Polyclonal and single clonal patient-derived organoid models of Barrett oesophagus and oesophageal adenocarcinoma establish a platform for the analysis of heterogeneity in disease progression and therapy response

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HIGHLIGHTS

1. Patient- and healthy donor-derived organoids (PDOs) provide a functional platform of disease progression and heterogeneity across normal gastric, non-dysplastic and dysplastic Barrett oesophagus (BO) and oesophageal adenocarcinoma (OAC).

2. We provide a quantitative phenotypic and molecular framework to assess the provenance and fidelity of each PDO model given the heterogeneity of this disease.

3. PDOs recapitulate key features of non-dysplastic and dysplastic BO, as well as invasive OAC.

4. Single cell-derived clonal organoids (sc-organoids) isolate and maintain high-risk subclonal populations.

5. OAC PDOs mirror known population level variation in response to systemic anti-cancer therapies.

SUMMARY/ABSTRACT

Oesophageal adenocarcinoma (OAC) is a major cause of morbidity and mortality. OAC and its precursor, Barrett oesophagus (BO), are defined by substantial early heterogeneity, complicating prevention and treatment of OAC and remaining poorly recapitulated by current *in vitro* and animal model systems. We have generated 116 patient- and healthy donor- derived organoids (PDOs) spanning normal oesophagogastric tissue, BO and OAC. These PDOs capture population diversity and recapitulate phenotypic, genomic and transcriptomic features of their respective disease stages. We develop a single cell-derived clonal organoid approach and show that this enables us to capture the heterogeneity and isolate high-risk, subclonal populations that are difficult to discern and maintain in bulk PDO cultures. Using this platform, we demonstrate functional importance of this biobank across the pre-malignant to invasive disease spectrum, including a role for BO in shaping fibroblast phenotype within assembloids, and diverse responses of OAC to chemotherapy, radiotherapy and targeted CDK4/6 inhibition.

Key words: Barrett oesophagus; Dysplasia; Oesophageal adenocarcinoma; Organoid; Assembloid; Heterogeneity; Systemic anti-canccer therapy; Chemotherapy; Radiotherapy

INTRODUCTION

Oesophageal adenocarcinoma (OAC) is an important cause of cancer-related morbidity and mortality, with an overall five-year survival rate of less than 20%[1]. Around 85,000 people are diagnosed with OAC each year, corresponding to a global age-standardised incidence of 0.9 cases per 100,000 persons[2]. Following increases in incidence since the 1970s, OAC is now the dominant subtype in over 20 high income countries, where rates reach as high as 3.4 cases per 100,000 people[2, 3].

The development of OAC follows the replacement of the normal stratified oesophageal squamous epithelium with a metaplastic mosaic of gastric and intestinal like epithelium[4]. This lesion, Barrett oesophagus (BO), originates from cells within the gastric cardia, likely in response to exposure to injurious gastric refluxate[4, 5]. BO typified by intestinal metaplastic features can progress to dysplasia and invasive disease but this occurs in a minority of patients, with an annual risk of OAC of just 0.3% for a person with a non-dysplastic lesion[6]. Greater phenotypic and molecular variation also correlates with the risk of progression to OAC[7-9]. A more precise understanding of events leading to progression is vital to enabling early detection and interception strategies[10]. The heterogenous nature of the BO precursor lesion gives rise to a highly diverse cancer at phenotypic and molecular levels of resolution[11-13]. This tumour heterogeneity establishes a therapeutic landscape with few recurrent actionable drivers for targeted therapies and high levels of resistance to conventional treatments and immunotherapy, leading to poor outcomes[10, 14].

There is consequently a need to develop an experimental platform that recapitulates inter- and intra-lesional heterogeneity from the development of BO through to its dysplastic progression to OAC. In this context, animal models are poorly representative and do not reproduce between-patient heterogeneity[15]. The use of animal models is also costly and resource intensive, with multiple ethical implications that have prompted calls to move away from their routine use. By contrast, we have previously shown that OAC patient-derived organoids (PDOs) can be established[16]; however, the extent to which these also reproducibly demonstrate heterogeneity in therapeutic response to established therapies including cytotoxic chemotherapy and external beam radiotherapy (EBRT) is less certain[17, 18]. PDOs also lack stromal factors that are known to contribute to disease pathogenesis and treatment response, such as the presence of fibroblasts[19, 20]. Moreover, establishing these models from precancerous lesions has proven more challenging[16]. The aim of this study was therefore to establish and characterise a PDO biobank of

sufficient scale to recapitulate the full spectrum of heterogeneity at each stage of disease

progression, including normal gastric epithelium, non-dysplastic and dysplastic BO, and

treatment-naïve as well as treated OAC. Using a combination of genomic sequencing and *in silico*

modelling of PDO growth and morphology, we provide a quantitative toolkit to characterise each

organoid. To address intralesional heterogeneity in BO, we also introduce novel, single cell-

derived clonal organoids (sc-organoids) to unmask minor cell populations at high risk of

dysplastic progression that may be missed in bulk analyses or lost through successive passages.

We show that co-culture with fibroblasts (termed assembloids) and microenvironmental

stressors results in altered epithelial-fibroblast interactions and the reprogramming of stromal

components. Finally, we demonstrate that OAC PDO phenotypic and molecular heterogeneity

translates to variation between PDOs in their response to different forms of cytotoxic

chemotherapy, EBRT and targeted therapy.

METHODS

Study approach and regulatory approval

Samples were obtained from surgical or endoscopic resection specimens obtained from patients

with known BO, dysplasia or OAC (sampling and PDO biobank summarised in **Supplementary**

Figure 1). Prior ethical approval was provided by the United Kingdom Health Research Authority,

including: "A study to investigate the cell biological determinants of the development and

progression of the pre-malignant condition in Barrett's oesophagus" (Biomarker), 01/149;

"Multicentre Study to determine predictive and prognostic biomarkers and therapeutic targets

for oesophageal and junctional adenocarcinoma including whole genome sequencing"

(OCCAMS), 10/H0305/1; "A study using tissue to develop stem cell-based therapies and to

investigate human physiology, pathology and embryonic development" (Organ donor),

15/EE/0152. All patients provided written informed consent prior to sampling, which was

performed within a National Health Service setting.

Sampling strategy

To derive non-dysplastic BO PDOs two to three biopsy specimens were taken from the same

region at surveillance endoscopy, with a preference for adjacent sampling wherever possible. All

dysplastic BO PDOs and a single OAC PDO were obtained from specimens taken via a punch

biopsy from an endoscopic mucosal resection (EMR). For OAC models, resection specimens

were evaluated and samples obtained for organoid derivation and adjacent tissue for snap

freezing. For control gastric PDOs and intestinal PDOs, both patients and disease-free organ

donor tissues were used. Samples were briefly minced and mixed to ensure homogeneity, and
half or two thirds of the tissue mixture was immediately processed to derive PDOs, the methods
for which are outlined below. The remnant was snap-frozen using liquid nitrogen and stored at -
80°C for profiling of adjacent tissues recognising that given the heterogeneity there will be
potential differences at the cell and molecular level. To further mitigate and understand the
genotype to phenotype correlation in all cases, a section was cut from each snap frozen sample
and stained with haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) prior to DNA extraction. The H&E-stained slide
was independently reviewed by at least two experienced pathologists to assess cellularity, and
to confirm malignancy for OAC or to assess for the presence and severity of dysplasia in BO. In all
instances, only samples with at least 70% cellularity were used for deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA)
or ribonucleic acid (RNA) extraction using the AllPrep kit (Qiagen). DNA was extracted from blood
samples using the QIAmp DNA Blood Maxi kit (Qiagen). In all cases a germline reference was
obtained from blood wherever possible or otherwise from distant normal mucosa.

Derivation of BO PDOs

To derive BO PDOs, biopsy samples were rinsed in ice-cold phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and
pooled. These were then minced and digested using recombinant TrypLE Express Enzyme
(ThermoFisher) supplemented with 10µM Y-27632 (Tocris Bioscience) at 37°C for up to 10
minutes. Vigorous shaking was used every three minutes to dissociate tissue aggregates. Cells
were pelleted at 300g for 5 minutes and resuspended in 150µl TrpLE Express Enzyme. Further
mechanical dissociation was achieved using a P200 pipette prior to centrifugation at 300g for 5
minutes. The resultant single cell mixture was resuspended in Cultrex Basement Membrane
Extract (BME) Type 2 (R&D Systems) and plated as 15µl domes for ongoing culture.

Derivation of OAC PDOs

Samples obtained from surgical resection specimens were processed as per our previously
reported protocol[16]. Briefly, each sample was rinsed in ice-cold PBS, minced then digested
through incubation at 37°C with collagenase II (1.5mg/ml) for up to 2 hours. Large fragments were
then removed by filtration using a 70µM cell strainer and the resultant cell suspension centrifuged
at 400g for 2 minutes. The pellet was resuspended in PBS as a further wash step to remove debris
and a further identical centrifugation step performed. Isolated cells were then resuspended in
Cultrex BME Type 2 and plated as 15µl-20µl domes for ongoing culture.

Derivation of gastric and intestinal PDOs

Gastric PDOs were established either from endoscopic biopsies of the gastric cardia from BO

patients or from gastroesophageal junction (GOJ) tissue from disease-free organ donors. For

gastric cardia PDOs derived from BO patients, biopsy specimens were processed using the same

protocol as for BO PDO derivation. Gastric PDOs from organ donors were generated as described

in our previous study[5] . Briefly, a circumferential tissue fragment (up to 10 cm in length) spanning

3–5 cm of distal oesophagus and 3–5 cm of proximal stomach was obtained. GOJ PDOs were

established from a 5 mm tissue strip spanning the Z-line (squamous–columnar junction). Gastric

body PDOs were derived from tissue located at least 2 cm below the Z-line. Intestinal PDOs were

kindly provided by Professor Fiona Gribble, University of Cambridge. In brief, intestinal organoids

were generated from healthy jejunal or duodenal tissue obtained from patients undergoing

gastrectomy or pancreaticoduodenectomy **(Supplementary Table 2)**. Note: although organ-

donor-derived organoids are not strictly patient-derived, we refer to them as PDOs for

consistency and ease of interpretation throughout the manuscript.

PDO culture

All PDO cultures were maintained in a humidified atmosphere with 5% carbon dioxide (CO_2) at

37°C. PDOs were maintained in IntestiCult™ Organoid Growth Medium (StemCell Technologies)

supplemented with Primocin (1mg/ml, InvivoGen) and Y-27632 (10µM), with or without FGF10

(100ng/ml, Peprotech) and Gastrin (10nM, Sigma). Media was refreshed every two to five days for

cell maintenance outside of specific experimental conditions. PDOs were passaged at least

every two weeks through the addition of pre-warmed TypLE Express Enzyme and manual

dissociation by pipetting. The resultant cell solution was centrifuged at 300g for 5 minutes,

providing a cell pellet that was resuspended in Cultrex Basement Membrane Extract, Type 2 and

plated as 15µl-20µl domes that were allowed to polymerise prior to the addition of media. Once

established, BO and intestinal PDO cultures were maintained in organoid medium (OWR)

prepared from Advanced Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM)/F-12 supplemented with

0.5nM Wnt Surrogate-Fc Fusion Protein (N001, U-Protein Express BV), 9.6nM RSPO3-Fc Fusion

Protein conditioned medium (R001, U-Protein Express), 10mM HEPES, 1× Glutamax, 1× N2,

100ng/mL Noggin, 10 mM Nicotinamide, 1 mM N-acetylcysteine, 1×B27, 50ng/mL EGF, 500nM

A8301, 10µM SB202190, 1× Primocin, 10nM Gastrin, 10µM Y-27632 and 100ng/mL FGF10.

Establishment of single cell-derived clonal organoids

To isolate specific clonal populations, we cultured PDOs to around 70-80% confluency in Cultrex

BME Type 2 domes. Culture medium was then removed and replaced with an ice-cold mixture

comprising of a 1:1 ratio of TrypLE Express Enzyme and Advanced Dulbecco's Modified Eagle
Medium (DMEM)/F-12 supplemented with 10μM Y27632 (TrypLE/ADF). A P1000 pipette was then
used to manually break the BME Type 2 domes whilst leaving PDOs intact. The resultant mixture
was transferred to the underside of a sterile Corning cell culture plate lid with multiple 40μl
TrypLE/ADF droplets. Using a brightfield microscope, the PDO suspension was inspected for
single organoids exceeding a diameter of 200μm. Once identified, these were aspirated under
direct vision using a P20 pipette and transferred to a TrypLE/ADF droplet. This process was
repeated multiple times and each droplet then transferred to a fresh 1.5ml microcentrifuge tube.
This was incubated at 37°C for five minutes using a ThermoMixer® (Eppendorf). A P20 was then
used to mechanically dissociate the isolated PDO and the resultant single cell solution
resuspended in Cultrex BME Type 2 and plated as 15μl domes for ongoing culture. Of note, to
study heterogeneity in BO and dysplasia, single organoids were picked from passage 0 cultures,
i.e. cultures established directly from tissue without any passaging, to ensure that distinct clonal
populations were selected.
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Establishment of assembloid co-cultures
Primary human oesophageal fibroblasts (ABM-T4232, Applied Biological Materials), were a gift
from Professor Jacqueline Shields, University of Nottingham. Fibroblasts were maintained in
Fibroblast Medium (SC-2301, Caltag Medsystems Ltd). Organoids were harvested, resuspended,
and mixed with fibroblasts at a 1:2 ratio in OWR medium supplemented with 5% foetal bovine
serum (FBS) and 10% Cultrex BME Type 2, and seeded into round-bottom 96 well plates. Each
well contained 100μL with 225,000 cells. Plates were centrifuged at 300g for 5 minutes to pellet
cells and then incubated at 37°C overnight. During this period, the cells self-assembled into a
sphere, which was subsequently transferred into a Cultrex BME Type 2 dome in a 48 well plate as
assembloids and maintained in OWR medium for 7 days.
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To explore microenvironmental influences, assembloids were treated for 7 days with either 5 mM
refluxate salt (sodium glycocholate hydrate; Sigma), 10 ng/mL IL10 (R&D Systems), or a
combination of both. For conditions containing refluxate salt, assembloids were exposed to the
treatment for only 6 hours per day. Assembloids from each treatment condition were dissociated
into a single cell suspension and stained with LIVE/DEAD™ Fixable Violet (1:1000, Thermo Fisher
Scientific). For detection of human-specific markers, the following antibodies were used: anti-
EpCAM (APC, clone 9C4, BioLegend), anti-α-SMA (PE, clone 1A4, R&D Systems), and anti-CD34
(BV510, clone 581, BioLegend). Intracellular staining was performed as outlined previously[21].

Briefly, cells were fixed using the Cytofix/Cytoperm Fixation and Permeabilization Solution (BD

Biosciences, UK) and permeabilized with 1x permeabilization buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

UK). Positive staining was assessed relative to fluorescence-minus-one (FMO) controls. Doublets

and dead cells were excluded during analysis. Fibroblasts within the assembloids were gated

from the EpCAM-negative population. Data were acquired on an LSRFortessa (BD Biosciences)

and analysed using FlowJo software (Freestar Inc).

PDO treatment using systemic anti-cancer therapies

The viability of OAC PDOs was assessed following exposure to individual components of FLOT (all

supplied by SelleckChem) and to the cell cycle inhibitor, abemaciclib (LKT labs). To mirror clinical

administration, oxaliplatin and docetaxel were administered to PDOs as single agents whereas

5-fluorouracil was administered in combination with a fixed dose of leucovorin. Each drug was

reconstituted as per manufacturer instructions and each was diluted in either DMSO (5-

fluorouracil, docetaxel, and abemaciclib) or ultrapure water (oxaliplatin and leucovorin) to values

within a range of 200µM-0.195µM for components of FLOT, except for leucovorin, which was

administered at 10µM on all occasions, and 0.001-10µM for abemaciclib. Values for both dilution

series were selected based on others reported in the literature[22, 23]. The concentration of DMSO

was fixed at ≤0.1% within treatment and control vehicle wells.

In line with existing protocols, PDOs were dissociated using TrypLE Express Enzyme then counted

and resuspended in BME Type 2 prior to drug exposure[16, 24]. A total of 5000 cells were seeded

within 20µL BME Type 2 droplets formed at the centre of each well of a 96-well plate. These were

allowed to polymerise prior to the addition of media. Cultures were maintained for 72 hours and

then exposed to drug when in a logarithmic growth stage. Viability was assessed after 144 hours

exposure to components of FLOT, abemaciclib, or vehicle. Media, including drug or vehicle, was

refreshed after 72 hours for PDOs treated with FLOT constituent drugs.

PDO treatment using external beam radiotherapy

Prior to irradiation, established PDOs were dissociated to a single cell solution. This was

performed by first dissociating PDOs from Cultrex Basement Membrane Extract, Type 2, through

incubation with pre-warmed TypLE Express Enzyme and manual agitation by pipetting.

Dissociated PDOs were pelleted by centrifugation at 300g for 5 minutes and resuspended in 30µl

cool PBS. A P20 pipette was then used to manually dissociate the PDOs to a single cell solution

and the cell concentration assessed using a Countess II Automated Cell Counter (Invitrogen). A

total of 10,000 cells were plated in 15μl Cultrex Basement Membrane Extract, Type 2 with media added once this had polymerised. The media was replaced with pre-warmed PBS prior to irradiation 24 hours later using a CIX1 (XStrahl) benchtop irradiator. Single fraction treatments of 0Gy (sham), 2Gy, 4Gy, 6Gy and 8Gy x-ray irradiation were delivered and PBS then replaced with media 15 minutes after irradiation.

Whole genome sequencing

Extracted DNA was subjected to paired-end whole genome sequencing at a depth of 50x for tissues, 30x for PDOs and 15x for sc-organoids, using a well-established pipeline[11]. A combination of in-house tools and FastQC (http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc) were used for quality control. Sequencing reads were aligned against the hg19/Ensembl GRCh38 reference genome for mutation calling using the Burrows-Wheeler BWA-MEM alignment algorithm[25]. Aligned reads were subsequently sorted into genome coordinate order and Picard (http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard) used to remove duplicate reads. Single nucleotide variants and insertion deletion mutaitons were called with Strelka v2.0.15[26]. Tumour purity and ploidy were inferred with ASCAT-NGS v2.17, and copy number alterations derived with ASCAT from read counts at germline heterozygous sites identified by GATK HaplotypeCaller v3.2-2, adjusting for the estimated normal-cell component. Structural variants (SVs) were called using MANTA v0.27 with any SVs that had any supporting reads in the matched normal being discarded as previously described[27].

RNA sequencing

Extracted RNA was quality assessed using the RNA 6000 Nano Kit (Agilent) on a 2100 Bioanalyser (Agilent). Samples for which there was sufficient material available for further analysis and that had a calculable RNA integrity number were determined to have passed quality control and were quantified using the Qubit High sensitivity RNA assay kit (Thermo Fisher). The TruSeq Stranded Total RNA High Sensitivity protocol with ribosomal depletion was used to prepare libraries using an input of at least 100ng but preferably 250ng if available. KAPA quantification (KAPA Biosystems) was used to quantify libraries, which were pooled and run on a HiSeq 4000 to generate 75 base pair adjacent-end reads. After sequencing, reads were aligned by STAR. Gene-level counts for each sample were generated using Bioconductor's GenomicAlignments package together with ENSEMBL gene annotations. These raw counts, along with sample-specific

sequencing depths and gene lengths, were then used to calculate Transcripts Per Kilobase Million

(TPM) values for individual genes across all samples.

Bioinformatic analyses

In determining relevant driver events, we considered mutations in 76 genes identified by Frankell

et al. as positively selected for in OAC[11]. Amplification events were defined as cases where copy

number was more than double the sample ploidy, whilst deletion events were strictly defined as

a total copy number of zero. Losses in the single cell-derived clonal organoids were defined as a

minor copy number of zero. Two PDOs (OESO/117 and OESO/146) were used for chemotherapy

treatment screens but underwent WGS elsewhere. Clinical and genomic information for these

PDOs was obtained from Cell Model Passports (https://cellmodelpassports.sanger.ac.uk/).

The HRD index score, the sum of three HRD-associated copy number features applied here as a

broad measure of total chromosomal instability, was calculated using the scarHRD R package[28,

29]. Mutational signatures were extracted de novo using SigProfiler applied to the complete set of

OAC tissues and PDOs, resulting in the following signatures: SBS1, SBS2, SBS5, SBS8, SBS13,

SBS17a, SBS17b, SBS18, SBS31, SBS35, SBS40, SBS93[30]. These signatures were then fitted using

the deconstructSigs R package with a 2% prevalence cut-off[31]. Signatures SBS31 and SBS35 were

not fitted for BO PDOs since they are caused by platinum chemotherapy. Subclonal

reconstruction of the non-dysplastic BO PDOs was conducted with PyClone-VI using the beta-

binomial distribution[32].

Phylogenetic analysis of the single cell-derived clonal organoids was conducted using the

parsimony ratchet method as implemented through the phangorn R package[33], with branch

lengths assigned according to the ACCTRAN criteria. Specific SNVs were assigned to branches

onto which they fitted exactly based on their presence across organoids deriving from the

respective branch. A subset of the above signatures (SBS1, SBS2, SBS5, SBS8, SBS13, SBS17a,

SBS17b, SBS18, SBS40) with established presence in BO, and that do not relate to chemotherapy

treatment, were fitted using deconstructSigs to any branch with more than 25 unique SNVs.

Barplots for signature contributions were plotted onto the corresponding branch and extended

manually to fit the branch length.

Differential gene expression analysis was conducted using the DESeq2 R package[34]. Functional

enrichment of differentially expressed gene sets was analysed using the gProfiler2 R package[35],

specifically on genes with p-value (false discovery rate adjusted for multiple testing) of less than 0.05 and with an absolute log2-fold change greater than 1, and separated into up- and down-regulated genes. This package enables enrichment analysis against multiple databases including Gene Ontology, the Human Protein Atlas for cell-type analysis, and TRANSFAC for transcription factor-binding profiles. Gastric and intestinal gene set 'scores' were calculated through gene set variation analysis of the TPM-normalised data, using the GSVA R package[36], taking *MUC6*, *MUC5AC*, *CLDN18*, *PGC*, *GKN1*, *GKN2* as gastric genes and *MUC2*, *TFF3*, *REG4*, *GPA33*, *CDX2*, *FABP2*, *OLFM4*, *ANPEP* as intestinal genes.

RNA-seq counts for OAC-derived PDOs underwent batch correction using ComBat, as part of the sva R package[37]. Principal component analysis was conducted on the top 1000 variable genes following batch correction and variance stabilising transformation. Gene set enrichment analysis, using the cancer hallmark gene sets, was applied on the loadings of each gene for the first two principal components using fgsea. Normal gastric, normal intestinal, and BO-derived PDOs were sequenced in the same batch and so correction was not required.

Organoid forming efficiency assay

All PDOs were imaged on the day of, and 10-days following, irradiation using an Incucyte® SX5 Live-Cell Analysis System (Sartorius, Goettingen, Germany). The Incucyte® Organoid Analysis Module (Sartorius, Goettingen, Germany) was used to count the number of PDOs at each assessed timepoint using a segmentation radius of 100µm, segmentation sensitivity of 30, segmentation edge split with sensitivity of 100, cleanup with hole fill of 500,000µm^2 and an adjusted pixel size of -1. Filters were set to count objects as PDOs only with a minimum area of 1500µm^2 and maximum eccentricity of 0.25 as a strict cut-off to exclude budding, migrating or necrotic PDOs. Given that there should not be PDOs formed at day zero, the PDO count at this point was considered to reflect noise and was subtracted from the day 10 PDO count. Organoid formation efficiency was calculated for each radiation dose as the number of formed PDOs at day 10 divided by the cell seeding number, 10,000. Relative organoid forming efficiency was determined by dividing the organoid forming efficiency at each delivered dose by the organoid forming efficiency at 0Gy.

PDO viability

PDO viability was quantified using a luminescent assay 72- or 144- hours after respective administration of abemaciclib or FLOT. In accordance with manufacturer instructions, 20uL of

306 CellTiter-Glo® 3D (Promega) was applied to each well of a 96-well plate, which was then shaken
307 for five minutes. Plates were then incubated for 30 minutes in a humidified atmosphere with 5%
308 CO_2 and luminescence read using an Infinite 200 Pro microplate reader (Tecan).
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PDO fluorescent labelling
PDOs derived from BO and OAC were labelled with fluorescent nuclear markers via lentiviral
transduction. Briefly, PGK-H2B-eGFP or PGK-H2B-mCherry plasmids were co-transfected with
pMD2.G and psPAX2 into HEK293 cells (a gift from Sakari Vanharanta, University of Helsinki) to
produce lentivirus, following the protocol described in Kita-Matsuo et al[38]. Viral supernatant was
concentrated 16-fold using the Lenti-X™ Concentrator (631231, Takara Bio) and resuspended in
organoid medium. Organoids were harvested, resuspended in 15 µL (approximately 500,000
cells), mixed with 250 µL of concentrated lentivirus, and incubated for 4 hours at 37 °C. The
organoids were then washed, seeded, and maintained under standard culture conditions.
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PGK-H2BeGFP was a gift from Mark Mercola (Addgene plasmid # 21210;
http://n2t.net/addgene:21210; RRID: Addgene_21210). PGK-H2BmCherry was a gift from Mark
Mercola (Addgene plasmid # 21217; http://n2t.net/addgene:21217; RRID: Addgene_21217).
pMD2.G was a gift from Didier Trono (Addgene plasmid # 12259; http://n2t.net/addgene:12259;
RRID: Addgene_12259). psPAX2 was a gift from Didier Trono (Addgene plasmid # 12260;
http://n2t.net/addgene:12260; RRID: Addgene_12260).
326

Fluorescent in situ hybridisation
Flourescent *in situ* hybridisation (FISH) was performed using routine diagnostic *HER2* probes. As
previously described[39], PDO cultures were prepared using standard cytogenic procedures for
harvesting, fixation (3:1 methanol : acetic acid solution) and slide formation. All subsequent pre-
treatment and hybridisation steps were undertaken in accordance with manufacturer
instructions by the Department of Histopathology, Cambridge University Hospitals NHS
Foundation Trust.
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335 **Time-lapse imaging of PDO growth and morphology**
336 Time lapse imaging was performed using a Zeiss Axio Observer Live Cell Station at 10x
337 magnification at either 2-4 hourly intervals or at day 4, 6 and 7 after single cell seeding. Up to four
338 locations were imaged at each time interval with images captured across up to 23 slices through
339 a z-stack of the Cultrex BME Type 2 dome in which the PDOs are cultured. Brightfield images were

acquired, in addition to GFP fluorescence via excitation at 469nm with emission recorded at 525nm using a GFP filter set, and mCherry fluorescence via excitation at 590nm with emission at 687nm using an mCherry filter set. Exposure time and acquisition parameters were kept constant at all imaging intervals. Images were processed using Zeiss Zen software.

Computational analyses of PDO growth kinetics and morphology

Once processed, images of PDOs obtained at each timepoint were analysed using the Fiji distribution of ImageJ[40, 41]. Given an inherent partial eccentricity, each PDO was manually delineated using an ellipse. The minimum and maximum widths of this were averaged to give an approximate value for the PDO diameter. Though often visible across multiple levels of a z-stack, PDOs were measured only once, at the plane at which they were most in focus. PDOs were simultaneously categorised by morphology and distinguished by the presence or absence of a visible lumen, which if present was categorised as single or multiple, and whether the cells surrounding the lumen were a single cell layer or of multiple layers. For hollow PDOs (i.e. those with a lumen), the number of cells within that PDO was presumed to be proportional to the square of the diameter (i.e. the surface area). For solid organoids (i.e. those lacking a lumen), the number of cells in that PDO was presumed to be proportional to the cube of the PDO (i.e. the volume of the organoid).

An *in silico* cell-level model of PDO growth was built in CompuCell3D (CC3D) Version 4.2.5[42]. This implements a lattice-based multi-site Cellular Potts Monte Carlo model and has previously been used to model cells growing around a lumen. Briefly, each cell in this model can occupy a number of lattice sites. A model is developed to minimise the energy of the lattice conformation using the following equation:

$$E = \sum_{\vec{i},\vec{j}} J\left(\tau(\sigma(\vec{i})), \tau(\sigma(\vec{j}))\right)\left(1 - \delta(\sigma(\vec{i}), \sigma(\vec{j}))\right) + \sum_{\sigma} \lambda_{vol}(\sigma)\left(v(\sigma) - V_t(\sigma)\right)^2$$

where the first sum represents energy changes due to cell adhesion for every pair of neighbour lattice sites (*i, j*) and the second sum represents volume constraints for every cell, σ. In the first sum, *J* represents different adhesion energies between each pair of cell types $\tau(\sigma(\vec{i}))$ and $\tau(\sigma(\vec{j}))$, or between a cell type and the extracellular matrix. In the second equation, each cell has a target volume $V_t(\sigma)$ and a current volume $v(\sigma)$. The energy equation penalises deviation from the target volume, with $\lambda_{vol}(\sigma)$ representing cell elasticity. Multiple Monte Carlo Steps occur, with each considered a time unit proportional to experimental time. At each step each pixel will

attempt to copy itself to a neighbouring lattice site. This will succeed with probability 1 if the

change reduces the overall energy, E, in the system.

The model was implemented in two dimensions, representing experimentally captured images of

PDOs in cross section. Three cell types were used: polar, non-polar and lumen. Each lumen was

modelled as a single 'cell', with the size of this lumen 'cell' determined by the number and type of

cells surrounding the lumen.

Statistical analysis and reproducibility

All experiments were undertaken in at least biological triplicate unless otherwise stated. Given

the known challenges of inter-batch heterogeneity in Cultrex BME Type 2 (R&D Systems), all

biological replicates for irradiation experiments were performed using the same batch of BME

Type 2. Integral area under the curve (AUC) values for organoid forming efficiency following

irradiation were calculated using GraphPad Prism Version 10.4.1. for Windows (GraphPad

Software, Boston, USA). Percent viability following exposure to systemic anti-cancer therapy was

normalised to vehicle control and modelled against drug concentration using a three-parameter

logistic (3PL) curve in GraphPad Prism v10.4.1 with Top fixed at 100%, and Bottom and Hill slope

free. A four-parameter logistic (4PL) was also fit and retained only if it was clearly supported by

the Akaike Information Criterion with small-sample correction (AICc) (ΔAICc $\leq$ -4) and the top

95% confidence interval excluded 100% across biological replicates; otherwise 3PL was used.

Emax is reported as $100 -$ Bottom and the area under the curve (AUC) was computed over the

tested log-dose range and normalised and reported as 1-AUC. Pairwise comparisons were made

using the Mann-Whitney U test unless otherwise stated. Comparisons of more than two groups

were made using the Kruskal Wallis test unless otherwise stated. Adjustments for multiple

significance testing were made using the Bonferroni test unless otherwise stated in instances in

which repeated statistical comparisons were drawn from the same dataset.

Data availability

Metadata to correlate information within this archive to that published here is provided in

Supplementary Table 1.

Code availability

The scripts developed during the analysis presented here are available at the following GitHub

repository, released under a GNU GPL-v3.0 license: https://github.com/fitzgerald-

lab/OAC_Barretts_PDOprofiling. This includes scripts for analysing WGS data (e.g. driver gene

profiles, mutational concordance, signature contributions, phylogenetic analysis, clonal dynamic analysis) and RNA-seq data (differential expression, unsupervised clustering, pathway and gene-set analysis) obtained from BO, normal tissue-, and OAC-derived PDOs, and sc-organoids.

RESULTS

Establishment of PDOs spanning BO and healthy comparison tissues

The first aim was to develop a robust and representative PDO resource spanning the entire spectrum of BO development and progression prior to OAC development. Thirteen PDOs were derived from non-dysplastic BO segments at routine surveillance endoscopy and eight PDOs were derived from punch biopsies from regions of dysplasia in endoscopic mucosal resection specimens **(Table 1)**. Respective efficiencies for deriving PDOs were therefore 68% (13/18) and 61% (8/13) from non-dysplastic and dysplastic tissue. In addition,16 normal gastric PDOs were established, including seven from deceased healthy organ gastroesophageal squamocolumnar junction (n=4) and gastric body (n=3) donor tissues **(Supplementary Table 2)**. Nine further gastric PDOs were derived from patients with BO: one each from the gastric body and antrum, and seven from the cardia to give a range of gastric lineages. Three further PDOs were derived from normal intestinal tissue as control for the intestinal phenotype, which characterises BO with malignant potential. All PDOs were passaged at least five times, and all were successfully revived following cryopreservation.

BO PDOs recapitulate population heterogeneity and key features of non-dysplastic as well as dysplastic disease

We first sought to understand the genomic heterogeneity of the BO PDOs in relation to dysplasia status and in comparison to matching tissue samples. Median somatic mutation burden was comparable and reflected disease stage, with 2.11 muts/Mb in non-dysplastic PDOs versus 1.89 muts/Mb in matching tissues, and 5.76 muts/Mb in dysplastic PDOs versus 4.57 muts/Mb in matching tissues. Median burden in normal stomach was 0.11muts/Mb and 0.26 muts/Mb from healthy- and patient- derived PDOs respectively **(Supplementary Figure 2, A and B)**. As expected, PDOs showed higher purity, defined as the proportion of epithelial, precancerous cells in a sample, and higher clonality than their matching tissues, which was achieved in non-dysplastic and dysplastic models **(Supplementary Figure 2, C and D)**.

A comprehensive overview of OAC driver genes, mutational signatures, and clinical annotations is provided in **Figure 1A**. As expected, there were few mutational events in normal gastric PDOs. In contrast, *CDKN2A* alterations, primarily deletions, were identified in 31% of non-dysplastic and 38% of dysplastic PDOs, consistent with the reported role of this gene in early BO development[43]. Alterations in *TP53* were seen in only one (1/13, 8%) non-dysplastic BO PDO but were more frequent (n=3/8; 37.5%) in PDOs taken from patients with dysplasia.

The fraction of shared mutations between BO PDOs and their matching tissues ranged from 0.3-65.3% **(Figure 1B)**. Broadly, the mean fraction of private mutations (i.e. that are not shared) in PDOs was higher in dysplastic PDOs than in non-dysplastic PDOs (median 56.9% vs 38.1%). Whilst there was no correlation between the total number of insertion/deletion mutations in PDOs and matching tissue (r=0.034, p=0.89), there was a moderate correlation in single nucleotide variant (SNV) count (r=0.66, p=0.0015; **Figure 1C**) which was stronger for non-dysplastic PDO/tissue pairs (r=0%.91, p=3.4x10^{-5}) **(Supplementary Figure 2E)**. These results suggest increasing heterogeneity in dysplastic compared with non-dysplastic tissues which is thus reflected in the variation captured within a given PDO model.

Most tissues and PDOs were diploid; however, we were keen to capture the whole genome doubling observed in up to 27% high-grade dysplastic BO tissues[44]. Three PDOs had whole genome doubling. This was mirrored in matching tissue for one PDO (AHM0931) but not in the other two (AHM2575 (non-dysplastic) and AHM2165 (dysplastic), which featured whole genome duplications despite diploid matching tissues **(Figure 1D)**. Overall concordance in homologous recombination deficiency (HRD) index scores was low (r=0.15, p=0.53); however, again non-dysplastic pairs showed a moderate positive correlation (r=0.52, p=0.081), though dysplastic pairs did not (r=–0.34, p=0.41). This suggests that it is challenging to capture chromosomal instability in PDOs and one cannot rely on the genomic profile of matching tissues **(Supplementary Figure 2F)**.

In comparison to the accumulation of driver gene mutations, mutational signatures are laid down early in the pathogenesis of BO and maintained consistently through malignant progression[45]. It was therefore expected to observe a high concordance of mutational signatures in the PDOs and matching tissues, with a median cosine similarity of 0.97 (range 0.73-1.00), which did not differ between dysplastic and non-dysplastic PDO-tissue pairs **(Figure 1E and Supplementary Figure 2, G and H).** In particular, single base substitution signature 17 (SBS17a/b), a characteristic

feature of BO and OAC, showed a strong overall correlation for both SBS17a (r=0.83, p=6.2x10^{-6}) and SBS17b (r=0.88, p=3.8x10^{-7}) **(Figure 1F, Supplementary Figure 2I)**. As expected, SBS17a/b proportions were similar across non-dysplastic and dysplastic PDOs **(Supplementary Figure 2J)**.

We also observed clonal heterogeneity and drift in precancerous PDOs **(Supplementary Figure 2, K and L)**. For example, AHM0040 contained a major subclonal population (VAF 18%) harbouring *ARID1A* and *FBXW7* driver mutations. In AHM1373, a subclonal cluster (median VAF ~19%) was present at passage 1 but became clonal by passage 6 (median VAF 50%). Whilst no driver alterations were present in both passages, passage 1 harboured a mutation in *LRKK2* **(Figure 1A**), whilst passage 6 carried frameshift variants in *ARID1A*, *ARID1B*, and *MUC6*, possibly indicating selection of a separate, rarer subclone. Hence, these models evolve temporally, and this can be tracked genetically as required for their utility to study disease progression and interception.

Single cell-derived BO PDOs recapitulate intralesional heterogeneity

In view of the substantial genomic heterogeneity and the passage-related clonal drift we identified in BO PDOs, we reasoned that isolating low-frequency, high-risk populations would enable single clone modelling of progression. To achieve this, we developed a microdissection method to derive individual organoids from bulk PDO culture. We termed these single cell-derived clonal organoids (sc-organoids) **(Figure 2A).**

We first generated 19 sc-organoids from a non-dysplastic case (AHM2149) and confirmed their clonality by analysing VAF distributions (a narrow peak at 50% indicates clonality) **(Figure 2B)**. The sc-organoid panel recapitulated key genomic features of matching BO tissue as well as the related bulk PDOs, including deletions of *CDKN2A* and *KDM6A,* and mutations in *MUC6* and *ZFHX3* **(Figure 2C)**. Interestingly, one sc-organoid, BE.11, harboured mutations in *TP53* and *SMARCA4* that were not observed in the bulk PDO nor its matching tissue, suggesting a potential "seed" for dysplastic progression. All sc-organoids contain private mutations (3.44%-45.8%), confirming that each represents a distinct lineage with preserved mutational signatures **(Supplementary Figure 3, A and B)**.

We next assessed the relatedness of the sc-organoids by constructing a phylogenetic tree using WGS data **(Figure 2D)**. Most mutations (85.98%) fitted the tree perfectly with minimal homoplasy, and driver alterations showed good concordance within the branching structure, reflecting their

individual acquisition along the evolutionary trajectory. For example, *FBXW7* loss was shared by

BE.7 and BE.15 but absent in the bulk PDO, whereas a *ZFHX3* mutation was detected in the bulk

PDO but found in only four closely related sc-organoids.

To determine whether closely related sc-organoids also display phenotypic similarity, we

compared transcriptomic concordance with WGS-inferred phylogenies (**Figure 2E**). We also

assessed whether sc-organoids represent distinct lineages by analysing enrichment of individual

lineage markers (*MUC6* versus *CDX2*) and lineage gene panels (described in **Figure 3A**). Across

19 non-dysplastic BO sc-organoids, *MUC6* (gastric) and *CDX2* (intestinal) expression were

strongly negatively correlated (r = -0.71; p = 0.00075, **Supplementary Figure 3C**), indicating that

individual sc-organoids tend to adopt either a gastric or intestinal state. Notably, two sc-

organoids (BO.8 and BO.23) displayed diverging transcriptional profiles to the rest of the sc-

organoids, with significantly higher *CDX2* expression.

With these encouraging data we generated a panel of nine sc-organoids from dysplasia tissue

from an early cancer case (AHM2392), from which a bulk PDO shared only 8.15% of SNVs and

indels **(Figure 1B),** to better understand and model the clonal heterogeneity. All sc-organoids

appeared clonal, with the exception of one (BE.14) that also harboured a nonsense mutation in

APC present at a VAF of 25% **(Supplementary Figure 4A),** suggesting it may be a mixture of two

clones. Taken together these sc-organoids shared a large proportion of mutations with the

matching bulk PDO **(Supplementary Figure 4B)**, whilst also presenting with more mutations than

the bulk PDO on account of their high clonality **(Supplementary Figure 4C)**. The individual sc-

organoids nevertheless demonstrated clonal diversity **(Supplementary Figure 4D)** and

transcriptomic heterogeneity **(Supplementary Figure 4E)**, which with the isolation of an *APC*-

mutant clone reaffirms the potential for this technique to isolate high-risk populations not

captured in bulk PDOs **(Supplementary Figure 4F)**.

***In silico* imaging reveals varying morphology, growth kinetics and between non-dysplastic**

and dysplastic BO PDOs

The genomic profile must be interpreted in the context of PDO morphology and growth patterns

to understand how this translates to phenotype. To assess morphology we genetically

engineered non-dysplastic (AHM0040) and dysplastic (AHM2221) PDOs with nuclear fluorescent

tags (H2B-GFP/mCherry) and imaged using time-lapse microscopy. Unlike the characteristic

solid morphology of OAC PDOs[16], non-dysplastic PDOs showed four characteristic

morphologies: a single cell layer surrounding a single lumen, a single cell layer with multiple lumens, multiple cell layers with a lumen and a solid morphology with no visible lumen **(Figure 3, A to C)**. Luminal PDOs expanded over time, whereas solid structures showed minimal growth **(Supplementary Table 3).** In contrast, dysplastic PDOs lack single cell layer multiple lumen morphology and have a higher proportion of solid morphology compared with non-dysplastic PDOs **(Figure 3D, Supplementary Figure 5, A to C; Supplementary Table 4)**.

We observed minimal growth in almost all solid non-dysplastic organoids but visible expansion in luminal types, measured by both organoid size and nuclear number **(Supplementary Figure 5, D and E)**. Moreover, multiple and single lumen non-dysplastic PDOs demonstrated a similar, linear growth rate with considerable variation in individual PDO growth **(Supplementary Figure 5, F and G)**. Growth kinetics of single-lumen PDOs were comparable between non-dysplastic and dysplastic models **(Figure E, Supplementary Figure 5H)**. Time-lapse imaging also suggested that multi-lumen PDOs might be a result of fusion events from single luminal PDOs, providing a novel insight into the changing clonality of bulk organoid culture over time **(Supplementary Figure 5, I and J).**

Lumen formation has been linked to polarity, the loss of which is associated with dysplastic progression[46]. We established a lattice-based multi-site Cellular Potts Monte Carlo *in silico* model of organoid growth in which organoid polarity, and the probability of a daughter organoid exhibiting polarity, were varied **(Supplementary Figure 6A)**. Using this model, we demonstrate that a single layer single lumen morphology is acquired where organoids and their progeny demonstrate polarity, whereas organoids without polarity develop solid non-luminal structures **(Supplementary Figure 6B)**. Variation in the probability of acquiring polarity results in a variability in lumen formation **(Figure 3F)**. The model also accurately recreated the effects of observed fusion processes **(Supplementary Figure 6, C to E)** and captured the loss of polarity in dysplastic and OAC PDOs **(Supplementary Table 5).**

Barrett oesophagus PDOs offer a functional platform for premalignant studies
To extend the phenotypic characterisation we used transcriptomic profiling based on lineage markers determined from our previous scRNA-seq datasets[5, 47]. As expected, the majority of BO PDOs demonstrated an intermediate phenotype between that seen for gastric and intestinal PDOs **(Figure 4A, Supplementary Figure 7, A and B)**. When comparing the bulk transcriptomes of normal and precancerous PDOs using a principal component analysis (PCA), BO and intestinal

PDOs show a clear separation from gastric PDOs, in keeping with the acquisition of an intestinal
phenotype **(Figure 4B)**. When comparing differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between three
paired comparisons: gastric versus non-dysplastic PDOs, gastric versus dysplastic PDOs, and
non-dysplastic versus dysplastic PDOs, broad concordance was observed in non-dysplastic and
dysplastic PDOs when compared with gastric, while a small number of genes distinguished
dysplastic and non-dysplastic PDOs **(Figure 4, C and D, Supplementary Figure 7, C to E)**.
Pathway analyses revealed that upregulated genes in both non-dysplastic and dysplastic PDOs
were enriched for developmental, migratory, proliferative, and intestinal differentiation programs
(Figure 4E, Supplementary Table 6), whereas down-regulated genes mapped to cell-peripheral
processes and transcription factor binding sites **(Figure 4E, Supplementary Table 6)**. In addition,
upregulation of extracellular matrix–related genes were specifically enriched in non-dysplastic
PDOs **(Supplementary Figure 7F, Supplementary Table 7),** while in dysplastic PDOs, down-
regulated genes mirrored the transcription factor binding site enrichment observed in the shared
down-regulated profiles **(Supplementary Figure 7G, Supplementary Table 8)**. Intriguingly, three
HOX genes (*HOXB2, HOXB6, HOXB8*), showed increased expression in dysplastic versus non-
dysplastic PDOs **(Figure 4, D and F)**, with a similar pattern also observed for *HOXB5* and *HOXB7*
(Supplementary Figure 7H). This is consistent with our prior work demonstrating a role for HOX
genes in OAC carcinogenesis[48].

Assembloid epithelial-fibroblast co-cultures recapitulate the role of fibroblasts in BO
development
We have previously shown that BO acquires a pro-tumourigenic, activated fibroblast
environment, characterised by a reduction in the CD34$^+$ S1 fibroblast subset and an increase in
the αSMA$^+$ S3 subset[47]. However, the origin of this shift in fibroblast composition remains
unclear[19]. We reasoned that naïve fibroblasts could be reprogrammed into a BO-favoured niche
through a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors. To explore this, we built on a previously
described model to embed human primary oesophageal fibroblasts with BO or control normal
gastric PDOs **(Supplementary Figure 8A)**[49]. The resultant assembloids closely resembled
primary tissue, including with respect to glandular structures and stromal deposition
(Supplementary Figure 8B).

We next sought to determine whether BO PDOs, either alone or in combination with pathological
microenvironmental stressors, could induce fibroblast reprogramming. To test this, we
characterised fibroblast subtypes in assembloids subjected to treatments mimicking reflux and

chronic local inflammation, which are the two key environmental factors associated with the development and progression of BO. For experimental consistency, we used chemically defined glycocholic acid, a bile acid component known to be highly effective in promoting BO development[50]. In addition, we re-analysed our previous RNA-seq data to identify a relevant pro-inflammatory exposure and selected interleukin 10 (IL10), a cytokine that shows a significant and progressive increase during BO and OAC progression **(Supplementary Figure 9)**[51].

After treatment with reflux salt and/or IL10 for 7 days PDOs were dissociated into single cells and analysed by flow cytometry **(Supplementary Figure 8C).** Reflux acid and IL10 treatment generally reduced the proportion of S1 fibroblasts and increased the proportion of S3 fibroblasts **(Supplementary Figure 8, D and E)**. However, this effect was much stronger in assembloids with BO PDOs, which showed a markedly greater capacity to polarise fibroblasts towards the S3 subtype, particularly under reflux acid exposure. In contrast, normal gastric PDOs required both reflux acid and IL10 to induce S3 fibroblasts, and the effect was comparatively modest. **(Supplementary Figure 8F)**.

OAC PDOs recapitulate population-level molecular heterogeneity with variable growth behaviours

The phenotypic and molecular heterogeneity that defines Barrett oesophagus is also a characteristic feature of OAC[13]. Expanding on our previous small panel of 10 OAC PDOs[16], we show here that a biobank of 38 PDOs (donor characteristics outlined in **Table 2**) recapitulates the genomic landscape and known driver gene landscape for OAC[11, 52] **(Figure 5, A and B, Supplementary Figures 10 and 11)**. Mirroring prior studies from patient samples[11, 52], alterations in PDOs were enriched for copy-number alterations (22.2%) rather than point mutations or small insertion-deletion mutations, even using stringent thresholds for amplifications and deletions. As with patient series, *TP53* was the most frequently altered gene (70%) in the profiled PDOs, followed by *CDKN2A* (22%), *ARID1A* (18%), *GATA6* (18%), and *SMAD4* (10%), although again concordance with matching tissues varied and 16% (n=4/25) showed absence of a *TP53* mutation, compared with *TP53*-mutant matching tissues **(Figure 5C and Supplementary Figure 11)**.

As in BO, there was broad alignment in the mutational signature landscape of PDOs and matching tissues (median cosine similarity 0.98, range 0.74-1.00; **Figure 5D**). All previously reported[53] OAC signatures (SBS17a/b, SBS18, SBS40, SBS1 and SBS5) were present **(Supplementary Figure 10I),**

with strong PDO–tissue concordance in the BO and OAC-defining[53, 54] SBS17a (r=0.92, p=4.1x10^{-14}) and SBS17b (r=0.92, p=5.7x10^{-14}) signatures **(Supplementary Figure 10J)**. Compared with their premalignant equivalents, OAC PDOs displayed increased SBS17a/b, SBS40, and marginal increases in APOBEC-related SBS2/13 **(Supplementary Figure 10K)**. The OAC PDO transcriptomic profile was variable, though there we did not observe specific gene expression signatures that distinguished different groups of PDOs **(Figure 5E, Supplementary Figure 10, L and M).** We also observed recurrent, ploidy-adjusted copy number gains (≥2 relative to sample ploidy) in key oncogenes, including of the receptor tyrosine kinase HER2 in three PDOs, with related protein overexpression **(Supplementary Figure 12).**

To compare OAC PDOs with BO growth metrics, we again used high-resolution time-lapse microscopy **(Supplementary Figure 13, A to C)** Unlike BO, organoids with a solid structure represented 99% of OAC PDOs observed at all assessed timepoints **(Supplementary Table 9)**. Single cells contributing to OAC PDOs were significantly larger than those forming BO PDOs **(Supplementary Figure 13D)** but demonstrated a similar growth rate **(Supplementary Figure 13E)**. A majority of PDOs grew in the seven days after seeding and did so with minimal underlying variation in their growth rates **(Supplementary Figure 13, F and G)**, while some organoids more rapidly increased in size because of fusion events **(Supplementary Figure 13H)**.

OAC PDOs reproducibly show variable responses to anti-cancer therapies in keeping with their molecular and phenotypic heterogeneity

For OAC a key question is whether PDO phenotypic and molecular diversity translates to differences between PDOs in their sensitivity to specific forms of systemic anti-cancer therapy as well as external beam radiotherapy (EBRT), and whether the individual characteristics of each PDO result in differences in sensitivity to individual chemotherapeutics, targeted agents and EBRT. To assess this, five PDOs derived from treatment-naïve donors (OESO117, OESO146, CAM277, CAM408, CAM574) were first exposed to the microtubule inhibitor (docetaxel), anti-metabolite (5-fluorouracil (5-FU), with leucovorin) and platinum (oxaliplatin) constituents of the current perioperative standard-of-care regimen, FLOT **(Figure 6A, Supplementary Table 10)**. Mean IC_{50} values were lowest for docetaxel and demonstrated minimal variation between studied PDOs (1.41–3.04 nM), whereas IC_{50} values for 5-FU/leucovorin (8.50–56.25 μM) and oxaliplatin (IC_{50} 9.24–93.57 μM) were higher and demonstrate substantial variation. In contrast, 5FU/leucovorin E_{max} values were 94% or above in all but one PDO but varied between 69.7-96.2% for oxaliplatin, and between 48.7-93.5% for docetaxel. Validating the utility of using PDOs as a

pharmacokinetic model, there was no correlation between IC_{50} and E_{max} values for 5-

FU/leucovorin (r=0.10, p=0.87), oxaliplatin (r=-0.58, p=0.31) or docetaxel (r=0.33, p=0.58). We

also demonstrated a heterogeneity of response to external beam x-ray irradiation **(Figure 6B,**

Supplementary Table 11). Organoid forming efficiency varied between 0.42-1.03 in response to

a standard 2Gy single fraction of EBRT, and between 0.24-0.75 in response to a high 8Gy single

fraction. This corresponded to an integral area under the curve (AUC) for response to 0-8Gy

single-fraction irradiation of between 0.46-0.98.

We and others have also previously reported that as many as 50% of cases of OAC contain

sensitising events for CDK inhibitors[11]. However, the extent to which this translates to a

consistent therapeutic response across an otherwise heterogenous population is uncertain.

Using four PDOs with relevant vulnerabilities (CAM277, CAM401, CAM429, CAM535), we

demonstrate diverse sensitivity to the CDK4/6 inhibitor abemaciclib (IC_{50} 0.59–2.87 µM, Emax 36–

70%) **(Figure 6C, Supplementary Table 12)**. Activity was greatest in CAM277 (KRAS ecDNA, IC_{50}

0.91 µM, Emax 70%), intermediate in CDK6-amplified PDOs CAM429 (0.59 µM, 49%) and CAM535

(1.30 µM, 49%), and weakest in CAM401 (KRAS nuclear amplified; 2.87 µM, 36%) exemplifying the

importance of being able to match the PDO specific genomic profile with the therapy response.

As outlined in **Figure 6D**, individual PDO sensitivity to different forms of cytotoxic chemotherapy

and to EBRT varied. Overall, chemotherapy sensitivity did not predict radiotherapy sensitivity.

However, differences in relative sensitivity to oxaliplatin were similar to differences in relative

sensitivity to EBRT.

DISCUSSION

Inter- and intra- lesional heterogeneity are fundamental, hard-to-study barriers to the effective

prevention and treatment of OAC[13]. Here, we derive and comprehensively characterise a biobank

of 116 PDOs and sc-organoids that recapitulate disease heterogeneity in BO and OAC, including

within lesions as well as across patient populations. As summarised in **Table 3,** we demonstrate

that the specific position each PDO has in the malignant spectrum cannot be discerned from a

single feature and nor can it be assumed from the characteristics of the matching tissue due to

the extreme heterogeneity. Instead, the functionally relevant disease state of a given PDO can be

deduced from a multi-level assessment of genomic, transcriptomic, protein and morphological

characteristics **(Supplementary Figure 14)**. In this manuscript we also provide tools for

supporting the quantitative characterisation of PDOs at the molecular and phenotypic level, and

demonstrate that sc-organoids help capture subclonal heterogeneity and allow for the

maintenance of high-risk populations that are otherwise lost over serial passages. Further, we

show that individuals PDOs demonstrate variable sensitivity to EBRT and different forms of

systemic anti-cancer therapy, and that responses to these treatments vary across the PDO

population. In so doing, we demonstrate the utility of PDOs for studying high-risk disease features

in the context of premalignant disease, as well as for analysing variable treatment responses in

cancer.

Previous attempts to model BO neoplastic progression have relied on animal models and

xenografts that poorly recapitulate the anatomical and biological features of human disease[55].

PDOs are in theory more scalable and have been used to study carcinogenesis in other contexts,

such as for colorectal cancer[56, 57]. However, there is a long recognised challenge to establishing

and propagating BO PDO cultures, with reported success rates for establishing BO PDOs of

between 0-70%[55]. Here, we demonstrate derivation of 21 PDOs from regions of non-dysplastic

and dysplastic BO with success rates of 68% and 61%, respectively. All remained viable over

multiple passages, and all were successfully recovered from cryopreservation. This contrasts

with our previous unsuccessful attempts to derive BO PDOs[16], which likely reflects the addition

to culture medium of gastrin and FGF10[55].

There is also uncertainty as to the degree to which PDOs can be used to study BO dysplastic

progression. Previous attempts to develop a model for OAC carcinogenesis have primarily

focussed on gene editing of BO or normal gastroesophageal junctional PDOs[58, 59]. However,

genetic manipulation in this context is inefficient and poor survival rates result in selection and

propagation of monoclonal populations[58, 59]. Our work and that of others has also shown that OAC

very likely always derives from BO[5, 60, 61], which questions the relevance of modelling dysplastic

progression using normal gastroesophageal junctional PDOs. To this end, studies in colorectal

cancer have demonstrated that modelling tumourigenesis using normal tissue PDOs as a starting

point fails to capture many of the known molecular changes that accompany the development of

invasive disease[56, 57]. There is therefore a need to model progression using PDOs derived from

premalignant tissue.

Our comprehensive genomic, transcriptomic and phenotypic characterisation of BO PDO

cultures demonstrates that whilst PDOs derived from dysplastic tissue exhibited more cancer-

like genomic alterations than those derived from non-dysplastic tissue, they have lower

concordance with matching tissue. Concordance with matching tissue was also generally lower for BO than it was for OAC PDOs. This is likely to be due to the nature of heterogeneity in BO, which is characterised by the presence of distinct clones that do not sweep the entire segment and instead arise through clonal expansion that occurs on a scale of millimetres[7, 62].

We reasoned that it is also possible that high risk subclonal populations may not be adequately reflected in bulk PDO sequencing and may be lost over time or through passaging. To counter this, we demonstrate a technique to isolate sc-organoids, which we show can isolate high risk subclones that may not be represented in bulk PDO sequencing. These can then serve as observable functional proxies for intralesional heterogeneity at a single clone level, with each demonstrating varying degrees of malignant potential. Integrating these clones into the epithelial–fibroblast assembloid system we describe here would enable testing of whether specific high-risk lineages differentially polarise fibroblasts under pathological cues that, in turn, promote their expansion and drive disease progression. Looking ahead, incorporating immune cells, such as autologous or allogeneic tissue-resident myeloid or T-cell populations, and immunogenic cytokines into this platform would allow interrogation of how epithelial and stromal evolution interfaces with emerging immune microenvironments during early cancer development and progression.

As well as being able to recapitulate the substantial heterogeneity in OAC organoids, we also show that we can recapitulate the diverse treatment responses seen in patients with OAC, demonstrating highly variable responses to each of the individual components of the standard preoperative regimen, FLOT[14]. There is, for example, consistently high sensitivity (i.e. low IC_{50} values) to docetaxel, though this has a variable maximum effect (i.e. E_{max}). In contrast, PDOs have a lower and more variable sensitivity to 5-FU/leucovorin, though this consistently exerts a high maximal effect when added to PDOs at a sufficiently high concentration. This mirrors clinical data, where 5FU/leucovorin is the backbone of most chemotherapy regimens in OAC due to a conserved effect across the entire patient population[63]. It is similarly interesting that chemotherapy sensitivity does not mirror radiation or CDK inhibitor sensitivity, which provides biological rationale for an expanding portfolio of studies that are combining intensified preoperative chemotherapy with chemoradiotherapy or targeted agents. It would be of interest to determine whether the application of the PDOs described here to an organ-on-chip approach, such as that described by *Pal et al[17],* would further improve modelling of therapeutic response.

781 In summary, we have developed a comprehensively characterised biobank of BO and OAC PDOs
782 that reflect known disease heterogeneity across pre-malignant and invasive disease. Careful
783 characterisation is essential to understand the providence of a given organoid and derivation of
784 sc-organoids allows for the analysis of high-risk clones. Together, these models provide a
785 scalable platform for functional studies of OAC carcinogenesis and therapeutic response.
786

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803

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS
R.C.F., C.M.J. and L.Z. conceived the manuscript, obtained funding and oversaw the work. C.M.J.
conceived therapeutic analyses in OAC PDOs. L.Z. conceived studies relating to Barrett
oesophagus PDOs, single cell-derived clonal organoid and assembloid. D.H.J., G.D. and SG.J.
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and L.Z. performed wet laboratory experiments and led or contributed to experimental design.
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contributed to sample collection, curation and characterisation. D.H.J., D.P.M., R.C.F., C.M.J. and
L.Z. wrote the first draft of the manuscript. All authors contributed to subsequent revisions and
all have read and approved the manuscript.
814

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

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1006

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: The genomic landscape of normal gastric and Barrett oesophagus-derived PDOs and its correlation with parent tissue samples. (A) Driver alterations and genomic features across PDOs and adjacent tissues. Driver genes were considered according to the set of genes (n=76) found to be positively selected in OAC by Frankell et al[11] **(B)** Concordance of mutational profiles across Barrett oesophagus tissue-PDO pairs, defined by the proportion of mutations shared and unique across samples. Tissues from normal stomach did not undergo WGS. **(C-D)** Comparisons of **(C)** indel and SNV burdens, and **(D)** ploidy across tissue-PDO pairs. **(E)** Comparisons of mutational signature profiles across tissue-PDO pairs calculated by cosine similarity. **(F)** Correlations in SBS17a (left) and SBS17b (right) proportions across tissue-PDO pairs. Pearson correlation coefficients were used to determine correlation strengths.

Figure 2: Diversification of non-dysplastic Barrett oesophagus demonstrated in a single cell-derived clonal organoid panel. (A) Approach for establishing sc-organoids. **(B)** Distributions of VAFs from single cell-derived organoids (n=19) derived from AHM2149. **(C)** Driver alterations found across the single cell-derived clonal organoid panel and adjacent bulk PDO and tissue. **(D)** A phylogenetic profile of organoids derived from AHM2149 defined using the sc-organoid panel. Signature contributions were calculated across mutations contributing to each branch respectively. Branch lengths are generally proportional to total amount of mutations. Signatures were not fitted for branches with fewer than 25 SNVs. **(E)** Hierarchical clustering of RNA-seq profiling for the sc-organoid panel using the top 500 variable genes following variance stabilised transformation of read counts. Heatmap annotation includes genetic alterations as reported in **(C)** and log2-transformed TPM-normalised counts of *MUC6* (a gastric marker) and *CDX2* (an intestinal markers), the correlation of which is reported in Supplementary Figure 6E. The coloured dashed squares found in **(D)** and **(E)** correspond to adjacent clones found through phylogenetic analysis and unsupervised clustering of RNA-seq.

Figure 3: Analysis of key morphological features observed in Barrett oesophagus PDOs. (A) Representative bright-field images showing the four morphology classes: a single cell layer surrounding a single lumen, a single cell layer with multiple lumens, multiple cell layers with a lumen and a solid morphology with no visible lumen. In all instances the red scale bar represents a length of 100µm. **(B)** Example field of view illustrating the coexistence of multiple morphologies within a single dome of non-dysplastic (AHM0040) Barrett oesophagus PDOs. Scale bar represents 200µm. **(C)** Stacked bar plot of the count of each morphology class over seven days

of growth following seeding in non-dysplastic (AHM0040) PDOs. **(D)** Proportional composition of
morphologies at the indicated time points (normalised to total organoids measured per day) for
dysplastic (AHM2221) PDOs. **(E)** Diameter squared (proportional to number of cells) of non-
dysplastic (AHM0040) and dysplastic (AHM2221) PDOs at days 4 and 6 following seeding. **(F)** *In*
silico simulations of organoid growth/morphology across four random seeds under three
scenarios depicting variable likelihood of inheriting polarity (IP).

1047

Figure 3: Transcriptomic profiling of control normal gastric and intestinal, and Barrett
oesophagus, PDOs. (A) Inter-PDO expression of gastric- and intestinal-related genes. The
reported scores were calculated using Z-normalisation following log2-transformation of TPM
values. **(B)** Principal component analysis of all normal- and Barrett oesophagus PDOs based on
the top 500 variable genes following variance stabilising transformation. **(C)** Correlations of log2-
fold changes from differential expression analysis on non-dysplastic Barrett versus normal
gastric, and dysplastic Barrett versus normal gastric PDOs. Genes were considered significant if
they had an adjusted p-value < 0.05 and absolute log2-fold change > 1, as indicated by the
dashed red lines. Full results of these analyses are reported in **Supplementary Figure 5D-E**. **(D)**
Differential expression across dysplastic (n=5) versus non-dysplastic (n=9) Barrett oesophagus
PDOs. Positive log2-fold change refers to increased expression in the dysplastic PDOs. Genes
were coloured based on their adjusted p-value being less than 0.05, and absolute log2-fold
change greater than 1. **(E)** Functional enrichment analysis of up- and down-regulated genes
shared across non-dysplastic and dysplastic PDOs compared with normal gastric PDOs. Full
functional enrichment analysis results are reported in **Supplementary Table 6**. **(F)** Expression of
HOXB2, *HOXB6*, and *HOXB8* across all control normal and Barrett oesophagus PDOs. Values
reported are log2-transformed TPM values, and comparison was done on the non-dysplastic and
dysplastic PDOs using a two-sided Wilcoxon test with Benjamini-Hochberg adjustment for
multiple testing.

1067

Figure 5: An OAC PDO biobank captures parent tissue features and recapitulates multi-level
population diversity. (A) Driver alterations and genomic features across OAC-derived PDOs and
adjacent tissues. Driver genes were considered according to those previously defined by Frankell
et al[11]. **(B)** Concordance of mutational profiles across OAC tissue-PDO pairs, defined by the
proportion of mutations that are shared or unique across samples. **(C)** Circos plots
demonstrating genomic features of OAC PDOs and their parent tissues. **(D)** Comparisons of
mutational signature profiles across tissue-PDO pairs calculated by cosine similarity. **(E)**

Principal component analysis of bulk RNAseq profiles of derived OAC PDOs and relationship to

tumour stage.

1077

Figure 6: OAC PDOs demonstrate variable responses to chemotherapy, radiotherapy and

targeted agents. (A) Inhibitory concentration curves demonstrating the viability of five OAC PDOs

following exposure to **(i)** docetaxel, **(ii)** 5-fluorouracil (5-FU) and leucovorin, or **(iii)** oxaliplatin. **(B)**

Organoid forming efficiency following exposure to a single fraction of 0-8Gy x-ray irradiation for

eight OAC PDOs. **(C)** Correlation between AUC organoid forming efficiency following x-ray

irradiation and AUC viability values following exposure to 5-FU and leucovorin, oxaliplatin or

docetaxel. **(D)** Inhibitory concentration curves demonstrating he viability of four OAC PDOs

following exposure to the CDK4/6 inhibitor, abemaciclib. **(E)** Normalised AUC sensitivity values

for each anti-cancer treatment across three separated PDOs (created in https://BioRender.com).

1120 shared mutations at passages 1 and 6 of AHM1373, a non-dysplastic derived PDO. Colours refer

1121 to the clonal classifications of mutations at passage 1.

1122

Supplementary Figure 3: Clonal expansions of Barrett PDOs across passages and within a

non-dysplastic Barrett-derived panel of single cell-derived clonal organoids. (A) Tumour

mutation burdens of the single cell-derived clonal organoid panel derived from a non-dysplastic

Barrett oesophagus PDO (AHM2149), with mutations classified as those shared with the bulk

organoid from which they were derived, those not captured in the bulk organoid but present in at

least one derived organoid, and private mutations. **(B)** Signature contributions across all

mutations from the single cell-derived clonal organoid panel and its adjacent tissue and bulk

organoid. **(C)** Correlation between *MUC6* (gastric marker) and *CDX2* (intestinal marker).

1131

Supplementary Figure 4: Multi-omic profiling of a single cell-derived clonal organoid panel

obtained from a dysplastic Barrett oesophagus PDO. (A) VAF distributions across a single cell-

derived clonal organoid panel (n=9) derived from a dysplastic PDO (AHM2392). Normal

distributions around VAF=50% indicate clonality. **(B)** Tumour mutation burdens of the dysplastic-

derived single cell-derived clonal organoid panel, with mutations classified as those shared with

the bulk organoid from which they were derived, those not captured in the bulk organoid but

present in at least one derived organoid, and private mutations. **(C)** Signature contributions

across all mutations from the derived organoid panel, alongside adjacent tissue and bulk PDO

obtained from the dysplastic and OAC tissues. **(D)** A phylogenetic profile of the PDO derived from

AHM2392 defined using the derived organoid panel. Signature contributions were calculated

across mutations contributing to each branch, respectively. Branch lengths are generally

proportional to total amount of mutations. Signatures were not fitted for branches with fewer than

25 SNVs. **(E)** Hierarchical clustering of RNA-seq profiling for the dysplasia single cell-derived

clonal organoid panel using the top 500 variable genes following variance stabilised

transformation of read counts. Heatmap annotation includes genetic alterations as reported in

(F) and log2-transformed TPM-normalised counts of *MUC6* (a gastric marker) and *CDX2* (an

intestinal markers). The green dotted lines in **(D)** and **(E)** represent matching clones according to

the phylogenetic profiling and hierarchical clustering. **(F)** Driver alterations found across the

dysplasia single cell-derived clonal organoid panel as well as bulk PDO and tissue derived from

dysplasia and matched OAC tissue.

1152

Supplementary Figure 5: Morphological analysis of Barrett oesophagus PDOs. (A) Representative bright-field images illustrating the three morphology classes visible in a dysplastic Barrett oesophagus PDO (AHM2221): single layer, single lumen; multiple layer, single lumen; and solid (multiple cells, no visible lumen). Lower panel shows coexistence of multiple morphologies within a single culture. Scale bars: 100 μm (top), 200 μm (bottom). **(B and C)** Size distribution of single cells identified in the non-dysplastic (AHM0040) and dysplastic (AHM2221) Barrett oesophagus PDO cultures. Histograms show counts per 1μm; dashed vertical line marks the mean cell diameter. PDOs were counted as a diameter of 21μm or greater. **(D)** Diameter distributions of measured non-dysplastic (AHM0040) PDOs stratified by morphology class and day (within each class, lighter to darker bars denote increasing time). Each subplot shows the frequency (proportion of organoids per bin) for that class/day. **(E)** Relationship between non-dysplastic (AHM0040) PDO size and proliferative activity. Boxplots show organoid diameter versus the number of nuclei scored per organoid, colour-coded by day (as labelled). Boxes indicate interquartile range, with the median value shown as the centre line. **(F)** Mean non-dysplastic (AHM0040) PDO area over time, separated by morphology (multiple lumen, blue; single lumen, red). **(G)** Adjacent non-dysplastic (AHM0040) PDO sizes measured at 196 hours and 260 hours after seeding. Each point is one PDO; displacement from the diagonal reflects growth between time points. **(H)** Mean diameter-squared (proportional to number of cells) of single layer, single lumen organoids for non-dysplastic (AHM0040) and dysplastic (AHM2221) Barrett oesophagus organoids 4 and 6 days following seeding. **(I)** Time-lapse example of fusion in non-dysplastic (AHM0040) PDOs producing a single-layer, multi-lumen (SLML) morphology: at 196 hours the two organoids are separate but by 204 hours they have fused; the fused organoid maintains an SLML morphology through 260 hours. **(J)** Example of a non-dysplastic (AHM0040) singe-layer single-lumen PDO interacting with and likely fusing with a single cell: in the fifth frame the single cell aligns with the organoid; in the sixth frame the single cell is no longer visible, and the organoid shows a thickened fluorescent region at the point of contact.

Supplementary Figure 6: *In silico* modelling of PDO growth with variable polarity and polarity-inheritance. (A and B) Overview of experimental quantification and *in silico* modelling of PDO morphology. **(A)** PDOs are imaged as z-stacks; the best-focused plane is outlined with an ellipse in Fiji and diameter is taken as the mean of minimum and maximum widths. PDOs are classified as single lumen, multi-lumen or solid; cell number is assumed to scale with diameter^2 for hollow organoids and diameter^3 for solid PDOs **(B)** A 2D Cellular Potts model (CompuCell3D) simulates organoid cross-sections over Monte Carlo steps, illustrating growth, movement and

fusion over timepoints t0, t1, and t2. Each new PDO is assigned a polarity state according to an inherited polarity parameter, IP: IP=1 yields polarised, single-lumen, single-layer PDOs; IP >0 but <1 produces a mixture of lumen-forming and solid PDOs; and IP=0 produces non-polar, solid, non-luminal PDOs. Fusion events are favoured when the change in effective adhesion energy for increasing organoid–organoid contact is negative (ΔE_{fusion} <0). **(C)** Corresponding steady-state morphologies from the model: (i) a polarised PDO forming a single lumen and single epithelial layer (IP = 1), and (ii) a non-polar PDO developing as a solid, non-luminal structure (IP = 0). **(D)** Example of simulated PDO fusion: two separate single-lumen PDOs at an early time point (left) and the resulting fused multi-lumen PDO at a later time point (right). **(E)** Time course of a representative fusion event in the model, illustrating the approach, contact and remodelling of two solid PDOs into a single composite structure over successive Monte Carlo steps.

Supplementary Figure 7: Variation in transcriptional profiles across normal- and Barrett oesophagus-derived PDOs. (A) Comparisons of gastric and intestinal gene panel scores across the PDO cohort, calculated via gene set variation analysis on gene panels derived from the literature. **(B)** Unsupervised hierarchical clustering of PDOs using the top 1000 variable genes. Expression values underwent variance stabilising transformation followed by subtraction of the average expression for the respective gene. **(C)** Principal component analysis of Barrett oesophagus-derived PDOs alone. **(D and E)** Volcano plots displaying the results of differential expression analysis comparing (D) non-dysplastic and (E) dysplastic Barrett oesophagus-derived PDOs with normal gastric PDOs. Genes were coloured with relation to adjusted p-values less than 0.05 and absolute log2-fold change greater than 1. The 20 genes with the lowest adjusted p-values are annotated. **(F)** Functional enrichment analysis of up- and down-regulated DEGs specific to non-dysplastic PDOs. Full results are reported in **Supplementary Table 7**. **(G)** Functional enrichment analysis of up- and down-regulated DEGs specific to dysplastic PDOs. Full results are reported in **Supplementary Table 8**. **(H)** Comparisons of *HOXB5* and *HOXB7* gene expression across the PDO cohort. TPM-values were reported following log2-transformation. Gene expression was compared between non-dysplastic and dysplastic PDOs using a two-sample Wilcoxon test, adjusted for multiple testing using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure.

Supplementary Figure 8: Assembloid co-cultures to explore clonal expansion.
(A) Schematic illustrating the assembloid culture system with fibroblasts under various in vitro conditions. **(B)** Brightfield and histopathological features of the assembloid cultures. Note the

similarity between Barrett oesophagus tissue (top right) and the corresponding assembloid (bottom right). **(C)** Flow cytometric analysis of fibroblasts and gating strategy. Proportion of CD34$^+$ S1 fibroblasts **(D)** and αSMA$^+$ S3 fibroblasts **(E)** within total fibroblasts in assembloids containing Barrett or gastric PDOs following treatment. **(F)** Schematic illustrating how clones capable of shaping a supportive niche and establishing a positive feedback loop are more likely to expand.

Supplementary Figure 9: Cytokine expression in Barrett oesophagus and oesophageal adenocarcinoma development.

Boxplots showing expression levels ($\log_2(1+TPM)$) of IL2, IFNG, IL4, IL5, IL6, IL10 and IL13 across normal gastric tissue, Barrett oesophagus (BO), and oesophageal adenocarcinoma (OAC). The data was derived from RNA-seq data from our previous study[51]. Note the significant increase in IL10.

Supplementary Figure 10: Genomic features of OAC PDOs and their relationship to parent tissue. (A and B) Correlation between tumour purity for PDOs and their adjacent tissues. Purity between PDO-tissue pairs was calculated via a pairwise Wilxocon test. **(C)** Tumour mutational burden in PDOs and their adjacent tissues. **(D)** Differences in VAFs of shared mutations across PDO-tissue pairs, with the dotted red-line indicating mutations where VAF$_{organoid}$ − VAF$_{tissue}$ = 0 (i.e. where a mutation has equal VAF in a PDO and its adjacent tissue). **(E)** Comparison of insertion-deletion (indel) mutation burden between PDOs and their adjacent tissues. **(F)** Comparison of SNV burden between PDOs and their adjacent tissues. **(G)** Comparison of ploidy in PDOs and their adjacent tissues. **(H)** Comparison of HRD index score in PDOs and their adjacent tissues. **E-H)** Red dots indicate PDO-tissue pairs with mutational concordance less than 10% and gray dots indicate PDO-tissue pairs with mutational concordance more than 10%, as reported in **Figure 5C**. Red dotted lines indicate equivalent values (i.e. y=x). Solid blue lines and shaded grey areas indicate linear regression lines of best fit alongside 95% confidence bands. Solid navy lines indicate linear regression lines following the removal of PDO-tissue pairs with mutational concordance less than 10%. Comparisons were made using Pearson correlation coefficients with R- and p- values shown. Values shown in black in the top left were calculated across all PDO-tissue pairs, and values shown in navy in the bottom right were calculated following the removal of PDO-tissue pairs with mutational concordance less than 10%. **(I)** Summary of mutational signature analysis on adjacent OAC PDOs and their parent tissues. Samples (rows) are ordered into matched PDO-tissue pairs. **(J)** Correlations in SBS17a (left) and SBS17b (right) contributions

across PDO-tissue pairs with Pearson correlation coefficients calculated separately for SBS17a and SBS17b. Annotations are the same as in (E to H). **(K)** Contributions of mutational signatures across both the gastric/BO and OAC PDO cohorts. **(L and M)** Gene set enrichment analysis of the loadings for (L) PC1 and (M) PC2 obtained from principal component analysis of RNA-seq data from the OAC PDO cohort. Analysis was based on the top 1000 variable genes across the cohort.

Supplementary Figure 11: Circos plots demonstrating genomic similarities between each OAC PDO and its parent tissue. Each plot demonstrates overall genomic landscape of the organoid (O) and adjacent tumour tissue (T). The outer circle represents the labelled chromosomes with labelled driver gene positions. The middle circle depicts copy number profile where orange shows gains and blue shows deletions. The inner most circle shows inter and intra chromosomal structural variations with grey, red, blue and green lines representing translocations, deletions, inversions and duplications, respectfully.

Supplementary Figure 12: Immunohistochemistry and fluorescence *in situ* hybridisation of *HER2*.

Supplementary Figure 13: Morphological analysis of OAC PDOs. (A) Representative bright-field images illustrating the three morphology classes visible in an OAC PDO (CAM277): single layer, single lumen; multiple layer, single lumen; solid. Image taken at day 4. Scale bar shows 100μm. **(B)** Coexistence of multiple morphologies at day 7 of a single CAM277 culture. Scale bar shows 100μm. **(C)** Size distribution of single cells identified in a single CAM277 OAC PDO culture. Histogram shows counts per 1μm interval; dashed vertical line marks mean cell diameter. PDOs were counted as a diameter of 21μm or greater. **(D)** Size of OAC PDO (CAM277) single cells compared with Barrett oesophagus non-dysplastic (AHM0040) and dysplastic (AHM2221) PDOs. Statistical comparisons made using the Kruskal-Wallis test. **(E)** Distribution of CAM277 PDO size at days 4, 6 and 7 after seeding. **(F)** Correlation between growth at 72 hours and growth at 140 hours for 76 individual CAM277 organoids. **(G)** Representative brightfield image demonstrating fusion of two solid CAM277 organoids between 72 and 140 hours of seeding (images taken at four hourly intervals from top left through to bottom right).

Supplementary Figure 14: Decision framework for classifying precancerous organoids. Decision tree showing how patient-derived organoids are classified by integrating patient disease grade, matching tissue, *TP53* status, mutation burden, and genomic instability. The framework

1289   emphasizes   tissue-anchored,   multi-modal   interpretation   rather   than   single-feature

1290   classification, and mainly to distinguish normal gastric and precancerous organoids in BO.

LIST OF TABLES

Patient ID	Age	Sex	Ethnicity	Highest grade recorded	IM present	Adjacent to OAC	Clinical trajectory after derivation
AHM0040	69	M	White British	NDBO	Y	N	Non-progressor
AHM0931	73	M	White British	NDBO	Y	N	Non-progressor
AHM1345	71	F	White British	NDBO	Y	N	Non-progressor
AHM1369	80	M	White British	NDBO	Y	N	Non-progressor
AHM1678	79	M	White British	NDBO	Y	N	Non-progressor
AHM1977	68	F	White British	NDBO	Y	N	Non-progressor
AHM2172	73	F	White British	NDBO	Y	N	Non-progressor
AHM2575	79	F	White British	NDBO	N	N	Non-progressor
AHN0070	83	M	White British	NDBO	Y	N	Non-progressor
AHM1373	74	M	White British	NDBO	Y	N	Non-progressor
AHM2149	67	M	White British	NDBO	Y	N	Non-progressor
CAM673	66	M	White British	NDBO	Y	N	No recurrence
CAM478	61	M	White British	LGD	Y	Y	No recurrence
CAM478	61	M	White British	HGD	N	Y	No recurrence
CAM603	74	M	White British	HGD	Y	Y	Non-progressor
AHM2165	77	M	White British	HGD	N	Y	No recurrence
AHM2221	74	F	White British	HGD	N	Y	Non-progressor
AHM2392	87	F	White British	HGD	-	N	Progressor
AHM2688	73	M	White British	NDBO	-	N	Non-progressor

1293

Table 1: Demographic and clinicopathological characteristics of donors for PDOs obtained from non-dysplastic and dysplastic Barrett oesophagus. - missing data. F, female; HGD, high grade dysplasia; IM, intestinal metaplasia; M, male; LGD, low grade dysplasia; NDBO, non-dysplastic Barrett oesophagus; OAC, oesophageal adenocarcinoma.

ID	Source	Age	Sex	Surgical TNM	Chemotherapy regimen	Histopathological grading	TRG score
CAM473	Resection	78	M	T3N0Mx	ECX	Poor	3
CAM621	Resection	57	M	T1bN1M0	ECX	Poor	3
CAM453	Staging Lap	69	M	T3N1M0	ECX	Poor	4
CAM453	Resection	69	M	T3N1M0	ECX	Poor	4
CAM296	Resection	72	M	T3N3Mx	ECF	Poor	4
CAM486	Resection	72	M	T4aN0M0	ECX	Moderate	4
CAM540	Resection	52	M	T3N0M0	ECX	Poor	4
CAM535	Resection	72	F	T3N1M0	ECX	Poor	4
CAM522	Resection	62	M	T4aN1M0	ECX	Poor	4
CAM247	Resection	67	M	T2N2M0	ECX	Moderate	4
CAM292	Resection	66	F	T3N1Mx	ECX	Poor	4
CAM388	Resection	78	M	T2N0M0	ECX	Poor	4
CAM429	Resection	77	M	T2N0M0	ECX	Moderate	4
CAM479	Resection	63	M	T3N0M0	ECX	Poor	4
CAM433	Resection	66	M	T3N2M0	ECX	Poor	4
CAM629	Resection	61	M	T3N1M0	FLOT	Moderate	4
CAM664	Resection	62	M	T3N0M0	FLOT	Moderate	4
CAM665	Resection	61	F	T3N3M0	FLOT	Poor	4
CAM668	Resection	57	M	T3N3M0	FLOT	Poor	4
CAM676	Resection	59	M	T3N1M0	FLOT	Poor	4
CAM401	Resection	77	F	T4aN2M0	CF	Poor	5
CAM467	Resection	68	M	T2N0M0	ECX	Poor	5
CAM542	Resection	77	M	T3N2M0	ECX	Poor	5
CAM338	Resection	51	F	T3N1Mx	ECX	Poor	5
CAM423	Resection	55	M	T3N2M0	ECX	Poor	5
CAM446	Resection	68	F	T4aN3M0	ECX	Poor	5
CAM576	Resection	51	M	T4bN1	FLOT	Poor	5
CAM614	Resection	76	M	T4aN3M0	FLOT	Moderate	5
CAM667	Resection	62	M	T3N3M0	FLOT	Moderate	5
CAM421	Staging Lap	57	M	-	CF	Poor	Not available*
CAM408	Resection	60	M	T1aN0M0	None	Moderate	n/a
CAM412	Resection	51	F	T1bN0M0	None	Poor	n/a
CAM450	Resection	76	M	T1N0M0	None	Moderate	n/a
CAM471	Resection	82	M	T3N3M0	None	Poor	n/a
CAM277	Resection	80	F	T3N2M0	None	Poor	n/a
CAM501	Staging Lap	72	M	T3N2M0	ECX	Moderate	n/a
CAM574	Resection	71	M	T3N1M0	None	Moderate	n/a
OESO117	Unknown	61	M	T3 N2 M0	None	-	n/a
OESO146	Unknown	73	M	T2 N0 M0	None	-	n/a

1298

Table 2: Demographic and clinicopathological characteristics of organoids derived from patients with oesophageal adenocarcinoma. All patients were White British. *TRG not available but sample noted demonstrate therapy-related tumour regression. - missing data. ECX, epirubicin, cisplatin, capecitabine; CF, cisplatin, 5-fluorouracil; FLOT: 5-fluorouracil/leucovorin, oxaliplatin, docetaxel; Lap laparoscopy; TRG, tumour regression grade.

Features / dimensions	Normal gastric organoids	Non-dysplastic BO organoids	Dysplastic BO organoids	OAC organoids
Driver gene mutations	No enrichment for OAC-selected driver events; absence of TP53 and CDKN2A alterations typical of Barrett progression	Frequent *CDKN2A* or ARID1A alterations; TP53 generally absent or subclonal	*TP53* alterations common but could be absent; *CDKN2A* or *ARID1A* frequently co-altered, or progression-associated events	High frequency of *TP53* mutations; recurrent copy number alterations affecting *CDKN2A, ARID1A, GATA6, SMAD4* and others
Genome-wide features	Very low mutation burden; no evidence of chromosomal instability or whole-genome doubling	Intermediate mutation burden (usually > 2/Mb); mutational signatures concordant with Barrett tissue even when SNV overlap is low	Higher mutation burden (usually > 4/Mb); increased genomic instability	Copy-number alterations dominate; high chromosomal instability and frequent whole-genome doubling
Transcriptome / lineage state	Strong gastric lineage program (e.g. gastric mucins, digestive enzyme genes); minimal intestinal signature. Separated from BO organoids in PCA analysis	Mixed gastric–intestinal state; inverse relationship between gastric and intestinal programs; Separated from gastric organoids in PCA analysis	Separated from gastric organoids in PCA analysis; increased expression of *HOX* genes relative to non-dysplastic BO	Diverse tumour transcriptional states; no single uniform OAC program
Morphology & growth kinetics	Benign glandular morphology; used as baseline rather than growth comparison	Four morphologies: single-layer single-lumen; single-layer multi-lumen; multi-layer luminal; solid. Luminal types expand more robustly	Loss of single-layer multi-lumen morphology; increased proportion of solid organoids	Predominantly solid morphology; cell fusion events contribute to growth variability

1328

1329 **Table 3: Integrated framework for classifying Barrett oesophagus and oesophageal**

1330 **adenocarcinoma organoids.** A decision-based framework to distinguish normal gastric and

1331 precancerous organoids are also described in **Supplementary Figure 14.**

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1334

1335 **LIST OF SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES**

1336 <Separate file>

1337

1338 **Supplementary Table 1: Metadata relating to archived data for models generated in this**

1339 **study.**

Individual ID	Age	Sex	Organoid derived from	Condition/Procedure
DE04	63	Male	GOJ	Gastrointestinal disease-free organ donor
DE26	61	Female	GOJ	Gastrointestinal disease-free organ donor
DE26	61	Female	Gastric body	Gastrointestinal disease-free organ donor
DE27	35	Male	GOJ	Gastrointestinal disease-free organ donor
DE27	35	Male	Gastric body	Gastrointestinal disease-free organ donor
DE28	37	Male	GOJ	Gastrointestinal disease-free organ donor
DE28	37	Male	Gastric body	Gastrointestinal disease-free organ donor
MS050	63	Male	Jejunum	Gastrectomy
HGH046	67	Female	Jejunum	Gastrectomy
TB16.0980	42	Male	Duodenum	Pancreaticoduodenectomy

1340 **Supplementary Table 2: A summary of demographic and clinicopathological characteristics**

1341 **of donors of control intestinal and gastric organoids. GOJ: gastroesophageal junction.**

Day	Measure	Single layer, single lumen	Single layer, multi-lumen	Multi-layer, with lumen	Solid, multiple cells
4	Number of organoids (%)	769 (53%)	343 (23%)	139 (9%)	213 (15%)
	Max diameter (μm)	378	380	160	84.0
	Mean diameter (μm)	85.2	94.7	46.3	27.1
	Mean circularity	1.11	1.12	1.08	1.06
6	Number of organoids (%)	720 (58%)	326 (26%)	68 (6%)	119 (10%)
	Max diameter (μm)	513	397	213	83.3
	Mean diameter (μm)	106	121	63.1	27.0
	Mean circularity	1.12	1.15	1.08	1.06
7	Number of organoids (%)	776 (61%)	322 (25%)	60 (5%)	117 (9%)
	Max diameter (μm)	376	421	143	104
	Mean diameter (μm)	108	129	64.3	27.3
	Mean circularity	1.13	1.15	1.10	1.07

1342

1343 **Supplementary Table 3: Morphological characteristics of a non-dysplastic Barrett**

1344 **oesophagus PDO (AHM0040) at four, six and seven days following seeding.**

1345

1346

Day	Measure	Single layer, single lumen	Multi-layer, with lumen	Solid, multiple cells
4	Number of organoids	153 (29%)	142 (27%)	245 (45%)
	Max diameter (µm)	202	91.9	135
	Mean diameter (µm)	72.8	52.2	43
	Mean circularity	1.08	1.07	1.07
6	# organoids (%)	241 (34%)	212 (30%)	255 (36%)
	Max diameter (µm)	444	250	187
	Mean diameter (µm)	93.5	64.2	52.7
	Mean circularity	1.12	1.08	1.07

1347

1348 **Supplementary Table 4: Morphological characteristics of a dysplastic Barrett oesophagus**

1349 **PDO (AHM2221) at four, six and seven days following seeding.**

1350

	Single layer, single lumen	Single layer, multi-lumen	Multi-layer, with lumen	Solid
In vitro observations (>1% organoids)	BO lines only (AHM0040, AHM2221)	NBDO only (AHM0040)	BO lines only (AHM0040, AHM2221)	BO and OAC (AHM0040, AHM2221, CAM277)
In Silico observations	Single organoids	Fused SLSL organoids	Single organoids	Single and fused organoids
Parameters	IP = 1 EP = True	As for SLSL	IP<1, IP>0 EP = True	IP 0 or EP False
Parameter interpretation	Cells all polar	Cells all polar	Some cells with disrupted polarity	Cells all with disrupted polarity

1351

1352 **Supplementary Table 5: Summary of *in silico* and *in vitro* observations for the growth**

1353 **patterns and morphology of non-dysplastic (AHM0040) and dysplastic (AHM2221) Barrett**

1354 **oesophagus PDOs.** BO, Barrett oesophagus; EP, establish polarity (i.e. whether cells are polar);

1355 IP, inherit polarity (i.e. the likelihood of a cell inheriting polarity); NBDO, non-dysplastic Barrett

1356 oesophagus; OAC, oesophageal adenocarcinoma; SLSL, single layer, single lumen.

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1358   <Separate file>

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1360   **Supplementary Table 6: a summary of enriched processes and pathways relating to genes**

1361   **that are differentially expressed only non-dysplastic and dysplastic Barrett oesophagus**

1362   **versus gastric patient derived organoids.** BP: biological process; GO: gene ontology; MF:

1363   molecular function; TF: transcription factor; WP: Wiki pathway.

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1366   <Separate file>

1367

1368   **Supplementary table 7: a summary of enriched processes and pathways relating to genes**

1369   **that are differentially expressed only in non-dysplastic Barrett oesophagus versus gastric**

1370   **patient derived organoids.** BP: biological process; GO: gene ontology; MF: molecular function;

1371   TF: transcription factor; WP: Wiki pathway.

1372

1373   <Separate file>

1374

1375   **Supplementary table 8: a summary of enriched processes and pathways relating to genes**

1376   **that are differentially expressed only in dysplastic versus gastric patient derived organoids.**

1377   BP: biological process; GO: gene ontology; MF: molecular function; TF: transcription factor; WP:

1378   Wiki pathway.

Solid organoids	Day 4	Day 6	Day 7
Number of organoids	1936	2013	1918
Mean diameter (µm)	43.2	47.9	49.2
Maximum diameter (µm)	183	262	213
Mean circularity	1.07	1.07	1.08
Proportion of solid organoids	99%	99%	99%

1379

1380 **Supplementary Table 9: Morphological characteristics of an OAC PDO (CAM277) at four, six**

1381 **and seven days following seeding.**

	5FU+ Leucovorin			Oxaliplatin			Docetaxel		
	IC50	AUC	Emax	IC50	AUC	Emax	IC50	AUC	Emax
CAM574	19.12	206.7	95.2	19.65	242.1	92.7	1.41	149.2	78.0
CAM277	8.50	179.9	94.6	9.24	174.8	96.2	2.04	185.3	70.4
CAM408	56.25	254.5	95.8	74.32	295.6	69.7	3.04	161.5	72.9
CAM117	13.60	186.0	96.1	93.57	273.8	81.2	2.69	132.7	93.5
CAM146	21.95	197.9	82.4	25.65	234.6	73.1	1.89	211.5	48.7

Supplementary Table 10: OAC PDO sensitivity to cytotoxic chemotherapy. AUC: area under the curve (an integral value of viability following exposure to defined concentrations of each drug); E_{max}: the maximum effect; IC_{50}: the concentration of each drug required to reduce viability to 50%; 5FU: 5-fluorouracil.

	CAM277	CAM401	CAM408	CAM412	CAM429	CAM501	CAM535	CAM574
0 Gy	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2 Gy	0.86	0.88	1.03	0.77	0.71	0.42	0.58	0.62
4 Gy	0.80	0.62	0.99	0.56	0.66	0.54	0.57	0.78
6 Gy	0.74	0.77	1.10	0.52	0.53	0.36	0.59	0.70
8 Gy	0.68	0.75	0.73	0.62	0.60	0.24	0.47	0.55
AUC	0.83	0.79	0.98	0.66	0.67	0.46	0.63	0.70

1387

1388 **Supplementary Table 11: OAC PDO sensitivity to x-ray irradiation.** Organoid forming efficiency

1389 shown for each PDO following exposure to 0-8Gy x-ray irradiation in a single fraction. AUC,

1390 median area under the curve (integral of 0-8Gy organoid forming efficiency values).

Organoid	IC$_{50}$ (geometric mean, μM)	IC$_{50}$ (range, μM)	Observed E$_{max}$ (mean, %)	Observed E$_{max}$ (range, %)	AUC
CAM277	0.908	0.9–0.916	70	60.9–79.0	332.4
CAM401	2.87	2.39–3.44	35.7	24.2–47.3	379.7
CAM429	0.586	0.519–0.663	48.6	43.2–53.9	349.6
CAM535	1.302	0.729–2.33	48.9	27.3–70.4	356

1391

1392 **Supplementary Table 12: OAC PDO sensitivity to the CDK4/6 inhibitor abemaciclib.** AUC:

1393 area under the curve (an integral value of viability following exposure to defined concentrations

1394 of each drug); E$_{max}$: the maximum effect; IC$_{50}$: the concentration of each drug required to reduce

1395 viability to 50%.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

A

i

Legend: CAM574, CAM277, CAM408, OESO117, OESO146

Relative viability % vs [Docetaxel nM]

ii

Relative viability % vs [5FU µM] + Leucovorin 10µM

iii

Relative viability % vs [Oxaliplatin µM]

B

Organoid forming efficiency vs Dose (Gy)

Legend: CAM277, CAM408, CAM412, CAM501, CAM574

C

Relative viability % vs Abemaciclib (µM)

CDK6 amplified: CAM535, CAM429
KRAS amplified: CAM277, CAM401

D

Columns: 5-fluorouracil/leucovorin, Oxaliplatin, Docetaxel, Radiotherapy

Rows: CAM277, CAM408, CAM574

Scale: 1.4, 1.1, 0.80

SACT, Radiotherapy

Supplementary Figure 1

Supplementary Figure 2

Supplementary Figure 3

A

B

C

Supplementary Figure 4

Supplementary Figure 5

Supplementary Figure 6

A

PDO imaging and image analysis

$$\text{Diameter} = \frac{(\text{minimum} + \text{maximum width})}{2}$$

Morphology and cell number scaling

Single lumen   Multilumen   Solid

Hollow PDOs (Cells ∝ d²)   Solid PDOs (Cells ∝ d³)

B   In silico CompuCell3D modelling

t0   t1   t2

Inherit polarity = 1

Inherit polarity > 0 <1

Inherit polarity = 0

Fusion favoured ΔE$_{fusion}$ < 0

Fusion not favoured ΔE$_{fusion}$ > 0

Fusion favoured ΔE$_{fusion}$ < 0

C   i   ii

D

E

[No Title]

Supplementary Figure 7

Supplementary Figure 8

A

Gastric organoids OR Barrett's organoids + Oesophageal fibroblasts

B

Co-culture model — 1 mm

Co-culture model (H&E) — 0.5 mm

BO tissue

Co-culture model — 200 µm

C

SSC-A vs FSC-A — Cell gate

FSC-A vs FSC-H — Singlets gate

Live/Dead-BV421 vs FSC-A — Live cells

Epcam-APC vs FSC-A — Epithelial cells / Fibroblasts

D

% of S1 (CD34+) fibroblasts in total fibroblasts

% of Fibroblasts

BO / Gastric

| Reflux acid | − | + | − | + | − | + | − | + |
| IL10 | − | − | + | + | − | − | + | + |

E

% of S3 (aSMA+) fibroblasts in total fibroblasts

BO / Gastric

| Reflux acid | − | + | − | + | − | + | − | + |
| IL10 | − | − | + | + | − | − | + | + |

F

Specific niche factors

Clones *likely* to expand

Clones *unlikely* to expand

Facilitating niche cells

Non-facilitating niche cells

Supplementary Figure 9

Supplementary Figure 10

Supplementary Figure 11

Supplementary Figure 12

Supplementary Figure 13

Supplementary Figure 14