Supplementary Information

Quantifying RNA allelic ratios by microfluidics-based multiplex PCR and deep sequencing

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Supplementary Figure 1. The relationship between PCR cycle number and the uniformity of the multiplex PCR products.

(**a**) The read depth of individual amplicons in a 30 cycle multiplex PCR reaction. The number of reads was measured by deep sequencing of the 20 PCR amplicons using Illumina HiSeq. (**b**) The relative amount of three selected amplicons in PCR reactions with different cycles. The colors in panels **a** and **b** are matched. The quantification of the amount in the multiplex PCR products was described below. In brief, Ct values of the three amplicons $(Ct^{a_1}, Ct^{b_1}, Ct^{c_1})$ were obtained using multiplex PCR product as the templates. To compare the amount between different amplicons, control Ct values $(Ct^{a2}, Ct^{b2}, Ct^{c2})$ were obtained using equally mixed individual amplicons as the templates. Finally, the values $Ct^{a1} - Ct^{a2}$, $Ct^{b1} - Ct^{b2}$, $Ct^{c1} - Ct^{c2}$ were compared. (**c**) The relative amount of all 20 amplicons in the 40 cycle multiplex PCR. Data were obtained using the same method described in panel **b**. Note that, in panel **c**, the scale of y-axis is linear, unlike the exponential scale in panels **a** and **b**. For pool 1, all amplicons were within 4 fold; for pool 2, all amplicons were within 12 fold.

Read numbers are normalized to 1 million reads per sample. For 5-plex and 10-plex results, data from technical replicate 1 of 1 ug cDNA of the HBRR sample were shown here as a representative. For 10-plex preamplification result, data from technical replicate 1 of 50 ng cDNA of the HBRR sample was shown as a representative.

Supplementary Figure 3. The relationship between reproducibility of editing level measurement and the amount of input cDNA.

For each amount of input HBRR cDNA (indicated on top), we carried out three technical replicates. Pairwise comparison of editing levels was shown, with the Pearson coefficient also shown above the diagonal.

Supplementary Figure 4. The relationship between gene expression levels and the variation of RNA editing level measurement.

The x-axis is the expression levels of the genes (log2 FPKM) in which the RNA editing sites are located. The y-axis is the variation of measurement which represents by the difference of editing level measurement between two technical replicates shown in **Figure 1d**. Amounts of input cDNA are shown at the top right in each panel.

Supplementary Figure 5. Fold of amplication after the pre-amplification.

We pre-amplified 10 ng of input cDNA, and quantified the fold of amplification for the desired amplicons. We randomly selected 6 genes and carried out quantitative real time PCR using templates without (left) and with (right) pre-amplification. Each point represents a mean of two duplicate runs.

Supplementary Figure 6. The boxplot of the measurement variances between technical replicates.

For samples without preamplification, we used the two technical replicates shown in Figure 1d to calculate the variance. The amounts of input cDNA are indicated on the x-axis.

Supplementary Figure 7. Nucleotide composition in positions immediately upstream and downstream of the editing sites.

(**a**) known editing sites or (**b**) novel editing sites. The fractions of A, T, C, and G were shown for sites edited at different levels (\leq 5%, 5-20%, and \geq 20%). The control consists of all "A" nucleotides that are covered by mmPCR-seq reads and not edited in any samples tested in this work.

Supplementary Figure 8. Distribution of triplet nucleotide centering the edited adenosine.

(**a**) All RNA editing sites (known and novel) are separated in three groups based on the editing levels (indicated in different colors). The fractions of sites centered in each of 16 different triplets (NAN) are plotted. (**b**) RNA editing sites are separated into known site and novel site groups. Novel sites are further separated in three groups based on the editing levels. Known sites are not separated based on the editing levels because of the small total number.

Supplementary Figure 9. Family structure of the 16 individuals used in this study.

Square symbol represents male and round symbol represents female.

Supplementary Figure 10. Read depth distribution of the ASE amplicons.

We plotted the read depths of 787 sites detected in all 16 samples using the HiSeq data. Read numbers of amplicons were normalized to 4.7 million mapped reads per sample (the average number of mapped reads per sample).

Supplementary Figure 11. Comparison of the ASE site read depth between mmPCR-seq and RNA-seq.

The 787 ASE sites detected in all 16 samples in the mmPCR-seq assay were used.

Supplementary Figure 12. The uniformity of 960 ASE amplicons.

We carried out mmPCR-seq assays for 960 ASE sites with 10- and 20-plex primer sets. Data from individuals 12889 and 12892 are used as representative examples.

12889 12890 12891 12892 **CT CT CT CT** 12877 12878 **CT TT** 12884 12885 12887 12888 12893 12879 12880 12881 12882 12883 **TT CT TT** TT **TT TT TT TT CT TT** ╨ Ι $C:424$ $C:556$ All: 429 All: 564

Supplementary Figure 13. Monoallelic expression of paternal imprinted gene *ZDBF2*.

Genotype for SNP rs3732084 of each individual is indicated. For NA12881 and NA12893, the C allele is of paternal origin. The read number of C allele and the number of reads covered this SNP (All) are shown.

Supplementary Figure 14. ASE level comparison between MiSeq and HiSeq data.

Sites with >=100 reads in both MiSeq and HiSeq are used. The Pearson correlation coefficient (*R*) is 0.995 for all sites and 0.956 for heterozygous sites.

Supplementary Figure 15. The cumulative distribution of read depths from mmPCR-seq or RNA-seq.

RNA-seq (mmPCR site): the matched sites of mmPCR-seq; RNA-seq (transcript): all heterozygous SNPs in the same gene were combined to count coverage.

Supplementary Figure 16. Proportion of sites/genes with ASE effect among all heterozygous sites using mmPCR-seq or RNA-seq.

RNA-seq (mmPCR site): the matched sites of mmPCR-seq. RNA-seq (Transcript): all heterozygous SNPs in the same gene were used to call ASE.

Supplementary Figure 17. Correlation of ASE effect of IBD siblings among all heterozygous sites for genes with various expression levels.

The matched sites obtained from mmPCR-seq and RNA-seq data were used for analysis**.** Pearson correlation coefficient R^2 reflects degree of correlation between ASE effects among IBD siblings.

Supplementary Table 1. Summary of RNA editing mmPCR-seq experiments

Supplementary Table 2. Accuracy of mmPCR-seq using premixed templates with known allelic frequencies

^a A total number of 6 sites are used to calculate the average measured allelic frequency. Standard deviation was shown in parentheses.

b The number of template copies is an estimated amount in each of the 48 Fluidigm PCR reactions for each sample. This is based on the estimation that \sim 20% of the PCR template is loaded to the Fluidigm PCR reactors and the remaining 80% are lost in the microfluidic plumbing system (see **Supplementary Note 2**).

Supplementary Table 3. Summary of the optimized parameters of mmPCR experiments

***** Preamplification was performed in a 10 ul reaction. After preamplification, ~5% of the purified product was used for the microfluidic multiplex PCR.

Supplementary Table 4. Summary of ASE mmPCR-seq experiments

Supplementary Table 5. Reproducibility of ASE levels between technical replicates

The HiSeq data were used in the calculation. The Pearson correlation coefficient (R) is indicated.

RNA-seq

^a based on a pair of 35 nt primers for each site, at 6 cents per base (quoted by Invitrogen).

^b cDNA synthesis using iScript Advanced Kit with higher yield (quoted by Bio-Rad); including the cost of purification.

^c based on the cost of Fluidigm chip at \$450 and reagents at \$30 for one chip of 48 samples (\$480 total for 48 samples; \$10 per sample).

^d based on Illumina HiSeq 1x101 cycle cost at Stanford sequencing core faciltiy (~150 million reads, \$1,400 per lane) to achieve an average of ~1,000 reads/site/sample; pooling barcoded samples from other experiments may be needed.

^e based on Illumina TruSeq™ RNA Sample Prep Kit v2 (48rxn).

 f based on Illumina HiSeq paired end 2x101 cycle cost at Stanford sequencing core Facility (~150 million paired end reads, \$2,100 per lane); 4 barcoded samples are pooled in the same lane.

Supplementary Table 7. Datasets used for human RNA editing site collection

1. Human BodyMap 2.0 data from Illumina

2. Cabili, M.N. et al. Genes Dev 25, 1915-27 (2011).

3. Voineagu, I. et al. Nature 474, 380-4 (2011)

4. N. A. Twine, K. Janitz, M. R. Wilkins et al., PLoS One 6 (1), e16266 (2011).

Supplementary Table 8. Primer sequences used for barcode PCR and sequencing

Barcode sequences (8 bases long) follow instructions from Fluidigm.

Supplementary Table 9. RNA-seq data for the HBRR sample

1. G. Chen, K. Yin, L. Shi et al., PLoS One 6 (11), e28318 (2011).

2. J. H. Bullard, E. Purdom, K. D. Hansen et al., BMC bioinformatics 11, 94 (2010).

3. K. F. Au, H. Jiang, L. Lin et al., Nucleic acids research 38 (14), 4570 (2010).

Supplementary Note 1. Tuning PCR cycles for multiplex PCR using cDNA templates

We first examined the amplification uniformity using 30-cycle PCR for two pools of 10-plex primers. We chose 30 cycles following the manufacture's recommendation for the multiplex PCR polymerase we used (KAPA 2G, from Kapa Biosystems, Woburn, MA). We then added the adaptor sequences used by the Illumina sequencers to the PCR products via a second round of PCR and performed deep sequencing. An uneven amplification of fragments was observed: the read depth of different amplicons ranges from 1089 to 87513 in pool 1 and ranges from 5 to 97421 in pool 2 (**Supplementary Figure 1a**).

The recommendation from Kapa Biosystems is for using genomic DNA as the PCR template. Compared to genomic DNA samples which have equal starting material for different targeted regions, cDNA samples have a wide range of starting material for different targeted regions due to the wide spectrum of gene expression. Therefore, we examined the uniformity with higher PCR cycle numbers. We performed multiplex PCR with 30, 35, and 40 cycles. We used real-time PCR to quantify the uniformity of different amplicons, using the multiplex PCR product as the template. We first quantified 3 amplicons from pool 2, which had 7, 341 and 97421 reads in the 30-cycle deep sequencing experiment (**Supplementary Figure 1a**). A positive correlation between uniformity and PCR cycles was observed (**Supplementary Figure 1b**). We quantified all 20 amplicons from the 40-cycle PCR products and found more uniform amplification of all target fragments (**Supplementary Figure 1c**).

Supplementary Note 2. **Estimation of the quantity of cDNA template in the Fluidigm microfluidic reactions**

In the Fluidigm Access Array, it is estimated that \sim 20% of the PCR template is loaded into the 48 PCR reactors for each sample, and the remaining 80% is lost in the microfluidic plumbing system according to Fluidigm technical support. When we start with 1 ug of cDNA input for a sample, ~200 ng will be loaded to the 48 PCR reactors. Therefore, for each PCR reaction, ~4 ng of cDNA template was used.

Assuming that a cell has ~20 pg of total RNA, we would need 200 cells to achieve 4 ng of total RNA (which will be converted to 4 ng of cDNA assuming 100% efficiency in reverse transcription – we typically achieve >70% efficiency using Bio-Rad iScript). With 200 cells, even when a gene is transcribed into a single transcript per cell (which is considered to be extremely lowly expressed), we would have 200 transcripts for the gene.

The estimation above suggests why 1 ug of cDNAs is needed for an accurate measurement of allelic ratios for all sites, located in either highly or lowly expressed genes.

Supplementary Note 3. Determining the threshold of variant frequency to distinguish RNA editing events from sequencing errors

We found a large number of potential RNA editing sites surrounding the known sites using the deep sequencing data from mmPCR-seq. Many of them have low variant frequency, thus making it difficult to distinguish authentic RNA editing events from sequencing errors. To

determine the minimum variant frequency needed to distinguish real RNA editing events from sequencing errors in our platform, we carried out the following three analyses.

First, we analyzed two RNA samples with matched genomic DNA samples on the 240 editing site loci. We compared the density of A-to-G/T-to-C variants (defined as the number of the variants per 10 kb) observed between RNA and matched DNA (enrichment score) with different frequency cutoffs. As expected, the enrichment score increases with higher threshold of variant frequency (**Figure 2a**). With a 1.1% cutoff, we achieved an 11.6 fold enrichment, which would lead to an estimated false discovery rate of 8.6% for A-to-I editing events. Second, 88% of the RNA variants with a minimum of 1.1% level are A-to-G mismatches when annotated by known gene models, indicating A-to-I editing. Third, we examined 694 A-to-G mismatches with \geq 1.1% level present in both RNA samples and DNA samples. Almost all (98.6%) of the sites have significantly higher A-to-G frequencies in RNA samples, implying that they are true A-to-I RNA editing events (**Supplementary Data 3, Online Methods**). Taken together, these results suggest that we can distinguish A-to-I RNA editing events from sequencing errors using 1.1% as the frequency cutoff.

We also analyzed the mmPCR-seq data from 960 non-RNA-editing loci from 16 RNA samples (data generated for ASE analysis). With a 1.1% cutoff, we can only find an average of 10 A-to-G/T-to-C variants per 10 kb per sample, which is similar to the density of A-to-G/T-to-C varaints observed in DNA samples. Our results suggest the lack of many extremely low-level editing events in loci that do not contain a known RNA-editing site.

Notably, in the future experiments for the purpose of identifying novel RNA editing sites from mmPCR-seq alone, there will be no need to also sequence DNA of the selected loci. To distinguish novel RNA editing sites from false positives (presumably derived from sequencing and mapping errors), one can determine a minimal variant frequency threshold such that vast majority (often >80-90%) of the identified variants are A-to-G type. For example, requiring 80% of the variants being A-to-G would lead to a FDR at \sim 3% (using the background of G-to-A mismatches averaged at 2.4%, the false discovery rate at this cutoff is $2.4\%/80\% = 3\%$). In addition, using "spike-in" of a few sites that are known to be unedited (such as a subset of ASE loci) in the Fluidigm experiment may help estimate the FDR rate directly.

Supplementary Note 4. Testing RNA editing coupling and continuous probing hypotheses

It was previously hypothesized that A-to-I RNA editing is initiated by attracting ADARs to a principal site followed by the editing of nearby coupled sites. In this study, we deeply sequenced regions that contain or lack (see below) known RNA editing sites (often with moderate or high editing levels), thus allowing us to detect extremely lowly edited events. Indeed, we observed that a large number of low-level editing events were located around moderately and highly edited events (**Figures 2b and 2c, Supplementary Note 4**), consistent with the coupling hypothesis. In contrast, few editing sites were identified at loci that lack known RNA editing sites (**Supplementary Note 4**). Therefore, our results do not fully support the hypothesis that the continuous probing of the possible secondary structure of pre-mRNAs by ADAR may lead to many low-level A-to-I editing sites across the transcriptome.

Supplementary Note 5. **The reproducibility and uniformity of mmPCR-seq allelotyping assays for 960 ASE sites**

We carried out technical triplicates for each of the 16 samples in the mmPCR-seq assay. We assessed the reproducibility and uniformity of mmPCR-seq alleotyping using the Hiseq data. We found that the ASE levels were highly correlated between technical replicates for all samples measured (**Supplementary Table 5**). Therefore in the following analysis of this work, we combined all reads from technical replicates. A total of 784 sites can be detected in all samples. Of these sites, 92% were covered with $2^{10} \sim 2^{15}$ reads, within a 32-fold range (**Supplementary Figure**) **10**).

We next compared the read depth between mmPCR-seq and RNA-seq data. As expected, read depth of mmPCR-seq is not correlated with RNA-seq coverage. Compared to RNA-seq data, read depth from mmPCR-seq is more evenly distributed among sites (**Supplementary Figure 11**). To assess the PCR reaction complexity on uniformity, we also carried out 10-plex PCR by splitting each 20-plex reaction into two and similar uniformity was observed (**Supplementary Figure 12**), suggesting robust design of multiplex primers.

One selected SNP is located in the paternally imprinted gene *ZDBF2* (http://www.geneimprint.com/site/genes-by-species.Homo+sapiens.imprinted-All). As expected, from the mmPCR-seq data, we found that only the paternally allele is expressed (**Supplementary Figure 13**).

Supplementary Note 6. **ASE call in RNA-seq by combining multiple SNPs in the same gene**

One of the benefits of RNA-seq is that reads cover the whole transcript - consequently, when there are multiple SNPs in the same haplotype block, one can use data from all SNPs to call ASE. To investigate how this affects the ASE call, we performed two analyses. We first estimated the number of heterozygous SNPs that could potentially be combined per gene per individual (for each one of the 16 individuals assayed in this study). We found an average of 2.7 heterozygous SNPs per gene per individual, which leads to an average of \sim 2.7-fold increase of coverage compared to use of any single site (**Supplementary Figure 15**).

We next calculated the proportion of genes with ASE effect by combining all heterozygous SNPs in RNA-seq data. All heterozygous SNPs within a gene were combined to call ASE. We found that, compared to mmPCR-seq, RNA-seq still detected a substantially smaller fraction of ASE effects, especially in lowly or moderately expressed genes (**Supplementary Figure 16**).