

Title: The non-thermal effects of pulsed ultrasound irradiation on the development of disuse muscle atrophy in rat gastrocnemius muscle

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Short title: The non-thermal effects of pulsed ultrasound irradiation on
disuse muscle atrophy

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1 **Abstract**

2 This study examined the effects of therapeutic pulsed ultrasound (US) on the
3 development of disuse muscle atrophy in rat gastrocnemius muscle. Male
4 Wistar rats were randomly distributed into control, immobilization (Im), sham
5 US, and US groups. In the Im, sham US, and US groups, the bilateral ankle
6 joints of each rat were immobilized in full plantar flexion with a plaster cast for
7 a 4-week period. The pulsed US (frequency, 1 MHz; intensity, 1.0 W/cm²; pulsed
8 mode 1:4; 15 min) was irradiated to the gastrocnemius muscle in the US group
9 over a 4-week immobilization period. The pulsed US irradiation delivered only
10 non-thermal effects to the muscle. In conjunction with US irradiation,
11 5-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine (BrdU) was injected subcutaneously to label the nuclei
12 of proliferating satellite cells 1 h before each pulsed US irradiation.
13 Immobilization resulted in significant decreases in the mean diameters of type I,
14 IIA, and IIB muscle fibers of the gastrocnemius muscle in the Im, sham US, and
15 US groups compared with the control group. However, the degrees of muscle
16 fiber atrophy for all types were significantly lower in the US group compared
17 with the Im and sham US groups. Although the number of capillaries and the

1 concentrations of insulin-like growth factor and basic fibroblast growth factor
2 did not change in the muscle, the number of BrdU-positive nuclei in the muscle
3 was significantly increased by pulsed US irradiation in the US group. The
4 results of this study suggest that pulsed US irradiation inhibits the
5 development of disuse muscle atrophy partly via activation of satellite cells.

6

7 **Key words:** pulsed ultrasound, disuse muscle atrophy, satellite cell, growth
8 factor, capillary, rat

9

10

1 **Introduction**

2

3 Therapeutic ultrasound (US) is a well-established deep-heating modality
4 that converts mechanical energy into a form of sound waves. Therapeutic US,
5 which has been widely used in physical therapy, reduces edema, relieves pain,
6 increases the range of motion, and accelerates tissue repair (van der Windt et al.
7 1999). It is one of several physical therapy modalities suggested for the
8 management of pain and loss of function due to locomotive syndrome, and it can
9 be used as part of an overall rehabilitation program (Rand et al. 2007). US may
10 be administered in either a continuous or a pulsed mode (Rutjes et al. 2010).
11 Pulsed US produces non-thermal effects and is used to aid in the reduction of
12 inflammation (Johns 2002; Rutjes et al. 2010). The non-thermal effects of pulsed
13 therapeutic US are thought to occur by mechanical stimulation of sound wave to
14 tissues and cells.

15 On the other hand, mechanical stimulation leads to secretion of insulin-like
16 growth factor (IGF)-1 and other growth factors in skeletal muscle, which play a
17 role in muscle fiber hypertrophy. The secretion of IGF-1 in the muscle fibers

1 increases within 1h–4 days after muscle fiber was loaded (McKoy et al. 1999;
2 Perrone et al. 1995; Yang et al. 1997). IGF-1 activates protein translation in the
3 ribosome, which increases the muscle fiber volume (Goldspink 1999). In
4 addition, mechanical stimulation loading is known to increase vascular
5 endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF),
6 which results in the development of more skeletal muscle capillaries (Folkman
7 et al. 1988). An adequate supply of nutrition and oxygen by the increased
8 number of capillaries contributes to muscle fiber hypertrophy and prevents
9 muscle fiber atrophy (Deveci et al. 2002; Nakano et al. 2009; Plyley et al. 1998).

10 Several previous reports regarding the effects of US on cells showed that the
11 irradiation of pulsed US increased VEGF and FGF in fibroblasts and angiogenic
12 cells in culture (Reher et al. 1999; Toyama et al. 2012). Furthermore,
13 low-intensity pulsed US promoted the differentiation of osteoblasts and the
14 proliferation of Schwann cells in culture (Tsuang et al. 2011; Ying et al. 2012),
15 and pulsed US induced an increase in IGF-1 gene expression in undamaged
16 skeletal muscle in humans (Delgado-Diaz et al. 2011). The action of US and the
17 mechanism of hypertrophy induced by mechanical stimulation in concert led us

1 to hypothesize that pulsed therapeutic US affects muscle fiber size via growth
2 factor secretion or cell proliferation.

3 Satellite cells, which are undifferentiated myogenic stem cells located
4 between the muscle fiber plasma membrane and the basement membrane, are
5 thought to serve as the source of new muscle fiber nuclei. The importance of
6 satellite cells has been documented during normal muscle growth, regeneration,
7 hypertrophy, and recovery after atrophy (Ambrosio et al. 2009; Gallegly et al.
8 2004). The application of passive stretch to muscle fibers, i.e., mechanical
9 stimulation, induces an increase in muscle fiber nuclei with enlargement of the
10 muscle fiber size, which is explained by the incorporation of satellite cell nuclei
11 with the adjacent muscle fiber via cell fusion (Carson and Alway 1996;
12 Shenkman et al. 2010). It is not known totally whether the mechanical
13 stimulation by US could affect satellite cells in like a passive stretch.

14 The effects of therapeutic pulsed US on muscle fiber hypertrophy and
15 atrophy have not been investigated in skeletal muscle and, especially, the
16 influences of pulsed US on satellite cells has not been clarified. If pulsed
17 therapeutic US can induce growth factor release, angiogenesis, and satellite cell

1 differentiation and/or proliferation in muscle in vivo, then disuse muscle
2 atrophy would be prevented. Therefore, this study examined the effects of
3 pulsed therapeutic US, especially the non-thermal effects, on the development
4 of disuse muscle atrophy in the immobilized hind limbs of rats.

5

6 **Materials and methods**

7

8 **Animals**

9 All experiments and procedures were approved by the Ethics Review
10 Committee for Animal Experimentation at Nagasaki University. We obtained
11 62, eight-wk-old, male Wistar rats (220 ± 10 g) from Kudo Laboratories (Tokyo,
12 Japan). The animals were housed in cages inside a room with a 12-h dark/light
13 cycle. The temperature and relative humidity of the room were maintained at
14 25°C and 50%, respectively. Food and water were available ad libitum.

15 The previously described animal model of disuse muscle atrophy by cast
16 immobilization (Okita et al. 2004) was used in this study. We randomly
17 distributed 46 rats into 4 groups: control ($n = 13$), only cast immobilization for 4

1 weeks (Im, n = 13), pulsed US irradiation during cast immobilization (US, n =
2 13), and sham US during cast immobilization (sham US, n= 13) groups. Rats in
3 the Im, US, and sham US groups were anesthetized with pentobarbital sodium
4 (40 mg/kg) and their bilateral ankle joints were subsequently fixed in full
5 plantar flexion with plaster casts with the gastrocnemius muscle immobilized in
6 a shortened position. The plaster cast was positioned from above the knee joint
7 to the distal foot. The immobilization period was set for 4 weeks, which was
8 previously shown to be adequate for induction of muscle fiber atrophy
9 (Takekura et al. 1996). Rats in the Im group were immobilized throughout the 4
10 weeks without treatment. For pulsed US irradiation and sham treatments,
11 bilateral ankle casts in the sham US and US groups were removed under
12 pentobarbital sodium anesthesia (40 mg/kg) during the immobilization period
13 at a frequency of 6 days per week. The bilateral ankle joints were
14 re-immobilized after completion of the daily treatment. The number of rats was
15 not consistent between the groups, because induction of edema by casting and
16 failures of tissue preparation and anesthesia resulted in the exclusion of several
17 rats. Finally, 46 rats were used for analysis of the gastrocnemius muscle

1 (control, n = 12; Im, n = 9; US, n = 13; and sham US, n = 12).

2 The remaining 10 rats were used in a pilot study for the measurement of
3 core and muscle temperatures during pulsed US irradiation.

4

5 Measurement of core and muscle temperatures during pulsed ultrasound
6 irradiation

7 The time course changes of core and muscle temperatures were measured
8 during US irradiation in a pilot study. We randomly distributed 10 rats into the
9 US (n = 5) and sham US (n = 5) groups. After the animals were anesthetized
10 with pentobarbital sodium (40 mg/kg), all hair on the right hind limb was
11 subsequently removed and a needle thermo-sensor (PTN-800, Unique Medical
12 Inc., Tokyo, Japan) was carefully inserted in the proximal direction, horizontal
13 to the Achilles' tendon. To target the deep tissue of the gastrocnemius muscle
14 under the US irradiation area, the tip of the needle thermo-sensor was
15 positioned at the center of the triceps muscle of the calf. The diameter of the
16 needle thermo-sensor was 0.6 mm and the needle surface was coated with epoxy
17 for heat insulation. Simultaneously, a cannular thermo-sensor (PTI-200,

1 Unique Medical Inc., Tokyo, Japan) was inserted 6 cm past the anal sphincter
2 into the colon. Following attachment of the thermo-sensors to a digital
3 thermometer (PTC-301, Unique Medical Inc.), US was irradiated to the
4 gastrocnemius muscle in the right hind limb via the skin for 15 min. The
5 temperature of the experimental room was maintained at 25°C. The core and
6 muscle temperatures were recorded every 1 min for 5 min before irradiation, 15
7 min during irradiation, and 5 min following irradiation. A sham treatment was
8 carried out while the US device was turned off. The detailed method of US
9 irradiation is described in the following section.

10

11 Pulsed ultrasound irradiation

12 Therapeutic US was applied by using a therapeutic US device (US-750; Itoh
13 Physio-therapy and Rehabilitation Ltd, Tokyo, Japan). We used a probe with a
14 2-cm diameter, and the effective radiating area (ERA) of this probe was 1.8 cm².
15 The US irradiation was performed in pulsed mode at 20% (1:4 duty cycle) to
16 deliver the thermal effects of US to the muscle. An aqueous gel (Aquasonic 100,
17 Parker Laboratories Inc., NJ, USA) served as the US transmission gel. The

1 gastrocnemius muscle in the US group was irradiated through the shaved skin
2 for 15 min at a frequency of 1 MHz and an intensity of 1.0 W/cm².

3 The US irradiation at the above frequency and intensity should extend to rat
4 gastrocnemius muscle according to previous report (Johnson and O'Brien 2012;
5 Okita et al. 2009; Sakamoto et al. 2012; Tsuang et al. 2011). To deliver US
6 energy to the entire gastrocnemius muscle equally, the US transducer head was
7 moved in a circular fashion over the irradiation area. During US irradiation, the
8 US transmission gel was added as required. In the sham US group, US energy
9 was not delivered to the muscle because the US device was turned off and only
10 the transducer head was moved.

11

12 Labeling of muscle nuclei

13 Mitotically active cells incorporate thymidine analogue
14 5'-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine (BrdU) into DNA; thus, muscle nuclei, which are
15 post-mitotic, do not incorporate the BrdU label. Labeling with BrdU has been
16 shown to be a reliable technique for distinguishing new muscle nuclei, which
17 could be traced to satellite cells, from all other nuclei (Carson and Alway 1996).

1 The new muscle nuclei in the gastrocnemius muscle were labeled according to
2 the technique described in our previous study (Nakano et al. 2009). Briefly, all
3 rats in the 4 groups received BrdU (45 mg/kg; Sigma, St Louis, MO, USA) via
4 intraperitoneal injection 1 h before each US irradiation.

5

6 Tissue sampling and preparation

7 At the end of the immobilization period, all rats in the 4 groups were deeply
8 anaesthetized with pentobarbital sodium (40 mg/kg) and the bilateral
9 gastrocnemius muscles were removed. The right muscles were embedded in
10 tragacanth gum, after which the samples were frozen in isopentane cooled by
11 liquid nitrogen and stored in a -80°C freezer. Serial, 7-µm thick frozen
12 cross-sections of muscle were prepared on a cryostat and were mounted on glass
13 slides for histological and immunohistochemical analysis. Light muscles were
14 immediately cut into 50 mg tissue samples comprised of each of the deep muscle
15 regions. The deep region included both the slow- and fast-twitch fibers. Tissue
16 samples were homogenized in 0.01 M phosphate buffer (PBS; pH 7.4).
17 Homogenates were centrifuged at 4°C at 5600 g for 10 min and the

1 supernatants were harvested and stored in a -80°C freezer. The supernatant
2 solutions were used for ELISA. The amount of protein in each muscle
3 supernatant was determined with a BCA Protein Assay Kit (Pierce, Rockford,
4 IL, USA).

5

6 Histochemical analysis of muscle fibers and capillaries

7 Cross-sections of muscle were evaluated with an optical microscope linked to
8 a video print system and a Windows personal computer. Some muscle
9 cross-sections were stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). Other sections
10 were stained for myosin ATPase activity after acid pre-incubation (pH 4.3), and
11 the adjacent sections were stained for alkaline phosphatase activity. H&E
12 staining was used to identify muscle fiber morphological characteristics and
13 signs of previous muscle injury, such as centralized nuclei. The myosin ATPase
14 reaction served to identify the muscle fiber type (Lind and Kernell 1991).

15 Muscle fiber diameter was determined on at least 100 fibers per major fiber
16 type in the deep regions (type I, IIA, and IIB) with an image analysis computer
17 program (Image J 1.46 software program,

1 <http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij/download.html>). The alkaline phosphatase reaction,
2 which utilized an indoxyl-tetrazolium method, served to visualize the location of
3 the capillaries (Ziada et al. 1984). The capillary supply was evaluated as the
4 capillary-to-muscle fiber ratio (Deveci et al. 2002). In brief, capillaries and
5 muscle fibers were counted in 5 unbiased photographs ($\times 100$ magnification; 0.58
6 mm^2) covering the entire area of the deep regions of the muscle. For each
7 photograph, the capillary-to-muscle fiber ratio was expressed as the number of
8 capillaries per muscle fiber.

9

10 Immunohistochemical analysis of and BrdU-positive muscle nuclei

11 New muscle nuclei that were traced to satellite cells were identified by using
12 double immunostaining with anti-BrdU and anti-dystrophin antibodies. Muscle
13 nuclei are always located inside of the sarcolemma, which is labeled by
14 anti-dystrophin antibody, and new nuclei incorporate BrdU in their DNA.

15 Although fibroblasts and other mitotically active cells in the interstitium also
16 take up the BrdU label, these cells reside outside of the muscle fiber. The
17 BrdU-positive muscle nuclei and muscle fibers were counted on 5 unbiased

1 photographs ($\times 100$ magnification) covering the entire area of the deep regions of
2 muscle. The number of BrdU-positive nuclei per 100 muscle fibers was
3 calculated.

4 For immunostaining, some cross-sections were air-dried and fixed in ice-cold
5 ether for 10 min. The sections were blocked with 5% bovine albumin in PBS for
6 60 min. For the first immunostaining, monoclonal anti-dystrophin (1:200
7 dilution; NCL-DYS1, Novocastra Lab., Britain, UK) was applied to the sections
8 overnight at 4°C. The sections were rinsed in PBS for 15 min, followed by
9 application of the biotinylated goat anti-mouse IgG (1:500 dilution; Vector Lab.,
10 CA, USA) for 60 min at room temperature and a second rinse in PBS. The
11 sections were subsequently allowed to react with an avidin–biotin peroxidase
12 complex (VECTASTAINR Elite kit; Vector Lab.) for 30 min at room
13 temperature. Horseradish peroxidase binding sites were visualized as dark
14 brown with 0.05% 3,3'-diaminobenzidine and 0.01% H₂O₂ in 0.5 M Tris-HCl
15 buffer at room temperature. Next, the sections were washed thoroughly in PBS
16 and the second immunostaining was implemented. The sections were treated
17 with 1 N HCl for 60 min at room temperature for DNA denaturation, followed

1 by washing in PBS. The primary mouse monoclonal anti-BrdU antibody (1:500
2 dilution; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, CA, USA) was applied to the sections
3 overnight at 4°C. The sections were rinsed in PBS for 15 min, after which
4 biotinylated goat anti-mouse IgG was applied for 30 min at room temperature
5 followed by a second rinse in PBS. Immunoreactivity was visualized as blue
6 with 3,3',5,5'-tetramethylbenzidine solution (TrueBlue; KPL Inc., Gaithersburg,
7 MD, USA).

8

9 Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for IGF-1 and bFGF

10 The levels of IGF-1 and bFGF in the muscles were measured with
11 enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kits (Quantikine, R&D Systems,
12 Minneapolis, MN, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. In brief,
13 the muscle supernatants were incubated on precoated microplates with IGF-1
14 or bFGF for 2 h at room temperature. After incubation, the microplates were
15 washed and incubated with IGF-1- or bFGF-conjugated horseradish peroxidase
16 for 2 h at room temperature. Subsequently, the microplates were washed and
17 incubated with substrate solution (tetramethylbenzidine/hydrogen peroxide) for

1 30 min at room temperature in the dark. The reaction was terminated upon the
2 addition of sulfuric acid. Color development was monitored at 450 nm with a
3 microplate reader (Biotec, Bunkyo, Tokyo, Japan) and the concentrations (in
4 pg/mg) were calculated based on the standard curve.

5

6 Statistical analysis

7 All data are presented as mean \pm SD. Differences between groups were
8 assessed by using 1-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Fisher's
9 PLSD post hoc test. Differences were considered significant at $P < 0.05$.

10

11 Results

12

13 Core and muscle temperatures

14 The time course changes in core and muscular temperatures before and
15 during ultrasound irradiation were measured in the pilot study (Fig.1). In the
16 US group, the average core and muscle temperature at 5 min before US
17 irradiation were $36.8 \pm 0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $33.9 \pm 1.0^{\circ}\text{C}$, respectively. A tendency for the

1 core temperature to slightly decline was recognized throughout the
2 measurement period, and this was not influenced by US irradiation. Muscle
3 temperature elevation was not observed during and after US irradiation in the
4 US group. Conversely, the muscle temperature was decreased slightly by
5 manipulation of sham US and US irradiation in the sham US and US groups.

6

7 Muscle fiber diameter

8 The development of muscle atrophy was confirmed in the Im, sham US, and
9 US groups, whereas muscle fiber necrosis and regenerating fibers were not
10 observed in the muscles of all groups in the sections stained with H&E (data not
11 shown). Representative photographs of cross-sections stained for myosin
12 ATPase activity (pH 4.3) in the gastrocnemius muscle are shown in Fig. 2A. In
13 the sections stained with myosin ATPase, type I, type IIA, and type IIB fibers
14 were detected in the deep region of the gastrocnemius muscles (Fig. 3B).

15 Quantitative analysis revealed that the muscle fiber diameter of all types in the
16 Im, sham US, and US groups decreased significantly compared with the control
17 group. The diameters of all types of muscle fibers in sham US group showed no

1 significant differences compared with the Im group. In contrast, the diameters
2 of all types of muscle fibers in the US group were significantly larger than the
3 Im and sham US groups. The decreases in muscle fiber diameter and muscle
4 atrophy were significantly inhibited by pulsed US irradiation in the US group,
5 although the effect was modest.

6

7 Capillary and BrdU-positive muscle nuclei

8 Representative photographs of the alkaline phosphatase reaction
9 (counterstained with eosin) are shown in Fig. 3A. The ratio of the number of
10 capillaries to muscle fiber was significantly decreased in the Im, sham US, and
11 US groups compared with the control group. No difference was observed
12 between the Im, sham US, and US groups (Fig. 3C). Thus, the pulsed US
13 irradiation did not influence the generation of new capillaries.

14 Representative photographs of double immunostaining for BrdU and
15 dystrophin are shown in Fig.3B. A small number of BrdU-positive nuclei was
16 observed in the Im and sham US groups, and the ratio of the number of
17 BrdU-positive muscle nuclei to muscle fiber was significantly decreased in the

1 Im and sham US groups compared with the control group. The number of
2 BrdU-positive muscle nuclei was significantly greater in the US group
3 compared to the Im and sham US groups, whereas no difference was observed
4 between the US group and the control group (Fig. 3D).

5

6 IGF-1 and bFGF levels

7 The IGF-1 level was significantly decreased in the Im, sham US, and US
8 groups compared with the control group (Fig. 4A), but no difference was
9 detected among the 3 experimental groups. The bFGF level was not different
10 between any of the 4 groups (Fig. 4B).

11

12 **Discussion**

13

14 In this study, the effect of therapeutic US on the development of disuse
15 muscle atrophy was investigated in immobilized rats. Therapeutic US can
16 produce both thermal and non-thermal effects (Rutjes et al. 2010), and the
17 thermal effects are similar to those of general thermal therapy, including pain

1 relief and acceleration of tissue repair (Xu et al. 1998). However, it is extremely
2 difficult to consider the thermal and the non-thermal effects of continuous US
3 separately. The continuous US produces heat in tissues, whereas the pulsed US
4 does not; therefore, the pulsed US was used in order to evaluate only the
5 non-thermal effect produced by US in this study. In the pilot study, elevations in
6 core temperature and muscle temperature were not observed during pulsed US
7 irradiation. However, the muscle temperature was decreased slightly during
8 and after US irradiation procedure. There is no report that ultrasound
9 irradiation decrease tissue temperature. The decrease in the muscle
10 temperature was not influenced by US irradiation, because the temperature
11 decrease was also observed in the sham US group. The possibility of anesthetic
12 influence is low, because core temperature was not changed in both the sham
13 US and US groups. It was presumably due to a cooling by using ultrasound
14 transmission gel. Although tissues temperature is not heated, the pulsed US
15 (pulsed mode at 20%; 1:4 duty cycle) that was used in this study has slight
16 thermal effects (Locke and Nussbaum 2001). Therefore, we assumed that the
17 decrease in the US group was slighter than that of the sham US group, because

1 pulsed US irradiation inhibited the decrease of muscle temperature. Several
2 reports showed that low temperature environments could inhibit the
3 development of muscle atrophy (Nagano et al. 2003). In the previous study, the
4 effective low temperature was a room temperature of 8 to 12°C, and this
5 temperature was maintained continuously for 24 hours (Nagano et al. 2003).
6 However, in our pilot study, the decrease of muscle temperature was modest (2
7 to 3°C), as well as temporary; thus, we believe it is unlikely that this change
8 had an influence on the development of muscle atrophy. We concluded that the
9 changes observed in muscle were due to the influences of the non-thermal
10 effects of the pulsed US.

11 It is well known that cast immobilization of the hindlimb induces disuse
12 muscle atrophy due to hypodynamia (Takekura et al. 1996). In comparison with
13 the control group, the diameters of type I, type IIA, and type IIB muscle fibers
14 were decreased by 28.2, 28.6, and 30.3%, respectively, in the gastrocnemius
15 muscle of the Im group. Thus, cast immobilization clearly induced disuse
16 muscle atrophy. Although disuse muscle atrophy occurred in both the sham US
17 and US groups, the main finding of this study was that the diameters of all

1 types of muscle fibers were significantly larger in the US group than in the Im
2 and sham US groups. This finding suggests that the non-thermal effects of the
3 pulsed US inhibited the development of disuse muscle atrophy in the US group
4 partly.

5 Previous reports showed that the capillary diameter and the number of
6 capillaries were decreased in atrophied muscle because of an inactive and
7 reduced metabolism (Desplanches et al. 1990; Kano et al. 2000; Oki et al. 1999).
8 A decrease in the number of capillaries was also observed in this study because
9 the ratio of the number of capillaries to muscle fiber was decreased significantly
10 in the Im group compared with the control group. The number of capillaries in
11 the US group was not changed compared with the control and sham US groups.
12 Previous studies showed that VEGF, which promotes angiogenesis, was
13 increased by US irradiation in cell culture (Reher et al. 1999; Toyama et al.
14 2012); further, US irradiation increased VEGF expression in angiogenic cells in
15 vitro (Reher et al. 1999). However, the pulsed US also did not inhibit or prevent
16 the decrease in capillary number with disuse muscle atrophy in the present
17 study. On the other hand, the expression of growth factors such as IGF -1 and

1 bFGF, which participate in protein synthesis in muscle (Szewczyk and Jacobson
2 2005), are promoted by mechanical stimulation (Folkman et al. 1988; Perrone et
3 al. 1995). Although we expected that the expression of IGF -1 and the bFGF
4 would be increased by the mechanical stimulation of pulsed US, the
5 concentrations of these growth factors were not changed in the US group.
6 Because bFGF also has effects on angiogenesis (Deindl et al. 2003), our finding
7 that pulsed US irradiation did not affect the bFGF concentration is consistent
8 with the finding that the number of capillaries was not changed by pulsed US
9 irradiation. Therefore, this suggests that the inhibition of disuse muscle
10 atrophy by the non-thermal effects of pulsed US in the US group was not
11 dependent on changes in growth factors and the number of capillaries.

12 BrdU labeling has been shown to be a reliable technique for distinguishing
13 new muscle nuclei, which are traced to satellite cells, from all other nuclei
14 (Carson and Alway 1996). Thus, the change in the number of BrdU-positive
15 muscle nuclei indicates a change in activated satellite cells. Satellite cells have
16 an important role in the mechanisms of muscle fiber growth and maintenance of
17 size (Wang et al. 2006). The number of BrdU-positive nuclei was decreased in

1 the Im and sham US groups in this study. Disuse muscle atrophy was confirmed
2 in these 2 groups, suggesting that mechanical stimulation loading to the muscle,
3 which is necessary for the growth and maintenance of muscle fiber size and
4 function, had been decreased. The satellite cell is also activated by mechanical
5 stimulation such as passive stretching (Hawke 2005). Muscle fiber size is
6 thought to depend on the quality of muscle nuclei (Hawke 2005). Therefore, we
7 postulate that the decreases of BrdU-positive nuclei in the Im and sham US
8 groups were caused by the decrease in mechanical stimulation and the
9 development of muscle fiber atrophy (Mozdziak et al. 1998). In contrast, the
10 number of BrdU-positive muscle nuclei in the US group was similar to the
11 control group and was significantly higher than in the Im and sham US groups.
12 When pulsed US was irradiated to the gastrocnemius muscle, the transducer
13 head may have provided mild pressure to the muscle. Although pressure is a
14 form of mechanical stimulation, the number of BrdU-positive nuclei did not
15 change in the sham US group compared with the Im group. Rats in the sham
16 US group and the US group both underwent the procedure with the US device
17 in the switch-off mode. Thus, the increase in number of BrdU-positive muscle

1 nuclei in the US group was possibly increased due to satellite cell activation
2 from mechanical stimulation, i.e., a non-thermal effect of the pulsed US.
3 Additionally, activated satellite cells differentiate to myoblasts, which
4 proliferate and fuse with the adjacent muscle fiber, contributing to muscle fiber
5 growth (Carson and Alway 1996; Shenkman et al. 2010). Therefore, the
6 activation of satellite cells by the non-thermal effects of pulsed US presumably
7 had an influence on inhibiting the development of disuse muscle atrophy in the
8 US group. It was unclear in this study whether pulsed US activated the
9 differentiation of satellite cells to myoblasts or the proliferation of myoblasts
10 after differentiation. Given that the concentrations of IGF-1 and bFGF in
11 muscle were not changed, we hypothesize that the differentiation of satellite
12 cells was induced by pulsed US directly.

13 In conclusion, pulsed US irradiation inhibited the development of disuse
14 muscle atrophy by joint immobilization for 4 weeks. Mechanical stimulation by
15 the non-thermal effect of pulsed US might have activated satellite cells, which
16 effectively maintained muscle fiber size. However, this effect was very small
17 and IGF-1 and bFGF levels and the capillaries were not affected. We guess that

1 the irradiation time of pulsed US was too short to prevent disuse muscle
2 atrophy induced by joint immobilization in the present study. The extension of
3 the irradiation time may increase the effect.

4

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6

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11

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9

10 **Figure legends**

11

12 Fig. 1. Time course changes in core and muscle temperatures before, during,
13 and after irradiation of pulsed US. No increase in core and muscle temperatures
14 was observed during the irradiation. The values represent means \pm SD.

15

16 Fig. 2. Analysis of muscle fiber diameter in the gastrocnemius muscle. A:
17 Representative photographs of cross-sections stained for myosin ATPase

1 activity (pH 4.3) are shown. Fibers labeled 1, 2A, and 2B represent type I (dark),
2 type IIA (light), and type IIB (intermediate), respectively. The scale bars
3 represent 50 μm . B: The diameters of all muscle fiber types in the Im, sham US,
4 and US groups decreased significantly compared with the control group and
5 were significantly larger in the US group than the Im and sham US groups. * vs.
6 the control group, † vs. the Im group, ‡ vs. the sham US group ($P < 0.05$ in each).
7 The values represent means \pm SD.

8
9 Fig. 3. Analysis of capillaries and BrdU-positive nuclei in the gastrocnemius
10 muscle. A: Representative photographs of the alkaline phosphatase reaction
11 (counterstained with eosin) in the US group are shown. Scale bars represent
12 100 μm . B: Representative photographs of double immunostaining for BrdU and
13 dystrophin in the gastrocnemius muscle in the US group are shown. The
14 anti-dystrophin antibody was used to demonstrate the sarcolemma (arrow) of
15 muscle fibers and the number of BrdU-positive nuclei located inside of the
16 sarcolemma (dark arrowheads) was counted. The right photograph (*) shows a
17 regional enlarged view of the area surrounded by the square in B. The

1 BrdU-positive nuclei located outside of the sarcolemma (light arrowheads) were
2 excluded from the analysis. Scale bars represent 50 μ m. C: No difference was
3 observed in the Im, sham US, and US groups. D: The number of BrdU-positive
4 muscle nuclei in the US group was significantly greater than that of the Im and
5 sham US groups. * vs. the control group, † vs. the Im group, ‡ vs. sham US
6 group ($P < 0.05$ in each). The values represent means \pm SD.

7

8 Fig. 4. Concentrations of IGF-1 and bFGF in the gastrocnemius muscle. A:
9 IGF-1, B: bFGF. A notable change was not observed in the US group for either
10 of these growth factors. * vs. the control group ($P < 0.05$). The values represent
11 means \pm SD.

12

Fig 1.

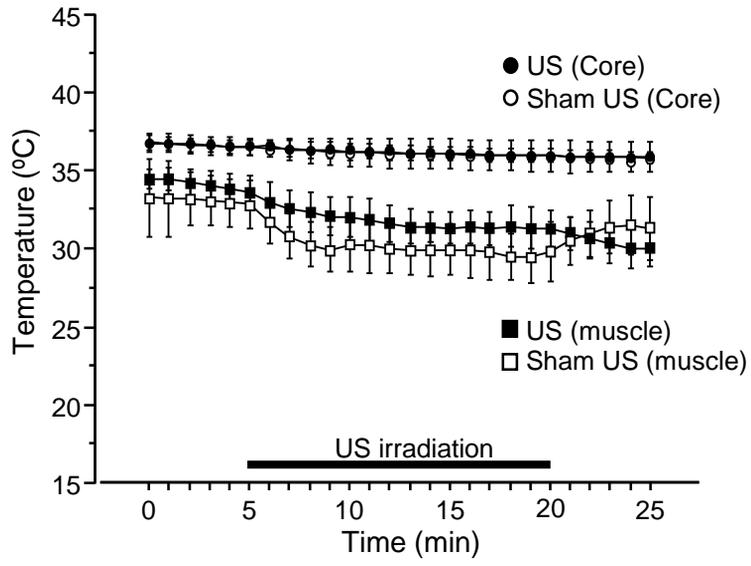


Fig 2.

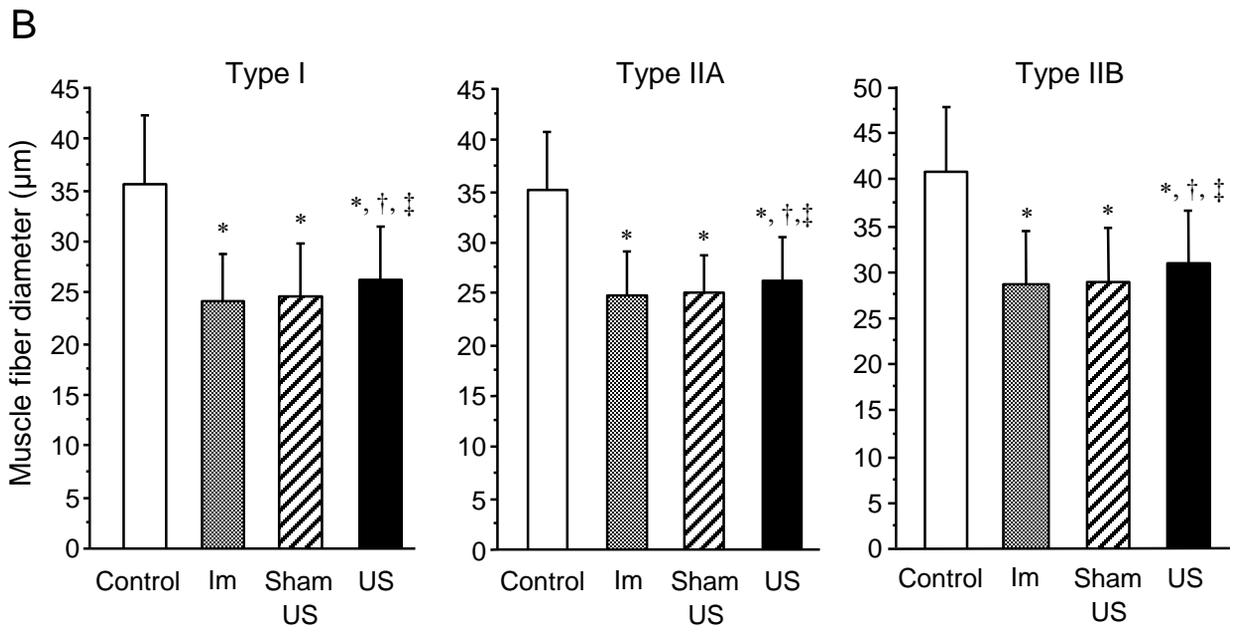
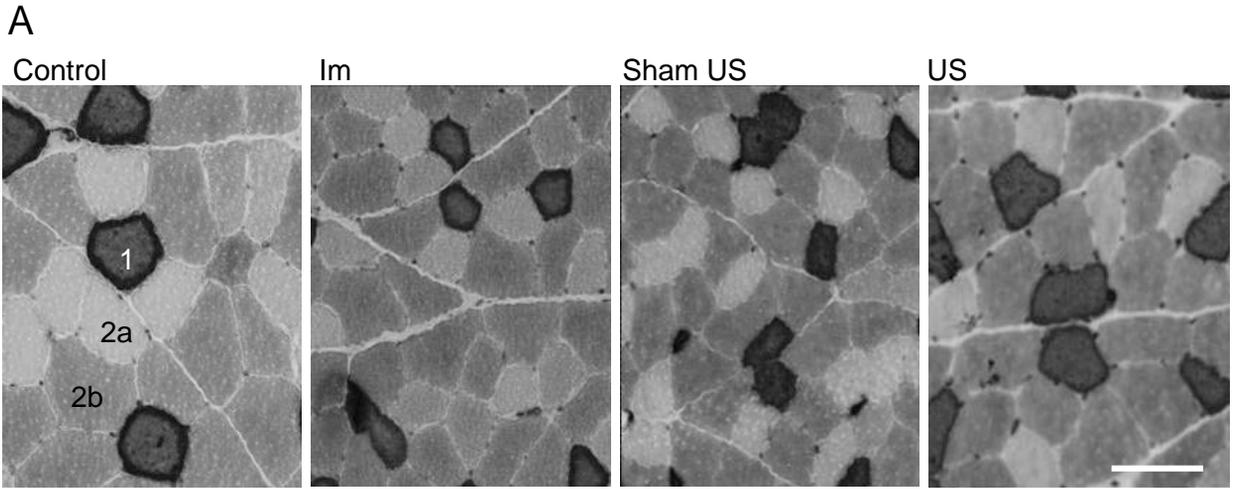


Fig. 3.

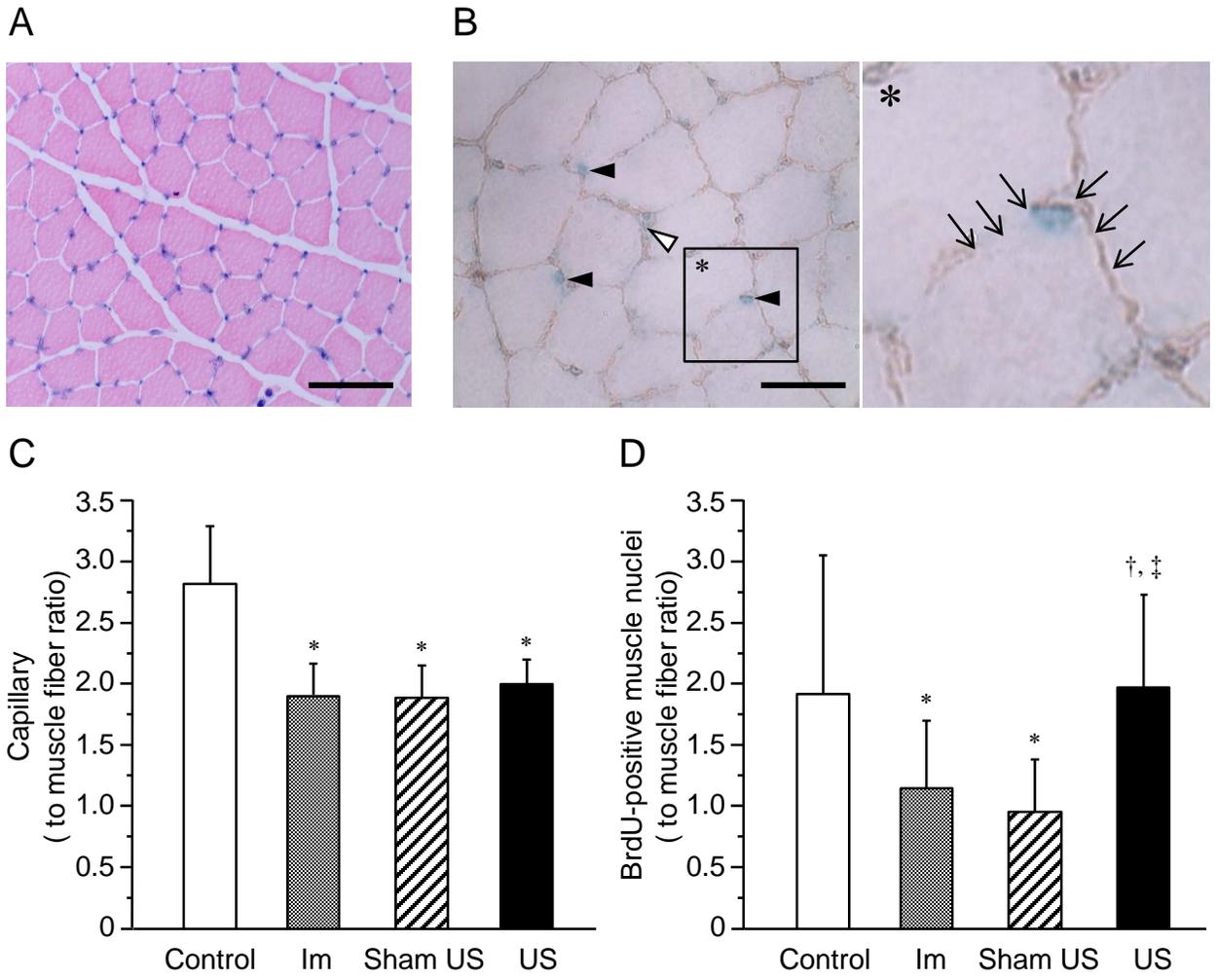


Fig. 4.

