



An original donor-dependent spheroid system for the prediction of idiosyncratic drug-induced liver injury risk

Sara Cherradi¹ · Nicolas Taulet¹ · Hong Tuan Duong¹

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Abstract

One major drawback of preclinical models to test drug-induced liver injury (DILI) is their inability to predict the interindividual difference of DILI effect in a population. Consequently, a high number of molecules that passed preclinical phases, fail clinical trials, and many FDA-approved drugs were removed from the market due to idiosyncratic DILI. We use a proprietary-depleted human serum-based cell educating technology to generate donor-dependent spheroids with distinct morphology and functionality. We demonstrate that educated spheroids could capture the large variations in susceptibility to drug-induced liver injury between donors. We show that the model could predict clinical apparent DILI risk with a high specificity and sensitivity. We provide evidence that the model could address non-genetic factor-associated DILI risk and severity such as age or sex. Our study supports the benefit of using donor-dependent educated spheroids for hepatotoxicity evaluation in preclinical phase or in an exploratory study clinical trial phase 2 to provide a robust safety profile to a drug.

Keywords Educated spheroid · Drug-induced liver injury · Hepatotoxicity · Preclinical model · Non-genetic host factor risk

Introduction

The lack of sufficient compliance between preclinical models, including non-animal and animal models, and human physiology is a major cause of poor efficacy or of high toxicity of a drug when entering clinical trials [1, 2]. It is well accepted that people's susceptibility in drug responsiveness and drug-induced liver injury (DILI) is the main challenge in drug development and precision medicine [3, 4]. Nevertheless, it is currently impossible to test the interindividual variability of drug-mediated cellular responses before initiating clinical trials because of the lack of models that mimic that interindividual difference in a population [5]. Therefore, the generation of in vitro systems capable of mimicking cell functionality of human livers of a representative population to analyze drug-induced hepatotoxicity is necessary for the determination of safe medication dose ranges.

Because in normal physiological as well as in pathological conditions liver cells functions are not exclusively modulated by the intra-organ microenvironment but also by

the inter-organ communication through plethora of released compounds including soluble factors, exosomes, and gut microbiota-derived metabolites and products that are found in the bloodstream [6–13], we developed a method that utilize depleted serum from each person to educate hepatic cell lines cultured as spheroids, to phenotypically mimic the interindividual difference in drug responsiveness.

We show that donor-dependent educated spheroids can predict clinical apparent DILI risk with a high specificity and sensitivity. Importantly, we demonstrate that our system could be used to assess non-genetic host factors such as age or sex that are linked to DILI risk and severity. To our knowledge, this is the first easy to set up human-derived model that better represents the variation of the human population making it a perfect tool to de-risk DILI for new compounds in development in pre-phase 1 or to provide a more robust safety profile to the drug in an exploratory study clinical trial phase 2.

Material and methods

Reagents, depleted serum, and cells

Blood samples are provided by the Etablissement Français du Sang (EFS) Hauts de France–Normandie. Depleted human

✉ Hong Tuan Duong
ht.duong@predictcan.com

¹ PredictCan Biotechnologies SAS, Biopôle Euromédecine, Grabels, France

serum was obtained after a filtration step through a 0.45- μm mesh filter. The study was approved by the “Direction Générale de la recherche et de l’innovation” (CODECOH, n°DC-2021-4779). This project does not involve the human person according to the legislation (article L1121-1 du code de la santé publique). Albuterol, flavoxate, etoposide, β -estradiol, nizatidine, azathioprine, oxaliplatin, bosentan, sorafenib, cabozantinib, lenvatinib, rifampicin, and stavudine were purchased from CliniSciences (Nanterre, France). Hepatocyte (HepG2) and hepatic stellate cell lines (TWNT-1) were from ATCC (Molshheim, France) and Glow Biologics (Tarrytown, NY, USA), respectively. All cell culture reagents were provided by StemCell (Saint Égrève, France). Hepatocytes and hepatic stellate cells were conditioned for a minimum of 2 weeks in MammoCult® basal medium (StemCell) before use, to sensitize them to the cell educating technology. Absence of mycoplasma contamination was verified using MycoAlert® Mycoplasma Detection Kit from Lonza (Saint-Beauzire, France).

Generation of educated spheroids and treatments

Educated spheroids were generated from a co-culture of HepG2 and TWNT-1 cell lines in MammoCult® basal medium supplemented with depleted human serum for 3 days in 384 wells ultra-low attachment plates (Dutscher SAS, Bernolsheim, France). A dose-dependent treatment ranging from 0.01 \times to 100 \times C_{max} for each compound was performed for up to 96 h on educated spheroids. Cell viability was measured using CellTiterGlo (Promega, Charbonnières-les-Bains, France) according to the manufacturer’s instructions.

Cytochrome P450 activity and total collagen type I quantification

CYP3A4 activity and total collagen deposition were assessed using P450-Glo™ CYP3A4 Assay (Promega, Charbonnières-les-Bains, France) and Total Collagen Assay Kit (Perchlorate-Free) (ab222942, Abcam, Paris, France) according to the manufacturer’s instructions, respectively.

Immunofluorescence

Donor-dependent educated spheroids were cultured for 3 days in 96 wells ultra-low attachment plates (Dutscher, Bernolsheim, France). Spheroids were fixed with PBS-10% PFA (Fisher Scientific, Illkirch, France) for 30 min, permeabilized with PBS-0.5% Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich, Saint-Quentin-Fallavier, France) for 2 h, and

incubated in blocking buffer (0.2% Triton X-100, Bovine Serum Albumin (Euromedex, Souffelweyersheim, France) in PBS) for 2 h at room temperature. Primary antibodies, including FITC- α -tubulin (F2168, Sigma-Aldrich), type 1 collagen (COL1A1, #72026, Cell Signaling, Ozyme, Saint-Cyr-L’École, France), Fibronectin (FN1, #26836, Cell signaling), FITC- α -smooth muscle Actin (ab8211, Abcam), ZO-1 (#61-7300, Life Technologies SAS, Courtaboeuf Cedex, France), and MRP2 (#4446, Cell Signaling) antibodies, were diluted in blocking buffer and incubated overnight at 4 °C. After washes with blocking buffer, the secondary antibody (anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 555, #4413, Cell Signaling) was added for 3 h at room temperature followed by nuclei staining with DAPI (#4083, Cell Signaling). Spheroids were transferred into μ -Slide 8 Well (Ibidi, CliniSciences, Nanterre, France), and images were acquired on a Dragonfly spinning disk confocal microscope (Andor, Oxford Instruments, High Wycombe, UK) equipped with EMCCD iXon888 Life Andor camera (Objective 20X/0.75 NA) and controlled by Fusion software (Andor). Fluorescence intensity was quantified using ImageJ software. Values were obtained from z-stack projections (sum slices) and correspond to the median values of the pixels in the images after background subtraction. 3D views were performed with Imaris software (Bitplane).

RNA sequencing

RNAseq experiments were performed by Acobiom (Grabels, France). RNA extraction was performed using miRNeasy kit (Qiagen, Courtaboeuf, France), with on-column DNase digestion according to manufacturer’s instructions. Briefly, educated spheroids were homogenized in 700 μl QIAzol® Lysis Reagent in a 2-ml SafeLock microcentrifuge tube. One 2-mm stainless steel bead was added to each sample and they were disrupted by mechanically using TissueLyzer (Qiagen) 2 \times 2 min at 20 Hz. Samples were then incubated 5 min at room temperature. One hundred forty microliters chloroform was added to the homogenate. Tubes were shaken vigorously for 15 s, and they were placed back onto the benchtop for another 3 min. Lysates were centrifuged at 12,000 \times g for 15 min at 4 °C in a microcentrifuge. Upper aqueous phases were carefully transferred to clean 2-ml microcentrifuge tubes. RNA was eluted in water and immediately stored at – 80 °C until use. The full procedure was performed using QIAcube automated workstation (QIAcube–QIAGEN) to optimize reproducibility of RNA extraction. RNA integrity was assessed using Agilent 2200 TapeStation with

RNA ScreenTapes. RINe (RNA Integrity Number equivalent) scores were > 7.7 for all samples. RNA-seq libraries were prepared following the protocol TruSeq Stranded Total RNA and validated on labchip GX platform. Human GRCh38.p13 genome was used as a reference. RNA-Seq data were mapped and annotated using Ensembl database release 108 (<https://www.ensembl.org>).

Graphs and statistics

Plots and statistics were generated using GraphPad Prism v9 (Dotmatrix, San Diego, CA); otherwise, Excel (Microsoft Office 364).

Results

We used depleted serum prepared from blood sampling of healthy donors to educate spheroids containing human hepatic and human stellate cell lines (HepG2 and TWNT-1) (Fig. 1A). By adding depleted human serum to the cell culture medium, we observed that the rate of autonomous spheroid formation varies between donors, and their shapes are different after 3 days of culture (Fig. 1B). Confocal microscopy analysis revealed that the spheroids are positive for ZO-1, a tight junction protein [14], and MRP2, an ATP-binding cassette transporter that has an important role in the detoxification and chemoprotection [15], suggesting that educated spheroids contain functional bile canalicular structures (Fig. 1C). We showed also that the level of activation of hepatic stellate cells is donor-dependent (Fig. 1D), and consequently, we observed that the amount of spontaneous deposition of extracellular matrix (ECM), such as type I collagen and fibronectin, varies also between donors (Fig. 1E).

To further characterize donor-dependent educated spheroids, their molecular signatures were assessed by RNAseq. Principal component analysis (PCA) showed a clear separation of educated spheroids from non-educated spheroids (Fig. 2A). Analysis of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) indicates that the expression of 1460 genes differs between educated and non-educated spheroids. Among those 1460 DEGs, we found that 591 genes (40.5%) were upregulated while 869 DEGs (59.5%) were downregulated after the educating step (Fig. 2B). Gene Ontology analysis showed that these differentially expressed genes are assigned to biological regulation, cellular, metabolic, signaling, ATP-dependent, response to stimuli, and binding processes, as well as to catalytic, regulatory, and transport activities (Fig. 2C). Interestingly, we found also that educated spheroids showed

an increase in CYP3A4 basal activity by 2 to 19 times as compared to non-educated spheroids (Fig. 2D).

The induction of the activity of CYP3A4 that metabolizes about half of all drugs on the market [16] was assessed after treatment for 4 days with bosentan and rifampicin. As expected, we found an enhanced metabolizing CYP activity in a donor-dependent manner, ranging from 1.5 to 80 times upon bosentan treatment (Fig. 3A) and from 1.5 to 55 times upon rifampicin treatment (Fig. 3B). Our data indicate that donor-dependent educated spheroids may be valuable experimental tools for predicting drug metabolism and thus drug-induced liver injury.

To test whether donor-dependent educated spheroids could estimate the actual DILI in a population, we experimentally generated treatment groups of 24 randomly selected individuals (from $n = 109$ donors) and performed a DILI risk prediction. The number of donors included in each group was determined based on the study published by Fermini and colleagues, where the authors reported that a sample size of 24 is sufficient to have 92% of chance to detect an event with 10% incidence [17]. The age, the sex, and the ABO blood type of the donors are reported in Table 1. Educated spheroids were treated with a panel of drugs with clinical apparent DILI. These drugs are known as difficult-to-detect DILI compounds by current preclinical models. The concentrations of the drugs used range from $0.01 \times C_{\max}$ to $100 \times C_{\max}$. DILI risk is determined using the numerical margin of safety (MOS) [18–21] calculated with the drug concentration that induced at least 20% of cell death. ROC curve analysis showed that MOS_{20} can discriminate DILI-positive drugs from DILI-negative drugs with an optimal cut point at $100 \times C_{\max}$ and an area under the curve (AUC) of 0.8726 (Fig. 4A). For each drug and for each donor included in the study, we generated an inhibitory dose-response curve fit with constrains (top = 100; bottom = 0) and calculated the LogIC50 and HillSlope values (Table 2). The DILI risk is estimated by using the toxicity score (TS) that is calculated with the formula reported in Table 2. A drug is considered as at clinical DILI risk if at least 10% of individuals within the cohort are categorized as DILI positive (based on the TS) (Table 2). As expected, we found a variation in the susceptibility to drug-induced liver injury between donors. We observed that in the cohorts that were treated with albuterol or with flavoxate, only 8.3% and 4.2% of donors were DILI positive confirming that these drugs have no clinical DILI concerns (Fig. 4B). In contrast, in cohorts that were treated with etoposide, β -estradiol, nizatidine, azathioprine, oxaliplatin, bosentan, and stavudine, 75%, 54.2%, 54.2%, 91.7%, 100%, 100%, and 45.8% of donors,

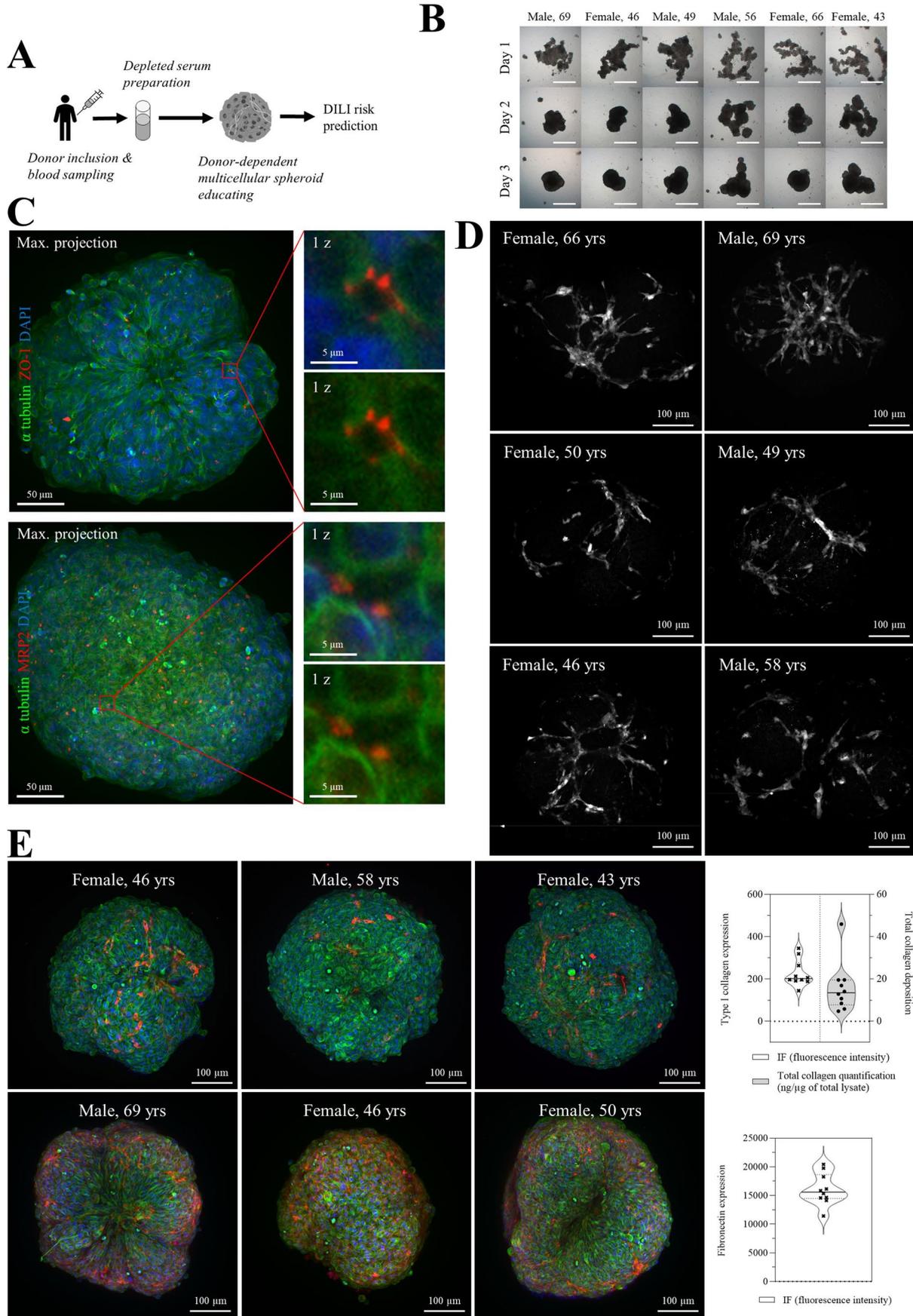


Fig. 1 Donor-dependent educated spheroids display a distinct phenotype and ECM production. **A** Workflow of cell line-based spheroids educating. **B** Spheroids were educated for 3 days with donor’s sera. Pictures show the phenotypes at days 1, 2, and 3. Scale bar: 250 μm . **C** Formation of bile canalicular structure. Educated spheroids were generated with the depleted serum of a 41-year-old female and then stained for ZO-1 and MRP2. **D** Activation of hepatic stellate cells. Educated spheroids from 6 different donors were stained for $\alpha\text{-SMA}$ after 3 days of culture. Scale bar: 100 μm . **E** Educated spheroids from different donors were stained for type 1 collagen, fibronectin, and $\alpha\text{-tubulin}$ after 3 days of culture. Violin plots (upper right) show a quantification of type 1 collagen protein deposition by immunofluorescence and by colorimetric assay for 10 different donors. Violin plot (lower right) shows the quantification of fibronectin deposition for 10 different donors. Each dot corresponds to one donor. Solid line is the median. Dotted thin black lines show quartiles

were DILI positive, respectively, confirming that these drugs are clinically at high risk for DILI development (Fig. 4B; Table 3).

Idiosyncratic DILI is generally difficult to predict and is usually not dose related contrary to intrinsic DILI that develops in a dose-dependent manner [22]. Interestingly, we found that azathioprine, a well-known iDILI drug [23], induces a reduction of about 35% of cell viability up to a concentration of $10\times C_{\text{max}}$. This decrease of cell viability then remained unchanged even at higher doses of azathioprine while sorafenib displayed a clear dose-dependent reduction of cell viability (Fig. 4C). Our data suggest that

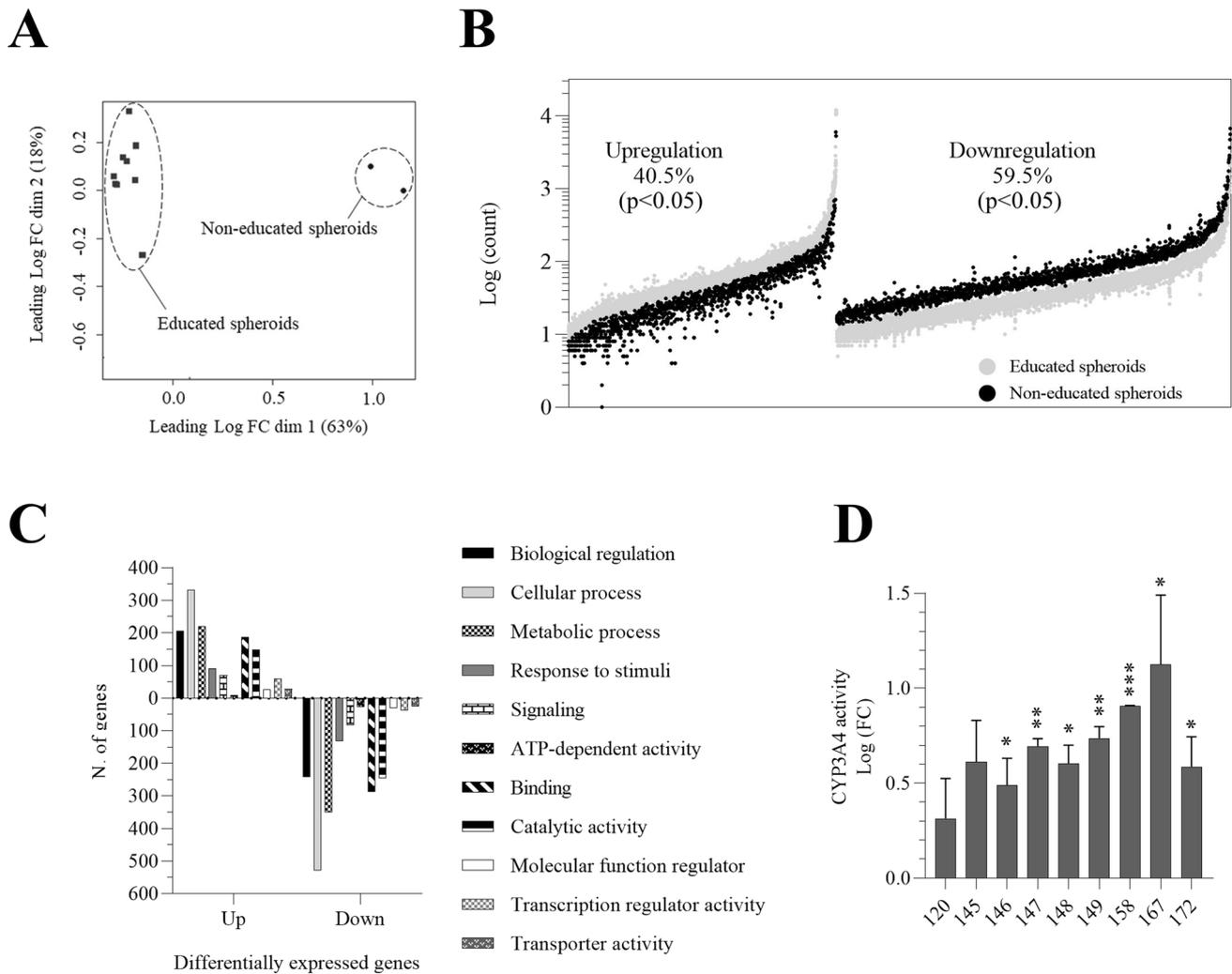
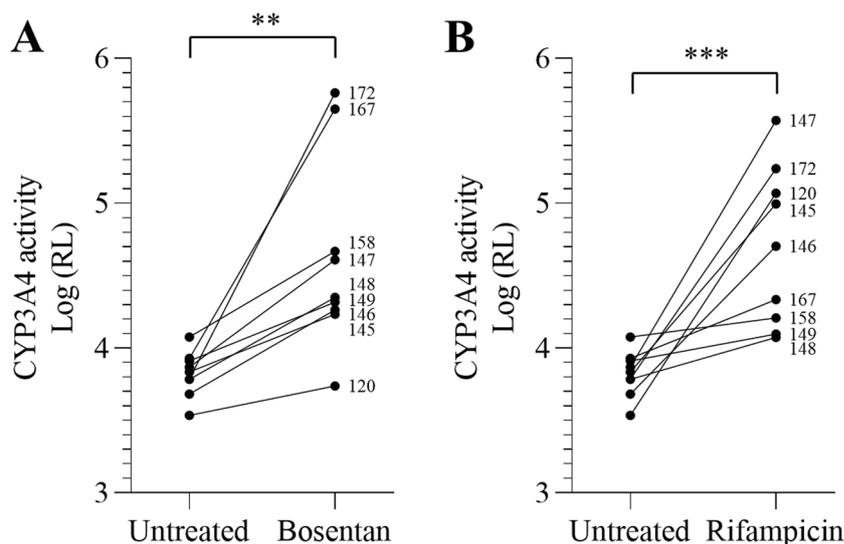


Fig. 2 Alteration of the transcriptomic profile and upregulation of the basal CYP3A4 activity in educated spheroids. **A** Principal component analysis separates transcripts from educated and non-educated spheroids. Educated spheroids from 10 different donors and non-educated spheroids were sequenced after 3 days of culture. **B** Analysis of differentially expressed genes (DEGs). 1460 DEGs were found after the educating step. Fisher’s *t*-test **C** Gene Ontology (GO) analysis of DEGs using PANTHER classification

system. Graph shows the number of differentially expressed genes compared to non-educated condition with $p < 0.05$. **D** Increased CYP3A4 basal activity in educated spheroids as compared to non-educated spheroids. CYP3A4 activity was measured after 3 days of culture. Shown are the results from 9 donors. Results are expressed as mean \pm s.e.m. of Log fold change to non-educated spheroids. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, Fisher’s *t*-test

Fig. 3 Induction of drug metabolizing capacity in educated spheroids. CYP3A4 activity was measured in educated spheroids from 9 different donors after 4 days of exposure to bosentan (A) or to rifampicin (B). Results are shown as Log relative luminescence. Educated spheroids significantly increased CYP3A4 activity in response to bosentan and rifampicin. $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, Mann-Whitney t -test



donor-dependent educated spheroids might be capable of predicting iDILI risk.

Next, we assessed the reliability of our educated spheroid system to predict DILI risk. For that, we performed 2 independent experiments including 10 donors in the first cohort and 23 donors in the second cohort. Educated spheroids were treated with sorafenib, and we calculated the TS for each donor. As expected, we found that all donors from both cohorts were DILI positive upon exposure to sorafenib demonstrating that our results are consistent between 2 independent experiments (Fig. 4D).

The performance of educated spheroids to predict DILI risk was assessed by comparing our results to those obtained from other in vitro and in vivo models. We found that educated spheroids correctly predicted clinical DILI in 9 drugs out of 9 and did not falsely mark albuterol, flvoxate, and lenvatinib as toxic, yielding a sensitivity and a specificity of 100% (Fig. 5). Meanwhile, other in vitro models and animal models were not capable to detect β -estradiol and stavudine-mediated DILI. Taken together, these data demonstrate that the educated spheroid system is more sensitive than current preclinical models to predict clinical DILI risk.

As non-genetic host factors that are associated to DILI development are age [24, 25] and sex [26–28], we analyzed age- and sex-associated DILI risk and DILI severity upon treatment with clinical DILI positive drugs. Figure 6 shows the risk for DILI development and the degree of severity (ranked accordingly to the TS) for each donor included in the study. As expected, cohorts treated with non-toxic drugs (flvoxate, albuterol, and lenvatinib) did not have more than 2 donors out of 24 (8.3%) who displayed a low DILI-positive risk while those treated with DILI-positive drugs have at least 11 donors (stavudine) out of 24 (45.8%) who

showed a clear DILI-positive risk at different degrees of severity (Fig. 6). We then analyzed how much age and sex influence DILI risk and severity. We found that DILI risk is associated with the sex of the donor for β -estradiol ($\eta_p^2 = 0.1595$, $p = 0.0532$), while it is associated with the age of the donor for nizatidine ($\eta_p^2 = 0.3414$, $p = 0.0027$) (Fig. 6; Table 4). From 9 DILI-positive drugs tested, we found that the severity of DILI is associated with the age of the donors for β -estradiol ($R^2 = 0.3298$, $p = 0.0401$) and oxaliplatin ($R^2 = 0.2247$, $p = 0.0193$) (Fig. 6, Table 4). Overall, our data confirm that age and sex are host risk factors for DILI for some medications [29–31].

Discussion

Drug-induced hepatotoxicity is a major challenge in drug development and personalized medicine [32]. Indeed, 90% of drugs that passed preclinical testing fail clinical trials because of liver toxicity [33]. Moreover, treatment discontinuation due to hepatotoxicity occurred in 20 to 40% of patients [34]. These observations suggest that an improvement of preclinical testing of DILI is urgently needed for the development of safer medications. We present here an easy to set up, to handle, and affordable model that reproduces the variability among people. This model makes possible the analysis of DILI risk in a population and thus de-risking failure when entering first-in-human trials. Furthermore, it also provides a way to give a more robust safety profile to a drug when it is used in an exploratory study in clinical trials phase 2.

One major drawback of currently available models to predict DILI risk is their inability to generate a functional

Table 1 Donor’s characteristics

Donor #	Sex	Age	ABO blood type	Used in figure	Donor #	Sex	Age	ABO blood type	Used in figure
11	M	24	O	4D	89	M	25	O	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6
12	M	44	O	4D	90	M	27	O	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6
13	F	67	A	4D	91	F	24	O	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6
14	M	46	A	4D	92	M	51	B	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6
15	F	33	A	4D	93	F	23	O	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6
16	M	57	O	4D	94	F	38	O	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6
17	M	38	O	4D	95	M	59	O	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6
18	F	52	O	4D	96	M	42	O	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6
19	M	61	B	4D, 6	97	F	54	O	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6
20	M	52	A	4D	98	M	37	A	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6
21	M	69	B	1B, 1D, 2	99	F	27	O	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6
22	F	47	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	100	F	23	O	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6
23	F	46	A	1B, 1D, 1E, 2	101	M	62	A	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6
24	F	43	A	1E, 2	102	F	30	O	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6
25	M	49	O	1B, 1D, 2	103	F	50	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6
26	M	56	A	1B, 1E, 2	104	M	26	B	4A, 4B, 5, 6
27	F	65	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	105	F	41	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6
28	M	63	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6	106	F	20	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6
29	F	50	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	107	M	20	B	4A, 4B, 5, 6
30	F	66	O	1B, 1D, 1E, 2	108	F	30	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6
31	F	50	O	1D, 2	109	M	24	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6
32	F	55	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	110	F	36	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6
33	F	43	B	1B, 1E, 2	111	F	50	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6
34	M	58	A	1D, 1E, 2	112	M	63	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6
35	F	41	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	113	F	22	B	4A, 4B, 5, 6
36	F	51	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	114	M	18	B	4A, 4B, 5, 6
37	M	51	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	115	M	30	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6
38	F	36	O	1E, 4A, 4B, 5, 6	118	F	21	A	6
39	F	36	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	119	F	23	O	6
39	F	36	A	6	120	F	20	A	2D, 3A, 3B, 6
40	M	50	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	121	F	45	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6
41	F	38	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	122	F	65	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6
42	M	50	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	123	F	50	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6
43	F	70	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	124	F	64	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6
44	F	34	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	125	M	60	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6
45	M	38	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	126	F	49	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6
46	F	46	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	127	M	63	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6
47	F	46	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	128	M	58	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6
48	F	34	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	129	F	40	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6
49	F	60	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	130	F	36	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6
50	F	32	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	131	F	44	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6
51	F	33	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	132	M	47	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6
52	F	56	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	133	F	57	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6
53	M	32	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	134	M	62	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6
54	F	30	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	135	F	41	AB	1C
55	M	55	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	135	F	41	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6
56	F	48	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	136	M	52	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6
57	F	44	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	137	M	46	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6
58	M	42	B	2	138	F	36	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6

Table 1 (continued)

Donor #	Sex	Age	ABO blood type	Used in figure	Donor #	Sex	Age	ABO blood type	Used in figure
59	F	43	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	139	F	35	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6
60	F	28	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	140	M	58	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6
61	F	29	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	141	M	39	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6
62	F	38	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	142	M	46	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6
63	F	49	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	143	F	36	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6
64	F	29	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	144	M	50	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6
65	M	45	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	144	M	50	AB	4A, 4B, 5, 6
66	F	43	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	145	M	52	A	2D, 3A, 3B, 4C, 4D, 6
67	F	43	B	4A, 4B, 5, 6	146	M	30	AB	2D, 3A, 3B, 4C, 4D, 6
68	F	31	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	147	M	48	A	2D, 3A, 3B, 4C, 4D, 6
69	F	28	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	148	M	29	AB	2D, 3A, 3B, 4C, 4D, 6
70	M	27	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	149	F	30	O	2D, 3A, 3B, 4C, 4D, 6
71	F	28	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	150	F	33	AB	4C, 4D, 6
72	M	36	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	151	M	28	O	4C, 4D, 6
73	F	26	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	152	M	41	AB	4C, 4D, 6
74	F	24	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	153	M	26	AB	4C, 4D, 6
75	F	57	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	154	M	27	AB	4C, 4D, 6
76	M	30	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	155	M	27	AB	4C, 4D, 6
77	M	20	O	4A, 4B, 5, 6	156	F	38	A	4C, 4D, 6
78	M	23	A	4A, 4B, 5, 6	157	F	45	AB	4C, 4D, 6
79	F	23	A	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6	158	F	65	O	2D, 3A, 3B, 4C, 4D, 6
80	F	55	O	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6	159	F	36	AB	4C, 4D, 6
81	M	31	A	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6	160	F	49	A	4C, 4D, 6
82	M	20	A	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6	161	F	43	A	4C, 4D, 6
83	F	26	O	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6	163	M	41	O	4C, 4D, 6
84	M	29	O	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6	164	M	37	AB	4C, 4D, 6
85	F	22	A	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6	165	F	25	O	4C, 4D, 6
86	M	26	A	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6	166	F	27	O	4C, 4D, 6
87	M	39	O	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6	167	M	47	O	2D, 3A, 3B, 4C, 4D, 6
88	M	52	A	4A, 4B, 4C, 5, 6	168	M	61	AB	4C, 4D, 6
					172	M	18	AB	2D, 3A, 3B

donor-dependent liver specific microenvironment. Indeed, cholestasis is the main cause of DILI and is associated with an alteration of bile canaliculi functions [35]. As such, these canalicular structures are required for cholestasis toxicity detection [36]. We showed that educated spheroids trigger a spontaneous formation of bile canaliculi suggesting that our model is able to predict cholestasis toxicity (Fig. 1). Moreover, we demonstrated that the magnitude and the pattern of hepatic stellate cells activation is donor-dependent, and consequently, we observed a spontaneous donor-dependent deposition of ECM components (collagen and fibronectin) that are well known to influence DILI

occurrence [37] (Fig. 1). In-depth analysis of the model revealed that important metabolic and signaling pathways were altered in educated spheroids (Fig. 2), including glycolysis and response to stimuli. Interestingly, we found a downregulation of genes that are associated with cancer in educated HepG2-based spheroids suggesting a trend towards normal primary human hepatocytes [38]. Finally, cell lines such as HepG2 or Huh7 are generally of limited use for predicting drug-induced hepatotoxicity because of the low expression of ADME genes as compared to the liver, making that they cannot detect drug toxicity mediated by metabolism [39]. We demonstrated that educating

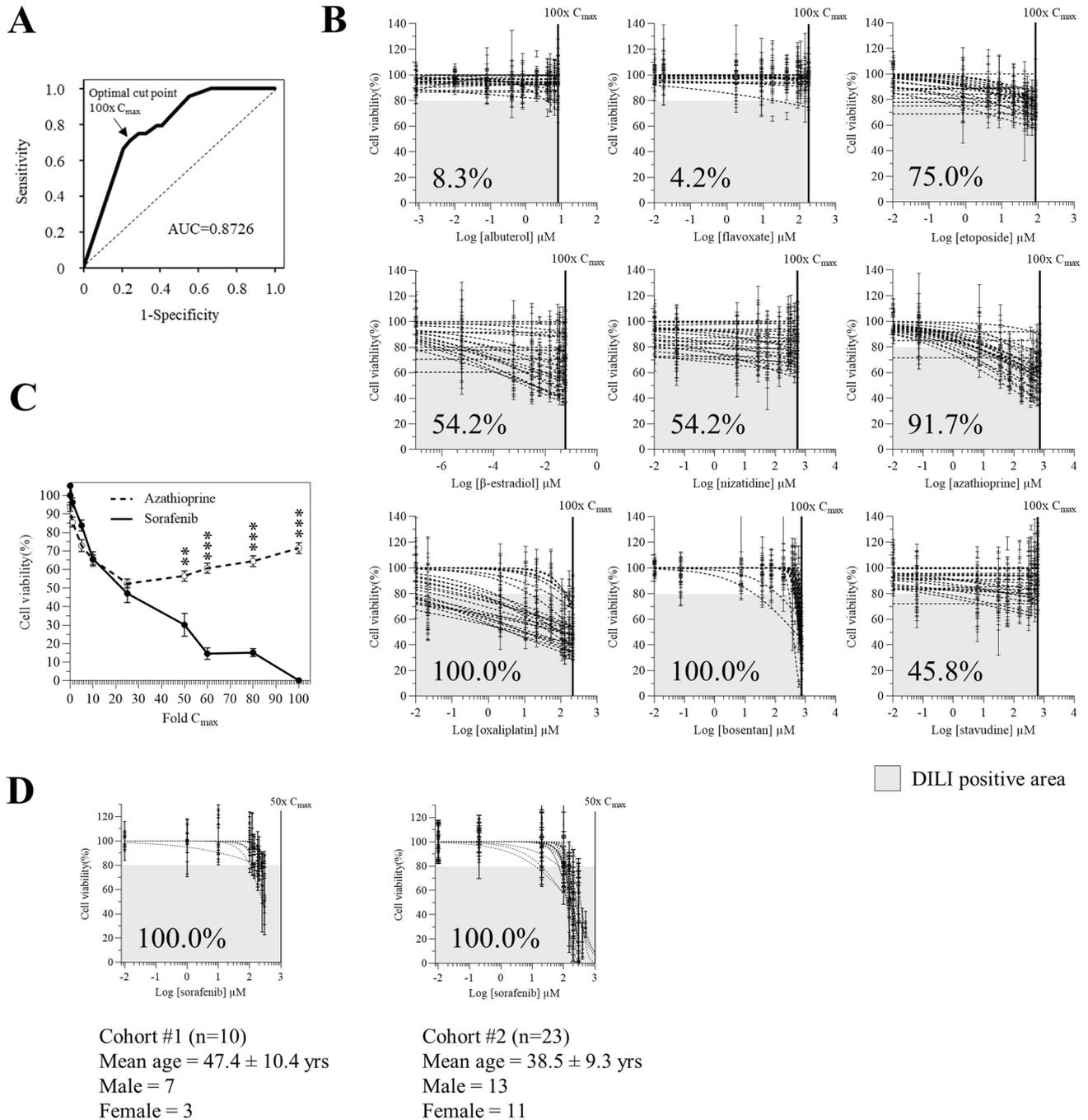


Fig. 4 Prediction of DILI risk by educated spheroids. **A** Receiver-operating curve (ROC) analysis of MOS_{20} as predictor of clinical DILI. ROC curve was generated from MOS_{20} of each donor of the independent groups, and the optimal cut point was determined. **B** Inhibitory dose-response curve fit with constrains (top = 100; bottom = 0) for each drug. DILI positive area is determined by the range [20% reduction of cell viability–100x C_{max}]. The percentage on the graph indicates the proportion of donors within a cohort of 24 donors, showing a DILI positive mark. Results are shown as percentage of

cell viability of at least a triplicate. **C** Ability of educated spheroids to detect iDILI drug in dose-independent manner. For each drug, educated spheroids from 24 donors were used. Treatment duration was 96 h, and the concentrations range from 0.01x to 100x C_{max} . Results are shown as percentage of cell viability of at least a triplicate. ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, Mann-Whitney t -test. **D** Reliability of educated spheroids to predict DILI risk. The experiment was performed on 2 independent cohorts. The concentrations used range from 0.01x to 50x C_{max}

Table 2 Toxicity score (TS)

$$TS = \text{Log}C_{50} - \frac{\text{Log}(0.25)}{\text{Hillslope}}$$

Cabozantinib				C ₅₀ =10µM
Donor #	LogIC50	Hillslope	Toxicity Score (TS)	
145	2.366	-1.824	2.039232508844	
146	2.488	-1.885	1.9881534262868	
147	2.546	-4.863	2.4221957675175	
148	2.523	-2.205	2.24995692003267	
149	2.176	-2.201	1.9024607036201	
150	2.255	-1.824	1.9249232508844	
151	2.022	-1.015	1.4275663647118	
152	2.094	-4.537	1.86129997987041	
153	2.276	-2.308	2.01514211814213	
154	2.241	-2.605	2.0098292079541	
155	2.346	-3.888	2.19114917918519	
156	2.308	-3.564	2.13007183183839	
157	2.302	-3.123	2.10921742192508	
158	2.393	-2.14	2.1116635545422	
159	2.38	-2.181	2.1039523194278	
160	2.362	-2.386	2.1096974378543	
161	2.1	-1.226	1.66992323489904	
163	2.229	-2.515	1.98961232849186	
164	2.292	-2.129	2.00920996179992	
165	2.307	-4.592	2.17588937471081	
166	2.219	-4.623	2.0887685043739	
167	2.136	-8.1763	2.36619951172588	
168	2.246	-2.298	2.28400696634889	

-3 < TS < Log(100 x C₅₀) = DILI positive

Bosentan				C ₅₀ =7.43µM
Donor #	LogIC50	Hillslope	Toxicity Score (TS)	
121	2.803	-4.861	2.67914482799146	
122	2.798	-8.076	2.72307079253112	
123	2.785	-2.341	2.62460442339584	
124	2.843	-4.056	2.6945611850888	
125	2.845	-7.34	2.76297547802071	
126	2.898	-2.94	2.6932176900243	
127	2.783	-5.645	2.67634632571092	
128	2.866	-4.543	2.4334752383666	
129	2.769	-4.151	2.62360625263118	
130	2.824	-6.048	2.72445304176191	
131	2.867	-6.489	2.7321837088449	
132	2.849	-11.02	2.7446660699754	
133	2.877	-55.33	2.8661872224963	
134	2.873	-5.92	2.8628306717406	
135	2.834	-5.457	2.73267196253107	
136	2.832	-3.345	2.65201196073902	
137	2.991	-3.646	2.8287009398575	
138	2.866	-5.488	2.75629519108456	
139	2.877	-9.859	2.8159329554032	
140	2.651	-4.468	1.30350673382382	
141	3.147	-4.5535	2.0592676050982	
142	2.848	-4.271	2.84637292574673	
143	2.788	-4.237	2.64590417935081	
144	2.802	-3.584	2.63401451134822	

-3 < TS < Log(100 x C₅₀) = DILI positive

β-estradiol				C ₅₀ =0.0006µM
Donor #	LogIC50	Hillslope	Toxicity Score (TS)	
22	-0.5271	-1.746	-0.87192246330494	
22	-1.46	-0.1533	-5.407319121283	
28	-2.34	-0.1662	-5.914829199339	
29	-2.386	-0.1253	-7.190948055291	
32	-169581	0.000001133	3704275.94022915	
35	-1922018	0.000000541	-899152.951334635	
36	-2.667	-0.1745	-6.11720523894	
37	0.5915	-0.134	-3.914850991017	
38	-1194228	0.0000002945	850118.32029684	
39	-2069603	0.0000008293	4562954.60675233	
40	-0.7257	-0.1399	-5.02920243979939	
41	1.538	-0.1282	-3.277838722654	
42	-1.745	-0.1867	-4.6077455360717	
43	-2.391	-0.1769	-5.79439169772732	
44	0.5447	-0.1095	-4.9356476098596	
45	3.294	-0.06555	-5.8907443375738	
46	-1099901	0.000005872	354.832105194851	
47	6.033	-0.1177	0.91739191734853	
48	1.426	-0.1415	-2.8284092812281	
49	21.32	-0.03882	5.8109842524208	
50	5.127	-0.1673	1.5281505482389	
51	0.071	-0.09366	-3.3434695662575	
52	-0.2799	-0.1579	-4.09281951442461	
53	-222458	0.0000007884	-1460910.11652973	

-3 < TS < Log(100 x C₅₀) = DILI positive

Oxaliplatin				C ₅₀ =4.1µM
Donor #	LogIC50	Hillslope	Toxicity Score (TS)	
22	2.546	-1.401	2.11628410326341	
27	2.02	-1.015	1.9116253032475	
28	0.417	-0.145	-3.73151787122733	
29	0.745	-0.1051	-5.0139490153867	
32	2.266	-0.1785	-1.1106648753765	
33	3.125	-0.4141	1.67109999679314	
36	0.3335	-0.1697	-3.1942001669266	
37	2.56	-0.64587	-2.48817691	
38	2.663	-0.1549	-1.2237659927671	
39	0.8087	-0.1828	-2.70727319039389	
40	1.948	-0.1265	-2.81136752037915	
41	1.983	-0.2943	-0.057735614441328	
42	1.04	-0.1353	-3.4098151613301	
43	0.7988	-0.1426	-3.4231957429289	
44	2.17	-0.1466	-1.98028122244667	
45	2.115	-0.2086	-0.77119363027145	
46	1.693	-0.2722	-0.51829502546004	
47	2.936	-0.647	2.0054900513452	
48	2.459	-0.449	1.11810915071723	
49	2.854	-0.794	2.0927304618645	
50	3.112	-0.6575	2.19631940482439	
51	2.717	-0.2107	-0.14042758105452	
52	2.962	-0.1374	-1.4198048593859	
53	2.648	-1.184	2.13950338570273	

-3 < TS < Log(100 x C₅₀) = DILI positive

Azithioprine				C ₅₀ =7.2µM
Donor #	LogIC50	Hillslope	Toxicity Score (TS)	
79	3.398	-0.1829	0.10625924942797	
80	3.928	-0.2055	0.99826782102373	
81	4.166	-0.2952	1.2260138439037	
82	5.113	-0.4298	1.712089545405	
83	3.465	-0.4743	0.57816629687032	
84	2.944	-0.2849	0.525116892569916	
85	3.515	-0.2736	1.31448833578961	
86	2.518	-0.2656	0.51207867800575	
87	3.521	-0.1835	1.0259594487724	
88	2.113	-0.2871	0.33638113313718	
89	1.618	-0.2125	-1.3123248866218	
90	2.479	-0.1799	-0.86763697326214	
91	1.999	-0.2264	-0.660275580070505	
92	3.575	-0.2563	1.0259594487724	
93	3.268	-0.2721	0.93639219687032	
94	4.238	-0.1851	0.985379841556119	
95	3.252	-0.2627	0.96018427389789	
96	4.806	-0.2452	2.33061667484518	
97	5.58	-0.2436	3.40848936256469	
98	3.926	-0.168	0.52329952425975	
99	3.186	-0.2815	1.04724337006052	
100	3.05	-0.248	0.62237846464313	
101	3.383	-0.2119	0.541754170231419	
102	3.42	-0.2003	0.414208730264791	

-3 < TS < Log(100 x C₅₀) = DILI positive

Etoposide				C ₅₀ =0.85µM
Donor #	LogIC50	Hillslope	Toxicity Score (TS)	
79	3.82	-0.3406	1.0252466369359	
80	3.16	-0.2161	0.37397051698462	
81	2.934	-0.5493	1.8379049821962	
82	-36.74	0.02941	-16.268720187704	
83	6.261	-0.123	1.4823610671173	
84	7.071	-0.1225	2.7562345688806	
85	3.732	-0.2436	1.2604893623646	
86	3.589	-0.1617	-0.14314728827225	
87	2.56	-0.6198	1.62862211016663	
88	1.847	-0.1548	-0.44932274484171	
89	2.941	-0.13	-1.6902307025279	
90	3.961	-0.1794	-0.69170474323776	
91	2.879	-0.128	-1.8249368224971	
92	4.702	-0.1241	-0.14941088322904	
93	6.261	-0.1532	2.3144695662575	
94	4.928	-0.2034	1.9680197083377	
95	6.92	-0.1185	1.8393249676952	
96	-876888	0.000001353	-43186.48336699	
97	-13.17	0.2223	-10.461675917411	
98	3.388	-0.3917	1.859956626804	
99	3.719	-0.3204	1.8399113876529	
100	4.009	-0.1791	0.64741434210763	
101	4.161	-0.2096	1.28857637725209	
102	4.111	-0.2212	1.288998041214	

-3 < TS < Log(100 x C₅₀) = DILI positive

Nizatidine				C ₅₀ =5.43µM
Donor #	LogIC50	Hillslope	Toxicity Score (TS)	
103	-1.139	-3.245	-1.3245366604888	
104	9.287	-0.8074	3.609232746103	
105	-0.5132	-0.4291	-1.91627018580276	
106	70.57	-3.124	70.372791320973	
107	-1481405	0.0000005319	-349506.52297807	
108	3.553	-0.1194	-1.48937848683386	
109	27.72	-0.4724	1.26139815306978	
110	10.8	-0.09344	4.35272988231956	
111	-1.128	-3.314	-1.30967169321906	
112	-1.146	-3.317	-1.3270578355792	
113	38.41	-0.02892	17.5918813510386	
114	11.17	-0.07728	3.3894688982124	
115	2.927	-7.253	2.84399159082627	
121	2220	-0.09228	2213.4752614512	
122	0.9916	-0.2363	-1.55626824964629	
124	1.416	-0.2997	-0.92875513273148	
125	7.484	-0.0809	0.75621026617919	
126	-1.229	-3.819	-1.4039924214916	
129	15.64	-0.0678	6.7600591249531	
131	-299386	0.00000338	-119020.514281617	
135	1829497	-0.00001092	1278160.01160443	
138	10.55	-0.06213	0.8596744051326	
139	1.317	-0.237	-1.2233151615174	
144	6.646	-0.07373	-1.5197974403855	

-3 < TS < Log(100 x C₅₀) = DILI positive

Stavudine				C ₅₀ =6.16µM
Donor #	LogIC50	Hillslope	Toxicity Score (TS)	
103	7.947	-0.07966	0.38912917319076	
104	11.11	-0.0809	4.30862061884999	
110	32.08	0.01653	-47.9477379716091	
106	-10.91	0.4787	-0.65230208621692	
107	6.941	-0.1046	1.18516834294491	
108	-1.112	-3.25	-1.29724928110991	
109	-11.67	-0.0809	8.70216038499999	
110	32.08	-0.03202	13.2737769184322	
111	-1.107	-3.292	-1.28988578108383	
112	20.91	-0.04674	8.0289561193919	
113	5.622	-0.331	3.67987099571625	
114	6.227	-0.1349	2.4402400273029	
115	801.19	0.00000217	-52374.3993808036	
121	-7.2	2.855	-6.98912084366796	
122	4.819	-0.09602	-1.451151961341	
124	4.067	-0.1601	0.32749682732526	
125	2.314	-0.4085	0.810729110262729	
126	17.37	-0.03858	1.752360795643	
129	1810.79	-0.000008281	1083141.23110474	
131	-33.64	0.04192	-19.277818862604	
135	3.896	-1.235	3.40850203113139	
138	39.97	-0.03158	20.9654052776699	
139	4.445	-0.09136	-2.03308004987106	
144	-1.154	-3.19	-1.3427335960124	

-3 < TS < Log(100 x C₅₀) = DILI positive

Sorafenib				C ₅₀ =20µM
Donor #	LogIC50	Hillslope	Toxicity Score (TS)	
145	2.366	-1.824	2.039232508844	

Table 3 DILI prediction

Drugs	Clinically apparent liver injury	Number of DILI positive within a cohort of 24 individuals (%)	Predicted DILI risk	C _{max} reference
Albuterol	No	8.3	No	Proctor et al. 2017 [20]. Arch Toxicol
Flavoxate	No	4.2	No	Proctor et al. 2017 [20]. Arch Toxicol
β-Estradiol	Yes	54.2	Yes	Bircsak et al. 2021 [43]. Toxicology
Etoposide	Yes	75.0	Yes	Sipes et al. 2017 [53]. Environ Sci Technol
Nizatidine	Yes	54.2	Yes	Sipes et al. 2017 [53]. Environ Sci Technol
Azathioprine	Yes	91.7	Yes	Proctor et al. 2017 [20]. Arch Toxicol
Oxaliplatin	Yes	100.0	Yes	Lurvink et al. 2021 [54]. Ann Surg Oncol
Bosentan	Yes	100.0	Yes	Proctor et al. 2017 [20]. Arch Toxicol
Stavudine	Yes	45.8	Yes	Proctor et al. 2017 [20]. Arch Toxicol
Lenvatinib	No	0.0	No	Ikeda et al. 2016 [55]. Clin Cancer Res
Cabozantinib	Yes	100.0	Yes	Jones et al. 2022 [56]. J Chromatogr Sci
Sorafenib	Yes	100.0	Yes	Brendel et al. 2011 [57]. Cancer Chemother Pharmacol

< 10% DILI-positive individuals in a cohort of 24 individuals = no DILI risk

spheroids with donor’s depleted serum increased the basal CYP3A4 activity by 2 to 19 times (Fig. 2). Moreover, this activity was enhanced up to 80 times when educated spheroids were treated with a drug suggesting an upregulation of the drug metabolizing capacity of the cells (Fig. 3). This drug metabolizing capacity of educated spheroids was further confirmed by our results showing that educated spheroids can predict azathioprine- [40], nizatidine- [41], and etoposide- [42] mediated hepatotoxicity, 3 compounds from which the mechanism of liver injury is primarily caused by

their toxic metabolites (Fig. 4). Taken together, our data demonstrate that educating spheroids with donor’s depleted serum permits to obtain a functional donor-dependent liver specific microenvironment with an enhanced drug metabolizing capacity of HepG2 cells sufficiently to detect the hepatotoxicity induced by drug metabolites.

Primary human hepatocytes are generally used to study drug-induced liver injury. However, and despite they highly express AMDE genes, their capacity to predict DILI has shown limitations as they could not detect clinical DILI for

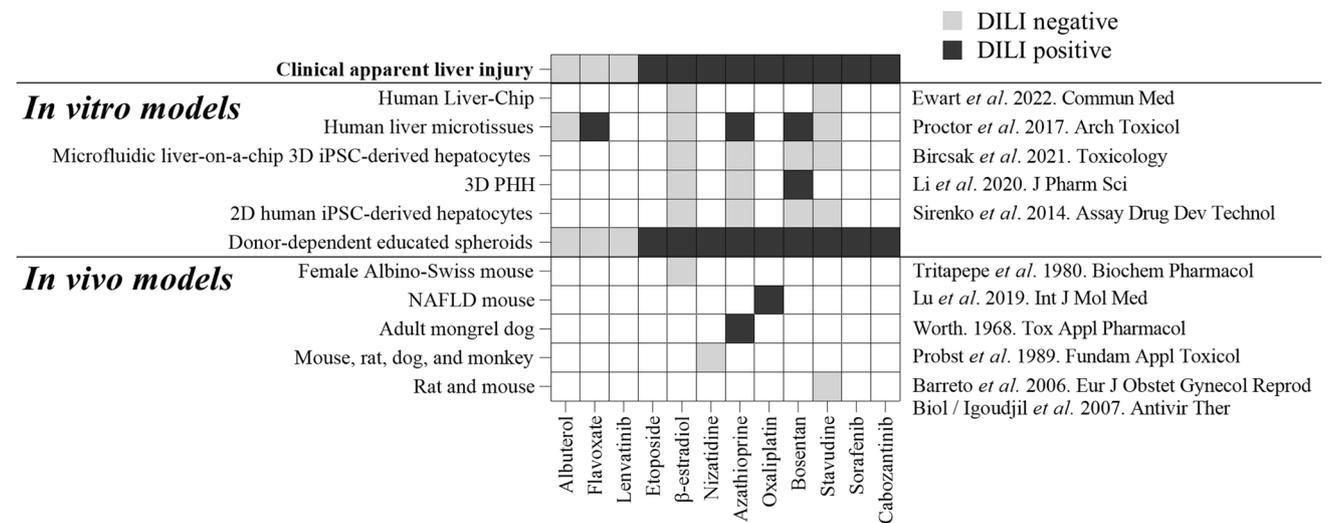


Fig. 5 High predictive power of clinical apparent DILI risk of educated spheroids. Comparative analysis to current in vitro and animal models. Educated spheroids were generated using depleted serum from 109 donors. For each treatment group, educated spheroids from 24 donors were used (Table 1). A panel of drugs with or without

clinical DILI concerns was used to test drug-induced hepatotoxicity. Heatmap shows overall predicted DILI risk for each drug. To compare the performance between educated spheroids and current pre-clinical models in predicting DILI risk, we extracted the data from the works cited on the right side of the heatmap

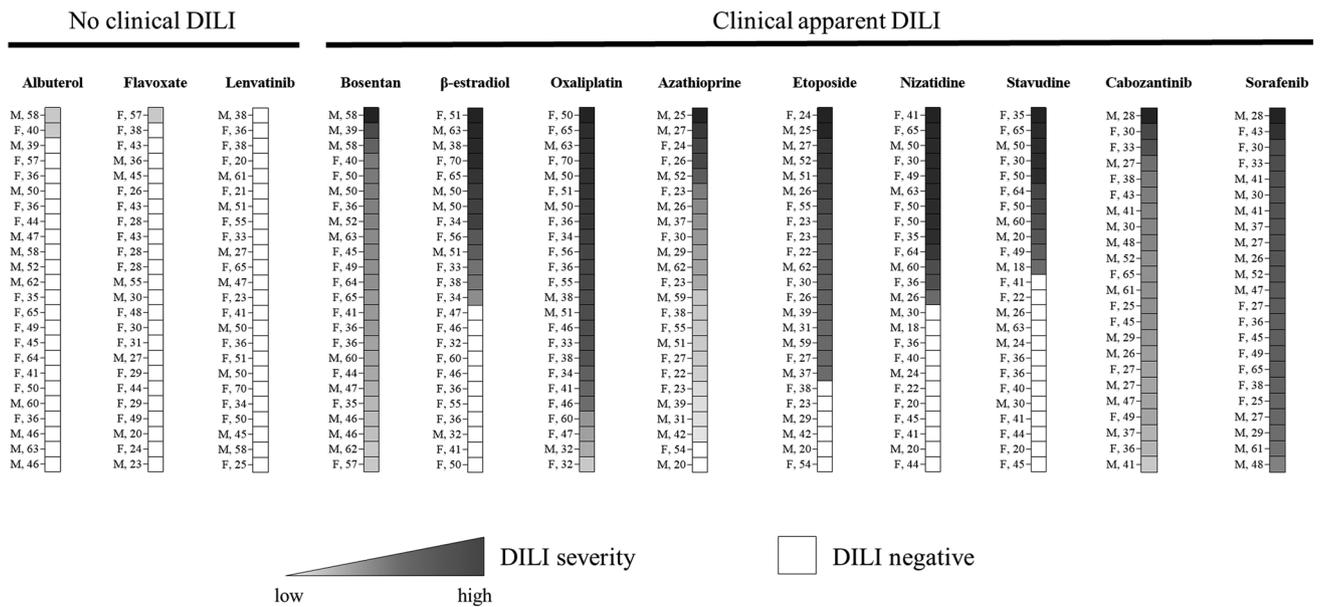


Fig. 6 DILI risk stratification and severity grades. Data from a panel of 12 drugs (3 without clinical apparent liver injury and 9 with clinical apparent hepatotoxicity) are reported as heatmaps. Each cell repre-

sents one donor. The sex and the age of the donor are reported on the left side of each cell. The degree of severity is determined by the TS (Table 2)

some drugs such as stavudine or β -estradiol [20]. Attempts to use liver organoids derived from pluripotent stem cells to assess DILI were also unsatisfactory, although they retain the genetic background of the donor from who they derived from [43–45]. Indeed, liver cancer organoids are difficult to generate and with a poor success rate, while healthy liver organoids are typically arranged as monolayer of cells forming cysts making them imperfect models [46, 47]. Moreover, liver organoids require artificially predefined amount of Matrigel or synthetic ECM scaffolds, and thus, they do not reproduce the donor-dependent composition of ECM [48]. All these constrains make that current in vitro models have a

limited capacity to predict DILI risk (Fig. 5). Animal models are also extensively used to analyze drug-induced hepatotoxicity. However, there are evidence that in vivo models are bad predictors of drug-induced toxicity in human [1] (Fig. 5). With a high sensitivity and specificity on the predictivity of clinical apparent DILI risk, educated spheroids appear to be a valuable option to analyze drug-induced liver injury easily and accurately, helping drug development pipelines.

Non-genetic factors contribute to the development of DILI too [49]. Indeed, elderly people are generally considered at high risk for DILI for some drugs [24], and an age cut-off point was estimated at 52 years old for high risk of adverse

Table 4 Sex- and age-associated DILI risk

	Bosentan	β -Estradiol	Oxaliplatin	Azathioprine	Etoposide	Nizatidine	Stavudine	Cabozantinib	Sorafenib
Sex-associated DILI risk (η^2)	-	0.1595* ($p = 0.0532$)	-	0.0004081 ($p = 0.9253$)	0.006442 ($p = 0.7093$)	0.1009 ($p = 0.1303$)	0.08606 ($p = 0.1641$)	-	-
Age-associated DILI risk (η^2)	-	0.05065 ($p = 0.2904$)	-	0.001707 ($p = 0.8480$)	0.001493 ($p = 0.8577$)	0.3414* ($p = 0.0027$)	0.09124 ($p = 0.1514$)	-	-
Sex-associated DILI severity (η^2)	0.08351 ($p = 0.1708$)	0.08956 ($p = 0.3206$)	0.02346 ($p = 0.4749$)	0.0002726 ($p = 0.9419$)	0.01233 ($p = 0.6609$)	0.1967 ($p = 0.1291$)	0.1824 ($p = 0.1901$)	0.003898 ($p = 0.7772$)	0.003037 ($p = 0.8028$)
Age-associated DILI severity (R^2)	0.00926 ($p = 0.6546$)	0.3298* ($p = 0.0401$)	0.2247* ($p = 0.0193$)	0.04116 ($p = 0.3652$)	0.01185 ($p = 0.7111$)	0.1075 ($p = 0.2741$)	0.07678 ($p = 0.4094$)	0.06530 ($p = 0.2392$)	0.06480 ($p = 0.2411$)

According to Cohen’s guidelines $\eta^2 > 0.13$ means large effect

<https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203771587>

drug reactions [47]. Sex is considered as a non-genetic risk factor for DILI for some medications as well [49–52]. The good performance of educated spheroids in predicting DILI risk based on the age and the sex of the donor (Fig. 6) makes this model interesting to preclinically fine tune the safety profile of the people for whom the medication is dedicated.

Last but not least advantage of the educated spheroid model is its affordability as compared to current sophisticated in vitro models such as primary liver cells or organoids. Indeed, using educated spheroids to assess clinical DILI risk is barely more expensive than cell lines, and it is clearly financially much competitive than PHH or organoids.

Conclusion

In summary, we describe here the first donor-dependent multicellular spheroid model that utilizes our patented cell education technology to assess, with a high specificity and sensitivity, the interindividual DILI risk. To our knowledge, this is a unique preclinical model that offers a way to analyze DILI risk based on non-genetic factors such as age or/and sex confirming therefore the safety of a drug before entering clinical trials. Thus, this new preclinical model will be of great interest for pharmaceutical companies that invest billions of dollars in drug development, reducing the cost and de-risking failures.

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Author contribution S.C. and N.T. performed all laboratory experiments. S.C., N.T., and H.T.D. analyzed the data. S.C., N.T., and H.T.D. conceived and planned experiments. S.C., N.T., and H.T.D. prepared the manuscript. All authors discussed results and contributed to the final article.

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Data availability The authors declare that the main data supporting the findings of this study are available on reasonable request with permission of PredictCan Biotechnologies SAS.

Declarations

Competing interests S.C., N.T., and H.T.D. are employees of PredictCan Biotechnologies SAS. S.C. and H.T.D. are founders of PredictCan Biotechnologies SAS.

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