**A transcriptomics-based drug repositioning approach to identify drugs with similar activities for the treatment of muscle pathologies in spinal muscular atrophy (SMA) models.**

Joseph M Hoolachan1, Eve McCallion1, Emma R Sutton1, Özge Çetin1, Paloma Pacheco-Torres2, Maria Dimitriadi2, Suat Sari3, 4, Gavin J Miller4, 5, Magnus Okoh1, Lisa M Walter6, 7, Peter Claus6, 7, Matthew JA Wood8, Daniel P Tonge9, & Melissa Bowerman1, 10.

1 School of Medicine, Keele University, Staffordshire, UK.

2 School of Life and Medical Sciences, University of Hertfordshire, Hertfordshire, UK.

3 Department of Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey.

4 School of Chemical and Physical Sciences, Keele University, Staffordshire, UK.

5 Centre for Glycoscience, Keele University, Staffordshire, UK.

6 SMATHERIA gGmbH – Non-Profit Biomedical Research Institute, Hannover, Germany.

7 Centre of Systems Neuroscience (ZSN), Hannover Medical School, Hannover, Germany.

8 Department of Paediatrics, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK.

9 School of Life Sciences, Keele University, Staffordshire, UK.

10 Wolfson Centre for Inherited Neuromuscular Disease, RJAH Orthopaedic Hospital, Oswestry, UK.

Address: Keele University, School of Medicine, David Weatherall Building, Staffordshire, ST5 5BG, UK

Telephone: N/A

Fax: N/A

Email: [m.bowerman@keele.ac.uk](mailto:m.bowerman@keele.ac.uk)

**ABSTRACT**

Spinal muscular atrophy (SMA) is a genetic neuromuscular disorder caused by the reduction of survival of motor neuron (SMN) protein levels. Although three SMN-augmentation therapies are clinically approved that significantly slow down disease progression, they are unfortunately not cures. Thus, complementary SMN-independent therapies that can target key SMA pathologies and that can support the clinically approved SMN-dependent drugs are the forefront of therapeutic development. We have previously demonstrated that prednisolone, a synthetic glucocorticoid (GC) improved muscle health and survival in severe *Smn-/-;SMN2* and intermediate *Smn2B/-* SMA mice. However, long-term administration of prednisolone can promote myopathy. We thus wanted to identify genes and pathways targeted by prednisolone in skeletal muscle to discover clinically approved drugs that are predicted to emulate prednisolone’s activities. Using an RNA-sequencing, bioinformatics, and drug repositioning pipeline on skeletal muscle from symptomatic prednisolone-treated and untreated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA and *Smn+/-;SMN2* healthy mice, we identified molecular targets linked to prednisolone’s ameliorative effects and a list of 580 drug candidates with similar predicted activities. Two of these candidates, metformin and oxandrolone, were further investigated in SMA cellular and animal models, which highlighted that these compounds do not have the same ameliorative effects on SMA phenotypes as prednisolone; however, a number of other important drug targets remain. Overall, our work further supports the usefulness of prednisolone’s potential as a second-generation therapy for SMA, identifies a list of potential SMA drug treatments and highlights improvements for future transcriptomic-based drug repositioning studies in SMA.

**INTRODUCTION**

Spinal muscular atrophy (SMA) is a heterogenous autosomal recessive neuromuscular disorder (NMD) characterized by motor neuron degeneration alongside progressive muscle atrophy and weakness (1). Being the leading monogenic cause of infant mortality (2), around 96% of SMA cases are mapped to homozygous loss-of-function and deletion mutations in the *survival of motor neuron 1* (*SMN1*) gene (3,4), which ubiquitously expresses SMN, a protein that current and ongoing research has linked to diverse housekeeping and tissue-specific cellular functions (5–7). Although complete SMN loss is embryonic lethal in most organisms(8), humans can overcome the complete loss of the *SMN1* gene due to incomplete rescue by the homologous *SMN2* gene (9,10). In essence, the presence of a single nucleotide mutation in *SMN2* promotes exon 7 alternative splicing that limits full length SMN (FL-SMN) expression in this gene to 10% (11). Consequently, the limited FL-SMN expression makes *SMN2* gene copy number an important disease modifier, impacting SMA type and severity (12).

In recent years, novel SMN restorative SMA treatments have emerged that either increase FL-*SMN2* expression by an anti-sense oligonucleotide (ASO) (Nusinersen marketed as (Spinraza®)) (13,14) or a small molecule (Evrysdi®) (15,16) or promote exogenous FL-*SMN1* expression by an adeno-associated virus 9 (AAV-9) delivery system (Zolgensma®) (17,18). Despite the significant increased life expectancy and improved quality of life associated with these therapies (14,16,18,19), they are not cures and their efficacy is dependent upon early intervention (20).

Thus, additional SMN-independent therapies that target affected tissues such as muscle are needed to further enhance and support the benefits of SMN-dependent treatments (21). Indeed, pre-clinical studies and primary patient data have reported innate muscular defects in SMA, which include myogenesis (22), regeneration (23), contraction (24,25), regulation (25), growth (26), and metabolism (27), highlighting skeletal muscle as a primary therapeutic target. Although two novel skeletal muscle-specific SMA therapies, ApitegromabTM (28) (ClinicalTrials.gov ID: NCT03921528) and ReldesemtivTM (29)(ClinicalTrials.gov ID: NCT02644668), are showing progress in clinical trials, the high expenses involved in novel drug research and development (R&D) (30) alongside the costs of the three clinically approved SMN-dependent therapies may lead to elevated prices for combinatorial treatments (31), thus further widening the accessibility gap for SMA patients.

A useful alternative for ensuring accessibility of SMN-independent treatments for all SMA patients would be the identification of cost-effective generic drugs via drug repositioning, a strategy aimed at finding new therapeutic activities for existing pharmacological compounds (32). One such example is prednisolone, a synthetic glucocorticoid (GC) administered to relieve muscle inflammation in Duchenne muscular dystrophy (DMD) patients (33,34). Interestingly, evidence also emerged that short-term prednisolone treatment additionally conferred ergogenic muscle benefits in DMD patients (35,36), which was also validated in the *mdx* mouse model of DMD (37,38).

Although GCs are not used for the treatment of SMA patients, prednisolone is administered for a short period (~30 days, 1 mg/kg) to alleviate the immunological adverse effects of Zolgensma® (18). However, given prednisolone’s potential muscle benefits, we have previously investigated and demonstrated that prednisolone treatment (5 mg/kg, every other day) in severe *Smn-/-;SMN2* and intermediate *Smn2B/-*SMA mice improved survival, weight and neuromuscular phenotype (27). Although the study was aimed at investigating prednisolone’s activity on the GC-Krüppel-Like-Factor-15 (KLF15) pathway in SMA skeletal muscle, synergistic muscle improvement was also observed in prednisolone-treated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice overexpressing Klf15 specifically in skeletal muscle (27), suggesting that prednisolone may act on SMA skeletal muscle via numerous effectors and pathways.

Despite the benefits observed, our study did not evaluate prednisolone’s long-term effects (18,27). Given that chronic GC usage increases myopathy (35,39), it is unclear whether long-term prednisolone treatments would be similarly detrimental in SMA muscle. Furthermore, the rapid onset and progression of disease in SMA mouse models (1-3 weeks on average) (9,40,41) does not allow sufficient comparison of intermittent vs chronic studies.

Thus, in this study, we used a transcriptomics and drug repositioning pipeline based on our previously published experimental paradigm (42) to uncover the genes and pathways restored by prednisolone in skeletal muscle of SMA mice and identify existing non-GC drugs predicted to have similar activities (Figure 1). Our study uncovered that prednisolone restored pathways linked to growth, metabolism, and regulation in SMA skeletal muscle and identified 20 leading commercially available non-GC drugs predicted to emulate its action. Based on oral bioavailability and evidence of safety treatment in children, we selected and validated metformin and oxandrolone in SMA cellular and animal models (Figure 1). Although, both metformin and oxandrolone improved neuromuscular activity in the *Caenorhabditis elegans (C. elegans)* model for severe SMA, we found that higher metformin doses reduced survival in the intermediate *Smn2B/-*SMA mouse model. On the other hand, oxandrolone treatment partially improved survival in *Smn2B/-*SMA mice, albeit not to the same extent as prednisolone (27).

Nevertheless, our study computationally uncovered new mechanisms behind prednisolone’s beneficial activity in SMA muscle, identified numerous potential SMA muscle-specific therapeutic candidates and highlighted the importance of transcriptomic-based drug repositioning for SMN-independent drug discovery.

**RESULTS**

**Prednisolone restores the expression of a large subset of genes involved in canonical skeletal muscle pathways in SMA mice.**

As described in an earlier study, we have previously demonstrated that treating SMA mice with prednisolone significantly improved several disease phenotypes, including survival, weight, and muscle health (27). To have a more in depth understanding of the impact of prednisolone on SMA skeletal muscle at a molecular level, we performed bulk RNA-sequencing (RNA-Seq) on skeletal muscle of untreated and prednisolone-treated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA and *Smn+/-;SMN2* healthy mice. Specifically, we administered prednisolone (5 mg/kg, gavage, every 2 days) starting from post-natal day (P)0 until P7 to *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA and *Smn+/-;SMN2* healthy mice (27). Triceps were harvested from P7 prednisolone-treated and untreated mice for RNA-Seq via Illumina NextSeq550 and a HISAT2-FeatureCounts-DESeq2 pipeline against a Mus Musculus mm10 genome for parameters of “condition” and “treatment” (Figures S1).

Initially, our principal component analysis (PCA) revealed distinct clusters of untreated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA and untreated *Smn+/-;SMN2* healthy littermates, with prednisolone-treated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice falling between the aforementioned groups (Figure 2.a). Importantly, we found that prednisolone treatment restored the expression of 1361 genes in *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice to levels similarly observed in untreated *Smn+/-;SMN2* healthy mice (Figure 2.b; Tables S3-5).

Next, we determined the biological pathways associated with differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in prednisolone-treated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice compared to untreated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice. Using iPathwayGuide, we identified that 3056 significant DEGs (Log2 fold change (Log2 FC) > 0.6, false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.05) (Table S4) were targeted by prednisolone in the skeletal muscle of *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice when compared to untreated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice and associated with 28 significant KEGG pathways (*p* <0.05) (Table 1). Interestingly, these prednisolone-targeted pathways are closely associated with important skeletal muscle processes such as metabolism, atrophy and regulatory function, alongside previous associations with SMA-related pathways such as FoxO signalling (43), p53 signalling (44), AMPK signalling (45), mitophagy (46), circadian rhythm (47), PPAR signalling (48) and autophagy (49) (Table 1). An additional gene ontology (GO) analysis also revealed similar skeletal muscle biological processes associated with the DEGs in prednisolone-treated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice such as myotube differentiation, fatty acid oxidation, protein ubiquitination, sarcomere regulation, gluconeogenesis, and circadian rhythm (Table 2; Tables S6-8).

Combined, our transcriptomics and pathway analyses suggest that prednisolone treatment attenuated muscle pathologies in SMA mice (27) by targeting key muscle metabolism, atrophy and regulatory pathways.

**Drug repositioning algorithms identify novel pharmacological compounds predicted to emulate prednisolone’s activity in skeletal muscle of SMA mice.**

As mentioned above, while prednisolone treatment significantly improves muscle health and overall disease progression in SMA mice, chronic use of prednisolone can negatively impact skeletal muscle (35,39). As such, we used the DEGs and associated KEGG pathways identified in prednisolone-treated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice to discover alternative drugs predicted to mimic prednisolone’s molecular effects in SMA skeletal muscle. Initially, we utilized the in-built integration of KEGG drugs database in iPathwayGuide (50) and the DGIdb v3.0 (51) database to initially reveal a total of 580 compounds (Tables S9-12). To filter down our list, we focused on the drug compounds 1) that targeted > 5 prednisolone-targeted pathways or linked to upstream regulators, 2) were clinically approved and 3) were not associated with promotion of muscle-wasting (e.g., primary anti-cancer drugs (52)), leaving a total of 20 potential candidates (Tables 3-4).

Interestingly, our combined *in silico* drug repositioning approach revealed a subset of candidates previously investigated in SMA such as celecoxib (53) (ClinicalTrials.gov ID: NCT02876094) and colforsin (54). To further validate our bioinformatics strategy, we chose to continue our study with drugs not yet assessed for SMA, focusing on those previously used safely in young patients and orally bioavailable. With these criteria, we narrowed down our selection to metformin, a generic asymmetric dimethyl-biguanide type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) drug (55) and oxandrolone, a synthetic anabolic steroid with a higher ratio of anabolic: androgynous effects for further study (56).

Thus, using a transcriptomics-based *in silico* drug repositioning platform, we were able to generate a list of clinically approved pharmacological compounds that are predicted to emulate prednisolone’s activity in skeletal muscle.

**Molecular docking simulations support the predicted drug-target interactions identified by the transcriptomics pipeline.**

Having selected to move forward with metformin and oxandrolone based on a combined bioinformatics and drug repurposing strategy, we performed molecular docking simulations to confirm that our drugs of interest indeed interacted with their predicted molecular targets (Prkag3 for metformin and androgen receptor (AR) for oxandrolone). In the case of metformin, no crystallographic data was available for Prkag3 (AMPK-γ3). We thus studied the interactions of metformin with Prkag1 (AMPK-γ1) (Figure 3.a), as both encode the AMPK-γ subunit, share 64% sequence homology and can form an AMPK trimeric complex with the same AMPK α2 and β2 subunits in human and mouse skeletal muscle (57). Nevertheless, both metformin and oxandrolone demonstrated strong binding affinity to their targets of interest with metformin binding at Prkag1 key residues such as Ala 204, Ala 226 and Asp316 (Figure 3.a) and oxandrolone anchoring to the AR active sites via hydrogen bonds with Asn 705, Arg 752 and Thr 877 (Figure 3.b). Furthermore, docking studies across our larger list of orally bioavailable drug candidates (Tables 3-4) show that most of the drug molecules were predicted to fit in their respective target active sites, aligning well with known co-crystallized ligands (Figure S2, Table S13). Thus, these molecular docking simulations support further investigating the therapeutic potential of the drug candidates identified via a transcriptomics and drug repurposing approach.

**Metformin’s primary predicted target gene *Prkag3* is dysregulated in skeletal muscle of both severe *Smn-/-;SMN2* and intermediate *Smn2B/-*SMA mice.**

As previously mentioned, metformin is an orally administered T2DM drug that we selected as one of the candidates to validate our bioinformatics-based drug repositioning approach. Importantly, metformin has over 60 years of clinical use with a well-known safety profile (55) and recorded administration in younger patients (58). Furthermore, it has been previously repositioned and conferred ergogenic activities in muscular disorders such as DMD (59) and congenital muscular dystrophy type 1 A (CMDT1A) (60), highlighting its potential as a skeletal muscle therapy.

Our iPathwayGuide analysis predicted that metformin could emulate prednisolone’s targeting of the KEGG: 04068 FoxO signalling pathway (Figure S3.a). In particular, metformin was predicted to mimic prednisolone’s upregulation of *Prkag3*, which encodes for the AMPK-γ3 subunit of the predominant skeletal muscle AMPK-α2β2γ3 isoform complex (61) (Figure S3). Furthermore, *Prkag3* upregulation was predicted to coherently downregulate the expression of *FoxO1*, *FoxO3* and *Foxo4* isoforms, whilst upregulating *FoxO6* (Figure S2) supporting previous literature associating these FoxO isoforms with promotion of muscle atrophy (43,62). Importantly, the expression pattern of these genes in the prednisolone-treated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice were normalized to healthy *Smn+/-;SMN2* levels (Figure S3.c), supporting the usefulness of investigating metformin and these targets in SMA skeletal muscle.

We thus measured the mRNA expression levels of *Prkag3* and *FoxO* isoforms in the triceps of both symptomatic P7 severe *Smn-/-;SMN2* and P19 intermediate *Smn2B/-*SMA mice alongside their respective healthy controls. We indeed observed that *Prkag3* levels were significantly downregulated in skeletal muscle of both SMA mouse models (Figure 4.a), supporting the bioinformatics data. However, none of the *FoxO* isoforms were significantly different between SMA mice and their healthy controls (Figures 4.b-e). Previous research also reported no significant upregulation of *FoxO* isoforms in P7 severe *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice via qPCR (43). Although a another study observed a significant upregulation of FoxO isoforms in the hindlimb muscles of *Smn2B/-*SMA mice (43), the wide variation observed in our experimentalcohort could be due to differential vulnerabilities to denervation-induced muscle atrophy between hindlimb and triceps muscle (63) that could impact FoxO expression levels. However, the fact that our qPCR data did not reflect the bioinformatics predictions may also be due to variability in our experimental cohorts, the sequencing depth coverage not being sufficiently conservative and/or intrinsic differences between RNA-Seq and primer-based qPCR approaches (64).

Overall, our qPCR experiments revealed that the primary metformin target *Prkag3* matched its bioinformatics prediction of being downregulated in both severe *Smn-/-;SMN2* and intermediate *Smn2B/-*SMA mice, suggesting that this gene may be involved in both severe and milder SMA pathologies and an appropriate therapeutic molecular target in SMA muscle.

**The predicted target genes for metformin are mostly Smn-independent in an SMA muscle cellular model.**

We next wanted to better understand if the aberrant expression of the metformin target genes was dependent on SMN expression and/or muscle atrophy. Thus, we firstly generated small interfering RNA (siRNA)-mediated Smn-depleted C2C12 myoblast-like cells, a useful and previously successful *in vitro* model (65). We confirmed by qPCR that *Smn* mRNA levels were significantly reduced by up to 90% in C2C12 myoblasts and D8 C2C12 myotubes compared to scrambled siRNA and untreated controls (Figure S4). We next investigated the effects of Smn knockdown on the expression of the predicted metformin target genes. In C2C12 myoblasts, we identified a significant upregulation of only the *FoxO3* gene in Smn-depleted C2C12 myoblasts compared to controls (Figure 5.a), which reflects previous microarray analyses of specific *FoxO* isoforms upregulated in quadriceps femoralis muscle biopsies from type 1 SMA patients (66). However, in C2C12 myotubes we found that Smn knockdown (KD) had no effect on the expression of predicted metformin target genes (Figure 5.b), suggesting that for the most part, the expression of the predicted metformin genes is Smn-independent, thus representing ideal targets for SMN-independent therapies.

We next investigated if the expression of the predicted metformin target genes is affected *in vitro* by muscle atrophy. However, one difficulty in mimicking SMA muscle atrophy *in vitro* is establishing denervation. Thus, based on evidence of shared pathway similarities from different pro-atrophy factors such as starvation and denervation (67), we used a validated method of 24-hour serum-starvation in C2C12 myotubes to induce canonical atrophy, as confirmed by myotube loss and upregulation of pro-atrophic *atrogin-1* levels (Figure 5.c). Next, we evaluated the expression of the predicted metformin target genes and observed a significant upregulation of *FoxO3* and *FoxO4* isoforms (Figure 5.d), reflecting their established roles in atrophy-dependent ubiquitin-proteasome pathways (43).

We then evaluated whether metformin could attenuate muscle atrophy in C2C12 myotubes. Based on initial gene-dose response experiments in both control C2C12 myoblasts and D8 myotubes, we treated our cells with physiological (60 μM) and supraphysiological (2 mM) metformin concentrations for 24 hours (Figures S5) (68). The 30 μM physiological metformin concentration for 24 hours did not attenuate muscle atrophy or impact the expression of the target genes in the serum starved C2C12 myotubes (Figure 5.e-f). However, for the supraphysiological 2 mM metformin concentration (68), we observed an upregulation of *Atrogin-1* levels (Figure 5.e), suggesting an exacerbation of muscle atrophy. Further analysis of the predicted metformin target genes revealed no significant impact on their expression patterns either (Figure 5.f), suggesting that exacerbation of atrophy in C2C12 myotubes by supraphysiological metformin concentrations involve factors mostly outside of our predicted targets. However, it should be noted that metformin may have different effects in SMA muscle as there are still differences between distinct pro-atrophic factors (67).

Overall, our *in vitro* studies revealed that although most of our predicted metformin target genes are SMN-independent with some linked to muscle atrophy, they were mostly not linked to metformin’s influence on canonical atrophy in C2C12 myotubes.

**Dose-dependent effect of metformin on disease progression and survival in *Smn2B/-*SMA mice.**

Next, we assessed metformin in the intermediate *Smn2B/-*SMA mouse model (69). The rationale for conducting our *in vivo* pharmacological studies in the *Smn2B/-*SMA mice was based on their longer lifespan (69), responsiveness to SMN-independent therapies (42,47), established metabolic and myopathy defects (43,47,69–72), and later symptomatic onset (69) making them a clinically relevant model for starting treatment regimens >P5 time-points (42,47).

We initially administered a 200 mg/kg daily dose (diluted in 0.9% saline) starting from P5 until humane endpoint in *Smn2B/-*SMA mice and *Smn2B/+*healthy control littermates, based on previous success in the muscle disorder CMDT1A, where metformin concentrations ranged from 100-250 mg/kg (60). We observed no significant improvement in survival of *Smn2B/-*SMA mice treated with 200 mg/kg/day compared to untreated (Figure 6.a) and vehicle-treated animals (Figure S6). We also found a significant reduction in the body weight of 200 mg/kg/day metformin-treated *Smn2B/-*SMA mice compared to untreated SMA animals, beginning 4 days after initial treatment at P9 (Figure 6.b.) However, we did not observe any effects on weight in the 200 mg/kg/day metformin treated *Smn2B/+*healthy control mice (Figure S6.b), indicating a disease specific effect of metformin. In terms of motor function, there was no significant difference in the righting reflex between untreated and 200 mg/kg/day metformin-treated *Smn2B/-*SMA mice (Figure 6.c) and *Smn2B/+*healthy control animals (Figure S7.a-c).

Since our initial 200 mg/kg/day metformin dosage did not improve disease onset or disease progression in *Smn2B/-*SMA mice, we conducted pilot studies with a later treatment start point (P8) and a lower dose (100 mg/kg/day), which demonstrated similar effects to our initial dosing regimen (data not shown). We therefore tried a higher daily dosage of 400 mg/kg/day, starting at P5. Surprisingly, the higher 400 mg/kg/day dose significantly reduced survival in *Smn2B/-*SMA pups by 5 days (Figure 6.d), while having no significant impact on weight or righting reflex (Figures 6.e-f). Interestingly, 400 mg/kg/day metformin had no adverse effects in the healthy *Smn2B/+*control littermates (Figures S7.d-f), suggesting that the adverse effects of the higher dose of metformin is disease specific.

Thus, our *in vivo* experiments demonstrated that metformin did not emulate prednisolone’s beneficial effects on SMA disease progression in SMA mice and is in fact not an ideal therapy candidate, due to dose- and disease-dependent adverse effects in SMA.

**Higher 400 mg/kg/day metformin dosage is associated with hypoglycaemia in non-fasted *Smn2B/-*SMA mice.**

We next investigated the potential causes behind metformin’s adverse effects in SMA mice. With metformin being a glucose lowering agent for T2DM, we initially assessed blood glucose levels in P14 non-fasted, untreated, 200- and 400-mg/kg/day metformin treated *Smn2B/-*SMA and *Smn2B/+*healthy mice 2 hours after the final treatment. This time point was chosen to account for the reduced median survival in the higher dose SMA cohort. We observed that neither 200- or 400-mg/kg/day metformin treatments lowered blood glucose levels in *Smn2B/+*healthy mice (Figure 7.a). However, we reported a significant reduction in blood glucose levels in 400 mg/kg/day metformin-treated *Smn2B/-*SMA mice compared to untreated SMA animals (Figure 7.a). Our results suggest that hypoglycaemic shock could have been one of the possible causes behind the premature death in the 400 mg/kg/day SMA cohort, further exacerbating the previously reported hypoglycaemia in SMA models (70) and patients (73,74).

**Metformin did impact the expression of the predicted target genes, but not muscle pathology markers in *Smn2B/-*SMA mice.**

We next evaluated the effect of metformin on the expression of the predicted target genes in TAs from P14 untreated, 200- and 400-mg/kg/day metformin-treated *Smn2B/-*SMA and *Smn2B/+*healthy mice 2 hours after final treatment. Contrary to the drug repositioning prediction that metformin could reverse *Prkag3* downregulation in SMA muscle (Figure S3), we instead discovered that both 200- and 400-mg/kg/day metformin doses exacerbated *Prkag3* downregulation in *Smn2B/-*SMA muscle (Figure 7.b). Furthermore, although metformin had no impact on *FoxO1*, *FoxO3* and *FoxO4* isoforms in both *Smn2B/+*healthy and *Smn2B/-*SMA muscle (Figures 7.c-e), for the 200 mg/kg/day *Smn2B/-*SMA cohort, metformin significantly reduced *FoxO6* expression (Figure 7.f), which again contrasted our bioinformatics prediction that metformin would upregulate the expression of this isoform in SMA muscle. Thus, the drug-gene response for metformin-treated *Smn2B/-*SMA skeletal muscle reveals a contrasting pattern that does not match the bioinformatic predictions.

We next investigated metformin’s effects on the expression of dysregulated molecular markers associated with muscle atrophy (*Atrogin-1* and *MuRF-1*) and glucose metabolism (*Glut4* and *Hk2*) (75,76). We however observed that neither atrophy (Figures 7.g-h) or glucose metabolism markers (Figures 7.i-j) were affected by 200- and 400-mg/kg/day metformin treatments in the *Smn2B/-*SMA mice when compared to untreated animals.

We also investigated markers associated with mitochondrial biogenesis and function in muscle (*Pgc1-α,* *Tfam*, *Ndufs1*, and *Nrf1*), as previous research has established that these features are impaired in SMA skeletal muscle (46) and a common mechanism of action for metformin is mild inhibition of mitochondrial electron transport complex 1 (or NADH:ubiquinone oxidoreductase) (77). We found that that neither the 200- or 400-mg/kg/day dose of metformin impacted the expression of mitochondrial genes in the skeletal muscle of *Smn2B/-*SMA mice (Figures 7.k-n), although we do observe a significant downregulation of *Pgc1-α, Tfam*, and *Ndufs1* in the skeletal muscle of 200 mg/kg/day metformin-treated *Smn2B/+* healthy counterparts (Figures 7.k-n).

Overall, our data highlights that metformin did not have a direct impact on the predicted target genes in skeletal muscle of SMA mice. Furthermore, the absence of direct impact on muscle atrophy, glucose metabolism, and mitochondrial function markers following metformin treatment in *Smn2B/-*SMA muscle, suggests that the adverse effects associated with the 400 mg/kg/day dosage may not have been linked to muscle-intrinsic effects.

**A higher dose of metformin is associated with dysregulation of mitochondrial regulatory genes in the spinal cord of *Smn2B/-*SMA mice.**

We next investigated the effects of metformin on the spinal cord given that metformin is systemically distributed (78), has the ability to cross the blood-brain-barrier (BBB) (79) and can impact the mitochondria in the spinal cord (80). We thus evaluated whether metformin altered the expression of mitochondrial markers (*Pgc1-α*, *Tfam*, *Nrf1* and *Ndufs1*) in the spinal cord of P14 untreated, 200- and 400-mg/kg/day metformin treated *Smn2B/-*SMA mice compared to *Smn2B/+*healthy mice, 2 hours after final treatment.

For *Pgc1-α*, a master regulator of mitochondrial biogenesis and function, we observed that although both 200- and 400-mg/kg/day metformin concentrations significantly reduced its expression levels in *Smn2B/+*healthy spinal cords (Figure 8.a), it was only the higher concentration that significantly reduced *Pgc1-α* expression in *Smn2B/-*SMA spinal cords (Figure 8.a). Similarly, 400 mg/kg/day metformin significantly reduced *Ndufs1* levels in both *Smn2B/+*healthy and *Smn2B/-*SMA spinal cords (Figure 8.b), suggesting that for these mitochondrial health markers the higher metformin dose negatively affected their expression independent of disease status. On the other hand, although not affected by metformin in *Smn2B/-*SMA spinal cords, *Nrf1* gene expression was significantly reduced by both metformin doses in the spinal cord of *Smn2B/+*healthy mice (Figure 8.c), whilst *Tfam* was not affected by metformin in either cohort (Figure 8.d).

Our results demonstrating that the higher dose of metformin (400 mg/kg/day) appears to specifically dysregulate certain mitochondrial genes in the spinal cord of *Smn2B/-*SMA mice is supported by recent evidence of tissue-dependent differences in conserved cellular processes between SMA motor neurons and skeletal muscle (49). Thus, although further in-depth investigations would be needed, our results on mitochondrial health markers suggest that metformin’s adverse effects in SMA mice could be linked to the exacerbation of neuronal mitochondrial dysfunction.

**Oxandrolone’s predicted target gene, *Ddit4,* is dysregulated in the skeletal muscle of severe *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice.**

Our second drug candidate that we selected to mimic prednisolone activities was oxandrolone, a synthetic orally bioavailable anabolic steroid that confers minimal androgynous effects (56). Importantly for SMA, oxandrolone has been successful in the promotion of muscle growth for DMD (81) and mixed gender burn injury patients (82).

Oxandrolone was predicted to upregulate the *Ar* gene in SMA muscle (Figure S8). The upregulation of *Ar* was predicted to directly upregulate downstream effectors *Igfbp5* and *myogenin* (or *MyoG*) (Figure S8), which both regulate muscle differentiation, regeneration and myofiber growth (83,84). Furthermore, *Ar* was predicted to indirectly upregulate *Dok5*, a signalling protein linked to insulin and IGF-1 activity (85) and *Akap6*, which is involved in the modulation of muscle differentiation and regeneration (86) (Figure S8). In addition to these factors, we also decided to investigate *Ddit4* as an oxandrolone target based on its direct relation with *Ar* (87) and being one of the top 20 downregulated DEG targets of prednisolone in *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA skeletal muscle (Table S4; Figure S8).

Similar to our metformin strategy above, we initially wanted to evaluate the mRNA expression levels of these target genes in the triceps of both symptomatic P7 severe *Smn-/-;SMN2* and P19 intermediate *Smn2B/-*SMA mice alongside their respective healthy controls. Overall, we identified no significant dysregulated expression of the target genes *Ar*, *Akap6*, *Igfbp5*, *Dok5* and *MyoG* in both severe *Smn-/-;SMN2* and intermediate *Smn2B/-*SMA mice (Figures 9.a-e). However, for *Ddit4,* we did identify a significant upregulation only in *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice (Figures 9.f), supporting both our bioinformatics data for this gene and its known pro-atrophic role (87), indicating that it may play an important role in SMA muscle pathologies. In summary, the majority of the predicted oxandrolone target genes did not significantly reflect their bioinformatic predictions.

***In vitro* oxandrolone treatment prevents canonical atrophy in C2C12 myotubes independently of the predicted Smn-independent targets.**

Similar to our metformin *in vitro* studies, we wanted to evaluate whether reduced SMN levels or atrophy influenced the expression of the predicted oxandrolone target genes in SMA skeletal muscle. Although none of the target genes were affected in the Smn-depleted C2C12 myoblasts (Figure 10.a), we found that Smn KD triggered a significant upregulation of *Dok5* only in C2C12 myotubes (Figure 10.b), suggesting that the expression of this gene may be Smn-dependent. Nevertheless, the expression of the majority of the predicted oxandrolone target genes was Smn-independent.

We next wanted to evaluate the ability of oxandrolone to attenuate canonical atrophy in serum-deprived C2C12 myotubes (88). However, in this case we performed the treatments in D5 C2C12 myotubes instead of D8, as although oxandrolone was non-toxic (Figures S9), it elicited a greater androgen *Ar* response at the earlier differentiation stage (Figure S10). Following confirmation of muscle atrophy in D5 C2C12 myotubes via significant *Atrogin-1* and *MuRF1* upregulation (Figure 10.c), we observed that the expression of the predicted oxandrolone target genes *Akap6*, *Igfbp5*, *MyoG* and *Ddit4* was significantly downregulated in serum-deprived D5 C2C12 myotubes (Figure 10.d).

Interestingly, we found that 24-hour treatment with 1 μM oxandrolone attenuated canonical muscle atrophy in these serum-starved D5 C2C12 myotubes as shown by significant downregulation of *Atrogin-1* (Figure 10.e)*.* However, we observed that *Igfbp5*, *MyoG* and *Ddit4* were further downregulated by the 1 μM oxandrolone treatment (Figure 10.f), suggesting that oxandrolone’s effects on atrophy are linked to effectors independent of the predicted target genes.

Overall, our *in vitro* studies have shown that although the expression of the predicted oxandrolone target genes is Smn-independent, they are not involved in oxandrolone’s ameliorative effects on canonical atrophy in C2C12 myotubes.

**Oxandrolone treatment improves survival in *Smn2B/-*SMA mice.**

We next assessed the impact of oxandrolone in SMA mice. We initially tested preliminary treatment regimens of 1 – 8 mg/kg/day starting from P5 or P8 in *Smn2B/-*SMA and *Smn2B/+*healthy mice (data not shown), based on previous studies in models of spinal cord injury (SCI) (89) and burn injury (90). We also stopped oxandrolone treatments at P21 as previous research has shown that shorter oxandrolone treatments are more effective (89). These pilot studies allowed us to identify the optimal dosing regimen of 4 mg/kg/day oxandrolone treatment from P8 to P21, which significantly improved the median survival of *Smn2B/-*SMA mice (Figure 11.a).

However, we found that the body weight of 4 mg/kg/day oxandrolone-treated *Smn2B/-*SMA mice was significantly lower compared to their untreated counterparts (Figure 11.b), which is most likely due to the intrinsic smaller sizes of the randomly assigned litters, as demonstrated by the difference in weight starting 4 days prior to initial treatment (Figure 11.b). In terms of motor function, we observed no significant difference in righting reflex between untreated and oxandrolone-treated SMA animals (Figure 11.c). Furthermore, we identified no impact of vehicle treatment on survival, weight, and righting reflex in *Smn2B/-*SMA mice (Figures S11).

In the *Smn2B/+*healthy mice, although 4 mg/kg/day oxandrolone had no effect on survival or motor function in treated animals (Figures S12.a-b), we did observe a significant decrease in bodyweight starting from P9, one day after initial treatment (Figure S12.c), suggesting that oxandrolone may have impacted growth.

Nevertheless, our results demonstrated that although 4 mg/kg/day oxandrolone treatment improved survival in *Smn2B/-*SMA mice, its effect on survival was still minor compared to prednisolone (27), suggesting that oxandrolone is not a suitable substitute as an SMA skeletal muscle therapy.

**Oxandrolone did not impact the expression of the predicted target genes or muscle pathology markers.**

The improved 3-day survival in 4 mg/kg/day oxandrolone-treated *Smn2B/-*SMA mice led us to evaluate whether this beneficial impact was related to targeting muscle pathologies. Thus, we evaluated oxandrolone’s effects on the expression of dysregulated molecular markers associated with the SMA hallmark pathology of muscle atrophy (*Atrogin-1* and *MuRF-1*) in the triceps from P19 late symptomatic, untreated and 4 mg/kg/day oxandrolone-treated *Smn2B/-*SMAand *Smn2B/+*healthy mice, 2 hours after final treatment. We observed no significant reduction in elevated *Atrogin-1* or *MuRF-1* gene expression levels by oxandrolone in the *Smn2B/-*SMA cohort (Figures 11.d-e), suggesting that oxandrolone did not attenuate muscle atrophy.

We next evaluated the effect of oxandrolone on the expression of the predicted target genes in the same P19 untreated and 4 mg/kg/day oxandrolone-treated *Smn2B/-*SMAand *Smn2B/+*healthy mice. We found that oxandrolone did not significantly impact the predicated target genes in the triceps from the *Smn2B/-*SMA mice (Figures 11.f-k). However, we did observe that 4 mg/kg/day oxandrolone treatment significantly upregulated *Dok5* expression in the *Smn2B/+*healthy mice (Figure 11.i). Nevertheless, the pattern observed suggests that oxandrolone did not impact any of the predicted genes in the muscle from *Smn2B/-*SMA mice.

Overall, our data shows that oxandrolone did not have an efficient effect on the predicted target genes. Furthermore, its inability to ameliorate muscle atrophy marker dysregulation in SMA skeletal muscle, suggests that improved survival in the *Smn2B/-*SMA mice by oxandrolone may be independent of targeting skeletal muscle pathologies.

**Both metformin and oxandrolone drug candidates attenuate neuromuscular phenotypes in the *C. elegans* severe SMA model.**

We next wanted to investigate our drug candidates in a separate SMA model to assess whether they could attenuate neuromuscular dysfunctions in a distinct species. For this purpose, we used the *C. elegans* *smn-1(ok355)* invertebrate model (91), based on shared conservation of the SMN protein with vertebrate species (92) and the well described phenotypic defects of larval lethality (reduced survival) and impaired neuromuscular function in pharyngeal pumping for feeding and locomotion (91,93). For metformin, administration at higher doses of 50 mM partially ameliorated multiple phenotypes only in *C. elegans* *smn-1(ok355)* including pharyngeal pumping defects and the locomotory defect of number of reversals (Figures 12.a-b), however only the lower dose of 1 mM metformin significantly ameliorated paralysis times (Figures 12.c). On the other hand, oxandrolone across 1-50 μM doses significantly ameliorated pharyngeal pumping defects only (Figure 12.d), with no significant effect on locomotory defects of reversal and paralysis times (Figures 12.e-f), suggesting an improvement in muscular activity in the pharynx region. Overall, given SMN conservation across species, oxandrolone could improve neuromuscular defects across vertebrate and invertebrate models of SMA.

**DISCUSSION**

The goal of this study was to use a transcriptomics-based drug repositioning strategy to identify clinically approved drug candidates that could emulate prednisolone’s beneficial effects in SMA skeletal muscle and life expectancy (27), without the risks associated with long-term GC exposure (39).

Our major finding was the observation that prednisolone treatment restored specific gene sets associated with key pathological SMA pathways such as FoxO signalling (43), p53 signalling (44), AMPK signalling (45), mitophagy (46), circadian rhythm (47), PPAR signalling (48), and autophagy (49) in *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA skeletal muscle. Although these pathway results highlight prednisolone’s efficacy in improving skeletal muscle health, it should be noted that our transcriptomic data cannot distinguish whether these restorations are targeted directly by prednisolone or a consequence of improved muscle health. Nevertheless, our transcriptomic data complemented the prior phenotypic data of prednisolone’s potential as a second-generation SMA therapy (27).

Despite a multitude of promising compounds identified that could be investigated in future studies, one of the findings of our study was that neither of our chosen orally bioavailable drug candidates, metformin and oxandrolone, reproduced prednisolone’s previously reported effect on muscle growth and survival in SMA mice (27). For metformin, we observed that both 200- and 400-mg/kg/day doses counterintuitively exacerbated *Prkag3* downregulation in *Smn2B/-*SMA muscle instead of the predicted upregulation, which could have negative consequences since *Prkag3-/-*null mice presented metabolic and mitochondrial dysregulation (94,95) similar to those reported in SMA patients (46,74) and models (70,71). More surprising was the reduced survival of *Smn2B/-*SMA mice treated with 400 mg/kg/day metformin, which we potentially linked to possible hypoglycaemic shock and/or dysregulation of neuronal mitochondrial components. On the other hand, although various metformin doses ameliorated neuromuscular dysfunction in our SMA *C. elegans* model, the negative effects observed in *Smn2B/-*SMA mice could be to due vertebrate vs invertebrate systems. Curiously, previous research into AMPK agonism via 500 mg/kg AICAR treatment in the *SmnΔ7* SMA mice contrasts our metformin data, as they showed improved skeletal muscle health and no exacerbations in neuronal dysfunction (45). One explanation for metformin and AICAR’s conflicting results in SMA mice could be related to differential pharmacological activities. Indeed, AICAR is an AMP analogy with a low BBB penetrability (96) that directly binds to the γ-AMPK isoform (97,98), whilst metformin can rapidly penetrate the BBB (79) and has been associated with direct and indirect AMPK activation (78), an example of the latter involving mitochondrial respiratory complex 1 inhibition (77). With emerging evidence of naturally low mitochondrial respiratory complex 1 activity in SMA motor neurons (99) and SMA pathway profiles being tissue-dependent (49), one theory could be that the 400 mg/kg/day metformin dose exacerbated mitochondrial respiratory complex 1 inhibition in SMA motor neurons. However, future studies would be needed to verify this proposed model. Nonetheless, our findings could be important for clinical drug safety, as with reported co-morbidities of diabetes in certain SMA patients (100,101), our pre-clinical data suggests lower metformin doses or non-biguanide drugs may be important to manage diabetes and not risk primary pathologies in SMA patients.

For oxandrolone, our mouse data showed that 4 mg/kg/day treatment from P8 partially improved survival in *Smn2B/-*SMA mice, although not to the same extent observed with prednisolone (27). In addition, we identified that the lower dose of 1 μM oxandrolone *in vitro* attenuated canonical atrophy in C2C12 myotubes, whilst *in vivo* oxandrolone attenuated neuromuscular dysfunction in severe SMA *C. elegans* model, suggesting that in both our SMA vertebrate and invertebrate species oxandrolone may be a beneficial SMN-independent treatment option.

An additional factor that could contribute to the different pharmacological response in observed in our mouse and *C. elegans* models is sex-specific differences. Indeed, emerging clinical evidence collected from 3838 SMA patients across 18 countries shows that severe neuromuscular pathologies are more frequent in SMA types 2 and 3b male patients compared to females (102). Furthermore, both metformin and oxandrolone have demonstrated sex specific effects on muscle pathology. Indeed, metformin treatment significantly improved skeletal muscle function only in the female mouse model for CMDT1A (60). On the other hand, studies with *Ar* knock out (KO) rodent models have demonstrated that Ar absence does not have the same impact on female muscle size compared to males (103). In addition, it is suggested that intramuscular Ar content may have a stronger influence on hypertrophy than peripheral androgen levels (104), suggesting that oxandrolone may be more beneficial in males. Thus, future studies need to take into consideration the sex of the SMA models when evaluating drug efficacy.

Despite our study’s limitations, it highlighted refinements for future *in silico* SMA drug repositioning studies. Compared to a previous study that successfully identified and validated harmine’s therapeutic potential in SMA muscle (42), ours did not include proteomics. The absence of proteomics can be a caveat for drug studies as transcript levels alone do not proportionally reflect drug-protein interactions, abundance and translational modifications (105,106). However, a limitation of both transcriptomics and proteomics approaches is that they cannot bridge drug-pathway interactions with disease phenotypes, as demonstrated by a recent proteomics analysis of Spinraza® treated type 2 and 3 SMA patients that could not correlate protein profiles with functional improvements (107). Thus, implementation of metabolomics may be beneficial for linking pathway perturbations with metabolites associated with disease and stages of muscle atrophy (108). To the best of our knowledge, this three-pronged multi-omics approach has not previously been used in SMA drug repositioning, however it has been successful in the identification of 200 biomarker candidates for SMA (109). Importantly, and as demonstrated in our previous work (42), the power of multi-omics lies in the ability of further defining the molecular and signalling changes that occur in cells and tissues following treatment, which can allow for the refinement of therapeutics targets and repurposed drugs as well as for the investigation of potential mechanisms behind responsive and non-responsive cohorts.

Another consideration is systemic effects of the drugs as seen with the enhanced lethality of the 400 mg/kg/day metformin’s dose in *Smn2B/-*SMA mice being linked to hypoglycaemia and mitochondrial dysfunction in neuronal tissue. Indeed, adverse systemic risks were also found with a previous multi-omics drug repositioning study for SMA muscle that identified the development of tremors in harmine-treated *Smn2B/-*SMA mice (42). With tissue-dependent differences in conserved pathways in SMA (49), future omics studies could integrate data from both neuronal and skeletal muscle to minimize systemic adverse risks.

Even with these refinements, future drug repositioning studies for SMA skeletal muscle may need to consider replacing bulk RNA-Seq. Skeletal muscle fibers are comprised of a myriad of different muscle fiber and cell types, alongside non-muscular interconnecting tissues such as neurons, tendons, adipose, immune cells and capillaries (110,111), which altogether does not truly represent the transcriptomic profiles for distinct skeletal muscle cells. Indeed, our significant KEGG pathway results included those associated exclusively with neuronal, immune, and capillary cells such as glioma, atherosclerosis and Th17 cell differentiation. With alterations in fiber type composition (72,112) and satellite cell dysregulation evidenced in SMA muscle (23), an emerging alternative to predict drug candidates that target dysregulated SMA pathways in these muscle types would be single-cell (scRNA-Seq) and/or single nuclear RNA-Seq (snRNA-Seq) (111), which have already been useful tools in other muscular disorders such as DMD (113,114). In addition, snRNA-Seq could have further benefits to narrow in on muscle regions such as nuclei located near the NMJ, since myonuclei display spatial and temporal expression pattern heterogeneity in multi-nucleated myofibers (111).

Although the drug candidate’s metformin and oxandrolone did not emulate prednisolone’s beneficial effects in SMA to the extent previously reported, our transcriptomics-drug repositioning approach did better define prednisolone’s activity in SMA muscle and provided a list of potential candidates for future pre-clinical SMA drug repositioning studies. Furthermore, our study highlights important refinements for future SMA drug repositioning studies.

**MATERIALS and METHODS**

**Animal Procedures**

Experiments with the severe (Taiwanese) *Smn-/-;SMN2 (*FVB/N background, FVB.Cg-*Smn1tm1HungTg(SMN2)2Hung/J*)SMA mice (40) and *Smn+/-;SMN2* healthy control littermates were carried out in the University of Oxford Biomedical Sciences Unit (BSU), in accordance with the UK Home Office authorisation (Animals Scientific Procedures Act (1986), UK Home Office Project Licence PDFEDC6F0).

The *Smn2B/-*SMA mouse model (69) was generated by breeding *Smn2B/2B*mice (generously provided by Dr Rashmi Kothary (University of Ottawa), Dr Lyndsay Murray (University of Edinburgh) and Professor Matthew Wood (University of Oxford) before being sent to Charles River for rederivation) with *Smn+/-*mice (B6.Cg-*Smn1/J*, stock #007963, Jackson Labs). All live procedures on wild type (WT) (C57BL/6 background), *Smn2B/-*SMA and *Smn2B/+*healthy littermates were performed in the Keele University BSU, in accordance with the UK Home Office authorisation (Animals Scientific Procedures Act (1986), UK Home Office Project Licence P99AB3B95).

For all behavioural experiments, body weights and righting reflex (115) (up to 30 seconds) were assessed daily from birth until animals reached their humane endpoint, defined in our UK Home Office Project Licence (P99AB3B95) as the time at which the animal displays hindlimb paralysis, immobility, inability to right (greater than 30 seconds), 4 consecutive days of weight loss and/or up to 20% body weight loss.

As previously described (27), prednisolone (5 mg tablet, Almus) (5 mg/kg dissolved in water) was administered every second day by gavage from post-natal day (P)0 to P7 in *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA and *Smn+/-;SMN2* healthy mice and from P0 to P20 in *Smn2B/-*SMA and *Smn2B/+*healthy mice. Metformin hydrochloride (#PHR1084, Sigma-Aldrich) was dissolved in 0.9% saline physiological solution (tablet dissolved in sterile water) (#07982, Sigma) and administered daily (200 or 400 mg/kg) by gavage from P5 to humane endpoint in *Smn2B/-*SMA, *Smn2B/+*healthy and WT mice. Oxandrolone (#SML0437, Sigma-Aldrich) was prepared in 0.5% carboxymethylcellulose (CMC) solution (powder dissolved in 0.9% saline solution) (#C5678, SLS) by sonication at 37 kHz for 3 minutes and administered (4 mg/kg) daily by gavage from P8 to P21 in *Smn2B/-*SMA, *Smn2B/+*healthy and WT mice.

**Blood-glucose measurement**

Blood was collected from non-fasted *Smn2B/-*SMA and *Smn2B/+*healthy mice and glucose levels were immediately measured (mmol/L) via True Metrix® GO Self-Monitoring Blood Glucose Meter (Trividia HealthTM) and True Metrix® Test Strips (Trividia HealthTM).

**RNA-Sequencing (RNA-Seq)**

Total RNA was extracted from triceps of symptomatic P7 untreated and prednisolone-treated Taiwanese *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA and *Smn+/-;SMN2* healthy mice (Table S1). The triceps were immediately placed in RNALater (#AM7030, ThermoFisher) following dissection and stored at -20oC under further analysis. For mRNA isolation, 500 ng of total RNA was used as input for the NEBNext® Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic Isolation Module’ (#E7490L, New England Biolabs (NEB)) in accordance with the manufacturer’s standard instruction. Library preparation was carried out using the NEBNext® Ultra Directional RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (#E7420L, NEB). Barcoded libraries from each experimental sample were combined in equimolar concentrations of 1.5 pM prior to sequencing at 75bp x 1 (single-end) read metric on a NextSeq 550 (Illumina) system.

**Differential gene expression analysis**

For the RNA-Seq data from the triceps of P7 untreated and prednisolone-treated Taiwanese *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA and *Smn+/-;SMN2* healthy mice (Table S1), differential gene expression (DGE) analysis was performed in Galaxy (usegalaxy.org) (116). After initial quality control assessments via FastQC v0.72+galaxy1 (117), we trimmed reads based on SLIDINGWINDOW of 4 bp at average quality read of 32 in Trimmomatic v0.36.5 (118) and trimmed the first 12 abnormal bases in Trim sequences v1.0.2 (119). After quality control confirmation with FastQC v0.72+galaxy1 (117) the processed 63 bp single-reads were aligned to an in-built UCSC *Mus musculus* mm10 genome via HISAT2 v2.1.0 (116,120) under a reverse (or antisense) strand setting. Count quantification of aligned single-reads to mapped coding genes was performed by FeatureCounts v1.6.3+galaxy2 (116,121) using an in-built Entrez *Mus musculus* mm10 gene transfer file (GTF) with known gene identifier set at *-exon* *level*. Mapping and count quantification was visualized through MultiQC v1.6 (122). For DGE analysis of our raw transcript counts, we used DESeq2 v2.11.40.2 (123) under the design formula of “Condition” (SMA vs Healthy) and “Treatment” (Untreated vs Prednisolone) after removal of 1 outlier (prednisolone-treated *Smn-/-;SMN2* sample N0603). We set differentially expressed gene (DEG) significance at log2 fold change (FC) > 0.6 and false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.05. The Entrez Gene IDs were translated to official *Mus musculus* gene symbols by AnnotatemyID v3.7.0 (116). The normalized count files generated by DESeq2 of prednisolone-treated Taiwanese *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice vs untreated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA and *Smn+/-;SMN2* healthy mice were generated into heatmaps by Heatmap2 v2.2.1+galaxy1 (116) under -*data log2 transformed* and scaled by *-row scale genes*.

**Pathway analysis and drug repositioning**

Pathway analysis of the prednisolone-treated vs untreated Taiwanese *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice was performed with iPathwayGuide (50) (Advaita) with default criteria of log2FC > 0.6 and FDR < 0.05 for DEGs. The impact analysis performed by iPathwayGuide incorporated our DEGs expression (log2FC) and its topological position in the KEGG pathway database (124) to calculate significantly impacted pathways *p* < 0.05 (KEGG v1910 Release 90.0+/05-29, May 19, GODb v1910 2019-Apr 26). Furthermore, overrepresentation analysis (125) (ORA) with elimination pruning (126) was performed for gene ontology (GO) pathways (127) and predicted upstream regulators (STRING v11.0, Jan 19th, 2019). Drug candidate identification was performed through an in-built KEGG drugs database (124) aligned to KEGG pathways in iPathwayGuide and by drug-gene interactions for upstream regulators in the Drug Gene Interaction Database (51) (DGIdb) v3.0.

**Molecular docking**

Ligands were modelled and optimized using LigPrep (2021-4, Schrödinger LLC, New York, NY) and MacroModel (2021-4, Schrödinger LLC, New York, NY) according to the OPLS4 (2021-4, Schrödinger LLC, New York, NY) forcefield parameters (128). Protein structures were downloaded from the RCSB databank (129) and prepared using the Protein Preparation Wizard (2021-4, Schrödinger LLC, New York, NY) (130), where redundant molecules are removed, hydrogen and missing heavy atoms were added, bond orders were assigned, water orientations were sampled, ionization and tautomeric states of certain residues are set. Restrained force field minimization was applied by converging heavy atoms to 3.0 Å and receptor grids were generated for the active sites. Molecular docking was performed using Glide (2021-4, Schrödinger LLC, New York, NY) at extra precision mode at 100 runs per each ligand-receptor complex (131).

Methodology was validated by a redocking of the co-crystallized ligand for each protein structure.

**C2C12 cell culture**

The immortalised murine C2C12 myoblast-like cell line (132) (#CRL-1772, ATCC, USA) was maintained in growth media comprised of high glucose (4.5 g/L) and L-glutamine (0.6 g/L) Dulbecco’s Modified Eagle’s Media (DMEM) (#BE12-741F, Lonza), 10% foetal bovine serum (FBS) (#10438026, Gibco), and 1% penicillin-streptomycin (10,000 U/ml) (#15140122, Gibco). C2C12 myoblasts were differentiated into myotubes in a differentiation media comprised of high glucose (4.5 g/L) and L-glutamine (0.6 g/L) DMEM (#BE12-741F, Lonza), 2% horse serum (HS) (#26050070, Gibco), 1% penicillin-streptomycin (10,000 U/ml) (#15140122, Gibco), and 0.1% insulin (1 μg/ml) (#I6634, Sigma) for 2–8 days with media replacement every 48 hours. All cultured cells were incubated in humid 37oC and 5% CO2 conditions (Heracell 150i CO2 incubator, ThermoScientific).

***In vitro*** **drug treatment**

Proliferating C2C12 myoblasts were seeded in 6-well plates (x4 wells per group). *In vitro* drug treatments began at 50-60% confluence for C2C12 myoblasts and D7 stage for C2C12 myotubes. For metformin groups, they were treated with metformin hydrochloride (#PHR1084, Sigma-Aldrich) dissolved in phosphate buffered saline (PBS), pH 7.4 (#10010023, ThermoFisher) at concentrations of 0.3, 0.6, 1 and 2 mM for 24 hours against a PBS control (0.1% v/v). For oxandrolone groups, they were treated with oxandrolone (#SML0437, Sigma-Aldrich) dissolved in ethanol absolute > 99.8% (#20821.296, VWR) at concentrations of 1, 10 and 100 μM for 24 hours against an ethanol absolute > 99.8% vehicle control (0.1% v/v).

**Lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) assay**

Drug cytotoxicity was measured by the lactate dehydrogenase (LDH)-GloTM Cytotoxicity Assay Kit (#J2380, Promega) following manufacturer’s instructions. Luminescence was measured at 400 nm using the GloMax® Explorer Multimode Microplate Reader (#GM3500, Promega).

**Bromodeoxyuridine (BrDU) cell proliferation assay**

Cell proliferation was measured by the Bromodeoxyuridine (BrDU) Cell Proliferation Assay Kit (#QIA58, Sigma-Aldrich) following manufacturer’s instructions. Absorbance was measured at 450 – 540 nm using the GloMax® Explorer Multimode Microplate Reader (#GM3500, Promega).

**Small interfering RNA-mediated *Smn* knockdown in C2C12 cells.**

A 10 μM *Smn* small interfering RNA (siRNA) (Duplex name: mm.RiSmn1.13.1) (Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT)) was used to knock down *Smn* levels against a 10 μM scrambled siRNA (scrambled DsiRNA, #51-01-19-08) (IDT) negative control. The *Smn* and scrambled siRNAs were aliquoted separately into an siRNA-lipofectamine complex containing Lipofectamine® RNAiMAX Reagent (#13778075, Invitrogen) and Opti-MEM (#31985062, Gibco) following manufacturer’s instructions. C2C12 myoblasts were transfected for 48 hours with *Smn* depletion, whilst C2C12 myotubes were freshly transfected at differentiation (D) stages D0, D3 and D6 for 48 hours with *Smn* depletion confirmed via quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) (Table S2).

**Serum starvation-induced canonical muscle atrophy in differentiated C2C12 myotubes**

Differentiated C2C12 myotubes were incubated in serum-free glucose (4.5 g/L) and L-glutamine (0.6 g/L) DMEM (#BE12-741F, Lonza) with 1% Penicillin-Streptomycin (10,000 U/ml) (#15140122, Gibco) for 24 hours. Atrophy was confirmed by upregulation of atrogenes *Atrogin-1* and *MuRF1* via qPCR (Table S2) and morphology via microscopy (Motic AE31E).

**RNA extraction and quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR)**

RNA extraction for C2C12 cells was performed with the ISOLATE II RNA Mini Kit (#BIO-52073, Meridian BIOSCIENCE) as per manufacturer’s instructions. Skeletal muscle (triceps and *Tibialis anterior* (TA)) and spinal cord tissue samples underwent homogenization with 7 mm stainless steel beads (#69990, Qiagen) in a Tissue Lyser LT (#85600, Qiagen) set at 60 oscillations/second for 2 minutes followed by microcentrifugation at >10,000 RCF (MSE Sanyo Hawk 15/05) for 1 minute. RNA extractions from harvested skeletal muscle was performed with the RNeasy Fibrous Tissue Kit (#74704, Qiagen) and all other harvested tissues with ISOLATE II RNA Mini Kit (#BIO-52073, Meridian BIOSCIENCE) as per manufacturer’s instructions. RNA concentrations (ng/μl) were measured with the NanoDrop 1000 spectrophotometer (ThermoScientific) before reverse transcription was performed using the qPCRBIO cDNA Synthesis Kit (#PB30.11-10, PCR Biosystems) as per manufacturer’s instructions.

The cDNA was then diluted by 1:5 in nuclease-free water (#10526945, ThermoFisher). qPCR was performed using 2x PCRBIO Sygreen Blue Mix Hi-ROX (#PB20.16-20, PCR Biosystems), nuclease-free water (#10526945, ThermoFisher) and 10 μM forward and reverse primers obtained from IDT (Table S2). The qPCR reactions were performed in the StepOnePlusTM Real-Time PCR System (ThermoScientific) with the following program: initial denaturation (95oC for 2 minutes), 40 cycles of 95 oC for 5 seconds and 60 oC for 30 seconds and ending with melt curve stage (95 oC for 15 seconds, 60 oC for 1 minutes and 95 oC for 15 seconds). Relative gene expression was quantified using the Pfaffl method (133) and referenced against the validated *RNA polymerase II polypeptide J* (*PolJ)* housekeeping gene (27,134) (Table S2). Primer efficiency was calculated using LinRegPCR V11.0 (135).

***Caenorhabditis elegans* drug treatments**

The *Caenorhabditis elegans* (*C. elegans*) SMA strains used in this study was LM99 *smn-1(ok355)I/hT2(I;III)*, which was segregated into homozygotes *smn-1(ok355)*, lethal homozygotes *hT2/hT2* and control heterozygotes *smn-1(ok355)I/hT2* (91). These animals were maintained at 20oC on Nematode Growth Medium (NGM) plates seeded with *Escherichia coli* OP50 bacteria (136). *C. elegans* were treated by mixing metformin hydrochloride (#PHR1084, Sigma-Aldrich) dissolved in water at concentrations of 0, 1, 10 and 50 mM and oxandrolone (#SML0437, Sigma-Aldrich) dissolved in DMSO at concentrations of 0, 1, 10 and 50 μM with NGM agar solution.

***Caenorhabditis elegans* neuromuscular assays**

Neuromuscular assays were performed on day 3 animals raised on plates containing the pertinent solvent or drug. The pharyngeal pumping assay was performed as previously described (93). Briefly, animals were filmed with a 150x objective using a AxioCam ICc5 camera at 175 frames/10sec on a Discovery.V8 SteREO microscope. Pumps were manually counted using the Zen Pro software v2.3. A pumping event was defined as a grinder movement in any axis. For locomotion assays animals were filmed with a 63x objective using a AxioCam ICc5 camara at 15 frames/sec on a Discovery.V8 SteREO microscope. Reversals, and paralysis time for 5 minutes (±SEM) were quantified using WormLab 1.1 software (MBF Bioscience). Final data represents three independent trials (n ≥ 25 animals in total per genotype).

**Statistical Analyses**

Statistical analyses were carried out using the most up to date GraphPad PRISM software. Prior to any analyses, outliers were identified via Grubb’s test (GraphPad) and subsequently removed. Appropriate statistical tests include unpaired t-test, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), and two-way ANOVA. Each post-hoc analyses used is noted in the respective figure legend. Kaplan-Meier survival curves were analysed with a log-rank test. Statistical significance was considered at *p* < 0.05, described in graphs as \**p* < 0.05, \*\**p* < 0.01, \*\*\**p* < 0.001 and \*\*\*\**p* < 0.0001.

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

We would like to thank the personnel at the Biomedical Sciences Unit at both Keele University and University of Oxford. Many thanks go to members of the Combined Inherited Neuromuscular Disorders meetings for helpful discussions. For the RNA-Sequencing we are grateful for the aid and resources of Research Core Unit Transcriptomics at Hannover Medical School. *C. elegans* strains were provided by the *Caenorhabditis elegans* consortium (CGC), which is funded by NIH Office of Research Infrastructure Programs (P40 OD010440). Research in the M.D. lab has been funded by the Wellcome Trust and Royal Society. A special thanks goes out to Advaita for their technical support of iPathwayGuide and to CureSMA, SMA Europe and the Biochemical Society, UK for providing podium presentation opportunities for preliminary data of this project. J.M.H. was funded by a Ph.D. studentship from the Keele University of School of Medicine. E.M. is supported by an Academy of Medical Sciences grant (SBF006/1162). E.R.S. was funded by a MDUK Ph.D. studentship (18GRO-PS48-0114). O.C. is supported by a Ph.D. studentship from the Republic of Türkiye Ministry of National Education. S.S. was funded by the Scientific and Technological Research Council of Türkiye TÜBITAK 2219 Program (Grant no: 1059B192200422). M.B. was funded by SMA Angels Charity. P.C. is supported by the Deutsche Muskelstiftung and the European Union’s Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under the Marie Sklodowska-Curie grant agreement No 956185.

**CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

**None to declare**

**DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

The datasets presented in this study can be found in the following online repository: NCBI BioProject, accession ID: PRJNA972323.

**AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

Conceptualization: J.M.H, M.B; Methodology: J.M.H, P.P.T, M.D, S.S., L.M.W, P.C, D.P.T & M.B; Formal Analysis: J.M.H, P.P.T, M.D, S.S., D.P.T & M.B; Investigation: J.M.H, E.M, E.R.S, O.C, P.P.T, M.D, S.S., M.O, L.M.W, P.C, & M.B; Software: J.M.H, S.S. & D.P.T; Visualization: J.M.H & S.S.; Resources: M.D, P.C, S.D, M.J.A.W, D.P.T & M.B; Writing – Original Draft: J.M.H & M.B; Writing – Review & Editing: J.M.H, E.M, E.R.S, O.C, P.P.T, M.D, S.S., G.J.M., M.O, L.M.W, P.C, S.D, M.J.A.W, D.P.T, & M.B; Supervision: G.J.M., D.P.T & M.B; Project Administration: M.B; Funding Acquisition: M.B

**REFERENCES**

1. Kolb, S.J. and Kissel, J.T. (2015) Spinal Muscular Atrophy. *Neurol. Clin.*, **33**, 831–846.

2. Wojcik, M.H., Schwartz, T.S., Thiele, K.E., Paterson, H., Stadelmaier, R., Mullen, T.E., VanNoy, G.E., Genetti, C.A., Madden, J.A., Gubbels, C.S., *et al.* (2019) Infant Mortality: the Contribution of Genetic Disorders. *J. Perinatol. Off. J. Calif. Perinat. Assoc.*, **39**, 1611–1619.

3. Lefebvre, S., Bürglen, L., Reboullet, S., Clermont, O., Burlet, P., Viollet, L., Benichou, B., Cruaud, C., Millasseau, P. and Zeviani, M. (1995) Identification and characterization of a spinal muscular atrophy-determining gene. *Cell*, **80**, 155–165.

4. Rodrigues, N.R., Owen, N., Talbot, K., Ignatius, J., Dubowitz, V. and Davies, K.E. (1995) Deletions in the survival motor neuron gene on 5q13 in autosomal recessive spinal muscular atrophy. *Hum. Mol. Genet.*, **4**, 631–634.

5. Coovert, D.D., Le, T.T., McAndrew, P.E., Strasswimmer, J., Crawford, T.O., Mendell, J.R., Coulson, S.E., Androphy, E.J., Prior, T.W. and Burghes, A.H. (1997) The survival motor neuron protein in spinal muscular atrophy. *Hum. Mol. Genet.*, **6**, 1205–1214.

6. Groen, E.J.N., Perenthaler, E., Courtney, N.L., Jordan, C.Y., Shorrock, H.K., van der Hoorn, D., Huang, Y.-T., Murray, L.M., Viero, G. and Gillingwater, T.H. (2018) Temporal and tissue-specific variability of SMN protein levels in mouse models of spinal muscular atrophy. *Hum. Mol. Genet.*, **27**, 2851–2862.

7. Singh, R.N., Howell, M.D., Ottesen, E.W. and Singh, N.N. (2017) Diverse role of Survival Motor Neuron Protein. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta*, **1860**, 299–315.

8. Schrank, B., Götz, R., Gunnersen, J.M., Ure, J.M., Toyka, K.V., Smith, A.G. and Sendtner, M. (1997) Inactivation of the survival motor neuron gene, a candidate gene for human spinal muscular atrophy, leads to massive cell death in early mouse embryos. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*, **94**, 9920–9925.

9. Monani, U.R., Sendtner, M., Coovert, D.D., Parsons, D.W., Andreassi, C., Le, T.T., Jablonka, S., Schrank, B., Rossoll, W., Rossol, W., *et al.* (2000) The human centromeric survival motor neuron gene (SMN2) rescues embryonic lethality in Smn(-/-) mice and results in a mouse with spinal muscular atrophy. *Hum. Mol. Genet.*, **9**, 333–339.

10. Rochette, C.F., Gilbert, N. and Simard, L.R. (2001) SMN gene duplication and the emergence of the SMN2 gene occurred in distinct hominids: SMN2 is unique to Homo sapiens. *Hum. Genet.*, **108**, 255–266.

11. Lorson, C.L., Hahnen, E., Androphy, E.J. and Wirth, B. (1999) A single nucleotide in the SMN gene regulates splicing and is responsible for spinal muscular atrophy. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*, **96**, 6307–6311.

12. Lefebvre, S., Burlet, P., Liu, Q., Bertrandy, S., Clermont, O., Munnich, A., Dreyfuss, G. and Melki, J. (1997) Correlation between severity and SMN protein level in spinal muscular atrophy. *Nat. Genet.*, **16**, 265–269.

13. Hua, Y., Vickers, T.A., Okunola, H.L., Bennett, C.F. and Krainer, A.R. (2008) Antisense Masking of an hnRNP A1/A2 Intronic Splicing Silencer Corrects SMN2 Splicing in Transgenic Mice. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.*, **82**, 834–848.

14. Finkel, R.S., Mercuri, E., Darras, B.T., Connolly, A.M., Kuntz, N.L., Kirschner, J., Chiriboga, C.A., Saito, K., Servais, L., Tizzano, E., *et al.* (2017) Nusinersen versus Sham Control in Infantile-Onset Spinal Muscular Atrophy. *N. Engl. J. Med.*, **377**, 1723–1732.

15. Poirier, A., Weetall, M., Heinig, K., Bucheli, F., Schoenlein, K., Alsenz, J., Bassett, S., Ullah, M., Senn, C., Ratni, H., *et al.* (2018) Risdiplam distributes and increases SMN protein in both the central nervous system and peripheral organs. *Pharmacol. Res. Perspect.*, **6**, e00447.

16. Servais, L., Baranello, G., Masson, R., Mazurkiewicz-Bełdzińska, M., Rose, K., Vlodavets, D., Xiong, H., Zanoteli, E., El-Khairi, M., Fuerst-Recktenwald, S., *et al.* (2020) FIREFISH Part 2: Efficacy and Safety of Risdiplam (RG7916) in Infants with Type 1 Spinal Muscular Atrophy (SMA) (1302). *Neurology*, **94**.

17. Al-Zaidy, S.A., Kolb, S.J., Lowes, L., Alfano, L.N., Shell, R., Church, K.R., Nagendran, S., Sproule, D.M., Feltner, D.E., Wells, C., *et al.* (2019) AVXS-101 (Onasemnogene Abeparvovec) for SMA1: Comparative Study with a Prospective Natural History Cohort. *J. Neuromuscul. Dis.*, **6**, 307–317.

18. Mendell, J.R., Al-Zaidy, S., Shell, R., Arnold, W.D., Rodino-Klapac, L.R., Prior, T.W., Lowes, L., Alfano, L., Berry, K., Church, K., *et al.* (2017) Single-Dose Gene-Replacement Therapy for Spinal Muscular Atrophy. *N. Engl. J. Med.*, **377**, 1713–1722.

19. Mercuri, E., Darras, B.T., Chiriboga, C.A., Day, J.W., Campbell, C., Connolly, A.M., Iannaccone, S.T., Kirschner, J., Kuntz, N.L., Saito, K., *et al.* (2018) Nusinersen versus Sham Control in Later-Onset Spinal Muscular Atrophy. *N. Engl. J. Med.*, **378**, 625–635.

20. Dangouloff, T. and Servais, L. (2019) Clinical Evidence Supporting Early Treatment Of Patients With Spinal Muscular Atrophy: Current Perspectives. *Ther. Clin. Risk Manag.*, **15**, 1153–1161.

21. Bowerman, M., Becker, C.G., Yáñez-Muñoz, R.J., Ning, K., Wood, M.J.A., Gillingwater, T.H., Talbot, K., and UK SMA Research Consortium (2017) Therapeutic strategies for spinal muscular atrophy: SMN and beyond. *Dis. Model. Mech.*, **10**, 943–954.

22. Martínez-Hernández, R., Bernal, S., Alias, L. and Tizzano, E.F. (2014) Abnormalities in early markers of muscle involvement support a delay in myogenesis in spinal muscular atrophy. *J. Neuropathol. Exp. Neurol.*, **73**, 559–567.

23. Hayhurst, M., Wagner, A.K., Cerletti, M., Wagers, A.J. and Rubin, L.L. (2012) A cell-autonomous defect in skeletal muscle satellite cells expressing low levels of survival of motor neuron protein. *Dev. Biol.*, **368**, 323–334.

24. Boyer, J.G., Murray, L.M., Scott, K., De Repentigny, Y., Renaud, J.-M. and Kothary, R. (2013) Early onset muscle weakness and disruption of muscle proteins in mouse models of spinal muscular atrophy. *Skelet. Muscle*, **3**, 24.

25. Stevens, L., Bastide, B., Maurage, C.A., Dupont, E., Montel, V., Cieniewski-Bernard, C., Cuisset, J.M., Vallée, L. and Mounier, Y. (2008) Childhood spinal muscular atrophy induces alterations in contractile and regulatory protein isoform expressions. *Neuropathol. Appl. Neurobiol.*, **34**, 659–670.

26. Martínez-Hernández, R., Soler-Botija, C., Also, E., Alias, L., Caselles, L., Gich, I., Bernal, S. and Tizzano, E.F. (2009) The developmental pattern of myotubes in spinal muscular atrophy indicates prenatal delay of muscle maturation. *J. Neuropathol. Exp. Neurol.*, **68**, 474–481.

27. Walter, L.M., Deguise, M.-O., Meijboom, K.E., Betts, C.A., Ahlskog, N., van Westering, T.L.E., Hazell, G., McFall, E., Kordala, A., Hammond, S.M., *et al.* (2018) Interventions Targeting Glucocorticoid-Krüppel-like Factor 15-Branched-Chain Amino Acid Signaling Improve Disease Phenotypes in Spinal Muscular Atrophy Mice. *EBioMedicine*, **31**, 226–242.

28. Place, A. (2020) A Phase 2 Study to Evaluate the Efficacy and Safety of SRK-015 in Patients with Later-Onset Spinal Muscular Atrophy (TOPAZ): An Introduction (4534). *Neurology*, **94**.

29. Rudnicki, S.A., Andrews, J.A., Duong, T., Cockroft, B.M., Malik, F.I., Meng, L., Wei, J., Wolff, A.A., Genge, A., Johnson, N.E., *et al.* (2021) Reldesemtiv in Patients with Spinal Muscular Atrophy: a Phase 2 Hypothesis-Generating Study. *Neurother. J. Am. Soc. Exp. Neurother.*, **18**, 1127–1136.

30. Dickson, M. and Gagnon, J.P. (2004) The cost of new drug discovery and development. *Discov. Med.*, **4**, 172–179.

31. Dangouloff, T., Botty, C., Beaudart, C., Servais, L. and Hiligsmann, M. (2021) Systematic literature review of the economic burden of spinal muscular atrophy and economic evaluations of treatments. *Orphanet J. Rare Dis.*, **16**, 47.

32. Talevi, A. and Bellera, C.L. (2020) Challenges and opportunities with drug repurposing: finding strategies to find alternative uses of therapeutics. *Expert Opin. Drug Discov.*, **15**, 397–401.

33. Cruz-Topete, D. and Cidlowski, J.A. (2015) One hormone, two actions: anti- and pro-inflammatory effects of glucocorticoids. *Neuroimmunomodulation*, **22**, 20–32.

34. Matthews, E., Brassington, R., Kuntzer, T., Jichi, F. and Manzur, A.Y. (2016) Corticosteroids for the treatment of Duchenne muscular dystrophy. *Cochrane Database Syst. Rev.*, CD003725.

35. Ricotti, V., Ridout, D.A., Scott, E., Quinlivan, R., Robb, S.A., Manzur, A.Y., Muntoni, F., and NorthStar Clinical Network (2013) Long-term benefits and adverse effects of intermittent versus daily glucocorticoids in boys with Duchenne muscular dystrophy. *J. Neurol. Neurosurg. Psychiatry*, **84**, 698–705.

36. McMillan, H.J. (2019) Intermittent glucocorticoid regimes for younger boys with duchenne muscular dystrophy: Balancing efficacy with side effects. *Muscle Nerve*, **59**, 638–639.

37. Morrison-Nozik, A., Anand, P., Zhu, H., Duan, Q., Sabeh, M., Prosdocimo, D.A., Lemieux, M.E., Nordsborg, N., Russell, A.P., MacRae, C.A., *et al.* (2015) Glucocorticoids enhance muscle endurance and ameliorate Duchenne muscular dystrophy through a defined metabolic program. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*, **112**, E6780–E6789.

38. Bulfield, G., Siller, W.G., Wight, P.A. and Moore, K.J. (1984) X chromosome-linked muscular dystrophy (mdx) in the mouse. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*, **81**, 1189–1192.

39. Oray, M., Abu Samra, K., Ebrahimiadib, N., Meese, H. and Foster, C.S. (2016) Long-term side effects of glucocorticoids. *Expert Opin. Drug Saf.*, **15**, 457–465.

40. Hsieh-Li, H.M., Chang, J.G., Jong, Y.J., Wu, M.H., Wang, N.M., Tsai, C.H. and Li, H. (2000) A mouse model for spinal muscular atrophy. *Nat. Genet.*, **24**, 66–70.

41. Le, T.T., Pham, L.T., Butchbach, M.E.R., Zhang, H.L., Monani, U.R., Coovert, D.D., Gavrilina, T.O., Xing, L., Bassell, G.J. and Burghes, A.H.M. (2005) SMNDelta7, the major product of the centromeric survival motor neuron (SMN2) gene, extends survival in mice with spinal muscular atrophy and associates with full-length SMN. *Hum. Mol. Genet.*, **14**, 845–857.

42. Meijboom, K.E., Volpato, V., Monzón-Sandoval, J., Hoolachan, J.M., Hammond, S.M., Abendroth, F., de Jong, O.G., Hazell, G., Ahlskog, N., Wood, M.J., *et al.* (2021) Combining multiomics and drug perturbation profiles to identify muscle-specific treatments for spinal muscular atrophy. *JCI Insight*, **6**, 149446.

43. Deguise, M.-O., Boyer, J.G., McFall, E.R., Yazdani, A., De Repentigny, Y. and Kothary, R. (2016) Differential induction of muscle atrophy pathways in two mouse models of spinal muscular atrophy. *Sci. Rep.*, **6**, 28846.

44. Simon, C.M., Dai, Y., Van Alstyne, M., Koutsioumpa, C., Pagiazitis, J.G., Chalif, J.I., Wang, X., Rabinowitz, J.E., Henderson, C.E., Pellizzoni, L., *et al.* (2017) Converging Mechanisms of p53 Activation Drive Motor Neuron Degeneration in Spinal Muscular Atrophy. *Cell Rep.*, **21**, 3767–3780.

45. Cerveró, C., Montull, N., Tarabal, O., Piedrafita, L., Esquerda, J.E. and Calderó, J. (2016) Chronic Treatment with the AMPK Agonist AICAR Prevents Skeletal Muscle Pathology but Fails to Improve Clinical Outcome in a Mouse Model of Severe Spinal Muscular Atrophy. *Neurother. J. Am. Soc. Exp. Neurother.*, **13**, 198–216.

46. Ripolone, M., Ronchi, D., Violano, R., Vallejo, D., Fagiolari, G., Barca, E., Lucchini, V., Colombo, I., Villa, L., Berardinelli, A., *et al.* (2015) Impaired Muscle Mitochondrial Biogenesis and Myogenesis in Spinal Muscular Atrophy. *JAMA Neurol.*, **72**, 666–675.

47. Walter, L.M., Koch, C.E., Betts, C.A., Ahlskog, N., Meijboom, K.E., van Westering, T.L.E., Hazell, G., Bhomra, A., Claus, P., Oster, H., *et al.* (2018) Light modulation ameliorates expression of circadian genes and disease progression in spinal muscular atrophy mice. *Hum. Mol. Genet.*, **27**, 3582–3597.

48. Ng, S.Y., Mikhail, A. and Ljubicic, V. (2019) Mechanisms of exercise-induced survival motor neuron expression in the skeletal muscle of spinal muscular atrophy-like mice. *J. Physiol.*, **597**, 4757–4778.

49. Sansa, A., Hidalgo, I., Miralles, M.P., de la Fuente, S., Perez-Garcia, M.J., Munell, F., Soler, R.M. and Garcera, A. (2021) Spinal Muscular Atrophy autophagy profile is tissue-dependent: differential regulation between muscle and motoneurons. *Acta Neuropathol. Commun.*, **9**, 122.

50. Ahsan, S. and Drăghici, S. (2017) Identifying Significantly Impacted Pathways and Putative Mechanisms with iPathwayGuide. *Curr. Protoc. Bioinforma.*, **57**, 7.15.1-7.15.30.

51. Cotto, K.C., Wagner, A.H., Feng, Y.-Y., Kiwala, S., Coffman, A.C., Spies, G., Wollam, A., Spies, N.C., Griffith, O.L. and Griffith, M. (2018) DGIdb 3.0: a redesign and expansion of the drug–gene interaction database. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **46**, D1068–D1073.

52. Pin, F., Couch, M.E. and Bonetto, A. (2018) Preservation of muscle mass as a strategy to reduce the toxic effects of cancer chemotherapy on body composition. *Curr. Opin. Support. Palliat. Care*, **12**, 420–426.

53. Farooq, F., Abadía-Molina, F., MacKenzie, D., Hadwen, J., Shamim, F., O’Reilly, S., Holcik, M. and MacKenzie, A. (2013) Celecoxib increases SMN and survival in a severe spinal muscular atrophy mouse model via p38 pathway activation. *Hum. Mol. Genet.*, **22**, 3415–3424.

54. Mack, S.G., Cook, D.J., Dhurjati, P. and Butchbach, M.E.R. (2014) Systems biology investigation of cAMP modulation to increase SMN levels for the treatment of spinal muscular atrophy. *PloS One*, **9**, e115473.

55. Rojas, L.B.A. and Gomes, M.B. (2013) Metformin: an old but still the best treatment for type 2 diabetes. *Diabetol. Metab. Syndr.*, **5**, 6.

56. Orr, R. and Fiatarone Singh, M. (2004) The anabolic androgenic steroid oxandrolone in the treatment of wasting and catabolic disorders: review of efficacy and safety. *Drugs*, **64**, 725–750.

57. Kjøbsted, R., Hingst, J.R., Fentz, J., Foretz, M., Sanz, M.-N., Pehmøller, C., Shum, M., Marette, A., Mounier, R., Treebak, J.T., *et al.* (2018) AMPK in skeletal muscle function and metabolism. *FASEB J.*, **32**, 1741–1777.

58. Soliman, A., De Sanctis, V., Alaaraj, N. and Hamed, N. (2020) The clinical application of metformin in children and adolescents: A short update. *Acta Bio Medica Atenei Parm.*, **91**, e2020086.

59. Hafner, P., Bonati, U., Klein, A., Rubino, D., Gocheva, V., Schmidt, S., Schroeder, J., Bernert, G., Laugel, V., Steinlin, M., *et al.* (2019) Effect of Combination l-Citrulline and Metformin Treatment on Motor Function in Patients With Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy: A Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA Netw. Open*, **2**, e1914171.

60. Fontes-Oliveira, C.C., M. Soares Oliveira, B., Körner, Z., M. Harandi, V. and Durbeej, M. (2018) Effects of metformin on congenital muscular dystrophy type 1A disease progression in mice: a gender impact study. *Sci. Rep.*, **8**, 16302.

61. Birk, J.B. and Wojtaszewski, J.F.P. (2006) Predominant α2/β2/γ3 AMPK activation during exercise in human skeletal muscle. *J. Physiol.*, **577**, 1021–1032.

62. Zhang, L., Zhang, Y., Zhou, M., Wang, S., Li, T., Hu, Z. and Jin, C. (2021) Role and mechanism underlying FoxO6 in skeletal muscle in vitro and in vivo. *Int. J. Mol. Med.*, **48**, 143.

63. Woschitz, V., Mei, I., Hedlund, E. and Murray, L.M. (2022) Mouse models of SMA show divergent patterns of neuronal vulnerability and resilience. *Skelet. Muscle*, **12**, 22.

64. Everaert, C., Luypaert, M., Maag, J.L.V., Cheng, Q.X., Dinger, M.E., Hellemans, J. and Mestdagh, P. (2017) Benchmarking of RNA-sequencing analysis workflows using whole-transcriptome RT-qPCR expression data. *Sci. Rep.*, **7**, 1559.

65. Shafey, D., Côté, P.D. and Kothary, R. (2005) Hypomorphic Smn knockdown C2C12 myoblasts reveal intrinsic defects in myoblast fusion and myotube morphology. *Exp. Cell Res.*, **311**, 49–61.

66. Millino, C., Fanin, M., Vettori, A., Laveder, P., Mostacciuolo, M.L., Angelini, C. and Lanfranchi, G. (2009) Different atrophy-hypertrophy transcription pathways in muscles affected by severe and mild spinal muscular atrophy. *BMC Med.*, **7**, 14.

67. Calura, E., Cagnin, S., Raffaello, A., Laveder, P., Lanfranchi, G. and Romualdi, C. (2008) Meta-analysis of expression signatures of muscle atrophy: gene interaction networks in early and late stages. *BMC Genomics*, **9**, 630.

68. Rivera, M.E., Lyon, E.S. and Vaughan, R.A. (2020) Effect of metformin on myotube BCAA catabolism. *J. Cell. Biochem.*, **121**, 816–827.

69. Bowerman, M., Murray, L.M., Beauvais, A., Pinheiro, B. and Kothary, R. (2012) A critical smn threshold in mice dictates onset of an intermediate spinal muscular atrophy phenotype associated with a distinct neuromuscular junction pathology. *Neuromuscul. Disord. NMD*, **22**, 263–276.

70. Bowerman, M., Swoboda, K.J., Michalski, J.-P., Wang, G.-S., Reeks, C., Beauvais, A., Murphy, K., Woulfe, J., Screaton, R.A., Scott, F.W., *et al.* (2012) Glucose Metabolism and Pancreatic Defects in Spinal Muscular Atrophy. *Ann. Neurol.*, **72**, 256–268.

71. Deguise, M.-O., Baranello, G., Mastella, C., Beauvais, A., Michaud, J., Leone, A., De Amicis, R., Battezzati, A., Dunham, C., Selby, K., *et al.* (2019) Abnormal fatty acid metabolism is a core component of spinal muscular atrophy. *Ann. Clin. Transl. Neurol.*, **6**, 1519–1532.

72. Boyer, J.G., Deguise, M.-O., Murray, L.M., Yazdani, A., De Repentigny, Y., Boudreau-Larivière, C. and Kothary, R. (2014) Myogenic program dysregulation is contributory to disease pathogenesis in spinal muscular atrophy. *Hum. Mol. Genet.*, **23**, 4249–4259.

73. Bruce, A.K., Jacobsen, E., Dossing, H. and Kondrup, J. (1995) Hypoglycaemia in spinal muscular atrophy. *Lancet Lond. Engl.*, **346**, 609–610.

74. Djordjevic, S.A., Milic-Rasic, V., Brankovic, V., Kosac, A., Dejanovic-Djordjevic, I., Markovic-Denic, L., Djuricic, G., Milcanovic, N., Kovacevic, S., Petrovic, H., *et al.* (2021) Glucose and lipid metabolism disorders in children and adolescents with spinal muscular atrophy types 2 and 3. *Neuromuscul. Disord. NMD*, **31**, 291–299.

75. Birnbaum, M.J. (1989) Identification of a novel gene encoding an insulin-responsive glucose transporter protein. *Cell*, **57**, 305–315.

76. DeWaal, D., Nogueira, V., Terry, A.R., Patra, K.C., Jeon, S.-M., Guzman, G., Au, J., Long, C.P., Antoniewicz, M.R. and Hay, N. (2018) Hexokinase-2 depletion inhibits glycolysis and induces oxidative phosphorylation in hepatocellular carcinoma and sensitizes to metformin. *Nat. Commun.*, **9**, 446.

77. Owen, M.R., Doran, E. and Halestrap, A.P. (2000) Evidence that metformin exerts its anti-diabetic effects through inhibition of complex 1 of the mitochondrial respiratory chain. *Biochem. J.*, **348 Pt 3**, 607–614.

78. Graham, G.G., Punt, J., Arora, M., Day, R.O., Doogue, M.P., Duong, J.K., Furlong, T.J., Greenfield, J.R., Greenup, L.C., Kirkpatrick, C.M., *et al.* (2011) Clinical pharmacokinetics of metformin. *Clin. Pharmacokinet.*, **50**, 81–98.

79. Łabuzek, K., Suchy, D., Gabryel, B., Bielecka, A., Liber, S. and Okopień, B. (2010) Quantification of metformin by the HPLC method in brain regions, cerebrospinal fluid and plasma of rats treated with lipopolysaccharide. *Pharmacol. Rep. PR*, **62**, 956–965.

80. Singh, J., Olle, B., Suhail, H., Felicella, M.M. and Giri, S. (2016) Metformin-induced mitochondrial function and ABCD2 up-regulation in X-linked adrenoleukodystrophy involves AMP-activated protein kinase. *J. Neurochem.*, **138**, 86–100.

81. Fenichel, G., Pestronk, A., Florence, J., Robison, V. and Hemelt, V. (1997) A beneficial effect of oxandrolone in the treatment of Duchenne muscular dystrophy: a pilot study. *Neurology*, **48**, 1225–1226.

82. Hart, D.W., Wolf, S.E., Ramzy, P.I., Chinkes, D.L., Beauford, R.B., Ferrando, A.A., Wolfe, R.R. and Herndon, D.N. (2001) Anabolic Effects of Oxandrolone After Severe Burn. *Ann. Surg.*, **233**, 556–564.

83. Ren, H., Yin, P. and Duan, C. (2008) IGFBP-5 regulates muscle cell differentiation by binding to IGF-II and switching on the IGF-II auto-regulation loop. *J. Cell Biol.*, **182**, 979–991.

84. Ganassi, M., Badodi, S., Wanders, K., Zammit, P.S. and Hughes, S.M. (2020) Myogenin is an essential regulator of adult myofibre growth and muscle stem cell homeostasis. *eLife*, **9**, e60445.

85. Cai, D., Dhe-Paganon, S., Melendez, P.A., Lee, J. and Shoelson, S.E. (2003) Two new substrates in insulin signaling, IRS5/DOK4 and IRS6/DOK5. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **278**, 25323–25330.

86. Lee, S.-W., Won, J.-Y., Yang, J., Lee, J., Kim, S.-Y., Lee, E.J. and Kim, H.-S. (2015) AKAP6 inhibition impairs myoblast differentiation and muscle regeneration: Positive loop between AKAP6 and myogenin. *Sci. Rep.*, **5**, 16523.

87. Wu, Y., Zhao, W., Zhao, J., Zhang, Y., Qin, W., Pan, J., Bauman, W.A., Blitzer, R.D. and Cardozo, C. (2010) REDD1 is a major target of testosterone action in preventing dexamethasone-induced muscle loss. *Endocrinology*, **151**, 1050–1059.

88. Mirza, K.A., Pereira, S.L., Edens, N.K. and Tisdale, M.J. (2014) Attenuation of muscle wasting in murine C2C 12 myotubes by epigallocatechin-3-gallate. *J. Cachexia Sarcopenia Muscle*, **5**, 339–345.

89. Zeman, R.J., Bauman, W.A., Wen, X., Ouyang, N., Etlinger, J.D. and Cardozo, C.P. (2009) Improved functional recovery with oxandrolone after spinal cord injury in rats. *NeuroReport*, **20**, 864–868.

90. Ahmad, A., Herndon, D.N. and Szabo, C. (2019) Oxandrolone protects against the development of multiorgan failure, modulates the systemic inflammatory response and promotes wound healing during burn injury. *Burns J. Int. Soc. Burn Inj.*, **45**, 671–681.

91. Briese, M., Esmaeili, B., Fraboulet, S., Burt, E.C., Christodoulou, S., Towers, P.R., Davies, K.E. and Sattelle, D.B. (2009) Deletion of smn-1, the Caenorhabditis elegans ortholog of the spinal muscular atrophy gene, results in locomotor dysfunction and reduced lifespan. *Hum. Mol. Genet.*, **18**, 97–104.

92. Bertrandy, S., Burlet, P., Clermont, O., Huber, C., Fondrat, C., Thierry-Mieg, D., Munnich, A. and Lefebvre, S. (1999) The RNA-Binding Properties of SMN: Deletion Analysis of the Zebrafish Orthologue Defines Domains Conserved in Evolution. *Hum. Mol. Genet.*, **8**, 775–782.

93. Dimitriadi, M., Derdowski, A., Kalloo, G., Maginnis, M.S., O’Hern, P., Bliska, B., Sorkaç, A., Nguyen, K.C.Q., Cook, S.J., Poulogiannis, G., *et al.* (2016) Decreased function of survival motor neuron protein impairs endocytic pathways. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*, **113**, E4377-4386.

94. Nilsson, E.C., Long, Y.C., Martinsson, S., Glund, S., Garcia-Roves, P., Svensson, L.T., Andersson, L., Zierath, J.R. and Mahlapuu, M. (2006) Opposite transcriptional regulation in skeletal muscle of AMP-activated protein kinase gamma3 R225Q transgenic versus knock-out mice. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **281**, 7244–7252.

95. Barnes, B.R., Long, Y.C., Steiler, T.L., Leng, Y., Galuska, D., Wojtaszewski, J.F.P., Andersson, L. and Zierath, J.R. (2005) Changes in exercise-induced gene expression in 5’-AMP-activated protein kinase gamma3-null and gamma3 R225Q transgenic mice. *Diabetes*, **54**, 3484–3489.

96. Marangos, P.J., Loftus, T., Wiesner, J., Lowe, T., Rossi, E., Browne, C.E. and Gruber, H.E. (1990) Adenosinergic Modulation of Homocysteine-Induced Seizures in Mice. *Epilepsia*, **31**, 239–246.

97. Corton, J.M., Gillespie, J.G., Hawley, S.A. and Hardie, D.G. (1995) 5-aminoimidazole-4-carboxamide ribonucleoside. A specific method for activating AMP-activated protein kinase in intact cells? *Eur. J. Biochem.*, **229**, 558–565.

98. Xiao, B., Heath, R., Saiu, P., Leiper, F.C., Leone, P., Jing, C., Walker, P.A., Haire, L., Eccleston, J.F., Davis, C.T., *et al.* (2007) Structural basis for AMP binding to mammalian AMP-activated protein kinase. *Nature*, **449**, 496–500.

99. Thelen, M.P., Wirth, B. and Kye, M.J. (2020) Mitochondrial defects in the respiratory complex I contribute to impaired translational initiation via ROS and energy homeostasis in SMA motor neurons. *Acta Neuropathol. Commun.*, **8**, 223.

100. Borkowska, A., Jankowska, A., Szlagatys-Sidorkiewicz, A., Sztangierska, B., Liberek, A., Plata-Nazar, K. and Kamińska, B. (2015) Coexistence of type 1 diabetes mellitus and spinal muscular atrophy in an 8-year-old girl: a case report. *Acta Biochim. Pol.*, **62**, 167–168.

101. Hossain, S. and Chao, J. (2019) MON-154 Abnormal Glucose Homeostasis in Spinal Muscular Atrophy (SMA) Leading to a Transient Episode of Diabetic Ketoacidosis (DKA). *J. Endocr. Soc.*, **3**, MON-154.

102. Sun, J., Harrington, M.A. and Porter, B. (2023) Sex Difference in Spinal Muscular Atrophy Patients – are Males More Vulnerable? *J. Neuromuscul. Dis.*, **10**, 847–867.

103. MacLean, H.E., Chiu, W.S.M., Notini, A.J., Axell, A.-M., Davey, R.A., McManus, J.F., Ma, C., Plant, D.R., Lynch, G.S. and Zajac, J.D. (2008) Impaired skeletal muscle development and function in male, but not female, genomic androgen receptor knockout mice. *FASEB J. Off. Publ. Fed. Am. Soc. Exp. Biol.*, **22**, 2676–2689.

104. Morton, R.W., Sato, K., Gallaugher, M.P.B., Oikawa, S.Y., McNicholas, P.D., Fujita, S. and Phillips, S.M. (2018) Muscle Androgen Receptor Content but Not Systemic Hormones Is Associated With Resistance Training-Induced Skeletal Muscle Hypertrophy in Healthy, Young Men. *Front. Physiol.*, **9**.

105. Liu, Y., Beyer, A. and Aebersold, R. (2016) On the Dependency of Cellular Protein Levels on mRNA Abundance. *Cell*, **165**, 535–550.

106. Knorre, D.G., Kudryashova, N.V. and Godovikova, T.S. (2009) Chemical and functional aspects of posttranslational modification of proteins. *Acta Naturae*, **1**, 29–51.

107. Kessler, T., Latzer, P., Schmid, D., Warnken, U., Saffari, A., Ziegler, A., Kollmer, J., Möhlenbruch, M., Ulfert, C., Herweh, C., *et al.* (2020) Cerebrospinal fluid proteomic profiling in nusinersen-treated patients with spinal muscular atrophy. *J. Neurochem.*, **153**, 650–661.

108. Gardell, S.J., Zhang, X., Kapoor, N., Petucci, C. and Coen, P.M. (2019) Metabolomics Analyses of Muscle Atrophy Induced by Hind Limb Unloading. *Methods Mol. Biol. Clifton NJ*, **1996**, 297–309.

109. Finkel, R.S., Crawford, T.O., Swoboda, K.J., Kaufmann, P., Juhasz, P., Li, X., Guo, Y., Li, R.H., Trachtenberg, F., Forrest, S.J., *et al.* (2012) Candidate proteins, metabolites and transcripts in the Biomarkers for Spinal Muscular Atrophy (BforSMA) clinical study. *PloS One*, **7**, e35462.

110. De Micheli, A.J., Spector, J.A., Elemento, O. and Cosgrove, B.D. (2020) A reference single-cell transcriptomic atlas of human skeletal muscle tissue reveals bifurcated muscle stem cell populations. *Skelet. Muscle*, **10**, 19.

111. Williams, K., Yokomori, K. and Mortazavi, A. (2022) Heterogeneous Skeletal Muscle Cell and Nucleus Populations Identified by Single-Cell and Single-Nucleus Resolution Transcriptome Assays. *Front. Genet.*, **13**.

112. Habets, L.E., Bartels, B., Asselman, F.-L., Hooijmans, M.T., van den Berg, S., Nederveen, A.J., van der Pol, W.L. and Jeneson, J.A.L. (2022) Magnetic resonance reveals mitochondrial dysfunction and muscle remodelling in spinal muscular atrophy. *Brain*, **145**, 1422–1435.

113. Saleh, K.K., Xi, H., Switzler, C., Skuratovsky, E., Romero, M.A., Chien, P., Gibbs, D., Gane, L., Hicks, M.R., Spencer, M.J., *et al.* (2022) Single cell sequencing maps skeletal muscle cellular diversity as disease severity increases in dystrophic mouse models. *iScience*, **25**, 105415.

114. Chemello, F., Wang, Z., Li, H., McAnally, J.R., Liu, N., Bassel-Duby, R. and Olson, E.N. (2020) Degenerative and regenerative pathways underlying Duchenne muscular dystrophy revealed by single-nucleus RNA sequencing. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*, **117**, 29691–29701.

115. Nguyen, A.T., Armstrong, E.A. and Yager, J.Y. (2017) Neurodevelopmental Reflex Testing in Neonatal Rat Pups. *J. Vis. Exp. JoVE*, 55261.

116. Afgan, E., Baker, D., Batut, B., van den Beek, M., Bouvier, D., Cech, M., Chilton, J., Clements, D., Coraor, N., Grüning, B.A., *et al.* (2018) The Galaxy platform for accessible, reproducible and collaborative biomedical analyses: 2018 update. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **46**, W537–W544.

117. Babraham Bioinformatics - FastQC A Quality Control tool for High Throughput Sequence Data https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/ (accessed Apr 25, 2022).

118. Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina sequence data | Bioinformatics | Oxford Academic https://academic.oup.com/bioinformatics/article/30/15/2114/2390096 (accessed Apr 25, 2022).

119. FASTX-Toolkit http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx\_toolkit/ (accessed Apr 25, 2022).

120. Kim, D., Paggi, J.M., Park, C., Bennett, C. and Salzberg, S.L. (2019) Graph-based genome alignment and genotyping with HISAT2 and HISAT-genotype. *Nat. Biotechnol.*, **37**, 907–915.

121. Liao, Y., Smyth, G.K. and Shi, W. (2014) featureCounts: an efficient general purpose program for assigning sequence reads to genomic features. *Bioinforma. Oxf. Engl.*, **30**, 923–930.

122. Ewels, P., Magnusson, M., Lundin, S. and Käller, M. (2016) MultiQC: summarize analysis results for multiple tools and samples in a single report. *Bioinformatics*, **32**, 3047–3048.

123. Love, M.I., Huber, W. and Anders, S. (2014) Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol.*, **15**, 550.

124. Kanehisa, M., Furumichi, M., Tanabe, M., Sato, Y. and Morishima, K. (2017) KEGG: new perspectives on genomes, pathways, diseases and drugs. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **45**, D353–D361.

125. Draghici, S., Khatri, P., Martins, R.P., Ostermeier, G.C. and Krawetz, S.A. (2003) Global functional profiling of gene expression. *Genomics*, **81**, 98–104.

126. Jantzen, S.G., Sutherland, B.J., Minkley, D.R. and Koop, B.F. (2011) GO Trimming: Systematically reducing redundancy in large Gene Ontology datasets. *BMC Res. Notes*, **4**, 267.

127. The Gene Ontology Consortium (2019) The Gene Ontology Resource: 20 years and still GOing strong. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **47**, D330–D338.

128. Lu, C., Wu, C., Ghoreishi, D., Chen, W., Wang, L., Damm, W., Ross, G.A., Dahlgren, M.K., Russell, E., Von Bargen, C.D., *et al.* (2021) OPLS4: Improving Force Field Accuracy on Challenging Regimes of Chemical Space. *J. Chem. Theory Comput.*, **17**, 4291–4300.

129. Berman, H.M., Westbrook, J., Feng, Z., Gilliland, G., Bhat, T.N., Weissig, H., Shindyalov, I.N. and Bourne, P.E. (2000) The Protein Data Bank. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **28**, 235–242.

130. Sastry, G.M., Adzhigirey, M., Day, T., Annabhimoju, R. and Sherman, W. (2013) Protein and ligand preparation: parameters, protocols, and influence on virtual screening enrichments. *J. Comput. Aided Mol. Des.*, **27**, 221–234.

131. Friesner, R.A., Murphy, R.B., Repasky, M.P., Frye, L.L., Greenwood, J.R., Halgren, T.A., Sanschagrin, P.C. and Mainz, D.T. (2006) Extra Precision Glide:  Docking and Scoring Incorporating a Model of Hydrophobic Enclosure for Protein−Ligand Complexes. *J. Med. Chem.*, **49**, 6177–6196.

132. Yaffe, D. and Saxel, O. (1977) Serial passaging and differentiation of myogenic cells isolated from dystrophic mouse muscle. *Nature*, **270**, 725–727.

133. Pfaffl, M.W. (2001) A new mathematical model for relative quantification in real-time RT–PCR. *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **29**, e45.

134. Radonić, A., Thulke, S., Mackay, I.M., Landt, O., Siegert, W. and Nitsche, A. (2004) Guideline to reference gene selection for quantitative real-time PCR. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.*, **313**, 856–862.

135. Untergasser, A., Ruijter, J.M., Benes, V. and van den Hoff, M.J.B. (2021) Web-based LinRegPCR: application for the visualization and analysis of (RT)-qPCR amplification and melting data. *BMC Bioinformatics*, **22**, 398.

136. Brenner, S. (1974) The genetics of Caenorhabditis elegans. *Genetics*, **77**, 71–94.

**FIGURE LEGENDS**

**Figure 1. Graphical representation of the study aimed at using a transcriptomics-based drug repositioning strategy to predict and validate drug candidates that emulate prednisolone’s activity in SMA skeletal muscle.**

(**1**) 5 mg/kg prednisolone was administered was administered to *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice and *Smn+/-;SMN2* healthy control animals every other day from post-natal day (P) 0 to P7. (**2**) Total RNA was extracted from the triceps of prednisolone- and untreated SMA mice and *Smn+/-;SMN2* healthy control animals and underwent library preparation for next generation sequencing against *Mus musculus* mm10 genome using Illumina NextSeq 550. (**3**) The RNA-Sequencing (RNA-Seq) reads initially underwent QC analysis via FASTQC prior to a transcriptomics pipeline of mm10 *Mus musculus* genome alignment (HISAT2), read count quantification (FeatureCounts) and differential gene expression analysis (DESeq2) to generate differentially expressed genes.(**4**) The differential gene expression patterns between prednisolone-treated vs untreated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA triceps was used to identify significant pathways targeted by prednisolone (iPathwayGuide). Both differentially expressed genes and significant pathways were used to predict clinically approved drug candidates from online databases (iPathwayGuide, KEGG Drugs and Drug gene interaction database (DGIdb)) that emulate prednisolone’s activity in skeletal muscle of SMA mice. (**5**) The activity and safety of predicted drug candidates of interest and their target genes were then assessed in both *in vivo* (*Smn2B/-* SMA mice and *Caenorhabditis elegans* *smn-1 (ok355)*) and *in vitro* (C2C12 muscle-like cells) models. This figure was generated in BioRender.

**Figure 2. Prednisolone treatment normalizes a subset of genes in severe *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice to healthy levels observed in untreated *Smn+/-;SMN2* mice.**

*Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA and *Smn+/-;SMN2* healthy mice received prednisolone treatment (5 mg/kg gavage every 2 days) from P0. The triceps was harvested from P7 untreated and prednisolone-treated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA and *Smn+/-;SMN2* healthy mice for RNA isolation and library preparation for RNA-Sequencing. Differential gene expression analysis was performed by DESeq2 v2.11.40.2 with study design set to “condition and “treatment”. (**a)** Principal component analysis based on transcriptomic profiles between P7 untreated *Smn+/-;SMN2* (red, n=3), prednisolone-treated *Smn-/-;SMN2* (green, n=2) and untreated *Smn-/-;SMN2* (blue, n=3) mice. **(b)** Heatmap of the transcriptomic expression profiles (Log2FC >0.6; FDR <0.05) between P7 untreated *Smn+/-;SMN2* (n=3, left), untreated *Smn-/-;SMN2* (n=3, centre) and prednisolone-treated *Smn-/-;SMN2* (n=3, right) mice. Upregulated genes highlighted in red and downregulated genes highlighted in blue.

**Figure 3. Molecular docking predicted binding of metformin and oxandrolone to their targets of interest.**

**a** Binding of the co-crystallized Prkag1 activator (green) and the predicted alternative binding modes of metformin (orange) in Prkag1 active site. **b**. Binding of the co-crystallized testosterone (green) and the predicted binding of oxandrolone in the androgen receptor (AR) active site. Ligands are shown in colour ball-and-stick representation with molecular surface rendered, amino acid residues as grey sticks and binding interactions as colour dashed-lines.

**Figure 4. The metformin target gene, *Prkag3,* is significantly downregulated in the skeletal muscle of both symptomatic severe *Smn-/-;SMN2* and intermediate *Smn2B/-*SMA mice.**

qPCR analysis of mRNA levels for predicted metformin target genes **a.** *Prkag3*, **b.** *Foxo1*, **c.** *Foxo3*, **d.** *Foxo4* and **e.** *Foxo6* in the harvested triceps of symptomatic untreated P7 Taiwanese *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice (violet) and healthy *Smn+/-;SMN2* controls (black) (left panel) and symptomatic untreated P19 intermediate *Smn2B/-*SMA mice (blue) and wild type (C57BL/6J background) controls (black) (rightpanel). Data are shown as scatter plot represent as mean ± SEM error bars; n = 4-7 animals per experimental group, unpaired t-test, \**p* <0.05. *Smn-/-;SMN2* *Prkag3*: *p* = 0.04; *Smn-/-;SMN2* *Foxo1*: *p* = 0.82; *Smn-/-;SMN2* *Foxo3*: *p* = 0.54; *Smn-/-;SMN2* *Foxo4*: *p* = 0.37; *Smn-/-;SMN2* *Foxo6*: *p* = 0.34; *Smn2B/-**Prkag3*: *p* = 0.02; *Smn2B/-**Foxo1*: *p* = 0.39; *Smn2B/-**Foxo3*: *p* = 0.27; *Smn2B/-**Foxo4*: p = 0.48; *Smn2B/-**Foxo6*: *p* = 0.33.

**Figure 5. Metformin target genes are pre-dominantly SMN-independent in an SMA muscle C2C12 cellular model.**

*Smn* siRNA knockdown (red) was performed for **a.** 48 hours in C2C12 myoblasts and **b.** every 48 hours throughout differentiation in D8 C2C12 myotubes. mRNA expression of metformin target genes *Prkag3*, *Foxo1*, *Foxo3*, *Foxo4* and *Foxo6* was measured by qPCR and compared to non-transfected (black) and scrambled siRNA transfected controls (blue). D8 C2C12 myotubes were serum-starved for 24 hours to induce canonical atrophy (red). mRNA expression of **c.** atrogenes *Atrogin-1* and *MuRF-1* and **d.** Metformin target genes *Prkag3*, *Foxo1*, *Foxo3*, *Foxo4* and *Foxo6* was measured by qPCR and compared against non-starved myotubes (black). Serum-starved D8 C2C12 myotubes were treated with either physiological 30 μM metformin (red) or supraphysiological 2 mM metformin (blue) for 24 hours to evaluate mRNA expression via qPCR of **e.** atrogenes *Atrogin-1* and *MuRF-1* and **f.** Metformin target genes *Prkag3*, *Foxo1*, *Foxo3*, *Foxo4* and *Foxo6* compared to serum-starved PBS vehicle treated control (black). Data are shown as scatter plot that represent mean ± SEM error bars; n = 4 samples per group across two independent experiments. Two-way ANOVA followed by uncorrected Fisher’s least significant difference (LSD). F = 3.543 (**a.**); F = 2.332 (**b.**); F = 4.9 (**c.**); F = 3.493 (**d.**); F = 0.057 (**e.**); F = 0.235 (**f.**); F = 0.401, \**p* < 0.05, \*\**p* < 0.01, \*\*\**p* < 0.001.

**Figure 6. 200 mg/kg/day metformin does not improve disease phenotype, while 400 mg/kg/day metformin reduces survival.**

All treated animals received a daily dose of metformin (either 200 or 400 mg/kg/day, diluted in 0.9% saline) by gavage starting at P5. **a.** Survival curves of untreated (n = 13, 21 days median survival, black) and 200 mg/kg/day metformin-treated (n = 11, 21 days median survival, red) *Smn2B/-* SMA mice. Kaplan-Meier survival curve shown with log rank (Mantel-Cox) test, ns = not significant, *p* = 0.237. **b.** Daily weights of untreated (n = 13, black) and 200 mg/kg/day metformin-treated (n = 11, red) *Smn2B/-* SMA mice. Data represented as mean ± SEM error bars; Two-way ANOVA followed by a Sidak’s multiple comparison test, F = 402.1, df = 455, \**p* < 0.05, \*\**p* < 0.01, \*\*\**p* < 0.001, \*\*\*\**p* < 0.0001. **c.** Daily righting reflex test for motor function activity up to a 30 second maximum time point in untreated (n = 13, black) and 200 mg/kg/day metformin-treated (n = 11, red) *Smn2B/-* SMA mice. Data are shown as bar chart with mean ± SEM error bars; unpaired T-test, ns = not significant, *p* = 0.833**. d.** Survival curves of untreated (n = 13, 21 days median survival, black) and 400 mg/kg/day metformin-treated (n = 4, 16 days median survival, blue) *Smn2B/-* SMA mice. Kaplan-Meier survival curve shown with log rank (Mantel-Cox) test, \*\*\*\**p* < 0.0001. **e.** Daily weights of untreated (n = 13, black) and 400 mg/kg/day metformin-treated (n = 9, blue) *Smn2B/-* SMA mice. Data represented as mean ± SEM error bars; Two-way ANOVA followed by a Sidak’s multiple comparison test, F = 184.9.1, df = 300. **f.** Daily righting reflex test for motor function activity up to a 30 second maximum time point in untreated (n = 13, black) and 400 mg/kg/day metformin-treated (n = 9, blue) *Smn2B/-* SMA mice. Data are shown as bar chart with mean ± SEM error bars; unpaired T-test, ns = not significant, *p* = 0.733**.**

**Figure 7. 400 mg/kg/day metformin significantly lowers blood-glucose levels in *Smn2B/-*SMA mice, with no impact on markers of atrophy, glucose metabolism and mitochondrial regulation in skeletal muscle.**

**a.** Blood-glucose concentrations (mmol/L) were measured 2 hours after final treatment from untreated (black) and 200 (red) or 400 mg/kg/day metformin-treated (blue), non-fasted P14 *Smn2B/+*healthy and *Smn2B/-*SMA mice. Data represented as bar chart with scatter graph represented as mean ± SEM error bars, n = 4 animals per group; two-way ANOVA with Tukey’s multiple comparisons test, F = 25.49, \* *p* <0.05. qPCR analysis of predicted metformin target genes **b.** *Prkag3*, **c.** *Foxo1*, **d.** *Foxo3*, **e.** *Foxo4*, **f.** *Foxo6*; atrogenes **g.** *Atrogin-1*, **h.** *MuRF1*; and glucose uptake and metabolism genes **i.** *Glut4*, **j.** *Hk2*; and mitochondrial regulatory genes **k.** *Pgc1-α,* **l.** *Tfam,* **m.** *Ndufs1* and **n.** *Nrf1* in the TA muscle from untreated and 200 or 400 mg/kg/day metformin-treated, P14 *Smn2B/+*healthy and *Smn2B/-*SMA mice. Data are shown as scatter graph represented as mean ± SEM error bars, n = 4 animals per group; two way ANOVA with Tukey’s multiple comparisons test, *Prkag3* (F = 59.92), *Foxo1* (F = 1.507), *Foxo3* (F = 0.343), *Foxo4* (F = 6.475), *Foxo6* (F = 0.024), *Atrogin-1* (F = 0.381), *MuRF1* (F = 7.838), *Glut4* (F = 9.9), *Hk2* (F = 17.78), *Pgc1-α* (F = 29.84), *Tfam* (F = 0.423) *Ndufs1* (F = 22.66), and *Nrf1* (F = 0.164).

**Figure 8. 400 mg/kg/day metformin dysregulates mitochondrial regulatory genes exclusively in spinal cord tissue from Smn*2B/-* SMA mice.**

qPCR analysis of mitochondrial regulatory genes **a.** *Pgc1-α,* **b.** *Ndufs1,* **c.** *Nrf1* and **d.** *Tfam* in the spinal cord from untreated (black) and 200 (red) or 400 mg/kg/day metformin-treated (blue), P14 *Smn2B/+*healthy and *Smn2B/-*SMA mice. Data are shown as scatter graph represented as mean ± SEM error bars, n = 4 animals per group; two-way ANOVA with Tukey’s multiple comparisons test. **a.** *Pgc1-α* (F = 1.526), **b.** *Ndufs1* (F = 1.135), **c.** *Nrf1* (F = 0.362) and **d.** *Tfam* (F = 0.614), \**p* < 0.05, \*\**p* < 0.01.

**Figure 9. The oxandrolone target gene, *Ddit4*, is significantly upregulated in the skeletal muscle of severe *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice.**

qPCR analysis of mRNA levels for predicted oxandrolone target genes **a.** *Ar*, **b.** *Akap6*, **c.** *Igfbp5*, **d.** *Dok5,* **e.** *MyoG* and **f.** *Ddit4* in the harvested triceps of untreated P7 Taiwanese *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice (violet) and healthy *Smn+/-;SMN2* controls (black) (left panel) and symptomatic untreated P19 intermediate *Smn2B/-*SMA mice (blue) and wild type (C57BL/6J background) controls (black) (rightpanel). Data are shown as scatter plot that represents mean ± SEM error bars; n = 4-7 animals per experimental group, unpaired t-test, \**p* <0.05. *Smn-/-;SMN2* *Ar*: *p* = 0.38; *Smn-/-;SMN2* *Akap6*: *p* = 0.68; *Smn-/-;SMN2* *Igfbp5*: *p* = 0.49; *Smn-/-;SMN2* *Dok5*: *p* = 0.79; *Smn-/-;SMN2* *MyoG*: *p* = 0.64; *Smn-/-;SMN2* *Ddit4*: *p* = 0.02; *Smn2B/-**Ar*: *p* = 0. 75; *Smn2B/-**Akap6*: *p* = 0. 29; *Smn2B/-**Igfbp5*: *p* = 0.52; *Smn2B/-**Dok5*: *p* = 0.19; *Smn2B/-**MyoG*: *p* = 0.15, *Smn2B/-**Ddit4*: *p* = 0.16.

**Figure 10. Oxandrolone target genes are pre-dominantly SMN-independent in SMA muscle C2C12 cellular model.**

*Smn* siRNA knockdown (red) was performed for **a.** 48 hours in C2C12 myoblasts and **b.** every 48 hours throughout differentiation in D8 C2C12 myotubes. mRNA expression of oxandrolone target genes *Ar*, *Akap6*, *Igfbp5*, *Dok5, MyoG* and *Ddit4* was measured by qPCR and compared to non-transfected (black) and scrambled siRNA transfected (blue) controls. D5 C2C12 myotubes were serum-starved for 24 hours to induce canonical atrophy (red). mRNA expression of **c.** atrogenes *Atrogin-1* and *MuRF-1* and **d.** oxandrolone target genes *Ar*, *Akap6*, *Igfbp5*, *Dok5, MyoG* and *Ddit4* was measured by qPCR and compared to non-starved myotubes (black). Serum-starved D5 C2C12 myotubes were treated with1 μM oxandrolone for 24 hours (blue) to evaluate mRNA expression via qPCR of **e.** atrogenes *Atrogin-1* and *MuRF-1* and **f.** oxandrolone target genes *Ar*, *Akap6*, *Igfbp5*, *Dok5, MyoG* and *Ddit4* compared to serum-starved absolute ethanol vehicle treated control (black). Data are shown as scatter graphs that represent mean ± SEM error bars; n = 4 samples per group across two independent experiments. Two-way ANOVA followed by uncorrected Fisher’s least significant difference (LSD). **a.** F = 5.45; **b.** F = 6.87; **c.** F = 1.1; **d.** F = 2.03; **e.** F = 0.72; **f.** F = 0.36, \**p* < 0.05, \*\**p* < 0.01, \*\*\**p* < 0.001, \*\*\*\**p* < 0.0001.

**Figure 11. 4 mg/kg/day oxandrolone treatment partially improves survival in *Smn2B/-*SMA mice.**

All treated animals received a daily dose of oxandrolone (4 mg/kg/day, suspended in 0.5% CMC) by gavage starting at P8. **a.** Survival curves of untreated (n = 15, 21 days median survival, black) and 4 mg/kg/day oxandrolone-treated (n = 12, 24 days median survival, orange) *Smn2B/-* SMA mice. Kaplan-Meier survival curve shown with log rank (Mantel-Cox) test, , \*\*\**p* = 0.0006. **b.** Daily weights of untreated (n = 15, black) and 4 mg/kg/day oxandrolone-treated (n = 12, orange) *Smn2B/-* SMA mice. Data represented as mean ± SEM error bars; Two-way ANOVA followed by a Sidak’s multiple comparison test, F = 610.8, df = 519, \**p* < 0.05, \*\**p* < 0.01, \*\*\**p* < 0.001, \*\*\*\**p* < 0.0001. **c.** Daily righting reflex test for motor function activity up to a 30 second maximum time point in untreated (n = 15, black) and 4 mg/kg/day oxandrolone-treated (n = 12, orange) *Smn2B/-* SMA mice. Data are shown as bar chart with mean ± SEM error bars; unpaired T-test, ns = not significant, *p* = 0.775**.** qPCR analysis of mRNA levels for atrogenes **d.** *Atrogin-1* and **e.** *MuRF1* and predicted target genes **f.** *Ar,* **g.** *Akap6,* **h.** *Igfbp5,* **i.** *Dok5,* **j.** *MyoG,* and**k.** *Ddit4* in the triceps muscle from untreated (black) and 4 mg/kg/day oxandrolone-treated (orange), P19 *Smn2B/+*healthy and *Smn2B/-*SMA mice. Data are shown as bar chart with scatter graph represented as mean ± SEM error bars, n = 4 animals per group; two way ANOVA with Tukey’s multiple comparisons test, *Atrogin-1* (F = 0.1914), *MuRF1* (F = 1.214) , *Ar* (F = 0.003), *Akap6* (F = 2.40), *Igfbp5* (F = 0.06), *Dok5* (F = 1.72), *MyoG* (F = 0.29) and *Ddit4* (F = 0.64), \**p* < 0.05, \*\**p* < 0.01.

**Figure 12. Metformin and oxandrolone partially ameliorates neuromuscular defects in the severe SMA *C. elegans* model.**

Day 3 *C. elegans* *smn-1(ok355)* SMAhomozygotes and *smn-1(ok355)I/hT2* control heterozygotes were maintained at 20 oC on nematode growth medium (NGM) plates seeded with Escherichia coli OP50 bacteria. In metformin conditions, the NGM contained metformin concentrations of 0 (black square), 1 (blue circle), 10 (red triangle) and 50 mM (orange diamond) respectively. **a.** Pharyngeal pumping rates (pumps/minute) defined as grinder movement in any axis at 175 frames/10 seconds. Locomotion assays were filmed at 15 frames/sec and quantified for 5 minutes for **b.** reversals and **c.** paralysis times in the *C. elegans* groups. In oxandrolone conditions, the NGM contained oxandrolone concentrations of 0 (black square), 1 (blue circle), 10 (red triangle) and 50 μM (orange diamond) respectively. **d.** Pharyngeal pumping rates (pumps/minute) defined as grinder movement in any axis at 175 frames/10 seconds. Locomotion assays were filmed at 15 frames/sec and were quantified for 5 minutes for **e.** reversals and **f.** paralysis times in the *C. elegans* groups. Data are shown as scatter plot that represents mean ± SEM error bars; n > 25 animals per experimental group across three independent trials; Two-way ANOVA with Tukey’s multiple comparisons test, **a.** F = 459.2, **b.** F = 108.6, **c.** F = 52.59, **d.** F = 501.8, **e.** F = 121.1, **f.** F = 57.06, ns = not significant \**p* < 0.05, \*\**p* < 0.01, \*\*\**p* < 0.001.

**TABLES**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | | | |
| **KEGG ID** | **Pathway name** | **#Genes (DE/All)** | ***p* value** |
| 04066 | HIF-1 signaling pathway | 30/91 | 0.001 |
| 05214 | Glioma | 25/71 | 0.002 |
| 04213 | Longevity regulating pathway - multiple species | 24/57 | 0.003 |
| 04068 | FoxO signaling pathway | 41/116 | 0.003 |
| 04713 | Circadian entrainment | 23/73 | 0.004 |
| 04211 | Longevity regulating pathway | 30/83 | 0.004 |
| 04115 | p53 signaling pathway | 25/67 | 0.006 |
| 00040 | Pentose and glucuronate interconversions\* | 8/15 | 0.007 |
| 05010 | Alzheimer disease | 19/158 | 0.008 |
| 04152 | AMPK signaling pathway | 37/110 | 0.008 |
| 04080 | Neuroactive ligand-receptor interaction | 23/118 | 0.011 |
| 05418 | Fluid shear stress and atherosclerosis | 38/125 | 0.013 |
| 05223 | Non-small cell lung cancer | 22/64 | 0.014 |
| 05034 | Alcoholism | 25/104 | 0.014 |
| 04744 | Phototransduction | 4/9 | 0.015 |
| 05215 | Prostate cancer\* | 28/88 | 0.016 |
| 04137 | Mitophagy - animal | 22/61 | 0.018 |
| 04659 | Th17 cell differentiation | 18/72 | 0.024 |
| 03030 | DNA replication\* | 13/35 | 0.026 |
| 05031 | Amphetamine addiction | 13/49 | 0.028 |
| 05200 | Pathways in cancer\* | 110/434 | 0.031 |
| 04710 | Circadian rhythm | 12/29 | 0.033 |
| 01210 | 2-Oxocarboxylic acid metabolism\* | 7/16 | 0.039 |
| 04140 | Autophagy - animal | 36/123 | 0.041 |
| 04372 | Apelin signaling pathway | 34/121 | 0.045 |
| 05226 | Gastric cancer | 36/123 | 0.048 |
| 00515 | Mannose type O-glycan biosynthesis\* | 8/20 | 0.048 |
| 03320 | PPAR signaling pathway | 20/56 | 0.048 |
| \*Over-representation only | | | |

**Table 1. KEGG pathways targeted in the skeletal muscle of symptomatic prednisolone-treated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice compared with untreated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice.**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | | | |
|  | | | |
| **GO ID** | **GO Name** | **#Genes (DE/All)** | ***p value***  **(Weight)** |
| GO:0000055 | ribosomal large subunit export from nucleus | 8/8 | 0.0000054 |
| GO:0010830 | regulation of myotube differentiation | 25/53 | 0.000088 |
| GO:0034504 | protein localization to nucleus | 81/247 | 0.00011 |
| GO:0046320 | regulation of fatty acid oxidation | 17/32 | 0.00028 |
| GO:0048662 | negative regulation of smooth muscle cell proliferation | 20/44 | 0.00045 |
| GO:0031062 | positive regulation of histone methylation | 17/35 | 0.00046 |
| GO:0046854 | phosphatidylinositol phosphorylation | 17/36 | 0.0007 |
| GO:0016239 | positive regulation of macroautophagy | 26/64 | 0.00113 |
| GO:0000083 | regulation of transcription involved in G1/S transition of mitotic cell cycle | 8/12 | 0.00113 |
| GO:0042594 | response to starvation | 49/148 | 0.00114 |
| GO:0031398 | positive regulation of protein ubiquitination | 36/101 | 0.00115 |
| GO:0090073 | positive regulation of protein homodimerization activity | 7/10 | 0.00157 |
| GO:0048671 | negative regulation of collateral sprouting | 6/8 | 0.00208 |
| GO:0007050 | cell cycle arrest | 40/121 | 0.00319 |
| GO:1990830 | cellular response to leukaemia inhibitory factor | 37/110 | 0.00321 |
| GO:1901215 | negative regulation of neuron death | 60/198 | 0.00378 |
| GO:0007623 | circadian rhythm | 50/160 | 0.00378 |
| GO:0061635 | regulation of protein complex stability | 6/9 | 0.00508 |
| GO:0033137 | negative regulation of peptidyl-serine phosphorylation | 12/26 | 0.00533 |
| GO:0032088 | negative regulation of NF-kappaB transcription factor activity | 22/59 | 0.00537 |
| GO:0006094 | gluconeogenesis | 23/63 | 0.00604 |
| GO:0001937 | negative regulation of endothelial cell proliferation | 15/36 | 0.00629 |
| GO:0010715 | regulation of extracellular matrix disassembly | 7/12 | 0.00681 |
| GO:0030240 | skeletal muscle thin filament assembly | 7/12 | 0.00681 |
| GO:0035358 | regulation of peroxisome proliferator activated receptor signalling pathway | 7/12 | 0.00681 |
| **Table 2. Top Gene Ontology Biological Process pathways targeted in the skeletal muscle of symptomatic prednisolone-treated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice compared with untreated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice.** | | | | |

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Pathways Targeted** | **KEGG ID** | **Compound** | **Bioavailability** | **Gene**  **Targets** |
| 10 | D03297 | Mecasermin (genetical recombination) (JAN) | Subcutaneous | *Igf1r* |
| 10 | D04870 | Mecasermin rinfabate (USAN/INN) | Intravenous | *Igf1r* |
| 9 | D09680 | Teprotumumab (USAN/INN) | Intravenous | *Igf1r* |
| 8 | D04966 | Metformin (USAN/INN) | Oral | *Prkag3* |
| 8 | D00944 | Metformin hydrochloride (JP16/USP) | Oral | *Prkag3* |
| 7 | D01697 | Colforsin daropate hydrochloride (JAN) | Oral | *Adcy1, Adcy6*  *Adcy7* |
| 6 | D01146 | Iguratimod (JAN/INN) | Oral | *Nfkb1* |
| 5 | D07058 | Acamprosate (INN) | Oral | *Grin1, Grin2a, Grin2b, Grin2c, Grin2d* |
| 5 | D02754 | Acitretin (USP/INN); Soriatane (TN) | Oral | *Rarb, Rxrb, Rxrg* |
| 5 | D00085 | Insulin (JAN/USP) | Intravenous Subcutaneous | *Insr* |

**Table 3. Top 10 clinically approved drugs identified by KEGG database based on prednisolone-targeted KEGG pathways in symptomatic prednisolone-treated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice.**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Compound** | **Bioavailability** | **Gene Target** |
| Testosterone | Busal  Nasal  Oral  Topical  Transdermal  Subcutaneous | *Ar* |
| Oxandrolone | Oral | *Ar* |
| Nandrolone phenpropionate | Oral | *Ar* |
| Progesterone | Oral  Vaginal  Intramuscular | *Ers1* |
| Tibolone | Oral | *Ers1* |
| Cannabidiol | Oral  Inhale | *Cnr1* |
| Insulin, neutral | Intravenous  Intramuscular  Subcutaneous | *Insr* |
| Celecoxib | Oral | *Pdpk1* |
| Tocilizumab | Intravenous  Subcutaneous | *Il-6ra* |
| Sarilumab | Subcutaneous | *Il-6ra* |

**Table 4. Top 10 clinically approved drugs identified by DGIdb database based on prednisolone-targeted KEGG pathways in symptomatic prednisolone-treated *Smn-/-;SMN2* SMA mice.**

**ABBREVIATIONS**

Adeno-associated virus 9 (AAV-9)

Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

Anti-sense oligonucleotide (ASO)

Biomedical Sciences Unit (BSU)

Blood-brain-barrier (BBB)

Bromodeoxyuridine (BrDU)

Caenorhabditis elegans (C. elegans)

Congenital muscular dystrophy type 1 A (CMDT1A)

Differential gene expression (DGE)

Differentially expressed genes (DEGs)

Drug Gene Interaction Database (DGIdb)

Duchenne muscular dystrophy (DMD)

Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s Media (DMEM)

False discovery rate (FDR)

Foetal bovine serum (FBS)

Full length SMN (FL-SMN)

Gene ontology (GO)

Gene transfer file (GTF)

Glucocorticoid (GC)

Horse serum (HS)

Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT)

Knockdown (KD)

Krüppel-Like-Factor-15 (KLF15)

Lactate dehydrogenase (LDH)

Log2 fold change (Log2FC)

Myogenin (MyoG)

Neuromuscular disease (NMD)

New England Biolabs (NEB)

Overrepresentation analysis (ORA)

Phosphate buffered saline (PBS)

Post-natal day (P)

Principal component analysis (PCA)

Quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR)

Research and development (R&D)

RNA-sequencing (RNA-Seq)

Single nuclear RNA sequencing (snRNA-Seq)

Single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-Seq)

Small interfering RNA (siRNA)

Spinal cord injury (SCI)

Spinal muscular atrophy (SMA)

Survival of motor neuron (SMN)

Survival of motor neuron 1 (SMN1)

Survival of motor neuron 2 (SMN2)

Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM)