JAK-STAT Pathway Heterogeneity Governs Immunotherapy Response in Breast Cancer

Jianbo Zhou[1, 2]†, Heng Zhang[2]†, Hailin Tang[3], Lei Yu[4*], Fu Peng[2*]

[1]West China School of Pharmacy, Department of Thoracic Surgery and Institute of Thoracic
Oncology, Frontiers Science Center for Disease-Related Molecular Network, West China Hospital,
Sichuan University, Chengdu 610041, China

[2]West China School of Pharmacy, Sichuan University, Chengdu 610041, China

[3]State Key Laboratory of Oncology in South China, Guangdong Provincial Clinical Research Center
for Cancer, Sun Yat-Sen University Cancer Center, Guangzhou, 510060, China

[4]Chongqing Hospital of Traditional Chinese Medicine, Chongqing China, Chongqing 400021, China

†These authors contributed equally to this work.

* Correspondence:
Dr. Lei Yu, Email: yulei@itm-oncolab.cn (L.Y.)

Dr. Fu Peng, Email: pengf@scu.edu.cn (F.P.)

Keywords: JAK-STAT pathway, Dynamics, Heterogeneity, Immunotherapy, Breast cancer

Abstract

The JAK-STAT pathway (JSP) is a well-known oncogenic cascade; however, recent clinical trials
have detected JSP upregulation in breast cancer following anti-PD1 immunotherapy. This
paradoxical observation warrants further investigation into JSP's intercellular heterogeneity, tumor
dynamics, molecular mechanisms, and clinical implications for immunotherapy. JSP expression
showed dynamic shifts during breast cancer progression, with higher levels in T cells and para-
cancerous epithelial cells. In tumor cells, elevated JSP highly correlated with malignant phenotypes.
JSP-high tumor cells overexpressed oncogenic pathways, while exhibiting increased
immunosuppressive signaling via MIF-CD74 signaling axis. In T cells, higher JSP levels were
associated with enhanced cytotoxic activity, improved differentiation, and reduced exhaustion,
reflecting robust anti-tumor immunity. Analysis of immunotherapy datasets revealed that higher JSP
levels were associated with improved responses towards PD-1 inhibitors, particularly in triple-
negative breast cancer (TNBC) patients, with JSP serving as a predictive biomarker for
immunotherapy sensitivity. As a key JSP component, STAT4 exerts dual roles in breast cancer: it
drives tumorigenesis in malignant cells, sustains breast epithelial cell proliferation, and bolsters T
cell anti-tumor functionality--while also acting as a highly accurate biomarker for predicting
immunotherapy response. This indicates that JSP targeting demands a nuanced approach: broad
inhibition may impair anti-tumor immunity, and optimized therapeutic strategies paired with precise
biomarkers are critical to maximize JSP's utility in breast cancer immunotherapy. Our findings
highlight JSP's functional heterogeneity in epithelial, tumor, and T cells, with high JSP activity
correlating with enhanced immunotherapy efficacy in breast cancer.

Graphic Abstract

1 Introduction

Breast cancer is the most common cancer in women, accounting for 32% (321,910 cases) of new cancer diagnoses and 14% (42,140 cases) of cancer-related deaths among women in United States, 2026 [1]. Globally, approximately 2.3 million new breast cancer cases and 670,000 breast cancer-related deaths are reported in 2022 [2]. Breast cancer is commonly classified by immunohistochemistry (IHC) based on the expression of estrogen receptor (ER), progesterone receptor (PR), and human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2). Using these markers, tumors are typically divided into four major subtypes—luminal A, luminal B, HER2☐positive, and triple☐negative breast cancer (TNBC). Clinically, this scheme is often simplified into three groups: Luminal (ER and/or PR positive, HER2 negative), HER2☐positive, and triple☐negative breast cancer (ER, PR and HER2 all negative; TNBC) [3]. TNBC accounts for approximately 15% of all breast cancers, with a rising overall incidence in recent years and higher prevalence among young women [2]. It can be further classified into distinct molecular subgroups, including basal-like (BL1 and BL2), claudin-low, mesenchymal (MES), luminal androgen receptor (LAR), and immunomodulatory (IM) types [4,5]. Among these, basal-like subtypes predominate, with BL1 and BL2 representing the largest proportions. An alternative molecular classification based on genomic biomarkers divides TNBC into four subtypes: LAR, IM, basal-like immune-suppressed (BLIS), and mesenchymal-like (MES) [6]. TNBC is characterized by aggressive behavior, a high risk of early relapse, and a propensity to present at advanced stages. Histologically, TNBCs are often poorly differentiated, highly proliferative, and heterogeneous, encompassing subsets with variable prognoses. Immunohistochemically, TNBC can be categorized as basal or non-basal: basal tumors typically express cytokeratins CK5/6 and EGFR, whereas non-basal tumors do not express CK5/6. Notably, approximately 80% of tumors associated with BRCA1/BRCA2 alterations fall into the TNBC category [7]. Current standard treatments include

surgery, radiotherapy, neoadjuvant chemotherapy or / and immunotherapy with immune checkpoint
inhibitors (ICI) (e.g., anti-PD-1: Pembrolizumab; anti-PD-L1: Atezolizumab; anti-CTLA4:
Tremelimumab) [8,9]. Although immunotherapy has reshaped breast cancer treatment patterns and
improved patient's survival benefits, heterogeneity in treatment responses and the lack of robust
predictive biomarkers continue to limit its optimal clinical application [10-12].

The JAK-STAT (Janus Kinase–Signal Transducer and Activator of Transcription) pathway is
composed of cytokine receptors (e.g., IL-2, IL-6, IL-10, PDGF, EGF) [13], the JAK family (JAK1,
JAK2, JAK3, and TYK2), the STAT family (STAT1-6, STAT5a and STAT5b), and negative
regulatory factors. These negative regulators, including the SOCS family, PIAS family, and protein
tyrosine phosphatases (PTPs), inhibit the activation of the JAK-STAT pathway by suppressing the
phosphorylation of JAK or / and STAT proteins [14], while PP2A and NPM-ALK maintain STAT3
phosphorylation [15]. In the canonical working model of JAK-STAT signaling, cytokine binding to its
cognate receptor (e.g., gp130, EpoR, TNF-R1, IL-17R, IL-10R) triggers the phosphorylation and
activation of JAKs. Activated JAKs then phosphorylate STATs, inducing their dimerization. The
dimeric STATs translocate into the nucleus and regulate the transcription of target genes [13,16]. This
pathway is regarded as one of the major abnormally activated oncogenic pathways in breast cancer,
contributing to tumor proliferation, invasion, and metastasis [8] and collaborating with TGF-β, MAPK,
Nocth, PI3K/AKT/mTOR and NF-κB signaling pathway [13].

Interestingly, the JAK-STAT pathway operates as a double-edged sword in tumor immunity,
mediating both pro- and anti-tumor programs within the tumor microenvironment (TME) [17]. On the
pro-tumor side, signalling through STAT3 and STAT5 drives immunosuppressive networks in helper
T cells, regulatory T cells and myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs), with downstream
cytokines such as IL-6 and IL-23 reinforcing tumor-promoting inflammation and immune evasion.
Conversely, anti-tumor activity in the TME is largely orchestrated by STAT1 and STAT4. Th1-
associated axes — notably IL-12/STAT4/IL-2 and IFN-γ/STAT1/IFN-γ — foster expansion and
activation of CD8^{+} T cells and NK cells. In above cytotoxic lymphocytes, IL-12–STAT4 and IFN-
α/β–STAT1 signalling induce granzyme B and IFN-γ production, initiating tumor cell killing [18]. In
dendritic cells (DCs), type I interferon signalling via STAT1 (and in some contexts STAT3)
upregulates key effector mediators such as IL-12, TNF-α and interferons, thereby enhancing antigen
presentation and T-cell priming [17]. Additionally, STAT3 maintains proliferation of naïve CD8^{+} T
cells, contributes to the initial expansion of activated CD8^{+} T cells, and facilitates the differentiation
from memory CD8^{+} T cells to effectors CD8^{+} T cells through up-regulating the key transcriptional
factor Bcl-6 [19].

Recent studies have observed activation of JAK-STAT pathway following neoadjuvant
immunotherapy (PD-1 inhibitor), and this activation was considered to contribute to treatment
response and pathological complete response (pCR) in breast cancer [20,21]. The apparent paradox —
that JAK-STAT signalling can drive tumorigenesis yet becomes hyperactivated following
immunotherapy — prompted us to dissect its context-dependent roles within TME. We combined
bulk RNA-seq with single-cell RNA-seq from primary tumors and immunotherapy cohorts to map
JAK–STAT dynamics during the transition from normal to malignant epithelium and to chart its
heterogeneity across epithelial cells and T cells (Fig. 1A). We find that JAK-STAT signalling is
essential for epithelial differentiation and T-cell cytotoxicity; in immunotherapy-treated cohorts, the
pathway activation is associated with enhanced T-cell–mediated cytotoxicity, and predicts clinical
response and T-cell expansion. Multi-omics profiling and experiments further identify STAT4 as a
salient marker and mediator of JAK-STAT activity. Altogether, these results delineate distinct
biological roles and molecular dependencies of the JAK-STAT axis in tumor microenvironment and

argue that precise modulation of this pathway could augment immunotherapy efficacy while limiting
harm to normal epithelial cells and T cells.

2   Methods and materials

2.1   2.1. Bioinformatical profiling

2.1.1 Data collection

The annotated human breast cancer single-cell RNA-sequencing dataset (GSE176078) with 26 cases
(11 ER[+], 5 HER2^{+}, and 10 TNBC) was downloaded in NCBI's Gene Expression Omnibus: NCBI-
GEO (GSE176078) and analyzed according to previous studies [22,23]. Human normal breast epithelial
single-cell RNA-sequencing dataset was deposited in the NCBI-GEO database (GSE161529), and the
.rds format file (SeuratObject_NormEpi.rds) was downloaded in the Figureshare
(https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.17058077) [24,25]. The single-cell dataset of anti-PD-1 treatment
(anti-PD1_Nat.Med, pembrolizumab, 29 patients: 2 ER-/HER2^{+}, 15 ER[+]/HER2±, 12 TNBC) was
available in the reported literature [26]. The bulk RNA-sequencing dataset of anti-PD1 treatment in
breast cancer was downloaded from NCBI-GEO database with the code: GSE194040 [27].

The Cancer Genome Atlas Program-Breast invasive carcinoma (TCGA-BRCA, 1094 tumor tissues
and 113 paired normal tissues) dataset was downloaded from GDC Data Portal
(https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov/) using the TCGAbiolinks package (2.28.3). The cleaned survival data
of the TCGA cohort was obtained from the previous study [28]. TCGA Pan-Cancer (PANCAN,
n=11,057) was downloaded from UCSC Xena (https://xenabrowser.net/datapages/). The expression
profiling and clinical data of Molecular Taxonomy of Breast Cancer International Consortium
(METABRIC) dataset (2509 primary breast cancer tissues with 548 matched normal tissues) were
downloaded from cBioPortal (https://www.cbioportal.org/study/summary?id=brca_metabric) [29].

The bulk RNA-sequencing data of Sweden Cancerome Analysis Network–Breast (SCAN-B) dataset
(3273 primary breast cancer samples) is available at NCBI-GEO database with the code: GSE96058
(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE96058), while the matched clinical data
was obtained from the previous literature [30]. The gene expression profiles of bulk RNA-sequencing
with FPKM format were normalized with the $\log_2(\text{gene}+1)$ method and duplicated samples were
removed. Two publicly available TNBC RNA-seq cohorts were analyzed: the FUSCC-TNBC cohort
(n=89) [31] and the 2024_Nat.Comm. cohort (n=94) [32].

2.1.2 Geneset scoring

The JAK-STAT pathway with 155 genes was retrieved from GSEA database (https://www.gsea-
msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb/human/geneset/KEGG_JAK_STAT_SIGNALING_PATHWAY). The core
JAKs-STATs pathway genes include JAK1, JAK2, JAK3, STAT1, STAT2, STAT3, STAT4,
STAT5A, STAT5B, and STAT6. The immune-stimulating and immune checkpoint molecules,
cytotoxic and dysfunctional signatures were reported in previous studies (Table S1) [33,34]. Above
signatures scores were calculated using the AddModuleScore function for single-cell datasets, while
single-sample gene set enrichment analysis (ssGSEA) method implemented in GSVA package
(version 2.0.2) was employed in bulk RNA-seq datasets.

2.1.3 Clustering and cell annotating

The normal breast epithelial cell dataset was re-annotated using the Seurat package (version 4.4.0)
based on following markers (Basal: ACTA2, MYLK, SNAI2; Luminal_progenitor: TNFRSF11A,
KIT; Mature_luminal_cell: ESR1, PGR, FOXA1) [24].

2.1.4 Pseudotime and cell-cell interaction communication analysis

Monocle (version 2.28.0) and CytoTRACE (version 0.3.3) were applied to predict cell differentiation
states and stemness in subclusters (T cells, epithelial cells from tumors and epithelial cells of normal
breast) of single-cell datasets. To explore the cellular communications, the samples were divided into
Score-High or Score-Low subgroups based on the mean expression of JAK-STAT pathway score in
T cells or tumor cells. The cell-cell communication pathway and intensity were inferred using
CellChat package (version 1.6.1).

2.1.5 Enrichment analysis

The PROGENy pathway scores of pre-set 13 pathways were calculated using progeny package
(version 1.22.0). The differentially expressed genes were identified using the FindAllMarkers
function loaded in Seurat (version 4.4.0), with the default threshold: $\log_2$(fold change) > 0.25 and p
value < 0.05. The irGSEA package (version 3.3.3) was used for enrichment analysis of differentially
expressed genes based on ssGSEA (single-sample gene set enrichment analysis) method. The
clusterProfiler (version 4.8.3) package was utilized for GO and KEGG enrichment analysis.

2.1.6 Deconvolution of immune infiltration

For bulk RNA sequencing analysis, immune cell populations were inferred using the CIBERSORT
algorithm, which was integrated in the IOBR package (version 0.99.9) with the deconvo_tme
function [35].

2.1.7 Spatial Transcriptomics

Spatial transcriptomic data were obtained from the GEO database (GSE210616), including 43 10×
Visium samples from 14 primary TNBC patients [36]. Cell type deconvolution was performed using the
RCTD package with the scRNA-seq reference dataset GSE176078. Correlation analyses were
conducted via the cor.test() function, and spatial gene expression patterns were visualized using
Seurat's SpatialFeaturePlot(). The phenoptr package (version 0.3.2,
https://akoyabio.github.io/phenoptr/) was used to analyze cell types spatially adjacent to MIF☐ tumor
cells.

2.1.8 Protein–nucleic docking

Protein sequences were obtained from the UniProt database, and protein–nucleic acid complex
structures were predicted using ProteinX, an open-source tool with performance comparable to
AlphaFold3. The predicted structures were subjected to energy optimization via the Rosetta Relax
module for subsequent computational analysis. The SLC47A1 sequence was retrieved from NCBI
(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/gene/55244/), and its promoter sequence was defined as the 2000-bp
upstream genomic region. The initial 3D model of the protein–promoter complex was predicted using
ProteinX, further refined, and exported in PDB format. Flexible docking was performed using
RosettaDock, and candidate models were selected based on the built-in Rosetta scoring function.

Protein–nucleic acid interactions and binding energies were characterized using LigPlus, FoldX, and
PLIP. Conformational representations of the docked complexes were generated using PyMOL.

2.1.9 Predictive Model Construction

A multivariable Cox proportional hazards regression model was constructed to integrate the
expression levels of PDCD1, CD274, PDCD1LG2 and the JAK-STAT pathway (JSP) risk score,
with the aim of improving prediction of clinical response to immunotherapy in GSE194040 (I-SPY2-
990, pembrolizumab, anti-PD-1) and GSE173839 (I-SPY2 trial, durvalumab, anti-PD-L1). A unified
model risk score was then calculated for each sample using regression coefficients derived from the
coxph() function in the R survival package (version 3.7-0). To evaluate and compare predictive
performance, receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve analysis was performed. The area under
the curve (AUC) was used as the primary index to assess the discriminative capacity of individual
markers and the combined multi-marker signature. ROC curve visualization and quantitative
comparison were conducted using the pROC R package (version 1.18.5).

2.1.10 Survival analysis

The subcluster signatures were defined as the top 50 differentially expressed genes ranked by fold
change using the FindAllMarkers function [37]. Their signature score for each bulk RNA-seq was
calculated using the ssGSEA method. The surv_cutpoint function of survminer package (version
0.5.0) was used to determine the optimal cutoff for these these signatures score for subsequent
Kaplan-Meier survival analysis with log-rank test in survival package (version 3.7-0).

2.2   2.2. Experiments

2.2.1 Cell culture

The human triple-negative breast cancer cell line MDA-MB-231 was acquired from Procell System®
(CL-0150, Wuhan, China) and confirmed through short tandem repeat (STR) profiling alongside
testing for mycoplasma contamination. Cells were cultured in complete RPMI-1640 medium
supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (10091148, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA) and 1%
penicillin-streptomycin solution (15140122, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA). MCF10A human
normal breast epithelial cells (CL-0525, Procell) were cultured in DMEM/F-12 medium
supplemented with 5% horse serum, 20 ng/mL epidermal growth factor (EGF), 0.5 µg/mL
hydrocortisone, 10 µg/mL insulin, and 1% penicillin-streptomycin. The full-length STAT4 transcript
was cloned into the V5 (EF-1α/GFP & Puro) vector plasmid and verified via Sanger sequencing
(Genepharma, Shanghai, China). The plasmid was co-packaged with pGag/Pol, pRev, and pVSV-G
systems to produce lentiviral particles in 293T cells. After concentrating the virus and measuring its
titer, MDA-MB-231 cells were infected with either the STAT4-overexpressing lentivirus or the
control lentivirus for 48 hours. The cells were then subjected to puromycin selection (1 µg/mL) for
two weeks to establish a stable cell line expressing target gene.

2.2.2 Cell proliferation assay

CCK-8 cell proliferation assays and colony formation experiments were conducted to assess changes
in tumor cell growth phenotypes following gene interference. A total of 3,000 MDA-MB-231 cells
from each group were seeded into 96-well plates. At 24-hour intervals, part of the medium was
replaced with fresh RPMI-1640 medium containing 10% CCK-8 reagent (HY-K0301,
MedChemExpress, China). The cells were incubated at 37°C for 1 hour, and optical density at 450

nm was measured using a spectrophotometer. For the colony formation assay, 1,000 cells were
seeded into six-well plates. Once the cells adhered, the culture medium was refreshed every five
days. After a 14-day incubation period, the medium was removed, and the cells were fixed with 4%
paraformaldehyde. The cells were subsequently stained with 0.1% crystal violet, rinsed with distilled
water, and air-dried at room temperature. In the wound-healing assay, scratches were made using a
10 µL pipette tip once cell confluency in the six-well plates reached 100%. After washing the culture
medium three times, images were captured. Additional images were taken 12 hours later to observe
cell migration, and the migration area was quantified using ImageJ.

2.2.3 Western blotting

Total protein was extracted using RIPA lysis buffer (P0013B, Beyotime, China) and quantified with
the BCA Protein Quantification Kit (ZJ102, Epizyme Biotech). A total of 30 µg of protein was
subjected to SDS-PAGE for separation, after which the protein bands were transferred to a PVDF
membrane. The membrane was blocked with a 5% bovine serum albumin solution at room
temperature for 1 hour, followed by incubation with primary antibodies (STAT4: #ET1701-42,
dilution ratio = 1:1000, HUABIO; SLC47A1: 20898-1-AP, dilution ratio = 1:2000, Proteintech
Group, Inc.; GAPDH: 10494-1-AP, dilution ratio = 1:5000, Proteintech Group, Inc.) overnight at
4°C. Subsequently, a secondary antibody (dilution ratio = 1:5000, SA00001-2, Proteintech) was
applied at room temperature for 1 hour. The blots were visualized using an ECL Chemiluminescent
Substrate Kit (36222ES60, YEASEN, China) and images were captured with a chemiluminescence
imaging system (GelView 6000 Pro, BLT Photon Technology, China).

2.2.4 Real-time qPCR

Total intracellular mRNA was extracted using the TRIzol reagent (15596018CN, Thermo Fisher
Scientific Inc.) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. The PrimeScript™ RT reagent Kit
with gDNA Eraser (RR047A, Takara) was used to eliminate genomic DNA and reverse-transcribe
RNA into cDNA. PCR amplification and fluorescence quantification were conducted using TB
Green® Premix Ex Taq™ II FAST qPCR (CN830A, Takara), with fluorescent signals collected on a
real-time quantitative PCR instrument (Archimed X4, ROCGENE, China). Relative expression levels
were analyzed using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method. The primer sequences used are as follows: STAT4 (Forward:
AGCCTTGCGAAGTTTCAAGA; Reverse: ACACCGCATACACACTTGGA) and GAPDH
(Forward: GACTCATGACCACAGTCCATGC; Reverse: AGAGGCAGGGATGATGTTCTG).

2.2.5 RNA-sequencing and analysis

Total RNA was extracted using TRIzol reagent, and its concentration and integrity were assessed
with a NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer and an Agilent 2100/LabChip GX instrument. Following
library construction, sequencing, and quality control of FASTQ files, HISAT2 and StringTie
software were utilized to align the data to the reference genome and construct transcripts. Differential
gene expression was determined from the expression matrix with fragments per kilobase of transcript
per million fragments mapped (FPKM) format, employing the Limma package (version 3.56.1) in R
with thresholds set at $p < 0.05$ and log2(fold change) > 1. Gene enrichment analysis was conducted
using the clusterProfiler (version 4.8.2) and GSVA (version 1.48.3) packages, while visualization
was carried out using the ggplot2 (version 3.5.1) and pheatmap (version 1.0.12) packages.

2.2.6 Animal experiment

The animal experimental protocol was approved and overseen by the Medical Ethics Committee of
Sichuan University (ID: K2024019). Female nude mice, procured from GemPharmatech Co., Ltd.,
were maintained in a specific pathogen-free (SPF) animal facility at the West China School of
Pharmacy, Sichuan University, with unrestricted access to food and water. A total of 2×10^6 MDA-
MB-231 cells were injected subcutaneously into the dorsal region of each mouse, with a minimum of
five mice per group. Tumor volume was assessed weekly, and after three weeks, the mice were
euthanized. Tumor tissues were excised, measured, and prepared for subsequent histological staining
analysis.

2.2.7 Immunohistochemistry (IHC)

Fresh tumor tissues were fixed in 10% neutral formaldehyde for 24 hours, followed by gradient
dehydration, and then embedded in paraffin to create paraffin blocks. Tissue sections, 5 µm in
thickness, were cut and subsequently deparaffinized and rehydrated. Peroxidase activity was
inhibited using 3% hydrogen peroxide, followed by blocking with 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA).
The primary antibodies (STAT4: 13028-1-AP, dilution ratio = 1:200, Proteintech Group, Inc.;
SLC47A1: bs-9284R, dilution ratio = 1:500, Bioss Inc.) were then applied and allowed to incubate
overnight at 4°C. The sections were subsequently incubated at room temperature with horseradish
peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG (SV0004, Boster) and developed using a DAB kit
(AR1027-1, Boster). Image analysis was conducted using Image-Pro Plus 6.0 (Media Cybernetics,
Rockville, USA), with integrated optical density (IOD) values calculated accordingly.

2.3   2.3. Statistics analysis

All bioinformatics analyses were conducted in R software (4.3.0), while the statistical analysis of
experimental results was performed using GraphPad Prism 9, presented as mean ± standard deviation
(SD). Bioinformatic results were visualized in R software (4.4.0) using ggplot2 (3.5.1) for boxplot,
pheatmap (1.0.12) and ComplexHeatmap (2.22.0) for heatmap. Linear correlation analysis was
computed using the Spearman's algorithm. The statistics significance of non-normally distributed
data was calculated using Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for two subgroups and Kruskal-Wallis for
multiple-subgroups comparison. For normally distributed data, the unpaired T-test was used to
compare the two groups, while significant differences among multiple groups were assessed using a
one-way ANOVA method. A p-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

3   Results

3.1   Dynamic swift of JAK-STAT pathway in carcinomas

In the TCGA pan-cancer cohort, JAK-STAT pathway (JSP) is typically higher in adjacent non-tumor
tissues than in tumor tissues, and patients with elevated JSP expression generally experience poorer
prognoses. Interestingly, in breast cancer, patients with high JSP scores display better survival
outcomes, which challenges the conventional view of JSP as an oncogenic pathway (Fig. S1). This
indicates a heterogeneous role for the JSP pathway in breast cancer. We next analyzed the primary
breast cancer single-cell dataset (GSE176078, 26 cases) to examine the expression patterns and
dynamic features of the JSP at single-cell resolution. JSP scores were calculated using the ssGSEA
method, which revealed predominant expression in T cells (Fig. 1B-E). Further annotation indicated
elevated JSP scores within NK cells, CD4$^+$ T cells, and CD8$^+$ T cells (Fig. 1F). Using the Ro/e
algorithm, we assessed the preferential distribution of JSP across various subpopulations, finding that
cells with high JSP scores were primarily enriched in T cells, while paracancerous epithelial and

tumor cells showed significantly lower enrichment (Fig. 1G-H). Pseudotime analysis illuminated the
developmental trajectory from paracancerous epithelial cells to tumor cells (Fig. 1I-L, Fig.S2B).
During this progression, JSP demonstrated a dynamic shift, initially decreasing and then increasing,
suggesting differential biological functions and dynamic dependencies between paracancerous and
tumor epithelial cells (Fig. 1L), which is consist with previous reports: basal cells differentiated into
luminal cells in breast cancer (STAT3 serves as a crucial transcription factor in basal cells) [38];
tumorigenesis from basal cells to luminal cells depended STAT3 in prostate cancers [39]. Progeny
pathway activity analysis corroborated this trend, underscoring greater JSP activity in epithelial cells
and heterogeneity during tumor cell differentiation (Fig. 1M). These findings demonstrate that the
JAK-STAT pathway exhibits heterogeneous expression patterns and dynamic transitions within the
breast tumor cells and epithelial cells.

3.2   JAK–STAT pathway facilitates tumor malignant phenotypes and immunosuppression

Next, we analyzed the potential biological functions of the JAK-STAT pathway in tumor cells and its
interplay with the immune microenvironment. Within tumor cell subgroups, JSP was enriched in the
LumA and LumB subtypes (Fig. 2A). Correlation analysis revealed a positive association between
JSP and various cancer characteristic scores, including proliferation, invasion, and differentiation
(Fig. 2B). By classifying tumor cells into JSP-high and JSP-low groups based on median JSP scores,
it was observed that JSP-high tumor cells exhibited a higher degree of malignancy, along with
elevated expression of these characteristic scores (Fig. 2C). Subsequently, we performed differential
gene analysis to uncover potential biological functions of JSP in tumor cells. Oncogenes, such as
MYC, IL6ST, and NEAT1, were found to be upregulated in JSP-high tumor cells (Fig. 2D). Pathway
enrichment analysis indicated that these differential genes are enriched in oncogenic signaling
pathways like MAPK, NF-κB, and PD-L1/PD-1 immune checkpoints (Fig. 2E). Cell communication
analysis revealed differences in immune microenvironment signaling intensity between JSP-high and
JSP-low patients (Fig. 2F). Signals like IL6, CCL, EGF, and IL10 were present only in JSP-high
patients (Fig. 2G). Moreover, enhanced immunosuppressive signaling such as MIF-CD74+CXCR4
and MIF-CD74+CD44 was observed in JSP-high patients (Fig. 2H). In addition, we verified the
spatial co-localization of MIF-expressing tumor cells and T cells using the breast cancer spatial
transcriptomic dataset GSE210616 (Fig. S3). These findings expand our understanding of the
oncogenic role of JSP in breast cancer and its interplay within the immune microenvironment. JSP
resonates with carcinogenic signals like MAPK and NF-κB and is involved in immunosuppression
through MIF-CD74+CXCR4 and MIF-CD74+CD44 signaling pathways.

3.3   JAK-STAT pathway is essential for breast epithelial cell differentiation

Given the differential expression patterns of JSP in adjacent non-cancerous and tumor epithelial cells
(Fig. 1D-F), we analyzed another human normal breast epithelial single-cell dataset (GSE161529) to
explore the role of JSP in breast epithelial cell differentiation under normal physiological conditions.
JSP showed higher expression in basal epithelial cells (Fig. 3A-C). Pseudotime analysis revealed the
differentiation trajectory of epithelial cells: from luminal progenitor to mature luminal and basal cells
(Fig. 3D, Fig. S4A). During epithelial cell differentiation, JSP expression increased (Fig. 3E). In JSP-
high epithelial cells, enhanced activity of the p53 and TGFβ pathways was observed (Fig. 3F).
Differential gene analysis and GO enrichment for JSP-high versus JSP-low epithelial cells indicated
that JSP signaling is involved in maintaining normal breast epithelial cell functions, such as focal
adhesion, vesicle lumen, and secretory granule lumen (Fig. 3G-H). KEGG pathway analysis
suggested that JSP is associated with several important signaling pathways in epithelial cells,
including Estrogen, TGFβ, and FoxO pathways (Fig. 3I). These results suggest that, under

physiological conditions, the normal development and functional maintenance of breast epithelial
cells depend on JSP signaling.

3.4 JAK–STAT pathway mirrors anti-tumor immunity activity of T cells

Given the highest expression of JSP in T cells (Fig. 1E, F), we explored the potential biological
functions of JSP in T cells. Major and minor annotations showed elevated JSP scores in CD4+ T,
CD8+ T, and NK cells (Fig. 4A-B). T cells were divided into JSP-high and JSP-low subgroups based
on median JSP scores, with no significant differences in T cell composition between the two groups
(Fig. 4C). Since the number of T cells remained unchanged, we hypothesized that JSP might impact
T cell state and function. We collected representative T-cell state signatures to comprehensively
assess the status and activity of major T cell subgroups (Fig. 4D) [40]. JSP-high T cells exhibited
increased functional scores (such as TCR signaling, IFN-γ response, cytotoxicity) and decreased
metabolic scores (glycolysis, fatty acid metabolism, oxidative phosphorylation) and exhaustion
scores (Fig. 4E-F). Further analysis of representative functional genes in CD8+ T cells confirmed this,
showing higher expression of T cell cytotoxic factors (GZMB, TBX21, IL2RA) and lower expression
of T cell exhaustion markers (PDCD1, KLRC1, CTLA4, LAG3, TIGIT) in the JSP-high group (Fig.
4G-H). Additionally, pseudotime analysis indicated that JSP plays an important role in promoting T
cell differentiation (Fig. 4I-J, Fig. S4B). Differential gene analysis revealed that JSP-high T cells
exhibit higher expression of T cell antitumor factors (IFNG, TNF: encoding TNF-α) and immune
activation-related receptors (IL2RA: CD25, IL10RA) (Fig. 4K). Pathway enrichment suggested that
these differential genes are enriched in T cell activation and differentiation pathways (Fig. 4L). These
findings collectively indicated that T cells with high expression of the JAK-STAT pathway have
stronger antitumor activity.

3.5 JAK–STAT pathway enhances immunotherapy sensitivity and predicts immunotherapy response

Given that JSP is associated with T cell cytotoxic activity, we investigated the relationship between
JSP and immunotherapy response, as well as its clinical significance. In the bulk RNA-seq
immunotherapy cohort (GSE194040), JSP levels were higher in responders, accompanied by an
increase in immune markers and a higher proportion of TNBC samples (Fig. 5A-B). JSP scores also
demonstrated a relatively accurate prediction of immunotherapy response with ROC=0.7 (Fig. 5C-D).
To further expand the clinical applicability of the JSP score, we combined it with the mRNA
expression levels of PD-L1/PD-1, which significantly improved the predictive accuracy for
immunotherapy response, with the AUC exceeding 0.8 (Fig. S5A). Subsequently, we further
explored the significance of JSP before and after immunotherapy in a single-cell immunotherapy
dataset (anti-PD1_Nat.Med) (Fig. 5E-K). JSP was primarily expressed in T cells (Fig. 5E-F) and
enriched in TNBC samples (Fig. 5G). In JSP-high patients, there was a higher proportion of TNBC
cases and T cell expansion, along with improved immune infiltration, characterized by increased
proportions of T, B, and pDC cells, and a decrease in cancer cells and fibroblasts (Fig. 5H). JSP
showed a positive correlation with T, B, and pDC cell proportions, and markedly increased after
immunotherapy (Fig. 5I-J). Additionally, JSP was able to predict T cell expansion more accurately
compared to other immune cell proportions (Fig. 5K). These results demonstrated that patients with
high JAK-STAT pathway level exhibit a greater response rate to immunotherapy, especially in
TNBC.

3.6 STAT4 promotes the proliferation of cancer cells and epithelial cells

Given the heterogeneous expression pattern in tumor cells, epithelial cells and T cells, we obtained
these cell-type specific genes from pseudotime trajectory analysis (Fig. 6A, Fig. S2B, Fig.S4).
Tumoral JSP score was negatively associated with patient survival, while epithelial and T cell JSP
score were related to favorable prognosis (Fig. 6A). Given STAT4, one of the core JAK-STAT
pathway numbers, performed similar expression pattern with JAK-STAT pathway (high expression is
associated with favorable prognosis and is primarily observed in T cells) (Fig. S5B-C, Fig. S6), we
selected STAT4 as an interest gene to explore its role in tumor cells and epithelial cells. In MDA-
MB-231 breast cancer cells, overexpression of STAT4 promoted proliferation, tumor growth,
migration and invasion (Fig. 6C-E, Fig.S7A-B). Similar results also were observed in normal
epithelial MCF10A cells (Fig. 6F-H). RNA-sequencing of MDA-MB-231 cells indicated that STAT4
enhances G2M checkpoint and mitotic pathways (Fig. 6L). STAT4 co-activates the JAK-STAT and
WNT pathways (Fig. 6M). KEGG enrichment analysis suggests that STAT4 is involved in the
ferroptosis pathway. Given that STAT4 is a potential upstream transcription factor of the ferroptosis
inhibitor SLC47A1 [41,42], we confirmed that STAT4 upregulates SLC47A1 in breast cancer both in
vivo and in vitro (Fig. S7). STAT4 directly binds to the SLC47A1 promoter to promote its
transcription (Fig. S8). Altogether, these results implied that STAT4, as a key transcriptional
orchestrator of JAK-STAT pathway, facilitated malignant and epithelial cell proliferation and
function.

4   Discussion

We analyzed single-cell datasets to explore the intra-tumoral heterogeneity of the JAK-STAT
pathway. Its expression was highest in T cells and lowest in epithelial cells, with normal epithelial
cells expressing higher levels than tumor cells. In all epithelial cells containing normal epithelial and
tumor cells, JAK-STAT signaling was reprogrammed during basal-to-luminal differentiation and
tumor formation, showing an initial decrease followed by an increase. Its activity declines during
transition from normal epithelium to early tumors, then rises in advanced tumor stages due to tumor
subtype heterogeneity and subtype-specific dependency. In tumor cells, higher JAK-STAT activity
correlated with enhanced pro-tumor functions (e.g., migration, invasion, proliferation) and
immunosuppressive signaling through the MIF-CD74 axis. Recent studies identify a conserved MIF-
CD74/CD74□ lipid-associated macrophages (LA-MAMs) axis driving T-cell exhaustion and multi-
organ metastasis in breast cancer, correlating with poor survival [43]. Our findings reveal that tumor-
intrinsic JAK-STAT signaling may depend on similar immunosuppressive cascade, while STAT4
activation in T-cell reverses immune suppression. Combining MIF-CD74 blockade with targeted
STAT4 activation may synergistically remodel the metastatic niche and improve immunotherapy
efficacy in TNBC. To exclude tumor background, we used single-cell data from normal human
mammary epithelial cells to assess the role of JAK-STAT signaling in differentiation, finding that
epithelial differentiation depends on JSP, potentially working with TNF and TGFβ signaling to
maintain luminal integrity and secretory function. Meanwhile, JSP is involved in T cell
differentiation, representing enhanced cytotoxicity and functionality of terminal and effector-like T
cells. To apply our findings, in a bulk RNA-seq immunotherapy cohort, higher JSP levels correlated
with better treatment response, increased immune markers, with accessible accuracy for response
prediction. Single-cell analysis confirmed JSP enrichment in T cells, with enhanced immune
infiltration and T cell expansion after post-immunotherapy. In brief, High JSP levels predict better
immunotherapy response, particularly in TNBC. Our findings suggest that baseline JAK-STAT
pathway activity could serve as a potential biomarker for predicting the efficacy of PD-1
immunotherapy in breast cancer. This discovery holds promise for advancing precision medicine by
improving response rates and reducing treatment-associated toxicity [44]. In survival profiling, higher

T-cells- and normal epithelial-specific JSP scores correlate with favorable patient survival, whereas
elevated tumor-intrinsic JSP scores are associated with poor prognosis. This can be attributed to the
predominant expression of JSP in T cells, which enhances T cell-mediated anti-tumor immunity and
counterbalances its pro-tumor effects within cancer cells.

STAT4 exhibits contrasting roles in tumor cells and immune cells, highlighting its dual nature in
cancer biology. On one hand, STAT4 in tumor cells drives carcinoma progression. For example,
STAT4 has been shown to transactivate KDM5D, which erases H3K4me2/3 and H3K27ac marks,
leading to the repression of cell-cell junction genes and antigen presentation genes. This, in turn,
facilitates cancer metastasis and immune evasion in colorectal cancer [45]. Additionally, STAT4
contributes to the progression of triple-negative breast cancer by co-transactivating with STAT3 to
establish the IL12R/JAK2-STAT3-STAT4/PD-L1 axis [23]. We also confirmed STAT4 facilitated
cancer progression through orchestrating with JAK-STAT pathway and involved ferroptotic
resistance through upregulating SLC47A1. On the other hand, STAT4 plays a critical role in
maintaining the anti-tumor efficacy of immune cells within TME. Recognized as a favorable
prognostic biomarker in breast cancer [23,46,47] and gastric cancer [48], STAT4 promoted anti-tumor
immunity mediated by Th1, Th17 through increasing IFN-γ production in HNSCC [49]. It also
enhanced NK and NKT cell cytotoxicity, promoted Th1 cell proliferation and differentiation with a
IL12-dependent manner [50-52], and strengthened IFN-γ-mediated macrophage-T cell crosstalk [49,53].
Here, our bioinformatics analysis and experimental findings further reinforce the aforementioned
perspective: STAT4 accelerates tumor cell progression and normal epithelial proliferation, while in T
cells, it serves as an indicator of enhanced T-cell cytotoxicity.

Preclinical studies identified the potential of targeting JAK-STAT pathway for cancer treatment
through small molecular inhibitors [54-57]. Furthermore, a series of clinical trials unveil that JAK or
STAT inhibitors perform synergetic potential towards anti-PD1 immunotherapy in cancers [54,58]. For
instance, STAT inhibitors (BBI608, Fludarabine, Celecoxib) or JAK inhibitors (Ruxolitinib,
Itacitinib) combined with PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors (Pembrolizumab, Nivolumab, Toripalimab) for
phase 1/2 clinical trials [58]. Meanwhile, STAT3 hinders CD8$^+$ T cell recruitment to tumor
microenvironment through suppressing IFNγ-CXCL10 (chemoattractant for T cells)-CXCR3
(CXCL10 receptor) signaling in lung cancer preclinical models, which implied targeting STAT3 in
T-cell also could enhance T cell infiltration, even immunotherapy efficiency [59,60]. Moreover, STAT3
is one of the upstream transcriptional factors of CD274 (coding PD-L1) to involve PD-L1-mediated
immune evasion [61,62]. Targeting JAK/STAT–PD-L1 crosstalk is regarded as a druggable strategy to
boost immunotherapy in lung cancers [57]. JAK1 inhibitor (ruxolitinib) improved anti-PD-1 treatment
response through reshaping T cell differentiation in a lung cancer cohort [63], while ruxolitinib
reprogramed exhausted T cells in Hodgkin's lymphoma [64]. However, the strategy of targeting the
JAK-STAT signaling pathway for breast cancer treatment has proven to be both underwhelming and
disappointing, with the number of related clinical trials lagging behind those for other types of cancer
[65-67]. JAK1/2 inhibitor Ruxolitinib in metastatic TNBC cohort didn't reach efficacy endpoint without
combination with immunotherapy [68]. In a clinical trial (NCT01594216) evaluating the combination
of Ruxolitinib and exemestane, a steroidal aromatase inhibitor, for the treatment of HR$^+$ metastatic
breast cancer, none of the patients achieved complete or partial response. Additionally, nearly 50% of
the participants experienced anemia as an adverse effect [69]. These findings suggest that Ruxolitinib
has limited utility for treating advanced breast cancer. Another clinical trial (NCT06731153) is
currently underway to investigate whether the JAK1 inhibitor Ivarmacitinib can overcome resistance
to PD-1 inhibitor (Camrelizumab) immunotherapy in TNBC. In a clinical trial (NCT03195699)
evaluating the efficacy of the oral STAT3 inhibitor tinengotinib (TTI-101) as a monotherapy for

advanced metastatic solid tumors, including 7 cases of breast cancer, 12% of patients achieved a
partial response. Among HCC patients, the overall response rate (ORR) was 18%. However, adverse
events or side effects of varying degrees were observed in 98% of the participants [70]. Meanwhile,
considering the critical role of the JAK-STAT pathway in immune cells, its inhibition can lead to
immunosuppression and immune cytotoxicity [17,71]. For instance, JAK inhibitors (such as ruxolitinib)
impair the anti-tumor functions of DCs [72], NK cells [73], and T cells [74]. Our analysis also partially
revealed why the effectiveness of JAK/STAT inhibitors in breast cancer treatment remains
unsatisfactory: broad inhibition of the JAK-STAT pathway may hinder T-cell activation and
compromise T-cell-mediated anti-tumor cytotoxicity; JAK-STAT pathway is also crucial for normal
epithelial differentiation. Considering the complexity and context-specific nature of JAK-STAT
pathway signaling and its transduction network within TME [17], leveraging the JAK-STAT pathway
as a biomarker for immune therapy response is a practical and effective approach. Based on the
above clinical evidence and our findings, administering JAK–STAT inhibitors before or concurrently
with immunotherapy may impair T-cell cytotoxicity and disrupt normal epithelial differentiation in
breast cancer patients. Instead, sequential delivery of JAK inhibition following immunotherapy
represents a promising immune-sensitizing strategy, particularly for the TNBC subtype.

Recent studies have highlighted the critical role of selecting optimal therapeutic windows for JAK
inhibitors (JAKi) in immunotherapy. In patients with non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC),
intermittent treatment of JAK inhibitors (JAKi) during anti-PD-1 immunotherapy, rather than
continuous combination therapy, has demonstrated potential for improving treatment outcomes. This
approach reshapes T cell differentiation, characterized by an increase in memory and effector-
memory $CD8^+$ T cells and a reduction in exhausted $CD8^+$ T cells [63]. Another study in Hodgkin
lymphoma found that adding JAK inhibitors at the late stage of anti-PD-1 therapy similarly increased
the proportion of cytotoxic $CD8^+$ T cells, accompanied by a reduction in pro-tumor neutrophils and
MDSCs [64]. These findings suggest that the therapeutic window should also be carefully considered
when introducing JAK inhibitors into breast cancer treatment, even immunotherapy. A Phase II
clinical trial (NCT06731153, not yet recruiting) aims to evaluate whether the JAK1 inhibitor
Ivarmacitinib combined with the PD-1 inhibitor Camrelizumab can overcome immunotherapy
resistance in triple-negative breast cancer. Other clinical trial (NCT05384119) targeting palbociclib-
resistant HR+/HER2- breast cancer by combining the STAT3 inhibitor TTI-101 with established
therapies to assess its safety, tolerability, and efficacy has concluded. Additionally, immune-
activating cytokine IL-12 binds to its receptors IL12R-β1/β2, triggering Tyk2/Jak2 signaling to drive
STAT4 phosphorylation, dimerization and nuclear translocation; this further upregulates IFN-γ
transcription to potentiate T-cell and NK-cell-mediated antitumor immune responses [75,76]. Several
preclinical evidences have identified the efficacy of IL12 against TNBC [77,78]. These findings suggest
that combining IL-12-mediated STAT4 activation with STAT3 inhibition may open a new avenue for
immunotherapy in breast cancer. Some unresolved questions include: Does JAK-STAT inhibition
have therapeutic value in breast cancer immunotherapy? How can a reasonable therapeutic window
be designed? Which breast cancer subtypes should be selected for further clinical trials? Is there a
difference between JAK inhibition and STAT inhibition? Which is more effective? Further
experiments are needed to address these questions.

In our analysis of the immunotherapy cohort, only PD-1 inhibitor datasets were included. This may
limit the representativeness of our findings with respect to other ICIs, such as PD-L1 inhibitors and
CTLA-4 inhibitors. Additionally, given one of the obvious molecular characteristics of TNBC
subtype: MES (elevated JAK/STAT3 singling pathway [31,79]) is the abnormal activation of JAK-
STAT signaling, our profiling not refine and investigate this pathway based on these subtypes

because lack of subtype-paired single-cell cohorts. Notably, the IM subtype displayed elevated
JAK-STAT pathway expression and activity (Fig. S5B-C), highlighting meaningful therapeutic
implications for patients harboring this subtype. In addition, the JAK-STAT pathway gene set may
need refinement to better reflect cancer type dependency. In summary, our results emphasize the
JAK-STAT pathway's heterogeneity in epithelial, tumor, and T cells, with patients exhibiting high
pathway activity gaining more substantial benefits from immunotherapy.

5   Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

6   Author Contributions

J.Z.: conceptualization, bioinformatics analyses, experimental work, and writing of the original draft.
H.Z.: experimental support and data acquisition. L.Y. and F.P.: supervision, funding acquisition,
project administration, and manuscript review and revision.

7   Acknowledgements

We thank all the editors and reviewers for their efforts and insightful comments.

8   Funding

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (no. 82003879),
Project of Science and Technology Department of Sichuan Province (no. 2023NSFSC1928;
2023NSFSC1992), the Project of State Administration of Traditional Chinese Medicine of China
(No. ZYYCXTD-D-202209), the Project of Sichuan Provincial Administration of Traditional
Chinese Medicine (No. 2022C001; 2024ZD02), the Open Research Fund of State Key Laboratory of
Southwestern Chinese Medicine Resources (no.SKLTCM202205) and Sichuan University
Interdisciplinary Innovation Fund, the Fundamental Research Funds for the central Universities.

9   Data availability

All clinical datasets are publicly available and stated in the methods section. All R codes are
available on GitHub (https://github.com/Jianbo1999/2025-JAK-STAT-breast-cancer).

10   Ethnics statement

Animal experiments were approved by the Medical Ethics Committee of Sichuan University (ID:
K2024019).

11   References

1.   Siegel RL, Kratzer TB, Wagle NS, Sung H, Jemal A. Cancer statistics, 2026. *CA: a cancer
      journal for clinicians.* 2026;76(1):e70043.

2.   Kim J, Harper A, McCormack V, et al. Global patterns and trends in breast cancer incidence
      and mortality across 185 countries. *Nature Medicine.* 2025;31(4):1154-1162.

3.   Harbeck N, Gnant M. Breast cancer. *The Lancet.* 2017;389(10074):1134-1150.

4.   Wu S-Y, Wang H, Shao Z-M, Jiang Y-Z. Triple-negative breast cancer: new treatment
strategies in the era of precision medicine. *Science China Life Sciences*. 2021;64(3):372-388.

5.   Ensenyat-Mendez M, Llinàs-Arias P, Orozco JIJ, et al. Current Triple-Negative Breast Cancer
Subtypes: Dissecting the Most Aggressive Form of Breast Cancer. *Frontiers in oncology*.
2021;Volume 11 - 2021.

6.   Fan L, Wang Z-H, Ma L-X, et al. Optimising first-line subtyping-based therapy in triple-
negative breast cancer (FUTURE-SUPER): a multi-cohort, randomised, phase 2 trial. *The
Lancet Oncology*. 2024;25(2):184-197.

7.   Jie H, Ma W, Huang C. Diagnosis, Prognosis, and Treatment of Triple-Negative Breast
Cancer: A Review. *Breast cancer (Dove Medical Press)*. 2025;17:265-274.

8.   Xiong N, Wu H, Yu Z. Advancements and challenges in triple-negative breast cancer: a
comprehensive review of therapeutic and diagnostic strategies. *Frontiers in oncology*.
2024;14:1405491.

9.   Xiong X, Zheng L-W, Ding Y, et al. Breast cancer: pathogenesis and treatments. *Signal
Transduction and Targeted Therapy*. 2025;10(1):49.

10. Li L, Zhang F, Liu Z, Fan Z. Immunotherapy for Triple-Negative Breast Cancer:
Combination Strategies to Improve Outcome. *Cancers*. 2023;15(1):321.

11. Debien V, De Caluwé A, Wang X, et al. Immunotherapy in breast cancer: an overview of
current strategies and perspectives. *npj Breast Cancer*. 2023;9(1):7.

12. An J, Zhang L, Duan Y, Pu S, Peng F. Sodium's role and therapeutic targeting in cancer.
Trends in pharmacological sciences. 2026;47(1):53-65.

13. Hu X, li J, Fu M, Zhao X, Wang W. The JAK/STAT signaling pathway: from bench to clinic.
Signal Transduction and Targeted Therapy. 2021;6(1):402.

14. Liang D, Wang Q, Zhang W, et al. JAK/STAT in leukemia: a clinical update. *Molecular
cancer*. 2024;23(1):25.

15. Seffens A, Herrera A, Tegla C, et al. STAT3 Dysregulation in Mature T and NK Cell
Lymphomas. *Cancers*. 2019;11(11).

16. Parveen S, Fatma M, Mir SS, Dermime S, Uddin S. JAK-STAT Signaling in Autoimmunity
and Cancer. *ImmunoTargets and therapy*. 2025;14:523-554.

17. Owen KL, Brockwell NK, Parker BS. JAK-STAT Signaling: A Double-Edged Sword of
Immune Regulation and Cancer Progression. *Cancers*. 2019;11(12):2002.

18. Watford WT, Hissong BD, Bream JH, Kanno Y, Muul L, O'Shea JJ. Signaling by IL-12 and
IL-23 and the immunoregulatory roles of STAT4. *Immunological Reviews*. 2004;202(1):139-
156.

19. Olson Janelle A, Jameson Stephen C. Keeping STATs on Memory CD8+ T Cells. *Immunity*.
2011;35(5):663-665.

20. Voorwerk L, Slagter M, Horlings HM, et al. Immune induction strategies in metastatic triple-
negative breast cancer to enhance the sensitivity to PD-1 blockade: the TONIC trial. *Nature
Medicine*. 2019;25(6):920-928.

21. Zhang Q, Wang M, Li Y, et al. Efficacy, safety and exploratory analysis of neoadjuvant
tislelizumab (a PD-1 inhibitor) plus nab-paclitaxel followed by epirubicin/cyclophosphamide

for triple-negative breast cancer: a phase 2 TREND trial. *Signal Transduction and Targeted*
Therapy. 2025;10(1):169.

22.   Wu SZ, Al-Eryani G, Roden DL, et al. A single-cell and spatially resolved atlas of human
breast cancers. *Nature Genetics.* 2021;53(9):1334-1347.

23.   Zhou J, Wan F, Wang L, Peng C, Huang R, Peng F. STAT4 facilitates PD-L1 level via IL-
12R/JAK2/STAT3 axis and predicts immunotherapy response in breast cancer. *MedComm.*
2023;4(6):e464.

24.   Pal B, Chen Y, Vaillant F, et al. A single☐cell RNA expression atlas of normal, preneoplastic
and tumorigenic states in the human breast. *The EMBO journal.* 2021;40(11):e107333.

25.   Chen Y, Pal B, Lindeman GJ, Visvader JE, Smyth GK. R code and downstream analysis
objects for the scRNA-seq atlas of normal and tumorigenic human breast tissue. *Scientific*
Data. 2022;9(1):96.

26.   Bassez A, Vos H, Van Dyck L, et al. A single-cell map of intratumoral changes during anti-
PD1 treatment of patients with breast cancer. *Nature Medicine.* 2021;27(5):820-832.

27.   Wolf DM, Yau C, Wulfkuhle J, et al. Redefining breast cancer subtypes to guide treatment
prioritization and maximize response: Predictive biomarkers across 10 cancer therapies.
Cancer Cell. 2022;40(6):609-623.e606.

28.   Liu J, Lichtenberg T, Hoadley KA, et al. An Integrated TCGA Pan-Cancer Clinical Data
Resource to Drive High-Quality Survival Outcome Analytics. *Cell.* 2018;173(2):400-
416.e411.

29.   Rueda OM, Sammut S-J, Seoane JA, et al. Dynamics of breast-cancer relapse reveal late-
recurring ER-positive genomic subgroups. *Nature.* 2019;567(7748):399-404.

30.   Staaf J, Glodzik D, Bosch A, et al. Whole-genome sequencing of triple-negative breast
cancers in a population-based clinical study. *Nature Medicine.* 2019;25(10):1526-1533.

31.   Jiang Y-Z, Ma D, Suo C, et al. Genomic and Transcriptomic Landscape of Triple-Negative
Breast Cancers: Subtypes and Treatment Strategies. *Cancer Cell.* 2019;35(3):428-440.

32.   Wang X, Venet D, Lifrange F, et al. Spatial transcriptomics reveals substantial heterogeneity
in triple-negative breast cancer with potential clinical implications. *Nature communications.*
2024;15(1):10232.

33.   Wu S-Y, Jin X, Liu Y, et al. Mobilizing antigen-presenting mast cells in anti-PD-1-refractory
triple-negative breast cancer: a phase 2 trial. *Nature Medicine.* 2025;31(7):2405-2415.

34.   Li H, van der Leun AM, Yofe I, et al. Dysfunctional CD8 T Cells Form a Proliferative,
Dynamically Regulated Compartment within Human Melanoma. *Cell.* 2019;176(4):775-
789.e718.

35.   Zeng D, Fang Y, Qiu W, et al. Enhancing immuno-oncology investigations through
multidimensional decoding of tumor microenvironment with IOBR 2.0. *Cell Reports*
Methods. 2024;4(12):100910.

36.   Bassiouni R, Idowu MO, Gibbs LD, et al. Spatial Transcriptomic Analysis of a Diverse
Patient Cohort Reveals a Conserved Architecture in Triple-Negative Breast Cancer. *Cancer*
research. 2023;83(1):34-48.

37.   Chu T, Zhu G, Tang Z, et al. Metabolism archetype cancer cells induce protumor TREM2+
650   macrophages via oxLDL-mediated metabolic interplay in hepatocellular carcinoma. *Nature*
651   *communications.* 2025;16(1):6770.

652   38.   Nguyen QH, Pervolarakis N, Blake K, et al. Profiling human breast epithelial cells using
653   single cell RNA sequencing identifies cell diversity. *Nature communications.* 2018;9(1):2028.

654   39.   Feng W, Ladewig E, Lange M, et al. ERG-driven prostate cancer initiation is cell-context
655   dependent and requires KMT2A and DOT1L. *Nature Genetics.* 2025;57(9):2177-2191.

656   40.   Fu T, Jin X, He M, et al. Interferon-induced senescent CD8+ T cells reduce anti-PD1
657   immunotherapy efficacy in early triple-negative breast cancer. *Science translational medicine.*
658   2025;17(815):eadj7808.

659   41.   Lin Z, Liu J, Long F, et al. The lipid flippase SLC47A1 blocks metabolic vulnerability to
660   ferroptosis. *Nature communications.* 2022;13(1):7965.

661   42.   Zhou J, Yang W, Tang H, et al. Co-targeting ferroptosis and immune evasion through small
662   molecules in breast cancer. *Journal of Translational Internal Medicine.* 2025;13(6):516-536.

663   43.   Insua-Rodríguez J, Naef P, Savage H, et al. Single-cell profiling of synchronous multi-organ
664   metastasis reveals a systemic CD74+ lipid-associated macrophage niche driving
665   polymetastatic breast cancer. *bioRxiv : the preprint server for biology.*
666   2026:2026.2001.2031.701004.

667   44.   Rayson VC, Harris MA, Savas P, et al. The anti-cancer immune response in breast cancer:
668   current and emerging biomarkers and treatments. *Trends in Cancer.* 2024;10(6):490-506.

669   45.   Li J, Lan Z, Liao W, et al. Histone demethylase KDM5D upregulation drives sex differences
670   in colon cancer. *Nature.* 2023;619(7970):632-639.

671   46.   Núñez-Marrero A. Assessing the Role of the Interleukin-12/STAT4 Axis in Breast Cancer by
672   a Bioinformatics Approach. *International journal of sciences, basic and applied research.*
673   2019;48(2):38-52.

674   47.   Yang H, Zhao KK, Kang HL, Wang MC, Wu AG. Exploring immune-related genes with
675   prognostic value in microenvironment of breast cancer from TCGA database. *Medicine.*
676   2020;99(14):e19561.

677   48.   Zhang YJ, Yu CR. Prognostic values of signal transducers activators of transcription in
678   gastric cancer. *Bioscience Reports.* 2019;39(4):20181695.

679   49.   Anderson K, Ryan N, Volpedo G, Varikuti S, Satoskar AR, Oghumu S. Immune Suppression
680   Mediated by STAT4 Deficiency Promotes Lymphatic Metastasis in HNSCC. *Frontiers in*
681   *immunology.* 2020;10:03095.

682   50.   Yang C, Mai H, Peng J, Zhou B, Hou J, Jiang D. STAT4: an immunoregulator contributing to
683   diverse human diseases. *International Journal of Biological Sciences.* 2020;16(9):1575-1585.

684   51.   Cui X, Liu W, Jiang H, et al. IL-12 family cytokines and autoimmune diseases: A potential
685   therapeutic target? *Journal of Translational Autoimmunity.* 2025;10:100263.

686   52.   Landoni E, Woodcock MG, Barragan G, et al. IL-12 reprograms CAR-expressing natural
687   killer T cells to long-lived Th1-polarized cells with potent antitumor activity. *Nature*
688   *communications.* 2024;15(1):89.

53.   Xiao J, Sun F, Wang Y-N, et al. UBC9 deficiency enhances immunostimulatory macrophage
activation and subsequent antitumor T cell response in prostate cancer. *The Journal of clinical*
investigation. 2023;133(4):e158352.

54.   Wang Y, Wang Z, Li S, Ma J, Dai X, Lu J. Deciphering JAK/STAT signaling pathway: A
multifaceted approach to tumorigenesis, progression and therapeutic interventions.
International Immunopharmacology. 2024;131:111846.

55.   Zhou J, Wan F, Xiao BIN, Li XIN, Peng C, Peng FU. Metochalcone induces senescence-
associated secretory phenotype via JAK2/STAT3 pathway in breast cancer. *Oncology*
Research. 2023;2023:044775.

56.   Zhou J, Wang L, Peng C, Peng F. Co-Targeting Tumor Angiogenesis and
Immunosuppressive Tumor Microenvironment: A Perspective in Ethnopharmacology.
Frontiers in pharmacology. 2022;13:886198.

57.   Yao Y, Tao G, Xie D, Xu Y, Li L. Effect of JAK/STAT signaling on anti-PD-L1
immunotherapy efficacy in lung cancer. *Critical Reviews in Oncology/Hematology.*
2025;214:104861.

58.   Chen M, Wang S. Preclinical development and clinical studies of targeted JAK/STAT
combined Anti-PD-1/PD-L1 therapy. *International Immunopharmacology.* 2024;130:111717.

59.   Yue C, Shen S, Deng J, et al. STAT3 in CD8+ T Cells Inhibits Their Tumor Accumulation by
Downregulating CXCR3/CXCL10 Axis. *Cancer Immunology Research.* 2015;3(8):864-870.

60.   Reschke R, Gajewski TF. CXCL9 and CXCL10 bring the heat to tumors. *Science*
Immunology. 2022;7(73):eabq6509.

61.   Jin M, Fang J, Peng J, et al. PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoint blockade in breast cancer:
research insights and sensitization strategies. *Molecular cancer.* 2024;23(1):266.

62.   Cha JH, Chan LC, Li CW, Hsu JL, Hung MC. Mechanisms Controlling PD-L1 Expression in
Cancer. *Mol Cell.* 2019;76(3):359-370.

63.   Mathew D, Marmarelis ME, Foley C, et al. Combined JAK inhibition and PD-1
immunotherapy for non–small cell lung cancer patients. *Science.* 2024;384(6702):eadf1329.

64.   Zak J, Pratumchai I, Marro BS, et al. JAK inhibition enhances checkpoint blockade
immunotherapy in patients with Hodgkin lymphoma. *Science.* 2024;384(6702):eade8520.

65.   Kang Z, Li S, Li Y, Song J, Peng Y, Chen Y. Small molecular inhibitors and degraders
targeting STAT3 for cancer therapy: An updated review (from 2022 to 2024). *Chinese*
Chemical Letters. 2025;36(7):110447.

66.   Kohal R, Bisht P, Gupta GD, Verma SK. Targeting JAK2/STAT3 for the treatment of cancer:
A review on recent advancements in molecular development using structural analysis and
SAR investigations. *Bioorganic chemistry.* 2024;143:107095.

67.   Thuya WL, Cao Y, Ho PC-L, et al. Insights into IL-6/JAK/STAT3 signaling in the tumor
microenvironment: Implications for cancer therapy. *Cytokine & Growth Factor Reviews.*
2025;85:26-42.

68.   Stover DG, Gil Del Alcazar CR, Brock J, et al. Phase II study of ruxolitinib, a selective
JAK1/2 inhibitor, in patients with metastatic triple-negative breast cancer. *npj Breast Cancer.*
2018;4(1):10.

69. Makhlin I, McAndrew NP, Wileyto EP, et al. Ruxolitinib and exemestane for estrogen
receptor positive, aromatase inhibitor resistant advanced breast cancer. *npj Breast Cancer.*
2022;8(1):122.

70. Tsimberidou AM, Vining DJ, Arora SP, et al. Phase I Trial of TTI-101, a First-in-Class Oral
Inhibitor of STAT3, in Patients with Advanced Solid Tumors. *Clinical Cancer Research.*
2025;31(6):965-974.

71. Cornez I, Yajnanarayana SP, Wolf AM, Wolf D. JAK/STAT disruption induces immuno-
deficiency: Rationale for the development of JAK inhibitors as immunosuppressive drugs.
Molecular and Cellular Endocrinology. 2017;451:88-96.

72. Heine A, Held SAE, Daecke SN, et al. The JAK-inhibitor ruxolitinib impairs dendritic cell
function in vitro and in vivo. *Blood.* 2013;122(7):1192-1202.

73. Schönberg K, Rudolph J, Vonnahme M, et al. JAK Inhibition Impairs NK Cell Function in
Myeloproliferative Neoplasms. *Cancer research.* 2015;75(11):2187-2199.

74. Parampalli Yajnanarayana S, Stübig T, Cornez I, et al. JAK1/2 inhibition impairs T cell
function in vitro and in patients with myeloproliferative neoplasms. *British Journal of
Haematology.* 2015;169(6):824-833.

75. Ueno H. The IL-12-STAT4 axis in the pathogenesis of human systemic lupus erythematosus.
European Journal of Immunology. 2020;50(1):10-16.

76. Rindlisbacher L, Navarro MN, Becher B. Inflame and restrain — the paradoxical roles of IL-
12 and IL-23 in immunity. *Nature Reviews Immunology.* 2026.

77. Hicks KC, Chariou PL, Ozawa Y, et al. Tumour-targeted interleukin-12 and entinostat
combination therapy improves cancer survival by reprogramming the tumour immune cell
landscape. *Nature communications.* 2021;12(1):5151.

78. Herpels M, Ragulan C, Mansurov A, Ishihara J, Sadanandam A. Bioengineered tumour-
targeted interleukin-12 selectively cures murine triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC).
Journal for immunotherapy of cancer. 2023;11(Suppl 1).

79. Asleh K, Riaz N, Nielsen TO. Heterogeneity of triple negative breast cancer: Current
advances in subtyping and treatment implications. *Journal of Experimental & Clinical
Cancer Research.* 2022;41(1):265.

Figure 1. Heterogeneous expression pattern of JAK–STAT pathway in breast cancer. (A)
Schematic illustration of the overall experimental and analytical workflow. (B) UMAP plot
illustrating the major cell populations derived from the single-cell dataset GSE176078. (C) Core
marker gene expressions of major cell populations. (D) UMAP plot depicting the minor cell
subpopulations. (E-F) Distribution of JAK-STAT pathway scores across major and minor cell types.
(G) Ro/e index for JAK-STAT pathway score. (H) JAK-STAT pathway scores in paracancerous
epithelial cells versus cancerous epithelial cells. (I) Pseudotime trajectory analysis of epithelial cell
states using Monocle2. (J-K) Pseudotime scores computed by Monocle2 and CytoTRACE2-derived
cytotrace scores (in which higher scores indicate lower levels of differentiation). (K) Differentiation
trajectories of epithelial cell subtypes. (L) Pseudotime dynamics of the JAK-STAT pathway scores.
(M) Activity of the JAK-STAT pathway within epithelial cells.

**Figure 2. The JAK-STAT pathway promotes tumor malignant phenotypes and
immunosuppression**. (A) Ro/e index analysis demonstrates the preferences of JSP-high versus JSP-
low cells in tumor cells. (B) Correlation of JSP scores with 14 cancer-related phenotype features. (C)
Expression of cancer phenotype signatures in JSP-high and JSP-low tumor cells. (D) Differentially
expressed genes in JSP-high versus JSP-low tumor cells. (E) KEGG enrichment analysis of
differentially expressed genes. (F) CellChat analysis illustrating the strength of cellular
communication in JSP-high and JSP-low samples. (G) Bar chart of CellChat signaling flows. (H)
Cell-to-cell communication between cancerous epithelial cells and T cells.

Figure 3. JAK–STAT pathway is essential for normal breast epithelial cell differentiation. (A)
UMAP plot of annotated normal epithelial cells. (B) Core markers of mammary epithelial cells. (C)
Expression levels of JSP score across mammary epithelial cell subgroups. (D) Pseudotime trajectory
analysis using Monocle2. (E) Relationship between JSP expression and pseudotime scores. (F)
Progeny pathway activity, with epithelial cells categorized into high and low groups based on median
JSP expression. (G) Volcano plot of differentially expressed genes. (H-I) GO and KEGG enrichment
analyses of differentially expressed genes. Significance: *, $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Figure 4. JAK–STAT pathway is associated with enhanced T cell function. (A) JSP scores across
major T cell subgroups in GSE176078. (B) JSP scores across minor T cell subgroups. (C)
Proportions of T cell subgroups. T cells were classified into high and low groups based on the
average JSP score. (D) T cell state scores of major T cell subgroups. (E) T cell state scores based on
JSP grouping. (F) Related to (E), exhaustion and cytotoxicity scores in T cells. (G-H) Heatmaps of
representative functional genes in major T cell subgroups and JSP subgroups. (I) Monocle2
pseudotime analysis UMAP plots; the top panel shows cell types, the bottom panel displays
pseudotime scores. (J) Line plot showing the relationship between JSP score and pseudotime score.
(K) Differential genes between T cell JSP subgroups. (L) GO enrichment analysis of differential
genes between JSP-high and JSP-low T cells. Significance: *, $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Figure 5. JAK–STAT pathway enhances immunotherapy sensitivity and predicts immunotherapy response. (A) Expression patterns of JSP in the bulk RNA-seq immunotherapy cohort: GSE194040. Red text indicates 10 core JSP components, while green text shows 8 immune markers. TN, triple-negative breast cancer; Score, JSP score. (B) JSP scores in immunotherapy responders (R) versus non-responders (NR). (C) Area Under Curve (AUC) of Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve for predicting immunotherapy response. (D) ROC curve for JSP predicting immunotherapy response extracted from (C). (E) UMAP of the single-cell dataset: breast cancer anti-PD1 immunotherapy cohort (anti-PD1_Nat.Med). (F) JSP score in UMAP, pDC, plasmacytoid dendritic cells. (G) Distribution of JSP scores across clinical subtypes of anti-PD1_Nat.Med cohort. (H) Immune microenvironment characteristics (scaled cell type ratio) of JSP-high versus JSP-low patients. (I) Expression of JSP and core JSP components before and during immunotherapy (Pre vs. On). (J) Correlation between JSP scores and cell proportions. (K) ROC curve AUC values: Prediction of T cell expansion using JSP scores and cell composition proportions. Significance: *, $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Figure 6. STAT4 promotes tumor cell and normal epithelial proliferation. (A) Venn diagram displaying the JAK-STAT pathway signature genes specific to tumor cells, epithelial cells, and T cells, which were derived from pseudotime trajectory analysis using Monocle2. (B) Survival analysis of the above cell-type-specific JAK-STAT pathway genes in the TCGA dataset. (C-E) Overexpressing STAT4 in normal breast epithelial MCF10A cells, detected by Western blotting (C) and qPCR (D). (E) MCF10A cells were assigned to OE-NC (control) or OE-STAT4 groups for cell proliferation assay. (F-H) Overexpressing STAT4 in MDA-MB-231 breast cancer cells. (F) Protein levels of STAT4 following overexpression. (G) STAT4 mRNA levels following overexpression. (H) Cell proliferation assessed by CCK-8 assay. (I-K) Xenograft tumor experiments in nude mice: tumor volume (J) and weight (K). (L) Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) of RNA-sequencing after STAT4 overexpression. (M) Progeny pathway activity analysis. Significance: *, $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

Figure S1. The JAK-STAT signaling pathway is abnormally expressed and prognosis-related in
cancers. (A) Expression of JSP in adjacent non-tumor and tumor tissues across a pan-cancer cohort.
(B) Survival curves based on JSP pathway expression, stratified by median value. (C) Expression of
JSP in adjacent non-tumor and tumor tissues within specific cancer types. (D) Univariate COX
analysis across different cancer types. (E) Univariate COX analysis of core JSP components.

Figure S2. Progeny pathway activity and Monocle2 profiling. (A) Progeny pathway activity of
epithelial cells. (B) Pseudotime trajectory analysis in epithelial cells: heatmap of JSP gene expression.
Red brackets: T cell differentiation-specific genes. (C) Relationship between pseudotime score and
gene expression (JAK2, STAT3).

Figure S3. Spatial transcriptomic analysis validates the MIF-CD74 axis. (A) Correlation between
the mean expression of MIF-CD74 and JSP score. (B-C) Representative cases 093A (B) and 397D (C)
from the GSE210616 dataset. Left panels: cell type annotation; middle panels: spatial expression of
MIF and CD74; right panels: spatial neighborhood analysis of MIF☐ and MIF☐ tumor cells.

Figure S4. Pseudotime trajectory analysis of the JAK-STAT pathway in normal epithelial cells
and T cells. Differentiation trajectory of normal epithelial cells (A) and T cells (B). Genes associated
with JSP that exhibited elevated expression during late differentiation were designated as cell
differentiation-dependent genes, marked with red brackets.

Figure S5. Combined predictive model and heterogeneity of the JAK-STAT pathway in TNBC
Subtypes. (A) ROC curves of PDCD1(PD-1), CD274(PD-L1), PDCD1LG2(PD-L2), JSP score and
combined model score. (B) FUSCC-TNBC cohort. (C) 2024_Nat.Comm. cohort. Left panels: JSP
scores; middle panels: JAK-STAT pathway activity; right panels: STAT4 expression. LAR: luminal
androgen receptor, IM: immunomodulatory, BLIS: basal-like immune-suppressed, MES:
mesenchymal-like.

Figure S6. STAT4 as a representative of the JAK-STAT pathway. (A) Correlation between
STAT4 expression and the JAK-STAT pathway score across the TCGA, METABRIC, and SCAN-B
cohorts. (B) Survival analysis of STAT4 within these cohorts, using the median as the threshold. (C)
Expression patterns of STAT4 in a breast cancer single-cell dataset (GSE176078), highlighting major
subtypes, T-cell minor subtypes, and T-cell subsets. (D) Variation in STAT4 expression between

 TNBC and non-TNBC samples. (E) Expression of STAT4 in breast cancer cell lines, categorized into
 TNBC and non-TNBC subgroups.

Figure S7. STAT4 up-regulates SLC47A1 to involve ferroptosis in breast cancer cells. (A-B)
Wound healing (A) and cell migration assays (B) were performed following STAT4 overexpression
in MDA-MB-231 cells. (C) KEGG pathway enrichment analysis of differentially expressed genes
following STAT4 overexpression. (D) Upregulation of SLC47A1 upon STAT4 overexpression. (E)
Expression levels of STAT4 and SLC47A1 in xenograft tumors in nude mice. Significance: *, $p <$
0.05; ** $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.

SLC47A1 promoter	STAT4 protein	Distance (Å)	Interaction type
DG 1992 (C)	LYS 563 (A)	3.30	Hydrogen Bond
DG 1994 (C)	ASN 456 (A)	3.70	Hydrogen Bond
DG 1995 (C)	ASN 456 (A)	3.83	Hydrogen Bond
DG 1995 (C)	ASN 456 (A)	3.91	Hydrogen Bond
DG 1995 (C)	ASN 456 (A)	3.20	Hydrogen Bond
DC 1998 (C)	GLU 406 (A)	3.06	Hydrogen Bond
DC 1998 (C)	ARG 373 (A)	3.83	Hydrogen Bond
DC 1998 (C)	ARG 373 (A)	2.62	Hydrogen Bond

878 **Figure S8. STAT4 binds to the SLC47A1 promoter.** (A) Hydrogen bond interactions between
879 STAT4 and its binding sites on the SLC47A1 promoter, with a binding energy of −46.28 kcal/mol.
880 (B) Positions and corresponding distances of these hydrogen bonds.

882 **12   Supplementary File**

883 **Supplementary Table 1** JAK-STAT pathway genes

AKT3
SPRY3
SPRY1
SPRY2
STAM2
IRF9
PIAS3
IL24
CISH
IL22RA2
SOCS4
CNTF
CNTFR
CREBBP
CSF2
CSF2RA
CSF2RB
CSF3
CSF3R
CSH1
CTF1
IL23R
SPRED1
IFNLR1
SPRED2
EP300
EPO
EPOR
AKT1
AKT2
CLCF1
PIK3R5
CBLC
GH1
GH2
GHR
IFNL2
IFNL3
IFNL1

GRB2
IL19
SOCS7
IFNE
IFNA1
IFNA2
IFNA4
IFNA5
IFNA6
IFNA7
IFNA8
IFNA10
IFNA13
IFNA14
IFNA16
IFNA17
IFNA21
IFNAR1
IFNAR2
IFNB1
IFNG
IFNGR1
IFNGR2
IFNW1
IL2
IL2RA
IL2RB
IL2RG
IL3
IL3RA
IL4
IL4R
IL5
IL5RA
IL6
IL6R
IL6ST
IL7
IL7R
IL9
IL9R
IL10
IL10RA

IL10RB
IL11
IL11RA
IL12A
IL12B
IL12RB1
IL12RB2
IL13
IL13RA1
IL13RA2
IL15
IL15RA
JAK1
JAK2
JAK3
LEP
LEPR
LIF
LIFR
MPL
MYC
OSM
IL20
IL21R
IL22
IL23A
PIAS4
PIK3CA
PIK3CB
PIM1
PIK3CD
PIK3CG
PIK3R1
PIK3R2
IL20RA
IL20RB
IL26
PRL
PRLR
IFNK
PTPN6
PTPN11
IL22RA1

IL21
CCND1
BCL2L1
CRLF2
SOS1
SOS2
STAT1
STAT2
STAT3
STAT4
STAT5A
STAT5B
STAT6
TPO
TYK2
STAM
SPRY4
PIK3R3
TSLP
PIAS1
SOCS1
CBL
CBLB
SOCS2
CCND2
CCND3
SOCS3
PIAS2
OSMR
SOCS5

886 **Supplementary Table 2** The genes for venn plot.

Tumor	Epi	Tcell
IFNL1	SPRY1	AKT3
IFNL3	IL6R	SPRY1
IFNL2	STAM	SPRY2
IL12A	MYC	CSF2
IL22RA2	AKT3	CLCF1
PIK3R2	SOS2	IFNG
IL12RB2	CLCF1	IFNGR1
IL2RA	SOCS5	IL2
IFNG	PIK3R1	IL5RA
CSF2RB	STAT4	IL7R
CNTFR	SOCS3	LIF
STAT4	CREBBP	IL23A
CBLB	SOCS4	PIK3R1
IL19	IL24	SOS2
PIK3CG	IL12A	STAT4
EPO	SPRY2	SOCS5
PTPN11	TSLP	EPOR
IFNAR1	IL20	IL15
PIK3R3	CCND2	LEPR
STAM	SPRED1	MYC
PRLR	IL11RA	OSM

CBLC	LIFR	SOCS3
AKT1	SPRY4	IRF9
PIAS2	JAK1	IFNL1
IL13RA1	STAT3	IL13
PIAS4	IL11	
SOCS4	IL4R	
IL20	PIAS2	
SPRED2	PIK3CA	
PIK3CB	AKT2	
STAM2	PIK3CD	
AKT2	EP300	
IL6ST	IL6	
SOCS7	CSF3	
PIAS3	PIAS1	
STAT5B	SOCS7	
EP300	IL23A	
IFNGR2	GRB2	
IL24	IRF9	
CREBBP	CBL	
SPRY3	IL6ST	
CCND1	SPRED2	
SOCS2		
BCL2L1		

CTF1		
GRB2		
CSF3R		
CISH		
IL20RA		
PTPN6		
TYK2		