

Robust Quantification of Regional Patterns of Migration in Three-Dimensional Cell Culture Models

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2 migration in three-dimensional cell culture
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16

17 Abstract

18

19 Wound healing assays is a common two-dimensional migration model, with the spheroid assay three-
20 dimensional migration model recently emerging as being more representative of in vivo migration
21 behaviours. These models provide insight to the overall migration of cells in response to various factors
22 such as biological, chemotactic and molecular agents. However, currently available analysis techniques
23 for these assays fall short on providing quantifiable means to measure regional migration patterns, ,
24 which is essential to allow more robust assessment of drug treatments on cell migration in a chemotactic
25 fashion. Therefore, the aim of this study is to develop a finite element (FE) based pipeline that can
26 objectively quantify regional migration patterns of cells. Here, we report that our FE based approach
27 was able to accurately measure changes in overall migration areas compared to the standard ImageJ
28 method. Furthermore, our regional migration analysis provided accurate and quantitative means to
29 analyse the migration pattern seen in the phantom data and our experimental results, giving us
30 confidence that it can be a robust tool for analysing cell migration patterns.

31

32 Keywords

33 Glioblastoma, Cell migration, Finite element analysis, Spheroid assay

34

35 Declarations

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45 experiment, reviewed the manuscript. TP provided the original idea, designed and supervised the
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48 Ethics approval : All experiments were conducted with ethical approval by the University of Auckland
49 Human Participants Ethics and the Northern Regional Ethics Committee. The primary cell line used in
50 the experiments were obtained with consent from patients undergoing tumour resection surgery at
51 Auckland City Hospital.

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57 Introduction

58 Cell migration is an important process regulating physiological (e.g.: capillary formation) and
59 pathological (e.g.: tumour spread) processes. A majority of *in vitro* migration studies use two-
60 dimensional (2D) monolayer cell cultures assays. Wound healing (scraping) and transwell
61 migration (Boyden chamber) assays are some of the more common methods used to study *in*
62 *vitro* cell migration [1, 2]. More recently, the spheroid assay has emerged in the field of
63 migration studies. This assay combines both two-2D and three-dimensional (3D) technologies
64 to better represent the tissue morphology and cell-cell contacts, without the introduction of
65 cell-free regions [1].

66 Recent advancements of 3D cultures and experiments have allowed researchers to better mimic
67 *in vivo* conditions such as tissue microstructures and cellular status, both of which can impact
68 proliferation and migration [1, 3]. The formation of spheroids are typically used to investigate
69 tumour growth and viability, and to test anticancer agents [4–6]. Additionally, recent studies
70 show that the spheroids structure provides a better representation of the physiological migration
71 of the cells from a tissue-like structure, which is particularly beneficial in studying tumour cell
72 migration, as solid tumours generally grow as a solid mass [7]. The spheroid assay begins with
73 the attachment of the spheres on the extracellular matrix (ECM)-coated cell culture plate
74 surfaces. Following attachment, cellular migration from the sphere can be influenced by
75 various factors, such as serum [8, 9], chemotactic agents [10, 11], and migration inhibitors [12,
76 13]. As a result, the cell movement can be measured microscopically and measured at different
77 time-points. This assay can be applied to cell types that can form spheroids, such as neural stem
78 cells [14, 15], certain embryonic stem cells [16, 17], induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSC) and
79 their organoids [18–21], and certain solid tumour cells [7, 22]. The migration of cells is

80 quantified through measuring the area covered by the cells leaving the sphere [23] or by
81 measuring the normalised radial migratory distance of the cells from the sphere relative to the
82 original diameter of the sphere [24].

83 Although the above methods are effective at assessing the overall migration of the cells
84 radiating from a sphere, they fall short on providing a quantifiable regional migration analysis
85 in which there are elements of directional migration. Regional migration analysis could prove
86 advantageous as it provides greater insights into migration patterns, more robustly assesses
87 drug treatments on cell migration in a chemotactic fashion, and provides more avenues of
88 experimentation in 2D and 3D models.

89 One way of analysing regional migration is to create a computational model of the collective
90 cell migration shape and measure the shape changes over time. In computational image
91 analysis, shape changes can be quantified by measuring the amount of deformation between
92 original undeformed and deformed states [25], which is often described as strain. This has
93 advantages over other methods that measure quantitative shape features, such as area and
94 length, because the strain-based method allows more detailed and region-specific analysis in
95 the cell migration patterns.

96 One method that allows such analysis is Finite Element (FE) models, which have been used
97 extensively in various bioengineering related problems such as joint biomechanics [26, 27],
98 tissue deformation [28] and injury prediction [25]. FE analysis has also been used on a micro-
99 scale such as the work by Saeed and Weihs who simulated a 3D FE cell model and investigated
100 the cell's morphology changes as it underwent uniformly applied compressions [29]. In our
101 previous study, we have used FE analysis to investigate the deformation of cells [30] and cell-
102 seeded 3D hydrogels and characterised the inhomogeneities in strain distribution [31]. Some
103 also used the FE method in analysing cell migration, particularly during wound healing. Most

104 notably, Zhao and colleagues developed an FE cell migration model that described individual
105 and collective cell movement, as well as the change in cell morphology. The model was
106 consequently used to examine the directionality and persistence of cell migration during re-
107 epithelialisation [32]. However, there are no FE models developed to describe regional cellular
108 migration from spheroid structures, including tumourspheres. Furthermore, many of these
109 studies deployed FE analysis tailored to their own specific purposes, which limits the
110 applicability of those methods to other problems.

111 In this study, we live-imaged the migration 3D GBM tumoursphere cells and used an FE-based
112 cell migration shape model to analyse various modes of migration readings. This method
113 provides a robust method of regional migrational analysis, allowing researchers the ability to
114 quantitatively assess migration patterns in non-uniform 2D and 3D migration models.

115 Methods

116 Ethical approval

117 All experiments were conducted with ethical approval by the University of Auckland Human
118 Participants Ethics and the Northern Regional Ethics Committee. The primary cell line used in
119 the experiments were obtained with consent from patients undergoing tumour resection surgery
120 at Auckland City Hospital.

121 Cell Culture

122 The tumour-initiating cells (TICs) derived from the tissue sample were cultured in T75 flasks
123 containing 10 mL growth factor (GF) stem cell media (DMEM/F12 (Gibco), 1% Penicillin-
124 Streptomycin (Gibco), 1% Glutamax (Invitrogen), 2% B-27 without vitamin A (Invitrogen))
125 which was supplemented with 2 μ g Heparin (Sigma), 50 ng/mL EGF (Invitrogen) and 50

126 ng/mL FGF (Invitrogen). They were incubated at 37 °C with 95% air, 5% CO₂. Media changes
127 were performed every 2-3 days.

128 GBM spheroid formation

129 TICs were harvested for passaging and experimentation by first dissociating the cultures into
130 single-cell suspensions using Accutase® (Invitrogen). In order to generate tumourspheres,
131 TICs were plated at 5000 cells/well in a U-shaped sphere-forming 96-well plate (Thermo Fisher
132 Scientific). Once plated, the cells were incubated at 37 °C with 95% air, 5% CO₂ and incubated
133 for 72 hours to ensure proper cell adhesion and sphere formation prior to any experiments.

134 After incubation, TIC spheres required extraction from the U-shaped plates - The spheres were
135 extracted from the well along with 50 µL of the media in the well into either a Matrigel-coated
136 12-well plate (for live imaging; 1-2 spheres per well). The plated spheres were then incubated
137 at 37 °C with 95% air, 5% CO₂ for approximately 2-3 hours to ensure successful sphere
138 adherence to the Matrigel®-coated plate. Following adherence, new stem cell media was added
139 into each well – the total volume per well in a 12-well plate should be 1 mL.

140 Live-imaging of tumoursphere cell migration

141 After the tumourspheres were plated, they were transferred to the temperature, and CO₂-
142 controlled Live Cell Microscope Incubator (Zeiss XL-3 stage incubation chamber) fitted with
143 the Axiovert 200M motorised inverted microscope and AxioCam MRm digital camera (Zeiss).
144 The temperature and CO₂ levels were maintained at 37 °C and 5% respectively within the
145 chamber and adequately humidified to prevent excessive evaporation. The microscope
146 magnification was maintained at 10X with 0.25 bright-field images using A-plan every 20
147 minutes using the AxioVision program associated with the imaging suite (Zeiss) over the time
148 course of 48 hours. Colour and exposure settings were set at Black and White settings to ensure
149 a clear distinction and focus of migrating cells.

150 Migration analysis of tumoursphere cells

151 After the images were captured, they were first imported into ImageJ. ImageJ migration area
152 analysis began by highlighting the the ‘Find Edges’ operation and thresholding. The area was
153 subsequently measured using the magic wand tool and finding the net difference between the
154 migration area and sphere area. The boundaries of these areas were stacked together and stored
155 as 3D clouds of data points for mesh morphing described below.

156 First, we generated a reference mesh in the shape of a donut that approximates migration
157 patterns of the core and the boundary of the cell aggregates separately. We used high order
158 cubic Hermite basis function with hexahedral elements to capture the complex shape changes
159 over time[33]. This was then morphed to match the migrating pattern at various time points
160 [Figure 1].

161 We used our mesh morphing algorithm, which orthogonally projects a cloud of data points to
162 the mesh surfaces. The reference mesh was then deformed to match the shape of the cloud of
163 data points using the least square fit algorithm (Equation 1)[33].

$$164 \quad F(u_n) = \sum_{d=1}^n \|u(\xi_{1d}, \xi_{2d}) - z_d\|^2 + F_s(u_n) \quad (1)$$

165 Where z_d are the coordinates of data points and ξ_{1d}, ξ_{2d} are the results of the orthogonal
166 projection of data points to the surface of the mesh. F_s is the penalty function which ensures
167 the geometric smoothness of the mesh. The expression of the penalty function is given in
168 Equation 2:

$$169 \quad F_s(u_n) = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \left\{ \alpha_1 \left\| \frac{\partial u}{\partial \xi} \right\|^2 + \alpha_2 \left\| \frac{\partial u}{\partial \xi} \right\|^2 + \alpha_3 \left\| \frac{\partial u}{\partial \xi} \right\|^2 + \alpha_4 \left\| \frac{\partial u}{\partial \xi} \right\|^2 + \alpha_5 \left\| \frac{\partial u}{\partial \xi} \right\|^2 \right\} d\xi_1 d\xi_2 \quad (2)$$

170 Where α_i ($i = 1 \dots 5$) are penalty parameters. Each of these terms has a distinct effect on the
171 final shape of the fitted mesh; α_1 and α_2 terms control arc-length, while α_3 and α_4 control the
172 arc-curvature in the ξ_1 and ξ_2 directions, respectively.

173 The resultant meshes were generated at different time points and imported for FE analysis
 174 [Figure 1]. From this, the changes in the migrating areas can be obtained by solving the
 175 governing equation that describes the deformation of an object at different time points. This
 176 was achieved by solving the static Cauchy equation (Equation 3).

$$177 \quad \frac{\partial \sigma_{ij}}{\partial x_j} + \rho \cdot b_i = 0 : i, j = 1..3 \quad (3)$$

178 Where σ_{ij} are the Cauchy stress tensor components, x_j are spatial coordinates. b_j are body
 179 force components, and ρ is the soft tissue density; both variables were neglected in this case.

180 To quantify the migration rates, displacement boundary conditions were used as the migration
 181 pattern of the cells was already known from the images at different time points. This prescribed
 182 the nodal positions at each time point and our finite element solver computed for the remaining
 183 degrees of freedom. Then the change in the migration pattern was analysed using strain, which
 184 was calculated in the form of Lagrangian strain using the theory of finite deformation elasticity
 185 as in our previous study [30, 34]. The strain between original and deformed (i.e. time lapsed)
 186 meshes was computed using the deformation gradient tensor between the two, which is
 187 quantified by measuring the change in length of material segments [30, 34]. Given a material
 188 vector in the undeformed state ($d\mathbf{X}$) which is mapped to the deformed state ($d\mathbf{x}$), the gradient
 189 deformation tensor (\mathbf{F}) is defined as the following (Equation 4)

$$190 \quad \mathbf{F} = \frac{d\mathbf{x}}{d\mathbf{X}} \quad (4)$$

191 Strain in a deformed mesh is determined by measuring segment length changes, which is done
 192 by computing the square length (ds^2) for the deformed segment $d\mathbf{x}$ giving (Equation 5)

$$193 \quad ds^2 = dx^i x^i = d\mathbf{x}^T d\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{F}d\mathbf{X})^T \mathbf{F}d\mathbf{X} = d\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F}d\mathbf{X} = d\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{C}d\mathbf{X} \quad (5)$$

194 From this, we calculate the Cauchy-Green deformation tensor (Equation 6):

195 $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{F}$ (6)

196 Finally, using the deformation, we derive the Lagrangian finite strain tensor (Equation 7):

197 $\mathbf{E} = \frac{(\mathbf{C}-\mathbf{I})}{2}$ (7)

198 The cell deformation and internal strain patterns in tumoursphere at each time point were
199 described with the final Lagrangian strain tensor. As for the material properties, since our main
200 focus is the analysis of the overall migration area, we ignored any nonlinear viscoelastic
201 behaviour that might occur in the internal region of the cell aggregates. Therefore, the cell
202 aggregates were modelled with a hyperelastic Mooney Rivelin material with a homogenous
203 property. The parameter C_1 and C_2 values were obtained from the experimental study of the
204 tumor tissue [35]. We used the maximum principal strain from the final deformed mesh to
205 describe the migration rate. We used our in-house FE software called CMISS, that is freely
206 available for academic use for migration analysis (www.opencmis.org).

207 Statistical analysis

208 Graphing and statistical analysis were performed using GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad Software
209 Inc.). Correlation analysis was achieved in GraphPad Prism 8. Graphs with error bars were
210 displayed as means \pm standard error of measurement (SEM), and statistical significance was
211 set at $p < 0.05$. Two-way ANOVA with Dunnet's post-test group comparison was completed.

212

213 Results

214 ImageJ vs FE-based area analysis

215 The rate and the overall area of migration are key metrics analysed in cellular migration
216 experiments. When involving the migration from spheroid structures, such as tumourspheres,
217 ImageJ area calculation has often been employed to measure these parameters. The aim of this
218 section was to validate the FE analysis capability to achieve the level of accuracy offered by
219 these standard methods of analysis. In order to validate our analysis, the tumoursphere
220 migration rate and overall area were assessed using both the established ImageJ protocols and
221 our FE analysis protocol.

222 Figure 2 shows ImageJ and FE area analysis of two migrating tumoursphere repeats. The
223 correlation analysis between ImageJ and FE areas showed very high Pearson correlation, with
224 an R^2 of 0.9917 in tumoursphere repeat 1, and R^2 of 0.9835 in tumoursphere repeat 2 (Figure
225 2 A-2 and B-2 respectively). This confirms the accuracy of area analysis done by our FE based
226 method.

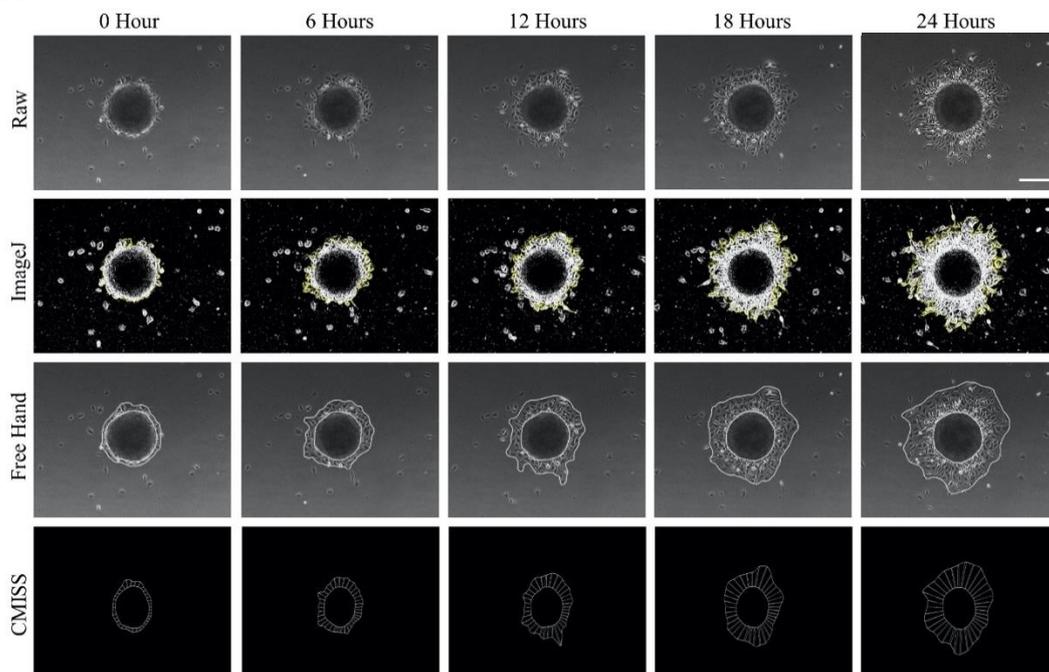


Figure 1. Processing of a representative tumoursphere sample for ImageJ and FE model images. Area measurement using ImageJ was achieved by identifying the boundaries using the magic wand tool on thresholded images. FE area analysis required a Free Hand boundary region before it was imported into our FE analysis software as a mesh and the area was measured. White scale bar 250 μm . The 2D view of the 3D FE model is

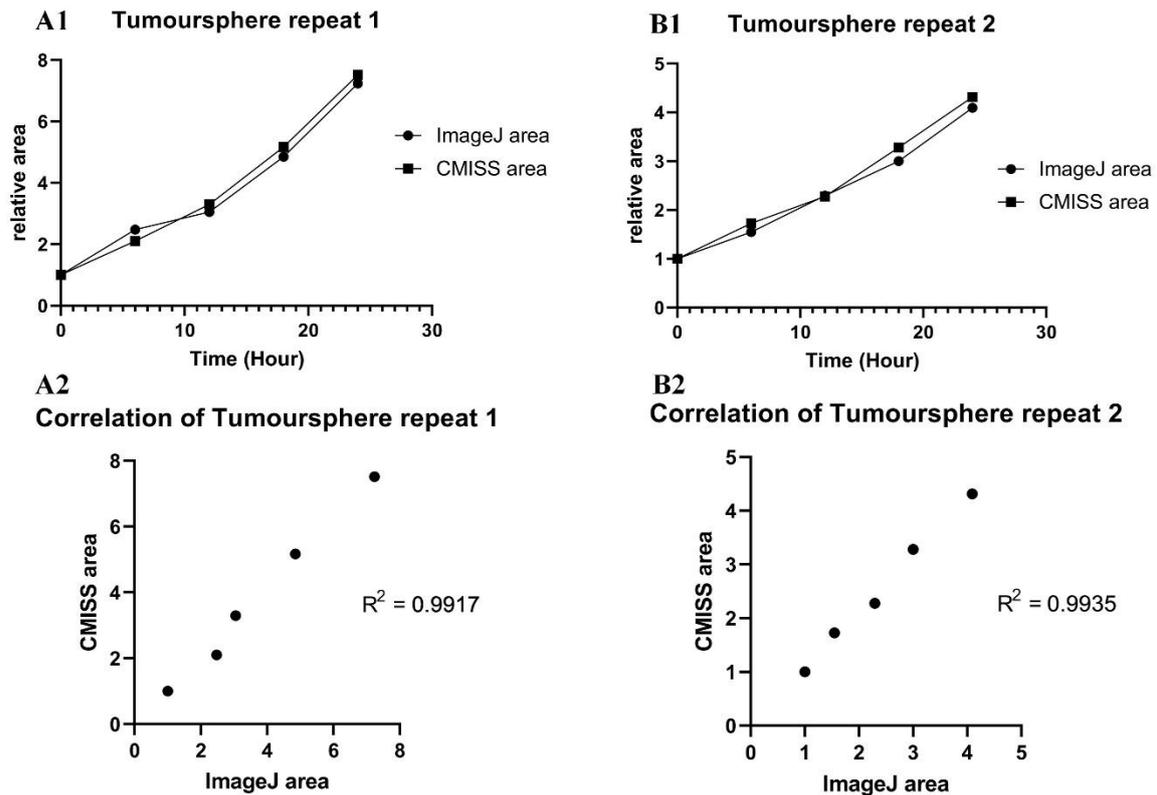


Figure 2. Changes in area measured in ImageJ and FE analysis correlated very highly with each other. Overall area was measured using ImageJ and our FE based method over 24 hours in 6 hour increments on two migrating tumoursphere repeats (A1 and B1). The areas were correlated using the William Pearson Correlation analysis in Graphpad Prism 8 and the R^2 was measured (A2 and B2).

227 FE-Regional Migration Rate Analysis

228 Phantom data with an evident preferential migration was firstly used to show the capabilities
 229 of our FE based method to quantify the directionality of migration. The analysis method was
 230 further applied to a real tumoursphere sample with a more nuanced migration to evaluate its
 231 effectiveness in a real-life example.

232 Figure 3 illustrates the preferential rightward migration of the phantom data, which is
 233 visualised by the red data points in Figure 3-A2. The data points were segmented into 60°
 234 quantifiable regions, with significantly greater migration distance detected in the 120° segment
 235 throughout the four time points ($p < 0.0001$) when compared to all other segments (Figure 3-B).
 236 The ability to delineate and measure regional migration rates are illustrated in Figure 3-C. For
 237 example, the rate at which the 120° segment migrated was significantly higher during the first
 238 time-point ($p < 0.0001$), which faithfully represented the phantom data is analysed (Figure 3-

239 A2). Overall, the phantom data results allowed for optimisation and validation of the FE-based
240 approach to quantify regional migration.

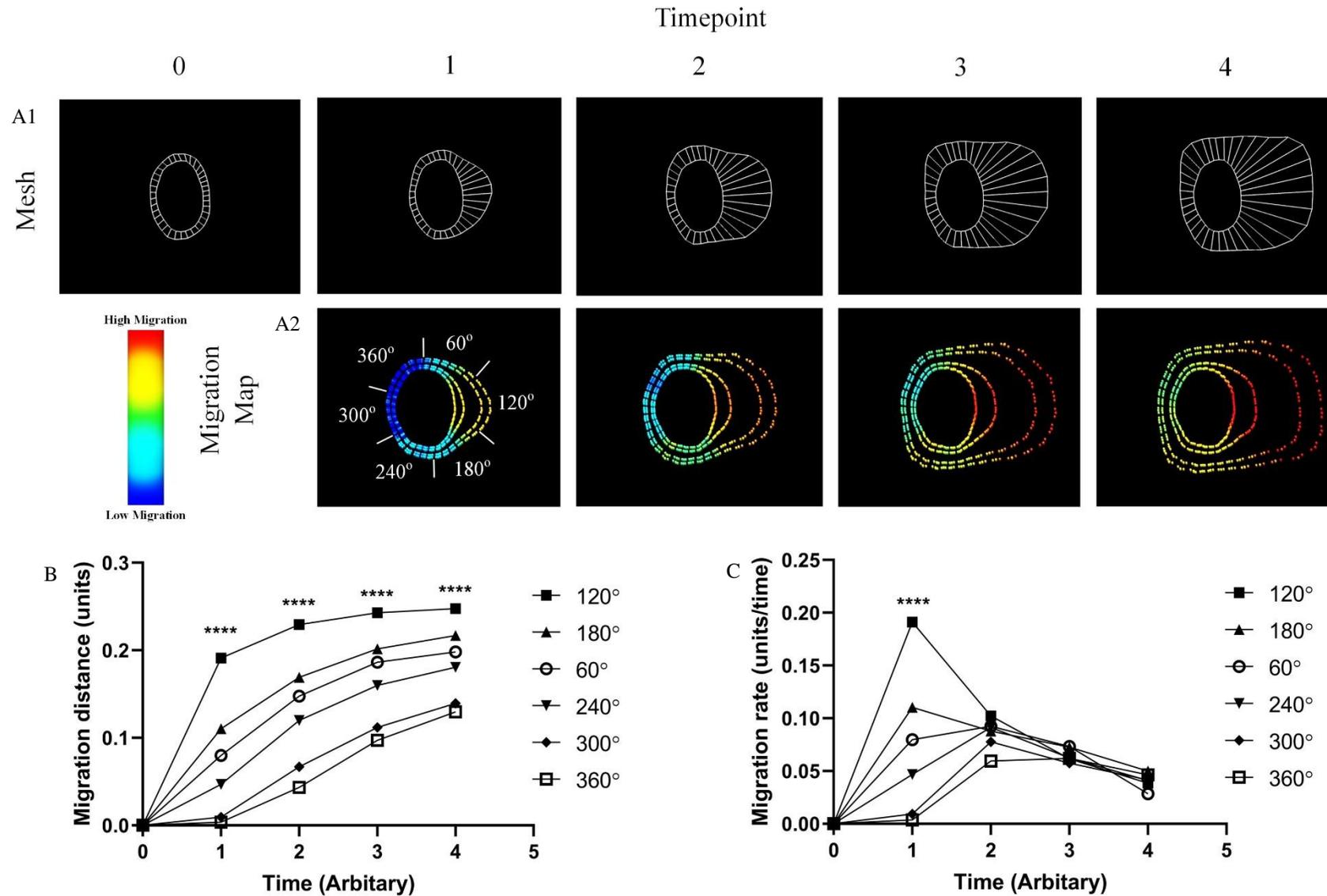


Figure 3. Our FE-based approach accurately quantified regional migration of the phantom data. The phantom data mesh (A1) was utilised in our FE models to quantify the migration rate over time which was visualised in the migration map (Red indicates high migration rate while blue indicates minimal migration rate; A2). Data points in the migration map were segmented in 60° increments and averaged, before they were plotted and compared against each other (B). Every segment at each timepoint were compared against the 120° segment and statistical significance was assessed via Two-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's post-test; **** $p < 0.0001$ all segments versus 120° segment (B). Migration rate was calculated by finding the difference in migration distances between the current timepoint and the previous timepoint, and the difference was divided by the time that has passed between the two timepoints (C).

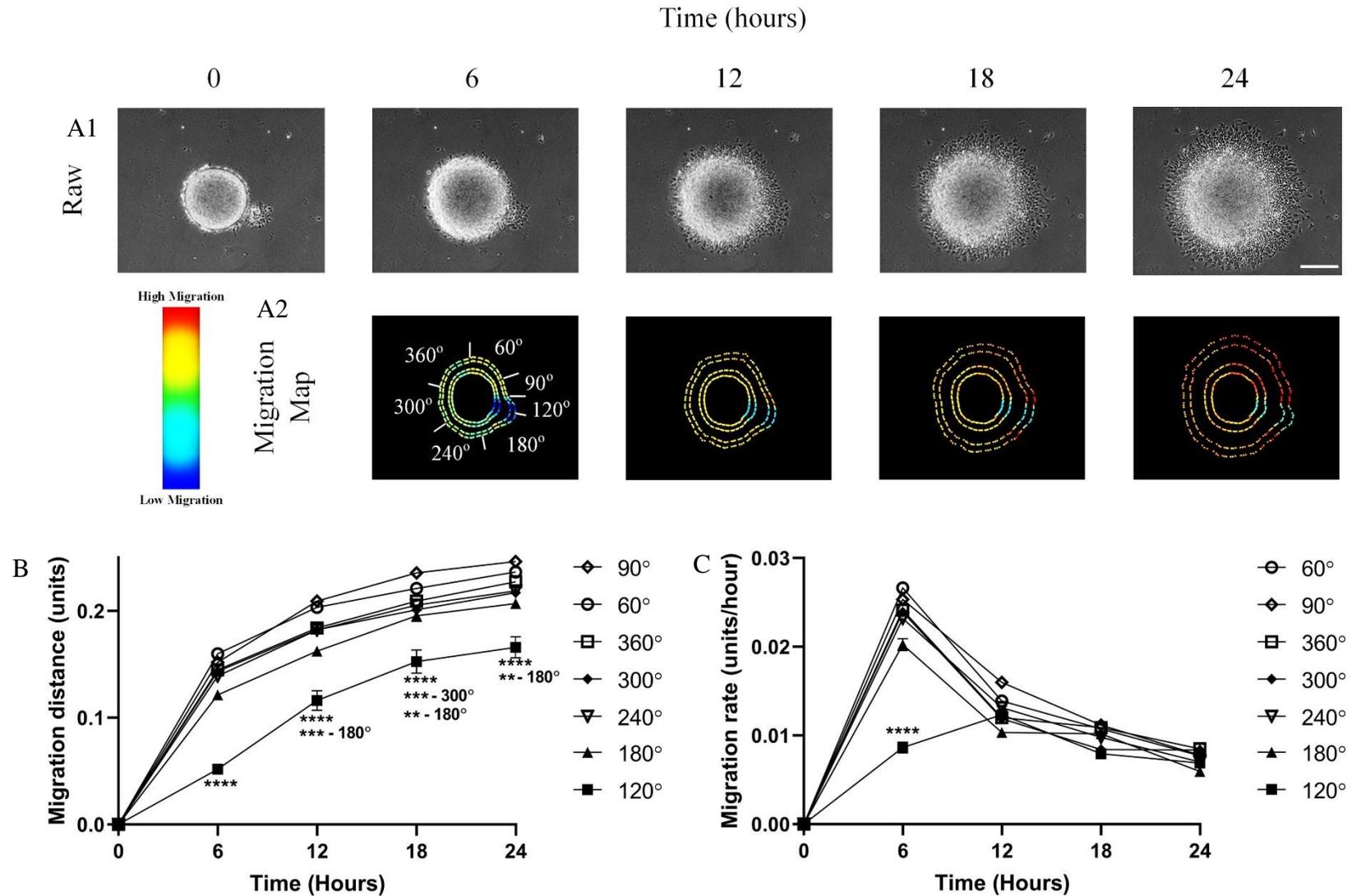


Figure 4. FE-based analysis was capable of detecting and quantifying the nuanced migration. The images of the the migrating tumoursphere were taken every 6 hours for 24 hours (A1) and were analysed by our FE models to produce the migration maps (Red indicates high migration rate while blue indicates minimal migration rate; A2). The data points from the migration maps were plotted and graphed in segments to assess the regional migration of the tumoursphere. Every segment at each timepoint were compared against the 120° segment and statistical significance was assessed via Two-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's post-test; **p<0.005, ***p<0.0005, ****p<0.0001 all segments versus 120° segment, and different *p from different segment comparisons are outlined in the graph (B). Migration rate was calculated by finding the difference in migration distances between the current timepoint and the previous timepoint, and the difference was divided by the time that has passed between the two timepoints (C). White scale bar represents 250 μ m.

243

244 In Figure 4, the tumoursphere exhibited an unexpected protrusion of cells on the right side, which did not migrate as much as the rest of the
245 tumoursphere throughout the first 24 hours. Quantification of the tumoursphere migration showed a relatively low migration rate at the 120°
246 segment (Figure 4-B), which corresponded to the lack of migration in the area of cellular protrusion. Moreover, the migration distance of the 120°
247 segment was significantly lower than all other segments throughout the 24 hours (Figure 4-B), while the migration rate was significantly lower
248 than all other segments in the first 6 hours (Figure 4-C). However, only the 120° segment showed a steady increase in migration rate over the first
249 12 hours while all other segments decreased over the same period (Figure 4-C). Overall, our FE-based approach was able to detect and quantify
250 the variations in a sphere shape and migrational patterns of cells from live tumourspheres.

251 Discussion

252 In this study, we have developed a FE-based method that can measure the area changes, as well
253 as the directionalities of the change in a tumoursphere model. Our method was highly
254 comparable to the area changes measured by ImageJ - a standard tool used by many
255 investigators to assess the overall cellular migration. Furthermore, the strength of our FE-based
256 method is in its ability to analyse regional migration in GBM tumourspheres, as the migration
257 rates of the FE tumoursphere model faithfully represented to the migration pattern of phantom
258 data and actual experimental results. This type of regional analysis is not possible using ImageJ.
259 Our pipeline is able to section the tumoursphere into any desired segments during our analyses.
260 This allows the investigation of migration from different radial regions of the sphere that could
261 detect and quantify non-uniform migratory patterns that could have been missed using
262 conventional overall area change models. Furthermore, the current pipeline involves the
263 segmentation of raw images into boundary lines and the fitting of a mesh onto the boundary
264 lines, therefore broadening the applications for this pipeline. For example, this pipeline can be
265 applied to other migration models such as wound-healing/scratch assays [36–40], as the
266 boundary of migration can be defined, and a mesh can be constructed and overlayed. For
267 instance, Zepecki observed that Lck-inhibition in tumoursphere cells resulted in reduced
268 cellular migration when compared to the controls [41]. Additionally, Zepecki and colleagues
269 analysed the tumour growth in a 3D brain reconstruction of a growing tumour within a mouse's
270 brain using NeuroLucida explorer (MBF Biosciences)[41]. Hypothetically, these observations
271 could be analysed using our pipeline to provide a quantifiable measure of migration, both *in*
272 *vitro* and *in vivo*. Moreover, all tumoursphere migration analyses from a recent literature survey
273 revealed that only the overall migration area was used to quantify tumoursphere migration
274 propensity [7, 23, 24]. Our pipeline can include additional analysis modes, such as overall

275 migration rate and more importantly, regional migration rate. As a result, this can provide a
276 deep, and potentially, novel insight into migration patterns of cells, especially in response to
277 migration modifying agents, such as extracellular matrix and cell surface modifications [42–
278 45], chemotactic agents [46–49] and small molecular agents [50–53].

279 Moreover, our pipeline uses 3D FE models. In the current study, only 2D images were available
280 hence they were stacked up to generate 3D cloud of data points, which were then used to morph
281 our 3D model. But if 3D images exist (e.g. from confocal microscopy images), our models can
282 capture the migration pattern changes in 3D, making it an ideal tool for investigating the actual
283 *in vivo* migration pattern from patients clinical images such as MRI.

284

285 Although the study shows promise in analysing regional migration in spheroid models, there
286 are areas where improvements are required. First, the assumption of our analysis is that the
287 boundary motion is the major factor that influence the movement of the entire cellular
288 aggregate. Hence it will not be able to describe the movements of the cell in the centre region
289 of the aggregates. This will require a non-linear viscoelastic material descriptions, yet
290 parameters for such complex material descriptions for tumour cells have not been studied or
291 estimated, making it not possible to incorporate in the modelling framework. Moreover, our
292 main aim is to characterise the overall migration pattern of the cell aggregates and our
293 experimental data consistently showed that it is dominated by the movement of boundary cells.
294 Hence our assumption was appropriate for the study purpose. Secondly, the current pipeline
295 requires manual processing of the images, which hinders the efficiency and scalability of the
296 method. Moreover, FE-based methods are not widely used to analyse cellular/molecular
297 biological processes; hence it may be difficult for users without prior experience in FE analysis
298 to apply our method to their studies. Finally, the multiple steps required to execute the entire

299 pipeline has not been integrated into a single streamlined process, hence making it more
300 complicated for users without experience in scripting languages. Some of these issues are
301 currently being addressed by uniting many of the pipeline's steps under one programming
302 language such as Python, since OpenCV and FE modules in Python are capable of
303 accomplishing many if not all of the steps in the current pipeline. As a result, a program made
304 under one programming language will be more accessible to the broader audience and will be
305 more integrated than the existing pipeline. We aim to report this progress in our next
306 publication.

307 In conclusion, we have developed a novel customisable FE-based analysis algorithm that can
308 be to detect regional changes in cellular migration and accurately quantify various migratory
309 matrices. This can pave the way for more automated analyses of brain tumour migration
310 patterns both in *in vitro* experiments and *in vivo* medical images.

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Figures

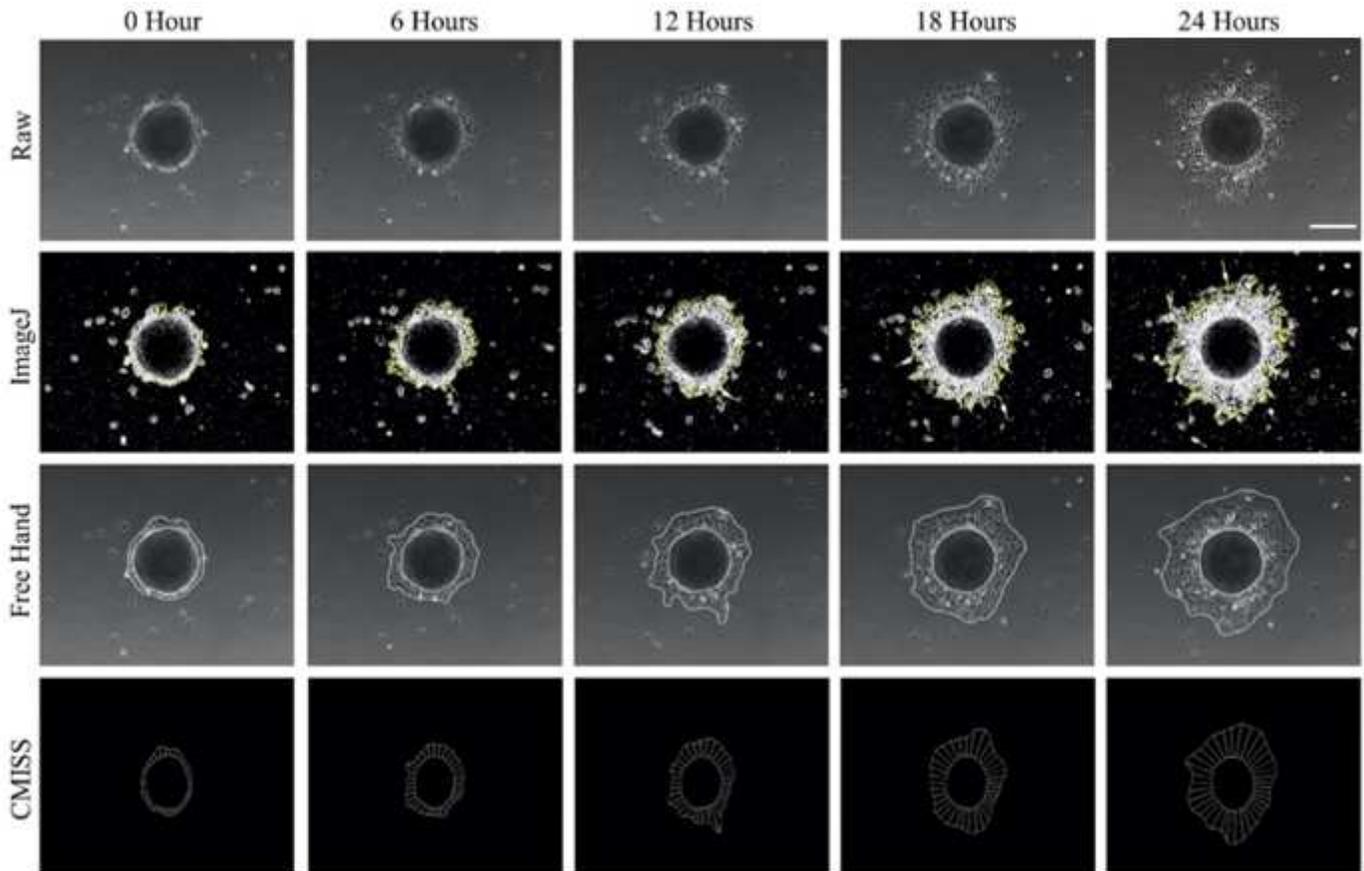


Figure 1

Processing of a representative tumoursphere sample for ImageJ and FE model images. Area measurement using ImageJ was achieved by identifying the boundaries using the magic wand tool on thresholded images. FE area analysis required a Free Hand boundary region before it was imported into our FE analysis software as a mesh and the area was measured. White scale bar 250 μm . The 2D view of the 3D FE model is shown.

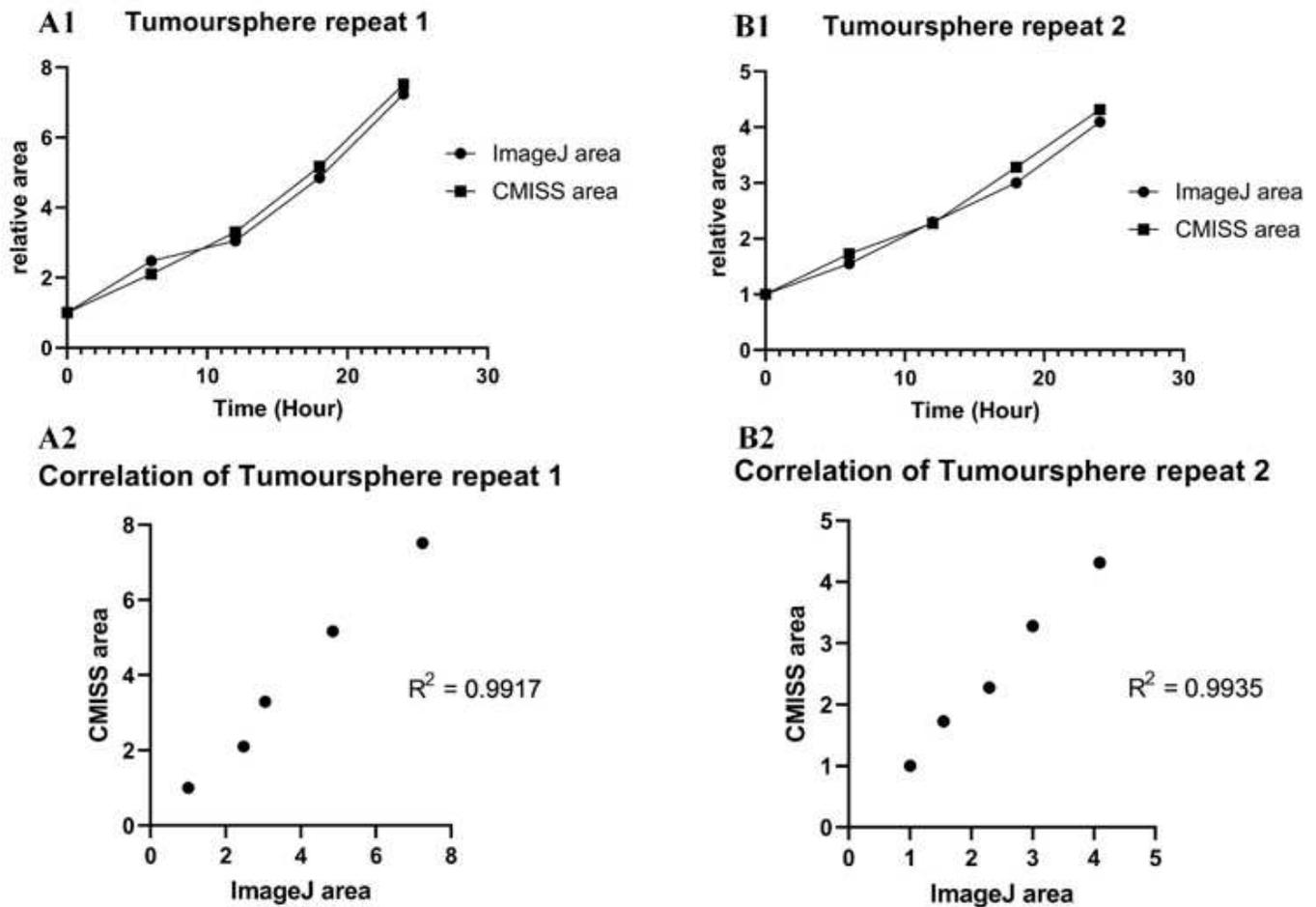


Figure 2

Changes in area measured in ImageJ and FE analysis correlated very highly with each other. Overall area was measured using ImageJ and our FE based method over 24 hours in 6 hour increments on two migrating tumoursphere repeats (A1 and B1). The areas were correlated using the William Pearson Correlation analysis in Graphpad Prism 8 and the R2 was measured (A2 and B2).

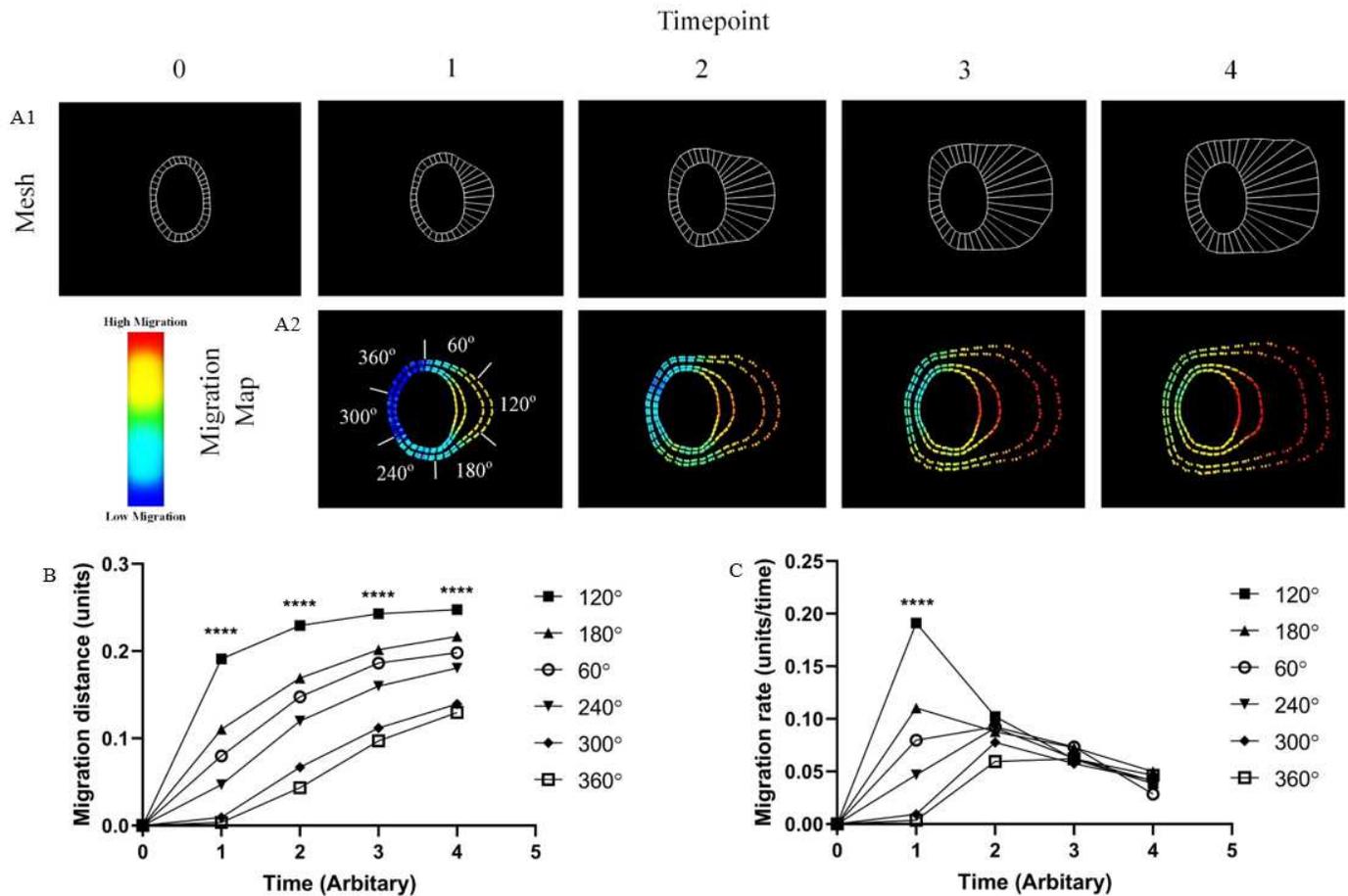


Figure 3

Our FE-based approach accurately quantified regional migration of the phantom data. The phantom data mesh (A1) was utilised in our FE models to quantify the migration rate over time which was visualised in the migration map (Red indicates high migration rate while blue indicates minimal migration rate; A2). Data points in the migration map were segmented in 60° increments and averaged, before they were plotted and compared against each other (B). Every segment at each timepoint were compared against the 120° segment and statistical significance was assessed via Two-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's post-test; **** $p < 0.0001$ all segments versus 120° segment (B). Migration rate was calculated by finding the difference in migration distances between the current timepoint and the previous timepoint, and the difference was divided by the time that has passed between the two timepoints (C).

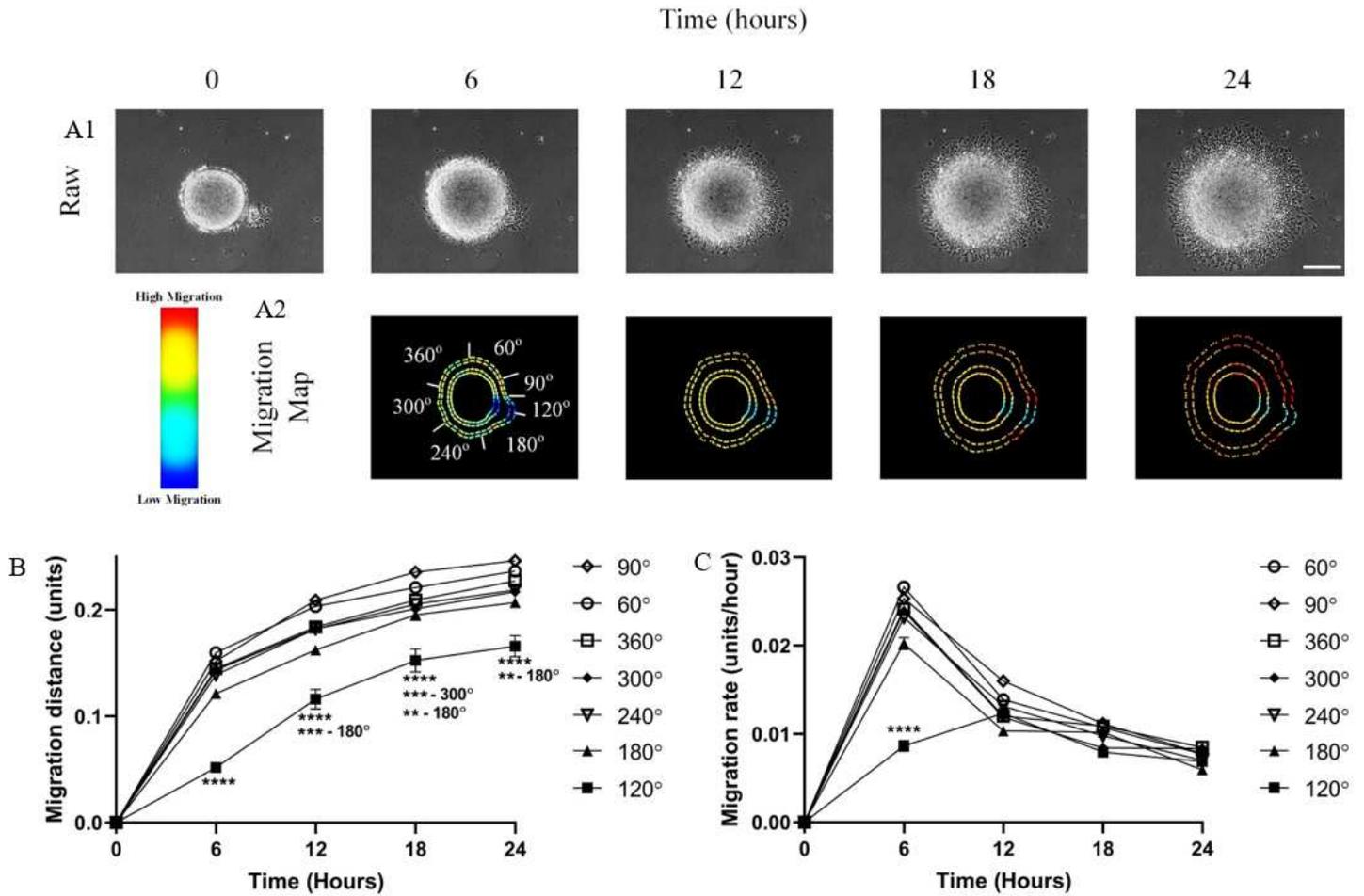


Figure 4

FE-based analysis was capable of detecting and quantifying the nuanced migration. The images of the migrating tumoursphere were taken every 6 hours for 24 hours (A1) and were analysed by our FE models to produce the migration maps (Red indicates high migration rate while blue indicates minimal migration rate; A2). The data points from the migration maps were plotted and graphed in segments to assess the regional migration of the tumoursphere. Every segment at each timepoint were compared against the 120° segment and statistical significance was assessed via Two-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's post-test; ** $p < 0.005$, *** $p < 0.0005$, **** $p < 0.0001$ all segments versus 120° segment, and different * p from different segment comparisons are outlined in the graph (B). Migration rate was calculated by finding the difference in migration distances between the current timepoint and the previous timepoint, and the difference was divided by the time that has passed between the two timepoints (C). White scale bar represents 250 μm .