Quantitative single-cell spatial mapping of bone marrow architecture defines a tissue-state biomarker for disease activity and therapeutic response in myelodysplastic neoplasms

One Sentence Summary: A spatially resolved bone marrow tissue-state biomarker improves assessment of disease activity and remission beyond blast counts in myelodysplastic neoplasms.

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ABSTRACT

Assessment of myelodysplastic neoplasms (MDS) relies on histomorphology and blast enumeration, metrics that incompletely capture marrow architecture and disease state during therapy. We developed a quantitative spatial profiling platform to define a tissue-level biomarker of MDS using whole-slide multiplex immunofluorescence imaging and single-cell phenotyping. Diagnostic biopsies (n=36), longitudinal treatment samples (n=29), precursor states (n=13), and normal controls (n=21) were analyzed, comprising >5 million spatially resolved cells. MDS marrow exhibited coordinated, genotype-imprinted microarchitectural remodeling, including altered progenitor composition and spatial patterning, disrupted erythroid topology, and displacement of hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells from perivascular niches. We evaluated 82 cellular and spatial features and designed a weighted composite metric, the MDS Microarchitectural Perturbation Score (MDS-MAPS), derived from diagnostic samples and locked before longitudinal analysis. In leave-one-patient-out cross-validation, MDS-MAPS discriminated remission from active disease more accurately than blast percentage (AUC 0.883 vs 0.660; average precision 0.567 vs 0.250) and outperformed mutation burden–based metrics in distinguishing low-blast MDS from CCUS (AUC 0.815; average precision 0.890). Mixed-effects modeling showed MAPS decreased in remission independent of blast burden, with architectural normalization at remission and re-emergence of spatial perturbations at relapse. These findings define quantitative marrow architecture as a dynamic, clinically deployable tissue-state biomarker that complements molecular and blast-based assessment in MDS.

INTRODUCTION

Myelodysplastic neoplasms (MDS) arise from clonal hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells and are characterized by ineffective hematopoiesis, peripheral cytopenias, and risk of progression to acute myeloid leukemia (1). Diagnosis and disease assessment rely heavily on histopathologic evaluation of bone marrow biopsies, including subjective assessment of dysplasia and manual enumeration of blast percentage (2, 3). Although these approaches remain central to clinical decision-making, they provide limited quantitative insight into the spatial organization of the marrow and may incompletely capture the biological state of the disease.

Genomic profiling has substantially advanced understanding of the cell-intrinsic drivers of MDS and has improved risk stratification models (4). However, most molecular and immunophenotypic data are derived from peripheral blood or aspirated marrow, which lack preservation of tissue architecture and spatial cellular interactions. As a result, while hundreds of thousands of cells can be profiled in suspension, the spatial organization of hematopoiesis within intact marrow—where both cell-intrinsic and microenvironmental influences converge—remains poorly quantified. Reliable models that integrate spatial architecture with the clinical and genetic heterogeneity of MDS are still lacking (5, 6).

We recently established a platform for in situ spatial mapping of human hematopoiesis using multiplex immunofluorescence, whole-slide imaging, and single-cell–resolved image analysis, revealing conserved architectural patterns in normal aging marrow (7). Here, we apply and extend this framework to clinically and genetically annotated MDS biopsies, including longitudinal samples obtained during therapy. We hypothesized that quantitative measures of bone marrow microarchitecture capture a tissue-level disease state that complements conventional metrics. By integrating spatial features into a composite MDS Microarchitectural Perturbation Score (MDS-MAPS), we test whether marrow architecture encodes clinically relevant information across diagnostic and serial samples and whether it dynamically reflects disease remodeling over time.

RESULTS

Characteristics of patient cohort

We assembled a cohort of clinically and genetically annotated archival bone marrow trephine biopsy samples collected as part of routine diagnostics at our academic medical center **(Figure 1a, Supplementary Data Table 1)**. The cohort included 77 samples from 49 unique patients with either MDS (n=36) or the precursor state clonal cytopenia of unknown significance (CCUS, n=13); additionally, for 14 of the MDS patients, 29 serial samples collected along the course of pharmacologic management, with or without eventual allogeneic hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (HSCT), were also profiled. 21 normal bone marrow controls (NBMs), including age-matched samples, from a recently published cohort were also analyzed (7). All cross-sectional analyses were performed on diagnostic samples unless otherwise stated (Figures 1-6 data). Remission classification analyses included only MDS samples with annotated clinical status (Figure 7 data).

The median age among CCUS and MDS patients was 77, with a M:F of 1:1. MDS samples were categorized into those with low-blasts (MDS-LB, n=20) or with high-blasts (MDS-IB, n=16). International Prognostic Scoring System-Molecular (IPSS-M) values were calculated for all diagnostic samples from MDS patients. IPSS-M scores ranged from –1.61 to 4.39 (median=0.285); cases were subclassified by risk class into Very Low (n=1), Low (n=6), Moderate Low (n=7), Moderate High (n=3), High (n=5), and Very High (n=10).

Quantitative and morphologic variations between normal and MDS bone marrows

Following multiplex immunofluorescence (MxIF) staining and whole-slide imaging (WSI) of trephine biopsy tissues, individual cells and structural landmarks were segmented and phenotyped at single-cell resolution as previously described, yielding a dataset of 5,146,986 spatially resolved cells (**Figure 1b-f, Supplementary Data Figure 1a-b**) (7).

Quantitative cell-type proportions derived from MxIF—including myeloblasts, promyelocytes, erythroid normoblasts, and maturing myeloid cells (MMCs)—correlated with orthogonal measurements from manual

differential counts and multiparameter flow cytometry (**Supplementary Data Figure 1c**, **Supplementary Data Table 2**), supporting the analytical validity of the approach.

Comparative analysis across NBMs and treatment-naïve CCUS, MDS-LB, and MDS-IB samples revealed progressive remodeling of hematopoietic composition and morphology with disease severity (**Figure 2**). HSPCs, myeloblasts, and megakaryocytes increased commensurate with higher-risk disease (**Figure 2a**, **Supplementary Data Figure 2a**), consistent with prior aspirate-based studies (8) but now contextualized within intact marrow architecture. Megakaryocyte expansion in MDS-IB was accompanied by enrichment of smaller, frequently mononuclear forms; quantitative assessment of nuclear number and cell area confirmed this shift (**Figure 2b–c**). CD34-expressing megakaryocytes were present in all groups but were most frequent in *TP53*-mutated MDS-IB samples (**Supplementary Data Figure 2d**). Erythroid normoblasts demonstrated increased cell area in MDS relative to age-matched NBMs and CCUS (**Supplementary Data Figure 2e**), whereas early erythroid and myeloid precursors exhibited genotype-dependent size variation, with the smallest proerythroblasts and promyelocytes observed in *TP53*-mutated cases (**Supplementary Data Figure 2f**).

Genotype-specific compositional signatures were evident. *TP53*-mutated MDS samples displayed marked depletion of promyelocytes and MMCs, alongside expansion of proerythroblasts and maturing erythroid normoblasts relative to other MDS-IB samples (**Figure 2d**). p53 protein labeling has been well-described as a method for identifying mutant p53 protein-containing cells (putative *TP53*-mutated cells) in tissue sections (9–11). Integration of p53 protein labeling with MxIF enabled in situ identification of putative *TP53*-mutated cells, which were enriched within myeloblast and erythroid precursor compartments (**Figure 2e–g**, **Supplementary Data Figure 2c**). In contrast, endothelial cell proportions did not differ significantly across disease states (**Supplementary Data Figure 2b**).

Collectively, these findings demonstrate reproducible, genotype-imprinted alterations in marrow cellular composition and morphology that extend beyond conventional blast enumeration and risk classification.

HSPCs and early hematopoietic progenitors are progressively displaced from perivascular and para-trabecular zones along progression from clonal hematopoiesis to overt MDS

In normal bone marrow, hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells (HSPCs) localize preferentially to perivascular and para-trabecular niches (7). Consistent with our prior findings, HSPCs in young and older NBMs were significantly enriched within 15µm of CD34+ endothelial-lined vasculature (**Figure 3a–c**, **Supplementary Data Figure 3a–b**). This enrichment pattern was largely preserved in CCUS samples. In contrast, HSPCs in both MDS-LB and MDS-IB samples were significantly displaced from vasculature, exhibiting increased average distances relative to NBMs and precursor states (**Figure 3c–d**, **Supplementary Data Figure 3a–b**). Within MDS samples, HSPCs were positioned farther from vasculature than most other hematopoietic cell types (**Supplementary Data Figure 3b**), indicating a selective disruption of the normal perivascular niche.

A similar exclusionary pattern was observed for myeloblasts, while promyelocytes demonstrated significant displacement primarily in MDS-IB (**Figure 3c**, **Supplementary Data Figure 3a**). In contrast, CD38+ small hematolymphoid cells and megakaryocytes remained consistently enriched near vasculature across disease states, with megakaryocytes showing relative enrichment in MDS samples (**Figure 3c**, **Supplementary Data Figure 3a–b**). These findings indicate remodeling of perivascular cellular composition in MDS.

To determine whether clonal genotype influenced spatial localization, we leveraged p53 protein labeling to distinguish putative *TP53*-mutated from wild-type (WT) HSPCs. WT-HSPCs remained relatively proximal to endothelium, whereas *TP53*-mutated HSPCs were significantly displaced (**Figure 3e–f**, **Supplementary Data Figure 3e**). This genotype-specific pattern suggests that clonal HSPCs contribute disproportionately to perivascular niche disruption in *TP53*-mutated disease.

Given the established role of CXCL12–CXCR4 signaling in HSPC homing to the vascular niche,(12) we examined publicly available transcriptomic and proteomic datasets of MDS samples (13–16). Re-analysis revealed consistently reduced CXCR4 expression within HSPC populations from MDS patients relative to healthy

controls (**Supplementary Data Figure 4**). Across four independent RNA sequencing datasets, *CXCR4* was the only gene significantly and reproducibly downregulated in HSPC compartments (**Supplementary Data Figure 4d**). These findings provide a potential molecular correlate for impaired perivascular localization in MDS.

In contrast to vascular displacement, HSPC enrichment near bone trabeculae was largely preserved across disease states, although average distances increased modestly in MDS-LB and MDS-IB samples (**Supplementary Data Figure 3c–d**). Promyelocytes and myeloblasts, however, exhibited more widespread disruption of normal para-trabecular localization in MDS (**Supplementary Data Figure 3c–d**).

Collectively, these analyses demonstrate selective displacement of early hematopoietic progenitors from perivascular niches in MDS, with pronounced effects in *TP53*-mutated disease and accompanying alterations in *CXCR4* expression, highlighting spatial remodeling of key regulatory microenvironments.

Atypical erythroid island formation in MDS

Erythroid normoblasts in normal bone marrow are organized into well-formed maturation "islands," a structural feature readily appreciated by light microscopy. Disaggregation of these islands has been described in advanced MDS (17–20), but systematic, quantitative assessment of erythroid spatial organization and its relationship to genotype and clinical parameters has not been previously performed.

Whole-slide erythroid phenotype mapping revealed large, cohesive erythroid aggregates in NBMs, with progressive disaggregation in MDS samples, particularly in MDS-IB (**Figure 4a–b**, **Supplementary Figure 5a**). At the single-cell level, erythroid normoblasts in MDS were separated by significantly greater nearest-neighbor distances compared with NBMs and CCUS samples (**Figure 4c**), indicating reduced clustering.

To quantify erythroid spatial organization across treatment-naïve samples, we applied a Rolling Signal–based Ripley's K analysis to measure aggregation across increasing spatial radii (**Figure 4d**). NBMs exhibited the highest K-ratios, reflecting robust clustering, whereas the lowest K-ratios were observed in *TP53*-mutated

MDS-IB samples (**Figure 4e**). Notably, *SF3B1*-mutated MDS-LB samples also demonstrated reduced clustering relative to mutation-negative MDS-LB and MDS-IB cases, indicating genotype-specific distortion of erythroid topology independent of blast burden. Erythroid cluster density analyses yielded concordant results (**Supplementary Data Figure 5b–c**).

Importantly, the K-ratio correlated positively with peripheral blood hemoglobin levels (**Figure 4f**), linking quantitative disruption of erythroid island architecture with clinical anemia severity. Together, these findings demonstrate that erythroid island disaggregation is a measurable and genotype-imprinted feature of MDS microarchitecture and that quantitative spatial metrics capture clinically relevant aspects of ineffective hematopoiesis not discernible by conventional morphology alone.

Atypical localization of immature precursors (ALIP) correlates with disease severity and discriminates TP53-mutated and -WT subtypes of high-risk MDS

In normal bone marrow, immature granulocytic precursors localize preferentially near bone trabeculae and vasculature, with progressive maturation occurring toward medullary regions. Atypical localization of immature precursors (ALIP) describes the abnormal clustering of myeloblasts and promyelocytes distant from these regulatory niches and has historically been associated with adverse cytogenetic features and inferior outcomes (21, 22)**.** However, ALIP has largely been assessed qualitatively, without systematic whole-slide quantification.

Using multiplex imaging and spatial mapping, we identified discrete foci of ALIP in a subset of MDS samples (**Figure 5a–b**). We operationally defined ALIP as clusters of two or more myeloblasts and/or promyelocytes within 12µm of one another located >150µm from trabeculae and >40µm from vasculature. Whole-slide analyses revealed marked variation in ALIP frequency and distribution across NBMs, CCUS, and MDS samples (**Figure 5c**).

Among treatment-naïve MDS cases, ALIP cluster density increased with disease severity, with the highest densities observed in many MDS-IB samples (**Figure 5d–e**, **Supplementary Data Figure 6**). Notably, within the MDS-IB group, *TP53*–wild-type higher-risk cases exhibited greater ALIP cluster density than *TP53*-mutated counterparts (**Figure 5d–e**), revealing spatial heterogeneity within clinically similar high-risk disease categories. These patterns were robust to correction for cellularity and alternative cluster definitions.

These findings demonstrate that whole-slide quantification of ALIP uncovers genetically imprinted spatial heterogeneity in MDS that may not be captured by conventional risk stratification frameworks, reinforcing the concept that microarchitectural organization provides complementary information to blast enumeration and clinical scoring systems.

Integration of single cell quantitative features and microarchitectural patterns to generate a spatially informed Microarchitectural Perturbation Score (MAPS)

To determine whether the diverse cellular and spatial perturbations observed across MDS samples could be integrated into a unified representation of tissue state, we aggregated single-cell morphologic features, cell-type proportions, spatial relationships, and microenvironmental localization metrics into a composite parameter termed the MDS Microarchitectural Perturbation Score (MDS-MAPS) (**Figure 6a**).

Dimensionality reduction of sample-level feature matrices demonstrated clear separation between NBMs and treatment-naïve MDS samples (**Figure 6b**, **Supplementary Data Figure 7a**). Within MDS cases, *TP53*-mutated samples formed a distinct cluster independent of blast category, whereas *TP53*–wild-type MDS-LB and MDS-IB samples distributed along a continuum corresponding broadly to IPSS-M–defined risk strata. Feature importance analyses identified contributions from multiple domains—including progenitor displacement, erythroid clustering disruption, megakaryocyte morphometrics, and ALIP density (**Supplementary Data Figure 7c**).

To assess spatial heterogeneity within individual tissues, we computed 82 quantitative features at the 256μm patch level and projected patch-level observations into reduced-dimensional space (**Supplementary Data Figure 7b**). Patch-level MAPS values were derived using weights informed by disease severity stratification (**Supplementary Data Figure 7c**), enabling visualization of localized perturbations across whole-slide sections (**Figure 6c**).

Heatmap overlays revealed marked intra-tissue heterogeneity in many MDS samples. Mean MDS-MAPS values increased with morphologic severity, with the highest scores observed in *TP53*-mutated cases (**Figure 6d–e**, **Supplementary Data Figure 7d**). Notably, several patients categorized as lower risk by IPSS-M exhibited elevated MDS-MAPS values (WCM6, WCM27, WCM29, WCM49, WCM50, WCM51, WCM77), and these discordant samples displayed focal features typically associated with higher-risk disease. MDS-LB samples demonstrated the greatest entropy of patch-level MAPS values (**Figure 6e**), indicating substantial spatial heterogeneity at earlier disease stages.

In addition, focal regions with elevated MAPS were detected in selected CCUS samples. These localized perturbations exhibited architectural features characteristic of overt MDS, suggesting that quantitative spatial mapping may detect early microarchitectural remodeling not readily apparent by conventional histopathology. These observations remain hypothesis-generating and warrant prospective validation.

Collectively, these analyses establish MDS-MAPS as a quantitative tissue-level metric that integrates cellular composition, morphology, and spatial topology to represent the degree and heterogeneity of marrow architectural perturbation across genetic and clinical strata.

To determine whether MDS-MAPS could discriminate precursor states from overt low-risk disease, we performed leave-one-patient-out cross-validation comparing treatment-naïve CCUS (n=13) and MDS-LB (n=20) samples. MDS-MAPS demonstrated strong discrimination (AUC=0.815; average precision=0.890), outperforming mutation burden–based metrics including maximum and summed variant allele frequency

(**Supplementary Data Figure 8**). These findings indicate that quantitative microarchitectural perturbation distinguishes CCUS from morphologically defined low-blast MDS and captures tissue-level disease features not reflected by clonal burden alone.

Correlation of cell morphologic and spatial features with blast progression

Because blast percentage remains central to clinical prognostication models such as IPSS-R and IPSS-M (4, 23), we examined whether quantitative spatial and morphologic parameters derived from multiplex imaging were associated with subsequent blast progression in the subset of diagnostic MDS samples from patients who later received disease-modifying therapies (n=16) (**Supplementary Data Table 3**).

Using modeling approaches appropriate for limited sample sizes, we evaluated the relationship between extracted spatial features and subsequent blast count increase. Models incorporating multiplex imaging–derived parameters demonstrated improved discrimination of blast progression relative to models based solely on standard clinical risk variables (**Supplementary Data Figure 9a**). While MDS-MAPS broadly tracked with IPSS-M scores, multiple samples exhibited discordant risk estimates between these frameworks (**Supplementary Data Figure 9b**), suggesting that spatial architecture captures complementary dimensions of disease biology.

Among individual features, displacement of promyelocytes from perivascular niches emerged as one of the most strongly associated spatial parameters with blast progression, demonstrating greater rank-based significance than conventional clinical variables (**Supplementary Data Figure 9c–d**). These findings indicate that microarchitectural remodeling—particularly disruption of early progenitor niche localization—may reflect dynamic disease biology relevant to blast evolution.

Given the limited cohort size, these analyses are exploratory and hypothesis-generating. However, they suggest that quantifiable spatial features derived from whole-slide imaging may provide additive prognostic information beyond conventional blast enumeration and established risk scoring systems, warranting prospective validation in larger cohorts.

Multimodal longitudinal assessment in the course of disease modifying therapies

Longitudinal biopsies were analyzed from 14 MDS patients treated with growth factor therapy and/or hypomethylating agents, with or without venetoclax; three patients additionally underwent allogeneic stem cell transplantation. Among pharmacologically treated patients, three achieved clinical remission (WCM2, WCM13, WCM44), and three additional patients achieved remission following transplantation (WCM17, WCM21, WCM46).

Across serial samples, MDS-MAPS values were consistently reduced in remission biopsies relative to active disease (**Figure 7a**). Paired within-patient analyses demonstrated significant decreases in MAPS at remission timepoints, including in cases with molecular remission (**Figure 7b**), indicating that architectural normalization accompanies clinical and genetic response.

To evaluate whether MAPS could discriminate remission status in unseen patients, we performed logistic regression with leave-one-patient-out cross-validation (LOPO-CV), thereby avoiding within-patient data leakage. Across serial samples, MAPS demonstrated superior discrimination of remission versus active disease compared with blast percentage, as measured by both area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC) and average precision (AP) in precision–recall analysis (**Figure 7c**). Notably, inclusion of blast percentage did not materially improve model performance, suggesting that MAPS captures dominant and partially orthogonal information regarding disease state.

Mixed-effects modeling accounting for patient-level variability revealed that MAPS decreased significantly in remission independent of blast burden (**Figure 7d**), supporting the interpretation that MAPS reflects large-scale architectural remodeling rather than merely tracking blast percentage. While MAPS correlated with established clinical risk metrics, discordance in several samples underscores that it quantifies distinct aspects of marrow organization (**Figure 7e**).

Representative longitudinal trajectories from patients WCM13 and WCM44 illustrate dynamic remodeling of marrow architecture across treatment courses (**Supplementary Figure 10a)**. Remission samples

embedded closer to NBMs in reduced-dimensional feature space and returned toward an MDS-associated profile at relapse (**Supplementary Figure 10b**). In patient WCM44, transient re-localization of HSPCs to perivascular niches was observed at remission (**Supplementary Figure 10c**); remission in both patients was accompanied by normalization of ALIP density, erythroid clustering, and megakaryocyte morphometrics (**Supplementary Figure 10d**).

Although limited by sample size, these findings provide proof-of-principle that quantitative spatial architecture represents a dynamic and clinically informative tissue-state variable that tracks therapeutic response and complements conventional blast-based assessment.

DISCUSSION

The spatial microarchitecture of hematopoiesis in the bone marrow remains incompletely characterized, particularly in human disease states (24). While recent in situ imaging studies have delineated the spatial organization of murine hematopoiesis under steady-state and stress conditions (25, 26), comparable resolution in the human system has been limited. Building on our prior work establishing a single-cell, whole-slide framework for mapping normal human marrow architecture (7), we applied this approach to MDS to test whether quantitative spatial organization encodes clinically meaningful disease states.

Our findings demonstrate that MDS is characterized by coordinated and genotype-imprinted architectural remodeling. Increased proportions of hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells (HSPCs), myeloblasts, and megakaryocytes intensified with disease severity, but these quantitative shifts were accompanied by spatial reorganization not captured by conventional morphology. *TP53*-mutated cases exhibited particularly distinct architectural profiles, including altered erythroid and granulocytic progenitor composition and pronounced megakaryocyte abnormalities. Megakaryocytes are recognized regulators of the marrow niche, influencing thrombopoiesis and HSPC maintenance through paracrine signaling (27, 28), and the marked morphologic perturbations observed in *TP53*-mutated disease suggest genotype-specific niche remodeling.

A central architectural alteration in MDS was displacement of HSPCs from perivascular niches. In normal marrow, HSPCs preferentially localize near trabecular bone and CD34-positive endothelial structures, consistent with prior demonstrations of perisinusoidal stem cell enrichment (29). Endothelial cells play a critical role in regulating hematopoietic homeostasis through angiocrine signaling (30–37), and disruption of these interactions has been implicated in hematologic disease (32, 33). In MDS, particularly in *TP53*-mutated cases, HSPCs and early progenitors were selectively displaced from vascular niches. Re-analysis of publicly available transcriptomic and proteomic datasets (13–16) revealed reproducibly reduced CXCR4 expression in MDS HSPCs relative to healthy controls. Given established CXCL12–CXCR4–mediated niche retention mechanisms and reported modulation of CXCR4 by p53 (38), these findings provide a plausible molecular correlate linking cell-intrinsic genetic alterations with large-scale spatial reorganization. Although causality cannot be inferred, the convergence of genotype, gene expression, and spatial displacement supports a model in which clonal evolution is accompanied by niche remodeling.

Quantitative spatial analysis also enabled systematic reassessment of historically described morphologic abnormalities in MDS. Disruption of erythroid islands and abnormal progenitor clustering have long been recognized features of dysplastic marrow (17, 21), yet comprehensive spatial quantification has been lacking. We demonstrate that erythroid island disaggregation correlates with anemia severity and occurs in genotype-specific patterns, including prominent disruption in *SF3B1*-mutated low-blast cases. SF3B1 plays a critical role in erythropoiesis through regulation of mRNA splicing (39), and mutation-associated mis-splicing contributes to ineffective erythroid differentiation and anemia (40, 41). Similarly, quantitative assessment of atypical localization of immature precursors (ALIP) revealed spatial heterogeneity within clinically similar high-risk MDS cases, reinforcing the concept that marrow topology reflects underlying genetic programs.

Integration of cellular composition, morphologic features, and spatial topology into the MDS Microarchitectural Perturbation Score (MDS-MAPS) provided a unified representation of tissue-level disease state. While MDS-MAPS broadly aligned with IPSS-M categories, discordant cases—particularly among lower-risk patients—suggest that spatial architecture captures dimensions of disease biology not incorporated into

current prognostic models. Patch-level analyses further revealed substantial intra-tissue heterogeneity, especially in low-blast MDS, indicating that early disease may involve focal architectural remodeling that could be overlooked in aspirate-based or purely morphologic assessments. Notably, in leave-one-patient-out cross-validation comparing treatment-naïve CCUS and MDS-LB samples, MDS-MAPS demonstrated strong discrimination and outperformed mutation burden–based metrics, including maximum and summed variant allele frequency. This finding suggests that quantitative microarchitectural perturbation distinguishes precursor states from morphologically defined low-blast MDS and captures tissue-level disease biology not reflected by clonal burden alone.

Longitudinal analyses underscore the dynamic nature of spatial remodeling. MDS-MAPS decreased consistently in remission samples and discriminated active disease from remission using leave-one-patient-out cross-validation, outperforming blast percentage in both ROC and precision–recall analyses. Mixed-effects modeling confirmed that MAPS reductions occurred independently of blast burden, supporting the interpretation that quantitative architecture represents an orthogonal tissue-state metric. In representative patients, normalization of HSPC localization and progenitor clustering accompanied clinical and genetic remission, with re-emergence of spatial perturbations at relapse. These findings provide proof-of-principle that intact marrow architecture tracks therapeutic response.

Exploratory analyses of blast progression suggest that specific spatial parameters—particularly progenitor displacement from vascular niches—may provide additive prognostic information beyond conventional clinical variables. Although limited by cohort size, these observations support prospective evaluation of spatial biomarkers in larger, clinically annotated cohorts.

This study has limitations. The sample size, particularly for progression and remission analyses, constrains definitive prognostic conclusions, and mechanistic interpretations of niche disruption remain correlative. Validation in independent and prospectively collected cohorts will be essential to establish clinical utility. Nevertheless, interrogation of millions of spatially resolved cells across diagnostic and longitudinal biopsies provides a high-resolution framework for understanding marrow organization in MDS.

In summary, we demonstrate that quantitative spatial architecture of the human bone marrow encodes genotype, disease severity, and therapeutic response in MDS. By integrating multiplex imaging with computational modeling, we define a tissue-level metric that complements blast-based and molecular assessments. These findings support incorporation of spatially resolved analysis into future diagnostic and translational studies and provide a foundation for evaluating microarchitectural biomarkers in hematologic malignancies.

MATERIALS & METHODS

Study Cohort and Clinical Definitions

Archival posterior iliac crest bone marrow trephine biopsies were collected from individuals evaluated for cytopenia of unknown etiology at our academic medical center. All cases were classified according to World Health Organization (WHO) 5th edition criteria. The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board and conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

The cohort comprised 49 unique patients with myelodysplastic neoplasms (MDS; n=36) or clonal cytopenia(s) of undetermined significance (n=13), contributing 77 trephine biopsy samples. Twenty-nine serial biopsies from 14 MDS patients (range 2–7 per patient) were obtained after the diagnostic biopsy. Twenty-one normal bone marrow (NBM) controls from a previously published cohort were included. A tissue microarray (TMA) incorporating 7 additional *TP53*-mutated MDS cases and 5 NBMs was included in analyses corresponding to Figures 2–3.

Clinical definitions were prespecified and adjudicated prior to development of the MDS Microarchitectural Perturbation Score (MDS-MAPS), and therefore without knowledge of MAPS results. Diagnostic (treatment-naïve) samples were those establishing diagnosis prior to therapy. Serial samples were those obtained after diagnosis. Disease-modifying therapies primarily included hypomethylating agents (azacytidine or decitabine) with or without venetoclax (Supplemental Data Tables 1 and 3).

Remission versus active disease status for serial biopsies was determined through integration of 2023 International Working Group (IWG) response criteria (42), contemporaneous pathology reports, and concurrent cytogenetic and molecular findings. Biopsies were classified as remission if they met IWG criteria for complete remission (CR) or CR with incomplete hematologic recovery (CRi), including marrow blasts <5%, and were interpreted morphologically as remission without persistent dysplasia or excess blasts. Cases were classified as active disease if driver mutations and/or clonal cytogenetic abnormalities consistent with residual MDS persisted, even when blasts were <5%. Molecular remission was defined as absence of detectable mutations to a

sensitivity of 5% variant allele frequency (VAF) using clinically validated non–minimal residual disease

targeted sequencing. Blast progression was defined as any increase in marrow blast percentage relative to

baseline. Clinical laboratory data were abstracted from medical records.

Clinical Laboratory Characterization

All diagnostic samples underwent standard clinical evaluation including histomorphologic review,

multiparameter flow cytometry (MFC), cytogenetic analysis, and targeted next-generation sequencing (NGS).

MFC was performed using a 10-color EuroFlow (43) panel with acquisition of ≥200,000 events per

sample and analyzed using BD FACSDiva. Blast populations were defined as CD34+/CD117+ cells. Flow-

derived proportions were used for orthogonal validation of multiplex immunofluorescence–derived cell types.

Conventional cytogenetic analysis was performed on 20 metaphases per case and reported according to

International System for Human Cytogenetic Nomenclature guidelines. FISH was performed when clinically

indicated using probes targeting recurrent MDS-associated abnormalities.

Targeted NGS was performed using either a 45-gene panel (analytical sensitivity ~2% VAF for SNVs,

1% for indels) or the TruSight Oncology 500 assay (~3% VAF sensitivity) on Illumina platforms, with analysis

using clinically validated pipelines. Mutation status was derived from diagnostic reports.

Multiplex Immunofluorescence Imaging

Multiplex immunofluorescence (MxIF) staining was performed using the Opal platform (Akoya

Biosciences) (7, 44, 45). Whole-slide images were acquired on the Vectra Polaris / PhenoImager system at high

magnification and spatial resolution sufficient for single-cell segmentation.

The antibody panel consisted of CD34, CD117, CD38, CD71, CD61, CD15, and DAPI. For selected analyses, p53 was substituted for CD38. Regions containing <100 cells per 256 × 256 µm patch or >95% non-hematopoietic elements were excluded. All slides underwent visual quality control.

Image Segmentation and Phenotyping

Whole-cell segmentation was performed using the Mesmer deep learning framework (46). Nuclei were identified via DAPI signal and expanded to whole-cell masks using membrane marker information.

Cell phenotypes were assigned using convolutional neural network–based classification. Structural elements (trabeculae, adipose tissue, vasculature) were annotated using morphological criteria and CD34 signal for endothelial structures. Segmentation and phenotyping pipelines were applied uniformly across all samples.

Spatial Analyses

Spatial enrichment relative to vasculature and trabeculae was quantified using permutation testing with 1,000 permutations. Proximity thresholds were defined a priori as 15 µm for vascular enrichment and 30 µm for trabecular enrichment. P-values were calculated as the proportion of permutations exceeding observed enrichment.

Erythroid clustering was quantified using Rolling Signal–based Ripley's K statistic (47) with 256 × 256 µm windows and density-based clustering using HDBSCAN (min_cluster_size = 5; min_samples = 3). Atypical localization of immature precursors (ALIP) clusters were defined as ≥2 myeloblasts and/or promyelocytes within 12 µm of one another and located >150 µm from trabeculae and >40 µm from vasculature.

Construction of the MDS Microarchitectural Perturbation Score (MDS-MAPS)

Whole-slide images were subdivided into 256 × 256 µm patches. For each patch, 82 quantitative

features encompassing cell-type proportions, morphologic characteristics, spatial proximity measures, and

microenvironmental localization metrics were computed and normalized using z-score scaling. Features were

evaluated for importance in stratifying disease state, derived exclusively from diagnostic samples, and weighted

accordingly at the patch level. MDS-MAPS was constructed as an additive weighted model incorporating both

main effects and curated interaction terms:

$$MAP = \Sigma \ (Z(i) \times W(i)) + \Sigma \ (Z(j) \times Z(k) \times W(jk))$$

where $Z(i)$ represents the z-score of feature i, $W(i)$ its weight, and interaction terms model biologically relevant

feature pairs. Model weights were derived using diagnostic samples only and were locked prior to longitudinal

and remission analyses. No regularization was applied. Interaction features and weights were curated based on

established MDS pathology criteria.

Patch-level MAPS values were aggregated to compute sample-level mean MAPS and normalized

entropy to quantify spatial heterogeneity.

CCUS/MDS-LB Discrimination and Remission Classification Modeling

Discrimination of CCUS versus MDS-LB and, separately, remission versus active disease, was

evaluated using logistic regression with leave-one-patient-out cross-validation (LOPO-CV). The predictive

variable was MAPS, calculated at the sample-level. For remission analysis with serial samples, patient-wise

LOPO-CV ensured all timepoints from a held-out patient were excluded from training.

Models used L2 regularization (C = 1) without class weighting. Performance was assessed using area

under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC) and average precision (AP). For CCUS/MDS-LB

discrimination, comparative models included 1) aspirate differential counts for blast percentage alone,

promyelocyte percentage alone, or proerythroblast percentage alone; and 2) highest single mutation VAF and summed VAFs. For remission classification, comparative models included blast percentage alone, MAPS alone, and MAPS + blast%.

Statistical significance of the incremental contribution of MAPS beyond comparator metrics was evaluated using permutation testing (1,000 permutations), with ΔAUC as the test statistic. The p-value was defined as the proportion of permutations with ΔAUC $\geq$ observed ΔAUC.

Mixed-Effects Modeling

To evaluate whether MAPS reductions occurred independently of blast burden, a linear mixed-effects model was fit:

$$MAPS \sim Remission\ Status + Blast\% + (1|Patient)$$

using statsmodels in Python. A random intercept for patient was included; random slopes were not modeled due to limited within-patient sample size.

Re-analysis of Public Datasets

Public transcriptomic datasets (GSE136816, GSE111085, EGAS00001007568) and proteomic data from Behbehani et al. were re-analyzed to evaluate CXCR4 expression in MDS hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells relative to controls. RNA sequencing data were normalized using trimmed mean of M values (TMM). Differential expression was assessed using generalized linear model likelihood ratio testing with Benjamini–Hochberg correction (FDR < 0.05).

487 *Statistical Analysis*

488   All analyses were performed in Python (v3.11). Non-parametric comparisons used the Mann–Whitney U

489 test, correlations used Spearman's rank coefficient, and multiple testing correction was applied using

490 Benjamini–Hochberg (FDR < 0.05) where appropriate.

LIST OF SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

Supplementary Methods

Clinicopathologic and Laboratory Data

Multiplex Immunofluorescence Tissue Staining

Image Processing and Segmentation Pipeline

Cell Phenotyping and Classification

p53 Classification (TMA)

Structural Masks Segmentation

Morphologic Feature Extraction

Spatial Statistics Implementation (Permutation Testing, Ripley's K, HDBSCAN)

MDS-MAPS Detailed Implementation

Remission Classification Modeling

Blast Progression Modeling

Mixed-Effects Modeling

Public Dataset Re-Analysis

Supplementary Figures

Supplementary Fig. S1. Single-cell segmentation, phenotyping, and quantitative validation of the multiplex immunofluorescence analysis pipeline.

Supplementary Fig. S2. Cell-type frequencies and morphologic characteristics across disease and genotype-defined groups.

Supplementary Fig. S3. Spatial proximity of hematopoietic cell types to vasculature and trabecular bone.

Supplementary Fig. S4. Reduced CXCR4 expression in CD34+ progenitors across publicly available MDS transcriptomic and proteomic datasets.

Supplementary Fig. S5. Quantitative assessment of erythroid island architecture in normal and MDS bone marrow.

Supplementary Fig. S6. Robustness analysis of atypical localization of immature precursors (ALIP).

Supplementary Fig. S7. Structure and quality control of the MDS Microarchitectural Perturbation Score (MDS-MAPS).

Supplementary Fig. S8. Exploratory modeling of baseline predictors of blast count increase.

Supplementary Fig. S9. Multimodal longitudinal assessment in patients with transient remission.

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DATA AVAILABILITY

All data and code will be deposited online (https://github.com/BoneMarrowMxIFImaging/MDS.Manuscript) following formal manuscript review.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization: S.P. *Methodology*: R.N., D.R., S.P. *Formal analysis*: R.N., D.R. *Investigation*: R.N., A.K., J.C., A.R., I.V., C.U., J.J., F.S., J.P., C.M., L.Z., D.S., G.R., P.D., J.K., J.F., M.G., N.L., A.C., M.O., P.S., J.G., G.I., S.R., D.R., S.P., *Visualization*: R.N. *Resources*: N.L., G.I., S.R., S.P. *Writing*: R.N., S.P. *Supervision*: D.R., S.P. *Funding acquisition*: S.R., S.P.

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COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests relevant to this study.

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Figure 1. Study design and single-cell spatial profiling of bone marrow trephine biopsies in MDS.

(a) Schematic of cohort assembly and multiplex immunofluorescence (MxIF) workflow for whole-slide bone marrow trephine biopsy analysis.

(b) Representative whole-slide MxIF images and corresponding single-cell segmentation maps from treatment-naïve samples. MDS cases were categorized as low blast (MDS–low grade; MDS-LB) or high blast (MDS–high grade; MDS-IB). Non-MDS samples included clonal cytopenia of undetermined significance (CCUS) and normal bone marrow (NBM; <50 years or ≥50 years).

(c) Schematic of cellular and spatial features extracted for downstream quantitative analysis.

(d) Representative region of interest (ROI) showing multiplex immunofluorescence channels alongside the corresponding cell-level phenotyped segmentation map from two example cases. Antibody color channel assignments and phenotype definitions are indicated.

(e) Distribution of cell type proportions across the treatment-naïve cohort. Twelve cell phenotypes were defined using membrane marker expression and morphologic parameters.

(f) Cohort characteristics and sample distribution, including number of cases per group, total cells phenotyped, total tissue area analyzed, most frequent mutation per disease group, and number of serial samples included in the longitudinal treatment cohort.

Figure 2. Single-cell compositional and morphologic alterations in MDS.

(a) Proportions of hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells (HSPCs), myeloblasts, and megakaryocytes across primary sample groups. Statistical comparisons were performed using two-sided Mann–Whitney U tests (*P ≤ 0.05, **P ≤ 0.01, ***P ≤ 0.001).

(b) Representative multiplex immunofluorescence (MxIF) images from normal bone marrow (NBM) and MDS samples illustrating differences in megakaryocyte size and morphology (scale bars, 40 µm).

(c) Quantification of mean megakaryocyte area and nuclear number across progression from NBM to CCUS, MDS–low blast (MDS-LB), and MDS–increased blast (MDS-IB). Data are shown as scatter plots with standard deviation ellipses.

(d) Proportions of maturing myeloid cells (MMCs), promyelocytes, proerythroblasts, and erythroid normoblasts across sample groups, with MDS-IB stratified by *TP53* mutation status (two-sided Mann–Whitney U test; *$P \leq 0.05$, **$P \leq 0.01$, ***$P \leq 0.001$).

(e) Representative cluster of CD117$^+$CD71$^+$ proerythroblasts with high p53 protein expression from a *TP53*-mutated case (WCM14). Top row (left to right): DAPI (blue), CD71 (red), CD61 (yellow), CD117 (green). Bottom row: p53 (orange), CD34 (magenta), CD15 (cyan), merged image (scale bars, 10 µm).

(f) Representative MxIF image showing myeloblasts and erythroid normoblasts with elevated p53 protein expression in a *TP53*-mutated sample (scale bars, 20 µm).

(g) Proportion of cells with high p53 protein expression across *TP53*-mutated MDS samples in a tissue microarray. Cells were pooled across *TP53*-mutated cases, and proportions were calculated as the number of p53$^+$ cells within each phenotype divided by the total number of cells of that phenotype. All MxIF images were acquired using Phenochart (v1.1, Akoya Biosciences).

Figure 3. Hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells (HSPCs) show reduced perivascular enrichment along progression from clonal hematopoiesis to overt MDS.

(a) Representative multiplex immunofluorescence (MxIF) images demonstrating localization of HSPCs (arrows) adjacent to CD34$^+$ endothelium in normal bone marrow (NBM) and reduced perivascular association in MDS (scale bars, 20 μm).

(b) Schematic of the permutation-based spatial analysis framework used to assess cell-type enrichment within defined vascular neighborhoods (created with BioRender).

(c) Heatmap of combined P values representing enrichment of indicated cell types within a 15-μm radius of endothelium. For each whole-slide image, 1,000 phenotype-label permutations were performed to generate a null distribution of random spatial assignments. P values were calculated at the patient level and combined across cases within each group using Stouffer's method. Lower values (yellow) indicate significant perivascular enrichment relative to the permuted null distribution, whereas higher values (gray) indicate absence of enrichment or relative displacement from endothelium.

(d) Conceptual schematic summarizing alterations in perivascular niche composition observed in NBM versus MDS (created with BioRender).

(e) Representative MxIF image from a *TP53*-mutated MDS sample showing HSPCs with high p53 protein expression (arrows) exhibiting reduced proximity to endothelium (scale bars, 30 μm).

(f) Permutation testing heatmap from the tissue microarray cohort evaluating vascular enrichment of cell subsets stratified by p53 expression. As in (C), enrichment was assessed using 1,000 phenotype-label permutations per whole-slide image, with patient-level P values combined using Stouffer's method. Lower values (yellow) indicate significant enrichment within 15 μm of endothelium, and higher values (gray) indicate relative displacement.

Figure 4. Disrupted erythroid island organization and reduced spatial clustering in MDS.

(a) Representative MxIF images demonstrating a well-formed, densely aggregated erythroid island in normal bone marrow (NBM; top) and dispersed erythroid normoblasts in an MDS-LB–*SF3B1*–mutated sample (bottom) (scale bars, 20 µm).

(b) Whole-slide images showing merged DAPI and CD71 channels (left) and corresponding erythroid normoblast segmentation masks (right) for representative cases from NBM, MDS-LB–*SF3B1*, and MDS-IB–*TP53* groups. Insets display higher-magnification regions of interest (ROIs) highlighting differences in erythroid spatial organization.

(c) Quantification of erythroid normoblast spatial proximity. *Top*: single-cell–level distribution of nearest-neighbor distance between erythroid normoblasts normalized to expected distance relative to all other cell types. *Bottom*: patient-level aggregated distributions. Statistical comparisons were performed using the Mann–Whitney U test (*P $\leq$ 0.05, **P $\leq$ 0.01).

(d) Schematic illustrating implementation of Rolling Signal–based Ripley's K statistic (RSRK) across whole-slide images using sliding windows (256 × 256 μm, 50% overlap) to quantify multiscale erythroid clustering.

(e) Heatmap showing mean RSRK values across genotype-defined groups evaluated over radii ranging from 8.5 to 12.5 μm. Lower K values indicate reduced spatial clustering (greater dispersion). MDS-LB–*SF3B1* and MDS-IB–*TP53* samples demonstrate consistently reduced clustering across radii.

(f) Scatter plot showing the relationship between erythroid clustering (mean RSRK) and hemoglobin concentration across MDS and age-matched non-MDS cases. A positive correlation was observed (Spearman r = 0.41, P = 0.007). MDS-LB–*SF3B1* (yellow) and MDS-IB–*TP53* (black) samples are characterized by lower hemoglobin values and reduced erythroid spatial clustering.

Figure 5. Atypical localization of immature precursors (ALIP) associates with disease severity and distinguishes TP53-mutated high-risk MDS.

(a) Schematic illustrating computational identification of ALIP clusters, defined as groups of ≥2 myeloblasts and/or promyelocytes located >150 µm from trabecular bone and >40 µm from vasculature (designed with BioRender).

(b) Representative MxIF image from an MDS-IB case showing clusters of immature precursors in intertrabecular regions distant from bone and endothelium (scale bar, 50 µm). Arrows denote ALIP clusters in the magnified inset (scale bar, 20 µm). Star symbols indicate bone trabeculae.

(c) Whole-slide examples showing merged CD117, CD34, and CD15 channels (left) and corresponding segmentation maps (right) with bone trabeculae (dark blue), endothelium (dark red), and myeloblast and/or promyelocyte segmentations (gray/pink). ALIP clusters are annotated with red arrows. Representative cases are shown from NBM, CCUS, MDS-LB, MDS-IB–*TP53*, and MDS-IB (*TP53*–wild-type) groups.

(d) Sample-level quantification of ALIP cluster frequency in MDS cases, normalized as number of ALIP clusters per 10,000 total nucleated cells per whole-slide image. Heatmaps beneath each bar display corresponding aspirate smear blast percentage (manual count), MxIF-derived myeloblast proportion, IPSS-M risk category, selected driver mutation variant allele frequency, and cytogenetic abnormalities.

(e) ALIP frequency increases with disease grade and is highest in *TP53*-WT samples among MDS-IB patients (Mann–Whitney U test; *P ≤ 0.05, **P ≤ 0.01, ***P ≤ 0.001).

Figure 6. Derivation and visualization of the MDS Microarchitectural Perturbation Score (MDS-MAPS).

(a) Schematic illustrating the derivation of MDS-MAPS. Whole-slide images were subdivided into 256 × 256 μm patches, from which 82 predefined cellular and spatial features were extracted. Feature values were standardized and combined in a weighted additive model to generate patch-level perturbation scores. Weights were derived using diagnostic samples and fixed prior to longitudinal analyses.

(b) t-Distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (t-SNE) of sample-level feature vectors showing separation of MDS-LB, MDS-IB and MDS-IB–*TP53* cases from NBM and CCUS samples. NBM samples are color-scaled by age; MDS samples are color-scaled by IPSS-M risk scores.

(c) Representative whole-slide MxIF images (top) and corresponding patch-level MDS-MAPS heatmaps (bottom) for NBM, CCUS, MDS-LB, and MDS-IB–*TP53* cases. White patches indicate low perturbation (low MAPS); red patches indicate high perturbation (high MAPS). Insets show representative 256 × 256 μm patches (dotted outlines) with example features contributing to elevated patch-level scores.

(d) Mean MDS-MAPS per sample across the cohort. NBM and CCUS samples are shown in gray; MDS samples are color-coded by IPSS-M risk scores.

(e) Comparison of sample-level mean MDS-MAPS (left) and normalized entropy of patch-level MAPS distributions (right), reflecting spatial heterogeneity of architectural perturbation (Mann–Whitney U test; *$P \leq$ 0.05, **$P \leq$ 0.01, ***$P \leq$ 0.001).

Figure 7. MDS-MAPS discriminates remission and tracks longitudinal disease dynamics in serial MDS biopsies.

(A) Longitudinal MAPS trajectories in patients with serial biopsies. Lines connect sequential samples; dashed line indicates MAPS = 0. Transient remission cases (WCM13, WCM44; n = 2 patients, 10 biopsies) showed marked MAPS reduction at remission (active median = 5.1, n = 6; remission median = −3.5, n = 4; P = 0.0095). Post–stem cell transplantation (SCT) remission cases (WCM17, WCM21, WCM46; n = 3 patients, 12 biopsies) demonstrated similar reductions (active median = −1.4, n = 9; remission median = −5.7, n = 3; P = 0.0091). *TP53*-mutated cases (WCM14–16; n = 3 patients, 9 biopsies) showed persistently elevated MAPS (median = 11.4).

(B) *Top*: Paired within-patient comparison (n = 6) demonstrating reduced MAPS in remission (active median = 5.5; remission median = −4.6; Wilcoxon P = 0.016). *Bottom*: MAPS stratified by molecular remission (n = 38); mutation-cleared samples showed lower MAPS (median = −3.2) than mutation-persistent samples (median = 7.5; ***P < 0.001).

(C) Leave-one-patient-out cross-validation (LOPO-CV) for remission classification (n = 40 samples, 14 patients, 7 remission events). ROC: blast% AUC = 0.660; MAPS AUC = 0.883; combined AUC = 0.887. Precision–recall: MAPS AP = 0.567; blast% + MAPS AP = 0.304; blast% AP = 0.250. MAPS improved discrimination in both non-SCT (ΔAUC = +0.218) and post-SCT (ΔAUC = +0.193) subsets.

(D) Linear mixed-effects models (n = 43 biopsies, 14 patients) demonstrated independent association of MAPS with remission after adjusting for blast% (β = −6.69 [95% CI −9.83, −3.55], P < 0.001); MAPS alone β = −9.21 [−11.03, −5.39], P < 0.001.

(E) MAPS correlated with IPSS-M at baseline (n = 13; ρ = 0.65, P = 0.016) and with blast% across serial samples (within-patient ρ = 0.43; between-patient ρ = 0.68; both P < 0.001). Within-patient ΔMAPS correlated with Δblast% (n = 26 pairs; ρ = 0.69, P < 0.001) but not significantly with Δmutation count (n = 21 pairs; ρ = 0.38, P = 0.090).