A xenograft and cell line model of SDH-deficient pheochromocytoma derived from Sdhb+/− rats

James F Powers1, Brent Cochran2, James D Baleja2, Hadley D Sikes3, Andrew D Pattison4, Xue Zhang2, Inna Lomakin1, Annette Shepard-Barry1, Karel Pacak5, Sun Jin Moon3, Troy F Langford3, Kassi Taylor Stein3, Richard W Tothill4,6, Yingbin Ouyang7 and Arthur S Tischler1

1Department of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine, Tufts Medical Center, Tufts University School of Medicine, Boston, Massachusetts, USA
2Department of Developmental, Molecular and Chemical Biology, Tufts University School of Medicine, Boston, Massachusetts, USA
3Department of Chemical Engineering, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Massachusetts, USA
4Department of Clinical Pathology, University of Melbourne, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia
5Section on Medical Neuroendocrinology, Eunice Kennedy Shriver Division National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, Bethesda, Maryland, USA
6Peter MacCallum Cancer Centre, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia
7Cyagen US Inc, Santa Clara, California, USA

Correspondence should be addressed to J F Powers: jpowers1@tuftsmedicalcenter.org

Abstract

Tumors caused by loss-of-function mutations in genes encoding TCA cycle enzymes have been recently discovered and are now of great interest. Mutations in succinate dehydrogenase (SDH) subunits cause pheochromocytoma/paraganglioma (PCPG) and syndromically associated tumors, which differ phenotypically and clinically from more common SDH-intact tumors of the same types. Consequences of SDH deficiency include rewired metabolism, pseudohypoxic signaling and altered redox balance. PCPG with SDHB mutations are particularly aggressive, and development of treatments has been hampered by lack of valid experimental models. Attempts to develop mouse models have been unsuccessful. Using a new strategy, we developed a xenograft and cell line model of SDH-deficient pheochromocytoma from rats with a heterozygous germline Sdhb mutation. The genome, transcriptome and metabolome of this model, called RS0, closely resemble those of SDHB-mutated human PCPGs, making it the most valid model now available. Strategies employed to develop RS0 may be broadly applicable to other SDH-deficient tumors.

Key Words
- succinate dehydrogenase B
- paraganglioma
- pheochromocytoma
- cluster 1
- xenograft
- cell culture
- hypoxia
- metabolome
- model
- rat

Introduction

Paraganglia are neuroendocrine structures that develop from neural crest progenitors associated with paraxial sympathetic nerves and from parasympathetic nerves in the head and neck. The major sympathetic paraganglion is the adrenal medulla. Tumors called paragangliomas can arise anywhere in the distribution of normal paraganglia. By definition an intra-adrenal paraganglioma (PG) is called a pheochromocytoma (PC) (Lloyd et al. 2017).

At least 40% of pheochromocytomas and paragangliomas (PCPGs) are hereditary, and germline mutations of at least 17 functionally diverse genes can lead to their development (Dahia 2017). Mutations of genes encoding subunits of succinate dehydrogenase (SDH) account for the largest number of familial aggregates of these tumors and for more than 20–30% of the tumors that metastasize (Amar et al. 2005, 2007, Benn et al. 2006,
Mutations of SDHB, which encodes the B subunit, confer the highest risk of metastasis (Crona et al. 2019, Hescot et al. 2019). Specifically, about 42% of SDHB mutation carriers develop pheochromocytomas or paragangliomas by the age of 70 (Jochmanova et al. 2017, Rijken et al. 2017), and up to almost 60% of the tumors have been reported to metastasize (Jochmanova et al. 2017). There is currently no cure after metastases occur. Further, there are few experimental models for pre-clinical testing of new treatments and no models that faithfully reflect the tumor phenotype.

Paragangliomas sort into clusters based on their transcriptome and associated phenotypic characteristics, which include signaling pathways, metabolism and hormonal function (Dahia et al. 2005, Richter et al. 2014, Castro-Vega et al. 2015, Favier et al. 2015, Fishbein et al. 2017, Fishbein & Wilkerson 2018). Tumors with gene mutations of SDH subunits fall into cluster 1, which is characterized by pseudohypoxic signaling and metabolism (Eisenhofer et al. 2017). In contrast, cluster 2, the second major aggregate of tumors, is associated predominantly with mutations of genes including RET and NF1 that affect kinase signaling. It is important for pre-clinical models to represent the appropriate tumor cluster as closely as possible because distinctive cluster-associated signaling and metabolic (Richter et al. 2014, Lussey-Lepoutre et al. 2015) characteristics can potentially serve as drug targets (Tella et al. 2017) or modify drug responses (Muir & Vander Heiden 2018). However, genetically engineered mice with Sdhb mutations have thus far failed to develop SDH-deficient PCPGs. Consequently, cluster 2 mouse tumor models are often used as imperfect surrogates (Lussey-Lepoutre et al. 2018).

In contrast to mice and other species, rats have an unusual proclivity to develop PCs. The incidence of these tumors increases throughout life and is especially high in males compared to females, with a ratio up to 10:1 in some rat strains (Tischler et al. 2014). Abdominal or head and neck PGs are also occasionally reported (van Zwieten et al. 1979, Hall et al. 1987, Li et al. 2013). In WT Sprague–Dawley rats, PCs begin to be detected at age 1–2 years, and the prevalence at 2 years is approximately 10% (Pace et al. 2002). The incidence is further increased by a variety of agents including high caloric diet, radiation, drugs and hormones (Tischler et al. 2004, 2014). In view of their innate proclivity to develop PCCS, we hypothesized that rats would a priori be superior to mice as a potential Sdhb tumor model. This communication describes the successful development of a new rat-derived xenograft and cell culture model that closely mirrors the characteristics of SDHB-associated human PCPGs.

**Materials and methods**

**Origin and validation of the model**

Heterozygous Sdhb+/- Sprague–Dawley rats were generated by a commercial supplier (Cyagen Biosciences, Santa Clara, CA, USA) using the TALEN (transcription activator-like effector nuclease) technique (Merkt & Martin 2018). Four ‘F0’ founders were generated with various deletions in the rat Sdhb gene: a 1-base deletion in exon 1, a 13-base deletion in exon 1, a 7-base deletion in exon 2 and a 8-base deletion in exon 2. All of the mutations except the 1-base deletion successfully became germline on subsequent breeding. For each of the founder mutations, we tested liver tissue of heterozygous offspring for expression of rat Sdhb mRNA using a commercial TaqMan assay kit (Life Technologies). Enzymatic assays of liver tissue were also performed (Abcam Complex II Enzyme Activity Microplate Assay Kit). Finally, as a bioassay to confirm biological significance of the Sdhb deletions, we bred male and female Sdhb+/- heterozygotes to each other and examined gravid uteri as a test for homozygous embryonic lethality. Sperm from rats with all three germline deletions is cryopreserved at the Rat Resource and Research Center (RRRC) at the University of Missouri (rrrc@missouri.edu), where it will be publicly available.

**Development and harvesting of tumors**

Thirty-five male Sdhb+/- rats with a 13-bp deletion in exon 1 (Supplementary Fig. 1, see section on supplementary materials given at the end of this article) formed the core of this study. Twenty-one of the animals were exposed to 5 Gy of gamma irradiation 1 week postnatally. The administration of postnatal irradiation was based on previous findings that irradiation of the parent animals contributed to the development of the rat-derived PC12 (Warren & Chute 1972) and mouse-derived MPC (Powers et al. 2000) PC cell lines. All were fed ad libitum on a standard rodent diet (Envigo/Harlan, Indianapolis, IN, USA) and were maintained until they were killed because of deteriorating health or were found dead. Necropsies were performed and the adrenal glands, pituitaries and carotid bodies were examined grossly and microscopically. Tissue from five PCs that appeared to be viable was injected subcutaneously into NSG mice as previously described (Powers et al. 2017). Xenografts of
the PC12 rat pheochromocytoma cell line (passage 40), (Greene & Tischler 1976) were similarly prepared to serve as controls in relevant analyses.

Primary tumors and xenografts in consecutive passages were examined histologically and immunohistochemically as previously reported (Powers et al. 2018). Antibodies utilized are shown in Supplementary Table 1. Immunoblots and electron microscopy were also performed as previously described (Powers et al. 2018).

**Cell cultures and development of cell lines**

To generate primary cell cultures, minced xenograft tissue was dissociated in collagenase followed by trypsin (Powers et al. 2000). The dissociated cell suspension was plated in 35 mm culture dishes in a series of preliminary studies to test the effects of varied medium composition and O2 concentration in attempting to establish cell lines. The utilization of xenografts to develop cell lines, rather than vice versa, served to expand tumor cell populations because the usually small primary tumors did not provide sufficient numbers of cells for adequate tests of growth conditions. It further provided xenografts comparable to human patient-derived xenograft (PDX) models, which are not derived from cell lines. This approach has been utilized by others for studies of human neuroblastomas (Persson et al. 2017).

Routine culture medium consisted of RPMI 1640 with 10% heat inactivated horse serum, 5% fetal bovine serum, glutamine and penicillin/streptomycin. This medium is employed in our laboratory to culture PC12 cells (Greene & Tischler 1976), normal rat chromaffin cells (Tischler et al. 1994) and mouse-derived MPC cells (Powers et al. 2000). Because SDH deficiency alters cells’ nutritional requirements (Lussey-Lepoutre et al. 2015), we compared cell growth and survival in this medium vs an enriched medium supplemented with non-essential amino acids, fatty acids, uridine and pyruvate that we recently employed for primary cultures of a SDH-deficient gastrointestinal stromal tumor (GIST) (Powers et al. 2018). These basal and enriched media were compared to serum-free stem cell media consisting either of DMEM/F12 with B27 Supplement plus FGF (20 ng/mL) and EGF (20 ng/mL) or serum-free RPMI 1640 with the same B27 and growth factor supplementation. Also, based on the gastrointestinal stromal tumor study, which showed deleterious effects of O2 on cell survival, we tested the effects of maintaining cultures in decreased oxygen concentrations (10%, 5% or 1%) compared to traditional ‘normoxic’ cultures (~20% O2, 95% air/5% CO2). In order to simultaneously compare multiple O2 concentrations, cultures were maintained in Billups-Rothenberg modular incubator chambers with pre-mixed gasses with increased N2 to compensate for decreased O2. CO2 concentration was constant at 5%. All cultures were maintained in a water-saturated atmosphere at 37°C. Double immunocytochemical staining for tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) and incorporation of bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU) (Tischler et al. 1992) was performed in order to distinguish the neoplastic chromaffin cells from fibroblasts, endothelial cells and other normal cell types. Two cell lines, designated RS0 (for rat Sdhb null) and RS1/2 (for Sdhb haploinsufficient), originated from cultures of xenografts derived from two different primary tumors and maintained in 5% O2.

**Whole genome sequencing**

**DNA extraction**

Cell line DNA was extracted using a Qiagen Blood and Cell Culture DNA kit (catalogue number 13362) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Matched normal DNA was extracted from formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded sections of kidneys from the individual rats in which the primary RS0 and RS1/2 tumors originated, using the Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (catalogue number: 69504) with a slightly modified protocol. Samples were deparaffinized in xylene and subjected to an additional ethanol wash to remove residual xylene. Proteinase K digestion was carried out at 56°C over 3 days instead of overnight, with 12 µL proteinase K added every 24 h. The optional RNase A treatment was also carried out using 4 µL of RNase (100 mg/mL) at the end of the 3-day incubation.

**WGS library preparation and sequencing**

Libraries were prepared at The University of Melbourne Centre for Cancer Research (UMCCR) using the Illumina® TruSeq™ DNA Nano library preparation method according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Two hundred nanograms of DNA was used as input and a 550-bp insert size was targeted. Samples were sequenced in separate batches on the Illumina® Nova-Seq 6000. QC stats including the mean read count and insert size from each sample can be seen in Supplementary Table 2.

**WGS alignment and quality control**

BCL files were demultiplexed and converted to FASTQ files with Illumina® bcl2fastq (version 2.20.0.422) with predominantly default settings (including adapter trimming). The -no-lane-splitting flag was also added at the command line interface.
as lanes were not used in this protocol. Alignment and variant calling steps were run as part of the validated bcbio-nextgen cancer somatic variant calling pipeline (version 1.1.3a) (https://github.com/bcbio/bcbio-nextgen). The bcbio-nextgen template that was used can be seen in Supplementary Table 7. The versions of all programs used by bcbio-nextgen are additionally shown in Supplementary Table 8. Briefly, the raw tumor and blood FASTQ files were first processed by Atropos (version 1.1.21) (Didion et al. 2017) to clip homopolymers (minimum 8 bases) from the ends of reads. Trimmed FASTQ files were aligned to the rat genome (version rn6) with BWA-mem (version 0.7.17) (Li 2013) with predominantly default settings. The two exceptions were that the -M flag was enabled to mark shorter split read hits as a secondary alignment and seeds with >250 occurrences were skipped (reduced from the default 500).

WGS variant calling

Germline variants were called by Varscan (version 2.4.3) (Koboldt et al. 2012), GATK HaplotypeCaller (GATK version 4.1.2.0) (McKenna et al. 2010, DePristo et al. 2011) and Strelka2 (version 2.9.10) (Kim et al. 2018) callers. Somatic variants were called by the Varscan (version 2.4.3), Mutect2 (GATK version 4.1.2.0) (Cibulskis et al. 2013) and Strelka2 (version 2.9.10) variant callers. In both instances, a variant was accepted as true if it was detected by two of the three callers. Variant allele frequency was calculated from VCFs produced from bcftools call of samtools mpileup. All variants were inspected manually using the Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV) (Robinson et al. 2011) and somatic variants with some germline presence in difficult-to-sequence regions of the genome were removed. The effect of somatic variants was annotated by ensembl VEP (version 95.3). Mutation signatures were generated using MutationalPatterns (Blokkjil et al. 2018). Signatures used were single base substitution (SBS) signatures from COSMIC v3 (Alexandrova et al. 2019, Tate et al. 2019).

WGS copy number and structural variant calling

Somatic copy-number profiles were generated by running FACETS on the BCBio aligned BAM files with a rat-specific GC profile (calculated from the rn6 reference genome) and a cval of 1000. SVs were called separately with GRIDSS (version 2.0.0) (Cameron et al. 2017). The bam files used by GRIDSS were generated separately to those used for variant calling and CNV detection. Specifically, alignment was performed with BWA-mem (version 0.7.17) with default settings and duplicate marking was performed with samtools (version 1.9). Structural variants were annotated with the StructuralVariantAnnotation R package (https://github.com/PapenfussLab/StructuralVariantAnnotation).

Custom R analyses

All R analyses were performed with R (version 3.6.0) (https://www.r-project.org/). Circos plots were generated from GRIDSS and FACETS outputs using circlize (Gu et al. 2014).

Comparison of syntenic regions between human and rat chromosomes

A table of human-rat gene homology (hg38 vs rn6) was downloaded from ensembl biomart (ensembl release 96) (Zerbino et al. 2018). The database was then filtered down to the rat chromosomes altered in the RS0 model (8, 5, 9 and 14p). Rat cytoband data (rn6) were downloaded from the UCSC annotation database (Raney et al. 2014). The proportion of rat-human syntenic genes on each chromosome arm was then calculated by dividing the number of high confidence syntenic genes between arms by the total number of genes on the corresponding human chromosome. GISTIC (version 2.0.23) (Mermel et al. 2011) was run on copy-number variation (CNV) profiles of SDHB tumors obtained from the TCGA and Castro-Vega papers (Castro-Vega et al. 2015, Fishbein et al. 2017). The proportion of rat-human syntenic genes was then compared with the frequency of chromosome arm loss (defined as >50% of a chromosome arm) as reported by GISTIC.

Transcriptional profile

RNA sequencing was performed with an Illumina HiSeq 2000 at the Tufts genomics core facility. Paired-end RNA sequencing data were preprocessed using Trimmomatic (Bolger et al. 2014) to filter poor quality reads, then aligned using TopHat2 pipeline (Kim et al. 2013). FeatureCounts software (Liao et al. 2014) was used to map reads to genes, and edgeR (Robinson et al. 2010) was used to calculate RPKM (reads per kilobase of transcript per million mapped reads) (Powers et al. 2018).

Consensus clustering analysis

Rat genes were first mapped to human genes using the biomaRt R package (Durinck et al. 2005). The rat RNAseq data were then normalized using the same procedure that
was applied to the human samples in the published TCGA analysis (Fishbein et al. 2017): rsem normalization, log2 transform and then gene median centered. Genes with 0 reads across all rat samples were removed. The top 3000 most-variable genes by median absolute deviation were selected for cluster discovery using ConsensusClusterPlus as was done for the human clustering (Wilkerson & Hayes 2010, Fishbein et al. 2017). We then mapped 1699 rat genes to these 3000 human genes and used these 1699 genes to do a cross-species consensus clustering for 173 human samples and 3 rat samples.

**Metabolomics**

Metabolomic analysis was performed as previously described (Powers et al. 2018). Briefly, unbiased metabolite profiling was performed using 1H NMR, and 13C-NMR was used to trace the metabolic fates of glucose and the contributions of glycolysis or anaplerotic TCA cycle pathways to the metabolite profile (Bruntz et al. 2017). Replicate s.c. xenograft nodules (each 1 cm in greatest dimension) were analyzed for RS0, RS1/2 and PC12. Pooled tissue from normal rat adrenal medullas was used as an additional SDH-intact control for 1H NMR profiling.

**Statistics**

Data are presented as mean ± s.e.m. with individual values displayed on graphs. Statistical analysis was carried out using GraphPad Prism software (GraphPad Software Inc). Significance was tested using unpaired Student’s t-test, two tailed distribution with P<0.05 set as significant.

**Study approval**

All animal procedures performed in these studies were approved by the Institutional Animal Use and Care Committee of Tufts University and Tufts Medical Center.

**Genomics data availability**

All WGS and RNA-seq data are available through NCBI short-read archive (SRA) (bioproject ID: PRJNA601534).

**Results**

Liver tissue from heterozygous rats carrying each of the three germline Sdhb deletions showed approximately 50% reduced expression of Sdhb mRNA and enzyme activity compared to age-matched WT rats and 68% of normal protein expression based on densitometry data. The biological significance of haploinsufficiency was confirmed by crossing Sdhb+/− X Sdhb−/− rats to generate homozygotes, which resulted in embryos developmentally stalled at ~5–6 days, as reported for Sdhb−/− mice (Piruat et al. 2004). Approximately 25% of 32 embryos were affected, consistent with the percentage of homozygotes predicted by Mendelian genetics (Fig. 1). In contrast, only one embryo of 31 was stalled in control specimens from WT rats. Because of the apparent functional equivalence of all three Sdhb deletions, we arbitrarily decided to focus on the largest (i.e. 13 base) deletion for colony expansion.

The mean lifespan of rats harboring the 13-base deletion was 88.5±3.0 weeks (range 67–105, n=15) for the non-irradiated vs 69±4 weeks (range 38–104, n=20) for the irradiated group (P=0.0001) and the mean lifespan of 130 weeks for normal Sprague–Dawley rats according to the supplier, Taconic Laboratories (Rensselaer, NY, USA). Macroscopic PCs ~0.3–0.6 cm in greatest dimension were present in three irradiated rats and one non-irradiated. In addition, one irradiated rat developed a carotid body PG. Multiple microscopic adrenal medullary lesions that were cytologically identical to PCs but did not invade or compress the adrenal cortex were present in three irradiated and four non-irradiated animals. Although similar microscopic lesions would be classified as hyperplastic nodules in veterinary pathology literature (Tischler et al. 2014), they are classified here as micro PCs in light of current understanding based on molecular studies of small adrenal medullary nodules in humans (Korpershoek et al. 2014). Multiple pituitary adenomas were present in both groups of rats, as shown in Supplementary Table 3.

Two distinct, serially transplantable, PC xenograft models, which we have designated as RS0 and RS1/2, were derived at 84 weeks and 74 weeks, respectively, from macro PCs that arose in irradiated rats. RS0 xenografts histologically show sharply defined ‘Zellballen’ architecture, slightly clear cells and prominent blood vessels closely resembling human paragangliomas (Tischler & deKrijger 2015), while RS1/2 shows more diffuse growth (Fig. 2). As an initial screen for Sdh deficiency, both xenograft models and all primary tumors were stained immunohistochemically for SDHB protein (Dahia et al. 2005, van Nederveen et al. 2009). Only RS0 and the carotid body PG, which was too small to xenograft, were Sdhb-negative, as defined by loss of the granular cytoplasmic staining characteristic of intact SDHB (Figs 2C and 3B). Both were positive for SDHA,
which is known to persist in SDH-deficient tumors caused by \textit{SDHB} mutations (Korpershoek et al. 2011, Papathomas et al. 2015, Bezawork-Geleta et al. 2018). Additional immunohistochemical stains demonstrated diffuse immunoreactivity for tyrosine hydroxylase in both RS0 and RS1/2. All pituitary adenomas showed intact staining for both SDHA and SDHB.

The most distinctive ultrastructural features of RS0 were relatively sparse secretory granules and cytoplasmic vacuoles similar to those in other SDH-deficient tumors.
mitochondrial changes in RS0 cells are consistent with a recent study indicating that immortalized Sdh-null cells derived from rodent chromaffin cells may be less bioenergetically compromised than Sdh-compromised cells of other types (Kluckova et al. 2020).

**Cell culture and establishment of cell lines**

Preliminary studies showed that cells derived from neither xenograft model would produce a cell line in an atmosphere of 95% air/5% CO₂ and routine RPMI culture medium with 10% horse serum/5% fetal bovine serum. Under those conditions, RS0 cells rapidly accumulated large cytoplasmic vacuoles and died over a period of approximately 2 weeks. In contrast, RS1/2 cells survived for months and did not form vacuoles but slowly dwindled. Optimal cell survival was obtained in 5% O₂, consistent with the beneficial effect of low O₂ previously observed with SDH-deficient GIST (Powers et al. 2018). However, this was still insufficient to develop cell lines. We, therefore, next tested combinations of 5% O₂ together with lowered-to-absent serum in medium with stem cell-promoting supplements (Persson et al. 2017). Under those conditions, RS0 cells proliferate as a continuous cell line in uncoated plastic culture dishes in serum-free medium as free-floating spheres with a doubling time of approximately 14 days (Fig. 5). A similar-appearing cell line growing in 5% O₂ was also derived from RS1/2 cells. However, the RS1/2 line requires serum in a low concentration (1% HS/0.5% FBS). For both cell types, preliminary studies showed the use of RPMI 1640, as the base medium is slightly preferable or equivalent to the DMEM/F12 mixture widely used in stem cell cultures.

**Whole genome sequencing**

We performed WGS to verify genetic loss of WT Sdhb and to identify additional somatic changes in RS0 and RS1/2 tumor cells. WGS was initially performed on RS0 xenograft tissue; however, some ambiguities resulted from the presence of mouse DNA sequences introduced by the host animal. In order to obtain cleaner data, WGS was repeated using DNA extracted from RS0 and RS1/2 cultured cell lines devoid of mouse stromal and immune cells. Focused analysis of sequence coverage of Sdhb identified the expected 13-bp deletion in exon 1 plus a 729-bp deletion immediately upstream of the Sdhb promoter in the RS0 germline DNA (Fig. 6A). As shown in Fig. 6A, there is clear evidence of a 729-bp hemizygous deletion in both the normal germline DNA and tumour DNA of RS0 and
RS1/2. The deletion is inferred by the sharp reduction in read depth at the genome co-ordinates upstream of SDHB as indicated and the paired reads that span the deletion, which are marked in red. The deletion was certainly a result of the TALEN process and not radiation. Inference of read coverage, and genome-wide copy-number analysis for cell line RS0 showed somatic segmental loss of chr5 including the WT Sdhb allele (Fig. 6B). In cell line RS1/2, we observed a chromothripsis involving chr5 resulting in loss of the TALEN-edited non-functional Sdhb allele but retention of the Sdhb WT allele (Fig. 6C). These data are in keeping with the negative SDHB protein expression in RS0 but positive SDHB staining in RS1/2.

Both RS0 and RS1/2 cell lines had low mutation burden (RS0, 0.8 mutations/Mb; RS1/2 0.96 mutations/Mb). The highest proportion of base substitutions involved C>T transitions, but no dominant mutational signatures were observed in either cell line (Supplementary Fig. 2). With respect to mutations and structural alterations, no somatic lesions in gene orthologues previously found to be mutated in human PCPG were identified (Supplementary Tables 4 and 5). A ~108-kb homozygous deletion involving exon 1 of Cdkna and complete loss of Cdkn2b was identified in cell line RS0. Inspection of the WGS sequence data in the matched xenograft, however, showed no evidence of this deletion event in the original RS0 tumor, therefore it was unlikely to be a founding event in RS0 tumor cells (Supplementary Fig. 3). In RS1/2, two mutations of unknown significance were detected in known cancer genes (Stil and Ext1). Furthermore, numerous structural alterations were identified in cell line RS1/2 involving chromothripsis of chromosome 5. Breakpoints were detected within cancer genes Ark11a, Nfib and Psip1, the latter involving a gene fusion with Zbtb48. The principal driver gene mutation in RS1/2 is not apparent but may involve haploinsufficiency of one or more of these cancer genes or other genes on chr5. Interestingly, in cell line RS1/2 we observed a missense mutation at 10% variant allele frequency in cytochrome B (Mt-cyb). Despite the paucity of pathogenic mutations in both cell lines, we observed large segmental copy-number loss events in RS0 that are syntenic with frequently altered chromosomal regions in human SDHB-associated PCPG tumors (Fig. 6D and E). These events included syntenic loss of human chr1p, chr2q, chr3, chr8q and chr18p. We reasoned that these structural events are likely to be important in co-operating with SDHB loss of function.
to promote tumorigenesis, and provide further evidence that RS0 has the genomic hallmarks of human SDHB pheochromocytoma.

Metabolite profile

The presence of SDH deficiency was confirmed by high levels of succinate accumulation (Table 1). In RS0 xenografts, succinate was the third most abundant metabolite, in contrast to both RS1/2 and adrenal medulla. Lactate was the most abundant metabolite measured, consistent with increased production of lactate and induction of lactate dehydrogenase in SDH-deficient tumors and cell lines (Lussey-Lepoutre et al. 2015). In vivo $^{13}$C-glucose labeling showed robust incorporation of glucose into lactate and succinate and lesser incorporation into alanine and glutamate. The labeled glutamate contained almost the same amounts of ($^{13}$C2-4,5)Glu and ($^{13}$C2-2,3)Glu isoptomers, indicating approximately equal activity of pyruvate dehydrogenase (PDH) and pyruvate carboxylase (PC), respectively (Lussey-Lepoutre et al. 2015, Bruntz et al. 2017). This result is consistent with previous studies showing increased utilization of the anaplerotic pathway catalyzed by PC in Sdh-deficient mouse cell lines (Lussey-Lepoutre et al. 2015).
Table 1 NMR metabolomic profiles of RS0, RS1/2 xenografts and rat adrenal medulla (RAM).

| Metabolite                  | RAM (20 pooled) | Mean ± s.e.m. | RS0 (n = 4) | Mean ± s.e.m. | RS1/2 (n = 3) | Mean ± s.e.m. |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|---------------|-------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| The ten most abundant detectable metabolites (µmol/mg of tissue) |                 |               |             |               |               |               |
| Epinephrine                 | 16.15           |               | 15.18 ± 3.66|               |               | 33.87 ± 29.41|
| Norepinephrine              | 12.33           |               | 12.11 ± 2.69|               |               | 11.45 ± 2.18 |
| Glucose                     | 2.31            |               | 5.99 ± 1.19 |               |               | 10.38 ± 0.83 |
| Lactate                     | 0.89            |               | 3.47 ± 0.75 |               |               | 7.61 ± 0.42  |
| Taurine                     | 0.61            |               | 2.57 ± 0.58 |               |               | 6.33 ± 2.80  |
| ATP (or ADP)                | 0.59            |               | 2.57 ± 0.64 |               |               | 4.16 ± 0.97  |
| Ascorbate                   | 0.44            |               | 2.08 ± 0.45 |               |               | 2.55 ± 0.24  |
| AMP                         | 0.30            |               | 1.39 ± 0.28 |               |               | 2.06 ± 0.25  |
| ADP (or ATP)                | 0.21            |               | 1.29 ± 0.34 |               |               | 1.85 ± 1.39  |
| Glutamate                   | 0.17            |               | 1.21 ± 0.26 |               |               | 1.83 ± 0.31  |
| Succinate                   | 0.01            |               |             |               |               | 0.29 ± 0.10  |
| Catecholamine and metabolite profile (µmol per mg of tissue) |                 |               |             |               |               |               |
| Dopamine                    | 0.07            | 0.38 ± 0.08   | 2.55 ± 0.04 |               |               | 0.23 ± 0.05  |
| 3,4-Dihydroxybenzeneacetatea| 0.00            | 0.05 ± 0.02   | 0.23 ± 0.05 |               |               | 0.00 ± 0.00  |
| Norepinephrine              | 12.33           | 0.06 ± 0.03   | 33.87 ± 29.41|               |               | 0.81 ± 0.78  |
| Normetanephrine              | 0.00            | 0.02 ± 0.01   | 0.00 ± 0.00 |               |               | 0.03 ± 0.00  |
| Epinephrine                 | 16.15           | 0.00          | 0.00 ± 0.00 |               |               | 0.00 ± 0.00  |
| Tyrosine                    | 0.00            | 0.11 ± 0.01   | 0.00 ± 0.00 |               |               | 0.00 ± 0.00  |

*a3,4-Dihydroxyphenylacetic acid (DOPAC).*

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Similar to SDH-deficient human paragangliomas, the catecholamine profile of RSO xenografts showed a predominance of dopamine, low levels of norepinephrine and undetectable epinephrine (Table 1).

**Transcriptome and immunoblots**

RS0 xenografts show high expression of canonical cluster 1 markers associated with the Hif2a regulatory network (Table 2) and with hereditary SDHB mutations in the Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) (Fishbein et al. 2017) and previous comparable studies (Burnichon et al. 2011, Castro-Vega et al. 2015). These include Hif2a (also known as Epas1) and its targets including Vegfa and Adm (Table 2, and complete list in Supplementary Table 6). RNAseq also confirms the near total loss of Sdhb mRNA in RSO xenografts, with residual low level expression consistent with the presence of blood vessels and other non-neoplastic cells (Fig. 2C). A novel finding is the presence of concomitant, though lesser, reduction in mRNA transcripts of other SDH subunits (Supplementary Table 6). Surprisingly, RS1/2 also shows modest reductions in multiple SDH subunits despite the presence of immunoreactive SDHB and a relatively low level of Hif2a (Supplementary Table 6).

To further test how expression of the critical markers HIF2A and SDHB at the protein level correlates with immunohistochemical and RNAseq data, immunoblots of RS0 and RS1/2 xenografts were probed for these proteins in parallel with their corresponding cell lines. The PC12 rat pheochromocytoma, which is known to express HIF2A (Bechmann et al. 2019) but be Sdhb- intact, served as a positive control. In xenograft tissue, RS0 shows high HIF2A expression consistent with its high expression at the RNA level, while expression in RS1/2 is relatively low. Interestingly, in cell cultures this pattern is reversed as a result of increased expression in RS1/2. Cell cultures also show that protein expression is not completely unresponsive to O$_2$ concentration in either RS0 or RS1/2 cells. Importantly, however, expression in RS0 cells at 5% O$_2$, which approximates the concentration in solid tumors (Carreau et al. 2011), is comparable to expression in xenograft tumor tissue (Fig. 7). Immunoblots confirm the loss of SDHB in RSO cells, while SDHA is both retained and slightly increased in primary Sdhb$^{-/-}$ vs Sdhb$^{-/-}$ xenografts (Fig. 7A) and in RS0 compared to RS1/2 cells (Fig. 7B). This increase may be related to a reported role of Sdha in an alternate assembly of respiratory complex 2 that decreases metabolite synthesis and cell proliferation in response to knockdown of SDHB (Bezawork-Geleta et al. 2018).

**Cross-species clustering analysis**

In the TCGA study, consensus clustering divided 173 human samples of PC/PGs tumors into four molecularly defined groups: a kinase signaling subtype, a pseudohypoxia subtype, a WNT-altered subtype and a cortical admixture subtype (Fishbein et al. 2017). We performed cross-species consensus clustering analysis to test where among those subtypes the rat tumor samples would correspond. To do this, the rat RNAseq data were first analyzed to identify human homologs among the 3000 most highly expressed SDHB-associated genes used in the TCGA study. This yielded a set of 1699 overlapping genes. Consensus clustering was performed as described in Methods. First, using the 1699 gene sample set to re-analyze the TCGA data, the vast majority of the human TCGA data sets clustered to the same group as originally described for the 3000 genes in the published TCGA study, indicating that the reduced consensus sample set does not adversely affect the clustering results. When all three rat samples were then clustered with the human samples, the rat samples were all clustered together, indicating that the rat samples are more similar to each other than to human samples.

**Table 2** RNAseq data comparing expression of Epas1 and genes in its regulatory network in RS0 and RS1/2 xenografts and pooled rat adrenal medullas (RAM).

| Gene* | RAM (RPKM$^a$) | RS0 (RPKM) | RS1/2 (RPKM) | RS0/RAM | RS1/2/RAM |
|-------|---------------|------------|--------------|---------|-----------|
| Epas1 | 80.01         | 1074.63    | 76.62        | 13.43   | 0.96      |
| Egln3 | 1.44          | 23.29      | 11.77        | 10.37   | 1.07      |
| Bhlhe40 | 10.99        | 114.0      | 62.04        | 11.81   | 1.21      |
| Vegfa | 51.43         | 607.36     | 0.50         | 7.95    | 0.27      |
| Twist1 | 1.86          | 14.82      | 5.9          | 91.18   | 2.23      |
| Serpine1 | 2.65         | 241.62     | 2.99         | 109.78  | 0.55      |
| Adora2a | 5.41          | 593.88     |              |         |           |

*Genes listed are from the NCBI HIF-2-alpha transcription Network (Biosystems NCBI, https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/biosystems/137956?Sel=geneid:2034 #show=genes). Those with the highest in the ratios in RSO to RAM are shown. Raw data are expressed as reads per kilobase of transcript per million mapped reads (RPKM). The constitutive expression of Epas1 in RAM is consistent with findings in normal embryos (Favier et al. 1999).
that it arose in an animal with a hereditary \textit{Sdhb} mutation. RS 1/2, which was derived from a different primary PC, has lost the mutated \textit{Sdhb} allele retains one WT allele. RS1/2 shows some succinate accumulation consistent with haploinsufficiency but is not fully Sdh deficient. It differs from RS0 in showing intact staining for SDHB, a greater degree of neuroendocrine differentiation and a largely different transcriptome, although some markers are shared. RS1/2 serves both as a control for studies of RS0 and as a potential tool for studying patients’ tumors that may be haploinsufficient for SDH but have undetermined driver mutations. The main focus of this communication is on RS0 and RS1/2 xenografts, which would have the greatest immediate relevance to human tumors \textit{in vivo}. Subsequent publications will entail detailed characterization of the cell lines and their applications.

RS0 and RS1/2 originated and have been maintained in the form of xenografts that were never in cell culture – that is, the equivalent of early passage human PDX models. They may therefore be especially valuable for pre-clinical drug testing. These xenografts grow slowly enough to faithfully represent aggressive human PGs, but rapidly enough to be practical for testing and imaging. Since there is a pending clinical trial of an EPAS1 inhibitor for metastatic PG (NCT02974738) (Tella \textit{et al.} 2017), RS0 xenografts might be immediately relevant for pre-clinical drug testing as well as basic research. Features that RS0 xenografts share with SDH-deficient human PGs include identical histology (Tischler \& deKrijger 2015), loss of SDHB protein with retention of SDHA (Korpershoek \textit{et al.} 2011, Papathomas \textit{et al.} 2015) and expression of the neuroendocrine markers TH and chromogranin A (Letouze \textit{et al.} 2013). The presence of these markers indicates that they are not an irrelevant or dedifferentiated cell type, while the relatively low expression is comparable to that in human tumors (Letouze \textit{et al.} 2013). Shared molecular markers include accumulation of a high concentration of succinate, metabolic rewiring and a transcriptional profile including high expression of multiple markers directly sensitive to impaired electron transport or hypoxia. The latter include Hif2a and its downstream targets including Vegfa.

Several highly expressed genes in RS0 xenografts are strong direct indicators of adaptive responses to the pathobiology of SDH deficiency. These include \textit{Cox4i2} (cytochrome c oxidase subunit 4I2), which catalyzes electron transfer from reduced cytochrome c to oxygen, and \textit{Ndufa4l2} (mitochondrial complex associated like 2), which encodes a subunit of Complex I of the respiratory chain. These markers are two of the three ‘exemplar genes’
cited in the TCGA study for being consistently associated with pseudohypoxia in human PGs (Fishbein et al. 2017) and Ndufa4/2 is of particular interest in that complex I activity is reportedly upregulated in SDHB mutated human PGs (Pang et al. 2018). However, the third exemplar gene, Ntrg2 (netrin-G2) which modulates development of neuronal circuits and is less obviously related to SDH deficiency, is also not highly expressed in R50. This is the case for many, but not all, other apparent mismatches. Notably, the hypoxia-inducible factor Egln3 (egl-9 family hypoxia-inducible factor 3, also known as Phd3), which is highly expressed in R50, has been strongly associated with pseudohypoxia in VHL but not SDHB- mutated human tumors (Burnichon et al. 2011). While the transcriptome of R50 is not a perfect match to human cluster 1, many of the mismatches that are peripherally related to the primary functional defects might reflect different species, different anatomic sites (Fiedler et al. 2018) and different cells of origin within an anatomic site or different developmental stages in which the human vs rat tumors originate. A particular finding suggesting an influence of developmental stage is the overexpression of Ret in R50. Ret is widely expressed in early adrenal development but is downregulated in maturing chromaffin cells and maintained in neurons (Powers et al. 2009).

An important aspect of this study is the use of normal adrenal medullary tissue as a reference. This contrasts with profiling studies of human PCPG, in which the different tumor clusters were compared only to each other and to an unrelated reference DNA (Burnichon et al. 2011, Fishbein et al. 2017). By specifically focusing on large differences between a tumor and its tissue of origin, rather than solely between subsets of tumors, it may be possible to find new drug targets in the HIF2A transcription network that entail fewer systemic side effects than targeting HIF2A itself. Hypothetically, those systemic effects could include depletion of normal stem cells (Hammarlund et al. 2018). A disadvantage of normal adrenal medulla is the potential confounding effect of residual adrenal cortex, which is inevitably present, in some analyses. However, by selectively focusing on large differences in specific markers, it is possible to discern distinctive characteristics of the cells of interest, as shown in the TCGA ‘cortical admixture’ cluster. In addition, it may be possible to calculate the proportion of cortical contamination (Fiedler et al. 2010). An interesting observation in this study was that carefully dissected normal rat adrenal medulla clustered in the pseudohypoxic group. While this might partly represent an artifact of cross-species clustering, it is consistent with previous reports of HIF2A expression in normal sympathoadrenal development and function (Favier et al. 1999, Richter et al. 2013).

Although PDX-like xenografts are an excellent model for pre-clinical drug testing (Shultz et al. 2014), cell lines are needed for mechanistic studies. Availability of cell lines also makes models accessible to many more researchers than those who would work with xenografts alone. Our cell culture studies were undertaken both to establish cell lines from R50 and RSI/2 xenografts and to test whether non-conventional culture conditions that we previously demonstrated to be favorable to survival of cells from a unique SDH-deficient human GIST (Powers et al. 2018) would apply to these new models. Our results replicated our previous finding that routine ‘normoxic’ culture conditions are deleterious. In addition, we demonstrated an adverse effect of serum, which has been reported by others in PDX-derived cultures of human neuroblastoma. The deleterious effect of oxygen is not surprising because pO2 in vivo has been measured at ~41 mm Hg in normal liver (equivalent to ~5% O2) and ranged from 0–54 mm Hg in tumors of different types (Carreau et al. 2011). In both normal and neoplastic cells, low O2 may help to maintain stem cells (Hammarlund et al. 2018). The beneficial effects that we observed with low or absent serum and stem cell-promoting medium supplements in establishing the R50 and RSI/2 cell lines is entirely consistent with a recent report by Persson et al. that neuroblastoma cells cultured from human patient-derived xenografts differentiate in serum but remain tumorigenic when propagated in stem cell medium (Persson et al. 2017). It remains to be determined how these new insights will affect future efforts to develop cell lines of human PC and PG. However, our cell culture findings and those of others suggest a need for radical departure from conventional methods, perhaps especially for SDH-deficient tumors. This applies both to model development and pre-clinical drug testing, which is usually conducted in 95% air/5% CO2 and may thereby exaggerate the efficacy of many chemotherapeutic agents (Carreau et al. 2011). However, individual tumors and different tumor types (Burgess et al. 2017) will likely require individualized culture conditions. It is well known that genetic and epigenetic characteristics of individual cancers and types of cancer can dictate different approaches to treatment (Burgess et al. 2017).

Multiple factors likely contributed to the development of these new rat models, including the innate proclivity of aging rats to develop PCs, combined with postnatal irradiation. Both of these have previously been reported for other rodent PC models (Powers et al. 2000). Very little is known about the genetic changes underlying the general
susceptibility of rats to pheochromocytomas. The most extensively characterized and relevant model is MENX, which is caused by a loss-of-function mutation in Cdkn1b, which encodes the cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor p27Kip1. This change was not found in RS0 or RS1/2, and, to our knowledge, whole genome sequencing has not been performed on MENX rats. Comparisons of these might yield useful information. It is plausible that, in our models, radiation caused somatic genetic changes that accelerated the growth of spontaneous PCs and caused one of the tumors to become SDH deficient. However, consistent with human PCPG, both RS0 and RS1/2 had very low mutation burdens, very few gene coding mutations and relatively stable genomes. Chromothripsis of chr5 caused by a single catastrophic event was likely important for tumorigenesis of RS1/2, and exposure to ionizing radiation may be implicated. However, chromothripsis is also a feature of some primary human PCPG (Flynn et al. 2015), which ostensibly arises in the absence of radiation exposure.

As in human PCPG, few co-operative DNA mutations could be found in rat PC and the tumor genome is typified by recurrent chromosomal arm level loss events resulting in presumed haploinsufficiency of multiple genes. Chromosomal loss events syntenic with recurrently altered chromosomal regions in human SDHB-associated PCPG indicate that the RS0 model faithfully represents the genome of human PCPG and therefore may be useful for dissecting therapeutic vulnerabilities based on common co-operative somatic changes. A homozygous deletion was detected in cell line RS0 involving two neighboring tumor suppressor genes Cdkn2a and Cdkn2b. This event is predicted to cause complete loss of function of the protein p19ARF, which is encoded by an alternative reading frame of Cdkn2a. p19ARF is a negative regulator of MDM2 and loss of p19ARF is known to cause indirect suppression of p53 through the ARF-MDM2-p53 tumor-suppressor axis (Eischen et al. 1999). However, because the Cdkn2a deletion was not detected in the RS0 xenograft, it most likely was not involved in early tumorigenesis of RS0. The existence of the Cdkn2a deletion may further increase the relevance of the RS0 cell line as a pre-clinical model because p16INK4a/Cdkn2a gene expression is frequently downregulated in human PCPG, either by genetic abnormalities or promoter methylation (Muscarella et al. 2008), and is associated with poor prognosis (Kiss et al. 2008).

Two hypotheses were implicit in the protocol design and outcome this study. The first is that unpredictable haploinsufficiencies resulting from radiation damage or other causes may account for features required for tumorigenesis in addition to loss of Sdhb, likening the RS0 model to human PCPG. This might explain why previous (‘clean’) gene knockouts of SDH subunits in various combinations with targeted loss of selected tumor suppressors, for example, in mice, have failed, because of their inability to achieve these other genetic effects. The second hypothesis is that rats are innately more susceptible than mice to this type of tumor. It is therefore of interest that we unsuccessfully tested a similar protocol in mice prior to undertaking the rat project. The radiation protocol was used initially by Jacks et al. to increase the frequency of pheochromocytomas in heterozygous Nf1 knockout mice (Jacks et al. 1994) and then in our laboratory to establish the derivative MPC cell lines (Tischler et al. 1995, Powers et al. 2000). Even more important than radiation, outbreeding of the 129Sv/Nf+/- mutation carriers to WT C57BL6 mice was essential for tumorigenesis, possibly reflecting different levels of tumor suppressor genes expressed in different mouse strains (Hawes et al. 2007). In attempting to develop a Sdhb-null mouse model, we followed exactly the protocol previously used to develop MPC cells. We obtained four male 129Sv/Nf+/- mice from Dr Louis Maher at the Mayo Clinic (Maher et al. 2011) and outbred them to WT C57BL6 mice. Over the ~2-year lifespan study, pheochromocytomas developed in 3 of 44 irradiated Sdhb+/- mice and 1 of 10 in irradiated WT mice. However, all of the tumors were Sdh-intact by immunohistochemistry and none gave rise to cell lines (previously unpublished data). Cumulatively, our experience suggests that the success of the present project resulted from favorable features of rat biology together with irradiation. However, it is possible that a comparable mouse model might still be developed using mice with a different genetic background or by using a larger number of mice.

In summary, we have developed xenograft and cell line models called RS0 and RS1/2 from PCs that arose in rats with a heterozygous germline mutation in Sdhb. RS0 closely recapitulates the genotype and phenotype of hereditary SDHB-mutated human PCPG and appears to be a promising model for pre-clinical studies of these tumors. In addition, we identified a carotid body paraganglioma that also appeared to be SDH-deficient based on immunohistochemistry. That tumor was too small to graft or culture and it is possible that additional small paragangliomas were missed amid the large amount of fat in aged rats. This new model may be useful both for pre-clinical drug testing and for basic research aimed at understanding mechanisms involved in the development and progression of SDH-deficient human PCPG.
Rat model for Sdhb-mutated paraganglioma

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ERRATUM

A xenograft and cell line model of SDH-deficient pheochromocytoma derived from Sdhb+/- rats

James F Powers1, Brent Cochran2, James D Baleja2, Hadley D Sikes3, Andrew D Pattison4, Xue Zhang2, Inna Lomakin1, Annette Shepard-Barry1, Karel Pacak5, Sun Jin Moon3, Troy F Langford3, Kassi Taylor Stein3, Richard W Tothill4,6, Yingbin Ouyang7 and Arthur S Tischler1

1Department of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine, Tufts Medical Center, Tufts University School of Medicine, Boston, Massachusetts, USA
2Department of Developmental, Molecular and Chemical Biology, Tufts University School of Medicine, Boston, Massachusetts, USA
3Department of Chemical Engineering, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Massachusetts, USA
4Department of Clinical Pathology, University of Melbourne, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia
5Section on Medical Neuroendocrinology, Eunice Kennedy Shriver Division National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, Bethesda, Maryland, USA
6Peter MacCallum Cancer Centre, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia
7Cyagen US Inc, Santa Clara, California, USA

Correspondence should be addressed to J F Powers: jpowers1@tuftsmedicalcenter.org

The authors and journal apologise for an error in the above paper, which appeared in volume 27 part 6, pages 337–354. The error relates to the artwork of Table 1 on page 346, in which the units were given in micromoles per milligram of tissue, when the units should have been given in nanomoles per milligram of tissue. The correct Table 1 is given in full below:
Table 1  NMR metabolomic profiles of RS0, RS1/2 xenografts and rat adrenal medulla (RAM).

| Metabolite                  | RS0 (n = 4) Mean ± s.e.m. | RS1/2 (n = 3) Mean ± s.e.m. |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| The 10 most abundant detectable metabolites (nmol/mg of tissue) |                           |                             |
| Epinephrine                 | 16.15                     | Norepinephrine              |
| Norepinephrine              | 12.33                     | 33.87 ± 29.41               |
| Glucose                     | 2.31                      | Lactate                     |
| Lactate                     | 0.89                      | 15.18 ± 3.66                |
| Taurine                     | 0.61                      | Norepinephrine              |
| Glucose                     | 0.59                      | 12.11 ± 2.69                |
| Succinate                   | 0.44                      | Taurine                     |
| ATP (or ADP)                | 0.30                      | 2.99 ± 1.19                 |
| Ascorbate                   | 0.21                      | Ascorbate                   |
| Glutamate                   | 0.17                      | 5.99 ± 1.19                 |
| AMP                         | 0.07                      | Norepinephrine              |
| AMP                         | 0.07                      | 0.38 ± 0.08                 |
| AMP                         | 0.00                      | 0.05 ± 0.02                 |
| AMP                         | 0.12                      | 0.06 ± 0.03                 |
| AMP                         | 0.00                      | 0.02 ± 0.01                 |
| AMP                         | 0.00                      | 0.00 ± 0.00                 |
| AMP                         | 0.00                      | 0.11 ± 0.01                 |
| AMP                         | 0.00                      | 0.81 ± 0.78                 |
| AMP                         | 0.00                      | 0.03 ± 0.00                 |

Catecholamine and metabolite profile (nmol/mg of tissue)

| Metabolite                  | RS0 (n = 4) Mean ± s.e.m. | RS1/2 (n = 3) Mean ± s.e.m. |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Dopamine                    | 0.07                      | Norepinephrine              |
| 3,4-Dihydroxybenzeneacetate | 0.00                      | 0.05 ± 0.02                 |
| Norepinephrine              | 0.12                      | 0.06 ± 0.03                 |
| Normetanephrine             | 0.00                      | 0.02 ± 0.01                 |
| Epinephrine                 | 16.15                     | 0.00 ± 0.00                 |
| Tyrosine                    | 0.00                      | 0.11 ± 0.01                 |

*3,4 dihydroxyphenylacetic acid (DOPAC).*
Targeting pheochromocytoma/paraganglioma with polyamine inhibitors

Sudhir Kumar Rai a,1, Fernando Brit b,1, Heather M. Hatch c, Yiling Xu a, Laura Shelton d, Srilaxmi Kalavalapalli a, Arielle Click a, Douglas Lee b, Chris Beecher d, Austin Kirby h, Kimi Kong i, Jose Trevino i, Abhishek Jha i, Shashank Jatav j, Kriti Kriti j, Soumya Luthra k, Timothy J. Garrett k, Joy Guingab-Cagmat k, Daniel Plant l, Prodip Bose l, Kenneth Cusi b, Robert A. Hromas b, Arthur S. Tischler m, James F. Powers n, Priyanka Gupta o, James Bibb o, Felix Beuschlein o, Mercedes Robledo p, Bruna Calsina p, Henri Timmers q, David Taieb q, Matthias Kroiss q, Susan Richter r, Katharina Langton s, Graeme Eisenhofer t, u, v, Raymond Bergeron Jr. w, Karel Pacak x, Sergei G. Tevosian c, *, Hans K. Ghayee b, *, *
b

a Department of Medicine, Division of Endocrinology, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA
b Department of Medicine, Division of Endocrinology, University of Florida and Malcom Randall VA Medical Center, Gainesville, FL, USA
c Department of Physiological Sciences, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA
d Scientific Project Development, Human Metabolome Technologies, Boston, MA, USA
e Department of Immunology, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, TX, USA
f Omic Insight, LLC, Durham, NC, USA
g IROA Technologies, Chapel Hill, NC, USA
h Department of Medicine, University of Texas Health Science Center, San Antonio, TX, USA
i Department of Surgery, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA
j Elucidata, Cambridge, MA, USA
k Department of Pathology, Immunology, and Laboratory Medicine, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA
l Department of Physiological Sciences, University of Florida, Malcom Randall VA Medical Center, Gainesville, FL, USA
m Department of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine, Tufts Medical Center, Boston, MA, USA
n Department of Surgery, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA
o Department of Surgery, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA

* Correspondence to: S.G. Tevosian, Department of Physiological Sciences, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32610, USA.
** Correspondence to: H.K. Ghayee, Division of Endocrinology, University of Florida and Malcom Randall VA Medical Center, Gainesville, FL 32610, USA.
1 Authors contributed equally.
2 CRediT authorship contribution statement

Sudhir Kumar Rai: Methodology, Investigation, Writing - original draft. Fernando Brit: Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Resources, Writing - original draft. Heather M. Hatch: Methodology, Investigation, Yiling Xu: Methodology, Investigation, Laura Shelton: Formal analysis, Investigation, Srilaxmi Kalavalapalli: Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Arielle Click: Investigation, Douglas Lee: Investigation, Chris Beecher: Investigation, Austin Kirby: Investigation, Kimi Kong: Formal analysis, Jose Trevino: Methodology, Abhishek Jha: Formal analysis, Shashank Jatav: Formal analysis, Kriti Kriti: Funding acquisition, Soumya Luthra: Formal analysis, Timothy J. Garrett: Investigation, Joy Guingab-Cagmat: Investigation, Daniel Plant: Investigation, Prodip Bose: Investigation, Kenneth Cusi: Resources, Funding acquisition, Robert A. Hromas: Conceptualization, Resources, Funding acquisition, Arthur S. Tischler: Resources, James F. Powers: Resources, Priyanka Gupta: Resources, James Bibb: Resources, Felix Beuschlein: Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Resources, Writing - original draft, Mercedes Robledo: Resources, Bruna Calsina: Resources, Henri Timmers: Resources, David Taieb: Resources, Matthias Kroiss: Resources, Susan Richter: Resources, Katharina Langton: Resources, Graeme Eisenhofer: Conceptualization, Resources, Project administration, Raymond Bergeron: Conceptualization, Resources, Karel Pacak: Conceptualization, Resources, Sergei G. Tevosian: Conceptualization, Resources, Writing - original draft, Project administration, Hans K. Ghayee: Conceptualization, Writing - original draft, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

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Declaration of competing interest
R.B. invented the polyamine drug platforms and holds a number of patents in polyamine drug development. H.K.G. received royalties from the University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center at Dallas.
Alabama, Birmingham, AL, USA ºKlinik für Endokrinologie, Diabetologie und Klinische Ernährung, UniversitätsSpital Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland ªHereditary Endocrine Cancer Group, Spanish National Cancer Research Center (CNIO), and Centro de Investigación Biomédica en Red de Enfermedades Raras (CIBERER), Madrid, Spain ºDepartment of Internal Medicine, Radboud University Medical Center, Nijmegen, Netherlands ºDepartment of Nuclear Medicine, La Timone University Hospital, European Center for Research in Medical Imaging, Aix Marseille Université, Marseille, France ºDepartment of Internal Medicine, Division of Endocrinology and Diabetology, University Hospital Würzburg, University of Würzburg Würzburg, Germany ºInstitute of Clinical Chemistry and Laboratory Medicine, University Hospital Carl Gustav Carus, Technische Universität Dresden, Germany ºDepartment of Medicine III, University Hospital Carl Gustav Carus, Technische Universität Dresden, Germany ºDivision of Clinical Neurochemistry, Institute of Clinical Chemistry and Laboratory Medicine, and Department of Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, University Hospital Carl Gustav Carus, Technische Universität Dresden, Germany ºDepartment of Medicinal Chemistry, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA ºEunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA

Abstract

Background: Pheochromocytomas (PCCs) and paragangliomas (PGLs) are neuroendocrine tumors that are mostly benign. Metastatic disease does occur in about 10% of cases of PCC and up to 25% of PGL, and for these patients no effective therapies are available. Patients with mutations in the succinate dehydrogenase subunit B (SDHB) gene tend to have metastatic disease. We hypothesized that a down-regulation in the active succinate dehydrogenase B subunit should result in notable changes in cellular metabolic profile and could present a vulnerability point for successful pharmacological targeting.

Methods: Metabolomic analysis was performed on human hPheo1 cells and shRNA SDHB knockdown hPheo1 (hPheo1 SDHB KD) cells. Additional analysis of 115 human fresh frozen samples was conducted. In vitro studies using N₁, N₁₁-diethylnorspermine (DENSPM) and N₁, N₁₂-diethylspermine (DESPM) treatments were carried out. DENSPM efficacy was assessed in human cell line derived mouse xenografts.

Results: Components of the polyamine pathway were elevated in hPheo1 SDHB KD cells compared to wild-type cells. A similar observation was noted in SDHx PCC/PGLs tissues compared to their non-mutated counterparts. Specifically, spermidine, and spermine were significantly elevated in SDHx-mutated PCC/PGLs, with a similar trend in hPheo1 SDHB KD cells. Polyamine pathway inhibitors DENSPM and DESPM effectively inhibited growth of hPheo1 cells in vitro as well in mouse xenografts.

Conclusions: This study demonstrates overactive polyamine pathway in PCC/PGL with SDHB mutations. Treatment with polyamine pathway inhibitors significantly inhibited hPheo1 cell growth and led to growth suppression in xenograft mice treated with DENSPM. These studies strongly implicate the polyamine pathway in PCC/PGL pathophysiology and provide new foundation for exploring the role for polyamine analogue inhibitors in treating metastatic PCC/PGL.

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Précis:
Cell line metabolomics on hPheo1 cells and PCC/PGL tumor tissue indicate that the polyamine pathway is activated. Polyamine inhibitors in vitro and in vivo demonstrate that polyamine inhibitors are promising for malignant PCC/PGL treatment. However, further research is warranted.

Keywords
Polyamine; Pheochromocytoma (PCC); Paraganglioma (PGL); SDHB; DENSPTM; DESPM

1. Introduction
Pheochromocytomas (PCC) and paragangliomas (PGL) are catecholamine-producing tumors derived from chromaffin cells of the adrenal medulla and sympathetic/parasympathetic chain ganglia, respectively. Patients afflicted with metastatic PCC/PGLs have a <40% 5 year survival rate [1-3]. Hypertension and palpitations are the usual presenting symptoms, and devastating complications of excess catecholamine levels including cardiovascular collapse have been documented [4]. Surgical removal is the only definitive treatment, as reliable medical therapies to control tumor growth or metastatic lesions are limited [5,6].

Despite major advances in understanding the genetic landscape of hereditary PCC/PGL syndromes, the biochemical mechanisms regulating growth and metastasis in these neuroendocrine tumors remain obscure and druggable targets have yet to emerge. The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) consortium published the most comprehensive study of PCC/PGLs through multimodal genomic profiling in the largest assortment of tumors collected internationally, with standardized quality control and internally reviewed histopathology [7]. This work solidified a classification of PCC/PGL that includes independent tumor groups based on their profiling. Cluster 1 includes the hypoxia pathway associated tumors (with mutations in VHL and SDHx). Cluster 2 includes tumors associated with kinase signaling pathway (with mutations in RET, NF-1, and TMEM127). Cluster 3 is composed of tumors carrying the Mastermind-like 3 (MAML-3) mutations [7-11].

The gene most closely associated with metastatic tumor behavior is the succinate dehydrogenase complex iron sulfur subunit B gene (SDHB) that belongs to Cluster I [12-14]. SDHB is a subunit of a key Krebs cycle enzyme, succinate dehydrogenase, that is involved in conversion of succinate to fumarate [15,16]. Mutations in the SDHx genes are associated with accumulation of various intermediate metabolites controlling tumorigenesis, including excess succinate that is referred to as “oncometabolite” [17]. Using genetically engineered mouse cells, investigators have established that loss of SDHB promotes cell proliferation via pyruvate carboxylation, succinate-induced hypoxia-inducible factor alpha (HIFα) stabilization, and enhanced gene methylation [16,18,19]. Data from these studies has provided valuable insight into the metabolic pathogenesis of PCC/PGL with SDHx mutations. Genetic characterization of PCC/PGL [7] provided a unique opportunity for a comprehensive understanding of this rare neuroendocrine tumor by complementing it with metabolomic analysis of the same, extensively documented, tumor sets.
Several studies have indicated that neuroblastomas exhibit closely associated behavior with PCC/PGL, and recent work has shown that the polyamine pathway plays a key role in neuroblastoma pathogenesis. Polyamines (putrescine, spermidine and spermine) are ubiquitous polycations that bind nucleic acids and proteins. They play essential roles in many fundamental processes ensuring normal cell growth, including protein and nucleic acid metabolism, chromatin organization, ion channel control, and cell death regulation. Polyamines are required to maintain cell proliferation. The interplay between overcharged polyamine metabolism and several cancer pathways holds notable promise for drug therapy (reviewed in [20,21]). The data on polyamine pathway in the adrenal medulla is scarce [22,23].

While the role of polyamine pathway has not been previously considered for PCC/PGL, the possible link between neuroblastomas and the polyamine pathway was recognized thirty years ago [24]. Neuroblastoma, together with PCC and PGL, constitute the three known types of primary tumors that arise from the autonomic nervous system [25,26]. Several genetic alterations have been described for neuroblastoma, most prominently amplification of MYCN proto-oncogene that predicts poor outcome [27,28]. With respect to polyamine metabolism, ornithine decarboxylase (ODC, encoded by the ODC1 gene) is the key rate-limiting enzyme in polyamine synthesis pathway that converts ornithine to putrescine; its expression and function are tightly regulated at multiple levels [28]. ODC1 was one of the first direct MYC targets discovered and these genes are frequently co-amplified [29,30]. Importantly, even in the absence of MYCN amplification, ODC1 is overexpressed in high-risk compared to lower-risk tumors, and this overexpression is associated with reduced survival [31-33]. These earlier observations and several recent breakthroughs in understanding the role of the polyamine pathway in neuroblastoma [34,35] suggest that over-active polyamine pathway could be an important negative factor in all primary autonomic nervous system tumors.

Suppressing polyamine synthesis by targeting ODC to curb tumor growth has been previously proposed (reviewed in [36]). Importantly, homeostatic cellular polyamine concentrations are maintained through a finely orchestrated balance of synthesis and degradation as well as uptake and export. Targeting polyamine pathway for therapeutic purposes has to take these multiple processes into consideration. In this respect, down-regulation of ODC activity by its inhibitor difluoromethylornithine (DFMO) triggers compensatory increase in polyamine uptake [37,38]. While the mechanisms of polyamine transport are not entirely understood, synthetic polyamine analogues were developed that resemble natural polyamines, but do not support cellular growth [39]. These compounds could successfully reduce cellular polyamine concentrations while simultaneously jamming their import from the extracellular milieu.

Since succinate dehydrogenase mutations in PCC/PGL are associated with aggressive disease, we hypothesized that a down-regulation in the active succinate dehydrogenase B subunit should result in notable changes in cellular metabolic profile and could present a vulnerability point for successful pharmacological targeting. To examine the importance of the polyamine pathway in PCC/PGLs, we performed metabolite analysis on the progenitor human cell line originated from a PCC, hPheo1 wild-type (WT) [40] and its derivative,
hPheo1 SDHB knockdown (KD) cells. We found that the polyamine pathway was upregulated in hPheo1 SDHB KD cells and confirmed these results with PCC/PGL tissue samples with SDHx mutations.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Cell culture

The hPheo1 WT cell line derived from a human progenitor PCC was previously described [40]. hPheo1 WT cells and hPheo1 SDHB KD cells were cultured in RPMI 1640 with 10% FBS. The BJ fibroblast cell line was cultured in DMEM with 10% FBS.

The metabolite extraction protocol was previously described [41] and used here with minor modifications. A six well plate (60 mm dish size) of hPheo1 WT cells and hPheo1 SDHB KD cells (3 × 10^6) were grown in RPMI with 10% FBS and used for the extraction of intracellular metabolites after 72 h. Media was aspirated and cells were washed twice with 5% mannitol solution (10 mL first and then 2 mL). 800 μL of Optima LC/MS grade methanol (Fisher Scientific, Fairlawn, NJ, USA) was added to cells for 30 s to inactivate enzymes. Next, the cell extract was treated with 550 μL of internal standards solution provided by Human Metabolome Technology, Inc., Tsuruoka, Japan (H3304-1002, Human Metabolome Technologies, Inc., Tsuruoka, Japan) and left undisturbed for another 30 s. The extract was obtained and centrifuged 2300 × g at 4 °C for 5 min. 800 μL of upper aqueous layer was centrifugally filtered through a Millipore 5-kDa cutoff filter at 9100 × g and 4 °C for 5 h to remove proteins. The filtrate was centrifugally concentrated and resuspended in 50 μL of Milli-Q water for CE-TOF/MS analysis.

2.2. SDHB knockdown, transduction and validation

A total of 2×10^5 hPheo1 WT cells were seeded in 24 well plates and 750ul of SMARTvector Lentiviral Human SDHB shRNA (Dharmacon) were transfected using Polybrene Infection/Transfection Reagent (EMD Millipore, USA) and incubated overnight. Post-24 h, cells were rescued with ACL-4 media containing serum. At 48 h post-transfection, cells were selected via addition of 500 μg/mL of puromycin for several weeks. RNA from puromycin-resistant cells was isolated and assayed by qRT-PCR.

2.3. Cell line metabolomic analysis

The metabolites were analyzed by using a fused silica capillary (50 μm i.d. × 80 cm total length), with commercial electrophoresis buffer (Solution ID: H3301-1001 for cation analysis (Solution ID: H3301-1001 for cation analysis; Solution ID: H3302-1021 for anion analysis), both from Human Metabolome Technologies) as the electrolyte. The sample was injected at a pressure of 50 mbar for 10s (approximately 10 nL) in cation analysis and 25 s (approximately 25 nL) in anion analysis. The spectrometer was scanned from m/z 50 to 1000. Other conditions were as previously described [42,43].

Peaks were extracted using automatic integration software MasterHands (Keio University, Tsuruoka, Japan) to obtain peak information including m/z and migration time for CE-TOF/MS measurement (MT), and peak area [44]. Signal peaks corresponding to
isotopomers, adduct ions, and other product ions of known metabolites were excluded, and remaining peaks were annotated with putative metabolites from the HMT metabolite database based on their MTs and m/z values determined by TOF/MS (Supplemental Table 1). The tolerance range for peak annotation was configured at ±0.5 min for MT and ± 10 ppm for m/z. In addition, peak areas were normalized against those of internal standards and then the resultant relative area values were further normalized by sample amount using (Eq. (1)).

\[
\text{Relative Peak Area} = \frac{\text{Metabolite Peak Area}}{\text{Internal Standard Peak Area} \times \text{Sample Amount}}
\] (1)

Metabolome measurements were carried out in a facility service at Human Metabolome Technology Inc. (Tsuruoka, Japan).

2.4. Human tissue

2.4.1. PCC/PGL SDHB-deficient tumor samples—Fresh frozen PCCs/PGLs were collected under protocols that also allowed for collection of ENSAT registry and biobank protocols as previously described [45]. PCC/PGL tumors were obtained from University Hospital Carl Gustav Carus, Technische Universität Dresden, Germany; NIH, USA; UniversitätsSpital Zurich, Switzerland; Tufts Medical Center, USA; Spanish National Cancer Research Center (CNIO), Spain; Radboud University Medical Center, Netherlands; Aix Marseille Université, France; and University of Würzburg, Germany. Ten normal adrenal medulla tissue specimens were from the University of Alabama, USA. Tumor procurement was approved under Institutional Review Boards from each respective center/institution and it was used for validation of identified metabolites from hPheo1 SDHB KD and hPheo1 WT cell lines.

2.4.2. (A) Human tumor sample preparation—Adrenal tumor tissue (~5 to 10 mg) was homogenized in 5 mM ammonium acetate at 1800 rpm for 30 s. After 30 min incubation on ice, supernatant was collected by centrifuging at 20,000 × g for 10 min at 4 °C. This supernatant was normalized to the amount of protein in the samples. Protein concentration was determined using Qubit protein quantification kit (Thermo Fisher, San Jose, CA). Following addition of 10 μL of internal standard solution, metabolites were extracted by adding 8:1:1 Acetonitrile: Methanol: Acetone (v/v) and incubating for 30 min at 4 °C. The internal standard solution consisted of D-Leucine-D10(C/D/N Isotopes, Pointe-Claire, Quebec, Canada), L-Tryptophan-2,3,3-D3 (C/D/N Isotopes), Succinic Acid-2,2,3,3-d4(C/D/N Isotopes), L-Tyrosine Ring-13C6 (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Tewksbury, MA, USA), L-Leucine-13C6 (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories), L-Phenylalanine Ring-13C6 (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories), N-BOC-L-tert-Leucine (Acros Organics, Fairlawn, NJ, USA), and N-BOC-L-Aspartic Acid (Acros Organics). Supernatant was dried under a gentle stream of nitrogen at 30 °C. 50 μL of reconstitution solution consisted of BOC-L-Tyrosine, BOC-L-Tryptophan and BOC-D-Phenylalanine was added and samples were analyzed by LC-HRMS [46].
2.5. Metabolite analysis by LC-HRMS

LC-HRMS metabolite analysis was conducted at the Southeast Center for Integrated Metabolomics (SECIM) at the University of Florida. Analysis was performed on a Thermo Q-Exactive Orbitrap mass spectrometer with Dionex UHPLC and autosampler. Samples were analyzed in positive and negative heated electrospray ionization (mass resolution of 35,000 at m/z 200) using separate injections (volumes of 2 μL for positive and 4 μL for negative were injected). Separation was achieved on an ACE 18-PFP 100 × 2.1 mm, 2 μm column with 0.1% formic acid in water as mobile phase A and acetonitrile as mobile phase B. Flow rate was maintained at 350 μL/min with a column temperature of 25 °C [46]. An internally curated metabolite library of 1100 compounds was used for metabolite identification by matching retention time (± 0.2 min) and m/z value (5 ppm for positive and 10 ppm for negative). Metabolites of 115 fresh frozen samples (31 human PCC/PGL tumor samples carrying SDHx mutations, 74 non-SDHx mutated tumor samples, along with 10 normal adrenal medullae as controls) were profiled (Supplemental Table 2). Metabolite descriptions and pathways were derived using the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) Database and the Human Metabolome Database (HMDB).

2.6. Tumor data

Analysis of raw tumor metabolite data was performed on El-Maven as previously described (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2537593) [47]. Thermo.raw format files were converted to an open source format (mzML) using the msConvert tool from ProteoWizard [48]. Compound database used for processing was derived from KEGG database, with final compound database inclusive of all the compounds found in all of the KEGG’s reaction databases. Automated peak picking feature of El-Maven was then used to get the peak intensity of all the metabolites. Polyamine metabolites were observed in positive mode. Cyclic Loess normalization [49] was performed followed by normalization with internal and injection standards to correct for any sample preparation biases or analytical errors. Batch effect correction was performed using edgeR package in R to correct for batch differences [50]. Differential expression analysis was performed using limma package in R to identify metabolites differentially enriched in different cohorts of interest [51].

2.7. Network analysis

Network analysis was performed on Polly IntOmix [52]. Polly IntOmics is an integrated omics analysis tool based on GAM [53] and used to generate pathway level insights from metabolomics data. The network map was generated through Cytoscape and Inkscape tools [54]. See Supplemental Fig. 1 for Cytoscape analysis.

2.8. In-vitro drug testing by clonogenic assay

To measure the IC\textsubscript{50} of polyamine inhibitors, 500 hPheo1 WT cells and hPheo1 SDHB KD cells were plated per well in six well plates. After 24 h, these plates were treated with DENSPM and DESPM concentrations between 10 and 75 nM for 10 days [55]. Human BJ fibroblast cells were used as controls in colony forming assays. After 10 days, the cells were stained with filter sterilized Crystal Violet (0.1%, 25 mL methanol cell culture grade, 75 mL sterilized water) solution, 1.0 mL/well for 30 min. Plates
were washed with distilled water and air dried overnight at room temperature. Then, they were scanned and colony frequency was measured and normalized with Image J (NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA) software version 1.4.

2.9. Spheroid protocol for injections

Cells were seeded at $5 \times 10^4$/mL in 7 mL of DMEM/F12 medium containing 2% B27, 1% penicillin/streptomycin, EGF (20 ng/mL) and bFGF (10 ng/mL) in ultra-low attachment T25 flasks (Corning). After a week, cells were passaged into 15 mL of the medium at a density of $5 \times 10^4$/mL into T75 ultra-low flask and incubated for another week. Cell strainer was used to eliminate single cells. Cell clusters were washed with the collected medium, and the clusters were spun down at 900 xg for 10 min at 4 °C. 1.5 x 10^6 accutase (ThermoFisher) was added to the cell pellet and incubated for 10–30 min at 37 °C in CO₂ incubator. Cells were gently pipetted during the incubation several times. After dissociation, cells were spun down and re-suspended in DMEM/F12 medium. Cells were counted and 7.5 x 10^5 cells/mouse injection were seeded and incubated for a week. The cell suspension containing spheres was transferred into a 50 mL tube and spun down at 900 xg for 10 min. Supernatant was discarded and the sphere pellet re-suspended in PBS, 100 μL/mouse injection. Spheroids were kept on ice until the injection.

2.10. Animals

Commercial athymic scid male mice (Taconic C·B-Igh-1b/IcrTac-Prkdcscid) were used to generate a xenograft model of PCC/PGL. Animals were obtained from the vendor at 5 weeks and allowed to acclimate for two additional weeks. Subcutaneous tumors using hPheo1 WT and hPheo1-SDHB KD cells were created as previously described [56,57]. 2 x 10^6 cells grown as spheroids were re-suspended in PBS and injected subcutaneously into the right flank of animals. The control cohort was injected with PBS only. Animals were monitored biweekly until tumors started to appear (were palpable) at approximately two months, at which point animals were monitored daily. When the tumors reached a well-defined, caliper-measurable size (100–200 mm³), animals carrying either hPheo1 WT or hPheo1 SDHB KD xenografts were inspected by the MRI and divided into two groups, the PBS-injected (control group) or DENSPM-injected (treated group). The protocol to examine the effects of DENSPM in xenograft animals was approved by the UF IACUC (Study #201609547). Once the tumor in the untreated animals reached the predetermined size of ~2000 mm³, they were inspected by the MRI, sacrificed and tumor tissue preserved. Furthermore, MRI was used to detect tumors and measure tumor growth by volumetric assessment at the completion of the experiment. Between MRI procedures, tumors were measured every other day using digital caliper and tumor volume (V) was calculated using the formula $V = ab^2 \times 0.52$, where a and b are major and minor axes of the tumor foci, respectively. hPheo1 WT and hPheo1-SDHB KD-injected mice with tumor volume at ~100 mm³ were divided into two following treatment groups with similar tumor volume distribution: (1) vehicle or (2) DENSPM administered by intraperitoneal injection at 60 mg/kg QD. The concentration of the DENSPM was based on previous work [58]. Bernacki et al. [58] observed some toxicity and weight loss at a dose of 80 mg/kg so here a lower dose (60 mg/kg) and lower frequency of administration (QD vs. TID) was used. All treated animals were kept on treatment for 46 days, at which point they were inspected by the MRI.
sacrificed and tumor tissue (if any) preserved. Animal weight and normal activity were monitored.

2.11. MRI procedures

Mice were imaged using a MR Solutions quadrature birdcage in a mouse cradle (Minerve Equipement Veterinaire, Esteremay, France) maintained at 37 °C. Hearing protection and eye lubricant were applied and the animals anesthetized with 2% to 2.5% isoflurane at 0.8 L/min oxygen flow rate. Respiration was monitored (SA Instruments Inc., Stony Brook, NY) using a respiration pillow sensor under the abdomen. Waste gas and CO₂ were actively scavenged. Total scan time including localizer acquisitions was 30–45 min during which anesthesia level was adjusted to maintain a respiration rate of 40–50 breaths/min. In vivo high-resolution MRI data was collected on a 7 T MRI system (MR Solutions Ltd., Guildford, UK) equipped with a shielded gradient system with 300-mT/m gradient strength and a clear-bore diameter of 90 mm. Scout localizer images were collected with a gradient-echo sequence followed by T1-weighted anatomical images (RARE;TE = 8 ms) to confirm the slice package. This slice package was used to collect T2-weighted data for analysis. Twenty-four contiguous slices 1 mm thick were collected using RARE with standard CHESS Fat Suppression. Field of view was 32 mm × 32 mm and the matrix size was 400 × 256 which provided an in-plane resolution of 80 μm × 125 μm. Initial TE was 70 ms and the echo train length was 8 with echo spacing of 10 ms. TR was 4 s and the number of acquisitions was equal to 4 resulting in a total acquisition time of 13.5 min. Mean tumor volumes were measured by drawing regions of interest (ROI), to circumscribe the entire tumor.

2.12. Necropsy analysis

Prior to necropsy, the investigator was unaware of the results of the caliper measurements or imaging scans (that were done by different lab personnel), rendering the two analyses independent. 24 h after the last dose (or when the untreated tumors reach >2000 mm³), animals were imaged by the MRI and euthanized. Mice were examined at the injection site, tumors excised and weighted. Tumor weights at this point were used as the endpoint reading. To measure the differences between the two tumor models and to gage DENSPM treatment efficacy, at least 6 animals for each group were measured with calipers on continuous days to obtain longitudinal data and the results were plotted.

2.13. Total RNA isolation and quantitative real time (qRT)-PCR

Total RNA were extracted from hPheo1 WT, and hPheo1 SDHB KD cells and by the Direct-Zol RNA Minipreparation plus Kit (Zymo Research, USA) following the manufacturer’s protocol. 20.0 ng of purified RNA were used for Quantitative real-time PCR using Luna® Universal Probe One-Step RT-qPCR Kit (NEB) and Step One Plus Real-time PCR system (Applied Biosystems) following the manufacturer’s protocol. GAPDH was a reference gene. Reactions were performed in triplicate using oligonucleotides listed in Supplemental Table 3. SDHB gene expression levels were normalized to GAPDH and relative expression was calculated using the comparative threshold cycle method (ΔΔCₚ) with the Stepone software (Applied Biosystems). Fold changes in gene expression were calculated with normalized value and represented in Log₂ value on Y-axis.
2.14. Western blot

Cells were lysed in 100 μL of Pierce IP Lysis buffer with 1× final concentration of protease inhibitor (Product: 78430, Thermoscientific USA), 200 mM EDTA and phosphatase inhibitor (Product: 78428, Thermoscientific USA) cocktail mixture solution for 30 min on ice and centrifuge at 14000 × g for 15 min. Clear supernatant was collected in fresh tube and stored at −80 °C until further use. 60 μg of whole cell protein extract of hPheo1 WT and hPheo1 SDHB KD were separated by 4–20% sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and transferred to PVDF membrane (Millipore, Bedford, MA). After blocking with 5% dry milk in 1× TBST (Tris base pH 7.4, KCl 2.7 mM, NaCl 137 mM and 0.01% Tween) for 2 h at room temperature, membranes were incubated with the primary antibodies against SDHB (1:2000), and eEF2 (1:2000) in dilution buffer overnight at 4 °C. Membranes were washed for three times with TBST and incubated with HRP conjugated mouse secondary antibody (NA931-1ML) and Rabbit IgG, HRP-linked Whole Ab (NA934-1ML) with 1:5000 dilution. PVDF blots were developed using hyBlot CL (Denville Scientific, Inc., USA) autoradiography film. Signal was normalized with eEF2 internal loading control and fold difference was measured by Image J software (NIH, Bethesda, USA).

Antibodies used were as follows: SDHB (Ab14714, Abcam) and eEF2 (#2332, Cell Signal Technology), and Rabbit IgG, HRP-linked Whole Ab (NA934-1ML), HRP conjugated mouse secondary antibody (NA931-1ML) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA).

2.15. Statistical analysis

Data are expressed as mean ± SE. Comparisons between groups were determined using Student’s t-test for normally-distributed variables and Kruskal-Wallis for non-parametric variables. Due to small sample size, cell line-based analyses were also performed with non-parametric tests. p values of <0.05 were considered statistically significant. Statistical analyses were performed with Stata 11.1 (StataCorp LP, College Station, TX) and Prism 6.0 (GraphPad Software, Inc., La Jolla, CA).

3. Results

3.1. hPheo1 SDHB KD cells

hPheo1 SDHB KD cells were generated as described in the Materials and Methods section and SDHB expression was analyzed. Delta Ct value was normalized with GAPDH and data represented in Log₂ value on Y-axis (Fig. 1A). The qRT-PCR shows a decrease in SDHB mRNA expression in hPheo1 SDHB KD compared to hPheo1 WT (Fig. 1A). Since SDHB RNA is reduced but not absent in hPheo1 cells, hPheo1 WT and hPheo1 SDHB KD cells were examined for the presence of SDHB protein expression using immunoblot (Fig. 1B); ubiquitous (e.g., [59]) eukaryotic translation elongation factor 2, eEF2 was used as a loading control as it tracks well in these cells with other customarily used loading controls. As shown in Fig. 1, hPheo1 SDHB KD showed significantly reduced levels of mRNA, and almost complete absence of SDHB protein expression (4).
3.2. Polyamine metabolism

To assess the metabolic changes in hPheo1 cell line after SDHB KD, succinate levels were measured, which were significantly higher in hPheo1 SDHB KD cells compared to hPheo1 WT cells (Fig. 2). Analysis of 31 primary tumor samples with SDHx mutations demonstrated a 20-fold increase in succinate levels compared to non-SDHx-mutated adrenal tumor samples (\( p < .001 \)) (Fig. 2), in line with previously reported data [60].

Specifically evaluating the polyamine pathway, we discovered it to be significantly over-activated in hPheo1 SDHB KD cells compared to WT cells. In order to confirm this data, we used SDHx mutated tumor tissue (SDHAF2 \( n = 1 \), SDHB \( n = 18 \), SDHC \( n = 3 \), and SDHD \( n = 9 \)) compared to non-SDHx mutated tumor samples. Particularly, significant increases for spermidine and spermine (Fig. 2) were observed in human SDHx mutated PCC/PGLs, with a similar pattern in hPheo1 SDHB KD cells, although spermidine did not reach statistical significance in cell line experiments. On the other hand, putrescine (Fig. 2) showed decreased levels in hPheo1 SDHB KD cells, but not in human SDHx-mutated samples. Of note, in a sub-analysis comparing only SDHB metastatic samples \( (n = 6) \) to normal adrenal medulla \( (n = 10) \), we observed an overall similar trend. Both spermidine and spermine were higher in metastatic samples with SDHB mutation, although they did not reach statistical significance. However, ornithine and putrescine, which are upstream of spermidine and spermine in the polyamine pathway, did reach statistical significance when SDHB malignant samples were compared to normal adrenal medulla \( (2.8 \pm 0.6 \text{ vs. } 1.0 \pm 0.3, \ p = .008; 2.1 \pm 0.4 \text{ vs. } 1.0 \pm 0.2, \ p = .012, \text{ respectively}) \). Also, when comparing metastatic SDHB samples \( (n = 6) \) versus benign SDHB samples \( (n = 12) \) ornithine levels were statistically higher in metastatic samples compared with benign samples \( (2.8 \pm 0.6 \text{ vs. } 1.6 \pm 0.2, \ p = .023, \text{ respectively}) \). In terms of functional tumors, evaluating SDHx tumors making dopamine/noradrenaline \( (n = 93) \) compared to SDHx tumors that were nonfunctional \( (n = 8) \), SDHx, functional samples had significantly lower putrescine \( (1.5 \pm 0.1 \text{ vs. } 2.7 \pm 0.7, \ p = .009) \) and spermidine \( (4.0 \pm 1.3 \text{ vs. } 15.7 \pm 5.3, \ p = .003) \). When specifically comparing SDHB functional vs. SDHB non-functional samples, a trend towards lower putrescine \( (1.6 \pm 0.2 \text{ vs. } 3.1 \pm 2.0, \ p = .07) \) and spermidine \( (2.7 \pm 1.1 \text{ vs. } 11.5 \pm 10.8, \ p = .06) \) in functional SDHB was observed (Fig. 2).

Overall, these results are consistent with polyamine pathway overactivity with increased production of spermidine and spermine, which is more significant in non-functional (i.e., less differentiated) tumor samples. While this is enough to produce a significant reduction of putrescine levels in hPheo1 SDHB KD cells, it is likely that sustained influx of substrate in human adrenal tumors is able to maintain the increased polyamine pathway activity without causing putrescine depletion.

3.3. Colony formation assay with polyamine analogs

Differences in levels of polyamine pathway components in hPheo1 WT and hPheo1 SDHB KD cell lines prompted us to examine their response to polyamine analogue inhibitor (DENSPM and DESPM) treatment. All three cell lines (BJ fibroblasts, hPheo1 WT and hPheo1 SDHB KD) demonstrated different doubling times. BJ fibroblasts, hPheo1 WT, and hPheo1 SDHB KD cells were cultured and treated with different doses of DENSPM ranging
between 10 nM–75 nM with 500 cells/well (Fig. 3A). DENSPM dose response curves showed IC₅₀ value for hPheo1WT at 75 nM whereas hPheo1 SDHB KD showed a response at 40 nM (Fig. 3B). On the other hand, BJ fibroblasts showed no sensitivity towards DENSPM at this concentration range (Fig. 3B). For DESPM, the dose response data demonstrated a very low IC₅₀ for hPheo1 SDHB KD at 10 nM, whereas hPheo1 WT showed an IC₅₀ of 50 nM (Fig. 3C and D).

3.4. Animal xenograft experiments

The remarkable growth suppression of hPheo1 cell growth by DENSPM and DESPM encouraged us to investigate in vivo effect of polyamine inhibitors. DENSPM was chosen for in vivo studies due to its reported lower toxicity [61]. The antitumor effect of DENSPM was evaluated in the xenograft model as described in the Methods. No significant weight loss or signs of toxicity (i.e., diarrhea, abdominal stiffness, lethargy) were noted at that concentration in the treated group (60 mg/kg DENSPM by intraperitoneal injection) compared to vehicle. Tumor size was measured with digital calipers and tumor volume was calculated (Fig. 4A). DENSPM administration resulted in a reduction of tumor volume, with tumor growth inhibition (TGI) reaching 75% and 86% in hPheo1 and hPheo1 SDHB KD cohorts, respectively. DENSPM significantly reduced tumor volume relative to control between days 16 and 36, with a TGI of ~66% in both cohorts by day 16. Tumor weight in treated animals was also significantly reduced compared to vehicle-injected mice (Fig. 4B). Quantitative assessment of tumor growth was additionally performed by MRI (Fig. 4C). MRI confirmed DENSPM-mediated tumor regression (i.e., tumor being smaller by the end of the experiment) in 8 out of 10 hPheo1 SDHB KD mice with an overall 87% regression in tumor volume relative to the first MRI measurement (3 days after the beginning of treatment).

4. Discussion

In order to identify new altered metabolic pathways due to SDHx mutations, we conducted a metabolite analysis in hPheo1 WT and hPheo1 SDHB KD cells and confirmed our results in human PCC/PGLs tissue since there is only one progenitor human cell line derived from PCC in existence. As shown in Fig. 2 of the present study, with SDHB KD in hPheo1 cells, there was an elevation in succinate compared to hPheo1WT. Moreover, this finding was further confirmed in experiments performed in human tumor tissue. These results are in accordance with prior reports [60,62-65] suggesting that SDHx mutations lead to the accumulation of succinate, which in turn can act as oncometabolite, altering gene expression and epigenetic regulation and favoring PCC/PGL progression [17,66].

Moreover, hPheo1 SDHB KD cells also showed increased polyamine pathway end products (i.e., spermidine and spermine), suggesting that this pathway may be up-regulated in these tumors. This trend was confirmed in PCC/PGL SDHx human tumors. Furthermore, polyamine substrate increases appeared to be more significant among non-functional tumors, suggesting that upregulation of this pathway may play a role in the survival of more undifferentiated tumors. These findings were consistent among all SDHx mutated samples, but also when the analyses were limited to SDHB samples. The reasons for the elevation of
the polyamines in cells with altered TCA cycle metabolism is currently under investigation. It has been demonstrated that in the adrenal gland, the polyamine, putrescine (and not glutamic acid), serves as a sole precursor for gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) synthesis [67]. Under certain circumstances, GABA can be converted to succinate and enter the tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA), through the so-called “GABA shunt” pathway [68]. It is possible that excess succinate leads to the feedback inhibition of GABA synthesis and accumulation of polyamine products.

Recent advances highlighted the importance of the polyamine pathway in a type of tumor closely related to PCC/PGL, such as neuroblastoma. It was long known that autonomic nervous system tumors have many important features in common, and similar features between PCC/PGL and neuroblastoma have been reported (e.g., [69-71]). Recent research highlighted the role for solute carrier family 3 member 2 (SLC3A2) as an essential transporter necessary for polyamine uptake in neuroblastoma [34]. The uptake of radiolabeled spermidine was reduced in cells with knockdown of SLC3A2 in neuroblastoma cells. Furthermore, inhibition of polyamine uptake combined with the suppression of the polyamine synthesis through ODC1 inhibition abrogated tumor development in neuroblastoma-prone mice [34]. Therefore, we hypothesized that as polyamine pathway appears to be up-regulated in hPheo1 SDHB KD cells, they would be sensitive to chemically synthesized polyamine pathway inhibitors \(N^3,N^5\)-diethynorspermine (DENSPM) and \(N^7,N^{12}\)-diethylspermine (DESPM) even at low concentrations, ranging from 10 nM–100 nM (see Fig. 3). When the cell lines were treated with DESPM, hPheo1 SDHB KD cells were found to be more sensitive compared to hPheo1WT. However, both hPheo1 cell lines were more sensitive to DENSPM compared to human fibroblasts. Although a more dramatic effect was seen with DESPM treatment of hPheo1 SDHB KD cells compared to hPheo1 WT, we used DENSPM for in vivo experiments as DENSPM is currently being examined in human clinical trials in other cancers as it is less toxic than DESPM [55]. This is consistent with the observations of a number of different cancer tumor lines [55,61].

Based on these findings, we tested polyamine pathway inhibitors to examine their effect on cellular proliferation in vitro and in mouse xenograft models. We also showed here that DENSPM significantly decreases tumor growth in vivo in our physiologically relevant, patient-derived cell line xenograft mouse model. Taken together, these results suggest that delivery of a well-tolerated dose of DENSPM will result in substantial activity against PCC/PGL derived tumors. Better understanding of the mechanistic basis of action for polyamine analogue compounds in PCC/PGL will inform a new therapeutic approach for patients with metastatic disease.

5. Conclusion

Novel to the understanding of PCC/PGL pathophysiology is that there is a significant up-regulation of the polyamine pathway in hPheo1 SDHB KD cells as well as in human SDHB tumor tissues. Furthermore, treatment with polyamine inhibitors significantly inhibited hPheo1 cell growth and led to growth inhibition in xenograft mice treated with DENSPM (Fig. 5). These results provide new foundation for exploring the role for polyamine analogue
inhibitors in treating metastatic PCC/PGL. However, further translational research studies are needed to explore if this drug can be considered for clinical use in PCC/PGL patients.

**Supplementary Material**

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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hPheo1 WT and hPheo1 SDHB KD cell lines. (a) Quantitative Real Time-PCR analysis in hPheo1 WT (■) and hPheo1 SDHB KD (□) are shown; mRNA level were normalized with GAPDH. Results show mean ± SD, n = 3. (b) Total-cell extracts were prepared and analyzed by western blot for SDHB protein expression. Note decreased expression of SDHB in both experiments.
Fig. 2.
Polyamine pathway and altered succinate. Comparison of succinate level in hPheo1 WT and hPheo1 \(SDHB\) KD are represented on the left and PCC/PGL tumor tissues of non-\(SDHx\) mutated samples and \(SDHx\) mutated samples are compared on the right side. Y-axis represents relative intracellular metabolite levels respective to normal samples. Succinate levels are elevated in cells carrying \(SDHx\) mutation and tumor tissue samples. Significant increases for spermidine and spermine were observed in human \(SDHx\)-mutated PCC/PGLs; a similar pattern was observed in hPheo1 \(SDHB\) KD cells, although spermidine did not reach statistical significance in cell line analysis.
Fig. 3.
A–D: (A–B). Polyamine analog DEnSPM was used for treatment of BJ fibroblasts (....), hPheo1 WT (——) and hPheo1 SDHB KD (—) cells at 10 nM–75 nM. (A) The quantitative analysis of the colony-forming assay is represented in left panel. (B) Representative images of colony forming assay for BJ fibroblasts, hPheo1 WT, and hPheo1 SDHB KD cells. All experiments were performed in triplicate and represented as mean ± SD. (C–D). Polyamine analog DESPM was used for treatment of BJ fibroblasts (....), hPheo1 WT (——) and hPheo1 SDHB KD (—) cells at 10 nM–50 nM. (C) The quantitative analysis of the colony-forming assay was represented in left panel. (D) Representative images of colony forming assay for BJ fibroblast, hPheo1 WT, and hPheo1 SDHB KD. All experiments were performed in triplicate and represented as mean ± SD. Note that DEnSPM dose response curves showed IC$_{50}$ value for hPheo1 WT at 75 nM, whereas hPheo1 SDHB KD showed a response at 40 nM (3B). Also note that BJ fibroblasts showed no sensitivity towards DEnSPM at this concentration range (3B). For DESPM, the dose response data demonstrated a very low IC$_{50}$ for hPheo1 SDHB KD at 10 nM, whereas hPheo1 WT showed an IC$_{50}$ of 50 nM (3C and 3D).
Fig. 4. A–C. DENSPM treatment in hPheo1 WT and hPheo1 SDHB KD xenograft models. (A) Four cohorts of male mice (Taconic C.B-Igh-1b/IcrTac-Prkdcscid; n = 6–10 per cohort) were administered vehicle control (PBS) or DENSPM (60 mg/kg) via i.p. injection, daily over 6 weeks to generate tumor growth curves of cell line xenografts. Tumor volumes are displayed as means ± SD (**p < .001). (B) Weights of tumors isolated at endpoint after 45 days of treatment. Tumor weights are displayed as means ± SD (**p < .001). (C) Representative three-dimensional images of the tumors obtained through MRI volumetric analysis in four animal cohorts as indicated, before and after treatment with either PBS or DENSPM. Note that DENSPM administration resulted in a reduction of tumor volume, with tumor growth inhibition (TGI) reaching 75% and 86% in hPheo1 WT and hPheo1 SDHB KD cohorts, respectively. DENSPM significantly reduced tumor volume, with a TGI of ~66% in both cohorts by day 16. Tumor weight in treated animals was also significantly reduced compared to vehicle-injected mice (4B).
Fig. 5.
Graphic summary of key results. Polyamine (PA) pathway is overactive in cells carrying SDHB mutations and in PCC/PGL SDHx-mutated tumor tissue samples. Treatment with polyamine pathway inhibitors preferentially suppresses growth of hPheo1 SDHB KD and hPheo1 WT compared to control cells in culture and in a mouse xenograft model.