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Bonne, N-X
Vitte, J
Chareyre, F
et al.

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An allograft mouse model for the study of hearing loss secondary to vestibular schwannoma growth

Nicolas-Xavier Bonne1,2 • Jérémie Vitte3,4 • Fabrice Chareyre1 • Gevorg Karapetyan5 • Vazgen Khankaldyyan5 • Karo Tanaka1 • Rex A. Moats5 • Marco Giovannini3,4

Abstract Vestibular schwannoma is a benign neoplasm arising from the Schwann cell sheath of the auditory-vestibular nerve. It most commonly affects both sides in the genetic condition Neurofibromatosis type 2, causing progressive high frequency sensorineural hearing loss. Here, we describe a microsurgical technique and stereotactic coordinates for schwannoma cell grafting in the vestibular nerve region that recapitulates local tumor growth in the cerebellopontine angle and inner auditory canal with resulting hearing loss. Tumor growth was monitored by bioluminescence and MRI in vivo imaging, and hearing assessed by auditory brainstem responses. These techniques, by potentially enabling orthotopic grafting of a variety of cell lines will allow studies on the pathogenesis of tumor-related hearing loss and preclinical drug evaluation, including hearing endpoints, for NF2-related and sporadic schwannomas.

Keywords Neurofibromatosis type 2 • Vestibular schwannoma • Auditory brainstem response • Mouse model

Introduction

Vestibular schwannomas (VS) are intracranial, extra-axial tumors that arise from the Schwann cell sheath of the 8th cranial nerve. As VS increase in size, they eventually occupy a large portion of the cerebellopontine angle. Over 3300 vestibular schwannomas are diagnosed per year in the US and incidence is 1.09 per 100,000 population [1]. The great majority of VS are sporadic unilateral, which usually develop between ages 40 and 60. About 5 % of VS are bilateral and occur in neurofibromatosis type 2 (NF2), an autosomal dominant genetic disease [2]. The NF2 tumor suppressor gene [3, 4], is inactivated in both NF2-associated and sporadic VS [5, 6]. At presentation, more than 90 % of NF2 patients demonstrate some change in hearing on the side of a VS [7], with the usual audiogram describing a high-frequency slope in more than 60 % [7, 8].

The mechanisms underlying deafness in NF2 are still unclear and are supposed to be multifactorial [9, 10]. Tumor size and increase in tumor volume are not correlated to hearing status [7, 9, 11], but multiple changes affecting the cochlea correlate with hearing level in these patients [12, 13]. It was also suggested that differences in the course of hearing might result from genetic determinants intrinsic to the tumor [14].

Increased interest in developing new strategies for the treatment of VS, in particular for those occurring in the context of NF2, results in an increasing requirement for accurate mouse models recapitulating the tumor natural history of the human condition [15]. Moreover, the use of
anti-angiogenic drug therapy has suggested a beneficial effect on hearing, an endpoint that is overlooked in the preclinical field [16]. Thus, a better understanding of the process underlying hearing loss requires specific models. Although accurately reproducing some of the manifestations of NF2, genetically engineered mouse models (GEM) are time and resources consuming, therefore best suited in validating promising therapies rather than for high throughput drug screening [15]. As an alternative, orthotopic grafting techniques can be used to recapitulate biologically relevant tumor growth and microenvironment [17]. Here, we describe a new in vivo modeling approach for VS based on orthotopic grafting of NF2-deficient Schwann cells in the auditory-vestibular nerve complex region. By growing in the cerebellopontine angle and inner auditory canal, these tumors reproduce some of the features of human VS, including progressive hearing loss, providing a new functional endpoint for high throughput preclinical NF2 drug screening.

Material and methods

Cell line

The SC4 Schwann cell line was derived from adeno-Cre-infected, spontaneously transformed Schwann cells isolated from adult Nf2KO3/flx2 mouse sciatic nerve in the FVB/N background [18–21]. SC4 cells were transfected with a plasmid encoding a fusion EGFP-luciferase gene under the control of the CMV promoter, and stable cell clones were selected using cell sorting. The clone SC4-9luc used for these studies was serially passaged in vitro.

Mice

Athymic immunodeficient NU-fox1mu (NU/NU) mice in an outbred BALB/C background were obtained from Charles River Laboratories. All animal care and experimentation reported here were conducted in compliance with the guidelines and with the specific approval of Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee under protocol numbers HEI1175-08-03 and CHLA315-12.

Microsurgery approach to the cerebellopontine angle to access the auditory-vestibular nerve complex

Following anesthesia by intraperitoneal administration of xylazine (10 mg/kg) and ketamine-HCl (100 mg/kg), the left post-auricular region was shaved and cleaned for surgical approach. Under the operating microscope, after a semi-circular incision was made extending from the vertex to the neck, an auricular flap was elevated anteriorly to give access to the lateral skull base including the petrous bone and occipital bone. Nuchal muscles were elevated and the sterno-cleido-mastoidian insertions separated from the lateral aspect of the petrous bone. The facial nerve was then identified as it exited the skull base. To avoid bleeding, the exposed bone was cauterized. Identification of the lateral and posterior semicircular canals and root of the zygoma anteriorly defined the drilling area (Fig. 1a–c). A 0.6 mm diamond was used to drill the bone overlying the dura mater covering the flocculus of the cerebellum. A maximal exposure was obtained by lining both semi-circular canal and the lateral sinus, the dura was opened and the flocculus retracted posterior-superiorly allowing access to the cerebellopontine angle. The arachnoidal layer of the cisterna pontis would eventually open spontaneously or it was punctured using a sharp hook, the cerebrospinal fluid was then allowed to drain. Transparency of the ampullae, situated close to the nerve, allowed targeting the auditory-vestibular nerve complex at the porus for injection. The craniotomy was then occluded using bone wax for a waterproof closure. The total surgery duration was approximately 25 min.

Stereotactic approach to the auditory-vestibular nerve complex

Stereotactic coordinates in 8-week-old NU/NU mice were established in a preliminary trial by injecting India ink through the cannulas followed by a postmortem histological examination.

The stereotactic device (Stoelting Lab standard rat stereotaxic instrument (#51600) with mouse adapter (#51624)) was calibrated to precisely target the inner auditory canal in the area of the vestibular ganglion, next to the auditory-vestibular nerve complex, and identified and validated specific coordinates: 4.91 mm cranio-caudal from the bregma, 2.1 mm lateral from the midline and 5.6 mm in depth from the surface of the skull.

Injection procedure

The injection method developed in this protocol was modified from Wu et al. 2005 [22]. SC4-9luc cells were suspended in Dulbecco’s Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, Life Technologies) containing 10 % FBS at a concentration of 4.16 \times 10^5/l allowing injection of 5 \times 10^4 cells in 120 nl. Following microsurgery or stereotactic approach, the cell suspension (or the cell-free medium for sham injections) was infused gradually in the left auditory-vestibular nerve complex at a rate of 1 nl/s (UMPIII micropump, Micro 4 microprocessor, World Precision Instruments) using the Intra Ocular Injection Kit (World...
Precision Instruments) and a 34 Gauge titanium 25 degree beveled tip needle.

**Bioluminescence imaging**

The growth of SC4-9luc orthotopic allografts was monitored by bioluminescence imaging using the IVIS imaging system (Caliper, PerkinElmer). All images were obtained 12 min after intraperitoneal injection of firefly luciferin (I.P., 225 mg/kg, Caliper) within a 60-180 s time acquisition. Mice were sedated continuously via inhalation of 2.5 % isoflurane (Abbott Laboratories Ltd.). 2D BLI image datasets were analyzed using Living Image 4.2 software (Caliper, PerkinElmer). Standard round-shaped region of interest.
interest (ROI) was centered on the maximum emitted radianc and average radianc (photons/s/cm2/sr) calculated for each animal.

**Magnetic resonance imaging**

Anesthesia was induced and maintained with isoflurane throughout the imaging procedure. Mice were inserted in the prone position into a small animal MRI scanner (PharmaScan 300, Bruker BioSpin Division) 7T magnet using the 19-mm inner diameter transmit receive coil. ParaVision 4.0 scanner software (BRUKER BioSpin MRI GmbH) was set to use RARE (Rapid Acquisition with Relaxation Enhancement) spin echo sequence for fast T2-weighted imaging (echo time = 50, repetition time = 3000, RARE Factor 8) with a 256 × 256 in-plane matrix and 2.56 cm field of view. After scanning, if needed, mice were gently warmed on a thermostatically controlled heating pad until awake enough to be returned to their home cage. MRI images were reconstructed at native resolution. For each mouse, we acquired 22 axial images with 0.4 mm thick slices and 0.02 mm gap between slices. This produced 0.1 × 0.1 mm² per pixel in-plane resolution with an effective slice thickness of 0.42 mm. eFilm Workstation 1.8.1 (eFilm Medical Inc.) was used to transfer reconstructed images into DICOM files. The volume of the tumors were measured by manual segmentation using the OsiriX image analysis software [23].

**Auditory brainstem responses (ABR) for objective assessment of auditory thresholds in mice**

Mice were anesthetized by intraperitoneal administration of xylazine (10 mg/kg) and ketamine-HCl (100 mg/kg). During ABR measurement, body temperature was kept at 38 °C with a heating pad. Stainless steel needle electrodes were placed on the vertex and below the ipsilateral ear, with ground electrode on the body of the anesthetized mice. Impedance was checked (below 5 kΩ) after positioning the set of electrodes. Tone-pips were elicited ranging from 4 to 32 kHz to obtain frequency specific information. Multiple repetitions of stimuli (300) were yield to obtain an averaged waveform. The recorded signals were bandpass filtered (300 to 3000 Hz) and amplified with a differential amplifier (105 μV). ABRs were recorded and reviewed with BioSig software (Tucker Davis Technologies). The threshold was defined as the lowest level at which waves of the ABR could be clearly detected by visual inspection. All thirty age matched mice in the surgery experimental group were tested following the same protocol on both ears. Testing was set at 7 weeks of age for baseline (before surgery) and 2, 14, and 21 days after surgery. Twenty ears of 10 non-injected control mice were tested all along as controls. In the cell-injected group (10 mice) the non-operated ears were tested as 10 more control ears. In the sham-injected group (10 mice) the non-operated ears were tested as 10 more control ears.

**Histopathology**

Whole mouse heads were dissected and skull fixed in 4 % paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 24 h, then decalcified for 24 h (RapidCal-Immuno™, BBC biochemical corporation) and embedded in paraffin. Each specimen was sectioned at 3.5 μm thickness and stained with standard H&E as previously described [24].

**Data analysis**

For measurements, data are expressed as mean ± SEM. For statistical comparison at the end-point we used a Student t test with the level of significance set at p < 0.05 (two-tailed). Statistical calculations were done using GraphPad, Prism 5.0a. The correlation between tumor size and the average radiance in photon/sr/cm² was evaluated using a linear regression.

**Results**

**Microsurgical approach to the auditory-vestibular nerve complex**

For the cell-derived allograft in this study we chose the SC4 cell line that has become a standard in NF2 basic and preclinical research [21, 25, 26]. SC4 cells were labeled with luciferase so that in vivo bioluminescence imaging could be applied to longitudinally monitor orthotopic tumor growth across the study. A microsurgical approach was utilized to graft SC4-9luc cells in the region of the auditory-vestibular (8th) nerve complex in the cerebello-pontine angle. Thirty NU/NU mice were divided in three groups: the allograft group was injected with the SC4-9luc cell suspension, the sham surgery group that received the same volume of the cell-free medium as the allograft group, and the control group with no surgery. No death was recorded during or directly after surgery. In the SC4-9luc cell-injected group all mice developed a tumor. After recovering from surgery, mice progressively lost weight and reached a clinical endpoint requiring euthanasia 20 days after surgery (Fig. 1d). The median survival was 25 days in the allograft group. Survival was not affected by sham injection compared to the control group with no surgery (Fig. 1e). To monitor the kinetic of tumor growth, bioluminescence imaging (BLI) and MRI (Fig. 1f–g) were sequentially acquired. We found that tumor bearing mice could be readily identified using both methods (Fig. 3a, b), however
we noticed a discrepancy between BLI signal and MR measurements of tumor size. Although BLI can detect tumor growth early after implantation (tumor volume $<5 \text{ mm}^3$), in mice with larger tumors ($>5 \text{ mm}^3$), increasing MR volumes did not correlate with average emitted radiance that tended to plateau. A similar effect, with in vivo BLI signal plateauing in large tumors, has been observed previously and is generally attributed to development of hemorrhage and necrosis within the tumor bed [27, 28].

Stereotactic approach to the auditory-vestibular nerve complex

As an alternative to microsurgery, we developed a stereotactic approach to reduce operator-induced variables and accurately reproduce the site of grafting. Twenty NU/NU mice were divided in two groups and operated using this approach. One group received the SC4-9luc cell suspension, the other group was sham injected with the same volume of cell-free medium. No death was recorded secondary to the injection. Tumor growth was monitored twice a week using thin cut MRI to determine tumor onset and growth characteristics. In the group of mice injected with the SC4-9luc cell suspension, 8 of 10 mice monitored by MRI developed a tumor of the 8th cranial nerve extending in the inner auditory canal and cerebellopontine angle, thereby closely mimicking the human condition (Fig. 2).

Tumors could be detected as early as day 11 ($0.32 \pm 0.08 \text{ mm}^3$) and tumor growth was followed up to 21 days ($2.7 \pm 0.9 \text{ mm}^3$) after stereotactic grafting when we noticed a discrepancy between BLI signal and MR measurements of tumor size. Although BLI can detect tumor growth early after implantation (tumor volume $<5 \text{ mm}^3$), in mice with larger tumors ($>5 \text{ mm}^3$), increasing MR volumes did not correlate with average emitted radiance that tended to plateau. A similar effect, with in vivo BLI signal plateauing in large tumors, has been observed previously and is generally attributed to development of hemorrhage and necrosis within the tumor bed [27, 28].

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mice developed clinical signs indicative of a moribund condition requiring euthanasia. The average tumor growth rate from day 11 to day 21 was 0.28 mm$^3$/day (Fig. 3c). In all analyzed cases, the main causes of death were the extension of the tumor into the otic capsule and compression of neighboring structures by tumor expansion. Control mice in the sham injected group did not show reduced survival.

**Monitoring the effect of SC4-9lac tumor growth on auditory function in NU/NU mice**

Consistent hearing levels were observed across 7-week-old NU/NU mice tested before any surgical procedure (n = 30, 60 ears total), with no significant intra-individual differences (Fig. 4a). Two days after surgery a general worsening of hearing in both sham- and cell-injected mice was recorded, with an increase in thresholds prevailing on the low frequencies (4 and 8 kHz) (Fig. 4b) suggesting a pressure mechanism secondary to CSF depletion. Hearing recovery in the sham-injected group occurred progressively up to day 14 after surgery when thresholds matched those of the non-injected control group (Fig. 4c). However, in the cell-injected mice a increased threshold at 16 kHz was observed and low-frequency hearing loss did not revert to the levels observed in non-injected, and sham-injected mice. This difference was statistically significant and increased at day 21 (t test, p < 0.05, n = 10 each group) (Fig. 4d). Interestingly, between 8 and 11 weeks of age, the non-injected control NU/NU mice showed early progressive high-frequency hearing loss (24 kHz, Fig. 4b–d), suggestive of early presbycusis in this mouse strain. In conclusion, in the NU/NU;SC4-9lac allograft model, the 16 kHz frequency appeared to be the most reliable measurement since it demonstrated specific and significant progressive hearing loss from day 2 to day 21 after surgery in the allografted mice and was neither affected by aging (at least up to 11 weeks of age), nor by surgery.

**Discussion**

Since Lee et al. introduced in 1992 the possibility of grafting fresh human vestibular schwannoma specimens in nude mice while maintaining survival and growth in a specific tissue environment, little progress has been made to enable the use of such models to further study schwannoma biology [29]. In fact, only few other publications used xenografts of fresh human specimens as models for schwannoma growth [30–32]. Interestingly, Neff et al. proposed a stereotactic approach to graft freshly isolated schwannoma cells into the caudate nucleus of NOD/SCID mice followed by in vivo BLI [33]. Although not reproducing the original location of vestibular schwannoma, this approach eventually provided information on the impact of blood brain barrier. Nevertheless, a low grafting rate and absence of discrete tumor growth limit its use.

Our study was designed to provide a proof of principle for grafting schwannoma cells in the acoustico-facial nerve.
complex region, using the SC4-9 cell line. SC4-9 has become a standard model in NF2 research since it recapitulates signalling network signatures of human and mouse NF2 schwannomas [19, 21, 25, 26], with high grafting efficiency when orthotopically injected into the sciatic nerves of immunodeficient NU/NU mice [34]. We found that the microsurgical approach successfully targeted the anatomic location where human VS predominantly arise and tumor development could be monitored by in vivo imaging. We also showed that by using carefully identified stereotactic coordinates, precise targeting of the auditory-vestibular complex region can be achieved, thus

![Figure 4](image-url)

**Fig. 4** Auditory brainstem responses (ABRs) measurements for objective testing of auditory function. Average ABRs evoked by an acoustic stimuli (Tone-pips, 4–32 kHz) delivered at decreasing intensities (dB SPL), bandpass filtered (300–3000 Hz) and amplified with a differential amplifier (105 uV). ABRs obtained in 10 control non-injected NU/NU mice (left and right ears), 10 sham-injected NU/NU mice (left ears) and 10 SC4-9 luc cell-injected NU/NU mice (left ears) before surgery (a, 7 week-old), 2 days after surgery (b, 8 week-old), 14 days after surgery (c, 10 week-old), 21 days after surgery (d, 11 week-old). A statistically significant shift at 16 kHz is observed in SC4-9 luc tumor-bearing mice (left ears) compared to sham-injected mice (left ears) starting 14 days after surgery (t test, p < 0.05)
limiting operator-induced variables. This is particularly relevant in the context of using mouse and human VS allograft models for high throughput drug evaluation and to inform trial design in more sophisticated GEM NF2 models. In vivo imaging and histological analysis showed that SC4-9 tumors developed in the cerebello-pontine region with similar extensions as human VS. These included intracoehlear localization and brainstem compression eventually causing death. The use of other mouse and human cellular models, including slow-growing primary VS cells, will eventually mimick the benign, indolent nature of human VS. For each new VS cell model grafted in vivo using this approach, the natural history of allograft tumor development can be analyzed by MRI. This will define the cell line-specific time frame in which tumor growth is limited to the anatomical region of interest, making new models suitable for preclinical drug testing using tumor volume and hearing as endpoints.

One of the limitations of this model is that the transient hearing loss observed in both the surgical and non-surgical (contralateral) ears was likely due to the surgical technique, which requires opening of the arachnoidal layer at the level of the cerebello-pontine angle to deplete cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) from cysterna pontis and/or magna. The effect of changes in the CSF pressure on hearing has been widely documented in clinical reports [35–37]. More precisely, in humans, hearing loss affects preferentially low frequencies (125–500 Hz) and high frequencies (4000–8000 Hz), whereas medium frequencies (2000 Hz) are well respected. The lower frequencies tend to take more time to recover. Subsequently, this early shift was reproduced in animal models with depletion of perilymphatic fluids or CSF [38]. The rapid tumor growth with intra-cochlear extension is likely the primary cause of hearing loss in the SC4-9 model. Intracoehlar extension has been described for human VS, although its prevalence among NF2 patient is yet to be determined [39, 40]. Use of VS cell lines with different growth patterns might become relevant to dissect other causes of hearing loss in these patients, in addition to tumor compression of the acoustic nerve.

The most frequent hearing finding in pure tone audiometry for VS in humans is a high frequency sensorineural hearing loss [7, 8, 41]. Animal models cannot precisely recapitulate hearing loss in humans since other mammals do not share our unique auditory sensitivity [42]. In this study we used tone pips for frequency-specific testing within the mouse auditory spectrum. We observed a specific threshold increase at 16 kHz consistent with the increased thresholds in the higher frequencies observed in the human condition. Because of the early occurrence of presbycusis in this mouse strain, the effect of tumor growth on higher frequencies could not be determined. Use of genetic backgrounds of immunodeficient mice with different hearing characteristics could help address this issue.

The report of a favorable impact of an anti-angiogenic treatment on hearing in NF2 VS patients compels the need to understand the relationship between VS growth and hearing loss [16]. As a result, hearing outcome during treatment has become the primary endpoint for clinical trials investigating antiangiogenic compounds such as bevacizumab. Thus, the inclusion of a hearing endpoint in VS preclinical trials using a variety of cellular models will contribute to the characterization of compound efficacy and prioritization.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of Interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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