**Modeling MEK inhibitor-Associated Retinopathy *in vitro* using human induced**

**pluripotent stem cell-derived retinal pigment epithelial cells**

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**Abstract**

Pharmacologic inhibitors of MEK are important anti-cancer drugs but can result in MEK

inhibitor-Associated Retinopathy (MEKAR) in which vision is lost due to serous retinal

detachments that form via an unknown mechanism. We hypothesized that the cause of

this side effect is drug-induced dysfunction of retinal pigment epithelial (RPE) cells. To

test this hypothesis, we used human induced pluripotent stem cell-derived RPE cells.

We treated mature, hiPSC-derived RPE cells with selumetinib and measured impacts

on RPE-specific function, structure, and gene expression. Selumetinib increases the

ability of hiPSC-derived RPE to internalize bovine rod outer segments (1.9 vs 3.0,

p=0.0024). It also decreases expression of aquaporin 1 during the first 10 days of

treatment (2.7 vs 1.1, p=0.0015). It has no effect on the ability of hiPSC-derived RPE to

maintain membrane integrity. Selumetinib alters gene expression of hiPSC-derived

RPE, with significant changes in genes involved in transport of ions and small

molecules regulating cell volume and lysosomal acidification. Selumetinib may lead to

subretinal fluid accumulation by both increasing secretions into this space and

decreasing outflow.

## INTRODUCTION

Many cancers develop activating mutations in the cell signaling mitogen-activated

protein kinase/extracellular signal-regulated kinase (MAPK/ERK) pathway which lead to

uncontrolled cell survival and proliferation (**Supplementary Figure 1A**) (1). Mutations in

*MEK* frequently occur in cutaneous melanoma, non-small cell lung cancer, and

pancreatic, colorectal, breast, and liver cancers. Four MEK inhibitors have received

FDA approval for clinical use: cobimetinib for malignant melanoma with BRAF$^{V600}$

mutations, binimetinib and trametinib for metastatic melanoma with BRAF$^{V600E/K}$

mutations, and selumetinib for patients with Neurofibromatosis Type 1 and stage III or

IV differentiated thyroid cancer. There is also evidence suggesting the efficacy of MEK

inhibitors in the treatment of the basal subtype of bladder cancer and metastatic

castration resistant prostate cancer (2, 3).

Unfortunately, due to the ubiquity of the MAPK/ERK pathway, MEK inhibitor therapy has

a substantial number of side effects, some of which are quite significant. For instance,

one of the more common side effects reported, affecting up to 90% of patients (4), is

MEK inhibitor-Associated Retinopathy (MEKAR). On average, MEKAR manifests within

the first two weeks of starting MEK inhibitor therapy (5). The retinopathy is typically

multifocal and bilateral with findings isolated to the posterior pole along the main

vascular arcades and macula. There is often at least one focus localized to the fovea,

which causes loss of high acuity, central vision (5). In all cases of documented MEKAR

and retinopathies due to other drugs inhibiting the MAPK/ERK pathway, fluid

accumulates between the ends of the photoreceptor outer segments at the

interdigitation zone with an intact retinal pigment epithelium (RPE) (**Supplementary**

**Figure 1B-C**) (5-7). This fluid accumulation is not due to abnormal fluid leakage from

the choroidal vasculature, as seen in central serous chorioretinopathy, which is

demonstrated by no leakage of dye on fluorescein angiography (4, 5, 8-10).  While

MEKAR often resolves spontaneously by approximately 32 days after starting

treatment, a subset of patients have persistent retinopathy and severe visual side

effects requiring their medication be discontinued (5, 10).

Although the mechanism of MEKAR is unknown, given the robust clinical phenotype

(subretinal fluid accumulation without leakage), it is postulated to be the result of drug-

induced RPE cell dysfunction. RPE cells, which form a monolayer below the neural

retina above the choroidal vasculature, are critical for maintaining retinal homeostasis

(**Supplementary Figure 1D-E**).  For instance, RPE cells play a key role in

phagocytosing shed photoreceptor outer segments (POS), scavenging reactive oxygen

species secreting growth factors for both the retina and underlying choroid, and

contributing to the choroid-retinal barrier via tight junction proteins (zonula occludens,

occludins, claudins) and transporting molecules between these two structures (11-13).

Their role in molecular trafficking, maintaining subretinal fluid volume as well as the

proper ionic concentrations for photoreceptors to function, exists because of the unique

protein polarity on the basolateral versus apical side of the RPE plasma membrane

(12). We hypothesize that drug-induced disruption of these unique RPE cell functions

causes the pathologic subretinal fluid accumulation observed in patients with MEKAR.

To investigate, we generated human induced pluripotent stem cell-derived RPE cells

and treated them with the clinically used MEK inhibitor, selumetinib. As most patients

manifest MEKAR within the first two weeks of beginning MEK inhibitor therapy, and

many individuals experience resolution by 1-month, we collected data after treating cells

for 10, 20, and 30 days. While we did not see an appreciable reduction in barrier

function as determined by transepithelial resistance, by 10 days of treatment we did

detect a reduction in aquaporin expression, increased photoreceptor cell outer segment

phagocytosis, and disruption of transcriptional profiles associated with fluid flux and ion

transport.

**RESULTS**

*Generation of hiPSC-derived RPE cells*

Donor fibroblasts were reprogrammed to human induced pluripotent stem cells

(hiPSCs) via Sendai virus mediated expression of the transcription factors OCT4,

SOX2, KLF4 and C-Myc as previously described (14). At 25-30 days following Sendai

viral transduction hiPSC colonies were manually isolated and clonally expanded in

Essential 8 media on laminin-521 coated cell culture surfaces. At passage 10 karyotypic

analysis was performed to ensure lack of chromosomal abnormalities (**Figure 1A**).

Following confirmation of normal karyotype, hiPSCs were differentiated into retinal

pigment epithelia (RPE) cells using the differentiation protocol developed by Foltz *et. al*.

(15). By 30 days of differentiation hiPSC-derived RPE cells formed a monolayer of

pigmented, polygonal cells with cobblestone morphology (**Figure 1B**). Expression of the

RPE genes *BEST1*, *MITF*, *RLBP1*, and *RPE65* were confirmed using RT-qPCR (**Figure**

**1C**). In addition, expression of the tight junction marker ZO-1 and transcription factor

PAX6 were confirmed via immunocytochemistry (**Figure 1D**).

*10 $\mu$M selumetinib optimally inhibits phosphorylation of MAPK in hiPSC-derived RPE*

To identify the dose of selumetinib suitable for suppressing MEK signaling without

inducing widespread cell death, an MTS cell viability assay was performed on the

hiPSC-RPE cells. In this experiment a $\log_{10}$-fold dilution of selumetinib ranging from

0.001 – 1000 $\mu$M was evaluated. hiPSC-RPE were treated for 72 hours before

absorbance at 490 nm was determined by a microplate reader. As shown in

**Supplementary Figure 2A**, cell viability dropped precipitously when selumetinib

concentrations exceeded 100 $\mu$M. To determine if selumetinib doses of 1 $\mu$M and 10 $\mu$M

(1 and 2 log units below the viability threshold) were sufficient to inhibit MEK signaling,

Western blot analysis using antibodies targeting the MEK effector MAPK

(**Supplementary Figure 2A**) was performed. While MAPK phosphorylation was

reduced in cells treated with 1 $\mu$M selumetinib, near complete inhibition of MAPK

phosphorylation was achieved using 10 $\mu$M selumetinib (**Supplementary Figure 2B**).

To determine the impact of selumetinib on MAPK phosphorylation as a function of

treatment time, hiPSC-derived RPE cells were evaluated following 10, 20, and 30 days

of treatment. Relative to untreated controls, hiPSC-derived RPE cells cultured in media

containing 10 $\mu$M selumetinib displayed significantly decreased MAPK phosphorylation

at all time points evaluated: Days 10 – 30 combined, 0.86 ± 0.083 vs 0.20 ± 0.206

(**Supplementary Figure 2C**); Day 10, 0.66 ± 0.11 vs 0.15 ± 0.033 (**Supplementary**

**Figure 2D**); Day 20, 0.71 ± 0.092 vs 0.15 ± 0.028 (**Supplementary Figure 2E**); and

Day 30, 1.2 ± 0.17 vs 0.31 ± 0.056 (**Supplementary Figure 2F**).

*Selumetinib does not affect transepithelial electrical resistance of hiPSC-derived RPE*

*cells*

If selumetinib disrupts the ability of RPE to maintain a monolayer of cells connected via

tight junctions, this could lead to non-selective movement of water and ions across the

blood-retinal barrier. The integrity of this barrier can be tested by measuring the

transepithelial electrical resistance (TEER) across a monolayer of RPE. Thus, to

evaluate TEER in our system, hiPSC-derived RPE were plated onto transwell inserts.

Beginning five days after plating (Day 0 on **Supplementary Figure 3**), cell media was

changed following treatment condition and TEER measurements were recorded every 3

days for up to 12 days with a final measurement at day 19 using the EVOM Meter

following the manufacturer's protocol. No significant difference in mean transepithelial

resistance was detected between untreated and selumetinib-treated hiPSC-derived

RPE cells at any of the time points evaluated (**Supplementary Figure 3**).

*Selumetinib treatment increases internalization of bovine rod outer segments by hiPSC-*

*derived RPE cells*

Another critical function RPE carry out to maintain retina homeostasis is phagocytosis of

photoreceptor outer segments. Diseases with disruptions to this process cause

blindness (16, 17). To determine if selumetinib treatment impacts the ability of RPE to

phagocytose photoreceptor outer segments, mature hiPSC-derived RPE cells cultured

in the presence or absence of 10 μM selumetinib were incubated for 3 hours with media

containing bovine rod outer segments (10 bROS/cell). Cells were subsequently washed

and collected as described below. The process of outer segment phagocytosis by the

RPE involves outer segment binding followed by internalization and lysosomal

degradation. The phagocytosis conditions that were collected for analysis in this

experiment included Total bROS (combined bound and internalized factions),

Internalized bROS (the portion of bROS inside the cell), and 3- and 24-hour Chase

conditions, which measure the amount of bROS present after allowing an additional 3-

or 24-hours of culture time following bROS washout (i.e. to allow for degradation). To

quantify bROS levels, western blot analysis for the rod outer segment protein rhodopsin

(RHO) was used (**Figure 2A**). Compared to untreated controls, selumetinib-treated

hiPSC-derived RPE cells were found to have significantly increased levels of

internalized RHO (**Figure 2B**, 1.879 ± 0.967 vs 2.972 ± 1.028, p=0.024). When

segregated by the number of days cells received treatment, we found the most

consistent increase was detected in cells treated for the first 10 days (**Figures 2C**, 0.7 ±

0.14 vs 1.6 ± 0.25, p=0.021). While not reaching statistical significance, increased RHO

abundance was still apparent following 20 days of treatment (**Figure 2D**, 1.3 ± 0.28 vs

2.7 ± 1.0, p=0.238). In the Day 30 treatment group, internalized RHO expression was

significantly higher in the selumetinib-treated cells (**Figure 2E**, 3.3 ± 3.0 vs 4.4 ± 3.1,

p=0.014). There was no statistically significant difference between treatment groups in

any of the other phagocytosis conditions evaluated at any individual time point or all

time points combined (**Figure 2C-E**). Collectively, these data demonstrate that

treatment of hiPSC-derived RPE cells with 10 μM selumetinib enhanced rod outer

segment phagocytosis but did not appear to alter clearance capacity (i.e., by just 3

hours following washout the levels of RHO inside the cells was not significantly different

between selumetinib treatment and control conditions).

*Selumetinib treatment decreases Aquaporin 1 (APQ1) expression in hiPSC-derived*

*RPE cells*

AQP1 is principally expressed apically in RPE cells and helps prevent and decrease

accumulation of subretinal fluid (18, 19). It has been shown to be regulated by the

MAPK pathway in these cells (20). Because of this, AQP1 is hypothesized to play a role

in MEKAR pathophysiology (5). To quantify changes in AQP1 protein expression

between untreated hiPSC-derived RPE and those treated for 10-, 20-, and 30-days,

western blot analysis was performed. When all treatment times were combined, we

detected a statistically significant decrease in AQP1 levels in the selumetinib-treated

hiPSC-derived RPE cells compared to untreated controls (**Figure 3A**, 1.6 ± 0.44 vs 0.98

± 0.32, p=0.044). When the data was segregated by treatment time, it became evident

that the impact on selumetinib on AQP1 expression occurred within the first 10 days of

selumetinib treatment (**Figure 3B**, 2.7 ± 0.12 vs 1.1 ± 0.17, p=0.0015). Specifically, no

significant difference in AQP1 expression was found following 20- (**Figure 3C**, 1.6 ± 1.1

vs 1.4 ± 0.95, p=0.252) or 30-days of selumetinib treatment (**Figure 3D**, 0.46 ± 0.039 vs

0.43 ± 0.069, p=0.406).

*Selumetinib alters transcriptome of hiPSC-derived RPE*

Because our assays measured specific functions and proteins we hypothesized could

be affected by MEKAR pathophysiology, we decided to evaluate drug-induced changes

to the hiPSC-RPE transcriptome. This analysis allowed us to analyze the

pathophysiology in an unbiased nature and generate additional hypotheses regarding

the mechanism of MEKAR. Bulk RNA-sequencing revealed significant changes in

differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between untreated and selumetinib-treated

hiPSC-derived RPE cells (**Figure 4A-B**). Of the 9,360 genes with measured expression,

957 genes were differentially expressed between the treatment and no treatment control

groups. Notably, there was a significant decrease in all the top 50 DEGs associated with

small molecule and ion transport and lysosomal acidification (*LRRC8C, CLCN5,*

*SLC16A1, SLC6A6, SLC22A23, SL12A2, ATP6V1C2*) in selumetinib-treated hiPSC-

derived RPE (**Figure 4A-B, Supplementary Table 1**). Ingenuity pathway analysis

revealed the most significantly altered pathways were associated with neuroactive

ligand-receptor interactions, calcium signaling, PI3K-Akt signaling, and extracellular

matrix-receptor interaction (**Figure 4C**). Gene Ontology analysis revealed the top

biological processes altered between treatment conditions were associated with visual

perception, transport across the blood-brain barrier, and positive regulation of cytosolic

calcium ion concentration, peptidyl-tyrosine phosphorylation, and ERK1 and ERK2

cascade (**Figure 4D**). Treatment with selumetinib significantly altered gene expression

of several aquaporins:  *AQP3, AQP4,* and *AQP7* increased and *AQP1* and *AQP11*

decreased in cells treated with selumetinib (**Supplementary Table 2**).

*Selumetinib does not alter hiPSC-derived RPE cell structure*

We imaged cultured cells to determine if selumetinib affects hiPSC-derived RPE cell

structure. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy

(TEM) visualized the external and internal compartments of the cells, respectively. No

difference in cell structure was evident between untreated and selumetinib-treated

hiPSC-derived RPE cells (**Supplementary Figure 4**).

**DISCUSSION**

In the present study, we aimed to assess the effect of a commonly used MEK inhibitor,

selumetinib, on hiPSC-derived RPE cells *in vitro*. We found that treatment of hiPSC-

derived RPE with 10 $\mu$M selumetinib resulted in increased levels of internalized bovine

rod outer segments (bROS) and decreased aquaporin-1 (AQP1) protein expression

compared to untreated controls. These effects were most pronounced following 10 days

of treatment and appeared to decrease as treatment times increased, which is

consistent with clinical findings in patients with resolving MEKAR. Bulk RNA-sequencing

revealed significant changes in gene expression. Notably, there was a significant

decrease in expression of genes involved in transport of ions and small molecules

regulating cell volume and lysosomal acidification. We did not find an effect of

selumetinib on cell structure or the ability of hiPSC-derived RPE to maintain barrier

function as determined by transepithelial electrical resistance measurements.

*Selumetinib increases internalization of bovine rod outer segments by hiPSC-derived*

*RPE cells*

In a daily cycle, each rod photoreceptor cell sheds 10% of its membranous discs

contained within the photoreceptor outer segment. Shed outer segments are

phagocytosed by RPE cells where they are converted into fatty acids and ketone bodies

(13). Ketone bodies, primarily $\beta$-hydroxybutyrate ($\beta$-HB), are recycled back to the

subretinal space for use in metabolism by photoreceptor cells. In this study we found

that treatment of hiPSC-derived RPE cells with 10 $\mu$M selumetinib increased rod outer

segment phagocytosis. We predict that increased internalization and degradation of

photoreceptor outer segments leads to increased production and secretion of ketone

bodies into the subretinal space *in vivo*. This would be expected to contribute to

subretinal fluid accumulation characteristic of MEKAR. First, ketone anions attract

sodium and water (21). Second, $\beta$-HB has been shown to increase vascular

permeability via increased vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), which is the main

factor that can increases blood-retinal barrier permeability (22, 23). However, this

second mechanism is less likely to contribute to subretinal fluid accumulation in MEKAR

as vascular permeability has not been detected with fluorescein angiography (4, 5, 8-

10). Future work is needed to determine if MEK inhibitors increase ketone secretion by

RPE cells. If this is true, then increasing photoreceptor uptake of ketones may be a

reasonable process to target for treatment in patients with unresolving MEKAR. If future

animal studies confirm that drug-induced increases in RPE phagocytosis contribute to

MEKAR, reducing phagocytosis of shed outer segments or decreasing production of

ketones by RPE would not be recommended strategies for treatment as disruptions of

both processes are associated with blinding conditions such as age-related macular

degeneration (AMD), retinitis pigmentosa (especially those caused by mutations in

*MERTK*), and diabetic retinopathy (16, 17).

*Selumetinib treatment decreases expression of AQP1 in hiPSC-derived RPE cells*

Aquaporin 1 (AQP1) is a member of a family of transmembrane proteins that facilitate

water transport. It has documented expression and functionality in the RPE derived from

both human native tissue and differentiated from stem cells (18, 19). Because of its

localization to the apical cell surface, it transports water to the basolateral direction, thus

preventing subretinal fluid accumulation. Because of AQP1's location and role in the

RPE, it has been hypothesized that altered AQP1 may be responsible for causing

MEKAR (5). Our results support this hypothesis with 10 $\mu$M of selumetinib causing

decreased AQP1 protein expression following 10 days of selumetinib treatment. Bulk

RNA-sequencing data revealed that *AQP1* gene expression was also significantly

decreased in hiPSC-derived RPE treated with selumetinib (adjusted p=$2.95 \times 10^{-4}$).

Interestingly AQP1 levels normalized by 20 days of treatment, which parallels the

clinical phenotype of patients who spontaneously resolve their MEK inhibitor-induced

subretinal fluid accumulation. Our results contrasts with findings reported by Jiang *et al.*

(20), in which they found that when ARPE-19 cells were treated with H2O2 or ultraviolet

radiation, MEK activation led to a decrease in AQP1 protein levels. In turn treating cells

with 1 $\mu$M of MEK inhibitor increased AQP1 expression. While both Jiang *et al.* and the

present study implicate MEK activity in regulating AQP1 levels in RPE cells, the

observed differences could be due to cell type (immortalized ARPE-19 cell line versus

hiPSC-derived RPE) or pharmacological MEK inhibitor (preclinical research-grade MEK

inhibitors PD98059 and U0126, versus clinically used selumetinib) (24). If future

research *in vivo* demonstrates that decreased AQP1 contributes to MEKAR, a potential

treatment for affected patients may be administration of agents that increase water

transport via AQP1. For instance, drugs such as atrial naturietic peptide (ANP) or

membrane-permeable analogs of cyclic GMP (cGMP), which Baetz *et al*. found

significantly increase net fluid flux (25), may be useful for preventing MEKAR. Topical

and oral administration of carbonic anhydrase inhibitors may be another potential

therapeutic as its use decreases subretinal fluid in conditions such as central serous

chorioretinopathy, retinitis pigmentosa, and X-linked retinoschisis (26-33). While the

mechanism is unclear, it is thought to restore apical-to-basal fluid transport across RPE

cells by acidifying the subretinal space (27, 29, 34, 35).

*Selumetinib decreases expression of genes regulating small molecule and ion transport*

*as well as lysosomal acidification*

The most striking difference in RNA-sequencing data between untreated and

selumetinib-treated cells was the significant decrease in expression of genes involved in

transport of ions and small molecules as well as those involved in lysosomal

acidification (**Supplementary Table 1**). Depending upon the polar distribution of the

affected genes' protein products, the observed decrease in expression may be a direct

effect of treatment with selumetinib or a cellular compensation (36).

*LRRC8C* codes for a subunit of the LRRC8 which is a volume-regulated anion channel

(VRAC) (37). It contributes to cell volume homeostasis via its expression on the plasma

membrane. When cells swell, this channel is activated and allows efflux of charged and

uncharged molecules. However, regulatory volume decrease (RVD) is mainly mediated

by efflux of potassium, chloride, and $H_2O$. VRACs like LRRC8 primarily efflux chloride

ions. LRRC8 has also been shown to be expressed on lysosomes, the "osmometer" of

mammalian cells (38). LRRC8 contributes to lysosomal currents and is necessary to

form large lysosome-derived vacuoles which store and eliminate water via exocytosis.

In this way, they further maintain $H_2O$ balance intracellularly and have been described

as the "bladder" of the cell. While the polarized localization of LRRC8 within the RPE

cell has not been documented, decreased expression of *LRRC8C* in selumetinib treated

hiPSC-derived RPE cells may prevent formation of these water-filled vacuoles, leading

to apical fluid accumulation. Additionally, decreased expression of *LRRC8C* may be a

cellular compensatory mechanism to inhibit efflux of chloride and water apically or the

subretinal space *in vivo*.

*CLCN5* codes for ClC-5, which is a chloride-hydrogen exchanger with documented

function acidifying lysosomes and up-taking protein in the proximal tubule cells (PTCs)

of the kidney (39). Mutations in *CLCN5* cause Dent disease, a proximal tubulopathy of

the kidney characterized by high levels of protein and calcium excreted in the urine,

contributing to kidney stone formation. In PTCs, ClC-5 interacts with proteins important

for receptor-mediated endocytosis and transportation to lysosomes for metabolism. Its

expression on the cell membrane is thought to contribute to chloride currents. Polarized

localization within RPE cells has not been documented. Decreased *CLCN5* expression

in selumetinib-treated hiPSC-derived RPE could contribute to decreased lysosome

acidification and may be a compensatory mechanism to prompt absorption of fluid by

acidifying the subretinal space (35).

*SLC16A1* encodes MCT1, a $H^+$-coupled monocarboxylate transporter that transports

lactate into the cell (40). Due to its coupling with hydrogen ions, it contributes to

intracellular acidification in addition to fluid transportation. MCT1 is highly expressed on

the apical surface of RPE cells to facilitate uptake of metabolic waste products from

overlying photoreceptors (40-42).  Thus, decreased expression of MCT1 protein on the

apical surface of RPE treated with selumetinib could contribute to decreased

acidification intracellularly and accumulation of protons in the subretinal space. While

protons attract water molecules, acidification of the subretinal space may prompt fluid

transport across RPE cells and thus serve as a compensatory mechanism (35).

*SLC6A6* codes for a sodium- and chloride-dependent transporter (TauT) of taurine and

beta-alanine localized to the plasma membrane (43, 44). Taurine is highly abundant in

the retina, particularly in photoreceptors at the level of the outer nuclear layer. It is

necessary for proper retinal structure and function with low levels associated with retinal

degeneration at the level of the photoreceptors in animal models and humans (45-47).

TauT is a well-known contributor to osmoregulation, whereby hypertonic extracellular

conditions lead to intracellular influx of taurine and obligate water molecules mediated

by transporters like TauT. TauT protein is expressed at similar levels in apical versus

basolateral sides of human fetal RPE cells (48). Activity and gene and protein

expression of TauT is increased in ARPE-19 cells following exposure to hyperosmolar

media (46). Decreased expression of *SLC6A6* in selumetinib-treated cells may been a

compensatory mechanism whereby cells with increased internalized POS decrease the

amount of osmotically active taurine influx to prevent cell swelling. Thus, decreased

permeability to taurine and water could lead to an accumulation of these molecules in

the subretinal space.

*SLC22A23* encodes one of the ~30 members in the highly conserved SLC22 transporter

family (49). Its protein product's function and structure have not been well-

characterized. However, evolutionary analysis indicates that it likely functions as an

organic anion transporter (OAT) and contributes to metabolic regulation. More work is

needed to determine the effect of decreased *SLC22A23* observed in selumetinib-treated

hiPSC-derived RPE cells.

*SLC12A2* encodes NKCC1, a $Na^+$-$K^+$-$Cl^-$ cotransporter that mediates influx of chloride in

an electrically neutral transfer, which contributes to cell volume regulation (50, 51). Its

expression is localized to the basolateral membrane of chloride-secreting epithelial cells

except in the olfactory epithelium, choroid plexus, and RPE, where is localized on the

apical membrane (51-55). NKCC1 regulates subretinal fluid volume via ion transport

(51). Because of its apical location, it transports chloride and therefore H2O out of the

subretinal space in the basolateral direction. Thus, decreased expression of NKCC1 in

selumetinib-treated hiPSC-derived RPE could decrease chloride and water transport

from the apical surface and contribute to subretinal fluid accumulation.

*ATP6V1C2* encodes for a subunit of vacuolar ATPase (V-ATPase), a highly conserved

proton pump which acidifies intracellular organelles, including lysosomes (56, 57). It

hydrolyzes ATP to drive protons across a membrane. Specificity of localization in

organelles and cell and tissue type are determined by isoforms of subunits. *ATP6V1C2*

encodes for the V1C2 isoform. V-ATPases are found ubiquitously in the

endomembranes of organelles and in the plasma membranes of certain cell types

including osteoclasts, renal intercalated cells, male reproductive tract epithelial cells,

and tumor cells. Multiple diseases are associated with mutations, mis-localization, and

overexpression of V-ATPase subunits (57). Notably, a potentially pathogenic mutation

was identified in *ATP6V1C2* (58). The missense mutation causing loss-of-function on V-

ATPase was found with whole-exome sequencing in a patient with distal renal tubular

acidosis. V-ATPases are found on the apical side of $\alpha$-intercalated cells in the distal

nephron and acidify urine. (57, 59). *ATP6V1C2* expression in RPE is documented (60-

64). Animal models with inhibition or mutations of V-ATPases in the lysosomes of RPE

cells impairs phagocytosis and degradation of photoreceptor outer segments (65-67).

*Selumetinib alters gene expression of aquaporins*

Aquaporins are a family of membrane channels permeable to water. Treatment of

hiPSC-derived RPE with selumetinib significantly altered gene expression of several

aquaporins with confirmed expression in hiPSC-derived RPE: *AQP1, AQP3, AQP4,*

*AQP7,* and *AQP11* (**Supplementary Table 2**) (19). Expression of *AQP1* and *AQP11*

were increased, whereas expression of *AQP3, AQP4,* and *AQP7* decreased.

Interestingly, MAPK pathway activation helps cells cope with osmotic stress (68). Thus,

inhibition of this pathway with selumetinib could potentially disrupt RPE cells' ability to

adapt to subretinal fluid accumulation by altering transcription of aquaporin genes.

Notably, the ionic and osmotic composition of MEKAR-associated subretinal fluid has

not been characterized. Regardless, alterations in expression of aquaporins in RPE

cells due to MEK inhibition could certainly contribute to subretinal fluid accumulation.

While AQP3 protein expression has been confirmed in primary RPE cells, the polarized

cellular localization has not been reported (69). Our results showed that MEK inhibition

with selumetinib significantly increased *AQP3* expression in hiPSC-derived RPE. This

contrasts with what Hollborn *et al*. found (69). They reported increased AQP3 mRNA

induced by MEK activation in primary human RPE cells treated with CoCl2 to chemically

induce hypoxia. To determine that this change in AQP3 expression was mediated by

MEK activation, they inhibited MEK with the preclinical, research-use only molecule

PD98059 (20 $\mu$M), whereas our study used selumetinib which is used in clinical practice

to treat patients (24). Future work is needed to determine the cellular localization of

AQP3 to the apical and/or basolateral side of RPE and if there are differences in the

changes in AQP3 expression with MEK modulation in different types of RPE cell

cultures (primary versus stem-cell derived) and with different MEK inhibitors.

Our study found AQP4 gene expression significantly increased in hiPSC-derived RPE

treated with selumetinib. The polar cellular location of AQP4 in RPE has not been

documented. Perhaps increased expression in selumetinib-treated cells is a

compensatory mechanism to transport water out of the subretinal space into the choroid

underlying the RPE. This differs from a study in ARPE-19 cells where inhibition of

MAPK with 10 $\mu$M UO126 did not rescue decreased AQP4 protein expression in

response to hyperosmolar conditions (70).

Like AQP3, AQP7 is also permeable to small solutes like glycerol and exhibited

increased gene expression in hiPSC-derived RPE cells treated with selumetinib. AQP7

enables efflux of glycerol, thus increased AQP7 could allow for accumulation of glycerol

and water in the subretinal space (71, 72).

Similar to *AQP1* gene expression in hiPSC-derived RPE treated with selumetinib, levels

of AQP11 mRNA decreased. Research on Müller glia cells have demonstrated an

association between intracellular edema and decreased AQP11 levels of activity

contributing to Diabetic Macular Edema (DME) characterized by subretinal and

intraretinal fluid accumulation (73). If AQP11 proteins behave the same way in RPE

cells, then perhaps decreased expression in selumetinib-treated cells prevents water

efflux. This increase in cell swelling may then prevent increased intracellular uptake of

water, contributing to subretinal fluid accumulation.

*Comparison of MEKAR to ocular phenotypes caused by mutations in BEST1*

*BEST1* encodes a membrane protein that acts as a cell volume-sensitive calcium-gated

chloride channel which inhibits voltage-gated calcium channels (74, 75). While it is

predominantly expressed in human RPE, it has also been detected in the kidney, brain,

spinal cord, and testis (76, 77). Within the RPE, it is localized to the basolateral

membrane and exhibits higher expression levels outside of the macula (78, 79).

Interestingly, bestrophin protein is also suspected to regulate intracellular calcium and

processes like phagocytosis and lysosomal function (80, 81). As demonstrated in this

study, calcium signaling and regulation of cytosolic calcium concentrations were some

of the top pathways affected in hiPSC-derived RPE cells. Pathologic mutations in

*BEST1* can cause a spectrum of ocular phenotypes, mostly leading to detachment of

the neurosensory retina at the macula with accumulation of subretinal fluid, causing a

decrease in visual acuity (74). Notably however, this decrease in visual acuity is not

large and many patients remain stable without treatment at 20/50. Like MEKAR, it is

hypothesized that accumulation of fluid in the subretinal space in *BEST1*-associated

diseases is due to dysfunction of RPE's ability to transport ions and regulate fluid

homeostasis including via phagocytosis of photoreceptor outer segments (POS). In

contrast to MEKAR, it is thought that *BEST1* mutations modulating intracellular calcium

levels may decrease uptake of POS, leading to accumulation of toxic lipofuscin in the

subretinal space, killing both photoreceptors and RPE cells. Lipofuscin is a mixture of

byproducts form POS degradation and includes oxidized proteins, lipids, and

fluorophores. A study using hiPSC-derived RPE cells from patients with Best disease

and non-affected siblings produced results that supported this hypothesis (82). They

found cells from affected patients demonstrated decreased apical to basal fluid flux,

increased accumulation of lipofuscin after feeding POS, decreased degradation of

rhodopsin (RHO) after POS feeding, and differential responses to calcium stimulation. It

is unknown whether lipofuscin accumulation is a feature of MEKAR. Given the clinical

similarities between MEKAR and *Best1*-associated ocular diseases (eg, bilateral

accumulation of subretinal fluid predominantly at the macula, decreased visual acuity,

and affected proteins involved in ion transport, volume sensation and regulation, POS

phagocytosis, and lysosomal acidification), future work should address the possibility of

overlapping disease mechanisms.

*Conclusion*

In summary, using an *in vitro* model of MEKAR, we have shown that the clinically used

MEK inhibitor, selumetinib increases hiPSC-derived RPE cell phagocytosis, decreases

AQP1 mRNA and protein, and alters gene expression with significant changes in genes

involved in transport of ions and small molecules regulating cell volume and lysosomal

acidification. Increased phagocytosis could potentially increase return of ketones to the

subretinal space while decreased AQP1 protein expression would prevent water

transport out of the subretinal space. This decrease is AQP1 may be a cellular response

to prevent cell swelling of RPE accumulating internalized photoreceptor outer segments

and their metabolites intracellularly. Thus, theoretically both increased phagocytosis and

decreased AQP1 could contribute to the subretinal fluid accumulation characteristic of

MEKAR. Future work is needed to further investigate these hypotheses and the roles of

genes involved in lysosome acidification and cell volume regulation via molecular and

ionic transport in the context of MEKAR.

*Future Directions*

More work is needed to further assess whether the MEK inhibitor-induced increase in

hiPSC-derived RPE cell phagocytosis affects the rate of ketone recycling into the

subretinal space. This could be achieved using mass spectrometry on apical and basal

cell culture media following the phagocytosis assays. This has been documented as the

most reliable method to quantify secreted β-hydroxybutyrate (β-HB), the predominant

ketone, from cultured human fetal RPE cells (83). Additionally, monocarboxylate

transporter isoform 1 (MCT1) permits secretion of β-HB and is located on the apical side

of RPE cells (84). Thus, quantification of MCT1 could also provide insight into an

increased ability of ketone bodies to leave RPE cells and travel into the subretinal

space. This would be especially interesting to quantify given that our RNA-sequencing

data showed a significant decrease in *SLC16A*, the gene encoding MCT1.

This study assessed the effect of selumetinib on mRNA expression levels. There is

precedent in the literature to evaluate changes in total RNA in future studies given the

role of microRNAs (miR) in regulating phagocytosis (85). Specifically, miR-302d

suppresses phagocytosis in cultured cells from the ARPE-19 cell line (86). Additionally,

other miRs are reported to alter RPE autophagy (85). Thus, future work could quantify

the impact of MEK inhibitors on microRNAs in cultured RPE cells.

Finally, the MEK inhibitor-induced differences in gene expression revealed in this study

warrant further exploration. Specifically, work is needed to investigate if genes with

altered expression play a role in the observed changes in hiPSC-derived RPE cell

functions. For example, osmotic challenge assays and imaging can assess the effect of

selumetinib on fluid flux and cell volume (18, 36).

**METHODS**

*Sex As a Biological Variable*

Cells from a single male donor were used in this study. There is no evidence to suggest that there is a sex difference in patients affected with MEKAR.

*Creation and Maintenance of Human Induced Pluripotent Stem Cell Cultures*

Induced pluripotent stem cells were generated from a dermal biopsy of an unidentifiable male donor as previously described by Wiley *et al*. (14). All cell types were cultured at 37C, 5% $CO_2$, and 20% $O_2$. Briefly, fibroblasts were isolated and expanded from a 3 mm dermal biopsy and transduced with CytoTune-iPSC 2.0 Sendai Reprogramming Kit (Invitrogen/Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). hiPSC colonies were isolated and expanded. TaqMan Human Pluripotent Stem Cell Scorecard Panel (Life Technologies/Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was used to analyze pluripotency and loss of viral transgene expression. Karyotype analysis was carried out by the University of Iowa Shivanand R. Patil Cytogenetic and Molecular Laboratory following a standard G-banding protocol.

*Differentiation and Maintenance of hiPSC-derived Retinal Pigment Epithelial Cells*

We followed the rapid, directed differentiation protocol by Foltz and Clegg (15). The ROCK-inhibitor Y-27632 (MilliporeSigma, Burlington, MA, USA) was added to cell media at each passage for 4-7 days to increase cell survival and attachment. Briefly, hiPSCs were grown to 80% confluence in Essential 8 Flex media (Gibco/Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) on rhLaminin-521 (Gibco/Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Waltham, MA, USA) coated plates and then passaged with ReLeSR™ (STEMCELL

Technologies, Vancouver, BC, Canada) 1:4 onto Matrigel-coated plates and treated for

14 days with growth factors. After RPE expansion, cells were maintained in RPE

Supporting Media (RSM), composed of X-VIVO 10 (Lonza, Basal, Switzerland) and

0.2% Primocin (InvivoGen, San Deigo, CA, USA) on tissue culture-treated plates coated

with Matrigel (60 ug/ml; Corning Life Science, Tewksbury, MA). Following the ROCK

inhibition-dependent extended passage protocol by Croze, Bucholz, Radeke *et al*.(87),

cells were passaged after reaching confluence every 4-5 days with TypLE™ Express

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and plated at a seeding density of

$2.5x10^4$ cells/cm$^2$. Only cells at or below passage 5 were used to avoid epithelial-to-

mesenchymal transition and loss of RPE morphology (e.g., pigment, cobblestone

appearance) (87). Once cells were seeded onto experimental plates at density of

$1.0x10^5$ cells/cm$^2$ they were allowed to mature for 30 days before drug treatment, unless

otherwise specified (e.g. TEER assay).

*Pharmacologic Inhibitor of the MAPK/ERK Pathway*

Selumetinib (MEK inhibitor) was reconstituted to 10 mM in DMSO (Fisher Chemical,

Hampton, NH, USA) per the manufacturer's recommendations (Sigma-Aldrich, St.

Louis, MO, USA).

*MTS Assay*

To determine the maximum dose of selumetinib that could be applied to hiPSC-derived

RPE cells without causing cell death, cells were plated in Matrigel-coated 96-well

black/clear bottom plates (Corning Life Science, Tewksbury, MA) in X-VIVO 10. hiPSC-

derived RPE were plated at $1.0 \times 10^5$ cells/cm$^2$ and allowed to mature for 30 days before

starting drug treatment. Cells were treated with a $\log_{10}$-fold dilution from $1.0 \times 10^{-3}$ – $1.0$

$\times 10^3$ uM selumetinib for 3 days in media free of antibiotics. After 72 hours of treatment,

selumetinib-free media was added to the cells along with 20 ul of CellTiter 96® AQ$_{queous}$

One Solution per well as directed in the manufacturer's instructions (Promega, Madison,

WI, USA). After 3 hours of incubation with MTS, the absorbance at 490 nm of each well

was measured using the BioTek Cytation 5 microplate reader (Agilent Technologies,

Santa Clara, CA, USA).

*Quantitative Real-Time Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-qPCR)*

cDNA was generated from 200 ng RNA using SuperScript IV VILO Master Mix (Thermo

Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). PCR reactions were run using PrimeTime™

qPCR probes (Integrated DNA Technologies, Coralville, Iowa, USA) and TaqMan™ Fast

Advanced Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). cDNA was

amplified using a QuantStudio 6 Flex Real-Time PCR system (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Waltham, MA, USA). Data were analyzed using delta-delta Ct method in which values

were normalized to the *B2M* housekeeping gene and corresponding mRNA values in

hiPSCs from the same donor.

*Immunocytochemistry (ICC)*

Cells were seeded onto 12-mm round glass coverslips coated in poly-L-lysine (Corning

Life Science, Tewksbury, MA) and Matrigel which were placed in 24-well tissue culture

treated plates (Corning Life Science, Tewksbury, MA). Cells were fixed with 4%

paraformaldehyde for 20 minutes at room temperature then blocked for 1 hour. Cells

were incubated with primary antibody for 2 hours at room temperature or overnight at

4C. Cells were washed with1xDPBS before incubating with secondary antibody and

1:2000 DAPI (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) for 1-2 hours at room

temperature. Cells were washed then mounted onto microscope slides with coverslips

and imaged at 40x using a Leica TCS SPE upright confocal microscope system (Leica

Biosystems, Wetzlar, Germany). Primary and secondary antibody details shown in

**Supplementary Table 3**.

*Transepithelial Electrical Resistance Assay (TEER)*

Cells were seeded onto 6.5 mm cell culture inserts (Corning Life Science, Tewksbury,

MA) coated with Matrigel. Five days after plating, cells were treated with 10 uM

selumetinib for a total of 20 days. Resistance measures were obtained every 3 days

using the EVOM Meter following the manufacturer's protocol (World Precision

Instruments, Sarasota, FL, USA). The resistance value of a cell culture insert without

cells was subtracted from all sample resistance measurements.

*Rod Outer Segment Phagocytosis Assay*

Bovine rod outer segments (bROS) (InVision BioResources, Seattle, WA, USA) at a

concentration of 10 bROS/cell were added to hiPSC-derived RPE cells in a volume of

500 ul/well of a 24-well plate. Cells were incubated with bROS for 3 hours at 37C and

5% $CO_2$. After 3 hours, all conditions were washed five times with 1xDPBS with calcium

and magnesium. Prior to these washes, wells for the Internalized bROS condition were

incubated with 2 mM EDTA in PBS for 10 minutes at 37C, 5% CO2 to remove unbound

bROS. After washes, Total and Internalized condition wells were collected. 3 h and 24 h

Chase conditions received fresh media with or without selumetinib per treatment group.

At Chase collection time, cells were washed twice with 1xDPBS. Before collecting cells

from any condition, 10 uM recombinant human FGF-basic (Peprotech/Thermo Fisher

Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was added for a 10 minute incubation at 37C, 5% CO2.

This step was done to ensure visualization of Ph-MAPK on Western Blot.

*Scanning Electron Microscopy*

Cells were seeded onto 6.5 mm cell culture inserts (Corning Life Science, Tewksbury,

MA). At Day 10 of treatment, cells were fed bROS and incubated for 3 hours at 37C and

5% CO2. Cells were fixed with 2.5% glutaraldehyde for 3-5 days then rinsed with

1xPBS. Samples were post fixed for 1 hour with 1% osmium tetroxide and rinsed with

ddH$_2$O. The samples underwent alcohol series dehydration followed by chemical drying

with hexamethyldisilazane and left to dry in the fume hood for ≥ 2 days. Plates and

membranes were mounted with colloidal silver onto standard SEM stubs and dried

overnight. Sputter coating deposition was performed for 4 minutes with a current of

7mA. Coverslips were imaged on the Hitachi S-4800 at the Central Microscopy

Research Facility.

*Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM)*

Cells were seeded onto 6.5 mm cell culture inserts with 0.4 um pore size (Corning Life

Science, Tewksbury, MA). At Day 10 of treatment, cells were fixed overnight in ½

strength Karnovsky's fixative. After primary fixation, samples were post fixed in osmium

tetraoxide and uranyl acetate, and were dehydrated through a graded series of

alcohols, acetone, and finally propylene oxide. The samples were then embedded in

Spurr's resin and cured at 60°C. After samples were fully cured ultrathin sections were

collected onto copper square mesh grids using an ultramicrotome. Samples were

imaged on the Hitachi HT7800 at the Central Microscopy Research Facility.

*Western Blot Analysis*

Cells cultured and treated on 24-well plates were collected then lysed with 75 ul RIPA

Lysis and Extraction Buffer with 1:100 Halt™ Phosphatase and Proteinase Cocktail

Inhibitors (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Protein concentration was

quantified using Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA,

USA) with duplicates of 10 ul per standards and samples. Colorimetric changes in

plates were read at 562 nm with the BioTek Cytation 5 microplate reader after 30

minutes of incubation at 37C. 10 ug protein was run on a 4-20% Novex™ Tris-Glycine

gel (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) for 25 minutes at 225 volts. Broad-

range protein transfer to blots was performed using iBlot™ 3 set to a 6 minute run at 25

volts with low cooling (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). After incubation

with blocking buffer for 1 hour at room temperature or overnight at 4C, blots were

probed with primary antibody then washed and probed with HRP-conjugated secondary

antibody (as shown in **Supplementary Table 4**). Blots were imaged using the iBright™

FL1500 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Blots were then stripped with

Restore™ stripping buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and probed

for beta-actin after imaging to confirm stripping removed previously bound antibody for

protein of interest. Densitometry was performed in FIJI ImageJ. All protein bands were

normalized to beta-actin.

*Gene Expression Profiling Using RNA-Sequencing*

RNA from cells was isolated using the NucleoSpin RNA kit (Machery-Nagel, Düren,

Germany) and final samples were eluted in 40 ul of RNAse free water. Gene expression

profiling using RNA-Seq was performed by the University of Iowa Genomics Division

using manufacturer recommended protocols. Briefly, 250 ng of DNase I-treated total

RNA was used to prepare sequencing libraries using the Illumina stranded mRNA

library preparation kit (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA).

The pooled and barcoded libraries were sequenced on the Element AVITI24

sequencing platform (Element Biosciences, San Diego, CA) using a Cloudbreak FS 150

cycle (2x75 bp) high output sequencing flow cell to generate at least 30M paired-end

sequencing reads per sample.

*Bulk RNA Sequencing Analysis*

Data were processed using the nf-core/rnaseq pipeline v3.18.0; doi:

10.5281/zenodo.1400710 from the nf-core workflow collection (88), utilizing

reproducible software environments from the Bioconda (89) and Biocontainers (90)

projects. The pipeline was executed with Nextflow v24.10.5 (91). In brief, paired-end

sequence reads were pre-processed by Trim Galore v0.6.10 (92)using Cutadapt v4.9

(93) to remove adapter sequences and filter low quality reads. Both raw and trimmed

FASTQ files (94) were evaluated for quality control using FastQC v0.12.1 (95) to assess

Phred scores, GC content, sequence length distributions, and identify over-represented

sequences. Lightweight pseudo-alignment and quantification was completed using

Salmon v1.10.3 (96) with the selective alignment mapping strategy (97). A

transcriptome index was constructed from Ensembl *Homo sapiens* primary assembly

GRCh38 by generating a decoy-aware transcriptome for k-mers of length 31 from gene

transfer format (GTF) genome annotations (release 113) and the full reference genome

sequence. Paired-end reads were then quantified in mapping-based mode for inward

reverse strand-specific libraries.

Quantification results were analyzed using R ((98); R version 4.4.1 (2024-06-14)) and

several Bioconductor packages v3.20.0 (99). Transcript-level quantification results

output by Salmon were summarized to gene-level abundance estimates and read

counts (100) using tximeta v1.24.0 (101) with a linked transcriptome to the Ensembl

GRCh38 reference genome. Additional gene annotations were obtained using

AnnotationDbi v1.68.0 (102) and org.Hs.eg.db v3.20.0 (103). Exploratory data analysis

was facilitated by data structures and methods from the SummarizedExperiment

v1.36.0 (104) and tidybulk v1.18.0 (105) packages. Analysis of differential expression

was limited to samples from day 10, 20, and 30 time points. Low count genes were

excluded following (106), setting a minimum count-per-million threshold of 10 for a

minimum group size of 3. Fold change estimates and p-values were calculated using

DESeq2 v1.46.0 (107) by fitting a negative binomial generalized linear model with a

Wald test to assess coefficient significance. To identify treatment-driven gene

expression changes, an additive model was specified to account for batch (1, 2, or 3)

and treatment (10 µM vs. 0 µM) effects (108). Pathway analysis was conducted with

iPathwayGuide using BH-adjusted *p*-values with differential expression thresholds of

0.05 for genes with absolute $\log_2$ fold changes > 1 (109).

*Statistics*

Statistical analysis was performed in GraphPad Prism Version 10.2.3 (347) unless

otherwise noted. All data were collected from three independent experiments (n=3).

Statistical significance was calculated using paired t-test for all RPE cell function assays

(alpha = 0.05, FDR = 0.01).

*Study Approval*

Cell obtained from an anonymous donor, exempt from human subjects approval.

*Data Availability*

Data is available on Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO): accession number GSE308550.

**AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

LPL, RFM, EMB, and BAT conceptualized the study, devised methodology, and

generated figures. LPL conducted experiments, performed formal analysis, and wrote

the original draft. JAR performed formal analysis, generated figures, and submitted data

to Genome Expression Omnibus. LPL, MJ, RJ, LAW, BH, MJR, and ATW acquired

data. RFM, EMB, BAT, BAE, HCB and TMB reviewed and edited the manuscript. RFM,

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**Figure 1 - Differentiation of hiPSCs into RPE. A)** Normal karyotype after

reprogramming donor fibroblasts into human induced pluripotent stem cells (hiPSCs).

**B)** hiPSCs display typical translucent colonies composed of densely packed cells. After

differentiation to hiPSC-derived RPE, the cells form a cobblestone-like monolayer of

pigmented polygonal cells, morphology characteristic of RPE cells. **C)** RT-qPCR for

signature RPE genes. delta-delta Ct values with bar height at the mean of technical

triplicates. Values are normalized to the housekeeping gene *B2M* and values from

hiPSCs derived from the same donor. **D)** Immunocytochemistry for signature RPE

proteins. Cell membranes label strongly for the tight junction protein, ZO-1, while nuclei

show robust labeling for PAX6, a key protein in eye specific development.

**Figure 2 - Selumetinib treatment increases bROS internalization by hiPSC-derived RPE cells. A)** Representative Western Blot of Total and Internalized phagocytosis conditions show an increase in internalized RHO in hiPSC-derived RPE treated with 10 $\mu$M selumetinib versus untreated controls. **B)** When all treatment times were combined, 10 $\mu$M selumetinib significantly increases the internalization of RHO. There was no significant difference between treatment conditions for other phagocytosis conditions measured. Multiple paired t tests, Mean ± SEM, n = 9 pairs per phagocytosis condition. **C)** At Day 10, 10 $\mu$M selumetinib significantly increases the internalization of RHO and does not affect other phagocytosis conditions. **D)** At Day 20, there is no significant difference in relative abundance of RHO between treatment groups given phagocytosis conditions. **E)** At Day 30, 10 uM selumetinib significantly increases the internalization of RHO and does not affect other phagocytosis conditions. **C-E)** Results of paired t tests, Mean ± SEM, n = 3 pairs for each phagocytosis condition from independent experiments. *, $p<0.05$. Abbreviations: D10, 10 days of selumetinib treatment; D20, 20 days of selumetinib treatment; D30, 30 days of selumetinib treatmenr; nd, no discovery; ns, not significant.

**Figure 3 - Selumetinib decreases aquaporin 1 (AQP1) expression. A)** AQP1

expression in hiPSC-derived RPE cells in combined 10- (B), 20- (C) and 30-day

selumetinib treatment groups versus untreated controls. For this analysis all treatment

times were combined. **B-D)** AQP1 expression in hiPSC-derived RPE cells following 10-

(B), 20- (C) and 30-days of selumetinib treatment versus untreated controls. Bars

represent Mean ± SEM, n = 3 pairs from independent experiments for each time point.

*, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.002$. **E)** Representative Western blots depicting decreased AQP1

protein levels in hiPSC-derived RPE cells in selumetinib treated versus untreated

controls following 10-, 20-, and 30-days of treatment. AQP1 was significantly decreased

following 10 days of selumetinib treatment. The levels of AQP1 rebounded to normal by

20- and 30-days of selumetinib treatment.

**C)**

| Top Altered Pathways | Bonferroni p-value |
|---|---|
| Neuroactive ligand-receptor interaction | $7.976 \times 10^{-9}$ |
| Calcium signaling | $9.719 \times 10^{-9}$ |
| PI3K-Akt signaling | $8.548 \times 10^{-6}$ |
| Extracellular matrix-receptor interaction | $1.604 \times 10^{-4}$ |

**D)**

| Top Altered Biological Processes (GO Term) | High-Specificity Pruning p-value |
|---|---|
| Visual perception | $6.511 \times 10^{-4}$ |
| Transport across blood-brain barrier | 0.002 |
| Positive regulation of cytosolic calcium ion concentration | 0.002 |
| Positive regulation of peptidyl-tyrosine phosphorylation | 0.002 |
| Positive regulation of ERK1 and ERK2 cascade | 0.002 |

**Figure 4 – Selumetinib significantly alters gene expression in hiPSC-derived RPE**

**cells. A)** Beeswarm plot of top 50 DEGs. Y-axis ordering is determined by Benjamini-

Hochberg (BH) adjusted p-value, with the lowest p-value at the top. **B)** Volcano plot of

DEGs. Negative $\log_{10}$ of BH adjusted p-values. Estimates of fold change and significance

were calculated from a pairwise contrast of treatment groups. Dashed red line indicates a

p-value threshold of 0.05. **C)** Summary of top pathways altered genes between treatment

groups using iPathwayGuide scores. **D)** Summary of top biological processes altered

between treatment groups using Gene Ontology (GO) Analysis. Abbreviations: VST,

variance stabilizing transformation; DEG, differentially expressed genes; GO, gene

ontology; D10, 10 days of selumetinib treatment; D20, 20 days of selumetinib treatment;

D30, 30 days of selumetinib treatment.

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