Human Skeletal Muscle Fiber Heterogeneity Beyond Myosin Heavy Chains

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Abstract

Skeletal muscle is an inherently heterogenous tissue comprised primarily of myofibers, which

are historically classified into three distinct fiber types in humans: one "slow" (type 1) and two

"fast" (type 2A and type 2X), delineated by the expression of myosin heavy chain isoforms

(MYHs). However, heterogeneity between and within traditional fiber types remains

underexplored. Indeed, whether MYHs are the main classifiers of skeletal muscle fibers has

not been examined in an unbiased manner. Through the development and application of novel

transcriptomic and proteomic workflows, applied to 1050 and 1038 single muscle fibers from

human *vastus lateralis*, respectively, we show that MYHs are not the only principal drivers of

skeletal muscle fiber heterogeneity. Instead, metabolic, ribosomal, and cell junction proteins

are a source of multi-dimensional variation between skeletal muscle fibers. Furthermore,

whilst slow and fast fiber clusters can be identified, described by their contractile and

metabolic profiles, our data suggests that type 2X fibers are not phenotypically distinct to

other fast fibers at an omics level. Moreover, MYH-based classifications do not adequately

describe the phenotype of skeletal muscle fibers in one of the most common genetic muscle

diseases, nemaline myopathy, with fibers shifting towards a non-oxidative phenotype

independently of MYH-based fiber type. We also characterize novel transcriptomic and

proteomic features of slow and fast skeletal muscle fibers, including identifying several muscle

fiber type-specific polypeptides, termed microproteins, encoded by transcripts annotated as

non-coding RNA. Overall, our data indicates that skeletal muscle fiber heterogeneity is multi-

dimensional with sources of variation beyond myosin heavy chain isoforms.

Introduction

Cellular heterogeneity is an inherent feature of all biological systems, allowing for cellular specialization to meet the diverse demands imposed upon tissues and cells[1]. The classic view of skeletal muscle fiber heterogeneity is that motoneurons define the typology of the fibers within a motor unit, with fiber types (i.e. type 1, type 2A, and type 2X in humans) being defined by myosin heavy chain isoform (MYH) characteristics[2]. This was first based on its ATPase pH lability[3,4] and later by its molecular MYH expression[5]. However, skeletal muscle fibers are increasingly being viewed along a continuum, as opposed to discrete fiber types[6], fueled by the identification and subsequent acceptance of the existence of "hybrid" fibers that express varying proportions of multiple MYHs simultaneously. Nonetheless, the field still relies heavily on MYHs as primary classifiers of muscle fibers, a perspective that might be limited and heavily biased by early studies in rodents, displaying a different MYH expression profile and thus fiber type range than humans[2]. The picture is further complicated by different skeletal muscles displaying specialized fiber type profiles within humans[7]. The *vastus lateralis* is a mixed muscle type with average (and therefore representative) MYH expression profiles[7]. Together with this, its accessibility for sampling makes it the most commonly studied muscle in humans.

An unbiased exploration of skeletal muscle fiber diversity with powerful omics tools is thus heavily warranted, but challenging, in part owing to the multinucleated nature of skeletal muscle fibers. Nonetheless, both transcriptomics[8,9] and proteomics[10] technologies have recently experienced a sensitivity revolution due to various technological advances, making profiling of skeletal muscle at a single fiber resolution now possible. As a result, notable progress has already been made in describing the single muscle fiber diversity and responses

to atrophic stimuli and aging[11-18]. Importantly, these technological advances lend themselves

to being advantageous in the clinical setting, helping to describe in greater detail and precision

the dysregulation associated with disease. For example, the underlying pathophysiology of

nemaline myopathy, one of the most prevalent genetic muscle disorders (MIM 605355 and

MIM 161800), is complex and convoluted[19,20], thus a deeper characterization of skeletal

muscle fiber dysregulation may spur significant developments in our understanding of the

disease.

Our methodological development of transcriptome and proteome profiling of single skeletal

muscle fibers manually isolated from human biopsy specimens, and their application to over

a thousand fibers each, enabled us to investigate the cellular heterogeneity of human skeletal

muscle fibers. In doing so, we demonstrate the power of muscle fiber phenotyping at the

transcriptomic and proteomic level, identifying that metabolic, ribosomal, and cell junction

proteins are important sources of variation among muscle fibers. Furthermore, with our

proteomics workflow we characterize the clinical implications of nemaline myopathies within

single skeletal muscle fibers, revealing a coordinated shift towards non-oxidative fibers

independently of MYH-based fiber type.

Results

Development of high-sensitivity and high-throughput single muscle fiber transcriptomic and

proteomic pipelines

To investigate the heterogeneity of human skeletal muscle fibers, we developed two novel workflows to enable transcriptome and proteome profiling of single skeletal muscle fibers (**Fig 1A and 1 S1A**). Several methodological steps were developed and optimized, from sample storage and preservation of RNA and protein integrity to optimizing the throughput of each method. This was achieved for transcriptome analysis by inserting sample-specific molecular barcodes during the initial reverse transcription step, enabling pooling of 96 fibers for further efficient downstream processing. Rich transcriptome data was further obtained by deeper sequencing (± 1M reads per fiber) compared to conventional single cell methods[21]. For proteomics, the combination of a short chromatographic gradient (21 minutes) and timsTOF DIA-PASEF-based mass spectrometry was used to optimize proteome depth, whilst maintaining a high-throughput[22,23]. To investigate skeletal muscle fiber heterogeneity in the healthy state, the transcriptome was determined for 1050 individual fibers from 14 healthy adult donors, whilst the proteome was determined for 1038 fibers from 5 healthy adult donors (**Table S1**). These datasets will be referred to as the 1000 fiber transcriptome and proteome datasets, respectively, throughout this manuscript. Our approach detected a total of 27237 transcripts and 2983 proteins in the 1000 fiber transcriptomics and proteomics studies (**Fig 1A, Table S2-3**). After filtering for >1000 detected genes and for 50% valid values within each fiber in both transcriptomics and proteomics datasets, respectively, downstream bioinformatic analyses were performed on 925 and 974 fibers in the transcriptome and proteome, respectively. On average 4257 ± 1557 genes and 2015 ± 234 proteins (mean ± SD) were detected per fiber after filtering, with limited inter-individual variation (**Fig 1 S1B-C, Table S4-5**). The intra-individual variation within a participant was more substantial however, most likely due to differences in RNA/protein yield among fibers of different length and cross-sectional area. For the majority of proteins (>2000), the coefficient of variation was below 20%

(**Fig 1 S1D**). Both methodologies captured a wide dynamic range of transcripts and proteins,

with features known to be important for muscle contraction being highly expressed (e.g.

ACTA1, MYH2, MYH7, TNNT1, TNNT3) (**Fig 1 S1E-F**). A large part of the detected features were

shared between the transcriptome and proteome datasets (**Fig 1 S1G**), alongside a reasonable

correlation (r = 0.52) in average UMI counts/LFQ intensities for these features (**Fig 1 S1H**).

Type 2X is not a distinct fiber type

We initially set out to define the MYH-based fiber type of each fiber using an optimized

methodology, leveraging the high sensitivity and dynamic range of MYH expression in the

omics datasets. Previous studies have used arbitrary cut-offs to assign a fiber as pure type 1,

type 2A, type 2X, or hybrid, based on a fixed percentage of expression for the different

MYHs[11,14,24]. We employed a different approach, in which we ranked the expression of each

fiber by the MYHs used for fiber typing: MYH7, MYH2 and MYH1, corresponding to type 1,

type 2A and type 2X fibers, respectively. We then mathematically calculated the bottom knee

for each of the resulting curves and used it as a threshold to assign a fiber as being positive

(above threshold) or negative (below threshold) for each MYH (**Fig 1B-D**). These data show

that MYH7 (**Fig 1B**) and MYH2 (**Fig 1C**) have a more pronounced on/off expression profile on

the RNA level, compared to the protein level. Indeed, at the protein level, very few fibers did

not express MYH7 and no fibers had 100% MYH2 expression. Next, we used the determined

expression thresholds to assign MYH-based fiber types for all fibers in each dataset. For

example, a MYH7$^+$/MYH2$^-$/MYH1$^-$ was assigned as type 1, and a MYH7$^-$/MYH2$^+$/MYH1$^+$ was

assigned as a hybrid type 2A/2X fiber (see **Table S6** for full description). When combining all

fibers, a very similar MYH-based fiber type distribution was observed at the RNA (**Fig 1E**) and

protein (**Fig 1F**) levels, with an expected inter-individual variation in relative MYH-based fiber

type composition (**Fig 1 S2A**). Most fibers were considered pure type 1 (34-35%) or type 2A

(36-38%), although a substantial number of hybrid 2A/2X fibers (16-19%) were also detected.

A striking discrepancy was that pure type 2X fibers could only be detected at the RNA but not

at the protein level, indicating that fast MYH expression is, at least in part, post-

transcriptionally regulated.

We validated the MYH-based fiber typing from the proteomics data against an antibody-based

dot blot technique, in which both methodologies were in 100% agreement on the

identification of both pure type 1 and type 2A fibers (**Fig 1 S2B**). However, the increased

sensitivity of the proteomics-based approach was superior in identifying hybrid fibers and in

quantifying the proportion of each MYH within each fiber. These data demonstrate the

efficacy of using an unbiased high-sensitivity omics-based approach for the characterization

of skeletal muscle fiber types.

We then utilized the full depth of information that transcriptomics and proteomics provide to

classify fibers in an unbiased manner based on their whole transcriptome or proteome. Using

uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) for dimension reduction of 6

principal components (**Fig 1 S3 A-B**), we were able to visualize the variation in fibers in the

transcriptome (**Fig 1G**) and proteome (**Fig 1H**). Interestingly, fibers did not cluster by

participant in either the transcriptomics or proteomics datasets (**Fig 1 S3C-D**), nor by test day

(**Fig 1 S3E**), indicating that intra-individual variance in skeletal muscle fibers outweighs inter-

individual variance. Two distinct clusters were apparent in the UMAP plots, which represented

"fast" and "slow" fibers (**Fig 1G-H**). MYH7$^+$ (slow) fibers clustered to the positive side of

UMAP1, and MYH2^{+} and MYH1^{+} (fast) fibers clustered to the negative side of UMAP1 (**Fig 1I-**

J). No distinction between the various fast MYH-based fiber types (i.e. type 2A, type 2X, or

hybrid 2A/2X) could be identified, however, suggesting that when the whole transcriptome or

proteome is taken into account, the expression of MYH1 (**Fig 1 I-J**), or other classical markers

of type 2X fibers like ACTN3 or MYLK2 (**Fig 1 S4A-B**), does not discriminate between distinct

fiber types. Furthermore, in contrast to MYH2 and MYH7, few transcripts or proteins positively

correlate with MYH1 (**Fig 1 S4C-H**), suggesting that MYH1 abundance does not adequately

reflect the muscle fiber transcriptome/proteome. Similar conclusions can be drawn when

assessing the blended expression of the three MYH isoforms on a UMAP level (**Fig 1 S4I-J**).

Thus, whilst type 2X fibers can be identified at the transcriptional level based solely on the

quantification of MYHs, MYH1^{+} fibers are not distinct from other fast fibers when the whole

transcriptome or proteome is considered.

Considerable skeletal muscle fiber heterogeneity beyond myosin heavy chain isoforms

As an initial exploration of fiber heterogeneity beyond MYHs, we assessed four established

slow fiber type-specific proteins: TPM3, TNNT1, MYL3, and ATP2A2[2]. In both transcriptomics

(**Fig 2 S1A**) and proteomics (**Fig 2 S1B**) approaches, the slow isoforms exhibited a high,

although not perfect, Pearson correlation coefficient with MYH7. Approximately 25 and 33%

of the fibers in the transcriptomics (**Fig 2 S1C**) and proteomics (**Fig 2 S1D**) approaches,

respectively, were not classified as pure slow fibers by all gene/protein isoforms. Thus, fiber

typing based on multiple gene/protein isoforms introduces additional complexity, even with

well-known proteins that are assumed to be fiber type-specific. This suggests that fiber typing

based on isoforms of a single family of genes/proteins is likely inadequate to capture the true

heterogeneity of skeletal muscle fibers.

To further investigate the omics-wide phenotypical variability between human skeletal muscle

fibers, we applied unbiased dimensionality reduction by principal component analysis (PCA)

to our data (**Fig 2A**). Similarly to the UMAP plot, neither participant nor test day influenced

the clustering of fibers at the PCA level (**Fig 2 S2A-C**). MYH-based fiber type was explained by

PC2 in both datasets, displaying clusters for slow type 1 fibers and a second cluster containing

the fast type 2A, type 2X and hybrid type 2A/2X fibers (**Fig 2A**). These two clusters were

bridged in both datasets by a small number of hybrid type 1/2A fibers. As expected, over-

representation analysis of the top PC drivers confirmed that PC2 is driven by contractile and

metabolic features (**Fig 2B & 2 S2D-E, Table S7-9**). In general, the MYH-based fiber types

adequately explain the continual variance along PC2, except for the so-called type 2X fibers,

which were spread across the entirety of the transcriptomic fast cluster.

Unexpectedly, MYH-based fiber type explained only the second greatest degree of variability

(PC2), indicating that other biological factors (PC1) independent of MYH-based fiber type,

have a substantial role in regulating skeletal muscle fiber heterogeneity. Over-representation

analysis of the top drivers in PC1 indicated that variance within PC1 was determined primarily

by cell-cell adhesion and ribosomal content in the transcriptome, and costamere and

ribosomal proteins in the proteome (**Fig 2B & 2 S2D-E, Table S9**). In skeletal muscle, the

costamere connects the Z-disk to the sarcolemma and participates in force transmission and

signaling[25]. Annotating PCA plots with cell-cell adhesion (transcriptome, **Fig 2C**) and

costamere (proteome, **Fig 2D**) features showed a strong shift to the left side of PC1, suggesting

an enrichment for these features in some fibers.

Closer inspection of fiber clustering at the UMAP level showed a MYH-based fiber type-independent gradient of expression for most features, rather than distinct subclusters of muscle fibers. This continuum holds true for several genes related to pathological conditions (**Fig 2E**), such as *CHCHD10* (neuromuscular disorders)[26], *SLIT3* (muscle loss)[27] and *CTDNEP1* (muscle disease)[28]. This same continuum was observed in the proteome, with proteins related to neurological diseases (UGDH)[29], insulin signaling (PHIP)[30] and transcription (HIST1H2AB) (**Fig 2F**). These data collectively show that slow/fast fiber type independent heterogeneity across fibers is of a continual nature.

Fiber heterogeneity is post-transcriptionally regulated by ribosomal heterogeneity

Interestingly, drivers of PC2 showed a good correlation (r = 0.663) between the transcriptome and proteome (**Fig 2G**), indicating that the slow and fast fiber types, particularly the contractile and the metabolic profile of skeletal muscle fibers, are transcriptionally regulated. However, there was no correlation between the drivers of PC1 in the transcriptome and the proteome (r = -0.027) (**Fig 2H**). This suggests that slow/fast fiber type-independent variance is for a large part post-transcriptionally regulated. Since PC1 variance was largely explained by ribosomal gene ontology terms and given that ribosomes play a profound and specialized role in the cell by actively participating and influencing protein translation[31], we next set out to explore this unexpected ribosomal heterogeneity.

We first colored the proteomics PCA plot based on the relative abundance of the proteins

within the "cytosolic ribosome" GOCC term (**Fig 3A**). Although the term was enriched on the

positive side of PC1, and a slight gradient could be observed accordingly, ribosomal proteins

were driving separation in both directions of PC1 (**Fig 3A**). Amongst the ribosomal proteins

enriched in the negative direction of PC1 were RPL18, RPS18 and RPS13 (**Fig 3B**), whilst RPL31,

RPL35 and RPL38 (**Fig 3C**) were major drivers in the positive direction of PC1. Interestingly,

RPL38 and RPS13 are highly expressed in skeletal muscle when compared to other tissues (**Fig**

3 S1A). These distinct ribosomal signatures across PC1 could not be observed in the

transcriptome (**Fig 3 S1B**), indicating that this phenomenon is post-transcriptionally regulated.

The concept of ribosomal heterogeneity and specialization was previously introduced, where

the presence of distinct subpopulations of ribosomes (ribosomal heterogeneity) can directly

influence protein translation in different tissues[32] and cells[33] by selectively translating specific

mRNA transcript pools[34] (ribosomal specialization). To identify sub-sets of ribosomal proteins

that are co-expressed within skeletal muscle fibers, we performed an unsupervised

hierarchical clustering analysis of ribosomal proteins within the proteome (**Fig 3D, Table S10**).

As expected, ribosomal proteins did not cluster by MYH-based fiber type. However, we

identified three distinct clusters of ribosomal proteins; the first of which (ribosomal_cluster_1)

was coregulated alongside RPL38, therefore elevated in fibers in the positive direction of PC1.

The second cluster (ribosomal_cluster_2) was coregulated alongside RPS13 and was elevated

in fibers in the negative direction of PC1. A third cluster (ribosomal_cluster_3) displayed no

coordinated differential expression within skeletal muscle fibers and could therefore be

considered "core" ribosomal proteins within skeletal muscle. Both ribosomal_cluster_1 and

ribosomal_cluster_2 contain ribosomal proteins previously demonstrated to regulate

selective translation (e.g. RPL10A, RPL38, RPS19 and RPS25) and functionally influence

development (e.g. RPL10A, RPL38)[34-38]. In line with the results from the PCA analysis, the

observed heterogeneous abundance of these ribosomal proteins across fibers was also of a

continual nature (**Fig 3 S1C**).

To visualize the position of the ribosomal proteins that display heterogeneity within the

ribosome, we utilized a structural model of the human 80S ribosome (Protein Data Bank:

4V6X)[39] (**Fig 3E**). Upon highlighting the ribosomal proteins that belong to the different

ribosomal clusters, they were not located in close proximity, showing that our approach did

not enrich for a particular area/section of the ribosome. Yet interestingly, ribosomal_cluster_2

contained a lower proportion of large ribosomal subunit proteins than ribosomal_cluster_1

and ribosomal_cluster_3 (**Fig 3 S1D**). We observed that the majority of the proteins that

display variable stoichiometry within skeletal muscle fibers are located on the surface of the

ribosome (**Fig 3E**), which is consistent with an ability to interact with internal ribosome entry

site (IRES) elements within distinct mRNA populations to coordinate selective translation[40,41].

Furthermore, numerous proteins that display variable stoichiometry within skeletal muscle

fibers are located close to functional regions, such as the mRNA exit tunnel (**Fig 3F**), which can

selectively regulate translation elongation and arrest of specific nascent peptides[42]. Overall,

our data identifies that skeletal muscle ribosomal protein stoichiometry displays

heterogeneity, driving variance between skeletal muscle fibers.

Slow and fast fiber signatures and their transcriptional regulators

We next set out to identify novel features of fast and slow skeletal muscle fibers and how

these are transcriptionally regulated. Comparing the fast and slow clusters defined in the

UMAPs of both datasets (**Fig 1G-H & inlays Fig 4A-B**), transcriptome and proteome analysis

yielded 1366 and 804 differentially abundant features, respectively (**Fig 4A-B, Table S11-14**).

Expected differences in sarcomeric (e.g. tropomyosin and troponin), excitation-contraction

coupling (SERCA isoforms) and energy metabolism-related (e.g. ALDOA and CKB) features

were observed. In addition, transcripts and proteins regulating protein ubiquitination

displayed differences between fast and slow fibers (e.g. *USP54, SH3RF2,* USP28 and USP48)

(**Fig 4A-B**). Furthermore, the microprotein-encoding gene *RP11-451G4.2 (DWORF)*, which has

previously been shown to be differentially expressed between lamb muscle fiber types[43] and

to enhance SERCA activity in cardiac muscle[44], was significantly up-regulated in slow skeletal

muscle fibers (**Fig 4A**). Also at the single fiber level, clear differences could be observed for

known features such as the metabolism-related isoforms of lactate dehydrogenase (LDHA and

LDHB, **Fig 4C** and **Fig 4 S1A**)[45,46], as well as previously unknown fiber type-specific features

(e.g. *IRX3*, *USP54*, USP28, and DPYSL3) (**Fig 4C**). There was a reasonable overlap of

differentially expressed features (**Fig 4 S1B**) and correlation of fold changes between the

transcriptomic and proteomic datasets, primarily driven by the large expression differences in

sarcomeric features (**Fig 4 S1C**). Notably, some features (e.g. USP28, USP48, GOLGA4, AKAP13)

showed strong post-transcriptional regulation with slow/fast fiber type-specific expression

profiles only at the proteome level (**Fig 4 S1C**).

We next performed over-representation analysis on the differentially abundant genes and

proteins (**Fig 4D, Table S15**). Enriched pathways of features that were differential in both

datasets showed expected differences such as fatty acid beta-oxidation and ketone metabolic

process (slow fibers), myofilament/muscle contraction (fast and slow fibers, respectively) and

carbohydrate catabolic process (fast fibers). Serine/Threonine protein phosphatase activity

was also enriched in fast fibers, driven by features such as phosphatase regulatory and

catalytic subunits (PPP3CB, PPP1R3D, and PPP1R3A), known to regulate glycogen

metabolism[47] (**Fig 4 S1D-E**). Other enriched pathways in fast fibers were Processing (P-) bodies

(YTHDF3, TRIM21, LSM2) in the proteome (**Fig 4 S1F**), possibly related to post-transcriptional

regulation[48], and transcription factor activity (*SREBF1*, *RXRG*, *RORA*) in the transcriptome (**Fig**

4 S1G). Slow fibers showed enrichment for oxidoreductase activity (*BDH1*, *DCXR*, *TXN2*) (**Fig 4**

S1H), amide binding (*CPTP*, *PFDN2*, *CRYAB*) (**Fig 4 S1I**), extracellular matrix (*CTSD*, *ADAMTSL4*,

LAMC1) (**Fig 4 S1J**) and receptor-ligand activity (*FNDC5*, *SPX*, *NENF*) (**Fig 4 S1K**).

To get more insights into the transcriptional regulation of slow/fast fiber type signatures, we

performed transcription factor enrichment analysis using SCENIC[49] (**Table S16**). Many

transcription factors were significantly enriched between fast and slow fibers (**Fig 4E**). This

included transcription factors such as *MAFA*, previously linked to the development of fast

fibers[50], but also multiple novel transcription factors potentially involved in the fiber type

specific gene program. These included *PITX1*, *EGR1* and *MYF6* as the most enriched

transcription factors within fast fibers (**Fig 4E**). Conversely, *ZSCAN30* and *EPAS1* (also known

as *HIF2A*) were the most enriched transcription factors within slow fibers (**Fig 4E**). In line with

this, *MAFA* expression levels were higher in the UMAP area corresponding to fast muscle

fibers, whereas an opposite expression pattern was observed for *EPAS1* (**Fig 4F**).

Non-coding RNA and associated microproteins in human skeletal muscle fibers

Alongside known protein-coding genes, there exists a multitude of non-coding RNA biotypes,

potentially involved in the regulation of human development and disease[51,52]. Several non-

coding RNAs displayed fiber type specificity in the transcriptomics dataset (**Fig 5A & Table**

S17), including *LINC01405*, which is very specific to slow fibers and is reported to be

downregulated in muscle of mitochondrial myopathy patients[53]. Conversely, *RP11-255P5.3,*

corresponding to the *lnc-ERCC5-5* gene (https://lncipedia.org/db/transcript/lnc-ERCC5-5:2)[54]

displayed fast fiber type-specificity. Both *LINC01405* (https://tinyurl.com/x5k9wj3h) and

RP11-255P5.3 (https://tinyurl.com/29jmzder) display specificity to skeletal muscle (**Fig 5 S1A-**

B) and have very few or no known contractile genes within a 1Mb genomic neighborhood,

suggesting a specialized role in fiber type regulation rather than a regulatory role for a

neighboring contractile gene. The slow/fast fiber type-specific specific expression profiles of

LINC01405 and *RP11-255P5.3* were independently validated using RNAscope (**Fig 5B-C**).

Recently, it has become apparent that numerous assumed non-coding transcripts code for

transcribed microproteins, some of which regulate muscle function[44,55]. To identify novel

microproteins with potential fiber-type specificity, we searched our 1000 fiber proteomic

dataset using a custom FASTA file containing sequences from the detected non-coding

transcripts (n = 305) from the 1000 fiber transcriptome dataset (**Fig 5D**). This resulted in the

identification of 197 novel microproteins arising from 22 distinct transcripts, of which 71

microproteins display differential regulation between slow and fast skeletal muscle fibers (**Fig**

5 S1C and Table S18). Three microprotein products were identified for *LINC01405*, of which

one displays a slow-fiber type specificity similar to its transcript (**Fig 5E and 5 S1D**). Thus, we

identify *LINC01405* as a microprotein-encoding gene, which displays specificity for slow

skeletal muscle fibers.

Nemaline myopathies induce a shift towards faster, less oxidative skeletal muscle fibers

Having developed a comprehensive workflow to characterize the proteome of single muscle fibers at scale and discovered novel regulators of fiber heterogeneity in the healthy state, we applied this pipeline to understand how nemaline myopathy impacts skeletal muscle fiber heterogeneity. Nemaline myopathy is a genetic muscular disorder that causes muscle weakness, resulting in a range of complications for the affected children including respiratory difficulties, scoliosis, and physical immobility[19,20]. Typically, in nemaline myopathy, pathogenic variants in genes such as actin alpha 1 (*ACTA1*) drive the fiber type composition towards slow fiber predominance, although this effect is heterogenous. The only clear exception is the troponin T1 (*TNNT1*) nemaline myopathy, in which a fast fiber predominance is seen. Thus, a deeper characterization of the heterogeneity behind the skeletal muscle fiber dysregulation observed in nemaline myopathies may help untangle the complex relationship between these diseases and muscle fiber types.

Muscle fibers isolated from patients with *ACTA1*- and *TNNT1*-mutation derived nemaline myopathies display substantial myofiber atrophy or hypotrophy, compared to healthy controls (n = 3 per group) (**Fig 6A, Table S19**), which provides considerable technical challenge arising from the limited material for proteomic analysis. Nonetheless, we were able to detect 2485 proteins from 272 skeletal muscle fibers. After filtering for a minimum of 1000 quantified proteins per fiber, downstream bioinformatic analyses were performed on 250 fibers. On average of 1573 ± 359 proteins were quantified per fiber after filtering (**Fig 6 S1A, Table S20-21**). Importantly, only a modest reduction in proteome depth was apparent in samples from

patients with nemaline myopathy, despite the markedly reduced fiber size. Furthermore,

processing of this data with our custom FASTA file (including non-coding transcripts) identified

five microproteins within the skeletal muscle fibers from nemaline myopathy patients (**Table**

S22). A wide dynamic range was apparent in the proteome, whilst the shared proteins in the

control participants correlated well with those in the previous analysis of the 1000 fiber

proteome study (**Fig 6 S1B-C**).

As nemaline myopathies influence the MYH-based fiber type proportions within skeletal

muscle[19,20], we first investigated the MYH-based fiber type of our nemaline myopathy patients

and controls. Fiber type was determined using the unbiased approach described previously

for the 1000 fiber studies (**Fig 6 S1D-E**) and once again pure type 2X fibers could not be

identified (**Fig 6B**). We observed a heterogeneous effect of nemaline myopathies on fiber type,

as two patients with *ACTA1* mutations displaying an increased proportion of type 1 fibers,

whilst two patients with *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathy displayed a reduced proportion of type

1 fibers (**Fig 6B**). Indeed, MYH2 and the fast troponin isoforms were downregulated in *ACTA1*-

nemaline myopathy (TNNC2, TNNI2, and TNNT3), whilst MYH7 was downregulated in *TNNT1*-

nemaline myopathy (**Fig 6 S2A**). This is in line with previous reports of heterogeneous fiber

type switching in nemaline myopathies[19,20]. We validated these findings using

immunohistochemistry, finding type 1 fiber predominance in *ACTA1*-nemaline myopathy

patients, while the opposite was observed in *TNNT1-nemaline myopathy* patients (**Fig 6A**).

At the single-fiber proteome level, skeletal muscle fibers from *ACTA1*- and *TNNT1*-nemaline

myopathy patients clustered away from the majority of control fibers, with TNNT1- nemaline

myopathy fibers tending to be the most severely affected (**Fig 6C**). This was particularly

apparent when we produced a PCA plot of pseudo-bulked fibers for each patient, with *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathy patients 2 & 3 lying furthest from the control samples (**Fig 6 S2B, Table S23**). To further understand how fibers from myopathy patients compare to the healthy condition, we capitalized on the depth of information provided by our analysis in 1000 fiber proteome study from healthy adult participants. We projected the fibers from our myopathy data set (both *ACTA1*- and *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathy patients and controls) onto the PCA determined from the 1000 fiber proteome study (**Fig 6D**). Control fibers displayed a similar distribution of MYH-based fiber type along PC2 as the 1000 fiber proteome study. However, the majority of fibers from nemaline myopathy patients shifted downwards along PC2, overlapping with the healthy fast fibers, irrespective of their own MYH-based fiber type. Thus, despite evidence for a fiber-type shift towards type 1 fibers in *ACTA1*-nemaline myopathy patients when quantified using MYH-based approaches, both *ACTA1*- and *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathies shift the skeletal muscle fiber proteome to resemble fast fibers.

We next directly compared each patient group with the samples from healthy controls, resulting in 256 and 552 differentially abundant proteins in *ACTA1*- and *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathies, respectively (**Fig 6E-G & Fig 6 S2C, Table S24**). Gene set enrichment analysis identified the coordinated reduction of mitochondrial proteins (**Fig 6H-I, Table S25**). Surprisingly, this was completely independent of MYH-based fiber type (**Fig 6H & Fig 6 S2D-I, Table S26**), despite the divergent fiber type predominance between *ACTA1*- and *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathies. Three microproteins were also regulated by either *ACTA1*- or *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathies. Two of those microproteins, ENSG00000215483_TR14_ORF67 (also known as *LINC00598* or *Lnc-FOXO1*) and ENSG00000229425_TR25_ORF40 (*lnc-NRIP1-2*) displayed differential abundance only within type 1 fibers, with

ENSG00000215483_TR14_ORF67 having previously reported to play a role in cell cycle

regulation[56]. On the other hand, ENSG00000232046_TR1_ORF437 (corresponding to

LINC01798) was upregulated in both type 1 and type 2 fibers from *ACTA1*-nemaline myopathy

when compared to healthy controls (**Fig 6 S3A, Table S27**). Conversely, ribosomal proteins

were largely unaffected by nemaline myopathies, although RPS17 was downregulated in

ACTA1-nemaline myopathy (**Fig 6E**).

Enrichment analysis also identified the up-regulation of immune system process in both

ACTA1- and *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathies, as well as cell adhesion in *TNNT1*-nemaline

myopathy (**Fig 6H**). The enrichment of these extracellular terms, was reflected by extracellular

matrix proteins driving the PCA in the negative direction in both PC1 and PC2, i.e. towards the

most affected fibers (**Fig 6J**). Both patient groups overexpressed extracellular proteins

involved in immune response and the sarcolemma repair machinery, such as annexins

(ANXA1, ANXA2, ANXA5)[57,58] and their interactor S100A11[59] (**Fig 6 S3B-C**). This process has

been previously reported to be upregulated in muscle dystrophies[60], yet to our knowledge it

has not been associated with nemaline myopathies before. A normal function of this

molecular machinery is required for both sarcolemma membrane repair upon injury and for

the fusion of new myoblasts to muscle fibers[58,61]. Therefore, an up-regulation of this process

in both patient groups suggests a reparative response to damage caused by myofibril

instability.

The effects of each nemaline myopathy were well correlated (r = 0.736) and displayed

reasonable overlap (**Fig 6 S2A-B**), indicating that *ACTA1*- and *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathies

induce similar effects on the proteome. Nonetheless, a number of proteins displayed

regulation in only *ACTA1*- or *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathies (**Fig 6 S2A & S2C**). MFAP4, a pro-

fibrotic protein, was one of the most up-regulated proteins in *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathy

whilst unchanged in *ACTA1*-nemaline myopathy. SKIC8, a component of the PAF1C complex,

which regulates the transcription of *HOX* genes[62], was down-regulated in *TNNT1*-nemaline

myopathy but was unaffected in *ACTA1*-nemaline myopathy (**Fig 6 S2A**). Direct comparisons

between *ACTA1*- and *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathies identify a greater effect of *TNNT1*-

nemaline myopathies on the reduction of mitochondrial proteins and the increase of immune

system proteins (**Fig 6G-H & Fig 6 S2C & S2H-I**). These data are consistent with the greater

degree of atrophy/hypotrophy apparent in *TNNT1*- compared to *ACTA1*-nemaline myopathies

(**Fig 6A**), indicating that *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathy is the more severe form of the disease.

In order to assess whether the observed effects of nemaline myopathy were also present at

the whole muscle-level, we conducted a bulk proteome analysis on muscle biopsies from the

same *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathy patients and compared them against control individuals (n

= 3 per group) (**Fig 6 S4A, Table S28**). As expected, upon PCA, control individuals tightly

clustered together whereas, similarly to the single fiber analysis, and *TNNT1*-nemaline

myopathy patients displayed a higher inter-sample variance (**Fig 6 S4B**). The bulk analysis was

able to recapitulate the differentially expressed proteins (**Fig 6 S4C, Table S29**) and biological

processes (**Fig 6 S4D, Table S30**) highlighted in the single fiber comparison, although lost the

potential to discriminate between fiber types, and did not account for the heterogeneous

effect of the disease across different fibers.

Together, these data demonstrate that single muscle fiber proteomics can illuminate clinical

biology that is unapparent using targeted approaches such as immunoblotting. Furthermore,

these data highlight the limitations of solely relying upon MYH-based fiber typing to describe

phenotypic adaptations. Indeed, despite divergent MYH-based fiber type switching in actin

and troponin nemaline myopathies, both nemaline myopathies uncouple the MYH-based

fiber type from skeletal muscle fiber metabolism, shifting towards a faster, less oxidative

muscle proteome.

Discussion

Cellular heterogeneity is important to enable tissues to meet a wide range of demands. In

skeletal muscle, this has classically been described by fiber types characterized by varying

degrees of force production and fatigability. It is apparent, however, that this explains just a

fraction of the variation in skeletal muscle fibers, with far greater variability, complexity and

nuance residing in skeletal muscle fibers than previously believed. With the advent and

development in technologies, these elements that regulate skeletal muscle fibers are now

able to be elucidated. Indeed, our data indicates that type 2X fibers may not be a distinct sub-

classification of skeletal muscle fibers. Furthermore, we identify metabolic, ribosomal, and cell

junction proteins as major determinants of skeletal muscle fiber heterogeneity. By applying

our proteomics workflow to samples from nemaline myopathy patients, we further evidence

that MYH-based fiber typing does not capture the complete heterogeneity of skeletal muscle,

particularly when the system is perturbed. Indeed, nemaline myopathies induce a shift

towards faster less oxidative fibers regardless of their MYH-based fiber type.

Skeletal muscle fibers have been classified since the 19th century[2,63]. Recent omics-based

analyses have enabled us to start understanding expression profiles and responses to various

stimuli specific to distinct MYH-based fiber types[11-16,24,46,64,65]. As demonstrated herein, omics

approaches also have the advantage of increased sensitivity in the quantification of fiber-type markers over traditional antibody-based approaches, whilst also not relying on the quantification of a single (or few) markers for determining skeletal muscle fiber type. We leveraged complementary transcriptomics and proteomics workflows, and integrated the results, to explore the transcriptional and post-transcriptional regulation of human skeletal muscle fiber heterogeneity. This pipeline resulted in the observation that pure type 2X fibers could not be identified at the protein level in *vastus lateralis* skeletal muscle of our cohort of young healthy males. This is in line with previous single-fiber studies identifying <1% pure type 2x fibers in healthy *vastus lateralis*[66], although this should be confirmed in other muscles in the future. The discrepancy between the identification of near pure type 2X fibers at the mRNA level but only hybrid type 2A/2X fibers at the protein level is puzzling. mRNA expression of MYH isoforms is not circadian[67], indicating that it is unlikely that we have simply "missed" the on-signal of MYH2 in the apparently pure type 2X fibers at the RNA level. One possible explanation may be differences in the protein and/or mRNA stability of MYH isoforms, though this is purely hypothetical. Indeed, no fast fiber was 100% pure for any MYH isoform, though whether levels of MYH1 mRNA expression in the range of 70-90% could result in similar MYH1 and MYH2 abundance at the protein level is unclear. Nonetheless, when the whole transcriptome or proteome is considered, clustering-based analyses could only confidently identify two distinct clusters, which represented slow and fast skeletal muscle fibers regardless of their exact MYH composition. This is consistent with analyses using single nuclei transcriptomics approaches which commonly identify only two distinct clusters of myonuclei[68-70]. Furthermore, whilst previous proteomics-based studies have identified type 2X fibers, these fibers did not cluster away from the rest of the fast fibers and only displayed a handful of differentially abundant proteins compared to other MYH-based fiber types[14].

These findings indicate that we should revert to the view of muscle fiber classification from

the early twentieth century and classify human skeletal muscle fibers not into three distinct

classifications based on MYHs, but instead into just two clusters based on their metabolic and

contractile properties[63].

Better still, we should consider muscle fiber heterogeneity in multiple dimensions. Previous

omics studies already pointed in this direction, by showing that skeletal muscle fibers do not

form discrete clusters, yet fall along a continuum[11,13,14,64,71]. Here, we found that over and

above the variance within the contractile and metabolic signatures of skeletal muscle, fibers

could also be separated by features related to the cell junction and translation machinery.

Indeed, we identified ribosomal heterogeneity across skeletal muscle fibers that drives a

slow/fast-fiber type independent heterogeneity. The underlying reason for such vast

slow/fast-fiber type independent heterogeneity amongst fibers is not immediately obvious,

though this could allude to a specialized spatial organization within a muscle fascicle to enable

an optimal response to specific forces and loads[72], specialized cellular or organ

communication with other cell types within the muscle microenvironment[73-75], or differential

ribosomal activity in individual fibers. Indeed, ribosomal heterogeneity, via paralog

substitution of RPL3 and RPL3L or at an rRNA 2'O-methyl level, has been implicated in skeletal

muscle hypertrophy[76,77]. Multi-omics and spatial applications in concert with functional

characteristics of single muscle fibers will further advance our understanding of muscle

biology on a multi-omics level[78].

In analyzing the proteome of single muscle fibers from patients with nemaline myopathies,

we also demonstrate the utility, power, and applicability of single muscle fiber proteomics in

uncovering clinical pathophysiology in skeletal muscle. Furthermore, by comparing our

workflow against a bulk proteome analysis, we were able to demonstrate that single muscle

fiber proteomics is able to capture the same depth of information than bulk tissue omics and

expand on it by including inter-fiber heterogeneity and muscle fiber type into consideration.

In addition to observing expected, albeit divergent, differences in fiber-type proportions in

ACTA1- and *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathies compared to healthy controls[19], we also identified

oxidative and extracellular remodeling, which is uncoupled from this MYH-based fiber type

switch. Fibrosis has previously been reported for *TNNT1* nemaline myopathy[19]. However, our

analysis builds upon this to also identify the up-regulation of stress-related secreted proteins

within the extracellular space, such as annexins, involved in the sarcolemma repair

machinery[57-59] in fibers from both *ACTA1*- and *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathy patients. Overall,

the upregulation of annexins in muscle fibers from nemaline myopathy patients may

represent a cellular response to rescue severely atrophying fibers.

Whilst this study represents the largest omic analysis of intact human single muscle fibers to

date, it is not without limitations. We isolated skeletal muscle fibers from a relatively small

and homogenous sample of participants and from a single muscle (*vastus lateralis*). In this

respect, it is impossible to rule out the existence of specific fiber populations in different

muscle types and at the extremes of muscle physiology. For example, we cannot rule out that

a sub type of ultra-fast fibers (e.g. pure type 2X fibers) may become apparent in highly trained

sprint and/or power athletes[79] or during muscle disuse[66,80]. Furthermore, our limited

participant pool did not allow us to investigate sex differences in fiber heterogeneity, in which

there are known differences in fiber type proportions between males and females.

Furthermore, we were unable to perform transcriptomics and proteomics on the same muscle

fibers or in samples from the same participants. As we and others continue to optimize single-

cell and single muscle fiber omics-analyses towards ultra-low sample input (as demonstrated

here with the analysis of fibers from nemaline myopathy patients), the possibility of

combining multi-omics (and functional) approaches in a single muscle fiber is tantalizingly

close.

Collectively, our data identifies and explains transcriptional and post-transcriptional drivers of

heterogeneity within skeletal muscle. In particular, we provide data to question long-standing

dogmas within skeletal muscle physiology related to the classical definitions of MYH-based

fiber-types. In doing so we hope to reignite the debate and ultimately redefine our

understanding of skeletal muscle fiber classifications and heterogeneity.

Methods

1000 fiber transcriptomics

Participant information. Fourteen participants (12 males / 2 females) volunteered to take part

in this study, which was approved by the Ethical Committee of Ghent University Hospital (BC-

10237), in agreement with the 2013 Declaration of Helsinki and registered on ClinicalTrials.gov

(NCT05131555). General characteristics of the participants can be found in **Table S1**. After oral

and written informed consent, participants were medically screened before final inclusion.

Participants were young (22-42 years old), healthy (no diseases and non-smoking) and

moderately physically active. Maximal oxygen uptake was determined as marker of physical

fitness during a graded incremental cycling test, as previously described[81].

Muscle biopsy collection. Muscle biopsies were collected in the rested and fasted state, on three different days, separated by 14 days. As these samples were collected as part of a larger study, on each of these days participants ingested a placebo (lactose), an H1-receptor antagonist (540 mg fexofenadine) or an H2-receptor antagonist (40 mg famotidine) 40 minutes before muscle biopsy collection. We have previously shown that these histamine receptor antagonists do not affect the resting skeletal muscle state[81], and no clustering was apparent based on condition in our quality control plots (**Fig 1 S3E & Fig 2 S2B**). Dietary intake was standardized 48 hours before each experimental day (41.4 kcal/kg body weight, 5.1 g/kg body weight carbohydrates, 1.4 g/kg body weight protein and 1.6 g/kg body weight fat per day), followed by a standardized breakfast on the morning of the experimental day (1.5 g/kg bodyweight carbohydrates). Muscle biopsies of the *m. vastus lateralis* were then collected after local anaesthesia (0.5 mL of 1% Xylocaïne without epinephrine) using the percutaneous Bergström technique with suction[82]. The muscle samples were immediately submerged in RNA*later* and stored at 4 °C until manual fiber dissection (max. 3 days).

Single fiber isolation. Freshly excised muscle fiber bundles were transferred to fresh RNA*later* in a petri dish. Individual muscle fibers were then manually dissected using a stereomicroscope and fine forceps. Twenty-five fibers were dissected per biopsy, with special care to select fibers from different sections of the biopsy. After dissection, each fiber was carefully submerged in 3 µL of lysis buffer (SingleShot Cell Lysis kit, Bio-rad), containing proteinase K and DNase enzymes to remove unwanted proteins and DNA. Next, cell lysis and protein/DNA removal was initiated by short vortexing, spinning liquid down in a microcentrifuge and incubation at room temperature (10 min). Lysates were then incubated

for 5 min at 37 °C and 5 min at 75 °C in a thermocycler (T100, Bio-Rad), immediately followed

by storage at -80 °C until further processing.

Sequencing library preparation. Illumina-compatible libraries from polyadenylated RNA were

prepared from 2 µL of the muscle fiber lysates using the QuantSeq-Pool 3' mRNA-Seq library

prep kit (Lexogen). Detailed methodology can be found in the manufacturer guidelines. The

process was initiated by reverse transcription for first strand cDNA synthesis, during which

Unique Molecular Identifiers (UMIs) and sample-specific i1 barcodes were introduced

enabling sample pooling and reducing technical variability in the downstream process. Next,

cDNA from 96 fibers was pooled and purified using magnetic beads, followed by RNA removal

and second strand synthesis by random priming. Libraries were purified using magnetic beads,

followed by addition of pool-specific i5/i7 indices and PCR amplification. A last purification

step was performed, finalizing the Illumina-compatible libraries. A high sensitivity small DNA

Fragment Analysis kit (Agilent Technologies, DNF-477-0500) was used to assess the quality of

each library pool.

Illumina sequencing. The individual pools were further equimolarly (2 nM) pooled, based on

Qubit-quantified concentrations. The final pool was subsequently sequenced with a NovaSeq

S2 kit (1 x 100 nucleotides) with a loading of 2 nM (4% PhiX) in standard mode on a NovaSeq

6000 instrument.

Primary data processing. Our pipeline was based on the QuantSeq Pool data analysis pipeline

from Lexogen (https://github.com/Lexogen-Tools/quantseqpool_analysis). First, the data was

demultiplexed based on the i7/i5 indices with bcl2fastq2 (v2.20.0). The next demultiplexing

step was performed via idemux (v0.1.6) according to the i1 sample-specific barcodes in read

2, followed by extraction of UMI sequences with umi_tools (v1.0.1). Trimming of the reads

was then performed in multiple rounds with cutadapt (v3.4), with removal of too short reads

(length < 20) or reads consisting entirely of adapter sequences. Reads were then aligned to

the human genome with STAR (v2.6.0c), followed by BAM file indexing with SAMtools (v1.11).

Duplicates of reads were removed with umi_tools (v1.0.1). Finally, counting of the alignments

was performed with featureCounts from Subread (v2.0.3). At several intermediate steps

during the pipeline, quality control with performed with FastQC (v0.11.9).

Initial Seurat processing. All further bioinformatics processing and visualization was

performed in R (v4.2.3), primarily with the Seurat v4 workflow[83]. The individual UMI counts

and metadata matrices were thus transformed into a Seurat object. Genes with expression in

less than 30% of all fibers were removed. Low-quality samples were then removed based on

a minimum threshold of 1000 UMI counts and 1000 detected genes. This resulted in a total of

925 fibers that passed all quality control filtering steps. Normalization of UMI counts was

performed using the SCTransform v2 Seurat method[84], including all 7418 detected features

and regressing out participant variation. All relevant metadata can be found in **Table S31**.

Proteomics

Sample collection - 1000 fiber proteome

Participant information. Stored biobank muscle specimens were used for the purpose of the

present study (Clinicaltrials.gov identifier: NCT04048993). The specimens were collected from

five active and healthy male volunteers (aged 21-35 years) who gave their written and oral

informed consent with approval from the Science Ethics Committee of the Capital Region in

Denmark (H-1-2012-090) and complied with the guidelines of the 2013 Declaration of

Helsinki. General characteristics of the participants can be found in **Table S1.** Participants were

young, healthy (no diseases and non-smoking) and moderately physically active.

Muscle biopsy collection. Participants arrived in the morning after an overnight fast and

rested in the supine position for 1 hour. Then, local anesthesia (2-3 mL Xylocaine 2%; lidocaine

without epinephrine, AstraZeneca, Denmark) was applied under the skin above the fascia at

the belly of the *m. vastus lateralis* muscle. A muscle biopsy was sampled through a small 3-4

mm incision using a Bergström needle with suction. The muscle biopsy specimen was snap-

frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at −80°C until analysis.

Single muscle fiber isolation. Muscle fibers were isolated from freeze-dried specimens as

previously described[24]. In brief, muscle biopsies were freeze-dried for 48 hours. Subsequently,

fibers were isolated in a humidity- and temperature-controlled room (humidity of 25%) using

fine forceps under a stereomicroscope. Approximately 200 single muscle fibers were isolated

for each biopsy, resulting in a total of 1038. To ensure the fibers settled at the bottom of the

tube, each fiber-containing tube underwent centrifugation at 20,000 g using a small

centrifuge. Next, fibers were resuspended in 15 µL of lysis buffer (1% sodium dodecyl sulfate

(SDC), 40 mM chloroacetamide (CAA), 10 mM dithiothreitol (DTT) in 50 mM Tris pH 8.5).

Sample collection – myopathy

Participant information. Six patients with severe nemaline myopathy were selected from our

nemaline myopathy study cohort. Three patients had pathogenic variants in *ACTA1*,

representing the conventional severe form, and three patients had pathogenic variants in

TNNT1, resulting in a rare, progressive form of nemaline myopathy. Three healthy individuals

with no history of neuromuscular disease were used as controls (**Table S19**).

Muscle biopsy collection. Healthy control participant biopsies (n = 3) were used from an

original study[85], and were therefore collected, snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored in -

80°C as per that originally described. For the present study, a fragment of this stored biopsy

was dissected under sterile, frozen conditions before being prepared for single myofiber

isolation (detailed below). Acquisition of biopsies of healthy control patients was approved by

local ethics committee (Copenhagen and Frederiksberg) in Denmark (hs:h-15002266). Those

of myopathy patients were consented, stored, and used in accordance with the Human Tissue

Act under local ethical approval in United Kingdom (REC 13/NE/0373). All procedures were

carried out in accordance to the Declaration of Helsinki.

Single fiber isolation. Dissected fragments of muscle biopsy were placed in ice-cold, 22 micron

filtered relaxing solution (4 mM Mg-ATP, 1 mM free Mg $^{2+}$, $10^{-6.00}$ mM free Ca^{2+}, 20 mM

imidazole, 7 mM EGTA, 14.5 mM creatine phosphate, KCl to an iconic strength of 180 mM and

pH to 7.0)[86] for ~3 minutes before being immersed in fresh relaxing solution on a sterile petri

dish and mounted on ice under a dissection microscope for single fiber isolation. Fibers were

cleaved from the tissue/biopsy ensuring a variety of sample/biopsy locations were used and

that only single fibers were selected. Following isolation, fibers were manually moved to a

sterile 96-well plate containing 15 μL of lysis buffer (identical to that detailed above) where

the tweezers containing the fiber were submerged, spun and agitated in lysis buffer to ensure

the fibers dissociated from the tweezers. To ensure fibers were settled to the bottom of the

well, the 96-well plate was subjected to gentle vortexing and centrifugation (1,000 g).

Proteomics analysis

Sample preparation. Samples from both proteomics studies followed the same sample preparation workflow. In order to extract the proteins, samples were boiled at 95°C in a thermomixer with gentle shaking (800 rpm) and sonicated in a bioruptor instrument with 30 seconds on/off cycles for 15 minutes. A small 5 μL fraction of lysate from each sample was saved for antibody-based fiber typing of the 1000 fiber samples. Next, samples were processed following a modified version of the in-solution digestion sample preparation protocol. In brief, total volume was adjusted to 50 μl by addition of digestion buffer, containing 50 mM Tris PH 8.5 buffer, an enzyme to protein ratio of 1:500 LysC (Wako) and a 1:100 enzyme to protein ratio of trypsin (Promega). SMF lysates were digested overnight in a thermomixer set to 37° C and 800 rpm. The next day, protein digestion was quenched by addition of 50 μl of 2% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) in isopropanol. Peptides were desalted using in-house prepared single-use reverse-phase StageTips containing styrenedivinylbenzene reverse-phase sulfonate (SDB-RPS) disks. Then, desalted peptides were loaded in Evotips (Evosep) following manufacturer instructions prior LC-MS/MS analysis. Bulk tissue samples were prepared using the same protocol utilized for single fibers, with a few modifications to sample lysis. Tissue samples were first powdered using a tissue crusher over dry ice before resuspending the powder in the same lysis buffer described above. Then, the samples were homogenized using an IKA Turrax homogenizer for 2 minutes prior boiling and sonication. From here onwards the samples underwent the same protocol described above.

Proteomics library preparation. Fibers from the five healthy control individuals participating in the 1000 fiber study were carefully dissected and combined in order to create a pooled

fiber lysate. Then, 200 µg of protein corresponding to each participant-specific lysate were

pooled together into one final protein lysate that was processed following the same sample

preparation workflow just described. 20 µg of desalted peptides were fractionated using High

pH Reverse-Phase Chromatography (HpH-RP). Fractionation was carried out on a Kinetex 2.6

µm EVO C18 100 Å, 150 x 0.3 mm column manufactured by Phenomenex and using an EASY-

nLC 1200 System (Thermo) operating at 1.5 µL/min. Separation was accomplished using a 62

min step-gradient starting from 3% to 60% solvent B (which consisted of 10 mM TEAB in 80%

acetonitrile) and solvent A (containing 10 mM TEAB in water). The total run time was 98 min,

which included wash and column equilibration. Throughout the fractionation, peptides were

eluted and collected every 60 s, obtaining 96 single fractions without concatenation. Finally.

200 ng of HpH-RP fractionated peptides were loaded, concentrated and desalted on Evotips

(Evosep) following the instructions provided by the manufacturer.

Liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry. Proteomics measurements were

performed using LC-MS instrumentation consisting of an Evosep One HPLC system (Evosep)[22]

coupled via electrospray ionization to a timsTOF SCP mass spectrometer (Bruker). Peptides

were separated utilizing 8 cm, 150 µM ID columns packed with C18 beads (1.5 µm) (Evosep).

Chromatographic separation was achieved by the '60 samples per day' method, followed by

electrospray ionization through a CaptiveSpray ion source and a 10 µm emitter into the MS

instrument. Single muscle fiber peptides were measured in DIA-PASEF mode following a

previously described method[23], while library fractions were measured using DDA-PASEF. In

brief, the DDA-PASEF scan range encompassed 100 - 1700 m/z for both MS and MS/MS, and

TIMS mobility range was set to $0.6 - 1.6$ (V cm^{-2}). Both TIMS ramp and accumulation times

were configured to 100 ms, and 10 PASEF ramps were recorded for a total cycle time of 1.17

s. The MS/MS target intensity and intensity threshold were defined as 20.000 and 1.000,

respectively. An exclusion list of 0.4 min for precursors within 0.015 m/z and 0.015 V cm^{-2}

width was also activated. For DIA-PASEF the scan range was established at 400-1000 (m/z),

the TIMS mobility range to 0.64-1.37 (V cm^{-2}), and ramp and accumulation times were both

set to 100 ms. A short-gradient method was used, which included 8 DIA-PASEF scans with

three 25 Da windows per ramp, resulting in an estimated cycle time of 0.95 sec.

MS data processing. Library files were processed using the MS-Fragger functionality within

Fragpipe v19.0 under the SpecLib workflow with default settings, including a minimum

peptide length of seven amino acids and maximum of two missed cleavages allowed[87]. Spectra

were searched against a human reviewed FASTA from Uniprot (March 2022, 20410 entries)

and the output library contained a total of 5350 protein groups and 84383 precursors. Sample

raw MS files were analyzed using DIA-NN version 1.8[88] in a library-based manner against the

MS library just described. Protein groups quantification was based on proteotypic peptides,

neural network was set to double-pass mode, quantification strategy was set to "Robust LC

(high accuracy)" and the match between runs options was enabled, the rest of parameters

remained as default, which included precursor FDR set to 1% and peptide length of 7-30 amino

acids.

Data processing. Further data analysis was performed under the R environment (R version

4.22). Both a metadata data frame containing sample and participant information and the

"PG_matrix.tsv" file from DIA-NN's output were loaded in RStudio. The 1000 fiber data frame

was filtered to remove samples with less than 50% valid protein intensity values, resulting in

a total of 974 fibers. Next, rows were filtered to remove proteins with less than 30% valid

values across samples, resulting in a total of 1685 proteins. Regarding the myopathy dataset,

after filtering samples for 50% valid values, the number of samples was 250. We included in

the analysis proteins that were quantified in 70% of the samples in at least one condition

(conditions: control, actin myopathy and troponin myopathy), resulting in a total of 1545

proteins. Both data frames were then log2 transformed and normalized using the

normalizeBetweenArrays() function from the limma package, with the method argument set

to quantile[89]. Then, batch correction through the *ComBat()* function from the sva package[90]

was applied to minimize the effect of the three technical batches originated during mass

spectrometry measurement. Finally, missing values were replaced by random numbers from

a Gaussian distribution with the default settings of the *tImpute()* function from the PhosR

package[91]. All relevant metadata for the 1000 fiber proteome and nemaline myopathy

datasets can be found in **Tables S32 and S33, respectively**.

Bioinformatics analysis

Transcriptome and proteome dynamic range. The expression/intensity for each gene/protein

was calculated relative to the total counts/intensity for each fiber. This value was then

averaged across fibers in each dataset and log10-transformed. The overlap of detected

features between both datasets were analyzed using the *VennDiagram* package (v 1.7.3).

Coefficient of variation – proteomics. For each of the 96 well plates used during the MS

measurement of the 1000 fiber study, one technical control sample was included in A1

position to monitor total ion current intensity and quality control of the runs (a total of eleven

technical controls). The coefficient of variation between proteins was calculated by dividing

the standard deviation by the mean of the LFQ intensities from each protein across technical

replicates and then multiplied by one hundred.

Correlation analyses. Mean log2 transformed transcript counts, protein intensities, and/or

fold change values across fibers were calculated, filtered for shared proteins/genes and

Pearson correlation was calculated.

Omics-based fiber typing. Normalized counts and raw LFQ intensities were retrieved from

well-described contractile proteins that have a slow (MYH7, TNNT1, TPM3, ATP2A2 and MYL3)

and fast (MYH2, MYH1, TNNT3, TPM1, ATP2A1 and MYL1) isoform[2]. For each isoform

combination, the relative expression of each was then calculated and samples were ordered

from high to low. The mathematical bottom knee for each curve was then determined using

the *barcodeRanks()* function in the DropletUtils package (v 1.18.1). This threshold was used

to assign fiber types as pure (type 1, type 2A or type 2X) or hybrid (hybrid 1/2A, hybrid 2A/2X

or hybrid 1/2X) (**Table S6**). For the features with only two isoforms, fibers were assigned as

'slow', 'fast' or 'hybrid'. To determine the overlap of the contractile features assigning a fiber

as being slow, upset plots were generated using the *upset()* function of the ComplexUpset

package (v 1.3.3), and then simplified to bar plots.

Principal Component Analysis (PCA). PCA was performed using the *RunPCA()* function of the

Seurat package. Scree plots were based on the *fviz_eig()* function of the factoextra package (v

1.0.7), which worked after PCA with *prcomp()*.

Seurat clustering. Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) clustering was performed based on the K-nearest neighbor graph with the first 6 dimensions as input for both the transcriptome and proteome datasets (**Fig 1 S3D-E**). Feature plots were generated using the *FeaturePlot()* function. UMAP plots were colored based on different criteria (MYH-based fiber types, participant, test day) stored in the metadata.

Enrichment analysis. Genes and protein sets were processed to obtain lists of features that were differentially expressed or, in the case of the top PCA drivers, in the top 5% drivers for the positive and negative direction of the first and second principal component. Over-representation analysis was then performed on these features with the *enrichGO()* and *simplify()* function of the clusterProfiler package (v 4.6.2)[92] using all gene ontology terms. Obtained lists of significant terms were manually curated to extract interesting and relevant terms.

Hierarchical clustering of ribosomal proteins. Raw proteomics data was log2 transformed and filtered to contain proteins enlisted in the 'cytosolic ribosome' GO term, followed by Z-scoring prior heatmap visualization using the *pheatmap()* function from the Pheatmap package (v 1.0.12). The number of clusters was determined by visual inspection and assigning a value of 3 to the *cuttree()* function.

Differential expression analysis. To avoid artificially inflated p-values, which would arise from regarding every fiber as an independent replicate, we employed a pseudobulk differential expression analysis approach. We mathematically downsampled the total data points to one value per MYH-based fiber type per participant by aggregating (transcriptomics) or taking the

median value (proteomics). Transcriptomics data were further processed using the DESeq2

pipeline (v 1.38.3)[93] with a '~ participant + fiber type' statistical model. 1000 fiber proteomics

data was processed using the limma (v 3.54.2) workflow, fitting the data to a linear model

defined as: '~ 0 + fiber type + participant', whereas the myopathy dataset was fitted to '~ 0 +

condition' for the comparisons between conditions and '~ 0 + fiber type and condition' for the

comparisons including fiber type. Fitted models were then subjected to gene ranking using an

empirical Bayes method using *eBayes*() prior extracting the results through *topTable*(), with p-

value adjustment set to Benjamini-Hochberg, both functions from the limma package.

Threshold for significantly different genes/proteins was defined as adjusted p-values smaller

than 0.05 and a log fold change cut-off of 1 was applied. For the nemaline myopathy dataset,

the Xiao significance score was applied, which combines expression fold change and statistical

significance[94]. Proteins with a Xiao score under 0.05 were regarded as differentially expressed

between conditions.

SCENIC. Inference of active transcription factors in slow and fast fibers was performed using

Single-Cell rEgulatory Network Inference and Clustering (SCENIC, pySCENIC version 0.12.1

with cisTarget v10 databases and annotations)[95]. To prioritize fiber-type specific transcription

factors, both their fiber-type specific expression at mRNA level and regulon activity were

combined into a final prioritization score. This prioritization score was calculated as the sum

of the z-score scaled differential expression score (logFC from pseudobulked data) and z-score

scaled regulon specificity scores (RSS).

Non-coding RNA. For the transcriptomics data, the biotype of each gene was determined

using the 'GENEBIOTYPE' column using the AnnotationDbi package (v 1.60.2) with the

EnsDb.Hsapiens.v86 database. Genomic location interrogation was performed using the UCSC

Human Genome Browser (https://genome.ucsc.edu). Tissue-specific gene expression of

interesting long non-coding RNAs was explored using the GTEx Portal database.

Microprotein identification.

Construction of putative lncRNA-encoded protein database

RNA sequences of the non-coding transcripts were extracted using the *getSequence() function*

from the biomaRt package (v 2.56.1)*,* with 'transcript_exon_intron' as the *seqType.* Both

intergenic (lincRNA) and antisense long non-coding RNA (lncRNA) transcripts were utilized for

database construction. A six-frame-translation was used to translate the corresponding RNA

sequences into the proteins, as well as ORFfinder NCBI functionality

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/orffinder/) was used to extract open reading frames (ORFs)

from the transcripts. Minimal ORF length was set to 75 nucleotides, genetic code was set to

"Standard" and "Any sense codon" was used, as a start codon, to extract maximum number

of open reading frames. The obtained protein fasta file contained multiple entries for each

gene name, ensured by various combinations of: i) transcript identifiers, ii) ORF identifiers and

iii) start:stop codons.

Identification of lncRNA-encoded proteins

DIA raw MS data were analyzed with Spectronaut v18 using an in-house generated sample-

specific fasta, comprised of the reviewed human proteome (proteome ID: UP000005640, 20

426 proteins, downloaded Sep 2023) and lncRNA-encoded protein sequences (125 223

proteins), in directDIA mode. The default settings were used unless otherwise noted. Data

filtering was set to   "Qvalue".   False discovery rate (FDR)   was set to 1%   at

peptide precursor level and 1% at protein level. Top3 peptide precursors were used for protein

quantification. The downstream data analysis was performed using in-house developed R

script.

PCA projection. The 1000 fiber and myopathy data sets were initially filtered to remove non-

overlapping proteins. Then, they were combined and normalized using the

normalizeBetweenArrays() function from the limma package. The normalization method used

was "quantile" to ensure that both data sets had the same distributions and were comparable.

Subsequently, the merged data set was divided back into the two separate data sets, namely

the 1000 fiber data set and the myopathy data set. For the 1000 fiber data set, PCA was

calculated using the *prcomp()* function. Moving on, the myopathy data set was multiplied by

the PC loadings obtained from the 1000 fiber dataset to generate its PCA projection. Finally,

the PCA projections from the myopathy samples were plotted on the top of the 1000 fiber

PCA visualization.

Muscle-specific ribosomal gene signature

The skeletal muscle-specific ribosomal gene signature, consisting of log2 fold change values

comparing the mRNA expression of ribosomal subunits in skeletal muscle compared to 52

other human tissues, was downloaded from Panda et al[96]. Log2 fold change values were

ranked to identify ribosomal proteins with the highest overexpression in human skeletal

muscle.

Structural Analysis of Ribosomal Proteins

The human 80S ribosome structural model (Protein Data Bank: 4V6X) was downloaded from

the Protein Data Bank website (RCSB PDB). Visualization and editing of the ribosomal

structure, and preparation of figures and movies were performed in UCSF ChimeraX[97].

Antibody-based fiber typing

Dot blot was conducted following a previously described protocol with a few modifications[24].

Initially, two identical PVDF membranes were activated using 96% ethanol and washed with

transfer buffer. Subsequently, the membranes were placed on wet filter paper with transfer

buffer until they dried. Next, 1 μL of fiber lysate was spotted at the same position on both

membranes, and the membranes were allowed to dry. Reactivation of the membranes was

carried out using 96% ethanol, followed by gentle washing with TBST. The membranes were

then blocked in TBST containing 5% skim milk for 15 minutes. After blocking, the membranes

were washed three times with TBST and incubated with the primary antibody solution of

either anti-MYH7 (A4.840) or anti-MYH2 (A4.74), both from Developmental Studies

Hybridoma Bank (DSHB) at a dilution of 1:200 in TBST containing 1% skim milk for one hour.

Subsequently, the membranes were gently washed three times with TBST and incubated with

the secondary antibody (anti-mouse) at a dilution of 1:20,000 in TBST containing 1% skim milk

for two hours. Finally, the membranes were washed three times for five minutes each with

TBST and visualized using Immobilon Forte (Milipore) in a ChemiDoc XRS+ (Bio-Rad) imaging

system.

RNAscope.

8μm sections from three different fixed-frozen human muscle biopsies were used for

RNAscope labelling and subsequent immunohistochemistry (IHC). For detection of RP11-

255P5.3 and LINC01405 commercially available RNAscope Multiplex Fluorescent Assay V2

(Advanced Cell Diagnostics) and probes against Lnc-ERCC5-5-C1 (# 1276851-C1), and

LINC01405-C2 (# 549201-C2) (Advanced Cell Diagnostics), were used according to the

manufacturer's protocols. To control tissue quality Positive 3-plex probe (# 320881) and

negative 3-plex probe (# 320871) were used. To visualize different subtypes of muscle fibers,

sections after RNAscope were blocked with 5% donkey serum and incubated with antibodies

against MYH2 (A4.74-s (1:5); DSHB) and MYH7 (A4.840 (1:5); BSHD) overnight. After washing

sections were incubated with Alexa Flour 488-conjugated Donkey Anti-Mouse IgG, Fcγ

Subclass 1 and DyLightTM405-conjugated Donkey Anti-Mouse IgM secondary antibodies

respectively and mounted with ProLong™ Diamond Antifade Mountant (Invitrogen). Slides

were imaged using Zeiss Axio Observer microscope equipped with Axiocam 702 camera.

Biopsies from three individuals were used for quantification, with 187 muscle fibers being

counted in total. As in RNAscope each dot corresponds to one RNA molecule, the number of

dots/mm^2 was used as a measure of RNA expression. We first determined the number of

dots/mm^2 within each fiber for both probes, then averaged the results by fiber type and

participant. The given average was then used as an input for a two sample t-test.

Immunostaining for muscle sections

Immunolabelling was performed on 10 μm cryosections, fixed in 4% PFA (10 min),

permeabilized in 0.1% Triton X-100 (20 min) and blocked in 10% Normal Goat Serum (50062Z,

Life Technologies) with 0.1% BSA (1 h). Sections were incubated o/n (4°C) with primary

antibodies against MYH7 (mouse monoclonal A4.951, Santa Cruz, sc-53090, diluted 1:25) or

MYH2 (mouse monoclonal SC71, DSHB, 1:25), each combined with primary antibody against

TNNT1 (rabbit polyclonal HPA058448, Sigma, diluted 1:500) in 5% goat serum with 0.1% BSA

and 0.1% Triton X-100. Alexa Fluor Goat anti-Mouse 647 (A21237) was used as the secondary antibody for the MYHs and Alexa Fluor Donkey anti-Rabbit 488 (A11034) for the TNNT1 (Life Technologies, 1:500 each in 10% Normal Goat Serum). Fluorescent images were obtained with a 10x objective on a Zeiss Axio Observer 3 fluorescence microscope with a Colibri 5 led detector, combined with Zeiss Axiocam 705 mono camera, using Zen software (Zeiss). For visualization purposes, a selection of fibres were mounted on copper grids glued on a microscopy slide, and imaged under a stereomicroscope.

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1218

1219 **Data availability**

1220 RNA-seq data has been deposited at the European Genome-phenome Archive (EGA), which is

1221 hosted by the EBI and the CRG, under study ID EGAS50000000418. Raw mass spectrometry

1222 files and search engine results have been deposited at the ProteomeXchange Consortium

1223 through the PRIDE partner repository (identifier PXD046863).

1224

1225 **Code availability**

1226 All code used for this manuscript is available upon request.

1227

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1258   **Competing interests**

1259   The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Transcriptomic- and proteomic-based clustering reveals only two distinct fiber types. (A) Transcriptomic and proteomic workflow. **(B-D)** Dynamic range curves for MYH7, MYH2, and MYH1, with calculated assignment thresholds for fiber typing. **(E-F)** Distribution of fibers by expression of MYHs in transcriptomics and proteomics datasets. **(G-H)** Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) plots for transcriptomics and proteomics, colored by MYH-based fiber type. **(I-J)** Feature plots displaying the expression of MYH7, MYH2, and MYH1 in transcriptomics and proteomics.

Figure 2. Skeletal muscle fiber heterogeneity beyond MYHs. (A) Principal component analysis (PCA) plots of transcriptomics and proteomics datasets colored by MYH-based fiber type. **(B)** Enrichment analysis of transcript and protein drivers of PC2 and PC1. **(C-D)** PCA plot colored by cell-cell adhesion gene ontology (GO) term in the transcriptome, and by costamere GO term in the proteome. Arrows represent transcript and protein drivers and their direction. **(E-F)** Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) feature plots of clinically relevant features displaying a slow/fast fiber type-independent gradient of expression. **(G-H)** Correlation between drivers of PC2 and PC1 between the transcriptome and proteome.

Figure 3. Ribosomal heterogeneity drives fiber type-independent heterogeneity. (A) Principal component analysis (PCA) plot colored by cytosolic ribosome gene ontology (GO) term in the proteome. Arrows indicate the direction towards which the proteins are driving the variance in the PCA plot. The length of the lines represents the principal component score for a given protein. **(B-C)** PCA feature plots of RPS13 and RPL38. **(D)** Unsupervised hierarchical

1284 clustering analysis of proteins constituting the cytosolic ribosome. **(E)** Structural model of the

1285 80S ribosome (PDB: 4V6X) highlighting ribosomal proteins displaying variable abundance

1286 across skeletal muscle fibers. **(F)** Ribosomal proteins with variable stoichiometry located close

1287 to the mRNA exit tunnel.

1288

Figure 4. Fast and slow skeletal muscle fiber signatures. (A-B) Volcano plots comparing the

slow and fast clusters identified from the uniform manifold approximation and projection

(UMAP) plots in Fig 1G-H. Coloured dots represent significantly different transcripts or

proteins at an FDR < 0.05, darker dots represent significantly different transcripts or proteins

with a log fold change > 1. (**C**) Feature plots of selected differentially expressed genes or

proteins between slow and fast fibers. **(D)** Enrichment analysis of significantly different

transcript and proteins. Overlap – enriched in both datasets, Transcriptome – enriched only in

transcriptome, Proteome – enriched only in proteome. **(E)** Fiber type specific transcription

factors as identified by SCENIC, based on SCENIC-derived regulon specificity score and

differential mRNA expression between fiber types. (**F**) Feature plots of selected differentially

expressed transcription factors between slow and fast fibers.

1300

Figure 5. Non-coding RNA and associated microproteins in human skeletal muscle fibers. (A)

Significantly regulated non-coding RNA transcripts in slow and fast fibers. **(B)** Representative

RNAscope images displaying the slow/fast fiber-type specificity of LINC01405 and RP11-

255P5.3, respectively. Scaling bar = 50 μm. **(C)** Quantification of RNAscope data for fiber type

specific non-coding RNA expression. **(D)** De novo microprotein identification workflow. **(E)** The

microprotein LINC01405_ORF408:17441:17358 is specific to slow skeletal muscle fibers.

1307

Figure 6. Nemaline myopathies induce a shift towards faster, less oxidative skeletal muscle fibers. (A) Microscopy images displaying fiber atrophy or hypotrophy and divergent MYH-based fiber type predominance in *ACTA1*- and *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathies (NM). Scaling bar = 100 μm. **(B)** MYH-based fiber type proportions by participant. **(C)** Principal component analysis (PCA) plot of skeletal muscle fibers from nemaline myopathy patients and controls. **(D)** Skeletal muscle fibers from nemaline myopathy patients and controls projected onto PCA plot determined from the 1000 fibers analyzed in Fig 2. **(E-G)** Volcano plots comparing the *ACTA1*- and *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathies with control participants and between *ACTA1*- and *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathies. Colored circles represent significantly different proteins at π < 0.05, darker dots represent significantly different proteins at FDR < 0.05. **(H)** Enrichment analysis of significantly different proteins in the whole proteome and within type 1 and type 2A fibers. **(I-J)** Principal component analysis (PCA) plot colored by extracellular matrix and mitochondria gene ontology (GO) terms.

Supplemental Figure Legends

Figure 1 S1. **Quality control of novel transcriptomic and proteomic workflows. (A)** Detailed schematic of developed workflows. **(B-C)** Number of quantified genes/proteins by participant and sample in 1000 fiber transcriptomics and proteomics. **(D)** Coefficient of variation by protein in 1000 fiber proteomics. **(E-F)** Dynamic range of genes in 1000 fiber transcriptomics and of proteins in 1000 fiber proteomics. **(G)** Overlapping features within 1000 fiber transcriptomics and proteomics. **(H)** Correlation between features within 1000 fiber transcriptomics and proteomics.

1332 **Figure 1 S2. Higher sensitivity with proteomics compared to standard dot blotting.** (**A**) MYH-

1333 based fiber type proportions by participant. (**B**) Comparison between dot blot- and

1334 proteomics-based fiber typing. The pie chart indicates the abundance for each MYH isoform

1335 in the single-fiber proteomics data.

1336

1337 **Figure 1 S3. Clustering of transcriptomic and proteomic data.** (**A-B**) Scree plots of

1338 transcriptomics and proteomics. Colored box indicates the number of principal components

1339 used for clustering. (**C-D**) 1000 fiber transcriptomics and proteomics UMAP colored by

1340 participant. (**E**) 1000 fiber transcriptomics UMAP colored by trial day.

1341

1342 **Figure 1 S4. Type 2X is not a distinct fiber type.** (**A-B**) Feature plots for ACTN3 and MYLK2

1343 expression/abundance in transcriptomics and proteomics data. (**C-H**) U-plots demonstrating

1344 correlation of transcripts/proteins with the different MYH isoforms. X-axis depicts Pearson's r

1345 coefficient, y-axis depicts -log10 of the p-value. (**I-J**) UMAP plots for transcriptomics and

1346 proteomics showing blended expression of MYH7 (blue), MYH2 (green) and MYH1 (red).

1347

1348 **Figure 2 S1. Heterogeneity of fibers with well-known fiber type specific features.** (**A-B**) Fiber

1349 type curves of established slow fiber type genes/proteins in 1000 fiber transcriptomics and

1350 proteomics. (**C-D**) Proportion of fibers determined to be slow via different numerical

1351 combinations of genes/proteins (from A-B) in 1000 fiber transcriptomics and proteomics.

1352

1353 **Figure 2 S2. Additional data of Principal Component Analysis (PCA).** (**A-B**) 1000 fiber

1354 transcriptomics PCA plot colored by participant or trial day. (**C**) 1000 fiber proteomics PCA plot

1355 colored by participant. (**D-E**) Top gene and protein drivers of PC1 and PC2**.**

1356

Figure 3 S1. Ribosomal heterogeneity of skeletal muscle fibers. (**A**) mRNA expression of

ribosomal proteins in skeletal muscle compared to the whole body. Data derived from Panda

et al[67]. (**B**) PCA plot colored by cytosolic ribosome gene ontology (GO) term in the

transcriptome. Arrows indicate the direction towards which the proteins are driving the

variance in the PCA plot. The length of the lines represents the principal component score for

a given protein. (**C**) Differences in protein abundance of ribosomal proteins in single muscle

fibers compared to the median abundance. (**C**) Proportions of ribosomal proteins in each

cluster by small (40S) and large (60S) subunits.

1365

Figure 4 S1. Gene and protein signatures of fast and slow fibers. (**A**) Feature plots of LDH

protein isoforms between slow and fast fibers. (**B**) Overlap of significantly different

genes/proteins between slow and fast skeletal muscle fibers in 1000 fiber transcriptomics and

proteomics. (**C**) Correlation between the $\log_2$ fold change difference between slow and fast

skeletal muscle fibers within 1000 fiber transcriptomics and proteomics. (**D-K**) Expression

profiles of top drivers of selected enrichment terms within slow or fast fibers with indication

of adjusted p-values.

1373

Figure 5 S1. Specific expression of non-coding RNA and microproteins in skeletal muscle. (**A-**

B) Expression profile of *LINC01405* and *RP11-255P5.3* in different tissues. (**C**) Volcano plots

comparing microprotein abundance between the slow and fast clusters identified from the

uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) plots in Fig 1G-H. Colored dots

represent significantly different microproteins at an FDR < 0.05. **(D)** Slow/fast fiber-type

comparison of LINC01405_ORF52 14515:14294 and LINC01405_ORF503 18862:18770

microproteins.

1381

Figure 6 S1. Quality control and fiber typing of nemaline myopathy dataset. (A) Number of

quantified proteins by participant and sample in nemaline myopathy proteomics. **(B)** Dynamic

range of proteins in nemaline myopathy proteomics. **(C)** Correlation between features within

1000 fiber proteomics and healthy controls of nemaline myopathy proteomics. **(D)** Dynamic

range curves for MYH7, MYH2, and MYH1, with calculated assignment thresholds for fiber

typing. **(E)** Distribution of fibers by expression of MYHs in nemaline myopathy proteomics.

1388

Figure 6 S2. Fiber type-independent remodelling in nemaline myopathy. (A) Correlation

between the log_2 fold change difference between *ACTA1-* and *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathies

with control participants. **(B)** PCA of nemaline myopathy patients (pseudobulked protein

profile form single fibers). **(C)** Upset plot of significantly regulated proteins *ACTA1-* and *TNNT1-*

nemaline myopathies. **(D-I)** Volcano plots comparing the *ACTA1-* and *TNNT1*-nemaline

myopathies with control participants and between *ACTA1-* and *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathies

by MYH-based fiber type. Colored circles represent significantly different proteins at $\pi < 0.05$,

darker dots represent significantly different proteins at FDR < 0.05.

1397

1398 **Figure 6 S3. Effects of nemaline myopathy on microproteins and the sarcolemma repair**

1399 **machinery. (A)** Protein abundance of identified microproteins within ACTA1-, TNNT1- and

1400 control participants. Significantly different comparisons between groups are highlighted. **(B)**

1401 Abundance of annexin proteins in *ACTA1-* and *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathy. **(C)** Schematic of

1402 changes within the sarcolemma repair machinery in nemaline myopathy.

1403

Figure 6 S4. Bulk muscle proteomics recapitulates single-fiber analysis of nemaline

myopathy samples. (**A**) Workflow of bulk muscle proteomics for control participants and

TNNT1-nemaline myopathy patients. (**B**) Principal component analysis (PCA) plot of bulk

skeletal muscle from *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathy patients and controls. (**C**) Volcano plot

comparing the *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathy with control participants. Colored circles represent

significantly different proteins at $\pi < 0.05$, darker dots represent significantly different proteins

at FDR < 0.05. (**D**) Enrichment analysis of significantly different proteins in the bulk muscle

proteome between *TNNT1*-nemaline myopathy patients and control participants.

1412

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 1 S1

Figure 1 S2

Figure 1 S3

A

Slow fiber markers transcriptomics

% slow isoform expressed

Sample (ranked by MYH7 expression)

Correlation vs MYH7:

TNNT1: r = 0.94, p < 0.001
TPM3: r = 0.94, p < 0.001
ATP2A2: r = 0.92, p < 0.001
MYL3: r = 0.88, p < 0.001

B

Slow fiber markers proteomics

% slow isoform expressed

Sample (ranked by MYH7 expression)

Correlation vs MYH7:

TPM3; r = 0.88 , p < 0.001
TNNT1: r = 0.79 , p < 0.001
ATP2A2: r = 0.77 , p < 0.001
MYL3: r = 0.76 , p < 0.001

C

Number of slow fibers (%)

Gene combination

Five Four Three Two One

D

Number of slow fibers (%)

Protein combination

Five Four Three Two One

Figure 2 S1

Figure 4 S1

Figure 5 S1

Figure 6 S2

A

✳ Xiao significant

B

Annexin expression

C

Sarcolemma repair machinery

Figure 6 S3

Figure 6 S4