

## Pathogenic mechanisms in centronuclear myopathies

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4 **Pathogenic mechanisms in centronuclear myopathies**

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44 **Abstract**

45

46 Centronuclear myopathies (CNMs) are a genetically heterogeneous group of inherited  
47 neuromuscular disorders characterized by clinical features of a congenital myopathy and  
48 abundant central nuclei as the most prominent histopathological feature. The most common  
49 forms of congenital myopathies with central nuclei have been attributed to X-linked recessive  
50 mutations in the *MTMI* gene encoding myotubularin (“X-linked myotubular myopathy,  
51 XLMTM”), autosomal-dominant mutations in the *DNM2* gene encoding dynamin-2, and  
52 autosomal-recessive mutations in the *BINI* gene encoding amphiphysin-2 (also named  
53 bridging integrator-1, BIN1, or SH3P9), the *RYR1* gene encoding the skeletal muscle  
54 ryanodine receptor, and the *TTN* gene encoding titin.

55 Models to study and rescue the affected cellular pathways are now available in yeast, *C.*  
56 *elegans*, *drosophila*, zebrafish, mouse and dog. Defects in membrane trafficking have  
57 emerged as a key pathogenic mechanisms, with aberrant T-tubule formation, abnormalities of  
58 triadic assembly and disturbance of the excitation-contraction machinery as the most  
59 important downstream effects. Abnormal autophagy has recently been recognized as another  
60 important collateral of defective membrane trafficking in different genetic forms of CNM,  
61 suggesting an intriguing link to primary disorders of defective autophagy with overlapping  
62 histopathological features.

63 The following review will provide an overview of clinical, histopathological and genetic  
64 aspects of the CNMs in the context of the key pathogenic mechanism, outline unresolved  
65 questions and indicate promising future lines of enquiry.

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67 **Key words:** Centronuclear myopathy; Myotubular myopathy; *MTMI* myotubularin gene;  
68 *DNM2* dynamin-2 gene; *BINI* Bridging Integrator 1/amphiphysin-2 gene; *RYR1* ryanodine  
69 receptor-1 gene; *TTN* titin gene; Membrane trafficking; Autophagy

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71 **Introduction**

72

73 Centronuclear myopathies (CNMs) are a genetically heterogeneous group of inherited  
74 neuromuscular disorders characterized by clinical features of a congenital myopathy and  
75 abundant central nuclei as the most prominent histopathological feature (for review,  
76 (Jungbluth, Wallgren-Pettersson et al. 2008)). CNMs are genetically widely heterogeneous  
77 and have been attributed to X-linked recessive mutations in *MTMI* encoding myotubularin  
78 (“X-linked myotubular myopathy, XLMTM”) (Laporte, Hu et al. 1996), autosomal-dominant  
79 mutations in *DNM2* encoding dynamin-2 (Bitoun, Maugenre et al. 2005), and autosomal-  
80 recessive mutations in *BINI* encoding Bridging Integrator 1 (more commonly known as  
81 amphiphysin-2) (Nicot, Toussaint et al. 2007), *RYR1* encoding the skeletal muscle ryanodine  
82 receptor (Wilmshurst, Lillis et al. 2010), and *TTN* encoding titin (Ceyhan-Birsoy, Agrawal et  
83 al. 2013).

84 Whilst histopathological abnormalities other than abundant central nuclei are not typically  
85 observed in association with *MTMI* and *BINI* mutations, the common occurrence of central  
86 nuclei, marked variability in fibre size and cores with some of the other genetic backgrounds,  
87 in particular recessive *RYR1* (Bevilacqua, Monnier et al. 2011) and *TTN* mutations (Ceyhan-  
88 Birsoy, Agrawal et al. 2013; Chauveau, Bonnemann et al. 2014), have challenged the concept  
89 of CNM as a “pure” entity (Romero 2010) and have suggested a continuum with other  
90 congenital myopathies, in particular the core myopathies (for review, (Jungbluth, Sewry et al.  
91 2011)) and congenital fibre type disproportion (CFTD) (Clarke, Waddell et al. 2010). The  
92 neuromuscular disorder due to dominant mutations in the *CCDC78* gene (Majczenko,

93 Davidson et al. 2012) is another example of a congenital myopathy difficult to classify on  
94 histopathological grounds due to the common occurrence of internalized nuclei and cores.  
95 Models to study and rescue the cellular pathways affected in various forms of CNM are now  
96 available in yeast (Parrish, Stefan et al. 2004; Cebollero, van der Vaart et al. 2012), *C.*  
97 *elegans* (Dang, Li et al. 2004; Zou, Lu et al. 2009; Neukomm, Nicot et al. 2011), *drosophila*  
98 (Velichkova, Juan et al. 2010), zebrafish (Dowling, Vreede et al. 2009; Gibbs, Clarke et al.  
99 2013; Reifler, Li et al. 2014), mouse (Buj-Bello, Laugel et al. 2002; Durieux, Vignaud et al.  
100 2010; Pierson, Dulin-Smith et al. 2012; Fetalvero, Yu et al. 2013) and dog (Beggs, Bohm et  
101 al. 2010). Based on observations in these models, several pathogenic mechanisms have now  
102 been suggested, including abnormalities of triads and calcium handling (Al-Qusairi, Weiss et  
103 al. 2009), as well as defects of the neuromuscular junction (Robb, Sewry et al. 2011;  
104 Dowling, Joubert et al. 2012), satellite cells (Lawlor, Alexander et al. 2012), mitochondria  
105 and the desmin cytoskeleton (Hnia, Tronchere et al. 2011).

106 Alterations of the autophagy pathway have recently emerged as a pathogenic mechanism  
107 common to different genetic forms of CNM (Al-Qusairi, Prokic et al. 2013; Fetalvero, Yu et  
108 al. 2013). Autophagy is a fundamental cellular degradation pathway conserved throughout  
109 evolution with important roles in the removal of defective proteins and organelles, defence  
110 against infections and adaptation to changing metabolic demands (Mizushima 2007; Sandri,  
111 Coletto et al. 2013; Wang and Robbins 2013). Autophagy is physiologically enhanced in  
112 neurons and muscle and, in conjunction with the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway, plays a  
113 major role in the pathogenesis of muscle atrophy (Sandri 2013). The autophagy pathway  
114 involves several tightly regulated steps, evolving from the initial formation of phagophores to  
115 autophagosomes, whose fusion with lysosomes results in the final structures of degradation,  
116 autolysosomes (for review, (Mizushima 2007)). The recent implication of defective  
117 autophagy in CNM corresponds to the recognition of its increasing role in a wide range of  
118 neuromuscular disorders with both primary and secondary autophagy defects (Merlini and  
119 Nishino 2014). The observation of histopathological features closely resembling  
120 centronuclear myopathy in Vici syndrome (McClelland, Cullup et al. 2010), a severe human  
121 multisystem disorders due to recessive mutations affecting the key autophagy regulator *epg5*  
122 (Cullup, Kho et al. 2013), provides additional support for a link between the CNMs and the  
123 autophagy pathway.

124 The majority of the defective proteins implicated in the CNMs to date – myotubularin,  
125 dynamin-2 and amphiphysin2 - are involved in various aspects of membrane trafficking and  
126 remodelling relevant to essential cellular processes including endocytosis, intracellular  
127 vesicle trafficking and autophagy (for review, (Cowling, Toussaint et al. 2012)), suggesting a  
128 pathogenic “master mechanism” upstream of the more specific downstream pathogenic  
129 mechanisms outlined above. However, a link between membrane trafficking and other genes  
130 implicated in the CNMs is not immediately obvious, and the communality of clinico-  
131 pathological features between *MTM1*, *DNM2* and *BINI*-related CNM on one hand and the  
132 more recently reported forms due to recessive mutations in *RYR1* and *TTN* on the other hand  
133 remains currently unaccounted for on the molecular level.

134 The following review will give an overview of the key clinical, histopathological and genetic  
135 aspects of the different forms of CNM, outline pathogenic mechanisms where already known,  
136 with a particular emphasis on defects in membrane trafficking and autophagy, and summarize  
137 unresolved questions and future lines of enquiry. Table 1 summarizes the genes and proteins  
138 implicated in the CNMs and outlines their main function(s) where known. Figure 1 illustrates  
139 tentative links between the different pathways implicated in the CNMs.

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143 ***MTMI*-related CNM (“X-linked myotubular myopathy, XLMTM)**

144

145 Centronuclear myopathy due to X-linked recessive mutations in the myotubularin (*MTMI*)  
146 gene (also commonly referred to as X-linked myotubular myopathy, or XLMTM) is a rare  
147 congenital myopathy that affects approximately 2/100000 male births per year (for review,  
148 (Jungbluth, Wallgren-Pettersson et al. 2008)).

149 XLMTM is characterized by a severe phenotype in males with often antenatal onset,  
150 profound hypotonia and weakness at birth with associated severe respiratory and bulbar  
151 involvement necessitating invasive ventilation and nasogastric tube feeds. Extraocular muscle  
152 involvement is common. The condition is usually fatal within the first year of life but a  
153 proportion of more mildly affected males may survive into adolescence or adulthood,  
154 sometimes even without requiring constant ventilatory support. Although profound muscle  
155 involvement is the most dramatic and earliest feature of myotubularin deficiency, long-term  
156 survivors show additional organ manifestations such as hepatic peliosis suggestive of a  
157 multisystem disorder (Herman, Finegold et al. 1999), indicating that myotubularin does play  
158 a vital role in tissues other than muscle. Moreover, despite muscle atrophy and weakness,  
159 males with XLMTM typically exhibit signs of macrosomia consistent with an overgrowth  
160 syndrome (LeGuenec, Bernier et al. 1988; Joseph, Pai et al. 1995), suggesting a differential  
161 effect of myotubularin deficiency on muscle and other growth pathways. A dilated  
162 cardiomyopathy has been reported in two adult brothers with a mild form of XLMTM (Yu,  
163 Manson et al. 2003), raising the possibility of a cardiac phenotype in long-term survivors that  
164 remains to be systematically evaluated. Histopathological features in addition to numerous  
165 central nuclei include type 1 predominance and hypotrophy, a colourless “halo” surrounding  
166 the central nucleus and necklace fibres (Romero and Bitoun 2011), but additional sarcomeric  
167 disorganization or overt cores are unusual in contrast to the *DNM2*-, *RYR1*- and *TTN*-related  
168 forms.

169 More than 300 *MTMI* mutations have been identified to date (Laporte, Biancalana et al.  
170 2000; Herman, Kopacz et al. 2002; Biancalana, Caron et al. 2003; Tsai, Horinouchi et al.  
171 2005), distributed throughout the entire coding sequence and with only few recurrent  
172 substitutions. Genotype-phenotype studies have been limited due to the private nature of  
173 many *MTMI* mutations, however, not unexpectedly truncating mutations usually give rise to  
174 the more severe phenotype whilst non-truncating mutations outside the myotubularin  
175 catalytic domain have been associated with milder presentations. Markedly skewed X-  
176 inactivation in manifesting females (Jungbluth, Sewry et al. 2003), as well as complex  
177 rearrangements involving the *MTMI* locus have also been recently reported (Trump, Cullup  
178 et al. 2011; Amburgey, Lawlor et al. 2013).

179 Myotubularin defines a family of 14 phosphoinositide phosphatases in mammals (for review,  
180 (Laporte, Blondeau et al. 1998; Laporte, Blondeau et al. 2001; Laporte, Bedez et al. 2003;  
181 Begley and Dixon 2005; Clague and Lorenzo 2005; Robinson and Dixon 2006; Amoasii,  
182 Hnia et al. 2012)), two of which, *MTMR2* and *MTMR14*, have also been implicated in  
183 different forms of Charcot-Marie-Tooth (CMT) disease, *CMT4B1* (Berger, Bonneick et al.  
184 2002) and *CMT4B2* (Azzedine, Bolino et al. 2003), respectively. In addition to the catalytic  
185 and enzymatically active domain, myotubularin contains 4 other domains, including a coiled-  
186 coiled domain involved in homo- and heterodimer formation. Only little is known about  
187 interactions with other proteins in skeletal muscle.

188 Myotubularin dephosphorylates phosphatidylinositol 3-phosphate [PI(3)P] and  
189 phosphatidylinositol 3,5-phosphate [PI(3,5)P] (for review, (Tronchere, Buj-Bello et al. 2003;  
190 Robinson and Dixon 2006; Rohde, Tronchere et al. 2009)), second messengers with a crucial  
191 role in membrane trafficking whose production is under the control of specific  
192 phosphatidylinositide kinases. In skeletal muscle, the main generator of PI(3)P is the PI3

193 kinase PIK3C3 (Backer 2008; Meijer and Klionsky 2011), a key regulator of a wide range of  
194 cellular processes including autophagy, in particular formation and maturation of  
195 autophagosomes (Funderburk, Wang et al. 2010).

196 The fundamental role of myotubularin and its orthologs in PI3P regulation, endocytosis and  
197 endo(lyso)somal function has been documented in drosophila, *C. elegans*, zebrafish, mouse  
198 and higher mammalian models of myotubularin deficiency (for review, (Cowling, Toussaint  
199 et al. 2012)). Zebrafish morphants following *mtm1* morpholino knockdown show abnormal  
200 motor behaviour and reproduce some of the histopathological features also seen in human  
201 XLMTM, associated with increased PI3P levels in muscle (Dowling, Vreede et al. 2009). In  
202 contrast to human XLMTM, the *mtm1* knockout mouse develops muscle weakness and  
203 atrophy only in the postnatal period, suggesting an effect of myotubularin deficiency on  
204 muscle maintenance rather than muscle development (Buj-Bello, Laugel et al. 2002).  
205 Secondary abnormalities of T-tubules, sarcoplasmic reticulum and the triads (Al-Qusairi,  
206 Weiss et al. 2009; Toussaint, Cowling et al. 2011) and, less frequently, abnormalities of  
207 intermediate filaments and mitochondrial dynamics (Hnia, Tronchere et al. 2011) have been  
208 reported as an important common downstream effect of myotubularin deficiency in zebrafish,  
209 mouse, dog and humans.

210 Initiation of autophagy, in particular formation of autophagosomes, depends on PI3P  
211 synthesis (Vergne and Deretic 2010), and the concerted interaction of autophagy-related  
212 (Atg) proteins at the phagophore assembly (PAS) site (Lamb, Yoshimori et al. 2013; Ge,  
213 Baskaran et al. 2014); considering the important role of myotubularin in regulating PI3P  
214 levels in muscle, it is not surprising that alterations of muscle autophagy have now been  
215 reported in animal models of XLMTM: In particular, a marked disturbance of autophagy has  
216 been reported in zebrafish following double knockdown of the myotubularin family members  
217 *MTM1* and *MTMR14* (Dowling, Low et al. 2010), the latter also known as Jumpy and  
218 implicated in very rare digenic forms of CNM (Tosch, Rohde et al. 2006). Myotubularin  
219 deficiency has also been associated with increased mTORC1 activity, disconnection between  
220 starvation and autophagy induction (Fetalvero, Yu et al. 2013), increased IGF1R/Akt  
221 signalling, upregulation of atrogenes and an increase in autophagy markers in the *mtm1*  
222 knockout mouse (Al-Qusairi, Prokic et al. 2013), indicating both up- and downstream effects  
223 of murine myotubularin deficiency on the autophagy pathway that are potentially amenable to  
224 mTOR inhibition with Rapamycin (Fetalvero, Yu et al. 2013) and AAV-mediated delivery of  
225 functional myotubularin (Al-Qusairi, Prokic et al. 2013). Interestingly, a recent study  
226 reporting a muscle-specific conditional knockout of PIK3C3, the phosphatidylinositide 3-  
227 kinase critical for PI3P levels in muscle, indicates marked autophagolysosomal abnormalities  
228 with histopathological features more suggestive of a muscular dystrophy rather than CNM  
229 (Reifler, Li et al. 2014). These observations suggest the autophagy pathway and its upstream  
230 regulators as potential therapeutic targets in CNM and, possibly, other forms of  
231 neuromuscular disorders.

232

### 233 ***DNM2*-related CNM**

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235 Dominantly inherited *DNM2*-related CNM is usually much milder than X-linked and  
236 recessive forms of CNM although more severe presentations have been reported (for review,  
237 (Jungbluth, Wallgren-Pettersson et al. 2008)). Onset is typically in adolescence or early  
238 adulthood, featuring predominant proximal weakness with additional distal involvement  
239 particularly in the lower limbs, ptosis with external ophthalmoplegia, and a stable or slowly  
240 progressive course. Exertional myalgia may be the presenting feature before the evolution of  
241 overt weakness and muscle hypertrophy, occasionally localized, has been observed  
242 (Liewluck, Lovell et al. 2010). Specific dominant intermediate (CMTDIB) and axonal forms

243 of Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease (CMT2), respectively, are allelic conditions (Zuchner,  
244 Noureddine et al. 2005; Fabrizi, Ferrarini et al. 2007). In addition to myopathic changes,  
245 EMG and nerve conduction studies may show mild signs of axonal peripheral nerve  
246 involvement also in *DNM2*-related CNM patients (Fischer, Herasse et al. 2006; Echaniz-  
247 Laguna, Nicot et al. 2007), indicating a clinical continuum between myopathic and  
248 neuropathic manifestations of *DNM2* mutations. Other *DNM2*-mutated patients may feature  
249 additional neutropenia (Liewluck, Lovell et al. 2010) or cataracts (Jungbluth, Cullup et al.  
250 2010), suggesting a role of dynamin 2 in tissues other than muscle, as well as clinical overlap  
251 with multisystem disorders due to primary autophagy defects such as *EPG5*-related Vici  
252 syndrome (Cullup, Kho et al. 2013), where cataracts and haematological abnormalities are  
253 common. Homozygosity for the *DNM2* Phe379Val missense mutation has been recently  
254 associated with a congenital lethal syndrome in humans (Koutsopoulos, Kretz et al. 2013).  
255 Histopathological features in addition to centralized nuclei may include type 1 predominance,  
256 typical radial strands surrounding the nucleus, increases in connective tissues and cores  
257 (Fischer, Herasse et al. 2006; Schessl, Medne et al. 2007; Jeub, Bitoun et al. 2008; Hanisch,  
258 Muller et al. 2011; Bohm, Biancalana et al. 2012; Catteruccia, Fattori et al. 2013).  
259 The *DNM2* gene is one of 3 members of the dynamin family (Praefcke and McMahon 2004)  
260 and ubiquitously expressed, in contrast to *DNM1* that is mainly expressed in the brain, and  
261 *DNM3* expressed in brain and testes. *DNM2* encodes a large GTPase protein organized in 5  
262 functional domains, an N-terminal GTPase domain, a middle domain (MD), a pleckstrin  
263 homology (PH) domain, a GTPase effector domain and a C-terminal proline rich domain  
264 (PRD) (McNiven 2005). Through its PH and PRD domains, dynamin-2 binds to  
265 phosphoinositides and SH3 domain proteins such as amphiphysin, respectively. Dominant  
266 mutations affecting the dynamin-2 middle domain have been associated with a mild  
267 phenotype of CNM (Bitoun, Maugenre et al. 2005), whilst more severe presentations with  
268 neonatal onset have been attributed to heterozygous *de novo* dominant mutations affecting the  
269 pleckstrin homology (PH) domain (Bitoun, Bevilacqua et al. 2007; Jungbluth, Cullup et al.  
270 2010), also affected by *DNM2* mutations causing primary neuropathic phenotypes. A  
271 common founder mutation (c.1393C>T; p.Arg465Trp) has been identified in a number of  
272 unrelated autosomal-dominant pedigrees with a mild form of CNM.  
273 Dynamins are involved in membrane tubulation, and the role of various isoforms including  
274 dynamin-2 in clathrin-dependent and independent endocytosis, vesicle formation and  
275 processing (Jones, Howell et al. 1998; Praefcke and McMahon 2004; Durieux, Prudhon et al.  
276 2010) has been documented in various models of dynamin deficiency. Additional roles have  
277 been proposed in the microtubule network, actin cytoskeleton assembly (Unsworth,  
278 Mazurkiewicz et al. 2007) and centrosome cohesion (Thompson, Cao et al. 2004), the latter  
279 of potential relevance for the nuclear abnormalities observed in *DNM2*-related and other  
280 forms of CNM.  
281 Murine models of the common human *DNM2* R465W dominant CNM mutation do replicate  
282 aspects of the human phenotype and, not unexpected considering the close links between  
283 endocytic and autophagic pathways, show variable abnormalities of autophagy: Durieux and  
284 colleagues (Durieux, Vignaud et al. 2010; Durieux, Vassilopoulos et al. 2012) demonstrated a  
285 slowly progressive myopathy with upregulation of genes involved in ubiquitin-proteasome  
286 (UPS) and autophagy pathways in a heterozygous knock-in mouse model of the common  
287 CMT-associated heterozygous *DNM2* mutation R465W. Mice homozygous for the R465W  
288 mutation showed a severe phenotype similar to what has been observed in other mouse  
289 models of dysregulated autophagy (Durieux, Vassilopoulos et al. 2012), characterized by  
290 increased glycogen storage, hepatomegaly, hypoglycaemia and early lethality. The same mice  
291 showed microscopic evidence of delayed autophagosome maturation, and of reduced  
292 autophagic flux on in vitro studies. Another mouse model generated by intramuscular adeno-

293 associated virus (AAV) injection of mutant R465W-DNM2 generated histopathological  
294 abnormalities and T-tubule defects similar to those observed in humans and animal models of  
295 other forms of CNM, suggesting a muscle maintenance defect as the principal abnormality  
296 also in *DNM2*-related CNM. An intriguing and potentially therapeutically exploitable link  
297 between *DNM2*- and *MTM1*-related pathways has been recently indicated by demonstrating  
298 rescue of the XLMTM phenotype through dynamin-2 reduction in mice (Cowling,  
299 Chevremont et al. 2014).

300

### 301 ***BINI*-related CNM**

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303 Autosomal-recessive *BINI*-related CNM has only been reported in a small number of  
304 families associated with a mild to moderate phenotype characterized by early childhood  
305 onset, extraocular muscle involvement and slowly progressive muscle weakness and atrophy  
306 (Nicot, Toussaint et al. 2007; Claeys, Maisonobe et al. 2010). However, more severe and  
307 rapidly progressive presentations due to homozygous *BINI* mutations affecting splicing have  
308 been reported (Bohm, Vasli et al. 2013). Dominant inheritance of *BINI* mutations has also  
309 been recently recognized (Jungbluth, Wallgren-Pettersson et al. 2013). In addition to central  
310 nuclei, type 1 fibre-type predominance may be an additional feature, but sarcomeric  
311 disorganization and core-like areas are uncommon (for review, (Jungbluth, Wallgren-  
312 Pettersson et al. 2008)).

313 *BINI* encodes amphiphysin-2, a protein belonging to the BAR (Bin/Amphiphysin/Rvs)  
314 domain-containing family of proteins (Peter, Kent et al. 2004) involved in various key  
315 cellular processes including membrane recycling and endocytosis (for review, (Prokic,  
316 Cowling et al. 2014)). Corresponding to other proteins implicated in the CNMs, BIN1 also  
317 contains a phosphoinositide-binding domain and is involved in T-tubule formation. Mutations  
318 affecting the *BINI* BAR domain impair membrane tubulation and result in structural  
319 abnormalities (Wu, Shi et al. 2014). *BINI* is ubiquitously expressed but subject to tissue-  
320 specific alternative splicing, whereas amphiphysin 1, the other member of the amphiphysin  
321 family, is mainly expressed in brain. *BINI* downregulation has been associated with cancer  
322 progression and cardiac disease, whereas *BINI* overexpression has been linked to an  
323 increased risk for late-onset Alzheimer disease (for review, (Prokic, Cowling et al. 2014)).

324 The essential role of amphiphysins and their orthologs in endocytosis, membrane remodelling  
325 and recycling has been documented in drosophila and *C. elegans* models of amphiphysin  
326 deficiency (for review, (Cowling, Toussaint et al. 2012)). A recent Bin1-deficient zebrafish  
327 model of *BINI*-related CNM reproduces the histopathological features of the human  
328 phenotype, and indicates abnormal calcium release resulting from aberrant triad formation as  
329 an important pathogenic mechanism downstream of the principal membrane remodelling  
330 abnormality (Smith, Gupta et al. 2014). The T-tubule and triadic abnormalities observed in  
331 the Bin1-deficient zebrafish model are similar to those observed in *MTM1*- and *DNM2*-  
332 related CNM (Toussaint, Cowling et al. 2011), indicating a shared pathogenic mechanism  
333 due to implication of the defective proteins in the same pathway. *BINI*-deficient mice have  
334 been reported to show marked and lethal cardiac abnormalities (Muller, Baker et al. 2003),  
335 but murine skeletal muscle has not yet been thoroughly analysed.

336 BIN1 deficiency has not yet been associated with defects in the autophagy pathway, however,  
337 it is of note that structurally related BAR domain-containing proteins such as SH3P2  
338 translocate to the phagophore assembly site (PAS) following autophagy induction and appear  
339 to play a role in autophagosome formation (Jiang, Xiao et al. 2009).

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343 ***RYR1*-related CNM**

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345 Recessive mutations in *RYR1* are another cause of congenital myopathies with central nuclei  
346 (Wilmshurst, Lillis et al. 2010). *RYR1* mutations are one of the most common causes of  
347 inherited neuromuscular disorders, ranging from the malignant hyperthermia susceptibility  
348 (MHS) trait without any associated weakness to various congenital myopathies, including  
349 mainly dominantly inherited Central Core Disease (CCD) as well as mainly recessively  
350 inherited Multi-minicore Disease (MmD) (for review, (Jungbluth, Sewry et al. 2011)),  
351 Congenital Fibre Type Disproportion (CFTD) (Clarke, Waddell et al. 2010) and CNM  
352 (Wilmshurst, Lillis et al. 2010). There is substantial clinical and pathological overlap between  
353 MmD, CFTD and CNM due to recessive *RYR1* mutations, and it appears appropriate to view  
354 these conditions as part of a recessive *RYR1*-related continuum rather than completely distinct  
355 entities.

356 Clinically, *RYR1*-related CNM is of intermediate severity compared to other genetic forms,  
357 with facial weakness, external ophthalmoplegia, predominantly proximal muscle involvement  
358 but less pronounced bulbar or respiratory impairment (Wilmshurst, Lillis et al. 2010). There  
359 is however, a more severe end of the spectrum, with some profoundly affected males showing  
360 clinical presentations indistinguishable from the XLMTM phenotype. Patients with *RYR1*-  
361 related CNM show a marked tendency to improve over time, even following an initially  
362 severe presentation, a feature also in other recessive *RYR1*-related myopathies (Bohm,  
363 Leshinsky-Silver et al. 2012) that remains currently unexplained.

364 On the pathological level, central and multiple internalized nuclei are often the principal  
365 histopathological feature when muscle biopsy is performed early in life (Jungbluth, Zhou et  
366 al. 2007), but other histopathological features typically associated with recessive *RYR1*-  
367 related myopathies – marked type 1 predominance or uniformity, fibre type disproportion and  
368 cores – may evolve over time (Bevilacqua, Monnier et al. 2011).

369 In contrast to dominantly inherited MHS and CCD where most features can be explained by  
370 abnormal calcium release from the mutant RyR1 channel (for review, (Treves, Anderson et  
371 al. 2005)), the pathogenesis of recessive *RYR1*-related myopathies is currently only partly  
372 understood and probably more complex. Recessive *RYR1* genotypes, often featuring  
373 compound heterozygosity for *RYR1* missense and truncating mutations, result in reduced  
374 expression of the RyR1 protein and secondary reduction of the DHPR receptor, its principal  
375 ligand (Wilmshurst, Lillis et al. 2010; Bevilacqua, Monnier et al. 2011; Zhou, Rokach et al.  
376 2013). Additional upregulation of the IP3R receptor may be found in some cases, an  
377 observation currently of uncertain significance (Zhou, Rokach et al. 2013). Whilst the  
378 concomitant reduction of RyR1 and DHPR and the resulting excitation-contraction (EC)  
379 coupling defect are likely to explain the weakness, muscle atrophy as well as  
380 histopathological features of fibre-type disproportion and centralized nuclei are not readily  
381 explained by alterations of calcium release in recessive *RYR1*-related myopathies.

382 In contrast to other genetic forms of CNM, defects in membrane trafficking and autophagy  
383 have not been implicated in recessive *RYR1*-related CNM. However, it is of note that marked  
384 autophagy abnormalities have been observed in mice following induced reduction of the  
385 DHPR receptor (Pietri-Rouxel, Gentil et al. 2010), a secondary feature also in recessive  
386 *RYR1*-related myopathies. In addition, the recent implication of annexin-1 and annexin-5,  
387 members of the annexin family of proteins that bind to phospholipid membranes in a  
388 calcium-dependent manner, in autophagosome maturation (Ghislat and Knecht 2012)  
389 suggests a potential link between disturbed calcium homeostasis and autophagy regulation  
390 that may warrant further investigation. Effect of altered calcium release on autophagic  
391 pathways have been previously considered but with conflicting conclusions (East and  
392 Campanella 2013).

393 ***TTN*-related CNM**

394

395 Recessive mutations in *TTN* encoding the giant sarcomeric ruler protein titin have recently  
 396 been identified by next generation sequencing in 5 individuals selected from a cohort of 29  
 397 unrelated and genetically unresolved patients with a clinicopathological diagnosis of CNM  
 398 (Ceyhan-Birsoy, Agrawal et al. 2013). *TTN* mutations have recently also been indicated as  
 399 one of the most common identifiable genetic causes of dilated cardiomyopathy (Herman,  
 400 Lam et al. 2012), and have been implicated in a wide range of neuromuscular disorders,  
 401 including late-onset tibial muscular dystrophy, limb girdle muscular dystrophy type 2J  
 402 (LGMD2J), hereditary myopathy with early respiratory failure (HMERF) and early-onset  
 403 myopathy with fatal cardiomyopathy (reviewed recently in (Chauveau, Rowell et al. 2014)).

404 Clinical features of the 5 patients with *TTN*-related CNM in the study by Ceyhan-Birsoy  
 405 (2013) (Ceyhan-Birsoy, Agrawal et al. 2013) were characterized by early-childhood onset,  
 406 generalized weakness and respiratory impairment, but without evidence of cardiac  
 407 involvement at the time of the last follow-up in childhood or late adolescence (5-19 years). In  
 408 contrast to other genetic forms of CNM, extraocular muscles were spared and in one case CK  
 409 levels were increased > 1000 IU/l. Histopathological features included increases in  
 410 connective tissue, fibre type disproportion and type 1 predominance and hypotrophy. In  
 411 contrast to *MTM1*-related CNM, but corresponding to findings in the *RYR1*-related form,  
 412 central and internalized nuclei were typically multiple rather than single. Similar observations  
 413 were made in the seminal paper on the recessive truncating *TTN*-linked early-onset Salih  
 414 myopathy (Carmignac, Salih et al. 2007) and in 4 families with compound heterozygous *TTN*  
 415 variants in Autosomal Recessive Multi-minicore Disease with Heart Disease (AR MmD-HD)  
 416 (Chauveau, Bonnemann et al. 2014). Patients with AR MmD-HD show marked  
 417 centronucleation with additional morphological changes, notably the formation of protein  
 418 aggregates and Z-disk streaming that show ultrastructural similarities to those found in  
 419 myofibrillar myopathy. Patients also display various cardiac phenotypes, from left-ventricular  
 420 non-compaction to septal defects (ASD and VSD) and dilated cardiomyopathy, in some  
 421 instances requiring transplantation (Chauveau, Bonnemann et al. 2014). Additional findings  
 422 of core-like areas on oxidative stain and myofibrillar disruption on EM, in particular Z-disk  
 423 streaming and sarcomere disruption, suggest that *TTN*-related CNM and AR MmD-HD may  
 424 be part of a *TTN*-related histopathological spectrum rather than a pure entity, again  
 425 corresponding to observations in the *RYR1*-related form.

426 The pathogenesis of *TTN*-related CNM and in particular its association with pathways  
 427 affected in other forms of CNM, if any, remains currently uncertain. Most mutations  
 428 identified in *TTN*-related CNM give rise to significant C-terminal truncations, with or without  
 429 the expression of disruptive missense variants, resulting in secondary reduction of interacting  
 430 proteins such as nebulin and calpain-3 that may contribute to the phenotype. Calpain-3 is  
 431 required for the normal recruitment of RyR1 receptors to the triad, a function that, if  
 432 disturbed, may give rise to similar abnormalities of triad assembly and excitation-contraction  
 433 coupling as seen in other genetic forms of CNM. A common feature of *TTN*-linked AR  
 434 MmD-HD and CNM is, however, the disruption of titin M-band linked interactions; of these,  
 435 three are possibly mechanistically related to pathways linked to the “classical” CNM variants.  
 436 Firstly, M-band titin links the sarcomere to the sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR) via its  
 437 interactions with the giant protein obscurin (Bagnato, Barone et al. 2003; Kontogianni-  
 438 Konstantopoulos, Jones et al. 2003; Fukuzawa, Lange et al. 2008) and thus contributes to the  
 439 organised integration of the EC-coupling machinery of T-tubules, junctional SR and  
 440 sarcomeres. Intriguingly, obscurin knockout mice also develop a myopathic phenotype with  
 441 centralised nuclei and disordered SR (Lange, Ouyang et al. 2009). Secondly, the M-band  
 442 associated kinase domain of titin is linked to the control of protein turnover via the autophagy

443 cargo adaptors Nbr1 and SQSTM1 (reviewed in (Gautel 2011)). Lastly, mutations in the C-  
444 terminus of titin are linked to secondary calpain-3 deficiency also in the case of adult  
445 titinopathies (Udd 2012), likely due to the abrogation of a calpain-3 binding site near the C-  
446 terminus of titin (Charton, Daniele et al. 2010). While the connections between titin  
447 mutations, protein turnover and abnormal nuclear positioning in titin-associated CNM-like  
448 myopathies are currently unclear, accumulating evidence suggests that protein turnover via  
449 autophagy and calpain-mediated turnover converge on M-band titin and that these  
450 connections are concerted with physical links to the SR and triad systems. If such links exist,  
451 it seems plausible that the ablation or functional disruption of titin-linked autophagy  
452 functions in M-band titinopathies (Chauveau, Bonnemann et al. 2014) result in partial  
453 phenotypic overlap with membrane-associated components of the autophagy machinery.

454

### 455 **Rare congenital myopathies with central nuclei**

456

457 Congenital myopathies with features of CNM with or without additional histopathological  
458 abnormalities due to uncommon genetic backgrounds have been observed in isolated  
459 families.

460 Tosch and colleagues reported single heterozygous missense variants in hJUMPY (also  
461 known as MTMR14, a member of the myotubularin family) in two sporadic cases with  
462 features of CNM and uncertain inheritance (Tosch, Rohde et al. 2006). Although both  
463 variants were demonstrated to reduce the enzymatic activity of hJUMPY, identification of an  
464 additional *DNM2* mutation in one patient suggests that a second mutation may be required for  
465 full manifestation of clinical features; this is also in keeping with the observation of a more  
466 severe phenotype in the MTM1-MTMR14 zebrafish double knockout compared to knockout  
467 of each single gene (Dowling, Low et al. 2010).

468 Autosomal-dominant mutations in *CCDC78* have also recently been identified in a single  
469 family characterized by core-like areas and increased internalized nuclei (Majczenko,  
470 Davidson et al. 2012); *CCDC78* encodes a skeletal muscle protein enriched in the perinuclear  
471 region and the triad (Majczenko, Davidson et al. 2012), suggesting a possible link with a  
472 pathogenic mechanism, abnormal triad assembly and resulting disturbance of excitation-  
473 contraction coupling, common to other forms of CNM.

474

### 475 **Conclusions and outlook**

476

477 Recent years have seen substantial advances in our understanding of the centronuclear  
478 myopathies, in particular those due to mutations in *MTM1*, *DNM2* and *BINI1*, encoding  
479 proteins intricately linked in various aspects of phosphoinositide metabolism and membrane  
480 trafficking. Defects in membrane trafficking have emerged as key pathogenic mechanisms,  
481 with aberrant T-tubule formation, abnormalities of triad assembly and disturbance of the  
482 excitation-contraction machinery as the most important downstream effects. Abnormal  
483 autophagy has recently been recognized as another important collateral of defective  
484 membrane trafficking in different genetic forms of CNM, suggesting an intriguing link to  
485 primary disorders of defective autophagy with overlapping histopathological features. These  
486 findings have illustrated the role of defective pathways common to several genetic forms of  
487 CNM that may be potentially amenable to therapeutic intervention. It remains currently  
488 uncertain if the proteins encoded by genes more recently implicated in the CNMs, in  
489 particular *RYR1* and *TTN*, are involved with the same pathways or linked with altogether  
490 different mechanisms. The functional links between the genetic mechanism implicated in  
491 CNM are tentative at the moment, and it has to be seen whether all myopathies clinically  
492 classified as CNM indeed join into a common pathomechanistic pathway. Although the

493 mechanisms outlined above may at least partially explain the muscle weakness and atrophy  
494 observed in different forms of CNM, other aspects such as the consistent abnormality of  
495 nuclear positioning remain currently unaccounted for. The molecular machinery involved in  
496 nuclear positioning is currently only partially understood (for review, (Osorio and Gomes  
497 2014)), but emerging evidence suggests that normal positioning of the nucleus is a  
498 prerequisite for its normal functioning (Metzger, Gache et al. 2012). Further investigation of  
499 the CNMs as a paradigm of disorders with nuclear positioning as the most prominent  
500 pathological hallmark will advance our understanding of the intricate interaction between the  
501 nucleus, microtubules and the actomyosin cytoskeleton (Luxton, Gomes et al. 2011; Cadot,  
502 Gache et al. 2012), and delineate the importance of the interplay of these structures for  
503 cellular function in health and disease.

504

505

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507

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510

511

### 512 **Legends**

513

514

### 515 **Figure 1**

516

517 Tentative links between membrane signalling, sarcomere activity and nuclear positioning. T-  
518 tubules (T) link the sarcolemma to the sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR) at the triads by contacts  
519 between dihydropyridine receptors (small orange oval) and ryanodine receptors (small green  
520 oval). Phosphoinositolphosphates (PIP; blue hexagonal symbols at SR membrane) are turned  
521 over by the lipid phosphatase myotubularin, regulating membrane dynamics and PIP-  
522 dependent downstream signalling. This affects multiple pathways, including autophagy.  
523 Altered membrane remodelling and microtubular transport will converge on these pathways.  
524 Defects affecting Titin's scaffolding role concerning multiple components of the protein  
525 quality control machinery impinge on contractile function, sarcomere turnover and possibly  
526 sarcomere-nuclear links. Nuclei and sarcomeres are joined by peripheral cytoskeletal  
527 networks, including desmin intermediate filaments and nesprin via "transmembrane actin-  
528 associated nuclear links" (Luxton, Gomes et al. 2011). **1** = Mutations affecting lipid  
529 phosphatase activity of myotubularin (MTM1, MTMR14); **2** = Mutations in components of  
530 the membrane remodelling machinery (BIN1); **3** = Defects in vesicular traffic or microtubule  
531 dynamics (DNM2); **4** = Mutations in the endosomal- autophagosomal-lysosomal pathway  
532 (EPG5); **5** = Defective calcium homeostasis and excitation-contraction coupling (RYR1); **6** =  
533 Defective sarcomeric maintenance and protein quality control (TTN); **7** = disrupted nuclear  
534 cytoskeleton links, abnormal nuclear positioning (CCDC78).

535

### 536 **Table 1**

537

538 Genes and proteins implicated in various forms of Centronuclear Myopathy (CNM).

539

540

541

*Pathogenic mechanisms in centronuclear myopathies*

<b>Gene</b>	<b>Inheritance</b>	<b>Protein</b>	<b>Principal function(s)</b>	<b>Main pathogenic effects in muscle</b>
<i>MTM1</i>	XL	Myotubularin	PI3P regulation Membrane formation/trafficking Endocytosis Endo(lyso)some formation	Abnormal nuclear positioning Abnormalities of triad assembly and function Abnormal autophagy Abnormal cytoskeletal architecture Abnormal mitochondrial positioning
<i>DNM2</i>	AD	Dynamin 2	Membrane formation/trafficking Vesicle formation and fission	Abnormal nuclear positioning Abnormalities of triad assembly and function Abnormal autophagy Abnormal cytoskeletal architecture Abnormal mitochondrial positioning
<i>BIN1</i>	AR, (AD)	Amphiphysin 1	Membrane remodelling	Abnormalities of nuclear positioning, triad assembly and function
<i>RYR1</i>	AR	Skeletal muscle ryanodine receptor	Sarcoplasmic reticulum calcium release	Abnormal nuclear positioning Abnormalities of triad assembly and function Abnormal SR calcium release ?
<i>TTN</i>	AR	Titin	Elastic link between actin and myosin filaments Organiser of Z-disk and M-band assembly Organiser of myosin filament, possibly by regulating myosin mototr domains Mechanosensor Signalling scaffold organising ubiquitin-proteasome and autophagy-lysosomal protein turnover	Abnormal sarcomere assembly and turnover Disrupted force transmission Abnormal myosin force generation Abnormal transcriptional regulation
<i>MTMR14</i>	AR ? digenic ?	hJUMPY	PI3P regulation Membrane formation/trafficking	Abnormal nuclear positioning Abnormal excitation-contraction coupling Abnormal autophagy
<i>CCDC78</i>	AD	Coiled-coil domain containing protein 78	Centriole biogenesis ?	Abnormal nuclear positioning

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Figure 1.TIF

