# Section 1: Supplementary Notes for "Mapping copy number variation by population scale genome sequencing"

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# Contents



# Abbreviations

# Institutional

- Applied Biosystems / Life Technologies
- AE Albert Einstein College of Medicine
- BC Boston College
- BG Beijing Genomics Institute
- BI Broad Institute
- LN Leiden University Medical Center<br>OX University of Oxford
- University of Oxford
- SD University of California, San Diego
- SI Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute
- UW University of Washington<br>WU Washington University, St
- Washington University, St. Louis
- YL Yale University

Computational Approach

- RP Read Pair Mapping
- RD Read Depth Analysis<br>SR Split Read Alignment
- Split Read Alignments
- AS Assembly of Sequence Reads
- PD Individual approaches integrating Read Pair and Read Depth features

## Types of Structural Variation

- DEL Deletion
- DUP Duplication
- INS Insertion

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# Supplementary Notes

## **Algorithm-Centric Approach**

Our analysis group's initial efforts focused on SV discovery with individual methods accompanied with extensive validations ("Release set"; Fig 1B in main text). We realized, however, that extensive validations are unlikely to be pursued regularly in future surveys of SVs in population scale sequence data. Thus, we also assessed an alternative approach for generating an SV discovery set; that is the "algorithm-centric set" involving only sparse validations (i.e., experiments at a scale sufficient for estimating the FDRs of the underlying SV discovery methods). The algorithm-centric set consisted of two steps. First, we collated SV calls generated by individual (single) methods achieving an FDR of 10% or less. Second, we systematically assessed whether and to what extent integrating results from complementary SV discovery methods (i.e., such utilizing distinct features, e.g. SR and RD) would allow for increased specificity and sensitivity in SV calling. To this end, we integrated callsets generated by individual (single) SV discovery methods in a pairwise fashion, i.e. based on pairwise intersection of the methods' callsets with our precision-aware merging approach (Supplementary Fig. 5). We reassessed the specificity of the resulting (pairwise intersected) callsets, and requested an FDR of 10% or less for inclusion of the resulting callsets in the algorithm-centric set. FDR re-evaluation was performed separately for each pairwise intersection of callsets using the hierarchical FDR estimation rationale described above.

We first assessed the accuracy of predicted deletions with supporting evidence from two methods with our pairwise callset intersection approach. Indeed, such deletion calls tended to have a higher accuracy (lower FDR) than calls generated with a single method and led us to consider predicted SVs from an additional sixteen individual SV discovery callsets that were not previously considered owing to their insufficient accuracy (compare Supplementary Table 15 with Supplementary Tables 3 and 4). The highest relative increases in accuracy were achieved when different SV discovery approaches, such as RD and RP approaches, were integrated in this fashion. Of note, the accuracy improved also when combining conceptually similar methods, such as when combining callsets from multiple RD-based methods. Furthermore, we observed an increase in accuracy compared to individual methods also when integrating two insertion callsets operating at a similar SV size range, i.e. callsets with predicted MEIs inferred with SR and RP methods, respectively.

The "algorithm-centric set" captured approximately two thirds of the discovery set generated by the "Release set" (compare Table 1 with Supplementary Table 7). Our deletion calls, generated with the "algorithm-centric set", further achieved a sensitivity of ~60% in the low-coverage data, and more than 80% in the trio data (Supplementary Fig. 4). We note that, unsurprisingly, algorithm-based SV discovery is particularly powerful in the trios, given the density of data in terms of coverage and the availability of data from diverse sequencing platforms, both of which the low-coverage genomes comprised to a lesser extent. We also assessed what fraction of the release set can be reconstructed when running optimal combinations of several algorithms on the sequence data, rather than all algorithms (Supplementary Tables 16, 17). In general, a large portion of our final callset (54%) would be missed if only the top two or three algorithms would be run by users. On the other hand, 48% of the release set can be reconstructed with the top five algorithms. We conclude that a considerable portion of our discovery set, but not its entirety, can be captured by combining computational methods with sparse validation (Supplementary Fig. 8).

### **Analysis of Callset Novelty**

We also attempted to estimate to what extent callset novelty would be reduced through the introduction of data from individual genomes analyzed with short DNA read technologies. To this end we assessed callset novelty with a subset of previously reported SVs (i.e., such reported in dbVAR as well as in two individual genomes analyzed by long-read based sequence technology<sup>1,2</sup>), followed by the addition and assessment of data from additional personal genomes. For example, when specifically considering deletions reported in Bentley *et al.* 3 (who analyzed an anonymous African individual) we observed a 2% decrease in novel deletions; for McKernan *et al.* 4 (who analyzed the same individual as Bentley *et al.*) we also observed 2% decrease; for Kim *et al.* 5 (who analyzed an anonymous Korean individual) we observed a 0.003 decrease, and for Wang *et al.* 6 (who analyzed an anonymous East Asian individual) we observed a 0.2% decrease. We conclude – despite differences in variant callers and sequencing libraries/platforms amongst papers – that each additional genome decreases the detected novelty slightly, *i.e.*, by 0.2-2%, as rare SVs identified in our study are recapitulated in other genomes.

#### **Breakdown of Microhomology at SV Breakpoints**

10,125 of the 22,025 merged deletion calls – where a deletion was defined as a sequence loss relative to the human reference genome (build36/hg18) – had breakpoint assembly data at base-pair resolution. We initially analyzed the sequence context of these SVs by taking the 300bp flanking sequence of each deletion and searching for sequencing homology/microhomology. Altogether, we observed 7,717 SVs (76.2%) to be flanked by microhomology or homology stretches of 2bp to 376bp in length; 7.7% were blunt deletion; the remaining portion (16.1%) were deletions with recorded non-template sequence insertions. We stratified the microhomology analyses by ancestral status, and observed that the distribution of microhomology sequences peaks at 2bp for deletions relative to ancestral state (median=2bp), and at 15bp for insertions (median=9bp), as displayed in Supplementary Figure 9. Whereas the former are plausibly formed by NH, the latter were mostly associated with MEIs (i.e., *Alu* and LINE elements).

#### **Analysis of Overlapping SVs with Distinct Breakpoints**

We identified 497 deletions relative to the reference genome (4.4% of all deletions with breakpoint coordinates) for which different alternative breakpoint coordinates were inferred based on TIGRA targeted assembly of constituent callset-specific SVs (the whole list of candidate alternative breakpoints is in Supplementary Table 18). One potential explanation for this observation is the occurrence of distinct SV alleles at the same locus in the genome. We manually reviewed a number of these cases but didn't find an example with definitive evidence for multiple breakpoints. Thus, a more probably explanation is that many apparently overlapping SVs with different inferred breakpoints correspond to TIGRA mis-assemblies, as the rate of alternative SVs (4.4%) is within the estimated rate of TIGRA false-discoveries (*i.e.*, mis-assemblies) of 6.8% (assessed based on the validation of 151/162 TIGRA assemblies using PCR followed by Sanger sequencing). However, these loci did include twenty deletions intersecting with tandem duplications, i.e., loci that may represent multiallelic SVs or that may result from distinct interpretations as to whether a locus represents a deletion or duplication, based on method-specific reference sets applied (i.e., reference genome vs. population-reference).

#### **Population Genetic Properties**

The allelic state of each deletion in each genome was determined with the Genome STRiP method that combines information from RD, RP, SR and haplotype features of population scale sequence data to produce an allelic state determination (genotype) in each individual. This method was applied to discovered deletions in 156 individuals and was able to generate genotypes for 13,826 autosomal events. The genotypes displayed 99.1% concordance with array-based copy number genotypes (available for 1,970 of these deletions) from CGH arrays<sup>7</sup>, indicating an excellent accuracy of the genotype data. Genome STRiP presumes a bi-allelic variant model, implying that it may generate rare inaccurate SV calls in multi-allelic loci harboring both deletions and duplications. Thus, a small number of individuals with copy number  $(CN) > 2$  in multiallelic regions may be incorrectly genotyped as  $CN=2$ . Indeed, based on array-based analyses, the number of SVs that exhibit both loss and gain copy number appears to be modest: 5.4% of the autosomal genotyped CNVs in a recent array-CGH study<sup>7</sup> have a copy number less than two in some individuals and greater than two in others. Furthermore, only 161 out of 4899 (3.3%) of these same CNVs exhibit both gains and losses in the individuals analyzed by the 1000GP. Among these 161 variants – 55% of which our study rediscovered as deletions – we generally mis-called the individuals with  $>2$  copies of a segment as CN=2. Note that based on array CGH data<sup>7</sup> the true average frequency of duplication copy numbers at these loci is 10.9% (thus, in the end, only very few genotypes are likely to be miscalled owing to the bi-allelic model, *i.e.* we expect that approximately 0.6% of our deletion calls may have been affected). Taken together, the abovementioned high concordance of Genome STRiP and the so far most detailed study of copy number genotypes<sup>7</sup> (an array-based study, which considered a multi-allelic variant model) suggests an overall low level of genotyping errors resulting from the bi-allelic variant model, while the bi-allelic model may explain some of the differences in concordance.

We assessed the taggability of genotyped deletions with SNPs, focusing on 5,068 deletions identified relative to the reference genome that displayed a minor allele frequency (MAF) >5%. Of these, 4,116 (81.2%) were tagged by at least one SNP. This figure is similar to the fraction of sequencing-derived SNPs that were reported to be well taggable by SNPs according to a recent study by the HapMap consortium<sup>8</sup>. Thus, it is likely that the poorly tagged

19% arise from factors that are not specific to SVs, such as the limited set of SNPs at each locus (that could serve as potential tags) and the uneven pattern of recombination across the genome (which gives rise to regions in which LD is relatively short in range). Nevertheless, we further examined factors that may influence taggability by relating deletion taggability to SV formation mechanism. This analysis revealed a slightly reduced LD for deletions formed by NAHR (only 77% of 190 common NAHR deletions had a tagSNP, *vs.* 81% of all deletions) and for deletions categorized as VNTR (66% of 145 common VNTR deletions had a tagSNP). We note that these observed slightly diminished taggability rates could in principle arise from recurrent SV formation, paucity of uniquely mapping SNPs to serve as potential tags, or modestly reduced genotyping accuracy at such sites. Furthermore, the LD properties of complex SVs (e.g., multiallelic SV), have not yet been fully ascertained as methods for genotyping such SVs with similar accuracy are still being developed.

Of note, the deletion genotype data further revealed nine apparently monomorphic deletions that appeared to be in the homozygous state in every individual interrogated. A closer examination suggested that four deletions spanned one or more contig gaps in the references assembly and thus were affected by non-reference bias (which led to the apparent monomorphic genotype). In addition, four deletions of smaller size  $(55bp - 5.6kb)$  were in highly repetitive sequence; although the genotyped deletions are presumably present at high allele frequency, the better alignability of the non-reference allele may have confounded the determination of the actual allele frequency at these loci. The remaining deletion (chr18:5296843-5297330) appears to display a high allele frequency deletion involving a VNTR. While we did not observe any evidence for the reference allele in the low-coverage sequence data used for deletion genotyping, we did observe DNA reads supporting the reference allele in just one low coverage sample (NA12874) sequenced only with the 454 platform, suggesting that the reference genome contains a rare SV allele at this locus.

We also performed a principal component analysis (PCA) with the deletion genotype matrix, and display results showing the first two principal components of each genotyped sample in Supplementary Figure 10. As expected and previously reported based on array-CGH data<sup>9</sup>, we observed a strong clustering of individuals within the same population and separation of each population-specific cluster. This implies an abundance of deletions in the genome that are based on relatively old SV formation events, with allele frequencies that have drifted independently in different populations resulting in the visible separation in the PCA. Additionally, we computed Wright's  $F_{ST}$ between each pair of populations (CEU, YRI and JPT+CHB) for each genotyped deletion to identify a possible enrichment of highly differentiated events in genic regions. Defining highly differentiated events as those with  $F_{ST}$  $\ge$  0.5 in two of the three comparisons, we then performed a Chi<sup>2</sup> test on a 2x2 contingency table for different categories of genic overlap (including complete gene deletion and partial deletion intersection with coding sequence). We did not detect a statistically significant relationship between the high  $F_{ST}$  deletions and any category of genic overlap with this analysis (Supplementary Table 19).

#### **Assessing** *de novo* **SV Formation in Parent-Offspring Trios**

To identify putative *de novo* SV formation events we performed a detailed analysis of SVs in both of the parentoffspring trio. Specifically, we searched for patterns of disagreement in Mendelian inheritance and made use of 42M CGH arrays to gain additional support. We further used genotyping data from several sources to identify multi-allelic loci that may confound such analysis (more details on this analysis will be published elsewhere $10$ ). We applied stringent criteria for SV calling, as the detection of *de novo* SV formation events can be confounded by even a low FDR in SV discovery/genotyping. This analysis did not reveal any confident *de novo* SV, which may not be surprising given the recently estimated<sup>7</sup> low rate of *de novo* SV occurrence of  $\mu = 3 \times 10^{-2}$ .

#### **Detection properties for Tandem Duplications**

Tandem duplication events may be observed as back-to-back regions (length>50bp) of duplicated sequence in a sequenced sample where the reference genome has only one copy ("t.dup insertion") or as a deletion of one copy of a tandem duplicated region in the reference ("t.dup deletion"). We identified both types in the 1000 Genomes pilot data, and while both obviously refer to the same variant class mutation, the respective detection strategies were very different (with correspondingly different ascertainment biases). While false discovery rates for both types were less than 10% (Supplementary Table 2), it was difficult to access detection sensitivity due to the lack of available goldstandard tandem duplication events. The numbers of observed events (501 tandem duplications detected as *duplications* relative to the reference genome; 229 detected as *deletions* relative to the reference genome) can therefore be interpreted as lower limits on the true numbers of tandem duplication events in the 1000 Genomes samples. We assessed the breakpoint resolution of the RP based tandem duplication detection algorithm (Supplementary Table 2) by comparing the predicted tandem duplication breakpoints with TIGRA targeted assembly as well as split-read based breakpoints (Supplementary Figure 14a). The tandem duplication length distribution ranges from 50 bp to 50kb (Supplementary Figure 14b). The abrupt limit of the length of tandem duplications detected as "deletions" compared to the reference genome arises from local assembly window around the candidate deletions, which as an approximation is roughly governed by the fragment length (~400bp) of the paired-end library insert size for most available sequencing reads,

The ancestral allele for each tandem duplication was classified based on orthologous primate regions to determine if the human ancestor likely possessed the tandem duplication or was missing the duplication. We found that the ancestral allele was missing the duplication in more than 80% of the events ("ins" in Supplementary Figure 14c), but a significant number of events were unclear ("unc"). In several cases the chimpanzee, orangutan, & rhesus macaque genomes were split between the human reference allele and the alternate allele, indicating possible assembly biases in the primate genomes, such as the collapsing of tandem repeat units into a single sequence segment. Most tandem duplications exhibit microhomologies at the junction between the duplicated regions. Local assembly of the alternate allele sequence provided an estimate for the size of the microhomology. The tandem duplications displayed 2-17 bp of microhomology at their breakpoints (in  $\sim 80\%$  of the cases), with the microhomology length 2 bp being most abundant. Furthermore, the tandem duplications did not display nontemplate inserted sequence.



Supplementary Figure 1. Fraction of SV calls by each approach (RD, RP, SR, AS) intersecting segmental **duplications (SD).** SVs identified based on RD features (here displayed in terms of the union of RD methods) display a considerably stronger overlap with SDs than SVs identified by other methods. SD coordinates were downloaded from the UCSC browser. The extent of overlap was assessed by requiring an intersection of at least 1bp.



**Supplementary Figure 2. Deletion callset breakpoint residual distributions for methods applied to (A) low coverage and (B) trio data**. The blue and red histograms are the breakpoint residuals (callset-assembly) for the start and end coordinates of SVs called by the respective SV discovery methods. The horizontal lines at the top of each plot mark the 2% (2.3 sigma) confidence intervals. The vertical notches mark the positions of the most probable breakpoint (the distribution mode). The start and end labels list the offset of the notch from zero and the extent of the confidence intervals. Owing to the abundance of SVs with mapped breakpoints the median resolution of our SV discovery set was 0bp and 10bp for deletions and insertions, respectively.



**Supplementary Figure 3. Correlation of PCR and array based FDR estimates.** FDR estimates based on PCR and arrays are displayed both for trio (blue) and low coverage (red) callsets.



**Supplementary Figure 4. Sensitivity of deletion discovery methods for both single and population-scale references.** (A) Sensitivity in detecting deletions estimated for three gold standard sources, i.e., sets of deletions identified in capillary read data (median=0.2kb), tiling CGH (2kb), and fosmid sequencing (6kb). Sensitivity estimates are displayed separately for NA12878 (drawn from the trios) and NA12156 (drawn from the low-coverage data). Note that this comparison (based on individual genomes) samples from the universe of variation in a frequency-weighted way. The rightmost panel compares "Rel." (The 1000GP data release) to a set of SVs obtained through the sparse-validation set ("Alg.-centric"). For the low coverage panel, the following methods are displayed: PD=Genome STRiP (using RP and RD features, summarized with "PD"), RD=Event-wise testing, RP=WTSI RP approach, RL=PEMer, and SR=Pindel. For the trio panel, AS=Cortex, RD=CNVnator, RP=BreakDancer, RL=PEMer, and SR=Yale 454 SR approach. (B) Sensitivity using a population scale reference in low coverage data. For this analysis, the reference data set was based on 3,621 deletions determined by Conrad *et al.*<sup>7</sup> to be polymorphic among the population of genomes analyzed in this study. The sensitivity of each discovery method was calculated as the fraction of these reference deletions for which an intersecting deletion was identified by the method. This and Fig. 2B represent two complementary ways to estimate sensitivity. The reference in Fig. 2B is based on an individual genome (and therefore samples the universe of SV in an allele-frequency-weighted way); the reference here is based on a population of genomes (and therefore contains more low-frequency alleles). Not all methods were applied on all low-coverage genomes (Supplementary Table 1), accounting for some portion of the differences in sensitivity. "Release": release set; "Alg-only": algorithmcentric set.



**Supplementary Figure 5. Schematic of confidence interval and precision-aware approach for merging SV callsets**. Confidence intervals (yellow boxes) around each predicted breakpoint were determined for each callset specific variant (blue line) through comparison with assembled breakpoints (dashed red line). Calls without assembled breakpoints inherited the values derived from each of the respective callset-level assessments. Calls were merged if, and only if, confidence intervals around each breakpoint overlapped. Final breakpoints were assigned using coordinates of assembled breakpoints for a member call (if available) or by using the intersection of the overlapping confidence intervals (vertical red lines).



**Supplementary Figure 6. Size distribution of discovered SV classes in the Venter genome and our study.**  Length distributions were compared for both our deletion release set and the combined duplications/insertions set between Pang et al.<sup>11</sup> and our study. The figure also presents the length distributions for two individuals analyzed in our study – NA12156 sequenced at low-coverage and NA12878 sequenced at high-coverage – for direct comparison with the single genome examined in Pang et al. Of note, we identified more large (>5kb) deletions in the release set as well as the trio individual (NA12878) compared to Pang et al., potentially owing to the diversity of SV discovery methods we applied in the trio data and the resultant high sensitivity towards detecting deletions. By comparison, the low-coverage individual (NA12156) appears very similar to Pang et al. in terms of detecting deletions >5kb. Pang et al., however, identified more small deletions (<100bp) than our study; this may in part be due to boundary effects (i.e., some of our discovery methods removed deletions that seemed to be smaller than 50bp (an agreed-upon cutoff) based on a first pass analysis, and did not re-assess those candidates following breakpoint assembly). Furthermore, our study identified overall less insertions/duplications than Pang et al., although Pang et al. and our study appeared to have a similar sensitivity towards Alu (300bp) and LINE (6kb) insertion detection per individual genome.







**Supplementary Figure 8. Contribution of individual algorithms to deletion union release set.** The number of calls from each algorithm was tabulated on the basis of whether each prediction was the only supporting call for a deletion (single) or was one of multiple supporting calls from other algorithms (multiple). SV callsets from discovery methods that were applied to both the trio and low-coverage data were combined.



**Supplementary Figure 9. Microhomology length distributions from deletions with nucleotide breakpoint resolution.** Length distributions are displayed for microhomologies detected at nucleotide resolution breakpoints for (A) deletions and (B) insertions (relative to ancestral status) for events classified as transposable elements (red) or other (blue).



**Supplementary Figure 10. Principal component analysis of genotyped deletions.** 



**Supplementary Figure 11. Frequency and validation rate of union deletions across the size spectrum.** The high validation rate of small events is from the inclusion of primarily validated calls from call sets in that size range. SVs <50bp (leftmost bin in the figure) were excluded from the analyses reported in our study; an analysis of this variation class is reported elsewhere<sup>13</sup>.



**Supplementary Figure 12. Relative contributions of SV formation mechanisms in the genome.** (A) Numbers of SVs are displayed on the outer pie chart and affected base pairs on the inner pie chart. Left panel: SVs classified as deletions relative to ancestral loci. Right panel: SVs classified as insertions relative to ancestral loci. (B) Fraction of SVs originally identified as deletions relative to the reference genome, which we were unable to classify with respect to their respective ancestral locus. Numbers of SVs are displayed on the outer pie chart and affected base pairs on the inner pie chart.



**Supplementary Figure 13**. **Classification of SVs in terms of ancestral state.** (A) Size spectrum of deletions and insertions relative to ancestral sequence, inferred by aligning deletion breakpoint junctions onto primate genomes. SVs unclassifiable with respect to ancestral state (ambiguous ancestral state classification) are displayed in gray. (B) Formation mechanism size spectrum for SVs unclassified in terms of ancestral state (SVs unclassifiable with respect to formation mechanism are displayed in black.)



Mechanism relative to ancestral allele

**Supplementary Figure 14. Tandem duplication properties. a)** Breakpoint coordinate resolution for tandem duplications detected as insertions. RP detected events were matched by 50% reciprocal overlap to local assembled<sup>14</sup> tandem duplications (ASM) and split-read (SR) in the same data. RP event start and end residuals have a standard deviation of 10bp and an offset from 0 of 10bp to both ASM and SR positions. **b)** Tandem duplication lengths for events detected as deletions (red) and insertions (blue). Length sensitivity for deletions extends from 50bp to 300bp while insertion detection extends beyond 10kb. **c)** Pie chart of ancestral allele classifications for tandem duplications; "ins" refers to insertions relative to the ancestral allele, "del" to deletions, and 'unk' unknown. Both types are dominated by insertions of the duplication relative to the ancestor genome.



Fraction of Novel SV Calls



# Deletion Allele Frequency

Supplementary Figure 15. Fraction of novelty stratified by SV size and allelic frequency. Heatmap colors range from a low fraction observed to be novel (darker) to a high fraction (lighter). Black signifies no data for a particular bin. The numbers in each square indicate the total number of deletions falling into a particular size and frequency bin.

**Supplementary Table 1. Sequencing statistics for SV discovery.** For each sample, the median insert size was calculated by taking the mean of the median insert sizes of all sequencing files of this sample for either low coverage or trio data ("NA" indicates libraries sequenced by single ended sequencing). Sequence coverage was determined by taking the sum of the number of mapped bases in all alignment files divided by the accessible genome size (2.4G for low coverage and 2.3G for trio). For paired end sequencing, physical coverage was determined based on the number of mapped read-pairs multiplied with the median insert size and divided by the accessible genome size. (Physical coverage was set to sequence coverage for single ended sequencing.)





\*unpublished algorithms are described in detail in the Supplementary Information of the main 1000GP paper<sup>13</sup> # uses a population scale reference made up from multiple low coverage samples

Of note, not all SV discovery methods were applied across all genomes. For example, RP methods using the long (>1kb) insert sizes from the SOLiD or 454 platforms (abbreviated as RL in the main text) were applied to genomes for which such long insert size libraries were available.

#### **Supplementary Table 2B. SV discovery sets in trio sequencing data**



<u>(≤250bp); copy number (≤2.2)</u><br>\*unpublished algorithms are described in detail in the Supplementary Information of the main 1000GP paper<sup>13\*</sup> Of note, not all SV discovery methods were applied across all genomes. For example, RP methods using the long (>1kb) insert sizes from the SOLiD or 454 platforms (abbreviated as RL in the main text) were applied to genomes for which such long insert size libraries were available.

**Supplementary Table 3. Complete list of low coverage calls by institution and set.** This table contains the raw, unfiltered output from for each different discovery algorithms applied to the low coverage data set, as well as a summary tab describing various statistics. SVs <50bp were neither assessed by experimental validation nor included in our "release set".

**Supplementary Table 4. Complete list of trio calls by institution and set.** This table contains the raw, unfiltered output from for each different discovery algorithms applied to the trio data set, as well as a summary tab describing various statistics. SVs <50bp were neither assessed by experimental validation nor included in our "release set".

**Supplementary Table 5. Gold standard SV sets for NA12878 and NA12156 from 4 external and orthogonal data set**



**Supplementary Table 6A. Sensitivity in discovering deletions for different methods, assessed in NA12156(\*)**

(\*) Methods not used for SV discovery in this individual are not shown

#### **Supplementary Table 6B. Sensitivity in discovering deletions for different methods, assessed in NA12878(\*)**



(\*) Methods not used for SV discovery in this individual are not shown

**Supplementary Table 7. Summary of the SV Release Set and of the Algorithm-centric set.** "Single, FDR<10%" refers to SVs from individual callsets that met the predefined FDR threshold. The "validated" set includes the number of total calls validated for each data set. "Pairwise, FDR<10%" refers to SV calls meeting the predefined FDR threshold which were identified by a pairwise integration of distinct SV discovery methods (on the basis of callset intersection). The "release set" is made up of all non-redundant calls falling in the "single, FDR<10%" or "validated" sets. The "algorithm-centric set" is made up of all non-redundant calls falling in the "single, FDR<10%" or "pairwise, FDR<10%" sets. Note that the SV sets "single, FDR<10%", "validated", and "pairwise, FDR<10%" are obviously not mutually exclusive, *i.e.*, some SVs fall into all three sets.



(\*) Numbers in parenthesis indicate fraction of release set captured by algorithm-centric set

**Supplementary Table 8A. SV discovery method sensitivity in low-coverage data, assessed based on the combined gold standard set derived from individual NA12156 using different overlap criteria**



#### **Supplementary Table 8B. SV discovery method sensitivity in trio data, assessed based on the combined gold standard set derived from individual NA12878 using different overlap criteria** ٦

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**Supplementary Table 9. Functional analysis of deletions which overlap transcripts.** The set of CNV deletions was intersected with the Gencode v3 set of transcripts to assess their possible functional impact. For positive strand mRNAs, the CNV start and end positions correspond to left and right boundaries of a CNV deletion, respectively. For negative strand mRNAs, the start and end positions are reversed. "Functional regions" are classified according to their biological function as following (from the upstream to the downstream region of a transcript): upstream, promoter, 5'UTR, start\_codon, CDS, stop\_codon, 3'UTR, downstream. Note that start\_codon and stop\_codon are listed separately - the "CDS" category does not include start/stop codon. The length of promoter is set to 200 bp. "Splicing regions" are classified as "Exon" and "Non-exon", with "Exon" corresponding to exonic regions of the transcript that overlap with CNV deletions, and "Non-exon" corresponding to intronic and out-of-transcripts boundary regions that overlap with CNV deletions. "Function\_change" categories includes: Regulatory\_change (changes that only influence transcription and/or translation); Transcriptional\_change (changes that completely abolish transcription); Coding\_change (changes that influence encoded protein sequence or abolish protein production); and No\_effect (no changes in promoter or exons). "Type" categories include: In\_frame (no changes of reading frame); Out\_of\_frame (changes of reading frame); Truncation (truncation of the coding sequence); Elongation (elongation of the coding sequence due to Stop codon deletion); Loss (elimination of the entire transcript or encoded protein product); Promoter\_interrupted, 5'UTR\_interrupted, 3'UTR\_interrupted (removal of the parts of corresponding regions); Splice\_site\_deleted (removal of the part(s) of exon(s)); NA (not available).

#### **Supplementary Table 10. Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis for deletions overlapping protein coding regions.**

Gene ontology (GO) enrichment was performed using GOstat (Reference to GOstat) that searches for statistically under- and over-represented GO terms within the protein coding regions of deletions. Benjamini multiple testing was used and a p-value cutoff was set at 0.05. Those GO terms with hierarchy levels of 3 or higher for biological processes and molecular functions are recorded.

**Supplementary Table 11. Formation mechanisms and ancestral states of SVs inferred with the BreakSeq pipeline.**  NAHR: non-allelic homologous recombination events mediated by >50bp homologous sequences of >85% identity at the two breakpoints. VNTR: variable number of tandem repeats, where >50% of the SV region is annotated as simple repeats, satellite repeats, or low-complexity regions. MEI: mobile element insertion associated events, consistent with one or multiple transposable element insertion, mostly long and short interspersed elements (LINEs and SINEs) and combinations thereof; analysis includes assessment of target site duplications and a poly A tract at the 3' end. NH: non-homologous events, including non-homologous end-joining (NHEJ) and replication fork collapse-associated (FoSTeS/MMBIR). NAHR and MEI have a highconfident subset (if the corresponding sequence signatures are all present) and an extended subset of medium confidence (if some of the corresponding sequence signatures are missing) respectively. The extended subsets have a \_EXT suffix. All our analyses combined the higher and medium confidence callsets (trends reported in our paper were robust towards excluding the medium confident callsets).

**Supplementary Table 12. Formation mechanism inference with BreakSeq for deletions identified with different SV discovery methods.** These data were generated using SVs that either were validated by local targeted assembly (with TIGRA) or that by themselves represented experimentally validated nucleotide resolution calls (e.g. SR based calls). We formed the non-redundant union of calls made in low-coverage and trio data. Note that apart from the types of approaches used also the sequencing platform affected the propensity for detecting SVs from a certain formation mechanism class. For example, while Pindel was the SR method detecting most SVs, the Yale SR method operating with long (Roche) DNA reads detected more SVs associated with repetitive sequence (VNTR and NAHR).



<b>Type</b>	<b>Mechanism</b>	No. of Breakpoints	No. of overlapping <b>Breakpoints</b>	<b>Expected</b>	<b>Enrichment</b>	P-value	<b>Permutation</b> P-value
Recombination Hotspots	<b>NAHR</b>	6300	682	504.0	1.35	1.33E-15	5.16E-08
	<b>NH</b>	12238	1022	979.0	1.04	7.45E-02	4.52E-01
	<b>MEI</b>	7022	633	561.8	1.13	9.56E-04	6.32E-02
	<b>VNTR</b>	2970	262	237.6	1.10	4.77E-02	2.19E-01
Segmental Duplications	<b>NAHR</b>	6300	469	315.0	1.49	$3.11E - 17$	4.31E-02
	<b>NH</b>	12238	573	611.9	0.94	9.45E-01	1.08E-02
	<b>MEI</b>	7022	155	351.1	0.44	9.97E-01	2.50E-07
	<b>VNTR</b>	2970	322	148.5	2.17	1.00E-37	4.26E-04

**Supplementary Table 13. Enrichment of discovered union SVs near recombination hotspots and segmental duplication**

#### **Supplementary Table 14. List of identified putative mechanistic hotspots**



\**Near 22q13 deletion syndrome (chr2:49,392,382-49,534,710)*





(\*) no SVs discovered by the respective methods

Fields in the half matrix above indicate the inferred FDR for SV calls with evidence from two methods. Numbers in parentheses indicate the number of successfully PCR-validated calls.



(\*) no SVs discovered by the respective methods

Fields in the half matrix above indicate the inferred FDR for SV calls with evidence from two methods. Numbers in parentheses indicate the number of successfully validated calls (array-CGH or PCR). We required at least 30 successful validation experiments and an estimated FDR<10% to consider a particular combination of methods in our analysis framework.

**Supplementary Table 16. Effect of using subsets of deletion discovery methods along with the algorithm centric approach.** The 5 top algorithms for the low-coverage set were (in order): BI-PD, BC-RP, SI-RP, LI-SR, and SD-RD. The top 5 algorithms for the trio set were (in order): BC-RP, AB-RP, SI-RP, LI-SR, and YL-RD.



(\*) Numbers in parenthesis represent percentage of release set recapitulated

# **Supplementary Table 17. Fraction of call set contributions ordered by set size**



Supplementary Table 18. Summary of assembled breakpoints for deletion release set. The id column is linked to the ID field in the release VCF data set. The pos column indicates the reported breakpoint resolution coordinates for a particular deletion. The start and end columns list all assembled breakpoints associated for a particular deletion endpoint, stratified by approach type.

**Supplementary Table 19. Assessment of an enrichment of deletions intersecting with protein-coding sequences among highly differentiated deletions.** Note that the three highly differentiated full gene deletions all fall into the CCL3L1 / CCL3L3 locus on chromosome 17.



\*Fst >= 0.5 between two pairs of populations

**Supplementary Table 20. Overlap of partial or whole genotyped, coding region deletions with OMIM Morbid Map.** Coding regions were determined by comparing RefSeq genes with identified breakpoints (if available) or outer confidence intervals of genotyped deletions. These were then cross-linked with the OMIM Morbid Map database and the alternative allele and carrier frequencies were determined.

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