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2022-11

Advances in 3D culture systems for therapeutic discovery and development in brain cancer

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Recommended Citation

Janith Wanigasekara, Patrick J. Cullen, Paula Bourke, Brijesh Tiwari, James F. Curtin, Advances in 3D culture systems for therapeutic discovery and development in brain cancer, Drug Discovery Today, Volume 28, Issue 2, 2023, 103426, ISSN 1359-6446, DOI: 10.1016/j.drudis.2022.103426.

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Funder: Science Foundation Ireland (SFI) and the Teagasc Walsh Fellowship (2017/228)

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 Highlights Existing models for drug discovery and development against GBM have limitations. We review advances in 3D systems that promise more accurate therapeutic models. **•** Development of 3D cultures that can model the GBM TME is discussed. **We describe advanced 3D systems such as organoids, 3D and 4D bioprinting and CSC.** We identify gaps to bridge in existing 3D systems to accelerate drug discovery. **Abstract** This review focuses on recent advances in 3D culture systems that promise more accurate therapeutic models of the glioblastoma multiforme (GBM) tumor microenvironment (TME), such as the unique anatomical, cellular and molecular features evident in human GBM. The key components of a GBM TME are outlined, including microbiomes, vasculature, extracellular matrix, infiltrating parenchymal and peripheral immune cells and molecules, and chemical gradients. Current 3D culture systems are evaluated against 2D culture systems and *in vivo* animal models. The main 3D culture techniques available are compared, with an emphasis on identifying key gaps in developing suitable platforms to accurately model GBM TME including tumor stem cells, blood brain barrier models and mixed cultures with cells and molecules of the immune system, normal parenchymal cells, and microbiome models. **Teaser** In time, 3D cell culture research will lead to development of complex, multifaceted GBM models, and will enable rapid advances in precision, personalised medicine to improve patient outcomes. **Keywords:** 3D cell culture, Glioma, tumor microenvironment, 3D bioprinter, Scaffolds, hydrogels

 Brain cancers can be divided into two types, primary and secondary brain cancer. Primary brain cancer originates within brain cells, forms in the central nervous system (CNS), and usually does not metastasis to the outside of the CNS. Secondary brain cancers are originated and metastasis from external to the CNS, such as the lung, skin, breast, colon, and kidney. Secondary brain cancers are the 60 most common, while primary brain cancers are more lethal 1,2 . Primary brain cancers can be classifies further as gliomas (astrocytomas, oligodendrogliomas and ependymomas) and nongliomas 62 (menigiomas, medulloblastomas) 2,3 . Gliomas are developed from glial cells, including astrocytes, oligodendrocytes, and ependymal calls or a mix of the above. Astrocytomas are the most common primary brain cancer and according to the World Health Organization (WHO), it is further classified as pilocytic astrocytoma (Grade I), low grade astrocytoma (Grade II), anaplastic astrocytoma (Grade III), 66 and glioblastoma (Grade IV) 1,4 . Glioblastoma multiforme (GBM) is a WHO grade IV astrocytoma and is the most common, aggressive, fatal, highly vascularized, malignant primary brain tumor in adults. Treatment options remain very limited, and it has a low survival rate of less than 1 year for many 69 patients and only about 5% survive beyond 5 years $1,3,5$. According to the most recent "central brain tumor registry of the United States (CBTRUS) statistical report", the average annual age-adjusted incidence rate of all malignant and non-malignant brain and other CNS tumors was 24.25 per 100,000 between 2014 and 2018. The total rate was greater in females than in males (26.95 versus 21.35 per 100,000). The most often occurring malignant brain and other CNS tumor was glioblastoma (14.3% of all tumors and 49.1% of malignant tumors), was more prevalent in males while the most common non-malignant tumor was meningioma (39.0% of all tumors and 54.5% of non-malignant tumors), was 76 more common in females .

 Patient prognosis remains poor and largely unchanged over the last 30 years due to the limitations of existing therapies such as surgical resection, followed by concurrent radiation therapy and 79 temozolomide (TMZ)⁷. The majority of therapies fail during clinical trials due to imperfect models that

 limit our ability to predict efficacy and toxicity in humans. This is particularly evident with GBM with no successful therapy that significantly improves survival since the introduction of temozolomide 20 82 years ago 1,3,5 .

 GBM is characterized by higher vascularization, significant cell heterogeneity, self-renewing cancer 84 stem cells and the interactions between tumor and microenvironment, all of which play an important 85 role in tumor growth (Figure 1) . Tumour development, metastasis, angiogenesis, cytotoxicity resistance, and immune cell modulation are all influenced by the tumour microenvironment (TME) 87 $\frac{9,10}{2}$. There is a urgent need for accessible GBM pre-clinical models and 3D cell culture is able to fill this 88 gap by providing more reliable models to study the correlation between TME, tumour reoccurrence 89 and therapy resistance.

 Three dimensional (3D) cell cultures describes a wide range of *in vitro* cell culture technique used to grow cells in three dimensions using an artificially created microenvironment. Cells in 3D cell culture have physiological cell-cell and cell–extracellular matrix (ECM) component interactions which allow 94 cells to grow *in vitro* in a tumor microenvironment that closely resembles GBM *in vivo* conditions ^{9,11}. 95 Tenascins, Fibronectin, Fibulin-3 and Hyaluronic acid are the primary components of the GBM ECM ¹². These ECM components can be employed in 3D cell culture to mimic the composition and porosity of *in vivo* GBM ECM *in vitro* conditions to get better understanding of the therapeutic efficiency.

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 Figure 1: A) Components of GBM TME, consists of cellular and extracellular materials. B) Cells commonly found in the tumour microenvironment such as Astrocytes, GBM cells, Necrotic GBM cells, Endothelial cells, GBM stem cells, Natural killer cells, Microglia, B and T lymphocytes, Dendritic cells, Cancer associated fibroblasts, Macrophages, Neutrophil and Oligodendrocytes progenitor cells are shown here C) Non-cellular components such as Vasculature, Microbiomes, Extracellular matrix, Secretory and signalling molecules, Exosomes and Cell debris, including Damage Associated Molecular Patterns (DAMP's) that are important features of a brain tumour (Figure created with BioRender).

 In Two dimensional (2D) culture, cells adhere primarily to coated surfaces of the tissue culture plate, whereas in 3D culture, adhesion is mostly with molecules of the extracellular matrix between cells along with directly interactions between adjacent cells. Matrix proteins, glycoproteins, glycosaminoglycans, proteoglycans, ECM-sequestered growth factors, vascular endothelial growth factor, platelet derived growth factor, hepatocyte growth factor, and other secreted proteins are 116 examples of secretory and signalling molecules 12 . These proteins and growth factors have critical roles in cell proliferation, tissue morphogenesis, migration, differentiation, adhesion, survival, 118 immunosuppression, metastasis and homeostasis $12-15$. Furthermore, the ECM can influence the cell's response to medications by altering the mechanism of action of the drug, increasing therapeutic effectiveness, or increasing the cell's inclination for drug resistance. A 3D culture model would have to imitate the microenvironment of tissue in which cells could proliferate, aggregate, and differentiate 122 in order to predict the effectiveness of a treatment on a cell ¹⁶. Further, Integrins and receptor tyrosine kinases are examples of cell surface receptors that can interact with ECM components. Crosstalk between integrins and growth factor receptors regulates downstream cell signaling as well as growth 125 factor induced biological activity, such as proliferation and invasion $9,13$.

 Brain tumors are surrounded and infiltrated by many noncancerous cells, including neurons, astrocytes, microglia, cancer-associated fibroblasts, tumor-associated macrophages, glioblastoma 129 stem cells (GSCs) and endothelial cells, that provide both supporting and suppressive functions in the 130 TME (Figure 1) $17-19$. Cancer progression and drug response are heavily influenced by cellular interactions in the TME 17,20,21 . 3D *in vitro* models can be utilized to simulate TME components and to 132 evaluate novel therapies $14,19$.

 Cells in a 3D spheroids have varying microenvironment conditions due to the non-homogeneous 134 vascular supply 22 . For example, regions of a tumour further from vasculature have restricted oxygenation, nutrients and waste removal. 3D spheroid can possess a hypoxic (oxygen-deprived) core resembling these TMEs found in solid tumours, with cells at the centre of sphere with relatively low oxygen, glucose concentration and acidic extracellular pH due to accumulation of metabolic by-138 products (Figure 2) 23,24 . The hypoxic cell population increase is proportional to the spheroid size also it is highly resistant to chemotherapy and radiotherapy. The outer layer of spheroid, which is highly exposed to medium and mainly composed of viable, proliferating cells. 3D spheroid has heterogeneous cellular subpopulation such as actively proliferating, quiescent, hypoxic and necrotic cells, which provides different cell proliferation zones, can be divided as proliferating zone, quiescent 143 viable zone and necrotic core / hypoxic core (Figure 2) $11,13,25$.

 Figure 2: Structure of multicellular 3D spheroid. 3D spheroids have a spherical shape with an external proliferating zone and an internal quiescent viable zone that surrounds a necrotic core, resembling the cellular heterogeneity seen in solid tumors. Proliferation rate, drug delivery rate, interstitial pressure, perfusion, Access to O2, nutrients and acidity in different zones are shown here (Figure created with BioRender).

 The cellular organization, additional dimension, polarity, and geometry of 3D spheroids influence cellular functions such as proliferation, differentiation, survival, morphology, gene/protein 154 expression, communication, and responses to external stimuli ¹⁶. Ultimately this will provide a better understanding of complex biological / physiological behaviour, cell-to-cell interactions, tumor characteristics, drug discovery, metabolic profiling, and representation for toxicological testing improve drug screening accuracy, safety, increasing the chances of finding effective therapeutic 158 methods or drug combinations to fight cancer .

 The demerits of currently available 3D cell culture are that it is time consuming, expensive, lower 161 reproducibility and limited intra-tumoral heterogeneity 26 . Further development needed in this field to assure reproducibility, high throughput analysis, compatible readout techniques and automation in 163 order to establish validated 3D cell culture models ²⁷. The main strengths and weaknesses of 3D cell culture systems for cancer research applications shown in Table 1.

Comparison of 2D and 3D cell culture

 In 2D cell culture, monolayer of cells adheres and grows on flat surfaces, while these cells are unable to grown in all directions. Due to this cells are flat and stretched hence it does not accurately reflect *in vivo* cellular morphology ^{23,25}. The monolayer is mostly composed of proliferating cells, and any 171 necrotic cells usually detach from the surface 28 . These attached proliferating cells receive homogeneous oxygen, nutrient and growth factors from the media and uniform exposure to drug 173 candidates in efficacy and toxicity studies ²⁹. The morphological changes in 2D cells influences many cellular processes such as cell proliferation, cell–cell communication, tissue specific architecture, differentiation, migration, apoptosis and gene/protein expression, which leads to inaccurate organ- specific toxicity detection and have inadequate representation of cell migration, differentiation, signal 177 transduction, metabolism, survival and growth ^{16,22,30}.

178 3D cell culture can use to overcome these problems as cells are allowed to grow in any direction without interacting with the surface, while maintaining physiological cell-cell and cell-extracellular matrix interactions, more closely mimic the natural *in vivo* environment, shape, and cellular response 181 ^{16,30}. Cells in 3D cultures are not getting homogenous oxygen, nutrient and growth factors supply due to their larger size and diffusion gradient (Figure 2) leading to all major TMEs represented including 183 proliferating, quiescent and necrotic stages found in an *in vivo* tumor (Figure 2)²⁵.

 The proliferation rate of 2D and 3D cell culture are different and this is mostly depend on cell lines 185 and matrix ³¹. The proliferation rate of cells grown in 3D cell culture is a better represent the growth of *in vivo* tumour. When compare with 2D cell culture, additional dimension in 3D cell culture influence spatial organization of cell surface receptors engaged in interaction with other cells and induce 188 physical constraints to cells $31,32$. Most drugs are designed either to targeting specific receptors accessible on the cell surface, or by crossing the plasma membrane and interacting with intracellular receptors to achieve therapeutic effectiveness. The availability of receptors in 2D and 3D cultures may be different due to differences in receptor expression, cell morphology, cytoskeletal and ECM arrangements, subcellular localization of receptors, modified endosomal trafficking, alterations to secretions, cell signalling and even differences in the spatial arrangement of receptors on the surface 194 of cells $9,16$.

 Overall the cellular responses varying between 2D and 3D cell culture is due to several factors such as differences in physical properties, physiological conditions, spatial organization of surface receptors, gene expression levels, microenvironment and cell stages are some of them. 2D cell culture doesn't reveal toxicological resistance, accurate cellular responses to drug treatment, architecture as *in vivo* 199 tissues, accurate depiction of cell polarisation and gene expression . It also provides unreliable 200 predictions of *in vivo* drug efficiency and toxicity, which leads to low success rate in clinical trials ³³. 3D 201 spheroids show increased drug resistance (Figure 2) due to dynamic cellular interactions and 202 restricted diffusion of nutrient, leading to activation of cell survival and drug sensitive genes . Ultimately 3D cell culture can overcome the limitations of conventional 2D cell culture by providing an experimental models that more accurately represent the short- and long-term (time) effects of the drugs. The merits and demerits of 2D and 3D cell culture is compared in Table 2

 Han and colleges, produced a scalable lung cancer spheroid model and carried out genome-wide CRISPR screenings in 2D-monolayers and 3D cancer spheroid cultures. CRISPR phenotypes in 3D more closely resemble those of *in vivo* tumors, and genes with differing sensitivities in 2D and 3D are highly

 enriched for important mutations in malignancies. These analysis also revealed new drivers that are 210 required for cancer development in 3D and *in vivo* but not in 2D³⁵. A similar experiment utilizing GBM spheroid models will be beneficial in the future to understand which genes are essential for growth and survival in response to different environmental signals.

Comparison of 3D cell culture with animal *in vivo* **models**

 3D cell culture plays a vital role in drug development, while it is also capable of replacing both 2D cell culture and animal trials. Initial testing stage of standard drug discovery begins with 2D cell culture, followed by animal tests and clinical trials, which resulted 95% of trial failures during clinical trials due 218 to the insufficient prediction of the efficacy and toxicity in humans during pre-clinical studies $33,36$.

 3D cell cultures represent a simplified reductionist model. It highly transparent, reproducible, easy to modelling the complex processes such as growth, invasiveness and toxicity, when compared to a 221 whole animal ³⁰. 3D cancer cell models are able to provide better understanding of *in vivo* cancer 222 therapeutic efficiency and also improve the efficacy of drug discovery, due to the clear understanding 223 the relation between cells and the ECM in which they interact $16,19$. This help to identify drugs/ 224 therapeutic methods in early stages, which has better effects on cancer treatment and eliminating a lot of unnecessary testing.

 The European REACH regulation stated aim is "To ensure a high level of protection of human health and the environment from effects of hazardous chemicals. It strives for a balance: to increase our understanding of the possible hazards of chemicals, while at the same time avoiding unnecessary testing on animals" (European Chemicals Agency, 2020). 3D cell cultures supports 3Rs principles of animal research (Replacement, Reduction and Refinement) and REACH regulation while able to reduce 231 the number of animal usage in testing, time, cost and ethical considerations $9,37$.

 There are different animal models have been widely used to investigate GBM such as syngeneic implantation models (tumorigenesis is induced using carcinogens or genetic modification), genetically engineered animal models (delivery of cancer initiating genes using viral vectors to initiate tumor development), traditional xenograft models (transplanting human cancer cells into an immunocompromised rodent), patient derived xenograft and xenografts generated from patient derived cancer stem cells (direct implantation of freshly biopsied tumor tissue or cultured tumor 239 spheres into immunodeficient animals) are some of them $38,39$. These experimental animal models have several limitations since they don't always predict efficacy and/or toxicity, don't share the same clinical features, and don't have the same receptor responses as seen in human disease. Vital genetic, molecular, immunologic and cellular differences between humans and animal models prevent it from 243 being an effective way of researching a cancer therapies $37,40$.

 Animal testing is expensive and time consuming and they do not account for the whole intricacy of 245 tumor-microenvironment interactions¹⁹. Also, If animal is in pain or stress during the experiment, it might change the biochemical, physiological and metabolic reactions, which can inaccurately depict 247 the effectiveness and side effects of drugs $9,16,30,40$. Humans and animal models have distinct anatomical and physiological differences, the most apparent of which is size. The human brain is about 249 100 times greater in weight and more than 1,000 times larger in surface area and number of neurons, when compared with mice. Thus, in the study of GBM, well known for its infiltration of the brain parenchyma, important anatomical distinctions in the organ of origin impose potentially confounding 252 factors in preclinical investigation $37,41$. Preclinical modeling is complicated further by an increased proportion of neocortical astrocytes, pericyte heterogeneity, and changes in vascular architecture 254 between humans and animal models .

 Some animal models such as mice have a short lifetime, they are less likely to development of certain types of cancers or highly penetrant cancers associated with loss of heterozygosity mutations. Animal models also have substantially greater metabolic rates than humans, which complicates

258 pharmacodynamic and pharmacokinetic investigations⁴¹. Genetic modifications initiate tumors with homogenous genetic changes whereas human GBM cells are heterogeneous. Furthermore, the genetic background of animal models can influence tumor biology, gene function, and tumor 261 susceptibility .

 Many variables *in vivo* are uncontrollable, and their effects are often unknown due to the complexity of organisms, whereas 3D cell culture allows for better control of variables by using a series of carefully 264 selected reductionist models ⁴². The merits and demerits of 2D, 3D cell culture and animal models are compared in Table 2.

 Current *in vitro* GBM treatment regimens fail to account for a large variety of factors such as brain's unique extracellular matrix, circulatory systems, existence of resident and non-resident brain cells 268 inside the tumour, secreted factors and nutritional sources accessible for tumor metabolism ¹⁹. The main benefits of using 3D cell culture models for *in vitro* GBM treatment rather than animal testing are include a wider selection of techniques, leading to better measurements of outcomes, better 271 control of variables, scalable testing, comparatively lower cost, avoidance of ethical issues and reductionist approach to accurately model a specific feature of a disease, as opposed to animal models, which are complex and often differ from human disease. It is also capable of simulating de 274 . novo drug resistance . Furthermore, juxtacrine signaling, in which molecules pass directly between 275 cells via gap junctions or other structures without being released into the extracellular environment, requires 3D tumorsphere cell–cell interactions. These receptor and juxtacrine signaling components alter a variety of intracellular signaling pathways, affecting how cancer cells react to their surroundings 9,13 . The lack of vascular and immune system in 3D cell culture techniques is a drawback when compared to animal models, that may be solved in the future by constructing advanced 3D models 280 utilizing specialized 3D techniques such as 3D printing ⁴². Ultimately 3D brain cancer models can so improve reproducibility and allow researching cellular and molecular pathways simpler to improve for personalized medicine.

Different types of 3D cell culture techniques and methods

 Different elementary 3D culture techniques such as anchorage independent and anchorage 286 dependent platforms can be used for 3D cell culture . Anchorage dependent platforms can further 287 classifies into scaffold and hydrogels based on their porosity, density and mechanical strengths ²⁸. These approaches are most commonly employed to create 3D spheroids, basic tumor models and multicellular tumorspheroids (Figure 3). Tumorspheroids are solid, 3D spherical formed by the 290 proliferation of a single cancer stem/progenitor cell ^{43,44}. Tables 3 and 4 list the applications and merits 291 / demerits of different 3D culture techniques / methods for the development of 3D glioma spheroids, respectively.

- **Figure 3**: Different anchorage dependent and independent methodsto develop 3D multicellular tumor spheroids.
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Anchorage independent (scaffold free)

- Anchorage independent/scaffold-free techniques rely on non-adherent cell to cell aggregation to form
- 299 spheroids. Spheroids showing cell-cell interactions and secreting their own extracellular matrix. These
- spheroids are able to freely grow without a physical support resulting in consistency of shape and size,
- 301 which provide better understanding about cellular cytotoxicity .

 Figure 4: Anchorage independent methods available for multicellular tumor spheroids formation. These methods include, A) Low adhesion plate method; B) Hanging drop plate method; C) Magnetic levitation; D) Spinner Bioreactor (Figure created with BioRender).

Low adhesion plates

 Low adhesion plates (Figure 4A) are specialised culture plates with ultra-low attachment hydrophilic polymer coating (poly-2-hydroxyethyl methacrylate (poly-HEMA), agarose, bovine serum albumin, or 310 agar) which promote cell aggregation to form spheroids $11,45,46$. Different culture plates are commercially available (e.g. Nunclon™ Sphera™, Costar®, PrimeSurface, Lipidure®−COAT) with 312 modified surface shapes (flat and conical shaped bottom) ^{11,45}. Usually ECM proteins such as collagen- I and fibronectin mediate cell attachment to the culture surface. Hydrophilic polymer coating prohibits protein adsorption to the culture ware surface, thereby minimizing monolayer cell adhesion to the 315 culture vessel ⁴⁷. Ultimately low attachment plates promote aggregation of cells by cell-cell and cell- ECM interactions, while blocking the ECM interaction to plastic surface. Advantages of using low adhesion plates are simple, straight forward, efficient, spheroid production & handling is easy, higher reproducibility when compared to other anchorage independent methods, able to generate wide 319 range of tumor cell types and co-culture can be incorporated ⁴⁶. Disadvantage is time consuming and relatively labour intensive, continuous passage culture is difficult, only autocrine ECM is present, success rate in long term passage is low, cells in suspension has no migration movements 16,24,46,48. The 322 detailed protocol for developing 3D glioma spheroids published by .

Hanging drop method

 Hanging drop plates are open bottom-less wells that promote the formation of droplets of media (Figure 4B) that provide space to form spheroids via self-aggregation through the use of gravity and 327 surface tension . There is no surface to attach, cells grow inside a bubble of growth media and spheroids hang in open bottomless wells which are often enclosed in the bottom of the plate in order 329 to normalize the environmental humidity of the cells . Phosphate buffer saline is added to the reservoirs located on the peripheral rim of the plate and tray which are divided into sections to 331 prevent the hanging drop dehydration during incubation . Spheroid size is controlled by number of 332 cells dispensed into each drop . The droplet of media sufficient for cell aggregation and also small

 enough to hold droplet by surface tension, after 3D spheroid generation it can be dispense by adding 334 extra drop of media in to the well and spheroid loaded to adjacent plate 16 . Micro-liquid adhesion with substrate surface is greater than cellular weight; cells aggregate, proliferate, and grow in to spheroids 336 at liquid air interface. Recommended drop volume is 10-20 μ l ⁴⁸. There are currently some 337 commercially available hanging drop plates on the market, such as Perfecta3D® and Gravity PLUSTM 338 ⁴⁵. Multicellular spheroids also can be create by co-suspending several cell types or else consecutive addition of different cell types to form separate cell layers. The merits are: able to produce uniform spheroid size, able to control size of spheroid by seeding density, homogenous spheroids and suitable for high throughput testing, higher replicability, low cost and comfortable to handling. In the disadvantages side, plates are highly expensive, medium change and different drug treatment at different time points are impossible, not suitable for long term culture and also having small culture 344 volume and osmolarity of the droplet will rise due to medium evaporation ^{16,45,46,48}. Lara and colleagues provided a thorough procedure for producing 3D glioma spheroids using hanging drop plate method 346 ⁵¹.

Magnetic levitation

 Magnetic levitation (Figure 4C) is a suspension culture technique; cells are preloaded with magnetic nanoparticles or beadsin dedicated plate and external magnetic fields to provide non-adhesion, plate-351 like properties to facilitate cell aggregation and form uniform 3D spheroids / tumorspheres ^{11,45}. It can be used on a variety of cell lines, particularly those that do not self-aggregate. The amount of cells 353 that were able to internalize the particles determines spheroid development ⁴⁵. This method is highly efficient, simple, straightforward, possibility to replicate *in vivo* microenvironments, does not require specialized media, easier spheroid collection and changing of medium with minimal disruption. It also 356 allows for the quick generation of 3D spheroids and is scalable for higher throughput . In disadvantage side this method gives slight brownish colour to spheroids and which might be not suitable for some applications. Also some cells adhere to the bottom of plate without forming 3D 359 spheroids and magnetic particles may alter the cellular behaviours of these spheroids ^{16,45,48}. There haven't been many uses of magnetic levitation for the development of 3D glioma spheroids documented.

Spinner Bioreactor

 A spinner bioreactor (Figure 4D) has a container to hold cell suspension and impeller stirring continuously to minimize the cell adhesion to the surface. Bioreactors are closed systems used to strictly regulate factors such as dissolved oxygen, temperature, pH, and nutrients. Specific sensors inside the bioreactor linked to control software to monitor nutrition and metabolite input and outflow 368 ³³. Continuous Liquid flow prevents cell adhesion contamination, time-consuming manual operations 369 and also uniformly distributes nutrition and oxygen to form 3D spheroids $33,46$. This method is simple, 370 able to mass production of spheroids and also suitable for long term culture . While cells can be damaged by collision between cells and bioreactor wells (exposure to high shear force) and require 372 specialized equipment's also difficult to obtain uniform spheroids $33,46,48$.

Anchorage dependent (Scaffold Based)

 The anchorage-dependent approach uses pre-designed porous membranes and polymeric fabric meshes called "scaffolds", which can be constructed of natural or synthetic components to offer 377 physical support (Figure 5A) ^{24,53}. This physical support can provide structures from simple mechanical up to extra-cellular matrix-like structures. 3D spheres can be generated by seeding cells on three dimensional matrixes or by dispensing cells in liquid matrix followed by solidification and polymerization. Cells are embedded in extracellular components and able to initiate cell-cell and cell-matrix interactions, physical support for cell growth, adhesion and proliferation. In general, these features, as well as structural patterns, textures, and angulations, can be manipulated in an attempt 383 to mimic ECM traits particular to the tissue of interest ⁵⁴. There are several techniques use to create scaffold such as electrospinning (ES), stereolithography, 3D printing, solvent-casting particulate leaching (SCPL), freeze drying, shape deposition manufacturing, robotic micro assembly, phase 386 inversion, selective laser sintering, fused deposition modelling $16,48,53$.

Natural scaffolds

 Biological / natural scaffolds provide physical support for cell growth as well as provide similar *in vivo* microenvironment with ECM components, growth factors, hormones and so forth. The biological scaffolds are made up of ECM components such as fibronectin, collagen, laminin, gelatin, chitosan, glycosaminoglycans (mainly hyaluronic acid), fibroin, agarose, alginate, starch (mainly additives), 393 human decellularized ECM ^{14,25,48,55}. Microscale mechanical features of biomaterials, such as stiffness, 394 porosity, interconnectivity, and structural integrity, can influence cellular function ⁵⁶. Brain tumor specific ECM components such as proteoglycans, laminins, fibronectin, tenascins, collagens I, II, IV and glioma cells overexpress ECM components like hyaluronic acid, brevikan, tenascin-C, fibronectin, thrombospondin can be employed to engineer glioma-specific scaffoldsto mimic similar *in vivo* glioma 398 TME 12,57.

 The advantages of using biological scaffolds are highly similar to the *in vivo* conditions, can control similar composition/ elasticity /porosity to get better ECM presentation and also possible to combine with ideal growth factors. Also it is able to improve biocompatibility, spatial distribution and lower 402 toxicity ⁵⁵. Natural scaffolds also have higher biocompatibility and lower toxicity when compared to synthetic polymers. Disadvantages are it is expensive, time consuming, complex process and not suitable for large scale production, difficult to dissociate cells from scaffold for experiments such as 405 flow cytometry and risk of contaminations and disease transmission ⁴⁸. Lara and colleges provided a 406 thorough procedure for producing 3D glioma spheroids using a natural scaffolds based method 58 .

Synthetic scaffolds

 Polymeric scaffolds are a useful tool for investigating cell-ECM interactions due to the scaffold's capacity to duplicate the structure of the ECM. Polymeric hard scaffolds are also very valuable for 411 investigating tissue regeneration and evaluating tumor cell therapies ¹⁶. Single cell suspension can be grown in a pre-fabricated scaffold to generate 3D spheroids. These scaffold matrixes enable cellular growth, adhesion, and proliferation while also encouraging cells to create spatial dispersion and migration. These polymeric scaffolds have been designed to mimic the structure of *in vivo* tissues and 415 easier to reproduce ⁵⁵. Matrix stiffness has been shown to have a major influence on tumour cell phenotypes and the usage of synthetic scaffolds has also been employed to investigate the effect of 417 matrix stiffness on drug responsiveness ⁵⁵. The scaffolds can be create using polymers such as Polyglycolic acid, Polylactic acid, polyorthoesters and their co polymers or blends as well as aliphatic polyester polycaprolactone, polystyrene (PS), polycaprolactone (PCL) Polyethylene oxide (PEO), 420 Polyethylene glycol (PEG) ^{25,48}. The merits of using synthetic scaffold is that the capability of controlling stiffness, elasticity, porosity and permeability, higher versatility, augment workability, reproducibility, straightforward to use and mechanical qualities of synthetic materials can be adjusted according to 423 the cell culture required, and their chemical composition is well characterized ⁴⁸. The demerits are lack 424 of biodegradation in most of the polymers, which might affect the cellular activity ⁴⁸. However, some synthetic polymers can be tailored to degrade and also researchers are attempting to improve 426 biodegradability .

 Figure 5: Anchorage dependent methods and specialized 3D culture platforms available for multicellular tumor spheroids formation. These methods include, A) Natural and synthetic scaffold based method; B) Hydrogels; C) Microfluidic devices; D) 3D Bio printer (Figure created with BioRender).

Anchorage dependent (Hydrogels)

 Hydrogels (Figure 5B) provide multi-layer formats by cross-linked hydrophilic polymer chains and cells are embedded inside layers and able to grow to 3D spheroids providing cell-cell and cell-ECM interactions 33,48 , which has similar biochemical, structural and mechanical properties of an *in vivo* tissue. Hydrogels are in a liquid format at room temperature which become a gel at 37 C incubation 438 . It helps cells to mix uniformly into the gel-liquid and proliferate non-destructively during the 439 gelation process⁴⁸. Mechanical strength, nutrition transport, topography, and degradation behaviours can all be adjusted by using polymers with varying compositions, crosslinking density, and including 441 bioactive compounds ⁵³. Hydrogels are 3D matrices or porous scaffolds can be divided into synthetics 442 and natural hydrogels .

 There are natural hydrogels made up using natural polymers – animal/ plant -derived proteins such as aginate, hyaluronic acid, collagen, silk, fibrinogen, albumin, fibronectin, laminin, agarose, matrigel, 445 gellan gum, gelatin, and chitosan . Collagen is a major ECM component in connective tissues. Collagen type 1 animal based hydrogels are mostly used and successful since its ability to replicate the cellular microenvironment and tissue architecture. Collagen based hydrogels have good biocompatibility and cross linking pattern can be controlled by concentration and sonication time, 449 which makes that suitable for range of tumors⁴⁸. Alginate is another mostly using polymer derive from seaweed. The most commonly used natural hydrogel platform is reconstituted basement membrane 451 matrix (Matrigel) derived from murine tumours ⁵⁵. Researchers used 3D Matrigel to evaluate different anti-invasive compounds (NF-kB, GSK-3-B, COX-2, and tubulin inhibitors) toxicity and invasion inhibition in U-251 MG spheroids. The results indicated that the compound effectiveness is strongly 454 linked to intra- and inter-tumor heterogeneity in patients .

 Synthetic hydrogels are made up with synthetic polymers such as polylactic acid (PLA), poly (vinyl acetate) (PVA), polyethylene glycol (PEG), polyacrylamide, polyacrylic acid, polyvinyl alcohol and 457 polyvinylpyrrolidone are some of them $16,33$. Natural hydrogels are progressively being replaced by synthetic hydrogels due to higher water absorption capacity, higher strength, longer stability, and 459 extensive availability of raw chemical resources .

 Advantages of using hydrogels for 3D cell culture includes controllable porosity, elasticity, variation in stiffness, high water content, able to provide similar microenvironment and reproducibly, able to provides rich network of ECM signals, ability to construct combining both synthetic and natural materials and ability to couple with adhesion, proliferation, differentiation, and migration factors 464 ^{33,53,55}. While demerits including physically weaker, lack of vasculature, natural gels composition can 465 be inconstant and also lack of cross linked network for mechanical support 3D spheroid growth ⁴⁸. In future, researchers can try to develop hydrogels using similar ECM components and composition in a particular tissue / tumor site to get similar *in vivo* tumor microenvironment⁴⁸.

 Hydrogels can also be designed to release therapeutics, while changing their retention period in the tissue. Scientists developed a reactive oxygen species (ROS)-responsive hydrogel (Zebularine - anti- PD1 antibody - NPs-Gel) cross-linked by combining polyvinyl alcohol and N1-(4-boronobenzyl)-N3-(4- boronophenyl)-N1,N1,N3,N3-tetramethylpropane-1,3-diaminium (TSPBA) linker to utilize the acidic TME and ROS within tumors for the controlled release of zebularine, a demethylation agent, and aPD1 antibody. This combined treatment boosted cancer cell immunogenicity, reducing tumor growth and 474 prolonging the survival time of B16F10-melanoma-bearing mice .

 Researchers are mostly adopting low adhesion plate and hydrogel-based approaches to construct basic tumor models and multicellular tumor spheroids. Recently scientists investigated more advanced techniques and equipment to develop more complex brain tumor models to better mimic the biochemical interplay of the brain and brain cancers as technology evolved. To facilitate spheroid formation in 3D cell culture platforms, microfluidic devices may, for example, uniformly provide oxygen and nutrients while eliminating waste. For instance, advanced brain tumor models with intact blood brain barriers may be printed using 3D bio-printers to investigate the possibility of opening the BBB and enhancing chemotherapy delivery without adverse effects. It may also be used to investigate membrane-wrapped and co-culture models.

Microfluidic devices

 Microfluidic devices (Figure 5C) process/ manipulate micro liquids (usually less than 10µl) inside micro 488 sized channels with dimension of 1-1000 μ m 63 . Microfluidic channels are connected to each other by porous membranes produce spheroids and able to formation, maintenance and testing inside single 490 device with vasculature- mimicking microfluidic channel connections ^{11,34,46,48}. Furthermore, this technology enables for the investigation of cell-cell interactions as well as interactions between 492 different tissues ¹¹.

 Microfluidics are classified into two types: flow-based channel microfluidics (CMF) and electric-based digital microfluidics (DMF). Individual droplet manipulation, multistep processes, flexible electric-496 automatic control, and the ability for point-of-care are all benefits of DMF over CMF 64 . The physical barrier of microfluidic 3D cell culture system is composed of glass/silicon, polymers such as polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS), polymethylmethacrylate (PMMA), polycarbonate (PC) and polystyrene (PS). PDMS is the most often utilized substance due to biocompatibility, inexpensive, has good gas 500 permeability and transparent capability, however, scaling-up process is more difficult . Simple microfluidics devices are increasingly being fabricated and created by soft lithography techniques to develop patterned environments that are reasonably easy to fabricate and compatible with the 503 majority of biological systems $16,56$.

 Microfluidics technique capable of continuous perfusion for faster spheroid formation, to produce uniform size and shape spheroids for high-throughput screening, It allows patterning of cells and extracellular environment to create co culturing cells in spatially controlled manner, generation of and control signalling gradients, integration of perfusion, low reagent / sample consumption, which significantly reduces costs in bioanalysis, real-time imaging and to constructing tissue-level and organ 509 level structures *in vitro* ^{16,18,46,50}. In the other hand disadvantage is it is highly expensive, hard to collect 510 cells for analysis, hard to scale-up, need complicated equipment and complexity $46,48,65$.

 Microfluidic devices are complex dynamic micro scale environments that simulate 3D *in vivo* environments, such as a complex chemical gradient. Its micro scale dimensions are consistent with 513 those of numerous *in vivo* microstructures and environments ⁶⁶. Capillaries in the brain, for example, 514 ranging from 7-10 µm in diameter, with an average intercapillary distance of about 40 µm 67 . Microfluidic devices' versatility and simplicity of fabrication allow them to be used in a wide range of applications in glioma research. These include migration studies, biomarker assessment, cell sorting 517 from tissue samples, and treatment effectiveness testing 68,69 . The time course for culture is heavily influenced by cell type, cell density, and device type. Scientists might possibly obtain critical

 information on tumor status from specific patient samples using microfluidic devices and recommend 520 personalized therapy within in two weeks .

 Researchers demonstrated that organ-on-a-chip GBM model matched the clinical outcomes during the patient-specific sensitivity against temozolomide (TMZ). This technology has also been used to study the interaction within the perivascular niche, which suggests that glioma CSCs located around the vasculature and presenting with the lowest motility are most likely of the proneural subtype, while those with the highest invasiveness are most likely of the mesenchymal subtype; this further supports 526 the role of the tumor niche on intratumoral heterogeneity and subsequent treatment response 70 . In another study, an oxygen and nutritional gradient is produced in the tumor cell embedded ECM containing core chamber by delivering a regular flow via one lateral channel while shutting the other $\frac{71}{1}$. This model replicates blood artery thrombosis in the brain, as seen in glioblastoma growth, and 530 allows for the observation of thrombosis-induced variables that impact invasion in real time . The promise of microfluidic devices as sophisticated artificial systems capable of mimicking *in vivo* 532 nutrition and oxygen gradients during tumor progression is demonstrated in this article .

 The development of microfluidic technology has simplified, facilitated, and shortened the drug 535 discovery process 72 . It also a valuable tools for the development of wide range of biological systems, from single-cell biophysical characterization to the miniaturization of a complete laboratory onto a single chip (lab-on-a-chip), and lately, the recapitulation of organ physiological parameters onto a chip 538 (organ on chip / vasculature on a chip) $50,73$.

3D Bio printing

 3D Bio printing (Figure 5 D) is a novel bottom-up approach to fabricate complex biological constructs 542 for 3D cell and tissue culture 24 . It is also able to control mechanical and biological properties of the 543 construct with high resolution in the X, Y and Z planes . 3D bio printing is layer-by-layer deposition

544 of bio-inks 21 to build viable 3D constructions in a spatially specified way, guided by a computer-aided 545 software $74,75$. It's able to enhance additional factors (cell types, materials, growth factors, 546 differentiation factors and print the 3D construct with extraordinary spatial control at high resolution 547 through a layer by layer process $74,76$. The main issue for bio printing is to print cells and bio-ink 548 concurrently without impacting cell viability or substituting chemical solvents 33.

549 The bio-inks can be classifies as soft biomaterials (scaffold base bio-ink) and cells bio printed without 550 an exogenous biomaterial (scaffold-free bio-ink)⁷⁵. Layers of soft biomaterials are deposited to form 551 an extracellular matrix, which contains live cells, arranged into a cell network that closely resembles 552 the real tumor 77 . Single-step bio fabrication techniques including inkjet, micro extrusion, and laser-553 assisted bio printing uses with soft biomaterials, which can fabricate 3D structures decreasing user 554 input mistakes ^{56,75}. While scaffold-free bio-ink, cells are grown up to small neo tissues that are three-555 dimensionally scattered and will eventually combine and develop to a more complicated structure. It 556 is also possible to use 3D bio printing to create biosimilar acellular scaffolds and then include a cellular 557 component using the top-down method (two-step fabrication), this approach has several limitations, 558 including poor reproducibility, cell density control, and spatial distribution control ^{56,75}.

559 3D printing can applied to develop GBM models with vascular channels to get better understanding 560 of six core and two emergent hallmarks underpin tumour development and metastasis 78 . Research 561 team developed of an integrated platform that allows for the generation of an *in vitro* 3D GBM model 562 with perfused vascular channels that allows for long-term culture and drug (TMZ) delivery 79 . Glioma 563 stem cells (GSCs) have been revealed in recent research to have a role in tumor vascularization by 564 secreting vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF). Wang et al. (2018a) used 3D printing to create a 565 3D glioma model to investigate the vascularization potential of patient-derived CSCs ⁸⁰. Heinrich et al. 566 (2019) created a 3D-bioprinted mini-brain made up of GBM cells and macrophages to explore the 567 interaction between glioma CSCs and other non-tumor cells. The authors discovered that glioma cells 568 interact with macrophages and induce TAM polarization in patients' tissue ⁸¹.

 Scientists used cellular and a-cellular components from the patient's adipose tissue to create a variety of customised bio-inks. After transplantation, these tailored patches will not elicit an immunological response, obviating the requirement for immunosuppression. This demonstrates the 3D printing approach's potential for organ replacement after failure or drug screening in a suitable anatomical **framework** . Three-dimensional biological constructions are a novel and promising method of 574 research not only in GBM but also in other diseases ⁷⁷. Recently, researchers used this techniques and tailored hydrogel as a bio-ink to construct a thick, vascularized, perfusable cardiac patch and heart- like structure. These cardiac patches are a potential field for human tissue engineering since they 577 perfectly match the patient's immunological, biological, biochemical, and anatomical features ⁸². The similar technique can be applied by using the personalized brain patches, possible to replicate the architecture of tissues to get better understanding of the therapeutic efficiency.

Advance TME models and applications

 Cancer stem cells (CSC) differ from typical stem cells in several ways, including hyper-efficient DNA repair processes, the expression of multidrug resistance-related ATP-binding cassette (ABC) membrane transporters, hypoxic niche tolerance, and the over-expression of anti-apoptotic proteins. Furthermore, in the case of cancer, the difference between CSCs and non-CSCs may be linked to 586 epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) ^{46,56}. Scientists have recently focused on CSC's due to its role in tumor growth, metastasis, recurrence and drug resistance, and 3D cell culture is a vital tool to 588 studying that due to the abundance of CSC^{29,46,48}. CSC's from 3D cell culture have a distinct morphology signaling pathway profiles, cell–matrix and cell–cell interactions and gene expression 590 pattern than CSCs from 2D culture ^{29,46}. Multiple genes related with stress response, inflammation, redox signaling, hypoxia, and angiogenesis are up-regulated. In comparison to 2D cultures, CSC spheroid cultures demonstrated benefits such as increased paracrine cytokine production, stronger 593 anti-apoptotic and anti-oxidative properties, and higher amounts of ECM proteins $16,29$. Glioblastoma

 stem cells (GSC) share features of GBM such as resistance to therapeutic treatments, high invasiveness, and similar epigenetic patterns. The DNA methylation pattern of GBM-derived cancer stem cells was analysed, and it was shown that these cells have the same methylation pattern as 597 primary GBM-derived xenograft tumors ⁸³. It implies that GSC culture conditions preserve the majority of their original epigenetic pattern, implying that GSC are legitimate and appropriate *in vitro* model 599 for determining the functional effect of epigenetic alteration on cellular parameters $27,83$. Researchers demonstrated that the growing GBM cells on 3D porous chitosan-alginate scaffolds greatly enhances proliferation and enrichment of cells possessing the hallmarks of CSCs. The 3D model was discovered to be more tumorigenic and to promote the expression of genes involved in the epithelial-to-603 mesenchymal transition, which has been linked to the development of CSCs .

 Blood–brain barrier (BBB) prevents several chemotherapeutic drugs from accumulating to effective 605 concentrations in glioblastoma and other brain tumors 78 . Researchers developed 3D-bioprinted GBM and BBB models, focusing on the TME compositions of GBM and BBB, appropriate biomaterials to imitate the *in-vivo* tissue architecture, and bio-printing methodologies for model fabrication. This 608 model offer potential systems for more reliable mechanistic research and preclinical drug screens . Hajal and colleagues also developed an *in vitro* model of the human BBB from stem-cell-derived / primary brain endothelial cells, primary brain pericytes, and astrocytes that self-assembled within microfluidic devices. This BBB model showed important cellular structure and morphological traits, as well as molecular permeability values that are within the predicted *in vivo* range. These characteristics, together with a functional brain endothelial expression profile and the ability to test several repetitions rapidly and inexpensively, make these advance BBB models excellent for therapeutic 615 discovery and development .

 TME is entails of a diverse population of **immune cells**, including microglia, macrophages, CD4+ T cells, CD8+ T cells, regulatory T cells, myeloid-derived suppressor cells, NK cells, and dendritic cells, 618 indicating that GBM has a strong immunological component . Parenchymal microglia play critical

619 roles in brain development, homeostasis maintenance, disorders and regulating several mechanisms 620 such as synaptic pruning, maturation, and angiogenesis ⁸⁸. Because of their ramified motile processes, 621 parenchymal microglia are capable of monitoring and phagocytizing any hazardous chemicals 88 . 622 Furthermore, microglia can enhance angiogenesis, emphasizing the importance of microglia-cerebral 623 vasculature communication ⁸⁸. Macrophages are also engaged in brain homeostasis maintenance and 624 reside in the non-parenchymal perivascular space, subdural meningeal spaces, and choroid plexus 625 spaces ^{88,89}. These Glioma associated microglia and macrophages have been demonstrated to adopt 626 predominantly M2 phenotypes, leading to anti-inflammation/ immunosuppression and hence aiding 627 tumor development $87,90$. Tumor cells appear to promote microglia mobility by upregulating genes 628 involved in migration and invasion $87,90$. IL-10, MMPs, and arginase-1 are further immunosuppressive 629 substances released by glioma-associated microglia and macrophages 87 . Furthermore, tumor cells 630 and glioma associated microglia and macrophages secrete chemokines like monocyte chemotactic 631 protein-1, CCL2, capable of attracting myeloid derived suppressor cells such as immature 632 macrophages, granulocytes, dendritic cells, and myeloid progenitors to the tumor 87,89. Ultimately they 633 can promote tumor growth through the release of anti-inflammatory cytokines for instance TGF-b and 634 IL-10 $87,89$. There is, however, a lack of advanced 3D GBM models to study parenchymal, peripheral 635 immune cell crosstalk and immune cell infiltration.

636 **Microbiome** play an important role in the human immune system's induction, preparation, regulation, 637 and function, While Specific microbiota may also lead to immune suppression $91,92$. Gut microbiota 638 generates metabolites such as short chain fatty acids, which inhibit pro-inflammatory cytokine 639 release, promote regulatory T cell growth and IL10 secretion $91,92$. A portion of the circulating short 640 chain fatty acids may potentially enter the CNS 92 . Furthermore, the integrity of the BBB is 641 compromised during neuro-inflammation due to the actions of IL1, IL6, and TNF α ^{91,92}. It has to be 642 established if the microbiome-induced mediators or metabolites also affect the BBB disruption and 643 elicit immune suppression in the brain 92 . The brain, glands, gut, immune cells, and gastrointestinal 644 microbiota are all part of the microbiota–gut–brain axis. Gut microbiota also influences brain function 645 and behaviour through neuronal, endocrine, and immunological pathways ^{92,93}. Researchers revealed that the gut microbiome influences the anticancer immune response and reduces the effectiveness of 647 chemotherapeutic cancer treatment . The potential impact of the microbiome on brain tumor treatment techniques should be investigated with more advance 3D co-culture models with tumour-resident bacterial strains.

 Investigating **GBM / normal tissue interactions** are vital in brain cancer therapeutics hence, advanced 3D GBM co-culture models will be needed to develop, to explore the crosstalk and metabolic interactions between glioma cells and the normal glial cells such as astrocytes, oligodendrocytes, neurons and a range of normal resident brain cells. 3D cell culture also able to co culturing with different cell types, including mixed populations of tumor cells and cancer associated fibroblasts (CAF), 655 to develop increasingly accurate *in vitro* models of disease and physiology ²⁵. The importance of glioblastoma multiforme cellular interaction with endothelial cells can be studied with co culture techniques to get proper understanding of the endothelial interaction on tumor progression for 658 identify novel therapeutic approaches $25,65$. Also by adding cells such as blood vessels, can use to investigate interactions between blood vessels and cancer or how drug help to antiangiogenic effect in cancer. Researchers examined available *in vivo* data to calculate the quantities and numerical ratios of GBM and normal brain cells necessary to establish a complete and incomplete GBM resection dual co-culture model. The results indicated that drug discovery utilizing this dual co-culture methodology 663 is feasible and provides steady and reliable drug testing outcomes .

 GBM Organoids are a novel experimental paradigm of modern reductionists' approach. The combination of embryonic stem cells or induced pluripotent stem cells or resident stem cells, contemporary 3D culture, controlled environment and differentiation techniques has allowed us to leverage pluripotent stem cells' self-organization capacity to form human brain-like tissues known as 668 brain organoids or mini-brains 5.77 . Brain organoids are a promising new technology that has opened 669 up new avenues for cancer modeling, ex vivo investigation of molecular and cellular mechanisms 26,77 ,

 while many properties of neural epithelial cells in these 3D tissues are cyto-architecturally analogous 671 to the developing human brain ^{5,11}. These organoids imitate the *in vivo* cell heterogeneity present in the tumor microenvironment by resembling the *in vivo* architecture of the tissue of origin and 673 recapitulate cell proliferation, self-organization, and differentiation $11,27$. A GBM model was created by genetically engineering brain organoids in a recent study. Researchers developed a GBM model organoid by inserting the HRasG12V oncogene into human brain organoids and using CRISPR/Cas9 to alter the fourth exon of the TP53 locus. This mutant cell, which has a characteristic similar to the aggressive mesenchymal subtype of GBM, proliferates quickly and invades the organoid. Furthermore, they revealed that primary human derived glioblastoma cell lines can be transplanted into human 679 cerebral organoids to induce tumors $11,77,95$. Recently, Scientists also employed brain organoids to model CNS pathologies of COVID‐19 and provide initial insights into the potential neurotoxic effect of 681 SARS-CoV-2⁹⁶. Gunti and colleagues reviewed several tumor organoid models, procedures for 682 establish them, recent advances and applications of tumor organoids in detail . Currently, basic organoid models are being used by researchers for therapeutic discovery and development. In future we need to develop multifactorial complex models incorporating CSC, BBB, GBM tumour microenvironment, including microbiomes, vasculature, extracellular matrix, infiltrating parenchymal and peripheral immune cells and molecules, exosomes and chemical gradients to develop personalized medicine and to achieve efficient therapeutic discovery and development.

Challenges and future prospective

 3D cell culture, however, has proven it has the potential to completely change the way in which new drug treatments are tested, diseases are modelled, stem cells are utilized, and organs are transplanted

 $\frac{16,77}{ }$. The capacity to accurately simulate the intricacy of the TME is a major hurdle in developing physiologically appropriate *in vitro* models for drug screening and cancer biology research. By co- cultivating various cell types in a specified 3D matrix, custom-tailored ECM gels with specific amino- acid sequences, more advanced pre-clinical models must develop with cell–ECM or cell–cell 698 interactions inside and between the TME . Furthermore, combining diverse approaches, like as organotypic cultures and organoids, with 3D bio-printing, might improve the investigation of cell 700 interactions in GBM $30,77$. In future to address this obstacle closely, researchers will develop Four- dimensional (4D) bio printing, a next generation of bio fabrication technology, involving the use of stimuli-responsive biomaterials that can be altered in a time-dependent manner (fourth dimension) 703 in an attempt to mimic the physiological activities of TME $56,75$.

 If we can selectively open the BBB, then the future we could give much lower doses of powerful drugs, which would likely reduce toxic side effects and make treatment safer as well as more effective for patients. 3D cell culture and 3D printing technology can be used to create model BBB to study it effects effectively. The emerging technologies like as 4D real imaging, microfluidics, organ-on-a-chip technology, and single cell sequencing will undoubtedly be used to reveal unique insights into the 709 biology of GB tumoroids, revealing hitherto undiscovered potentials of these models ⁹⁸.

 In future, Advancement in 3D cell culture will become feasible to construct entire 3D *in vitro* GB 711 organoids, which will eventually lead to personalized treatments for glioblastoma^{29,55,98}. The inclusion 712 of patient-derived cells into standardized 3D tumor models will capture cancer heterogeneity , as well as repair damaged organs using patient cells to avoid rejection from the immune components 714 $16,20$. Ultimately, 3D cell culture research has enormous potential as a cutting-edge frontier in 715 regenerative, precision, and customized medicine .

TABLE 1 | The Current Three-Dimensional cell culture systems for cancer research applications: Key Strengths and Weaknesses

Table 2: Comparison of 2D and 3D cell culture methods.

TABLE 3 |Different types of 3D cell culture techniques and their applications, outcomes in glioma research

TABLE 4 | Comparison of different 3D cell culture techniques and equipments, highlighting their respective merits and demerits for both 3D tumor model production and applications.

Acknowledgments

This study was supported by Science Foundation Ireland (SFI) under Grant Number 17/CDA/4653 and

funded through Teagasc Walsh Fellowship. The authors also thank TU Dublin and ESHI Research

Institute for the use of facilities and support of technical staff.

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