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 this force balance and its 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, the functional demand on the RPE varies from the most illuminated macula to the retinal periphery and corresponds to a significant difference in RPE homeostatic state. In this work, we hypothesised that extracellular matrix (ECM) cues define the relation between RPE 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 follows retinal functional demand, 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 determines the contribution of actin vs keratin cytoskeleton in balancing tissue mechanics. With this work, we suggest that the ECM-defined mechanical status of RPE is a novel parameter for visual function, opening 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].

In the retina, the most prominent ECM structure is the Bruch's membrane, situated at its outermost part, also known as outer retina [6]. The Bruch's membrane favours nutrient exchange between the choroid vessels and the retina and distally provides structural support and adhesion to the retinal pigment epithelium (RPE). The RPE is a postmitotic cell monolayer which directly interfaces 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 RPE cells is the daily phagocytosis of shed photoreceptor cell fragments, therefore mediating the constant renewal of their light-sensitive outer segments and ensuring photoreceptor lifespan and light sensitivity [11–13]. The number of photoreceptor outer segments (POS) per RPE cell 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, which suggests a change in its mechanical status [15–17].

Although the Bruch's membrane is known to spatially vary along the visual axis [6], it remains an open question how this influences RPE mechanical homeostasis. Here, we hypothesise that the spatial variation of Bruch's membrane cues controls RPE mechanical status and region-dependent functional capacity.

In this work, we find that the relative density of laminin 511 and 332 defines the level of RPE contractility, which directly controls its functional capacity. At low density, laminin 511 promotes high contractility in RPE, which differs from laminin 332 due to a lower integrin β4 vs β1 engagement. In vivo, we find that the density gradient of these laminin isoforms corresponds to changes in RPE mechanical status and functional demand.

These findings for the first time underline 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

Mechanical status of the RPE correlates with biochemical heterogeneity of Bruch's membrane.

To understand the possible relation between RPE mechanical status and Bruch's membrane biochemical and mechanical cues, we characterised the outer retina of adult BALB/C mice (25-30 weeks) (Fig 1). Bruch's membrane, retinal complexity and function have been described in relation to the 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 visual axis, 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 difference in the organisation of RPE cells along the radial distance (Fig. 1 A), 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 [18–20]. Hence, we performed morphometric characterisation of 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 ($\langle A \rangle$ = 469 μm^2; $\langle P \rangle$ = 84 μm), whereas they become smaller towards the mid periphery ($\langle A \rangle$ = 349 μm^2; $\langle P \rangle$ = 74 μm) and far periphery ($\langle A \rangle$ = 343 μm^2; $\langle P \rangle$ = 75 μm) (Sup. fig.1 F, G). Next, to better quantify the mechanics of this 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 [21]. 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 the cellular nuclear geometry shows a reduced roundness and circularity corresponding to a higher aspect ratio towards the far periphery, supporting 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, visible when cell area and cell perimeter distributions are normalised and compared (Fig. 1 D, sup. fig. 1 H). Hence, we compared the topological relations of RPE cells across retinal regions by plotting the rescaled cell areas and perimeters as a function of the number of neighbours (respectively Lewis' law [22–25] and Desh's law [26]) (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.

To gain further insight into monolayer topology, 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) [27–29]. This relation describes the mean number of neighbours that

neighbouring cells have via the topological parameter *b(n)* (see method section). The different regions

show a linear relationship, as in any functional epithelium [20,27–29]. 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 – see method section) strongly support the existence of different

mechanical status in the monolayer from the retinal central region to the far periphery.

Next, we quantified the distribution of mechanical and biochemical cues within the 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 used confocal microscopy and immunofluorescence

staining to quantify the amount of collagen type I and elastin present in the Bruch's membrane. The

average fluorescence intensity quantification of the retina's central, mid peripheral, and far peripheral

regions are comparable with the data reported in the literature [30,31] (Fig. 1 G). Furthermore, we

measured 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 difference 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. Laminin 332 and isoforms containing laminin α5 had the highest (fluorescence) intensity in

the centre that gradually diminished towards the periphery (Fig. 1 I, J), following photoreceptor

density and functional demand. No laminin α1- or α4-containing isoforms were detected.

Altogether, the characterisation of the murine outer 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 contractility levels in RPE monolayers.

The characterization of RPE cell topology and morphology in the retina suggested a relationship

between laminin density in the basement membrane and monolayer mechanical status. To dissect the

nature of this relationship, 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]. Hence, we used hiPSC-RPE cells to obtain monolayers on polyacrylamide (PAA)

hydrogels with 4 kPa Young's modulus to best mimic Bruch's membrane stiffness. hiPSC-RPE cells

adhere and form a mature monolayer when seeded on PAA gels coated with different concentrations

of laminin 511 (composed by laminin α5, β1 and γ1) and laminin 332, both in combination with collagen

type IV (Sup. fig. 2 A). After a week of culture, hiPSC-RPE cells reach a low proliferative state (less than

8% in 24h) and form a thick polarised monolayer (~10 - 15 µm at the junctions), presenting apical

microvilli as shown by ezrin staining and scanning electron microscopy (Fig. 2 A – D, sup. fig. 2 B). The

gels were functionalised according to the method described in Przybyla et al. [34] with specific

concentrations of laminin, reaching saturation at a coating concentration of around 20 µg/ml (Sup fig.

2 C). The advantages of PAA gel as a culture substrate are its 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. In fact, the staining for fibronectin confirmed the absence of aberrant

deposition of ECM proteins by the cells while cultured (Sup. fig. 2 D). Due to this reductionistic

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

such as laminin 511 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, E and F). In conclusion, this reductionistic

approach suggests that mainly laminin 511 and 332, but not laminin 211, support RPE adhesion *in*

vivo.

Next, 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. 2 E - G, sup. fig. 3 A - C). The calculation of the average cellular area,

perimeter, elongation and neighbourhood revealed a stable relationship among all laminin densities

and isoforms, excluding their direct role in controlling monolayer morphology and topology.

Nevertheless, we wondered if those laminin coatings may affect contractile forces of the monolayer.

We used traction force and monolayer stress microscopy to quantify RPE cell-matrix traction forces

and cell-cell stresses in different conditions (Fig. 2 H - K). The quantifications revealed an overall ability

of laminin 511 to promote higher traction forces compared to laminin 332 (Fig. 2 H, I), with the largest

difference recorded at the lowest laminin density (170 Pa vs 80 Pa at 5 µg/ml) (Fig. 2 I). Next, we used

the information on the traction forces and monolayer height (Sup. fig. 2 B) to calculate intercellular

normal stresses in the different conditions as previously shown [36,37] (Fig. 3 H, J and K). 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.

2 K). 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.

2 J). The difference in traction and stress at the lowest laminin 511 density hypothetically 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 E). The quantification shows an overall decrease (~ 40%) of traction in the presence of collagen

type IV (Sup. fig. 3 D), 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 regulate its apical interaction with the neural retina. 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. 2 L). 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.

Altogether, 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 on laminin 511.

Figure 2: Reductionistic approach reveals the effect of laminin density on RPE biomechanics. 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 form a polarized monolayer as observed in a confocal cross-section stained for the microvilli marker Ezrin *(A)*, mature tight junctions (ZO-1) *(B)*, and distinct apical microvilli as observed in the scanning electron micrograph of the monolayer surface *(C)*. DAPI staining marks the nuclei. *(D)* Cellular proliferation rate within 24 h obtained using EdU labelling assay for cells cultured on the PAA gel surface. A 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. Morphometric analyses of the cells reveal the absence of significant difference in cellular mean area *(E)*, mean perimeter *(F)* and mean elongation *(G)* between different laminin isoforms and densities from 3 independent experiments. *(H)* Representative traction force and monolayer stress profiles for different coating conditions and their quantifications *(I, J and K)* show a significant increase in contractility of RPE monolayers at the lowest laminin 511 density. *(L)* 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.

Laminin-defined traction levels modulate RPE efficiency to phagocyte photoreceptor outer segments.

Epithelial contractility levels have been shown to directly influence tissue functionality and reactivity [36–43]. Therefore, considering the difference in RPE mechanics on lower laminin density, we wondered if there is any direct relationship between the monolayer status and its functional capacity. To understand this, we tested the ability of RPE monolayers on PAA gels to perform their fundamental physiological function: to bind and phagocyte POS fragments, which were isolated from porcine eyes and fluorescently labelled with FITC (Fig. 3 A - C). 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 coating density of 5 µg/ml with reduced efficiency of RPE on laminin 511 (~50 %) (Fig. 3 B, C). These results highly correlate with the traction force levels in RPE monolayers, suggesting a cause-effect relation between laminin-defined traction and RPE functional capacity. Hence, we addressed whether the efficiency of POS phagocytosis is directly affected by the level of RPE traction forces independently of the biochemical nature of ECM adhesion (i.e., laminin isoforms or density) (Fig. 3 D - J).

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. 3 D). 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 for 511 and ~170 Pa for 332). This corresponded to a reduced efficiency of these monolayers for POS internalisation (~ 40%) (Fig. 3 E - G). 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. 3 E – G).

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. 3 H - J). 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.

3 H, J). 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. 3 H, J).

Overall, these data demonstrate that low laminin 511 and not 332 density reduces RPE functional

capacity by promoting high levels of traction forces.

*Figure 3: Laminin-defined RPE contractility modulates POS phagocytosis. (A) Schematic representation of the photoreceptor outer segment internalisation assay on RPE monolayer. (B) 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. (C) 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. (D) Schematic representation of the experimental strategy to modulate monolayer contractility. Quantification of mean traction forces (E) and phagocytosis efficiency (F) ±SEM in RPE upon different ECM physical (stiffness) and biochemical cues (coating). 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). (G) Representative traction force plots and immunofluorescent images of POS internalisation assay upon different physical or 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) (H) and its ability to phagocyte POS fragments (I). 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. (J) 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 along the visual axis.

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 if 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. 4 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. 4 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 the adhesion process (Fig. 4 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. 4 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. 4 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. 4 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. 4 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]. Encouraged by our *in vitro* findings, we were curious whether the different laminin

densities in Bruch's membrane coincided with different organisation of the keratin network in RPE.

Using keratin 8-YFP knock-in mice[51], we imaged and segmented the keratin network in 3D using a

recently developed workflow [52] (Fig. 4 F - J). The analyses revealed that keratin network has thinner

filaments (reduced brightness - fig. 4 H), get looser (higher segment length - fig. 4 I) and is more tense

(reduced segments curvature - fig. 4 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. 5).

Figure 4 (next page): 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.

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Figure 5: RPE mechanical homeostasis along the visual axis. Schematics of ECM-orchestrated changes in the retinal tissue shows how high basement membrane laminin density in the macula ensures a mechanical status that supports maintaining high functional demand. Low laminin density in the retinal periphery increases RPE contractility, which correspond to diminished functional capacity.

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255 DISCUSSION

256 Our findings demonstrate a direct role of laminin density in regulating RPE functional capacity through

257 epithelial contractility. For the first time, we report the presence of a relative density gradient of specific

258 laminin isoforms in the Bruch's membrane *in vivo*. The Bruch's membrane has the highest laminin

259 content at the retinal centre, whereas at the far periphery, the laminin 332 and α5-containing isoforms

260 have the lowest density. This laminin density gradient correlates with a different topology and with a

261 gradual increase in RPE cellular shape factor with the lower laminin density corresponding to more

262 elongated cells. Cellular shape factor and cell-to-neighbourhood relationship directly correspond to

263 mechanical properties of the epithelial monolayers [18–20] and contractility [21,37,38]. Finally, the different

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

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

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

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

268 contractility, we employed a human-relevant *in vitro* model using laminin-functionalized PAA gels and

269 hiPSC-derived RPE cells. The stringent condition for ECM availability and remodelling, created by the

270 PAA gel, revealed a direct role of low-density laminin 511 in increasing RPE contractility (higher traction

271 forces and monolayer stress) and reducing the epithelium efficiency to phagocyte POS. Despite this

272 increase in RPE contractility, there were no observed alterations in cell shape or topology. This

273 suggests that the monolayer topology and morphology *in vivo* may be defined by the convergence of

several factors, such as RPE's anchorage to the ora serrata at the retinal periphery [53]. 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 is crucial for the mechanical integrity of epithelial

tissues [56,57] and was proposed to define their textile nature [44]. More recently, data from different labs

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 in 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 tenser

keratin network in RPE in the far periphery and elongated nuclei suggest a higher contribution of the

contractile actin cytoskeleton to tissue mechanics in this area. Nevertheless, technical challenges leave

the open question whether the relative amount of laminin isoforms differ along the visual axis and if

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 homophilic interaction between POS and RPE via the neural cell adhesion

molecule (N-CAM) may also be impacted 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.

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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 distance 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. (code is available under:

https://github.com/tomio13/AFMforce).

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 with a Plan-Apochromat 63 x/1.4-NA, DIC M27 oil immersion objective 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 a Plan-Apochromat 63 x/1.4-NA, DIC M27 oil immersion objective in 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 the ester

reconstituted 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 washed in PBS$^{+/+}$ and 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 1 h. 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. 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 CO2. 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 cell 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)[71]. 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.
589
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).
607
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 INFORMATION

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.*

Supplementary figure 2: Protein composition of polyacrylamide gel surface coating is crucial for cell adhesion strength. (A) Representative image of complete hiPSC-RPE monolayer obtained on 4 kPa polyacrylamide gel coated with laminin 511 (20 µg/ml) combined with collagen type IV (30 µg/ml) in contrast with the fragmented monolayer on pure collagen type IV (20 µg/ml). Scale bar 500 µm. (B) Average cell height measured at the adherence junction levels of one-week old hiPSC-RPE monolayer. Measurements are means from at least three independent experiments ± SEM. (C) 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. (D) 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. (E, F) Representative overview images of colonies hiPSC-RPE cells seeded on gels coated with different concentrations of laminin 511 and laminin 221 combined with collagen type IV (30 µg/ml), indicating the insufficient cellular adhesion and monolayer formation in contrast to standard experimental conditions. Scale bar 500 µm.

Supplementary figure 3: 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)** *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. Data are shown as mean ± SEM. P < 0.0001 for the protein effect using mixed-effects model (REML) with the Geisser-Greenhouse correction and Tuckey's multiple comparisons test.*

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

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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)

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