Laminin alpha 5 - induced mechanical homeostasis modulates retinal 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, these mechanical features 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 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. Due to different photoreceptor densities, 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 demand. We found that the density of basement membrane laminin alpha 5 modulates RPE contractility levels which directly control the epithelium efficiency in phagocyting photoreceptor outer segments. *In vivo*, laminin alpha 5 density gradient follows retinal functional demand, thus supporting the physiological role of laminin alpha 5 in controlling RPE mechanical homeostasis. ECM-defined mechanical status of the RPE provides a novel parameter to consider for visual function and opens new paths of investigation for sight-threatening diseases such as high myopia and age-related macular degeneration.

The mechanical properties of any tissue define its function and state (Anlaş & Nelson, 2018; Ayad *et al*, 2019). In a homeostatic state, these mechanical features are maintained in a preferred range for optimal activity, also known as tissue mechanical homeostasis (Eichinger *et al*, 2021). One of the main players in defining the mechanical homeostasis of tissues is its extracellular matrix (ECM) composition (Humphrey *et al*, 2014; Kozyrina *et al*, 2020).

The retinal pigmented epithelium (RPE) is a postmitotic cell monolayer located at the base of the light-detecting neural retina. In the developing eye, the RPE organises the retina (Raymond & Jackson, 1995; German *et al*, 2008), while in the adult, it plays a key role in the visual cycle (Bok, 1993; Strauss, 2005). 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 (Lakkaraju *et al*, 2020; Young & Bok, 1969; Wald & Brown, 1956). The number of photoreceptor outer segments (POS) per RPE cells is not constant within the eye, with an average of 30-25 POS per RPE cell in the central and macular area and decreasing towards the periphery (Volland *et al*, 2015), indicating a gradient of functional demand. Cells of the RPE are polygonal in shape and tightly adhere to each other, arranged as a honeycomb-like structure in the centre, and gradually shifts to a more elongated and less organised structure towards the retinal periphery (Bhatia *et al*, 2016; Kim *et al*, 2021) suggesting a change in its mechanical status. The RPE is tightly bound to its underlying basement membrane, part of the thicker Bruch's membrane. The Bruch's membrane thickness and content of fibrillar collagens and elastin are known to vary from the centre to the periphery (Chong *et al*, 2005; Newsome *et al*, 1987), but to date is still unclear how this affects the overall mechanical properties of the ECM and, more importantly, if this 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 homeostasis and the region-dependent functional demand. The characterisation of Bruch's membrane composition in mice revealed a relative density reduction of specific basement membrane laminins towards the periphery. Decreased density of laminin 511 also reduces POS phagocytic efficiency in stem cell-derived RPE monolayers obtained on polyacrylamide soft hydrogels. This is associated with different RPE mechanical status, particularly with increased RPE contractility, quantified by traction force and monolayer stress microscopy. Finally, using different hydrogels stiffnesses, coatings and modulating actomyosin activity with drugs, we show that the POS phagocytosis efficiency results from RPE contractility levels. These findings underline for the first time the importance of mechanical homeostasis in RPE, and in general, 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.

RESULTS

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

homeostasis

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 (Volland *et al*, 2015). In mice and humans, the central part (macula in humans) has the highest

density of photoreceptor cells and the highest photoreceptor to RPE ratio, both decreasing with the

radial distance from the optic nerve (Volland *et al*, 2015). 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). As reported, we also observed that RPE cell

arrangement and organisation along the radial distance changes significantly (Fig. 1 A) in agreement

with previous reports (Bhatia *et al*, 2016; Kim *et al*, 2021). From a classic honeycomb arrangement in

the centre, the RPE gradually changes to a monolayer made by more elongated cells in the far-

periphery (Fig. 1 A; Sup fig. 1 A, D) (Bhatia *et al*, 2016; Kim *et al*, 2021).

The topology and morphology of an epithelial monolayer define its mechanical properties (Hannezo

et al, 2014; Alt *et al*, 2017; Kaliman *et al*, 2021). 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 assume smaller

size in 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, for each cell we calculated the shape factor, which is 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 ratio of cortical tension vs cell-cell

adhesion energy with lower values where the first element is prominent (Bi *et al*, 2015). Our data show

an average value of 3.8 in the retinal central region, which gradually increases till reaching values over

4.0 at the far-periphery, suggesting a gradual increase of intercellular tension concurrently with the

decreasing RPE functional demand (Fig. 1 B, C, sup. fig. 1 E) (Volland *et al*, 2015). Finally, we noticed

the presence of two distinct cell populations at 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 topological relations of the retinal regions by plotting the rescaled cell areas and

perimeters in relation to their number of neighbours (respectively Lewis' law (Lewis, 1931, 1928; Chiu,

1995; Kim *et al*, 2014) and Desh's law (Rivier, 2006)) (Fig. 1 E, sup. fig. 1 I, J). Both comparisons show

different curve behaviour in the different retinal regions, especially evident between centre and 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 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 every cell. *(C)* Violin plot of mean tissue 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.

Furthermore, we 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 E, F) (Aboav,

1980, 1970; Weaire, 1974). This relation describes the topology of epithelial monolayers via the

topological parameter *b(n)* (see method section). The measurements of the different regions show

linear relationship, as in any functional epithelium (Aboav, 1980, 1970; Weaire, 1974; Kaliman *et al*,

2021). Nevertheless, a shift is visible between curves, thus suggesting a topological variation of RPE

from the centre to the far-periphery (Fig. 1 F, sup. fig. I). Altogether, the extensive image-based

morphometric and topological analyses (of more than 5500 cells) strongly support the existence of

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

Next, we were curious to know if the quantified mechanical gradient of RPE finds a correlation with the

distribution of mechanical and biochemical cues within the Bruch's membrane. In the epithelial ECM,

mechanical cues are mostly determined by the interstitial matrix composition and crosslinking (Kozyrina

et al, 2020). Therefore, we use confocal microscopy and immunofluorescence staining to quantify the

amount of collagen type I and elastin present only at Bruch's membrane level. The average intensity

quantification of the retina's centre, mid-periphery, and far-periphery regions are comparable with the

data reported in the literature (Chong *et al*, 2005; Newsome *et al*, 1987) (Fig. 1 G). Next, we quantified

the Young's modulus of the Bruch's membrane in the different regions using an atomic force

microscope (AFM) and indenting 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 of 1.5 kPa and the far-periphery of 4 kPa (Fig. 1 H). This biphasic trend of

the stiffness suggests that ECM mechanical cues may not be the main player in regulating RPE

mechanical homeostasis in relation to the functional demand.

The basement membrane provides biochemical cues to epithelia regulating its homeostasis with a key

role of the different laminin isoforms (Kozyrina *et al*, 2020). 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). Interestingly, we detected a significant change in laminin

isoforms amount along the visual axis but not in collagen type IV (Fig. 1 I, J), supporting the idea of

the importance of laminins in the differential biochemical signalling to the RPE. Among the laminin

isoforms detected in the Bruch's membrane, we noticed a biphasic trend of laminin α2 containing

isoforms, with higher (fluorescence) intensity in the centre and far-periphery and lower in the mid-

periphery. On the contrary, laminin 332 and laminin α5 containing isoforms were found to have the

highest (fluorescence) intensity in the centre and to 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 RPE regional mechanical status.

Laminin density influences RPE phagocytic activity 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 examine 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

(Song *et al*, 2023; Müller *et al*, 2018). 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. (Przybyla *et al*, 2016) with specific concentrations of laminin,

thus controlling the protein density at the surface in a reproducible manner (see materials and

methods). The advantage of PAA gel as a culture substrate is the polymer's protein-repellent nature

(Funaki & Janmey, 2017), allowing control over the biochemical cues originating from the coating and

a defined stiffness (gel's Youngs's modulus). Due to this reductionist 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 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. After a week of culture, hiPSC-RPE cells reach a low proliferative state and form a thick polarised

monolayer (~10 - 15 µm), 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 D).

Considering that the observed 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 RPE to bind and phagocyte POS. In fact, RPE phagocytic activity

naturally follows the visual angle, with the highest number of photoreceptors per RPE cell in the centre

and decreasing towards the periphery (Volland *et al*, 2015). 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 (10 - 30 µg/ml) there is a comparable efficiency of phagocytosis between laminin 332

and 511, whereas a divergency could be detected at the concentration of 5 µg/ml with reduced

efficiency of RPE on laminin 511 (~50 %) (Fig. 2 F, G).

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 obtained using EdU labelling assay on the surface of the PAA gel. 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 (white circle). The data show average values ± SEM from at least 4 independent experiments. Statistics 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.

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 laminin 511 concentration.

Laminin 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 the observation in the retina and the

in vitro system, 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 types, 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 stresses at the

different conditions as previously shown (Di Russo *et al*, 2021; Vishwakarma *et al*, 2018) (Fig. 3D, F, G).

Also, in this case, we observed a significant difference in the overall monolayer absolute stresses at

the lowest concentration 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, overall, the stress vectors are averaging close to 0 Pa for both

coating and densities, indicating that monolayers are in a state of near equilibrium despite the

difference in absolute contractility (Fig. 3 F). The difference in traction and stress quantified at the

lowest concentration of laminin 511 might be caused by a gradual increase of cell adhesion to collagen

type IV, which was kept constant through the conditions. Therefore, we tested the effect of collagen

type IV on monolayer traction forces using laminin 332 as 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 E), clearly excluding the role of collagen

type IV for the observed increased traction at the lowest laminin 511 density. Moreover, the distinct

variation between laminin 511 and laminin 332 mediated traction strengthens the conclusion that the

observed changes are 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 indented 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) than on laminin 332 (~1 kPa) regardless of the protein surface density, thus excluding the effect of cellular stiffness for POS phagocytosis efficiency.

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 coating. **(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.*

In conclusion, the biomechanical characterisation of our model clearly indicates a direct effect of the low density of laminin 511 on the overall RPE mechanical equilibrium with increased contractility of the monolayer.

Overall monolayer traction force modulates RPE functionality

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

(Vishwakarma *et al*, 2018; Di Russo *et al*, 2021; Park *et al*, 2015; Malinverno *et al*, 2017; Palamidessi *et*

al, 2019; Balcioglu *et al*, 2020; Mongera *et al*, 2018; Pérez-González *et al*, 2021). Thus, we asked

ourselves if 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. This is also suggested by comparing traction forces with POS phagocytosis efficiency

independently of the surface coating (Fig. 4 A). To systematically modify the level of 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 B) and compare RPE efficiency in internalising POS 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 (~140 Pa and ~170 Pa respectively).

This corresponded to reduced efficiency of these monolayers to internalise POS (~ 40%) (Fig. 4 C, D).

Second, we measured the phagocytotic activity and traction forces of monolayers obtained on 4 kPa

stiff hydrogels coated with a high concentration of vitronectin (250 µg/ml) (Fig. 4 C, D). 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 (~ 40%). To distinguish the exclusive role of cellular contractility from

the possible converging effects of ECM signalling, we inhibited or induced actomyosin contractility in

RPE monolayers using a ROCK inhibitor or a RhoA activator (Fig. 4 B, E). 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. 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).

As expected, the drug treatments also affected the ability of RPE to develop traction forces with

reduced traction after ROCK inhibitor treatment and increased after RhoA activation (Fig. E).

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

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

biochemical and physical cues from the ECM.

Figure 4: Overall monolayer contractility modulates the cellular functionality. (A) Relation between the RPE phagocytosis efficiency and traction forces independently of surface coating. (B) Schematic representation of the experimental strategy to interfere with monolayer contractility. Quantification of mean traction forces (C) and phagocytosis efficiency (D) ±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). 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.

DISCUSSION

Our findings demonstrate the unknown direct role of laminin alpha 5 density in regulating RPE

mechanical homeostasis. For the first time, we report the presence of a relative density gradient of

specific laminin isoforms in the Bruch's membrane. At the retinal centre, the Bruch's membrane

contains the highest density of laminins, whereas at the far-periphery, the laminin 332 and alpha 5-

containing isoforms have the lowest density (Fig. 1J). This laminin density gradient correlates with a

gradual increase of RPE cellular shape factor with lower laminin density corresponding to more

elongated cells (Fig. 1 B, C, sup. fig. 1 D, E). Furthermore, the topological analyses suggest a variation

along the visual axis (Fig. 1 E, F, sup. fig. 1 I, J). Cellular shape factor and cell-to-neighbourhood

relationship directly correspond to mechanical properties of the epithelial monolayers (Hannezo *et al*,

2014; Alt *et al*, 2017; Kaliman *et al*, 2021) and contractility (Park *et al*, 2015; Bi *et al*, 2015; Vishwakarma

et al, 2018). Hence, it is highly probable that a higher contractility is present at the far periphery

(elongated cells) in contrast with the centre (honeycomb organisation).

Due to technical limitations for a direct quantification of mechanical properties and contractility *in vivo*,

it was required for us to establish 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 the increase in contractility of RPE on the low density

of laminin 511, we did not observe a change in cell shape or in 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

(Nobeschi *et al*, 2006). 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 organisation.

The effect of laminin alpha 5 on cellular mechanics is not surprising. Laminin alpha 5 containing

isoforms have been shown to enhance cell stiffness and support better shear stress

mechanotransduction (Di Russo *et al*, 2016) and intercellular tightness (Song *et al*, 2017) in the

endothelium. In fact, in comparison with other laminin chains, the N-terminal region of laminin alpha

5 contains arginine - guanidine – aspartate sequences (RGD) that can support the adhesion of non-

classical laminin receptors, including $\alpha v \beta 1$ and $\alpha 5 \beta 1$ integrins. The engagement of integrin $\alpha 5 \beta 1$

induces downstream activation of RhoA and ROCK, thus supporting an increased myosin II activity and

overall cell contractility (Schiller *et al*, 2013; Di Russo *et al*, 2016). Furthermore, the density of RGD-

mediated adhesion has been shown to define cellular traction forces and contractility, with the highest

contractility corresponding to low density (Oria *et al*, 2017). The low density of the laminin alpha 5

chain may therefore support an overall increase in contraction due to RGD-mediated adhesion. This

can also explain why RPE cultured on low density of laminin 332 does not increase contractility, since

it lacks RGD sequences. Nevertheless, due to our *in vitro* model's limitations, we cannot completely

exclude the role of laminin 332 in controlling RPE mechanical status. In fact, laminin 332 supports the

formation of hemidesmosomes (Aumailley, 2012), which are well-known key ECM receptors controlling

epithelial mechanical integrity and resilience(Hahn & Labouesse, 2001; Todorović *et al*, 2013). Future

studies will need to focus on elucidating the potential ECM receptor density gradient in RPE *in vivo*

and its role in the mechanical homeostasis of the outer retina.

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 (Müller *et al*, 2018). Particularly, the

presence of F-actin stress fibres impaired the phagocytic activity of these cells. These data, together

with 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 (Kwon & Freeman, 2020). 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 (Kwon & Freeman, 2020). These focal adhesion-like structures have already been shown to

mediate phagocytosis in macrophages and to be mechanosensitive (Jaumouillé *et al*, 2019). 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. Remodelling of the ECM during ageing

may 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. Nevertheless, 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. T.Pr. and L.S.Y. supported

image segmentations and analyses. T.H. performed and analysed AFM experiments on decellularised

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monolayers *in vivo* and *in vitro*. J.D.R., A.N.K. and T.P. wrote the manuscript, and all authors discussed

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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 (Claybon & Bishop, 2011). 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 proteinase

inhibitors as instructed by the manufacturer (Roche). 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 proteinase

inhibitors (Roche). Next, the prepared eyes were glued to a surface using 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 is 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 by using the automated stage

of the microscope and by 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 chosen 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.

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$^{-/-}$ 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 one to two weeks
to confluence before use. For seeding on polyacrylamide hydrogels, cells were seeded at a density of
5000-6000 cells/mm2, corresponding to the RPE density in the human macula (Bhatia *et al*, 2016) and
cultured for one week. Cells were cultured in hiPSC-RPE medium composed of MEM α, nucleosides
(Thermo Fisher, 12571-063), 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 (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 (Przybyla
et al, 2016). 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 (0.03 % (wt/vol)) and
later reconstituted in 50% ethanol for the final concentration of 0.0003% in the functionalisation
solution. 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

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

Immunofluorescence staining of hiPSC-RPE. Cells on hydrogels were first quickly washed with warm (~37 °C) PBS containing Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} (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 (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 1 mM 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 obtained after confocal live imaging of F-actin (SirActin) were used to measure the average junctional height of RPE monolayers in culture using Fiji image processing package (National Institutes of Health, USA).

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.

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

in batches from porcine eyes from a local slaughterhouse as previously described (Parinot *et al*, 2014).

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 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.

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).

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 concentration (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 concentration (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.

Morphometric and topology analyses. Microscopy images of RPE *in vivo* and *in vitro* were segmented

using the cellpose software (Stringer *et al*, 2021) (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 (Kaliman *et al*, 2016).

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 (Kaliman *et al*, 2016). 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 30px, 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.

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 Hertz model according to a set indentation depth of 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.

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

calculations were performed as previously described (Di Russo *et al*, 2021; Vishwakarma *et al*, 2018).

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. Positions of the fluorescent beads in

the hydrogels after the detachment of cells (relaxed state of the gel) were compared to the tense gel

state 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, average normal stress vectors were calculated using the traction force information

using a force balance algorithm in MATLAB (MathWorks) as formulated elsewhere (Di Russo *et al*, 2021;

Vishwakarma *et al*, 2018). For each measured sample, the average cell height was calculated using a

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

Statistics. Statistical analysis was performed using Prism (GraphPad). Sample conditions and the

specific test used for each data set are indicated in corresponding figure captions.

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Supplementary Figure 1: (A) representative confocal images of murine RPE stained for F-actin (top row) and post-processed segmented skeletons used for the morphometric characterisation (bottom row). **(B)** Representative cellpose segmentation artefact at the image edge and **(C)** resulting cells (blue) and neighbourhood (red) considered in the analyses. Probability density function (PDF) of cell elongation **(D)** and cell shape factor for the different retinal regions. **(F, G)** Mean and standard deviation of the mean cellular area and perimeter respectively. **(H)** PDF of the rescaled cell perimeters defined as $P_i/\sqrt{A}$, P_i being the individual cell perimeter. Topological characteristics of the RPE monolayer such as PDF of cell neighbourhood **(I)** and Desh's law 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. *Representative overview images of colonies hiPSC-RPE cells seeded on 4 kPa gels coated with different concentrations of laminin 511 (**A**), 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 these experimental conditions. Scale bar 500 µm. (**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 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**) 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=0.0004 for the protein effect using mixed-effects model (REML) with the Geisser-Greenhouse correction.*

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.*

660 *Table 1: List of antibodies used in this work*

Name	Origin	Source	Concentration (µg/ml) / Dilution
Anti mouse laminin 111 (pan-Laminin)	rabbit	Gift from Lydia Sorokin	Rabbit serum, 1:2000
Anti mouse laminin **α**1 (clone 200)	rat	Gift from Lydia Sorokin	Hybridoma supernatant
Anti mouse laminin **α**2 (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 **α**4	rabbit	Gift from Lydia Sorokin	Rabbit serum, 1:1000
Anti mouse laminin **α**5	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 ZO1	rabbit	Thermo Fisher, 61-7300	5
Anti human ezrin (clone 3C12)	mouse	Abcam, ab4069	20
Anti human fibronectin	rabbit	Sigma, F3648	2.5
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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663 **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)