

1 Colony stimulating factor-1 and its receptor in gastrointestinal malignant tumors
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10
11 **Abstract**

12 Gastrointestinal malignant tumor is the fourth most common cancer in the world and
13 the second cause of cancer death. Due to the susceptibility to lymphatic metastasis and
14 liver metastasis, the prognosis of advanced tumor patients is still poor till now. With
15 the development of tumor molecular biology, the tumor microenvironment and the
16 cytokines, which are closely related to the proliferation, infiltration and metastasis, have
17 become a research hotspot in life sciences. Colony stimulating factor-1 (CSF-1), a
18 polypeptide chain cytokine, and its receptor CSF-1R are reported to play important
19 roles in regulating tumor-associated macrophages in tumor microenvironment and
20 participating in the occurrence and development in diversities of cancers. Targeted
21 inhibition of the CSF-1/CSF-1R signal axis has broad application prospects in cancer
22 immunotherapy. This article will make a systematic review of the biological characters
23 of CSF-1/CSF-1R and their relationship with gastrointestinal malignancies.

24 **Key words:** colony stimulating factor-1; colony stimulating factor-1 receptor;
25 gastrointestinal malignant tumors

26 1. Introduction

27 Malignant tumors of the gastrointestinal (GI) tract are one of the common malignant
28 tumors in China, among which gastric cancer is the fourth most common cancer in the

29 world and the second cause of cancer death [1, 2]. On account of a high frequent
30 occurrence of lymphatic and liver metastasis, advanced GI malignant tumors lead to a
31 poor prognosis and a serious threat to the life and living quality of patients [3-5]. With
32 the development of tumor molecular biology and related disciplines, tumor
33 microenvironment and the cytokines involved, which are closely related to the
34 occurrence, proliferation, infiltration and metastasis of GI malignant tumors, have
35 become a research hotspot in life sciences [6]. Understanding the tumor
36 microenvironment (TME) and its role in tumor treatment is the key step in the
37 development of more effective treatment methods [7]. Colony stimulating factor-1
38 (CSF-1), a polypeptide chain cytokine, has been found that when combined with colony
39 stimulating factor-1 receptor (CSF-1R), it could mobilize a variety of bone marrow
40 precursor cells, promote cell proliferation, differentiation and migration, and enhance
41 the function of mature granulocytes [8-10]. CSF-1R is mainly expressed on the surface
42 of hematopoietic stem cells, myeloid progenitor cells, and mature granulocytes [11, 12].
43 Recent studies have found that CSF-1 combined with its receptor CSF-1R could induce
44 tumor-associated macrophages (TAM) in the tumor microenvironment in liver cancer,
45 ureteral cancer, pancreatic cancer, gastric cancer, intestinal cancer and other malignant
46 tumors [7, 13-17], and participate in biological processes such as promoting tumor cell
47 proliferation, inhibiting tumor cell apoptosis and inducing blood vessel formation, etc.
48 Targeted inhibition of the CSF-1/CSF-1R signal axis has broad application prospects
49 in cancer immunotherapy [18-20]. Therefore, it is important to explore the CSF-1 and
50 CSF-1R signaling pathways related to tumor-associated macrophages and their specific
51 mechanisms in the comprehensive prevention and treatment of gastrointestinal
52 malignancies. Here, we summarized the biological functions of CSF-1/CSF-1R and
53 reviewed cancer promoting mechanisms regulated by CSF-1/CSF-1R axis in neoplasms,
54 particularly in gastrointestinal tract malignant tumors.

55 2. Characteristics, structure and function of CSF-1 and its receptor CSF-1R

56 2.1 Characteristics, structure and function of CSF-1

57 CSF-1 is an important cytokine *in vivo* and a member of the hematopoietic growth
58 factor family. It plays an important role in different stages of hematopoiesis [21]. CSF-
59 1 could directly act on CSF-1R, usually expressed in platelets, hematopoietic stem cells,
60 bone marrow progenitor cells and mature bone marrow cells, leading to the acceleration
61 of the formation of granulocyte colonies, the differentiation and proliferation of bone
62 marrow cells, the enhancement of the function of mature neutrophils, and the
63 acceleration of cell migration [22]. In the study of hematopoietic cells *in vitro*, CSF-1
64 can stimulate different hematopoietic stem cells to form cells in semisolid media and
65 stimulate bone marrow and spleen macrophage cell lines [23]. In recent years, studies
66 have shown that CSF-1 is highly expressed in many malignant tumors, which can
67 accelerate invasion, proliferation and metastasis and induce the formation of tumor
68 vessels by binding with CSF-1R [16, 19, 24]. The high expression of CSF-1 can also
69 be observed in tissues obtained from surgery, suggesting that high expression of CSF-
70 1 is an indicator of the prognosis of patients [25].

71 CSF-1 is a glycoprotein composed of 174 amino acid residues [26]. The full length
72 of the CSF-1 gene is 2.5 kb, including 5 exons, 4 introns, 5 cysteines, and two disulfide
73 bonds, which are formed between Cys-36 and -42 and Cys-64 and -74. Disulfide bonds
74 are an important factor in maintaining the biological function of CSF-1 [27, 28].
75 Naturally formed CSF-1 is linked by four single rings through amino acids. The CSF
76 content in the healthy state is low. When inflammation occurs in the body, the
77 concentration of CSF in plasma increases significantly [29, 30].

78 2.2 General characteristics, structure and function of CSF-1R

79 CSF-1R belongs to the receptor tyrosine kinase signaling system. One of the
80 characters of such a receptor is that when the ligand binds to the receptor recognition
81 sites outside the cell membrane, the receptor will then aggregate and phosphorylate the
82 tyrosine kinase-activated receptors within the cell membrane, finally leading to the
83 phosphorylation of the tyrosine residues of effector proteins and the alteration of the
84 biological activity of the effector [31]. A recent study has demonstrated that in primary

85 colorectal cancer, the elevated expression of receptor tyrosine kinase CSF1R at the
86 tumor invasion was associated with poor patient survival and a mesenchymal-like
87 subtype [24]. Effector proteins include many factors related to cell proliferation and
88 differentiation and many other components of signal-mediated systems. An obvious
89 characteristic of this system is that in addition to rapid reaction time, it can also exert a
90 long-term effect on cells [18]. Since most factors that regulate cell proliferation and
91 differentiation work in this way, thus this receptor is closely related to the occurrence
92 and development of tumors.

93 CSF-1R, also known as FMS kinase, is the coding product of the c-fms proto-
94 oncogene [32]. C-fms is located at 5q33-3 of the human chromosome. Human CSF-1R
95 synthesizes a 130 kDa immature transmembrane glycoprotein (gp130c-fms) from the
96 rough endoplasmic reticulum, which is then modified by N-terminal oligosaccharide
97 chains to form a mature 150 kDa glycoprotein (gp150c-fms) during intracellular
98 transport. CSF-1R is secreted from the Golgi to the cytoplasm and then localized to the
99 cell membrane. It can be converted from gp130c-fms to gp150c-fms within 1 hour [33].
100 Human CSF-1R is a 972-amino acid polypeptide, consisting of four main parts: a 19
101 amino acid signal peptide sequence, a 493 amino acid ligand recognition and binding
102 sequence outside membrane, a 25 amino acid transmembrane segment, and a 435 amino
103 acid C-terminal tyrosine kinase catalytic sequence [34]. CSF-1R is very similar in
104 structure to platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF) receptor and belongs to the type III
105 receptor tyrosine kinase family. The extracellular domain consists of five
106 immunoglobulin-like rings for ligand binding. The intracellular domain contains
107 tyrosine residues for self-phosphorylation, the kinase catalytic region contains three
108 tyrosine self-phosphorylation sites (699,708,723), and the C-terminal region also has a
109 tyrosine residue (809) for self-phosphorylation [35]. After binding with CSF-1R, a
110 ligand-receptor complex is formed, which is then endocytosed by cells and degraded in
111 lysosomes. This is referred to as the internalization of CSF-1R [36]. The extracellular
112 signal produced by the binding of the receptor to its ligand is transmitted and amplified

113 to the cells, which leads to the activation of tyrosine kinase and the phosphorylation of
114 the receptor itself, thus initiating and stimulating the signal transduction pathway of cell
115 proliferation. Therefore, the activation of the receptor tyrosine kinase is the first step
116 for CSF-1R to play its role [37].

117 When membrane receptors are abnormally activated, tyrosine residues can be
118 phosphorylated to induce ligand conformational changes that stimulate continuous
119 activation of tyrosine kinases, leading to cell growth and proliferation and eventually
120 carcinogenesis [38]. Choudhury et al. reported that an abnormal increase in the
121 activity of the CSF-1R tyrosine kinase domain can activate the proto-oncogene c-raf-1,
122 thus increasing the activity of serine/threonine kinases, which encode the product of
123 CSF-1R. This can enhance or accelerate the transduction of intracellular growth stimuli,
124 resulting in the amplification effect on the biological function of CSF-1R[39].
125 Macrophage colony-stimulating factor binds to CSF-1R and activates its tyrosine
126 kinase, which plays an important role in the survival, proliferation, differentiation and
127 embryonic development of monocyte macrophage lines [13]. Overexpression of CSF-
128 1R and its ligands causes abnormal activation of the cell signaling pathway mediated
129 by CSF-1R and participates in the processes of tumorigenesis and inflammation.
130 Similar studies have shown that CSF-1R and its ligand CSF-1 can activate the receptor
131 tyrosine kinase signaling system and continuously increase the activity of tyrosine
132 kinase, thus changing the biological activity of the effector proteins. This allows the
133 corresponding cells to continue growing and proliferating, which play a long-term role
134 in the cell, and finally develop into cancer [16]. Therefore, inhibitors targeting CSF-1R
135 kinase can inhibit receptor phosphorylation and block the receptor-mediated cell
136 signaling pathway, which is a potential target drug for the treatment of malignant
137 tumors and inflammatory diseases [40].

138 3. The relationship between CSF-1/CSF-1R axis and TAM in malignant tumors

139 Recent studies have shown that TAM is closely related to macrophage colony
140 stimulating factor (M-CSF) [41]. Macrophages that reside in the tumor

141 microenvironment are called tumor-associated macrophages. They are the main
142 inflammatory immune cells in the tumor microenvironment and are involved in tumor
143 immunosuppression, angiogenesis, invasion, and metastasis [42, 43].

144 The interaction between CSF-1 and CSF-1R could cause receptor dimerization,
145 tyrosine phosphorylation, and the subsequent interaction with multiple intracellular
146 signaling pathways such as Ras, MAPK, PI-3K, JAK, finally producing various
147 biological effects [44]. CSF-1, as a tumor molecular marker, are highly expressed in a
148 variety of tumors. Over-expression of CSF-1 or CSF-1R is associated with tumor
149 aggressiveness and poor prognosis [45, 46]. Recently, it has been found that the
150 application of inhibitors can block the CSF-1R receptor and significantly reduce the
151 invasiveness and proliferation of endometrial cancer, of which the progression could
152 be promoted by TAM [47]. CSF-1 secreted by endometrial cancer cells promotes the
153 migration and proliferation of macrophages. The results show that the interaction
154 between CSF-1 and its receptor plays an important role in promoting macrophage
155 infiltration and endometrial cancer progression[48].

156 According to their phenotypes and secreted cytokines, TAM is divided into two
157 types of polarization: classically activated M1 type and selectively activated M2 type
158 macrophages [49, 50]. M1 type macrophages mainly secrete pro-inflammatory factors
159 and exert host immune functions against microbial inflammation and killing tumor cells.
160 M2 type macrophages play a local anti-inflammatory effect in the later stage of
161 inflammation, promote wound repair and fibrosis, participate in the formation of tumor
162 stroma, and promote tumor growth, metastasis, and tumor angiogenesis [51].
163 Macrophage polarization typing is the body's need for the diversity of immune function,
164 which is related to the microenvironment and disease state of macrophages. Various
165 pathological products or factors *in vivo* and *in vitro* become an important inducement
166 for the macrophage polarization. Abnormally high expression of CSF-1 is related to
167 pathological processes such as tumors and inflammation [52, 53]. Due to the different
168 functions of M1 and M2 macrophages, there may be mutual conversion between these

169 two types of cells. Blocking the CSF-1/CSF-1R signaling pathway interferes with
170 tumor progression by regulating TAM, reducing tumor invasion and proliferation [54].

171 Previous studies have demonstrated that CSF-1 and interleukin 34 (IL-34) signal
172 via CSF-1R play important roles in macrophage differentiation in several inflammatory
173 and oncological preclinical models [55, 56]. For example, Blockade of both CSF-1 and
174 IL-34 is protective in murine models of colitis and ileitis [55]. However, numerous
175 recent studies have found that CSF-1/CSF-1R axis blockade can improve the efficiency
176 of immune checkpoint inhibitors, especially PD-L1. Thus, in terms of tumor control,
177 the combination therapy targeting CSF-1/CSF-1R axis and immune checkpoint
178 molecular has more reliable efficacy [57, 58]. CSF-1/CSF-1R signaling mediates
179 tumor-associated macrophages recruitment and M2 polarization. In experimental
180 mesotheliomas, combined a highly selective small molecule CSF-1R inhibitor-BLZ945
181 with an anti-PDL1 agent was more effective in retarding tumor growth compared to
182 each monotherapy [58]. Moreover, AMG 820, an anti-CSF-1R antibody, showed
183 acceptable safety profile in combination with pembrolizumab in adults with advanced
184 solid tumors by reducing CSF-1 dependent CD16 expressing monocytes, and
185 increasing PD-L1 expression and infiltrating T-lymphocyte numbers in advanced solid
186 tumor biopsies [57].

187 Alternative ligands of CSF-1R, including IL-34 [59], have been discovered, but
188 most macrophages require signaling via the CSF1-CSF-1R axis. Except for
189 macrophage, CSF-1/CSF-1R axis can promote tumor progression by interacting with
190 other cells in tumor microenvironment, for instance, CAFs [60]. In addition to
191 fibroblasts, CSF-1 can be secreted by tumor cells, suggesting that it may play a pro-
192 tumorigenic role (Fig. 1). Consistent with this, in metastatic PDAC, tumor-cell-derived
193 CSF-1 induces macrophages to produce granulins, a secreted glycoprotein that promotes
194 fibroblast activation and spurs tumor growth [61].

195 The CSF-1/CSF-1R signaling pathway modulates the production, differentiation,
196 and function of TAMs. However, the discovery of selective CSF-1R inhibitors devoid

197 of type III kinase activity has proven to be challenging in tumor treatment. Barbara
198 Czako *et al.* discovered a potent, highly selective, and orally bioavailable CSF1R
199 inhibitor, IACS-9439, which was proposed as a potential therapy to reduce TAMs,
200 especially the protumor, immune-suppressive M2 TAMs and promote macrophage
201 polarization toward the M1 phenotype by targeting CSF-1R [62]. Recently,
202 immunotherapy has gradually become the focus of cancer treatment. However, the
203 majority of patients with “cold” tumors do not benefit from immunotherapy [63].
204 Interestingly, a targeted delivery strategy, which modified cell-penetrating TAT peptide
205 by using CSF-1R inhibitor, successfully activate immune response through blocking
206 the CSF-1/CSF-1R pathway and reducing M2 macrophages and thus promoting anti-
207 tumor effector CD8⁺T-lymphocyte infiltration in “cold” colon cancer [64].

208 4. Expression and significance of CSF-1 and CSF-1R in gastrointestinal malignant 209 tumors.

210 CSF-1 is a hematopoietic growth factor that acts through the cfms/CSF-1R. The
211 CSF-1/CSF-1R axis is considered to be involved in the invasion and development of
212 various types of cancer [65, 66]. Studies have reported that elevated expression of CSF-
213 1/CSF-1R significantly correlated with disease progression and with a poor overall
214 survival (OS) and disease-free survival (DFS) of patients with gastric cancer.
215 Furthermore, the high co-expression of CSF-1 and CSF-1R was an independent
216 prognostic factor for OS, DFS, lymph node and peritoneal metastasis, indicating that
217 the CSF-1/CSF-1R axis may be a clinically useful prognostic and predictive biomarker
218 for lymph node and peritoneal metastasis and a potential therapeutic target in gastric
219 cancer [16]. Other studies have found that CSF is a key factor to drive CXCL8 secretion
220 in M2 type TAM. The high expression of CXCL8 is significantly associated with
221 decreased CD8⁺ and Ki67⁺ T cells infiltration and unfavorable clinical outcome in
222 gastric cancer patients. Importantly, the authors provided evidence that tumor-
223 associated macrophages-derived CXCL8 determines immune evasion through
224 autonomous PD-L1 expression in gastric cancer, suggesting that it may be a promising

225 strategy to block the CXCL8 pathway to increase anti-tumor immunity in gastric cancer
226 [29]. The CSF-1/CSF-1R axis may be a biomarker for the clinical diagnosis of lymph
227 node and peritoneal metastasis of gastric cancer and is a potential therapeutic target for
228 gastric cancer[16]. Recombinant human granulocyte colony-stimulating factor
229 (rhG-CSF) has been widely used in the treatment of granulocytopenia induced by
230 chemoradiotherapy. *In vitro* studies have shown that CSF can also be produced by
231 tumor cells and stromal cells, and it could promote tumor fitness and cell proliferation
232 and metastasis [67]. Patients with high CSF expression have a rapid disease progression
233 and short survival time. Inhibition of CSF can reduce tumor angiogenesis and inhibit
234 tumor growth. Fan et al. [68] studied the value of serum CSF in the diagnosis and
235 prognosis of gastric cancer. It was found that the serum CSF level in gastric cancer
236 patients was significantly higher than that in healthy patients. With advanced TNM
237 stage, the serum level of CSF gradually decreased. High expression of CSF in gastric
238 cancer tissues was significantly increased, which was positively correlated with TNM
239 stage and lymph node metastasis [68, 69]. Morris et al [70] studied the expression and
240 function of G-CSF and G-CSFR in gastrointestinal cancer tissues and cells. It was found
241 that CSFR was highly expressed in 90% of gastrointestinal cancer. Production of CSF
242 was increased in interstitial myofibroblasts and cancer cells, and the proliferation and
243 migration of cancer cells expressing CSF were enhanced. These processes depend on
244 phosphorylation of the ERK1/RSK signaling pathway [70]. Scholars have found that
245 CXCL8 is a key chemokine for gastric cancer metastasis, which is mainly derived from
246 TAM. In gastric cancer, through inducing macrophages and PD-L1 to participate in the
247 immunosuppression of the tumor microenvironment, CXCL8 inhibitors could trigger
248 the anti-tumor response, which could provide potential therapeutic effects for gastric
249 cancer patients [29]. Another research team studied the CSF3/CSF3R signaling in colon
250 and rectal cancers, and results indicated that CSF3/CSF3R expression was correlated
251 with changes in T cell and macrophage signatures and also correlated with genes that
252 are associated with poor colorectal cancer prognosis [71].

253 Recent works showed that serum CSF-1 has great value in the diagnosis and
254 progression of colorectal cancer (CRC), making it an independent prognostic factor for
255 the survival of patients with CRC [72]. As mentioned before, increased CSF-1R, CSF-
256 1 and IL-34 expression in primary CRC was associated with a mesenchymal-like
257 subtype and tumor invasion as well as distant metastasis [24, 72]. Recently,
258 immunotherapy has gradually become the focus of cancer treatment. But most patients
259 with “cold” tumors do not benefit from immunotherapy [63]. Interestingly, a targeted
260 delivery strategy, which modified cell-penetrating TAT peptide by using CSF-1R
261 inhibitor, successfully activate immune response through blocking the CSF-1/CSF-1R
262 pathway and reducing M2 macrophages and thus promoting antitumor effector CD8⁺T-
263 lymphocyte infiltration in “cold” colon cancer [64].

264 It is found that abnormal expression of CSF-1/CSF-1R axis can also occur in
265 malignant meningiomas, HCC, and pancreatic cancer, where CSF-1/CSF-1R blockade
266 reprograms tumor-infiltrating macrophages and improves response improves response
267 to T cell checkpoint immunotherapy [66, 73, 74].

268 The tumor microenvironment includes the structure, function and metabolism of the
269 tissues in which tumors are located, as well as the external environment in which tumors
270 themselves and surrounding immune cells and immunoregulatory factors are formed
271 [75]. The occurrence, growth and metastasis of tumors are closely related to the
272 microenvironment. CSF can recruit neutrophils, monocytes and macrophages, etc. to
273 the adjacent areas of the tumors, promoting the development of tumors. Li et al. found
274 that the infiltration of bone marrow-derived suppressor cells and macrophages in a
275 mouse colorectal cancer model was related to the increase of CSF. CSF could mobilize
276 bone marrow-derived suppressor cells to migrate from bone marrow to the colon,
277 promoting the proliferation of bone marrow-derived suppressor cells and inhibiting
278 their apoptosis and then inducing the occurrence and development of colon cancer[76].
279 Studies have reported [77] that TAM in GI tumor microenvironment, responding to
280 stimuli such as growth factors and cytokines, could be polarized into a state with pro-

281 tumor activity or anti-tumor activity (M1 or M2). CSF is a cytokine that can affect
282 immune cells in the tumor microenvironment and has tumor-promoting activity (Fig.2).
283 A study investigated the effect of CSF/CSF-R on the progression of colon cancer and
284 pancreatic cancer in a mouse model and the results showed that in the absence of CSF-
285 R, macrophage-related tumor cytotoxicity was amplified, indicating that CSF/CSF-R is
286 an important clinical application target for controlling tumor microenvironment and
287 gastrointestinal tumor progression [72, 78].

288 5. Signaling pathway regulation mechanisms involved by CSF-1 and CSF-1R

289 CSF-1R binding to the CSF-1 ligand on the surface of cancer cells can activate
290 multiple intracellular signaling pathways to promote proliferation, invasion, metastasis,
291 and angiogenesis [79]. Blocking CSF-1R with antibodies can reduce the activation of
292 CSF-1 and prevent the proliferation and metastasis of malignant tumors. It was found
293 that CSF could participate in the activation of the JAK tyrosine kinase pathway [80],
294 the Wnt3a pathway [81], the PI3-kinase pathway [82], and the ERK1/2 pathway [83]
295 (Fig. 3). JAK/STAT is generally believed to be the main pathway for CSF signal
296 transmission [80]. After CSF binds to its receptor, JNK is activated, which could
297 phosphorylate tyrosine residues in the intracellular segment of CSFR and then re-
298 localize the STAT family proteins into the nucleus, binding to the promoter region of
299 the target gene and inducing effector protein expression [84]. Recent work has
300 demonstrated that the elevated expression of receptor tyrosine kinase CSF-1R act as a
301 direct miR-34a target and as a negative effector of p53/miR-34a axis, promoting
302 progression of colorectal cancer by activating STAT3 pathway [24]. Notably, CSF-1R
303 does not necessarily receive the stimulation of CSF-1. For example, by triggering
304 receptor expressed on myoid cells-2 (TREM2), CSF-1R is a high risk marker for
305 Alzheimer's disease, which explains the disadvantage of mono targeting CSF-1R from
306 another point of view [85].

307 Understanding the signaling mechanism of CSF-1 and CSF-1R in cancer and other
308 diseases and taking appropriate measures to block CSF-1/CSF-1R signaling is a

309 promising new immunotherapy with potential for future clinical application. Studies
310 have found that CSF-1 is one of the most common proinflammatory cytokines, and it
311 can cause various inflammatory diseases [65]. It plays an important role in the
312 development and progression of osteoarthritis, cancer and other autoimmune diseases.
313 CSF-1 plays a role by binding CSF-1R, causing a cascade reaction of signaling
314 pathways leading to cell proliferation and differentiation, promoting the differentiation
315 and survival of monocytes, macrophages and osteoclasts. CSF-1R is overexpressed in
316 many cancers and cancer-related macrophages and is therefore used as a drug target for
317 cancer and inflammatory diseases. Some CSF-1R inhibitors have been successfully
318 applied to these diseases.

319 6. Summary

320 CSF is widely used in clinic to treat granulocytopenia patients after chemotherapy.
321 Increasing research has shown that CSF-1 and CSF-1R are expressed in malignant
322 tumors of the digestive tract and can promote the growth, migration and invasion of
323 tumors. CSF-1 and CSF-1R play a role through multiple signaling pathways by
324 inhibiting the immune response of the body. Blocking the CSF-1/CSF-1R axis can not
325 only directly treat tumor cells with CSF1R, as a targeted therapy, but also can promote
326 the polarization of TAM and improve the tumor microenvironment, thereby exerting
327 an anti-tumor effect. However, the mechanism of CSF-1 and CSF-1R in GI malignant
328 tumors is still not clear, and the mechanism of how inflammatory immune cells
329 participate in the occurrence and development of malignant tumors is not perfectly
330 defined. Therefore, more in-depth exploration and clinical validation are needed to
331 improve the effects of targeted drugs and comprehensive treatments and to help identify
332 new markers of malignant tumors for early diagnosis and evaluation of prognosis.

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336

337 **Conflicts of interest**

338 We declare no conflicts of interest.

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340 **References**

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559

560 **Figure legends**

561 **Fig 1. Expression and localization of CSF-1 and CSF-1R in the same human colon**
562 **tissue. A. Immunohistochemical staining showed the expression and localization of**
563 **CSF-1 in human colon cancer and para-cancerous tissues. B. Immunohistochemical**
564 **staining demonstrated the expression and localization of CSF-1R in the same case. The**
565 **expression of CSF-1 and CSF-1R in tumor tissue with abnormal structure was**
566 **significantly higher than that in para-cancerous colon tissue with normal glandular**
567 **structure. The expression level of CSF-1 in cancer cells is lower than that in tumor**
568 **stroma, indicating TME may be the main sources of CSF1 (red arrow in Fig 1.A).**
569 **CSF1-R is mainly expressed in tumor cell membrane (red arrow in Fig 1.B), which is**
570 **different from the location of CSF-1.**

571

572 Fig 2. Regulation of immune suppression or activation by TAM subtypes. Macrophage
573 polarization within the tumor immune-suppressive microenvironment is highly
574 dependent on CSF-1/CSF-1R axis which originates either from tumor cells or stromal
575 cells. The M2 TAM phenotype induce the downregulation of PD-L1 in TME, which
576 result in silencing of immune effector cells such as nature killing cells and CD8⁺ T cells.
577 Meanwhile, the infiltration and function of other immune-suppressive cell types such
578 as T regulatory cells (Treg cells) and Myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs) is
579 stimulated, thus promoting tumor progression. In contrast, M1 TAM are attributed with
580 tumoricidal functions showing the opposite effect of M2 TAM.

581

582 Fig 3. Signaling pathway regulation mechanisms involved by CSF-1 and CSF-1R. CSF-
583 1R binding to the CSF-1 ligand on the surface of cancer cells can activate multiple
584 intracellular signaling pathways, including JAK-STAT, Wnt, MAPK, TGF- β signaling
585 pathway, thus promoting tumor proliferation, invasion, metastasis, and angiogenesis.

586