Comparative analysis of CRISPR/Cas9-targeted nanopore sequencing approaches in repeat

expansion disorders

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ABSTRACT

More than 50 repeat expansion disorders have been identified, with long-read sequencing marking a

new milestone in the diagnosis of these disorders. Despite these major achievements, the

comprehensive characterization of short tandem repeats in a pathological context remains

challenging, primarily due to their inherent characteristics such as motif complexity, high GC content,

and variable length.

In this study, our aim was to thoroughly characterize repeat expansions in two neuromuscular

diseases: myotonic dystrophy type 1 (DM1) and oculopharyngodistal myopathy (OPDM) using

CRISPR/Cas9-targeted long-read sequencing (Oxford Nanopore Technologies, ONT). We conducted

precise analyses of the DM1 and OPDM loci, determining repeat size, repeat length distribution,

expansion architecture and DNA methylation, using three different basecallers (Guppy, Bonito and

Dorado). We demonstrated the importance of the basecalling strategy in repeat expansion

characterization. We proposed guidelines to perform CRISPR-Cas9 targeted long-read sequencing (no

longer supported by ONT), from library preparation to bioinformatical analyses. Finally, we showed,

for the first time, somatic mosaicism, hypermethylation of *LRP12* loci in symptomatic patients and

changes in the repeat tract structure of OPDM patients.

We propose a strategy based on CRISPR/Cas9-enrichment long-read sequencing for repeat expansion

diseases, which could be readily applicable in research but also in diagnostic settings.

Keywords

Myotonic dystrophy, oculopharyngodistal myopathy, repeat expansion, long-read sequencing, Oxford

Nanopore Technology, basecallers

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was funded by Association Institut de Myologie (AIM), INSERM and Sorbonne Université. L

Benarroch was supported by Solve-RD project which has received funding from the European Union's

Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under grant agreement No 779257 and MDUK grant

No. 18GROI-PG24-0140-2. This work was also supported by a grant from Fondation Maladies Rares

N°GenOmics(2023)_041704

INTRODUCTION

Over the last 30 years, more than 50 repeat expansion disorders (REDs) have been identified. Fragile X syndrome (FXS, OMIM #300624) and spinal and bulbar muscular atrophy (SBMA, OMIM #313200) were the first REDs identified caused by a CGG expansion in the 5'-untranslated region (5'-UTR) of *FMR1* gene [1–4] and a CAG expansion in the coding region of *AR* gene [5], respectively. Since then, the exponential development of genetic tools and next generation sequencing technologies such as long-read sequencing (LRS), mark a new milestone in RED diagnosis with the discovery of new REDs over the last decade [6]. However, fully characterizing these expansions (number of motifs, expansion architecture, methylation status, somatic mosaicism, etc.) remains challenging due to their inherent complexity. In this study, we focused on two disorders, myotonic dystrophy type 1 (DM1) and oculopharyngodistal myopathy (OPDM). DM1 is the most common adult muscular dystrophy, characterized by multisystemic symptoms among which muscle weakness, myotonia, cataracts, cardiac conduction defects, respiratory distress and neurological impairments. DM1 is caused by a highly unstable CTG expansion in the 3'-UTR of *DMPK* gene and is one of the most complex REDs due to genetic anticipation, age-dependent and tissue-specific somatic instability [7]. OPDM is a rare neuromuscular disorder characterized by progressive ptosis, ophthalmoplegia, dysphagia and facial and distal limb weakness. OPDM is due to a CGG repeat expansion in the 5'-UTR of five different genes identified so far: *LRP12* (OPDM1) [8]*, GIPC1* (OPDM2) [9], *NOTCH2NLC* (OPDM3) [10], *RILPL1* (OPDM4) [11], and *ABCD3* gene (OPDM5) [12].

Despite the great effort to decipher the genetic cause of rare genetic disorders, only one third of them have been solved using short-read sequencing. The low diagnostic rate can be explained in part by the mutation localization within complex regions, inaccessible by short-read sequencing approaches such as short tandem repeat regions [13]. LRS, now, give access to those regions, opening a new era for the diagnosis of rare genetic diseases, especially for REDs. Two LRS approaches are available provided by Pacific Bioscience (PacBio) and Oxford Nanopore Technologies (ONT) which are slowly introduced into

the diagnostic field. Here, we used ONT's long-read approaches, particularly the targeted sequencing

approach using CRISPR/Cas9 strategy, to assess repeat expansions at DM1 and OPDM loci. Despite

available protocols provided by ONT and open access bioinformatic pipelines, we realized that

precisely characterizing expansion in our cases remained challenging. Indeed, inconsistency in

sequencing metrics (i.e. read length distribution, coverage, etc) as well as sequencing errors were

prone to appear depending on the library preparation protocol used and/or the basecalling strategies

apply to our raw data. The choice of the basecaller, to translate the changes of the raw electrical signal

into a nucleotidic sequence appeared to be critical when investigating tandem repeats. Therefore, we

tested 3 protocols (two from ONT and one homemade) to perform CRISPR/Cas9-enriched LRS in 4 DM1

patients and 4 OPDM patients. We then tested the performance of three different basecallers, Guppy,

Dorado and Bonito. And finally, we investigated the architecture of the repeat expansion by assessing

their structure and their methylation levels.

RESULTS

CRISPR/Cas9 long-read sequencing metrics of DM1 and OPDM loci

We performed long-read sequencing using ONT technologies on DNA extracted from 8 patients, 4 DM1

patients and 4 OPDM patients (Table 1). We compared the 2 available chemistries at the time, ONT

R9.4 and ONT R10.4 to perform CRISPR/Cas9-based long-read sequencing to target specifically the

DM1 locus (*DMPK* gene) and 3 OPDM loci (*LRP12*, *GIPC1* and *NOTCH2NLC* genes). Basecalling was

performed using Guppy basecaller, implemented in PromethION 24 sequencer. Coverage was

estimated using the number of total reads and also reads with a phred score equal or above 20. Phred

score is widely used to estimate the accuracy of the calling for each base, and we can interpret this

score as an estimation of error. For instance, a phred score of 20 (Q20) estimates 1% chance of error,

so 99% of accuracy. In sequencing data, Q20 or above is considered sufficient and we have used that

score as a quality cutoff throughout this study.

Patient ID		Mutated gene / Targeted loci	Repeat size (median)	DNA input	Coverage			Avg Q
					#reads	#reads Q20	%Q20	
Chemistry R9.4								
DM1	EG	*DMPK*	201	4µg	22	11	50%	20.4
	DV	*DMPK*	545	2µg	83	23	27.7%	17.3
	N18	*DMPK*	501	5.6µg	37	14	37.8%	18.25
	A2	*DMPK*	141	2µg	1161	560	48.2%	20.5
OPDM	L1	*LRP12*	127	2µg	285	107	37.5%	18.5
	G1	*GIPC1*	109	2µg	119	37	22.7	17.9
	N1	*NOTCH2NLC*	105	2µg	133	57	42.8%	18.9
Chemistry R10.4								
DM1	A2 [ONT]	*DMPK*	130	2µg	418	305	72.9%	30.7
	A2 [HM]	*DMPK*	129	2µg	398	277	69.6%	31.3
OPDM	L2 [ONT]	*LRP12*	130	2µg	144	131	91%	33.9
	G1 [ONT]	*GIPC1*	106	2µg	46	46	100%	38.1
	N1 [ONT]	*NOTCH2NLC*	104	2µg	142	132	92.9%	34.2

Table 1. *Long-read sequencing metrics for DM1 and OPDM patients. Coverage was determined by the number of total reads (#reads), number of reads with a mapping quality above 20 (#reads Q20) and the percentage of reads with a mapping quality above 20 (%Q20). Average quality (Avg Q) was assessed for all reads using a phred-scale quality score. In chemistry R10.4, three different protocols were used, ONT protocol [ONT] and home-made protocol [HM].*

Here, we showed that using R9.4 chemistry, less than 50% of reads reached Q20 cutoff with a mean score of 18.82 [17.3-20.5], regardless of the disease investigated. Chemistry R10.4 significantly improved reads quality, as expected, with more than 70% of total reads reached Q20 score with a mean quality score of 33.70 [30.7 – 38.1] (Mann-Whitney test, average quality [9.4] vs [10.4] p-value = 0.0012) (Table 1). Interestingly, the allele carrying the repeat expansion displayed a lower average quality than the normal allele with R9.4 chemistry, a difference that is lost with the R10.4 chemistry for OPDM loci but not for DM1 locus (Table 2). Indeed, even with the increase in the overall score

above 20, the DM1 expanded allele average score remained lower than the normal allele for A2
patient, suggesting an impact of the CTG repeat expansion on basecalling performance. Comparing
patient A2 (DM1) and L2 patient (OPDM) carrying a comparable expanded allele size (130 repeats), a
difference in average quality is observed (phred score 25.8 vs 33.2, respectively) suggesting that the
type of expanded codon (CTG vs GCC) has an impact on sequencing quality, more than just the
presence of the expansion.

Unfortunately, CRISRP/Cas9-enrichement protocol is not developed anymore by ONT. Therefore, we
decided to set up a 'home-made' protocol using similar existing products combined with the adapter
ligation steps of ONT ligation sequencing kit (see Material and Methods section). We tested our
protocol on DM1 patient A2 and reached similar score than the ONT protocol, regarding coverage, the
percentage of Q20 reads and their average quality (Table 1-2).

Patient ID		Mutated gene	Normal allele			Expanded allele		
			#reads	%Q20	Avg Q	#reads	%Q20	Avg Q
Chemistry R9.4								
DM1	EG	*DMPK*	13	61.5%	22.9	9	33.3%	16.9
	DV	*DMPK*	49	47%	21.1	34	0%	11.8
	N18	*DMPK*	22	63.6%	21.9	15	0%	12.9
	A2	*DMPK*	586	59.6%	22.4	575	36.7%	18.5
OPDM	L1	*LRP12*	162	52.5%	20.1	123	17.9%	16.3
	G1	*GIPC1*	57	50.9%	19.8	62	25%	16.2
	N1	*NOTCH2NLC*	75	41.3%	19	57	45.6%	18.7
Chemistry R10.4								
DM1	A2 [ONT]	*DMPK*	219	94.5%	36	199	49.2%	24.8
	A2 [HM]	*DMPK*	195	92.3%	36.9	203	47.8%	25.8
OPDM	L2	*LRP12*	74	89.2%	34.6	70	92.8%	33.2
	G1	*GIPC1*	28	100%	39.2	18	100%	36.3
	N1	*NOTCH2NLC*	72	95.8%	35.5	70	90%	32.9

***Table 2**. LRS metrics on the normal and expanded alleles in DM1 and OPDM patients. For both allele, coverage*
was determined by the total number of reads (#reads) and the percentage of reads with a mapping quality above

Basecaller comparison on average quality of Q20 reads of the expanded allele

Over the course of our study, ONT have replaced Guppy basecaller by Dorado, another open-sourced

basecaller. We decided to compare the accuracy of these two basecallers, as well as a third open-

sourced basecaller available called Bonito. We used data from patients analyzed with R10.4 chemistry

as we saw a significant increase in reads' quality compared to R9.4 chemistry, independently of the

basecaller and the pathology (Fig. 1a). By focusing on A2 DM1 patient, we showed a significant

difference in the average quality of reads when comparing the three basecallers for the expanded

allele where Dorado and Bonito basecallers showed the best average quality (Fig. 1b). Using the R10.4

HM protocol, A2 patient's reads of the expanded allele displayed an average quality score of 25.8 when

using Guppy, that reached 29.8 and 30.4 by using Dorado and Bonito basecallers, respectively (Kruskal-

Wallis test, [10.4 HM] Guppy *vs* Dorado, p-value < 0.0001; Guppy *vs* Bonito, p-value < 0.0001; Dorado

vs Bonito, p-value > 0.99) (Fig. 1b and Table 3). No significant difference was observed for the normal

allele (Supp Fig. 1a). Unlike DM1, Guppy displayed a better average quality score (phred score > 30)

for both OPDM patients, G1 and N1 patients (Fig. 1b and Table 3). For G1 patient, reads targeting the

expanded allele of *GIPC1* gene showed a higher average score with Guppy but the differences were

not significant when comparing to Dorado and Bonito quality scores (Fig. 1b and Table 3). This result

could be explained by the lower coverage (less than 50 reads) obtain for this patient (Table 1). For N1

patient, reads targeting the expanded allele of *NOTCH2NLC* gene displayed a significantly higher

average quality score with Guppy than with Dorado and Bonito (Kruskal-Wallis test, [10.4] Guppy *vs*

Dorado, p-value = 0.0033; Guppy *vs* Bonito, p-value = 0.0205; Dorado *vs* Bonito, p-value > 0.99) (Fig.

1b). No significant difference was observed between basecallers for the normal allele for *GIPC1* and

NOTCH2NLC genes (Supp Fig. 1b-c).

Based on our results, we recommend R10.4 chemistry when investigating expansion diseases as well

as Dorado basecaller to investigate CTG repeat expansion and Guppy basecaller to investigate CGG

repeat expansion.

Figure 1. *Basecallers comparison on reads' average quality at DM1 and OPDM loci, with R10.4 chemistry.* ***(a)***

Comparison of average quality of reads between R9.4 and R10.4 chemistry at DM1 (left panel) and OPDM (right

panel) loci. For all graphs, ONT R9.4 chemistry is represented with blue dots, ONT R10.4 chemistry (home-made

'HM') with orange dots. Average quality was estimated for the three basecallers: Guppy (yellow frame), Dorado

(green frame) and Bonito (blue frame). [N2NLC – NOTCH2NLC] ***(b)*** *Expanded allele average quality using R10.4*

 chemistry. Kruskal-Wallis test, ns – not significant; [*] p-value < 0.05; [**] p-value < 0.01; [***] p-value < 0.001

and [****] p-value < 0.0001

Expanded allele	Patient ID	Guppy		Dorado		Bonito	
		Avg Q	%Q20	Avg Q	%Q20	Avg Q	%Q20
DMPK	A2 [ONT]	24.8	49.2%	29.4	80.4%	30.2	86.7%
	A2 [HM]	25.8	47.8%	29.8	81.7%	30.4	84.5%
GIPC1	G1	36.3	100%	29.1	88.9%	28.1	100%
NOTCH2NLC	N1	32.9	90%	29.9	73.8%	29.6	78.1%

Table 3. *Basecaller comparison on average quality of Q20 reads of the expanded allele. Three base-callers were tested: Guppy (yellow), Dorado (green) and Bonito (blue). Avg Q - Average quality (phred score); %Q20 - percentage of Q20 reads on total expanded allele reads.*

Estimation of repeat expansions length and somatic mosaicism

DM1 A2 patient and other family members have been extensively investigated and well characterized using different sequencing techniques: classical PCR, 3' triplet-primed-PCR, Single-Molecule Real Time (SMRT) long read sequencing (Pacific Bioscience) and now ONT long-read sequencing [14–16]. From here on out, A2 patient will be used as an experimental control to determine repeat expansion length, somatic mosaicism, and the presence of interruptions. The repeat size frequency distribution showed that this patient carried 5 CTG repeats ($\pm$ 1 tract due to sequencing error) on the normal allele and between 120 and 170 CTG motifs in the expanded allele, with a peak at 130, highlighting the somatic mosaicism already described in this patient (Fig. 2a). For OPDM patients, similarly to the DM1 patient, the repeat size frequency distribution of the normal allele peaks at 16, 20 and 26 for *LRP12*, *GIPC1* and *NOTCH2NLC* genes ($\pm$ 1 tract due to sequencing error), respectively (Fig. 2b-d). Regarding the expanded allele, we obtained peaks at 130, 105 and 104 for *LRP12*, *GIPC1* and *NOTCH2NLC* genes, respectively, ranging from 80 to 150 triplet repeats, highlighting for the first time somatic mosaicism in OPDM,

independent of the locus analysis (Fig. 2b-d). However; further investigations are required to fully

attest the somatic mosaicism, which is not the focus of this paper.

Figure 2. *Read length distribution at **(a)** DM1 and **(b-d)** OPDM loci. The x-axis displays the length of the repeats*

*detected (number of repeats, 3bp per repeat) for each locus: **(a)** DMPK, **(b)** LRP12, **(c)** GIPC1, and **(d)** NOTCH2NLC.*

The normal and expanded alleles are separated by a striated line. The y-axis displays read frequency calculated

as a ratio of number of Q20 reads on total number of reads.

Changes in expansion sequence's architecture in OPDM patients

Using CRISPR/Cas9-targeted LRS (R10.4 chemistry), a single CAG interruption in the expanded allele of

A2 patient was clearly identified as previously described [14] (Fig. 3a). This result validates ONT long-

read sequencing suitable for clearly determining sequence architecture changes in trinucleotide repeat

diseases, particularly in OPDM. At *LRP12* loci (patient L2), reads were aligned using a 'TAG' motif

located right before the start of the 'CCG' repeat tract in the reference sequence (Additional file 1). In

the normal allele, the repeat sequence is framed by two motifs, 5'-$(ACG)_2$-CCG-ACG-3' at the 5' end

and 5'-AGC-CAC-CGG-3' at the 3' end of the repeats. In the expanded allele, those two motifs are lost,

replaced by only one 'ACG' codon at the 5' end of the expansion and a single 'G' at the 3' end of the

expansion (Fig. 3b and Additional file 1). The loss of those motifs was also found in another *LRP12*

mutated patient (L1 patient, Additional file 1), supporting the fact that changes in *LRP12* sequence

structure is a consequence of the presence of the expansion. At *GIPC1* locus (G1 patient), reads were

aligned using 'CCC' motif, upstream of the 'GCC' expansion. In the normal allele, the repeat sequence

started with 5'-TCC-GCC-TCC-3' motif in the reference sequence that is lost in the expanded allele and

replaced by 5'-$(TCC)_4$-GCC-$(GCG)_3$-3' interruption (Fig. 3c and Additional file 1). Finally, *NOTCH2NLC*

(N1 patient) reads were aligned using 'CCA' motif, upstream of the 'GGC' expansion. In the normal

allele, 'GGC' repeats ended with 5'-$(GGA)_2$-$(GGC)_2$-3' motif whereas in the expanded allele, additional

'GGC' are inserted between the two 'GGA', creating a 5'-GGA-$(GGC)_3$-GGA-$(GGC)_5$-3' motif (Fig. 3d and

Additional file 1).

Thus, CRISPR/Cas9-targeted sequencing allowed us to highlight somatic mosaicism in OPDM but also

to identify changes in the structure of repeated tracks in the three OPDM genes, never described

before : *i)* in *LRP12* expansion, loss of two complex motifs associated with the expansion; *ii)* in *GIPC1*

expansion, presence of a 5'-$(TCC)_4$-GCC-$(GCG)_3$-3' interruption; and *iii)* in *NOTCH2NLC* expansion,

presence of 5'-GGA-$(GGC)_3$-GGA-$(GGC)_5$-3' interruptions.

Figure 3. *Waterfall plots highlighting the expansion structures at **(a)** DM1 locus and **(b-d)** OPDM loci. For each waterfall, the x-axis shows the repeat expansion length in base pairs. The y-axis displays all the reads obtained after sequencing. The normal allele is above the striated line whereas the expanded allele is under the striated lines. The reference codon **(a)** CTG, **(b)** CCG, **(c)** GCC or **(d)** GGC is represented in blue; different colors are used to highlight codons within the repeat sequence that are not the reference codon, within the expansion.*

DNA methylation profiling at DM1 and OPDM loci

To assess DNA methylation pattern, we used Modkit, a methylation-calling pipeline to detect DNA modifications not only within the flanking region but also within the expanded region. Several DNA modifications can be identified using ONT-LRS such as 5-methylcytosine (5mC), 5-hydroxymethylcytosine (5hmC) and N6-methyladenine (6mA), where 5mC is the most common methylation mark. We did not see any changes in 5mC methylation profile for the DM1 A2 patient (Fig. 4a), and OPDM patients, G1 and N1 (Supp Fig. 2), either within the expanded region or in the flanking regions. However, we observed hypermethylation in the *LRP12* locus (Fig. 4b) Indeed, we detected an increase in methylation frequency in *LRP12* 5'UTR region, reaching approximatively 10% hypermethylation that was present in the flanking region but also within the expanded region (Fig. 4c). To our knowledge it is the first report of an existing hypermethylation in a symptomatic OPDM patient, whatever the causing gene.

a *DMPK* locus (A2 patient)

b *LRP12* locus (L2 patient)

c *LRP12* locus (L2 patient)

Figure 4. *5-methylcytosine (5mC) methylation levels at **(a)** DMPK and **(b)** LRP12 loci. Each graph displays, from top to bottom, the genomic localization; the methylation levels where each dot represent one read on the normal allele (yellow) or the expanded allele (blue); heatmap of methylation levels; gene(s) located in the region of interest; and localization of the repeats. **(c)** IGV screenshot of the LRP12 expanded region, displaying the methylation status of each read. The normal allele (top) and the expanded allele (bottom) are separated by a*

dotted line. Each line represents one read. Unmethylated sites are colored in blue, methylated sites are colored

in red. The expanded region is surrounded by a yellow frame.

The 5hmC modification is a product of the demethylation of 5mC-methylated site but also a novel

epigenetic regulator, however its functions have yet to be clearly established. It has been described to

play a role in several diseases but has never been studied in DM1 and OPDM. In this study we observed

that 5hmC profiles are similar between normal and expanded alleles at the DM1 and OPDM loci (Supp

Fig.3).

For the first time, we were able to detect 6mA modifications for the DM1 and OPDM loci. In all patient

tested, we observed a high variability in 6mA frequency compared to the 5mC frequency which is more

homogeneous. (Fig. 5a-d). The methylation frequency appeared to be high around the 5'-UTR region

of the three OPDM genes, *LRP12* (Fig. 5b), *GIPC1* (Fig. 5c) and *NOTCH2NLC* (Fig. 5d) and quite extensive

around the 3'-UTR region of *DMPK* (Fig. 5a). Although some variations are observed between normal

and expanded alleles for *LRP12* and *GIPC1*, it is difficult to conclude due to the high variability of the

6mA profiles.

Figure 5. *N6-methyldeoxyadenosine (6mA) methylation levels at **(a)** DM1 and **(b-d)** OPDM loci. Each graph displays, from top to bottom, the genomic localization; the methylation levels where each dot represent one read on the normal allele (yellow) or the expanded allele (blue); heatmap of methylation levels; gene(s) located in the region of interest; and localization of the repeats.*

DISCUSSION

In this study we show that LRS is a suitable strategy to investigate REDs but requires some adjustments

depending on the disease of interest. We provided guidelines for DM1 and OPDM expanded loci

characterization and described the architecture of OPDM repeat tracts (presence of interruptions,

methylation status). As expected, the R10.4 chemistry significantly improved sequencing metrics on

expanded regions for both DM1 and OPDM patients. We compared two protocols for CRISPR/Cas9

library preparation (ONT provided and home-made) and we did not see any significant differences

between them. So, we propose here a suitable alternative to continue CRISPR/Cas9-enrichment using

the R10.4 chemistry, in a research setting. While ONT long-read sequencing shows considerable

promise in addressing the diagnostic challenges associated with genetic diseases [17], its application

on REDs in a diagnostic setting still requires improvements. Particularly, there are notable variations

observed between flowcells, impacting pore availability, coverage or multiplexing (data not shown)

and the bioinformatics tools. These inconsistencies represent significant obstacles to ensure the

reliability and reproducibility of LRS-based diagnostics for REDs. Basecalling is a critical step in the

sequencing workflow as it translates the electrical signal received by the pore into the DNA sequence,

hence all downstream investigations depend on it. ONT used 3 basecallers: Guppy, the basecaller

implemented to ONT sequencers, Dorado that replaced Guppy since 2023 in ONT sequencers and

finally Bonito, an open source basecaller written in Python similar to Dorado. As mentioned above, we

observed some discrepancies among the three basecallers' performances depending on the locus

investigated, especially between Guppy and Dorado. We concluded that Dorado or Bonito was better

suited for DM1 investigation while Guppy was better suited for OPDM investigation. These

discrepancies may be due to differences in each basecaller's computational processes to translate the

electrical signal of 'CTG' codon versus 'GGC' codon. To precisely determine the triplet repeat number,

the architecture of the expanded allele and flanking regions as well as the presence of somatic

mosaicism, we show here that the choice of basecaller is crucial and the combination of several of

them may also be needed in some cases [18]. Therefore, when investigating REDs, we highly

recommend evaluating several basecaller performances before making any conclusion [19,20].

ONT technologies allowed us to determine not only the size but also the structure of the repeat tracts

which can both have a huge impact on patients' prognosis and the clinical variability of the disease.

For instance, the presence of trinucleotidic interruption within the repeat tract can cause different

pathophysiological mechanisms underlying disease development and progression. In different REDs,

interruptions have been thoroughly investigated and these studies showed the biological impact of

these interruptions, either protective or aggravating, in disease clinical manifestations or progression.

In fragile X syndrome (FXS), 'AGG' codons that commonly interrupt the 'CGG' repeat expansion in

normal individuals, are less frequent in FXS patients causing transmission instability, hence increasing

the expansion risk. The presence of AGG interruption, within the expansion, act as a stabilizing factor

preventing instability of the repeats. Knowing the 'AGG' interruption size can help estimate the risk for

FXS intermediate individuals (45 to 54 CGG repeats) or pre-mutated individual (55 to 200 repeats) to

develop a full-mutation expansion (over 200 repeats) [21]. In DM1 patients, the presence of CCG, CTC

or CGG interruptions within the 'CTG' expansion can either be associated with additional atypical

neurological symptoms or can prevent or delay severe onset of the disease [22]. These interruptions

as well as an unique CAG interruption are been associated with the stabilization of the repeat through

unknown mechanisms [14,22–29]. In OPDM patients, changes in the expansion sequence have never

been described before, to our knowledge. However, it has been shown that in other *NOTCH2NLC*-

associated diseases, 'GGA' interruption within the 'GGC' repeat tract can cause different phenotypes

based on the number of repeats, going from Parkinson disease (less than 100 repeats) to dominant

muscle weakness (over 200 repeats) [30]. In our *NOTCH2NLC*-mutated patient (N1 patient), we did not

find any 'GGA' expansion as in the other *NOTCH2NLC*-associated disease but a change in the sequence

motif with the insertion of 'GGC' codons between the two 'GGA'. However, more *NOTCH2NLC*-

associated OPDM patients would be required to confirm this motif, and to attest if it specific to OPDM

patients carrying *NOTCH2NLC* mutation and investigate its potential role in the pathophysiological

mechanisms of the disease. Regarding *LRP12* and *GIPC1* expansions, no loss of motif or presence of

interruption have ever been reported, but as for *NOTCH2NLC* patients, additional patients would be

required to confirm these observations.

One of ONT technologies' strength is the direct detection of DNA or RNA modifications, during the

translocation of the molecule through the pore. Already available with R9.4 chemistry, R10.4 chemistry

allowed us to detect three type of modification: 5-methylcytosine (5mC), its oxidative counterpart 5-

hydroxymethylcytosine (5hmC) and N6-methyldeoxyadening (6mA), in the flanking regions as well as

within the expanded region. The 5mC mark is the most abundant, representing 70-80% of cytosine

preceding a guanidine (CpG) mainly located in promoter regions, into CpG islands [31]. DNA

methylation changes were observed in many diseases, among which OPDM. Interestingly in OPDM,

the epigenetic changes were only described in asymptomatic patients carrying longer expansion than

the disease-causing range, in *GIPC1*, *NOTCH2NLC, RILPL1 and ABCD3* genes [9,11,12,32,33]. As

expected, we did not see any changes in affected OPDM patients carrying either a *GIPC1* or

NOTCH2NLC expansion. However, we notice an increase in 5mC methylation levels (around 10%) in

LRP12 patients that has never been reported before. We hypothesized that due to the expansion of a

'CCG' codon in OPDM patients, it may increase the methylation levels of the expanded region in

affected individuals but not sufficiently enough to have a protective impact, as the one observed in

asymptomatic carriers. Similar increase was observed in affected *NOTCH2NLC* patients (around 30% of

methylation) but the difference with healthy individuals was not significant and was associated with

an increase mRNA level in muscle but not in blood, supporting our hypothesis [34]. To go further we

investigated the 5hmC modification, a product of the demethylation of 5mC-methylated. It is

considered as a novel epigenetic regulator, but its functions have yet to be clearly established [35]. We

did not see any changes in 5hmC levels in any patients which was not surprising as it is lowly found in

mammalian tissues. Indeed, 5hmC content reach approximatively 0.1%, with the highest being in the

brain with 1% [35]. Finally, to our knowledge it is the first time that 6mA methylation have been

investigated in REDs. Preferentially found in prokaryote, 6mA modification represent 0.05% of the total

adenines in the human genome and are found preferentially in the brain, as 5hmC modifications. This

mark is enriched in coding region of transcriptionally active genes and mostly occur on [G/C]AGG[C/T]

motif [36]. In our study, we observed great variability of the methylation frequency at the different

loci, but the frequency did not seem significantly impacted by the presence of the expansion. Contrary

to what is described in the literature [36], the frequency of 6mA modifications seems higher in the 5'-

UTR region that in the intronic region, especially for OPDM loci. However, so little is known about 6mA

modification that is still too early to make any definite conclusions regarding the role of these

modifications in OPDM and DM1.

CONCLUSION

In this study we showed the importance of sequencing and bioinformatical strategies when studying

REDs. We provide guidelines and recommendation to investigate DM1 and OPDM loci that could

hopefully help in the diagnostic and the care of patients.

METHODS

DNA samples.

High molecular weight DNA from DM1 patients' blood or lymphoblastoid cell lines were extracted

either using Nanobing kit (PacBio) or using Chemagic 360 system (Revvity chemagen Technologie

Gmbh).

DNA samples from OPDM patients were kindly provided by Pr. Ichizo Nishino's group at the National

Center of Neurology and Psychiatry (Tokyo, Japan). DNA were extracted from blood samples from four

patients carrying expansion either in *LRP12* gene (L1 and L2 patients), *GIPC1* gene (G1 patient) or

NOTCH2NLC gene (N1 patient). For all DNA samples, quality and quantity were assessed using Qubit

fluorometer (Fisher Scientific) and the TapeStation System (Agilent).

Cas9-enrichement long-read sequencing by Oxford Nanopore technologies

Targeted long-read sequencing was performed on DNA samples from both DM1 and OPDM patients,

in a singleplex and/or multiplex setting. Three different protocols were tested, two from Oxford

Nanopore Technologies: Ligation Sequencing gDNA-Cas9 enrichment protocol (Chemistry R9.4; SQK-

CS9109 version: CAS_9106_v109_revD_16Sep2020), the Ligation sequencing kit V14 (Chemistry R10.4;

SQK-LSK114 version: GDE_9161_v114_revT_29Jun2022) and one "home-made" protocol (Chemistry

R10.4). For all three protocols, dephosphorylation of genomic DNA (gDNA), Cas9 cleavage and dA-

tailing were performed following the Cas9 enrichment protocol (SQK-CS9109, discontinued in March

2024, ONT). In brief, 2-5µg of gDNA was dephosphorylated, to prevent Cas9 off-target. In parallel,

Cas9-ribonucleoprotein complexes (Cas9-RNPs) were formed by pooling 100µM of each Alt-R crRNA

(Integrated DNA Technologies - IDT) specific of each targeted loci (*LRP12*-F: 5'-

TCTTTACCTCTTACGGCAAG-3'; *LRP12*-R: 5'-TCTGGTCCCGTAGAGTCCAC-3'; *GIPC1*-F: 5'-

GACGCTGTTGTCATTACTAT-3'; *GIPC1*-R: 5'-ACATCTAAGCTGCTCACCAT-3'; *NOTCH2NLC*-F: 5'-

GGAGACATCTTGGTGCATAC-3'; *NOTCH2NLC*-R: 5'-AAGCGCATTTGTACATGAGA-3'; *HTT*-F1: 5'-

TTTGCCCATTGGTTAGAAGC-3'; *HTT*-R1: 5'-GGACAAAGTTAGGTACTCAG-3'; *HTT*-F2: 5'-

TCTTATGAGTCTGCCCACTG-3'; *HTT*-R2: 5'-CTAGACTCTTAACTCGCTTG-3'; DMPK-5mc-US1: 5'-

ACCCAAGGCTCGCCCAATA-3'; DMPK-5mc-US2: 5'-GGGGAGAGCGGTACCACTTG-3'; DMPK-5mc-DS1: 5'-

GACGAGGTTACTTCAGACAT-3'; DMPK-5mc-DS2 [37]: 5'-GACCTGCGAGTCACACAAC-3'), 50 µM

transactivation crRNA (tracrRNA, IDT) and 62µM Alt-R S.p. HiFi Cas9 Nuclease V3 (IDT). The

dephosphorylated gDNA was then incubated with Cas9-RNPs, allowing Cas9 to cleave at the different

loci. Non-templated A nucleotides (dATP) were added to gDNA blunt ends formed by Cas9 cleavage

using TAQ polymerase, adding a dA-tail to prepare DNA for adapter ligation and sequencing. The

adapter ligation steps differ slightly when using the Cas9 sequencing kit V109 or the ligation sequencing

kit V114, the main difference being the adapter mix used, Adapter Mix (AMX) or Ligation Adapter (LA),

respectively. Adapters were added to the DNA thanks to the T4 ligase, either provided by the ligation

sequencing kit or by New England Biolabs (NEB). End-prepped DNA were purified using AMPure XP

Beads (Beckman Coulter) and eluted using the elution buffer provided by the Ligation sequencing kit.

Regarding multiplexing experiments, we follow ONT recommendation and used two protocols: Native

barcoding expansion 1-12 and 13-24 kit (EXP-NBD104) and Native Barcoding lot 24 V14 (SQK-

NBD114.24). The first steps are similar than a singleplex experiment, from gDNA dephosphorylation

step to Cas9 cleavage and dA-tailing step. Native barcodes were then ligated to the dA-tailed DNA,

using blunt/TA ligase Master Mix (NEB), then followed by the adapter ligation step. As mentioned

above, depending on which sequencing kit was used (V109 or V114), different adapter mix were used,

either "AMII" buffer for V109 kit or "NA" buffer for V114 kit.

Cas9-targeted sequencing protocol will be discontinued by ONT in 2024. Therefore, we adapted their

protocol using similar existing products. For the first steps (gDNA dephosphorylation to dA-tailing),

each ONT's buffers and enzymes can be replaced by NEB's products (Table 4). The adapter ligation step

was performed following the Ligation Sequencing kit V114 protocol.

Library quantification and quality controls were performed using the Qubit fluorometer (Fisher

Scientific) and the TapeStation System (Agilent). Libraries were sequenced using FLO-MIN106D (R9.4)

or FLO-MIN114 (R10.4) flow cell using PromehtION sequencer.

Steps	Cas9-squencing kit (SQK-CS9109)		Ligation sequencing kit (SQK-LSK114)		Homemade
	no barcoding	with barcoding	no barcoding	with barcoding	no barcoding
Cas9-RNPs complex	S. pyogenes Cas9 Alt-R® crRNAs (IDT)				
	S. pyogenes Cas9 Alt-R® tracrRNAs (IDT)				
	Alt-R® S.p. HiFi Cas9 Nuclease V3 (IDT)				
	Nuclease-free duplex buffer (IDT)				
	RB (ONT)	RB (ONT)	RB (ONT)	RB (ONT)	NEB CutSmart Buffer (NEB)
gDNA dephosphorylation	RB (ONT)	RB (ONT)	RB (ONT)	RB (ONT)	NEB CutSmart Buffer (NEB)
	PHOS (ONT)	PHOS (ONT)	PHOS (ONT)	PHOS (ONT)	CIP (NEB)
Cas9 cleavage and dA-tailing	TAQ (ONT)	TAQ (ONT)	TAQ (ONT)	TAQ (ONT)	Taq polymerase (NEB)

	dATP (ONT)	dATP (ONT)	dATP (ONT)	dATP (ONT)	dATP (NEB)
Native barcoding ligation	-	NEB Blunt/TA ligase Master Mix (NEB)	-	NEB Blunt/TA ligase Master Mix (NEB)	-
	-	Fresh 70% Ethanol	-	Fresh 80% Ethanol	-
	-	Native Barcoding Expansion 1-12	-	Native Barcoding Kit 24 (V14)	-
	-	-	-	EDTA	-
Adapter ligation	LB (ONT)	LB (ONT)	LB (ONT)	LB (ONT)	LB (ONT)
	Adapter mix AMX (ONT)	Adapter mix AMII (ONT)	Adapter mix LA (ONT)	Adapter mix NA (ONT)	Adapter mix LA (ONT)
	T4 ligase	T4 ligase	NEBNext Quick T4 DNA Ligase (NEB)	NEBNext Quick T4 DNA Ligase (NEB)	NEBNext Quick T4 DNA Ligase (NEB)
	SFB (ONT)	SFB (ONT)	SFB (ONT)	SFB (ONT)	SFB (ONT)
	SPRI Dilution Buffer	SPRI Dilution Buffer	-	-	-
Elution	Elution Buffer	Elution Buffer	Elution Buffer	Elution Buffer	Elution Buffer

Table 4. ONT long-read sequencing protocols. All reagents available using ONT ligation sequencing kit are referred with (ONT); other reagents are obtained through New England Biolabs (NEB) or Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT). RB – Reaction Buffer; PHOS – phosphatase; TAQ – Taq polymerase; LB – ligation buffer; SFB – Short fragment buffer

Bioinformatic analyses

FAST5 files were processed using Guppy, Dorado (v5.3), and Bonito (v7.0) employing the HAC model. Then, FASTQ files were aligned to the T2T genome utilizing Minimap2. Reads overlapping genes of interest were extracted via Samtools. To identify reads spanning the repeat region, local alignment was performed with adjacent regions, each spanning 100 bases before and after the repeat site. All retained reads were oriented in the same direction. The repeat region was precisely located by identifying the two 100-base regions flanking the repeat, as taken from the T2T consensus sequences.

Reads exhibiting over 90% identity with the consensus on each flanking region and having average

quality larger than 20 were retained. The count of repeats was determined by dividing the total

number of bases in between the 2 flanking regions by the length of the repeat motif. We also used

straglr on the same set of reads. Methylation status was assessed using Modkit on the same reads

after transformation to POD5. Reads were stratified into 'expanded' and 'non-expanded' subgroups

based on the largest gap in length observed in the sorted list of read lengths. Visualization used R and

Gviz. Files are available on github (https://github.com/PYB-SU/STR).

ABBREVIATIONS

5hmc – 5-hydroxymethylcytosine; 5mc – 5-methylcytosine; 6mA – N6-methyladenine; Bp – base pair;

CpG – Cytosine preceding a guanidine; DM1 – Myotonic dystrophy; FXS – Fragile X syndrome; HM –

Homemade; LB – Ligation Buffer; LRS – Long-read sequencing; PacBio – Pacific Bioscience; ONT –

Oxford Nanopore Technologies; OPDM – Oculopharyngodistal myopathy; PHOS – Phosphatase; RB –

Reaction Buffer; RED – Repeat expansion disease; RNP – ribonucleoprotein complexes; SBMA – Spinal

and bulbar muscular atrophy; SFB – Short fragment buffer; TAQ – Taq polymerase; UTR – Untranslated

region

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was funded by Association Institut de Myologie (AIM), INSERM and Sorbonne Université. L

Benarroch was supported by Solve-RD project which has received funding from the European Union's

Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under grant agreement No 779257 and MDUK grant

No. 18GROI-PG24-0140-2. This work was also supported by a grant from Fondation Maladies Rares

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