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

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Abstract

Basement membrane is a specialized extracellular matrix (ECM) that compartmentalizes epithelial and

endothelial tissues and provides essential structural and signaling cues for tissue organization. While

fibrillar collagens (Col) of the interstitial matrix (e.g., Col I and Col III) are widely used in tissue

modeling, the networking collagens that scaffold basement membrane, including human Col IV and

Col VI, remain difficult to access. Commercial basement membrane surrogates such as Matrigel® are

derived from murine tumors and are ill-defined, dilute, variable, and incompatible with animal-free

biomanufacturing. Thus, there is a critical need for human-derived basement membrane matrices that

are free of xenogenic contaminants and do not rely on animal agriculture.

Here, we investigated whether human mesenchymal stromal cells (MSCs) could serve as a platform to

produce self-assembling basement membrane components under chemically defined, xeno-free

conditions. MSCs from placental, umbilical cord, bone marrow, and adipose tissues were cultured as

three-dimensional spheroids and adherent multilayered sheets. Confocal imaging of whole-mount,

decellularized spheroid matrices revealed complex networks of fibronectin and Col IV with topological

and organizational features characteristic of native basement membrane. Perinatal MSCs produced distinct matrix architectures consisting of apical fibronectin sheets underlaid by continuous Col IV networks. Time-resolved imaging of umbilical cord MSC–derived matrix sheets demonstrated a reproducible sequence of basement membrane assembly that parallels developmental tissue organization.

Together, these findings demonstrate that human MSCs, cultured entirely without animal-derived components, can synthesize functional basement membrane proteins that self-assemble into ordered, tissue-like scaffolds. This work establishes MSCs as a scalable, sustainable, and cruelty-free platform for the manufacturing of human basement membrane matrices for bioengineering and regenerative medicine applications.

1   Introduction

The extracellular matrix (ECM) plays a central role in tissue organization, morphogenesis, and cell fate determination, making it a critical component of bioengineered human tissues and organoid systems (Jain et al., 2022; Kozlowski et al., 2021; Motta et al., 2023; Olesen et al., 2021). While interstitial matrix provides essential structural support, tensile strength, and scaffolding for cells within connective tissues, basement membrane–type matrices provide essential biochemical and structural cues that regulate epithelial and endothelial polarity, vascularization, and growth factor signaling (Jain et al., 2022; Jayadev & Sherwood, 2017; Khalilgharibi & Mao, 2021; Pompili et al., 2021; Sekiguchi & Yamada, 2018; Yurchenco, 2011). Despite their importance, the development of human-relevant basement membrane scaffolds remains limited by the availability of appropriate matrix materials (Aisenbrey & Murphy, 2020; Perugini & Santin, 2021).

Currently, basement membrane surrogates such as Matrigel® and Cultrex™ are widely used in three-

dimensional (3D) culture systems (Aisenbrey & Murphy, 2020; Kane et al., 2018). However, these

materials are derived from murine Engelbreth–Holm–Swarm sarcoma and only distantly resemble

native human basement membrane in composition and organization (Huang et al., 2021; Hughes et al.,

2010; Kleinman & Martin, 2005; Kozlowski et al., 2021). Their reliance on animal agriculture raises

ethical and sustainability concerns, while xenogeneic contaminants, batch-to-batch variability, and

undefined bioactive components limit experimental reproducibility and translational applicability

(Aisenbrey & Murphy, 2020; Baker, 2016a, 2016b; Hemeda et al., 2014; Jung et al., 2010; Liu et al.,

2023). Given the harsh conditions required to solubilize tumor matrix proteins, these hydrogels likely

contain fragmented ECM proteins that are incapable of physiologic matrix self-assembly (Hughes et

al., 2010; Tuftee et al., 2024).

Human cell–derived ECM represents a promising alternative, as cells can synthesize, process, and

assemble matrix proteins into organized networks that more closely resemble native tissue architecture

(Fonseca et al., 2023; Franco-Barraza et al., 2016; Muiznieks & Keeley, 2013; Solomonov et al., 2025).

Approaches including tissue decellularization and cell-generated microtissues have demonstrated the

feasibility of producing human ECM scaffolds *in vitro* (Chen et al., 2025; Chiang et al., 2021; Duisit

et al., 2018; Fonseca et al., 2023; Jin et al., 2022; Johnson et al., 2016; Malakpour-Permlid et al., 2021;

Zhang et al., 2023). Mesenchymal stromal cells (MSCs) are attractive candidates for matrix production

due to their availability from multiple tissues, robust secretory capacity, and established use in

biomanufacturing (Fonseca et al., 2023; Pompili et al., 2021; Smith et al., 2020; Tao et al., 2020).

However, most studies of MSC-derived ECM have relied on animal-derived supplements such as fetal

bovine serum (FBS) or human platelet lysate (hPL) (Amable et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2025; Maia et

al., 2014; Novoseletskaya et al., 2020; Sagaradze et al., 2020; Yin et al., 2024).

The use of serum-based culture systems presents significant limitations for matrix manufacturing.

Growth factors present in FBS and hPL become sequestered within the ECM, embedding xenogeneic

or donor-dependent proteins that compromise matrix definition, reproducibility, and downstream

applications (Baker, 2016a, 2016b; Hemeda et al., 2014; Jung et al., 2010; Keppie et al., 2021; Liu et

al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2017). Chemically defined media offer a path toward reproducible, animal-

component-free bioprocessing (Malakpour-Permlid et al., 2025; Oredsson et al., 2025; Weber et al.,

2024), but these formulations lack the complex growth factor milieu found in serum and are often

associated with reduced cellular performance (Hemeda et al., 2014; Jung et al., 2010; Spoerer et al.,

2025; Xu et al., 2020). Critically, matrix production requires not only synthesis of ECM proteins, but

also coordinated expression of processing enzymes necessary to convert precursor molecules, such as

procollagens, into mature, self-assembling networks (Muiznieks & Keeley, 2013; Solomonov et al.,

2025). Whether chemically defined media can support this level of MSC-mediated matrix assembly

remains unknown.

Here, we investigate whether human MSCs from multiple tissue sources can self-assemble basement

membrane–type matrices under fully defined, animal-component-free conditions. Using a quality-by-

design approach compatible with GMP manufacturing, we show that MSCs cultured in chemically

defined media form three-dimensional spheroids and adherent multilayered sheets that deposit Col IV–

positive basement membrane matrices. These matrices contain canonical basement membrane

components, can be decellularized, and support recellularization, demonstrating their potential as

scalable and human-relevant ECM scaffolds for bioengineering applications.

2　　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 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 mPDL 8.39.

Experiments were performed using one donor population per tissue of origin. For whole mount

immunostained spheroids (Section 2.7), 3 UC MSC donor populations were pooled and cultivated.

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). Cells were seeded according to TRT and RoosterBio's recommended

seeding density and expansion protocols which have been optimized for maximal cell expansion.

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 in a Heracell VIOS 160i tri-gas incubator (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). At 70-

80% confluence, MSCs were washed briefly with Dulbecco's phosphate buffered saline (DPBS;

MilliporeSigma) and enzymatically detached by 2-3 minute 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 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 NutriStem XF® 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 in the incubator. 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.

2.4 Morphometric analysis

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. Images were acquired on days 1, 2 and 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 was replaced with grey as a separate layer using 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.

2.5 Multilayered MSC sheets

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 incubated 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 2.6) for subsequent immunostaining.

2.6 Decellularization

Spheroids and multilayered sheets were washed twice in 1X DPBS for 5 minutes each then incubated

in decellularization solution (20mM NH_4OH + 0.5% Triton-X100 plus 1X cOmplete^{TM} EDTA-free

protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche)) 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 DNAse I plus EDTA-free protease inhibitor diluted in water for 30 minutes at 37°C, 5%

CO_2, 5% O_2 and 80% relative humidity. The washes were repeated and then the spheroids were stored

at 4°C for whole mount immunofluorescence or submerged in 75µl radioimmunoprecipitation (RIPA)

buffer and immediately flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until use for western blot

analysis.

To assess retention of cellular material after decellularization, untreated MSC sheets were

immunostained with anti-carboxymethyl lysine (anti-CML; 1:200; ab125145; Abcam, USA) as

detailed in Section 2.7. The sheets were imaged, then decellularized and re-imaged (Fig S1A). All

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

Retention of nuclear material after decellularization was assessed using FIJI analysis of DAPI-stained

decellularized matrices (Fig S1.B). 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 for each of 3

decellularized wells and 1 cellularized well in each experiment (Fig. S1C). Decellularization efficiency

was calculated as the percent of nuclei in decellularized wells compared to cellularized wells.

2.7 Immunofluorescence

Spheroids and sheets were immunostained in 1.5ml microcentrifuge tubes with nutation or in-well,

respectively. For confocal imaging, UC MSCs were seeded at 4000 cells/cm^2 onto coated IBIDI 8-well

chamber slides. Cellularized samples were fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin (NBF;

MilliporeSigma) for 10 minutes, rinsed in 1X DPBS and then permeabilized with PBT (1X DPBS +

0.1% TritonX-100) for 10 minutes. Following 3 washes in 1X DPBS, samples were 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; Col IV alpha

1 NC1, 1:100 Chondrex 7070), laminin (LM, 1:200, NovusBio NB300-144), fibronectin (FN, 1:200,

NovusBio AF1918) collagen VI alpha 1 (Col VI, 1:200, NovusBio NB120-6588) or lysl oxidase-like

2 (LOXL2, 1:100, Abnova 675-773) 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. Scaffolds were washed 3 times for 5 minutes each with 1X DPBS at room temperature, then

incubated for 1 hour at room temperature with secondary antibodies (donkey anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L)

conjugated to AlexaFluor^{TM} 647 (1:1000, Invitrogen A32795), (goat anti-Rat 1gG (H+L) conjugated

to Dylight^{TM} 680 (1:500, Novus NBP2-68483FR)) or donkey anti-Sheep IgG conjugated to

AlexaFluor^{TM} 594 (1:1000,Invitrogen A110106)) in antibody dilution buffer. The samples were rinsed

twice with 1X DPBS and then stained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI, 1:4000,

MilliporeSigma) for 2 minutes at room temperature, followed by three 5 minutes each in 1X DPBS.

Spheroid samples were stored in Invitrogen Cytovista 3D tissue clearing reagent (ThermoFisher

Scientific, Waltham, MA) until mounting. These methods necessitated the use of common animal-

derived antibodies and blocking solutions; where possible, we are working to use alternatives like

human serum albumin going forward.

Whole mount imaging of spheroids was facilitated using platform-type slides to accommodate the

sample depth and prevent deformation under coverslip pressure. No.2 coverslips were adhered to either

end of the microscope slide using clear nail polish to create elevated platforms. The immunostained

samples, suspended in Cytovista solution, were pipetted onto the slide and overlaid with a 22x40mm

No. 1 coverslip. Mounted slides were sealed with clear nail polish and allowed to set overnight before

imaging. Confocal images were captured using a Nikon A1R confocal microscope equipped with

PlanFluor 10X DIC L N1 and 40X Oil DIC H N2 lenses. Images were analyzed using NIS Elements

software (Nikon Instruments, Inc., USA).

Epifluorescent images of matrix deposition in adherent sheets 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.

2.8 Western blot

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

tissue source and replicate. 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) for protein normalization. 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 (or 12% for elastin). Proteins were subjected to electrophoresis for 1.5 hours at 140V. Size

fractionated proteins were transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane overnight at 4°C at 30V.

Membranes were washed three times in 1X Tris Buffered Saline (TBS) for 10 minutes each and then

blocked for 1 hour at room temperature in 5% skim milk, or 5% BSA for elastin. The membranes were

then 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), sheep anti-fibronectin (1:3000, NovusBio AF1918) or rabbit anti-elastin

(1:3000, Invitrogen PA5-99418) overnight at 4°C.

Membranes were then washed three times in 1X TBST for 10 minutes each. 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

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 Recellularization of matrix sheets

Recellularization of decellularized matrix sheets was assessed using a sample of pooled UC MSCs

from 3 donors. Cultured MSCs in T25 tissue culture flasks were pre-stained with Calcein-Green AM

(1:1000; ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) for 10 minutes, rinsed with 1X Hanks' Balanced

Salt Solution with Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+}, dissociated using 1X TrypLE and centrifuged as described in Section

2.2. Calcein-Green labeled MSCs were resuspended at a concentration of approximately 3900 cells/ml

in culture media. Unfixed MSC-derived sheet matrices were pre-labeled using anti-FN antibody as

described in Section 2.7. Cell suspension was added at a volume of 500 μl/well for 24 well plates and

250 μl/well for 48 well plates and incubated overnight as described in Section 2.2. The next day, the

culture vessels were placed in a temperature- and humidity-controlled stage top incubator (TOKAI

HIT, Co., Ltd., Japan). Time lapse images of cell-matrix interactions were captured every 5 seconds

over a 2-minute period using the Nikon ECLIPSE Ti2-E inverted microscope (Nikon Instruments, Inc.,

USA) under a 20X objective.

2.10 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, exception immunostaining of whole mount spheroid scaffolds which was performed using 2-3

technical replicates.

3   Results

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

We first asked whether MSCs from adult (AD, BM) and perinatal (PL, UC) tissues could reliably form

spheroids with an organized matrix in animal component-free, chemically defined conditions. 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. 1A). 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).

Figure 1: Scaffold-free MSC spheroids exhibit features of self-directed organization. Morphometric analysis of self-assembled MSC spheroids in defined media reveals (A) a visible increase in uniformity which can be quantified by (B) increased circularity (1.0 is a perfect circle), (C) reduced area and (D) decreased perimeter, which together are hallmarks of tissue compaction. Scale bar = 100μm. **** $p < 0.0001$.

Spheroid geometry influences ECM synthesis and organization both directly (Gonzalez-Fernandez et al., 2022) and indirectly by signaling pathways associated with nutrient and oxygen transport (Kumar et al., 2018; Murphy et al., 2017; Shearier et al., 2016), cell–cell interactions (Im et al., 2021) and

cytoskeletal tension (Zhou et al., 2017). Accordingly, we quantified spheroid morphometrics

(diameter, area, and circularity) over time to assess whether changes in matrix content are associated

with, or potentially driven by, alterations in spheroid structure.

Over time, the spheroids became increasingly uniform in size and morphology. Circularity (where 1.0

is a perfect circle) increased 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.

1B). Circularity was accompanied by compaction, evidenced by a significant decrease in area (Fig. 1C)

and perimeter (Fig. 1D). Spheroids that were much smaller or larger than the mean on Day 1, which

may not have aggregated as efficiently or in which there were cell dispensing errors, remained outliers

over the time course although their morphometric changes followed the other spheroids.

Thus, 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. 2A). Irrespective of

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

density, but not linearly (Fig. 2B). All spheroids were visible by eye with diameters ranging from 326

to 707µm (Fig. 2A). Excluding the largest aggregates nucleated with 75,000 MSCs, 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: Spheroid diameter correlates with seeding density. Spheroids were seeded in defined

media using 7,000, 15,000, 35,000 or 75,000 UC MSCs and measured after 4 days. (A, B) Spheroid

size correlated with seeding density, but not in a linear fashion. Average spheroid diameter (μm) (A,

upper right corner) was calculated from (B) 15 spheroids per group. Spheroid size was highly consistent

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

* $p < 0.5$, **** $p < 0.0001$.

3.2 *MSC spheroids produce Col IV-positive matrices in chemically defined media*

We then asked whether the MSC spheroids cultivated in defined media contained basement membrane-

type Col IV networks. Spheroids provide a physiologically relevant culture context in which 3D cell-

cell interactions and biomechanical cues more closely resemble the tissue environment, in contrast to

rigid 2D substrates that can bias MSCs towards fibrotic matrix production (Loomis et al., 2022; Park

et al., 2023; Walker et al., 2021). Moreover, the spheroid format enables assessment of whether MSC-

secreted ECM proteins are appropriately processed and assembled into organized, tissue-like basement

membrane scaffolds.

Spheroids were decellularized using a protocol reported to preserve matrix architecture (Li et al., 2021)

and immunostained for fibronectin (FN) and Col IV. Multi-labelling for additional basement

membrane constituents was impeded by the lack of reliable commercial antibodies produced in other

species. Confocal imaging of the spheroids at low magnification (10X), confirmed the tissue-

dependent size differences documented by light microscopy (Fig. 1), but revealed complex surface

topology, some of which may be an artefact of deformation after mounting which implies

viscoelasticity (Fig. 3A). At higher magnification (40X), complementary networks of fibronectin and

Col IV were observed (Fig. 3B). The decellularized matrices all presented architectural basement

membrane features including pores, fibre alignment and rough surface topography (Fig. 3A), which

are more clearly depicted in digitally enlarged representative images (Fig. 3B).

Figure 3. MSC spheroids produce Col IV-positive matrices in chemically defined media.

Whole mount confocal images of 4 day old decellularized matrices produced by spheroid cultures of MSCs from adult (AD, BM) and perinatal (PL, UC) tissues. Matrices were immunostained for fibronectin (FN, magenta) and Col IV (cyan). (A) Maximum intensity projection of 2μm confocal

images captured over a Z depth of 50µm with a 10x objective. Overlaid FN and Col IV confocal images, shown in greyscale, reveal surface roughness. Some loss of circularity and folding may be due to compression between the slide and the coverslip, suggesting that the scaffolds have plasticity. Scale bar = 50µm. Maximum intensity projection of 0.5µm slices captured over a Z depth of 80µm with a 40x objective reveal complex networks of FN and Col IV. These proteins appear to be aligned in a complementary fashion that moderately overlaps (white). Architectural features including pores (dotted arrow), fiber directionality (arrowhead) and surface topology (arrow) are also apparent. (B) Digital magnification of representative panels in (A) show enhanced architectural details including defined pore structures (Porosity), alignment of fibronectin fibers across 2 planes (Fiber Alignment), and rough Surface Topography featuring peaks and troughs. These topological and topographical features are found in all examined spheroid-derived matrices. Representative images from 3-4 technical replicates per MSC tissue source. Scale bar = 100µm.

Three-dimensional volumetric reconstruction of the confocal images revealed distinct patterns of matrix organization. In the adult MSC-derived matrices, fibronectin and Col IV appeared to be interwoven, while the perinatal MSC-derived matrices segregated fibronectin into apical sheets, with an underlying sheet of Col IV (Fig. 4A). Regardless of their relative orientation, fibronectin and Col IV rarely overlapped except at the interface between the apical and luminal matrix facets (Fig. 4B).

Figure 4. Perinatal-derived MSCs produce self-assembled matrices with overlaid FN and Col IV sheets. Decellularized whole mount spheroid-derived matrices produced by AD, BM, PL and UC MSCs were examined in volume view with alpha blending to highlight surface and compositional topography. (A) Fibronectin (FN, magenta) and Col IV (cyan) appear to be interwoven in matrices produced by adult MSCs (AD, BM). By contrast, the perinatal MSCs (PL, UC) establish matrices with

sheet-like organization, whereby FN is enriched on the apical surface, complemented by a sheet of Col

IV on the underlying luminal surface. (B) Cross-sections reveal a marked overlap of FN and Col IV

(white) at the interface of the apical and luminal sheets. Scale bar = 5µm. Representative images from

3-4 technical replicates per MSC source. Confocal images were captured in 0.5µm sections through a

Z-depth of 80µm.

3.3   *Self-assembled MSC matrices contain canonical basement membrane factors*

Having shown that MSC-derived matrices contain networked fibronectin and Col IV, we used western

blot to assess whether other basement membrane factors were also present. Decellularized spheroids

were solubilized, normalized to total protein, size fractionated and then immunoblotted for fibronectin,

laminin β/γ, Col IV, Col VIα1 and elastin (Fig. 5). Laminin β and γ chains, along with an α chain,

form the basic heterotrimeric structure of all laminins. They assemble with other proteins, such as Col

IV and nidogen, to create the complex, organized network of the basement membrane (Lennon &

Sherwood, 2025; Page-McCaw & Ferrell, 2025; Page-McCaw et al., 2025). Col VIα1 is a key

component of type VI collagen, which acts as a structural link between the basement membrane and

the surrounding interstitial matrix, providing mechanical support to tissues (Cescon et al., 2015;

Gregory et al., 2024). Elastin anchors cells to the matrix and provides mechanical support; it functions

in conjunction with other basement membrane components to provide elasticity, allowing tissues to

stretch and recoil (Krymchenko et al., 2025; Ruiz et al., 2024; Trębacz & Barzycka, 2023). The relative

abundance of these analytes differed in matrices produced by each MSC donor. BM MSC-derived

matrices were markedly enriched for fibronectin, while UC MSC-derived matrices were enriched for

all the basement membrane constituents compared to the other donors (Fig. 5). Col IV and elastin were

less abundant in the AD-derived scaffolds, while all the analytes except elastin were detected in PL-

derived matrices (Fig. 5).

Figure 5: MSC-derived matrices contain basement membrane-specific proteins. 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-derived

matrices were enriched for the basement membrane factors Col IV, Col VIα1 and elastin. Matrix from

BM MSCs contained relatively more fibronectin than the other scaffolds. Representative data from

n=3 independent experiments.

3.4 *Multilayered UC MSCs produce-matrix-basement membrane-type sheets in defined media*

Having determined that the UC MSC donor produces synthesizes the most robust repertoire of

basement membrane proteins when cultured as spheroids (Fig. 5), we next asked whether a similar

basement membrane-type matrix could be generated when UC MSCs were grown as adherent cultures.

Compared with spheroids, multilayered cell sheets are technically simpler and may offer greater

reproducibility and scalability. However, adherence to rigid culture substrates imposes a stiffer

microenvironment and reduces 3D cell-cell interactions, conditions that are known to influence matrix

deposition and may preferentially promote interstitial rather than basement membrane matrix

production. We therefore sought to determine whether basement membrane assembly is preserved

under these 2D culture conditions.

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

biogenesis. We then analyzed the deposition of select adhesive (fibronectin, laminin β/γ) and structural

(Col IV, Col VIα1) basement membrane proteins over time by immunofluorescence. Fibronectin was

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

through Day 7 (Fig. 6A, B). Col IV and Col VIα1 were barely detectable at Day 2 and continued to

accumulate in networked structures through Day 7 (Fig. 6A, B). At Day 7, laminin β/γ was the last

analyte to be detected. The matrix sheets were 8-10µm thick on Day 7, as determined using cross-

sections of Z-stacked images (Fig. 6C). In cellularized samples, networked fibronectin (red) is seen

connecting with and intercalating between MSCs (white) highly expressing the Col IV cross-linking

enzyme lysyl oxidase-like 2 (LOXL2; Fig. 6C, D).

Figure 6: Multilayered UC MSCs construct sheets of scaffolded matrix.

(A) Fibronectin (FN) is first detected by immunogenic staining 2 days after seeding, followed by Col

IV on Day 4. Col VIα1 and laminin (LM) are not readily detected until Day 7, when all 4 analytes are

visible components of a networked matrix structure. Scale bar = 100μm (B) Schematic summarizing

the temporal incorporation of ECM components depicted in (A). (C) Maximum intensity projection 4-

day MSC multilayers show networks of fibronectin (FN; red) intercalating between MSCs expressing

high levels of the Col IV cross-linking enzyme LOXL2 (white), in (D) a matrix 8μm thick. Data shown

is representative from a dataset of n=3 independent experiments with 5-6 fields of view per experiment.

3.5 UC MSCs matrix sheets are amenable to recellularization

Finally, we asked whether MSC-derived matrices were amenable to recellularization and could support

cell-matrix interactions. Matrix sheets proved more practical and efficient than spheroids for reseeding

and were selected for this experiment. Fluorescent labeled UC MSCs were incubated overnight with

decellularized matrix sheets immunostained to visualize fibronectin. The next day, cell-matrix

interactions were assessed by time lapse imaging. MSCs successfully adhered to the nascent scaffolds

(Fig. 7). Time-lapse microscopy showed MSCs attached to the fibronectin fibers. MSCs appeared to

leverage this matrix interaction to migrate through focal planes of the matrix (Fig. 7A) by pulling or

tugging on the flexible fibronectin fibers (Fig. 7B, Movie S1). In preliminary studies, matrix produced

by MSC in our animal component-free workflow can support the adhesion, migration and proliferation

of other cell types including human neural progenitor cells, human umbilical vein endothelial cells and

fibroblasts (not shown). Taken together, this study establishes MSCs as a viable and ethically favorable

source for the generation of self-assembling matrix proteins, including basement membrane

components, in chemically defined conditions.

Figure 7: UC MSC derived matrix sheets can be colonized by new cells. Decellularized UC MSC sheets, produced in chemically defined media, support interactive cell migration of newly introduced UC MSCs **(Movie S1).** (A) In representative time lapse images, MSCs (orange) can be seen moving through the Z plane of scaffolded fibronectin (FN; white). FN scaffolds were false colored at 2 timepoints (0s, yellow; 2m, magenta) and overlaid to detect FN movement. The presence of unblended FN signal in cell-occupied regions shows relocation of FN, indicating dynamic cell-matrix interactions. Blended color (orange) in the unoccupied scaffold areas suggests that FN remains static in the absence of cell movement. Scale bar = 50μm.

Figure S1: Ammonium hydroxide decellularization efficiently clears nuclear and cytoplasmic material.

Multilayered UC MSC sheets were decellularized on Day 4 (A) and Day 7 (C) after seeding using an ammonium hydroxide protocol. A) Adhered UC MSCs were labeled using DAPI (nucleus) and anti-CML antibody to detect carboxymethyl lysine residues in the nucleus and cytoplasm. Negligible signal was detected on either channel following ammonium hydroxide-based decellularization, indicating efficient clearance of nuclear and cytoplasmic material. (B) Nuclei were labeled using DAPI and quantified (number in the bottom left of the image). (C) The number of nuclei was significantly reduced by 95.8% after decellularization. Representative data from n=3 independent experiments. Scale bar = 100μm.

4 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 human MSCs, which occupy perivascular niches *in vivo*

(Caplan, 2017; Corselli et al., 2013; Kang et al., 2010), can be leveraged to synthesize functional

basement membrane components in a defined, animal component-free bioprocess. The development

of an animal-component-free platform based on human MSCs offers a renewable and physiologically

relevant strategy for scalable ECM production, reducing reliance on ethically contentious animal-

derived materials, lowering the environmental burden associated with animal agriculture, and

minimizing the risk of xenogeneic contamination.

Our findings align with previous studies that demonstrate origin-specific synthesis of ECM factors by

MSCs, although this study is not sufficiently powered to statistically correlate MSC tissue source with

ECM composition. In previous transcriptome studies that span multiple MSC donors and origins, we

found 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). Similarly, Ragelle et al., 2017 found that decellularized neonatal dermal fibroblast-derived

matrices possessed less total collagen than AD and BM MSC-derived scaffolds. The most abundant

structural components in those BM MSC-derived scaffolds were Col I and Col VI, while Col II, III and

IV were present at lower levels (Ragelle et al., 2017). These results were consistent across all 5 donors

(Ragelle et al., 2017). Another group reported that decellularized BM MSC scaffolds contained Col

IV, while AD MSC scaffolds did not (Marinkovic et al., 2020), which contradicts our findings. Amable

et al. compared ECM components secreted by AD, BM and UC MSCs, finding that UC MSCs did not

produce detectable amounts of laminin, fibronectin, Col II, or IV. In their study AD MSCs were the

only MSC population to secrete Col IV at detectable concentrations, and they also produced more Col

I, II and III than BM and UC MSCs (Amable et al., 2014). It is plausible to expect that these disparate

outcomes are the consequence of different media formulations used in these studies, including FBS

supplemented, (Amable et al., 2014; Bartosh et al., 2010; Cesarz & Tamama, 2016; Chen et al., 2025;

Chiang et al., 2021; Fuentes et al., 2022; Lee et al., 2016; Marinkovic et al., 2020; Ragelle et al., 2017;

Yin et al., 2024), serum-free (Choi et al., 2021; Rakian et al., 2015), and xeno-free products (Bauman

et al., 2018; Parvin Nejad et al., 2023). This study aimed to test whether MSCs are capable of

synthesizing basement membrane–type matrices under chemically defined culture conditions that

exclude the rich array of growth factors, adhesion factors, and stabilizing components found in serum

or hPL-supplemented media (Delabie et al., 2025; Hodges & Melcher, 1976; Karnieli et al., 2017;

Klinker et al., 2017; Oikonomopoulos et al., 2015).

In mammals, Col IV is encoded by a family of six genes (*COL4A*1–6) that produce discrete Col IV α-

chains (α1–α6) (Page-McCaw & Ferrell, 2025; Page-McCaw et al., 2025). These α-chains can give

rise to three supramolecular scaffolds: Col IV$^{\alpha121}$, Col IV$^{\alpha345}$, and Col IV$^{\alpha121-\alpha556}$, which form networks

with different structural and biomechanical properties (Page-McCaw & Ferrell, 2025; Page-McCaw et

al., 2025). Expression of the *COL4A* genes differs between tissues and shifts during development,

resulting in the formation of functionally specialized basement membranes throughout the body (Page-

McCaw & Ferrell, 2025; Page-McCaw et al., 2025). The observation that MSCs from different tissues

produce distinct Col IV α-chains was therefore not unexpected and is consistent with published reports.

For example, we previously compared the transcriptome profiles of 3 donors each of UC and BM

MSCs and their responses to cytokine stimulation. In that study, unstimulated BM MSCs, as used here,

expressed very high levels of *COL4*A1 and *COL4*A2 and very low levels of *COL4*A5, and did not

express *COL4*A3, *COL4*A4 or *COL4*A6 (Wiese et al., 2022). UC MSCs expressed even higher levels

of *COL4*A1 and *COL4*A2, moderate levels of *COL4*A5 and low levels of *COL4*A3, *COL4*A4 and

*COL4*A6 (Wiese et al., 2022). Notably, expression of these genes did not vary significantly between

donor populations and were consistent with an earlier study using other UC MSC donors cultured in a

different media formulation (Wiese et al., 2019). These data imply that Col IV synthesized by BM

MSCs may only form Col IV$^{\alpha121}$ scaffolds, while UC MSCs synthesize the starting material for all 3

Col IV supramolecular structures and warrants further study.

These unique properties may contribute to the apparent differences in volumetric Col IV scaffolding,

where the Col IV and fibronectin networks constructed by BM MSC spheroids (Fig. 3A, second row)

appeared less dense than the perinatal MSC-derived matrices (Fig. 3A, bottom rows). Indeed, the

highly stringent glomerular basement membrane in the kidney, which filters urine to eliminate waste

while retaining proteins and other useful molecules contains two Col IV networks – a Col

IV$^{\alpha121}$ network and a Col IV$^{\alpha345}$ network (Page-McCaw et al., 2025). Our gene expression data

indicates that UC MSCs can synthesize both networks, as well as Col IV$^{\alpha121–\alpha556}$, which would yield a

more stringent Col IV network than the BM MSCs which can only produce a Col IV$^{\alpha121}$ network

(Wiese et al., 2022).

Compaction is a natural developmental process that indicates organotypic self-organization (Baker &

Chen, 2012; Domnina et al., 2020). Spontaneous compaction, as observed in this study (Fig. 1), is

driven by ECM structure and stiffness (Efremov et al., 2021; Jahin et al., 2023; Kosheleva et al., 2023),

actin contractility (Lee et al., 2019; Sart et al., 2014; Sharma et al., 2025; Tsai et al., 2015; Turlier &

Maître, 2015), cell-matrix adhesion (Bartosh et al., 2013; Yokomine et al., 2025) and availability of

matrix remodeling enzymes (van der Net et al., 2024; Yokomine et al., 2025). Here, we found that the

BM MSC-derived spheroids were significantly more compact than the perinatal or adipose-derived

MSC spheroids (Fig. 1), which could be the result of several key differences. The protein composition

of the BM MSC matrices varied the most from the other tissue sources (Fig. 5), and they also exhibited

a more open network of fibronectin and Col IV (Fig. 3A, Fig. 4A). These data suggest that the BM

MSC-derived matrices may have different biomechanics than the matrices derived from the AD, UC

and PL MSC donors, which we are currently assessing using biophysical techniques like atomic force

microscopy and optical tweezers.

The rate of cell proliferation may also differ between MSC spheroids, leading to differences in cell

density with consequent effects on compaction. A previous study showed that as the number of MSCs

per spheroid increases, the packing density decreases, resulting in tightly packed, smaller spheroids

and loosely packed, larger spheroids (Murphy et al., 2017). It is possible that variations in proliferation

rates between spheroids, and thus differences in cell number over time, correlates with their

compaction. In addition, analysis using spheroids derived from numerous donors of each sex would

help discern whether different compaction rates are the result of tissue-imprinted variables or biological

differences between donors irrespective of the tissue of origin.

We performed a temporal analysis of ECM deposition by MSCs cultured in multilayered sheets at

different timepoints, studies that are reportedly under-represented in the literature (Fuentes et al.,

2022). A previous study, using human AD MSCs cultured in DMEM/F12 plus FBS, found that matrix

assembly was slower in sheet cultures than in spheroids, whereby laminin and Col IV were barely

detectable in the ECM after 4 days although the MSCs stained brightly, suggesting that secretion of

these proteins was just initiating (Glazieva et al., 2023). This agrees with our data, where Col IV was

readily detected by ICC in matrices isolated from 4-day old spheroids (Fig. 3), when it was barely

discernible in matrices from 4-day old MSC multilayers (Fig. 6A, B). Despite the relative delay in

matrix assembly, the multilayered MSCs sheets established their ECM in a temporal sequence of

developmental basement membrane assembly, starting with a fibronectin network (Fig. 6A, B). This

foundational scaffold was then elaborated with laminin, Col IV, Col VI and additional fibronectin,

recapitulating the hierarchical pattern of basement membrane assembly *in vivo* (Pompili et al., 2021).

In-depth characterization of the MSC-derived matrices using proteomics is necessary to fully

appreciate and compare the complement of adhesion, structural, proteoglycan, instructive and signaling

components and their assembly. However, analysis of decellularized matrices is not straightforward,

since conventional preparation procedures can lead to artefacts in the data, while matrisome analysis

from cellularized samples is not sufficiently enriched to detect low abundance proteins (Byron et al.,

2013; Diedrich et al., 2024; Frattini et al., 2024; Monteiro-Lobato et al., 2022; Naba, 2023; Ouni et al.,

2020).

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 with

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.

Decellularized matrices derived from MSC spheroids and cell-sheet cultures represent biologically

relevant scaffolds that preserve native extracellular matrix architecture, growth-factor–binding

capacity, and integrin-specific adhesion cues – features that are essential for supporting cell survival

and directing lineage specification in engineered tissues. Here we provide proof-of-concept that human

MSCs cultured in a chemically defined bioprocess can produce basement membrane components that

self-assemble into spheroid and sheet-type matrices. These naturally formed scaffolds can be effective

recellularized with other cell types, demonstrating the functional integrity of the MSC-derived matrix

proteins. While purified collagens, including Col I and Col IV, are known to self-assemble into

matrices *in vitro* (Al-Shaer & Forde, 2025; Kotch & Raines, 2006; Yu et al., 2024), it remains unclear

whether more complex matrices comprising multiple basement membrane proteins can similarly self-

assemble outside the cellular context. Collectively, these findings advance the development of high

fidelity, human-derived tissue models for disease modeling, drug discovery and regenerative medicine,

while supporting sustainable and ethically responsible biomedical research.

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.

4   Author Contributions

SNS: Collection and/or assembly of data, data analysis and interpretation, manuscript writing, critical

review of the manuscript and final approval of manuscript. LRB: Conception/design, assembly of data,

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

approval of manuscript.

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