

AT A GLANCE

Membrane trafficking in health and disease

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ABSTRACT

Membrane trafficking pathways are essential for the viability and growth of cells, and play a major role in the interaction of cells with their environment. In this At a Glance article and accompanying poster, we outline the major cellular trafficking pathways and discuss how defects in the function of the molecular machinery that mediates this transport lead to various diseases in humans. We also briefly discuss possible therapeutic approaches that may be used in the future treatment of trafficking-based disorders.

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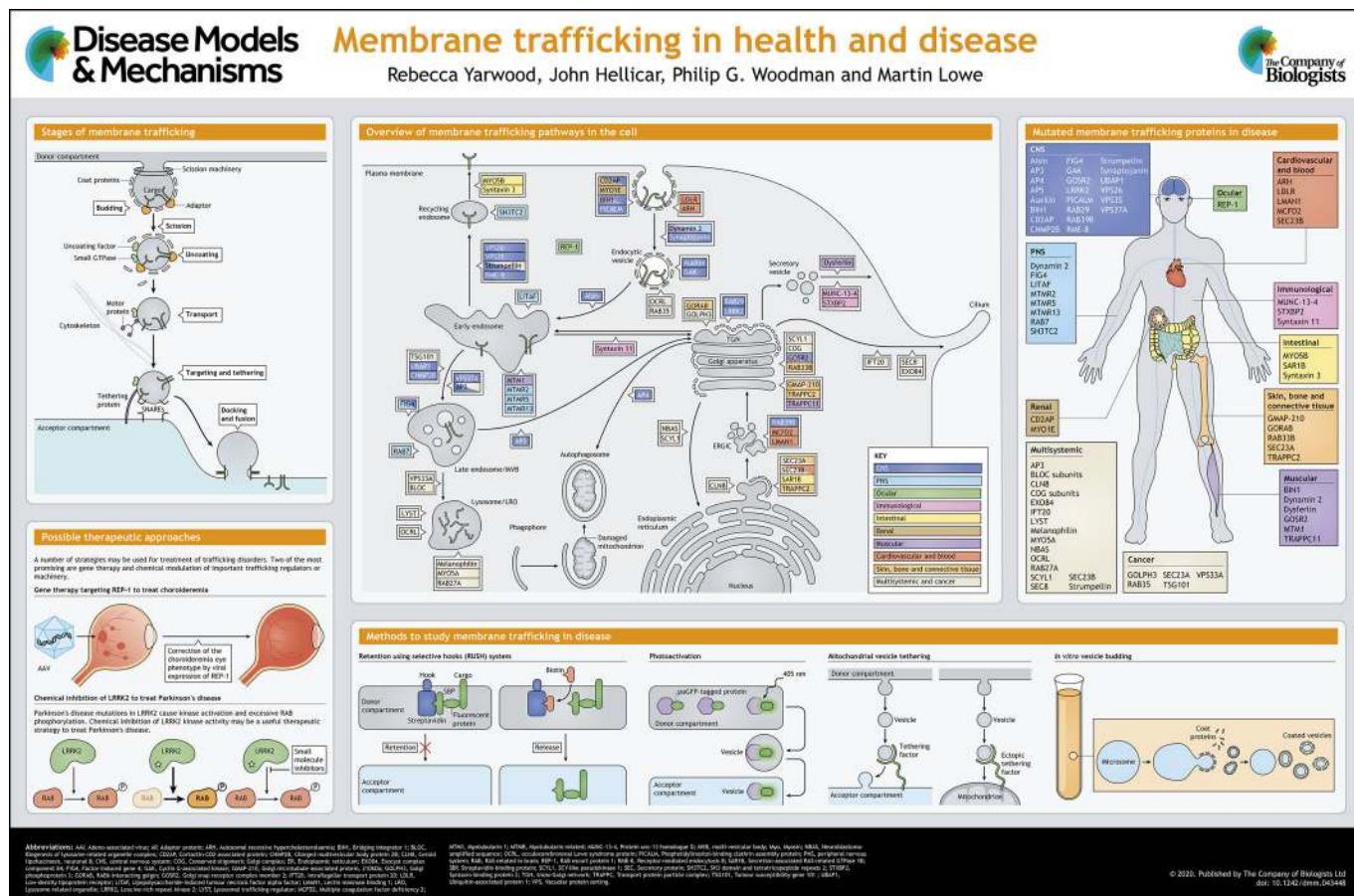
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KEY WORDS: Disease, Endocytic pathway, Genetic disorder, Membrane traffic, Secretory pathway, Vesicle

Introduction

Membrane trafficking pathways are essential for cells to maintain critical functions, to grow, and to accommodate to their chemical and physical environment. Membrane flux through these pathways is high, and in specialised cells in some tissues can be enormous. For example, pancreatic acinar cells synthesise and secrete amylase, one of the many enzymes they produce, at a rate of approximately 0.5% of cellular protein mass per hour (Allfrey et al., 1953), while in Schwann cells, the rate of membrane protein export must correlate with the several thousand-fold expansion of the cell surface that occurs during myelination (Pereira et al., 2012). The population of cell surface proteins is constantly monitored and modified via the endocytic pathway. In some cells, endocytosis accounts for the complete turnover of surface membrane over a period of an hour or so (Steinman et al., 1976). Given such rates of trafficking, it is not surprising that even subtle alterations in transport caused by mutation or insufficiency of the trafficking machinery can impair cell function and lead to disease over the course of a lifetime.



This At a Glance article describes the essential features of membrane trafficking pathways, including the crucial molecular events that drive transport. We identify instances where the mutation or loss of trafficking machinery components is associated with disease, and attempt to rationalise these effects. Several topics are not covered or are mentioned only briefly due to space limitations, including the folding and quality control of soluble or membrane-bound cargo, as exemplified by cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) in cystic fibrosis; motor proteins and their adaptors, which move vesicle-bound cargo around the cell; the biogenesis of mitochondria, peroxisomes, or non-membranous organelles; compartment-specific proteins that define essential organelle functions; non-vesicular lipid transport pathways; and exosome trafficking. Similarly, we only briefly discuss autophagy, which relies on membrane input from both the secretory and endocytic pathways and fusion of autophagosomes with lysosomes (Sørensen et al., 2018).

General principles of membrane trafficking

Transport of proteins between compartments is initiated by (1) selection of cargo and its segregation from resident proteins of the donor compartment by the action of ‘adaptors’; (2) encapsulation of cargo-bound adaptors within a protein scaffold or ‘coat’, which drives membrane deformation and ultimately scission to form a transport vesicle, or in some cases a tubular transport intermediate; (3) movement of the vesicle to the target compartment; (4) membrane tethering, in which the vesicle is drawn towards the target membrane by extended proteins/protein complexes that work in conjunction with RAB (RAS-related in brain) GTPases; and (5) docking and membrane fusion, in which the vesicle is first tightly attached to the target membrane, followed by merging of the lipid bilayers, both processes being mediated by soluble N-ethylmaleimide-sensitive-factor attachment protein receptor (SNARE) protein complexes and supported by accessory factors (see poster). While these steps are generic to transport reactions, the compartmental specificity of the components within protein families ensures transport fidelity. Much of our understanding of these processes stems from important experimental methodologies, which we describe in Box 1.

The secretory pathway

The biogenesis of most integral membrane proteins, secreted proteins and organelle content markers occurs at the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) (see poster). Correctly folded and post-translationally modified membrane-bound or luminal cargoes are then selected for export by adaptor proteins that engage the coat protein complex (COP) II vesicle machinery, or by binding COPII directly (Jensen and Schekman, 2011; McCaughey and Stephens, 2018). COPII vesicle production is initiated when the ER-associated guanine nucleotide exchange factor (GEF) secretion protein (SEC) 12 (also known as PREB), activates secretion-associated RAS-related GTPase 1 (SAR1) and SAR1-GTP subsequently anchors to the membrane. The COPII coat is formed as SAR1 sequentially recruits multiple SEC23/SEC24 dimers, followed by SEC13/SEC31, to sequester adaptors and drive membrane deformation to produce COPII vesicles. These vesicles tether at and fuse with the ER-Golgi intermediate compartment (ERGIC), from which they are delivered to the *cis*-side of the Golgi apparatus, processes mediated by tethering factors and complexes of ERGIC- and Golgi-associated SNARE proteins (Brandizzi and Barlowe, 2013).

Cargo subsequently moves through the Golgi complex, where it can undergo post-translational modification and processing, most notably at the level of glycosylation, by enzymes that each localise within a narrow range of Golgi cisternae. How cargo moves forward is controversial, but the current consensus is that a Golgi cisterna

moves ‘en bloc’, with cargo encountering Golgi-resident enzymes, as these are distilled backwards via selective incorporation into COPI vesicles (Pantazopoulou and Glick, 2019). COPI works analogously to COPII, with vesicle production initiated by the activation and membrane anchoring of ADP-ribosylation factor (ARF) 1 GTPase (Beck et al., 2009). The COPI coat is recruited en masse, and includes moieties that bind cargo and cargo adaptors, and those that scaffold the assembly and induce membrane curvature. Meanwhile, ARF GTPase activating proteins (ARF-GAPs) sense completion of COPI budding, and facilitate coat disassembly. Conserved oligomeric Golgi complex (COG) is a crucial membrane-tethering complex for COPI vesicles, working in conjunction with RAB GTPases and golgin coiled-coil proteins, while membrane fusion involves Golgi-specific SNAREs (Fisher and Ungar, 2016). In addition to intra-Golgi transport, COPI also recycles proteins from the ERGIC and Golgi apparatus back to the ER (Brandizzi and Barlowe, 2013).

Proteins exit the Golgi at the *trans*-Golgi network en route to the cell surface or towards the endosomal system (discussed below) (De Matteis and Luini, 2008). In the case of secretory/surface cargo, where export is constitutive, carriers appear to be tubular. In contrast, cargoes subject to regulated secretion are concentrated into specialised granules, which fuse with the surface in a Ca^{2+} -regulated manner (Anantharam and Kreutzberger, 2019). SNARE-mediated fusion of these granules with the cell surface is facilitated by a range of specialised accessory proteins, including members of the synaptotagmin family of Ca^{2+} sensors.

The endocytic pathway

Surface membrane proteins define the interface between cells and their environment, and cells constantly refine the population of proteins at the surface via rounds of endocytosis and subsequent endosomal sorting (see poster). Endocytosis also brings in soluble proteins, either as ligands to surface receptors or as bulk-flow constituents. The best-characterised uptake pathway is clathrin-mediated endocytosis (McMahon and Boucrot, 2011). Here, clathrin provides the membrane-deforming scaffold, the assembly of which onto the plasma membrane is mediated by cargo-binding adaptor complexes. The best known of these is adaptor protein complex (AP) 2, which is part of a wider family of hetero-tetrameric adaptor complexes, AP1-5. AP2 binds to peptide motifs within the cytoplasmic domains of a range of membrane proteins, while also binding clathrin. Other clathrin adaptors engage client cargoes more selectively. Meanwhile, numerous accessory proteins promote key steps towards vesicle formation, leading ultimately to the recruitment of the scission GTPase, dynamin. Clathrin-coated vesicle formation also relies on local actin dynamics, and on the local generation of phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate [$\text{PtdIns}(4,5)\text{P}_2$] which aids both actin and coat protein recruitment. $\text{PtdIns}(4,5)\text{P}_2$ phosphatases, notably synaptotagmin, complete the vesicle cycle.

Other endocytic mechanisms employ membrane-deforming proteins that selectively engage client membrane cargo while often utilising actin to provide a driving force (Sandvig et al., 2018). Examples include those mediated by flotillin, endophilin and cell division control protein 42 homologue (CDC42). Caveolae, comprised of the membrane protein caveolin and the structural protein cavin, provide a prominent and clinically important example of plasma membrane invagination (Parton, 2018). They primarily appear to function as a reservoir for surface membrane that forms or is dissipated according to alterations in membrane tension, and they are particularly enriched in elastic tissues such as the lung and muscle. Their role may also extend to the sequestration of some signalling

Box 1. Experimental approaches used to study trafficking

Many molecular cell biological approaches have been used to study membrane traffic. Historically, cell-free assays that reconstitute transport reactions (Balch et al., 1984) and yeast genetics (Novick and Schekman, 1979) provided great advances in identifying the crucial molecular components, and these approaches are still relevant today for dissecting transport mechanisms (see poster, '*In vitro* vesicle budding'). Cell culture models remain a powerful tool, with recent advances including growing cells in 3D to better mimic the tissue environment (Torras et al., 2018), the use of induced pluripotent stem cells that can be isolated from human patients and differentiated into any relevant cell type (Aviñor et al., 2016), and the use of stem cell-generated organoids, which provide a close approximation of tissue organisation in an *in vitro* setting (Lancaster and Huch, 2019; Rossi et al., 2018). Animal models also remain a valuable tool to study disease mechanisms attributable to trafficking defects, and have been used very successfully in this regard (see, for example, Smits et al., 2010). Analysis of human patients is also a powerful way to assess the functional relevance of gene products in a physiological setting, and provides a direct indication of the importance of trafficking factors for human health (FitzGerald et al., 2018).

A number of more recent or specialised approaches can be applied to the study of membrane traffic, some of which are highlighted in the poster. Various methods have been developed to allow synchronous transport along the secretory pathway (Kreis and Lodish, 1986; Chen et al., 2013; Kuusmanen and Saraste, 1989; Rivera et al., 2000). One of the most commonly used is the retention using selective hooks (RUSH) system, in which synchronous transport is triggered by the addition of exogenous biotin, which triggers release of cargo from an organelle-resident 'hook' (Boncompain et al., 2012). The use of split-fluorescent protein technology allows researchers to assess delivery into secretory compartments (Feng et al., 2017). Here, cargo and organelle-resident proteins are separately tagged with two units of a fluorescent protein that, when combined, emit fluorescence, allowing for visualisation of cargo delivery to the organelle of interest. Photo-activation or photo-switching of fluorescently tagged cargo proteins or machinery can also be used to visualise transport dynamics (Sengupta and Lippincott-Schwartz, 2013). Mitochondrial relocation is a useful tool for assessing protein-protein interactions, but more recently has been adapted to allow visualisation of vesicle tethering in intact cells. Here, tethering factors were artificially localised to mitochondria to allow direct visualisation of tethering by light and electron microscopy (Wong and Munro, 2014). Proximity biotinylation is a recently developed and widely used technology to identify closely associated proteins within cells. There are several variations of the method, which all rely on the promiscuous activity of a biotin ligase attached to any protein of interest, allowing for biotinylation of nearby proteins and their isolation and identification by mass spectrometry (Branon et al., 2018; Hung et al., 2016; Roux et al., 2012). The approach can be used in the context of membrane traffic to identify the machinery involved in particular trafficking reactions, cargo components of transport vesicles, or the protein complements of organelles within the endomembrane system. Quantitative proteomics can also be used to identify entire complements of secreted or plasma membrane proteins (Eichelbaum et al., 2012; Steinberg et al., 2013), allowing for unbiased and comprehensive analysis of how these protein complements may change in response to perturbation of various trafficking pathways.

pathway components. Caveolae can also undergo endocytosis, although the mechanisms remain poorly defined (Parton, 2018).

Endocytic vesicles fuse to form early endosomes, which are the major sorting stations within the endocytic pathway. The early (or sorting) endosomes are defined by the presence of RAB5 and phosphatidylinositol 3-phosphate (PtdIns3P), which promote the recruitment of numerous effector proteins to the endosomal membrane (Wandinger-Ness and Zerial, 2014). Eventually, endosomes mature as RAB5 is replaced with RAB7 and PtdIns3P is converted to phosphatidylinositol 3,5-bisphosphate

[PtdIns(3,5)P₂] to generate late endosomes. These fuse with and discharge into lysosomes, leading to the digestion of luminal content (Wartosch et al., 2015).

To allow the degradation of integral membrane proteins, these must move from the endosomal limiting membrane into the lysosomal luminal space. Hence, these membrane proteins are incorporated into intraluminal vesicles (ILVs), giving rise to the multivesicular body (MVB). The signal for ILV sorting, K63-linked polyubiquitin, is recognised by a series of endosomal sorting complexes required for transport (ESCRT) complexes and accessory factors (Christ et al., 2017), of which ESCRT-0 and ESCRT-I form the principal ubiquitin receptors. Cargo is passed onwards to ESCRT-III, a membrane-deforming polymer that combines with the AAA ATPase vacuolar protein sorting (VPS) 4 to mediate membrane fission and ILV completion.

Endocytic cargo can escape from the MVB-lysosome pathway by recycling to the cell surface or diverting to the Golgi complex (Cullen and Steinberg, 2018). These pathways involve the formation of tubular or vesicular intermediates that bud away from the endosome. The retriever and retromer complexes are important players in recycling from the sorting endosome that interact with sorting nexin proteins. Recycling to the plasma membrane can occur via a 'fast' direct route, or a 'slow' indirect route by which cargo is first delivered to the recycling endosome, marked by RAB11, and utilises a distinct set of molecular machineries such as EH domain-containing protein 1 (EHD1) and molecule interacting with CasL protein-like 1 (MICAL-L1), which remain less well characterised than those at the sorting endosome (Goldenring, 2015).

Synaptic vesicles are the mediators of neurotransmitter release at neuronal synapses. Synaptic vesicle biogenesis within the nerve terminal can occur directly from the plasma membrane via endocytosis, or from pre-existing endosomes through selective budding from this compartment (Saheki and De Camilli, 2012), and is therefore highly dependent upon the endocytic trafficking machinery. Fusion of synaptic vesicles with the plasma membrane for neurotransmitter release is tightly regulated, and occurs in a similar way to the regulated exocytosis of secretory granules described above, being mediated by SNAREs and controlled by Ca²⁺ sensors (Südhof, 2013).

Diseases that are caused by defective membrane traffic

Diseases associated with defective membrane traffic collectively manifest in practically all tissues and organ systems, with some affecting multiple systems and others restricted to one tissue type or organ. Diseases most often arise from mutations that cause loss of expression or function of transport machinery components, but some are caused by toxic gain-of-function mutations. Diseases attributable to defective trafficking machinery can be developmental in nature, or can arise during the lifespan, often manifesting during ageing. Here, we categorise membrane trafficking-related diseases based upon their tissue and organ system involvement (also see poster). The discussion is not exhaustive; for a more comprehensive list of diseases associated with defective trafficking please consult Table 1.

Neurological disease

Major neurodegenerative diseases are strongly associated with defects in membrane traffic, particularly within the endosomal system (Schreij et al., 2016). Genetic association studies link variants or altered expression levels of the clathrin-mediated endocytosis components phosphatidylinositol-binding clathrin assembly protein (PICALM) (Harold et al., 2009; Jun et al.,

Table 1. Human diseases caused by mutation of membrane trafficking proteins

Protein name	Disease	Inheritance	Protein function	Tissue/organ system affected	Phenotype	Phenotype Mendelian Inheritance in Man (MIM) number	Reference
Alpha-synuclein	Parkinson disease 1 (PARK1) Parkinson disease 4 (PARK4)	Autosomal dominant Autosomal dominant	May function as a SNARE regulator in neurons	Central nervous system	Bradykinesia, resting tremor, muscular rigidity and postural instability.	168801 (Polymeropoulos et al., 1997)	(Singleton et al., 2003)
	Levy body dementia (LBD)	Autosomal dominant		Central nervous system	Bradykinesia, resting tremor, muscular rigidity and postural instability as well as dementia and diffuse Lewy body pathology.	605543 (Zarranz et al., 2004)	
Alsin	Juvenile primary lateral sclerosis (JPLS) Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis 2 (ALS2)	Autosomal recessive Autosomal recessive	Endosomal trafficking RAB5 GEF	Central nervous system	Dementia and parkinsonism, with fluctuating cognitive function. Lewy bodies are more widespread than usually observed in PD.	127750 606353 (Yang et al., 2001)	
	Infantile-onset ascending spastic paraparesis (IahSP) Petitgrew syndrome	Autosomal recessive X-linked recessive	Clathrin vesicle formation and trans-Golgi network (TGN) trafficking	Central nervous system	Progressive paralytic disorder resulting from dysfunction of the upper motor neurons. Limb and facial spasticity, spastic dysarthria, subsequent lower motor neuron signs and bladder dysfunction.	205100 607225 (Hadano et al., 2001)	
AP1S2				Central nervous system	Progressive spasticity and weakness of limbs.	303430 (Eymard-Pierre et al., 2002)	
AP2M1	Intellectual developmental disorder 60 with seizures (MRD60) Early infantile epileptic encephalopathy 48 (EIEE48)	Autosomal dominant Autosomal recessive	AP1 complex subunit Clathrin-mediated endocytosis AP2 complex subunit TGN/lysosome trafficking AP3 complex subunit	Central nervous system	Epilepsy with myoclonic-atonic seizures.	618587 (Heibig et al., 2019)	
AP3B2				Central nervous system	Refractory seizures, neurodevelopmental impairment. Following onset of seizures, cognitive and motor delays become apparent.	617276 (Assoum et al., 2016)	
AP4B1	Spastic paraparesia 47 (SPG47)	Autosomal recessive	TGN trafficking to endosomal-lysosomal system	Central nervous system	Early onset. Progressive lower extremity spasticity and weakness.	614066 (Bauer et al., 2012)	
AP4E1	Spastic paraparesia 51 (SPG51) Familial persistent stuttering 1 (STUT1)	Autosomal recessive Autosomal dominant	AP4 complex subunit TGN trafficking to endosomal-lysosomal system	Central nervous system	Infantile onset. Progressive lower extremity spasticity and weakness.	613744 (Moreno-De-Luca et al., 2011)	
AP4M1	Spastic paraparesia 50 (SPG50)	Autosomal recessive	AP4 complex subunit TGN trafficking to endosomal-lysosomal system	Central nervous system	Frequent repetition or prolongation of sounds or syllables and interruption of speech (blocks).	184450 (Raza et al., 2015)	
AP4S1	Spastic paraparesia 52 (SPG52)	Autosomal recessive	AP4 complex subunit TGN trafficking to endosomal-lysosomal system	Central nervous system	Infantile onset. Progressive lower extremity spasticity and weakness.	612936 (Verkerk et al., 2009)	
AP5Z1	Spastic paraparesia 48 (SPG48)	Autosomal recessive	AP4 complex subunit Endosomal trafficking	Central nervous system	Infantile onset. Progressive lower extremity spasticity and weakness.	614067 (Hardies et al., 2015)	
ARF1	Periventricular nodular heterotopia 8 (PVNH8)	Autosomal dominant	AP5 complex subunit COPI coat assembly ARF GTPase	Central nervous system	Progressive lower extremity spasticity and weakness.	613647 (Slabicki et al., 2010)	
Atlastin	Spastic paraparesia 3A (SPG3A) Hereditary sensory neuropathy type 1D (HSN1D)	Autosomal dominant Autosomal dominant	ER membrane remodelling GTPase	Central nervous system	Developmental disabilities, speech delay, seizures and attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD).	182600 613708 (Ge et al., 2016)	
				Central nervous system	Progressive lower extremity spasticity and weakness.	(Zhao et al., 2001)	
				Central nervous system	Adult-onset distal axonal sensory neuropathy leading to mutilating ulcerations as well as hyporeflexia.	(Guell et al., 2011)	

Auxilin/ DNAJC6	Parkinson disease 19A (PARK19A)	Autosomal recessive	Clathrin-mediated endocytosis Uncoating chaperone	Central nervous system	Juvenile onset (first or second decade). Bradykinesia, resting tremor, muscular rigidity and postural instability.	615528	(Edvardson et al., 2012)
PARKIN	Parkinson disease 19B (PARK19B)	Autosomal recessive	Association reported	Central nervous system	Early onset (between third and fifth decades). Bradykinesia, resting tremor, muscular rigidity and postural instability.	(Ogiati et al., 2016)	
BIN1	Alzheimer's disease	Autosomal recessive	Endocytosis, membrane shaping and t-tubule formation Adaptor protein	Central nervous system	Progressive dementia, loss of cognitive abilities and deposition of fibrillar amyloid proteins.	104300	(Hu et al., 2011; Seshadri et al., 2010)
	Centronuclear myopathy 2 (CNM2)	Autosomal recessive		Muscular	Progressive muscular weakness and wasting involving mainly limb girdle, trunk and neck	255200	(Nicot et al., 2007)
BIG2	Periventricular nodular heterotopia 2 (PVNH2)	Autosomal recessive	TGN trafficking ARF GEF	Central nervous system	Microcephaly, severe developmental delay and recurrent infections.	608097	(Sneen et al., 2004)
C9orf72	Frontotemporal dementia and/or amyotrophic lateral sclerosis 1 (FTDALS1)	Autosomal dominant	Autophagy regulator and endosomal trafficking RAB GEF	Central nervous system	Frontotemporal dementia: frontal and temporal lobe atrophy. Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis: death of motor neurons, resulting in fatal paralysis.	105550	(DeJesus-Hernandez et al., 2011; Renton et al., 2011)
CD2AP	Alzheimer's disease	Autosomal recessive	Clathrin-mediated endocytosis Adaptor protein	Central nervous system	Progressive dementia, loss of cognitive abilities and deposition of fibrillar amyloid proteins.	104300	(Hollingsworth et al., 2011; Naj et al., 2011)
	Focal segmental glomerulclerosis 3 (FSGS3)	Autosomal recessive	Renal		Segmental sclerosis in glomeruli, resulting in proteinuria, reduced glomerular filtration rate and progressive decline in renal function.	607832	(Kim et al., 2003)
CHMP2B	Chromosome 3-linked frontotemporal dementia (FTD3)	Autosomal dominant	Endosomal trafficking Component of endosomal ESCRT- III complex	Central nervous system	Onset of dementia in late 50s initially characterised by behavioural and personality changes.	600795	(Skibinski et al., 2005)
cTAGE5	Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis 17 (ALS17)	Autosomal dominant	ER-to-Golgi trafficking of large cargo	Central nervous system	Muscle weakness, wasting of the upper and lower limbs, bulbar signs and respiratory insufficiency. Basal ganglia calcifications.	614686	(Parkinson et al., 2006)
DENND5a	Familial idiopathic basal ganglia calcification (Fahr's disease)	Autosomal recessive	ER exit site-associated protein Late endosome, lysosome and Golgi trafficking GEF for RAB39A and RAB39B	Central nervous system	Neonatal onset of seizures, global developmental delay with intellectual disability and lack of speech, hypotonia, spasticity and coarse facial features.	617281	(Lemos et al., 2011)
	Early infantile epileptic encephalopathy 49 (EIEE49)	Autosomal recessive					(Han et al., 2016)
FIG4	Bilateral temporooccipital polymicrogyria (BTOP)	Autosomal recessive	Endosomal trafficking Phosphoinositide phosphatase	Central nervous system	Polymicrogyria, psychiatric manifestations and epilepsy.	612691	(Baulac et al., 2014)
	Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis 11 (ALS11)	Autosomal dominant			Rapid progressive loss of motor neurons, leading to muscle weakness and paralysis.	612577	(Chow et al., 2009)
	Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease 4J (CMT4J)	Autosomal recessive		Peripheral nervous system	Recessive demyelinating form of the disease. Progressive weakness and atrophy, initially of the peroneal muscles and later of the distal muscles of the arms.	611228	(Zhang et al., 2008)
	Yunis-Varon syndrome	Autosomal recessive		Multi-systemic	Skeletal anomalies, dysmorphism, global developmental delay and intracytoplasmic vacuolation in brain and other tissue.	216340	(Campeau et al., 2013)
GAK	Parkinson's disease	Association reported	Clathrin-mediated endocytosis Uncoating chaperone	Central nervous system	Bradykinesia, resting tremor, muscular rigidity and postural instability.	168600	(Nagle et al., 2016; Nalls et al., 2014)
GDI1	X-linked 41 mental retardation (MRX41)	X-linked dominant	Vesicle trafficking RAB-GDP dissociation inhibitor	Central nervous system	Below average intelligence.	300849	(Bievren et al., 1998; D'Adamo et al., 1998)
GOSR2	Progressive myoclonic epilepsy 6 (EPM6)	Autosomal recessive	ER-to-Golgi and intra-Golgi trafficking SNARE	Central nervous system	Onset of ataxia in the first years of life, followed by action myoclonus and seizures later in childhood.	614018	(Corbett et al., 2011)
HD-PTP	Developmental and epileptic encephalopathy	Mutations reported	Endosomal trafficking ESCRT-associated protein	Central nervous system	Mild hypotonia and severe developmental delay. Muscle biopsy shows severe non-specific dystrophic changes.		(Smigiel et al., 2018; Sowada et al., 2017)
	Cancer	Tumour suppressor gene			Epilepsy, severe and global developmental delay and microcephaly.		(Manteghi et al., 2016)

Continued

Table 1. Continued

Protein name	Disease	Inheritance	Protein function	Tissue/organ system affected	Phenotype	Phenotype Mendelian Inheritance in Man (MIM) number	Reference
Huntingtin	Huntington disease	Autosomal dominant Autosomal recessive	Endocytosis, microtubule-mediated transport and autophagic vesicle formation Interacts with clathrin-binding protein HIP1	Central nervous system	Involuntary movements, motor impairment, psychiatric disorders and dementia.	143100	(MacDonald et al., 1993)
LRRK2	Parkinson disease 8 (PARK8)	Autosomal dominant	Vesicular trafficking and autophagy Kinase that regulates RAB activity	Central nervous system	Developmental regression in infancy, delayed psychomotor development, severe intellectual disability, and cerebral and cerebellar atrophy. Bradykinesia, resting tremor, muscular rigidity, postural instability and neuronal loss in the substantia nigra.	617435	(Lopes et al., 2016; Rodan et al., 2016)
MINT3/APBA3	Alzheimer's disease	Association reported	TGN trafficking ARF adaptor Clathrin-mediated endocytosis	Central nervous system	Progressive dementia, loss of cognitive abilities and deposition of fibrillar amyloid proteins.	104300	(Shrivastava-Ranjani et al., 2008)
NECAP1	Early infantile epileptic encephalopathy 21 (EIEE21)	Autosomal recessive	Clathrin accessory protein	Central nervous system	Intractable seizures, profound global developmental delay and persistent severe axial hypotonia.	615833	(Alazami et al., 2014)
Optineurin	Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis 12 (ALS12)	Autosomal recessive or autosomal dominant	Endocytic trafficking Interacts with RAB8	Central nervous system	Slow disease progression. Lower limb onset.	613435	(Maruyama et al., 2010)
	Glaucoma 1, open angle, E (GLC1E)	Autosomal dominant		Ocular	Specific pattern of optic nerve and visual field defects. The angle of the anterior chamber of the eye is open, and usually the intraocular pressure is increased.	137760	(Rezaie et al., 2002)
PICALM	Alzheimer's disease	Association reported	Clathrin-mediated endocytosis and autophagy	Central nervous system	Progressive dementia, loss of cognitive abilities and deposition of fibrillar amyloid proteins.	104300	(Harold et al., 2009; Jun et al., 2010)
RAB11B	Neurodevelopmental disorder with ataxic gait, absent speech, and decreased cortical white matter (NDAGSCW)	Autosomal dominant	Endocytic adaptor Endocytic recycling RAB GTPase	Central nervous system	Severe intellectual disability with absent speech, epilepsy and hypotonia.	617807	(Lamers et al., 2017)
RAB29	Parkinson disease 16 (PARK16)	Association reported	Retrograde trafficking RAB GTPase	Central nervous system	Bradykinesia, resting tremor, muscular rigidity and postural instability.	613164	(MacLeod et al., 2013; Purifye et al., 2018)
RAB39B	X-linked 72 mental retardation (MRX72)	X-linked recessive	ER-to-Golgi trafficking RAB GTPase	Central nervous system	Below average intelligence.	300271	(Giannandrea et al., 2010)
	Waistian syndrome	X-linked recessive		Central nervous system	Delayed psychomotor development, intellectual disability and early-onset Parkinson's disease.	311510	(Mata et al., 2015; Wilson et al., 2014)
RME-8/ DNAJC13 SEC23IP	Parkinson's disease	Autosomal dominant Autosomal recessive	Early endosome trafficking Functional interaction with retromer ER exit site organisation Associates with COPII coat	Central nervous system	Bradykinesia, resting tremor, muscular rigidity and postural instability.	168600	(Vilaino-Guell et al., 2014)
SEC24B	Neural tube defects	Missense heterozygous mutations	ER-to-Golgi trafficking COP II inner coat	Central nervous system	Severe intellectual disability, osseous syndactyly and craniofacial and brain malformations.		(Reutler et al., 2017)
SEC31A	Neurodevelopmental disorder with spastic quadriplegia, optic atrophy, seizures, and structural brain anomalies (NEDSOB)	Autosomal recessive	ER-to-Golgi trafficking COP II outer coat	Central nervous system	Anencephaly, lumbosacral myelocystocele and hydrocephalus.		(Yang et al., 2013)
SNAP25B	Congenital myasthenic syndrome 18 (CMS18)	Autosomal dominant	Exocytosis in neurons SNARE	Central nervous system	Intrauterine growth retardation, developmental delay, spastic quadriplegia, epilepsy, optic nerve atrophy, neurosensory deafness and dysmorphism.	618651	(Halperin et al., 2019)
SNAP29	Cerebral dysgenesis, neuropathy, ichthyosis and keratoderma (CEDNIK) syndrome	Autosomal recessive	Autophagosome formation SNARE	Central nervous system	Muscle weakness that is induced or worsened by exertion. Cerebral dysgenesis, neuropathy, ichthyosis and palmoplantar keratoderma.	609558	(Shen et al., 2014) (Sprecher et al., 2005)

SNX27	Infantile myoclonic epilepsy and neurodegeneration	Homozygous deleterious mutation Autosomal recessive	Endosomal trafficking Retromer cargo adaptor	Central nervous system	Startle-like movements, myoclonic seizures, axial hypotonia and recurrent aspirations.	(Damseh et al., 2015)
Spartin	Spastic paraplegia 20 (SPG20)	Associates with microtubules Endosome-to-TGN trafficking and endosomal recycling	Endocytic trafficking	Central nervous system	Early onset. Progressive lower extremity spasticity and weakness.	275900 (Patel et al., 2002)
Spastin	Spastic paraplegia 4 (SPG4)	Microtubule-severing protein	Progressive lower extremity spasticity and weakness.	182601 (Hazan et al., 1999)		
Spastizin	Spastic paraplegia 15 (SPG15)	Autosomal recessive	Microtubule-severing protein Endosome trafficking and autophagy	Central nervous system	Progressive lower extremity spasticity and weakness. Progressive thinning of the corpus callosum.	(Hanein et al., 2008)
Spatacsin	Spastic paraplegia 11 (SPG11)	Autosomal recessive	AF5-associated accessory protein Endosome trafficking and autophagy	Central nervous system	Progressive lower extremity spasticity and weakness. Progressive thinning of the corpus callosum.	(Stevanini et al., 2007)
	Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis 5 (ALS5)	Autosomal recessive	AF5-associated accessory protein	Central nervous system	Early onset with slow progression. Limb and facial spasticity, spastic dysarthria, subsequent lower motor neuron signs and bladder dysfunction.	(Orfaochchio et al., 2010)
Strumpellin	Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease 2X (CMT2X)	Autosomal recessive	Autosomal dominant	Peripheral nervous system	Adult onset. Progressive lower extremity spasticity and weakness.	602099 (Valdmanis et al., 2007)
	Spastic paraplegia 8 (SPG8)	Autosomal recessive	Autosomal dominant	Central nervous system	Craniofacial abnormalities, congenital heart defects and cerebellar brain malformations.	(Elliott et al., 2013)
STXBP1	Ritscher-Schinzel syndrome 1 (RTSC1)	Autosomal recessive	Autosomal dominant	Multi-systemic	Neonatal or infantile onset of seizures, profound mental retardation and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) evidence of brain hypomyelination.	(Saito et al., 2008)
	Early infantile epileptic encephalopathy 4 (EIEE4)	X-linked recessive	X-linked recessive	Central nervous system	Slow progression. Progressive lower extremity spasticity and weakness.	616688 (Montecchiani et al., 2016)
Synapsin 1	X-linked epilepsy with variable learning disabilities and behaviour disorders	X-linked recessive	X-linked recessive	Central nervous system	Neuronal phosphoprotein Tethering/clustering of synaptic vesicles	612164 (Fassio et al., 2011; Garcia et al., 2004)
Synapsin 2	Susceptibility to schizophrenia	Autosomal dominant	Autosomal dominant	Central nervous system	Disturbances in the form and content of thought, in mood and in behaviour.	181500 (Chen et al., 2004; Lee et al., 2005)
Synaptosomal 1	Parkinson's disease 20 (PARK20)	Autosomal recessive	Claudin-mediated endocytosis and synaptic vesicle recycling	Central nervous system	Bradykinesia, resting tremor, muscular rigidity and postural instability.	615530 (Krebs et al., 2013; Quadri et al., 2013)
	Down's syndrome	Trisomy 21	Phosphoinositide phosphatase	Central nervous system	Cognitive impairment, low muscle tone, loose joints, short stature with small head and neck.	190685 (Voronov et al., 2008)
	Alzheimer's disease	Association reported	Alzheimer's disease	Central nervous system	Synaptosomal 1 may have link to memory loss in Alzheimer's disease.	104300 (Miranda et al., 2018)
	Early infantile epileptic encephalopathy 53 (EIEE53)	Autosomal recessive	Autosomal recessive	Central nervous system	Refractory seizures and neurodevelopmental impairment. Development is normal prior to seizure onset, after which cognitive and motor delays become apparent.	617399 (Hardies et al., 2016)
TBC1D23	Pontocerebellar hypoplasia 11 (PCH11)	Autosomal recessive	Endosome-to-Golgi trafficking Vesicle tethering	Central nervous system	Severely delayed psychomotor development with intellectual disability and poor speech, microcephaly, dysmorphic features and pontocerebellar hypoplasia.	617695 (Harriaul et al., 2018; Ivanova et al., 2017; Marin-Valecia et al., 2017)
TECPR2	Spastic paraplegia 49 (SPG49)	Autosomal recessive	ER-to-Golgi trafficking Regulator of COPII-dependent ER exit	Central nervous system	Delayed psychomotor development, mental retardation and dysmorphic features.	(Oz-Levi et al., 2012; Stadel et al., 2015)
TFG	Hereditary motor and sensory neuropathy, Okinawa type (HMSN0)	Autosomal dominant	ER-to-Golgi trafficking Modulates COPII-dependent ER exit	Central/peripheral nervous system	Young adult onset of proximal muscle weakness and atrophy, muscle cramps and fasciculations, with later onset of distal sensory impairment.	604484 (Ishiiura et al., 2012)
	Spastic paraplegia 57 (SPG57)	Autosomal recessive		Central/peripheral nervous system	Slow gradual progressive weakness and spasticity of the lower limbs.	(Beetz et al., 2013; Haralka et al., 2016; Maddirevula et al., 2019; Slosarek et al., 2018)

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Table 1. Continued

Protein name	Disease	Inheritance	Protein function	Tissue/organ system affected	Phenotype	Phenotype Mendelian Inheritance in Man (MIM) number	Reference
TRAPPC6B	Neurodevelopmental disorder with microcephaly, epilepsy and brain atrophy (NEDMEBA)	Autosomal recessive	ER-to-Golgi trafficking Member of TRAPP complex	Central nervous system	Microcephaly, global developmental delay, hypotonia, intellectual disability, autistic features and generalised tonic-clonic seizures.	617882	(Harripaul et al., 2018; Marin-Valecia et al., 2018)
TRAPPC9	Autosomal recessive mental retardation-13 (MRT13)	Autosomal recessive	ER-to-Golgi trafficking Member of TRAPP complex	Central nervous system	Below average intellectual functioning with impairments in adaptive behaviour.	613192	(Mir et al., 2009; Mochida et al., 2009; Philippe et al., 2009)
TRAPPC12	Early-onset progressive encephalopathy with brain atrophy and spasticity (PEBAS)	Autosomal recessive	ER-to-Golgi trafficking Member of TRAPP complex	Central nervous system	Progressive encephalopathy (central nervous system atrophy and dysfunction), spasticity, microcephaly, global developmental delay and hearing loss.	617669	(Miliv et al., 2017)
UBAP1	Spastic paraplegia 80 (SPG80)	Autosomal dominant	Endosomal trafficking and MVB sorting ESCRT-1 complex component	Central nervous system	Progressive lower extremity spasticity and weakness	618418	(Farazi Fard et al., 2019)
VAC14	Childhood-onset striatonigral degeneration (SNDC)	Autosomal recessive	Endosomal trafficking PIKfyve complex component	Central nervous system	Impaired movement with dystonia, progressively become non-ambulatory and non-verbal, and striatal abnormalities on MRI.	617054	(Lenk et al., 2016)
	Yunis–Varon syndrome	Autosomal recessive		Multi-systemic	Skeletal anomalies, dysmorphism, global developmental delay and intracytoplasmic vacuolation in brain and other tissue.		(Lines et al., 2017)
VAMP1	Spastic ataxia 1 (SPAX1)	Autosomal dominant	Synaptic vesicular trafficking SNARE	Central nervous system	Lower-limb spasticity and ataxia (head jerks, ocular movement abnormalities, dysphagia, dysarthria and gait disturbance).	108600	(Bourassa et al., 2012)
VIP36-like protein (LMAN1L)	Presynaptic congenital myasthenic syndrome 25 (CMS25)	Autosomal recessive	Autosomal recessive	Muscular	Hypotonia and generalised muscle weakness apparent from birth.	618323	(Salpietro et al., 2017; Shen et al., 2017)
VPS11	Autosomal recessive mental retardation-52 (MRT52)	Autosomal recessive	Transport of high mannose glycoproteins from the ER ERGIC-53 regulator	Central nervous system	Global developmental delay, severe intellectual disability with poor speech and mild seizures in early childhood.	616887	(Rafiqullah et al., 2016)
	Hypomyelinating leukodystrophy-12 (HLD12)	Autosomal recessive	Late endosome/lysosome trafficking Subunit of CORVET and HOPS complexes	Central nervous system	Developed microcephaly, intellectual disability with variable seizure disorder, accompanied by thin corpus callosum, paucity of white matter and delayed myelination.	616683	(Edvardson et al., 2015)
VPS16	Autosomal recessive adolescent-onset primary dystonia	Autosomal recessive	Late endosome/lysosome traffic Subunit of CORVET and HOPS complexes	Central nervous system	Sustained involuntary muscle contractions, often leading to abnormal postures.		(Cai et al., 2016)
VPS26	Alzheimer's disease	Association reported	Endosomal sorting Retromer component	Central nervous system	Progressive dementia, loss of cognitive abilities and deposition of fibrillar amyloid proteins.	104300	(Small et al., 2005)
VPS26A	Atypical parkinsonism	Missense mutations reported	Endosomal sorting Retromer component	Central nervous system	Bradykinesia, resting tremor, muscular rigidity and postural instability. Generally does not respond to treatment with levodopa.		(Gustavsson et al., 2015)
VPS35	Alzheimer's disease	Association reported	Endosomal sorting Retromer component	Central nervous system	Progressive dementia, loss of cognitive abilities and deposition of fibrillar amyloid proteins.	104300	(Small et al., 2005; Vilaino-Guell et al., 2011)
	Parkinson disease 17 (PARK17)	Autosomal dominant	Endosomal trafficking and MVB sorting	Central nervous system	Bradykinesia, resting tremor, muscular rigidity and postural instability.	614203	(Zhimprich et al., 2011)
VPS37A	Spastic paraplegia 53 (SPG53)	Autosomal recessive	ESCRT-1 complex component	Central nervous system	Pronounced early onset spastic paraparesis of upper and lower limbs, mild intellectual disability, kyphosis, pectus carinatum and hypertrophicosis.	614898	(Zivony-Elboum et al., 2012)

VPS53	Pontocerebellar hypoplasia type 2E Progressive encephalopathy with oedema, hypsarrhythmia and optic atrophy (PEHO)-like syndrome Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease 2M (CMT2M)	Autosomal recessive Autosomal recessive Autosomal dominant	Endosome-to-TGN trafficking GARP and EARP complex	Central nervous system	Mental retardation, progressive microcephaly, spasticity and early-onset epilepsy. Infantile hypotonia, myoclonic jerking, infantile spasms and profound psychomotor retardation.	615851	(Feinstein et al., 2014) (Hadji-Cohen et al., 2018)
Dynamin 2	Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease dominant intermediate B (CMTDIB)	Autosomal dominant	Endocytosis and vesicular trafficking Mechano-GTPase	Peripheral nervous system	Axonal form of the disease. Progressive weakness and atrophy, initially of the peripheral muscles and later of the distal muscles of the arms.	606482	(Fabrizi et al., 2007)
LITAF	Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease 1C (CMT1C) Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease 4B2 (CMT4B2)	Autosomal dominant Autosomal recessive	Autophagy RAB21 GEF and MTM1 adaptor	Peripheral nervous system	Progressive weakness and atrophy, initially of the peripheral muscles and later of the distal muscles of the arms. Dominant type B intermediate is characterised by clinical and pathological features intermediate between axonal and demyelinating forms.	606482	(Zuchner et al., 2005)
MTMR13	Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease 4B1 (CMT4B1)	Autosomal recessive	Endosomal trafficking Phosphoinositide phosphatase [PtdIns3P and PtdIns(3,5)P ₂]	Peripheral nervous system	Progressive muscular weakness and wasting involving mainly limb girdle, trunk and neck muscles.	160150	(Bitoun et al., 2005)
MTMR2	Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease 4B3 (CMT4B3)	Autosomal recessive	Endosomal trafficking MTMR2 adaptor	Peripheral nervous system	Degeneration of anterior horn neurons, extreme skeletal muscle atrophy and congenital non-progressive joint contractures.	615368	(Koutsopoulos et al., 2013)
RAB7	Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease 2B (CMT2B)	Autosomal dominant	Endo-lysosomal trafficking RAB GTPase	Peripheral nervous system	Sensory loss, distal muscle weakness and slow nerve conduction velocity.	601098	(Street et al., 2003)
SH3TC2	Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease 4C (CMT4C)	Autosomal recessive	Endosomal trafficking RAB11 effector	Peripheral nervous system	Recessive demyelinating form of the disease. Progressive weakness and atrophy, initially of the peripheral muscles and later of the distal muscles of the arms.	604563	(Azzedine et al., 2003)
PIKfyve	Mild mononeuropathy of the median nerve (MNMN) Fleck corneal dystrophy	Autosomal dominant X-linked recessive	Endosomal trafficking Vesicular traffic Chaperone required for the phosphorylation of RABs	Peripheral nervous system Ocular	Recessive demyelinating form of the disease. Progressive weakness and atrophy, initially of the peripheral muscles and later of the distal muscles of the arms.	601382	(Bolino et al., 2000)
REP1	Choroideremia		Clathrin-mediated endocytosis Required for PtdIns(3,5)P ₂ kinase	Peripheral nervous system Ocular	Dominant axonal form of the disease. Progressive weakness and atrophy, initially of the peripheral muscles and later of the distal muscles of the arms.	615284	(Nakhro et al., 2013)
AAGAB	Punctate palmoplantar keratoderma 1A (PPPK1A)	Autosomal dominant	Vesicular traffic Chaperone required for the phosphorylation of RABs	Peripheral nervous system Ocular	Progressive weakness and atrophy, initially of the peripheral muscles and later of the distal muscles of the arms.	600882	(Verhoeven et al., 2003)
GMAF-210	Achondrogenesis type 1A (ACG1A)	Autosomal recessive	ER-to-Golgi and intra-Golgi trafficking Golgin	Peripheral nervous system Ocular	Stromal corneal dystrophy (numerous small white flecks scattered in all levels of the stroma). Slow, progressive degeneration of the choroid, photoreceptors and retinal pigment epithelium.	613353	(Senderek et al., 2003)
GORAB	Odontochoondroplasia (ODCD)	Autosomal recessive		Median nerve mononeuropathy at the wrist.	Multiple hyperkeratotic centrally indented papules that develop in early adolescence or later and are irregularly distributed on the palms and soles. Deficient ossification in the lumbar vertebrae and absent ossification in the sacral, pubic and ischial bones.	121850	(Lupski et al., 2010)
	Geroderma osteodysplastica (GO)	Autosomal recessive	Retrograde intra-Golgi traffic CCP1 scaffolding protein	Skin, bone and connective tissue	Mesomelic shortening of tubular bones, ligamentous laxity, scoliosis and dentinogenesis imperfecta.	303100	(Sankila et al., 1992; Seabra et al., 1993)
				Skin, bone and connective tissue	Lax, wrinkled skin, joint laxity, severe osteoporosis and growth retardation.	231070	(Smits et al., 2010) (Hennies et al., 2008; Wilkos et al., 2019)

Table 1. Continued

Protein name	Disease	Inheritance	Protein function	Tissue/organ system affected	Phenotype	Phenotype Mendelian Inheritance in Man (MIM) number	Reference
RAB33B	Smith-McCort dysplasia 2	Autosomal recessive	Retrograde traffic and autophagosome formation RAB GTPase ER-to-Golgi trafficking COP II inner coat	Skin, bone and connective tissue	Short limbs and trunk with barrel-shaped chest.	615222	(Dipuis et al., 2013)
SEC23A	Craniofrontosutural dysplasia (CLSD) Cancer	Autosomal recessive Association reported	Autosomal recessive Association reported	Skin, bone and connective tissue Various	Late-closing fontanelles, sutural cataracts, facial dysmorphisms and skeletal defects.	607812	(Boyadjiev et al., 2006) (Korpal et al., 2011)
SEC24D	Cole-Carpenter syndrome 2 (CLCRP2)	ER-to-Golgi trafficking COP II inner coat	ER-to-Golgi trafficking TRAPP complex component	Skin, bone and connective tissue	Bone deformities, severe bone fragility, ocular proptosis, craniosynostosis, growth failure and distinctive facial features.	616294	(Garbes et al., 2015)
Sedlin (TRAPPC2) (SEDT)	Spondyloepiphyseal dysplasia tarda	X-linked recessive			Short stature (evident between 5 and 14 years of age), shortness due to impaired growth of the spine, characteristic flattening of vertebrae with central humpng, dysplastic changes of femoral heads and neck, and minor changes in other bones.	313400	(Gedeon et al., 1999)
Alpha-COP	Autoimmune interstitial lung, joint, and kidney disease (AILJK)	Autosomal dominant	Retrograde traffic COP I coat subunit Clathrin vesicle formation and TGN trafficking AP1 complex subunit	Immunological	Inflammatory arthritis, interstitial lung disease and immune complex-mediated renal disease.	616414	(Walkin et al., 2015)
AP1S3	Pustular psoriasis 15 (PSORS15)	Autosomal dominant			Repeated flares (sudden onset) of diffuse erythematous skin eruptions characterised by rapid coverage with pustules, high-grade fever, asthenia, marked leukocytosis and elevated serum levels of C-reactive protein.	616106	(Setta-Kaffelzi et al., 2014)
LTK	Systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE)	Association reported	COP II assembly and ER-to-Golgi trafficking Receptor tyrosine kinase Exocytosis RAB27A effector TGN-to-endosome trafficking and tight junction formation RAB GTPase Endosome-to-TGN trafficking and exocytosis SNARE Intracellular vesicle trafficking and exocytosis Interacts with syntaxin 11 Endosome-to-plasma membrane trafficking Unconventional myosin and RAB effector	Immunological	Inflammation of multiple organs, glomerulonephritis, dermatitis, thrombosis, vasculitis, seizures and arthritis.	152700	(Cantonze et al., 2019; Li et al., 2004)
MUNC-13-4	Familial haemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis (FHL-3)	Autosomal recessive Association reported		Immunological	Fever, hepatosplenomegaly, cytopenia and less frequently, neurological abnormalities.	608898	(Feldmann et al., 2003)
RAB13	Crohn's disease	Autosomal recessive		Immunological	Abdominal pain, diarrhoea, fever and weight loss.		(OHIRA et al., 2009)
Syntaxin 11	Familial haemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis (FHL-4)	Autosomal recessive		Immunological	Fever, hepatosplenomegaly, cytopenia and, less frequently, neurological abnormalities.	603552	(zur Stadt et al., 2005)
Syntaxin binding protein 2	Familial haemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis (FHL-5)	Autosomal recessive		Immunological	Fever, hepatosplenomegaly, cytopenia and, less frequently, neurological abnormalities.	613101	(zur Stadt et al., 2009)
MYO5B	Microvillus inclusion disease	Autosomal recessive		Intestine	Intractable life-threatening watery diarrhoea during infancy.	251850	(Muller et al., 2008)
SAR1B	Chylomicron retention disease (CMRD/ Anderson Disease)	Autosomal recessive	ER-to-Golgi trafficking COP II component (GTPase)	Intestine	Severe fat malabsorption. Deficiency of fat-soluble vitamins, low blood cholesterol level and a selective absence of chylomicrons from blood.	246700	(Jones et al., 2003)
Syntaxin 3	Microvillus inclusion disease	Autosomal recessive	Endosome-to-apical plasma membrane trafficking SNARE	Intestine	Intractable life-threatening watery diarrhoea during infancy.		(Wiegerinck et al., 2014)
AP2S1	Familial hypocalciuric hypercaecmia type III (HHC3)	Autosomal dominant	Clathrin-mediated endocytosis AP2 complex subunit	Cardiovascular and blood	Elevation of serum calcium concentrations. Associated with inappropriately low urinary calcium excretion and a normal or mildly elevated circulating parathyroid hormone level.	600740	(Nesbit et al., 2013)
ARH	Autosomal recessive hypercholesterolaemia	Autosomal recessive	Endocytosis Adaptor protein	Cardiovascular and blood cholesterol.	Elevated circulating low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol.	603813	(Garcia et al., 2001)

ERGIC53 (LMAN1)	Combined factor V and VIII deficiency 1 Cancer	Autosomal recessive Association reported	ER-to-Golgi trafficking Cargo receptor (alongside MCFD2)	Cardiovascular and blood Epistaxis, menorrhagia and excessive bleeding during or after trauma.	227300	(Nichols et al., 1999) (Roekel et al., 2009)
LDL receptor	Autosomal recessive hypercholesterolaemia	Autosomal recessive	Endocytosis Receptor ER-to-Golgi trafficking	Cardiovascular and blood Elevated circulating low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol.	143890	(Davis et al., 1986)
MCFD2	Combined factor V and VIII deficiency 2	Autosomal recessive	Cargo receptor (alongside ERGIC53)	Cardiovascular and blood Epistaxis, menorrhagia and excessive bleeding during or after trauma.	613625	(Zhang et al., 2003a)
SEC23B	Congenital dyserythropoietic anaemia type II (CDAI)	Autosomal recessive	ER-to-Golgi trafficking COP II inner coat	Cardiovascular and blood Erythroblast morphological abnormalities, ineffective erythropoiesis, normocytic anaemia, iron overload and jaundice.	224100	(Branchi et al., 2009; Schwarz et al., 2009)
Cowden syndrome		Autosomal dominant		Multi-systemic	Macrocephaly, benign overgrowths, increased risk of thyroid cancer.	(Yehia et al., 2015)
Cancer		Autosomal recessive	Autosomal Association reported	Various		(Yehia et al., 2013; Yehia et al., 2015) (Mele et al., 2011)
MYO1E	Focal segmental glomerulosclerosis 6 (FSGS6)	X-linked recessive	Endocytosis Unconventional myosin and RAB effector	Renal	Child-onset segmental sclerosis in glomeruli, resulting in proteinuria, reduced glomerular filtration rate and progressive decline in renal function.	614131
OCLR1	Dent disease 2	X-linked recessive	Lysosomal, endocytic and endosomal trafficking Phosphoinositide phosphatase [PTdns(4,5)P2]	Renal	Proximal renal tubular defect, hypercalciuria, nephrocalcinosis and renal insufficiency. Wide range of characteristics that affect the eyes, nervous system and kidney.	300555
Lowe syndrome		X-linked recessive	Vesicle-plasma membrane fusion Calcium-binding protein	Multi-systemic	Weakness and atrophy starting in the proximal pelyfemoral muscles, with onset in the late teens or later. Elevation of serum creatine kinase levels and slow progression.	309000
Dysferlin	Autosomal recessive lamb-girdle muscular dystrophy-2 (LGMDR2)	Autosomal recessive		Muscular	Late-onset muscular dystrophy involving the distal lower limb musculature.	253601
				Muscular	Onset between 14 and 28 years of age, with the anterior tibial muscles the first muscle group involved. Rapidly progressive course involving the lower and upper proximal muscles.	254130
				Muscular	Progressive muscular weakness and wasting involving mainly limb girdle, trunk and neck muscles.	(Buj-Bello et al., 1999; Laporte et al., 2000)
					Proximal muscle weakness with childhood onset, resulting in gait abnormalities, scapular winging and increased serum creatine kinase.	606768
MTM1	X-linked myotubular myopathy	X-linked recessive	Late endosome to lysosome trafficking Phosphoinositide phosphatase ER-to-Golgi trafficking TRAPP complex subunit	Muscular	Erythematous skin lesions and hyperkeratosis, severe psychomotor retardation, peripheral neuropathy and sensorineural hearing loss.	615356
TRAPPC11	Autosomal recessive lamb-girdle muscular dystrophy-18 (LGMDR18)	Autosomal recessive	Clastrin vesicle formation and TGN Multi-systemic trafficking AP1 complex subunit	Muscular	(Boegnerhausen et al., 2013)	
AP1S1	Mental retardation, enteropathy, deafness, peripheral neuropathy, ichthyosis and keratoderma (MEDNIK)	Autosomal recessive	TGN/lysosome trafficking AF3 complex subunit	Muscular	(Montpetit et al., 2008)	
AP3B1 (HPS2)	Hermannsky-Pudlak syndrome type 2	Autosomal recessive	TGN/lysosome trafficking AF3 complex subunit	Multi-systemic	Oculocutaneous albinism, platelet dysfunction, lysosomal storage deficiency and immunodeficiency.	609313
AP3D1	Hermannsky-Pudlak syndrome type 10	Autosomal recessive	TGN/lysosome trafficking AP3 complex subunit	Multi-systemic	Oculocutaneous albinism, severe neurological impairment and immunodeficiency.	608233
BLOC1S3	Hermannsky-Pudlak syndrome type 8	Autosomal recessive	Endosomal trafficking BLOC-1 subunit (BLQC1S3)	Multi-systemic	Oculocutaneous albinism, platelet dysfunction and lysosomal storage deficiency.	617050
CLN3	Batten disease (CLN3)	Autosomal recessive	Late endosomal/lysosome trafficking	Multi-systemic	Seizures, dementia, visual loss and/or cerebral atrophy.	614077
CHS1/LYST	Cediak-Higashi syndrome	Autosomal recessive	Endosomal trafficking regulator	Multi-systemic	Recurrent infections, albinism, peripheral neuropathy.	204200
						(Lerner et al., 1995)
						(Karim et al., 2002)

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Table 1. Continued

Protein name	Disease	Inheritance	Protein function	Tissue/organ system affected	Phenotype	Phenotype Mendelian Inheritance in Man (MIM) number	Reference
CLN8	Batten disease (Northern epilepsy syndrome) Batten disease (CLN8)	Autosomal recessive Autosomal recessive	ER-to-Golgi trafficking Hydrolase cargo receptor	Multi-systemic	Seizures and subsequent progressive mental retardation.	610003	(Ranta et al., 1999)
COG1	Congenital disorder of glycosylation 2G (CDG2G)	Autosomal recessive	Intra-Golgi trafficking CGO complex subunit	Multi-systemic	Seizures, dementia, visual loss and/or cerebral atrophy.	600143	(Ranta et al., 2004)
COG2	Congenital disorder of glycosylation 2Q (CDG2Q)	Autosomal recessive	Intra-Golgi trafficking CGO complex subunit	Multi-systemic	Failure to thrive, generalised hypotonia, growth retardation and mild psychomotor retardation.	611209	(Foulquier et al., 2006)
COG4	Congenital disorder of glycosylation 2J (CDG2J)	Autosomal recessive	Intra-Golgi trafficking CGO complex subunit	Multi-systemic	Delayed development, acquired microcephaly, spastic quadriplegia and tonic seizures.	617385	(Kodera et al., 2015)
COG5	Sauv-Wilson syndrome (SWILS)	Autosomal dominant	Intra-Golgi trafficking CGO complex subunit	Multi-systemic	Developmental delay, hypotonia and recurrent respiratory and gastrointestinal infections.	613489	(Miura et al., 2005; Reynders et al., 2009; Ferreira et al., 2018)
COG6	Congenital disorder of glycosylation 2L (CDG2L)	Homozygous intronic substitution Autosomal recessive	Intra-Golgi trafficking CGO complex subunit	Multi-systemic	Short stature, prominent forehead, prominent eyes with cataracts and developmental delay.	618150	(Paeold-Burda et al., 2009)
COG7	Congenital disorder of glycosylation 2E (CDG2E)	Autosomal recessive	Intra-Golgi trafficking CGO complex subunit	Multi-systemic	Mild neurological impairments, truncal ataxia and mild hypotonia.	613612	(Lubbehusen et al., 2010)
COG8	Congenital disorder of glycosylation 2H (CDG2H)	Autosomal recessive	Intra-Golgi trafficking CGO complex subunit	Multi-systemic	Neonatal intractable focal seizures, vomiting, loss of consciousness, intracranial bleeding and death in infancy.	614576	(Shahaneen et al., 2013a)
Delta-COP	Rhizomelic short stature with microcephaly, micrognathia and developmental delay (SRMMD)	Autosomal dominant	Retrograde trafficking COP1 coat subunit	Multi-systemic	Severe intellectual disability, hypohidrosis, dental enamel hypoplasia and hyperkeratosis of the palms and soles.	615328	(Wu et al., 2004)
Dysbindin	Hermannsky-Pudlak syndrome type 7	Autosomal recessive	Endosomal trafficking BLOC-1 subunit	Multi-systemic	Perinatal asphyxia and dysmorphia, hypotonia, hepatosplenomegaly and progressive jaundice.	608779	(Foulquier et al., 2007; Kranz et al., 2007)
EXO84	Joubert syndrome	X-linked recessive	Exocytosis	Multi-systemic	Acute encephalopathy, hypotonia and mental retardation.	611182	
FGD1	Aarskog-Scott syndrome		TGN trafficking CDC42 GEF	Multi-systemic			
HPS1	Hermannsky-Pudlak syndrome type 1	Autosomal recessive	Endosomal trafficking BLOC-3 subunit (BLOC3S1)	Multi-systemic	Facial dysmorphism, severe micrognathia, microcephaly, rhizomelic short stature and mild developmental delay.	617164	(Izumi et al., 2016)
HPS3	Hermannsky-Pudlak syndrome type 3	Autosomal recessive	Endosomal trafficking BLOC-2 subunit (BLOC2S1)	Multi-systemic	Oculocutaneous albinism, platelet dysfunction and lysosomal storage deficiency.	614076	(Li et al., 2003)
HPS4	Hermannsky-Pudlak syndrome type 4	Autosomal recessive	Endosomal trafficking BLOC-3 subunit (BLOC3S2)	Multi-systemic	Hypoplasia of cerebellar vermis, dysregulation of breathing pattern and developmental delay.	213300	(Dixon-Salazar et al., 2012)
HPS5	Hermannsky-Pudlak syndrome type 5	Autosomal recessive	Endosomal trafficking BLOC-3 subunit (BLOC3S1)	Multi-systemic	Short stature and multiple facial, limb and genital abnormalities.	305400	(Pastoris et al., 1994)
HPS6	Hermannsky-Pudlak syndrome type 6	Autosomal recessive	Endosomal trafficking BLOC-2 subunit (BLOC2S3)	Multi-systemic	Oculocutaneous albinism, platelet dysfunction and lysosomal storage deficiency.	614073	(Suzuki et al., 2002)
Melanophilin	Griscelli syndrome type 3	Autosomal recessive	Melanosome transport	Multi-systemic	Oculocutaneous albinism, platelet dysfunction and lysosomal storage deficiency.	609227	(Zhang et al., 2003b)
MYO5A	Griscelli syndrome type 1	Autosomal recessive	RAB27A effector protein	Multi-systemic	Oculocutaneous albinism, platelet dysfunction and lysosomal storage deficiency.	614075	(Zhang et al., 2003b)
			Unconventional myosin that forms complex with RAB27A and melanophilin	Multi-systemic	Albinism and neurological defects.	214450	(Pastural et al., 1997)

NBAS	Multisystem disease	Autosomal recessive	Golgi-to-ER trafficking COP1 vesicle-tethering complex	Multi-systemic	(Segarra et al., 2015)
	Short stature, optic nerve atrophy and Pelger–Huet anomaly (SOPH)	Autosomal recessive		Multi-systemic	
	Infantile liver syndrome 2 (ILFS2)	Autosomal recessive		Liver	
	Atypical osteogenesis imperfecta	Compound heterozygous variants reported		Multi-systemic	
RAB18	Warburg micro syndrome 3	Autosomal recessive	Apical endocytosis/recycling. RAB GTPase	Multi-systemic	Postnatal growth retardation, facial dysmorphism with senile face, abnormal nuclear shape in neutrophil granulocytes and optic atrophy. Acute liver failure in first few months of life. Anaemia, renal tubulopathy, developmental delay, seizures, liver steatosis and fibrosis. Short stature, bone fragility, developmental delay and immunodeficiency.
RAB23	Carpenter syndrome	Autosomal recessive	Endocytic trafficking, plasma membrane recycling and SHH signalling RAB GTPase	Multi-systemic	Microcephaly, microcornia, congenital cataracts, optic atrophy, cortical dysplasia and severe mental retardation. Acrocephaly with variable synostosis of the sagittal, lambdoid and coronal sutures, congenital heart defects, growth retardation and mental retardation.
RAB27A	Griselli syndrome type 2	Autosomal recessive	Melanosome transport and trafficking to plasma membrane RAB GTPase that can form complex with MYO5A and melanophilin	Multi-systemic	Pigment dilution of skin and hair, large clumps of pigment in hair shafts and accumulation of melanosomes in melanocytes. Neurological impairment is some patients.
RAB3GAP1	Warburg micro syndrome 1	Autosomal recessive	Exocytosis RAB3 GAP	Multi-systemic	Microcephaly, microcornia, congenital cataracts, optic atrophy, cortical dysplasia and severe mental retardation.
RAB3GAP2	Warburg micro syndrome 2	Autosomal recessive	Exocytosis RAB3 GAP	Multi-systemic	Microcephaly, microcornia, congenital cataracts, optic atrophy, cortical dysplasia and severe mental retardation.
RIC1	Martsolf syndrome	Autosomal recessive	Autosomal recessive	Multi-systemic	Congenital cataracts, mental retardation and hypogonadism.
RIN2	Cleft lip, cataract, tooth abnormality, impaired intellectual development, facial dysmorphism and attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (CATIFA) syndrome	Autosomal recessive	Procollagen transport RAB6A GEF	Multi-systemic	Intellectual disability, facial dysmorphism, tooth abnormality, cleft lip, cataract and ADHD.
SCYL1	Macrocephaly, alopecia, cutis laxa and scoliosis (MACS) syndrome	Autosomal recessive	Endocytic trafficking RAB5 activator/effectector.	Multi-systemic	Elastic tissue characterised by sagging skin. Ataxia, peripheral neuropathy, acute liver failure and cholestasis.
SEC8	Meckel–Gruber syndrome	Autosomal recessive	Exocytosis	Multi-systemic	613075 (Basel-Yanagita et al., 2009)
TBC1D20	Warburg micro syndrome 4	Autosomal recessive	Exocyst subunit ER-to-Golgi trafficking and autophagy	Multi-systemic	616719 (Lenz et al., 2018; Schmidt et al., 2015)
VIPAR	Arthrogryposis, renal dysfunction and cholestaosis 2 (ARCS2)	Autosomal recessive	RAB1 and RAB2 GAP Endosomal and lysosomal trafficking VPS33B–VIPAR complex interacts with RAB11A	Multi-systemic	249000 (Shafeeq et al., 2013b)
VPS15	Ciliopathy	Autosomal recessive	Endosomal trafficking and autophagy	Multi-systemic	615663 (Liegel et al., 2013)
VPS33A	Mucopolysaccharidosis-plus syndrome	Autosomal recessive	Forms complex with GM130 Late endosomal/lysosome trafficking Subunit of CORVET and HOPS tethering complex	Multi-systemic	613404 (Cullinane et al., 2010)
					Retinal pigmentosa, progressive renal failure and kidney atrophy and developmental anomalies.
					Coarse facial features, skeletal abnormalities, respiratory problems, mental retardation and heart, kidney and haematopoietic disorders.

Table 1. Continued

Protein name	Disease	Inheritance	Protein function	Tissue/organ system affected	Phenotype	Phenotype Mendelian Inheritance in Man (MIM) number	Reference
VPS35B	Arthrogryposis, renal dysfunction and choleostasis 1 (ARCS1)	Autosomal recessive	Endosomal and lysosomal trafficking VPS35B-VIPAR complex interacts with RAB11A	Multi-systemic	Arthrogryposis multiplex congenita, renal tubular abnormalities and cholestasis.	208085	(Gissen et al., 2004)
VPS35L	3C/Ritscher–Schinzel-like syndrome	Compound heterozygous mutations	Endosomal trafficking Retriever complex component	Multi-systemic	Cranio-cerebello-cardiac dysplasia, coloboma, microphthalmia, chondroplasia punctata and skeletal malformation.		(Kato et al., 2019)
VPS51	Pontocerebellar hypoplasia type 13 (PCH13)	Autosomal recessive	Endosome-to-TGN trafficking Golgi-associated retrograde protein (GARP) and endosome-associated recycling protein (EARP) complex component	Multi-systemic	Global developmental delay, impaired intellectual development with absent speech, microcephaly and progressive atrophy of the cerebellar vermis and brainstem.	618606	(Uwineza et al., 2019; Gershlick et al., 2019)
Endophilin-A2	Cancer	Association reported	Endocytosis Membrane remodelling and scission	Various			(Baldassarre et al., 2015)
GOLPH3	Cancer	Overexpression	Golgi and secretory trafficking Phosphatidylinositol phosphate effector	Various			(Scott et al., 2009)
RAB2A	Cancer	Association reported	ER-to-Golgi trafficking RAB GTPase	Various			(Luo et al., 2015)
RAB25	Various cancers	Association reported	Endosomal trafficking RAB GTPase	Various			(Cheng et al., 2004)
RAB35	Cancer	Association reported	Endosomal trafficking RAB GTPase	Various			(Wheeler et al., 2015)
Synaptotagmin 2	Various cancers	Association reported	Clathrin-mediated endocytosis Phosphoinositide phosphatase	Various			(Ben-Chetrit et al., 2015; Spaenij-Dekking et al., 2003)
TPD52	Cancer	Association reported	Exocytosis	Various			(Byrne et al., 1998; Byrne et al., 1995)
TPD53	Cancer	Association reported	Membrane fusion SNARE binding protein	Various			(Byrne et al., 1996; Byrne et al., 1998)
TPD54	Cancer	Association reported	Membrane trafficking RAB effector	Various			(Nourse et al., 1998)
TSG101	Cancer	Association reported	Endosomal trafficking ESCRT-I complex component	Various			(Jiang et al., 2013; Li and Cohen, 1996)
CHC22	Type 2 diabetes	Association reported	Clathrin-mediated endocytosis and TGN trafficking	Various	Elevated blood sugar level.	125853	(Vassilopoulos et al., 2009)
DENND4C	Type 2 diabetes	Association reported	Clathrin coat component Golgi-to-plasma membrane trafficking RAB10 GEF	Various	Elevated blood sugar level.	125853	(Johnson and O'Donnell, 2009)
SAC2	Type 2 diabetes	Association reported	Exocytosis Phosphoinositide phosphatase (PtdIns4P)	Various	Elevated blood sugar level.	125853	(Nguyen et al., 2019)

2010), bridging integrator 1 (BIN1)/amphiphysin 2 (Hu et al., 2011; Seshadri et al., 2010), cortactin-CD2-associated protein (CD2AP) (Hollingworth et al., 2011; Naj et al., 2011) and synaptosomal protein (McMahon and Boucrot, 2011; Miranda et al., 2018), with the risk of acquiring Alzheimer's disease (AD). Additionally, deficiency in VPS26 and VPS35, two subunits of the retromer complex for endosomal recycling, has been observed in AD (Small et al., 2005). In AD, differences in endocytic trafficking and processing of amyloid precursor protein (APP) to its cytotoxic product A β can explain the involvement of endocytic traffic in AD pathogenesis (Toh and Gleeson, 2016). Endocytic traffic may also affect AD pathogenesis in other ways; for example, by influencing the susceptibility of neurons to A β (which itself can disrupt endocytic traffic), the uptake of toxic A β aggregates from the cell exterior, the production of synaptic vesicles or abundance of post-synaptic receptors, or by altering lysosome homeostasis and autophagy pathways that are important for cell viability (Nixon, 2017). Increased processing of APP to A β may also arise from altered trafficking at the Golgi apparatus, although the molecular details are less clear (Joshi and Wang, 2015).

Parkinson's disease (PD) is also strongly associated with defective endocytic traffic, including the mutation or altered expression of various endocytic components (Abeliovich and Gitler, 2016). These include cyclin G-associated kinase (GAK) (Nagle et al., 2016; Nalls et al., 2014), auxilin (Edvardson et al., 2012; Olglati et al., 2016) and synaptosomal protein (Krebs et al., 2013; Quadri et al., 2013) [which function in clathrin-mediated endocytosis (McMahon and Boucrot, 2011)], the retromer subunit VPS35 (Vilarino-Guell et al., 2011; Zimprich et al., 2011) and the retromer-associated protein receptor-mediated endocytosis 8 (RME-8) (Vilarino-Guell et al., 2014). As in AD, endocytic traffic may lead to PD pathology in several ways; for example, by influencing the uptake of toxic α -synuclein aggregates, by altering synaptic vesicle or neurotransmitter receptor traffic, or by affecting lysosome homeostasis and autophagy (Abeliovich and Gitler, 2016). Of note, mutations of several lysosomal proteins are strongly associated with PD (Dehay et al., 2013), as is defective autophagic clearance of mitochondria (Ryan et al., 2015).

Defective traffic in the early secretory pathway is also relevant for PD pathogenesis. RAB39B, a mutation of which is associated with early-onset PD as well as X-linked intellectual disability (Giannandrea et al., 2010; Mata et al., 2015; Wilson et al., 2014), is required for ER-to-Golgi transport of the synaptic α -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic (AMPA) receptor subunit GluA2 (Mignogna et al., 2015). Interestingly, excess α -synuclein can also disrupt ER-to-Golgi traffic, most likely at the level of COPII vesicle tethering or fusion (Cooper et al., 2006; Thayanidhi et al., 2010). α -Synuclein appears to normally function in synaptic vesicle fusion (Burre et al., 2010; Chandra et al., 2005), hence its aggregation or loss of function likely also directly affect neurotransmitter release (Carstea et al., 1997; Polymeropoulos et al., 1997; Singleton et al., 2003). As for AD, PD pathology may arise from defects in other trafficking pathways. A protein of much current interest is leucine-rich repeat kinase 2 (LRRK2), which is mutated in ~1% of sporadic and ~5% of familial PD (Paisan-Ruiz et al., 2004; Zimprich et al., 2004). LRRK2 phosphorylates several RAB GTPases (Steger et al., 2016), functioning in diverse trafficking steps, and the most common PD mutations cause LRRK2 activation (West et al., 2005). Excessive LRRK2-mediated phosphorylation alters the ability of these RABs to engage with regulatory factors and effector proteins, thereby disrupting traffic (Steger et al., 2016). Of interest, RAB29 stimulates LRRK2

activation at cellular membranes (Gomez et al., 2019; Purlyte et al., 2018), and is also independently linked to PD, indicating that these proteins (co)operate in a common disease pathway (MacLeod et al., 2013).

Frontotemporal dementia (FTD) is a neurodegenerative disease that is commonly associated with early onset of symptoms (Warren et al., 2013). Mutation of C9orf72, which encodes a RAB GEF, is strongly associated with familial FTD (DeJesus-Hernandez et al., 2011; Renton et al., 2011). Expansion of nucleotide repeats may cause a toxic gain of function at the RNA level, whereas a loss of protein function may also contribute to FTD pathology by altering trafficking to the lysosome, with likely downstream effects upon autophagy (Balendra and Isaacs, 2018). Consistent with this, FTD can be caused by mutation of the ESCRT-III subunit charged multivesicular body protein 2B (CHMP2B), which is involved in MVB sorting (Skibinski et al., 2005).

Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS), or motor neuron disease, results in progressive degeneration of motor neurons (Hardiman et al., 2017). ALS and FTD represent two extremes of a phenotypic spectrum, and share common pathogenic mechanisms (Ferrari et al., 2011). Thus, C9orf72 mutation causes ALS as well as FTD (DeJesus-Hernandez et al., 2011; Renton et al., 2011). Other endocytic proteins are mutated in ALS, including the RAB5 GEF Alsin (also known as ALS2) and the inositol phosphatase factor-induced gene 4 (FIG4) (Chow et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2001). Dysregulation of endocytic transport, in turn affecting lysosome function and autophagy, is therefore associated with ALS. Of note, mutation of several ALS-associated proteins, including superoxide dismutase 1 (SOD1), RNA-binding protein fused in sarcoma (FUS) and TAR DNA-binding protein 43 (TDP43; also known as TARDBP), have been reported to disrupt the secretory pathway, suggesting additional mechanisms linking defective traffic to ALS (Soo et al., 2015).

Similarly, mutation of endocytic factors is associated with hereditary spastic paraparesis (HSP), a genetically diverse disorder that manifests as progressive loss of lower limb movement control (Blackstone et al., 2011). Notable HSP-involved proteins are spastin (SPG4; also known as SPAST), which couples membrane remodelling with microtubule dynamics, including during endocytic traffic (Hazan et al., 1999), spartin (SPG20; also known as SPART), an endosomal protein that also associates with microtubules (Patel et al., 2002), and strumpellin (SPG8; also known as WASHC5), which is part of the WASH WASP and SCAR (WASH) homologue complex that operates in retromer-mediated endocytic recycling (Valdmanis et al., 2007). Interestingly, spastin also functions at the ER, and mutations in Atlastin (also known as ATL1), another ER membrane remodelling protein, also cause HSP (Zhao et al., 2001). It is currently unclear how changes in ER morphology lead to HSP. Another group of HSPs is caused by mutations within subunits of the AP4 and AP5 adaptor complexes that function in post-Golgi trafficking (Bauer et al., 2012; Hardies et al., 2015; Moreno-De-Luca et al., 2011; Slabicki et al., 2010; Verkerk et al., 2009), which likely affect endolysosomal function (Sanger et al., 2019). Interestingly, AP4 is important for trafficking of the autophagy-initiating factor ATG9A, suggesting a link between HSP and dysregulated autophagy (Mattera et al., 2017; Davies et al., 2018). HSP also results from mutations in ubiquitin-associated protein 1 (UBAP1) and VPS37A (Farazi Fard et al., 2019; Zivony-Elboum et al., 2012), components of ESCRT-I required for MVB sorting (Schmidt and Teis, 2012). Mutations in Trk-fused gene (TFG) and tectonin beta-propeller repeat-containing protein 2 (TECPR2), proteins that associate with COPII and help

mediate ER-to-Golgi transport, also cause HSP, indicating that defective trafficking in the early secretory pathway can also cause this type of disorder (Beetz et al., 2013; Stadel et al., 2015).

Charcot Marie-Tooth (CMT) disease is a genetically and clinically diverse group of peripheral neuropathies (Rossor et al., 2013). Most CMT forms result from altered expression or mutation of myelin components, but mutation of several endocytic proteins is also a cause. For example, recessive demyelinating forms of CMT (CMT4) result from mutation of the endocytic recycling protein SH3 domain and tetratricopeptide repeats 2 (SH3TC2) (Senderek et al., 2003), as well as the myotubularins and FIG4, which influence traffic by acting upon endosomal phosphoinositides (Azzedine et al., 2003; Bolino et al., 2000; Nakhro et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2008). Lipopolysaccharide-induced tumour necrosis factor alpha factor (LITAF), a protein involved in endocytic protein sorting, causes the autosomal dominant demyelinating CMT1 (also known as SIMPLE) (Street et al., 2003). Meanwhile, mutation of RAB7 causes a dominant axonal form of CMT (Verhoeven et al., 2003).

Mutations in the endocytic machinery are prevalent in other rare neurological disorders (Table 1). The consequent defects in endocytosis and endosomal recycling may alter presynaptic vesicle biogenesis or postsynaptic neurotransmitter receptor availability. Meanwhile, defects in the later stages of the endocytic pathway can affect lysosome homeostasis and autophagy, which, if impaired, result in cytotoxic stress. Defective traffic in the secretory pathway is also associated with several neurological diseases. Here, defective transport may alter axon and dendrite morphogenesis, affect the surface levels of neurotransmitter receptors, or induce cytotoxic ER stress due to cargo accumulation in this compartment.

Ocular disease

Eye pathology has been reported in several trafficking-related multi-systemic disorders, including the ciliopathies and the X-linked Lowe syndrome, which are described below. Choroideremia, which is an eye-specific disorder, manifests as degeneration of rod photoreceptors and retinal pigment epithelial cells (Moosajee et al., 2014). It is caused by mutations in RAB escort protein 1 (REP-1), a chaperone required for the prenylation of all RABs, grossly disrupting membrane traffic in the affected cells (Alory and Balch, 2001; Sankila et al., 1992; Seabra et al., 1993). The retinal tissue-restricted nature of choroideremia is likely because a second RAB escort protein, REP-2, compensates for the loss of REP-1 in other cell types, but is not expressed in the retina (Cremers et al., 1994).

Skin, bone and connective tissue disorders

The extracellular matrix, which surrounds cells in our skin, bone and connective tissues, is a major secreted product in the human body. Consequently, matrix-rich tissues appear particularly susceptible to mutations affecting the secretory pathway that disrupt matrix deposition. Mutations in SEC23A, a component of the COPII coat, cause the skeletal disorder crano-lento-sutural dysplasia (CLSD) (Boyadjiev et al., 2006). Although COPII is essential for secretion, CLSD is tissue restricted, because most cells also express the functionally analogous SEC23B, sustaining COPII functionality (Khoriaty et al., 2018). Mutations in Sedlin (also known as TRAPPc2), a component of the transport protein particle (TRAPP) complex operating between the ER and Golgi, a RAB GEF and possible vesicle-tethering factor (Barrowman et al., 2010), cause X-linked spondyloepiphyseal dysplasia tarda (SEDT) (Gedeon et al., 1999). Sedlin also regulates SAR1, and both

CLSD and SEDT mutations give rise to defective procollagen export from the ER, causing matrix defects and skeletal dysplasia (Boyadjiev et al., 2011; Venditti et al., 2012). Null and hypomorphic mutations in the Golgi vesicle-tethering factor Golgi microtubule-associated protein of 210 kDa [GMAP-210; also known as thyroid hormone receptor interactor 11 (TRIP11)] are responsible for the lethal skeletal dysplasia achondrogenesis type 1A (ACG1A) and the milder odontochondrodysplasia (ODCD), respectively (Smits et al., 2010; Wehrle et al., 2019). In both cases, the major pathogenic mechanism is defective traffic and improper glycosylation of matrix proteins within the Golgi (Smits et al., 2010; Wehrle et al., 2019). GMAP-210 is also important for cargo traffic to the primary cilium (Follit et al., 2008), and the phenotype may therefore partly arise from defective ciliary signalling that is required to maintain chondrocyte differentiation (Wang et al., 2013). Similarly, mutations in the *trans*-Golgi protein RAB6-interacting golgin (GORAB), which functions in COPI-mediated traffic, cause the skin and bone disorder gerodermia osteodysplastica, likely as a consequence of disrupted matrix protein glycosylation (Hennies et al., 2008; Witkos et al., 2019). This not only affects matrix assembly, but is also important for controlling TGF β (also known as TGFB1) signalling to prevent cell senescence (Chan et al., 2018). Mutations in Golgi RAB33B cause Smith-McCort syndrome (Dupuis et al., 2013), an osteochondrodysplasia. This is likely due to defects in Golgi traffic and autophagosome formation, both RAB33B-dependent processes (Morgan et al., 2019).

Immunological disease

Membrane traffic is vital for innate and adaptive immunity; for example, in mediating phagocytosis of invading microorganisms, supporting the biosynthesis and signalling of the many receptors found on immune cells, and facilitating the secretion of antibodies, cytokines and other immunomodulatory factors. Consequently, several immunological diseases, including immunodeficiencies and autoimmune disorders, can be attributed to defective membrane trafficking. These include familial haemophagocytic lymphohistiocytosis, an immune disorder caused by mutations in protein unc-13 homologue D (MUNC-13-4; also known as UNC13D) (Feldmann et al., 2003), syntaxin 11 (zur Stadt et al., 2005) or syntaxin binding protein 2 (zur Stadt et al., 2009). These proteins control lytic granule release at the T-cell and natural killer (NK) cell immune synapse and platelet granule exocytosis. As a result, cells with these mutations have a compromised ability to mediate cell killing, leading to hyperactivation of the immune system (Gholam et al., 2011). Another interesting example is leukocyte tyrosine kinase receptor (LTK), an ER-associated tyrosine kinase that controls COPII assembly and ER-to-Golgi traffic (Centonze et al., 2019). Gain-of-function mutations in LTK are associated with the autoimmune disorder systemic lupus erythematosus, and it has been proposed that increased LTK activity, and therefore increased COPII-mediated ER export, allows plasma cells to cope better with the increased production and secretion of autoantibodies, thereby contributing to the autoimmune phenotype seen in lupus (Centonze et al., 2019; Li et al., 2004).

Intestinal disorders

Defective traffic within both the secretory and endocytic pathways can affect enterocyte function and cause intestinal disease. Enterocytes absorb fats from the intestine and package them into chylomicron particles, which form at the ER and are secreted into the bloodstream. Chylomicron retention disease is a rare disorder

caused by mutation in SAR1B (Jones et al., 2003), which impairs chylomicron particle export from the ER, reducing their secretion and the availability of fats and fat-soluble vitamins throughout the body (Roy et al., 1987). The disease is restricted to enterocytes, most likely because the parologue SAR1A fulfils SAR1 function in other cell types. Microvillus inclusion disease also affects enterocytes, with a loss of microvilli from the apical surface and impaired nutrient absorption (Davidson et al., 1978). It is caused by mutations in the actin motor myosin (MYO) 5B, which is required for endosomal recycling to the apical membrane (Muller et al., 2008), or in syntaxin 3, which is required for vesicle fusion at the apical membrane (Wiegerinck et al., 2014).

Liver disease

Membrane trafficking is important in hepatocytes, which secrete a multitude of proteins into the bloodstream. Mutation of SCYL1-like pseudokinase 1 (SCYL1) or neuroblastoma-amplified sequence (NBAS), which function in COPI vesicle traffic, can manifest in the liver, but typically also affect other tissues, and are discussed further in the ‘Multi-systemic disorders’ section below.

Cardiovascular disease and blood disorders

Cholesterol is transported in the blood as low-density lipoprotein (LDL) particles. These are internalised, particularly into hepatocytes, by receptor-mediated endocytosis. Defective LDL uptake causes hypercholesterolaemia, which can manifest as atherosclerosis and premature coronary heart disease (Brown and Goldstein, 1986). Mutations in the LDL receptor (LDLR) that abolish LDL binding have been reported, but of more relevance to this article are LDLR mutations that disrupt binding to disabled homologue 2 (DAB2) and autosomal recessive hypercholesterolaemia (ARH; also known as LDLRAP1), adaptor proteins that mediate LDLR uptake by clathrin-dependent endocytosis (Davis et al., 1986; He et al., 2002; Maurer and Cooper, 2006). Similarly, mutation of ARH itself can also cause hypercholesterolaemia (Garcia et al., 2001).

Defects within the secretory pathway can affect red blood cell production and the production of clotting factors. In the former, mutations within the COPII subunit SEC23B cause congenital dyserythropoietic anaemia type II (Bianchi et al., 2009; Schwarz et al., 2009), likely due to perturbation of ER-to-Golgi traffic in erythroblasts that impairs the delivery and glycosylation of proteins required for red blood cell formation (Denecke and Marquardt, 2009). The widespread expression of the parologue SEC23A likely accounts for the restricted phenotype of SEC23B mutation. The blood clotting disorder combined factor V and VIII deficiency results from mutations in multiple coagulation factor deficiency 2 (MCFD2) and lectin mannose binding 1 (LMAN1) (Nichols et al., 1998; Zhang et al., 2003a). MCFD2 and LMAN1 combine to form a cargo receptor for the ER-to-Golgi transport of blood clotting factors V and VIII and thus are essential for their secretion (Zhang et al., 2005).

Renal disorders

Renal dysfunction occurs in several multi-systemic trafficking disorders, most notably the ciliopathies. Mutations in the actin-associated proteins CD2AP and MYO1E cause focal segmental glomerulosclerosis, which progressively reduces the ability of the glomerulus to filter the blood, ending in renal failure (Kim et al., 2003; Mele et al., 2011). Both proteins participate in endocytosis, which is required to maintain podocyte foot processes and thus effective filtration, but whether defective traffic constitutes a disease mechanism is unclear (Inoue and Ishibe, 2015). The proteins may directly act upon actin within the foot processes (Inoue and Ishibe,

2015), while CD2AP is also a component of the slit diaphragm (Shih et al., 2001). Dent disease and cystinosis are proximal tubulopathies in which the ability of the proximal tubule to re-absorb proteins by endocytosis is disrupted (Ivanova et al., 2015; Piwon et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2000). However, in both diseases, the mutations are not in the trafficking machinery; Dent disease is caused by mutation in the endosomal chloride channel chloride channel protein 5 (CLC-5; also known as CLCN5) (Lloyd et al., 1996), and cystinosis by mutation of a lysosomal cystine transporter (Town et al., 1998).

Muscular disorders

Centronuclear myopathies (CNMs) are a group of muscle disorders that derive their name from centrally located muscle cell nuclei. Mutations in the membrane fission protein dynamin 2 or in BIN1, a BAR domain protein able to sculpt membrane shape, cause congenital CNM (Bitoun et al., 2005; Nicot et al., 2007). These two proteins, which physically interact, participate in endocytosis in most cells (Takei et al., 1999). However, in muscle, they are critical for the formation and maintenance of T-tubules, membrane invaginations that penetrate into muscle cells (Chin et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2002). Thus, disruption of T-tubule morphogenesis and function is a major disease mechanism in CNMs. Mutation of myotubularin 1 (MTM1), a member of the myotubularin family of endosomal inositol phosphatases, causes an X-linked CNM (Buj-Bello et al., 1999; Laporte et al., 2000). MTM1 binds to BIN1 (Royer et al., 2013), and, as seen in congenital CNMs, MTM1 mutation disrupts T-tubules, indicating a likely common disease mechanism (Al-Qusairi et al., 2009; Dowling et al., 2009). Mutation of dysferlin, a Ca^{2+} -binding protein with homology to the membrane fusion regulator synaptotagmin, causes muscular dystrophy (Bashir et al., 1998; Illa et al., 2001; Liu et al., 1998). The likely pathological mechanism is disruption of muscle cell integrity due to a defect in vesicle fusion and repair of the plasma membrane (Bansal et al., 2003; Lek et al., 2012). Mutations in two proteins required for ER-to-Golgi transport, the TRAPP complex subunit TRAPPC11, and the SNARE Golgi SNAP receptor complex member 2 (GOSR2), are also linked to muscular dystrophy (Bögershausen et al., 2013; Tsai et al., 2013). Hypoglycosylation of α -dystroglycan occurs in both cases (Larson et al., 2018). Because α -dystroglycan glycosylation is important for linking the muscle sarcolemma to the extracellular matrix (Barresi and Campbell, 2006), these glycosylation defects can explain the destabilisation of muscle fibres seen in patients.

Multi-systemic disorders

There are numerous multi-systemic disorders associated with mutations in the membrane trafficking machinery (Table 1). Several belong to larger disease classes such as congenital disorders of glycosylation (CDGs), ciliopathies and lysosomal storage disorders (LSDs). Many CDGs are caused by loss of Golgi glycosylation enzyme or ion or sugar transporter activity, but mutations within the COG vesicle-tethering complex account for several (Ng and Freeze, 2018). Here, impaired COPI-dependent recycling of glycosylation enzymes in the Golgi stack leads to their inefficient retention, affecting the glycosylation of proteins and lipids (Fisher and Ungar, 2016).

The ciliopathies are a large disease class associated with loss of cilia or defective ciliary signalling (Reiter and Leroux, 2017). The commonly affected tissues include the brain, retina and kidney. Several ciliopathies are associated with defective transport of proteins to or within the cilium, although the latter is not vesicle

mediated (Reiter and Leroux, 2017). Vesicle-mediated transport from the Golgi apparatus to the cilium is important for the generation and maintenance of cilia, with RAB8 and its effector, the exocyst vesicle-tethering complex, constituting the key machinery of this trafficking step (Hsiao et al., 2012). Indeed, mutations in two exocyst subunits, exocyst complex component 84 (EXO84; also known as EXOC8) and SEC8 (also known as EXOC4), have been found in the ciliopathies Joubert syndrome and Meckel–Gruber syndrome (Dixon-Salazar et al., 2012; Shaheen et al., 2013a,b). Intraflagellar transport protein 20 (IFT20) is an important player in Golgi-to-cilium transport of certain membrane proteins (Follit et al., 2008; Monis et al., 2017), and mutation of VPS15, which also causes a ciliopathy, impairs this transport pathway (Stoetzel et al., 2016). Interestingly, IFT20 is anchored to the Golgi by GMAP-210 (Follit et al., 2008), suggesting that the two skeletal dysplasias caused by GMAP-210 mutation (ACG1A and ODCD, discussed above) may have a ciliary component (Smits et al., 2010; Wehrle et al., 2019).

LSDs are a third broad class of disease, defined by impaired lysosome-mediated degradation (Platt et al., 2018). Many LSDs result from the loss of hydrolase expression, but some involve defective hydrolase trafficking. For example, ceroid-lipofuscinosis, neuronal 8 (CLN8) is a cargo receptor for trafficking of newly synthesised hydrolases from the ER to the Golgi (di Ronza et al., 2018), and mutations in CLN8 cause the LSD Batten disease (Ranta et al., 1999). Mutation of VPS33A, a common component of the class C core vacuole/endosome tethering (CORVET) and homotypic fusion and protein sorting (HOPS) multi-subunit vesicle-tethering complexes that operate at the early and late endosome/lysosome, respectively, causes the LSD mucopolysaccharidosis (Kondo et al., 2017).

Lysosome-related organelles (LROs) are found in specific cell types and carry out specialised functions (Marks et al., 2013). Examples include melanosomes in skin melanocytes and retinal pigment epithelial cells, which are important for pigmentation, lytic granules of NK and T-cells that mediate target cell killing, and Weibel–Palade bodies in endothelial cells that contribute to blood clotting. Chediak–Higashi, Griscelli and Hermansky–Pudlak syndromes are all associated with defective LRO biogenesis, and in many cases are due to defects in the relevant LRO trafficking machinery (Huizing et al., 2008). For example, Griscelli syndrome, characterised by hypopigmentation and immunodeficiency, can be caused by mutations in RAB27A, its effector melanophilin, or the actin motor MYO5A, which together facilitate melanosome movement to the cell periphery for delivery of pigment to neighbouring keratinocytes (Ménasché et al., 2003; Ménasché et al., 2000; Pastural et al., 1997). Hermansky–Pudlak syndrome, which presents as hypopigmentation, bleeding and additional symptoms depending on the subtype, is caused by mutations in subunits of the biogenesis of lysosome-related organelle complex (BLOC)-1 (Li et al., 2003; Morgan et al., 2006), BLOC-2 (Anikster et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2003b), BLOC-3 (Oh et al., 1996; Suzuki et al., 2002) or AP3 (Ammann et al., 2016; Dell’Angelica et al., 1999) complexes that are involved in transport of cargo proteins from endosomes to LROs. Chediak–Higashi syndrome, which manifests as albinism, excessive bleeding and immunodeficiency, is caused by mutations in lysosomal trafficking regulator (LYST) (Karim et al., 2002), which appears to function in endolysosomal trafficking (Gil-Krzeszka et al., 2016).

Lysosome dysfunction has also been reported in the rare X-linked disorder Lowe syndrome, which affects the brain, eyes and kidneys, and is caused by mutation of the inositol phosphatase oculocerebrorenal Lowe syndrome protein (OCRL) (Attree et al.,

1992). The aetiology of Lowe is complex, since build-up of the OCRL substrate PtdIns(4,5)P₂ disrupts not only lysosomal function, which results in an additional autophagy defect, but also affects endocytosis, endocytic recycling and trafficking to the cilium (De Matteis et al., 2017). Hence, disruption of several trafficking steps is likely to cause the Lowe syndrome phenotypes seen in patients. Interestingly, mutations in OCRL also cause Dent-2 disease, for which the symptoms are largely restricted to the kidney (Hoopes et al., 2005). The reasons for this dual pathophenotype remain unclear.

Defective COPI-dependent recycling from the Golgi apparatus to the ER is associated with two multi-systemic genetic disorders, both affecting the liver. Mutation of the COPI accessory protein SCYL1 causes low γ -glutamyl-transferase cholestasis, acute liver failure, and neurodegeneration (CALFAN) syndrome, manifesting as hepatocyte death and liver failure, as well as ataxia resulting from cerebellar neurodegeneration (Lenz et al., 2018; Schmidt et al., 2015). Mutation of NBAS, a component of the NBAS/RINT1/ZW10 (NRZ) ER-localised COPI vesicle-tethering complex results in a nearly identical liver phenotype, and also causes bone, connective tissue, retina and immune system defects (Balasubramanian et al., 2017; Haack et al., 2015; Maksimova et al., 2010; Segarra et al., 2015). These findings suggest a high requirement for the secretory pathway in the affected cell types, including hepatocytes, consistent with them secreting large amounts of material into the bloodstream.

Cancer

Membrane trafficking is intimately linked with cancer, with trafficking in both the secretory and endocytic pathways playing an important role in many types of cancer. Endocytic trafficking is responsible for the abundance and signalling capacity of mitogenic receptors, adhesion molecules and immune modulators that determine the ability of the immune system to detect cancer cells (Mellman and Yarden, 2013). Hence, changes in the expression levels or degree of phosphorylation of endocytic trafficking machinery can correlate with cancer susceptibility or prognosis. In addition, cancer-causing mutations within the components of the endocytic machinery have been described. A recent example is RAB35, which mediates various endocytic trafficking steps (Klinkert and Echard, 2016). Oncogenic mutations in RAB35, although extremely rare, have been shown to cause its constitutive activation and promiscuous growth factor signalling from endosomal compartments (Wheeler et al., 2015). Altered expression and splicing of tumour susceptibility gene 101 (TSG101), has been found in cancer (Jiang et al., 2013), whereby impaired growth factor receptor downregulation at the endosome may contribute to tumourigenesis (Lu et al., 2003). Interestingly, toxic gain-of-function mutation of p53 can also promote the recycling of integrins and growth factor receptors, which is responsible for increased cell migration and metastatic potential of tumour cells (Muller et al., 2009).

The secretory pathway can influence cancer susceptibility and disease progression in a number of ways (Dejeans et al., 2014). We know that cell surface glycans, which are generated within the secretory pathway, are important for processes contributing to cancer development and metastasis, including signalling, adhesion and migration (Pinho and Reis, 2015). A particularly interesting example of an oncogenic trafficking protein is Golgi phosphoprotein 3 (GOLPH3), which is highly expressed in several cancers (Scott et al., 2009). GOLPH3 appears to participate in intra-Golgi transport, which is required for Golgi enzyme retention and correct protein

Box 2. Therapeutic approaches to rescue traffic-dependent phenotypes

We lack effective therapies to treat most of the diseases associated with defective membrane trafficking. In principle, diseases caused by genetic mutation could be treated with gene therapy, but using this approach to successfully treat human disease remains in its infancy (Dunbar et al., 2018). A promising example is gene therapy for retinal dystrophy choroideremia, which is caused by loss of the RAB escort protein REP-1 (Sankila et al., 1992; Seabra et al., 1993). Here, *CHM*, the gene that encodes REP-1, is administered to the eye via a viral delivery vector. The therapy is currently undergoing phase 3 clinical trials following promising results in earlier stages of clinical testing (Xue et al., 2018). Many trafficking regulators, which are enzymes, are potentially amenable to treatment with small-molecule drugs. This approach remains to be explored more fully, but there is significant interest in targeting the protein kinase LRRK2 for treatment of Parkinson's disease (Zhao and Dzamko, 2019). Pathogenic LRRK2 mutations lead to overactive kinase activity and so chemically inhibiting this activity could protect against Parkinson's disease. As such, clinical trials are underway to test the safety and efficacy of LRRK2 inhibitors in human patients.

glycosylation (Ali et al., 2012; Chang et al., 2013; Isaji et al., 2014; Pereira et al., 2014), as well as export of cargo from the *trans*-Golgi (Rahajeng et al., 2019). GOLPH3 overexpression stimulates a number of mitogenic signalling pathways, which may be a consequence of altering the cell surface glycan profile and thus the signalling capacity of surface receptors (Rizzo et al., 2017). In addition, GOLPH3 has been implicated in a DNA stress response pathway, linking DNA damage to the Golgi apparatus (Farber-Katz et al., 2014). In this context, GOLPH3 overexpression can promote cell survival upon DNA damage, which may be relevant to the cancer phenotype. Another interesting example is mutation of the ER-to-Golgi trafficking protein LMAN1 in colorectal cancers, which causes reduced secretion of the LMAN1 client protein α -1-antitrypsin (A1AT; also known as SERPINA1), an angiogenesis inhibitor, thereby contributing to tumour blood supply and growth (Roeckel et al., 2009).

Diabetes

Exocytosis of insulin from pancreatic beta cells, and the endocytic and secretory trafficking of insulin receptors and glucose transporters in target cells, may all directly affect diabetes susceptibility or progression. For example, the inositol phosphatase suppressor of actin 2 (SAC2; also known as INPP5F) functions in insulin granule exocytosis from pancreatic beta cells, and its levels are reduced in type II diabetic patients, suggesting that SAC2 insufficiency might contribute to impaired insulin release in these patients (Nguyen et al., 2019). Another protein of interest is clathrin heavy chain 22 (CHC22), which is involved in the trafficking of glucose transporter type 4 (GLUT4; also known as SLC2A4) in muscle and fat cells, where it mediates glucose uptake in response to insulin signalling (Vassilopoulos et al., 2009). Two CHC22 variants exist in the human population, which differ in their ability to traffic GLUT4 and thus remove glucose from the bloodstream (Fumagalli et al., 2019). The 'new' variant, which appeared later in evolution, increases cell surface levels of GLUT4 and glucose removal from the bloodstream, whereas the 'older' variant has a lower capacity to traffic GLUT4 to the cell surface and therefore to clear blood glucose. However, it remains to be seen whether people carrying the 'older' variant have a greater diabetes risk.

Summary and conclusions

Membrane trafficking is a ubiquitous process and fundamentally important to all tissues. However, defects in components of the trafficking machinery often manifest as a tissue-specific phenotype. The nature of the observed defect depends upon the tissue expression of the trafficking component in question and its degree of functional redundancy, the rate-limiting trafficking steps within different cell types, and the abundance and types of cargo proteins expressed in different cells. The nature of the mutation itself is also important, as it can result in either a complete loss of expression or function of the trafficking component, a partial loss of expression or function, or, in some cases, a toxic overexpression or gain of function. This is expected to cause corresponding changes in the associated trafficking pathway(s), resulting in the observed phenotype. With regard to the tissue-specific nature of the diseases, it is interesting that the nervous system is particularly sensitive to disruption of the endolysosomal system, possibly due to the importance of endocytic traffic to maintain neurotransmission as well as the sensitivity of neurons to disrupted lysosome function and autophagy. Skin, bone and connective tissues are more sensitive to defective secretory traffic, reflecting the high secretory load in these tissues. Despite these generalisations, it is often hard to predict the phenotype one might expect upon mutation of a particular trafficking component, and understanding the disease mechanisms underlying most trafficking-related disorders is not trivial.

Defective traffic can manifest in a particular phenotype for several reasons. In some cases, it may be the failure to deliver a cargo protein to the correct destination compartment, causing dysfunction of that organelle, or the impaired ability of cells to secrete or internalise cargo effectively, resulting in systemic effects. In other cases, the inability to traffic proteins from their donor compartments may be problematic, as in the case of ER stress induction when proteins fail to exit this compartment. Similarly, the inability to degrade substrates by autophagy is cytotoxic. It is also worth noting that although impaired traffic can cause disease, in some contexts, trafficking might be required to sustain a disease phenotype. This appears to be true in cancer, where endocytic traffic is required to sustain proliferative signalling and cell migration, important for tumour growth and metastasis. Thus, in terms of developing therapeutics for trafficking disorders, a range of strategies is possible (Box 2). Gene therapy is one possible route, but drugs can potentially rescue defective organelle function. Therapeutic strategies could alleviate the cell stress that occurs downstream from organelle dysfunction, restore the disrupted trafficking step, or, in some cases, inhibit a transport step that is driving the disease phenotype. As we identify more rare diseases attributable to defects in membrane traffic, and better understand the mechanisms that underlie these and other more common disorders, we will undoubtedly be able to deliver better treatments and long-term therapies in the future.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing or financial interests.

Funding

R.Y. is supported by a Wellcome Trust PhD studentship (203995/Z/16/Z) and J.H. by a joint University of Manchester and Agency for Science, Technology and Research (Singapore A*STAR) PhD studentship. Research in the P.G.W. laboratory is supported by grants from the Wellcome Trust (212246/Z/18/Z), the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (BBSRC) (BB/R015864/1) and the Leverhulme Trust (RPG-2018-091). Research in the M.L. laboratory is supported by grants from the BBSRC (BB/S014799/1, BB/T000945/1), the Lowe Syndrome Trust (ML/MU/LST NOV/18) and the Leverhulme Trust (RPG-2019-134).

At a glance

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