Computational tool to study perturbations in muscle regulation and its application to heart disease

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Abstract

Striated muscle contraction occurs when myosin thick filaments bind to thin filaments in

the sarcomere and generate pulling forces. This process is regulated by calcium, and it

can be perturbed by pathological conditions (e.g., myopathies), physiological adaptations

(e.g., β-adrenergic stimulation), and pharmacological interventions. Therefore, it is

important to have a methodology to robustly determine the mechanism of these

perturbations and statistically evaluate their effects. Here, we present an approach to

measure the equilibrium constants that govern muscle activation, estimate uncertainty in

these parameters, and statistically test the effects of perturbations. We provide a

MATLAB-based computational tool for these analyses, along with easy-to-follow tutorials

that make this approach accessible. The hypothesis testing and error estimation

approaches described here are broadly applicable, and the provided tools work with other

types of data, including cellular measurements. To demonstrate the utility of the

approach, we apply it to determine the biophysical mechanism of a mutation that causes

familial hypertrophic cardiomyopathy. This approach is generally useful for studying the

mechanisms of muscle diseases and therapeutic interventions that target muscle

contraction.

Introduction

Introduction

Force production in cardiac and skeletal muscle is tightly regulated to ensure that

contraction occurs in a controlled and concerted manner. Dysfunction of this regulation

can lead to a wide array of diseases, including cardiomyopathies, and there are currently

several therapies in development that target this regulation (1-3). Given the role of

perturbations of muscle regulation in health and disease, there is an outstanding need for

tools that can resolve statistically significant changes in this regulation.

At the molecular scale, force production in muscle is powered by the molecular

motor myosin, which contracts the sarcomere by pulling thin filaments (i.e., actin filaments

decorated with tropomyosin and the troponin complex) toward the M-line of the

sarcomere. The interaction between myosin and the thin filament is regulated in a

calcium-dependent manner, where calcium influx into the cytoplasm leads to activation

of the thin filament and subsequent muscle contraction. In their landmark work, McKillop

and Geeves (4) used a battery of biochemical and biophysical techniques to demonstrate

that thin-filament activation is a multi-step process, requiring contributions from calcium

binding to troponin as well as actomyosin binding. Their model is known as the "three-

state model" (Fig. 1). In the absence of calcium, tropomyosin is in the blocked state,

obscuring the myosin-binding site on the thin filament and inhibiting muscle contraction.

Calcium binding to the troponin complex causes tropomyosin to shift to the closed state

on the thin filament, exposing part of the myosin-binding site. Tropomyosin can either

move to the open position spontaneously, where it permits myosin strong binding, or it

can be pushed there by myosin binding. Myosin first binds weakly to the thin filament,

then isomerizes to a strongly bound, force-generating state. The binding of one myosin

to the thin filament pushes tropomyosin into the open position, exposing adjacent myosin-

binding sites and leading to cooperative activation. The three states of tropomyosin

positioning along the thin filament were subsequently confirmed using structural

techniques (5).

The three-state model provides a useful framework to understand the mechanism

of perturbations in skeletal and cardiac thin-filament regulation, such as drug treatments

(1, 6), protein isoform changes (7), disease-causing mutations (8), and post-translational

modifications (9, 10). The formalism laid out by McKillop and Geeves enables the

determination of the equilibrium constants that govern transitions between states, and

thus the population of thin-filament regulatory units in each state (Fig. 1). However, it has

been challenging to precisely define the values of these equilibrium constants, due in part

to the number of free parameters in the model. Furthermore, the original McKillop and

Geeves approach did not provide a methodology for assessment of uncertainty in

parameter values or hypothesis testing. Such a methodology is necessary for the rigorous

assessment of the effects of perturbations.

Here, we have modified the approach of McKillop and Geeves to better resolve the

effects of perturbations in tropomyosin positioning along the thin filament. We provide a

MATLAB-based computational tool and a user guide that enables users to measure the

equilibrium constants that govern thin-filament activation, estimate uncertainty in these

parameters, and statistically test the effects of perturbations. We demonstrate the utility

of our approach by applying it to determine the biophysical mechanism of a mutation in

troponin T, ΔE160, that causes familial hypertrophic cardiomyopathy (HCM) (11). This

approach allows for the robust determination of differences between wild-type and mutant

proteins, which is an important step toward developing novel therapies to treat HCM and

other devastating muscle diseases.

Materials and Methods

Determination of equilibrium constants using the McKillop and Geeves analysis

In the classic McKillop and Geeves analysis, the values of the equilibrium

constants that govern muscle activation (Fig. 1) were determined from biochemical

measurements. K_B was calculated based on stopped-flow measurement of the rate of

myosin binding to regulated thin filaments (RTFs) (see Supporting Materials for details).

K_W, K_T, and nH (i.e., the size of the cooperative unit) were calculated from titrations of

pyrene-labeled RTFs with myosin performed at saturating calcium (pCa 3) and in the

absence of calcium (2 mM EGTA) (see Supporting Materials for details). The relationship

between the fraction of myosin-bound subunits, $f([m])$, and the fractional change in pyrene

fluorescence upon myosin binding is given by the following equation (4):

$$f([m]) = \frac{F_0 - F}{F_0 - F_\infty} = \frac{K_W[m]P^{(nH-1)}(K_T(1+K_S)^{(nH)}+1)}{\left(K_T P^{(nH)} + Q^{(nH)} + \frac{1}{K_B}\right)(1+K_S)^{(nH-1)}}$$ Equation 1

where F is the measured pyrene fluorescence; F_0 and F_∞ are the pyrene fluorescence in

the absence of myosin and at saturating myosin, respectively; [m] is the concentration of

myosin; $P = 1 + [m]*K_W(1 + K_S)$; and $Q = 1 + [m]*K_W$. K_B at high calcium and K_S were set

to 20 and 18, respectively, based on (4). nH, K_W, and K_T were determined in the presence

and absence of calcium by fitting each titration curve independently.

Modified fitting approach

To improve the resolution of the parameters extracted from fitting of the data, we

modified the classic McKillop and Geeves approach:

(1)   We performed an additional titration at an intermediate calcium

concentration (pCa 6.25).

(2)   The data for curves collected at three different calcium concentrations were

globally fit using least squares optimization, and the parameters that minimized the

aggregate error in all three data sets were determined. In global fitting, individual

parameters can be shared between data sets, reducing the number of free

variables and increasing the power to precisely measure parameter values. Here,

K_W and nH were shared parameters among all three curves; however, this

approach does not require sharing these parameters.

(3)   We used an annealing routine in our fitting procedure to avoid biasing the

fit toward the initial guesses used in the fitting. The annealing routine ensures that

the best-fit parameters are obtained from a global rather than local minimum.

Hypothesis testing and statistics

One limitation of the original formulation of the three-state model is that it lacks

procedures for calculating uncertainties and statistical hypothesis testing. Here, we used

the well-established technique of bootstrapping simulations to calculate 95% confidence

intervals (12, 13). In the bootstrapping method, the original data set is randomly

resampled to generate synthetic data sets, each containing the same number of points

as the original data set. Each synthetic data set is then fit to determine the best-fit values

of the parameters for that data set. 95% confidence intervals are defined as the interval

over which 95% of the simulated parameter values are found. Note that the number of

bootstrapping simulations required will depend on the noise in the data as well as the

number of sampled points. As such, one should empirically determine the number of

simulations required for stable convergence of the confidence intervals. We have found

that for the experiments described here, 1000 rounds of bootstrapping simulations were

sufficient (Fig. 2A).

For statistical hypothesis testing, we defined a test statistic as the difference

between parameter values in the perturbed and unperturbed systems (14). For example,

to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference in the value of K_W for a

mutant protein relative to wild-type (WT), the test statistic is H = K_W(WT) – K_W(mutant).

The value of the test statistic is calculated for the real data and for pairs of K_W values

drawn from the bootstrapping simulations of the data. The interval within which 95% of

the test statistic values from the bootstrapped simulations fall is defined as the 95%

confidence interval. If the null hypothesis (i.e., H_0=0) is not contained within the 95%

confidence interval, then the null hypothesis is rejected, and K_W(WT) ≠ K_W(mutant) with a

p-value < 0.05 (Fig. 2B-C). The p-value can be calculated from a cumulative distribution

of the test statistic by finding the largest interval that does not contain the null hypothesis

(Fig. 2D). This value is multiplied by two to make the test equivalent to a two-tailed test.

Results and Discussion

      Here we present a methodology and MATLAB-based computational tool for analyzing biochemical measurements of thin-filament positioning. This procedure builds on the formalism developed by McKillop and Geeves (4), extending it to allow for improved precision of parameter values, estimations of uncertainties, and statistical hypothesis testing. The basic workflow for the analysis follows:

1. Measure the value of the equilibrium constant between the blocked and closed states, K_B, using a stopped-flow kinetic technique (see Supporting Materials).

2. Perform steady-state fluorescence titrations measuring myosin binding to regulated thin filaments (RTFs; see Supporting Materials). The titrations should be carried out at three separate calcium concentrations (i.e., low, high, and intermediate calcium concentrations).

3. Normalize the data from each technical replicate before pooling the data.

4. Globally fit the pooled titration data set to determine the best fit parameters and calculate confidence intervals from bootstrapping simulations.

5. For a given perturbation, statistically test for differences between individual parameters obtained from the fitting.

A detailed user guide describing how to perform each of these steps, along with all of the data used to generate the figures in this manuscript is provided with the computational tool.

Results obtained using the traditional fitting procedure and the estimation of uncertainties

The individual equilibrium constants that define the positioning of cardiac

tropomyosin along the thin filament were determined using tissue-purified porcine cardiac

myosin and actin and recombinant human troponin and tropomyosin (see Supporting

Materials). The equilibrium constant for the transition between the blocked and closed

states, K_B, was determined by performing stopped-flow kinetic measurements. We

measured K_B = 0.3 ± 0.2, in agreement with the previously determined value (4, 15).

Although there is some variance between technical replicates for K_B, the values of

parameters obtained from fitting of the titration data are relatively insensitive to small

changes in the value of K_B.

The equilibrium constants for the transition between the closed and open states,

K_T, and for myosin weak binding, K_W, were determined by performing titrations of RTFs

with myosin at high (pCa 3) and low (2 mM EGTA) calcium. The titration curves were fit

independently by Equation 1 (4). To ensure that the fitting was not biased by the initial

guesses of parameter values, we modified the fitting procedure described in (4) to

incorporate an annealing routine that iteratively fits the data with altered initial guesses.

The values obtained from these fits are shown in Figure 3A, and they are consistent with

values obtained previously with skeletal and cardiac muscle proteins (15-17). The original

formulation of the McKillop and Geeves model did not include a methodology for

determining uncertainty in fitted parameters. We developed a procedure to calculate 95%

confidence intervals via bootstrapping of the original data set (12, 13). With this

procedure, we saw that the classic approach gave considerable uncertainty in the values

of the fitted parameters. For example, for the data collected at low calcium, we obtained

uncertainties much larger than the measured parameters for both K_W (0.13 (-0.03/ +1.26))

and nH (6 (-2/+6)).

Global fitting improves the resolution of fitted parameters

To improve the resolution of parameters derived from the fitting of the data, we

adopted two modifications from the traditional approach. First, we performed an additional

titration at an intermediate calcium concentration (pCa 6.25). The inclusion of an

additional titration curve at an intermediate calcium is advantageous because some

perturbations shift the calcium sensitivity at intermediate calcium concentrations but not

under fully activating or deactivating conditions (18). Second, titration curves collected at

the three different calcium concentrations were fit globally rather than individually. In the

global fitting, the values of K_W, K_S, and nH were shared between the fits of all curves.

Global fitting of the three curves (Fig. 3A) yielded tighter 95% confidence intervals for

both K_W and nH (Fig. 3). The confidence interval for K_W was 0.13 (-0.02/+0.03), compared

to 0.13 (-0.03/+1.26) for the individually fit curve at low calcium. Similarly, the confidence

interval for nH for the individually fit data was 6 (-2/+6), while the confidence interval for

the globally fit data was 6 (-2/+4). These data demonstrate the improved resolution of this

approach.

Hypothesis testing and its application to determining the biochemical mechanism

of a mutation that causes hypertrophic cardiomyopathy

To demonstrate the utility of our approach for resolving the effects of molecular-

based changes in cardiac thin-filament regulation, we examined a point mutation that

causes familial hypertrophic cardiomyopathy (HCM), ΔE160 in troponin T (11). Clinical

studies have shown that this mutation causes pronounced ventricular hypertrophy and

sudden cardiac death, with half of the patients not surviving past age 40 (11). Previous

studies of the ΔE160 mutation in muscle fibers (19, 20), transfected myotubes (21), and

purified proteins (22) have shown that the ΔE160 mutation causes increased activation

of contractility. However, the biochemical mechanism of this activation is not well

understood.

We applied our methodology to determine which transitions involved in thin-

filament regulation (Fig. 1) are affected by the ΔE160 mutation. The goal of this analysis

is not an exhaustive characterization of the mutant; rather, it is to demonstrate the utility

of this approach for statistically assessing the effects of perturbations on thin-filament

regulation. From stopped-flow kinetic measurements (Fig. 4A), we obtained a K_B of 0.2 ±

0.1 for ΔE160, which is indistinguishable from the value obtained for wild-type (WT)

troponin (0.3 ± 0.2; p=0.41). We also performed fluorescence titrations (Fig. 4B) to

measure steady-state actomyosin binding and determine K_W, K_T, and nH. We used the

computational tool to calculate parameter values and their corresponding uncertainties

from global fitting of the titration curves (Fig. 4C).

To determine whether there are statistically significant differences between the

parameters for WT troponin and the ΔE160 mutant, we applied the hypothesis testing

methodology described in the Materials and Methods. We found that the mutant showed

a threefold increase in K_T at high calcium (0.17 (-0.12/+0.18) for WT versus 0.52 (-

0.16/+0.28) for ΔE160; p=0.014). This threefold increase in K_T would result in an

increased population of force-generating cross bridges at high calcium. We also found a

slight, but statistically significant, decrease in K_W (0.13 (-0.02/+0.03) for WT versus 0.08

(-0.01/+0.01) for ΔE160; p=0.002). We saw that at low calcium, K_T was 3-fold larger for

the mutant (p=0.076); however, this difference was not significant at the 95% confidence

level. We did not detect statistically significant differences in the values of nH (p=0.89),

K_B (p=0.41), or $K_{T\text{-}midcal}$ (p=0.95). The net effect of these changes would be to increase

activation, which is consistent with the hypercontractility associated with HCM. Taken

together, these data demonstrate the power of this approach for hypothesis testing and

for determining the biochemical mechanism of perturbations of thin-filament regulation.

Application of the hypothesis testing and uncertainty estimation to other systems

The computational tool for hypothesis testing and confidence interval estimation

from bootstrapping simulations is not limited to analysis of fluorescence titrations, but it

can be broadly applied to other data sets as well. We have supplied a stand-alone version

of this section of the code for examining the mean and median values (i.e., data frequently

used for single cell measurements) so that others can apply it to their experimental

system. This methodology is useful for data sets for which the form of the underlying

distribution is either unknown or not normal, such as single-molecule data (23) and single-

cell studies, as demonstrated in (18).

Conclusion

Here, we have demonstrated a method for extending the utility of the McKillop and

Geeves (4) approach to understanding thin-filament regulation, and we have provided a

well-documented, accessible computational tool to implement this methodology. Our

approach extends the McKillop and Geeves approach to include a method for calculating

confidence intervals and performing statistical tests. This methodology allowed us to

resolve the molecular effects of a mutation that causes hypertrophic cardiomyopathy. This

tool should be useful for studying physiological and pathological changes in muscle, as

well as for testing new therapies that target muscle regulation.

Code Availability

The computational tool can be downloaded from GitHub at:

https://github.com/GreenbergLab/Thin_Filament_Fitting

We also provide an in-depth user guide along with the raw data used in the examples

presented here.

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Conflict of interest statement:

All experiments were conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial

relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Author contributions:

S.K.B. performed and analyzed the fluorescence experiments and developed code.

S.R.C. helped with the early development and testing of the MATLAB code. L.G.

generated mutant protein. M.J.G. oversaw the project and developed the early code for

analyzing data. S.K.B. and M.J.G. wrote the first draft of the paper, and all authors

contributed to the final draft.

Figure 1. Schematic of the three-state model of muscle regulation. Red, yellow, and green represent the blocked, closed, and open states of tropomyosin, respectively. The equilibrium constants K_B and K_T describe transitions between states of tropomyosin on the thin filament, whereas K_W and K_S describe weak and strong myosin binding, respectively.

Figure 2. Hypothesis testing. **A.** Values of the average (black) and upper and lower

bounds (red) of the 95% confidence interval for $K_{T\text{-}midcal}$ as a function of the number of

bootstraps performed during error estimation. The yellow line marks the measured best-

fit value. **B-C.** Histograms of the test statistic (i.e., the difference in means between

parameters determined for WT and ΔE160) for $K_{T\text{-}midcal}$ (B) and $K_{T\text{-}cal}$ (C). Vertical lines

represent the measured difference in means (yellow), the bounds of the 95% confidence

interval (red), and the null hypothesis (blue dashed). The difference in parameter values

is statistically significant at the 95% confidence level if the null hypothesis falls outside

the 95% confidence interval, as in C. **D.** Cumulative distribution of the difference in means

317   between WT and ΔE160 calculated from the bootstrapping simulations for $K_{T\text{-}cal}$. Vertical

318   lines are the same as in C. Inset highlights the determination of the p-value (blue) from

319   the value of the cumulative distribution at x = 0. This value is multiplied by two to make

320   the test equivalent to a two-tailed test.

	2 mM EGTA Individual fit	pCa 3 Individual fit	Global fit
K_W	0.13 (-0.03/+1.26)	0.16 (-0.03/+0.13)	0.13 (-0.02/+0.03)
$K_{T\text{-}nocal}$	0.03 (-0.03/+0.07)	--	0.05 (-0.05/+0.09)
$K_{T\text{-}midcal}$	--	--	0.12 (-0.09/+0.13)
$K_{T\text{-}cal}$	--	0.22 (-0.21/+0.21)	0.17 (-0.12/+0.18)
n_H	6 (-2/+6)	4 (-1/+6)	6 (-2/+4)

Figure 3. Fitting the three-state model to fluorescence titration data. **A.** Steady-state titrations of regulated thin filaments with myosin for the WT protein conducted at three distinct calcium concentrations: saturating calcium (pCa 3, green), intermediate calcium (pCa 6.25, orange), and no calcium (2 mM EGTA, magenta). Curves are fits of the data. Error bars show the standard deviation of five technical replicates. **B.** Table of parameter values obtained from individual fits of data collected at 2 mM EGTA or pCa 3 compared to those obtained from our global fitting method, which includes pCa 6.25. Values in parentheses indicate the 95% confidence intervals. **C.** Histograms showing the frequency of K_W values determined from 1000 bootstrapping simulations. Points are the values from the global fitting (black) and from the individual fits of data collected at 2 mM EGTA (magenta) and pCa 3 (green). Lines are inserted to guide the eye. The inset shows the

335   distributions near the mean values of K_W. These data demonstrate that global fitting

336   reduces the uncertainty in the measurement.

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	WT (n=5)	**ΔE160** (n=5)	**p**
K_B	0.3 (+/- 0.2)	0.2 (+/- 0.1)	0.407
K_W	0.13 (-0.02/+0.03)	0.08 (-0.01/+0.01)	0.002*
$K_{T\text{-}nocal}$	0.05 (-0.05/+0.09)	0.15 (-0.07/+0.16)	0.076
$K_{T\text{-}midcal}$	0.12 (-0.09/+0.13)	0.11 (-0.04/+0.04)	0.950
$K_{T\text{-}cal}$	0.17 (-0.12/+0.18)	0.52 (-0.16/+0.28)	0.014*
n_H	6 (-2/+4)	6 (-1/+1)	0.888

Figure 4. Effects of ΔE160 mutation on thin-filament regulation. **A.** Normalized stopped-flow fluorescence traces of regulated thin filaments binding to myosin. The pyrene fluorescence is quenched at a higher rate at saturating calcium (pCa 4, magenta/black) than at low calcium (pCa 9, green/gray). The traces for WT (black/gray; average of n=6 curves each) and the ΔE160 mutant (magenta/green; average of n=4 curves each) are similar at each calcium concentration. **B.** Steady-state titrations of regulated thin filaments with myosin for the mutant protein conducted at three distinct calcium concentrations: saturating calcium (pCa 3, green), intermediate calcium (pCa 6.25, orange), and low calcium (2 mM EGTA, magenta). Curves are fits of the data. Error bars show the standard deviation of five technical replicates. **C.** Table of parameter values obtained for WT and ΔE160 troponin complexes from stopped-flow measurements (for K_B) and using the

computational tool (for all others). Values in parentheses indicate the 95% confidence

intervals. Asterisks indicate statistical significance at the 95% confidence level.

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