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EFFECTS OF THE BETA<sub>2</sub> AGONIST FORMOTEROL ON ATROPHY SIGNALING, AUTOPHAGY, AND MUSCLE PHENOTYPE IN RESPIRATORY AND LIMB MUSCLES OF RATS WITH CANCER-INDUCED CACHEXIA

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**ABSTRACT**

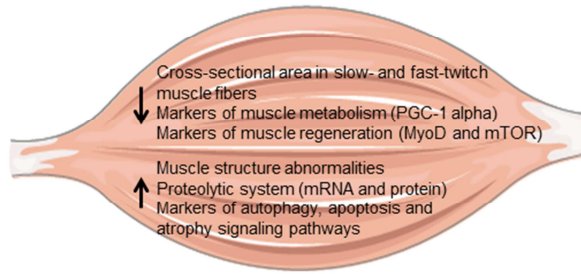
Muscle mass loss and wasting are characteristic features of patients with chronic conditions including cancer. Beta-adrenoceptors attenuate muscle wasting. We hypothesized that specific muscle atrophy signaling pathways and altered metabolism may be attenuated in cancer cachectic animals receiving treatment with the beta<sub>2</sub> agonist formoterol. In diaphragm and gastrocnemius of tumor-bearing rats (intraperitoneal inoculum, 10<sup>8</sup> AH-130 Yoshida ascites hepatoma cells, 7-day study period) with and without treatment with formoterol (0.3 mg/kg body weight/day/7days, subcutaneous), atrophy signaling pathways (NF-κB, MAPK, FoxO), proteolytic markers (ligases, proteasome, ubiquitination), autophagy markers (p62, beclin-1, LC3), myostatin, apoptosis, muscle metabolism markers, and muscle structure features were analyzed (immunoblotting, immunohistochemistry). In diaphragm and gastrocnemius of cancer cachectic rats, fiber sizes were reduced, levels of structural alterations, atrophy signaling pathways, proteasome content, protein ubiquitination, autophagy, and myostatin were increased, while those of regenerative and metabolic markers (myoD, mTOR, AKT, and PGC-1alpha) were decreased. Formoterol treatment attenuated such alterations in both muscles. Muscle wasting in this rat model of cancer-induced cachexia was characterized by induction of significant structural alterations, atrophy signaling pathways, proteasome activity, apoptotic and autophagy markers, and myostatin, along with a significant decline in the expression of muscle regenerative and metabolic markers. Treatment of the cachectic rats with formoterol partly attenuated the structural alterations and atrophy signaling, while improving other molecular perturbations similarly in both respiratory and limb muscles. The results reported in this study have relevant therapeutic implications as they showed beneficial effects of the beta<sub>2</sub> agonist formoterol in the cachectic muscles through several key biological pathways. **Word count: 250**

## GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



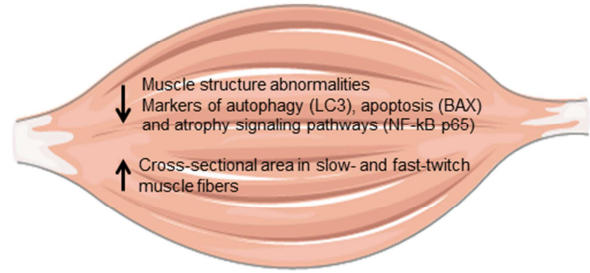
**Cancer-cachexia**  
( $10^8$  Yoshida hepatoma cells,  
intraperitoneal)

**Cancer-cachexia rats compared to non-cachexia controls**  
in **diaphragm** and **gastrocnemius** muscles:



**Cancer-cachexia-Fomoterol**  
(0.3 mg/kg body weight for 7 days,  
subcutaneously)

**Cancer-cachexia-Fomoterol compared to cancer-cachexia rats**  
in **diaphragm** and **gastrocnemius** muscles:



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2 **AUTOPHAGY, AND MUSCLE PHENOTYPE IN RESPIRATORY AND LIMB**  
3 **MUSCLES OF RATS WITH CANCER-INDUCED CACHEXIA**

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18 **Word count: 4,962**

19 **Running head:** Signaling, autophagy, and structure in formoterol-treated cachectic muscles

20 **Number of text figures:** 5

21 **Number of tables:** 3

22

23

24 **ABSTRACT**

25 Muscle mass loss and wasting are characteristic features of patients with chronic conditions  
26 including cancer. Beta-adrenoceptors attenuate muscle wasting. We hypothesized that specific  
27 muscle atrophy signaling pathways and altered metabolism may be attenuated in cancer  
28 cachectic animals receiving treatment with the beta<sub>2</sub> agonist formoterol. In diaphragm and  
29 gastrocnemius of tumor-bearing rats (intraperitoneal inoculum, 10<sup>8</sup> AH-130 Yoshida ascites  
30 hepatoma cells, 7-day study period) with and without treatment with formoterol (0.3 mg/kg  
31 body weight/day/7days, subcutaneous), atrophy signaling pathways (NF-κB, MAPK, FoxO),  
32 proteolytic markers (ligases, proteasome, ubiquitination), autophagy markers (p62, beclin-1,  
33 LC3), myostatin, apoptosis, muscle metabolism markers, and muscle structure features were  
34 analyzed (immunoblotting, immunohistochemistry). In diaphragm and gastrocnemius of  
35 cancer cachectic rats, fiber sizes were reduced, levels of structural alterations, atrophy  
36 signaling pathways, proteasome content, protein ubiquitination, autophagy, and myostatin  
37 were increased, while those of regenerative and metabolic markers (myoD, mTOR, AKT, and  
38 PGC-1alpha) were decreased. Formoterol treatment attenuated such alterations in both  
39 muscles. Muscle wasting in this rat model of cancer-induced cachexia was characterized by  
40 induction of significant structural alterations, atrophy signaling pathways, proteasome  
41 activity, apoptotic and autophagy markers, and myostatin, along with a significant decline in  
42 the expression of muscle regenerative and metabolic markers. Treatment of the cachectic rats  
43 with formoterol partly attenuated the structural alterations and atrophy signaling, while  
44 improving other molecular perturbations similarly in both respiratory and limb muscles. The  
45 results reported in this study have relevant therapeutic implications as they showed beneficial  
46 effects of the beta<sub>2</sub> agonist formoterol in the cachectic muscles through several key biological  
47 pathways. **Word count: 250**

48 **KEY WORDS:** cancer-induced cachexia; diaphragm and gastrocnemius; formoterol  
49 treatment; muscle atrophy signaling; proteolytic and autophagy markers; metabolic pathways

50 **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

- 51 AKT: serine/threonine kinase 1
- 52 ANOVA: analysis of variance
- 53 ATP: adenosine triphosphate
- 54 BAX: BCL2 associated X protein
- 55 BCL-2: B-Cell CLL/Lymphoma 2
- 56 cAMP: cyclic adenosine monophosphate
- 57 COPD: chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
- 58 ERK: extracellular signal-regulated kinases
- 59 FoxO: forkhead box O
- 60 GAPDH: glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase
- 61 I $\kappa$ B: nuclear factor of kappa light polypeptide gene enhancer in B-cells inhibitor
- 62 LC: lung cancer
- 63 LC3B: microtubule-associated protein 1 light chain 3
- 64 MAPK: mitogen-activated protein kinases
- 65 mTOR: mammalian target of rapamycin
- 66 MuRF-1: muscle ring finger protein-1
- 67 MyHC: myosin heavy chain
- 68 MYOD: myoblast determination protein 1
- 69 NF: nuclear factor
- 70 P62: nucleoporin p62
- 71 PGC: peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma coactivator
- 72 PPAR: peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor
- 73 SPSS: statistical Package for the Social Science
- 74 TRIM32: tripartite motif-containing protein 32

75 TUNEL: terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase-mediated uridine 5'-triphosphate nick-end

76 labelling

77 UTP: uridine 5'-triphosphate

78

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## 79 1. INTRODUCTION

80 Muscle mass loss and dysfunction are common systemic manifestations in patients with  
81 chronic conditions such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), heart and renal  
82 failure, diabetes, and cancer [1-3,21-23,61,62]. In patients with critical illness, severe muscle  
83 wasting also takes place very rapidly, impairing the patients' outcome [21]. Importantly,  
84 muscle wasting and atrophy of the lower limb muscles entails a reduction of the patients'  
85 quality of life and has been shown to predict morbidity and mortality regardless of the  
86 underlying condition [3,22,23,34,37,42,52,55].

87 Biological mechanisms such as increased oxidative stress, epigenetic regulation,  
88 metabolic derangements, sarcomere disruptions, contractile protein loss, autophagy, enhanced  
89 proteolysis, and specific signaling pathways have been demonstrated to be involved in the  
90 pathophysiology of muscle wasting associated with chronic diseases including cancer [2,4-  
91 6,8,14-17,24-27,35,36,43-46]. Mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPK) and nuclear factor  
92 (NF)- $\kappa$ B are central regulators of a great variety of cellular processes including adaptive and  
93 maladaptive responses to cellular stress in skeletal muscles [32]. Activation of MAPK, NF-  
94  $\kappa$ B, and forkhead box O (FoxO) transcription factors was shown to mediate muscle wasting in  
95 an experimental model of cancer-induced cachexia [13,15,40]. Indeed, treatment of the  
96 cachectic mice with either NF- $\kappa$ B or MAPK inhibitors significantly improved muscle mass  
97 loss as a result of an attenuation of muscle proteolysis [15].

98 The ubiquitin-proteasome system has been shown to degrade muscle proteins in  
99 experimental models of cancer-induced cachexia [15,54,59,60] and disuse muscle atrophy  
100 [16]. Interestingly, the proteasome inhibitor bortezomib was shown to restore diaphragm  
101 muscle contractile function and myosin heavy chain content (MyHC) following coronary  
102 heart failure [59] and elastase-induced emphysema [60] in mice. In a model of cancer-induced  
103 cachexia, however, bortezomib did not significantly attenuate muscle mass or function loss  
104 [15].



105           In skeletal muscles, other cellular pathways can also be targeted for the treatment of  
106 cachexia. For instance, canonical beta-agonist signaling improves muscle metabolism through  
107 the conversion of adenosine triphosphate (ATP) to cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP),  
108 that activates protein kinase A [49]. In skeletal muscles, the proportions of beta<sub>2</sub> receptors are  
109 significantly more abundant than those of beta<sub>1</sub>- and beta<sub>3</sub>-adrenoceptors [63]. Part of the  
110 beneficial effects induced by beta-agonist signaling involves a decrease in protein  
111 degradation, an increase in protein anabolism or both [49]. Interestingly, skeletal muscle  
112 growth can be achieved following treatment with beta-adrenoceptor agonists when  
113 administered at higher doses than those normally used for the treatment of airways diseases  
114 such as COPD [49]. In this regard, the long-acting beta<sub>2</sub> agonist formoterol, which has a rapid  
115 onset of action, while maintaining a long duration of action, has been shown to induce  
116 significant beneficial effects on skeletal muscles through several biological mechanisms [10-  
117 12,57]. Whether atrophy signaling may be attenuated by treatment with formoterol as another  
118 beneficial effect of beta<sub>2</sub>-adrenoceptor therapy in muscles deserves further attention in models  
119 of cachexia.

120           On this basis, we hypothesized that signaling pathways that lead to muscle mass loss  
121 and altered metabolism may be attenuated in cancer cachectic animals receiving treatment  
122 with the beta<sub>2</sub> agonist formoterol. In the current investigation, experiments on the diaphragm  
123 muscle have also been conducted as the main respiratory muscle. This approach enabled us to  
124 elucidate whether the profile of the target biological events may be influenced by the activity  
125 of the muscles. Accordingly, the study objectives were defined as follows: 1) to analyze  
126 levels of expression of signaling pathways such as NF- $\kappa$ B, MAPK, and FoxO and proteolytic  
127 markers, 2) to determine expression levels of autophagy markers, 3) to assess levels of  
128 transcription factors involved in muscle mass maintenance and metabolism, and 4) to  
129 investigate structural features in both diaphragm and gastrocnemius muscles of cachectic rats

130 bearing the Yoshida ascites hepatoma cells [10-12,26,27,57,58] in response to treatment with  
131 formoterol.

132

## 133 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

134 (Detailed information on all methodologies is described in the online supplementary material)

### 135 **2.1. Animal experiments**

#### 136 *2.1.1. Experimental design.*

137 Male Wistar rats (5 weeks, 130-165 grams, Interfauna, Barcelona, Spain) were used for the  
138 purpose of the investigation. Animals were randomly subdivided into four groups  
139 (N=10/group): 1) non-cachexia controls, 2) non-cachexia controls treated with formoterol  
140 (non-cachexia control-F), 3) cancer-cachexia rats, and 4) cancer-cachexia rats treated with  
141 formoterol (cancer-cachexia-F). Cachexia was induced as a result of an intraperitoneal  
142 inoculum of  $10^8$  AH-130 Yoshida ascites hepatoma cells, which were obtained from tumors in  
143 exponential growth as previously described [56]. Formoterol treatment was administered  
144 daily during the study period (seven days) subcutaneously (0.3 mg/kg body weight/24 hours,  
145 dissolved in physiological solution) and the non-treated animals received the corresponding  
146 volume of physiological solution subcutaneously.

147 All animal experiments were conducted at *Facultat de Biologia, Universitat de*  
148 *Barcelona (Barcelona)*. This was a controlled study designed in accordance with both the  
149 ethical standards on animal experimentation in our institution (EU 2010/63 CEE and *Real*  
150 *Decreto 53/2013 BOE 34*, Spain) and the Helsinki convention for the use and care of animals.  
151 All experiments were approved by the Institutional Animal Research Committee (*Universitat*  
152 *de Barcelona*).

### 153 **2.2. In vivo measurements in the animals**

154 Food and water were administered to the rats for the entire duration of the study. All the  
155 animals were maintained at a temperature of  $22 \pm 2$  °C with a regular light-dark cycle (lights  
156 were on from 08:00 a.m. to 08:00 p.m.) and had free access to food and water. Body weight  
157 was determined in all animals on day 0 and immediately prior to their sacrifice on day 7.  
158 Tumor weights were determined in all animals upon sacrifice. The percentage of body weight  
159 gain at the end of the study period was calculated as follows: [(body weight on day 7 – tumor  
160 weight on day 7) – body weight on day 0]/ body weight on day 0 x 100.

### 161 **2.3. Sacrifice and sample collection**

162 On day 7 after tumor transplantation, the rats were weighed and anesthetized with an  
163 intraperitoneal injection of 3:1 ketamine/xylazine mixture (Imalgene 1000, Rhone Merieux,  
164 France and Rompun®, Bayer AG, Leverkusen, Germany, respectively). In all animals, the  
165 pedal and blink reflexes were evaluated in order to verify total anesthesia depth. Each tumor  
166 was harvested from the peritoneal cavity, and the volume and cellularity were evaluated. The  
167 diaphragm and gastrocnemius muscles were obtained from all the rats. In all samples, a  
168 fragment of the muscle specimens was immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and  
169 subsequently stored at -80°C, while the remaining specimen was immersed in an alcohol-  
170 formol bath to be thereafter embedded in paraffin until further use. Frozen tissues were used  
171 to assess the expression of the target molecular markers, whereas paraffin-embedded tissues  
172 were used for the histological studies.

### 173 **2.4. Muscle biology analyses**

174 All the muscle biological experiments were performed in the same laboratory at *Hospital del*  
175 *Mar-IMIM-Universitat Pompeu Fabra* (Barcelona).

#### 176 2.4.1. *Muscle fiber counts and morphometry*

177 Muscle fibers of diaphragm and gastrocnemius were identified on three-micrometer paraffin-  
178 embedded sections of all groups of mice. MyHC-I (slow-twitch fibers) and MyHC-II (fast-

179 twitch fibers) isoforms were identified using anti-MyHC-I and anti-MyHC-II antibodies  
180 (Sigma- Aldrich, Saint Louis, MO, USA), respectively, as previously described [14-18,50].

#### 181 2.4.2. *Muscle structural abnormalities*

182 The area fraction of normal and abnormal muscle was evaluated on three-micrometer  
183 paraffin-embedded sections of the diaphragm and gastrocnemius muscles in all study groups  
184 following previously published methodologies [14-18,45,46,50].

#### 185 2.4.3. *Terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase-mediated uridine 5'-triphosphate (UTP) nick-* 186 *end labeling (TUNEL) assay*

187 In muscle paraffin-embedded sections, apoptotic nuclei were identified using the TUNEL  
188 assay (In Situ Cell Death Detection Kit, POD, Roche Applied Science, Mannheim, Germany)  
189 in both diaphragm and gastrocnemius muscles from all study groups following the  
190 manufacturer's instructions and previously published studies [4,15,17,50].

#### 191 2.4.4. *Immunoblotting*

192 Protein levels of the different molecular markers analyzed in the study were explored by  
193 means of immunoblotting procedures as previously described [14-18,25,45,46,50,51].

194 The following primary antibodies were used: anti-mammalian target of rapamycin  
195 (mTOR; 1:1000, #2972S), anti-serine/threonine kinase 1 (AKT; 1:1000, #9272S), anti-  
196 phospho-AKT (1:750, 9271S), and anti-microtubule-associated protein 1 light chain 3 (LC3;  
197 1:1000, #2775S) antibodies from Cell signaling (Boston, MA, USA), anti-20S proteasome  
198 subunit C8 antibody (1:5000, BML-PW8110-0100) from Biomol (Plymouth Meeting, PA,  
199 USA), anti-protein ubiquitination antibody (1:5000, A-100) from Boston Biochem  
200 (Cambridge, MA, USA), anti-nucleoporin p62 (p62; 1:1000, P0067) antibody from Sigma-  
201 Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA), anti-myostatin (1:2000, A300-401A) antibody from Bethyl  
202 (Montgomery, TX, USA), anti-muscle ring finger protein-1 (MuRF-1; 1:2000, sc-27642),  
203 anti-atrogin-1 (1:1000, sc-166806), anti-tripartite motif-containing protein 32 (TRIM32;

204 1:500, sc-49265), anti-spectrin (1:500, sc-46696), anti-beclin-1 (1:200, sc-11427), anti-  
205 myoblast determination protein 1 (myoD; 1:500, sc-760), anti-peroxisome proliferator-  
206 activated receptor (PPAR)-alpha (1:500, sc-9000), anti-PPAR-gamma (1:500, sc-7196), anti-  
207 peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma coactivator (PGC) 1-alpha (1:500, sc-  
208 13067), anti-nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NF-kB) p65  
209 (1:500, sc-8008), anti-phospho- NF-kB p65 (1:500, sc-101749), anti-nuclear factor of kappa  
210 light polypeptide gene enhancer in B-cells inhibitor (I $\kappa$ B) –alpha (1:500, sc-847), anti-  
211 phospho-I $\kappa$ B-alpha (1:500, sc-7977), anti-phospho-forkhead box protein O1 (FoxO-1; 1:750,  
212 sc-7977), anti-extracellular signal-regulated kinases (ERK)1/2 (1:1000, sc-157), anti-  
213 phospho-ERK1/2 (1:500, sc-16982), anti-p38 (1:1000, sc-7149), anti-phospho-p38 (1:1000,  
214 sc-101759), anti- B-Cell CLL/Lymphoma 2 (BCL-2; 1:500, sc-7382), anti-BCL2 associated  
215 X protein (BAX; 1:500, sc-526), and anti-glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase  
216 (GAPDH; 1:2000, sc-25778) antibodies from Santa Cruz (Santa Cruz, CA, USA), anti-FoxO-  
217 1 (1:1000, 04-1005) antibody from Millipore (Billerica, MA, USA), anti-FoxO-3 antibody  
218 (1:500, AP20683PU-N) from Acris (Aachen, Germany), and anti-phospho-FoxO-3 antibody  
219 (1:500, BS5019) from Bioworld Technology (St. Louis, MO, USA).

220       Optical densities of specific proteins were quantified using the software Image Lab  
221 version 2.0.1 (Bio-Rad Laboratories). Final optical densities obtained in each specific group  
222 of animals corresponded to the mean values of the different samples (lanes) of each of the  
223 study antigens. Values of total protein ubiquitination in a given sample were calculated by  
224 addition of optical densities (arbitrary units) of individual protein bands in each case. Values  
225 of optical densities (arbitrary units) of the activated proteins: NF-kB p65, I $\kappa$ B-alpha, ERK  
226 1/2, p38 and AKT were calculated as the ratio of the phosphorylated protein to total protein  
227 content for each of these signaling markers. Values of optical densities (arbitrary units) of the  
228 activated proteins FoxO-1 and FoXO-3 were calculated as the ratio of total protein to  
229 phosphorylated protein content in each case. Values of optical densities (arbitrary units) of the

230 ratio of calpain-cleaved alpha II-spectrin were calculated as the ratio of calpain (145 kDa) to  
231 alpha II-spectrin (250 kDa). To validate equal protein loading across lanes, the glycolytic  
232 enzyme GAPDH was used as the protein loading control in all immunoblots (Figures S3-S6  
233 and S8-S9).

#### 234 2.4.5. RNA extraction

235 Total RNA was first isolated from snap-frozen skeletal muscle specimens using Trizol reagent  
236 following the manufacturer's protocol (Life technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Total RNA  
237 concentrations were determined spectrophotometrically using the NanoDrop 1000 (Thermo  
238 Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) as previously described [14,16,43-45].

#### 239 2.4.6. Gene expression was assessed using qRT-PCR.

240 A single RT was performed from which all the target genes of the study were analyzed. First-  
241 strand cDNA was generated from mRNA using oligo(dT)<sub>12-18</sub> primers and the Super-Script III  
242 reverse transcriptase following the manufacturer's instructions (Life technologies). TaqMan  
243 based qPCR reactions were performed using the ABI PRISM 7900HT Sequence Detector  
244 System (Life technologies) together with commercially available gene expression assays. The  
245 probes corresponding to the following genes involved in proteolytic system were tested: *murf-*  
246 *1* (Rn00590197\_m1, Life technologies), *atrogen-1* (Rn00591730\_m1, Life technologies), and  
247 *trim32* (Rn01764787\_m1, Life technologies). The housekeeping gene *gapdh*  
248 (Rn01775763\_g1, Life technologies) served as the endogenous control for mRNA gene  
249 expression. Reactions were run in triplicates, and mRNA data were collected and  
250 subsequently analyzed using the Expression Suite software v1.1 (Applied Biosystems, Foster  
251 City, CA, USA), in which the comparative C<sub>T</sub> method ( $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_T}$ ) for relative quantification was  
252 employed. Results are shown as the relative expression of that in the non-cachexia control  
253 group, which was set to equal to 1.

254

255

## 256 **2.5. Statistical Analysis**

257 The normality of the study variables was verified using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Equality of  
258 variance for the study variables was tested using the Levene's test. As established results are  
259 represented as mean (standard deviation) [41]. Comparisons between all study groups were  
260 analyzed using the two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Subsequently, *Tukey post-hoc*  
261 analysis was used to adjust for multiple comparisons among the different study groups. The  
262 sample size chosen was based on previous studies [14-18,45,46,50] and on assumptions of  
263 80% power to detect an improvement of more than 20% in measured outcomes at a level of  
264 significance of  $p \leq 0.05$ . All statistical analyses were performed using the Statistical Package  
265 for the Social Science (Portable SPSS, PASW statistics 18.0 version for Windows, SPSS Inc.,  
266 Chicago, IL, USA).

267

## 268 **3. RESULTS**

### 269 **3.1. Physiological characteristics of the study animals**

270 At the end of the study period, cancer-cachexia rats exhibited a significant reduction in final  
271 body weight and body weight gain parameters compared to non-cachexia controls (Table 1).  
272 Treatment with formoterol induced a significant improvement in body weight gain of cancer-  
273 cachectic rats (Table 1). The weights of diaphragm and gastrocnemius muscles were  
274 significantly reduced in cancer-cachexia rats compared to non-cachexia controls (Table 1).  
275 Treatment with formoterol elicited a significant improvement in the weight of the  
276 gastrocnemius (similar to that in non-tumor controls), while it did not significantly ameliorate  
277 the weight of the diaphragm in the cancer-cachectic rats (Table 1). No significant differences  
278 were observed in the tumor cell content or weight between cancer-cachexia rats with or  
279 without treatment with formoterol (Table 1).

280

281



### 282 **3.2. Effects of formoterol on muscle phenotype**

283 The proportions of slow- and fast- twitch fibers did not significantly differ in the study  
284 muscles between cancer-cachectic rats and non-cachexia control animals (Table 2 and Figure  
285 S1). The fiber cross-sectional areas significantly decreased in both diaphragm and  
286 gastrocnemius muscles of cancer-cachexia rats compared to non-cachexia controls (Table 2  
287 and Figure S1). Specifically, in the cachectic rats compared to non-cachectic control animals,  
288 the sizes of slow- and fast-twitch fibers were reduced by 23% and 32%, respectively, in the  
289 diaphragm and by 28% and 21%, respectively, in the gastrocnemius (Table 2 and Figure S1).  
290 Treatment of the cachectic rats with formoterol induced a significant improvement of the sizes  
291 of the slow- and fast-twitch fibers in the study muscles: 19% and 30% (diaphragm,  
292 respectively) and 78% and 26% (gastrocnemius, respectively), compared to non-treated  
293 control animals (Table 2 and Figure S1). Recovery of fiber sizes reached levels observed in  
294 the non-cachectic control animals following treatment with formoterol only in the  
295 gastrocnemius, particularly in the slow-twitch fibers (Table 2 and Figure S1).

296 Muscle structural abnormalities were significantly greater in both diaphragm and  
297 gastrocnemius muscles of cancer-cachexia rats than in non-cachexia controls (Table 3 and  
298 Figure S2). Treatment with formoterol significantly improved the structural abnormalities in  
299 both muscles, especially in the diaphragm, of the cachectic rats, and levels were similar to  
300 those found in the non-cachectic control animals (Table 3 and Figure S2).

### 301 **3.3. Effects of formoterol on atrophy signaling pathways in muscles**

302 Activated NF-kB p65 levels significantly increased in diaphragm and gastrocnemius muscles  
303 of cancer-cachexia rats compared to non-cachexia controls, and formoterol treatment  
304 attenuated such an increase in both muscles, whose levels were similar to those in the control  
305 animals (Figures 1A and S3-4). Activated I $\kappa$ B-alpha levels were significantly lower in  
306 respiratory and limb muscles of cancer-cachectic rats than in non-cachexia controls (Figures  
307 1B and S3-4). Protein levels of activated FoxO-3 significantly increased in both muscles of



308 cancer-cachexia rats compared to non-cachexia controls (Figures 1C and S3-4). Formoterol  
309 treatment did not induce any significant effect on activated I $\kappa$ B-alpha or FoxO-3 protein  
310 levels in the study muscles of the cancer-cachexia rats, and in the latter marker levels were  
311 similar to the controls (Figures 1B, 1C, and S3-4). No significant differences were observed  
312 in the levels of activated FoxO-1, ERK1/2, or p38 in any study muscle between cancer-  
313 cachexia rats and non-cachexia controls in any muscle among study groups (Figures 1D-F and  
314 S3-4).

#### 315 **3.4. Effects of formoterol on proteolytic markers in muscles**

316 In diaphragm and gastrocnemius muscles, gene expression of MuRF-1 significantly increased  
317 in both muscles of cancer-cachexia rats compared to non-cachexia controls, while no  
318 significant differences were observed in MuRF-1 protein levels in any muscle among study  
319 groups (Figures 2A and S5). Expression of atrogin-1 was only significantly increased in  
320 gastrocnemius muscles of cancer-cachexia rats compared to non-cachexia controls, but again  
321 no significant differences were observed in atrogin-1 protein levels in muscles among the  
322 study groups (Figures 2B and S5). No significant differences were observed in either gene  
323 expression or protein levels of TRIM32 in any muscles among study groups (Figures 2C and  
324 S5). Total protein ubiquitination and C8-20S subunit levels were significantly higher in both  
325 muscles of cancer-cachexia rats than in non-cachexia animals (Figures 2D-E and S5).  
326 Treatment with formoterol induced a significant decrease in C8-20S protein levels of  
327 diaphragm and gastrocnemius muscles in the cancer-cachectic rats, whose levels were similar  
328 to those in the controls, while protein ubiquitination was not modified by the beta<sub>2</sub> agonist  
329 (Figures 2D and S5).

#### 330 **3.5. Effects of formoterol on autophagy markers in muscles**

331 Protein levels of P62 and beclin-1 significantly increased in the diaphragm of cancer-cachexia  
332 rats compared to non-cachexia controls (Figures 3A-B and S6). A significant rise in LC3  
333 protein levels was also detected in diaphragm and gastrocnemius muscles of cancer-cachexia

334 rats compared to non-cachexia controls, and treatment with formoterol of the former animals  
335 significantly attenuated such an increase in both muscles (similar to control rats) (Figures 3C  
336 and S6). Myostatin protein levels significantly increased in both muscles of cancer-cachectic  
337 rats compared to non-cachexia controls and formoterol treatment significantly attenuated such  
338 an increase (similar to controls, Figures 3D and S6). Levels of calpain-cleaved  $\alpha$  II-spectrin in  
339 diaphragm and gastrocnemius did not significantly differ between cancer-cachexia rats and  
340 non-cachexia controls (Figures 3E and S6).

### 341 **3.6. Effects of formoterol on apoptosis markers in muscles**

342 TUNEL positively-stained nuclei were significantly higher in diaphragm and gastrocnemius  
343 muscles of cancer-cachexia rats than in non-cachexia controls (Figures 4A and S7). Treatment  
344 of cancer-cachexia rats with formoterol significantly reduced TUNEL positively-stained  
345 nuclei in the diaphragm (similar to controls), but not in the limb muscle (Figures 4A and S7).  
346 In cancer cachectic rats, BAX protein levels were increased only in the diaphragm, and  
347 formoterol treatment significantly reduced those levels in the respiratory muscle of the  
348 cachectic animals (Figures 4B and S8). Protein levels of BCL-2 did not differ among any of  
349 the study muscles (Figures 4C and S8).

### 350 **3.7. Effects of formoterol on markers of muscle mass maintenance and metabolism**

351 In diaphragm and gastrocnemius muscles of cancer-cachexia rats, levels of mTOR were  
352 significantly reduced compared to non-cachexia controls (Figures 5A and S9). Activated AKT  
353 levels only significantly decreased in gastrocnemius muscles, but not in diaphragm, of cancer-  
354 cachexia rats compared to non-cachexia controls (Figures 5B and S9). Protein levels of MyoD  
355 and PGC-1alpha were significantly reduced in diaphragm and gastrocnemius muscles in  
356 cancer-cachexia rats compared to non-cachexia controls (Figures 5C-D and S9). No  
357 significant differences were observed in levels of PPAR-alpha or PPAR-gamma in either  
358 diaphragm or gastrocnemius muscles of cancer-cachectic rats compared to non-cachexia  
359 animals (Figures 5E-F and S9). Formoterol treatment did not induce any significant effects in

360 markers of muscle mass maintenance and metabolism (mTOR, AKT, MyoD, PGC-1alpha,  
361 PPAR-alpha, PPAR-gamma, Figures 5A-F and S9).

362

#### 363 4. DISCUSSION

364 In the current study, the hypothesis has been confirmed: administration of the beta<sub>2</sub> agonist  
365 for seven days attenuated the activation of atrophy signaling pathways and myostatin system,  
366 while improving the expression of proteolytic markers and muscle structural alterations in  
367 both diaphragm and gastrocnemius muscles of the cancer cachectic rats. Levels of markers  
368 involved in muscle repair and maintenance were not affected by formoterol treatment,  
369 suggesting that the beta<sub>2</sub> agonist rather prevented proteolysis than favored muscle repair and  
370 protein anabolism. Interestingly, formoterol treatment did not elicit any significant differences  
371 in tumor weights or number of cells in the cancer cachectic rats. The most relevant findings  
372 observed in the study are discussed below.

373 The Yoshida AH-130 ascites hepatoma is a suitable approach to study the underlying  
374 biological events of muscle wasting in cancer-induced cachexia, as already demonstrated in  
375 several investigations [10-12,26-28,51]. In the study, expression levels of activated NF-κB  
376 p65 and FoxO3 were significantly increased in both respiratory and limb muscles. These  
377 findings are consistent with previous reports, in which expression of these transcription  
378 factors was upregulated in skeletal muscles of tumor-bearing mice [15,18]. Furthermore,  
379 levels of total protein ubiquitination and content of the proteasome subunit C8-20S were also  
380 significantly greater in both respiratory and limb muscles of the cancer cachectic rats  
381 compared to the non-cachectic controls. These results are also in line with previous studies, in  
382 which levels of protein ubiquitination and proteasome content were increased in muscles of  
383 rodents with cancer cachexia [15,18], with disuse-induced muscle atrophy [17], and in  
384 patients with lung cancer cachexia and COPD [46].

385           The novelty in the present study was the attenuation or even the improvement in the  
386 atrophy signaling pathways analyzed in the muscles of the cancer cachectic rats in response to  
387 treatment with formoterol for seven days. Importantly, levels of the proteolytic markers total  
388 protein ubiquitination and proteasome content were also significantly attenuated, especially  
389 the latter, in both respiratory and limb muscles of the cancer cachectic rats treated with the  
390  $\beta_2$  agonist for one week. These findings suggest that formoterol attenuate ATP-dependent  
391 proteolysis through inhibition of the ubiquitin-proteasome proteolytic pathway. In fact, a  
392 previous study demonstrated a significant downregulation of the expression of proteasome  
393 subunits in limb muscles of cancer cachectic rats treated with formoterol [10]. It should be  
394 mentioned that in this model of cancer cachexia, muscle protein levels of MAPK signaling  
395 pathway and those of the E3 ligases MuRF-1, atrogin-1, and TRIM32 did not significantly  
396 differ between cachectic and non-cachectic conditions, and formoterol treatment did not have  
397 any significant effect on those muscles. Nonetheless, gene expression levels of MuRF-1 were  
398 upregulated in both diaphragm and gastrocnemius, while those of atrogin-1 were only  
399 upregulated in the cachectic limb muscle. Moreover, gene and protein expression levels of  
400 TRIM32 did not significantly differ among study groups for any of the muscles. Collectively,  
401 these results imply a potential transcriptional regulation of the atrogenes in this model as  
402 previously reported [9]. On the other hand, specific characteristics of experimental models,  
403 type of tumors, or duration of the study period may account for differences encountered in the  
404 levels of expression of the proteolytic markers in the target muscles across studies [15,18].  
405 Indeed, a recent study from our group showed that the ubiquitin-proteasome system was not  
406 involved in the process of muscle wasting associated with lung cancer carcinogenesis in mice  
407 [50].

408           As expected, body and muscle weights were significantly reduced in the cancer  
409 cachectic rats and formoterol treatment attenuated such alterations. Interestingly, atrophy of  
410 both slow- and fast-twitch fibers was also observed in the respiratory and limb muscles of the

411 cancer cachectic rats, as shown in other models [15,18,50]. Interestingly, formoterol therapy  
412 for seven days significantly reversed (to control levels or even better in the limb muscle) the  
413 atrophy of the muscle fibers, especially of the slow-twitch fibers in the gastrocnemius, in  
414 which the improvement was substantial. Indeed, previous results have already demonstrated  
415 that beta<sub>2</sub> agonists particularly improved the function and structure of the slow-twitch fibers  
416 [38]. These observations also reinforce the validation of the model and the effects of treatment  
417 with beta-adrenoceptors, as also previously demonstrated in other experimental conditions  
418 [10-12,38].

419 A significant rise in several structural abnormalities such as inflammatory cell and  
420 internal nuclei counts was also observed in the diaphragm and gastrocnemius muscles of the  
421 cancer cachectic rats. Importantly, treatment with formoterol significantly attenuated all the  
422 structural alterations, especially in the diaphragm, of the cachectic rats. These results also  
423 suggest that a damage-repair mechanism may take place similarly in the fibers of both  
424 respiratory and limb muscles during the muscle wasting process. As a matter of fact, the rise  
425 in inflammatory cells and internal nuclei imply the existence of an underlying repair process  
426 following injury of the cachectic muscles during the muscle wasting process.

427 Moreover, as previously shown in muscles of cachectic animals [7,14] and in patients  
428 with COPD [4,46] and LC [46], the number of apoptotic nuclei was also significantly  
429 increased in the respiratory and limb muscles of the tumor-bearing rats. A significant rise in  
430 protein levels of BAX was only observed in the diaphragm muscle of the cancer cachectic  
431 rats, and formoterol significantly attenuated such an increase in the respiratory muscle. It is  
432 likely that differences in the activity of each type of muscle may account for the differences in  
433 the levels of expression of the apoptotic marker BAX as the diaphragm must maintain  
434 continuously its activity in the animals. Levels of the antiaoptotic BCL-2 did not differ in  
435 any muscle among the study groups of rats.

436 A relevant finding in the study was the specificity of the effects of the beta<sub>2</sub> agonist  
437 formoterol on skeletal muscles but not on tumor growth (cell numbers) or size of the cancer  
438 cachectic rats. Interestingly, it has been suggested that beta-adrenergic signaling regulate  
439 tumor growth among other cellular processes and that beta-blockers may be used as adjuvant  
440 therapies in the management of patients with cancer [19,20,39]. In the study, formoterol  
441 treatment did not induce any significant effects on tumor growth in the cancer cachectic rats,  
442 implying that the beta<sub>2</sub> agonist exerted selective effects on the muscle fibers of the animals.

443 A novel finding in the study was the significant rise in the levels of the autophagy  
444 markers p62, beclin-1, and LC3 in the limb muscle and diaphragm, especially the latter, of the  
445 cancer cachectic rats compared to the non-cachectic control animals. These results are in  
446 keeping with a previous study conducted on a mouse model of carcinogenesis induced by  
447 urethane administration [50], in which autophagy markers were also increased in both  
448 diaphragm and gastrocnemius of mice with lung cancer cachexia. Indeed, in that study [50]  
449 autophagy and apoptosis were the most relevant contributors to muscle atrophy in both  
450 respiratory and limb muscles.

451 In the current investigation, beclin-1 and p62 were significantly increased only in the  
452 diaphragm of the cancer cachectic rats, while a rise in LC3-II/I ratio levels were seen in both  
453 respiratory and limb muscles of these rodents. These observations suggest that autophagy is  
454 differentially regulated in the diaphragm in this model of cancer cachexia probably to  
455 maintaining the turnover of cell components as previously implied in the pathophysiology of  
456 muscular dystrophies, in which autophagy was defective [29]. A novel finding in the  
457 investigation was the significant reduction in LC3-II/I ratio levels induced by formoterol  
458 therapy in both diaphragm and gastrocnemius muscles. These results were partly in agreement  
459 with those previously reported in a model of fast-twitch muscle hypertrophy [30], in which  
460 the kinetics of anabolic and catabolic markers and autophagy were studied in response to  
461 treatment with formoterol at several time-points. Importantly, formoterol therapy for several

462 days also reduced the expression of autophagy markers in the rats with muscle hypertrophy  
463 [30].

464 Interestingly, protein levels of myostatin were significantly greater in both respiratory  
465 and limb muscles of cancer cachectic rats. These findings are similar to previous reports, in  
466 which myostatin system was also upregulated in models of cancer-induced cachexia [11,15].  
467 Furthermore, formoterol also induced a downregulation of the myostatin levels as a result of  
468 an upregulation of follistatin expression, thus, improving muscle mass in the cachectic rats  
469 [11]. The current observations are also in agreement with the previous findings [11] as to the  
470 effects of treatment with the beta<sub>2</sub> agonist in the cachectic rats.

471 Levels of mTOR as a marker of protein synthesis were significantly decreased in the  
472 diaphragm and gastrocnemius of the cancer cachectic rats. Importantly, in these muscles of  
473 tumor-bearing rats treated with formoterol for seven days, mTOR levels did not differ from  
474 those seen in the non-treated cachectic animals. Protein levels of activated AKT were also  
475 reduced in the gastrocnemius, but not the respiratory muscle, of the cancer cachectic rats, and  
476 formoterol did not elicit a significant improvement in its levels in any of the study muscles.  
477 These findings are in contrast with previous results in which AKT-mTOR pathway was  
478 activated in response to formoterol therapy in the limb muscles of rats, especially in the early  
479 phases of the treatment [30]. Differences in experimental design and models may account for  
480 the discrepancies among studies.

481 Alterations in the levels of muscle regeneration were previously reported in cancer-  
482 cachexia models [58]. Similarly, in the present study, protein levels of myoD were also  
483 significantly lower in both respiratory and limb muscles of the cancer cachectic rats than in  
484 the controls. Importantly, formoterol treatment prevented a further decline in myoD in the  
485 cachectic muscles. PPARs are powerful regulators of skeletal muscle metabolism and  
486 mitochondrial biogenesis [31,33]. Moreover, they also play a role in the fiber type shift  
487 towards a more resistant phenotype in skeletal muscles [47]. Signaling of muscle atrophy

488 may also be mediated by PPARs in cachectic conditions [48]. In the present study, levels of  
489 PGC-1alpha, but not those of PPAR-alpha or PPAR-gamma, were significantly lower in  
490 respiratory and limb muscles of the cachectic rats than control rodents. These findings are in  
491 line with previous investigations, in which PPAR levels were altered in muscles of cachectic  
492 rats [28] and mice [50,53] and lower limb muscles of patients with respiratory cachexia [48].  
493 Treatment with the beta<sub>2</sub> agonist prevented a further decline in PGC-1alpha levels of both  
494 study muscles of the cancer cachectic rats, as previously shown to occur in a rat model of  
495 hypertrophy [30]. Collectively, these findings imply that important metabolic alterations took  
496 place in both respiratory and limb muscles that were partly attenuated by treatment with the  
497 beta<sub>2</sub> agonist formoterol in this experimental model of cancer-induced cachexia.

#### 498 **4.1. Conclusions**

499 We conclude that muscle wasting in this *in vivo* model of cancer-induced cachexia is  
500 characterized by the induction of significant structural alterations, atrophy signaling  
501 pathways, proteasome activity, autophagy markers, and myostatin system, along with a  
502 significant decline in the expression of muscle regenerative and metabolic markers of both  
503 respiratory and limb muscles in a similar fashion. Treatment of the cachectic rats with  
504 formoterol for seven days partly attenuated the structural alterations, while improving atrophy  
505 signaling pathways and other molecular perturbations in both diaphragm and gastrocnemius.  
506 The results reported in this study have relevant therapeutic implications as they showed  
507 beneficial effects of the beta<sub>2</sub> agonist formoterol in respiratory and limb muscles of the  
508 cachectic rats through several key biological pathways in a similar manner.

509



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520 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

521 The authors declare no conflict of interest in relation to this study.

522 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

523 **Anna Salazar-Degracia:** molecular biology, data analyses and interpretation, results  
524 preparation including graphical and tabular representation, and manuscript draft writing

525 **Sílvia Busquets:** study design, animal experiments, data analyses and interpretation, and  
526 manuscript draft writing

527 **Josep M. Argilès:** study design, data analyses and interpretation, results preparation, and  
528 manuscript draft writing

529 **Núria Bargalló-Gispert:** molecular biology experiments and results preparation in the  
530 revised manuscript

531 **Francisco J. Lopez-Soriano:** study design, data analyses and interpretation, results  
532 preparation, and manuscript draft writing

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534 manuscript writing final version

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798 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

799 **Figure 1:** Mean values and standard deviation of the following markers: (A) activated NF-kB  
 800 p6, (B) activated I $\kappa$ B-alpha, (C) activated FoxO-3, (D) activated FoxO-1, (E) activated  
 801 ERK1/2, and (F) activated p38 activated in diaphragm (black bars) and gastrocnemius (grey  
 802 bars) muscles as measured by optical densities in arbitrary units (OD, a.u.). **Definition of**  
 803 **abbreviations:** NF-kB p65, nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells  
 804 p65; I $\kappa$ B-alpha, nuclear factor kappa polypeptide gene enhancer in B-cells inhibitor, alpha;  
 805 FoxO, forkhead box protein; ERK1/2, extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2; F, formoterol.  
 806 **Statistical significance:** \*  $p \leq 0.05$  and \*\*  $p \leq 0.01$  between non-cachexia controls and cancer-  
 807 cachexia rats; §  $p \leq 0.05$  between cancer-cachexia rats and cancer-cachexia rats treated with  
 808 formoterol.

809 **Figure 2:** Mean values and standard deviation of the following markers: (A) MuRF-1 (B)  
 810 atrogin-1, and (C) TRIM32 expressed as a relative mRNA levels (left panel) and a protein  
 811 content (right panel), (D) C8-20S, and (E) total ubiquitinated expressed only protein content  
 812 in diaphragm (black bars) and gastrocnemius (grey bars) muscles. Protein content as  
 813 measured by optical densities in arbitrary units (OD, a.u.). **Definition of abbreviations:**  
 814 MuRF-1, muscle ring finger protein-1; TRIM32, tripartite motif-containing protein 32; C8-  
 815 20S, 20S proteasome alpha subunit C8; F, formoterol. **Statistical significance:** \*  $p \leq 0.05$ , \*\*  
 816  $p \leq 0.01$ , and \*\*\*  $p \leq 0.001$  between non-cachexia controls and cancer-cachexia rats; §  $p \leq 0.05$   
 817 and §§  $p \leq 0.01$  between cancer-cachexia rats and cancer-cachexia rats treated with  
 818 formoterol.

819 **Figure 3:** Mean values and standard deviation of the following markers: (A) P62, (B) beclin-  
 820 1, (C) ratio of LC3-II/LC3-I, (D) myostatin, and (E) ratio of calpain-cleaved alpha II-spectrin  
 821 protein content in diaphragm (black bars) and gastrocnemius (grey bars) muscles as measured  
 822 by optical densities in arbitrary units (OD, a.u.). **Definition of abbreviations:** P62,  
 823 nucleoporin p62; LC3, microtubule-associated protein 1 light chain 3; F, formoterol. **Statistical**

824 **significance:** \*  $p \leq 0.05$  and \*\*  $p \leq 0.01$  between non-cachexia controls and cancer-cachexia  
825 rats; §  $p \leq 0.05$ , §§  $p \leq 0.01$ , and §§§  $p \leq 0.001$  between cancer-cachexia rats and cancer-  
826 cachexia rats treated with formoterol.

827 **Figure 4:** Mean values and standard deviation of (A) the percentage of positively stained  
828 nuclei for the TUNEL assay and the following markers: (B) BAX, and (C) BCL-2 protein  
829 content in diaphragm (black bars) and gastrocnemius (grey bars) muscles as measured by  
830 optical densities in arbitrary units (OD, a.u.). **Definition of abbreviations:** BAX, BCL2  
831 associated X protein; BCL-2, B-Cell CLL/Lymphoma 2; F, formoterol. **Statistical**  
832 **significance:** \*  $p \leq 0.05$ , \*\*  $p \leq 0.01$  and \*\*\*  $p \leq 0.001$  between non-cachexia controls and  
833 cancer-cachexia rats; §  $p \leq 0.05$ , and §§§  $p \leq 0.001$  between cancer-cachexia rats and cancer-  
834 cachexia rats treated with formoterol.

835 **Figure 5:** Mean values and standard deviation of the following markers: (A) mTOR, (B)  
836 activated AKT, (C) myOD, (D) PGC-1alpha, (E) PPAR-alpha, and (F) PPAR-gamma in  
837 diaphragm (black bars) and gastrocnemius (grey bars) muscles as measured by optical  
838 densities in arbitrary units (OD, a.u.). **Definition of abbreviations:** mTOR, mammalian target  
839 of rapamycin; AKT, serine/threonine kinase 1; myoD, myogenic differentiation 1; PGC-  
840 1alpha, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma coactivator 1-alpha; PPAR,  
841 peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor; F, formoterol. **Statistical significance:** \*  $p \leq 0.05$ ,  
842 \*\*  $p \leq 0.01$ , and \*\*\*  $p \leq 0.001$  between non-cachexia controls and cancer-cachexia rats.

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**Table 1. Total body and muscle weights in rats of the study groups.**

	Non-cachexia control	Non-cachexia control-formoterol	Cancer-cachexia	Cancer-cachexia-formoterol
Initial body weight (g)	128.1 (6.4)	124.4 (8.1)	126.8 (11.8)	124.4 (7.1)
Tumor weight (g)	-	-	45.3 (5.8)	41.3 (7.7)
Tumor cell content	-	-	$3.6 \times 10^9$ ( $4 \cdot 10^8$ )	$3.4 \times 10^9$ ( $6 \cdot 10^8$ )
Final body weight (g)	164.0 (11.3)	161.3 (8.7)	119.5 (10.0)***	124.8 (8.0)
Body weight gain (%)	+ 27.9 (3.7)	+ 29.7 (2.8)	-5.6 (4.8) ***	+ 0.4 (4.1) §
Diaphragm weight (mg/ 100g IBW)	290.2 (31.9)	319.6 (49.2)	126.7 (13.9)***	128.6 (17.5)
Gastrocnemius weight (mg/ 100g IBW)	693.3 (36.8)	708.0 (13.1)	512.4 (34.7) ***	636.3 (3.1) §§§

Values are expressed as mean (standard deviation). Definition of abbreviations: g, gram; mg, milligram; IBW, initial body weight. Statistical significance: \*\*\*  $p \leq 0.001$  between the non-cachexia controls and cancer-cachexia rats; §  $p \leq 0.05$  and §§§  $p \leq 0.001$  between cancer-cachexia rats and cancer-cachexia rats treated with formoterol.

**Table 2. Muscle fiber type composition and morphometry in diaphragm and gastrocnemius of all study groups.**

	Non-cachexia control	Non-cachexia control-formoterol	Cancer-cachexia	Cancer-cachexia-formoterol
<b>Diaphragm</b>				
Type I fibers (%)	34.9 (5.30)	31.5 (3.90)	33.3 (4.45)	32.1 (3.99)
Type II fibers (%)	65.1 (5.30)	68.5 (3.90)	66.7 (4.45)	67.9 (3.99)
Type I fibers area ( $\mu\text{m}^2$ )	566.4 (66.2)	570.9 (121.2)	438.0 (69.8) **	519.3 (63.5) §
Type II fibers area ( $\mu\text{m}^2$ )	677.4 (55.1)	718.2 (154.4)	461.9 (90.8) ***	599.5 (75.7) §§
<b>Gastrocnemius</b>				
Type I fibers (%)	22.5 (3.84)	21.8 (5.24)	22.9 (4.27)	21.6 (8.08)
Type II fibers (%)	77.5 (3.84)	78.2 (5.24)	77.1 (4.27)	78.4 (8.08)
Type I fibers area ( $\mu\text{m}^2$ )	588.2 (90.5)	523.7 (208.1)	424.8 (120.5) **	756.2 (231.1) §§
Type II fibers area ( $\mu\text{m}^2$ )	849.2 (156.2)	850.9 (154.4)	669.2 (152.3) *	844.2 (110.2) §§

Values are expressed as mean (standard deviation). Definition of abbreviations:  $\mu\text{m}$ , micrometer. Statistical significance: \*  $p \leq 0.05$ , \*\*  $p \leq 0.01$  and \*\*\*  $p \leq 0.001$  between the non-cachexia controls and cancer-cachexia rats; §  $p \leq 0.05$  and §§  $p \leq 0.01$  between cancer-cachexia rats and cancer-cachexia rats treated with formoterol.

**Table 3. Structural abnormalities in diaphragm and gastrocnemius of all study groups.**

	Non-cachexia control	Non-cachexia control-formoterol	Cancer-cachexia	Cancer-cachexia-formoterol
<b>Diaphragm</b>				
Abnormal fraction area (%)	5.29 (0.87)	4.90 (0.78)	10.14 (1.94) ***	5.43 (1.44) §§§
Internal nuclei (%)	3.02 (1.19)	2.93 (1.34)	4.24 (1.56) p=0.100	2.43 (1.20) §
Cellular inflammation (%)	1.64 (1.58)	1.36 (1.42)	4.39 (2.14) *	2.45 (2.15) p=0.067
Other items (%)	0.63 (0.66)	0.61 (0.46)	1.51 (0.93) *	0.55 (0.39) §§
<b>Gastrocnemius</b>				
Abnormal fraction area (%)	2.59 (0.52)	2.51 (0.46)	4.15 (0.81) ***	3.02 (0.91) §§§
Internal nuclei (%)	1.32 (0.70)	1.08 (0.15)	2.1 (0.73) *	1.51 (0.82) p=0.075
Cellular inflammation (%)	1.13 (0.25)	1.35 (0.63)	1.89 (0.70) *	1.31 (0.66)
Other items (%)	0.14 (0.12)	0.08 (0.20)	0.16 (0.13)	0.20 (0.23)

Values are expressed as mean (standard deviation). Statistical significance: \*  $p \leq 0.05$  and \*\*\*  $p \leq 0.001$  between the non-cachexia controls and cancer-cachexia rats; §  $p \leq 0.05$ , §§  $p \leq 0.01$  and §§§  $p \leq 0.001$  between cancer-cachexia rats and cancer-cachexia rats treated with formoterol.

Figure 1. Salazar-Degracia A. et al.

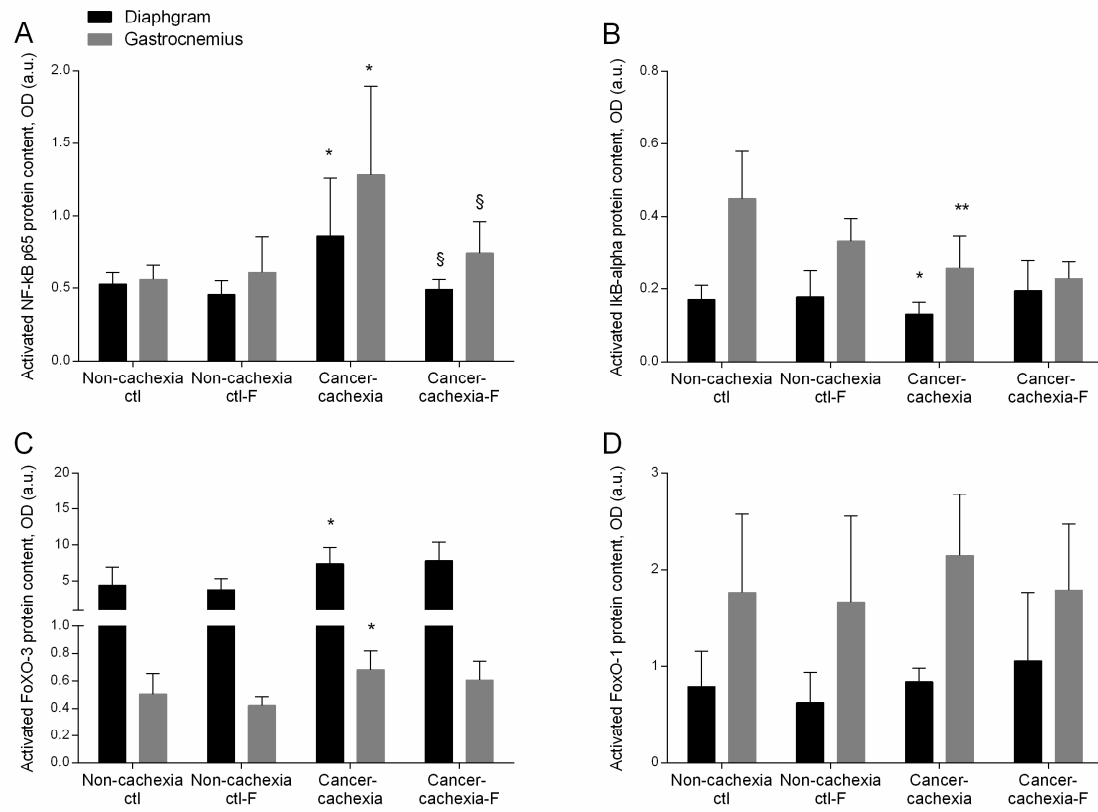


Figure 1. Salazar-Degracia A. et al.

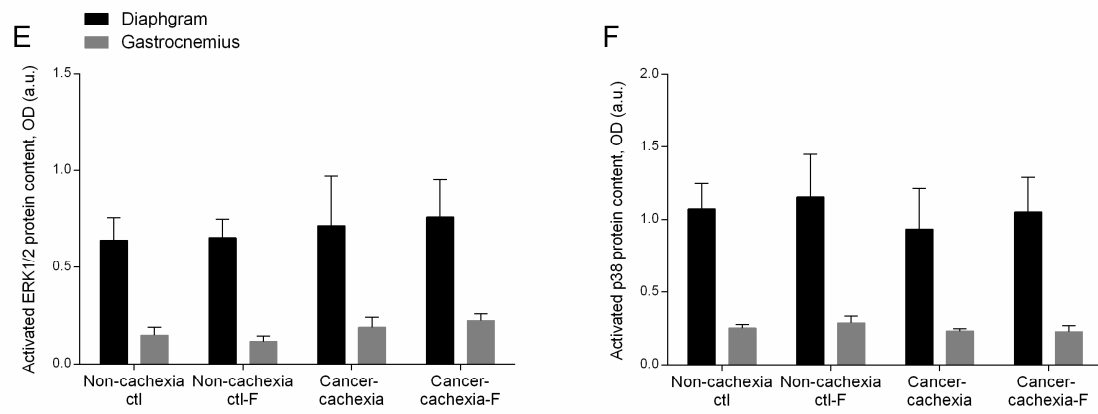


Figure 2. Salazar-Degracia A. et al.

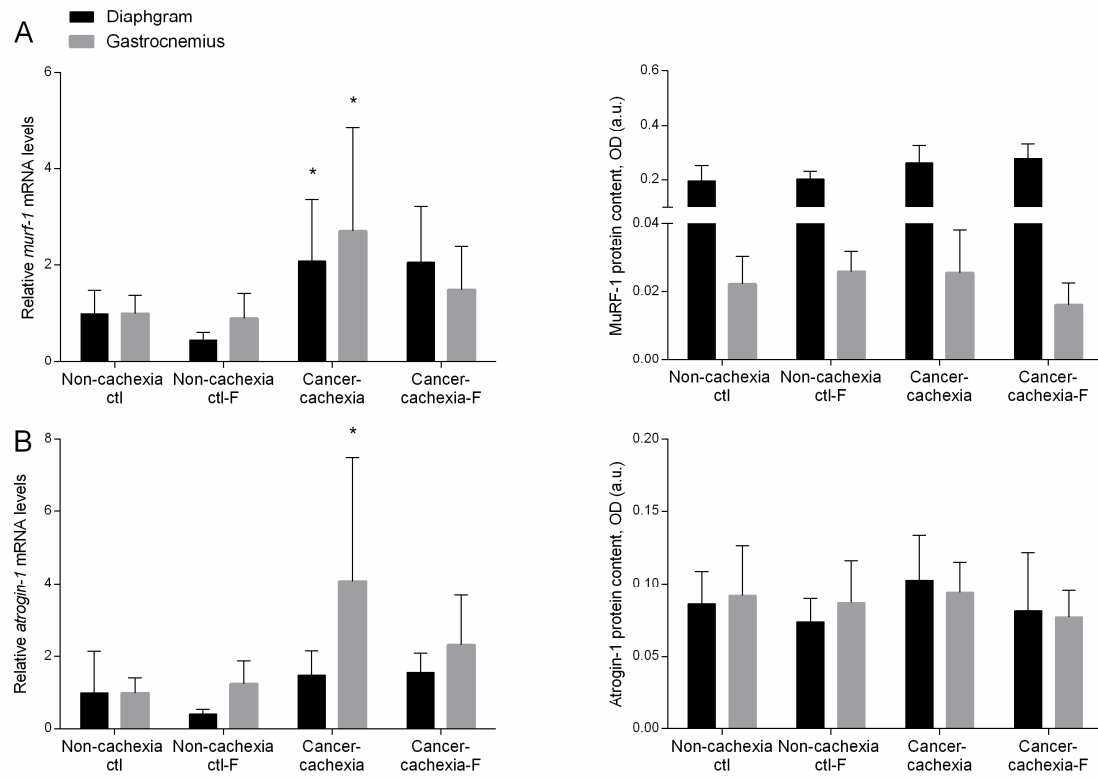




Figure 2. Salazar-Degracia A. et al.

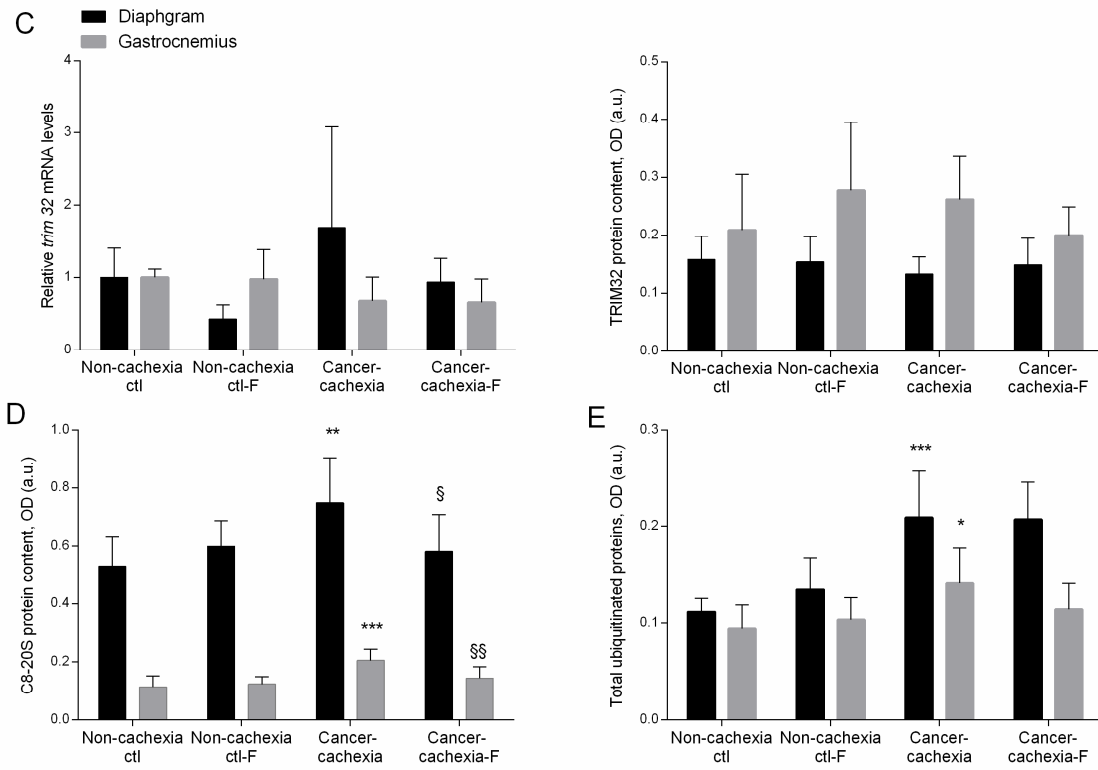


Figure 3. Salazar-Degracia A. et al.

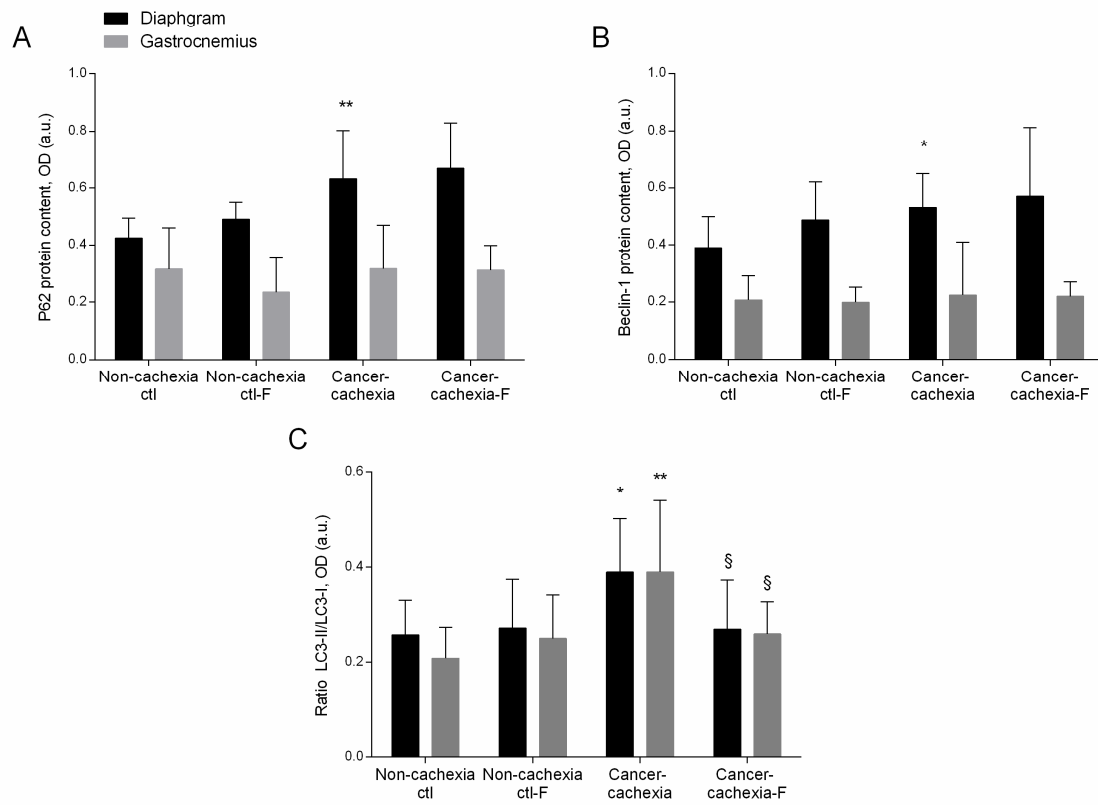


Figure 3. Salazar-Degracia A. et al.

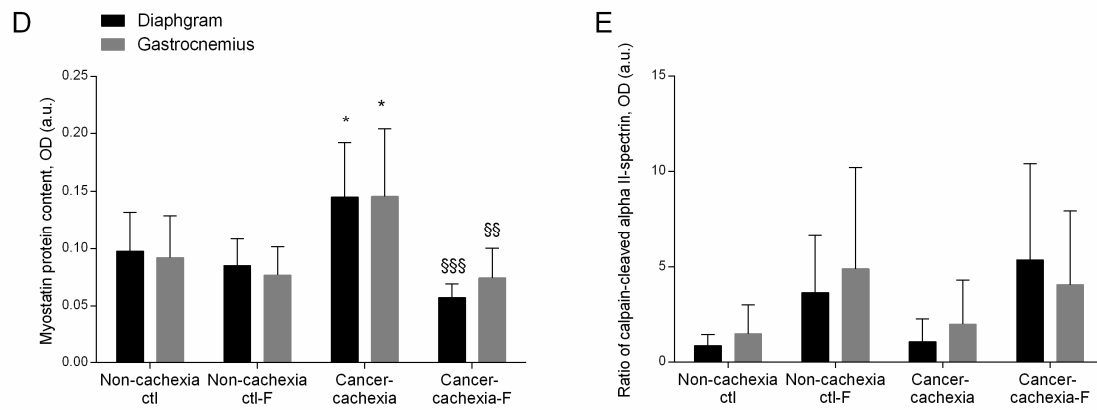


Figure 4. Salazar-Degracia A. et al.

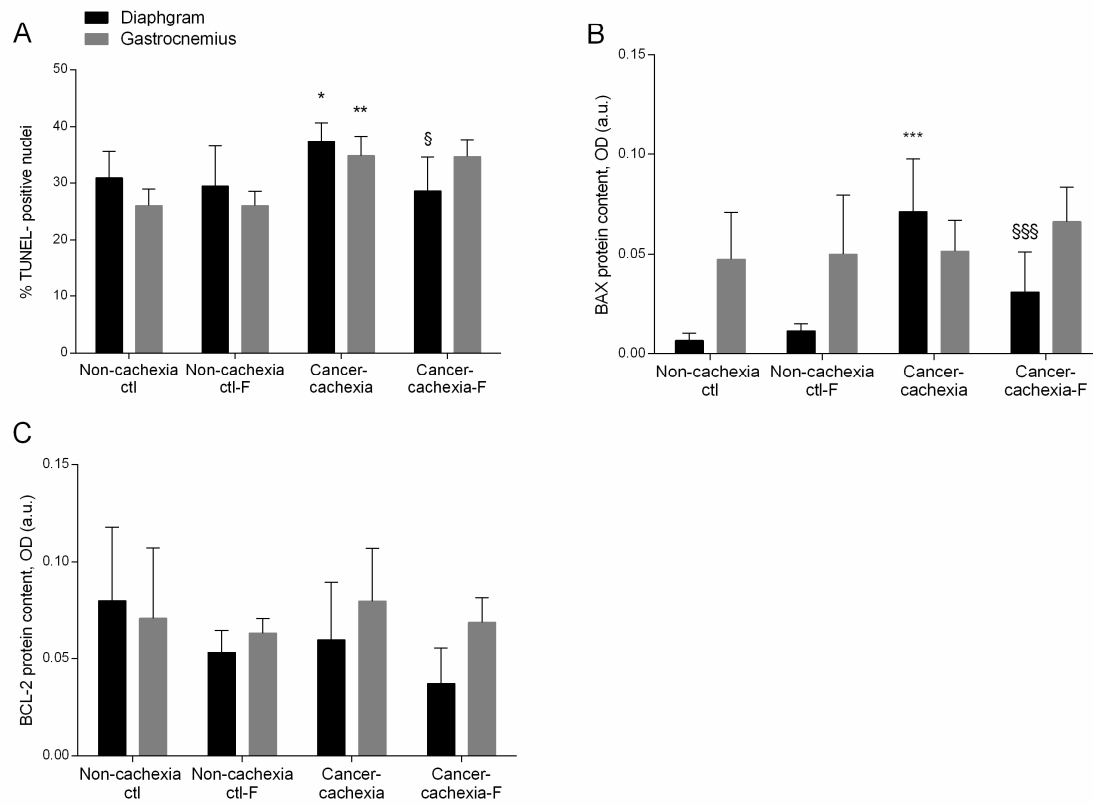


Figure 5. Salazar-Degracia A. et al.

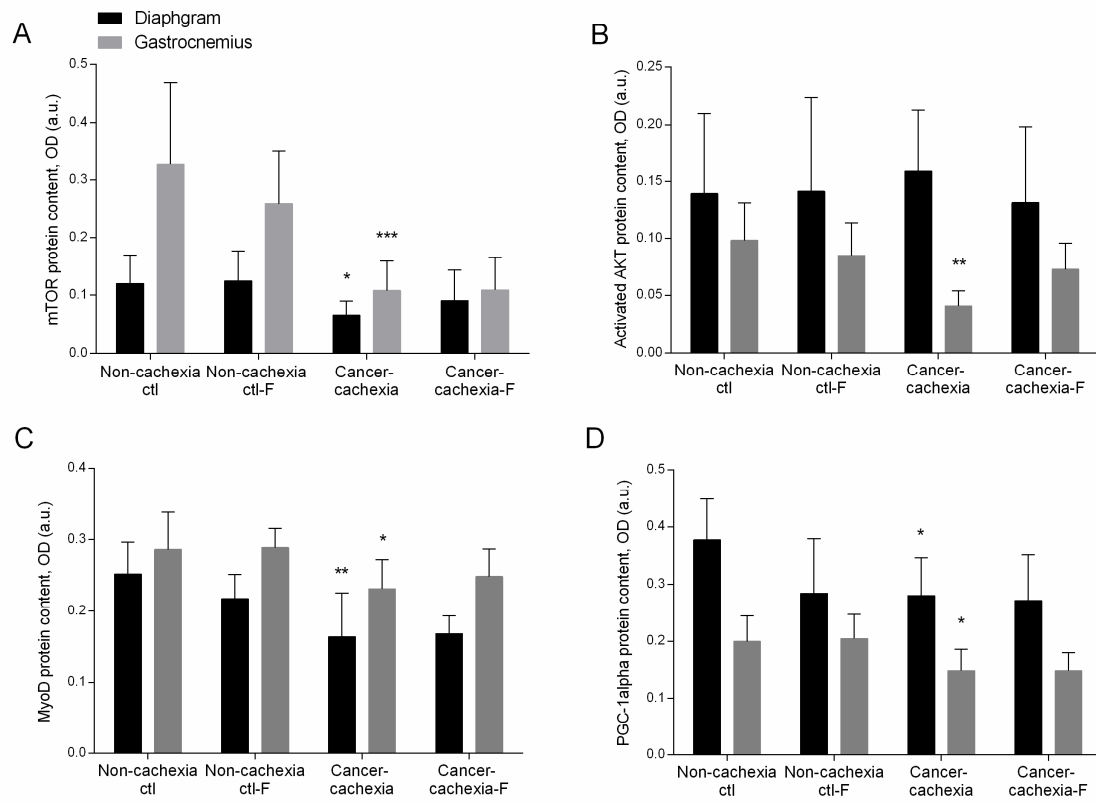
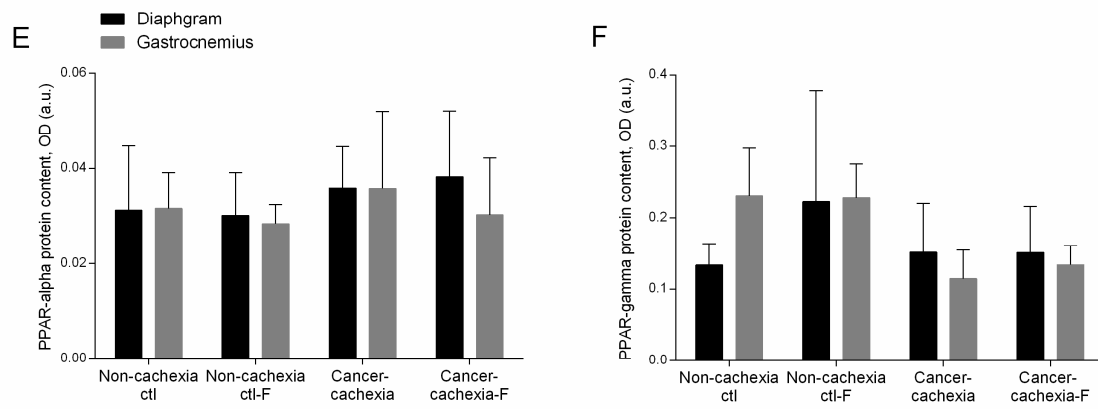


Figure 5. Salazar-Degracia A. et al.



**HIGHLIGHTS****EFFECTS OF THE BETA<sub>2</sub> AGONIST FORMOTEROL ON ATROPHY SIGNALING, AUTOPHAGY, AND MUSCLE PHENOTYPE IN RESPIRATORY AND LIMB MUSCLES OF RATS WITH CANCER-INDUCED CACHEXIA**

Muscle mass loss and wasting are characteristic features of patients with cancer

Beta-adrenoceptors attenuate muscle wasting

Muscle atrophy signaling pathways and altered metabolism attenuated in cancer cachectic animals treated with beta<sub>2</sub> agonist formoterol

Treatment of the cachectic rats with formoterol attenuated structural alterations and atrophy signaling and other molecular perturbations

Beneficial effects of formoterol demonstrated in cancer cachectic muscles involved several key biological pathways