



Original Articles

Caveolin-1 enhances metastasis formation in a human model of embryonal rhabdomyosarcoma through Erk signaling cooperation

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ABSTRACT

Rhabdomyosarcoma (RMS) is a pediatric soft tissue tumor classified in two major subtypes namely embryonal and alveolar, which have distinctive histopathological and genetic signatures and worse outcomes in the presence of metastases. Here, in order to evaluate the role of Caveolin-1 (Cav-1) in embryonal RMS dissemination, we employed an experimental *in vivo* metastasis assay using immunodeficient NOD/SCID mice. We found that the intravenous injection of human RD cells engineered for Cav-1 overexpression promoted the formation of lung metastases compared to parental cells. The arisen metastases were isolated and cultured *in vitro* to establish two derivative lines that showed greater metastatic capacity, as detected by performing *in vivo* metastasis and tumor spheroid invasion assays. Compared to parental cells, all metastatic lines were characterized by an increase in cell proliferation, migration and invasiveness that were downregulated by synthetic inhibition of Erk pathway. The metastatic cells showed a marked cell apoptosis induced by nutrient deprivation and consistent loss of differentiation characterized by depletion of MyoD and Myogenin factors. Furthermore, they showed marked changes in cell size, a re-organization of the three-dimensional cytoskeleton characterized by an increased actin stress fiber content, and increased adhesion and angiogenic properties. Collectively, these data provide new insights into Cav-1-driven metastatic process of embryonal RMS through cooperation of the Erk signaling pathway. Furthermore, our derivative metastatic lines represent useful tools for identifying genes or molecular pathways that regulate the metastatic progression of embryonal RMS.

1. Introduction

Rhabdomyosarcoma (RMS) is a myogenic tumor that accounts for approximately 50% of all pediatric soft tissue sarcomas. Diagnostic criteria for RMS base on the validation of proteins of the skeletal muscle lineage, such as Desmin, MyoD or Myogenin [1]. RMS cells are persistently kept in a proliferation state and fail to differentiate terminally [2], giving rise to four subtypes named embryonal, alveolar, pleomorphic, and spindle cell/sclerosing, each identified by distinctive genetic, histological and clinical features [3]. The main embryonal and alveolar forms are diagnosed in children under the age of 10 years and in adolescents or young adults, respectively. Embryonal tumors are often characterized by the loss of heterozygosity at chromosome 11p15.5 [4] and activation of the receptor tyrosine kinase/RAS/ERK axis [5], which plays a key role in the tumor growth [6–9],

radioresistance [10–12] and metastasis [13]. Alveolar tumors are instead dominated by the t(2;13)(q35;q14) or t(1;13)(q36;q14) chromosomal translocations, which are responsible of the fusion of the paired box 3 and 7 (PAX3 and 7) genes and the 3' end of the Forkhead box O1 (FOXO1) that generate the chimeric Pax3-FoxO1 or Pax7-FoxO1 oncoproteins, respectively [14]. Despite a multimodal therapy involving chemo- and radiotherapy and surgery can improve the prognosis in most cases, the occurrence of activating RAS mutations, the fusion-positive alveolar histology or the presence of metastases adversely influence the survival rate of RMS patients [15,16]. We previously reported that Caveolin-1 (Cav-1), an ubiquitous protein belonging to a family of three highly conserved members (Cav-1, Cav-2 and Cav-3) [17], can promote tumor growth of embryonal RMS *in vitro* and *in vivo* [18–21]. Cav-1 is a scaffolding protein [22] with the ability to increase the biogenesis of caveolae, cholesterol-enriched microdomains of the

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plasma membrane involved in various cellular processes, such as mechanical stress response [23], endocytosis [24], and signal transduction [25]. The role of Cav-1 in cancer appears to be complex, since its reported ability to modulate diverse cell signaling pathways [26] via the direct binding to a number of receptorial (G proteins, tyrosine-kinase receptors) and non-receptorial proteins (Src, H-Ras, endothelial NOS) mediated by a caveolin scaffolding domain [27]. Indeed, Cav-1 can either behave as a tumor suppressor or oncogene depending on many factors, including the tumor type and stage progression or the presence of post-translational modifications in its primary structure [28–30]. For example, loss of Cav-1 sensitizes to skin tumors in response to carcinogen agents [31], whilst gain of Cav-1 expression is a poor predictor in prostate cancer [32]. Despite this, during advanced stages of cancer metastasis Cav-1 is reported to be often markedly expressed [33], as observed in gastric cancer [34] and melanoma cells [35], as well as to become phosphorylated by members of Src-kinase family [36] to activate pathways linked to cell survival [37]. For example, phosphorylated Cav-1 has been reported to influence focal adhesion dynamics through Src kinase and Rho GTPases, therefore enhancing cell polarization, directional migration and invasion in metastatic cancer cells [38–42]. As a result, the occurrence of phosphorylated Cav-1 is thought to predict unfavorable outcome by correlating with anchorage-independent cell growth, migration, invasiveness and multidrug resistance. In this work, by using a gain of function approach we demonstrated through an experimental *in vivo* metastasis assay that Cav-1 facilitates the dissemination of the embryonal RD tumor cells through cooperation with Erk signaling.

2. Materials and methods

Reagents and antibodies were respectively from Sigma-Aldrich (Milan, Italy) and Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Dallas, TX, USA), unless otherwise stated.

2.1. Antibodies

The primary antibodies were rabbit polyclonal anti-Cav-1 (code sc-894), mouse monoclonal anti-phosphorylated Cav-1 (Tyr14) (code 611338, BD Biosciences, Buccinasco, Italy), goat polyclonal anti-CD31 (sc-1506), mouse monoclonal anti-total Erk1/2 (code sc-135900), mouse monoclonal anti-phosphorylated Erk1/2 (Tyr204) (code sc-7383), mouse monoclonal anti-MyoD (code sc-377460), rabbit polyclonal anti-Caspase-3 (code NB100-56113, Novus Biological Europe, Abingdon, UK), mouse monoclonal anti-Myogenin (code sc-12732), mouse monoclonal anti-MHC (code sc-32732), mouse monoclonal anti-beta-Tubulin (code MA5-16308, Thermo Scientific, Rockford, USA). The secondary antibodies were anti-mouse (code sc-516102) and anti-rabbit (code sc-2357) IgG-HRP.

2.2. Cell culture

Human embryonal RD cells were purchased from the European Collection of Cell Cultures (ECACC, Salisbury, UK) and cultured according to manufacturer instructions. RD cells engineered for Cav-1 overexpression (RD^{F0}) were established as described in Ref. [20]. Cells were routinely maintained at 37 °C, 5% CO₂ in high-glucose Dulbecco's modified eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Life Technologies, Monza, Italy) and 100 mg/ml penicillin/streptomycin antibiotics. To induce myogenic differentiation, 80% confluent cells were switched to a medium composed by DMEM supplemented with 2% horse serum (HS) (Life Technologies, Monza, Italy).

2.3. In vivo studies

Animal experimental protocols were approved by the University of

Brescia animal care committee (OPBA, Organismo Preposto al Benessere degli Animali) and were in accordance with national guidelines and regulations. Procedures involving animals and their care were conformed with institutional guidelines that comply with national and international laws and policies (EEC Council Directive 86/609, OJ L 358, 12 December 1987) and with “ARRIVE” guidelines (Animals in Research Reporting In Vivo Experiments). Subcutaneous tumors were established by performing flank injections with 3×10^6 human tumor cells (resuspended in 100 μ l PBS) into randomly selected 7-week-old male NOD/SCID mice (Envigo, Huntingdon, UK). Tumor growth was measured twice a week using caliper and tumor volume (V) was calculated as follows: $V = (\text{length} \times \text{width}^2) \times 0.5$. At the endpoint mice were sacrificed and tumors were formalin-fixed and prepared for histology analysis. Experimental metastases were established by performing tail vein injection of 3×10^5 cells (resuspended in 100 μ l PBS) into 7-week-old male NOD/SCID mice. At different time-points mice were sacrificed for counting the metastases under a dissecting microscope. Lungs were then formalin-fixed for histology analysis. The arisen metastases were isolated and cultured *in vitro* as cell lines by mechanical fragmentation and incubation in complete medium supplemented with 1 mg/ml collagenase I (3 h, 37 °C). Then, dissociated cells were plated in fresh complete medium in the presence of G418 antibiotic (0.5 mg/ml).

2.4. Immunoblotting

Cells were lysed in RIPA buffer, sonicated and centrifuged (10000 \times g, 10 min, 4 °C). Protein concentration was determined with the Bradford reagent and 30–50 μ g of protein were separated by SDS-PAGE, transferred onto polyvinylidene (PVDF) membranes and blocked with tris buffered saline (TBS) with 1% Tween-20 (TBS-T) and 5% milk (15 min, RT) prior to incubation with primary antibody (overnight, 4 °C). After 1 h with HRP-conjugated secondary antibody, membranes were TBS-T washed and the resulting immunocomplexes were visualized using enhanced chemiluminescence reagent (GeneSpin, Milan, Italy). Immunoreactive bands were quantified using Gel Pro Analyzer 4 software (MediaCybernetics Inc, Rockville, MD, USA).

2.5. Immunohistochemistry

Formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded tumor sections (2 μ m) were deparaffinized in xylene and rehydrated through a 100–95% ethanol gradient. Sections were stained with Hematoxylin and Eosin followed by a series of dehydration steps via ethanol washes, cleared with xylene and mounted using Safemount (Bio Optica, Milan, Italy). Heat induced epitope retrieval was done with EDTA buffer pH 8.0 (1 h, 98 °C) and 0.3% H₂O₂ was used to block endogenous peroxidases. Sections were then washed in TBS (pH 7.4) and incubated with the specific primary antibody diluted in TBS with 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA) (1 h, RT). Protein signal was revealed by ChemMATE EnVision HRP Labelled Polymer system (DAKO, Glostrup, Denmark) followed by diaminobenzidine as chromogen and Hematoxylin as counterstain. After repeating a series of dehydration steps via ethanol washes, sections were cleared with xylene and mounted using Safemount (Bio Optica, Milan, Italy). Images were acquired by an inverted light microscope (Olympus IX50; Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) using cellSens Software (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

2.6. Crystal violet assay

Cell proliferation and adhesion were quantified through measurement of crystal violet incorporation. Cells were seeded in 24-well plates (1.5×10^4) for the proliferation assay or in 6-well plates (1.2×10^5 cells) for the adhesion assay. At the indicated time-points cells were fixed with 3% paraformaldehyde (PFA)/PBS solution (20 min, 4 °C) and stained with crystal violet solution (0.2% crystal

violet/20% methanol/PBS) (10 min, RT). Cells were washed and re-suspended in 1% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)/phosphate buffered saline (PBS) solution. Plates were shaken until complete dissolution was achieved and then absorbance was measured by reading the plate at 595 nm emission wavelength.

2.7. Neutral red assay

Cell viability was quantified by measuring the incorporation of the neutral red dye. Cells were seeded in 96-well plates (1.5×10^3) and, at the indicated time-points, were incubated with neutral red solution (40 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) dissolved in DMEM with 5% FBS (2 h, 37 °C) before washing with neutral red destaining solution (50% ethanol/1% acetic glacial acid/49% deionized water). Absorbance was measured by reading the plate at 540 nm emission wavelengths.

2.8. Giemsa staining

Differentiated cells were fixed in methanol (2 h, 4 °C) and incubated with Giemsa reactive (4 h, RT). After PBS washes, images were acquired by an inverted light microscope (Olympus IX50; Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) using cellSens Software (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

2.9. Immunofluorescence

Cells were cultured onto 12 mm glass coverslips in 24-well plates (1.5×10^4) for the indicated time-points. Cells were fixed with 3% PFA/PBS (20 min, 4 °C), permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100/PBS (10 min, RT) and then blocked with 1% BSA/PBS with 0.1% sodium azide (30 min, RT). Cells were incubated with primary antibody (3 h, RT), washed and then incubated with secondary antibody (45 min, RT). Nuclei were counterstained with Hoechst dye (30 s, RT) and samples were mounted on slides using Mowiol mounting media. Images were acquired by a confocal microscope with photo-multiplier tube detectors (LSM 510 Meta; Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany) using the LSM510 Meta software (Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany). Alternatively, images were acquired by a fluorescence Axiovert microscope (Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany) using the ImagePro Plus software (Media Cybernetics, Inc. Rockville, MD, USA).

2.10. Sprouting assay

HUVEC cells were seeded in a 96-well round bottom plate (8×10^2) in M199 medium supplemented with 8% fetal calf serum (FCS) and 0.2% methylcellulose. After 24 h, formed spheroids were collected with a plastic Pasteur and allowed to settle by gravity in a falcon tube (about 30 spheroids for each experimental point were used). Medium was then removed, and spheroids were suspended in a fibrin gel (composed of fibrinogen dissolved in M199 medium without serum) supplemented with thrombin. After 1 min at RT, gel included spheroids were rapidly seeded in a 96-well plate before the gel was completely solid and simultaneously their adhesion to the bottom of the plate was prevented. Sprouting was stimulated with 100 μl of pre-filtered (0.45 μm) conditioned medium collected from RD^{ctrl}, RD^{F0}, RD^{F1} and RD^{F2} cells that were previously seeded in 60 mm dishes (3×10^5) and incubated for 24 h in DMEM without FBS. Spheroids were observed and all capillary-like sprouts originating from the core of an individual spheroid were counted.

2.11. Wound healing assay

Cells seeded in 6-well plates (2×10^5) formed confluent monolayers that were pre-treated for 2 h with 10 μM PD098059 or DMSO and then wounded by scraping the cells with a 200 μl -sterile micropipette tip. Images of wound healing were acquired at different time-points by an inverted light microscope (Olympus IX50; Olympus, Tokyo, Japan)

using cellSens Software (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan). The extent of wound repair was quantified by measuring the healed area using ImageJ software. Results were presented as percentage of repaired area with respect to time 0 h.

2.12. Boyden chamber assay

Detached and suspended cells were pre-treated for 2 h with 10 μM PD098059 or DMSO and then seeded (8×10^5 cells/ml) in the upper portion of a boyden chamber separated from the lower compartment containing DMEM with 10% FBS added with 10 μM PD098059 or DMSO by a gelatin-coated PVP-free polycarbonate filter with 8 mm pore size (Costar, Cambridge, USA). After incubation at 37 °C for 2 h, migrated cells were stained with Diff-Quik (Dade-Behring, Milan, Italy). The number of migrated cells was quantified using ImageJ software.

2.13. Spheroid assay

Spheroid cell aggregates were prepared upon incubation in 20% methylcellulose medium for 24 h. Cell aggregates were then embedded into Cultrex® Reduced Growth Factor Basement Membrane Matrix and stimulated with 10% FCS in the presence of 10 μM PD098059 or DMSO. After 4 h, cell aggregates were photographed at 100 \times magnification using an Axiovert 200 M microscope and invasion was quantified by measuring the length and the area of cell sprouts invading the surrounding gel using ImageJ software.

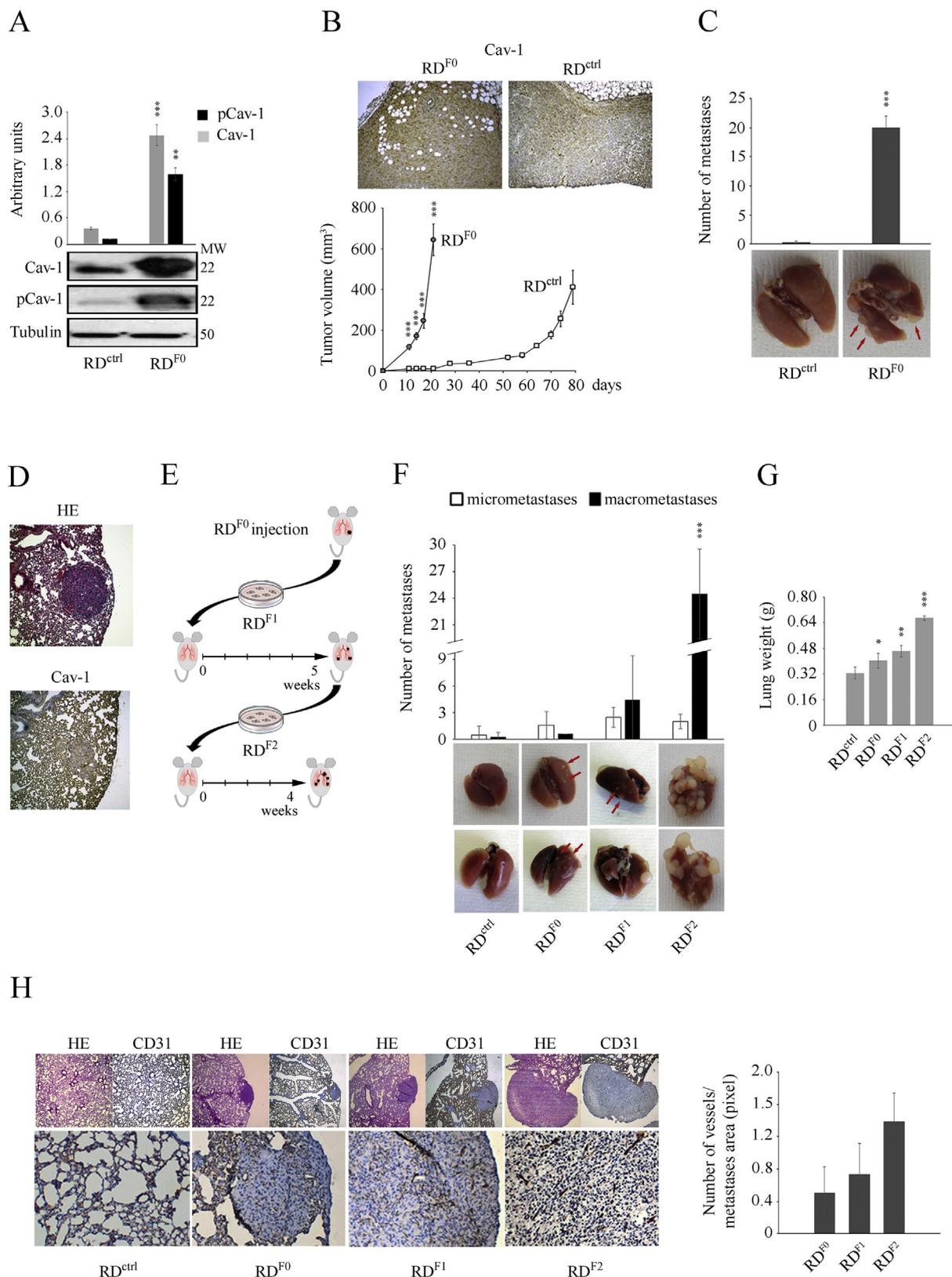
2.14. Statistical analysis

The differences between the groups were analyzed by unpaired Student's *t* test and One-Way Anova test, using GraphPad Prism 5 software (GraphPad Software, San Diego, USA). Statements of significance were based on a *p*-value of less than 0.05.

3. Results

3.1. Cav-1 overexpression enhances tumor growth and lung dissemination of embryonal RD cells

To assess the role of Cav-1 in RMS metastasis we employed a cell model previously established in our laboratory, consisting of the human embryonal RD cells engineered for Cav-1 overexpression (hereafter referred to as RD^{F0}) [20,21]. As shown via immunoblotting, RD^{F0} cells showed an increase in the content of both total and Tyr¹⁴-phosphorylated Cav-1 (pCav-1) forms compared to control cells (RD^{ctrl}) transfected with an empty vector (Fig. 1A). RD^{F0} cells had a marked tumorigenic potential as previously reported [20], since their subcutaneous injection in NOD/SCID mice gave rise to tumor masses that reached an average volume of $643.3 \pm 77.2 \text{ mm}^3$ in 21 days (Fig. 1B), while RD^{ctrl} cells formed a tumor with similar volume in 79 days (Fig. 1B). By performing an experimental *in vivo* metastasis assay through tail vein injection of a pre-determined number of cells (3×10^5), we observed that RD^{F0} cells promoted the formation of pulmonary metastases detectable after 9 weeks (Fig. 1C and D), which were characterized by high Cav-1 staining (Fig. 1D). In contrast, no metastatic nodules were detected upon injection of RD^{ctrl} cells (Fig. 1C). The arisen metastases were isolated and cultured *in vitro* as cell lines before further injection, according to the experimental procedure illustrated in Fig. 1E. By repeating this protocol twice, we derived the RD^{F1} and RD^{F2} cell lines (after 5 and 4 weeks, respectively), whose metastatic potential was compared to that of RD^{F0} and RD^{ctrl} cells by setting a new metastasis *in vivo* assay. After 5 weeks, we observed that RD^{F1} or RD^{F2} injection has led to a higher number of macrometastases compared to RD^{F0} and RD^{ctrl} (Fig. 1F), which promoted a significant increase in the lung weight (Fig. 1G). Furthermore, we detected an increasing CD31 expression in the nodules derived from RD^{F0}, RD^{F1} and RD^{F2} cells,



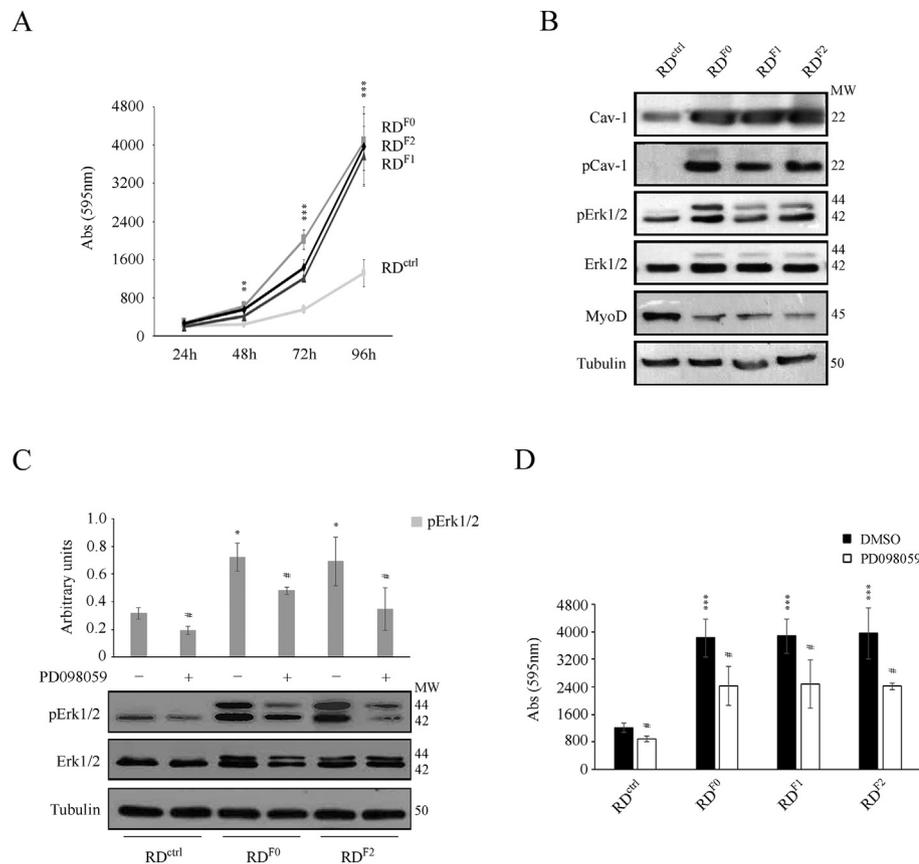
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suggesting that metastatic growth requires increased blood flow (Fig. 1H).

3.2. Metastatic lines show a greater Erk-dependent cell proliferation, reduced survival in response to nutrient deprivation and impairment of myogenic differentiation

Crystal violet assay performed over a time-course showed that all

Fig. 1. Cav-1 overexpression enhances lung dissemination of embryonal RD cells. A) Immunoblotting was performed on total protein homogenates derived from human RD^{ctrl} and RD^{F0} cells collected after 24 h of cell proliferation. Protein bands quantification was obtained using tubulin as a loading control (n = 4). Data are Mean ± SEM, ** p-value < 0.001; *** p-value < 0.0001; unpaired Student's t-test. B) Volumetric measurement of xenografted tumors by caliper (n = 8). Cav-1 staining was revealed in tumor xenografts by immunohistochemistry (top images, 10×). Data are Mean ± SEM, *** p-value < 0.0001; unpaired Student's t-test. C) Metastatic nodules on the lungs, indicated by red arrows, were quantified after intravenous cell injection of RD^{ctrl} and RD^{F0} lines (n = 6). Data are Mean ± SEM, *** p-value < 0.0001; unpaired Student's t-test. D) Images (10×) show the lung metastases processed by Hematoxylin and Eosin (HE) staining or by immunohistochemistry for Cav-1 staining. It should be noted that the Cav-1 staining in metastases is masked by equally high expression in the surrounding lung fibroblasts. E) As depicted schematically, the metastases arisen in the lungs of injected mice were cultured *in vitro* to derive the RD^{F1} and RD^{F2} lines. F) Images show the micrometastases (arrows) and macrometastases detectable in the lungs of mice injected with RD^{ctrl}, RD^{F0}, RD^{F1}, and RD^{F2} cells after 5 weeks. The number of lung nodules was quantified (n = 16). Data are Mean ± SEM, *** p-value < 0.0001; One-Way Anova test. G) The lungs of the mice injected with the different lines were weighed (n = 16). Data are Mean ± SEM, * p-value < 0.05; ** p-value < 0.001; *** p-value < 0.0001; One-Way Anova test. H) Images (4× and 20×) show lung metastases processed by Hematoxylin and Eosin (HE) staining or by immunohistochemistry for CD31 staining. Lung tissue from RD^{ctrl}-injected mice was used as control. The number of vessels was quantified with respect to the metastases area (n = 3). (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)



the metastatic lines proliferated very quickly *in vitro*, reaching a four-fold increased density after 96 h compared to RD^{ctrl} cells (Fig. 2A). In metastatic lines, the increase in both total and pCav-1 levels was correlated to a marked increase in phosphorylated Erk1/2 (pErk1/2) levels as well as to a reduction in MyoD levels compared to RD^{ctrl} cells (Fig. 2B). We next evaluated the impact of Erk inhibition on cell proliferation. Following treatment with the synthetic PD098059 inhibitor, both the pERK1/2 levels (Fig. 2C) and cell proliferation (Fig. 2D) were significantly downregulated compared to untreated lines. Similar results were observed in RD^{F1} cells (not shown). Since a sustained cell division requires high nutrient availability, we found that culturing the metastatic lines in a serum deprived medium for 48 h triggered a consistent cell detachment from the plate compared to RD^{ctrl} (Fig. 3A). In these conditions, the neutral red assay evidenced a clear decrease of cell viability in metastatic lines compared to RD^{ctrl} (Fig. 3B), which we correlated with an augmented cell apoptosis by immunoblotting detection of the increased cleaved caspase-3 form (Fig. 3C). We next evaluated the myogenic potential of the different lines. While after 4 days of differentiation RD^{ctrl} cells showed a partial cell elongation

correlating with increased expression of myosin heavy chain (MHC), the metastatic lines were refractory to both changes in cell shape and expression of differentiation markers (Fig. 3D). Immunoblotting showed that the levels of Cav-1 and pErk1/2 maintained higher in metastatic lines even after 4 days of differentiation compared to RD^{ctrl}, correlating with a drastic reduction in MyoD, Myogenin and MHC expression (Fig. 3E).

3.3. Metastatic lines show altered cell shape and increased adhesion and angiogenic features

Metastatic lines evidenced a clear increase in cell size characterized by a more elongated cell body compared to RD^{ctrl}, as detected by light microscopy (Fig. 4A). Immunofluorescence analysis showed that Cav-1 staining was incremented intracellularly in metastatic RD^{F0} and RD^{F2} lines compared to RD^{ctrl}, markedly localizing in the proximity of perinuclear regions (Fig. 4A and B). Furthermore, metastatic lines exhibited changes in cytoskeletal architecture, highlighted by staining the filamentous actin (F-actin) with a fluorescent phalloidin, which revealed a

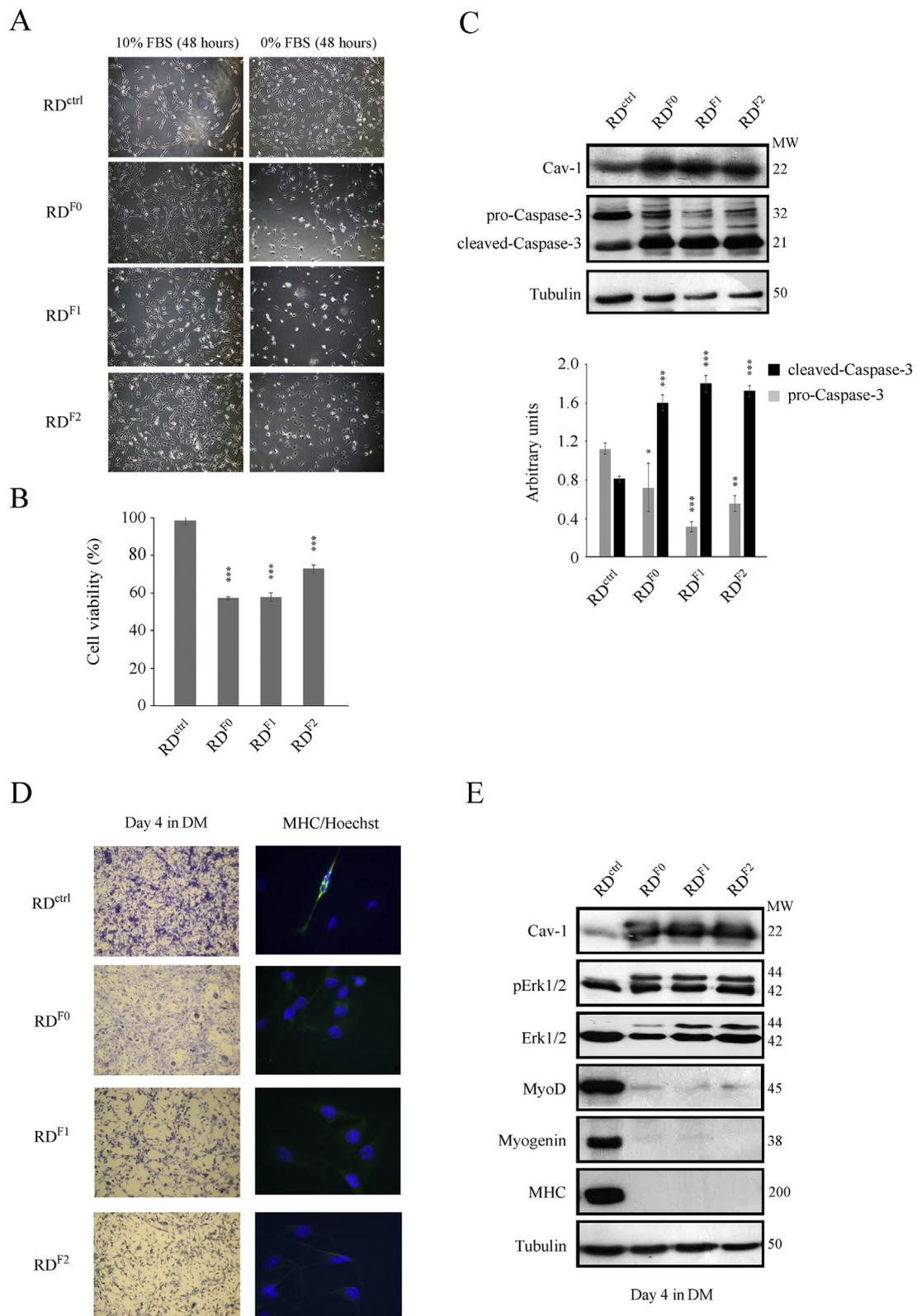


Fig. 3. Metastatic lines are characterized by a marked cell apoptosis in response to nutrient deprivation and a drastic impairment of the myogenic potential. A) The different cell lines were seeded and maintained in complete medium (10% FBS) for 24 h. Then, cells were either maintained in 10% FBS or in a serum free medium (0% FBS) for additional 48 h (n = 3). Images (10×) highlight the robust cell detachment of the metastatic lines in the absence of serum compared to RD^{ctrl} line. B) In the conditions seen above, neutral red assay was performed (n = 3). Data are Mean ± SEM, *** p-value < 0.0001; One-Way Anova test. C) Immunoblotting was performed on total cell homogenates collected after 48 h of serum deprivation. Protein bands quantification was obtained using tubulin as a loading control (n = 3). Data are Mean ± SEM, * p-value < 0.05; ** p-value < 0.001; *** p-value < 0.0001; One-Way Anova test. D) The cell lines were maintained in differentiation medium (DM) for 4 days. Images show the cells processed by Giemsa staining (4×) or immunofluorescence for MHC staining (63×) (n = 3). E) In the same conditions seen above, immunoblotting was performed on total cell homogenates. Tubulin was used as a loading control (n = 3). (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

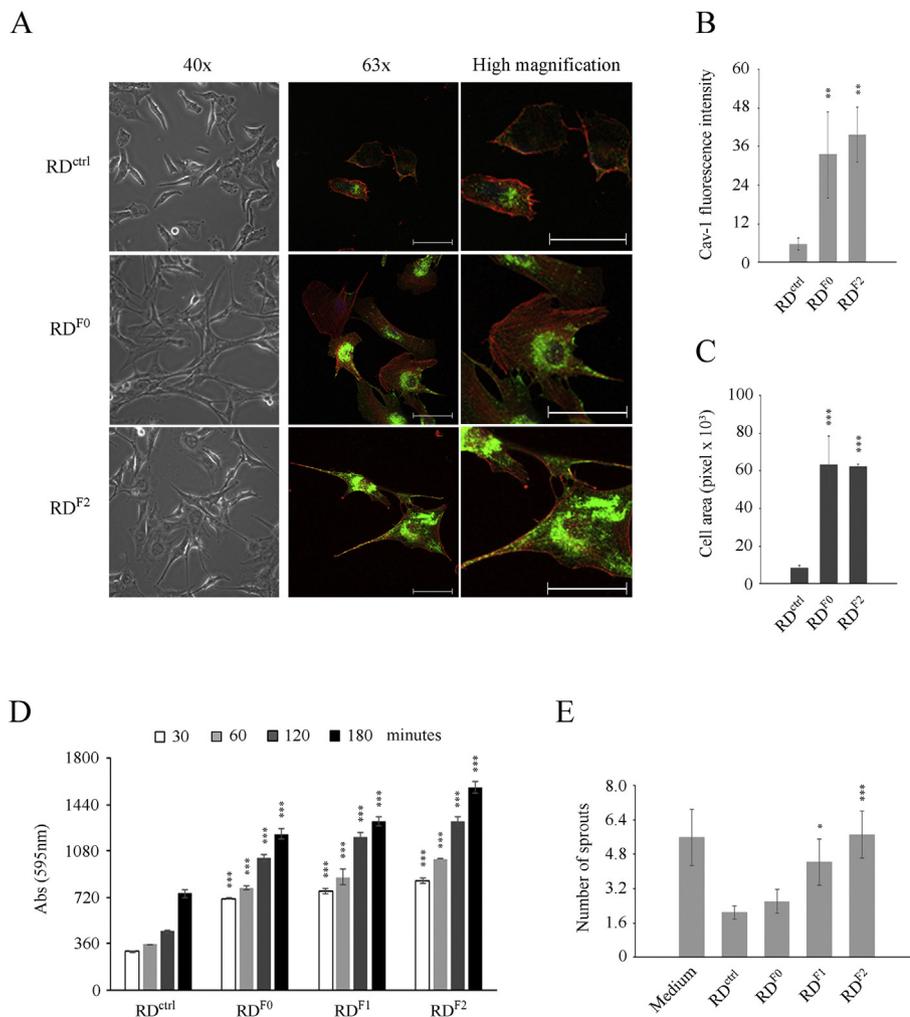


Fig. 4. Metastatic lines show altered cytoskeleton architecture and enhanced adhesion and angiogenic potential. A) Light microscopy images (40×) highlight the different morphology of metastatic RD^{F0} and RD^{F2} lines compared to RD^{ctrl}, as detected after 48 h of cell proliferation (n = 3). Confocal microscopy images (63×) show the different lines processed by immunofluorescence for Cav-1 (green) and phalloidin (red) staining (n = 3). The scale bar corresponds to 50 μm. B) The intensity of Cav-1 fluorescence was quantified using the ImagePro Plus software (n = 3). Data are Mean ± SEM, ** p-value < 0.001; One-Way Anova test. C) The cell area was calculated according to the phalloidin fluorescence using the ImagePro Plus software (n = 3). Data are Mean ± SEM, *** p-value < 0.0001; One-Way Anova test. D) Crystal violet assay was performed to evaluate the adhesion capacity at the indicated time-points (n = 3). Data are Mean ± SEM, *** p-value < 0.0001; One-Way Anova test. E) HUVEC sprouting assay was performed to assess the angiogenic potential. The number of sprouts was quantified for each cell line. Complete medium was used as positive control (n = 2). Data are Mean ± SEM, * p-value < 0.05; *** p-value < 0.0001; One-Way Anova test. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

higher content of stress fibers compared to RD^{ctrl} cells (Fig. 4A). Similar results were observed in RD^{F1} cells (not shown). In RD^{F0} and RD^{F2} lines, the cell area was estimated to be 3 times larger than the control line, as calculated by quantification of phalloidin fluorescence (Fig. 4C). We then assessed whether these changes could affect cell adhesion, a feature playing a key role during local invasion of circulating primary tumor cells, by performing a crystal violet assay over a time-course (30–180 min). After seeding the cells, we observed the adhesion capacity of the metastatic RD^{F0}, RD^{F1} and RD^{F2} lines being two-times higher than the RD^{ctrl} cells already after 30 min (Fig. 4D). Given the robust capillary formation previously observed in metastases *in vivo* (Fig. 1H), we tested the angiogenic potential of metastatic lines by a three-dimensional sprouting assay on human endothelial cells (HUVEC) spheroids. Results showed HUVEC cells treated with the conditioned medium derived from RD^{F1} and RD^{F2} cells formed a significantly increased number of angiogenic sprouts compared to RD^{F0} and RD^{ctrl} lines (Fig. 4E).

3.4. Metastatic lines show enhanced Erk-dependent migration and invasiveness

Wound healing and Boyden chamber assays were used to evaluate cell motility. In the first assay, we scratched a cell monolayer with a tip and captured light microscopy images. While after 8 h RD^{ctrl} cells repaired about 26% of the lesioned area, the metastatic lines repaired a double area (52,3% for RD^{F0}, 51,9% for RD^{F1} and 49,3% for RD^{F2}) (Fig. 5A and B). The repair capacity in both metastatic and control lines was overcome of about 20% in the presence of PD098059 inhibitor,

suggesting that Erk pathway influenced cell migration (Fig. 5A and B). By means of a chemotaxis Boyden chamber assay we next confirmed these data, as the number of cells migrated through the membrane was significantly higher in metastatic lines than control cells already after 2 h, reaching a 2.3-fold increase for RD^{F0}, RD^{F1} and 1.7-fold increase for RD^{F2} (Fig. 5C). As already observed, the PD098059 treatment led to a 40% reduction in the migratory ability of the different lines (Fig. 5C). We then tried to detect if there were differences in the invasion capacity of the different metastatic lines, as observed *in vivo*. Since this requires an augmented ability to invade surrounding tissues by degradation of extracellular matrix, we performed a tumor spheroid invasion assay that provides the advantage for tumor cells to grow into a three-dimensional structure (fibrin gel matrix) mimicking a tumor micro-region or a micro-metastasis [43]. As shown in Fig. 5D, all metastatic spheroids, mainly those derived from the RD^{F2} line, showed a marked sprouting capacity following treatment with 10% fetal calf serum (FCS) compared to control spheroids. Based on these preliminary results, we monitored the magnitude of tumor invasion after 4 h by measuring both the spheroid area (blue line) and the sprout length (red line) to calculate the invasion area in the presence or absence of PD098059 (Fig. 5E). We found that the invasion area in all metastatic spheroids, identified as the area enclosed between the red and blue lines (Fig. 5E), was increased of about 10-fold compared to RD^{ctrl} (Fig. 5F). In addition, we observed a significant 30% reduction of the invasion area in RD^{F2} line treated with PD098059 (Fig. 5F). As shown in Fig. 5E, the sprout length of all metastatic lines was higher than RD^{ctrl} line and was reduced by treatment with PD098059. By performing the sprout length quantification, we confirmed that RD^{F0} and RD^{F1} or RD^{F2} spheroids formed

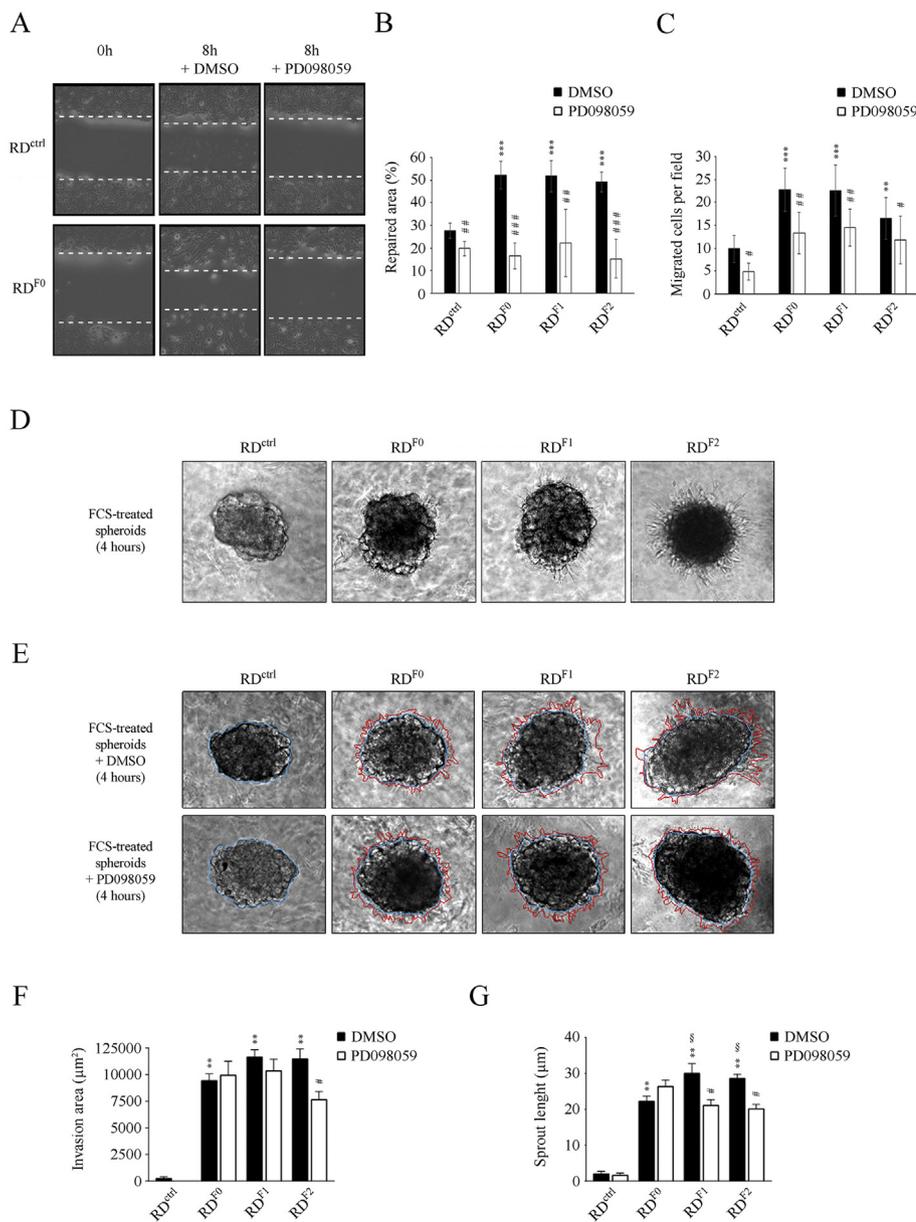


Fig. 5. Metastatic lines show enhanced Erk-dependent migration and invasion. A) Wound healing assay was performed to test the ability of the different lines to repair the injured area in the presence of 10 μM PD098059 or DMSO. The dotted white line identifies the migration front. Images ($10\times$) were taken after 8 h. B) The repaired area was quantified using ImageJ software ($n = 4$). Data are Mean \pm SEM, *** p -value < 0.0001 vs RD^{ctrl} cells; One-Way Anova test. # p -value < 0.001 ; # # p -value < 0.0001 vs DMSO-treated cells; unpaired Student's t-test. C) Boyden chamber assay was performed to evaluate the migratory ability of the various lines after 2 h of incubation with 10 μM PD098059 or DMSO. The number of migrated cells was quantified using ImageJ software ($n = 3$). Data are Mean \pm SEM, ** p -value < 0.001 ; *** p -value < 0.0001 vs RD^{ctrl} cells; One-Way Anova test. # p -value < 0.05 ; # # p -value < 0.001 vs DMSO-treated cells; unpaired Student's t-test. D) Images ($100\times$) representative of the various tumor spheroids embedded into a fibrin gel matrix and stimulated for 4 h with FCS to evaluate the sprouting capacity. E) In the conditions seen above, the invasion and sprouting capacity of the various spheroids was evaluated in the presence of 10 μM PD098059 or DMSO. Images ($100\times$) show the spheroid area and the sprout length respectively highlighted by the blue and the red lines ($n = 3$). F-G) Quantification of the invasion area (evaluated as the area enclosed between the two lines) (F) and of the sprout length (G) using ImageJ software. Data are Mean \pm SEM, ** p -value < 0.001 vs RD^{ctrl} cells; One-Way Anova test. # p -value < 0.05 ; vs DMSO-treated cells; unpaired Student's t-test. § p -value < 0.05 vs RD^{F0}; One-Way Anova test. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

sprouts that were increased of about 10-fold and 15-fold in comparison to RD^{ctrl} spheroids, respectively (Fig. 5G). Furthermore, the sprouting capacity of RD^{F1} or RD^{F2} spheroids was significantly 30% higher than RD^{F0} spheroids (Fig. 5G), accounting for the different observed ability to disseminate *in vivo*, and PD098059 treatment reduced the sprout length in RD^{F1} and RD^{F2} spheroids of about 30% compared to untreated spheroids (Fig. 5G).

4. Discussion

Metastatic dissemination is the leading cause of death in cancer patients. For RMS patients long-term survival for metastatic tumors remains low, being $< 20\%$ for alveolar and 60% for embryonal subtypes [44]. The identification of molecular targets eliciting metastasis dissemination is therefore a challenge to improve current RMS therapeutic regimens. Over the past years we have demonstrated that Cav-1 is preferentially expressed in embryonal RMS tumors featured by a poor degree of myogenic differentiation [18]. In addition, we found that its increased or decreased expression in human engineered embryonal RD cells facilitates or dampens tumor growth *in vitro* and *in vivo*,

respectively [20,21]. Here, by means of an experimental metastasis assay, we found that the increased Cav-1 levels can also facilitate the metastatic dissemination of embryonal RMS. Metastasis process involves four major steps: detachment of cancer cells from their primary loci, their entry into circulation (intravasation), their exit from circulation (extravasation), and survival and growth in a distant organ site [45]. In this regard, it is important to underline that our experimental model based on the intravenous injection of cancer cells provides a means to evaluate organ colonization by cancer cells rather than the overall metastatic process [46]. However, the aggressive metastatic lines we generated are useful tools for identifying genes or molecular pathways related to metastatic progression of embryonal RMS.

The mechanisms by which Cav-1 enhances embryonal tumor progression are currently unknown. Given the documented ability of Cav-1 to drive increased biogenesis of caveolae and accelerate the flow of nutrients (mostly glucose and fatty acids) across the membrane, as observed in particular in adipocytes [47,48], we cannot rule out that a similar mechanism may favor the rapid expansion of metastatic RMS lines. According to this, after nutrient deprivation the metastatic lines were characterized by a marked cell death compared to parental cells, a

hallmark commonly detected in cells featured by high metabolic demands, such as tumor cells indeed [49]. Our data convincingly suggest a critical role for Cav-1 in facilitating the Erk signaling, even if the precise mechanisms through which this occurs remain to be addressed. Indeed, although Cav-1 has first been described in epithelial CHO cells to act as a negative regulator of Erk pathway by direct binding to Erk1/2 proteins [50], in other cell models it was reported to act as a positive regulator, as observed in colon cancer cells [51] or in metastatic Ewing sarcoma lines [52]. Elevated Erk signaling is a master driver of embryonal [7] and pleomorphic RMS [53] formation. Among the multitude of functions, the Erk pathway also plays a prominent role in overwhelming the differentiation capacity of RMS cells through mechanisms that mediate MyoD inactivation [54,55] and repression of Myogenin expression [56]. Consistent with this, the established metastatic RD^{F0}, RD^{F1} and RD^{F2} lines were characterized by low expression of MyoD (already during cell proliferation) and Myogenin, and loss of differentiation capacity. These data therefore suggest that the cooperation between Cav-1 and the Erk signaling may support increased tumorigenic properties through the maintenance of a dedifferentiated state. Interestingly, CAV-1 was indicated as one of the five genes (BMP4, MYF5, DLK1, PAX7, CAV-1) that predict the occurrence of undifferentiated pleomorphic sarcoma (UPS) [57], which are more aggressive variants than embryonal RMS, lacking consistent histological, immunohistochemical, ultrastructural, or molecular markers [57]. Dedifferentiation is a hallmark found in metastases that are commonly enriched in cancer stem cells (CSCs), the cell subpopulation having the intrinsic ability to self-renew and propagate the entire intratumor heterogeneity [58]. Commonly, as long as tumor progresses, differentiation markers are lost and stem/progenitor markers become predominantly expressed due to cell enrichment in CSCs. To establish whether Cav-1 expression through Erk cooperation could dictate a dedifferentiation program in embryonal RMS, it will be important to characterize whether the enrichment in stem/progenitor markers could occur in three-dimensional RD^{F1} and RD^{F2} rhabdospheroids. Our data also indicate that Cav-1 through Erk signaling positively influences migration and invasiveness of metastatic RD lines. However, it is important to underline that the different metastatic lines, though exhibiting increasing metastatic properties (RD^{F2} and RD^{F1} lines were more invasive than RD^{F0} as determined *in vivo* and by tumor spheroid assay), showed similar levels in the Erk pathway activation, indicating that additional pathways contribute to enhanced metastatic potential. Consistent with this, the synthetic Erk inhibition in the metastatic lines was not sufficient to fully abrogate the migratory and invasive properties. In this regard, we found Cav-1 to be tyrosine-phosphorylated, and this mechanism known to be dependent on Src-kinase family members [20] has been recently proposed to redistribute the protein in the cytosolic compartments in order to facilitate the interaction with intracellular partners [59]. Since we actually found Cav-1 mainly localizing in intracellular compartments of RD cells away from the plasma membrane, it is reasonable to think that the intracellular accumulation of pCav-1 might be responsible for the modulation of pro-migratory and pro-invasive pathways. In this context, pCav-1 has been documented to enhance migration and invasion in metastatic cancer cells by influencing focal adhesions [38–42]. These large, dynamic protein complexes are made up by several proteins, including integrins, vinculin, talin, α -actinin, and focal adhesion kinase (FAK), through which intracellular actin bundles of a cell connects to the extracellular matrix during cell adhesion, morphogenesis and mechanotransduction processes [60]. In view of the changes in cell size and shape observed in RMS metastatic lines, we cannot rule out the possibility that pCav-1 may influence the stress fibers dynamics to increase the migratory and invasive properties. To date, FAK inhibition was reported to decrease tumorigenic properties in different embryonal and alveolar RMS cell lines [61]. Hence, the availability of highly metastatic RMS lines provides a unique tool to validate the potential relationship between pCav-1 and focal adhesions over the dissemination process.

In conclusion, our data suggest that an increase in Cav-1 expression levels can shape the tumor cell phenotype in embryonal RMS through persistent cell proliferation and loss of differentiation together with cytoskeletal reorganization underlying increased cell motility. Further investigation is required to identify the additional Cav-1 downstream pathways contributing to metastasis dissemination.

Conflicts of interest

We have no conflict of interest to declare.

Author contributions

SC, FF, and AF planned experiments.
 SC, FF, RR, PC, EG, MG performed experiments.
 SC, FF, RR, FMe, FMa, and AF analyzed data.
 AF wrote the paper.

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