

Figure 1. Muscle Pathology of the Affected Individuals

Cross-sections of muscle fiber from a human control and individual 4.

(A) On H&E staining, nonspecific dystrophic features with necrotic and regenerating fibers, internalized nuclei, and endomysial fibrosis are seen. The scale bar represents 25 μ m.

(B) On cytochrome c oxidase staining, enlarged mitochondria at the periphery and central areas devoid of mitochondria were seen. The scale bar represents 20 μ m.

(C) On NADH-TR staining, the intermyofibrillar network was preserved even in the central areas that are devoid of mitochondria, suggesting the presence of myofibrils and only absence of mitochondria. The scale bar represents 20 μ m.

(D) Electron microscopy confirmed enlarged mitochondria. The scale bar represents 1 μ m.

members of individual 1 and 2 were not available. Individuals 3 and 4 (siblings, Japanese) had the same compound heterozygous mutation c.116C>A (p.Ser39X) and c.458dup (p.Leu153PhefsX57). Both parents were healthy, and the father was heterozygous for mutation c.116C>A (p.Ser39X), whereas the mother was heterozygous for mutation c.458dup (p.Leu153-PhefsX57), thus confirming a recessive inheritance pattern. These mutations cosegregated with the disease phenotype in all family members tested.

We therefore measured CHK activity in biopsied muscle. For all biochemical analyses, because of the limiting amounts of remaining tissue, biopsied muscle samples were available only from individuals 2, 3, and 4. Biopsied muscle samples from these three individuals were homogenized in 3 volumes of 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 154 mM KCl, and 1 mM phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride with a sonicator (MISONIX), and supernatant fractions (105,000 \times g, 60 min) were prepared and analyzed for CHK activity as previously described.⁶ Similar to muscles of *mmd* mice,¹ muscles from individuals 2, 3, and 4, who carried homozygous or compound heterozygous nonsense mutations, did not have any detectable CHK activity (Figure 2A). Individuals 7, 8, and 9 had homozygous missense mutations c.847G>A (p.Glu283Lys) and c.1130 G>T (p.Arg377Leu) and a homozygous 3 amino acid deletion, c.554_562 del (p.Pro185_Trp187del), respectively. We screened 210 control chromosomes for the identified missense mutations and small in-frame deletion by direct sequencing or single-strand conformation polymorphism (SSCP) analysis. SSCP was performed with Gene Gel Excel (GE Healthcare) as previously described.⁷ These missense mutations and this small in-frame deletion were not identified in control

CHKB (Table 1). Among a total of 11 mutations identified, six were nonsense, two were missense, one was a 3 amino acid deletion, and two were splice-site mutations. The six nonsense mutations, c.116C>A (p.Ser39X), c.458dup (p.Leu153PhefsX57), c.611_612insC (p.Thr205AsnfsX5), c.810T>A (p.Tyr270X), c.852_859del (p.Trp284X), and c.922C>T (p.Gln308X), were predicted to truncate the protein and eliminate highly conserved domains of CHK.^{4,5} Individuals 1 and 2 (unrelated, Japanese) had the same homozygous nonsense mutation of c.810T>A (p.Tyr270X). Individual 2's mother, who was healthy, had the heterozygous c.810T>A (p.Tyr270X) mutation. Unfortunately, a DNA sample from the father of individual 2 was not available. DNA samples from other family

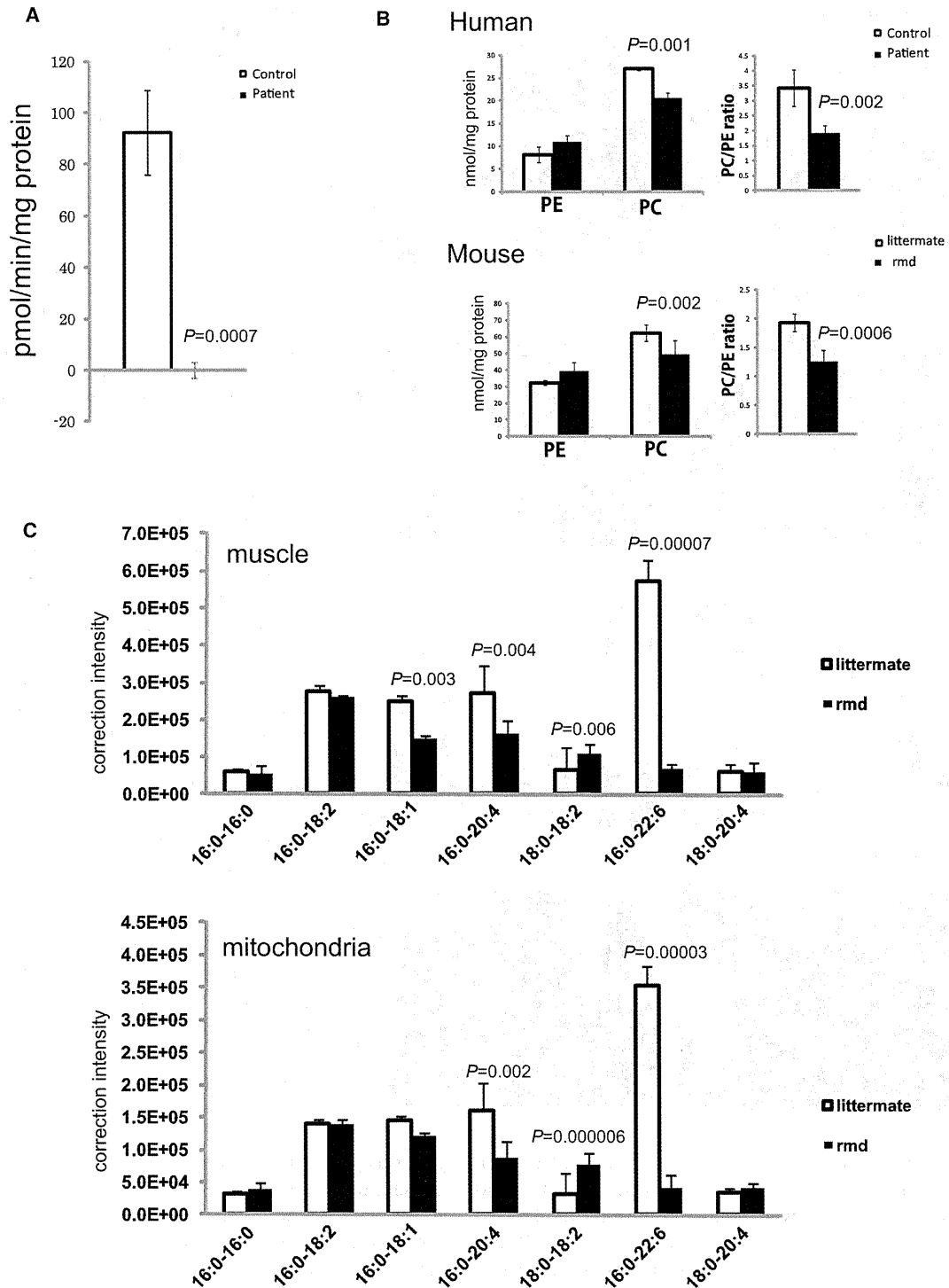


Figure 2. Choline Kinase Activity and Phospholipid Analyses

(A) In muscle tissue from individuals 2, 3, and 4, CHK activity cannot be detected ($n = 3$). Data represent the mean of three individuals. (B) PC and PE content in frozen biopsied muscle tissues from individuals 2, 3, and 4 and hindlimb muscles from 8-week-old *rmd* mice ($n = 4$) and control littermates ($n = 5$) were analyzed by thin-layer chromatography followed by phosphorus analysis. PC and the PC/PE ratio are significantly decreased in affected individuals and *rmd* mice ($n = 3$ for humans, $n = 4$ for *rmd* mice, $n = 5$ for littermates). (C) Fatty acid composition of PC molecular species in muscles and isolated mitochondria from hindlimb muscles of *rmd* mice are determined by electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (ESI-MS). We observed that 34:1-PC (16:0-18:1), 36:4-PC (16:0-20:4), and 38:6-PC (16:0-22:6) species are significantly decreased, whereas 36:2-PC (18:0-18:2) is increased in *rmd* muscle. Similarly, in isolated mitochondria from hindlimb muscle, 36:4-PC (16:0-20:4) and 38:6-PC (16:0-22:6) species are decreased, whereas 36:2-PC (18:0-18:2) is increased.

chromosomes. To elucidate the pathogenesis of these substitutions, we measured CHK activity in recombinant proteins with mutations. We cloned the open reading frame of *CHKB* into pGEM-T easy (Promega), then subcloned it into pET15b (Novagen) to make His-tagged CHK- β .⁸ Each mutation was induced by site-directed mutagenesis.⁷ Plasmids were transformed into *Escherichia coli* strain BL21 (DE3) and inoculated at 20°C to an OD₆₀₀ of approximately 0.5, and the addition of 0.4 mM isopropyl- β -D-thiogalactopyranoside induced expression. The His-tagged CHK- β proteins were subjected to affinity purification on a nickel column (GE Healthcare) and eluted with 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 0.5 M NaCl, 300 mM imidazol, and 1 mM phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride, and 25 ng protein was analyzed for CHK activity. CHK activity of recombinant proteins with these mutations decreased to less than 30% of wild-type CHK activity, suggesting that these mutations are causative in these individuals (Figure S2). For individual 13, who had a mutation at the splice site of the exon-intron border after exon 9 (c.1031+1G>A), we also analyzed cDNA sequences. Exons 4 through 10 were amplified from the first-strand cDNAs, and direct sequencing followed. cDNA analysis of *CHKB* in skeletal muscle from individual 13 showed four splicing variants, all of which remove consensus domains for *CHKB* (Figure S3). This suggests the same loss-of-function mechanism in humans and *rmd* mice.

Because phosphorylation of choline by CHK is the first enzymatic step for phosphatidylcholine (PC) biosynthesis,⁹ we anticipated that PC content should be altered in affected individuals' muscles. Phosphatidylcholine (PC), phosphatidylethanolamine (PE), and total phospholipid amounts were measured in biopsied muscles from individuals 2, 3, and 4 and in leg muscles from 8-week-old *rmd* mice by either one-dimensional or two-dimensional thin-layer chromatography (TLC) followed by phosphorus analysis.^{10,11} As expected, PC levels decreased in affected individuals' skeletal muscle (Figure 2B), as they did in *rmd* mice (Figure 2B and Sher et al.¹), suggesting that the CMDs due to *CHKB* mutations in humans and *rmd* mice are not only pathologically but also pathomechanistically similar.

PC is present in all tissues and accounts for around 50% of phospholipids in biological membranes in eukaryotes. Selective tissue involvement can be explained by the different tissue distribution of CHK isoforms. There are two CHK isoforms: CHK- α and CHK- β , encoded by distinct genes, *CHKA* (MIM 118491) and *CHKB*, respectively. They

are known to form both homodimers and heterodimers, with differential tissue distribution.¹² In mice, disruption of *Chka* causes embryonic lethality,¹³ suggesting the importance of CHK- α in embryonic development. In skeletal muscles from *rmd* mice, CHK activity is absent, and PC levels are decreased.¹ In other tissues, however, CHK activity is only mildly decreased, PC levels are not altered, and no obvious pathological change is seen.¹ CHK activity in skeletal muscle from individuals 2, 3, and 4 is barely detectable, and PC levels are significantly decreased, suggesting that CHK- β is the major isoform in human skeletal muscle. In support of this notion, CHK- α was not detected in human muscle (Figure S4). These results suggest that muscular dystrophy in affected individuals and *rmd* mice is caused by a defect in muscle PC biosynthesis. In addition, in *rmd* mice, hindlimb muscles are more significantly affected than forelimb muscles.¹ This is most likely explained by the fact that CHK activity is detected, though decreased, in forelimb muscles in *rmd* mice as a result of the continued post-natal expression of *Chka*.¹⁴ This indicates that the severity of muscle involvement is determined by the degree of deficiency of CHK activity.

Generally, phospholipids have saturated or monounsaturated fatty acids at the *sn*-1 position and polyunsaturated fatty acids at the *sn*-2 position of glycerol backbone.¹⁵ It has been shown that phospholipids have tissue-specific fatty acid composition.¹⁵ For example, heart PC and muscle PC mainly contain docosahexaenoic acid (22:6) (Nakanishi et al.¹⁵ and Figure 2C), but liver PC includes various fatty acids.¹⁵ NanoESI-MS analyses of PC molecular species in muscle and isolated mitochondria were performed with a 4000Q TRAP (AB SCIEX, Foster City, CA, USA) and a chip-based ionization source, TriVersa Nano-Mate (Advion BioSystems, Ithaca, NY, USA).¹⁶ Quadriceps femoris (hindlimb) and Triceps (forelimb) muscle from affected *rmd* mice and littermate controls were frozen with liquid nitrogen, and total lipid was extracted by the Blich and Dyer method.¹⁰ The ion spray voltage was set at -1.25kV, gas pressure at 0.3 pound per square inch (psi), and flow rates at 200 nl/min. The scan range was set at m/z 400-1200, declustering potential at -100V, collision energies at -35~-45V, and resolutions at Q1 and Q3 "unit." The mobile phase composition was chloroform: methanol (1/2) containing 5 mM ammonium formate and was normalized to the muscle weight. The total lipids were directly subjected by flow injection, and selectivity was analyzed by neutral loss scanning of the polar head

In muscle and isolated mitochondria, the 38:6-PC molecular species is profoundly decreased (n = 6 for muscle, n = 5 for isolated mitochondria).

Mitochondria from skeletal muscles of whole hindlimbs of *rmd* mice were isolated by the differential centrifugation method. Fresh muscle was minced and homogenized with a motor-driven Teflon pestle homogenizer with ice-cold mitochondrial isolation buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.2], 320 mM sucrose, 1mM EDTA, 1mM DTT, 1 mM PMSF, 1 mg/ml BSA, and protease inhibitor cocktail [Roche]) and centrifuged at 1,500 \times g for 5 min. The supernatant fraction was centrifuged at 15,000 \times g for 20 min, the pellet was resuspended in mitochondrial isolation buffer, and the centrifugation/resuspension was repeated twice more.

All data are presented as means \pm standard deviation (SD). Means were compared by analysis with a two-tailed t test via R software version 2.11.0.

group for PC in negative-ion mode.¹⁷ Interestingly, there was a 10-fold decrease (9.8%) in the 16:0-22:6-PC levels versus the control in *rmd* hindlimb muscle and also in muscle mitochondria (Figure 2C), indicating the importance of the PC de novo synthesis pathway for maintaining not only PC levels but also fatty acid composition of PC molecular species. Similarly, in forelimb muscle 16:0-22:6 PC levels were also decreased in comparison to the control, but to a milder extent (18.2%), suggesting an association between severity of muscle damage and fatty acid composition alteration of PC (data not shown). In *rmd* mice, it has been shown that muscle PC can be delivered from plasma lipoprotein,¹⁸ suggesting that non-decreased PC molecular species might be derived from the plasma, whereas 16:0-22:6 PC might be synthesized only in muscle (and possibly in brain). However, confirmation of this requires further studies.

Individuals with *CHKB* mutations have severe mental retardation in addition to the muscular dystrophy. Interestingly, polymorphisms near the *CHKB* locus and decreased *CHKB* expression have been associated with narcolepsy with cataplexy, suggesting a link between *CHK-β* activity and the maintenance of normal brain function in humans.¹⁹ Furthermore, brain damage in pneumococcal infection has been attributed to the inhibition of de novo PC synthesis, suggesting the importance of PC synthesis for the brain.²⁰ Our data provide evidence that altered phospholipid biosynthesis is a causative agent for a human congenital muscular dystrophy, and further studies will elucidate the detailed molecular mechanisms of the disease in both muscle and brain.

Supplemental Data

Supplemental Data include four figures and can be found with this article online at <http://www.cell.com/AJHG/>.

Acknowledgments

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Web Resources

The URLs for data presented herein are as follows:

GenBank, <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Genbank>

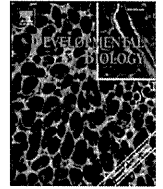
Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM), <http://www.omim.org>

R software version 2.11.0, <http://www.r-project.org/>

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Filamin C plays an essential role in the maintenance of the structural integrity of cardiac and skeletal muscles, revealed by the medaka mutant *zacro*

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ABSTRACT

Filamin C is an actin-crosslinking protein that is specifically expressed in cardiac and skeletal muscles. Although mutations in the filamin C gene cause human myopathy with cardiac involvement, the function of filamin C *in vivo* is not yet fully understood. Here we report a medaka mutant, *zacro* (*zac*), that displayed an enlarged heart, caused by rupture of the myocardial wall, and progressive skeletal muscle degeneration in late embryonic stages. We identified *zac* to be a homozygous nonsense mutation in the *filamin C* (*finc*) gene. The medaka filamin C protein was found to be localized at myotendinous junctions, sarcolemma, and Z-disks in skeletal muscle, and at intercalated disks in the heart. *zac* embryos showed prominent myofibrillar degeneration at myotendinous junctions, detachment of myofibrils from sarcolemma and intercalated disks, and focal Z-disk destruction. Importantly, the expression of γ -actin, which we observed to have a strong subcellular localization at myotendinous junctions, was specifically reduced in *zac* mutant myotomes. Inhibition of muscle contraction by anesthesia alleviated muscle degeneration in the *zac* mutant. These results suggest that filamin C plays an indispensable role in the maintenance of the structural integrity of cardiac and skeletal muscles for support against mechanical stress.

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Introduction

Skeletal muscle and heart are the organs that produce physical force by muscle contraction, and muscle fibers are incessantly exposed to strong mechanical stress. To protect intracellular structures against such mechanical stress, muscle fibers express a variety of muscle-specific proteins that often form large complexes.

Two major protein complexes, the dystrophin-associated glycoprotein complex (DGC) and the integrin complex are known to have important roles in affording mechanical integrity to striated muscle. In skeletal muscle, these complexes, which are localized at the sarcolemma (Arahata et al., 1988; Mayer, 2003; Watkins et al., 1988) and myotendinous junctions (MTJs; (Bao et al., 1993; Samitt and Bonilla, 1990; Shimizu et al., 1989), where the muscle fibers are connected to tendon, link the subsarcolemmal actin cytoskeleton to the extracellular matrix (ECM) (Burkin and Kaufman, 1999;

Campbell, 1995; Yoshida et al., 2000). Defects in the components of this DGC lead to muscular dystrophy (Bonnemann et al., 1995; Hoffman et al., 1987; Lim et al., 1995; Nigro et al., 1996; Noguchi et al., 1995; Roberds et al., 1994), an inherited muscular disorder characterized by progressive muscle degeneration, suggesting the importance of this linkage system for the integrity of muscle fibers. Muscle fibers specifically express $\alpha 7 \beta 1$ integrin, and a defect of $\alpha 7$ integrin causes muscular dystrophy, primarily affecting muscle fibers close to the MTJs (Hayashi et al., 1998; Mayer et al., 1997; Miosge et al., 1999), pointing to the importance of the integrin-based linkage for muscle integrity, particularly at MTJs. In heart, DGC and integrins are localized at the sarcolemma as well as at intercalated disks, which are the contact sites between cardiomyocytes (Anastasi et al., 2009; van der Flier et al., 1997).

The Z-disk is a huge multi-protein complex that constitutes the border of individual sarcomeres. This Z-disk plays a key role in the crosslinking of actin thin filaments of myofibrils to withstand the extreme mechanical force generated during muscle contraction. Z-disks are attached to the sarcolemmal DGC and integrin complexes at the sites of costameres via Z-disk-associated linker molecules (Ervasti, 2003). Recently, mutations in genes encoding Z-disk components have been found to be responsible for a group of muscle diseases termed myofibrillar myopathy, which is pathologically characterized by myofibrillar disorganization, including the degeneration of the

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sarcomere structure (Selcen, 2008; Selcen et al., 2004). These reports suggest that Z-disk proteins have important roles in maintaining organized sarcomere structures.

Filamins are actin-crosslinking proteins first purified by their ability to bind and precipitate actin (Hartwig and Stossel, 1975; Stossel and Hartwig, 1975). Filamins are composed of 3 isoforms, filamins A, B, and C. All filamins consist of an N-terminal actin-binding domain followed by 24 immunoglobulin-like repeats, and they dimerize at the 24th repeat domain located at the C-terminus (Stossel et al., 2001). Filamins directly interact with more than 30 diverse proteins, and are involved in multiple cellular processes including cell–cell and cell–matrix adhesion, mechanoprotection, actin remodeling, and various intracellular signaling pathways (Feng and Walsh, 2004). Filamin C is a muscle-specific isoform and localizes at MTJs, costameres, Z-disks, and intercalated disks in mammal and avian muscles (Ohashi et al., 2005; van der Ven et al., 2000a). Interestingly, filamin C interacts with both DGC (Thompson et al., 2000) and integrin (Gontier et al., 2005; Loo et al., 1998), as well as with the Z-disk proteins myotilin (van der Ven et al., 2000b), FATZ-1 (Faulkner et al., 2000), and myopodin (Linnemann et al., 2010) through its C-terminal region. Such localization and protein interaction suggest that filamin C functions in maintaining the mechanical integrity of muscle cells. Recently, mutations in the filamin C gene were identified in patients having myofibrillar myopathy (Kley et al., 2007; Luan et al., 2010; Shatunov et al., 2009; Vorgerd et al., 2005). These patients frequently develop cardiac abnormalities in addition to skeletal myopathy, suggesting the essential role of filamin C in both skeletal and cardiac muscles. To investigate the function of filamin C *in vivo*, Dalkilic et al. (2006) generated *filamin C*-deficient mice having a deletion of the last 8 exons of *FlnC*. This deficient mouse shows fewer muscle fibers or primary myotubes than normal and abnormal rounded fibers, suggesting defects in primary myogenesis; however, this mouse does not present any cardiac defects, which indicates a partial-loss-of-function. Since these mice die *in utero* or live only a short while after birth, further detailed observations cannot be carried out.

Recently, zebrafish have emerged as an alternative model organism to study the vertebrate muscular system and to isolate new dystrophy-causing genes/pathways (Guyon et al., 2007; Steffen et al., 2007). A deficiency of DGC or integrin-linked kinase causes a muscular dystrophic phenotype in zebrafish embryos (Bassett et al., 2003; Cheng et al., 2006; Gupta et al., 2011; Guyon et al., 2005; Postel et al., 2008), suggesting that their functions are likely to be analogous to those in humans. In zebrafish embryos, the DGC is localized initially at the junctional area, where the ends of muscle fibers attach to the myosepta, corresponding to the myotendinous junction (MTJ). Loss of DGC causes muscle fiber detachment at MTJs, indicating compromised adhesion between muscle fibers and the ECM of myosepta. Medaka (*Oryzias latipes*), another teleost fish, has the experimental advantages of external development, transparency, and quick production of a number of embryos, similar to the zebrafish. Unlike zebrafish, however, various medaka inbred strains have been established; and the medaka genome, which is about one-half of the size of the zebrafish genome, is almost fully sequenced and aligned, indicating that the medaka has powerful advantages for the application of forward genetics (Ishikawa, 2000; Wittbrodt et al., 2002).

Here, we identified a medaka mutant, *zacro* (*zac*), that has a nonsense mutation, resulting in an early truncation at the 15th immunoglobulin-like repeat of the medaka orthologue of filamin C. This mutation causes myocardial rupture in the ventricle. Although this mutant displayed normal myogenesis in myotome muscles during early stages of embryonic development, its myofibrils gradually degenerated and became disorganized in later stages. Detailed histological analysis suggests an indispensable role of filamin C in the maintenance of the muscle structure rather than in its formation in both heart and skeletal muscles.

Materials and methods

Medaka strains and mutant screening

All studies requiring wild-type medaka (*O. latipes*) were carried out by using the Qurt strain, which was derived from the southern population (Wada et al., 1998). Fish were maintained in an aquarium system with re-circulating water at 28.5 °C. Embryos were obtained from natural spawning, and incubated at 28 ± 2 °C. Stages were determined as previously described (Iwamatsu, 2004). *N*-ethyl-*N*-nitrosourea (ENU) was used for mutagenesis, and a standard genetic F3 screening for mutations affecting embryogenesis were performed as described earlier (Ishikawa, 1996; Ishikawa et al., 1999). The *zac* mutant was identified by microscopic inspection as a Mendelian-inherited recessive lethal mutation that caused a phenotype characterized by congestion in the blood vessels and pericardial edema.

Positional cloning

zac heterozygous fish, which were maintained on the southern Qurt genomic background, were mated with the northern HNI strain fish (Hyodo-Taguchi, 1980) to generate F1 families. Embryos for the genetic mapping were obtained from inter-crosses of F1 *zac* carriers. To locate the genetic linkage, we conducted bulk segregant analysis on pools of genomic DNA from *zac* mutants and wild-type embryos by using sequence tagged site (STS) markers on the medaka genome (Kimura et al., 2004). The *zac* region was narrowed down by using additional STS markers, AU171271 and Olb2110h (Naruse et al., 2000), and newly designed restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) markers, HAL and KCND2 (HAL; 5'-GGATGGGAGATGCCAAATATG-3' and 5'-GTCCCGTTGATCAGAGCCAG-3'/Mbol, KCND2; 5'-CAGCAGGTGTAGCGGCATG-3' and 5'-GTTGGCCATCACTGATATGCC-3'/AfaI). cDNAs of *flnc* from *zac* mutant and wild-type embryos were amplified, and verified by sequencing. The full-length cDNA of *flnc* was cloned by PCR using primers including XbaI restriction enzyme sites [5'-CAATCTAGACAAGGAACAAGCC-3' and 5'-GAATCTAGACCACCATTTAGCC-3'], and was sequenced. We obtained 2 different *flnc* clones, which appeared to be splice variants. To confirm the linkage between the *zac* mutation and *flnc* gene, we performed allele-specific PCR using 2 independent outer primers [5'-TTCAGTTGGAGGACATGGAT-3' and 5'-GACACCTGCAACA-CAACTCTA-3'] in combination with either a wild type-specific antisense primer [5'-CTTGCAGGTCACTTTCCTT-3'] or a mutant-specific one [5'-CTTGCAGGTCACTTTCCTTA-3']. We also performed 5'-RACE and 3'-RACE to obtain full-length sequence information on *flnc* cDNA. The sequences of the medaka *flnc* have been deposited in GenBank under the accession numbers AB639344 and AB639345.

Birefringence assay

Embryos were dechorionated at stage 27. Muscle birefringence was analyzed at stages 32 and 34 by placing anesthetized embryos on a glass dish and observing them with an underlit dissecting scope (Olympus, SZX12) having 2 polarizing filters (Olympus, SZX-P0 and SZX2-AN). The top polarizing filter was twisted until only the light refracting through the striated muscle was visible.

Histological analysis

Embryos were fixed overnight at 4 °C in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in phosphate-buffered saline pH 7.4 (PBS), dehydrated by ethanol, and embedded in a resin (Technovit 8100, Kulzer Heraeus) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Sections were cut at 2 µm and stained with Harris's hematoxylin and Eosin Y or Masson trichrome staining buffer (SIGMA).

Whole-mount RNA *in situ* hybridization

Whole-mount RNA *in situ* hybridization was performed as previously described (Inohaya et al., 1995; Inohaya et al., 1999). Digoxigenin-labeled antisense RNA probes for cardiac myosin light chain 2 (*cmlc2*), desmin (*des*), *flnc*, *myf5*, *nkx2.5*, *tbx5a*, and ventricular myosin heavy chain (*vmhc*) were used. The primer sets used for cloning the respective probes are listed below.

cmlc2 F: AATGTCTTTTCCATGTTYGARC
R: CAGATTCAGCAGTTAARGARG and CTCCTCTTCTCATCHCCATG
des F: AACAAACCAGCCAACCATGAGC
R: ACAGATGTAGTTATCCTGCAGG
flnc F: GCTCCAGAGGAAATGTGGAC
R: CTCACACCTTTAGGCTGTAGC
myf5 F: ATCCACTTCTTCTCCCCAGC
R: TTTCTCTCAGAGAGAACC
nkx2.5 F: TTCTCTCAGGCGCAGGTGTACGAGC
R: GCDGGGTAGGYGTTGTA
tbx5a F: GTCTGAGATTTCCGAGCTCC
R: CTCTCTCTAGACTCGAGTTGGTCTCTCTGTGTCTCCC
vmhc F: GGAGCTGGATGATGTGTTTTTC
R: CATGGGCTAAGCGTTCTTGGC
(R: A,G,Y: C,T,H: A,C,T)

Injection of morpholino antisense oligonucleotide (MO)

We obtained a specific MO (Gene Tools) to interfere with *flnc* translation. The MO [5'-GGCCATCATGTTGGCTTGTTCCTG-3'] was dissolved at concentrations from 100 to 1000 μ M in nuclease-free water. Approximately 0.5 nl of MO solution or standard control MO [5'-CCTCTTACCTCAGTTACAATTATA-3'] was injected into 1-cell-stage embryos.

Whole-mount immunofluorescence

Dechorionated embryos were anesthetized in 0.02% tricaine methanesulfonate and fixed in 4% PFA in PBS at 4 °C overnight. We used chilled methanol at -20°C as the fixative for anti-laminin antibody, and IHC Zinc fixative (BD Biosciences) for anti- γ -actin antibody. After fixation, embryos were dehydrated in a graded series of methanols (25–50–75%) and stored in 100% methanol at -20°C . Embryos were rehydrated in a graded series of methanols (75–50–25%) and washed 3 times for 15 min each time in MABTr (0.1 M maleic acid and 150 mM NaCl containing 0.1% Triton X-100) and subsequently in MABDTr (MABTr with 1% BSA and 1% DMSO) twice for 30 min each time. Following blocking with 5% goat serum in MABDTr for 30 min, the embryos were incubated with primary antibodies at 4 °C overnight. The following antibodies were used: anti-filamin C (SIGMA HPA006135; 1:100), anti-vinculin (SIGMA V4505; 1:50), anti- α -actinin (SIGMA A7811; 1:500), anti-integrin β 1D (Millipore MAB1900; 1:25), anti- β -sarcoglycan (Novocastra NCL-b-SARC; 1:50), anti-slow muscle myosin heavy chain (F59, DSHB; 1:100), anti-FAK pY397 (Invitrogen 44-625G; 1:100), anti-dystrophin (SIGMA D8043; 1:100), anti- β -dystroglycan (Novocastra NCL-b-DG; 1:100), and anti-phospho-paxillin (Cell Signaling Technology #2541; 1:50). Rabbit polyclonal anti-cytoplasmic γ -actin antibody was previously characterized (Nakata et al., 2001), and used at a dilution of 1:100. Embryos were washed 6 times in MABDTr for 15 min each time, and then incubated with Alexa488-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG or Alexa568-conjugated anti-mouse IgG (Molecular Probe; 1:800) at 4 °C overnight. Primary and secondary antibodies were diluted in Can Get Signal immunostain solution A (TOYOBO). After 6 more washings in MABTr, the embryos were whole-mounted on

glass slides and observed with a confocal microscope (LSM 700, Zeiss).

Electron microscopy

For observation using transmission electron microscope (TEM), embryos were dechorionated and fixed at stage 27, 29, 30, 32 or 36 in 100 mM cacodylate buffer (pH 7.4) containing 2% glutaraldehyde and 4% PFA at 4 °C overnight. Samples were post-fixed in 0.06 M s-collidine buffer (pH 7.2) containing 1.3% osmium tetroxide and 0.5% lanthanum nitrate, dehydrated by passage through a graded series of ethanols, and finally embedded in Epon 812 (Taab). Longitudinal sections (120 nm) were stained with 3% uranyl acetate for 20 min and then with 0.4% lead citrate for 5 min. Sections were viewed with a Tecnai Spirit transmission electron microscope (FEI) or a Hitachi H-7100 or H-7650 electron microscope (Hitachi).

For observation using scanning electron microscopy (SEM), embryos were fixed in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (PB, pH 7.4) containing 2.5% glutaraldehyde and 2% PFA. The yolk were removed from the embryo with forceps to expose the heart, and postfixed for 2 h in 1% osmium tetroxide in PB at 4 °C. The embryos were then rinsed in PB, dehydrated in a graded series of ethanol, frozen in t-butyl alcohol, then freeze-dried *in vacuo* with an Eiko ID-2. The embryos were mounted on a metal stub, osmium-coated by using a Filgen OPC60A, and observed with an HS-6 electron microscope (Hitachi).

Muscle relaxation assay

Embryos were incubated with anesthetized in 0.0015% tricaine methanesulfonate in embryo medium for 48 h from stages 27 to 32 to prevent muscle contractions. Treated and untreated embryos were immunostained with F59 antibody obtained from the Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank at stage 32, and the number of somites with muscle-fiber degeneration was counted.

Results

Enlarged ventricle and muscle disorganization in *zac* mutants

zacro (*zac*) is a recessive, embryonic-lethal mutant obtained by ENU (*N*-ethyl-*N*-nitrosourea) mutagenesis. *zac* mutants were characterized by an abnormally enlarged heart with a gradually reduced blood flow. The normal medaka heart starts to beat at stage 24, and blood flow begins at stage 25. No difference was observed until stage 25 in *zac* embryos; however, by stage 28 prior to the heart looping, *zac* mutants showed blood congestion in the ventricle along with pericardial edema (Figs. 1A, B). Ruptures in the myocardium layer were detected in the *zac* mutants at stage 27, especially in the dorsal-right myocardium of the ventricle (Figs. 1C, D asterisk). As the endocardium was intact in *zac* mutants, we speculate that the blood accumulation was caused by ineffective contraction of the torn myocardium. *zac* mutants appeared to be normal in their somite differentiation during the early stages of somitogenesis; however, by stage 32, they frequently exhibited an abnormal curvature with their tails dorsally up instead of having the normal flat body axis (Figs. 1E, F). We further analyzed the birefringence of myotome muscle of *zac* mutants by using polarized filter microscopy. Birefringency is used to assess muscle organization in zebrafish models of muscle disease (Granato et al., 1996). Wild-type embryos from stage 32 onwards displayed high birefringence due to the ordered array of their myofilaments (Figs. 1G, I), whereas *zac* mutants displayed patchy birefringence at this stage (Fig. 1H), indicating muscle disorganization in some somites. Muscle disorganization in the *zac* mutant continued to progress, and most of the somites lost their birefringence by stage 34 (Fig. 1J). Histological analysis revealed that orientation of each myotube was severely disorganized by stage 40 (Figs. 1K, L).

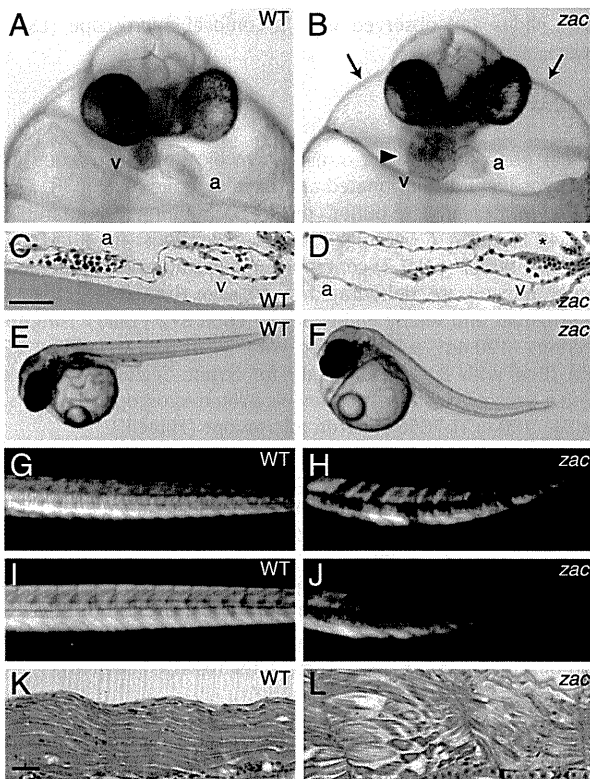


Fig. 1. Cardiac and skeletal muscle phenotypes of *zac* mutants. Embryos from the wild-type (A, C, E, G, I, K) and *zac* mutants (B, D, F, H, J, L). (A, B) Ventricular enlargement in *zac* mutants. Frontal views at stage 28. Dorsal is to the top. Blood cell accumulation in the ventricle (B, arrowhead) and cardiac edema (B, arrows) are visible. a; atrium, v; ventricle (C, D) Hematoxylin and eosin staining of a sagittal section of heart at stage 27. Rostral is to the left. Only the myocardial wall has a rupture (D, asterisk). Scale bar: 20 μ m in "C." (E, F) Whole view from the lateral side at stage 32. *zac* mutants show body curvature. (G–J) Birefringence of skeletal muscle at stage 32 (G, H) and stage 34 (I, J). Rostral is to the left. *zac* mutant shows patchy birefringence at stage 32 and overall reduction in birefringence at stage 34. (K, L) Masson trichrome staining of horizontal sections at stage 32. Rostral is to the right. Striated patterns of sarcomeres can be seen in many muscle cells, but some myofibers have severely degenerated in the *zac* mutants. Scale bar in "K": 20 μ m.

After hatching, *zac* mutants were not able to swim normally, and they died around 14 days post-fertilization. These phenotypes indicate that the *zac* mutation affected both cardiac and skeletal muscles.

Nonsense mutation in *finc* in *zac* mutants

We performed positional cloning to identify the responsible gene in *zac* mutants. By using sequence-tagged site (STS) markers (Kimura et al., 2004), we mapped the *zac* gene to the marker MF01SSA047D04 on the medaka linkage group 6 (Fig. 2A). We searched the expressed sequence tag (EST) markers around the MF01SSA047D04, and found zero and 2 independent recombinants by using AU171271 and Olb2110h, respectively. Therefore, the *zac* gene was placed in the vicinity of AU171271 between MF01SSA047D04 and Olb2110h (Fig. 2A). We further performed fine mapping by utilizing an additional marker, histidine ammonia-lyase (*HAL*), which gave 1 recombinant and narrowed down the *zac* locus. We also found zero recombinants by using another marker, the potassium voltage-gated channel, Shal-related subfamily, member 2 (*KCND2*). Though the genomic sequence encompassing the *zac* locus contained several open reading frames (ORFs), one of them encoded a protein highly homologous to human filamin C, a cardiac and skeletal muscle-specific isoform of the filamin family.

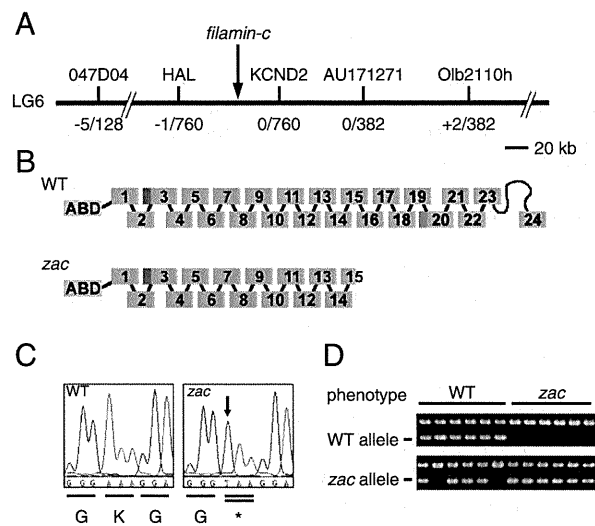


Fig. 2. Positional cloning of *zac* gene (A) Map of the genomic region containing the *zac* gene. The *zac* locus is mapped on the medaka linkage group (LG) 6 by using M-markers, and *finc* is located in the candidate region. HAL, histidine ammonia-lyase and *KCND2*, potassium voltage-gated channel, Shal-related subfamily, member 2. Recombination frequencies for the respective markers are shown below. (B) Schematic drawings of filamin C protein in wild-type and *zac* mutant. The actin-binding domain (ABD) is located at N-terminal followed by 24 repeats of filamin domains. The red region between the 2nd and 3rd repeats indicates the unique splicing variation in medaka fish. The green box between the repeats 19th and 20th is a unique sequence in filamin C members. There is only one hinge sequence between the repeat 23rd and 24th in the medaka filamin C. (C) Chromatogram of the cDNA sequence containing a nonsense mutation from A to T in a coding region of *finc* (arrow). (D) Linkage of *zac* mutation with *finc* as shown by allele-specific genotyping PCR. WT indicates phenotypically wild-type embryos, so some are genotypically heterozygotes revealing both WT and *zac* alleles' PCR products and others are genotypically wild-type having WT allele's PCR product only. All *zac* mutants are genotypically homozygotes, which show the *zac* allele's PCR products only.

The sequence analysis revealed that the medaka *finc* had a high degree of homology (approximately 77% amino acid identity) to the human *FLNC* (Supplementary Fig. 1). The overall structure of medaka filamin C consisted of the actin-binding domain (ABD) and 24 immunoglobulin-like repeats with a hinge region between the 23rd and the 24th repeats (Fig. 2B). Although there was no spacer region between the 15th and the 16th repeats, as found in chicken *Finc/cgABP260* (Ohashi et al., 2005) and in some human *FLNCs* (Supplementary Fig. 1), the medaka *finc* had a C-isotype-specific insertion sequence between the 19th and the 20th repeats (green box in Fig. 2B; blue underline in Supplementary Fig. 1), which is also seen in mouse *Finc* (Dalkilic et al., 2006). We also found a novel splicing variation of an additional 39 amino acids between the 2nd and 3rd repeats (red box in Fig. 2B).

We sequenced the entire coding sequence of medaka *finc* from the *zac* mutant and the wild-type sibling alleles and found that the *zac* mutant had a nucleotide substitution from A to T at the first base of codon 1680 (Fig. 2C; AAA to TAA). As a result, this mutation changed the lysine residue to a stop codon (K1680X), causing premature termination in the 15th immunoglobulin-like repeat. This mutation was detected with 100% identity by PCR using allele-specific primers (Fig. 2D).

In the medaka genome database from Ensembl, there is one more filamin C ortholog, which is noted as FLNC (2 of 2). This predicted gene is located mostly in the ultracontig278 and partially in the scaffold698_contig104802. To find the possibility of functional contribution, we examined the sequence similarity of this gene compared to the human filamin C and the medaka filamin C investigated in this study (Supplementary Fig. 2). FLNC (2 of 2) is described as "ol filamin c #3" in this figure. The FLNC (2 of 2) contains 16 filamin-repeats from 9th to 24th repeat of the regular filamin C, and has one hinge region between 23rd and 24th repeat. About three fourth of filamin C-specific region (UR) is pulled out and N-terminal domains of the

actin binding domain and 1–8th repeats are missing. Although the entire sequence is well conserved and the feature of having single hinge represents filamin C, the lack of N-terminal domains is critical. This gene might be termed as “ol flnc 9–24” (Stossel et al., 2001) and functional redundancy would not be expected as for filamin C.

mRNA expression of *flnc* is markedly reduced in *zac* mutants

The pattern of *flnc* expression was analyzed by whole-mount RNA *in situ* hybridization. *flnc* expression was first evident in somites and at the rostral tip of notochord at the onset of somitogenesis. Subsequently, by the 6-somite stage, the expression of *flnc* was detected in the cardiac precursor cells in the anterior lateral-plate mesoderm (Fig. 3A). After migration of the myocardial precursor cells towards the midline, the expression of *flnc* was detected in both the atrium and ventricle (Fig. 3C). These expressions of *flnc* in the somites, the rostral tip of the notochord, and the cardiac muscles continued in subsequent stages (Fig. 3E). At later stages, additional expression was seen in the muscles of the pectoral fin joint and head (data not shown). Although the pattern of expression of *flnc* did not differ between the wild-type and *zac* mutants, the level of expression was reduced in the latter (Figs. 3B, D, F).

To further identify whether this lower expression of *flnc* in *zac* mutants was caused by the transcriptional down-regulation or not,

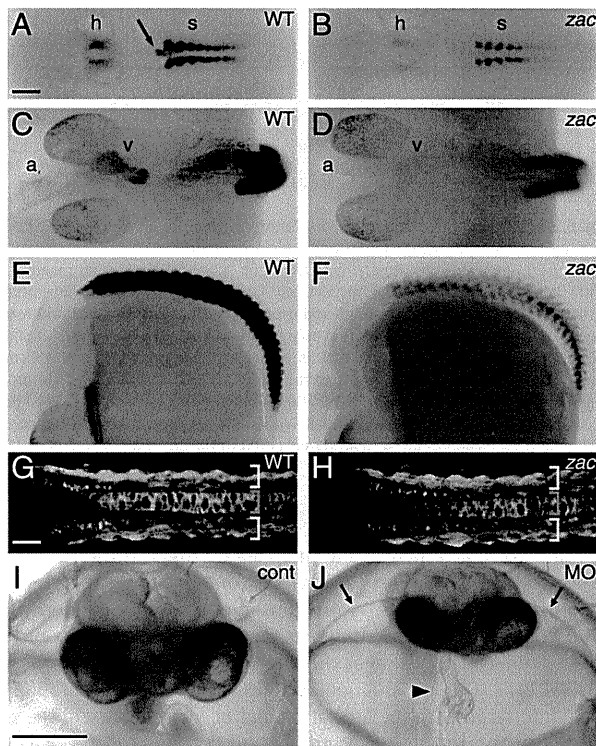


Fig. 3. Expressions of medaka *flnc* in notochord and cardiac and skeletal muscles. Wild-type (A, C, E, G) and *zac* mutant embryos (B, D, F, H). (A–F) Whole-mount RNA *in situ* hybridization analysis of *flnc* expression at stage 22 (A, B) and stage 27 (C–F). Dorsal views (A–D) and lateral views (E, F). Rostral is to the left. *flnc* expression is seen in bilateral cardiac precursor cells (h), somites (s), and the anterior tip of the notochord (arrow). Both atrium (a) and ventricle (v) express *flnc*. Note that *flnc* mRNA expression is reduced in *zac* embryos (B, D, F). (G, H) *flnc* expression visualized in the *flnc* promoter transgenic medaka at stage 26. Dorsal views of the trunk. Rostral is to the left. The level of EGFP expression is not decreased in *zac* mutants, demonstrating that the decrease in the *flnc* mRNAs may be due to instability of mutated *flnc* mRNAs. Yellow and red brackets indicate somites and notochord, respectively. (I, J) Phenocopy by injection of MO. Stage 28, Head frontal views. Dorsal is to the top. Embryos injected with the control MO show the normal appearance (I). However, embryos injected with *flnc*-MO show the cardiac rupture in the ventricle (J; arrowhead) and edema (J; arrows). Scale bars: 100 μ m in “A”, 50 μ m in “G” and 200 μ m in “I”.

we generated a transgenic medaka line expressing EGFP under the regulation of a 3 kb-*flnc* promoter. Both in the wild-type and *zac* mutants, the EGFP transgene was expressed at a similar level (Figs. 3G, H), demonstrating that the transcription of the *flnc* gene was not affected by the *zac* mutation. Moreover, the reduced mRNA expression of *flnc* in *zac* mutants was detected before the appearance of abnormal cardiac and muscular phenotypes (Figs. 3A, B), suggesting that the reduction was not caused by any morphological effect in the *zac* mutants. Taken together, these results suggest that the apparently lower expression of *flnc* in *zac* mutants may have been due to the instability of the mutated mRNAs, as often observed in other cases (Baker and Parker, 2004).

To confirm whether the defect in *flnc* was sufficient to cause the *zac* phenotype, we used morpholino antisense oligonucleotides (MO) targeting the translation of *flnc*. When the MO was injected at a dose of 400 μ M, 13% of the injected embryos displayed a *zac*-like cardiac phenotype including the myocardial ruptures (n=94; Figs. 3I, J). In contrast to the heart phenotype, we did not observe an abnormal phenotype in the skeletal muscles of the MO-injected embryos. It appears that the MO may have required a longer time before producing the skeletal muscle phenotype, but the effect of MO might not have been strong enough to affect the skeletal muscles. We tested higher concentrations of MO (500–1000 μ M); however, the overall shape of the injected embryos was severely deformed.

zac mutation affects the maintenance of the muscle structure rather than its formation

Since the expression of *flnc* in medaka embryos was detected in the early stage of development (see Fig. 3), we investigated whether the *zac* mutation affected the differentiation of cardiac or skeletal muscle cells by examining the expression of various differentiation marker genes. The expression patterns and levels of cardiac differentiation markers, such as *nkx 2.5*, *tbx5a*, *des*, *cmlc2*, and *vmhc*, were not changed in *zac* hearts at stage 27 (Figs. 4A, B; *cmlc2*, C, D; *des*, the data for *nkx 2.5*, *tbx5a*, and *vmhc* are not shown). The expressions of muscle differentiation markers such as *myoD*, *myf5*, and *des* were also normal in the trunk and tail up to stage 30 (Figs. 4E–H). These results suggest that the early differentiation of cardiac and skeletal muscle cells was not affected in the *zac* mutants.

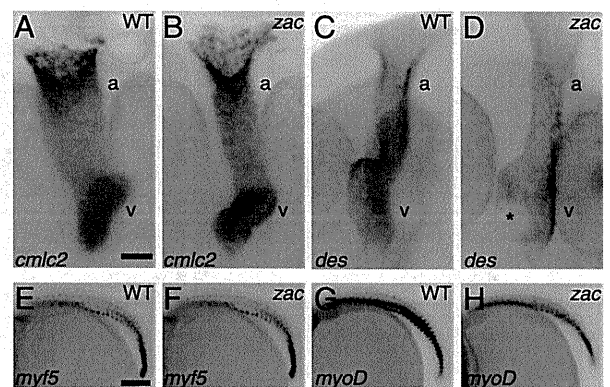


Fig. 4. Expressions of differentiation marker genes in cardiac and skeletal muscle development (A–D). Whole-mount RNA *in situ* hybridization for the expression of cardiomyocyte markers, i.e., *cmlc2* (A, B) and *des* (C, D) at stage 27. Wild-type (A, C) and *zac* mutants (B, D). Dorsal view (A, B) and ventral view (C, D) are shown. Rostral is to the top. Differentiation of cardiomyocytes looks normal. A rupture of the myocardium in the *zac* ventricle is indicated by the asterisk. a; atrium and v; ventricle (E–H) Whole-mount RNA *in situ* hybridization for the expression of muscle markers *myf5* (E, F) and *myoD* (G, H) at stage 27. Wild-type (E, G) and *zac* mutants (F, H). Lateral views. Head is to the left. Both genes show normal expression patterns in the *zac* mutant. Scale bars: 20 μ m in “A” and 200 μ m in “E”.

It has been demonstrated that filamin C protein is localized at the myotendinous junction, Z-disks, and sarcolemma in skeletal muscle fibers, and in the intercalated disks of cardiomyocytes in mammalian and avian hearts (Ohashi et al., 2005; Thompson et al., 2000; van der Ven et al., 2000a). To determine the subcellular localization of filamin C protein in medaka, we performed immunostaining with a filamin C-specific antibody. In the medaka heart, filamin C was localized at cell–cell contact sites between the cardiomyocytes (Fig. 5A). In skeletal muscle, the most abundant expression of filamin C was detected at the junction area where the ends of the muscle fibers attached to the myosepta (Fig. 5B), corresponding to the myotendinous junction (MTJ) in mammals (Summers and Koob, 2002). Filamin C was also localized at the sarcolemma (Figs. 5C–E) and Z-disks (Figs. 5F–H). These results suggest that the localization of filamin C protein is conserved among fish, avians, and mammals.

To examine the effect of filamin C-deficiency on muscle cells, we analyzed *zac* mutants by using a scanning electron microscope (SEM). At stage 27, cardiomyocytes in the *zac* mutant ventricle were not well-ordered ones and had a rougher surface with a number of lamellipodia- and filopodia-like structures (Figs. 6B, D) compared with those in the wild-type heart (Figs. 6A, C), although there was no significant difference in the atrium. These changes were more evident after the onset of blood circulation. Transmission electron microscopic (TEM) analysis of the wild-type heart revealed that organized myofibrils ran along the inner surface side of the cardiomyocytes with the nuclei being located at the outer surface side (Fig. 6E). In contrast, the cytoplasmic structure and subcellular localization of nuclei were severely disorganized in the *zac* mutant (Fig. 6F). Although myofibrils were present even after the rupture of the heart, which is consistent with the fact that the *zac* heart was able to contract, it is also important to note that fewer sarcomere

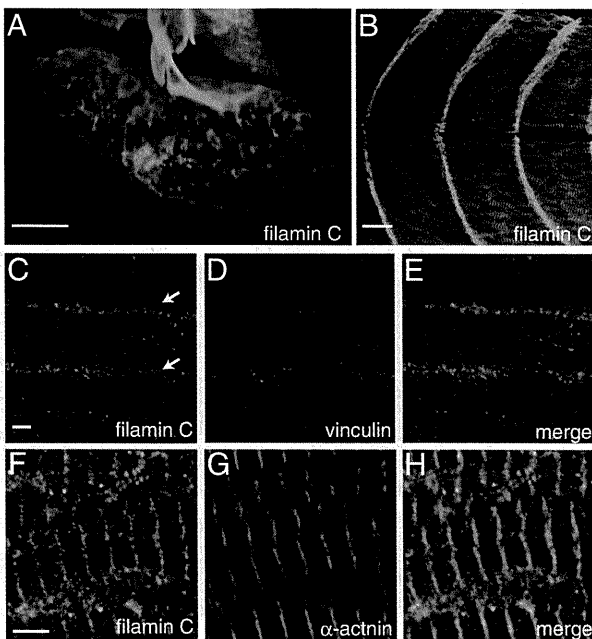


Fig. 5. Subcellular localization of filamin C protein in heart and skeletal muscles. Immunofluorescence staining of filamin C protein in the wild-type embryos. Filamin C is localized at cell–cell contact sites in the heart at stage 32 (A), in the junctional area where the ends of muscle fibers attach to the myosepta (corresponding to myotendinous junction) at stage 32 (B), and in the sarcolemma (C, arrows and merge in “E”), and Z-disks (F and merge in “H”) at stage 40. (C–E) Double staining of filamin C (C), vinculin (D), and their merged image (E). (F–H) Double staining of filamin C (F), α -actinin (G), and their merged image (H). (B–H) Rostral is to the left. Lateral view. Scale bar: 20 μ m in “A” and “B”, 2 μ m in “C” and 4 μ m in “F”.

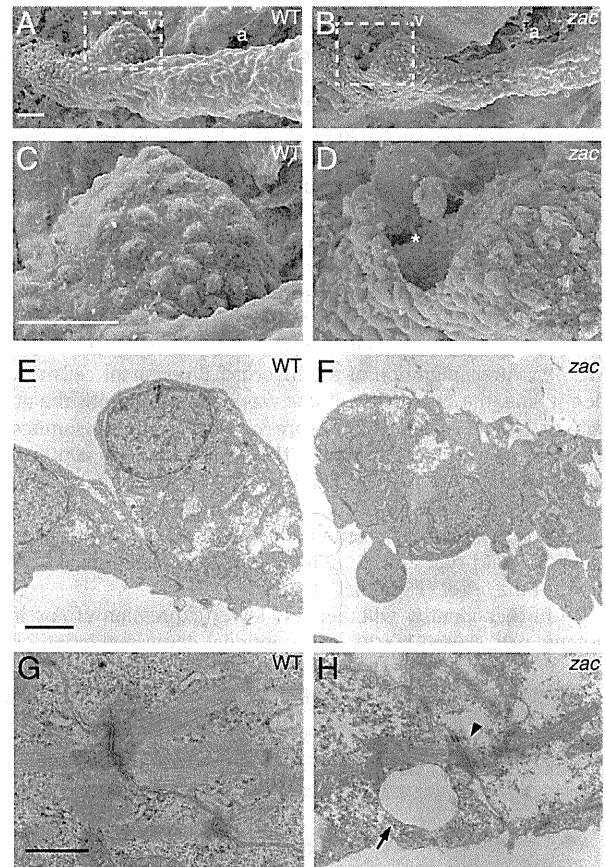


Fig. 6. Ultrastructure of cardiomyocytes. Embryos from the wild-type (A, C, E, G) and *zac* mutants (B, D, F, H). (A–D) Scanning electron microscopic analysis of heart tube at stage 27. Ventral views. Rostral is to the right. “C” and “D” are high magnifications of the boxed area in “A” and “B”, respectively. Cardiomyocytes around the rupture (asterisk) in the *zac* heart show a rough and irregular cell surface. a; atrium and v; ventricle. (E–H) Transmission electron microscopic analysis of cardiomyocytes at stage 27. (E, F) Outer surface of the heart tube is to the top. Cardiomyocytes in *zac* mutants show an abnormal subcellular organization. (G, H) Ultrastructure of intercalated disks at stage 29. Fewer sarcomere bundles are connected to the intercalated disks in *zac* mutants (H, arrowhead) compared with their number in the wild-type (G) at stage 29. Large vacuoles are frequently observed in the *zac* mutants (H, arrow). Scale bar: 20 μ m in “A”, 10 μ m in “C”, 2 μ m in “E” and 1 μ m in “G”.

bundles were attached to the intercalated disks in the *zac* mutants (Figs. 6G, H). Large vacuoles, which contained no sarcoplasmic or membranous materials, were observed in *zac* cardiomyocytes (Fig. 6H). The muscle sarcomere is the important structure for establishing cell–cell adhesion at the intercalated disk between the myocardial cells. Our observations suggest that the *zac* mutation may have interfered with the formation and/or maintenance of the sarcomere structures in the myocardium and that weakened cell–cell adhesion might have resulted in the rupture frequently seen in the ventricle, which is supposed to resist high contraction pressure.

Skeletal muscle was also analyzed by TEM. Although *finc* was expressed from the onset of somitogenesis, the sarcomere structures in the *zac* mutants were normally formed in most of the skeletal muscle fibers and maintained even at stage 30 (Figs. 7A, B). Only in some somites of *zac* mutants had myofibrils degenerated at MTJs at stage 32 (Figs. 7C–F). In addition, focal disorganization of the sarcomere structure was observed in *zac* mutants. In the disorganized area, Z-disks were faint or totally missing (Figs. 7G, H). Many large vacuoles were also observed in *zac* skeletal muscle (Figs. 7I, J). The sarcolemma was frequently detached from the myofibrils, and dilated sarcoplasmic reticula occupied the space between them, in

the *zac* muscle at stage 36 (Figs. 7K, L). These results suggest that filamin C may have contributed to the stabilization of myofibrils at the MTJ, maintenance of the Z-disk structures, and attachment of myofibrils to sarcolemma rather than be involved in myofibril formation.

Reduction in amount of γ -actin at MTJs

Filamins crosslink actin filaments, and link them to cellular membrane by binding to the transmembrane proteins (Stossel et al., 2001). Filamin C interacts with β 1-integrin (Gontier et al., 2005; Loo et al., 1998) and δ/γ -sarcoglycans (Thompson et al., 2000), the components of the DGC. Both complexes are concentrated at MTJs, and have an important role to link subsarcolemmal γ -actin filaments to the ECM in mammals. Since muscle fibers at the MTJs were affected in *zac* mutants, we evaluated the effect of the *zac* mutation on the localization of the proteins involved in this linkage system. Since we did not find any antibodies crossreactive with medaka δ/γ -sarcoglycans, we assessed the sarcoglycan complex by using antibodies against β -sarcoglycan (β -SG). It is known that the entire sarcoglycan complex, containing α -, β -, γ -, and δ -sarcoglycans, becomes destabilized, resulting in decreased localization at the sarcolemma, when any one of its components is disrupted in mammals or zebrafish (Guyon et al., 2005; Mizuno et al., 1994). Similar to the filamin C, integrin β 1D, β -sarcoglycan (β -SG), and γ -actin were accumulated at the MTJ in the wild-type medaka (Fig. 8, upper panels). Although the expressions of integrin β 1D and β -sarcoglycan were not altered in the *zac* mutants, γ -actin was markedly reduced at their MTJs (Fig. 8, lower panels). We also analyzed β -dystroglycan and dystrophin (other components of the DGC) and the phosphorylated forms of FAK and paxillin (downstream molecules of integrin signaling). The results revealed that these molecules were also accumulated at MTJs with no obvious difference in signals between the wild-type and *zac* mutants (data not shown). Since the filamin C is also localized at Z-disks (see Figs. 5F–H), we examined whether the filamin C mutation primarily affected the formation of Z-disks. Double immunostaining of γ -actin and α -actinin revealed that at stage 32 when γ -actin was already altered (Supplementary Fig. 3, upper panels), α -actinin-stained Z-disks were detected normally in *zac* myotome muscle (Supplementary Fig. 3, lower panels), indicating that the primary consequence of the deficiency of filamin C is the defect in the linkage system, not in the Z-disk. These results suggest that filamin C functions to maintain the structural integrity at the MTJs via γ -actin.

zac mutant is more susceptible to mechanical stress by muscle contraction

The observations by electron microscopy and immunohistochemistry demonstrated that muscle degeneration occurred not equally but stochastically in the *zac* mutants. In addition, muscle damage was frequently observed at MTJs, where myofibrils are exposed to strong mechanical stress from muscle contraction. These observations led us to investigate whether muscle degeneration was related to muscle contraction. So we incubated medaka embryos in a solution of tricaine methanesulfonate, which is a common reagent for anesthetizing fish by blocking the action potential. We found that a 0.0015% solution of tricaine methanesulfonate could suppress muscle contraction in medaka embryos without blocking heart beats at stage 27. Under this condition, all embryos survived from stages 27 to 32. So we incubated embryos in this anesthetic and evaluated muscle

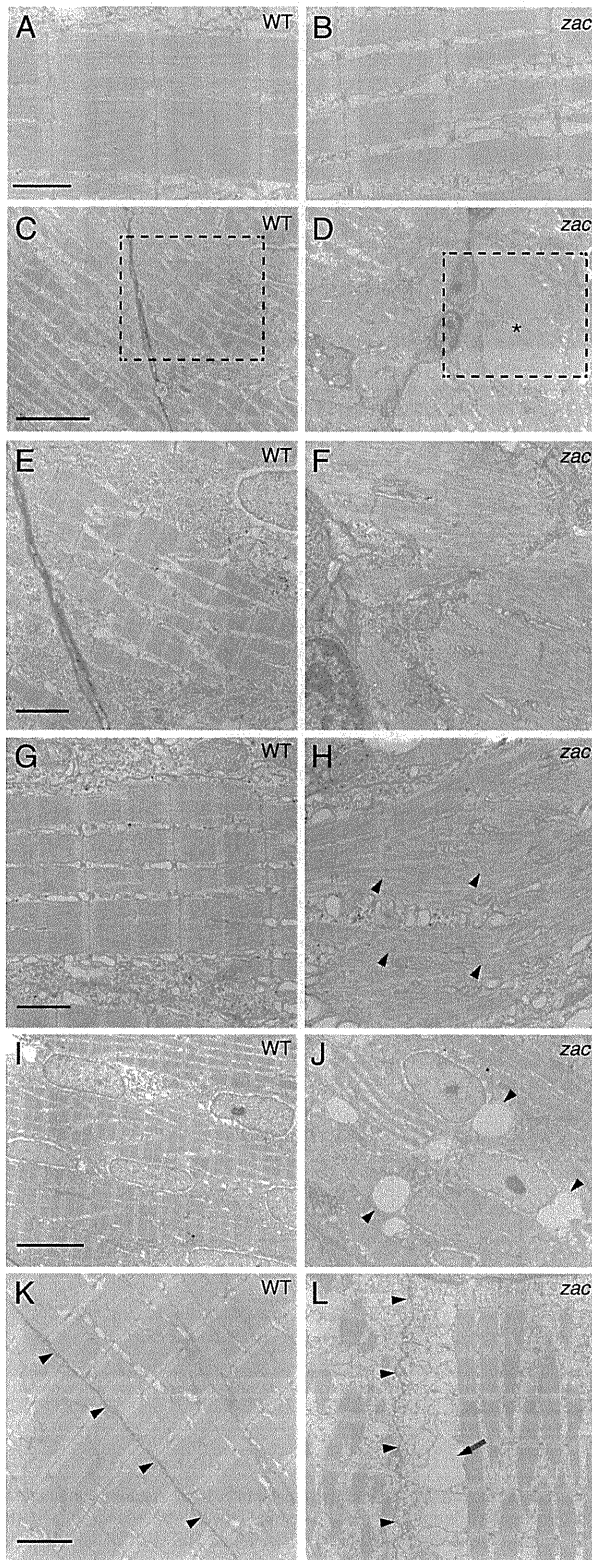


Fig. 7. Ultrastructure of longitudinal section of skeletal muscle. Embryos of wild-type (A, C, E, G, I, K) and *zac* mutant (B, D, F, H, J, L). (A, B) Sarcomere structures are normally formed in *zac* mutants at stage 30. (C–F) Myofibrils have degenerated at myotendinous junctions (asterisk) at stage 32. “E” and “F” are high magnifications of the boxed area in “C” and “D”, respectively. (G, H) Focal disorganization of the sarcomere structure at stage 32. Z-disks are not observed in some myofibrils in *zac* mutants (H, arrowheads). (I, J) Large vacuoles (J, arrowheads) are frequently observed in *zac* mutants at stage 32. They are single-membrane vacuoles, and no sarcomeric or membranous material is seen inside. (K, L) Detachment of sarcolemma from myofibrils in *zac* mutants at stage 36. Even though sarcomere structures are well-preserved, the sarcolemma (arrowheads) has become detached, and dilated sarcoplasmic reticula (L, arrow) occupy the space in *zac* mutants. Scale bar: 1 μ m in “A” and “G”, 5 μ m in “C” and “I” and 2 μ m in “E” and “K”.

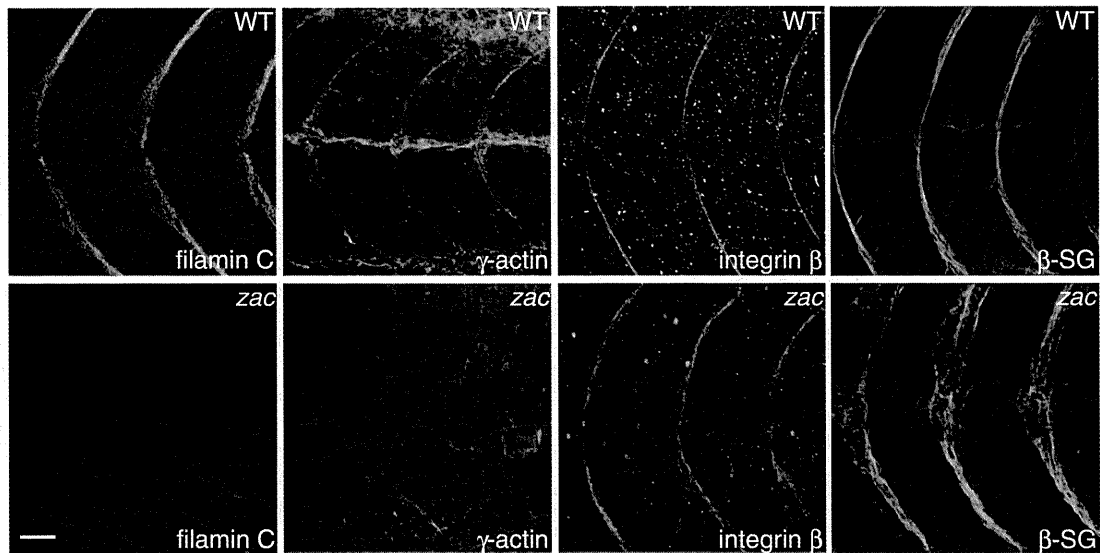


Fig. 8. Immunofluorescence analysis of MTJ. Immunofluorescence stainings of filamin C, γ -actin, integrin β 1D and β -sarcoglycan (β -SG). Each of these proteins accumulates prominently at the MTJ in the wild-type. Only γ -actin protein expression is reduced in the *zac* mutants, whereas other proteins are retained. Rostral is to the left. Stage 32. Scale bar: 20 μ m.

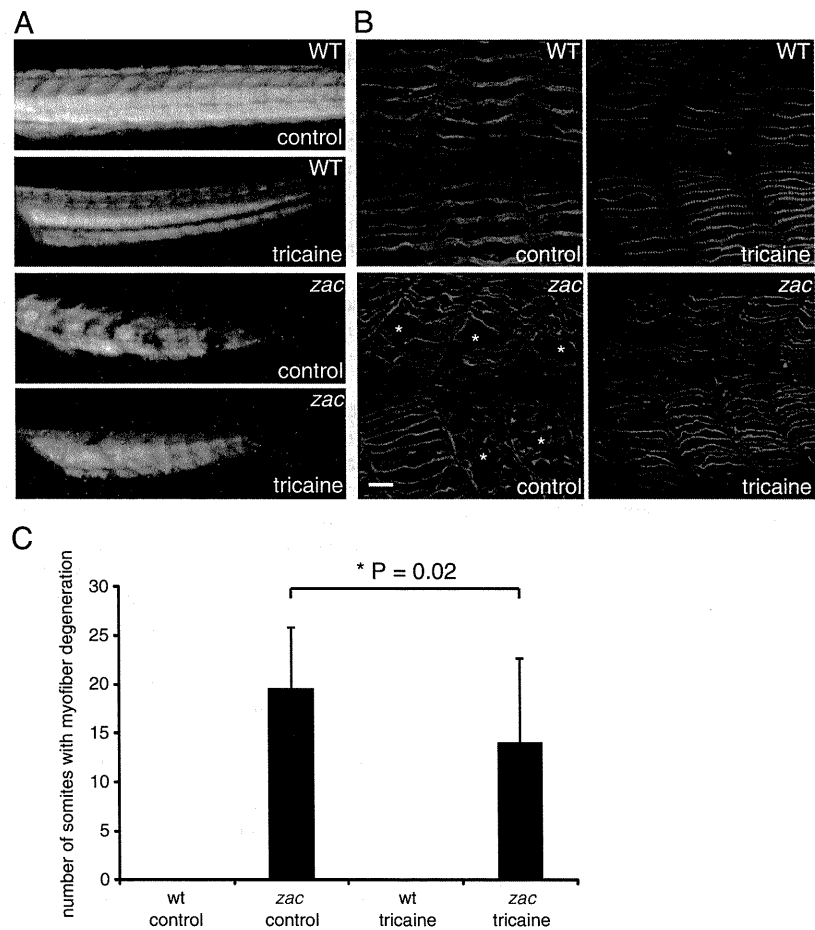


Fig. 9. *zac* mutant is more susceptible to mechanical stress by muscle contraction. (A) Birefringence assay of embryos in the control medium or in the medium containing the anesthetic tricaine methanesulfonate (tricaine). The anesthetized *zac* mutant shows a milder reduction in muscle birefringence compared with the non-treated *zac* mutant. (B) Slow muscle myosin heavy chain staining (F59) of control and anesthetized fish at stage 32. Asterisks show somites having muscle fiber degeneration. Scale bar: 20 μ m. (C) Quantification of muscle degeneration. N = 20, P = 0.02.

degeneration. Anesthetized wild-type embryos appeared to be a bit smaller and skinnier compared with non-treated wild-type embryos, but did not show any perturbed birefringence. As expected, inhibition of locomotion restored muscle birefringence in the *zac* mutants (Fig. 9A). This finding was further confirmed by immunostaining of the slow muscle myosin heavy chain, which staining revealed a decreased level of myofiber disorganization in the anesthetized *zac* mutants (Figs. 9B, C). The myofibers in anesthetized wild-type embryos were thinner than those in the non-treated wild-type embryos, but never had degenerated or become disorganized. Loss of accumulation of γ -actin at the MTJs was not recovered under the tricaine treated condition in the *zac* mutants (data not shown), suggesting that the defect of γ -actin is not contraction-dependent. This is rather supporting the idea that γ -actin is linked to the MTJs by filamin C to reinforce the muscle structure. These results suggest the protective role of filamin C against the mechanical stress to myofibrils caused by muscle contraction.

Discussion

Function of filamin C in the heart

Mutations in human *FLNC* cause a myopathy with altered myofibril organization (Kley et al., 2007; Luan et al., 2010; Shatunov et al., 2009; Vorgerd et al., 2005). These patients frequently show a cardiomyopathy, but the mechanisms causing the cardiac symptom elicited by the each mutation in filamin C have remained unclear. We found that the loss of filamin C in medaka led to cardiac rupture in the ventricular myocardium. Unlike other fish mutants of muscle sarcomere proteins, for example, *pik/ttna* and *sih/tnt2* (Sehnert et al., 2002; Xu et al., 2002), in which heart beating is severely damaged, the *zac* mutant heart started beating normally, and this beating continued. On the other hand, once the heart beating started, a limited region of the ventricle ruptured, though *fnc* was expressed in all myocardial cells. One reason for this tendency for a limited rupture region is that the ventricle was exposed to higher mechanical stress caused by contraction than was the atrium. Thus, this *zac* mutant phenotype indicates that the loss of filamin C may have weakened the mechanical strength of the heart. In accordance with this notion, we observed that the *zac* cardiomyocytes had an abnormally ruffled cell membrane surface, which is probably a consequence of failure of proper cell–cell adhesion, as previously described in the case of *in vitro* cultured cells (Borm et al., 2005). Moreover, TEM analysis revealed that fewer sarcomere bundles were attached to the intercalated disks, where the muscle sarcomeres are involved in establishing cell–cell adhesion. Based on all of our data taken together, we propose that the function of filamin C in the heart may be required for the integrity and stability of the cardiomyocytes.

Compared with the medaka *zac* mutant, the heart phenotype has not been highlighted in the mouse filamin C-deficient model (Dalkilic et al., 2006). This mouse is designed to generate a partial-loss-of-function model, which lacks only the repeats 20th–24th. The expression of a truncated filamin C was detected in this mouse model, especially at a higher level in heart than in skeletal muscle. Similar truncation mutations in *FLNA* have caused total- or partial-loss-of-function phenotypes in human patients (Feng and Walsh, 2004). Like *FLNA* and *FLNB* mutations (Krakow et al., 2004; Robertson et al., 2003), the position of the mutation may be responsible for variation in the phenotypes in *FLNC*. Recently, Duff et al. reported that mutations in the actin-binding domain of filamin C cause a distal myopathy, in which muscle pathology is totally different from the previous cases having myofibrillar myopathy, which is caused by mutations in either the rod or the dimerization domain of filamin C (Duff et al., 2011). In *zac* mutants, a nonsense mutation in the 15th repeat caused a marked reduction in the level of *fnc* mRNA, such that it was barely detectable in the heart (see Fig. 3F). In addition,

translational knockdown by injecting MO revealed a cardiac phenotype similar to that of the *zac* mutant. Taken together, our present findings indicate that the *zac* mutation may represent complete disruption of the filamin C function, leading to severer phenotypes than those seen in the mouse model.

Function of filamin C in skeletal muscle

Since the expression of filamin C started at the onset of somitogenesis, we examined the effect of the *zac* mutation on muscle differentiation. The expressions of muscle differentiation markers were normal, and most of the muscle fibers showed a completely normal structure, based on the electron microscopic observations made at the early stage. However, muscle degeneration started in focal areas, and progressed, with the result being that a larger area became affected by the hatching stage. This progressive muscle phenotype reminded us of its similarity to the one in filamin C-deficient mice, where most fibers exhibited a normal sarcomeric structure, and only some fibers showed Z-disk abnormality. These results suggest that filamin C plays a role in the maintenance of the muscle structure rather than one in myofibrillogenesis in medaka as well as in mammals.

We observed the accumulation of γ -actin at MTJs in wild-type medaka embryos (see Fig. 8). In mammalian muscle fibers, γ -actin exclusively constitutes the subsarcolemmal actin-based cytoskeleton (Rybakova et al., 2000). The γ -actin filaments provide a structural support to muscle fibers by interacting with DGC and the integrin complex. In medaka embryos, DGC and integrin as well as filamin C were concentrated at the MTJs (Fig. 8). Filamin C interacts with both DGC and integrin (Gontier et al., 2005; Loo et al., 1998; Thompson et al., 2000). It was reported that filamin A, the homologue of filamin C, protects cells from mechanical stress by increasing the rigidity of the cortical actin cytoskeleton in non-muscle cells (D'Addario et al., 2001; D'Addario et al., 2003; Shifrin et al., 2009). Thus, it is most likely that filamin C is involved in the linkage system through its interaction with the actin cytoskeleton, DGC, and integrin at the MTJs. Actually, the γ -actin content was reduced and myofibrils were severely affected at the MTJ in *zac* mutants (Figs. 7D, F and 8). Moreover, sarcomere structures in *zac* mutants were more fragile to mechanical stress caused by muscle contraction (Fig. 9). From these results, we suggest that filamin C participates in the linkage system at the MTJs through the stabilization of γ -actin filaments, protecting sarcomere structures from mechanical stress. In addition, γ -actin is also localized at Z-disks (Nakata et al., 2001), as was filamin C observed presently. Our TEM observation revealed that Z-disks were absent in some myofibrils in the *zac* mutants in late stages and that the sarcolemma had detached from the myofibrils, suggesting another role for filamin C in the lateral connections between myofibrils or between myofibrils and the sarcolemma. Unlike the skeletal muscle, cardiac muscle did not show expression of γ -actin in medaka (data not shown), which is consistent with that γ -actin is expressed mainly in smooth muscle actin (Herman, 1993). Different mechanism and interacting partners with filamin C might be involved to retain the mechanical stability at the intercalated disk in cardiomyocytes.

Patients with mutations in either the rod or the dimerization domain of filamin C show large protein aggregates containing the filamin C itself and its interacting proteins, myotilin and Xin, as well as Z-disk-associated proteins, desmin and α B-crystallin, in the cytoplasm of their muscle fibers (Kley et al., 2007; Luan et al., 2010; Shatunov et al., 2009). Ectopic expression of DGC components in the cytoplasm is also observed. Also, it was demonstrated that the W2710X mutation disturbs the structural stability of filamin C protein, leading to perturbed dimerization (Lowe et al., 2007). As a consequence, it has been suggested that mutant filamin C becomes prone to form aggregates, recruiting its interacting proteins into these aggregates. On the other hand, we did not observe any protein aggregates or cytoplasmic expressions of DGC components in the *zac* mutant. Since the expression of mutant filamin C was remarkably decreased in *zac* mutants, it may have not affected the

localization of the interacting proteins. Instead of aggregates, large vacuoles and dilated sarcoplasmic reticulum were observed electron microscopically in cardiac and skeletal muscle fibers in the *zac* mutants (see Figs. 6H and 7J). These vacuoles, which consisted of a single membrane, did not contain any sarcomeric or membranous materials. These features are totally different from the rimmed vacuoles often seen in patients with the W2710X mutation. Non-rimmed vacuoles with strong PAS-positivity were also reported in these patients, but no accumulation of glycogen was seen in the vacuoles in the *zac* mutants. These vacuoles were not described in the mouse model of filamin C-deficiency, either. Although the presence of vacuoles and dilated sarcoplasmic reticula were described in a report on mechanically induced cell death (Kainulainen et al., 2002) or on animal models of collagen VI-deficiency myopathy, in which apoptosis is enhanced in the skeletal muscle (Irwin et al., 2003; Telfer et al., 2010), the level of apoptosis, as assessed by the TUNEL assay, was not altered in the *zac* mutants (data not shown). Furthermore, no nuclei showing features of apoptosis, such as chromatin condensation, were observed in them. Further studies are required to explain the mechanism of vacuole formation and sarcoplasmic reticulum dilatation.

In light of all of our data taken together, we propose a working hypothesis in which filamin C plays an essential role in maintaining the skeletal and cardiac muscle cell alignment and structure, which hypothesis would explain how these muscles can resist mechanical forces to retain the integrity and stability of their adhesion machineries. Filaminopathy patients frequently develop cardiomyopathy, but the cellular basis for the occurrence of these symptoms has been obscure. Therefore, our analysis using the medaka *zac* mutant offers a useful animal model for understanding the function of filamin C in the maintenance of the structural integrity of muscle cells. Moreover, it has not been proved yet that the function of filamin C is linked to the severe heart phenotype such as the rupture of heart chambers seen in humans. It is possible that filamin C may be associated with idiopathic cardiomyopathy. Further functional analyses may provide us a better understanding of the molecular mechanism of filamin C by which muscular tissues are maintained against mechanical stress.

Finally, regarding the medaka filamin C ortholog: FLNC (2 of 2), to find whether it is involved in Filamin C function in medaka, the further development of medaka genome research is required to confirm the whole genome structure of FLNC (2 of 2).

Supplementary materials related to this article can be found online at doi:10.1016/j.ydbio.2011.10.008.

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Case report

A novel mutation in the *LMNA* gene causes congenital muscular dystrophy with dropped head and brain involvement

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Abstract

We describe a 22-month-old girl with axial muscle and diaphragmatic weakness as well as motor developmental delay without mental retardation. The striking clinical feature was a dropped head, although she could walk unaided. T2/FLAIR brain MRI revealed a focal abnormality with high signal intensity in the white matter including U-fibers. A muscle biopsy showed active necrotic and regenerative processes. These distinct clinical findings prompted a mutational analysis of the *lamin A (LMNA)* gene, and we identified a novel heterozygous mutation in *LMNA* (c.1330_1338dup9). This is the first report of an Asian patient with *LMNA*-related congenital muscular dystrophy (L-CMD) and a dropped head.

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Keywords: A-type lamin; *LMNA*; L-CMD; Congenital muscular dystrophy; Dropped head; Brain abnormality

1. Introduction

The *LMNA* gene encoding A-type lamins that are nuclear envelope proteins is located on chromosome 1q11–q23. Mutations in *LMNA* are associated with various diseases, including autosomal dominant and recessive Emery–Dreifuss muscular dystrophy, limb-girdle muscular dystrophy type 1B, cardiomyopathy with conduction defects, familial partial lipodystrophy, Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease type 2B and premature aging syndromes [1]. *LMNA*-related congenital muscular dystrophy (L-CMD) characterized by severe axial muscle weakness with a dropped head has recently been described

[2]. We describe the first Asian patient with L-CMD and a dropped head associated with a novel duplication mutation in *LMNA*.

2. Patient

A 22-month-old Japanese girl was the third child of healthy and non-consanguineous parents. Neuromuscular diseases were not evident in the family history. The patient was born at term with no abnormalities during the pregnancy and neonatal period. Psychomotor development was normal except for poor head control. She sat upright at 9 months of age and walked unaided at 13 months.

A neurological examination at the age of 22 months revealed severe axial muscle weakness predominantly in the neck. She had a proximal dominant muscle weakness, used the Gowers' maneuver to stand up, and had difficulty in raising her arms. She could walk independently with a

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dropped-head posture, but often fell, and was unable to run. Diaphragmatic weakness was observed by fluoroscopy, and transcutaneous blood gas monitoring showed hypercapnia during sleep (Fig. 1B). Deep tendon reflexes were absent. No joint contractures and spinal rigidity were evident.

Her serum CK level was 1317 IU/L (normal <200 IU/L), and electromyography showed myopathic patterns with normal motor and sensory nerve conduction. T2-weighted and FLAIR MRI of the brain showed areas of focal high signal intensity in the white matter including U-fibers (Fig. 2). Findings of electrocardiography and echocardiography were normal. A muscle biopsy taken from the biceps brachii at age 22 months showed myopathic changes with necrotic and regenerating fibers (Fig. 1). Immunohistochemical assessment identified positive staining for dystro-

phin, sarcoglycans, alpha-dystroglycan, emerin, merosin and collagen VI. Mutational analysis of *LMNA* revealed a heterozygous c.1330_1338dup9 (p.E444_D446dup) in exon 7. This duplication was not found in 100 control Japanese DNA samples.

3. Discussion

Reports of L-CMD with a dropped head are rare, and all of them have been from Europe [2–6]. Here we describe the first Asian patient with L-CMD accompanied by a dropped head caused by a novel mutation in the *LMNA*. The muscle weakness in this patient was distinctive in that she was unable to steadily hold up her head and crawl, although she could walk independently. Due to the characteristic muscle involvement with dystrophic muscle pathol-

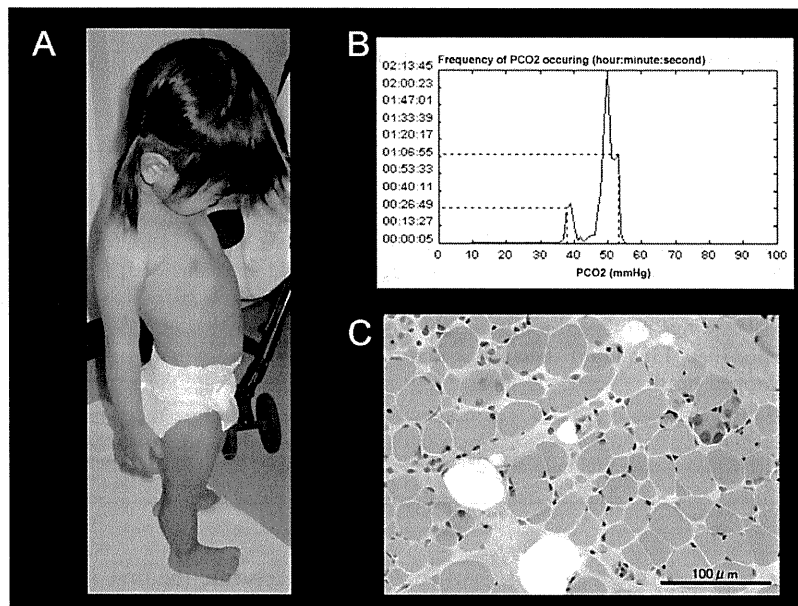


Fig. 1. Patient at age 22 months shows dropped head (A). She can stand and walk independently. Transcutaneous blood gas monitoring of PCO_2 during sleep (B). Muscle biopsy stained with hematoxylin and eosin (C). Necrotic, regenerating and other fibers remarkably vary in size.

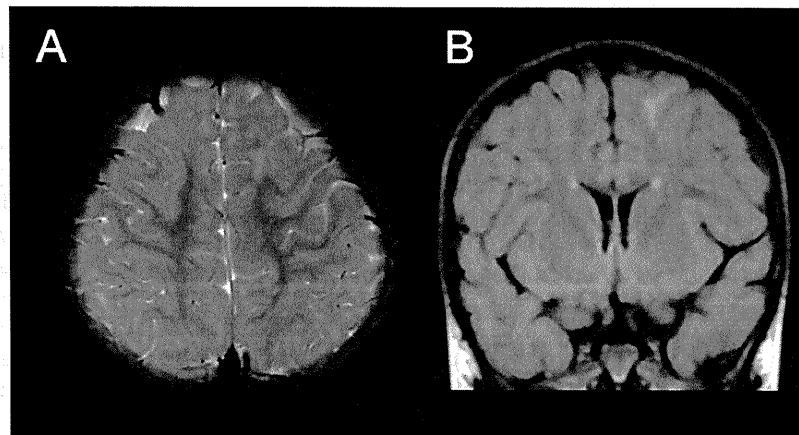


Fig. 2. MRI image of brain. Axial T2 weighted (A) and coronal FLAIR (B) images show focal high signals in white matter including U-fibers.

ogy, we performed a mutational analysis of the *LNMA* and discovered a novel 9-bp duplication that produced a duplication of three amino acids (p.E444_D446dup). A heterozygous missense mutation in *LMNA* is the usual cause of L-CMD and this is the first report of L-CMD caused by an in-frame duplication mutation.

Quijano-Roy et al. clinically subdivided L-CMD in 15 patients into severe and dropped-head types [2]. Nine patients with the dropped-head type acquired independent ambulation between the ages of 13 months and 2.5 years. However, most of them lost the ability to walk within a few years. Respiratory involvement was also evident in the eight of the patients with dropped-head type, and seven of them required non-invasive positive pressure ventilation. Cardiac arrhythmia was another important clinical finding in four of the 15 patients, and one suddenly died despite the outcomes of cardiac studies being normal [2]. Our patient was classified as having the dropped-head type of L-CMD with a diaphragmatic weakness and mild hypercapnia that indicated respiratory insufficiency. Considering published clinical information about L-CMD, respiratory and cardiac management is crucial, because respiratory failure and/or arrhythmia may develop later in life. Polysomnography and 24-h Holter electrocardiography will be performed as soon as our patient is old enough to cooperate, and ventilatory support will be provided if the respiratory insufficiency progresses.

Brain MRI revealed focal white matter changes in our patient. Changes in the white matter of the brain without

molecular data have been associated with Emery–Dreifuss muscular dystrophy [7], but brain involvement has not been associated with *LMNA* mutations until now. Such MRI findings might have occurred independently. Further studies and careful follow up of central nervous system involvement are required for patients with *LMNA* mutations.

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