An animal-free bioprocess to synthesize 3D human matrix scaffolds using mesenchymal stromal cells

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Abstract

Basement membrane, the specialized extracellular matrix (ECM) that compartmentalizes endothelial

and epithelial cells, is the final frontier in bioengineering. The fibrillar collagens (Col I and Col III)

of the interstitial matrix are commonly used for tissue modeling, but the networking collagens that

scaffold the basement membrane (human Col IV and Col VI) remain elusive. Commercial hydrogels

like Matrigel that simulate basement membrane are ill-defined, dilute, variable and contain murine

proteins. Here, we investigated whether human mesenchymal stromal cells (MSCs) could be used to

produce 3D basement membrane scaffolds amenable to decellularization and downstream

applications in bioengineering. Using a xeno-free, process, MSCs from placenta, umbilical cord,

bone marrow and adipose tissues were cultivated as adherent multilayers or free-floating

spheroids. Matrix assembly was assessed daily by fluorescence imaging and western blot, revealing

de novo, systematic, matrix development. Notably, these scaffolds were rich in basement membrane-

specific components Col IV and Col VI. Interestingly, we observed that MSCs produce distinct

combinations of Col IV alpha chains and other matrix components depending on their tissue of

origin. Ongoing work aims to combine this intrinsic Col IV patterning with other strategic process

parameters to refine basement membrane composition to resemble target tissues, and to develop

assays for processes like angiogenesis that incorporate relevant matrix biology as a variable and

readout.

Introduction

Bioengineering is a field of exponential biological innovation that is revolutionizing research and applied medicine. However, advancement of animal-free and human biomimetic biomaterials has been limited by the lack of raw materials to simulate the range of extracellular matrix (ECM) scaffolds that underlie human tissues. (Aisenbrey & Murphy, 2020; Perugini & Santin, 2021) In recent years, the critical role of ECM in fabricating high fidelity human organoids and tissues has become appreciated. (Jain et al., 2022; Kozlowski et al., 2021; Motta et al., 2023) The ECM not only serves as a scaffold that maintains the three-dimensional architecture of tissues but also influences cellular functions such as proliferation, differentiation, and migration through its biochemical composition and physical characteristics.(Olesen et al., 2021) Moreover, the mechanical properties of the ECM, such as stiffness and elasticity, significantly impact cellular behavior. (Black et al., 2008; Gonzalez-Fernandez et al., 2022; Saraswathibhatla et al., 2023; Thai et al., 2024)

Mammalian tissues and organs are scaffolded by two classes of ECM: (1) interstitial matrix and (2) basement membrane. (Pompili et al., 2021) Interstitial matrix is comprised mainly of the fibrillar collagens (I and III) and scaffolds the lamina propria, submucosa, muscular and serosa layers. (Pompili et al., 2021) The basement membrane is a specialized form of ECM located beneath the epithelial and endothelial cells that is scaffolded predominantly by the network forming collagen (Col), Col IV. (Khalilgharibi & Mao, 2021; Pompili et al., 2021) Basement membrane surrogates like Matrigel® and Cultrex™ are widely used in 3D culture. (Aisenbrey & Murphy, 2020; Kane et al., 2018) However, the biophysical, biochemical and functional properties of these matrix surrogates only distantly resemble human ECM. (Huang et al., 2021; Hughes et al., 2010; Kleinman & Martin, 2005; Kozlowski et al., 2021) These hydrogels are derived from murine Engelbreth-Holm-Swarm sarcoma (Jain et al., 2022; Kozlowski et al., 2021; Motta et al., 2023) and can contain up to 1800

different mouse proteins (Hughes et al., 2010) which introduce xenogeneic contaminants that that

interfere with experimental veracity and that are incompatible with transplant into humans.

(Aisenbrey & Murphy, 2020; de la Vega et al., 2019) While these and other biomaterials like bioinks

contain soluble matrix components, they lack the structural organization that provides essential cues

for tissue development and organization. (Tuftee et al., 2024) Thus, there is a critical need for

animal-component free matrix scaffolds that recapitulate the architecture of native tissues.

Several approaches have been explored to address this limitation. Tissues and organs from animals

and from human cadavers can be decellularized to yield intact matrix scaffolds for selective

reseeding to create tissue models for experimentation (Duisit et al., 2018; Jin et al., 2022; Johnson et

al., 2016) and transplant. (Griffith et al., 2022; Shaheen et al., 2020) Similarly, homogeneous and

multicellular spheroids (microtissues) can be cultivated to facilitate 3D ECM synthesis followed by

decellularization for downstream applications. (Chen et al., 2025; Chiang et al., 2021; Fonseca et al.,

2023; Malakpour-Permlid et al., 2021; Y. Zhang et al., 2023) A recent study showed that human lung

and cardiac fibroblasts from healthy and diseased donors could be used to synthesize matrix scaffolds

that recapitulate the architectural features of normal and diseased lungs and hearts, respectively.

(Fonseca et al., 2023; Franco-Barraza et al., 2016) Other matrix-producing cell types, including

mesenchymal stromal cells (MSCs), epithelial, hepatocytes and endothelial cells have also proven

useful for producing 3D matrix scaffolds with various compositions and architecture. (Fonseca et al.,

2023; Pompili et al., 2021; Smith et al., 2020; Tao et al., 2020) Together, these data suggest that the

range of tissue-specific matrices found throughout the human body could potentially be synthesized

in vitro by strategic selection of cell type for 3D culture. Further refinement may also be achieved by

tuning environmental conditions by addition of small molecules (Tong et al., 2018), growth factors

(Gonzalez-Fernandez et al., 2016; Malakpour-Permlid et al., 2021; Seif-Naraghi et al., 2012) and

macromolecular crowding, for example. (Assunção et al., 2020; Chiang et al., 2021; Tao et al., 2020)

Several groups have characterized how different decellularization techniques affect matrix structure

and function, enabling researchers to select detergents that allow them to preserve the relevant matrix

attributes necessary for their applications. (Kim et al., 2022; Crapo et al., 2011; Fonseca et al., 2023;

Gilpin & Yang, 2017; Marinkovic et al., 2016, 2020; Park et al., 2018; Prewitz et al., 2013; Rakian et

al., 2015).

Despite the rich potential to exploit human cells to synthesize ECM *in vitro*, most studies to date

include xenogeneic components like fetal bovine serum (FBS) for cell culture. FBS remains the most

widely used cell culture supplement due to its low cost and rich source of nutrients, growth factors

and hormones to support mammalian cell growth and proliferation. (M. Baker, 2016b; Hemeda et al.,

2014; Jung et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2023) However, many growth factors are sequestered in the matrix

for on-demand release by proteases during tissue remodeling, injury and inflammation. (Keppie et

al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2017) Thus, ECM cultivated in the presence of FBS contains embedded

proteins of bovine origin, a concern exacerbated by the reported batch-to-batch variability of FBS.

(M. Baker, 2016b, 2016a; Hemeda et al., 2014; Jung et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2023) Human platelet

lysate (hPL) is a non-xenogeneic alternative to FBS for human cell culture but is also plagued by

donor variability (Hemeda et al., 2014; Jung et al., 2010; Becherucci et al., 2018; Palombella et al.,

2022) and is therefore not ideal for experiments and processes that require stringent reproducibility.

Chemically defined culture media are emerging as an important alternative to ensure reproducible

bioprocess conditions. However, these formulations are not as nutrient-rich as FBS or hPL-

containing products, resulting in overall blunted cell performance. (Hemeda et al., 2014; Jung et al.,

2010; Xu et al., 2020; Spoerer et al., 2025).

Here we tested whether human MSCs could synthesize *de novo* 3D ECM scaffolds in an animal

component-free workflow. We adopted a quality-by-design approach to select only defined and

qualified reagents, including MSCs, that are available in GMP-compliant formulations for further

manufacturing. Several studies have already shown that MSCs synthesize a wide array of ECM

constituents (Chen et al., 2025; Maia et al., 2014; Novoseletskaya et al., 2020; Sagaradze et al., 2020;

Yin et al., 2024), and we previously reported that many of the potential biomarkers that distinguish

MSCs from fibroblasts are linked to the matrisome. (Wiese & Braid, 2020) Fibroblasts are

components of interstitial tissue and are programmed to synthesize interstitial matrix containing the

fibrillar collagens 1 and 3 amongst others. (Kumada & Zhang, 2010; Wilks et al., 2018) Here we

show that perinatal (umbilical cord (UC) and placental (PL)) and adult (adipose (AD) and bone

marrow (BM)) derived MSCs synthesize 3D ECM in suspended and adherent chemically-defined

cultures. The composition of the matrices varies by MSC tissue of origin and can include basement

membrane-like scaffolds enriched for the networking collagen Col IV.

Materials and Methods

2.1 Cell source

High quality human MSCs were obtained from commercial sources. UC were provided by Tissue

Regeneration Therapeutics (TRT), Inc. (Toronto, Canada). UC MSCs were isolated from the

perivascular Wharton's jelly of healthy term (>37 weeks) umbilical cords from 1 male and 1 female

infant delivered by C-section and cryopreserved at mean population doubling level (mPDL) 4.87. AD

and BM MSCs from female donors were obtained from RoosterBio Inc. (Frederick, MD) at 8.9 and

8.8 mPDL respectively. PL MSCs from a female donor was obtained from OrganaBio (Miami, FL)

at PDL 8.39. Experiments were performed using one donor population per tissue of origin.

2.2 Cell culture and maintenance

For cell expansion, MSCs were seeded at a density of 1,333 cells (UC MSCs) and 3,000 cells (AD,

BM, PL MSCs)/cm^2 in chemically defined phenol red-free MSC NutriStem XF® complete growth

media (Sartorius AG, USA). Culture-ware was pretreated with 2.67µg/cm^2 Col IV from human

placenta (MilliporeSigma) to facilitate adherence. Cells were maintained in physioxia at 37°C, 5%

CO_2, 5% O_2 and 80% relative humidity. At 70-80% confluence, MSCs were washed briefly with

Dulbecco's phosphate buffered saline (DPBS; MilliporeSigma) and enzymatically detached by brief

incubation with TrypLE Select (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). Upon complete

dissociation, an equal volume of media was added to the cell suspension and cells enumerated using

the CellDrop Fluorescent Cell Counter (DeNovix Inc., USA). Cells were pelleted by centrifugation at

150 x g for 5 minutes and the cell pellet resuspended in fresh chemically defined media before re-

seeding. All experiments were performed using MSCs between PDLs 16-24.

2.3 Generation of 3D MSC adherent multilayers

MSCs were expanded and maintained to harvest an appropriate number of cells for experiments.

High-density MSCs (7,813 cells/cm^2) were seeded into 24 well plates in chemically defined media

with media changes every 2-3 days and maintained at 37°C, 5% CO_2, 5% O_2 and 80% relative

humidity. At specified timepoints (days 1, 2, 4 or 7 after seeding), MSCs were washed with DPBS

and then decellularized (see section 2.5) for subsequent immunostaining.

2.4 Self-assembled spheroids

Spheroids were generated using a protocol adapted from Li et al (Li et al., 2021): 96-well plates were

coated with 75µl of sterile 1% agarose (w/v) and allowed to solidify at room temperature. Coated

plates were used immediately or stored up to 1 week in 80µl DPBS per well. DPBS was aspirated

prior to seeding. MSCs were suspended in culture media at a concentration of 437,500 cells/ml

(35,000 cells/well). 80µl of cell suspension was added to the coated wells and spheroids were

allowed to spontaneously aggregate over 4 days. To generate spheroids of different sizes, UC MSCs

were cultivated using initial cell counts of 7,000, 15,000, 35,000 or 75,000 MSCs per well.

To quantify differences in spheroid morphology across MSC tissue sources, AD, BM, PL and UC

MSCs spheroids were nucleated using 35,000 cells/well. Phase contrast images were captured on

days 1, 2 and 4 using an Echo Revolve inverted microscope (ECHO Inc., USA) with 10X objective

for morphometric analysis.

2.5 Decellularization

Adherent multilayered MSCs were decellularized on days 1, 2, 4 and 7 after seeding. Briefly, 24 well

plates were rinsed twice in DPBS, then incubated in decellularization solution (20mM NH₄OH +

0.5% Triton-X100 plus 1X cOmplete™ EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche) for 5 minutes

at 37°C, 5% CO_2, 5% O_2 and 80% relative humidity.

Spheroids were washed twice in DPBS for 5 minutes each then incubated in decellularization

solution for 30 minutes at 37°C, 5% CO_2, 5% O_2 and 80% relative humidity. To remove residual

DNA, the decellularized spheroids were washed twice more in DPBS, then treated with 50kU of

DNAseI plus EDTA-free protease inhibitor diluted in water for 30 minutes at 37°C, 5% CO_2, 5% O_2

and 80% relative humidity.

2.6 Immunofluorescence

Immunofluorescence imaging of adherent multilayer scaffolds was performed on cellularized and

decellularized samples. Wells were rinsed, fixed with 10% neutral buffered formalin for 10 minutes

and then permeabilized with PBT (1X DPBS + 0.1% Triton-X100) for 10 minutes followed by two

phosphate buffered saline (PBS) rinses. Wells were then blocked with 10% normal donkey serum

(MilliporeSigma) diluted in PBST (PBS + 0.1% Tween-20) for 30 minutes. Primary antibodies

against human collagen-IV (Col IV, 1:200, NovusBio NB120-6586), laminin (LM, 1:200, NovusBio

NB300-144,), fibronectin (FN, 1:200, NovusBio AF1918), and collagen-VI alpha 1 (Col VI, 1:200,

NovusBio NB120-6588) were diluted in antibody dilution buffer (PBS + 0.1% Triton-X100 with 1%

bovine serum albumin (BSA)) (MilliporeSigma) and incubated with the sample overnight at 4°C.

Cells were washed 3 times for 5 minutes each with PBS at room temperature, then incubated for 1

hour at room temperature with secondary antibodies (donkey anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) conjugated to

AlexaFluor™ 647 (Invitrogen A32795) or donkey anti-Sheep IgG conjugated to AlexaFluor™ 594

(Invitrogen A110106)) diluted 1:1000 in antibody dilution buffer. Cells were rinsed twice with PBS

and then stained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI, 1:4000, MilliporeSigma) for 2 minutes

at room temperature before washing 3 times for 5 minutes each in PBS.

Images were captured using a Nikon ECLIPSE Ti2-E inverted microscope with the 20X objective

lens with 32X averaging on NIS Elements software (Nikon Instruments, Inc., USA). Images were

edited using FIJI (v1.54k; (Schindelin et al., 2012)). Wells corresponding to days 1 and 2 were edited

to remove background and visualize weak signal. Raw images were imported into FIJI as 16-bit,

greyscale images and the brightness and contrast of each image optimized: FN minimum and maximum levels were set to 185 and 400, respectively; Col IV minimum and maximum levels were set to 170 and 600, respectively; Col VI minimum and maximum levels were set to 120 and 275, respectively; LM minimum and maximum levels were set to 115 and 540, respectively. Images taken on days 4 and 7 were comparably adjusted to maintain consistency between timepoints. FN minimum and maximum levels were set to 160 and 250, respectively; Col IV minimum and maximum levels were set to 145 and 275, respectively; Col VI minimum and maximum levels were set to 125 and 200, respectively; LM minimum and maximum levels were set to 115 and 190, respectively. Z-stacked images were taken using a Nikon A1R Laser Scanning Confocal microscope equipped with a Plan Fluor 40X Oil DIC H N2 lens with cellularized UC MSCs after 7 days in culture.

Decellularization efficiency was measured using FIJI. DAPI 16-bit images were imported and threshold with black background was set for the cellularized (913-65535) and decellularized (1600 or 2724- 65535) respectively. A gaussian blur with sigma factor 2 was applied with auto thresholding set to "default dark". The images were masked based on the thresholding values, and the "analyze particles" tool was used to obtain nuclei count. Intact nuclei were counted from at least 10 fields of view per each of 3 decellularized wells and per 1 cellularized well in each experiment. Decellularization efficiency was calculated as the percent of nuclei in decellularized wells compared to cellularized wells.

2.7 Morphometric analysis

Images were acquired on days 1, 2 and 4 as described in section 2.4 and processed using Adobe Photoshop 2023 (24.0.1, Adobe, USA). Spheroids were selected using Object Selection. In cases

where the background was too high for auto-selection, the Magnetic Lasso tool was used to manually

trace the spheroid perimeter. The background replaced with grey as a separate layer on Photoshop to

restrict calculations of each spheroid. For the initial spheroid seeding density experiments, the Ruler

tool was used to measure spheroid diameter after 4 days in culture. Next, the Measure tool was used

to automatically quantify spheroid area, perimeter and circularity. At least 19 spheroids per

biological replicate, per tissue source were quantified.

2.8 Western blot

Total protein was collected from at least 15 pooled, decellularized and DNAseI-treated spheroids per

tissue source and replicate. Decellularized spheroids were washed twice with DPBS then submerged

in 75µl radioimmunoprecipitation assay (RIPA) buffer and immediately flash frozen in liquid

nitrogen and stored at -80°C until use. 3D matrices were solubilized by 3 rounds of sonication at 10%

amplitude for 30 seconds (1 second on, 1 off). Protein concentration was determined using

Bicinchoninic acid assay (BCA; MilliporeSigma). Samples were diluted and prepared in 6X Laemmli

buffer to load 3ug of total protein in 10µl per lane then boiled at 95°C before loading on an 8% gel.

Proteins were subjected to electrophoresis for 1.5 hours at 140V. Size fractionated proteins were

transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane overnight at 4°C. The membrane was incubated with

primary antibody solution (rabbit anti-human col IV (1:1000, NovusBio, NB120-6586), rabbit anti-

laminin (1:1000, NovusBio, NB300-144), rabbit anti-col VI alpha 1 (1:2000, NovusBio NB120-

6588), rabbit anti Col I (1:500, Abcam ab34710), sheep anti-fibronectin (1:3000, NovusBio AF1918)

or rabbit anti-elastin (1:3000, Invitrogen PA5-99418) overnight at 4°C. Membranes were then

washed twice in 1X TBST for 10 minutes each, followed by blocking for 10 minutes each in 5%

skim milk, and 5% BSA for elastin. Secondary antibodies (goat anti-rabbit IgG, H+L chain specific

peroxidase conjugate (1:3000, Millipore Sigma 401393), rabbit anti-sheep IgG (H+L) secondary

antibody (1:4000,Invitrogen 61-8620) or AMDEX™ goat anti- rabbit horseradish peroxidase

conjugate (1:3000, Cytiva RPN4301) were diluted in blocking solution and added to the membrane

for 1 hour at room temperature. Membranes were washed four times in 1X TBS + 0.1% Triton-X100

(TBST) and visualized using UltraScence Pico Ultra Western Substrate (FroggaBio). Western blots

were imaged using an Amersham™ AI600 Imager (GE HealthCare Technologies, USA).

2.9 Statistical analyses

Statistical analysis was carried out using Prism 10.3.1 (GraphPad Software, LLC). Significant

differences were calculated using student's t-test (decellularization efficiency), 2-way analysis of

variance (spheroid morphometrics) and Kruskal-Wallis test (spheroid initial seeding density). Error

bars represent standard deviation (SD) ± of the calculated means. ns = non-significant $P>0.05$, * $P \leq$

0.05, ** $P \leq 0.01$, *** $P \leq 0.001$ and **** $P \leq 0.0001$. All experiments were performed 3

independent times.

Results

Multilayered UC MSCs produce 3D matrices in chemically defined media

We first asked whether our previously documented expression of matrisome genes by UC MSCs

(Wiese & Braid, 2020) correlated with protein synthesis and could result in *de novo* production of

matrices containing the basement membrane collagen Col IV in chemically defined conditions. UC

MSCs were cultured in adherent multilayers followed by decellularization to assess ECM biogenesis.

Ammonium hydroxide decellularization cleared 95.3% of nuclei, proving highly effective (Fig.S1).

We then analyzed the deposition of select adhesive (fibronectin, laminin) and structural (Col IV) matrix

proteins over time by immunofluorescence. In the multilayer scaffolds, fibronectin was the most

prevalent matrix component at Day 1 and increased in abundance and architectural complexity through

day 7 (Fig. 1A, B). Laminin and Col IV were not detectable until Day 2, after which both proteins

accumulate in networked structures through day 7 (Fig. 1A, B). Z-stacked cross-section views of day

7 cellularized cultures (Fig. 1C) reveal a matrix depth of approximately 8µm, with fibronectin

interspersed throughout the scaffold (Fig. 1D). Lysl oxidase-like 2 (LOXL2), an ECM crosslinking

enzyme and important for Col IV stabilization was used as a cytoplasmic marker to delineate MSCs

(white) depicting them directly interacting with the fibronectin matrix (Fig. 1C, D).

Figure 1: High-density UC MSC cultures construct 3D matrices. (A) Fibronectin is first detected

by immunogenic staining 2 days after seeding, followed by Col IV on Day 4. Laminin and Col VI are

not readily detected until Day 7, when all 4 analytes are visible components of an organized matrix

structure. Scale bar = 100µm (B) Schematic summarizing the temporal synthesis of ECM

components depicted in (A). (C) Z-stacked maximum intensity projection of cellularized adherent

multilayers reveal networks of fibronectin (red) networks intercalating between MSCs (white). (D)

3D adherent multilayer displayed in maximum intensity projection cross-section (volume) view

shows 8 μm matrix thickness in the Z-plane. Red: fibronectin, white: LOXL2 (cytoplasmic marker),

blue: DAPI (nuclear marker). Data shown is representative from a dataset of n=3 independent

experiments with 5-6 fields of view per experiment.

MSCs from different human tissues self-assemble into 3D spheroids in chemically defined media

Having confirmed that UC MSCs can produce Col IV-positive matrix with scaffolded architecture,

we next examined whether MSCs from adult (AD, BM) and perinatal (PL, UC) tissues could

construct *de novo* 3D matrix as spheroids when cultured in chemically defined media. Within four

days of high-density seeding on agarose-coated 96-well plates, MSCs from both adult and perinatal

tissues formed a single free-floating spheroid in each well (Fig. 2A). A small number of

unincorporated cells remained in solution and formed micro-aggregates or attached to the wall of the

well, particularly in AD MSC cultures (not shown).

The morphometric uniformity and reproducibility of the resulting spheroids were assessed within

tissue each source and between tissue sources. The spheroids become more uniform over time.

Circularity (where 1.0 is a perfect circle) increases from day 1 to day 4 by 11-15% for each MSC

type, resulting in average circularities of 0.84, 0.78, 0.80 and 0.80 by day 4 for AD, BM, PL and UC

MSCs, respectively (Fig. 2B, C). Circularity was accompanied by compaction, as the spheroids

significantly decreased in area (Fig. 2D, E) and perimeter (Fig. 2F, G). Interestingly, the rate and

extent of compaction varied between MSCs from different tissues (Fig. 2C, E, G) where PL MSCs

exhibited the least compaction (mean area $2.29E^5 \mu m^2$), followed by AD MSCs (mean area

$2.09E^5 \mu m^2$). UC MSCs and BM MSCs produced the most compact spheroids with mean area

$1.60E^5 \mu m^2$ and $1.20E^5 \mu m^2$, respectively.

We next investigated how initial cell density might influence spheroid self-assembly. Spheroids were

nucleated using 7,000, 15,000 35,000 and 75,000 MSCs per well. (Fig. 3A) Irrespective of seeding

density, all spheroids successfully self-aggregated. Spheroid size increased relative to seeding

density, but not linearly (Fig. 3B). All spheroids were visible by eye with diameters ranging from

326 to 707μm (Fig. 3A). With the exception of the largest aggregates nucleated with 75,000 cells,

spheroids could be aspirated using a P1000 pipette without shearing. On the other hand, the smallest

spheroids were challenging to visualize and manipulate. Considering these practical limitations, as

well as reported oxygen diffusion limits (Murphy et al., 2017), we selected spheroids nucleated using

35,000 MSCs and cultured to day 4 for the remainder of the study.

Figure 2: MSC tissue source influences spheroid morphology. A) Spheroids from AD, BM, PL

and UC MSCs display variable morphology after 4 days in culture. MSC spheroids became more

uniform over time as shown by changes in circularity where 1.0 is a perfect circle (B) within tissue

sources and (C) across tissue sources. The increase in circularity is accompanied by an increase in

compaction and a significant decrease in area (D) within tissue sources and (E) across tissue sources

along with a significant decrease in perimeter (F) within tissue sources and (G) across tissue sources.

At least 19 spheroids per tissue source were analyzed per experiment. Each datapoint corresponds to

one spheroid from n=3 independent experiments. Scale bar = 100µm.

330
Figure 3: Spheroid diameter increases with initial seeding density. Spheroids were seeded using

7,000, 15,000, 35,000 or 75,000 US MSCs and cultivated for 4 days. (A) Diameter (upper right

corner) is the average measurement for each group. (A, B) Spheroid diameter (µm) increased with

seeding density.

Representative images are from n=3 independent experiments. Scale bar = 100µm.

MSCs from different tissue sources produce different levels of matrix components

We then examined how tissue of origin might influence the ability of MSCs to produce basement

membrane-like ECM. Decellularized 3D spheroids were solubilized, normalized to total protein and

analyzed by western blot. Only UC- and AD-derived matrices contained detectable levels of all the

analytes, although Col IV and elastin were less represented in the AD-derived scaffolds. All the

analytes except elastin were also detected in PL-derived ECM, although Col I was more prevalent

than in the other matrices. The matrix produced by BM MSCs was markedly different and comprised

mainly of fibronectin with little to no Col I, Col IV or elastin. Interestingly Three Col I isoforms,

sized 140, 120 and 115 kDa, were produced at different levels by AD, PL and UC MSCs. While AD

MSCs produced similar levels of the isoforms, PL MSCs preferentially synthesized the 120 and 115

kDa isoforms and the 115kDa isoform was the most prominent Col I isoform in UC MSC matrix.

349
350
Figure 4: MSC from different tissues produce compositionally distinct matrices. Relative

abundance of basement membrane proteins in decellularized AD, BM, PL or UC MSC spheroids

were analyzed by western blot. Samples were normalized by total protein (3μg/lane). UC MSC

matrices were enriched for all the tested basement membrane factors, although AD and PL MSCs

synthesized relatively more Col I. AD and PL MSCs also produced many basement membrane

factors although Col IV levels were substantially less than the other analytes. By contrast, matrix

from BM MSCs was relatively enriched for fibronectin, with negligible levels of Col I and Col IV.

Representative data from n=3 independent experiments.

Discussion

There is a critical need for functional human matrix components to support the next generation of

high-fidelity tissue models for experimental use and transplant. (Catarino et al., 2022; Liu et al.,

2023; Naderi-Meshkin et al., 2023; Schneider et al., 2023) Moreover, there is a paucity of intact and

functional basement membrane biomaterials to recapitulate the complexity of human tissues, and

more importantly, to facilitate vascularization.(Chan et al., 2016; Marrella et al., 2018; Minor &

Coulombe, 2020; Zhao et al., 2022) Here we report that the intrinsic architectural capacity of MSCs

(Kim et al., 2023; Marinkovic et al., 2020; Novoseletskaya et al., 2020; Ushakov et al., 2024; Yang et

al., 2024), which occupy perivascular basement membrane niches *in vivo* (Caplan, 2017; Corselli et

al., 2013; Kang et al., 2010) can be leveraged to synthesize basement membrane-type matrices in a

chemically defined bioprocess.

We performed a temporal analysis of extracellular matrix deposition and spheroid formation, studies

that are reportedly under-represented in the literature. (Fuentes et al., 2022) We found that MSCs

build 3D matrix in an organized fashion, beginning with synthesis of fibronectin. The fibronectin

fibers are then overlaid with laminin and Col IV, accompanied by ongoing fibronectin incorporation,

which recapitulates the hierarchical pattern of basement membrane synthesis *in vivo*. (Pompili et al.,

2021) We also documented increased spheroid organization and compaction over time, although the

degree of compaction was different between MSC cultures from different tissue sources. Compaction

is a natural developmental process that indicates organotypic self-organization. (Baker & Chen,

2012; Domnina et al., 2020) Spontaneous compaction, as observed here, is mainly driven by ECM

structure and stiffness. (Efremov et al., 2021; Jahin et al., 2023; Kosheleva et al., 2023) we found that

BM MSC-derived spheroids were significantly more compact, contained relatively more fibronectin

and lacked the networking Col IV. These data suggest that BM MSC-matrices are considerably

stiffer than matrices derived from UC, PL and AD MSCs, may contain high levels of other fibrillar

collagens like Col III, and together are not suitable for synthesis of basement membrane-type

matrices.

Indeed, we found that the synthesis and relative abundance of basement membrane components was

influenced by MSC tissue of origin. Based on previous studies (Marinkovic et al., 2016, 2020;

Rakian et al., 2015), including our reports that UC MSCs express significantly higher levels of the

non-fibrillar basement membrane collagens (Col IV and Col VI) than fibroblasts (Wiese & Braid,

2020) and BM MSCs (Wiese et al., 2022), this outcome was anticipated. However, our results differ

from some previous reports. For example, the Chen group reported that decellularized BM MSC

scaffolds contained Col IV, while AD MSC scaffolds did not (Marinkovic et al., 2020), which is the

inverse of our results. These disparate outcomes may be the consequence of different media

formulations and FBS supplements (Bartosh et al., 2010; Cesarz & Tamama, 2016; Chen et al., 2025,

2025; Chiang et al., 2021; Fuentes et al., 2022; Lee et al., 2016; Yin et al., 2024). Only a few studies

have investigated ECM synthesis in serum-free conditions (Choi et al., 2021; Rakian et al., 2015),

while even fewer have used fully xeno-free processes. (Bauman et al., 2018)

Environmental conditions like oxygen tension also influence matrix synthesis. (Kumar et al., 2018;

Lee et al., 2016; Satyam et al., 2016) For example, a recent study showed that human articular

chondrocytes cultured at physiological oxygen tension (5% O_2) produced thicker matrices wither

increased deposition of glycosaminoglycans and Col II as well as increased tensile strength. (Dennis

et al., 2020) MSC spheroids cultured under hypoxia (2% O_2) produced more laminin, fibronectin and

Col I compared to spheroids cultured at ambient (~20%) O_2. (Shearier et al., 2016) Since MSCs were

cultivated under 5% O_2 in our study, oxygen tension may be a key differential that contributes to the

disparate outcomes between our data and other studies that maintain MSCs at ambient O_2 tension.

This study provides proof-of-concept that human MSCs can be leveraged to produce 3D matrices,

including scaffolds enriched for basement membrane components, in an animal-component free and

defined bioprocess. Subsequent work will use proteomics to comprehensively characterize the

structural and signaling composition of the scaffolds. Biophysical analyses will provide further

insight into how the biomechanics of these MSC-derived matrices and will inform tuning of culture

conditions to more closely recapitulate *bona fide* ECM. The results herein are an in important step

forward in the pursuit of high fidelity, functional tissue models for disease modeling, drug discovery

and regenerative medicine.

Conflict of Interest

LRB is founder and CSO of Aurora BioSolutions Inc. SNS has no conflicts to declare. The authors

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

that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Author Contributions

data, data analysis and interpretation, manuscript writing, critical review of the manuscript and final

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Supplemental Figure

436
437 **Figure S1: Ammonium hydroxide decellularization efficiently clears nuclear material**.

438 Adherent 3D UC MSC cultures were decellularized using an ammonium hydroxide protocol. A)

439 Nuclei were labeled using DAPI and quantified (number in the bottom left of the image). B) The

440 number of nuclei was significantly reduced by 95.8% after decellularization.

441 Representative data from n=3 independent experiments. Scale bar = 100μm..

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