# Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this Accepted Manuscript with the edited and formatted Advance Article as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the **Information for Authors**.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard <u>Terms & Conditions</u> and the <u>Ethical guidelines</u> still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



www.rsc.org/loc

# Optomechanical measurement of the stiffness of single adherent cells

Kidong Park<sup>1, a)</sup>, Ali Mehrnezhad<sup>1</sup>, Elise A. Corbin<sup>2</sup>, and Rashid Bashir<sup>2,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Division of Electrical and Computer Engineering, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, LA, 70803

<sup>2</sup> Department of Bioengineering, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, IL 61802, USA

<sup>3</sup> Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, IL 61802, USA

<sup>a)</sup> Author to whom correspondence should be addressed. Electronic mail: kidongp@lsu.edu.

Recent advances in mechanobiology have accumulated strong evidences showing close correlations between physiological conditions and mechanical properties of cells. In this paper, a novel optomechanical technique to characterize the stiffness of single adherent cells attached on a substrate is reported. The oscillation in a cell's height on a vertically vibrating reflective substrate is measured with a laser Doppler Vibrometer, as apparent changes in the phase of the measured velocity. This apparent phase shift and the height oscillation are shown to be affected by mechanical properties of human colorectal adenocarcinoma cells (HT-29). The reported optomechanical technique can provide high throughput stiffness measurement of single adherent cells over time with minimal perturbation.

# INTRODUCTION

The mechanical properties of cells are affected by various biological processes and can be used as biophysical indicators for cellular malignancy and other physiological conditions<sup>1</sup>. Many diseases, including cancer<sup>2</sup>, blood diseases<sup>3</sup>, and inflammation<sup>4</sup> are often associated with the changes in the mechanical properties of cells. For example, it was reported that metastatic cancer cells show 70% lower stiffness comparing to benign cells and that a lower stiffness of cancer cells was correlated with higher invasiveness<sup>5</sup>. These correlations between cell's status and its mechanical properties have practical implications considering the potential of developing simple and rapid diagnosis techniques based on these mechanical biomarkers.

There have been active research efforts to develop tools that can characterize the mechanical stiffness of cells. Since Crick and Hughes developed a method based on magnetic particles to measure cell's stiffness<sup>6</sup>, various methods have been developed, such as micropipette aspiration<sup>7</sup>, magnetic twisting cytometry<sup>8, 9</sup>, cell indentation with atomic force microscopy (AFM) <sup>5, 10</sup>, optical tweezers<sup>11</sup>, and various microfluidic approaches<sup>12, 13</sup>. These techniques can be largely divided into two categories; those that require cells to be suspended and those that can measure adherent cells on a substrate. The techniques for suspended cells mostly use a flow-through configuration<sup>12-14</sup>, in which suspended cells are transported to the sensing area as a single stream in a laminar flow. Then, the cells are either i) deformed by external forces <sup>11, 12</sup> or ii) forced to pass through a narrow channel<sup>13</sup>. These methods based on a flow-through configuration are usually able to achieve high throughput. However, such methods require cells to be suspended in media, whereas major portion of human cells are adherent cells that require attachment to a substrate for growth and proliferation. On the other hand, direct-contact configuration is suitable for measuring the stiffness of adherent cells without detaching them. Mechanical probes such as

AFM cantilevers<sup>5, 10</sup>, micropipettes<sup>7</sup>, and magnetic beads<sup>8, 9</sup> physically contact to the target cells. This configuration is suitable to track the stiffness of the same cell over time and to measure the stiffness on a subcellular level in conjunction with high-resolution imaging. However, these methods tend to have limited throughput comparing to the flow-through configuration. In this report, analytical modeling and experimental data of a novel optomechanical phenomena, termed as vibration induced phase shift (VIPS) are presented. This VIPS measurement can be used as a non-invasive technique to characterize mechanical stiffness of single cells in their physiological condition with high throughput.

## MEASUREMENT PRINCIPLES AND METHODS

In earlier studies<sup>15</sup>, it has been experimentally shown that a cell's inertial loading on a mass sensor is affected by its stiffness. This observation implies that the cell on a vertically vibrating substrate experiences a structural deformation which is mostly oscillation of its height, and the degree of the height oscillation is inversely proportional to the cell stiffness. The described technique in this report uses a Laser Doppler Vibrometer (LDV) to measure the amplitude and phase of this height oscillation, which are used to extract elasticity of single cells. An adherent cell attached on a solid substrate can be modeled as a second order harmonic oscillator, as shown in Fig. 1(a). When the substrate is vertically oscillating, the cell is forced to vibrate (i.e. cell height is oscillating) at the same frequency but with different amplitude and phase. The amplitude and the phase of the cell height oscillation are a strong function of elasticity and viscosity of the cell along with the actuation frequency. Since the cell has a higher refractive index as compared to the surrounding media, this oscillation of the cell height can be detected optically with LDV.

ab on a Chip Accepted Manuscript

The schematic diagram of a single cell on a vibrating substrate and a LDV's measurement laser are shown in Fig. 1(b). The experimental setup is similar to an earlier study<sup>15</sup>. LDV is an optical instrument that can measure a time-derivative of the optical path length (OPL) of the measurement laser reflected from a target surface. In Fig. 1(b), *h*, *Ac*, *D*, *As*,  $\omega$ ,  $\phi$ , *n*<sub>GM</sub>, and *n*<sub>Cell</sub> represent static cell height, amplitude of cell's height oscillation, distance of the substrate to the LDV, amplitude of substrate's vibration, angular frequency of the vibration, phase of height oscillation, refractive index of the media, and refractive index of the cell, respectively. The substrate has a static distance *D* to the LDV and is oscillating in a vertical direction with angular frequency of  $\omega$  and amplitude of *A*<sub>s</sub>. The adherent cell on the substrate has a static height of *h* and is oscillating at the same frequency but with different amplitude *A*<sub>c</sub> and phase  $\phi$ .

When the measurement laser is located on the vibrating substrate outside of the cell as shown in Fig. 1(b), the total OPL(t) is as follows.

$$OPL(t) = \sum n_i d_i(t) = n_{GM} * Position_{Senso}(t) + n_{GM} * D$$
  
=  $n_{GM} A_S * \sin \omega t + const.$  (1)

The output of the LDV is the time-derivative of OPL(t) in (1), which is the velocity of the platform multiplied by  $n_{GM}$ . On the other hand, when the measurement laser is passing through the cell as shown in Fig. 1(b), the measurement laser experiences an additional modulation of OPL from the cell's height oscillations, as follows.

$$OPL(t) = \sum n_i d_i(t)$$
  

$$= n_{GM} * (Position_{Sensor}(t) - Height_{Cell}(t)) + n_{Cell} * Height_{Cell}(t)$$
  

$$= n_{GM} * A_S \sin \omega t + (n_{Cell} - n_{GM}) * A_C \sin(\omega t + \phi) + const.$$
  

$$\approx n_{GM} A_S * (1 + \Delta A) * \sin(\omega t + \Delta \phi) + const.$$
(2)  
where  $\Delta A = \frac{(n_{Cell} - n_{GM}) * A_C}{n_{GM} * A_S}, \Delta \phi = \arctan\left[\frac{n_{Cell} - n_{GM}}{n_{GM}} * \frac{A_C}{A_S} * \sin \phi\right]$ 

The lock-in-amplifier can analyze the velocity output of the LDV with respect to the reference actuation signal to extract the apparent amplitude increase,  $\Delta A$  and the apparent phase shift,  $\Delta \phi$  of the measured velocity. This apparent phase shift is termed as VIPS.

To fully characterize the relationship between mechanical properties of cells and VIPS, a one-dimensional analytical model is established. In this model, a 10 µm thick cell region and a 5 mm thick growth media region between a vibrating platform and a glass top ceiling of the culture well are modeled with over 500 layers of mass-spring-damper systems, as shown in Fig. 2(a). The platform is assumed to vibrate sinusoidally ( $x_0=A_s\sin\omega t$ ) as an external loading, and the glass ceiling is assumed to be stationary ( $x_{n+1}=0$ ) as a boundary condition. The mechanical properties of water <sup>16, 17</sup> are used for those of the growth media. The force equation between each layer can be described as follows,

$$m_{i}x_{i}'' = k_{i}(x_{i} - x_{i-1}) + c_{i}(x_{i}' - x_{i-1}') + k_{i+1}(x_{i} - x_{i+1}) + c_{i+1}(x_{i}' - x_{i+1}') \qquad 1 \le i \le n$$
(3)

where  $x_i$ ,  $k_i$ , and  $c_i$  are displacement, spring constant, and damping coefficient of *i*th layer, respectively (see supplementary information). From this model,  $A_c$  and  $\phi$  are calculated with varying elasticity and viscosity of the cell body. Then, Eq. (2) is used to convert these values into VIPS or  $\Delta \phi$  in Eq. (2), as shown in Fig. 2(b). Based on a reported values<sup>18, 19</sup> of  $n_{cell}$  of 1.38,  $n_{GM}$ 

ab on a Chip Accepted Manuscript

of 1.35, VIPS is calculated to be in the range of  $0 \sim 0.6^{\circ}$  and increases with decreasing elasticity and increasing viscosity.

# RESULTS

MEMS mass sensors in earlier studies<sup>15</sup> are used as a vibrating substrate to induce VIPS. The platform of the sensor is designed to vibrate vertically for a uniform mass sensitivity<sup>20</sup>. The mass sensor is used to apply a vertical vibration to target cells with actuation frequency of 50 kHz and amplitude of 100 pm. As shown in Fig. 3, human colon adenocarcinoma cells (HT-29) are cultured on the mass sensors which are functionalized with collagen similarly to earlier studies<sup>15</sup>. While the platform of a mass sensor is oscillating at a fixed frequency, the phase of the substrate's velocity is measured by the LDV and the lock-in-amplifier at three locations (Location #1~#3) outside but near the cell and one location (Location #4) inside the cell, as shown in Fig. 3(a)-(d). It takes about a few seconds to measure the phase at each location. For each sensor, the average of the phases measured at the locations outside the cell is used as a reference. The relative phase values of the velocity at four locations are shown in Fig. 3(g). As shown in the plot, increased phase is clearly observed when the velocity is measured through the cell (Location #4) and the apparent phase shift is about 0.4 °. In Fig. 3(e), four locations are placed outside of the cell as a control and the differences in the measured phase are much smaller. Furthermore, in Fig. 3(f), three locations were placed inside the cell and one location is placed outside the cell, showing consistently higher phase inside the cell. The increase of the velocity's amplitude or  $\Delta A$ , which can be used to decouple elasticity and viscosity, is not confirmed due to noise in the signal (data not shown).

The measurement laser is scanned over the entire cell to obtain the 2-dimensional measurement of VIPS as shown in Fig. 4. The measurement points are marked as solid circular dots and the total number of the measurement points is over  $\sim 120$  for each measurement. The VIPS profile between the measurement points is calculated with linear interpolation. To demonstrate the sensitivity of the VIPS measurement, we modulated the stiffness of target cells and compared their 2D VIPS measurements to those of untreated live cells. To increase the stiffness, the target cells are exposed to 4% paraformaldehyde for 30 minutes, which cross-links intercellular proteins and increases cell stiffness<sup>21, 22</sup>. To decrease the stiffness, the cells are exposed to 0.1 µg/mL of cytochalasin D (Cyto-D) and 10 µg/ml of nocodazole (Noc) for at least 2 hours. Cyto-D is widely used to disrupt actin filaments and to reduce cell stiffness<sup>12, 23-25</sup>. Noc interferes microtubules by inhibiting tubulin polymerization<sup>26</sup> and is known to decrease cell stiffness<sup>24, 25, 27, 28</sup>. While some studies show that Noc increases the cell stiffness<sup>8, 29</sup> by upregulating actin assembly through Rho signaling<sup>30, 31</sup>, such observations are limited to the cases where cells are exposed to Noc alone. The combination of Cyto-D and Noc is used in this study, as it is reported that the combined use of Cyto-D and Noc is more effective in reducing cell stiffness than Cyto-D alone in earlier reports<sup>24, 25</sup>.

ab on a Chip Accepted Manuscript

The platform area outside the cell shows a uniform phase centered around 0 ° whereas the phase increase is clearly observed inside the cell. In Fig. 4(a) and 4(d), the top-view and the side-view of the VIPS measurement of a live HT-29 cell are presented, where a smooth dome-shaped increase of the phase is observed. The maximum increase of VIPS is about 0.4 ° and the mean and standard deviation of the points near the center of the cell are 0.30  $\pm$  0.06 °. Interestingly, sharp decrease of the phase is observed at the perimeter of the cells, and is believed to originate from the optical interference of the measurement laser and the cellular membrane on the side of

7

the cell. The same cell in Fig. 4(a) is chemically fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde to increase its stiffness and the VIPS is measured, as shown in Fig. 4(b) and (e). The fixed cell shows a reduced VIPS around  $0.2^{\circ}(0.07 \pm 0.12^{\circ})$ , but also had distinctive profile. The measured phase is sloped from north-west to south-east direction, and the phase profile is rough and peaked. The VIPS measurement of a cell, that is treated with Cyto-D and Noc to reduce its stiffness, is shown in Fig. 4(c) and 4(f). The chemically treated cell shows a maximum VIPS over 0.6° that are much larger than the live cell and the fixed cell. Besides, it shows a rough phase profile with the mean and standard deviation of  $0.38 \pm 0.16^{\circ}$ . In summary, the live cell shows a smooth phase profile with a maximum phase shift of  $0.4^{\circ}$ , and the fixed cell shows a sloped phase profile, with a maximum phase shift of  $0.2^{\circ}$ . The cell treated with Cyto-D and Noc shows highly increased VIPS with a maximum phase shift over  $0.6^{\circ}$ .

#### CONCLUSION

A newly observed optomechanical phenomena, or VIPS is reported with theoretical analysis and experimental data. It is clearly shown that the cell with lower mechanical stiffness exhibits larger VIPS, demonstrating the potential of non-invasive mechanical phenotyping of adherent cells. Furthermore, the VIPS measurement techniques shares a common platform with a MEMS mass sensor<sup>15</sup> for single cell growth measurement and it can be seamlessly integrated into a multi-modal mechanical characterization of single cells.

K. Park acknowledges gratefully the support from the Louisiana Board of Regents (LEQSF(2014-17)-RD-A-05). The work was done at UIUC and supported by EEC-0425626 (NSF Nanoscale Science and Engineering Center at Ohio State University).



Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of optomechanical stiffness measurement. (a) A cell on a sensor can be modelled as a spring-damper-mass system. (b) When the LDV laser is located inside the cell body, oscillation of the cell body modulates the optical path length of the LDV laser, causing the apparent shift of the measured velocity's phase.



Fig. 2. Mechanical modeling of cell's height oscillation on a vibrating platform and VIPS. (a) One dimensional analytical model is developed to simulate the height oscillation of the cell. (b) Calculated VIPS with varying elasticity and viscosity is presented.



Fig. 3. VIPS measurement. (a)~(d) Loc #1~#3 are located outside the cells and Loc#4 are located inside the cell. Phase shift about 0.4 Deg is clearly shown in the plot in (g). (e) Loc #1~#4 are all located outside the cell as a control. Measured phases are close to each other. (f) Loc #1~#3 are located inside the cell and #4 is located outside the cell. Loc #1~3 shows considerably higher value of phase than Loc #4. (g) The measured phase of (a)~(f).



Fig. 4. Scanning measurement of the cells with different treatment. (a,d): Top and side view of the fresh and live cell. (b,e): Top and side view of the cell, whose stiffness was increased by chemical fixation. (c,f): Top and side view of the cell, whose stiffness was decreased by nocadazole and cytochalasin D treatment.

# REFERENCES

- 1. D. Di Carlo, *Journal of laboratory automation*, 2012, **17**, 32-42.
- 2. S. Suresh, J. Spatz, J. Mills, A. Micoulet, M. Dao, C. Lim, M. Beil and T. Seufferlein, *Acta biomaterialia*, 2005, **1**, 15-30.
- 3. M. Brandao, A. Fontes, M. Barjas-Castro, L. Barbosa, F. F. Costa, C. Cesar and S. Saad, *European journal of haematology*, 2003, **70**, 207-211.
- 4. E. M. Drost and W. MacNee, *European journal of immunology*, 2002, **32**, 393-403.
- 5. S. E. Cross, Y. S. Jin, J. Rao and J. K. Gimzewski, *Nat. Nanotechnol.*, 2007, **2**, 780-783.
- 6. F. Crick and A. Hughes, *Exp. Cell Res.*, 1950, **1**, 37-80.
- 7. R. M. Hochmuth, *Journal of biomechanics*, 2000, **33**, 15-22.
- 8. S.-Y. Tee, J. Fu, C. S. Chen and P. A. Janmey, *Biophysical journal*, 2011, **100**, L25-L27.
- 9. G. N. Maksym, B. Fabry, J. P. Butler, D. Navajas, D. J. Tschumperlin, J. D. Laporte and J. J. Fredberg, *Journal of Applied Physiology*, 2000, **89**, 1619-1632.
- 10. J. H. Hoh and C.-A. Schoenenberger, Journal of cell science, 1994, 107, 1105-1114.
- 11. C. Lim, M. Dao, S. Suresh, C. Sow and K. Chew, Acta Materialia, 2004, 52, 1837-1845.
- 12. O. Otto, P. Rosendahl, A. Mietke, S. Golfier, C. Herold, D. Klaue, S. Girardo, S. Pagliara, A. Ekpenyong and A. Jacobi, *Nature methods*, 2015.
- S. Byun, S. Son, D. Amodei, N. Cermak, J. Shaw, J. H. Kang, V. C. Hecht, M. M. Winslow, T. Jacks, P. Mallick and S. R. Manalis, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*, 2013, 110, 7580-7585.
- 14. D. Di Carlo, D. Irimia, R. G. Tompkins and M. Toner, *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 2007, **104**, 18892-18897.
- 15. K. Park, L. J. Millet, N. Kim, H. Li, X. Jin, G. Popescua, N. R. Aluru, K. J. Hsia and R. Bashir, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*, 2010, **107**, 20691-20696.
- 16. W. M. Hanes, ed., *CRC Handbook of Chemisty and Physics*, CRC, Boulder, Colorado, 2011.
- 17. Y. Cheng, F. Yang, J. Y. Xu and X. J. Liu, *Appl. Phys. Lett.*, 2008, **92**, 151913.
- 18. P. Marquet, B. Rappaz, P. J. Magistretti, E. Cuche, Y. Emery, T. Colomb and C. Depeursinge, *Optics letters*, 2005, **30**, 468-470.
- 19. X. Liang, A. Liu, C. Lim, T. Ayi and P. Yap, Sensors and Actuators A: Physical, 2007, 133, 349-354.
- 20. K. Park, N. Kim, D. T. Morisette, N. R. Aluru and R. Bashir, *J. Microelectromech. Syst.*, 2012, **21**, 702-711.
- 21. B. Codan, V. Martinelli, L. Mestroni and O. Sbaizero, *Materials Science and Engineering: C*, 2013, **33**, 3303-3308.
- 22. K. B. Grimm, H. Oberleithner and J. Fels, *Nanotechnology*, 2014, 25, 215101.
- 23. E. Takai, K. D. Costa, A. Shaheen, C. T. Hung and X. E. Guo, *Annals of biomedical engineering*, 2005, **33**, 963-971.
- 24. N. Wang, J. P. Butler and D. E. Ingber, Science, 1993, 260, 1124-1127.
- 25. D. E. Ingber, D. Prusty, Z. Sun, H. Betensky and N. Wang, *Journal of biomechanics*, 1995, **28**, 1471-1484.
- 26. R. J. Vasquez, B. Howell, A. Yvon, P. Wadsworth and L. Cassimeris, *Molecular biology* of the cell, 1997, **8**, 973-985.
- A. Berquand, A. Holloschi, M. Trendelenburg and P. Kioschis, *Microscopy Today*, 2010, 18, 34-37.

- 28. A. E. Pelling, D. W. Dawson, D. M. Carreon, J. J. Christiansen, R. R. Shen, M. A. Teitell and J. K. Gimzewski, *Nanomedicine: Nanotechnology, Biology and Medicine*, 2007, **3**, 43-52.
- 29. H. Wu, T. Kuhn and V. Moy, *Scanning*, 1998, **20**, 389-397.
- 30. M. Krendel, F. T. Zenke and G. M. Bokoch, *Nature cell biology*, 2002, **4**, 294-301.
- 31. Y.-C. Chang, P. Nalbant, J. Birkenfeld, Z.-F. Chang and G. M. Bokoch, *Molecular* biology of the cell, 2008, **19**, 2147-2153.