Desmin intermediate filaments and tubulin detyrosination stabilize growing microtubules in the

cardiomyocyte

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Abstract

The microtubule network of the cardiomyocyte exhibits specialized architecture, stability and

mechanical behavior that accommodate the demands of working muscle cells. Stable, post-

translationally detyrosinated microtubules are physical coupled to the sarcomere, the contractile

apparatus of muscle, and resist sarcomere motion to regulate muscle mechanics and

mechanosignaling. Control of microtubule growth and shrinkage dynamics represents a potential

intermediate in the formation of a stable, physically coupled microtubule network, yet the

molecular determinants that govern dynamics are unknown. Here we test the hypothesis that

desmin intermediate filaments may stabilize growing microtubules at the sarcomere Z-disk in a

detyrosination-dependent manner. Using a combination of biochemical assays and direct

observation of microtubule plus-end dynamics in primary adult cardiomyocytes, we determine

that: 1) tyrosination increases the frequency of microtubule depolymerization and reduces the

pausing of microtubules at the Z-disk, leading to a more dynamic microtubule; and 2) desmin

intermediate filaments stabilize both growing and shrinking microtubules specifically at the Z-

disk and protect them from depolymerization. This stabilizes iteratively growing, detyrosinated

microtubules between adjacent sarcomeres, which promotes the formation of high-energy

microtubules that buckle between sarcomeres and elevates myocyte viscoelasticity. Our findings

inform on how the tubulin code and intermediate filaments regulate microtubule dynamics, and

provide mechanism to the establishment of a spatially organized, physically coupled, and long-

lived microtubule network in the cardiomyocyte.

Introduction

Microtubules are polymers of α- and β-tubulin that are characterized by cyclical transitions

between polymerization and depolymerization, a behavior called dynamic instability[1]. Tuning

this dynamic behavior confers unique functionality to specific sub-populations of microtubules[2].

Control of microtubule dynamics is cell type- and context-specific and can occur either by

modulating polymer addition or subtraction at the ends, or through lateral interaction with the

microtubule polymer[3]. The temporal and spatial control of dynamics can be tuned by post-

translational modification of tubulin, which in turn affects the biophysical properties of the

microtubule and interactions with microtubule associated proteins (MAPs)[4]. For example,

detyrosination, the post translational removal of the C-terminal tyrosine residue on α-tubulin, has

been shown to increase microtubule stability in mitotic cells by preventing their interaction with

depolymerizing MAPs[5].

In the cardiomyocyte, microtubules fulfill both canonical roles in intracellular trafficking and

organelle positioning[6], as well as non-canonical functions matched to the unique demands of

working myocytes. In the interior of the myocyte, microtubules form a predominantly

longitudinal network that runs perpendicular to the transverse Z-discs that define the sarcomere,

the basic contractile unit of muscle (**Fig 1A**). Sub-populations of microtubules form physical

connections with the Z-disc that serve as lateral reinforcements along the length of the

microtubule[7]. Upon stimulation and sarcomere shortening, these physically coupled microtubules

buckle at short stereotypical wavelengths between sarcomeres to resist the change in myocyte

length[7]. The physical ramifications of these reinforced microtubules for the myocyte are

significant, as reinforced microtubules can resist 1000x more force than uncoupled

microtubules[8,9]. This viscoelastic resistance becomes particularly problematic in heart failure,

where proliferation of longitudinal, coupled microtubules stiffens the cardiomyocyte and impairs

myocyte motion[10].

Physical coupling of the microtubule to the sarcomere is tuned by detyrosination. Genetic

reduction of detyrosination by overexpression of tubulin tyrosine ligase (TTL), the enzyme

responsible for ligating the terminal tyrosine residue on detyrosinated tubulin, reduces

sarcomeric buckling and the viscoelastic resistance provided by microtubules, increasing

myocyte contractility[10]. Tyrosination status also governs microtubule-dependent

mechanotransduction in muscle that regulates downstream second messengers and is implicated

in myopathic states [11]. Given its ability to lower stiffness and improve the function of

myocardium from patients with heart failure[10], tyrosination is under pursuit as a novel

therapeutic approach. Yet how detyrosination promotes the interaction of microtubules with the

sarcomere to mediate their mechanical impact remains poorly understood.

Several observations suggest this interaction may be mediated at least in part through desmin

intermediate filaments that wrap around the Z-disk. Detyrosination promotes microtubule

interaction with intermediate filaments[7,12], and in the absence of desmin, microtubules are

disorganized and detyrosination no longer alters myocyte mechanics[7]. Additionally, a recent

pre-print indicates that intermediate filaments can directly stabilize dynamic microtubules in

vitro[13].

Despite this evidence, the effects of desmin or detyrosination on the dynamics of cardiomyocyte

microtubules have not been investigated. We hypothesized that desmin may serve to stabilize

growing microtubules at the Z-disk, which would represent an important intermediary in laterally

reinforcing the network and coupling microtubules to the sarcomere. Here, using a combination

of genetic manipulations, biochemical assays, and direct live-cell observation of dynamic

microtubules, we directly interrogated the effect of tyrosination status and desmin depletion on

microtubule dynamics. We find that desmin dictates the spatial organization of microtubule

dynamics and that growing microtubules are stabilized at the Z-disc in a desmin-dependent

fashion. Additionally, we find that tyrosinated microtubules are more dynamic, a characteristic

that precludes their ability to efficiently grow between adjacent sarcomeres and form stabilizing

interactions at the Z-disk. These findings provide insight into the organizing principles of

myocyte cytoarchitecture and into the mechanism of action for therapeutic strategies that target

detyrosinated microtubules.

Results

Tyrosination alters the dynamics of the microtubule network

We first sought to determine the effect of detyrosination on the dynamics of the cardiomyocyte

microtubule network. To reduce detyrosination, we utilized adenoviral delivery of TTL into

isolated adult rat cardiomyocytes[7]. TTL binds and tyrosinates tubulin in a 1:1 complex, and so

we also utilized adenoviral delivery of TTL-E331Q (E331Q), a verified catalytically dead mutant

of TTL[14], to separate effects of tubulin tyrosination from tubulin sequestration. We have

previously confirmed that TTL overexpression under identical conditions reduces detyrosination

below 25% of initial levels, while TTL-E331Q does not significantly affect detyrosination levels

with similar overexpression[14]. To specifically quantify the effects of reducing detyrosination on

the dynamic microtubule population, we adapted a subcellular fractionation assay from Fasset et

al., 2009[15] that allowed us to separate free tubulin from polymerized tubulin in the dynamic (i.e.

cold-sensitive) microtubule pool (**Fig 1B**).

Expression of TTL, but not E331Q, resulted in significantly less detyrosinated tubulin in the

dynamic microtubule pool (**Fig 1C**). Further, only TTL expression shifted tubulin away from the

polymerized fraction towards the free tubulin fraction, resulting in an increased ratio of free:

polymerized tubulin (**Fig 1C, S. Fig 1A**). This suggests that tyrosination effects the cycling of

tubulin within the dynamic microtubule pool. If indeed tyrosinated microtubules are more

dynamic, then levels of acetylation, a canonical marker of long-lived microtubules[16], should also

be decreased by TTL. Consistent with this, TTL, but not E331Q, led to a robust reduction in

levels of microtubule acetylation, suggesting that tyrosination reduces microtubule lifetime in the

cardiomyocyte (**Fig 1D**).

As acetylation itself is linked to microtubule stability[17,18], the TTL-dependent change in the

dynamic microtubule pool (**Fig 1C**) could be directly related to tyrosination or secondary to the

associated reduction in acetylation (**Fig 1D**). To discriminate between these two hypotheses, we

directly modulated acetylation. To this end, we developed adenoviral constructs encoding

histone deacetylase 6 (HDAC6) and α tubulin acetyltransferase 1 (αTAT1). HDAC6 expression

reduced total microtubule acetylation to 25% of initial levels (**Fig 1E**) and αTAT1 expression

increased acetylation 12-fold (**Fig 1E**). Because αTAT1 has been shown to modulate

microtubule dynamics independent of enzymatic activity[19], we also used a pharmacological

inhibitor of HDAC6, Tubastatin A (TubA) to increase acetylation through an orthogonal

approach (**Fig 1E**). Having validated robust tools to modulate acetylation, we next determined

the effect of acetylation on the dynamic microtubule pool utilizing the same fractionation assay.

HDAC6 expression resulted in less acetylation in the cold-sensitive fraction while both αTAT1

expression and TubA treatment increased levels of acetylated tubulin. Neither genetic methods to

increase or decrease acetylation altered the free:polymerized tubulin (**Fig 1G, S. Fig 1B**);

however, TubA treatment modestly increased the free:polymerized tubulin ratio, suggesting that

while microtubule dynamics are likely unaffected by changing levels of acetylation, the presence

of HDAC6 protein may affect microtubule dynamics as observed previously[20]. Given that

modulating tyrosination altered levels of acetylation (**Fig 1D**), we also asked whether this

relationship was reciprocal. However, whole cell levels of detyrosination were largely

unaffected by modulating acetylation (**Fig 1F**), except for a modest increase with HDAC6

expression that may be related to HDAC6 association with microtubules increasing their stability

and availability for detyrosination[20].

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Figure 1. Tyrosination specifically alters microtubule stability. A Left, Schematic depicting detyrosinated
microtubules (orange) buckling due to physical coupling with desmin at the Z-disc. Uncoupled tyrosinated
microtubules (blue) do not buckle[7]. Right, Detyrosination and Acetylation cycles. **B** Overview of the cell
fractionation assay adapted from Fasset et al. [15] that allows for separation of free tubulin and polymerized
microtubules within the dynamic tubulin pool. **C** Representative western blot (**top**) and quantification (**bottom**) of
α-tubulin, detyrosinated (dTyr) tubulin, and GAPDH in free and cold-sensitive microtubule fractions from adult rat
cardiomyocytes infected with either null, TTL, or TTL-E331Q adenovirus. Detyrosinated tubulin values normalized
to α-tubulin in cold-sensitive fraction. **D** Representative western blot (**top**) and quantification (**bottom**) of α-tubulin,
acetylated tubulin, and GAPDH in whole-cell lysate from null, TTL, or E331Q expressing myocytes. **E** Validation
of HDAC6 and αTAT1 constructs and Tubastatin a (TubA) treatment. Representative western blot (**top**) and
quantification (**bottom**) of β-tubulin, acetylated tubulin, and GAPDH in whole-cell lysate from adult rat
cardiomyocytes infected with HDAC6, αTAT1, or null adenovirus or treated with 1 μM TubA or DMSO overnight.
F Representative western blot (**top**) and quantification (**bottom**) of α-tubulin, dTyr, and GAPDH in whole cell
lysate from adult rat cardiomyocytes infected with HDAC6, αTAT1, or null adenovirus or treated with 1 μM TubA
or DMSO overnight. **G** Representative western blot (**top**) and quantification (**bottom**) of β-tubulin, acetylated
tubulin, and GAPDH in free and polymerized dynamic fractions. Lysate from myocytes infected with HDAC6,
αTAT1, or null adenovirus or treated with 1 μM TubA or DMSO overnight. Western blot data points represent
technical replicates (2 from each biological replicate) normalized to their respective controls (N=4 in C+F; N=3 in
D, E, G). Statistical significance determined via two-sample T test with alpha adjusted for multiple comparisons.
Data are presented as mean±SEM unless otherwise specified.
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Tyrosination increases catastrophes of growing microtubules

We next wanted to more precisely quantify the effects of tyrosination on the dynamics of

individual microtubules. Microtubule dynamics (**Fig 2A**) are characterized by their rates of

growth (polymerization) and shrinkage (depolymerization) as well as the frequency of transitions

between these two states. Events are categorized as catastrophes (transitions from growth to

shrinkage), rescues (transitions from shrinkage to growth), and pauses (neither growth nor

shrinkage). We directly observed the microtubule plus-ends by time-lapse imaging of a

fluorescent end-binding protein 3 (EB3-GFP) construct expressed via adenovirus in isolated rat

cardiomyocytes (**S. Movie 1**). By creating kymographs from these videos, we were able to

quantify dynamic events (rescue, catastrophe, and pause) in addition to microtubule growth and

shrinkage kinetics (**Fig 2B**). We harnessed off-target EB3-GFP Z-disc localization to

characterize dynamic events as occurring on or off the Z-disc, as in Drum et al.[21] As we noted

higher variability in measurements from one cell isolation to another than between cells from the

same isolation, experimental data were normalized to control data that were acquired from the

same animals.

We began with multiple control experiments. Although EB interaction is thought to be

unaffected by microtubule detyrosination[22], we wanted to validate that EB3 labeling of

microtubules did not systematically differ with TTL expression. EB3 fluorescence intensity

along the length and at the tip of the microtubule was unchanged in control, TTL or E331Q

expressing cells (**S. Fig 2A**), indicating that EB3 expression or labeling of microtubules was not

altered by our experimental interventions.

As adult ventricular cardiomyocytes are normally paced in vivo but quiescent in vitro, we sought

to determine whether electrical pacing and evoked contractions would overtly alter microtubule

dynamics. To this end, we timed the imaging of EB3 puncta to occur during the diastolic rest

interval between each contraction of cardiomyocytes that were electrically paced at 0.5Hz.

Internally controlled, pre- and post-comparisons of microtubule dynamics before and during

electrical stimulation showed no significant effect of stimulation on microtubule dynamic events

or growth kinetics in rat cardiomyocytes (**S. Fig 2B**). As such, for the remainder of this study we

interrogated quiescent cardiomyocytes to minimize movement artifacts.

Under basal conditions, we observed a stark spatial bias in microtubule dynamic behavior,

similar to that observed by Drum et al[21]. The initiation of microtubule growth, as well as pausing

of growth, predominantly occurred on the Z-disc (**Fig. 2C**). Conversely, catastrophes

predominantly occurred off the Z-disc, while rescue from catastrophe again occurred more

frequently at the Z-disc. As exemplified in **S. Movies 1-2**, in control (AdV-null) expressing

myocytes microtubules tend to grow iteratively from one Z-disk to another, often pausing at each

Z-disk region. If a microtubule undergoes catastrophe before reaching a Z-disk, it tends to shrink

to a previous Z-disk, where rescue is more likely to occur. These data suggest factors at the Z-

disc region strongly bias microtubule behavior and support the initialization as well as

stabilization of growing microtubules.

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Figure 2 Tyrosinated microtubules are more dynamic A Schematic of microtubule dynamic events. **B**
Representative kymographs from cardiomyocytes infected with EB3-GFP plus null, TTL or E331Q adenovirus.
Arrowheads denote Z-discs. **C** Number of initiations, rescues, pauses, and catastrophes that occur on and off the Z-
disc in isolated cardiomyocytes infected with null adenovirus. **D** Cell-wide catastrophe (**left**) and pause (**right**)
frequency in myocytes infected with null, TTL, or E331Q adenovirus. **E** Number of catastrophes (**left**) and pauses
(**right**) that occur on and off the Z-disc in myocytes infected with null (black), TTL (blue), or E331Q (yellow)
adenovirus. **F** Gross measurements of microtubule dynamics. Tortuosity, the distance a microtubule grows divided
by its displacement (**left**), and number of catastrophes in relation to number of successful Z-disk crossing (**right),** in
myocytes infected with null, TTL, or E331Q adenovirus. **G** Frequency distribution of average microtubule growth
displacement, duration, and velocity in myocytes infected with null, TTL, or E331Q adenovirus. Data are
normalized to the average null value for the corresponding experiment. Statistical significance was determined with
Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA with post-hoc test. Data are presented as mean±SEM unless otherwise specified.
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We next interrogated the role of tyrosination. As seen in **S. Movie 3**, microtubules in TTL

treated cells also initiated growth at the Z-disk, but often had shorter runs and underwent

catastrophe prior to reaching a subsequent Z-disk. Consistently, TTL overexpression

significantly increased the frequency of catastrophes, while tending to reduce the frequency of

pausing (**Fig 2B and D**). E331Q expression did not alter event frequency **(S. Movie 4)**,

suggesting a tyrosination-specific effect on microtubule dynamics. Further examination of spatial

dynamics revealed that TTL similarly increased the number of catastrophes both on and off the

Z-disc while reducing the number of pauses specifically on the Z-disc (**Fig 2E**). As a readout of

inefficient growth, TTL increased microtubule tortuosity, the ratio of growth distance to growth

displacement (**Fig 2F**). Combined, the lack of stabilization at the Z-disc and more frequent

catastrophes resulted in tyrosinated microtubules breaking down ~4 fold as often before

successfully crossing a Z-disk when compared to either null or E331Q expressing cells (**Fig 2F**).

Consistent with an increased frequency of catastrophe, growth events in TTL myocytes were

shorter in duration and traveled less distance, despite similar growth velocity **(Fig 2G).** Of note,

cells expressing E331Q showed comparable growth metrics and event frequencies to control

infected myocytes, indicating that TTL's effect on microtubule dynamics is due to tyrosination

and not tubulin binding. Substantial overexpression of TTL or E331Q could reduce growth

velocity by limiting tubulin available for polymerization; we calculated the predicted effect of

our level of overexpression on tubulin growth velocity and found a negligible effect on growth

kinetics (**S. Fig 2D)**, consistent with our experimental observations (**Fig. 2G).**

Desmin structures the growing microtubule network

We hypothesized that desmin intermediate filaments could be the Z-disc stabilizing factor for

growing microtubules, based in part on the gross microtubule misalignment observed in the

absence of desmin[23], and from our observation that microtubules tend to traverse the Z-disc at

desmin-enriched regions[10]. To determine if desmin regulates the dynamic population of

microtubules, we utilized the previously described fractionation assay (**Fig 1B**) with lysate from

rat cardiomyocytes infected with adenoviruses encoding shRNA against desmin (Des KD) or a

scramble control (scram). This construct has been previously validated to reduce desmin protein

levels ~70% under identical conditions[24]. Desmin depletion resulted in an increased free to

polymerized ratio in the dynamic microtubule pool (**Fig 3A, S. Fig 3A**), suggesting that desmin

coordinates the stability of dynamic microtubules. We next quantified microtubule acetylation

and detyrosination, markers of long-lived microtubules, and found that both were decreased in

desmin depleted myocytes, without alterations in whole cell tubulin content (**Fig 3A**).

We next directly quantified plus-end microtubule dynamics by EB3-GFP upon desmin depletion.

As seen in **S. Movies 5-6**, upon desmin depletion microtubule growth still initiated at the Z-disk,

but the iterative, longitudinal growth from one Z-disk to another seen in control cells was lost.

Instead, microtubules often grew past Z-disk regions without pausing (**Fig 3B**), and when

breaking down they were less likely to be rescued at the previous Z-disk. Blind quantification of

global event frequency revealed that desmin depletion modestly increased the frequency of

catastrophes while more robustly reducing both the frequency of rescues and pauses (**Fig 3C**).

Interrogation of where dynamic events occurred in relation to the Z-disk revealed that desmin

depletion specifically increased the number of catastrophes that occurred only on the Z-disk (**Fig**

3D), while reducing the number of catastrophes that occurred off the Z-disk. More strikingly,

desmin depletion markedly reduced the number of pauses and rescues that occur specifically on

the Z-disk, while not affecting pause or rescue behavior elsewhere (**Fig 3D**). Growth events

tended to travel longer distance with higher velocities in Des KD cells (**Fig 3E**). Together, these

results indicate that desmin is spatially coordinates microtubule dynamics and stabilizes both the

growing and shrinking microtubule at the Z-disk.

As the Z-disk region coordinates microtubule dynamics, we sought to summarize how our

different interventions (TTL, Desmin KD) affected the spatial organization of microtubule

behavior. By taking the ratio of events that occurred on vs. off the Z-disk and performing a log2

transform, we calculated a Z-disk bias for each type of dynamic event (**Fig 3F**). Of note, this

metric only reflects the spatial bias of events, not their frequencies. TTL reduced the preference

for microtubule pausing at the Z-disk, but did not affect the spatial preference of rescues,

catastrophes, or initiations (TTL increased catastrophe frequency in a spatially-agnostic fashion).

Desmin depletion, on the other hand, virtually eliminated any spatial preference of pausing,

rescue, or catastrophe behavior. Initiations had a strong Z-bias regardless of intervention, which

likely reflects nucleating events from microtubule organizing centers at Golgi outposts proximal

to the Z-disk that are not affected by these manipulations[25].

Figure 3 Desmin stabilizes the growing microtubule at the Z-disc A Representative western blot (**left**) and
quantification (**right**) of α-tubulin, dTyr, acetylated tubulin, and GAPDH in free, cold-sensitive, or whole-cell lysate
from isolated rat cardiomyocytes expressing either scramble (scrm) or desmin specific shRNA (Des KD). **B**
Representative EB3-GFP kymograph from control or desmin KD myocytes. **C** Cell-wide catastrophe (**left**), rescue
(**middle**), and pause (**right**) frequency with or without desmin KD. **D** Number of catastrophes (**left**), pauses
(**middle**), and rescues (**right**) that occur on or off the Z-disc with or without desmin KD. **E** Frequency distribution
of average microtubule growth displacement, duration, and velocity with or without desmin KD. **F.** Z-disc bias score
(log2 transform of the ratio of events that occurred on vs. off the Z-disk) for all experimental conditions. Data are
normalized to the average control value for the corresponding experiment. Statistical significance determined with
Two Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. Data are presented as mean±SEM unless otherwise specified.

Cardiomyocytes from global, desmin germ-line knockout mice are characterized by misaligned

and degenerated sarcomeres[26] with a disorganized microtubule network [7]. Gross restructuring of

the myofilaments could affect microtubule dynamics due to a change in the physical

environment that is permissive to microtubule growth, for example by increasing the spacing

between Z-discs of adjacent myofilaments. To assess if our acute desmin depletion altered

myofilament spacing or alignment, we performed quantitative measurements on electron

micrographs from desmin depleted cardiomyocytes. Blind analysis indicated that acute desmin

depletion did not change myofilament spacing or alignment at this level of resolution (**S Fig 3B**),

consistent instead with a direct stabilizing effect of desmin intermediate filaments on the

microtubule network.

We next wanted to visualize the effect of desmin depletion on whole-cell microtubule network

organization. Airyscan imaging and blind image quantification indicated a reduction of the

percent cell area occupied by both detyrosinated and tyrosinated microtubules (**Fig 4A-B**),

consistent with reduced stability of microtubules upon desmin depletion. As a reduction in

detyrosinated microtubules and their association with the Z-disc is associated with reduced

cardiomyocyte viscoelasticity[7], we hypothesized that desmin-depleted myocytes would be less

stiff. To test this, we performed transverse nanoindentation of cardiomyocytes and quantified

Young's modulus of the myocyte over a range of indentation rates. Desmin depletion

specifically reduced the rate-dependent (viscoelastic) stiffness of the myocyte (**Fig 4C**), without

significantly altering rate-independent (elastic) stiffness. Reduced viscoelasticity is consistent

with reduced transient interactions between dynamic cytoskeletal filaments. To directly test if the

reduction in desmin alters microtubule buckling between sarcomeres, we performed a semi-

automated, blind analysis of microtubule buckling, as in our previous work[7]. In control cells,

most microtubules buckle in a clear sinusoidal pattern with a wavelength corresponding to the

distance of a contracted sarcomere (~1.5-1.9 μm) (**Fig 4D+G, S Movie 7**). Upon desmin

depletion, fewer polymerized microtubules were observed in general, with more chaotic

deformations and organization upon contraction (**S Movie 8**). For microtubules that did buckle,

the amplitude of buckles was reduced (**Fig. 4E**), as well as the proportion of microtubules that

buckled at wavelengths corresponding to the distance between 1 or 2 sarcomeres (1.5-1.9 or 3.0-

3.8 μm, respectively, **Fig 4F**). Combined, these results are consistent with desmin coordinating

the physical tethering and lateral reinforcement of detyrosinated microtubules at the

cardiomyocyte Z-disk to regulate myocyte viscoelasticity.

Figure 4 Desmin facilitates the microtubule contribution to viscoelastic resistance A. Representative Airyscan images of desmin (magenta), detyrosinated tubulin (orange), and tyrosinated tubulin (cyan) in isolated adult rat cardiomyocytes with or without desmin KD. **B** Quantification of percent cell area coverage of detyrosinated microtubules and tyrosinated microtubules with or without desmin KD. **C** Nanoindentation measurement of cardiomyocyte viscoelasticity. Left, Stiffness (elastic modulus) as a function of probe indentation velocity with or without desmin KD. Right, quantification of rate-dependent (viscoelastic) and independent (elastic) stiffness. **D** Representative images of microtubules in a cardiomyocyte at rest (top) and at the peak of contraction (bottom) with or without desmin KD. **E** Quantification of microtubule buckle amplitude. **F** Left, histogram of wavelength distribution of individual microtubule buckles. Right, distribution difference (scram – des KD from **G**). Statistical significance determined via 2-sided t test.

Discussion

In this paper we identify that 1) the dynamic, catastrophe-prone nature of tyrosinated

microtubules precludes their ability to faithfully grow to subsequent Z-discs; and 2) desmin

intermediate filaments structure and stabilize the growing microtubule network.

This study represents the first direct observation that tyrosination increases the dynamics of

cardiac microtubules. Increased dynamicity seems unlikely to arise from the PTM itself, [27] as the

C-terminal tyrosine is not believed to be critical involved in the formation of lateral contacts with

other tubulin dimers in the microtubule lattice. Yet, removal of this large hydrophobic residue

and subsequent exposure of acidic residues will alter hydrophobic and electrostatic interactions

on the outer surface of the polymerized microtubule. Through such a mechanism, tyrosination

can promote microtubule dynamics via increased interaction with destabilizing MAPs, or

through decreased interaction with stabilizing MAPs [27,28].

For example, detyrosination reduces the affinity of the depolymerizing kinesin MCAK for the

microtubule, increasing microtubule stability[5]. We hypothesized that increased MCAK affinity

may contribute to the increased rate of catastrophe we observed in tyrosinated microtubules; yet

due to its low abundance in the cardiomyocyte, our attempts to detect and knock down MCAK

levels were unreliable, precluding the immediate test of this hypothesis. The low abundance of

MCAK, while not ruling out a physiological rule, also motivates interrogation into alternative

stabilizing or destabilizing effector proteins.

Tyrosination status is also known to impact the recruitment of plus-end tip proteins (+Tips), such

as CLIP-170 and p150 glued[22], which may tune microtubule dynamics through either direct or

indirect effects. +Tip proteins also serve to couple the growing microtubule plus end with

cellular effectors[29]. In the search and capture mechanism, dynamic microtubules 'search' for sites

on the plasma membrane, chromosomes, and organelles to 'capture' via +Tip proteins[30]. The

interaction of microtubules with cellular structures, such as chromosomes or the cell cortex, has

been shown to promote rescue events through the formation of tension at the plus-end [31]. The

expression and localization of these proteins has been unexplored in the cardiomyocyte and

represents a potential mechanism for recognition of detyrosination- or intermediate filament-

dependent capture sites and the formation of durable detyrosinated microtubules.

We also identified that the intermediate filament desmin provides structure to the growing

microtubule network by stabilizing microtubules at the Z-disc. What is the mechanism of

desmin-dependent stabilization? A recent elegant *in vitro* study using reconstituted vimentin

intermediate filaments and microtubules indicates that intermediate filaments are sufficient to

stabilize growing microtubules through electrostatic and hydrophobic interactions[13]. The

interaction with intermediate filaments reduces catastrophes and promotes rescues, in strong

accordance with our *in cellulo* findings here. While MAPs may also be involved in modulating

microtubule-intermediate filament interactions, this direct effect is sufficient to explain the

primary phenotypes observed upon desmin depletion (i.e. increased catastrophes and reduced

pausing in the absence of desmin at the Z-disk, and a loss of Z-disk rescues).

The intermediate filament stabilization of growing microtubules would then provide a longer-

lived microtubule substrate to facilitate reinforcing, detyrosination-dependent interactions, such

as those previously documented between desmin and the microtubule through intermediates such

as Kinesin-1[32] or members of the plakin family of scaffolding proteins[33]. Desmin-mediated

interaction along the length of the microtubule may also lead to the loss of tubulin dimers at sites

of contact; these lattice defects are replaced by GTP-tubulin, which upon microtubule

catastrophe may function as a rescue sites[34]. Lateral interactions between microtubules and

intermediate filaments govern microtubule mechanical behavior upon compressive loading of

microtubules[9] allowing desmin to orchestrate microtubule buckling in the cardiomyocyte. [34]

Combined with past and current work, we propose a unifying model for microtubule-

intermediate filament interactions in the cardiomyocyte and how they contribute to myocardial

mechanics. Detyrosinated microtubules, with less frequent depolymerization, experience more

chance interactions with intermediate filaments at the Z-disc. The altered surface chemistry of

detyrosinated microtubules may also strengthen the electrostatic interactions with intermediate

filaments and additional cross-linking proteins. The periodic, lateral reinforcement of

microtubules increases their stability, leading to longer-lived microtubules and providing a

dynamic cross-link with the sarcomere, increasing the viscoelastic resistance to myocyte motion

and the ability of microtubules to transduce mechanical stress. Increased microtubule lifetimes

also promote microtubule acetylation, which itself increases the ability of microtubules to

withstand mechanical stress[35] and increases myocyte viscoelasticity[36]. In the setting of heart

disease, the increased abundance of both desmin intermediate filaments and detyrosinated

microtubules thus promotes a feed-forward substrate for enhanced mechanotransduction and

myocardial stiffening.

Methods

Animals

Animal care and procedures were approved and performed in accordance with the standards set

forth by the University of Pennsylvania Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee and the

Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals published by the US National institutes of

Health.

Rat cardiomyocyte isolation and culture

Primary adult ventricular myocytes were isolated from 6- to 8-week-old Sprague Dawley rats as

previously described[37]. Briefly, rats were anesthetized under isoflurane while the heart was

removed and retrograde perfused on a Lutgendorf apparatus with a collagenase solution. The

digested heart was then minced and triturated using a glass pipette. The resulting supernatant was

separated and centrifuged at 300 revolutions per minute to isolate cardiomyocytes that were

resuspended in rat cardiomyocyte media at a density that ensured adjacent cardiomyocytes did

not touch. Cardiomyocytes were cultured at 37°C and 5% CO_2 with 25 μmol/L of cytochalasin

D. The viability of rat cardiomyocytes upon isolation was typically on the order of 50-75% rod-

shaped, electrically excitable cells, and the survivability for 48hrs of culture is >80% (See

Heffler et al. [24]for our quantification of cardiomyocyte morphology in culture).

Rat cardiomyocyte media: medium 199 (Thermo Fisher 115090) supplemented with 1x Insulin-

transferrin-selenium-X (Gibco 51500056), 1 µg µl^{-1} primocin (Invivogen ant-pm-1), 20 mmol/L

HEPES at pH 7.4 and 25 µmol/L cytochalasin D.

Fractionation assay of free tubulin and cold-sensitive microtubules

Free tubulin was separated from cold-labile microtubules using a protocol adapted from Tsutusi

et al., 1993 and Ostlud et al., 1979. Isolated rat cardiomyocytes were washed once with PBS and

homogenized with 250 ul of microtubule stabilizing buffer using a tissue homogenizer. The

homogenate was centrifuged at 100,000 xg for 15 minutes at 25°C and the resulting supernatant

was stored at -80°C as the free tubulin fraction. The pellet was resuspended in ice-cold

microtubule destabilizing buffer and incubated at 0°C for 1 hour. After centrifugation at 100,000

xg for 15 minutes at 4°C the supernatant containing the cold-labile microtubule fraction was

stored at -80°C.

Microtubule stabilizing buffer: 0.5 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.5 mM EGTA, 10mM Na_3PO_4, 0.5 mM GTP,

and 1X protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Cell Signaling #5872S) at pH 6.95

Microtubule destabilizing buffer: 0.25 M sucrose, 0.5 mM $MgCl_2$ 10 mM Na_3PO_4, 0.5 mM GTP,

and 1X protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Cell Signaling #5872S) at pH 6.95

Western blot

For whole cell protein extraction, isolated rat cardiomyocytes were lysed in RIPA buffer

(Cayman #10010263) supplemented with protease and phosphatase Inhibitor cocktail (Cell

Signaling #5872S) on ice for 1 hour. The supernatant was collected and combined with 4X

loading dye (Li-COR #928-40004), supplemented with 10% 2-mercaptoethonol, and boiled for

10 minutes. The resulting lysate was resolved on SDS-PAGE gel and protein was blotted to

nitrocellulose membrane (Li-COR #926-31902) with mini Trans-Blot Cell (Bio-Rad).

Membranes were blocked for an hour in Odyssey Blocking Buffer (TBS) (LI-COR #927-50000)

and probed with corresponding primary antibodies overnight at 4 °C. Membranes were rinsed

with TBS containing 0.5% Tween 20 (TBST) three times and incubated with secondary

antibodies TBS supplemented with extra 0.2% Tween 20 for 1 hour at room temperature.

Membranes were washed again with TBST (0.5% Tween 20) and imaged on an Odyssey Imager.

Image analysis was performed using Image Studio Lite software (LI-COR). All samples were

run in duplicates and analyzed in reference to GAPDH.

Antibodies and labels

Acetylated tubulin; mouse monoclonal (Sigma T6793-100UL); western blot: 1: 1,000

Detyrosinated tubulin; rabbit polyclonal (Abcam ab48389); western blot: 1: 1,000

Alpha tubulin; mouse monoclonal, clone DM1A (Cell Signaling #3873); western blot: 1:1,000

Beta tubulin; rabbit polyclonal (Abcam ab6046); western blot: 1,000

Tyrosinated tubulin; mouse monoclonal (Sigma T9028-.2ML); Immunofluorescence: 1:1000

Desmin; rabbit polyclonal (ThermoFisher PA5-16705); western blot and immunofluorescence: 1:

1,000

GAPDH; mouse monoclonal (VWR GenScript A01622-40); western blot: 1:1,000

Goat anti-mouse AF 488 (1:1000 Life Technologies A11001)

Goat anti-rabbit AF 565 (1:1000 Life Technologies A11011)

IRDye 680RD Donkey anti-Mouse IgG (H + L) (LI-COR 926-68072); western blot: 1:10,000.

IRDye 800CW Donkey anti-Rabbit IgG (H + L) (LI-COR 926-32213); western blot: 1:10,000.

Microtubule Dynamics by EB3

Isolated rat cardiomyocytes were infected with an adenovirus containing an EB3-GFP construct.

After 48 hours, cells were imaged on an LSM Zeiss 880 inverted confocal microscope using a

40X oil 1.4 numerical aperture objective. Cells expressing EB3-GFP only at the tip were imaged

for four minutes at a rate of 1fps. Files were blinded, Gaussian blurred, and Z-compressed using

Image J (National Institutes of Health) to generate kymographs. The number of catastrophes,

rescues, and pauses were recorded per kymograph in addition to manual tracing of microtubule

runs to quantify time, distance, and velocity of microtubule growth or shrinkage. We refer to the

entire kymograph as the microtubule 'track' that is made up of individual growth and shrinkage

events we call 'runs'. Catastrophe and rescue frequency were calculated per cell by dividing the

number of catastrophes or rescues by total time spent in growth or shrinkage time, respectively.

Catastrophes and rescues occurring specifically on or off the Z-disc were normalized by the total

time of microtubule growth and shrinkage. Experimental values were normalized to their

respective control cells (Null for TTL and E331Q, or shScrm for shDes) acquired from the same

animals. A minimum of 3 separate cell isolations were performed for each group.

Immunofluorescence

Cells were fixed in pre-chilled 100% methanol for 8 minutes at -20°C. Cells were washed 4x

then blocked with Sea Block Blocking Buffer (abcam #166951) for at least 1 hour followed by

antibody incubation for 24-48 hours. Incubation was followed by washing 3x with Sea Block,

then incubated with secondary antibody for 1 hour. Fixed cells were mounted using Prolong

Diamond (Thermo #P36961)

We used ImageJ to calculate the percent area fraction of both desmin and microtubules. An ROI

was drawn to include the entire cell boundary minus the nucleus. For each image we identified

the percent fractional coverage of a fluorescence signal over a manually identified threshold as

described previously[10].

Buckling analysis

Adult rat cardiomyocytes were isolated as previously described and infected with adenovirus

carrying the microtubule-binding protein EMTB chimerically fused to 3 copies of GFP. The

purpose of this construct was to label microtubules fluorescently for imaging. The cells were

allowed 48 hours to express the construct. All cells chosen were those that contained sufficient

brightness and contrast to observe microtubule elements and where the health of the myocyte

was not compromised. To interrogate microtubule buckling amplitude and wavelength, cells

were induced to contract at 1 Hz 25 V and imaged during the contraction. For analysis, images

were blinded, and a microtubule was located that could be followed during the contraction. The

backbone was manually traced at rest and during its peak of contraction and the ROI was saved.

The ROI was then analyzed using a macro that rotated so that the ROI had the peak of

contraction 90 degrees to the axis of contraction to protect from aliasing errors. The program

then calculated the distance between the axis of the ROI and its peak and calculated the peak

(amplitude) and the width (half wavelength).

Electron Microscopy

Transmission electron microscopy images were collected as previously described [24]. Images at

7500x were rotated so the cells were parallel to the longitudinal axis. ROIs were generated

between adjacent Z-discs to quantify sarcomere spacing and the angle relative to 90°.

Statistics

Statistical analysis was performed using OriginPro (Version 2018). Normality was determined

by Shapiro-Wilk test. For normally distributed data, two sample t-test or one-way ANOVA was

utilized as appropriate. For non-normally distributed data, two sample Kolmogrov-Smirnov test

or Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA was utilized as appropriate. Specific statistical tests and information

of biological and technical replicates can be found in the figure legends. Unless otherwise noted,

'N' indicates the number of cells analyzed and 'n' indicates number of microtubule runs.

S. Figure 1. Supplemental figures associated with figure 1. A Representative western blot (**top**) and
quantification (**bottom**) for α-tubulin, dTyr tubulin, and GAPDH in free and cold-sensitive fractions from rat
cardiomyocytes infected with null, TTL, or E331Q adenovirus. **B** Representative western blot (**top**) and
quantification (**bottom**) for α-tubulin, dTyr tubulin, and GAPDH in free and cold-sensitive fractions from rat
cardiomyocytes either infected with null, HDAC, or ATAT1 adenovirus or treated with DMSO or TubA. Statistical
significance determined via ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni test.

S. Figure 2. Supplemental figures associated with figure 2. A Background (**left**) EB3-GFP fluorescence intensity, EB3 tip fluorescence intensity (**center**) and the ratio of EB3 tip fluorescence intensity to microtubule EB3 intensity (**right**) in isolated rat cardiomyocytes co-infected with null, TTL, or E331Q adenovirus. Statistical significance determined via ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni test. **B** Representative EB3-GFP kymograph from isolated rat cardiomyocyte before and after 0.5 Hz electrical stimulation. **C** Quantification of catastrophe frequency, rescue frequency, microtubule growth displacement and growth velocity before and after electrical stimulation. **D** To reduce levels of detyrosination in this study we relied on overexpression of TTL, which is known to associate with the free α/β tubulin heterodimer in a 1:1 complex with a K_d of 1 μM[38]. Due to the nature of this interaction, TTL overexpression can decrease the amount of "polymerization-competent" tubulin, leading to a decrease of *in vitro* microtubule polymerization[38]. The relationship between free tubulin concentration and microtubule polymerization is described as a simple 1D model below, where v_g is the velocity of microtubule growth, *d* is the dimer length (assumed to be 8 nm), k_{on} is the tubulin dimer association constant per protofilament (assumed to be 4.8 $\mu M^{-1}s^{-1}$)[30], k_{off} is the tubulin dissociation rate constant per protofilament (assumed to be $15s^{-1}$)[30], and [Tb] is the concentration of free tubulin[39].

$$v_g = d\left(k_{on}[Tb] - k_{off}\right).$$

Solving for the equation of the line at a physiologic tubulin concentration of 5μM provides a theoretical value of 4.32 μm s^{-1} for growth velocity. Using the K_d value for TTL-tubulin interaction at a tubulin concentration of 5μM suggests that an 8-fold overexpression of TTL [14]will produce 0.2 μM of TTL-tubulin complex. If we assume that tubulin bound to TTL cannot be polymerized, then only 4.8 μM of free tubulin is polymerization-competent at any time. This change in polymerization-competent tubulin would lead to ~10% decrease in growth velocity. We did not observe an effect of E331Q on microtubule growth kinetics or on event frequency suggesting that the local tubulin concentration at the microtubule plus-tip is unaffected by the sequestration activity of TTL. Statistical significance determined via 2-sided t test.

S. Figure 3. Supplemental figures associated with figure 3. A Representative western blot (**top**) and quantification (**bottom**) for α-tubulin and GAPDH in free and cold-sensitive fractions from rat cardiomyocytes infected with adenovirus containing scramble shRNA (scrm) or shRNA for desmin (Des KD). **B** Representative electron microscopy images of isolated rat cardiomyocytes with or without desmin knockdown. **C** Probability density plot of angle (**top**) and distance (**bottom**) between adjacent Z-discs with or without desmin knockdown.

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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