1

Main Manuscript for

The androgen receptor in mesenchymal progenitors regulates skeletal muscle mass via *Igf1*

expression in male mice.

Hiroshi Sakai[1,2,*], Hideaki Uno[2], Harumi Yamakawa[2], Kaori Tanaka[3], Aoi Ikedo[1], Akiyoshi

Uezumi[4], Yasuyuki Ohkawa[3], Yuuki Imai[1,2,*]

[1]Division of Integrative Pathophysiology, Proteo-Science Center, Ehime University, Toon,

Ehime 791-0295, Japan.

[2]Department of Pathophysiology, Ehime University Graduate School of Medicine, Toon, Ehime

791-0295, Japan.

[3]Division of Transcriptomics, Medical Institute of Bioregulation, Kyushu University, Higashi-

ku, Fukuoka 812-0054, Japan.

[4]Divison of Cell Heterogeneity, Medical Institute of Bioregulation, Kyushu University, Higashi-

ku, Fukuoka 812-0054, Japan.

[*]Hiroshi Sakai, Yuuki Imai

Hiroshi Sakai, DVM, PhD, and Yuuki Imai, MD, PhD, Proteo-Science Center, Graduate School

of Medicine, Ehime University, Shitsukawa, Toon, Ehime, 791-0295, Japan.

+81-89-960-5925

Email: sakai.hiroshi.wh@ehime-u.ac.jp (H.S.), y-imai@m.ehime-u.ac.jp (Y.I.)

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, H.S. and Y.I.; Methodology, H.S., H.U., K.T., A.I.,

A.U., Y.O., and Y.I.; Software, H.S., H.U., and K.T.; Investigation, H.S., H.U., H.Y., K.T., and

A.I.; Writing – Original Draft, H.S. and Y.I.; Writing – Review & Editing, H.S. and Y.I.;

Funding Acquisition, H.S. and Y.I.; Resources, H.S., K.T., A.U., Y.O., and Y.I.; Supervision,

H.S. and Y.I.

Competing Interest Statement: The authors declare no competing interests.

Classification: Biological Sciences, Medical Sciences

Keywords: androgen receptor, skeletal muscle, mesenchymal progenitors, Igf1

This PDF file includes:

Main Text

Figures 1 to 4

Abstract

Androgens exert their effects primarily by binding to the androgen receptor (AR), a ligand-

dependent nuclear receptor. While androgens have anabolic effects on skeletal muscle, previous

studies reported that AR functions in myofibers to regulate skeletal muscle quality, rather than

skeletal muscle mass. Therefore, the anabolic effects of androgens are exerted via extra-myofiber

cells or tissues. In this context, the cellular and molecular mechanisms of AR in mesenchymal

progenitors, which play a crucial role in maintaining skeletal muscle homeostasis, remain largely

unknown. In this study, we demonstrated expression of AR in mesenchymal progenitors and

found that targeted AR ablation in mesenchymal progenitors reduced limb muscle mass in

mature adult, but not young or aged, male mice, although fatty infiltration of muscle was not

affected. The absence of AR in mesenchymal progenitors led to remarkable perineal muscle

hypotrophy, regardless of age, due to abnormal regulation of transcripts associated with

apoptosis and extracellular matrix organization. Additionally, we revealed that AR in

mesenchymal progenitors regulates the expression of insulin-like growth factor 1, which can

increase skeletal muscle mass in a paracrine manner. These findings indicate that the anabolic

effects of androgens regulate skeletal muscle mass via, at least in part, AR signaling in

mesenchymal progenitors.

Significance statement

Androgens are essential not only for the development of male sexual characteristics but also for a range of physiological functions, including the regulation of skeletal muscle growth and function. Understanding the functionality of the androgen receptor (AR) is essential for comprehending the mechanisms through which androgens exert their effects on skeletal muscles, as these effects are mediated through AR binding. Our study demonstrates that AR is expressed in mesenchymal progenitors, which play a vital role in muscle homeostasis, and regulates the expression of insulin-like growth factor 1 (Igf1)—a key player in skeletal muscle growth—to control muscle mass. Our study provides significant insights into potential therapeutic strategies for addressing muscle atrophy conditions like sarcopenia.

Main Text

Introduction

Androgens are crucial regulators of various biological processes, including the development and

maintenance of male characteristics. Notably, in a physiological context, the administration of

androgens or androgen analogs has been shown to exert anabolic effects on muscles, resulting in

increased muscle mass, strength, and body weight (1, 2). These physiological effects are

mediated by activation of the androgen receptor (AR), a member of the nuclear receptor

superfamily (3). However, despite that clinical administration of androgens in men can

successfully increase skeletal muscle mass (4), the precise cellular and molecular mechanisms

underlying the function of AR in muscle remain largely unexplored.

Skeletal muscle represents a complex tissue comprising multiple cell types, and the

effects of androgens are likely mediated by various cell populations expressing AR within

skeletal muscles. While male mice systemically lacking AR exhibit low skeletal muscle strength

and mass, similar to female levels (5), we previously showed that muscle hypertrophy can be

induced by androgen administration even in the absence of AR in muscle fibers, suggesting that

non-myofiber AR contributes to the regulation of muscle mass (6). Furthermore, another of our

studies demonstrated that deletion of AR in satellite cells, which are muscle stem cells

responsible for muscle regeneration, had a limited effect on their proliferation and differentiation

(7). Additionally, since limb muscle mass remains unaffected even in mice with AR ablation in

both myofibers and muscle stem cells (8), other cells expressing AR within the muscles may play

a role in regulating skeletal muscle mass.

Mesenchymal progenitors (9), also known as fibro/adipogenic progenitors (10), have

been identified as a cell population distinct from myogenic cells characterized by the expression

of platelet-derived growth factor receptor alpha (PDGFRα). These cells are involved in the

maintenance and regeneration of skeletal muscle (11, 12). Conversely, mesenchymal progenitors

have been implicated in pathological fibrosis and fat accumulation in skeletal muscle (13). AR

expression has been reported in cells located in the interstitium or outside the basal lamina in

both mouse and human skeletal muscles (14, 15). Additionally, ablation of AR specifically in

embryonic cells of the mesenchyme led to impaired development of the perineal levator ani (LA)

and bulbocavernosus (BC) muscles (16), which are particularly responsive to androgen.

Furthermore, the reduced proliferation of undifferentiated myoblasts in these mutant mice

suggested a potential paracrine regulatory role of mesenchymal AR in controlling skeletal

muscles (16). Despite this knowledge, the specific role of AR in adult mesenchymal progenitors

in skeletal muscles remains unexplored.

Here we investigate the role of AR expressed in mesenchymal progenitors in muscle

maintenance using mice with mesenchymal progenitor-specific AR ablation. We show that AR

in mesenchymal progenitors plays a critical role in maintaining skeletal muscle mass via

regulation of insulin-like growth factor 1 (Igf1) expression in male mice.

Results

AR ablation in mesenchymal progenitors was validated in *PDGFRα-CreER;AR$^{L2/Y}$* mice

AR expression in fibroblasts of the perineal LA muscles and in mesenchymal cells of the fetal

LA muscles has been reported (14, 16, 17); however, it is unknown whether mesenchymal

progenitors in adult limb muscle express AR. To examine the expression pattern of AR in

mesenchymal progenitors, immunofluorescence staining of PDGFRα, a marker of mesenchymal

progenitors (9), and AR was performed in adult (12 weeks old) male mice. We found that AR

was expressed in mesenchymal progenitors staining positive for PDGFRα (Fig. 1A), as well as in

muscle fibers surrounded by laminin-expressing basal lamina, consistent with previous findings

(17, 18).

To investigate the role of AR in mesenchymal progenitors, *PDGFRα-CreER* (19) and

AR$^{L2/Y}$ (20) mice were crossed to selectively delete the AR gene in mesenchymal progenitors

expressing PDGFRα. Tamoxifen (TMX) was administered to Cre control male mice (*PDGFRα-*

CreER) and mutant male mice (*PDGFRα-CreER;AR$^{L2/Y}$*) for 5 consecutive days to induce AR

ablation (Fig. 1B). To assess the efficiency of AR ablation, immunofluorescence staining of

PDGFRα and AR was performed in control and mutant mice. Quantification of PDGFRα and

AR expression in forelimb biceps brachii (BB) and hindlimb tibialis anterior (TA) muscles

demonstrated a significant decrease of 90% in AR protein in mutant mice compared with control

mice, confirming successful ablation of AR expression in mesenchymal progenitors from

PDGFRα-CreER;AR$^{L2/Y}$ mice (Fig. 1C). In contrast, loss of AR in mesenchymal progenitors did

not affect the number of PDGFRα+ cells (Fig. S1A). Taken together, these findings demonstrate

successful and specific loss of AR expression in PDGFRα+ cells, rendering them an optimal

model for investigating AR in mesenchymal progenitors in skeletal muscles.

Lack of AR in mesenchymal progenitors had a limited effect on steady-state limb skeletal

muscles

Because ablation of PDGFRα+ cells in intact muscles results in skeletal muscle atrophy (11, 12),

we first analyzed the muscles of control and mutant mice under steady-state conditions at a

young age (14 weeks old) (Fig. 1B). Body weight and limb skeletal muscle mass were not

affected in mutant compared with control mice at 2 weeks after TMX administration (Fig. S1B).

Moreover, the grip strength of mutant mice was comparable with that of control mice (Fig. S1C).

The minimum Ferret diameter, which is the robust parameter in order to measure myofiber size,

and number of myofibers in BB and TA muscles remained unchanged in mutant mice (Fig. S1D,

E). As relayed signaling between mesenchymal progenitors and muscle stem (satellite) cells is

critical for muscle hypertrophy (21), we also quantified the number of muscle stem cells.

Immunofluorescence staining of Pax7, a marker of muscle stem cells (22), revealed no difference

in the number of muscle stem cells between control and mutant BB and TA muscles (Fig. S1F).

We next investigated the fiber types of slow soleus muscles, which are affected by muscle fiber-

and muscle stem cell-specific AR ablation (8, 23). Analysis of soleus muscles fiber types by

immunofluorescence staining of type I (Myh7), type IIa (Myh2), and type IIx (without signals)

muscle fibers demonstrated no difference in the fiber-type parameters (minimum Ferret diameter

and frequency of each fiber-type) between control and mutant mice (Fig. S1G, H). Thus, AR

expression loss in mesenchymal progenitors has a limited effect on the steady-state limb muscles

of young mice.

The impact of AR deficiency in mesenchymal progenitors on adipogenesis in muscles was limited

We also examined the adipogenesis of mesenchymal progenitors in mutant mice because adipocytes originate from mesenchymal progenitors in skeletal muscles (9). To address this, both the control and mutant mice were subjected to an 8-week regimen of high fat diet (HFD) feeding (Fig. S2A). No significant differences were observed between the control mice and mutant mice in terms of total body weight, hindlimb muscle weights, epididymal white adipose tissue (eWAT) mass, and subcutaneous white adipose tissue (sWAT) mass (Fig. S2B), and grip strength (Fig. S2C). Immunofluorescence staining of perilipin, a marker of adipocytes (24), along with laminin, demonstrated no significant difference in the minimum Ferret diameter of myofibers or the area occupied by adipocytes between the control and mutant TA muscles (Fig. S2D, E).

To further investigate the impact of AR deficiency in muscle adipogenesis, we employed a muscle injury model by administering glycerol injections into the TA muscle of both control and mutant mice (Fig. S2F). No significant differences were observed between the control and mutant mice in terms of the body and TA muscle weights at 2 weeks after injection (Fig. S2G). Immunofluorescence staining of perilipin in conjunction with laminin (Fig. S2H) revealed no significant difference in the minimum Ferret diameter of myofibers or the area occupied by adipocytes between the control and mutant TA muscles (Fig. S2I). These findings suggest that the absence of AR in mesenchymal progenitors does not significantly affect the adipogenic properties of TA muscles.

AR deficiency in mesenchymal progenitors affected limb skeletal muscles in mature adult but not aged mice

To investigate the effect of the duration of AR ablation on mesenchymal progenitors, we analyzed mature adult (6 months old) mice and compared the Cre control group and mutant group (Fig. 2A). In the mature adult mutant mice, we observed decreases in body weight, TA, and gastrocnemius muscle weights (Fig. 2B), while there were no significant changes in the weights of eWAT and sWAT (Fig. 2B), which are affected by systemic AR ablation (25). However, grip strength (Fig. 2C) was comparable between the control and mutant mice.

Additionally, the weights of the entire body, hindlimb muscles, and white adipose tissues were compared between aged (28 months old) control and mutant mice (Fig S2J). The aged mutant mice did not exhibit any significant differences from the aged control mice (Fig. S2K and S2L). Therefore, our findings demonstrate that AR deficiency in mesenchymal progenitors affects skeletal muscle mass in mature adult mice only, not young or aged mice, primarily in the limbs.

Mesenchymal progenitor-specific AR ablation induced atrophy of LA/BC muscles

The perineal LA/BC skeletal muscle complex exhibits increased responsiveness to androgens compared with other striated muscles (26). Because this perineal muscle complex also has higher AR expression (14), we examined the impact of AR ablation on mesenchymal progenitors of LA/BC skeletal muscles. We confirmed efficient ablation of AR in PDGFRα+ cells in LA muscles as well as limb muscles (Fig. 2D, E). We also found that AR depletion in mesenchymal progenitors in LA muscles led to a decrease in the number of PDGFRα+ cells (Fig. 2F). At 14 weeks, 6 months, and 28 months of age, the LA/BC mass was consistently lower in the mutant

mice than control mice (Fig. 2G). Because AR ablation in myofibers using a promoter region

derived from the human α-skeletal actin (HSA) gene (*HSA-Cre;AR^{L2/Y}* mice) also leads to

reduced LA/BC mass (27), we generated *HSA-Cre;PDGFRα-CreER;AR^{L2/Y}* mice to examine

whether the weight reduction depended on AR in myofibers. Interestingly, the LA/BC weight

was lower in *HSA-Cre;AR^{L2/Y}* mice than in *PDGFRα-CreER;AR^{L2/Y}* mice (Fig. 2H). Moreover,

HSA-Cre;PDGFRα-CreER;AR^{L2/Y} mice had the lowest LA/BC mass compared with *HSA-*

Cre;AR^{L2/Y} and *PDGFRα-CreER;AR^{L2/Y}* mice (Fig. 2G). These findings suggest that AR

expression in both myofibers and mesenchymal progenitors independently regulates the mass of

perineal muscles. Examination of the cross-sectional area of LA muscles by laminin staining

(Fig. 2I) revealed a lower myofiber size and fewer myofibers in the mutant mice than control

mice (Fig. 2J). In summary, AR expression in mesenchymal progenitors independently regulates

the mass of perineal muscles, separate from its influence on myofibers.

AR regulated genes related to extracellular matrix organization in mesenchymal

progenitors

To determine the effects of AR on gene expression, we performed RNA-seq in PDGFRα+ cells

from the LA/BC muscles of both control and mutant mice (Fig. 3A). Using a previously

established gating strategy for isolating mesenchymal progenitors (CD45− CD31− Vcam1−

PDGFRα+) (12) (Fig. S3A), we isolated 300 PDGFRα+ cells from LA/BC muscles for RNA-

seq. We detected more than 100,000 genes in these cells, indicating sufficient read depth for

further analysis (Fig. S3B). The principal component analysis (PCA) plot showed separation

between the control and mutant samples (Fig. S3C). We identified 80 upregulated and 76

downregulated genes, including AR, in PDGFRα+ cells from the mutant mice (Fig. S3D). The

upregulated genes were enriched in the Gene Ontology (GO) terms including regulation of cell

death and cell motility (Fig. 3B). On the other hand, the downregulated genes were enriched in

the GO terms related to extracellular matrix (ECM) organization and regulation of proteolysis

(Fig. 3C).

To determine the AR target genes, we used CUT&RUN method for AR and trimethylated

lysine 4 from histone H3 (H3K4me3), which is enrich in active promoters, in mesenchymal

progenitors isolated from C57BL/6J male mice (Fig 3D), at 2 hours after treatment with

dihydrotestosterone (DHT), which was confirmed to induce AR expression in skeletal muscles

(Fig. S3E, S3F). We detected total 6542 peaks of AR in mesenchymal progenitors in skeletal

muscles. The AR peaks were primarily distributed in intron or intergenic regions (Fig. S3G),

similar to previous reports with AR ChIP-seq in muscle and non-muscle tissues (28, 29). We also

found the androgen response elements (ARE) in these peaks as the most enriched motif as well

as AR half-site (Fig. 3E, S3H). Moreover, AR CUT&RUN was validated by peaks found in the

Fkbp5 locus (Fig. S3I), where canonical AR binding sites are located for several tissues (28). By

profiling AR peaks with AR and H3K4me3 reads, we found that AR binding sites were present

mainly not in promoter region (Fig. 3F). Furthermore, AR binding events were enriched for

regulation of locomotion and ECM organization GO terms (Fig. 3G). These results indicate that

AR in mesenchymal progenitors directly regulate the transcriptions including ECM organization

genes.

AR in mesenchymal progenitors regulated *Igf1* expression

To further investigate the gene regulation by AR in mesenchymal progenitors, we combined the

RNA-seq and CUT&RUN analysis. We found 39 genes which were downregulated in AR-

deficient mesenchymal progenitors and have AR peaks annotated by a nearest transcription start

sites (TSS) analysis (Fig. 4A). Top enriched GO term of these genes was ECM organization (Fig.

4B), including Collagen family (*Col1a1*, *Col3a1*, *Col4a1*, *Col4a2*, *Col5a1*, *Col5a2*, and *Col6a2*,

Fig. S4A and S4B), and *Igf1* (Fig. 4C), which is critical for maintaining muscle mass (30). We

also found the bindings of AR with ARE and peaks of H3K4me3 in upstream of *Igf1* TSS (Fig.

4D). Moreover, AR peaks were found with ARE in *Ar* gene locus (Fig. S4C), indicating the

regulation of *Ar* by AR in mesenchymal progenitors as other cells (31). To further investigate the

effects of androgen and AR on *Igf1* expression, we isolated PDGFRα+ cells from C57BL/6J

male mice treated with DHT (Fig. 4E). *Igf1* expression was upregulated in PDGFRα+ cells after

DHT administration (Fig. 4F). We also found reduction of IGF1 protein in the mutant LA

muscles (Fig. 4G and 4H). Finally, to determine whether the reduction in muscle mass in the

mutant mice was due to decreased IGF1 protein, we injected recombinant IGF1 into the LA/BC

muscles of the mutant mice just before TMX administration (Fig. 4I). We found that the mass of

the LA/BC muscles in IGF1-treated mutant mice increased compared to saline-injected mutant

mice, reaching levels comparable to those of saline-injected control mice (Fig. 4J). This finding

indicates that IGF1 injection effectively prevents the weight loss of LA/BC muscles in mutant

mice. Taken together, AR in mesenchymal progenitors regulates *Igf1* expression controlling

skeletal muscle mass.

Discussion

In the present study, we demonstrated that male mice with specific AR ablation in mesenchymal progenitors showed lower skeletal muscle mass in the limbs only at the mature adult stage, but not at a younger stage (14 weeks old). Taken together with previous report demonstrating that mice with AR ablation specifically in fast-twitch fibers lack muscle mass reduction at 13 weeks old but exhibit this reduction at 12–13 months old (23), there may be an effect that requires time to develop. Additionally, we demonstrated that the number of Pax7+ muscle stem cells was similar between adult control and mutant mice. This is in contrast to the observed reduction in myoblast proliferation following deletion of AR in the mesenchyme of BC muscles during development (16), providing evidence that AR in mesenchymal progenitors plays distinct roles during development, adulthood, and aging in mice. We also showed that specific ablation of AR in mesenchymal progenitors does not affect the fiber types of slow-twitch muscles. Depletion of mesenchymal progenitors results in a slight increase in the proportion of slow fibers (type I) predominantly in fast-twitch TA muscles (12), suggesting that factors other than AR in mesenchymal progenitors influence muscle fiber types. Muscle strength was either unaffected or only slightly affected in myofiber-specific AR ablation mice (32), suggesting that non-myogenic cells expressing AR may play a role in mediating muscle strength. However, grip strengths for forelimbs were not affected in the mutant mice in all experimental groups conducted in present study. Because the conventional grip strength test is influenced by various factors, including inconsistent procedures and the motivation of the mice (33), more sensitive methods for assessing muscle function, such as measuring in situ maximum isometric torque, and active and passive force in skinned fibers (34), could detect subtle differences in muscle strength in the mutant mice.

PDGFRα+ cells are the origin of ectopic adipocytes in skeletal muscles (9, 10). However,

the specific molecular mechanisms underlying fatty infiltration of muscles remain largely

unexplored (35). In general, androgen and AR signaling seem to have inhibitory effects on

adipogenesis (36). Serum androgens are linked to reduced levels of fatty infiltration of skeletal

muscles (37). In contrast, deprivation of androgens leads to an increase in fatty infiltration of

skeletal muscle in men (38). Moreover, transgenic mice expressing AR induced by collagen type

I alpha 1, which is also expressed in mesenchymal progenitors (39), have reduced body weight

and fat mass (40). Additionally, HFD-induced fat mass deposition in skeletal muscles was

increased by a low androgen level caused by orchidectomy (41). However, our results indicate

that AR deficiency in mesenchymal progenitors does not affect adipogenesis in skeletal muscle

even after HFD feeding or glycerol injection. An indirect androgen pathway may also regulate

adipogenesis of mesenchymal progenitors in skeletal muscles. Indeed, recent research indicates

that androgens can modulate macrophage polarization, subsequently affecting adipocyte

differentiation (42). Further studies are needed to gain a comprehensive understanding of the

mechanisms by which androgens and AR signaling influence fatty infiltration of muscle.

We observed a modest reduction in the muscle weight of the mutant mice at the mature

adult age (24 weeks old), but this effect was not observed in aged mice (28 months old). Because

selective ablation of AR in myofibers does not lead to reduced muscle mass even in 40-week-old

mice (27), the role of AR in mesenchymal progenitors is more important than its role in

myofibers in the context of muscle maintenance, at least at the mature adult age. The timing of

AR ablation could impact skeletal muscle mass, given the variation in initiation times for AR

ablation (tamoxifen treatment at 12 weeks old for analysis at 14 and 24 weeks, and at 8 weeks

old for analysis at 28 months). Experiments involving AR ablation at different ages, such as

TMX treatment at young (12 weeks old), mature adult (24 weeks old) and aged (24 months old)

mice, would help to clarify whether these results are influenced by age or the duration of AR

ablation. A decrease in testosterone concentration, even in 1-year-old mice compared with young

12-week-old mice (43), may contribute to muscle mass loss, potentially masking any subtle

differences between the aged control and mutant mice. Due to the reduction in muscle mass

observed in 2-year-old mice with AR depletion specifically in fast-twitch fibers (23), AR

expression in muscle fibers may play a crucial role in regulating muscle metabolism and quality,

which help maintain muscle mass in aged mice.

The perineal skeletal muscles LA and BC are highly androgen sensitive. Muscle fiber-

specific AR knockout results in a more pronounced mass reduction in LA/BC muscles compared

with limb muscles (26, 27), which is consistent with our present study demonstrating a consistent

reduction in LA/BC muscles in mice with AR ablation in mesenchymal progenitors. We also

demonstrated that AR deficiency in mesenchymal progenitors resulted in reduced LA/BC

weight, although the extent of the reduction was milder compared with mice in which AR was

ablated in muscle fibers. Furthermore, the double Cre mice (*HSA-Cre;PDGFRα-CreER;AR$^{L2/Y}$*),

with ablation of AR in both myofibers and mesenchymal progenitors, exhibited a greater

reduction in LA/BC mass compared with single Cre mice (*HSA-Cre;AR$^{L2/Y}$* or *PDGFRα-*

CreER;AR$^{L2/Y}$). Overexpression of AR in skeletal muscle fibers using HSA promoter (44, 45)

does not rescue the atrophy of LA muscles of testicular feminization mutation (*Ar^{Tfm}*) male rat

(45), supporting a separate role of AR in mesenchymal progenitors for maintaing perineal muslce

mass. Taken together, AR expression in mesenchymal progenitors independently regulates the

mass of perineal muscles, separate from the influence of AR in myofibers. The distinct reactions

observed in perineal and limb muscles could be attributed to a greater abundance of myonuclei

expressing AR in perineal muscles compared with limb muscles (14). Nevertheless, our findings

revealed that the majority of PDGFRα+ cells exhibited AR expression in both limb and perineal

muscles, suggesting an additional mechanism by which AR in mesenchymal progenitors

regulates muscle mass and other mesenchymal progenitor functions.

We also found that several ECM genes, including members of the collagen family, were

downregulated in AR-deficient mesenchymal progenitors, with AR peaks identified by a nearest

TSS analysis. These ECM components are primarily produced by PDGFRα+ cells in both

healthy and fibrotic skeletal muscles (39). AR expression promotes fibrosis in the heart, kidney,

and ovary (46–48), indicating that androgen/AR signaling governs ECM remodeling. Moreover,

downregulation of AR in PDGFRα+ fibroblasts from squamous cell carcinomas induces the

activation of cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAF), which remodel the ECM within the tumor

microenvironment (49). This suggests a general role for AR in PDGFRα+ cells under both

physiological and pathological conditions. Given that muscle diseases involving ECM

remodeling, such as muscular dystrophy and sarcopenia, are often accompanied by muscle

atrophy (50), it is plausible that ECM reduction due to AR deficiency contributes to skeletal

muscle atrophy. Further studies are needed to elucidate the relationship between AR, ECM, and

skeletal muscle plasticity.

The signaling pathway involving IGF1 plays a crucial role in both the developmental

growth and steady-state maintenance of skeletal muscle mass (51, 52). IGF1 is produced

primarily in the liver (53) but local production, including in skeletal muscles, is induced by

androgen treatment. The administration of testosterone to older men led to an increase in IGF1

protein expression in the limb (vastus lateralis) muscles (54). *Igf1* expression is decreased in the

LA/BC muscles of mice with skeletal muscle-specific AR ablation (27). Dubois et al. has

reported indirect androgen regulation of IGF1 via non myocytic AR because Myod-Cre-driven

AR-deficient mice showed no reduction in the *Igf1* transcript level, and *Igf1* expression was

decreased after castration in skeletal muscles (17). We demonstrated that AR in mesenchymal

progenitors in skeletal muscles regulated *Igf1* expression, governing muscle mass. Moreover,

activation of Akt signaling via the expression of Bmp3b in mesenchymal progenitors (12)

suggests a connection with Igf1, highlighting the complex interplay of signaling pathways in the

maintenance of skeletal muscle mass.

A limitation of our study in that we focused on male mice for studying AR in

mesenchymal progenitors of skeletal muscles. Because serum levels of androgens, including

testosterone and DHT, are also measurable in female mice (43), androgen/AR signaling could

potentially affect female skeletal muscles as well. Furthermore, *AR* was not differentially

expressed between males and females of human skeletal muscles (55), indicating potential roles

of AR in female skeletal muscles. On the other hand, genomic AR knockout mice show impaired

skeletal muscle development and function in males, but not females (5). Although muscle fiber-

specific AR knockout in female mice limitedly impacted on the expression of transcripts (6) and

muscle mass (23), more comparative work between male and female mice will be necessary to

determine whether AR plays important roles in female mesenchymal progenitors, as the function

of AR in these cells may differ from its role in female skeletal muscle fibers.

In summary, our results show that AR in mesenchymal progenitors regulates skeletal

muscle mass via *Igf1* expression (Fig. 4K). Further investigations into the limb muscles of aged

mice and humans are required to confirm whether combined treatment with androgens and IGF1

could be effective in treating muscle atrophy conditions such as sarcopenia.

Materials and Methods

Animals

PDGFRα-CreER mice (19), *HSA-Cre* mice (56), and C57BL/6J male mice were purchased from

Jackson Laboratories (Strain #: 018280, 006149, and 000664, respectively). $AR^{L2/Y}$ mice have

been described (20). *PDGFRα-CreER* male mice were crossed with $AR^{L2/+}$ female mice to

generate $PDGFRα\text{-}CreER;AR^{L2/Y}$ male mutant mice. Male littermates with the *PDGFRα-*

$CreER;AR^{+/Y}$ genotype were used as control mice. To generate $HSA\text{-}Cre;PDGFRα\text{-}CreER;AR^{L2/Y}$

male mice, *HSA-Cre* male mice were crossed with $PDGFRα\text{-}CreER;AR^{L2/+}$ female mice. All

mice were housed in a specific pathogen-free facility under climate-controlled conditions and a

12-hour light/dark cycle and were provided water and a standard diet *ad libitum*. In both control

and mutant mice, 100 µL of 20 mg/mL tamoxifen (TMX, Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# T5648),

dissolved in corn oil (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# C8267), was injected intraperitoneally for 5

consecutive days at 8 or 12 weeks of age. A high-fat diet (HFD, CLEA Japan, Cat# HFD32) was

given *ad libitum* for 8 weeks to induce obesity in mice. The diet was refreshed every 2 days. To

induce fatty infiltration of skeletal muscle, 100 µL of 50% v/v glycerol was injected into tibialis

anterior (TA) muscles under anesthesia using isoflurane (57). To induce AR signaling, vehicle

(Veh) or dihydrotestosterone (DHT or stanolone, 2.5 mg/mouse; Tokyo Chemical Industry, Cat#

A0462), dissolved in absolute ethanol and diluted in 0.3% w/v hydroxypropyl cellulose (Wako,

Cat# 085-07932) in PBS, was injected subcutaneously into C57BL/6J male mice at 2 hours

before sampling. In $PDGFRα\text{-}CreER;AR^{L2/Y}$ male mutant mice, 10 µg/50 µL of recombinant

IGF1 (PeproTech, Cat# AF-100-11) dissolved in saline (Otsuka, Cat# 3311401A2026) or 50 µL

of saline was injected directly into LA/BC muscles for 4 consecutive days at 12 weeks of age.

The same amount of saline was injected into LA/BC muscles of male littermates with the

PDGFRα-CreER;AR$^{+/Y}$ genotype for the control. TMX (100 μL of 20 mg/mL) was injected

intraperitoneally, just after injection of IGF1 or saline, for 4 consecutive days. All animal

experiments were approved by the Animal Experiment Committee of Ehime University

(Approval No. 37A1-1·16) and were conducted in full compliance with the Guidelines for

Animal Experiments at Ehime University.

Grip strength

The grip strength of the forelimb was measured using a strain gauge (Melquest, Cat# GPM-

100B). The maximal force was determined after 10 measurements. The mean value recorded by

two independent experimenters was reported as the grip strength of each mouse.

Immunofluorescence staining and microscopy

For immunofluorescence staining, muscles were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen-chilled

isopentane. Cryosections of 10 μm thickness were prepared for immunofluorescence staining.

Sections were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 5 min, blocked in 5% goat serum

(Gibco, Cat# 16210-064) in PBS for 60 min, and incubated with primary antibodies overnight at

4°C. For staining of myosin heavy chain (Myh), sections were air-dried and blocked with

M.O.M. reagent (Vector Laboratories, Cat# MKB-2213-1) at room temperature for 60 min.

Primary antibodies for Myh diluted in 1% BSA/PBS were incubated at 37°C for 45 min. The

antibodies used for immunofluorescence staining were anti-AR (Abcam, Cat# ab108341,

RRID:AB_10865716; 1/100), anti-PDGFRA (R&D Systems, Cat# AF1062,

RRID:AB_2236897; 1/80), anti-Laminin α2 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Cat# sc-59854,

RRID:AB_784266; 1/400), anti-Pax7 (DSHB, Cat# PAX7, RRID:AB_528428; 1/5), anti-

Laminin (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# L9393, RRID:AB_477163; 1/500), anti-Myh7 (DSHB, Cat# BA-

D5, RRID:AB_2235587, supernatant; 1/100), anti-Myh2 (DSHB, Cat# SC-71,

RRID:AB_2147165, supernatant; 1/100), anti-Perilipin (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# P1873,

RRID:AB_532267; 1/250), Alexa fluor 488 goat anti-rabbit IgG (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat#

A-11008; RRID:AB_143165; 1/1000), Alexa fluor 555 donkey anti-goat IgG (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, Cat# A-21432, RRID:AB_2535853; 1/1000), Alexa fluor 647 goat anti-rat IgG

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat# A-21247, RRID:AB_141778; 1/1000), Alexa fluor 568 goat

anti-mouse IgG1 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat# A-21124, RRID: AB_2535766; 1/1000), Alexa

fluor 488 goat anti-mouse IgG2b (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat# A-21141, RRID:AB_2535778;

1/1000), Alexa fluor 568 goat anti-rabbit IgG (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat# A-11011,

RRID:AB_143157; 1/1000), and Alexa fluor 647 goat anti-rabbit IgG (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Cat# A27040; RRID:AB_143165; 1/1000). Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Entire cross

sections of fluorescence images were photographed using BIOREVO (Keyence) or Axio

Observer7 (Zeiss).

Quantification of muscle sections

To quantify the number, cross-sectional area (CSA), and minimum Ferret diameter of the

myofibers, captured images of entire cross sections were analyzed using Fiji (v2.3.0)

(https://imagej.net/Fiji). The myofiber area was identified by the laminin+ signals. The region of

interest (ROI) was set within the laminin+ areas. The frequency of each muscle fiber type in the

ROI was recorded by Trainable Weka Segmentation in Fiji after manual training. Small (< 150

μm^2) or large (> 10,000 μm^2) fibers were excluded for analyzing. The number of AR+PDGFRα+

mesenchymal progenitors, Pax7+ satellite cells, and the perilipin+ area was manually counted or

measured using Fiji.

Isolation of mesenchymal progenitors from skeletal muscle

Isolation of mononuclear cells from muscle was performed as described previously (58) with

minor modifications. Briefly, muscles were chopped in PBS on ice and digested using 800 U/mL

collagenase type 2 (Worthington, Cat# LS004177) in F10 medium (Gibco, Cat# 11550-043)

supplemented with 10% horse serum (Gibco, Cat# 26050-088) and antibiotic–antimycotic

(Gibco, Cat# 15240-062) for 60 min. Another digestion was conducted using 1000 U/mL

collagenase type 2 and 11 U/mL dispase (Gibco, Cat# 17105-041) for 30 min. The supernatants

were transferred to a 40 µm cell strainer (Falcon, Cat# 352340) to filter the debris and then

centrifuged to yield a cell suspension. The following antibodies were used: FITC anti-CD31

(BioLegend, Cat# 102406; RRID:AB_312901; 1/100), FITC anti-CD45 (BioLegend, Cat#

103108, RRID:AB_312973; 1/100), PE anti-VCAM1 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat# 12-1061-

82, RRID:AB_2572573; 1/100), and APC anti-PDGFRα (R&D Systems, Cat# FAB1062A,

RRID:AB_3073817; 1/30). The BD FACSAria II (RRID:SCR_018091) or BD FACSAria

Fusion (BD Biosciences) was used for fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS), and the plot

was analyzed by FlowJo v10.1r7 (BD Life Sciences, RRID:SCR_008520).

RNA-seq and data analysis

For isolation of RNA from mesenchymal progenitors in LA/BC muscles, 300 PDGFRα+ cells

were sorted into the wells of a 96-well plate containing 10 µL lysis buffer at 4°C. The lysis

buffer was prepared by mixing 1 µL RNase inhibitor (Takara, Cat# 2313A) and 19 µL 10X lysis

buffer (Takara, Cat# 635013) diluted to 1X with nuclease-free water. 3' UTR RNA-seq was

conducted using the CEL-Seq2 protocol (59), with the exception of employing the Second Strand

Synthesis Module (New England Biolabs, Cat# E6111L) for double-stranded cDNA synthesis.

The library was then amplified via 10 cycles of PCR without any sample pooling. Subsequently,

the library was sequenced on the Illumina NovaSeq 6000, and quantitative analysis was

performed using 81 bp of insert reads (Read2).

Cell barcode and UMI information from Read1 were extracted using UMI-tools (v1.1.2)

(60) with the following command: "umi_tools extract -I read1.fastq --read2-in=read2.fastq --bc-

pattern=NNNNNNNNNNCCCCCCCCC". Adaptor and low-quality sequences were removed,

and reads with a length less than 20 bp were discarded using TrimGalore (v0.6.7;

http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim_galore/). The processed reads were then

mapped to the GRCm38 reference genome using HISAT2 (v2.2.1) (61). Read counts for each

gene were obtained using featureCounts (v2.0.1) (62), and UMI duplications were removed

using UMI-tools. Four cell barcodes, "ATGCAATGC," "GACACGACA," "CGATGCGAT,"

and "TCTGGTCTG," were assigned to each sample. Differentially expressed genes were

identified using DESeq2 (v1.36.0) (63) with thresholds of |log2FC| > 1 and padj < 0.1.

Metascape (64) was used for Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis.

CUT&RUN and data analysis

C57BL/6J male mice (10-12 weeks old) were treated with DHT at 2 hours before sampling for

FACS. For isolation of chromatin from mesenchymal progenitors in hindlimbs muscles, 500,000

PDGFRα+ cells were sorted to 20%FBS, DMEM/F12 (Gibco, Cat# 10565-018), Ultroser G

(Pall, Cat# 15950-017) supplemented with DHT (100 nM) to activate AR signaling during

sorting. After sorting, the nuclei were prepared with ChIC/CUT&RUN Assay Kit (Active Motif,

Cat# 53180) following the manufacturer's protocol. For AR (n = 4), H3K4me3 (n = 2), and IgG

control (n = 2) CUT&RUN, the following antibodies (1 µg/reaction) were used: anti-AR

(Abcam, Cat# ab108341, RRID:AB_10865716), anti-H3K4me3 (Active Motif, Cat# 39916,

RRID:AB_2687512), and rabbit negative control IgG (Active Motif, part of Cat# 53180). To

obtain enriched DNA after the CUT&RUN reaction, 20 µL of DNA purification elution buffer

was used instead of 55. The library was prepared using NEBNext Ultra II for DNA Library

Preparation for Illumina (New England Biolabs, Cat# E7645L) with some modifications

according to the Active Motif's instruction. All reactions were performed by half volume.

Constructed libraries were analyzed by 2100 Bioanalyzer using High Sensitivity DNA kit

(Agilent Technologies, Cat# 5067-4626), and quantified by qPCR using KAPA Library

Quantification Kits (Kapa Biosystems, Cat# KK4824). The library was sequenced on the

Illumina NovaSeq 6000 for 51 cycles of paired-end sequencing.

Paired-end reads were trimmed with TrimGalore and mapped to mm10 using Bowtie2

(v2.4.5) (65) with the following options: --no-mixed --no-discordant. Multi or no mate reads

were removed with samtools (v1.10) (66) view (-q 4 -F 0x2). To identify AR peaks across

samples, BAM files were merged across biological replicates (n = 2) to call peaks with MACS2

(v2.2.7.1) (-q 0.05) (67). H3K4me3 peaks were called on individual BAM files using MACS2 (-

q 0.0001). Merged BAM files for AR and IgG were used for downstream analysis (2 merged

BAM files for AR and 1 merged BAM file for IgG). Motif enrichment analysis of AR peaks was

performed with HOMER (v4.11) (68) findMotifs with -size 200 -mask options and AR peaks

were annotated to mm10 genes using annotatePeaks (-size 200 -mask) from MACS2 summit

files. Peaks distribution was annotated on mm10 (TxDb.Mmusculus.UCSC.mm10.knownGene,

R package version 3.4.7.) using ChIPpeakAnno package (v3.30.1) (69, 70) with MACS2

narrowPeak files. Promoter region was defined as 2000 bp upstream to 500 bp downstream of

transcription start sites (TSS). Common AR peaks-associated genes between replicates were

identified with Venn diagrams tools (http://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/webtools/Venn/). GO

enrichment analysis of common AR peaks-associated genes for GO Biological Process was

performed with Metascape. To generate bigwig files, merged (AR or IgG) or individual

(H3K4me3) BAM files were converted to CPM-normalized bigwig files using deepTools

(v3.5.1) (71) bamCoverage (--binSize 100 --normalizeUsing CPM). Peaks were visualized using

Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV, v2.12.3) (72) with bigwig files. A count matrix for

aggregation plot was generated by deepTools computeMatrix reference-point (--skipZeros) with

AR and H3K4me3 bigwig files. Heatmaps were generated with count matrix files using

deepTools plotHeatmap.

RNA isolation and quantitative real-time PCR

C57BL/6J male mice (12 weeks old) were treated with Veh or DHT at 2 hours before sampling

for FACS, as described above. Total RNA was extracted from freshly sorted 30,000 PDGFRα+

cells from LA/BC muscles using the RNeasy Plus Micro Kit (Qiagen, Cat# 74034) following the

manufacturer's protocol. Reverse transcription was performed using PrimeScript (Takara, Cat#

RR036A) to synthesize cDNA from total RNA. Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was conducted in

technical duplicate samples utilizing TB Green Premix Ex Taq II (Takara, Cat# RR820S) and the

Thermal Cycler Dice (Takara, Cat# TP850). The expression levels of the target genes were

normalized to that of *Rpl13a*. The primer sequences are listed in Table S1.

Western blotting

LA muscles were dissolved in RIPA buffer (Fujifilm, Cat# 182-02451) supplemented with

protease inhibitors (Nacalai Tesque, Cat# 25955-11). Tissue-extracts were separated by SDS-

PAGE and transferred to polyvinylidene fluoride membranes. The membranes were blocked with

5% skim milk in TBS with Tween-20 (PBST), followed by incubation with anti-IGF1 (R&D

Systems, Cat# AF791, RRID:AB_2248752; 1/2000) or anti-GAPDH antibodies (Cell Signaling

Technology, Cat# 5174, RRID: AB_10622025; 1/1000) overnight at 4°C. The membranes were

incubated with an anti-goat (Agilent, Cat# P0160, 1:5000) or anti-rabbit immunoglobulin/HRP

secondary antibody (Agilent, Cat# P0448, RRID: AB_2617138; 1:5000) for 60 min at room

temperature. Signals were detected using ECL Prime Western Blotting Detection Reagents

(Amersham, Cat# RPN2232) on the Image Quant LAS 4000 system (GE Healthcare). Band

images were quantified by Fiji.

Statistical analysis

Prism 9 (GraphPad Software) or R (v4.0.5) (https://www.r-project.org) was used for the

statistical analysis. Welch's t-test was used to compare two groups. The two-sample test for

equality of proportions was performed using the test of equal or given proportions. To compare

variables among three or more groups, Brown-Forsythe and Welch's ANOVA test with

Dunnett's T3 multiple comparison test was used.

Acknowledgments and funding sources

We are grateful to A. Nishio and Y. Sato for their technical support. We thank Y. Tanaka for the

flow cytometry support, N. Tokunaga for the library preparations, and other members of the

Division of Medical Research Support, the Advanced Research Support Center, Ehime

University. This study was partly performed in the Cooperative Research Project Program in the

Medical Institute of Bioregulation (MIB), Kyushu University. We also thank the Medical

Research Center for High Depth Omics, MIB, Kyushu University for the sequencing, and RIST

at Kyushu University for the high-performance computing. This work was supported in part by

MEXT/JSPS KAKENHI (JP21K17568 to H.S.; JP22H03203 to Y.I.) and the HIRAKU-Global

Program, which is funded by MEXT's "Strategic Professional Development Program for Young

Researchers" and Takeda Science Foundation (to H.S.).

Data Availability

RNA-seq and CUT&RUN data have been deposited and are publicly available in the Gene

Expression Omnibus as accession number GSE247378.

References

1. G. N. Papanicolaou, E. A. Falk, General Muscular Hypertrophy Induced by Androgenic
Hormone. *Science* **87**, 238–239 (1938).

2. S. Bhasin, *et al.*, The Effects of Supraphysiologic Doses of Testosterone on Muscle Size and
Strength in Normal Men. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **335**, 1–7 (1996).

3. D. B. Lubahn, *et al.*, Cloning of Human Androgen Receptor Complementary DNA and
Localization to the X Chromosome. *Science* **240**, 327–330 (1988).

4. A. M. Lincoff, *et al.*, Cardiovascular Safety of Testosterone-Replacement Therapy. *N. Engl. J.*
Med. **389**, 107–117 (2023).

5. H. E. MacLean, *et al.*, Impaired skeletal muscle development and function in male, but not
female, genomic androgen receptor knockout mice. *FASEB J.* **22**, 2676–2689 (2008).

6. I. Sakakibara, *et al.*, Myofiber androgen receptor increases muscle strength mediated by a
skeletal muscle splicing variant of Mylk4. *iScience* **24**, 102303 (2021).

7. H. Sakai, T. Sato, M. Kanagawa, S. Fukada, Y. Imai, Androgen receptor in satellite cells is not
essential for muscle regenerations. *Exp. Results* **1** (2020).

8. V. Dubois, *et al.*, A satellite cell-specific knockout of the androgen receptor reveals myostatin
as a direct androgen target in skeletal muscle. *FASEB J.* **28**, 2979–2994 (2014).

9. A. Uezumi, S. Fukada, N. Yamamoto, S. Takeda, K. Tsuchida, Mesenchymal progenitors
distinct from satellite cells contribute to ectopic fat cell formation in skeletal muscle. *Nat. Cell*
Biol. **12**, 143–152 (2010).

10. A. W. B. Joe, *et al.*, Muscle injury activates resident fibro/adipogenic progenitors that
facilitate myogenesis. *Nat. Cell Biol.* **12**, 153–163 (2010).

11. M. N. Wosczyna, *et al.*, Mesenchymal Stromal Cells Are Required for Regeneration and
Homeostatic Maintenance of Skeletal Muscle. *Cell Rep.* **27**, 2029-2035.e5 (2019).

12. A. Uezumi, *et al.*, Mesenchymal Bmp3b expression maintains skeletal muscle integrity and
decreases in age-related sarcopenia. *J. Clin. Investig.* **131** (2020).

13. A. Uezumi, *et al.*, Fibrosis and adipogenesis originate from a common mesenchymal
progenitor in skeletal muscle. *J. Cell Sci.* **124**, 3654–3664 (2011).

14. J. A. Johansen, S. M. Breedlove, C. L. Jordan, Androgen Receptor Expression in the Levator
Ani Muscle of Male Mice. *J. Neuroendocr.* **19**, 823–826 (2007).

15. I. Sinha-Hikim, W. E. Taylor, N. F. Gonzalez-Cadavid, W. Zheng, S. Bhasin, Androgen
Receptor in Human Skeletal Muscle and Cultured Muscle Satellite Cells: Up-Regulation by
Androgen Treatment. *J. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab.* **89**, 5245–5255 (2004).

16. L. A. Ipulan, *et al.*, Nonmyocytic Androgen Receptor Regulates the Sexually Dimorphic
Development of the Embryonic Bulbocavernosus Muscle. *Endocrinology* **155**, 2467–2479
(2014).

17. V. Dubois, *et al.*, Enobosarm (GTx-024) Modulates Adult Skeletal Muscle Mass
Independently of the Androgen Receptor in the Satellite Cell Lineage. *Endocrinology* **156**, 4522–
4533 (2015).

18. M. Kanou, *et al.*, Polyamine pathway is associated with muscle anabolic effects by androgen
receptor ligand. *JCSM Rapid Commun.* **4**, 57–74 (2021).

19. S. H. Kang, M. Fukaya, J. K. Yang, J. D. Rothstein, D. E. Bergles, NG2+ CNS Glial
Progenitors Remain Committed to the Oligodendrocyte Lineage in Postnatal Life and following
Neurodegeneration. *Neuron* **68**, 668–681 (2010).

20. T. Matsumoto, K. Takeyama, T. Sato, S. Kato, Androgen receptor functions from reverse
genetic models. *J. Steroid Biochem. Mol. Biol.* **85**, 95–99 (2003).

21. A. Kaneshige, *et al.*, Relayed signaling between mesenchymal progenitors and muscle stem
cells ensures adaptive stem cell response to increased mechanical load. *Cell Stem Cell* **29**, 265-
280.e6 (2022).

22. P. Seale, *et al.*, Pax7 Is Required for the Specification of Myogenic Satellite Cells. *Cell* **102**,
777–786 (2000).

23. T. Hosoi, *et al.*, Sarcopenia phenotype and impaired muscle function in male mice with fast-
twitch muscle-specific knockout of the androgen receptor. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **120**,
e2218032120 (2023).

24. A. S. Greenberg, *et al.*, Perilipin, a major hormonally regulated adipocyte-specific
phosphoprotein associated with the periphery of lipid storage droplets. *J. Biol. Chem.* **266**,
11341–11346 (1991).

25. W. Fan, *et al.*, Androgen Receptor Null Male Mice Develop Late-Onset Obesity Caused by
Decreased Energy Expenditure and Lipolytic Activity but Show Normal Insulin Sensitivity With
High Adiponectin Secretion. *Diabetes* **54**, 1000–1008 (2005).

26. J. Ophoff, *et al.*, Androgen Signaling in Myocytes Contributes to the Maintenance of Muscle
Mass and Fiber Type Regulation But Not to Muscle Strength or Fatigue. *Endocrinology* **150**,
3558–3566 (2009).

27. C. Chambon, *et al.*, Myocytic androgen receptor controls the strength but not the mass of
limb muscles. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **107**, 14327–14332 (2010).

28. P. Pihlajamaa, *et al.*, Tissue-specific pioneer factors associate with androgen receptor
cistromes and transcription programs. *EMBO J.* **33**, 312–326 (2014).

29. K. Ghaibour, *et al.*, Androgen receptor coordinates muscle metabolic and contractile
functions. *J. Cachexia, Sarcopenia Muscle* **14**, 1707–1720 (2023).

30. C. Rommel, *et al.*, Mediation of IGF-1-induced skeletal myotube hypertrophy by
PI(3)K/Akt/mTOR and PI(3)K/Akt/GSK3 pathways. *Nat. Cell Biol.* **3**, 1009–1013 (2001).

31. J. M. Grad, L. S. Lyons, D. M. Robins, K. L. Burnstein, The Androgen Receptor (AR)
Amino-Terminus Imposes Androgen-Specific Regulation of AR Gene Expression via an Exonic
Enhancer. *Endocrinology* **142**, 1107–1116 (2001).

32. F. Jardí, *et al.*, Androgen and estrogen actions on male physical activity: a story beyond
muscle. *J. Endocrinol.* **238**, R31–R52 (2018).

33. H. Takeshita, *et al.*, Modified forelimb grip strength test detects aging-associated
physiological decline in skeletal muscle function in male mice. *Sci. Rep.* **7**, 42323 (2017).

34. T. Yamada, Y. Ashida, D. Tatebayashi, K. Himori, Myofibrillar function differs markedly
between denervated and dexamethasone-treated rat skeletal muscles: Role of mechanical load.
PLoS ONE **14**, e0223551 (2019).

35. M. W. Hamrick, M. E. McGee-Lawrence, D. M. Frechette, Fatty Infiltration of Skeletal
Muscle: Mechanisms and Comparisons with Bone Marrow Adiposity. *Front. Endocrinol.* **7**, 69
(2016).

36. J. Rizk, R. Sahu, D. Duteil, An overview on androgen-mediated actions in skeletal muscle
and adipose tissue. *Steroids* **199**, 109306 (2023).

37. I. Miljkovic, *et al.*, Bioactive androgens and glucuronidated androgen metabolites are
associated with subcutaneous and ectopic skeletal muscle adiposity among older black men.
Metabolism **60**, 1178–1185 (2011).

38. D. Chang, *et al.*, Androgen deprivation muscle attenuation. *J. Méd. Imaging Radiat. Oncol.*
58, 223–228 (2014).

39. M. A. Chapman, K. Mukund, S. Subramaniam, D. Brenner, R. L. Lieber, Three distinct cell
populations express extracellular matrix proteins and increase in number during skeletal muscle
fibrosis. *Am. J. Physiol. Cell Physiol.* **312**, C131–C143 (2017).

40. A. A. Semirale, X. Zhang, K. M. Wiren, Body composition changes and inhibition of fat
development in vivo implicates androgen in regulation of stem cell lineage allocation. *J. Cell.*
Biochem. **112**, 1773–1786 (2011).

41. V. Dubois, *et al.*, Androgen Deficiency Exacerbates High-Fat Diet-Induced Metabolic
Alterations in Male Mice. *Endocrinology* **157**, 648–665 (2016).

42. X. Ren, *et al.*, Testosterone regulates 3T3-L1 pre-adipocyte differentiation and epididymal
fat accumulation in mice through modulating macrophage polarization. *Biochem. Pharmacol.*
140, 73–88 (2017).

43. M. E. Nilsson, *et al.*, Measurement of a Comprehensive Sex Steroid Profile in Rodent Serum
by High-Sensitive Gas Chromatography-Tandem Mass Spectrometry. *Endocrinology* **156**, 2492–
2502 (2015).

44. D. A. Monks, *et al.*, Overexpression of wild-type androgen receptor in muscle recapitulates
polyglutamine disease. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **104**, 18259–18264 (2007).

45. L. Niel, *et al.*, Sexual Differentiation of the Spinal Nucleus of the Bulbocavernosus Is Not
Mediated Solely by Androgen Receptors in Muscle Fibers. *Endocrinology* **150**, 3207–3213
(2009).

46. Y. Wang, *et al.*, Androgen receptor regulates cardiac fibrosis in mice with experimental
autoimmune myocarditis by increasing microRNA-125b expression. *Biochem. Biophys. Res.*
Commun. **506**, 130–136 (2018).

47. S. Allam, *et al.*, Androgen receptor blockade by flutamide down-regulates renal fibrosis,
inflammation, and apoptosis pathways in male rats. *Life Sci.* **323**, 121697 (2023).

48. D. Wang, *et al.*, Bromodomain-containing protein 4 activates androgen receptor transcription
and promotes ovarian fibrosis in PCOS. *Cell Rep.* **42**, 113090 (2023).

49. A. Clocchiatti, *et al.*, Androgen receptor functions as transcriptional repressor of cancer-
associated fibroblast activation. *J. Clin. Investig.* **128**, 5531–5548 (2018).

50. O. Contreras, F. M. V. Rossi, M. Theret, Origins, potency, and heterogeneity of skeletal
muscle fibro-adipogenic progenitors—time for new definitions. *Skelet. Muscle* **11**, 16 (2021).

51. B. T. O'Neill, *et al.*, Insulin and IGF-1 receptors regulate FoxO-mediated signaling in muscle
proteostasis. *J. Clin. Invest.* **126**, 3433–3446 (2016).

52. F. Ascenzi, *et al.*, Effects of IGF-1 isoforms on muscle growth and sarcopenia. *Aging Cell*
18, e12954 (2019).

53. R. D. Kineman, M. del Rio-Moreno, A. Sarmento-Cabral, 40 YEARS of IGF1:
Understanding the tissue-specific roles of IGF1/IGF1R in regulating metabolism using the
Cre/loxP system. *J. Mol. Endocrinol.* **61**, T187–T198 (2018).

54. A. A. Ferrando, *et al.*, Testosterone administration to older men improves muscle function:
molecular and physiological mechanisms. *Am. J. Physiol. Endocrinol. Metab.* **282**, E601–E607
(2002).

55. C. M. Lopes-Ramos, *et al.*, Sex Differences in Gene Expression and Regulatory Networks
across 29 Human Tissues. *Cell Rep.* **31**, 107795 (2020).

56. P. Miniou, *et al.*, Gene targeting restricted to mouse striated muscle lineage. *Nucleic Acids*
Res. **27**, e27–e30 (1999).

57. N. Arsic, *et al.*, Vascular endothelial growth factor stimulates skeletal muscle regeneration in
Vivo. *Mol. Ther.* **10**, 844–854 (2004).

58. L. Liu, T. H. Cheung, G. W. Charville, T. A. Rando, Isolation of skeletal muscle stem cells
by fluorescence-activated cell sorting. *Nat. Protoc.* **10**, 1612–1624 (2015).

59. T. Hashimshony, *et al.*, CEL-Seq2: sensitive highly-multiplexed single-cell RNA-Seq.
Genome Biol. **17**, 77 (2016).

60. T. Smith, A. Heger, I. Sudbery, UMI-tools: modeling sequencing errors in Unique Molecular
Identifiers to improve quantification accuracy. *Genome Res.* **27**, 491–499 (2017).

61. D. Kim, J. M. Paggi, C. Park, C. Bennett, S. L. Salzberg, Graph-based genome alignment and
genotyping with HISAT2 and HISAT-genotype. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **37**, 907–915 (2019).

62. Y. Liao, G. K. Smyth, W. Shi, featureCounts: an efficient general purpose program for
assigning sequence reads to genomic features. *Bioinformatics* **30**, 923–930 (2014).

63. M. I. Love, W. Huber, S. Anders, Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for
RNA-seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol.* **15**, 550 (2014).

64. Y. Zhou, *et al.*, Metascape provides a biologist-oriented resource for the analysis of systems-
level datasets. *Nat. Commun.* **10**, 1523 (2019).

65. B. Langmead, S. L. Salzberg, Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. *Nat. Methods* **9**,
357–359 (2012).

66. P. Danecek, *et al.*, Twelve years of SAMtools and BCFtools. *GigaScience* **10**, giab008
(2021).

67. Y. Zhang, *et al.*, Model-based analysis of ChIP-Seq (MACS). *Genome Biol.* **9**, R137 (2008).

68. S. Heinz, *et al.*, Simple Combinations of Lineage-Determining Transcription Factors Prime
cis-Regulatory Elements Required for Macrophage and B Cell Identities. *Mol. Cell* **38**, 576–589
(2010).

69. L. J. Zhu, *et al.*, ChIPpeakAnno: a Bioconductor package to annotate ChIP-seq and ChIP-
chip data. *BMC Bioinform.* **11**, 237 (2010).

70. L. J. Zhu, Tiling Arrays, Methods and Protocols. *Methods Mol. Biol.* **1067**, 105–124 (2013).

71. F. Ramírez, *et al.*, deepTools2: a next generation web server for deep-sequencing data
analysis. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **44**, W160–W165 (2016).

72. J. T. Robinson, *et al.*, Integrative genomics viewer. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **29**, 24–26 (2011).

 Figures

Figure 1. AR ablation in mesenchymal progenitors from *PDGFRα-CreER;AR^{L2/Y}* mice. (A)

Immunofluorescence staining of AR (left) and PDGFRα (middle) and of both together with

laminin and DAPI staining (right) in male TA muscles. Arrows: AR+ and PDGFRα+ cells;

arrowheads: AR+ nuclei surrounded by laminin. Scale bar, 50 µm. (B) Experimental design for

tamoxifen (TMX) treatment followed by sample harvest. (C) Quantification of AR+ cells among

PDGFRα+ cells in the biceps brachii (BB, left) and tibialis anterior (TA, right) muscles of

control and mutant mice (n = 3). The two-sample test for equality of proportions: ***p < 0.001,

****p < 0.0001.

Figure 2. Atrophy of skeletal muscles in mesenchymal progenitor-specific AR-deficient mice.

(A) Experimental design for tamoxifen (TMX) treatment followed by sample harvest in mature

adult (6 months old) mice. (B and C) Quantification of body weight (BW), muscle mass,

epididymal white adipose tissue (eWAT) mass, and subcutaneous WAT (sWAT) mass (B), and

grip strength (C) in 6-month-old mice (n = 12). TA, tibialis anterior; BB, biceps brachii.

Unpaired t-test with Welch's correction. (D) Immunofluorescence staining of AR, PDGFRα, and

laminin with DAPI in levator ani (LA) muscles of control (left) and mutant (right) mice. Scale

bar, 10 μm. (E) Quantification of AR+ cells among PDGFRα+ cells in LA muscles of control

and mutant mice (n = 3). The two-sample test for equality of proportions. (F) Quantification of

PDGFRα+ cells in LA muscles of control and mutant mice (n = 3). Unpaired t-test with Welch's

correction. (G) Mass of LA and bulbocavernosus (BC) muscles in 14-week- (n = 8 control; n = 9

mutant mice), 6-month- (n = 12), and 28-month-old mice (n = 5 control; n = 7 mutant mice).

Unpaired t-test with Welch's correction. (H) Mass of LA/BC muscles in single (*HSA-Cre* or

PDGFRα-CreER) and double Cre mice. Brown-Forsythe and Welch's ANOVA test with

Dunnett's T3 multiple comparison test. (I) Immunofluorescence staining of laminin in LA

muscles of control (left) and mutant mice (right). Scale bar, 500 μm. (J) Average cross-sectional

area (CSA) (left) and the number of myofibers (right) in control and mutant mice (n = 5).

Unpaired t-test with Welch's correction: $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, $****p < 0.0001$.

Figure 3. Functional and genomic targets of AR in mesenchymal progenitors of skeletal

muscles. (A) Experimental design for tamoxifen (TMX) treatment followed by fluorescence-

activated cell sorting (FACS) from levator ani and bulbocavernosus (LA/BC) muscles for RNA-

seq. (B and C) Top Gene Ontology (GO) Biological Process terms associated with the

upregulated (B) and downregulated (C) genes in PDGFRα+ cells from mutant mice. (D)

Experimental design for dihydrotestosterone (DHT) treatment followed by FACS and

CUT&RUN. (E) Enriched motifs within AR CUT&RUN peaks. (F) Heatmaps of mean

H3K4me3 and AR CUT&RUN counts per million (CPM) normalized read coverage around AR

776 CUT&RUN peaks for individual replicates. (G) Top GO Biological Process terms enriched

777 within AR CUT&RUN peak-associated genes.

Figure 4. Regulation of *Igf1* in mesenchymal progenitors by AR. (A) Overlap of downregulated

genes in PDGFRα+ cells from mutant mice and AR CUT&RUN peak-associated genes. (B) Top

Gene Ontology (GO) Biological Process terms enriched within overlapped genes. (C)

Normalized gene counts for *Igf1* obtained by RNA-seq. (D) AR and H3K4me3 CUT&RUN

peaks with androgen response elements (ARE) at *Igf1* locus. The AREs are shown in red. Top

left number is the y-axis range in counts per million (CPM). (E) Experimental design for qPCR

after treatment with dihydrotestosterone (DHT). (F) qPCR analysis of *Igf1* in PDGFRα+ cells

after DHT treatment (n = 3 mice/condition). Unpaired t-test with Welch's correction. (G and H)

Western blotting of IGF1 and GAPDH (G) and their quantification (H) in levator ani (LA)

muscles from control and mutant mice (n = 5). Unpaired t-test with Welch's correction. (I)

Experimental design for intramuscular injection (i.m.) of IGF1 to LA and bulbocavernosus (BC)

muscles, followed by tamoxifen (TMX) treatment and sample harvest in 12-week-old control

and mutant mice. (J) Mass of LA/BC muscles in saline- or IGF1-injected control and mutant

mice (n = 4 control, n = 3 mutant mice with saline or IGF1). Brown-Forsythe and Welch's

ANOVA test with Dunnett's T3 multiple comparison test: $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$. (K) Regulation

of *Igf1* by AR in mesenchymal progenitors of skeletal muscle. Created with BioRender.com.