Fast-twitch myofibrils grow in proportion to Mylpf dosage in the zebrafish embryo

Authors:
Tayo E Adekeye – School of Biology and Ecology, the University of Maine, 04469, USA
Emily M Teets – Molecular Genetics, The Ohio State University, 43210, USA
Emily A Tomak – School of Biology and Ecology, the University of Maine, 04469, USA
Sadie L Waterman – School of Biology and Ecology, the University of Maine, 04469, USA
Kailee A Sprague – School of Biology and Ecology, the University of Maine, 04469, USA
Angelina White – School of Biology and Ecology, the University of Maine, 04469, USA
Maddison L Coffin – School of Biology and Ecology, the University of Maine, 04469, USA
Sabrina M Varga – School of Biology and Ecology, the University of Maine, 04469, USA
Teresa E Easterbrooks – School of Biology and Ecology, the University of Maine, 04469, USA
Sarah J Shepherd – Molecular Genetics, The Ohio State University, 43210, USA
Jared D Austin – School of Biology and Ecology, the University of Maine, 04469, USA
Dmitrii Krivorotko – School of Biology and Ecology, the University of Maine, 04469, USA
Troy E Hupper – School of Biology and Ecology, the University of Maine, 04469, USA
Joshua B Kelley – Molecular and Biomedical Sciences, the University of Maine, 04469, USA
Sharon L Amacher – Departments of Molecular Genetics and Biological Chemistry and Pharmacology, The Ohio State University, 43210, USA
* Jared C Talbot – School of Biology and Ecology, the University of Maine, 04469, USA

* Corresponding author
Phone: 207-581-2835
Email: jared.talbot@maine.edu

Abstract

Muscle cells become stronger by expanding myofibrils, the chains of sarcomeres that produce contraction. Here we investigate how Mylpf (Myosin Light Chain Phosphorylatable Fast) abundance impacts myofibril assembly in fast-twitch muscle. The two zebrafish Mylpf genes (*mylpfa* and *mylpfb*) are exclusively expressed in fast-twitch muscle. We show that these cells initially produce six times more *mylpfa* mRNA and protein than *mylpfb*. The combined Mylpf protein dosage is necessary for and proportionate to fast-twitch myofibril growth in the embryo. Fast-twitch myofibrils are severely reduced in the *mylpfa*$^{-/-}$ mutant, leading to loss of high-speed movement; however, by persistent slow movement this mutant swims as far through time as its wild-type sibling. Although the *mylpfb*$^{-/-}$ mutant has normal myofibrils, myofibril formation fails entirely in the *mylpfa*$^{-/-}$;*mylpfb*$^{-/-}$ double mutant, indicating that the two genes are collectively essential to myofibril formation. Fast-twitch myofibril width is restored in the *mylpfa*$^{-/-}$ mutant by transgenic expression of *mylpfa-GFP, mylpfb-GFP,* and by human *MYLPF-GFP* to a degree corresponding linearly with GFP brightness. This correlate is inverted by expression of *MYLPF* alleles that cause Distal Arthrogryposis, which reduce myofibril size in proportion to protein abundance. These effects indicate that Mylpf dosage controls myofibril growth, impacting embryonic development and lifelong health.

Introduction

The myofibril is the contractile organelle of striated muscle, made of chains of sarcomeres that span the cell's length (Figure 1A). Sarcomeres form on the scale of microns, yet their collective function in myofibrils can impact behavior of the entire organism. Despite the importance of myofibril structure and size to muscle strength, it remains unclear how myofibril growth is regulated. One way to control myofibril growth is to regulate the abundance of its component parts. Overall protein levels ('dosage') are influenced by many factors including a gene's copy number, the amount of steady-state transcript produced by each gene ('mRNA abundance'), the steady-state amount of protein encoded by these genes ('protein abundance'), the activity of each encoded protein, and the protein's localization within a cell. In this study, we investigate how the abundance of one key sarcomeric component, Mylpf, impacts myofibril formation. We find that overall Mylpf dosage is controlled by a combination of gene copy number and mRNA abundance, which together predict protein abundance and myofibril size in the zebrafish embryo.

Initially, myofibril formation growth is directed by actin-rich thin filaments [1–3]. These thin filaments contain F-actin strands bundled with nebulin and linked to actinin-rich Z-disks, producing I-Z-I bodies. The ends of I-Z-I bodies are temporarily connected to one another by non-muscle myosin to form pre-myofibrils, which act as a template for further growth [3–7]. Growth is also facilitated in part by integration of enormous contractile proteins titin and nebulin, which set the sarcomere's length [8]. Once pre-myofibrils have formed, the non-muscle myosin is quickly replaced by contractile myosin heavy chain (MyHC), bundled into double-headed thick filaments. These added thick filaments increase tension across the muscle cell, leading to myofibrillar growth [9–11]. Myofibril size then increases along the muscle cell's narrow axis (the 'width axis'), beginning near the cell membrane and then extending into the central cytoplasm[11]. Growth along the width axis increases the myofibril's cross-sectional area, which predicts muscle strength better than overall muscle size does [14].

The class II MyHC in thick filaments is stabilized close to its force-generating head by a

Regulatory Light Chain (RLC) and an Essential Light Chain (ELC) protein [12,13]. These

light chains regulate myosin movement and force generation but do not consume ATP

nor produce force on their own [12]. Point mutations in the RLCs can reduce myosin step

size [14], and outright removal of these light chains *in vitro* causes MyHC aggregation and

partially reduces MyHC activity [15,16]. Consistent with this finding, the *Drosophila* RLC

mutant lacks skeletal muscle [17]. Similarly, the ELC gene *Myl1* is required for normal

myogenesis in chicken, zebrafish, mouse, and human [18–20]. Because the primary effect

of these light chains is to regulate and stabilize MyHC, we hypothesize that myosin light

chain proteins influence the rate of cytoskeletal organization leading to myofibril growth,

independent of cell size regulation.

Mylpf (Myosin Light Chain Phosphorylatable Fast) is a light chain of particular interest

because it is the only RLC with prominent expression in embryonic muscle fibers and

differentiated fast-twitch skeletal muscle in the mouse [21]. All skeletal muscle fibers are

absent from the mouse *Mylpf* knockout at birth, suggesting that in mouse this gene may

be required in all embryonic fibers [22]. Muscle loss in the *Mylpf*^{-/-} mutant is so complete

that it is unclear what phase of myogenesis is disrupted by the mutation. *MYLPF*

function is also critical for human development. Missense alleles in *MYLPF* cause Distal

Arthrogryposis (DA), a congenital musculoskeletal disease characterized by inherited

distal limb contractures [23]. DA is often caused by mutation in genes that encode

contractile proteins [24,25]. However, muscle strength nor structure was not examined in

human patients with the MYLPF variants, and the impact of those variants have not

been tested in animal models. Therefore, the impact of *MYLPF* missense alleles on

muscle remains unresolved.

In vertebrates, muscle formation begins in segments of mesoderm called somites,

which eventually produce most of the muscles in the body. Somite development

proceeds quickly in zebrafish, leading to formation of two fiber types, fast-twitch and

slow-twitch, within the first day post fertilization (dpf) [26]. Whereas slow-twitch fibers

contract and fatigue slowly, the zebrafish fast-twitch fibers contract with such speed and

power that they nearly strain muscle cells to the point of snapping [27,28]. In zebrafish, the

slow-twitch fibers are specified in the medial edge of the somite, then most of these

cells migrate to the lateral surface of the somite adjacent to the ectoderm, leaving

behind only a set medial slow muscle at the horizontal myoseptum [26]. By 24 hours post

fertilization (hpf), all muscle fibers medial to this thin slow-twitch layer are fast-twitch [26].

These positions are retained through embryonic development, enabling us to identify

fiber types by position in addition to molecular markers of fiber type. Muscle fibers grow

continuously during embryonic development, more than doubling in size by the time of

hatching (3 dpf) [29]. Hatched larvae continue growing while subsisting on their yolk until 6

dpf, enabling study of early larval growth independent of feeding.

In zebrafish, Mylpf gene function is distributed across two paralogs, *mylpfa* and *mylpfb*

[30–33]. Each gene has one primary transcript in the University of California Santa Cruz

genome browser and in Ensembl (Figure 1B) [34]. The two zebrafish Mylpf proteins are

94% identical to one another and each is 89% identical to human MYLPF in both

primary sequence and predicted protein structure (Figure 1C). The *mylpfa* and *mylpfb*

frameshifting alleles used in this study are predicted to be functionally null because they

truncate proteins within the first of two calcium-binding EF-Hand domains (Figure 1D).

We previously showed that zebrafish *mylpfa*$^{-/-}$ mutant animals can form multinucleate

muscle cells but have weakened muscle that eventually deteriorates [35]. However, the

impact of *mylpfa* on myofibrils remained untested and the requirements for *mylpfb*

function in embryonic development remained unexplored.

Here, we investigate the effect of Mylpf activity on myofibril development within the

somite. We generated a frameshifting *mylpfb* mutation within the first EF-Hand domain,

to mirror published [35] *mylpfa* alleles (Figure 1B-E). This *mylpfb*$^{-/-}$ mutant alone has no

overt muscle defect, but the *mylpfb* mutation enhances the *mylpfa*$^{-/-}$ mutant phenotype.

Examination of animals heterozygous or homozygous for the two mutations reveals that

myofibril widths in loss of function are predicted by wild-type Mylpf dosage. Transgenic

expression of *mylpfa* and *mylpfb* efficiently rescues the *mylpfa*$^{-/-}$ mutant when either

gene is expressed at high abundance. A transgene expressing human *MYLPF* also

rescues the mutant, suggesting conserved function across vertebrate taxa. By contrast,

expression of *MYLPF* alleles thought to cause DA ('DA-causing' alleles) disrupt myofibril

formation in the *mylpfa*^{+/+} wild-type zebrafish, with a dominant human allele causing

more severe defects than a recessive human allele. Together, these findings suggest

that Mylpf activity controls myofibril growth by promoting MyHC localization to the site of

myofibril formation during early fast-twitch myogenesis.

Results

mylpfa mRNA and Mylpfa protein are expressed more abundantly than *mylpfb* /

Mylpfb during embryonic development

Although *mylpfa* and *mylpfb* expression patterns have been described individually [36],

their overlap and relative abundance have not been clarified. Transcripts for both Mylpf

genes are restricted to fast-twitch muscle, but the *mylpfb* labeling is dimmer as

assessed by Hybridization Chain Reaction based RNA *in situ* hybridization (HCR ISH)

(Figure 1F-H, S1). Neither gene is expressed in slow-twitch muscle, which expresses a

different regulatory light chain, *myl10* (Figure 1F) [37]. Expression of *mylpfa* and *mylpfb* is

seen as early as 20 hpf in medial fast-twitch fibers (Figure S1). At 24 hpf, expression of

mylpfa is around 6 times greater than *mylpfb* when assessed by HCR ISH. The ratio

decreases to 3:1 by 36 hpf, largely because of rising *mylpfb* mRNA abundance (Figure

1G, H). Expression of *mylpfa* remains more abundant than *mylpfb* through embryonic

stages (Figure 1G, H). Our HCR ISH finding at 24 hpf is close to the 7 to 1 ratio we find

for *mylpfa* and *mylpfb* at 27 hpf in an RNA-seq dataset we previously published (Figure

1I) [38]. To investigate whether transcript levels predict protein abundance, we generated

and tested new antibodies that recognize both Mylpfa and Mylpfb, which differ by 2

kilodaltons (kD). The relative protein abundance correlates with transcript levels. For

instance, the Mylpfa and Mylpfb proteins are expressed in a 6:1 ratio at 24 hpf and 3:1

at 36 hpf (Figure 1I, J). We confirmed antibody specificity by examining the *mylpfa*^{-/-}

mutant embryos at 72 hpf. The mutant lacks the Mylpfa band without any change in the

Mylpfb band intensity (Figure 1K). In summary, the two zebrafish Mylpf genes are

expressed in fast-twitch muscle, but Mylpfa is produced more abundantly than Mylpfb.

mylpfa is required for the localization of fast-twitch myofibril components, but not

for muscle size

To investigate the possibility that the abundant gene _mylpfa_ is required for myofibril

structure, we compared F-actin localization in the _mylpfa$^{-/-}$_ mutant to its wild-type sibling

at 48 hpf, when the fast-twitch myofibrils have thickened. The _mylpfa$^{-/-}$_ mutants have

normal slow-twitch fibers but severely disordered F-actin in fast-twitch muscle (Figure

2A-B', S2). Only a small amount of myofibril forms within the fast-twitch muscle of the

mylpfa$^{-/-}$ mutant (Figure 2C). This myofibril growth defect reflects a failure to organize

subcellular components of the myofibril, not overall muscle growth. For instance, the

somite's cross-sectional area is unchanged in the _mylpfa$^{-/-}$_ mutant (Figure 2A'', B'', D).

Likewise, western blot indicates that MyHC abundance is unchanged in the _mylpfa$^{-/-}$_

homozygotes, suggesting that there is ample protein production (Figure 2E-E'). Total

Mylpf abundance is reduced to 54% because Mylpfa protein is completely lost and there

is little compensation by Mylpfb (Figures 1L, 2E-E'). Other myofibril markers are also

expressed with wild-type abundance but show impaired organization in the _mylpfa$^{-/-}$_

mutant (Figure 2F-I). The myofibrils are narrower in the mutant, but sarcomere length is

unchanged (Figure 2J). Using this constant length, we developed an image analysis

protocol that assesses the fraction of protein in an image localized to sarcomere-length

objects, which we dub the 'sarcomeric fraction' (Figure S3). The sarcomeric-fraction is

reduced by half in the _mylpfa$^{-/-}$_ mutant fast-twitch muscle for all proteins tested,

matching the reduction in overall Mylpf protein abundance (Figure 2K-L, S3). We

generated a _mylpfa:mylpfa-GFP_ Tol2 transgene, which produces Mylpfa-GFP protein at

around half the native level (Figure 3A, B). This transgene restores both the sarcomeric

fraction and myofibril width in the _mylpfa$^{-/-}$_ mutant (Figure 3C-F). This myofibril

restoration persists to at least 6 dpf, though some delocalized GFP is seen at that later

time-point (Figure 3G, S4). Together these findings show that _mylpfa_ has no impact on

overall muscle size but is required for the cytoskeletal organization that leads to

myofibril growth.

The *mylpfa⁻/⁻* mutant myofibril defect is rescued by *mylpfa-GFP* in a dose-dependent manner

The *mylpfa:mylpfa-GFP* transgene exhibits a wide range of expression levels, due in part to positional effects from transposon insertion[39]. By combining the *mylpfa-GFP* transgene with the *mylpfa⁻/⁻* mutant, we can test the correlation between Mylpf dosage and fast-twitch myofibril growth within individual animals. We hypothesized that wild-type animals produce Mylpf protein close to its saturation point, where additional protein does not improve myofibril formation, but that the *mylpfa⁻/⁻* mutant produces Mylpf well below this saturation point. Consistent with our prediction for the mutant, we see linear correlation between GFP brightness and myofibril width in the *mylpfa⁻/⁻* mutant (Figure 3G). Consistent with our prediction for wild-type, we find a slight upward trend, but no significant increase, in myofibril width in wild-type animals that express the *mylpfa-GFP* transgene (Figure 3G). To confirm that myofibril size correlates with GFP brightness, we also examined somite muscle in cross-section and used image thresholding to quantify the myofibril cross-sectional area within the somite (Figure 3H-K). As expected, the overall muscle cross-sectional area does not change in the *mylpfa⁻/⁻* mutant or in transgenic animals, because *mylpfa* is required to localize proteins within muscle, not for muscle growth (Figure 3H). Also as predicted, the cross-sectional area of myofibrils is reduced in the *mylpfa⁻/⁻* mutant and restored by the *mylpfa-GFP* transgene to a degree linearly correlated with GFP brightness (Figure 3I-M). Together these findings suggest that Mylpfa expression restores the *mylpfa⁻/⁻* mutant proportionate with dosage, but added Mylpfa has little impact on the wild-type animal.

Expression of *mylpfb* restores myofibril formation in the *mylpfa⁻/⁻* mutant

The differential requirement for *mylpfa* versus *mylpfb* in myofibril formation could be explained either by differences in expression levels or coding sequence. To test the efficiency of *mylpfb* in promoting myofibril growth, we generated a transgenic construct that expresses *mylpfb-GFP* under the *mylpfa* promoter, *tg(mylpfa:mylpfb-GFP)*. The *mylpfb-GFP* fusion protein localizes to the A-band of the wild-type myofibril and enables F-actin to localize in sarcomeric repeats efficiently in the *mylpfa⁻/⁻* mutant; similar

localization is seen in animals mosaic for the *mylpfa-GFP* construct (Figure 4A-E). Both

constructs have a similar ability to restore myofibril structure in the *mylpfa*$^{-/-}$ mutant

(Figure 4F). The average localization of GFP to the myofibril is lower for Mylpfb-GFP

compared to Mylpfa-GFP, but the difference is not statistically significant (Figure 4F).

The Mylpfb-GFP brightness correlates linearly with myofibril width, with a slope similar

to Mylpfa-GFP (Figure 4G). To confirm these mosaic findings, we established germline-

inherited transgenic lines for *tg(mylpfa:mylpfa-GFP)mai102* and *tg(mylpfa:mylpfb-*

GFP)mai103. Both constructs rescue the *mylpfa*$^{-/-}$ mutant with similar trendlines, though

the *mylpfb-GFP* transgene has lower peak brightness than the *mylpfa-GFP* transgene

(Figure 4H). These findings support our hypothesis that the two zebrafish Mylpf genes

differ primarily by their expression levels.

Early protein abundance correlates with *mylpfa* and *mylpfb* gene requirements in

fast-twitch myofibrils

To further investigate how Mylpf gene dosage influences myofibril size, we examined

somite muscle structure in both homozygote and heterozygote offspring of the

mylpfa$^{+/-}$*;mylpfb*$^{+/-}$ heterozygous incross at 48 hpf. As expected, slow-twitch muscle

structure is normal across the *mylpfa* and *mylpfb* mutant combinations at this stage

(Figure 5A-D). Myofibrils are normal in the *mylpfb*$^{-/-}$ mutant fast-twitch muscle, severely

defective in the *mylpfa*$^{-/-}$ mutant, and completely lost in the *mylpfa*$^{-/-}$*;mylpfb*$^{-/-}$ double

mutant (Figure 5E-J). In the double mutant, both F-actin and MyHC are scattered

throughout the cytoplasm of the fast-twitch muscle cell, suggesting that even the pre-

myofibrils may eventually break down in this genotype (Figures 5H', S5). To investigate

how well these phenotypes map to Mylpf dosage, we plotted the correlation between

myofibril width and the Mylpf dosage, calculated by number of alleles skewed 6:1 for the

relative protein abundance at 1 dpf. We find a linear relationship between myofibril width

and predicted Mylpf dosage between the *mylpfa*$^{-/-}$*;mylpfb*$^{-/-}$ double mutant (0% dose)

and the *mylpfa*$^{+/-}$*;mylpfb*$^{+/-}$ double heterozygote (50% dose), with lessening effect at

higher dose (Figure 5J). Consistent with dose-dependent function, the *mylpfa*$^{+/-}$*;mylpfb*$^{+/-}$

double heterozygote shows modestly reduced myofibril width in fast-twitch muscle fibers

at 48 hpf (Figure 5I, J orange). The *mylpfa*$^{-/-}$*;mylpfb*$^{+/-}$ homozygote-heterozygote

combination has a sarcomere defect indistinguishable from the doubly homozygous

mutant, *mylpfa-/-;mylpfb-/-* (Figure 5I, J green) suggesting a minimal threshold of Mylpf

dosage is needed for any myofibril assembly. We find similar trends by calculating the

sarcomeric fraction of MyHC and F-actin in these 48 hpf images (Figure 5K, S5). The

correlates persist at 72 hpf, suggesting that the dose effects are constant through

embryonic development (Figure 5L, M). Further support for sarcomere loss is seen

using TEM at 72 hpf, where the *mylpfa-/-;mylpfb-/-* double mutant fast-twitch muscle

shows only a scattering of thick filaments and I-Z-I bodies and no myofibrils (Figure 5N-

P). Quantification of TEM images at 72 hpf is consistent with findings from

immunofluorescence (Figure S5). Together with our expression analysis, these findings

suggest that the Mylpf expression levels at 1 dpf predict the extent of myofibril formation

in somite muscle at 2 and 3 dpf.

***mylpfa* and *mylpfb* are essential to MyHC localization, but not F-actin localization,**

during early myofibril growth

Our analysis at 2 and 3 dpf revealed that Mylpf function is required for myofibril

structure, but did not clarify which step of myofibril formation is regulated by Mylpf. We

hypothesized that sarcomeres may be disordered in the *mylpfa-/-* mutant because of an

initial defect in MyHC localization, independent of initial F-actin ordering. We examined

the *mylpfa+/-;mylpfb+/-* heterozygous incross at a stage (26 hpf) when fast-twitch

myofibrils have recently begun to thicken. Wild-type and *mylpfb-/-* mutant siblings have

normal myofibrils at this early stage, (Figure 6A-B'), consistent with the low abundance

of *mylpfb* at 24 hpf. However, the *mylpfa-/-* mutant fails to properly localize MyHC to the

fast-twitch muscle cell's periphery where pre-myofibrils are forming (Figure 6C-C'). The

localization defect is even more severe in the *mylpfa-/-;mylpfb-/-* double mutant,

suggesting that *mylpfb* also contributes to early myofibril formation (Figure 6D-D'). Since

myofibrils normally form at cell peripheries, we assessed localization by quantifying how

far the F-actin and MyHC labels spread into the central cytoplasm of fast-twitch muscle

cells (Figure 6E). As expected, F-actin and myonuclei are positioned normally within the

cell in all genotypes examined (Figure 6F, G), consistent with models that actin

localization precedes thick filament localization [5]. MyHC is also localized at cell

peripheries in the wild-type embryo, but MyHC spreads evenly through the cytoplasm of

the *mylpfa⁻ᐟ⁻;mylpfb⁻ᐟ⁻* double mutant (Figure 6H). Similarly, the sarcomeric fraction

shows a severe MyHC defect but only a subtle change in F-actin localization in the

mylpfa⁻ᐟ⁻;mylpfb⁻ᐟ⁻ double mutant at 26 hpf (Figure S5). These findings suggest that

Mylpfa and Mylpfb together are essential to localize MyHC to the fast muscle cell's

periphery where the thick filaments interdigitate with pre-myofibrils to initiate myofibril

growth.

The zebrafish larva compensates for impaired fast-twitch myofibrils by moving

slowly more often

Zebrafish movement is driven largely by force generated in somite muscle [27]. The

zebrafish *mylpfa;mylpfb* knockout series allows us to investigate how fast-twitch

myofibril growth impacts swimming behavior. Our prior work showed that *mylpfa* is

essential to muscle strength and fish movement, leading to a severely impaired escape

response[35]. In further support, high-speed imaging shows that the sharp flexure driving

initial escape response (the 'C-bend') is consistently absent from this mutant (Figure 7A-

C, Video 1). To investigate whether these bursts of escape behavior are mirrored by

overall movements, we assayed overall behaviors for 25-minute sessions using

DanioVision, across the nine combinations of *mylpfa* and *mylpfb* zygosity at 6 dpf

(Figure 7D-I). Consistent with the escape response defect, we find that the highest

speed of movement is reduced in all animals homozygous for *mylpfa⁻ᐟ⁻*, which do not

swim faster than 70 mm/sec (Figure 7D, E). However, we were surprised to find that the

overall speed is not decreased in any of the *mylpfa;mylpfb* mutant combinations, which

travel at least as far as wild-type siblings during the imaging period (Figure 7F, G). The

mylpfa⁻ᐟ⁻ mutant animals maintain a high average speed by increasing their frequency of

movement at slow speeds, 20-40 mm/sec (Figure 7H). These 6 dpf fish spend most of

their time stationary (Figure 7I), consistent with previous findings [40]. When they do

swim, the animals move slowly over 99% of the time, so even a slight increase in the

likelihood of slow movements can outpace the complete loss of high-speed movement

(Figure 7I, J). Both slow and fast movements increase in heterozygous combinations,

such as the *mylpfa⁺ᐟ⁻;mylpfb⁺ᐟ⁻* double heterozygote, which on average swims a little

further than its wild-type sibling (Figure 7F-J). The compensatory movement in the

mylpfa^{-/-} mutant may cause or result from hypertrophy of slow-twitch myofibers (Figure

7K-M). Together these findings suggest that fast-twitch muscle function is only required

for the swiftest movements and that slower movements increase when the fast-twitch

muscle is compromised.

Myofibril structure is disrupted by the expression of disease-causing MYLPF

alleles

Missense alleles of human MYLPF cause DA [35], but it remains unclear how these

alleles impact myofibril formation. We hypothesize that these alleles may be

antimorphic, inverting the correlations between dosage and myofibril width. We tested

the functional impact of the DA-causing variants using plasmids that encode GFP-

tagged MYLPF protein variants, driven by the *mylpfa* promoter (Figure 8). We made

three plasmids with different MYLPF alleles: the typical allele ('WT'), a dominant allele

encoding p.Gly163Ser ('G163S'), which affects a residue that directly contacts MyHC,

and a recessive allele encoding p.Cys157Phe ('C157F') that affects a residue buried

within the MYLPF protein (Figure 8A) [35]. When expressed brightly, the WT *MYLPF-GFP*

allele restores myofibril formation in the *mylpfa*^{-/-} mutant, indicating that function is

conserved between zebrafish and human (Figure 8B-D). Mosaic expression of the

C157F *MYLPF-GFP* mildly reduces myofibril width in wild-type fish but can partially

rescue width in the *mylpfa*^{-/-} mutant, suggesting that it has reduced activity and a slight

antimorphic effect (Figure 8B, E, F). The G163S *MYLPF-GFP* allele cannot rescue the

mylpfa^{-/-} homozygote at 48 hpf and partially narrows myofibrils in the wild-type siblings

(Figure 8B, G, H), suggesting that it has no positive function and some antimorphic

activity. The G163S variant is mildly detrimental to both wild-type and mutant myofibrils,

with increasing effect at high dosage (Figure 8I). In all cases, the shifts in myofibril width

correlate well with GFP brightness, such that in the *mylpfa*^{-/-} mutant WT MYLPF-GFP

increases width, the C157F allele does so less efficiently (Figure 8I). The activity of

these DA-causing alleles in zebrafish is consistent with their inheritance in humans

since the more disruptive variant, G163S, causes DA as a heterozygote while the

partially functional variant, C157F, causes DA only when homozygous.

Discussion

The task of linking gene and protein dosage to phenotype is typically complicated by

dynamic expression patterns and post-transcriptional regulation. Our experiments

suggest that both Mylpf genes in zebrafish behave in a manner predicted by a

straightforward interpretation of the central dogma. They each produce a single

transcript in a single cell type and their transcriptional levels match their relative protein

dosage. Gene copy number alone is a poor predictor of Mylpf knockout phenotype,

because animals with very different phenotypes ($mylpfa^{-/-}$, $mylpfb^{-/-}$, and

$mylpfa^{+/-};mylpfb^{+/-}$) carry two mutant alleles of Mylpf and 50% of the normal wild-type

alleles. However, we can accurately predict knockout phenotypes when we scale gene

copy number by the relative dosage of Mylpfa and Mylpfb protein 24 hpf (6:1) (Figure

8J). Western blotting suggests there is little genetic compensation by Mylpfb in

the $mylpfa^{-/-}$ mutant, nor much change in native protein levels when Mylpfa-GFP is

expressed. We have not been able to test for the presence of the Mylpfb band in

the $mylpfb^{-/-}$ mutant which cannot be behaviorally sorted from wild-type siblings. Instead,

knockout and transgenic rescue studies suggest that Mylpf dosage and phenotype are

co-linear between 0% ($mylpfa^{-/-};mylpfb^{-/-}$) and 50% ($mylpfa^{+/-};mylpfb^{+/-}$) of the wild-type

dose, with diminishing returns at higher expression. The shape of this response curve

suggests that Mylpf function in the wild-type embryo sits near or slightly above the

saturation point for protein function. Consistent with wild-type saturation, introduction of

an extra gene copy (the $mylpfa:mylpfa$-GFP transgene) causes little or no increase in

myofibril width in the $mylpfa^{+/+}$ wild-type embryo. When beginning from a lower dose

(the $mylpfa^{-/-}$ mutant), myofibril width can be restored to a degree linearly correlated with

Mylpfa-GFP and Mylpfb-GFP protein abundance. We suggest that the dosage effects

may not be limited to zebrafish, because human MYLPF-GFP rescues the $mylpfa^{-}$

$^{/-}$ mutant as efficiently as the zebrafish genes do. However, the dosage-phenotype

correlate is lessened or reversed when we introduce MYLPF protein variants that cause

DA, suggesting that normal activity level is vital to MYLPF protein function (Figure 8I, J).

Together, these findings poise the two zebrafish Mylpf genes as excellent models for

investigating a direct link from gene copy number and mRNA expression levels to

protein dosage and myofibril phenotype in the embryo.

Our work suggests that Mylpf controls myofibril organelle size without affecting overall

cell size. We propose that the cell uses Mylpf dosage to regulate localization of MyHC

to cell peripheries, particularly in situations where Mylpf abundance is limiting. These

limiting situations arise in the *mylpfa*^{-/-} mutant but may also be present in the wild-type

animal during rapid growth. At least three mechanisms could explain the impact of Mylpf

on MyHC localization. First, since Mylpf is classically thought to stabilize contractile

MyHC, the thick filaments deficient in Mylpf protein may be marked as

misfolded/defective, triggering the mis-localization and myofibrillar defects [41]. Second,

once incorporated into myofibrils, RLCs continue to have known roles in muscle

contraction, such as increasing myosin step size leading to enhanced actin movement

[14,42]. Impaired step size is expected to reduce muscle force, which would reduce the

tension-driven elements of myofibril growth [7,10]. Third, Mylpf may act on non-contractile

myosin to mediate thick filament localization. For instance, RLC proteins are known to

bind to *myo18b*, an ATPase-deficient MyHC that stabilizes myosin-actin interactions

[13,43]. Consistent with this model, the zebrafish *myo18b*^{-/-} mutant shows myofibril

formation defects similar to the *mylpfa*^{-/-} mutant [44,45]. Future work to determine precisely

how Mylpf regulates myofibril growth may provide new ways to enhance muscle growth

after exercise and/or restore it during disease, without requiring cellular hypertrophy.

The DA gene variants may have antimorphic effects on muscle. The C157F DA allele is

recessively inherited in humans [35] and only causes a modest loss of function in early

zebrafish development. The G163S allele is dominantly inherited in humans [35] and

causes severe loss of function in early zebrafish development. Our results suggest that

both variants are antimorphic because both alleles decrease myofibril widths in the wild-

type embryo, proportionate with protein dosage. Our model is consistent with recent

proposals that most DA-causing alleles may have antimorphic effects [25]. Antimorphs

can arise by either gain or loss of protein function, as was established initially using

actin alleles in *Drosophila* [46]. For example, a DA-causing *MYH3* allele was recently

shown to increase Myosin activity, leading to hypercontraction and disease, in an

antimorphic gain-of-function manner [47]. The DA-causing MYLPF alleles may have

antimorphic effects through loss of function, by competing with wild-type MYLPF for

binding sites in thick filaments. However, the distinction between loss and gain of

function is muddled in these animals. Complete loss of Mylpf function leads to complete

loss of fast-twitch myofibrils but it also increases slow-twitch muscle size and causes a

gain of low-speed movement (Figure 8J, blue text). We have not yet assessed the

behavioral impacts of DA-causing alleles, to learn if animal activity is increased or

decreased, because the mosaic fish are labeled too sparsely to assess behavioral

changes. Subsequent work using stable transgenes may help elucidate why the DA-

causing alleles are antimorphic and may also reveal their impact on behavior.

Over 95% of zebrafish somite muscle is fast-twitch at 6 dpf, so we did not expect the

mylpfa$^{-/-}$;mylpfb$^{-/-}$ double mutant zebrafish to move as far through time as their wild-type

siblings while using only ~5% of the normal myofibril volume. The zebrafish *mylpfa$^{-/-}$*

mutant behaves as expected on short timescales, producing force that is reduced by

90% in single-twitch assays [35], consistent with severe reduction in myofibrils throughout

fast-twitch muscle. Likewise, *mylpfa$^{-/-}$* mutant fish lack C-bends, and show an impaired

escape response consistent with other fast-twitch deficient fish [35,48,49]. However, the

same animals generate slow movements more frequently within the course of our 25-

minute experimental window, eventually moving as far as their wild-type siblings. Partial

loss of Mylpf function could even increase total movement, since the *mylpfa$^{+/-}$;mylpfb$^{+/-}$*

double heterozygote tends to move even further than wild-type siblings. Consistent with

our findings, another group recently showed that zebrafish lacking fast-twitch

acetylcholine receptors upregulate slow-twitch synapses and behaviors by adult

stages [48]. However, this slow-twitch compensation has not previously been observed in

larvae and we do not know if there is synaptic compensation in Mylpf mutant zebrafish.

The behavioral compensation in Mylpf-deficient animals may be purely due to changes

in muscle. Over-reliance on slow-twitch fibers may act as a form of exercise, leading to

the observed slow-twitch hypertrophy [28], which in turn should strengthen slow-twitch

movement. The importance of muscle hypertrophy and neural activity could be resolved

by investigating muscle strength, calcium signaling, and synapse morphology through

time in Mylpf mutants.

Collectively, our findings suggest that Mylpf dosage controls myofibril size, with

profound effects on muscle structure and function in zebrafish. *Mylpf* mRNA abundance

is enriched in the fast-twitch muscle of farmed mammals that have very tender meat,

suggesting that it may be a target of selection on farms [50]. These meat quality factors

are predicted by point mutations in the Mylpf promoter region [51]. Likewise, the

abundance of *Mylpf* mRNA is a hallmark of muscle differentiation and required for this

process [52]. Although the mouse *Mylpf*^{+/-} heterozygote does not have muscle impairment

after birth, prenatal muscle disorder has not been ruled out [22]. Mylpf gene dosage does

impact muscle development in insects since *Drosophila* heterozygous for RLC mutation

has impaired myofibril assembly in fast-twitch flight wing muscle [17]. In some cases,

increased light chain activity may also promote new myofibril formation. For instance,

activation of cardiac myosin light chain kinase is necessary and sufficient to initiate the

formation of sarcomeres in cultured heart cells [53]. These findings lead us to propose

that Mylpf abundance is a ripe target for heterometric selection, which alters the

prevalence of alleles in a population based on how the alleles affect a gene's

expression level. Given how widespread this effect seems to be, the sensitivity of

myofibril size to Mylpf dosage may have applications in many contexts where myofibril

growth is desired, including exercise physiology, farming, and human health.

Acknowledgements

The fish facilities at the University of Maine fish facility and The Ohio State University
(OSU) provided excellent animal care. Dr. Joy-El Talbot from Iris Data Solutions
developed an ImageJ macro for sarcomere fraction quantification. Dr. April DeLaurier
provided feedback in the writing process. Dr. Clarissa Henry generously provided
mentorship and resources to the Talbot lab. Dr. Thomas Gallagher and Collin Whitlock
facilitated data sharing between OSU and the University of Maine. Paula Monsma and
Dr. Sarah Cole supported imaging on the electron and confocal microscopes at The
Ohio State University. This project was supported by a University of Maine Institute of
Medicine Seed Grant, and NIH grant R15AR081019 to JCT, NIH R15GM140409 to
JBK, by NIH grants GM088041 and GM117964 to SLA, and COBRE P20GM144265-
01A1 to JBK and JCT.

Materials and Methods

Zebrafish husbandry and established strains

Fish strains were maintained using standard methods [54]. All animal protocols used in this study were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees at The Ohio State University (2012A00000113) and the University of Maine (A2022-09-05). Embryo/larval staging followed established metrics [55]. We genotyped the *mylpfa*[oz30] 20 bp deletion allele [35] using primers (F 5'-TCTCTACAGGCCAGCTGAATG'3', R 5'-ACCCTTCAACTTCTCTCCGAAC'3') that amplify a 116 bp product in wild-type fish and a 96 bp product in the *mylpfa*[oz30] homozygote. We genotyped the 1 bp *mylpfa*[oz43] allele [35], using primers 5'- GCTTCATTGCTGTCAGGATAGAG-3' and 5'-ACCCTTCAACTTCTCTCCGAAC-3', followed by digestion with BsmFI restriction enzyme (NEB, New England Biolabs). The enzyme cuts the wild-type amplicon into two products of similar size (184 bp and 185 bp) and the mutant amplicon (368 bp) remains uncut. Homozygotes for both *mylpfa*[oz30] and *mylpfa*[oz43] can be consistently sorted from wild-type siblings based on pectoral fin immobility and by a distinctively slowed escape response. The new mutant and transgenic lines generated during this study are described below. Zebrafish lines in this study were maintained on the AB wild-type background.

Construction of *mylpfb*[oz39]

The *mylpfb*[oz39] mutation was generated using established CRISPR-Cas9 protocols [56]. One-cell embryos were co-injected with Cas9 mRNA and guide RNA targeting exon 2 (5'- GGAAAACAGTAAAGTTGATG -3'), raised to adulthood, and outcrossed to identify germline-transmitting founders. F1 progeny were screened using High-Resolution Melting Analysis (HRMA) (primers 5'-CCCTCTCTAAAACAAACAGGCTTTC-3' and 5'-GGTAAGTGAAGATTTGGACAACTC-3') to identify founders carrying a CRISPR-induced *mylpfb*[oz39] lesion which caused a frameshifting 5 bp deletion. Genotyping for *mylpfb*[oz39] used primers F 5'-GCAACAATGGGTCAGCTAATG-3' and R 5'-

CCCAAAACCAAAAGTATGAG-3', then PCR products were cut with BccI enzyme

(NEB) which cleaved the wild-type amplicon into two products (120 bp and 76 bp) while

mutant amplicon (191 bp) remained uncut. The lesion was confirmed via Sanger

sequencing of homozygotes and the founder was outcrossed for at least two

generations after CRISPR injection, before conducting the experiments shown.

Transgene construction

Plasmid and transgenic construction used traditional restriction enzyme based

molecular cloning methods. The five plasmids constructed for mosaic analysis in this

study are *pMylpfa:mylpfa-GFP*, *pMylpfa:mylpfb-GFP*, *pMylpfa:WT-MYLPF-GFP,*

pMylpfa:C157F-MYLPF-GFP, and pMylpfa:G163S-MYLPF-GFP. Briefly, we obtained

GeneArt-strings (Invitrogen) of the sequence encoding Mylpfa*,* Mylpfb*,* wild-type human

MYLPF*,* MYLPF p.Gly163Ser (G163S)*,* or MYLPF p.Cys157Phe (C157F) proteins.

These coding sequences were inserted into a plasmid containing the *mylpfa* promoter

flanked by TOL2 sites [36,57,58]; GFP was linked to the 5' end of Mylpf genes, connected

via a sequence encoding a short flexible peptide (GGGGSGAT). Plasmid injection was

accompanied by co-injection of zebrafish-optimized nuclear transposase ZT2TP [59,60].

For transient analysis, animals with high levels of mosaicism were selected for imaging

and all experiments were repeated on at least two independent injection days. Stable

transgenic lines were generated for the two zebrafish transgenes, Tg(*pMylpfa:GFP-*

mylpfa)*mai102*, and Tg(*pMylpfa:mylpfb-GFP*)*mai103*. For stable transgenic analysis, at

least two founders were analyzed per rescue construct.

Immunohistochemistry and HCR ISH

Whole mount immunohistochemistry used established markers and techniques [61].

Briefly, the larvae were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde and washed in PBST (1X PBS,

0.1% Tween-20) before immunolabel. Embryos older than 1 dpf were gently

permeabilized using a brief treatment with 0.001% Proteinase-K, washed repeatedly in

PBST, then blocked for at least two hours in 0.5% TritonX, 1X PBS, 2% NSS, 4% NGS;

1% DMSO [61,62]. This is followed by overnight incubation at 4°C with primary antibodies

diluted in blocking solution. We used primary antibodies for the myonuclei (1:500,

Rbfox1l) [63]; α-Actinin (1:500, A7732, Sigma); Myomesin [1:30, mMac, Developmental

Studies Hybridoma Bank (DSHB)] [64], MyHC (1:1000, A4.1025, DSHB) [65], and Mylpf

(1:2000, DZ41336, Boster). The following day, larvae were washed 5-6 times over 1

hour in PBST, and then incubated in secondary antibodies for 4 hours at room

temperature. Larvae were washed 6-8 times over 2 hours in PBST, mounted with 0.2%

agarose then imaged, or kept in PBST at 4°C prior to imaging. F-actin labeling uses

Alexa Fluor-conjugated phalloidin (1:50, Thermo Fisher), added in the final two hours of

the secondary antibody incubation. HCR ISH procedures use established protocols with

probes and amplifiers supplied by Molecular Instruments [66]. The *mylpfa* and *mylpfb*

genes are very similar to one another, so nine unique *mylpfa* probes and five unique

mylpfb probes could be generated, whereas we were able to generate twenty probes to

myl10. To compare HCR ISH signal intensity, separate fish were labeled with *mylpfa*

and *mylpfb* probes, both in the 488 nm excitation channel and then imaged with

matched confocal settings. HCR ISH images were quantified in FIJI using brightness

analysis within the fast-twitch region.

Antibody production, validation on Western blot

The zebrafish Mylpf antibody was generated by Boster Bio using zebrafish Mylpfa (AA

14 to 167 of NP_571263.1) in complex with a Mylpf-binding region that is found in

several MyHC proteins (RRESIYTIQYNIRSFMNVKHWPWMKVYYKIKPL). This mixture

was injected into rabbit via three rounds of injection, followed by column purification and

Elisa confirmation by Boster Bio. Western blot in the Talbot Lab, showed only one band

each for Mylpfa (16 kD) and Mylpfb (18 kD) and no label in the MyHC size (252 kD). For

western blotting, animals were raised to the desired stage, sorted by behavioral

phenotypes, then pools of 10 (72 hpf) to 40 (24 hpf) animals were homogenized using

0.5 mm zirconium beads (Laboratory Supply Network) in Bolt solution (Invitrogen). The

mylpfa$^{-/-}$ mutant animals were sorted by behavioral phenotypes and proper separation

was confirmed using PCR genotyping. Homogenized samples were run on a 4-20%

gradient acrylamide gel (Bio-Rad) or an "any kD" precast polyacrylamide gel (Bio-Rad).

The protein samples were transferred to Polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes

(Millipore Sigma) followed by blocking solution (5% nonfat dry milk) overnight at 4˚C.

Membranes were incubated in primary antibody at room temperature for 1 hour,

followed by incubation in secondary antibody for 2 hours. The resulting fluorescence

was measured by scanning the blot with the Odyssey Infrared Imager (LICOR). The

Mylpfa to Mylpfb ratio was quantified using GelBox software [67] and FIJI [68]. Primary

antibodies included mouse polyclonal anti-MyHC (A4.1025, DSHB, 1:1000) to detect

MyHC protein while rabbit polyclonal anti-Mylpf (Boster, 1:1000) detected both Mylpfa

and Mylpfb protein. The secondary antibodies used are donkey-anti-mouse-800

(1:10000 dilution) and donkey-anti-rabbit-680 (1:10000 dilution).

Protein modeling

582   Mylpf proteins were modeled in complex with the binding region of Myhz1.3 (zebrafish)

583   or MYH3 (human) using Robetta [69] and then models were visualized using PyMol

584   (Schrödinger).

Confocal imaging

Confocal images in Figure S2 were collected using an inverted Nikon TiE microscope

equipped with an Andor Revolution WD spinning disk confocal system. All other

confocal images were acquired using a Leica TCS Sp8 confocal microscope and

processed with Lightning in LasX software. Myotomes were imaged over the mid yolk

tube region of embryos and larvae. Image settings including laser power and gain were

equivalent for compared groups and confocal export protocols were standardized for

each experiment.

Sarcomeric fraction calculation

To quantify the degree to which muscle proteins localize to sarcomeres, we developed

metric for analyzing how much protein analyzes to sarcomeric repeats, which we term

the sarcomeric fraction (Figure S3). This calculation begins by drawing Region of

Interest (ROI) lines along the length of a myofiber in ImageJ, measuring ten to thirty

ROIs per image. The grayscale intensities are exported from FIJI and the periodicity of

these intensities is determined using the 'distance between peaks' function in MATLAB.

Peak-to-peak distances per intensity were determined per image, and bootstrap

confidence intervals were calculated using variation between images, shown via

histogram to represent the Fraction of Peaks/micron (µm). We used distinct bin sets for

markers with full-sarcomere (F-actin, Myomesin, Actinin) or half-sarcomere length

(MyHC, Mylpf-GFP). Sarcomeric F-actin shows peak signals in the 0.7-1.1 µm range

and 1.55-2.3 µm range, reflecting the fact that most F-actin periods are sarcomere

length but sometimes a gap can be seen at the M-line. For consistency, we used this

same bin set for Myomesin and Actinin (Figure S3). Sarcomeric MyHC and Mylpf-GFP

show two peak signals in bins 0.6-1.2 µm and 1.75-2.05 µm (Figure S3), because these

proteins are usually subdivided into the two A-Bands, but sometimes blur together to the

length of a full sarcomere. The sarcomeric fraction is the ratio of image periodicity within

the sarcomeric length bin to the overall periodicity of that marker. Sarcomere fractions

were calculated per animal then subjected to further statistical tests using JMP

software.

Quantifying protein localization within cells

To quantify protein localization within muscle cells, we first imaged dorsal somites

muscle above the mid yolk tube with high Z-resolution (0.5 µm) and exported a

reconstructed cross-section through the somite. Then, a mask was drawn manually,

circling the borders of each cell. A custom MATLAB script determined image brightness

at each pixel, moving from the periphery of the cells to the center. These edge-center

distances were scaled to micron lengths, averaged, and bootstrap confidence intervals

were calculated across samples of a given genotype. Graphs with confidence intervals

were then overlaid for each genotype.

Myofibril width measurements

To measure myofibril width, we drew region of interest (ROI) lines across the narrow

axis of the myofibril in FIJI, typically measuring thirty myofibrils per image. For mosaic

animals we measured both GFP+ and non-transgenic myofibrils within the same single

confocal slice. Images were included only if they contained at least ten GFP+ myofibrils.

For stable transgenics lines, we compared measurements from non-transgenic and

transgenic siblings. We generated a custom FIJI macro to simplify measurement and

compile all measures from a given image. These measurements were averaged per

image using MATLAB and the averages were imported into JMP software for statistical

analysis.

GFP brightness analysis

Analysis of fluorescent brightness began during imaging, when we ensured that all data

meant for comparison was collected with equivalent settings, such as shared laser

power. We evaluated the GFP brightness using the mean grayscale value of the GFP

channel in FIJI software. For stable transgenic lines, we drew ROI around the full somite

at the center of each image, while excluding the superficial slow fibers. In mosaic

animals, we drew ROI around each muscle fiber because there was often a high level of

variation within a single image. A custom FIJI macro simplified the measurement of the

mean grayscale value of each image. Myofibrils are considered non-transgenic if the

GFP brightness is <1 (0-255), were and considered transgenic if in the 10-255 range.

MATLAB was used to calculate the average of each mean grayscale value per image

followed by statistical comparisons in JMP software.

Transmission electron microscopy

For TEM, embryos were raised to 72 hpf, fixed in glutaraldehyde, resin embedded, thin

sectioned, and contrasted using Uranyl acetate and Reynold's lead citrate before

imaging on a Tecnai 30 G2 TWIN microscope. At least three fish were examined per

genotype and multiple sections were imaged per fish. Statistical analysis was performed

using only one image per animal to ensure biological independence. Myofibril widths

and sarcomere fraction were determined using TEM images with magnification low

enough to examine variation across a half-somite.

Behavioral analysis

For tail curvature assessment, individual larvae were placed in a petri dish and prodded

with a piece of fishing line, imaged using a GoPro Hero camera with a mounting ring

(H12Pro, Back-Bone) set to 240 frames/sec. The frame with highest curvature was

transferred to FIJI and curvature was measured along the length of the trunk using the

Kappa plugin[70]. Total curvature was calculated by multiplying average curvature by the

length and then converting from Radians to Degrees. For speed analysis, larvae were

placed one per well into a 12-well plate with 3 ml of facility water at 6 dpf. Then, they

were imaged in a DanioVision system (Noldus) equipped with a magnifier for improved

resolution. The plates were incubated at 28˚C in the preheated chamber. The larvae

were imaged using the infrared wavelength every 0.33 seconds for a total of 25

minutes, cycling lights off and on every five minutes. Larvae were tracked using

EthoVision XT Version 15.0 video tracking software by Noldus. Distance traveled is the

sum of distances in this 25-minute time interval. Speed is calculated per 0.33 second

time interval and then binned into different speed ranges using Microsoft Excel

Histogram function. Speed bins were selected to best show movement dynamics by

speed while reducing noise caused by the rarity of movements at the highest speeds.

Analysis was limited to velocities under 200 mm/sec because video examination shows

that higher-speed measurements are indications of tracking glitches rather than actual

zebrafish movement. Shown plots (Figure 7D-J) integrate data collected from the

mylpfb$^{+/-}$ heterozygous incross, *mylpfa*$^{+/-}$;*mylpfb*$^{+/-}$ double heterozygous incross, and

outcrosses of *mylpfa*$^{+/-}$;*mylpfb*$^{+/-}$ to AB. Each set of crosses was replicated at least three

times with consistent results across experiments.

Statistical analysis

We begin multiple comparisons using ANOVA and then use Tukey-Kramer's post-hoc

comparison of levels. In one case, where values are bounded closely by zero (Figure

7E), the data cannot follow a normal distribution so we used non-parametric Steel-

Dwass comparisons. Pairwise comparisons (Figure 2C, D, E', J) use a two-sided

Student's T-test and matching results are found with the non-parametric Krustal-Wallis

exact test. In all figures, not significant (n.s.) is $P>0.1$, * $P<0.05$, ** $P<0.01$, *** $P<0.001$.

For box plots, the central line is median, the upper bound is the upper quartile, the lower

bound is the lower quartile, and whiskers are 1.5x the interquartile range. Each N

represents a different animal or in some cases a pool of animals and are listed explicitly

in the source data file. For mosaic animals, the N represents the number of animals

scored for GFP+ or non-Tg cells, respectively. Repeated measures of the same animal

are averaged and included as a single N. Statistical comparison is made either in Jmp

Pro 17 software or, for bootstrapped confidence intervals, in MatLab R2023b.

Data availability

The data leading to conclusions in this paper are shown in the main text figures and

supplementary figures, with source data provided. We are happy to accommodate

requests for additional source files.

Code availability

Code used for data analysis in this manuscript is available upon request and from our

GitHub account, https://github.com/MuscleZebrafish/MyofibrilQuant.

Competing Interest Statement

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Figures and Legends

Figure 1: <u>The *mylpfa* gene is expressed more abundantly than *mylpfb* in fast-twitch muscle.</u> **(A)** Illustration of a sarcomere and an image of a fast-twitch myofibril at 26 hpf, with MyHC labeled green using A4.1025 and F-actin labeled magenta using phalloidin. **(B)** Illustration of *mylpfa* and *mylpfb* gene structure and the location of frameshifting alleles used in this study. Shown features include the 5' UTR (brown), coding sequence (purple), 3' UTR (gray), and frameshift locations (green arrows). **(C)** Overlay of predicted protein structures generated using Robetta, showing a high degree of expected similarity between zebrafish Mylpfa, Mylpfb, and human MYLPF proteins. **(D)** Illustration of Mylpfa and Mylpfb proteins, with arrowheads marking frameshift locations. **(E)** Chromatogram showing the gRNA target in wild-type sequence (top) and the 5 bp *mylpfb^oz39* lesion sequenced from a homozygous mutant (bottom). **(F-F''')** HCR ISH imaged in somites over the mid-yolk tube of a 36 hpf embryo. Shown as a single channel for *mylpfa* (F), *mylpfb* (F') or the slow muscle marker *myl10* (F''), and as a merged image (F'''). **(G)** HCR ISH shows relative expression levels for *mylpfa* and *mylpfb* through embryonic development. **(H)** Box plot showing the brightness of *mylpfa mylpfb* in the HCR ISH images, with *mylpfa:mylpfb* ratios shown per time-point. **(I)** FPKM values for *mylpfa* and *mylpfb* at 27 hpf, from a previously reported RNA-seq dataset [38]. **(J)** Ratio of Mylpfa to Mylpfb band intensity in western blot; points represent biological replicates of pooled animals. **(K)** Image of a western blot showing Mylpfb and Mylpfa protein abundance at 24, 36, 48, and 72 hpf. **(L)** Western blot showing Mylpfb and Mylpfa protein in the wild-type and the *mylpfa^-/-* mutant which lacks the Mylpfa band. Significance threshold determined by Tukey-Kramer comparison after one-way ANOVA; * P<0.05, ** P<0.01. Scalebar in F is for F-F'''.

755
Figure 2: Zebrafish *mylpfa* is necessary for fast-twitch myofibril formation. **(A-B")** Three
views of somites are illustrated above (A) and imaged in a wild-type animal and *mylpfa*^{-/-}
mutant sibling, each imaged at 48 hpf. **(C)** Box plot of myofibril width, measured from
sagittal confocal slices. **(D)** Plot of muscle cross-sectional area (CSA) measured from the
orthogonal view of confocal stacks from the wild-type and *mylpfa*^{-/-} mutant siblings. **(E)**
Example of a western blot for MyHC and Mylpf, including Mylpfa and Mylpfb, in the wild-
type (WT) and the *mylpfa*^{-/-} mutant (-/-) samples at 72 hpf, with **(E')** quantification shown as
a box plot. **(F-G''')** Fast muscle myofibers, labeled at 48 hpf, showing co-label for MyHC
(A4.1025), M-line (anti-Myomesin), and F-actin (phalloidin), shown as single channel or
overlays. **(H, I)** Actinin label on comparable samples. **(J)** Box plot of sarcomere lengths in
the *mylpfa*^{-/-} mutant and their wild-type siblings, showing no change in length. **(K)** Plots
showing that the *mylpfa*^{-/-} mutant shows reduced F-actin sarcomeric periodicity (gray bars).
Lightly colored regions indicate bootstrap confidence intervals. **(L)** Box plot showing
sarcomeric fraction for each marker, calculated on a 0-1 scale, as described in Figure S3.
Throughout the figures, the wild-type plots are blue and the *mylpfa*^{-/-} plots are red. Points
within box plots represent the individual animals or a single western blot image. Scalebar in
A is for A-B", in F is for F-G''', in H is for H, I. Significance thresholds for multiple
comparisons determined by Tukey-Kramer HSD comparisons after one-way ANOVA;
pairwise comparisons use Student's T-test and matching results are found with Krustal-
Wallis exact test. Not significant (n.s.) is P>0.1, * P<0.05, ** P<0.01, *** P<0.001.

776
777
Figure 3: A *mylpfa:mylpfa-GFP* transgene rescues the *mylpfa⁻/⁻* mutant. **(A)** Schematic
illustrating the *mylpfa:mylpfa-GFP* transgene. **(B)** Western blot of Mylpf protein from the
wild-type fish at 3 dpf, and their GFP+ siblings shows that the transgene produces one
thin band that is shifted upwards by the addition of GFP. **(C)** Box plot showing the effect
of *mylpfa:mylpfa-GFP* transgene expression on the myofibril width at 52 hpf. **(D, E)**
Confocal slice through fast-twitch muscle in a non-transgenic (Non-Tg) phalloidin
labeled *mylpfa⁻/⁻* mutant (D) or a *mylpfa:mylpfa-GFP* transgenic sibling mutant (E) at 52
hpf. **(D', E')** Zoomed view showing myofibril structure. **(D'', E'')** The phalloidin channel
showing myofibrils unobscured by GFP. **(F)** Box plot showing myofibril widths in
zebrafish at 6 dpf. **(G)** Scatterplot showing correlations between GFP brightness and
myofibril width at 6 dpf. **(H)** Box plot of total somite muscle cross-sectional area
measurements at 6 dpf, taken from orthogonal views of confocal stacks. **(I-L)** Examples
of cross-sectional images, reconstructed from confocal stacks. The myofibril-free central
region (Arrowhead) of non-transgenic wild-type muscle (I) is sometimes reduced in the
transgenic animal (J). This central area expands in the non-transgenic *mylpfa⁻/⁻* mutant
(K) but is reduced in the *mylpfa⁻/⁻* mutant carrying the transgene (L). **(M)** Scatterplot
showing correlations between myofibril cross-sectional area and GFP brightness.
Scalebars in D-D''' is for E-E''', in I is for I-L. Significance thresholds are determined by
Tukey-Kramer HSD comparisons after one-way ANOVA: ** indicates P<0.01, ***
P<0.001, n.s. P>0.1.

Figure 4: <u>Expression of either *mylpfb-GFP* or *mylpfa-GFP* can rescue the *mylpfa^{-/-}*</u>
<u>myofibrils.</u> **(A-D)** Images of phalloidin labeled animals at 72 hpf showing mosaic
expression of the *mylpfa:mylpfa-GFP* (A, B) or the *mylpfa:mylpfb-GFP* transgene (C, D).
(E) Box plots showing the fraction of
F-actin localized to sarcomeres,
calculated in non-transgenic muscle
fibers and GFP+ muscle fibers
within the same mosaic animals. **(F)**
Box plots showing the sarcomeric
fraction for GFP. **(G)** Scatterplot
showing the correlation between
GFP brightness and myofibril width
in *mylpfa^{-/-}* mutant animals carrying
mylpfa:mylpfa-GFP or
mylpfa:mylpfb-GFP transgenes.
Linear correlates for the two
transgenes have overlapping
confidence intervals. The vertical
brown line indicates animals
classified as transgenic vs. non-
transgenic. **(H)** Scatterplot of
myofibril widths in animals bearing
an inherited transgene. The Mylpfa-
GFP widths in (H) are also
presented in Figure 3B, shown here
for comparison with Mylpfb-GFP.
Scalebar in A applies to A-D.
Significance: n.s. is P>0.1, ***
indicates P<0.001 as determined by
Tukey-Kramer HSD comparisons
after one-way ANOVA.

Figure 5: Levels of myofibril formation correspond to dosages predicted by *mylpfa* and
mylpfb loss of function. **(A-D)** 3D renders of confocal stacks show normal myofibril
structure in slow muscle fibers across Mylpf genotype. **(E-H)** Medial slices show a
portion of myotome rich in fast-twitch fibers, with robust myofibrils in the wild-type sibling
(E) and the *mylpfb⁻ᐟ⁻* mutant (F), but
overt myofibrillar defect in the *mylpfa⁻ᐟ⁻*
mutant (G) and total loss of myofibrils in
the *mylpfa⁻ᐟ⁻;mylpfb⁻ᐟ⁻* double mutant (H).
Zoomed images show myofibrillar
structure within fast-twitch muscle fibers
(E'-H'). **(I)** Box plots of myofibril widths
in slow-twitch and fast-twitch muscle.
Slow and fast-twitch widths plotted
separately because the slow-twitch
fibers were measured on 3D rendered
images and the fast-twitch fibers were
measured on confocal slices. **(J)**
Scatterplot showing the same myofibril
width data from fast-twitch muscle (in I)
replotted as a correlate with predicted
protein dosage at 24hpf, with each
allele scaled 6:1 for Mylpfa:Mylpfb ratio.
(K) Box plots showing the fraction of
sarcomeric MyHC localization. **(L)** Box
plots showing myofibril widths in 72 hpf
phalloidin-labeled animals. **(M)**
Scatterplot of the same data with each
allele scaled 6:1 for Mylpfa:Mylpfb. **(N-**
P) Transmission electron microscopy
showing normal sarcomere structure in
the wild-type sibling (N), partial
sarcomeric disarray in the *mylpfa⁻ᐟ⁻*
mutant (O) and only scattered
sarcomeric components in the *mylpfa⁻*
ᐟ⁻;mylpfb⁻ᐟ⁻ double mutant (P). Scale bars
in D, H, and H' are 10 µm, applicable to
their row. Scale bar in N is 1 µm.
Significance thresholds: not significant
(n.s.) is P>0.1, ** P<0.01, *** P<0.001
as determined by Tukey-Kramer HSD
comparisons after one-way ANOVA.

870
871
Figure 6: _mylpfa_ and _mylpfb_ are required for myosin heavy chain localization in young
myofibers. **(A-D)** Immunolabel of fast muscle fibers at 26 hpf shown as orthogonal views
of Z-stacks of wild-type (A), _mylpfb-/-_ (B), _mylpfa-/-_ (C), and _mylpfa-/-;mylpfb-/-_ double
mutant zebrafish (D). **(A'-D')** Zoomed sagittal views of the same animals. **(E)** Overview
of protocol to measure image brightness from edge-to-center. The fast-twitch muscle
cells are (1) manually outlined, (2) segmented using these outlines, then (3) label
brightness is calculated from edge-to-center of the drawn cells. **(F, G, H)** Localization at
26 hpf of the F-actin marker phalloidin (F), the muscle nuclei label anti-Rbfox1l (G), and
MyHC antibody A4.1025 (H). Data is plotted as percent of total image brightness from
edge to center of segments, with bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals in shaded
lines. F-H uses the genotypic color code shown in (F). Inset in H shows the stark
difference between MyHC localization in the _mylpfa+/-;mylpfb+/-_ double heterozygote and
the _mylpfa-/-;mylpfb-/-_ double mutant, unobscured by other genotypes. Scalebar in A is
for A-D; A' is for A'-D'.

Figure 7: The *mylpfa⁻/⁻* and the *mylpfa⁻/⁻;mylpfb⁻/⁻* double mutant animals do not swim at high speed but increase the frequency of slower movements. **(A-C)** Escape response in wild-type or in *mylpfa⁻/⁻* animals, showing images captured 1/60th of a second apart (A, B). Blue line shows maximal tail bend, quantified in (C). **(D-H)** Box plots of behaviors in a 25-minute interval, imaged using DanioVision. Genotypic color code is shown in (D), with gene names simplified to '*a*' (*mylpfa*) or '*b*' (*mylpfb*). Behavioral analysis incudes the highest speed movement in the interval (D), the percent of time spent swimming swiftly (E), the average speed (F) the distance traveled (G), and the percent of time swimming at slow speed (H). **(I)** A logarithmic plot of the proportion of time that select genotypes swim at different speeds, with bootstrap confidence intervals shown for each genotype. **(J)** The same data is shown after normalization to wild-type behaviors, plotted on a linear scale. **(K, L)** Phalloidin label in the wild-type larva (K) or the *mylpfa⁻/⁻* mutant (L), annotated to show the boundary between slow-twitch and fast-twitch muscle fibers at 6 dpf. **(M)** Box plot shows that slow-twitch myofibril CSA is increased in the *mylpfa⁻/⁻* mutant and reduced in the mutant by expression of *the mylpfa:mylpfa-GFP* transgene. Data in (K-M) comes from the dataset examined in Figure 3H-M for other measures. Scalebar in A is for A-B, in K is for K-L. Significance is determined using Tukey-Kramer comparisons after one-way ANOVA, shown as n.s. of P>0.1, * P<0.01, ** P<0.01 and *** P<0.001 in these comparisons. For comparison between groups bounded by zero, we used non-parametric Steel-Dwass comparisons (~~~ P<0.001).

928
929
Figure 8: _MYLPF alleles modeling variants in Distal Arthrogryposis patients do not_
promote early myofibril assembly. **(A)** Predicted MYLPF structure, with color and filled
space highlighting the location of Cys157 and Gly163. **(B)** Box plots of myofibril widths
in animals mosaic for the human MYLPF variants; the non-Tg group represents the
compiled non-transgenic fibers from these animals. **(C-H)** Representative images of
animals with mosaic expression of Mylpf transgenic variants (green), co-labeled for
phalloidin (magenta) after fixation at 48 hpf. Animals are injected with the constructs
mylpfa:MYLPF-GFP, expressing the WT MYLPF variant (C, D), C157F variant (E, F),
and G163S variant(G, H). Areas with delocalized GFP are marked with an asterisk. **(I)**
Scatterplot showing correlates between myofibril width and GFP brightness for all
constructs injected. The R^2 values in the _mylpfa$^{-/-}$_ mutants are 0.86 (WT Tg), 0.55
(C157F), and 0.11 (G163S). In the WT siblings, R2 values are 0.02 (WT Tg), 0.36
(C157F), and 0.36 (G163S). **(J)** Model of how gene dosage impacts myofibril formation
and fish behaviors during zebrafish embryonic development. Significance determined by
Tukey-Kramer HSD comparisons after ANOVA: n.s. is P>0.1, * indicates P<0.05, ***
indicates P<0.001. Scalebar in C is for C-H.

Supplemental Figures and legends

949
950
Figure S1: <u>Time-course of *mylpfa* and *mylpfb* expression in fast-twitch muscle fibers.</u>
Images of HCR ISH for *mylpfa*, *mylpfb*, and the slow muscle marker *myl10*. **(A-C)** Low
magnification images highlight that all three genes are expressed specifically in muscle
and not in other body locations like the head. **(D-F″)** Confocal slices at higher
magnification show that the two Mylpf genes are consistently excluded from slow-twitch
fibers, but overlap in all fast-twitch fibers. Both genes are visible in the brightened
single-channel inset at the stages examined (D′-F″). The ratio of *mylpfa* to *mylpfb* is
somewhat lower in these co-labeled images (detected in 488 and 568 excitation) than in
the single-channel ones shown in Figure 1G, H (detected in 488 channel), because of
differential sensitivities between 488 and 568 detectors. **(G-G″)** Z-slice from a 20 hpf
embryo shown from a transverse view, shown as a 3-color merge (G), merge of *myl10*
and *mylpfa* (G″), and as a merge of *myl10* and *mylpfb* channels (G″). Both genes are
present in fast-twitch myofibers, which are medial to slow twitch fibers by 20 hpf.
Scalebar in A is for A-C, D is for D-F, D′ is for D′-F″, and G is for G-G″. Image settings
are matched in A-C, D-F, and D′-F′ to allow comparisons between timepoints.

Figure S2: The *mylpfa^oz30^* phenotypes are consistent with those found in the *mylpfa^oz43^*
mutant. **(A-C)** Confocal slices through the fast-twitch region of somites labeled for
phalloidin at 72 hpf. Compared to wild-type siblings (A), myofibrils are disarrayed in the
*mylpfa^oz30^* mutant (B) and the *mylpfa^oz43^* mutant (C). Scale bar in A applies to A-C.

972
973
Figure S3: Explanation of the sarcomeric fraction calculation. **(A)** Overview of a method
to quantify the degree to which markers localize to sarcomeres. 1) ROI lines are drawn
throughout the fast-twitch muscle region of a dorsal somite half, with lengths of
approximately 15 μm each. 2) An ImageJ script separates channels and calculates
grayscale intensity across the ROI line shown on top of the F-actin channel. 3) The
periodicity of each ROI is calculated, and repeats are binned by length. 4) Histogram
plot of all ROI in one image, here binned to step size 0.05 μm, with peak frequency near
the sarcomere length of 1.85 μm. 5) Each 0.05 μm histogram bin is averaged per
image, then bootstrap confidence intervals are calculated using variation between
images. **(B-E)** Histograms showing the frequency of periodicity in images. Colored lines
represent mean values per genotype, semi-transparent colored lines indicate bootstrap
confidence intervals, and gray bars indicating the sarcomeric intervals per marker. **(F)**
Formula for calculating sarcomeric fraction, which is the ratio of signal in sarcomeric
lengths (gray bars) to total localization (Y-axis, 0-4 μm) is the sarcomeric fraction. **(G)**
Sarcomeric fractions are shown for F-actin (phalloidin), Z-disk (Actinin), M-line
(Myomesin), and MyHC (A4.1025) labels. A horizontal brown line shows the fraction
predicted by a uniform distribution. Data in S3B and S3G are replicated in main-text
Figures 2K and 2L respectively. For all bar graphs and histogram plots, wild-type data is
blue, and the *mylpfa*$^{-/-}$ mutant data is red. Significance thresholds were determined by
Tukey-Kramer HSD comparisons; ** P<0.01, *** P<0.001.

994
995
Figure S4: Representative examples of the *mylpfa-GFP* rescue experiments at 6 dpf.
(A-D″) Confocal slices in sagittal view showing the dorsal half of somites. Images are
shown as an overlay of phalloidin and GFP channels (A-D), as single channel for
phalloidin (A′-D′), or as single channel for GFP (A″-D″),. At this stage we sometimes find
patches of disordered GFP and Actin in the *mylpfa*^{-/-} mutant at 6 dpf (asterisks)
alongside the well-ordered myofibrils. Scalebar in A applies to all panels.

1002
1003
Figure S5: Comparison of muscle phenotypes in the *mylpfa-/-;mylpfb-/-* incross through
embryonic development. **(A)** Box plots showing the fraction of sarcomeric MyHC at
26hpf, **(B)** F-actin at 26 hpf, **(C)** MyHC at 48 hpf, and **(D)** F-actin at 48 hpf. Although F-
actin localizes first, its periodicity increases later than MyHC so the shifts in the mutant
are smaller for that gene in the earlier timepoint. The 48 hpf MyHC data is also shown in
main text (Figure 5K); shown here for comparison with other datasets. The mutant's
reduction in myofibril width and loss of sarcomeres persists to 72 hpf as seen in
measurements of **(E)** myofibril width and **(F)** fraction of sarcomere-length objects in
TEM. Genotypic color codes are shown in the figure. Significance thresholds were
determined by Tukey-Kramer HSD comparisons (K); not significant (n.s.) is P>0.1, **
P<0.01, *** P<0.001.

Video 1: The *mylpfa*$^{-/-}$ mutant shows an impaired escape response. Imaging at 240
frames/second, showing 100 msec after contact with fishing line in the wild-type and the
mylpfa$^{-/-}$ mutant. Both animals respond to the prodding; however, the *mylpfa*$^{-/-}$ mutant
escapes at slower speed due to smaller tail undulations. Figure 7A, B shows a projection of
frames from this video.
1020
1021
1022 **Tables:**
1023 n/a

Citations

1. Luis, N. M. & Schnorrer, F. Mechanobiology of muscle and myofibril morphogenesis. *Cells & Development* **168**, 203760 (2021).

2. Berger, J., Berger, S. & Currie, P. D. Mob4-dependent STRIPAK involves the chaperonin TRiC to coordinate myofibril and microtubule network growth. *PLoS Genet* **18**, e1010287 (2022).

3. Sanger, J. W. *et al.* Assembly and Maintenance of Myofibrils in Striated Muscle. in *The Actin Cytoskeleton* (ed. Jockusch, B. M.) vol. 235 39–75 (Springer International Publishing, Cham, 2016).

4. Holtzer, H. *et al.* Independent assembly of 1.6 microns long bipolar MHC filaments and I-Z-I bodies. *Cell Struct Funct* **22**, 83–93 (1997).

5. Rhee, D., Sanger, J. M. & Sanger, J. W. The premyofibril: Evidence for its role in myofibrillogenesis. *Cell Motility* **28**, 1–24 (1994).

6. Raeker, M. Ö., Shavit, J. A., Dowling, J. J., Michele, D. E. & Russell, M. W. Membrane-myofibril cross-talk in myofibrillogenesis and in muscular dystrophy pathogenesis: lessons from the zebrafish. *Frontiers in Physiology* **5**, (2014).

7. Weitkunat, M., Brasse, M., Bausch, A. R. & Schnorrer, F. Mechanical tension and spontaneous muscle twitching precede the formation of cross-striated muscle *in vivo*. *Development* **144**, 1261–1272 (2017).

8. Tskhovrebova, L. & Trinick, J. Titin and Nebulin in Thick and Thin Filament Length Regulation. in *Fibrous Proteins: Structures and Mechanisms* (eds. Parry, D. A. D. & Squire, J. M.) vol. 82 285–318 (Springer International Publishing, Cham, 2017).

9. Loison, O. *et al.* Polarization-resolved microscopy reveals a muscle myosin motor-

independent mechanism of molecular actin ordering during sarcomere maturation. *PLOS*

Biology **16**, e2004718 (2018).

10. Lemke, S. B. & Schnorrer, F. Mechanical forces during muscle development. *Mechanisms of*

Development **144**, 92–101 (2017).

11. Hall, T. E. *et al.* In vivo cell biological screening identifies an endocytic capture mechanism

for T-tubule formation. *Nat Commun* **11**, 3711 (2020).

12. Lowey, S. & Trybus, K. M. Role of Skeletal and Smooth Muscle Myosin Light Chains.

Biophysical Journal **68**, 7 (1995).

13. Heissler, S. M. & Sellers, J. R. Myosin light chains: Teaching old dogs new tricks.

BioArchitecture **4**, 169–188 (2014).

14. Sherwood, J. J., Waller, G. S., Warshaw, D. M. & Lowey, S. A point mutation in the

regulatory light chain reduces the step size of skeletal muscle myosin. *Proceedings of the*

National Academy of Sciences **101**, 10973–10978 (2004).

15. VanBuren, P. *et al.* The essential light chain is required for full force production by skeletal

muscle myosin. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **91**, 12403–12407 (1994).

16. Pastra-Landis, S. C. & Lowey, S. Myosin subunit interactions. Properties of the 19,000-dalton

light chain-deficient myosin. *J. Biol. Chem.* **261**, 14811–14816 (1986).

17. Warmke, J., Yamakawa, M., Molloy, J., Falkenthal, S. & Maughan, D. Myosin light chain-2

mutation affects flight, wing beat frequency, and indirect flight muscle contraction kinetics

in Drosophila. *The Journal of cell biology* **119**, 1523–1539 (1992).

18. Ravenscroft, G. *et al.* Bi-allelic mutations in MYL1 cause a severe congenital myopathy.

Human Molecular Genetics (2018) doi:10.1093/hmg/ddy320.

19. Nawrotzki, R., Fischman, D. A. & Mikawa, T. Antisense suppression of skeletal muscle

myosin light chain-1 biosynthesis impairs myofibrillogenesis in cultured myotubes. *J Muscle*

Res Cell Motil **16**, 45–56 (1995).

20. Lossie, J. *et al.* Mutations of ventricular essential myosin light chain disturb myosin binding

and sarcomeric sorting. *Cardiovascular Research* **93**, 390–396 (2012).

21. Cao, J. *et al.* The single-cell transcriptional landscape of mammalian organogenesis. *Nature*

566, 496–502 (2019).

22. Wang, Y. *et al.* Fast skeletal muscle regulatory light chain is required for fast and slow

skeletal muscle development. *The FASEB Journal* **21**, 2205–2214 (2007).

23. Hall, J. G. Arthrogryposis (multiple congenital contractures): Diagnostic approach to

etiology, classification, genetics, and general principles. *European Journal of Medical*

Genetics **57**, 464–472 (2014).

24. Bamshad, M., Van Heest, A. E. & Pleasure, D. Arthrogryposis: A Review and Update: *The*

Journal of Bone and Joint Surgery-American Volume **91**, 40–46 (2009).

25. Whittle, J., Johnson, A., Dobbs, M. B. & Gurnett, C. A. Models of Distal Arthrogryposis and

Lethal Congenital Contracture Syndrome. *Genes* **12**, 943 (2021).

26. Devoto, S. H., Melançon, E., Eisen, J. S. & Westerfield, M. Identification of separate slow and

fast muscle precursor cells in vivo, prior to somite formation. *Development* **122**, 3371–3380

(1996).

27. Mead, A. F., Kennedy, G. G., Palmer, B. M., Ebert, A. M. & Warshaw, D. M. Mechanical

Characteristics of Ultrafast Zebrafish Larval Swimming Muscles. *Biophysical Journal* **119**,

806–820 (2020).

28. Talbot, J. & Maves, L. Skeletal muscle fiber type: using insights from muscle developmental

biology to dissect targets for susceptibility and resistance to muscle disease. *Wiley*

Interdiscip Rev Dev Biol **5**, 518–534 (2016).

29. Roy, S. D. *et al.* Myotome adaptability confers developmental robustness to somitic

myogenesis in response to fibre number alteration. *Developmental Biology* **431**, 321–335

(2017).

30. Farnsworth, D. R., Saunders, L. M. & Miller, A. C. A single-cell transcriptome atlas for

zebrafish development. *Developmental Biology* **459**, 100–108 (2020).

31. Sur, A. *et al.* Single-cell analysis of shared signatures and transcriptional diversity during

zebrafish development. *Developmental Cell* S1534580723005774 (2023)

doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2023.11.001.

32. Thisse, B. *et al.* Spatial and temporal expression of the zebrafish genome by large-scale in

situ hybridization screening. *Methods Cell Biol* **77**, 505–519 (2004).

33. Xu, Y., He, J., Wang, X., Lim, T. M. & Gong, Z. Asynchronous activation of 10 muscle-specific

protein (MSP) genes during zebrafish somitogenesis. *Developmental Dynamics* **219**, 201–

215 (2000).

34. Nassar, L. R. *et al.* The UCSC Genome Browser database: 2023 update. *Nucleic Acids Res* **51**,

D1188–D1195 (2023).

35. Chong, J. X. *et al.* Mutations in MYLPF Cause a Novel Segmental Amyoplasia that Manifests

as Distal Arthrogryposis. *The American Journal of Human Genetics* **107**, 293–310 (2020).

36. Ju, B. *et al.* Recapitulation of fast skeletal muscle development in zebrafish by transgenic

expression of GFP under the mylz2 promoter. *Developmental Dynamics* **227**, 14–26 (2003).

37. Jackson, H. E. *et al.* The role of Sox6 in zebrafish muscle fiber type specification. *Skeletal*

Muscle **5**, 2 (2015).

38. Gangras, P. *et al.* Zebrafish rbm8a and magoh mutants reveal EJC developmental functions

and new 3'UTR intron-containing NMD targets. *PLoS Genet* **16**, e1008830 (2020).

39. Roberts, J. A. *et al.* Targeted transgene integration overcomes variability of position effects

in zebrafish. *Development* **141**, 715–724 (2014).

40. Karuppasamy, M. *et al.* Standardization of zebrafish drug testing parameters for muscle

diseases. *Disease Models & Mechanisms* **17**, dmm050339 (2024).

41. Bernick, E. P., Zhang, P.-J. & Du, S. Knockdown and overexpression of Unc-45b result in

defective myofibril organization in skeletal muscles of zebrafish embryos. *BMC Cell Biology*

11, 70 (2010).

42. Burghardt, T. P., Sun, X., Wang, Y. & Ajtai, K. In vitro and in vivo single myosin step-sizes in

striated muscle. *Journal of Muscle Research and Cell Motility* **36**, 463–477 (2015).

43. Zhao, S. *et al.* Myosin-18B Promotes Mechanosensitive CaMKK2-AMPK-VASP Regulation of

Contractile Actin Stress Fibers. *iScience* **23**, (2020).

44. Berger, J., Berger, S., Li, M. & Currie, P. D. Myo18b is essential for sarcomere assembly in

fast skeletal muscle. *Human molecular genetics* **26**, 1146–1156 (2017).

45. Gurung, R. *et al.* A Zebrafish Model for a Human Myopathy Associated with Mutation of the

Unconventional Myosin MYO18B. *Genetics* **205**, 725–735 (2017).

46. Okamoto, H. *et al.* Molecular characterization of mutant actin genes which induce heat-

shock proteins in *Drosophila* flight muscles. *The EMBO Journal* **5**, 589–596 (1986).

47. Whittle, J. *et al.* MYH3-associated distal arthrogryposis zebrafish model is normalized with

para-aminoblebbistatin. *EMBO Mol Med* e12356 (2020) doi:10.15252/emmm.202012356.

48. Zempo, B., Yamamoto, Y., Williams, T. & Ono, F. Synaptic silencing of fast muscle is

compensated by rewired innervation of slow muscle. *Sci. Adv.* **6**, eaax8382 (2020).

49. Naganawa, Y. & Hirata, H. Developmental transition of touch response from slow muscle-

mediated coilings to fast muscle-mediated burst swimming in zebrafish. *Developmental*

Biology **355**, 194–204 (2011).

50. Lobjois, V. *et al.* A muscle transcriptome analysis identifies positional candidate genes for a

complex trait in pig. *Animal Genetics* **39**, 147–162 (2008).

51. Ryan, M. T. *et al.* Polymorphisms in the regulatory region of the porcine MYLPF gene are

related to meat quality traits in the Large White breed. *Meat Science* **113**, 104–106 (2016).

52. Zhang, R. *et al.* The Expression Profiles of mRNAs and lncRNAs in Buffalo Muscle Stem Cells

Driving Myogenic Differentiation. *Frontiers in Genetics* **12**, (2021).

53. Aoki, H., Sadoshima, J. & Izumo, S. Myosin light chain kinase mediates sarcomere

organization during cardiac hypertrophy in vitro. *Nat Med* **6**, 183–188 (2000).

54. Westerfield, M. *The Zebrafish Book: A Guide for the Laboratory Use of Zebrafish (Danio*

Rerio). (University of Oregon Press, Eugene, 2007).

55. Kimmel, C. B., Ballard, W. W., Kimmel, S. R., Ullmann, B. & Schilling, T. F. Stages of

embryonic development of the zebrafish. *Developmental dynamics* **203**, 253–310 (1995).

56. Talbot, J. C. & Amacher, S. L. A streamlined CRISPR pipeline to reliably generate zebrafish

frameshifting alleles. *Zebrafish* **11**, 583–585 (2014).

57. Kawakami, K. Transgenesis and Gene Trap Methods in Zebrafish by Using the Tol2

Transposable Element. in *Methods in Cell Biology* vol. 77 201–222 (Academic Press, 2004).

58. Ignatius, M. S. *et al.* In vivo imaging of tumor-propagating cells, regional tumor

heterogeneity, and dynamic cell movements in embryonal rhabdomyosarcoma. *Cancer Cell*

21, 680–693 (2012).

59. Kwan, K. M. *et al.* The Tol2kit: a multisite gateway-based construction kit for Tol2

transposon transgenesis constructs. *Dev Dyn* **236**, 3088–3099 (2007).

60. Suster, M. L., Abe, G., Schouw, A. & Kawakami, K. Transposon-mediated BAC transgenesis in

zebrafish. *Nature Protocols* **6**, 1998–2021 (2011).

61. Bird, N. C., Windner, S. E. & Devoto, S. H. Immunocytochemistry to Study Myogenesis in

Zebrafish. in *Myogenesis* (ed. DiMario, J. X.) vol. 798 153–169 (Humana Press, Totowa, NJ,

2012).

62. Talbot, J. C., Johnson, S. L. & Kimmel, C. B. hand2 and Dlx genes specify dorsal, intermediate

and ventral domains within zebrafish pharyngeal arches. *Development* **137**, 2507–2517

(2010).

63. Berberoglu, M. A. *et al.* Satellite-like cells contribute to pax7 -dependent skeletal muscle

repair in adult zebrafish. *Developmental Biology* **424**, 162–180 (2017).

64. Grove, B. K. *et al.* A new 185,000-dalton skeletal muscle protein detected by monoclonal

antibodies. *J Cell Biol* **98**, 518–524 (1984).

65. Webster, C., Silberstein, L., Hays, A. P. & Blau, H. M. Fast muscle fibers are preferentially

affected in Duchenne muscular dystrophy. *Cell* **52**, 503–513 (1988).

66. Choi, H. M. T., Schwarzkopf, M. & Pierce, N. A. Multiplexed Quantitative In Situ

Hybridization with Subcellular or Single-Molecule Resolution Within Whole-Mount

Vertebrate Embryos: qHCR and dHCR Imaging (v3.0). in *In Situ Hybridization Protocols* (eds.

Nielsen, B. S. & Jones, J.) 159–178 (Springer US, New York, NY, 2020). doi:10.1007/978-1-

0716-0623-0_10.

67. Gulbulak, U., Wellette-Hunsucker, A. G., Kampourakis, T. & Campbell, K. S. GelBox: Open-

source software to improve rigor and reproducibility when analyzing gels and immunoblots.

American Journal of Physiology-Heart and Circulatory Physiology (2024)

doi:10.1152/ajpheart.00144.2024.

68. Schindelin, J. *et al.* Fiji: an open-source platform for biological-image analysis. *Nat Methods*

9, 676–682 (2012).

69. Baek, M. *et al.* Accurate prediction of protein structures and interactions using a three-track

neural network. *Science* **373**, 871–876 (2021).

70. Mary, H. & Brouhard, G. J. *Kappa (κ): Analysis of Curvature in Biological Image Data Using*

B-Splines. http://biorxiv.org/lookup/doi/10.1101/852772 (2019) doi:10.1101/852772.

1191