Laminin-defined Mechanical Status Modulates Retinal Pigment Epithelium Functionality

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ABSTRACT

Epithelial cells are highly interconnected, whereby they acquire mesoscale mechanical properties to accomplish specific tissue functions. In homeostasis, this mechanical status can be summarised as mechanical homeostasis, regulated by the balance of intercellular tension and extracellular matrix adhesion forces. In the outer retina, the significance of these forces in defining its mechanical homeostasis and consequences for vision remains poorly understood. The retinal pigmented epithelium (RPE) is located at the base of the retina and supports vision by ensuring the light sensitivity and lifespan of photoreceptor cells. Given the varying photoreceptor densities along the visual angle, this functional demand on the RPE varies from the most illuminated macula to the less illuminated retinal periphery and corresponds to a significant difference in monolayer organisation. In this work, we hypothesised that extracellular matrix cues define the relation between RPE organisation, mechanical status and functional capacity. We found that the density of basement membrane laminins modulates the level of RPE contractility, which directly controls the efficiency of the epithelium in phagocytosing photoreceptor outer segments. *In vivo*, the density gradient of laminin α5 and 332 follow retinal functional demand, thus supporting the physiological role of laminins in controlling RPE mechanical homeostasis. Our data suggest that laminin density and isoforms can differentially engage integrins β1 and β4, the ratio of which, in turn, determines the contribution of actin vs keratin cytoskeleton in balancing tissue mechanics. ECM-defined mechanical status of the RPE provides a novel parameter for visual function. It opens new paths of investigation and treatment for sight-threatening diseases such as high myopia and age-related macular degeneration.

The mechanical properties of any tissue define its function and state [1,2]. In a homeostatic state, these

mechanical features are maintained in a preferred range for optimal activity, also known as tissue

mechanical homeostasis [3]. One of the main players in defining the mechanical homeostasis of tissues

is its extracellular matrix (ECM) composition [4,5]. The most prominent ECM layer in the retina is the

Bruch's membrane that connects the choroidal vessels to the neural retina and the pigment epithelium

(RPE), altogether called as outer retina [6].

The RPE is a postmitotic cell monolayer is in direct contact with the light-detecting neural tissue. In the

developing eye, the RPE organises the retina [7,8], while in the adult, it plays a key role in the visual cycle

[9,10]. One of the main activities of each RPE cell is the daily phagocytosis of shed photoreceptors

fragments, therefore mediating the constant renewal of light-sensitive outer segments and ensuring

photoreceptor lifespan and light sensitivity [11–13]. The number of POS per RPE cells is not constant within

the eye, with an average of 25-30 POS per RPE cell in the central and macular area and decreasing

towards the periphery (~ 15 POS) [14], indicating a gradient of functional demand. RPE cells are

polygonal in shape and tightly adhere to each other; they arrange as a honeycomb-like structure in

the centre, which gradually shifts to a more elongated and less organised structure towards the retinal

periphery, suggesting a change in its mechanical status [15–17]. The RPE is tightly bound to its underlying

basement membrane, part of the more complex Bruch's membrane. The thickness of the Bruch's

membrane and its content of fibrillar collagens and elastin are known to vary from the centre to the

periphery [18,19]. Nevertheless, to date, it is still unclear how this affects overall mechanical properties of

the ECM and, more importantly, whether this regional variability is also present for RPE basement

membrane components. Furthermore, whether any relation exists between ECM heterogeneity and

RPE mechanical homeostasis is still an open question.

Here, we hypothesise that the spatial variation of Bruch's membrane cues controls the RPE mechanical

status and the region-dependent functional capacity. Our characterisation of the Bruch's membrane

composition in mice reveals a relative spatial density reduction of specific basement membrane

laminins towards the retinal periphery. The decreased density of laminin 511 and not laminin 332

reduces POS phagocytic efficiency in stem cell-derived RPE monolayers obtained on soft

polyacrylamide hydrogels. This is associated with increased RPE contractility, quantified by traction

force and monolayer stress microscopy. By varying the hydrogel's stiffness, coating, and cellular

actomyosin activity, we show that POS phagocytosis efficiency depends on the level of RPE

contractility. Finally, adhesion assay and flow cytometry data demonstrate that the higher contractility

status corresponds to a lower integrin β4/β1 ratio at low laminin 511 density. Changes in keratin

network organization *in vivo* support the presence of different epithelial mechanical status and suggest

spatial variations of integrin β4/β1 ratio, emphasising a pivotal role of keratin vs actin cytoskeleton

balance to maintain RPE mechanical homeostasis.

These findings underline for the first time the importance of mechanical homeostasis in RPE and, in

general, in the outer retina. The significance of RPE mechanical status for visual function in adults opens

the question of its role in ageing and sight-threatening diseases such as (high) myopia and age-related

macular degeneration. Finally, this study could incentivize a larger use of Rho kinase inhibitors,

currently used as anti-glaucoma medications, for other retinal diseases.

RESULTS

The Bruch's membrane presents biochemical heterogeneity correlating with different mechanical

status of the RPE.

To understand the possible relation of ECM biochemical and mechanical cues with RPE

mechanobiology, we characterised the Bruch's membrane of adult BALB/C mice (25-30 weeks) (Fig 1).

Bruch's membrane, retinal complexity and function have been described in relation to the sightline or

visual axis [14,17]. In both mice and humans, the central region (macula in humans) exhibits the highest

density of photoreceptor cells and the highest photoreceptor to RPE ratio. This ratio gradually

decreases with the radial distance from the optic nerve, signifying a reduction in RPE functional

demand [14]. Hence, we identified three regions with respect to the radial distance from the optic nerve:

centre (300-1200 μm), mid periphery (1200-2000 μm) and far periphery (2000-3000 μm) (Fig. 1 A). We

observed substantial alteration in the organisation of RPE cell along the radial distance (Fig. 1 A), which

is consistent with previous reports [15–17]. From a classic honeycomb arrangement in the centre, the RPE

gradually changes to a monolayer consisting of more elongated cells at the far periphery (Fig. 1 A; Sup

fig. 1 A, D) [15–17].

The topology and morphology of an epithelial monolayer define its mechanical properties [20–22]. Hence,

we performed morphometric characterisation of the RPE cells in the different regions of the retina

(Fig.1 B - D, sup. fig. 1 A - H). RPE cells have the largest area and perimeter in the central region (A =

469 μm^2; P = 84 μm), whereas they become smaller in the mid periphery (A = 349 μm^2; P = 74 μm) and

far periphery (A = 343 μm^2; P = 75 μm) (Sup. fig.1 F, G). Next, to better quantify the mechanical

consequences of the differential cell arrangement, we calculated the shape factor for each cell, defined

as the cell perimeter P divided by the square root of the corresponding cell area A. This density-

independent shape factor has been theorised to describe epithelial rigidity based on the balance

between cortical tension and cell-cell adhesion energy, with lower values where the first element is

more prominent [23]. Our data show an average value in the retinal central region of 3.8, which gradually

increases till reaching values over 4.0 at the far periphery. This implies a gradual increase of intercellular

tension, coinciding with the decreasing RPE functional demand (Fig. 1 B, C, sup. fig. 1 E) [14].
Additionally, the comparison of nuclear geometry in the central and far peripheral regions supports
the existence of different levels of intracellular strain (sup. fig. 1 I-K). Finally, we noticed the presence
of two distinct cell populations in the centre and mid-periphery, which are visible when cell area and
cell perimeter distributions are normalised and compared (Fig. 1 D, sup. fig. 1 H). Hence, we compared
the RPE topological relations across retinal regions by plotting the rescaled cell areas and perimeters
as a function of their number of neighbours (respectively Lewis' law [24–27] and Desh's law [28]) (Fig. 1 E,
sup. fig. 1 M). Both comparisons show different curve behaviour in the retinal regions, especially
evident between the centre and far periphery.

We then correlated the number of neighbours *(n)* of each cell and the average number of neighbours
m(n) of any adjacent cells to the first with *n* sides (Aboav-Weaire's laws) (Fig. 1 F) [29–31]. This relation
describes the topology of epithelial monolayers via the topological parameter *b(n)* (see method
section). The different regions show a linear relationship, as in any functional epithelium [22,29–31].
Nevertheless, a shift is visible between values, suggesting a topological variation of RPE from the
centre to the far periphery (Fig. 1 F, sup. fig. L). Altogether, the extensive image-based morphometric
and topological analyses (of more than 5500 cells from three mice) strongly support the existence of
different mechanical status in the monolayer from the retinal central region to the far periphery.

Figure 1: Spatial heterogeneity of murine retinal pigment epithelium topology and Bruch's membrane composition. (A) Murine retina flat mount indicating the regions used for analyses and representative F-actin staining of RPE. The regions were defined by the distance from the optic nerve head: centre (300 – 1200 µm), mid periphery (1200 – 2000 µm) and far periphery (2000 – 3000 µm). (B) Representative cell shape index maps for the three regions. The shape index is identified as the perimeter divided by the square root of the area for each cell. (C) Violin plot of mean RPE shape factors from the different regions of the eye analysed from 7 mice. (D) The probability density function (PDF) of the rescaled cell areas defined by $A_i/\langle A \rangle$, A_i being the individual cell area and $\langle A \rangle$ being the average cell area within a given image. More than 5500 cells were analysed from 3 mice. (E) Lewis' law representing the relationship between rescaled cell area and neighbourhood varying for three different regions from 3 mice. (F) Aboav-Weaire's laws showing the variation of the topological parameter b(n) depending on the number of neighbours for each cell between different retinal regions from 3 mice. (G) Violin plots of mean fluorescence intensity of interstitial matrix components of the Bruch's membrane. Data were collected from 3 mice and normalized to the highest intensity per mouse. (H) Violin plots of the regional Young's modulus of the Bruch's membrane from 5 mice. (I) Representative immunofluorescent images of the Bruch's membrane stained for laminin-332, laminin α5 and collagen type IV. Arrows and stars indicate RPE basement membrane surface and preparation artefacts respectively. Scale bar 20 µm. (J) Violin plots of mean fluorescence intensity of basement membrane components: laminin α2, laminin 332, laminin α5, pan-laminin, and collagen type IV. Each region contains the quantification of at least 7 sectors from a minimum of 3 to 6 mice. The data were statistically tested with Mann-Whitney test: *p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001; **** p < 0.0001; n.s. = not significant.

Next, we were curious to know whether the quantified mechanical gradient of RPE finds a correlation with the distribution of mechanical and biochemical cues within Bruch's membrane. In the epithelial ECM, mechanical cues are mostly determined by the composition and crosslinking density of the interstitial matrix [5]. Therefore, we use confocal microscopy and immunofluorescence staining to quantify the amount of collagen type I and elastin present in the Bruch's membrane. The average intensity quantification of the retina's central, mid peripheral, and far peripheral regions are comparable with the data reported in the literature [18,19] (Fig. 1 G). Next, we quantified the Young's modulus of the Bruch's membrane in different regions using atomic force microscopy (AFM) and indenting into the decellularised ECM by 200 nm. The quantification resulted in a highly variable distribution of the data, with the centre having the most frequent (mode) stiffness of 5.5 kPa, the mid periphery 1.5 kPa and the far periphery 4 kPa (Fig. 1 H). This biphasic stiffness trend suggests that ECM mechanical cues may not be the primary factor governing RPE mechanical homeostasis concerning functional demand.

From the biochemical point of view, the basement membrane provides cues to epithelia regulating its homeostasis with a key role of the different laminin isoforms [5]. Thus, we characterised the composition and relative amount of the main basement membrane components in the Bruch's membrane, namely laminins and collagen type IV (Fig. 1 I, J). Notably, we detected a significant change in the amount of laminin isoforms along the visual axis, whereas collagen type IV remained unchanged. This supports the idea of the importance of laminins in the differential biochemical signalling to the RPE. Among the laminin isoforms detected in Bruch's membrane, we noticed a biphasic trend for laminin α2-containing isoforms, with higher (fluorescence) intensity in the centre and far periphery and lower in the mid periphery. On the contrary, isoforms containing laminin 332 and laminin α5 were found to have the

highest (fluorescence) intensity in the centre and gradually decrease towards the periphery (Fig. 1 I, J).

No laminin α1- or α4-containing isoforms were detected.

Altogether, the characterisation of the murine retina suggests a possible relationship between the

relative density of Bruch's membrane's laminins and region-dependent RPE mechanical status.

Laminin 511 density influences RPE phagocytic efficiency of photoreceptor outer segments.

To dissect the hypothesis of a direct relation between biochemical cues from Bruch's membrane and

RPE mechanobiology, we established a bottom-up approach to scrutinize the role of the specific

laminin isoforms and their density gradient. Human induced pluripotent stem cell-derived RPE (hiPSC-

RPE) cells have already been successfully employed to model mature RPE and to study their

functionality [32,33]. Thus, we obtained RPE monolayers on polyacrylamide (PAA) hydrogels with 4 kPa

Young's modulus to best mimic Bruch's membrane stiffness. The gels were functionalised according

to Przybyla et al. [34] with specific concentrations of laminin, reaching saturation at a coating

concentration of around 20 µg/ml (Sup fig. 2G). The advantages of PAA gel as a culture substrate are

a defined stiffness (Youngs's modulus of the gel) and the protein-repellent nature of the polymer [35],

allowing control over the biochemical cues originating from the coating. Due to this reductionistic

approach, certain coating conditions were not permissive to obtain mature and intact RPE monolayers,

such as laminin 511 (composed by laminin α5, β1 and γ1) and collagen type IV alone or laminin 211

(composed by laminin α2, β1 and γ1) also in combination with collagen type IV (Sup. fig. 2 A - C).

Nevertheless, hiPSC-RPE cells adhere and form a mature monolayer when seeded on PAA gels coated

with different concentrations of laminin 332 and laminin 511, both in combination with collagen type

IV (Sup. Fig. 2 D). After a week of culture, hiPSC-RPE cells reach a low proliferative state and form a

thick polarised monolayer (~10 - 15 µm at the junctions) (Sup. fig. 3D), presenting apical microvilli as

shown by ezrin staining and scanning electron microscopy (Fig. 2 A – C). Furthermore, the staining for

fibronectin confirmed the absence of aberrant deposition of ECM proteins by the cells while cultured

(Sup. fig. 2 E).

Figure 2: Human-relevant in vitro system for characterisation retinal mechanobiology. hiPSC-derived RPE obtained on PAA gel with Young's modulus of 4 kPa coated with laminin 511 or laminin 332 in the presence of collagen type IV. After one week in culture, cells develop tight junctions (ZO-1) and apical microvilli (Ezrin) observed in a confocal cross section (A) and a scanning electron micrograph of the monolayer surface (B). (C) Orthogonal projection of hiPSC-derived RPE epithelium displays a polarised monolayer with microvilli localised at the apical side of the cells. (D) Cellular proliferation rate within 24 h obtained using EdU labelling assay for cells cultured on the PAA gel surface. Representative picture of the gel overview indicates the number of proliferating cells within one gel (left). The ratio of nuclei with incorporated EdU (per cent of proliferative cells) was quantified by the fluorescent signal in the central region of the gel to avoid possible edge effects (white circle). The data show average values ± SEM from at least 4 independent experiments. Statistic was performed using a mixed-effects model (REML) with the Geisser-Greenhouse correction, Tuckey's multiple comparisons test. (E) Schematic representation of the photoreceptor outer segment internalisation assay on one-week-old RPE monolayer. (F) Representative confocal images of the hiPSC-RPE cells on PAA hydrogel with laminin 511 or laminin 332 coating (in the presence of collagen type IV). The top row indicates FITC-labelled POS fragments at the apical surface of the cells. The middle row represents an optical section of the cell monolayer with POS fragments inside. The results of the POS phagocytosis assay are visible in the orthogonal projections (bottom row) where arrows and stars indicate bound and internalised POS respectively. (G) Average phagocytosis efficiency ± SEM for different laminin isoforms and their coating conditions from at least 4 independent experiments. The phagocytosis efficiency is defined as the amount of internalised POS divided by total POS. Statistical significance was tested using a mixed-effects model (REML) with the Geisser-Greenhouse correction, Tuckey's multiple comparisons test.

Considering that the observed *in vivo* density gradient of laminin α5 and 332 from the retinal centre
to the far periphery corresponds to the visual angle, we wondered if there is any direct relationship
between this density gradient and the ability of hiPSC-RPE to bind and phagocyte POS. Indeed, RPE
phagocytic load as a result of gradually changing photoreceptor density, naturally follows the visual
angle, decreasing from the centre towards the periphery [14]. Hence, we tested the ability of RPE
monolayers on PAA gels to bind and phagocyte POS fragments, which were isolated from porcine
eyes and fluorescently labelled with FITC (Fig. 2 E - G). The quantification shows that, overall, at high
laminin coating density (10 - 30 µg/ml) there is a comparable efficiency of phagocytosis between
laminin 332 and 511, whereas a divergence could be detected at the concentration of 5 µg/ml with
reduced efficiency of RPE on laminin 511 (~50 %) (Fig. 2 F, G).
In conclusion, hiPSC-RPE cells form a mature and functional monolayer on laminin 332 or 511 but not
on laminin 211 (with or without the addition of collagen type IV), excluding its major role in promoting
adhesion on Bruch's membrane for RPE. Furthermore, the phagocytosis assay revealed a reduction of
efficiency in internalising POS in RPE monolayers obtained with the lowest density of laminin 511.
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Laminin 511 density influences contractility levels in RPE monolayers.
The quantification of RPE cell organisation and topological analyses in the retina suggested a direct
relationship between laminin density in the basement membrane and monolayer mechanical status.
Hence, following the logic of a comparative approach between *in vivo* and *in vitro* systems, we
performed morphometric and topological analyses of the monolayers obtained on the different laminin
isoforms and densities (Fig. 3 A - C, sup. fig. 3 A - C). The calculation of the average cellular area,
perimeter, elongation and neighbourhood expresses a stable relationship among all laminin densities
and isoforms, excluding their direct role in controlling monolayer topology. Nevertheless, we
wondered if those parameters may affect monolayer contractile forces. Hence, we used traction force
and monolayer stress microscopy to quantify RPE cell-matrix traction forces and cell-cell stresses in
different conditions (Fig. 3 D - G). The quantifications revealed an overall ability of laminin 511 to
promote higher traction forces compared to laminin 332 (Fig. 3 D, E). Interestingly, as observed for
the phagocytosis efficiency, the highest difference of average traction force (170 Pa vs 80 Pa) was
recorded at the lowest laminin density (5 µg/ml) (Fig. 3 E). Next, we used the information on the traction
forces and monolayer height (Sup. fig. 3 D) to calculate intercellular normal stresses at the different
conditions as previously shown [36,37] (Fig. 3D - G). Similarly, we observed a significant difference in the
overall monolayer absolute stresses at the lowest coating density of laminins (5 µg/ml) with an average
of ~1 Pa for laminin 511 and 0.6 Pa for laminin 332 (Fig. 3 G). As expected, the stress vectors exhibit
an average close to 0 Pa for both coatings and densities, indicating that monolayers are nearly in

equilibrium despite the variations in absolute contractility (Fig. 3 F). The difference in traction and

stress at the lowest laminin 511 density might be caused by a gradual increase in cell adhesion to

collagen type IV, which remained constant across the conditions. We therefore tested the effect of

collagen type IV on monolayer traction forces using laminin 332 as a control since laminin 511 alone

does not support the formation of a monolayer (Sup. fig. 2 A). The quantification shows an overall

decrease (~ 40%) of traction in the presence of collagen type IV (Sup. fig. 2 F), clearly excluding the

role of collagen type IV for the observed increased traction at the lowest laminin 511 density.

Moreover, the clear distinction in traction between laminin 511 and laminin 332 strengthens the

conclusion that the observed changes are exclusively laminin-induced.

Finally, we wanted to understand if the coating density could generally impact RPE cell surface

stiffness, which may affect POS adhesion and phagocytosis. Therefore, we performed nanoindentation

of RPE cells within the monolayers using a spherical probe of approximately 10 µm radius and

quantified the average Effective Young's modulus of the monolayers (Fig. 3 H). The data show that

RPE monolayers on laminin 511 are stiffer (~1.5 kPa) compared to laminin 332 (~1 kPa) regardless of

the protein surface density, thus excluding the effect of cellular stiffness for POS phagocytosis

efficiency.

In conclusion, the biomechanical characterisation of our model clearly indicates a divergent effect of

the low density of laminin 511 versus laminin 332 on the overall RPE mechanical balance promoting

an increased contractility of the monolayer.

Figure 3: Laminin surface density affects the contractility of RPE monolayers. The morphometric analysis reveals the absence of significant difference in cellular mean area (A), mean perimeter (B) and mean elongation (C) between different laminin isoforms and densities from 3 independent experiments. (D) Representative traction force and monolayer stress profiles for different coating conditions and their quantifications (E, F and G) show a significant increase in contractility of RPE monolayers at the lowest laminin 511 density. (H) Quantification of the effective Young's modulus of the apical side of monolayer in different conditions. Data are shown as average ± SEM from at least 4 independent experiments. Statistical analyses were performed using a mixed-effects model (REML) with the Geisser-Greenhouse correction, Tuckey's multiple comparisons test.

Overall monolayer traction force modulates RPE functionality.

Epithelial contractility levels have been shown to directly influence tissue functionality and reactivity [36–

43]. Thus, we asked ourselves whether the efficiency of RPE to phagocyte POS is generally affected by

the level of monolayer traction forces independently of the biochemical nature of ECM adhesion, i.e.,

laminin isoforms or density. To systematically adjust the traction force, we decided to tune either the

ECM physical cues (i.e., hydrogel stiffness) or the biochemical nature of adhesion (i.e., laminins vs

vitronectin) (Fig. 4 A). We then assessed the RPE efficiency in internalising POS by comparing it with

the maximum efficiency observed in RPE on laminins.

First, we obtained RPE monolayers on stiffer hydrogels (18 kPa) coated with laminin 511 or 332 (20

µg/ml) in the presence of collagen type IV (30 µg/ml), which developed a significantly increased

traction force compared to the one on 4kPa (~140 Pa and ~170 Pa respectively). This corresponded

to a reduced efficiency of these monolayers for POS internalisation (~ 40%) (Fig. 4 B - D left). Second,

we measured the phagocytic activity and traction forces of monolayers obtained on 4 kPa hydrogels

coated with a high concentration of vitronectin (250 µg/ml) to match the protein surface density of

laminins. Also in this case, the analyses revealed a higher average traction force (~ 200 Pa) which

corresponded to a reduced ability of RPE to internalise POS (~ 36%) (Fig. 4 B - D right).

To distinguish the exclusive role of cellular contractility from the possible converging effects of ECM

signalling, we inhibited or increased actomyosin contractility in RPE monolayers using a ROCK inhibitor

or a RhoA activator (Fig. 4 E - G). The reduction of contractility was performed on RPE monolayers

cultured on soft (4 kPa) surfaces coated with collagen type IV (30 µg/ml) with little addition of laminins

(2.5 µg/ml) which showed *per se* a low activity for POS phagocytosis (~ 50%). On the other hand, the

increase of contractility was induced in RPE on high-density laminins (20 µg/ml) in the presence of

collagen type IV. As expected, the drug treatments affected the ability of RPE to develop traction

forces with reduced traction after ROCK inhibitor treatment and increased after RhoA activation (Fig.

4 E, G top). Moreover, the quantification revealed a direct connection between actomyosin contractility

and monolayer efficiency in POS phagocytosis. Independently of the laminin type, RPE phagocytic

efficiency increased after ROCK inhibitor treatment (from ~50% to ~70%) and decreased after RhoA

activator treatment (from ~70% to ~50%) (Fig. 4 F, G bottom).

Overall, these data show the direct influence of RPE contractility on its ability to phagocyte POS.

Surprisingly, this effect is independent of the nature of adhesion and thus can be influenced by both

biochemical and physical ECM cues.

*Figure 4: Overall monolayer contractility modulates the cellular functionality. **(A)** Schematic representation of the experimental strategy to modulate monolayer contractility. Quantification of mean traction forces **(B)** and phagocytosis efficiency ±SEM **(C)** in RPE upon different ECM physical (stiffness) and biochemical cues (coating). **(D)** Representative traction force plots and immunofluorescent images of POS internalisation assay upon different physical or biochemical cues. PAA gels were coated with laminin 511 (LN 511) or laminin 332 (LN 332) (in the presence of collagen type IV) or with vitronectin (VN). ****p<0.0001 using mixed-effects model (REML) with the Geisser-Greenhouse correction, Tuckey's multiple comparisons test (physical cues) and Mann-Whitney test (biochemical cues). Drug treatment, affecting actomyosin contractility levels, using ROCK inhibitor and RhoA activator shows inverse dependence between the level of monolayer contractility (traction forces) **(E)** and its ability to phagocyte POS fragments **(F)**. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. ****p<0.0001 using mixed-effects model (REML) with the Geisser-Greenhouse correction, Tuckey's multiple comparisons paired test. **(G)** Representative traction force plots and immunofluorescent images of POS internalisation assay upon drug treatment.*

Integrin β4/β1 ratio and keratin network organisation modulate RPE mechanical homeostasis.

Epithelial cells in homeostasis mechanically couple their cytoskeleton to their basement membrane via

integrin receptors [5,44]. Intracellularly, integrin β1 subtypes interface with the actin cytoskeleton via talin,

whereas integrin α6β4 binds via plectin the keratin network[45]. Extracellularly, integrins β1 and β4 bind

with a redundant number of proteins, including laminins α3 and α5 chains [46,47]. Therefore, we

wondered why low densities of laminin 332 or 511 differently promote integrin-based adhesion in RPE,

thus influencing traction forces and consequent functional differences. Hence, we performed a

functional adhesion assay using blocking antibodies to address the engagement of specific integrin

subtypes on laminin-coated hydrogels (Fig. 5 A). Blocking the different beta chains (i.e., β1, β4, and

[αv] β3) resulted in a significant reduction of adhesion for β1 (LN 511 ~62% and LN332 ~75%) and no

significant effect in the case of β4 and αvβ3 integrins. In the presence of integrin β4 blocking antibody,

a tendency of reduction was observed on laminin 332. Hence, to avoid the effect of compensation by β1 integrin, we concurrently blocked integrin β1 and β4, achieving nearly complete inhibition of RPE cell adhesion onto low-density laminin 332 (~94%) with no significant drop on laminin 511 (Fig. 5 A, left). A similar trend was also observed for integrin alpha chains, where a substantial reduction in adhesion occurred upon combining integrin α6- and α3-blocking antibodies, suggesting the predominant involvement of these two subtypes in adhesion process (Fig. 5 A, right).

Based on these findings, we stained target integrins on RPE cells detached from mature monolayers and analysed their relative surface presence during adhesion to the low-density laminin via flow cytometry (Fig. 5 B – E, sup. fig. 4). In line with the adhesion assay, the quantification revealed that cells adhering to the low-density laminin 511 present a significantly higher level of β1 integrin on their surface compared to cells adhering to laminin 332 (Fig. 5 B, C and supp. fig. 4 D). Instead, the levels of β4, α3 and α6 integrins were comparable between low-density laminin 511 and 332 (Fig. 5 D and sup. fig. 4 D - K). Furthermore, these results show that RPE cells adhering to low-density laminin 332 present a significantly higher ratio of integrin β4 to β1 compared to cells adhering to low-density laminin 511 (Fig. 5 E).

Altogether, these data indicate the main role of integrins α6β1 and α3β1 to support the adhesion to the low-density laminin 511 and integrins α6β1, α3β1, and α6β4 to low-density laminin 332.

The formation of hemidesmosomes has been shown to reduce cellular traction forces [48] and sensitivity of nuclear mechanotransduction [49] via their role in nucleation and organization of the keratin cytoskeleton [49,50]. Hence, encouraged by our *in vitro* findings, we were curious whether the different laminin densities in Bruch's membrane presented different keratin network organisations. Using keratin 8-YFP knock-in mice [51] we imaged and segmented the different keratin networks in 3D using a recently developed workflow [52] (Fig. 5 F - J). The analyses revealed that the keratin network gradually gets thinner (reduced brightness) (Fig. 5 H), looser (higher segment length) (Fig. 5 I) and less bend (less curved) (Fig. 5 J) from the centre to far periphery. This evidence supports the existence of a laminin-defined mechanical balance in RPE which gradually shifts to a less prominent keratin contribution and more contractile monolayer toward the retinal periphery (Fig. 6).

*Figure 5: Laminin density defines RPE mechanical balance via integrin β4/β1 ratio and keratin cytoskeleton organization. (A) Box and whisker plots of RPE cell adhesion percentage on low-density (5 µg/ml) laminin 332 or laminin 511-coated hydrogels, after incubation with integrin beta or alpha subunits blocking antibodies and control (cntr). * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001 ****p<0.0001 tested using a two-way ANOVA with Geisser-greenhouse and Tukey correction. Stars standing directly on the box and whisker show significance towards the control. (B) Representative flow cytometry histograms of the surface integrin β1 (top) and β4 (bottom) expression of RPE cell cultured for one week on low-density laminin 332 (light blue), laminin 511 (red), and unstained control (grey). (C, D, E) Box and whisker plots showing the distribution of intensity medians and the relative estimation plots from independent experiments for β1 and β4 integrins and their ratio. * p < 0.05 tested using paired t-test. (F, G) Representative images of RPE cells at different regions from YFP-keratin 8 mice and the resulting cinematic rendering of the keratin network. (H, I, L) Violin plots of normalized keratin brightness, mean segment length, and curvature in RPE from different retinal regions. * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01 and ****p<0.0001 tested using a one-way ANOVA. Data are from three independent mice.*

Figure 6: Schematic overview of RPE mechanical homeostasis. The summary figure illustrates the ECM-orchestrated changes in the retinal tissue, focusing on the impact of decreasing basement membrane laminin density, altering RPE mechanics, and diminishing photoreceptor density, thus, functional load as we move towards the retinal periphery. The schematic highlights the laminin-defined mechanical balance within the RPE, demonstrating a gradual transition towards reduced functional capacity at the periphery. This visual representation brings together the key elements of the paper, providing a comprehensive overview of the dynamic interplay between laminin density, RPE contractility, and its functional load across the retinal landscape.

DISCUSSION

Our findings demonstrate the unknown direct role of laminin density in regulating RPE functional

capacity through epithelial contractility and, thus, its mechanical homeostasis. For the first time, we

report the presence of a relative density gradient of specific laminin isoforms in the Bruch's membrane.

Bruch's membrane has the highest laminin content at the retinal centre, whereas at the far periphery,

the laminin 332 and α5-containing isoforms have the lowest density. This laminin density gradient

correlates with a gradual increase in RPE cellular shape factor with the lower laminin density

corresponding to more elongated cells. Furthermore, the topological analyses suggest a variation

along the visual axis. Cellular shape factor and cell-to-neighbourhood relationship directly correspond

to mechanical properties of the epithelial monolayers [20–22] and contractility [23,37,38]. Finally, the different

arrangements of the keratin network within the RPE imply that, towards the periphery, the actin

cytoskeleton has a more prominent contribution to the epithelial mechanical status. Altogether, this

evidence strongly indicates higher epithelial contractility at the far periphery compared to the centre.

Due to technical limitations for the direct *in vivo* quantification of mechanical properties and

contractility, we employed a complementary approach. Therefore, we established an *in vitro* model

using laminin-functionalized PAA gels and hiPSC-derived RPE cells. The stringent condition for ECM

availability and remodelling, created by the PAA gel, revealed a direct role of low-density laminin 511

in increasing RPE contractility (higher traction forces and monolayer stress) and reducing the epithelium

efficiency to phagocyte POS. Despite this increase in RPE contractility, there were no observed

alterations in cell shape or topology. This suggests that the monolayer topology and morphology *in*

vivo may be defined by the convergence of several factors. At the far periphery, RPE is anchored to

the ora serrata with complex intercellular connections [53]. In combination with monolayer contraction,

this possibly causes the observed topological variation. Moreover, our data rule out the exclusive role

of laminins in defining RPE monolayer organization or stiffness.

The effect of laminin α5 on cellular mechanics is not surprising. Laminin α5 containing isoforms have

been shown to enhance cell stiffness and support better shear stress mechanotransduction [54] and

intercellular tightness [55] in the endothelium. As shown for the epithelium, also RPE cells preferentially

adhere to this laminin by β1 integrins (i.e., α3β1 and α6β1 integrins). This is different from laminin 332,

which additionally supports RPE adhesion via α6β4 integrins, i.e., hemidesmosomes. The role of

hemidesmosomes in organizing the keratin network has long been recognised as crucial for the

mechanical integrity of epithelial tissues [56,57] and has been proposed to define their textile nature [44].

More recently, data from different labs have demonstrated that hemidesmosomes and the keratin

network reduce cellular traction force [48] and protect the nucleus from mechanical strain [49]. In agreement

with the tensegrity model, cellular mechanics is a balance of cytoskeleton-driven forces, where a

contractile actin cytoskeleton is counterbalanced by intermediate filaments [58–60]. Therefore, a higher

ratio of β4/ β1 integrins on RPE adhering to low-density laminin 332 could explain the quantified low

traction forces in contrast with low-density laminin 511, which promotes higher epithelial traction.

Similarly, a thinner and looser keratin network in RPE far periphery and elongated nuclei suggest a

higher contribution of the contractile actin cytoskeleton to tissue mechanics in this area. Nevertheless,

due to technical challenges, it remains an open question whether the relative amount of laminin

isoforms differ along the visual axis and whether the ratio between β4 integrins (hemidesmosomes)

and β1 integrins decreases with the distance from the optic nerve.

The fact that ECM density reduction increases epithelial traction has been previously proposed based

on the reduction of integrin β1 receptor engagement *in vitro* [36,61]. Here, for the first time, we show the

physiological relevance of this density and the importance of the β4/ β1 ratio for epithelial mechanics.

Future studies will need to focus on dissecting the relationship between laminin receptors' density and

their role in regulating epithelial mechanical homeostasis. This is particularly relevant for retinal ageing,

given the reported reduction in hemidesmosomal attachment sites in RPE [62].

A study on stem-cell derived RPE has previously shown that the organisation of the actin cytoskeleton

can predict the ability of differentiated cells to phagocyte POS [33]. Particularly, the presence of F-actin

stress fibres impaired the phagocytic activity of these cells. These data and our findings strongly

suggest that high contractility in RPE is detrimental to its homeostasis and function. RPE apical

microvilli interact with POS mostly via the Mer tyrosine kinase receptor (MerTK) and the integrin αvβ5

[63]. The activation of MerTK is thought to be involved in the inside-out activation of integrin αvβ5 with

the recruitment of talin, vinculin and interaction with F-actin [63]. These focal adhesion-like structures

have already been shown to mediate phagocytosis in macrophages and to be mechanosensitive [64].

Hence, the formation of this apical molecular clutch may be sensitive to the overall cellular contractility

defined by the ECM substrate and explains the lower efficiency of POS internalisation observed in this

work. Furthermore, the neural cell adhesion molecule (N-CAM) homophilic interaction between POS

and RPE may also be affected by increased RPE contractility affecting the bond lifetime, thus, binding

efficiency.

Overall, our work underlines the important role of RPE mechanobiology for outer retina physiology

and opens important questions about its role in retinal ageing. ECM remodelling while ageing may

affect cell adhesion and shift RPE mechanical homeostasis out of its optimal range, making it more

prone to phenotypical changes. Overcoming this threshold may cause sight-impairing diseases such

as (high) myopia and age-related macular degeneration. Moreover, the use of Rho kinase inhibitors,

as in glaucoma treatment [65,66], may be implemented to prevent the progression of RPE-specific

diseases. Undoubtedly, further studies will be necessary to elucidate to what extent RPE contractility

is involved in outer retina diseases.

CONTRIBUTIONS

J.D.R. conceived the project. A.N.K. and T.P. designed and performed all the experiments. I.D. and

F.S. helped in establishing hiPSC-derived RPE cell culture on PAA gels. F.S. supported the integrin

studies. T.Pr. supported image segmentations and analyses. T.H. performed and analysed AFM

experiments on decellularised Bruch's membrane. M.H. and A.S. contributed to morphometric

analyses and interpretation of RPE monolayers *in vivo* and *in vitro*. R.W. performed the segmentation

and analyses of the keratin network. R.L. provided keratin 8 - YFP mice and expertise on the keratin

network. J.D.R. and A.N.K. wrote the manuscript, and all authors discussed and commented on it.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This work was supported by a grant from the Interdisciplinary Centre for Clinical Research within the

Faculty of Medicine at the RWTH Aachen University and from the German Research Foundation - DFG

- (grant n° RU 337 2366/3-1). Furthermore, the authors acknowledge the support of the

Mechanobiology in Epithelial 3D Tissue Constructs (ME3T) graduate school (GRK 2415/363055819)

and the DWI – Leibniz-Institute for Interactive Materials. A.N.K is supported by the Add-on Fellowship

of the Joachim Herz Foundation. We acknowledge the help of the Flow Cytometry Facility, a core

facility of the Interdisciplinary Center for Clinical Research (IZKF) Aachen within the Faculty of Medicine

at RWTH Aachen University. We appreciate the technical support of Adam Breitscheidel in the graphic

design and Gloria's excellent help in imaging.

METHODS

Retina flat mount preparation. Retina flat mounts were prepared from BALB/c mice of 25-30 weeks

of age. After sacrifice, the eyes were enucleated and fixed with 2% (wt/vol) paraformaldehyde (PFA)

for 4 hours at 4°C rotating. To best visualize the RPE layer, the eyes were prepared as flat mounts

according to published protocol[67]. Briefly, the cornea, the iris and the lens were removed, and the

eyecup was cut into eight longitudinal slices to allow its spreading. Afterwards, the neurosensory retina

was gently detached exposing the RPE layer adhering to its ECM for fluorescent staining and imaging.

The animal care and sacrifice were conducted according to the German Animal Welfare Act (LANUV,

reference number 84- 02.04.2015.A190).

Atomic force microscopy of Bruch's membrane. Upon enucleation, murine eyes were freshly

dissected using cold phosphate-buffered saline without Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} (PBS$^{-/-}$) and containing protease

inhibitors as instructed by the manufacturer (Roche, 4693132001). Dissected eyes were denuded by

the RPE layer via incubation of the tissue for 60 minutes with 50 mM Tris–HCl buffer plus 20 mM

ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA), pH 7.4, followed by 20 minutes incubation in 50 mM Tris–

HCl buffer and two washes of 10 minutes with 1 M NaCl, pH 7.4. Each solution contained freshly added

cOmplete™, EDTA-free Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Roche, 4693132001). Next, the prepared eyes

were glued to a surface using Corning Cell-Tak Cell and Tissue Adhesive (Corning, 354240).

Cantilevers with a spherical colloidal tip of 6.62 µm diameter (Nano and More GmbH, CP-PNPS-SiO-

C-5) were used to indent 200 nm into the decellularised Bruch's membrane in different regions of the

eye. The experiments were performed in a Dimension Icon atomic force microscope (Bruker Co. USA).

Probes were calibrated using the thermal oscillation method, built into the software (Nanoscope 9.4).

Force distance curves were recorded with an approach and retraction speed of 1 μm/s, with a relative

maximal force set typically to 2 nN. The maximal range of the Z-piezo was set to 2.5 μm. All curves

were exported to ASCII files with the analysis software of the instrument. The approach part of the

curves was analysed using a custom-written script in Python (https://www.python.org) using the Hertz

model (equation (1)). The Poisson ratio was assumed to be $v = 0.3$. The last 40-50% of the data points

are fit to a line and subtracted as background.

$$F(\delta) = \frac{4}{3}\frac{E}{1-v^2}\sqrt{R}(\delta - \delta_0)^{3/2} \qquad (1)$$

The model fits the whole curve using a nonlinear fit (leastsq) from Scipy (https://www.scipy.org) finding

both Young's modulus and the contact point.

Immunofluorescence of retinal tissue. Fluorescent staining of retina flat mounts was performed as

follows. After fixation and dissection, the tissue was incubated for one hour in 1% bovine serum

albumin (BSA) (wt/vol) in PBS$^{-/-}$ containing 0.1% (vol/vol) Triton X-100, followed by overnight staining

at 4°C with primary antibodies or phalloidin dissolved in PBS$^{-/-}$ solution of 1% (wt/vol) BSA and 0.1%

(vol/vol) Triton X-100. Secondary antibodies were diluted in PBS$^{-/-}$-containing 0.1% (vol/vol) Triton X-

100 and incubated with the tissue at room temperature for two hours. Finally, the retinas were

incubated for 15 minutes with 5 μg/ml Hoechst 33342 (Thermo-Fischer Scientific, 62249) in PBS$^{-/-}$

before being mounted on glass slides with Mowiol mounting medium (Sigma-Aldrich). Primary and

secondary antibodies used in this work are listed in supplementary table 1.

Retinal extracellular matrix quantification. To quantify the relative amount of ECM protein in the

Bruch's membrane upon immunofluorescence staining, Z-stacks (0.5 μm optical slices) from the

different regions were obtained using a Zeiss LSM 710 (Carl Zeiss) confocal microscope using unified

illumination settings. The distance from the optic nerve was monitored using the automated stage of

the microscope and setting the optic nerve as an origin. Within the eye, Z-stacks for each region were

recorded per eight longitudinal slices, respectively. Mean fluorescent intensity in single optical sections

identified as BrM was measured using Fiji software (National Institutes of Health, USA). Manually

defined regions of interest (ROIs) were selected to avoid artefacts due to tissue tearing during

preparation (Fig. 1 I "stars"). Three to five ROIs were measured for each stack, and the fluorescence

intensity of all data was normalized to the highest measured value in the eye.

Keratin-8 network segmentation and characterization. Retinas for keratin-8 analysis were prepared

as flat mounts from homozygous keratin 8-YFP knock-in mice [51]. In each region (centre, mid periphery

and far periphery), z-stacks of six cells were recorded per animal using the Airyscan mode at a Zeiss

LSM 710 (Carl Zeiss), for a total of 54 analysed cells. To ensure the analysis of only individual cells, the

signal within individual cells was cropped from confluent monolayers using standard tools in Fiji. Cell

borders were manually defined for each z-slice and the cell exterior was set to a grey value of 0. The

obtained images were segmented and processed to obtain a keratin network model for each cell as

previously described [52] Finally, custom-made Matlab scripts were used to analyse the network

properties including brightness, segment length and curvature [52].

hiPSC-RPE culture. Differentiated hiPSC-RPE were purchased cryopreserved from FUJIFILM Cellular

Dynamics and after thawing, seeded in 24-well plates coated with 2.5 µg/ml Vitronectin XF (StemCell

Technologies, 07180) at a density of 1600-1800 cells/mm^2. Cells were cultured to confluence in a

humidified incubator at 37°C and 5% CO_2 and then, after detachment, reconstituted in

CELLBANKER 2® freezing media (Amsbio LLC, 11891) and kept in liquid nitrogen for future use. Cell

detachment for cryopreservation or experiments was achieved through 30 minutes of incubation with

5 mM EDTA in PBS without Ca^{+2} and Mg^{+2} (PBS$^{-/-}$) followed by TrypLE Express dissociation agent

(Gibco, 12605-010) for five minutes at 37°C. Prior to seeding, cells were centrifuged at 300 g for 5

minutes and resuspended in the media at the desired density. For the experiments, cells were thawed

again and cultured for up to two weeks until confluence before use. For seeding on polyacrylamide

hydrogels, cells were seeded at a density of 5000-6000 cells/mm^2, corresponding to the RPE density

in the human macula [15] and cultured for one week. Cells were cultured in hiPSC-RPE medium

composed of MEM α (Thermo Fisher, 12549-089), 5% (vol/vol) knock-out serum replacement (Gibco,

10828-028), 1% (vol/vol) N-2 supplement (Gibco, 17502-048), 55 nM hydrocortisone (Sigma-Aldrich,

H6909), 250 µg/ml taurine (Sigma, T0625), 14 pg/ml triiodo-L-thyronine (Sigma, T5516) and 25 µg/ml

gentamicin (Gibco, 15750-060). The medium was exchanged every second day.

Hydrogel preparation and functionalisation. To obtain flat hydrogel substrates, a mixture of 40%

acrylamide (Bio-Rad, 1610140) and 2% bis-acrylamide (Bio-Rad, 1610142) in distilled water was first

prepared. The following ratios of acrylamide / bis-acrylamide in the mixture were used to reach

different hydrogel Young's moduli quantified by nanoindentation: 5 % / 0.1 % (wt/vol) for 4 kPa and

10% / 0.07 % (wt /vol) for 18 kPa. Then, the mixture was combined with 0.5 % of (vol/vol) ammonium

persulfate (Sigma Aldrich, 248614, 10 % (wt/vol) stock solution in distilled water) and 0.05 % (vol/vol)

N`-tetramethylethylenediamine (TEMED) (Sigma Aldrich, 411019), and pipetted between

glutaraldehyde-activated glass bottom petri dishes (Cellvis, D35-20-0-N) and a hydrophobic glass

coverslip. If hydrogels were used for traction force microscopy, 1 µm yellow-green carboxylate-

modified polystyrene microbeads (Sigma, L4655) were included in the solution.

ECM proteins were crosslinked on the hydrogels' surface according to the protocol described by

Przybyla L. and colleagues [34]. Briefly, for functionalisation solution, we prepared stocks of 0.5 M HEPES

NaOH pH6 and 0.2% (wt/vol) bis-acrylamide in distilled water, 0.2 % (vol/vol) tetramethacrylate (Sigma,

408360) and 3% (wt/vol) hydroxy-4'-(2-hydroxyethoxy)-2-methylpropiophenone (Sigma, 410896) in

ethanol. Acrylic acid N-hydroxysuccinimide ester (Sigma, A8060) was initially dissolved in DMSO (10

mg/ml) and later reconstituted in 50% ethanol for the final concentration of 0.03 % (wt/vol). Calculating

0.5 ml solution per gel, we combined 216.65 µl of sterile water, 50 µl of 0.5 M HEPES NaOH pH 6,

32.5 µl of ethanol and 25 µl of bis-acrylamide and degassed under vacuum for 20 min. Then, 5 µl

tetramethacrylate, 4.165 µl hydroxy-4'-(2-hydroxyethoxy)-2-methylpropiophenone and 5 µl of ester in

161.65 µl of 50% ethanol were added to the degassed solution. The completed functionalization

solution was applied over the surface of hydrogels, previously partly dehydrated in a 70% ethanol

solution for 5 minutes, and the hydrogels were exposed for 10 minutes to ultraviolet light. After

sequential double washing with 25 mM HEPES buffer and PBS$^{-/-}$ for a total of 20 minutes, the gel

surface was incubated overnight at 4°C with the desired ECM protein solution. Human recombinant

laminin-511 (Biolamina, LN511-0202) and laminin-332 (Biolamina, LN332-0202) were prepared at the

desired concentration in PBS containing Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} (PBS$^{+/+}$) mixed with 30 µg/ml collagen type IV

(Sigma-Aldrich, M7027-100G). Vitronectin (StemCell Technologies, 07180) was used without dilution

at 250 µg/ml. Finally, the obtained hydrogels were sterilized by 30 min ultraviolet light irradiation

before their application as cell culture substrates.

To represent surface protein saturation, gels were chemically crosslinked and coated with laminin-511

at concentrations of 5, 10, 20 or 30 µg/ml along with collagen type IV (30 µg/ml) in PBS$^{+/+}$. After

overnight incubation at 4°C, gels were thoroughly washed with PBS$^{+/+}$ to remove unbound protein,

fixed with 2% PFA for 10 minutes at room temperature, blocked with 1% BSA and stained with primary

Anti-mouse laminin α5 (gift from Lydia Sorokin) and secondary Anti-mouse IgG AF594 (Invitrogen,

A11005). Between all steps, gels were washed with PBS$^{-/-}$ for at least 1h. Stained gels were imaged

with a 63x objective on ApoTome.2 Fluorescence Microscope (Carl Zeiss), with at least 10 regions per

gel. The average intensity of each image was measured using Fiji software, and the final results were

plotted in GraphPad Prism 10.

Immunofluorescence staining of hiPSC-RPE. Cells on hydrogels were first quickly washed with warm (~37 °C) PBS$^{+/+}$ then fixed with warm (~37 °C) 2% (wt/vol) PFA for 8 minutes at room temperature. After fixation, cells were permeabilized with 0.3% (vol/vol) Triton X-100 for 2 minutes and blocked with 1% (wt/vol) BSA for 30 minutes at room temperature. Primary antibodies or Phalloidin-iFluor 647 Reagent (Abcam, ab176759) in PBS containing 1% (wt/vol) BSA were incubated overnight at 4°C. The following day, secondary antibodies were diluted in a PBS solution containing DAPI (1 μg/ml, Invitrogen D1306) and incubated with the sample for 30 minutes at room temperature. Primary and secondary antibodies used in this work are listed in supplementary table 1. The samples were imaged in PBS solution to match the immersion type of the objective. Both stained retinas and cells were imaged using Plan-Apochromat 40x water immersion objective on Zeiss LSM 710 confocal microscope with Airyscan capability (Carl Zeiss).

Live staining. For live imaging of F-actin, hiPSC-RPE cells cultured on PAA gels were incubated with 500 nM of a fluorogenic F-actin probe SirActin (Spirochrome, SC001) containing medium for at least two hours before imaging. The samples were imaged using Plan-Apochromat 40x water immersion objective on Zeiss LSM 710 confocal microscope with Airyscan capability (Carl Zeiss). Orthogonal views from Z-stacks acquired via confocal live-imaging of F-actin (SirActin) were used to measure the average junctional height of cultured RPE monolayers using Fiji image processing package (National Institutes of Health, USA).

Morphometric and topology analyses. Microscopy images of RPE *in vivo* and *in vitro* were segmented using the cellpose software [68] (www.cellpose.org) applied on F-Actin micrographs. Segmented cells were imported into Fiji as ROIs and used to generate skeletonised images. The skeletonised images were then imported into custom-written MATLAB software [69]. Prior to analysis, the software removes 15 pixels on the sides of the images to remove poor mask definition by cellpose (Sup. fig. 1 B), and then applies a Gaussian filter with a standard deviation of 2 pixels (function "imgaussfilt") to correct the pixel connectivity on the masks provided by cellpose. Finally, the software extracts information about the cell morphology (cell area, perimeter, and elongation) and topology (cell neighbours) as previously described [69]. For these analyses, the cells at the edge of the picture were not considered to avoid any segmentation error (Sup. fig. 1 C). For *in vivo* images, in total, 24 images from 3 different mice have been analysed for the "centre" and "mid periphery" regions of the retina (8 images each) and 23 images for the "far periphery" region (8-8-7 images for the 3 mice respectively). This corresponds to a total cell number of 5575 cells for the centre, 7957 for the mid periphery and 7863

for the far periphery. For *in vitro* images, 71 images were analysed (at least 2 images per experiment).

Each image provided in between 86 and 312 cells. Because of segmentation error, to remove

unnaturally large cells, cells with a rescaled area (see below) higher than 2, and cells with a

neighbourhood larger than 10 cells have been removed from the analysis. The number of cells per

condition is summarised in supplementary table 2. To build both Lewis' and Desh' law, data were

separated with respect to their number of neighbours and binned in different classes before being

averaged. To build Aboav-Weaire's law, the cells at the images' edge were removed, since their

neighbourhood is not defined. For that, the neighbourhood of each cell is reconstructed to determine

the average position of the collection of neighbours. If the distance between their average position

and the central cells is less than 30 px, the central cell is assumed to be in the bulk of the image and

not on the border of the image. To plot Aboav-Weaire's law, we computed b(n) defined in (2).

$$b(n) = (n - 6)\mu_{m(n)} - \sigma_n^2 \qquad\qquad (2)$$

where $\mu_{m(n)}$ is the mean size of the neighbourhood among the neighbours, and σ_n^2 is the central second

moment of the distribution of neighbours, i.e., its variance. Such distribution is taken for a given mouse,

not among different mice. Data from the different mice are average together with a ponderation

proportional to the total number of cells making the statistics.

Scanning Electron Microscopy (Critical Point Drying). After a week in culture on a polyacrylamide gel

with the defined coating, hiPSC-RPE were fixed in 3% glutaraldehyde (Agar scientific, Wetzlar,

Germany) for 4 h at 4°C followed by a washing in 0.1 M Soerensen's Phosphate Buffer (Merck,

Darmstadt, Germany). The dehydrating step was performed in the ascending alcohol series with 10

minutes duration each. The samples were sequentially immersed in the following solutions: 30%

ethanol, 50% ethanol, 70% ethanol, 90% ethanol, and three times in 100% ethanol. Critical Point

Drying was performed in liquid CO_2. Prior to imaging, cell monolayers were coated with 10 nm

gold/palladium layer.

Proliferation assay. Levels of proliferation in hiPSC-RPE monolayers were assessed using a

proliferation assay kit Click-iT EdU (Thermo Fisher, C10337). Cells were incubated with a 1:1 mixture

of cell culture supernatant and 5-Ethinyl-2'-Desoxyuridin (EdU) (20 µM) containing hiPSC-RPE cell

culture medium for 24 h. Final EdU concentration in the mixture was 10 µM. Afterwards, cells were

fixed as described for immunofluorescent labelling and processed according to the manufacturer's

instructions. As EdU incorporates into newly synthesized DNA, proliferating cells were identified as

having their nucleus positively stained with EdU-Alexa Fluor 488. The total area of the gel was imaged

on Axio Observer 7 (Carl Zeiss) microscope as an overview using the tiles option. The ratio of

proliferating cells was calculated in comparison with DAPI-positive nuclei and quantified using the

particle analysis plugin of Fiji software (National Institutes of Health, USA).

Photoreceptor outer segment internalisation assay. Photoreceptor outer segments (POS) were

isolated in batches from porcine eyes from a local slaughterhouse as previously described [70]. Briefly,

the eyes were dissected using a red safelight lamp as the only illumination source, and the neural retina

was collected. After retinal mechanical homogenisation, POS were isolated via ultracentrifugation in a

sucrose gradient. Thereafter, POS were labelled with 2.5 mg/ml FITC dye (Thermo Fisher, F1906),

resuspended in DMEM (Thermo Fisher, 31331-028) containing 2.5% sucrose and stored in aliquots at

-80 °C for future use. For internalisation assay, POS aliquots were thawed in a water bath, washed with

medium, centrifuged at 2300g for 5 min and resuspended in hiPSC-RPE cell medium to an amount of

roughly 10 POS per RPE cell in culture. Human MGF-E8 protein (R&D Systems, 2767-MF-050) and

human protein-S (Coachrom, pp012A) were added at respectively 2.4 µg/ml and 2 µg/ml to aid the

internalisation. Next, hiPSC-RPE monolayers were washed twice with warm media and incubated for

four hours at 37°C with the prepared mixture at a density of approximately ten POS per cell. After

incubation, the monolayers were gently washed four times with warm PBS$^{+/+}$ and fixed for fluorescence

staining as described. Phagocytosis efficiency was calculated as projected area of internalised POS

divided by the total projected POS area in the same field of view. Internalised POS were identified in

orthogonal views from confocal optical sections (0.5 µm) by using F-actin staining to distinguish

between apical-bound and internalised segments. Analyses were automatised with the particle

analyses plugin of Fiji software (National Institutes of Health, USA) after applying a binary mask on the

images.

Traction force and monolayer stress microscopy. Traction force quantification and monolayer stress

calculations were performed as previously described [36,37]. Briefly, a week-old monolayer cultured on a

PAA gel substrate containing fluorescent beads was imaged using Axio Observer 7 (Carl Zeiss)

microscope for the beads signal. Then, the monolayer was detached with 0.5% SDS solution in PBS$^{-/-}$

followed by washing steps and 20 minutes of gel incubation in cell media to prevent gel shrinkage due

to the solvent change. The positions of the fluorescent beads in the hydrogel after the cell detachment

(relaxed state of the gel) were compared with the tense gel before, and beads displacement vectors

were calculated using the particle image velocimetry (PIV) plugin of Fiji (National Institutes of Health,

USA). Traction forces were calculated from these vectors using the Fourier transform traction cytometry

plugin (FTTC) of Fiji (National Institutes of Health, USA). Next, based on the traction force information,

average normal stress vectors were calculated using a force balance algorithm in MATLAB (MathWorks)

as formulated elsewhere [36,37]. For each measured sample, the average cell height was calculated using

a live actin staining (SirActin, Spirochrome) to correctly input the force balance algorithm.

Stiffness measurements of hiPSC-RPE monolayers. Measurements were performed using a Chiaro

Nanoindenter System (Optics 11 Life) mounted on Zeiss Axio Observer 7 (Carl Zeiss) with an

environmental chamber sustaining 37°C. A probe of 10 µm radius and 0.025 N/m stiffness (Optics 11

Life) was used and the indentation was performed in Displacement control mode, indenting 10 µm

into the cells monolayer. Approach curves were fitted via the DataViewer V2.4.0 software (Optics 11

Life) using a Hertzian contact model according to a set indentation depth from 0 to 3 µm for the apical

stiffness. A Poisson's ratio of 0.5 was used and a maximum load of 30% was allowed for setting the

contact point. Only results from well fitted data ($R^2 > 0.95$) were considered for statistics.

Drug experiments. For activation of the RhoA-dependent pathways, we incubated RPE monolayers

with Rho activator II (Cytoskeleton, CN03-A) and Rho kinase (ROCK) inhibitor Y-27632 (Sigma Aldrich,

Y0503) (https://doi.org/10.3390/cells10081927). Briefly, the one-week-old RPE monolayers on a

hydrogel coated with high laminin density (20 µg/ml) were treated with Rho activator II (1 µg/ml)

containing media for 3 hours prior to POS phagocytosis assay or traction force measurements to

promote the actomyosin contractility, or with an equal volume of water as a solvent control. To reduce

the actomyosin contractility at low laminin surface density (2.5 µg/ml), ROCK inhibitor (25 µM) was

added to the media one hour prior the POS phagocytosis assay or traction force measurements. An

equal volume of DMSO was used as a solvent control. Further analysis was performed as described in

the relevant chapters.

Adhesion assay. For cell adhesion assay, a confluent monolayer of hiPSC-RPE cells cultured in a 24-

well plate was detached with 30 minutes incubation of 750µl of 5 mM EDTA in PBS$^{-/-}$ without enzymatic

treatment to prevent unwanted receptor cleavage. Cells were gently washed with an additional 750 µl

of EDTA in PBS$^{-/-}$ and the whole solution was transferred into the 15 ml Falcon tube. After cell counting,

the suspension was centrifuged at 300 g for 5 minutes. The pellet was resuspended in ice-cold media

in half the volume required for the experiment and transferred to low protein binding tubes. Ice-cold

media should contain 20 µg/ml blocking antibody for blocking experiments. After 15 minutes of

incubation on ice, the cell suspension was diluted (1:2) with the equivalent volume of warm media and

immediately transferred onto the hydrogel surface. After 15 minutes at 37°C and 5% CO_2, hydrogel

surfaces were gently washed with warm PBS$^{+/+}$ to remove not attached cells, fixed with 2% PFA at

room temperature for 8 minutes, and stained for F-Actin (Phalloidin-iFluor 488 Reagent, Abcam -

ab176753) for analysis. The number of attached cells was quantified using the particle analysis plugin

in Fiji software and normalised to the mean of control samples to convert as a percentage of adhesion.

The following azide-free blocking antibodies were used: integrin β1 (clone P5D2) (Santa Cruz, sc-13590

L), integrin β4 (clone ASC-8) (Merk, MAB2059Z), integrin αvβ3 (clone LM609) (Merk, MAB1976Z),

integrin α3 (clone P1B5) (Merk, MAB1952Z), integrin α5 (clone P1D6) (Merk, MAB1956Z), integrin α6

(clone GOH3) (Santa Cruz, sc-19622 L).

Flow cytometry. One-week-old hiPSC-RPE cells were carefully detached from the hydrogel substrate

by incubation with 10 mM EDTA in PBS$^{-/-}$ at 37°C and 5% CO_2 for 30 minutes, followed by Accutase

solution (Sigma Aldrich, A6964) for 15 minutes. During this period, gentle shaking was beneficial for

detachment. Cells were gently washed from the surface with an additional 1 ml of EDTA in PBS$^{-/-}$,

transferred into the 15 ml tube and centrifuged for 5 minutes at 300 g. After centrifugation, cells were

dispersed in ice-cold PBS$^{-/-}$ and divided into two separate tubes: one will contain the whole antibody

panel, and another will be stained for β4 integrin alone. For the first tube, the viability staining with

LIVE/DEAD™ Fixable Near IR(780) Viability Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, L34992) was performed

during the 15-minute incubation on ice protected from the light. After centrifugation at 300 g for 4

minutes, cells were fixed with 1 ml of 1% PFA for 5 minutes on ice and resuspended in 100 µl of PBS$^{-/-}$

containing 3% BSA and 5 mM EDTA (FACS buffer) for 6 minutes centrifugation at 300 g. Fluorescently

conjugated antibodies (see table 1) were added according to the manufacturer's instructions and

incubated with cells for 45 minutes on ice protected from the light. After washing, cells were

resuspended in 400 µl of the FACS buffer and filtered using the Flowmi(R) Cell Strainer (MERK,

BAH136800040) directly into the flow cytometry tube for the measurements. Stained cells were

analysed using a BD LSRFortessa flow cytometer equipped with 405, 488, 561 and 640 nm lasers.

Analysis of the data was carried out using the FlowJo software.

Statistics. Statistical analysis was performed using Prism (GraphPad). Data were tested for normality

before proceeding to further statistical analyses. Sample conditions and the specific test used for

each data set are indicated in corresponding figure captions.

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Supplementary figure 1: Murine RPE represents spatially different monolayer organisation. (A) Representative confocal images of RPE stained for F-actin (top row) and post-processed binary images obtained by skeletisation used for the morphometric characterisation upon segmentation (bottom row). Scale bar 100 μm. (B) Representative segmentation artefacts generated with Cellpose at the image edge. (C) The resulting cells (blue) and neighbourhood (red) considered in the analyses. Probability density function (PDF) of cell elongation (D) and cell shape factor (E) for different retinal regions. The average cellular area (F) and perimeter (G) shown with mean value and standard deviation for each region, respectively. (H) PDF of the rescaled cell perimeters defined as $P_i/\sqrt{<A>}$, Pi being the individual cell perimeter. Nuclear geometric parameters such as roundness (I), circularity (J) and elliptical aspect ratio (K) show significant difference for cells from centre versus far periphery. Topological characteristics of the RPE monolayer such as PDF of cell neighbourhood (L) and Desh's law (M) representing the relationship between cellular perimeter and shape varying for three different regions. All data were collected from at least 3 mice.

781   *Supplementary figure 1: Protein composition of polyacrylamide gel surface coating is crucial for cell adhesion strength. Representative overview images of colonies hiPSC-RPE cells seeded on 4 kPa polyacrylamide gel coated with different concentrations of laminin 511 (A) and laminin 221 combined with collagen type IV (30 µg/ml) (B) and pure collagen type IV (20 µg/ml) (C) indicating the insufficient cellular adhesion and monolayer formation in contrast to standard experimental conditions (D). Scale bar 500 µm. (E) Immunofluorescent images of the laminin 511 coated gel surface stained for ECM proteins show the absence of fibronectin protein deposition after one week in cellular culture. Top row represents the signal from laminin α5 (red) and fibronectin (green) at the basal surface and within the monolayer. Fibronectin signal appears to be intracellular as shown in the side view of the monolayer. (F) The presence of collagen type IV in the laminin 332 containing coating solution decreases the traction forces exerted by cells. This difference becomes less significant at lower laminin concentration. (G) Line graph of the mean fluorescent intensity of the hydrogel surface fixed and stained with laminin α5 antibody right after chemical crosslinking with different concentrations of laminin 511 combined with collagen type IV (30 µg/ml). This relation indicates correlation between laminin concentration and surface density. Each line represents individual dilution series, images were taken from 10 different areas of the gel. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. ***p=0.0004 for the protein effect using mixed-effects model (REML) with the Geisser-Greenhouse correction and Tuckey's multiple comparisons test (F, G).*

Supplementary figure 2: Structure and topological stability of RPE in vitro. *Representative confocal images of one-week cultured hiPSC-RPE monolayers on 4 kPa PAA gels coated with different concentrations of laminin 511* **(A)** *or laminin 332* **(B)** *both in presence of collagen type IV (30 µg/ml). The top row represents the actin cytoskeleton network in the stained samples and the bottom row shows segmented images used for morphometric analysis.* **(C)** *Probabilities of the cellular neighbourhood (ρ_n) from 4 (ρ_4) "squares" to 8 (ρ_8) "octagon" indicating the stable neighbourhood environment regardless of the protein surface concentration. Data are from 3 independent experiments with 3 independent fields of view in each experiment.* **(D)** *Average cell height measured at the adherence junction levels. Measurements are means from at least three independent experiments ± SEM.*

Supplementary figure 4: Flow cytometry analysis of hiPSC-RPE cultured on polyacrylamide gels coated with 5 µg/ml of laminin 511 or laminin 332. Representative dot plots showing the gating strategy to identify cells (A), single cells (B), contour plot to extract a population of single living cells (C) and gating strategy for β4-positive cells (D). (E) Box and whisker plots of the mean intensity of integrin β1 and integrin β4 staining (left) and corresponding estimation plots (right) acquired from flow cytometry data. (F) Box and whisker (left) and estimation (right) plots showing the ratio between mean intensity of integrin β4 and integrin β1 staining. Representative histograms of flow cytometry analysis, box and whisker plots of median and mean fluorescent intensity and corresponding estimation plots of staining for APC-A-conjugated integrin α3 (G, H and I) and BV421-conjugated integrin α6 (J, K and L). The grey-coloured histogram represents the signal from unstained cells. Statistical analysis was done using a paired t-test to compare results between laminin 511 and laminin 332 coatings.

785   *Table 1: List of antibodies used in this work.*

Name	Origin	Source	Concentration (µg/ml) / Dilution
Primary antibodies			
Anti mouse laminin 111 (pan-Laminin)	rabbit	Gift from Lydia Sorokin	Rabbit serum, 1:2000
Anti mouse laminin α1 (clone 200)	rat	Gift from Lydia Sorokin	Hybridoma supernatant
Anti mouse laminin α2 (clone 4H8-2)	rat	Gift from Lydia Sorokin	Hybridoma supernatant
Anti human laminin 332	rabbit	Gift from Monique Aumailley	Rabbit serum, 1:2000
Anti mouse laminin α4	rabbit	Gift from Lydia Sorokin	Rabbit serum, 1:1000
Anti mouse laminin α5	rabbit	Gift from Lydia Sorokin	Rabbit serum, 1:1000
Anti mouse collagen type IV	mouse	Merck Millipore, AB756P	12.5
Anti mouse collagen type I	rabbit	Novusbio, NB600-408	5
Anti mouse elastin	rabbit	Abcam, ab21610	5
Phalloidin iFluor 647		Abcam, ab176753	1x
Phalloidin iFluor 488		Abcam, ab176759	1x
Ant human ZO-1	rabbit	Thermo Fisher, 61-7300	5
Anti human ezrin (clone 3C12)	mouse	Abcam, ab4069	20
Anti human fibronectin	rabbit	Sigma, F3648	2.5
Antibodies used for flow cytometry			
Integrin β1-PE (clone 12G10)	mouse	Santa Cruz, sc-59827 PE	1 mg per million cells
Integrin β4-Alexa Flour 488 (clone A9)	mouse	Santa Cruz, sc-13543 AF488	1 mg per million cells
Integrin α3-Alexa Flour 647 (clone P1B5)	mouse	Santa Cruz, sc-13545 AF647	1 mg per million cells
Integrin α6-Brilliant Violet 421 (clone GOH3)	rat	BioLegend, 313623	5 ml per million cells
Secondary antibodies			
Anti-mouse-IgG AF488	goat	Invitrogen, A11001	4
Anti-mouse-IgG AF594	goat	Invitrogen, A11005	4
Anti-mouse-IgG AF647	goat	Jackson/Dianova, 111-605-144	10
Anti-rabbit-IgG AF594	goat	Invitrogen, A11012	4
Anti-rabbit-IgG AF647	goat	Molecular Probes, A21235	10
Anti-rat-IgG AF555	goat	Invitrogen, A21434	4
Anti-rat-IgG AF647	goat	Thermo Fisher, A21247	10

786
787

788 *Table 2: Number of cells in vitro analysed for morphometric and topological parameters*

	Laminin 322			Laminin 511		
	Exp 1	Exp 2	Exp 3	Exp 1	Exp 2	Exp 3
5 µg/mL	440 (454)	638 (654)	715 (736)	606 (625)	686 (710)	727 (753)
10 µg/mL	479 (495)	697 (719)	654 (679)	547 (561)	575 (594)	396 (415)
20 µg/mL	627 (641)	683 (698)	608 (634)	559 (572)	831 (856)	480 (499)
30 µg/mL	529 (539)	325 (334)	637 (660)	513 (525)	710 (737)	759 (782)

789
790
791

A Contractility modification

Actin cytoskeleton
Actomyosin modulation
Protein coating — Biochemical cues
Polyacrylamide hydrogel — Physical cues

B

Traction Force (Pa)

Physical cues | Biochemical cues

****

****

****

Two-way ANOVA
Stiffness effect
P < 0.0001

Substrate stiffness (kPa) 4 18 | Protein coating LN 332 LN 511 VN

- LN 332
- LN 511
- VN

C

Phagocytosis Efficency (%)

Physical cues | Biochemical cues

****

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Two-way ANOVA
Stiffness effect
P < 0.0001

Substrate stiffness (kPa) 4 18 | Protein coating LN 332 LN 511 VN

D Laminin 511   Vitronectin

Traction Force (Pa) 500 — 0

Traction Force

Phase Contrast   4 kPa   18 kPa   4 kPa

F-Actin POS-FITC

Top

Middle

20 µm

Side

4 kPa   18 kPa   4 kPa

E

Traction Force (Pa)

ROCK inhibitor | RhoA activator

Two-way ANOVA
Treatment effect
P < 0.0001

Control ROCK inhibitor | Control RhoA activator

- Low LN 332
- High LN 332
- Low LN 511
- High LN 511

F

Phagocytosis Efficency (%)

ROCK inhibitor | RhoA activator

Two-way ANOVA
Treatment effect
P < 0.0001

Control ROCK inhibitor | Control RhoA activator

G Laminin 511 Low   Laminin 511 High

Control   ROCK inhibitor   Control   RhoA activator

F-Actin POS-FITC

Top

Middle

20 µm

Side

Control   ROCK inhibitor   Control   RhoA activator