

Identification and analysis of immunological characteristics of prognostic feature for osteosarcoma based on costimulatory molecule-related genes

Keywords

Osteosarcoma, Costimulatory molecule, prognostic gene signature, Immunological characteristics

Abstract

Introduction

Osteosarcoma (OSA) is a primary malignant bone tumor with poor prognosis. Costimulatory molecule-related genes (CMRGs) are crucial for T cell-mediated antitumor immunity, yet their prognostic and therapeutic value in OSA remains unclear.

Material and methods

Non-negative matrix factorization (NMF) clustering was used to define CMRG-based subtypes. Prognostic signature genes were selected using univariate Cox, LASSO, and multivariate regression analyses. The predictive performance of the model was assessed using ROC curves, calibration plots, and decision curve analysis (DCA). Immune infiltration and immune checkpoint differences were evaluated via ssGSEA. Drug sensitivity was predicted using CellMiner, and gene expression was validated by qRT-PCR in OSA cells.

Results

This study selected five characteristic genes related to the prognosis of OSA and constructed a prognostic model. The evaluation results indicate that the model has favorable predictive performance, with calibration curves and DCA confirming that the predicted survival probabilities aligned with the actual survival probabilities of patients. Furthermore, the response results for immunotherapy revealed that patients with lower risk scores had more favorable immune responses and lower rates of disease metastasis. Notably, DMAPT, Obatoclax, 8-Chloro-adenosine, and Palbociclib showed a significant positive correlation with MYC. Additionally, qRT-PCR results indicated that EPYC, SCD1, and AOC3 were significantly overexpressed in OSA cells.

Conclusions

This study is the first to integrate CMRG-based subtyping, risk modeling, immune profiling, and experimental validation in OSA. The identified biomarkers may guide personalized treatment and improve survival prediction in OSA patients.

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38 **1.Introduction**

39 Osteosarcoma (OSA) is a highly aggressive primary malignant bone tumor
40 originating from mesenchymal cells, predominantly affecting children and
41 adolescents [1]. It is characterized by a high propensity for early metastasis,
42 particularly to the lungs, contributing to poor prognosis [2, 3]. While localized OSA
43 has a five-year survival rate of ~60%, this rate drops to ~20% in metastatic cases [4,
44 5]. Despite surgical and chemotherapeutic advances, overall survival has not
45 significantly improved over the past two decades [6], largely due to tumor
46 heterogeneity, genetic alterations, and chemoresistance [7-9].

47 Recent studies have highlighted that non-coding RNAs and epigenetic
48 modifications are crucial contributors to OSA chemoresistance. For instance,
49 METTL3-mediated m6A methylation stabilizes LINC00520, which enhances
50 glycolysis and cisplatin resistance by stabilizing ENO1 protein [10]. In addition,
51 ferroptosis has emerged as a key mechanism in OSA progression and therapy
52 response. Exosome-mediated delivery of miR-144-3p was shown to inhibit OSA cell
53 proliferation and invasion by promoting ferroptosis through ZEB1 suppression [11].

54 Moreover, dysregulated cell death pathways such as autophagy and ferroptosis
55 may be therapeutically exploitable. Overexpression of Apolipoprotein E (APOE) has
56 been reported to suppress OSA growth by inducing both autophagy and ferroptosis via
57 inhibition of the mTOR/Stat3 signaling pathway [12]. These findings underscore the
58 need for better prognostic markers and novel therapeutic strategies in OSA.

59 The tumor microenvironment (TME)—comprising tumor cells, immune cells,
60 stromal components, and cytokines—plays a critical role in cancer progression,
61 metastasis, and immunotherapy efficacy [13]. In this context, costimulatory molecules
62 are essential in mediating T cell activation and immune modulation [8, 14, 15]. These
63 molecules, primarily from the B7-CD28 and TNF superfamilies, are involved in
64 delivering the second signal required for effective T cell responses [16-21]. While
65 studies have implicated B7 family members such as PD-L1 and B7-H1 in OSA
66 immune regulation [18], a comprehensive understanding of costimulatory

67 molecule-related genes (CMRGs) in OSA remains lacking.

68 To address this, we conducted a systematic analysis of CMRG expression
69 patterns, identified molecular subtypes, and developed a prognostic model using
70 characteristic CMRGs. We further evaluated immune infiltration, predicted drug
71 sensitivity, and validated key genes via qRT-PCR. This integrative approach aims to
72 elucidate the immunological and prognostic significance of CMRGs in OSA and to
73 support the development of individualized treatment strategies.

74

75 **2. Materials and methods**

76 **2.1 Data origin**

77 mRNA expression data related to TARGET-OS were retrieved from the TCGA
78 database (<https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov/>). Patient clinical information was sourced
79 from the TARGET database (<https://ocg.cancer.gov/programs/target>). Additionally,
80 microarray datasets were obtained from the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO)
81 database (GSE21257 and GSE99671), while single-cell data came from GSE152048.
82 To identify 60 CMRGs, we reviewed existing literature (Supplementary Table S1,
83 TS1) [22]. The IMvigor210CoreBiologies package was employed to gather data on
84 immunotherapy cohorts and relevant clinical details for bladder cancer (BLCA)
85 patients undergoing immune checkpoint therapy.

86 **2.2 Differential analysis and molecular subtype construction based on CMRGs**

87 Using the “edgeR” package, differential analysis was performed on the
88 GSE99671 dataset, comparing the normal group (N=18) and the tumor group (OSA,
89 N=18) with criteria of $|\log \text{ Fold change (FC)}| > 0.585$ and $P < 0.05$. The differentially
90 expressed genes (OSA-DEGs) were intersected with CMRGs, resulting in
91 CMRG-related differentially expressed genes (DECMRGs, Supplementary Table S2,
92 TS2). The expression levels of the DECMRGs in both the normal and tumor groups
93 were quantified, and a heatmap was generated. Based on the DECMRGs, the
94 Non-negative Matrix Factorization (NMF) clustering method was employed to
95 classify the TARGET-OS dataset. Survival analysis of the three subtypes was
96 conducted using Kaplan-Meier (K-M) curves.

97 **2.3 Immune status analysis of molecular subtypes**

98 Using the “GSVA” package, single-sample Gene Set Enrichment Analysis
99 (ssGSEA) analysis was conducted to investigate the differences in immune-related

100 functions and immune cell infiltration among the three subtypes. The ESTIMATE
101 algorithm was employed to evaluate the stromal score, immune score, ESTIMATE
102 score and tumor purity for each sample across the three subtypes. Clusters 2 and 3
103 were merged to form a new subtype. Subsequently, the “clusterProfiler” package
104 was utilized to perform Gene Ontology (GO) and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and
105 Genomes (KEGG) enrichment analysis on the differentially expressed genes
106 (group-DEGs) between Cluster 1 and the merged subtype (Supplementary Table S3,
107 TS3).

108 **2.4 Selection of prognostic feature genes for OSA and construction of a** 109 **prognostic model**

110 Clinical data were merged with the expression levels of differentially expressed
111 genes. The intersection of group-DEGs ($|\log\text{FC}| > 1$, $P < 0.01$) and OSA-DEGs
112 ($|\log\text{FC}| > 0.585$, $P < 0.05$) was used as candidate genes. To prevent model overfitting,
113 Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator (LASSO) regression analysis was
114 performed on the candidate genes using the “glmnet” package. Cross-validation was
115 employed to select the penalty parameter lambda, which helped eliminate highly
116 correlated genes and reduce model complexity. A multivariate regression analysis of
117 the candidate genes was conducted using the “survival” package to construct the
118 prognostic model.

119 Risk score = $\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i * \text{Expi}$. β_i is the risk coefficient, and Expi is the gene
120 expression level.

121 Based on this model, a risk score for each patient was calculated using the
122 expression levels and risk coefficients of the genes, where the risk score was
123 categorized into high- and low-risk groups according to the median score. Survival
124 curves were generated based on the risk scores. The “timeROC” package was used to
125 plot Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curves and calculate the Area Under the
126 Curve (AUC) values for 1-year, 3-year, and 5-year survival rates. Additionally, score
127 distribution plots, survival status distribution plots, and heatmaps of expression levels
128 were created for the high- and low-risk groups.

129 **2.5 Construct a nomogram for independent prognostic analysis**

130 We conducted univariate and multivariate regression analyses on the training set
131 samples, integrating clinical information and prognostic risk scores, and generated
132 corresponding forest plots. Utilizing the “rms” package, we constructed a nomogram

133 to predict patient survival rates at 1, 3, and 5 years. Calibration curves and decision
134 curve analysis (DCA) curves were subsequently plotted to assess the predictive
135 performance of the nomogram and to establish its role as an independent prognostic
136 factor. Furthermore, we validated the predictive accuracy of the nomogram using
137 calibration curves derived from the independent dataset GSE21257.

138 **2.6 Immunological evaluation**

139 We employed “GSVA” and the “estimate” package to conduct ssGSEA analysis,
140 quantifying the extent of immune cell infiltration. Violin plots were generated to
141 illustrate immune scores, stromal scores, ESTIMATE scores, and tumor purity for
142 both high- and low-risk groups. Box plots were created to statistically compare the
143 expression levels of immune checkpoints and the degree of immune cell infiltration
144 between these groups. The Tumor Immune Phenotype (TIP)
145 (<http://biocc.hrbmu.edu.cn/TIP/>) is a web-based analysis platform designed to assess
146 the activation levels of the seven steps in the anti-cancer immune cycle [23]. We
147 evaluated the correlation between the activation levels of this immune cycle and risk
148 scores, along with characteristic genes. Furthermore, we utilized the ssGSEA
149 algorithm, TIMER algorithm, and MCP-Counter to analyze the relationships between
150 characteristic genes and immune cells.

151 **2.7 Investigation of biological functions and active pathways**

152 Differential analysis was performed on the high-risk and low-risk groups of OSA
153 using the edgeR package ($|\logFC|>1$, $P<0.05$). GO and KEGG enrichment analyses
154 were conducted on the differentially expressed genes using the "clusterProfiler"
155 package and "GOplot."

156 **2.8 Analyzing the efficacy of risk scores in predicting immune therapy response**

157 Anti-PD-1 and anti-PD-L1 checkpoint inhibitor therapies have emerged as
158 significant components of immunotherapy, garnering considerable attention [24]. To
159 assess the efficacy of risk scores in predicting responses to immune checkpoint
160 blockade, we gathered transcriptomic and clinical data from patients receiving
161 anti-PD-L1 treatment within the IMvigour210 cohort (Supplementary Table S4, TS4).
162 Utilizing the risk scores, we categorized the samples into high-risk and low-risk
163 groups.

164 **2.9 Single-cell sequencing analysis based on OSA**

165 This study employed the Read10X function from the “Seurat” package to
166 analyze gene expression data from 11 samples in GSE152048. We identified the top

167 2,000 highly variable genes using the FindVariableFeatures function, and removed
168 batch effects through anchor-based data integration with the FindIntegrationAnchors
169 function. Low-quality cells, defined as those with fewer than 300 detected genes or
170 exhibiting more than 10% mitochondrial gene expression, were excluded and
171 normalized. Utilizing the “SCISSOR” package, we categorized cells into high-risk
172 and low-risk groups based on patient expression data and risk stratification
173 information from TARGET-OS. Finally, we analyzed and visualized the intercellular
174 communication network within the TME using the “CellChatR” package.

175 **2.10 Potential drug targets and prediction of drug inhibitory concentrations**

176 The present study aimed to identify new potential targets and more effective
177 therapeutic agents. We utilized the CellMiner database
178 (<https://discover.nci.nih.gov/cellminer/>) to screen for antitumor drugs significantly
179 associated with sensitivity and prognostic genes. Additionally, we explored the DGIdb
180 database (<https://www.dgidb.org>) to identify approved drugs that interact with the
181 feature genes, discussing the potential drug targets and mechanisms linked to disease
182 susceptibility genes. The “pRRophetic” package was employed to predict the
183 half-maximal inhibitory concentration (IC50) of various drugs in high-risk and
184 low-risk groups. A lower IC50 indicates greater effectiveness of the drug in tumor
185 treatment.

186 **2.11 Cell acquisition and cell culture**

187 hFOB1.19, SAOS2 and U2OS cell lines were obtained from the American Type
188 Culture Collection (ATCC) and cultured in DMEM medium. All cell cultures were
189 maintained in a 37° C incubator with 5% CO₂.

190 **2.12 RNA isolation and quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR)**

191 Total RNA was extracted from cells using RNAiso Trizol reagent (Sangon
192 Biotech, China). cDNA was synthesized through reverse transcription with the
193 GeniuSript III Select RT Kit for qPCR (Youji, China). For qRT-PCR, the uGreener
194 Fex qPCR 2X MiX (Youji, China) was utilized on the LightCycler 480 qPCR system
195 (Roche, Switzerland), with the primer sequences listed below. The results were
196 normalized to GAPDH, and relative expression levels were calculated using the 2^{-ΔΔ}
197 ^{CT} method.

Gene name	Forward primer sequence (5'-3')	Reverse primer sequence (5'-3')
EPYC	AGGTCAGAGCCAAAGGAAAGC	TAGAGTTGGGGCAGTCACAG

SCD1	TTCCCGACGTGGCTTTTTCT	AGCCAGGTTTGTAGTACCTCC
AOC3	CAAGTGTCAGAGCACACCCT	TCCAGTCCTGCTACATCCAGA
MYC	TGGAAAACCAGCTCCCG	TTCTCCTCCTCGTCGCAGTA
KLK2	TGGAGGGGAAAGGGTGATTC	CCACTTCCGGTAATGCACCA
GAPDH	ACATCGCTCAGACACCATG	TGTAGTTGAGGTCAATGAAGGG

198

199 **2.13 Cytotoxicity Assay**

200 Using the 3-(4, 5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2, 5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT)
 201 method to determine the toxic effects of drugs on cells. U2OS and SAOS2 cells were
 202 seeded into a 96 well plate. After cell attachment, the cells were treated with various
 203 concentrations of Temozolomide or Cisplatin for 48 hours, including a blank control
 204 group. Subsequently, 10 μ L of MTT solution was added to each well and the plate was
 205 incubated at 37°C for 2 hours. The supernatant was then aspirated, and DMSO was
 206 added to dissolve the formazan. The absorbance of each well was measured at a
 207 wavelength of 490 nm.

208 **2.14 Cell apoptosis assay**

209 Using terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase (TdT) dUTP nick-end labeling
 210 (TUNEL) assay to assess the effect of drugs on cell apoptosis. Seed U2OS and
 211 SAOS2 cells onto culture plates containing coverslips. After cell attachment, treat
 212 cells with Temozolomide or Cisplatin for 48 hours, including a solvent control group.
 213 Following treatment, perform TUNEL staining: fix cells with 4% paraformaldehyde,
 214 permeabilize with 0.1% Triton X-100, incubate with TUNEL reaction mixture to label
 215 DNA fragmentation, and counterstain nuclei with DAPI. After washing steps, mount
 216 coverslips with antifade mounting medium and observe under a fluorescence
 217 microscope. Randomly select multiple fields of view, count the number of TUNEL
 218 positive cell and DAPI positive cell, and calculate the apoptosis rate.

219

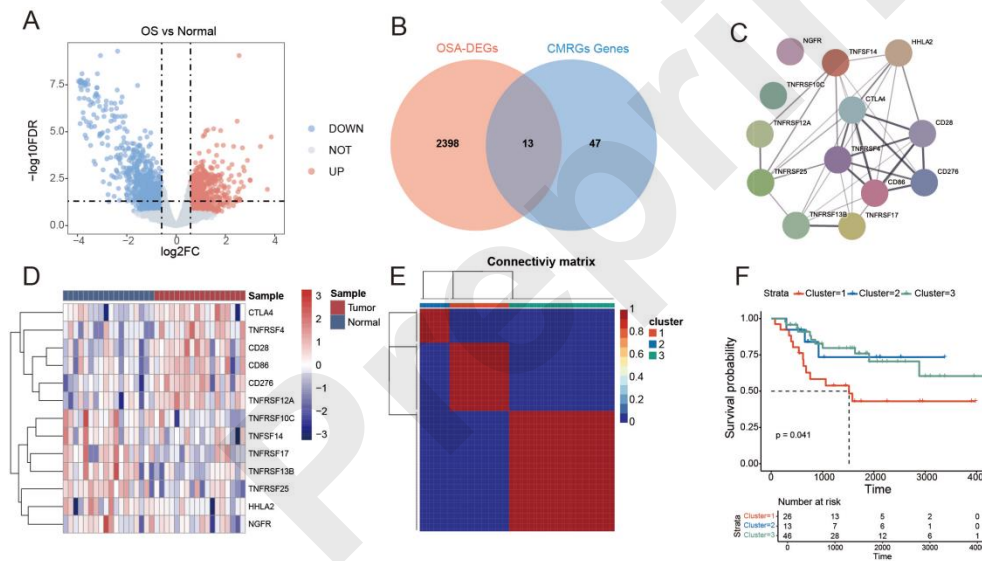
220 **3.Results**

221 **3.1 Identification of CMRGs linked to OSA and development of molecular** 222 **subtypes from DECMRGs**

223 This study initially conducted a differential analysis of the normal and OSA
 224 groups in the GSE99671 dataset (Normal: 18, OSA: 18) with criteria set at $|\log_{2}FC| >$
 225 0.585 and $P < 0.05$, resulting in 1,046 upregulated and 1,365 downregulated genes
 226 (OSA-DEGs, Figure 1A). By intersecting OSA-DEGs with CMRGs, we identified 13

227 differentially expressed CMRG-related genes (DECMRGs, Figure 1B). A PPI
 228 network was constructed for the 13 DECMRGs using the STRING database, as
 229 illustrated in Figure 1C, revealing strong interactions among CTLA4, TNFRSF4,
 230 CD86, CD276, and CD28. The expression levels of DECMRGs in both the normal
 231 and OSA groups were analyzed, and a heatmap was generated, indicating that CTLA4,
 232 TNFRSF4, CD86, CD276, and CD28 were significantly overexpressed in the OSA
 233 group (Figure 1D).

234 The objective of this study was to conduct a comprehensive analysis of the key
 235 characteristics of OSA tissues to inform the design of personalized treatment
 236 strategies for OSA patients. To accomplish this, we utilized NMF clustering
 237 techniques to classify the TARGET-OS samples into three subtypes based on
 238 DECMRGs (Sample: Cluster 1: 26, Cluster 2: 13, Cluster 3: 46, Figure 1E). K-M
 239 curve analysis demonstrated significant differences in survival outcomes among the
 240 three subtypes, with Cluster 1 showing the poorest survival rates (Figure 1F).



241
 242 Figure 1 Identification of prognostic candidate genes and subtype construction. (A) The
 243 volcano plot depicts the expression of differentially expressed genes between normal tissue and
 244 OSA tissue, (upregulated: 1046, downregulated: 1365). (B) The Venn diagram shows the
 245 intersecting genes between OSA-DEGs and CMRGs gene sets. (C) The results of the PPI network
 246 diagram for the 13 DECMRGs. (D) Heatmap showing the differences in expression of the 13
 247 DECMRGs in normal and OSA tissues. (E) NMF clustering results show that the optimal number
 248 of clustering results is 3. (F) K-M curve analysis describes the survival outcomes for the three

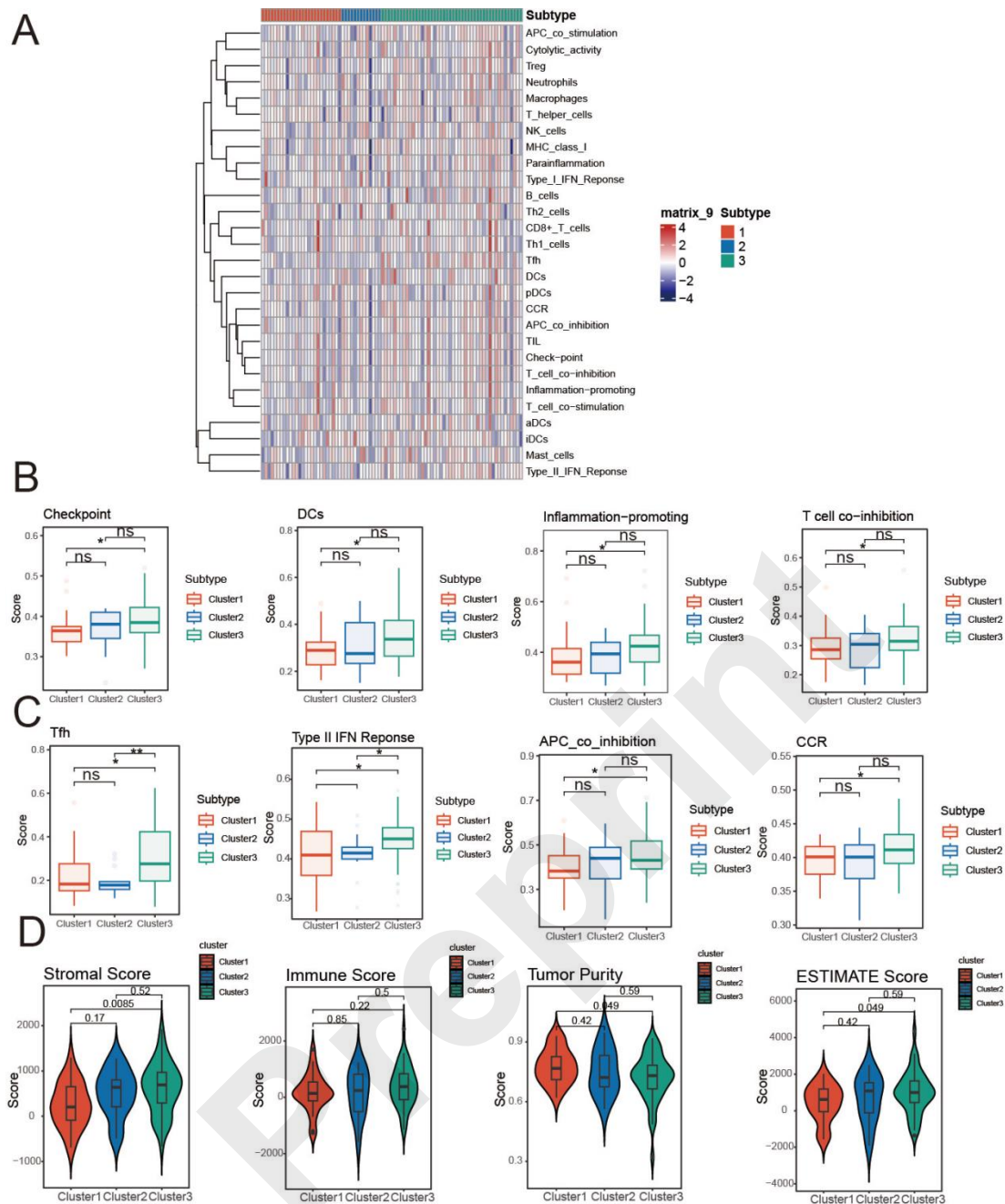
249 subgroups of patients, with those in subtype 1 having the poorest survival.

250

251 **3.2 Analysis of immune function and immune cell infiltration among molecular** 252 **subtypes based on DECMRGs**

253 To explore the differences in immune-related functions and immune cell
254 infiltration among the three subtypes, we conducted ssGSEA analysis to evaluate
255 immune cell infiltration across these subtypes (Figure 2A). Our findings indicate that
256 subtype 3 exhibited significantly higher levels of immune cell infiltration compared to
257 subtypes 1 and 2. The results illustrated in Figures 2B and 2C further confirm that
258 immune cell infiltration is notably more pronounced in subtype 3. Furthermore,
259 stromal score comparisons revealed that subtype 3 had a significantly higher stromal
260 score than subtype 1 ($P=0.0085$). In contrast, subtype 1 exhibited significantly higher
261 tumor purity than subtype 3 ($P=0.049$), while its ESTIMATE score was significantly
262 lower than that of subtype 3 ($P=0.049$) (Figure 2D).

263



264

265 Figure 2 Analysis of immune function and immune infiltration. (A) The heatmap depicts the
 266 differences in immune cell infiltration in the three subtypes groups. (B) Box plots show analysis of
 267 differences in the degree of infiltration of each immune cell in the three subtyping groups. (C)
 268 Variations in immune cell infiltration among the three subtypes. (D) The violin plot illustrates the
 269 findings related to the Stromal score, immune score, tumor purity, and ESTIMATE score across
 270 the three subtypes. ns denotes no significant difference, * signifies $P<0.05$, ** represents $P<0.01$,
 271 and *** corresponds to $P<0.001$.

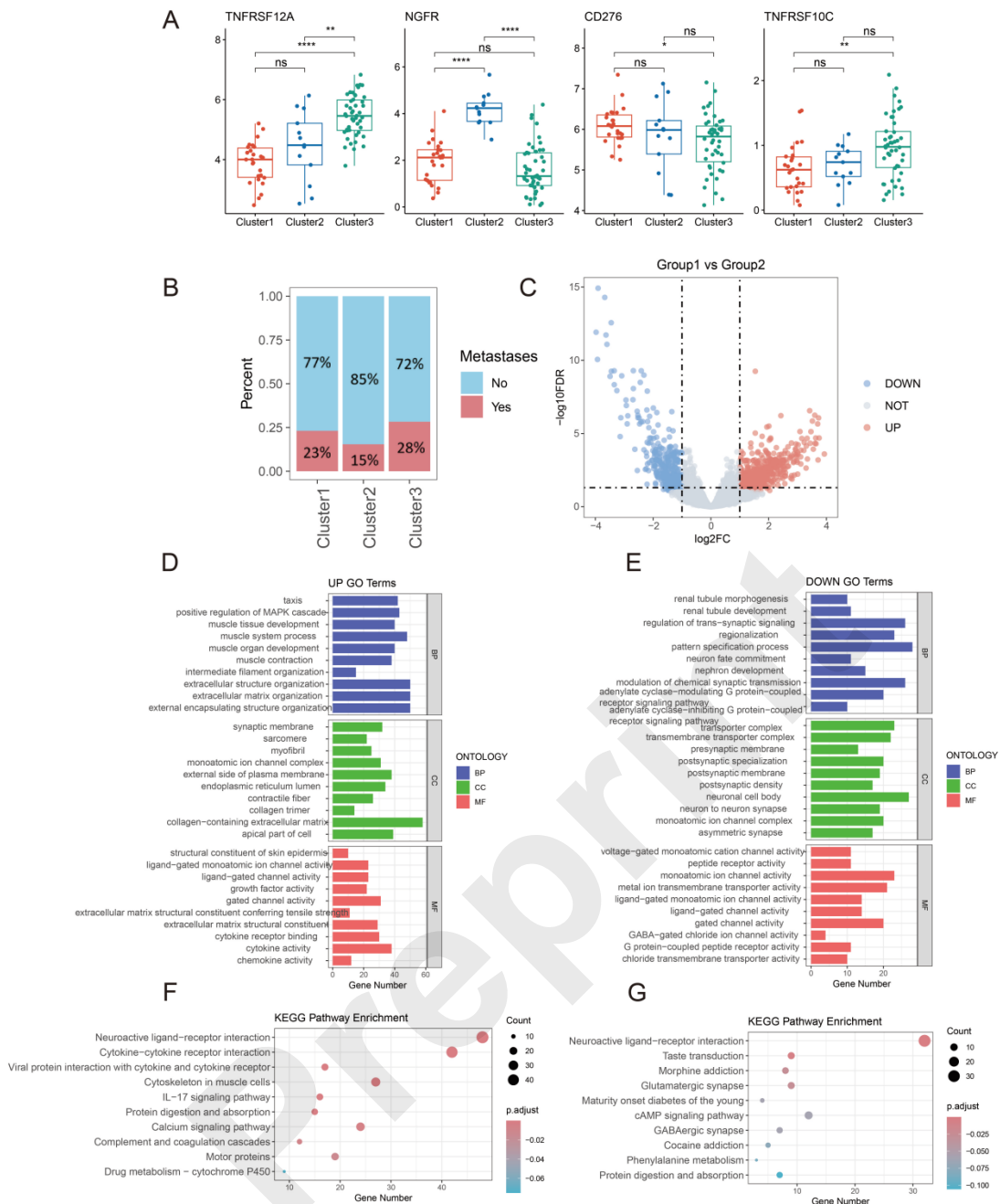
272

273 3.3 Differential analysis and biological function exploration among subtypes

274 We analyzed DECMRG expression across the three subtypes and found that

275 TNFRSF12A showed the lowest expression in subtype 1, while NGFR was
276 significantly higher in subtype 2 compared to the other subtypes. Additionally, CD276
277 was most highly expressed in subtype 1, and TNFRSF10C was most highly expressed
278 in subtype 3 (Figure 3A). To further investigate the clinical characteristics of the three
279 patient subtypes, we conducted a statistical analysis of disease metastasis. As shown
280 in Figure 3B, the metastasis rates were 23% in subtype 1, 15% in subtype 2, and 28%
281 in subtype 3. To explore differences between the subtypes, we merged the data from
282 subtypes 2 and 3 based on survival outcomes. We then performed a differential
283 analysis of the combined gene set against subtype 1, using thresholds of $\log_2|FC| > 1$
284 and $P < 0.01$. This yielded 1,187 differentially expressed genes (group-DEGs),
285 including 802 upregulated and 385 downregulated genes (Figure 3C). Subsequently,
286 we conducted GO and KEGG analyses to further explore the biological functions and
287 pathway activities associated with the groups-DEGs. As illustrated in Figure 3D,
288 upregulated genes were enriched in extracellular structure and muscle tissue-related
289 processes. In contrast, downregulated genes were mainly associated with
290 neuroregulation, transmembrane transport, and protein function (Figure 3E). KEGG
291 analysis showed that upregulated genes were significantly involved in neural activity
292 regulation, inflammatory signaling, and protein metabolism-related pathways (Figure
293 3F), while downregulated genes were primarily enriched in protein
294 metabolism-related pathways (Figure 3G).

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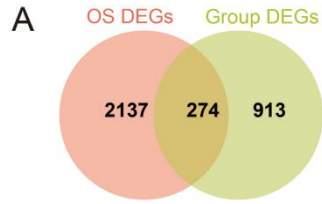
Figure 3 Analysis of differences between subtypes and functional exploration. (A) The analysis of DECMRG expression among subtypes shows expression levels plotted on the vertical axis, while the horizontal axis represents the different subtypes groups. (B) Metastasis of illness in patients with various subtypes. (C) The volcano plot represents the number of differentially expressed genes between the merged subtypes (subtype 2 and 3) and subtype 1, upregulated genes: 802, downregulated genes: 385. (D) Results of GO enriching of upregulated genes. (E) The findings of GO enriching of downregulated genes. (F) KEGG enrichment analysis for elevated gene expression. (G) Outcomes of KEGG enrichment for downregulated genes. ns indicates no significant difference, * indicates significant difference, ** indicates more significant, and *** indicates highly significant.

307

308 **3.4 Identification of prognosis-related feature genes for developing OSA**
309 **prognosis models**

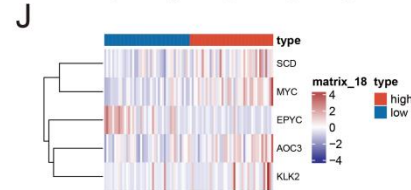
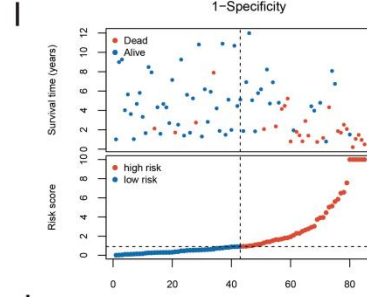
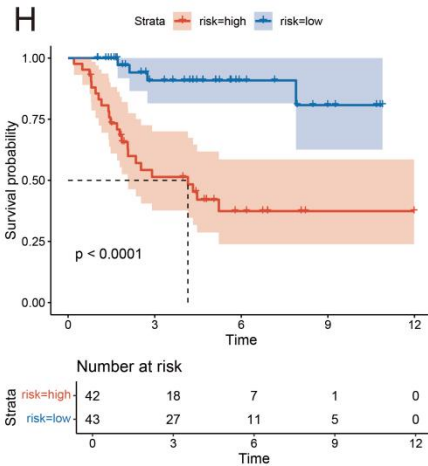
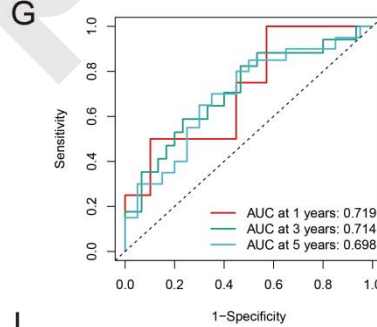
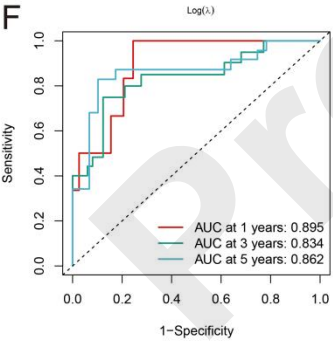
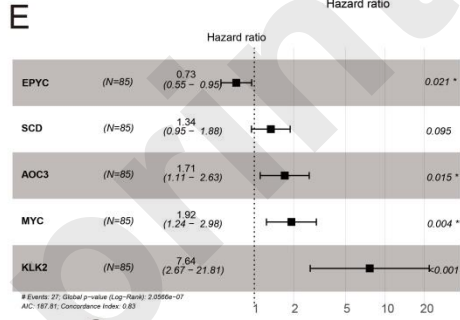
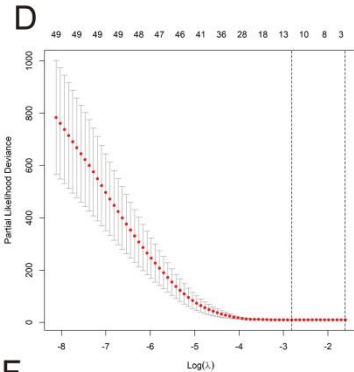
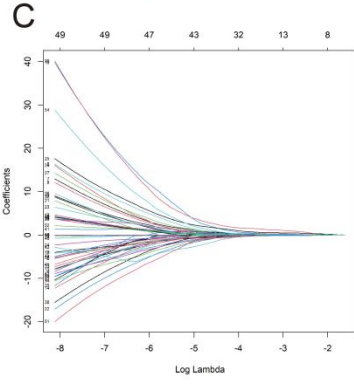
310 To further analyze the prognostic characteristics of OSA, this study identified the
311 intersection of the OSA-DEGs gene set and the group-DEGs gene set, resulting in 274
312 overlapping genes (Figure 4A). Subsequently, univariate Cox analysis was performed,
313 which yielded 54 genes significantly associated with survival ($P < 0.05$) (Figure 4B).
314 LASSO regression analysis was then employed to refine the list of candidate genes
315 (Figure 4C). Based on cross-validation results, we selected an optimal model with 13
316 genes (Figure 4D). Further multivariate regression analysis resulted in the selection of
317 5 characteristic genes to construct the prognostic model: risk score = $-0.3182*EPYC$
318 $+ 0.2907*SCD1 + 0.5353*AOC3 + 0.6530*MYC + 2.0331*KLK2$ (Figure 4E). To
319 evaluate model accuracy, ROC curves were plotted. As shown in Figure 4F, the AUC
320 values for the training set were 0.895 (1 year), 0.834 (3 years), and 0.862 (5 years).
321 For the validation set, the AUCs were 0.719, 0.714, and 0.698 at the respective time
322 points (Figure 4G). These results indicate excellent predictive performance. Based on
323 the median risk score, OSA patients were classified into low-risk and high-risk groups.
324 As illustrated in the K-M curve results in Figure 4H, the survival rate of patients in
325 the low-risk group was significantly higher than that of the high-risk group ($P <$
326 0.0001). Additionally, survival status and risk scores were more favorable in the
327 low-risk group (Figure 4I). Among the feature genes, SCD1, MYC, AOC3, and KLK2
328 were overexpressed in the high-risk group, while EPYC was expressed at lower levels
329 (Figure 4J).

330



B

Gene	P-value	Hazard ratio
PRKAR2B	0.030	1.624(1.048-2.517)
TNFRSF12A	0.016	0.842(0.448-0.921)
HGF	0.015	0.450(0.237-0.857)
MYO2	0.003	1.604(1.174-2.193)
OPN3	0.002	1.461(1.149-1.859)
CYTIIP2	0.007	1.387(1.093-1.760)
DMRT3	0.024	1.426(1.048-1.941)
TPD52	<0.001	2.008(1.332-3.025)
FAP	0.017	0.686(0.504-0.934)
P2RX5	0.039	2.510(1.048-6.013)
EPYC	0.027	0.772(0.613-0.972)
NID2	0.029	0.713(0.527-0.965)
SCD	0.009	1.488(1.105-2.006)
SQLE	<0.001	1.848(1.319-2.592)
DSE	0.021	0.465(0.263-0.897)
MLANA	0.046	1.735(1.011-2.976)
CRISP2	0.044	1.417(1.010-1.987)
F13A1	0.005	0.636(0.463-0.874)
GFPT2	0.041	0.702(0.499-0.986)
AOC3	0.002	1.895(1.254-2.862)
CHRM3	0.041	1.368(1.030-1.837)
TMCC2	0.006	1.612(1.147-2.265)
POSTN	0.043	0.792(0.632-0.993)
CD36	0.013	1.506(1.092-2.077)
MYC	<0.001	2.214(1.480-3.313)
ADAMTS17	0.045	1.526(1.009-2.309)
PKLR	0.012	2.160(1.186-3.957)
NDUFB9	0.013	1.594(1.105-2.299)
TD02	0.008	0.493(0.292-0.831)
PANK3	0.016	1.234(1.040-1.463)
MEGF11	0.047	3.528(1.017-12.248)
VCAM1	0.012	0.652(0.468-0.910)
TRIM58	0.030	1.354(1.030-1.779)
PROK2	0.001	2.113(1.341-3.328)
CCDC158	0.040	1.868(1.030-3.392)
CHMP4C	0.022	1.313(1.040-1.659)
C2	0.003	0.570(0.404-0.829)
KLK1	0.017	1.804(1.110-2.932)
KLK2	0.005	4.007(1.505-10.667)
GN4	0.003	1.448(1.137-1.844)
SLC38A11	0.011	1.562(1.109-2.200)
MYRIP	0.037	2.460(1.055-5.884)
DLGAP1	0.016	3.070(1.234-7.640)
PABPC5	0.006	2.175(1.245-3.803)
KBTBD11	0.024	1.537(1.049-2.229)
TCERG1L	0.049	2.323(1.003-5.380)
MSC	0.005	0.667(0.501-0.888)
CITED4	<0.001	1.875(1.292-2.719)
SSC5D	0.026	0.565(0.341-0.935)
ARSJ	0.041	0.543(0.303-0.975)
SLC36A2	0.037	1.588(1.028-2.452)
TRMT12	0.001	2.272(1.391-3.714)
C14orf180	0.023	1.388(1.047-1.841)
SLC36A2	0.003	2.815(1.412-5.611)
HES5		

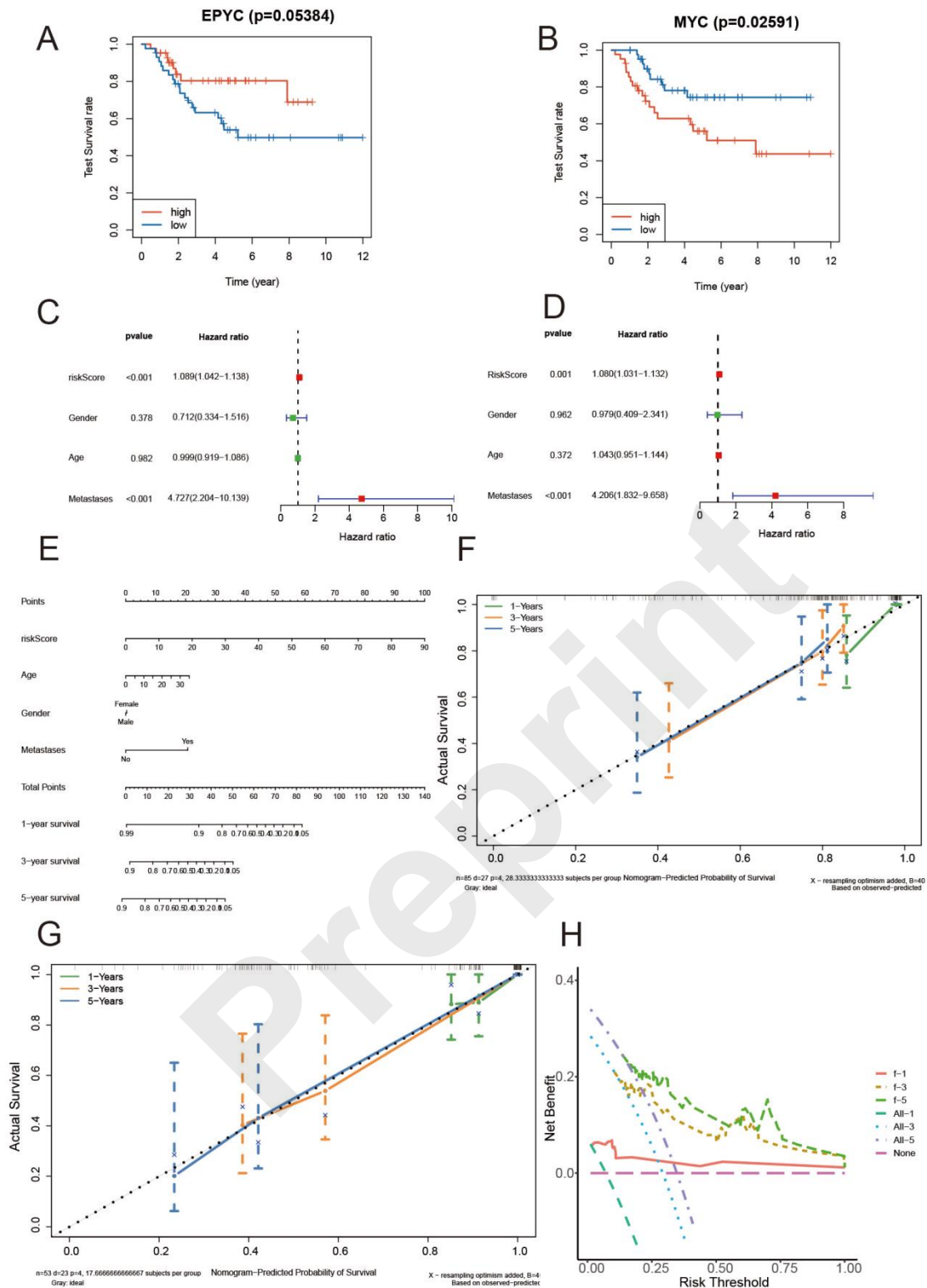


332 Figure 4 Identification of characteristic genes and construction of prognostic models. (A) The
333 Venn diagram represents the intersection of the OSA-DEGs gene set and the group-DEGs gene set,
334 with the number of intersecting genes being 274. (B) The results of the univariate regression
335 analysis displayed genes with a significance level less than 0.05. (C) The LASSO regression
336 coefficient path plot shows each line representing a variable, with the vertical axis indicating
337 coefficient values and the horizontal axis representing $\text{Log}(\lambda)$ values. (D) The cross-validation
338 curve of the LASSO regression shows that a smaller value on the vertical axis indicates better
339 fitting performance. (E) The results of the multivariate regression analysis ultimately identified 5
340 characteristic genes. (F) The ROC analysis results for the training set indicate AUC values of
341 0.895, 0.834, and 0.862 at 1, 3, and 5 years, respectively. (G) The AUC values of the ROC curve
342 for the validation set are 0.719, 0.714, and 0.698 at 1, 3, and 5 years, respectively. (H) The K-M
343 curve reveals that the survival outcomes of the low-risk group are more favorable than those of the
344 high-risk group. (I) The findings showing the distribution of survival status and risk scores for the
345 high-risk and low-risk groups. (J) The heatmap shows the expression levels of characteristic genes
346 in the two risk groups.

347

348 **3.5 Constructing a nomogram for independent prognostic analysis**

349 Survival analysis of the feature genes revealed that while EPYC showed a
350 survival trend, the difference was not statistically significant ($P=0.05384$, Figure 5A).
351 In contrast, MYC exhibited a significant difference between risk groups (Figure 5B).
352 We then performed univariate and multivariate regression analyses integrating clinical
353 features and risk scores, identifying M stage and risk score as independent prognostic
354 factors ($P<0.05$, Figure 5C-D). To facilitate clinical application, we developed a
355 nomogram integrating risk score and clinical variables to predict 1-, 3-, and 5-year
356 survival (Figure 5E). Calibration curves (Figure 5F) showed that the nomogram's
357 predicted outcomes closely matched observed survival in the training set. Similar
358 results were observed in the validation set (Figure 5G). Decision curve analysis (DCA)
359 further demonstrated that the nomogram provided considerable net clinical benefit for
360 predicting survival at 1, 3, and 5 years (Figure 5H). In summary, our findings suggest
361 that the nomogram exhibits strong predictive power, and the 5-gene-based model may
362 serve as a robust independent prognostic indicator for OSA.



363

364 Figure 5 Development and assessment of nomograms. (A) The findings of K-M curve for EPYC.
 365 (B) The K-M curve illustrates a markedly greater survival rate for MYC in the low-risk category
 366 compared to the high-risk category, $P = 0.02591$. (C) Outcomes of univariate regression analyses
 367 utilizing risk scores and clinical data. (D) The findings of multivariate regression analyses based
 368 on risk score and clinical information. (E) A nomogram for comprehensively assessing the
 369 prognostic performance of OSA. (F) Calibration curves for year 1, year 3, and year 5 in the

370 training dataset. (G) Verification of centralized calibration curve findings, the horizontal
371 coordinate represents the predicted probability and the vertical coordinate represents the actual
372 probability of occurrence. (H) The findings from the DCA curve analysis over periods of 1, 3, and
373 5 years reveal that the horizontal axis illustrates the threshold probability, whereas the vertical axis
374 reflects the net benefits achieved.

375

376 **3.6 Examination of the immune environment between high-risk and low-risk** 377 **groups**

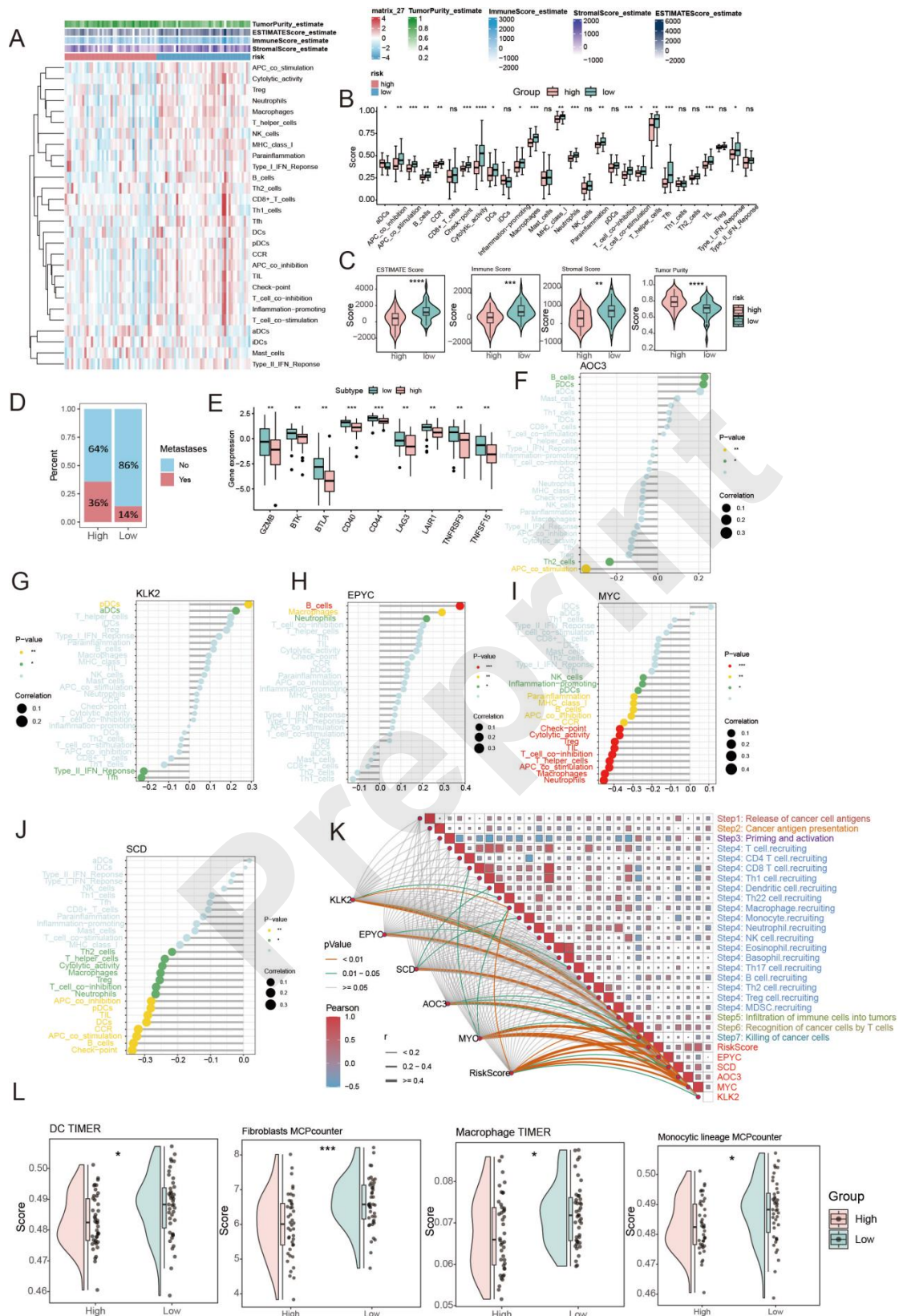
378 To comprehensively assess immune infiltration and prognosis across risk groups,
379 ssGSEA was used to compare immune-related functions and cell infiltration between
380 high- and low-risk groups. As shown in Figure 6A, immune infiltration was markedly
381 higher in the low-risk group. Figure 6B confirms this with box plots demonstrating
382 elevated infiltration levels for most immune cell types. Consistently, the low-risk
383 group showed significantly higher ESTIMATE, immune, and stromal scores, while
384 tumor purity was increased in the high-risk group (Figure 6C). Metastasis rates were
385 also lower in the low-risk group (Figure 6D).

386 Immune checkpoint gene expression was broadly upregulated in the low-risk
387 group (Figure 6E). Correlation analysis revealed that AOC3 and EPYC were
388 positively associated with B cells, while MYC showed a negative correlation.
389 Similarly, AOC3 and KLK2 positively correlated with pDCs, whereas MYC was
390 negatively correlated. AOC3 (Figure 6F), KLK2 (Figure 6G), and EPYC (Figure 6H)
391 were positively linked to most immune cells, while MYC (Figure 6I) and SCD1
392 (Figure 6J) showed negative correlations.

393 To investigate interactions with oncogenic pathways, we analyzed the expression
394 correlation between canonical oncogenes and signature genes in the TARGET-OS
395 cohort. As shown in Supplementary Figure 1, KLK2 was negatively correlated with
396 FAS ($r = -0.41$, $P < 0.01$), and SCD1 positively correlated with NRAS ($r = 0.32$,
397 $P < 0.01$), suggesting possible crosstalk between CMRG-derived markers and
398 oncogenic signaling in osteosarcoma.

399 We further evaluated the association between the risk score and the tumor
400 immune cycle. As illustrated in Figure 6K, the risk score and most characteristic
401 genes were negatively correlated with step 4 (immune cell recruitment). Additionally,
402 Figure 6L shows that infiltration scores for immune and tissue repair cells were
403 significantly higher in the low-risk group.

404 Overall, these findings indicate a more active immune microenvironment in
 405 low-risk patients, who may therefore benefit more from immunotherapy.



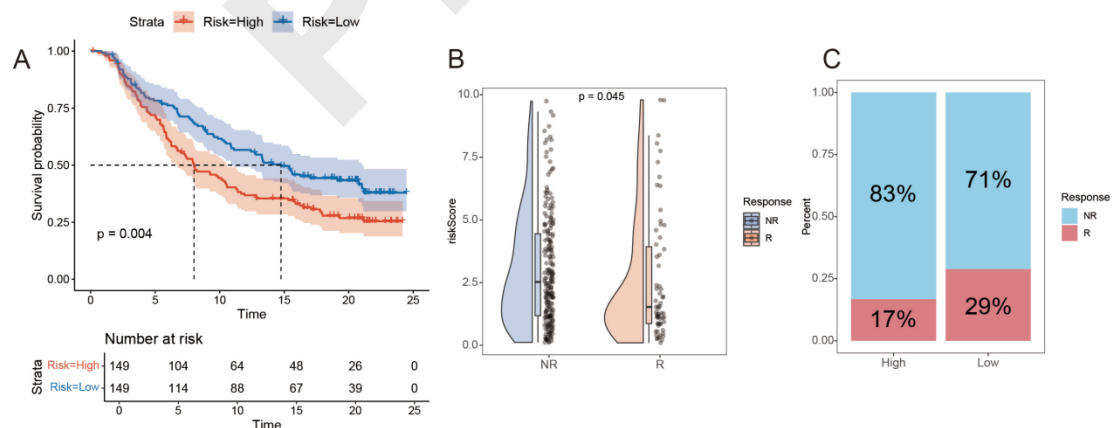
406
 407 Figure 6 Evaluation of immune activity and infiltration of immune cells across the two risk
 408 categories. (A) The heatmap displays variations in immune cell infiltration between the two risk

409 groups. (B) The box plots illustrate variations in immune cell infiltration expression between the
 410 two risk groups. (C) The violin plot illustrates the variation in multiple scores across the two risk
 411 groups. (D) Comparison of disease metastasis between high and low risk groups. (E) Comparison
 412 of immune checkpoint gene expression in high-risk versus low-risk groups. Correlation analysis
 413 diagram of characteristic genes AOC3 (F), KLK2 (G), EPYC (H), MYC (I), and SCD1 (J) with
 414 immune cell infiltration. (K) Heatmap of the association between signature genes, risk scores, and
 415 the immunization cycle. (L) Infiltration levels for various cell types, such as dendritic cells (DC),
 416 fibroblasts, macrophages, and cells from the monocytic lineage, were compared between high-risk
 417 and low-risk groups. ns denotes no significant difference, * signifies $P<0.05$, ** represents $P<0.01$,
 418 and *** indicates $P<0.001$.

419

420 3.7 Response to PD-L1 inhibition immunotherapy according to risk scores

421 Following the assessment of immune infiltration, we extracted data from the
 422 IMvigor210 cohort regarding responses to PD-L1 inhibitor immunotherapy from
 423 public databases. In this cohort of 348 patients, responses to PD-L1 blockade varied
 424 and included stable disease (SD), partial response (PR), complete response (CR), and
 425 disease progression (PD). Our analysis utilizing K-M curves demonstrated that the
 426 survival outcomes for the low-risk group were significantly better than those of the
 427 high-risk group (Figure 7A). Importantly, we classified SD and PD as NR (Not
 428 Responding) and CR and PR as R (Responding). The analysis indicated that patients
 429 in the R group exhibited significantly lower risk scores compared to those in the NR
 430 group (Figure 7B). Additionally, the proportion of NR patients in the low-risk group
 431 was significantly lower than that in the high-risk group (Figure 7C).



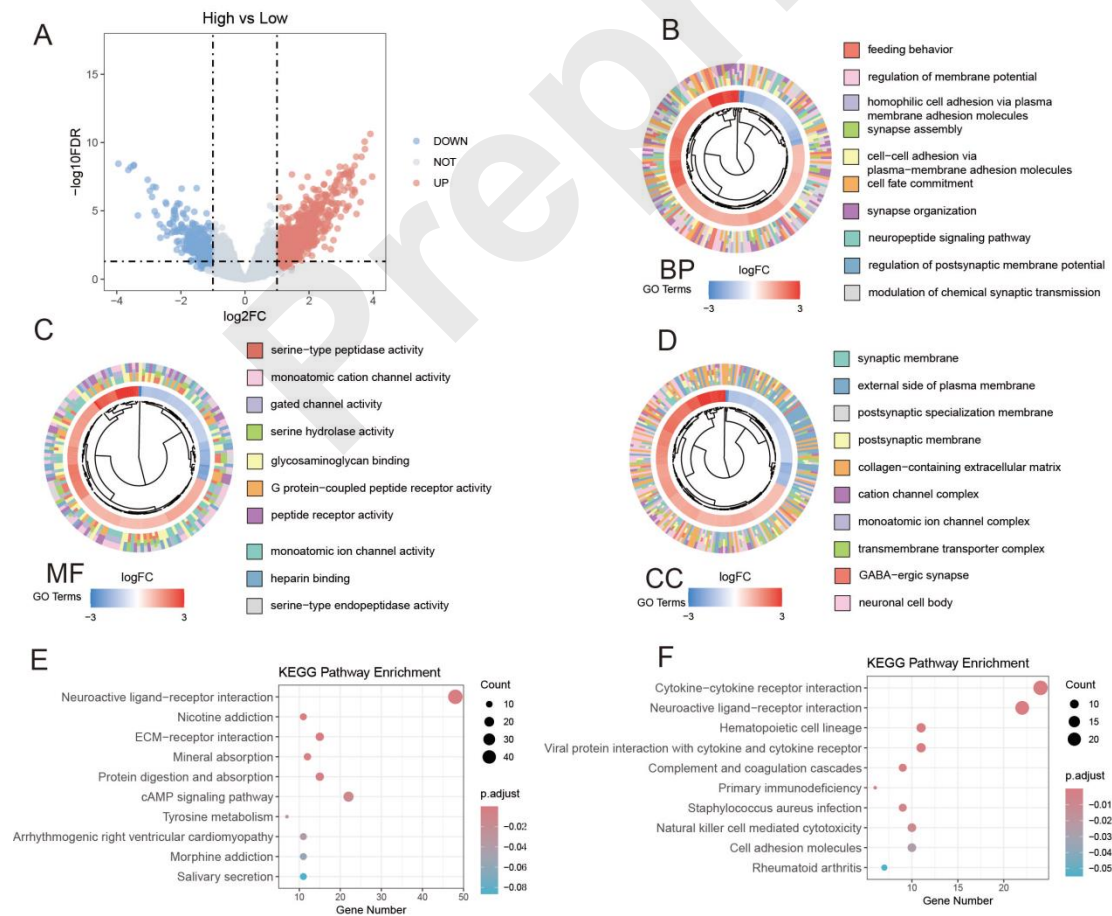
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433 Figure 7 Evaluating immune therapy effectiveness using risk scores from public databases. (A)
 434 Comparison of survival analysis differences among subgroups in the IMvigor210 cohort. (B)
 435 Variations in immunotherapy effectiveness according to risk assessments. (C) Proportion of
 436 various immunotherapy reactions categorized by risk groups.

437

438 3.8 Functional enhancement of differentially expressed genes in high and 439 low-risk cohorts

440 To further investigate the biological functions and underlying molecular
441 mechanisms across risk groups, we conducted differential expression analysis
442 between the high- and low-risk groups ($|\log_2FC| > 1$, $P < 0.05$, Figure 8A). This analysis
443 identified 908 upregulated and 413 downregulated genes, which were subsequently
444 subjected to GO and KEGG enrichment analyses. GO analysis revealed that
445 differentially expressed genes were significantly enriched in cell membrane
446 structure-related pathways within the Biological Process (BP) category (Figure 8B),
447 protein metabolism pathways within the Molecular Function (MF) category (Figure
448 8C), and neuroregulation-related pathways within the Cellular Component (CC)
449 category (Figure 8D). Additionally, KEGG analysis indicated that upregulated genes
450 were enriched in neuroregulation and protein metabolism pathways (Figure 8E),
451 whereas downregulated genes were associated with immune regulation-related
452 pathways (Figure 8F).



453

454

Figure 8 Investigation of biological roles and pathway activities in high and low-risk groups.

455 (A) Volcano map illustrating genes expressed differently between high and low-risk groups.
456 Functional Analysis in (B) Biological Activities (BP), (C) Molecular Roles (MF), and (D) Cellular
457 Structures (CC). (E) KEGG enrichment assessment of increased gene expression. (F) KEGG
458 enrichment assessment of downregulated genes.

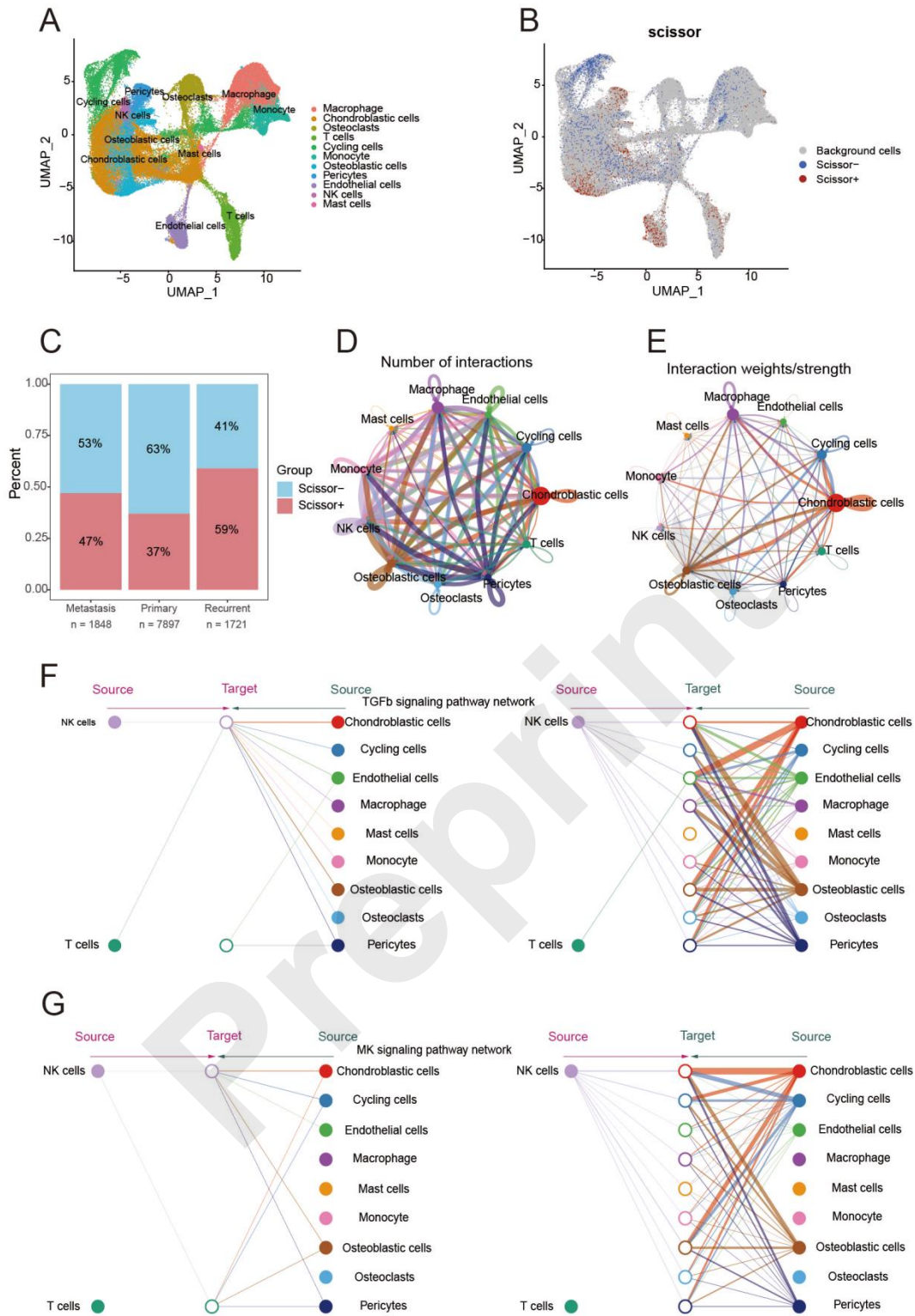
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460 **3.9 Analysis of the relationship between TME and risk score-related cell types** 461 **based on single-cell sequencing**

462 To investigate the relationship between the TME and cell types associated with
463 risk scores, we analyzed single-cell sequencing data from 11 OSA patients in the
464 GSE152048 dataset. After quality control and batch effect removal, we clustered and
465 annotated the filtered cells into nine major cell types: macrophages, chondroblastic
466 cells, osteoclasts, T cells, cycling cells, monocytes, osteoblastic cells, pericytes,
467 endothelial cells, NK cells, and mast cells (Figure 9A). Utilizing the SCISSOR
468 algorithm alongside sequencing data from TARGET-OS patients and risk group
469 information, we identified cell types correlated with different risk levels (Figure 9B),
470 [25]. Consistent with expectations, we observed more high-risk-associated cell types
471 in patients with recurrence and metastasis (Figure 9C).

472 We then employed CellChat to infer overall intercellular communication based
473 on ligand-receptor signaling. As illustrated in Figure 9D, the results depict the number
474 of cells involved in interactions, while Figure 9E shows the frequency of interactions
475 among different cell types. Collectively, these findings indicate significant cell-cell
476 communication, which is essential for understanding immune cell functions within the
477 TME. Furthermore, Transforming Growth Factor Beta (TGF β , Figure 9F) and
478 Mitogen-Activated Protein Kinase Kinase Kinase (MKK, Figure 9G) signaling
479 pathways were implicated in cell proliferation, differentiation, and immune regulation,
480 playing multifaceted roles in tumor progression. We further analyzed the relationships
481 between the identified cell types and these pathways, and found distinct intercellular
482 communication patterns targeting these pathways. Additionally, we assessed the
483 distribution of characteristic genes across immune cell types and observed that MYC
484 and SCD1 had superior cell-type-specific expression compared to other genes
485 (Supplementary Figure 2).

486



487

488 Figure 9 Single-cell sequencing evaluation of various cells in the TME according to risk
 489 scores. (A) UMAP examines 9 cellular clusters in samples from OSA patients. (B) UMAP
 490 visualization of cell distribution according to risk scores. (C) The bar chart illustrates the
 491 distribution percentage of various cells in the sample species according to their risk score. (D) The

492 quantity of cells that are engaged in communication and interaction with one another is depicted
493 here. Different colored circles represent the cell count, with larger circles signifying a higher
494 number of cells involved. (E) Intensity of intercellular communication exchanges: the thicker the
495 line, the greater the intensity. (F) Examination of cell interactions in the TGFb (F) and MKK
496 signaling pathway (G).

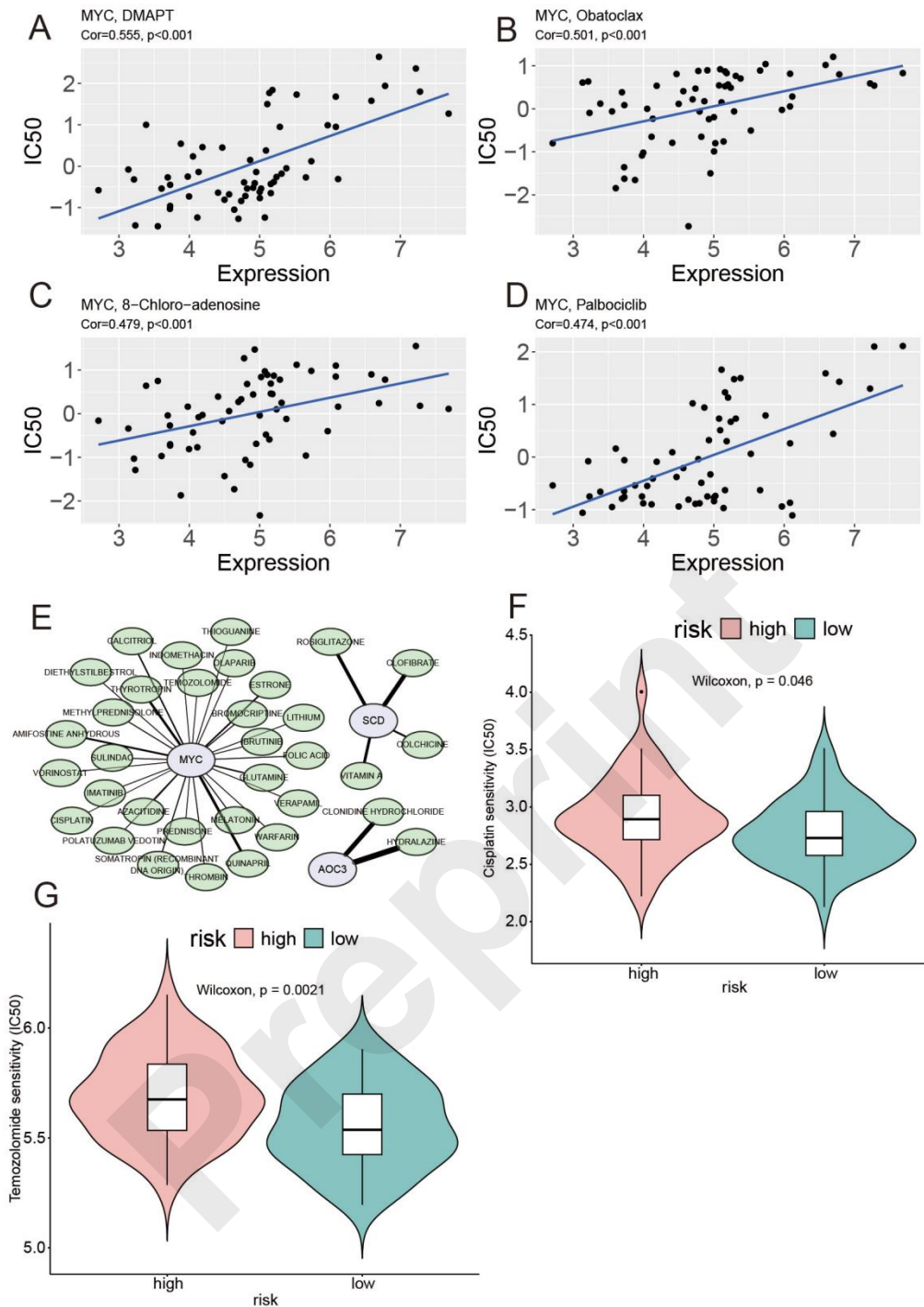
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498 **3.10 Comprehensive analysis of potential anti-OSA drugs**

499 This study employed the CellMiner database to predict the correlation between
500 feature genes and drug sensitivity, identifying a significant positive relationship
501 between MYC and DMAPT (Figure 10A), Obatoclox (Figure 10B),
502 8-Chloro-adenosine (Figure 10C), and Palbociclib (Figure 10D). We also conducted a
503 statistical analysis of approved drugs targeting feature genes, providing theoretical
504 support for selecting suitable therapeutic agents for OSA patients (Figure 10E).
505 Notably, our analysis of drug sensitivity between risk groups showed that patients in
506 the low-risk group had significantly lower IC50 values for Cisplatin (Figure 10F) and
507 Temozolomide (Figure 10G), indicating that these drugs may be more effective in
508 low-risk patients.

509

510



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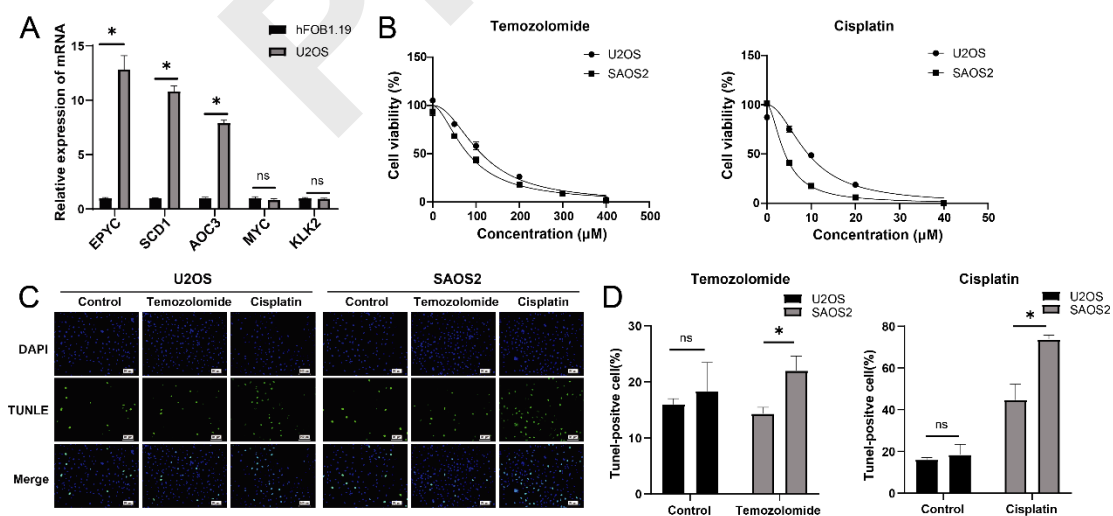
512 Figure 10 Comprehensive analysis of potential anti-tumor drugs. Significance Analysis of
 513 Characterized Genes MYC with DMAPT (A), Obatoclax (B), 8-Chloro-adenosine (C) and
 514 Palbociclib (D), $P < 0.001$. (E) The network diagram illustrates the data on feature genes associated
 515 with known interacting drugs. Violin plot representation of drug sensitivity analysis between high

516 and low risk groups including Cisplatin (F) and Temozolomide (G).

517

518 3.11 Comprehensive experimental analysis of characteristic gene expression, cell 519 apoptosis, and cytotoxicity

520 Next, we validated the expression levels of the characteristic genes in the
521 osteoblastic cell line hFOB1.19 and the OSA cell line U2OS. The qRT-PCR results
522 (Figure 11A) showed that EPYC was significantly overexpressed in U2OS cells.
523 Similarly, SCD1 and AOC3 were also significantly upregulated in OSA cells. In
524 contrast, no significant differences were observed in the expression of MYC and
525 KLK2. These findings further confirm the differential expression of characteristic
526 genes between normal and OSA cells. The MTT cytotoxicity assay results (Figure
527 11B) demonstrated that both Temozolomide and Cisplatin exhibited concentration
528 dependent enhanced inhibitory effects on the proliferation of OSA cell lines U2OS
529 and SAOS2. SAOS2 cells showed higher sensitivity to both drugs, with a
530 significantly lower IC₅₀ (81.52 μ M) for Temozolomide compared to U2OS cells
531 (112.4 μ M), and a markedly lower IC₅₀ (4.087 μ M) for Cisplatin (9.314 μ M).
532 TUNEL apoptosis assays further corroborated the heightened sensitivity of SAOS2
533 cells, revealing a significantly higher proportion of TUNEL positive cells in SAOS2
534 cells following treatment with either Temozolomide or Cisplatin, compared to U2OS
535 cells (Figure 11C-D). Collectively, these data consistently demonstrate that SAOS2
536 cells possess higher sensitivity than U2OS cells to Temozolomide and Cisplatin
537 induced cytotoxicity and apoptosis.



538

539 Figure 11 Comprehensive experimental analysis of characteristic gene expression, cell
540 apoptosis, and cytotoxicity. (A) qRT-PCR Results of EPYC, SCD1, and AOC3 in Normal Cells

541 and OSA Cells. (B) MTT assay to detect the viability of U2OS and SAOS2 cells treated with
542 different concentrations of temozolomide or cisplatin for 48 hours. (C) Representative images of
543 TUNEL assay for cell apoptosis. (D) Quantitative analysis results of TUNEL assay for cell
544 apoptosis. ns denotes no significant difference, * signifies $P < 0.05$.

545

546 **4. Discussion**

547 Immunotherapy plays a crucial role in tumor treatment. Although it has not yet
548 been approved for OSA, several approaches — including immune checkpoint
549 inhibitors, bispecific antibodies, and chimeric antigen receptor (CAR) T cells — are
550 actively undergoing clinical development [26]. Consequently, research on
551 immunotherapy for OSA is expected to become a key focus in the field. CMRGs are
552 essential for regulating T cell activity, maintaining immune balance, and modulating
553 immune responses [27, 28]. This study evaluated the prognostic survival outcomes of
554 OSA patients based on CMRGs, and identified five characteristic genes: EPYC,
555 SCD1, AOC3, MYC, and KLK2.

556 Epiphycan (EPYC), located on human chromosome 12, is a protein-coding gene
557 composed of seven exons [29]. Its primary function is to regulate fibril formation
558 through interactions with collagen fibrils and other extracellular matrix proteins [30].
559 EPYC has been implicated in various diseases. Liang et al. demonstrated that EPYC
560 serves as a diagnostic marker for osteoarthritis, supported by both machine learning
561 and in vitro experiments [31]. Similarly, Zhang et al. confirmed EPYC as a
562 characteristic gene for osteoarthritis and reported a significant correlation between
563 EPYC expression and immune infiltration [32]. In addition, EPYC has been identified
564 as a prognostic biomarker for pancreatic cancer [30]. Our experimental results
565 revealed that EPYC is highly expressed in OSA tissues, and that patients in the
566 low-risk group exhibited significantly better survival outcomes. Furthermore, EPYC
567 expression was positively correlated with immune cell infiltration, suggesting its
568 potential as a prognostic biomarker for OSA.

569 Stearoyl-CoA desaturase 1 (SCD1) is an enzyme located in the endoplasmic
570 reticulum, synthesized from saturated fatty acid (SFA) precursors [33]. A review study
571 reported that SCD1 acts as an autophagy inducer, affecting cancer cell proliferation
572 and metastasis [34]. In colorectal cancer, SCD1 plays a key role in drug-induced
573 growth inhibition, and SCD1 knockout enhances sensitivity to ferroptosis [35].

574 Notably, Cai et al. found that SCD1 regulates the Akt/mTOR pathway, promoting
575 lipid metabolism and enhancing OSA cell proliferation [36].

576 Amine oxidase copper containing 3 (AOC3) encodes cell adhesion proteins that
577 are involved in lymphocyte extravasation and recirculation [37]. Dysregulation of
578 AOC3 expression has been shown to influence cancer progression. Studies report that
579 AOC3 expression is decreased in colorectal cancer tissues and serum, with low levels
580 correlating with poor prognosis [38, 39]. Conversely, high AOC3 expression in
581 thymic carcinoma has been significantly associated with unfavorable prognosis [40].

582 MYC is a transcription factor and a key driver of human tumorigenesis. The
583 MYC protein mainly regulates transcriptional processes, including elongation, DNA
584 replication, and cell cycle progression [41, 42]. Targeting MYC has emerged as an
585 effective strategy for cancer therapy [43, 44].

586 Human kallikrein 2 (KLK2) belongs to the kallikrein gene family and functions
587 as a serine protease [45, 46]. Recent studies suggest that KLK2 may be a therapeutic
588 target in prostate cancer, where elevated KLK2 expression correlates with increased
589 proliferation and reduced apoptosis [47]. KLK2 has also been established as a
590 prognostic biomarker for prostate cancer [48]. Our study is the first to employ KLK2
591 in a prognostic model for OSA, demonstrating its value in accurately predicting
592 survival.

593 In conclusion, this study identifies five characteristic genes based on CMRGs to
594 construct a prognostic model, aiming to support personalized treatment strategies for
595 OSA patients and enhance the precision of clinical decision-making.

596 Most immunotherapy strategies rely on the patient's intrinsic immune response,
597 typically progressing through three stages: immune surveillance, self-regulation, and
598 immune evasion [14]. Immune checkpoint inhibitors are central to these mechanisms
599 and have shown promise in treating OSA [14, 49]. CTLA-4 binds to B7 on Tregs and
600 cancer cells, thereby suppressing T cell activity. Blocking this interaction can restore
601 T cell functionality [49]. Notably, anti-PD-1 therapy in an OSA mouse model led to
602 increased expression of GZMB in T cells [50, 51]. Yoshida et al. reported a positive
603 correlation between GZMB and IFN- γ expression, with elevated GZMB levels linked
604 to improved survival in OSA patients [52]. These findings underscore the importance
605 of GZMB in immunotherapy efficacy. Our analysis revealed elevated GZMB
606 expression in the low-risk group, along with other immune checkpoint-related genes
607 such as BTK, BTLA, CD40, CD44, LAG3, LAIR1, TNFRSF9, and TNFSF15,

608 suggesting that low-risk patients may benefit more from immunotherapy.

609 Dimethylaminoparthenolide (DMAPT) is an anti-inflammatory compound that
610 inhibits prostate cancer [53] and bladder cancer progression [54]. Obatoclox, a BCL2
611 family inhibitor, induces thyroid cancer cell death by disrupting lysosomal function
612 [55]. 8-chloro-adenosine is a nucleoside analog long used in leukemia research [56].
613 Palbociclib is an orally available CDK4/6 inhibitor, which suppresses proliferation
614 and induces cell cycle arrest, with broad application in breast cancer therapy [57, 58].
615 Our study uncovered a significant positive correlation between MYC expression and
616 the IC50 values of these drugs. Moreover, our analysis revealed that low-risk patients
617 are more sensitive to Cisplatin and Temozolomide, supporting their clinical utility in
618 this subgroup.

619 Our correlation analysis (Supplementary Figure 1) revealed intriguing
620 associations between the CMRG-based signature and classic oncogenes. The negative
621 correlation between KLK2 and FAS suggests that KLK2 may suppress FAS-mediated
622 apoptosis, a mechanism known to contribute to chemotherapy resistance [59].
623 Conversely, the positive correlation between SCD1 and NRAS supports NRAS's role
624 in activating SREBP-1c-driven lipogenesis—a pathway that increases the production
625 of monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFA) through SCD1-mediated desaturation,
626 thereby enhancing membrane fluidity, oncogenic signaling, and tumor cell
627 proliferation [60, 61]. Notably, the absence of correlation with TP53—a gene
628 frequently mutated in OSA—indicates that our CMRG signature reflects biological
629 pathways distinct from canonical tumor suppressor mechanisms.

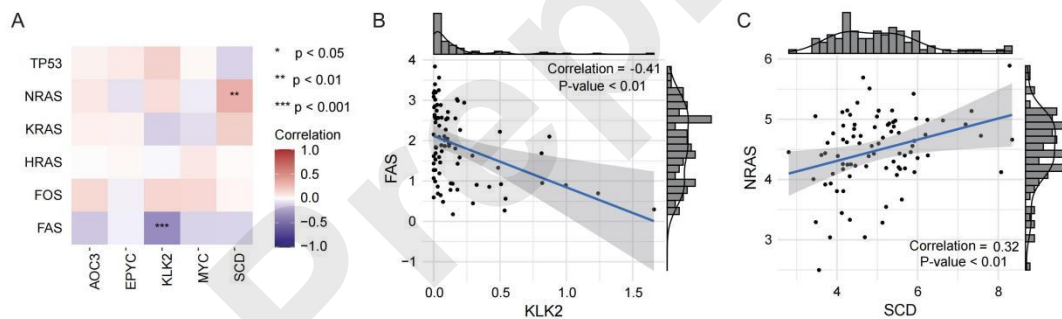
630 This first comprehensive study to construct a CMRG-based prognostic model for
631 OSA integrates subtype classification, immune profiling, drug sensitivity prediction,
632 and experimental validation, thereby expanding the understanding of immune
633 regulation in OSA and proposing novel clinical biomarkers. However, several
634 limitations warrant consideration: the analyses primarily rely on public databases,
635 which may introduce population bias; although qRT-PCR validated gene expression,
636 further in vivo and clinical studies are needed to confirm functional roles; and the risk
637 model's generalizability requires external validation due to the lack of prospective
638 cohorts.

639

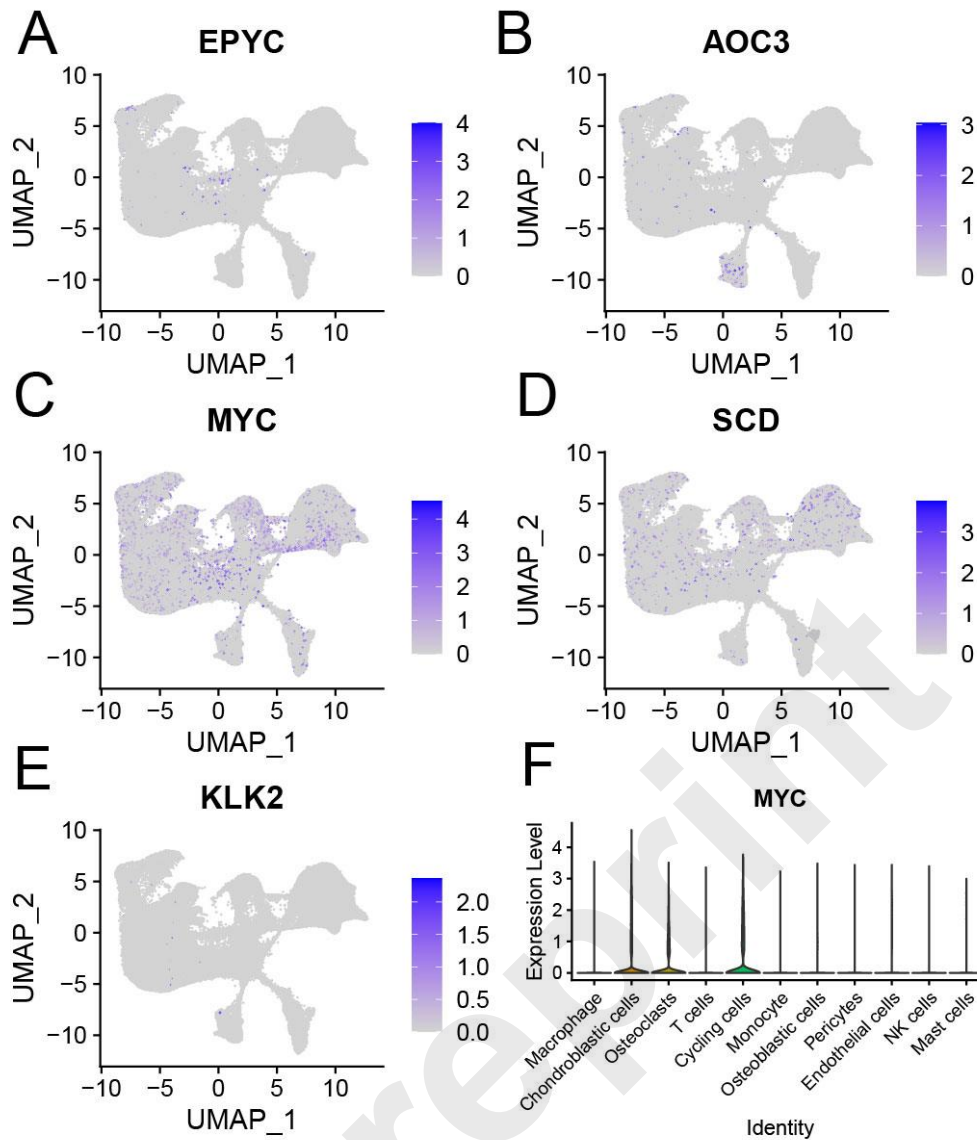
640 **5. Conclusion**

641 This study subdivided OSA samples into three subtypes based on CMRGs and
642 analyzed the differences in immune cell infiltration levels among the subtypes,
643 revealing that subtype 3 exhibited significantly higher immune infiltration levels than
644 subtypes 1 and 2. By merging subtypes 2 and 3, we identified differentially expressed
645 genes, ultimately selecting five characteristic genes through LASSO and multivariable
646 regression analysis to construct a prognostic model for OSA. Our results elucidate
647 that the low-risk group has better prognostic outcomes, suggesting that patients in this
648 group may benefit more from immunotherapy. Additionally, single-cell sequencing
649 results comprehensively characterized the distribution of immune cells and the
650 expression levels of characteristic genes within these cells. In summary, the
651 prognostic prediction model developed in this study significantly aids in formulating
652 effective strategies to enhance survival rates in OSA patients, providing a theoretical
653 basis for personalized treatment approaches.

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657



658
659 Supplementary Figure 1 Correlation between characteristic genes and canonical oncogenes in
660 TARGET-OS cohort (A) Heatmap of correlation between canonical oncogenes and characteristic
661 genes. (B) Scatter plot of correlation between FAS and KLK2. (C) Scatter plot of correlation
662 between NRAS and SCD.
663



664

665 Supplementary Figure 2 The distribution of characteristic genes in cells. The distribution of
 666 the characteristic gene EPYC (A), AOC3 (B), MYC (C), SCD1 (D) and KLK2 (E) in various
 667 immune cells. The expression levels of MYC (F) in immune cells.

668 Supplementary Table S1: CMRGs genelist

669 Supplementary Table S2: DECMRGs genelist

670 Supplementary Table S3: group-DEGs genelist

671 Supplementary Table S4: IMvigor210 samples

672

673

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