- 1 Myogenesis modelled by human pluripotent stem cells uncovers
- 2 Duchenne muscular dystrophy phenotypes prior to skeletal muscle
- **commitment**
- 4 Virginie Mournetas<sup>1\*</sup>, Emmanuelle Massouridès<sup>2</sup>, Jean-Baptiste Dupont<sup>1</sup>, Etienne Kornobis<sup>3</sup>, Hélène Polvèche<sup>2</sup>,
- 5 Margot Jarrige<sup>2</sup>, Maxime R. F. Gosselin<sup>4</sup>; Antigoni Manousopoulou<sup>5</sup>, Spiros D. Garbis<sup>6</sup>; Dariusz C. Górecki<sup>4,7</sup>;
- 6 Christian Pinset<sup>8</sup>
- 7 \*Correspondence: contact@virginie-mournetas.fr
- <sup>1</sup>INSERM UEVE UMR861, I-STEM, AFM, 28 rue Henri Desbruères, 91100 Corbeil-Essonnes, France
- 9 <sup>2</sup>CECS, I-STEM, AFM, 28 rue Henri Desbruères, 91100 Corbeil-Essonnes, France
- 10 Institut Pasteur, 25-28 Rue du Dr Roux, 75015 Paris, France
- <sup>4</sup>Molecular Medicine, School of Pharmacy and Biomedical Sciences, University of Portsmouth, PO1 2DT,
- 12 Portsmouth, UK
- 13 <sup>5</sup>Department of Immuno-Oncology, Beckman Research Institute, City of Hope National Medical Center, Duarte,
- 14 CA, 91010, USA
- 15 <sup>6</sup>Proteome Exploration Laboratory, Beckman Institute, California Institute of Technology, Division of Biology
- 16 and Biological Engineering, 1200 E. California Blvd., MC 139-74, Pasadena, California, 91125, USA
- <sup>7</sup>Military Institute of Hygiene and Epidemiology, Warsaw, Poland
- 18 CNRS, I-STEM, AFM, 28 rue Henri Desbruères, 91100 Corbeil-Essonnes, France

#### **ABSTRACT**

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

Duchenne muscular dystrophy (DMD) causes severe disability of children and death of young men, with an incidence of approximately 1/5,000 male births. Symptoms appear in early childhood, with a diagnosis made around 4 years old, a time where the amount of muscle damage is already significant, preventing early therapeutic interventions that could be more efficient at halting disease progression. In the meantime, the precise moment at which disease phenotypes arise – even asymptomatically – is still unknown. Thus, there is a critical need to better define DMD onset as well as its first manifestations, which could help identify early disease biomarkers and novel therapeutic targets. In this study, we have used human induced pluripotent stem cells (hiPSCs) from DMD patients to model skeletal myogenesis, and compared their differentiation dynamics to that of healthy control cells by a comprehensive multi-omic analysis. Transcriptome and miRnome comparisons combined with protein analyses at 7 time points demonstrated that hiPSC differentiation 1) mimics described DMD phenotypes at the differentiation endpoint; and 2) homogeneously and robustly recapitulates key developmental steps mesoderm, somite, skeletal muscle - which offers the possibility to explore dystrophin functions and find earlier disease biomarkers. Starting at the somite stage, mitochondrial gene dysregulations escalate during differentiation. We also describe fibrosis as an intrinsic feature of skeletal muscle cells that starts early during myogenesis. In sum, our data strongly argue for an early developmental manifestation of DMD whose onset is triggered before the entry into the skeletal muscle compartment, data leading to a necessary reconsideration of dystrophin functions during muscle development.

#### INTRODUCTION

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

Duchenne muscular dystrophy (DMD) is a rare genetic disease, but it is the most common form of myopathy affecting approximately one in 5,000 male births and very rarely female. In this recessive X-linked monogenic disorder, mutations in the DMD gene lead to the loss of functional dystrophin protein, resulting in a progressive - yet severe - muscle wasting phenotype (1). In patients, symptoms usually appear in early childhood (2-5 years old) and worsen with age, imposing the use of wheelchair before 15 and leading to premature death by cardiac and/or respiratory failure(s) mostly around 30 years of age (2). At the age of diagnosis (around 4 years old), muscles of DMD patients have already suffered from the pathology (3,4). Several reviews pointed out the limitations of current disease biomarkers, which fail to detect the development of DMD specifically and at an early age (5,6). Meanwhile, no treatment is available to stop this degenerative disease yet. Developing therapies aim at restoring the expression of dystrophin in muscle cells but, so far, the level stays too low to be beneficial to patients (7). The absence of both reliable biomarkers and effective therapies stress the need of better defining the first steps of DMD in humans to be able to increase diagnosis sensitivity and, therefore, improve patient management by accelerating their access to better healthcare as well as develop alternative therapeutic approaches by finding targets that compensate the lack of dystrophin and complement current attempts at restoring its expression (8). In 2007, a seminal publication reported that the gene expression profile of muscles from asymptomatic DMD children younger than 2 years old is already distinguishable from healthy muscles, suggesting that DMD molecular dysregulations appear before disease symptomatic manifestations (4). Evidence obtained in multiple animal models, such as neonatal GRMD dogs (9), DMD zebrafish (10) and mdx mouse embryos (11), as well as in human foetuses (12-14) even suggest that DMD starts before birth, during prenatal development. Our team recently identified the embryonic dystrophin isoform Dp412e expressed in early mesodermcommitted cells (15), another indication that DMD can start in utero. Further exploring DMD onset in human foetuses is extremely challenging for obvious ethical and practical reasons. A way to overcome these issues is to develop a human DMD model in vitro, recapitulating embryonic development from human pluripotent stem cells to skeletal muscle lineage.

To our knowledge, none of the existing human DMD *in vitro* models, either based on tissue-derived myoblasts (16) or on the differentiation of induced pluripotent stem cells (17–21), have been used for studying DMD during the ontogeny of the skeletal muscle lineage. Moreover, original protocols for *in vitro* myogenesis from human pluripotent stem cells (reviewed in (22)) use transgene overexpression or/and cell sorting procedures, and thereby, miss the steps preceding skeletal muscle commitment, *e.g.* paraxial mesoderm and myotome. Novel protocols have recently used transgene-free directed differentiation to recapitulate human embryonic development in a dish, giving theoretical access to the developmental steps (19,23–25).

Using one of these protocols (23), we compared the myogenic differentiation dynamics of healthy and DMD hiPSCs using a multi-omic approach to identify early disease manifestations *in vitro*. DMD cells showed marked transcriptome dysregulations from day 10, before the detection of skeletal muscle regulatory factors at day 17. Specifically, we identified the dysregulation of mitochondrial genes as one of the earliest detectable phenotypes. These alterations escalated over the course of muscle specification. In addition, we showed an early induction of Sonic hedgehog signalling pathway, followed by collagens as well as fibrosis-related genes suggesting the existence of an intrinsic fibrotic process solely driven by DMD muscle cells. Overall, our data highlight that human pluripotent stem cells are a suitable cell model to study the ontogeny of skeletal muscle

# RESULTS

early disease manifestations during somite development.

To establish the early/developmental impact of *DMD* gene mutations, human induced pluripotent stem cells (hiPSCs) from three DMD patients and three healthy individuals were generated as described previously (15). These cells were subjected to a standardised differentiation protocol without utilisation of feeder cells, cell sorting or gene overexpression resulting in elongated and plurinucleated myotubes within 25 days (23), with an amplification fold of 2918 ± 480 (mean ± SEM). Skeletal muscle progenitor cells after 10 and 17 days of differentiation could be cryopreserved (Figure S1A). Whole transcriptome and miRnome profiles were compared at 7 differentiation time points (tissue-derived myoblasts and myotubes, as well as hiPSC-derived cells at days 0, 3, 10, 17 and 25) and complemented by TMT proteomics and Western blot analyses (Table S1).

lineage in both healthy and disease conditions. In the context of DMD, they strongly argue for the existence of

#### DMD is initiated prior to the expression of skeletal muscle markers

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

First, the expression profile of the DMD variants was studied by RT-qPCR in healthy and DMD hiPSCs during the differentiation process described in Figure S1A. The Dp427m variant, which is normally observed in muscle cells (26), appeared from day 3 and was increased at day 17, in contrast with Dp412e - the embryonic variant of dystrophin present in mesoderm cells (15) – which was expressed from day 0, increased at differentiation day 3 and disappeared from day 10. Therefore, the expression of the DMD locus is initiated in the very first steps of the differentiation protocol, well before the entry into the skeletal muscle lineage. The ubiquitous variant Dp71-40 was detected at every time points, in contrast with Dp116 (Schwann cell variant (27)), Dp140 (kidney and foetal brain variant (28)) Dp427p1p2 (Purkinje cell variant (29)), and Dp427c which were either undetected or expressed at very low levels (Figure S1B). Interestingly, Dp260 (retinal variant (30)) followed a similar expression pattern than Dp427m. A strong correlation in the transcriptomic data was observed by mRNA-seq and miRNA-seq between samples collected at an individual time point, as opposed to samples from two distinct time points. In addition, the correlation coefficient between samples taken at two successive time points increased as differentiation progressed (Figure 1A). Differential expression analysis in healthy controls between two successive collection days (days 3/0, days 10/3, days 17/10, days 25/17) showed that the proportion of regulated genes decreased from 26 % to 18 % of the whole transcriptome through the course of differentiation (8080 to 5320 mRNAs, adjusted p-value ≤ 0.01, Figure S2A). These observations demonstrate the robustness of the differentiation protocol and are in agreement with an early specialisation and a later refinement of the transcriptome as cells quickly exit pluripotency and become progressively restricted to the skeletal muscle lineage. To characterise the developmental stages achieved by the cells, the expression of lineage-specific markers (both mRNAs and miRNAs) was determined at each time point, together with gene ontology enrichment analyses (Figure 1B-2A, Figure S2B-C, Table S2). Pluripotency was similarly maintained in healthy and DMD cells at day 0 (Figure 2A, Table S2), as already shown by our group (15). At day 3, cells lost pluripotency and became paraxial mesoderm cells expressing marker genes such as PAX3 and PAX7 (11) (Figure 2A, Table S2). Importantly, markers of lateral plate (e.g. GATA4 (31)) and intermediate mesoderm (e.g. PAX8 (32)) were not upregulated at this stage (Table S2).

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

Similarly, earlier markers of primitive streak (e.g. TBX6 (33)), mesendoderm (e.g. MIXL1 (34)), as well as markers of the other germ layers, endoderm (e.g. SOX17 (35)) and ectoderm (e.g. SOX2 (36)) were either not expressed, greatly downregulated or expressed at very low levels (Table S2), suggesting cell homogeneity in the differentiation process. At that early time point, DMD-associated gene dysregulation represented less than 3 % of the entire transcriptome (adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05, Figure 2B) but already contained genes important for development (e.g. MEIS2 (37)) and muscle formation (e.g. ACTA1 (38)). However, mesoderm markers were not significantly dysregulated, attesting that mesoderm commitment was mostly unimpaired (Figure 2A, Table S2). No increase in the expression of primitive streak, mesendoderm, endoderm or ectoderm markers was detected, suggesting no differences in the differentiation process of DMD cells at that stage (Table S2). In contrast, a sharp increase in the proportion of dysregulated genes appeared at day 10, mostly including gene downregulations (DMD/Healthy expression ratio  $\leq$  0.76, adjusted p-value  $\leq$  0.05). This concerned almost 10 % of the transcriptome at day 10 (against 3 % at day 3) and remained stable from 10 to 12 % (1226 mRNAs) until day 25 (Figure 2B). At day 10, healthy cells expressed genes typically observed during somitogenesis, such as PAX3 (39) NR2F2 (40), PTN (41), MET (42), H19 and IGF2 (43) (Table S2). More precisely, their transcriptome exhibits a mixed profile between dermomyotome (expression of GLI3 (44) and GAS1 (45) but not ZIC3 (46)) and myotome (expression of MET (47) and EPHA4 (48) but not LBX1 (49)) (Table S2). Neither markers of presomitic mesoderm cells (e.g. FGF8 (50)) and neural plate cells (FOXD3 (51)), nor markers of sclerotome (e.g. PAX1 (52)) and dermatome (e.g. EGFL6 (53)) were upregulated (Table S2) in both healthy and DMD cells. In the meantime, several somite markers were downregulated, including H19, IGF2, MET and SEMA6A (54) (validated at the protein level for SEMA6A, Figure 2A-S3A, Table S2), while a slight upregulation of chondrocyte markers was highlighted and confirmed at the protein level for GLI3 (Figure S3B), together with a significant enrichment of the gene ontology term 'nervous system development', suggesting potential lineage bifurcations at day 10 (Figure 2A-S2C, Table S2). The study of differentiation dynamics presented above highlights that mesoderm commitment is not impaired by the absence of dystrophin, and shows that DMD onset takes place at the somite cell stage, before the expression of the skeletal muscle program and especially before the upregulation of *Dp427m* expression.

#### DMD skeletal muscle progenitor cells exhibit specific muscle gene dysregulations

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

Healthy and DMD cells were in the skeletal muscle compartment at day 17, as evidenced by the expression of multiple lineage-specific genes, such as transcription factors (e.g. MYOD1 (55)), cell surface markers (e.g. CDH15 (56)), sarcomere genes (e.g. TNNC2 (57)), dystrophin-associated protein complex (DAPC) genes (e.g. SGCA (58)), Calcium homeostasis genes (e.g. RYR1 (59)) and muscle-specific miRNAs (myomiR, e.g. MIR1-1 (60)). This was also observed at the protein level for CDH15, TNNC2 and RYR1 (Figure 1B, Table S2). They both showed an embryonic/foetal phenotype characterised by ERBB3 expression, in contrast with tissue-derived myoblasts that expressed NGFR (21). Here again, alternative cell lineages were absent or greatly downregulated, such as tenocytes (e.g. MKX (61)), chondrocytes (e.g. SOX5 (62)), osteoblasts (e.g. SPP1 (63)) or nephron progenitors (e.g. SALL1 (64)) (Table S2). Interestingly, DMD cells did not show a significant dysregulation of skeletal muscle transcription factors (Table S2). However, several myomiRs were found downregulated (e.g. MIR1-1, Figure 2C), together with genes related to calcium homeostasis (e.g. ATP2A2 (65), at both mRNA and protein level, Figure 2D-E) as well as members of the DAPC (e.g. SNTA1 (66)) (Table S2). Concerning cell lineages, there was no visible difference when compared to healthy controls, except an upregulation of markers associated with chondrocytes, which was confirmed at the protein level for GLI3 (Figure S3C), and a significant enrichment of the gene ontology term 'nervous system development' previously seen at day 10, together with 'kidney development' and 'ossification' (Figure 2A-S2C, Table S2). DMD-specific dysregulations were further queried at the protein level using TMT proteomics. 3826 proteins were detected in the 6 processed samples (3 healthy and 3 DMD, Table S3). Among these list, 185 proteins (139 + 46) were found significantly dysregulated in DMD and 375 (329 + 46) of the corresponding mRNAs were previously detected dysregulated in the RNA-seq analysis, the overlap between protein and mRNA identified dysregulations being 46 (|log2FoldChange| ≥ 0.4 and adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05, Figure S3D-E, Table S4). Moreover, among the total of 514 genes represented in Figure S3F, 98 were dysregulated alike in both datasets (56 upregulated + 42 downregulated) against 13 (12 + 1) in the opposite direction (|log2FoldChange|  $\geq$  0.4, Figure S3F, Table S4) resulting in a Spearman correlation of r = 0.49 and p-value < 0.0001. In this mRNA/protein comparison, the mRNA experiment was more sensitive than protein experiment and could also be considered as a good proxy for proteins.

To better characterise the most direct consequences of the loss of *DMD* in muscle cells, *DMD* expression was knocked-down at day 17 by transient exon skipping using a specific phosphorodiamidate morpholino oligomer targeting *DMD* exon 7 (PMO7) in a healthy hiPSC line. Treatment with PMO7 resulted in significant exon skipping which was correlated with reduced *DMD* expression up to 94% (Spearman r = -0.88, analysed pairs = 59, p-value < 0.0001, Figure S4A) and reduced dystrophin protein levels (up to 81%, Figure S4B). In parallel, the expression of specific transcripts was measured by RT-qPCR the 3 following days (Figure S4A): transcripts coding for *MYH3*, *MYOG* and *SGCA* were significantly downregulated after PMO7 treatment (gene group 1), while transcripts coding for *DES* and *ITGA7* were not affected (gene group 2).

Therefore, DMD cells efficiently enter the skeletal muscle compartment at day 17, but exhibit dysregulations in several features typically associated with dystrophic muscles, which could be a consequence of the early manifestations of DMD detected at day 10. Some of these identified dysregulations were mimicked by transient *DMD* knockdown.

## hiPSC differentiation leads to embryonic/foetal myotubes that reproduce DMD phenotypes

As previously described (23), both healthy and DMD hiPSC-derived myotubes (day 25) were able to twitch spontaneously in culture, and fluorescent staining of nuclei and α-actinin confirmed cell fusion and the formation of striation patterns typical of muscle fibres *in vivo* (Figure 3A). Western blot analyses on protein extracts from DMD cells confirmed that dystrophin was either undetectable or slightly expressed (Figure 3B), as in the corresponding patient muscle biopsies (data not shown).

We selected representative mRNAs and miRNAs and showed that both hiPSC-derived and tissue-derived myotubes have exited the cell cycle and upregulated genes expressed in skeletal muscles (Figure S5A, Figure 4A, Table S2). This included skeletal muscle myomiRs (*MIR1-1*, *MIR133* and *MIR206* (67,68)), transcription factors involved in skeletal myogenesis including those of the muscle regulatory factor (MRF) family (*e.g. MYOD1* (55), *MYOG* (69)), specific muscle cell surface markers (*e.g. CDH15* (56), *ITGA7* (70)) as well as genes involved in the formation of the DAPC (*e.g. SGCA* (58), *DTNA* (71)), sarcomeres (*e.g. TNNC2* (57), *TNNT3* (72)), myofibril organisation (*e.g. UNC45B* (73), *NACA* (74)) and the triggering of excitation-contraction coupling at the neuromuscular junction (NMJ, *e.g. MUSK* (75), *DOK7* (76)) (Figure 4A, Table S2).

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

Even though global analysis showed that hiPSC-derived myotubes were similar to their tissue-derived counterparts in term of lineage commitment, they displayed an embryonic/foetal phenotype - as suggested in progenitors at day 17. This can be illustrated by the expression of the embryonic/foetal myosin heavy/light chains MYH3 (77), MYH8(78), MYL4 (79) and MYL5 (80) but not the postnatal transcripts MYH1 and MYH2 (81), which were detected in tissue-derived myotubes. Myotubes derived from hiPSCs had also higher levels of IGF2, which is downregulated at birth (82), and expressed DLK1, which is known to be extinct in adult muscles (83) (Figure S5B). Despite the embryonic/foetal phenotype, hiPSC-derived myotubes showed evidence of terminal differentiation and cellular maturation. First, their total level of myosin heavy chain proteins was significantly higher than in tissue-derived myotubes, as confirmed by Western blotting (Figure 3B). RNAs and proteins involved in DAPC formation (e.g. DMD, SGCA (58) and SGCG (84)), as well as in excitation-contraction coupling (e.g. RYR1 (59) and CACNA1S / CAV1.1 (85)) were also present at higher levels (Figure 3B-4A). Finally, higher expression of skeletal muscle transcription factors (e.g. MEF2C (86)), and of multiple genes involved in muscle contraction (e.g. TNNT3 (72)), NMJ formation (e.g. RAPSN (87)), and creatine metabolism (e.g. CKM (88)) indicates that hiPSC-derived cells expressed features of fully differentiated muscle cells (Figure 4A). Similar to previous time points, day 25 cells were negative for markers of alternative muscle lineages, i.e. cardiac (MIR208a (89), MYL7 (90) and RYR2 (91)) and smooth muscle cells (MYH11 (92), CNN1 (93) and CHRNA3/B2/B4 (94))(Table S2). In DMD cells, unbiased mRNA-seq analysis highlighted striking transcriptome dysregulations with 3,578 differentially expressed genes in hiPSC-derived myotubes including well-known muscle genes. There was a global trend towards downregulation of muscle transcription factors, which was only significant for MEF2A and MEF2D in hiPSC-derived myotubes and EYA4 and MYOD1 in tissue-derived myotubes (Figure S5C). In addition, myomiRs previously associated with muscle dystrophy (dystromiRs, e.g. MIR1-1 (60), Figure 2C) were found downregulated (Table S2). Similarly, a global downregulation phenotype was observed in both tissue- and hiPSC-derived DMD myotubes, and concerned multiple mRNAs and/or proteins associated with known disease phenotypes, such as cell surface markers (e.g. ITGA7 (70)), DAPC organisation (e.g. both SGCA mRNA and protein (58) as well as SGCG protein (84)), myofibril organisation (e.g. UNC45B (73)), sarcomere formation (e.g. MYO18B (95)), NMJ function (e.g. CHRNB1 (96)) and calcium homeostasis (e.g. ATP2A2 mRNA (65) and RYR1 protein (59)) (Figure 3B for protein data, 4B for transcript data, S2C for enrichment data).

Then we compared the DMD/Healthy expression ratios at day 25 with two sets of published omics data from healthy and DMD muscle biopsies: one obtained at the mRNA level in pre-symptomatic DMD patients younger than 2 years old (4) and another at the protein level in patients aged from 9 months to 8 years old (97). Both datasets were closer to day 25 cells (hiPSC-derived myotubes) than day 17 cells as expected. Our hiPSC-derived myotubes expressed 250 of the 261 dysregulated genes and 203 of the 226 dysregulated proteins found in these respective studies (Spearman correlations of r = 0.36 and r = 0.42, p-value < 0.0001, Figure 4C, Table S4). Among these, respectively 90 and 63 genes were also significantly dysregulated in our dataset ( $\lceil \log_2 Fold Change \rceil \ge 0.4$ , adjusted p-value  $\le 0.05$ ): 88% (79 / 90 genes) of the identified genes from the mRNA dataset and 78% (49 / 63 genes) of the identified genes from the protein dataset were dysregulated in the same direction, resulting in Spearman correlation of r = 0.45 and r = 0.59 respectively (p-value  $\le 0.0001$ , Figure 4C-D, Table S4).

Altogether, these data indicate that hiPSC-derived myotubes recapitulate a full skeletal muscle differentiation program, and exhibit an embryonic/foetal phenotype. Despite that, it shows that DMD phenotypes are already detectable at the transcriptional level and correlated with those found in human patients. This validates the relevance of this cell system to model the DMD pathology.

## Markers of fibrosis are intrinsic to DMD hiPSC-derived myotubes

As presented above, the upregulation of chondrocyte markers in DMD cells, although already present at day 10, became significant from day 17 (Figure 2A, Table S2). It was accompanied by the upregulations of the Sonic hedgehog (SHH) signalling pathway and of multiple collagens (Figure 5A, Table S2). Genes encoding the *P4H* collagen synthases, were not dysregulated while *RRBP1* (that stimulates collagen synthesis (98)) together with *PLOD1* and *PLOD2* (that stabilise collagens (99,100)) were significantly upregulated. Moreover, *SETD7*, a gene known for activating collagenases (101), was significantly downregulated.

At the myotube stage, a fibrosis-related gene set was clearly upregulated in DMD cells, as illustrated by the overexpression of *ANGPT1* (102), *CTGF* (103), collagens (*e.g. COL1A2* (104)), matrix metallopeptidases (*MMPs*) and tissue inhibitors of metallopeptidase (*TIMPs*) (105) (Figure 5B). Conversely, the myomiR *MIR133* that controls *CTGF* expression (106) was repressed (Table S2). Interestingly, gene members of the transforming

growth factor (TGF)- $\beta$  pathway, a well-known inducer of fibrosis (107), were not found dysregulated (Figure 5B, Table S2).

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

Altogether, these data argue for fibrosis as an intrinsic feature of DMD skeletal muscle cells, rather than a process solely driven by interstitial cell populations in the niche. Furthermore, this muscle-driven fibrosis seems independent of the TGF- $\beta$  pathway, and could rather depend on the SHH pathway, together with an intrinsic upregulation of chondrocyte markers and collagens.

## Genes involved in mitochondrial metabolism are drastically dysregulated in DMD hiPSC-derived myotubes

As previously described (108) and illustrated on Figure S6A, genes involved in the energy metabolism of DMD hiPSC-derived myotubes were dysregulated at the creatine and carbohydrate levels, up to the respiration (Figure 6A-B, Figure S2C, Table S2). The creatine transporter was not impacted while mRNAs coding for enzymes of both creatine and creatine phosphate biosynthesis were underrepresented. Neither glucose nor glutamate transporter expression were impaired. However, genes involved in glutamine biosynthesis (followed by gluconeogenesis that feeds glycolysis from glutamine) as well as glycogenesis (followed by glycogenolysis that feeds glycolysis from glycogen) were all downregulated, together with genes coding for glycolysis itself. In contrast, genes coding for the pentose phosphate pathway (which is in parallel to glycolysis) were upregulated, especially the oxidative part. Gene expression for pyruvate decarboxylation and generation of acetyl-CoA to feed the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle was also impaired. Finally, the genes involved in the TCA cycle itself (Figure 6A, Figure S2C) and the mitochondrial electron transport chain were downregulated Figure 6B, Figure S2C). This is particularly reinforced by lower levels of a member of the ATP synthase complex ATP5A1 at both mRNA and protein levels (Figure 6C-D). These mRNA and protein data were completed by the measurement of ATP levels, which were significantly decreased in DMD hiPSC-derived myotubes (Figure 6E). Moreover, transcripts encoded by the mitochondrial DNA and mitochondrial DNA itself were decreased in DMD hiPSCderived myotubes at day 25 (Figure S6B-S6E). In the presented cell model, a significant downregulation of a mRNA set coding for mitochondrial proteins was primarily observed at day 10 with the downregulation of 11 % (12 mRNAs, DMD/Healthy expression ratio ≤ 0.76, adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05) of the mitochondrial outer membrane genes, and amplified during the differentiation of DMD cells (Figure 7A). Therefore, defects depicted at day 25 rooted before the expression of the skeletal muscle program at day 17. Among them, mRNA downregulation of TSPO, a channel-like molecule involved in the modulation of mitochondrial transition pore (109), occurred from day 10 to day 25. This downregulation was also observed at the protein level at day 17 (Figure 7B). Moreover, the protein import system was affected from day 17 at both mRNA and protein levels (Figure S6C-S6F). Simultaneously, mRNAs involved in mitochondrial genome transcription started to be downregulated, followed by genes involved in mitochondrial DNA replication at day 25 (Figure S6D-S6G). This progressive increase of dysregulations was also observed at the level of the entire mRNA set related to mitochondria (around 1,000 mRNAs) as illustrated by the volcano plots as well as the gene ontology enrichments (Figure 7C, Figure S2C).

Our data highlight early impairments in genes coding for mitochondria that start at the somite stage and increase with the differentiation in an orderly manner. These elements complete the mitochondrial DMD phenotype described above at the myotube stage.

Altogether, our study demonstrates that DMD starts prior to the expression of well-described markers of muscle differentiation. It shows that hiPSC-based experimental models of DMD can help identify early disease manifestations and stratify multiple pathological features over the course of muscle development.

## DISCUSSION

Since the discovery of the *DMD* gene in 1987 (1), DMD cellular phenotypes were considered under the unique scope of a "mechanical hypothesis" in which dystrophin deficiency led to membrane leakage and ultimately muscle cell rupture. However, over the last 15-20 years, studies have brought unequivocal evidence that multiple additional factors are in play, such as calcium intracellular overloads (110,111), excessive oxidative stress (112,113), metabolic switches (114,115), as well as an overall tissue context where aberrant interactions between resident cells lead to inflammation and fibro-adipogenesis (116–118). This has progressively led to a complex picture involving interdependent homeostatic perturbations and to date, the identification of prevalent pathological features driving the initiation of DMD is hardly feasible.

The skeletal myogenesis modelled here by the differentiation of hiPSCs, without gene overexpression or cell sorting, homogeneously and robustly recapitulates key developmental steps — pluripotency, mesoderm, somite and skeletal muscle — without any trace of other lineages. Therefore, it is a suitable dynamic model for studying human skeletal muscle development in both healthy and DMD cells, offering the possibility to clarify

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

the consequences of the absence of dystrophin at each step of the differentiation process, as well as to explore dystrophin functions and find earlier and more specific disease biomarkers. As previously observed with pluripotent stem cells (119), hiPSC-derived myotubes at day 25 displayed an embryonic/foetal gene expression profile. However, a clear distinction must be made between the nature of the expressed isoforms - embryonic / foetal / postnatal - and the degree of differentiation. For instance, hiPSC-derived myotubes expressed multiple markers of terminally differentiated muscles at levels higher than those measured in tissue-derived myotubes. With the idea of exploring human DMD phenotypes during muscle development, we argued that generating embryonic/foetal myotubes from hiPSCs would not be a limitation. In qualitative terms, DMD hiPSC-derived myotubes showed an overall morphology similar to healthy controls, with cell fusion and clear striation patterns, suggesting that the potential impact of dystrophin during in vitro differentiation is subtle and does not prevent myotube formation. However, our unbiased mRNA-seq analysis highlighted striking transcriptome dysregulations at day 25. This includes numerous genes which can be linked to previously described DMD phenotypes such as 1) DAPC dissociation (120); 2) rupture of calcium homeostasis (110); 3) myomiR downregulation (60,121); 4) sarcomere destabilisation (122-124); 5) mitochondrial and metabolism dysregulations (114,115); 6) NMJ fragmentation (125,126) and 7) fibrosis (118,127). It is interesting to note that these phenotypes are already detected at the transcriptional level in embryonic/foetal myotubes, while they usually appear postnatally in human patients and other animal models. In addition, most of them are often considered as consequences of degeneration-regeneration cycles typical of DMD muscles in vivo (123,128,129) which are absent in our in vitro model, indicating that a part of these defects are primarily due to the absence of dystrophin itself. In particular, our data suggest that fibrosis is an intrinsic feature of DMD skeletal muscle cells, and therefore, it does not absolutely require a specific tissue context or additional cell populations to be detected in vitro. Fibrosis is a major hallmark of DMD pathophysiology, and the regulation of this process has been largely investigated in the past (107,130). A longdebated question is the implication of the TGF\$\beta\$ signalling pathway (131). In this study, TGF\$\beta\$ signalling was inhibited up to day 17 by specific molecules contained in the cell culture media, and TGFβ-related genes were not upregulated at day 25, suggesting that the observed upregulation of fibrosis-related markers is TGFβindependent.

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

Since several studies in human patients and animal models had described dystrophic phenotypes in DMD foetuses/infants (9-14), we investigated the precise timing of disease onset in our hiPSC-derived cells. First, the absence of dystrophin does not modify the capacity of cells derived from adult tissue biopsies to be reprogramed using the approach developed by Takeshi and Yamanaka (132). Both healthy and DMD cells retained pluripotency and the capacity to enter the mesoderm compartment at day 3. At that time, the embryonic dystrophin Dp412e is expressed and only marginal dysregulations are observed in DMD cells, apriori unrelated to cell fate choice as cells only express paraxial mesoderm markers at levels similar to healthy controls. DMD dysregulations are greatly increased at day 10, when cells express somite markers. At that time, we noticed few significant dysregulations of cell lineage markers, which became more prevalent at day 17 and 25. This might be an indication that to some extent, cell fate is misguided in DMD cells, where skeletal muscle markers are underexpressed and replaced by markers of alternative lineages, such as chondrocytes. First visible at day 10, we identified the dysregulation of mitochondrial genes as one of the key processes happening in an orderly manner. Interestingly, early observations prior to the discovery of the DMD gene had hypothesised that DMD was a mitochondrial/metabolic disease based on protein quantifications and enzyme activities (114,133). Later, mitochondria was identified as a key organelle in DMD, responsible for metabolic perturbations but also calcium accumulation and generation of reactive oxygen species (110-113). In this study, numerous genes coding for proteins located in the outer mitochondrial membrane start to be downregulated from day 10 in DMD cells, such as the benzodiazepine receptor TSPO, a member of the controversial mitochondrial permeability transition pore (mPTP) (109). The mPTP is a multiprotein complex whose members are not all precisely identified, and several studies suggest that it might be involved in DMD pathophysiology (134,135). A chicken-and-egg question currently debated relates to the initiation of these homeostatic breakdowns, as positive feedbacks exist between mitochondria, oxidative stress and calcium homeostasis dysregulations (111,112). At the transcriptome level, dysregulations of genes controlling calcium homeostasis were detected after day 10, suggesting that mitochondrial impairment starts early and has predominant consequences in DMD, as hypothesised by Timpari et al. (108). Further experiments are needed to better evaluate the impact of mitochondrial dysregulations at the functional level. Day 17 marks the entry into the skeletal muscle compartment with the expression of specific transcription factors, cell surface markers, myomiRs as well as the increase of skeletal muscle variant of dystrophin

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

(Dp427m). It also marks the initiation of the skeletal muscle gene dysregulations observed at the myotube stage (i.e. downregulation of genes involved in DAPC and calcium homeostasis). For instance, the upregulation of fibrosis-related genes observed in DMD myotubes at day 25 is already visible at day 17, with the upregulation of the SHH pathway as well as collagen-related genes. In this study, it is seen as an early indicator of DMD physiopathology, confirming previous observations in DMD infants, both transcriptionally (4) and histologically (136,137). Moreover, several myomiRs were found downregulated at days 17 and 25 and seem to play a central part in multiple DMD phenotypes. Beside their role in myogenesis (67,68), myomiRs can be involved in calcium homeostasis (138), metabolism and mitochondrial functions (139,140), and fibrosis (106,141). In particular, MIR1-1 and MIR206 are known to target key genes such as CACNA1C (138), CTGF (106), RRBP1 (141), several regulators of the pentose phosphate pathway (139), and even transcripts encoded by the mitochondrial genome (140). Even though the functional consequences of the multiple gene and myomiR dysregulations highlighted in this study is virtually impossible to anticipate, we believe that myomiRs can be key players in DMD physiopathology. Few studies argued that DMD starts before the expression of the muscular dystrophin protein (18,142). Our data suggests that Dp427m is actually expressed before muscle commitment but at a lower level. This fact might explain why disease phenotypes seem to be initiated at the somite stage. This early initiation could also be explained by the deficit in other dystrophin isoforms expressed before day 10, such as Dp412e at day 3 (15), as well as by the decrease or loss of other RNA products expressed from the DMD locus, such as the ubiquitous isoform Dp71-40 or long non-coding RNAs (143). The lack of knowledge around these additional products from the DMD locus contrasts with the extensive amount of data on the structure and function of the main muscular isoform Dp427m whose most studied role is to stabilise muscle cell membrane during contraction (144). DMD knockdown results at day 17 in a healthy cell line with partial mimicking of DMD phenotype could suggest a dynamic process in DMD: some dysregulations might not be reproduced by removing DMD after muscle commitment highlighting the fact that absence of DMD locus expression during development could have impacts before cells becoming muscles and, therefore, before Dp427m having its well-known role in muscles, as it is shown by our multi-omic study. The role of Dp427m in non-muscle cells could also be questioned. Other tissue specific isoforms have been described, e.g. in the retina (Dp260 (30)) and in the brain

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

(Dp427c (145), Dp427p (29) and Dp140 (28)), some of which are also slightly expressed in skeletal muscles under certain circumstances (146), but their role remains mostly unknown. Interestingly, in our data, the expression of Dp260 follows the same pattern of expression as Dp427m. It has been shown that the expression of Dp260 in mdx/utrnK/K mice can rescue the mdx phenotype (147), indicating overlapping functions between Dp427m and Dp260. On the other hand, it is now well established that a third of DMD patients display cognitive deficiencies - which might be correlated with mutations affecting Dp140 (148) - attesting that dystrophin can be involved in other cell functions. To date, the standard of care for DMD patients helps mitigate and delay some of the most severe symptoms but remains insufficient to have a curative effect. Despite decades of work with the mdx mouse model, only a few pharmacological candidate molecules have moved forward to clinical trials, with variable efficiency. As several gene therapy trials have been recently initiated with promising preliminary data, we believe that our human in vitro model system might be useful for the development of combination therapies. Recent studies have proved that the association of two different therapeutic approaches could have a synergistic effect on the overall treatment outcome, and can be used for instance to boost the effect of dystrophin re-expression by antisense oligonucleotides or gene therapy (8,149,150). Here, our extensive RNA-seq data could help identify relevant therapeutic targets for pharmacological intervention, such as CTGF - involved in fibrosis and found upregulated in DMD myotubes - which can be inhibited by monoclonal antibodies (151), or TSPO receptor - a receptor potentially member of the mPTP downregulated in DMD cells - targetable with benzodiazepines (152). In addition, our model might also be used as a platform to screen pharmacological compounds in an unbiased high-throughput manner. Indeed, skeletal muscle progenitor cells at day 17 can be robustly amplified, cryopreserved and plated in a 384-well plate format (data not shown). Thus, they could be an interesting tool to highlight pharmacological compounds to be used alone, or in combination with gene therapy. To summarise, the directed differentiation of hiPSCs without gene overexpression or cell sorting homogeneously and robustly recapitulates key developmental steps of skeletal myogenesis and generates embryonic/foetal myotubes without any trace of other lineages. The absence of dystrophin does not compromise cell reprogramming, pluripotency or the entry into the mesoderm compartment. While a very low amount of the long muscular dystrophin isoform is expressed, a significant transcriptome dysregulation can be

observed at the somite stage that implicates mitochondria prior to dysregulations of genes controlling calcium homeostasis. Despite their ability to enter the skeletal muscle lineage compartment and become myotubes, DMD cells exhibit an imbalance in cell fate choice as they express lower amounts of key muscle proteins and retain basal expression of marker genes from other lineages, leading to the well-characterised DMD phenotypes including muscle features and metabolism dysregulations as well as fibrosis. Altogether, these data argue for 1) a deficit and not a delay in DMD differentiation; 2) seeing DMD as a progressive developmental disease as well as a metabolic pathology whose onset is triggered before the entry into the skeletal muscle compartment; and 3) fibrosis as an intrinsic feature of DMD muscle cells. Future studies could explore the additional roles of *DMD* locus products and the impact of their loss during skeletal muscle development, as well as find earlier and more specific disease biomarkers and develop combination therapeutic strategies using high-throughput drug screening.

All the omics data from this study will be soon available online for exploration through a graphical interface.

For additional information, please send an email to shiny@virginie-mournetas.fr.

## **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

## Ethics, consent, and permissions

At the Cochin Hospital-Cochin Institute, the collection of primary cultures of myoblasts was established from patient muscle biopsies conducted as part of medical diagnostic procedure of neuromuscular disorders. For each patient included in this study, signed informed consent was obtained to collect and study biological resources, and establish primary cultures of fibroblasts and myoblasts at the Hospital Cell Bank-Cochin Assistance Publique—Hôpitaux de Paris (APHP). This collection of myoblasts was declared to legal and ethical authorities at the Ministry of Research (number of declaration, 701, n° of the modified declaration, 701–1) via the medical hosting institution, APHP, and to the "Commission Nationale de l'Informatique et des Libertés" (CNIL, number of declaration, 1154515).

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

Cells Human primary adult myoblasts from healthy individuals and DMD patients were provided by Celogos and Cochin Hospital-Cochin Institute (Table S3). In Celogos laboratory, cell preparation was done according to patent US2010/018873 A1. **Cell culture** Human tissue-derived myoblasts - Primary myoblasts were maintained in a myoblast medium: DMEM/F-12, HEPES (31330-038, Thermo Fisher Scientific) supplemented with 10 % fetal bovine serum (FBS, Hyclone, Logan, UT), 10 ng/mL fibroblast growth factor 2 (FGF2, 100-18B, Peprotech), and 50 nM Dexamethasone (D4902, Sigma-Aldrich) on 0.1 % gelatin (G1393, Sigma-Aldrich) coated culture ware. Human tissue-derived myotubes - Primary myoblasts were differentiated into myotubes. Cells were seeded at  $600 \text{ cells/cm}^2$  on 0.1 % gelatin coated cultureware in myoblast medium containing 1 mM Acid ascorbic 2P (A8960, Sigma-Aldrich). Human induced pluripotent stem cells - Primary myoblasts were reprogrammed into hiPSCs following the protocol described in (15), using the Yamanaka's factors POU5F1, SOX2 and KLF4 transduction by ecotropic or amphotropic vectors (Table S3). HiPSCs were adapted and maintained with mTeSR™1 culture medium (05850, Stemcell Technologies) on Corning® Matrigel® Basement Membrane Matrix, lactose dehydrogenase elevating virus (LDEV)-Free-coated cultureware (354234, Corning Incorporated). Cells were then seeded at 20,000 cells/cm², passaged and thawed each time with 10 μM StemMACS™ Y27632. Human iPSC-derived cell – Six hiPSCs (3 healthy and 3 DMD) were differentiated three times toward skeletal muscle lineage using commercial media designed from Caron's work (23) (Skeletal Muscle Induction medium SKM01, Myoblast Cell Culture Medium SKM02, Myotube Cell Culture Medium SKM03, AMSbio). This protocol is a 2D directed differentiation that uses 3 consecutive defined media (SKM01 from day 0 to 10, SKM02 from day 10 to 17 and SKM03 from day 17 to d25) and only one cell passage at day 10. Cells were seeded at 3,500 cells/cm<sup>2</sup> at day 0 and day 10 on BioCoat™ Collagen I cultureware (356485, Corning Incorporated). Part of the cell culture was frozen at day 17 for further experiments such as DNA extraction.

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

478

479

480

481

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

with the  $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method.

These cells were then thaw at 30,000 cells/cm<sup>2</sup>, and cultured in SKM02 for 3 days and SKM03 for 3 additional days to get myotubes. **DNA and RNA experiments** RNA extraction and quality - RNA extraction was done in the six cell lines at 7 different time points: tissuederived myoblast and tissue-derived myotube, as well as during hiPSC differentiation at day 0, 3, 10, 17 and 25 (hiPSC-derived myotube) using the miRNeasy Mini kit (217004, QIAgen) on the QIAcube instrument. RNAs coming from the part A of the extraction protocol was used for mRNA-seq and RT-qPCR. RNAs coming from the part B of the extraction protocol was used for miRseq. PartA RNA was quantified on Nanodrop spectrophotometer (ND-1000, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and purity/quality (RIN ≥ 7) was assessed on the 2200 TapeStation using the Agilent RNA ScreenTape (5067-5576 / 5067-5577 / 5067-5578, Agilent). PartB RNA was quantified and purity/quality was assessed on the 2100 Agilent BioAnlayzer using the Agilent small RNA kit (5067-1548, Agilent). Reverse transcription - 500 ng of total RNA were reverse transcribed with random primers (48190-011, Thermo Fisher Scientific), oligo(dT) (SO131, Thermo Fisher Scientific), and deoxynucleotide (dNTP, 10297-018, Thermo Fisher Scientific) using Superscript® III reverse transcriptase (18080-044, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Thermocycling conditions were 10 min, 25 °C; 60 min, 55 °C; and 15 min, 75 °C. qPCR - We amplified cDNA/total DNA using primers (Thermo Fisher Scientific) listed in Table S6. They were designed using Primer blast (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast). The amplification efficiency of each primer set was preliminarily determined by running a standard curve. Detection was performed using a QuantStudio™ 12K Flex Real-Time PCR System (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Reactions were carried out in a 384well plate, with 10  $\mu$ L containing 2.5  $\mu$ L of 1/10 cDNA or 6.25 ng/uL total DNA, 0.2  $\mu$ L of mixed forward and reverse primers at 10 μM each, and 5 μL of 2X Luminaris Color HiGreen qPCR Master Mix Low Rox (K0973, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Thermocycling conditions were 50 °C during 2 min, 95 °C during 10 min, followed by 45 cycles including 15 sec at 95 °C, 1 min at 60 °C plus a dissociation stage. All samples were measured in triplicate. Experiments were normalised using UBC as reference gene and relative quantification was done

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

520

521

522

mRNA-seq - Libraries are prepared with TruSeq Stranded mRNA kit protocol according supplier recommendations. Briefly, the key stages of this protocol are successively, the purification of PolyA containing mRNA molecules using poly-T oligo attached magnetic beads from 1µg total RNA, a fragmentation using divalent cations under elevated temperature to obtain approximately 300bp pieces, double strand cDNA synthesis and finally Illumina adapter ligation and cDNA library amplification by PCR for sequencing. Sequencing is then carried out on paired-end 100 b/75 b of Illumina HiSeq 4000. An RNA-seq analysis workflow was designed using snakemake 3.5.4 (153) for read quality estimation, mapping differential expression analysis. Quality estimation was obtained with FastQC 0.11.5 (https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/). Mapping to the human genome assembly Ensembl GRCh37.87 (43,695 transcripts) was performed with STAR 2.5.0a (154). According to STAR manual and for more sensitive novel junction discovery, the junctions detected in a first round of mapping were used in a second mapping round. Read strandness was confirmed using RSeQC (155). Analysis results were summarised using MultiQC 1.0 (156). Normalised counts (median ratio normalisation, MRN) and differential expression analysis was performed with DESeq2 1.16.1 (157), considering pairwise comparisons with all developmental stages and comparing DMD versus healthy cells within developmental stages. BiomaRt 2.30.0 (158) was used to fetch gene annotations from Ensembl. Transcripts with |log2FoldChange| ≥ 0.4 (equivalent of DMD/healthy ratio  $\leq$  0.76 or  $\geq$  1.32) and adjusted p-value  $\leq$  0.05 were considered differentially expressed. RNA-seq data have been deposited in the ArrayExpress database (159) at EMBL-EBI under accession number E-MTAB-8321 (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/arrayexpress/experiments/E-MTAB-8321). miRNA-seq - 10 ng of miRNA was reverse transcribed using the lon Total RNA-seq kit v2 (4475936, Thermofisher Scientific) following the protocol of the manufacturer for small RNA libraries. The cDNA libraries were amplified and barcoded using Ion Total RNA-seq kit v2 and Ion Xpress RNA-seq Barcode Adapters 1-16 Kit (Thermofisher Scientific). The amplicons were quantified using Agilent High Sensitivity DNA kit before the samples were pooled in sets of fifteen. Emulsion PCR and enrichment was performed on the Ion OT2 system Instrument using the Ion PI Hi-Q OT2 200 kit (A26434, Thermofisher Scientific). Samples were loaded on an Ion PI v3 Chip and sequenced on the Ion Proton System using Ion PI Hi-Q sequencing 200 kit chemistry (200 bp read length; A26433, Thermofisher Scientific). Sequencing reads were trimmed with Prinseq (160) (v0.20.4) (--trim-right 20) and filtered by average quality score (--trim-qual 20). Reads with a size less

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

550

than 15 bp have been removed and reads with a size greater than 100 bp have been trimmed with Cutadapt (v1.16)(161). Mapping to the human genome assembly Ensembl GRCh37.87 (3111 transcripts) was performed with STAR 2.5.3a (154). Normalised counts (median ratio normalisation, MRN) and differential expression analysis was performed with DESeq2 1.16.1 (157), considering pairwise comparisons with all developmental stages and comparing DMD versus healthy cells within developmental stages. Transcripts with  $|\log 2$ FoldChange $| \ge 0.4$  (equivalent of DMD/healthy ratio  $\le 0.76$  or  $\ge 1.32$ ) and p-value  $\le 0.05$  were considered differentially expressed. The use of p-value instead of adjusted p-value is justified by biological meaning(162) (i.e. well-known regulated / dysregulated miRNAs had a p-value  $\leq$  0.05 but not an adjusted p-value  $\leq$  0.05). miRNA-seq data have been deposited in the ArrayExpress database (159) at EMBL-EBI under accession number E-MTAB-8293 (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/arrayexpress/experiments/E-MTAB-8293). High-throughput data analyses - Graphs were realised using RStudio. Viridis 0.5.1 library (163) was used for the colour palette easier to read with colour blindness and print well in grey scale. For unsupervised analyses, normalised counts were standardised with scale function (center = TRUE, scale = TRUE) and plotted with corrplot function from corrplot 0.84 library (164). Spearman correlation was done with the cor function (method = "spearman", use = "pairwise.complete.obs") on standardised data. Hierarchical clustering and heatmap were performed with gplots 3.0.3 library (165) heatmap.2 function on standardised data. Gene enrichment data were retrieved from DAVID database using RDAVIDWebService 1.24.0 library (166) on supervised list of mRNAs (mRNA-seq data: adjusted p-value ≤ 0.01, normalised counts ≥ 5 in at least one sample, ratio  $\leq 0.5$  or  $\geq 2$  for myogenesis (Figure S2B) and ratio  $\leq 0.76$  or  $\geq 1.32$  for DMD phenotype (Figure S2C); enrichment data: Benjamini value ≤ 0.05, enrichment ≥ 1.5). Only Gene Ontology terms were processed. Spearman correlations for the comparison transcriptomics vs proteomics at day 17 and for comparisons with published omics datasets were performed using two-tailed nonparametric Spearman correlation on GraphPad Prism software. Exon skipping - 1,000,000 healthy M180 cells were transfected after 17 days of culture by electroporation with a phosphorodiamidate morpholino oligo (PMO) targeting exon 7 of the DMD gene at 10 or 100 μM, or a PMO Control at 100 μM in 100 μL solution from the P3 Primary Cell 4D-Nucleofector X Kit L (V4XP-3024, Lonza) using the CB150 program on the 4D-Nucleofector<sup>™</sup> System (Lonza). Cells were seeded at a density of 100,000 cells/cm<sup>2</sup>. RNA extraction was carried on transfected cells 24 h, 48 h and 72 h later followed by RT as

described above. PCR was done on1 uL of cDNA using 10 μM of forward and reverse primers (Fw 5'-AGATTCTCCTGAGCTGGGTC -3' and Rv 5'- AGTCACTTTAGGTGGCCTTGG -3', Life technologies) and 1 U Taq DNA polymerase (10342, Life technologies) as described by the manufacturer's instructions, for a final reaction volume of 25 μL. PCR reaction started by a step at 94°C for 3 min, followed by 27 cycles at 94°C for 45 s, 55°C for 45 s and 72°C for 45 s, and a final step at 72°C for 5 min. Exon skipping was analyzed using the DNA 1000 kit (5067, Agilent) on the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer. Full length PCR product was 372 bp and exon skipped length PCR product was 253 bp. Results were computed by the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer software v3.81. Spearman correlations were performed using two-tailed nonparametric Spearman correlation on GraphPad Prism software.

#### **Protein experiments**

551

552

553

554

555

556

557

558

559

560

561

562

563

564

565

566

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

Immunolabelling - Cells (healthy hiPSC 1/ DMD hiPSC 2, Table S5) at day 17 of culture were thawed and seeded at 10,000 cells/cm<sup>2</sup> in SKM02 medium in Falcon® 96-well microplate (353219, Corning) coated with 0.1% gelatin (G1393, Sigma-Aldrich) and 2.4 μg/mL laminin (23017015, Thermofischer Scientific) in PBS 1X (D8537, Sigma-Aldrich). After 4 days, cells were switched to DMEM/F-12, HEPES (31330038, Thermofischer Scientific) with 2% Horse serum (H1270, Sigma-Aldrich). Before staining, after removing the culture medium, cells were fixed 15 min at 4°C with PFA 4% (15710, Euromedex) after 7 days of culture. A first quick Phosphate buffered saline (PBS) 1X tablets (P4417, Sigma-Aldrich) wash was done, followed by another lasting 10 min. Then, a solution with PBS 1X, Triton™ X-100 0.25% (T8787, Sigma-Aldrich) and Bovine serum albumin 2.5% (BSA, A9418, Sigma-Aldrich) was added and incubated 30 min at room temperature. Primary antibody was finally added, diluted in the same buffer (α-actinin 1/500, A7811, Sigma-Aldrich), overnight at 4°C. The next day, two quick PBS 1X washes were followed by a third incubated 10 min at room temperature. An incubation was done 45 min at room temperature with a mix of 4',6-Diamidine-2'-phenylindole dihydrochloride (DAPI, 1µg/mL, 10236276001, Sigma-Aldrich) and the secondary antibody Donkey anti-Mouse Alexa Fluor 555 in PBS 1X, (1/1000, A-31570, Thermofischer Scientific). Finally, two quick PBS 1X washes were followed by a third incubated 10 min at room temperature. The stained cells were kept in PBS 1X at 4°C before imaging with a Zeiss LSM880 Airyscan confocal and Zen software (Black edition).

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

591

592

593

594

595

596

597

598

599

600

601

602

603

604

Western blotting - For tissue-derived myotubes, after three rinses with cold PBS 1X (w/o Ca2+ and Mg2+, D8537, Sigma-Aldrich), protein extracts were isolated from cultured cells by scraping (010154, Dutscher) with an extraction protein buffer (NaCl 150 mM, Tris 50 mM, EDTA 10 mM (AM9260G, ThermoFisher Scientific), Triton 1X, 1/100 Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (P8340, Sigma-Aldrich), PhosSTOP tablet (04906845001, Roche Diagnostics)). For hiPSC-derived myotubes, cell pellets were rinsed once with cold PBS 1X, spun 5 min at 300 g and resuspended in the same extraction protein buffer. Protein Extracts were centrifuged at 4°C 10 min at 16,000 g and supernatants were kept at -80 °C. Quantitation of total protein was done with Pierce BCA protein assay kit (23225, ThermoFischer Scientific). Before gel loading, protein extracts were mixed with 9µL of loading buffer (Urea 4M, SDS 3.8%, Glycerol 20%, Tris 75mM pH 6.8, 5% β-mercaptoethanol, 0.1mg/mL Bromophenol blue) and completed to 28µL (for one well) with extraction protein buffer, then heated once 5 min at 95 °C. Western blots were performed either with Criterion ™ XT Tris-Acetate Precast Gels 3-8 % (3450130, Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA), XT Tricine running buffer (161–0790, Bio-Rad) and ran at room temperature for 1 hour and 15 min at 150 V for RYR1 (1/1000, MA3-925, ThermoFisher Scientific), MF20 (1/500, DSHB, concentrate), Manex50 (1/30, DSHB), α-sarcoglycane (1/150, A-SARC-L-CE, Leica biosystems), γ-sarcoglycane (1/150, G-SARC-CE, Leica biosystems), or with 4-15% Criterion™ TGX™ Precast Midi Protein Gel (5671084, Bio-Rad), 10x Tris/Glycine/SDS Running Buffer (1610772), and ran at room temperature for 1 hour at 200 V for CaV1.1 (1/1000, MA3-920, ThermoFisher Scientific), ATP5A (1/1,000, ab14748, ABCAM), Semaphorin 6A (1/55, AF1146, R&D systems) and GLI3 (1/200, AF3690, R&D systems). Gels were rinsed once in water and blotted either with "high molecular weight" or "mixed molecular weight" program of TransBlot® Turbo™ transfer system (Bio-Rad) using Trans-Blot®Turbo™ Midi Nitrocellulose Transfer Packs (170-4159, Bio-Rad). Blots were then processed with the SNAP i.d. 2.0 Protein Detection System following the manufacturer's protocol, with Odyssey® Blocking Buffer (927-40003, LI-COR) for blocking and with 0,2% Tween® 20 added for antibody dilutions (28829.296, VWR), washes were done with phosphate-buffered saline tween (PBST) buffer (PBS 1X tablets, P4417, Sigma-Aldrich; 0.1 % Tween® 20). Every primary antibody was pooled with either α-actinin (1/12,500, sc-17829, Santa Cruz or 1/7000, A7811, Sigma-Aldrich) or α-tubulin (1/6666, Ab7291, Abcam). For secondary antibodies, either IRDye 800CW donkey anti-mouse and/or IRDye® 680RD donkey anti-goat were used (1/5000-1/10000, 926-32212, 926-68074, LI-COR). After completion of SNAP i.d.® general protocol, with the membrane still in the blot holder, two PBS 1X washes were finally done before band visualisations with

Odyssey® CLx Imaging System and quantification with Image Studio Lite software (Version 5.2). Statistical analysis was performed using unpaired t test on GraphPad Prism software.

### TMT Isobaric quantitative proteomics -

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626

627

628

629

630

631

632

Samples Preparation: Cells at day 17 were collected and resuspended in 90% FBS (Hyclone), 10% DMSO (A3672.0050, VWR), cooled down until -90°C with the CryoMed™ device (ThermoFisher Scientific), before storage in liquid nitrogen. Cells were then thawed and washed 5 times with cold PBS and air was replaced by Argon to thoroughly dry the pellet that was flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. 5-10 times the approximate cell pellet volume of 0.5 M triethyl ammonium bicarbonate (TEAB) with 0.05% SDS was added to the cell pellet for protein extraction. Cell pellet was re-suspended and triturated by passing through a 23-gauge needle and 1ml syringe for 30 times. Samples were then sonicated on ice at amplitude of 20% for 30 x 2 sec bursts and centrifuged at 16000g for 10 min at 4°C. Supernatant was transferred to a fresh Eppendorf tube. Protein was quantified by nanodrop. 100-150µg of protein was aliquoted for each individual sample and 2µl TCEP (50mM tris-2-carboxymethyl phosphine) was added for every 20µl of protein used for reducing the samples. After 1 hr incubation at 60°C, 1µl MMTS (200mM methylmethane thiosulphonate) was added for every 20µl of protein used for alkylating/'blocking' the samples. Finally, after a 10 min incubation at RT, samples were trypsinised by addition of 6-7.5µl of 500ng/µl trypsin. The ration between enzyme: substrate was 1:40. Samples were incubated overnight at 37°C in the dark. TMT labelling: When TMT reagents reached room temperature, 50µl of isopropanol/[acetonitrile] was added to each TMT 11-plex reagent and was incubated at RT for 2 hrs, in the dark. 8 µl of 5% hydroxylamine was added to neutralise the reaction. Each sample was separately lyophilised at 45°C. Samples have been stored at -20°C or used immediately. Offline C4 High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC): All 8 samples were pooled together in 60µl of 97% mobile phase A (99.92% % H2O, 0.08% NH₄OH) and 3% mobile phase B (99.92% % Acetonitrile, 0.02% NH₄OH) by serially reconstituting each sample. Extra 40µl of mobile phase was added to sample 1, after sample has been well vortexed, all the contents of sample 1 tube were transferred to the tube with the sample 2 (and serially repeated until all samples were pooled). Final volume of samples needed to be 100µl. After sample was centrifuged at 13000g for 10 min, supernatant was collected with an HPLC injection syringe. 100µl was injected onto the sample loop. Fractions were collected in a peak dependent manner. Finally, fractions were lyophilised at 45°C and stored at -20°C until required. The used column was a Kromasil C4 column 100Å pore size, 3.5µm

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649

650

651

652

653

654

655

656

657

658

659

660

661

particle size, 2.1mm inner diameter and 150mm length. The gradient for C4 separation was (RT in min - %B): 0-3; 10-3; 11-5; 16-5; 65-20; 100-30; 15-80; 120-80; 125-3. Solid Phase Extraction Cleaning of peptides fractions: A GracePureTMT SPE C18-Aq cartridge was used for precleaning of samples (Support: Silica, % Carbon: 12.5%, With endcapping, Surface area: 518m<sup>2</sup>/g, Particle size: 50μm, Pore size: 60Å, Water-wettable). Samples were reconstituted using in total 400μl of 1% ACN, 0.01% FA. Cartridge was washed with 600µl of ACN. ACN was then completely flushed out of the column at dropwise speed. This activated the ligands. Then 1% ACN, 0.01% FA (600µl) was flushed through the cartridge to equilibrate the sorbent. 400µl of the sample was loaded in the cartridge. It was then very slowly flushed through the cartridge and recovered into a fresh tube. This process was repeated 3 times. 2 volumes of 250µl of 1%ACN, 0.01%FA were used to clean and de-salt the sample. It was flushed through very slowly. 2 volumes (250µl each) were used per step (2% ACN, 10% ACN, 30% ACN, 50% ACN, 70% ACN). This cycle was repeated twice. Each particular concentration was pooled in one tube. Samples were dried to dryness in a Speedvac at RT overnight and stored at -20°C. Like previously, samples were pooled with 100µl of 97% mobile phase A (99.92% % H2O, 0.08% NH<sub>4</sub>OH) and 3% mobile phase B (99.92% % Acetonitrile, 0.02% NH<sub>4</sub>OH) and injected onto the sample loop. Fractions were collected in a peak dependent manner. The gradient for SPE cleaned peptides C4 separation (RT in min - %B): 0-2; 10-2; 20-5; 25-5; 35-20; 55-35; 60-35; 70-80; 75-80; 80-3. Online C18 High Precision Liquid Chromatography (HPLC): 30µl of loading phase (2% acetonitrile, 1.0% formic acid) was added to each fraction-containing Eppendorf tube. Samples were vortexed and centrifuged. Blanks (30µl mobile phase) were added into well A1 to A12. 30µl of sample 1 was pipetted into well B1, sample 2 in well B2 and so on. An orthogonal 2D-LC-MS/MS analysis was performed with the Dionex Ultimate 3000 UHPLC system coupled with the ultra-high-resolution nano ESI LTQ-Velos Pro Orbitrap Elite mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific). Data analysis: HCD and CID tandem mass spectra were collected and submitted to Sequest search engine implemented on the Proteome Discoverer software version 1.4 for peptide and protein identifications. All spectra were searched against the UniProtKB SwissProt. The level of confidence for peptide identifications was estimated using the Percolator node with decoy database searching. False discovery rate (FDR) was set to 0.05, and validation was based on the q-Value. Protein ratios were normalised to protein median and peptides with missing TMT values were rejected from protein quantification. Phosphorylation localisation probability was estimated with the phosphoRS node. Protein ratios were transformed to log<sub>2</sub> ratios and significant changes were determined by one sample T-test. To reduce the impact of possible false positive identifications, more parameters were set: 1) only proteins with more than two quantified unique peptides. 2) DMD/Healthy ratio ≥ 1.32 or ≤ 0.76 and 3) only FDR corrected p-value ≤ 0.05 were retained for bioinformatics analysis. The list of proteins quantified in the 6 samples is in Table S3. Proteomic data have been deposited in the PRIDE Archive database PXD015355 (167)EMBL-EBI under accession number (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/pride/archive/projects/PXD015355). ATP experiments - Two healthy (M180 and M398) and two DMD (M202 and M418) cell lines after 17 days of culture were seeded in 384-well plates at a density of 30,000 cells/cm2. Living cells were staining with HOECHST at a concentration of 1/300 six days later for cell quantification (nuclei per well were counted using the CX7 imaging system, ThermoFisher). ATP measure was done using the CellTiter-Glo™ Luminescent Cell Viability Assay Kit (Promega) following the manufacturer's protocol and normalised by the cell quantification. Statistical analysis was performed using one-sample t test on GraphPad Prism software (each healthy cell line was compared to each DMD cell line).

#### **COMPETING INTERESTS**

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

### **FUNDING**

662

663

664

665

666

667

668

669

670

671

672

673

674

675

676

677

678

679

680

681

682

683

684

We thank the Fondation Maladies Rares (GenOmics grant), Labex Revive (Investissement d'Avenir; ANR-10-LABX-73) and the AFM Téléthon for funding this project.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

The RNA-Sequencing libraries were processed and sequenced by Integragen (Evry, France). We gratefully acknowledge support from the PSMN (Pôle Scientifique de Modélisation Numérique) of the ENS de Lyon for the computing resources. We thank Dr Nacira Tabti, Dr Elisabeth Le Rumeur, Dr Nathalie Deburgrave and Dr Malgorzata Rak for providing us with specific reagents and antibodies. We thank Dr Linda Popplewell for

designing and validating the PMO7 sequence. We thank Dr David Israeli for his feedback on the manuscript

and overall discussion on our project.

685

686

688

689

690

691

692

693

694

695

696

697

698

699

700

701

702

703

704

705

706

707

708

709

710

711

712

713

FIGURE LEGENDS Figure 1 - Differentiation dynamics of hiPSCs (D0) into MyoT (D25) in healthy cells at the transcriptomic level. A) Spearman correlation matrix of transcriptomes (mRNAs, right) and miRnomes (miRNAs, left). Yellow dots indicate a stronger correlation. B) Gene expression heatmap of selected differentiation markers. (D: day; hiPSC: human induced pluripotent stem cell; MyoT: myotube). Figure 2 - Differentiation dynamics of hiPSCs (D0) into MyoT (D25) in DMD cells. A) Dotplot of DMD/healthy expression ratios of selected differentiation markers. Statistical differences are indicated in brackets after gene names, and grey circles around the corresponding dots. B) Proportions of significantly dysregulated mRNAs (adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05) in DMD cells at each time points. Expression of C) MIR1-1 and D) ATP2A2 mRNA during differentiation. E) ATP2A2 protein level at D17. (\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05, \*\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.01, \*\*\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.001, \*\*\*\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.0001; D: day; hiPSC: human induced pluripotent stem cell; MyoT: myotube). Figure 3 - Comparison of healthy and DMD MyoT from hiPSCs and tissues at the protein level. A) hiPSCderived MyoT immunolabelling of  $\alpha$ -actinin (red) and nuclei (DAPI, blue) in healthy (left) and DMD cells (right). B) Representative Western blots and related quantifications of DMD, SGCA, SGCG, myosin heavy chains, CACNA1S and RYR1 from protein extracts in healthy and DMD hiPSC-derived and tissue-derived MyoT (X: 0.25 µg of total protein was used in hiPSC-derived MyoT instead of 7µg in tissue-derived MyoT - \*p-value ≤ 0.05, \*\*p-value  $\leq 0.01$ , \*\*\*p-value  $\leq 0.001$ , \*\*\*\*p-value  $\leq 0.0001$ ). (hiPSC: human induced pluripotent stem cell; MyoT: myotube). Figure 4 - Manifestation of the DMD phenotype in the transcriptome and miRnome of myotubes derived from hiPSCs and tissues. A) Hierarchical clustering and heatmap in healthy hiPSCs (D0), hiPSC-derived MyoT and tissue-derived MyoT with selected skeletal muscle transcripts and miRNAs. B) Volcano plots of dysregulated mRNAs/miRNAs in hiPSC-derived MyoT (left) and tissue-derived MyoT (right) - vertical grey dashed lines represent DMD/Healthy ratio thresholds at 0.76 or 1.32 - the horizontal grey dashed line represents the adjusted p-value threshold at 0.05. Comparisons of DMD/Healthy expression ratios at D17 and D25 with published omics data from muscle biopsies (4,97): C) number of genes in black and Spearman

correlation coefficients in brown found in common with Pescatori et al.'s mRNA data (top) and Capitanio et

715

716

717

718

719

720

721

722

723

724

725

726

727

728

729

730

731

732

733

734

735

736

737

738

739

al.'s protein data (bottom) as well as D) correlation graphs of the D25 data compared with Pescatori et al. mRNA data (left) and Capitanio et al. protein data (right). Genes with |log2FoldChange| ≥ 0.4 are in blue if adjusted p-value ≥ 0.05 and yellow if adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05. (DAPC: dystrophin-associated protein complex; hiPSC: human induced pluripotent stem cell; MyoT: myotube; NMJ: neuromuscular junction; TF: transcription factor MyoT - \*p-value  $\leq$  0.05, \*\*p-value  $\leq$  0.01, \*\*\*p-value  $\leq$  0.001, \*\*\*\*p-value  $\leq$  0.0001). Figure 5 – Illustration of the fibrosis phenotypes in DMD cells. Volcano plots of dysregulated mRNAs/miRNAs related to A) the SHH pathway and collagen metabolism at D10/17/25; and B) fibrosis at D25 - vertical grey dashed lines represent DMD/Healthy ratio thresholds at 0.76 or 1.32 - the horizontal grey dashed line represents the adjusted p-value threshold at 0.05. (D: day; MMP: matrix metallopeptidase; SHH: sonic hedgehog pathway; TIMP: tissue inhibitor of metallopeptidase; TGF: transforming growth factor). Figure 6 - Illustration of the metabolic and mitochondrial phenotypes in DMD cells. Volcano plots of dysregulated mRNAs/miRNAs related to A) principal metabolic pathways; and B) the constitution of the five mitochondrial respiratory complexes in DMD hiPSC-derived MyoT - vertical grey dashed lines represent DMD/Healthy ratio thresholds at 0.76 or 1.32 - the horizontal grey dashed line represents the adjusted p-value threshold at 0.05. Quantification of ATP5A1 expression C) at the mRNA level during differentiation, and D) at the protein level at D17 (TMT proteomic data, left) and D25 (Western blot data, right). E) Measure of ATP levels in DMD cell lines, relative to Healthy controls. (\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05, \*\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.01, \*\*\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.001, \*\*\*\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.0001). (D: day; hiPSC: human induced pluripotent stem cell, MyoT: myotube) Figure 7 – Mitochondrial dysregulations in DMD cells during differentiation. A) Absolute (top) and relative numbers (%, bottom) of dysregulated genes from the different mitochondrial compartments over the course of DMD hiPSC differentiation. B) Expression ratios of selected mitochondrial proteins. Statistical differences are indicated in brackets (\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05, \*\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.01, \*\*\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.001, \*\*\*\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.0001). C) Volcano plots of mitochondria-related genes over the course of DMD hiPSC differentiation. Statistical differences are symbolised with orange dots – vertical grey dashed lines represent DMD/Healthy ratio thresholds at 0.76 or 1.32 - the horizontal grey dashed line represents the adjusted p-value

741

742

743

744

745

746

747

748

749

750

751

752

753

754

755

756

757

758

759

760

761

762

763

764

765

766

threshold at 0.05 – The percentage of significantly dysregulated genes is indicated at the bottom right in grey. (D: day). Figure S1 - DMD variant expression over the course of hiPSC differentiation. A) Bright field microscope pictures at the 7 differentiation points giving rise to hiPSC-derived and tissue-derived MyoT. Possible cryopreservation time points are indicated by snowflakes. B) RT-qPCR relative quantification of DMD variants expression during differentiation of hiPSCs (D0) into MyoT (D25) with the related cycle threshold (CT) values (Ct: cycle threshold; D: day; hiPSC: human induced pluripotent stem cell; MyoB: myoblast; MyoT: myotube). Figure S2 - Gene ontology enrichments over the course of healthy and DMD hiPSC differentiation A) Proportions of significantly regulated mRNAs (adjusted p-value ≤ 0.01) between successive differentiation time points during the differentiation of healthy hiPSCs. Gene ontology enrichments on B) significantly regulated mRNAs between successive differentiation time points in healthy cells (number of genes in brackets) and C) significantly dysregulated mRNAs at each differentiation time points in DMD cells. The number of genes involved in these significant enrichments is indicated in brackets next to each GO term. In green, GO terms related to downregulated genes and in yellow, GO terms related to upregulated genes (BP: biological process; CC: cellular component; D: day; hiPSC: human induced pluripotent stem cell; MyoB: myoblast; MyoT: myotube). Figure S3 - Comparison of healthy and DMD cells at D10 and D17, protein analyses. Western blots and quantifications of A) SEMA6A at D10, B) GLI3 at D10 and C) GLI3 at D17. Omics comparison of mRNA and protein data at day 17: D) Venn diagram of the number of genes with |log2FoldChange| ≥ 0.4 and adjusted pvalue ≤ 0.05 in either transcriptomic or proteomic data, E) their associated Spearman correlation coefficient in brown, as well as **D**) their correlation graph with the number of genes with  $\lfloor \log 2 \operatorname{FoldChange} \rfloor \ge 0.4$  in both sets are indicated (genes with p-value ≥ 0.05 only in transcriptomics are in blue, only in proteomics in purple and in both in orange). (\*p-value ≤ 0.05, \*\*p-value ≤ 0.01, \*\*\*p-value ≤ 0.001, \*\*\*\*p-value ≤ 0.0001; D: day; GLI3FL: GLI3 full length; GLI3R: GLI3 repressor). Figure S4 - DMD knockdown at D17 in healthy cells. A) qPCR quantification of DMD expression related to exon skipping efficiency (%); B) Western blot quantification of dystrophin; and C) qPCR quantification of selected genes following exon skipping (boxplots of expression ratio of exon 7 skipped/unskipped conditions

when the exon skipping efficiency was above 70% at the top, and Spearman correlation between all skipped and unskipped conditions at the bottom; \*\*\*\*p-value < 0.0001, ns: not significant).

Figure S5 − Comparison of hiPSC-derived and tissue-derived MyoT for the expression of cell cycle genes and myogenic regulators. Hierarchical clustering and heatmap of A) selected cell cycle transcripts and miRNAs, and B) DLK1, IGF2 and selected myosin transcripts in hiPSCs (D0), hiPSC- and tissue-derived MyoT. C) Dotplot of DMD/healthy expression ratio of muscle transcription factors. Significant statistical differences are shown in brackets (\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05, \*\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.01, \*\*\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.001, \*\*\*\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.0001). (hiPSC: human induced pluripotent stem cell; MyoT: myotube).

Figure S6 − Dysregulations of metabolic pathways and mitochondrial genes during differentiation of DMD hiPSCs. A) Scheme of metabolism dysregulations at day 25. Dotplots of B) mitochondrial transcripts, C) transcripts coding mitochondrial protein import, and D) transcripts coding mitochondrial transcription/replication; E) Mitochondrial DNA quantification by qPCR at D25. Dotplots of mitochondrial proteins expressed at D17 involved in F) protein import, G) mitochondrial transcription/replication. Statistics are in brackets (\*adjusted p-value ≤ 0.001; D: day).

## REFERENCES

782

783	1.	Hoffman EP, Brown RH, Kunkel LM. Dystrophin: the protein product of the Duchenne muscular dystrophy locus. Cell.
784		1987;51(6):919–28.
785	2.	Koeks Z, Bladen CL, Salgado D, van Zwet E, Pogoryelova O, McMacken G, et al. Clinical Outcomes in Duchenne Muscular
786		Dystrophy: A Study of 5345 Patients from the TREAT-NMD DMD Global Database. J Neuromuscul Dis [Internet]. 2017;4(4):293–
787		306. Available from:
788		http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/29125504%0Ahttp://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=PMC5701764
789	3.	Liu M, Chino N, Ishihara T. Muscle damage progression in Duchenne muscular dystrophy evaluated by a new quantitative
790		computed tomography method. Arch Phys Med Rehab. 1993;74(5):507–14.
791	4.	Pescatori M, Broccolini A, Minetti C, Bertini E, Bruno C, D'amico A, et al. Gene expression profiling in the early phases of {DMD:}
792		a constant molecular signature characterizes {DMD} muscle from early postnatal life throughout disease progression. {FASEB} J.
793		2007;21(4):1210–26.
794	5.	Szigyarto C, Spitali P. Biomarkers of Duchenne muscular dystrophy: current findings. Degener Neurol Neuromuscul Dis.
795		2018;8:1–13.
796	6.	Moat SJ, Bradley DM, Salmon R, Clarke A, Hartley L. Newborn bloodspot screening for Duchenne muscular dystrophy: 21 years
797		experience in Wales {(UK).}. Eur J Hum Genet. 2013;21(10):1049–53.
798	7.	Crone M, Mah JK. Current and Emerging Therapies for Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy. Curr Treat Options Neurol. 2018;20(8):31.
799	8.	Ngoc L-N, Malerba A, Popplewell L, Schnell F, Hanson G, Dickson G. Systemic Antisense Therapeutics for Dystrophin and
800		Myostatin Exon Splice Modulation Improve Muscle Pathology of Adult mdx Mice. Mol Ther - Nucleic Acids. 2017;6:15–28.
801	9.	Nguyen F, Cherel Y, Guigand L, I G-L, Wyers M. Muscle lesions associated with dystrophin deficiency in neonatal golden retriever
802		puppies. J Comp Pathol. 2002;126(2–3):100–8.
803	10.	Bassett DI. Dystrophin is required for the formation of stable muscle attachments in the zebrafish embryo. Development.
804		2003;130(23):5851–60.
805	11.	Merrick D, Stadler LK, Larner D, Smith J. Muscular dystrophy begins early in embryonic development deriving from stem cell loss
806		and disrupted skeletal muscle formation. Dis Model Mech. 2009;2(7–8):374–88.
807	12.	Emery AE. Muscle histology and creatine kinase levels in the foetus in Duchenne muscular dystrophy. Nature.
808		1977;266(5601):472–3.
809	13.	Toop J, Emery AE. Muscle histology in fetuses at risk for Duchenne muscular dystrophy. Clin Genet. 1974;5(3):230–3.
810	14.	Vassilopoulos D, Emery AE. Muscle nuclear changes in fetuses at risk for Duchenne muscular dystrophy. J Med Genet.
811		1977;14(1):13–5.
812	15.	Massouridès E, Polentes J, Mangeot PE, Mournetas V, Nectoux J, Deburgrave N, et al. Dp412e: A novel human embryonic

813		dystrophin isoform induced by BMP4 in early differentiated cells. Skelet Muscle [Internet]. 2015 Dec 14 [cited 2017 Feb
814		27];5(1):40. Available from: http://www.skeletalmusclejournal.com/content/5/1/40
815	16.	Nesmith AP, Wagner MA, Pasqualini FS, B OB, Pincus MJ, August PR, et al. A human in vitro model of Duchenne muscular
816		dystrophy muscle formation and contractility. J Cell Biol. 2016;215(1):47–56.
817	17.	Shoji E, Sakurai H, Nishino T, Nakahata T, Heike T, Awaya T, et al. Early pathogenesis of Duchenne muscular dystrophy modelled
818		in patient-derived human induced pluripotent stem cells. Sci Rep. 2015;5:12831.
819	18.	Choi IY, Lim HT, Estrellas K, Mula J, Cohen T V., Zhang Y, et al. Concordant but Varied Phenotypes among Duchenne Muscular
820		Dystrophy Patient-Specific Myoblasts Derived using a Human iPSC-Based Model. Cell Rep. 2016;15(10):2301–12.
821	19.	Chal J, Oginuma M, Al Tanoury Z, Gobert B, Sumara O, Hick A, et al. Differentiation of pluripotent stem cells to muscle fiber to
822		model Duchenne muscular dystrophy. Nat Biotechnol. 2015;33(9):962–9.
823	20.	Young CS, Hicks MR, Ermolova N V, Nakano H, Jan M, Younesi S, et al. A Single {CRISPR-Cas9} Deletion Strategy that Targets the
824		Majority of {DMD} Patients Restores Dystrophin Function in {hiPSC-Derived} Muscle Cells. Cell Stem Cell. 2016;18(4):533–40.
825	21.	Hicks MR, Hiserodt J, Paras K, Fujiwara W, Eskin A, Jan M, et al. {ERBB3} and {NGFR} mark a distinct skeletal muscle progenitor
826		cell in human development and {hPSCs.}. Nat Cell Biol. 2018;20(1):46–57.
827	22.	Kodaka Y, Rabu G, Asakura A. Skeletal Muscle Cell Induction from Pluripotent Stem Cells. Stem Cells Int. 2017;2017:1376151.
828	23.	Caron L, Kher D, Lee KL, McKernan R, Dumevska B, Hidalgo A, et al. A Human Pluripotent Stem Cell Model of
829		Facioscapulohumeral Muscular Dystrophy-Affected Skeletal Muscles. Stem Cells Transl Med. 2016;5(9):1145–61.
830	24.	Shelton M, Metz J, Liu J, Carpenedo RL, Demers S-PP, Stanford WL, et al. Derivation and expansion of {PAX7-positive} muscle
831		progenitors from human and mouse embryonic stem cells. Stem Cell Reports. 2014;3(3):516–29.
832	25.	Xi H, Fujiwara W, Gonzalez K, Jan M, Liebscher S, Van Handel B, et al. {In~Vivo} Human Somitogenesis Guides Somite
833		Development from {hPSCs.}. Cell Rep. 2017;18(6):1573–85.
834	26.	Monaco AP, Neve RL, Chris C-F, Bertelson CJ, Kurnit DM, Kunkel LM. Isolation of candidate {cDNAs} for portions of the Duchenne
835		muscular dystrophy gene. Nature. 1986;323(6089):646–50.
836	27.	Byers TJ, Lidov HGW, Kunkel LM. An alternative dystrophin transcript specific to peripheral nerve. Nat Genet. 1993;4(1):ng0593-
837		77.
838	28.	Lidov HG, Selig S, Kunkel LM. Dp140: a novel 140 {kDa} {CNS} transcript from the dystrophin locus. Hum Mol Genet.
839		1995;4(3):329–35.
840	29.	Górecki DC, Monaco AP, Derry JM, Walker AP, Barnard EA, Barnard PJ. Expression of four alternative dystrophin transcripts in
841		brain regions regulated by different promoters. Hum Mol Genet. 1992;1(7):505–10.
842	30.	D'souza VN, Man NT, Morris GE, Karges W, Pillers DAM, Ray PN. A novel dystrophin isoform is required for normal retinal
843		electrophysiology. Hum Mol Genet. 1995;4(5):837–42.

844	31.	Heikinheimo M, Scandrett JM, Wilson DB. Localization of Transcription Factor GATA-4 to Regions of the Mouse Embryo Involved
845		in Cardiac Development. Dev Biol. 1994;164(2):361–73.
846	32.	Pfeffer PL, Gerster T, Lun K, Brand M, Busslinger M. Characterization of three novel members of the zebrafish Pax2/5/8 family:
847		dependency of Pax5 and Pax8 expression on the Pax2.1 (noi) function. Development [Internet]. 1998;125(16):3063-74. Available
848		from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9671580
849	33.	Chapman DL, Cooper-Morgan A, Harrelson Z, Papaioannou VE. Critical role for Tbx6 in mesoderm specification in the mouse
850		embryo. Mech Dev. 2003;120(7):837–47.
851	34.	Hart AH, Hartley L, Sourris K, Stadler ES, Li R, Stanley EG, et al. Mixl1 is required for axial mesendoderm morphogenesis and
852		patterning in the murine embryo. Development [Internet]. 2002;129(15):3597–608. Available from:
853		http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12117810
854	35.	Kanai-Azuma M, Kanai Y, Gad JM, Tajima Y, Taya C, Kurohmaru M, et al. Depletion of definitive gut endoderm in Sox17-null
855		mutant mice. Development [Internet]. 2002;129(10):2367–79. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11973269
856	36.	Rex M, Orme A, Uwanogho D, Tointon K, Wigmore PM, Sharpe PT, et al. Dynamic expression of chicken Sox2 and Sox3 genes in
857		ectoderm induced to form neural tissue. Dev Dyn. 1997;209(3):323–32.
858	37.	Machon O, Masek J, Machonova O, Krauss S, Kozmik Z. Meis2 is essential for cranial and cardiac neural crest development. BMC
859		Dev Biol. 2015;15(1):40.
860	38.	Laing NG, Dye DE, Wallgren-Pettersson C, Richard G, Monnier N, Lillis S, et al. Mutations and polymorphisms of the skeletal
860 861	38.	Laing NG, Dye DE, Wallgren-Pettersson C, Richard G, Monnier N, Lillis S, et al. Mutations and polymorphisms of the skeletal muscle $\alpha$ -actin gene (ACTA1). Hum Mutat. 2009;30(9):1267–77.
	38. 39.	
861		muscle α-actin gene (ACTA1). Hum Mutat. 2009;30(9):1267–77.
861 862	39.	muscle α-actin gene (ACTA1). Hum Mutat. 2009;30(9):1267–77.  Kardon G, Heanue TA, Tabin CJ. Pax3 and Dach2 positive regulation in the developing somite. Dev Dyn. 2002;224(3):350–5.
861 862 863	39.	muscle α-actin gene (ACTA1). Hum Mutat. 2009;30(9):1267–77.  Kardon G, Heanue TA, Tabin CJ. Pax3 and Dach2 positive regulation in the developing somite. Dev Dyn. 2002;224(3):350–5.  Pereira FA, Yuhong Q, Zhou G, Tsai MJ, Tsai SY. The orphan nuclear receptor COUP-TFII is required for angiogenesis and heart
<ul><li>861</li><li>862</li><li>863</li><li>864</li></ul>	39. 40.	muscle α-actin gene (ACTA1). Hum Mutat. 2009;30(9):1267–77.  Kardon G, Heanue TA, Tabin CJ. Pax3 and Dach2 positive regulation in the developing somite. Dev Dyn. 2002;224(3):350–5.  Pereira FA, Yuhong Q, Zhou G, Tsai MJ, Tsai SY. The orphan nuclear receptor COUP-TFII is required for angiogenesis and heart development. Genes Dev. 1999;13(8):1037–49.
<ul><li>861</li><li>862</li><li>863</li><li>864</li><li>865</li></ul>	39. 40.	muscle α-actin gene (ACTA1). Hum Mutat. 2009;30(9):1267–77.  Kardon G, Heanue TA, Tabin CJ. Pax3 and Dach2 positive regulation in the developing somite. Dev Dyn. 2002;224(3):350–5.  Pereira FA, Yuhong Q, Zhou G, Tsai MJ, Tsai SY. The orphan nuclear receptor COUP-TFII is required for angiogenesis and heart development. Genes Dev. 1999;13(8):1037–49.  Mitsiadis TA, Salmivirta M, Muramatsu T, Muramatsu H, Rauvala H, Lehtonen E, et al. Expression of the heparin-binding
<ul><li>861</li><li>862</li><li>863</li><li>864</li><li>865</li><li>866</li></ul>	39. 40.	muscle α-actin gene (ACTA1). Hum Mutat. 2009;30(9):1267–77.  Kardon G, Heanue TA, Tabin CJ. Pax3 and Dach2 positive regulation in the developing somite. Dev Dyn. 2002;224(3):350–5.  Pereira FA, Yuhong Q, Zhou G, Tsai MJ, Tsai SY. The orphan nuclear receptor COUP-TFII is required for angiogenesis and heart development. Genes Dev. 1999;13(8):1037–49.  Mitsiadis TA, Salmivirta M, Muramatsu T, Muramatsu H, Rauvala H, Lehtonen E, et al. Expression of the heparin-binding cytokines, midkine (MK) and HB-GAM (pleiotrophin) is associated with epithelial-mesenchymal interactions during fetal
861 862 863 864 865 866 867	39. 40.	muscle α-actin gene (ACTA1). Hum Mutat. 2009;30(9):1267–77.  Kardon G, Heanue TA, Tabin CJ. Pax3 and Dach2 positive regulation in the developing somite. Dev Dyn. 2002;224(3):350–5.  Pereira FA, Yuhong Q, Zhou G, Tsai MJ, Tsai SY. The orphan nuclear receptor COUP-TFII is required for angiogenesis and heart development. Genes Dev. 1999;13(8):1037–49.  Mitsiadis TA, Salmivirta M, Muramatsu T, Muramatsu H, Rauvala H, Lehtonen E, et al. Expression of the heparin-binding cytokines, midkine (MK) and HB-GAM (pleiotrophin) is associated with epithelial-mesenchymal interactions during fetal development and organogenesis. Development [Internet]. 1995;121(1):37–51. Available from:
861 862 863 864 865 866 867 868	39. 40. 41.	muscle α-actin gene (ACTA1). Hum Mutat. 2009;30(9):1267–77.  Kardon G, Heanue TA, Tabin CJ. Pax3 and Dach2 positive regulation in the developing somite. Dev Dyn. 2002;224(3):350–5.  Pereira FA, Yuhong Q, Zhou G, Tsai MJ, Tsai SY. The orphan nuclear receptor COUP-TFII is required for angiogenesis and heart development. Genes Dev. 1999;13(8):1037–49.  Mitsiadis TA, Salmivirta M, Muramatsu T, Muramatsu H, Rauvala H, Lehtonen E, et al. Expression of the heparin-binding cytokines, midkine (MK) and HB-GAM (pleiotrophin) is associated with epithelial-mesenchymal interactions during fetal development and organogenesis. Development [Internet]. 1995;121(1):37–51. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7867507
861 862 863 864 865 866 867 868	39. 40. 41.	muscle α-actin gene (ACTA1). Hum Mutat. 2009;30(9):1267–77.  Kardon G, Heanue TA, Tabin CJ. Pax3 and Dach2 positive regulation in the developing somite. Dev Dyn. 2002;224(3):350–5.  Pereira FA, Yuhong Q, Zhou G, Tsai MJ, Tsai SY. The orphan nuclear receptor COUP-TFII is required for angiogenesis and heart development. Genes Dev. 1999;13(8):1037–49.  Mitsiadis TA, Salmivirta M, Muramatsu T, Muramatsu H, Rauvala H, Lehtonen E, et al. Expression of the heparin-binding cytokines, midkine (MK) and HB-GAM (pleiotrophin) is associated with epithelial-mesenchymal interactions during fetal development and organogenesis. Development [Internet]. 1995;121(1):37–51. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7867507  Yang XM, Vogan K, Gros P, Park M. Expression of the met receptor tyrosine kinase in muscle progenitor cells in somites and limbs
861 862 863 864 865 866 867 868 869 870	39. 40. 41.	muscle α-actin gene (ACTA1). Hum Mutat. 2009;30(9):1267–77.  Kardon G, Heanue TA, Tabin CJ. Pax3 and Dach2 positive regulation in the developing somite. Dev Dyn. 2002;224(3):350–5.  Pereira FA, Yuhong Q, Zhou G, Tsai MJ, Tsai SY. The orphan nuclear receptor COUP-TFII is required for angiogenesis and heart development. Genes Dev. 1999;13(8):1037–49.  Mitsiadis TA, Salmivirta M, Muramatsu T, Muramatsu H, Rauvala H, Lehtonen E, et al. Expression of the heparin-binding cytokines, midkine (MK) and HB-GAM (pleiotrophin) is associated with epithelial-mesenchymal interactions during fetal development and organogenesis. Development [Internet]. 1995;121(1):37–51. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7867507  Yang XM, Vogan K, Gros P, Park M. Expression of the met receptor tyrosine kinase in muscle progenitor cells in somites and limbs is absent in Splotch mice. Development [Internet]. 1996;122(7):2163–71. Available from:
861 862 863 864 865 866 867 868 869 870 871	39. 40. 41.	muscle α-actin gene (ACTA1). Hum Mutat. 2009;30(9):1267–77.  Kardon G, Heanue TA, Tabin CJ. Pax3 and Dach2 positive regulation in the developing somite. Dev Dyn. 2002;224(3):350–5.  Pereira FA, Yuhong Q, Zhou G, Tsai MJ, Tsai SY. The orphan nuclear receptor COUP-TFII is required for angiogenesis and heart development. Genes Dev. 1999;13(8):1037–49.  Mitsiadis TA, Salmivirta M, Muramatsu T, Muramatsu H, Rauvala H, Lehtonen E, et al. Expression of the heparin-binding cytokines, midkine (MK) and HB-GAM (pleiotrophin) is associated with epithelial-mesenchymal interactions during fetal development and organogenesis. Development [Internet]. 1995;121(1):37–51. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7867507  Yang XM, Vogan K, Gros P, Park M. Expression of the met receptor tyrosine kinase in muscle progenitor cells in somites and limbs is absent in Splotch mice. Development [Internet]. 1996;122(7):2163–71. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8681797
861 862 863 864 865 866 867 868 869 870 871	39. 40. 41.	muscle α-actin gene (ACTA1). Hum Mutat. 2009;30(9):1267–77.  Kardon G, Heanue TA, Tabin CJ. Pax3 and Dach2 positive regulation in the developing somite. Dev Dyn. 2002;224(3):350–5.  Pereira FA, Yuhong Q, Zhou G, Tsai MJ, Tsai SY. The orphan nuclear receptor COUP-TFII is required for angiogenesis and heart development. Genes Dev. 1999;13(8):1037–49.  Mitsiadis TA, Salmivirta M, Muramatsu T, Muramatsu H, Rauvala H, Lehtonen E, et al. Expression of the heparin-binding cytokines, midkine (MK) and HB-GAM (pleiotrophin) is associated with epithelial-mesenchymal interactions during fetal development and organogenesis. Development [Internet]. 1995;121(1):37–51. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7867507  Yang XM, Vogan K, Gros P, Park M. Expression of the met receptor tyrosine kinase in muscle progenitor cells in somites and limbs is absent in Splotch mice. Development [Internet]. 1996;122(7):2163–71. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8681797  Sasaki H, Ferguson-Smith AC, Shum AS, Barton SC, Surani MA. Temporal and spatial regulation of H19 imprinting in normal and

876		genes. Development [Internet]. 1998;125(4):777–90. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9435297
877	45.	Lee CS, Buttitta L, Fan C-M. Evidence that the {WNT-inducible} growth arrest-specific gene 1 encodes an antagonist of sonic
878		hedgehog signaling in the somite. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2001;98(20):11347–52.
879	46.	McMahon AR, Merzdorf CS. Expression of the zic1, zic2, zic3, and zic4 genes in early chick embryos. BMC Res Notes.
880		2010;3(1):167.
881	47.	Bladt F, Riethmacher D, Isenmann S, Aguzzi A, Birchmeier C. Essential role for the c-met receptor in the migration of myogenic
882		precursor cells into the limb bud. Nature. 1995;376(6543):768–71.
883	48.	Swartz ME, Eberhart J, Pasquale EB, Krull CE. EphA4/ephrin-A5 interactions in muscle precursor cell migration in the avian
884		forelimb. Development [Internet]. 2001;128(23):4669–80. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11731448
885	49.	Schäfer K, Braun T. Early specification of limb muscle precursor cells by the homeobox gene Lbx1h. Nat Genet.
886		1999;23(2):ng1099_213.
887	50.	Crossley PH, Minowada G, MacArthur CA, Martin GR. Roles for FGF8 in the induction, initiation, and maintenance of chick limb
888		development. Cell. 1996;84(1):127–36.
889	51.	Stewart RA, Arduini BL, Berghmans S, George RE, Kanki JP, Henion PD, et al. Zebrafish foxd3 is selectively required for neural
890		crest specification, migration and survival. Dev Biol. 2006;292(1):174–88.
891	52.	Deutsch U, Dressler GR, Gruss P. Pax 1, a member of a paired box homologous murine gene family, is expressed in segmented
892		structures during development. Cell. 1988;53(4):617–25.
893	53.	Buchner G, Broccoli V, Bulfone A, Orfanelli U, Gattuso C, Ballabio A, et al. {MAEG,} an {EGF-repeat} containing gene, is a new
894		marker associated with dermatome specification and morphogenesis of its derivatives. Mech Dev. 2000;98(1–2):179–82.
895	54.	Xu X-M, Fisher DA, Zhou L, White FA, Ng S, Snider WD, et al. The Transmembrane Protein Semaphorin {6A} Repels Embryonic
896		Sympathetic Axons. J Neurosci. 2000;20(7):2638–48.
897	55.	Davis RL, Weintraub H, Lassar AB. Expression of a single transfected cDNA converts fibroblasts to myoblasts. Cell.
898		1987;51(6):987–1000.
899	56.	Donalies M, Cramer M, Ringwald M, A S-P. Expression of M-cadherin, a member of the cadherin multigene family, correlates
900		with differentiation of skeletal muscle cells. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 1991;88(18):8024–8.
901	57.	Gahlmann R, Kedes L. Cloning, structural analysis, and expression of the human fast twitch skeletal muscle troponin C gene. J
902		Biol Chem. 1990;265(21):12520–8.
903	58.	Roberds SL, Anderson RD, Ibraghimov-Beskrovnaya O, Campbell KP. Primary structure and muscle-specific expression of the 50-
904		kDa dystrophin-associated glycoprotein (adhalin). J Biol Chem [Internet]. 1993;268(32):23739–42. Available from:
905		http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8226900
906	59.	MacKenzie AE, Korneluk RG, Zorzato F, Fujii J, Phillips M, Iles D, et al. The human ryanodine receptor gene: its mapping to

907		19q13.1, placement in a chromosome 19 linkage group, and exclusion as the gene causing myotonic dystrophy. Am J Hum Genet
908		[Internet]. 1990;46(6):1082–9. Available from:
909		http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1971150%0Ahttp://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=PMC1683814
910	60.	Greco S, De Simone M, Colussi C, Zaccagnini G, Fasanaro P, Pescatori M, et al. Common (micro-RNA) signature in skeletal muscle
911		damage and regeneration induced by Duchenne muscular dystrophy and acute ischemia. {FASEB} J. 2009;23(10):3335–46.
912	61.	Milet C, Duprez D. The Mkx homeoprotein promotes tenogenesis in stem cells and improves tendon repair. Ann Transl Med.
913		2015;3(Suppl 1):S33.
914	62.	Lefebvre V, Li P, De Crombrugghe B. A new long form of Sox5 (L-Sox5), Sox6 and Sox9 are coexpressed in chondrogenesis and
915		cooperatively activate the type II collagen gene. EMBO J. 1998;17(19):5718–33.
916	63.	NODA M, DENHARDT DT. Regulation of Osteopontin Gene Expression in Osteoblasts. Ann N Y Acad Sci. 1995;760(1):242–8.
917	64.	Atala A. Re: Sall1 Maintains Nephron Progenitors and Nascent Nephrons by Acting as Both an Activator and a Repressor: Editorial
918		Comment. J Urol. 2015;194(2):592–3.
919	65.	Lytton J, DH M. Molecular cloning of {cDNAs} from human kidney coding for two alternatively spliced products of the cardiac
920		{Ca2+-ATPase} gene. J Biol Chem. 1988;263(29):15024–31.
921	66.	Yoshida M, Ozawa E. Glycoprotein complex anchoring dystrophin to sarcolemma. J Biochem. 1990;108(5):748–52.
922	67.	Chen JF, Mandel EM, Thomson JM, Wu Q, Callis TE, Hammond SM, et al. The role of microRNA-1 and microRNA-133 in skeletal
923		muscle proliferation and differentiation. Nat Genet. 2006;38(2):228–33.
924	68.	Hak KK, Yong SL, Sivaprasad U, Malhotra A, Dutta A. Muscle-specific microRNA miR-206 promotes muscle differentiation. J Cell
925		Biol. 2006;174(5):677–87.
926	69.	Hasty P, Bradley A, Morris JH, Edmondson DG, Venuti JM, Olson EN, et al. Muscle deficiency and neonatal death in mice with a
927		targeted mutation in the myogenin gene. Nature. 1993;364(6437):364501a0.
928	70.	Vignier N, Moghadaszadeh B, Gary F, Beckmann J, Mayer U, Guicheney P. Structure, genetic localization, and identification of the
929		cardiac and skeletal muscle transcripts of the human integrin $\alpha 7$ gene (ITGA7). Biochem Biophys Res Commun. 1999;260(2):357–
930		64.
931	71.	Newey SE, Howman E V., Ponting CP, Benson MA, Nawrotzki R, Loh NY, et al. Syncoilin, a Novel Member of the Intermediate
932		Filament Superfamily That Interacts with $\alpha$ -Dystrobrevin in Skeletal Muscle. J Biol Chem. 2001;276(9):6645–55.
933	72.	WU Q-L, JHA PK, RAYCHOWDHURY MK, DU Y, LEAVIS PC, SARKAR S. Isolation and Characterization of Human Fast Skeletal β
934		Troponin T cDNA: Comparative Sequence Analysis of Isoforms and Insight into the Evolution of Members of a Multigene Family.
935		DNA Cell Biol. 2009;13(3):217–33.
936	73.	Bernick EP, Zhang PJ, Du S. Knockdown and overexpression of Unc-45b result in defective myofibril organization in skeletal
937		muscles of zebrafish embryos. BMC Cell Biol. 2010;11(1):70.

938	74.	Li H, Randall WR, Du S-J. skNAC (skeletal Naca), a muscle-specific isoform of Naca (nascent polypeptide-associated complex
939		alpha), is required for myofibril organization. FASEB J. 2009;23(6):1988–2000.
940	75.	DeChiara TM, Bowen DC, Valenzuela DM, Simmons M V., Poueymirou WT, Thomas S, et al. The receptor tyrosine kinase MuSK is
941		required for neuromuscular junction formation in vivo. Cell. 1996;85(4):501–12.
942	76.	Okada K, Inoue A, Okada M, Murata Y, Kakuta S, Jigami T, et al. The Muscle Protein Dok-7 Is Essential for Neuromuscular
943		Synaptogenesis. Science (80- ). 2006;312(5781):1802–5.
944	77.	Ilene K-M, Travis M, Blau H, Leinwand LA. Expression and {DNA} sequence analysis of a human embryonic skeletal muscle mvosin
945		heavy chain gene. Nucleic Acids Res. 1989;17(15):6167–79.
946	78.	Weiss A, Schiaffino S, Leinwand LA. Comparative sequence analysis of the complete human sarcomeric myosin heavy chain
947		family: implications for functional {diversity11Edited} by J. Karn. J Mol Biol. 1999;290(1):61–75.
948	79.	Strohman RC, J M-E, Glass CA, Matsuda R. Human fetal muscle and cultured myotubes derived from it contain a fetal-specific
949		myosin light chain. Science (80- ). 1983;221(4614):955–7.
950	80.	Collins C, Hayden MR, Schappert K. The genomic organization of a novel regulatory myosin light chain gene (MYL5) that maps to
951		chromosome 4p16.3 and shows different patterns of expression between primates. Hum Mol Genet. 1992;1(9):727–33.
952	81.	Type IIx myosin heavy chain transcripts are expressed in type IIb fibers of human skeletal muscle. Am J Physiol - Cell Physiol.
953		1994;267(6 36-6):C1723-8.
954	82.	Rotwein P, Pollock KM, Watson M, Milbrandt JD. Insulin-like growth factor gene expression during rat embryonic development.
955		Endocrinology. 1987;121(6):2141–4.
956	83.	Andersen DC, Laborda J, Baladron V, Kassem M, Sheikh SP, Jensen CH. Dual role of delta-like 1 homolog (DLK1) in skeletal muscle
957		development and adult muscle regeneration. Development. 2013;140(18):3743–53.
958	84.	Noguchi S, EM M, Othmane BK, Hagiwara Y, Mizuno Y, Yoshida M, et al. Mutations in the dystrophin-associated protein gamma-
959		sarcoglycan in chromosome 13 muscular dystrophy. Sci New York N Y. 1995;270(5237):819–22.
960	85.	Campbell KP, Leung AT, Sharp AH. The biochemistry and molecular biology of the dihydropyridine-sensitive calcium channel.
961		Trends Neurosci. 1988;11(10):425–30.
962	86.	A fourth human MEF2 transcription factor, hMEF2D, is an early marker of the myogenic lineage. Development.
963		1993;118(4):1095–106.
964	87.	Gautam M, Noakes PG, Mudd J, Nichol M, Chu GC, Sanes JR, et al. Failure of postsynaptic specialization to develop at
965		neuromuscular junctions of rapsyn-deficient mice. Nature. 1995;377(6546):377232a0.
966	88.	Dawson DM, Eppenberger HM, Eppenberger ME. Multiple Molecular Forms of Creatine Kinases. Ann N Y Acad Sci.
967		1968;151(1):616–26.
968	89.	van Rooij E, Sutherland LB, Qi X, Richardson JA, Hill J, Olson EN. Control of {Stress-Dependent} Cardiac Growth and Gene

969		Expression by a {MicroRNA}. Science (80- ). 2007;316(5824):575–9.
970	90.	Hailstones D, Barton P, P C-T, Sasse S, Sutherland C, Hardeman E, et al. Differential regulation of the atrial isoforms of the myosin
971		light chains during striated muscle development. J Biol Chem. 1992;267(32):23295–300.
972	91.	Marx SO, Reiken S, Hisamatsu Y, Jayaraman T, Burkhoff D, Rosemblit N, et al. PKA Phosphorylation Dissociates FKBP12.6 from
973		the Calcium Release Channel (Ryanodine Receptor). Cell. 2004;101(4):365–76.
974	92.	Kuro-o M, Nagai R, Tsuchimochi H, Katoh H, Yazaki Y, Ohkubo A, et al. Developmentally regulated expression of vascular smooth
975		muscle myosin heavy chain isoforms. J Biol Chem. 1989;264(31):18272–5.
976	93.	Gimona M, Herzog M, Vandekerckhove J, Small JV. Smooth muscle specific expression of calponin. FEBS Lett. 1990;274(1–
977		2):159–62.
978	94.	Eglen RM, Reddy H, Watson N, Challiss RAJ. Muscarinic acetylcholine receptor subtypes in smooth muscle. Trends Pharmacol Sci.
979		1994;15(4):114–9.
980	95.	Ajima R, Akazawa H, Kodama M, Takeshita F, Otsuka A, Kohno T, et al. Deficiency of Myo18B in mice results in embryonic
981		lethality with cardiac myofibrillar aberrations. Genes to Cells. 2008;13(10):987–99.
982	96.	Heidmann O, Buonanno A, Geoffroy B, Robert B, Guenet JL, Merlie JP, et al. Chromosomal localization of muscle nicotinic
983		acetylcholine receptor genes in the mouse. Science (80- ). 1986;234(4778):866–8.
984	97.	Capitanio D, Moriggi M, Torretta E, Barbacini P, Palma S, Viganò A, et al. Comparative proteomic analyses of Duchenne muscular
985		dystrophy and Becker muscular dystrophy muscles: changes contributing to preserve muscle function in Becker muscular
986		dystrophy patients. 2020;
987	98.	Ueno T, Tanaka K, Kaneko K, Taga Y, Sata T, Irie S, et al. Enhancement of procollagen biosynthesis by p180 through augmented
988		ribosome association on the endoplasmic reticulum in response to stimulated secretion. J Biol Chem. 2010;285(39):29941–50.
989	99.	Hautala T, Byers MG, Eddy RL, Shows TB, Kivirikko KI, Myllyla R. Cloning of human lysyl hydroxylase: Complete cDNA-derived
990		amino acid sequence and assignment of the gene (PLOD) to chromosome 1p36.3→p36.2. Genomics. 1992;13(1):62−9.
991	100.	Valtavaara M, Papponen H, Pirttilä AM, Hiltunen K, Helander H, Myllylä R. Cloning and characterization of a novel human lysyl
992		hydroxylase isoform highly expressed in pancreas and muscle. J Biol Chem. 1997;272(11):6831–4.
993	101.	Martens JHA, Verlaan M, Kalkhoven E, Zantema A. Cascade of Distinct Histone Modifications during Collagenase Gene Activation.
994		Mol Cell Biol. 2003;23(5):1808–16.
995	102.	Long DA, Price KL, Ioffe E, Gannon CM, Gnudi L, White KE, et al. Angiopoietin-1 therapy enhances fibrosis and inflammation
996		following folic acid-induced acute renal injury. Kidney Int. 2008;74(3):300–9.
997	103.	Lipson KE, Wong C, Teng Y, Spong S. CTGF is a central mediator of tissue remodeling and fibrosis and its inhibition can reverse
998		the process of fibrosis. Fibrogenesis Tissue Repair [Internet]. 2012;5(S1):S24. Available from:
999		https://fibrogenesis.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1755-1536-5-S1-S24

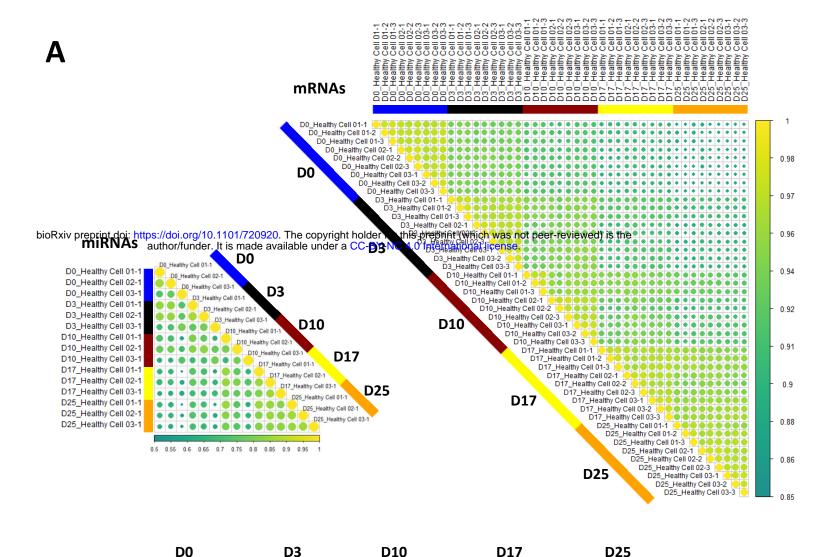
1000	104.	Fragiadaki M, Witherden AS, Kaneko T, Sonnylal S, Pusey CD, George B-G, et al. Interstitial fibrosis is associated with increased
1001		{COL1A2} transcription in {AA-injured} renal tubular epithelial cells in vivo. Matrix Biol. 2011;30(7–8):396–403.
1002	105.	Hemmann S, Graf J, Roderfeld M, Roeb E. Expression of {MMPs} and {TIMPs} in liver fibrosis – a systematic review with special
1003		emphasis on anti-fibrotic strategies. J Hepatol. 2007;46(5):955–75.
1004	106.	Duisters RF, Tijsen AJ, Schroen B, Leenders JJ, Lentink V, Van Der Made I, et al. MiR-133 and miR-30 Regulate connective tissue
1005		growth factor: Implications for a role of micrornas in myocardial matrix remodeling. Circ Res. 2009;104(2):170–8.
1006	107.	Vidal B, Serrano AL, Tjwa M, Suelves M, Ardite E, Mori R, et al. Fibrinogen drives dystrophic muscle fibrosis via a
1007		{TGFβ/alternative} macrophage activation pathway. Gene Dev. 2008;22(13):1747–52.
1008	108.	Timpani CA, Hayes A, Rybalka E. Revisiting the dystrophin-ATP connection: How half a century of research still implicates
1009		mitochondrial dysfunction in Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy aetiology. Med Hypotheses. 2015;85(6):1021–33.
1010	109.	Šileikyte J, Blachly-Dyson E, Sewell R, Carpi A, Menabò R, Di Lisa F, et al. Regulation of the mitochondrial permeability transition
1011		pore by the outer membrane does not involve the peripheral benzodiazepine receptor (translocator protein of 18 kDa (TSPO)). J
1012		Biol Chem. 2014;289(20):13769–81.
1013	110.	Emery AE, Burt D. Intracellular calcium and pathogenesis and antenatal diagnosis of Duchenne muscular dystrophy. Br Med J.
1014		1980;280(6211):355–7.
1015	111.	Shkryl VM, Martins AS, Ullrich ND, Nowycky MC, Niggli E, Shirokova N. Reciprocal amplification of ROS and Ca2+ signals in
1016		stressed mdx dystrophic skeletal muscle fibers. Pflugers Arch Eur J Physiol. 2009;458(5):915–28.
1017	112.	Whitehead NP, Yeung EW, Froehner SC, Allen DG. Skeletal muscle NADPH oxidase is increased and triggers stretch-induced
1018		damage in the mdx mouse. PLoS One. 2010;5(12):e15354.
1019	113.	Rodriguez MC, Tarnopolsky MA. Patients with dystrophinopathy show evidence of increased oxidative stress. Free Radic Biol
1020		Med. 2003;34(9):1217–20.
1021	114.	Scholte HR, Busch HFM. Early changes of muscle mitochondria in duchenne dystrophy Partition and activity of mitochondrial
1022		enzymes in fractionated muscle of unaffected boys and adults and patients. J Neurol Sci. 1980;45(2–3):217–34.
1023	115.	Sharma U, Atri S, Sharma MC, Sarkar C, Jagannathan NR. Skeletal muscle metabolism in Duchenne muscular dystrophy {(DMD):}
1024		an in-vitro proton {NMR} spectroscopy study. Magn Reson Imaging. 2003;21(2):145–53.
1025	116.	Lemos DR, Babaeijandaghi F, Low M, Chang C-K, Lee ST, Fiore D, et al. Nilotinib reduces muscle fibrosis in chronic muscle injury
1026		by promoting {TNF-mediated} apoptosis of fibro/adipogenic progenitors. Nat Med. 2015;21(7):786–94.
1027	117.	Villalta AS, Nguyen HX, Deng B, Gotoh T, Tidball JG. Shifts in macrophage phenotypes and macrophage competition for arginine
1028		metabolism affect the severity of muscle pathology in muscular dystrophy. Hum Mol Genet. 2009;18(3):482–96.
1029	118.	Desguerre I, Mayer M, Leturcq F, Barbet J-P, Gherardi RK, Christov C. Endomysial Fibrosis in Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy: A
1030		Marker of Poor Outcome Associated With Macrophage Alternative Activation. J Neuropathol Exp Neurol. 2009;68(7):762–73.

1031	119.	Fusako S-T, Narita A, Masuda S, Wakamatsu T, Watanabe N, Nishiyama T, et al. Premyogenic progenitors derived from human
1032		pluripotent stem cells expand in floating culture and differentiate into transplantable myogenic progenitors. Sci Rep-uk.
1033		2018;8(1):6555.
1034	120.	Matsumura K, Tome FMS, Ionasescu V, Ervasti JM, Anderson RD, Romero NB, et al. Deficiency of dystrophin-associated proteins
1035		in Duchenne muscular dystrophy patients lacking COOH-terminal domains of dystrophin. J Clin Invest. 1993;92(2):866–71.
1036	121.	Yuasa K, Hagiwara Y, Ando M, Nakamura A, Takeda S, Hijikata T. {MicroRNA-206} is highly expressed in newly formed muscle
1037		fibers: implications regarding potential for muscle regeneration and maturation in muscular dystrophy. Cell Struct Funct.
1038		2008;33(2):163–9.
1039	122.	Cullen MJ, Fulthorpe JJ. Stages in fibre breakdown in duchenne muscular dystrophy An electron-microscopic study. J Neurol Sci.
1040		1975;24(2):179–200.
1041	123.	Brouilly N, Lecroisey C, Martin E, Pierson L, Mariol MC, Mounier N, et al. Ultra-structural time-course study in the C. elegans
1042		model for Duchenne muscular dystrophy highlights a crucial role for sarcomere-anchoring structures and sarcolemma integrity
1043		in the earliest steps of the muscle degeneration process. Hum Mol Genet. 2015;24(22):6428–45.
1044	124.	Consolino CM, Brooks S V. Susceptibility to sarcomere injury induced by single stretches of maximally activated muscles of mdx
1045		mice. J Appl Physiol Bethesda Md 1985. 2004;96(2):633–8.
1046	125.	Kong J, Anderson JE. Dystrophin is required for organizing large acetylcholine receptor aggregates. Brain Res. 1999;839(2):298–
1047		304.
1048	126.	Kong J, Yang L, Li Q, Cao J, Yang J, Chen F, et al. The absence of dystrophin rather than muscle degeneration causes acetylcholine
1049		receptor cluster defects in dystrophic muscle. Neuroreport. 2012;23(2):82–7.
1050	127.	Bell CD, Conen PE. Histopathological changes in Duchenne muscular dystrophy. J Neurol Sci. 1968;7(3):529–44.
1051	128.	Haddix SG, il Lee Y, Kornegay JN, Thompson WJ. Cycles of myofiber degeneration and regeneration lead to remodeling of the
1052		neuromuscular junction in two mammalian models of Duchenne muscular dystrophy. PLoS One. 2018;13(10):e0205926.
1053	129.	Luz MAM, Marques MJ, Neto SH. Impaired regeneration of dystrophin-deficient muscle fibers is caused by exhaustion of
1054		myogenic cells. Braz J Med Biol Res. 2002;35(6):691–5.
1055	130.	Zhou L, Porter JD, Cheng G, Gong B, Hatala DA, Merriam AP, et al. Temporal and spatial {mRNA} expression patterns of {TGF-
1056		beta1,} 2, 3 and {TbetaRI,} {II,} {III} in skeletal muscles of mdx mice. Neuromuscul Disord Nmd. 2005;16(1):32–8.
1057	131.	Bernasconi P, Torchiana E, Confalonieri P, Brugnoni R, Barresi R, Mora M, et al. Expression of transforming growth factor-beta 1
1058		in dystrophic patient muscles correlates with fibrosis. Pathogenetic role of a fibrogenic cytokine. J Clin Invest. 1995;96(2):1137–
1059		44.
1060	132.	Takahashi K, Tanabe K, Ohnuki M, Narita M, Ichisaka T, Tomoda K, et al. Induction of Pluripotent Stem Cells from Adult Human
1061		Fibroblasts by Defined Factors. Cell. 2007;131(5):861–72.

1062 1063	133.	DREYFUS JC, SCHAPIRA G, SCHAPIRA F. Biochemical study of muscle in progressive muscular dystrophy. J Clin Invest. 1954;33(5):794–7.
1064 1065 1066	134.	Ascah A, Khairallah M, Daussin F, Bourcier-Lucas C, Godin R, Allen BG, et al. Stress-induced opening of the permeability transition pore in the dystrophin-deficient heart is attenuated by acute treatment with sildenafil. Am J Physiol Circ Physiol. 2011;300(1):H144–53.
1067 1068	135.	Pauly M, Daussin F, Burelle Y, Li T, Godin R, Fauconnier J, et al. AMPK activation stimulates autophagy and ameliorates muscular dystrophy in the mdx mouse diaphragm. Am J Pathol. 2012;181(2):583–92.
1069 1070	136.	M PC. {HISTOPATHOLOGICAL} {FEATURES} {OF} {MUSCLE} {IN} {THE} {PRECLINICAL} {STAGES} {OF} {MUSCULAR} {DYSTROPHY}.  Brain. 1962;85(1):109–20.
1071 1072	137.	Bradley WG, Hudgson P, Larson PF, Papapetropoulos TA, Jenkison M. Structural changes in the early stages of Duchenne muscular dystrophy. J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry. 1972;35(4):451.
1073 1074	138.	Rau F, Freyermuth F, Fugier C, Villemin JP, Fischer MC, Jost B, et al. Misregulation of miR-1 processing is associated with heart defects in myotonic dystrophy. Nat Struct Mol Biol. 2011;18(7):840–5.
1075 1076	139.	Singh A, Happel C, Manna SK, George A-M, Carrerero J, Kumar S, et al. Transcription factor {NRF2} regulates {miR-1} and {miR-206} to drive tumorigenesis. J Clin Invest. 2013;123(7):2921–34.
1077 1078	140.	Zhang X, Zuo X, Yang B, Li Z, Xue Y, Zhou Y, et al. MicroRNA directly enhances mitochondrial translation during muscle differentiation. Cell. 2014;158(3):607–19.
1079 1080	141.	Fry CS, Kirby TJ, Kosmac K, McCarthy JJ, Peterson CA. Myogenic Progenitor Cells Control Extracellular Matrix Production by Fibroblasts during Skeletal Muscle Hypertrophy. Cell Stem Cell. 2017;20(1):56–69.
1081 1082	142.	Blau HM, Webster C, Pavlath GK. Defective myoblasts identified in Duchenne muscular dystrophy. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 1983;80(15):4856–60.
1083 1084	143.	Bovolenta M, Erriquez D, Valli E, Brioschi S, Scotton C, Neri M, et al. The DMD Locus Harbours Multiple Long Non-Coding RNAs Which Orchestrate and Control Transcription of Muscle Dystrophin mRNA Isoforms. PLoS One. 2012;7(9).
1085 1086	144.	Ervasti JM, Campbell KP. A role for the dystrophin-glycoprotein complex as a transmembrane linker between laminin and actin. J Cell Biol. 1993;122(4):809–23.
1087 1088	145.	Nudel U, Zuk D, Einat P, Zeelon E, Levy Z, Neuman S, et al. Duchenne muscular dystrophy gene product is not identical in muscle and brain. Nature. 1989;337(6202):337076a0.
1089 1090	146.	Muntoni F, Melis MA, Ganau A, Dubowitz V. Transcription of the dystrophin gene in normal tissues and in skeletal muscle of a family with X-linked dilated cardiomyopathy. Am J Hum Genet. 1995;56(1):151–7.
1091 1092	147.	Warner LE. Expression of Dp260 in muscle tethers the actin cytoskeleton to the dystrophin-glycoprotein complex and partially prevents dystrophy. Hum Mol Genet. 2002;11(9):1095–105.

1093	148.	Doorenweerd N, Mahfouz A, Van Putten M, Kaliyaperumal R, T'Hoen PAC, Hendriksen JGM, et al. Timing and localization of
1094		human dystrophin isoform expression provide insights into the cognitive phenotype of Duchenne muscular dystrophy. Sci Rep.
1095		2017;7(1).
1096	149.	Lu-Nguyen N, Ferry A, Schnell FJ, Hanson GJ, Popplewell L, Dickson G, et al. Functional muscle recovery following dystrophin and
1097		myostatin exon splice modulation in aged mdx mice. Hum Mol Genet. 2019;
1098	150.	Peccate C, Mollard A, Le Hir M, Julien L, McClorey G, Jarmin S, et al. Antisense pre-treatment increases gene therapy efficacy in
1099		dystrophic muscles. Hum Mol Genet. 2016;25(16):3555–63.
1100	151.	Morales MG, Gutierrez J, Cabello-Verrugio C, Cabrera D, Lipson KE, Goldschmeding R, et al. Reducing CTGF/CCN2 slows down
1101		mdx muscle dystrophy and improves cell therapy. Hum Mol Genet. 2013;22(24):4938–51.
1102	152.	Gatliff J, Campanella M. {TSPO:} kaleidoscopic {18-kDa} amid biochemical pharmacology, control and targeting of mitochondria.
1103		Biochem J. 2016;473(2):107–21.
1104	153.	Köster J, Rahmann S. Snakemake—a scalable bioinformatics workflow engine. Bioinformatics. 2012;28(19):2520–2.
1105	154.	Dobin A, Davis C a, Schlesinger F, Drenkow J, Zaleski C, Jha S, et al. STAR: ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner. Bioinformatics
1106		[Internet]. 2013 Jan 1 [cited 2014 Jul 13];29(1):15–21. Available from:
1107		http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=3530905&tool=pmcentrez&rendertype=abstract
1108	155.	Wang L, Wang S, Li W. RSeQC: quality control of RNA-seq experiments. Bioinformatics [Internet]. 2012 Aug 15 [cited 2017 Jul
1109		6];28(16):2184–5. Available from: https://academic.oup.com/bioinformatics/article-lookup/doi/10.1093/bioinformatics/bts356
1110	156.	Ewels P, Magnusson M, Lundin S, Käller M. MultiQC: Summarize analysis results for multiple tools and samples in a single report.
1111		Bioinformatics [Internet]. 2016 Oct 1 [cited 2017 Jul 6];32(19):3047–8. Available from:
1112		https://academic.oup.com/bioinformatics/article-lookup/doi/10.1093/bioinformatics/btw354
1113	157.	Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biol
1114		[Internet]. 2014;15(12):550. Available from: http://genomebiology.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s13059-014-0550-8
1115	158.	Durinck S, Spellman PT, Birney E, Huber W. Mapping identifiers for the integration of genomic datasets with the R/ Bioconductor
1116		package biomaRt. Nat Protoc [Internet]. 2009 [cited 2019 Jun 12];4(8):1184–91. Available from:
1117		http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19617889
1118	159.	Kolesnikov N, Hastings E, Keays M, Melnichuk O, Tang AY, Williams E, et al. {ArrayExpress} update—simplifying data submissions.
1119		Nucleic Acids Res. 2015;43(D1):D1113–6.
1120	160.	Schmieder R, Edwards R. Quality control and preprocessing of metagenomic datasets. Bioinformatics. 2011;27(6):863–4.
1121	161.	Martin M. Cutadapt removes adapter sequences from high-throughput sequencing reads. Embnet J. 2011;17(1):10–2.
1122	162.	Amrhein V, Greenland S, Blake M. Scientists rise up against statistical significance. Nature. 2019;567(7748):305–7.
1123	163.	Garnier S. viridis: Default Color Maps from "matplotlib". R package version 0.5.1. 2018; Available from: https://cran.r-

1124		project.org/package=viridis
1125	164.	Simko TW and V. R package "corrplot": Visualization of a Correlation Matrix (Version 0.84). 2017; Available from:
1126		https://github.com/taiyun/corrplot
1127	165.	Gregory R. Warnes, Ben Bolker, Lodewijk Bonebakker, Robert Gentleman, Wolfgang Huber Andy Liaw, Thomas Lumley M,
1128		Maechler, Arni Magnusson, Steffen Moeller MS and BV. gplots: Various R Programming Tools for Plotting Data. R package
1129		version 3.0.1. 2016; Available from: https://cran.r-project.org/package=gplots
1130	166.	Fresno C, Fernández EA. {RDAVIDWebService:} a versatile R interface to {DAVID}. Bioinformatics. 2013;29(21):2810–1.
1131	167.	Vizcaíno J, Csordas A, del-Toro, Noemi, Dianes JA, Griss J, Lavidas I, et al. 2016 update of the {PRIDE} database and its related
1132		tools. Nucleic Acids Res. 2016;44(D1):D447–56.
1133		



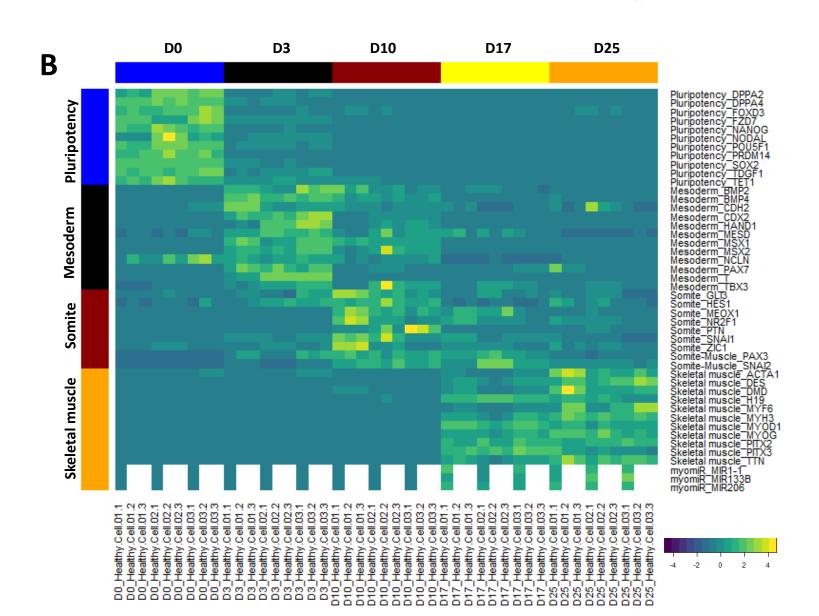


Figure 2

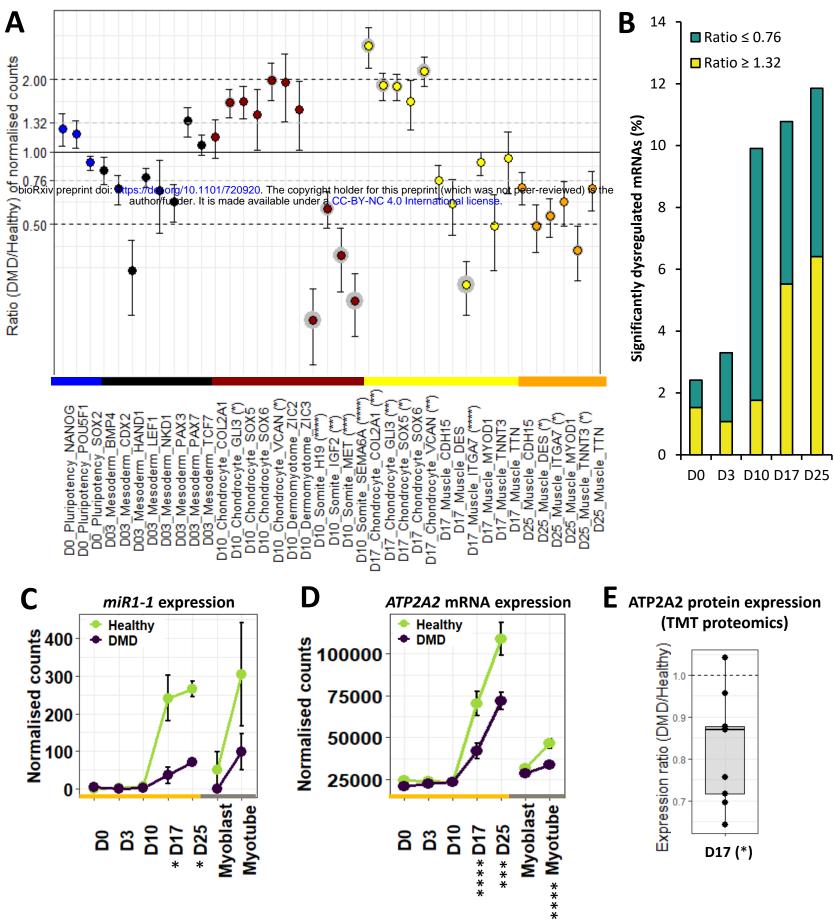
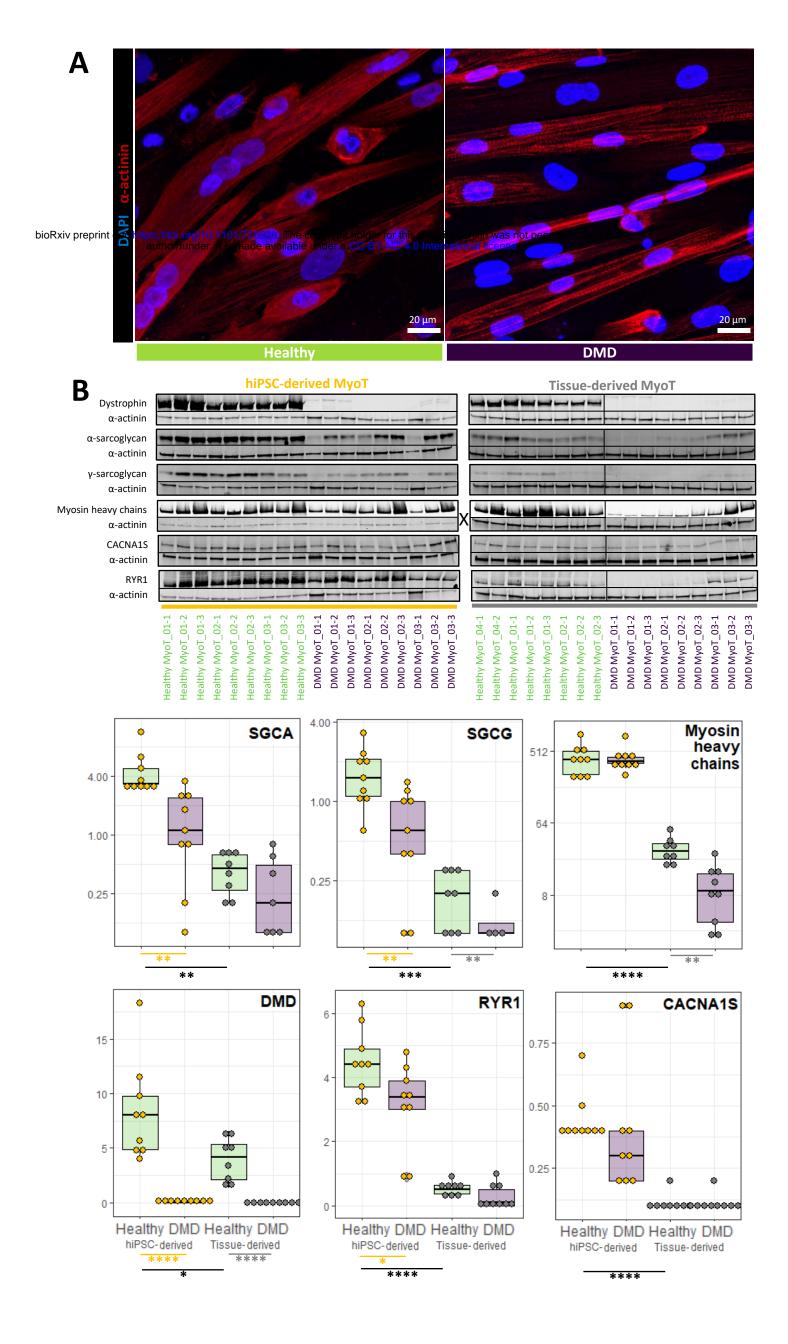
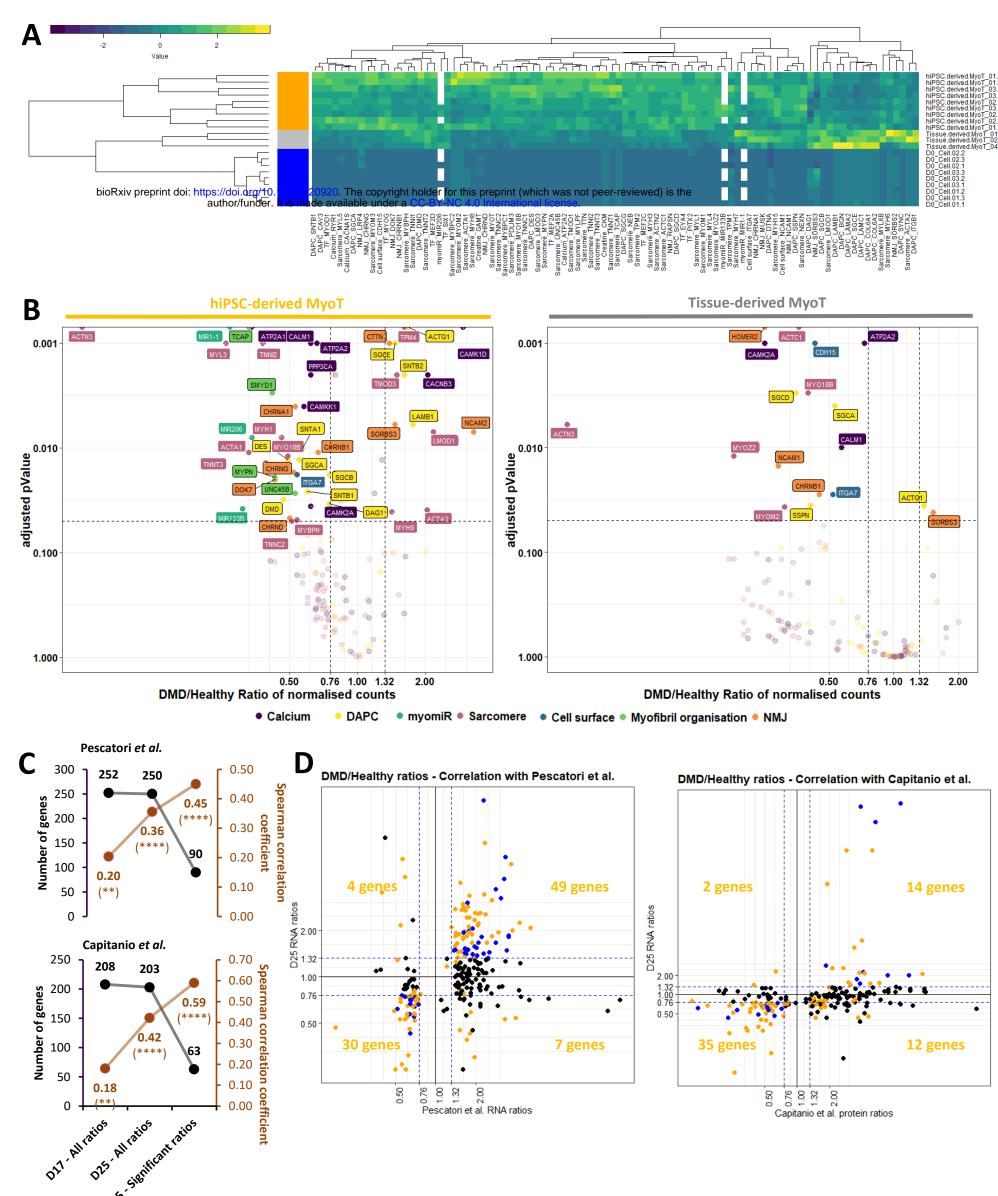
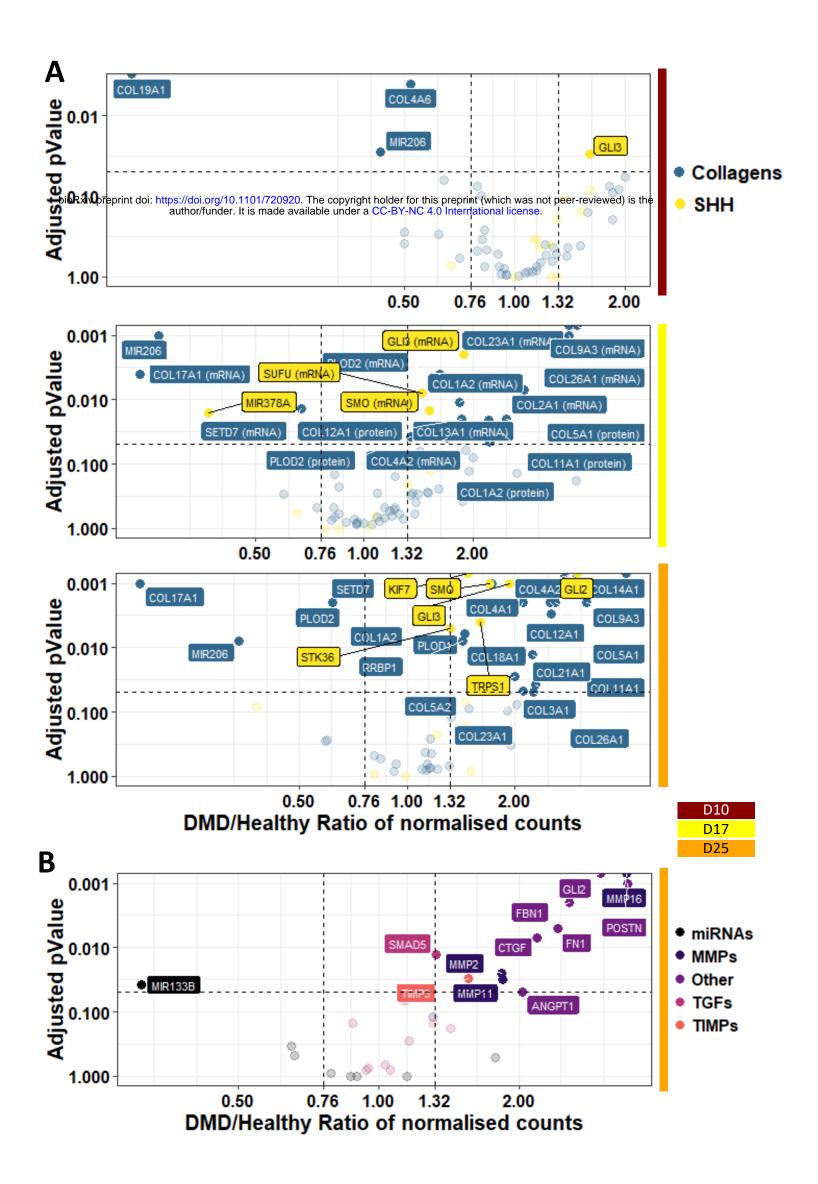


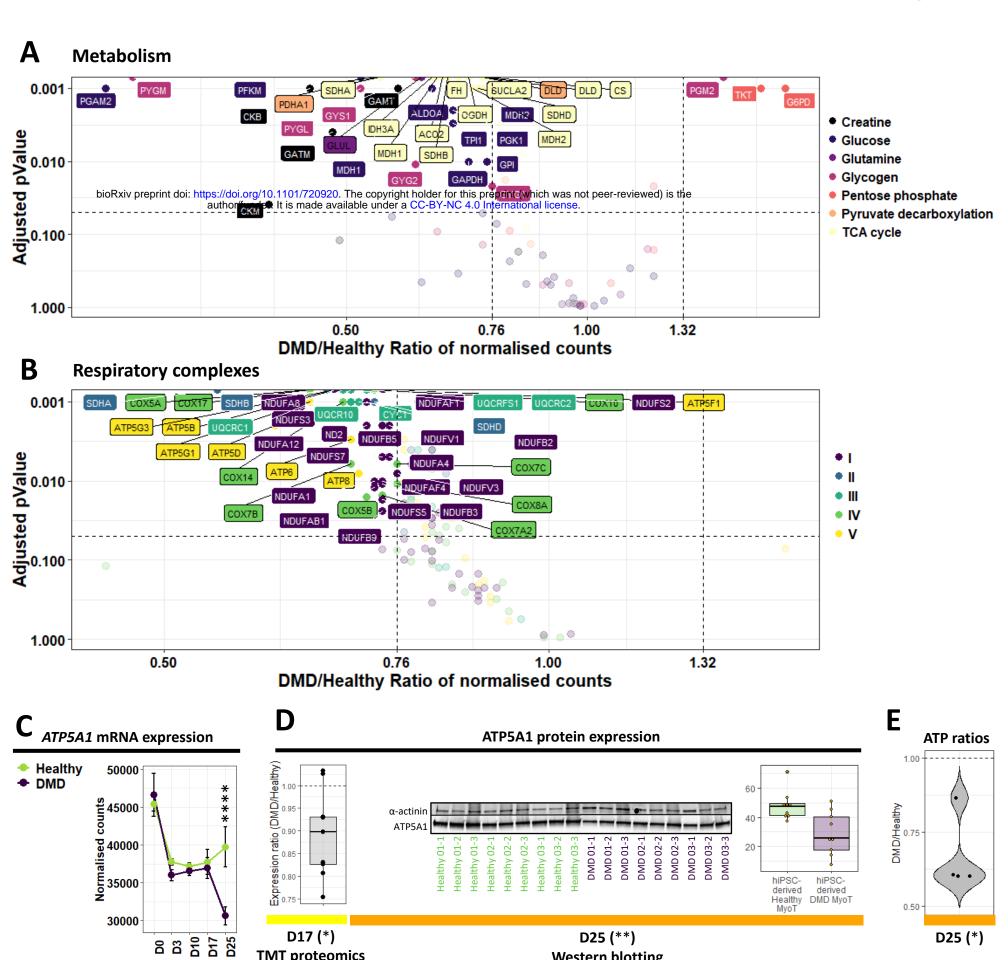
Figure 3



## Figure 4







Western blotting

**TMT proteomics** 

