Drosophila Tropomodulin is required for multiple actin-dependent

processes in myofiber assembly and maintenance

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SUMMARY STATEMENT

Drosophila Tropomodulin knockdown in larval myofibers results in myopathy-related phenotypes. Our findings support that Tmod acts in actin-related processes at different subcellular locales, all critical for muscle integrity.

ABSTRACT

Proper muscle contraction requires the assembly and maintenance of sarcomeres and myofibrils. While the protein components of myofibrils are generally known, less is known about the mechanisms by which they individually function and together synergize for myofibril assembly and maintenance. For example, it is unclear how the disruption of actin filament (F-actin) regulatory proteins leads to the muscle weakness observed in myopathies. Here, we show that knockdown of *Drosophila* Tropomodulin (Tmod), a F-actin pointed-end capping protein, results in several myopathy-related phenotypes, including reduction of muscle cell (myofiber) size, increased sarcomere length, disorganization and misorientation of myofibrils, ectopic F-actin accumulation, loss of tension-mediating proteins at the myotendinous junction, and misshaped and internalized nuclei. Our findings support and extend the tension-driven self-organization myofibrillogenesis model. We show that, like its mammalian counterpart, *Drosophila* Tmod caps filament pointed ends, and this activity is critical for cellular processes in different locations within the myofiber that directly and indirectly contribute to the maintenance of muscle function. Our findings provide significant insights to the role of Tmod in muscle development, maintenance, and disease.

INTRODUCTION

Skeletal muscle cells, or myofibers, perform many functions essential for survival, including locomotion, breathing, and eating. Myofibers are comprised of myofibrils, each consisting of an array of repeating units known as sarcomeres. Sarcomeres are the fundamental contractile machinery of the muscle, and contain three main structural elements: thin filaments, thick filaments, and Z-discs [reviewed in Sweeney and Hammers (2018)]. Z-discs are the thin filament attachment site and are composed of many proteins, including α-actinin and Zasp. Thin filaments are comprised primarily of actin filaments (F-actin) and actin binding proteins, including proteins important for anchorage to the Z-disc such as CapZ, for contraction such as troponin and tropomyosin, and for F-actin length regulation such as nebulin and tropomodulin (Tmod) [reviewed in Szikora et al. (2022), Ghosh and Fowler (2021), Fowler and Dominguez (2017)]. Thick filaments are composed primarily of myosin and myosin-associated proteins. Sliding of the thin filaments past the thick filaments brings the Z-discs closer together (contraction) and generates force in a calcium-regulated manner. While much is known about the protein composition and function of sarcomeres and myofibrils, critical questions remain regarding the mechanisms controlling their formation and maintenance.

Although myofibrillogenesis is not well understood, the most widely accepted model suggests that tension is essential for this process. According to this model, once the myofiber has attached to tendon cells, short F-actin stochastically attach to each other and to the myofiber ends via tension-activated proteins such as β-Integrin and Talin. Through a positive feedback loop, initial tension attracts more tension-activated proteins, leading to further tension and myofibril assembly and maturation along the longitudinal axis of the myofiber (Lemke and Schnorrer, 2017, Lemke et al., 2019, Pines et al., 2012, Weitkunat et al., 2014, Sparrow and Schock, 2009). Subsequently, tension along the myofibrils is required for additional growth and organization along the long axis of the myofiber (LeGoff and Lecuit, 2015). Several other processes have been implicated in regulating myofibrillogenesis and myofibril maintenance. Firstly, the mechanical interplay between mitochondrial dynamics and myofibril morphogenesis suggests that mitochondria influence myofibrillogenesis and vice versa (Avellaneda et al., 2021). Secondly, myofibrils undergo dynamic protein turnover without compromising their organization during active contraction and myofibrillogenesis (Sanger and Sanger, 2008, Ono, 2010, Littlefield and Fowler, 2008). Finally, actin regulatory proteins that control the ratio of monomeric (G-actin) to F-actin in the cell are thought to be critical for myofibril assembly and turnover (Littlefield and Fowler, 2008,

Deng et al., 2021). While some contributing factors of myofibril formation and maintenance have

been identified, their interplay and molecular mechanisms are incompletely understood.

Mutations in sarcomere genes are linked to skeletal muscle diseases such as nemaline myopathy

(NM), which presents with defective contraction and muscle weakness (Bonnemann and Laing,

2004, Cassandrini et al., 2017, Tubridy et al., 2001, de Winter and Ottenheijm, 2017). NM is

associated specifically with mutations in thin filament genes, including ACTA1, NEB, LMOD3,

CFL2, TPM2, TPM3, TNNT1, TNNT3 and MYPN [reviewed in Laitila and Wallgren-Pettersson

(2021), Christophers et al. (2022)]. In addition to the growing list of mutations identified in human

patients, Tmod mutant zebrafish show a NM-like phenotype and muscle weakness (Berger et al.,

2014). Studies in a variety of model systems have demonstrated that Tmod is a key component

of the thin filament that regulates F-actin length by capping the pointed end to inhibit monomer

addition/dissociation (Molnar et al., 2014, Berger et al., 2022, Littlefield et al., 2001). Tmod is also

related in sequence and structure to Leiomodin (Lmod), an actin filament nucleator [(Chereau et

al., 2008) and reviewed in Fowler and Dominguez (2017), Yamashiro et al. (2012)], whose

deficiency has been linked to NM (Yuen et al., 2014, Cenik et al., 2015). Some Tmods also have

low nucleation activity (Fischer et al., 2006, Yamashiro et al., 2010, Yamashiro et al., 2014). While

humans have four *TMOD* and three *LMOD* genes that cap and nucleate F-actin, respectively,

Drosophila has no Lmod, but expresses 18 different Tmod splice variants. It is unknown, however,

which Tmod isoforms are the most abundant in *Drosophila* muscle and whether individual

isoforms cap or nucleate F-actin. It is also unknown whether and how the disruption of Tmod

isoforms in *Drosophila* would result in the variety of NM-like defects observed in zebrafish and

other organisms.

Previous studies in muscle mainly focused on the role of Tmod and Lmod in regulating sarcomeric

F-actin. However, similar to other cell types, cytoplasmic F-actin plays several essential roles in

myofibers: maintenance of intracellular structure by tethering myofibrils to the plasma membrane

and the extracellular matrix (ECM), organization of myofiber organelles and vesicle trafficking,

and movement and anchoring of myonuclei at the periphery of the myofiber [reviewed in Davidson

and Cadot (2021), Charvet et al. (2012), Kee et al. (2009)]. The disruption of cytoplasmic F-actin

dynamics could contribute to muscle deterioration and weakness and has not been

comprehensively studied. In this work, we analyze the effects of Tmod knockdown (KD) in

Drosophila larval muscle. We observe progressive muscle deterioration both structural and

functional, with defects in muscle size, sarcomere length, myofibril homeostasis, integrin-based

myofibril attachment at the muscle ends, and myonuclear shape and activity. In parallel with the
breakdown of myofibrillar organization, Tmod KD myofibers show ectopic accumulations of F-
actin. Transcriptomic analyses reveal downregulation of proteasomal degradation and
upregulation of oxidative metabolism. Biochemically, *Drosophila* Tmod exclusively acts as an
actin capping protein which, in addition to regulating thin filament length, plays a critical role in
establishing tension along the myofiber. The phenotypes generated by loss of Tmod support and
extend the leading hypothesis of myofibrillogenesis and suggest a role for Tmod in myofibril
assembly and maintenance. We propose that Tmod's function as an F-actin capping protein is
critical in a variety of locations within the myofiber that directly and indirectly contribute to
maintaining muscle function.
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RESULTS

Drosophila Tmod is required for larval muscle integrity

To identify genes with a critical role in muscle development and disease, we performed a limited screen in *Drosophila melanogaster*. We used a muscle-specific driver (*Dmef2-Gal4*) line and available RNAi lines to knock down homologues of human proteins implicated in the regulation of myofibril/sarcomere structure and function (Schnorrer et al., 2010) (Table S1). We screened for embryonic lethality, muscle defects in late third instar larvae (visible by Zasp::GFP, a marker of sarcomeres), pupal lethality, and adult flight (Table S2). Expression of *tmod* RNAi resulted in phenotypes that suggested a critical role in maintaining muscle integrity and function. We confirmed the KD phenotypes using three different RNAi lines and a homozygous *tmod* mutant, and assessed KD levels by qRT-PCR, immunofluorescence, and Western blot analyses (Fig. S1). Based on these results, we selected *tmod* for further study in larval myofibers and used one RNAi line for subsequent KD experiments, dsRNA-HMS02283 (Perkins et al., 2015), as it exhibited an intermediate phenotype and degree of mRNA KD.

The *Drosophila* larva is a segmented organism with three thoracic and eight abdominal body segments (A1-A8), each consisting of a stereotyped pattern of ~30 unique body muscles (Bate, 1990). Here we focused on two ventral longitudinal (VL) muscles, VL3 and VL4 (also known as muscle 6 and 7), which are flat rectangular cells with nuclei located on one cell surface (Fig. 1A-C). These muscles were selected because they are easily assessable and well characterized (Windner et al., 2019). Muscle-specific Tmod KD resulted in a striking phenotype at the end of larval development (late third instar), with a significant reduction in myofiber size (Fig. 1D,E). While the myofiber length was conserved, the width was reduced by 30-60%, resulting in a bone-like shape (Fig. 1D-F). In addition, we observed several distinct morphological features: increased sarcomere length (Fig. 1G), disorganized and misoriented myofibrils (Fig. 1I), ectopic F-actin accumulation (Fig. 1D,E), and misshaped and often internalized nuclei (Fig. 1J). Strikingly, intact and aligned myofibrils with changes in sarcomere length were restricted to the cuticular side of the myofiber. In contrast, the visceral muscle surface, which includes the myonuclei, was completely disorganized (Fig. 1E). These observations supported a crucial function for Tmod in regulating sarcomeric actin and myofibril stability. Furthermore, they suggested additional role(s) of Tmod in the regulation of non-sarcomeric actin, including the stabilization of nuclei and the control of other cellular processes that occur among the nuclei at the myofiber surface.

Tmod KD muscles deteriorate in a specific pattern

Drosophila larval development can be divided into four stages: first instar, second instar, early
third instar and late third instar (the last two hours of this last stage is called the "wandering"
stage), during which body wall muscles grow dramatically in size (25 to 40-fold). Over this four-
day period, new sarcomeres are assembled, and new myofibrils are added, while nuclear number
remains constant (Demontis and Perrimon, 2009, Bai et al., 2007, Balakrishnan et al., 2020). The
muscle phenotypes described above were found in Tmod KD late third instar larvae (see also Fig.
S1B); however, not all segments throughout the larva were affected equally. Instead, we found a
gradient of muscle phenotypes along the larval anterior-posterior (AP) axis. Myofibers in more
anterior segments (A1, A2) had severely disrupted myofibrils and nuclei, while posterior ones (A5,
A6) maintained nuclear shape and position and exhibited a milder myofibrillar phenotype.

To further investigate this pattern, we analyzed Tmod KD phenotypes along the larval AP axis
and across larval development. In first instar larvae, we observed wildtype (WT)-like muscles,
which contained the typical conserved arrays of sarcomeres. The first observed defects in the
Tmod KD myofibers were diagonal myofibrils at the myofiber ends of segments A1 and A2 in
second instar larvae (Fig. 2A; Fig. S2). At the early third instar stage, these defects also appeared
in mid-segments (A4, A5) and became even more pronounced in the anterior segments, which
displayed ectopic diagonally intersecting grouped myofibrils (Fig. 2B,D; Fig. S2). At the late third
instar stage, the stereotypical myofibrillar pattern was disrupted almost entirely on the visceral
side of anterior segments and large bundles of anchored F-actin mostly replaced organized
myofibrils (Fig. 2C,F; Fig. S2). Occasionally, interlaced "braided" myofibrils formed at the
beginning of late third instar, and ectopic radial F-actin accumulations arose by the end of late
third instar (Fig. 2E,G). Additionally, once the first diagonally misoriented myofibrils were observed
along a myofiber's long axis, perpendicular myofibrils were found adjacent to the myotendinous
junction (MTJ) at the posterior myofiber end (Fig. 2B). These perpendicular myofibrils also later
developed at the anterior end of the myofibers (Fig. 2C). Nuclear irregularities also first appeared
in anterior segments during late third instar stage and, together with ectopic F-actin structures,
were only observed in anterior segments.

These data suggested that Tmod KD myofibers experience a specific temporal and spatial pattern
of structural changes. As the myofibrillar phenotypes progress during larval development, the
diagonal misoriented myofibrils are replaced by ectopic F-actin bundles, which suggests these
structures are of sarcomeric origin rather than cytoplasmic. The muscle phenotypes appeared in
parallel with larval growth, with the most severe disruptions occurring in dramatically growing third

instar larvae. In addition, most muscles are larger in anterior abdominal than posterior segments.
These correlations indicated that mechanisms of muscle growth and/or homeostasis could be
affected in Tmod KD myofibers.
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Tmod's canonical role as a pointed end capping protein is conserved in *Drosophila*
To better understand how loss of Tmod leads to these phenotypes, we studied the biochemical
activity of *Drosophila* Tmod using purified proteins *in vitro*. Tmod's canonical role in vertebrates
is filament pointed end capping (Dye et al., 1998, Weber et al., 1994, Gregorio et al., 1995,
Mardahl-Dumesnil and Fowler, 2001, Fowler and Dominguez, 2017). However, some Tmods also
have limited actin filament nucleation activity (Fischer et al., 2006, Yamashiro et al., 2010,
Yamashiro et al., 2014), mimicking to some extent the activity of Tmod's structural homolog Lmod
that has strong nucleation activity (Chereau et al., 2008). Lmod is not expressed in *Drosophila*.
Nonetheless, while mammals express only four Tmod isoforms, *Drosophila* expresses 18 different
splice variants. Moreover, several *Drosophila* Tmod isoforms differ substantially in sequence from
their mammalian counterparts, displaying N- and/or C-terminal amino acid extensions reminiscent
of those present in mammalian Lmods (Fig. S3D). These observations led us to ask whether
Drosophila Tmod isoforms capped pointed-ends or nucleated filaments.
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Out of the Tmod isoforms that were directly affected by the KD (Fig. S3A-C), we chose two for *in*
vitro analysis based on sequence analysis and their abundance in control vs. KD muscle. The
knockdown strategy targeted transcripts either at the 3'-UTR region or at the last intronic region
and reduced the levels of most of the *Drosophila* Tmod isoforms (Fig. S3C). However, the RNAi
construct did not target or sufficiently KD three isoforms (A, B, P) (Fig. S3B). Additionally, six
isoforms (C, E, G, H, N, R) were either non-detected or were expressed at low levels in control
muscle (Fig. S3A). Sequence analysis further showed that all the *Drosophila* Tmod isoforms share
an identical central region, displaying strong similarity with mammalian Tmods (Fig. S3D). This
region comprises all domains implicated in pointed-end capping, including two Tropomyosin- and
two actin-binding sites (Rao et al., 2014). Three of the isoforms have Pro-rich C-terminal
extensions (isoforms G, N, R), but these are among the isoforms expressed at low levels and
were not further considered (Fig. S3A; Table S3). Thus, we focused on isoforms differing at the
N-terminus. Based on their N-termini, the 18 isoforms can be classified into four subgroups; those
lacking an N-terminal extension (isoforms A, H) and those displaying extensions of 88 (isoforms
D, E, F, G, I, L, M, N, P, Q, R), 58 (isoforms C, J, K, O), and 52 (isoform B) amino acids. Isoforms
Q, O, and K, representing two different N-terminal subgroups, had the highest abundance and

thus contributed the most to the KD phenotype (Fig. S3A-B; Table S3). These isoforms were
chosen for in-depth biochemical analysis (note that isoforms O and K have identical protein
sequences).

We expressed TmodQ, TmodO/K, and human TMOD3 (a control for capping activity) in *E. coli*
and purified them using dual N-terminal His and C-terminal Strep affinity tags. We monitored the
effect of TmodQ and TmodO/K on actin assembly using the pyrene-actin polymerization assay
(Doolittle et al., 2013). Pre-formed F-actin seeds, coated with Tropomyosin and capped at the
barbed end with saturating amounts of CapZ, were incubated with varying concentrations of
Tmod. Upon addition of G-actin (6% pyrene-labeled), reactions were monitored as the
fluorescence increase resulting from the incorporation of pyrene-actin monomers at the pointed-
end (Fig. 3, Fig. S3). Because the concentration of actin monomers (1.5 μM) is higher than the
critical concentration for monomer addition at the pointed-end (~0.6 μM), pointed-end capping
under these conditions would be observed as a decrease in fluorescence with increasing Tmod
concentration, resulting from inhibition of monomer addition at the pointed-end. If, on the contrary,
Tmod were to nucleate filaments from monomers we would observe an increase in fluorescence
(i.e. polymerization), resulting from the formation and elongation of new barbed-ends. Similar to
human Tmod3, TmodQ and TmodO/K reduced polymerization in a concentration-dependent
manner (Fig. 3A and Fig. S3E-F). These results suggested that the two representative *Drosophila*
Tmod isoforms analyzed function as bona fide pointed-end cappers like their mammalian Tmods,
and not nucleators like mammalian Lmods. Therefore, the observed KD phenotypes are most
likely due to a deficiency in pointed-end capping.

Tmod regulates thin filament and sarcomere length
Previous work in different contexts has shown that Tmod regulates sarcomere length by capping
the pointed-end of sarcomeric F-actin [reviewed in Littlefield and Fowler (2008), Ghosh and
Fowler (2021)]. To assess the effects of Tmod KD in *Drosophila* larval myofibers, we quantified
muscle length, Z-disc number, and sarcomere sizes in second and late third instar larvae. We
found that at both timepoints Tmod KD myofibers had fewer Z-discs than control myofibers with
the same length (Fig. S4). Z-disc numbers were reduced by 15% in the second instar and by 26%
in late third instar, indicating that sarcomere size increased in growing Tmod KD myofibers.
Accordingly, the distance between Z-discs revealed a significant 22% and 31% increase in
sarcomere length in Tmod KD muscles at the second and late third instar stages, respectively
(Fig. 3C,D). To confirm that Tmod regulates sarcomere size via its effect on thin filaments, we

quantified sarcomeric F-actin length in late third instar larvae. We detected a 35% increase in thin
filament length in Tmod KD myofibers. Interestingly, the proportion of thin filament length to
sarcomere length was similar to control, whereby thin filaments account for 25% of sarcomere
length in both genotypes (Fig. 3B,F). Together these data suggested that the capping of
sarcomeric F-actin by Tmod is required to prevent increases in sarcomere size during muscle
growth. The same ratio of thin filaments to sarcomere length in Tmod KD and control myofibers
further indicates that independent mechanisms maintain sarcomere proportions.

Sarcomere size is highly conserved for optimal contraction, and changes in its size have been
linked to reduced muscle function (Fernandes and Schock, 2014, Molnar et al., 2014, Spletter et
al., 2018, Spletter et al., 2015). To assess the functional consequences of muscle-specific Tmod
KD, we performed larval locomotion assays. We analyzed larval velocity throughout larval
developmental and observed a significant decrease in myofiber function, starting at second instar
stage and throughout larval development (Fig. 3E). These data suggest that targeted KD of Tmod
caused myofiber weakness even before the appearance of obvious muscle deterioration, and that
changes in thin filament length could be the first effect of Tmod KD to reduce muscle function.

Tmod stabilizes core components of the muscle attachment site
The current model of sarcomere assembly and myofibrillogenesis suggests that tension is crucial
for this process. Specifically, the muscle attachment sites at the MTJs play a fundamental role in
generating tension within a myofiber. The MTJ represents an analogous structure to focal
adhesion sites (Atherton et al., 2016, Martino et al., 2018, Pardo et al., 1983, Quach and Rando,
2006, Mohammad et al., 2012), which are composed of the Vinculin-Talin-Integrin complex
tethering the actin cytoskeleton to the ECM, or in the case of the myofiber, the myofibrils to the
muscle attachment site. We hypothesized that Tmod could function at the MTJs to generate the
myofibril phenotypes that we observed.

In accordance with this hypothesis, we detected Tmod protein localized at the ends of control
myofibers, adjacent to myofibrillar F-actin and co-localizing with β_{PS}-Integrin (Mys) (Fig. 4A,C). To
determine if myofibril attachment was affected in Tmod KD myofibers, we evaluated protein levels
of the tension-mediating proteins β_{PS}-Integrin and its binding partner Talin (Rhea). Our
quantifications in second and late third instar larvae indicated a significant decrease of β_{PS}-
Integrin and Talin at Tmod KD MTJs in anterior segments (Fig. 4E,F; Fig. S5A-C), however we
did not detect detachment of myofibers. To determine whether the strong decrease in signal was

due to mislocalization or an overall decrease in protein levels, we performed Western blot

analysis. Tmod KD muscle lysates did not show a decrease in Talin levels in late third instar larvae

(Fig. 4B), suggesting that Talin is mislocalized. Upon further examination of the immunolabelling

experiments, we observed pools of enriched β_{PS}-Integrin and Talin in ectopic areas (Fig. 4F).

These data suggest the actin capping function of Tmod is required for establishing the proper

anchorage sites at the myofiber ends by stabilizing the interaction between F-actin filaments and

tension-mediating proteins.

To address whether mislocalization of β_{PS}-Integrin and Talin correlated with a loss of tension at

the MTJ, we labelled for phospho-tyrosine (pTyr), a marker of active cytoskeletal tension sites

(Chrzanowska-Wodnicka and Burridge, 1994, Martino et al., 2018, Parsons et al., 2010). We

observed a significant decrease in pTyr labeling at Tmod KD MTJs (Fig. 4F; Fig. S5D), indicating

reduced tension at these attachment sites. Together, these experiments suggested a decrease

in mechansensory proteins and a reduction of tension at the muscle ends. A lack of tension could

cause myofibrillar disorganization and impaired myofibrillogenesis in the Tmod KD myofibers.

Tmod plays a role in myonuclear morphology, positioning, and function

Cytoplasmic actin filaments are found in and around the nucleus (Davidson and Cadot, 2021,

Caridi et al., 2019). These filaments play roles in gene expression, in the cell's response to

mechanical stimuli, and in nuclear positioning in several systems (Farina et al., 2016, Verheyen

and Cooley, 1994, Chang et al., 2015). We hypothesized that Tmod KD could affect cytoplasmic

F-actin to generate the nuclear phenotypes that we observed. Control *Drosophila* larvae displayed

multiple, evenly spaced, round disc-shaped and linearly organized nuclei on the visceral side of

each myofiber. In contrast, many Tmod KD nuclei were elongated, with an increased perimeter

compared to control (Fig. 5A-C). Along the longitudinal cell axis, the most irregular shaped nuclei

were located towards the middle of the myofiber (Fig. 5D). It is possible that Tmod KD directly

affected F-actin dynamics that stabilize nuclear shape and position. Unfortunately, imaging of

cytoplasmic or nuclear F-actin in myofibers is obstructed by the bright signal of the underlying

sarcomeres, which prevented the further analysis of direct effects of Tmod KD on cytoskeleton

and nucleoskeleton in this study.

In myofibers, stable radial microtubule (MT) arrays around the nuclei are key for maintaining

positioning and nuclear integrity during contraction (Zheng et al., 2020, Becker et al., 2020,

Manhart et al., 2018, Metzger et al., 2012). In addition, MTs are known to physically interact with

actin (Farina et al., 2016, Dogterom and Koenderink, 2019), which raises the possibility that actin-

MT crosstalk is involved in maintaining nuclear shape and position. To assess if perinuclear MTs

were affected in Tmod KD muscles, we quantified the number of intact radial MT arrays in control

and Tmod KD myofibers. We observed a significant decrease in intact perinuclear MT arrays in

Tmod KD muscles and noted a decrease in longitudinal MT-tracks when compared to controls

(Fig. 5E; Fig. S6A). These data indicated that Tmod affects critical MT networks in myofibers, by

mediating, we suggest, the interactions of the MT cytoskeleton with actin filaments in/around the

nuclei. A loss of perinuclear MTs could subsequently result in destabilization of nuclear shape

and position.

To test if nuclear activity was affected by changes in nuclear morphology, we analyzed the

transcriptional and translational potential of Tmod KD myonuclei. To assess transcription, we

quantified immunolabeling of H3K9ac, a marker of open chromatin and transcriptionally active

regions in the DNA. This analysis revealed that nuclei with the most irregular shapes (below 0.6

roundness) exhibited decreased H3K9ac levels, whereas WT-shaped nuclei (above 0.6

roundness) showed similar H3K9ac levels to control (Fig. 5F,H; Fig. S6B). To assess translation,

we quantified nuclear labeling intensity of Fibrillarin (Fib), a nucleolar protein that plays an

essential role in ribosome biogenesis and is a commonly used marker for protein synthesis

(Gillery et al., 1996, Lefevre et al., 2001). We found that misshaped nuclei (below 0.6 roundness)

exhibited similar Fib intensity levels to control nuclei, while WT-shaped nuclei (above 0.6

roundness) showed higher levels than controls (Fig. 5G,I; Fig. S6C). These data suggested that

loss of nuclear shape and position in Tmod KD myofibers reduced transcriptional output but

increased translational potential. While deformed nuclei are functionally compromised, WT-

shaped nuclei in the Tmod KD muscle appeared to compensate for this deficiency by increasing

translation.

Tmod KD affects actin isoforms, proteasomal degradation, and oxidative metabolism

To better understand the mechanisms behind the observed phenotypes and uncover additional

effects of Tmod KD, we analyzed the transcriptome of Tmod KD larvae. Consistent with the

morphological features found in Tmod KD muscle, we detected misregulation of actin genes. For

example, the sarcomeric actin isoforms (Act57B and Act87B) (Roper et al., 2005, Fyrberg et al.,

1983) were upregulated (Fig. 6; Table S4) in accordance with the ectopic F-actin bundles that we

observe (Fig. 2, 6E), which supports a sarcomeric origin for these structures. In contrast,

cytoplasmic actin isoforms (Act5C and Act42A) were downregulated in Tmod KD myofibers (Fig.

6E; Table S4), consistent with the alterations in nuclear shape detected in Tmod KD. We also

performed an over-representation analysis (ORA) to determine if a set of shared genes was

differentially expressed based on Gene Onthology (GO) and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and

Genomes (KEGG) gene sets. The data indicated that degradation-related genes (particularly

proteasomal genes) and/or pathways were downregulated, while metabolism-linked genes

(particularly oxidative metabolism genes) and/or pathways were upregulated in Tmod KD larvae

(Fig. 6A,B). Specifically, we observed upregulation of mitochondrial metabolism genes from both

glycolysis and oxidative phosphorylation. However, genes involved in oxidative metabolism and

linked to ATP production were particularly enriched. To test whether ATP production was indeed

altered in Tmod KD muscles, we performed a functional ATPase assay. Consistent with our

RNAseq data, we observed that ATP levels were significantly increased in Tmod KD myofibers

by at least 2-fold (Fig. 6C). Together, these data suggest a role for Tmod, either directly or

indirectly, in gene expression. We speculate that these changes reflect a compensatory

mechanism to promote growth in a degenerating muscle.

DISCUSSION

Tmod function in the actin cytoskeleton has been studied using various cell types, including in the sarcomere of myofibers (Fowler, 1997). Here we investigated the effects of Tmod KD in *Drosophila* larval myofibers during development using a combination of detailed *in vivo* analyses, *in vitro* experiments, and transcriptomic approaches. Tmod KD muscles exhibit: (1) increased thin filament and sarcomere length; (2) reduced tension at the cell ends, disorganized myofibrils and impaired myofibrillogenesis; (3) ectopic accumulation of non-sarcomeric F-actin; and (4) misshaped and internalized nuclei with impaired function. In addition, our data show an enrichment of metabolism-linked genes and ATP production, and decreased expression of degradation-linked genes. Together, our studies suggest that through its capping function, Tmod affects actin dynamics in different locations within the muscle fiber and is ultimately essential for muscle function.

We propose the following model for Tmod's pleiotropic effects in muscle cells (Fig 7). In the sarcomere, the barbed end of F-actin is capped by CapZ and anchored to the Z-disc, while the pointed-end is capped by Tmod. However, due to Tmod's low affinity for F-actin, there are yet opportunities for monomer addition and therefore, the pointed-end remains suitable for sarcomere growth. When Tmod is removed, thin filaments grow in length, consistent with other studies. We suggest that this additional polymerization would cause sufficient imbalance to favor the production of muscle-specific larval G-actin isoforms (Act57B and Act 87E); this increased G-actin availability and continuously growing sarcomeric F-actin would lead to the formation of ectopic F-actin bundles and radial F-actin structures. In the cytoplasm, actin filament growth occurs through the canonical pathway, which is, generally, by the addition of G-actin monomers at the barbed end and depolymerization at the pointed-end. When Tmod is reduced, excessive depolymerization occurs, due to loss of Tmod's capping activity. This excess of G-actin monomers decreases the production of cytoplasmic-specific actin isoforms (Act5C and Act42A). Loss of cytoplasmic perinuclear and nuclear F-actin would then contribute to the loss of nuclear organization and directly or indirectly affect nuclear output. At the MTJ, myofibrils are anchored to the muscle ends via cytoplasmic F-actin. In the absence of Tmod, lack of stable attachments via F-actin impairs tension along the myofibrils, leading to myofibril disorganization and deterioration, and defects in myofibrillogenesis. Protein degradation and metabolism would be affected in a similar way: destabilization of required structures for myofiber organization or via transcriptional changes. Together, loss of Tmod at these different sites leads to the deterioration in muscle function.

While every muscle cell in our system experiences the same Tmod KD effect and follows the
same pattern of deterioration, not every myofiber is affected equally. Along the larval AP axis, we
see that the *tmod* phenotypes appear first and are most severe in anterior abdominal segments,
a phenotype that has not been reported previously to our knowledge. In general, muscles in more
anterior abdominal segments are larger than in posterior ones, suggesting that growth and/or
myofiber size may be a contributing factor. However, we observe that some muscles at the same
axis position are preferentially affected, which suggests a more complex situation. Freely moving
Drosophila larvae constantly pivot and sweep their heads, movements which are mainly
supported by muscles of segments A1, A2 and A3 (Lahiri et al., 2011); hence, muscle usage may
affect muscle deterioration in our model. In parallel with this study, the timing and distribution of
muscle pathology in many human muscle diseases, as well as animal models, follow specific
patterns (Barohn et al., 2014, Sewry et al., 2019). Studies in vertebrate models suggest that
muscle fiber type might play a role [reviewed in Talbot and Maves (2016)]. The factor, or more
likely combination of factors, that make specific muscles more susceptible to muscle deterioration
remain unknown. The *Drosophila* larval musculature, consisting only of one fiber type, provides a
useful system for further studies in this context.
428
Alternative splicing result in a total of 18 Tmod isoforms. Why the fly produces so many different
isoforms is unclear. In this study we biochemically tested two isoforms which were chosen as
representatives from the major classes identified using sequence alignment and based on their
expression profile in RNAseq experiments. We show that isoforms TmodQ and TmodO/K display
Tmod's characteristic F-actin capping function, despite having N-terminal extensions comparable
to the human TMOD isoforms. We did not find any biochemical evidence of F-actin nucleation,
and the phenotypes observed in Tmod KD myofibers did not indicate defects in F-actin nucleation.
It is possible that one of the remaining Tmod isoforms (most notably the isoforms with C-terminal
proline-rich extensions) may possess nucleation activity like that of human Lmods. However, the
extremely low levels of such isoforms in our RNAseq data would suggest they are not expressed
in this cell type, or at the development stages tested.
440
Tmod has been suggested to play a key role in defining thin filament and sarcomere length in a
variety of model systems (Szikora et al., 2022). In adult *Drosophila*, Tmod overexpression results
in shorter sarcomeres (Molnar et al., 2014). In vertebrate systems, such as mouse Tmod-null
mutants, thin filament length is increased (Littlefield and Fowler, 2008). Prior *in vitro* research in
rat cardiomyocytes showed that adenoviral expression vectors that increase or decrease Tmod

levels result in shorter or longer sarcomeric actin filaments, respectively (Sussman et al., 1998).

Our data demonstrate that Tmod KD in *Drosophila* larval myofibers increases thin filament and

sarcomere length. The ratio of thin filament to sarcomere length was maintained in Tmod KD

myofibers. This ratio was similar to measurements taken from the frog sartorius (26%) and the

human pectorialis (30%) while at maximum sarcomere length (Gokhin and Fowler, 2013). This

indicates that mechanisms that regulate sarcomere proportions are conserved and regulated

independently of Tmod function. We further find that sarcomere sizes increase over the course of

larval growth, indicating that the uncapped pointed-ends of sarcomeric actin filaments do not

respect a specified size, exhibiting continuous polymerization in the absence of Tmod.

Furthermore, we show an inverse relationship between sarcomere number and sarcomere length

in Tmod KD myofibers that suggests that myofibrils can grow by increasing their length via

sarcomere growth instead of sarcomere addition in this context. Our data are consistent with

recently published work that indicated that muscle length and sarcomere number are regulated

independently of one another (Brooks et al., 2022). In healthy muscle, sarcomere length is fixed

to optimize muscle contraction, forcing growing cells to add sarcomeres rather than increasing

their length (Balakrishnan et al., 2020, Williams and Goldspink, 1971, Dix and Eisenberg, 1990,

Goldspink, 1983, Haas, 1950). Loss of this adaptive behavior is associated with myopathy

progression (Ottenheijm et al., 2009, Winter et al., 2016). Moreover, the decrease in myofiber size

is suggestive of compromised myofibril addition to increase muscle mass, which further supports

that mechanisms of muscle growth – addition of new sarcomeres and hypertrophy– are affected

in Tmod KD larva. Our analyses show locomotive defects (first instar stage) before discernable

changes in myofiber structure and morphology (second instar). While technical limitations

prevented the detailed analysis of first instar sarcomeres, we suggest that changes in thin filament

length might be the first effects of Tmod KD that directly affect muscle function. In parallel with

disruption of sarcomeres and myofibrils, Tmod KD myofibers display accumulation of ectopic and

disorganized F-actin. The location of these ectopic radial F-actin accumulations and filament

bundles near disorganized myofibrils indicates that continuously growing thin filaments could

contribute to these ectopic structures. Whether the ectopic disorganized F-actin filaments were

intended to serve as a myofibril template (Fenix et al., 2018, Dlugosz et al., 1984) or they result

from deteriorating myofibrils remains unclear.

The currently favored hypothesis in the field describes sarcomere and myofibril formation as a

tension-driven self-organizing process, whereby the tension that is generated through muscle

attachment at the MTJs is used to orient and longitudinally assemble sarcomeres and myofibrils

(Lemke and Schnorrer, 2017). Here, we show that Tmod KD results in mislocalization of two core

mechanosensitive proteins (β_{PS}-Integrin, Talin), and a reduction in tension (pTyr) at the muscle

ends. According to the hypothesis, lack of tension at the muscle ends could affect addition of new

sarcomeres as well as homeostasis along the entire myofibril. This is consistent with our

experiments, showing reduced number of sarcomeres, and aberrant myofibril organization and

stability in Tmod KD myofibrils. Previous studies using *Tmod* mutant zebrafish also reported

defects in myofibril organization and muscle weakness (Berger et al., 2022, Berger et al., 2014),

but a role for Tmod in sarcomere addition had not been described. An interesting observation in

our study is the perpendicular myofibrils exclusively localized at the myofiber ends, which

demonstrate sarcomeric organization albeit incorrect orientation. In vertebrate and *Drosophila*

muscles, the ends of the myofibers are considered sites of muscle growth where newly formed

sarcomeres are added (Balakrishnan et al., 2020, Bai et al., 2007). This raises the possibility that

due to the lack of longitudinal stability in this growth zone, the forming sarcomeres and growing

myofibrils orient towards the next best structure that provides resistance, connecting to existing

myofibrils or the visceral plasma membrane. A similar phenotype with misoriented myofibrils was

observed in *Drosophila* larval muscle expressing the constitutively active form of C3G, a Rap1

activator (Shirinian et al., 2010). Importantly, Rap1 has been demonstrated to recruit Talin to the

cell membrane (Shattil et al., 2010, Lee et al., 2009). We find ectopic localization of

mechanosensitive proteins along the plasma membrane of Tmod KD myofibers, which could lead

to ectopic F-actin accumulations. This could result in local changes in tension throughout the

myofiber and contribute to myofibril misalignment. Together, our study suggests that Tmod is

crucial for maintaining organization and stability as well as for growth and alignment of myofibrils.

Our data are consistent with the tension-driven self-organizing myofibrillogenesis hypothesis and

supplements this model by suggesting a role for Tmod in tension mediation. It is unclear, however,

if Tmod directly interacts with β_{PS}-Integrin and/or Talin or if it acts indirectly via stabilizing F-actin.

Our data suggest a role for Tmod in nuclear positioning in the Z-axis and in maintaining nuclear

morphology. Mispositioned and deformed nuclei are common in many myopathies including

nemaline myopathy, centronuclear myopathy and laminopathies (Romero, 2010, Steele-Stallard

et al., 2018, Ross et al., 2019), highlighting the relevance of correct nuclear positioning for proper

muscle function. Actin has been previously shown to play a structural role in the nucleus (Bettinger

et al., 2004), making it possible that Tmod, through its capping function, stabilizes nuclear and/or

perinuclear actin and therefore directly supports nuclear integrity. We did not detect nuclear or

perinuclear actin filaments, possibly due to the strong F-actin signal of the adjacent thin filaments.

However, we found defects in the MT networks surrounding the nuclei of Tmod KD myofibers. It

is well known that MTs play a crucial role in myonuclear positioning and integrity, and that they

interact with actin filaments. Thus, it is likely that Tmod KD has indirect effects on myonuclei by

disrupting actin-MT interactions. In addition, defects in nuclear positioning and morphology could

be indirectly affected by the loss myofibril structure and orientation. In Tmod KD myofibers, nuclei

are initially located at the periphery, but subsequently sink as myofibril structure is lost. Force

exertion on the internalized nuclei could then lead to deformation of nuclear shape. These nuclei

also show defects in transcriptional activity. Interestingly, WT-shaped nuclei in Tmod KD myofibers

display increased translation makers, consistent with a compensatory mechanism. In addition to the

effects of nuclear morphology, it is possible that Tmod plays a role in transcription and/or translation

via its effect on actin dynamics. G-actin has many important functions in the nucleus and nucleolus

and directly regulates gene transcription (Visa and Percipalle, 2010, Bettinger et al., 2004). More

research is needed to determine how deviation from normal positioning in 3 dimensions (X,Y,Z

planes) results in impaired muscle function: to this end, future studies focused on the distribution

of gene products throughout the muscle cell in contexts where nuclear positioning is aberrant

would be informative.

Our transcriptome analyses suggest that Tmod KD affects two main processes, degradation and

mitochondrial metabolism, which are key for myofiber growth (Schiaffino et al., 2013). However,

the decrease in degradation and increase in mitochondrial metabolism detected in *tmod* KD

myofibrils is inconsistent with impaired muscle growth and muscle weakness that we observe.

We suggest that this transcriptomic profile indicates a compensatory attempt of the myofibers to

grow and possibly correct the lack of tension along the myofiber, despite structural deterioration.

It is possible that the presence of actin inside the nucleus causes these changes through structural

and/or transcriptional changes (Chase et al., 2013, Visa and Percipalle, 2010). However, similar

myofiber phenotypes and changes in metabolism have been observed in *Drosophila TRIM32*

(*thin*) mutant larval muscles (LaBeau-DiMenna et al., 2012, Bawa et al., 2020). Loss of *Drosophila*

TRIM32, an E3-ubiquitin ligase, resulted in a decrease in glycolytic intermediates, indicating that

TRIM32 switches the metabolism from oxidative to glycolytic. The mechanisms by which Thin and

Tmod are connected remain to be elucidated, yet the similarities in phenotype and transcriptome

suggests they might be interacting genetically or biochemically. This would indicate a role for

Tmod in dampening oxidative metabolism and, therefore, ATP production. Strikingly, structural

components involved in these pathways, such as mitochondria, are located in high densities at

the visceral muscle surface, surrounding the muscle nuclei, indicating that they could be affected

indirectly via the destabilization of the underlying myofibrils.

Myopathies are often devastating disorders characterized by impaired muscle function that are

frequently associated with sarcomeric mutations. The molecular details underpinning this

relationship are poorly understood. Our study shows a series of phenotypes associated with KD

of one critical thin filament component, Tmod, that reach far beyond the sarcomere. Our findings

have important implications, as they suggest a key role for Tmod in several cellular processes,

including the regulation of actin isoform expression, the stabilization of tension-mediating proteins,

and nuclear integrity and positioning, therefore providing additional insight to the pathogenesis of

myopathies. The mechanisms directly linking Tmod and critical myofiber processes, including

proteasomal degradation and oxidative metabolism, remain to be fleshed out. Furthermore, our

findings support and strengthen the tension-driven self-organizing myofibrillogenesis model.

Taken together, this study adds significantly to the understanding of the role of Tmod in both

muscle development, maintenance, and disease, making it a potential target for new therapeutics

that address muscle weakness.

METHODS

Drosophila husbandry, stocks and crosses

Drosophila stocks and experimental crosses were grown on standard cornmeal medium at 25ºC in 12:12 Light:Dark conditions under humidity control. The Gal4-UAS system (Brand and Perrimon, 1993) was used for RNA interference studies. Details on the screen that lead to our analysis of *tmod* are found in Table S1 and S2. For muscle-specific expression and RNAi potentiation we tested different driver lines (*UAS-dicer2;;Mhc-Gal4,Zasp66::GFP*, *UAS-dicer2;;Dmef2-Gal4,Zasp66::GFP/Tm6,Hu,Tb* and *UAS-dicer2;;Dmef2-Gal4/Tm6,Hu,Tb*) in combination with *3 UAS-tmod-RNAi* lines (BDSC#41718, BDSC #31534 and VDRC #108389) to validate on-target effects and explore KD levels. The driver lines were crossed with *UAS-mCherryRNAi* (BDSC #35785) as the *control RNAi.* In all instances, larvae displaying a Tb phenotype (indicatory of balancer chromosome) were excluded from the F_1 analyzed. The mutant stock *tmod*^{MI02468} (BDSC #36446) was also used for phenotype validation with *yw* as control. Except where specified, we used a Dmef2-Gal4 driver and one *UAS-tmodRNAi* line (BDSC#41718) for analyzing Tmod KD phenotypes (the line is referred to as "*tmod*"). Table S5 contains details on fly stocks.

Larval staging

For all larval experiments, larvae were kept at 25ºC and both male and female larvae were analyzed. Staging was performed on apple juice agar plates, either in the embryo (see Viability assay), or by selecting larvae hatched within a 2h period. First instars intended for experiments were maintained in an apple juice agar plate with yeast paste for ease of manipulation. Larvae for experiments at later stages (locomotion, muscle analysis) were transferred to standard food vials. Larvae were removed from food vials using 30% sucrose solution at second instar stage (~24h after transfer), early third instar (~48h after transfer), late third instar (~96h after transfer) and wandering (~118h after transfer) stage. Myofiber structure time-course analysis was performed on all four distinct larval stages, in VI1 or VL3/VL4 muscles of anterior segments (A1 and A2). For the RNAseq experiment, late third instars (~90h after transfer) were processed for dissection. For all other experiments at late third instar stage (~3.5 days), staging was confirmed by using developmental landmarks such as mouth hooks, and spiracle morphologies (Bodenstein, 1950).

qRT-PCR

Ten third instar wandering larvae were dissected and rinsed in ice cold HL3.1 medium (Feng et al., 2004) as described in (Brent et al., 2009). Total RNA was extracted from the muscle enriched

larval fillets using TRIzol reagent (ThermoFisher #15596026), followed by cleanup with TURBO

DNA-free Kit (Ambion #AM1907). The SuperScript III First-Strand Synthesis System for RT-PCR

(Invitrogen #18080-051) was used to synthesize cDNA and qRT-PCR reactions were performed

on the BioRad CFX96 Real-Time PCR system using the SYBR Select Master Mix for CFX

(Applied Biosystems #4472937). Three independent mRNA preparations per genotype were

collected and were run in triplicate. Fold changes were calculated based on values obtained using

the delta-delta Ct method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001, Schmittgen and Livak, 2008). Product

size and uniformity was assessed via melt curve analysis. *Rpl32* was used as a normalization

control. Table S3 contains details on the oligonucleotides used.

Western Blot

Seven to ten late third instar wandering larvae were dissected (See Immunolabeling and Imaging)

and transferred into larval lysis buffer (50mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150mM NaCl, 0.5% NP40, 0.1%

SDS, 2mM DTT) supplemented with Complete mini protease inhibitor cocktail [one tablet in 10mL

of lysis buffer (Roche #11836153001)]. Lysates were homogenized and protein concentrations

were determined using the Bradford assay. Equal amounts of protein (20 μg) were run on a 5%

(Talin) or 10% (Tmod) polyacrylamide gel and then transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane

(ThermoScientific #88018). Membranes were blocked with either 5% milk or 5% BSA in TBST

(Tris-Buffered Saline +0.1% Tween) for 1h at room temperature. Table S5 contains details on

primary and secondary antibodies. Immunoreactions were visualized in a KwikQuant Imager

(Kindle Biosciences, LLC #D1001) using 1-Shot Digital-ECL (Kindle Biosciences, LLC #R1003)

and intensities were quantified using Fiji (NIH). Protein expression was normalized to GAPDH

(loading control) within each sample. Figures and quantifications are representative of 3

experiments.

Larval tracking

Larvae were staged and extracted from food vials (see Larval staging) at first instar, second instar,

early third instar, and late third instar. One larva at a time was placed at the center of an apple

juice agar plate (8.5cm diameter) and recorded for 45 seconds (Samsung Galaxy S8+). Movies

were converted into image sequences (1 image per second) and each larva was tracked using

the Manual Tracking plug-in on Fiji. Average velocity was calculated as in (Balakrishnan et al.,

2021). For each genotype, we performed three replicates with ~10 larvae each. Larval length was

equivalent in both phenotypes for each developmental stage.

Plasmids

The cDNA for TmodO/K (NCBI Reference Sequences: NP_001247373.1 / NP_001189319.1) was acquired from DNAsu clone DmCD00765633 (Tempe, AZ, USA). The cDNA for TmodQ (NCBI Reference Sequence: NP_001263112.1) was synthesized by GeneWiz (South Plainfield, NJ, USA). Each cDNA was PCR-amplified and ligated between the SacI and KpnI sites of pRSF_Duet1 (Millipore Sigma, Burlington, MA, USA) with an N-terminal 6x histidine tag and a C-terminal Strep-II tag.

Protein expression and purification

Tmod isoforms in pRSF_Duet1 were expressed in ArcticExpress(DE3) RIL cells (Agilent Technologies), grown in Terrific Broth (TB) medium for 6 h at 37 °C to an optical density of ~1.5 at 600 nm (OD600), followed by 24 h at 10°C in with 0.4 mM isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactoside (IPTG). Cells were harvested by centrifugation (4,000g), resuspended in nickel buffer (20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 300 mM NaCl, 10 mM imidazole, 1 mM PMSF), and lysed using a microfluidizer apparatus (Microfluidics). Proteins were first purified on nickel-NTA resin, washed with 20 column volumes of nickel buffer, and eluted using nickel buffer supplemented with 300mM imidazole. Elution fractions containing the Tmod proteins were then loaded onto Streptactin XT resin (IBA Life Sciences, Göttingen, Germany) and washed with 20 column volumes of strep buffer (20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA). Proteins were eluted using strep buffer supplemented with 40mM biotin, and further purified through a SD200HL 26/600 gel filtration column (GE Healthcare) in strep buffer supplemented with 1 mM DTT. Human CapZ (Rao et al., 2014), rabbit skeletal muscle actin (Pardee et al., 1982), and rabbit skeletal muscle tropomyosin (Smillie, 1982) were purified as described.

Pointed-end capping assay

Capping assays were carried out as described previously (Rao et al., 2014, Kumari et al., 2020). Briefly, 1.5 µM G-actin (6% pyrene-labeled), 1.5 µM F-actin seeds, 25 nM CapZ, and 1 µM tropomyosin were assayed alone or with Tmod at 4 different concentrations (25, 100, 400, 800 nM). Pyrene fluorescence (excitation 365 nm, emission 407 nm) was detected using a plate reader (BioTek Cytation 5), and for each Tmod concentration four replicates were recorded. Maximum polymerization rates were determined by taking the first derivative of each curve, identifying the time interval corresponding to the greatest slope, and performing a linear regression on the original data within that time interval.

Immunostaining and confocal imaging

Larvae were dissected in ice cold HL3.1 medium as described in (Brent et al., 2009) and fixed with 10% formalin (Sigma-Aldrich #HT501128) for 20 minutes. Larval filets were blocked with PBT-BSA [1x PBS supplemented with 0.3% Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich #X100) and 0.1% BSA (Sigma-Aldrich #A7906)] for 30 minutes. Larval filets were then incubated with primary antibody (Table S5) overnight at 4ºC, followed by washes in PBT-BSA. Incubation with Alexa Fluor-conjugated secondary antibodies (Table S5), Phalloidin and/or Hoechst 3342 were performed at room temperature for 2 hours, followed by washes in PBT. Subsequently, larval filets were mounted in ProLong Gold (Invitrogen #P36930) and slides were cured at room temperature for 24h. Z-stacks were acquired using a SP5 laser-scanning microscope (Leica Microsystems) with either dry objectives (HC PL APO CS 10x/0.40 and HC PL APO CS2 20x/0.75) or oil-immersion objectives (HC PL APO CS 20x/0.70, HCX PL APO CS 40x/1.25-0.75, HCX PL APO CS 63x/1.40-0.60, and HCX PL APO CS 100x/1.46). All samples intended for direct comparison were imaged using the same confocal settings. Maximum intensity projections of confocal Z stacks were rendered using Fiji. Approximately 7 larvae (range: 5-10) of each genotype were dissected and experiments were repeated at least twice.

Quantification of muscle defects per segment

Muscle defects in second instar, early third instar, and late third instar larvae were scored based on ectopic and abnormal actin structures using a confocal microscope. A score was given for each VL3/4 muscle pair: 3 – WT-like, 2 – mild structural defects (diagonal myofibrils) and 1 – severe defects in muscle structure. We evaluated muscles in both hemisegments of the larva in abdominal segments 1-6. This analysis was performed in triplicate with 3-4 larvae per replicate.

Sarcomere and thin filament size/count analysis

Larvae expressing a Zasp::GFP protein trap were fixed by brief (~5 seconds) submersion in 65°C water and mounted on a slide with halocarbon oil. Z-stacks of the cuticular side of the VL3 or VL4 muscles from abdominal segment 2 were acquired using a SP5 laser-scanning microscope (Leica Microsystems) with either a HC PL APO CS2 20x/0.75 (late third instars) or HCX PL APO CS 40x/1.25-0.75 (second instars) oil immersion objective.

Muscle length, sarcomere size and number were quantified as described in step 32 of (Balakrishnan et al., 2021). For accuracy and to assess potential regional differences, sarcomere size was also quantified by an alternative method. Z-stacks were opened in Fiji and a line that

spanned six Z-discs (five sarcomeres) was made using the line tool. Subsequently, the line
intensity plot was obtained, and the X-coordinates (microns) of the peaks were acquired with the
multi-point tool. The distance in microns between Z-disks was obtained by calculating the
difference between the X-coordinates of the six peaks. This analysis was done in triplicate. In
each replicate, six muscles were analyzed, each belonging to an individual larva. Three lines were
traced per muscle: in the anterior fraction of the muscle, in the medial region and in the posterior
end, with a total of ~90 sarcomere size measurements per replicate (Fig. S4C).

Sarcomere length was obtained from Zasp::GFP heat-fixed larvae, which was performed by a
direct method from Z-disc to Z-disc distance. Due to technical challenges in some areas of the
muscles, two confirmatory methods were also employed. First, measurements were confirmed by
comparing the heat-fixed samples with a formalin fixed sample. Second, we performed a
sarcomere length average by taking the muscle length divided by the total number of Z-discs.

Thin filament length was assessed in formalin fixed samples that displayed a clear striation pattern
and a clear M-line (therefore, we conclude the muscles were in a stretched configuration). Zasp
was used as a marker for Z-discs, we traced a line spanning three contiguous Z-discs. The line
intensity plot of Phalloidin was obtained and was normalized by calculating deviation from the
mean to account for background noise; those with values above zero were used to calculate thin
filament length.

Intensity quantification at the muscle ends (MTJs)
Maximum intensity projections of confocal z-stacks of β_{PS}-Integrin, Talin and pTyr
immunostainings were generated in Fiji. A line spanning the MTJ and three contiguous
sarcomeres (as a landmark reference) was drawn with the line tool. Line intensity plots were
obtained with the intensity value for each pixel in the line. These values were split into five bins
(each bin encompassing 20% of the intensity values) along the anterior-posterior axis and an
average was calculated for each bin. Normalization was accomplished by calculating the deviation
from the mean value. We traced two lines per MTJ per larva (16-20 measurements per genotype
from 4-5 different larvae) and per genotype. This analysis was done in duplicate.

Nuclear analysis
All images were processed and analyzed with Fiji. 2D quantifications of VL3 and VL4 muscles
were performed with maximum intensity projections (as previously described in Windner et al.

(2019)). Muscle areas were traced by hand with the polygon tool. Automated thresholding of

fluorescence intensities of anti-Lamin and/or Hoechst was used to generate binary images of VL

nuclei. The number, size (area), position (X and Y coordinates) and shape descriptors (roundness

and circularity) of all nuclei within each cell was obtained and the binary masks were used to

quantify Hoechst and H3K9ac pixel intensity (mean gray value). Automated thresholding of anti-

Fibrillarin labeling was used to generate binary images of nucleoli and measure nucleolar sizes

(areas) and to quantify Fibrillarin pixel intensity (mean gray value). The 3D rendering of nuclei

was processed with Imaris.

RNA sequencing analysis

Eight to ten late third instar larvae were dissected as described above per genotype in each

replicate. The experiment was done in triplicate. The muscle-enriched larval filets were transferred

to TRIzol and homogenized. The lysates were submitted to the MSKCC's Integrated Genomics

Operations (IGO) core for further total RNA extraction, quality assessment and Illumina next-

generation sequencing. The sequencing libraries were constructed using SMARTerAmpSeq after

the mRNAs were enriched by oligo-dT-mediated purification. The libraries were then sequenced

on the Illumina HiSeq 4000 in a PE50 run. Over 40 million reads were generated per library.

FASTQ data was read into R with the ShortRead package (Morgan et al., 2009) and QC was

performed with the Rfastp package (Wang et al., 2022). Reads were mapped and aligned to the

Drosophila genome using Rsubread (Liao et al., 2019). Next, the reads were counted with the

GenomicAlignments package (Lawrence et al., 2013). Gene differential expression tests were

performed using DESeq2 (Love et al., 2014). Finally, enrichment analysis was performed through

goseq (Young et al., 2010) using both Gene Ontology and KEGG databases. Plots were drawn

using R with the ggplot2 package (Wickham, 2016).

ATP assay

An ATP calibration curve was performed using the stabilized ATP standard stocks provided in the

kit ATP Bioluminescence Assay Kit HS II (Millipore Sigma #11699709001) and following the

supplied protocol. Five to ten late third instar wandering larvae from each genotype were

dissected (See Immunolabeling and Imaging) and transferred into the cell lysis reagent provided

with the kit. Lysates were homogenized and protein concentrations were determined using the

Bradford assay. Equal amounts of protein (10 μg) were used for bioluminescence measurements.

Blank measurements were subtracted from the raw data and ATP concentrations were calculated

from the standard curve data. The experiment was done in triplicate.

Statistical analysis

Statistical significance was determined by either student's unpaired t-test (comparisons between

two groups), one-way ANOVA, or two-way ANOVA (comparisons among multiple groups) in the

GraphPad Prism software. Data are presented as mean$\pm$SD, asterisks are used to denote

significance. Graphs were made using either GraphPad Prism, Microsoft Excel or R.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization: C.Z.M. and M.K.B; Methodology: C.Z.M., P.J.C, D.S.; Validation: C.Z.M.

P.J.C, D.S; Formal analysis: C.Z.M., P.J.C, D.S.; Investigation: C.Z.M., P.J.C, D.S.; Resources:

R.D., M.K.B.; Data curation: C.Z.M., M.K.B.; Writing - original draft: C.Z.M., M.K.B.; Writing -

review & editing: C.Z.M., P.J.C., R.D., S.E.W., M.K.B.; Visualization: C.Z.M.; Supervision: R.D.,

M.K.B.; Project administration: C.Z.M., P.J.C., M.K.B.; Funding acquisition: M.K.B., R.D., P.J.C.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

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DATA AVAILABILITY

RNA-seq data have been deposited in Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) under the accession

number GSE210507.

 FIGURES

Fig. 1: Tmod is required for larval muscle integrity.

(A) Third instar *Drosophila* larval filet displaying abdominal segments (A2-6) and body wall

muscles (red, phalloidin) with Z-discs (green, Zasp::GFP) and nuclei (blue, Hoechst); anterior,

left.

(B) Z-stack projection of VL3 and VL4 muscles showing MTJs and zoomed-in panel of a

sarcomere.

(C) Longitudinal cross-section of a VL4 myofiber with nuclei on the cell surface.

(D) Overview of anterior musculature in control and Tmod KD larvae (top). Higher magnification

of VL3 muscle merge, F-actin and Zasp::GFP (bottom 3 panels). Cyan arrow indicates width

reduction of the myofiber. Yellow arrowhead indicates ectopic F-actin. Yellow arrow indicates a

remaining myofibril.

(E) Visceral view of VL3 and VL4 Tmod KD muscles showing disorganized myofibrils and ectopic

F-actin (top), cuticular view showing conserved sarcomeres (middle) and cross-sectional diagram

showing how both visceral and cuticular sides are integrated in a myofiber (bottom).

(F) Average VL3 and VL4 myofiber areas in control and *tmod* KD larvae from A2 in wandering

late third instars. Graph represents one experiment (N>3 replicates, each with n_{VL3}=7 myofibers

and n_{VL4}=7 myofibers per genotype; p_{VL3}<0.0001 and p_{VL4}=0.0006, two-tailed unpaired Student's

t-test). Error bars show SD.

(G) Sarcomere length in control and *tmod* KD myofibers. Yellow line spans six Z-discs.

(H) Perpendicular sarcomeres observed in *tmod* KD myofibers. Yellow line spans 4 Z-discs.

(I) Disorganized and misoriented myofibrils. Green arrow indicates diagonally oriented myofibrils.

(J) Optical cross-section of *tmod* KD myofiber displaying internalized and misshapen nuclei.

Scale bars: 200µm (A), 100µm (top panels in D), 25µm (B, C, bottom 3 panels in D, E and I) and

10µm (G, H and J).

Fig. 2: Structural patterned deterioration of *tmod* KD myofibers throughout the *Drosophila* larval stages.

(A) Posterior end of VI1 myofiber from A1 segment and full length VL3 and VL4 myofibers from A2 segment in control and *tmod* KD second instar larvae (red, phalloidin; green, Zasp::GFP and blue, Hoechst) (left). F-actin channel only (gray, phalloidin) (right). Yellow arrowhead indicates diagonally misoriented myofibril in VI1 from A1. Yellow arrow indicates perpendicular misoriented myofibrils in VI1 from A1.

(B) Worsening myofibers from A1 and A2 segment in *tmod* KD early third instars (bottom) when compared to controls (top). Cyan arrowheads indicate diagonally misoriented myofibrils. Cyan arrow indicates perpendicular myofibrils in posterior end of VL3 muscle from A2.

(C) Worsening myofibers from A1 and A2 in *tmod* KD late third instars (middle panels) and wandering late third instar (bottom panel) when compared to control (top panel). Magenta arrowheads indicate worsening of diagonally misoriented myofibrils from A1 and A2. Magenta arrow indicates perpendicular myofibrils in anterior end of VL3 muscle from A2. Magenta circles indicate ectopic F-actin structures that replace stereotypical myofibrillar pattern. Quantifications of the defects observed in panels A, B, and C across the A-P axis in Supplemental Fig2D.

(D) Intersecting grouped myofibrils observed during early third instar.

(E) Interlaced or "braided" myofibrils observed during late third instar.

(F and G) Ectopic F-actin bundles and radial actin structures, respectively, that lack myofibrillar pattern observed during wandering late third instar.

N=3 replicates, each with n=5 larvae per stage

Scale bars: 25μm (A-F) and 10μm (G).

Fig. 3: *Drosophila* Tmod is a capping protein and *tmod* KD myofibers display longer thin filaments and sarcomeres.

(A) Pyrene-labeled actin polymerization assays at the pointed end with human TMOD3, *Drosophila* TmodO/K and *Drosophila* TmodQ at multiple concentrations (n=4, per isoform and per concentration).

(B) Sarcomeres from control myofibers and from *tmod* KD myofibers found at the cuticular side of late third instars in A2 (red, phalloidin and green, Zasp) (left). Middle panel shows Zasp channel and right panel shows phalloidin channel.

(C) Average sarcomere length in control and *tmod* KD VL3 myofibers from A2 in second instars and late third instars. Each dot is one experiment (N=3 replicates with $n_{2nd\ instars}$=75-135, $n_{late\ 3rd\ instars}$=45-105 sarcomeres [from 3-8 different larvae] per genotype and per experiment; $p_{2nd\ instars}$=0.0076, $p_{3rd\ instars}$=0.0009, $p_{mCherryRNAi}$=0.9703, $p_{tmodRNAi}$=0.1843, ordinary 2-way ANOVA multiple comparisons). Error bars show SD.

(D) Scatterplots and regression lines (dotted) comparing Z-disc number in relationship to muscle length (in microns) in control (blue) and *tmod* KD (orange) VL3 myofibers from A2 in second instars and late third instars. R^2 are indicated in the plot. N=3 experiments, with $n_{2nd\ instars}$=19-20, $n_{late\ 3rd\ instars}$=16-17 myofibers per genotype.

(E) Average crawling velocities from each larval stage in control (blue) and *tmod* KD (orange). Each dot is one experiment (N=3 replicates, with $n_{1st\ instars}$=10, $n_{2nd\ instars}$=10, $n_{early\ 3rd\ instars}$=5-10, $n_{late\ 3rd\ instars}$= 3-10, $n_{wandering}$=3-4 larvae per genotype and per experiment; $p_{1st\ instars}$=0.245, $p_{2nd\ instars}$=0.0326, $p_{early\ 3rd\ instars}$=0.0182, $p_{late\ 3rd\ instars}$=0.0433, $p_{wandering}$=0.0507, two-tailed paired Student's t-test). Error bars show SD.

(F) Fluorescent intensities of phalloidin (red) and Zasp::GFP (green) normalized as the deviation from the mean and plotted across the length of two sarcomeres in A2 of late third instars. Thin filament length is obtained from the length under the center peak divided in half (n=4-6 muscles from different larva per genotype). Transparent zones show SD.

Scale bars: 5μm (B).

Fig. 4: Tmod KD muscles exhibit a decrease in Tmod and loss of mechanosensory protein enrichment and tension at the MTJ.

(A) VL3 and VL4 myofibers in A2 from late third instars in control and *tmod* KD larvae. In control myofibers, Tmod (green) displays a stereotypical pattern in the sarcomeres and its colocalization

with β_{PS}-integrin (red) at the MTJ (top panel). In *tmod* KD myofibers, Tmod does not appear to be

present at the same intensity levels on the sarcomeres nor at the MTJ (bottom panel).

(B) Western blot and quantification of Talin in late third instar muscle-enriched lysates.

Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) as loading control. Each dot is an

experiment (N=3 replicates, with n=5-10 larval carcasses per genotype and per experiment,

p=0.7846, two-tailed paired Student's t-test). Error bars show SD.

(C and D) Analysis of protein localization (magenta, phalloidin; yellow, Zasp::GFP; green, Tmod;

and red, β_{PS}-integrin) relative to one another at the MTJ (A2-3) in control and *tmod* KD in second

and late third instar larvae.

(E) β_{PS}-integrin (white) strong enrichment at the MTJ (A2-3) in second instar control larvae

compared to decreased signal in *tmod* KD. Quantification in Supplemental Fig 5A.

(F) β_{PS}-integrin (left), Talin (white, middle) and pTyr (white, right) strong enrichment at the MTJ

(A2-3) in wandering third instar control larvae compared to absence of signal in *tmod* KD.

Quantifications in Supplemental Fig 5B. Yellow arrows indicate ectopic pools of protein.

Scale bars: 5μm (C, D) and 25μm (A, E, and F).

Fig. 5: Tmod KD myofibers display misshapen and dysfunctional nuclei in late third
instars.

(A) VL3 and VL4 myofibers (red, phalloidin) with nuclei (white, Lamin) in A2 in control (top) and

tmod KD larvae (bottom).

(B) High magnification panels of myonuclei (white, Lamin) with control nuclei and misshapen and

internalized *tmod* KD nuclei. See supplemental Movie 1 and 2.

(C) Quantification of two shape descriptors: average circularity and average roundness in VL3

and VL4 myofibers in A2 from control and *tmod* KD. Graph represents one experiment, each dot

is one myofiber per larva (n_{VL3}= 15-20, n_{VL4}=8-11 myonuclei per myofiber and per genotype;

circularity p_{VL3}<0.0001, circularity p_{VL4}<0.0001; roundness p_{VL3}<0.0001, roundness p_{VL4}<0.0001,

ordinary one-way ANOVA multiple comparisons). Experiment repeated N>3. Error bars show SD.

(D) Distribution of nuclear roundness along the AP axis of the myofiber from control (blue) and

tmod KD (orange) myofibers. Polynomial trendline shown by curved dotted lines.

(E) MT staining (white, α-tubulin; blue, nuclei) showing radial perinuclear arrays and longitudinal

tracks in the control myofibers and a decrease of these structures in *tmod* KD.

(F-G) H3K9ac and Fib staining (white) indicating sites of active transcription and translation

respectively in myonuclei both in control and *tmod* KD myofibers.

(H and I) Scatterplots showing H3K9ac and Fib pixel intensity levels (mean gray value) in

relationship to roundness levels. Each graph represents one experiment, each dot is one

myonucleus (n_{H3K9ac}=178-190 myonuclei per genotype, from 7 VL3 and VL4 muscles sets, in 7

larvae; n_{Fib}=308-396 myonuclei per genotype, from 12-15 VL3 and VL4 muscle sets, in 7-8

larvae). (H) Q3 indicates *tmod* KD misshaped nuclei (roundness<0.6) with decreased H3K9ac

intensity when compared to control nuclei in Q1. (I) Q1 indicates *tmod* KD WT-like nuclei

(roundness>0.6) with increased Fib intensity when compared to control nuclei in Q4. Q3 indicate

tmod KD misshaped nuclei (roundness<0.6) with a similar Fib intensity when compared to control

nuclei.

Experiments repeated N>2 unless specified otherwise.

Scale bars: 50μm (A, E and F), 25μm (B) and 10μm (F and G).

Fig. 6: Tmod KD late third instar larvae show differential gene expression (DEG) when compared to control.

(A and B) Top 10 downregulated and upregulated Gene Ontology gene sets in *tmod* KD vs control

larvae assessed by ORA.

(C) Average ATP concentration in muscle-enriched larval lysates. Each dot is one experiment

(N=3 replicates, n=5-10 larval carcasses per genotype and per experiment, p=0.0285, two-tailed

unpaired Student's t-test). Error bars show SD.

(D) Normalized counts average for the different *Drosophila* actin genes in control larvae. Error

bars show SD.

(E) Log2 fold change of actin genes isoforms in *tmod* KD vs control (p_{Act57B}=0.0053,

p_{Act87E}<0.0001, p_{Act5E}= 0.0011, p_{Act42A}<0.0001). Error bars show SE. RNAseq data was used for

plots A, B, D and E (N=3 replicates, n=7-10 larval carcasses per genotype and per N).

Fig. 7: Summary of the diverse roles of Tmod in *Drosophila* larva myofibers.

(1) Sarcomere size: Tmod plays a role in sarcomere and thin filament length.

(2) Myofibril anchorage: Tmod stabilizes the interaction of β_{PS}-integrin/Talin at the MTJ, and is found adjacent to F-actin, suggesting a role establishing tension in the longitudinal axis of the myofiber.

(3) Nuclear stabilization: Tmod plays a role in maintaining nuclear integrity either through MT-actin interactions or through nuclear F-actin.

(4) Transcription / translation: Tmod is important for normal nuclear output. Potentially through actin as a transcription factor in the nucleus or as a structural component, or by actin's role in nuclear architecture and chromatin organization that would impact transcription/translation.

(5) Energy / Protein turnover: Upon Tmod KD, we observed an increase in energy production (ATP) genes and a decrease of proteasome genes. This change in transcriptome could be due to the role of Tmod in nuclear stabilization or as an attempt of the myofiber to keep growing. Grey dashed arrows and question marks indicate potential consequences.

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