The wasting-associated oncometabolite succinate disrupts myogenesis and impairs skeletal muscle regeneration

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ABSTRACT

Background: Loss of muscle mass and function are major clinical phenomena

affecting most advanced cancer patients. Recent work shows that defects in

muscle regeneration contribute to cancer-associated wasting. Among the factors

implicated in wasting-associated suppression of muscle regeneration are

cytokines that interfere with myogenic signal transduction pathways. Less

understood is how other cancer/wasting-associated cues, such as

oncometabolites, contribute to muscle dysfunction. This study investigates how

the oncometabolite succinate affects myogenesis and muscle regeneration.

Methods: We leveraged an established ectopic metabolite treatment strategy to

evaluate the ability of intracellular succinate elevation to 1) affect myoblast

homeostasis (growth/proliferation, apoptosis), 2) stimulate wasting-associated

catabolism, and 3) modulate *in vitro* myogenesis. *In vivo* succinate

supplementation experiments were utilized to corroborate and extend *in vitro*

observations. Metabolic studies were then performed to investigate the impact of

succinate elevation on mitochondria function.

Results: We found that *in vitro* succinate elevation in myoblasts interferes with

protein homeostasis and myogenic differentiation. Mice orally administered

succinate displayed smaller muscle myofiber diameters and exhibited impaired

skeletal muscle regeneration when challenged with barium chloride-induced

muscle injury. Finally, we found that succinate elevation was associated with

functional mitochondria deficits.

Conclusions: Overall, this study broadens the repertoire of wasting-associated

factors that can directly modulate muscle progenitor cell function and strengthens

the hypothesis that metabolic derangements are major contributors to cancer-

associated muscle wasting.

Keywords: Muscle wasting, skeletal muscle, succinate, myogenesis

INTRODUCTION

Lean mass (muscle) loss and functional skeletal muscle decline affect the majority of advanced cancer patients and are associated with poor prognosis and quality of life. Reversing muscle loss in tumor-bearing animal models leads to improved chemotherapeutic efficacy, reduced cancer-associated morbidity, and prolonged survival[1,2], demonstrating that maintaining muscle mass in cancer patients should be a top clinical priority. Despite a growing number of active clinical trials for cancer-associated weight loss, effective therapies remain elusive. Major problems hampering significant progress include the variability of weight loss presentation across tumor types and stages, limited early detection of lean mass/adipose tissue loss, and a poor understanding of the molecular underpinnings of this complex syndrome. More work is needed to identify and target alterations in skeletal muscle that contribute to overall tissue decline in cancer patients.

Multiple factors produced by both tumor and host contribute to the wasting state. Many identified 'wasting factors' are cytokines/chemokines such as TNF-alpha, Interleukins (including IL-1 and IL-6), CXC-proteins, and TGF-β[3-6], and are known to accelerate muscle atrophy, promote protein breakdown, and inhibit muscle regeneration. Additionally, many of these factors are linked to mitochondria dysfunction and altered cellular metabolism[7]. Indeed, metabolic regulation of skeletal muscle function has come into focus as a major driver of multiple aspects of muscle biology including catabolism, hypertrophy, and regenerative capacity. Examples of metabolic processes linked to cancer-associated muscle wasting are: mitochondria dynamics[8], mitochondria biogenesis[9,10], mitochondria catabolism (ie. mitophagy)[11], and compromised energy utilization pathways[12]. A more sophisticated understanding of how metabolic factors contribute to cancer-associated muscle dysfunction is needed to facilitate the development of novel therapies to preserve muscle mass and function in cancer patients.

Succinate is an oncometabolite best known for its role as a TCA cycle

intermediate and central player in mitochondria metabolism and ATP generation.

Recently, new roles for succinate have emerged and include immune cell

modulation[13], HIF-1a stabilization in cancer[14], epigenome remodeling via

inhibition of alpha-ketoglutarate dependent dioxygenases[15], and post-

translational protein modification (succinylation)[16]. This expanding repertoire of

cellular activities suggests a broader role for succinate in regulating cellular

processes such as differentiation, fate decisions, and survival. Interestingly, a

recent study reported serum succinate accumulation as a biomarker capable of

distinguishing non-wasting, tumor-bearing, and tumor-bearing with weight loss

patients[17]. In the present study, we sought to determine if succinate elevation

directly impacts muscle cell function, with a particular emphasis on myogenic

differentiation given prior studies linking succinate levels to cell fate

decisions[18,19].

Alterations in the balance between muscle breakdown and

repair/regeneration underlie cancer-associated muscle wasting. While catabolic

pathways have historically received the most attention in the muscle wasting

field, processes leading to the suppression of muscle regeneration are

understudied despite their clear contribution to the etiology of muscle wasting[20].

Central to the process of muscle regeneration is the skeletal muscle stem cell, or

satellite cell. In healthy muscle, satellite cells contribute to tissue maintenance

and actively participate in muscle homeostasis[21,22]. When challenged by injury

stimuli, satellite cells activate, proliferate, and differentiate into mature muscle

cells in order to facilitate muscle repair and regeneration. Indeed, genetic

ablation experiments show that Pax7+ stem/satellite cells are required for muscle

regeneration following major trauma[23-25]. Defects in satellite cell function and/or

regeneration are associated with a growing list of muscle atrophy states including

disuse[26,27], denervation[28,29], chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) [30],

burn injury[31,32], diabetes[33,34], chronic kidney disease[35], and hepatic disorders[36].

In cancer, multiple studies show that muscle regeneration is linked to functional

skeletal muscle deficits and propose that mononuclear muscle progenitor cells

drive aspects of the atrophy phenotype[37,38]. Taking into account the expanding

role of the satellite cell in muscle wasting, the importance of metabolism in

cancer-associated wasting, and recent evidence implicating the oncometabolite

succinate in cancer cachexia[17] and stem/progenitor cell function[18,19], we sought

to characterize the effects of succinate elevation in muscle myoblast cells (*in*

vitro) and using animal models (*in vivo*). Studies presented herein highlight the

ability of an oncometabolite – succinate – to directly impact myogenesis and

muscle regeneration, thus underscoring the need to further explore metabolic

drivers of muscle wasting in order to advance anti-wasting cancer therapies.

METHODS

Animals

Mice were bred and housed according to NIH guidelines for the ethical treatment of animals in a pathogen-free facility at the Mayo Clinic (Rochester, MN campus). The Mayo Clinic Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) approved all animal protocols and all experiments were performed in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations. Wild type mice were on the FVB background (Charles River Labs) unless noted otherwise in the text or figure legends. For homeostasis and regeneration assays, all mice were 3-5 months old, FVB males. In these experiments, mice were administered succinate (Sigma-Aldrich) (2%) and 1% sucrose (vehicle) or 1% sucrose (vehicle only) in their drinking water for 6-8 weeks prior to and throughout the injury time course. Muscle injury was performed by injecting the left *tibialis anterior* muscle with 70uL $BaCl_2$ (1.2% in saline) or saline (control) and harvesting muscles 1 or 4 weeks post injury.

MRI imaging

An EchoMRI (magnetic resonance imaging) Body Composition Analyzer (Echo Medical Systems, Houston, USA) was used for longitudinal body composition analyses. Mice were scanned twice weekly for the 6-week duration of the succinate water experiments. All body composition analyses were performed in the accompanying EchoMRI software. Mice were weighed on a standard, digital lab scale prior to scanning.

Cell culture

C2C12 cells (ATCC CRL-1772) were grown on tissue culture treated dishes in growth media consisting of high glucose DMEM media supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. Differentiation-inducing media contains 2% horse serum in place of 10% fetal bovine serum. Differentiating cultures were maintained by alternating fresh media additions and complete media changes on a daily basis for 5 days. DM-succinate (Sigma-Aldrich) was added directly to the culture media upon switching to differentiation media at

doses of 4 or 8 mM. <u>Live cell analyses</u>: Cell proliferation and cell death were

measured by live cell analysis (Incucyte S3 Live-Cell Imaging System, Essen

Bioscience). Percent apoptotic cells over a 48h time course was determined by

labeling control or treated cultured C2C12 cells with a phosphatidylserine

cyanine fluorescent dye (Annexin V Red Reagent, Essen Bioscience) according

to the manufacturer.

Immunostaining

Tissue for immunostaining was placed in a sucrose sink (30%) overnight prior to

freezing and sectioning. Sections (8-10 um) were post-fixed in 4%

paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 5 minutes at room temperature prior to

immunostaining. Once fixed, tissue sections were permeabilized with 0.5%

Triton-X100 in PBS followed by blocking with 3% BSA, 0.2% Triton-X and 0.2%

Tween-20 in PBS. Primary antibody incubations occurred at RT for 90 minutes

followed by incubation with secondary antibody at RT for 30 minutes in buffer

described above. The following antibodies were used in this study: MF-20

(Developmental Hybridoma Bank), Laminin (Sigma 4HB-2), and BF-F3

(Developmental Hybridoma Bank), and SC-71 (Developmental Hybridoma Bank),

Pax7 (Developmental Hybridoma Bank), Ki67 (Santa Cruz) and Myogenin (Santa

Cruz). Secondary antibodies were all Alexa fluorescent conjugates (488, 555, or

647) from Invitrogen or Jackson ImmunoResearch.

Flow cytometry

<u>OPP assay</u>: C2C12 myoblasts were grown to 60% confluency prior to treatment

with either control media or 8 mM succinate media for 48 hours. N= 3 plates

control, n=3 8mM succinate. Cells were incubated with O-Propargyl-Puromycin

(OPP) for 1.5 hours and then trypsinized and stained following the

manufacturer's instructions (protein synthesis assay kit (Cayman Chemical

#601100)). Viobility 405/452 fixable dye (Miltenyi Biotec 130-110-205) was used

as live/dead discriminator. After staining, cells were immediately analyzed by flow

cytometry on a MACSquant 10 analyzer (Miltenyi Biotec). Data were analyzed

using MACSquantify software (Miltenyi Biotec).

Quantitative RT-qPCR

C2C12 cells were differentiated as described above and cell pellets were collected at each day post differentiation as well as prior to differentiation (day 0, growth media). RNA was isolated using column purification (Qiagen) and cDNA was prepared using high capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit (Applied Biosystems). qPCR was preformed using BioRad CFX384 Real Time System. Primer sequences are available upon request.

Metabolic Assays

A Seahorse XFe24 Analyzer (Agilent) was used to perform mitochondria stress tests and energy phenotyping tests on C2C12 cells. Cells were treated with 4 or 8mM DM-succinate or control growth media for 16-18 hours prior to the assay. DM-succinate treatment was maintained throughout the assay. Oligomycin (1 μM), FCCP (0.4 μM) and rotenone/antimycin A (1 μM, 1 μM) were used to inhibit mitochondria complexes involved in electron transport/ATP production. Prior to start of the assay, total cells/well counts were obtained on a Celigo imaging cytometer (Nexcelom Bioscience) using Hoechst 33342 stain (Thermofisher). All data were normalized to Celigo counts of cells/well. Wave software (Agilent, version 3.0.11) was used in the analysis of energy phenotyping data.

Quantitative metabolite analyses

Sample preparation: Cells were treated for 48 hours with 4 or 8 mM DM-succinate, washed 3 times with PBS, and stored at -80C until metabolite extraction. Muscle tissue was cut into ~50 mg pieces, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80 C until metabolite extraction. Conditioned media was flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. All samples were submitted to the Mayo Clinic Metabolomics Resource Core for targeted metabolomics.

TCA: Concentration of TCA analytes were measured by gas chromatograph mass spectrometry (GC/MS) as previously described with a few modifications[39]. Briefly, cell culture supernatants were spiked with internal solutions containing U-^{13}C labeled analytes. Proteins were removed by adding 250 ul of chilled

methanol and acetonitrile solution to the sample mixture. After drying the

supernatant in the speed vac, the sample was derivatized with ethoxime and

then with MtBSTFA + 1% tBDMCS (N-Methyl-N-(t-Butyldimethylsilyl)-

Trifluoroacetamide + 1% t-Butyldimethylchlorosilane) before it was analyzed on

an Agilent 5975C GC/MS (gas chromatography/mass spectrometry) under

electron impact and single ion monitoring conditions. Concentrations of lactic

acid (m/z 261.2), fummaric acid (m/z 287.1), succinic acid (m/z 289.1),

oxaloacetic acid (m/z 346.2), ketoglutaric acid (m/z 360.2), malic acid (m/z

419.3), aspartic acid (m/z 418.2), 2-hydroxyglutaratic acid (m/z 433.2), cis-

aconitic acid (m/z459.3), citric acid (m/z 591.4), and isocitric acid (m/z 591.4),

glutamic acid (m/z 432.4) were measured against a 7-point calibration curves

that underwent the same derivatization. n=1 for each supernatant sample, which

was run in 2 technical replicates after derivatization.

Untargeted metabolomics analyses

Three biological replicates of control and DM-succinate (8 mM) treated C2C12

cells were prepared for untargeted metabolomics analyses as follows: cells were

grown to 60% confluency and then treated with 8 mM succinate for 48 hours, at

which time plates were washed with PBS and cells were scraped and pelleted,

followed by storage at -80° C. Samples were submitted to the Metabolomics

Core at Mayo Clinic (Rochester, MN, USA) for metabolomics profiling by liquid

chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC/MS) using 6550 iFunnel Quadrupole

Time of Flight (Q-TOF) mass spectrometer (Agilent). Metabolites were then

identified using METLIN database with Mass Profiler Professional software

(Agilent). Annotated metabolites with a p value less than 0.05 and a fold change

greater than 2 were further analyzed using MetaboAnalyst network explorer[40]

(metabolite-metabolite interactions) and enrichment analysis (pathway

associated metabolite sets) tools. KEGG and HMDB identifiers were used in

MetaboAnalyst.

RNA sequencing analysis

<u>Sample/library preparation</u>: Three biological replicates of control and DM-

succinate (8mM) treated C2C12 cells were prepared for untargeted

metabolomics analyses as follows: cells were grown to 60% confluency and then

treated with 8mM succinate for 48 hours, at which time plates were washed with

PBS and cells were scraped and pelleted, followed by storage at -80° C. Frozen

cell pellets were submitted to the Mayo Clinic Medical Genome Facility where

RNA quality was determined using the Fragment Analyzer from AATI. RNA

samples that have RQN values ≥6 were approved for library prep and

sequencing. RNA libraries were prepared using 200 ng of good quality total RNA

according to the manufacturer's instructions for the TruSeq RNA Sample Prep Kit

v2 (Illumina, San Diego, CA), employing poly-A mRNA enrichment using oligo dT

magnetic beads. The final adapter-modified cDNA fragments were enriched by

12 cycles of PCR using Illumina TruSeq PCR primers. The concentration and

size distribution of the completed libraries were determined using a Fragment

Analyzer (AATI, Ankeny, IA) and Qubit fluorometry (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA).

Libraries were sequenced following Illumina's standard protocol using the

Illumina cBot and HiSeq 3000/4000 PE Cluster Kit, yielding approximately 48-70

million fragment reads per sample. The flow cells were sequenced as 100 X 2

paired end reads on an Illumina HiSeq 4000 using HiSeq 3000/4000 sequencing

kit and HCS v3.3.52 collection software. Base-calling was performed using

Illumina's RTA version 2.7.3. <u>Bioinformatics/Data Processing</u>: All bioinformatics

analyses were done through the Mayo Clinic Bioinformatics Core. The raw RNA

sequencing paired-end reads for the samples were processed through the Mayo

RNA-Seq bioinformatics pipeline, MAP-RSeq version 3.0.0[41]. Briefly, MAP-RSeq

employs the splice-aware aligner, STAR[42], to align reads to the reference mouse

genome build mm10. Gene and exon expression quantification were performed

using the Subread[43] package to obtain both raw and normalized (RPKM – Reads

Per Kilobase per Million mapped reads) reads.

Statistics

Data are represented as the mean ± SD using GraphPad Prism unless noted

otherwise in the figure legends. Quantification of nuclei per MyHC+ structure was

analyzed using nonparametric, Mann-Whitney t-tests. Quantification of muscle

cross sections using minimum feret diameter measurements was analyzed by

non-linear regression (gaussian, least squares method) and compared between

conditions using an extra sum-of-squares F test. All other comparisons between

groups were performed using unpaired two-tailed student's t tests or multiple t

tests with Holm-Sidak multiple testing correction, as noted in figure legends. For

all analyses, a $p < 0.05$ was considered significant (denoted with *); a $p < 0.01$ was

denoted with ** unless noted otherwise in the figure legend.

Data availability

Datasets generated during the current study are available from the

corresponding author upon request.

RESULTS

Modeling succinate accumulation and evaluating consequences on growth and atrophy

To evaluate the effects of succinate on *in vitro* myoblast function, we first sought to adapt an established paradigm of intracellular succinate accumulation for use in myoblast cells. Succinate has very low cell permeability *in vitro*, so we began our studies using dimethyl-succinate (DM-succinate or DMS), a cell permeable succinate analog used in prior studies to elevate intracellular metabolite levels[18,19]. We treated proliferating C2C12 myoblasts for 48 hours with two concentrations of DM-succinate, 4 mM and 8 mM, and then performed targeted metabolomics to quantify levels of TCA cycle-associated metabolites. We found that 8 mM DM-succinate treatment resulted in a significant increase in intracellular succinate (~2.5-fold) compared to control treatment, similar in magnitude to previously reported values[18] and consistent with the degree of succinate accumulation in wasting cancer patients[17]. We did not detect statistically significant changes in most other TCA metabolites analyzed, with the exception of small (<2 fold) but significant increases in malate and glutamate (**Fig. 1A**). We chose to evaluate this dosing paradigm further to investigate the effects of intracellular succinate elevation on myogenesis. Cell proliferation and apoptosis are important regulators of myogenesis. To test if succinate would influence either of these processes, we evaluated cells treated with three doses of DM-succinate over 48 hours. We did not see significant differences in proliferation over this time period, and only saw increased apoptosis rates with 16 mM DM-succinate treatment (**Fig. 1B, C**).

A major feature of cancer-associated muscle wasting is myofiber atrophy due to either enhanced protein catabolism or impaired protein anabolism. In myoblasts exposed to DM-succinate, we did not observe an increase in mRNA transcripts encoding for E3 ubiqutin ligases (MuRF1, Atrogin-1) typically associated with enhanced muscle catabolism (**Fig. 1D**). We did, however, observe a reduction in protein anabolism as determined by an O-propargyl-

puromycin (OPP) incorporation assay, performed in proliferating C2C12

myoblasts treated with 8 mM DM-succinate for 48 hours (**Fig. 1E**). Interestingly,

differentiated C2C12 myotubes treated with 8 mM DM-succinate for 24 hours

post myogenic differentiation did not exhibit statistically significant alterations in

mean myotube diameter (**Fig. 1F**), suggesting that the DM-succinate-associated

protein anabolism deficits are not sufficient to drive muscle atrophy.

Elevated succinate levels impair *in vitro* myogenesis

To gain a more comprehensive understanding of the molecular changes

associated with succinate elevation, we performed RNA sequencing (RNA-seq)

on proliferating C2C12 myoblasts treated with 8 mM DM-succinate for 48 hours.

Analysis of the transcripts involved in myogenesis and lineage specification

revealed widespread transcript down-regulation after exposure to DM-succinate

(**Fig. 2A**). These results led us to more closely investigate myogenic progression

by differentiating C2C12 myoblast cultures in low serum conditions for 5 days in

the presence or absence of 8 mM DM-succinate. In this assay, we assessed the

degree of terminal differentiation by quantitative RT-PCR analysis of myogenic

transcript expression (Pax7, MyoD1, Myog, and MyH1) and the number of nuclei

fused into differentiated, Myosin Heavy Chain-positive myocytes/myotubes.

Analysis of key myogenic transcript expression patterns supported the RNA-seq

data, showing downregulation of MyoD1, Myog and MyH1, particularly earlier in

the differentiation time course (**Fig. 2B**). Although not statistically significant,

Pax7 expression was trending upwards in DM-succinate-treated cells (**Fig. 2B**).

Differentiating C2C12 cells in the presence of 8 mM DM-succinate resulted in an

impaired ability to form mature, multinucleated Myosin Heavy Chain-positive

structures (control, 4 mM DM-succinate, 8 mM DM-succinate mean

nuclei/myotube values = 5.43, 4.62, 2.98, respectively; **Fig. 2C, D**). Together,

these data show that elevated succinate in muscle cells influences protein

anabolism and suppresses myogenic differentiation and that these changes are

distinct from direct myotube atrophy via enhanced protein catabolism.

In vivo succinate supplementation impairs skeletal muscle homeostasis

Defects in progenitor cell activation, expansion, differentiation, or fusion

compromise the regenerative capacity of skeletal muscle. Given our observations

that DM-succinate impairs myogenic differentiation *in vitro*, we next asked if

succinate supplementation negatively impacts *in vivo* skeletal muscle

homeostasis. Wildtype mice were either supplemented with vehicle (1% sucrose)

control drinking water or water with 2% succinate (+1% sucrose vehicle). We

found that there was no significant difference in total body weight across the

supplementation, or at the endpoint (**Fig. 3A, B**). In addition to total body weight,

we longitudinally monitored body composition of the mice twice weekly for six

weeks using magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). Total lean mass, as measured

by MRI-based body composition analyses, did not show a difference between

vehicle and succinate-supplemented mice (**Fig. 3C**). Comparisons of *tibialis*

anterior (TA) and *gastrocnemius* (GR) muscle wet weights after six weeks of

supplementation did not reveal significant differences between experimental

groups (**Fig. 3D**). Following six weeks of succinate supplementation, we

harvested TA muscles and stained tissue cross sections with laminin, a protein

on the myofiber membrane, to evaluate myofiber size (**Fig. 3E**). We quantified

myofiber minimum feret diameters using Myovision[44] and found a statistically

significant decrease in the non-linear regressions fit to the histograms of

minimum feret diameter distribution between control and succinate supplemented

cohorts (**Fig. 3F**).

<u>Succinate supplementation impairs skeletal muscle regeneration</u>

Muscle progenitor cells are required for efficient muscle regeneration

following serious injury[23-25]. In order to challenge resident satellite cells

chronically exposed to elevated succinate, after six weeks of supplementation,

we injured TA muscles with intramuscular barium chloride injection (1.2%). At 7

days and 28 days post injury (dpi) we harvested TA muscle for histological

analysis. At 7 dpi, we observed statistically significant (p=0.0016) differences in

myofiber regeneration as evidenced by ~16% reduction in the mean of non-linear

regression curves fit to the minimum feret diameter distribution (**Fig. 4A, B**).

Muscle regeneration post barium chloride injury is typically completed four weeks

post injury in healthy, adult mice. When we analyzed minimum feret diameters at

28 dpi, the difference in the mean of non-linear regression curves fit to the

minimum feret diameter distribution became more pronounced (~52% reduction,

$p<0.0001$) (**Fig. 4C, D**). Injured TA muscle in succinate supplemented mice

exhibited large areas of poorly regenerated tissue (**Fig. 4C**). To further

investigate the impacts of chronic succinate supplementation on the satellite cell

population we looked at markers of myogenic differentiation and proliferation. We

saw no significant difference in the number of total (PAX7+) or proliferating

(PAX7+KI67+) muscle progenitor cells in succinate-supplemented animals at 7-

or 28 dpi, in concordance with *in vitro* proliferation data (**Fig. 4E, F; top**). At 7-

days post injury there was no difference in the number of MYOG+ differentiating

muscle progenitor cells between succinate- and vehicle-supplemented mice.

However, we did see a significant accumulation of differentiating muscle

progenitor cells (MYOG+) in succinate-supplemented animals at 28 dpi,

indicative of stalled or incomplete myogenesis. In comparison, vehicle-

supplemented mice had low numbers of MYOG+ cells at 28 dpi likely due to

effective completion of myogenesis (**Fig. 4E; bottom**). Taken together, these

data show that succinate supplementation alters progenitor cell dynamics

resulting in impaired skeletal muscle homeostasis and diminished skeletal

muscle regeneration.

<u>Succinate elevation disrupts multiple metabolic networks in muscle cells</u>

Succinate is gaining traction as a metabolite capable of acting as more than a

substrate for succinate dehydrogenase and the respiratory chain[45]. Notably,

succinate is located at the intersection of many diverse metabolic pathways and

can influence a wide range of metabolic processes[46,47]. We performed non-

targeted metabolomics profiling on control and 8 mM treated (48h) C2C12

myoblasts and found a striking number of differentially abundant metabolites

(DAMs) between in the two conditions (214 features with $p<0.05$, FC>2). Network

analyses of metabolic pathways associated with these DAMs implicated

pathways involved in amino acid and nucleotide metabolism, as well as

metabolic processes associated with mitochondrial metabolism and the TCA

cycle (**Fig. 5A,B**). Considering the central role of the mitochondria in coordinating

cellular metabolism and the known involvement of succinate in several

mitochondria-coupled processes, we posited that succinate elevation could result

in mitochondria dysfunction. Prior evidence suggests that myogenic

differentiation involves metabolic rewiring characterized by increased

mitochondria mass and a shift towards oxidative phosphorylation[48,49]. To assess

mitochondria function, we measured cellular oxygen consumption rates (OCR) in

proliferating myoblasts treated with 4 mM and 8 mM DM-succinate exposed to

mitochondrial stressors. When treated with compounds targeting ATP synthase

(oligomycin), the hydrogen ion gradient (FCCP), and complex I/III

(Rotenone/Antimycin A), we noted altered OCR dynamics in myoblasts treated

with the highest dose (8 mM) of DM-succinate (**Fig. 5C**). Maximal respiration, as

determined by OCR measurements following the addition of the ionophore

FCCP, was significantly reduced (~35%) in the presence of 8 mM DM-succinate

(**Fig. 5D**), thus significantly decreasing mitochondria reserve capacity[50] (~50%

reduction; **Fig. 5E**). Basal respiration rates, and non-mitochondrial respiration

were unaffected by succinate elevation (**Fig. 5F, G**). The ability of cells to

respond to general mitochondrial stress was further assessed using an energy

phenotyping test, which exposes cells to FCCP and oligomycin simultaneously

and measures both ECAR (extracellular acidification rate) and OCR. When

stressed, control cells exhibited expected increases in ECAR and OCR, whereas

DM-succinate treated cells responded poorly (**Fig. 5H**). Taken together, these

data show that while elevated succinate does not grossly affect mitochondria

morphology or basal (resting) respiration parameters, it does impact the ability of

cells to maximally engage mitochondrial respiration under stressful conditions.

DISCUSSION

Mitochondria and tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle defects are commonly

observed in wasting skeletal muscle[51-53]. Direct alterations to TCA metabolite

stoichiometry could therefore, in principal, contribute to functional deficits

associated with muscle wasting. Indeed, multiple studies show that perturbations

in the succinate/alpha-ketoglutarate ratio underlie a spectrum of cellular defects

ranging from epigenome alterations to mitochondria deficits[15,19,54]. In this study,

we found that succinate elevation in muscle progenitor cells impaired myogenic

differentiation *in vitro* and disrupted *in vivo* muscle regeneration in response to

injury. While we did not explore the wasting-inducing potential of other

metabolites, we anticipate that future evaluation of metabolites as wasting-

associated factors will reveal many new drivers of muscle wasting and will

prompt a re-evaluation of therapeutic strategies designed to limit cancer-

associated weight loss.

Several groups show that elevated succinate can influence multiple metabolic

processes including NADH/NAD+ redox state, phosphate metabolism, carbon

source utilization, amino acid incorporation, and fatty acid synthesis[46,47,55,56]. Of

note, succinate CoA ligase (SUCL) – which catalyzes succinyl-CoA and

ADP/GDP to CoASH, succinate, and ATP/GTP – is subject to inhibition by the

accumulation succinate[45]. This product inhibition of SUCL could lead to a buildup

of upstream CoA species such as propionyl-CoA and methylmalonyl-CoA, which

in turn would likely inhibit the catabolism of many macromolecules that are

normally metabolized to succinyl-CoA, including branched-chain amino acids,

cholesterol, propionate, and odd-chain fatty acids[57,58]. Future studies focusing on

how succinate engages other metabolic networks will help to clarify how elevated

succinate levels result in impaired muscle repair/regeneration and contribute to

cancer-associated muscle wasting.

Recent work shows that mitochondria and energy homeostasis play important

roles in the regulation of myogenesis. A study that measured the relative

contribution of oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) to total cellular ATP in

muscle cells demonstrates a shift from ~30% OXPHOS dependent ATP

production in proliferating myoblasts to ~60% in terminally differentiated

myotubes[59]. Accordingly, mRNA expression profiles and activities of

mitochondrial enzymes including citrate synthase, isocitrate dehydrogenase, 3-

hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase, cytochrome oxidase, NADH dehydrogenase,

and succinate dehydrogenase are markedly increased during myogenic

differentiation[60]. Several lines of evidence show that functional impairment of

mitochondria negatively regulates myogenic differentiation. First, mitochondrial

protein synthesis inhibition by chloramphenicol impaired chick embryo myoblast

fusion, even when proliferation/apoptosis rates were maintained by tryptose

phosphate broth or nucleoside supplementation[61]. Second, over-expression of

key factors involved in mitochondria biogenesis (PGC-1 genes) in skeletal

muscle enhanced mtDNA content, mitochondrial enzyme activities, and exercise

performance[62], whereas mice lacking PGC-1 show reduced mitochondria

numbers, decreased expression of mitochondrial genes, and diminished muscle

function[63,64]. We found that while DM-succinate impaired the maximal respiratory

capacity of myoblasts, DM-succinate failed to affect basal mitochondria

bioenergetics parameters or gross mitochondria morphology. Accordingly,

proliferation and apoptosis rates were unchanged in DM-succinate treated cells.

These data support the hypothesis that elevated succinate levels specifically

impair myogenic differentiation, an energetically demanding process that

challenges myoblast mitochondria. Furthermore, these studies provide evidence

that suppression of myogenesis is a contributing factor to cancer-associated lean

mass loss.

Our data show that *in vivo* succinate supplementation impairs muscle

morphometric parameters and regeneration properties, thus adding to the

growing list of studies that report metabolite-driven skeletal muscle mass and/or

functional alterations[65,66]. Cancer-associated lean mass loss is widely considered

a metabolic disorder with complex and overlapping mechanisms of action that

ultimately lead to a decline in skeletal muscle mass and function. While cytokines

and chemokines have garnered the most attention as drivers of muscle wasting

phenotypes, our data underscore the importance of metabolites as regulators of

muscle function. Unfortunately, efforts to target, block or neutralize specific

wasting factors have seen little success[67-69]. Given the multifaceted nature of

cancer-associated lean mass loss, perhaps a more practical approach would be

to focus on the progenitor cell and/or mature muscle response to the wasting

environment. Such an approach would, in theory, circumvent the redundancy of

upstream wasting factors and open up new therapeutic avenues to limit muscle

wasting in cancer.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Study design: PCA, KAH, JDD. Data collection: PCA, KAH, AS, AMS. Data analysis/interpretation: PCA, KAH, JDD. Writing and editing of manuscript: PCA, KAH, AJ, JDD. All authors approved this manuscript.

492 **COMPETING INTERESTS STATEMENT**

493 The authors have no competing interests to declare.

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 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: Modeling succinate accumulation and evaluating consequences

on growth and atrophy (A) A bar graph depicting relative intracellular levels of

TCA metabolites in C2C12 myoblasts following 48h DM-succinate treatment as

determined by gas chromatography mass spectrometry (GC/MS) analyses.

*p<0.05. n=3 replicates. **(B)** Proliferation curve (measured as percent

confluence) for control, 4, 8, and 16 mM DM-succinate over 48 hours. Percent

confluence was averaged from 3 images per replicate, N= 6 replicate wells for

each condition. Error bars represent SEM. **(C)** Percent apoptotic cells, measured

by number of Annexin V positive cells, for control, 4, 8, and 16 mM DM-succinate

over 48 hours. Percent apoptotic cells was averaged from 3 images per replicate,

N=3 replicate wells for each condition. Error bars represent SD. **(D)** Bar graphs

quantifying Murf1 (left) and Atrogin1 (right) mRNA expression FC relative to D0-

growth media at 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4d in differentiation media +/- 8 mM DM-

succinate. *p<0.05 between control and succinate samples for marked

timepoints, as determined by multiple t tests with Holm-Sidak multiple testing

correction. **(E)** A bar graph showing reduced OPP accumulation in C2C12 cells

treated for 48h with 8mM DM-succinate. n=3 replicates; *p<0.05. **(F)** A graph of

myotube diameter measurements (microns) from C2C12 myotubes treated with

DM-succinate for 24h. n.s.=not significant (p>0.05) between any conditions

tested.

Figure 2: Elevated succinate levels impair *in vitro* myogenesis (A) RNA

sequencing analysis of proliferating C2C12 myoblasts treated with 8 mM DM-

succinate for 48 hours. Heatmap depicting normalized FPKM values for

myogenic and muscle lineage marker expression values. Blue=lower relative

expression, orange=higher relative expression. n=3 replicates for each condition.

(B) qPCR analysis of myogenic markers Pax7, MyoD1, Myog, and MyH1. Bar

graphs depicting mRNA expression FC relative to D0-growth media at 0, 1, 2, 3,

and 4d in differentiation media +/- 8 mM DM-succinate. n=3 replicates for each

timepoint/condition, *p<0.05 between control and succinate samples for marked

timepoints, as determined by multiple t tests with Holm-Sidak multiple testing

correction. **(C)** Representative images of C2C12 cultures in the presence of differentiation media supplemented with 8mM DM-succinate for the entirety of differentiation (5 days). Red depicts myosin heavy chain positive myocytes and maturing myotubes. Nuclei are shown in blue (DAPI). Scale bar=100um. **(D)** A graph depicting the number of nuclei per myosin heavy chain positive structure (one point=one structure). Red=statistically significant (p<0.05) mean of biological replicates compared to control using unpaired, nonparametric, Mann-Whitney tests. n=4 replicates control/8mM DM-succinate, n=5 replicates 4mM DM-succinate, 20-40 myotubes/replicate.

Figure 3: Succinate supplementation impairs skeletal muscle homeostasis
(A) Bi-weekly body weight tracking over 6-week succinate supplementation. Weights are normalized to pre-supplementation baseline measures. Individual points are individual animals, line represents the mean at each time point. **(B)** Mouse weight at endpoint, normalized to pre-supplementation baseline measures. **(C)** Bi-weekly MRI-measured lean mass normalized to pre-supplementation baseline measures. Individual points are individual animals, box represents the quartiles and whiskers represent the minimum and maximum values. **(D)** Weights of tibialis anterior (TA) and gastrocnemius (GR) at endpoint in milligrams. Individual points are individual animals, box represents the quartiles and whiskers represent the minimum and maximum values. **(E)** Representative images of TA muscle tissue sections from vehicle or succinate supplemented mice after 6 weeks administration. Cross sections are immunofluorescent stained with an antibody targeting laminin (white). Nuclei are labeled with DAPI (blue). Scale bars=100 µm **(F)** Quantification of minimum feret diameter of myofibers from vehicle and succinate supplemented mice. Feret diameters were binned to a histogram and fit with a non-linear regression (gaussian, least squares regression). Succinate exposed myofibers were significantly smaller; P< 0.0001 by extra sun-of-squares F test. n.s. = not significant by student's t test, n=7 vehicle, n=8 succinate-supplemented FVB male mice, 4-5 months old at the start of the study.

Figure 4: Succinate supplementation impairs skeletal muscle regeneration

(A) Representative images of TA muscle tissue sections from vehicle or

succinate supplemented mice 7 days post 1.2% BaCl2 injury stained with an

antibody targeting laminin (white). Nuclei are labeled with DAPI (blue). **(B)** A

histogram of myofiber feret diameters at 7 days post injury (dpi). Non-linear

regression and statistical analyses were performed as in Fig. 3, succinate injured

myofibers were ~16% smaller; p=0.0016. **(C)** Representative images of TA

muscle tissue sections from vehicle or succinate supplemented mice 28 days

post 1.2% BaCl2 injury stained with an antibody targeting laminin (white). Nuclei

are labeled with DAPI (blue). **(D)** A histogram of myofiber feret diameters at 28

days post injury (dpi). Non-linear regression and statistical analyses were

performed as in Fig. 3, succinate injured myofibers were ~52% smaller;

p<0.0001. **(E)** Representative images of TA muscle tissue sections from vehicle

or succinate supplemented mice 28 dpi stained with antibodies targeting Pax7

(green), and Ki67 (red, upper panels), or Myogenin (red, lower panels). Nuclei

are labeled with DAPI (blue). Yellow arrows in upper panels point to Pax7+/Ki67+

cells. Yellow arrow heads in lower panels point to Myog+ cells. **(F)** Quantification

of Pax7+, Pax7+/Ki67+, and Myog+ cells per mm2. Data represent the

quantification of a 0.844 mm2 area per animal. Data points represent individual

animals. Box represents the inner quartiles and whiskers represent minimum and

maximum values. p values are represented in the figure, as determined by

unpaired student's t test. Mice were 3-4 months old, FVB males. n=5 mice 28dpi

vehicle; n=4 mice 28dpi succinate; n=5 mice 7dpi vehicle; n=3 mice 7dpi

succinate. Scale bars in panel 4A and 4C=100 um, 4E=50 μm.

Figure 5: Succinate elevation impairs mitochondria function in myoblast

cells (A) A bar chart depicting pathway enrichment analyses (sorted by p-value)

using HMDB IDs. Shown are the top 25 enriched processes. All data are derived

from Metaboanalyst processing of non-targeted analysis of C2C12 cells treated

with control or 8 mM DM-succinate media for 48 hours. n=3 control and n=3 8

mM DM-succinate. **(B)** A circular pie chart depicting the relative distribution of

differentially regulated metabolic pathways using HMDB IDs during function

explorer analysis. **(C)** Line graphs showing oxygen consumption rates (OCR),

normalized to cell count, of C2C12 myoblasts treated sequentially with

oligomycin (dashed line 1), FCCP (dashed line 2), and Antimycin A/Rotenone

(dashed line 3) in the presence or absence of 4 mM or 8 mM DM-succinate. **(D-**

G) Bar graphs displaying basal respiration rates (F), maximal respiration (G),

reserve capacity (H), and non-mitochondrial respiration (I). n=3; *p<0.05,

p<0.01 by unpaired student's t-test. (H)** Line graphs depicting OCR and ECAR

(extracellular acidification rate) in response to mitochondria stress (Energy

phenotype assay; Seahorse) in C2C12 control or DM-succinate treated

myoblasts. Filled circles are basal conditions, open circles are stressed

conditions. n=3 control and n=3 8 mM succinate.

Figure 5