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Metabolic-imaging of human glioblastoma live tumors: A new precision-medicine approach to predict tumor treatment response early

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Background: Glioblastoma (GB) is the most severe form of brain cancer, with a 12–15 month median survival. Surgical resection, temozolomide (TMZ) treatment, and radiotherapy remain the primary therapeutic options for GB, and no new therapies have been introduced in recent years. This therapeutic standstill is primarily due to preclinical approaches that do not fully respect the complexity of GB cell biology and fail to test efficiently anti-cancer treatments. Therefore, better treatment screening approaches are needed. In this study, we have developed a novel functional precision medicine approach to test the response to anticancer treatments in organoids derived from the resected tumors of glioblastoma patients.

Methods: GB organoids were grown for a short period of time to prevent any genetic and morphological evolution and divergence from the tumor of origin.

We chose metabolic imaging by NAD(P)H fluorescence lifetime imaging microscopy (FLIM) to predict early and non-invasively ex-vivo anti-cancer treatment responses of GB organoids. TMZ was used as the benchmark drug to validate the approach. Whole-transcriptome and whole-exome analyses were performed to characterize tumor cases stratification.

Results: Our functional precision medicine approach was completed within one week after surgery and two groups of TMZ Responder and Non-Responder tumors were identified. FLIM-based metabolic tumor stratification was well reflected at the molecular level, confirming the validity of our approach, highlighting also new target genes associated with TMZ treatment and identifying a new 17-gene molecular signature associated with survival. The number of MGMT gene promoter methylated tumors was higher in the responsive group, as expected, however, some non-methylated tumor cases turned out to be nevertheless responsive to TMZ, suggesting that our procedure could be synergistic with the classical MGMT methylation biomarker.

Conclusions: For the first time, FLIM-based metabolic imaging was used on live glioblastoma organoids. Unlike other approaches, ex-vivo patient-tailored drug response is performed at an early stage of tumor culturing with no animal involvement and with minimal tampering with the original tumor cytoarchitecture. This functional precision medicine approach can be exploited in a range of clinical and laboratory settings to improve the clinical management of GB patients and implemented on other cancers as well.

KEYWORDS

glioblastoma, metabolic imaging, drug response assay, predictive model, FLIM (fluorescence lifetime imaging microscopy)

Introduction

Glioblastoma (GB) is the most common malignant primary brain tumor. Overall, the prognosis of patients with this disease is poor, with a 12-15 month median survival (1). Because of the diffuse aggressive nature of GB cell invasion into the brain parenchyma, no GB patient has been cured to date (2). As illustrated by the vast number of drugs and therapeutic strategies under investigation for the treatment of GB, there is a major effort to develop more effective therapies to treat this highly malignant and therapy-insensitive disease. Unfortunately, the success of these new therapies has been rather disappointing: maximal resection, and temozolomide (TMZ) treatment and radiotherapy (RT) remain the best option for quite several years (3). GB standard-of-care TMZ is a DNA-alkylating agent discovered in the 1970s and approved by the FDA in 2005 (3). Responsive patients have the O6-methylguanine DNA methyltransferase (MGMT) gene with a methylated promoter and show higher survival rates than patients with a

hypomethylated MGMT gene. Despite its low specificity, the MGMT promoter status represents the only clinical biomarker available to predict for TMZ response (4).

In this glioblastoma context, effective treatment options and biomarkers of drug response are a major unmet medical requirement. For several years, conventional monolayer cell cultures have been widely used to test drug efficiency, although the lack of tissue architecture and complex characteristics of these models fails to recapitulate the true biological processes *in vivo*. Recent advances in organoid technology have revolutionized *in vitro* culture tools for biomedical research by creating powerful 3D-dimensional models, that better preserve the local cytoarchitecture and native cell-cell interactions of original tumors (5). Despite numerous ex-vivo drug testing approaches leverage on 3d-*in vitro* GB models, they still have shortcomings and none fully captures the complexity of each individual glioblastoma cellular organization and composition overlooking therefore the relevance of how the tumor microenvironment affects tumor behavior and drug response

(6–8). These drug testing approaches have several limiting requirements such as: a) extended time of performance that leads to a long period of *in vitro* tumor culturing with a consequent molecular and morphological transformation diverging from the parental tumor *in vivo* (6); b) technical measurements requiring dissociation of the original tumoral tissue down to a single cell suspension, losing therefore the tumor cytoarchitecture and cell-cell interaction characteristics (8); c) use of non-human animal models which implies laborious procedures and introduction of biases due to host organism-tumor interactions (9).

To address these limitations it is necessary to have a treatment-testing approach that doesn't need an extended *in vitro* tumor culturing, that is non-invasive to minimize tumor tampering, that uses a biomarker of response that is precocious and anticipates early enough tumor behavior so to be applied at an early stage of *in vitro* tumor culturing and no animal involvement. Furthermore, because of the highly aggressive progression of the disease, an overall rapid test and selection of the optimal drug regimen for individual glioblastoma patients is crucial and a method to predict the drug response, early, without wasting patients' lifetime, before the onset of the therapy could be transformative for GB patients.

Here in this study, to answer these requirements, we offer a unique novel treatment-testing approach in patient-derived glioblastoma 3D organoids. We first developed a protocol to generate an *in vitro* vital patient-derived IDH1/2 wild-type GB 3D model that we termed “glioblastoma explant” (GB-EXP), which, unlike other models (6–8), is minimally handled, briefly grown in culture with no animal involvement, no dissociation and passaging to preserve the parental cytoarchitecture. To build a treatment-response predictor tool, we applied an imaging method called FLIM that exploits the intrinsic auto-fluorescence molecular properties of NAD(P)H, a metabolic enzymatic cofactor, that is associated with the metabolic state of the cell/tissue. Cancer cell metabolic status is known to be an early predictor of cellular behavior in response to a treatment (10–12). The intracellular metabolic cofactor NAD(P)H (reduced form of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide) may be protein-bound or protein-free in the cell, and these states affect its fluorescence decay, with bound NAD(P)H typically exhibiting longer lifetimes than free NAD(P)H. In cancer, metabolism shifts were investigated, and authors reported an increase in NAD(P)H fluorescence lifetimes (increase of NAD(P)H bound/free ratio) as cells become less proliferative (13), showing drug responsiveness after treatment. FLIM measures NAD(P)H lifetimes, representing a powerful non-invasive tool to monitor, in real time, metabolic activities in living cells and tissues (10, 12). NAD(P)H-FLIM has the advantage of being a fast and non-invasive method that can be applied to *in vitro* cancer organoids at an early stage of *in vitro* culturing without interfering with tumor viability and structure, avoiding divergence from parental tumor. To support this approach as an effective method for evaluating the

response to anti-cancer treatments, we used TMZ as our benchmark drug since it is the only approved drug used in GB, and extensive knowledge has been achieved at the molecular level. We achieved the classification of the cases into TMZ responsive and non-responsive tumors. This stratification performed out solely using our NAD(P)H-FLIM approach on live GB organoids *in vitro*, was then correctly corroborated by conventional drug testing assays and by next generation sequencing analyses. The TMZ responsive and non-responsive groups were statistically significantly distinguished at the genomic and transcriptomic level confirming the accuracy of our approach.

This novel approach in the assessment of GB treatment outcome, could be exploited as a tool for improving patient-tailored therapeutic strategies by testing single of combinations of drugs, and new treatments. It can also be used for large-scale screening of new pharmaceutical compounds and implemented on other tumors as well.

Materials and methods

Human glioblastoma tissue collection

The study was performed in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and the sample collection protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University Hospital of Pisa (787/2015). Tumors were obtained from patients who had undergone surgical resection of histologically confirmed GB after obtaining informed consent. Samples were obtained from the Neurosurgery Department of the “Azienda Ospedaliero-Universitaria Pisana” or from the Unit of Neurosurgery of Livorno Civil Hospital. Sixteen male and female patients were included in the present study. All patients were diagnosed with GB with no previous history of brain neoplasia and did not carry R132 IDH1 or R172 IDH2 mutations. In five of the 16 patients, neurosurgeons were able to collect the core and periphery of the tumor with the help of neuronavigation-guided microsurgical techniques. Tumor samples at the periphery were first obtained when GB was identified during surgery, whereas tumor samples at the core were obtained from the resected tumor mass. When the tumor had a large area of central necrosis, the tumor located outside the necrotic area was selected. The patients clinical and demographic data are presented in [Supplementary Table 1](#). Surgically resected tumors were collected and stored in MACS tissue storage solution (Miltenyi Biotec, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany) at 4°C for 2–4 h. All patient-derived surgical GB tissues were de-identified before processing. See supplementary materials for more information.

Glioblastoma cell line spheroid cultures

Spheroids were generated from T98G and U87 GBM cell lines using the hanging drop method, as previously described

(14). Once spheroids were formed, they were used to prepare cultures in Matrigel and in suspension. Twenty drops per well were transferred to a 4-well chamber coverglass (Nalge Nunc International) and covered with 300 μ L of Matrigel Growth Factor Reduced Basement Membrane Matrix, phenol red-free Matrigel (Corning). After gel solidification for 30' at 37°C, cell medium without no red phenol, containing 89% of DMEM low glucose (for T98G) and high glucose (for U87), 10% FBS, and 1% penicillin-streptomycin was added. Cultures were placed in a 37°C, 5% CO₂, and 90% humidity sterile incubator. The medium was replaced every 72 hours. See the supplementary materials for more information on 2D cell lines and 3D spheroids.

Glioblastoma organoids/ explants cultures

The procedure used to produce explant cultures is shown in Figure 1A. Fresh GB tumors or frozen samples, after a quick defrosting in a water bath at 37°C, were washed with DPBS in a sterile dish and cut with a scalpel into pieces <1 mm (2). Samples were then run on a gentleMACS Dissociator (Miltenyi Biotec) to mechanically dissociate them into 80–200 μ m macrosuspensions, which were filtered through a 70-micron cell strainer to exclude smaller tissue pieces. Tissue suspensions were placed in coverglass chamber slides (Nalge Nunc International) and then covered with 300 μ L of Matrigel or in suspension. Cultures were placed in a 37°C, 5% CO₂, and 90% humidity sterile incubator and grown for a maximum of 10/14 days without no passaging. The GB-EXPs were cultured without additional growth factors to reduce tampering. Drug treatment was initiated 3 days after the GB-EXPs were cultured.

TMZ drug treatments

TMZ (Sigma, St. Louis, MI, USA) was used in this study. TMZ was dissolved in DMSO to prepare a stock concentration of 100 mM and then diluted to the required concentrations with a complete cell culture medium. 2D GB U87 and T98G cell lines were treated at 30% confluence, replacing the medium with fresh medium containing TMZ 100 μ M for treated cells or an equal volume of DMSO for controls. Cultures were exposed to TMZ for 24, 48, and 72 h in all experiments. Spheroids from U87 and T98G cell lines, both in Matrigel and in suspension, were treated the day after they were cultured, replacing the medium with fresh medium containing 600 μ M of TMZ. For FLIM experiments, spheroids in Matrigel were exposed to TMZ for 24, 48, and 72 h, and for sizing and Ki67 expression analysis for 1 and 2 weeks. GB-EXPs, both in Matrigel and in suspension, 3 days after being cultured, were treated with TMZ three days after culture. The medium was replaced with fresh medium

containing 600 μ M TMZ for the treated explants or an equal volume of DMSO as a control. GB-EXPs in Matrigel were exposed for 24 h, 48 h, and 72 h for FLIM experiments, whereas GB-EXPs in suspension were treated at 1 week and 2 weeks for sizing, live/dead, and immunofluorescence experiments. Fresh conditioned medium for both the GB-EXPs and spheroid cultures was replaced every 72 h.

Lifetime imaging

Fluorescence lifetime imaging was performed with an Olympus Fluoview 3000 confocal microscope using a 405 nm LDH-P-C-375B (Picoquant) excitation laser for NAD(P)H (15, 16). For the control and treated samples, 6–12 FLIM measurements were acquired. The phasor approach was used to analyze NAD(P)H-FLIM data and was performed using the SimFCS suite as previously described (17). Following the instructions reported in “Two-component analysis of fractional NAD(P)H distribution” (17), we extrapolated from phasor plots the NAD(P)H free/bound fractional distribution curves of the controls and treated samples, creating a mean distribution curve for controls and one for treated samples (Supplementary Figure 1). To find differences between controls and treated NAD(P)H fractional distribution curves, for each of the 125 parts SimFCS dividing the curves, a p-value was calculated using the parametric Student's t-test, and fractions with p values <0.05 were considered significant. Each of the 125 parts consists of a number of image pixels with a specific NAD(P)H free/bound fraction. Therefore, the curve segmentation implemented by the system reflects different portions/pixels of the tumor image, consequently reporting intra-sample metabolic heterogeneity. We calculated the percentage of response (%DR), considering only the treated distribution, as follows: $\%DR = \frac{\Sigma \text{SIGNIFICANT AREA}}{\text{TOTAL AREA}}$. where: 1) the SIGNIFICANT AREA is the area obtained by adding the areas of the histograms, resulting in a p-value <0.05, when compared with controls; and 2) the TOTAL AREA is the area obtained by adding the areas of the 125 histograms. The histogram area was calculated by multiplying the base (corresponding to the unit at each x-axis point) by the height (corresponding to the mean of the normalized pixels at each y-axis point). The %DR was calculated after 24, 48, and 72 h of treatment. The final percentage of DR was obtained by calculating the weighted average. Weighted average calculation: The weight given to the average was driven by the time point, given a value of 3, 2, and 1 for 72, 48, and 24 h, respectively. 72hr time had the highest weight since it is the standard time at which cells reach metabolic adaptation (18). Stratification of samples was performed using %DR as follows: Non Responder (Non-Resp/NR): %DR < 5% Low Responder (LR): 5 ≤ %DR < 20, Medium Responder (MR): 20 ≤ %DR < 50, High Responder (HR): %DR > 50.

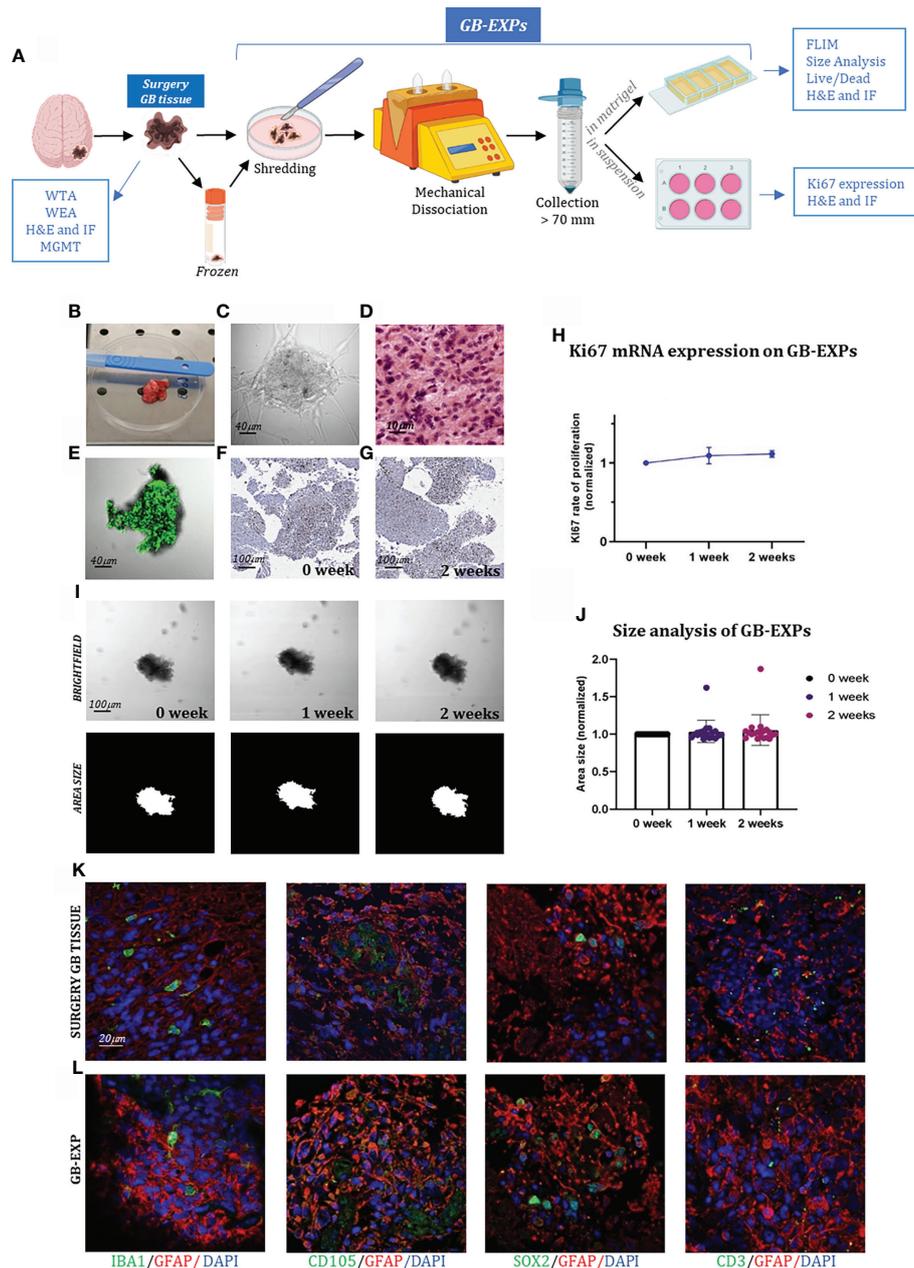


FIGURE 1

GB-EXPs cultures (A) Experimental design. (B) A surgery tumor sample. (C) GB-EXP embedded in matrigel. (D) H&E staining of a surgery GB tissue. (E) Live/dead staining of a GB-EXP at 2 weeks after culturing. (F, G) Ki67 immunostaining of GB-EXPs in suspension at 0 week and 2 weeks. (H) Ki67 mRNA expression analysis of 13 GB case-derived GB-EXPs at 0 and 2 weeks. Graph represents mean \pm s.d. of triplicated measures. (I) Representative brightfield and area size images of a GB-EXP in matrigel at 0 week, 1 week and 2 weeks. (J) Size analysis 20 GB case-derived GB-EXPs at 0, 1 and 2 weeks. (K, L) Immunofluorescence assays of surgery GB tissue (K) and GB-EXPs (L). GFAP (astrocytes), IBA1 (microglia), SOX2 (stem cells), CD105 (endothelial cells) and CD3 (lymphocytes). WTA, Whole Transcriptome Analysis; WEA, Whole Exome Analysis; FC, Flow Cytometry; H&E, Hematoxylin, and Eosin; MGMT, MGMT promoter methylation analysis.

GB-EXPs size analysis

The growth of explants was studied using brightfield images acquired at 0 day, after 1 and 2 weeks after TMZ treatment, using

an Olympus Fluoview 3000 microscope and at 20X magnification. A minimum of 14 to a maximum of 81 untreated and control GB-EXPs were imaged at each time point. Different wells were used for GB-EXPs sizing and FLIM.

GB-EXPs growth over time was measured using OrganoSeg Software, kindly donated by the Department of Biomedical Engineering, University of Virginia, USA (19).

Histology and stainings

The tissues and explants were fixed for 24 h in 10% neutral-buffered formalin (Sigma-Aldrich) at room temperature. For immunofluorescence, CD105 polyclonal (Thermo Fisher, PA5-94980), CD3 monoclonal (F7.2.38) (Thermo Fisher, MA5-12577), Sox2 polyclonal (Thermo Fisher, 48-1400), GFAP monoclonal (ASTRO6) (Thermo Fisher, MA5-12023), GFAP polyclonal (Abcam, ab7260), Iba1 polyclonal (Wako 091-19741) primary antibodies were then applied at dilutions of 1:400, 1:20, 1:100, 1:100, 1:250, 1:1000, respectively, overnight at 4°C, and visualized using Olympus Fluoview 3000 confocal microscope at a magnification of 60X. See supplementary materials for more information.

Next-generation sequencing analyses

The RNA-seq library was prepared using Illumina Stranded Total RNA Prep with a Ribo-Zero Plus kit (Illumina). Whole exome library preparation was performed using Illumina DNA Prep with Enrichment (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions, starting with 500 ng of DNA. Sequencing was performed on a NextSeq 500 (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) with a reading length of 101 bp (Supplementary Materials).

Statistical analyses

All summary data are presented as means \pm s.d. All statistical analyses were performed using R and GraphPad Prism software (GraphPad 7.0). The sample size (n) values used for statistical analyses are provided in the text and supplementary materials. Individual data points are graphed or can be found in the source data. Tests for differences between two groups were performed using the Student's two-tailed unpaired t-test, as specified in the figure legends. No data points were excluded from the statistical analyses. Statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$. Linear discriminant analysis was performed using JMP10 software (SAS Institute).

Results

Tumor samples

The dataset included 21 patient-derived surgery GB tissues, five of which consisted of the core and periphery of the tumor

from the same GB patient, obtained with the help of neuronavigation-guided microsurgical techniques. The patients included 10 men (62%) and six (38%) women in the age group of 30–80 years. All tumor samples were derived from primary IDH1/2 wild-type glioblastoma samples. Each resected sample was labeled with information on cerebral localization and molecularly characterized for IDH1/2 mutation and MGMT methylation status, as shown in [Supplementary Table 1](#). Furthermore, MGMT methylation analysis revealed MGMT methylation discordance between the core (c) and peripheral (p) portions of samples GB3, GB4, GB6, and GB7, highlighting intra-tumor heterogeneity ([Supplementary Table 1](#)). [Supplementary Table 2](#) reports the pathological diagnosis and information about the patients' therapeutic administrations. The samples were subjected to several analyses, as shown in [Supplementary Table 3](#).

In vitro culturing of patient-derived glioblastoma explants (GB-EXPs)

We created a vital human GB-patient-derived 3D tumor culture *in vitro* (GB-EXPs) ([Figure 1A](#)). Twenty-one tumor pieces were first washed with PBS and a specific lysis buffer to remove debris and red blood cells, respectively ([Figure 1B](#)). Mechanical dissociation and filtration produced a suspension of tumor pieces ranging in size from 70 μ m to 200 μ m ([Figure 1C](#)). Tumor fragments were rapidly processed to maximize their viability and ensure good explant quality. GB-EXPs were cultured immediately after resection, but also after short time storage at -140°, confirming that viable cultures can be grown either from fresh or flash-frozen DMSO supplemented media, thus facilitating the whole procedure (20). GB-EXPs were cultured by embedding them into Matrigel or suspension (no single-cell dissociation was performed) ([Figure 1C](#)). To reduce clonal selection and maintain tumor heterogeneity and parental cytoarchitecture, explant cultures were not grown for more than 2 weeks. *In vitro* these GB-EXPs represent the actual pathological conditions *in vivo* as closely as possible. Before culturing, GB tissues were subjected to H&E staining and histological analysis, which was performed by an expert pathologist to confirm the GB features ([Figure 1D](#), [Supplementary Figure 2](#)). GB-EXPs still showed active proliferation within 2 weeks of culture ([Supplementary Figure 3](#)). Moreover, the vitality of GB-EXPs cultured in Matrigel was determined by setting up overnight live-imaging analyses, which revealed an intensive cell activity particularly evident at the surface of the explant in contact with the surrounding cells and neighboring explants, as shown in [Supplementary Video 1](#). To evaluate the viability of GB-EXPs, we performed a live/dead cell viability assay ([Figure 1E](#)) and Ki67 immunohistochemistry ([Figures 1F, G](#)). In GB-EXPs, Ki67 expression analysis by immunohistochemistry showed positivity

at either 0 or 2 weeks of culture, as shown in Figures 1F, G. Furthermore, the rate of proliferation was explored using Ki67 mRNA expression analysis (Figure 1H) and size analysis (19) (Figures 1I, J), which showed a slight gradual increase in the proliferation rate over time, specifically from week 0 to week 2, confirming the results of other culturing approaches reported in the literature (6). To assess whether GB-EXPs maintain the cyto-composition of parental tumors, we further characterized and explored cellular diversity among surgical GB tissues and GB-EXPs by choosing a panel of GB markers including GFAP (astrocytes), IBA1 (microglia), SOX2 (stem cells), CD105 (endothelial cells), and CD3 (lymphocytes). The presence of these cell types was confirmed by immunofluorescence assays on GB-EXPs, indicating retention of vasculature features and lymphocytes after two weeks of *in vitro* culturing (Figures 1K, L).

FLIM metabolic-imaging approach validation in known glioblastoma *in vitro* systems

Initially, to validate the efficacy of our FLIM-based metabolic imaging approach, we evaluated it using GB U87 and T98G cell lines, known to be TMZ-responsive and non-responsive, respectively (21). The two cell lines were tested in the 2D and 3D systems.

2D glioblastoma cell lines system

We investigated two different glioblastoma commercial cell lines that are sensitive and resistant to TMZ treatment, U87, and T98G (21–23). To monitor intracellular molecular changes associated with drug treatment, FLIM image data were recorded from 12 fields of view for each slide of both cell lines 72 hr post treatment, targeting the autofluorescence of the intracellular metabolic cofactor NAD(P)H.

Figures 2A–C shows representative images of a cellular field of 2D-U87 and 2D-T98G cells, including brightfield images (top row) and phasor-FLIM NAD(P)H lifetime map (on the bottom) colored in accordance with the color bar defined on the side. The color bar defines the metabolic pathway from NAD(P)H in the bound state (red/magenta) to NAD(P)H in the free state (green/white), as explained in the Materials and Methods section (Supplementary Figures 1A, B). Based on phasor-based FLIM data analysis, we obtained a fractional NAD(P)H distribution curve of free and bound NAD(P)H molecules for each image (see Materials and Methods and Supplementary Figures 1A, B), which identifies a metabolic signature that goes from an oxidative phosphorylation phenotype with low free/bound NAD(P)H fractions to a glycolytic phenotype with high free/bound NAD(P)H (17). In Figures 2B, D, we report the fractional NAD(P)H mean distribution curves of the control and TMZ-treated 2D-U87 (Figure 2B) and 2D-T98G cell lines (Figure 2D).

The average distribution curves were broken down into different histograms, representing each specific fraction of free-state NAD(P)H and consequently of protein-bound molecules (see Materials and Methods). Differences between fractional NAD(P)H mean distribution curves were evaluated by statistically comparing each histogram of the treated group against the same one in the control group using Student's t-test (Figures 2B, D) (see Materials and Methods). Therefore, the difference between the two curves was expressed as a percentage of drug response (%DR) calculated considering the area of the significant histograms (in green, Figures 2B, D) out of the total histogram area under the treated GB-EXPs curve (see Materials and Methods).

In TMZ-treated sensitive 2D-U87 cells, distinctive FLIM signatures were observed with a statistically significant left-bound shift (red curve) towards a higher fraction of bound NAD(P)H compared with TMZ-treated cells to control cells, with 92%DR (Figure 2B). The 2D-T98G cell lines showed no changes in FLIM signatures, as represented by the overlapping of the control and treated distributions (0%DR) (Figure 2D).

The percentages of differences between the NAD(P)H fractional distribution curves of the control and treated samples for both cell lines were well reflected, as well as in the phasor maps obtained for each cellular field, as shown in Figures 2A, C.

We linked these shifts in FLIM data distribution curves after treatment to changes in NAD(P)H lifetimes, as reported in several studies in the literature (12). The observed shift towards higher fractions of bound NAD(P)H is often associated with a more oxidative-oriented metabolism, which is characteristic of less proliferative cells (11, 12, 24, 25). This is consistent with the results of the proliferation assay shown in Figure 2E. Figures 2E, F show the proliferation assay for both cell lines 72 h post-treatment with 100 μ M and 500 μ M μ M TMZ. The drug doses were chosen based on previous reports (21–23). 2D-U87 cells showed a statistically significant decrease in proliferation with both TMZ dosages (Figure 2E), while 2D-T98G cells showed no statistical difference between treated and control cells (Figures 2F).

As an indicator of cell proliferation, we also measured by real time PCR the expression level of Ki67 at 72 h in TMZ-treated and control 2D-U87 and 2D-T98G cell lines (Figure 2G). 2D-U87 TMZ-treated cell lines showed a statistically significant reduction in Ki67 mRNA expression compared to control cells, consistent with the observed lower rate of cell proliferation, while no difference was detected in 2D-T98G cells (Figure 2G).

3D glioblastoma spheroids system

To mimic the 3D structures of GB-EXPs, TMZ responder 3D-U87 and TMZ Non Responder 3D-T98G spheroids were used to measure the impact of TMZ drug response on FLIM metabolic imaging data. In the literature, several TMZ dilutions

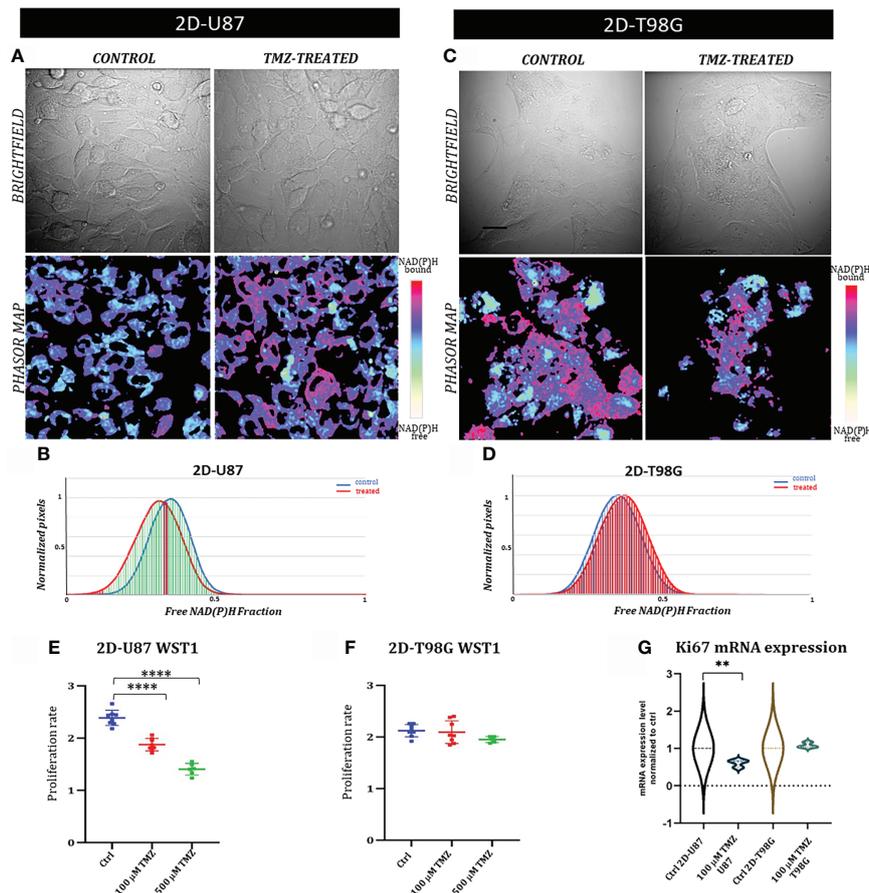


FIGURE 2

2D glioblastoma cell lines system: FLIM-based metabolic imaging in GB commercial cell lines TMZ responder 2D-U87 and TMZ non responder 2D-T98G. (A, C) Representative images of 2D-U87 (A) and 2D-T98G (C) subdivided in brightfield images and the corresponding phasor maps. Scale bar, 30 μ m. (B, D) NAD(P)H fractional mean distribution curves of control (blue) and treated cells (red) for 2D-U87 (B) and 2D-T98G cells (D), 72 hrs post TMZ treatment. (E, F) Proliferation curves of 2D-U87 (E) and 2D-T98G cell lines (F) after 72 hrs ($p < 0.001$, Student's t test). (G) Ki67 mRNA expression using real-time PCR in control and treated cells, 72hrs after treatment ($p = 0.002$, Student's t-test). Asterisks indicate level of statistical significance.

ranging from 1μ M to 1mM have been studied on GB organoids (26) with the most effective doses between 250μ M and 1mM. In line with these results, we selected 600μ M. FLIM data were acquired at 72 h for a total of 10 spheroids with characteristic dimensions in the 70-200 μ m range for each experimental condition. In Figures 3A, C, representative images of a spheroid are shown, including brightfield images (top row) and NAD(P)H-FLIM phasor map (bottom) colored in accordance with the color bar defined on the side. As reported for the 2D cell line system, in Figures 3B, D, we obtained the fractional NAD(P)H mean distribution curves of the control and TMZ-treated 3D-U87 (Figures 3B) and 3D-T98G spheroids (Figure 3D). After 72 h of TMZ exposure in responsive 3D-U87 spheroids, the treated fractional NAD(P)H mean curve showed a statistically significant shift towards higher fractions of NAD(P) H-bound molecules when compared to controls (see Figures 3B), as demonstrated by a 55%DR. As previously

discussed, this indicates an increase in the oxidative metabolism typical of a less proliferative state (10, 12, 27). The %DR is shown by green histograms in Figures 3B and is reflected in the phasor map of a representative spheroid, as shown in Figures 3A, C.

To support the FLIM results, we performed spheroid size measurements over time using dedicated software (OrganoSeg) (19). Control and TMZ-treated spheroids for both cell lines were followed up for two weeks after treatment and photographed at 0, 1, and 2 weeks. A representative bright-field image of 3D-U87 and 3D-T98G spheroids at each time point is shown in Figures 3E, F together with the matched area size image for both experimental conditions (control and treated). The area size measurement of the 3D-U87 images at each time point revealed a statistically significant increase in size for the control spheroids ($n = 12$) (p -value = 0.03, Student's t-test), and as expected, a statistically significant decrease was detected for

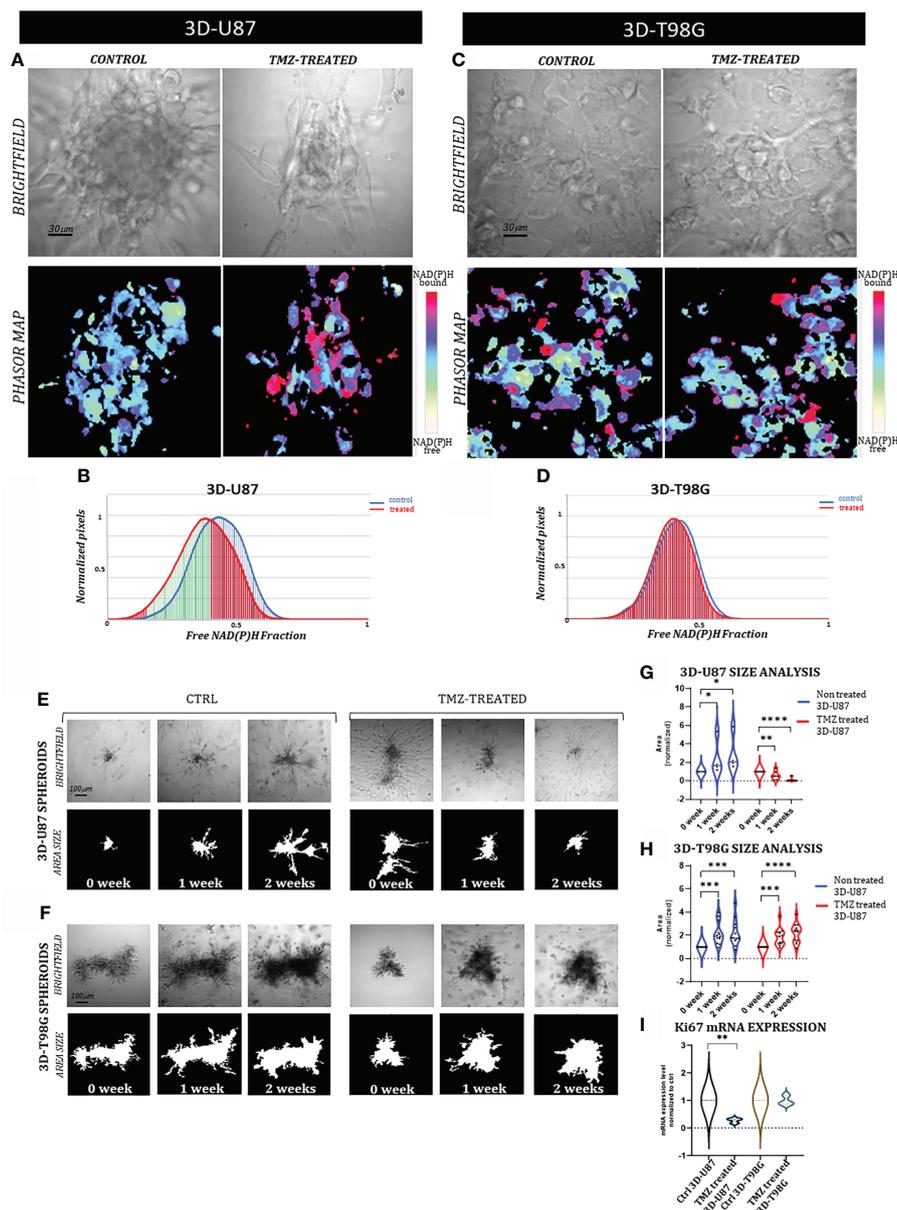


FIGURE 3

FLIM-based metabolic imaging in 3D-U87 and 3D-T98G. (A, C) Representative images of 3D-U87 (A) and 3D-T98G (C) controls and treated cells, subdivided in brightfield images of a spheroid and the corresponding phasor map displayed in a false color scale with the coding shown by the bar on the side of the figure. Scale bar, 30 μm . (B, D) NAD(P)H fractional mean distribution curves of controls (blue) and treated cells (red) of 3D-U87 (B) and 3D-T98G cells (D). (B) 3D-U87 cells show a statistically significant higher fraction of bound-state NAD(P)H in the treated group compared to the ctrl group (55%DR). (D) In 3D-T98G no difference was found between ctrl and treated cells in fractions of NAD(P)H bound molecules (0%DR). (E, F) Representative brightfield, and area size images of a 3D-U87 (E) and a 3D-T98G (F) control and TMZ 600 μM treated sample at 0 week, 1 week and 2 weeks. Scale bar, 100 μm . (G) Size analysis of 3D-U87 cells reveals at 1 and 2 weeks a significant increased area for controls (n=12) (p-value=0.03, Student's t test), and a significant decreased area for TMZ treated samples (n=12) (p-value=0.003 and p-value<0.00002, respectively, Student's t test). (H) Size analysis of 3D-T98G cells reveals at 1 and 2 weeks a significant increased area for controls (n=12) (p-value=0.0001, Student's t-test), and a significant increased area for TMZ treated samples (n=12) (p-value=0.001, p-value<0.00002, respectively, Student's t test). 1 and 2 week areas are normalized to spheroids area at 0 week. (I) Ki67 mRNA expression at 72hrs shows a statistical decrease in rate of proliferation in 3D-U87 TMZ treated compared to controls (p-value=0.002, Student's t test), unlike 3D-T98G. Asterisks indicate level of statistical significance.