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Microtubules tune mechanosensitive cell responses

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Mechanotransduction is a process by which cells sense the mechanical properties of their surrounding environment and adapt accordingly to perform cellular functions such as adhesion, migration and differentiation. Integrin-mediated focal adhesions are major sites of mechanotransduction and their connection with the actomyosin network is crucial for mechanosensing as well as for the generation and transmission of forces onto the substrate. Despite having emerged as major regulators of cell adhesion and migration, the contribution of microtubules to mechanotransduction still remains elusive. Here, we show that talin- and actomyosin-dependent mechanosensing of substrate rigidity controls microtubule acetylation (a tubulin post-translational modification) by promoting the recruitment of α -tubulin acetyltransferase 1 (α TAT1) to focal adhesions. Microtubule acetylation, in turn, promotes the release of the guanine nucleotide exchange factor GEF-H1 from microtubules to activate RhoA, actomyosin contractility and traction forces. Our results reveal a fundamental crosstalk between microtubules and actin in mechanotransduction that contributes to mechanosensitive cell adhesion and migration.

ells sense the physical properties of their environment, translate them into biochemical signals and adapt their behaviour accordingly. This process, known as mechanotransduction, is crucial during development and in the adult, during physiological and pathological conditions such as cell migration, wound healing and cancer^{1,2}. Integrin-mediated focal adhesions (FAs) sense the matrix rigidity, control the generation of actomyosin-dependent forces and the transmission of these traction forces onto the substrate; FAs also contribute to mechanosensitive cell responses such as migration^{3,4}. In addition to the actin cytoskeleton, microtubules are also key regulators of two- and three-dimensional cell migration⁵⁻⁸. Several studies have demonstrated the role of the actomyosin cytoskeleton and FAs in mechanotransduction; however, very little is known about microtubules in this context. In this study, we used primary rat astrocytes and primary human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs; both types of cells are dependent on efficient microtubule dynamics for migration or invasion⁹⁻¹³) to address the role of microtubules in rigidity sensing and mechanosensitive migration.

The crucial factors affecting the functions of the microtubule network are post-translational modifications (PTMs) of tubulin, such as acetylation, which occurs at the K40 residue of α -tubulin. The enzyme responsible for microtubule acetylation, α -tubulin acetyltransferase 1 (α TAT1, also known as MEC-17), is present in the lumen of microtubules¹⁴ and is highly specific to α -tubulin K40. On the other hand, the enzymes involved in deacetylation at K40 are histone deacetylase family member 6 (HDAC6) and sirtuin type 2 (Sirt2), both of which target other substrates as well¹⁵. In this study, we used previously characterized short interfering RNAs (siRNAs) that target α TAT1 (set 1: si α TAT1-1; set 2: si α TAT1-2; ref. ¹³; Extended Data Fig. 1a–c) to decrease acetylation, and Tubacin (Extended Data Fig. 1a,c), a drug that increases microtubule acetylation by inhibiting HDAC6 without modifying the acetylation of other HDAC6 substrates such as histones^{16,17}.

Substrate rigidity promotes microtubule acetylation through integrin β_1 signalling

We have previously shown that microtubules come in close proximity to FAs, and that microtubule acetylation promotes FA turnover during migration¹³. Because FAs are major mechanosensitive structures¹⁸, we investigated whether the extracellular matrix rigidity affects microtubule acetylation. Astrocytes were plated sparsely on polyacrylamide (PAA) hydrogels of different rigidities: 1.26, 2, 9 and 48 kPa (Fig. 1a,b). The astrocytes on soft substrates exhibited lower levels of acetylated tubulin than cells on stiff substrates (Fig. 1a,b). Tubulin acetylation levels showed a twofold increase with increasing rigidity (1.26-48kPa), a highly significant change in comparison with the maximal 3.8-fold increase obtained after Tubacin treatment (Extended Data Fig. 1d). Subsequently, to determine whether microtubule acetylation may be indirectly caused by a mechanism involving differential cell spreading, we plated astrocytes on adhesive micropatterns (area 2,500 µm²) printed on 2 and 40 kPa hydrogels (Extended Data Fig. 1e). Similar to stiff substrates, the astrocytes on soft substrates adopted a crossbow shape and identical spread area, and yet, microtubule acetylation increased on stiff substrates compared with on softer substrates (Extended Data Fig. 1e). In contrast to tubulin acetylation, tubulin detyrosination (another tubulin PTM) remained unaffected by increased substrate rigidity in astrocytes (Extended Data Fig. 1f,g), and had no affect on astrocyte adhesion

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and migration¹³, suggesting that rigidity sensing specifically affects microtubule acetylation.

Integrin-based FAs sense the matrix rigidity and trigger mechanosensitive signalling pathways¹⁹. To determine the role of integrin signalling in controlling microtubule acetylation, we first used a scratch-induced migration assay to trigger integrin activation at the wound edge¹². The addition of cyclic RGD (cRGD) peptide, to prevent the binding of integrins to the RGD motif of extracellular matrix proteins, reduced tubulin acetylation (Extended Data Fig. 2a). Furthermore, integrin activation using MnCl₂ (ref. ²⁰) led to an increase in microtubule acetylation as compared with control cells (Extended Data Fig. 2b). Finally, depletion of β_1 integrin using a siRNA (Extended Data Fig. 2c) also resulted in a significant decrease in tubulin acetylation as compared with control cells (Extended Data Fig. 2c,d), suggesting that β_1 integrins are major players in the control of microtubule acetylation. We then investigated the involvement of two central players in integrin signalling: the proto-oncogene c-Src and focal adhesion kinase (FAK). In migrating astrocytes, the inhibition of Src (using Src kinase inhibitor 1, referred to here as Src kin 1) and FAK (using PF-562271) drastically reduced the levels of acetylated tubulin (Extended Data Fig. 2e). In addition, following Src and FAK inhibition, microtubule acetylation induced by cell spreading on 48 kPa substrates decreased to a level similar to that observed on soft substrates (Fig. 1c and Extended Data Fig. 2f), indicating that Src and FAK are required for the rigidity-dependent increase in acetylation. Altogether, these results strongly suggest that β_1 integrin-mediated signalling promotes substrate rigidity-induced acetylation of microtubules.

α TAT1 interacts with talin in mechanosensitive manner

Microtubule acetylation is mediated by α TAT1; however, the mechanisms by which α TAT1 is recruited and/or activated remains unknown²¹. Therefore, we carried out a quantitative mass spectrometry screen to identify interacting partners of aTAT1 using HEK293 cells. The mass spectrometry data (data available from ProteomeXchange with identifier PXD015871, see Methods for details; Extended Data Fig. 2g) revealed interesting potential interactors, amongst which the proteins enriched in the gene ontology for focal adhesions, depicted in red in Extended Data Fig. 2g. One of the significant interactors identified in the mass spectrometry screen was talin (Extended Data Fig. 2g), a mechanosensitive partner of integrins¹⁹. We confirmed the interaction of α TAT1 with talin through pull-down experiments. GST-aTAT1, but not GST alone, associated with endogenous talin from astrocyte lysates (Fig. 1d and Extended Data Fig. 2h). The interaction was further confirmed by immunoprecipitation using GFP- α TAT1-transfected astrocytes. talin co-immunoprecipitated with GFP- α TAT1, but not with GFP alone (Fig. 1e and Extended Data Fig. 2i). In addition, using total internal reflection fluorescence (TIRF) microscopy, we observed that GFP- α TAT1 strongly localized at mCherry-vinculin-positive FAs (Fig. 1f)¹³. We then investigated whether talin played a role in the recruitment of α TAT1 to FAs and the acetylation of microtubules. Therefore, we used specific siRNAs to reduce talin expression in primary astrocytes (Extended Data Fig. 2j). Talin depletion reduced GFP- α TAT1 recruitment to FAs (Fig. 1f). In addition, talin-depleted astrocytes plated on 48 kPa substrates exhibited decreased levels of tubulin acetylation as compared with the control cells (Fig. 1g).

As aTAT1 is also present within microtubules (Extended Data Fig. 2k)^{13,14}, we tested whether the recruitment of α TAT1 to FAs was dependent on microtubules. To address this, GFP-αTAT1 and mCherry-vinculin expressing astrocytes were treated with nocodazole to depolymerize all microtubules. The nocodazole-treated astrocytes displayed larger adhesions and increased stress fibres, as has been observed in other cell types (Extended Data Fig. 2l and Supplementary Video 1)22,23, and increased aTAT1 at FAs (Extended Data Fig. 2l and Supplementary Video 1), suggesting that microtubules are not required to localize α TAT1 at FAs, and that increased actomyosin contractility might facilitate αTAT1 concentration at FAs. As actomyosin contractility is required for talin-mediated mechanosensing^{24,25}, we used the Rho kinase (ROCK) inhibitor Y-27632 (which strongly reduces actomyosin contractility²⁶) to assess its role in the mechanosensitive acetylation of microtubules. Through GST-aTAT1 pull-down as well as TIRF microscopy, we observed that Y-27632 treatment decreased the αTAT1 interaction with talin (Fig. 1h,i and Supplementary Video 2) and tubulin acetylation (Fig. 1j,k), confirming that actomyosin contractility and mechanosensing at FAs influence microtubule acetylation. Altogether, these results suggest that talin- and actomyosin-dependent mechanosensing trigger the recruitment of αTAT1 to FAs, and are required for rigidity-dependent microtubule acetylation.

Microtubule acetylation influences mechanotransduction at FAs

We then investigated whether microtubule acetylation may be involved in mechanosensitive cell functions. Astrocytes were sparsely plated on soft (2 kPa) and stiff (48 kPa) PAA hydrogels and stained for Yes-associated protein (YAP), an actomyosin- and RhoGTPase-dependent transcriptional activator whose nuclear translocation is mechanosensitive²⁷. As is the case in several cell types²⁸, quantification of the nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratio of YAP indicated that YAP nuclear localization increased when astrocytes were plated on stiff substrates compared with on soft substrates

Fig. 1| Integrin-mediated signalling and substrate rigidity regulate microtubule acetylation. a-c, Inverted fluorescence images of WT astrocytes (a,c) and astrocytes treated with Src kin 1 or PF-562271 (c) and plated on PAA hydrogels. The images show acetylated tubulin and α -tubulin ($\mathbf{a}(i), \mathbf{c}(i)$) and the intensity ratio of acetylated tubulin over total tubulin (a(ii),c(ii)). The western blots show the normalized ratio of acetylated tubulin over glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) (**b**). n=77 for 1.26 kPa, n=88 for 2 kPa, n=67 for 9 kPa and n=81 for 48 kPa (**a**) and n=30 for Ctl, n=43 for Src kin1 and n = 43 for PF-562271 (c). Tub, α-tubulin; Ac-Tub, acetylated tubulin; Ctl, control. d,e, Astrocyte lysate pull-down (PD; WT cells) and immunoprecipitations (IP; cells transfected with GFP-Ctl or GFP-aTAT1) using GST or GST-aTAT1 (d) and GFP-Ctl or GFP-aTAT1 (e) resin, respectively. The western blots show talin and acetylated tubulin or GFP. f, Images of GFP-aTAT1 and mCherry-vinculin astrocytes transfected with siCtl or siTalin1. Ctl, control; siTalin1, siRNA targeting Talin1. g, Astrocytes on 48 kPa PAA gels showing acetylated tubulin and α -tubulin (i) and the ratio of the intensities of acetylated tubulin over total tubulin intensity (ii). n=51 for siCtl and n=56 for siTalin1. h, Pull-down (Ctl or Y-27632-treated cells) using GST or GST-αTAT1 resin: the western blots show talin and Ponceau staining (i) and normalized talin levels in cells treated with dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO; Ctl) or Y-27632 (ii). i, Images showing GFP-αTAT1- and mCherry-vinculin-expressing astrocytes treated with DMSO (Ctl) or Y-27632. j,k, Migrating astrocytes treated with DMSO (Ctl) or ROCK inhibitor Y-27632 for 2 h: western blots showing the levels of acetylated tubulin and GAPDH in the Ctl- and Y-27632-treated cells (j) and inverted fluorescence images of the astrocytes show acetylated tubulin and α-tubulin (k(i)) and ratio of acetylated tubulin intensity over total tubulin intensity (**k**(ii)). n = 98 for Ctl and n = 79 for Y-27632-treated cells. Scale bars in **a,c,g**, 10 µm; scale bars in **f,k,i**, 20 µm. Number of independent experiments = 4 (a,h), 5 (b,i), 2 (c), 3 (d-g,j,k). In the box-and-whisker plots, the box extends from the 25th to 75th percentile, the whiskers show minimum and maximum values, and the line within the box represents the median. Statistical tests: one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey's multiple comparison's test (**a**,**b**,**g**), paired *t*-test (**h**) and unpaired Student's *t*-test (two-tailed; **k**).

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(Fig. 2a,b). In α TAT1-depleted astrocytes, the nuclear recruitment of YAP in cells plated on 48 kPa substrates was strongly inhibited, and YAP localization was similar in cells plated on soft and rigid substrates (Fig. 2a). Conversely, increasing microtubule acetylation by Tubacin treatment led to a strong nuclear recruitment of YAP

in cells plated on 2 kPa substrates, recapitulating a phenotype of cells on stiff substrates (Fig. 2b). To determine whether the effects of microtubule acetylation on YAP were specific to astrocytes, we performed similar experiments on HUVECs. HUVECs exhibit a low level of acetylated tubulin, even when plated on stiff substrates



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(Extended Data Fig. 3b,c). Hence, to test the effects of microtubule acetylation on YAP translocation in HUVECs, cells were treated with Tubacin to increase microtubule acetylation (Extended Data Fig. 3c). Similar to astrocytes, increasing microtubule acetylation in HUVECs plated on 2kPa substrates resulted in an increased nuclear recruitment of YAP, mimicking the phenotype of cells plated on stiff substrates (Fig. 2c). Altogether, this demonstrates that the manipulation of microtubule acetylation tunes YAP mechanosensitive nuclear–cytoplasmic shuttling (a summary cartoon is shown in Fig. 2g).

FAs are crucial mechanosensitive structures that sense and adapt to the matrix rigidity²⁹. Thus, we investigated the effects of substrate rigidity on FAs in astrocytes plated on PAA hydrogels of different rigidities, namely 1.26, 2, 9 and 48 kPa (Fig. 2d), by immunostaining the FA-associated protein paxillin^{4,30}. Quantification of the density of FAs (Extended Data Fig. 3d) indicated that astrocytes plated on soft substrates display FAs throughout the cell surface, whereas FAs are predominantly found at the periphery of cells adhering to stiffer substrates (Fig. 2d). Thus, changes in substrate rigidity alter FA distribution in astrocytes, allowing us to assess the impact of microtubule acetylation in this phenomenon. Following αTAT1 depletion, FAs were distributed throughout the cell surface independently of the rigidity of the substrate, that is, α TAT1-depleted cells on stiff substrates showed a distribution of FAs similar to that of the control/ siaTAT1 cells plated on soft substrates (Fig. 2e and Extended Data Fig. 3e-h). To confirm that the changes in FA distribution act through tubulin acetylation, we treated cells plated on different rigidities with Tubacin. Tubacin had no effect on FA distribution in cells plated on 48 kPa substrates (Fig. 2f and Extended Data Fig. 3e,f). In contrast, Tubacin treatment of cells plated on 1.26 kPa substrates mimicked the phenotype (FAs at the cell periphery) observed in the control/ Tubacin-treated cells plated on stiff matrices (Fig. 2f and Extended Data Fig. 3e,f). Because cell spreading on different substrate rigidities can affect the distribution of FAs, we plated aTAT1-depleted cells on micropatterned hydrogels to observe FAs in cells of similar spread area. In line with our prior results, cells on soft substrates or αTAT1-depleted cells on stiffer substrates displayed FAs throughout the cell spreading area (Extended Data Fig. 3i). Together with previous findings that microtubule acetylation controls FA dynamics through the delivery of membrane vesicles at FAs^{13,31}, these results show that the rigidity-dependent microtubule acetylation controls the mechanosensitive distribution of FAs (Fig. 2g).

Microtubule acetylation controls cytoskeletal organization at FAs

Next, we investigated the impact of α TAT1 depletion on the FA-associated cytoskeleton. In migrating astrocytes, the actin network comprises longitudinal stress fibres connected to FAs at the front of the leader cells as well as interjunctional transverse arcs

connecting neighbouring cells at adherens junctions (Fig. 3a and Extended Data Fig. 4a)^{26,32}. In αTAT1-depleted cells, the transverse arcs of actin were dramatically reduced and the longitudinal fibres did not extend to the front of the migrating cells (Fig. 3a and Extended Data Fig. 4a). Associated with these longitudinal fibres, FAs were located further back within the protrusion rather than at the front of the leader cells (Fig. 3a and Extended Data Fig. 4a)¹³. Myosin light chain phosphorylation (pMLC) is predominantly seen at the leading edge of migrating control cells; however, in α TAT1-depleted cells, pMLC was barely visible at the leading edge of the cells and was only associated with the remaining actin fibres at the cell centre, similar to myosin IIA distribution (Fig. 3a,b and Extended Data Fig. 4a). Moreover, intermediate filaments (visualized using vimentin), which play a major role in regulating FAs and the collective migration of astrocytes³² and normally extend from the perinuclear region to the cell periphery close to FAs^{32,33}, were absent from the front of the aTAT1-depleted cells and frequently appeared fragmented (Fig. 3c). We then looked closely at the effect of aTAT1 on the cytoskeletal organization at FAs by using platinum replica electron microscopy (PREM) on unroofed migrating astrocytes located at the wound edge. Similar to light microscopy, PREM images showed that FAs connected to actin bundles were distributed further within the protrusion in the case of siaTAT1 cells as compared with a highly organized and parallel set of FAs at the leading edge of control cells (Fig. 3d). The high magnification views of the FAs in the control cells show microtubules along actin cables reaching the FAs (marked with white arrows in Fig. 3d(i)1). Intermediate filaments could also be clearly seen, intertwined with the actin filaments at FAs (marked with yellow arrowheads in Fig. 3d(i)1,2). In siaTAT1 cells, the actin bundles near FAs were strikingly thinner than those in the controls (Fig. 3d). We consistently observed a lack of microtubules and intermediate filaments associated with FAs in α TAT1-depleted cells (Fig. 3d). All these results strongly support a role for α TAT1 in the cytoskeletal organization at FAs in astrocytes. We then explored the effects of microtubule acetylation on the cytoskeletal organization by treating HUVECs and astrocytes plated on soft substrates with Tubacin to increase microtubule acetylation. In the Tubacin-treated cells, we observed markedly larger actin cables, increased myosin IIA filaments, together with larger and more peripheral FAs (Fig. 3e and Extended Data Fig. 3b), reminiscent of the phenotype observed in astrocyte plates on stiff substrates (Fig. 3f), confirming that microtubule acetylation regulates actomyosin organization.

Microtubule acetylation increases actomyosin contractility via GEF-H1 and Rho

One major impact of mechanosensing is the adaptation of traction forces to the rigidity of the substrate³⁴. We thus investigated whether microtubule acetylation might affect traction forces by plating

Fig. 2 | Microtubule acetylation tunes cell mechanosensitivity. a-c, Inverted fluorescence images of astrocytes transfected with siCtl or si α TAT1-2 (**a**) or treated with niltubacin or tubacin (**b**) and HUVECs treated with Niltubacin or Tubacin (**c**) plated on PAA gels of different rigidities stained for YAP to mark the cell boundary (marked by dotted lines; i) and the ratios of the YAP intensity in the nucleus and cytoplasm (ii). For **a**, n = 49 for 2 kPa siCtl, n = 44 for 2 kPa si α TAT1-2, n = 68 for 48 kPa siCtl and n = 74 for 48 kPa si α TAT1-2; for **b**, n = 49 for 2 kPa Niltubacin, n = 53 for 2 kPa Tubacin, n = 51 for 48 kPa Niltubacin, n = 51 for 48 kPa Tubacin; for **c**, n = 26 for 2 kPa Niltubacin, n = 25 for 2 kPa Tubacin, n = 32 for 48 kPa Niltubacin and n = 26 for 48 kPa Tubacin; for **c**, n = 26 for 2 kPa Niltubacin, n = 25 for 2 kPa Tubacin, n = 32 for 48 kPa Niltubacin and n = 26 for 48 kPa Tubacin; for **c**, n = 26 for 2 kPa Niltubacin, n = 25 for 2 kPa Tubacin, n = 32 for 48 kPa Niltubacin and n = 26 for 48 kPa Tubacin. **d**, WT astrocytes plated on PAA gels of different rigidities stained for α -tubulin and talin (i) and FA density (number of FAs per μm^2 , denoted N μm^{-2}) in different regions of the cells. DAPI, 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole, a DNA stain. (ii). The images shown in (i) correspond to the same cells depicted in Fig. 1a. n = 40 for 1.26 kPa, n = 51 for 2 kPa, n = 94 for 9 kPa and n = 77 for 48 kPa. **e**, **f**. Inverted fluorescence images of astrocytes transfected with siCtl or si α TAT1-2; (**e**) or treated with Niltubacin or Tubacin (**f**) plated on PAA gels of different substrate rigidity and stained for paxillin (i) and FA density in the central region (16 μ m-cell centre) of the cells depicted in **e** and **f** (ii). For **e**, n = 60 for 1.26 kPa siCtl, n = 36 for 1.26 kPa si α TAT1-2; for **f**, n = 59 for 1.26 kPa Niltubacin, n = 45 for 48 kPa Niltubacin and n = 37 for 48 kPa si α TAT1-2; for **f**, n = 59 for 1.26 k

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control or α TAT1-depleted astrocytes onto crossbow-shaped micropatterned hydrogels. Through traction force microscopy (TFM) experiments, we observed that α TAT1 depletion resulted in lower traction force production on 40 kPa substrates (Fig. 4a,b).

In contrast, overexpression of GFP- α TAT1 increased the traction energies and forces, and also rescued the effect observed on α TAT1 knockdown (si α TAT1+GFP- α TAT1; Fig. 4a,b) when astrocytes were plated on 40 kPa. In addition, Tubacin-treated astrocytes on



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soft 2 kPa hydrogels showed increased traction energies and forces, comparable to the control astrocytes plated on 40 kPa (Fig. 4c). We also studied the effects of microtubule acetylation on traction

forces in Tubacin-treated HUVECs plated on soft 2 kPa substrates. Similar to astrocytes, increased microtubule acetylation using Tubacin resulted in higher traction energies and forces in HUVECs **Fig. 3** | **Microtubule acetylation reorganizes the actomyosin and intermediate filament networks. a-c**, Inverted fluorescence images of astrocytes transfected with siCtl or si α TAT1 and stained for actin, pMLC and paxillin (**a**(i)), myosin IIA, acetylated tubulin and α -tubulin (**b**), and vimentin and α -tubulin (**c**), and the percentage of cells with interjunctional transverse arcs (**a**(ii)). Dashed lines indicate the position of the wound. Scale bars in **a-c**, 20 µm. *n*=199 for siCtl and *n*=159 for si α TAT1-2. **d**, Ultrastructural organization of the FA-associated cytoskeleton in siCtl and si α TAT1-2 depleted cells: platinum replica electron microscopy (PREM) survey views of the cytoplasmic surface of the leading edge in siCtl unroofed cells (i) and α TAT1-depleted cells (ii, iii). The boxed regions correspond to FAs. The extracellular space is pseudo-colored in purple. High-magnification views of the boxed images in (i), (ii) and (iii) are shown, labelled (1)-(3), (4) and (5), respectively. In the images in (1) and (3), the white arrows indicate microtubules and the yellow arrowheads denote intermediate filaments; image (3) is a magnification of image (2). Scale bars in (i), (ii) and (iii), 2 µm; scale bars in (1), (2) and (3), 1µm; scale bars in insets of (1), (3), (4) and (5), 200 nm. **e**, HUVECs treated with DMSO or Tubacin, stained for actin, vinculin and myosin IIA. **f**, Astrocytes plated on 2 kPa PAA gels treated with Niltubacin or Tubacin, stained for actin and paxillin. Scale bars in **e**, **f**, 10 µm. In the box-and-whisker plot, the box extends from the 25th to 75th percentile, the whiskers show minimum and maximum values, and the line within the box represents the median. Number of independent experiments = 3 (**a-c**). Statistical tests: paired Student's *t*-test (two-tailed; **a**).

(Fig. 4d). Thus, the level of microtubule acetylation dictates the traction forces exerted on the substrate through FAs. This further illustrates the essential role of the mechanosensitive regulation of microtubules in force transmission.

The crucial role of microtubule acetylation in controlling cytoskeletal organization and traction forces led us to further investigate the molecular mechanisms involved in this process. We focused on RhoA, a small G protein of the Rho family, well known for promoting stress fibre formation and actomyosin contractility through its effector ROCK and pMLC. Pull-down of GTP-bound active RhoA using GST-Rhotekin beads showed that aTAT1 depletion reduced RhoA activity (Fig. 4e), suggesting that microtubule acetylation may promote actomyosin contractility by activating RhoA. RhoA activation is mediated by guanine nucleotide exchange factors (GEFs)³⁵. Amongst these GEFs, GEF-H1 (also known as ARHGEF2) is a microtubule-bound RhoGEF that, when released from microtubules, triggers the Rho-ROCK signalling cascade and cell contractility^{36,37}. It was previously suggested that substrate stiffness correlates with GEF-H1 activity and actomyosin contractility³⁸. In addition, GEF-H1 was recently shown to be controlled by the interaction of microtubules with integrin-mediated adhesions³⁹, leading us to investigate whether integrin-mediated microtubule acetylation could affect the association of GEF-H1 with microtubules. In control astrocytes plated on rigid glass coverslips, GEF-H1 localized partially (approximately 42%) on microtubules, but also in the cytosol, a localization that corresponds to active/released GEF-H1 (Fig. 5a and Extended Data Fig. 5a)⁴⁰. In contrast, in αTAT1-depleted cells, GEF-H1 was predominantly localized on microtubules (approximately 60%; Fig. 5a and Extended Data Fig. 5a). Tubacin treatment of aTAT1-depleted cells led to the release of GEF-H1 into the cytosol, rescuing the effect of aTAT1 depletion and confirming the role of microtubule acetylation in GEF-H1 localization (Fig. 5a and Extended Data Fig. 5a). In control HUVECs, which exhibit relatively low levels of acetylated tubulin, GEF-H1 was mostly bound to microtubules (approximately 50%; Fig. 5b). Similar to astrocytes, the treatment of HUVECs with Tubacin resulted in the release of GEF-H1 into the cytoplasm, with approximately only 38% of GEF-H1 colocalizing on microtubules (Fig. 5b). GEF-H1 association with microtubules was confirmed through GFP immunoprecipitation experiments using HEK cells transfected with GFP-Ctl or GFP-GEF-H1 (Fig. 5c). Similar to nocodazole treatment, which leads to the depolymerization of microtubules, Tubacin treatment (which increases microtubule acetylation) suppressed the binding of GEF-H1 to microtubules (Fig. 5c). Altogether, these results show that microtubule acetylation promotes the release of GEF-H1 from microtubules into the cytoplasm.

We then investigated whether substrate rigidity and α TAT1 play a role in the association of GEF-H1 with microtubules. Astrocytes plated on soft 2 kPa substrates exhibited a higher microtubule-bound portion of GEF-H1 as compared with cells on stiff 48 kPa gels (Fig. 5d and Extended Data Fig. 5b). In α TAT1-depleted cells plated on stiff substrates, GEF-H1 was found predominantly bound to microtubules, mimicking the phenotype observed in cells plated on soft substrates (Fig. 5d and Extended Data Fig. 5b). These results strongly suggest that rigidity-dependent microtubule acetylation contributes to mechanotransduction by enabling RhoA activation and actomyosin contractility.

Microtubule acetylation modulates mechanosensitive cell migration by tuning mechanotransduction at FAs

The involvement of microtubule acetylation in mechanotransduction and in the mechanosensitive regulation of FAs and actomyosin contractility led us to investigate its influence on cell migration, which has often been described as a mechanosensitive cellular response^{2,41}. To this end, we developed a collective migration assay on hydrogels, where microdropping a small amount of a chemical (sodium hydroxide) induced a circular wound in the cell monolayer (Fig. 6a and Supplementary Video 3). Sodium hydroxide treatment did not noticeably alter the hydrogel properties (see Methods). Wild-type (WT) astrocytes migrated significantly more slowly on 2 kPa gels than on 48 kPa gels (Fig. 6b and Supplementary Video 4), implying that astrocyte migration speed is affected by substrate rigidity. Most importantly, aTAT1 depletion abolished the increased cell migration speed observed on stiff 48 kPa gels (Fig. 6c and Supplementary Video 5), so that the migration speed of aTAT1-depleted cells plated on 48 kPa was similar to that of control and αTAT1-depleted cells on 2 kPa soft substrates. In addition, the effects of α TAT1 depletion in cells plated on 48 kPa gels is in line with our previous results on the role of α TAT1 during collective migration on glass coverslips¹³. Thus, we have demonstrated that

Fig. 4 | Microtubule acetylation promotes traction force generation and RhoA activation. a-d, Stress-field maps (i) of astrocytes on crossbow-shaped micropatterned PAA gels of different rigidities, transfected with siCtl or si α TAT1-2 (**a**) or siCtl + GFP- α TAT1 or si α TAT1-2 + GFP- α TAT1 (**b**), or treated with Niltubacin or Tubacin (**c**) or HUVECs treated with Niltubacin or tubacin (**d**), and the corresponding stored energies (ii) of the cells in the above-mentioned conditions. The energies are given in joules and lie within the range of 0 and 5 × 10⁻¹³ J. For **a**, *n* = 163 for siCtl and *n* = 141 for si α TAT1-2; for **b**, *n* = 74 for siCtl + GFP- α TAT1 and *n* = 70 for si α TAT1-2 + GFP- α TAT1; for **c**, *n* = 136 for Niltubacin and *n* = 141 for Tubacin; for **d**, *n* = 83 for Niltubacin and *n* = 82 for Tubacin. **e**, GST-Rhotekin pull-downs were performed using siCtl or si α TAT1-2-transfected astrocytes. The western blots show Ponceau red and are immunoblotted for RhoA. Scale bars in **a-d**, 10 µm. Number of independent experiments = 3 (**a-e**). In the box-and-whisker plots, the box extends from the 25th to the 75th percentile, the whiskers show the minimum and maximum values, and the line within the box represents the median. Statistical tests: one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison's test (**a,b**) and the unpaired Student's t-test (two-tailed; **c,d**).

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microtubule acetylation is required for the mechanosensitive regulation of astrocyte collective migration.

Discussion

Our results show that microtubules are regulated in response to substrate rigidity sensing, and in turn play a key role in mechanotransduction by participating in mechanosensitive cellular responses, including translocation of the transcriptional coactivator YAP, focal adhesion distribution, actomyosin contractility, the generation of traction forces and cell migration (Fig. 6d). Our results point to a mechanism by which talin-mediated mechanosensing downstream of integrin-mediated signalling (Fig. 6d(i)) controls the recruitment of α TAT1 to FAs (Fig. 6d(ii)) and induces microtubule acetylation (Fig. 6d(iii)). We have shown that α TAT1 interacts with talin and





Fig. 5 | Microtubule acetylation promotes the release of GEF-H1 into the cytosol. a, Migrating astrocytes transfected with siCtl, siaTAT1-2 or siaTAT1-2 followed by treatment with Tubacin, stained for acetylated tubulin, α -tubulin and GEF-H1 (i) and the percentage of GEF-H1 colocalized with microtubules (MTs; ii). n = 99 for siaTAT1-2 and n = 72 for siaTAT1-2 + Tubacin. Dashed lines indicate the position of the wound. **b**, HUVECs treated with DMSO (Ctl) or Tubacin, stained for α -tubulin and GEF-H1 (i) and the percentage of GEF-H1 colocalized with microtubules (ii). n = 78 for DMSO Ctl and n = 84 for Tubacin. **c**, Immunoprecipitations using anti-GFP nanobodies were performed with lysates from HEK293 cells transfected with GFP-Ctl or GFP-GEF-H1 and treated with nocodazole or Tubacin. Samples were analysed by immunoblotting using α -tubulin, acetylated tubulin, GEF-H1, GAPDH and GFP antibodies. **d**, Astrocytes transfected with siCtl or siaTAT1-2, and plated on 48 kPa PAA gels, stained for GEF-H1 and α -tubulin (i) and the percentage of GEF-H1 colocalized with microtubules in cells plated on 2 and 48 kPa PAA gels (ii). n = 100 for 48 kPa siCtl, n = 112 for 48 kPa siaTAT1-2, n = 97 for 2 kPa siCtl and n = 86 for 2 kPa α TAT1-2 (1-2 regions per cell). Scale bar in **a**, 20 µm; scale bars in **b**, d, 10 µm. In the box-and-whisker plots, the box extends from the 25th to the 75th percentile, the whiskers show the minimum and maximum values, and the line within the box represents the median. Number of independent experiments = 3 (**a-d**). Statistical tests: ordinary one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison's test (**a**,**d**) and unpaired Student's *t*-test followed by the Mann-Whitney test (**b**).

that, on rigid substrates, talin is required for the recruitment of α TAT1 to FAs, and for the acetylation of microtubules (Fig. 6d(ii)). Although we do not have any clear evidence of a direct interaction of talin with α TAT1, the β_1 -integrin- and actomyosin-dependent association of α TAT1 with talin suggest that tension-induced changes in talin conformation may be involved in inducing α TAT1 recruitment to FAs and microtubule acetylation.

How α TAT1 enters the lumen of microtubules still remains unclear, although one can speculate that α TAT1 accesses the lumen through microtubule lattice defects or through the open ends²¹. Growing microtubule ends are often seen in close proximity to FAs at the leading edge of migrating cells⁸ (Extended Data Fig. 5c). It is very likely that, like other FA-associated proteins, a large proportion of talin-associated α TAT1 rapidly exchanges with the cytosolic pool⁴². This led us to propose a model in which the increased interaction of α TAT1 with talin increases the local concentration of α TAT1 and facilitates its entry into the microtubule lumen through microtubule open ends in the vicinity of adhesions (Fig. 6d(iii) and Extended Data Fig. 5c).

We have shown that microtubule acetylation reorganizes the actomyosin network and promotes traction forces. Therefore, we propose a feedback mechanism involving crosstalk between microtubules and actin wherein actomyosin-dependent mechanosensing promotes microtubule acetylation, which, in turn, facilitates the release of GEF-H1 from microtubules into the cytosol (Fig. 6d(iv)) to increase RhoA activity (Fig. 6d(v)), cell contractility (Fig. 6d(vi)) and traction forces (Fig. 6d(vii)). It was recently shown that the uncoupling of microtubules from FAs results in a similar release of microtubule-bound GEF-H1 into the cytosol³⁹, which then triggers myosin IIA assembly and increased cell contractility through RhoA. Suppression of RhoA activity in the absence of α TAT1 might be due to the sequestering of GEF-H1 by non-acetylated microtubules. Whether microtubule acetylation directly or indirectly induces the release of GEF-H1 remains unclear. One can speculate that acetylation of lysine 40 changes the conformation of α -tubulin and modifies the binding site for GEF-H1, thereby inducing its release from microtubules. Alternatively, acetylation might change the mechanical properties of the microtubule lattice and affect its curvature^{41,42}, which would in turn facilitate the release of GEF-H1 from microtubules. It is also possible that any of the previous mechanisms affect the binding of a GEF-H1 partner, which alters the GEF-H1 conformation (for instance, through phosphorylation) and promotes its release into the cytosol. Interestingly, microtubule acetylation also affects the association of intermediate filaments with actin bundles at FAs. Because intermediate filaments have also been involved in the control of FA dynamics, actomyosin contractility as well as GEF-H1 activity^{32,40}, the microtubule–actin interplay described here may also involve intermediate filaments, whose role in mechanotransduction is still elusive.

In response to substrate rigidity sensing, cells adapt essential functions such as migration⁴³. In the absence of α TAT1, cells plated on stiff substrates produce less traction forces and migrate more slowly (Fig. 6d(viii)). The relationship between forces and migration can be considered counterintuitive for single cell migration where traction forces appear to correlate with migration speed; and contractile forces are required for migration, but exaggerated traction forces tend to slow or even stop migration⁴⁴. In fact, measurements of the traction forces exerted by astrocytes plated on substrates of various rigidities show that there is a rigidity optimum (around 50 kPa) at which the forces are maximal (Extended Data Fig. 5d). When looking at microtubule acetylation, actomyosin contractility or cell migration, it is clear that all of them increase up to about 48 kPa and then reach a plateau or even decrease when cells are plated on glass, indicative of a non-monotonous response. In collective cell migration, the distribution of forces within the migrating monolayer, more than the intensity itself, is crucial for the efficient control of collective cell migration. Also, collective cell migration relies on the transmission of forces between the leaders and followers. Cell-cell junctions not only transmit forces between cells, but help maintain the integrity of the monolayer^{26,45}, which improves collective and

Fig. 6 | Microtubule acetylation is required for mechanosensitive migration. a-c, Phase contrast images of WT astrocytes (**a**,**b**) or astrocytes transfected with siCtl or si α TAT1 (**c**) migrating in a chemical wound assay on PAA gels of different rigidities for 24 h (i), and migration speed of cells at the wound edge (ii). In the phase contrast images, the pink and orange dotted lines show the initial and final wound edge, respectively. *n*=123 for 2kPa WT, *n*=117 for 9kPa WT, *n*=115 for 48 kPa WT, *n*=91 for 2 kPa siCtl, *n*=95 for 2 kPa si α TAT1-2, *n*=93 for 48 kPa siCtl and *n*=93 for 48 kPa si α TAT1-2. Scale bar in **a**, 200 µm; scale bars in **b**,**c**, 100 µm. Number of independent experiments = 3 (**b**,**c**). Statistical tests: one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison's test. In the box-and-whisker plots, the box extends from the 25th to the 75th percentile, the whiskers show the minimum and maximum values, and the line within the box represents the median. **d**, We can propose the following working models. Cells sensing a soft substrate (i) with altered integrin-signalling (ii) exhibit less microtubule acetylation (iii). This results in the binding of GEF-H1 to MTs (iv) and therefore they are unable to activate RhoA (v), which renders the cell less contractile (vi). In such conditions, cells generate low traction forces (vii) and migrate more slowly (viii). On the other hand, on stiff substrates, integrin- and talin-mediated rigidity sensing (i) promotes the tension-dependent recruitment of α TAT1 to FAs (ii) and increased microtubule acetylation (iii). How α TAT1 enters the lumen of microtubules still remains unclear, although one can speculate that the recruitment of α TAT1 at FAs increases the local cytosolic pool of the protein, which can then enter microtubules through microtubule lattice defects or through the open ends of microtubules in close proximity to FAs (Extended Data Fig. 5c). Microtubule acetylation triggers the release of GEF-H1 from MTs (iv), which activates the RhoA-

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directed cell migration. Alteration of microtubule acetylation did not induce any detachment of leader cells from followers, and did not affect directionality or persistence of migration¹³. Therefore, we propose a model in which, on stiff substrates, increased microtubule acetylation would trigger higher traction forces in leader cells, which would transmit these pulling forces to followers and increase collective migration speed. Microtubule acetylation may also affect cell migration by controlling FA dynamics. We have previously demonstrated that microtubule acetylation promotes the fusion of Rab6-dependent post-Golgi carriers at FAs and increases FA turnover¹³, such that they are continuously renewed at the front of leader cells. Depletion of α TAT1 (like that of Rab6) alters the distribution of FAs in migrating cells¹³. The change in FA distribution between the cell centre and the cell periphery suggests that rigidity-induced acetylation of microtubules may promote FA turnover during cell spreading, thereby excluding them from the cell centre. We speculate



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that the increase in FA turnover together with the increase in cell contractility participate in strengthening the traction forces exerted on FAs concentrated at the leader cell wound edge and improve astrocyte collective migration (Fig. 6d(viii)).

In conclusion, our results reveal crosstalk between the actin and microtubule cytoskeletal networks (Fig. 6d) whereby microtubule acetylation, downstream of rigidity-dependent integrin-mediated signalling, alters actomyosin contractility as well as focal adhesion distribution and dynamics to promote mechanosensitive migration of astrocytes, thus closing a crucial feedback loop governing mechanotransduction at FAs (Fig. 6d).

Online content

Any methods, additional references, Nature Research reporting summaries, source data, extended data, supplementary information, acknowledgements, peer review information; details of author contributions and competing interests; and statements of data and code availability are available at https://doi.org/10.1038/ s41563-021-01108-x.

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Methods

Cell culture. Primary astrocytes were obtained from E17 rat embryos¹². These animals were used in compliance with ethical regulations and with approval from the Prefecture de Police and Direction départementale des services vétérinaires de Paris. Astrocytes were grown in 1 gl⁻¹ glucose DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS (Invitrogen), 1% penicillin–streptomycin (Gibco) and 1% amphotericin B (Gibco) under 5% CO₂ at 37°C. HUVECs were cultured in EGM-2 BulletKit medium (Lonza, catalogue no. CC-3162).

Cell nucleofection. Astrocytes were transfected with Lonza glial transfection solution and electroporated with a Nucleofector device (Lonza). The cells were then plated on appropriate supports previously coated with poly-L-ornithine (Sigma). Experiments were carried out 3 or 4 days post-transfection and comparable protein silencing was observed. siRNAs were used at 1 nmol and DNA was used at 5 µg. The siRNA sequences used were luciferase (control): 5'-UAAG GCUAUGAAGAGAUAC-3'; αTAT1 rat (siαTAT1-1): 5'-ACCGACACGUUAUU UAUGU-3' and 5'-UUCGAAACCUGCAGGAACG-3'; αTAT1 rat (siαTAT1-2): 5'-UAAUGGAUGUACUCAUUCA-3' and 5'-UCAUGACUAUUGAUGAGA-3', 5'-GACCCCAC; tuUCCAGGAUAUU-3', 5'-GCUGGAAGCUGUGGAUAACCU-3' and 5'-GACC UCCACCCCUGAAGAUUU-3'; β₁ integrin: 5'-AUUGCCAGAUGGAGUAACA-3'.

The constructs used were GFP- α TAT1 and GST- α TAT1 (gifts from Philippe Chavrier, Institut Curie, and Guillaume Montagnac, Institut Gustave Roussy) and mCherry-vinculin. si α TAT1-1 and si α TAT1-2 were pools of two siRNAs each. For all experiments, si α TAT1-2 was used due to better knockdown efficiency, as seen in Extended Data Fig. 1a and previously characterized¹³. A few important experiments were carried out with si α TAT1-1, and the results are shown in Extended Data Figs. 1a-c, 3g,h, 4a and 5a.

Cell treatment. Cells were treated with 5–10 μ M Tubacin (Sigma SMLOO65), 10 μ M Niltubacin (negative control for Tubacin; Enzo Life Sciences) or DMSO (control). HUVECs were treated for 3 h, and astrocytes for 6 h. Similarly, RGD peptide (Enzo Life Sciences) or RGE control peptide (Enzo Life Sciences) was added prior to wounding. The ROCK inhibitor Y-27632 or MnCl₂ (1 μ M) were added 6 h after wounding and 2 h before fixation. For TIRF experiments, 10 μ M nocodazole or Y-27632 was added after 15 min of acquisition. For pull-downs, 10 μ M nocodazole or Y-27632 was added 1 h before cell lysis.

Preparation of homogeneously coated PAA hydrogels. The protocol used to prepare PAA hydrogels was adapted from refs. ^{41,46,47}. Coverslips were plasma-cleaned for 3 min and silanized for 10 min using a solution of 1% (v/v) 3-(trimethoxysilyl)propyl methacrylate and 1% (v/v) acetic acid in ethanol. The coverslips were then washed twice with absolute ethanol and dried. A solution of PAA 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid (HEPES; the proportions of acrylamide and bisacrylamide in the solution define the rigidity of the hydrogel) was prepared. Then, 2.5 µl 10% ammonium persulfate (APS) and 0.25 µl tetramethylethylenediamine (TEMED) were added and the solution was mixed well. A 50 µl drop of the solution was placed on each coverslip $(20 \times 20 \text{ mm})$ and immediately an 18×18 mm coverslip was placed gently over the solution. The solution was allowed to polymerize for 1 h at room temperature. HEPES was added over the coverslips to detach the top glass. The polymerized gel was then activated under ultraviolet light for 5 min using Sulpho-SANPAH and washed with HEPES twice. The hydrogels were then coated with 100 µg ml-1 of rat tail collagen I overnight at 4 °C. The excess collagen was washed once with PBS and approximately 5 × 104 cells ml-1 were plated on the hydrogels.

Micropatterning. Coverslips were plasma-cleaned for 45 s and incubated with 0.1 mg ml⁻¹ poly-L-lysine/polyethylene glycol (PLL-PEG) diluted in 10 mM HEPES for 30 min at room temperature. Excess PLL-PEG was allowed to slide down the coverslips by gravity, and the coverslips were then dried and stored at 4 °C overnight before printing. Micropatterns were printed on the previously prepared PLL-PEG coverslips for 3 min with specifically designed chrome masks and coated with a 50:50 (v/v) fibronectin–fibrinogen mixture (20 µg ml⁻¹ each) diluted in fresh NaHCO₃ (pH 8.3, 100 mM) for 30 min at room temperature. The micropatterned coverslips were washed three times in NaHCO₃ and used immediately for transfer onto the solution of PAA hydrogel prepared in water. Plated cells (approximately 6×10^4 cells ml⁻¹) were allowed to adhere for 16 h before imaging/fixation. The crossbow patterns had an area of ~2,500 µm².

Traction force experiments on micropatterned substrates. After printing and coating the micropatterned coverslips, gel mixtures were prepared as follows: 40.4 kPa: 100 µl 40% acrylamide, 120 µl 2% bisacrylamide and 280 µl water (to give a final concentration of 8% acrylamide and 0.48% bisacrylamide in water); 2.61 kPa: 50 µl 40% acrylamide, 25 µl 2% bisacrylamide and 425 µl water (for a final concentration of 8% acrylamide and 0.048% bisacrylamide in water). Set, 5 µl fluorescent microbeads (FluoSpheres, Molecular Probes) were incubated with 0.1 mg ml⁻¹ PLL-PEG on a rotator for 1 h at 4°C prior to mixing with the gel mixture. The PLL-PEG-coated beads were washed and centrifuged three times at 1,000 r.p.m. for 10 min with 10 mM HEPES. These beads were then mixed with

165 µl of the gel mixture. After adding 1 µl APS and 1 µl TEMED, the solution was added as a 25 µl drop onto a silanized 20 × 20 mm coverslip. The protein-coated micropatterned coverslip was then gently placed on top of the gel mixture. The solution was allowed to polymerize for 25 min at room temperature. After detaching the micropatterned glass from the polymerized gel, 6×10^4 cells ml⁻¹ were plated on the gels and allowed to adhere and spread for 16h before TFM experiments. Stacks of single micropatterned cells were acquired before and after trypsin treatment. The acquisitions were performed with a Nikon Eclipse Ti-E epifluorescence inverted microscope with a ×40 0.6 numerical aperture (NA) air objective equipped with a pco.edge sCMOS camera and Metamorph software. Cells were maintained under 5% CO₂ at 37 °C in normal astrocyte medium during acquisition.

Migration assays. For in vitro wound-healing assays, cells were plated on the appropriate supports (dishes, plates, coverslips or glass-bottom MatTek) and grown to confluence. The cell monolayer was scratched with a p200 pipette tip to induce migration and imaged during 8 h.

For migration on soft substrates, cells were plated on hydrogels of different rigidities in six-well glass-bottom plates (MatTek) and allowed to grow for 72 h after transfection before creating a chemical wound. NaOH (0.05 M) was gently dropped onto the cells using a microinjector. The NaOH was used to instantly kill and detach cells localized in a region of a few hundred micrometres. The NaOH was added with a microinjector to deliver a fraction of a nanolitre of NaOH (0.05 M) onto a cell monolayer, which immediately mixed with 2 ml of the culture medium present in the culture dish. The dead cells and debris were gently washed away using PBS. Fresh medium was added to the cells. The cells were then placed on the microscope for live imaging. In these conditions, the hydrogel was only very locally and briefly exposed to the chemical. As the cells migrated into this space (wounded area of the monolayer), the fibronectin coating and the surface of the hydrogel remained intact with negligible and unnoticeable changes. NaOH treatment did not affect the weight of the gel, indicative of gel swelling, it did not induce any detectable bead movements, indicative of gel contraction or expansion of the gel, nor did it affect the traction forces of cells, indicating that cells did not sense any difference in substrate rigidity. Acquisition commenced 30 min after wounding. Supplementary videos were acquired with a Zeiss Axiovert 200M or Nikon Eclipse Ti-E epifluorescence inverted microscope with cells maintained under 5% CO₂ at 37 °C. All images were acquired with a dry objective $\times 100.45$ NA and an EMCCD camera/pco.edge sCMOS camera and Metamorph software. Images were acquired every 15 min for 24 h. The nuclei of leader cells were manually tracked with Fiji software (Manual Tracking plug-in).

Immunostaining. Cells were fixed with cold methanol for 3 min at -20 °C or 4% warm paraformaldehyde (PEA) or 4% PEA + 0.2% glutaraldehyde + 0.25% Triton X-100 for 10 min at 37 °C. After fixation with PFA, glutaraldehyde and Triton X-100, free aldehyde groups were quenched with a solution of 1 mg ml⁻¹ sodium borohydride (Sigma-Aldrich) freshly added to cytoskeletal buffer (10 mM MES or MOPS, 150 mM NaCl, 5 mM ethylene glycol-bis(β -aminoethyl ether)-*N*,*N*,*N'*,*N'*-tetraacetic acid (EGTA), 5 mM MgCl₂ and 5 mM glucose, pH 6.1) for 10 min on ice. The cells were permeabilized for 5 min with 0.1% Triton X-100 in the case of PFA fixation. The coverslips were blocked for 1 h with 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in PBS. The same solution was used for primary and secondary antibody incubation for 1 h. The nuclei were stained for DAPI and the coverslips were mounted with Prolong Gold.

Antibody anti-acetylated tubulin (1:10,000; clone 6-11B-1, mouse monoclonal, T-6793 Sigma-Aldrich or 1:200; clone 6-11B-1, ab24610, Abcam), anti-poly-Glu tubulin (1:1,000; AbC0101, ValBiotech), anti-α-tubulin (1:1,000; MCA77G, rat, Biorad), anti-paxillin (1:500; 610051, mouse monoclonal, lot 5246880, BD and ab32084, rabbit monoclonal, clone Y133, lot GR215998-1, Abcam), anti-talin (1:1,000; T3287, mouse monoclonal, clone 8D4, lot 035M4805V; Sigma-Aldrich), anti-GEF-H1 (1:100; ab155785, Abcam), Alexa Fluor 647 phalloidin (1:2,000; 176759, lot GR278180-3, Abcam or 1:300; Thermo Fisher Scientific), anti-vimentin (1:200; V6630, mouse monoclonal, lot 10M4831, Sigma-Aldrich), anti-pMLC (1:1,000; 3675S, S19, mouse, Cell Signaling), anti-myosin IIA (1:1,000; non-muscle, M8064, rabbit polyclonal, Sigma-Aldrich), anti-vinculin (1:400; V9131, Sigma-Aldrich). Secondary antibodies were Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-rabbit (711-545-152), tetramethylrhodamine (TRITC) donkey anti-rabbit (711-025-152), Alexa Fluor 647 donkey anti-rabbit (711-695-152), Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-mouse (715-545-151), rhodamine (TRITC) donkey anti-mouse (715-025-151), Alexa Fluor 647 donkey anti-rat (711-605-152) and Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-rat (712-545-153); all these secondary antibodies were from Jackson ImmunoResearch. Images were acquired with a Leica DM6000 microscope equipped with a ×40 1.25 NA or ×63 1.4 NA objective and recorded on a CCD camera with Leica software.

TIRF microscopy. Images were acquired with a Nikon Eclipse Ti-E epifluorescence inverted microscope with a $\times 60$ 1.49 NA oil objective equipped with a pco.edge sCMOS camera with Metamorph software. The cells were maintained under 5% CO₂ at 37 °C in normal astrocyte medium. After acquiring a 15 min movie of GFP- α TAT1 and mCherry-vinculin, nocodazole or Y27 was added and images were acquired every 2 min for 1 h.

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Transmission electron microscopy. Adherent migrating astrocytes plated on glass coverslips were disrupted by sonication as described previously48. The coverslips were unroofed by scanning the coverslip with rapid sonicator pulses in KHMgE buffer (70 mM KCl, 30 mM HEPES, 5 mM MgCl₂ and 3 mM EGTA, pH 7.2). The cells, fixed with 2% paraformaldehyde and 2% glutaraldehyde, were further treated sequentially with 0.5% OsO4, 1% tannic acid and 1% uranyl acetate prior to graded ethanol dehydration and hexamethyldisilazane substitution (Sigma-Aldrich). The samples were dried and then rotary-shadowed with 2 nm of platinum and 5-8 nm of carbon using an ACE600 high-vacuum metal coater (Leica Microsystems). Platinum replicas were floated off the glass using 5% hydrofluoric acid, washed several times by floatation on distilled water and picked up on 200 mesh formvar/ carbon-coated PREM grids. The grids were mounted in a eucentric side-entry goniometer stage of a transmission electron microscope operated at 80 kV (Philips, model CM120) and images were recorded with a Morada digital camera (Olympus). The images were processed in Adobe Photoshop to adjust brightness and contrast, and presented in inverted contrast.

Image analysis. The normalized mean intensity levels of acetylated and detyrosinated tubulin in the immunofluorescence images were calculated according to equation (1):

Ratio of acetylated/detyrosinated tubulin level

$$= \frac{Acceylated/detyrosinated tubulin intensity}{Total tubulin intensity}.$$
 (1)

The YAP nuclear/cytoplasmic ratio was calculated according to equation (2):

$$AP \text{ nuclear/cytoplasmic ratio} = \frac{\text{Intensity of YAP in the nucleus}}{\text{Intensity of YAP in the cytoplasm}}.$$
 (2)

The FA density was calculated according to equation (3):

$$FA \text{ density} = \frac{\text{Number of FAs in the region}}{\text{Area of the region}}.$$
 (3)

Different regions of cells (entire cell, cell periphery-8 µm, 8-16 µm, 16 µm-cell centre) were analysed, as depicted in Extended Data Fig. 2d.

For migration assays, the nuclei of cells were manually tracked to determine the speed, directionality and persistence of migration. The mean velocity (ν), persistance (p) and directionality (d) of cell migration were calculated according to equations (4)–(6) for a given (x, y) coordinate of leading cell nucleus:

$$v = \frac{\Sigma \vartheta}{n} \tag{4}$$

(7)

$$p = \frac{\sqrt{\left[(x_{24} - x_0)^2 + (y_{24} - y_0)^2\right]}}{\sum \sqrt{\left[(x_n - x_{n-1})^2 + (y_n - y_{n-1})^2\right]}}$$
(5)

$$d = \frac{|(x_0 - x_{24})|}{\sum \vartheta \sqrt{\left[(x_n - x_{n-1})^2 + (y_n - y_{n-1})^2\right]}}$$
(6)

where *n* is the number of time points acquired and ϑ is the cell velocity.

The TFM images of the micropatterns were analysed using a custom-designed macro in Fiji based on a previousl study⁴⁹. The topmost planes of beads before and after trypsinization were selected and aligned using a normalized cross-correlation algorithm (Align Slices in the Stack plug-in). The displacement field was computed from bead movements using particle image velocimetry (PIV). The parameters for the PIV analysis comprised three interrogation windows of 128, 64 and 32 pixels with a correlation of 0.60. Traction forces were calculated from the displacement field using Fourier transform traction cytometry and a Young's modulus of 40 or 2 kPa, a regularization factor of 10^{-9} and a Poisson ratio of 0.5.

For the localization of GEF-H1 on microtubules, the percentage GEF-H1 on microtubules was calculated as shown in equation (7):

Percentage intensity of GEF - H1 localization on MT

$$= \frac{\text{Intensity of GEF} - H1 \text{ on microtubules}}{\text{Intensity of GEF} - H1 \text{ outside microtubules}} \times 100.$$

Immunoprecipitations and pull-down assays. Cell lysates were prepared by scraping cells in 1× lysis buffer (10× buffer recipe: 50 mM Tris pH 7.5, Triton X-100 20%, NP40 10%, 2 M NaCl with complete protease inhibitor tablet, Roche) and centrifuged for 30 min at 13,000 rp.m. at 4°C to pellet the cell debris. Soluble detergent extracts were incubated with GFP-Trap agarose beads (Chromotek, GTP-20) for immunoprecipitation and with GST or GST-arTAT1 beads for affinity purification for 2 h at 4°C before washing three times with wash buffer (50 mM Tris pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% Triton X-100, 1 mM EDTA and 2.5 mM MgCl₂).

The resin was then mixed with Laemmli buffer and used for western blot and mass spectrometry analyses. HEK293 cells were used for mass spectrometry analysis to have sufficient protein from cells expressing α TAT1.

Mass spectrometry. Proteins on beads were washed twice with 100 ul of 25 mM NH4HCO3, and on-bead digestion was performed with 0.2 µg trypsin/Lys-C (Promega) for 1 h in 100 µl of 25 mM NH4HCO3. The samples were then loaded onto a home-made C18 StageTips for desalting. Peptides were eluted using 40:60 MeCN:H2O+0.1% formic acid and vacuum-concentrated to dryness. Online chromatography was performed with an RSLCnano instrument (Ultimate 3000, Thermo Scientific) coupled to an Orbitrap Fusion Tribrid mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific). Peptides were trapped on a C18 column (75 µm inner diameter × 2 cm; nanoViper Acclaim PepMapTM 100, Thermo Scientific) with buffer A (2:98 MeCN:H₂O+0.1% formic acid) at a flow rate of 4.0µl min⁻¹ over 4 min. Separation was performed on a 50 cm × 75 µm C18 column (nanoViper Acclaim PepMapTM RSLC, 2 µm, 100 Å, Thermo Scientific) regulated to a temperature of 55 °C with a linear gradient of 5 to 25% buffer B (100% MeCN+0.1% formic acid) at a flow rate of 300 nl min-1 over 100 min. Full-scan mass spectra were acquired with the Orbitrap analyser with the resolution set to 120,000 and ions from each full scan were HCD-fragmented and analysed in the linear ion trap.

For identification, the data were searched against the Homo sapiens (UP000005640) SwissProt database using Sequest^{HF} through Proteome Discoverer (version 2.2). The enzyme specificity was set to trypsin and a maximum of two missed cleavage sites were allowed. Oxidized methionine, N-terminal acetylation and carbamidomethyl cysteine were set as variable modifications. The maximum allowed mass deviation was set to 10 ppm for monoisotopic precursor ions and 0.6 Da for tandem mass spectroscopy peaks. The resulting files were further processed using myProMS (v3.6, work in progress)⁵⁰. False discovery rate (FDR) calculations were performed using Percolator and the FDR at the peptide level was set to 1% for the whole study. The label-free quantifications were performed by analysing peptide extracted ion chromatograms (XICs) computed with MassChroQ (version 2.2)51. XICs from proteotypic peptides shared between compared conditions (TopN matching) with no missed cleavages were used for protein quantification. Median and scale normalization were applied to the total signal to correct the XICs for each biological replicate. To estimate the significance of the change in protein abundance, a linear model (adjusted on peptides and biological replicates) was performed and P values were adjusted using a Benjamini-Hochberg FDR procedure with the control threshold set to 0.05. Upregulated proteins with at least three proteotypic peptides (fold change > 1.5 and P < 0.05) and the unique proteins identified only in the GFP- α TAT1 were used for gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis using GO:: TermFinder tools (https://doi. org/10.1093/bioinformatics/bth456) through myProMS.

The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited with the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE (refs. ^{52,53}) partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD015871.

Rho activation assay. Rho activation assays were performed using a RhoA Pull-down Activation Assay Biochem Kit (Cytoskeleton, BK036-S). In short, cells were lysed in ice-cold cell lysis buffer plus 1× protease inhibitor cocktail. The cells were then centrifuged at 10,000 g at 4°C for 10 min to pellet the cell membranes and insoluble material. Part of the supernatant was stored as input for western blot analysis. The remaining supernatant was divided equally into two parts (300–800 µg protein per tube). Next, 1/15th the volume of loading buffer was added to each tube (final concentration 15 mM). Then, 1/100th the volume of GTPγS was added to one of the tubes and used as a positive control (final concentration 0.2 mM). All tubes were incubated at room temperature for 15 min. The reaction was stopped by adding 1/10th the volume of STOP buffer to all tubes (final concentration 60 mM).

Rhotekin-RBD (50µg) beads were resuspended and added to the tubes. The tubes were rotated at 4 °C for 1 h and centrifuged at 5,000g at 4 °C for 3 min. The beads were washed with 500µl each of wash buffer. Finally, 10–20µl of Laemmli sample buffer was added to each tube.

Western blot. Cells lysates were obtained with Laemmli buffer composed of 60 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 10% glycerol, 2% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) and 50 mM dithiothreitol (DTT) with the addition of anti-protease (cOmplete cocktail, Roche 11 873 588 001). Samples were boiled for 5 min at 95 °C before loading on PAA gels. Transfer took place at 100 V for 1 h on nitrocellulose membranes. Membranes were blotted with Tris-buffered saline, 0.1% Tween 20 detergent (TBST) and 5% milk and incubated for 1 h with the primary antibody and 1 h with horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated secondary antibody. Bands were revealed using ECL chemoluminescent substrate (Biorad).

The primary antibodies used were antibody anti-acetylated tubulin (1:10,000; clone 6-11B-1, mouse monoclonal, T-6793, Sigma-Aldrich), anti- α TAT1 (1:400; rabit, HPA046816, Atlas Antibodies), anti-poly-Glu tubulin (1:1,000; AbC0101, ValBiotech), anti- α -tubulin (1:1,000; MCA77G, rat, Biorad), anti- β_1 integrin (ab52971, Abcam), anti-talin (1:1,000; T3287, mouse monoclonal, clone 8D4, lot 035M4805V, Sigma-Aldrich), anti-GEF-H1 (1:100; ab155785, Abcam) and anti-GAPDH (MAB374, lot 2689153 Millipore). The secondary HRP antibodies

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were all purchased from Jackson ImmunoResearch. The unmodified western blots of Figs. 1, 4 and 5, and Extended Data Figs. 1–3 can be found in the corresponding Source data files.

Graphs and statistics. Graphpad Prism was used to create all graphs and perform all statistical analyses.

Reporting Summary. Further information on research design is available in the Nature Research Reporting Summary linked to this article.

Data availability

The data supporting the findings of this study are available within the manuscript. The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited with the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE (refs. ^{52,53}) partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD015871. Source data are provided with this paper. Other raw data generated during this study are available on reasonable request.

Code availability

Codes for focal adhesion distribution and traction forces are available from the authors upon request.

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Author contributions

S.S. designed and performed the experiments, analysed and interpreted the results, and wrote the paper; B.V. assisted in the set-up and analysis of TFM experiments, and helped with data interpretation and discussions; V.R. performed immunoprecipitation and pull-down experiments; A.J.F. carried out a part of the experiments using HUVECs; C.D.P. helped with experimental techniques and discussions; B.B. optimized the GFP nanobody and IP conditions used for mass spectrometry sample preparation and helped set up the chemical wound assay; F.D. carried out the MS experimental work; D.L. supervised the MS experiments and data analysis; S.V. performed the PREM experiments; A.B. helped with data interpretation and discussions; M.T. provided ideas and assisted data interpretation and discussions; S.E.-M. supervised the project, interpreted the results and wrote the paper.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

Extended data is available for this paper at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41563-021-01108-x. **Supplementary information** The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41563-021-01108-x.

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Extended Data Fig. 1 | See next page for caption.

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Extended Data Fig. 1 [**Substrate rigidity regulates** α **TAT1- dependent microtubule acetylation. a, b, (a. i)** Schematic and (**a. ii, b. i**) western blots showing (**a**) acetylation and (**b**) α TAT1 levels using two distinct sets of siRNAs targeting α TAT1 (si α TAT1-1 and si α TAT1-2), and Tubacin (an inhibitor of HDAC6 (deacetylase)); (**a. iii, a. iv**) ratio of the acetylated tubulin or (**b. ii**) α TAT1 intensity over GAPDH intensity, normalized to the values observed for the respective controls. **c.** Migrating astrocytes transfected with siCtl, (**c. i**) si α TAT1-1 and (**c. ii**) si α TAT1-2, or treated with Tubacin prior to wounding, showing acetylated tubulin and α -tubulin. **d.** Astrocytes plated on PAA gels of different rigidities and treated with Tubacin; ratio of the intensities of Acetylated tubulin over total Tubulin of each cell; n = 49 for 1.26 kPa WT, 51 for 1.26 kPa Tubacin, 72 for 48 kPa WT, 66 for 48 kPa Tubacin. **e**, siCtl or WT astrocytes plated on crossbow-shaped micropatterned hydrogels of different rigidities, (**e. i**) showing Acetylated tubulin and α -tubulin; (**e. ii**) ratio of the intensities of Acetylated tubulin over total Tubulin of each cell; n = 86 for 2 kPa and 103 for 48 kPa. **f**, Astrocytes plated on PAA gels of different rigidities, (**f. i**) stained with Detyrosinated tubulin and α -tubulin; (**f. ii**) ratio of Detyrosinated tubulin over total tubulin intensities in each cell; n = 39 for 2 kPa, 31 for 9 kPa and 40 for 48 kPa. **g**, (**g. ii**) Western blots showing the levels of Detyrosinated tubulin and GAPDH in astrocytes plated on PAA gels of different substrate rigidities; (**g. ii**) ratio of the intensities of Detyrosinated tubulin over GAPDH normalized to the values observed for 2 kPa. **Scale bar (c, e, f**): 10 µm; **Number of independent experiments** = 4 (for a - si α TAT1), 6 (for a - Tubacin, **c, g**), 3 (for **b**), 5 (for **e**), 2 (for **f**). In box-and-whisker plots, box extends from the 25th to 75th percentile, whiskers show minimum and maximum values, and the li

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Extended Data Fig. 2 | See next page for caption.

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Extended Data Fig. 2 | Integrin signaling controls microtubule acetylation and αTAT1 localization. a, b, Astrocytes were treated with (a) RGD control or RGD peptides, (**b**) solvant (Ctl) or MnCl₂, and (**a**. **i**, **b**. **i**) stained for acetylated tubulin, α -tubulin, paxillin or DAPI; (**a**. **ii**, **b**. **ii**) ratio of the intensities of Acetylated tubulin over total Tubulin; n = 146 for RGD control, 99 for RGD peptide, 116 for Ctl and 105 for MnCl₂. c. d, Astrocytes were transfected with siCtl or siß, integrin; (c. i) Western blots showing levels of β, integrin, Acetylated tubulin and GAPDH; (c. ii, iii) ratio of intensities of β, integrin or Acetylated tubulin over GAPDH, normalized to the levels in siCtl respectively; (d. i) stained for Acetylated tubulin, α -tubulin and DAPI; (d. ii) ratio of the intensities of Acetvlated tubulin over total Tubulin; n = 122 for siCtl and 117 for si β_1 integrin. **e**, Astrocytes were treated with Ctl, Src kin 1 or PF-562271; (e. i) stained for Acetylated tubulin, α-tubulin and Paxillin; (e. ii) ratio of the intensities of Acetylated tubulin over total Tubulin intensity; n = 78 for Ctl, 70 for Src kin 1, 79 for PF-562271. f, Astrocytes were plated on 48 kPa gels and treated with Ctl or Src kin 1. (f. i) Western blots showing the levels of Acetylated tubulin and GAPDH; (f. ii) ratio of the intensities of Acetylated tubulin over GAPDH normalized to the Ctl. g, Volcano plot analysis showing fold changes $(GFP-\alpha TAT1/GFP-CtI)$ of the quantified proteins with threshold of >3 peptides, minimum absolute fold change of 1.5 (green lines) and maximum adjusted p-value of 0.05 (red line). Enriched protein interactors related to GO:0005925 focal adhesion (red boxes; ratio = 1.98 and p = 7.89 ×10⁻⁵). External plots show proteins with peptides identified only in one sample type (left in GFP-Ctl and right in GFP-αTAT1). h, i, Normalized Talin interaction in (h) GST-pulldown and (i) GFP-immunoprecipitations. j, Western blots (j. i) showing the levels of Talin and GAPDH in astrocytes transfected with siCtl and siTalin; (j. ii) ratio of the intensities of Talin over GAPDH normalized to the Ctl. k, l, Astrocytes showing (k) GFP-aTAT1 localization by epifluorescence, on microtubules, (I) by TIRF, at FAs, in cells treated with or without nocodazole. Scale bar (a, b, d, e, k, I): 10 µm; Number of independent experiments = 3 (for a-d, h-j), 2 (for e), 4 (for f, g), 5 (for l). In box-and-whisker plots, the box extends from the 25th to the 75th percentile, whiskers show the minimum and maximum values, and the line within the box represents the median; Statistical tests: Student's t-test (for a-j).



Extended Data Fig. 3 | See next page for caption.

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Extended Data Fig. 3 | Microtubule acetylation controls focal adhesion distribution. a, HUVECs plated on different substrate rigidities and (**a**. **i**) stained for Acetylated tubulin (insets shown) and α -Tubulin; (**a**. **ii**) ratio of the intensities of Acetylated tubulin over total Tubulin of each cell; n = 46 for 2 kPa WT and 70 for 48 kPa. **b**, HUVECs treated with Niltubacin (CtI) or Tubacin, and stained for Acetylated tubulin (insets shown), α -tubulin and Paxillin. **c**, Western blots showing (**c**. **i**) Acetylated and α -tubulin levels in HUVECs treated with DMSO (CtI) and Tubacin; (**c**. **ii**) ratio of intensities of Acetylated tubulin over α -tubulin. **d**, Schematic representation of the different cell regions used to quantify FA density (Fig. 2d-f). **e**, **f**, Graphs show FA density (number of FAs/µm²) in different regions of astrocytes transfected with siCtl or si α TAT1-2, or treated with Niltubacin or Tubacin, and plated on 1.26 kPa or 48 kPa substrates. **g**, **h**, Graphs show FA density (number of FAs/µm²) in different regions of astrocytes transfected with siCtl or si α TAT1-2, transfected astrocytes plated on crossbow-shaped micropatterned polyacrylamide gels of 40 kPa or 2 kPa, (**i**. **i**) stained with Paxillin and α -tubulin; (**i**. **ii**) FA density (number of FAs/µm²) within 8-16 µm layer of the cell, or (**i**. **iii**) in different regions of astrocytes transfected with siCtl or si α TAT1-2, and plated on 2 kPa or 40 kPa substrates. Scale bar (**a**, **b**, **i**): 10 µm. Number of independent experiments = 2 (for **a**), 3 (for **b**, **e**-**i**). In box-and-whisker plots, the box extends from the 25th to the 75th percentile, the whiskers show the minimum and maximum values, and the line within the box represents the median. Statistical tests: Paired Student's t-test (for **c**), one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test (for **e**-**i**).



Extended Data Fig. 4 | Microtubule acetylation promotes acto-myosin contractility. a, Astrocytes transfected with siCtl or si α TAT1-1, and (**a. i**) stained for Actin, Paxillin and Myosin IIa; (**a. ii**) percentage of siCtl or si α TAT1-transfected astrocytes with transverse interjunctional actin arcs; n = 191 for siCtl and 125 for si α TAT1-1; **Scale bar**: 10 µm. **Number of independent experiments** = 3; **Statistical test:** Paired Student's t-test (two-tailed).

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Extended Data Fig. 5 | See next page for caption.

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Extended Data Fig. 5 | Microtubule acetylation controls GEF-H1 association with microtubules. a, Migrating astrocytes transfected with siCtl, si α TAT1-1 and si α TAT1-1 treated with Tubacin, (**a**. **i**) stained for Acetylated tubulin, α -tubulin and GEF-H1; (**a**. **ii**) percentage of GEF-H1 colocalized with microtubules; n = 119 for siCtl, 131 for si α TAT1-1, 103 for si α TAT1-1 + Tubacin. **b**, Astrocytes transfected with siCtl and si α TAT1-2, and plated on 2 kPa PAA gels, stained for GEF-H1 and α -tubulin. **c**, Ultrastructural organization of a focal adhesion at the leading edge of a control astrocyte. Platinum replica electron microscopy (PREM) high magnification view of a focal adhesion on the cytoplasmic surface of the leading edge in siCtl unroofed astrocytes. Microtubules are both colored in purple and indicated by white arrowheads. **d**, Traction forces in astrocytes plated on micropatterned polyacrylamide gels of different rigidities; traction forces for cells on different rigidities; Values for 2 kPa and 48 kPa are from experiments shown in Fig. 4a, b, pooled along with the values for 50 kPa, 91.8 kPa and 121 kPa; n = 136 for 2 kPa Niltubacin, 163 for 48 kPa siCtl, 31 for 50 kPa WT, 33 for 91.8 kPa WT and 30 for 121 kPa WT. In box-and-whisker plots, the box extends from the 25th to the 75th percentile, the whiskers show the minimum and maximum values, and the line within the box represents the median. **Scale bar (a, b)**: 10 µm, (c): 200 nm; **Number of independent experiments** = 3 (for **a, b, d** - 2 kPa Niltubacin and 48 kPa siCtl), 2 (for **d** - 50 kPa, 91.8 kPa and 121 kPa). **Statistical tests:** One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison's test (for **a**).

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	1	Our web collection on <u>statistics for biologists</u> contains articles on many of the points above.

Software and code

Policy information at	pout <u>availability of computer code</u>
Data collection	Nikon microscopes coupled with Metamorph [®] or Leica microscopes coupled with Leica Application Software LAS AF 2.4 (Leica Application Suite).were used for image acquisition.
Data analysis	ImageJ version 1.52n was used for all image analysis and processing. For focal adhesion density and TFM, a custom macro was used and calculations were done as described in the materials and methods. ImageJ plugin for TFM was downloaded from https://sites.google.com/site/qingzongtseng/tfm. For mass spectrometry data analysis, SequestHF through proteome discoverer (version 2.2), myProMS 45 v3.6, MassChroQ version 2.2 softwares were used. Graphpad Prism 6 was used for data representation and statistical analyses.

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The data supporting the findings of this study are available within the manuscript. All the raw data generated during this study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request. The mass spectrometry data has been uploaded on the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD015871 (username: reviewer89842@ebi.ac.uk; password: EC4DSdRf (Check materials and methods on details of how to access the data).

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Sample size	The sample size was limited by experimental constraints. The authors however estimated that the size was sufficiently high to represent faithfully the total population by considering the dispersion of values and their density around the most frequent value. In all cases, a minimum of three independent experiments were carried out to confirm the reproducibility of the data
Data exclusions	No data were excluded
Replication	All experiments were reproduced independently at least 3 times (unless otherwise stated), starting with primary cells produced from different animals.
Randomization	All biochemical samples were analyzed. For cell analysis, cells were randomly chosen and imaged without any bias.
Blinding	Data acquisition was performed blindly. Researchers were unblinded for data analysis. Automatic quantitative measurements by the relevant softwares and devices did not require blinding.

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Materials & experimental systems

M	leti	hod	S



Antibodies used	For Immunofluorescence: Antibody anti-Acetylated Tubulin (1:10000; clone 6-11B-1, mouse monoclonal, T-6793 Sigma Aldrich
	MCA//G, rat, Biorad), anti-Paxillin (1:500; 610051, mouse monoclonal, lot 5246880; BD; and ab32084, rabbit monoclonal, clone
	Y133 and lot GR215998-1; Abcam), anti-Talin (1:1000; T3287, mouse monoclonal, clone 8D4, lot 035M4805V; Sigma-Aldrich),
	anti-GEF-H1 (1:100; ab155785, Abcam), Alexa fluor 647 Phalloidin (1:2000; 176759, lot GR278180-3; Abcam or 1:300; Thermo
	Fisher Scientific), anti-Vimentin (1:200; V6630, mouse monoclonal lot 10M4831; Sigma-Aldrich), anti-pMLC (1:1000; 36755, S19,
	mouse, Cell signalling), anti-Myosin IIA (1:1000; non-muscle, M8064, rabbit polyclonal, Sigma-Aldrich), anti-Vinculin (1:400;
	V9131, Sigma-Aldrich). Secondary antibodies were Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-rabbit (711-545-152), Rhodamine (TRITC) donkey
	anti-rabbit (711-025-152), Alexa Fluor 647 donkey anti-rabbit (711-695-152), Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-mouse
	(715-545-151), Rhodamine (TRITC) donkey anti-mouse (715-025-151), Alexa Fluor 647 donkey anti-rat (711-605-152), and Alexa
	Fluor 488 donkey anti-rat (712-545-153); all from Jackson ImmunoResearch.
	For Western Blots : Antibody anti-Acetylated Tubulin (1:10000; clone 6-11B-1, mouse monoclonal, T-6793 Sigma Aldrich), anti-
	αΤΑΤ1 (1:400; HPA046816, rabbit, Atlas Antibodies), anti-Poly-Glu Tubulin (1:1000; AbC0101, ValBiotech), anti-α-Tubulin
	(1:1000; MCA77G, rat, Biorad), anti-β1 integrin (ab52971, Abcam), anti-Talin (1:1000; T3287, mouse monoclonal, clone 8D4, lot
	035M4805V: Sigma-Aldrich), anti-GEF-H1 (1:100; ab155785, Abcam), anti-GAPDH (MAB374, lot 2689153 Millipore), Secondary
	HRP antibodies were all purchased from Jackson ImmunoResearch.
Validation	Anibodies were validated by the manufacturer. We verified that the antibodies showed proteins of the correct size by
	westernblotting. Potential anibody crossreaction, and antibody validity with rat proteins was evaluated by using rat and human
	cells in parallel and by testing samples obtained from cells in which the protein of interest had been depleted or overexpressed

Eukaryotic cell lines

Policy information about <u>cell lines</u>	
Cell line source(s)	HEK293T (ATCC #CRL-11268TM
Authentication	The cell line was not authenticated after purchase
Mycoplasma contamination	Cell lines regularly tested negative for Mycoplasma contamination.
Commonly misidentified lines (See <u>ICLAC</u> register)	No commonly misidentified cell lines were used

Animals and other organisms

Policy information about stud	lies involving animals; ARRIVE guidelines recommended for reporting animal research
Laboratory animals	Primary astrocytes were obtained from E17 OFA rat embryos
Wild animals	No wild animals were used in this study
Field-collected samples	No field collected samples were used in this study
Ethics oversight	Use of these animals is in compliance with ethical regulations and has been approved from the Prefecture de Police and Direction departementale des services veterinaires de Paris.

Note that full information on the approval of the study protocol must also be provided in the manuscript.