

A Bioelectric Model of Carcinogenesis, Including Propagation of Cell Membrane Depolarization and Reversal Therapies

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A bioelectric model of carcinogenesis, including propagation of cell membrane depolarization and reversal therapies

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Keywords— carcinogenesis, bioelectricity, cell depolarization, depolarization wave, tissue organization, cancer therapies

Abstract

As the main theory of carcinogenesis, the Somatic Mutation Theory, increasingly presents difficulties to explain some experimental observations, different theories are being proposed. A major alternative approach is the Tissue Organization Field Theory, which explains cancer origin as a tissue regulation disease instead of having a mainly cellular origin. This work fits in the latter hypothesis, proposing the bioelectric field, in particular the cell membrane polarization state, and ionic exchange through ion channels and gap junctions, as an important mechanism of cell communication and tissue organization and regulation. Taking into account recent experimental results and proposed bioelectric models, a computational model of cancer initiation was developed, including the propagation of a cell depolarization wave in the tissue under consideration. Cell depolarization leads to a change in its state, with the activation and deactivation of several regulation pathways, increasing cell proliferation and motility, changing its epigenetic state to a more stem cell-like behavior without the requirement of genomic mutation. The intercellular communication via gap junctions leads, in certain circumstances, to a bioelectric state propagation to neighbor cells, in a chain-like reaction, till an electric discontinuity is reached. However, this is a reversible process, and it was shown experimentally that, by implementing a therapy targeted on cell ion exchange channels, it is possible to reverse the state and repolarize cells. This mechanism can be an important alternative way in cancer prevention, diagnosis and therapy, and new experiments are proposed to test the presented hypothesis.

Introduction

The current standard theory to explain tumorigenesis is the Somatic Mutation Theory (SMT) [1,2], which proposes that the origin of cancer can be interpreted by an accumulation of genetic mutations, in particular on tumor suppressor genes and oncogenes, that are passed to their cell descendants. Tumor development is then a multistep process, where successive mutations produce advantageous biological capabilities [3]. This is the widely accepted theory of cancer initiation and it can explain many cancer features, from hereditary cancers to the late onset on life of most of them, and the success of some therapies targeting mutant genes [1]. However, there are many experimental results that contradict SMT, in particular the existence of non-genotoxic carcinogens, like chloroform and p-dichlorobenzene [4], inducing cancer without DNA alterations, and no mutations are detected in some tumors [5]. Also, changes in the DNA methylation pattern, not in its sequence, are found in some cancerous lesions [1], and it is possible to induce carcinogenesis without mutagenesis by the introduction of foreign materials into body tissues [6].

38 The bioelectric properties of non neural cells have lately attracted considerable attention, with surprising
 39 results being reported. These include the regulation of individual cell behavior and organ-level patterns by
 40 membrane electric potential and ion fluxes [7, 8], and also the involvement of the bioelectric state in tissue
 41 regeneration [9], heart and muscle patterning [10] or left-right patterning [11]. In cancer research there were
 42 also several recent discoveries and experiments that show the importance of cells bioelectric state, in particular
 43 the cell membrane electric potential and the ion channels conductivity, in cancer initiation and therapy [12].
 44 A relevant work [13] shows, using the *Xenopus laevis* model, that gap junctions are important in long-range
 45 regulation of tumor formation. In [14] the authors report on relationships between ion channel dysfunction and
 46 cancer hallmarks.

47 Another example of the influence of the tissue bioelectric properties on cancer, is the effect of tissue dener-
 48 vation, which was shown that can contain tumor growth [15]. It was reported that the progress of precancerous
 49 lesions can be delayed, as well as a tumor growth rate and metastasis probability reduced, by nerve ablation [16].
 50 It was also demonstrated the importance of an adequate level of bioelectric coupling as suppressor of tumor
 51 progress [17], with the level of connexins expression (related with cells electrical connection via gap junctions)
 52 showing a negative correlation with tumor grade [18].

53 In a recent publication by McNamara et al. [19], it was demonstrated that, in certain circumstances, tissues that
 54 look uniform, can experience a spontaneous bioelectrical spatial symmetry breaking by optogenetic stimulation.
 55 This initiates a change of the tissue cells' bioelectric polarization state, a depolarization or polarization wave which
 56 propagates across the domain. This domain wall spreading is qualitatively reproduced in the model presented in
 57 the present work.

58 After this introduction, the next section will advance, in a more detailed way, the relationship between
 59 bioelectric bistable states, cells behavior and carcinogenesis. This is followed by a description of the bioelectric
 60 model that was developed, and then by the results obtained in different tests, both with the two and the three-
 61 dimensional versions, in diverse conditions. Finally, these results are discussed in the context of carcinogenesis
 62 and potential cancer therapies, and some conclusions are extracted, as well as some possible experimental tests
 63 are proposed.

64 Bioelectric bistability and carcinogenesis

65 During development of an organism the non-nervous cells' bioelectric properties change considerably, with the
 66 electric potential difference across the membrane (V_m) changing in space and time [20]. The depolarized state,
 67 with $V_m \simeq -10$ to $\simeq -30$ mV, corresponds to more undifferentiated, proliferative and stem-like cells, while the
 68 differentiated cells, with a more quiescent behavior, are polarized, with V_m from $\simeq -50$ to $\simeq -90$ mV [21]. It
 69 was also found that adult stem cells, proliferative cells and tumor cells are depolarized, and this result motivates
 70 the proposal of cells depolarization being at the origin of a tissue tumoral transition [22], and of the special
 71 properties of cancer cells, like uncontrolled proliferation, increased motility and invasion capability. The switch of
 72 cell polarity introduces many changes on the genetic expression; for instance, genes like *Frizzled* can be regulated
 73 by membrane voltage gradients [12]. This leads to an under or overexpression of particular genes, not due to
 74 any genetic mutation but to a change in membrane polarity [23]. The excessive cell proliferation in the absence
 75 of adequate control mechanisms, leads to environmental stress factors (like hypoxia and decreased pH) that can
 76 result in genetic instability [24]. The numerous and diverse mutation patterns found in tumors can then be
 77 considered as a consequence of carcinogenesis, and all the consequent chain of events, and not its cause [25].

78 Cell depolarization can be caused by some carcinogenic events [26], being it chemical, ionizing radiation, or
 79 any other important perturbation on tissue homeostasis, like the introduction of foreign materials [27]. One
 80 example is the radiogenic activation of Ca^{2+} -activated K^+ channels and Ca^{2+} -permeable cation channels, which
 81 change the bioelectric cell state and contributes to cell death, but also to DNA repair or lowering the oxidative
 82 stress injury [28]. Also ionizing radiation has been shown to activate K^+ channels [29]. However, this is a tissue
 83 wide and not a single cell event, as more than just a few cells are affected. The electric communication between
 84 cells, in particular via gap junctions [30], that allow for ion exchange between neighbor cells, drive the dilution
 85 and normalization of cells' polarization level (a community effect) [31]. So, in normal conditions, in the current
 86 proposal, the system is highly resilient and if the perturbation don't reach a threshold percentage of the cells
 87 involved or if it is not concentrated in a small tissue region, the system will return to the default (polarized)
 88 state. Otherwise a depolarization wave can develop, reaching most or all of the cells in the electrically connected

89 domain.

90 The present hypothesis has many contact points with the Tissue Organization Field Theory (TOFT) [32,33], in
 91 the sense that it considers cancer a disease of tissue organization, and a tumor can originate from a perturbation
 92 on the tissue environment, not of a single or reduced number of cells, leading to a transition from normal to
 93 pluripotent like cells [34]. The bioelectrical communication is then a mechanism for tissue cells homeostasis but
 94 also, in case of a major perturbation, a process driving a global cells' state change. This phenomena is also
 95 present during organism development, where spatial and temporal variations in the distribution of membrane
 96 electrical potentials are responsible for patterns' formation, and are involved in such fundamental processes as eye
 97 formation, limb regeneration or anatomical axes definition [35]. But a stress (carcinogenic) event can overwhelm
 98 tissue control feedback systems and cells have their epigenetic program modified, due to the strong bioelectric
 99 coupling with neighbor cells via gap junctions and, eventually, also by intercellular electric fields. The uncontrolled
 100 cell number expansion and invasion results in a hostile microenvironment, including hypoxia, nutrient depletion
 101 and low pH, which induces mutagenesis, DNA damage and impairment of DNA repair [24,36].

102 In the proposed mechanism, hereditary cancers can be explained by transmitted variability, which drive cells
 103 to exhibit different electrical properties, in particular in the number, conductivity and efficiency of ion channels,
 104 ion pumps and gap junctions. Therefore particular tissues can be more or less prone to depolarization and sensible
 105 to induction of a tumorigenic behavior. It can also explains why cancer is more probable in old age [37], with
 106 the reduced expression of bioelectric state related genes and thus a diminished bioelectric resilience, making the
 107 depolarization transition more probable. The cellular electric microenvironment is also perturbed with the increase
 108 in number and volume of adipocytes, changing tissues electrical conductivity, permittivity and capacity [38], and
 109 leading to changes in cancer incidence in overweight and obese patients.

110 A positive outcome of the present hypothesis is that tissue depolarization can be a reversible process, and
 111 then tumor development can be controlled, or even reversed, by therapies targeting the cells bioelectric properties.
 112 This can be done, as shown in [39], by stimulation of the potassium/sodium hyperpolarization-activated cyclic
 113 nucleotide-gated ion channel 2 (HCN2) to hyperpolarize and/or depolarize different tissue regions and return to
 114 normal gene expression in brain teratogenesis [7]. Small molecule drugs can also be used to change the properties
 115 of ion channels and change the membrane electric potential [40], and be used to repair them in case of abnormal
 116 activity.

117 Methods: computational model

118 A cellular automata was implemented to describe a generic tissue cellular organization and its dynamics. The
 119 model represents a single layer tissue, in the 2 dimensional version, or a volumetric tissue, with the three dimen-
 120 sional description. The electrical properties of cells and of their interactions closely follow the work developed by
 121 Cervera et al., described in detail in [31,41,42]. The simulation of cell ion exchange with other cells is reduced to a
 122 generic gap junction, and with the extracellular environment to general depolarization and polarization ion chan-
 123 nels. Only the movement of positive ions are considered, and cell i electrical potential (relative to the exterior),
 124 V_i , changes in time according with the equation

$$C_i \frac{dV_i}{dt} = -I_{\text{dep}} - I_{\text{pol}} + \sum_j^{\text{neigh.}} G_{ij} (V_j - V_i) \quad (1)$$

125 where C_i is the cell membrane capacity, I_{dep} is the depolarization current (through depolarization ion channels),
 126 I_{pol} the polarization current (by polarization ion channels) and G_{ij} is the ionic conductivity between adjacent
 127 cells (through gap junctions; the sum is run over the neighbor cells). All three terms on the right hand side of
 128 the equation depend on the cell electric potential as follows,

$$I_{\text{dep}} = \frac{G_{\text{dep}}^0 (V_i - E_{\text{dep}})}{1 + \exp[-z (V_i + V_T) / V_T]} \quad , \quad I_{\text{pol}} = \frac{G_{\text{pol}}^0 (V_i - E_{\text{pol}})}{1 + \exp[z (V_i + V_T) / V_T]} \quad (2)$$

129

$$G_{ij} = \frac{2G_{ij}^0}{1 + \cosh[(V_i - V_j) / V_0]} \quad (3)$$

130 with

$$G_{ij}^0 = \frac{G_i^0 G_j^0}{G_i^0 + G_j^0} \quad , \quad G_i^0 = \frac{G_{\text{max}}^0}{1 + \exp[z (V_i - V_{1/2}) / V_T]} \quad (4)$$

131 where E_{dep} (E_{pol}) is the depolarization (polarization) equilibrium potential, V_T the threshold potential, z the
 132 channel gating charge, G_{dep}^0 (G_{pol}^0) the conductance of the depolarization (polarization) ion channels, $V_{1/2}$ the
 133 potential for which G_i^0 decreases by a factor 2 (represented in Fig. 1), and V_0 controls the width of the gap
 134 junction conductivity function [31]. The standard values of the model parameters, based on experimental results,
 135 were presented in [31] and are given in table 1. With these values the cells electric potential tend to a value of
 136 $\simeq -57$ mV in a polarized domain and to $\simeq -2$ mV in a depolarized one, with the separation between the two
 137 stable points at $\simeq -35$ mV (see Fig. 1). G_{ij} describes the gap junctions ionic conductivity between neighbor cells,
 138 including the serial association of cells i and j conductivities (G_i^0). The different values of G_{dep}^0 and G_{pol}^0 , and
 139 the parameter $V_{1/2}$, introduce different conductivities for polarization and depolarization channels. Therefore the
 140 system can have a dynamic ion flow behavior driving changes on the membrane electrical potential, being then
 141 possible to depolarize and repolarize a tissue.

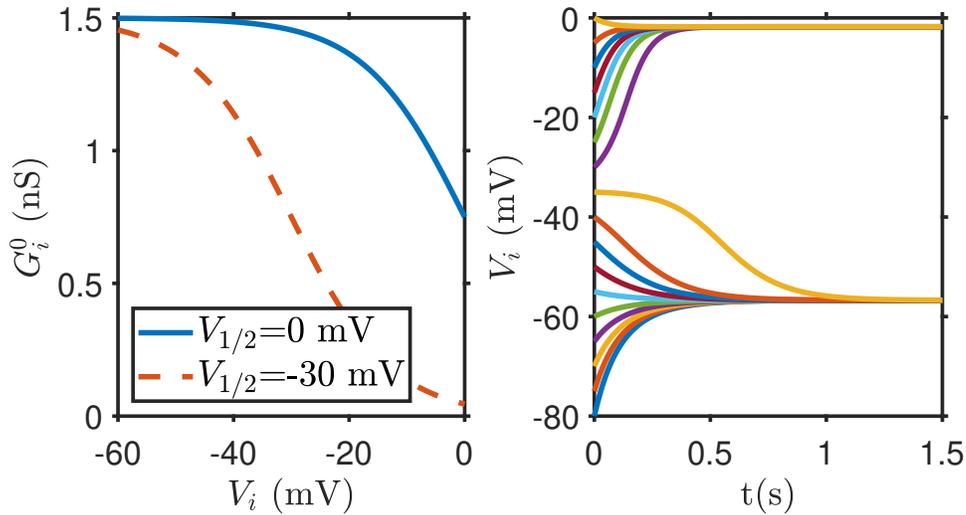


Figure 1: Left: Single cell gap junction ionic conductivity as a function of the cell membrane electric potential, as given by equation 4, with the parameters used in this work ($V_{1/2} = 0$ mV) and the ones used in [31] ($V_{1/2} = -30$ mV). Right: Evolution in time of an isolated cell membrane electric potential for different initial membrane electric potential values. There are two stable points, at $\simeq -2$ mV and $\simeq -57$ mV, with the separation taking place at $\simeq -35$ mV.

142 But cells are not exactly identical, and, in this model, cell diversity is introduced with the main cell parameters
 143 values following a normal distribution, with the mean given in the second column of table 1 and its standard
 144 deviation in the third column of the same table.

145 A standard run of the cellular automata, for a quiescent tissue, is initiated with all cells polarized, with an
 146 average membrane electrical potential V_m centered at $E_{\text{pol}} = -60$ mV, and distributed according to a gaussian
 147 function with $\sigma = 3$ mV. The domain contains 100×100 ($50 \times 50 \times 50$) cells in the 2D (3D) version. In the
 148 depolarization tests is introduced a patch of depolarized cells, with diverse shapes and locations, with $E_{\text{dep}} = 0$
 149 mV, and the evolution in time of cells membrane electric potential follows equation 1 (a Moore neighborhood was
 150 used on the sum, with the 8 (26) closest cells being considered the vicinity in 2D (3D); a Neumann neighborhood
 151 was also tried, with qualitatively similar results).

152 Even if based on it, with many common features and parameters, important differences exist between the
 153 present model and the Cervera et al. one [31]. Besides being a simpler cellular automata, without taking into
 154 account the cell's shape, it is a stochastic one, introducing variations on cells' parameters to simulate diversity.
 155 Also a 3D version was developed. The parameter $V_{1/2} = 0$ mV is very different from the value -30 mV employed
 156 in the paper. This change reproduces better the difference between polarized and depolarized cells gap junctions
 157 conductivity, as reported in [43]. There, the maximum permeability (the maximum ion flux between any two

Parameters	Mean value	Standard deviation
C_i	100 pF	$0.02\sigma C_i$ pF
G_{ref}^0	1 nS	0
G_{pol}^0	G_{ref}^0	$0.02\sigma G_{\text{pol}}^0$ nS
G_{dep}^0	$2.0G_{\text{ref}}^0$	$0.02\sigma G_{\text{dep}}^0$ nS
G_{max}^0	$1.5G_{\text{ref}}^0$	$0.02\sigma G_{\text{max}}^0$ nS
z	3	0.1
E_{dep}	0 mV	σ mV
E_{pol}	-60 mV	σ mV
V_T	26 mV	σ mV
V_0	24 mV	0
$V_{1/2}$	0 mV	σ mV

Table 1: Standard cell electrical parameter values used on the model. $\sigma = 3$ is applied as the standard deviation on normally distributed values around the mean (stochastic model).

cells), varies between 0.45 for a pluripotent cell and 0.85 for a differentiated cell, consistent with $V_{1/2} = 0$ mV. The conductivity behavior for the two values of $V_{1/2}$ considered is shown in Fig. 1.

Also $G_{\text{dep}}^0 = 1.5 \times G_{\text{pol}}^0$ in [31], being $G_{\text{dep}}^0 = 2.0 \times G_{\text{pol}}^0$ in the present work, due to its importance to reproduce depolarization waves, as reported in [19].

It is possible to produce time-stable spatial-varying patterns using cyclic cellular automata rules, involving a small number of stable states, a set of interacting neighbors and some defined rule for state transition (a function of the neighbors' state) [44]. This was not the subject of this work but can be implemented in a future study. Electrically segregated states allow for the existence of cells' compartments in different polarization states, as niches of stem cells.

Model results

The square (cubic) domain in 2D (3D) represents an electrically connected tissue, separated from the vicinity by electrical walls comprised of non electrically connected cells, basal membranes and/or extracellular matrix. When the domain is initiated, with all cells in a depolarized or a polarized state, it keeps the same of the two possible bistable states, being resilient to a limited number of cells' polarization state flips. Starting with a polarized domain, like in a quiescent tissue, if the number of (randomly chosen) cells that become depolarized exceeds a certain threshold, about 25% for 2D and about 39% for 3D, then there is a chain reaction, due to gap junction communication, and a depolarization wave will run over the domain and all, or almost all, the cells become depolarized in the first 10 s after perturbation. An example of the final cells' polarization distribution and the number of depolarized cells as function of time are shown in Fig. 2 (for the 3D model, results are shown as supplementary material in Fig. S1).

When the depolarization is concentrated in a local domain, the minimum number of depolarized cells that can initiate the depolarization wave depends on the shape and location of the patch, and also of the dimensionality of the domain. As the cells are similar but not exactly equal, both on their individual properties and their location, the system evolution is different from run to run. Figure 3 shows the evolution of the number of depolarized cells for 10 s, in different conditions, in a 2D domain. To start a depolarization wave, the minimum number of cells on the depolarized patch is about 6×6 for a square patch in a corner of the domain, $\simeq 8 \times 8$ if it is at the center. For a circular patch, shown also in 3, it has a minimum radius of about $R = 6$ if a quarter circle is depolarized, centered at a domain corner, and a radius of about $R = 4$ if a full circle is centered on the domain (all dimensions are in units of cell width). For the 3D version, shown as supplementary material in Fig. S2, the equivalent numbers are about $12 \times 12 \times 12$ for a cubic patch in the corner of the domain, about $24 \times 24 \times 24$ if it is placed at the center, has a radius of around $R = 15$ if an eighth of a sphere is depolarized,

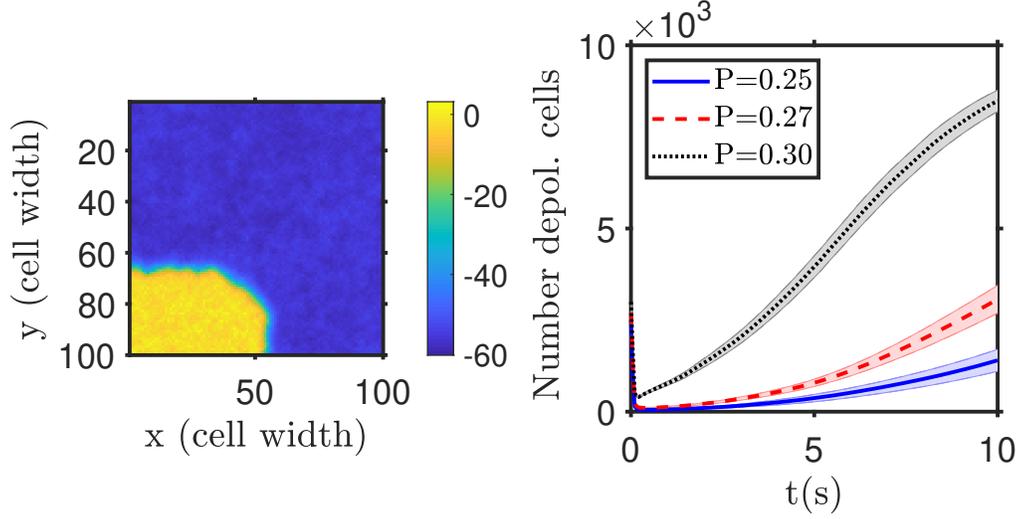


Figure 2: Tissue depolarization for randomly distributed depolarized cells on a polarized domain. Left: example of the two-dimensional domain polarization state after 10 seconds (yellow corresponds to depolarized cells and blue to polarized ones; the color bar shows the membrane electrical potential in mV). Right: evolution of the number of depolarized cells for different percentages of depolarized cells randomly initially distributed on the domain (25%, 27% and 30% of the total number of cells depolarized, right). The initial decrease on the number of depolarized cells is due to a community effect, where depolarized cells with a high number of polarized neighbors will polarize fast. The bands show the standard deviation of the mean of $n = 20$ simulation runs.

189 centered at a domain corner, and a radius of about $R = 15$ if a full sphere is placed at the domain center. These
 190 results stress the importance of the vicinity (community) effects, with a higher dimensionality domain, where
 191 cells' contact with a higher number of neighbors, needing a larger number of cells to break the system resilience
 192 and start the depolarization wave. This also points to the importance of bioelectricity studies *in vivo*, where the
 193 full electrical conditions can be reproduced to achieve reliable measurements, including the neighborhood effects
 194 and the presence of regions with different electrical conductivity, which is not possible to fully replicate *in vitro*.
 195 A recent technique to measure cell polarization uses a voltage reporter dye [35] to visualize gradients of V_m across
 196 tissues. In Supplementary Material are available four examples of simulation animations of the depolarization
 197 and polarization wave evolution in different conditions (Supplementary Movie 1 to 4).

198 After a tissue is depolarized, and cells enter into a more proliferative and motile state, the risk of it evolving
 199 to a tumor greatly increases. This altered behavior can also be associated with increased stressful conditions
 200 that can induce genomic mutations [24]. But this event can be reversed, if it is possible to change the number
 201 or conductivity of ion channels, ion pumps and/or gap junctions. Experimentally it was shown that, in some
 202 conditions, this is achievable [12]. In this model, a repolarization therapy was introduced by a change on cells
 203 ionic conductivity, for instance an increase by a factor 2 of the cells polarization ion channel conductivity (G_{pol}^0)
 204 or a decrease by a factor ~ 0.5 of cells depolarization ion channel conductivity (G_{dep}^0). In Fig. 4 it is shown an
 205 example of the cells' polarization state after 10 s and also how the number of polarized cells changes with time
 206 after the repolarization intervention.

207 Due to hereditary variation, or a change with aging, on the number and/or conductivity of ion and gap junction
 208 channels, some persons (and/or some particular tissues) can be more susceptible to initiate a depolarization wave,
 209 and then to carcinogenesis, due to these bioelectric effects. The change on ion channels expression or performance
 210 can also be due to carcinogenic events, like ionizing radiation or chemical agents. These possible consequences
 211 were simulated by small changes on cells' polarization ion channels conductivity, G_{pol}^0 , due to, for instance, a
 212 decrease on the number of these channels. Figure 5 shows the number of depolarized cells as a function of time

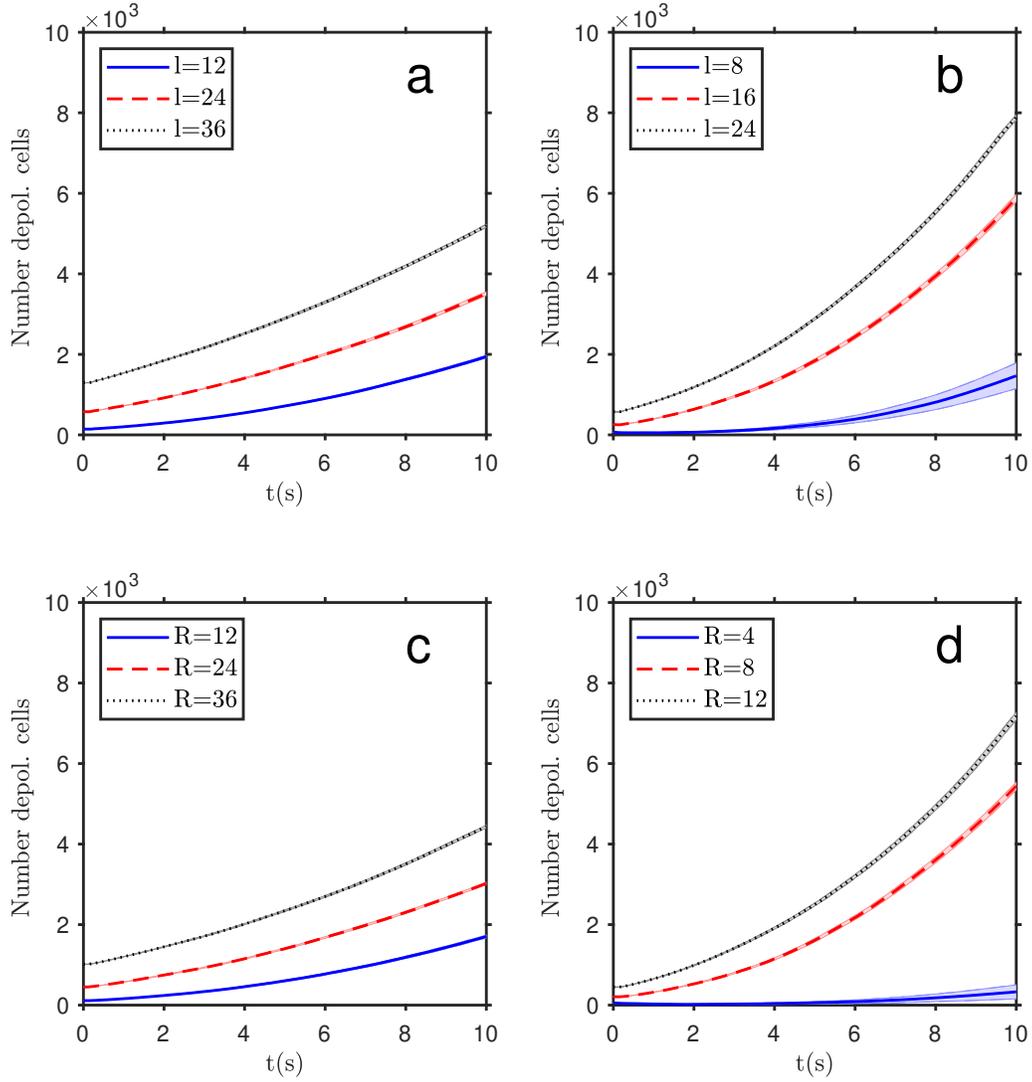


Figure 3: Tissue depolarization after the introduction of a patch of depolarized cells on a polarized tissue. Top row: evolution of the number of depolarized cells for different sizes of a square patch, introduced on the top left corner of the domain, with a width of 12, 24, and 36 cells (a), and on the domain center, with a width of 8, 16, and 24 cells (b). Bottom row: evolution of the number of depolarized cells for different sizes of a circular patch, with a radius of 12, 24, and 36 cells, centered on the top left corner of the domain (c), and placed on the domain center, with a radius of 4, 8 and 12 cells (d). The bands show the standard deviation of the mean of $n = 20$ simulation runs.

213 for depolarization events. It is clear that a decrease of G_{pol}^0 , even small, will make the depolarization faster and
 214 more probable. Also aging, or diverse hereditary genomic or epigenomic expression, can increase the variability
 215 on the cells bioelectric properties. This is simulated by a variation of the standard deviation σ value given on
 216 table 1, and the results are shown in Fig. 5. It is clear that as the variability increases, the depolarization is also
 217 faster and more probable.

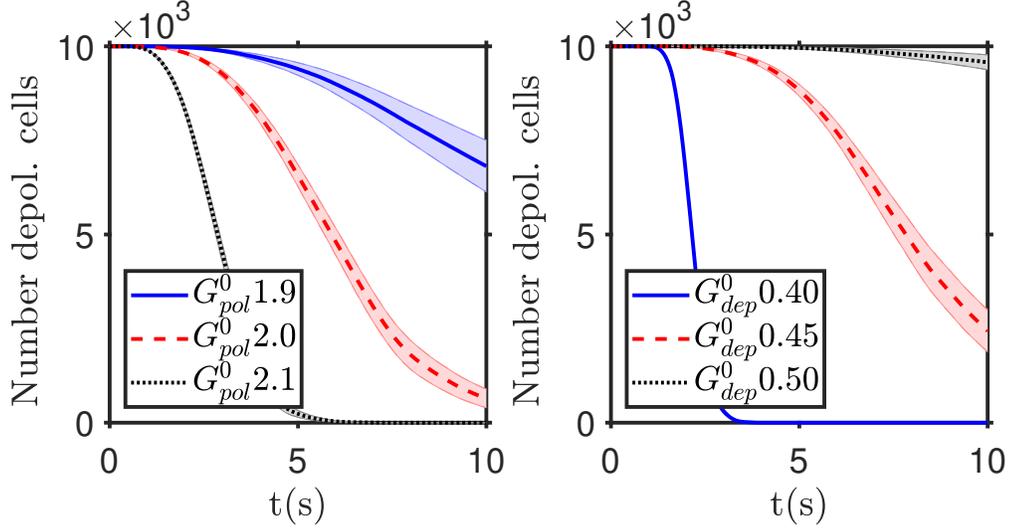


Figure 4: Repolarization therapies. Evolution of the number of depolarized cells for therapies that increase the polarization ion channel conductivity (G_{pol}^0 , left) or decrease the depolarization ion channel conductivity (G_{dep}^0 , right). Initially all the cells were depolarized. The bands show the standard deviation of the mean of $n = 20$ simulation runs.

218 The introduction of electric walls on the tissue, with regions electrically isolated from others, where cells don't
 219 have as many neighbors to exchange ions through gap junctions, leads, naturally, to a reduction of the community
 220 effects. The depolarization wave is slower and the probability of starting one decreases, as shown in Fig. 6.

221 Increasing or decreasing the gap junction conductivity, by a change of the G_{max}^0 parameter, lead to apparently
 222 counterintuitive results. The gap junctions are important both to keep the tissue bioelectric state, the system
 223 homeostasis, by “diluting” the excess charge in one cell with the cells connected with it, and then leaning to keep a
 224 similar state among neighbors. But it is also fundamental for the depolarization or polarization wave propagation,
 225 with cells changing their state due to the influence of the neighbor cells by ion transfer via gap junctions. This
 226 is shown in Fig. 7, where for an increase or a decrease of G_{max}^0 , the probability and speed of depolarization
 227 changes in opposite ways as compared with the standard parameter value $G_{max}^0 = 1.5G_{ref}^0$, depending on the
 228 initial conditions. For dispersed small clusters of depolarized cells, when they are randomly distributed on the
 229 domain and in the presence of more numerous polarized ones, the community effect goes against most of the
 230 depolarized cells, with the influence of the neighbors leading to the repolarization of nearly all cells, when there
 231 is a high connectivity via gap junctions. So the speed of depolarization decreases with the increase on G_{max}^0 . In
 232 the second case, when there is an initial large cluster of depolarized cells, it prompts the depolarization of the
 233 neighbor cells, and this effect is stronger and faster when the ionic conductivity via gap junctions is larger. The
 234 first circumstances can be applied to a consequence of aging, which leads to a decrease of gap junctions [45,47] and
 235 then made more probable the depolarization wave (and then carcinogenesis) from random depolarization events.
 236 The control of gap junctions conductivity can be a target for cancer prevention therapies and the inhibition of
 237 gap junctions improved the chemotherapy response of glioblastoma cells [46].

238 In McNamara et al. [19] it is reported, in supplementary figure 2, the depolarization domain wall velocity,
 239 which is of the order of magnitude of 1 mm/s. In our model, considering cells with a width of $10 \mu\text{m}$, the velocity
 240 is ~ 0.040 mm/s, but using the same cell electric capacity as in the experimental article, $C_i = 10$ pF, it is 10
 241 times faster, or 0.4 mm/s, in good agreement with the experimental results.

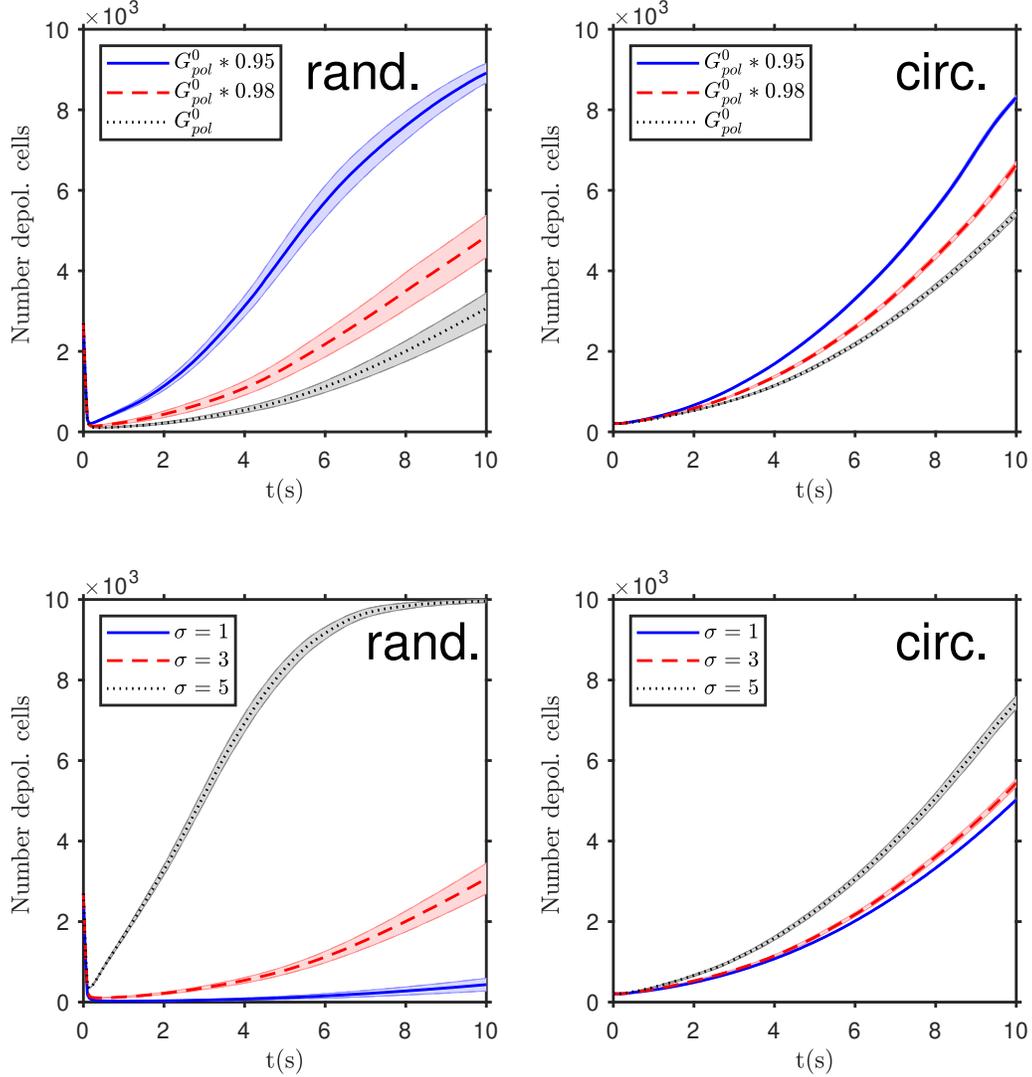


Figure 5: Parameters sensitivity tests. Top row: evolution of the number of depolarized cells for different values of the cells polarization channel conductivity G_{pol}^0 . Bottom row: evolution of the number of depolarized cells for different values of the standard deviation σ of the cells' bioelectric properties. The results are shown for 27% of depolarized cells randomly distributed on the domain at the start of the simulation (left column), and for an initial circular depolarization patch (with $R = 8$ cells' width) at the center of the domain (right column). There is a saturation at 10 k cells, the total number of cells in the domain. The bands show the standard deviation of the mean of $n = 20$ simulation runs.

242 Discussion and Conclusions

243 A simple model of bioelectric community effects was enhanced and applied to carcinogenesis, showing bistability,
 244 where the depolarized state corresponds to a more proliferative and motile cell (and them a more cancer cell-
 245 like state) [48], and the polarized state to a quiescent behavior. The results point to the importance of the

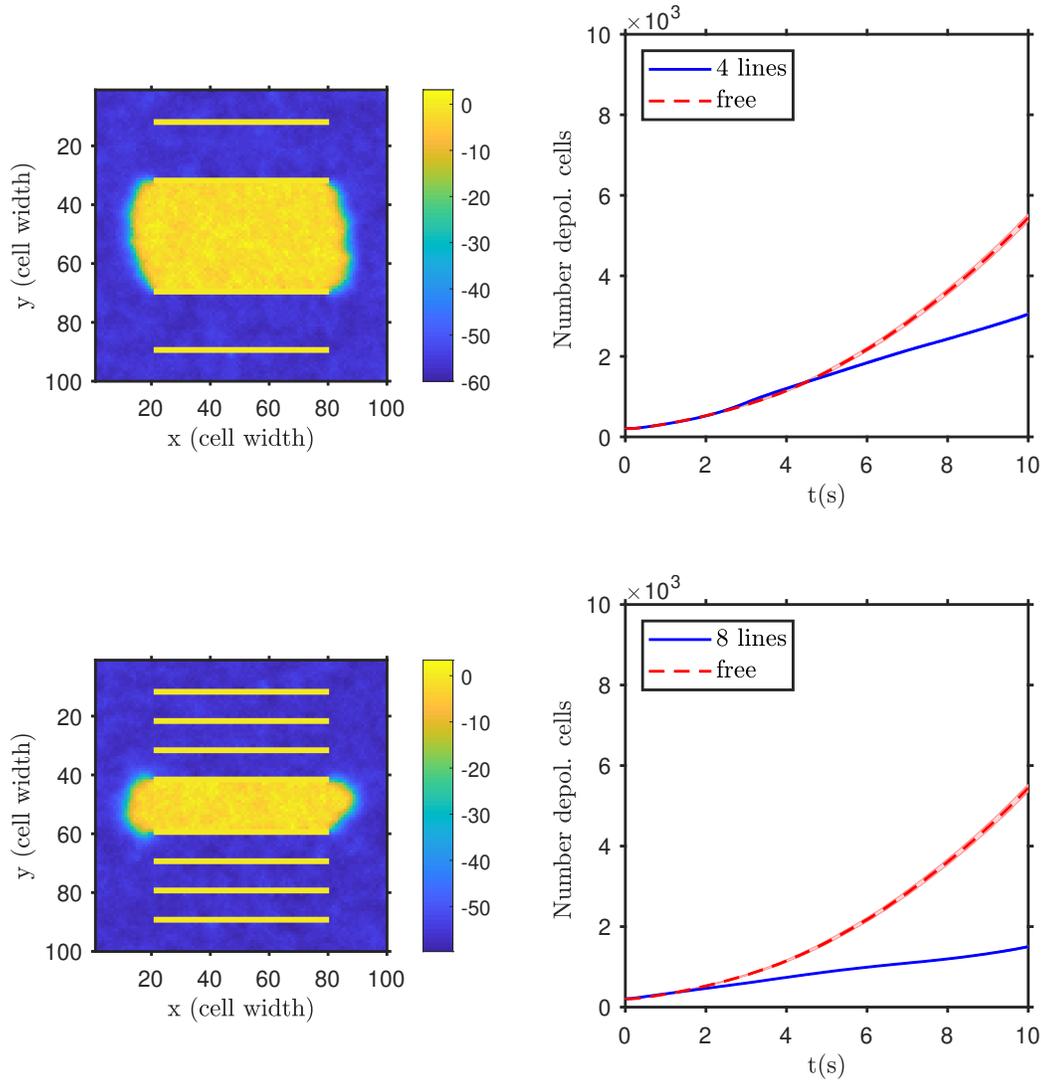


Figure 6: Effect of electrical isolating obstacles. Example of the two-dimensional domain polarization state after 10 seconds (left column, yellow corresponds to depolarized cells and blue to polarized ones) and the evolution of the number of depolarized cells (right column) for a domain with 4 isolating walls (top row, yellow horizontal bands) and with 8 isolating walls (bottom row). Initially all the cells were depolarized and an initial circular depolarized patch, with $R = 8$ cells' width, is placed on the center of the domain. The bands show the standard deviation of the mean of $n = 20$ simulation runs.

246 neighborhood in inducing a particular cell state, not just the single cell properties, as determinant of its bioelectric
 247 condition. A polarized tissue, with cells in a quiescent state, tend to continue in that condition except if a large
 248 enough perturbation changes the homeostatic circumstances (for instance, by a carcinogenic event). In such an
 249 experience, the induced depolarized state can propagate to the neighbors in a wave like fashion. The disruption can
 250 be a general one, covering a large percentage of cells on the tissue (as due to hereditary conditions or consequence
 251 of aging), or a localized one, where the community effects lead to an expansion of the depolarized state. However,

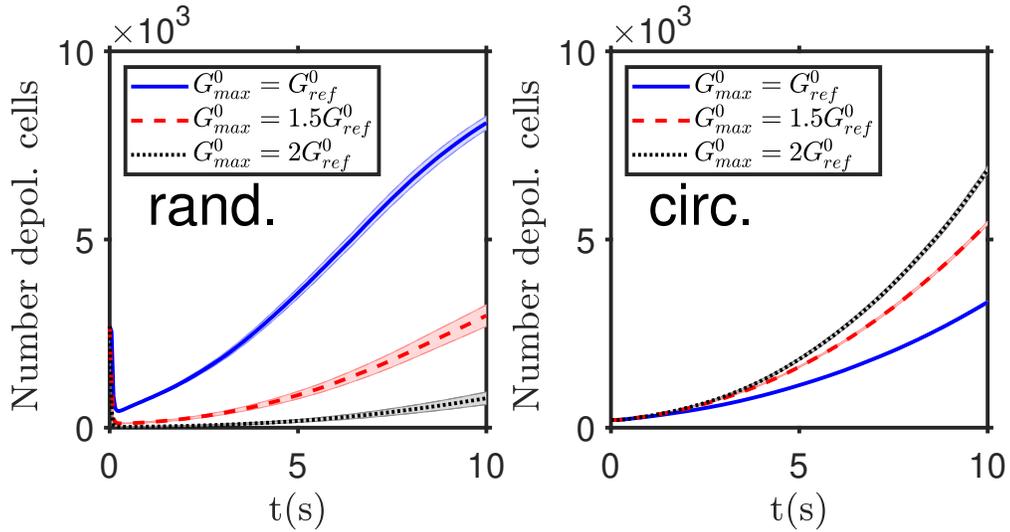


Figure 7: Community effect. Evolution of the number of depolarized cells for different values of the gap junction conductivity parameter G_{max}^0 . The depolarization starts from a random distribution of depolarized cells, 27% of the total (left), or from a circle of depolarized cells, with $R = 8$ cells' width, at the center of the two dimensional domain (right). The bands show the standard deviation of the mean of $n = 50$ simulation runs.

252 a fully depolarized tissue can also return to the polarized condition, if the cells electrical conductivity or the ion
 253 pumps activity is changed in the right direction.

254 Even if the cells' bioelectric state and the ion exchange with neighbors are not the only relevant factors on
 255 carcinogenesis, this is a hypothesis that merit to be considered. Dedicated experiments should be pursued on
 256 the association between bioelectricity, in particular the membrane electric potential and its relation with cell
 257 regulation pathways, and cancer inception. Being it, as much of the scientific evidence shows, a multifactorial
 258 disease, it is fundamental to understand how the cell state can be modified by changes on tissue regulation, in
 259 particular on ion channels activity and overall electrical properties.

260 Also very relevant are the community effects associated with cell electrical communication, leading to both
 261 short and long range influence and patterns [42]. The manipulation of the tissue bioelectric state, profiting from
 262 the long range impact and propagation of the polarization state, can be an effective and efficient approach for
 263 cancer prevention and therapy. Besides the small molecules drugs that can be used on cells' ion channels and
 264 pumps [49], a long odd would be to use static electric fields and/or electromagnetic fields to reverse the cancerous
 265 tissue to a more quiescent behavior. Likewise, one can also try to reverse the state modifications by changing
 266 the electrical microenvironment. Additionally it can be adjusted by changing the tissue electrical properties, by
 267 a treatment with drugs or normal tissue components, with, for instance, different electrical conductivity.

268 The model presented in this work showed not only the importance of the community effects, with much
 269 stronger response when the number of neighbors increases, as when one goes from two to three dimensions, or
 270 decreases, when electrical segregating elements are introduced. It also shows the importance of cells bioelectric
 271 variability, making it easier to create the conditions to start the tissue depolarization and then for cells to change
 272 their state from quiescence to stem-like (proliferative and motile).

273 There is an increased volume of evidence on the relation between carcinogenesis and the tissue bioelectric
 274 state [50]. This effort should be reinforced with additional focused experiments, in particular using in vivo
 275 models, the only way to reliably reproduce tissues bioelectric properties [35]. The importance of the confirmation
 276 of these mechanisms, even if covering only part of the cancer initiation cases, cannot be overstated; this opens
 277 alternative avenues in cancer research, not only in prevention and diagnosis, but mainly in therapy, with the
 278 possibility of reversing a tumor to a healthy tissue.

279 In order to further investigate and develop this hypothesis of a relevant relation between a tissue bioelectric
 280 state and carcinogenesis, there are a set of new experiments and measurements that should be envisaged. These
 281 include the ones to establish how a carcinogenic event (chemical factors, ionizing radiation, etc.) changes the tissue
 282 bioelectric state, and, in particular, the cells ion channels and pumps, gap junctions and electrical conductivity.
 283 It is also important a more detailed study of the of ion channels properties in non neural cells of different tissues,
 284 specially the gap junctions characteristics in distinct in vivo conditions. Likewise relevant is a specific study of the
 285 importance of the membrane electric potential on critical regulatory pathways and genetic expression related with
 286 the cancer hallmarks [3], and with genomic instability and DNA repair mechanisms [51]. It is still fundamental
 287 to prosecute the research on the capability of small molecules, electric fields and non-ionizing radiation to change
 288 the bioelectrical properties of the cells, concerning their use for cancer prevention and therapy [52]. Finally, it
 289 is necessary to search for relations between the diverse cell and tissue inputs, being them electrical, chemical
 290 or mechanical, and the tissue organization; a theory of organization, regulation and information in organisms is
 291 paramount for an educated investigation of carcinogenesis mechanisms [53,54]. To predict the cell response, the
 292 bioelectric tissue state must be associated with the other information received by the cell, in particular chemical
 293 and mechanical signaling. So it is essential to combine the bioelectric state with genetic signaling networks, as,
 294 in general, the gene expression prompts the bioelectric state, but this direction of action can, in some cases, be
 295 reversed [19].

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301 Author contributions statement

302 J.C. conceived the research work, wrote the simulation software, analysed the results and wrote the manuscript.

303 Additional information

304 Competing interests

305 The author declare no competing interests.

306 Code availability

307 The matlab code used in the simulations is available from the author upon request.

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Figures

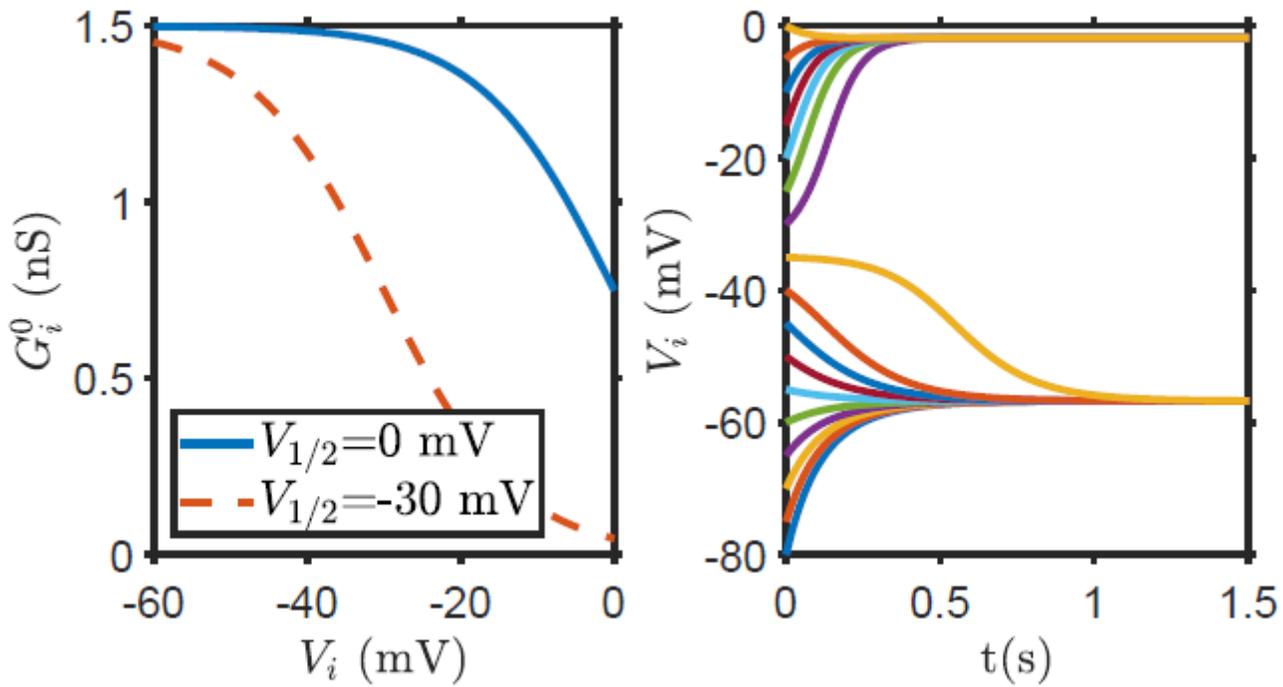


Figure 1

Left: Single cell gap junction ionic conductivity as a function of the cell membrane electric potential, as given by equation 4, with the parameters used in this work ($V_{1/2} = 0$ mV) and the ones used in [31] ($V_{1/2} = -30$ mV). Right: Evolution in time of an isolated cell membrane electric potential for different initial membrane electric potential values. There are two stable points, at ≈ -2 mV and ≈ -57 mV, with the separation taking place at ≈ -35 mV.

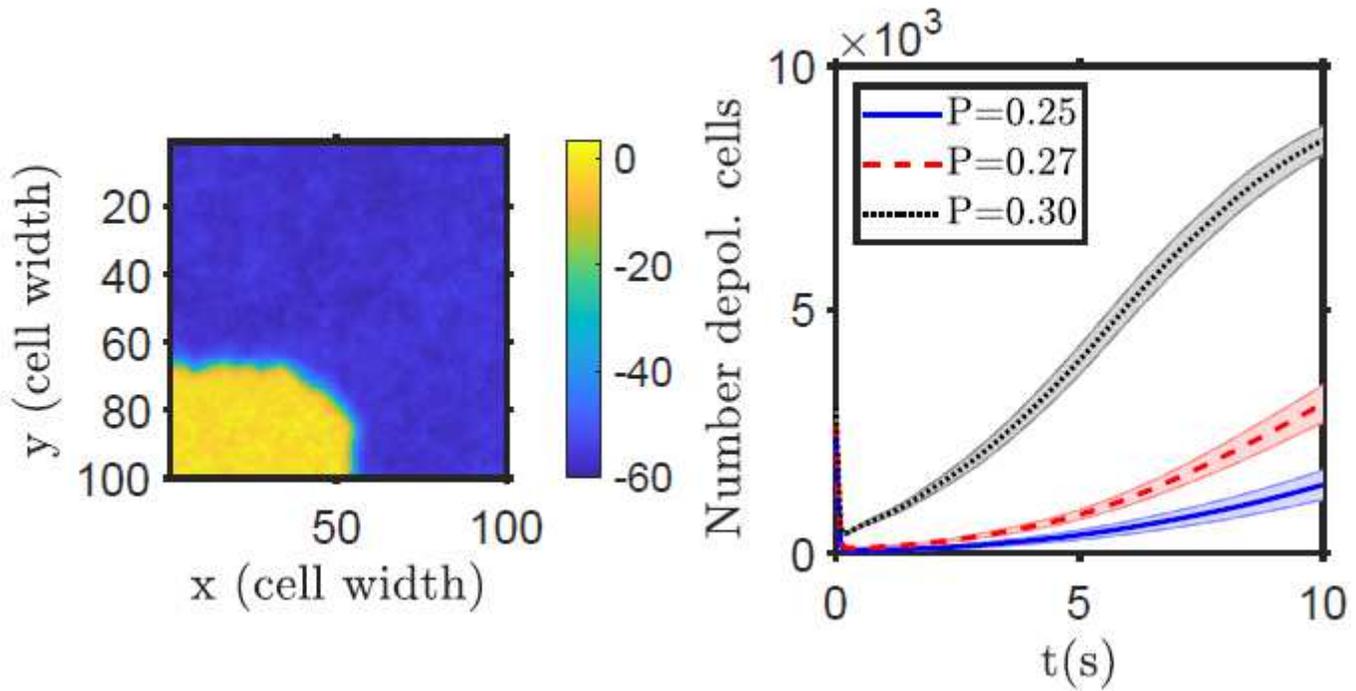


Figure 2

Tissue depolarization for randomly distributed depolarized cells on a polarized domain. Left: example of the two-dimensional domain polarization state after 10 seconds (yellow corresponds to depolarized cells and blue to polarized ones; the color bar shows the membrane electrical potential in mV). Right: evolution of the number of depolarized cells for different percentages of depolarized cells randomly initially distributed on the domain (25%, 27% and 30% of the total number of cells depolarized, right). The initial decrease on the number of depolarized cells is due to a community effect, where depolarized cells with a high number of polarized neighbors will polarize fast. The bands show the standard deviation of the mean of $n = 20$ simulation runs.

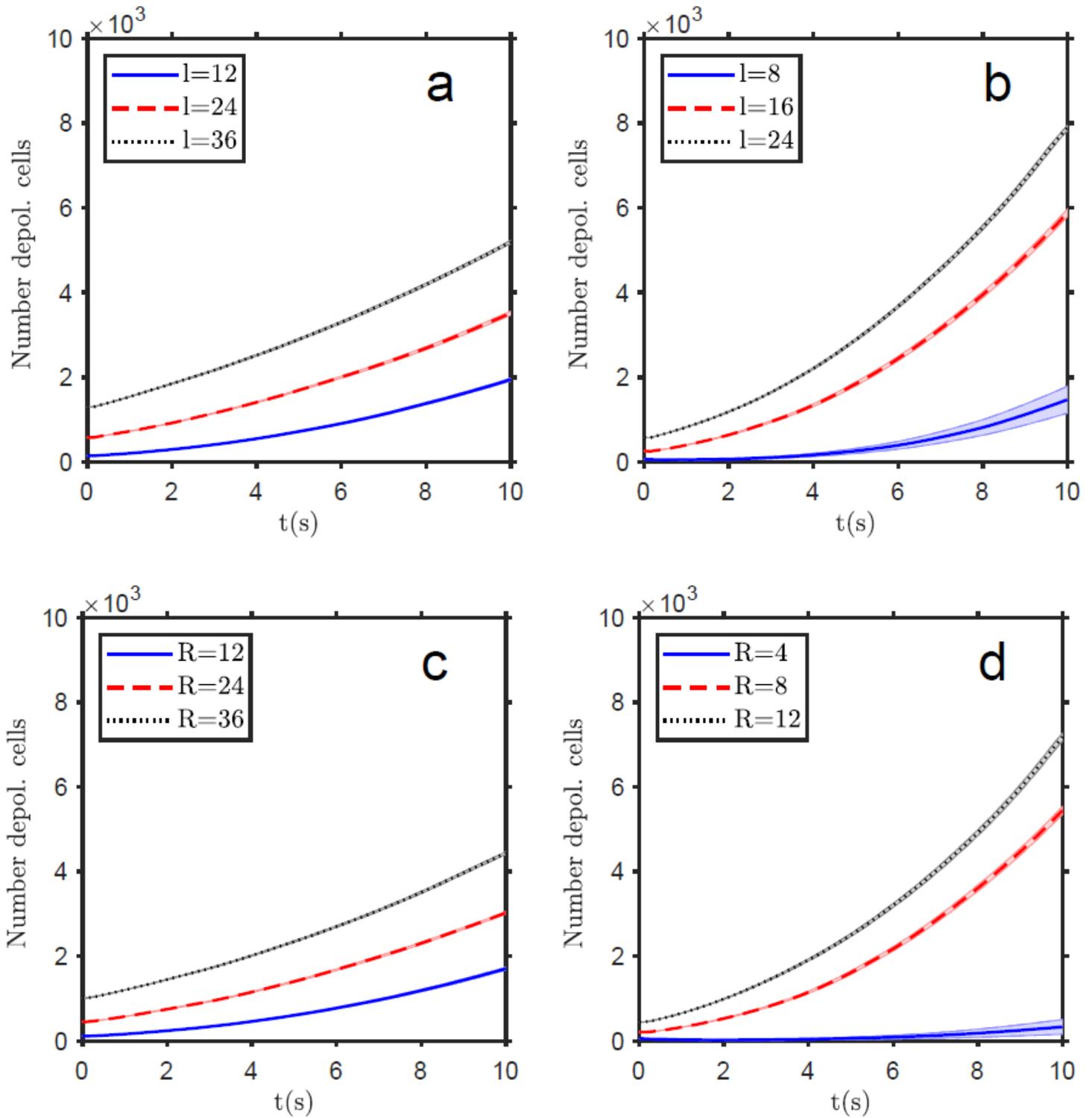


Figure 3

Tissue depolarization after the introduction of a patch of depolarized cells on a polarized tissue. Top row: evolution of the number of depolarized cells for different sizes of a square patch, introduced on the top left corner of the domain, with a width of 12, 24, and 36 cells (a), and on the domain center, with a width of 8, 16, and 24 cells (b). Bottom row: evolution of the number of depolarized cells for different sizes of a circular patch, with a radius of 12, 24, and 36 cells, centered on the top left corner of the domain (c), and

placed on the domain center, with a radius of 4, 8 and 12 cells (d). The bands show the standard deviation of the mean of $n = 20$ simulation runs.

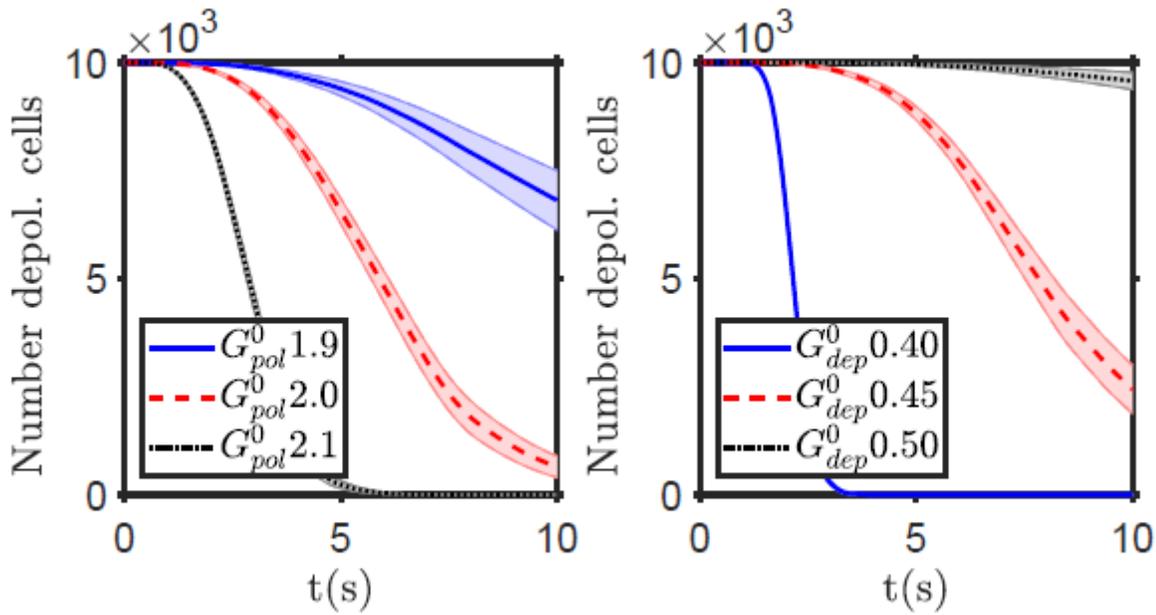


Figure 4

Repolarization therapies. Evolution of the number of depolarized cells for therapies that increase the polarization ion channel conductivity (G_{pol}^0 , left) or decrease the depolarization ion channel conductivity (G_{dep}^0 , right). Initially all the cells were depolarized. The bands show the standard deviation of the mean of $n = 20$ simulation runs.

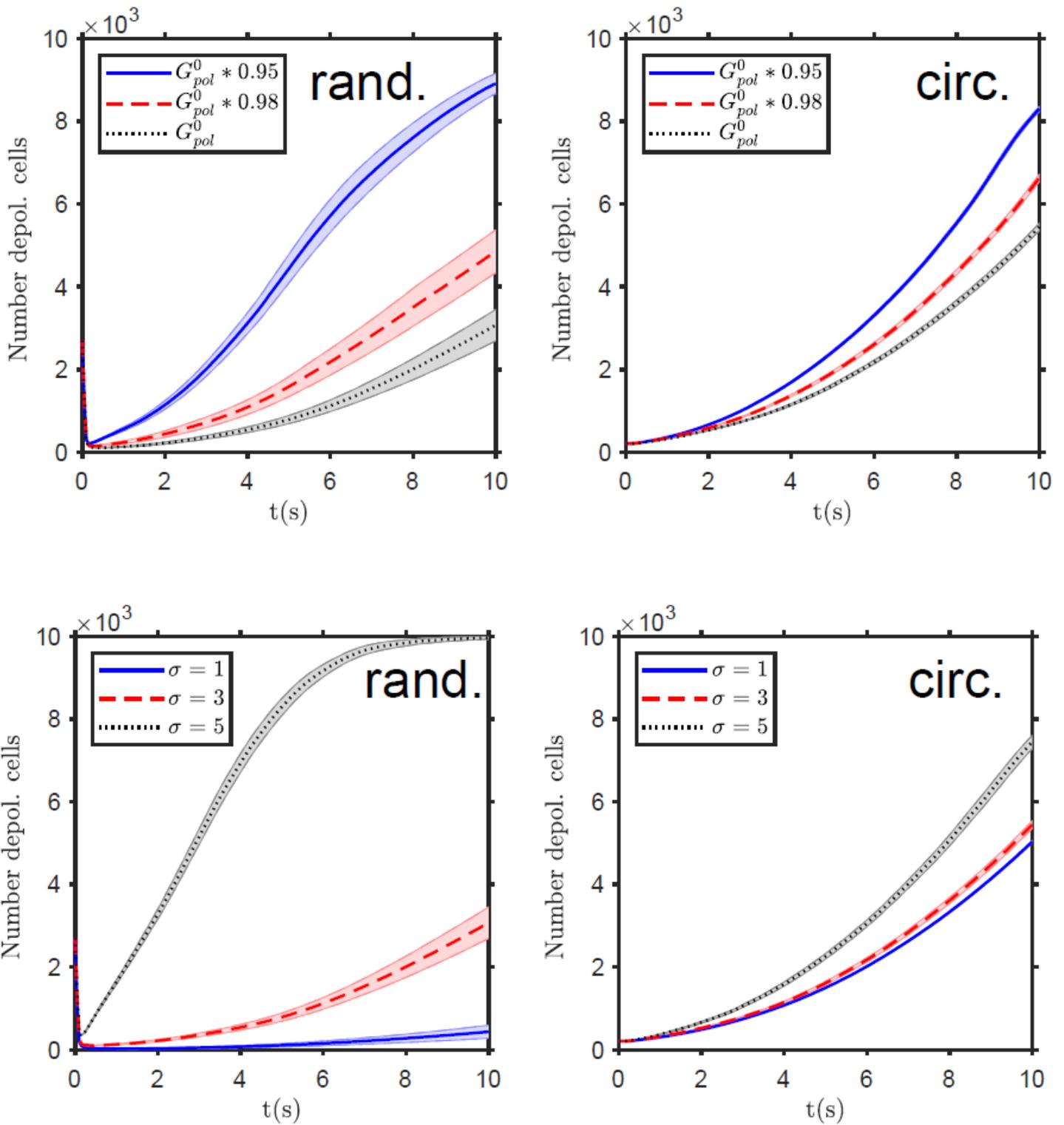


Figure 5

Parameters sensitivity tests. Top row: evolution of the number of depolarized cells for different values of the cells polarization channel conductivity G_{pol}^0 . Bottom row: evolution of the number of depolarized cells for different values of the standard deviation σ of the cells' bioelectric properties. The results are shown for 27% of depolarized cells randomly distributed on the domain at the start of the simulation (left column), and for an initial circular depolarization patch (with $R = 8$ cells' width) at the center of the

domain (right column). There is a saturation at 10 k cells, the total number of cells in the domain. The bands show the standard deviation of the mean of $n = 20$ simulation runs.

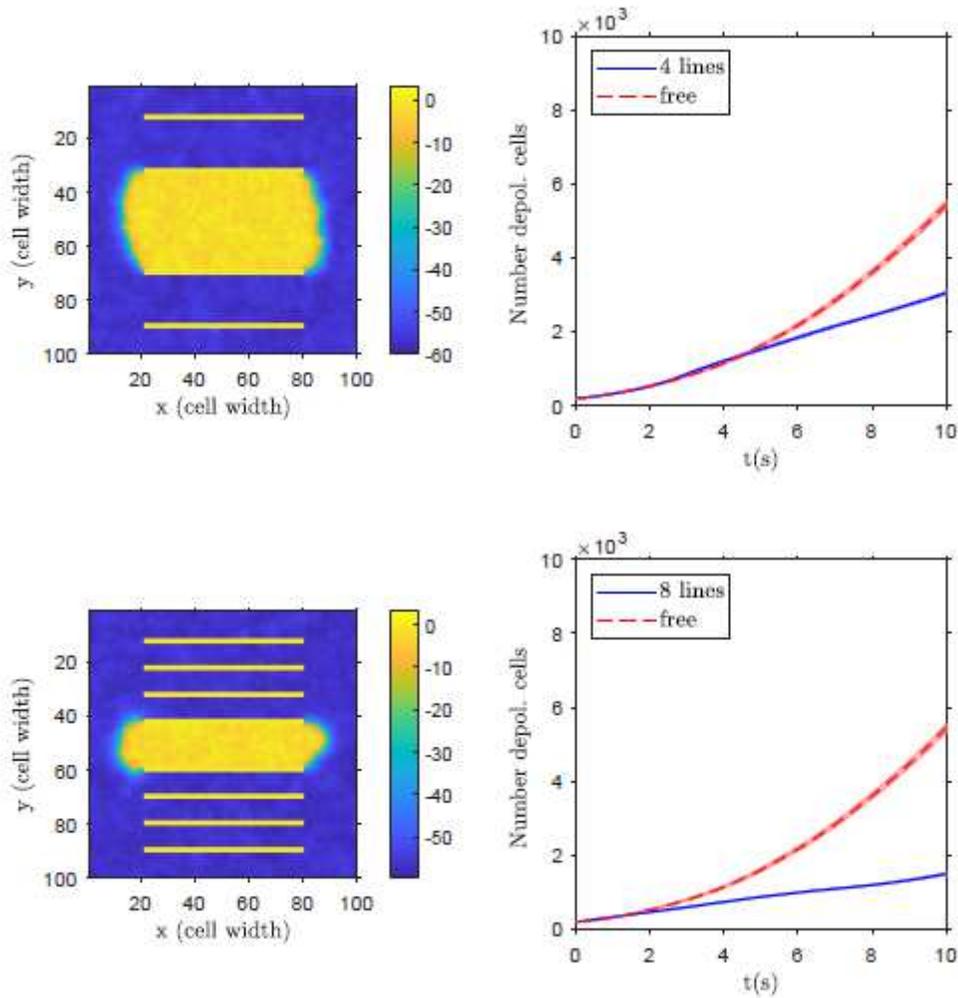


Figure 6

Effect of electrical isolating obstacles. Example of the two-dimensional domain polarization state after 10 seconds (left column, yellow corresponds to depolarized cells and blue to polarized ones) and the evolution of the number of depolarized cells (right column) for a domain with 4 isolating walls (top row, yellow horizontal bands) and with 8 isolating walls (bottom row). Initially all the cells were depolarized and an initial circular depolarized patch, with $R = 8$ cells' width, is placed on the center of the domain. The bands show the standard deviation of the mean of $n = 20$ simulation runs.

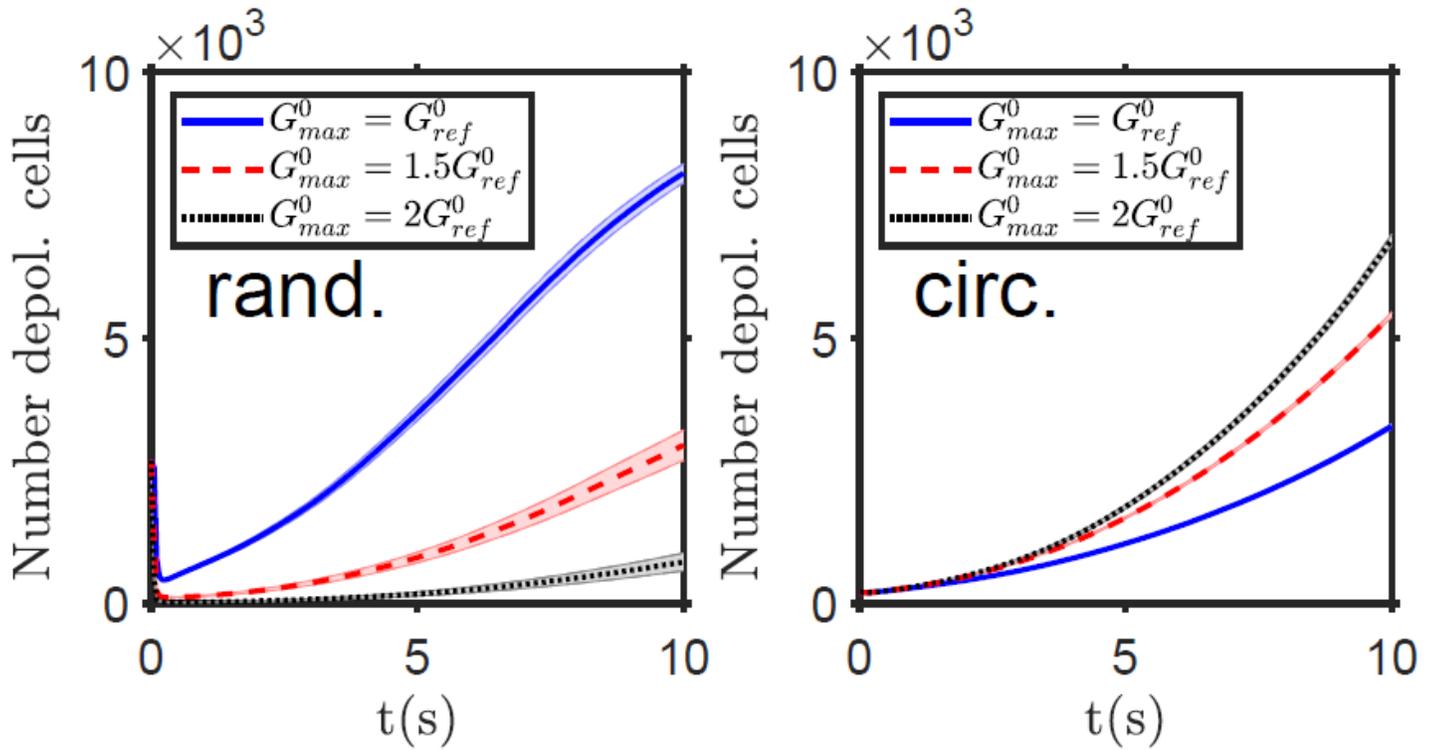


Figure 7

Community effect. Evolution of the number of depolarized cells for different values of the gap junction conductivity parameter G_{max}^0 . The depolarization starts from a random distribution of depolarized cells, 27% of the total (left), or from a circle of depolarized cells, with $R = 8$ cells' width, at the center of the two dimensional domain (right). The bands show the standard deviation of the mean of $n = 50$ simulation runs.

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