Pathogenity of some limb girdle muscular dystrophy mutations can result from reduced anchorage to myofibrils and altered stability of calpain 3

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Calpain 3 (CAPN3) is a muscle-specific, calcium-dependent proteinase that is mutated in Limb Girdle Muscle Dystrophy type 2A. Most pathogenic missense mutations in LGMD2A affect CAPN3’s proteolytic activity; however, two mutations, D705G and R448H, retain activity but nevertheless cause muscular dystrophy. Previously, we showed that D705G and R448H mutations reduce CAPN3’s ability to bind to titin in vitro. In this investigation, we tested the consequence of loss of titin binding in vivo and examined whether this loss can be an underlying pathogenic mechanism in LGMD2A. To address this question, we created transgenic mice that express R448H or D705G in muscles, on wild-type (WT) CAPN3 or knock-out background. Both mutants were readily expressed in insect cells, but when D705G was expressed in skeletal muscle, it was not stable enough to study. Moreover, the D705G mutation had a dominant negative effect on endogenous CAPN3 when expressed on a WT background. The R448H protein was stably expressed in muscles; however, it was more rapidly degraded in muscle extracts compared with WT CAPN3. Increased degradation of R448H was due to non-cysteine, cellular proteases acting on the autolytic sites of CAPN3, rather than autolysis. Fractionation experiments revealed a significant decrease of R448H from the myofibrillar fraction, likely due to the mutant’s inability to bind titin. Our data suggest that R448H and D705G mutations affect both CAPN3’s anchorage to titin and its stability. These studies reveal a novel mechanism by which mutations that spare enzymatic activity can still lead to calpainopathy.

INTRODUCTION

Calpain 3 (CAPN3) belongs to a family of Ca\(^{2+}\)-activated neutral cysteine proteinases that have been identified in a wide variety of organisms as disparate as humans and worms (1,2). The ability of these thiol proteinases to cleave a wide variety of substrates in response to calcium activation enables their involvement in various cell processes that include cell motility, signal transduction, apoptosis, cell differentiation and regulation of the cytoskeleton (3). In humans, calpains are encoded by 15 genes with the most studied members of the family being the ubiquitously expressed members, calpains 1 and 2, also known as μ- and m-calpain, respectively. These calpains function as a heterodimer, consisting of a large (80 kDa) and a small (28 kDa) subunit (1,4,5). The crystal structure of calpain 2 was resolved in both the apo- and holoenzyme states, providing information on the potential mechanism of activation, which involves autocatalytic cleavage of an N-terminal pro-peptide prior to substrate cleavage (6,7).

Calpain 3 has 54 and 51% sequence homology to the 80 kDa subunits of μ- and m-calpains, respectively, and...
shares similar properties with these ubiquitously expressed calpains such as Ca\(^{2+}\)-dependent activation and maximal activity at neutral pH (1). At the same time CAPN3 also has distinct characteristics which distinguish it from the ubiquitous calpains (8). First, CAPN3 is predominantly muscle-specific (9), but is detectable in lens, liver, brain and cardiac muscle during development (10–13). Also, CAPN3 lacks a small subunit and likely functions as a homodimer (14–18). CAPN3 has some unique domains including its NH\(_2\)-terminal domain I that contains 20–30 additional amino acids not present in \(\mu\)- and m-calpains and two unique ‘insertion sequences’ of 62 and 77 amino acids at the COOH-terminal regions of domain II (called IS1) and domain III (called IS2). In addition, the calcium concentration essential for activation is in the nanomolar range (compared with micro and millimolar concentrations for calpain 1 and 2, correspondingly) (19). Finally, CAPN3 is very unstable (18,20) and is subject to fast autoproteolytic degradation, a feature which has made it difficult to thoroughly characterize.

Increased interest in CAPN3 was strongly stimulated when it was reported that mutations in its gene result in limb-girdle muscular dystrophy (LGMD) type 2A, characterized by the gradual atrophy of hip and shoulder muscles (LGMD2A, or calpainopathy) (21). In contrast to other types of muscle dystrophy, where mutations occur in genes encoding structural proteins, calpainopathy was the first reported type of dystrophy predetermined by mutations in a gene encoding a proteolytic enzyme. There are over 440 documented mutations in the calpain 3 gene to date, among them 212 (~50%) are missense mutations, many of which alter its catalytic activity (22). Since calpains are proteases, pathology is frequently related to impaired catalytic function (21); however, recent studies have exposed a new potential role for CAPN3 as a structural protein (23,24). CAPN3 is a component of the skeletal muscle triad, responsible for calcium release. It is also a component of the dysferlin complex, disruption of which also results in a limb girdle dystrophy (25). It is plausible that the subcellular localization of CAPN3 determines its particular cellular function, and that mutations can affect any of those functions directly or indirectly (1). In addition, the deleterious effect of missense mutations can arise not only from direct disruption of CAPN3 function(s), but also from disruption of the protein’s structural integrity, which could affect its intra or intermolecular protein interactions and lead to decreased stability or altered localization. Binding of CAPN3 to titin, a giant myofibrillar protein that serves as a scaffold for sarcomeric proteins, provides an example of such an intermolecular interaction. It has been assumed that titin regulates CAPN3 activity and prevents it from autoproteolytic degradation (8,26).

In this investigation, we aim to gain insight into pathogenic mechanisms underlying the development of calpainopathy. We studied two mutations that do not impact the catalytic activity of CAPN3 (R448H or D705G) but do impact binding to titin (27). For these studies, we created transgenic mice that express these mutated proteins (C3-R448H and C3-D705G) in skeletal muscle lacking endogenous CAPN3, to study the effect of mutant CAPN3 in muscle extracts. These studies demonstrate that at least some mutations that do not affect activity, but impact CAPN3s ability to anchor to titin, are pathogenic. The studies show that the mutations effectively reduce the total concentration of CAPN3 in the myofibrillar fraction by making CAPN3 the target of proteolysis by non-cysteine, cellular proteases.

**RESULTS**

**C3-D705G and C3-R448H retain proteolytic activity**

The CAPN3 structure was generated by utilizing protein structure homology modeling using SWISS-MODEL workspace and visualized by PyMol software. The mutated residues R448 and D705 were projected onto the modeled structure. This analysis revealed that both residues are located at a large distance from the active center with R448 being exposed at the surface without obvious contacts with other residues and D705 is located in the EF-hand of domain IV (Fig. 1A). Both observations are consistent with previous reports (28) and suggest that both residues are distant enough from the active center that they should not interfere with proper proteolytic functioning of the enzyme.

To verify this prediction biochemically, we expressed these mutants along with WT (C3-WT) and the active site mutant C129S (C3-C129S) in baculoviral cultures. Western blot analysis of autolytic cleavage was used as an assay of CAPN3 proteolytic function, given that autolysis occurs in three known places in the IS1 domain, resulting in characteristic fragments of 60, 58 and 55 kDa. C3-WT and C3-C129S (proteolytically inactive mutant) were used as positive and negative controls of autocatalytic activity, respectively. The WT protein as well as the three mutant proteins were successfully expressed in the insect cells. The C3-WT, C3-R448H and C3-D705G mutants migrated primarily as the completely cleaved 55 kDa product, with a small amount of protein migrating as 94 kDa (intact CAPN3) (Fig. 1B). As expected, C3-C129S was not degraded and the only band present was the 94 kDa intact CAPN3. Thus, the C3-R448H and C3-D705G mutants showed a cleavage pattern on western blots that is similar to C3-WT and appeared to retain autocatalytic activity.

**Creation of transgenic mice expressing mutant calpains on the C3KO background to conduct in vivo biochemical studies**

We created transgenic mice that express CAPN3 mutants and WT CAPN3 in skeletal muscle to study the biochemical properties of these mutant proteins. Transgenic mice that overexpress mutant cDNAs were created using the human skeletal actin (HSA) promoter to drive expression of R448H and D705G in skeletal muscle. The HSA promoter is activated ~1 day after birth and does not generally express in cardiac tissue (although some lines are leaky and expression can be detected). These mice were then crossed to the CAPN3 knockout (C3KO) mouse so that the only form of CAPN3 present in the muscles were the mutants: either C3-R448H or C3-D705G. Protein expression of the transgenes was first analyzed by western blotting of muscles isolated from transgenic mice on both the WT and KO backgrounds. Despite normal expression of CAPN3 mutant proteins in the baculoviral cultures, the C3-D705G mutant protein could not be detected in muscle...
extracts from transgenic mice on the KO background (Fig. 2A). At the same time, results of qPCR of muscle mRNA demonstrated that C3-D705G mRNA was highly expressed in the same muscles (Fig. 2B and C). These findings suggest that loss of C3-D705G mutant protein in muscle extracts is associated with post-transcriptional events, possibly due to rapid degradation of the mutated protein. Moreover, we found that even when the mutant was overexpressed on the WT background (Fig. 2A, lanes Tg+/WT), there was a reduced concentration of the endogenous CAPN3, as if the mutant had a dominant negative influence on the endogenous protein. Since the D705G mutant protein could not be stably expressed, these mice were excluded from further study.

In contrast to C3-D705G, the C3-R448H protein could be detected in muscle extracts, as shown in Figure 3. Moreover, the level of expression of this mutant protein was notably higher than that of endogenous wild-type. Since we were using an overexpression system, mice expressing wild-type CAPN3 were created to use for comparison. We used mice with a similar level of expression (C3-WT) to account for any observations due to overexpression.

**Muscles from C3-WT and C3-R448H mice show the same pattern of fiber cross-sectional area distribution**

Humans and mice lacking CAPN3 (C3KO) have reduced muscle weight and reduced cross-sectional area of muscle fibers (27). We examined the cross-sectional area of C3-R448H mice to determine if the mutant protein could rescue this aspect of the C3KO phenotype. To resolve this question, cross-sections from soleus muscles of all genotypes of mice (C3-R448H, C3KO and C3-WT and WT mice) were stained for slow myosin (Fig. 4B) and the cross-sectional areas of slow and fast fibers were calculated (Fig. 4A). As expected, the fiber diameter of C3KO was smaller than the fiber diameter in wild-type mice, with the effect more pronounced in fast than in slow fibers. The distribution of fast fiber area for both C3-WT and C3-R448H followed nearly the same pattern as wild-type, with the majority of the fibers in the size range of 1500–2500 \( \mu \)m² (Fig. 4A), but C3-WT had more fibers with the larger area. Thus, both mutant and wild-type transgenes could rescue the fast fiber atrophy. The distribution of slow fiber areas for both transgenes was more similar to knock-out muscles than wild-type, with a higher number of the fibers in the size range of 1501–2000 \( \mu \)m². Thus, the transgenes were able to rescue the atrophy of fast fibers but not slow fibers. Since the transgene is activated at birth, the observation suggests two possibilities. The first is that CAPN3 plays a role in prenatal growth of slow fibers but does not play a role in growth of slow fibers after birth. Alternatively, it is possible that the expression level was too high in slow fibers and was therefore detrimental in some other manner. If the first possibility is true, then these studies are the first to confirm a role for CAPN3 in developmental aspects of calpainopathy using an in vivo model. They also confirm that the C3-R448H transgene is active and able to compensate for the lack of CAPN3 in fast fibers of C3KO muscles.

**Muscle strength measurements in calpain 3 transgenes**

The results above led to the question of whether the observed rescue of the fast fiber cross sectional area also resulted in a functional improvement in muscle strength in the mice, since the majority of fibers in mouse muscle are of the fast type. To measure strength, we tested the grip strength of transgenic mice and compared with C3KO and WT at five different ages. Results of the grip test for the animals at ages 4 and 6 months of age are shown in Supplementary Material,
Figure S1. As expected, C3KO mice showed significantly reduced grip strength compared with WT mice. Interestingly, while the wild-type transgene in C3-WT animals was able to rescue the growth defect (Fig. 4A), it did not rescue muscle strength (Supplementary Material, Figure S1), suggesting that these mice are still weak in spite of their larger fiber size. On the contrary, C3-R448H transgenic animals were stronger than wild-types in all age groups tested (data is shown for two representative age groups). This difference in performance between transgenic and control animals was consistent, independent of animal group age, and became more evident in old animals (data not shown). The CAPN3 transgene on the WT background did not affect grip-strength performance (Supplementary Material, Figure S2). Thus, these data suggest that overexpression of active calpain 3 is deleterious to the muscles; and although it positively impacted muscle atrophy, it was not able to rescue the muscle strength. A less stable, but active CAPN3 (C3-R448H) rescued both the growth defect in fast fibers, and the muscle strength. The pathogenicity associated with overexpression of active C3 is consistent with the gatekeeper model proposed by Beckmann and Spencer (29).

Effects of R448H mutation on CAPN3 activity and stability in vivo

To determine if C3-WT and C3-R448H transgenes retained proteolytic activity in vivo, we assessed their ability to cleave titin, which is an in vitro substrate of CAPN3 (30). As titin is an extremely large protein (≏3 MDa) and cannot be detected by conventional PAGE, specialized gels optimized for detecting large proteins were run. To demonstrate titin cleavage by CAPN3 in vivo, we examined its degradation in wild-type animals compared with C3KO. In Figure 5, the upper band (closed arrowhead) corresponds to intact titin, while the band with a lower molecular weight (open arrowhead) is the product of cleavage by CAPN3. In the absence of CAPN3 (in C3KO muscle), accumulation of the full-length intact titin is apparent. In the presence of active CAPN3, a low-molecular weight fragment is visible on the gel (Fig. 5). Analysis of transgenic muscles revealed that titin was cleaved and the large molecular weight band reduced in both the C3-WT and C3-R448H extracts, verifying that these transgenes are active and able to cleave substrate in vivo. Thus, these studies verify titin as an in vivo substrate of CAPN3 and confirm the activation of the transgenes.

Previous studies have shown that CAPN3 is much more stable in its native environment of whole muscle than in homogenized muscle extracts (31). It was suggested that this increased stability in whole muscle was due to its anchorage to titin. Our previously published data demonstrated that the R448H mutation reduces CAPN3 binding to titin (30), however, the consequence of this reduced binding on disease and on CAPN3 stability and localization in vivo has not been examined. To determine the impact of R448H and disrupted binding to titin on CAPN3’s biochemical stability in vivo, two sets of experiments were carried out, similar to those performed by Anderson et al. (31) on human biopsies. One experiment involved homogenization of fresh muscle tissue (from transgenic animals) in saline and analysis of CAPN3 degradation at various time points. For the second experiment, freshly dissected transgenic muscles were allowed to sit for designated periods of time at room temperature followed by homogenization and western blot analysis of CAPN3 protein. In
sitting' (Fig. 6A). In contrast, C3-R448H was much less
significant signs of degradation, even after 30 min of
homogenized muscle. In whole muscle, C3-WT showed no
which CAPN3 was shown to be more stable in whole versus
fragments on western blot (Fig. 6B). Therefore, both in hom-
degraded after 30 min, migrating as 55–60 kDa degradation
stable in whole fresh muscle, where 55% of the protein was
CAPN3 protein under these conditions.

The R448H mutant can be stably expressed in transgenic mouse
skeletal muscle. Western blot analysis of muscle extracts from transgenic
Figure 3. The R448H mutant can be stably expressed in transgenic mouse
skeletal muscle. Western blot analysis of muscle extracts from transgenic
mice demonstrates that the R448H mutant can be detected in vivo. The full
length calpain 3 cDNA (C3-WT) was expressed as a transgene to use as a
control for the R448H mutant. Characteristic cleavage fragments of 60, 58
and 55 kDa can be seen in extracts from C3-WT and C3-R448H in western
blots using the 12A2 antibody.

Whole muscle experiments confirmed previous findings in
which CAPN3 was shown to be more stable in whole versus
homogenized muscle. In whole muscle, C3-WT showed no
significant signs of degradation, even after 30 min of
‘sitting’ (Fig. 6A). In contrast, C3-R448H was much less
stable in whole fresh muscle, where 55% of the protein was
degraded after 30 min, migrating as 55–60 kDa degradation
fragments on western blot (Fig. 6B). Therefore, both in hom-
ogenized muscle and whole muscle, the C3-R448H mutant
was much less stable than C3-WT.

C3-R448H is susceptible to proteolytic degradation by
cellular proteases in muscle extracts

The observation that the C3-R448H mutant degraded faster
than C3-WT led to the hypothesis that this destabilized
protein might become the subject of proteolysis by other pro-
tases and not only by autolysis. To test this hypothesis, we
used a mixture of non-cysteine proteinase inhibitors (see
Methods for details) and carried out biochemical degradation
experiments. Muscles from C3-WT and C3-R448H were hom-
ogenized in the presence of a protease inhibitor cocktail that
was used a mixture of non-cysteine, cellular proteases acting on
the autolysis of C3-R448H, monitored by the presence of inhibitors of different classes of proteases.

To identify the type of protease acting upon C3-R448H, we
incubated muscle extracts from the C3-R448H transgenic in
the presence of inhibitors of different classes of proteases,
each in an individual reaction. As shown in Fig. 7B, all
classes of protease inhibitors were effective in preventing
some, but not all, of the degradation of the mutant protein.
Thus it appears that the R448H mutation results in increased
susceptibility to proteolytic degradation by non-cysteine pro-
tases of several different classes. The identification that other
cellular proteases can act on the autolytic cleavage sites of
CAPN3 is a novel finding and will change the interpretation
of many different past and future studies in the area.

Subcellular localization of wild-type CAPN3 and point
mutants

We previously showed that R448H and D705G mutants have a
reduced ability to bind to titin in vitro (30). To study if R448H
and D705G mutations cause a relocalization of CAPN3 from the
myofibril in vivo, we performed two types of experiments. First,
we performed in vivo electroporation of GFP tagged CAPN3,
R448H and D705G mutants in live muscle fibers as described
previously (32). A GFP fusion of the active site mutant,
C129S was also tested. Numerous studies have attempted to
identify the localization of CAPN3 in skeletal muscle by per-
forming immunohistochemistry of tissue sections and isolated
myofibrils (33–35). In those studies, CAPN3 was shown to
exist in numerous sites including at the N2-line, Z disc,
M-line, costameres, nuclei and myotendinous junctions. As an
alternative approach and to localize CAPN3 in live muscle,
the FDB muscle was electroporated with the GFP-plasmids,
and after 3 days, the muscles were dissected and visualized by
two-photon laser-scanning microscopy (TPLSM) as previously
carried out for other proteins (32,36,37). For these studies, we
used two additional indicators as landmarks for the sarcomeric
structure: (i) the second harmonic generation (SHG) imaging,
which demarcates the A band (myosin thick filaments) and
(ii) the staining of a fluorescent non-penetrating potentiometric
dye called di-8-ANEPPS, which labels the surface and T-tubule
membranes.

Visualization of the active site mutant C3-C129S by
TPLSM displayed a double-banded, transverse expression
pattern that revealed three peaks per sarcomere (Fig. 8).
The peak of the thin C129S band co-localized with the peak of
the SHG, which is consistent with M-line localization
(Fig. 8, top panel). When compared with di-8-ANEPPS
staining, the peaks of the broad C129S bands coincided well with
the T-tubules (Fig. 8, bottom panel). C129S was not detected
in the nucleus nor at the Z-line, as previously reported by
others (33,34). Thus, these data indicate that the active site
mutant, C129S primarily localizes at the N2-line (as a major band) and at the M-line (as a minor band), supporting its anchorage on titin. This distribution is clearly different from that of soluble GFP (Supplementary Material, Figure S3, top panel), thus ruling out that these findings result from a simple passive distribution of the calpain construct. All other constructs (C3-WT, C3-R448H and C3-D705G) when electrooporated, caused destruction of the myofibrillar structure of the muscles, suggesting that CAPN3 is active and harmful for muscles when overexpressed in this manner. Unfortunately, the degraded myofibrils made it impossible to assess the subcellular localization of mutants; however, these experiments constitute the first in vivo testing of CAPN3’s localization in a muscle fiber and validate previous yeast two-hybrid findings.

As an alternative approach to understanding the effect of mutations on the distribution of CAPN3, we carried out fractionation of transgenic muscle extracts (Fig. 9). As we showed previously (23), CAPN3 is present in the myofibrillar, cytosolic and membrane fractions. Analysis of C3-WT and C3-R448H by western blotting confirmed the established pattern of CAPN3 distribution between these fractions with its highest concentration in cytosolic and myofibrillar fractions. However, densitometric analysis of western blots showed a nearly 3-fold reduction of C3-R448H in the myofibrillar fraction and an ≏25% decrease in the membrane fraction compared with C3-WT (Fig. 9). This reduction in C3-R448H content in both fractions likely reflects the effect of the mutation on CAPN3’s ability to interact with its binding partner(s) such as titin.

**CAPN3 is phosphorylated in the myofibrillar fraction**
We employed a structural analysis to investigate how the R448H mutation might impact the secondary structure of
CAPN3. One of the possibilities we considered was that the mutation affected the secondary structure in such a way that it altered the position of potential salt bridge interacting partners of R448: Asp 452 and Glu 562. Interestingly, both of these acidic residues are surrounded by other residues that could potentially be phosphorylated (Fig. 10A). To verify if the altered structure caused changes in the phosphorylation state of the mutant protein, we compared the phosphorylation state of C3-WT and C3-R448H. The possibility of calpain’s 1 and 2 regulation through phosphorylation had been proposed and discussed earlier by Goll et al. (1). Initially, we accessed phosphorylation state of calpain 3 immunoprecipitated from whole lysates of C3-WT and C3-R448H transgenic muscles. We were not able to detect phosphorylated CAPN3 in immunoprecipitated material from whole lysates. Most likely the sensitivity of this method is not sufficient to detect such a small percent of phosphorylated protein in the analyzed material (data not shown). Next, we analyzed material immunoprecipitated from the myofibrillar fraction. After isolation of the myofibrillar fraction, CAPN3 was immunoprecipitated and subjected to phosphoprotein analysis. Although the loss of C3-R448H from the myofibrillar fraction made it impossible to determine if differential phosphorylation was taking place between C3-WT and C3-R448H, the data revealed that myofibrillar C3-WT was indeed phosphorylated (Fig. 10B). While further analysis is required to access the phosphorylation state of CAPN3 and its mutants in various fractions, this observation points at phosphorylation as potential regulatory factor for CAPN3 stability, activity or localization. To summarize, our studies showed that the pathogenicity of some CAPN3 mutations could be attributed to the loss of CAPN3 anchorage to titin on the myofibril and its degradation by cellular proteases.

**DISCUSSION**

Mechanisms involved in the pathogenesis of the autosomal recessive LGMD type 2A caused by mutations in the CAPN3 gene (21,38) have been the focus of numerous studies since the identification of the gene defect (reviewed in 1,2). As CAPN3 can serve catalytic or structural functions (23,24) in the cell, depending on its subcellular localization within the muscle fiber, it is feasible that pathogenic mutations can result in alteration of either of these functions. In an attempt to understand which factors might be involved in the development of pathology, we studied two mutations, R448H and D705G, which retain proteolytic activity and are still disease causing. Our previous in vitro studies showed that these mutations reduce CAPN3 binding to titin (30). We used an in vivo system to perform the ultimate test as to whether mutations that impair calpain anchorage to titin are pathogenic and whether they can affect activity, stability or localization in the muscle environment. Because CAPN3 is more stable in vivo, and because we were interested in the effect of these mutations on disease, we developed in vivo models to test the question of whether disruption of CAPN3’s ability to anchor on titin could be a primary pathogenic mechanism.

Initially, transgenic proteins hosting the R448H or D705G mutations were successfully expressed in a baculoviral system and clearly demonstrated high autolytic activity. The observation that CAPN3 was mainly detected in our recombinant expression system as hydrolyzed fragments is in accordance with previously reported results on high CAPN3 instability when expressed in cell cultures (18,20). Although CAPN3 exhibits fast degradation in muscle homogenates as well, it can be detected in an intact state when examined by western blot immediately after homogenization of fresh muscle (31). It is plausible that CAPN3’s ability to withstand degradation in whole muscle can be attributed to stabilizing interactions with some binding partner(s).

Previously reported observations revealed titin as such a partner for CAPN3 (39) as well as an in vitro substrate (30). Titin (or connectin) is a huge protein, which spans half the length of the sarcomere (~1 μm) from the M-line to the Z-band. Titin serves as a molecular scaffold for the assembly of sarcomeric proteins and is responsible for passive tension generation within fully differentiated muscle fibers (40,41). It also plays numerous other cellular roles including compartmentalization of metabolic enzymes (binding of DRAL/FHL-2) and positioning of the T-tubules and sarcoplasmic reticulum (binding of sANK1 and obscurin) (42–53). Titin might also act as a stretch sensor that underlies length-dependent signaling processes (54). CAPN3 binds at the N2A and M-line
regions of the titin molecule and is able to cleave titin at both the M-line and PEVK region (refer to Supplementary Material, Fig. S4 for schematic representation of CAPN3 localization within myofiber) (26,55). Yeast two-hybrid analysis indicated that binding to the M-line region required the full-length CAPN3 molecule and N2A line binding involved only the IS2 sequence (8,26). It was speculated that localization of CAPN3 in the vicinity of its substrate(s) provides a fast response to changing conditions within the muscle (29).

As previous tests of calpain 3 showed that it is much more stable in its native environment of whole muscle than when the muscle is homogenized (31), it was hypothesized that this increased stability in whole muscle was due to its anchorage on titin and that this association was disrupted by homogenization. Studies here validated a previous report of increased stability of CAPN3 in whole muscle versus homogenized muscle. This observation supports the idea of CAPN3-stabilizing interactions in vivo. We tested C3-WT and C3-R448H in both experimental settings and noticed that C3-R448H demonstrated a significantly higher degradation rate than CAPN3 under both conditions. Degradation analysis carried out in the presence of non-cysteine proteinase inhibitors showed that C3-WT was mainly autoproteolyzed and that inhibitors of other cellular proteases did not prevent its autolysis to any significant degree. However, in the case of C3-R448H, degradation by other cellular proteases predominated and was the main reason for the loss of CAPN3 over time. Interestingly, in the presence of the protease inhibitor cocktail, the rate of mutant autolysis was slower than the rate of C3-WT autolysis, meaning that the autocatalytic function of the mutant protein might be affected by the mutation as well as its binding to titin and stability. Despite slowed autocatalytic activity of the C3-R448H compared with C3-WT, both transgenes readily cleaved titin (Fig. 5). These results show that although the mutation does not abolish catalytic activity of CAPN3, it significantly affects the protein’s stability.

Proteolytic degradation by cellular proteases may also be the reason why the D705G mutation resulted in loss of CAPN3 protein in vivo. Previously, it was shown that C3-D705G binding to titin was lowered in vitro (30). Our studies showed that C3-D705G was detectable in the baculoviral culture in active form (Fig. 1B) and the D705G transgene has a dominant-negative effect on endogenous wild-type CAPN3 (Fig. 2A). Notably, the observation of a dominant negative effect fully supports the earlier notions reviewed by Beckmann and Spencer (29) and the dimeric structure proposed for C3 by Davies and colleagues (16). In accord with prior data reported by Davies and colleagues (16), we suggest that CAPN3’s ability to bind to titin and its stability are governed by its ability to form a dimer. Thus, it is plausible that the D705G mutant dimerized with endogenous CAPN3 and somehow prevented even WT CAPN3 from binding to titin.

The data demonstrating decreased C3-R448H concentration in the myofibrillar fraction of muscle is consistent with the notion that titin stabilizes and protects CAPN3 from proteolytic and autolytic degradation in the myofibrils. There could be several explanations for this decrease in the amount of C3-R448H bound to titin: (i) given that CAPN3 binds to two different regions of titin, (N2- and M-line) binding to one of those regions could be abated, while binding to the other retained; (ii) alternatively, CAPN3 could retain its ability to bind to both regions, but in this case binding to

Figure 6. The R448H calpain 3 mutant degrades faster than wild-type calpain 3 in transgenic muscles. (A) Western blot analysis of CAPN3 content at different time points in fresh muscles homogenized in saline (left panel) and in whole muscle allowed to ‘sit’ at room temperature for indicated periods of time (right panel). The calpain 3 specific IS2 antibody was used for detection in western blots. (B) Rates of degradation of calpain 3 expressed as a percent of initial concentration of intact protein.
each could be significantly lower; (iii) CAPN3 binds to titin as a dimer and impaired ability of the mutant to dimerize results in reduced binding. Previous *in vitro* experiments showed that although the R448H mutation resulted in a reduction of CAPN3 binding to the titin M-line and N2-line, it did not fully abate binding to either site (30), so fully abated binding to either site is not likely the case. The two latter reasons may be the likeliest explanation for observed decrease in CAPN3 content.

Previously, it was proposed that CAPN3 might serve its proteolytic function as a dimer formed through the penta-EF-hand domain (16). Recently, it was suggested that dimerization could also occur through domain III as in the case of calpain 8 (56). In the latter situation, oligomerization provides stability rather than a direct affect on proteolytic activity, since both monomer and dimer are active. Based on these reports, we hypothesize that dimer formation could protect the autolytic sites from exposure to the surface and cleavage by cellular proteases and impaired ability of C3-R448H to form a dimer might result in its increased susceptibility to degradation. However, further experiments are required to support this suggestion.

In order to understand the possible impact of the R448H mutation, we used various online tools to analyze its potential consequences. First, we utilized ProPeptide Cleavage Site Prediction server (57) to analyze if any new sites for proteolytic cleavage were formed when the mutation is present. Analysis did not reveal any new cleavage sites. Next we analyzed the structural model of the protein to detect residues in the vicinity of R448 that could be affected by mutations. As such, Glu 562 or Asp 452 could be considered as potential partners for salt bridge formation. Although according to the model those residues are not positioned at an optimal distance for salt bridge formation, potential loop flexibility allows consideration of this assumption. Interestingly, both acidic residues are surrounded by residues which could be potentially phosphorylated (Fig. 10). This notion leads to the hypothesis that if R448 forms a salt bridge with Glu 562 or Asp 452, the
mutation could disrupt this interaction and subsequently affect the phosphorylation state of neighboring residues and/or affect localization of CAPN3. We accessed the phosphorylation state of the C3-WT and C3-R448H transgenes and demonstrated that C3-WT in the myofibrillar fractions is in fact phosphorylated. However, the decreased amount of C3-R448H in the myofibrillar fraction made it impossible to determine if changes in the phosphorylation state coincide with the mutation. Phosphorylation as a factor regulating CAPN3 localization and activity is very attractive, especially if we consider calcium-dependent phosphorylation which could be altered when the mutation is introduced. Notably, domain 3 contains two regions that could be phosphorylated by both CaMKII and CaMKIV (Supplementary Material, Figure S5). R448 is close to the first potential phosphorylation site, which could be affected when the mutation is introduced. It is feasible that CAPN3 binds to titin in a phosphorylated state and phosphorylation stabilizes the protein. The R448H mutation alters this phosphorylation status, thereby altering the structure and exposing sites for proteolytic degradation.

To summarize, these studies demonstrated a correlation between loss of CAPN3-titin binding, loss of CAPN3 from the myofibrillar fraction and reduced stability of CAPN3 in muscle. They are also the first to demonstrate that the ‘autolytic’ sites in CAPN3 can be cleaved by other cellular proteases. The R448H and D705G mutations likely reduced the stability of CAPN3 by changing the ability of neighboring residue(s) to undergo certain modifications and/or to form stabilizing bonds. The loss of stabilizing bonds could potentially affect dimer formation and/or the phosphorylation state of CAPN3 and, consequently, alter its binding to titin and make it more susceptible to proteolytic degradation by cellular proteases. Although detailed follow-up studies are required to clarify which potential interactions are affected in the case of the R448H mutation, it appears that a proper interaction with titin is abated due to the mutation and that it becomes a target for various proteolytic enzymes. Thus, these studies reveal a novel mechanism by which mutations that do not impact proteolytic activity of CAPN3 enzyme can still be pathogenic.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Structural modeling**

CAPN3 structure was generated by utilizing protein structure homology modeling using SWISS-MODEL workspace (58–60) and visualized by PyMol (URL: The PyMOL Molecular Graphics System, Version 1.2r3pre, Schrödinger, LLC.) and Chimera softwares (http://www.cgl.ucsf.edu/chimera) (61).

**Antibodies**

Antibodies used for western blot analysis included mouse monoclonal CAPN3 12A2 antibody (1:100), Novocastra; goat polyclonal calpain plS2 antibody (1:2000) was the generous gift of Dr H. Sorimachi; mouse monoclonal NCL titin antibody (1:750), Novocastra. Secondary Ab anti-mouse and anti-goat conjugates with HRP were from Amersham. Blots were developed using Chemi Glow substrate (Alpha Innotech). Mouse monoclonal slow MHC antibody (1:50), Novocastra, was used for immunohistochemistry.
Expression of D705G and R448H in vitro and in vivo

To test whether CAPN3 mutants retain autolytic activity, wild-type CAPN3, C129S, R448H and D705G mutants were cloned into pVL1393 baculoviral transfer vector according to manufacturer’s recommendations (BD Biosciences) without any tags to ensure proper protease activity. Insect cells were plated on 10 cm cell-culture dishes at 50–70% of confluence, and infected with CAPN3 high titer viral stocks. After incubation for 3 days at 27°C, cells were harvested by lysis in Insect Cell Lysis Buffer (BD Biosciences) with Protein Inhibitor Cocktail (Sigma, 1:100). Soluble fractions were analyzed by western blotting using anti-CAPN3 antibody to verify CAPN3 expression and to detect the products of autolytic cleavage.

Real-time RT–PCR

Total RNA was isolated from hamstring muscles of wild-type, C3KO and C3-D705G animals using Trizol reagent (Invitrogen) according to manufacturer’s protocol. Genomic DNA contamination was removed by DNase treatment for 30 min at 37°C. To produce cDNA, 2 µg of DNA-free RNA was used for first-strand cDNA synthesis with random hexamer primers and Superscript III reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen). The resulting cDNAs were used for PCR amplification of CAPN3 cDNA fragment using the following primers:

sense 5′-CCCACCAGGAGGGGGAATTCATCC-3′ and antisense 5′-CAGGCCTTGGCTGTGGGGTTTC -3′ (237 bp).

Parallel reactions were run with the same cDNA samples and GAPDH-specific primers:

sense 5′-ACTCCACTCACGCAAATTC-3′ and antisense 5′-TCTCCATGGGTGGTGAAGACA-3′ (171 bp).

PCR amplification using these primers resulted in the generation of single bands as demonstrated by conventional PCR. All real-time reactions were performed using IQ™ SYBR Green Supermix PCR reagent (Bio-Rad) and My IQ™ Single Color Real-time PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad). Optical System Software Version 1.0 (Bio-Rad) was used to analyze the results. Quantification utilized standard curves made from serial dilutions of control cDNA sample. Data from each sample were normalized by dividing the quantity of target gene cDNA (CAPN3) by the quantity of house-keeping gene cDNA (GAPDH) to correct for variability in the individual samples.
samples were boiled for 1 min and analyzed as described earlier. Equal aliquots were taken after 0, 10, 20, 40, 60, 90, 120 and 150 min of incubation at 37°C. Pellets and supernatants were centrifuged at 10,000 g for 15 min at 4°C. All samples were mixed with 2 x running sample buffer, boiled for 1 min and analyzed as described earlier. Inhibitors of various proteases (antipain, aprotinin, bestatin, chymostatin, E64, EDTA, leupeptin, pepstatin, AEBSF, phosphoramidon, PMSF) were used at concentrations recommended by the manufacturer (G-Biosciences, cat # 786-207).

**Fractionation**

Mouse quadriceps muscles (100–200 mg) from C3KO, C3-WT and C3-R448H (three animals each) were homogenized on ice in 15 volumes of Buffer A (10 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.8; 0.25 M sucrose, 0.2 mM EDTA), containing phosphatase inhibitors (10 mM sodium fluoride, 10 mM sodium pyrophosphate, 2 mM sodium orthovanadate) and protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma, cat # P8340). Alternatively, Halt cocktail (ThermoScientific) was used to block protease and phosphatase activity. The homogenates were centrifuged at 3000 g for 30 min at 4°C. Pellets contained myofibrils, while the supernatant contained mitochondrial, cytosolic and membrane proteins.

The pellets (myofibrillar fraction) were resuspended in the initial volumes of Buffer B (20 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.2; containing 5 mM EGTA, 100 mM KCl, 1% Triton X-100, phosphatase and protease inhibitors at concentrations mentioned earlier). After incubation on ice for 1 h, the suspension was centrifuged at 3000 g for 30 min at 4°C. The supernatant was discharged and the pellet was resuspended in the same volume of Buffer B. After centrifugation at 3000 g for 30 min at 4°C, the pellet was resuspended in 1 ml of Buffer C (20 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.2; 100 mM KCl and protease/phosphatase inhibitors). DTT was not included in the buffer as it eradicates anti-phosphatase action of sodium orthovanadate. Samples were centrifuged at 3000 g for 30 min at 4°C, resuspended in Buffer C and filtered through nylon. After centrifugation at 5000 g for 15 min at 4°C, myofilibrils were resuspended in Buffer A and either sonicated for 5 s or passed several times through syringe needle to reduce viscosity.

Supernatant fractions from the first centrifugation step (cytosol, membrane and mitochondria) were centrifuged at 12,000 g for 15 min at 4°C. Pellets contain myofibrils while supernatants contain cytosolic and membrane proteins.

**Sample preparation and immunoblotting**

For expression level analysis, mouse tissues were dissected and frozen in liquid nitrogen. After homogenization on ice in 30 volumes (w/v) of reducing sample buffer [80 mM Tris–HCl (pH 6.8), 2% (w/v) glycerol, 100 mM dithiothreitol and protease inhibitors (P-8340; Sigma-Aldrich)] samples were boiled for 1 min and analyzed as described previously (62).

Western blot analysis of fresh whole and homogenized in saline quadriceps muscle samples was performed as described by Anderson et al. (31). Densitometry was performed utilizing FluorChem FC2 software from Alpha Innotech. CAPN3 content was estimated by IS2 antibody.

Inhibitory analysis with the mixture of non-cysteine inhibitors was performed with frozen quadriceps muscles homogenized on ice in 30 volumes of saline (mg/ml) and immediately divided into two tubes, one of which contained the mixture of aprotinin (serine proteases), bestatin (amino and exo-peptidases), pepstatin (aspartic) and 4-(2-aminoethyl)-benzenesulfonyl-fluoride hydrochloride (AEBSF, serine proteases) at the concentration recommended by the manufacturer (G-Biosciences, cat # 786-207). Equal aliquots were taken after 0, 10, 20, 40, 60, 90, 120 and 150 min of incubation at room temperature and mixed with equal volume of 2 x running sample buffer, boiled for 1 min and kept on ice until being analyzed by immunoblotting as described earlier.
Mitochondrial fraction was resuspended in Buffer A and subjected for centrifugation at 12,000 g for 15 min at 4°C repeatedly for 3–4 times. After the last centrifugation, the pellet was snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and kept at −80°C for future analysis.

Cytosolic and membrane fractions were separated by centrifugation at 130,000 g for 60 min at 4°C. Membrane fraction was dissolved in 0.1–0.2 ml of Buffer A.

All fractions were aliquoted and either mixed with equal amounts of 2× reducing buffer for subsequent PAGE and immunoblotting or frozen in liquid nitrogen and kept at −80°C for future use.

Phosphorylation status of CAPN3 transgenes in myofibrillar fraction was analyzed following fractionation and immunoprecipitation with IS2 antibody by Pro-Q Diamond phosphoprotein blot staining (Molecular probes). The same membrane was analyzed for CAPN3 content after removal of phosphoprotein stain. In addition, samples were tested with anti-phosphotyrosine antibody (Cell Signaling).

Immunohistochemistry

Muscles to be used for immunohistochemistry were dissected from the mice and frozen in isopentane cooled in liquid nitrogen. Frozen muscles were cross-sectioned mid-belly at 10 μm and kept frozen until use. For fiber area size distribution, sections obtained from the soleus muscle of six animals in each group were stained with monoclonal antibodies to myosin heavy chain (slow type, 1:50, Novacasta). After thawing, sections were treated with 0.3% H2O2 for 5 min (if horseradish peroxidase was used for color reaction) and blocked in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) with 0.2% gelatin, 0.5% Tween-20 and 3% bovine serum albumin for 30 min.

Binding to endogenous mouse IgG was blocked with a MOM Kit (Vector Laboratories). After primary and biotin-conjugated secondary antibodies, sections were incubated with avidin-conjugated horseradish peroxidase and stained using AEC substrate kit (Vector Laboratories). Slides were mounted in Gel/Mount (Biomed Corp.) and examined under a Zeiss microscope.

Muscle transfection with GFP construct and TPLSM

Lower limb foot pad muscles of 3-month-old C57BL male mice were transfected with GFP fusions of CAPN3, C129S (active site mutant), R448H and D705G by in vivo electroporation as previously described (36) and examined by TPLSM to elucidate the subcellular localization of CAPN3 and the effect of mutations on localization. GFP alone was used as a negative control. Male C57BL (3 months old) were used for transfection. Muscles were dissected 3 days after transfection. FDB and interossei muscles were dissected and cleaned from connective tissue. Muscles were stretched about 50% above slack length, pinned down to small Petri dish layered with Sylgard and bathed in Tyrode. Distribution of GFP and its fusions were determined by comparing the GFP fluorescence pattern with the fluorescence intensity of SHG and di-8-ANEPPS, specific markers of the M-line and the T-tubules, respectively. GFP and di-8-ANEPPS were excited at 890 nm, and their emission was collected at 515–555 and 600–645 nm, respectively. Back-scattered SHG was collected at 420–460 nm. Images were acquired with a commercial TPLSM composed of an upright microscope (Olympus), a BioRad scanning head and detection system (Radiance 2000, Zeiss/BioRad) and a Ti-Shapire laser (Chameleon, Coherent). A 20×, 0.95NA, water immersion objective was used (Olympus). Images were analyzed using public domain software ImageJ and MicroCal Origin.

Fiber area size distribution

Fiber cross-sectional area was measured for 150–300 individual fibers in cross-sections of gastrocnemius muscles from each of six WT, C3KO, C3-WT and C3-R448H animals. Sections were stained with anti-slow MHC antibodies as described earlier and slow and fast twitch muscle area were measured separately using a digitized imaging system (Bioquant, Nashville, TN, USA).

Functional test

Forelimb grip strength was measured using a digital force gauge (DFIS 2, Chatillon CE). In each trial, the mouse was allowed to grasp a metal rod and the technician slowly pulled the mouse by the tail until the digital gauge recorded the peak tension (in Newtons) produced. Five trials were performed with a minimum of 1 min rest in between. Upon completion of the grip strength test, the body weight was recorded. For analysis, peak tension produced in all five trials was averaged and normalized for body weight.

All experimental protocols and use of animals were conducted in accordance with the National Institute of Health Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and approved by the UCLA Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Supplementary Material is available at HMG online.

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Conflict of Interest statement. None declared.

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