Tumor organoids for primary liver cancers: A systematic review of current applications in diagnostics, disease modeling, and drug screening

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Graphical abstract

Highlights:

- This study underscores the utility of primary liver cancer organoids in diagnostic precision, disease modeling, and drug screening.
- Patient-derived organoids maintain the genetic traits and mutational profiles of primary tumors.
- Innovative approaches, such as co-culturing systems, significantly enhance the physiological relevance of organoid models.
- Despite these advances, standardizing in vitro protocols remains critical for translating organoid research into clinical practice.

Impact and implications:

This study provides an overview of the current understanding of tumor-derived organoids in primary liver cancers, emphasizing their potential in diagnostics, disease modeling, and drug screening. The scientific foundation rests on the organoids' ability to replicate the tumor microenvironment and genetic landscape, opening new avenues for personalized therapies. These insights are crucial for both researchers and clinicians, as patient-derived organoids can help identify biomarkers and therapeutic targets. Physicians and policymakers can harness these advances to drive progress in precision medicine, while recognizing the challenges involved in standardizing organoid models for clinical implementation.

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Tumor organoids for primary liver cancers: A systematic review of current applications in diagnostics, disease modeling, and drug screening

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Background & Aims: Liver cancer-related deaths are projected to exceed one million annually by 2030. Existing therapies have significant limitations, including severe side effects and inconsistent efficacy. Innovative therapeutic approaches to address primary liver cancer (PLC) have led to the ongoing development of tumor-derived organoids. These are sophisticated threedimensional structures capable of mimicking native tissue architecture and function in vitro, improving our ability to model in vivo homeostasis and disease.

Methods: This systematic review consolidates known literature on human and mouse liver organoids across all PLC subtypes, emphasizing diagnostic precision, disease modeling, and drug screening capabilities.

Results: Across all 39 included studies, organoids were most frequently patient-derived, closely followed by cancer cell linederived. The literature concentrated on hepatocellular carcinoma and intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma, while exploration of other subtypes was limited. These studies demonstrate a valuable role for PLC organoid cultures in biomarker discovery, disease modeling, and therapeutic exploration.

Conclusions: Encouraging advances such as organoid-on-a-chip and co-culturing systems hold promise for advancing treatment regimens for PLC. Standardizing in vitro protocols is crucial to integrate research breakthroughs into practical treatment strategies for PLC.

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Introduction

Liver cancer is the third leading cause of cancer-related death worldwide and is estimated to account for one million deaths annually by 2030 .^{[1](#page-18-0)[,2](#page-18-1)} Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) constitutes approximately 80% of all primary liver cancers (PLCs), followed by intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (iCCA) and other rarer cancer types. $2,3$ $2,3$ Owing to the liver's extensive functional reserve and robust compensatory capacity, most patients are diagnosed at advanced stages of PLC, rendering conventional therapies like radical resection and ablation ineffective. $2,4$ $2,4$ $2,4$ Thus, treatment of advance-staged PLC often relies on systemic interventions including chemotherapy, radiation, targeted molecular therapy, and immunotherapy. However, these options are limited by their severe side effects and treatment efficacy. $2,3$ $2,3$ As such, there is an immediate need for innovative therapeutic approaches to address PLC treatment.^{[5](#page-19-1)} Unfortunately, the low rate of in vivo success following in vitro discovery underscores the need for effective translation from bench to bedside, pivotal for improving therapeutic discovery in clinical practice.^{[6](#page-19-2)}

There is an ongoing transformative shift in cancer research with the advent of organoids, or complex three-dimensional structures with self-differentiation and self-organizing capacities, which simulate elements of the native tissue architecture and function in vitro. Organoids can be developed from a variety of sources including cell lines, stem cells, and primary cells.[7](#page-19-3) Due to the intratumor heterogeneity and intricate tumor microenvironment (TME) that comprise PLCs, liver organoids are ideal pre-clinical models that recapitulate the molecular and structural features of patient tumors.^{[2](#page-18-1)} It is also possible to create multi-stage PLC organoids and study the initiation and progression of liver cancer through the assessment of novel biomarkers and disease-driving mutations that occur during tumorigenesis, greatly enhancing diagnostic precision and our basic understanding of the molecular events driving cancer progression. Liver organoids additionally facilitate highthroughput drug screening, allowing for cost-effective, rapid, and realistic evaluations of patient responsiveness to targeted medications, the ability to assess therapeutic resistance, and finally to develop personalized cancer therapeutics. $4,8$ $4,8$

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In recent years, a significant upsurge in published literature has highlighted the effectiveness of PLC organoids across diverse in vitro applications, incorporating novel developments such as co-culture models and organoids-on-a-chip. Despite this progress, limitations with clinical implementation and sample scarcity hinder a comprehensive realization of liver cancer organoid potential. This review seeks to consolidate the prevailing knowledge concerning utilization of liver organoids across all PLCs for diagnostic precision, disease paradigm, and drug screening, ultimately paving the way for further advances in hepatology.

Materials and methods

This systematic review is written in accordance with the PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) guidelines [\(Fig. 1\)](#page-2-0). The PICO (participants, interventions, comparators, and outcomes) process was also used to help detail the aims of this review. The International Prospective Register of Systematic Reviews (PROSPERO) was checked for similar reviews. Registration number is as follows: CRD42024513847.

Search strategy

Studies were identified by conducting a literature search on PubMed, Embase, and Web of Science databases. The following key words used for the search strategy are as follows: "organoid" OR "3D cell culture" OR "tissue spheroids" OR "mini organs"; "hepatocellular carcinoma" OR "hepatoma" OR "liver cancer" OR "liver transplant" OR "liver graft" OR "biliary tract carcinoma" OR "bile duct cancer" OR "intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma"; "diagnosis" OR "drug" OR "therapy" OR "therapeutic" OR "gene expression" OR "biomarker" OR "organoid transplant" OR "inject". An additional search of references from previous reviews and expert recommendations was undertaken to identify relevant studies. The full search strategy is available in Table S1.

Fig. 1. Study selection framework: PRISMA flow diagram and inclusion and exclusion criteria. PLC, primary liver cancer.

Research article

Selection process

Eligible studies were screened against a pre-defined inclusion and exclusion criteria ([Table 1](#page-3-0)) during both title/abstract review and full text review. A second reviewer (CJW) independently analyzed results against the inclusion and exclusion criteria. Duplicate results were removed using EndNote 20, followed by a manual check to identify remaining duplicates.

Data acquisition

The final list of articles was recorded as follows: authors, year of publication, organoid model type, organoids' role in diagnostics, disease modeling, and therapeutics. Data was categorized according to PLC type [\(Tables 2-4\)](#page-4-0). Additionally, a critical analysis of the limitations present in the selected studies was conducted to provide a comprehensive understanding of the research landscape.

Results

Literature search

The database search yielded 1,178 results. An additional search of references from previous reviews and expert recommendations produced one result. A total of 411 duplicates were identified and removed. The remaining 767 results were screened on their title and abstract content, excluding a further 423 articles. After the exclusion of four articles that were not retrievable, the remaining 344 publications were evaluated based on the pre-defined inclusion and exclusion criteria (as outlined in [Table 1](#page-3-0)). Thirty-nine studies met the inclusion criteria. [Fig. 1](#page-2-0) illustrates the application of the inclusion (e.g., English language) and exclusion (e.g., only conference abstract available) criteria for this systematic review.

Identification of organoid model type across all studies

The selected articles illustrated a diverse array of organoid models utilized in liver cancer research ([Fig. 2](#page-16-0)). Patient-derived organoids (PDOs) obtained from whole liver preparations were the most frequently employed and were the organoids of choice in 25 out of 39 articles (64%) . $9-33$ $9-33$ Seven articles described cancer cell line-derived organoids.[34](#page-19-6)–⁴⁰ Five articles used mouse models, with two authors using mouse iCCA cells^{[41](#page-19-7)} and mouse biliary cells, 42 and three authors using mouse liver tumor tissues.^{43–[45](#page-19-9)} Sun et al.^{[46](#page-19-10)} directly reprogrammed human hepatocytes (hiHeps) to establish organoids possessing liver architecture and function. Similarly, Ruland et al^{47} al^{47} al^{47} CRISPR-engineered human hepatocyte organoids to recreate liver cancer background.

Primary liver cancer classification across all studies

Articles covered the entire spectrum of primary PLC types [\(Fig. 3](#page-16-1)). HCC was the most prevalent cancer type and was described in 22 out of 39 articles (56%). While 14 of these articles solely investigated HCC[,12](#page-19-12)[,15](#page-19-13)[,19](#page-19-14)[,26](#page-19-15)[,29](#page-19-16)[,31](#page-19-17)[,33](#page-19-18)[,34](#page-19-6)[,36](#page-19-19)[,37](#page-19-20)[,39](#page-19-21)[,40](#page-19-22)[,43](#page-19-9)[,44](#page-19-23) others also included cancers such as cholangiocarcinoma $(CCA)₁$,^{[11](#page-19-24),[13,](#page-19-25)[17,](#page-19-26)[21,](#page-19-27)[25,](#page-19-28)[32,](#page-19-29)[46](#page-19-10)} gallbladder cancer,^{25[,32](#page-19-29)} combined hepatocellular-cholangiocarcinoma (CHC),^{9,[13](#page-19-25)} and hepato-blastoma.^{[13](#page-19-25)} Of note, biliary tract cancers such as gallbladder cancer^{[22,](#page-19-30)[25,](#page-19-28)[27,](#page-19-31)[32](#page-19-29)} and neuroendocrine carcinoma of the ampulla of Vater,^{[22](#page-19-30)} were included in four studies; however, all four studies also assessed PLC, as part of the inclusion criteria of this review. Cholangiocarcinoma was described in 21 out of 39 articles.9–[11](#page-19-5)[,13](#page-19-25)[,14](#page-19-32)[,16](#page-19-33)–18,[21](#page-19-27),[22,](#page-19-30)[24,](#page-19-34)[25](#page-19-28),[27,](#page-19-31)[28,](#page-19-35)[30,](#page-19-36)[32,](#page-19-29)[38,](#page-19-37)[41,](#page-19-7)[42,](#page-19-8)[45,](#page-19-38)[46](#page-19-10) Of these, 14 were classified as solely iCCA^{10[,13](#page-19-25)[,14](#page-19-32)[,16](#page-19-33)[,17](#page-19-26)[,22](#page-19-30)[,25](#page-19-28)[,28](#page-19-35)[,30](#page-19-36)[,32](#page-19-29)[,41](#page-19-7)[,42](#page-19-8)[,45](#page-19-38)[,46](#page-19-10)} and five were not specified to either the intrahepatic or extrahepatic subtype. $8,11,21,24,38$ $8,11,21,24,38$ $8,11,21,24,38$ $8,11,21,24,38$ $8,11,21,24,38$ Lieshout et al.^{[18](#page-19-40)} used both iCCA and

extrahepatic CCA, and Wang et al^{27} al^{27} al^{27} used solely extrahepatic CCA. Two articles included hepatoblastoma, $13,23$ $13,23$ two articles assessed CHC,^{9[,13](#page-19-25)} and three evaluated the rare fibrolamellar carcinoma (FLC). $20,35,47$ $20,35,47$ $20,35,47$ Ji et al. was the only study to study four different types of PLC: HCC, iCCA, CHC, and hepatoblastoma.¹³

Utility in diagnostics

Of the 39 articles reviewed, 29 (74%) indicate potential diagnostic tools for PLC. Among these, 17 studies focused on the identification and validation of biomarkers linked to the initiation, progression, and prognosis of liver cancer.[9](#page-19-5)[,10](#page-19-39)[,13,](#page-19-25)[16](#page-19-33),[18](#page-19-40)–22[,29](#page-19-16)[,30,](#page-19-36)[32,](#page-19-29)[34](#page-19-6)[,36,](#page-19-19)[38,](#page-19-37)[40](#page-19-22),[43](#page-19-9) The investigations included confirmation of the presence of well-established tumor markers in organoid models, such as Roos et al. showcasing the widespread expression of the CCA tumor marker KRT7.^{[38](#page-19-37)} Yet other studies focused on discovery of clinically linked biomarkers. Zhang et al., for instance, reported that the heightened expression of tRNA-Lys-CUU in tumors correlated with overall worse clinical outcomes.^{[30](#page-19-36)} Saito et al. further highlighted increased levels of KLK6 and CPB2 significantly correlated with an unfavorable prognosis in CCA. 22 22 22 Notably, Broutier et al. identified previously unrecognized genes closely linked with an adverse prognosis in primary liver cancer.^{[9](#page-19-5)} Specifically, they reported the presence of C19ORF48, UBE2S, DTYMK (for HCC), and C1QBP and STMN1 (for CCA) as novel prognostic markers within an organoid culture system. Twenty-two articles explored gene expression in PLC organoids,[10,](#page-19-39)12–[18,](#page-19-12)[22](#page-19-30),[23](#page-19-41)[,25,](#page-19-28)[26](#page-19-15),28–[30](#page-19-35),[32](#page-19-29)[,34,](#page-19-6)[35,](#page-19-43)[38](#page-19-37),[40](#page-19-22)[,42](#page-19-8)[,43,](#page-19-9)[46](#page-19-10) primarily utilizing PCR-based methods. Ji et al., however, integrated transcriptomic data with other omics datasets including

genomic, epigenomic, and proteomic data, to provide a

Table 1. Inclusion and exclusion criteria.

Inclusion	Exclusion
English	
	Reviews, conference abstracts, editorials, opinion and com- mentary, protocols and techniques
Articles specific to primary liver cancer (PLC) organoids in vitro	
Articles reporting results on diagnostic potential Articles reporting results on disease modeling Articles reporting results on drug screening	

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CAFs, cancer-associated fibroblasts; CCOs, cancer cell line-derived organoids; EMT, epithelial-mesenchymal transition; HANs, high-affinity neoantigens; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; HUVECs, human umbilical vein endothelia ICIs, immune checkpoint inhibitors; LPAR1, lysophosphatidic acid receptor 1; MCCs, mouse cancer cells; MDCO, mouse-derived cancer organoids; N/A, not available or not applicable; OS, overall survival; PDOs, patient-derived organoids; TKIs, tyrosine kinase inhibitors; VECs, vascular endothelial cells.

comprehensive profile of patient-derived liver cancer organo-ids.^{[13](#page-19-25)} Two studies demonstrated the upregulation of proteins such as BNIP3 and DUT in HCC.^{[29](#page-19-16)[,40](#page-19-22)} Of the 22 studies, 14 reported specific genes as potential therapeutic targets. Identified gene targets included DHFR, G6PD, and β -catenin-TCF4-CEGRs/ALCDs pathway.[13](#page-19-25)[,26,](#page-19-15)[35](#page-19-43) Ten articles explored direct genetic alterations.[10](#page-19-39)[,13,](#page-19-25)[14](#page-19-32),16–[19](#page-19-33),[25](#page-19-28)[,42](#page-19-8)[,46](#page-19-10) A CCA organoid model was identified to have a spectrum of mutant genes including those related to kinase signaling (ARID1A, DDR2, ERBB2, FGFR1, IGF1R, KRAS, MTOR, NRAS, PIK3R1, ROS1); KMT2C and PTCHD3; FMN2 and USP2; ARID1B, RTKs, and HDAC5; BAP1, IDH1; PBRM1, SMAD4, and TP53.^{[10](#page-19-39)[,17,](#page-19-26)[18](#page-19-40)}

Seven studies assessed molecular and cellular processes, reporting signaling pathways and protein interactions to decode the dynamics of PLC gene expression. Notably, Konopa et al.^{[15](#page-19-13)} described the role of LPAR1 in amplifying FLNA phosphorylation at S2152, subsequently augmenting the assembly of FLNA and MRTF-A complexes. This process facilitated actin polymerization and heightened MRTF transcriptional activity.

Disease modeling

Most of the reviewed articles, 30 out of 39 (77%) reported the efficacy of organoid models in mirroring PLC pathogenesis.^{[9](#page-19-5),[11](#page-19-24)–14},[16](#page-19-33)–25[,27](#page-19-31),32–[36,](#page-19-29)[38,](#page-19-37)[39](#page-19-21),[41](#page-19-7)–46 HCC organoids were established across 16 studies,^{[9](#page-19-5)[,11](#page-19-24)–13[,17,](#page-19-26)[19,](#page-19-14)[21](#page-19-27),[25](#page-19-28),32–[34,](#page-19-29)[36,](#page-19-19)[39](#page-19-21),[43](#page-19-9)[,44,](#page-19-23)[46](#page-19-10)} of which several underscored organoid precision in retaining genetic alterations observed in HCC. Wang et al.'s results reported that tumor organoids replicated neoantigen-related gene variations and maintained patient-specific heterogeneous profiles. 66.73% of neoantigen-associated mutations (range of 28.57–88.89%) were shared by primary tissues and organoids on average.^{[25](#page-19-28)} Broutier et al. found a 92% retention of genetic variants in early tumoroid cultures compared to each patient's tissue, a highly faithful preservation of the mutational landscape.^{[9](#page-19-5)} Despite a 26% organoid generation rate (10 out of 38 HCC biopsies) by Nuciforo et al., HCC organoids exhibited comparable somatic mutation numbers (median 165, range 117–180) to corresponding tumor biopsies (median 146, range 127–207; $p = 0.78$, Mann-Whitney U test).^{[21](#page-19-27)} Cao et al. had a 70.8% organoid generation rate (63 out of 89 tumor tissues). These organoids maintained a population of LGRF5-positive cells, which was consistent with the upregulation seen in HCC tissues compared to tumor-free liver tissues ($p = 0.0066$). ^{[43](#page-19-9)}

Zou et al. tested the influence of co-culturing HCC PDOs with mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs), overall improving the rate of successfully establishing biopsy-derived PDO culture from 27% (3 out of 11) to 54% (6 out of 11). MSCs did not alter the 82% (9 out of 11) success rate of surgical resection-derived PDOs.^{[33](#page-19-18)} Cho et al. co-cultured PDOs with hepatic stellate cells, fibroblasts, and endothelial cells. Incorporating stromal cells resulted in a denser organoid structure compared to organoids consisting only of HCC cells.^{[34](#page-19-6)} Wang et al. also discussed the role of non-parenchymal cells, reporting a statistically significant increased expression of neo-angiogenesis-related and inflammatory markers in co-seeded organoids (p <0.05).^{[39](#page-19-21)} Eight articles specifically noted the ability of their developed organoids to capture the intratumor multiclonal diversity seen in liver cancer.^{[11](#page-19-24)[,13,](#page-19-25)[17,](#page-19-26)[18](#page-19-40),[25](#page-19-28)[,32](#page-19-29)[,34,](#page-19-6)[36](#page-19-19)}

CCA organoids were developed in 17 studies.^{[9](#page-19-5),[11](#page-19-24)[,13](#page-19-25)[,14,](#page-19-32)16–[18,](#page-19-33)[21](#page-19-27)[,22,](#page-19-30)[24,](#page-19-34)[25](#page-19-28),[27](#page-19-31)[,32,](#page-19-29)[38,](#page-19-37)[41](#page-19-7),[42](#page-19-8)[,45](#page-19-38)[,46](#page-19-10)} Lee et al. assessed genetic similarities between iCCA organoids and original tumor specimens. Of the 28 organoids evaluated, 96.4% displayed somatic mutations, primarily involving TP53 (71%). Concordance evaluation with matching primary tumors consistently exceeded 70% for every organoid.^{[16](#page-19-33)} Saito et al. failed to establish more than three iCCA organoids, with a 50% success rate (3 out of 6 tissue specimens). The three iCCA organoids showed similar CK7, MUC1, and PAS staining patterns to the original primary tissue. 22 Histological features were evaluated to ascertain the preservation of parental tumor characteristics. CCA organoids were also demonstrated to have widespread glandular domains, with carcinoma cells invading the lumen and forming cribriform structures, mirroring observations in the patient's tissue.^{[9](#page-19-5)} Another study utilized RNA sequencing analysis and identified a common KRAS mutation (G12D) in organoids, consistent with the known prevalence of this mutation in $ICCA¹⁴$ $ICCA¹⁴$ $ICCA¹⁴$ Li et al. found that matched iCCA PDOs and primary tumors display similar staining for all markers tested, including EPCAM, CK19 and CK7, LGR5, and SOX9.^{[17](#page-19-26)}

Two studies each focused on hepatoblastoma^{[13,](#page-19-25)[23](#page-19-41)} and CHC, $9,13$ $9,13$ while three studied FLC. $20,35,47$ $20,35,47$ $20,35,47$ $20,35,47$ Saltsman et al. initially established six human liver organoid lines from three patients with hepatoblastoma. After multiple passages, two of the organoids derived from tumor tissue failed to exhibit the mutations present in their associated tumor tissue samples. The profiling of transcriptomes identified 3,413 genes differentially expressed (false discovery rate < 0.05 , $|Log_2$ fold change $| > 1$) between normal and tumor tissues. Tumor organoids exhibited distinct clustering, while normal organoids showed separation from both tumor and normal tissues. 23 The expression pattern of CHC organoid markers was maintained in a patient-specific manner. Notably, MUC5B expression was exclusive to CHC-1 organoids and absent in CHC-2, consistent with the tissue from the respective patients and with intrasubtype heterogeneity. Narayan et al. identified a transcriptome of 509 genes altered in FLC. Clustering analysis showed distinct patterns among FLC tumors, patient-derived FLC organoids, normal tissue, and patient-derived normal organoids. Differential expression analysis revealed 270 upregulated and 43 downregulated genes between FLC tumors and organoids, with a Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.82 for the fibrolamellar signature genes, such as AKAP12, VCAN, OAT, NTS, and COL1A1.^{[20](#page-19-42)} Rüland et al. CRISPR-engineered human hepatocyte organoids to mimic different FLC backgrounds, including the DNAJB1-PRKACA fusion and mutations in BAP1 and PRKAR2A. The mutant organoids exhibited similarities to primary FLC tumor samples, with combined loss of BAP1 and PRKAR2A leading to hepatocyte transdifferentiation into ductal/progenitor-like cells. While all FLC mutations caused hepatocyte dedifferentiation, DNAJB1-PRKACA fusion organoids display milder phenotypes. 47

Four articles showcased innovative methodologies in establishing tumor organoid systems.^{[11,](#page-19-24)[24](#page-19-34),[33](#page-19-18)[,38](#page-19-37)} Zou et al.³³ used MSC and peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) coculture to construct HCC organoid-on-a-chip. This effectively mimicked the original TME, shortened the growth time of PDOs, and enhanced dimensional uniformity. Van Tienderen et al^{24} al^{24} al^{24} introduced the potential of organoid technology and

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mouse-derived cancer organoids, WA, not applicable, OS, overallable, OS, overall survival; PDO, patient-derival; PDO, patient-derived organoids; TKIs, tyrosine kinase inhibitors; VECs, vascular endothelial cells; CCA*, cho

overall survival; PDO, patient-derived organoids; TKIs, tyrosine kinase inhibitors; VECs, vascular endothelial cells; CCA*, cholangiocarcinoma not specified

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either intrahepatic or extrahepatic; CCA**, used both intrahepatic and extrahepatic subtype.

Tumor organoids for primary liver cancers

microfluidics convergence by demonstrating a one-step fabrication of hybrid microcapsules. Microcapsules enabled selfassembly and 3D culture of human cholangiocyte and cholangiocarcinoma organoids. This easily scalable method also produced size-standardized microcapsules (average diameter was within 157 μ m, SD \pm 14 μ m), reducing the size variability in organoid culture and providing uniform scaffolding. Dong et al^{11} al^{11} al^{11} demonstrated the efficacy of alginate-gelatin hydrogel capsules, and successfully cultured 18 out of 28 patientderived multicellular clusters as PDOs. The resulting PDOs preserved stromal cells, maintained a stable expression of molecular markers, and a similar tumor heterogeneity to the primary tissues. Roos et al.^{[38](#page-19-37)} proved that human adult intrahepatic cholangiocyte organoids can be induced to form a branching tubular architecture resembling bile ducts. Branching biliary organoids exhibited a stronger correlation with CCA tumors (correlation coefficient $0.80 \pm SD$ 0.05) than nonbranching organoids and CCA tumors (CC $0.55 \pm SD$ 0.08).

Primary liver cancer organoids in therapeutic applications

Thirty-three studies $9-31,33-35,37,38,41,43-46$ $9-31,33-35,37,38,41,43-46$ $9-31,33-35,37,38,41,43-46$ $9-31,33-35,37,38,41,43-46$ $9-31,33-35,37,38,41,43-46$ $9-31,33-35,37,38,41,43-46$ $9-31,33-35,37,38,41,43-46$ $9-31,33-35,37,38,41,43-46$ $9-31,33-35,37,38,41,43-46$ $9-31,33-35,37,38,41,43-46$ identified PLC organoid applications in therapeutic development, with 28 of them[10,](#page-19-39)[11](#page-19-24),[13](#page-19-25)[,14](#page-19-32)[,16](#page-19-33)–27,[29,](#page-19-16)32–[35](#page-19-29),[37](#page-19-20)[,38,](#page-19-37)[41,](#page-19-7)43–[46](#page-19-9) specifically conducting drug screenings on their models. Narayan et al^{20} al^{20} al^{20} conducted the largest preliminary drug screening using patient-derived FLC organoids, testing approximately 650 drugs. Eight compounds exhibited over 50% survival inhibition across multiple test days. Similarly, Lit et al.^{[17](#page-19-26)} performed high-throughput drug screening on 27 PDOs derived from five primary liver cancers, treating them with 129 drugs and generating 3,483 data points.

Several studies assessed the efficacy of multi-tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs). Li et al.'s¹⁷ analysis revealed that ineffective drugs showed little variability, while targeted drugs such as TKIs showed higher variability in effectiveness, primarily due to inter-tumoral differences. Sorafenib and crizotinib effectively reduced viability across all three CCA organoid lines.^{[18](#page-19-40)} Koch et al.^{[14](#page-19-32)} further observed a time- and dose-dependent inhibition of iCCA organoid growth by sorafenib. Ji et $al.13$ $al.13$ evaluated drug responses in various liver cancer organoids (iCCA, HCC, and CHC), demonstrating a strong correlation in predicting responses to already-approved liver cancer therapeutics such as regorafenib, lenvatinib, and sorafenib.

Two studies showed significant progress in understanding the interaction between neoantigen-specific peptides and the immune system's ability to target and destroy liver tumor organoids.^{[19,](#page-19-14)[25](#page-19-28)} Wang et al.²⁵ explored the neoantigen landscape. Peptide-reactive T cells exhibited effectiveness in reducing live tumor organoid cells. The study also highlighted that immune checkpoint inhibitors heightened the sensitivity of tumor cells to neoantigen peptide-reactive T cells. Liu et al.^{[19](#page-19-14)} delved into immunological tumoricidal potential, noting that CD39+CD8+ tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs) from the high-affinity neoantigens (HAN)-high group displayed superior tumor-killing activity compared to those from the HAN-low group. Additionally, specific peptides inducing peptidespecific T-cell responses in CD39+CD8+ TILs were identified, suggesting potential therapeutic targets.

Nine studies investigated drug resistance within primary liver cancer organoids.^{[10](#page-19-39)[,13,](#page-19-25)[18,](#page-19-40)[29](#page-19-16),[32](#page-19-29)[,37,](#page-19-20)[38,](#page-19-37)[43](#page-19-9)} Zhao et al.³² reported that organoids with metabolic advantages and enriched hypoxia

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Tumor organoids for primary liver cancers Tumor organoids for primary liver cancers

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BRCOs, human branching cholangiocyte organoids; BTC, biliary tract carcinoma; CAFs, cancer-associated fibroblasts; CCAO, encapsulated cholangiocarcinoma organoids; CCOs, cancer cell line-derived organoids, CHC, combined hepatocellular-cholangiocarcinoma; eCCA, extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma; HANs, high-affinity neoantigens; HB, hepatoblastoma; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; HUVECs, human umbilical vein endothelial cells; IBOs, intrahepat biliary organoids; iCCA, intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma; ICIs, immune checkpoint inhibitors; ICOs, healthy intrahepatic cholangiocyte organoids; LPAR1, lysophosphatidic acid receptor 1; MCCs, mouse cancer cells; MDCOs, mo derived cancer organoids; N/A, not available or not applicable; NECAV, neuroendocrine carcinoma of the Ampulla of vater; OS, overall survival; PDOs, patient-derived organoids; TKIs, tyrosine kinase inhibitors; VECs, vascul cells. CCA* ⁼ cholangiocarcinoma not specified as either intrahepatic or extrahepatic.

signals upregulate NEAT1 expression in the CD44 subgroup, inducing drug resistance through the Jak-STAT pathway. Xu et $al.^{29}$ $al.^{29}$ $al.^{29}$ discovered that the stable expression of DUT in liver progenitor organoids confers resistance to the TKI sorafenib. Cao et al.'s.^{[43](#page-19-9)} mouse liver tumor-based HCC organoid models displayed resistance to conventional liver cancer therapies like sorafenib and 5-FU. Cho et $al.^{10}$ $al.^{10}$ $al.^{10}$ identified a poorly immunogenic subtype associated with KRAS alterations, hinting at potential resistance to immunotherapy. Roos et $al.^{s38}$ $al.^{s38}$ $al.^{s38}$ exploration unveiled that in vivo, branching cholangiocyte organoids demonstrated chemoresistance, underlying the modest benefits of gemcitabine/cisplatin combinational therapy on overall patient survival. Peng et $al.^{37}$ $al.^{37}$ $al.^{37}$ showed that niclosamide effectively downregulated sorafenib-induced gene expression related to glycolysis (GLUT1, HK2, LDHA, and PEPCK), stemness (OCT4), and drug resistance (ABCG2). Moreover, it boosted sorafenib's ability to reduce the mitochondrial membrane potential in vitro.

Three studies introduced innovative approaches for high-throughput drug screening using organoid models. Zou et al.^{[33](#page-19-18)} devised a multi-layer microfluidic chip specifically tailored for high-throughput co-culture (e.g. with MSCs and cancerassociated fibroblasts) in drug screening. Their models, MSC-PDO-PBMCs and cancer-associated fibroblast-PDO-PBMCs, exhibited comparable responses to chemotherapeutic or targeted antitumor drugs. Notably, they displayed enhanced precision in predicting patient responses to anti-PD-L1 drugs. Ji et al .^{[13](#page-19-25)} established a patient-derived liver cancer organoid biobank (LICOB), enabling high-throughput drug screening that unveiled distinct response patterns associated with specific multiomics signatures for each subtype. By integrating LICOB pharmacoproteogenomic data, they identified molecular features linked to drug responses, predicting potential personalized treatment combinations. Van Tienderen et al^{24} al^{24} al^{24} assembled encapsulated CCA organoids and demonstrated their suitability for drug screening. Their screening of gemcitabine and cisplatin revealed clear variations in drug responses to individual therapies.

Discussion

This systematic review covered 39 articles describing the utility of tumor organoids in primary liver cancer research. Most articles described utility of organoids for therapeutic discovery, closely followed by studies highlighting diagnostic potential and their role in disease modeling. Organoid systems are wellsuited for conducting extensive studies in drug discovery, as previously cited by Vandana et al^{48} al^{48} al^{48} However, there was still a significant portion of studies (51%, 20/39), which evaluated organoids across all parameters: diagnostic precision, disease modeling, and therapeutic applications, underlining the expanding and versatile applications of organoids in primary liver cancer research.

Most articles described PDOs. PDOs represent advanced 3D cell culture models faithfully replicating the intricate structure and functionality of tumor tissue. They vividly demonstrate complex cell-to-cell and cell-to-matrix interactions while exhibiting pathophysiological traits akin to differentiated tumor tissue in laboratory settings. As a model, primary liver tumor organoids can retain the histological architecture, gene expression patterns, and genomic landscape of the original tumor. This fidelity renders them invaluable tools for identifying

biomarkers and conducting drug screening, offering a platform that closely mirrors real tumor behavior. 49 They can also provide exciting tools for precision medicine, allowing for the in vitro testing of drugs on a patient's tumor in real time. Proposed utility in precision medicine was described in multiple articles covered in this review.[13,](#page-19-25)[28,](#page-19-35)[31](#page-19-17),[33](#page-19-18)[,44](#page-19-23) Xin et al. emphasized significant variations in the response to BRAF or MEK inhibitors across organoids with diverse BRAF variant subtypes.^{[28](#page-19-35)} Identifying and classifying these variants can guide precise treatment for patients with PLC. Ji et al. identified subtype-specific drug response patterns and multiomics signatures, enabling the prediction of personalized treatment combinations through LICOB data integration.^{[13](#page-19-25)} In addition to the development of novel therapeutics, as models improve, there might be a scalable methodology allowing for selection of ideal therapeutic regimens for patients after testing of their own tumor biology using PDOs.

Included articles demonstrate proof of concept that PLC organoid cultures serve as a valuable resource for biomarker discovery. Notably, much of the research focused on biomarker reporting in CCA, revealing that heightened expression of tRNA-Lys-CUU, KLK6, and CPB2 in tumors correlated with unfavorable clinical outcomes.^{[22,](#page-19-30)[30](#page-19-36)} However, identification of prognostic biomarkers in HCC seems more challenging. Oz et al.'s study highlighted diverse biomarker expression among HCC cell lines in 3D culture, hinting at varied cellular characteristics and potential phenotypic flexibility. 36 This aligns with prior studies that found the tumor mutational burden lacked correlation with specific neoantigens in the HCC microenvironment, rendering it unsuitable as a predictive biomarker. Interestingly, higher tumor mutational burden and/or neoantigens displayed significant correlations with improved survival in other cancers like non-small-cell lung cancer and melanoma.[19](#page-19-14)[,50](#page-19-46) However, recognizing the unique ability of PLC-derived organoids to maintain the original tumor's mutational landscape and expression profile even after prolonged culture expansion, Broutier et al. hypothesized the possibility of identifying prognostic biomarkers specific to HCC. This study 9 reported the first ever specific prognostic biomarkers from an HCC organoid culture system, with a set of previously unidentified genes - C19ORF48, UBE2S, DTYMK (for HCC), and C1QBP and STMN1 (for CCA) – being tied to adverse oncologic outcomes.

Traditionally, organoids are cultured in tumor-derived basement membrane extracts (BMEs), a complex mixture of extracellular matrix components. BME promotes selforganization, allowing organoids to form as three-dimensional structures, closely mimicking organs. The choice of BME is frequently Matrigel, an extract of the EHS mouse tumor, 51 which comprises the key constituents found in the structural matrix of various tissues ([Fig. 4\)](#page-17-0). High batch-to-batch variability and many undefined factors in Matrigel pose similar challenges encountered with other serum-based cell culture methods such as FBS. This uncontrolled process leads to a disparity in sizes among organoids, affecting reproducibility and scalability. Dong et al.^{[11](#page-19-24)} proposed a methodology involving suspended alginate-gelatin hydrogel capsules to simulate the liver TME. These capsules surround patient-derived liver tumor multicellular clusters, allowing for the cultivation of PDOs. The 3D matrix environment mimics the mechanical and biological properties of the in vivo liver and facilitated the successful

Fig. 2. Identification of organoid model type and primary liver cancer classification across all studies. CCA, cholangiocarcinoma (not specified as either intrahepatic or extrahepatic subtype); CCOs, cancer cell line-derived organoids; CHC, combined hepatocellular-cholangiocarcinoma; eCCA, extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma; EHM: extrahepatic metastases; FLC, fibrolamellar carcinoma; HBL, hepatoblastoma; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; hiHeps, reprogrammed human hepatocytes; iCCA, intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma; MCCs, mouse cancer cell-derived organoids; MDCOs, mouse-derived cancer organoids; PDOs, patient-derived organoids. Numbers are provided in percent based on the systematic literature review.

culturing of 18 out of 28 patient-derived multicellular clusters as PDOs. The resulting organoids exhibited stable expression of molecular markers and retained tumor heterogeneity comparable to the original liver tumors, highlighting the high fidelity of this approach. However, it is also possible these hydrogels

would still fail to resolve issues related to organoid size heterogeneity and they do require a time-intensive culture process. In response to these challenges, Van Tienderen et al. 24 24 24 introduced a microfluidic method utilizing hybrid microcapsules containing liver-derived extracellular matrix. These microcapsules demonstrated a gene and protein expression profile relatively akin to conventional culture methods utilizing BMEs. This approach offers a more standardized and scalable environment, potentially addressing the constraints associated with organoid size heterogeneity and the time-consuming culture process observed with the use of hydrogel capsules.

Ensuring the fidelity of organoids to their parental tumors is paramount for their utility in PLC research. While the reviewed studies highlight the potential of organoids in recapitulating the complexities of PLC, systematic validation to affirm their resemblance to original tumors remains inconsistent. Rigorous validation procedures encompassing comprehensive analyses of gene expression, histological characteristics, and functional assays are imperative. Studies like those by Broutier et al.^{[9](#page-19-5)} and Wang et al.^{[25](#page-19-28)} have assessed the retention of genetic alterations in HCC organoid models, demonstrating high fidelity preservation of the mutational landscape with over 90% retention of genetic variants in early tumoroid cultures. Wang et al^{25} al^{25} al^{25} further revealed a significant overlap

Fig. 3. Sources and applications of primary liver cancer organoids. (A) Primary liver cancer organoids are mainly built from patients' tissue, mouse models and cell lines. (B) Based on different research needs, primary liver cancer organoids are widely explored in disease modeling, therapeutic exploration, drug screening. With the encouraging advances of organoid-on-a-chip, more promising treatments and breakthrough basic science research are emerging.

Fig. 4. Methodologies in establishing patient-derived organoid systems. (A) Isolation: Patient-derived organoid protocols typically begin with obtaining single cells or tissue clusters from liver biopsies or surgically resected tissues. Such tissues undergo mechanical dissociation (mincing) and enzymatic digestion to generate a cell suspension. (B) Organoid culture (HCC and CCA): To closely replicate the in vivo environment, mesenchymal stem cells and peripheral blood mononuclear cells can be co-cultured, creating a tumor microenvironment; CCA can be further differentiated into branching tubular structures that better mimic the in vivo architecture of the bile ducts. Techniques like 3D bioprinting or hybrid microcapsules can aid in better distribution of cells and clusters. (C) Organ-on-a-chip platforms: Microfluidic platforms, also referred as "organ-on-a-chip" systems, provide a dynamic environment for studying cell/organ interactions. These platforms allow for co-culture of healthy and/or cancer cells under controlled conditions, including hypoxia. Syringe pumps or micro-perfusion systems can be used to mimic physiological flow rates within the chip. By connecting multiple chips, researchers can build more complex "multi-organ systems" facilitating the investigation of inter-organ communication and disease processes. CCA, cholangiocarcinoma (not specified as either intrahepatic or extrahepatic subtype); HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma.

between neoantigen-associated mutations in primary tissues and organoids through extensive transcriptome profiling. Gene expression profiles obtained from comprehensive transcriptome analysis and single-cell RNA sequencing also play a critical role in this validation process. Ji et $al.^{13}$ $al.^{13}$ $al.^{13}$ exemplified this by integrating transcriptomic data with genomic, epigenomic, and proteomic datasets to offer a detailed profile of PDOs. However, validation approaches varied significantly between articles. while some researchers, like Xu et al., ^{[24](#page-19-34)} conduct exhaustive genetic analyses, others opt for more rudimentary assessments or even forego RNA validation entirely. Equally vital are histological evaluations encompassing tissue architecture and cellular morphology, often assessed through careful histopathological examination and immunohistochemistry. Saito et $al.^{22}$ $al.^{22}$ $al.^{22}$ confirmed morphological fidelity in iCCA organoids, reflecting original tissue staining patterns. Functional assays emerged as another metric in assessing organoid fidelity. In their study, Roos et $al.^{38}$ $al.^{38}$ $al.^{38}$ used viability assessments, metabolic profiling, and phenotypic evaluations, integrated within the protocol for initiating and maintaining branching organoids. Manual selection procedures and cryopreservation protocols were also implemented to ensure the functionality and consistency of the cultures for further experimentation.

Limitations in the culture system have been frequently reported secondary to lack of both immune and stromal com-ponents, which hinder model fidelity to true in vivo TME.^{[9](#page-19-5)} However, Liu et al.^{[19](#page-19-14)} showed that $CD39+CD8+$ TlLs derived from HAN-high groups had enhanced antitumor activity when cultured with autologous tumor organoids. These immune cells induced more apoptosis in the organoids from the HANhigh group compared to those from the HAN-low group. This suggests that their HCC PDOs provide a useful platform for evaluating the antitumor potential of immune cells, particularly in relation to the HAN status. Many organoid models reviewed lacked an immune component. For example, Zhu et al^{40} al^{40} al^{40} mentioned BNIP3-upregulated cancer cells' potential im-mune evasion but did not explore this further. Broutier et al.^{[9](#page-19-5)}

offered insights into prognostic markers and tumor histology but noted that the absence of immune and stromal components limits the model's ability to depict TME interactions accurately. Patient-derived xenografts, or human cancer organoids transplanted into animal models, could also have a role in addressing this limitation, as they retain tumor histopathology including TILs and stromal components. Further studies could focus on the utility of organoid auto- & allotransplantation in animal models. Importantly, the introduction of co-culture has shifted the paradigm and allowed for the introduction and maintenance of an enhanced stromal system. Within the past 2 years, studies have explored avenues to enhance success rates of organoid cultures, by co-culturing with stromal cells such as MSCs, endothelial cells, hepatic stellate cells and cancer-associated fibroblasts. [33,](#page-19-18)[34](#page-19-6),[39](#page-19-21)

Organoids have shown promise in replicating key physiological and pharmacological aspects of full organs, yet they still fall short in capturing the intricate interactions between multiple organs, and their metabolic significance as seen in the body. Additionally, the time needed to grow an organoid can hinder clinical utility, and these approaches are generally very resource intensive. However, a promising avenue lies in merging organoid technology with organ-on-a-chip technology. This innovation combines three-dimensional human/ mouse organoid systems (single or multicellular) with a plastic surface, utilizing microfluidic techniques to precisely control fluid flow and O_2 environment. Zou et al.^{[33](#page-19-18)} have developed a sophisticated multi-layer microfluidic chip specifically engineered to enhance the consistency of high-throughput cultured PDOs. These microfluidic chips feature microarray units tailored for 3D cell culture and targeted drug delivery. Each microwell has a volume approximately one-thousandth that of a standard 96-well plate, accelerating experimentation and saving time in PDO culture and drug screening. The top-layer microchannels mimic in vivo drug administration, enhancing drug testing accuracy and showing potential for personalized cancer therapy and immunotherapy outcome

prediction. While the integration of this approach may enable personalized cancer therapies, the current systematic review highlights a notable scarcity of studies specifically exploring organ-on-a-chip technology. Future research could prioritize comparing organ-on-a-chip findings with clinical outcomes, alongside enhancing the mechanisms and logistics of highthroughput models.

This systematic review has limitations. The exclusion of non-English articles constrained the scope of insights into PLC organoids, introducing a language bias. However, eligible non-English articles, though limited in number $(n = 5)$, were accounted for in the PRISMA diagram, enhancing this study's reproducibility. Notably, the diversity of organoid culturing systems, alongside the advent of emerging technologies such as microfluidic chip platforms, hydrogel capsules, and novel branching cholangiocyte organoids pose challenges for direct comparisons. The variability in culture techniques and complexity, such as isolating single cell types vs. multiple cell types, adds further challenges. This inherent heterogeneity influenced the depth of analysis, urging caution in interpreting the findings. To address this, this study extensively identifies organoid PLC types utilized across all examined studies. Additionally, a data extraction table delineates etiology of organoid culturing systems and presents data as reported by the authors [\(Table 2\)](#page-4-0), intending to serve as a reference point throughout the review. Finally, as with all systematic reviews, the articles and interpretations are subject to the biases of the reviewers. Using two independent reviewers can help mitigate this but cannot entirely eliminate such biases.

This review underscores the increasingly impressive utility of PLC organoid cultures in advancing biomarker discovery, disease modeling, and therapeutic exploration. Encouraging advances, such as organoid-on-a-chip and co-culturing systems, show promise in revolutionizing PLC treatment strategies. Standardizing and validating in vitro protocols remain critical, as do ongoing comparisons of in vitro findings with clinical outcomes.

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Abbreviations

BMEs, basement membrane extracts; CCA, cholangiocarcinoma; CCOs, cancer cell line-derived organoids; CHC, combined hepatocellular-cholangiocarcinoma; eCCA, extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma; FLC, fibrolamellar carcinoma; HANs, high-affinity neoantigens; HBL, Hepatoblastoma; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; HiHeps, reprogrammed human hepatocytes; iCCA, intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma; LICOB, liver cancer organoid biobank; MCCs, mouse cancer cell-derived organoids; MDCOs, mouse derived cancer organoids; MSCs, mesenchymal stem cells; PDO, patient-derived organoids; PLC, primary liver cancer; TKIs, tyrosine kinase inhibitors.

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Conflict of interest

The authors of this study declare that they do not have any conflict of interest. Please refer to the accompanying ICMJE disclosure forms for further details.

Authors' contributions

This article was conceptualized and conducted under the direction of Dr. Andrea Schlegel. Manuscript drafting was performed by AAQ, CJW and AS. Critical manuscript review was performed by all authors. AAQ and CJW contributed equally as shared first authors.

Supplementary data

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