

Nanobodies combined with DNA-PAINT super-resolution reveal a staggered titin nano-architecture in flight muscles

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26 Abstract

27 Sarcomeres are the force producing units of all striated muscles. Their 28 nanoarchitecture critically depends on the large titin protein, which in vertebrates 29 spans from the sarcomeric Z-disc to the M-band and hence links actin and myosin 30 filaments stably together. This ensures sarcomeric integrity and determines the length 31 of vertebrate sarcomeres. However, the instructive role of titins for sarcomeric 32 architecture outside of vertebrates is not as well understood. Here, we used a series of 33 nanobodies, the Drosophila titin nanobody toolbox, recognising specific domains of the 34 two Drosophila titin homologs Sallimus and Projectin to determine their precise 35 location in intact flight muscles. By combining nanobodies with DNA-PAINT super-36 resolution microscopy, we found that, similar to vertebrate titin, Sallimus bridges 37 across the flight muscle I-band, whereas Projectin is located at the beginning of the A-38 band. Interestingly, the ends of both proteins overlap at the I-band/A-band border, 39 revealing a staggered organisation of the two Drosophila titin homologs. This 40 architecture may help to stably anchor Sallimus at the myosin filament and hence 41 ensure efficient force transduction during flight.

43 Introduction

44 Skeletal and heart muscles produce forces that power body movements and fluid flow in 45 animals. These forces are produced by conserved macromolecular machines called 46 sarcomeres. Sarcomeres are organised into long periodic chains called myofibrils that 47 mechanically span the entire muscle fiber length and thus sarcomere contraction results in 48 muscle contraction (Gautel, 2011; Huxley, 1969; Lemke and Schnorrer, 2017).

49 The sarcomeric architecture is conserved in striated muscles across animals. 50 Sarcomeres are bordered by two Z-discs, which anchor the plus ends of parallel actin 51 filaments. These extend towards the centrally located bipolar myosin filaments that are cross-52 linked at the M-band of the sarcomere. In vertebrate sarcomeres, actin and myosin filaments 53 are mechanically linked by the connecting filament built by the gigantic titin protein, whose 54 N-terminus is anchored to alpha-actinin at the Z-disc while its C-terminus is embedded within 55 the sarcomeric M-band. Thus, titin spans as linear protein across half a sarcomere in vertebrate muscle (Gautel and Djinović-Carugo, 2016; Lange et al., 2006; Linke, 2018; Squire 56 57 et al., 2005). This stereotypic sarcomere architecture results in a defined sarcomere length 58 (distance between two neighbouring Z-discs), which is about 3 µm in relaxed human skeletal 59 muscle (Ehler and Gautel, 2008; Llewellyn et al., 2008; Regev et al., 2011), and is responsible 60 for the typical striated appearance of skeletal muscles.

61 The defined sarcomeric architecture sparked the 'titin ruler hypothesis', proposing that 62 the long titin protein rules sarcomere length in vertebrate muscles (Tskhovrebova and Trinick, 63 2012; 2017). Recently, this hypothesis has been strongly supported by in vivo genetic 64 evidence. Deletion of parts of titin's flexible I-band or its stiff A-band regions in mouse 65 skeletal muscle resulted in a shortening of the sarcomeric I-band or A-band, respectively 66 (Brynnel et al., 2018; Tonino et al., 2017). Furthermore, recent evidence substantiated that 67 titin is the main sarcomeric component responsible for the passive tension of the muscle, 68 suggesting that mechanical tension present in relaxed muscle is stretching titin into its

extended conformation (Li et al., 2020; Linke, 2018; Rivas-Pardo et al., 2020; Swist et al.,
2020). Thus, titin mechanically links actin and myosin filaments together and is responsible
for establishing and maintaining sarcomeric architecture in vertebrate striated muscle.

72 Striated muscle architecture is not restricted to vertebrates but conserved in insects and 73 worms. However, in contrast to vertebrates, titin's role in *Drosophila* and *C. elegans* appears 74 to be split into two proteins, one containing the flexible I-band features and the other the stiff 75 A-band features of titin (Loreau et al., 2022; Tskhovrebova and Trinick, 2003). Surprisingly, 76 the sarcomere length in flies and worms is still stereotypic for the respective muscle fiber type. 77 In Drosophila the sarcomere length is about 3.5 µm for indirect flight muscles and about 8 78 µm for larval body wall muscles. To date, it is unclear how sarcomere length in these muscles 79 is determined. Furthermore, it is unknown how the titin homologs are precisely organised 80 within the sarcomere and if they contribute to sarcomere length regulation in insect muscle.

We aim to address the questions how invertebrate titin homologs instruct sarcomere architecture and if the titin nano-architecture would be consistent with a ruler function mechanically linking actin to myosin at a defined distance, as proposed for vertebrates. A first step to answer these important questions is to determine the exact positions of the titin homologs within the sarcomere.

Here, we chose the Drosophila indirect flight muscles to determine the precise 86 87 location of the two *Drosophila* homologs Sallimus (Sls) and Projectin (Proj). We selected key 88 domains at different locations within Sls and Proj, against which we raised specific 89 nanobodies (Loreau et al., 2022). We applied single and dual-colour DNA-PAINT super-90 resolution microscopy to intact flight muscle specimens, which determined the precise 91 architecture of Sls and Proj in the flight muscle sarcomere. Interestingly, we found that Sls 92 but not Proj extends from the Z-disc to the myosin filament. The end of Sls overlaps with the beginning of Proj, which further projects along the myosin filament. This staggered 93 94 organisation of the two Drosophila titin homologs may explain how high mechanical tension

- 95 can be stably transmitted across the sarcomere and how sarcomere length can be ruled without96 the presence of a single protein linking the Z-disc to the M-band as observed in vertebrates.
- 97
- 98

99 Results

100 Drosophila titin domain organisation and flight muscle isoforms

101 Drosophila indirect flight muscles (called flight muscles in the remainder of the manuscript) 102 are stiff muscles that oscillate at high frequency to power flight (Dickinson, 2006; Pringle, 103 1981; Schönbauer et al., 2011). The majority of this stiffness is due to Sls in flight muscles 104 (Kulke et al., 2001). To achieve this high stiffness, a large part of the flexible spring domains 105 encoded in both titin gene homologs *sls* and *bent* (*bt*; protein named Projectin) are spliced out 106 by alternative splicing (Ayme-Southgate et al., 2005; Bullard et al., 2005; Burkart et al., 2007; 107 Spletter et al., 2015). Older work had suggested that the most prominent SIs flight muscle 108 isoform (also called Kettin) uses an alternative poly-A site terminating the protein after Sls-109 immunoglobulin (Ig) domain 35 (Bullard et al., 2005; Burkart et al., 2007). However, more 110 recent systematic transcriptomics and splice-site annotation data from dissected flight muscles, 111 as well as expression of large genomic SIs-GFP tagged transgenes, showed that usage of this 112 early poly-A site is largely restricted to leg muscles and hardly present in flight muscles 113 (Spletter et al., 2015; 2018). To identify the most prominent Sls and Proj protein isoforms in 114 mature flight muscles, we carefully reanalysed the published transcriptomics and splice data 115 (Spletter et al., 2015; 2018). We verified that in both genes, the flexible PEVK spring 116 domains are largely spliced out in adult flight muscles, but their more C-terminally located 117 exons are present at least in some longer isoforms (Figure 1 – figure supplement 1A, B). This 118 predicts a Sls isoform containing the C-terminal five fibronectin (Fn) domains and a Proj 119 isoform containing a long stretch of Ig-Fn super-repeats and a kinase domain close to its C-120 terminus (Figure 1 – figure supplement 1A, B).

121

122 Sallimus and Projectin nanobodies in flight muscles

123 In order to verify the expression and to determine the precise location of the different SIs 124 domains in adult flight muscle sarcomeres, we selected three different regions in Sls, against 125 which we recently generated nanobodies (Loreau et al., 2022): Sls-Ig13/14, Sls-Ig49/50 and 126 Sls-Ig51/Fn2, the first being relatively close to the N-terminus, the other two being close to 127 the C-terminus of the SIs flight muscle isoform (Figure 1 - figure supplement 1A). Similarly, 128 we selected two regions in Proj close to its N-terminus (Proj-Ig5-8 and Proj-Fn1/2) and two 129 regions close to its C-terminus (Proj-Ig27-Fn35 and Proj-kinase domain). The generation of 130 these nanobodies against SIs and Proj domains as well as their specificity, tested in 131 Drosophila embryonic and larval muscles, were documented in an accompanying manuscript 132 (Loreau et al., 2022).

133 To verify nanobody specificity in flight muscles, we stained Drosophila dorso-134 longitudinal flight muscles with one nanobody together with phalloidin revealing the 135 sarcomere architecture. As expected, using scanning confocal microscopy, we found Sls-136 Nano2 (binding Sls-Ig13/14) in a single sharp band overlapping with the sarcomeric Z-disc 137 (Figure 1A, B). Interestingly, Sls-Nano39 (recognising Sls-Ig49/50), Sls-Nano42 and Sls-138 Nano48 (the latter two binding to SlsIg51/52) result in slightly broader bands at the Z-discs 139 (Figure 1B). These data further support that the Sls nanobodies are specific and they 140 demonstrate that the SIs C-terminal epitopes are indeed expressed in flight muscles, as 141 predicted from the splicing data.

Similarly, we investigated the nanobodies raised against the four different Projectin domains. We found that Proj-Nano30 (recognising Proj-Ig5-8 very close to the N-term of Proj), Proj-Nano28 and Proj-Nano29 (both binding Proj-Fn1-2) each result in a broad band at the Z-disc (Figure 1C, D, Figure 1 – figure supplement 1C). Furthermore, we found that the C-terminally located Proj-Nano33 (binding Proj-Ig27-Fn35) and Proj-Nano34, Proj-Nano35,

Proj-Nano37 and Proj-Nano46 (all binding the Projectin kinase domain) result in two bands at 147 148 large distances from the Z-disc (Figure 1C, D, Figure 1 – figure supplement 1C). These data 149 demonstrate that Projectin is present in an extended conformation and since the flight muscle 150 I-band extends less than 100 nm from the Z-disc (Burkart et al., 2007; Kronert et al., 2018; 151 Loison et al., 2018; Reedy and Beall, 1993; Szikora et al., 2020), a large part of Projectin is 152 present along the myosin filament. However, the diffraction-limited spatial resolution of a 153 confocal microscope is not sufficient to precisely localise SIs and Proj domains close to the Z-154 disc. Hence, higher spatial resolution is necessary to determine the precise architecture of SIs 155 and Proj within the flight muscle sarcomere.

156

157 Nanobodies have superior penetration compared to antibodies in flight muscles

158 Nanobodies are only 13 kDa or less than 4 nm in size (Helma et al., 2015; Pleiner et al., 2015) 159 and hence are ideal labels for two main reasons: their small size is first placing the label very 160 close to the domain of interest and second allows efficient penetration into dense structures 161 present in cells or protein complexes which enables high labelling density. This was 162 demonstrated by the superior labelling abilities of our nanobodies compared to antibodies in 163 stage 17 embryos in an accompanying manuscript (Loreau et al., 2022). As an attempt to 164 verify if this is also the case in the crowded environment of mature flight muscles, we stained 165 flight muscles with Sls-Nano2 (binding Sls-Ig13/14) and compared them to the endogenously 166 expressed M-band protein Obscurin-GFP, or to a staining with an anti-Sls antibody (anti-167 Kettin, binding Sls-Ig16). We imaged 10 µm thick z-stacks to quantify label diffusion into the 168 thick and crowded flight muscle fibers. Because of light scattering and fundamental limits of 169 confocal imaging, intensity of endogenously expressed labels also decays with imaging depth 170 (Sarov et al., 2016). Using the same imaging conditions and same fluorophore for Sls-Nano2 171 and the combination of anti-SIs primary and secondary antibodies, we found that the SIs-172 Nano2 intensity decay over z-depth is about 2.5-fold lower than the one of the anti-Sls

antibody label (Figure 2A-C, Figure 2 – figure supplement 1). This strongly suggests better
penetration of the nanobody into the muscle samples compared to the larger primary and
secondary antibodies.

176 To directly compare the diffusion of the differently sized labels in the same samples, 177 we double-stained flight muscles with Sls-Nano2 and the Sls antibody. We swapped the dye 178 colours to rule out any bias of the excitation wavelength on penetration depth. We found that 179 Sls-Nano2 readily diffuses into the thick flight muscle samples, whereas the Sls antibody is 180 limited to the top layer of myofibrils (Figure 2 – figure supplement 2A, B). This demonstrates 181 the favourable diffusion properties of the small nanobodies in the crowded environment of 182 adult flight muscles. Labelling of myofibrils in the past was often achieved on isolated 183 myofibrils to improve antibody accessibility (Burkart et al., 2007; Szikora et al., 2020), but 184 myofibril isolation may change sarcomere mechanics and thus lead to unwanted mechanical 185 or structural artefacts (Ayme-Southgate et al., 2004; Kulke et al., 2001). The properties of 186 nanobodies make us confident that direct labelling of intact flight muscle fibers will lead to 187 dense labelling with limited structural artefacts.

188

189 DNA PAINT super-resolution imaging of entire flight muscles

190 In order to make use of the small size of the nanobodies, we turned our attention to super-191 resolution imaging with DNA-PAINT (Jungmann et al., 2014; Lelek et al.; Schnitzbauer et al., 192 2017). For DNA-PAINT, nanobodies binding the protein epitope of interest are site-193 specifically conjugated to either one or two single-stranded DNA molecules (see Methods). In 194 DNA-PAINT, the necessary target blinking for localisation-based super-resolution 195 reconstruction is achieved by the transient binding of dye-labelled DNA 'imager' strands to 196 their target-bound complements ('docking' strands, Figure 3A). As imager strands are 197 continuously replenished from solution and binding times are controllable over a wide range,

a large number of photons can be detected from a single binding event, thus enabling
unprecedented sub-5 nm spatial resolutions (Dai et al., 2016; Schnitzbauer et al., 2017).

200 Previously, DNA-oligos for PAINT were either coupled to antibodies via biotin-201 streptavidin (Jungmann et al., 2014), which is a 66 kDa tetramer and thus relatively large or 202 more frequently by click chemistry (Fabricius et al., 2018; Schnitzbauer et al., 2017), which 203 comes with a number of potential disadvantages, such as a bulky hydrophobic coupling group 204 and an initial lysine modification that might destroy the paratope. Instead, we used 205 maleimide-coupling through cysteines at the N- and C-terminus of the nanobody, which 206 allows a simpler workflow, analogous to direct fluorophore coupling, and protects the 207 antigen-binding site from undesired modifications.

208 In contrast to fluorophore-maleimides, maleimide-activated oligonucleotides are not 209 commercially available. However, as described in the Methods, they are straightforward to 210 synthesise from a 5' amino-modified oligo and a bifunctional maleimide-NHS (Nhydroxysuccinimide) crosslinker. The NHS group forms an amide bond with the 5' amino 211 212 group of the oligo under reaction conditions that leave the amino groups of the DNA bases 213 non-reactive. The maleimide-activated oligo is then reacted with the nanobody that still contains its His14-SUMO or His14-NEDD8 tag. The resulting conjugate is purified by 214 215 binding to a Ni(II) chelate matrix (whereby the non-conjugated excess of oligo remains in the 216 non-bound fraction) and followed by elution of nanobody-oligo conjugate with a tag-cleaving 217 protease. Hence, these oligo-coupled nanobodies remain similarly small as the fluorescently 218 coupled nanobodies and are thus ideal for effective super-resolution imaging using DNA-219 PAINT.

We aimed to apply DNA-PAINT to flight muscle tissue, using hemi-thoraces of adult flies, to minimise artefacts that might be introduced by cutting out individual myofibrils. To prepare hemi-thoraces, we fixed thoraces in paraformaldehyde and then bisected them with a sharp microtome knife (Figure 3 – figure supplement 1A, see Methods for details). Then, we 224 incubated the hemi-thoraces with oligo-coupled nanobodies and mounted them for imaging. 225 Hemi-thoraces are very large, with a length of about 1 mm and a thickness of about 300 µm. 226 To mount them as close as possible to the coverslip, we developed an imaging chamber that 227 contains the imaging buffer surrounded by spacers thick enough to slightly press the flight 228 muscles against the coverslip (Figure 3 – figure supplement 1A, see Methods for details). This 229 enabled DNA-PAINT imaging with total internal reflection (TIRF). We imaged for 30 min 230 per sample and obtained about 15000 frames at an imaging rate of 10 Hz. For image 231 reconstruction and post-processing, we used the established Picasso software (Schnitzbauer et 232 al., 2017) (Figure 3B, Figure 3 – figure supplement 1B, see Methods for details). This enabled 233 us to resolve the two bands flanking a Z-disc with ease, which cannot be resolved in the 234 diffraction-limited image (Figure 3B).

235 To further refine the precision of determining the epitope positions, we have 236 developed an image processing pipeline that relies on an interactive selection of well-stained 237 myofibrils in the volume of TIRF excitation (Figure 3 - figure supplement 2). Next, we 238 removed localisations arising from multiple binding events by filtering based on specific 239 localisation parameters (see Methods for details). Further, we automatically detected the 240 individual sarcomeric Z-discs and the respective flanking bands of the stained Sls or Proj 241 epitopes for all selected myofibrils. We applied a Gaussian fit to each band and determined 242 their center positions within the sarcomere with nanometric accuracy (Figure 3C, Figure 3 – 243 figure supplement 2). This results in an accurate location of the measured bands for each of 244 the epitopes in every analysed sarcomere. Hence, we do not need to average across many 245 sarcomeres to precisely localise the SIs or Proj epitopes (Figure 3C). In conclusion, our method allows detecting individual differences in sarcomeric band positions in each 246 247 sarcomere investigated down to the nanometer-scale.

249 Positions of Sallimus and Projectin domains within intact flight muscle at the250 nanometric scale

251 We applied our DNA-PAINT imaging pipeline of flight muscles to the SIs and Proj nanobody 252 toolbox. In most cases, we co-stained with two nanobodies that are spaced sufficiently apart 253 to detect the expected four bands centred around the Z-disc, even when using only a single 254 imaging colour (Figure 4). This allowed us to resolve the positions of Sls-Nano2 (Sls-Ig13/14) 255 located close to the N-terminus of Sallimus or Sls-Nano39 (Sls-Ig49/50) close to its C-256 terminus, which we could combine with distantly located Proj nanobodies (Figure 4A). 257 Similarly, we imaged the N-terminally located Proj-Nano29 (Proj-Fn1/2) and Proj-Nano30 258 (Proj-Ig5-8), which we could combine with one of the C-terminally located Proj-Nano33 259 (Ig27-Fn35), Proj-Nano35 or Proj-Nano37 (both Proj kinase domain). This enabled us to 260 locate the exact position of different Projectin domains in sarcomeres (Figure 4A). 261 Interestingly, all the analysed epitopes result in similarly sharp bands in each of the 262 sarcomeres, suggesting a very precise linear architecture of SIs and Proj. The N-terminus of 263 Sls is located close to the Z-disc, with Ig13/14 only about 50 nm away from the center of the 264 Z-disc, whereas the N-terminus of Proj is located around 100 nm away from the Z-disc (Proj-265 Ig5-8 and Proj-Fn1/2) and hence cannot be anchored directly at the Z-disc.

266 This single-colour imaging method is powerful, but it fails to resolve two epitopes into 267 distinct bands if the epitopes are located too close together to unambiguously assign each 268 blinking event to one particular nanobody. Thus, Sls-Nano2 (Sls-Ig13/14) and Sls-Nano39 269 (Sls-Ig49/50) or Sls-Nano2 (Sls-Ig13/14) and Proj-Nano28 (Proj-Fn1/2) cannot be imaged 270 together in the same sarcomere with a single colour (Figure 4B). However, quantifying the 271 exact positions of two closely located titin domains in the same sarcomere is critical as the 272 relative length of the flexible titin molecules may vary in individual sarcomeres. Hence, it 273 would be important to determine the positions of two different SIs domains in the same

sarcomere to unambiguously conclude about Sls length or the relative arrangement of itsprotein domains.

276

277 Two-colour DNA-PAINT reveals a staggered organisation of Sls and Proj

278 To simultaneously determine the exact positions of two epitopes, we have labelled our 279 nanobodies with two different oligonucleotides and imaged them with two different imager 280 oligos in parallel to perform two-colour DNA-PAINT (see Methods). Multiplexed imaging 281 enabled us to determine the positions of Sls-Ig13/14 (using Sls-Nano2) and Sls-Ig51/Fn2 282 (using Sls-Nano42) in the same sarcomere (Figure 5A). Our results verified that Sls-Ig13/14 283 is localised about 50 nm away from the center of the Z-disc and that SIs-Ig51/Fn2 is about 284 50 nm further towards the middle of the sarcomere (Figure 5 – figure supplement 1). Since 285 the I-band of flight muscles is less than 100 nm from the Z-disc (Burkart et al., 2007; Kronert 286 et al., 2018; Loison et al., 2018; Reedy and Beall, 1993; Szikora et al., 2020) this strongly 287 suggests that SIs is bridging across the entire sarcomeric I-band with its N-terminus anchored 288 within the Z-disc and its C-terminal end reaching the myosin filament. Thus, Sls could 289 mechanically link the Z-disc to the myosin filament in the flight muscles, similar to the long 290 vertebrate titin.

291 Since we found that the N-terminus of Proj is also about 100 nm away from the Z-disc 292 and thus located at the beginning of the thick filament (Figure 4A) we wanted to further 293 investigate the precise orientation of the Proj N-terminal domains. We performed two-colour 294 DNA-PAINT to localise Proj-Ig5/8 (with Proj-Nano30) and Pro-Fn1/2 (with Proj-Nano29) in 295 the same sarcomere and found an average distance between the two epitopes of about 25 nm, 296 with Proj-Ig5-8 being always closer to the Z-disc relative to Proj-Fn1/2 (Figure 5B, Figure 5 – 297 figure supplement 1). Consistently, the more C-terminally located Proj-Ig27-Fn35 epitope is 298 located far into the myosin filament beginning at 100 nm (Szikora et al., 2020), being 350 nm 299 away from the Z-disc (Figure 5B, Figure 5 - figure supplement 1). This strongly suggests that

the N-terminal part of Proj is arranged in an extended, likely linear confirmation reaching
from the myosin filament into the I-band and thus running in parallel to the C-terminal
domains of Sls.

303 These findings raised an enticing hypothesis: do the extended Sls and Proj proteins 304 overlap at the I-band/A-band interface? To investigate this hypothesis, we performed two-305 colour DNA-PAINT using two pairs of nanobodies: Sls-Nano39, recognising Sls-49/50, 306 combined with Proj-Nano29, binding Proj-Fn1/2 and Sls-Nano42, recognising Sls-Ig51/Fn2, 307 combined with Proj-Nano30, binding Proj-Ig5/8. Interestingly, we found that in all 308 sarcomeres measured, the Proj-Nano29 is about 15 nm further from the Z-disc than SIs-309 Nano39, whereas in 42 out of 45 sarcomeres investigated, Proj-Nano30 is on average 7-8 nm 310 closer to the Z-disc than Sls-Nano42 (Figure 5C, Figure 5 – figure supplement 1). Hence, 311 these data revealed an interesting staggered organisation of the two overlapping ends of the 312 linearly extended Sallimus and Projectin proteins in flight muscles.

313

314 A molecular map of the Drosophila titin homologs in flight muscle sarcomeres

Our data enabled us to build a molecular map of the *Drosophila* titin homologs in flight muscle sarcomeres, which revealed a significant overlap of the linear SIs and Proj proteins at the I-band/A-band interface as visualised in a 'composite sarcomere' reconstructed by imaging flight muscles from six different hemi-thoraces (Figure 6A).

To precisely determine the position of all the epitopes investigated in our study, we calculated the averaged position using all the sarcomeres we imaged in the single- and dualcolour DNA-PAINT experiments. This strategy is valid as we found that although our mounting protocol for TIRF imaging results in a slightly variable sarcomere length around $3.5 \ \mu m$ (Spletter et al., 2015), the distance between the measured epitopes is constant (Figure 6 – figure supplement 1). Hence, the localisation of the Sls and Proj domains investigated using all sarcomeres measured resulted in a very high localisation precision with 95%

- confidence intervals of only 1 to 8 nm (Figure 6B). Pooling all data verified that the Nterminal Proj-Ig5-8 epitope is located 90 nm from the Z-disc, whereas the C-terminal SIs
 epitopes SIs-Ig49/50 and SIs-Ig51/Fn2 are located about 98 nm from the Z-disc. This is
 consistent with a staggered linear organisation of Sallimus and Projectin, which suggests an
 attractive mechanism how to mechanically link the sarcomeric Z-disc in insect flight muscle
 with the myosin filament using both titin homologs (Figure 6C).

333

334 Discussion

335 Super-resolution of flight muscles with nanobodies

336 The value of nanobodies and other small binders is well appreciated (Harmansa and Affolter, 337 2018). However, most Drosophila in vivo studies have thus far heavily relied on commercially available anti-GFP nanobodies to enhance GFP fluorescence signal in various 338 339 tissues, including Drosophila flight muscles (Kaya-Copur et al., 2021) or to either trap GFP-340 fusion proteins ectopically or to degrade them when expressed in various modified forms in 341 vivo (Caussinus et al., 2011; Harmansa et al., 2015; Nagarkar-Jaiswal et al., 2015). Our titin 342 nanobody toolbox (Loreau et al., 2022) enabled us now to apply DNA-PAINT super-343 resolution technology to image the titin nanostructure in large intact flight muscle tissue at 344 nanometer scale resolution.

345 It had been shown that dye- or DNA-labelled nanobodies work well to achieve high 346 labelling densities in cell culture (Agasti et al., 2017; Fabricius et al., 2018; Mikhaylova et al., 347 2015; Pleiner et al., 2015; Schlichthaerle et al., 2019). We show here that our nanobodies are 348 also very efficient in penetrating into the large flight muscle fibers containing highly packed 349 sarcomeres, which are amongst the most protein dense macromolecular structures in biology 350 (Daneshparvar et al., 2020; Taylor et al., 2019). This enabled us to perform DNA-PAINT 351 super-resolution microscopy of the large flight muscles without dissecting individual 352 myofibrils. Such large specimen have rarely been investigated with DNA-PAINT (Cheng et 353 al., 2021; Lelek et al. 2021). This shows that DNA-PAINT can be readily applied to super-354 resolve structures in large tissues if mounting and labelling protocols are optimised.

355

356 Titin nanoarchitecture in flight muscles – do titins rule?

Flight muscles are an ideal tissue to perform architectural studies of their sarcomericcomponents at the nanoscale, because these components display an extremely high molecular

359 order (Loison et al., 2018). This was impressively demonstrated by substructural averaging 360 that resolved the nanostructure of myosin filaments isolated from insect flight muscles at a 7Å 361 resolution by cryo-electron-microscopy (Daneshparvar et al., 2020; Hu et al., 2016). Another 362 recent study took advantage of this stereotypic order and used a series of existing antibodies 363 against sarcomeric protein components to probe isolated myofibrils from Drosophila flight 364 muscles using STORM (Rust et al., 2006). The high order enabled averaging of several 365 hundred sarcomeres to reconstruct distances of the epitopes from the Z-disc with 5-10 nm 366 precision (Szikora et al., 2020). Although done on isolated myofibrils, the large diversity of 367 antibodies studied gave a comprehensive understanding of domain positions for a variety of 368 important sarcomeric components. This included the Sls-Ig16 antibody used here, locating 369 Sls-Ig16 about 50 nm from the center of the Z-disc (Szikora et al., 2020), which is in good 370 agreement with the location of Sls-Ig13/14 we found here. This study further showed that the 371 important Z-disc components alpha-Actinin, Zasp52 and Filamin extend only about 35 nm 372 from the center of the Z-disc (Szikora et al., 2020). This strongly suggests that the N-terminus 373 of Sls, with its remaining 12 Ig domains can reach and interact with these Z-disc components, 374 as has been reported biochemically (González-Morales et al., 2017; Liao et al., 2016). Hence 375 the N-terminal part of the fly titin homolog Sls is arranged similarly to the N-terminus of 376 vertebrate titin that binds to alpha-Actinin, anchoring it within the Z-disc (Gautel and 377 Djinović-Carugo, 2016; Ribeiro et al., 2014).

An important part of the titin ruler model is that the titin spring part, which relaxes and stretches during muscle contraction and relaxation, respectively, spans across the I-band and sets the I-band length of vertebrate sarcomeres (Brynnel et al., 2018; Linke, 2018; Luis and Schnorrer, 2021). Thus, it is insightful that our newly developed C-terminal Sls nanobodies show that the C-terminal end of Sls is located about 100 nm from the center of the Z-disc in flight muscles. Although we have not imaged myosin directly in our samples, both STORM and electron-microscopy studies demonstrated that the myosin filament begins about 100 nm

385 from the center of the Z-disc, making the I-band less than 100 nm wide (Burkart et al., 2007; 386 Kronert et al., 2018; Loison et al., 2018; Reedy and Beall, 1993; Szikora et al., 2020). This 387 strongly suggests that, as in vertebrates, Sls is indeed spanning across the short flight muscle 388 I-band, where it could interact with its C-terminal fibronectin domains with the myosin 389 filament and hence could mechanically link the Z-disc with the myosin filament. This would 390 be consistent with Sls functioning as a I-band ruler in insect muscles (see model in Figure 6C). 391 This interpretation is also supported by the observation that non flight muscles like leg, jump 392 and larval muscles, which contain long I-bands, do express longer versions of Sls that include 393 the large and flexible PEVK domains (see Figure 1 Supplement 2A) (Burkart et al., 2007; 394 Spletter et al., 2015). Indeed, in the accompanying paper using the SIs nanobodies, we 395 showed that Sls is more than 2 µm long in larval muscles to bridge over these long I-bands 396 (Loreau et al., 2022). This strongly suggests that SIs determines I-band length in the different 397 muscle types, however, a direct genetic test that modifies SIs length and assays I-band length 398 remains to be done.

399 The vertebrate A-band contains the Ig-Fn super-repeats of titin, which extend from the 400 beginning myosin filament until the M-band, where titin's C-terminal kinase is located 401 (Granzier et al., 2014; Lange et al., 2005; Linke, 2018). Interestingly, we demonstrate that in 402 Drosophila flight muscles Projectin, which is very similar to the A-band part of vertebrate 403 titin, with long Ig-Fn super-repeats and a C-terminal kinase domain, starts about 90 nm from 404 the Z-disc. Hence, it is very unlikely that it can interact with Z-disc components directly as 405 these are far from the N-terminal end of Projectin (model in Figure 6C). Our precise distance 406 measurements suggest that the N-terminus of Projectin, which does contain a series of Ig 407 domains, typical for the I-band part of titin, is sticking into the flight muscle I-band, whereas 408 its first Fn/Ig super-repeat is located at beginning of the A-band (110 nm from the Z-disc) and 409 hence can interact with myosin, as can its remaining Ig-Fn super-repeats that extend over a 410 length of about 250 nm towards the M-band. The Proj kinase localises in a sharp band,

however it remains far from the M-band. Hence, it is hard to imagine that Proj alone can
directly rule A-band length of flight muscle sarcomeres, as it is only present at its distal ends,
spanning about 15% of the myosin filament.

414

415 Staggering insect titins to effectively transduce forces during flight?

416 Drosophila flight muscles are very stiff to effectively power wing oscillations during flight at 417 200 Hz. The perpendicular arrangement of the antagonistic dorso-ventral (DVMs) versus the 418 dorso-longitudinal flight muscles (DLMs) enables an effective stretch-activation mechanism 419 as trigger: contraction of the DVMs moves the wings up and stretches the DLMs to induce 420 their contraction, which will move the wings down again for the next cycle (Dickinson et al., 421 2005; Pringle, 1981; Syme and JOSEPHSON, 2002). The importance of strain is these 422 muscles is highlighted by their expression of a particular troponin C isoform (TpnC4), which 423 requires to be stretched to displace tropomyosin from myosin bindings sites on actin filaments 424 (Agianian et al., 2004). Furthermore, myosin also experiences a stretch-induced deformation 425 before effective actin binding and maximum force production (Iwamoto and Yagi, 2013). 426 This strongly suggests that a very effective force transmission is needed during flight muscle 427 oscillations.

428 Drosophila sarcomeres have a peak to peak amplitude of about 3.5 % or 60 nm per 429 half sarcomere during flight (measured in *Drosophila virilis* (Chan and Dickinson, 1996)). 430 This 3.5 % strain is needed to produce the up to 110 W/kg power output of insect flight 431 muscles (Chan and Dickinson, 1996), which is consistent with the hypothesis that strain 432 across molecules stores the elastic energy for the next contraction cycle in Drosophila 433 (Dickinson et al., 2005). A perfect candidate for such a molecule is SIs as it bridges across the 434 I-band, which likely changes length during the fast contraction cycles. Thus, Sls length would 435 oscillate during flight, which likely results in high oscillating forces across SIs during flight.

A similar storage of elastic energy has been suggested for mammalian titin during sarcomere
contraction cycles (Eckels et al., 2019; Rivas-Pardo et al., 2020).

438 What is the role of Projectin? The precise linear arrangement of Proj at the beginning 439 of the myosin filament and the found overlap with SIs suggests that this staggered architecture 440 of Sls and Proj might be required to effectively anchor Sls to the myosin filament and to 441 prevent sarcomere rupturing during flight. Such flight induced muscle ruptures are generated 442 when muscle attachment to tendons is weakened, underscoring the high muscle forces and 443 high strain produced during flight (Lemke et al., 2019). Projectin may thus serve as an 444 effective glue to stably connect Sls to the myosin filament. This is also consistent with the 445 findings that both SIs and Proj are needed to assembly contractile sarcomeres in Drosophila larval muscles. Knock-down of each of the proteins results in embryonic lethality and 446 447 defective sarcomerogenesis (Loreau et al., 2022; Schnorrer et al., 2010). Taken together, the 448 staggered architecture of the two Drosophila titin homologs may effectively allow force 449 transduction and ensure mechanical integrity of flight muscles sarcomeres, both very 450 prominent functions of mammalian titin (Li et al., 2020; Rivas-Pardo et al., 2020; Swist et al., 451 2020).

453 Methods

454 *Fly strains and fly culture*

Fly stocks were grown and maintained under normal culture conditions in humidified incubators with 12-hour light-dark cycles on standard fly medium (Avellaneda et al., 2021). The particularly well flying 'Luminy' strain was used in all experiments as wild type (Leonte et al., 2021). The Obscurin-GFP strain contains a large genomic clone expressing Obscurin (unc-89) tagged with GFP at its C-terminus (Sarov et al., 2016). For all experiments young 3 to 10 day old flies were used.

461

462 *Nanobody production and labelling*

463 Nanobody production and labelling with fluorophores by maleimide chemistry through 464 ectopic cysteines was done as described in detail in the accompanying paper (Loreau et al., 465 2022). To couple nanobodies to DNA oligos, the oligos (P1, P2, PS3) were ordered with a 5' 466 amino group modification (e.g., Am-C6-TTT CTT CAT TAC) from IBA (Göttingen) in 467 HPLC-purified form and lyophilized as a three ethyl ammonium (TEA) salt. Note that the 468 absence of ammonia (NH₄⁺) is essential for the procedure. 1 μ mol of oligo was dissolved in 469 $200 \ \mu l \ 30\%$ acetonitrile (ACN), 15 mM TEA, which yielded a 5 mM stock at neutral pH (~7). 470 5 μ l of a 100 mM crosslinker stock in 100% ACN (maleimido β -alanine NHS ester, Iris 471 Biotec # MAA1020 or mal-PEG4-NHS, Iris Biotec # PEG1575) were added and allowed to 472 react for 30 minutes on ice. Then, 1.6 µl 5 M sodium acetate, and 0.1 M acetic acid (pH ~7) 473 were added, and the modified oligo was precipitated by adding 1 ml 100% ACN and 474 centrifugation for 10 minutes at 0°C at 12000 rpm. This step removes any non-reacted 475 maleimide. The pellet was then dissolved in 100ul 30% ACN, and either stored in small 476 aliquots at -80°C or used directly to label nanobodies at ectopic, reduced cysteines, as 477 described for fluorophores in the accompanying paper (Loreau et al., 2022). Note that free oligo cannot be removed by gelfiltration on Sephadex G25 because it appears with the 478

479 conjugate in the void volume. It is best removed by modifying a still His14-SUMO, or His14-480 NEDD8 tagged nanobody and then using Ni(II) capture (where the free oligo remains non-481 bound) and proteolytic release of the then tag-free nanobody conjugate. The efficiency of 482 conjugation can be assessed by SDS-PAGE, in which the oligo-modification results in a clear 483 size shift. In addition, the density of modification can be calculated through OD260 and 484 OD280 readings, using ε 260 and ε 280 of the initial oligo and nanobody as input variables. 485 The oligo modification by this method is usually quantitative already with a small (≥ 1.1) 486 molar excess of the maleimide oligo over modifiable cysteines. In case of incomplete 487 modification, the conjugate can be purified on a MonoQ column, whereby the highly negative 488 charged oligo causes stronger retention of the conjugate as compared to the non-modified 489 nanobody.

490

491 Flight muscle preparation, staining and mounting for imaging

492 Intact hemi-thoraces from adult males were prepared similar as described (Weitkunat and 493 Schnorrer, 2014). Head, wings and abdomen were clipped with sharp forceps and the intact 494 thoraces were fixed for 20 min at room temperature in relaxing solution (4% PFA in 100mM 495 NaCl, 20mM NaPi pH7.2, 6mM MgCl2, 5mM ATP, 0.5% Triton X-100). After washing 496 twice with relaxing solution, the thoraces were placed on a slide with double-sticky tape and 497 cut sagittally with a sharp microtome blade (Pfm Medical Feather C35). The fixed hemi-498 thoraces were transferred to 24-well plates or Eppendorf tubes and blocked for 30 min at 499 room temperature with 3% normal goat serum in PBS + 0.5% Tx-100 (PBS-T). Hemi-500 thoraces were stained overnight at 4°C with the combinations of nanobodies indicated, 501 labelled with fluorophores or oligonucleotides (final concentration of about 50 nM). The rat 502 anti-Sls antibody (anti-Kettin, MAC155/Klg16, Babraham Bioscience Technologies) was 503 diluted 1:1000 and visualised with fluorescently labelled secondary antibodies (ThermoFisher, 504 Molecular Probes). Actin was stained with phalloidin-rhodamine or phalloidin-Alexa488

505 (1:2000, ThermoFisher; 2 h at room temperature or overnight at 4°C). To mount the flight 506 muscles as close as possible to the coverslip, an imaging chamber was build using a slide and 507 #1 coverslips as spacers right and left of the samples. A layer of double sticky tape was built 508 on the spacer and the imaging chamber was filled with either SlowFadeTM Gold Antifade 509 (Thermofisher) for confocal imaging or Imager solution for DNA-PAINT imaging. Stained 510 hemi-thoraces were added, oriented with the flight muscles facing up and #1.5 coverslip was 511 added. The chamber was sealed with nail polish for confocal imaging or Picodent glue for 512 **DNA-PAINT** imaging.

513

514 Confocal imaging and processing

Stained flight muscles were imaged on a Zeiss LSM880 confocal with a 63x oil lens. Images
were processed using Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012).

517

518 *Analysing antibody versus nanobody labelling intensity decay over depth*

519 We manually drew selections with Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012) on stacks obtained with 520 confocal imaging; each selection consisted of one myofibril. We used these selections to 521 extract intensity profiles that were then analysed automatically using Python custom codes. 522 The automated analysis to extract the intensity of each band consisted of the following: (a) 523 locate bands in profiles using the peak finding algorithm find peaks from the scipy library; (b) 524 subtract background on the profile, linear fitting the 35% lowest values of the profile and 525 subtracting this fit on the profile; (c) fit bands on the background-corrected profile with 526 Gaussian functions; (d) estimate the area under the curve of these fits. This initial analysis 527 allowed us to estimate the integrated intensity of bands of Obscurin-GFP and epitopes 528 labelled with Sls-Ig16 antibody and Sls-Ig13/14 nanobody. In order to estimate how fast 529 intensity decays with depth when imaging these bands with confocal microscopy, for each 530 animal we fitted with an exponential decay function to the averaged band intensity over each

selection (a myofibril) versus the depth where it was imaged (Figure 2 – figure supplement 1).

532 The decay lengths obtained were then reported in Figure 2C. In our imaging conditions, the

533 decay of intensity with depth of GFP was higher than the one of Sls-Nano2, likely caused by

faster bleaching of GFP compared to the Alexa488 dye when acquiring a z-stack.

535

536 DNA-PAINT imaging

Materials: Cy3B-modified and Atto643-modified DNA oligonucleotides were custom-ordered 537 538 from Metabion. Sodium chloride 5 M (cat: AM9759) was obtained from Ambion. Coverslips 539 (cat: 0107032) and glass slides (cat: 10756991) were purchased from Marienfeld and Thermo 540 Fisher. Double-sided tape (cat: 665D) was ordered from Scotch. Two component silica twinsil 541 speed 22 (cat. 1300 1002) was ordered from picodent. Glycerol (cat: 65516-500ml), methanol 542 (cat: 32213-2.5L), protocatechuate 3,4-dioxygenase pseudomonas (PCD) (cat: P8279), 3,4dihydroxybenzoic acid (PCA) (cat: 37580-25G-F) and (+-)-6-hydroxy-2,5,7,8- tetra-543 544 methylchromane-2-carboxylic acid (Trolox) (cat: 238813-5 G) were ordered from Sigma. Potassium chloride (cat: 6781.1) was ordered from Carl Roth. Paraformaldehyde (cat: 15710) 545 546 were obtained from Electron Microscopy Sciences. 90 nm diameter Gold Nanoparticles (cat: 547 G-90-100) were ordered from cytodiagnostics.

548 <u>Buffers</u>: For imaging the following buffer was prepared: Buffer C (1× PBS, 500 mM NaCl).

549 Directly before imaging Buffer C was supplemented with: $1 \times$ Trolox, $1 \times$ PCA and $1 \times$ PCD

550 (see paragraph below for details). 100x Trolox: 100 mg Trolox, 430 µl 100 % Methanol,

551 345 μ l 1M NaOH in 3.2 ml H₂O. 40× PCA: 154 mg PCA, 10 ml water and NaOH were mixed,

- and pH was adjusted 9.0. 100× PCD: 9.3 mg PCD, 13.3 ml of buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8,
- 553 50 mM KCl, 1 mM EDTA, 50 % Glycerol). All three were frozen and stored at -20 °C.
- 554 <u>Sample preparation</u>. *Drosophila* hemi-thoraces were isolated and stained as described above

with phalloidin Alexa488 (1:2000) and the two nanobodies coupled to either P1, P3 or PS3

556 oligos (about 50 nM) overnight. Before embedding the samples into the chamber, they were

washed two times with PBS + 1% Triton. Hemi-thoraces were embedded as described above.
Before assembling the chamber, the cover slip was treated with 90 nm diameter gold
nanoparticles (cat: G-90-100, Cytodiagnostics, 1:10 dilution into methanol). After assembling,
the chamber was filled with imaging buffer containing the complementary P1, P3 or PS3
imaging oligos (see below for imaging conditions) and sealed with Picodent glue.

562 Super-resolution microscope: Fluorescence imaging was carried out on an inverted 563 microscope (Nikon Instruments, Eclipse Ti2) with the Perfect Focus System, applying an 564 objective-type TIRF configuration with an oil-immersion objective (Nikon Instruments, Apo 565 SR TIRF 100x, NA 1.49, Oil). A 561 nm and 640 nm (MPB Communications Inc., 2 W, 566 DPSS-system) laser were used for excitation. The laser beam was passed through clean-up 567 filters (Chroma Technology, ZET561/10, ZET642/20x) and coupled into the microscope 568 objective using a beam splitter (Chroma Technology, ZT561rdc, ZT647rdc). Fluorescence 569 light was spectrally filtered with an emission filter (Chroma Technology, ET600/50m and 570 ET575lp, ET705/72m and ET665lp) and imaged on a sCMOS camera (Andor, Zyla 4.2 Plus) 571 without further magnification, resulting in an effective pixel size of 130 nm (after 2×2 572 binning).

573 <u>Imaging conditions:</u>

574 Figure 4

Sample	Nb inner	Nb outer	Power	Imager	Exposure	# Frames	Dye
5	Nano2	Nano35	58 mW	P3 2 nM	100 ms	15000	СузВ
4	Nano2	Nano33	58 mW	P3 2 nM	100 ms	15000	СузВ
17	Nano39	Nano35	58 mW	P3 2 nM	100 ms	15000	СузВ
9	Nano29	Nano33	58 mW	P3 2 nM	100 ms	15000	СузВ
11	Nano29	Nano37	58 mW	P3 2 nM	100 ms	15000	СузВ
13	Nano30	Nano33	58 mW	P3 2 nM	100 ms	15000	СузВ
15	Nano30	Nano37	58 mW	P3 2 nM	100 ms	15000	СузВ
1	Nano2	Nano28	58 mW	P3 2 nM	100 ms	15000	СузВ
7	Nano2	Nano39	58 mW	P3 2 nM	100 ms	15000	СузВ

575

576 Figure 5

Sample	Nanobody	Power	Imager	Exposure	# Frames	Dye
1	Nano 42	50 mW	P1 2 nM	100 ms	15000	Atto643
1	Nano 2	50 mW	P3 2 nM	100 ms	15000	СузВ
6	Nano 29	50 mW	P1 2 nM	100 ms	15000	Atto643
6	Nano 30	50 mW	P3 2 nM	100 ms	15000	Cy ₃ B
7	Nano 29	50 mW	P1 2 nM	100 ms	15000	Atto643

7	Nano 33	50 mW	P3 2 nM	100 ms	15000	СузВ
9	Nano 29	50 mW	PS ₃ 2 nM	100 ms	15000	Atto643
9	Nano 99	50 mW	P3 2 nM	100 ms	15000	СузВ
14	Nano 42	50 mW	P1 2 nM	100 ms	15000	Atto643
14	Nano 30	50 mW	P3 2 nM	100 ms	15000	СузВ

577

Name	e	Imager	Docking site			
P1 – /	Atto643	TAGATGTAT – Atto643	Nanobody - TTATACATCTA			
P3 –	Cy3b	TAATGAAGA – Cy3B	Nanobody - TTTCTTCATTA			
PS3 -	- Atto643	TCCTCCC – Atto643	Nanobody - AAGGGAGGA			

578 579

580 <u>Super-resolved image reconstruction</u>: The data acquired during imaging was post-processed 581 using the Picasso (Schnitzbauer et al., 2017) pipeline. First, the localisations were detected by 582 a threshold-based detection and fitted with a least-square fit. Next, the data was drift corrected 583 using a redundant cross-correlation and a fiducial marker-based drift correction. Then, a 584 super-resolved image was rendered using Picasso render. From the images, the myofibrils for 585 further analysis were selected interactively using the rectangular pick tool. All further analysis 586 was done with customized jupyter notebooks.

587

588 Extraction of band positions from DNA-PAINT data

Extraction of band positions from DNA-PAINT data was achieved the following way: first,
individual myofibrils were manually selected using the rectangular selection tool from
Picasso (Schnitzbauer et al., 2017) and saved in individual files.

592 Second, the remaining of the analysis was automated in custom codes written in 593 Python. To limit localisation events arising from multiple emitters that create artefacts (Lelek 594 et al. 2021), localisations were filtered based on the standard deviation of their Gaussian fits. 595 Localisations kept were within a disc in the standard deviation space (sx, sy), centered on the 596 maximum of the distribution and of radius 0.2 pixel.

597 Third, individual Z-discs were automatically detected. This did not require super-598 resolved data and the process was the result of multiple steps: (a) the algorithm rotated 599 selections and their localisations to orient the selection horizontally. (b) Localisations were 600 projected along the main axis of the selection and their density was reported in a histogram, which bins size was the same as the pixel size of the camera. The histogram can be seen as a low resolution intensity profile along the myofibril. (c) The algorithm found peaks in the resulting histogram (with find_peaks from the scipy library) corresponding to positions of Zdiscs. (d) Once peaks were detected, the algorithm selected peaks that were relevant to the analysis, using the fact that the distance between Z-discs is the size of a sarcomere.

606 Fourth, with the knowledge of Z-disc positions, the algorithm then focused on windows 607 centered on Z-discs to extract the positions of bands: (a) Similar to step 3, the algorithm 608 rotated the selection and stored localisations in a histogram, which bin size is adjusted for best 609 results (typical bin size was 13 nm). (b) Because DNA-PAINT data accumulate the 610 localisations, the histogram of localisations can display fluctuations that make automated 611 extraction of band positions difficult. Therefore, to locate the rough position of a given band, 612 the data were first convolved with a Gaussian function of standard deviation 25 nm that 613 smoothens fluctuations. (c) The resulting histogram was then analysed with a peak finding 614 algorithm to locate rough band positions. (d) Finally, to precisely locate band positions, the 615 algorithm fitted a Gaussian function on the non-convolved data, in a window centered on each 616 of the positions detected at the previous step. To ensure that the analysis was properly 617 achieved, the results were visually checked.

618

619 Averaged epitope positions using bootstrapping

To obtain an uncertainty estimate of the averaged position of epitopes, we used the bootstrapping method <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4899-4541-9</u>. In brief, each dataset of an epitope is used to create 1000 bootstrap replicates. We generated a replicate by drawing individual values in a given dataset with replacement (*i.e.* each value can be drawn multiple times). The size of one replicate is the same as the one of the initial dataset. From each of these replicates we computed the mean, and therefore obtained 1000 means from 1000 replicates. These 1000 means constitute the bootstrap data presented in Figure 6, each epitope having its own bootstrap data. Finally, 95% confidence intervals were obtained by extracting
the 2.5% and 97.5% quartiles from these bootstrap data.

629

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653

654 Competing interests

- 655 The authors declare no competing interests.
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- 841

843 Figure legends

844 Figure 1 – *Drosophila* titin domain organisation and nanobodies

(A, C) Sallimus (A) and Projectin (C) flight muscle protein isoforms with the domains
recognised by the used nanobodies highlighted in different colours. (B, D) Single confocal
sections of flight muscle sarcomeres from adult hemi-thoraces stained for actin with
phalloidin (magenta) and the indicated Sls or Proj nanobodies directly coupled to Alexa488 or
Atto488 (green). The Z-disc is revealed by the prominent actin signal. Scale bars 5 μm.

850

851 Figure 2 – Nanobody penetration

852 (A, B) Adult hemi-thorax expressing Obscurin-GFP (green) in flight muscles stained with 853 phalloidin to label actin (magenta) and either Sls-Nano2-Alexa488 (A) or anti-Kettin antibody 854 (binding Sls-Ig16) (red), followed by secondary antibody coupled with Alexa488 (B). Three 855 different z-planes and x-z slice are shown. Note that nanobody (red arrowheads in A) and 856 GFP signals (green arrowheads) are visible in the entire z-stack, whereas the antibody signal 857 decays quickly in z-direction (red arrowheads in B). Scale bars 5 µm. (C) Fluorescence 858 detection decay length versus imaging depth for GFP, anti-Kettin and Sls-Nano2 (anti-Kettin 859 vs Sls-Nano2 comparison: p-value = 0.0001748, Mann-Whitney test).

860

861 Figure 3 – *Drosophila* flight muscle DNA-PAINT imaging and automated extraction of 862 sarcomeric protein domain positions.

(A) Concept of DNA-PAINT imaging of sarcomeres labelled with an oligo-conjugated
nanobody. Binding of the imager oligo to one nanobody results in a strong, detectable
intensity burst (t2, blink). (B) Schematic of a mounted intact *Drosophila* hemi-thorax in a
DNA-PAINT imaging chamber enabling TIRF illumination. Comparison of the diffractionlimited and the super-resolved result illustrated in one hemi-thorax labelled with Proj-Nano29.
Note that the super-resolved image can readily resolve the two-bands flanking each Z-disc.

Scale bar 2 μ m. (C) Automated image analysis for individual Z-discs detection (see Figure 3 Supplement 3 and Methods for details). Individual bands are detected automatically and their center position is obtained using a Gaussian fit (bottom center). The distance between the center of bands for tens of sarcomeres from a single hemi-thorax is then reported in a histogram (bottom right). Scale bar 2 μ m (top) and 0.5 μ m (bottom).

874

875 Figure 4 – Single-colour DNA-PAINT imaging of Sls and Proj domains

876 (A) Left: representative DNA-PAINT images of myofibrils stained with two different Sls or 877 Proj nanobodies labelling two epitopes and imaged with the same fluorescent imager oligo. 878 The different Sls or Proj nanobody combinations are indicated above each image. Middle: 879 pseudo-coloured sum image centered around Z-discs resulting from one hemi-thorax. Right: 880 histogram of distances between bands centered around Z-discs with the respective nanobody 881 combinations indicated in green or magenta. Note that four bands can be readily distinguished 882 for all shown nanobody combinations. (B) Similar representations as in (A). However, the 883 positions of neighbouring Sls or Pro epitopes cannot be resolved in a single colour. Scale bar 884 1 μm.

885

886 Figure 5 – Dual-colour DNA-PAINT imaging reveals staggered order of SIs and Proj

887 (A) Left: representative DNA-PAINT image of a myofibril stained with two nanobodies 888 labelling Sls-Ig13/14 (Sls-Nano2) and Sls-Ig51/Fn2 epitopes (Sls-Nano42). Middle: sum 889 image centered around Z-discs resulting from one hemi-thorax. Right: histogram of distances 890 between bands centered around Z-discs (Sls-Ig13/14 in green, Sls-Ig51/Fn2 in magenta). (B). 891 Top: representative DNA-PAINT image of a myofibril stained with two nanobodies labelling 892 Proj-Ig5-8 (Proj-Nano30) and Proj-Fn1/2 (Proj-Nano29) epitopes, sum image and histograms 893 of distances between bands (Proj-Ig5-8 in green, Proj-Fn1-2 in magenta). Bottom: 894 representative myofibril stained for Proj-Fn1/2 (Proj-Nano29) and Proj-Ig27-Fn35 (Proj895 Nano33) epitopes, sum image and histogram of distances between bands centered around Z-896 discs (Proj-Fn1/2 in magenta, Proj-Ig27-Fn35 in green) (C). Top: representative DNA-PAINT 897 image of a myofibril stained with two nanobodies labelling SlsIg49/50 (Sls-Nano39) and 898 Proj-Fn1/2 (Proj-Nano29) epitopes, sum image and histogram of distances between bands centered around Z-discs (Sls-Ig49/50 in green, Proj-Fn1/2 in magenta). Bottom: same as top 899 900 for Sls-Ig51/Fn2 (Sls-Nano42) and Proj-Ig5-8 (Proj-Nano30) epitopes, sum image, histogram 901 of distances and plot showing the epitope positions from the Z-discs in the individual 902 sarcomeres analysed (bottom right, Sls-Ig51/Fn2 in magenta, Proj-Ig5-8 in green). Note that 903 in 42 of 45 cases the Proj-Ig5-8 (green) is closer to the Z-disc than SIs-Ig51/Fn2 (magenta). 904 Scale bar 250 nm.

905

906 Figure 6 – Summary and model

907 (A) A sarcomere displayed as a composite of two summed Sls nanobody bands (top) and four 908 summed Proj nanobody bands (bottom), each originating from one individual hemi-thorax 909 imaged. Note the overlay of the positions of both proteins. Scale bar is 200 nm. (B) 910 Distribution of the averaged distances from the Z-disc for all SIs and Proj epitopes measured 911 using bootstrapping (see Methods). (C) Cartoon model of the relative arrangement of Sls and 912 Proj within the flight muscle sarcomere. The positions of the measured Sls and Proj domains 913 are highlighted in colours. The zoomed regions illustrate the suggested staggered architecture 914 of the C-terminal SIs and the N-terminal Proj protein parts.

- 915
- 916

918 Supplementary figure legends

919 Figure 1 – figure supplement 1

920 (A, B) Genomic organisation of sallimus (A) and projectin/bent (B) genomic loci taken from 921 Flybase. Pink rectangles indicate exons, lines indicate introns. Above the genomic locus is the 922 rough position of respective protein domains indicated. The domains named in grey are 923 largely specific to leg or larval muscle and not expressed in flight muscles. This is also 924 indicated by the prominent flight muscle-specific splice junctions indicated in grey below the 925 genomic loci. Note that the spring-like PEVK domains in sallimus or projectin are spliced out 926 in flight muscles. This results in the respective Sallimus and Projection domain structure of 927 the flight muscle isoforms. (C) Single confocal sections of flight muscle sarcomeres stained 928 for actin with phalloidin (magenta) and the indicated Proj nanobodies directly coupled to 929 Atto488 (green). The Z-disc is revealed by the prominent actin signal. Scale bars 5 µm.

930

931

932 Figure 2 – figure supplement 1

933 Scatter plots of band mean intensity in a given flight muscle myofibril versus imaging depth.
934 Dashed lines are the exponential decay fits for each hemi-thorax (individual decay lengths
935 obtained from the fits are reported in Figure 2C). GFP in green, anti-Kettin in orange and Sls936 Nano2 in blue.

937

938 Figure 2 – figure supplement 2

939 (A, B) Flight muscles of adult hemi-thoraces stained with phalloidin (red) and either Sls940 Nano2-STAR RED 9 (magenta) together with anti-Kettin antibody and secondary antibody
941 with Alexa488 (green) (A) or Sls-Nano2-Alexa488 (green) and anti-Kettin antibody with
942 Alexa633 (magenta) (B). Three different z-planes and x-z slice are shown. Note that in both

943 examples the nanobody penetrated the entire z-stack, whereas the antibody signal decays944 quickly in z-direction. Scale bars 5 µm.

945

Figure 3 – figure supplement 1(A) Schemes illustrating the different steps of sample 946 preparation. Thorax isolation, followed by PFA fixation and hemithorax preparation. Fixed 947 948 hemi-thoraces are stained with nanobodies and are mounted in a sample chamber in imager 949 solution positioning the flight muscles close to the coverslip to enable TIRF imaging. (B) 950 DNA-PAINT post-processing workflow. The single-molecule 'blinking' events are identified 951 using a threshold detection and the maximum is determined via a Gaussian fit. The 952 coordinates in time and space and other localisation properties are saved in a hdf5 file. The 953 hdf5 is then drift corrected and rendered using Picasso render.

954

955 Figure 3 – figure supplement 2 – Data analysis workflow

956 (A) Individual myofibrils are manually selected using the rectangular selection tool from 957 Picasso (Schnitzbauer et al., 2017). Scale bar 2 µm. (B) To limit localisation events arising 958 from multiple emitters that create artefacts (Lelek et al., 2021), localisations are filtered based 959 on the standard deviation of their Gaussian fits. Localisations kept are within a disc in the 960 standard deviation space (sx, sy), centered on the maximum of the distribution and of radius 961 0.2 pixel. Scale bars 0.5 µm. (C) Individual Z-discs are automatically detected (see Methods 962 for details). Scale bars 2 µm. (D) Individual bands generated by the accumulation of protein 963 epitopes are detected automatically and their center position is obtained using a Gaussian fit. 964 After a visual check of the automated detection result, the results are compiled for further analysis. 965

966

967 Figure 5 – figure supplement 1 – Dual-colour DNA-PAINT sarcomere quantifications

Distance quantifications of the dual-colour DNA-PAINT data shown in Figure 5. Plots on the left show the epitope distances from the Z-discs in each individual sarcomere analysed with green and magenta colours indicating the respective nanobodies used. Plots on the right display histograms plotting the distances in between the individual two nanobody epitopes in each sarcomere. These are half the values from the plots on the left, as the organisations are symmetric around the Z-discs.

974

975 Figure 6 – figure supplement 1 – Distance between bands versus sarcomere length

976 Scatter plot of distance between bands of nanobodies used in this study versus the individual 977 sarcomere length. The sarcomere length reported for nanobodies centered on a given Z-disc is 978 obtained by measuring half the distance between Z-discs located directly on the left and on 979 the right. Note that the distances between bands do not correlate with the slight variations in 980 sarcomere length.

981



lg35

Proj-Nano33(Ig27-Fn35)-Atto488

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Proi-Nano35(kinase)-Atto488

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Figure 1

A Sallimus genome locus and flight muscle protein isoform



B Projectin genome locus and flight muscle protein isoform



Projectin flight muscle protein isoform

С

Projectin nanobody localisation in flight muscles



Figure 1 - figure supplement 1

nanobody penetration in flight muscles - compared to endogenous GFP



B antibody penetration in flight muscles - compared to endogenous GFP



С

Α





Extraction of fluorescence detection decay length

Figure 2 - figure supplement 1

nanobody penetration in flight muscles - compared to antibody





z = 8 µm



B In situ flight muscle imaging with TIRF



C Automated analysis

automated Z-disk detection





Sample preparation

1. Thorax isolation by cutting head, wings and abdomen

- 2. Thorax fixation
- 3. Hemi-thorax isolation by cutting with microtome knife
- 4. Staining with nanobodies
- 5. Mounting on sample chamber



В

Super-resolution microscopy imaging & post processing



saving coordinates and localisation properties

frame	×	у	photons	54	sy.	bg	Ipx	lpy	elipticity	net_gradient
0	6.87906	106.236	1159.32	0.818307	0.830859	47.951	0.0407799	0.04151	0.0151066	2682.15
0	11.3527	88.1288	2418.89	0.82576	0.855524	49.2545	0.026197	0.0271991	0.0347895	5402.59
0	14.6064	238.139	1117,45	0.863332	0.889697	45.2249	0.0440844	0.0457016	0.0296333	2433.89
0	15.5166	192.55	1680.47	0.796334	0.834701	43.1002	0.0309271	0.0325366	0.0459647	3518.02
0	16.6092	24.4348	1200.05	0.835402	0.826317	37.8921	0.0395083	0.0390268	0.0108758	2606.75
0	17.7002	39.2175	1776.7	0.83959	0.857082	41.6799	0.0315421	0.0322555	0.0204082	3936.48
0	19.6493	148.113	2269.5	0.836901	0.824028	56.4298	0.0279832	0.0275175	0.0153816	5161.57
0	20.9347	200.248	1790.66	0.829436	0.845082	47.9243	0.0314518	0.032104	0.0185143	4020.14
0	21.6193	163.04	1012.6	0.843861	0.852813	43.6443	0.0455342	0.0461099	0.0104975	2175.74
0	21.9442	181.018	2055.99	0.841193	0.851902	48.1551	0.0293772	0.0297826	0.0125704	4679.73
0	28.7975	32,6739	1627.94	0.865589	0.843752	41.1558	0.0343476	0.0333958	0.0252272	3552.48
0	31.3173	192.589	1289.68	0.850405	0.880784	50.3509	0.0400833	0.0417829	0.0344903	2770.75
0	34.9901	35.7039	1633.1	0.809537	0.846841	45.6298	0.0322297	0.0338661	0.0440508	3733.41
0	37.1061	71.8715	1413.37	0.80355	0.848223	41.6326	0.0345742	0.0367069	0.052666	3307.38
0	38.7593	179.017	2208.59	0.816597	0.841806	55,4946	0.027654	0.0285802	0.0299464	5081.33



Figure 3 - figure supplement 1

Data analysis workflow



Figure 3 - figure supplement 2

В







Figure 5 - figure supplement 1



Α





Distance between bands versus sarcomere length

Figure 6 - figure supplement 1

