

Loss of smooth muscle α -actin effects on mechanosensing and cell–matrix adhesions

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Impact statement

Thoracic aneurysm formation is characterized by progressive enlargement of the ascending aorta, which predisposes the aorta to acute aortic dissection that can lead to sudden death. SMCs in the aorta play an integral role in regulating vessel wall contractility and matrix deposition in the medial layer. Recent studies show that mutations in genes associated with actomyosin apparatus reduce SMC contractility, increasing susceptibility to TAAO. Single-cell experiments enable discrete measurements of transient microscopic events that may be masked by a macroscopic average tissue behavior. Biophysical methods combined with microscopy techniques aid in understanding the specific roles of adhesion and cytoskeletal proteins in regulating SMC mechanosensing when SM α -actin is disrupted. Our findings suggest that *Acta2*^{-/-} cells have increased SM γ -actin and decreased integrin recruitment at cell–matrix adhesion, hence a synthetic phenotype with reduced cellular mechanosensing.

Abstract

Mutations in *ACTA2*, encoding smooth muscle α -actin, are a frequent cause of heritable thoracic aortic aneurysm and dissections. These mutations are associated with impaired vascular smooth muscle cell function, which leads to decreased ability of the cell to sense matrix-mediated mechanical stimuli. This study investigates how loss of smooth muscle α -actin affects cytoskeletal tension development and cell adhesion using smooth muscle cells explanted from aorta of mice lacking smooth muscle α -actin. We tested the hypothesis that reduced vascular smooth muscle contractility due to a loss of smooth muscle α -actin decreases cellular mechanosensing by dysregulating cell adhesion to the matrix. Assessment of functional mechanical properties of the aorta by stress relaxation measurements in thoracic aortic rings suggested two functional regimes for *Acta2*^{-/-} mice. Lower stress relaxation was recorded in aortic rings from *Acta2*^{-/-} mice at tensions below 10 mN compared with wild type, likely driven by cytoskeletal-dependent contractility. However, no differences were recorded between the two groups above the 10 mN threshold, since at higher tension the matrix-dependent contractility may be predominant. In addition, our results showed that at any given level of stretch, transmural pressure is lower in aortic rings from *Acta2*^{-/-} mice than wild type mice. In addition, a three-dimensional collagen matrix contractility assay showed that collagen pellets containing *Acta2*^{-/-} smooth muscle cells contracted less than the pellets containing the wild type cells. Moreover, second harmonic generation non-linear microscopy revealed that *Acta2*^{-/-} cells locally remodeled

the collagen matrix fibers to a lesser extent than wild type cells. Quantification of protein fluorescence measurements in cells also showed that in absence of smooth muscle α -actin, there is a compensatory increase in smooth muscle γ -actin. Moreover, specific integrin recruitment at cell–matrix adhesions was reduced in *Acta2*^{-/-} cells. Thus, our findings suggest that *Acta2*^{-/-} cells are unable to generate external forces to remodel the matrix due to reduced contractility and interaction with the matrix.

Keywords: Integrins, actin, vascular smooth muscle cells, *Acta2*^{-/-} mice

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Introduction

Structural and functional integrity of the vessel wall is due, in part, to the crosstalk between the collagen and elastin rich extracellular matrix with vascular smooth muscle cells (SMCs). The matrix bears the majority of the mechanical stress in the aorta. SMCs sense this stress via cell-matrix adhesions. Thus, changes in transmural pulse pressure are sensed by integrin receptors on the cell surface at the interface with the matrix. Then, the mechanical stimulation is transmitted intracellularly to the actomyosin contractile unit inducing cellular adaptation to external stress (i.e. mechanosensing).

Dynamic rearrangement of actin cytoskeleton is necessary to redistribute physical forces needed for cell contraction that enables cell adaptation to the extracellular microenvironment.^{1,2} Thus, external mechanical stresses are balanced by intracellular counter-forces provided by the actomyosin apparatus, which forms stress fibers^{3,4} through the interaction with dense plaques (i.e. focal adhesions). These adhesion structures form at the cell membrane interface connecting the cell to the matrix.^{5,6} Cell-matrix adhesions transfer mechanical perturbation to and from the matrix via integrin receptors.⁷⁻¹¹ SMCs express a variety of integrins (e.g. $\alpha1\beta1$, $\alpha2\beta1$, $\alpha5\beta1$, $\alpha\nu\beta3$) that contribute to cellular crosstalk with the extracellular matrix in the vessel walls. For example, $\alpha1\beta1$ and $\alpha2\beta1$ integrins bind with high affinity to collagen, while $\alpha5\beta1$ and $\alpha\nu\beta3$ integrins have specific roles in regulating contractile function.¹²⁻¹⁵ *In vivo*, $\alpha5\beta1$ binding to the RGD sequence of matrix proteins induces vascular contraction,^{16,17} while $\alpha\nu\beta3$ binding to RGD causes arteriolar relaxation.¹⁸ However, both integrins are needed for arterial vasoconstriction in response to increased pressure.¹⁵ In addition, RGD peptide treatment or functional inhibition of integrins $\alpha5\beta1$ and $\alpha\nu\beta3$ inhibits angiotensin II-induced arterial contraction.^{15,19} *In vitro*, integrin $\alpha\nu\beta3$ has a major role in regulating cell migration, while $\alpha5\beta1$ is involved in SMC contractile phenotype.^{20,21} Moreover, $\alpha\nu\beta3$ integrin binds with high affinity to fibrillin-1, the major component of elastin-associated microfibrils, mediating actomyosin-elastin crosstalk in the aortic wall.^{22,23}

Taken together, these results suggest that integrin-mediated interaction of SMCs with extracellular matrix impacts vascular smooth muscle contractility. Dysfunctional components of this tightly regulated mechanism could reduce the integrity of the aortic wall and lead to thoracic aortic diseases such as aortic aneurysms.

Mutations in genes that encode contractile proteins in SMCs²⁴⁻³⁰ induce decreased contractility and increased SMC proliferation.³¹ Mutations in *ACTA2*, the gene encoding smooth muscle α -actin (SM α -actin), are the most frequent cause of nonsyndromic, heritable TAAD.^{28,32} These mutations are associated with impaired SMC function that leads to decreased ability of the cell to sense matrix-mediated mechanical stimuli. In the current study, we utilize mice lacking *Acta2* (*Acta2*^{-/-}), an animal model used to study TAAD.³³ SMCs isolated from these mice exhibit the same general phenotype as SMCs from humans with *ACTA2* missense mutations: reduced contractility, but

increased cell migration and proliferation.³³ Aortic tissue from *Acta2*^{-/-} mice also show ascending aortic enlargement and increased medial area.³⁴ This study tested the hypothesis that reduced vascular smooth muscle contractility due to a loss of SM α -actin alters cellular mechanosensing by dysregulating cell adhesion to the matrix. Thus, we employed a combination of physiological and biophysical approaches to dissect the functional and morphological changes induced by loss of SM α -actin in the arterial wall. Our results suggest that SMCs from *Acta2*^{-/-} mice have reduced contractility and are unable to generate external forces to remodel the matrix. Further, we showed that loss of SM α -actin induced compensatory upregulation of SM γ -actin, and reduced integrin recruitment at cell-matrix adhesions.

Materials and methods

Animals

All procedures adhered to the established National Institutes of Health guidelines for the care and use of laboratory animals and were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at The University of Texas at Houston. Mice were originally generated by inserting a Pol2NeobpA cassette between the promoter and the coding region of the *Acta2* gene to disrupt transcription.³⁵ Mice were subsequently bred onto a C57BL/6 background for more than 10 generations.³³ Mice were allowed ad libitum access to food and water and maintained on a 12-h light:dark cycle (7 a.m.-7 p.m.) in a controlled temperature (21-22 °C). Experiments were conducted using cells and tissues from male homozygous *Acta2*^{-/-} mice and wild type (WT) littermates as controls.

Aortic ring preparation and stress relaxation

At 13 weeks of age, mice were anesthetized by intraperitoneal injection of Avertin (350 mg/kg). Thoracic aortas were dissected, placed in ice-cold Hanks' Balanced Salt Solution, and shipped overnight. As previously shown,³⁶⁻³⁷ overnight storage does not affect the passive mechanical properties. Upon receipt, aortas were placed under a stereoscope and cleaned of excessive perivascular tissue before cutting them into 2 mm ring segments of equal length. Each ring segment was suspended in an organ chamber of a 610M Multi Chamber Myograph System (Danish Myo Technology, Denmark) filled with 8 mL of oxygenated (95% O₂, 5% CO₂) physiological saline solution (118.31 mM NaCl, 4.69 mM KCl, 1.2 mM MgSO₄, 1.18 mM KH₂PO₄, 24.04 mM NaHCO₃, 0.02 mM EDTA, 2.5 mM CaCl₂, and 5.5 mM glucose) and allowed to equilibrate at 37°C for at least 30 min.

To assess the mechanical properties of the vessel, stress relaxation was assessed in thoracic aortic rings from *Acta2*^{-/-} and WT mice. Aortic rings were stretched in 4 mN increments from 0 mN until the calculated transmural pressure of 13.3 kPa (100 mmHg) was attained. Transmural pressure was calculated as $p = 2\pi^*T/L$, where L is the internal circumference corresponding to wall tension T .³⁸ Length and tension were recorded immediately

after each 4 mN increase in tension and again after 1 min.^{39,40} Stress relaxation was calculated as the difference between the 4 mN increase in tension and the tension after 1 min, and was expressed as a percent decrease in tension. Passive tension curves were generated by plotting calculated transmural pressure (kPa) versus tension (mN). A repeated measures ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post-hoc analysis was used to assess strain differences for stress relaxation and passive tension curves. All values are presented as mean \pm SD. Statistical significance was evaluated at $P < 0.05$.

Vascular smooth muscle cell isolation and cell culture

Vascular smooth muscle cells were explanted from the ascending aorta from male *Acta2*^{-/-} and WT littermates as previously described.⁴¹ Cells were cultured in a 100 mm cell culture dish in Smooth Muscle Basal Media (PromoCell, Heidelberg, Germany) supplemented with 20% fetal bovine serum, 20 mM HEPES (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, United States), 2 mM L-glutamine, 1 mM sodium pyruvate, 100 U/mL penicillin, 100 mg/mL streptomycin, and 0.25 mg/mL amphotericin B, and set in an incubator at 37°C with 5% CO₂. Cells were then plated on 35 mm glass bottom dishes (MatTek, Ashland, MA, United States) coated with matrix proteins. Each dish was coated with 20 μ g/mL of fibronectin (FN) (Sigma, Saint Louis, MO, United States), collagen I (Coll I) (Sigma, Saint Louis, MO, United States) or collagen IV (Coll IV) (Millipore, Billerica, MA, United States), incubated at 4°C overnight, and then washed with Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline (DPBS) before plating the cells. Cells plated on uncoated substrates were used as controls. Five hours after plating, cells were serum starved overnight in the same cell culture media with 1% FBS and all other supplements except growth factors prior to immunofluorescence staining. Low passage cells were used for imaging experiments. All reagents were purchased from Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA, United States), unless otherwise specified.

Three-dimensional collagen matrix remodeling

Collagen gel preparation

A collagen solution was prepared using rat tail collagen type I (Corning, Corning, NY, United States) by following manufacturer's protocol. Cells were trypsinized, centrifuged, and then resuspended in phenol-free media. Then, the collagen solution was mixed with cells in suspension to obtain a final concentration of 150,000 cells/mL and 3.5 mg/mL collagen. The cell-seeded collagen gel was further adjusted to pH 7.3–7.6. A volume of 250 μ L cell-seeded collagen gel was added to each well of a 48-well plate and further incubated at room temperature for 45 min. After this time, 500 μ L of SMC culture medium was added to each well and the plate was placed in an incubator at 37°C with 5% CO₂ for 24 h. The cell-seeded collagen gel was then fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde and 5% sucrose in DPBS for imaging.⁴²

Non-linear optical microscopy and image processing

Cells cultured in three-dimensional collagen gels and fixed as described above were imaged with a custom-built non-linear optical microscope that utilizes ultrashort, broadband, near-infrared pulses to achieve efficient two-photon excited fluorescence (TPEF) and second harmonic generation (SHG).⁴³ Briefly, 10-femtosecond pulses centered at 800 nm with a bandwidth of 133 nm from a Kerr-lens mode locked Ti:Sapphire (Spectra-Physics, previously Femtolasers, Vienna, Austria) were chirped with dispersion compensating mirrors (Femtolasers, Vienna, Austria) prior to telescopic expansion (Thorlabs, Newton, NJ, United States) and focusing through a 20 \times , 1.0 NA water immersion objective (Carl Zeiss, Thornwood, NY, United States). Dispersion compensation is required to ensure the pulses arrive at the focal plane near the transform-limit (all wavelengths in phase). The low-magnification, high-NA objective allows imaging over a large field of view without sacrificing image resolution. Point-by-point volumetric scanning was achieved with x-y mirrors driven by galvanometers (Cambridge Technologies, Cambridge, MA, United States), and z-drive stage controller (MAC 5000, Ludl Electronic Products, Hawthorne, NY, United States), for SHG and TPEF signals from the collagen and cells, respectively. Signals were collected in an epi-detection geometry, separated from the excitation laser with a 630 nm short pass filter. The two emission channels were split with a 430 nm dichroic mirror and further filtered with a 405/20 nm (collagen SHG) and 450/60 nm (for cells) bandpass filters and focused onto photomultiplier tube detectors (Hamamatsu, Bridgewater, NJ, United States) for single photon counting. Voxel dimensions were 0.5 μ m \times 0.5 μ m \times 0.5 μ m resulting in volumes with an x-y field of view of 128 \times 128 μ m and variable depth. Optical filters were purchased from Chroma Technology Corporation (Bellow Falls, VT, United States) unless otherwise specified.

Quantification of cell-seeded collagen gel fluorescence images

Images were visualized with FIJI^{44,45} and Vaa3D software.⁴⁶ Two-dimensional xy images of raw photon counts from individual optical sections were used for analysis with a custom Matlab program (Mathworks, Natick, MA, United States). Collagen fiber orientation was quantified with a Fourier approach that directionally filters the spatial frequencies of the image to create a distribution of fiber angles from 0 to 180°.⁴⁷ This quantification resulted in the calculation of an alignment index (AI) for the collagen fibers that was defined as the ratio of the fiber distribution within 20° of the dominant fiber angle to the value found within the same range of a random distribution.⁴⁸ Theoretically, AI varies from 1.0 for a random fiber distribution to 4.55 for parallel fibers. However, the experimentally measured range does not typically span the entire theoretical range. The AI values measured here are similar to those reported previously in other culture systems by us and other groups.^{48–50} The difference between the AI values for WT and *Acta2*^{-/-} cell-seeded collagen gels was tested

for significance with an unpaired, two-tailed *t*-test. Statistical significance was evaluated at $P < 0.05$.

Cell contraction assay

Cells were trypsinized, centrifuged, and then resuspended in phenol-free media. Two million cells in suspension were mixed with a collagen solution prepared using manufacturer's protocol (CBA-201, Cell Bio Labs, San Diego, CA, United States). The collagen-cell gel was added to each well of a 24-well plate and incubated at 37°C with 5% CO₂ for 48 h. The polymerized collagen matrix containing cells remains attached to the culture dish during contraction phase. Mechanical tension develops during contraction, and cellular stress fibers assemble leading to mechanical loading. After that time, a sterile flexible spatula was used to release the collagen from the sides and bottom of the wells. Releasing the cell-seeded collagen gel results in mechanical unloading and further contraction as mechanical stress dissipates.⁵¹ The free-floating cell-seeded collagen gel was imaged at 4, 27, and 48 h using a Moticam 1000 camera (British Columbia, Canada) in bright field. The plate was quickly returned to the incubator after each time point. The experiment was performed in triplicate. The diameter of the free-floating cell-seeded collagen gel was then measured for each time point using scoring tools in FIJI software. Statistical significance was evaluated at $P < 0.05$.

Assessment of vascular smooth muscle cell architecture

Immunofluorescence staining

Vascular SMCs plated in glass bottom dishes (MatTek, Ashland, MA, United States) were fixed after 24 h by immersion in 2% paraformaldehyde in DPBS followed by washing in a glycine buffer. Cells were incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies for rabbit anti-integrin $\alpha 2$ (Abcam, San Francisco, CA, United States) or rabbit anti-integrin $\alpha 5$ (Milipore-Sigma, Burlington, MA, United States) diluted in a sodium citrate buffer containing BSA and Triton X.⁵² After washing, cells were incubated with goat anti-rabbit Alexa 568 secondary antibody (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, United States) for 1 h at room temperature. Then, cells were washed again and immediately imaged in DPBS. A similar procedure was followed for primary antibody hamster anti-integrin $\beta 3$ pre-conjugated with Alexa 488 (BioLegends, San Diego, CA, United States) that was incubated overnight. The smooth muscle γ -actin (SM γ -actin) antibody^{53,54} was a gift of Dr. Christine Chaponnier (Department of Pathology and Immunology, University of Geneva, Switzerland). To evaluate SM γ -actin, cells were first fixed with 1% paraformaldehyde in DPBS followed by permeabilization with cold methanol.⁴² As described above, cells were then labeled with anti-SM γ -actin (IgG1) primary antibody in DPBS followed by goat anti-mouse IgG1 Alexa 488 secondary antibody (Jackson Immuno Research, West Grove, PA, United States).

Vascular smooth muscle cell imaging

Total internal reflection fluorescence (TIRF) microscopy was used to image integrins and point-scanning confocal microscopy was used to image actin. TIRF microscopy is based on the total internal reflection phenomenon that occurs when light passes from a medium with a high refractive index (i.e. glass) into a medium with a low refractive index (i.e. water).⁵⁵ At the interface between the two media, the light will bend and if the incident angle is higher than a threshold value, determined by the refractive media at the interface, then the light will turn back into the high refractive medium and only a short-range electromagnetic disturbance, called evanescent field, will pass into the low refractive medium. Since the evanescent field intensity decreases exponentially with distance from the interface, the excitation of the fluorescent labeled protein will take place only in the immediate vicinity of the interface, hence exciting the fluorophores at the basal cell level. Thus, this imaging method provides high-contrast images of the basal cell area, with a useful maximum depth of penetration of ~ 100 nm. A PLAN APO 60 \times oil 1.45 NA TIRF objective lens and a CoolSnap HQ camera (Photometrics, AZ) were used for imaging cell-matrix adhesions with an exposure time of 100 ms on a microscope system as previously described.⁵⁶

Confocal images were acquired on a laser-scanning confocal microscope Olympus Fluoview FV3000 as 3D stacks of 26 planes at a 0.39 μ m step size. To form a 2D image, the laser beam scans the fluorescent cell in a raster pattern, that is, horizontally and vertically, and the fluorescence light

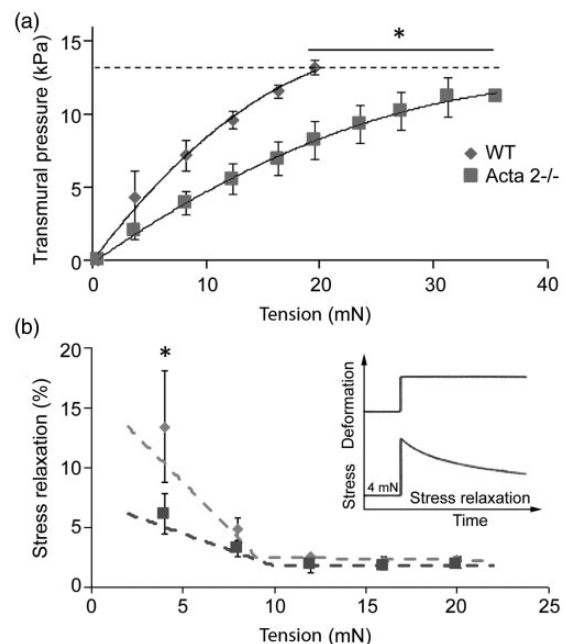


Figure 1. (a) Aortic rings stretched until a calculated transmural pressure of 13.3 kPa (100 mmHg) was attained (dashed line) showed that transmural pressure is lower in aorta from *Acta2*^{-/-} mice compared with WT. (b) Thoracic aortic rings were sequentially stretched to elicit 4 mN increases in tension (see inset). Stress relaxation was significantly reduced at low tension in aorta from *Acta2*^{-/-} mice compared with WT mice, while no significant difference was measured at tension values above 10 mN ($n = 4$ per group). Data shown as mean \pm SD. *Significance was evaluated at $P < 0.05$.

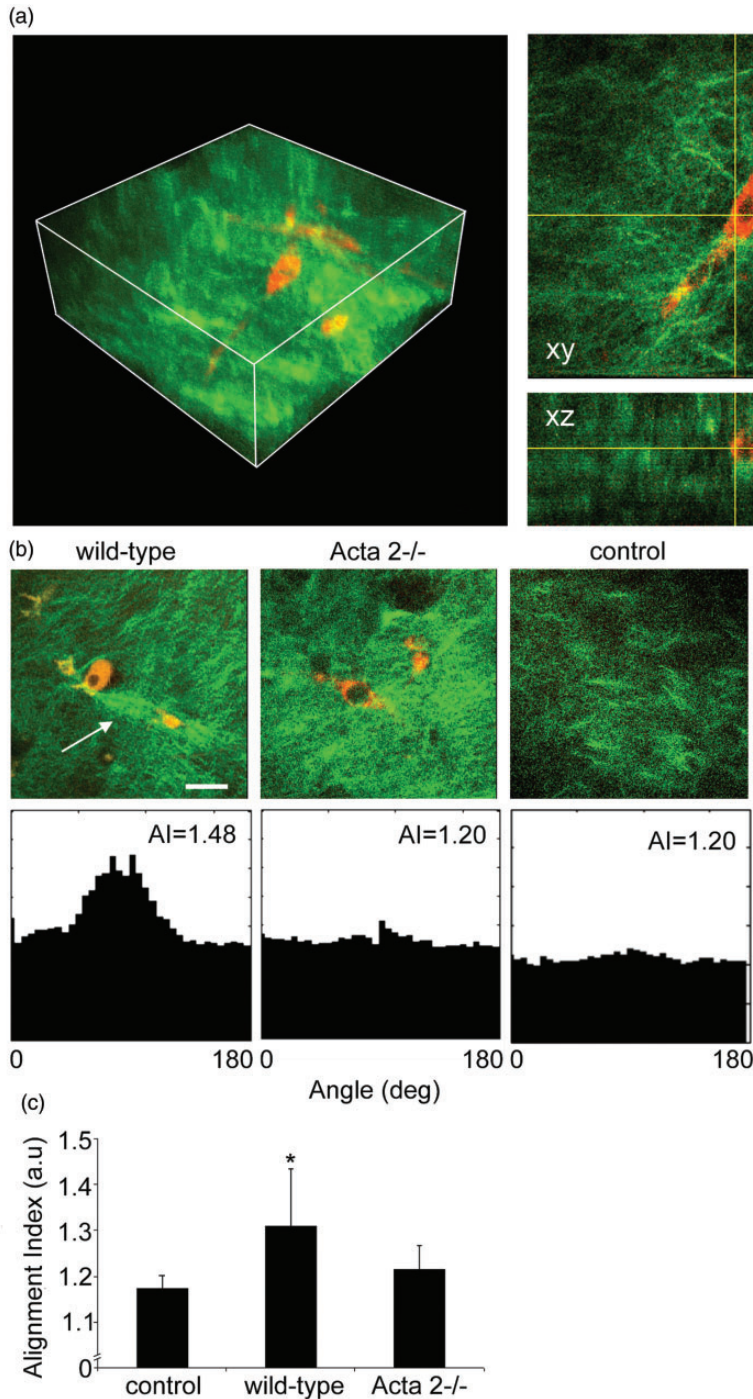


Figure 2. (a) Representative 3D image of cell-seeded collagen gel and 2D optical sections in *xy*, *xz*, and *yz* planes. Collagen was pseudo-colored in green (SHG signal), while SMCs were pseudo-colored in red (auto-fluorescence signal). (b) Representative 2D optical sections and their individual alignment angle distributions. Wild-type cells exert force on the collagen matrix inducing higher remodeling of the collagen fibers (see arrow), while *Acta2*^{-/-} cells have reduced local matrix remodeling. (c) The distribution of collagen fiber orientation measured by the alignment index (AI) for WT cells shows a significant increase in respect to control (collagen gel without cells), while no change was recorded for *Acta2*^{-/-} cells ($n = 10\text{--}14$ per condition). Scale bar represents $50\ \mu\text{m}$. Data shown as mean \pm SD. *Significance was evaluated at $P < 0.05$.

emitted from the cell is detected by a low-noise photomultiplier tube detector and converted for 2D display on a computer screen. A PlanApo N SC2 60 \times oil, 1.4NA objective lens was used for imaging actin filaments. Images were further analyzed as *xy* projections of the 3D stacks.

For both confocal and TIRF imaging of single cells, all hardware parameters were maintained the same throughout the experiments, respectively.

Fluorescence quantification

Fluorescence images were analyzed using the masking tool and image statistics tools in the SlideBook software (Intelligent Imaging Innovations, Denver, CO) as previously described.²⁰ Briefly, protein area for integrins at focal adhesions was determined from TIRF images, while 2D projections of confocal images were used to measure actin

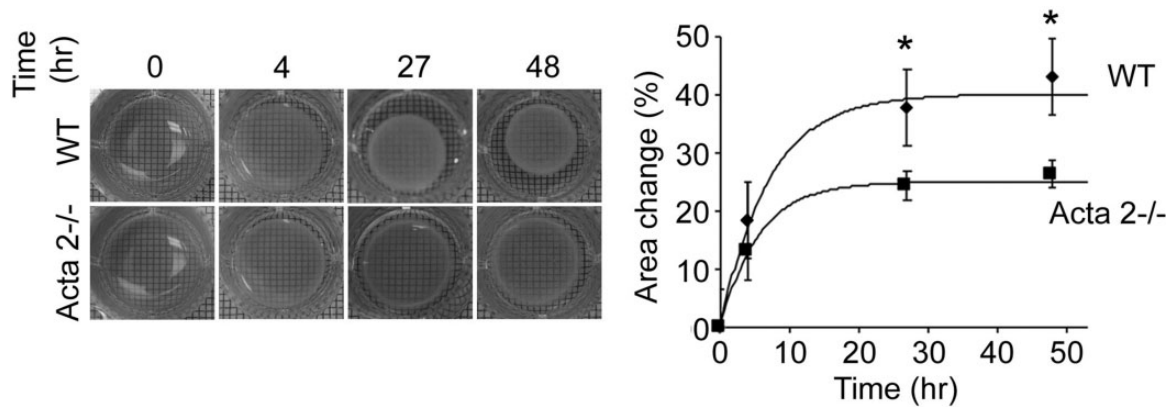


Figure 3. Free-floating cell-seeded collagen gel showed a reduced contractility for *Acta2*^{-/-} vs. WT cells. Experiments were performed in triplicate. Data shown as mean \pm SD. *Significance was evaluated at $P < 0.05$.

area throughout the cell. Fluorescence protein area measurements represent the relative protein density at the specific sites.⁵⁷ Since we compare a large number of cells for each condition, fluorescence protein area was normalized to total cell area for each cell before statistical analysis carried out with STATA (StataCorp, College Station, TX). Multiway analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used for statistical analysis. Planned comparisons between means were tested by orthogonal contrasts, and differences were considered significant at $P < 0.05$.

Results

Acta2^{-/-} aorta has reduced stress relaxation

Figure 1(a) shows that at any given level of stretch, transmural pressure is lower in aorta from *Acta2*^{-/-} mice. In addition, the internal circumference at a transmural pressure of 13.3 kPa was slightly larger for *Acta2*^{-/-} ($2906 \pm 449 \mu\text{m}$) than for WT ($2428 \pm 274 \mu\text{m}$). Moreover, stress relaxation measured in *Acta2*^{-/-} and WT mouse aortic rings shows two functional regimes for aortic tension (Figure 1(b)). Stress relaxation was significantly reduced at low tension in aorta from *Acta2*^{-/-} mice compared with aorta from WT mice, while no significant difference was measured at tension values above 10 mN. These data suggest that vessel contractility is predominantly driven by SMCs at lower tension, and by matrix elasticity at higher tension. Taken together, these data support a reduced contractile phenotype associated with SM α -actin disruption and a dominant contribution of SMCs at lower tension.

Loss of SM α -actin decreases interaction of vascular smooth muscle cells with the matrix

Interaction between SMCs isolated from aortas of *Acta2*^{-/-} or WT mice with the surrounding matrix was tested by embedding the cells in collagen I hydrogels. We performed non-linear optical microscopy on the cell-seeded collagen gels, capturing cellular two-photon excited autofluorescence and collagen SHG⁴⁸ to visualize the extent of cell-induced matrix remodeling in three-dimensions. Reconstructions of volumetric rendering are shown in

Figure 2(a) with orthogonal optical sections from a representative image stack. Figure 2(b) shows that SMCs (red) from WT mice exert force on the collagen matrix (green) inducing extensive collagen fiber remodeling (see arrow), while no significant fiber remodeling was observed in collagen gels containing cells from *Acta2*^{-/-} mice.

Quantitative assessment of collagen matrix remodeling (Figure 2(c)) showed that alignment index (AI) of fiber orientation increased for hydrogels containing WT cells, while no change was measured for hydrogels containing *Acta2*^{-/-} cells with respect to control (no cells). In addition, a contractility assay⁵¹ in which diameter of the free-floating cell-seeded collagen gel was measured shows a two-fold reduced contractility for *Acta2*^{-/-} vs. WT cells ($P < 0.05$) (Figure 3). These results suggest that *Acta2*^{-/-} cells are not able to generate the force needed to induce matrix remodeling necessary to maintain cellular contractility.

The architecture of the actin cytoskeleton and cell-matrix adhesions is differentially modulated in *Acta2*^{-/-} aortic smooth muscle cells

While increased arterial stiffness is usually associated with aging and hypertension,^{58,59} in patients predisposed to TAAD, aortic stiffness increases before aneurysm formation.⁶⁰ Contraction in vascular smooth muscle is driven by SM α -actin, the predominant actin isoform in SMCs, while SM γ -actin is less abundant in the vasculature.^{61,62} Papke *et al.*³³ showed that pan-actin levels do not change in *Acta2*^{-/-} SMCs compared to WT cells, in part due to increased expression of SM γ -actin mRNA. Thus, we sought to characterize cellular localization of SM γ -actin using fluorescence imaging. Confocal imaging of cells immunostained with a recently developed, specific SM γ -actin antibody^{53,54} showed a significant increase of SM γ -actin throughout the cytoplasm in *Acta2*^{-/-} compared with WT cells (Figure 4). *Acta2*^{-/-} cells plated on fibronectin and collagen I showed similar levels of fluorescence for SM γ -actin, which were lower than for cells plated on collagen IV or control. Moreover, fine filaments of SM γ -actin are present in *Acta2*^{-/-} cells plated on fibronectin and collagen I. These results suggest that loss of SM α -actin induces a compensatory increase in SM γ -actin that could

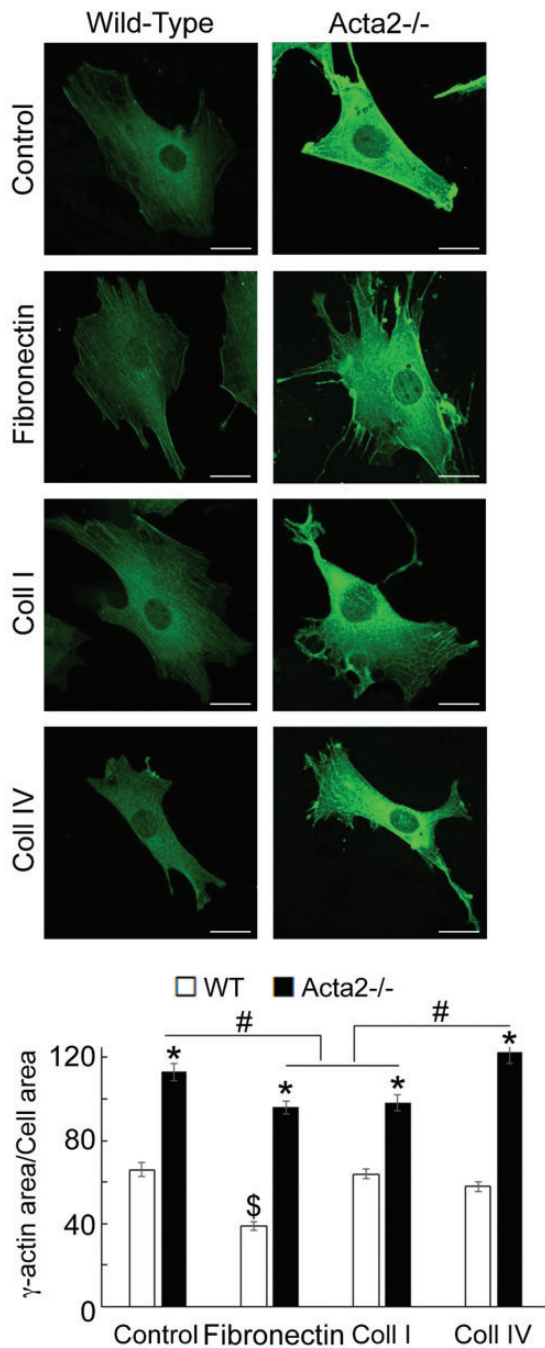


Figure 4. (a) Representative confocal images of SM γ -actin in *Acta2*^{-/-} and WT cells plated on different extracellular matrices. Scale bar represents 20 μ m. (b) Quantitative analysis of fluorescence images ($n = 34$ –54 cells per condition). Data shown as mean \pm SEM. Significance was evaluated at $P < 0.05$. *Significant difference between WT and *Acta2*^{-/-} cells for each matrix, \$ Significant difference between WT cells, # Significant difference between *Acta2*^{-/-} cells as shown. (A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

potentially contribute to increase stiffness of *Acta2*^{-/-} cells,³³ but is not able to compensate and restore cellular contractile properties.

To further investigate whether SM α -actin disruption affects integrin-specific cell adhesion, immunofluorescence staining for integrin $\alpha 2$, $\alpha 5$ and $\beta 3$, followed by TIRF microscopy was employed to characterize the morphology of cell–matrix adhesions. Fluorescence imaging showed

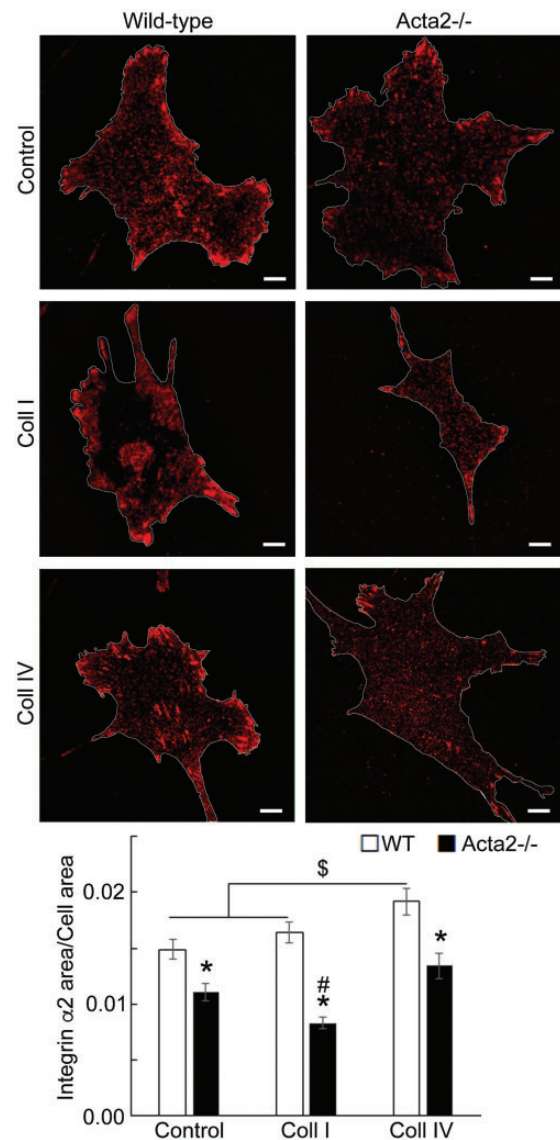


Figure 5. (a) Representative TIRF images of integrin $\alpha 2$ in *Acta2*^{-/-} and WT cells plated on different extracellular matrices. Scale bar represents 10 μ m. Cell periphery is outlined with a white line. (b) Quantitative analysis of fluorescence images ($n = 29$ –49 cells per condition). Data shown as mean \pm SEM. Significance was evaluated at $P < 0.05$. *Significant difference between WT and *Acta2*^{-/-} cells for each matrix, \$ Significant difference between WT cells, # Significant difference between *Acta2*^{-/-} cells. (A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

that integrin $\alpha 2$ recruitment at cell–matrix adhesions takes place mostly at the cell periphery and was significantly lower in *Acta2*^{-/-} cells compared with wild-type cells (Figure 5). Wild-type cells plated on collagen I or control showed similar levels of fluorescence for integrin $\alpha 2$, which were lower than for cells plated on collagen IV. Integrin $\alpha 5$ recruitment was significantly increased when both mutant and WT SMCs were plated on fibronectin (Figure 6). However, *Acta2*^{-/-} cells presented lower integrin $\alpha 5$ localization at cell–matrix adhesions on uncoated, control substrates ($P < 0.05$), while WT cells presented strikes-like cell–matrix adhesions toward the center of the cell. *Acta2*^{-/-} cells plated on fibronectin stimulated $\alpha 5$ integrin engagement in long streaks at the cell edges and towards the

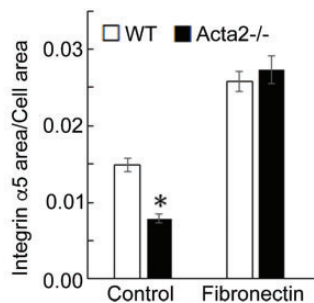
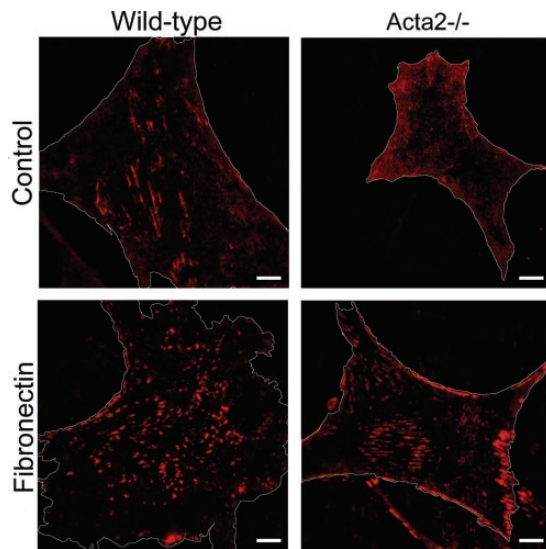


Figure 6. (a) Representative TIRF images of integrin $\alpha 5$ in *Acta2*^{-/-} and WT cells plated on different extracellular matrices. Scale bar represents 10 μ m. Cell periphery is outlined with a white line. (b) Quantitative analysis of fluorescence images ($n = 27$ –35 cells per condition). Data shown as mean \pm SEM. *Significance was evaluated at $P < 0.05$. (A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

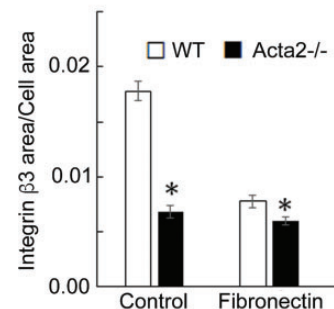
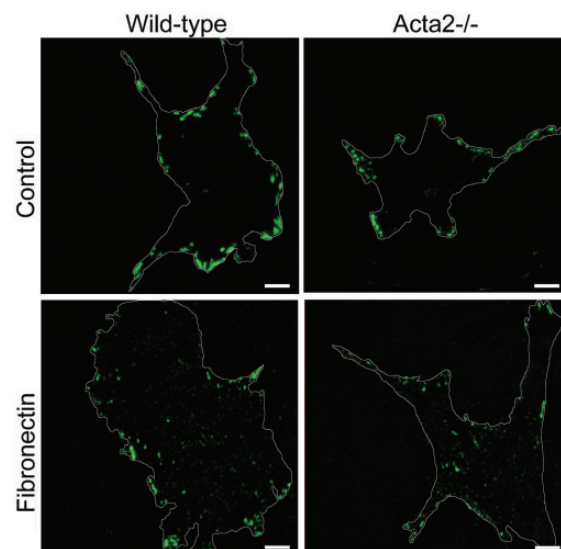


Figure 7. (a) Representative TIRF images of integrin $\beta 3$ in *Acta2*^{-/-} and WT cells plated on different extracellular matrices. Scale bar represents 10 μ m. Cell periphery is outlined with a white line. (b) Quantitative analysis of fluorescence images ($n = 28$ –46 cells per condition). Data shown as mean \pm SEM. *Significance was evaluated at $P < 0.05$. (A color version of this figure is available in the online journal.)

center of the cell. In contrast, WT cells plated on fibronectin induced robust recruitment of $\alpha 5$ integrin all over basal cell surface, mostly away from cell edges. Integrin $\beta 3$ recruitment at cell–matrix adhesions presented similar trend with integrin $\alpha 5$ on control, uncoated substrates; however, fibronectin has not increased $\beta 3$ integrin recruitment at cell–matrix adhesions (Figure 7). There was no significant difference between *Acta2*^{-/-} cells plated on either substrate. As expected, integrin $\beta 3$ was localized exclusively at cell edges.⁶³ Cell–matrix adhesions were well defined for WT cells on uncoated, control substrates, and less organized for WT cells plated on fibronectin. *Acta2*^{-/-} cells showed more diffuse adhesions when plated on either substrate.

These results show that loss of SM α -actin is associated with reduced integrin-binding to the matrix that concurs with increased cell migration and proliferation of *Acta2*^{-/-} cells.³³

Discussion

Smooth muscle cells in the aorta play an integral role in regulating vessel wall contractility and matrix deposition in the medial layer. Recent studies show that mutations in genes associated with actomyosin apparatus (i.e. *ACTA2*),

reduce SMC contractility, increasing susceptibility to TAAD.^{28–30} These mutations also are associated with impaired SMC function leading to decreased ability of the cell to sense matrix-mediated mechanical stimuli. This study investigates how loss of SM α -actin affects actin cytoskeleton and cell adhesions using an animal model of thoracic aortic aneurysm, the *Acta2*^{-/-} mice.³⁵ Our results show that SMCs from *Acta2*^{-/-} mice have reduced contractility and are unable to generate external forces to remodel the matrix. Further, we showed that loss of SM α -actin induced compensatory upregulation of SM γ -actin, and a reduction of integrin recruitment at cell–matrix adhesions.

Stress relaxation in smooth muscle represents a reduction in tension following a stretch and is thought to be involved in long-term regulation of blood pressure.⁴⁰ Our results from functional experiments performed in aortic rings showed that stress relaxation in *Acta2*^{-/-} mice was reduced at lower tensions, presumably associated with cytoskeletal-dependent contractility. This is consistent with the finding that inhibition of actin polymerization with cytochalasin impairs stress relaxation in rat aorta.⁴⁰ Nagayama *et al.*⁶⁴ also demonstrated that the elastic component of stress relaxation was reduced by half in rat aortic smooth muscle cells treated with cytochalasin compared

with untreated SMCs. Collectively, these results suggest that remodeling of the actin-cytoskeleton contributes to stress relaxation.

The estimated transmural pressure at any level of stretch was significantly lower in aorta from *Acta2*^{-/-} mice suggesting that the ability to generate circumferential tension in response to stretch is impaired in *Acta2*^{-/-} mice. Our results also show increased SM γ -actin throughout the cytoplasm in the absence of SM α -actin. The compensatory increase in SM γ -actin could potentially contribute to increase stiffness of *Acta2*^{-/-} cells,³³ but is not able to restore cellular contractile properties. These findings are in agreement with the observations that *Acta2*^{-/-} mice have lower systolic blood pressure measured by noninvasive tail cuff and impaired aortic vascular contractility in response to potassium chloride, norepinephrine, and serotonin *in vitro*.³⁵ Kwartler et al.⁶⁵ subsequently reported that responses to phenylephrine and potassium chloride were significantly impaired in aortic rings from *Acta2*^{-/-} mice. Bersi et al.⁶⁶ also reported larger outer diameters for carotid arteries from *Acta2*^{-/-} mice compared with controls at perfusion pressures above 90 mmHg. Collectively, our results and others show that adaptive responses to stretch or pressure are impaired when SM α -actin filaments are disrupted.

SMCs are responsible for secreting the matrix *in vivo* and organizing it through force-dependent processes that involve both actin cytoskeleton and integrins at cell-matrix adhesions. Thus, external mechanical stresses are balanced by intracellular counter-forces provided by the actomyosin apparatus that forms stress fibers.³⁴ *In vitro* controlled 3D environments represent a useful tool to dissect the functional mechanosensing ability of *Acta2*^{-/-} cells and their discrete contribution to tissue mechanical properties. By embedding live cells in collagen gels, we found that *Acta2*^{-/-} cells exhibit impaired capacity to remodel local collagen fiber distribution. While WT cells appear to be able to exert tension on the collagen fibers and align them along a preferred axis, *Acta2*^{-/-} cells were unable to remodel the collagen fibers. The reduced interaction with the matrix can be due to reduced contractility due to loss of SM α -actin and/or reduced cell adhesion to the extracellular matrix. Because SMC attachment to the matrix is essential in maintaining the functional and structural integrity of the vessel wall, dysfunctional cell adhesion to the matrix can lead to detachments of the SMC layer from the surrounding matrix compromising the structural integrity of the vessel wall.^{28,60}

Changes in transmural pulse pressure are sensed by integrin receptors on the cell surface at the interface with the matrix. These receptors transmit mechanical stimulation intracellularly to the actomyosin contractile unit. Our results showed that loss of SM α -actin is associated with reduced integrin recruitment at cell matrix adhesions for both RGD-binding integrins $\alpha 5\beta 1$ and $\alpha v\beta 3$, and collagen-binding integrin $\alpha 2\beta 1$ in *Acta2*^{-/-} cells. Reduced recruitment of $\alpha 2$ integrin at cell-matrix adhesions explains the inability of *Acta2*^{-/-} cells to crosstalk and remodel the collagen matrix. Functional localization of $\alpha 5$ integrin towards the center of the cell (i.e. at fibrillar adhesions) associates with fibronectin fibrillogenesis⁶⁷ and the ability of these

integrins to sustain force.⁶⁸ The differential distribution of this integrin at the basal cell surface between *Acta2*^{-/-} vs. WT cells and absence of SM α -actin that reinforces these adhesions, coupled with the role of this integrin in regulating vessel wall contractility,¹⁶⁻¹⁷ support the reduced contractility of the aortic rings from *Acta2*^{-/-} mice.

Decreased SMC attachment to the matrix was also observed in the *Acta2*^{-/-} aortas by electron microscopy.⁶⁹ While the SMCs in aortas from WT mice were aligned along the elastin fibers, the SMCs in aortas from *Acta2*^{-/-} mice were improperly oriented with respect to the elastin fibers. Elastin fibers are covered with a sheath of elastic microfibrils composed of fibrillin glycoprotein. Fibrillin-1 presents a RGD-binding motif that mediates binding to integrins $\alpha v\beta 3$, $\alpha v\beta 6$, and $\alpha 5\beta 1$ with high-, moderate-, and low affinity, respectively.²³ Integrin $\alpha v\beta 3$ has a role in initiating mechanotransduction at the leading edge of migrating cells. These integrins also mediate connection to the actin cytoskeleton, and adhesion reinforcement in response to external force.⁶⁸ Since $\alpha v\beta 3$ integrin also binds with high affinity to elastin fibers, via fibrillin, the reduced recruitment of $\beta 3$ integrin at peripheral cell-matrix adhesion in *Acta2*^{-/-} cells may further explain the abnormal SMC attachment to the matrix visualized by electron microscopy *in vivo*, and may contribute to the reduced stress relaxation of the aortic rings from *Acta2*^{-/-} mice. Taken together, these results support a reduced contractile phenotype and interaction with the matrix of *Acta2*^{-/-} cells caused by the dysregulation of SM α -actin function, which in turn induces a cascade of molecular events affecting cellular mechanosensing.

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Authors' contributions: AT, MPM, DMM, ATY and GMR conceived the study or analyzed the data and wrote/edited the manuscript. MPM, BCB, HCG, SP, JC, and JPT collected and/or analyzed the data and wrote/edited the manuscript.

DECLARATION OF CONFLICTING INTERESTS

The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

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