1 Functional maturation of human neural stem cells in a 3D bioengineered brain model

2 enriched with fetal brain-derived matrix

- 3 Disha Sood¹, Dana M. Cairns¹, Jayanth M. Dabbi¹, Charu Ramakrishnan², Karl Deisseroth², Lauren D. Black III¹,
- 4 Sabato Santaniello³, David L. Kaplan^{1*}
- 5
- 6 *Corresponding author
- 7 David L. Kaplan
- 8 Science & Technology Center
- 9 Room 251
- 10 Tufts University
- 11 Medford, MA 02155, USA
- 12 Tel: 617-627-3251
- 13 Email: david.kaplan@tufts.edu
- 14

15 Abstract

16 Brain extracellular matrix (ECM) is often overlooked in vitro brain tissue models, despite its 17 instructive roles during development. Using developmental stage-sourced brain ECM in reproducible 3D 18 bioengineered culture systems, we demonstrate enhanced functional differentiation of human induced 19 neural stem cells (hiNSCs) into healthy neurons and astrocytes. Particularly, fetal brain tissue-derived 20 ECM supported long-term maintenance of differentiated neurons, demonstrated by morphology, gene 21 expression and secretome profiling. Astrocytes were evident within the second month of differentiation, 22 and reactive astrogliosis was inhibited in brain ECM-enriched cultures when compared to unsupplemented 23 cultures. Functional maturation of the differentiated hiNSCs within fetal ECM-enriched cultures was 24 confirmed by calcium signaling and unsupervised cluster analysis. Additionally, the study identified 25 native biochemical cues in decellularized ECM with notable comparisons between fetal and adult brain-26 derived ECMs. The development of novel brain-specific biomaterials for generating mature in vitro brain 27 models provides an important path forward for interrogation of neuron-glia interactions.

28 KEYWORDS: brain extracellular matrix, human neural stem cells, neurons, astrocytes, tissue
29 engineering, differentiation, real-time tracking

- 30
- 31
- 32
- 33
- 34
- 35
- 36
- 50
- 37

2

38 Introduction

39 Many brain physiological and pathological features are human-specific, making it difficult to 40 extrapolate results from animal models, and thus driving the need for innovative human cell-based 3D in vitro 41 brain tissue cultures to investigate neurological disorders. Additionally, many neurodevelopmental and 42 neurodegenerative disorders are polygenic with multiple syndromic and non-syndromic forms, some of 43 which are of unknown genetic etiology and thus challenging to investigate using animal models (Avior, 44 Sagi, & Benvenisty, 2016). Previous in vitro models of neurological disorders using human induced 45 pluripotent stem cells (hiPSCs) or human neural stem cells (hNSCs) have mainly involved monolayer 2D 46 cultures that do not recapitulate physiological cell phenotype, signaling, and drug sensitivity due to the 47 lack of high cell densities, connectivity in 3D networks, and relevant cell-cell and cell-ECM interactions 48 (de la Torre-Ubieta, Won, Stein, & Geschwind, 2016; Quadrato, Brown, & Arlotta, 2016). Recent 49 advances in 3D organoid and spheroid-based systems have been extremely useful for studies of normal 50 brain development, such as cortical layering/interneuron migration, and for neurodevelopmental disorders 51 such as microcephaly, lissencephaly, and autism (Bagley, Reumann, Bian, Levi-Strauss, & Knoblich, 52 2017; Birey et al., 2017; Camp et al., 2015; Giandomenico & Lancaster, 2017; Lancaster et al., 2013; Luo 53 et al., 2016; Mariani et al., 2015; A. M. Pasca et al., 2015; Quadrato et al., 2017; Sloan et al., 2017). 54 Despite the variety of approaches there are only a few examples of 3D *in vitro* brain-like tissue models 55 that exhibit neuronal maturity and co-differentiation into glial cell types (Marton et al., 2019; A. M. Pasca 56 et al., 2015; Sloan et al., 2017). Also, most of these models were associated with significant limitations 57 including slow maturation into neuronal supporting cell types, such as astrocytes, and/or necrosis at longer 58 time points of cultivation in vitro (Quadrato et al., 2016; Velasco et al., 2019). This maturation and cell-59 cell interactions are key for modeling synaptogenesis and functions during later postnatal developmental 60 stages and for revealing the molecular basis for many diseased states, particularly neurodegenerative

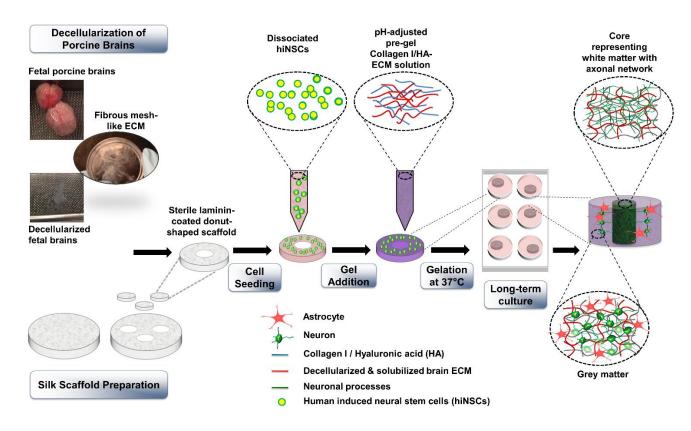
disorders where neuron-glia interactions are dysfunctional (Y. H. Kim et al., 2015; Lian & Zheng, 2016;
Rama Rao & Kielian, 2015; Salmina, 2009). Many of these 3D brain-like tissue models are also limited
in terms of reproducibility, and compartmentalization related to the introduction of microglia and
vasculature, as well as for sampling and control of nutrient transport into and out of the tissue systems.

65 A common limitation of current 3D in vitro brain models is that the ECM content is often not 66 considered in detail, even though brain ECM is dynamic during development and plays a crucial role in 67 cell signaling and homeostasis (Zimmermann & Dours-Zimmermann, 2008). The 'dynamic reciprocity' 68 model was proposed in the 1980s, which suggested that ECM guides gene expression and individual 69 components of ECM have an instructive role in directing tissue-specific development (Bissell, Hall, & 70 Parry, 1982). Despite these roles, most 3D brain tissue models use Matrigel as the major ECM component 71 and/or soluble bioactive factors to induce differentiation. Matrigel is a mouse sarcoma-derived basement 72 membrane matrix that lacks many physiologically-relevant biochemical cues involved in brain 73 development and maintenance, including several glycoproteins and proteogylcans (Bandtlow & 74 Zimmermann, 2000; Hughes, Postovit, & Lajoie, 2010; Miyata & Kitagawa, 2017). The human brain 75 ECM constitutes about 20-40% of the brain volume during development and adulthood, is highly 76 organized, and has unique traits in composition when compared to the ECM of other tissues (Zimmermann 77 & Dours-Zimmermann, 2008). Moreover, during development, ECM guides the compartmentalization of 78 functional brain microdomains, and thus contributes to the sophisticated architecture and function of the 79 brain (Dityatev, Seidenbecher, & Schachner, 2010). Such native ECM signals are particularly important 80 for differentiation and complete maturation of neural progenitor/stem cells (Hoshiba et al., 2016).

81 The impact of adult brain-derived ECM on cell differentiation, gelation kinetics and mechanical 82 properties has been studied in isolation (De Waele et al., 2015; DeQuach et al., 2010; Medberry et al., 83 2013); however, the study of composite, scaffold-based 3D *in vitro* systems to investigate the bioactivity

84 of ECM from different developmental stages over long-term differentiation of human induced neural stem 85 cells (hiNSCs) into both mature neurons and astrocytes is lacking. Astrocytes respond to soluble factors 86 and also influence their environment through the secretion of ECM molecules, particularly chondroitin 87 sulfate proteoglycans (CSPGs) that vary with mature/resting versus reactive astrocytes (Avram, 88 Shaposhnikov, Buiu, & Mernea, 2014; Lian & Zheng, 2016; Wiese, Karus, & Faissner, 2012). Therefore, 89 preventing reactive astrogliosis, measured by consistently high CSPG release, in 3D in vitro brain models 90 is critical in order to maintain neuronal health and functional synapses (Krencik, van Asperen, & Ullian, 91 2017; Yu, Wang, Katagiri, & Geller, 2012).

92 We hypothesized that the use of native brain-derived ECM for brain-relevant biochemical cues, 93 in combination with a tissue engineered approach to design brain-specific tissue constructs would promote 94 improved differentiation of stem cells; as well as address the need for reproducibility, tunability for 95 compartmentalization/sampling and accelerated maturation of the cells into neurons and glia. Many ECM 96 proteins are conserved across species (Hynes, 2012), thus porcine brain-derived ECM was used towards 97 the differentiation of hNSCs. In the current study, we investigated the effects of brain-derived ECM from 98 two different developmental stages (fetal versus adult) on the differentiation of hiNSCs (Cairns et al., 99 2016) into mature neurons and healthy astrocytes, when cultured within relevant environmental cues 100 (biochemical factors and 3D topology) (Schematic 1). hiNSCs were cultured in bioengineered silk protein 101 scaffold-based 3D tissue constructs infused with either collagen type I (CLG1, previously shown to be 102 compatible with brain cells (Chwalek, Tang-Schomer, Omenetto, & Kaplan, 2015)) or hyaluronic acid 103 (HA, a brain ECM component (Charles, Holland, Gilbertson, Glass, & Kettenmann, 2012; Wiranowska 104 & Rojiani, 2011)) hydrogels supplemented with native brain-derived ECM (fetal or adult).



105

Schematic 1: Culture of human induced neural stem cells in 3D *in vitro* bioengineered brain tissue constructs infused with decellularized brain ECM-collagen I/ hyaluronic acid (HA) hydrogel. The process starts with decellularization of porcine brains and silk scaffold preparation. Scaffolds are punched into 6 mm diameter constructs with a 2 mm diameter central hole. Laminin-coated scaffolds are seeded with dissociated human induced neural stem cells (hiNSCs). Decellularized ECM is mixed with either collagen I or HA solution and added to the scaffolds seeded with cells. The cell-seeded silk-scaffolds are flooded with media after complete gelation of ECM-collagen I or ECM-HA. The center of the construct shows a dense axonal network representing white matter, surrounded by the neuronal cell bodies and astrocytes representing the grey matter.

- 113
- 114 **Results**

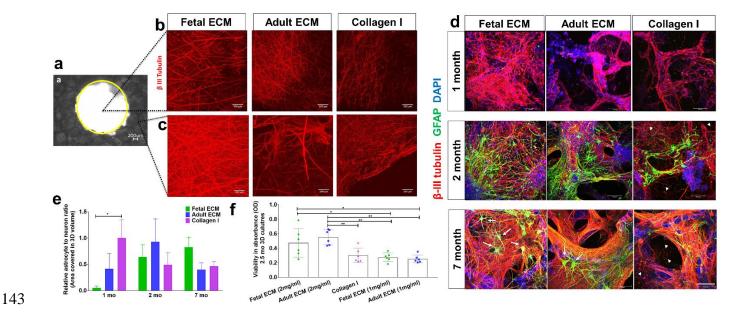
115 Extracellular matrix and time-dependent differentiation of hiNSCs in 3D cultures

We tested whether the presence of brain-derived ECM cues accelerated the differentiation of hiNSCs into mature neurons and glia, particularly astrocytes, in the 3D bioengineered brain tissues. An increased density of axonal network from differentiating neurons was observed in fetal ECM-enriched

119 constructs as shown by beta-III tubulin staining at 6 weeks, within both the axon rich central window 120 (Figure 1a-b) and the scaffold portion of the constructs (Figure 1a-c). The axonal projections filled the 121 central window significantly faster in the brain ECM-enriched constructs in comparison to 122 unsupplemented collagen type I or HA, when collagen type I or HA were used as the hydrogels, 123 respectively (Figure 1b, Supplementary Figure 1a). Additionally, time-dependent increased 124 differentiation of hiNSCs into neurons and astrocytes was observed based on immunostaining (Figure 125 1d). The astrocyte population was more evident in 2-month cultures, closely following the differentiation 126 of neurons. Star shaped astrocytes, suggestive of mature resting astrocytes, were only visible in the brain 127 ECM-enriched constructs, particularly in 7-month cultures (Figure 1d, marked by white arrows). The 128 structural integrity of the neurons and astrocytes was maintained throughout the culture duration within 129 the fetal brain ECM-enriched 3D brain tissue constructs (Figure 1d, left column). In contrast, unhealthy 130 neuronal morphologies, visible either as traces of disintegrated axons or as debris of clumped neuronal 131 cell bodies, were present in the unsupplemented collagen type I constructs at all time points, and were 132 particularly evident at 7 months (**Figure 1d**, right column, marked by white arrow heads).

133 These qualitative observations were followed by the quantification of the volume covered by 134 neurons and astrocytes within the 3D confocal stacks (3 < n < 6 per condition). The volume covered by 135 neurons was significantly greater in the fetal ECM constructs than adult ECM or unsupplemented collagen 136 I at 1 month, while the astrocytic population was not evident (Figure 1d-e, Supplementary Figure 2). A 137 time-dependent increase in the ratio of astrocytes to neurons was confirmed in the fetal ECM constructs 138 with an initial surge of astrocytes at 2 months (Figure 1e). The inclusion of porcine brain-derived ECM 139 had no toxicity as shown by viability and lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) release profiles across all 140 conditions (Figure 1f, Supplementary Figure 3).

141



144 Figure 1: Extracellular matrix and time-dependent differentiation of human induced neural stem cells in 3D cultures. 145 Human induced neural stem cells (hiNSCs) in silk scaffold-based 3D constructs infused with collagen I hydrogels supplemented 146 with native porcine brain-derived ECM. (a) Brightfield image of silk scaffold with the middle circular window indicated by the 147 yellow outline. (b) Growth of differentiating hiNSCs at 6 wk shown by β -III tubulin staining for neurons within the middle 148 hydrogel window of the 3D donut-shaped constructs. Max projection of z-stack. Scale bar 100µm. (c) Growth of differentiating 149 hiNSCs at 6 wk shown by β -III tubulin staining for neurons within the ring portion of the 3D donut-shaped constructs. Max 150 projection of z-stack. Scale bar 100 μ m. (d) Growth and differentiation of hiNSCs at 1, 2 and 7 mo shown by β -III tubulin 151 staining for neurons (red) and GFAP staining for astrocytes (green) across different ECM conditions. Max projection of z-152 stack. Scale bar 100µm. (e) Astrocyte to neuron ratio calculated by dividing the total volume in 3D confocal stacks covered by 153 astrocytes versus neurons post image processing. Mean±SEM. One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post hoc test (Collagen I as 154 control condition) at each time point on log transformed data, n=3-6. (f) Wst-1 viability assay at 2.5 mo in 3D hiNSC cultures. 155 One-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc for multiple comparisons. * p < 0.0431, ** p < 0.0071.

156

157 Targeted RNA profiling of 3D bioengineered hiNSC cultures was performed to determine the 158 gene expression profiles of the differentiating cells (**Figure 2a**). Genes corresponding to neurons, ion

159 channels/receptors involved in calcium signaling, mature resting astrocytes, toxic reactive astrocytes, 160 trophic reactive astrocytes, and neural stem cell were assessed. In 1-month cultures of fetal brain ECM-161 enriched tissue constructs, there was an upregulation of mature neuronal markers including synapsin 1 162 (SYN1) and microtubule associated protein 2 (MAP2), and mature heathy astrocytes including excitatory 163 amino acid transporter 1 (EAAT1), excitatory amino acid transporter 2 (EAAT2) (Sloan et al., 2017), and 164 multiple epidermal growth factor-like domain protein 10 (MEGF10) (Chung, Allen, & Eroglu, 2015). All 165 of these markers were higher than in unsupplemented collagen I cultures of similar age (Figure 2a). On 166 the other hand, markers of toxic reactive astrocytes such as Serpina3 (Clarke et al., 2018) were 167 downregulated in fetal brain ECM-enriched tissue constructs (Figure 2a). Concurrent upregulation of 168 many different voltage gated ion channels (sodium, potassium and calcium) was evident in brain-ECM 169 supplemented constructs, particularly with fetal brain ECM (Figure 2a), suggestive of excitability and 170 synaptic transmission (Vacher, Mohapatra, & Trimmer, 2008).

171 Secretome profiling was used to characterize the cytokine release profile of differentiating 172 hiNSCs. Soluble cytokines that are known to be important in astroglial differentiation (e.g., glial derived 173 neurotrophic factor (GDNF) (Gowing et al., 2014)) and in generating/maintaining healthy 174 neurons/synapses (e.g., Brevican (Barros, Franco, & Muller, 2011), PDGF-AA: platelet-derived growth 175 factor AA (Funa & Sasahara, 2014), b-NGF: beta nerve growth factor (Schuldiner et al., 2001), 176 thrombospondins (TSPs) (Risher & Eroglu, 2012)), were released in relatively greater amounts in brain 177 ECM-enriched constructs in comparison to unsupplemented collagen I (Figure 2b). On the other hand, 178 many cytokines associated with reactive astrocytes, including complement component 5a (C5a), 179 Chemokine ligand 5 (RANTES) (Choi, Lee, Lim, Satoh, & Kim, 2014) and MMP-9 (Kamat, Swarnkar, Rai, Kumar, & Tyagi, 2014), were higher in unsupplemented collagen I cultures (Figure 2b). Thus, 180 181 modulation of hiNSC differentiation into neurons and astrocytes was achieved using decellularized ECM

182 derived from specific developmental stages, with fetal brain-derived ECM resulting in overall highest

183 upregulation and release of neuronal supporting factors.

184

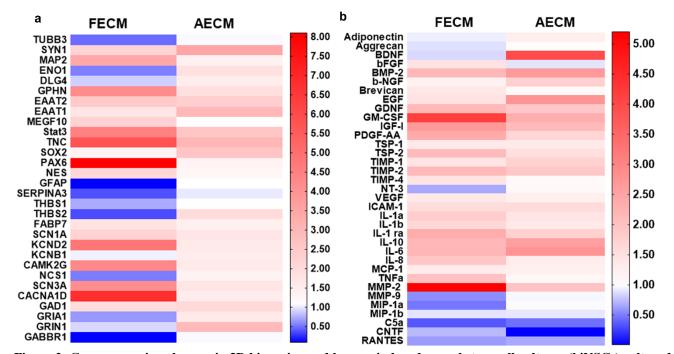


Figure 2: Gene expression changes in 3D bioengineered human induced neural stem cell cultures (hiNSCs) cultured in decellularized fetal or adult brain ECM. (a) Left and right panels indicate fold change in gene expression within fetal ECM and adult ECM-enriched constructs relative to collagen I condition, respectively. n=3 pooled per condition at 1 month. (b) Cytokine release profile of differentiating hiNSCs in 3D bioengineered cultures at 1 month. Media was pooled from n=7 samples per condition for the cytokine microarray. Refer to Tables 1-2 for the detailed list of genes and cytokines.

190

191 Chondroitin sulfate proteoglycan secretion as a marker of astrocyte maturity and reactive

192 astrogliosis

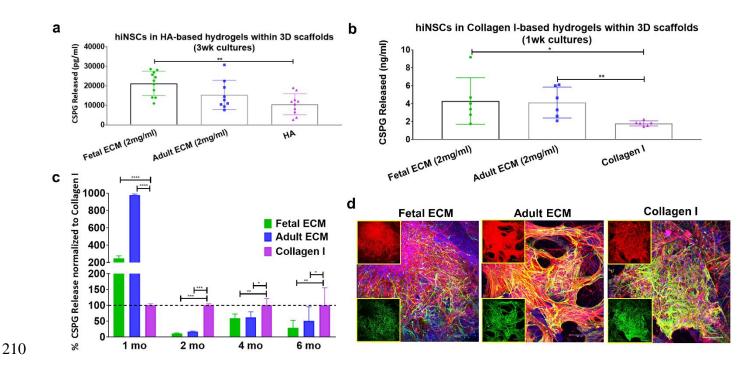
During development, chondroitin sulfate proteoglycans (CSPGs) are transiently upregulated and produced largely by maturing neurons and astrocytes; however, during disease states reactive astrocytes exhibit sustained upregulation of CSPG expression/secretion (Siebert, Conta Steencken, & Osterhout,

196 2014). Relative CSPG levels can thus be utilized as an indicator of astrogliosis (Yu et al., 2012). CSPGs 197 released in 1 week and 1-month hiNSC cultures were significantly higher in fetal brain ECM-enriched 198 constructs compared to either HA based (Figure 3a) or pure collagen type I hydrogels (Figure 3b-c), as 199 measured in an ELISA. There was a significantly lower level of CSPG release in the brain ECM constructs 200 at every time point post the initial month (Figure 3c). At longer culture durations, unsupplemented 201 collagen type I containing cultures consistently showed the highest levels of CSPG release (Figure 3c). 202 Additionally, the known morphological changes associated with reactive astrogliosis, including rapid 203 proliferation and overlapping of cellular regions, was primarily seen in unsupplemented collagen type I 204 matrices (Figure 3d). Therefore, based on the CSPG release profiles and GFAP-stained cell morphology 205 (Figure 3, Figure 1d), even the nominal presence of native brain-derived ECM supported the 206 differentiation and maintenance of healthy astrocytes when grown long-term in 3D cultures (at least up to 207 7 months); as opposed to culturing in pure collagen type I matrix.

208

209

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/691907; this version posted July 4, 2019. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under a CC-BY 4.0 International license.



211 Figure 3: Chondroitin sulfate proteoglycans as a marker of astrocyte maturity or reactive astrogliosis. The amount of 212 chondroitin sulfate proteoglycans (CSPGs) released in media by the cells within 3D constructs. (a) CSPGs released in media 213 from hyaluronan-based 3D constructs at 3 wk. Unpaired two-tailed t-tests between individual pairs. (b) CSPGs released in 214 media from collagen-based 3D constructs at 1 wk. Unpaired two-tailed t-tests between individual pairs assuming equal SD. (c) 215 CSPGs released in media from collagen-based 3D constructs at different time points. Ordinary two-way ANOVA with 216 Dunnett's post hoc test and Collagen I as control condition, n=3-6. (d) Differentiating hiNSCs at 3 mo shown by β -III Tubulin 217 staining for neurons (red) and GFAP staining for astrocytes (green) across different ECM conditions. Insets show the red and 218 green channels separately. Max projection of z-stack. Scale bar 100 μ m. * p< 0.0407, ** p< 0.0097, *** p< 0.0003, **** p< 219 0.0001.

220

221

222 Extracellular matrix dependent function observed in long-term 3D cultures

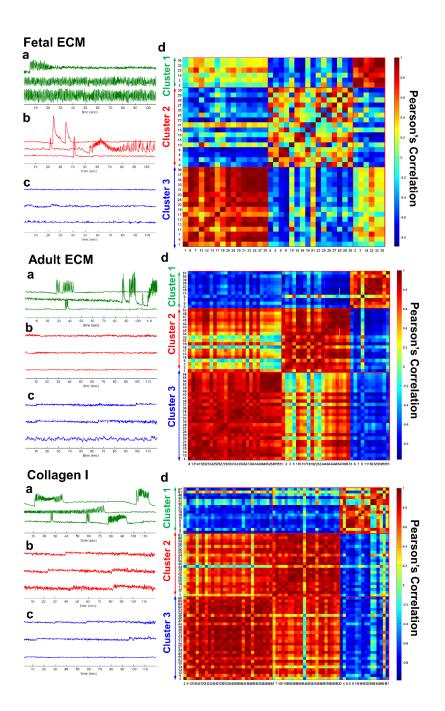
223 Calcium wave propagation in the developing brain has been implicated in the regulation of diverse 224 cellular differentiation, through modulation of neurotransmitter expression, and axon and dendritic 225 morphogenesis (Rosenberg & Spitzer, 2011). Differentiated neuronal and glial populations also exhibit 226 robust and cell-specific calcium activity, including single cell spikes or network bursts (Kapucu et al., 227 2012). For instance, developing neurons have been shown to have increased spontaneous burst activity 228 during the formation of synapses and networks related to their stabilization (Hua & Smith, 2004; Kamioka, 229 Maeda, Jimbo, Robinson, & Kawana, 1996). Thus, the spatiotemporal patterns of calcium signaling in the 230 3D developing cultures were assessed to decipher the role of ECM in modulating spontaneously functional 231 networks.

232 Higher calcium fluorescence activity was observed in fetal ECM-enriched constructs than in adult 233 ECM-enriched constructs and unsupplemented collagen I constructs. Specifically, greater spontaneous 234 activity was recorded at 7 months via Fluo-4 dye (Figure 4, Supplementary Videos 1-3), than at 3 months 235 (Supplementary Figure 4, Supplementary Videos 4-6). Moreover, the cluster analysis revealed that in 236 fetal ECM constructs, more than 50% of the neural activity at rest was characterized by sustained 237 oscillatory activity (cluster 1-2: Figure 4A), which was either tonic (cluster 1, Figure 4A-a) or amplitude-238 modulated and overlapped with spurious spikes (cluster 2, Figure 4A-b). The remaining cells, instead, 239 remained in a quiescent state with modest oscillatory activity (cluster 3, Figure 4A-c). The percentage of 240 clustered cells with sustained oscillatory activity patterns corresponding to clusters 1-2 was 63.3%, 55.5% 241 (Supplementary Figure 5A-B) and 57.9% (Figure 4A), representing different replicates of fetal ECM 242 constructs respectively. In addition, the similarity among patterns within the same cluster presented a 243 recurrent trait (Figure 4A-d), where cells in the quiescent state (cluster 3, Figure 4A-c) or in the tonic 244 oscillatory state (cluster 1, Figure 4A-a) had high in-cluster correlation and poor out-of-cluster correlation

(cluster 1: 0.77 ± 0.21 vs. -0.23 ± 0.42 ; cluster 3: 0.84 ± 0.16 vs. -0.09 ± 0.41 ; in-cluster versus out-of-cluster, mean \pm SD). On the other hand, cells showing amplitude-modulated spiking activity (cluster 2, Figure **4A**) had a low in-cluster correlation value (0.34 ± 0.43 vs. -0.39 ± 0.35 , in-cluster versus out-of-cluster, mean \pm SD, Figure **4A-d**). This trend was consistent across neural populations involving fetal ECM (Supplementary Figure 5A-a and 5B-a), and along with the scattered arrangement of cluster 2 cells in the construct (Supplementary Figure 6 a-c), indicated that the spontaneous spiking was decorrelated across cluster 2 cells and reflected a low-level of established connectivity.

252 Unlike the fetal case, constructs involving adult ECM presented a low percentage of clustered cells 253 with spontaneous spiking activity (i.e., 19.6%, 40%, 27.27% corresponding to clusters 1 in Figure 4B-a, 254 Supplementary 7A-b and Supplementary Figure 7B-b, respectively) and a majority of cells showed a 255 generalized quiescent condition (Figure 4B-b and c), which rarely alternated with modest oscillatory 256 activity (e.g., $\Delta F/F$ at the bottom of **Figure 4B-c**). This was further confirmed by the high inter-cluster 257 similarity between cluster 2 and cluster 3 in Figure 4B-d (0.41±0.37, Pearson's correlation coefficient, 258 mean \pm SD) and remained consistent across different neural populations (see Supplementary Figure 7A-259 **B**). Analogously, neural population growth in collagen-based constructs had low percentages of cells with 260 spontaneous spiking activity (23.9% of the population depicted in Figure 4C [cluster 1], 22.7% and 29.0% 261 of the population in Supplementary Figure 8A [cluster 3] and Supplementary Figure 8B [cluster 1], 262 respectively), while the majority of cells presented either a quiescent state or low-intensity oscillatory 263 patterns (Figure 4C, panel b-c) with high in-cluster correlation values (0.82±0.17 and 0.83±0.16, cluster 264 2 and 3, respectively, in **Figure 4C-d**), which indicated a low level of activity.

Overall, these results indicated that fetal ECM-based constructs supported neural populations with a higher fraction of active, spontaneously spiking neurons and on average, a more intense coordinated physiological activity.



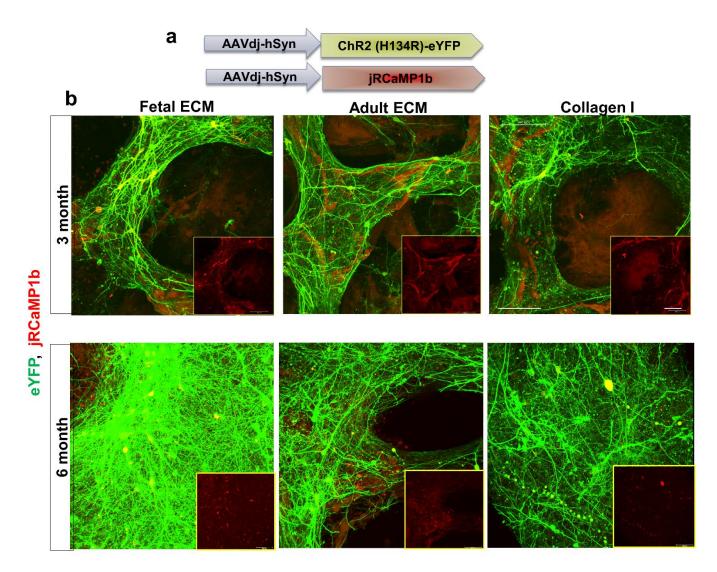
268

Figure 4: Spontaneous calcium activity in 3D cultures of differentiating human neural stem cells at 7 months. <u>Panel A:</u> cells from a construct with fetal ECM; <u>Panel B:</u> cells from a construct with adult ECM; <u>Panel C:</u> cells from a construct with unsupplemented collagen I. In each panel: (a-c) Three clusters were identified using the Louvain algorithm and three examples of Δ F/F time series per cluster are reported (a: cluster 1; b: cluster 2; c: cluster 3). (d) Pearson's correlation coefficients between vectors *f*. There is one vector per ROI and ROIs are sorted according to the cluster position. Numbers on the edges of the matrix indicate the unique ID of the ROI.

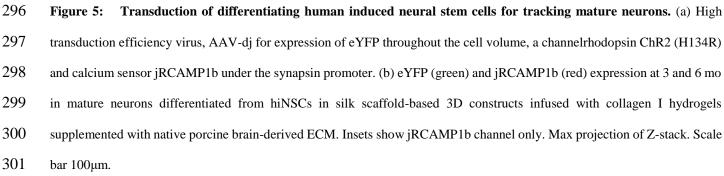
275

Transduction of hiNSCs with a neuron-specific reporter and genetically encoded calcium sensor for cell-specific tracking

278 To longitudinally track neuronal populations, differentiating hiNSCs were transduced with 279 adeno-associated virus-dj (AAV-dj), a hybrid serotype with a higher transduction efficiency and 280 infectivity *in vitro* in comparison to other wild type AAV serotypes (Katrekar, Moreno, Chen, Worlikar, 281 & Mali, 2018). The transduction virus enabled the expression of eYFP (yellow fluorescent protein) 282 throughout the cell volume under the synapsin promoter, such that the arising mature neuronal populations 283 could be tracked over time. Additionally, a genetically encoded calcium sensor, jRCaMP1b, was 284 expressed in the differentiating hiNSCs under the synapsin promoter. The red-shifted calcium sensor, 285 RCaMP1b, was particularly chosen for several advantages; brighter/stable long-term expression over 286 GCaMP6, imaging capability at greater depths with reduced photodamage, greater sensitivity and dynamic 287 range before saturation (Dana et al., 2016). This dual transduction enabled label-free tracking of mature 288 neurons over time in the cultures, while simultaneously allowing for visualization of calcium levels 289 (Figure 5a). We confirmed the presence of mature neurons expressing eYFP and jRCaMP1b at both 3 290 and 6 months in the 3D bioengineered cultures across all ECM conditions (Figure 5b upper and lower 291 panels, respectively). Qualitatively, the neuronal networks were more intact and structurally robust in the 292 fetal ECM-enriched constructs, with overall higher baseline calcium levels and increased network density 293 at 6-months (Figure 5b, lower panel). Thus, differentiating neuronal populations were successfully 294 transduced with dual viral constructs to specifically track these populations.



295



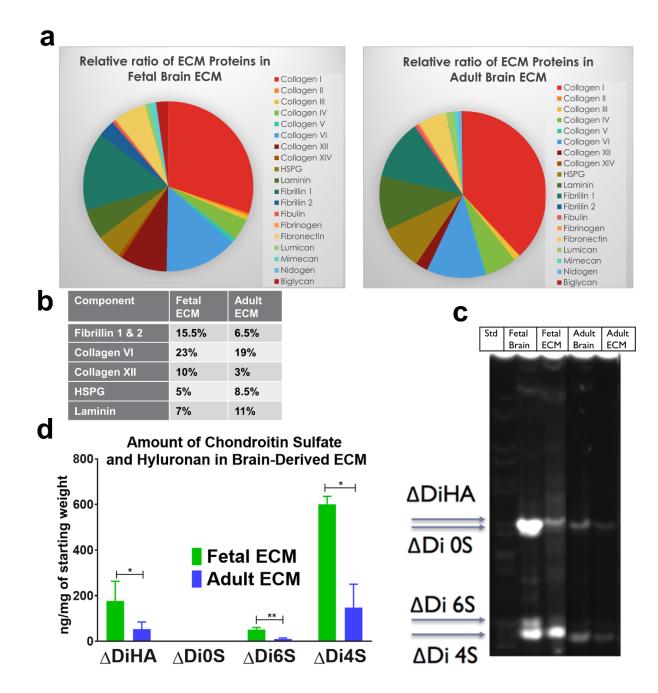
302

303 Composition analysis of decellularized brain extracellular matrix

304 We sought to characterize the composition of fetal and adult brain matrices, which potentially 305 contribute to the phenotypic changes in differentiation capacity and functionality that were observed upon 306 culture of hiNSCs in these matrices. Through Liquid Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (LC/MS), we 307 confirmed that a complex composition of brain ECM was maintained post-decellularization. The 308 components varied in relative amounts between fetal versus adult ECM, but included both fibrous proteins 309 (up to 8 types of collagens, fibronectin, laminin), glycoproteins (nidogen, fibulin, fibronectin, fibrillins) 310 and non-fibrous proteoglycans (heparin sulfate proteoglycans/HSPGs, biglycan, mimecan, lumican) 311 (Figure 6a). Fibrillins were higher in fetal brain-derived ECM (Figure 6b). Furthermore, biglycans were 312 enriched in the decellularized fetal brain ECM, when tested over multiple different extractions 313 (Supplementary Figure 9a).

314 Considering a significant loss of GAGs during sample processing for LC/MS, we resorted to a 315 specialized technique, Fluorescence Assisted Carbohydrate Electrophoresis (FACE), for GAG 316 compositional analysis of the decellularized brain ECM (Calabro et al., 2001; Midura, Cali, Lauer, 317 Calabro, & Hascall, 2018). FACE analysis of whole brain tissue indicated a greater amount of GAGs 318 present in fetal versus adult brain (Figure 6c-d, Supplementary Figure 9b-d). This trend was maintained 319 in the decellularized brain, with fetal ECM indicating significantly higher levels of GAGs versus adult 320 ECM, specifically 4-sulfated chondroitin sulfate (4S-CS), 6S-CS and HA (Figure 6c-d). Additionally, 321 HSPGs were present in higher amounts in fetal ECM (Supplementary Figure 9d).

322



323

Figure 6: ECM composition analysis using LC/MS and fluorescence assisted carbohydrate electrophoresis. (a) Relative
ratios of ECM proteins in fetal versus adult porcine brain decellularized matrix. (b) Table indicating the relative percentages
of a few select ECM components in decellularized brain matrix. (c) Overall higher quantity of GAGs present in fetal brain
ECM, as opposed to adult brain ECM. Unpaired two-tailed t-tests on log-transformed data between individual pairs, n=3,
*p<0.0439, **p=0.0040. (d) Characterization of decellularized fetal & adult brain ECM in comparison to fetal and adult whole
brains by FACE. Chondroitin sulfate (CS) and hyaluronan (HA) bands in the fetal & adult porcine brain ECM. ΔDiHA:
hyaluronan, ΔDiOS: non-sulfated CS, ΔDi6S: 6-sulfated CS, ΔDi4S: 4-sulfated CS.

331 Discussion

332 There has been a growing interest in the use of *in vitro* 3D brain-like tissue systems for the study 333 of neurological diseases using patient-derived stem cells (Lancaster et al., 2017; S. P. Pasca, 2016; 334 Quadrato et al., 2016; Watson, Kavanagh, Allenby, & Vassey, 2017). Some of the limitations of these 335 systems include inconsistent and slow co-differentiation of the cells towards neurons and supporting cells, 336 such as astrocytes. Notably, Matrigel-based ECM hydrogels utilized for brain organoids, the current state 337 of the art technology in the field, are poorly defined; this leads to variable differentiation effects such as 338 inconsistencies in cortical layer formation and represented brain regions, including the presence of non-339 ectodermal identities (S. P. Pasca, 2018). Although, regionally specific brain ECM networks are reported 340 to play major roles in generation of structural and functional diversity, little is known about how ECM is 341 developmentally regulated in the brain (Dauth et al., 2016; S. P. Pasca, 2018). To our knowledge, the 342 differentiation effects of fetal and adult brain ECM on human NSCs have not been characterized 343 previously. Our previous study laid the foundation for the instructive role of decellularized fetal brain 344 ECM in boosting primary mice neuronal culture (Sood et al., 2015). The current study investigated the 345 composition and role of developmental stage-sourced brain ECM for enhanced and functional maturation 346 of human induced neural stem cells (hiNSCs) into a co-culture of healthy neurons and astrocytes.

We sought to investigate the effects of developmentally sourced brain ECM in 3D bioengineered tissue systems. The advantages of a silk scaffold-based model proposed here over previously generated scaffold-free organoid cultures include structurally robust long term cultures without necrosis in the core, ease of handling and reproducibility, and segregation of gray matter and white matter with ease of monitoring neural network formation over time. We hypothesized that 3D brain constructs generated using brain-derived ECM would create a more physiologically relevant microenvironment conducive to growth and maturity of hiNSCs. We utilized hiNSCs directly reprogrammed from dermis-derived cells instead of

induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) because they differentiate rapidly and efficiently into both neurons and glia, without the need for lengthy protocols required for iPSC differentiation that vary in efficiency (Cairns et al., 2016). We report functional networks with enhanced maturation of neurons, predominantly in fetal brain ECM-enriched cultures at both 3 and 7 months. These functional results correlated with the upregulation of various ion channels in fetal ECM cultures.

359 Achieving a mature astrocyte population with temporal and physiological relevance that 360 recapitulates the phenotype of healthy astrocytes in vivo is crucial. Greater differentiation of hiNSCs into 361 healthy astrocytes was expected in the presence of native brain-derived ECM due to the neuroinductive 362 biochemical cues, leading to the generation of a more representative 3D in vitro model. Indeed, we report 363 reactive astrocyte morphology, and consistent upregulation of CSPGs in cultures lacking brain-derived 364 ECM. This is potentially the result of reactive astrogliosis in the pure collagen I cultures at longer 365 durations, because reactive astrocytes have been predominantly indicated for CSPG upregulation and 366 sustained secretion in adult central nervous system (Cua et al., 2013; Pantazopoulos, Woo, Lim, Lange, 367 & Berretta, 2010). For instance, reactive astrocyte-derived CSPG subtypes including versican V2, 368 neurocan and phosphocan have been shown to hinder axonal growth in spinal cords of amyotropic lateral 369 sclerosis (ALS) patients (Mizuno, Warita, Aoki, & Itoyama, 2008). In healthy cultures, CSPGs are 370 expected to be lowered and stabilized mainly in perineuronal nets (PNNs); this is following the initial 371 surge and in relevance to brain development where maturing neurons/astrocytes transiently upregulate 372 CSPGs (Mueller, Davis, Sovich, Carlson, & Robinson, 2016). This was the case for brain ECM-enriched 373 cultures, which also indicated the presence of morphologically healthy mature astrocytes (Cullen, 374 Stabenfeldt, Simon, Tate, & LaPlaca, 2007). Additionally, we approximated the subtypes of differentiated 375 astrocytes within brain ECM-enriched 3D bioengineered brain cultures via gene expression arrays and 376 secretome profiling. Resting mature astrocytes identified by markers such as glutamate transporters

377 (EAAT1, EAAT2) and phagocytic genes (MEGF10) (Sloan et al., 2017) rarely proliferate; but assume a 378 reactive morphology and distinct markers upon activation either towards the toxic pro-inflammatory A1 379 or the trophic A2 subtypes (Liddelow & Barres, 2017). The existence of these two polarized populations 380 of reactive astrocytes has been postulated, similar to macrophage polarization to subtypes M1 and M2 381 [56]. The pro-inflammatory A1 reactive astrocytes lose normal astrocytic functions such as neuronal 382 outgrowth, synaptogenesis and phagocytosis, and instead contribute to neuronal death by glial scar 383 formation and by releasing toxic factors (Clarke et al., 2018; Liddelow et al., 2017). The secretome 384 profiling of the 2 subtypes have indicated preferentially higher release of thrombospondins from the A2 385 trophic astrocytes, which was noted to be the case for brain ECM containing cultures. Notably, the 386 peptidase inhibitor serpina3a, which is postulated to be a specific marker of A1 reactive astrocytes (Lee 387 et al., 2009; Zamanian et al., 2012), was downregulated within fetal brain ECM cultures.

388 Additionally, our results indicated that differentiated neurons appeared early, while astrocytes 389 arose with increasing time in culture. The initial surge in neuronal maturation within the fetal ECM-390 enriched constructs leveled off at later time points. These responses are in line with the known switch 391 towards astroglial differentiation of a multipotent cell, which initially gives rise to neuronal precursors 392 through changes in receptor expression (Wiese et al., 2012). Moreover, maintenance of a stable astrocyte-393 to-neuron ratio with relevance to known in vivo values (~ 1.4), is critical in in vitro brain tissue models, 394 since this ratio is dynamic initially during development and known to increase in disease states 395 (Nedergaard, Ransom, & Goldman, 2003). We report an astrocyte to neuron ratio with *in vivo* relevance 396 in the generated *in vitro* brain tissue models when supplemented with fetal brain-derived ECM.

397 Delineating the basis for the divergence of observed cellular responses through the biochemical 398 analysis of the brain-derived ECM may have implications for generating 3D *in vitro* brain disease models 399 that are more representative with sufficient maturity levels. For instance, we noted overall higher amounts

400 of fibrillins (Figure 6b) and biglycans in fetal ECM (Supplementary Figure 9a), which could present a 401 potential mechanism for control of reactive astrogliosis and warrants further inquiry. Fibrillin 1 expression 402 is developmentally regulated and it acts as a reservoir for transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β) in ECM. 403 Downregulation of fibrillin 1 has been associated with increased TGF-β signaling (Burchett, Ling, & 404 Estus, 2011). TGF- β on the other hand is a known inducer of reactive astrogliosis (Yu et al., 2012). We 405 postulate that the fibrillins present in decellularized brain ECM could potentially harbor specific growth 406 factors, such as TGF- β , and thus, control reactive astrogliosis in long-term 3D cultures enriched with brain 407 ECM. Moreover, biglycan proteoglycans have been noted for their role in maintaining synaptic stability 408 (Nastase, Young, & Schaefer, 2012). We further attribute the favorable effects of fetal brain ECM on the 409 maturation of neural stem cells to the fact that this prenatal brain matrix allows for plasticity during 410 development. Similarly, decellularized zebrafish brain, known for its remarkable plasticity and CNS 411 regeneration capability, was recently shown to promote rat cortical neuronal viability and network 412 formation in a scaffold-based culture system (S. M. Kim, Long, Tsang, & Wang, 2018).

413 In our 3D bioengineered cultures, collagen type I was mainly used as a base matrix into which 414 brain ECM was incorporated, as it was deemed most stable for long term culture and best for neuronal 415 growth through screening of different commercially available matrices (Sood et al., 2015). We also tested 416 a custom tyramine-HRP crosslinked HA hydrogel supplemented with decellularized brain ECM 417 (Supplementary Figure 1 b/d); however, it underwent rapid degradation. Further fractionation and 418 analysis of ECM components will be needed to decipher the role of specific components towards 419 differentiation of neural stem cells. The scaffold-based 3D tissue system is well suited to undertake studies 420 for deciphering the role of specific ECM components during brain development or disease.

421 Furthermore, through transduction of differentiating neurons with an opsin, e-YFP reporter and 422 genetically encoded calcium sensor (GECI), we demonstrated that this system is amenable to live tracking 423 as well as all optical interrogation of cells over long-term cultures. Similar approaches could be used to 424 place an opsin and GECI under a healthy astrocyte promoter, with distinct spectral profiles from those 425 placed under the neuronal promoter synapsin; which would eventually enable studies of cell-cell 426 interactions towards the generation of network patterns and dissect cell-specific signaling. Moreover, the 427 resulting scaffold-based brain tissue model with concomitant presence of neurons and astrocytes is highly 428 tunable from a structure-morphological perspective. This feature enables gray/white matter segregation 429 and presents potential for spatially controlled introduction of morphogens or other cell types in future 430 iterations, such that their roles in neurodegenerative diseases can be investigated.

431 Conclusions

432 First, we report healthy mature astrocyte morphology supported by relevant gene 433 expression/cytokine release, and downregulation of CSPGs in cultures supplemented with brain-derived 434 ECM. Our results indicate that differentiated neurons appeared early, closely followed by astrocytes. Such 435 systems would be useful to investigate neurodegenerative disorders, many of which have implicated 436 reactive astrogliosis as a cause or consequence. Next, the combined functionality of cells differentiated 437 from hiNSCs in the 3D bioengineered tissue model, revealed greater overall spontaneous activity at 7-438 month versus 3-month cultures. Clear differences were observed across ECM conditions, including more 439 active clusters overall, increased coordinated activity, highest concurrent upregulation of voltage gated 440 ion channels and downregulation of markers of toxic reactive astrocytes in the fetal ECM-enriched 441 constructs. Furthermore, live tracking of differentiating neurons in long-term 3D cultures was achieved 442 using genetically encoded biosensors.

This is the first study to examine the composition of decellularized brain ECM from different developmental stages, specifically glycosaminoglycans (GAGs), and to identify native stimulatory cues relevant for functional maturation of hiNSCs over long term in 3D bioengineered brain constructs supplemented with decellularized fetal and adult porcine brain ECMs. Moreover, the combination of the proposed measurements of neurons and/or astrocytes with functional optogenetic interrogation in future iterations holds the potential to help unravel cell-matrix crosstalk and to understand the interactions between cell types in healthy versus diseased states. Altogether, the knowledge gained has the potential to enable the development of brain-specific biomaterials for generating physiologically-relevant 3D *in vitro* brain models.

452

453 Materials and Methods

454 **3D Bioengineered Brain Model with hiNSCs**

455 Assembly of the bioengineered cortical tissue was performed as previously described with further 456 optimization (Chwalek, Sood, et al., 2015). Briefly, porous silk 3D scaffolds were coated with 0.05-0.5 457 mg/mL laminin (Sigma-Aldrich) either overnight at 4°C or for 2 h at 37°C. The scaffolds were incubated 458 in media at 37°C for at least 30 mins to equilibrate the scaffolds for cell seeding. Expanding hiNSCs were 459 lifted off mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) using TrypLE Select and centrifuged at 3,000 rpm for 1.5 460 mins. The cell pellet was resuspended in hiNSC expansion media consisting of KnockOut Serum 461 Replacement DMEM (Thermo Fisher, cat#10829-018), GlutaMax (Thermo Fisher, cat#35050-061), 462 KnockOut SR (Thermo Fisher, cat#A1099202), Antibiotic-Antimycotic (Thermo Fisher, cat#15240-062) and 2-mercapto (Thermo Fisher, cat#21985-023), bFGF Basic (Thermo Fisher, cat#PHG0024), as 463 464 previously defined (Cairns et al., 2016). The resuspended cell solution was vortexed and passed through 465 a 40µm filter to achieve single cell suspension. The resulting single cells obtained from hiNSC colonies 466 were seeded on the 3D ring-shaped silk scaffolds at a concentration of 0.5-1 million in 100µl volume per 467 scaffold. After overnight incubation of 100µl hiNSC concentrated cell suspension per scaffold in a 96well plate to maximize cell attachment to the laminin coated silk, the unattached cells were washed away
with the hiNSC expansion media. Next, the hiNSC cell-seeded scaffolds were infused with either 3 mg/mL
rat tail collagen type I (Corning), a commonly used matrix or with collagen-native brain ECM composite
hydrogels.

472 For the generation of ECM-collagen I hydrogels, porcine brain ECM from different 473 developmental stages were obtained via a previously developed decellularization process (Sood et al., 474 2015). Lyophilized ECM was solubilized with 1 mg/mL pepsin from porcine gastric mucosa (Sigma-475 Aldrich) in 0.1N hydrochloric acid (Sigma-Aldrich). The solubilization time for fetal and adult ECM at 476 room temperature was approximately 16 and 24 h, respectively. Once solubilized, the ECM was mixed 477 with hiNSC differentiation media (Neurobasal media supplemented with 1% B27, 1% glutamax and 1% 478 anti-anti) at a 1:1 ratio and neutralized using 1 M NaOH (Sigma-Aldrich). The neutralized ECM solution 479 was mixed with 3 mg/mL rat tail collagen type I (Corning) for a final ECM concentration of 1,000 µg/ml 480 or 2000 µg/ml and the gelation process started using NaOH. The ECM-collagen solution was kept on ice 481 until complete gelation was required and was used within 2 h of preparation. For hyaluronic acid (HA) 482 hydrogels, 5.5% tyramine-substituted HA (Lifecore) was reconstituted under sterile conditions at 10 483 mg/ml in ultrapure water overnight at 4° C on a shaker. To obtain HA gels of ~1 kPa bulk modulus, final 484 optimized concentrations of HA (4 mg/ml), horseradish peroxidase (1 U/mL of gel), hydrogen peroxide 485 (0.005% v/v) and pH adjusted 10x DMEM (1x in gel) were mixed together on ice. The remaining volume 486 was adjusted by addition of ultrapure water. In the case of ECM-HA hydrogels, 10x DMEM (final 1x in 487 gel) was added to solubilized ECM, which was further pH adjusted and then mixed with the rest of the 488 components. HA hydrogels were prepared in small volumes (~1ml) due to their rapid gelation time and 489 added to scaffolds immediately. After introduction within the cell-seeded scaffolds, the gelation was 490 completed in 30 mins at 37°C, following which more media was added to each well with the constructs.

491 The next day, each of the ECM containing cell-seeded 3D constructs was moved to a larger well of a 24492 well plate with sufficient media.

493 Immunostaining and Quantification of Area Covered by Neurons versus Astrocytes

494 At different time points (1, 2, 7, 13 months) in 3D cultures, cells were evaluated for neuronal 495 network density and differentiation into neurons and astroglial cells with immunostaining. The samples 496 were fixed at different time points with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) solution in PBS (Santa Cruz 497 Biotechnology). Fixation time was 20-30 mins for the 3D constructs. The cells were stained with beta-III 498 tubulin and GFAP (Sigma-Aldrich) as markers for neurons and astrocytes, respectively. Primary antibody 499 incubations were performed at 4°C overnight, while the secondary antibody incubations were carried out 500 at room temperature for 2 h. The volume covered in 3D stacks was measured using a custom code 501 generated in MATLAB. Briefly, the 3D stacks corresponding to either beta-III tubulin or GFAP were 502 binarized, such that there are only two possible values corresponding to each pixel (black or white). The 503 volume covered was represented as the total number of positive pixels (black) divided by the total pixels 504 (corresponding to either black or white pixels) of all the planes in the corresponding z-stack.

505 Calcium Imaging and Cluster Analysis

506 Differentiated cell functionality was determined using live calcium imaging at 3 and 7 months in 507 culture. Cells seeded on 3D scaffolds were immersed in extracellular solution: NaCl 140 mM, KCl 2.8 508 mM, CaCl₂ 2 mM, MgCl₂ 2 mM, HEPES 10 mM, glucose 10 mM, pH 7.4, (all reagents from Sigma-509 Aldrich). Fluo-4 (Life Technologies Corporation) calcium sensitive dye was mixed 1:1 with 20% Pluronic 510 F127 (Life Technologies Corporation). Next, Fluo-4 was diluted to a final concentration 1 μ M in the 511 extracellular buffer prewarmed to 37°C. The Fluo-4 1 μ M solution was applied on the scaffolds and 512 incubated at 37°C for 1 h. Upon incubation, the constructs were washed with the extracellular buffer to

remove excess dye. The constructs were imaged using the Keyence BZ-X700. The images were taken with following setup: 15 ms exposure, 50 ms frame frequency, 512×512 pixels, 4×4 binning, 1200 frames/min at 37°C. Images were processed offline using the NIH ImageJ software suite.

Regions of interest (ROIs) were extracted automatically from a series of calcium images over time, following a two-step approach. First, the variance of the brightness of each pixel through time was computed, allowing for the generation of a heatmap. The heatmap was convolved with a 2-D Gaussian kernel with a standard deviation computed from the resolution and magnification of the images, to ensure continuity and to reduce noise. Next, the local maxima of the filtered heatmap were found and used as seed points to isolate discrete regions, each representing an ROI. Finally, fluorescence intensity time traces were plotted on the center of mass of the discrete regions (single pixel data).

523 For each ROI, the relative change in fluorescence was calculated as

524
$$\Delta F / F = \frac{F - F_0}{F_0}$$

where *F* is the fluorescence time series and F_0 is the baseline of *F* estimated from a ± 15 s sliding window. Due to the sparse activity, F_0 was calculated as the average of all values below the 80th percentile in *F*. Finally, a second order Savitzky-Golay filter was applied to the $\Delta F/F$ signal to remove noise while preserving the signal frequency span.

529 The $\Delta F/F$ signals collected from the isolated ROIs were used for cluster analysis as in (Tang-530 Schomer, Jackvony, & Santaniello, 2018). Briefly, each $\Delta F/F$ was processed to compute the following 531 features, which collectively provide a time-frequency characterization that is unique to the $\Delta F/F$ signal:

532 1) Line-length:
$$f_1 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} |\Delta F / F(k+1) - \Delta F / F(k)|;$$

533 2) Standard Deviation:
$$f_2 = \frac{1}{N} \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^{N} (\Delta F / F(k) - \mu)^2}$$
;

- 534 3) Entropy: $f_3 = -\sum_n p_n \log_2 p_n$;
- 535 4) Spectral peak: $f_4 = \arg \max_{\omega} P_{\Delta F/F}(\omega)$;

536 5) Spectral centroid:
$$f_5 = \frac{\int \omega P_{\Delta F/F}(\omega) d\omega}{\int P_{\Delta F/F}(\omega) d\omega};$$

537 6) Energy: $f_6 = \sum_{k=1}^{N} (\Delta F / F(k))^2$;

538 7) Global/local peak ratio:
$$f_7 = \frac{g^*}{\sum_{g_i \in G, g_i < g^*} \frac{g_i}{J-1}}$$
,

539 where $\Delta F/F(k)$ is the k-th sample in the $\Delta F/F$ time series, N is the total number of samples in $\Delta F/F$, μ is 540 the average value of $\Delta F/F$, and $P_{\Delta F/F}(\omega)$ is the power spectrum density of the $\Delta F/F$ signal at frequency 541 $0 \le \omega \le F_s/2$, where F_s is the number of frames per second. To estimate the entropy (3), the sample 542 probability function of the $\Delta F/F$ intensity values is computed and the correspondent sample probability values p_n are used. The spectral peak (4), instead, is the frequency ω of the maximum power spectrum 543 544 density value $P_{\Delta F/F}(\omega)$. Finally, the peak ratio (7) is estimated by computing all the local maxima (i.e., peaks) $G = [g_1, g_2, g_3, ..., g_J]$ of the $\Delta F/F$ signal and the absolute maximum (i.e., global peak) g^* among 545 546 the peaks in G. In addition to features (1)-(7), the entropy of the squared-normalized Teager Energy vector 547 was computed. Briefly, the Teager Energy series was computed:

548
$$T(k) = \begin{cases} \Delta F / F(k) - \Delta F / F(k-1) \times \Delta F / F(k+1) & k = 2, 3, ..., N-1 \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}$$

and the sample entropy is computed as:

550 8) Teager Energy entropy:
$$f_8 = -\sum_{k=1}^{N} S(k) \log_2 S(k)$$
,

where S(k) is the squared and normalized version of T(k), i.e., $S(k) = T^2(k) / \sum_j T^2(j)$. Features (1)-(8) were introduced in (Blanco et al., 2010) and provide high accuracy in distinguishing activity patterns that involve different oscillations, bursting modes, or spurious spiking.

554 The 8×1 vectors $f = [f_1, f_2, f_3, ..., f_8]$ (one vector per ROI) were finally used to cluster the ROIs, 555 i.e., the Pearson's correlation coefficient was computed for every pair of detected ROIs and two ROIs in 556 one preparation were assigned to the same cluster if they had highly-correlated feature vectors. The 557 number of clusters and the cluster assignment were determined in an unsupervised manner using the 558 Louvain algorithm (Blondel, Guillaume, Lambiotte, & Lefebvre, 2008). The Louvain algorithm assigns 559 the ROIs to clusters by maximizing a quantitative index that weights both the average similarity between 560 feature vectors inside clusters and the average similarity between vectors across clusters. Because the 561 Louvain algorithm is a locally greedy optimization algorithm, the procedure was repeated for a total of 562 100 optimizations and a consensus partition method was implemented as in (Lancichinetti & Fortunato, 563 2012) to obtain a consistent cluster partition for each culture.

564 Transduction of hiNSCs with viral constructs

The starting viral titer of AAVdj-hSyn-jRCaMP1b and AAVdj-hSyn-hChR2(H134R)-eYFP (Stanford University Virus Core) was 1.78×10^{13} and 3.62×10^{13} , respectively. The virus was diluted at 1:1000 dilution in cell culture media for differentiating hiNSCs. Each cell-seeded scaffold was incubated in 400µl media containing virus and exposure to the virus was maximized by adding additional media in the same well for an entire week. One-week post-infection, virus-containing media was replaced with fresh media. Virally transduced tissue constructs were imaged with a multiphoton confocal microscope (TCS SP8, Leica) equipped with a Ti-Sapphire laser. During imaging, each sample was placed in a well 572 of a glass bottomed (No. 1.5 coverslip) 24-well plate. The imaging chamber was maintained at 37°C and 573 humidified along with a continuous supply of 5% CO₂.

574 Analysis of brain-derived ECM

575 Liquid Chromatography Tandem Mass Spectrometry: Lyophilized ECM samples were weighed 576 and solubilized at 5 mg/ml in 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) in PBS containing 5M urea, 2M thiourea 577 and 50 mM Dithiothreitol (DTT). The samples were solubilized for ~ 24 hrs at 4°C with gentle stirring. 578 Following this step, the solubilized ECM samples were acetone precipitated for 2 hrs at -20 °C (Williams, 579 Quinn, Georgakoudi, & Black, 2014). The obtained pellets following removal of the supernatant were 580 sent for liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) at the Beth Israel Deaconess 581 Medical Center Mass Spectrometry Core facility. The resulting spectral count data was scanned to find 582 the most abundant ECM proteins (n=2 per ECM condition was analyzed).

583 Fluorophore-assisted Carbohydrate *Electrophoresis (FACE):* Fluorophore-assisted 584 carbohydrate electrophoresis was performed on lyophilized adult and fetal porcine brain ECM samples, 585 using a previously developed protocol for glycosaminoglycan (GAG) analysis (Calabro, Benavides, 586 Tammi, Hascall, & Midura, 2000). Briefly, the dry weight of the ECM samples was measured, followed 587 by digestion in 1mg/ml proteinase K at 60°C for 2 h. Hyaluronan and chondroitin sulfate present within 588 the samples were digested using the following enzymes: chondroitinase ABC (Seikagaku 25mU/ml) and 589 hyaluronidase SD (Seikagaku 2.5mU/ml). Following ethanol precipitation and proteinase K heat 590 inactivation, the ECM samples within the resulting pellet were incubated in the enzymes at 37°C 591 overnight. A second ethanol precipitation step was performed, and the resulting hyaluronan/CS glycans 592 were retained within the supernatants after centrifugation. The glycans were labeled with the fluorophore 593 2-amino-acridone (AMAC) by incubation at 37°C for 18 h. Finally, the labeled samples and standard 594 disaccharides were loaded onto gels at lower volumes of $2-5\mu$ as opposed to $\sim 30\mu$ in protein gels, to aid

in band resolving. Electrophoresis was performed at a constant 500V for 1 h 15 mins and FACE imaging was accomplished using a UVP Chemi-DocIt2 515 integrated system. Band quantifications were performed in ImageJ. To calculate the concentration of disaccharides in ECM samples, sample band intensity was divided by the intensity of the respective known standard. Relative intensities of disaccharide bands across samples were normalized by the starting dry weight.

600 Statistics

601 Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 7 software (GraphPad, CA, USA). All 602 data are expressed as mean \pm SD with sample sizes of $n \ge 3$, unless stated otherwise. The analysis methods 603 utilized included ordinary two-way and one-way ANOVA, followed by Tukey's *post hoc* or Dunnet's *post* 604 *hoc* test when assigning unsupplemented hydrogels as the control condition to determine the statistically 605 significant differences for multiple comparisons, and unpaired two-tailed t-test for comparison of two 606 groups, unless stated otherwise.

607 Samples were chosen randomly for the different experiments to account for any potential 608 unavoidable biological variability. This included randomization post cell seeding within the scaffold and 609 before allocation into different groups for ECM hydrogel addition. For clustering analysis of calcium 610 imaging the investigator was blinded to the different groups.

611

612 Acknowledgements

This work was funded by the US National Institutes of Health (NIH) P41 Tissue Engineering Resource Center Grant (EB002520), NIH R01 (NS092847) and NIH Research Infrastructure grant NIH S10 OD021624. Additionally, we would like to acknowledge PEG funding support for FACE training (NIH/NHLBI 1P01HL107147 Program of Excellence in Glycosciences; VC Hascall, PD/PI). We thank

Mattia Bonzanni, Min Tang-Schomer, Annie Golding, Kelly Sullivan, Breanna Duffy, Whitney Stoppel and Jonathan Grasman for helpful discussions and protocols. We also thank Yu-Ting Dingle for timely help in feeding the long-term cultures and Breanna Duffy for running LC/MS samples. Additionally, we would like to extend a special thanks to Valbona Cali, Dr. Ronald Midura, Dr. Vince Hascall and Dr. Suneel Apte for training in FACE analysis at Lerner Research Institute and for their expert feedback.

622

623 Author Contributions

624 D.S. and D.L.K. conceptualized ad designed the experiments, D.S. conducted the experiments, 625 performed data analysis, data interpretation and compiled the manuscript. D.C. generated and expanded 626 hiNSCs, advised during different stages of experimental planning, and contributed to manuscript writing. 627 J.D. performed confocal imaging analysis, calcium imaging ROI extraction and assisted with experiments. 628 C.R. prepared the viral constructs for neuronal transduction. C.R. and K.D. provided training at Stanford 629 University and advised on the viral transduction protocols. L.D.B. helped conceptualize the use of 630 developmental stage decellularized brain ECM and advised on the results. S.S. conducted cluster analysis 631 of calcium imaging data, and contributed to clustering data interpretation and manuscript writing. D.L.K. 632 supervised experiments and enabled all stages of manuscript preparation. All authors provided their 633 feedback on the final manuscript.

634

635 Authors and Affiliations

Disha Sood¹, Dana M. Cairns¹, Jayanth M. Dabbi¹, Charu Ramakrishnan², Karl Deisseroth², Lauren D.
Black III¹, Sabato Santaniello³, David L. Kaplan¹

- ¹Department of Biomedical Engineering, Tufts University, Medford MA 02155
- ²Department of Bioengineering, Stanford University, Stanford CA 94305
- ³Neural Systems Engineering and Control Laboratory, University of Connecticut, CT 06269

641

- 642 **Disclosures**
- 643 None.

644

- 645 **Competing Financial Interests**
- 646 None.

647

648 Data Availability Statement

- 649 All data is included within the manuscript and supplementary sections. A master source data file has been
- 650 provided for Figures 1-3, 6 and Supplementary Figures 2 and 9. Source data and Matlab codes used to
- 651 generate Figure 4 and Supplementary Figures 5, 7 and 8 are provided in a separate zip folder labeled-
- 652 Calcium Imaging Analysis Files.

653 Bibliography

- Avior, Y., Sagi, I., & Benvenisty, N. (2016). Pluripotent stem cells in disease modelling and drug discovery. *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology*.
- Avram, S., Shaposhnikov, S., Buiu, C., & Mernea, M. (2014). Chondroitin sulfate proteoglycans: structure-function
 relationship with implication in neural development and brain disorders. *Biomed Res Int, 2014*, 642798.
 doi:10.1155/2014/642798
- 659 Bagley, J. A., Reumann, D., Bian, S., Levi-Strauss, J., & Knoblich, J. A. (2017). Fused cerebral organoids model 660 interactions between brain regions. *Nat Methods*, *14*(7), 743-751. doi:10.1038/nmeth.4304
- 661 Bandtlow, C. E., & Zimmermann, D. R. (2000). Proteoglycans in the developing brain: new conceptual insights for 662 old proteins. *Physiol Rev, 80*(4), 1267-1290. doi:10.1152/physrev.2000.80.4.1267
- Barros, C. S., Franco, S. J., & Muller, U. (2011). Extracellular matrix: functions in the nervous system. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol, 3*(1), a005108. doi:10.1101/cshperspect.a005108
- Birey, F., Andersen, J., Makinson, C. D., Islam, S., Wei, W., Huber, N., ... Pasca, S. P. (2017). Assembly of functionally
 integrated human forebrain spheroids. *Nature*, 545(7652), 54-59. doi:10.1038/nature22330
- Bissell, M. J., Hall, H. G., & Parry, G. (1982). How does the extracellular matrix direct gene expression? *J Theor Biol*, *99*(1), 31-68.
- Blanco, J. A., Stead, M., Krieger, A., Viventi, J., Marsh, W. R., Lee, K. H., . . . Litt, B. (2010). Unsupervised classification
 of high-frequency oscillations in human neocortical epilepsy and control patients. *J Neurophysiol, 104*(5),
 2900-2912. doi:10.1152/jn.01082.2009
- Blondel, V. D., Guillaume, J.-L., Lambiotte, R., & Lefebvre, E. (2008). Fast unfolding of communities in large
 networks. *Journal of Statistical Mechanics: Theory and Experiment, 2008*(10), P10008. doi:10.1088/17425468/2008/10/p10008
- 675 Burchett, M. E., Ling, I. F., & Estus, S. (2011). FBN1 isoform expression varies in a tissue and development-specific 676 fashion. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun, 411*(2), 323-328. doi:10.1016/j.bbrc.2011.06.140
- Cairns, D. M., Chwalek, K., Moore, Y. E., Kelley, M. R., Abbott, R. D., Moss, S., & Kaplan, D. L. (2016). Expandable
 and Rapidly Differentiating Human Induced Neural Stem Cell Lines for Multiple Tissue Engineering
 Applications. *Stem Cell Reports, 7*(3), 557-570. doi:10.1016/j.stemcr.2016.07.017
- Calabro, A., Benavides, M., Tammi, M., Hascall, V. C., & Midura, R. J. (2000). Microanalysis of enzyme digests of
 hyaluronan and chondroitin/dermatan sulfate by fluorophore-assisted carbohydrate electrophoresis
 (FACE). *Glycobiology*, 10(3), 273-281.
- Calabro, A., Midura, R., Wang, A., West, L., Plaas, A., & Hascall, V. C. (2001). Fluorophore-assisted carbohydrate
 electrophoresis (FACE) of glycosaminoglycans. *Osteoarthritis Cartilage, 9 Suppl A*, S16-22.
- Camp, J. G., Badsha, F., Florio, M., Kanton, S., Gerber, T., Wilsch-Brauninger, M., . . . Treutlein, B. (2015). Human
 cerebral organoids recapitulate gene expression programs of fetal neocortex development. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 112*(51), 15672-15677. doi:10.1073/pnas.1520760112
- 688 Charles, N. A., Holland, E. C., Gilbertson, R., Glass, R., & Kettenmann, H. (2012). The brain tumor 689 microenvironment. *Glia*, 60(3), 502-514.
- Choi, S. S., Lee, H. J., Lim, I., Satoh, J., & Kim, S. U. (2014). Human astrocytes: secretome profiles of cytokines and
 chemokines. *PLoS One*, 9(4), e92325. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0092325
- Chung, W. S., Allen, N. J., & Eroglu, C. (2015). Astrocytes Control Synapse Formation, Function, and Elimination.
 Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol, 7(9), a020370. doi:10.1101/cshperspect.a020370
- 694 Chwalek, K., Sood, D., Cantley, W. L., White, J. D., Tang-Schomer, M., & Kaplan, D. L. (2015). Engineered 3D Silk-695 collagen-based Model of Polarized Neural Tissue. *J Vis Exp*(105), e52970. doi:10.3791/52970
- 696 Chwalek, K., Tang-Schomer, M. D., Omenetto, F. G., & Kaplan, D. L. (2015). In vitro bioengineered model of cortical
 697 brain tissue. *Nat Protoc*, 10(9), 1362-1373. doi:10.1038/nprot.2015.091

- Clarke, L. E., Liddelow, S. A., Chakraborty, C., Munch, A. E., Heiman, M., & Barres, B. A. (2018). Normal aging
 induces A1-like astrocyte reactivity. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, *115*(8), E1896-E1905.
 doi:10.1073/pnas.1800165115
- Cua, R. C., Lau, L. W., Keough, M. B., Midha, R., Apte, S. S., & Yong, V. W. (2013). Overcoming neurite-inhibitory chondroitin sulfate proteoglycans in the astrocyte matrix. *Glia*, *61*(6), 972-984. doi:10.1002/glia.22489
- Cullen, D. K., Stabenfeldt, S. E., Simon, C. M., Tate, C. C., & LaPlaca, M. C. (2007). In vitro neural injury model for optimization of tissue-engineered constructs. *J Neurosci Res, 85*(16), 3642-3651. doi:10.1002/jnr.21434
- Dana, H., Mohar, B., Sun, Y., Narayan, S., Gordus, A., Hasseman, J. P., . . . Kim, D. S. (2016). Sensitive red protein
 calcium indicators for imaging neural activity. *Elife*, *5*. doi:10.7554/eLife.12727
- Dauth, S., Grevesse, T., Pantazopoulos, H., Campbell, P. H., Maoz, B. M., Berretta, S., & Parker, K. K. (2016).
 Extracellular matrix protein expression is brain region dependent. *J Comp Neurol*, *524*(7), 1309-1336.
 doi:10.1002/cne.23965
- de la Torre-Ubieta, L., Won, H., Stein, J. L., & Geschwind, D. H. (2016). Advancing the understanding of autism
 disease mechanisms through genetics. *Nat Med*, *22*(4), 345-361. doi:10.1038/nm.4071
- De Waele, J., Reekmans, K., Daans, J., Goossens, H., Berneman, Z., & Ponsaerts, P. (2015). 3D culture of murine
 neural stem cells on decellularized mouse brain sections. *Biomaterials*, 41, 122-131.
 doi:10.1016/j.biomaterials.2014.11.025
- DeQuach, J. A., Mezzano, V., Miglani, A., Lange, S., Keller, G. M., Sheikh, F., & Christman, K. L. (2010). Simple and
 high yielding method for preparing tissue specific extracellular matrix coatings for cell culture. *PLoS One*,
 5(9), e13039. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0013039
- Dityatev, A., Seidenbecher, C. I., & Schachner, M. (2010). Compartmentalization from the outside: the extracellular
 matrix and functional microdomains in the brain. *Trends Neurosci, 33*(11), 503-512.
 doi:10.1016/j.tins.2010.08.003
- Funa, K., & Sasahara, M. (2014). The Roles of PDGF in Development and During Neurogenesis in the Normal and
 Diseased Nervous System. *Journal of Neuroimmune Pharmacology*, 9(2), 168-181. doi:10.1007/s11481 013-9479-z
- Giandomenico, S. L., & Lancaster, M. A. (2017). Probing human brain evolution and development in organoids.
 Curr Opin Cell Biol, 44, 36-43. doi:10.1016/j.ceb.2017.01.001
- Gowing, G., Shelley, B., Staggenborg, K., Hurley, A., Avalos, P., Victoroff, J., . . . Svendsen, C. N. (2014). Glial cell
 line-derived neurotrophic factor-secreting human neural progenitors show long-term survival, maturation
 into astrocytes, and no tumor formation following transplantation into the spinal cord of
 immunocompromised rats. *Neuroreport, 25*(6), 367-372. doi:10.1097/Wnr.000000000000092
- Hoshiba, T., Chen, G., Endo, C., Maruyama, H., Wakui, M., Nemoto, E., . . . Tanaka, M. (2016). Decellularized
 Extracellular Matrix as an In Vitro Model to Study the Comprehensive Roles of the ECM in Stem Cell
 Differentiation. *Stem Cells Int, 2016*, 6397820. doi:10.1155/2016/6397820
- Hua, J. Y., & Smith, S. J. (2004). Neural activity and the dynamics of central nervous system development. *Nat Neurosci, 7*(4), 327-332. doi:10.1038/nn1218
- Hughes, C. S., Postovit, L. M., & Lajoie, G. A. (2010). Matrigel: a complex protein mixture required for optimal
 growth of cell culture. *Proteomics, 10*(9), 1886-1890. doi:10.1002/pmic.200900758
- 737
 Hynes, R. O. (2012). The evolution of metazoan extracellular matrix. J Cell Biol, 196(6), 671-679.

 738
 doi:10.1083/jcb.201109041
- Kamat, P. K., Swarnkar, S., Rai, S., Kumar, V., & Tyagi, N. (2014). Astrocyte mediated MMP-9 activation in the
 synapse dysfunction: An implication in Alzheimer disease. *Ther Targets Neurol Dis,* 1(1).
 doi:10.14800/ttnd.243
- Kamioka, H., Maeda, E., Jimbo, Y., Robinson, H. P., & Kawana, A. (1996). Spontaneous periodic synchronized
 bursting during formation of mature patterns of connections in cortical cultures. *Neurosci Lett, 206*(2-3),
 109-112.

- Kapucu, F. E., Tanskanen, J. M., Mikkonen, J. E., Yla-Outinen, L., Narkilahti, S., & Hyttinen, J. A. (2012). Burst analysis
 tool for developing neuronal networks exhibiting highly varying action potential dynamics. *Front Comput Neurosci, 6*, 38. doi:10.3389/fncom.2012.00038
- Katrekar, D., Moreno, A. M., Chen, G., Worlikar, A., & Mali, P. (2018). Oligonucleotide conjugated multi-functional
 adeno-associated viruses. *Sci Rep, 8*(1), 3589. doi:10.1038/s41598-018-21742-x
- Kim, S. M., Long, D. W., Tsang, M. W. K., & Wang, Y. (2018). Zebrafish extracellular matrix improves neuronal
 viability and network formation in a 3-dimensional culture. *Biomaterials*, *170*, 137-146.
 doi:10.1016/j.biomaterials.2018.04.009
- Kim, Y. H., Choi, S. H., D'Avanzo, C., Hebisch, M., Sliwinski, C., Bylykbashi, E., . . . Kim, D. Y. (2015). A 3D human
 neural cell culture system for modeling Alzheimer's disease. *Nat Protoc*, *10*(7), 985-1006.
 doi:10.1038/nprot.2015.065
- Krencik, R., van Asperen, J. V., & Ullian, E. M. (2017). Human astrocytes are distinct contributors to the complexity
 of synaptic function. *Brain Res Bull, 129*, 66-73. doi:10.1016/j.brainresbull.2016.08.012
- Lancaster, M. A., Corsini, N. S., Wolfinger, S., Gustafson, E. H., Phillips, A. W., Burkard, T. R., . . . Knoblich, J. A.
 (2017). Guided self-organization and cortical plate formation in human brain organoids. *Nat Biotechnol*, 35(7), 659-666. doi:10.1038/nbt.3906
- Lancaster, M. A., Renner, M., Martin, C. A., Wenzel, D., Bicknell, L. S., Hurles, M. E., . . . Knoblich, J. A. (2013).
 Cerebral organoids model human brain development and microcephaly. *Nature*, *501*(7467), 373-379.
 doi:10.1038/nature12517
- Lancichinetti, A., & Fortunato, S. (2012). Consensus clustering in complex networks. Sci Rep, 2, 336.
 doi:10.1038/srep00336
- Lee, S., Park, J. Y., Lee, W. H., Kim, H., Park, H. C., Mori, K., & Suk, K. (2009). Lipocalin-2 is an autocrine mediator
 of reactive astrocytosis. *J Neurosci, 29*(1), 234-249. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.5273-08.2009
- Lian, H., & Zheng, H. (2016). Signaling pathways regulating neuron-glia interaction and their implications in
 Alzheimer's disease. *J Neurochem*, 136(3), 475-491. doi:10.1111/jnc.13424
- Liddelow, S. A., & Barres, B. A. (2017). Reactive Astrocytes: Production, Function, and Therapeutic Potential.
 Immunity, 46(6), 957-967. doi:10.1016/j.immuni.2017.06.006
- Liddelow, S. A., Guttenplan, K. A., Clarke, L. E., Bennett, F. C., Bohlen, C. J., Schirmer, L., . . . Barres, B. A. (2017).
 Neurotoxic reactive astrocytes are induced by activated microglia. *Nature*, *541*(7638), 481-487.
 doi:10.1038/nature21029
- Luo, C., Lancaster, M. A., Castanon, R., Nery, J. R., Knoblich, J. A., & Ecker, J. R. (2016). Cerebral Organoids
 Recapitulate Epigenomic Signatures of the Human Fetal Brain. *Cell Rep,* 17(12), 3369-3384.
 doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2016.12.001
- Mariani, J., Coppola, G., Zhang, P., Abyzov, A., Provini, L., Tomasini, L., . . . Vaccarino, F. M. (2015). FOXG1 Dependent Dysregulation of GABA/Glutamate Neuron Differentiation in Autism Spectrum Disorders. *Cell*,
 162(2), 375-390. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2015.06.034
- Marton, R. M., Miura, Y., Sloan, S. A., Li, Q., Revah, O., Levy, R. J., . . . Pasca, S. P. (2019). Differentiation and
 maturation of oligodendrocytes in human three-dimensional neural cultures. *Nat Neurosci, 22*(3), 484 491. doi:10.1038/s41593-018-0316-9
- Medberry, C. J., Crapo, P. M., Siu, B. F., Carruthers, C. A., Wolf, M. T., Nagarkar, S. P., . . . Badylak, S. F. (2013).
 Hydrogels derived from central nervous system extracellular matrix. *Biomaterials, 34*(4), 1033-1040.
 doi:10.1016/j.biomaterials.2012.10.062
- Midura, R. J., Cali, V., Lauer, M. E., Calabro, A., & Hascall, V. C. (2018). Quantification of hyaluronan (HA) using a
 simplified fluorophore-assisted carbohydrate electrophoresis (FACE) procedure. *Methods Cell Biol, 143*,
 297-316. doi:10.1016/bs.mcb.2017.08.017
- Miyata, S., & Kitagawa, H. (2017). Formation and remodeling of the brain extracellular matrix in neural plasticity:
 Roles of chondroitin sulfate and hyaluronan. *Biochim Biophys Acta*, 1861(10), 2420-2434.
 doi:10.1016/j.bbagen.2017.06.010

- Mizuno, H., Warita, H., Aoki, M., & Itoyama, Y. (2008). Accumulation of chondroitin sulfate proteoglycans in the
 microenvironment of spinal motor neurons in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis transgenic rats. *J Neurosci Res*,
 86(11), 2512-2523. doi:10.1002/jnr.21702
- Mueller, A. L., Davis, A., Sovich, S., Carlson, S. S., & Robinson, F. R. (2016). Distribution of N-Acetylgalactosamine Positive Perineuronal Nets in the Macaque Brain: Anatomy and Implications. *Neural Plasticity, 2016*, 6021428. doi:10.1155/2016/6021428
- Nastase, M. V., Young, M. F., & Schaefer, L. (2012). Biglycan: a multivalent proteoglycan providing structure and
 signals. J Histochem Cytochem, 60(12), 963-975. doi:10.1369/0022155412456380
- 801Nedergaard, M., Ransom, B., & Goldman, S. A. (2003). New roles for astrocytes: redefining the functional
architecture of the brain. *Trends Neurosci, 26*(10), 523-530. doi:10.1016/j.tins.2003.08.008
- Pantazopoulos, H., Woo, T. U., Lim, M. P., Lange, N., & Berretta, S. (2010). Extracellular matrix-glial abnormalities
 in the amygdala and entorhinal cortex of subjects diagnosed with schizophrenia. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*,
 67(2), 155-166. doi:10.1001/archgenpsychiatry.2009.196
- Pasca, A. M., Sloan, S. A., Clarke, L. E., Tian, Y., Makinson, C. D., Huber, N., . . . Pasca, S. P. (2015). Functional cortical neurons and astrocytes from human pluripotent stem cells in 3D culture. *Nat Methods, 12*(7), 671-678. doi:10.1038/nmeth.3415
- 809
 Pasca, S. P. (2016). Personalized Human Cortical Spheroids. Am J Psychiatry, 173(4), 332-333.

 810
 doi:10.1176/appi.ajp.2016.16020133
- 811
 Pasca, S. P. (2018). The rise of three-dimensional human brain cultures. Nature, 553(7689), 437-445.

 812
 doi:10.1038/nature25032
- Quadrato, G., Brown, J., & Arlotta, P. (2016). The promises and challenges of human brain organoids as models of
 neuropsychiatric disease. *Nat Med*, 22(11), 1220-1228. doi:10.1038/nm.4214
- Quadrato, G., Nguyen, T., Macosko, E. Z., Sherwood, J. L., Min Yang, S., Berger, D. R., . . . Arlotta, P. (2017). Cell
 diversity and network dynamics in photosensitive human brain organoids. *Nature*, 545(7652), 48-53.
 doi:10.1038/nature22047
- 818Rama Rao, K. V., & Kielian, T. (2015). Neuron-astrocyte interactions in neurodegenerative diseases: Role of819neuroinflammation. Clin Exp Neuroimmunol, 6(3), 245-263. doi:10.1111/cen3.12237
- Risher, W. C., & Eroglu, C. (2012). Thrombospondins as key regulators of synaptogenesis in the central nervous
 system. *Matrix Biology*, *31*(3), 170-177. doi:10.1016/j.matbio.2012.01.004
- Rosenberg, S. S., & Spitzer, N. C. (2011). Calcium signaling in neuronal development. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol, 3*(10), a004259. doi:10.1101/cshperspect.a004259
- Salmina, A. B. (2009). Neuron-glia interactions as therapeutic targets in neurodegeneration. J Alzheimers Dis,
 16(3), 485-502. doi:10.3233/JAD-2009-0988
- Schuldiner, M., Eiges, R., Eden, A., Yanuka, O., Itskovitz-Eldor, J., Goldstein, R. S., & Benvenisty, N. (2001). Induced
 neuronal differentiation of human embryonic stem cells. *Brain Res, 913*(2), 201-205.
- Siebert, J. R., Conta Steencken, A., & Osterhout, D. J. (2014). Chondroitin sulfate proteoglycans in the nervous
 system: inhibitors to repair. *Biomed Res Int, 2014*, 845323. doi:10.1155/2014/845323
- Sloan, S. A., Darmanis, S., Huber, N., Khan, T. A., Birey, F., Caneda, C., . . . Pasca, S. P. (2017). Human Astrocyte
 Maturation Captured in 3D Cerebral Cortical Spheroids Derived from Pluripotent Stem Cells. *Neuron*,
 95(4), 779-790 e776. doi:10.1016/j.neuron.2017.07.035
- Sood, D., Chawalek, K., Stuntz, E., Pouli, D., Du, C., Tang-Schomer, M., . . . Kaplan, D. L. (2015). Fetal brain
 extracellular matrix boosts neuronal network formation in 3D bioengineered model of cortical brain
 tissue. ACS Biomaterials Science & Engineering, 2(1), 131-140.
- Tang-Schomer, M. D., Jackvony, T., & Santaniello, S. (2018). Cortical Network Synchrony Under Applied Electrical
 Field in vitro. *Front Neurosci, 12*, 630. doi:10.3389/fnins.2018.00630
- Vacher, H., Mohapatra, D. P., & Trimmer, J. S. (2008). Localization and targeting of voltage-dependent ion channels
 in mammalian central neurons. *Physiol Rev, 88*(4), 1407-1447. doi:10.1152/physrev.00002.2008

- Velasco, S., Kedaigle, A. J., Simmons, S. K., Nash, A., Rocha, M., Quadrato, G., . . . Arlotta, P. (2019). Individual brain
 organoids reproducibly form cell diversity of the human cerebral cortex. *Nature*, *570*(7762), 523-527.
 doi:10.1038/s41586-019-1289-x
- Watson, P. M. D., Kavanagh, E., Allenby, G., & Vassey, M. (2017). Bioengineered 3D Glial Cell Culture Systems and
 Applications for Neurodegeneration and Neuroinflammation. *SLAS Discov, 22*(5), 583-601.
 doi:10.1177/2472555217691450
- Wiese, S., Karus, M., & Faissner, A. (2012). Astrocytes as a source for extracellular matrix molecules and cytokines.
 Front Pharmacol, 3, 120. doi:10.3389/fphar.2012.00120
- Williams, C., Quinn, K. P., Georgakoudi, I., & Black, L. D., 3rd. (2014). Young developmental age cardiac
 extracellular matrix promotes the expansion of neonatal cardiomyocytes in vitro. *Acta Biomater, 10*(1),
 194-204. doi:10.1016/j.actbio.2013.08.037
- Wiranowska, M., & Rojiani, M. V. (2011). *Extracellular Matrix Microenvironment in Glioma Progression*: INTECH
 Open Access Publisher.
- Yu, P., Wang, H., Katagiri, Y., & Geller, H. M. (2012). An in vitro model of reactive astrogliosis and its effect on
 neuronal growth. *Methods Mol Biol, 814*, 327-340. doi:10.1007/978-1-61779-452-0_21
- Zamanian, J. L., Xu, L., Foo, L. C., Nouri, N., Zhou, L., Giffard, R. G., & Barres, B. A. (2012). Genomic analysis of
 reactive astrogliosis. *J Neurosci, 32*(18), 6391-6410. doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.6221-11.2012
- 857Zimmermann, D. R., & Dours-Zimmermann, M. T. (2008). Extracellular matrix of the central nervous system: from858neglect to challenge. Histochem Cell Biol, 130(4), 635-653. doi:10.1007/s00418-008-0485-9

859

861 Supplementary Methods

862 Biochemical Assays

Viability Assay: Cell proliferation reagent WST-1 assay (Sigma-Aldrich) was performed at end time points before freezing the samples for PCR, according to the instructions provided by the manufacturer, to assess overall cell viability across different ECM conditions. Briefly, the samples were incubated for 1 h with WST-1 reagent diluted 1:10 (v:v) in culture medium, followed by a reading of the medium absorbance with plate reader (Molecular Devices) at 450 and 600 nm as the reference wavelength. Fresh medium was used as a baseline control and its average absorbance was subtracted from the value of the samples.

870 Lactate Dehydrogenase Assay: Lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) enzyme released into media by 871 the ruptured cells, was used as a measure of cell death at different time points during the 3D culture 872 without having to sacrifice the samples. LDH assay was performed according to the manufacturer 873 instructions (Sigma-Aldrich). Briefly, culture medium was mixed with the assay reagents in a 1:2 ratio. 874 Following 30 mins incubation at room temperature, the reaction was stopped by addition of 1N HCl. The 875 absorbance readings were measured at 490 nm and 690 nm as the reference wavelengths. Fresh medium 876 without any construct was used as a baseline control and its average was subtracted from the sample 877 values.

878 *CSPG Release ELISA*: CSPGs released by the differentiating hiNSCs in media were measured 879 using an ELISA based assay. Media samples from the 3D constructs were incubated overnight at 4°C in 880 a 96-well immuno plate (Thermo Fischer Scientific). Alongside the sample media incubation, chicken 881 extracellular CSPGs (Millipore) were used over a range of serial dilutions for the generation of standard 882 curves. Following washes with PBS-tween, monoclonal anti-chondroitin sulfate antibody produced in 883 mouse/clone CS-56, ascites fluid (Sigma) was added for overnight incubation at 4°C. After the next round 884 of washes, HRP conjugated goat anti-mouse secondary antibody (Abcam) was incubated at room 885 temperature for 2 h. TMB (3,3',5,5'-tetramethylbenzidine) 1-C Substrate (Fisher Scientific) was 886 introduced following the last round of washes with PBS-Tween. Finally, after the color developed for 10 887 mins at room temperature, the reaction was stopped with 1N HCl. The absorbance readings were measured 888 at 450 nm wavelength and the fresh media readings were subtracted from the sample readings. The 889 standard curve was utilized for calculating the quantities of CSPGs released in the different conditions 890 and reported in pg/ml.

891 **qRT-PCR**

892 Samples were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored in -80oC in individual Eppendorf tubes 893 until RNA extraction was performed. All samples were placed on dry ice during extraction, sequentially 894 disrupted using a liquid nitrogen chilled bio-pulverizer. Between each sample, the pulverizer was wiped 895 with 70% ethanol to remove remnants of the previous sample, and between each sample set (different 896 tumor types), all the tools were cleaned with RNAzap. Lysis buffer was immediately added to the 897 powdered frozen sample and placed on ice. Once all the samples were in lysis buffer on ice, a 22 gauge 898 needle and syringe was used for sample homogenization one by one using a fresh needle and syringe every 899 time. All the samples were spun down to remove undigested material (mainly silk scaffold) and the 900 supernatant was transferred to clean RNAse free-Eppendorfs. Following this, the SurePrep All Prep kit 901 (Fisher Scientific) protocol was followed until RNA was eluted from the columns. RNA concentrations 902 were measured using nanodrop 2000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). RT2 First Strand Kit with an 903 incorporated gDNA removal step with buffer GE (Qiagen) was utilized for cDNA synthesis from the 904 eluted RNA. cDNA samples were mixed with RT² SYBR Green Fluor qPCR Mastermix and added to the

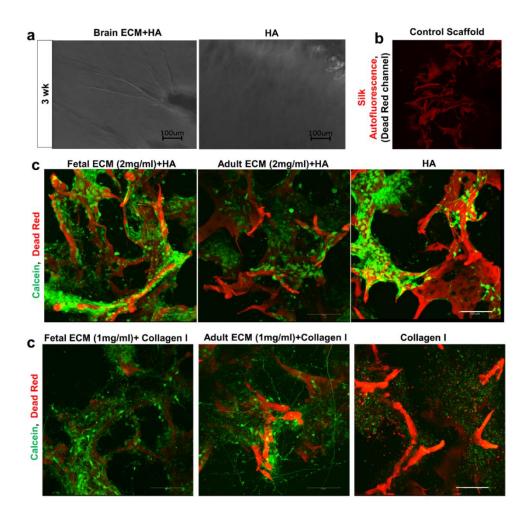
905 Qiagen Custom RT2 PCR Array (including a housekeeping gene, genomic DNA control and RT control).
906 PCR was run on BioRad CFX96. Table 1 lists the genes that were tested.

907 Cytokine Arrays

908 Multiplex Quantibody cytokine arrays (RayBiotech) were used to semi-quantitatively compare 909 cytokines (Table 2) released by differentiating hiNSCs cultured in the 3D bioengineered brain model with 910 different ECM components. Small volumes of control media samples/cell culture supernatants (50µl) from 911 the 3D constructs were incubated in the capture antibody spotted glass slides or the membranes, along 912 with the standards provided that corresponded to known concentrations of the targets for the Quantibody 913 arrays. This overnight incubation was followed by another overnight step at 4°C, involving the 914 biotinylated detection antibody cocktail. Next, streptavidin-conjugated fluorophore or HRP-streptavidin 915 was added for 1 h at room temperature. Finally, the slide was disassembled from the removable gasket, 916 dried and scanned using a fluorescence microarray laser scanner (Ray Biotech). Protein expression 917 profiles of the differentiating hiNSCs across the varying ECM conditions were quantified using the Q-918 analyzer software (Ray Biotech). Table 2 lists the cytokines that were tested.

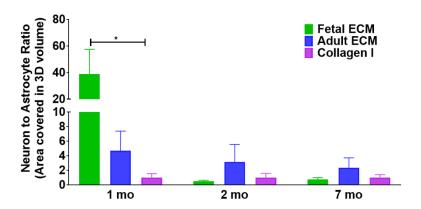
919

920 Supplementary Figures



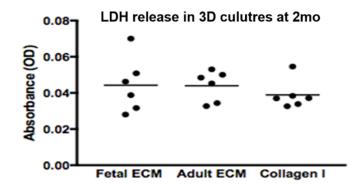


922 Supplementary Figure 1: Collagen I versus hyaluronic acid (HA) based hydrogels for the 3D silk scaffold constructs. 923 (a) Brightfield images at 3 wk indicating faster ingrowth of axons from differentiating hiNSCs towards the middle hydrogel 924 window of the donut-shaped scaffold, when the HA hydrogel is supplemented with decellularized brain ECM. (b) Silk scaffold 925 without cells to indicate silk autofluorescence in red channel corresponding to Dead Red. (c) Growth of differentiating hiNSCs 926 at 10 days shown by live calcein/dead red staining within the ring portion of the 3D donut-shaped constructs infused with HA 927 based hydrogels supplemented with native porcine brain-derived ECM in comparison to unsupplemented HA hydrogels. Max 928 projection of z-stack, scale bar 100µm. (d) Growth of differentiating hiNSCs at 10 days shown by live calcein/dead red staining 929 within the ring portion of the 3D donut-shaped constructs infused with collagen I based hydrogels supplemented with native 930 porcine brain-derived ECM in comparison to unsupplemented collagen I hydrogels. Max projection of z-stack, scale bar 100µm.



931

932 Supplementary Figure 2: Neuron to astrocyte ratio calculated by dividing the total volume in 3D confocal stacks covered by 933 neurons versus astrocytes post basic image processing. One way ANOVA on log transformed data with Dunnett's posthoc at 934 each time point, p= 0.0344, n=3-6.

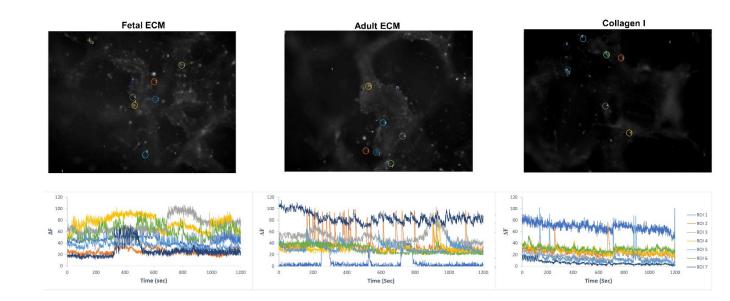


935

936 Supplementary Figure 3: Toxicity levels at 2 mo time point in hiNSC 3D cultures as measured by LDH release in media.

937 No statistical difference (One-way ANOVA) in comparison to collagen I when the cells were grown in the presence of

⁹³⁸ decellularized ECM.

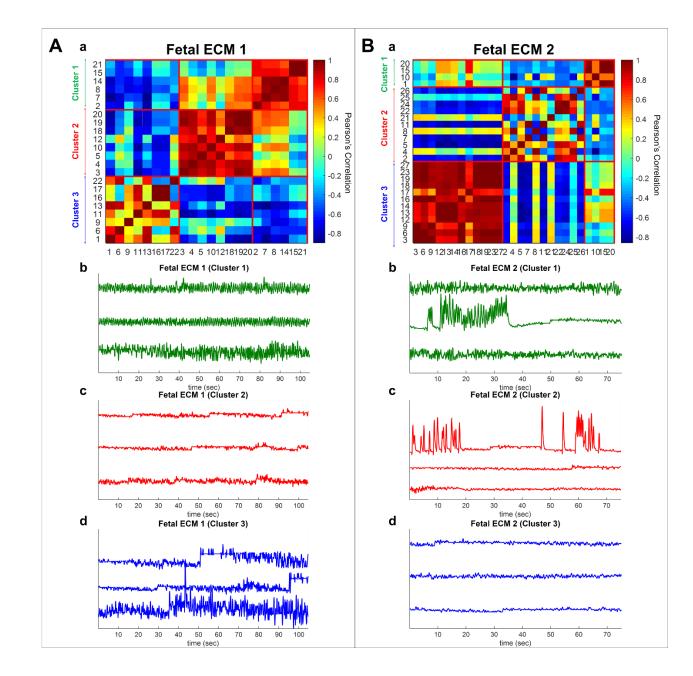




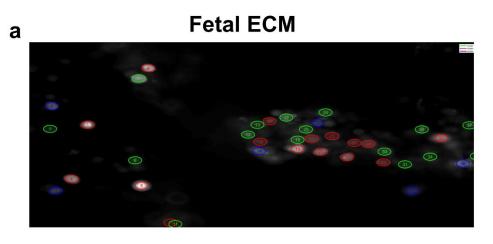
941 Supplementary Figure 4: Calcium imaging of differentiating human neural stem cells in 3D cultures at 3 months. A few

942 representative traces of spontaneous calcium activity are plotted corresponding to the regions indicated by circles in the time

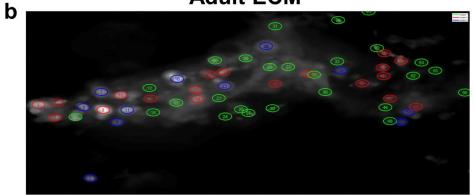
943 max projected image. ROIs were selected manually in Image J.

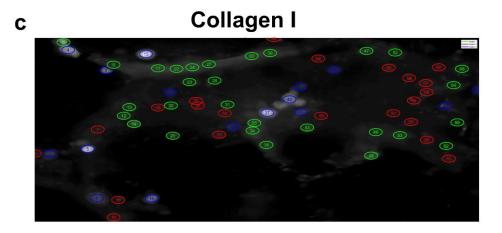


Supplementary Figure 5: Spontaneous calcium activity in 3D cultures of differentiating human neural stem cells at 7
months; cells from fetal ECM containing constructs. Tonic oscillatory activity is captured in Cluster 1 (both panel A & B);
sporadic spiking activity is captured in Cluster 3 (panel A) and Cluster 2 (panel B); quiescent state is captured in Cluster 2
(panel A) and Cluster 3 (panel B).

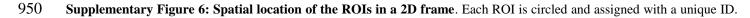


Adult ECM

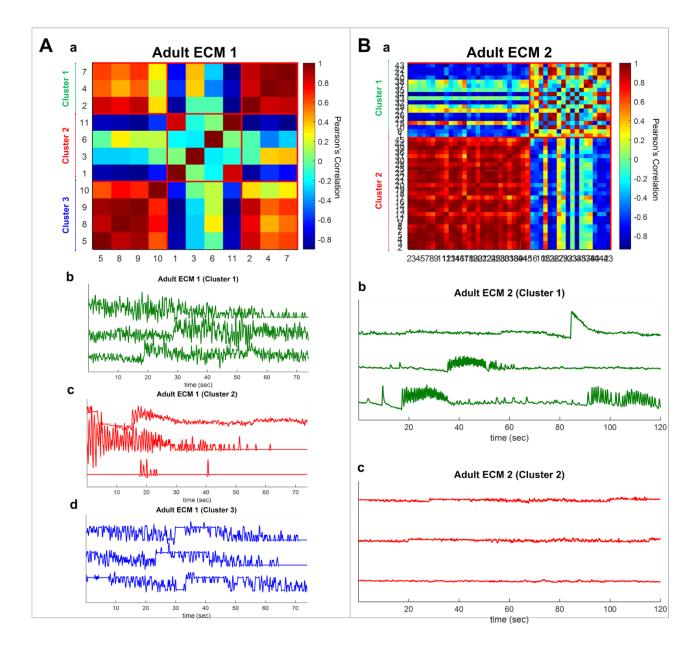




949

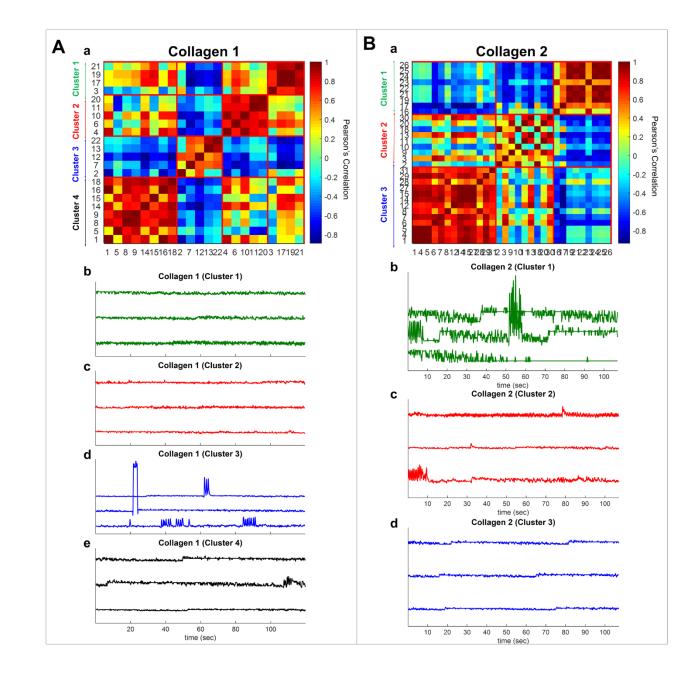


951 The color of the circles match the cluster color in Figure 4A (a-d) and the ID values are as reported in Figure 4A (d).

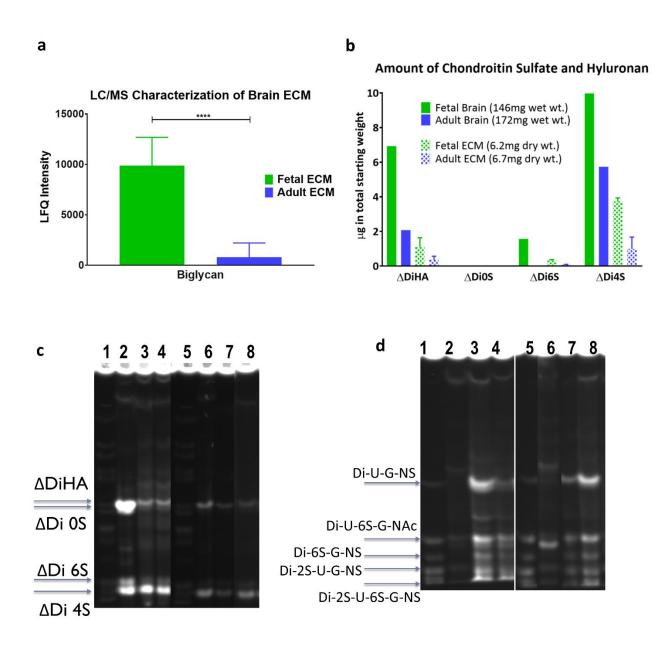


952

Supplementary Figure 7: Spontaneous calcium activity in 3D cultures of differentiating human neural stem cells at 7
months; cells from adult ECM containing constructs. Tonic oscillatory activity is captured in Cluster 1 (panel A only);
sporadic spiking activity is captured in Cluster 2 (panel A) and Cluster 1 (panel B); quiescent state is captured in Cluster 3
(panel A) and Cluster 2 (panel B).



Supplementary Figure 8: Spontaneous calcium activity in 3D cultures of differentiating human neural stem cells at 7
months; cells from unsupplemented constructs. Tonic oscillatory activity is captured in Cluster 1 (both panel A & B);
sporadic spiking activity is captured in Cluster 3 (panel A) and Cluster 2 (panel B); quiescent state is captured in Cluster 2 &
4 (panel A) and Cluster 3 (panel B).



963 Supplementary Figure 9: Characterization of decellularized porcine brain extracellular matrix. (a) LFQ intensities 964 corresponding to biglycan fragments observed in fetal versus adult porcine brain decellularized matrix, following LC/MS 965 analysis. Unpaired two-tailed t-test, n=3, p=0.0073. (b) Overall higher quantity of GAGs present in fetal brain, with 966 corresponding higher retention in the extracted fetal brain ECM based on FACE analysis. (c) Characterization of decellularized 967 fetal & adult brain ECM in comparison to fetal and adult whole brains by FACE. Chondroitin sulfate (CS) and hyaluronan 968 (HA) bands in the fetal & adult porcine brain ECM. Lanes 1/5,2,3/4,6,7/8 correspond to standard, fetal brain, fetal ECM, adult 969 brain and adult ECM, respectively. (d) Heparin sulfate (HS) bands in the fetal & adult porcine brain ECM over multiple 970 extractions.

971 Supplementary Videos

- 972 Videos 1-1: Spontaneous calcium activity in 3D cultures of differentiating human neural stem cells at 7 months; cells from a
- 973 fetal ECM containing construct. Recorded at 20 frames per sec (fps), video shown at 50fps for 500 frames.
- 974 Videos 1-2: Spontaneous calcium activity in 3D cultures of differentiating human neural stem cells at 7 months; cells from an
- adult ECM containing construct. Recorded at 20 frames per sec (fps), video shown at 50fps for 500 frames.
- 976 Videos 1-3: Spontaneous calcium activity in 3D cultures of differentiating human neural stem cells at 7 months; cells from an
- 977 unsupplemented construct. Recorded at 20 frames per sec (fps), video shown at 50fps for 500 frames.
- 978 Videos 1-4: Spontaneous calcium activity in 3D cultures of differentiating human neural stem cells at 3 months; cells from a
- 979 fetal ECM containing construct. Recorded at 20 frames per sec (fps), video shown at 50fps for 500 frames.
- 980 Videos 1-5: Spontaneous calcium activity in 3D cultures of differentiating human neural stem cells at 3 months; cells from an
- adult ECM containing construct. Recorded at 20 frames per sec (fps), video shown at 50fps for 500 frames.
- 982 Videos 1-6: Spontaneous calcium activity in 3D cultures of differentiating human neural stem cells at 3 months; cells from an
- unsupplemented construct. Recorded at 20 frames per sec (fps), video shown at 50fps for 500 frames.
- **Table 1**: List of genes tested for release in 3D differentiating human neural stem cell cultures.

CACNA1D	Voltage-dependent L-type calcium channel subunit alpha-1D
CAMK2G	Calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase type II subunit gamma
DLG4	Disks large homolog 4
EAAT1	Excitatory amino acid transporter 1
EAAT2	Excitatory amino acid transporter 2
ENO1	Enolase 1
FABP7	Fatty Acid Binding Protein 7
GABBR1	Gamma-aminobutyric acid type B receptor subunit 1
GAD1	Glutamate decarboxylase 1
GFAP	Glial fibrillary acidic protein

GPHN	Gephyrin
GRIA1	Glutamate receptor 1
GRIN1	Glutamate receptor ionotropic, NMDA 1
KCNB1	Potassium voltage-gated channel subfamily B member 1
KCND2	Potassium voltage-gated channel subfamily D member 2
MAP2	Microtubule associated protein 2
MEGF10	Multiple epidermal growth factor-like domains protein 10
NCS1	Neuronal calcium sensor 1
NES	Nestin
PAX6	Paired box protein Pax-6
SCN1A	Sodium channel protein type 1 subunit alpha
SCN3A	Sodium channel protein type 3 subunit alpha
SERPINA3	Peptidase inhibitor Serpina3n
SOX2	Transcription factor SOX-2
Stat3	Signal transducer and activator of transcription 3
SYN1	Synapsin 1
THBS1	Thrombospondin 1
THBS2	Thrombospondin 2
TNC	Tenascin
TUBB3	Beta-III tubulin

Table 2: List of cytokines tested for release in 3D differentiating human neural stem cell cultures

ACRP30	Adiponectin
BDNF	Brain-derived neurotrophic factor
BMP2	Bone morphogenetic protein 2
b-NGF	beta- Nerve growth factor

bFGF	Basic fibroblast growth factor
C5a	Complement component 5a
CNTF	Ciliary neurotrophic factor
EGF	Epidermal growth factor
G-CSF	Granulocyte-colony stimulating factor
GDNF	Glial derived neurotrophic factor
GM-CSF	Granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor
GROa	Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1
ICAM-1	Intercellular Adhesion Molecule 1
IGF-1	Insulin growth factor-1
IL-10	Interleukin 10
IL-1a	Interleukin 1 alpha
IL-1b	Interleukin 1 beta
IL-1ra	Interleukin-1 receptor antagonist
IL-6	Interleukin 6
IL-8	Interleukin 8/Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 8
LIF	Leukemia inhibitory factor
MCP-1	Chemokine ligand 2/CCL2
MIP-1 beta	Macrophage Inflammatory Protein-1
MIP-1a	Chemokine ligand 3/CCL3
MMP-2	Matrix metalloproteinase 2
MMP-9	Matrix metalloproteinase 9
NT-3	Neurotrophin-3
PDGF-AA	Platelet growth factor
RANTES	Chemokine ligand 5/CCL5
TGF beta 1	Transforming growth factor beta 1
TIMP-1	Tissue inhibitor of matrix metalloproteinase 1

TIMP-2	Tissue inhibitor of matrix metalloproteinase 2
TIMP-4	Tissue inhibitor of matrix metalloproteinase 4
TNFa	Tumor necrosis factor alpha
TSP-1	Thrombospondin 1
TSP-2	Thrombospondin 2
VEGF-A	Vascular endothelial growth factor A