Anisotropic Hydrogel Degradation Enhances 3D Collective Cell Alignment, Mechanotransduction and Osteogenic Differentiation

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Abstract

Tissue engineering involves assembling cells and mimicking the complex anisotropic architecture of biological tissues to perform specific functions. This study explores the impact of patterned hydrogels with anisotropic degradation compared to single-phase materials on the potential of enhancing cell spreading, collective alignment, mechanotransduction and osteogenic differentiation of encapsulated human mesenchymal stromal cells (hMSCs). Spatial patterns of degradable (Deg)

and non-degradable (noDeg) subregions are formed by photolithography: UV-triggered thiol-ene

crosslinking with matrix metalloprotease (MMP) sensitive peptides form Deg phases, while non-UV

exposed regions result in Diels-Alder spontaneous click crosslinking and noDeg phases. 3D patterns

in hydrogel degradation enhance hMSC spreading and allow collective cell alignment in Deg areas,

while cells remain rounded with no alignment in noDeg regions. In addition, we observe a boosted

osteogenic differentiation when compared to single-phase materials, as mid osteogenic markers

(osteocalcin) are expressed at day 14 in anisotropic gels, whereas in single-phase only early

osteogenic markers are found (osterix). Mechanosensing pathways were evaluated using the

expression and localization of YAP. Deg sections in patterned materials have an enhanced nuclear

translocation and higher YAP expression compared to single-phase Deg materials and noDeg

sections. This effect is lost and no patterns in YAP expression and localization emerge when using an

MMP-scramble peptide or no-RGD materials. These findings demonstrate that 3D patterns in

alginate hydrogel degradation guide hMSC spreading, collective alignment, enhance YAP nuclear

translocation and osteogenic differentiation. Mimicking tissue anisotropy in 3D patterned hydrogels

could have broad applications in biofabrication and tissue engineering.

Statement of significance

Patterned materials integrate multiple characteristics within a single material, closely mimicking the anisotropy found in tissues. This research goes further by demonstrating how anisotropic degradation of cell-laden hydrogels leads to emerging patterns in mechanics. As a consequence, anisotropic hMSC morphology and collective alignment are shown in 3D patterned materials compared to single-phase counterparts. Additionally, we show enhanced and spatially guided hMSC osteogenic differentiation in patterned materials. Furthermore, anisotropic mechanosensing via YAP/TAZ signaling is shown to mediate this enhanced and spatially guided mechanotransduction and osteogenic differentiation. Finally, we explore how additional biochemical stimuli can further boost the spatially guided hMSC osteogenic differentiation. These findings advance our understanding of cell response in anisotropic microenvironments, with broad applications in biofabrication and tissue engineering.

Figure 0: Graphical abstract

1   Introduction

Tissue engineering involves assembling cells and mimicking the complex anisotropic architecture of biological tissues to perform specific functions. The use of human mesenchymal stromal cells (hMSCs) is a promising approach in regenerative medicine [1], due to their self-renewal, clonality (proliferation from a single cell) and potency (differentiation into different cell types) [2]. Encapsulation of hMSCs in biomaterials offers a variety of options to guide and control their behavior, by modulating the local chemistry and physics provided to cells [3][4]. Hydrogels are widely used biomaterials thanks to their high cytocompatibility [5] and modifiable chemistry, providing tunable biophysical [6] and biochemical [7] properties. These have been shown to trigger specific cell activities, such as matrix stiffness [8][9][10], viscoelasticity [11] [12], degradability [13], ECM interaction by adhesion ligands [14], or ECM fiber arrangements [15]. In many cases these efforts have focused on homogeneous materials in which the cells reside. However, biomaterials in nature are typically anisotropic and provide a distinct architecture to cells.

Thus, single-phase materials can only partially provide a mimicry of the complex ECM interaction in living tissues. Native ECM is anisotropic with distinct spatially segregated properties [16]. Multiple phases in one matrix arranged in spatially discrete sections - patterned biomaterials - allow to mimic this natural ECM anisotropy, while keeping the benefits of a well-controlled synthetic material niche. The versatility of 3D patterned materials allows to tune biophysical properties and guide cell behavior. For example, patterns in biomolecule presentation have been used to spatially guide cell migration and alignment [17][18]. Despite their potential, the study of 3D patterned synthetic niches as analogs of anisotropic tissue architecture is still limited, especially how patterns in degradation can influence cell behavior. Degradable patterned microchannels have been used to guide endothelial cell sprouting [19], endothelium formation [20] and cell invasion [21] [22]. For other cell types, such as fibroblasts [23] or hMSCs [24], materials with patterns in degradation and stiffness have been studied

in 3D. However, the effect of patterned matrix degradation, without the influence of other

biophysical/biochemical factors, in controlling encapsulated cell behavior in multicompartment

materials has not been fully elucidated yet.

The mechanisms underlying cell-matrix interactions in 3D degradable materials are traction forces

[25] that interact with the dynamic matrix and newly opened space due to degradation [24]. It has

been previously shown that degradable materials favor a spread cell morphology [26] and MSC

osteogenic differentiation [27]. The traction forces and integrin-mediated cell interactions in

degradable materials are regulated through mechanosensing pathways. Yes-associated protein (YAP)

and transcriptional coactivator with PDZ-binding motif (TAZ) represents one of such pathways and

enables nuclear mediators of mechanical signals exerted by the ECM and cytoskeletal tension [28].

The activation of this pathway is linked to the integrins on the cell surface and the associated traction

forces with the anchoring points in the ECM (e.g. binding motifs) [29]. This, in turn, is modulated by

the dimensionality and the degradability of the ECM [30]. YAP/TAZ expression and nuclear

translocation as a consequence of cytoskeletal tension, and its effect on cell differentiation [31], cell

communication [32] or cell polarization through spatial heterogeneity in YAP activation [33] are well

known. However, the influence of multicompartment materials in YAP-mediated

mechanotransduction requires further research.

Here, we investigate how 3D patterns in alginate hydrogel degradation affect hMSC behavior and

how multicompartment materials differ from single-phase materials. In particular, we induce hMSC

spreading, collective alignment, enhanced YAP nuclear translocation and osteogenic differentiation

solely with anisotropic hydrogel degradation and under standard cell growth media. Such effect is

enhanced under osteogenic media. Additionally, we explore the mechanisms driving osteogenesis in

3D patterned materials, particularly YAP nuclear translocation, and show that both matrix adhesion

and degradation characteristics are a necessary requirement. These results advance our understanding

of cell response in anisotropic microenvironments. Mimicking tissue anisotropy in 3D patterned

hydrogels could have broad applications in biofabrication and tissue engineering.

104   2   Materials and Methods

105   2.1   Alginate modification

Norbornene and tetrazine were added to the alginate backbone via carbodiimide chemistry (see Fig.

1A). The alginate used was low molecular weight, high guluronic acid sodium alginate (MW 75 kDa

Pronova UP VLVG; NovaMatrix). The coupling of norbornene (N, TCI Chemicals, #N0907) and

tetrazine (T, Conju-probe, #CP-6021) to the alginate molecule was performed as previously

described [23]. Alginate modification with norbornene was performed with a theoretical degree of

substitution (DS_{theo}) of 500. Alginate modification with tetrazine was performed with a DS_{theo} of 170

(Suppl. Table S1). NMR spectroscopy was used to determine the actual DS (DS_{actual}) (Suppl. Fig.

S1). The quantification of the DS was performed by averaging the characteristic peak area: for

tetrazine 10.2, 8.2 and 7.4 ppm and for norbornene 6.2-5.8 ppm, then dividing this value by the area

of the characteristic alginate peak (G-1) between 5.2-4.8 ppm. NMR measurements were performed,

using a 1.5 % w/v alginate solution in deuterium oxide (64 scans; Agilent 400 MHz Premium

COMPACT equipped with Agilent OneNMR Probe) and analyzed using MestreNova Software

(version 12.03).

Figure 1: Description of the material chemistry. *Scheme of the carbodiimide coupling of*

norbornene or tetrazine groups to the alginate backbone (A). Scheme of non-degradable bonds

through Diels-Alder spontaneous click crosslinking of norbornene and tetrazine (B, blue). UV light

dependent thiol-ene reactions of norbornene groups with RGD (C, green) and MMPsens peptide

crosslinker (X: GCRD-VPMS ↓ MRGG-DRCG) (D, orange). Time scheme depicting the different

reactions occurring during the dual crosslinking (E). Material elastic modulus can be tuned through

the MMPsens concentration, for a constant N:T ratio of 1.5 (F) and also through varying the N:T

ratio, for a constant MMPsens concentration of 5mg/mL (G).

2.2 Isolation and culture of primary human bone-marrow derived mesenchymal stromal cells (hMSCs)

Bone-marrow derived hMSCs (female, 50 years, no secondary diagnosis, no co-medication) were

received from the Core-Facility "Cell Harvesting" of the Berlin Institute of Health (BIH). The cells

were isolated from metaphyseal bone marrow biopsies from patients undergoing hip replacement at

the Charité - Universitätsmedizin Berlin, as previously described [34][35]. Written informed consent

was given, and ethics approval was obtained from the local ethics committee/institutional review

board (approval number EA2/089/20) of the Charité – Universitätsmedizin Berlin.

For differentiation analyses, hMSCs in passage P5 were encapsulated in hydrogels and incubated in

growth or osteogenic media. For further information on cell isolation and cell culture procedures,

please refer to Supplementary Information 1.

2.3 Fabrication of anisotropic matrices: 3D patterns in alginate hydrogel degradation

Hydrogels were fabricated based on previously established protocols [23]. The single-phase materials

(no photo mask) were used as controls for mechanical testing of bulk properties by rheology with a

frequency sweep test (Section 2.4.1), and for cell stainings. In addition, 3D patterned hydrogels were

generated as described below. For all material samples, cell culture was performed either in growth

or osteogenic.

2.3.1 Non-degradable matrix: Diels-Alder click-crosslinking

The precursors for the hydrogel were dissolved in phosphate-buffered saline (Merck #D8537) and distributed into 2 tubes. The first tube contained norbornene-modified alginate (N-alg); MMP-sensitive (MMPsens) peptide (GCRD-VPMS ↓ MRGG-DRCG, 95 % purity; WatsonBio) at a final concentration of 5 mg/ml of hydrogel, thiolated RGD-peptide (CGGGGRGDSP; Peptide2.0) at a theoretical concentration of 5 molecules of RGD per alginate chain (DS 5, 1.2×10^{-3} mM), and the cell suspension at final concentration of 2×10^6 cells/mL of hydrogel. The second tube contained tetrazine-modified alginate (T-alg) and the photoinitiator (Irgacure 2959; Sigma-Aldrich, #410896) at a final concentration of 3 mg/mL of hydrogel. The total final concentration of alginate was 2 % w/v at a N:T ratio of 1.5. Despite MMPsens and the photoinitiator being present, these were not activated due to the lack of UV exposure. Nevertheless, the MMPsens and photoinitiator need to be present to allow for patterned materials (see Section 2.3.3).

The two solutions were mixed by pipetting and cast onto a bottom glass plate (borosilicate glass, Filafarm, #1000185), with the casting area being restricted on three sides by glass spacers (Marienfield, #1100420), and immediately covered with a glass slide previously treated with SigmaCoat ($\geq$ 99.5 %; Sigma-Aldrich, #SL2) to prevent adhesion. The gel height was constrained to 2 mm by the thickness of the glass spacers. Spontaneous click-crosslinking for 60 min at room temperature (RT) and in the dark allowed Diels-Alder crosslinking and the N:T covalent bonds to form (Fig. 1B).

In order to ensure a homogeneous binding of the RGD-peptide, crosslinked gels were subsequently exposed to 2 min UV light (365 nm) at 10 mW/cm^2 (Omnicure S2000) in a custom-built exposure chamber. The RGD-peptide binds to the free norbornenes via thiol-ene reaction (Fig. 1C). The cylindrical hydrogels were punched from the cast gel sheet using 5 mm biopsy punches (Integra

169   Miltex) and incubated in cell culture media at 37 °C and 5 % CO_2. Further information on the

170   reaction timeline can be found in Fig. 1E.

2.3.2 Degradable matrix: UV-mediated thiol-ene crosslinking with MMPsens peptide

The production of degradable materials followed the same procedure as described in Section 2.3.1,

with an additional step for the MMPsens peptide crosslinking. After casting the hydrogel solution

between the glass plates, the material was immediately exposed to UV light at 10 mW/cm^2 for 10

min to initiate the coupling of the degradable MMPsens peptide to the norbornene-modified alginate

via thiol-ene crosslinking (Fig. 1D). After the UV exposure, the materials were placed for an

additional 50 min at RT in the dark to allow for the N:T covalent bonds to be formed. To ensure a

homogenous binding of RGD, the hydrogels were finally exposed again to UV for 2 min (Fig. 1C).

Further information on the reaction timeline can be found in Fig. 1E. Hydrogels were punched out

and incubated in cell culture media at 37 °C and 5 % CO_2.

The mechanical properties (measurement method described in Section 2.4) can be modulated by

varying the concentration of MMPsens peptide (Fig. 1F) and by tuning the N:T ratio (Fig. 1G). For a

constant N:T ratio of 1.5, the non-UV exposed noDeg regions have a constant elastic modulus, while

the UV exposed Deg regions results in stiffer matrices with increasing MMPsens peptide

concentration (Fig. 1F). In contrast, for constant MMPsens peptide concentration of 5 mg/mL, the

non-UV exposed noDeg regions have a decreasing elastic modulus with increasing N:T ratio, while

the UV exposed Deg regions results in stiffer matrices with increasing N:T ratio, due to the greater

abundance of N-alg available for the thiol-ene crosslinking (Fig. 1G)

2.3.3 Anisotropic matrix: Photolithography of patterned dual crosslinked hydrogels

The creation of patterned materials followed the same procedure as described in Section 2.3.2, with

the addition of a photomask placed on top of the cover glass during the UV mediated thiol-ene

coupling of the MMPsens peptide. The photomask had a pattern of straight lines with 500 µm

thickness (UV light blocking sections, non-degradable matrix equivalent to 2.3.1) placed 300 µm,

500 µm or 800 µm apart (UV light permitting sections, degradable matrix equivalent to 2.3.2). After

the 10 min UV exposure through the photomask, followed by 50 min incubation in the dark at RT, in

which all the N-T bonds were formed and no additional grafting of MMP occurred, crosslinked gels

were exposed to 2 min UV light at 10 mW/cm^2 without a photomask for homogeneous binding of the

RGD-peptide (Fig. 1E).

Two additional control materials are included in this manuscript: materials with a non-degradable

peptide sequence and materials with no RGD adhesion peptide. The control materials with a non-

degradable peptide sequence were achieved by replacing the MMPsens with the homologous

scramble (MMPscr) peptide (GCRD-VpMS ↓ mRGG-DRCG, 95 % purity; WatsonBio), where the

amino acids in lower case were switched for the D-isoform, unrecognizable by MMP enzymes. For

the control materials with no adhesion peptides, the thiolated RGD solution was replaced with PBS.

All of the controls follow the procedure established under section 2.3.3.

2.4   Hydrogel mechanical characterization over time

Mechanical characterization was performed on day 1 and day 14. All mechanical characterization

was performed with cell-laden materials to quantify the effect of cell-driven enzymatic degradation

of the hydrogels. The material degradation and changes in mechanical properties were evaluated via

two different methods: (i) rheology with a frequency sweep test to measure the bulk shear modulus,

G (and then calculate the elastic modulus, E), (ii) microindentation to measure the surface elastic

modulus of single-phase and patterned materials, and display the iso- or anisotropic values with a

surface map.

2.4.1 Rheology

Storage and loss modulus of single-phase hydrogels were determined with a rheometer (Anton Paar

MCR301) via frequency sweeps with a parallel plate geometry of 8 mm (PP08, Anton Paar). The

frequency sweep was performed from 0.01 to 10 Hz and at 0.1 % shear strain at RT (n = 6). Once

contact with the gel surface was established, a pre-compression of 10 % of the height of the hydrogel

was applied prior to the measurement. No additional hydration was needed as the experiment lasted

less than 10 min. To obtain the elastic modulus, first the shear modulus (G) was derived from the

storage (G') and loss (G") modulus using Rubber's elasticity theory $G = \sqrt{G'^2 + G''^2}$ [36]. The

elastic modulus (E) was calculated using the values of G and the approximation of Poisson's ratio (ϑ)

equal to 0.5, $E = 2G\,(1 + \vartheta)$ [37]. The mesh size (ξ) was approximated based on storage modulus

G' in low frequencies (0.1-1Hz), $\xi = \sqrt[3]{6RT/G'\pi\,N_{av}}$, as previously described [38].

2.4.2 Microindentation

To verify the emerging patterns in mechanical properties of the 3D hydrogels due to anisotropic

degradation, the surface elastic modulus of the materials on day 1 and day 14 was mapped into a

heatmap. Depth-sensing microindentation measurements were done using a Triboindenter TI-950

(Hysitron-Bruker, MN, USA) with a cono-spherical tip of 50 μm radius. The tip was calibrated by an

air indent, followed by a quick approach to detect the surface. Similar procedures as previously

described were used [23], but were adapted for softer materials. Then, the measurements were

automatized as follows: ~350 μm retraction, an indent approach of ~150 μm and strain rate of ~30

μm/s. The measurements were done in automated mode to map a 2 x 2 mm^2 area with 10 x 10

indents and 200 μm spacing. To ensure that the sample remained hydrated during the measurement,

the samples were fixed to a sponge and partially submerged in PBS.

To obtain the elastic modulus from the load-displacement indentation curves, the Hertzian contact

model was used. The analysis of the load-displacement curves was automated by a custom-made

Python3 script. We used an adapted version of the script described in our previous work [23], related

to the selection of the origin point. The origin point is the initial contact point where the tip gets in

contact with the material surface and from which the Hertzian model will be determined. This

procedure was previously automatized by mathematically determining the minimum of the first part

of the indentation curve. However, in very soft materials like the ones presented in this study, the

origin point could not be identified using the previous method, as the initial contact point was not as

clear as with stiffer gels. The adapted version of the script allows the user to select the origin point

manually.

2.5   Characterizing volume and wet weight changes over time

To track the degradation of single-phase materials, volume changes, wet weight changes and swelling

ratios (S_t) were tracked over time, at 0 (after 2 h equilibration), 1, 3, 5, 7, 14, 21 and 28 days. At each

time point, single-phase hydrogels were weighed under sterile conditions and measured using a

caliper. The volume was determined assuming a cylindrical shape, calculated from one height

measurement and the mean of two diameter measurements. Swelling (S) was calculated with the

equation $S_t=W_t/W_{t=0}$, where W_t refers to the hydrogel wet weight at a given time point t, and $W_{t=0}$

refers to the hydrogel wet weight at the initial time point.

2.6   Primary hMSC viability and cell number

To verify cell viability Live/Dead stainings were performed after 1 and 14 days. The hydrogels were

taken out from the incubation media and washed with PBS (Merck #D8537). Then the cells were

stained with a solution of 4 µM Calcein AM (Biomol Bioquest #ABD-22002, 500x solution in

DMSO) and 4 µM Ethidium homodimer-1 (Sigma #E1903, dilution 1:1000 from original solution)

dissolved in PBS to identify live and dead cells, respectively. The staining solution volume was 400

µl per hydrogel in a 24 well plate, stained for 12 min in a cell culture incubator at 37 °C, 5 % CO_2 in

the dark. A final washing step was performed with 400 µl of PBS per hydrogel at RT for 5 min and

protected from light.

Imaging was performed on a confocal microscope (Leica SP5, Germany). Quantification of cell

number and viability at each time point was performed using ImageJ software (ImageJ 1.53s) [39].

One position from 3 independent samples was acquired at the gel center at 10x water-immersed

objective (HCX APO L U-V-I 10.0x 0.30), with tile merging of 3x3 and a 250 µm z-stack.

2.7   Primary hMSC morphology

Cell morphology was assessed after 1 and 14 days, staining the nuclei and actin cytoskeleton using

SYTOX and Phalloidin, respectively. All steps were performed under orbital shaking in a 24 well

plate and using a volume of 500 µL per gel. The culture media was removed and the gels were

washed twice with PBS (Merck #D8537). Then, the encapsulated cells were fixed in 4 %

paraformaldehyde solution (Sigma-Aldrich, #158127) for 45 min at RT, followed by

permeabilization with 0.3 % Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich, #11488696) for 15 min, washed twice

with 3 % bovine serum albumin (BSA, Sigma-Aldrich, #A7906) in PBS for 5 min. The staining

solution was dissolved in PBS containing 0.1 % TritonX-100 and 3 % BSA and with the following

concentrations: 0.5 µM SYTOX (Thermo Fisher, #S11381) and 1 µg/mL of Phalloidin 405

Conjugate (CruzFluor™, #SC363790). The staining was performed protected from light, during 4 h

at RT. Final washing was performed twice with 3 % BSA in PBS for 5 min at RT.

For imaging, three different positions per gel were acquired at the gel center from two independent

samples using a confocal microscope (Leica SP5, Germany). For a general quantification of cell

morphology, 10x water-immersed objective (HCX APO L U-V-I 10.0x0.30), with a tile merging of

2x2 was used and a 250 μm z-stack.

2.8 Primary hMSC differentiation

Cell differentiation was tested using Osterix (OSX) as an early osteogenic differentiation (see section

2.9), Osteocalcin (OCN) as medium osteogenic differentiation (see section 2.9), and OsteoImage as

late osteogenic differentiation marker. The stainings were performed after 14 days, always in

combination with cell morphology staining, SYTOX and Phalloidin, as described in Section 2.7.

For OsteoImage (Lonza, #PA1503) the staining procedure followed the provider´s instructions.

Briefly, the fixed cells (see section 2.7) were washed with the wash buffer twice for 5 min. Then, the

previously diluted 1:100 Osteoimage staining reagent in dilution buffer was added to the gels, 500 μL

per gel. The incubation was carried out at 4 °C, overnight and protected from light. The next day, the

samples were washed three times with the wash buffer and then imaged.

For imaging, three different positions per gel were acquired at the gel center from two independent

samples using a confocal microscope (Leica SP5, Germany). For a higher magnification

quantification of cell morphology, 25x water-immersed objective (HCX IRAPO L 25.0x0.95), with a

tile merging of 4x4 was used and a 250 μm z-stack.

2.9 Immunostainings

YAP, Osterix (OSX) and Osteocalcin (OCN) expression was evaluated by immunofluorescence.

After performing the morphological staining, SYTOX and Phalloidin, as described in Section 2.7, the

primary antibody was incubated for 24 h at 4 ⁰C under constant rocking. The antibodies used were:

YAP IgG2aκ mouse monoclonal (Santa Cruz, #sc-101199) at 10 μg/mL in PBS, OSX polyclonal

rabbit (abcam, ab22552) 10 μg/mL in PBS-1%BSA and OCN monoclonal mouse IgG1 (R&D

Systems, #MAB1419) at 25 µg/mL in PBS. After the primary antibody staining, the samples were

washed three times with 400 µL of 3 % BSA in PBS for 30 min. The secondary antibody

(ThermoFisher, #A32728) was stained for 2 h at RT under constant rocking. Finally, the samples

were washed 3 times with 3 % BSA in PBS and imaged.

For imaging, three independent positions per gel were acquired at the gel center from two

independent samples using a confocal microscope (Leica SP5, Germany). For a higher magnification

quantification of cell morphology, 25x water-immersed objective (HCX IRAPO L 25.0x0.95), with a

tile merging of 4x4 was used and a z-stack of 250 µm.

2.10   Quantitative analysis of stained sections

The cell morphology in 3D patterned materials was evaluated using a previously described macro

[23] written in ImageJ (ImageJ 1.53s, [39]). The cell projected area, cell circularity and cell number

were obtained from z-stack projections. The macro offers the possibility to freely divide an image

into a grid, which leads to a heat map in which the results are later depicted. The cell border threshold

was manually set.

To evaluate collective cell alignment, the Image J plugin Directionality was used [40]. The graphs

show the 'Direction (°)' or angle vs. the 'Amount', which shows the fraction of cells with a preferred

direction, normalized to the total cell number.

YAP, Osterix (OSX) and Osteocalcin (OCN) expression was quantified as a percentage of the marker

expressing cells (YAP, OSX or OCN or positive cells) divided by the total cell number (SYTOX).

The images were evaluated using ImageJ: first, a background subtraction of a control image of the

staining with only the secondary antibody was performed, followed by setting manually the threshold

and finally evaluating with the automatic particle counting function. The mineralized area obtained

with OsteoImage (OI) staining, was established as a percentage by dividing the OI positive cell area

by the total cell area (phalloidin staining).

The nuclear to cytoplasmic ratio of YAP was evaluated using a previously described method [41].

Briefly, individual cells were segmented for nucleus (SYTOX) and cytoplasm (phalloidin) to define

the respective subcellular regions. Next, YAP average intensity within each subcellular region was

quantified and the ratio calculated.

2.11 Flow cytometry analysis

After 14 days of encapsulation, the cells were retrieved from the hydrogels using alginate lyase

(Sigma, #A1603, reconstituted in Ca/Mg-free PBS in 2mg/mL). The cells were incubated for 30 min

at 37C, then centrifuged at 400 rcf during 5 min and washed twice with PBS. The flow cytometry

staining and analysis was done as described before [42]. The viable cells were determined using

fixable live/dead blue staining kit for UV excitation (Thermo Fisher L34962). The blocking solution

(FcX, BioLegend, 422301) was used to prevent unspecific binding. Staining with antibodies

(Supplementary table 2) was performed on ice and using flow cytometry buffer (phosphate-buffered

saline (PBS) including bovine serum albumin (0.5% w/v) and sodium acid (0.1% w/v)). Fixation and

permeabilization kit (BioLegend, 426803) was used for intracellular staining, while intranuclear

staining was performed with the TrueNuclear Transcription Factor buffer set (BioLegend, 424401)

according to the manufacturer's protocol. The stained cells were analyzed on an LSR Fortessa

(SORP, Biosciences, USA) system by applying a bead-based compensation matrix ID7000 spectral

flow cytometry (Sony Biotechnology, San Jose, CA, USA) with individual autofluorescence

unmixing. Gating and analysis of the population were performed with FlowJo software (BD

Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA), further analysis were performed in R Statistical Software

(v4.4.1; R Core Team 2024) using the Spectre packages [43].

2.12 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed with GraphPad Prism 8 (version 8.4.3 for Windows, GraphPad Software Inc., Boston, Massachusetts USA). To test for normality, the Shapiro-Wilk test was applied. For normally distributed data, bar plots showing mean and standard deviation (SD) were used and the statistical comparison was performed using ANOVA (* alpha < 0.05, ** alpha<0.01 or *** alpha<0.001), corrected with Bonferroni test for multiple comparisons. For not normally distributed data, box plots with median, 1st and 3rd quartile were used and data was compared using a Kruskal-Wallis test (* alpha < 0.05, ** alpha<0.01 or *** alpha<0.001), corrected with Dunn´s test for multiple comparisons

3   Results

3.1   Anisotropic degradation of cell-laden patterned hydrogels leads to emerging patterns in mechanics

Cells were encapsulated in photopatterned alginate hydrogels (Fig. 2A) with initial homogeneous mechanical properties (Fig. 2J). The comparable mechanical characteristics of the materials were achieved by tuning the MMPsens peptide concentration (Fig. 1F) and the N:T ratios (Fig 1G). The mechanical properties of cell-laden hydrogels evolved during time due to the cellular enzymatic action (Fig. 2A). Those mechanical properties were characterized by rheology (Fig. 2B, C, D, G) and microindentation (Fig. 2H-J).

Figure 2: Changes in mechanical properties and swelling over time of cell-laden anisotropic

hydrogels. Anisotropic dual crosslinking results in 3D patterns of hydrogel degradation due to cell-

derived enzymatic action (A). Representative plots of G´ (storage modulus, ●) and G´´ (loss modulus,

○) obtained by rheology of noDeg single-phase (dark purple) and Deg single-phase (light purple)

materials, on day 1 (B) and day 14 (C) from n=6 gels. Elastic modulus (D) and corresponding mesh

size (G), approximated from rheology data. Swelling (E) and volume (F) changes over time (relative

to 2h after equilibration), from n=3 gels. Representative microindentation map of the surface elastic

modulus on day 1 (H) and day 14 (I), 10x10 grid, indentation spacing of 200 μm. Surface elastic

modulus in Deg and noDeg phases obtained by microindentation, averaging all indents in a specific

region of patterned materials on day 1 and day 14 (J). Statistical significance with ANOVA and

Bonferroni correction.

The degradable and non-degradable materials have comparable values of loss (G´) and storage (G´´)

modulus on day 1 (Fig. 2B). However, on day 14 there is a pronounced difference in G´ and G´´ for

Deg materials (Fig. 2C). A significant decrease over time in mechanical properties of Deg materials

is observed, whereas the noDeg materials preserve their elastic modulus (Fig. 2D). The elastic

modulus on day 1 of Deg (2.07 ± 0.28 kPa) is comparable to noDeg (2.03 ± 0.22 kPa). Significant

differences can be seen between the elastic modulus of Deg (0.39 ± 0.27 kPa) and noDeg ($1.87 \pm$

0.38 kPa) on day 14. The elastic modulus changes can be related to the water content as there is a

significant difference in the swelling (Fig. 2E) and volume changes over time (Fig. 2F), which is also

reflected in an increasing mesh size (Fig. 2G). The mesh size of Deg materials increases significantly

between day 1 (24 ± 1 nm) and day 14 (59 ± 5 nm), whereas in noDeg materials the mesh size

remains unchanged from day 1 (21 ± 0.3 nm) to day 14 (22 ± 1 nm).

Compared to the degradation behavior of single-phase materials, the corresponding phases in

patterned materials show similar characteristics, as shown by the average surface elastic modulus of

microindentation measurements (Fig. 2J). As seen in the representative surface map of elastic

modulus, the pattern in degradation emerges over time. There is no distinct pattern of the surface

elastic modulus on day 1 (Fig. 2H), with values fluctuating around 2.5 kPa, consistent with the

comparable bulk elastic modulus of both single-phase materials (Fig. 2D). However, on day 14 (Fig.

2I), there are softer sections (1-1.5 kPa) corresponding to the Deg zones and stiffer sections (2.5 kPa)

associated with noDeg zones.

3.2 Anisotropic hMSC morphology and collective cell alignment in 3D patterned materials

compared to single-phase counterparts

hMSCs were encapsulated in 3D anisotropic materials with patterns in degradation. The viability and

cell number were evaluated using Calcein/ EtHD1 staining. Cell viability (fraction of Calcein (+)

cells) remained high on day 1 (Suppl. Fig. S2A-B) and day 14 (Suppl. Fig. S2D-E) and there were no

visible patterns in cell viability. Cell proliferation was also evaluated by individual quantification of

the average cell number (total cells, Calcein and EtHD1) (Suppl. Fig. S2C and S2F).

Next, we investigated the effect of patterned hydrogels on cell morphology and collective alignment.

Patterned materials with dimensions of 500 µm:500 µm for Deg:noDeg (Fig. 3A) were compared on

day 14 to single-phase materials (Fig. 3E, 3G). On day 1 (Suppl. Fig. S3A-C), cell morphology was

similar among the two phases of the patterned material, not showing any significant differences,

neither in projected cell area (Fig. 3H) nor in circularity (Fig 3I). Patterns in cell morphology were

visible on day 14 (Fig. 3A) and were quantified through heatmaps (Fig 3B-C). The results showed

increased projected cell area (Fig. 3B) and decreased circularity (Fig. 3C) in Deg regions, while cells

remained round and with smaller projected cell area in noDeg zones. Similar trends were observed in

equivalent single-phase materials (Fig. 3D-G). However, the effect in the morphological changes was

significantly enhanced in the Deg sections of patterned materials in contrast to the single-phase Deg

(Fig. 3H-I).

Figure 3: Anisotropic hMSC morphology in patterned materials on day 14. Representative

confocal images of actin (Phalloidin/green) and nucleus (SYTOX/cyan) staining of patterned

materials with hMSCs in growth media (A). Heatmap quantification with an 8x8 grid of projected

cell area (B) and cell circularity (C). Single-phase materials representative confocal images of actin

(Phalloidin/green) and nucleus (SYTOX/cyan) staining on day 1 (Deg (D) and noDeg (F)) and day 14 (Deg (E) and noDeg (G)). Dot graph of raw data (> 400 single cells per phase and condition) of projected cell area (H) and circularity (I) on day 14 (see Suppl. Fig. S3A-C for corresponding images and heat maps on day 1). Statistical significance with Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's correction). Scale bar: 500 μm (A) and 250 μm (D-G).

The patterned materials allowed enhanced changes in cell morphology but also differences in collective cell alignment (Fig. 4). The cell orientation was evaluated for patterns of different Deg:noDeg dimensions, 300 μm:300 μm (Fig. 4A-C), 500 μm:500 μm (Fig. 4D-F) and 800 μm:200 μm (Fig. 4G-I). The 300 μm:300 μm photomask (Fig 4A) resulted in cells collectively aligned perpendicular to the stripes in the Deg phases (Fig 4B), in contrast to the cells in noDeg sections (Fig 4C), where cells remained round and had no predominant orientation. This effect was further enhanced with the 500 μm:500 μm photomask (Fig. 4D-F). However, for the 800 μm:200 μm photomask (Fig 4G), with a broader degradable section, the collective cell alignment was lost (Fig. 4H) and was equivalent to single-phase materials (Suppl. Fig. 4A-D), where we found a spread cell morphology but lacked a collective cell alignment. Similarly, no collective alignment was found in patterned materials when subjected to constrained swelling in the XY direction (Suppl.Fig.4E-L).

Pattern mask dimensions: 300 μm:300 μm (Deg:noDeg)

Figure 4: Collective cell alignment of encapsulated hMSCs in patterned materials with different

photomask dimensions on day 14. *Patterned materials fabricated with photomasks of different*

Deg:noDeg dimensions: 300 μm:300 μm (A-C), 500 μm:500 μm (D-F) and 800 μm:200 μm (G-I).

Representative confocal images of actin (Phalloidin/green) and nucleus (SYTOX, cyan) staining of

patterned materials with hMSCs (A, D, G) and histograms indicating the distribution of the collective

cell alignment angle in Deg and noDeg phases of patterned materials (B/C, E/F, H/I), with n > 200

cells per phase. Scale bar: 500 μm.

3.3   Enhanced and spatially guided hMSC osteogenic differentiation in 3D patterned

materials compared to single-phase counterparts

Previous findings showed that 3D patterns in alginate hydrogel degradation induced an anisotropic

response in hMSC morphology and emergent properties such as collective cell alignment. This

motivated further investigation of the anisotropic hMSC osteogenic differentiation, evaluated by

early (Osterix, OSX) and intermediate (Osteocalcin, OCN) osteogenic markers.

Figure 5: Osteogenic and adipogenic differentiation of encapsulated hMSCs in patterned

materials on day 14. Actin (Phalloidin/green) and nucleus (SYTOX/cyan) staining with Osterix

(OSX, magenta, A-C) or Osteocalcin (OCN, magenta, D-F). Comparison between patterned

materials (A, D), single-phase Deg(S) (B, E) and single-phase noDeg(S) (C, F), quantified in bar

plots (G, H), which show the mean and standard deviation of n = 6 fields of view containing multiple

cells (n ≥ 150 cells per phase and condition). Statistical significance with ANOVA and Bonferroni

correction. Scale bar: 100 µm.

The anisotropic biophysical cues provided by the patterned materials already induced significantly

enhanced and spatially segregated osteogenic differentiation of hMSC over 14 days in growth media

(Fig. 5). The early osteogenic marker OSX (Fig 5A-C) was expressed in the Deg single-phase

materials (Fig. 5B) and also in the Deg phase of patterned materials (Fig. 5A), though to a lower

extent (Fig. 5G). Furthermore, the intermediate osteogenic marker OCN, indicative of further

differentiated hMSCs, was significantly higher (Fig. 5H) in the Deg sections of patterned materials

(Fig 5D) compared to single-phase Deg materials (Fig. 5E). The noDeg phases in both patterned and

single-phase materials (Fig. 5C, F) did not allow osteogenic differentiation of hMSCs.

With flow cytometry, individual cells can be explored on a higher parametric level. Cells were

retrieved from three different types of hydrogels: single-phase degradable (Deg(S)), single-phase

non-degradable (noDeg(S)), and patterned 3D hydrogels (patterned), after culturing for 14 days. We

investigated the changes in cell phenotype by analyzing various cell surface markers, as well as

intracellular markers, allowing to trace the differentiation from stem-like characteristics towards

osteogenic cells (Fig. 6). Dimension reduction (UMAP) of all cells from the three groups showed

distinct clustering of the groups (Fig 6A-G). The mean fluorescence intensity (geometric MFI)

allowed to determine the expression level of measured markers. All retrieved cells from the 3D

materials were negative for the markers CD45, CD34, CD166, CD271 and CD146. The surface

markers CD90, CD105, CD73, considered as minimal criteria for hMSC, showed altered positive

expression levels with CD90 (Fig 6H), especially, being higher expressed in the degradable

compared to the noDeg material (Fig 6H, K).

The intracellular markers Osteocalcin (OCN), Alkaline Phosphatase (ALP) and Osteopontin (OPN)

allowed to trace the osteogenic differentiation of encapsulated hMSCs, which show an increased z-

score of OCN and ALP in Deg materials (Fig. 6I, K). Interestingly, a small subset of cells in the

noDeg material expressed higher levels of OPN (Fig 6J, K).

To evaluate the difference between the patterned and single-phase materials, a principal component

analysis was performed (Fig 6L). The *x-axis* represents Principal Component 1 (PC1), which

explains 45.3% of the variance, while the *y-axis* represents Principal Component 2 (PC2), capturing

18.7% of the variance. Despite the overlap between the groups, the trend shows 3 distinct groups

enclosed in a 90% CI ellipse with an overall 64% explained variances. This indicates that the

patterned material induced a distinct cellular composition that differs from the respective single-

phase materials.

Figure 6: Flow cytometry evaluation of hMSCs retrieved from 3D patterned and single-phase

materials after culturing for 14 days. UMAPs cluster plots merged (A), Deg(S) (B), noDeg(S) (C)

and patterned (D), and the corresponding density plots of Deg(S) (E), noDeg(S) (F) and pattered

(G). Multiplots, contour plots plus histograms of the expression of: CD73 vs. CD90 (H), OCN vs.

ALP (I) and OCN vs. OPN (J). z-score quantification of hMSCs minimal criteria markers (CD105,

CD73, CD90) and differentiation markers (OCN, ALP, OPN) (K). Principal component analysis for

 dimension 1 (Dim 1, 45,3 %) and dimension 2 (Dim 2, 18,7 %), the big symbols show the center of

the ellipse and the smaller symbols the different batches (L). n=4 batches containing $1x10^5$ cells, for

each material.

3.4   Enhanced and spatially guided mechanosensing via YAP/TAZ signaling in 3D patterned

materials compared to single-phase counterparts

After establishing the significant differences in patterned hMSC projected cell area, circularity,

collective cell alignment and osteogenic differentiation, we investigated the underlying mechanism.

Based on the observation of morphological changes and associated cytoskeletal tension in degradable

regions, we investigated YAP positive expression (YAP(+)) and nuclear to cytoplasmic localization

within single cells in patterned materials (Fig. 7A-C) and compared it to the single-phase

counterparts (Fig 6D-G).

The fraction of YAP(+) cells was significantly higher in Deg materials patterned (Fig 7A) and single-

phase (Fig 7D) compared to noDeg (Fig. 7E) on day 14 (Fig 7H). Independent of the material or the

patterning, the YAP expression was equally distributed over the nucleus and the cytoplasm on day 1

(Fig 7I). On day 14, there was a nuclear translocation (nuc./cyto. >1) in Deg materials, patterned (Fig

7B) and single-phase Deg (Fig 7F), whereas for the noDeg materials, in patterned (Fig 7C) and in

single-phase (Fig 7G), it remained close to 1. The effect of nuclear YAP translocation was

significantly higher in Deg phases of patterned materials compared to Deg phases in single-phase

materials (Fig. 7I).

To test the influence of degradation in the YAP translocation, the MMPsens peptide crosslinker was

replaced with the homologous non-degradable scramble peptide (MMPscr). The MMPscr allowed the

comparison of the degradable and non-degradable material with the same chemical crosslinking and

mechanical properties (ex. crosslinker length). The MMPscr patterned materials showed a very

similar behavior on day 1 (data not shown) compared to day 14 (Fig. 7J-L). The lack of degradation

in the MMPscr regions led to a rounded cell morphology with a similar YAP expression (Fig. 7J-K)

as the one seen in noDeg phases (Fig. 7G). Both phases with MMPscr and noDeg patterned materials

had a similar YAP (+) cell percentage (Fig. 7M) and YAP localization (Fig. 7N), with no significant

differences neither between phases nor over time.

To test the relevance of integrin activation and cell-matrix interaction with alginate, we used

materials lacking RGD adhesion peptides (Fig. 7O-S). The cells in noRGD patterned materials

showed a similar behavior in the two phases on day 1 (data not shown) as well as on day14 (Fig 7O-

Q). The fraction of YAP(+) cells was lower (Fig. 7R) compared to materials with RGD (Fig. 7H).

Moreover, there were no significant differences in YAP(+) cells (Fig 7R) or localization (Fig. 7S),

neither between phases nor over time.

Figure 7: YAP expression and nuclear to cytoplasmic localization of encapsulated hMSCs in

patterned materials vs. single-phase materials, and controls with MMP scramble peptide and

without RGD on day 14. hMSC staining with actin (Phalloidin/green), nucleus (SYTOX/cyan) and

YAP expression (magenta). YAP expression in patterned materials: overview (A), representative

single cell images in the Deg (B) and noDeg (C) phase. YAP expression in single-phase materials:

overview of Deg (D) and noDeg (E) and representative single cells in Deg (F) and noDeg (G)

materials. Comparison between patterned and single-phase materials of YAP expression (H) and

nuclear to cytoplasmic localization (I). YAP expression in patterned materials with MMPscr control:

overview (J) and representative single cell images in Deg (K) and noDeg (L) regions. Quantification

of YAP expression (M) and YAP localization (N) in MMPscr materials. YAP expression in patterned

materials with noRGD control: overview (O) and representative single cell images in Deg (P) and

noDeg (Q) regions. Quantification of YAP expression (R) and YAP localization (S) in noRGD

materials. Bar plots show the mean and standard deviation of n = 6 fields of view containing

n>120cells (H, M, R) and of n = 10 representative single cells from Deg vs. noDeg regions (I, N, S).

Statistical significance with ANOVA and Bonferroni correction. Scale bar: 100 μm (A, D, E, J, O)

and 20 μm (B, C, F, G, K, L, P, Q).

3.5 Additional biochemical stimuli can enhance the spatially guided hMSC osteogenic differentiation

hMSC differentiation was further tested under osteogenic media to evaluate the effect of biochemical

stimuli in patterned materials. Cell morphology patterns are enhanced with osteogenic media (Fig.

8A-E) when compared to growth media (Fig. 3A), showing larger projected cell area (Fig. 8B) and

elongated cells with lower circularity (Fig. 8C) in Deg regions.

The intermediate osteogenic marker OCN had higher expression in osteogenic media (Fig. 8F)

compared to growth media and shows a significantly higher expression in Deg phases compared to

noDeg phases (Fig. 8F, K). Despite the biochemical stimuli of osteogenic media, the restrictive

environment of noDeg sections resulted in only a low number of OCN positive cells (Fig 8K). The

late osteogenic marker (mineralization, OsteoImage) (Fig. 8G, L) also had higher expression in

osteogenic media compared to growth media, with significantly higher mineralized area in Deg

sections compared to noDeg sections (Fig. 8L).

The fraction of YAP(+) cells in osteogenic media (Fig. 8H) showed also increased expression on day

14 in the Deg regions, but with overall increased values compared to growth media (Fig. 5M). The

YAP nuclear to cytoplasmic ratio shows a similar significant pattern over time in osteogenic media

compared to growth media (Fig. 8N), with nuclear translocation in the Deg phase (Fig. 8I) and

cytoplasmic expression in the noDeg phase (Fig. 8J). In the Deg phase the use of osteogenic media

significantly enhanced the nuclear translocation compared to growth media (Fig. 8M, N).

Figure 8: Enhanced cell response in patterned materials by osteogenic media on day 14.

Representative actin (Phalloidin/green) and nucleus (SYTOX/cyan) staining of patterned materials

with hMSCs in osteogenic media (A). Heatmap quantification with an 8x8 grid of projected cell area

(B) and cell circularity (C). Dot graph of growth vs osteogenic media of cells in patterned materials

(> 400 single cells per phase and condition) of projected cell area (D) and circularity (E) on day 14

(see Suppl. Fig. S3D-F for corresponding images and heat maps on day 1). Representative

Osteocalcin (magenta, F) or osterix (magenta, G) staining and expression quantification of OCN (K)

and mineralization (L). Representative YAP staining overview (H) and single cells from Deg (I) and

noDeg(J) sections. Quantification fraction of YAP(+) cells (M) and YAP localization (N). Dot graphs

show statistical significance with Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's correction and bar plots evaluated with

statistical significance with ANOVA and Bonferroni correction. Scale bar: 500 µm (A), 250µm (F, G,

H) and 20 µm (I, J).

4   Discussion

Degradation patterned materials enhance encapsulated hMSC spread morphology, allow collective

cell alignment, stimulate mechanotransduction and promote osteogenic differentiation, when

compared to single phase materials. By investigating patterned hydrogels as opposed to equivalent

single-phase matrices, we aimed to highlight the importance of using multicompartment materials in

biomaterial design. In addition, the patterned materials with anisotropic hydrogel degradation

allowed elucidating the role of degradation, without additional biophysical (such as stiffness) or

biochemical (such as osteogenic media) cues. Our findings offer insights into how these anisotropic

materials influence cell response, potentially leading to better strategies mimicking tissue anisotropy,

with applications in biofabrication and tissue engineering.

The anisotropic alginate-based hydrogels used in this research consist of two soft (<3kPa) 3D

microenvironments for cells, with comparable initial elastic modulus at day 1, and emerging patterns

through degradation over time. The comparable initial elastic modulus of both phases allows a direct

comparison on degradability effects, excluding other biophysical properties (i.e. matrix stiffness),

which have already been studied [44][24]. Moreover, the combination of both matrices in a patterned

multicomponent material results in a structural advantage over time, as the single phase Deg

materials crumble and start disintegrating due to degradation, while patterned materials keep their

shape after 14 days (Suppl. Fig. S5). It is important to highlight the tuneability of the matrix platform

used, which allows different combinations of mechanical and degradation properties (Fig. 1F-G).

Interestingly, the click reaction described in Fig. 1G shows a maximum elastic modulus at N:T ratio

0.5. This is consistent with the description of an unexpected dimer formation, following a 1:2 (N:T)

stoichiometry [45].

Cell spreading is dependent on the matrix degradation and this is enhanced in Deg sections of

patterned materials compared to single phase counterparts. Changes in morphology are a result of the

remodeling of the immediate environment [30] and consistently described in MMP-sensitive peptide

crosslinked materials [46]. Our research showed that the interphases of the patterned materials not

only lead to spatially segregated cell morphology, but also influence the collective cell alignment

perpendicular to the stripe main axis. Cell alignment in patterned materials has been previously

described on 2D topographical directed patterns [47][48][49] and in 2D mesh scaffolds [50],

exhibiting a parallel alignment to the groves/ridges, or perpendicular to them in wider curvatures

(>1000 µm) [51]. However, less is known about the mechanism for collective cell alignment within

3D matrices. Previous studies report the perpendicular cell alignment to be a result of force and

neighboring tensile stress [52]. Our research showed that cell alignment is dependent on the stripe

dimensions (Fig 4, broader stripes show no alignment), patterning (Suppl. Fig S4, single phase

hydrogels show no collective alignment) and, probably, on the material´s differential swelling

properties (Suppl. Fig S4, constrained swelling show no alignment). The direct transfer of

mechanisms of collective cell alignment into 3D matrices is still at early stage, as 3D environments

offer multiple factors that can influence cell, such as mechanical properties, adhesive ligand

concentration, crosslink type and density. Yet, understanding and guiding collective cell alignment

will be important for developing functional biomaterials that mimic biological anisotropic tissues,

which rely on fiber/cell directionality for optimal performance [53].

The 3D patterns in hydrogel degradation allowed spatially guided hMSC differentiation, promoting

enhanced osteogenic differentiation in the Deg region compared to the noDeg, or single-phase

degradable materials in growth media (Fig. 5). Strikingly, an early osteogenesis stage as shown by

OSX expression could be promoted solely by biophysical factors after 14 day culture in growth

media (hMSCs in Deg single-phase materials, Fig. 5B). This effect was enhanced in patterned

materials, which at the same time point showed OCN expression, an intermediate osteogenic marker

(Fig 5D). Our findings agree with previous studies on stiffness-degradation 3D patterned materials

showing that soft and Deg matrices foster osteogenesis [24]. Our study highlights the importance of

matrix degradability for osteogenesis, and the potential of using patterned materials for enhancing

and guiding osteogenic differentiation.

Moreover, biochemical factors (osteogenic media) in combination with patterned materials, enabled

late osteogenesis and mineralization in Deg phases. Notably, mineralization within the Deg phases

was only observed under osteogenic media, consistent with studies showing that biomineralization is

a complex process [54]. Despite the biochemical cues from osteogenic media were available for cells

in both Deg and noDeg phases of the patterned material, the guidance of the patterns is evident with

broader cell spreading, higher osteogenic differentiation and increased YAP nuclear translocation in

the Deg phases compared to the noDeg regions. These findings highlight the interplay between

biochemical and biophysical cues modulating cell behavior and the synergistic effect by anisotropic

patterned hydrogels.

Further flow cytometry analysis of hMSCs encapsulated in hydrogels enabled us to identify changes

in cell phenotype between the materials. The density plots showed clearly distinct clustering behavior

of the Deg and noDeg single-phase materials (Fig 6B, C), however the patterned material did not

cluster along the two single-phase materials (Fig 6D, G), hinting towards distinct processes in

anisotropic materials and not only replicating the two individual isotropic materials. All cells were

consistent with the minimal criteria markers: negative for CD45, CD34, , and positive for CD90,

CD73, CD105 [55]. There were no hMSCs subpopulations identified as the cells were negative for

CD166, CD271 and CD146 [56]. Deg materials led to the upregulation of CD90 (Fig. 6H), which

controls vital cellular processes, including cell–cell and cell–matrix interactions, cell adhesion and

cell response to dynamic matrices [57][58]. Notably, CD73 shows a downregulation in the patterned

materials when compared to Deg and noDeg. This effect could be due to the additional mechanical

strain from the anisotropic material interfaces, as previous studies have shown that CD73 is

downregulated in mechanically loaded cells [59].

The intracellular markers Osteocalcin (OCN), Alkaline Phosphatase (ALP) and Osteopontin (OPN)

allowed to trace the osteogenic differentiation of encapsulated hMSCs. In accordance with the

immunofluorescence staining for Osteocalcin (Fig 5), Deg and patterned materials induced

osteogenic differentiation in the encapsulated cells, as shown by the increased OCN expression (Fig

6 I, J) compared to noDeg. It is important to highlight that the patterned materials were analyzed as a

bulk (Deg+noDeg regions), therefore the enhanced effects in patterned Deg phase were not captured

using this method. This is a limitation of bulk analyses using flow cytometry, as opposed to image-

based methods and immunofluorescence.

Interestingly a small subset of cells in the noDeg material expressed higher levels of OPN (Fig 6 J).

OPN is a multifunctional protein, which has a role in inflammatory processes [60]. Non-degradable

alginate-based matrices have been previously reported to upregulate differentially expressed genes

involved in inflammatory response in breast cancer cells [61].

YAP nuclear translocation and mechanotransduction is enhanced in Deg sections of patterned

materials. In line with previous studies, Deg materials showed a higher YAP nuclear translocation

compared to noDeg, triggered solely by the degradation of the material [31][30][62]. Our research

takes this effect further by evaluating the enhanced mechanotransduction effect in patterned materials

compared to single-phase counterparts (Fig 7A-I). The enhanced hMSCs spreading and collective

cell alignment resulting from the anisotropic material interphases, seem to enhance

mechanosensation by YAP nuclear translocation. As underlying mechanism, we identify two key

factors: matrix degradation (as no YAP nuclear translocation was observed in MMPscr materials,

Fig. 7J-N) and the need of cell-matrix adhesion via integrin activation (as no YAP nuclear

translocation was observed in noRGD materials, Fig. 7O-S). This ultimately leads to enhanced

mechanotransduction and osteogenic differentiation in anisotropic hydrogels.

5   Conclusions

In summary, we show that anisotropic hydrogel degradation enhances hMSC cell spreading in 3D,

collective cell alignment, mechanotransduction and osteogenic differentiation, compared to the

single-phase equivalents. Patterned material´s interphase proximity, matrix-bound cell adhesion

peptide RGD and degradable crosslinking peptides are required for patterned mechanosensing. These

combined results highlight the importance of developing 3D patterned biomaterials to mimic the

anisotropy in biological tissues, for both fundamental understanding of guided collective cell

behavior and tissue anisotropy, as well as for applications in biofabrication and tissue engineering.

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7   CRediT authorship contribution statement

A Cipitria conceived the idea. CA Garrido, A Cipitria developed the methodology. CA Garrido, DS

Garske performed the experiments. CH Bucher performed the flow cytometry experiments and data

analysis. S Amini supported the micro indentation experiments. CA Garrido quantified and analyzed

the data. CA Garrido and A Cipitria drafted the manuscript. DS Garske contributed with the

visualization of the data. A Cipitria, K Schmidt-Bleek and GN Duda supervised, reviewed and edited

the original data and manuscript. All authors discussed the results and contributed to the final

manuscript.

8   Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial

relationships that could be considered as a potential conflict of interest.

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10   Data and code availability

All raw and processed data are available in the publicly accessible Edmond repository of the Max

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