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Myostatin dysfunction is associated with reduction in overload induced hypertrophy of soleus muscle in mice

Minderis, P; Kilikevicius, A; Baltusnikas, J; Alhindi, Y; Venckunas, T; Bungler, L; Lionikas, A; Ratkevicius, A

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3 **Myostatin dysfunction is associated with reduction in overload induced hypertrophy of**
4 **soleus muscle in mice**
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9 P. Minderis¹, A. Kilikevicius¹, J. Baltusnikas¹, Y. Alhindi³, T. Venckunas¹, L. Bungler², A.
10 Lionikas^{1,3}, A. Ratkevicius^{1,3}
11
12
13
14
15

16 ¹*Institute of Sport Science and Innovations, Lithuanian Sports University, Kaunas, Lithuania,*

17
18 ²*Animal Breeding and Genetics, Animal and Veterinary Sciences group, Scotland's Rural*
19 *College (SRUC), Edinburgh, UK, ³School of Medical Sciences, College of Life Sciences and*
20 *Medicine, University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen, Scotland, UK*
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32 **Corresponding author:**
33

34 Dr. Aivaras Ratkevicius
35
36

37 School of Medical Sciences, College of Life Sciences and Medicine, Applied Health Science
38 Building, University of Aberdeen, Foresterhill, Aberdeen, AB25 2ZD, Scotland, U.K.
39
40
41

42 Tel: +44 (0)1224 38023
43
44

45 E mail: a.ratkevicius@abdn.ac.uk
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Abstract

The aim of the study was to investigate if myostatin dysfunction would promote the gain in muscle mass and peak isometric force (P_0) of soleus muscle (SOL) in response to functional overloading (FO) after ablation of the gastrocnemius muscle. Fifteen male Berlin high (BEH) mice homozygous for the compact mutation causing dysfunction of myostatin and seventeen mice with the corresponding wild type allele (BEH^{+/+}) were subjected to FO of SOL for 28 days at the age of 14 weeks. Compared to BEH^{+/+} mice, SOL of BEH was heavier (mean \pm SD, 13.5 ± 1.5 vs 21.4 ± 1.8 mg, respectively, $P < 0.001$). After FO, SOL mass increased relatively more in BEH^{+/+} than BEH strain (34.9 ± 11.5 vs 17.7 ± 11.9 %, respectively, $P < 0.01$). P_0 fell ($P < 0.01$) only in BEH strain which also showed an increase ($P < 0.01$) in optimal muscle length. Specific P_0 became even more depressed in BEH compared to BEH^{+/+} strain (8.4 ± 1.4 versus 10.8 ± 1.3 N/g, respectively, $P < 0.001$). Phosphorylation p70 S6 kinase did not differ between the strains. In summary, myostatin dysfunction impairs adaptation of SOL muscle to high functional demands.

Key words: Skeletal muscle, muscle hypertrophy, contractile properties, p70S6K, high resistance exercise

Introduction

Skeletal muscle mass is an important factor contributing to health and wellbeing (Wolfe, 2006), and there is a significant interest in ways to promote muscle mass and strength in humans of different ages and health status (Stewart *et al.*, 2013). Much of the debate has recently focused around myostatin (Smith and Lin, 2013).

Myostatin, a member of the TGF- β super family, is a potent inhibitor of muscle growth in mammals (McPherron *et al.*, 1997). Mouse models with impaired function of myostatin show an increase in skeletal muscle mass as a result of muscle fiber hypertrophy and hyperplasia (McPherron *et al.*, 1997). Myostatin dysfunction is associated with enhanced mammalian target of rapamycin signalling which induces muscle growth in response to functional overloading (Lipina *et al.*, 2010, Goodman *et al.*, 2011). Phosphorylation of p70 S6 kinase (p70S6K) which is associated with mTOR activation correlates with the increase in muscle mass after resistance training in mice (Baar and Esser, 1999). These observations suggested that inhibition of myostatin could preserve and restore contractile tissue in various muscle wasting conditions. Indeed, intraperitoneal injections of myostatin blocking antibodies induce an increase in muscle mass of dystrophic mouse model (Bogdanovich *et al.*, 2002). There is also evidence that acute resistance exercise decreases myostatin signaling through the activation of the TGF β inhibitor Notch (MacKenzie *et al.*, 2013). However, effectiveness of myostatin inhibition as a treatment against loss of muscle function is unclear. Mice with dysfunctional myostatin show reduced specific force of the extensor digitorum longus (EDL) muscle (Mendias *et al.*, 2006, Amthor *et al.*, 2007). We have observed a reduction in specific force of *Xenopus* muscle fibers treated with SB431542 that acts to inhibit myostatin signaling through Smad transcriptional factors (Watt *et al.*, 2010). Furthermore, we did not detect any differences in plasma myostatin levels between young men and older men showing significant loss of muscle mass and strength (Ratkevicius *et al.*, 2011).

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3 There are also large knowledge gaps about the role of myostatin in adaptation of skeletal
4 muscle to exercise. Myostatin dysfunction leads to the shift towards faster contracting myosin
5 isoforms which is the likely mechanism underlying the reduced endurance capacity of
6 myostatin deficient mice (Matsakas *et al.*, 2010). Yet decreased or abolished myostatin
7 signaling might be advantageous for adaptations to resistance training since type II fibres
8 show greater enlargement in the cross sectional area compared to type I fibres (Verdijk *et al.*,
9 2009). However, to the best of our knowledge, this hypothesis has not been tested.

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Mouse soleus muscle (SOL) consists primarily of type I and type 2A fibers with some
(~10%) type 2X fibers and thus differs from the other appendicular muscles in rodents
dominated by type 2B, 2X and 2A fibers (Amthor *et al.*, 2007, Bloemberg and Quadrilatero,
2012). This similarity to human muscles (Bloemberg and Quadrilatero, 2012) makes mouse
SOL a prudent model for examining the role of myostatin in the adaptive response to
resistance training. Functional overloading (FO) after synergists ablation has been widely
used to study muscle hypertrophy in rodents (Lowe and Alway, 2002). The main aim of our
study was to test the hypothesis that myostatin dysfunction would increase the gain in mass
and isometric force of SOL after ablation of the gastrocnemius muscle. We studied Berlin
High mice which carried either a mutant myostatin alleles known as compact (BEH) or wild
type myostatin alleles, BEH+/+ (Amthor *et al.*, 2007, Lionikas *et al.*, 2013).

Materials and methods

Animals and study design

All procedures involving mice were approved by the Lithuanian State Food and Veterinary
Service (Nr. 0223). Mice were housed in standard cages, one to three mice per cage at a
temperature of 22-24 °C and 40-60 % humidity as in our previous studies (Ratkevicius *et al.*,
2010, Kilikevicius *et al.*, 2012). Animals were fed standard chow diet and received tap water
ad libitum. BEH+/+ animals were generated by crossing animals from BEH and Berlin Low

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3 (BEL) strains and then repeatedly backcrossing the offspring to BEH using marker assisted
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5 selection for the wild type myostatin (Amthor *et al.*, 2007, Lionikas *et al.*, 2013, Bungler *et*
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7 *al.*, 2004). We used males of the 17th or higher generation of backcrossing, homozygous for
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9 the wild type allele of myostatin (BEH^{+/+}) and male BEH mice homozygous for the compact
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11 allele.
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14 Initially, citrate synthase (CS) activity, a mitochondrial marker (Jacobs *et al.*, 2013), was
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16 studied in the gastrocnemius (GAS), plantaris (PLAN) and Sol muscles of six BEH mice and
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18 six BEH^{+/+} mice at the age of ~14 weeks . Then fifteen BEH mice and eighteen BEH^{+/+}
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20 mice were subjected to the functional overload of Sol for 28 days starting at the age of 14
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22 weeks. These animals were anesthetized with an intraperitoneal injection of ketamine (100
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24 mg/kg) and xylazine (10 mg/kg), and the gastrocnemius muscle (GAS) was surgically
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26 removed from a randomly selected leg using similar methods as described earlier (Hamilton
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28 *et al.*, 2010). Mice were given buprenorphine after surgery for pain relief and were monitored
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30 on a daily basis. The contralateral SOL of these mice served as internal control in analysis of
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32 muscle mass, p70S6K phosphorylation and cytochrome c levels. Twelve BEH^{+/+} and twelve
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34 BEH mice were not subjected to any interventions and used as age matched independent
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36 controls in the analysis of muscle properties.
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40 **Assessment of muscle properties**

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42 Similar procedures as in our previous studies were used (Baltusnikas *et al.*, 2015). Mice were
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44 euthanized at 18 weeks of age. Sutures were attached to the proximal and distal tendons of
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46 Sol for measurements of contractile properties. The muscle was then excised and fixed
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48 between two platinum plate electrodes in 50 ml Radnotti tissue bath filled with the Tyrode
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50 solution (121 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 0.5 mM MgCl₂, 1.8 mM CaCl₂, 0.4 mM NaH₂PO₄, 0.1
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52 mM NaEDTA, 24 mM NaHCO₃, 5.5 mM glucose, pH adjusted to 7.4 when bubbled with 95
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54 % O₂ and 5 % CO₂. The distal tendon of the muscle was attached to a hook and the proximal
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3 end was tied directly to the lever of muscle test system (1200A-LR Muscle Test System,
4 Aurora Scientific Inc., Aurora, Canada). The muscle was then left to equilibrate in the
5 solution for 10 min. In the meantime the contralateral soleus muscle was dissected and placed
6 in the Tyrode solution bubbled with 95 % O₂ and 5 % CO₂. All experiments were carried out
7 at room temperature of ~23 °C. The length of the fixed muscle was increased in steps every
8 30 s just after delivery of electrical pulse to evoke a twitch contraction. This procedure was
9 continued until twitch force did not increase with the increase in muscle length. The muscle
10 was then photographed with the length scale in the background to assess muscle length with a
11 precision of 0.1 mm. Muscles were kept at this optimal length during the assessment of
12 contractile properties. Firstly, single twitches were generated and peak twitch force was
13 measured. The twitch contraction time was assessed as the time from the beginning of the
14 contraction to the peak of twitch force. Twitch half relaxation time was measured as the time
15 taken for force to decline from peak to 50 % of peak value. Afterwards, the muscle was
16 subjected to 900 ms trains of stimuli at 20, 50, 80, 100 and 150 Hz for assessment of peak
17 isometric force. Assessment of contractile properties was completed by eccentric exercise
18 consisting of 20 repeated eccentric contractions performed every 10 s. Each eccentric
19 contraction was induced by 1100 ms stimulation at a frequency needed to generate peak force
20 (80 or 100 Hz). During the last 200 ms of this stimulation a ramp stretch was imposed
21 followed by a 200 ms gradual return of the muscle to the initial length without any
22 stimulation. The amplitude of the stretch was 30 % of muscle fibre or 2.5 fiber lengths per
23 second assuming fibre length to muscle length ratio of 0.7 (Brooks and Faulkner, 1988). Peak
24 isometric force was measured during the initial 900 ms of contraction. Then these muscles
25 were incubated in 2 ml of Tyrode solution for 2 h at room temperature. 250 µl of Tyrode
26 solution was sampled for assessment of CK activity using biochemical analyser (SpotchemTM
27 EZ SP-4430, Menarini Diagnostics, UK) with the reagent strips (Arkray Factory, Inc., Shiga,
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3 Japan). Following all measurements both control and experimental muscle were freed from
4 tendons, blotted and weighed (Kern, ABS 80-4, Germany). Afterwards, muscles were dried
5 for 48 h at a temperature of 40 °C and the weighed again for estimation of dry muscle weight.
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9 **Citrate synthase (CS) assay**

10 CS activity measurements were performed as previously described (Ratkevicius *et al.*, 2010).
11 Mice were euthanized at 14 weeks of age. Then muscles were excised, snap frozen in
12 isopentane pre-cooled by liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C. Muscle samples were then
13 homogenised in ice cold lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA, 1%
14 (vol/vol) Triton X-100, 0.1 % (vol/vol) 2-mercaptoethanol, pH was adjusted to 7.5)
15 supplemented with protease inhibitor cocktail, 10 mM β -glycerophosphate, 50 mM NaF and
16 0.5 mM Na_3VO_4 . Two or three Sol and Plan muscles and approximately half of Gas muscle
17 (~60 mg) were used in the corresponding muscle sample. The homogenates were frozen in
18 liquid nitrogen, then thawed and shaken at 4 °C for 60 min followed by centrifugation at
19 13,000 g for 10 min. The supernatants were taken and the protein concentration was
20 determined using the Bradford Assay (Bio-rad, Hertfordshire, UK) and GENESYS 10 Bio
21 UV-Vis Spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, MA, USA). The same
22 spectrophotometer was used for assessment of CS activity. The reaction reagent consisted of
23 100 mM triethanolamine-HCl, DTNB (100 μM), 0.25 % Triton-X (vol/vol), 0.5 mM
24 oxaloacetate, 0.31 mM acetyl CoA with pH adjusted to 8.0. Ten μl of muscle homogenate
25 was added to start the reaction in 1000 μl . The molar extinction coefficient of 13,600 $\text{M}^{-1}\cdot\text{cm}^{-1}$
26 was used to assess the maximum CS activity at 412 nm during the first 2 min of the
27 reaction. The assays were carried out at room temperature (~21 °C). CS from porcine heart
28 was used as a standard (C3260-200UN, Sigma-Aldrich, UK) for assay calibration.
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Western blotting

Muscle homogenates were prepared as described for CS assays (Ratkevicius *et al.*, 2010). Then samples containing 50 µg protein were loaded on 10% polyacrylamide gel, separated using SDS-PAGE electrophoresis and then transferred to polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane. Then membranes were washed with Tris buffered saline (TBS) containing 0.1 % (vol/vol) Tween-20 (TBS-T buffer) before two hour incubation in the blocking buffer (5 % (wt/vol) non-fat milk in TBS-T buffer). The membranes were incubated for 18 h at 4 °C with a primary antibody at 1:1000 dilution (vol / vol) TBS-T buffer supplemented with 5% bovine serum albumin. All antibodies were from Cell Signaling Technology (Danvers, MA, USA). The following primary antibodies were used; Phospho-p70 S6 Kinase (Thr389) or P-p70S6K (#9205), p70 S6 Kinase or p70S6K (#9202), cytochrome c or Cyt C (#4272) and β-Actin (#4967). After incubation with a primary antibody, membranes were washed in TBS-T buffer and exposed for 2 h to HRP-conjugated secondary antibody (#7071) at 1:2000 dilution in the blocking buffer. The imaging of blots was performed using ECL reagent (Amersham Biosciences, Buckinghamshire, UK) and Fluor-SMax Imager (Bio-rad, Hertfordshire, UK). The images were quantified using ImageJ (NIH, USA) software.

Statistical analysis

All data analysis was performed using IBM SPSS Statistics v21 and Prism 5.0 software. The two factor analysis of variance was used with strain (BEH or BEH+/+), treatment (FO or control) as main effects and strain by treatment interaction. A repeated measures design was followed in the analyses of muscle weight (two levels; overloaded and contralateral leg) and fatigue test (twenty levels). A Greenhouse-Geisser correction was applied in the fatigue test data analyses to compensate for the violation of sphericity. All the tests were two tailed with significance level was set at $P < 0.05$.

Results

Data on CS activity in SOL, GAS and PLAN muscles of BEH^{+/+} and BEH mice at the baseline without FO are presented in Fig. 1. BEH mice showed lower ($P < 0.05$) CS activity than BEH^{+/+} mice in PLAN and GAS muscles which did not differ in this measurements. The pattern was different for SOL which did not show any difference in CS activity between BEH and BEH^{+/+} strains. BEH mice had higher CS activity for SOL compared to GAS ($P < 0.01$) and PLAN ($P < 0.001$) though these three muscles did not differ in BEH^{+/+} strain.

Table 1 contains data on body mass of BEH^{+/+} and BEH mice in experiments with FO of SOL muscle. BEH mice were heavier ($P < 0.001$) than BEH^{+/+} mice. Body mass of mice did not change during the period of FO and did not differ from the age matched controls. Data on muscle mass, optimal length, peak isometric force and specific force are presented in Fig. 1. Sol was heavier in BEH mice compared to BEH^{+/+} mice ($P < 0.001$). FO induced a marked gain in SOL mass ($P < 0.001$). When adjusted for the weight of the contralateral SOL, the relative gain in BEH^{+/+} strain was greater than in BEH strain (mean \pm S.D., 34.9 ± 11.5 % vs 17.7 ± 11.9 %, respectively, $P < 0.01$). These changes of muscle weight reflected greater relative gain in dry muscle mass for BEH^{+/+} compared to BEH strain (36.1 ± 11.8 % versus 16.0 ± 10.5 %, respectively, $P < 0.01$). Muscle mass of the contralateral control SOL did not differ from muscle mass of the age-matched controls that were not subjected to functional overload. There were no differences in optimal muscle length of SOL between BEH and BEH^{+/+} mice that were not subjected to FO. FO induced an increase in the muscle length ($P < 0.05$) in BEH mice, but not BEH^{+/+} mice. BEH mice generated greater peak force ($P < 0.01$) compared to BEH^{+/+} mice in the control condition, but the differences between the strains disappeared after functional overloading; BEH mice showed a decrease in peak isometric force while this parameter did not change in BEH^{+/+} mice. Thus FO induced a

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3 decrease in specific force in both strains of mice, but specific force was lower in BEH
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5 compared to BEH^{+/+} mice at each time point ($P < 0.001$).
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7 Twitch contractile properties are shown in Fig. 3. BEH mice generated twitches with
8 shorter contraction time ($P < 0.001$) and half relaxation time ($P < 0.001$) compared to
9 BEH^{+/+} mice. Twitch to tetanus force ratio was also lower in BEH mice compared to
10 BEH^{+/+} mice. Functional overloading did not have any significant effect on these twitch
11 properties.
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18 Data on changes in p70S6K phosphorylation and cytochrome c are presented in Fig. 4.
19 There were no significant differences between BEH^{+/+} and BEH mice in these
20 measurements. p70S6K phosphorylation did not change after FO. Cytochrome c to β -Actin
21 ratio tended to be higher in BEH mice compared to BEH^{+/+} ($P = 0.08$). FO did not induce
22 any change in this ratio.
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29 Data on the peak isometric force during 20 eccentric contractions and CK efflux after the
30 exercise are presented in Fig. 5. Changes in the peak force differed depending on the strain
31 and treatment (strain by treatment by time interaction, $P < 0.001$). The BEH muscles showed
32 a greater drop in the peak force than BEH^{+/+} muscles ($P < 0.05 - 0.0001$) when studied in
33 the control condition. FO reduced the force loss in BEH muscles to the level of BEH^{+/+}
34 strain which did not show any changes in the force loss after this intervention. There were no
35 differences between BEH and BEH^{+/+} in muscle CK efflux after exercise. Muscle CK efflux
36 was not modulated by the adaptation to FO.
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49 Discussion

50 The main aim of the study was to test the hypothesis that myostatin dysfunction promotes
51 muscle hypertrophy and strength gain in response to FO. We studied the effects of ablation of
52 the gastrocnemius muscle on muscle properties of Sol in BEH and BEH^{+/+} mice since this
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3 model permitted us to examine the role of myostatin in muscle adaptation to high functional
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5 demands. The results reject our original hypothesis, since BEH mice showed smaller rather
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7 than greater gain in muscle mass compared to BEH^{+/+} and exhibited a decrease rather than
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9 an increase in peak isometric force after FO. Thus myostatin dysfunction might impair
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11 adaptations to increased functional demands in skeletal muscles with high oxidative capacity.
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14 15 16 *Contractile properties*

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18 We studied slow twitch SOL, but our results on baseline muscle properties agree well with
19
20 findings on fast twitch extensor digitorum longus muscle of BEH mice (Amthor *et al.*, 2007).
21
22 SOL of BEH mice showed bigger muscle mass, faster twitch speed and reduced specific
23
24 force compared to BEH^{+/+} mice. This high twitch speed could be attributed to a shift in
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26 muscle fibre composition towards faster contracting myosin isoforms and fibre types in mice
27
28 with myostatin dysfunction (Amthor *et al.*, 2007, Matsakas *et al.*, 2010). However, the
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30 decrease in specific force is not expected from the changes in muscle fibre composition
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32 because type 2 fibres often show higher specific force than type 1 fibres (Bottinelli *et al.*,
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34 1996). It appears that effects of myostatin inhibition are not limited to changes in the fibre
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36 type composition. SB431542 mediated inhibition of myostatin signaling lead to an increase in
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38 cross sectional area with no change in peak isometric force of muscle fibre in *Xenopus laevis*
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40 (Watt *et al.*, 2010). One of the reasons for a decrease in specific force could be due to low
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42 levels of contractile proteins in muscle fibres of mice showing myostatin dysfunction (Qaisar
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44 *et al.*, 2012). Enlarged myonuclear domains might limit protein synthesis and accumulation
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46 of contractile protein in muscle fibres showing excessive hypertrophy (Qaisar *et al.*, 2012).
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48 However, this is an oversimplified view since myostatin inhibits protein synthesis and
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50 removal of this inhibition is expected to have a positive effect on the overall protein synthesis
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52 rates (Goodman *et al.*, 2013). Interestingly, specific muscle force increased in mice with
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3 myostatin knock out after a period of endurance training or food restriction which lead to a
4 decrease in the cross sectional area of skeletal muscles (Matsakas *et al.*, 2012, Matsakas *et*
5 *al.*, 2013). It has been suggested that accumulation of aberrant p62 proteins might interfere
6 with force generation in muscle fibres of myostatin deficient mice fed ad libitum (Collins-
7 Hooper *et al.*, 2015). Interestingly, BEH and BEH+/+ mice did not differ in specific force of
8 SOL at the age of 31-35 days when muscle mass was less than half of the adult size
9 (Baltusnikas *et al.* in press). It might be that biomechanical factors such as an increase in
10 muscle fibre pennation angles also have a negative effect on force generating capacity of
11 hypertrophied muscles in addition to the factors acting at the single fibre level (Amthor *et al.*,
12 2007).

23 24 25 26 27 *Functional overloading (FO)*

28
29 We used 4 week exposure to FO. It is a popular model to study muscle hypertrophy in
30 mammals (Lowe and Alway, 2002). This type of muscle overloading leads to an increase in
31 muscle mass with less pronounced increase in force generating capacity in mouse PLAN
32 (Bodine and Baar, 2012). A similar force deficit is observed in skeletal muscles of rats
33 (Kandarian and White, 1989). We focused on SOL which can be excised intact for
34 assessment of contractile properties and contains a mixture of muscle fibre types resembling
35 human muscles (Bloemberg and Quadriatero, 2012). It is expected that the effects of FO and
36 myostatin inhibition would vary between skeletal muscles that differ in muscle fibre type
37 composition and other properties. SOL showed a relatively small increase in muscle mass and
38 no increase in peak isometric force which is in contrast to the previous findings on PLAN
39 after FO (Bodine and Baar, 2012). The majority of studies on the role of myostatin in rodents
40 focused on the muscles dominated by type 2B fibres (Amthor *et al.*, 2007, Matsakas *et al.*,
41 2010, Matsakas *et al.*, 2012). The observed effects of myostatin on the tibialis anterior and
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3 extensor digitorum muscles are typically large and stimulated the interest in it as a possible
4 pharmacological target (Mendias *et al.*, 2006). However, human muscles are rather different
5 as no 2B fibres are detected (Smerdu and Erzen, 2001). The present study on the role of
6 myostatin indicated that, contrary to expectation, the potential for gain in muscle mass and
7 function might be limited in the muscles comprised of type 1 and type 2A fibres.
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14 A particular feature of adaptation to functional overloading in BEH strain was an increase
15 in optimal muscle length which did not change in BEH+/+ strain. Severe muscle exercise is
16 associated with muscle injury, increased heterogeneity of sarcomere length and increased
17 muscle optimal length (Proske and Morgan, 2001). Functional overloading does induce
18 muscle injury especially during the first week of its application (Lowe and Alway, 2002). It
19 appears that myostatin dysfunction increases muscle susceptibility to injury after exercise
20 (Mendias *et al.*, 2006, Baltusnikas *et al.*, in press). Indeed, SOL of BEH mice showed a faster
21 drop in peak force in repeated eccentric contractions compared to BEH+/+ strain eventhough
22 muscle CK efflux was similiar. Muscle injury and the associated inflammatory response can
23 inhibit accumulation of contractile proteins and lead to a decrease in specific force (Pizza *et*
24 *al.*, 2002). Inhibition of signalling by transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β) superfamily,
25 which myostatin is a member of, impairs muscle regeneration and leads to a long term deficit
26 in force production after exercise-induced injury ((McPherron *et al.*, 1997, Gumucio *et al.*,
27 2013). SOL shows particularly high involvement in motor activities compared to other limb
28 muscles (Roy *et al.*, 1991). Interestingly, cancer cachexia which is associated with increased
29 serum levels of inflammatory cytokines leads to a decrease in specific force of the diaphragm
30 with high levels of activity, but not in other less active muscles (Roberts *et al.*, 2013). It
31 appears that myostatin dysfunction interferes with in adaptation of SOL to the overloading.
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There were no changes in mitochondrial cytochrome c levels, and reduction in force loss
during eccentric exercise was not due to improved oxidative capacity of muscles in BEH

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3 mice after FO. It is likely that a decrease in specific force might have played an important
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5 role in this phenomenon.
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8 9 *Anabolic signaling*

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11 BEH and BEH^{+/+} mice showed similar CS activity and cytochrome c levels in SOL which
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13 was in contrast to GAS and PLAN showing reduced CS activity in BEH mice compared to
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15 BEH^{+/+} mice. It appears that myostatin dysfunction has a less marked effect on oxidative
16
17 capacity of SOL compared to other limb muscles (Collins-Hooper *et al.*, 2015). There was
18
19 also no difference between SOL of BEH^{+/+} and BEH mice in P70S6K phosphorylation
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21 which has been linked to muscle growth in rats (Baar and Esser, 1999). In contrast to the
22
23 other limb muscles, rat SOL showed only a small increase in P70S6K phosphorylation
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25 immediately after electrical stimulation mimicking high resistance exercise and this change
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27 became insignificant within 3 hours of recovery. It appears that mouse SOL also shows a
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29 reduced signaling through mTOR - P70S6K axis compared to GAS which has been used to
30
31 study effects of myostatin knockout (Lipina *et al.*, 2010). Importance of mTOR signaling for
32
33 muscle growth also varies with time of exposure to the hypertrophic stimuli. P70S6K
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35 phosphorylation returns to baseline levels within 21 days of FO in fast twitch PLAN
36
37 (Hamilton *et al.*, 2014). In general, our results agree with the contention that mTOR signaling
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39 is not a predictor of muscle hypertrophy in response to the long term functional overloading.
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46 47 *Perspevtives*

48
49 Myostatin inhibition has attracted a considerable interest as a strategy for improvement of
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51 muscle function. A significant effort has been spent in studying effects of myostatin
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53 inhibition on muscle cells and skeletal muscles in various mouse models. Much less attention
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55 has been devoted to effects of myostatin dysfunction on the muscle adaptations to various
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3 types of functional overloading and muscle exercise. Our results show that BEH mice had
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5 experienced a smaller rather than greater gain in SOL mass and, in contrast to BEH+/+
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7 mice, exhibited a decrease in muscle force generating capacity after functional overloading.
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9 These results suggest that myostatin dysfunction has a negative effect on adaptation to
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11 increased functional demands in skeletal muscles with high levels of motor activity.
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14 **Competing interests**

15
16 There are no competing interests
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19
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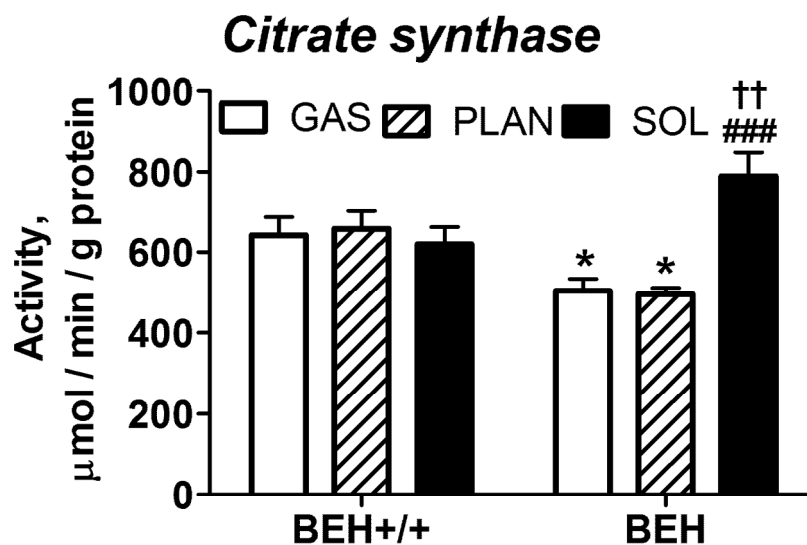
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Table 1. Body mass of experimental BEH+/+ (n=12) and BEH (n=9) mice that were subjected to functional overloading (FO) of soleus muscle and body mass of aged matched +/+ (n=12) and C/C (n=12) mice that were not subjected to any interventions.

	Experimental mice		Control mice
	Before FO 14 weeks	After FO 18 weeks	18 weeks
BEH+/+ (g)	54.0 ± 3.3	54.1 ± 3.3	52.0 ± 3.6
BEH (g)	61.0 ± 4.0***	60.4 ± 4.4***	60.2 ± 3.1***

Values are means ± SD *** $P < 0.001$ between BEH+/+ and BEH mice.

PROOF



28 Fig. 1. Citrate synthase (CS) activity in the gastrocnemius (GAS), plantaris (PLAN) and soleus (SOL) muscles
29 of BEH+/+ (n=6) and BEH (n=6) mice. Values are means \pm SEM; * $p < 0.05$ versus BEH+/+ mice; †† $P <$
30 0.01 versus Gas of BEH mice; ### $P < 0.001$ versus Plan of BEH mice.
31 170x104mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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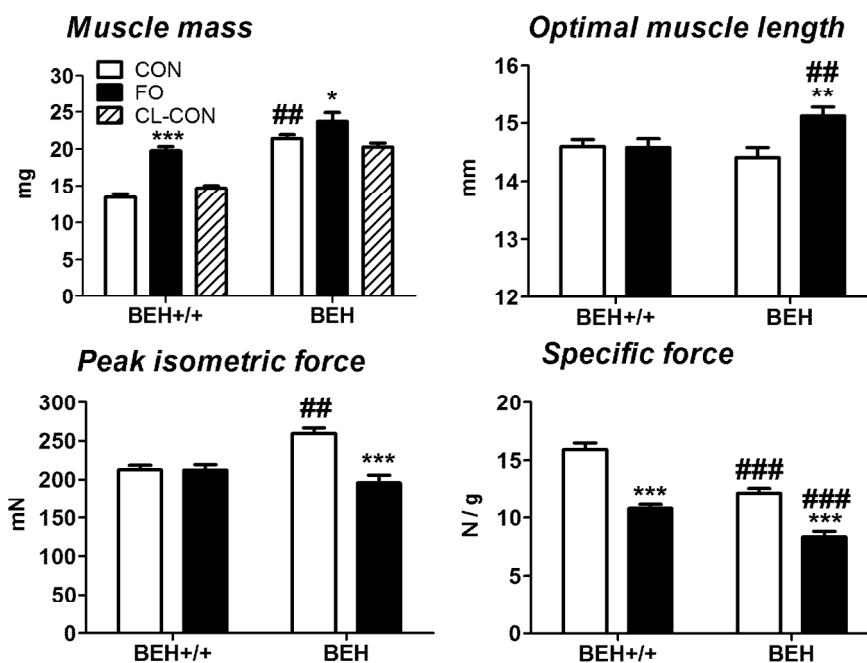


Fig. 2. Muscle mass, optimal length, peak isometric force and specific force of soleus muscles (SOL) in the control condition without any intervention (CON) and after 28 days of functional overloading (FO) with the respective contralateral controls (CL-CON) where appropriate for BEH+/+ (n=12) and BEH (n=9) mice. Values are means \pm SEM; * P < 0.05, *** P < 0.001 between control and functional overload (FO) muscles; ## P < 0.01, ### P < 0.001 between BEH+/+ and BEH muscles.

169x121mm (300 x 300 DPI)

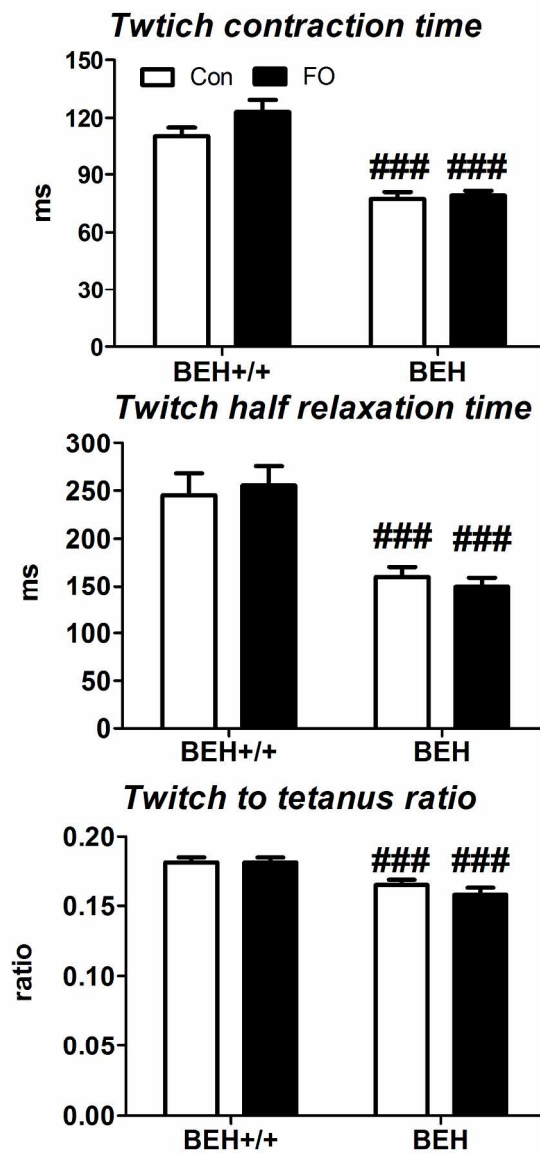


Fig. 3. Twitch contractile properties of soleus muscle (SOL) in the control (CON) BEH+/+ (n=12) and BEH (n=12) mice and after 28 days of functional overloading (FO) for BEH+/+ (n=12) and BEH (n=9) mice. Values are means \pm SEM; ### P < 0.001 between BEH+/+ and BEH muscles.
145x257mm (300 x 300 DPI)

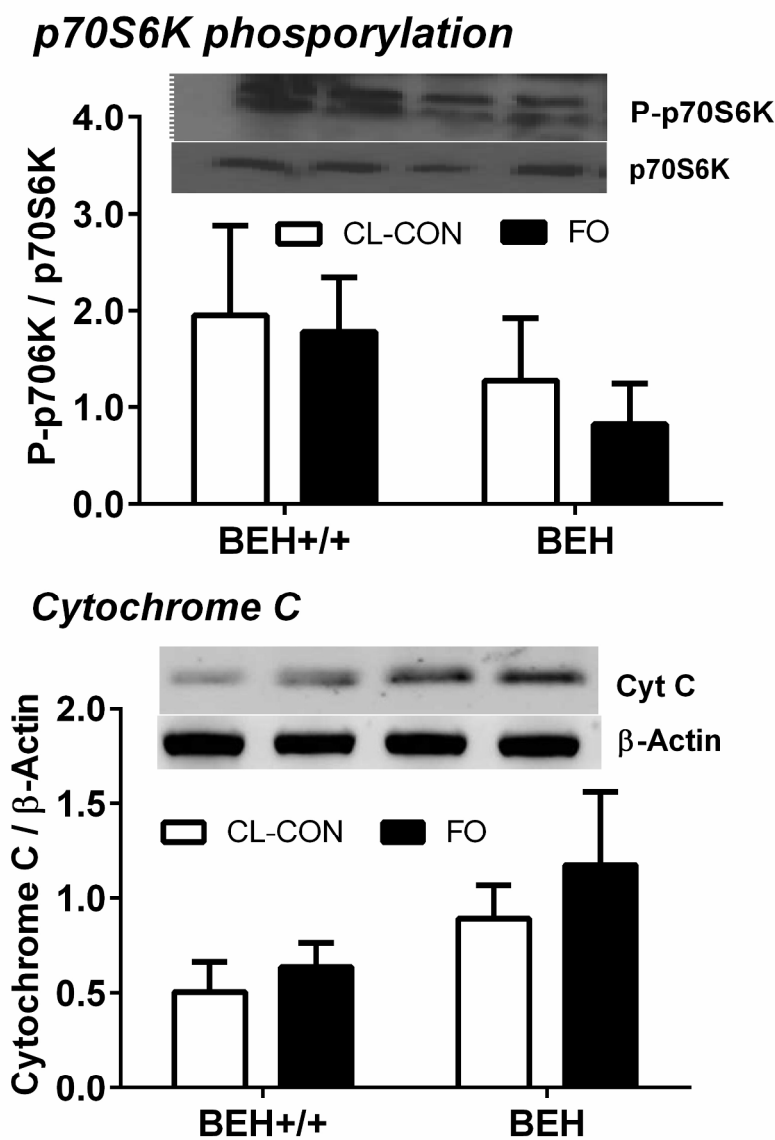


Fig. 4. p70S6K phosphorylation (P-p70S6K/p70S6K ratio) and cytochrome c (Cyt C) in the soleus muscle (SOL). Western blotting was performed on the contralateral control (CL-CON) muscles and the muscle after 28 days of functional overloading (FO) for BEH+/+ (n=6) and BEH (n=6) mice. The representative Western blots are shown for each of the four studied muscle groups in the same order as bars in the figure. Values are means \pm SEM.

206x277mm (300 x 300 DPI)

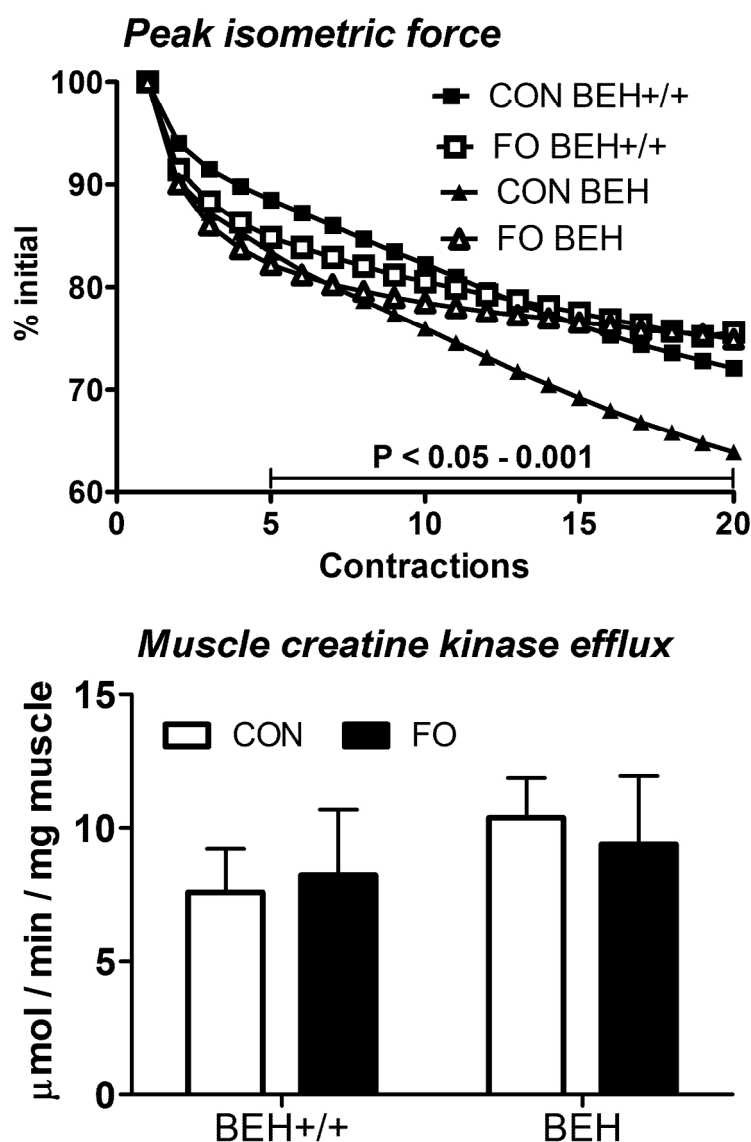


Fig. 5. Peak isometric force in eccentric exercise and the exercise induced creatine kinase efflux for soleus muscle (SOL) in the control (CON) BEH+/+ (n=12) and BEH (n=12) mice as well as after 28 days of functional overloading (FO) for BEH+/+ (n=12) and BE (n=9) mice, respectively. Values are means \pm SEM. As indicated for the control condition, the difference between BEH+/+ and BEH ranged from $P < 0.05$ after 5 contractions to $P < 0.0001$ after 20 contractions.

193x257mm (300 x 300 DPI)