Sex-Specific Role of Myostatin Signaling in Neonatal Muscle Growth, Denervation Atrophy, and Neuromuscular Contractures

Marianne E Emmert[1], Parul Aggarwal[2], Kritton Shay-Winkler[2], Se-Jin Lee[3,4], Qingnian Goh[2,5]*, and Roger Cornwall[2,5,6,7]*

[1]Department of Medical Sciences, University of Cincinnati College of Medicine, Cincinnati, OH, USA
[2]Division of Orthopaedic Surgery, Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, Cincinnati, OH, USA
[3]The Jackson Laboratory, Farmington, CT, USA
[4]Department of Genetics and Genome Sciences, University of Connecticut School of Medicine, Farmington, CT, USA
[5]Department of Orthopaedic Surgery, University of Cincinnati College of Medicine, Cincinnati, OH, USA
[6]Division of Developmental Biology, Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, Cincinnati, OH, USA
[7]Department of Pediatrics, University of Cincinnati College of Medicine, Cincinnati, OH, USA

*To whom correspondence should be addressed:
Qingnian Goh, PhD
Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center
3333 Burnet Ave, MLC 2017
Cincinnati, OH 45229
513-516-7656
Qingnian.Goh@cchmc.org

Or to:
Roger Cornwall, MD
Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center
3333 Burnet Ave, MLC 2017
Cincinnati, OH 45229
513-636-7319
Roger.Cornwall@cchmc.org

Running title: Sex Dimorphisms in Myostatin-dependent Muscle Contractures

Key words
Sex dimorphisms, myostatin, neonatal brachial plexus injury, denervation, neuromuscular contractures, muscle growth, muscle atrophy, muscle length, proteostasis

Abbreviations
NBPI, neonatal brachial plexus injury; GDF8, growth differentiation factor-8; TGF-β, transforming growth factor beta; MSTN, myostatin; ACVR2B-Fc, soluble activin receptor type IIB; Akt, protein kinase B; mTOR, mammalian target of rapamycin; p70^{S6K}, S6 kinase; Smad 2 & 3, mothers against decapentaplegic homolog 2 & 3; GAPDH, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase; DPBS, Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline

Abstract

Neonatal brachial plexus injury (NBPI) causes disabling and incurable muscle contractures that result from impaired longitudinal growth of denervated muscles. This deficit in muscle growth is driven by increased proteasome-mediated protein degradation, suggesting a dysregulation of muscle proteostasis. The myostatin (MSTN) pathway, a prominent muscle-specific regulator of proteostasis, is a putative signaling mechanism by which neonatal denervation could impair longitudinal muscle growth, and thus a potential target to prevent NBPI-induced contractures. Through a mouse model of NBPI, our present study revealed that pharmacologic inhibition of MSTN signaling induces hypertrophy, restores longitudinal growth, and prevents contractures in denervated muscles of female but not male mice, despite inducing hypertrophy of normally innervated muscles in both sexes. Additionally, the MSTN-dependent impairment of longitudinal muscle growth after NBPI in female mice is associated with perturbation of 20S proteasome activity, but not through alterations in canonical MSTN signaling pathways. These findings reveal a sex dimorphism in the regulation of neonatal longitudinal muscle growth and contractures, thereby providing insights into contracture pathophysiology, identifying a potential muscle-specific therapeutic target for contracture prevention, and underscoring the importance of sex as a biological variable in the pathophysiology of neuromuscular disorders.

Introduction

Injury to the brachial plexus at birth (Neonatal Brachial Plexus Injury – NBPI) is the most common cause of upper limb paralysis in children,[1] occurring in approximately 1.5 of every 1,000 live births. This initial nerve injury leads to permanent neurologic deficits in 20-40% of affected children,[2,3] and results in the secondary formation of disabling and incurable muscle contractures, or joint stiffness. Contractures severely impede range of motion and functional use of the involved limbs, ultimately resulting in skeletal deformity that further worsens limb dysfunction.[4] However, current strategies are insufficient in restoring muscle function and joint range of motion once contractures have developed, and may even worsen function by further weakening abnormal muscles.[5-7] To develop effective strategies for treating contractures, it is therefore important to establish greater insights into the pathophysiology of contracture formation.

Using a mouse model of NBPI, we previously discovered that contractures result from impaired longitudinal muscle growth, as characterized by the overstretch/elongation of sarcomeres in denervated muscles.[8-11] Such deficits in muscle length are caused by aberrant levels of muscle protein degradation associated with increased catalytic activity of the 20S proteasome.[12] These results posit a critical mechanistic role for proteasome-mediated dysregulation of muscle proteostasis in driving the impairment of longitudinal muscle growth that ultimately causes contractures. As proof of concept, we showed that inhibition of the proteasome with an FDA-approved proteasome inhibitor, bortezomib, restores sarcomere length and reduces contracture formation.[12] Our collective findings therefore establish that the biomechanical contracture phenotype can be attributed to a biological defect, and that contractures can be corrected by targeting their causative

mechanism. However, despite the effectiveness of proteasome inhibition for preventing

contractures, this pharmacologic strategy cannot be easily translated to children. We

recently reported that bortezomib treatment is required throughout postnatal development

to prevent contractures at skeletal maturity, and that its efficacy is diminished beyond the

neonatal period.[13] This need for chronic bortezomib treatment is problematic. Prolonged

administration of proteasome inhibitors results in potential cumulative toxicity as these

drugs nonspecifically block degradation and cause tissue damage to many organs, such

as the brain,[12] and even impede musculoskeletal development.[13] Due to these concerns,

our lab seeks to identify safer strategies to prevent denervation-induced contractures by

targeting skeletal muscle-specific regulators of proteostasis to reduce the elevated protein

degradation responsible for contractures.

One such signaling mechanism specific to skeletal muscle is the myostatin (MSTN)

pathway. MSTN, also known as growth differentiation factor-8 (GDF8), is a myokine and

a member of the transforming growth factor-β (TGF-β) superfamily.[14] In normally

innervated skeletal muscles, ligand binding of MSTN to Activin A through its Type 2

receptors (ACVR and ACVR2B) activates the downstream Smad proteins 2 & 3.[15,16]

These signaling events regulate muscle homeostasis by increasing degradation and

decreasing Akt/mTOR-mediated synthesis, ultimately attenuating muscle size and

limiting aberrant growth.[14,17,18] MSTN thereby functions as a negative regulator of muscle

mass and protein balance. Given its prominent role in muscle proteostasis, it is possible

that MSTN is a signaling pathway by which denervation impairs muscle growth.

Specifically, we speculate that neonatal denervation induces contractures through MSTN-

dependent impairment of postnatal longitudinal muscle growth. If contractures are indeed

mediated through MSTN signaling, it could lead to a potential breakthrough in identifying a muscle-specific target for contracture prevention.

Hence, in the current study, we seek to elucidate the role of MSTN in the formation of denervation-induced muscle contractures. Using a soluble decoy receptor (ACVR2B-Fc) to inhibit ligand binding of MSTN to Activin A,[19-22] we specifically investigated whether pharmacologic inhibition of MSTN signaling preserves longitudinal muscle growth and prevents contractures after NBPI. Our collective results establish several novel insights in skeletal muscle biology and contracture pathophysiology. First, we show that pharmacologic MSTN inhibition is efficacious in augmenting neonatal growth of normally innervated skeletal muscles in both female and male mice. Second, MSTN inhibition effectively restores sarcomere length and reduces contracture severity exclusively in neonatally denervated muscles of female mice, suggesting a sex-dependent role for the MSTN pathway in modulating longitudinal muscle growth and contracture formation. Curiously, MSTN inhibition improves muscle proteostasis in denervated female muscles by circumventing known downstream signaling pathways to directly target the 20S proteasome. These discoveries establish a critical link between denervation and impaired longitudinal muscle growth, which helps guide translation of safer strategies for preventing contractures. Furthermore, they highlight the importance of sex as a biological variable in disease pathology and treatment strategies, as well as in future studies dissecting the molecular regulation of longitudinal muscle growth.

Results

MSTN inhibition enhances neonatal skeletal muscle growth

While pharmacologic inhibition of MSTN signaling with the soluble ACVR2B-Fc decoy receptor has been shown to induce robust muscle growth in adult mice, it has not been validated in neonatal mice. To limit potential toxicity during the neonatal period, we standardized the frequency of ACVR2B-Fc treatment to weekly injections.[19,20] We began by verifying the effects of this dosage on neonatal skeletal muscle growth (**Figure 1A**). To further account for sexual dimorphisms in muscle size during postnatal development,[23] we analyzed the effect of MSTN inhibition on developmental growth according to individual sexes. Our findings revealed that inhibition of the MSTN pathway resulted in robust growth of normally innervated forelimb muscles in both neonatal female and male mice. Specifically, MSTN inhibition enhanced cross-sectional and volumetric growth of the brachialis muscles (**Figures 1B-D**), as well as increased overall muscle weight and elevated total protein levels in biceps muscles (**Figures 1F-G**). Despite this, the increases in brachialis volume (61% vs. 35%), biceps weight (49% vs. 35%), and biceps protein content (47% vs. 28%) was greater in females than males when compared to respective controls (**Figures 1E, 1H**). These results indicate that while neonatal inhibition of MSTN signaling effectively enhances skeletal muscle growth in both sexes, it facilitates greater protein anabolism and growth in female muscles. Curiously, ACVR2B-Fc treatment did not yield additional gains in body weight but instead attenuated humerus length and heart size in male mice, whereas female mice had smaller spleens after treatment (**Figure 1 – supplemental figures 1A-D**). Hence, while pharmacologic MSTN inhibition is associated with several off-target effects, these alterations manifest more prevalently in male tissues.

MSTN signaling modulates denervation atrophy in a sex-specific manner

To elucidate the contribution of the MSTN pathway in modulating contracture

formation, we began by investigating the effects of ACVR2B-Fc treatment on neonatally

denervated forelimb muscles. In contrast to normally innervated neonatal muscles,

pharmacologic blockade of MSTN signaling reduced muscle loss of denervated brachialis

and biceps muscles only in female mice (**Figures 2A-E**). In denervated female muscles,

MSTN inhibition specifically increased brachialis cross-sectional area and volume by 25-

26%, and biceps weight and total protein by 31-50%. However, there were no

improvements with MSTN inhibition in denervated male muscles, as ACVR2B-Fc

treatment failed to increase brachialis muscle CSA and volume (**Figures 2A-C**), or biceps

muscle weight and total protein levels (**Figures 2D-E**) in male mice. This lack of effect of

neonatal MSTN inhibition on denervated muscles in male mice was further associated

with an attenuation of skeletal growth in the denervated humeri (**Figure 2 – supplemental**

figure 1A). Taken together, our results illustrate that while neonatal MSTN inhibition

facilitates developmental growth of normally innervated muscles in both males and

females, it promotes neonatal growth and reduces atrophy of denervated muscles

exclusively in females.

MSTN signaling modulates contracture formation in a sex-specific manner

Due to the differential effects in denervated muscle growth, we speculated that the

MSTN signaling pathway may mediate contracture formation in a sex-dependent manner.

Indeed, we discovered that ACVR2B-Fc treatment improved passive range of motion in

both elbow and shoulder joints only in female mice 4 weeks post-NBPI (**Figures 3A-B,**

3D-E). This sex-specific improvement in joint mobility corresponded to a reduction in both

elbow flexion and shoulder rotation contracture severity in female, but not male mice

(**Figures 3C, 3F**). These results indicate a critical therapeutic window for MSTN inhibition

in preventing contracture formation, and importantly, illuminate a sex-specific role for the

MSTN pathway in mediating contracture formation. To gain further insights on this sex

dimorphism, we next assessed the role of MSTN signaling on longitudinal growth of

denervated muscles. Here, we observed that neonatal MSTN inhibition rescued

sarcomere length (reduced sarcomere elongation) in the denervated brachialis muscles

of female mice (**Figures 4A-C**), indicating an improvement in functional muscle length.[13]

Conversely, sarcomeres in the denervated brachialis of male mice remained

overstretched, an indication of impaired longitudinal muscle growth. Hence, our collective

findings establish that contracture formation following neonatal muscle denervation in

female mice is driven by MSTN-dependent impairment of longitudinal muscle growth.

MSTN mediates denervation-induced proteostasis dysregulation in a sex-specific manner

Since our prior work revealed that impaired longitudinal muscle growth following

neonatal denervation is driven by increased levels of proteasome-mediated protein

degradation,[12] we subsequently explored the role of MSTN signaling in proteostasis

dysregulation to decipher mechanisms governing the observed sex dimorphisms. We first

assessed whether MSTN inhibition is able to further increase the elevated levels of

protein synthesis in neonatally denervated muscles.[12] Through western blot analysis of

puromycin incorporation,[24,25] we discovered that while 4 weeks of NBPI drove protein

synthesis in denervated biceps muscles, MSTN inhibition does not augment this increase

in either sex (**Figures 5A-B**). This finding was corroborated by western blot analyses of

the Akt/mTOR hypertrophic signaling pathway,[26-29] which revealed that perturbations in

both Akt and p70[S6K] activity and total protein expression in denervated triceps muscles were not further impacted by ACVR2B-Fc treatment at 4 weeks post-NBPI (**Figures 5C-I**). These collective findings therefore indicate that MSTN-mediated proteostasis dysregulation in denervated female muscles occurs independent of Akt/mTOR-mediated protein synthesis.

Having ruled out synthesis as an underlying mechanism for the observed sex dimorphisms, we next investigated the role of degradation, the other side of proteostasis. While total levels of K48-linked polyubiquitin were not different between normally innervated and denervated biceps muscles, we observed increased polyubiquitination of proteins greater than 40 kDa (**Figures 6A-D**), similar to what we have reported before.[12] However, MSTN inhibition did not attenuate the denervation-induced increases in proteins tagged for degradation at this molecular weight range in either sex. Since MSTN is known to activate the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway by upregulating the expression of upstream ubiquitin ligases,[30,31] it was surprising that its inhibition did not reduce ubiquitination levels. Instead, ACVR2B-Fc effectively reduced the catalytic activity of the 20S proteasome β5 subunit in denervated triceps muscles only in female mice (**Figures 6E-F**). As K48-linked ubiquitin chains are the most prevalent signal that mark protein substrates for proteasome degradation,[32] these findings suggest that MSTN regulates sex-specific proteostasis dysregulation by circumventing polyubiquitination and directly targeting the proteasome. To further decipher signaling mechanisms governing the sex differences in MSTN-mediated protein degradation, we characterized the Smad2/3 pathway in triceps muscles.[28,29,33,34] Here, we observed sex-independent increases in both Smad2 and Smad3 phosphorylation and translation with neonatal denervation,

which were not further altered with MSTN inhibition (**Figures 7A-G**). Our collective

findings thus posit a sex-specific role for MSTN in muscle proteostasis dysregulation after

neonatal denervation through non-canonical signaling pathways.

Less pronounced sex differences with proteasome inhibition

Having observed a role for sex in MSTN-dependent contracture formation, we

revisited our prior findings of long-term proteasome inhibition in preventing contractures.[13]

Here, we reanalyzed our data from 4, 8, and 12w of continuous bortezomib treatment

(**Figure 8A**) according to sex. In contrast with MSTN inhibition, we observed greater and

more consistent reductions in elbow and shoulder contracture severity across the different

time points in male mice with bortezomib treatment (**Figures 8B-C**). Sex differences in

sarcomere length were less apparent, as bortezomib improved longitudinal muscle

growth in female and male mice, except at 8w of treatment (**Figure 8D**). Lastly, while

bortezomib did not alter β5 subunit activity in either sex, it attenuated β1 subunit activity

at 8 and 12w only in male mice (**Figures 8E-F**). Our prior reports of reduced β1 activity

with bortezomib treatment at 4w were observed only in female mice, as proteasome

activity was not measured in male mice (data not shown).[13] Overall, while sex differences

do exist with neonatal and long-term bortezomib treatment, these differences are more

subtle than sex dimorphisms observed with MSTN inhibition. Regardless, they further

highlight that sex mediates neonatally-induced contractures through divergent pathways.

Discussion

Secondary muscle contractures in pediatric neuromuscular disorders such as NBPI and cerebral palsy are major drivers of joint immobility, limb deformity, and physical dysfunction and disability.[4] As existing treatments for contractures have focused on palliative mechanical solutions and do not address the underlying pathophysiology of contracture formation, the effectiveness of these strategies in restoring physical function is limited.[5-7] Specifically, the paucity in our understanding of contracture pathophysiology impedes clinical efforts to prevent contractures. To overcome these limitations, we have previously identified the dysregulation of muscle proteostasis, as characterized by an increase in proteasome-mediated protein degradation, as a causative mechanism of impaired longitudinal muscle growth and contracture formation following NBPI.[12] This discovery therefore highlights the possibility of pharmacologic strategies to prevent contractures through targeting of a biological mechanism. As our recent findings revealed a need for chronic pharmacologic proteasome inhibition with the potential for cumulative off-target toxicity,[13] we must continue to identify safe and efficacious strategies for preventing pediatric muscle contractures by targeting muscle-specific regulators of proteostasis.

In our present study, we pharmacologically targeted MSTN, a prominent muscle-specific negative regulator of proteostasis, and identified several key findings regarding MSTN signaling in muscle growth and contracture pathophysiology. First, we discovered that pharmacologic MSTN inhibition with ACVR2B-Fc enhanced the size and protein content of normally innervated forelimb muscles in 1 month-old mice at P33, which is equivalent to the completion of neonatal muscle development in human infants.[35] In

comparison, the youngest age that prior studies on MSTN inhibition have reported gains

in lean body mass was in 2 month-old mice.[36] Our current finding therefore indicates a

key regulatory role for MSTN signaling in governing muscle growth during the neonatal

window, an often overlooked period in developmental muscle biology. This discovery not

only reveals greater insights in skeletal muscle development, but also offers potential

therapeutic strategies for overcoming low muscle mass arising from a host of genetic,

metabolic, and hormonal disorders in the pediatric population.[37] In addition, MSTN

inhibition also protected against atrophy and sarcomere overstretch in neonatally

denervated forelimb muscles, as well as prevented contractures in female but not male

mice. These findings therefore establish a sex-specific role for MSTN as a driver of

impaired muscle growth and contracture formation exclusively in female mice. Critically,

this sex dimorphism lies in the pathophysiology of denervation-induced atrophy and

contractures rather than drug pharmacokinetics or pharmacodynamics, given that MSTN

inhibition promotes robust growth in normally innervated muscles of both female and male

mice. Indeed, MSTN inhibition restored proteostasis only through the attenuation of 20S

proteasomal subunit activity in denervated muscles of female mice, without associated

changes in overall levels of protein synthesis or K48-linked polyubiquitin. This postulates

an intriguing mechanism for MSTN-dependent impairment of longitudinal muscle growth,

whereby MSTN putatively circumvents canonical signaling pathways of proteostasis to

directly regulate the 20S proteasome after neonatal muscle denervation. Beyond offering

potential translational opportunities for female NBPI patients, these seminal findings

highlight the underappreciated role of sex as a biological variable in the pathophysiology

and treatment of acquired neuromuscular disorders. Our results also establish that

longitudinal muscle growth is governed through sex-divergent and noncanonical

pathways, which offers valuable directions for future investigations to undertake.

Skeletal muscle exhibits high levels of sex dimorphisms. Female and male

muscles typically display heterogeneity in body composition and protein turnover,[23,38]

regenerative and hypertrophic processes,[39,40] metabolism and substrate utilization,[41,42]

drug pharmacodynamics,[43] and even the development of disease-induced pathologies.[44]

While the role of sex in neonatal muscle denervation is largely unknown, we speculate

that sex mediates divergent pathways that ultimately lead to contracture formation. Our

current discovery of a sex-specific role for MSTN signaling in mediating contractures thus

establishes a critical link between neonatal muscle denervation and impaired longitudinal

muscle growth. In neonatally denervated female muscles, the improvement in functional

muscle length following MSTN inhibition is associated with reduced proteasome subunit

activity. This finding compelled us to thoroughly scrutinize our prior results on proteasome

inhibition with bortezomib through the lens of sex differences.[13] Here, we discovered that

bortezomib treatment preferentially prevented elbow and shoulder contractures in male

mice after the neonatal stage of muscle development and into skeletal maturity. Though

the sex-associated phenotypic differences are more subtle in this context, they further

illustrate sex-divergent pathways in the modulation of NBPI-induced contractures.

Intriguingly, the effects of MSTN inhibition on proteasome activity in female mice

parallel our earlier results of proteasome inhibition with bortezomib.[13] Specifically, we

observed that a 30-45% attenuation in either $\beta1$ or $\beta5$ subunit activity at 4 weeks post-

NBPI is associated with a 50-55% and a 45-60% reduction in elbow and shoulder

contractures, respectively. Furthermore, this magnitude of reduction in either subunit

activity is associated with an improvement of normalized sarcomere length by 14-15%. The absence of subunit specificity in preventing contractures thus points to a less prominent role for the different proteolytic sites of the 20S proteasome in modulating sarcomerogenesis and muscle length than previously proposed.[13] Nevertheless, our collective findings indicate that different upstream pathways in contracture formation between sexes ultimately converge at the 20S proteasome, thereby validating the role of the proteasome as a key mediator of NBPI-induced contractures. Despite these insights, the precise mechanism(s) by which MSTN signaling modulates proteasome activity in denervated female muscles remains to be determined. While we observed altered Akt/mTOR and Smad2/3 signaling with NPBI, which are corroborated by studies from other groups using different mouse denervation models,[45-47] MSTN inhibition failed to impact these canonical pathways in female mice. These findings thus suggest a non-canonical signaling mechanism through which MSTN regulates the 20S proteasome in female muscles after NBPI. Future studies are needed to elucidate this prospective alternative pathway. Further investigations into the molecular interactions between MSTN and proteasome activity are also critical for unraveling the complex regulatory machinery in longitudinal muscle growth, a poorly understood aspect of skeletal muscle biology.[48,49]

Additionally, it is unclear how proteostasis dysregulation and contractures are mediated in denervated male muscles. To this end, it is conceivable to postulate a role for sex hormones in contracture pathophysiology post-NBPI. An earlier study on juvenile frogs reported a loss of laryngeal muscle fibers only in male frogs following surgical denervation, whereas androgen treatment resulted in an additive effect on total fiber numbers only in innervated female laryngeal muscles.[50] These results not only indicate a

sexually dimorphic interaction between innervation and the endocrine system in

regulating muscle fiber number, but they also suggest a protective effect of the female

sex hormones against muscle fiber loss with denervation. Additional studies further

verified the role of the female endocrine system in regulating muscle homeostasis.

Ovariectomy in adult female rats prevented muscle mass recovery after hindlimb

unloading,[51] whereas genetic deletion of estrogen receptor β in muscle stem cells

compromised muscle regeneration in juvenile female mice after local injections of barium

chloride.[40] Thus, to gain mechanistic insights on sexual dimorphisms in MSTN-mediated

contracture formation, future studies must rigorously interrogate the contributions of sex

in contracture pathophysiology by exploring the relationships between the different sex

hormones and MSTN signaling in NBPI.

The finding of sex dimorphism in MSTN signaling itself is not without precedent.

Targeted deletion of MSTN during skeletal maturity increased masseter mass and bite

force in male mice only.[52] In contrast, long-term MSTN deletion in skeletal muscles

increased lean muscle mass only in aged female mice.[53] These discrepancies might be

attributable to sex-related differences of MSTN expression itself in skeletal muscles.

Indeed, while men are prone to having higher expression of genes encoding ribosomal

and mitochondrial proteins, women tend to have higher gene expression of the ACVR2B

receptor.[54] Moreover, there is an increased transcriptional and translational expression of

processed MSTN in hindlimb muscles of adult female mice compared to their male

counterparts.[55] As the increased expression of MSTN and its receptor ligands facilitate

higher MSTN activity in females, they conceivably predispose female muscles to more

prominent responses from MSTN inhibition. In our current study, these intrinsic sex

differences could potentially elucidate how pharmacologic MSTN inhibition confers

greater neonatal growth in normally innervated female muscles and protects against

atrophy in denervated muscles of female mice. These sex differences in MSTN and

receptor gene expression may further account for the mixed outcomes of MSTN inhibition

therapy for treating Duchenne Muscular Disease and other muscle disorders.[18,56]

Our discovery of sex dimorphisms in denervated muscle growth also calls into

question prior conclusions on the role of MSTN signaling in denervation-induced atrophy

from studies analyzing only male mice. In a juvenile mouse model of sciatic nerve

resection, MacDonald et al. reported an inability of both rapamycin and ACVR2B-Fc

treatment to prevent atrophy in male mice, and surmised that denervation atrophy is not

Akt/mTOR or MSTN-dependent (2014).[46] These findings are similar to our current

observations of male mice in a neonatal mouse model of NBPI. In our present study, we

extend MacDonald et al.'s earlier findings by revealing a novel role for MSTN in mediating

atrophy solely in denervated muscles of female mice. Importantly, the sex dimorphisms

in muscle atrophy are not limited to neonatal denervation, as sex differences in the

pathophysiology of muscle atrophy have also been documented by an independent group

using an adult mouse model of tenotomy.[57] Overall, these latest discoveries underscore

the need to account for sex as a biological variable in future studies investigating in

different models of muscle atrophy.

Our study is not without limitations. Indeed, we observed that the ACVR2B-Fc

decoy receptor attenuated growth of other non-skeletal muscle tissues, including the

heart, spleen, and bone. Our observations are thus consistent with prior reports of off-

target effects with pharmacologic MSTN inhibition.[18] The off-target effects we observed

in our study could have been minimized through genetic models to manipulate MSTN

signaling in the skeletal muscle. While such genetic models could reveal additional

insights in contracture formation, the off-target effects do not fully explain the sex-

specificity of our outcomes. As MSTN plays a key role in cardiac energy homeostasis,[58]

the attenuation in heart size of male mice could impair cardiac function and lead to

reduced muscle activity. We are unable to ascertain this possibility as we did not perform

any metabolic measurements in the current study, though there were no observable

differences in spontaneous cage activity with ACVR2B-Fc treatment. Of particular note is

the effect of MSTN inhibition on bone growth, which could potentially confound our

measurements of muscle parameters that are normalized to humerus length. However,

the reduced bone length in male denervated limbs following MSTN inhibition would, if

anything, cause an apparent increase in muscle size and/or rescue of contractures. The

absence of such muscle findings despite this effect on bone growth reinforces the lack of

a beneficial effect of MSTN inhibition on male denervated muscle, further underscoring

the sex dimorphisms seen in muscle parameters. Finally, although we identified a link

between MSTN inhibition and proteasome activity without perturbations in canonical

MSTN signaling pathways, the molecular mechanisms by which MSTN could be

regulating proteasome activity remain unclear. Potential noncanonical pathways could

include p21-activated kinase 1 (PAK1) signaling, which has recently been shown to be

permissive to gains in skeletal muscle mass with MSTN inhibition.[59] Alternatively, MSTN

might target contractures through the autophagy-lysosome pathway instead.[60] Future

studies are needed to fully elucidate mechanistic links and complete our understanding

of the role of MSTN signaling in contracture pathophysiology.

Conclusion

In conclusion, we established several critical insights in this current study that enhance our understanding of contracture pathophysiology and establish the framework for future investigations. First, the efficacy of MSTN inhibition at rescuing contractures, at least in female mice, reinforces the role of skeletal muscle biology in contracture formation and provides proof of concept for potential muscle-specific therapies for contracture prevention and treatment. Second, the sex-specific improvement in longitudinal muscle growth is associated with a corresponding reduction in proteasome activity, offering further evidence that the proteasome is a key regulator of muscle contractures. Third, the rescue in longitudinal growth without perturbations in the canonical signaling pathways with which MSTN regulates proteostasis suggests a potential noncanonical pathway governing muscle length. Lastly, the discovery of sex dimorphisms in our current study highlights the importance of sex in the pathophysiology of denervation atrophy, muscle growth, and pediatric muscle contractures. Moving forward, we strongly advocate the inclusion of sex as a biological variable in both mechanistic and translational studies on muscle atrophy and acquired neuromuscular diseases.

Materials and Methods

NBPI surgical model

To assess the role of MSTN signaling in pediatric muscle contracture formation, we utilized our surgical mouse model of unilateral postganglionic NBPI where injury to the brachial plexus at postnatal day (P)5 induces contractures within 4 weeks after denervation.[12,13,61] Following the surgery, mice were returned to their mums and housed in standard cages on a 12-hour light/12-hour dark cycle, with nutrition and activity *ad libitum*. In order to ensure permanent deficits and to prevent potential confounding consequences of reinnervation, we validated deficits in motor function both postoperatively and prior to sacrifice. We excluded from the study mice that displayed preserved or recovered movement in the denervated limb.

MSTN inhibition

Beginning one day prior to surgery and continuing for four weeks after surgery, we pharmacologically inhibited the MSTN pathway by treating wildtype neonatal mice with a soluble decoy receptor fused to an Fc domain (ACVR2B-Fc).[19,20] The binding of MSTN to the Fc domain inhibits MSTN from binding to Activin A, which blocks MSTN activity in the muscle, ultimately leading to increased muscle protein synthesis and robust muscle growth.[19] The dosage frequency for the ACVR2B decoy receptor varies from 3,[20,21] 5-6,[22] and 7 days.[19,20] Since this is the first known study in which this drug was tested in neonatal mice, we utilized the lowest dosage frequency in order to prevent potential toxicity.[19,20] Hence, the soluble decoy receptor was administered weekly at a dose of 10 mg/kg via intraperitoneal injections, whereas Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) was used as a control in a separate litter of mice (**Figure 1A**). All control and experimental groups

in this study were randomized by litter, with all treatments administered at noon and in

the respective cages. Daily body weights were recorded for all subjects. All mice were

handled according to approved institutional animal care and use committee (IACUC)

protocols (#2020-0067) of the Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center.

Assessment of contractures

Mice were euthanized at 4 weeks post-NBPI (P33) by CO_2 asphyxiation,

whereupon passive range of motion of the elbow and shoulder joints were assessed to

determine contracture severity. Prior to sacrifice, mice were fasted for 4 hours and then

administered 21.8 mg/kg puromycin (Sigma-Aldrich #P7255) intraperitoneally for 30

minutes, which gets incorporated into newly formed peptide chains.[25] Immediately post-

sacrifice, digital photography images of bilateral elbows and shoulders were captured at

maximum passive extension and external rotation, respectively. Elbow flexion and

shoulder internal rotation contractures were subsequently calculated in AxioVision

(Zeiss).[12,13,61] This previously validated method of assessing passive range of motion and

contracture severity was performed with blinding to treatment groups. The forelimb

images shown in **Figures 3A** and **3D** are representative of their respective samples, and

have been processed to reflect comparable levels of sharpness, brightness, and contrast

for illustrative purposes. However, no image manipulation was performed prior to

measurements.

Tissue collection and preparation

Following digital photography, we harvested bilateral biceps muscles (long head

only), bilateral triceps muscles, hearts, and spleens. Biceps, hearts, and spleens were

also weighed. Both biceps and triceps were then flash-frozen and stored at –80ºC for

subsequent analysis of protein dynamics and signaling pathways. The remaining forelimbs (with intact brachialis muscles) were positioned at 90° elbow flexion on cork, and imaged with digital radiographs for humerus length. Bilateral forelimbs were subsequently fixed in 10% formalin at 90° elbow flexion to avoid sarcomere relaxation with muscle removal. Following 48 hours of fixation, bilateral brachialis muscles were dissected, soaked in 25% Lugol solution (Sigma-Aldrich #32922) overnight, and imaged by micro computed tomography for assessment of whole muscle cross-sectional area and volume.[12,13,61] Brachialis muscles were then recovered by soaking in PBS overnight at 4°C, digested in 15% sulfuric acid for 30 minutes to obtain muscle bundles, and imaged for sarcomere length.

Ex vivo high-resolution studies

MicroCT was performed using a Siemens Inveon PET/SPECT/CT Scanner (Siemens Medical Solutions, Malvern, PA, USA) as previously described.[61] The cone-beam CT parameters were as follows: 360° rotation, 1080 projections, 1300-ms exposure time, 1500-ms settle time, 80-kVp voltage, 500-µA current, and effective pixel size 17.67 µm. Briefly, acquisitions were reconstructed using a Feldkamp algorithm with mouse beam-hardening correction, slight noise reduction, and 3D matrix size 1024x1024x1536, using manufacturer-provided software. Protocol-specific Hounsfield unit (HU) calibration factor was applied.

Muscle length

Although the functional length of a whole muscle is defined by its total number of sarcomeres in series, morphological constraints restrict its direct measurement.[12] To overcome these limitations, we measured the average sarcomere length at 90° elbow

flexion to determine the relative functional length of the brachialis muscles on control and

denervated limbs. As previously described, elongated (overstretched) sarcomeres

indicate fewer sarcomeres in series.[13] This correlates with a shorter functional whole

muscle length, because the fewer sarcomeres a muscle has in series, the more each

sarcomere has to stretch to accommodate any given position.

Following overnight recovery in PBS at 4°C, the brachialis muscles were digested

in 15% sulfuric acid for 30 minutes, and then dissected into muscle bundles for imaging

with differential interference contrast (DIC) microscopy at 40x on a Nikon Ti-E SpectraX

widefield microscope. Six images representing different muscle bundles of the same

brachialis were acquired per muscle. Average sarcomere length of the brachialis was

subsequently determined by measuring a series of 10 sarcomeres from each of the 6

representative DIC images with the AxioVision program as previously described,[12,13,61]

with blinding to treatment groups. Representative sarcomere images in **Figure 4A** have

been cropped to identical sizes, and processed to reflect comparable levels of sharpness,

brightness, and contrast for illustrative purposes. No image manipulation was performed

prior to measurements.

Humerus length and whole muscle size

To quantify humerus lengths from digital radiographs, AxioVision software was

used to measure the distance between the proximal humerus physis to the distal articular

surface.[12,13,61] Whole muscle cross-sectional area and muscle volume of the brachialis

were obtained by processing the MicroCT scans into digital imaging and communications

in medicine (DICOM) images with Fiji programs (Segmentation Editor and 3D Viewer,

respectively), and normalized to humerus length of the corresponding forelimb.[12,13,61] All

measurements were performed with blinding to treatment groups. For illustrative

purposes, raw DICOM files were processed in IMARIS software (Bitplane, Zurich,

Switzerland) to create whole-muscle images presented in **Figures 1B** and **2A**.

Assessment of protein dynamics

To determine the effects of MSTN inhibition on muscle proteostasis, we assayed

for protein synthesis by detection of the antibiotic puromycin using non-radioactive

surface sensing of translation (SUnSET),[24,25] and protein degradation by quantification of

the amount of proteins marked for ubiquitination, with blinding to treatment groups.[12]

Bilateral biceps muscles were first bead homogenized (TissueLyser II; Qiagen) at a

frequency of 30 Hz for 3 cycles of 2 minutes in lysis buffer [10 mM Tris (pH 7.4), 1 mM

EDTA, 1 mM dithiothreitol, 0.5% Triton X-100, 2.1 mg/ml NaF] containing protease and

phosphatase inhibitor cocktails (5 µl/ml; Sigma-Aldrich #P8340 and #P5726,

respectively).[62] Following centrifugation at 15,000 x g for 10 minutes at 4°C, the amount

of protein in supernatants was quantified using Bradford protein assay. Biceps muscle

homogenates were then heated at 65°C for 30 minutes, separated on 4-20% SDS-PAGE

gels (30 µg of proteins), and transferred at 4°C to PVDF-FL membranes (Immobilon).

Homogenates from adult mouse plantaris muscles that had been subjected to 7 days of

mechanical overload were included in each gel as positive controls.[62] Membranes were

subsequently blocked in 5% BSA in TRIS-buffered saline (TBS)-Tween (pH 7.5), and

incubated overnight at 4°C with an antibody against puromycin (1:1000; MilliporeSigma

#MABE343), or K48-linkage-specific-polyubiquitin (1:1000, Cell Signaling #8081).

GAPDH (1:5000; Cell Signaling #2118) served as a control for sample loading.

Membranes were then washed and incubated with IRDye 800CW anti-mouse IgG2a

(1:5000; LI-COR Biosciences) or DyLight[TM] anti-rabbit (1:5000; Cell Signaling #5151)

secondary antibodies. Following image detection on the Odyssey infrared detection

system (LI-COR Biosciences), the relative abundance of puromycin incorporation and

K48-linked protein levels were quantified using the Image Studio Lite program (LI-COR

Biosciences), and normalized to corresponding GAPDH protein levels.[12,62]

To determine the effects of MSTN inhibition on proteasome activity, we assayed

for proteasome subunit catalytic activity with blinding to treatment groups as previously

described.[12,13] Briefly, bilateral triceps muscles were homogenized in 20 mM of Tris-HCl

(pH 7.2), 0.1 mM of EDTA, 1 mM of 2-mercaptoethanol, 5 mM of ATP, 20% of glycerol,

and 10% (v/v) IGEPAL® CA-630 (Sigma-Aldrich #I8896).[63] Following centrifugation

described above, protein concentration was determined using the Pierce 660 nm protein

assay kit (Thermo Scientific #22662). The caspase-like activity of the 20S proteasome β-

1 catalytic subunit and chymotrypsin-like activity of the β-5 catalytic subunit were assayed

with 10 μg total protein per muscle, through detection of the 7-amino-4-methylcoumarin

(AMC) labeled fluorogenic peptide substrates Z-LLE-AMC (Boston Biochem #S-230) and

LLVY-AMC (Chemicon #APT280), respectively. Assays were carried out in a white

opaque polystyrene 96-well plate for 2 hours at 37°C, with endpoint fluorescence

measured at 380 nm/460 nm on a SpectraMax M5 microplate reader (Molecular Devices).

Relative fluorescence units were calculated per μg protein.

Assessment of signaling pathways

To assess the effects of MSTN inhibition on downstream pathways, we assayed

for Akt/mTOR and Smad2/3 signaling, with blinding to treatment groups. Briefly, triceps

muscle homogenates were heated at 65°C for 30 minutes, separated on 10% SDS-PAGE

gels (20 µg of proteins), and transferred at 4°C to PVDF-FL membranes (Immobilon).[62]

Membranes were subsequently blocked in 5% BSA/TBS-Tween, and incubated overnight

at 4°C with an antibody against phosphorylated Akt (Ser473) (1:750; Cell Signaling

#9271), total Akt (1:750; Cell Signaling #9272), phosphorylated p70^{S6K} (Thr389) (1:750;

Cell Signaling #97596), total p70^{S6K} (1:750; Cell Signaling #2708), phosphorylated

Smad2 (Ser465, Ser467) (1:1000; Invitrogen #MA5-15122), total Smad2 (1:1000; Cell

Signaling #5339), phosphorylated Smad3 (Ser423, Ser425) (1:2000 Abcam #ab51451),

or total Smad3 (1:2000; Abcam #ab28379). GAPDH (1:5000; Cell Signaling #2118)

served as a control for sample loading. Membranes were then washed and incubated

with a DyLight^{TM} anti-rabbit secondary antibody (1:5000; Cell Signaling #5151). Western

blot signals were subsequently imaged and the relative abundance of phosphorylated

and total protein levels of Akt, p70^{S6K}, Smad2, and Smad3 were quantified as described

above.

Statistical analysis

All statistical tests were performed with Prism 8 software (GraphPad). For all

continuous data sets that contained at least four independent samples, outliers were

detected *a priori* by Grubbs' test and excluded. To compare differences in values between

two data sets, all data were subsequently tested for normality with the Shapiro–Wilk test.

Normally distributed data were compared with unpaired two-tailed Student's t-tests,

whereas non-normally distributed data were compared using the Mann–Whitney U-tests.

For data sets with two independent variables (sex and treatment), a 2-way ANOVA with

Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons was performed. For data sets with three

independent variables (sex, treatment, denervation), a 3-way ANOVA with repeated

measures between forelimbs and Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons was

performed. All data are presented as mean ± SD. The degree of significance between

data sets is depicted as follows: *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$, and ****$P < 0.0001$.

A priori power analyses based on prior work determined that 6 mice per group were

required to detect a 10° difference in contractures and a 0.2 µm difference in sarcomere

lengths at 80% power between experimental conditions. A total of 47 mice (25 female, 22

male) were used in this study.

Acknowledgements

We thank the following entities within Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center: the Veterinary Services Core for surgical assistance, the Confocal Imaging Core for microscope assistance, and the Millay Laboratory for discussions and feedback. We also thank Sharon Wang from the Preclinical Imaging Core (University of Cincinnati College of Medicine) for MicroCT assistance. This work was supported by grants to RC from the National Institutes of Health (NIH) (R01HD098280-01), as well as funding from the Cincinnati Children's Hospital Division of Orthopaedic Surgery and Junior Cooperative Society. The respective funding sources were not involved in the study design; in the collection, analysis, and interpretation of data; in the writing of the report; and in the decision to submit the paper for publication.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors have declared that no conflict of interest exists.

Author Contributions

Q. Goh and R. Cornwall conceived and supervised the study; M.E. Emmert, Q. Goh, and R. Cornwall designed the research and experiments; M.E. Emmert, P. Aggarwal, K. Shay-Winkler, Q. Goh, and R. Cornwall performed research; S.J. Lee contributed new reagents; M.E. Emmert, P. Aggarwal, K. Shay-Winkler, S.J. Lee, Q. Goh, and R. Cornwall analyzed and/or interpreted data; M.E. Emmert and Q. Goh wrote the manuscript with assistance from all authors.

 Figure Legends

Figure 1: Pharmacologic inhibition of MSTN enhances neonatal skeletal muscle

growth. (A) Schematic depiction of ACVR2B-Fc treatment to inhibit MSTN in neonatal

mice prior to and after unilateral brachial plexus injury (NBPI) at P5. Representative

micro-CT images in (B) transverse and 3-dimensional views revealed increased growth

of non-denervated brachialis muscles in both female and male mice following 4 weeks of

pharmacologic MSTN inhibition with ACVR2B-Fc. Quantitative analyses of (C) cross-

sectional area and (D) whole muscle volume in control brachialis muscles confirmed that

neonatal MSTN inhibition enhances skeletal muscle growth. Neonatal MSTN inhibition

further enhances (F) muscle weight and (G) total protein content of non-denervated

biceps muscles in both sexes. Despite this, (E), (H) the increases in muscle volume,

muscle weight, and protein levels were larger in females than males when compared to

their respective DPBS controls. Data are presented as mean ± SD, n = 7-10 independent

mice. Statistical analyses: (C), (D), (F), (G) 2-way ANOVA for sex and treatment with a

Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons, (E), (H) unpaired two-tailed Student's t-

tests. *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001, ****P<0.0001. Scale bar: 1000 μm.

Figure 2: Pharmacologic MSTN inhibition reduces denervation-induced muscle

atrophy in neonatal female mice. Representative micro-CT images in (A) transverse

and 3-dimensional views revealed larger denervated brachialis muscles in female mice

following MSTN inhibition. Quantitative analyses of (B) brachialis cross-sectional area

and (C) whole muscle volume confirmed MSTN inhibition reduces denervation-induced

atrophy only in female mice. This partial rescue in growth of the denervated brachialis

muscles is accompanied by increased (D) muscle weight and (E) total protein content of

denervated biceps muscles in female mice only. Data are presented as mean ± SD, n =

7-10 independent mice. Statistical analyses: (B), (C), (D), (E) 2-way ANOVA for sex and

treatment with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. *P<0.05, **P<0.01,

***P<0.001. Scale bar: 1000 μm.

Figure 3: Pharmacologic MSTN inhibition reduces neonatal denervation-induced

contractures in neonatal female mice. (A) Representative images of denervated (NBPI)

and contralateral forelimbs, and quantitation of both (B) elbow joint range of motion and

(C) contracture severity revealed that MSTN inhibition reduces the formation of elbow

flexion contractures after 4 weeks of neonatal denervation in female, but not male mice.

Similarly, (D) representative images of bilateral forelimbs, and quantitation of both (E)

shoulder joint range of motion and (F) contracture severity demonstrated improvements

in shoulder rotation only in female mice. In (C) and (F), elbow and shoulder contracture

severity is calculated as the difference in passive elbow extension and shoulder rotation,

respectively, between the NBPI side and the contralateral side. Data are presented as

mean ± SD, n = 7-10 independent mice. Statistical analyses: (B), (E) 3-way ANOVA for

sex, treatment, and denervation (repeated measures between forelimbs) with a

Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons, (C), (F) 2-way ANOVA for sex and

treatment with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. *P<0.05, **P<0.01,

****P<0.0001.

Figure 4: Pharmacologic MSTN inhibition preserves longitudinal muscle growth of

denervated muscles in neonatal female mice. (A) Representative DIC images of

sarcomeres, and (B) quantitation of sarcomere length showed that MSTN inhibition

preserves sarcomere length of denervated muscles after neonatal denervation in female

mice, whereas the sarcomeres of denervated muscles in male mice remain

overstretched. (C) Sarcomere length on the NBPI side is normalized to the contralateral

side to generate a sarcomere length ratio. This normalized sarcomere length between

control and NBPI limbs further confirmed that MSTN inhibition improves functional length

of denervated muscles only in female mice. Data are presented as mean ± SD, n = 7-10

independent mice. Statistical analyses: (B) 3-way ANOVA for sex, treatment, and

denervation (repeated measures between forelimbs) with a Bonferroni correction for

multiple comparisons, (C) 2-way ANOVA for sex and treatment with a Bonferroni

correction for multiple comparisons. *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001, ****P<0.0001. Scale

bar: 10 μm.

Figure 5: Sex-specific differences in MSTN-dependent contracture formation is not

mediated through protein synthesis. (A) Representative western blots of puromycin

incorporation and (B) quantitative analysis of optical densities revealed MSTN inhibition

does not further alter the denervation-induced increases in whole muscle protein

synthesis in biceps muscles of both female and male mice. n = 7-10 independent mice.

(C) Representative western blots and quantitative analyses of (D) pAkt (Ser473), (E) total

Akt, (G) p-p70^{S6K} (Thr389), and (H) total p70^{S6K} similarly showed that ACVR2B-Fc

treatment does not lead to additional increases in activity and translation of Akt and p70^{S6K}

after denervation in both sexes. Quantification of the western signal for (F) pAkt and (I)

p-p70^{S6K} normalized to their respective total protein levels further indicated that MSTN

inhibition does not alter Akt/mTOR signaling in neonatally denervated muscles. n = 4-6

independent mice. Statistical analyses: (B), (D), (E), (F), (G), (H), (I) 3-way ANOVA for

sex, treatment, and denervation (repeated measures between forelimbs) with a

Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. *P<0.05, **P<0.01, . 7d MOV = Adult mouse plantaris muscle that had been subjected to 7 days of mechanical overload.

Figure 6: Sex-specific differences in MSTN-dependent contracture formation is mediated through proteasome activity. (A) Representative western blots of K48-linked polyubiquitin and (B) quantitative analysis of optical densities showed similar levels of ubiquitination in control and denervated biceps muscles of neonatal female and male mice. Despite this, (C) in-depth analyses of optical densities discovered that denervation increases ubiquitination levels of higher molecular weight proteins >40 kDa, (D) but not lower molecular proteins <40 kDa in both sexes. Importantly, MSTN inhibition does not alter levels of K48 polyubiquitination across the different molecular weights after denervation. n = 4-7 independent mice. (E), (F) Assessment of proteasome activity in triceps muscles revealed that MSTN inhibition blunts the denervation-induced increase in β5 but not β1 constitutive proteasome activity solely in female mice. n = 7 independent mice. Data are presented as mean ± SD. Statistical analyses: (B), (C), (D), (E), (F) 3-way ANOVA for sex, treatment, and denervation (repeated measures between forelimbs) with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001, ****P<0.0001. 7d MOV = Adult mouse plantaris muscle that had been subjected to 7 days of mechanical overload.

Figure 7: Sex-specific differences in MSTN-mediated proteostasis dysregulation occurs independent of Smad2/3 signaling. (A) Representative western blots and quantitative analyses of (B) pSmad2, (C) total Smad2, (E) pSmad3, and (F) total Smad3 revealed that ACVR2B-Fc treatment does not blunt the denervation-induced increase in activity and translation of Smad2 and Smad3 in triceps muscles of both sexes.

Quantification of the western signal for (D) pSmad2 and (G) pSmad3 normalized to their

respective total protein levels further indicated that MSTN inhibition does not alter

Smad2/3 signaling in neonatally denervated muscles. n = 3-6 independent mice. Data are

presented as mean ± SD. Statistical analyses: (B), (C), (D), (E), (F), (G) 3-way ANOVA

for sex, treatment, and denervation (repeated measures between forelimbs) with a

Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. *P<0.05, **P<0.01.

Figure 8: Proteasome inhibition with bortezomib prevents contractures and

restores proteostasis preferentially in denervated muscles of neonatal male mice.

(A) Schematic depiction of bortezomib treatment and assessment of outcomes at 4, 8, or

12 weeks post-NBPI. (B), (C) Continuous bortezomib treatment preferentially prevents

elbow and shoulder contractures in male mice throughout postnatal development and into

skeletal maturity (n = 3-10 independent mice). (D) Despite this, long-term bortezomib

does not confer sex-specific improvements in longitudinal muscle growth, as sarcomere

length was preserved in denervated brachialis muscles of both female and male mice (n

= 3-10 independent mice). (E), (F), (G), (H) As opposed to MSTN inhibition, the rescue in

long-term contractures with continuous bortezomib treatment in male mice at 8 and 12

weeks post-NBPI is associated with a decrease in β5 proteasome subunit activity, rather

than β1 activity of denervated biceps muscles (n = 3 independent mice). In (B) and (C),

elbow and shoulder contracture severity is calculated as the difference in passive elbow

extension and shoulder rotation, respectively between the denervated (NBPI) side and

the contralateral control side. In (D), sarcomere length on the NBPI side is normalized to

the contralateral side to generate a sarcomere length ratio. Data are presented as mean

± SD. Statistical analyses: (B), (C), (D) 2-way ANOVA for sex and treatment with a

Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons at each time point, (E), (F), (G), (H) 3-way ANOVA for sex, treatment, and denervation (repeated measures between forelimbs) with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001, ****P<0.0001. This figure is generated from primary data reported in Goh et al., 2021.[13]

Figure 1 – supplemental figure 1: Off-target effects of pharmacologic MSTN inhibition. Treatment with ACVR2B-Fc (A) does not promote additional weight gains in male mice, but instead, (B) attenuates skeletal growth of non-denervated forelimbs and (C) reduces heart size. In contrast, ACVR2B-Fc treatment (D) reduces spleen size only in female mice. Data are presented as mean ± SD, n = 7-10 independent mice. Statistical analyses: (A), (B), (C), (D) 2-way ANOVA for sex and treatment with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. *P<0.05, ***P<0.001, ****P<0.0001.

Figure 2 – supplemental figure 1: Effect of pharmacologic MSTN inhibition on skeletal growth in denervated forelimb. (A) Treatment with ACVR2B-Fc attenuates skeletal growth of denervated forelimbs only in male mice. Data are presented as mean ± SD, n = 7-10 independent mice. Statistical analyses: 2-way ANOVA for sex and treatment with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. ***P<0.001, ****P<0.0001.

References

782 **References**

783   1. Foad SL, Mehlman CT, Ying J. The epidemiology of neonatal brachial plexus palsy
784   in the United States. J Bone Joint Surg Am. 2008;90(6):1258-64.
785

786   2. Govindan M, Burrows HL. Neonatal Brachial Plexus Injury. Pediatr Rev.
787   2019;40(9):494-6.
788

789   3. Pondaag W, Malessy MJ, van Dijk JG, Thomeer RT. Natural history of obstetric
790   brachial plexus palsy: a systematic review. Dev Med Child Neurol. 2004;46(2):138-44.
791

792   4. Hale HB, Bae DS, Waters PM. Current concepts in the management of brachial
793   plexus birth palsy. J Hand Surg Am. 2010;35(2):322-31.
794

795   5. Newman CJ, Morrison L, Lynch B, Hynes D. Outcome of subscapularis muscle
796   release for shoulder contracture secondary to brachial plexus palsy at birth. J Pediatr
797   Orthop. 2006;26(5):647-51.
798

799   6. Pedowitz DI, Gibson B, Williams GR, Kozin SH. Arthroscopic treatment of posterior
800   glenohumeral joint subluxation resulting from brachial plexus birth palsy. J Shoulder
801   Elbow Surg. 2007;16(1):6-13.
802

803   7. van der Sluijs JA, van Ouwerkerk WJ, de Gast A, Nollet F, Winters H, Wuisman
804   PI. Treatment of internal rotation contracture of the shoulder in obstetric brachial
805   plexus lesions by subscapular tendon lengthening and open reduction: early results
806   and complications. J Pediatr Orthop B. 2004;13(3):218-24.
807

808   8. Nikolaou S, Peterson E, Kim A, Wylie C, Cornwall R. Impaired growth of
809   denervated muscle contributes to contracture formation following neonatal brachial
810   plexus injury. J Bone Joint Surg Am. 2011;93(5):461-70.
811

812   9. Weekley H, Nikolaou S, Hu L, Eismann E, Wylie C, Cornwall R. The effects of
813   denervation, reinnervation, and muscle imbalance on functional muscle length and
814   elbow flexion contracture following neonatal brachial plexus injury. J Orthop Res.
815   2012;30(8):1335-42.
816

817   10. Nikolaou S, Liangjun H, Tuttle LJ, Weekley H, Christopher W, Lieber RL, et al.
818   Contribution of denervated muscle to contractures after neonatal brachial plexus
819   injury: not just muscle fibrosis. Muscle Nerve. 2014;49(3):398-404.
820

821   11. Nikolaou S, Hu L, Cornwall R. Afferent Innervation, Muscle Spindles, and
822   Contractures Following Neonatal Brachial Plexus Injury in a Mouse Model. J Hand
823   Surg Am. 2015;40(10):2007-16.
824

12. Nikolaou S, Cramer AA, Hu L, Goh Q, Millay DP, Cornwall R. Proteasome inhibition preserves longitudinal growth of denervated muscle and prevents neonatal neuromuscular contractures. JCI Insight. 2019;4(23).

13. Goh Q, Nikolaou S, Shay-Winkler K, Emmert ME, Cornwall R. Timing of proteasome inhibition as a pharmacologic strategy for prevention of muscle contractures in neonatal brachial plexus injury. FASEB J. 2021;35(2):e21214.

14. Lee SJ. Regulation of muscle mass by myostatin. Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol. 2004;20:61-86.

15. Sartori R, Milan G, Patron M, Mammucari C, Blaauw B, Abraham R, et al. Smad2 and 3 transcription factors control muscle mass in adulthood. Am J Physiol Cell Physiol. 2009;296(6):C1248-57.

16. Trendelenburg AU, Meyer A, Rohner D, Boyle J, Hatakeyama S, Glass DJ. Myostatin reduces Akt/TORC1/p70S6K signaling, inhibiting myoblast differentiation and myotube size. Am J Physiol Cell Physiol. 2009;296(6):C1258-70.

17. Lee SJ. Myostatin: Regulation, function, and therapeutic applications. Muscle. 2012;2:1077-84.

18. Lee SJ. Targeting the myostatin signaling pathway to treat muscle loss and metabolic dysfunction. J Clin Invest. 2021;131(9).

19. Lee SJ, Reed LA, Davies MV, Girgenrath S, Goad ME, Tomkinson KN, et al. Regulation of muscle growth by multiple ligands signaling through activin type II receptors. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2005;102(50):18117-22.

20. Lee SJ, Huynh TV, Lee YS, Sebald SM, Wilcox-Adelman SA, Iwamori N, et al. Role of satellite cells versus myofibers in muscle hypertrophy induced by inhibition of the myostatin/activin signaling pathway. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2012;109(35):E2353-60.

21. Goh Q, Song T, Petrany MJ, Cramer AA, Sun C, Sadayappan S, et al. Myonuclear accretion is a determinant of exercise-induced remodeling in skeletal muscle. Elife. 2019;8.

22. Lee SJ, Lehar A, Meir JU, Koch C, Morgan A, Warren LE, et al. Targeting myostatin/activin A protects against skeletal muscle and bone loss during spaceflight. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2020;117(38):23942-51.

23. Griffin GE, Goldspink G. The increase in skeletal muscle mass in male and female mice. Anat Rec. 1973;177(3):465-9.

870 24. Goodman CA, Mabrey DM, Frey JW, Miu MH, Schmidt EK, Pierre P, et al. Novel
871   insights into the regulation of skeletal muscle protein synthesis as revealed by a new
872   nonradioactive in vivo technique. FASEB J. 2011;25(3):1028-39.
873
874 25. Schmidt EK, Clavarino G, Ceppi M, Pierre P. SUnSET, a nonradioactive method
875   to monitor protein synthesis. Nat Methods. 2009;6(4):275-7.
876
877 26. Bodine SC, Stitt TN, Gonzalez M, Kline WO, Stover GL, Bauerlein R, et al.
878   Akt/mTOR pathway is a crucial regulator of skeletal muscle hypertrophy and can
879   prevent muscle atrophy in vivo. Nat Cell Biol. 2001;3(11):1014-9.
880
881 27. Rommel C, Bodine SC, Clarke BA, Rossman R, Nunez L, Stitt TN, et al. Mediation
882   of IGF-1-induced skeletal myotube hypertrophy by PI(3)K/Akt/mTOR and
883   PI(3)K/Akt/GSK3 pathways. Nat Cell Biol. 2001;3(11):1009-13.
884
885 28. Egerman MA, Glass DJ. Signaling pathways controlling skeletal muscle mass. Crit
886   Rev Biochem Mol Biol. 2014;49(1):59-68.
887
888 29. Sartori R, Romanello V, Sandri M. Mechanisms of muscle atrophy and
889   hypertrophy: implications in health and disease. Nat Commun. 2021;12(1):330.
890
891 30. McFarlane C, Plummer E, Thomas M, Hennebry A, Ashby M, Ling N, et al.
892   Myostatin induces cachexia by activating the ubiquitin proteolytic system through an
893   NF-kappaB-independent, FoxO1-dependent mechanism. J Cell Physiol.
894   2006;209(2):501-14.
895
896 31. Lokireddy S, Mouly V, Butler-Browne G, Gluckman PD, Sharma M, Kambadur R,
897   et al. Myostatin promotes the wasting of human myoblast cultures through promoting
898   ubiquitin-proteasome pathway-mediated loss of sarcomeric proteins. Am J Physiol
899   Cell Physiol. 2011;301(6):C1316-24.
900
901 32. Yau R, Rape M. The increasing complexity of the ubiquitin code. Nat Cell Biol.
902   2016;18(6):579-86.
903
904 33. Chen JL, Walton KL, Hagg A, Colgan TD, Johnson K, Qian H, et al. Specific
905   targeting of TGF-beta family ligands demonstrates distinct roles in the regulation of
906   muscle mass in health and disease. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2017;114(26):E5266-
907   E75.
908
909 34. Goodman CA, McNally RM, Hoffmann FM, Hornberger TA. Smad3 induces
910   atrogin-1, inhibits mTOR and protein synthesis, and promotes muscle atrophy in vivo.
911   Mol Endocrinol. 2013;27(11):1946-57.
912
913 35. Dutta S, Sengupta P. Men and mice: Relating their ages. Life Sci. 2016;152:244-
914   8.
915

916 36. McPherron AC, Lee SJ. Suppression of body fat accumulation in myostatin-
917   deficient mice. J Clin Invest. 2002;109(5):595-601.
918

919 37. Orsso CE, Tibaes JRB, Oliveira CLP, Rubin DA, Field CJ, Heymsfield SB, et al.
920   Low muscle mass and strength in pediatrics patients: Why should we care? Clin Nutr.
921   2019;38(5):2002-15.
922

923 38. Smith GI, Mittendorfer B. Sexual dimorphism in skeletal muscle protein turnover.
924   J Appl Physiol (1985). 2016;120(6):674-82.
925

926 39. Kitajima Y, Ono Y. Estrogens maintain skeletal muscle and satellite cell functions.
927   J Endocrinol. 2016;229(3):267-75.
928

929 40. Seko D, Fujita R, Kitajima Y, Nakamura K, Imai Y, Ono Y. Estrogen Receptor beta
930   Controls Muscle Growth and Regeneration in Young Female Mice. Stem Cell Reports.
931   2020;15(3):577-86.
932

933 41. Rosa-Caldwell ME, Greene NP. Muscle metabolism and atrophy: let's talk about
934   sex. Biol Sex Differ. 2019;10(1):43.
935

936 42. Maher AC, Fu MH, Isfort RJ, Varbanov AR, Qu XA, Tarnopolsky MA. Sex
937   differences in global mRNA content of human skeletal muscle. PLoS One.
938   2009;4(7):e6335.
939

940 43. Salamone IM, Quattrocelli M, Barefield DY, Page PG, Tahtah I, Hadhazy M, et al.
941   Intermittent glucocorticoid treatment enhances skeletal muscle performance through
942   sexually dimorphic mechanisms. J Clin Invest. 2022.
943

944 44. De Jonghe B, Sharshar T, Lefaucheur JP, Authier FJ, Durand-Zaleski I,
945   Boussarsar M, et al. Paresis acquired in the intensive care unit: a prospective
946   multicenter study. JAMA. 2002;288(22):2859-67.
947

948 45. Castets P, Rion N, Theodore M, Falcetta D, Lin S, Reischl M, et al. mTORC1 and
949   PKB/Akt control the muscle response to denervation by regulating autophagy and
950   HDAC4. Nat Commun. 2019;10(1):3187.
951

952 46. MacDonald EM, Andres-Mateos E, Mejias R, Simmers JL, Mi R, Park JS, et al.
953   Denervation atrophy is independent from Akt and mTOR activation and is not rescued
954   by myostatin inhibition. Dis Model Mech. 2014;7(4):471-81.
955

956 47. Tando T, Hirayama A, Furukawa M, Sato Y, Kobayashi T, Funayama A, et al.
957   Smad2/3 Proteins Are Required for Immobilization-induced Skeletal Muscle Atrophy.
958   J Biol Chem. 2016;291(23):12184-94.
959

48. Jorgenson KW, Hornberger TA. The Overlooked Role of Fiber Length in Mechanical Load-Induced Growth of Skeletal Muscle. Exerc Sport Sci Rev. 2019;47(4):258-9.

49. Jorgenson KW, Phillips SM, Hornberger TA. Identifying the Structural Adaptations that Drive the Mechanical Load-Induced Growth of Skeletal Muscle: A Scoping Review. Cells. 2020;9(7).

50. Tobias ML, Marin ML, Kelley DB. The roles of sex, innervation, and androgen in laryngeal muscle of Xenopus laevis. J Neurosci. 1993;13(1):324-33.

51. Sitnick M, Foley AM, Brown M, Spangenburg EE. Ovariectomy prevents the recovery of atrophied gastrocnemius skeletal muscle mass. J Appl Physiol (1985). 2006;100(1):286-93.

52. Williams SH, Lozier NR, Montuelle SJ, de Lacalle S. Effect of Postnatal Myostatin Inhibition on Bite Mechanics in Mice. PLoS One. 2015;10(8):e0134854.

53. Tavoian D, Arnold WD, Mort SC, de Lacalle S. Sex differences in body composition but not neuromuscular function following long-term, doxycycline-induced reduction in circulating levels of myostatin in mice. PLoS One. 2019;14(11):e0225283.

54. Welle S, Tawil R, Thornton CA. Sex-related differences in gene expression in human skeletal muscle. PLoS One. 2008;3(1):e1385.

55. McMahon CD, Popovic L, Jeanplong F, Oldham JM, Kirk SP, Osepchook CC, et al. Sexual dimorphism is associated with decreased expression of processed myostatin in males. Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab. 2003;284(2):E377-81.

56. Rybalka E, Timpani CA, Debruin DA, Bagaric RM, Campelj DG, Hayes A. The Failed Clinical Story of Myostatin Inhibitors against Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy: Exploring the Biology behind the Battle. Cells. 2020;9(12).

57. Meyer GA, Thomopoulos S, Shen KC. Tenotomy-induced muscle atrophy is sex-specific and independent of NFκβ. Manuscript in co-submission.

58. Biesemann N, Mendler L, Wietelmann A, Hermann S, Schafers M, Kruger M, et al. Myostatin regulates energy homeostasis in the heart and prevents heart failure. Circ Res. 2014;115(2):296-310.

59. Barbe C, Loumaye A, Lause P, Ritvos O, Thissen JP. p21-Activated Kinase 1 Is Permissive for the Skeletal Muscle Hypertrophy Induced by Myostatin Inhibition. Front Physiol. 2021;12:677746.

1004   60. Wang DT, Yang YJ, Huang RH, Zhang ZH, Lin X. Myostatin Activates the
1005   Ubiquitin-Proteasome and Autophagy-Lysosome Systems Contributing to Muscle
1006   Wasting in Chronic Kidney Disease. Oxid Med Cell Longev. 2015;2015:684965.
1007

1008   61. Ho BL, Goh Q, Nikolaou S, Hu L, Shay-Winkler K, Cornwall R. NRG/ErbB signaling
1009   regulates neonatal muscle growth but not neuromuscular contractures in neonatal
1010   brachial plexus injury. FEBS Lett. 2021;595(5):655-66.
1011

1012   62. Goh Q, Millay DP. Requirement of myomaker-mediated stem cell fusion for
1013   skeletal muscle hypertrophy. Elife. 2017;6.
1014

1015   63. Penna F, Bonetto A, Aversa Z, Minero VG, Rossi Fanelli F, Costelli P, et al. Effect
1016   of the specific proteasome inhibitor bortezomib on cancer-related muscle wasting. J
1017   Cachexia Sarcopenia Muscle. 2016;7(3):345-54.
1018

Figure 1

Figure 1 – supplemental figure 1

A

	Female		Male	
	DPBS	ACVR2B-Fc	DPBS	ACVR2B-Fc

CSA

Volume

B Brachialis (denervated)

CSA/Humerus length (mm²/mm)

** **

Female   Male

2-way ANOVA:
P=0.0148 main effect of sex
P=0.0125 main effect of treatment
P=0.0515 sex x treatment interaction

C Brachialis (denervated)

Volume/Humerus length (mm³/mm)

* **

Female   Male

2-way ANOVA:
P=0.0032 main effect of sex
P=0.0629 main effect of treatment
P=0.0614 sex x treatment interaction

D Biceps (denervated)

Normalized weight (mg/mm)

** **

Female   Male

2-way ANOVA:
P=0.0021 main effect of sex
P=0.0039 main effect of treatment

E Biceps (denervated)

Total protein (µg)

*** **

Female   Male

2-way ANOVA:
P=0.0660 main effect of sex
P=0.0081 main effect of treatment
P=0.0138 sex x treatment interaction

Figure 2

A

Humerus

2-way ANOVA:
P=0.0286 main effect of sex
P=0.0370 main effect of treatment
P=0.0005 sex x treatment interaction

Figure 2 – supplemental figure 1

A

Elbow Extension

B Elbow Extension

3-way ANOVA:
P<0.0001 main effect of denervation
P=0.0108 main effect of treatment
P=0.0393 sex x treatment interaction
P=0.0169 denervation x treatment interaction
P=0.0312 sex x denervation x treatment interaction

C Elbow Contracture

2-way ANOVA:
P=0.0169 main effect of treatment
P=0.0312 sex x treatment interaction

D Shoulder Rotation

E Shoulder Rotation

3-way ANOVA:
P<0.0001 main effect of denervation
P<0.0001 main effect of treatment
P=0.0841 sex x treatment interaction
P=0.0008 denervation x treatment interaction

F Shoulder Contracture

2-way ANOVA:
P=0.0060 main effect of treatment

Figure 3

A

	Female		Male	
	DPBS	ACVR2B-Fc	DPBS	ACVR2B-Fc
Contralateral				
NBPI				

B Brachialis

Sarcomere Length (μm)

**** *
***
**** ****

Contralateral NBPI   Contralateral NBPI
Female   Male

3-way ANOVA:
P<0.0001 main effect of denervation
P=0.0108 main effect of treatment
P=0.0161 denervation x treatment interaction
P=0.0007 sex x denervation x treatment interaction

C Brachialis Length

Ratio (NBPI/Contralateral)

**
0.0804
***

Female   Male

2-way ANOVA:
P=0.0385 main effect of treatment
P=0.0007 sex x treatment interaction

Figure 4

Figure 5

A

Female | Male

Contralateral | NBPI | Contralateral | NBPI | 7d MOV

P A | P A | P A | P A

kDa:

250–
75–
37–
20–

K48 Polyubiquitin

37–

GAPDH

P = DPBS   A = ACVR2B-Fc

B

Biceps long head

Relative signal intensity - all kDa
(K48 polyubiquitination/GAPDH)

3-way ANOVA:
P<0.0001 main effect of denervation
P=0.0623 main effect of treatment

C

Biceps long head

Relative signal intensity >40 kDa
(K48 polyubiquitination/GAPDH)

3-way ANOVA:
P<0.0001 main effect of denervation

D

Biceps long head

Relative signal intensity <40kDa
(K48 polyubiquitination/GAPDH)

3-way ANOVA:
P=0.0507 sex x denervation interaction

E

Triceps

$\beta 1$ Activity (RFU/µg)

3-way ANOVA:
P=0.0213 main effect of sex
P<0.0001 main effect of denervation
P<0.0001 sex x denervation interaction
P=0.0111 denervation x treatment interaction

F

Triceps

$\beta 5$ Activity (RFU/µg)

3-way ANOVA:
P=0.0049 main effect of sex
P<0.0001 main effect of denervation
P=0.0713 main effect of treatment
P=0.0144 denervation x treatment interaction
P=0.0138 sex x denervation x treatment interaction

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8