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Bayesian inference of whole-organ deformation dynamics from limited space-time point data

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HIGHLIGHTS

- To quantify tissue deformation map is important for understanding morphogenesis.
- Detailed cell behaviors during vertebrate development are often difficult to measure.
- We develop a novel method to estimate deformation map from limited landmark data.
- The method is validated using artificially-generated data sets.
- In vivo validation is done by applying it to the data for chick limb development.

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ABSTRACT

To understand the morphogenetic mechanisms of organ development and regeneration, it is essential to clarify the inter-hierarchical relationship between microscopic, molecular/cellular activities and organ-level tissue deformation dynamics. While the former have been studied for several decades, the latter – macroscopic geometrical information about physical tissue deformation – is often missing, especially for many vertebrates. This is mainly because live recording of detailed cell behaviors in whole tissues during vertebrate organogenesis is technically difficult. In this study, we have developed a novel method that combines snapshot lineage tracing with Bayesian statistical estimation to construct whole-organ deformation maps from landmark data on limited numbers of space-time points. Following the validation of the method using artificially generated data sets, we applied it to the analysis of tissue deformation dynamics in chick limb development. A quantitative tissue deformation map for St.23–St.24 has been constructed, and its precision has been proven by evaluating its predictive performance. Geometrical analyses of the map have revealed a spatially heterogeneous volume growth pattern that is consistent with the expression pattern of a major morphogen and anisotropic tissue deformation along an axis. Thus, our method enables deformation dynamics analysis in organogenesis using practical lineage marking techniques.

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1. Introduction

One of the main goals in the study of organ morphogenesis is to understand how dynamic changes in organ morphology are realized as outcomes of coordinated molecular and cellular phenomena. To achieve this goal, quantification of tissue-level deformation dynamics with high accuracy is critical; construction of tissue deformation maps and their geometrical analyses enable us

to determine when and where distinctive deformation patterns occur, such as spatially-biased tissue expansion and globally-aligned local tissue stretching. Such analyses will act as guideposts in molecular and cellular studies aimed at understanding the inter-hierarchical relationships among molecular, cellular, and tissue-level events.

Over the past several years, quantitative deformation analysis has become an active field of research, especially in studies using monolayer epithelial tissues of drosophila, zebrafish, and chicken embryos (Butler et al., 2009; Blanchard et al., 2009; Taniguchi et al., 2011; Voiculescu et al., 2007; Graner et al., 2008). Epithelial monolayers are particularly suitable for cellular-level time-lapse imaging by conventional confocal microscopes due to their relative thinness, transparency, and small number of target cells (1–10³).

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1 Deformation analyses based on velocity fields, such as Particle
 2 Image Velocimetry (PIV), have succeeded in capturing deformation
 3 characteristics from imaging data (Supatto et al., 2005; Raffel et al.,
 4 1998). In many vertebrate organs, however, “in toto imaging” or
 5 live recording of detailed cell behaviors in whole tissues with high
 6 resolution is difficult; it is highly labor intensive and often not
 7 applicable to large tissues (e.g., sometimes consisting of millions of
 8 cells) or to experimental systems that are not suitable for genetic
 9 labeling. One can often obtain landmark data only at limited
 10 space-time points and with only low resolution, from which
 11 velocimetric analyses are not suitable for estimating tissue de-
 12 formation maps and deformation characteristics, especially in the
 13 case of large deformation processes.

14 There are only a few reports on the quantification of tissue
 15 deformation dynamics for understanding vertebrate organ shape
 16 based on limited landmark data. Filas et al. (2008) proposed a
 17 method in which a portion of the landmark data for a 2D surface
 18 is locally fitted by quadratic polynomials, and tissue strain is
 19 estimated. The method was applied to chick brain and heart
 20 development. Although this method is suitable for calculating
 21 the local strain of tissues at each position in an organ, it is
 22 difficult in a statistical sense to precisely estimate a whole-organ
 23 deformation map that reflects the information on the positional
 24 Q2 changes of all landmarks at once. Marcon et al. (2010) proposed a
 25 method to estimate the spatio-temporal pattern of deformation
 26 characteristics of mouse limb development based on the spatial
 27 distribution of clonal cells at different developmental stages and
 28 an assumption about tissue mechanical properties (in particular,
 29 the elasticity of the mesenchyme). The resulting estimated
 30 deformation pattern was almost symmetric about the anterior-
 31 posterior (A-P) axis; however, the result was not consistent with
 32 that of another lineage analysis in the experimental study by
 33 Harfe et al. (2004), in which it was suggested that the de-
 34 formation dynamics are asymmetric along the A-P axis. Although the
 35 reason for this inconsistency is not clear, since the initial
 36 distribution of cells in the clonal analysis was unknown, the
 37 validity of the estimated deformation pattern cannot be
 38 addressed in statistical terms.

39 In this study, we have developed a novel mathematical method
 40 that combines Bayesian statistical estimation and snapshot lineage
 41 marking to construct tissue deformation maps of whole organs
 42 from low resolution data. We have validated the method using
 43 various artificially generated maps that produce the same mor-
 44 phology but have different deformation dynamics in their internal
 45 tissues; estimated maps were precise enough to perform reliable
 46 tensor analysis of the deformation dynamics. Although the accu-
 47 racy of estimation, of course, depends on parameters such as the
 48 quantity of landmark data and the intensity of noise originating
 49 in tissue deformation processes, we have shown that the method
 50 works well for biologically plausible parameter ranges.

51 After validation of our method, we applied it to fluorescent-
 52 labeling data for chick limb development. While limb develop-
 53 ment has been a well-studied topic in vertebrate organogenesis
 54 for the past century, there is much less known about tissue-level
 55 deformation than there is about molecular and cellular events.
 56 Here we have constructed a quantitative tissue deformation map
 57 for the interval St.23–St.24 and validated the map by measuring its
 58 predictive performance. Geometrical analyses revealed a spatially
 59 heterogeneous volume growth pattern that is consistent with the
 60 expression pattern of a major morphogen and anisotropic tissue
 61 deformation along an axis.

62 Our approach broadens the range of target organs that can be
 63 analyzed, especially in vertebrates, whose deformation dynamics
 64 have been difficult to analyze, and will make it possible to bridge
 65 the gaps between inter-hierarchical phenomena.

2. Model and results

2.1. Characterization of tissue deformation dynamics: deformation map and deformation gradient tensor

Mathematically, the global deformation of organ morphology is described by a map (Bonet and Wood, 2008; Marsden and Hughes, 1983),

$$\mathbf{x} = \phi(\mathbf{X}), \quad (1)$$

where \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{x} are positional vectors for each cell or each piece of tissue before and after deformation, respectively (Fig. 1A). In the following, we use the upper case for the coordinates and bases (including their suffixes) before deformation, and the lower case for them after deformation. The deformation gradient tensor

$$\mathbf{F} = \sum F_{iK} \mathbf{e}_i \otimes \mathbf{E}_K \quad (2)$$

includes all information about local tissue deformation around a focal location, where \mathbf{E}_K and \mathbf{e}_i are orthonormal bases before and after deformation, respectively (Fig. 1B) (see Appendix A about tensors). Using map ϕ , the components of \mathbf{F} are given as $F_{iK} = \partial \phi_i / \partial X_K$ (where X_K is the K -th component of \mathbf{X}). Intuitively, the tensor describes how a small circle (in a 2D scenario) or sphere (in a 3D scenario) surrounding the focal location deforms during a given time interval. Based on the right polar decomposition, \mathbf{F} is

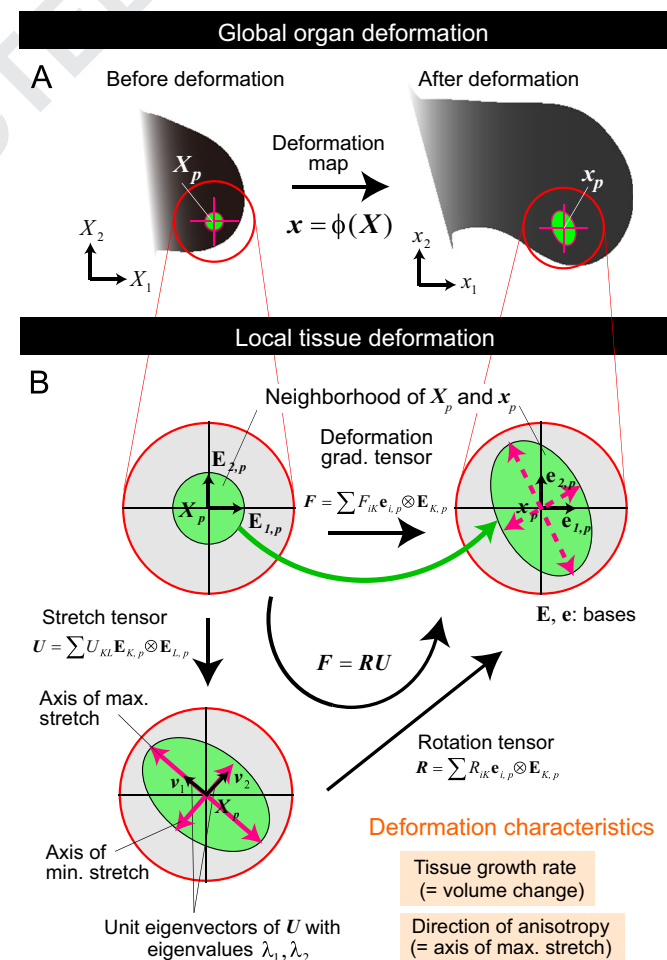


Fig. 1. Characterization of tissue deformation dynamics. (A) Global organ deformation is defined by map ϕ . (B) Local tissue deformation is defined by the deformation gradient tensor \mathbf{F} , whose components are calculated by using map ϕ . \mathbf{F} is decomposed into $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{U}$, where \mathbf{R} and \mathbf{U} are the rotation tensor and the right stretch tensor, respectively. Tissue growth rate and deformation anisotropy are two key characteristics (see the main text for details).

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