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Nicotinamide and pyridoxine stimulate muscle stem cell expansion and enhance regenerative capacity during aging

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Skeletal muscle relies on resident muscle stem cells (MuSCs) for growth and repair. Aging and muscle diseases impair MuSC function, leading to stem cell exhaustion and regenerative decline that contribute to the progressive loss of skeletal muscle mass and strength. In the absence of clinically available nutritional solutions specifically targeting MuSCs, we used a human myogenic progenitor (hMP) high-content imaging screen of natural molecules from food to identify nicotinamide (NAM) and pyridoxine (PN) as bioactive nutrients that stimulate MuSCs and have history of safe human use. NAM and PN synergize via CK1-mediated cytoplasmic β-catenin activation and AKT signaling to promote amplification and differentiation of MuSCs. Oral treatment with a combination of NAM/PN accelerates muscle regeneration in vivo by stimulating MuSCs, increases muscle strength during recovery, and overcomes MuSC dysfunction and regenerative failure during aging. Levels of NAM and bioactive PN spontaneously decline during aging in model organisms and interindependently associate with muscle mass and walking speed in a human cohort of 186 aged people. Collectively, our results establish NAM/PN as a new nutritional intervention that stimulates MuSCs, enhances muscle regeneration, and alleviates age-related muscle decline with a direct opportunity for clinical translation.

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Nicotinamide and Pyridoxine Stimulate Muscle Stem Cell Expansion and

Enhance Regenerative Capacity during Aging

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ABSTRACT

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Skeletal muscle relies on resident muscle stem cells (MuSCs) for growth and repair. Aging and muscle diseases impair MuSC function, leading to stem cell exhaustion and regenerative decline that contribute to the progressive loss of skeletal muscle mass and strength. In the absence of clinically available nutritional solutions specifically targeting MuSCs, we used a human myogenic progenitor (hMP) high-content imaging screen of natural molecules from food to identify nicotinamide (NAM) and pyridoxine (PN) as bioactive nutrients that stimulate MuSCs and have history of safe human use. NAM and PN synergize via CK1-mediated cytoplasmic β-catenin activation and AKT signaling to promote amplification and differentiation of MuSCs. Oral treatment with a combination of NAM/PN accelerates muscle regeneration in vivo by stimulating MuSCs, increases muscle strength during recovery, and overcomes MuSC dysfunction and regenerative failure during aging. Levels of NAM and bioactive PN spontaneously decline during aging in model organisms and inter-independently associate with muscle mass and walking speed in a human cohort of 186 aged people. Collectively, our results establish NAM/PN as a new nutritional intervention that stimulates MuSCs, enhances muscle regeneration, and alleviates age-related muscle decline with a direct opportunity for clinical translation.

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Keywords: stem cells; skeletal muscle; regeneration; nutrition; aging; sarcopenia

INTRODUCTION

Skeletal muscle is a remarkably plastic tissue that adapts structurally and functionally to lifestyle or external stimuli such as exercise, disuse, or injury. Resident PAX7-expressing muscle stem cells (MuSCs), also known as satellite cells, drive tissue repair during regeneration and directly contribute to muscle growth and long-term muscle maintenance (1, 2). Under homeostatic conditions, MuSCs are maintained in a quiescent state by signals from the local niche that keep them cell-cycle arrested (3). MuSCs are essential to repair myofibers after damage, for which mechanical and inflammatory niche-derived signals stimulate their proliferation and differentiation while also ensuring self-renewal to replenish the pool (1). MuSCs also contribute to myonuclei turnover during homeostasis (4) and can fuse to myofibers to maintain myonuclear domains and support resistance training induced muscle hypertrophy (5, 6). The regulation of MuSC metabolism is critical for their fate as activation and proliferation increase metabolic requirements (7, 8). While changes in macro-nutrient availability have been shown to influence the ability of MuSCs to support regeneration and exercise adaptation (9, 10), the understanding of which individual nutrients from food regulate MuSCs is limited.

During aging, skeletal muscle gradually loses its ability to regenerate and muscle mass and strength decline, a condition clinically known as sarcopenia. Sarcopenia is a complex and multifactorial process, involving multiple cellular mechanisms such as impaired neuromuscular junction transmission, myofiber mitochondrial dysfunction, and oxidative stress / inflammation (11), and lifestyle factors linked to nutrition and physical activity (12). The number and regenerative capacity of MuSCs decline during aging and sarcopenia both in animal models and in humans (13, 14). This decline involves a complex interplay of cell-autonomous and niche-dependent mechanisms where MuSC epigenetic and metabolic

perturbations cross-talk with altered structural and extracellular signals from myofibers, accessory cells and systemic blood supply (14–21).

Several proof-of-concept preclinical studies have shown that age-related MuSC dysfunction can be reversed with blockade of prostaglandin degradation or p38 and JAK-STAT signaling, NAD⁺ precursors, or activators of autophagy, which restore regenerative capacity and improve muscle strength or performance (22–27). While genetic ablation of MuSCs has shown their absolute requirement for muscle regeneration and myofiber recovery (4, 28), lifelong MuSC depletion in sedentary mice did not aggravate the age-related loss of muscle mass (29), suggesting that myonuclei accretion via MuSCs may not be a primary driver of sarcopenia. However, functional capacity does not decline linearly during aging in humans, where recovery from acute events is important and mobilizes MuSCs. In particular, microinjuries caused by physical activity and traumatic events such as surgeries or falls cause a transient decline in muscle mass and function with slow and often sub-maximal recovery during aging (30, 31). This critical window represents an opportunity to accelerate MuSC-mediated muscle repair and prevent long-term aggravation of sarcopenia.

While pharmacological strategies to modulate MuSCs are emerging preclinically, their clinical use is often limited by the lack of safety and toxicology studies supporting clinical use and the requirement of regulatory approvals as drugs. Here, we used a high-content imaging screen of a library of natural bioactive molecules and food-derived nutrients on human myogenic progenitors (hMPs) to identify new nutritional molecules targeting MuSCs. Using this approach, we discovered that nicotinamide (NAM) and pyridoxine (PN) are potent nutrients that signal through CK1/β-catenin and AKT to stimulate MuSC proliferation and induce their differentiation. Oral in vivo treatment with NAM/PN enhances MuSC expansion, increases strength recovery and accelerates myofiber repair in young and aged mice as well in primary myogenic cells from aged and geriatric donors. Given that circulating levels of

endogenous NAM and bioactive PN are low in older people with reduced muscle mass and function and that both NAM and PN have a history of safe human use, our results provide a new therapeutic solution ready for human clinical use to stimulate muscle regeneration and mitigate age-associated muscle decline.

RESULTS

A high-content imaging screen identifies NAM and PN as myogenic activators in primary human myogenic progenitors

To discover new natural bioactive nutrients that modulate myogenic progenitor function with a relevance for clinical translation, we developed a robust automated high-content imaging screen using primary hMP cells isolated from quadriceps muscles and validated for purity by >99% expression of the myogenic marker CD56 (Fig. S1A). We used hMPs from 2 male and 4 female representative donors that were selected based on purity and myogenic function (donors A,B,C,D,I,J; Table S1). Over 50,000 natural bioactive molecules and plant extracts were screened on a representative hMP donor for amplification of MYOD⁺ cells (Fig. 1A, Fig. S1B). In this primary screen, 534 compounds passed the cutoff criteria of increasing by at least 15% the number of differentiating PAX7⁻/MYOD⁺ cells (Fig. 1A, blue datapoints and table S2). Because our focus was on molecules with rapid translational potential, we refined our selection to FDA-approved molecules and identified NAM and PN (Fig. 1A, red datapoints) as the most potent and Generally Recognized As Safe (GRAS) inducers of MYOD in hMPs, with both molecules increasing by ~35% the number of PAX7⁻/MYOD⁺ cells (Fig. 1B).

To confirm and deconvolute these results, we analyzed the dose-response relationship of NAM and PN on MYOD and extended the analysis to PAX7. NAM and PN increased the number of MYOD⁺ hMPs starting at 110µM (Fig. 1C,D), and this effect was conserved across the 3 other young hMP donors (Fig. S1C). Only NAM concomitantly increased the number of PAX7⁺ and Ki67⁺ cells (Fig. 1E and Fig. S1D-F). The effects of NAM on the number of MYOD⁺ cells resulted primarily from early effects on proliferation as the relative number of MYOD⁺ cells normalized to total or proliferating cell number was only modestly affected by NAM (Fig. S1G,H). In contrast, PN increased the percentage of MYOD⁺ cells normalized to

total or proliferating cells (Fig. S1I,J), indicating that PN induces differentiation independently of proliferation. To understand the molecular basis of each molecule, we analyzed the transcriptome of vehicle, NAM-, PN- and NAM/PN-treated hMPs (Fig. 1F-I, Fig. S1K-M and table S3-4). Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) revealed upregulation of pathways involved in cell cycle progression and cell division following treatment with NAM (Fig. 1F), as expected from the increase in the number of proliferating progenitors (Fig. 1E and Fig. S1E). PN-treated hMPs had a strong signature of protein synthesis (Fig. 1G), consistent with myogenic differentiation requiring increased protein translation (32). While both NAM and PN increased the number of MYOD+ hMPs, transcriptomic and phenotypic analyses suggested that both molecules modulate different, complementary myogenic functions in vitro. When combining NAM and PN treatments, the individual transcriptional signature of each molecule was conserved (Fig. 1F-H, S1K-M). Notably, 630 genes were differentially upregulated by the NAM/PN combination over single treatments (Fig. 1I; table S4), highlighting that NAM and PN synergize to regulate hMP gene expression. At the phenotypic level, compared to hMPs treated with NAM or PN alone, the NAM/PN combination synergistically increased the number of MYOD⁺ cells and improved both the EC50 and the maximal efficacy over the effects of single treatments (Fig. 1J). The NAM/PN combination also maintained the ability to stimulate PAX7⁺ hMP proliferation (Fig. 1K) and enhanced terminal differentiation and myotube maturation (Fig. 1L-O and Fig. S1N-P). The effects of NAM/PN on differentiation resulted from early-stage hMP amplification and were not observed when NAM/PN was supplemented after myotube formation was induced (Fig. S1Q-U). An important feature of MuSC fate is the capacity to concomitantly engage in myogenic differentiation while self-renewing a pool of cells that maintains stemness. This process can be modeled in vitro by assessing the capacity of myoblasts to form PAX7⁺ reserve cells via niche signals derived from myotubes during differentiation (33). To test if NAM/PN regulates self-renewal independent of its effect on

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MuSC proliferation and differentiation, we analyzed reserve cells in hMPs treated with NAM/PN after the induction of myotube differentiation. The effects of NAM/PN on proliferation and differentiation (Fig. 1C-E) did not come at the expense of self-renewal as NAM/PN actually increased the number of PAX7⁺ reserve cells after differentiation (Fig. 1P). We also tested if NAM/PN cross-talks with cell proliferation of other human cells with high proliferation rates. The effects on hMP amplification were specific to myogenic progenitors and not recapitulated in non-myogenic cells as NAM/PN did not stimulate proliferation of skin fibroblasts, unlike the positive control FGF (Fig. S1V,W). Altogether, our in vitro results demonstrate that NAM and PN can be combined to stimulate myogenesis by modulating both myogenic progenitor proliferation and differentiation specifically.

In vivo NAM/PN treatment stimulates MuSCs, accelerates regeneration and increases muscle strength after muscle injury

To evaluate if NAM/PN can support MuSCs in a complex physiological system and across species, lineage-negative (CD31⁻/CD45⁻/CD11B⁻/SCA1⁻) and CD34⁺/ITGA7⁺ MuSCs were isolated from mouse hindlimb muscles by FACS and treated ex vivo with NAM/PN. NAM/PN increased the total number of PAX7⁺, as well as the PAX7⁺/EdU⁺ proliferating MuSCs (Fig. 2A-C) and stimulated their progression towards MYOD⁺ progenitors (Fig. 2A,D). To substantiate these results in vivo, we analyzed MuSC function in a preclinical model of muscle regeneration after an acute muscle injury induced with cardiotoxin (CTX) (Fig. 2E). Following oral administration, NAM and PN were well absorbed and bioavailable in skeletal muscle as both their circulating (Fig. S2A) and intramuscular levels (Fig. 2F,G) were strongly increased compared to the vehicle-treated group. The NAM/PN treatment was also well tolerated with no sign of toxicity (Fig. S2B-D).

NAM/PN supplementation significantly increased by 38% the number of PAX7⁺ MuSCs and the number of proliferative PAX7⁺ cells measured via Ki67 at 5 days post injury (dpi) (Fig. 2H-J). Consistent with the effects of NAM and PN on early markers of differentiation in cell culture (Fig. 1C,D and 2A,D), NAM/PN also increased the number of differentiating MYOGENIN⁺ progenitors in vivo (Fig. 2H,K). To ensure that NAM/PN did not perturb MuSC self-renewal in vivo, we quantified return to quiescence once the majority of differentiation and self-renewal decisions have occurred. NAM/PN did not affect return to quiescence as the number of non-cycling sublaminar PAX7⁺ MuSCs in regenerating areas did not differ between vehicle- and NAM/PN-treated muscle at 12 dpi (Fig. 2L). The acceleration of myogenic repair translated into increased regenerating myofiber size at 12 dpi with a 6.2% shift towards larger more mature fibers (Fig. 2M-P and S2E). Altogether, these results indicate that NAM/PN enhances muscle regeneration in vivo in young healthy conditions by accelerating MuSC dynamics and fiber repair without compromising self-renewal.

To investigate the functional relevance of NAM/PN during muscle recovery, we measured muscle strength in a physiological mouse model of skeletal muscle regeneration induced by eccentric exercise using a standardized electrically evoked lengthening contraction protocol (Fig. 2Q; (34)). Consistent with the results in the severe model of CTX-induced muscle regeneration (Fig. 2H-K), NAM/PN also increased the proliferation of PAX7⁺ MuSCs and their myogenic differentiation to MYOGENIN⁺ in this milder model of contraction-induced regeneration (Fig. 2R-U). Muscle strength was recorded longitudinally using a non-invasive set-up where evoked contraction recorded on a foot pedal was measured one day after injury, during the dynamic myofiber remodeling phase at 7 dpi and during the fiber maturation process at 14 dpi (Fig. 2Q). Following eccentric contraction-induced injury, muscle strength dropped by 50% and gradually recovered across the 14-day time course (Fig. 2V). Muscle strength was 27% higher in NAM/PN compared to vehicle-treated animals at 7 dpi, and this

difference was maintained at 14 dpi, enabling a more rapid return to pre-injury strength levels (Fig. 2V). These results across independent models of regeneration demonstrate that NAM/PN supports all phases of muscle repair by boosting the initial amplification of MuSCs and inducing their progression toward differentiation, resulting in better muscle strength throughout the entire recovery process.

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NAM and PN signal through selective CK1-mediated β -catenin activation independent of NAD+ metabolism, and AKT signaling, respectively

Given the role of NAM as an NAD⁺ precursor and the importance of NAD metabolism in skeletal muscle homeostasis and regeneration (24, 35), we examined the potential of increasing endogenous NAD⁺ levels to stimulate MuSCs. Treatment of hMPs with the NAD⁺ precursors NAM, nicotinamide riboside (NR), and nicotinamide mononucleotide (NMN) (Fig. 3A), resulted in comparable increases of NAD⁺ levels (Fig. 3B). However, only NAM increased the number of PAX7⁺ and Ki67⁺ hMPs (Fig. 3C,D). To confirm these in vitro findings, we compared the effects of NAM and NR on muscle regeneration in vivo and evaluated whether boosting NAD⁺ levels in healthy muscle was sufficient to enhance MuSC function. Supplementation with NR and NAM increased the NAD⁺ content in muscle to a similar extent (Fig. S3A), but only NAM increased the number of PAX7+, Ki67+, and MYOGENIN⁺ progenitors (Fig. 2H-K and Fig. S3B-E), suggesting that the amplification of myogenic progenitors is NAM-specific. Since NR has been reported to convert to NAM via the enzyme Pnp in mammals (36, 37), we assessed NAM levels following NR supplementation in mice (Fig. S3F,G). As expected, circulating levels of NAM increased following NR administration but the circulating levels of NAM resulting from NR conversion were 50 times lower compared to the levels reached after NAM/PN supplementation (Fig. S3F). Unlike oral NAM/PN, NAM conversion following oral NR was not sufficient to increase NAM bioavailability in skeletal muscle (Fig. S3G). To further validate that NAM promotes myogenic cell proliferation independently of NAD⁺, we blocked the conversion of NAM to NAD⁺ through inhibition of NAMPT with FK-866. As expected, FK-866 inhibited the conversion of NAM to NAD+ (Fig. 3E), but did not abolish the expansion of PAX7⁺ and Ki67⁺ hMPs by NAM (Fig. 3F,G). In addition to its role as an NAD⁺ precursor, NAM has previously been shown to signal via NAD-independent mechanisms at high concentrations (38). We therefore examined the impact of different doses of NAM on hMP proliferation and NAD⁺ biosynthesis (Fig. 3H-K). While both concentrations of NAM triggered a comparable increase in NAD⁺ levels (Fig. 3I), only high concentrations of NAM enhanced hMP proliferation (Fig. 3H,J,K). Collectively, our in vitro and in vivo data demonstrate that increasing NAD⁺ alone is not sufficient to improve the function of young healthy MuSCs and suggest that NAM can activate MuSCs independently of NAD⁺.

NAM inhibits casein kinase 1 alpha (CK1α) activity (Fig. 4A) (*33*) at doses stimulating myogenic cell proliferation (Fig. 4A and 1D). Hyperactivation of CK1 drastically decreased the number of proliferating hMPs and was dominant over NAM, while both NAM and the pharmacological CK1 inhibitor increased hMP proliferation (Fig. 4B-D). These results demonstrate that CK1 is a regulator of MuSC proliferation and that NAM signals in hMPs via CK1 inhibition.

In non-myogenic cells, CK1 α directly phosphorylates cytoplasmic β -catenin to inhibit its activity by inducing proteosomal-mediated degradation (39). CK1 can also inhibit β -catenin in hMPs, as pharmacological CK1 hyperactivation increased phosphorylated inactive β -catenin (Fig. S4A,B). Similar to NAM, pharmacological CK1 inhibition increased the number of proliferating Ki67⁺ and PAX7⁺ hMPs (Fig. S4C-D). As expected, the canonical positive control WNT3A strongly increased active non-phosphorylated β -catenin. In line with its inhibition of CK1 (Fig 4A), NAM also increased active β -catenin 1.6 fold in hMPs to a smaller extent than

WNT3A (Fig 4E,F). To directly measure β -catenin transcriptional activity in MuSCs, we performed a luciferase reporter assay on freshly isolated MuSCs co-transfected with the TopFlash luciferase β -catenin reporter as previously described (40). 72h of NAM treatment increased β -catenin transcriptional activity by 66% (Fig. 4G), demonstrating that the NAM-driven accumulation of β -catenin stimulates β -catenin dependent target gene activation.

Following translocation to the nucleus, active β-catenin interacts with two acetyltransferases, cAMP response element binding protein (CREB)-binding protein (CBP) and E1A-binding protein, 300 kDa (p300) to drive the expression of its target genes (41). To better understand how NAM modulates β-catenin signaling, hMPs were treated with ICG-001 and IQ-1, two β -catenin antagonists that prevent the transcription of sets of β -catenindependent genes by disrupting the interaction between β-catenin and its co-activators CBP or p300, respectively (42, 43). Inhibition of the β-catenin/p300 interaction with IQ-1 did not impact basal or NAM-induced proliferation of hMPs (Fig. 4H-J). In contrast, inhibition of the β-catenin/CBP interaction with ICG-001 strongly decreased hMP proliferation and completely blocked the ability of NAM to stimulate hMP proliferation (Fig. 4H-J) without affecting cell viability or the ability to respond to the TGFβ inhibitor used as positive control (Fig. S4C). As an additional control, we verified that neither ICG-001 nor IQ-1 affected the capacity of PN to upregulate MYOD in hMPs (Fig. S4D,E). These results suggest that NAM signals by activating a set of β-catenin target genes that is specifically regulated by the association with its coactivator CBP and demonstrate that NAM induces myogenic cell proliferation independent of NAD⁺ via a partial activation of β-catenin signaling via cytoplasmic CK1-mediated inhibition.

The AKT serine/threonine kinase controls myogenic differentiation and is a central regulator of anabolic processes and muscle protein synthesis (44), which were regulated in hMPs in response to PN (Fig. 1G). Consistent with these transcriptomic profiles, PN treatment in hMPs increased the expression of the active phosphorylated form of AKT (Fig. 4K,L). AKT

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inhibition using the allosteric inhibitor MK-2206 decreased the number of MYOD⁺ cells (Fig. 4M,N). Importantly, the effects of PN were fully dependent on AKT as AKT and PI3K inhibitors completely abolished the PN-induced upregulation of MYOD⁺ cells (Fig. 4M,N and Fig. S4F), while maintaining sensitivity to the TGF-β inhibitor as positive control for myogenic induction (Fig. S4F). Moreover, treatment with an AKT activator mimicked the effect of PN on MYOD in hMPs (Fig. S4G-I). As a control, we also verified that AKT inhibition by MK-2206 did not compromise the effect of NAM on hMP proliferation (Fig. S4J-L).

Finally, to confirm that the molecular mechanisms of NAM and PN were conserved in vivo, we isolated activated MuSCs from regenerating muscles 5 dpi with and without oral NAM/PN supplementation and analyzed them by quantitative capillary Western Blot (Fig. 4O-R). Consistent with what we previously observed in hMPs, active β -catenin also accumulated in activated MuSCs from NAM/PN-treated mice (Fig. 4O,P). Moreover, the acetylation of lysine 49 on β -catenin, which is a of readout CBP-mediated activation of β -catenin (45), was also higher in NAM/PN-treated MuSCs (Fig. 4O,Q). Lastly, AKT signaling was also upregulated in freshly-isolated MuSCs following NAM/PN supplementation in vivo (Fig. 4O,R). Altogether, these molecular studies demonstrate that NAM and PN synergize to regulate MuSC proliferation and differentiation in hMPs and MuSCs in vivo through partial CK1-dependent β -catenin activation by NAM independently of NAD+, and AKT activation by PN.

NAM/PN supplementation reverses MuSC dysfunction and regenerative decline during aging

Since aging causes functional decline of MuSCs and defective regeneration, we next evaluated whether endogenous NAM/PN levels are altered during aging and if supplementation of NAM/PN can rescue MuSC function and ameliorate muscle repair in aged mice. NAM and PN levels declined spontaneously during aging with muscle concentrations reduced in aged

compared to young mice by 18% and 37%, respectively (Fig. 5A). A comparable 25-35% agerelated decrease of NAM and pyridoxal-5'-phosphate (PLP), the bioactive form of PN, was also observed in plasma (Fig. 5B), highlighting that aging causes a global systemic decline of NAM and PN metabolism. Oral NAM/PN supplementation could overcome this age-related deficit (Fig. S5A,B), demonstrating that the intestinal absorption of NAM and PN is not impaired during aging.

After CTX-induced muscle injury in aged mice (Fig. 5C), NAM/PN treatment was dominant over age-related impairments of MuSCs. The number of PAX7⁺ MuSCs decreased by 43% in aged muscle at 5 dpi and was fully rescued by NAM/PN treatment (Fig. 5D,E). PAX7⁺ cell amplification was driven by a regulation of MuSC proliferation as the number of PAX7⁺/Ki67⁺ cells decreased significantly during aging and was rescued by NAM/PN (Fig. 5D,F). NAM/PN also increased the number of MYOGENIN⁺ cells at 5 dpi in aged muscle, thereby mitigating the age-related defects in myogenic progenitor differentiation (Fig. 5D,G). We next evaluated the transcriptional changes induced by NAM/PN in MuSCs freshly isolated from aged mice or in aged regenerating muscle from NAM/PN-treated mice. When compared to young MuSCs, pathways involved in MuSC proliferation and differentiation were downregulated in aged MuSCs, and re-activated in aged MuSCs treated with NAM/PN (Fig. 5H). Aging disrupted molecular signatures involved in inflammation, metabolism, and muscle repair in regenerative muscle (46), and these alterations were reversed by NAM/PN treatment (Fig. 5I). Importantly, NAM/PN had minimal impact on the transcriptional landscape of uninjured muscle and did not significantly reverse aging signatures of uninjured muscle (Fig. S5C), suggesting that NAM/PN primarily cross-talks with repair mechanisms in regenerating muscle. Gene expression signatures also suggested that NAM/PN treatment could reduce the expression of pro-fibrotic genes in aged regenerating muscle (Fig. S5D). However, acute NAM/PN treatment during regeneration did not affect fibrosis measured by aniline blue

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staining in neither regenerating nor uninjured muscles (Fig. 5J,K & S5E-F), suggesting that NAM/PN exerts its beneficial effects primarily by enhancing MuSC function and may fine tune extra-cellular matrix remodeling without acute functional consequences on fibrosis. The enhanced MuSC function in aged muscle with NAM/PN translated into enlarged regenerating myofibers with centralized nuclei at 12 dpi (Fig. 5L-O), with a 25% increase in the number of larger more mature fibers in NAM/PN-treated mice that translated in an overall increase in the myofiber area distribution of 7.6% (Fig. 5O and S5G). No fiber size differences were observed between vehicle- and NAM/PN-treated mice in uninjured contralateral muscles (Fig. S5H-J). Our molecular and histological results thus demonstrate that NAM/PN reverses the aging phenotype of MuSCs and mitigates muscle aging specifically in conditions where MuSCs are active.

NAM and PN are reduced in older people with impaired physical function and reverse human age-related myogenic decline

To investigate the relevance of NAM and PN for human muscle physiology during aging, concentrations of NAM and PLP, the active form of PN, were measured in the serum of 186 randomly selected older men aged 60 years and above from the Bushehr Elderly Health (BEH) program ((47); table 1). In this cohort with a 46% prevalence of sarcopenia (table 1), circulating concentrations of NAM and PLP were low in individuals with low muscle mass assessed via the appendicular lean mass index (ALMi) measured by DXA, and significantly associated with ALMi across all individuals (Fig. 6A and table S5). Similar associations were observed with total ALM (table S5), while normalization to BMI reduced these associations likely because it introduced more variability in the assessment of lean mass. Circulating levels of other hydrosoluble vitamins with similar metabolism and physicochemical properties such as Thiamin (vitamin B1) and Riboflavin (vitamin B2) were not associated with muscle mass

measured via the ALMi (Fig. S6A,B), demonstrating that the clinical association of NAM and PN with muscle mass is not an indirect consequence of lower capacity to store micronutrients. Gait speed, a validated clinical variable to assess muscle function which predicts quality of life and mortality (48), was also positively associated with circulating levels of PLP and to a lesser extent of NAM (Fig. 6B). We then used statistical models to evaluate potential dietary causes of the associations as well as functional inter-dependencies of NAM, PLP and age. ALMi and gait speed did not associate with dietary intake of vitamin B3 and B6 measured via food frequency questionnaires, but remained significantly correlated with serum levels of NAM and PLP when the statistical models were corrected for dietary intake (Table S6). A biostatistical model using multiple linear regression adjusted for age demonstrated that NAM and PLP levels directly associate with ALMi and gait speed in all decades analyzed from 60 to 80 years, regardless of the extent of functional decline with age (Fig. 6C,D). Importantly, the contributions of NAM and PLP were interdependent and additive at all ages tested, demonstrating that there is a functional interaction between the levels of NAM and PLP in humans to influence physical capacity.

Reduced myogenic capacity during aging is a hallmark of human sarcopenia (12, 47), and was recapitulated in hMPs from 4 young and 4 aged individuals (Fig. 6E-H, Fig. S6C-D and table S1). Treatment with NAM/PN could counteract human age-related myogenic decline by increasing the proliferation of aged PAX7⁺ hMPs (Fig. 6E-G and Fig. S6F-G), their activation of MYOD (Fig. 6H) and their terminal differentiation to myotubes (Fig. S6K-N). The effect size of NAM/PN on myogenic readouts was equivalent in all donors and ages tested (Fig. S6H-J). Altogether, our results on clinical cohorts and primary human cells demonstrate that NAM and PN are clinically relevant nutrients which decline in human sarcopenia and reverse the myogenic defects of aged human myogenic cells.

DISCUSSION

We used a high-content imaging screen on human myogenic progenitors and identified NAM and PN as nutrients that enhance MuSC proliferation and myogenic regeneration. NAM and PN have been recognized as safe by the FDA and EFSA (49, 50) and are approved for broad use in foods or dietary supplements. Targeting MuSC with safe nutritional solutions is particularly relevant to accelerate physiological muscle recovery during MuSC-mediated repair of myofiber micro-damage following exercise, sports-induced muscle tears and injuries or following surgical procedures that mechanically rupture myofibers (5, 51). MuSCs are also impaired in genetic and chronic muscles diseases such as aging, dystrophies, cancer cachexia or diabetes (52–54). The activation of MuSCs by NAM/PN, which enhances regeneration and accelerates the recovery of muscle strength, is therefore a potent therapeutic solution with potential broad applications in the management of healthy healing processes, exercise adaptations, as well as prevention and nutritional management of muscle wasting disorders.

The efficacy of NAM/PN involves complementary molecular mechanisms that synergistically enhance proliferation and myogenic capacity of MuSCs. PN stimulates MuSC differentiation by accelerating MyoD activation via AKT signaling and protein synthesis. While stimulation of protein synthesis is important for MuSC differentiation (9), conversion of PN to its bioactive form PLP also catalyzes several rate-limiting reactions for energy metabolism (55), which may also contribute to myogenic fate directly or synergize with Akt signaling as also reported in other tissues and species (56–58). Further analyses will be important to understand if PN activates PI3K/AKT signaling via a specific molecular target or enhances AKT signaling and myogenic differentiation secondary to metabolic adaptations via PLP-sensitive enzymes. NAM is a precursor for the critical cellular cofactor NAD⁺ and is incorporated into NAD⁺ from dietary sources or intracellular metabolism via the salvage pathway (59). Our *in vivo* studies of healthy young mice showed that, unlike NR which

contributes to NAD⁺ homeostasis in conditions of NAD⁺ deficiency during aging or disease (24), stimulation of MuSC proliferation by NAM did not require conversion to NAD⁺. While NR has been shown to convert to NAM via hepatic metabolism (60) and this conversion could be detected in vivo during regeneration, the levels of NAM generated from NR were insufficient to stimulate healthy MuSC proliferation. In contrast, NAM stimulates MuSC proliferation via a selective activation of cytoplasmic β-catenin signaling via de-repression of CK1α-mediated phosphorylation, which facilitates β-catenin acetylation and nuclear translocation. Similar to NAM, pharmacological modulation of CK1a modulated hMP proliferation, and treatment with a CK1α activator blocked the effects of NAM. Inhibition of β-catenin interaction with its co-activator CBP, but not p300, abrogated the effects of NAM on PAX7⁺ cells, highlighting that MuSCs are also sensitive to the NAM-dependent selective recruitment of coactivators to β-catenin observed in other lineages (61). Previous studies have suggested that the cross-talk of β-catenin signaling with myogenesis is complex. While activation of canonical Wnt signaling during skeletal muscle repair is well established (62, 63), the role of β -catenin in myogenesis is debated (62–66) and depends on diverse spatio-temporal signals across cellular compartments and cell types. Genetic deletion of β-catenin in MuSCs originally suggested that β-catenin is dispensable for regeneration (64). However, several subsequent studies using mice with constitutively active or knockout β -catenin have shown that β-catenin signaling can modulate MuSC function and impact regeneration (40, 62, 63, 65, 66). The different phenotypes reported upon β -catenin modulation with various tools highlight that this pathway integrates multiple inputs with different sensitivity and that permanent genetic deletion/over-expression of β-catenin leads to different molecular and phenotypic outcomes compared to pharmacological inhibition using Wnt ligands or secreted Frizzled-related proteins. While our findings suggest that a mild and transient activation of cytoplasmic βcatenin via CK1a inhibition and CBP recruitment is beneficial and supports MuSC

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proliferation, NAM treatment in genetic models where CK1 or β -catenin is specifically ablated in MuSCs or where specific β -catenin/CBP interaction sites are mutated will be important to confirm the molecular mechanisms through which NAM cross-talks with MuSC proliferation and improves regeneration.

In our study, levels of NAM and PN associated with muscle decline during aging and NAM/PN treatment at therapeutic doses could overcome the detrimental effects of aging on MuSC exhaustion and regenerative decline (15). In addition to stimulating healthy MuSCs, NAM/PN treatment reversed the defective proliferation and MYOD activation of aged MuSCs, and enhanced regeneration. NAM/PN also rescued the impaired proliferation and differentiation of hMPs from aged and geriatric humans, demonstrating that the myogenicactivating mechanisms of NAM/PN were dominant over the pathways that decline during aging in rodent and human muscle. Several lines of evidence support that the benefits of NAM/PN supplementation on age-related muscle decline cross-talk with myogenic repair mechanisms. Improved myofiber size and reversal of transcriptomic signatures of aging were specific to regenerating muscle, but were not or minimally affected in uninjured muscle. In addition, NAM/PN enhanced myogenic differentiation when myogenic progenitors were treated but did not affect terminal myotube maturation in vitro. While these results are consistent with a positive effect of NAM/PN on muscle regeneration via myogenic stimulation of MuSCs and their progeny, NAM/PN may also affect non-myogenic cells of the niche that support muscle regeneration (16) and enhance repair mechanisms directly in myofibers (67). Further studies using MuSC-depleted mice will therefore be important to test whether NAM/PN may also support muscle health by stimulating complementary MuSC-independent mechanisms.

In our epidemiology study, low circulating levels of NAM and the bioactive form of PN associated with reduced muscle mass and gait speed in older people. Since muscle mass and gait speed are clinical variables used to define sarcopenia and established predictors of

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physical fitness, quality of life, and survival (12), our results suggest that endogenous inadequacy of these metabolites could contribute to loss of functional capacity during aging. Dietary intake does not seem to be the primary cause linking endogenous NAM/PN levels to muscle health and the association of both nutrients in serum with muscle mass and function was inter-dependent, suggesting that altered endogenous metabolism of these nutrients during aging could explain their association with muscle phenotypes. Impaired regeneration and poor recovery from acute traumatic events such as injuries, surgeries or falls is an important contributing mechanism to the progression of sarcopenia (12). Given the indispensable role of MuSCs in regeneration and recovery from myofiber injury, it is possible that low levels of NAM and PN contribute to sarcopenia via a regenerative mechanism through MuSCs. However, we could not collect muscle biopsies to quantify MuSCs in this clinical study and could therefore not relate clinical outcomes to MuSC activation. Since NAM and PN regulate general metabolic pathways across different cell types, it is possible that NAM and PN may associate with muscle mass and function via an effect in myofibers or other cell types. Collectively, our results support a translational application of NAM/PN in older people with physical decline, especially during the phases of acute recovery. However, sarcopenia has multi-factorial origins, and it will be important to combine NAM/PN with physical activity and other nutrients such as protein, vitamin D and Omega 3 fatty acids which are part of standard of care to manage different physiological mechanisms that contribute to sarcopenia.

In summary, NAM/PN supplementation is an effective therapeutic strategy to stimulate MuSCs. Our work in preclinical models, primary human cells and in an observational clinical cohort further establishes NAM/PN as a new translational solution to accelerate skeletal muscle repair and mitigate age-associated regenerative decline by targeting MuSC activation via regenerative nutrition.

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

The detailed experimental procedures and reagents utilized in this study are described in the

Supplemental Methods section.

Sex as a biological variable

For human cells, hMPs from both male and female donors were used (Table S1). All mouse experiments were performed using male mice to maintain consistency throughout the study as aged female mice were not commercially available from the supplier. The nutritional observational study from the Bushehr cohort was analyzed in men to maximize statistical power given gender differences in micro-nutrients during aging (68).

Primary human myogenic progenitors (hMPs)

Primary human myogenic progenitors (hMPs, Lonza, #CC-2580 or Cook Myosite, SK-111, table S1) were selected for myogenic purity (>90% desmin-positive cells, CD56 positive) and absence of fibroblast contamination (<5% alpha smooth muscle actin-positive cells). We also controlled all hMPs for their capacity to differentiate into myotubes with a fusion Factor >50% assessed by myosin heavy chain or troponin T. For each experiment, a frozen stock of hMPs cells banked with less than 4 passages was thawed and expanded in Skeletal Muscle Cell Growth Medium (AmsBio, #SKM-M) in a humidified incubator at 37°C in 5% CO2. hMPs were cultured for a maximum of 3 passages prior to cellular assays and were passaged upon reaching 50-60% confluence, approximately every 3 days.

High throughput imaging phenotypic assay

An automated high throughput imaging phenotypic assay was developed to assess hMP proliferation in 384-well plates. All liquid dispensing, compound treatment, and imaging steps

were conducted on automated platforms optimized for this screen. A primary screen of 50'000 natural bioactive molecules and plant extracts from in-house libraries was performed on Donor A using the percentage of PAX7⁻/MYOD⁺ cells as primary readout. Assay conditions were optimized using the TGFβ inhibitor LY364947 (Sigma, #L6293; (69)) as a positive control to reach an average Z' factor above 0.5. Each 384-well plate contained 320 treatment conditions each tested at 10µM in 1% DMSO, 32 vehicle controls with 1% DMSO only and 32 positive controls treated with 25 µM LY364947 in 1% DMSO. The percentage of PAX7⁻/MYOD⁺ cells was normalized using the Min-Max scaling method with "0" being attributed to the negative control and "1" to the positive controls and results were displayed and analyzed using the Vortex software. All compounds classified by the FDA as Generally Recognized As Safe or "GRAS" were tested at 1 mM for the primary screening and then separately tested for confirmation in duplicates on hMPs from two donors. 800 Cells were plated on 384-well plates pre-coated with 10µg/ml human fibronectin (Corning, #356008) fibronectin and grown in Skeletal Muscle Cell Growth Medium (AmsBio, #SKM-M) for 72 h under humidified conditions at 37°C in 5 % CO2 before immunocytochemistry and image acquisition, performed as described in the Supplementary Information.

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Secondary hMP proliferation and differentiation assays

Primary cells were cultured as previously described (70) and experimental procedures and reagents used in this section are detailed in the Supplementary Information. Secondary proliferation and differentiation assays were performed using hMPs from a total of five independent donors (Table S1). Unless otherwise stated, the concentration used for the different treatments were: 1% DMSO as vehicle condition, 1 mM NAM (Nicotinamide, Enamine #EN300-15612), 1mM PN (Pyridoxine, Enamine #EN300-39851), 1 mM NR (Nicotinamide Riboside Chloride, ChromaDex, #00014332), 1 mM NMN (β-Nicotinamide

mononucleotide, Sigma, #N3501, 100 μM FK-866 (Sigma, #F8557), 1 mM NAM (NAM^{high}), 100 μM NAM (NAM^{Low}), 1 μM ICG-001 (R&D Systems, #4505/10), 1 μM IQ-1 (Sigma, #412400), 25 μM LY364947 (Sigma #L6293), 1 μM wortmannin (Sigma, #W1628), 100 μM LY294002 (Sigma, #L9908), 1 μM SC79 (Sigma, # SML0749), 8 μM TAK-715 (Sigma, #SML0360), 200 ng/ml WNT3A (R&D Systems, 5036-WN-010/CF) or 1 μM MK-2206 (Selleckchem, #S1078). Immunocytochemistry and image acquisition were performed as described in the Supplementary Information.

Other cellular assays

- Cellular assays with primary mouse cells and human primary fibroblasts are described in the
- 535 Supplementary Information.

In vivo mouse experiments

Mice were housed under standard conditions (up to 5 mice per cage) and allowed access to food and water *ad libitum*. Young (12-13 weeks-old) and aged (23-25 months-old) wild type C57BL/6JRj males were purchased from Janvier labs. All mice were randomized to different groups according to their weights. Treatments resuspended in 1% Sodium Carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC) were administrated by daily oral gavage, starting prior to the injury and continuing until the endpoint of the study: NAM (200mg/kg per day, Enamine, #EN300-15612), PN (4mg/kg day, Enamine, #EN300-39851), or nicotinamide riboside (NR, 200mg/kg per day, ChromaDex, #00014332). Vehicle-treated mice received an equivalent volume of 1% CMC using the same dosing scheme every day (bolus of 200 μl maximum performed at the same time of the morning ± 2 hours). For regeneration studies, muscle injury was induced by intramuscular injection of 20μM cardiotoxin (CTX, Latoxan) into the *Tibialis anterior* (TA, 25μl) and the *Gastrocnemius* (GC, 50μl) muscles under anesthesia. For longitudinal muscle

strength measurement, muscle injury was induced through eccentric contractions induced by electrical stimulations following a previously published protocol (34) that was adapted as described in the Supplementary Information. Tissue harvesting and immunohistochemistry were performed as detailed in Supplementary Methods. Muscle sections were imaged using the VS120 and VS200 slide scanners (Olympus). Images were analyzed using the VS-ASW FL measurement tool and the QuPath software. For ex vivo assays, MuSCs were isolated with a Beckman Coulter Astrios Cell sorter as previously described (20). MuSC fate was assessed with PAX7 and MYOD immunostainings. Images were acquired using the ImageXpress (Molecular Devices) platform and quantifications were performed using Multi-Wavelength Cell scoring.

Human nutritional epidemiology study (Bushehr Elderly Health)

186 older men aged above 60 years and above were randomly selected from the Bushehr Elderly Health (BEH) cohort for a metabolomic sub-analysis (a detailed description of the entire cohort is available elsewhere (47, 71)). The appendicular lean mass index (ALMi) was used as an estimate of skeletal muscle mass using dual energy X-ray absorptiometry and calculated for each participant as the sum of upper and lower limb lean mass expressed in kilogram divided the height square expressed in meter. Physical performance was evaluated using a 4.57-m gait speed test, with gait speed determined as the best of two repeats at the subject's normal pace. An overnight fasting venous blood sample was collected by trained nurses for every participant and serum was stored at -80°C before being analyzed as described under the section "metabolomics analyses".

Molecular and biochemical assays

Experiments were performed according to manufacturer's protocols. All experimental procedures and reagents are described in the Supplemental Information file.

Statistics

Unless otherwise stated, data were analyzed using the Prism 9 software package and represented as mean \pm SEM. All analyses were performed using parametric statistics based on historical values of the lab. Across all figures, statistical significance is represented using asterisks: *P \leq 0.05; **P \leq 0.01; ****P \leq 0.001; ****P \leq 0.0001. Nonsignificant differences are labeled as "n.s". A Student t-test was used to compare experimental conditions with only two groups and 1-way ANOVA was used to compare experimental conditions with multiple groups using a Dunnett post-hoc test to compare every group to a control and a Tukey post-hoc or Holm-Šidák post hoc test to compare several groups. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test was used to compare the cumulative distribution. Brown-Forsythe and Welch's ANOVA test was used when groups do not have equal variances. For human serum analyses, concentrations of NAM and PLP were log2 and z-score (mean centering and dividing by the standard deviation) transformed, while age was z-score transformed. Multiple linear regressions adjusted for age were performed using R software to estimate the association between clinical response variables (ALM and gait speed) and z-scores of NAM, PLP, dietary intake and age. Statistical analyses of RNA-sequencing experiments is described in the Supplementary Information file.

Study approval

Approbation to use human cells for research purposes was obtained from the Vaud ethics commission for human research (CER-VD) under authorization PB_2016-00709. Animal experiments were authorized by the Veterinary office of the Canton of Vaud, Switzerland

(authorization no. 3440 and 3690) and both the local ethic committee CEEA-55 and the French ministry of research (APAFIS#30000-2021022210224394 v1). Humane termination endpoints have been established prior to the start of the experiments as described in the animal authorizations. The Bushehr Elderly Health (BEH) cohort consists of 3000 individuals aged over 60 years old and living around the city of Bushehr, Iran. A detailed description of the entire cohort is available elsewhere (47, 71). The study protocol was approved by the ethics committee of Endocrinology and Metabolism Research Institute, affiliated to Tehran University of Medical Science as well as the Research Ethics Committee of Bushehr University of Medical Sciences under reference TUMS.EMRI.REC.1394.0036. Re-analysis performed in Switzerland were approved by the cantonal ethics commission for human research (CER-VD) in Vaud, Switzerland under reference 490/14. A written informed consent was signed by all the participants.

Data and materials availability

All software used were freely or commercially available. Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available upon justified request. RNA sequencing data have been deposited to GEO under accession numbers GSE264284, GSE264285 and GSE269250. Other materials are available for sharing upon justified request within the limit of availability of non-renewable samples. A Supporting Data Values file with all reported data values is available as part of the supplemental material. Complete unedited gel images are provided in the Supplemental Information file.

Author contributions

- S.A., J.M., P.S, and J.N.F. designed the experimental strategy, interpreted the results, and wrote
- the manuscript. S.A., J.M., S.K., P.G., S.R., T.D., L.P., J.L.S.G., and P.S. performed

experiments and analyzed data. J.M., S.K., Y.R., B.B., and D.B. developed and/or performed 623 the cellular screen. C.J., A.F., R.M., and J.G. designed, performed and analyzed the in vivo 624 muscle contraction experiments. I.S. performed and analyzed β-catenin luciferase experiments. 625 E.M., A.O., R.H. F.F. and J.N.F. lead human metabolomics and analyzed/interpreted the 626 results. S.M. and E.M. performed and analyzed transcriptomic experiments. G.J., L.T., and 627 S.M. supported imaging, flow cytometry, and genomics. L.G.K. and S.B. contributed to 628 experimental strategy and data interpretation. P.S, and J.N.F. conceived and lead the project. 629 S.A. and J.M. are listed as co-first authors as both authors share primary responsibility in 630 631 conducting experiments, analyses, and interpretation of results for this study. The order of shared authorship reflects the contribution to writing and editing of the manuscript. All authors 632 read and approved the final manuscript. 633

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Competing interests

- All authors, except C.J., A.F., R.M., J.G, I.S., A.O., R.H. and F.F., are or were employees of
- Nestlé (Société des Produits Nestlé SA or Nestlé Health Science SA). Other authors declare
- no conflict of interest.

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TABLES

 Table 1: Demographic data of the subset of the Bushehr Elderly Health (BEH) cohort (n=186). Abbreviations: NAM, nicotinamide; PLP, pyridoxal-5'-phosphate; ALM, appendicular lean mass; BMI, body mass index.

Variable	Mean	SD
Age (years)	68.97	6.17
NAM (nM)	7.49	0.69
PLP (nM)	5.31	0.7
ALM index (kg/m²)	6.84	0.86
Gait speed (m/s)	0.97	0.3
Weight (kg)	73.49	11.46
Height (m)	1.66	0.06
BMI	26.67	3.58

Variable	Count	%	
Sarcopenic (EWGSOP)	84	46.2	



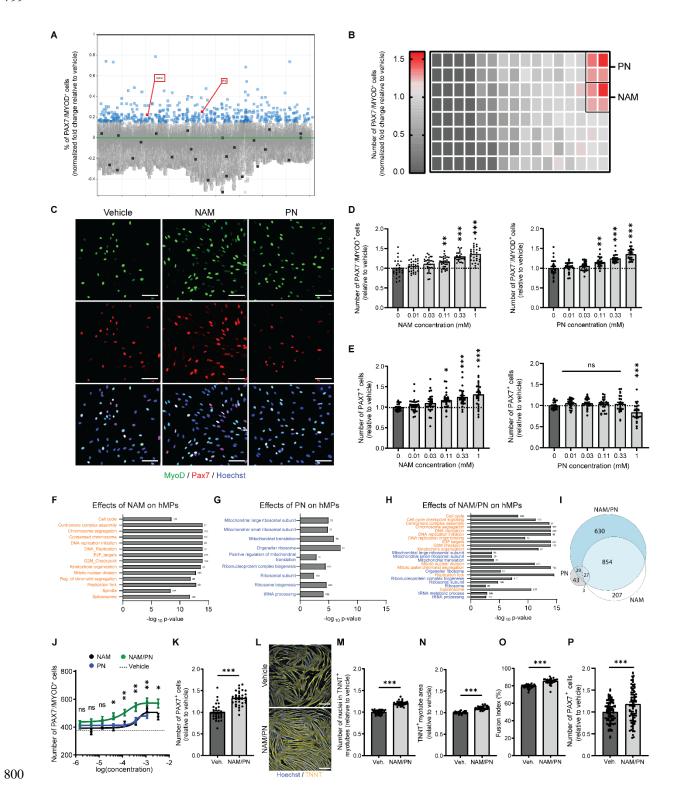


Fig. 1. A high-content screen identifies NAM and PN as activators of hMP amplification and differentiation. (A) Percentage of PAX7⁻/MYOD⁺ hMPs after 72h treatment with 50,000 bioactive molecules. Min-Max normalization between negative (black line) and positive control (LY363947, green line) was performed. Blue: compounds with normalized effect size > 15%; black: Generally Recognized As Safe (GRAS) molecules; red: GRAS hits. (**B**) Relative number of PAX7 $^{-}$ /MYOD $^{+}$ cells in hMPs treated with GRAS-classified molecules. n = 2-4 cell culture replicates from N = 2 donors. (C) Representative images of hMPs treated with vehicle, NAM, or PN for 72h. Scale bar, 100 µm. (**D**, **E**) Dose-response of NAM and PN on the relative number of PAX7⁻/MYOD⁺ (D) and PAX7⁺ (E) hMPs treated with vehicle, NAM, or PN for 72h. $n \ge 21$ cell culture replicates from N = 2 donors. (**F-H**) Gene set enrichment analysis of upregulated gene sets in hMPs treated with NAM (F), PN (G), or NAM/PN combination (H) compared to vehicle. False discovery rate: 10%. N = 5 donors. (I) Venn diagram of upregulated genes using 5% FDR multiple testing correction. (J) Dose-response of NAM, PN, and NAM/PN on PAX7⁻/MYOD⁺ hMPs. $n \ge 6$ cell culture replicates from one donor. (**K**) Ouantification of PAX7⁺ hMPs after vehicle and NAM/PN treatment. n > 32 cell culture replicates from one donor. (L-O) Representative images (L) and quantification of nuclei within myotubes (M), myotube area (N), and fusion index (O) in hMPs treated with vehicle or NAM/PN during proliferation and differentiation. Scale bar, 500 μ m. n \geq 28 cell culture replicates for each condition from one donor. (P) Quantification of PAX7⁺ hMPs after vehicle and NAM/PN treatment post myotube differentiation induction. $n \ge 92$ cell culture replicates from one donor. Data represent means ± s.e.m. *** P<0.001; ** P<0.01, * P<0.05 with oneway ANOVA followed by post hoc Dunnett's (D,E) or Tukey's (J) multiple comparison test, and two-tailed unpaired Student's t-tests (K,M,N,O,P).

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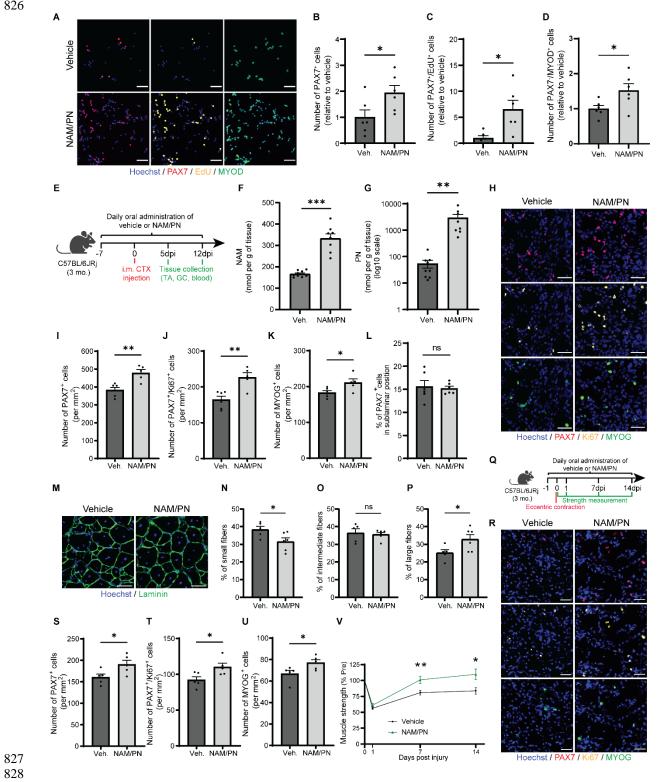


Fig. 2. The combination of NAM and PN enhances MuSC function in vivo and increases muscle strength during regeneration. (A-D) Representative immunofluorescence images and quantification of FACS-isolated mouse MuSCs treated with vehicle or NAM/PN ex vivo for 4 days, n = 6 cell culture replicates with cells pooled from N = 4 mice. (E) Cardiotoxininduced muscle regeneration in young mice treated orally with NAM/PN or vehicle. (F,G) NAM and PN concentrations quantified by LC-MS/MS in uninjured Gastrocnemius (GC) muscles from young vehicle (N = 9) and NAM/PN-treated (N = 8) mice. (H-K) Representative immunofluorescence images (H) and quantification of PAX7+ (I), PAX7+/Ki67+ (J), and MYOGENIN⁺ (K) cells in *Tibialis Anterior* (TA) cross-sections from vehicle (N = 6) and NAM/PN-treated (N = 5) mice at 5 dpi. (L) Number of PAX7⁺ sublaminar MuSCs in TA crosssections from vehicle (N = 6) and NAM/PN-treated (N = 6) mice at 12 dpi. (M-P)Representative immunofluorescence images (M) and quantification of minimum ferret of small (≤ 33µm) (N), intermediate (>33µm and ≤43µm) (O), and large (>43µm) (P) regenerating myofibers in TA cross-sections from vehicle (N = 5) and NAM/PN-treated (N = 6) mice at 12 dpi. (O) Eccentric contraction (EC)-induced muscle regeneration after electrically-evoked lengthening contractions of Plantar Flexor (PF) muscles in young vehicle- and NAM/PNtreated mice. (**R-U**) Representative immunofluorescence (R) and quantification of PAX7⁺ (S), Ki67⁺ (T) and MYOGENIN⁺ (U) cells in GC muscle from vehicle (N = 5) and NAM/PNtreated (N = 5) mice 7 days after the EC protocol. (V) Quantification of muscle strength (single twitch peak torque) in PF muscles before and 1, 7, and 14 days after EC-induced injury. N =12 mice. Data represented as means \pm s.e.m. *** P < 0.001; ** P < 0.05 with twotailed unpaired Student's t-tests (B,C,D,F,G,I,J,K,L,N,O,P,S,T,U). Scale bars, 50 µm.

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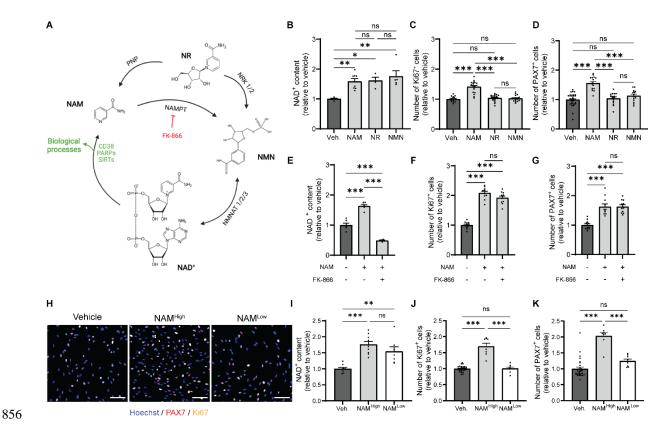


Fig. 3. Nicotinamide promotes human myogenic progenitor proliferation independently of NAD⁺ metabolism. (A) Scheme of mammalian NAD⁺ biosynthesis from various NAD⁺ precursors. NAD+, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide; NR, nicotinamide riboside; NMN, nicotinamide mononucleotide; NAMPT, nicotinamide phosphoribosyl transferase; NMNAT, nicotinamide mononucleotide adenylyl transferase; NRK, nicotinamide riboside kinase; PNP, purine nucleoside phosphorylase. (**B-D**) NAD⁺ content (B) and number of Ki67⁺ (C) and PAX7⁺ (D) human myogenic progenitors (hMPs) after treatment with vehicle or different NAD⁺ precursors. $n \ge 4$, and $n \ge 15$ cell culture replicates per condition from N = 2 donors, for (B) and (C,D), respectively. (E-G) NAD⁺ content (E) and number of Ki67⁺ (F) and PAX7⁺ (G) hMPs after treatment with NAM and the NAMPT inhibitor FK-866. $n \ge 4$, and $n \ge 11$ cell culture replicates per condition from N = 2 donors, for (E) and (F,G), respectively. (H-K) Representative pictures (H), NAD⁺ levels (I), and number of Ki67⁺ (J) and PAX7⁺ (K) hMPs after treatment with NAM at low (100 μ M) and high (1mM) doses. Scale bar, 100 μ m. n \geq 7 (I), and $n \ge 8$ (J,K) cell culture replicates from one donor. Data represented as means \pm s.e.m. *** P < 0.001; ** P < 0.01; * P < 0.05. one-way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey's multiple comparison test (B,C,D,E,F,G,I,J,K).

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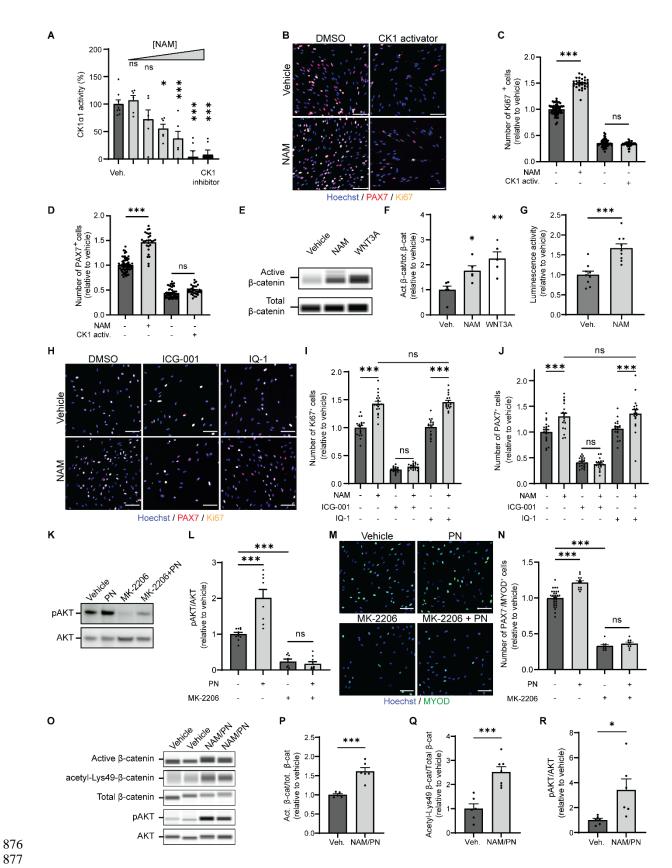


Fig. 4. NAM and PN stimulate hMPs through β-catenin and AKT signaling, respectively. (A) Dose-response of NAM on CK1α1 activity (1μM to 20mM). $n \ge 6$ replicates. (B-D) Representative immunofluorescence images (B) and quantification of Ki67⁺ (C) and PAX7⁺ (D) hMPs after treatment with NAM and/or CK1α activator. $n \ge 16$ cell culture replicates from

one donor. (E,F) Representative capillary immunoassays (E) and quantification (F) of nonphosphorylated β-catenin protein levels in NAM-treated hMPs. WNT3A was used as positive control of β -catenin activation. $n \ge 5$ cell culture replicates from N = 2 donors. (G) Luciferase activity of primary mouse MuSCs co-transfected with a TopFlash β-catenin luciferase reporter gene and treated with vehicle or NAM. n = 9 cell culture replicates. (H-J) Representative immunofluorescence images (H) and quantification of Ki67⁺ (I) and PAX7⁺ (J) hMPs after treatment with NAM and/or the β -catenin nuclear inhibitors ICG-001 and IQ-1. $n \ge 18$ cell culture replicates from one donor. (K, L) Representative immunoblot images (K) and quantification (L) of hMPs treated with PN and/or the AKT inhibitor MK-2206. $n \ge 8$ cell culture replicates from one donor. (M,N) Representative immunofluorescence images (M) and quantification of MYOD⁺ hMPs (N) following treatment with PN and/or MK-2206. n > 9 cell culture replicates from one donor. (O-R) Representative capillary immunoassays (O) and quantification of active non-phosphorylated β-catenin protein levels (P), Lys49 acetylation of β-catenin (Q), and pAKT/AKT ratio (R) in MuSCs from regenerating muscles following oral NAM/PN supplementation in young mice. $N \ge 5$ mice for each condition. Mouse MuSCs were freshly isolated from regenerating mouse TA, GC, and QD muscles at 5 dpi. Data represented as means \pm s.e.m. *** P < 0.001; ** P < 0.01; * P < 0.05. One-way ANOVA with post-hoc Dunnett's (A, F), Sidak's multiple comparisons adjustment (C,D,I,J,L,N) or two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test (G,P,Q,R). Scale bars: 100 µm.

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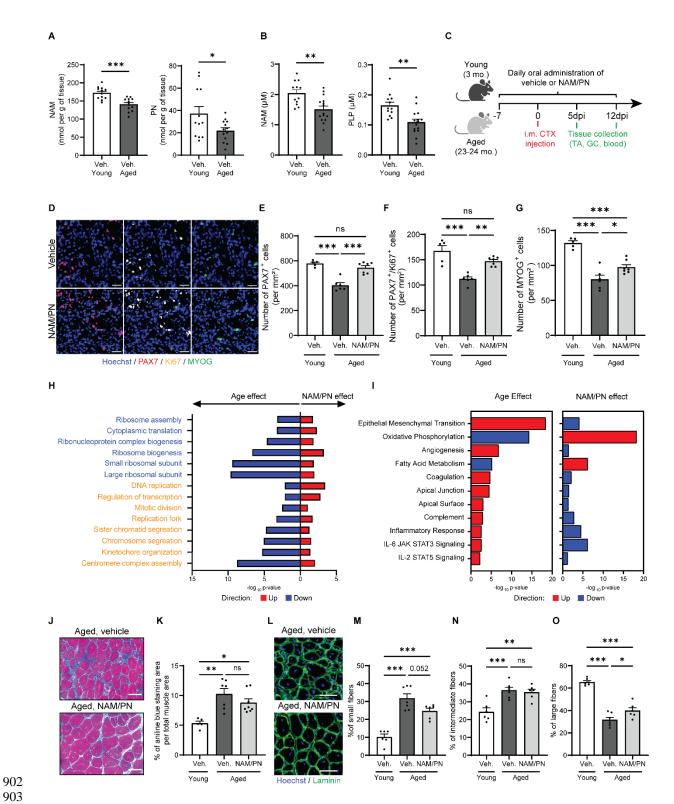


Fig. 5. NAM/PN restores MuSC function and enhances regeneration in aged skeletal muscle. (A-B) *Gastrocnemius* (A) and plasma (B) concentrations of NAM and PN or NAM and PLP by LC-MS/MS in young and aged mice. $N \ge 12$ mice per group (C) Experimental scheme of CTX-induced muscle regeneration in young and aged mice treated with NAM/PN or vehicle. (D-G) Representative immunofluorescence images (D) and quantification of PAX7⁺, PAX7⁺/Ki67⁺ (F), and MYOGENIN⁺ (G) cells on *Tibialis Anterior* (TA) cross-sections from young (N = 5) and aged vehicle- (N = 6) and NAM/PN-treated (N = 7) mice at 5 dpi. (H) Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) curated from GO:BP gene sets of freshly

isolated MuSCs from young and aged mice (age effect) and of aged MuSCs treated ex vivo with vehicle or NAM/PN (treatment effect) (N = 6). (I) Gene set enrichment analysis of curated Hallmarks gene sets of regenerating GC muscles of young vs aged mice and of vehicle-vs NAM/PN-treated aged mice 5 dpi (N = 6). False discovery rate: 10%. (J,K) Representative images (J) and quantification (K) of fibrotic aniline blue-positive area from a Masson trichrome staining of TA cross-sections from young (N = 5) and aged vehicle- (N = 7) and NAM/PN-treated (N=8) mice at 12 dpi. (L-O) Representative immunofluorescence images (L), quantification of minimum ferret myofiber size of small (\leq 22 μ m) (M), intermediate (\geq 22 μ m and \leq 32 μ m) (N), and large (\geq 32 μ m) (O) regenerating myofibers in TA cross-sections from young (N = 6), aged vehicle- (N = 7) and NAM/PN-treated (N = 6) mice at 12 dpi. Data are represented as means \pm s.e.m. *** P < 0.001; ** P < 0.05. Two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test (A,B) and one-way ANOVA followed by post hoc Tukey's (E,F,G,K,M,N,O) multiple comparison tests. Scale bars, 50 μ m.

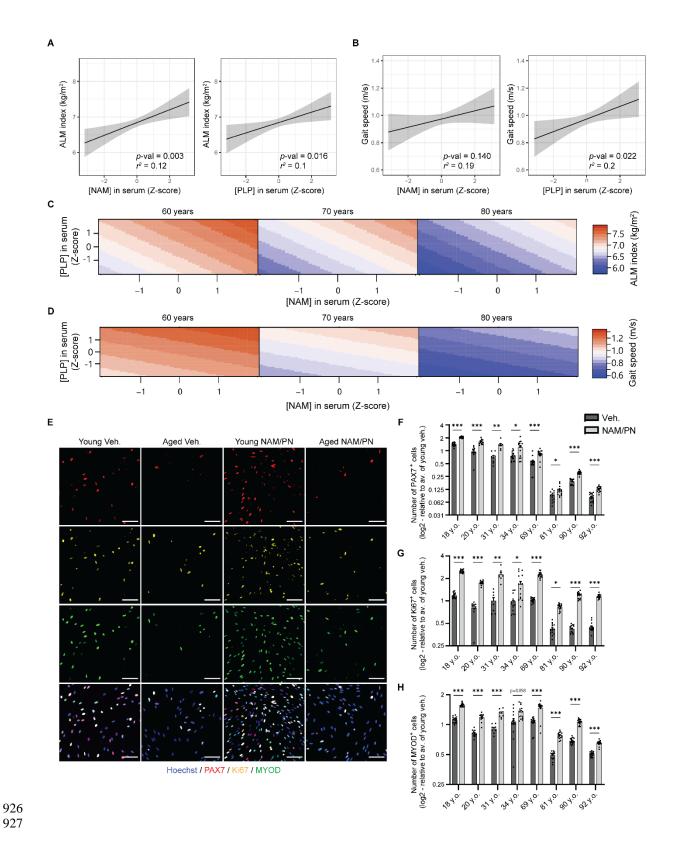


Fig. 6. Nicotinamide and pyridoxine associate with muscle mass and function in aged humans and restore the myogenic capacity of aged hMPs. (A-D) LC-MS/MS analyses of NAM and pyridoxal-5'-phosphate (PLP, bioactive pyridoxine) in the serum of men aged > 60 years (N = 186 subjects). Appendicular lean mass index (ALMi) (A) and gait speed (B) were correlated to serum concentrations of NAM and PLP using a linear regression model adjusted for age. Regression line (black) and 95% confidence interval (gray). Estimated outcomes of the combined effect of NAM and PLP on ALMi (C) and gait speed (D) were modeled at different ages using a multiple linear regression model adjusted for age. (E-H) Representative immunofluorescence images and quantification of PAX7⁺ (F), Ki67⁺ (G) and MYOD⁺ (H) hMPs, n ≥ 8 cell culture replicates from N = 8 donors aged from 18 to 92 years following 72h of treatment with vehicle or NAM/PN. Data presented are means ± s.e.m. *** P < 0.001; *** P < 0.01. Data are mean ± SEM with significance assessed using Brown-Forsythe and Welch's ANOVA tests with Dunnett T3 multiple-comparison in 8 donors (F,G,H). Scale bar, 100 μm.