Megabase-Scale Transgene De-Duplication to Generate a Functional Single-Copy Full-Length

Humanized DMD Mouse Model.

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Abstract

The development of sequence-specific precision treatments like CRISPR gene editing therapies for

Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy (DMD) requires sequence humanised animal models to enable the

direct clinical translation of tested strategies. The current available integrated transgenic mouse

model containing the full-length human *DMD* gene, Tg(DMD)72Thoen/J (hDMDTg), has been found

to have two copies of the transgene per locus in a tail-to-tail orientation, which does not accurately

simulate the true copy number of the *DMD* gene. This duplication also complicates analysis when

testing CRISPR therapy editing outcomes, as large genetic alterations and rearrangements can occur

between the cut sites on the two transgenes. To address this, we performed long read nanopore

sequencing on hDMDTg mice to better understand the structure of the duplicated transgenes.

Following that, we performed a megabase-scale deletion of one of the transgenes by CRISPR zygotic

microinjection to generate a single-copy, full-length, humanised DMD transgenic mouse model

(hDMDTgSc). Functional, molecular, and histological characterisation shows that the single remaining

human transgene retains its function and rescues the dystrophic phenotype caused by endogenous

murine *Dmd* knockout. Our unique hDMDTgSc mouse model can potentially be used for the further

generation of DMD disease models that would be better suited for the pre-clinical assessment and

development of sequence specific CRISPR therapies.

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Introduction

Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy (DMD) is an X-linked monogenic disorder characterised by

progressive wasting of skeletal and heart muscles [1]. This condition has an incidence of around 1 in

5,000 newborn boys and is caused by loss-of-function mutations in the X-linked *DMD* gene, resulting

in the absence of dystrophin protein expression [2, 3]. *DMD* is the largest human gene,

encompassing 79 exons spanning 2.4 Mb. It encodes various short and long dystrophin isoforms that

are differentially expressed in muscle and the nervous system [4]. The predominant muscle isoform,

Dp427m, plays a crucial role in connecting intracellular actin filaments with extracellular laminin via

the dystrophin associated glycoprotein complex, which is essential for maintaining and stabilising the

muscle cell membrane (sarcolemma) during contractions. Without dystrophin, the sarcolemma is

prone to contraction-induced mechanical stress and damage, leading to the progressive replacement

of muscle with fat and fibrous tissue [5].

Most DMD-causing mutations are large exonic deletions clustering around deletion hotspots that

disrupt the reading frame [6]. Mutations that otherwise retain the *DMD* reading frame are associated

with the less common and symptomatically milder Becker Muscular Dystrophy (BMD), where

internally truncated but partially functional dystrophin protein is produced.

Pre-clinical testing of sequence-specific therapies for DMD, such as antisense oligonucleotide (ASO)

and CRISPR gene editing, require humanised animal models due to variations in the *DMD* gene

sequence across different species [7]. Strategies designed to target endogenous animal sequences

may not necessarily retain their efficiencies or specificities when converted to their corresponding

human-targeting sequence. Thus, humanised animal models that incorporate the entire human *DMD*

genomic sequence are invaluable for assessing patient-relevant therapeutic candidates that target

intronic sequences or modulate splicing.

The first humanised DMD mouse model with stable germline transmission, Tg(DMD)72Thoen/J

(hDMDTg), was created by integrating a yeast artificial chromosome (YAC) containing the full-length

human *DMD* (*hDMD*) transgene into chromosome 5 of mouse embryonic stem (ES) cells [8]. When

crossed with the *mdx* strain lacking murine dystrophin expression, the resulting hDMDTg/*mdx* mice

exhibited functional compensation for the absence of mouse dystrophin through human dystrophin

expression. Because it possesses the complete human *DMD*, including proximal regulatory

sequences (promoter), exons and introns, the hDMDTg/*mdx* strain serves as a platform for the

further creation of humanised DMD disease models by the introduction of mutations into the *hDMD*

transgene that mimic various DMD patient mutations. Examples of these mouse disease models

include the exon 52 deletion hDMDTgEx52Δ/*mdx* models [9, 10] and the exon 45 deletion

hDMDTgEx45Δ/*mdx* and hDMDTgEx45Δ/*mdxD2* models [11]. A second mouse model with the full

length human *DMD* gene carried on a non-integrated human artificial chromosome (DYS-HAC) has

also been generated, but mice with DYS-HACs containing DMD mutations has not yet been

developed [12, 13].

During the detailed characterisation of their TALEN-generated hDMDTgEx52Δ/*mdx* mouse model*,*

Yavas *et al.* (2020) identified a tail-to-tail duplication of the *hDMD* transgene present in both the

hDMDTgEx52Δ/*mdx* and hDMDTg/*mdx* mice by interphase FISH and digital droplet PCR, indicating

that a duplication event likely occurred during the initial generation of the hDMDTg model [14]. The

two-copy number of this transgene does not accurately reflect the single-copy nature of the *DMD*

gene in males and also makes the generation of mouse models harbouring patient mutations much

more complicated.

In this study, we carried out a detailed genetic analysis of hDMDTg mice using short- and long-read

whole genome sequencing to resolve the structure of the duplicated hDMD transgenes. We then de-

duplicated the *hDMD* transgene in hDMDTg mice through the CRISPR microinjection of zygotes to

generate a single-copy hDMD mouse strain, hDMDTgSc. Additionally, we provide characterisation of

these hDMDTgSc mice and show that the single remaining transgene copy is functional and rescues

the phenotype associated with the endogenous *Dmd* knock-out mouse.

Results

Sequence analysis of the hDMDTg model with duplicated hDMD transgenes

To identify the 5' and 3' boundaries of the *DMD* locus of the hDMDTg transgene, short-read genome

sequencing was performed on genomic DNA extracted from the liver of homozygous hDMDTg mice.

The sequencing data was mapped to the mouse (GRCm38_68) and human (GRCh38) genome

reference sequences. Mapping to the mouse genome produced average depth of 27.68-fold (Figure

1). Mapping to the human genome produced an average depth of ~60 fold in the range

chrX:31,081,740-33,507,715 strongly suggesting that this region defines the locus included in the

original YAC clone used to make the hDMD transgene and confirming that the region was duplicated

based on the coverage depth compared to the mouse genome.

To identify the transgene integration site on mouse chromosome 5, we generated a custom mouse

reference genome incorporating the *DMD* locus identified from mapping to GRCh38 and the

sequence of pYAC4 the transgene vector. Next, we mapped short-read Illumina genome sequencing

(GS) data and Nanopore long-read sequence data from the hDMDTg mouse to this custom reference.

For short-read GS, 36,781 break ends corresponding to sites of structural variation (deletions,

duplications, translocations, or inversions) on chr5 were called with GRIDSS2. In the case of the long

read GS, 1769 structural variants (SV) were called on chr5. However, without a non-transgenic

littermate control genome, the exact insertion site could not be determined from these

investigations alone. There were no translocations between mouse chr5, the human *DMD* locus or

the pYAC4 identified from any of these analyses.

De novo assembly of hDMDTg long-read data revealed a collection of related contigs in the hDMDTg

assembly graph that corresponded to the transgene (Supplementary Figure 1A). Approximately 10.8

Mb of sequence in the assembly graph which included the *DMD* locus corresponded to yeast

chromosomal sequences (Supplementary Figure 1A). Mapping these transgene associated contigs

back to the custom GRCm38+*DMD*+pYAC4 reference revealed a breakpoint on chr5: 5:133,626,547

that linked to these inserted transgenic sequences. Re-examination of structural variant calls from

both long- and short-read mapped data confirmed the transgene insertion site on mouse chr5, which

included a 174 kb duplication of mouse chr 5 (5:g.133,626,547_133,800,724dup) at this location

(Figure 2).

Comparison of the mapped hDMDTg sequences revealed that the *DMD* loci within the hDMDTg

transgene were not exact duplications. One copy ranged from chrX:31,081,740-33,507,715, and the

other chrX:31,081,740-33,495,727 (Figure 2). The contig containing *DMD* from the de novo assembly

also captured the tail-to-tail orientation of the transgenes consisting of inverted repeats of *URA3,*

HygR, HIS3, and *β-lactamase* genes (Figure 2). Based on the assembly the NeoR antibiotic resistance

cassette is suggested to only occur once at the 5' end of one of the *hDMD* transgenes (Figure 2).

Generation of the single copy hDMDTgSc mouse model

To faithfully recapitulate the single-copy nature of the *DMD* gene, we aimed to generate a single-

copy hDMD transgenic mouse model (hDMDTgSc) by microinjecting hDMDTg$^{Tg/0}$ embryos with

SpCas9 mRNA and gRNAs targeting the NeoR and HygR cassettes on the YAC sequences. This was

designed to induce the megabase-scale intervening deletion of only a single transgene. Potential

founders were screened by PCR and by identified by amplification of the deletion interval between

the NeoR and HygR gRNA target sites, as well as the absence of NeoR amplification. One male

founder was identified to carry the desired deletion (Figure 3A).

Following transmission of the de-duplicated transgene to G1 mice, we quantified the hDMD

transgene copy number in hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$ mice by qPCR using three sets of primers targeting the 5'

untranslated region (UTR), Exon 50 and 3' UTR of the *hDMD* transgene. Both G1 male and female

hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$ mice were confirmed to carry a single copy of the autosomal *hDMD* transgene,

compared to two copies in the hDMDTg$^{Tg/0}$ control (Figure 3B).

Sequence analysis of hDMDTgSc mice

Mapping Nanopore long-read sequence data from hDMDTgSc mice to our custom reference mouse

genome with the human *DMD* locus and pYAC4 sequence, we identified 1462 SVs on chr5. Of all SV

called between the hDMDTg and hDMDTgSc data, 196 were concordant, one of which was the 174kb

duplication on chr5 containing the transgene insertions site. De novo assembly of hDMDTgSc long-

read data also captured the transgene insertion site on mouse chr5; however, a contig corresponding

to *DMD* was not assembled from these data by Shasta, and thus, this graph contained only mouse

and yeast chromosomal sequences (Supplementary Figure 1B). From comparison to mapped

hDMDTg sequences, only the shorter copy of the *DMD* locus (chrX:31,081,740-33,495,727) was

retained in the single-copy hDMDTgSc transgene (Figure 1).

Characterisation of the hDMDTgSc mDmdKO mouse model

To assess if the single copy hDMD transgene in hDMDTgSc mice retains functionality, we

characterised male hDMDTg$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ and hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ mice, both strains lacking

endogenous mouse dystrophin expression.

Skeletal and heart muscle tissues were collected from p60 mice for mRNA, protein, and histology

analysis. We performed quantitative RT-PCR analysis of the dystrophin transcript in quadriceps and

heart muscles using a set of primers that detects both the human and mouse transcript by targeting

shared sequences. In quadriceps muscle, the expression level of *hDMD* in hDMDTg$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ mice

is equivalent to that of the *mDmd* in WT C57BL/6J mice, whereas *hDMD* expression in hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$

mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ quadriceps is approximately halved (Figure 4A). In heart muscles, *hDMD* transcript in

hDMDTg$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ mice is slightly higher than *mDmd* in WT C57BL/6J mice, while *hDMD*

expression in hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ heart is, although somewhat variable, more similar to that of

mDmd (Figure 4B).

Western blots were performed with the human dystrophin-specific MANDYS106 antibody. Full-length

dystrophin protein was detected in tibialis anterior (TA), quadriceps and heart muscles of

hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ mice at a lower level compared to hDMDTg$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ mice (Figure 5). The

quadriceps western blot was re-probed with MANDYS8, which is cross-reactive with both human and

mouse dystrophin, confirming that MANDYS106 only detects human dystrophin.

Immunofluorescence staining of dystrophin with MANDYS106 in TA, quadriceps and heart muscles

showed the expected sarcolemmal localisation of the human dystrophin protein in hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$

mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ muscle, as for hDMDTg$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ muscle tissue (Figure 6, Supplementary Figure 2).

Histological analysis of hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ muscle sections stained with hematoxylin and eosin

(H&E) revealed normal muscle histology with nuclei localised at the sarcolemmal region, consistent

muscle fibre size, and no evidence of damage or infiltrating cells (Figure 7). Conversely, mDmd$^{KO/Y}$

muscle was dystrophic, with many centralised nuclei indicating muscle regeneration as well as the

presence of cellular infiltrates.

We performed forelimb grip strength testing followed by serum collection for creatine kinase analysis

on mice at postnatal day 32 (p32) and day 60 (p60). Forelimb grip strength testing showed that

hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ mice have similar maximum and mean grip strength to hDMDTg$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$

mice at p32 and that both these strains have no significant difference in strength compared to

wildtype C57BL/6J control mice, demonstrating functional rescue of the reduced grip strength

caused by the endogenous *mDmd* knock-out (Figure 8A,B). hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ and hDMDTg$^{Tg/0}$

mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ also do not experience the same onset of fatigue caused by repeated measurements as

observed in mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ mice (Figure 8C,D).

The serum samples collected after the forelimb grip strength testing were used to assess serum

creatine kinase (CK) levels, an indirect measure of muscle damage. Both hDMDTg$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ and

hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ mice have a similar reduction of serum CK levels to WT C57BL/6J controls at

p32 and p60 (Figure 9).

Discussion

Validated humanised animal models are important tools for pre-clinical evaluation of genetic

therapies as they permit in vivo testing of sequence-specific reagents that can be directly translated

into patients. Generation of a hDMDTg mouse model containing the entire *hDMD* locus randomly

integrated into mouse chromosome 5 was a significant advance, particularly given the size of the

transgene (2.4 Mb). However, it was subsequently shown that two copies of the transgene had

inserted, which does not accurately reflect the copy number of the *DMD* gene [14]. Furthermore,

derivatives of the hDMDTg line such as the del52 exon deletion disease model are more difficult to

engineer and validate. While these double-copy humanised models can be used for the testing of

ASOs [15], they are not ideal for evaluating strategies that are reliant on DNA double-stranded breaks

such as CRISPR-Cas9 gene editing [16]. This is because large intervening deletions between the target

sites of the two transgene copies can complicate the analysis of DNA repair outcomes.

Here, we describe the generation and characterisation of the hDMDTgSc mouse model carrying a

single functional copy of the 2.4 Mb *hDMD* transgene. Large megabase-scale DNA modifications have

been previously demonstrated to be achievable through CRISPR microinjection[17-20]. We

performed a detailed genetic characterisation of the original duplicated hDMDTg transgene structure

by analysis of Illumina short-read and Nanopore long-read sequencing data to determine unique

targetable regions. Using gRNAs that flank one copy of the transgene, we readily achieved transgene

de-duplication of the hDMDTg mouse model by CRISPR zygote microinjection and demonstrated

stable germline transmission.

We also successfully resolved the exact YAC integration site in chromosome 5 and can confirm that

no genes were disrupted at the integration site. Long-read sequencing helped us confirm that a

single copy of the hDMD transgene remained intact in hDMDTgSc mice following the de-duplication

process, and its reduced copy number was also reflected in the reduced mapping depths from

sequencing.

There are some limitations to the genetic analyses we performed via next-generation sequencing.

Using only nanopore long-read sequences, we were not able to unambiguously assemble the full-

length hDMDTgSc and hDMDTg transgenes despite achieving a total assembly length similar to the

length of the mm10 genome reference and a relatively high contig N50 (Supp Table 1). The exact

assembly and ordering of the yeast chromosomal sequences that flank the DMD loci in the

duplicated and single-copy transgenes remains uncertain. Additional long-read sequencing with high-

quality PacBio circular consensus sequences would likely be sufficient to create a near-continuous

assembly of the transgenic mouse genome as has been done for the human T2T reference sequence

[21].

From phenotypic, biochemical, molecular, and histological characterisation of hemizygous hDMDTgSc

mice lacking endogenous mouse dystrophin, we found that the single hDMD transgene is sufficient

to rescue the dystrophic phenotype observed in mDmd knock-out mice at a similar level to the

hDMDTg mDmdKO strain. This is despite the reduced transgene transcription in skeletal muscle

driven by the human promoter sequence, which is likely not optimally regulated by the mouse

transcription machinery [22]. Additionally, there appears to be a slight reduction of hDMDTgSc

mDmdKO mouse strength compared to hDMDTg mDmdKO mice at p60 that might reflect a high but

incomplete level of functional rescue- more studies are needed to determine if it is due to transgene

expression not being as high as in hDMDTg mDmdKO mice or if it could be attributed to experimental

variation.

Our hDMDTgSc mouse model has considerable potential for the pre-clinical testing of sequence-

specific ASOs or CRISPR therapeutics as, in principle, any causative DMD mutation can be engineered

into the single-copy 2.4 Mb *hDMD* transgene, such as models lacking *DMD* exons 45 or 52 like those

previously generated from the double transgenic mice. This enables ready generation of humanised

DMD disease mouse models, which has an advantage over the more labour-intensive and inefficient

partial sequence humanisation methods where exon knock-ins must be performed for each separate

exonic target [23]. Crossing these human transgene knock-out mice with mice lacking endogenous

dystrophin expression would result in a disease model suitable for the testing of CRISPR therapy

strategies, and could also be inter-crossed with a mouse strain lacking both endogenous dystrophin

and utrophin expression to simulate an even more severe dystrophic phenotype [24].

Materials and Methods

Animal studies

All procedures and experiments using mice were approved by the South Australian Health and

Medical Research Institute (SAHMRI) Animal Ethics Committee and conducted per the Australian

code for the care and use of animals for scientific purposes.

Mice were housed in 13.5-hour light/10.5-hour dark cycles and were fed the Teklad Global 2918

rodent diet *Ad Libitum*. Except where indicated, male mice were used in characterisation

experiments. Tg(DMD)72Thoen/J (hDMDTg) were obtained from JAX (stock #018900) and maintained

in-house [8]. mDmdΔEx51 (mDmd^{KO}) and hDMDTgSc were generated as described in the sections

below and maintained in-house. We maintain hDMDTgSc mice as a tick-over colony of homozygotes.

C57Bl/6J mice are maintained in house (JAX stock #000664).

Mouse generation

To create the intervening deletion of a single copy of the *hDMD* transgene, we designed SpCas9

gRNAs targeting the Neomycin and Hygromycin antibiotic resistance cassettes in the integrated YAC

sequence. Complementary gRNA oligos with overhangs facilitating golden gate assembly were

phospho-annealed and inserted into pSpCas9(BB)-2A-Puro (PX459) V2.0 [25]. pSpCas9(BB)-2A-Puro

(PX459) V2.0 was a gift from Feng Zhang (Addgene plasmid # 62988 ; http://n2t.net/addgene:62988 ;

RRID:Addgene_62988). Following plasmid validation by *BbsI* diagnostic digest and Sanger sequencing

(Australian Genome Research Facility), gRNAs were amplified using NEB Phusion in HF buffer with

primers containing a 5' T7 promoter sequence. PCR amplicons purified using the QIAquick PCR

Purification Kit (Qiagen) were used to generate gRNA using the HiScribe T7 Quick High Yield RNA

Synthesis Kit (NEB) and purified using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen).

hDMDTg$^{Tg/Tg}$ mouse sperm was used for *in-vitro* fertilisation of C57BL/6J oocytes, and 2PN embryos

were injected with a microinjection mix containing a final concentration of 100 ng/μL SpCas9 mRNA

and 50 ng/μL each of NeoR and HygR gRNA. This was followed by oviduct transfer into pseudo-

pregnant females. Intervening transgene deletion was detected in founders by PCR amplification

using the forward NeoR and reverse HygR primers.

mDmd^{KO} mice were generated by deletion of *Dmd* Exon 51 via CRISPR microinjection of C57BL/6J

embryos (manuscript submitted).

DNA PCR and Sanger sequencing

Genomic DNA (gDNA) was isolated from mouse ear punch biopsies using the PCR Template

Preparation kit (Roche). Targets was PCR amplified using Taq Polymerase (Roche) and FailSafe™

Buffer J (Epicentre) and resolved on a 1% agarose TBE gel.

To prepare samples for sequencing, PCR reactions were cleaned up using the QIAquick PCR

Purification kit (Qiagen). Samples with sequencing primers added were sent to the Australian

Genome Research Facility (AGRF) for the purified DNA Sanger sequencing service.

Short-read genome sequencing

Library prep and sequencing was performed as a service by the Australian Genome Research Facility

(AGRF). Genomic DNA extracted from hDMDTg mice liver were sheared and PCR-free sequencing

libraries prepared. From these libraries, 150 base pair, paired-end reads were generated on a

NovaSeq 6000. Image analysis was performed in real time by the NovaSeq Control Software (NCS)

v1.7.5 and Real Time Analysis (RTA) v3.4.4. Then the Illumina bcl2fastq v2.20.0.422 pipeline was used

to generate the final fastq files.

Mapping

All mapping of short read data was carried out using BWA-MEM v 0.7.17 [26] setting option -K, the

number of input bases, to 100,000,000 per batch and all other options as default.

A custom reference genome was prepared which combined the GRCm38.p3 mouse genome

(GenBank: GCA_000001635.5), a segment of human chromosome X (NCBI RefSeq: NC000023.11;

chrX:31,081,740-33,507,715) and pYAC4 (GenBank: U01086.1). The chrX segment was defined by

identifying the extents of reads accurately mapped to the region flanking *DMD* on chrX in the

hs38DH human genome (created using the run-gen-ref script from bwakit) [27]. The pYAC4 vector

sequence was used as a proxy for the pRANT-11 and pLGTel-1 vectors that were originally used for

cloning of the hDMD YAC transgene and for which no sequence data are available [28].

Alignments were sorted by genome coordinate positions using samtools sort v 1.17 and duplicate

reads were marked using sambamba markdup v 0.8.2 [29].

Variant calling

Structural variants were called using GRIDSS v 2.12.0 with default settings [30].

Oxford nanopore genome sequencing

High molecular weight genomic DNA was extracted from homozygous hDMDTg and hDMDTgSc mice

liver using the Monarch HMW DNA Extraction Kit for Tissue (NEB). Oxford Nanopore Technologies

Promethion genome sequencing was performed as a service by Novogene, (Novogene HK). Sequence

libraries were prepared using the DNA ligation sequencing protocol with the SQK-LSK-110 kit.

Sequence data were generated using a Promethion 9.4.1 flow cell. Bases were called with bonito

v0.6.2 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies) with the dna_r9.4.1_e8_sup@v3.3 super accurate base

calling model.

Mapping

Oxford Nanopore long-read data were mapped to the custom GRCm38+*DMD*+pYAC4 genome

described above and also the human genome reference GRCh38 using minimap2 v2.17-r941 with

default parameters for nanopore sequencing.

Variant calling

Structural variants were called from mapped long read genome sequencing with Sniffles2 using

default settings [31].

Assembly

Nanopore sequence reads were assembled de novo using Shasta v 0.11.1 [32] using the Nanopore-

May2022 model adjusting the minimum length of input reads to 5 kb. To identify contigs associated

with the hDMD transgene sequence, the Assembly.fasta outputs were mapped to the custom

GRCm38+*DMD*+pYAC4 genome described above with minimap2 and assembled into super contigs

using RagTag v 2.1.0 [33]. The contigs from the Assembly.fasta files were also converted into a BLAST

v 2.14.1+ library that was queried with 500 bp segments from the 5' and 3'limits of the *DMD* locus in

the hDMDTgSc transgene. Assembly graphs were viewed using Bandage v 0.8.1.

Transgene copy number determination

qPCRs were performed to quantify the *hDMD* transgene copy number and were done in technical

triplicate. Each reaction well was set up using SYBR™ Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems), 50

nM of each forward and reverse primer and 10 ng gDNA in a 15 μL reaction volume. qPCR data was

normalised to endogenous *Sox1.* Reactions were run on the QuantStudio™ 3 Real-Time PCR System

(Applied Biosystems) using the Fast Run Mode with the following reaction conditions: 95°C for 20 s,

followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 1 s and 60°C for 20 s, and a dissociation protocol to obtain a melt

curve for all samples running from 60°C to 95°C.

RNA extraction and qRT-PCR

Muscle tissues were bead homogenised in 500 μL TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen) using Lysing Matrix D

(MP Biomedicals). 100 μL of chloroform was added and samples were shaken vigorously, incubated

at RT for 3 mins then centrifuged at 10 000 g for 18 min at 4°C to separate phases. The aqueous

phase was isolated, mixed with an equal volume of ethanol, and spun through a RNeasy column from

the RNeasy Mini kit (Qiagen) at 8 000 g for 30 s. The column was washed with 700 μL buffer RW1 and

twice with 500 μL buffer RPE. RNA was eluted in 30 μL of nuclease-free water, quantified by

nanodrop and stored at -80°C. cDNA was generated from 1 μg RNA using the High-Capacity RNA-to-

cDNA kit (Applied Biosystems) as per manufacturer's protocol.

qRT-PCRs were performed to quantify dystrophin transcript expression in technical and biological

triplicate. The primers used were designed to target shared sequences in both *hDMD* and *mDmd*

transcript. Each reaction well was set up using SYBR™ Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems),

50 nM of each forward and reverse primer and 1 μL of cDNA in a 15 μL reaction volume. qPCR data

was normalised to beta-actin (*Actb*) expression*.* Reactions were run on the QuantStudio™ 3 Real-

Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems) with the same parameters listed in the transgene copy-

number determination section above. Analysis was performed using the Design and Analysis

Software 2.7.0. Transcript expression data presented as $\log_2(RQ)$ to show proportional changes.

Western blot

Tissues were bead homogenised in disruption buffer (75 mM Tris HCl pH 6.8, 15% SDS, 1x cOmplete

Protease Inhibitor Cocktail EDTA (Roche)), using Lysing Matrix D (MP Biomedicals). 1/10 diluted

lysates were quantified using the Pierce BCA protein assay (Thermo Scientific). 30 µg of protein

lysates were mixed with equal parts 2x Loading buffer (21% w/v glycerol, 0.001% w/v bromophenol

blue, 5% β-Mercaptoethanol), boiled at 95°C for 5 mins and spun at 21 300 rcf for 5 mins prior to

loading in NuPAGE Tris-Acetate gels (Invitrogen). Gels were run at 150 V for 1 h and transferred onto

0.2 µm PVDF membranes using the High MW setting on the Trans-Blot Turbo (Bio-Rad). Membranes

were blocked with 10% skim milk in TBS-T for 2h with gentle agitation at RT. Dystrophin was probed

with 1:500 Anti-Dystrophin antibody, clone 2C6 MANDYS106 (Sigma-Aldrich) in 2% skim milk in TBS-T

overnight at 4°C. The following day, membranes were washed three times for 5 mins with TBS-T and

incubated with 1:5 000 secondary anti-mouse antibody in 2% skim milk in TBS-T for 1h at RT. After

another set of TBS-T washes, membranes were developed with SuperSignal West Pico Plus

Chemiluminescent Substrate (Thermo Scientific), and chemiluminescent detection was performed on

the ChemiDoc MP system (Bio-Rad) using automated exposure settings for intense bands.

Membranes were stripped with Restore PLUS Western Blot Stripping Buffer (Thermo Scientific) prior

to re-probing. All dystrophin was probed with 1:500 anti-dystrophin antibody MANDYS8. Vinculin

was probed with 1:1 000 Anti-vinculin antibody, V9131 (Sigma-Aldrich).

Immunofluorescence

Fresh muscle was snap-frozen in dry-ice-cooled isopentane and immediately embedded in Tissue-Tek

O.C.T. 10 µm thick cryostat-sliced transverse sections were permeabilised with PBS + 0.3% Triton X-

100 for 10 minutes, blocked with 10% FCS in PBS + 0.3% Triton X-100 for 1 h at RT, and treated with

1x ReadyProbes™ Mouse-on-Mouse IgG Blocking Solution (Invitrogen) as per manufacturer

instructions. Slides were incubated with 1:100 Anti-Dystrophin antibody, clone 2C6 MANDYS106

(Sigma-Aldrich) diluted in blocking solution overnight at 4°C in a humidified chamber. The next day

slides were washed with PBS for 3x 5mins and incubated with secondary anti-mouse antibody

conjugated with Alexa Fluor® 594 for 1h at RT. Slides were washed with PBS for 3x 5mins and

mounted with ProLong™ Gold Antifade Mountant with DAPI (Invitrogen) and coverslip. Images were

taken on a Nikon Eclipse Ti2 microscope with a DS-Qi2 camera. The same image processing was

applied to images from the same muscle group.

Histological analysis of muscles

Fresh muscle was mounted on 10% gum tragacanth on a piece of cork, snap frozen in liquid-nitrogen-

cooled isopentane and immediately stored at -80°C. For skeletal muscles, 10 µm thick cryostat-sliced

transverse sections were stained with Lillie Mayer's Hematoxylin and Eosin, as described by Wang et

al. (2017) with the following modifications to the dehydration steps: 2 dips of 70% ethanol, 4 dips of

95% ethanol, 2x 1 min of 100 ethanol and 2x 1 min of xylene. For heart muscles, 10 µm thick

cryostat-sliced transverse sections were stained with Lillie Mayer's Hematoxylin for 6 mins, rinsed

with running tap water for 1min, destained with 0.5% acid alcohol and developed in Scott's tap water

for 1 minute [34]. After rinsing with running water for 2 minutes, slides were stained with eosin for 3

mins and quickly rinsed with running tap water before dehydrating through an increasing

concentration of ethanol and xylene as described in the skeletal muscle protocol. Slides were

mounted with DPX mountant (Sigma-Aldrich) and coverslip. Images were taken using the 3DHISTECH

Pannoramic 250 Flash Slide Scanner at 40x magnification. The same image processing was applied to

all images.

Forelimb grip strength test

Muscle strength measurement was performed by a forelimb grip strength behaviour task [35]. Mice

were tested at p32 and p60 using a grid attached to a Centor Easy 10N (Andilog) force gauge. Mice

were suspended by the tail and allowed to grasp the grid tightly with both front paws, then pulled

along a straight horizontal line away from the force gauge until their grip on the grid was broken.

Measurements were repeated 4 times per set, and 3 sets were performed with a 1-minute rest

interval between sets. The highest measured rep was recorded for each set and normalised against

body weight. Max force reported is the highest measured rep among all sets, and mean force

reported is the average of the highest measured reps for each of all 3 sets.

Serum creatine kinase measurement

30 mins after grip strength testing, Emla 5% local anaesthetic cream was applied to the mice's tails,

and they were warmed in a Mini Thermacage (datesand) for 10 mins at 36°C to dilate the tail vein.

Blood samples were collected in microvettes from a nick to the lateral tail vein. The blood was

allowed to clot at room temperature for 30 mins, and the clot was separated from the serum by

centrifuging at 2 000 g for 10 mins at 4°C and immediately stored at -80°C. Mouse serum creatine

kinase (CK) levels were measured by Gribbles Veterinary Pathology using the ADVIA Creatine Kinase

CK_L assay on the ADVIA 1800 Chemistry System.

Availability of data and materials

The sequencing dataset supporting the conclusions of this article is available in the NCBI Sequence

Read Archive, [unique persistent identifier and hyperlink to dataset(s) in http:// format].

List of figure legends

Figure 1: Coverage of the human *DMD* locus in the duplicated (hDMDTg) and single copy (hDMDTgSc) transgenes. Mapping depths at the *DMD* locus for short-read and long-read genomes mapped to the human genome. The red box on the chromosome X ideogram at the top shows the approximate location of the coverage shown. Graphs show the coverage of mapped reads for the short-read (hDMDTg-SR) and long-read (hDMDTg-LR, hDMDTgSc-LR) genomes at this location. The *DMD* exon model is shown below the coverage graphs. At the base of the image a zoomed in section chrX: 33490727-33509715, shows the drop in coverage from position chrX:33,495,727 onwards in the hDMDTg data and no coverage from this position in the hDMDTgSc mice.

Figure 2: The structure of the duplicated hDMD transgene. Simplified representation of the hDMD duplicated transgene insertion site on mouse chromosome 5 showing the two copies of *DMD* interspersed with YAC vector sequences and the mouse chr 5 duplication.

Figure 3 : Genotyping hDMDTgSc mice. (A) Detection of the single transgene deletion in G0 founder mice by PCR. The intervening deletion between the Neomycin resistance (NeoR) and Hygromycin resistance (HygR) cassettes was identified in Founder number 5 from the absence of PCR amplification using primers flanking the NeoR cut site and the presence of amplicon using a forward primer in NeoR and a reverse primer in HygR. The green text indicates the founder with the banding expected from successful transgene deletion. **(B)** Real-time qPCR copy-number determination of the human *DMD* transgene. The assay was performed on genomic DNA extracted from ear notch biopsies of hDMDTg$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{+/Y}$, hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{+/Y}$ (male), hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{+/+}$ (female) and wildtype C57BL/6J (mDmd$^{+/Y}$) mice. Measurement of three targets, 5' untranslated region (UTR),

exon 50 and 3' UTR, were normalised against the endogenous mouse *Sox1* gene. Transgene copy

number was successfully reduced from two to one in heterozygous hDMDTgSc mice. Error bars

indicate the 95% confidence interval of technical replicates.

Figure 4: Dystrophin transcript measurement by qRT-PCR. Quantification of (A) skeletal and (B)

heart tissues from p60 mice was performed using a set of primers that target both human *DMD* and

mouse *Dmd* transcript sequences, normalised against beta-actin (*Actb*). Data presented as $\log_2$

relative quantity (RQ) ± 95%CI, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test performed

on ddCt values, *** $P < 0.001$. n=3.

Figure 5: Detection of human dystrophin protein in muscle tissue by western blot. Analysis was

performed on skeletal hindlimb muscles, tibialis anterior and quadriceps, as well as heart muscle

protein lysates from p60 mice using the human-specific antibody against dystrophin MANDYS106.

The tibialis anterior blot was also re-probed with the cross-reactive antibody MANDYS8 to

demonstrate the species-specificity of MANDYS106. Vinculin was probed as the loading control.

Human dystrophin protein expression in hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ mice is reduced in all three tissues

compared to hDMDTg$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ mice.

Figure 6: Immunofluorescence localisation of the human dystrophin protein. Immunostaining was

performed on tibialis anterior, quadriceps and heart muscle tissue sections from p60 mice using the

MANDYS106 primary antibody. Scale bar 100 μm.

Figure 7: Histological analysis of hDMDTg$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ and mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ mice. Hematoxylin and eosin

staining was performed on quadriceps, tibialis anterior and triceps muscle tissue sections from p60

mice. Scale bar 50 μm.

Figure 8: Forelimb grip strength testing to measure muscle function and performance of mice.

Strength (grams of force) of hDMDTg$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd^{KO} and hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd^{KO} mice were compared

against WT C57BL/6J and mDmdΔEx51 (mDmd$^{KO/Y}$) controls, normalised to body weight at p32 and

p60. (A) Maximum force is the highest recorded measure among three sets of five pulls, and (B)

mean force is the average of the highest recorded measures of each of the three sets. Data

presented as mean ± SEM, two-way repeat measures ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test

** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001. Samples sizes (n) indicated in within bars in graph. (C,D) Averages of the

highest recorded measures for each set of pulls, presented as mean ± SEM, two-way repeat

measures ANOVA, Dunnett's multiple comparisons test with C57BL/6J as control group, ** P < 0.01,

*** P < 0.001.

Figure 9: Serum creatine kinase (CK) biomarker level measurement of mice. Serum CK was assayed

as an indirect measure of muscle damage and sarcolemma leakage at p32 and p60. The single-copy

transgene in hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ mice rescues the elevated serum CK caused by endogenous

mDmd knock-out to levels that are not significantly different than either WT C57BL/6J or hDMDTg$^{Tg/0}$

mDmd$^{KO/Y}$ mice. Data presented as mean ± SEM, two-way repeated measures ANOVA with Tukey's

multiple comparisons test *** P < 0.001. Samples sizes (n) indicated in first graph.

Supplementary materials

Supplemental Table 1: ONT output and assembly statistics

Sample	Sample Bases (bp)	Number of reads	Median read length	Read length N50	Median read quality	Number of reads >Q7 (%)	Number of reads > 5 kb	Number of contigs	Total assembly length	Longest contig	contig N50
hDMDTgSc (Single Tg)	77,630,478,340	4,776,412	11,923	27,794	14.2	4,327,887 (90.6%)	3,096,917	3,303	2,562,369,505	40,468,389	11,625,580
hDMDTg (Duplicated Tg)	76,267,366,191	5,071,821	11,392	24,219	14.1	4,531,600 (89.3%)	3,296,519	3,843	2,535,656,640	30,111,232	8,109,054

529   **Supplemental Table 2: DNA primers and oligos**

Name	Sequence 5'-3'
PCR NeoR F	tggattgcacgcaggttctccg
PCR NeoR R	aaggcgatagaaggcgatgcgc
PCR HygR F	gcgggtaaatagctgcgccgat
PCR HygR R	ctttgccctcggacgagtgctg
qPCR hDMD5p F	tagctggggtttgttgccgagc
qPCR hDMD5p R	gaggttggaggcaagcacaccc
qPCR hDMD3p F	cgcagcttgactggagagaggc
qPCR hDMD3p R	agctgaagaggaggcaggacgg
qPCR hDMD 50b F	ctgagctctgagtggaaggcgg
qPCR hDMD 50b R	tccaggagctaggtcaggctgc
qPCR Sox1 F	gacttgcaggctatgtacaacatc
qPCR Sox1 R	cctctcagacggtggagttatatt
qPCR cDNA DMD F	cagccagtgaagaggaagttag
qPCR cDNA DMD R	gaagatggcatttctagtttggaga
qPCR cDNA bActn F	ttgctgacaggatgcagaag
qPCR cDNA bActn R	gtacttgcgctcaggaggag
gRNA cacc Neo	caccgtgcgcaaggaacgcccgtcg
gRNA aaac Neo	aaaccgacgggcgttccttgcgcac
gRNA cacc Hyg	caccgtgcgacgcaatcgtccgatc
gRNA aaac Hyg	aaacgatcggacgattgcgtcgcac
PCR IVT Neo gRNA	ttaatacgactcactatagtgcgcaaggaacgcccgtcg
PCR IVT Hyg gRNA	ttaatacgactcactatagtgcgacgcaatcgtccgatc
PCR IVT TracR R	Aaaagcaccgactcggtgcc

Supplementary Figure legends

Supplementary Figure 1: (A) Assembly sequence graph generated by Shasta of the sequences linked

to the human *DMD* locus. Each of the thicker coloured nodes represents a different contig from the

assembly. Labels indicate the best-matched identities of four sampled sequences of approximately

1.5 kb from the beginning, middle and end of each contig to BLAST searches of the non-redundant

nucleotide database from NCBI. The branched paths in the graph indicate the different sequences at

the beginning and end each copy of the DMD transgene. (B) The structure of the single copy hDMD

transgene integration site. Assembly sequence graph generated by Shasta of the sequences linked to

the mouse chromosome 5 insertion site (5: 133,626,547). Each of the thicker coloured nodes

represents a different contig from the assembly. Labels indicate the best-matched identities of four

sampled sequences of approximately 1.5 kb from the beginning, middle and end of each contig to

BLAST searches of the non-redundant nucleotide database from NCBI. The presence of mouse chr4

and chr7 in this graph are likely misassembled.

Supplementary Figure 2: Dapi and merged immunofluoresence images. Scale bar 100 μm.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8

Figure 9

 Supplementary figure 1

573   Supplementary figure 2

Heart   mDmd^{KO} hDMDTgSc$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd^{KO} hDMDTg$^{Tg/0}$ mDmd^{KO}

Dystrophin

Dapi

Merge

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