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Real time remodeling of cellular morphology using optical imprinting of cell-culture substrates

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11 **Real-time remodeling of cellular morphology using**
12 **optical imprinting of cell-culture substrates**
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Abstract

Development of materials that can dynamically alter the topographic experience of cultured cells is key to accurately modeling in vivo processes such as tissue development and repair. Current technologies have largely focused on smart substrate materials that can be programmed to undergo topographical transformations in the presence of adhered cells, but such materials provide limited spatiotemporal resolution and generally are triggered by undesirable changes to environmental conditions. Here, we present an approach for investigating cellular responses to dynamic topographical cues in which multiphoton photochemistry is used to remotely imprint a substrate with arbitrary topographical patterns in real time (i.e., in the presence of adherent cells). In these studies, fibroblastic NIH3T3 cells were plated on a planar protein hydrogel substrate, where they generally established stereotypical polygonal morphology before the underlying substrate was dynamically transformed to a grooved topography. Elongation and alignment of cells exposed to low-micrometer-pitch grooves imprinted in this manner occurred less rapidly than for cells directly deposited on substrates having pre-formed grooves. Further, cell alignment on dynamically imprinted grooves was notably delayed relative to elongation, suggesting that the structural attributes of a cell at the time it first experiences a grooved topography may differentially influence these two processes. This minimally invasive approach for subjecting cells to dynamic topographical experiences represents a versatile means to model evolving conditions within in vivo systems and to systematically explore mechanisms of cellular morphology and behavior.

1. Introduction

Phenotypic attributes of adherent cells can be dramatically influenced by physical and chemical interactions with both the extracellular matrix (ECM) and neighboring cells. Cellular responses to ECM topography have been investigated extensively *in vitro* for adherent cells on surfaces containing numerous feature types [1]. Grooves, in particular, are capable of promoting a wide range of cell responses, including elongation, alignment, directed motility, and directed outgrowth. The type and extent of such behaviors depend on both cell type and groove dimensions [2], as well as substrate characteristics such as stiffness (e.g., Young's modulus), hydrophobicity, and functional-group display [3, 4].

Adherent cells bind to many substrates, in part, through focal adhesions that can transduce extracellular cues as integrated cytosolic signaling patterns. Such signaling can promote, for example, extension and retraction of protrusions through cytoskeletal assembly/disassembly [1]. When plated on grooves of appropriate lateral and vertical dimensions, cells preferentially form focal adhesions parallel to (rather than across) grooves [2], eliciting heterogeneous intracellular signaling and a consequent transition to bipolar morphology aligned with the groove long axis [5-7].

Cells *in vivo* exist within dynamic environments whose topographies and mechanical properties transition over time. Remodeling of the ECM and neighboring-cell arrangements occurs in normal development, wound/burn healing, and various disease states [8] – environmental changes that have been shown to affect morphology and overall cell fate [9-11]. Such responses, however, have been difficult to investigate using model *in vitro* systems, as methods for non-invasively modifying cellular physical environments in real time with sufficient speed and control have proved elusive.

Various groups have attempted to address this need by developing substrate materials that undergo stimuli-dependent topographical changes. Shape-memory polymers (SMPs), for example, can be cast in their thermodynamically stable configurations, then molded temporarily into metastable shapes [12]. An environmental switch can then be used to revert a strained SMP at a desired time to the configuration defined during its casting. Although this approach can be used to study adherent-cell response to topographical stimuli, SMPs do not provide flexibility for arbitrarily specifying the nature of

1
2 topographical changes on-the-fly, during the course of an experiment. Moreover, SMPs most commonly
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4 are triggered via temperature jumps (e.g., from 30°C to 37°C), perturbations known to affect various
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6 cellular behaviors [13]. Several other strategies for altering topography on demand have been
7
8 developed that avoid the need for temperature steps, but each are limited in key ways. For example,
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10 laser-induced ablation of surface material can be used to alter cell-culture topography, but is highly
11
12 disruptive when performed at existing cell-substrate interfaces [14]. Alternatively, externally applied
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14 forces have been used to induce wrinkles in various material types that promote cell alignment [15, 16],
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16 but such an approach provides limited control over topographical features and lacks the spatial
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18 resolution necessary to selectively modify substrates beneath specific, targeted cells.
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21 To address these key limitations, our lab has developed a laser-scanning strategy for modifying
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23 topographic landscapes [17]. In this approach, cell-culture hydrogel substrates composed of partially
24
25 crosslinked proteins and a photosensitizer are scanned with tightly focused femtosecond laser light to
26
27 promote additional crosslinking via multiphoton excitation of the photosensitizer within a defined plane
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29 of the hydrogel. By exposing hydrogels to specified scan patterns, and repeating this process at multiple
30
31 scan focal planes within the substrate, arbitrarily defined topographical features can be projected onto
32
33 the hydrogel surface without disrupting cell-substrate adhesion or compromising cell viability, all without
34
35 subjecting cells to varying temperatures (or other environmental conditions). Importantly, such features
36
37 have the capability to be customized on-the-fly in response to observed cellular behavior.
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40 Here, we report the ability to exert dynamic control over cellular morphology using this *in situ*
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42 hydrogel imprinting technique. After plating and adhesion of cells onto hydrogel substrates composed
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44 of crosslinked gelatin/bovine serum albumin (BSA), microscale grooves are imprinted at the cell-
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46 substrate interface to modify morphology and orientation of mouse embryonic NIH3T3 fibroblast cells in
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48 real time (Figure 1; Supporting Movie S1), revealing significant differences in the time scales of
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50 alignment for cells exposed to grooves after substrate adhesion versus those plated directly on grooved
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52 substrates. NIH3T3 cells represent rational proof-of-concept model systems for examining topographic
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54 effects of imprinting due to the extensive use of fibroblastic cells in studies directed at understanding
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56 the impact of grooves on cellular alignment, elongation, and related behaviors [18, 19]. This approach
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1 provides unprecedented capabilities for investigating cellular responses to real-time topographical
2 perturbations under minimally invasive conditions, enabling, for example, systematic studies on the time
3 course of morphologic responses as a function of initial cellular states.
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8 **2. Materials and methods**

10 **2.1. Hydrogel reagent solution**

11 Photosensitizer (15 mM Rose Bengal, RB; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) initially was dissolved
12 in pH 7.2 phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; Pierce BupH Phosphate Buffered Saline Packs,
13 ThermoFisher Scientific, Carlsbad, CA). BSA (300 mg; Equitech-Bio, Kerrville, TX) was dissolved in
14 1 mL of photosensitizer solution and the solution was warmed to 60°C. Type A porcine gelatin (100 mg;
15 Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) was dissolved in the warmed RB-BSA solution, and the resultant warmed
16 RB-BSA-gelatin solution was applied to a coverglass surface (Mattek glass-bottom well, #1, Ashland,
17 MA) and cooled to a gel at ambient temperature for use in hydrogel fabrication.
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28 **2.2. Micro-3D-printing instrumentation**

29 Hydrogel substrates for cell culture were fabricated using multiphoton lithography (MPL).
30 Instrumentation for MPL was similar to that reported previously [20]. Briefly, output from a mode-locked
31 titanium-sapphire (Ti:S) laser (Model 900 Mira, Coherent Inc., Santa Clara, CA) tuned to 740 nm was
32 scanned in a raster pattern using a scanning galvo mirror system (Thor Labs, Newton, NJ). A series of
33 lenses and mirrors (Thor Labs, Newton, NJ) was used to expand the laser beam and the scan area,
34 eventually focusing the beam onto the face of a digital micromirror device (DMD) from a re-purposed
35 digital projector (BenQ MP510 DLP Projector, BenQ, Costa Mesa, CA) which served as a dynamic mask
36 for the raster-scanned beam. The masked scan pattern was focused through a high-power objective
37 (60x oil, 1.4 NA, Nikon Instruments, Melville, NY) on an inverted microscope (TE-2000, Nikon
38 Instruments, Melville, NY), and a piezo-controlled nanopositioner (E-710, Physik Instrumente, Auburn,
39 MA) was used to translate the stage along the optical axis.
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53 **2.3. Fabrication of hydrogel tile arrays**

54 Laser powers typically were adjusted to ~35 mW at the objective back aperture to promote
55 gelatin and BSA crosslinking via two-photon excitation of RB in a process likely promoted by singlet
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1 oxygen mechanisms involving histidine and other residues [21-23]. The laser beam was raster-scanned
2 in a given plane with fast-axis and slow-axis scan velocities of 68 mm s^{-1} and $25 \text{ } \mu\text{m s}^{-1}$, respectively.
3
4 Scan regions within reagent solution were limited to relatively small areas ($70 \text{ } \mu\text{m} \times 70 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$), making it
5
6 necessary to laterally “tile” together multiple scan regions to produce a tile-array cell-culture substrate.
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10 Each tile was fabricated as a sequence of vertically stacked fabrication planes. In this process,
11
12 an initial plane located at a height nominally $10 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$ above the coverglass surface was raster scanned
13
14 to crosslink BSA/gelatin in the reagent gel into a sheet. Following this initial scan, the coverglass surface
15
16 was translated in $1\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ increments (vertically away from the objective), and the focused beam was raster
17
18 scanned in each new focal plane until a (nominally) $10\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ -thick printed tile was anchored to the
19
20 coverglass surface. To produce a cell-culture substrate, an arrangement of adjacent tiles (with a lateral
21
22 overlap of $\sim 2 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$) was printed to form a hydrogel tile array having a surface area of $\sim 0.5 \text{ mm}^2$. After
23
24 MPL was completed, unscanned reagent was rinsed away using PBS warmed to 60°C . Additional RB
25
26 photosensitizer was extracted by soaking the tile array overnight in a 50% v/v ethanol/water solution.
27
28 To prepare substrates for quantitative studies on imprinting cellular alignment/elongation, tile arrays
29
30 subsequently were loaded overnight in a 5-mM solution of the biocompatible photosensitizer eosin Y
31
32 (eosin; MP Biomedicals, LLC, Solon, OH) in PBS, and stored at least overnight and up to a period of 2
33
34 days until use. For the qualitative study shown in Figure 1, the BSA-gelatin tile array were derivatized
35
36 with eosin-ITC to enhance imprinting capacity.
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39 **2.4. NIH3T3 cell cultures**

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41 NIH3T3 cells (CRL-1658, ATCC, Manassas, VA) were used from passages 7 to 20 after thawing
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43 and growing in complete media (DMEM with high glucose, L-glutamine, and sodium pyruvate, and 10%
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45 bovine calf serum; Hyclone, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) in a 5% CO_2 atmosphere. For
46
47 microscope observations outside a 5% CO_2 atmosphere, cells were maintained in plating medium
48
49 composed of Leibovitz's L-15 medium (Hyclone) with 1% bovine calf serum and 1% penicillin-
50
51 streptomycin (GIBCO, Grand Island, NY). Cells were plated on tile arrays at densities of $\sim 5 \times 10^3$
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53 cells cm^{-2} . Imaging was performed using red-light illumination to minimize photosensitizer excitation.
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2.5. Imprinting topographical patterns on hydrogel tile arrays

Masks were designed and displayed on the DMD using presentation software (Powerpoint, Microsoft, Redmond, WA) with display patterns corresponding to desired imprint patterns. Laser powers and scan speeds for imprinting were the same as those used in fabrication of tile arrays. Beginning at a height H_0 above the glass surface, the laser voxel was raster-scanned in horizontal planes through the material, with 1- μm downward (relative to the coverslip) increments between each scan plane, until a plane was reached that was nominally at least 3 μm into the coverslip glass. For imprinting that relied on multiple scan passes, the laser voxel was returned to height H_0 and the process was repeated. For hydrogels that were “pre-imprinted” with patterns before cell application, patterned tile arrays were stored in eosin solution to maintain their hydration as well as a photosensitizer concentration comparable to that of tiles used for in situ imprinting.

2.6. Characterizing dimensions of imprinted tiles

Negative-space confocal imaging was used to measure surface feature and tile lateral extent dimensions. Here, imprinted tiles were submersed in a solution of FITC-conjugated dextran molecules (2 MDa; FD2000; Sigma-Aldrich). Imprinted microstructures were imaged using confocal microscopy (Leica SP2 AOBS; Leica Microsystems, Buffalo Grove, IL), with tiles appearing as lower-fluorescence signal regions relative to intensely fluorescent fluorescein-dextran solution in the surrounding volume. Samples were excited using a 488-nm line from an argon-ion laser source focused through a 63X (HCX APO, 1.4NA) oil objective. Emitted light was collected in a nominal window of 496–675 nm. Three-dimensional images were captured as z-series stacks at a nominal resolution of 465 nm per pixel in the radial dimensions, while optical sections along the axial dimension were collected using stage increments of 115 nm. Orthogonal projections of confocal images were computed using FIJI imaging software [24].

2.7. Quantifying cell elongation and alignment to grooves

In studies where cells were plated onto pre-imprinted tile arrays, experimental time was defined such that cells settled on grooved surfaces at time $t = 0.0$ h. (indicated by cells entering the same plane of focus as the upper surface of tile array/solution interface). For dynamic substrates, the end of the

1 imprinting process was defined as time $t = 0.0$ h. Cells typically were imaged every 5 min over a 24 h.
2
3 period using a Zeiss inverted microscope in brightfield mode outfitted with a scientific-grade charge-
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5 coupled device camera (CoolSNAP fx, Photometrics, Tuscon, AZ). A shutter (VS25, Uniblitz, Rochester,
6
7 NY) limited illumination times to 200 ms per image. Frames corresponding to $t = 4.6$ h., 11.0 h., and
8
9 16.3 h. were extracted in each experimental data set for analysis.
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12 Cells were individually tracked over the entire observation period, allowing cells that migrated
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14 away from their respective surface types (from grooved to planar surfaces, and vice versa) to be
15
16 excluded from analysis. Forty cells were analyzed on pre-imprinted surfaces and 32 cells were analyzed
17
18 on dynamically imprinted surfaces. Each cell outline was manually traced in FIJI, and binary image files
19
20 were created of cell shapes. The “Analyze Particles” tool was applied with a size range of (100 to ∞)
21
22 and a circularity range of (0.00 to 1.00). The EllipseFitter.java routine was used to determine best-fit
23
24 ellipses with first and second moments matching each cell shape [25]. For each cell, the aspect ratio
25
26 (AR; the ratio of the major axis of the ellipse to the minor axis) and the alignment angle (AA; the angle
27
28 between the major axis of the ellipse and the groove axis) were measured. Possible alignment angles
29
30 range from -90° to $+90^\circ$, with a 0° value indicating that a cell major axis was parallel to grooves.
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35 3. Results and discussion

38 3.1. Imprinting Hydrogel Substrates

39 Numerous studies have described multiphoton excitation of photosensitizers to promote three-
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41 dimensionally localized protein crosslinking [26-29]. By scanning the focus of a femtosecond laser beam
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43 in three dimensions, this process can be used to create microscopic protein-based hydrogels. Notably,
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45 when such hydrogels are re-scanned with specified patterns using same laser beam used for fabrication,
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47 site-specific contraction within the hydrogel matrix can be used to produce de novo topographical
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49 features on the substrate surface (Figure 1) [17]. While detailed mechanisms of this process are still
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51 under investigation, re-scanning appears to promote additional hydrogel crosslinking causing focal
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53 contraction that projects corresponding impression features onto the hydrogel surface.
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2 To optimally influence phenotypic properties of surface-adherent cells, we characterized the
3 capacity to tune hydrogel imprinting based on scan parameters. Here, we fabricated tiles with nominal
4 dimensions of $70\ \mu\text{m}$ (width) \times $70\ \mu\text{m}$ (length) \times $10\ \mu\text{m}$ (height). Entire tiles were contracted by scanning
5 uniformly one or more times through their volume (i.e., layer-by-layer through their entire height) with
6 the focused Ti:S laser beam. Pre- and post-imprinting tile dimensions, including heights, were measured
7 via negative-space confocal imaging.
8
9

10 In these measurements, the initial scan plane was nominally $14\ \mu\text{m}$ above the coverslip surface.
11 Table 1 (left) shows that the first scan through a tile produced the most dramatic effect, a decrease in
12 height of $\sim 30\%$, with a second scan yielding a somewhat smaller height decrease. Subsequent scans
13 did not cause a significant further decrease in tile height, and it was therefore deemed unnecessary in
14 groove imprinting studies to scan more than twice (termed “double scanning”) for the purpose of
15 increasing trough depth.
16

17 In some circumstances where the top surface of an imprinting substrate supports photosensitive
18 biological or chemical materials (e.g., living cells, proteins), it may be desirable to promote topographical
19 modification by initiating an imprinting scan at a plane below the top surface of a tile (i.e., within the
20 imprinting material), and scanning through a downward sequence of planes until the coverglass is
21 reached (or until a desired feature depth is produced). We therefore explored the effects of starting
22 imprinting scans at different initial height positions.
23

24 As defined above, the value, H_0 , represents the distance of this initial scan plane from the
25 coverglass surface that anchors the imprinting material. We further define H_i as the initial height of a
26 tile, and H_f as the final height of a tile when imprinting is completed. To quantify the effects of varying
27 H_0 on imprinting, a set of 24 tiles having a mean initial height of $9.4\ \mu\text{m}$ were each double-scanned using
28 one of four H_0 values (8 , 10 , 12 , and $14\ \mu\text{m}$), with each H_0 value therefore represented by six replicates.
29 The results are summarized in Table 1 (right).
30

31 When H_0 was less than H_i , as is the case when $H_0 = 8\ \mu\text{m}$, only a portion of the tile (i.e., that
32 which is below H_0) was scanned on the initial scan. (Note that for multi-scan processing, this condition
33 is not necessarily maintained on subsequent scans: since tile height decreases with each scan iteration,
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2 interim tile height may become less than H_0). In contrast, when H_0 is greater than H_i , the entire tile height
3
4 is scanned during all imprinting scans. Thus, for the three highest scan start positions, $H_0 = 10, 12,$ and
5
6 $14 \mu\text{m}$, this simple picture predicts that tiles scanned with each of these initial scan positions should
7
8 decrease to a uniform H_f , a result that was observed within experimental error.

9
10 We performed additional studies to evaluate effects of varying scan parameters on dimensions
11
12 of grooves imprinted using dynamic-mask patterning. Effects of changing H_0 and number of scans on
13
14 trough depth (the difference between heights measured at the ridge surface and trough surface) were
15
16 assessed by imprinting $70 \mu\text{m} \times 70 \mu\text{m} \times 10 \mu\text{m}$ tiles with grooves having $5\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ -wide ridges and $15\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ -
17
18 wide troughs (designated "R5/T15"). Double-scans were performed in all instances, as pilot studies
19
20 indicated that a single scan did not imprint troughs deep enough to align cells, while a third scan did not
21
22 provide a significant change in depth over two scans. H_0 was varied from 8 to $14 \mu\text{m}$ as before, and
23
24 resulting groove depths were determined via negative-space confocal imaging. These measurements
25
26 are summarized in Table 2.

27
28
29 The height change when producing grooves is generally smaller than the corresponding change
30
31 in height of a tile scanned across its full area [Table 2, Table 1 (right)]. This disparity likely can be
32
33 attributed to the non-zero shear modulus of the printed material: when imprinted regions contract, they
34
35 experience shear stress from surrounding non-imprinted regions that opposes downward contraction,
36
37 reducing the overall height change of the imprinted region.

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39
40 Based on the measurements in Table 2 and initial studies examining cell alignment, H_0 was set
41
42 to $12 \mu\text{m}$ for cellular imprinting studies, as it provided reproducible grooves capable of stimulating
43
44 cellular morphological changes while only exposing cells briefly through a portion of their thickness.
45
46 Using this protocol, cells maintained high viability, with no discernible effects on survival or behavior in
47
48 the $\sim 20\text{-h.}$ period following scanning on hydrogel tiles. Further, cells plated on coverglass demonstrated
49
50 high tolerance for exposure to laser scanning under the optical conditions of these studies, with
51
52 essentially no apoptosis or necrosis observed when scanning cells multiple times in the substrate-cell
53
54 interface plane. For all alignment studies on either static or dynamically formed grooves, we employed
55
56 imprinting protocols that yielded surfaces having $5\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ -wide ridges and $15\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ -wide troughs that were
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2 ~2- μm deep, as cells plated on pre-formed grooves with narrower troughs (R5/T5 and R5/T10, ~2- μm
3
4 trough depth) or shallower troughs (R5/T15, <1.5- μm depth) exhibited markedly less alignment.
5

6 **3.2. Cells align to *in situ* dynamically imprinted grooves**

7
8 Efforts to understand cell elongation and alignment have focused extensively on fibroblasts and
9
10 related cells [30], particularly the NIH3T3 line, which has been established as a well-validated model for
11
12 investigating contact guidance and other surface-response behaviors [31]. Here, we seek to understand
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14 differences in how NIH3T3 cells perceive topographic features presented to the cellular membrane
15
16 under two circumstances – either at the onset of cell-surface contact, or at later times after cells have
17
18 fully adapted to an adherent phenotype on a planar surface. Toward this goal, a series of studies were
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20 undertaken in which NIH3T3 cells were plated on protein hydrogel tiles having either (1) pre-formed,
21
22 “static” grooves (R5/T15, ~2- μm trough depth), or (2) naïve planar tiles that could be subsequently
23
24 imprinted to dynamically modify substrate topography (in these studies, imposing the same groove
25
26 dimensions as in (1)) while cells are already adherent.
27
28

29
30 Because the micro-3D-printing system we employ is limited to fabricating areas of approximately
31
32 70 μm \times 70 μm , production of large imprintable culture surfaces required that substrates be formed by
33
34 “quilting” together arrays of many tiles. Although overlapping edges did produce topographical seams
35
36 (oriented at 45° to imprinted grooves), no discernible effects from seams were observed on NIH3T3 cell
37
38 alignment.
39

40
41 Cells plated on pre-formed grooves typically responded in a manner consistent with previous
42
43 reports using other materials [31-34], with cells adhering to the substrate, probing their surroundings
44
45 through cyclical extensions and contractions of lamellipodia, and elongating principally in the groove
46
47 dimension. At a molecular level, these actions have been shown to be mediated in part by
48
49 rearrangement of microtubules and actin filaments [35], with focal adhesions forming on the ventral
50
51 surfaces of cells, distributing predominantly along the groove axis [36]. Actin stress fibers anchored to
52
53 the intracellular side of focal adhesions transduce intracellular cues, where integration of signals directs
54
55 morphological transformation into a bipolar phenotype [5].
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2 Cells plated on hydrogel tiles before dynamic imprinting initially encountered a planar surface
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4 with no strong directive cues, and as a result, typically were observed to extend their leading edges in
5
6 an apparently random manner. For a large fraction of cells, competition between multiple leading edges
7
8 produced a characteristic polygonal morphology with random orientation (Figure 2, left panel),
9
10 consistent with previous reports [37, 38]. After allowing cells to adhere to planar surfaces for ~3 h., tile
11
12 arrays were subjected to dynamically imprinting to produce grooves having 5- μm -wide ridges and 15-
13
14 μm -wide troughs. Such in situ modification to hydrogel topography strongly biased cells to transition
15
16 over a period of hours to a bipolar morphology with a high level of alignment to grooves (Figure 2, center
17
18 and right panels; Supplemental Figure S1). Fluorescence microscopy revealed that for both pre-
19
20 imprinted and dynamically imprinted grooved surfaces, actin fibers in bipolar cells also aligned parallel
21
22 to grooves (data not shown). Cells plated on planar tile-array substrates that were not subjected to
23
24 groove imprinting retained a polygonal morphology.

25 26 27 **3.3. Cells on dynamic surfaces align more slowly than those on static grooved surfaces**

28
29 To explore how the time course of phenotypic responses may differ when cells encounter either
30
31 pre-formed grooves or grooves formed after cells have adhered to a planar substrate, we tracked
32
33 alignment angles and aspect ratios for cells on each surface type. Individual cells were tracked over
34
35 their entire history, and any cells that migrated away from their respective specified surface types were
36
37 eliminated from analysis.

38
39 The imprinting process can be accomplished in as little as 2 min when relatively small regions
40
41 of interest are targeted (i.e., a tile having 70 μm \times 70 μm area), a rapid time scale that opens
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43 opportunities to investigate temporal characteristics of cellular alignment. In cases where large tile
44
45 arrays are imprinted, imprinting may take tens of minutes or longer; because imprinting occurs in serial
46
47 fashion across the substrate, different cells may initially experience topographical transitions at
48
49 significantly different times. Such discrepancies could be minimized in future studies by, for example,
50
51 using multiple scan beams in parallel [39].
52
53

54 To track the time course of cell alignment, we define $t = 0.0$ h. as the time that cells nominally
55
56 began interaction with grooves. This time either represents the point at which plated cells first settled
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1
2 on a grooved surface, or alternatively, when adherent cells experienced a change in the topography of
3 their substrate from planar to grooved. As suggested above, for large dynamic surfaces, $t = 0.0$ h. is
4 less precisely defined across a population, as different members of the population encountered grooves
5 at different time points over an approximate 2-h. imprinting process. For practical considerations, we
6 therefore define $t = 0.0$ h. for dynamic surfaces as the *end point* of the imprinting process, meaning that
7 the groove-cell alignment time for a given cell was at least as long as the recorded alignment time.
8
9

10
11 Cell morphologies were characterized to provide metrics of alignment and elongation. Cells
12 freshly plated on pre-formed grooves had uniformly round morphologies at $t = 0.0$ h. In contrast, at $t =$
13 0.0 on dynamic surfaces, cells were already adherent, and therefore, were generally polygonal,
14 unelongated, and oriented randomly on the hydrogel surface. At $t = 0.0$ h. and later times on both
15 surfaces, we approximated cell morphologies by best-fit ellipses, as demonstrated in previous reports
16 [40]. Aspect ratios and alignment angles of cells were derived from these ellipses.
17
18

19 Cellular aspect ratio (AR) is used as a measure of elongation. In these studies, we considered
20 a cell to be “elongated” if its AR was three times the AR of cells growing on a planar surface (determined
21 to be 1.0 ± 0.3 at 6.5 h.). We therefore set a threshold for elongation at $AR = 3$. Cells plated on pre-
22 formed grooves, being round, also had an $AR \approx 1$ at $t = 0.0$ h.
23
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25 The cellular alignment angle (AA) provides a gauge for how closely the long axis of an elongated
26 cell aligns with the direction of grooves. By definition, $AA = 0^\circ$ when the long axis is parallel to grooves,
27 and $\pm 90^\circ$ when it is perpendicular to grooves. When cell orientation is random, the magnitude of the AA
28 has an expected mean value of 45° . In the current studies, cells are considered to be “aligned” when
29 $|AA| \leq 15^\circ$, a criterion consistent with previous reports [41]. In addition, assignment of alignment angle
30 required that a cell have an aspect ratio greater than the “elongation” threshold of 3.
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33 Pooled elongation and alignment data (three separation experiments) for cells exposed to pre-
34 imprinted grooves and grooves imprinted *in situ* ~6 h. after cell plating (“dynamically imprinted surfaces”)
35 are shown in Table 3, and aspect ratios versus absolute alignment angles are plotted for each cell at
36 three different times over ~16 h. in Figure 3. By $t = 4.6$ h, nearly 70% of cells had elongated ($AR > 3$),
37 with a significant fraction of these aligned cells displaying long processes ($AR \geq 6$). Greater than 80%
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2 of elongated cells (57% of *all* cells) were aligned to grooves (i.e., absolute AA $\leq 15^\circ$). Of the cells that
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4 were not aligned at 4.6 h., a large majority were also not elongated. Moreover, even at this relatively
5
6 early time point, few cells were observed with processes extending at angles far from the groove axis
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8 (AA $> 45^\circ$), with no cells in this far-from-axis group having an AR that significantly exceeded the
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10 threshold value for elongation. As expected, an increasing fraction of cells plated on pre-imprinted
11
12 grooves became “aligned” throughout the study. At later measurement times ($t = 11.0$ h. and $t = 16.3$ h.),
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14 most cells had become bipolar, some with very large aspect ratios, and nearly all elongated cells (94%)
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16 were aligned to grooves. Such observations are similar to those reported by other researchers using
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18 pre-imprinted grooved substrates [2, 42].
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21 In contrast, on dynamically imprinted surfaces at $t = 4.6$ h., a smaller fraction of cells were
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23 elongated (56%), and only a small majority of elongated cells (and less than one-third of all cells) aligned
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25 with grooves. And unlike cells plated on pre-imprinted surfaces, elongated cells on dynamic surfaces
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27 showed both a broad range of AA values and a relatively large mean absolute AA value. By $t = 11.0$ h.,
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29 a large majority of cells ($>80\%$) were elongated, and nearly 70% of elongated cells were aligned to
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31 grooves; nevertheless, the mean absolute AA was twice that for cells plated on pre-imprinted grooves
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33 at the same nominal time point (22° vs. 11°). Moreover, although a majority of elongated cells were
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35 aligned at both 4.6 h. and 11.0 h., a moderate number of cells extended processes in directions far from
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37 the groove axis (absolute AA $> 45^\circ$) at both time points. At the final time point, $t = 16.3$ h., nearly all cells
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39 had an absolute AA $< 30^\circ$ and the mean absolute AA had decreased to 16° (although the fraction of
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41 elongated cells that were aligned did not significantly change from $t = 11.0$ h.) These findings suggest
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43 that, as adherent, polygonal cells adapt to grooves introduced to their existing substrate, they do not
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45 initially elongate in an orientation that is necessarily parallel to grooves. This behavior appears to be
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47 distinct from that of cells elongating on pre-formed grooves, where the anisotropy of the surface at the
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49 time of adhesion appears to determine the direction of initial elongation.
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52 At the final time point measured in these studies, $t = 16.3$ h., only 6% of elongated cells plated
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54 on pre-imprinted substrates had not aligned to grooves. In contrast, 29% of elongated cells on the
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56 dynamically imprinted substrates were not aligned, despite this time point representing the *minimum*
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2 exposure time of any given cell to grooves (i.e., most cells had interacted with grooves for more than
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4 16.3 h.). This finding suggests that cells align to grooves less rapidly if they had previously adhered to,
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6 and adopted a polygonal morphology on, a planar surface.
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8 Slower alignment of cells on dynamically imprinted surfaces may be a result of barriers to
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10 reorganizing subcellular elements that maintain well-defined morphologies. Active remodeling of cell
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12 shape and orientation after topographical change requires, for example, disassembly and reassembly
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14 of actin filaments and the release and formation of focal adhesions [41]. In contrast, amorphous cells
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16 plated onto existing grooves can more immediately respond to the anisotropic surface and dedicate
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18 their subcellular machinery to elongation and alignment along grooves [32].
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21 Ebara *et al.* reported using a temperature-switchable shape-memory polymer to promote cell
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23 elongation and alignment over 48 h. in response to a transition from planar to grooved topography [42].
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25 Similar to our results, substantial changes in both AR and AA values were observed, with decreased
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27 dispersion of AA over the experimental time course. Importantly, however, Ebara's studies required cells
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29 to be maintained at 32°C for extended periods in order to take advantage of the ability to induce thermal
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31 transitions.
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33 Characterizing how adherent cells respond to de novo stimulation by topographical cues
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35 presents unique challenges, requiring new technologies for modifying substrate topographies in real
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37 time without perturbing environmental factors, including temperature, that may influence relevant cell
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39 behaviors. While systems that undergo substrate changes based on responses of thermally sensitive
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41 smart materials provide useful information, the approach described in the current report provides
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43 capabilities for presenting adherent cells with dynamic topographic cues without changing ambient
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45 temperature, avoiding, for example, modifications to the kinetics of cytoskeletal rearrangement and cell
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47 motility [43, 44]. In addition, although not the focus of these initial studies, in situ imprinting should be
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49 valuable both in exploring rapid responses of adherent cells to topographic stimulation, as individual
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51 tiles can be modified in ~2 min., and in targeting individual cells-of-interest with highly localized, specific
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53 topographical changes.
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4. Conclusions

We have developed an approach to observe cell morphology and alignment in response to topographical changes introduced to the cell culture substrate. By imprinting protein hydrogel substrates with grooves having an approximate depth of $\sim 2 \mu\text{m}$, we can remotely trigger changes in the morphology and alignment of adherent cells while maintaining a uniform temperature. Notably, the kinetics for alignment of elongated cells along the groove dimension proceeds with kinetics significantly slower than for cells plated directly on pre-formed grooves, indicating that cells having existing structured morphologies may be subject to kinetic bottlenecks not experienced by amorphous cells when exposed to topographical triggers for elongation and alignment.

This in situ imprinting approach is a powerful research tool that will enable the study of adherent-cell responses to a range of topographical cues, and could help clarify molecular mechanisms involved in cell motility. We previously reported that changes in stiffness can accompany topographic changes produced by imprinting; however, it is possible to avoid modifications to stiffness, when desired, by employing protocols that isolate re-scanning from regions in direct proximity to the substrate surface [17]. Understanding the responses of adherent cells to a range of de novo changes in their substrate should provide new insights into mechanisms that underlie complex behaviors such as wound healing and cancer metastasis [45].

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Tables

Table 1. Effect of number of scans, and initial scan position (H_0) on final tile height (H_f). H_i represents initial tile height. Scan-dependence studies used an initial start position, $H_0 = 14 \mu\text{m}$ ($n = 3$ specimens); scan-height studies employed double scanning of tiles ($n = 6$ specimens).

| Scans | H_f (μm) | H_f/H_i | H_0 (μm) | H_f (μm) | H_f/H_i |
|-------|-------------------------|-----------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-----------|
| 0 | 9.4 ± 0.3 | 1.00 | 8 | 7.6 ± 0.6 | 0.81 |
| 1 | 6.8 ± 0.4 | 0.72 | 10 | 6.2 ± 0.1 | 0.66 |
| 2 | 5.2 ± 0.3 | 0.55 | 12 | 6.4 ± 0.9 | 0.68 |
| 3 | 5.3 ± 0.4 | 0.56 | 14 | 6.4 ± 0.3 | 0.68 |

Table 2. Effect of scan starting position, H_0 , on depth of imprinted grooves. Each tile was double scanned with a groove patterns nominally corresponding to 5- μm -wide ridges and 15- μm -wide troughs. Average initial height of all tiles was $9.4 \pm 0.3 \mu\text{m}$.

| H_0 (μm) | Ridge Height (μm) | Trough Depth (μm) |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 8 | 9.1 ± 0.2 | 0.9 ± 0.3 |
| 10 | 9.1 ± 0.5 | 1.8 ± 0.7 |
| 12 | 8.9 ± 0.5 | 1.8 ± 0.5 |
| 14 | 9.3 ± 0.6 | 2.8 ± 0.2 |

Table 3. Elongation of NIH3T3 cells on pre-formed and in situ imprinted grooves. Time $t = 0.0$ h. for pre-imprinted and dynamically imprinted substrates is defined in the text. Cells are considered to be elongated when their aspect ratio (AR) exceeds 3.

Pre-imprinted surfaces

| Time | Cells | Elongated Cells | Fraction Elongated | Mean <u>AR</u> , Elongated Cells |
|---------|-------|-----------------|--------------------|----------------------------------|
| 4.6 h. | 42 | 29 | 0.69 | 5.3 ± 1.5 |
| 11.0 h. | 41 | 34 | 0.83 | 5.0 ± 1.7 |
| 16.3 h. | 40 | 31 | 0.78 | 6.0 ± 2.6 |

Dynamically imprinted surfaces

| Time | Cells | Elongated Cells | Fraction Elongated | Mean <u>AR</u> , Elongated Cells |
|---------|-------|-----------------|--------------------|----------------------------------|
| 4.6 h. | 32 | 18 | 0.56 | 4.7 ± 1.6 |
| 11.0 h. | 32 | 26 | 0.81 | 5.5 ± 2.4 |
| 16.3 h. | 32 | 24 | 0.75 | 5.2 ± 2.3 |

Table 4. Alignment of NIH3T3 cells on pre-formed and in situ imprinted grooves. Cells are considered to be aligned when their alignment angle relative to grooves (AA) is less than 15° . At $t = 0$ h., cells on pre-formed grooves are approximately round and therefore do not have an alignment angle. Cells experiencing dynamically imprinted grooves for the first time display morphologies characteristic of cells grown on planar surfaces, with random orientations. For both pre-imprinted and dynamically imprinted surfaces, the total number of aligned cells decreased in the final measurement as a result of migration of cells from the imprinted surfaces.

Pre-imprinted surfaces

| Time | Aligned Cells | $\frac{\text{Aligned Cells}}{\text{Elongated Cells}}$ | Mean AA, Elongated Cells |
|---------|---------------|---|--------------------------|
| 4.6 h. | 24 | 0.83 | $13^\circ \pm 15^\circ$ |
| 11.0 h. | 32 | 0.94 | $11^\circ \pm 13^\circ$ |
| 16.3 h. | 29 | 0.94 | $11^\circ \pm 8^\circ$ |

Dynamically imprinted surfaces

| Time | Aligned Cells | $\frac{\text{Aligned Cells}}{\text{Elongated Cells}}$ | Mean AA, Elongated Cells |
|---------|---------------|---|--------------------------|
| 4.6 h. | 10 | 0.56 | $34^\circ \pm 29^\circ$ |
| 11.0 h. | 18 | 0.69 | $22^\circ \pm 25^\circ$ |
| 16.3 h. | 17 | 0.71 | $16^\circ \pm 14^\circ$ |

Figures

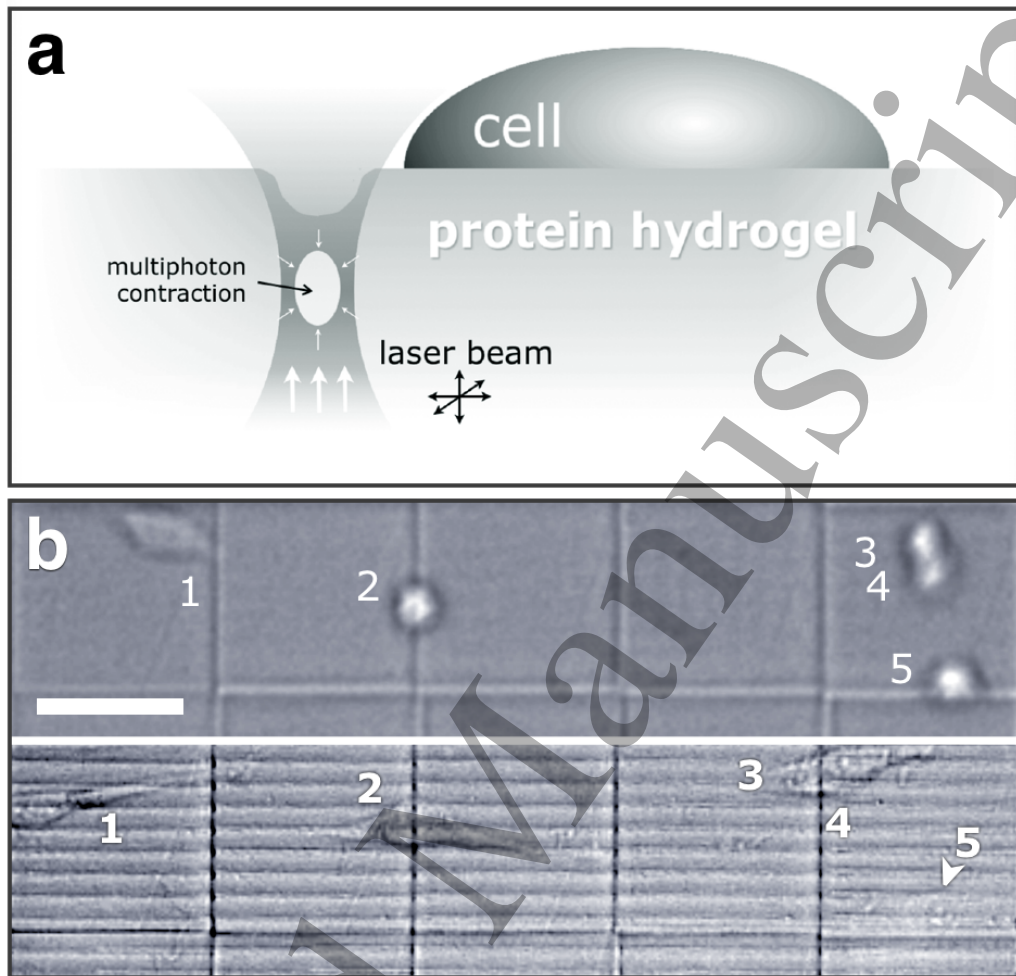


Figure 1. Real time topographic imprinting of a protein-based cell-culture substrate. (a) Multiphoton-promoted crosslinking of the hydrogel substrate within a femtoliter focal volume promotes matrix contraction that projects onto the substrate surface as topographic features. By scanning the laser focus in two or three dimensions, topographic patterns, such as grooves, can be created in real time—even at cell-substrate adhesion sites—to modify cellular behavior. (b) Cell elongation and alignment on a protein-based tile array imprinted with grooves (see also Supporting Movie 1). Top panel: A 10- μm thick gelatin-BSA tile array immediately after settling of cells (identified as 1–5) shortly before imprinting with several micrometer deep grooves. Bottom panel: The same group of cells ~11 h. after imprinting (groove width, 4 μm ; pitch, 7- μm) displayed extensive elongation and alignment along the groove axis (cell 5 not readily visible in this image).

Scale bar, 50 μm .

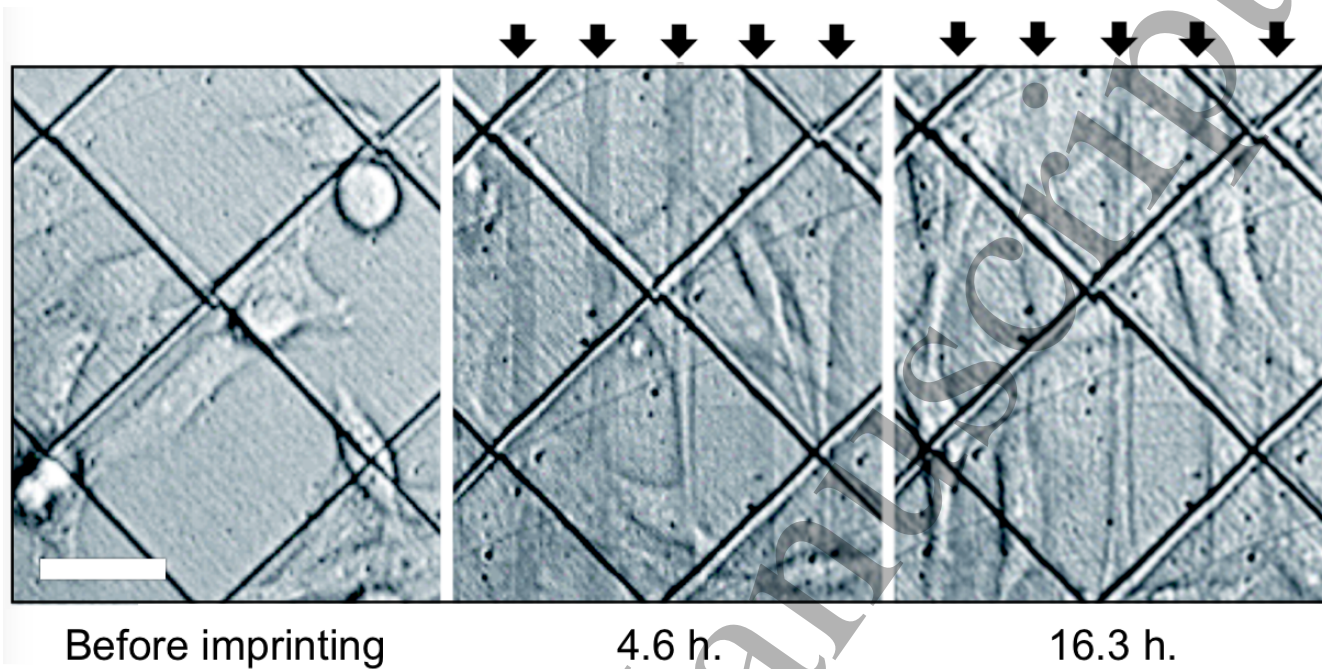
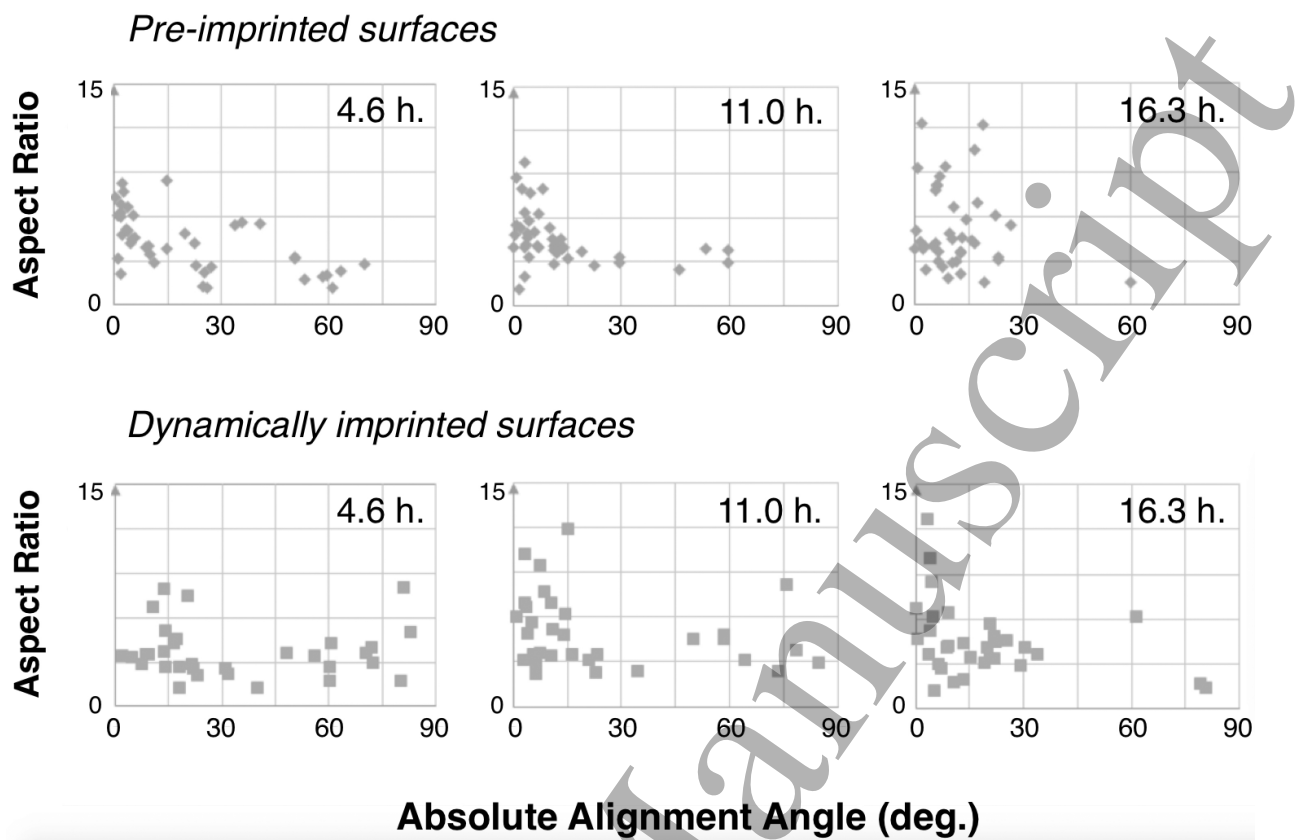
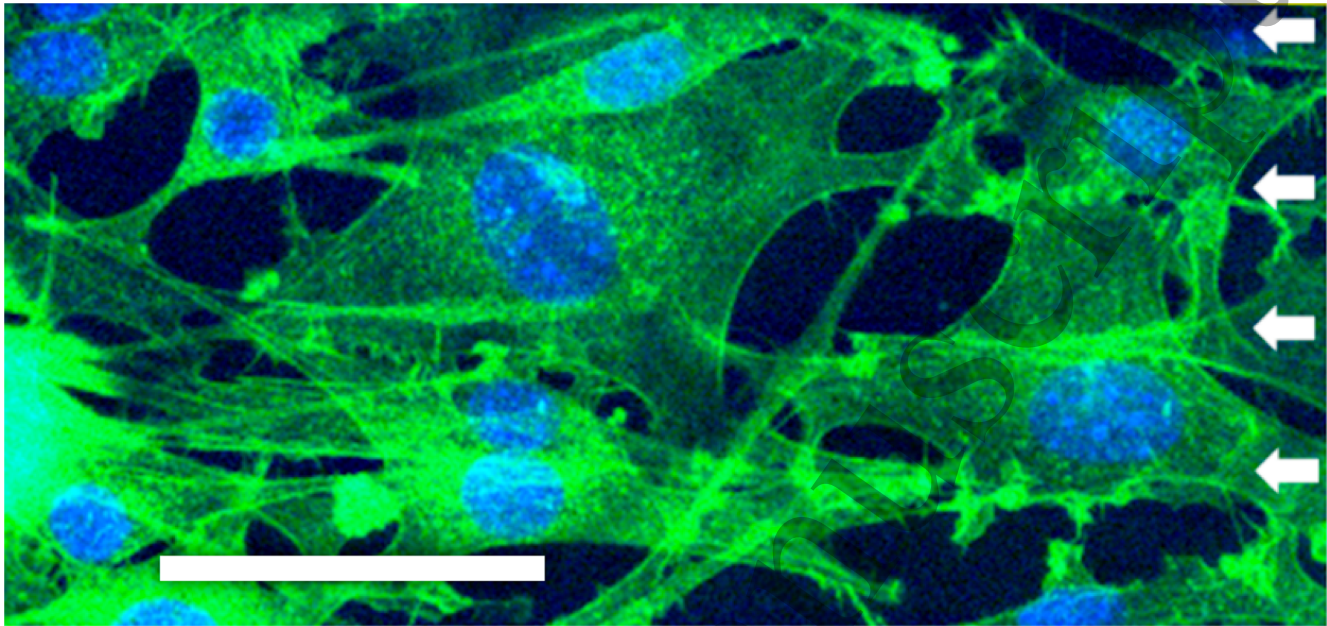


Figure 2. Representative time sequence images of cellular alignment and elongation of NIH3T3 fibroblast cells used to acquire dynamic imprinting response data shown in Tables 3 and 4. Arrows at the top of the middle and right panels identify imprinted grooves; dark diagonal lines are the seams at which printed tiles overlap to form a continuous tile-array substrate. Before imprinting (left panel), most cells display a characteristic random, polygonal morphology; over the ~16 h. of these experiments, cells elongate and generally align to the grooves formed by imprinting. Scale bar, 35 μm .



32 **Figure 3.** Aspect ratio (AR) vs absolute alignment angle (AA) for individual cells tracked on pre-imprinted
33 grooved surfaces (top) and dynamically imprinted surfaces (bottom) over ~16 h. Number of individual cells
34 analyzed for pre-imprinted and dynamically imprinted surfaces are $n = 40$ and $n = 32$, respectively. An AA
35 value of 0° indicates that cells are parallel to grooves. On pre-imprinted surfaces, elongated cells align closely
36 to grooves from early time points, while on dynamically imprinted surfaces cells show a greater spread of
37 absolute alignment angles, particular at shorter times after imprinting.
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Supplemental Figure S1. Fluorescence image of cells plated on dynamic surfaces. Cells were stained to reveal the location of actin (green), and cell nuclei (blue). The white arrows indicate the locations of the underlying ridges, which are not visible using fluorescence imaging. Substantial alignment of actin to horizontal features demonstrates cell polarization, and oval nuclei indicate mechanotransduction. Scale bar, 70 μm . Methods: Actin filaments of cellular cytoskeletons were stained with Alexa Fluor® 488 Phalloidin (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR) after formaldehyde fixation. Nuclei were stained with 5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ solution of 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI; Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR). Cells were imaged on a confocal microscope (SP2 AOBS, Leica Microsystems, Buffalo Grove, IL) using a 63X (HCX APO, 1.4NA) oil objective. Samples were excited with 405 nm and 488 nm argon lasers. The ranges over which emitted light was collected were 409–483 nm (for DAPI) and 494–515 nm (for Alexa Fluor® 488).