A fast yet force-effective mode of collective cell migration on aligned fibers due to rapid stabilization of contractile forces

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Abstract:

Cell collectives use aligned extracellular matrix fibers for directed migration in development, regeneration, and cancer metastasis. Previously, stiffer matrices and aligned matrix topographies have been shown to independently enhance and polarize cellular forces, which in turn speed up cell migration. However, it remains unknown whether fibers serve as active conduits for spatial propagation of cellular mechanotransduction and directed collective cell migration independently of stiffness cues. In this work, we developed soft hydrogels coated with magnetically aligned collagen fibers and studied migration of defined epithelial clusters. We report that epithelial (MCF10A) cell clusters adhered to soft substrates with aligned collagen fibers (AF) migrate faster with much lesser traction forces, compared to those on uniform fibers (UF). Fiber alignment causes motility and force transmission deeper into the monolayer, leading to polarized cell flocking, compared to migration on UF where cellular jamming occurs. Using a motor-clutch model, we explain that force-effective fast migration phenotype occurs due to faster stabilization of cellular contractile forces enabled by aligned ligand connectivity. As a result, cells migrate faster with lesser effort, thereby revealing that aligned matrix topographies may help conserve energy for cell migration in fundamental biological processes such as wound repair and tumor invasion.

Significance statement:

Cellular forces are critical for their collective migration on matrices of varies stiffness and topographies.
While cells can align collagen fibers during migration, it remains unknown whether such force
requirement changes with pre-aligned fibers. On soft surfaces with aligned collagen fibers, we discovered
a new mode of fast collective cell migration that requires drastically lower traction forces, compared to
surfaces without aligned fibers. Through monolayer stress microscopy calculations and a motor-clutch
model, we further discovered that this novel mode of "fast and force-effective" collective cell migration
is achieved by rapid stabilization of cellular contractile forces. Although high traction forces have
conventionally been associated with fast cell migration, our findings show that aligned fibers relax that
force requirement via contractility stabilization.

Main Text:

Directed collective cell migration is ubiquitous in fundamental processes like organ development and regeneration (*1*), (*2*). However, physical or biochemical mechanisms that dictate mesoscopic order across supra-cellular length scales are not well understood. Mechanistically, large-scale propagation of mechanical signals leading to directionally cooperative behavior has been recognized, but not yet elucidated. Recently, collective cells undergoing directional migration on substrates having gradients in stiffness (durotaxis) have shown to utilize long range force propagation (*3*) aided via underlying substrate, motivating a hypothesis that efficient signal transduction could be a key component in explaining directional migration. Thus, it is possible that if extracellular force propagation works in coordination with mechanical stress transfer across cell-cell junctions, such cooperation could generate more efficient collective cell migration. This is an intriguing possibility given that force transfer across cellular junctions correlates only to a limited spatial extent in unbiased migration, thereby reducing migration efficiency.

Directional collective migration via contact guidance in the form of aligned extracellular matrix (ECM) fibers is critical in tissue healing and regenerations (*4*)–(*6*) as well as a strong regulator of carcinoma progression (*7*)–(*10*). There have been extensive studies on parallel grooves or adhesive ligands aimed at mimicking this phenomenon in 2D (*11*)–(*14*). While these studies have focused on capturing ligand continuity in a particular direction by uniformly coating ligands along the topography or adhesive strip, the fact that ligands on aligned fibers *in vivo* are connected to each other and can potentially serve as sources of large-scale propagation of mechanical signals has not yet been investigated. This gap in knowledge provides us with an opportunity to test our hypothesis of extra-cellular force propagation via aligned fibers as an adjuvant to mechanical stress transfer across cellular junctions helping cellular cohorts to exhibit directional migration in aligned fibrous microenvironments.

To probe the above hypothesis, we develop an experimental approach where we use aligned collagen-1 fibers as directional cues for cell migration on soft 2D surfaces that mimic physiological stiffness. We first synthesize modified soft polyacrylamide (mod-PA) hydrogels, which enable attachment of tunable collagen fibers, as previously described (*15*). We then incubate these hydrogels in a collagen-1 solution (0.1 mg/ml) and expose to a high-strength magnetic field (11 T) during collagen fibrillogenesis at 4° C (Fig. 1b, Fig. S1a) (*16*). During this process, collagen fibers settle and covalently attach to the gels, with alignment along a desired direction (*15*). Next, using magnetic polydimethyl-siloxane (PDMS) stencils, we micro-patterned rectangular clusters (500 μm wide) of human mammary epithelial cells (MCF-10A) on these aligned collagen-coated mod-PA gels in a manner such that directions of leading edge advancement and collagen alignment are parallel (Fig 1a). We measure the effect of collagen alignment on collective migration by comparing it against uniformly distributed collagen fibers without alignment bias. To achieve uniformly coated collagen surfaces, mod-PA gels were incubated with collagen solution at 37° C, without magnetic field, followed by cell cluster patterning (Fig. 1c, Fig. S1b) (*15*).

Upon removal of the PDMS stencil, rectangular cell clusters expanded symmetrically on both aligned fiber gels (AF) and uniform fiber gels (UF) (Fig. 1 (d, e)). To better understand the large-scale spatiotemporal fluctuations of mechanical patterns within the expanding monolayer, we averaged velocities, tractions, and monolayer stresses across length (y-coordinate), thereby reducing

dimensionality of system to a single spatial dimension (x-axis, which is the also the direction of collagen
alignment) and the temporal dimension (Fig. 1 (h-k), 2 (a-d), 3(i-n)). By comparing cell migration
trajectories (Fig. 1f-g, Fig. S1c-d), we observed that cell clusters on AF migrated faster (1.8 times)
compared to the cells migrating on UF. Additionally, cell clusters migrated more persistently along the x-
direction leading to a net higher expansion of the monolayer on AF, indicating that cells were using aligned
fibers as directional cues to navigate their migration (Fig S1e). For AF, cell movements were more
homogenous with higher velocities at the leading edge penetrating greater depths within the monolayer,
compared to a more heterogeneous distribution in UF characterized by outward faster velocities and
middle regions with much lesser velocities (Fig. 1h,i). Quantitatively, the spatial velocity autocorrelation
function follows a slower spatial decay in AF, confirming that cellular motion is correlated across greater
distances when compared to UF (Fig. 1i).

Given the spatial cooperation in migrating cells driven by aligned fibers, we next investigated
whether cell movements had differences in temporal heterogeneity across the conditions. We measure
this heterogeneity using the four-point susceptibility χ_4, a soft matter physics tool used for measuring the
rate of structural rearrangements between any two points in space within a time window. We computed
χ_4 from the variance of the self-overlap order parameter (see Methods). While the location of the peak
of χ_4 indicates time interval in which cell migration dynamics are highly heterogeneous, the height of the
peak denotes the spatial extent of such heterogeneities (*17*). Comparing AF versus UF, there is a distinct
shift in χ_4 peak to longer timescales for UF (Fig. 1m), indicating a more jammed state for cells migrating
on UF. Additionally, the peak height for UF is higher, indicating larger clusters of jammed cells in UF.
According to previous work in inert particulate matter (*18*), (*19*), differences in mutual crowding between
the two conditions could be responsible for promoting jamming in one condition over the other. To
explore this potential mechanism for the observed jamming differences in AF and UF, we measured
cellular areas (Fig. 1n,o) densities (Fig. S1d)and aspect ratios (Fig. 1n, Fig. S1e)) across the two conditions.
As shown in figures, cells on UF tended to have a higher area and aspect ratio compared to AF while also
having much lesser densities. While cellular morphologies do agree with the notion that cells on UF are in
a more jammed state (*20*), it is quite counter-intuitive to find that such a state existed in UF at lesser
cellular densities when compared to AF. This is particularly surprising because jamming tends to occur at
higher densities in inert systems (*19*), (*21*). This experimental evidence thus helps us to reject a density
based jamming hypothesis. For the cells in the x-direction on AF, our analysis suggest a flocking type of
migratory phenotype (*22*), (*23*), which is spatially homogenous and temporally dynamic. By contrast, on
UF, migration is much more heterogeneous and static. It is possible that these differences in phenotype
are a result of homogeneity in ligand orientation on AF and the lack thereof on UF.

Interestingly, for AF alone, there were multiple strain-rate X-waves propagating away from
leading edge, coalescing at the middle of the monolayer and then propagating back to the edge (Fig. 1j,k,
Fig. 2l,m). This phenomenon was less frequent for UF. Although efficiency of mechanical wave
transmission has not been linked to jamming before, the results here do provide evidence to the
hypothesis that cell mobilization away from the leading edge is higher and more efficient on AF compared
to UF. Interestingly, this transmission takes place across greater number of cell-cell junctions on AF owing
to density differences between the two conditions.

Experimental results presented thus far suggest that cell clusters on AF migrate with faster
velocities. This unjammed migration phenotype also displays an effective relay of motion from the
monolayer front to the rear. By contrast, on UF, cells are slower and jammed with a disrupted transmission
of motion. Since motion of a collective cohort of cells depends on the effective transfer of stresses across
the monolayer (*24*), and while we see effective transfer of motion in only one of the condition, we sought
to compare how well forces were getting transmitted across the cells between the conditions. To this end,
we first studied traction force evolution within the monolayer. For AF, tractions in x-direction (T_x)
kymographs demonstrated much lower (1/5th) traction magnitudes compared to UF (Fig. 2 a,b). Although
direct force measurements have not been reported before, this result is surprising because migration
studies on stiff substrates in the past have suggested that cells apply higher forces on aligned topographies
(*14*). Interestingly, the traction distribution for both conditions was different. While tractions were evenly
distributed across the monolayer width on AF, there were heterogeneities in UF, with higher tractions
localized at the leading edges, followed by a steep decrease in middle regions. These differences in
traction distribution run parallel to the velocity distribution differences seen between the two conditions.

Since the T_x kymographs hint at differences in force transmission across the monolayer width
between the two fiber alignment conditions, we probe this further by measuring force transmission using
monolayer stress microscopy (*25*). Although kymographs for monolayer stress component σ_{xx} for both
AF and UF (Fig. 2c,d) showed maxima at the monolayer midline, indicating build-up of stress differentials
at the monolayer center via cell-cell junctions, the extent of this build-up was different for both conditions.
Cells on AF had one-fifth of the built-up stresses compared to UF (Fig. 2c,d). This difference was also
reflected in the average strain energy plots, which show that cells on AF transfer one-fifth of the strain
energy to the substrate compared to the UF (Fig. 2q). To examine the extent of stress cooperativity within
the monolayer, we also calculated the spatial correlation function (*C(R)*) of the average normal stress. As
shown in Fig 2(p), cells on AF exhibit slower spatial decay of *C(R)*, indicating that average normal stresses
were correlated over greater distances. Interestingly, according to T_y kymographs, cells on AF apply
negligible forces in the y-direction, while cells on UF apply much higher forces that are equivalent to forces
in x-direction (Fig. S3c-e). These distinct differences in T_y indicate that cells on AF are polarized along the
direction of collagen alignment and predominantly pull along the collagen fibers, while cells on UF apply
forces isotropically without a directional bias.

Since cellular velocity and stress propagate across the monolayer differently between AF and UF,
we next probed the relationship between these two fundamental physical quantities that determine
grouped cell behavior. Earlier studies have shown that cells have the tendency to migrate along the
direction of minimal shear stress, a phenomenon known as "plithotaxis" (*25*). To check the effect of
collagen alignment on plithotaxis, we first rank-ordered the pairs of stress and velocity according to their
distances from leading edge into 5 quintiles (Fig. 2g-i). Next, for each quintile, we measured the alignment
angle φ between local maximal principal stress orientation and local migration velocity vector orientation.
We calculated the cumulative probability distribution of φ for each quintile to assess the extent of
alignment between velocity and maximal principal stress. Higher degree of alignment would be associates
with a steeper rising curve. In both AF and UF, we observe that moving away from the leading edge causes
reduction in alignment between local stress and cellular motion, indicating that plithotaxis is most

dominant at the leading edge (Fig. 2r,s). However, for each quintile, AF shows a stronger alignment
between stress and velocity (steeper curve) when compared to UF. This indicates that plithotaxis is more
dominant in AF at all regions within the monolayer when compared to UF, which supports our hypothesis
of an efficient transfer of stresses from front to rear of the migrating monolayer across its cell-cell
junctions. This long-distance stress propagation guided by aligned collagen fibers enables a more effective
transfer of motion from the leader to the follower population. By contrast, both the front-rear stress
propagation and the leader-follower velocity cooperation get disrupted when fibers are uniformly
distributed without any preferred orientation.

Previously, cytoskeletal fluidization has been shown to regulate dissipation of built-up stresses
within cell monolayers for their active expansion (*26*). Here, we measure the extent of fluidization within
the monolayer by measuring stress oscillations at the monolayer midline. Multiple stress peaks arise for
AF, compared to a single such peak in UF for the entire migration duration (Fig. 2l,m). These periodic built-
up and release of stresses at the monolayer midline for AF indicates an efficient long-range stress
transmission across cells, a process absent in UF. Additionally, in accordance with previous literature (*26*),
these stress oscillations were in a phase quadrature to velocity strain rate oscillations but in phase with
cellular area fluctuations (Fig. 2n,o). Given that stresses are more frequently dissipated in AF, it would be
indicative of more frequent regulation of cell size, consistent with recent work showing coordination of
cell size and stress within a monolayer (*27*). This cell size-stress balancing act could explain why stresses
within the monolayer are not allowed to build up, leading to overall lower stresses on AF. On AF, higher
frequency of cell shape adaptation results in overall reduction in cell size as stresses are seamlessly
transferred across cells. However, on UF, infrequent transfer of stresses leads to stress build-up within
the cells, which coincides with increase in cell size.

As a confirmation of the above phenotype, we repeated the experiment by further lowering the mod-PA
substrate stiffness. We find that cells still migrate faster on AF compared to UF (1.34 times) while applying
much lesser forces (1/4th) on AF when compared to UF (Fig. S3a,c). We also find that both cellular
velocities and stresses are correlated across greater distances in clusters migrating on AF (Fig. S3b,d).
Expectedly, we also observed higher spatial extent of plithotaxis in clusters migrating on AF (Fig. S4e-i).

Our experimental measurements establish that monolayers use aligned collagen fibers to expand
faster while generating lesser contractile tractions and monolayer stresses. Also, we show that these
forces are transmitted across greater distances within the cluster. To better understand why fiber
alignment leads to faster migration without the need for higher forces, we developed a physical model
which incorporates clutch-like cell-ECM interactions in a minimalist framework wherein cell monolayer,
collagen fibers, and soft substrate are treated as a collection of elastic springs connected in series (Fig.
4a). While UF is modelled as individual ligand springs disconnected from one another, AF is modelled by
connecting these ligand springs to each other, depicting ligand connectivity along the direction of
migration (Fig. 4b,c).

The model predicts a faster cell cluster expansion during its migration over connected ligand
springs (compared to the disconnected condition), while generating lesser traction forces on the
underlying substrate mesh. Cells within the cluster are also able to fluidize more often when migrating
over connected fibers, thus leading to release of build-up stress within the cell cluster. In our model, fiber

connectivity causes engagement of more ligand-substrate bonds as the leading-edge cell node contracts
after a protrusion event. This rise in ligand-substrate bonds results in higher load sharing capability
amongst the nodes, leading to quicker stabilization of the contracting leading edge. Quicker stabilization
further leads to faster subsequent protrusions and overall expansion of the cluster (Fig. 4d,e). Another
effect of faster contractility stabilization is reduced retraction of the cell cluster, compared to the
disconnected fiber condition, which in turn causes lesser substrate deformation and traction (Fig. 4f,g).
As a whole, the faster stabilization of the leading edge on connected fibers causes quicker transfer of
stress from the edge to the center, which in turn results in faster stretch-based cell fluidization within the
monolayer. However, in case of slower stabilization of cluster edge, the related slower transfer of strains
to the center reduces the frequency of fluidization events within the monolayer (Fig. 4h,i).

Given the close agreement between the experiments and model predictions, we conclude that
long-range force transmission via connected ligands leads to a more efficient mode of migration in terms
of force required to generate migration velocity on matrix conditions that offer higher ligand connectivity.
While long-range force transmission as an underlying mechanism for collective directional migration has
been alluded to in the past (*3*), our experiments use constant matrix stiffness across conditions, thus
keeping stiffness sensitive mechano-transduction pathways within the cells constant and thereby
removing the effective contribution of stiffness from directional migration or its effect in long range force
transmission. We also speculate that utilizing aligned ECM fibers on 2D substrates gives rise to a quasi-2D
mode of contact-guided directional migration, which delineates the role of ligand connectivity as opposed
to uniformly coated ligands on micropatterned protein stripes or topographical grooves (*11*), (*13*).
Uniform ligand coating leads to ligand continuity but not connectivity, thus restricting matrix mechano-
transmission that could take place outside of the cell monolayer. In light of recent evidence of cell division
upregulation upon mechanical stretching (*28*), future work could explore how differences in mechanical
properties within the monolayer dictates the ease of proliferation-based monolayer fluidization in the
presence of ligand connectivity.

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Author Contributions

AB and AP conceived the project and designed study. AB performed experiments and computational modeling, analyzed data, interpreted findings, made figures, and wrote the manuscript. BS, JZ and MF contributed methods and reagents for polyacrylamide gel synthesis. AP edited the manuscript, supervised the project, and acquired funding.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

Data Availability

Source codes used for data analysis and plotting figures are available on reasonable request.

Figures

Figure 1. Aligned fibers cause faster and more directed motion within cell clusters. (a) Modified soft polyacrylamide (mod-PA) gels are exposed to high strength magnetic field to orient collagen in particular

direction. A PDMS stencil is deposited on the mod-PA gel. MCF-10A cells are seeded and allowed to attach only by the gap defined by PDMS stencil. When cells reach confluency, stencil is lifted, and cells start invading available space. Representative images of fluorescently labelled collagen-1 on AF (**b**) and UF (**c**). Scale bar is 50 µm. (**d**) A representative monolayer expanding on aligned fiber gels (AF). Gray transparent region indicates monolayer's initial position (t = 0 hours). Phase contrast shows the monolayer at 16hours. Gray lines indicate monolayer edges. (**e**) Example of monolayer expanding on uniform fiber gels (UF). (**f** and **g**) Individual cell trajectories corresponding to experiments shown in (d) and (e) respectively. Color-coding shows mean cell speed in x-direction for every track. Kymographs of cell velocity component in x-direction (v_x) (**h** and **i**), velocity strain rate $\dot{\varepsilon}_x$ (**j** and **k**) corresponding to experiments shown in (d) and (e) respectively. (**l**) Time-averaged (m = 157) spatial autocorrelation function of v_x for AF (red) and UF (blue) for n = 3 observations, error is represented as standard error. (**m**) The four-point susceptibility χ_4 as a function of Δt for AF (red) and UF (blue). (**n**) Scatter plots of cell aspect ratio (AR) versus cellular area for AF (56117 cells, red) and UF (39447 cells, blue). (**o**) Distribution of cellular area for cells on AF (red) and UF (blue).

Figure 2. Aligned fibers reduces traction forces and monolayer stresses within migrating cell clusters causing a force effective mode of migration. (**a** and **b**) Kymographs for traction component T_x for AF (a)

and UF (b). (**c** and **d**) Kymographs for monolayer stress component σ_{xx}. (**e** and **f**) Principal stress ellipse overlaid on phase contrast images for monolayer on AF (e) and UF (f). Stress ellipse are color coded according to alignment angle φ between major axis of principle stress ellipse and direction of cellular velocity. (**g-i**) Alignment angle φ comparison between AF and UF at quintiles farthest (g), mid-distance (h) and closest (i) to the leading edge. In all three cases, distribution is narrower for AF indicating that "plithotaxis" is more dominant in AF compared to UF. (**j** and **k**) Polygons approximating cell shapes for monolayer on AF (j) and UF (k). Polygons are color coded corresponding to area. (**l** and **m**) Average value of $\dot{\varepsilon}_{xx}$ for AF (**l**) and UF (**m**) and σ_{xx} for AF (**n**) and UF (**o**). For curves in (l),(m),(n) and (o), four consecutive values were averaged for curve smoothening purposes. (**p**) Time averaged (m = 157) spatial correlation function of average-normal stresses in AF (red) and UF (blue) for n = 3 observations, error is represented as standard error. (**q**) Strain energy imparted by monolayer on AF and UF averaged across entire duration of migration (m = 157) across n = 3 (***** P = 1.98 x 10^{-84}). (**r**) Cumulative probability distribution $\bar{P}(\varphi)$ curves, from red to blue are at decreasing distance from leading edge for monolayer migrating on AF. (**s**) Cumulative probability distribution for monolayer migrating on UF. Each curve in (**r**) and (**s**) and distribution in (g), (h) and (i) have more than 1000 values.

Figure 3. Reducing substrate stiffness maintains faster force effective migration phenotype on AF when compared to UF. (**a** and **b**) Phase contrast images of cell monolayer migrating of softer AF (a) and

softer UF (b). (**c** and **d**) Maps of velocity component v_x. (**e** and **f**) Maps of traction component T_x. (**g** and
h) Maps of monolayer stress component σ_{xx}. (**i** and **j**) Kymographs of velocity component v_x for cell
monolayer migrating of softer AF (a) and softer UF (b). (**k** and **l**) Kymographs of traction component T_x.
(**m** and **n**) Kymographs of monolayer stress component σ_{xx}.

Figure 4. Physical model shows that fiber connectivity leads to rapid contractility stabilization leading
to fast force-effective migration mode (**a**) Schematic of one-dimensional in-silico model of a line of

epithelial cells represented by springs sliding viscously over rigid ligand springs which are fixed to

substrate springs after a self-propelling force is acted upon at the leader nodes. (**b**) and (**c**) represent

how connected ligands and disconnected ligands are modelled in-silico. In connected ligand condition

(b), higher number of ligand-substrate bonds get engaged during contractility driven retraction of

monolayer compared to disconnected condition (c). (**d** and **e**) In-silico velocity kymograph for connected

ligands (d) and disconnected ligands (e). (**f** and **g**) In-silico traction force kymograph for connected

ligands (f) and disconnected ligands (g). (**h** and **i**) In-silico strain-rate kymograph for connected ligands

(h) and disconnected ligands (i).