A novel transplantable model of lung cancer associated tissue loss and disrupted muscle regeneration

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DESCRIPTIVE ABSTRACT

Background: Cancer-associated muscle wasting (CAW), a symptom of cancer

cachexia, is associated with approximately 20% of lung cancer deaths, and

remains poorly characterized on a mechanistic level. Current animal models for

lung cancer-associated cachexia are limited in that they: 1) primarily employ flank

transplantation methods, 2) have short survival times not reflective of the patient

condition, and 3) are typically performed in young mice not representative of

mean patient age. This study investigates a new model for lung cancer-

associated cachexia that can address these issues and also implicates muscle

regeneration as a contributor to CAW.

Methods: We used tail vein injection as a method to introduce tumor cells that

seed primarily in the lungs of mice. Body composition of tumor bearing mice was

longitudinally tracked using magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). These data were

combined with histological and molecular assessments of skeletal muscle to

provide a complete analysis of muscle wasting.

Results: In this new lung CAW model we observed 1) progressive loss in whole

body weight, 2) progressive loss of lean and fat mass, 3) a circulating

cytokine/inflammatory profile similar to that seen in other models of CAW, 4)

histological changes associated with muscle wasting, and 5) molecular changes

in muscle that implicate suppression of muscle repair/regeneration. Finally, we

show that survival can be extended without lessening CAW by titrating injected

cell number.

Conclusions: Overall, this study describes a new model of CAW that could be

useful for further studies of lung cancer-associated wasting and accompanying

changes in the regenerative capacity of muscle. Additionally, this model

addresses many recent concerns with existing models such as

immunocompetence, location of tumor, and survival time.

INTRODUCTION

Cancer cachexia is a complex syndrome associated with approximately 20% of lung cancer deaths; a hallmark symptom of cancer cachexia is cancer-associated muscle wasting (CAW) [1, 2]. Although this syndrome is associated with negative patient outcomes, it remains poorly understood on a mechanistic level. Many groups have investigated the inflammatory environment associated with CAW, in particular, inflammatory cytokines such as tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNFα) and interleukin 6 (IL6). Despite considerable time invested in this area, clinical trials targeting the inflammatory microenvironment alone have been unsuccessful [3, 4]. Other groups have focused on the proteolytic environment in muscle, as a potential driver of CAW, implicating both autophagy and ubiquitin-mediated pathways as potential drivers of CAW [5-7]. The current mechanistic understanding of CAW is largely based off of work done in mouse models, most notably the Lewis lung carcinoma (LLC) and C-26 models.

The LLC model of CAW relies on transplantation of LLC1 non-small cell lung cancer cells, derived from C57/B6 mice, into syngeneic, and thus immunocompetent, C57/B6 recipient mice. The LLC model is one of the few syngeneic and reproducible models for lung cancer/lung-cancer associated wasting available today [8]. Most commonly, LLC1 cells are implanted via flank injection, which results in large primary tumors around 7 days post implantation. A second popular model for CAW, the C26 model, was first described in 1990 and utilizes flank injection of colon 26 carcinoma cells [9]. Like the LLC model, this model displays elevated expression of proteasome components, which contribute to loss of muscle mass [10]. The C26 model presents with longer median survival (25 days) than the LLC model [10]. Notably, both the C26 and LLC models share a common weakness in that tumors do not arise in the tumor tissue of origin. Although recent studies have attempted to correct this issue using autochthonous genetically engineered mouse models (GEMMS), their utility and flexibility are limited. For example, in pancreatic cancer, there have been multiple efforts to create CAW models that focus on tumors arising in their

native tissue via either genetic manipulation or orthotopic implantation [11-15].

The benefits and limitations of these models are addressed in more depth in the

discussion. Despite these advances in the context of pancreas cancer, lung

cancer models have lagged behind. Orthotopic transplantation has been

established in rodent models, but requires an invasive surgery [16] [17].

Furthermore, genetic methods to derive orthotopic tumors in lungs require viral

delivery of Cre recombinase [18]. Complications arising in both these models are

high and prompted us to develop a simple, reproducible, and scalable model of

lung CAW.

We identified the need for better models of CAW that met the following criteria: 1)

immunocompetent environment, 2) tumors arising in the appropriate/matching

tissue of origin, and 3) ability to modulate the timing/duration of wasting. Here,

we present studies on a novel mouse model for lung CAW, which has met these

criteria. This model utilizes syngeneic, immunocompetent mice and tail-vein

injection of cells as a modality for lung tumor seeding; shows a median survival

of approximately 26 days that can be modulated as a function of injected cell

number; and exhibits hallmarks of lung CAW. The model presented herein fills a

gap in models for studying CAW, and will be a valuable resource for the wasting

community moving forward.

RESULTS

Development of a transplantable model for lung cancer-associated tissue loss

Given the increasing need in the CAW field for models featuring tumors arising in their natural location, we sought to develop such a model in the context of lung cancer. To accomplish this, we used tail vein injection as a method whereby injected lung tumor cells implant primarily in the lungs [19]. Cells were derived from a murine lung adenocarcinoma and cultured more than 10 passages prior to injection. Cells were suspended in PBS for the injection and control animals were injected with PBS vehicle only. Throughout the course of the study we assessed body composition via magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) until humane endpoint (see experimental schematic in **Figure 1A**). We performed survival studies on 3 cohorts of mice (total n=10 vehicle and 15 tumor) and observed significantly decreased survival for tumor bearing mice (average survival tumor=26.2 days) (**Figure 1B**). Upon macroscopic inspection of the lungs, tumor bearing mice had many small nodules, fibrotic tissue, and increased tissue density (**Figure 1C**). Upon microscopic inspection of the lungs in tumor-bearing mice, alveolar fields were replaced by multiple, coalescing tumor nodules (>70% in 3 animals, 40-50% in 2 animals assessed). The tumor nodules consisted of loosely packed, vacuolated cells and in some cases were associated with small clusters of intra-tumoral lymphocytes, usually at the margins of blood vessels or nodules. Lastly, the pleural surface was roughened by projecting fronds / plaques of tumor cells. In comparison, vehicle animals displayed expanded alveolar spaces and a smooth pleural surface (**Figure 1D**). Furthermore, we observed a statistically significant increase in total lung weight in tumor-bearing mice (**Figure 1E**).

Concurrent with evaluations of tumor effects on overall survival, we performed longitudinal body composition analyses. First, we observed a significant difference in time and treatment co-variance for body weight, which was highlighted by significant decreases in body weight at 10, 14, and 17 days post tumor implantation (**Figure 1F**). Next, we observed a significant difference in time and treatment co-variance for total fat mass, which was highlighted by significant

decreases in fat mass at 14, 17, and 21 days post tumor implantation (**Figure**

1G). Lastly, we observed a significant difference in time and group co-variance in

total lean mass, although individual days had no significant difference (**Figure**

1H). Overall, there were decreases in total body weight, total fat mass, and total

lean mass as the tumor progressed (the latter two measured by MRI) (**Figure 1F-**

H).

<u>Lung cancer-associated inflammation</u>

Loss in both body weight and lean mass are hallmarks of CAW. Many studies

have implicated heightened inflammatory signaling as a driver of CAW [20-22].

We quantitatively assessed concentrations of 31 cytokines in the serum of tumor-

bearing and vehicle animals (EveTechnologies) (n=5 vehicle and 4 tumor).

Ranked analysis (vertically by their average in the tumor-bearing animals;

highest to lowest) revealed substantial differences between experimental groups

(**Figure 2A).** Specifically, we observed significant differences in 4 factors:

Eotaxin (down~2 fold), C-X-C motif chemokine 5 (LIX, down ~10 fold), TNFα (up

~30 fold) and vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF, up ~190 fold) (**Figure**

2C). Of note, TNFα accumulation has been previously implicated in CAW [20,

23].

<u>Lung cancer-associated muscle loss</u>

Considering both the loss of lean mass by MRI analysis and the accumulation of

classical markers of CAW in the serum, we next performed a histological and

molecular assessment of skeletal muscle. First, we assessed tibialis anterior (TA)

muscle cross sections by immunofluorescent staining for laminin, a marker of

myofiber membranes, and DAPI (nuclei) (**Figure 3A**). Minimum feret diameters

were measured, compiled, and calculated using myovision (mean feret diameter:

3 million = 40.4 um, vehicle = 44.4 um, and found a statistically significant

decrease in the non-linear regressions fit to the histograms of minimum feret

diameter distribution of tumor-bearing mice(**Figure 3B**) [24]. Additionally, we

observed a significant decrease in TA weight in tumor bearing animals; this was

not due to a reduction in the total number of myofibers in the TA of these animals

(**Figure 3C-D**). Since we observed a reduction in myofiber size, but not total

number of myofibers, we postulated that this could be due to a decrease in the

regenerative capacity of muscle. Using immunofluorescent staining, we queried

the number of Pax7 positive muscle progenitor cells. We observed a statistically

significant increase in Pax7 positive cells per millimeter squared of tissue (**Figure**

3E). Additionally, we assessed the number of centrally located nuclei (CLN),

which mark actively regenerating myofibers containing recently fused muscle

progenitor cells. We did not see any difference in the number of CLN per

millimeter squared of tissue between vehicle and tumor-bearing mice (**Figure**

3F). Lastly, to acquire a molecular understanding of regenerative capacity of

muscle from tumor-bearing animals, we used quantitative RT-PCR to measure

several transcripts associated with early myogenesis, late myogenesis/fusion,

and muscle atrophy. Visualized in a heat map, we see a trend toward higher

expression of atrophy transcripts (Trim63 and Fbxo32) and early makers of

myogenesis (Pax7 and Myod1), and lower expression of late markers of

myogenesis (**Figure 3G**).

<u>Transplanted cell number correlates with survival and CAW progression</u>

Upon establishing that our lung cancer model induces loss in total body weight,

lean mass, and is also associated with an impaired muscle regeneration

phenotype, we sought to determine if survival time/CAW progression could be

experimentally modulated. To accomplish this, we varied the number of cells

injected as follows: 3 million cells (used in all previous figures), 1 million cells,

300,000 cells, and vehicle. We also tested 30,000 and 3,000 cells but found

inconsistent inoculation of tumors and omitted these groups from further study

(data not shown). We assessed survival of animals in each group and found that

lowering the number of cells injected prolonged survival as evidenced by a

statistical increase in survival from 3 million to 1 million cells (p=0.0208), 1 million

to 300,000 cells (p=0.0024), and 300,000 cells to vehicle (p=0.0046) (**Figure 4A**-

B). We also observed changes in lung condition, as evidenced by increased lung

weight in 3 and 1 million injected cells, and macroscopic changes in lung

condition similar to those observed previously (**Figure 4C-D**).

We next performed body composition and muscle morphometrics analyses in

mice receiving variable numbers of tumor cells. As before, we observed

decreasing trends in body mass, lean mass and fat mass in tumor bearing mice

of all groups (**Figure 5A-C**). Specifically, we observed significant difference in

time and treatment co-variance for body weight, in 3 million, 1 million, and

300,000 implanted cell groups compared to vehicle (**Figure 5A**). We also

observed significant difference in time and treatment co-variance for total lean

mass in 3 million and 1 million implanted cell groups compared to vehicle (**Figure

5B**). In lower implantation doses, we did not observe significant differences in

total fat mass. Because tumors were restricted primarily to the lungs (with the

exception of some metastases) (**Table 1**), it was not possible to discount tumor

mass from MRI measurements. Evaluation of TA muscles from tumor-bearing

mice revealed statistically decreases in TA mass in the 300,000 cells group,

similar to the 3 million cells group (**Figure 5D**). Additionally, myovision-based

assessment of minimum feret diameters revealed increasingly significant

decreases as the cell injection number decreased (mean feret diameter: 1 million

= 41.3 um, 300,000 = 32.6 um, vehicle = 44.4 um)(**Figure 5E**).

DISCUSSION

In order to gain a more thorough understanding of CAW, there is a need for models that more accurately capture the patient condition. This new and novel model for CAW meets several needs in the field such as: 1) immunocompetence (i.e. a syngeneic model), 2) exhibits both heightened catabolism and suppressed regeneration 3) exhibits both lean and fat mass loss, 4) exhibits an inflammatory microenvironment, 5) is flexible in timing and severity, 6) arises in the tumor's organ of origin. To the last point, recent studies have highlighted the importance of tumor location on both tumor development and CAW [25-27]. Our model is an easy and effective method to induce tumor formation in the lungs and concomitant CAW, using lung adenocarcinoma cells.

With regard to points two through four, developing therapeutics for CAW is ultimately dependent on mouse models that reflect the complex molecular nature of this syndrome. We showed that this model exhibits an inflammatory signature similar to published signatures of CAW patients [20, 21, 28-30]. Additionally, our model supports numerous studies linking both elevated catabolism and impaired skeletal muscle regeneration as contributors to CAW [5-7, 31]. Our observation that there is an accumulation of Pax7+ cells in the TA muscle, but no change in the number of centrally located nuclei may be indicative of increased progenitor cell expansion, with failure to incorporate into the damaged/cachectic muscle. Although we probed genes related to fusion and progenitor cell maturation by qPCR and did not observe differences in expression, a more detailed assessment of the progenitor cell population would be necessary to make definitive conclusions about suppressed muscle regeneration in this model.

A major weakness of many CAW mouse models is the age of wasting onset. Genetic models, such as the KPC model, are predisposed to spontaneously develop tumors, which gives investigators little control over the age of onset. With cachectic cancers affecting a primarily elderly population, it is critical that new models are able to account for this confounding factor. For pancreatic cancer, this problem has largely been solved by the KPP mouse, which

expresses pancreas-specific oncogenes under Cre recombinase control [13].
However, for lung cancer, this is only beginning to be addressed[15]. Although
our model has not yet been adapted for use in aged mice, the transplantable
nature of the model permits use in any age of animal. Our model has the added
attraction that it does not require a major surgery or viral infection, which could
affect inflammatory status, making it more amenable for aged animals with higher
frailty than young animals [32].

The lack of CAW models that accurately assess the effects of age highlights a
second issue, which is the difference between muscle atrophy and the absence
of growth. A primary concern with the KPC pancreatic cancer mouse model is
that these mice are significantly smaller than littermate controls prior to palpable
tumor development. This suggests that fetal expression of the oncogenes is
contributing to impaired muscle development [13]. Although spontaneous genetic
models, such as the KPC model, are dramatic examples of the difference
between atrophy and absence of growth, this principle implicates many
transplantation models [33]. Even in the study presented here, with age-matched
controls, it is evident that mice in the 3-6 month age group are still growing
(gaining total body weight and fat mass). Although muscle development is
typically considered complete at 3 months and lean mass is essentially stabilized
in our animals, this anabolic state is unrepresentative of the patient population
[13, 34, 35]. The model presented here is amenable to assessing CAW in aged
animals (greater than one year), which may lead to a better understanding of
CAW mechanisms and more efficient translatability to the clinic.

Another aspect of the patient condition poorly modeled in rodents is the severity
and duration of wasting symptoms. Recently, it was established that the cachexia
syndrome could be divided into three clinical stages: pre-cachexia, cachexia, and
refractory cachexia. Although refractory cachexia is marked by a short (only three
months) survival, wasting is present for much longer – an important observation
that is difficult to study in rapidly progressing rodent CAW models. Importantly,
with respect to intervention, some suggest that it is in the earlier stages (non-
refractory) that therapeutics may be more effective [36]. Despite these features in

patients, mouse models like LLC and C26 have rapid symptom onset and short

survival times. Failing to capture the earlier stages of cachexia is likely a

contributor to the failed clinical trials based on pre-clinical data derived using

these models. The ability of our model to be titrated by cell dosage provides an

important opportunity explore the timing and duration of wasting symptoms more

thoroughly.

Despite the many strengths highlighted in this study, the model presented herein

does have limitations. Perhaps the most notable limitation is one common to all

orthotopic lung cancer models, which is the difficulty for assessing tumor burden

in living animals. This could be remediated by stably transfecting cells with a

fluorescent reporter and utilizing *in vivo* imaging modalities. Additionally, in some

cohorts, we observed high levels of metastasis outside the thoracic cavity. This

may be representative of patients that exhibit metastases, but also complicates

data interpretation. Nevertheless, the model presented here is an important step

forward as CAW research progresses and will be a valuable resource for future

research aimed at understanding the etiology of lung cancer-associated muscle

and fat wasting.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Study design: JDD, PCA, AMD. Data collection: PCA and AMD. Data

analysis/interpretation: JDD, PCA, AMD. Writing and editing of manuscript: JDD,

PCA, AMD. All authors approved this manuscript.

COMPETING INTERESTS STATEMENT

The authors have no competing interests to declare.

 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: Transplantable model for lung cancer-associated tissue loss. (A)

Schematic of the study design. D0 = day tumor cells were injected into mice. All

studies were survival studies, so endpoint was variable, but the median survival

was 26 days. MRI scans were completed twice per week during the course of the

study. **(B)** Survival curve for vehicle and tumor injected cells. Dotted vertical line

indicates the median survival (26 days). N- 10 vehicle, 15 tumor. Data were

compiled from 3 independent cohorts of animals. Survival is statistically different

($p<0.0001$) by Gehan-Breslow-Wilcoxon test. **(C)** Representative images of

lungs from vehicle and tumor bearing mice. Ruler reference in centimeters. **(D)**

Representative hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of lung tissue from vehicle

(left) and tumor bearing (right) mice. 2 representative images from 2 individual

animals in each condition. Scale bar is 800 um. **(E)** Total lung weight (all lobes)

from vehicle and tumor-bearing mice. Individual points represent individual

animals. Boxes represent the inner quartiles and whiskers represent the

minimum and maximum values. **(F)** Total mouse weight across study, normalized

to pre-tumor baseline weight. Error bars are SEM. p values presented in the

figure are the result of mixed-effects analysis, with Geisser-Greenhouse

correction. Significance at individual points was determined by correction for

multiple testing using false discovery rate (Benjamini and Hochberg). **(G)** MRI

calculated total fat mass across study, normalized to pre-tumor baseline fat

mass. Error bars are SEM, statistical analysis is as described above. **(H)** MRI

calculated total lean mass across study, normalized to pre-tumor baseline lean

mass. Error bars are SEM, statistical analysis is as described above. *$p<0.05$ by

student's t test n= 5 vehicle, 4 tumor-bearing 7-week-old male 129S2/SvPasCrl

mice for all data except survival curve.

Figure 2: Lung cancer-associated inflammation. (A) Heat map of 29 cytokines

profiled in the serum of vehicle or tumor-bearing mice. Features are sorted by the

highest average of the tumor samples, from top to bottom. Values are the

concentration, row normalized for each feature, then log2 transformed. Red =

high expression, Blue = low expression. **(B)** Bar graph of cytokines commonly

associated with muscle wasting and/or cancer cachexia. Individual points

represent individual animals. Boxes represent the inner quartile and whiskers

represent the minimum and maximum values. **(C)** Bar graph of cytokines

significantly upregulated in tumor bearing animals. Individual points represent

individual animals. Boxes represent the inner quartile and whiskers represent the

minimum and maximum values. *p<0.05 in multiple t test with Holm-Sidak

multiple testing correction. n= 5 vehicle, 4 tumor-bearing 7-week-old male

129S2/SvPasCrl mice.

Figure 3: Lung cancer-associated muscle loss. (A) Representative images of

vehicle (left two images) and tumor-bearing (right two images) tibialis anterior

(TA) muscle cross sections. Immunofluorescent staining for Laminin (myofiber

membranes, white) and DAPI (nuclei, blue). **(B)** Quantification of minimum feret

diameters of myofibers from tumor-bearing and vehicle mice. Feret diameters

were binned to a histogram and fit with a non-linear regression (gaussian, least

squares regression). Myofibers of tumor-bearing animals were significantly

smaller than vehicle; p=0.0142. **(C)** Wet weight of TA muscle from vehicle and

tumor-bearing animals. Individual points represent individual animals. Boxes

represent the inner quartile and whiskers represent the minimum and maximum

values. **(D)** Wet weight of gastrocnemius (GR) muscle from vehicle and tumor-

bearing animals. Individual points represent individual animals. Boxes represent

the inner quartile and whiskers represent the minimum and maximum values. **(E)**

Quantification of Pax7 positive cells per millimeter squared in TA cross sections

of vehicle or tumor-bearing animals. Individual points represent individual

animals. Boxes represent the inner quartile and whiskers represent the minimum

and maximum values. **(F)** Quantification of centrally located nuclei per myofiber

in TA cross sections. Individual points represent individual animals. Boxes

represent the inner quartile and whiskers represent the minimum and maximum

values. **(G)** Heat map depicting 16 transcripts assessed by qPCR in

gastrocnemius muscle of vehicle or tumor-bearing animals. Transcripts are

sorted by highest expression average of tumor sample from top to bottom.

Orange = high expression, Blue = low expression. *P<0.05 by student's t test n=

5, 7-week-old male 129S2/SvPasCrl mice for each group.

Figure 4: Tumor cell number titration modulates survival time. (A) Survival

curve for mice injected with vehicle or a range of tumor cells (300,000, 1 million,

or 3 million). **(B)** Table depicting the median survival for each group. **(C)** Total

lung weight (all lobes) in milligrams for each group. Individual points represent

individual animals. Boxes represent the inner quartile and whiskers represent the

minimum and maximum values. *p<0.05 student's t test. n= 5, vehicle; 4, 3-

million; 5, 1-million; 3, 300,000 7-week-old male 129S2/SvPasCrl mice. **(D)**

Representative images of lungs from vehicle, 300,000 cells and 3 million cells

groups. Ruler reference is in centimeters.

Figure 5: Tumor-bearing mice exhibit progressive tissue loss regardless of

initial transplanted cell number. (A) Total mouse weight across study,

normalized to pre-tumor baseline weight. Error bars are SEM, statistical analysis

is as described in 1F. **(B)** MRI calculated total fat mass across study, normalized

to pre-tumor baseline fat mass. Error bars are SEM, statistical analysis is as

described in 1F. **(C)** MRI calculated total lean mass across study, normalized to

pre-tumor baseline lean mass. Error bars are SEM, statistical analysis is as

described in 1F. **(D)** TA weight in milligrams for each group in study. Individual

points represent individual animals. Boxes represent the inner quartile and

whiskers represent the minimum and maximum values. **(E)** Quantification of

minimum feret diameters from muscles of tumor-bearing (1 million cells or

300,000 cells) and vehicle-treated mice. Feret diameters were binned to a

histogram and fit with a non-linear regression (gaussian, least squares

regression). Myofibers from tumor-bearing mice were smaller, p values

calculated by extra sun-of-squares F test. 1 million vs. vehicle (left, p= 0.0523),

300,000 vs. vehicle (right, p<0.0001). n= 5, vehicle; 4, 3-million; 5, 1-million; 3,

300,000 7-week-old male 129S2/SvPasCrl mice.

Table 1: Metastatic characteristics of 393P lung cancer-associated wasting

model. Percentage of animals bearing nodular tumors visible with the naked eye

during necropsy and qualitative assessment of necropsied animals showing

metastases in the thorax, lower back, and upper hindlimb regions.

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).

Mayo Clinic's Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) approved all

animal protocols. For 393P-induced CAW model, 150 uL 393P cells (containing

3×10^6, 1×10^6, or 3×10^5 cells depending on group), or an equal volume of PBS

(Gibco, 14190-144) (control) was injected via tail vein into 7-week-old male

129S2/SvPasCrl mice (Jackson Laboratories, Bar Harbor, ME). Development of

cachexia was monitored twice weekly by body weight, fat, and lean mass. Mice

were euthanized when endpoint criteria (weight loss greater than or equal to 20%

of body weight, inability to ambulate, inability to reach food and/or water, tumors

greater than or equal to 10% of body weight, tumors that have ulcerated, a body

condition score of 1 or less using the IACUC approved scoring system) was

reached. Blood serum, heart muscle, lungs, tibialis anterior (TA), gastrocnemius

(GR) and epididymal fat pad were collected immediately for analyses. Exact n for

each experiment included in the figure legends.

Animal imaging

Body weight, lean mass, and fat mass were measured twice weekly until

endpoint. A baseline measurement was taken prior to start of study. Body

composition was measured using magnetic resonance imaging (EchoMRI-

100/130) system, EchoMRI, Houston, TX, USA).

Cell culture

393P cells were grown on tissue culture treated dishes in growth media

consisting of DMEM media (Gibco #11995-065, lot 2051518) supplemented with

10% fetal bovine serum (Gibco #10099131, lot 2017488) and antibiotics. Cells

were validated by IDEXX analytics and confirmed to be a pure culture and

murine in origin. Cells were removed from plate with TrypLE (Gibco, 12604-013),

counted, and resuspended in PBS prior to injection.

Immunostaining

Left TA whole muscle was prepared for O.C.T embedding and cryosectioned.

Tissue sections (8-10um) were post-fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 5 minutes

at room temperature prior to immunostaining. Once fixed, isolated tissue

sections were permeabilized with 0.5% Triton-X100 in PBS, followed by blocking

with 3% BSA in PBS. Primary antibody incubations occurred at RT for 90

minutes or overnight in 4 degrees, and secondary antibody incubations followed

at RT for 45 minutes in 3% BSA in PBS. The following antibodies were used in

this study: Laminin (Sigma 4HB-2) and Pax7 (developmental hybridoma bank).

Secondary antibodies were all Alexa fluorescent conjugates (488, 555, or 647)

from Invitrogen or Jackson ImmunoResearch. Stained tissue sections were

imaged on a (Nikon Eclipse Ti-U camera and microscope system). Acquired

images were analyzed for myofiber feret diameters using myovison and manual

colocalization quantification using ImageJ.

Cytokine Studies

Blood serum was collected from mice at endpoint. The MD31 cytokine panel was

performed by Eve Technologies (Eve Technologies, Calgary, AB Canada) and

samples were prepared as recommended by Eve Technologies. All samples

were run in technical duplicate.

Q-PCR

Total gastrocnemius RNA was isolated, purified, and DNase I treated using Trizol

and purified on RNeasy Mini kit columns (Qiagen, Mississauga, ON, Canada).

RNA was quantified using a NanoDrop Spectrophotometer (ThermoScientific,

Wilmington, DE, USA). Two ug of total RNA was reverse transcribed with

primers using the High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Life

Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA). QPCR was performed on a ViiA7

Quantitative PCR System (Applied Biosystems by Life Technologies, Austin, TX,

USA). All samples were run in technical triplicate. Standard delta delta CT

analysis was used post PCR. Primer sequences are available upon request.

Lung, Heart and TA Histopathology

At endpoint lung, heart and right TA whole muscle were fixed in 4%

paraformaldehyde. After 24 hours, tissue was moved to 70% ethanol. Tissue

was embedded in paraffin and tissue sections (6 um) were incubated at 37

degrees for 60 minutes prior to staining with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E).

Stained tissue sections were analyzed by GEMpath Inc. (Dr. Brad Bolon,

Longmont, CO) and imaged on a Nikon Eclipse Ts2 microscope. Samples could

be segregated with 100% reliability at using both the naked eye and the

microscope.

Statistics

Data are represented as the mean ± SD using GraphPad Prism (GraphPad

Software, San Diego, CA) unless noted otherwise in the figure legends.

Quantification of muscle cross sections using minimum feret diameter

measurements was analyzed by non-linear regression (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 mixed-effects analysis, as noted in figure legends. For all

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

Data availability

Datasets generated during the current study are available from the

corresponding author upon request.

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567

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

A

B

Cells Implanted	Median Survival (Days)
Vehicle	No Deaths
3 Million Cells	26
1 Million Cells	42
300,000 Cells	107

C

D

Vehicle | 300,000 Cells | 3 million Cells

Figure 5

Table 1

Group	% with Lung Tumor	% with Other Tumors	% with Metastasis in Thoracic Cavity
3,000,000 (n=15)	93	33 lower back 10 hindlimb	73
1,000,000 (n=5)	100	100	100
300,000 (n=15)	67	33 lower back	53
Vehicle (n=10)	0	0	0