

# Staying away from the breaking point: Probing the limits of epithelial cell elimination

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### 1 Staying away from the breaking point: probing the limits of

### 2 epithelial cell elimination

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#### 9 Abstract

Epithelial tissues are dramatically remodelled during embryogenesis and tissue 10 homeostasis and yet need to maintain their sealing properties to sustain their barrier 11 functions at any time. Part of these remodellings involve the elimination of a large 12 proportion of cells through apoptosis. Cell extrusion, the remodelling steps leading to 13 14 seamless dying cell expulsion, helps to maintain tissue cohesion. However, there is an intrinsic limit in the system that can only accommodate a certain proportion/rate of cell 15 16 elimination as well as certain spatio-temporal distributions. What are then the critical conditions leading to epithelial rupture/tear/sealing defects upon cell elimination and 17 which mechanisms ensure that such limits are never reached? In this short review, I 18 19 document the conditions in which epithelial rupture has been observed, including in 20 contexts of epithelial cell death, and the mechanical parameters influencing tissue 21 rupture, and review feedback mechanisms which help to keep the epithelia away from the breaking point. 22

#### 23 Introduction

Epithelia are the central building block of Metazoans which ensure the separation of organs and their functions through the formation of tight impermeable mechanical and chemical barriers. While the different junctions along the apico-basal axis and their coupling to the cytoskeleton help to build a stable scaffold attaching cells together and generating a mechanical continuum (**Figure 1A**), this barrier also has to accommodate drastic remodellings such as the one occurring during morphogenesis or during the spontaneous turnover of some adult epithelia. Accordingly, apoptosis and epithelial

cell death is highly prevalent during tissue morphogenesis [1] or in adult tissues with 31 high cell turnover [2]. The exclusion of dying cells from the epithelia is compatible with 32 its barrier function thanks to cell extrusion [3-5], a serie of sub-cellular remodelling 33 steps leading to the contraction of the dying cells and the junctions shared with 34 neighbours, cell sliding toward the apical or basal side concomitant with junction 35 remodelling [6]. While extrusion is an efficient process to expel the cells while 36 maintaining tissue sealing, some extreme conditions in pathological or physiological 37 contexts are associated with very high rate of cell death that can endanger the 38 cohesion of the tissue. For instance, infection and inflammation can trigger gap 39 formation in the mice and human gut through the high frequency of cell shedding [7]. 40 Alternatively, cytotoxic stress can trigger epithelial tissue rupture in vitro when reaching 41 a threshold rate of cell elimination [8]. Repetitive loss of sealing will not only endanger 42 the mechanical continuum of the tissue and perturb morphogenesis, but can also 43 triggers chronic inflammation [9]. 44

45 Yet, epithelial tissue can sustain very high cell elimination rate could it be during gut 46 homeostasis where billions of cells die daily [10], or during embryogenesis/metamorphosis where some epithelial tissues can be completely 47 cleared within 24h while maintaining cohesion at any time [11]. What are then the 48 intrinsic limits of the systems and the conditions that lead to tissue rupture? Which 49 50 tissue mechanical parameters can tune the susceptibility to gap formation? Are there any feedback mechanisms that ensure that such critical points are never reached in 51 physiological contexts? I address these points in this short review by first documenting 52 conditions in which epithelial rupture has been observed and discuss the relevant 53 54 mechanical parameters that can tune the susceptibility to gap formation. I then discuss some examples where epithelial cell death has been associated with gap formation in 55 light of the relevant parameters described in the first part. Eventually, I describe 56 feedback mechanisms acting on different spatial and temporal scales, could it be 57 through the modulation cell death, cell extrusion, cell division or the local and global 58 mechanical properties that help to sustain high death rates. 59

#### 60 **Documenting the mechanical conditions associated with epithelial rupture.**

Epithelial rupture requires the local disassembly of adherens and septate junctions that will lead to permanent or transient hole formation between cells. These holes can form at different spatial and temporal scales, from small subcellular cracks, to massive

tissue tear, and will either expand or be resorbed by wound healing. Intuitively, rupture 64 can be triggered when tension or shear stress imposed by cell contractility or external 65 forces exceed the loading capacity of cell-cell junctions, which will disassemble and 66 detach (Figure 1A). Hence, epithelial rupture will be determined by the ratio between 67 pulling forces generated by tension and cell-cell adhesion strength. Along this line, 68 depletion of core components of adherens junctions (here, E-cadherin) rapidly leads 69 to epithelial rupture in Drosophila gastrulating embryos, especially in the mesoderm 70 71 region where contractility is developmentally upregulated [12]. The tears appear preferentially along antero-posterior axis where tension is higher, and can be 72 abrogated by the depletion of core-regulators of Rho activation in the mesoderm. Tears 73 74 were also recently observed in Drosophila follicular epithelia upon rapid aPKC depletion by optogenetics, a core regulator of apico-basal polarity [13]. aPKC depletion 75 76 leads to rapid increase of junction tension, which leads to gap formation near cells 77 undergoing cytokinesis. The extensive adherens junction remodeling for de novo 78 junction formation during cytokinesis [14-16] may generate transient weak adhesive spots permissive for tissue rupture. These few examples illustrate the strong spatial 79 heterogeneity for the susceptibility to gap formation associated with local and transient 80 modulation of adherens junctions and/or local modulation of contractility. 81

The mechanical limit of cell-cell adhesion can be better assessed using simplified 82 83 systems in vitro. Dual pipette aspiration can be used to detach cell doublets and measure the absolute forces required for cell-cell detachment [17] which vary by 84 several orders of magnitudes depending on the cell type and tissue (from 5 to 15 nN 85 between zebrafish gastrula cells [17] to 200 nN in S180 cells transfected with E-cad 86 87 [18]). However, this does not reflect the collective effect that may reinforce tissue stability. Suspended MDCK layers (without Extra Cellular Matrix, ECM) embedded 88 between two test rods controlled with a micromanipulator has been used to apply 89 controllable forces to a single epithelial layer [19]. The monolayer could withstand up 90 to a 110% strain before tissue rupture, leading to an estimation a  $1.7\mu N$  forces required 91 to detach cells, close to 9 times the forces required to separate cell doublets [18]. 92 Downregulation of cell-cell adhesion through Calcium chelation by EDTA reduces the 93 94 strain threshold to 25%, confirming the essential role E-cadherin and adherens junction for stabilising the tissue [19]. While these results underscore the strong reinforcement 95 96 of epithelial stability provided by collective effects, they do not address the role of the

97 interactions with the ECM which should influence forces distribution and tissue98 robustness.

99 Accordingly, epithelial cracks were also observed in the context of cyclic stretching of MDCK cells placed on circular patterns on PDMS substrate [20]. Surprisingly, cracks 100 101 are not formed during the stretching phase and do not correlate with tissue tension, but rather occur during substrate relaxation. Contact rupture is driven by the poro-102 elasticity of the substrate which upon relaxation de-swells and release water, hence 103 building up hydraulic pressure on the epithelial basal side. However, contrary to the 104 stretching of suspended monolayers, these cracks do not lead to large scale tissue 105 opening. Yet, this suggests that tissue lateral compression could also lead to local 106 107 sealing defects.

More recently, spontaneous holes formation was described in confluent MDCK and 108 Caco2 cells plated on circular patterns on soft gels [21]. A large proportion (~90%) of 109 these ruptures are initiated near cells undergoing cytokinesis and their frequency is 110 drastically reduced upon mitosis inhibition, in agreement with the observations 111 performed in Drosophila follicles upon aPKC depletion [13] (see above). Importantly, 112 increasing substrate stiffness completely abolishes holes formation [21]. This is 113 114 explained by the enhanced substrate adhesion, which through stabilised focal adhesion and high friction dampen the stress applied at transcellular junctions. 115 Accordingly, the monolayer switches from a dominant tensile state on soft substrate to 116 a compressive state on stiff substrate. Importantly, ruptures are associated with local 117 peak of tensile stress driven by cell outward movements which are frequently 118 associated with local -1/2 topological defects (a so-called tri-radius alignment 119 associated with high tension also described in liquid crystal). Altogether, this study 120 outlines the importance of local tension fluctuations which can trigger cell detachment 121 and gap formation. Epithelial stability is enhanced on stiff substrate and at high 122 substrate adhesion which dampen junction tensile stress through energy dissipation 123 by friction. 124

To conclude, these studies outline a restricted number of parameters that can modulate the susceptibility to gap formation: while high cell-cell adhesion as well as high substrate adhesion stabilise the epithelium, high junctional tensile stress as well as local fluctuations increase the probability of tissue rupture. Local and transient inhomogeneity of cell-cell adhesion and/or tensile stress, which can be generated by

cellular events such as cell division or spontaneous collective movements, produce 130 numerous local weak spots that further enhance the probability of hole formation. This 131 relatively simplistic picture is obviously complexified by the strong interconnections and 132 cross-regulation of these parameters, where for instance high tension can directly 133 adhesion [22] 134 enhance cell-cell or substrate adhesion [23] through mechanotransduction. 135

#### 136 Creating gaps through epithelial cell death

After discussing the conditions that can lead to tissue rupture *in vivo* and *in vitro*, I will 137 now focus on sealing defects that were associated with epithelial cell death while trying 138 to interpret them in the mechanical framework of tissue rupture described above. Of 139 note, I will not focus here on conditions affecting core regulators of cell extrusions, 140 which is also associated with transient sealing defects [24]. In absence of cell division 141 and with fixed boundaries, cell elimination should lead to a progressive extension of 142 cell apical area and increased tensile stress until reaching a critical strain leading to 143 tissue rupture (Figure 1B), specially without protective feedback (see below). This 144 145 situation can occur in vitro with cytotoxic treatment in MCF10A cells when death rate reaches a critical value [8], or upon induction of high rates of apoptosis through global 146 147 induction of pro-apoptotic genes in vivo in the Drosophila pupal notum (a single layer epithelium) [25]. More recently, epithelial rupture and detachment was also associated 148 149 with the high density of cell extrusion triggered by the alveolar constriction during metacholine treatment on ex vivo cultured slices of mice lung as well as in vivo, an 150 experimental condition simulating asthmatic bronchioconstrictive attacks [26]. Cell 151 extrusions are here driven by the activation of the stretch sensitive channel Piezo upon 152 tissue crowding [26, 27]. Accordingly, cell extrusion and tissue detachment can be 153 significantly reduced with Gadolinium<sup>3+</sup> (an inhibitor of TRP channels) [26]. In this 154 context, the constriction of the smooth muscle layer is reminiscent of the PDMS 155 substrate relaxation that was triggering water outflux and crack formation in MDCK 156 islands [20]. Thus the poro-elasticity of the basal layer and the dewetting triggered by 157 hydraulic pressure may be more relevant to explain epithelial detachment in the lung 158 rather than an increase of tensile stress driven by massive extrusion. 159

While these studies rather focused on the absolute number and rate of cell elimination, we also recently outlined the important role of the precise spatio-temporal distribution of cell death. Using an optogenetic Caspase to trigger concomitant eliminations of

neighbouring cells, we observed frequent gap formation as soon as more than three 163 cells organised in clusters were eliminated together [28] (Figure 1C). Importantly, gaps 164 did not form when cells were eliminated in lines, suggesting that the precise topology 165 of junctions may be causative to gap formation. On the one hand, clustered elimination 166 may be associated with the high distance between surviving cells, which take too long 167 to get close enough to build new junctions prior to cell-cell junction disassembly in 168 dying cells triggered by caspases [28, 29]. On the other hand, the cluster of apoptotic 169 cells shared a common tricellular junction which may constitute a weak spot 170 susceptible to detachment. Accordingly, radial intercalation of multiciliated cell 171 precursors within the epithelium in Xenopus embryo occurs preferentially at tricellular 172 173 junctions, suggesting that they constitute a weaker point of adhesion more prone to detachment [30]. Irrespective of the mechanism, this reflects that clustered 174 eliminations are particularly detrimental for epithelial sealing. 175

Finally, cell extrusion in context of impaired or reduced cell-cell adhesion have also been associated with holes formation, could it be through the reduction of E-cad mediated adhesion [31] or by impairing desmosome junctions [6]. Interestingly, tearing occurs near extrusion in Desmoplakin depleted MDCK cells (a core component of Desmosomes) despite the global reduction of junctional tension, suggesting that high tensile stress may not be an absolute requirement for extrusion-driven tissue tear.

#### 182 Staying away from the breaking point through feedback

We have so far outlined two major parameters that can endanger epithelial cohesion 183 during cell elimination: a critical high rate of cell elimination that will bring tensile stress 184 up to the limit that can be supported by cell-cell junctions and/or clustered cell 185 elimination. What are then the mechanisms ensuring that epithelia stay away from 186 these critical points ? Feedback maintaining cohesion can act on different time scales 187 that will either ensure on short time scales that the critical death rates are never 188 reached, or on longer time scales by modulating key mechanical parameters affecting 189 epithelial stability. This includes: *i*) negative feedback acting on the rate and distribution 190 of cell death on short and long time scales, *ii*) feedback acting on cell number through 191 cell division, iii) mechanical feedback stabilising the epithelial organisation and 192 dissipating mechanical stress (Figure 2). The first line of defence against epithelial 193 collapse is to slow-down and/or redistribute cell death (Figure 2B). Recently, work in 194 MDCK, MCF10A and Caco2 cells revealed the existence of ERK and Akt waves 195

triggered near dying cells and propagating over few cell rows [8]. These waves protect 196 transiently the neighbouring cells from apoptosis hence buffering down the rate of cell 197 death despite pro-apoptotic treatment. Abrogating the waves through EGFR or 198 Adam17 inhibition leads to a monotonic increase of cell elimination up to epithelial 199 collapse. A similar feedback was also described in the Drosophila pupal notum, a 200 single layer epithelium, where cell extrusion triggers EGFR/ERK activation in cell 201 neighbours and protects from apoptosis the first row of cells for roughly one hour [28]. 202 203 This transient protection redistributes in time and space cell elimination, hence 204 preventing the appearance of clusters of cell elimination that would directly endanger the sealing properties (see above) [28]. These rapid feedback mechanisms (effective 205 206 after few minutes) ensure the first line of defence that prevents massive rate of elimination. On longer time scale, cell elimination will also progressively reduce cell 207 208 density and increase tensile stress which can feedback on cell survival and cell proliferation after few hours, which will both increase cell number and help to reduce 209 210 the stress borne by intercellular junctions. This was reported for various mechanosensitive pathway such as Yki Yap/Taz [32] or through the stretch-activated 211 212 channel Piezo [33], all promoting cell proliferation upon tissue stretching. Cell extrusion and the stretching of direct neighbours also promote heterogenous YAP activation 213 which increases the probability of cell division near each cell death event [34] (Figure 214 **2C**). Recently, high tissue tension was shown to perturb and block cell extrusion 215 downstream of apoptosis induction [35], hence revealing another potential negative 216 feedback that should slow-down extrusion progressively as global tissue tension 217 increases during cell elimination. While I discussed feedback acting on total cell 218 number, alternative mechanism may directly modulate mechanical parameters that will 219 ensure epithelial stability. As discussed above, three main factors could help to 220 maintain tissue cohesion: an increase of cell-matrix adhesion (which dissipates 221 junction tensile stress, see above), a direct reduction of junction tensile stress or a 222 223 reinforcement of cell-cell adhesion. Several reports outlined the contribution of basal cell protrusion for cell extrusion [36, 37], which also include long range collective 224 225 movements and cell polarisation toward the dying cell triggered by ERK and calcium waves [38-40] (Figure 2D), which may all increase adhesion to the matrix, friction and 226 227 dissipate part of the junction tensile stress [21]. Alternatively, apoptosis also triggers a downregulation of junction tension in the neighbouring cells through Src activation 228 229 which should prevent a rapid increase of tensile stress [41] (Figure 2E). While this was

not demonstrated in the context of cell death, epithelial stability may also be ensured 230 by stress dissipation through increased tissue fluidification through junction 231 remodelling, as shown during wound healing [42] (Figure 2F), or by absorbing massive 232 strain through super-elastic behaviour [43]. Along this line, calcium pulses occurring in 233 WT cells near oncogenic cells were shown to promote cell movement and local tissue 234 fluidity [44], a phenomenon reminiscent of calcium waves observed near apoptotic 235 cells which may also modulate fluidity through a similar mechanism [38]. 236 High 237 heterogeneity and fluctuations of contractility and tension in Trichoplax, a rudimentary marine organism composed on two epithelial layers, have also been proposed to buffer 238 very large mechanical stress induced by collective migration, a process named "active 239 240 cohesion" [45]. Similar fluctuations and acute release of tension could help to buffer the stress generated by high death rates. 241

#### 242 Conclusions and perspectives

Epithelia can absorb very high rates of cell death during development and tissue 243 244 homeostasis, which would have the potential to bring tissues close to the rupture point. Recent works in vitro and in vivo have revealed core parameters that will tune this 245 rupture point, favoured by high tensile stress, low cell-cell adhesion and low cell 246 247 substrate adhesion as well as fluctuations of tensile stress. Yet, these critical points are avoided thanks to the co-existence of various feedback mechanisms, acting on 248 249 different temporal and spatial scales, that will buffer down and disperse cell elimination and increase mitosis. Whether such feedback also tune local and global mechanical 250 251 parameters to dissipate the mechanical stress and favour epithelial stability remain an open and interesting line of future research. Chronic inflammation has been associated 252 253 with repetitive loss of epithelial sealing properties during acute stress. While high rates of apoptosis were the dominant causal link explored so far, modulation of the precise 254 spatio-temporal distribution of cell death, disruption of relevant negative feedback and 255 alteration of core epithelial mechanical properties could all be relevant alternative 256 causes of tissue susceptibility to rupture and inflammation. 257

#### **Declaration of interest**

259 The author declares no competing interest

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С

Α

## Cell number



Apoptotic cell



## Strain and junction tensile stress



Gap opening



Dying cell constriction



Junction disassembly and gap formation



#### Figure 1: Extreme conditions where cell death leads to epithelial breakage.

**A**: Lateral view of two epithelial cells showing the most relevant cellular factors that will affect the stability of the epithelium. Lateral junctions (tight junctions, adherens junctions and desmosomes) stabilise cell-cell contract. ECM binding through focal adhesion helps to reduce the tensile stress at junction through friction, while apical actomyosin builds up tensile stress which pull laterally on junctions (red arrows). **B**: Epithelial tissue experiencing a high rate of cell death (red cells) with fixed boundaries. As cells get progressively eliminated and cell number goes down (green gradient), cell apical area and junction tensile stress progressively increase (blue gradient) until reaching a critical value at which cells detach and a hole is formed (green arrows). **C**: Clustered elimination can trigger transient hole formation. Three cells organised in cluster die simultaneously. Tension increases progressively to constrict the dying cells hence leading to increased resisting forces from the neighbours (purple arrows), however if junctions are disassembled (black dotted lines) before the neigbouring cells are close enough to rebuild new junctions, cells detach and a hole is formed.



**Direct mechanical stress dissipation** 

#### Figure 2: Feedback triggered by cell death protecting from epithelial collapse

A: Group of epithelial cells with an apoptotic cell in the center initiating cell extrusion. Two categories of feedback can help to maintain the sealing properties, the one affecting total cell number (top, blue) which slow-down the reduction of cell number hence slowing-down the progressive increase of strain/tension, and the one directly promoting mechanical stress dissipation (bottom, orange), which all help to dissipate junction tensile stress. B: Negative feedback based on ERK pulses/waves blocking transiently cell death in the neighbouring cells. While not demonstrated, similar feedback could also directly modulate cell extrusion. C: Cell extrusion triggers an heterogenous increase of tension and nuclear deformation which promotes YAP (blue) nuclear localisation in a subset of cells and increases mitosis probability. D: Feedback promoting ECM binding and basal protrusion which may help to dissipate junctional tensile stress through friction. This may be triggered by ERK or calcium waves, which were both reported to promote basal protrusions. E: Feedback triggering a tension release in the neighbouring cell junctions. This can occur through Src activation in orthogonal junctions. F: Hypothetical feedback acting on tissue fluidity and promoting junction remodelling, which will help to dissipate mechanical stress. Cell colours are used to better visualise their relative position at each time point.