig. 3B). Downstream signaling pathway analysis revealed that Mφ_SPP1 engages

with ICC cells via *OSM* and *THBS1* ligands (Fig. 3B). Further analysis revealed that

Osm and interacts with E_Cd44/E_Jun cells via receptor Osmr or Lifr (Fig. 3C-D,

S6A). scRNAseq data from human ICC tissues also confirmed the communication

between macrophage and cells via OSM/*OSMR* in (Fig. 3D, S6B). Spatial interaction

analysis and spatial mapping by mIF further confirmed the co-localization of OSM$^+$

macrophages with OSMR$^+$ ICC cells (Fig 3E, S6C-E).

To identify the downstream signaling of OSM/OSMR and LIFR, we conducted

NicheNet that software for target genes of ligand prediction and selected top 100

target genes regulated by OSM for further analysis. These genes were enriched in

proliferation related pathways including JAK-STAT, Pi3K-AKT, mTOR and cell cycle

pathways (Fig. 4A). To test whether *OSMR* and *LIFR* are required for ICC

proliferation, we generated *Osmr-* or *Lifr-* liver conditional knockout mice Osmr$^{fl/fl}$;

Alb-cre and Lifr$^{fl/fl}$; Alb-cre, and hydrodynamic injected them with   AKT1/NICD1 or

AKT1/YAP1 to induce ICC (Fig. 4B). 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. 4C, S6F). However, Osmr$^{fl/fl}$; Alb-Cre mice exhibited a

marked reduction of liver-to-body weight ratio after AKT1/NICD1 or AKT1/YAP1

injection compared with that in Osmr$^{fl/fl}$ mice (Fig. 4C, S7A). These results indicate

that OSMR but not LIFR mediates the communication between Mφ_SPP1 and ICC

cells.

Addition of recombinant OSM to ICC cell culture demonstrated that OSM increased

OSMR mRNA and protein levels and growth of ICC cells (Fig. 4B-E, S7B-C). OSM treatment or co-culture with BMDMs increased OSMR protein levels in mouse ICC cells (Fig. 4D). Similarly, RAW264.7 and QBC939 co-cultures increased mRNA levels of *OSM*, *VEGFA* and *IL10* in macrophages and *OSMR* mRNA levels in QBC939 cells (Fig. 4F, S7B). OSMR knockdown with siRNA suppressed ICC cell viability (Fig. S7E-F). Similarly, CRISPR-Cas9-mediated knockout of *OSMR* resulted in significantly decreased proliferation, viability, and clonogenicity of ICC cells (Fig. 4G-I, S7G-H).

We then analyzed downstream targets using phosphoproteomic and scRNAseq analysis. Upon recombinant OSM treatment, differentially phosphorylated proteins were enriched in PI3K-AKT, MAPK, and cell cycle related pathways (Fig. 5A). We obtained 37 genes through overlapping the top 100 *OSM* target genes from NicheNet with significantly highly expressed genes in ICC cells (Fig. 5B, Table S5). Subsequent protein interaction analysis revealed that Osmr was interacted with Stat3, and Stat3 was interacted with proliferation related genes *Myc* and *Ccnd1* (Fig. 5C). Notably, *Osmr* knockout did not reduce the number of infiltrated TAMs (F4/80$^+$/CD206$^+$) (Fig. 5D), but decreased the protein level of CCND1, BCL2, and p-STAT3 (Fig. 5F), indicating that OSM/OSMR activated these signaling in ICC cells. Taken together, these results demonstrate that OSM promotes ICC growth via OSMR and downstream CCND1, BCL2 and p-STAT3.

Mφ_SPP1 promotes ICC invasion via THBS1-CD47-mTOR⁄DBN1 axis

We then investigated the roles of THBS1 in ICC progression and found that THBS1 interacted with ICC cell via CD47 (Fig. 6A, S8A-B). Using NicheNet, we found that PI3K-Akt and EMT related genes were potential downstream signaling of *THBS1* in ICC cells (Fig. 6A). Critically, recombinant THBS1 treatment favored ICC cell growth marginally (Fig. S8C-D), but markedly enhanced migration of ICC cells (Fig. 6B-C). Correspondingly, *CD47* silencing significantly impaired the stimulatory effects of THBS1 in promoting ICC cell migration (Fig. 6D). Co-culture with BMDMs promoted BR migration ability, whereas *Cd47* knockdown blocked this

effect (Fig. 6E, S8E). Similarly, *Cd47* silencing inhibited subcutaneous allograft progression in mice (Fig. 6F, S8F-G). 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. 6G, S8H). Consistently, CD47 silencing attenuated local invasion into the surrounding hepatic parenchyma in the orthotopic ICC injection mouse model (Fig. 6G).

To further elucidate the downstream molecules of *THBS1* in promoting ICC migration, we treated HuCCT1 cells with THBS1 and collected cells at different time points. Western blotting showed that recombinant THBS1 induced rapid induction of p-mTORC1, p-RPS6 and EMT related proteins at 10 min with a peak at 2 h (Fig. 7A, S9A). Phosphoproteomics analysis of HuCCT1 cells treated with recombinant THBS1 at 0, 2, and 12 h revealed elevated phosphorylation of PI3K-AKT and EMT related signaling proteins at 2 h (Fig. 7B). In comparison, differential protein phosphorylation was enriched in cell adhesion pathways at 12 h (Fig. 7B, S9B). 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. 7C). These results suggest that mTORC1 and DBN1 signaling medicate the role of THBS1/CD47 in favoring ICC migration.

Next, we examined their roles in enabling ICC migration through co-culture of ICC cells with BMDM, and found that *Thbs1* in BMDMs and p-mTORC1 (Ser142) Vimentin and, p-DBN1 in ICC cells were fundamentally increased (Fig. 7D, S9C-D). Inhibition of mTORC1 by rapamycin substantially suppressed the pro-migratory effect of BMDMs on ICC cells (Fig. 7E) and completely abrogated the THBS1 induced migration (Fig. 7F), indicating that THBS1 promotes ICC cell migration via mTORC1 activation. Likewise, inhibition of DBN1 with its inhibitor BTP2 significantly blocked the migration of ICC cells (Fig. 7G). Notably, BTP2 decreased phosphorylation at Ser142 of DBN1 (Fig.7H). Together, these results demonstrate the critical roles of p-mTORC1 and p-DBN1(Ser142) phosphorylation in THBS1 mediated ICC cell migration.

Finally, we examined the role of THBS1 in sgP19/KRAS induced metastatic ICC

mouse model with Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$; Lyz-Cre mice (Fig. 7I). Myeloid-specific knockout of

Thbs1 significantly reduced liver-to-body weight ratios and tumor burden and

markedly suppressed peripheral metastasis of ICC to multiple distant organs,

including the intestines, lungs, lymph nodes, kidneys, and diaphragm (Fig. 7I-J).

Furthermore, western blotting of ICC tissues revealed that metastasis related CD47,

DBN1, p-DBN1 (Ser142), p-mTORC1, and Vimentin levels were significantly

downregulated after *Thbs1* deletion (Fig. 7K). Collectively, these findings corroborate

that THBS1 promotes ICC metastasis via PI3K-AKT-mTOR activation and DBN1

phosphorylation.

Blockade of OSM and THBS1 synergistically inhibits ICC progression

As *OSM* promotes ICC cell proliferation and *THBS1* enhances invasiveness, we

examined whether dual inhibition could synergistically suppress ICC. We analyzed

THBS1 and *OSM* expression in ICC tissues from 827 samples of nine

ICC/cholangiocarcinoma cohorts (Table S2) and calculated 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. Across the

nine datasets, the proportion of ICC samples co-expressing *THBS1* and *OSM* ranged

from 13.33% to 29.53%, and those in in five datasets exceeded 20% (Fig. 8A).

Prognostic analyses across three datasets showed that patients with high expression of

both *OSM* and *THBS1* had significantly shorter overall survival (Fig. 8B).

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 tumor

burden using H&E staining and a decreased liver-to-body weight ratio (Fig. 8C–E).

These results collectively indicate that combined blockade of OSM and THBS1 may

generate synergetic therapeutic effects for ICC treatment. Finally, we validated the

spatial proximity relationship between OSM$^+$THBS1$^+$SPP1$^+$ and CK19$^+$ cells using

mIF (Fig. 8F). The results showed that $OSM^+THBS1^+CD68^+SPP1^+$ cells were

spatially adjacent to $CK19^+$ cells (Fig. 8F), and OSM^+ and $THBS1^+$ were

co-expressed in $CD68^+$ cells (Fig. 8F). Patients with high OSM^+THBS1^+

co-expression were associated with significantly worse survival (Fig. 8F). These

findings suggest that macrophage-derived OSM and THBS1 represent promising

therapeutic targets in a substantial subset of patients with ICC.

Discussion

The roles of TAMs in ICC have been linked to poor prognosis through promotion of tumor growth and invasiveness.[20, 21] Recent single-cell omics studies have revealed the molecular diversity and functions of TAMs in cancer,[22] but the specific subgroups driving ICC malignancy and its interactions with tumor cells remain unclear. Using a time resolved ICC mouse model with integrated multi omics, we identified Mφ_SPP1 as a poor prognosis TAM subset in ICC. The prognostic significance of Mφ_SPP1 was also observed in hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC),[23] underscoring its prevalence across liver cancers.[24]

Moreover, our study uncovers mechanism underlying Mφ_SPP1 to promote ICC progression or metastasis instead of suppressing tumor immune microenvironment. Mφ_SPP1 promotes ICC cell proliferation through OSM-OSMR and downstream p-STAT3 and CCND1. This observation is consistent with the findings that OSM promotes cancer cell proliferation in glioblastoma [25] and pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma.[26] Differently, Mφ_SPP1 exerts tits pro-invasive role through secreted THBS1 to activate CD47 signaling in ICC cells. THBS1 has been reported releasing from tumor infiltrating monocyte-like cells and inducing an immunosuppressive TME to boost metastasis.[27] Instead, we demonstrate that *CD47* activates mTOR and DBN1 in ICC cells but not IL6/STAT3, leading to EMT and cell skeleton remolding.[28]

Last, our findings offer a new therapeutic strategy for ICC treatment by aiming at molecules derived from Mφ_SPP1. Mφ_SPP1 secrets OSM and THBS1 to accelerate ICC growth and metastasis via OSMR and CD747, respectively. Combined blockades of OSM-OSMR and THBS1-CD47 signaling led to retarded growth and restrained metastasis in primary ICC mouse models, while single inhibition generated modest efficacy. Consistently, a clinical trial showed that targeting OSM-OSMR signaling alone led to poor outcomes or drug resistance.[29] In addition, OSM and THBS1 were

409   concurrently upregulated in 13–29% of patients with ICC. Thus, targeting dual

410   modulators of Mφ_SPP1 provides a potentially more robust therapeutic option for

411   those patients with ICC.

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Supplementary Material

To access the supplementary material accompanying this article, visit the online

version.

   Figures

   Fig. 1. Mφ_SPP1 is enriched in ICC and is associated with poor prognosis. (A) UMAP plot

visualization of cell types in AKT1/NICD1 mouse ICC tissues. (B) UMAP plot visualizes

macrophage cell types in AKT1/NICD1 mouse ICC tissues (left). Bubble plots display the

expression of macrophage marker genes in the AKT1/NICD1 mice. Color indicates expression

levels; bubble size reflects cell proportion (middle). Heatmap illuminates tissue infiltration of

macrophage subtypes (right). (C) UMAP plot visualizes cell types in human ICC tissues. (D)

UMAP plot visualizes macrophage subtypes in human ICC tissues (left). Bubble plots display the

expression of macrophage marker genes in the human ICC tissues (right first row). Heatmap

illuminates tissue infiltration of macrophage subtypes (right second row). (E) Scatter-pie (the left

two) and plots illustrate prognostic associations of distinct macrophage subtypes. Pie chart

illustrates cell prognosis outcomes in each macrophage subtype. Blue, survival; red, death; grey,

no significant association. Prognosis (the right two) of Mφ_SPP1- high and Mφ_SPP1- low

patients in two bulk RNA data sets (GSE89749 and GSE107943). Statistical significance was

calculated using the log- rank test. (F) Schematic of the co-injection experiment. A mixture of

bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDMs) and BR cells (1:1 ratio) was inoculated

subcutaneously into one flank of mice to mimic macrophage infiltration, while BR cells alone

were injected into the contralateral flank as a control. Quantification of tumor-infiltrating

macrophages ($F4/80^+CD11b^+$ cells) by flow cytometry. Data are presented as mean ± SD;

Significance was determined by a two-tailed unpaired t-test. $**p < 0.01$, and n = 4 mice. (G)

Subcutaneous co-injection tumor model experiments were performed to validate the role of

macrophage infiltration in ICC progression. BR group: injection of BR primary cells alone.

BR+BMDM group: co-injection of BR primary cells with BMDM. From left to right,

representative photographs of xenograft tumors, tumor volume growth curves (in units of 1,000

mm³), and tumor weights are shown. (H) Schematic illustration of the macrophage depletion

strategy in AKT1/NICD1 ICC mouse model. The AKT1/NICD1 ICC mouse model was

established on Day 0 via hydrodynamic tail vein injection of AKT1 and NICD1 plasmids. From

Day 14 onwards, clodronate liposomes or control liposomes were administered intraperitoneally

every 3 days. All mice were sacrificed, and ICC tissues were collected and analyzed on Day 31. (I)

In the AKT1/NICD1-driven ICC mouse model, macrophage depletion was achieved via

clodronate liposome injection to investigate its impact on ICC progression. The control group

received neutral control liposomes. Left: representative liver images; right: macrophage

infiltration levels (R1, CD11b$^+$F4/80$^+$ cells within CD45$^+$ population; R2, F4/80$^+$ cells within

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

using scatter plots. Correlation analysis was performed using Spearman's rank correlation test.

Fig2. Mφ_SPP1 is spatially proximal to ICC cells and promotes ICC malignant progression.

(A) Multiplex immunofluorescence (mIF) demonstrating dense infiltration of SPP1$^+$CD68$^+$

macrophages surrounding CK19$^+$ cells (left). Heatmap of tissue spatial infiltration patterns for

ICC cells (CK19$^+$) (highlighted in yellow) in a representative ICC sample (middle). Bar plots

showing the proportion of SPP1$^+$CD68$^+$ cells at different distance bins from CK19$^+$ ICC cells in

two validation datasets (right). (B) Spatial domains defined by BANKSY in the ICC patient

dataset using the 10x HD platform (the first). Cell type composition across the spatial domains

(the second). Spatial proximity between Mφ_SPP1 and ICC cells (the third). Median importance

of cell type abundance in the prediction of abundances of other cell types in the local niche view

(the fourth). (C) H&E of human ICC tissue (the first). Spatial segmentation of ICC tissues (the

second). Violin plots show the spatial distribution of Mφ_SPP1 cells and the spatial enrichment of

malignant functions in ICC cells across the tissue. (D) Fluorescence microscopy images of EdU

incorporation assays in HuCCT1, RBE, and QBC939 cells transwell co-cultured with BMDMs.

Scale bar = 50 μm. (E) Quantification of EdU positive rate from the experiment shown in (A).

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

(***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001, and n = 4 independent experiments). (F) Representative crystal

violet–stained images of Transwell migration assays for BR and HuCCT1 cells cultured alone or

co-cultured with BMDMs.

Fig. 3. Mφ_SPP1 interacts with ICC cells via OSM-OSMR. (A) UMAP plot (left) and box plot

(middle) illustrate the CNV scores of epithelial subtypes in AKT1/NICD1. Bubble chart

visualizing pathway enrichment results for the subtypes E_Jun and E_Cd44 with the highest CNV

scores (right). (B) Venn diagram showing overlap of ligand genes significantly upregulated in

Mφ_Spp1 (mouse, Mouse_TAM_diff) and Mφ_SPP1 (human, Human_TAM_Diff), which exhibit

strong interactions with tumor cells, as identified by three cell communication methods (CellphoneDB, CellChat and NicheNet). (C) Heatmap showing the interaction intensity of *OSM* signaling between macrophage and ICC cells in AKT1/NICD1 mouse ICC tissues. (D) Violin plots show *Osm* in macrophage and its receptor *Osmr* expression in epithelial subtypes in mouse tissues (left). Scatter plots show the OSM-OSMR gene pair in human ICC single cell and spatial RNAseq data. (E) Multiplex immunofluorescence showing spatial co-localization between CD68^{+}OSM^{+} TAMs and OSMR^{+}KRT19^{+} ICC cells in patients with ICC. Scale bar, 200 μm.

Fig. 4. Mφ_SPP1 promotes ICC proliferation by in ICC cells via OSM-OSMR. (A) Bar plot showing the top KEGG pathways of Osm target genes obtained by NicheNet. (B) 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. (C) Liver-to-body weight ratios Western blot results (i) and CCK-8 assay (ii) for cell viability measurements of HuCCT1 and QBC939 cells treated with 2.5 ng/mL or 5.0 ng/mL OSM or untreated cells for 5 consecutive days. Western blot results (D) and CCK-8 assay (E) for cell viability measurements of HuCCT1 and QBC939 cells treated with 2.5 ng/mL or 5.0 ng/mL OSM or untreated cells for 5 consecutive days. (F) Bar plot showing gene expression levels in co-culture. Statistical significance was analyzed using one-way ANOVA ($p < 0.05$), followed by Dunnett's test (ns, not significant, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$; $****p < 0.0001$). (G) EdU incorporation assay in QBC939 cells transduced with control vector or OSMR-targeting sgRNAs (sgOSMR-1, sgOSMR-2). Scale bar, 200 μm. (H) CCK-8 assay for viability measurements of HuCCT1 and QBC939 cells transduced with control vector or sgOSMR-1 at days 1, 3, and 5 after seeding. (I) Colony formation assay with crystal violet staining of HuCCT1 and QBC939 cells transduced with control vector or sgOSMR-1.

Fig. 5. Mφ_SPP1 promotes ICC proliferation by upregulating p-STAT3 and CCND1 in ICC cells. (A) Bar plot showing KEGG pathway enrichment among phosphorylated proteins after OSM treatment in QBC939 cells. Blue, downregulation; red, upregulation. (B) Venn plot shows the candidate target genes of Osm. (C) Protein network showing the candidate signaling of Osm-Osmr. (D) Immunohistochemical staining of CD206^{+} and F4/80^{+} in paraffin-embedded liver sections from Osmr^{fl/fl} and Osmr^{fl/fl};Alb-Cre mice injected with AKT1/NICD1. Scale bars

represent 50 μm. (E) qRT-PCR analysis of *MYC* transfected with OSM recombinant protein or

siScramble/siOSMR sequences in QBC939 cells. Data are presented as mean ± SD. Statistical

significance was analyzed by a two-tailed unpaired t-test (****$p < 0.0001$, n = 3 independent

experiments). (F) Western blot analysis of OSMR, CCND1, BCL2, phosphorylated STAT3

(p-STAT3), phosphorylated mTORC1 (p-mTORC1), and OSM protein levels, with GAPDH

serving as a loading control, in Osmr$^{fl/fl}$ and Osmr$^{fl/fl}$; Alb-Cre mice injected with AKT1/NICD1.

Fig. 6. Mφ_SPP1 promotes ICC invasion via THBS1-CD47 signaling. (A) (i) Heatmap of

interactions between Mφ_Spp1 and tumor subtypes in THBS1 signaling (left). Bar plot showing

the top KEGG pathways and hallmark gene sets of Thbs1 target genes obtained by NicheNet. (B)

Representative scratch-wound images of HuCCT1 and RBE cells with or without 10 ng/mL

THBS1 or control. HuCCT1 at 0, 12, and 24 h; RBE at 0, 36, and 72 h. Scale bar, 150 μm. (C)

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. (D) 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 (****$p < 0.0001$)(left first row).

Representative crystal violet-stained Transwell migration images of HuCCT1 cells transfected

with siScramble or siCD47. Scale bar, 150 μm (left second row). Quantification of cell migration

area by ImageJ in Transwell assays of HuCCT1 cells transfected with siScramble or siCD47-2,

seeded in the upper chamber. The lower chamber contained either complete medium or

Thbs1-supplemented complete medium. 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). (right). (E) qRT-PCR (the first row) and western blot (the second row) analyses of CD47

transcript and protein levels, respectively, in BR cells transduced with LV3-shNC control entivirus

or LV3-shCD47.(F) 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. (G)

Subcutaneous allograft ICC growth curves and representative ICC tissue images (left) of BR cells

transduced with LV3-shNC or LV3-shCd47 lentivirus (right). (H) Representative photographs of

mice following intraperitoneal injection of LV3-shNC (n = 3 mice) or LV3-shCd47 infected BR cells (n = 5 mice) (left). Representative images of mouse abdominal phenotypes at tumor endpoint after intraperitoneal injection of BR cells transduced with LV3-shNC or LV3-shCd47 (right). (I) Quantification of metastatic nodules and volume of ascites collected (first row). Representative images mouse livers from mice with orthotopic liver injection. Both groups were injected with equal amounts of BR shNC or BR shCD47 cells into the left liver lobe (second row).

Fig. 7. Mφ_SPP1 promotes ICC invasion via activated mTORand phosphorylated DBN1. (A) Western blotting showing the expression of p-mTOR, p-RPS6, EpCAM, N-cadherin, Vimentin, and the internal control GAPDH in HuCCT1 cells after recombinant THBS1 stimulation. (B) Bar plot displaying pathway enrichment analysis for HuCCT1 at 6 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, Ser142), 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 from Transwell migration assays for HuCCT1 cells (left) treated with 0, 5, 25, and 125 μM BTP2 inhibitor, and BR cells (right) treated with 0, 25, and 125 μM BTP2 in the lower chamber. Scale bar, 200 μm. (H) Western blot analysis of p-DBN1 (Ser142), p-mTORC1 (Ser2448), Vimentin, and CD47 protein levels in RBE cells treated with 50 μm BTP2 for 24 h. GAPDH was used as a loading control. (I) Representative images of metastatic

ICC lesions from various organs in Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$; Lyz-Cre and Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$ mice injected with

sgP19/KRAS. Scale bars: 1 cm for liver; 5 mm for lung, spleen, kidney, peritoneum, and colon

(first row). H&E, CK19, and Ki67 staining of metastatic tumor nests in sections from different

organs in Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$; Lyz-Cre and Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$ mice injected with sgP19/KRAS. This lymph node is

referred to as the largest lymph node adjacent to the spleen. Scale bar, 200 μm (second row). (J)

Metastatic nodule numbers in the sgP19/KRAS ICC metastasis model. Data are presented as mean

± SD. Significance was determined by a two-tailed unpaired t-test (***$p < 0.001$). (K) Western

blot analysis of DBN1, CD47, p-mTORC1(Ser2448), and Vimentin protein expression in tumor

tissues from Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$; Lyz-Cre and Thbs1$^{fl/fl}$ mice injected with sgP19/KRAS; GAPDH served as

loading control.

Fig. 8. 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) High (red) and low (green) groups were defined by the

mean expression of OSM and THBS1, respectively; survival in three datasets was compared using

the log-rank test (Merge, GSE107943, GSE244807, and E-MTAB–6389). (C) Representative liver

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. (D) 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 analyzed using one-way ANOVA ($p <$

0.05), followed by Dunnett's test (*$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$; ****$p < 0.0001$). (E) H&E

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

and Ck19 positively identify ICC tumor nest regions. Scale bar, 200 μm. (F) (i) Proximity of

OSM$^+$THBS1$^+$CD68$^+$SPP1$^+$ cells to CK19$^+$ cells by mIF. yellow, CK19$^+$; orange-red/green/blue,

0–20, 20–40, 40–60 μm from CK19$^+$. (ii) mIF shows OSM$^+$THBS1$^+$CD68$^+$SPP1$^+$ macrophages

around CK19$^+$ cells. (iii) Spearman correlation between OSM$^+$THBS1$^+$ and CD68$^+$ intensity. (iv)

Patients stratified by OSM$^+$ and THBS1$^+$ intensity (red = OSM$^+$THBS1$^+$ high, green =

OSM$^+$THBS1$^+$ low); survival compared using log-rank test.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

Epithelial subtypes in mouse ICC tissues CNV scores in the epithelial subtypes

B

Ligands mediating interactions between
Mφ cells and epithelial subtypes

*OSM
THBS1*

C

Interaction between Mφ and epithelial subtypes
of Osm signaling

D

Expssion of Osm and the receptor Osmr

E

mIF staining of human ICC tissue

Figure 4

Figure 5

A Phosphoproteomic pathways in QBC939 upon OSM treatment

KEGG Pathways:
- Metabolic pathways — 20 / 37
- Pathways in cancer — 10 / 27
- MAPK signaling pathway — 5 / 24
- Human papillomavirus infection — 11 / 21
- Multiple diseases — 13 / 16
- Cell cycle — 8 / 21
- Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis — 10 / 18
- Salmonella infection — 4 / 22
- Human T−cell leukemia — 5 / 21
- PI3K−AKTsignaling pathway — 8 / 18
- Focal adhesion — 10 / 15
- Endocytosis — 8 / 17
- MicroRNAs in cancer — 5 / 19
- Tight junction — 7 / 18
- Regulation of actin cytoskeleton — 12 / 12

up / down

Number of proteins in enriched pathways

B Candidate target genes of *Osm*

63 | 37 | 580

Target genes of Osm from NicheNet | Significantly different genes in ICC cells

C Osm-Osmr mediated protein interaction network

Ccnd1, Hif1a, Il6st, Myc, Stat3, Fos, Osm, Osmr, Irf1, Jun

D Osmr^fl/fl + AKT1/NICD1 | Osmr^fl/fl;Alb-cre + AKT1/NICD1

F4/80 / CD206

E QBC939 *MYC* — relative mRNA levels — RPMI-1640 / OSM 5 ng/mL ********

QBC939 *MYC* — Relative mRNA levels — siScramble / siOSMR-1 ********

F Osmr^fl/fl AKT1/NICD1 | Osmr^fl/fl;Alb-cre AKT1/NICD1

OSMR, CCND1, BCL2, p-STAT3, OSM, GAPDH

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8