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REVIEW



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History and development of staining methods for skeletal muscle fiber types

Shoko Sawano^{1*} and Wataru Mizunoya^{2*}

¹Department of Food and Life Science, School of Life and Environmental Science and ²Department of Animal Science and Biotechnology, School of Veterinary Medicine, Azabu University, Sagamihara, Japan *Equal contributors

Summary. The contractile and metabolic properties of skeletal muscles depend on the composition of muscle fibers. There are two major fiber types: type 1 and type 2. Type 2 fibers are further subdivided into type 2A, 2X, and 2B fibers. Muscle fiber type composition is an important property that affects sports performance and metabolic ability in humans, and meat quality in domestic animals. In this review, we summarize the history of muscle fiber type classification based on various staining methods for skeletal muscle sections. The history illustrates the development of an experimental method to detect myosin heavy chain (MyHC) proteins, which are the most common marker molecules for muscle fiber type. Metabolic enzymes, such as nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide-tetrazolium reductase and succinate dehydrogenase are also described for histochemical staining combined with myosin ATPase staining. We found an improvement in the quality of antibodies used for immunostaining of MyHC, from polyclonal antibodies to monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) and then to mAbs produced by synthetic peptides as antigens. We believe that the information presented herein will assist researchers in selecting optimal staining methods, dependent on the experimental conditions and purposes.

Key words: Skeletal muscle, Fiber type, Myosin ATPase, NADH-TR, Immunostaining, Myosin heavy chain (MyHC)

Corresponding Author: Shoko Sawano, Department of Food and Life Science, School of Life and Environmental Science, Azabu University, Sagamihara 252-5201, Japan. e-mail: sawano@azabu-u.ac.jp or Wataru Mizunoya, Department of Animal Science and Biotechnology, School of Veterinary Medicine, Azabu University, Sagamihara 252-5201, Japan. e-mail: mizunoya.wataru.k91@kyoto-u.jp DOI: 10.14670/HH-18-422

Skeletal muscle fiber type and myosin

Skeletal muscle tissue is composed of thousands of muscle fibers, and the contractile and metabolic properties of skeletal muscle tissues depend on their fiber-type composition. There are two major fiber types: type 1 (slow-oxidative, red muscle) and type 2 (fastglycolytic, white muscle), which are further subdivided into type 2A, 2X (also referred to as 2D), and 2B fibers. Although Roman numerals, such as type I and type II, are often used, this review uses Arabic numerals.

Type 1 fibers are rich in mitochondria, possess a high oxidative capacity, and are resistant to fatigue. Conversely, type 2 (2A, 2X, and 2B) muscle fibers exhibit high rates of glycolytic metabolism and fatigue. Consequently, muscles enriched in type 1 fibers, such as the soleus, typically perform sustained and tonic contractile activities, such as postural tension, whereas muscles enriched in type 2 fibers, such as the extensor digitorum longus, are typically involved in intense and rapid activities of short duration. Research on the human vastus lateralis muscles suggests that there is a large variation in the composition of muscle fiber types between individuals (Simoneau and Bouchard, 1995). In all mammalian species, the contractile speed is lower in type 1 than in type 2 fibers, whereas the speed increases in the order 2A<2X<2B in fast fibers (Barany, 1967). Similarly, oxidative metabolic properties and fatigue resistance are higher in type 1 than in type 2 fibers, and decrease in the order 2A>2X>2B in type 2 fibers (Rivero et al., 1999). Type 2B fibers appear to be specific to small mammals and marsupials and are not detected in most human (Smerdu et al., 1994) and bovine (Tanabe et al., 1998; Toniolo et al., 2005) muscles.

Fiber type composition affects exercise performance, fatigue resistance, and metabolic capacity

Abbreviations. MyHC, myosin heavy chain; NADH-TR, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide-tetrazolium reductase; SDH, succinate dehydrogenase; NBT, nitro blue tetrazolium; mAbs, monoclonal antibodies; EC number, enzyme commission number



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in animals (Zierath and Hawley, 2004). Furthermore, animal model studies have demonstrated a strong relationship between muscle fiber type and the development of diabetes and obesity (Wang et al., 2004; Schuler et al., 2006). Meanwhile, certain diseases can interfere with the composition or distribution of muscle fiber types, which can subsequently result in clinical manifestations (D'Amico and Bertini, 2008). The associations between muscle fiber type and meat quality, such as pH, color, tenderness, and nutritional values, are well examined (Picard and Gagaoua, 2020). Thus, elucidating the mechanism of muscle fiber type regulation would likely enhance our understanding of human metabolic disorders, exercise performance, skeletal muscle diseases, and various meat properties.

Myosin is a myofibrillar protein found in skeletal muscles and accounts for about 50-60% of muscle proteins, together with actin. Myosin is a hexameric protein consisting of two myosin heavy chains (MyHC) and four myosin light chain subunits. Since the ATPase activity and actin-binding domain are located in MyHC (Rayment, 1996), MyHC is regarded as the core of the myosin protein complex. There are reportedly multiple isoforms of MyHC, each with different ATPase activity (i.e., molecular motor properties). In adult mammalian skeletal muscles, four MyHC isoforms, namely MyHC1 (also called MyHC-β), MyHC2A, MyHC2X (also called MyHC2D), and MyHC2B, are encoded by independent MYH7, MYH2, MYH1, and MYH4 genes, respectively (Schiaffino and Reggiani, 2011). It is important to note that the gene numbers and fiber types (MyHC isoform numbers) differ completely. The number of MyHC isoform proteins corresponds to the muscle fiber types (Table 1); hence, muscle fiber type determination is currently synonymous with identification of the present MyHC isoforms. As fiber type composition affects various muscle properties, the composition of MyHC isoforms largely determines whole muscle contractile (Harridge et al., 1996) and metabolic properties (Talmadge et al., 1996). MyHC

isoforms in birds are quite different from those in mammals. At present, five types of fast MyHC and four types of slow MyHC are known to be expressed in birds (Bandman and Rosser, 2000), and the classification of fast and slow muscles is similar to that of mammals. However, the correspondence between the mammalian MyHC isoforms and these nine avian MyHC isoforms is still unclear.

In most cases, a single muscle fiber (muscle cell) expresses only one MyHC isoform, and is called a "pure fiber." Conversely, some minor muscle fibers express two or more MyHC isoforms in one cell body and are called "hybrid fibers". Analysis of a rat hindlimb muscle revealed that more than 90% of the isolated myofibers were pure fibers (Staron and Pette, 1993), and in the human vastus lateralis muscle, approximately 90% of the myofibers were reported to be pure fibers (Galpin et al., 2012), whereas another study reported about 70% of fibers were pure fibers (Paoli et al., 2013). The observation of hybrid fibers in various animal species suggests that skeletal muscles of many organisms allow for multiple myofibrillar protein isoforms to be expressed in a single fiber (Lutz et al., 2001; Stephenson, 2001; Medler et al., 2004; Perry et al., 2009). Hybrid fibers are essentially hybrids of two neighboring isoforms when the types are arranged in the order 1, 2A, 2X, and 2B. However, there are some exceptions to this rule, such as hybrids that deviate from the order. This is especially true in skeletal muscle, where the fiber type is in transition. For example, the most common combination of type 1 and 2X hybrids has been reported in the soleus muscle of adult rats 60 days after spinal cord transection (Grossman et al., 1998; Stephenson, 2001). However, it is almost certain that most myofibers are composed of pure fibers, indicating the muscle fiber type is induced to be uniform in a single fiber once determined. Using any method, identification of the type of MyHC isoform in skeletal muscle, either based on enzyme activities or protein detection, is regarded as the identification of the fiber type.

 Table 1. Conventional muscle fiber types (classified by ATPase staining) and staining pattern related to their corresponding myosin heavy chain (MyHC) isoforms in mammals.

| | type 1 | type 2A | type 2X ^a | type 2B |
|-------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------|
| Biochemical | slow-twitch oxidative (SO) | fast-twitch oxidative (FOG) | fast-twitch glycolytic (FG) | |
| MyHC isoform (protein) | MyHC1 (MyHCβ) | MyHC2A | MyHC2X(2D) | MyHC2B ^b |
| MyHC gene | MYH7 | MYH2 | MYH1 | MYH4 |
| ATPase staining pH 4.3 | ++ | - | - | - |
| ATPase staining pH 4.6 | ++ | - | + | + |
| ATPase staining pH 10.3 | - | ++ | ++ | + |
| NADH-TR ^c | + | + (++) | -~++ | - |
| SDH ^c | + | + (++) | - ~ ++ | - |

^aNote that type 2X is a novel fiber type after the identification of MyHC2X by Bär and Pette (1988). ^bMyHC2X is expressed in human fibers and is classified as type 2B using the ATPase reaction. MyHC2B is not expressed in most skeletal muscle tissues of large mammals, such as humans. ^cThe intensity of staining depends on species. Please refer to the main text.

Myosin ATPase staining

In the 1960s and 1970s, many papers were published regarding the classification of muscle fiber types. Initially, three fiber types were defined based on color tone: red, white, and intermediate (Padykula and Gauthier, 1967). These criteria were morphologically based on mitochondrial content as seen by electron microscopy; Dubowitz classified muscle fibers into type 1 and type 2 based on the histochemical properties of enzymes (Dubowitz and Pearse, 1960). Type 1 fibers display greater levels of oxidative enzymes and lower levels of phosphorylase and ATPase, whereas type 2 fibers display the opposite. Engel developed this histochemical method and enabled the characterization of the fiber type using ATPase reactions alone (Engel, 1962). The staining method, currently known as myosin ATPase staining organized by Brooke and Kaiser (Brooke and Kaiser, 1970b), has become a common and customary procedure, which has been widely adopted since the mid-twentieth century as a standard method to classify fiber types in skeletal muscles, especially in clinicopathological examinations (Engel, 2015). Brooke and Kaiser used human, rat, and rabbit muscle samples, and the results were almost identical in these three animal species. The staining method was able to be applied to muscle sections of bovine (Gotoh, 2003), porcine (Lefaucheur, 2010), equine (Gunn, 1972), wild boar (Rehfeldt et al., 2008), and even chickens (Barnard et al., 1982; Sosnicki and Cassens, 1988), suggesting this tissue staining method is very versatile.

The principle of the myosin ATPase staining method is to inactivate a specific type of ATPase by treating muscle sections at different pH conditions and observing differences in the amount of inorganic phosphate released from ATP hydrolysis. The phosphate is then reacted with calcium chloride to produce calcium phosphate and then with cobalt to produce cobalt phosphate. This is visualized by reacting the product with ammonium sulfide to produce cobalt sulfide, which is black in color. During alkaline (pH 10.3) pretreatment, myosin ATPase activity of type 1 fibers is lost, and only type 2A and 2B fibers are stained. In contrast, acidic (pH 4.3) pretreatment stains only type 1 fibers, and type 2A and 2B fibers are inactivated. Further, only type 2B fibers appear stained in intermediate colors at pH 4.6 when the pH is gradually increased from 4.3, and type 2A and 2B fibers can be distinguished. This staining pattern is summarized in Table I. Some fibers react in both acid and alkaline pretreatments and are called type 2C fibers. These fibers are now thought to be hybrid fibers (i.e., hybrids of type 1 and type 2A (or other type 2) fibers). In fact, very few type 2C fibers are observed in normal muscles. The low number of hybrid fibers is consistent with the very low number of type 2C fibers (Suzuki and Tamate, 1988; Suzuki and Hayama, 1994).

It is still unclear how ATPase enzyme activity is affected by specific pH levels. It is possible that the ATP binding site in a myosin molecule becomes denatured by pH alterations. Two regions of amino acids in the myosin sub-fragment 1 (S1) head are thought to play a particularly important role. These regions are called surface loops, as they are considered flexible and do not crystallize in the crystal structure of S1, as shown by Rayment (Rayment, 1996). These regions may contribute to the regulation of myosin ATPase activity either by affecting the dissociation rate of ADP (surface loop 1) (Murphy and Spudich, 1998) or by modulating the interaction between myosin and actin (surface loop 2) (Uyeda et al., 1994). Brooke and Kaiser speculated the effects of the sulfhydryl group of cysteine and the carboxyl group of glutamic acid in MyHC for ATPase inactivation via pH alteration (Brooke and Kaiser, 1970a).

When the oxygen supply decreases during strenuous exercise, lactic acid accumulates in the muscle fibers and the pH of the muscle fibers declines. Nonetheless, at low pH (acidic) conditions, the activity of myosin ATPase enzyme in type 1 fibers is still high, suggesting that the muscle may continue contracting even if lactic acid accumulates during exercise. Consequently, type 1 fibers appeared to have fewer fatigable properties.

This myosin ATPase staining method cannot distinguish between the type 2X and 2B fibers, as these two myosin isoforms have the same pH lability (the proteins also show high amino acid sequence homology). However, in human muscles, this is not a serious problem because MyHC2B is rarely expressed. It is assumed that MyHC2X is expressed in type 2B fibers. However, since both MyHC2X and MyHC2B are expressed in significant amounts in laboratory mouse and rat samples, which are common animal models, it is necessary to know that myosin ATPase staining cannot be used to classify type 2X and type 2B in mice and rats.

One disadvantage of myosin ATPase staining is that this method requires the preparation of multiple serial sections for comparison (usually at least three sections are required for pre-incubation at pH 4.3, 4.6, and 10.3, respectively); therefore, a high level of cryostat-based sectioning technique is required. Furthermore, it is very time-consuming to manually observe the tissue sections under a microscope after staining and match the identical region in a section.

To overcome the disadvantages of multiple sections, an improved method of myosin ATPase staining was developed and named metachromatic ATP staining (Doriguzzi et al., 1983). In this method, Azure A or Toluidine Blue dyes produce metachromatic or orthochromatic staining at different phosphate contents after incubation in the reaction medium, thus allowing fiber type distinction. In metachromatic ATP staining, pre-incubation and incubation temperatures have been found to affect the conditions under which metachromasia occurs. According to Olgivie and Feeback, in human muscle sections, pre-incubation at pH 4.5 in the temperature range of 22-24°C, staining with toluidine blue for 10 s, followed by a quick wash with distilled water, strongly stained type 1 fibers bluegreen, type 2B fibers dark red, and type 2C fibers blue (Ogilvie and Feeback, 1990). After dehydration with increasing ethanol concentrations, type 1 fibers remained blue-green, type 2B fibers appeared purple, and type 2A fibers appeared light purple. According to the authors, this method can clearly distinguish between different muscle fiber types. Although not as prevalent as the conventional myosin ATPase staining, this method contributed to the discovery of the surprising effects of PGC1 α (Lin et al., 2002) and PPAR δ (Wang et al., 2004) on the regulation of muscle fiber type in the early 2000s.

NADH-TR and SDH staining

A staining method based on the enzymatic activity of myosin ATPase is often used in conjunction with nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide-tetrazolium reductase (NADH-TR) or succinate dehydrogenase (SDH) staining, which is sometimes used instead of NADH-TR staining. Both the NADH-TR and SDH staining methods showed similar results. Histochemical studies have shown that type 1 and 2A fibers contain more mitochondria and have better oxidative metabolism than type 2B (MyHC2X-positive) fibers in human muscles (Yang et al., 1990). The enzyme commission numbers (EC number) of NADH-TR and SDH are EC 7.1.1.2 and EC 1.3.5.1, respectively. NADH-TR can transfer electrons from the reduced NADH to various electron acceptors. Electron transport systems working in the mitochondria are involved in this electron transfer. In the NADH-TR staining method, the target chemical reaction is a multicomponent enzyme reaction that includes complex I of the electron transport chain, NADH dehydrogenase, and portions of the microsomal (sarcoplasmic reticulum) electron transport system, including cytochrome b5 reductase (Charles-Schoeman and Verity, 2012). SDH, an enzyme complex found in the inner membrane of mitochondria, catalyzes the oxidation of succinate in the tricarboxylic acid cycle and transfers electrons to intramembrane quinones during oxidative phosphorylation. It forms part of the aerobic respiratory chain (complex II), which transfers electrons to quinones during oxidative phosphorylation (Rutter et al., 2010). Since these two staining methods mainly visualize mitochondrial enzymatic activity, this staining technique is used not only for muscle fiber type classification, but also for the diagnosis of mitochondriarelated muscle diseases. NADH-TR or SDH staining is utilized in the biochemical classification of muscle fiber types. Slow-oxidative (SO) fibers are positive for acidic treatment (pH 4.3 or 4.6) of myosin ATPase staining and NADH-TR or SDH staining. Muscle fibers that are negative for both are referred to as fast glycolytic (FG) fibers. In contrast, myofibers that are negative for acidic treatment of myosin ATPase staining (pH 4.3 or 4.6) and positive for NADH-TR or SDH staining are classified as fast-oxidative-glycolytic (FOG) fibers because of their intermediate traits (Table 1).

The staining principle relies on the transfer of

electrons from NADH to a colorless soluble tetrazolium salt such as nitro blue tetrazolium (NBT), which is converted to an insoluble blue formazan compound. Thereafter, stained and unstained fibers can be distinguished. The staining procedure is also noteworthy in that type 2A fibers showed very high NADH-TR oxidase activity in rat skeletal muscle (Yang et al., 1990). Presumably, this is due to mitochondrial content, as a hierarchy of 2A>2X>1>2B was observed in mice, 2A>1>2X>2B in rats, and 1>2A>2B (2X) in human skeletal muscle (Gouspillou et al., 2014). The principle of SDH staining was similar to that of NADH-TR staining. SDH staining utilizes the reduced blue formazan compound produced from tetrazolium salt by the oxidation of succinate to fumarate as an indicator.

As noted by Bottinelli and Reggiani, the classification of muscle fiber types based on metabolic properties, such as NADH-TR, does not necessarily coincide with the classification of muscle fiber types based on myosin ATPase (Bottinelli and Reggiani, 2000). Indeed, type 1 fibers are generally more oxidative than type 2 fibers. However, within each type of fiber based on ATPase, there is a wide range of metabolic enzyme activities (Hintz et al., 1984), and there is a large overlap between different fiber types (Reichmann and Pette, 1982). For this reason, attempts to combine the classification of these metabolic enzymes with myosin ATPase have generally been unsuccessful. For example, single-fiber analyses of enzyme activities show a continuous distribution of aerobic-oxidative (Bottinelli and Reggiani, 2000) and anaerobic (e.g., lactate dehydrogenase) enzyme activities (Pette et al., 1980; Nemeth et al., 1981; Pette and Spamer, 1986), independent of the type defined by myofibrillar ATPase activity. This means that classification by metabolic enzyme activity may not be complete.

Immunostaining method for MyHC

In the myosin ATPase staining method, myosin ATPase is detected by visualizing enzyme activity. Based on this principle, the detection of myosin ATPase protein instead of enzyme activity would provide the same result. The experimental method used to detect the distribution and localization of specific proteins within tissues is defined as immunostaining. This method utilizes an antibody targeting a specific molecule, referred to as the primary antibody, to detect its presence. A secondary antibody conjugated with either a fluorophore or enzyme (horseradish peroxidase is most common) is used to detect the primary antibody, and the presence of the target protein can be visualized and/or quantified using a fluorescence microscope or by the addition of a colored substrate. Immunostaining with specific anti-MyHC antibodies was used to identify MyHC isoforms. Currently, this technique is commonly used for muscle fiber type classification. Many antibodies that specifically recognize MyHC isoforms are already readily available through reagent companies

or the Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank (Table 2). Both myosin ATPase staining and anti-MyHC antibody immunostaining eventually produce similar staining patterns, although the experimental procedures differ. The marked difference from myosin ATPase staining is that type 2X and type 2B fibers can be distinguished. This is because immunostaining is highly specific and can more precisely distinguish between fiber types.

Anti-MyHC antibodies have been developed over the past four decades. In 1981, Pierobon-Bormioli et al. first identified two fast-twitch fiber types, types 2A and 2B, through immunohistochemistry using two rabbit polyclonal antibodies (Pierobon-Bormioli et al., 1981). However, polyclonal antibodies are not well suited for continuous mass production of antibodies of the same quality.

The antibody binding site of an antigen is called an epitope. In many cases, animals produce many antibodies that recognize independent epitopes on the antigen. Individual antibodies recognizing a particular epitope are produced by different plasma clone cells, each of which secretes antibodies that bind to only one epitope. In 1975, Köhler and Milstein published the first method of producing monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) (Köhler and Milstein, 1975). They isolated the precursors of plasma cells and fused them with a mouse myeloma cell line capable of producing immunoglobulins. The fused hybridoma cells were single-cell clones that could be grown as individual clones secreting only one type of antibody. These antibodies are known as mAbs, all of which have the same epitope. Since mAbs have very high specificity, they are effective against MyHC, which has relatively high homology amongst isoforms. Recently, mAbs have been the most common choice for immunostaining targeting MyHC proteins. Table 2 shows a list of the

prevalent anti-MyHC primary mAbs.

In 1989, Schiaffino et al. reported about mouse mAbs that could distinguish between the four MyHC isoforms (Schiaffino et al., 1989). In the antibodies developed in this study, the mAbs BA-D5, SC-71, and BF-F3 were introduced as specific antibodies against MyHC1, 2A, and 2B, respectively. However, antibodies against MyHC2X were not available. Alternatively, the BF-35 antibody reacts with three MyHCs, except 2X, which can be applied to identify 2X fibers.

During the development of these mAbs, the MyHC2X isoform was discovered; MyHC2X was first identified independently as a distinct band in gel electrophoresis by Bär and Pette (Bär and Pette, 1988). Analysis using *in situ* hybridization provided definitive evidence for the presence of this isoform (DeNardi et al., 1993). In human skeletal muscles, immunohistochemical and *in situ* hybridization studies clearly showed that fibers previously classified as type 2B by myosin ATPase staining were actually type 2X (i.e., MyHC2X expressing fibers). MyHC2B is rarely expressed in human muscle tissues.

The use of BF-35, which reacts with three types of MyHCs except for MyHC2X, for the detection of type 2X fibers is not straightforward. Furthermore, hybrid fibers of 2X and 2A or 2X and 2B could not be identified. To overcome these issues, Lucas et al. challenged to produce a new anti-MyHC antibody in 2000 (Lucas et al., 2000). In this study, they finally succeeded in producing a specific antibody for MyHC2X, and clone 6H1 was the hybridoma that produced this antibody.

Generally, in immunostaining protocols using secondary antibodies, simultaneous multiplex staining of a single section is possible if the antibody-producing animal species differ (e.g., mouse and rabbit). Currently, anti-MyHC mAbs are derived from mouse or rat, thus

Table 2. List of monoclonal antibodies used for MyHC immunostaining.

| MyHC specificity | Antibody name (clone) | Antigen (Immunogen) | Host animal | Isotype | Reference | Current supplier |
|---------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------|-------------|---------|-------------------------------|-------------------|
| MyHC1 | NOQ7.5.4D | Purified native human myosin | mouse | lgG | Draeger et al., 1987 | several companies |
| MyHC1 | BA-D5 | Native bovine protein | mouse | lgG2b | Schiaffino et al., 1989 | DSHB etc. |
| MyHC1 | A4.840 | Purified native human myosin | mouse | ĬgM | Hughes and Blau, 1992 | DSHB etc. |
| MyHC1 | 4B51E8 | Synthetic peptide | rat | lgG2aк | Sawano et al., 2016 | Merck KGaA |
| MyHC2A ¹ | SC-71 | Native bovine protein | mouse | IgG1 | Schiaffino et al., 1989 | DSHB etc. |
| MyHC2A | A4.74 | Purified native human myosin | mouse | lgG1 | Hughes and Blau, 1992 | DSHB etc. |
| MyHC2A | 2F7 | Feline denatured myosin | mouse | lgG1κ | Lucas et al., 2000 | DSHB etc. |
| MyHC2A | 8F72C8 | Synthetic peptide | rat | lgG2aк | Sawano et al., 2016 | Merck KGaA |
| MyHC2X | 6H1 | Native rabbit muscle extract | mouse | ĬgMĸ | Lucas et al., 2000 | DSHB etc. |
| MyHC2X | 6F12H3 | Synthetic peptide | rat | lgG1κ | Sawano et al., 2016 | Merck KGaA |
| MyHC2B | BF-F3 | Purified fetal bovine myosin | mouse | ĬgM | Schiaffino et al., 1989 | DSHB etc. |
| MyHC2B | 10F5 | Native rabbit muscle extract | mouse | IgМк | Lucas et al., 2000 | DSHB etc. |
| MyHC2B | 2G72F10 | Synthetic peptide | rat | lgG1κ | Sawano et al., 2016 | Merck KGaA |
| MyHC2A, 2X, and 2 | B MY-32 | Rabbit muscle myosin | mouse | lgG1 | Cohen-Haguenauer et al., 1988 | several companies |
| All sarcomeric MyHC | C MF20 | Purified native chicken myosin | mouse | lgG2b | Bader et al., 1982 | DSHB etc. |

¹Moderately reactive with human MyHC2X.

labeled secondary antibody staining is not feasible for multiplex staining. To overcome this problem, the use of mouse IgG isotype-specific secondary antibodies (Bloemberg and Quadrilatero, 2012; Ribaric and Cebasek, 2013) or fluorophore-conjugated primary antibodies (Gregorevic et al., 2008) have been reported.



Fig. 1. Mouse and rat cross-sections stained with the one-step quadruple immunofluorescence staining method using anti-MyHC antibodies developed by Sawano et al. (Sawano et al., 2016). A single skeletal muscle cross-section from a mouse (A) or a rat (B) was immunostained. Cross-sections were obtained from calf muscles, including gastrocnemius, plantaris, and soleus muscles. The specific MyHC isoforms were visually classified as MyHC1 (white), MyHC2A (blue), MyHC2X (green), and MyHC2B (red). The panels on the right are magnified images. Bars indicate 1 mm in the



whole muscle image, and 250 µm in the magnified images. Figure reproduced from the previous article (Sawano et al., 2016).

However, in the direct labeling of primary antibodies, the stability of the antibody to withstand the labeling procedures is important. Since all commercially available anti-MyHC2B (BF-F3 and 10F5) and anti-MyHC2X antibodies (6H1) are IgM mAbs, maintaining antibody activity is difficult. Freeze-thaw cycles can be particularly damaging to IgM mAbs (Goding, 1986). In addition, IgM mAbs are prone to aggregation when stored at 4°C for long periods. Furthermore, if ascites are not defatted, insoluble lipoprotein precipitates form in samples stored for long periods at 4°C (Draber et al., 1995). Since IgM is less durable than IgG, many IgM mAbs are irreversibly denatured by freeze-drying. Therefore, labeling IgM mAbs is difficult due to this instability. There is an advantage in producing new anti-MyHC2X and -MyHC2B antibodies with stable IgG as a subclass

In 2016, Sawano et al. developed anti-MyHC2B (2G72F10) and -MyHC2X antibodies (6F12H3), which are IgG (Sawano et al., 2016). Since these antibodies are stable IgGs, it is possible to label primary antibodies. Together with these two antibodies, Sawano labeled the other anti-MyHC2A (8F72C8) and -MyHC1 (4B51E8) antibodies with four different fluorescent dyes, enabling one-step quadruple immunostaining (Fig. 1). This means that the four anti-MyHC antibodies cover all four adult MyHC isoforms that are expressed in the skeletal muscle tissues of mammals. This method can be applied not only to muscle sections, but also to cell cultures, making it possible to detect hybrid fibers in cultured isolated muscle fibers. This was not possible with conventional primary antibodies.

Cross-reactivity of anti-MyHC antibodies among animal species

One of the disadvantages of immunostaining is the strict specificity of antibodies, but this can also be an advantage in terms of assay purpose. Sometimes, the specificity is not conserved across species due to slight differences in the amino acid sequence and may be restricted to a small number of species. For example, the anti-MyHC2A mAb (SC-71) generated by Schiaffino et al. (1989) cross-reacted with MyHC2A and 2X in rabbits (Lucas and Hoh, 1997). The mAbs against MyHC2A (SC-71) and MyHC2B (BF-F3) did not react with guinea pig tissues (Rivero et al., 1998). Furthermore, they were reportedly unable to detect the MyHC2A, 2X, and 2B isoforms expressed in cats (Talmadge et al., 1996), horses (Rivero et al., 1996), and cattle (Gagnière et al., 1999) using mAbs available at that time. The anti-MyHC mAbs produced by Lucas et al. were reported to cross-react with mice, guinea pigs, rabbits, cats, and baboons, allowing evaluation of muscle fiber types in a wider range of animal species (Lucas et al., 2000).

Sawano et al. changed the antigen to a synthetic peptide to create a mAb (Sawano et al., 2016). This change is a major difference compared to previous

MyHC1 (MYH7)

Mouse (Mus musculus) Bovine (Bos taurus) Human (Homo sapiens)

MyHC2A (MYH2)

Mouse (Mus musculus) Rat (Rattus norvegicus) Bovine (Bos taurus) Monkey (Macaca mulatta) Human (Homo sapiens)

MyHC2X (MYH1)

Mouse (Mus musculus) Rat (Rattus norvegicus) Bovine (Bos taurus) Monkey (Macaca mulatta) Human (Homo sapiens)

MyHC2B (MYH4)

Mouse (Mus musculus) Rat (Rattus norvegicus) Bovine (Bos taurus) Monkey (Macaca mulatta) Human (Homo sapiens)

ELESSQKEARSLSTELFKLKNAYEESLEH Rat (Rattus norvegicus) ELESSQKEARSLSTELFKLKNAYEESLEH ELESSQKEARSLSTELFKLKNAYEESLEH Monkey (Macaca mulatta) ELESSQKEARSLSTELFKLKNAYEESLEH ELESSQKEARSLSTELFKLKNAYEESLEH

> ELEASQKEARSLGTELFKMKNAYEESLDQ ELEASOKEARSLGTELFKMKNAYEESLDO ELEAAQKEARSLGTELFKMKNAYEESLDQ ELEASQKEARSLGTELFKMKNAYEESLDQ ELEASQKEARSLGTELFKIKNAYEESLDQ

> ELEASQKESRSLSTELFKIKNAYEESLDH ELEASOKESRSLSTELFKIKNAYEESLDO ELEASQKESRSLSTELFKIKNAYEESLDQ ELEASQKESRSLSTELFKIKNAYEESLDQ ELEASQKESRSLSTELFKIKNAYEESLDQ

> ELEASOKESRSLSTELFKVKNAYEESLDO ELEASQKESRSLSTELFKVKNAYEESLDQ DLEASQKESRSLSTELFKVKNAYEESLDQ ELEASQKESRSLSTELFKVKNAYEESLDH ELEASOKESRSLSTELFKVKNAYEESLDH

Fig. 2. Murine amino acid sequences of synthetic peptides used for the production of anti-MyHC antibodies (Sawano et al., 2016), and inter-species comparison of those amino acid sequences. The key amino acid residues to decide possible epitope site are highlighted in green. The amino acid sequence used as antigen peptides of murine MyHC2A differs from human MyHC2A (methionine into isoleucine) highlighted in red, which is similar to MyHC2X predicted epitope sites. Since little information is available on public databases regarding the Japanese monkey (Macaca fuscata), the amino acid sequence of the rhesus macaque (Macaca mulatta) is shown instead.

mAbs. Peptide antibodies were first described in the 1980s, shortly after Köhler and Milstein discovered hybridoma technology (Köhler and Milstein, 1975). The purpose of using synthetic peptides is to reveal antigenantibody recognition sites (epitopes) to specific regions of the native protein. The use of synthetic peptides to produce mAbs has an advantage in terms of a relatively simple and inexpensive peptide production process and in increasing the specificity of the mAb. By using peptides as immunogens, it became possible to determine which epitopes of the antigen would be recognized and targeted by the host's immune system during the antibody generation phase. Subsequently, the use of these peptides allowed us to design screening techniques for antibody libraries in a cost-effective manner

Sawano et al. used synthetic peptides to produce anti-MyHC antibodies. They prepared a 29-amino acid sequence peptide, whose sequence is identical to the tail domain of the MyHC protein that exhibits high levels of amino acid sequence homology among the four adult MyHC isoforms, except for one amino acid (Fig. 2). Although it is generally preferable to select a sequence that has as many different amino acids as possible, they chose to utilize a sequence that was similar among the proteins to ensure that each antibody exhibited similar levels of accessibility to intracellular MyHC. This peptide is based on a mouse amino acid sequence, but we examined the sequences of other animal species (Fig. 2). In rats, the amino acid sequence of this region was identical to that of mice, resulting in the same staining pattern as that observed in mice. In cattle and monkeys (Japanese macaque), the amino acid sequence of the presumed epitope site was the same, and the staining results were acceptable. The results of multiple immunostaining with antibodies from Sawano et al. in transverse sections of a region called the "outside round" in bovine showed the presence of type 1 (white), type 2A (blue), and type 2X (green) fibers (Fig. 3A). Moreover, type 1 (white), type 2A (blue), and type 2X (green) fibers were present in the gastrocnemius muscle of a monkey (Fig. 3B). However, the amino acid sequence used as antigen peptides of murine MyHC2A differs from human MyHC2A (methionine into isoleucine), which is similar to a predicted epitope site of human MyHC2X. In other words, the anti-MyHC2A antibody (8F72C8) produced by Sawano et al. was not expected to distinguish between human MyHC2A and MyHC2X. In fact, it was reported that MyHC2X and MyHC2A could not be distinguished by staining (Nakashima et al., 2020). In the current study, no MyHC2B-positive (red) fibers were detected in bovine. monkey, and human muscle sections with the anti-MyHC2B (2G72F10) antibody. This is consistent with reports that MyHC2B expression is not common in large mammals (Smerdu et al., 1994; Tanabe et al., 1998; Toniolo et al., 2005).

Concluding remarks

In summary, the history of muscle fiber type classification is also a history of muscle section staining.

a cattle leg muscle (outside round)

monkey gastrocnemius muscle



b

Fig. 3. Cattle and monkey cross-sections stained using the one-step quadruple immunostaining method. **a.** A cross-section was obtained from a commercial "outside round" portion from bovine meat, and immunopositive myosin heavy chain (MyHC) isoforms were visually classified as MyHC1 (white), MyHC2A (blue), and MyHC2X (green). **b.** A cross-section was obtained from a monkey's (Macaca fuscata) gastrocnemius muscle, and immunopositive MyHC isoforms were visually classified as MyHC1 (white), MyHC2A (blue), and MyHC2X (green). Note that no MyHC2B-positive fibers were found in the shown cattle and monkey muscles. Scale bars: 250 µm.

The history of immunostaining for MyHC is also consistent with the history of antibody development, considering the shift from polyclonal to mAbs with high specificity and the shift from purified proteins to synthetic peptides as antigens. Tissue staining for myofiber type identification will continue to be used as an important tool for mammalian muscle fiber type identification, and it will also contribute greatly to the elucidation of molecular regulatory signaling pathways of muscle fiber types, muscle diseases, and meat quality improvement.

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