Title:

Receptor interacting protein kinase-3 promotes both myopathy and cardiomyopathy in dystrophin-deficient mice

Running title: Necroptosis mediates both myopathy and cardiomyopathy in DMD

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Abstract

Background

Duchenne muscular dystrophy (DMD) is a muscle degenerative disorder that is caused by the absence of dystrophin. From early childhood, multiple rounds of myofibre necrosis and regeneration lead to fibrosis and fat deposition, irreversibly disturbing skeletal muscle function and impairing locomotion. Cell necrosis also affects respiratory muscles and cardiomyocytes, ultimately responsible for the death of DMD boys by respiratory or heart failure.

Necroptosis is a genetically programmed form of necrosis requiring the receptor-interacting serine/threonine-protein kinase (RIPK)3 and is a promising new therapeutic target for multiple degenerative disorders. We previously demonstrated that necroptosis mediates hindlimb myofibre degeneration in distinct muscular dystrophies, including in DMD. However, this pathway was recently found to be required for myogenesis. Its prevention might therefore lead to detrimental side effects on muscle repair.

Whether necroptosis also participates in the pathogenesis of respiratory and cardiac muscle dysfunction, and whether its long-term inhibition would ultimately be beneficial or detrimental to mdx mice are addressed here.

Methods

Herein, we examined the effects of RIPK3 depletion on an advanced stage of pathogenesis in mdx mice. Dystrophic mice aged 12 to 18 months were submitted to forced treadmill running to assess their locomotor function. mdx cardiomyopathy was also examined by echocardiography in 40-week-old mice. Limb skeletal muscles, diaphragm and heart were analyzed by histology and molecular biology to compare the phenotype of mdxRipk3^{+/+} mdxRipk3^{-/-} mice.

Results

In 18-month-old mdxRipk3^{-/-} mice, we found no sign of muscle regeneration defect compared to mdxRipk3^{+/+} littermates. mdxRipk3^{-/-} mice had decreased fibrosis in limb muscles, without evidence of muscle atrophy. The size of diaphragm myofibres was slightly reduced and affected by less variability than mdx littermates. Fibrosis was also reduced in the diaphragm of RIPK3-deficient mdx mice. Notably, heart hypertrophy and left ventricle fibrosis were reduced in mdxRipk3^{-/-} mice, and using

echocardiography, we found a significant decrease of markers of cardiomyopathy by such as a reduction of the relative wall thickness and left ventricle mass.

Conclusions

Our data suggest that necroptosis is involved together in the pathogenic phenotype of locomotor, respiratory, and cardiac muscles in dystrophin-deficient mice. The long-term genetic ablation of RIPK3 does not generate evidence of sarcopenia or muscle impairment in mdx mice. Our data suggest that necroptosis may represent a new therapeutic target susceptible to improving the phenotype of myopathy and cardiomyopathy.

Introduction

Duchenne muscular dystrophy (DMD) is an X-linked genetic disorder, affecting 1/5000 male birth worldwide. Loss-of-function mutations in the dystrophin gene primarily lead to chronic myofiber necrosis (myonecrosis) and severe locomotor muscle disability starting in early childhood (Gilbert and Hawk, 1963)(Duan et al., 2021). Notably, the absence of dystrophin at the sarcolemma renders myofibre less resistant to mechanical stress during muscle contraction, which favours myonecrosis. Following injury, muscle repair requires myogenesis thanks to the contribution of PAX7-expressing resident muscle stem cells (MuSC). (For review, see Relaix et al., 2021). However, in disabling neuromuscular disorders involving chronic myofiber degeneration such as DMD, regeneration does not fully compensate for chronic myofibre demise and loss of a sustained homeostatic balance between the two mechanisms leads to the increasing replacement of contractile myofibres by fibrotic or adipose tissue. Indeed, biopsies with interstitial fibrosis positively correlate with a poor outcome in DMD boys (Desguerre et al., 2009), and thus identifying the molecular pathways involved in fibrosis formation is relevant for improving therapeutic perspectives. Dystrophin deficiency also targets respiratory and cardiac muscle cells that are prone to precocious necrotic cell death, ultimately leading to the premature death of DMD patient from cardiorespiratory weakness or failure (Khirani et al., 2014)(Fayssoil et al., 2017).

Recently, we reported that canonical necroptosis, a receptor-interacting protein kinase (RIPK)1- RIPK3- and mixed lineage domain kinase-like (MLKL)-dependent cell death pathway, is activated in the human and murine dystrophin-deficient muscles. Necroptosis inhibition dampens the peak of myonecrosis in the locomotor muscles of three-week-old mdx mice and improves muscle function in young adults (Morgan et al., 2018). Before further envisaging the necroptotic pathway as a putative therapeutic target for DMD, several key questions need to be addressed, including the long-term effects of necroptosis inhibition in dystrophic skeletal and heart muscle remodeling. Indeed, two distinct and recent studies reported a link between necroptosis inhibition and a deficit in myogenesis (Sreenivasan et al., 2020)(Zhou et al., 2020a), and one of them reported that RIPK3 depletion in mdx MuSCs dramatically impaired muscle function. Repressing necroptosis might therefore lead to two putative conflictual

outcomes: a decrease in myofiber degeneration together with a default in muscle regeneration leading to atrophy.

In this context, the present study aimed at investigating *in vivo* the long-term effects of necroptosis inhibition on the most affected tissues in mdx mice: hindlimb muscles, the diaphragm, and the heart. We found that RIPK3 depletion did not reduce the running performance of old mdx mice. Compared to mdxRipk3^{+/+}, locomotor muscles from mdxRipk3^{-/-} mice displayed no evidence of regenerative default, i.e. muscles had similar cell proliferation, MuSCs content, myogenic commitment, and myofibre size. On the long term, RIPK3 depletion also led to a significant reduction of fibrosis in the diaphragm, and reduced the mean myofibre size and their variability, indicating that necroptosis not only participates in the pathology of limb, but also of respiratory muscles. Importantly, we found a beneficial effect of RIPK3 depletion on cardiomyopathy in aged mdx mice by reducing heart hypertrophy and fibrosis deposition. Together, our data demonstrate that in our mdx model, RIPK3 is dispensable for long term post-lesional myogenesis, suggest that necroptosis inhibition would together benefit hindlimb, respiratory, and heart muscles in dystrophinopathies and prompt further analyses to explore the therapeutic benefit of reducing necroptosis to improve patients' living conditions.

Results

Although RIPK3-dependant necroptosis is implicated in early mdx myofiber death (Morgan et al., 2018), its specific depletion in MuSCs was recently described to induce PAX7-positive cells death and a subsequent deficit in myogenesis, causing a dramatically reduced muscle strength in adult mdx mice (Sreenivasan et al., 2020). We thus examined whether the long-term genetic inhibition of necroptosis would promote sarcopenia by repressing the regenerative capacity of skeletal muscle. mdx mice were crossed with Ripk3-KO mice, which are compromised for RIPK3-dependent necroptosis (Newton et al., 2004). We generated mdxRipk3^{+/+} (hereafter named mdxRipk3^{+/+} or mdx) and mdxRipk3^{-/-} littermates that were kept for ageing so that the maximum mdx pathogenic state could be reached for striated muscles. In 18-month-old mdxRipk3^{-/-} mice, *Ripk1* transcripts were downregulated in muscles compared to Ripk3^{+/+} littermates (Figure 1a), assessing that canonical necroptosis is repressed in our mdxRipk3^{-/-} mice. Seventeen-month-old mdx and mdxRipk3^{-/-} littermates were submitted to forced treadmill exercise

with progressive increase of speed, until exhaustion. Control mdx mice were characterized by an important variability in running performance, expressed in the running distance (Figure 1b) or in the maximum aerobic speed before exhaustion (Figure 1c). mdxRipk3^{-/-} mice showed more homogenous results (coefficient of variation: mdx:20,99% *versus* mdxRipk3^{-/-} 12.66%). On average, mdxRipk3^{-/-} ran ~ 10% longer than mdx littermates, despite no statistical difference likely due to the variability of control mdx phenotype (p=0.5530). Atrophy of dystrophic muscles was investigated using muscle mass normalized to the individual size of the animals, assessed by the *tibialis anterior* length (TL). TA, EDL and biceps muscle mass remained unchanged in aged mdxRipk3^{-/-} compared to mdxRipk3^{+/+} mice (Figure 1d). In the few post-necrotic areas we spotted in TAs of old mdx, we found a similar density of Ki67-positive cells (Figure 1e,f) suggesting that necroptosis inhibition does not significantly affect MuSC proliferation in mdx muscle. The mean of pooled minimum Feret of TA myofibres (Figure 1g), as well as the relative distribution of myofiber size (Figure 1h), were strictly unchanged. Interestingly, we found that RIPK3 depletion reduced fibrosis in the TA (p=0.0252) (Figure 1m), suggesting a benefit for mdx limb muscle phenotype.

To further examine any possible evidence of regenerative default in mdxRipk3^{-/-} muscles, we analyzed biceps muscles by molecular biology. We found normal expression of *Pax7* (Figure 1i) and *myogenin* (Figure 1j), indicating that in this model the long-term inhibition of necroptosis generated neither muscle atrophy nor decreased the number of MuSCs and their myogenic commitment. Of note, we observed a significant downregulation of *myostatin* expression (p=0.0082), while *follistatin* was not significantly repressed (p=0.4452) (Figure 1k,l).

Fibrosis deposition in respiratory muscles, such as the diaphragm, is also a key pathogenic event in DMD pathogenesis and is a major cause of patient's death. We then investigated the effects of RIPK3 depletion in the phenotype of the mdx diaphragm (Figure 2). We previously reported that at the onset of pathogenesis in mdx, occurring at around three weeks of age, TA from mdxRipk3^{-/-} mice display a reduced myonecrosis, but much less at mdx adulthood when myonecrosis becomes rare (Morgan et al., 2018). IgG uptake within sarcoplasm is a reliable readout for ongoing myonecrosis in young mdx (Straub et al., 1997)(Bencze et al., 2019). In contrast with what was observed in wild-type or less affected muscles from young animals, mouse IgG immunoreactivity is almost only localized at the

extracellular compartment (Figure 2a), and no difference was found in both genotypes (unpaired t-test, $p=0.1914$). The density of fibres with leaky sarcolemma was extremely low in both genotypes (2.3 fibres/mm² in mdx versus 2.6 fibres/mm² in mdx*Ripk3*^{-/-}) (Figure 2b,c). This was neither associated with high-density cell pockets (Figure 2d) nor with CD68-positive cell infiltrates (Figure 2e). Furthermore, only a low percentage of centrally nucleated fibres was found in mdx diaphragms (5-10% of myofibers) (Figure 2f). These observations suggest that diaphragm from 18-month-old mdx mice stand at relative homeostasis with little/no ongoing myonecrosis, regardless of RIPK3 expression. Examining the profile of myofibre size, we observed a moderate decrease of myofibre size in mdx*Ripk3*^{-/-} diaphragm compared to mdx littermates (16.6 in mdx versus 16.1 in mdx*Ripk3*^{-/-}, $p<0.0001$, Mann Whitney test, $n>16,000$ myofibers in each group, included in six mdx muscles, and eight mdx*Ripk3*^{-/-} muscles). Of note, myofibre size is meant to be increased in the mdx diaphragm. Dystrophin-deficient muscles are characterized by an increased heterogeneity in myofiber size, illustrated by an increase of the variance coefficient (Briguet et al., 2004). *Ripk3* deficiency decreased the mean-variance coefficient of myofibers in mdx mice (Figure 3i, unpaired t-test $p=0.0431$). To determine whether RIPK3 also mediates fibrosis deposition in the diaphragm, muscle sections were stained with Sirius red (Figure 3k), and we quantified that mdx*Ripk3*^{-/-} diaphragms had less collagen deposition than mdx littermates (Figure 3k, unpaired t-test, $p=0.0414$). Together, our data demonstrate that RIPK3 participates in the diaphragm remodeling and that its depletion reduces both the size impairment of dystrophic myofibers and the interstitial fibrosis.

Dilated cardiomyopathy, associated with hallmarks of focal degeneration and fibrosis, is a major concern in DMD patients. The cell death pathway(s) responsible for the loss of dystrophin-deficient cardiomyocytes has not yet been identified, but necroptotic demise has been identified in several models of heart injuries (Zhe-Wei et al., 2018). We then addressed the role of necroptosis in the long-term development of cardiomyopathy in mdx mice.

Notably, we quantified that RIPK3 depletion decreased cardiac hypertrophy in mdx mice, regardless of their size (Figure 3a, b). The mdx heart from 18-month-old mice showed no significant level of ongoing degeneration, with little CD68-positive cells infiltration in both genotypes (Figure 3c). By contrast, we quantified a decrease in cardiac capillarization (Figure 3d), and interstitial collagen deposition was

reduced by almost 50% in the right ventricle of *mdxRipk3^{-/-}* mice compared to their mdx control littermates (Figure 3e,f). Furthermore, *mdxRipk3^{-/-}* hearts showed significantly reduced levels of *Bnp* and *Myf7* transcripts that are two sensitive markers of cardiac hypertrophy (Figure 3g).

We thus examined whether the improvement of the deleterious phenotype of cardiomyopathy conferred by RIPK3 depletion was validated at the 2D and functional levels, and quantified routine echocardiographic parameters using the M(otion)-mode (Figure 4). Compared to wild-type mice, aged mdx mice are generally characterized by an eccentric hypertrophy characterized by a transiently increased LV mass with increased left ventricle (LV) end-diastolic and end-systolic diameter, followed by a decompensated dilated cardiomyopathy associated with a reduction LV fractional shortening and a decreased LV mass (Quinlan et al., 2004a). We confirmed that our 18-month-old mdx mice suffered from an eccentric hypertrophy with an increased LV mass, associated with a reduced LV internal diameter in diastole (LVIDd) and systole (LVIDs) (Figure 4a-4c and Supplementary Table 1). Of note, compared to mdx mice, *mdxRipk3^{-/-}* littermates displayed a 30% reduction of the LV mass, a reduction of LVIDd and LVIDs that contributed to the restoration of the LV relative wall thickness value (Figure 4d), and unchanged fractional shortening of the LV, strain rate of cardiomyocytes from the anterior wall (Figures 4e and 4f) and heart rate (Supplementary Table 1). Altogether, these data suggest that in this mdx model, RIPK3-dependent necroptosis participates in the long-term development of cardiac remodeling and dysfunction and that in these conditions, RIPK3 deficiency has overall cytoprotective effects against dystrophic-associated cardiac deleterious phenotype.

Discussion

Necroptosis is now considered as a new therapeutic target for many degenerating disorders, including cardiovascular neurodegenerative, and autoimmune diseases (Choi et al., 2021). We recently showed that necroptosis is also a relevant pathogenic mechanism in myology, first by identifying the role of RIPK3-dependent myonecrosis in dystrophin-deficient hindlimb muscles (Morgan et al., 2018). More recently, we found that DUX4 overexpression elicits a caspase-independent, RIPK1/3-dependent cell death in facioscapulohumeral dystrophy (FSHD) (Mariot et al., 2021). Clinical trials aiming at pharmacologically preventing necroptosis have started but translation to neuromuscular disorders needs

further investigations, especially by a better understanding of the long-term consequences of necroptosis inhibition in dystrophic conditions. Notably, necrotic demise affecting the diaphragm and heart are key events leading to the short life expectancy of DMD boys. Whether necroptosis also mediates the pathogenic phenotype in these tissues was unknown. Herein, we provide evidence that beyond its role in the degeneration of locomotor muscles, necroptosis also takes part in the respiratory and cardiac phenotypes in the mdx model of DMD, notably by promoting tissue fibrosis. Accumulation of extracellular matrix deposition following myonecrosis is a central pathogenic process responsible for the loss of function of dystrophic muscles, by progressively replacing functional muscle tissue in both the myocardium and skeletal muscles (Desguerre et al., 2009). Excessive fibrosis also proportionally lessens the likelihood of success for gene or cell therapies (Kharraz et al., 2014). Therefore, understanding the molecular pathways directly or indirectly leading to myofibre or cardiomyocyte death or fibrosis is highly relevant, accelerating the design of innovative treatments aiming at extending life expectancy with improved muscle function in DMD boys.

An unfortunate characteristic of mouse models for DMD is the mild phenotype compared to the human. Myonecrosis mainly takes place in the early phase of pathogenesis in mdx, then dramatically decreases during adulthood (Muntoni et al., 1993)(Morgan et al., 2018). In contrast with human pathology, there is detectable but no dramatic effect of dystrophin-deficiency on the heart and respiratory functions in mdx mice. Consequently, investigating the dystrophic diaphragm and heart phenotypes requires the generation of dystrophin-deficient and necroptosis-incompetent mice that would reach sufficient age to progressively develop a significant phenotype (Stedman et al., 1991)(Quinlan et al., 2004b). In this study, we examined the long-term effects of necroptosis inhibition, using *Ripk3* null mice, with a specific focus on respiratory and cardiac muscles. As opposed to apoptosis, the execution of necrotic demise is defined by an early dislocation of the plasma membrane and the release of highly inflammatory damage-associated molecules pattern (DAMP) (Kroemer et al., 2009). In skeletal muscle, the permeabilization of the plasma membrane also implies the passive uptake of proteins belonging to the blood compartment, such as the immunoglobulins (Straub et al., 1997)(Bencze et al., 2019). Compared to young dystrophic TA, the diaphragm from 18-month-old mdx mice showed IgG immunoreactivity mainly trapped in the large fibrotic area (Figure 2a) and barely detected within the myofiber compartment (Figure 2c),

suggesting little/no ongoing myonecrosis. This was confirmed by a relative absence of active cell pockets characterizing myonecrosis (Figures 2d and 2f), and only 7-8% of centrally nucleated myofibers (Figure 2e). Of note, myonuclei from newly formed myofibers remain central for months, except when injuries are performed in muscles from very young mice (Pastoret and Seville, 1995). Such a low percentage of central nucleation together with low cell infiltration and high fibrosis indicates that this phenotype is the outcome of accumulating necrotic and regenerative events over time. Fibrosis decrease was observed in the diaphragm and was associated with a decrease in the mean myofibers size and size variability (Figure 2g-k). These results are consistent with a previous report assessing significant myofibre cytoprotection in the diaphragm (Stupka et al., 2008). We also found a significant reduction of fibrosis in the TA of old *mdxRipk3^{-/-}* (Figure 1m) compared to *mdx* littermates, suggesting that the beneficial effects of necroptosis inhibition on muscle histology benefits both locomotor and respiratory muscles.

Two recent studies reported that necroptosis is involved in post-lesional myogenesis (Sreenivasan et al., 2020)(Zhou et al., 2020b). However, the underlying mechanisms of action of necroptosis on regeneration seem unclear: Sreenivasan and colleagues observed exclusive expression of RIPK3 in *mdx* MuSCs. They observed that *mdx* muscles with MuSCs depleted for RIPK3 led to a dramatic loss of PAX7-expressing cells and to severely impaired muscle function, and attributed a key role of necroptosis and apoptosis in *mdx* MuSC to sustain muscle regeneration (Sreenivasan et al., 2020). The non-apoptotic roles of pro-death proteins such as caspase proteases (Fernando et al., 2002) were not discussed in this study, though.

In line with our previous finding (Morgan et al., 2018), Zhou and colleagues found that myofibers express RIPK3 and MLKL and are susceptible to necroptotic demise (Zhou et al., 2020b). They demonstrated that myofibre necroptosis has a role in muscle regeneration by releasing Tenascin-C, which is required for MuSCs proliferation. The authors observed an effect of myofibre necroptosis on *Pax7* expression and myofiber size *in vivo* at 7 and 15 days post-injury (Zhou et al., 2020b). This work did not examine the long-term effects of RIPK3- and MLKL-deficient muscle cells on myofibre size or muscle function. It is therefore unclear whether necroptosis irreversibly stops or only delays myogenesis. Despite their mechanistic divergences, these two studies may suggest a detrimental effect

of necroptosis prevention on muscle biology in a dystrophic background. Verifying whether necroptosis inhibition may lead to sarcopenia of ageing regenerated muscles is therefore necessary before envisaging necroptosis as a therapeutic target in muscular dystrophies.

In our mdx model, long-term *Ripk3* genetic depletion had no negative impact on skeletal muscle function (Figure 1). While Zhou et al. focused on the role of necroptotic demise on the early steps of myogenesis (which is behind the scope of our present study), our data contrast with finding of Sreenivasan and colleagues on different points: First, we found no impairment of running performance in dystrophic *Ripk3*^{-/-} mice (Figure 1b,c), suggesting no significant reduction of muscle strength. Investigating several limb muscles, we found no/little effect of RIPK3 deficiency on muscle weight, while confirming the downregulation of *Ripk1* in muscle extracts (Figure 1a). EDL and TA weight were unchanged, as myofibre size (Figure 1d and 1g-h), and this muscle group displayed no difference in *Pax7* and *myogenin* expression in the biceps of mdx and mdx*Ripk3*^{-/-}, suggesting no depletion of MuSCs in mdx*Ripk3*^{-/-} mice. Together, our results demonstrate that in mdx mice, a long-term necroptosis inhibition does not lead to sarcopenia of dystrophic muscle, but rather has beneficial effects since it dampens fibrosis.

The lack of observed sarcopenia in our mdx*Ripk3*^{-/-} dystrophic mice could be explained by a delay of myogenesis when necroptosis is prevented. Zhou and colleagues only assessed a decrease of myogenesis at a maximum of 15 days following an injury. Indeed, the transient inhibition of myogenesis following an injury has been shown to improve the overall regenerative capacity of human MuSCs (Riederer et al., 2012). Slowing down the kinetics of differentiation allows a longer proliferative phase before myoblasts commitment, and ameliorates MuSC migration within the injured muscle, resulting in better regeneration (Bencze et al., 2012).

It is also possible that any effect, positive or negative of RIPK3-deficiency on regeneration could be mitigated by the cytoprotective effects of necroptosis inhibition. Not to be forgotten that the regenerative process remains a consequence of previous degenerative events. Hence, the less degeneration, the less resulting regeneration. Any protection against myonecrosis is therefore expected to hide any putative default on regeneration.

Cell necrosis in dystrophin-deficient muscles does not lead to a dramatic lack of function of the limb, respiratory or cardiac muscles (Partridge, 2013). Heart pathogenic phenotype becomes detectable only

after 10-12 months of age in mdx mice and does not lead to dramatic cardiomyopathy compared to wild-type mice. However, heart weight, histological features, and analysis using M-mode echocardiography can discriminate healthy from dystrophic aged hearts (Quinlan et al., 2004b)(Zhang et al., 2008)(Li et al., 2009). An important finding of this study is that necroptosis depletion reduced important markers of the mdx cardiomyopathy. Hearts of mdx*Ripk3*^{-/-} displayed less hypertrophy and fibrosis (Figures 3 and 4), and this was confirmed by a significant downregulation of *Bnp* and *Myh7* transcripts that are biomarkers of hypertrophic cardiomyopathy (Hasegawa et al., 1993) (Fanapanazir et al., 1993). BNP has been shown to be upregulated in mdx compared to C57BL/10 control mice and restored to baseline in mdx mice treated by rAAV9-mediated microdystrophin (Shin et al., 2011).

Interestingly, some authors have observed an increase in the density of microvasculature in mdx (Guéniot et al., 2016)(Latroche et al., 2015), and DMD biopsies (Miike et al., 1987). Angiogenic response to myocardial infarction includes an increase in the density of CD31-positive microvessels (Ren et al., 2002), and DMD patients have an increased risk for ischemic stroke (Winterholler et al., 2016). A decrease of the microvasculature density as observed in our study (Figure 3d) is therefore consistent with an improved heart phenotype in mdx*Ripk3*^{-/-} mice. The role of canonical necroptosis has been found in cardiovascular diseases, such as in atherosclerosis (Meng et al., 2015), ischemia-reperfusion injuries (Smith et al., 2007) (Oerlemans et al., 2012), myocardial infarction (Luedde et al., 2014), myocarditis (Zhou et al., 2018) and chemically-induced cardiomyopathy (Zhang et al., 2016).

Dystrophin deficiency eliciting a low-frequency cell death event, we failed to find a proper window of opportunity to assess a significant decrease in cardiomyocyte demise and necroinflammation (Figure 3c). However, a reduction of cardiac hypertrophy linked with a reduction of fibrosis deposition suggests less accumulation of cell death events susceptible to be filled with collagen and overall improved tissue homeostasis.

As a conclusion, we found that RIPK3 participates in the pathogenesis of mdx mice at different levels, mediating necrosis and fibrosis accumulation in locomotor, respiratory, and cardiac muscles without obvious evidence of a detrimental effect on regeneration. This study, therefore, suggests that necroptosis

305 prevention can be beneficial both to skeletal muscle and heart phenotype in DMD conditions and paves
306 the way for considering necroptosis as a therapeutic target for DMD.

Material and methods

Animals

Mice were bred in the Institut Mondor de Recherche biomédicale, Créteil, France, and experiments on mice were approved by the Anses/EnvA/Upec Ethics Committee. All care and manipulations were performed by national and European legislation on animal experimentation. *Ripk3*^{-/+} mice were kindly provided by Genentech (San Francisco-CA). *mdxRipk3*^{-/-} mice were generated by crossing *Ripk3*^{-/-} with *mdx* mice. The resulting mice were backcrossed for at least four generations to obtain final *mdxRipk3*^{+/-} breeders so that analyzed *mdxRipk3*^{+/+} (*mdx* phenotype) and *mdxRipk3*^{-/-} mice were littermates. Only males were used in this study.

Treadmill tests

The running capacity was evaluated on a treadmill (Tecmachine, Medical Development) at a +5% slope. Males of 70- to 76-week-old mice were initially acclimatized to the treadmill for 5 days (10 min/day and 12 m/min). Mice were challenged to an exercise of progressively increased intensity. Speed was increased every 90- to 120 seconds/min and the speed of the last completed running step before exhaustion was considered as the individual maximal aerobic speed.

RNA extraction, PCR, and real-time PCR

Total skeletal muscle RNA was extracted from the muscle sample using TRIzol. RNA was quantified by Nanodrop. SuperScript III Reverse Transcriptase from the Invitrogen kit converted RNA into cDNA using the Veriti 96- Well Fast Thermal Cycler (Applied Biosystems). Gene expression was quantified by real-time qPCR with the StepOnePlus real-time PCR system (Applied Biosystems) using SYBR Green detection tools (Applied Biosystems). In skeletal muscle tissue, the expression of each gene was normalized to TATA Box Protein (Tbp) gene expression. Results are reported as relative gene expression (2-DDCT).

Total heart RNA was extracted from the hearts using TRIzol® (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Saint-Herblain, France) following the manufacturer's instructions. From 500 ng of extracted RNA, the first-strand cDNA was then synthesized using a RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo

Fisher Scientific, Saint-Herblain, France) with random hexamers according to the manufacturer's instructions. Using the Light Cycler® 480 system (Roche Diagnostics), the reaction was carried out in duplicate for each sample in a 6-µl reaction volume containing 3 µl of SYBR Green Master Mix, 500 nM of the forward and reverse primers each and 3 µl of diluted (1:25) cDNA. The thermal profile for the SYBR Green qPCR was 95°C for 8 min, followed by 40 cycles at 95°C for 15 s, 60°C for 15 s and 72°C for 30 s. The mean gene expression stability of 2 genes, *Hprt1* (*hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyl transferase 1*) and *Rpl32* (*Ribosomal protein L32*) were used as the reference transcripts. Data were collected and analyzed using the LightCycler® 480 software release 1.5.0 (Roche Diagnostics). Primers used in this study are the following: forward *Ripk3* 5'-CGGGCACACCACAGAACAT-3', *Ripk3* and reverse 5'-GTAGCACATCCCCAGCACCAC-3', forward *Ripk1* 5'-AGAAGAAGGGAAGTATTCGC-3' and reverse *Ripk1* 5'-TTCTATGGCCTCCACGAT-3', forward *Bnp* 5'-CAGCTCTTGAAGGACCAAGG-3', reverse 5'-AGACCCAGGCAGAGTCAGAA-3', forward *Myh7* 5'-AGGTGTGCTCTCCAGAATGG-3', reverse 5'-CAGCGGCTTGATCTTGAAGT-3', *Rpl32* - forward 5'-TGGTGAAGCCCAAGATCGTC-3', reverse 5'-GGATCTGGCCCTTGAACCTT-3', *Hprt1* - forward 5'-CAGGCCAGACTTTGTTGGAT-3', reverse 5'-TTGCGCTCATCTTAGGCTTT-3'

Histology

Fibrosis was labelled using Eprelia Varistain Gemini ES Automated Slide Stainer. For immunofluorescence: rat antibody to CD68 (clone FA-11, 137001, 1/50), rabbit antibody to mouse pan-Laminin (Sigma, L9393, 1/1000), CD31 anti-rat CD31 antibody (550274 clone MEC 13.3, 1/150).

Image analysis

For the analysis of the following parameters: myonecrosis, CD68-positive cells infiltrate, and fibrosis, muscle and heart sections were taken from the entire length of the muscle were immunostained and quantified using the ImageJ software. The section with the highest area of each measured parameter (normalized to cross-section area) for each muscle is presented. Myonecrosis levels were determined by measuring the area corresponding to mouse IgG uptake in myofibres (and not in interstitial areas)

and expressed as the percentage of the cross-sectional area. Muscle fibre minimal Feret diameter, corresponding to the minimum distance between the two parallel tangents of myofibres, was determined. Images analyses were performed with ImageJ by a specific self-developed macro that recognizes muscle fibres as previously described (Reyes-Fernandez et al., 2019).

Cardiac Phenotyping

Mice were trained to be grasped since transthoracic echocardiography (TTE) was performed in conscious, non-sedated mice to avoid any cardiac depressor effect of sedative or anaesthetic agents. Data acquisition was performed every month by a single operator (JT) as previously described (Czibik et al., 2021). Images were acquired from a parasternal position at the level of the papillary muscles using a 13-MHz linear-array transducer with a digital ultrasound system (Vivid 7, GE Medical System, Horton, Norway). Left ventricular diameters and ejection fraction, anterior and posterior wall thicknesses were serially obtained from M-mode acquisition. Relative LV wall thickness (RWT) was defined as the sum of septal and posterior wall thickness over LV end-diastolic diameter, and LV mass was determined using the uncorrected cube assumption formula ($LV\ mass = (IVSd + LVIDd + PWTd)^3 - LVIDd^3$). Peak systolic values of radial SR in the anterior and posterior wall were obtained using Tissue Doppler Imaging (TDI) as previously described (Czibik et al., 2021). TDI loops were acquired from the same parasternal view at a mean frame rate of 514 fps and a depth of 1 cm. The Nyquist velocity limit was set at 12cm/s. Radial SR analysis was performed offline using the EchoPac Software (GE Medical Systems) by an observer (GD) blinded to the diet of the animals. The Peak systolic of radial SR was computed from a region of interest positioned in the mid anterior wall and was measured over an axial distance of 0.6 mm. The temporal smoothing filters were turned off for all measurements. Because slight respiratory variations exist, we averaged peak systolic of radial SR on 8 consecutive cardiac cycles. Hearts were harvested for histology and molecular biology.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest

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Figures

Figure 1. The genetic ablation of RIPK3 does not promote sarcopenia in 18-month-old mdx mice.

Quantification of Ripk1 transcripts in the eighteen-month-old biceps muscles (a). Seventeen-month-old mdxRipk3+/+ (i.e. mdx) and mdxRipk3-/- male mice were submitted to forced treadmill running with progressive increase of speed. (b) Endurance curve of running mice against covered distance expressed in cm. (c) Maximum aerobic speed before mice exhaustion. Data are given as means $\pm$ SEM. mdxRipk3+/+, n=7, mdxRipk3-/-, n=8. Shapiro-Wilk test followed by a Mann-Whitney test. (d) Tibialis anterior (TA), EDL and biceps muscles were harvested, and muscle weight (MW) was determined (and normalized to tibial length (MW/TL)). (e) TA immunolabeling using antibodies directed against Ki67 (red). (f) Quantification of the density of Ki67-positive cells. (g) Violin plot of the pooled minimum Feret of TA myofibers (mdx: n=33,142 myofibres out of 7 distinct muscles; mdxRipk3-/-, n=26,469 myofibres out of 9 distinct muscles, Mann-Whitney test p=0.1526). (h) Relative frequencies of minimum Feret from TA myofibers are expressed in percentage. (i) Quantification of the transcript levels of Pax7, (j) myogenin, (k), follistatin and (l) myostatin in the biceps, by quantitative PCR. (m)

Quantification of collagen deposition using Sirius red dye. The normal distribution of data was tested using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (passing normality test with $\alpha=0.05$), leading to either t-tests or Mann-Whitney tests. Data are given as means $\pm$ s.e.m.. Ns: Not significant, *: p-value<0.05, **: p-value<0.01. Scale bar: 100 μ m

Figure 2: Necroptosis participates in the diaphragm pathology in mdx mice.

(a) Representative image of IgG uptake in diaphragms of 18-month-old mdx (*mdxRipk3*^{+/+}) and *mdxRipk3*^{-/-} mice. (b) Quantification of IgG uptake labelling expressed in percentage of cross-sectional area (%CSA). (c) Quantification of myonecrosis extent. Myonecrosis is defined as the area occupied by leaky myofibers (i.e immunoreactive for mouse IgG uptake). Quantification of nuclear density expressed as a percentage of CSA (d), CD68-positive macrophage infiltrates expressed in percentage of CSA (e), and centrally nucleated myofibers expressed as a percentage of myofibers (f). (g) Violin plot of the minimum Ferets of diaphragm myofibers. (*mdx*, n=16873 including 7 distinct muscles, mean:18,61 $\pm$ 0.06555; *mdxRipk3*^{-/-}, n=31666 including 8 distinct muscles, mean:18,21 $\pm$ 0.04554, two-tailed Mann-Whitney test p <0,0001). (h) Relative frequency of minimum Ferets from diaphragm myofibers. Data are expressed as a percentage. (i) Quantification of the variance coefficient of the minimum Feret of myofibers, (j) representative picture of Sirius red staining (k) Quantification of diaphragm fibrosis. The normal distribution of data was tested using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (passing normality test with $\alpha=0.05$), leading to either t-tests or Mann-Whitney tests. Data are given as means $\pm$ s.e.m. Ns: Not significant, *: p-value<0.05, ****: p-value<0.0001.

Figure 3: RIPK3 mediates heart hypertrophy in mdx mice.

(a) Heart weights of 18-month-old mdx mice. (b) Heart weight normalized to the tibial length (TL). (c) Quantification of CD68-positive macrophage infiltrates. (d) Quantification of the density of CD31-positive microvessels, (e) representative picture of Sirius red staining of right ventricles. (f) Quantification of RV fibrosis. Hearts from 18-month-old mdxRipk3^{+/+} and ^{-/-} were analyzed for *Bnp* (g), and *Myh7* (h) mRNA levels by quantitative PCR. The normal distribution of data was tested using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (passing normality test with $\alpha=0.05$), leading to either t-tests or Mann-Whitney tests. Data are given as means $\pm$ s.e.m. Ns: Not significant, *: p-value<0.05, **: p-value<0.01. Scale bar: 100 μ m.

Figure 4: The genetic ablation of RIPK3 reduces cardiomyopathy in mdx mice

Representative M-mode echocardiogram traces in mdx and mdxRipk3^{-/-} 40-week-old mice showing a reduced left ventricle (LV) dilation in mdxRipk3^{-/-} mice (a). (b) Quantification of LVIDd, (c) LV mass, (d) LV relative wall thickness, (e), LV fractional shortening, and (f) strain rate (SR) of the anterior LV wall. The normal distribution of data was tested using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (passing normality test with $\alpha=0.05$), leading to t-tests. Data are given as means $\pm$ s.e.m. *: p-value<0.05, ***: p-value<0.001.

Supplementary data

	Mouse#	Measured values										Calculated values			
		Tibial length (mm)	Normalizing factor	HR, beats/min	IVSd, mm	IVSs, mm	LVIDd, mm	LVIDs, mm	PWd, mm	PWs, mm	SRant, s ⁻¹	LV RWT, mm	LV mass, mg	LVFS, %	LVEF, %
mdx	1	21.1	0.912	523	0.78	1.45	3.81	1.85	0.74	1.68	26	0.40	95.75	51	88
	2	18.2	1.056	605	0.94	1.64	3.92	1.70	0.76	1.49	29	0.43	117.26	57	91
	3	19.2	1.006	513	0.85	1.60	3.60	1.56	0.98	1.48	27	0.51	113.44	57	91
	4	19.1	1.011	535	0.86	1.88	3.52	1.63	1.13	1.88	25	0.57	123.85	54	89
	5	18.8	1.027	605	0.85	1.13	3.72	2.38	0.85	1.31	29	0.46	108.05	36	72
	Mean	19.3	1.0	556.2	0.9	1.5	3.7	1.8	0.9	1.6	27.2	0.5	111.7	50.9	86.2
mdxRipk3 ^{-/-}	1	18.1	0.932	545	0.74	1.43	3.28	1.48	0.75	1.26	24	0.45	101.18	55	91
	2	17.6	0.961	503	0.89	1.75	3.16	1.11	0.78	1.53	26	0.53	112.28	65	95
	3	17.8	0.950	609	0.79	1.56	2.76	1.03	0.85	1.30	24	0.59	87.89	63	94
	4	20.7	0.816	615	0.59	1.17	2.41	1.34	0.69	1.08	27	0.53	50.19	45	82
	5	19.7	0.855	650	0.74	1.17	2.21	1.19	0.76	1.06	27	0.68	55.91	46	84
	6	19.2	0.879	640	0.76	1.22	2.60	1.46	0.78	1.17	23	0.59	74.12	44	82
	7	18.4	0.915	634	0.76	1.35	2.56	1.46	0.76	1.38	25	0.59	70.62	43	80
	Mean	18.8	0.9	599.4	0.8	1.4	2.7	1.3	0.8	1.3	25.1	0.6	78.9	51.5	86.9
	SD	1.15	0.05	54.76	0.09	0.22	0.39	0.18	0.05	0.17	1.57	0.07	22.86	9.25	6.28

Supplementary table 1: M-Mode echocardiographic values