Supplementary Information

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Supplementary Methods

- 1. Analysis of structural variations
- 1.1. Filtering of SV lists

To produce the final SV lists, we integrated the SVs from the three modules of OMSV.

Overlapping SVs of the same type were merged, with the size of the resulting SV estimated by the mean size of the merged SVs, and its span (i.e., the possible occurrence location) set as the union of the spans of the merged SVs.

Since some analyses were sensitive to false positives on the SV list, we performed additional filtering to the high-confidence list by removing the following SVs:

- SVs that overlapped complex regions at which alignments/assemblies could be unreliable. We compiled a list of 55 complex regions (Supplementary Data 3).
- SVs that overlapped unknown sequences on the reference (N-gaps) since these SVs were less reliable. Considering chromosomes 1-22, X and Y of hg38, there were 879 N-gaps, with a total size of 149,690,620 bp.
- SVs that overlapped fragile sites, DNA regions with close nicking sites on opposite strands, which could cause DNA double-strand breakage and wrongly detected as signals of SV.
- SVs that overlapped the pseudo-autosomal regions (PARs) on the X and Y chromosomes, since optical maps from these regions had a high chance of getting aligned incorrectly. In some recent large-scale population genomic studies, PARs were handled by excluding them³ or masking them on one of the sex chromosomes⁴. We followed the former strategy in this study.
- SVs that overlapped regions with super high density of nicking sites. There were three such genomic regions based on the *in silico* reference map, namely chr10:39687138- 39935168, chr12:34820121-37139973, and chr17:22754856-23194891. The average

density of nicking sites in each of these regions was larger than one site per 3 kb,

which increased the difficulty of alignment, assembly and subsequently SV detection. For both the high-confidence list and the full list, we kept only SVs larger than 2 kb to focus on large SVs in this study.

1.2. Definition of populations and super-populations

We adopted the same definitions of populations and super-populations from the 1000 Genomes Project^{$2,5$}, which included 26 populations grouped into 5 super- populations, namely AFR (Africans), AMR (Admixed Americans), EAS (East Asians), EUR (Europeans) and SAS (South Asians).

1.3. Validating SVs by 10x Genomics linked sequencing data

We produced 10x Genomics linked sequencing data for 13 samples evenly picked from 5 super-populations. SVs identified from optical mapping were validated by these linked sequencing data if it overlapped an SV called from the sequencing data, or if the flanking sequences supported the SV size.

Specifically, the linked sequencing data from each sample were assembled using Supernova 6 . The resulting contigs were compared to the reference sequence using nucmer from the Mummer package⁷. Segments of changes larger than 1 kb were collected as SVs. An SV identified from optical mapping was considered supported by an SV from linked sequencing if they overlapped and had the same type.

In the flanking sequence analysis (Supplementary Figure S7), for each SV identified from genome mapping, we extracted its flanking sequences on both sides in the reference genome and aligned them to the 10x Genomics contigs. If both flanking sequences could be aligned to the same contig, we compared the distance between them on the contig and the reference to determine whether the 10x Genomics data supported the SV. An SV was considered validated if the distance on the contig was at least 500 bp larger (resp. smaller)

than the reference for an insertion (resp. deletion). If one or both sequences could not be aligned to 10x Genomics contigs, or they could only be aligned to different contigs, we considered the SV not verifiable and did not consider it in the calculation of the supporting rate.

1.4. Analysis of SVs with different sizes in different populations

We performed an analysis of variance (ANOVA), taking each super-population as a group of samples, of the sizes of all *N* detected SVs. We selected SVs with a resulting *p*-value *<* 0*.*05*/N* (Bonferroni correction of threshold) and being called in at least 10 samples.

1.5. Analysis of SVs detected in Sudmant et al. (2015)² but do not overlap SVs on our high- confidence list

To study the SVs detected in Sudmant et al. (2015) that did not overlap the SVs on our highconfidence list, we classified them into the following categories:

- SVs found on our full list: These SVs could be identified by using less stringent settings of our pipeline.
- Remaining SVs that overlapped one of our filtered regions: Due to the filtering, these SVs could not be detected by our pipeline.
- Remaining SVs having sufficient (*≥*20) aligned optical maps that overlapped their loci in at least 75% of the samples: Due to the good depth of coverage, a legitimate SV could likely have been detected by our pipeline, and therefore the 1000 Genome calls could be false positives.

1.6. Analysis of specific and common SVs in different super-populations

We studied the ratios of SVs specific to a single super-population and shoes shared by multiple or all super-populations. To handle the issue of having different numbers of samples among different super-populations (e.g. 42 African samples and only 24 American samples), we sub-sampled each super-population to the number of samples of the super-population

with the fewest samples. The sub-sampling procedure was repeated 100 times with different random subsets of samples, and then we took the average of their results.

1.7. Principal component analysis of SV occurrence matrix

We constructed an SV occurrence matrix in which each row was a sample, each column was a high-confidence SV, and each entry was the allele count of an SV in a sample. Rare SVs that appeared in less than 5% of samples were removed. Samples with an SV count three standard deviations or more from the mean were also removed. To further eliminate the effect of SV count, we projected the samples onto the hyperplane orthogonal to the SV count. We performed this by adding the SV count vector as extra columns to the matrix before applying principal component analysis (PCA) and ignored the first principal component (PC). The second and third PCs were then reported as the real first and second PCs of the PCA.

1.8. Phylogenetic analysis of the 26 populations

In the phylogenetic analysis, we again removed rare SVs that appeared in less than 5% of samples from the high-confidence SV list. We then supplied these SVs and their zygosity in each sample to EIGENSOFT⁸ to estimate the F_{ST} statistic between each pair of populations. The resulting matrix of F_{ST} values was then used to reconstruct the phylogenetic tree by Neighbor Joining.

1.9. Saturation analysis of SVs

Based on the SVs identified from our samples, we performed a saturation analysis $9,10$ to predict the ultimate number of large SVs in human populations. We used the following saturation curve:

$$
y = a(1 - e^{-bx^c})
$$

where *a* denotes the ultimate number of SVs, *b* and *c* are constants to be determined from

curve fitting, and x is the number of samples. The derivative $y'(x)$ is the number of novel SVs that can be found by including one more sample when there are already x samples.

1.10. Comprehensive analyses of inversions

For the inversions, we identified 338 (out of 380) in the low-complexity regions, 31 of which were also identified by the 1000 Genomes Project. In addition, 72 of 99 inversions in the Sanders callset¹¹ that can be lifted over to hg38 overlap with our study, suggesting the specificity of our study (Supplementary Table 8-9). Among the remaining 27 inversions not found in our study, 12 of them were found to be close to N-gaps in hg38, making these inversions hard to call confidently, and the other 15 inversions have relatively low allele frequencies in the Sanders callset (average 0.25 for these inversions as compared to average 0.36 for the others) and a lower proportion of them can be found in the DGV database (33% for these inversions as compared to 81% for the others). These findings suggest them some of these inversions are rare or false positives.

We also explored possible population structures based on the complex structural variations. From the PCA based on the inversions, the African samples were separated from the others based on the first two PCs and showed a clear cluster in the heat map (Supplementary Figure S26). However, the other four super populations were not well separated, suggesting that few novel inversions have emerged in those populations. We also found some inversions identified from at least three samples to be specific to a single super-population, including 7 identified in African samples, 4 in East Asian samples and 1 in European samples.

2. Y chromosome analysis

2.1. Y chromosome assembly

Consensus maps generated from the Bionano IrysSolve *de novo* assembly pipeline were

aligned to the *in-silico* labeled reference map. Coordinates of the maps aligning to the Y chromosome were extracted and the overall sample coverage was computed along the chromosome. The Illumina callable regions (Supplementary Figure S22) were obtained from Poznik, et al.¹² and the genome coordinates were converted to hg38 using liftOver. Coordinates corresponding to the segmental duplications were downloaded using the UCSC Table Browser¹³ and repeats with greater than 95% match fraction were used for plotting.

2.2. Identifying SV candidates in the Y chromosome

A list of SV candidates was manually curated using the top ten samples with the longest molecule N50s and the highest genome-wide coverages. These samples have long assembled contigs that can be used to confidently locate non-reference alleles on the Y chromosome for downstream analysis. SV candidates from these ten samples were initially verified using single molecules. Insertions, deletions, and inversions that were located inside segmental duplications were tolerated as long as the SV candidates were within 150 kb to a unique anchor on at least one end. After determining the genomic locus of each SV, we genotyped all samples using one of the following two strategies depending on the SV type.

2.3. Insertion, deletion, and inversion analysis

To detect insertions, deletions, and inversions among all male samples, an *in silico* labeled representation of each haplotype was created in CMAP format using custom scripts that combined the flanking areas of the reference chromosome with areas of representative assembled contigs observed in our samples. For all haplotypes at a given locus, their CMAP representations were kept as consistent between one another as possible, i.e. containing the same flanking areas. For each locus, single molecules from each sample were used to determine which haplotype(s) the sample contained, as follows:

- 1) Using outputs from the standard Bionano *de novo* genome assembly pipeline, all of the single molecules that aligned to the local area of the reference genome were obtained.
- 2) The local molecules were re-aligned to a CMAP file containing each haplotype in the locus using OMBlastMapper from OMTools¹⁴ version 1.4a with the following parameters: --writeunmap false --alignmentjoinmode 1 --filtermode 1 --trimmode 1 -minconf 0 --minjoinscore 0 --maxalignitem 2.
- 3) The resulting alignment files were post-processed. First, the top two alignments for each molecule were compared to one another; if they received the same confidence or score, they were discarded. Otherwise, the best hit for each molecule was evaluated to see whether its alignment spanned the entire "critical region" (CR). These regions were defined as those that were unique to the target haplotype when compared to other haplotypes at the same locus, as well as being anchored in the flanking area(s) by at least four labels or 40 kb, whichever was longer. For inversions inside palindromes, two CRs are defined, one on each end. Molecules would only be required to span one CR. Due to the inherent noise of single molecules, indels were permitted in the alignment overlapping the CR as long as the size change due to the indel was smaller than 50 kb.
- 4) Molecule alignments were manually verified if a haplotype for a given sample was supported by only one or two molecules, or if less than 70% of the molecules supported the chosen haplotype. For these flagged cases, the alignment between the molecules and haplotypes were manually inspected in OMTools OMView.
- 2.4. Copy Number Variation analysis
- 1) For each sample, we identified and extracted local molecules that aligned to the CNV candidate locus based on the initial outputs from the standard Bionano *de novo* genome assembly pipeline.
- 2) We made a CMAP of only the unique region immediately adjacent to but not including the CNV. We then realigned all Y chromosome molecules to this CMAP with OMBlastMapper from the OMTools package to gather as many informative molecules as possible. The non-redundant molecules were appended to the initial list of aligned molecules from step 1.
- 3) All molecules from the list were aligned to the corresponding CMAP containing the CNV using OMBlastMapper with the following parameters: –alignmentjoinmode 1 – filtermode 1 –maxaligneditem 1 –trimmode 1 –overlapmergemode 0. Alignment output was filtered to keep molecules that were anchored to both ends of the CNV, and at least one anchor had to be unique.
- 4) Filtered alignment output was passed to the SVDetection program of the OMTools package. A minimum support of 1 molecule was used to identify the overall size change between the flanking anchors. If more than one size change was reported, the result with the highest number of molecule support was used for the copy number calculations. Since the repeat unit is 23 kb for both CNVs, we divided the overall size change by this number to obtain the final copy number.
- 5) We manually determined the copy number if the division ended within the range of 0.3 – 0.7. Otherwise, the numbers were rounded to the closest integers. If no molecule could anchor to both ends of a CNV site, the particular sample would be removed from downstream analysis.
- 3. Identification of novel genome content not found in the hg38 reference

Non-aligned contigs were gathered from all 154 genomes by comparing contig IDs that appeared in the final hg38-aligned XMAP file to the total assembled contigs. Contigs not appearing in the XMAP file were denoted as non-aligned contigs and *de novo* assembled using the Bionano IrysSolve assembly pipeline with default settings (pipeline version 4618). Assembly resulted in 42 contigs for a total summed length of 16 Mb. Contigs not participating in this assembly were all-against-all aligned with Bionano RefAligner using default parameters. Alignments were filtered by confidence score of 1e-11. The alignment output XMAP file was loaded into a python pandas dataframe (python version 3.6.0, pandas version 0.22.0) and grouped by query contig ID (column 2). All collapsed groups were intersected by shared contig IDs. Groups with one unique ID - in other words, groups with no additional alignment to other contigs - were removed from consideration. The remaining unique groups totaled ~46 Mb in summed length.

4. N-gap closing

4.1. Genome map data

N-gaps in the hg38 reference that were fully closed in our dataset were identified as follows. For every sample with genome map data, beginning with an alignment of the assembled genome map contigs to the reference produced by the *de novo* assembly pipeline (with parameters -res 2.9 -FP 0.6 -FN 0.06 -sf 0.20 -sd 0.0 -sr 0.01 -extend 1 -outlier 0.0001 endoutlier 0.001 -PVendoutlier -deltaX 12 -deltaY 12 -xmapchim 12 5000 -hashgen 5 7 2.4 1.5 0.05 5.0 1 1 3 -hash -hashdelta 50 10 -hashMultiMatch 100 10 -insertThreads 4 -nosplit 2 -biaswt 0 -T 1e-12 -S -1000 -indel -PVres 2 -rres 0.9 -MaxSE 0.5 -MinSF 0.15 -HSDrange 1.0 -outlierBC -outlierLambda 20.0 -outlierType1 0 -xmapUnique 12 -AlignRes 2. -outlierExtend 12 24 -Kmax 12 -resEstimate -f -MultiMatches 5 -MultiMatchesDelta 50.0), for each contig,

the chromosome with the highest alignment score was identified and all alignments for that contig to other chromosomes were discarded. Using Bedtools¹⁵ and custom Python scripts, reference N-gap regions were identified that were either completely spanned by a single alignment, or that were flanked on both sides by non-overlapping, adjacent, same-strand alignments from the same contig. To calculate gap size, the two labels flanking a given gap were identified, and gaps with alignments that did not involve those two labels were filtered out. To avoid ambiguous placement, contigs were filtered out if either of their gap-flanking labels were involved in more than one alignment. Contigs were also filtered if either of the gap-flanking labels were the last label of an alignment, since a single label was not sufficient to confidently anchor the alignment across the gap. Observed gap size was calculated as:

 $label$ distance_{contig} – label_distance_{reference} + reference_gap_size

where label distance is the distance between the two labels flanking the gap area in either the assembled contig or the reference.

4.2. 10x Genomics linked sequencing data

For every sample with 10x Genomics linked read data, samples were assembled using Supernova version 1.1 with default parameters, and both pseudohaplotypes were output. Each pseudohaplotype was aligned to the hg38 reference genome using nucmer from the MUMmer package⁷ with settings -maxmatch -l 100 -c 500, filtered using delta-filter -q, and further filtered and converted to a more parsable format using show-coords -Tcrodl -I 90. Using a combination of Bedtools commands and custom Python scripts, scaffolds were identified that aligned to at least 50% of both 5 kb regions flanking a given reference gap. Ambiguous alignments, e.g. cases where multiple areas of the scaffold aligned to the same area flanking a reference gap, were filtered out. Alignments to both flanking regions were required to be on the same strand of the scaffold and to be in orientation-appropriate order,

i.e. for plus-strand alignments, the scaffold region that aligned to the upstream reference region must be upstream of the scaffold region that aligned to the downstream reference region, although some overlap was allowed, as in the case of deletions involving repetitive content around the gap area. For cases where two separate alignments corresponded to the two flanking regions, the 10xG gap length was calculated as follows, for plus-strand alignments on the scaffold:

$$
(D_{qs} - U_{qe}) - (D_{rs} - U_{re}) + (G_{re} - G_{rs})
$$

or, for minus-strand alignments on the scaffold:

$$
(U_{qe} - D_{qs}) - (D_{rs} - U_{re}) + (G_{re} - G_{rs})
$$

where U and D are the upstream and downstream alignments with respect to the gap on the reference, respectively, q indicates a scaffold-based coordinate, r indicates a referencebased coordinate, and s and e indicate the start and end, i.e. the smallest and largest coordinates with respect to the reference, of the associated alignments.

For single alignments that spanned the entire gap on both sides, in order to precisely define the coordinates on the scaffold that corresponded to the gap region, the entire scaffold on which the alignment was found was re-aligned to the two 5 kb regions flanking the gap on the reference genome, using lastz¹⁶ with the parameters $-$ seed=match15 $-$ exact=50 $-$ nogapped --notransition --gfextend --chain --filter=nmatch:100 --filter=identity:95. Gap lengths were calculated as above, where $G_{\text{re}}=0$ and $G_{\text{rs}}=5000$.

For all alignments, in cases where the gap length was positive, the scaffold sequence that corresponded to the reference gap region was extracted and processed with RepeatMasker¹⁷ with parameters -species human -xm.

5. Sequence content of SVs

5.1. SV calls using linked-read sequence data

Sequence-based SV calling was done for 13 samples using two approaches: A) Linked reads were aligned to hg38 for phasing and variant calling using the 10x Genomics Long Ranger pipeline (v2.1, WGS analysis, using FreeBayes). The SV calls produced by this pipeline included mid-scale deletions (50 bp - 30 kb) and large-scale SVs (≥ 30 kb). B) *De novo* assemblies produced using the 10xG Supernova software 6 were aligned to hg38 using nucmer (MUMmer v3.23, -maxmatch -l 100 -c 500) of the Mummer package⁷. Assemblies were initially generated using Supernova v1.1. In the course of this study, Supernova v2.0 was released, and we used it to generate new assemblies for these samples. As we aimed to use this sequence data to analyze as many of the optical mapping SVs as possible, we chose to use both set of assemblies for this particular analysis. For each of the 13 samples, nucmer alignment delta files of both of the *de novo* pseudohaplotypes (outputs designated by Supernova as 2.1 and 2.2) were input to Assemblytics¹⁸ for SV calling, using minimum alignment lengths of 5 kb, 10 kb, 50 kb, 100 kb, 250 kb, and 1 Mb. Scaffolds were used rather than contigs because gaps in Supernova assemblies consist of a sequence of Ns roughly approximating the size of the gap.

5.2. Filtering the list of SVs found by optical mapping

10X Genomics compiled a 'blacklist' for SV calls, representing a set of regions in which SV calls are more likely to represent false positive or otherwise inaccurate SV calls. The regions in the suggested blacklist were derived from: 1) the UCSC browser gap track, including short arm gaps, heterochromatin gaps, telomere gaps, gaps between contigs in scaffolds and gaps between scaffolds in chromosome assemblies; 2) segmental duplications of >= 1Kb and

>=90% sequence identity between copies; and 3) regions with new sequences introduced in GRCh38 (hg19 diff track, UCSC browser)¹³.

SVs that were identified by optical mapping but were within 20 kb of a region on the blacklist were filtered out and not included in downstream analysis.

5.3. Locating SV breakpoints and their associated sequences

Deletion breakpoints identified by optical mapping were compared to deletion breakpoints identified in the same sample by Long Ranger and Assemblytics (including deletions, repeat contractions, and tandem contractions). Insertion breakpoints identified by optical mapping were compared to large duplications identified in the same sample by Long Ranger and to insertions, repeat expansions, and tandem expansions identified in the same sample by Assemblytics. Comparison and interval intersection was done using the bedtools¹⁵ package. Matching records were retained when at least a third of the SV size was supported by the complementary method. Up to a 20 kb difference between breakpoint positions was permitted in order to account for the lower resolution and potential local misalignments of the optical maps. Next, the SV call lists of the 13 samples were merged into a unified list such that each of the SVs that were found by optical mapping had only one entry, annotated by the best matching sequence-based SV call. Ranking of matched sequence-based SVs was based on SV size and type as classified by Long Ranger and Assemblytics, where deletions and insertions were ranked higher than tandem contractions and expansions, which were themselves ranked higher than repeat contractions and expansions.

After optical map SVs were annotated with more accurate breakpoints based on the sequence-based SV calls, the corresponding sequence was extracted from either the reference or *de novo* assemblies, in the case of deletions or insertions, respectively. If the sequence contained mainly Ns, it was recorded as 'N-gap'. To determine the repetitive

content of the SVs, we used RepeatMasker¹⁷ v4.0.7 (--species human --xsmall). Based on the results, SVs were assigned to content classes (SINEs, LINEs, LTR, DNA, satellites, simple, unclassified, or low) when at least 50% of the sequence was of the same repeat class. SVs were classified as 'combined' when the repeat content was > 50% but no single class contributed 50% or more to the sequence content. SVs with repeat content < 50% were classified as 'none' unless they were classified as tandem repeats by Assemblytics or as pseudogenes in downstream analysis (see below).

Sequences flanking the breakpoints of SVs were also processed to identify the involvement of repetitive elements. The regions 500 bp before and after each SV were analyzed using RepeatMasker. The flanking regions were assigned to the main repetitive classes listed above, with a minimum requirement of 100 bp per repeat type.

5.4. Identification of pseudogenes involved in SVs

To identify SVs that originated from retrotransposition activity but could not be classified by RepeatMasker, we also looked for processed pseudogenes¹⁹. We used the Pseudogenes annotation of the Retroposed Genes V9 UCSC browser track¹³ to identify pseudogene sequences from the reference that were deleted in the 13 samples. To identify insertions that were likely a result of a processed pseudogene retrotransposition event, we created a set of 40 bp chimeric sequences for every gene in the genome, composed of the last 20 bp of exon n and the first 20 bp of exon n+1 of the same gene. We aligned these sequences to the *de novo* assemblies using Bowtie 2²⁰ with a minimum alignment threshold of 17 matches out of 20 bp. To filter out hits from pseudogenes present in the reference genome, lastz¹⁶ was used to perform local alignment of the candidate pseudogene and its flanking sequence (spanning $2x$ the size of the pseudogene) to the reference. The EMBOSS 21 stretcher global alignment tool was used to align all candidate pseudogenes to their corresponding cDNA sequences to

determine the involved exons and removed introns, and candidates with low quality alignments (match sites <200 or similarity <90%) or without clear loss of introns (minimum of 90% of intron lost) were discarded. For additional filtering, anchor sequences (typically 30 kb upstream and 30 kb downstream, or 100 kb each when 30 kb was insufficient) flanking each of the candidate pseudogenes were aligned to the reference genome using BLASTn²². Any alignments larger than 500 bp were recorded and adjacent alignments of both anchors (distance <10 kb + size of pseudogene) were combined into one alignment. Candidate pseudogenes were filtered out if they were found to be present in the reference genome. Finally, EMBOSS stretcher was used to perform global alignment of candidate sequences and their flanking anchor sequences to the reference in order to verify the insertion location. The insertion location and size were then compared to insertions found by optical mapping in order to classify the optical map insertion calls as retrotransposition events.

Supplementary Figures

Supplementary Figure 1. Hybrid assembly of NA19440. Assembly based on genome maps and supernova scaffolds as aligned to hg38. Each colored block in the ideogram represents one assembled scaffold. Many of the scaffolds are long, with N50 of 25-35 Mb. Ideogram generated using PhenoGram1.

Supplementary Figure 2. Flowchart describing the process for classifying the genome into distinct categories and defining complex regions.

Supplementary Figure 3. Ideogram showing the locations of structural variants detected in the consensus assembly. The grey histogram above the chromosomes depicts the number of SVs detected in the consensus assembly using a sliding window of 1 Mb with a 10 kb step size. Chromosome fill shows the different regions classified in the genome, as in Figure 1. Red, structurally complex regions; blue, low individual assembly coverage; black, regions with long sequence- or nick-based gaps in the reference. For display purposes, both low coverage and gap regions were only displayed if they were longer than 500 kb.

Supplementary Figure 4. The three strategies used in identifying SVs. (a) Direct alignment of individual optical maps to the reference, (b) alignment of contigs assembled from individual optical maps to the reference, and (c) indirect alignment of individual optical maps to the reference by combining their alignments to the contig and the alignment of the contig to the reference. The red, yellow and gray horizontal bars represent the reference, individual optical maps and a contig, respectively. The small black and pink boxes represent nicking sites, and the gray dotted lines represent their alignments.

Supplementary Figure 5. Size distribution of structural variations found. The size distribution of deletions (orange) and insertions (blue) with minor allele frequency of at list 0.1 demonstrates a peak at ~6-7 kb, corresponding to LINE1 elements. The peak at around 2 kb is the result of the lowest size threshold used for SV calling (2 kb).

Supplementary Figure 6. The procedure for detecting complex SVs. Candidate complex SVs are identified from split-alignments. Optical maps that support each SV candidate and those that do not support it are collected to determine whether the SVs should be called or not. The red, yellow and gray horizontal bars represent the reference, individual molecules and a contig, respectively. The small black and pink boxes represent nicking sites, the gray dotted lines represent their alignments, and the black dashed-dotted lines indicate the rough location of an SV break point.

Supplementary Figure 7. Flanking sequence analysis based on 10xG data. For each indel, flanking sequences on the reference were extracted and aligned to the contigs assembled from linked sequencing data. If both sequences were aligned to the same contig, the distance between them would be compared with the distance on the reference to evaluate whether the indel is confirmed by the 10xG data. The indel loci would not covered by 10xG contigs if the two flanking sequences were not aligned to the same contig.

Supplementary Figure 8. Comparisons between SVs. (A) all filtered high-confidence indels, (B) filtered high-confidence deletions, and (C) filtered high-confidence insertions identified by genome mapping in this study and the ones identified by sequencing in Sudmant et al. $(2015)^2$ (1000 Genomes) based on the 13 samples having 10xG data in this study. Each bar shows the accumulated number of indels identified in the two studies that are directly supported (red and blue) by 10x Genomics linked sequencing data, not confirmed by 10xG contigs (light grey), or having the loci not covered by 10xG contigs (dark grey). Within each bar group, the first bar corresponds to the SVs identified in this study and the second bar corresponds to the SVs identified by Sudmant et al. (2015).

Supplementary Figure 9. Population structure of SVs. Each row and each column represents one population, and the color of each entry represents the similarity between the corresponding populations based on the filtered high-confidence indels. Super-population abbreviations: AFR - Africans; AMR - Americans; EAS - East Asians; EUR - Europeans; SAS - South Asians.

Supplementary Figure 10. Principal component analysis based on the indels occurrence matrix of the filtered high-confidence indels. Super-population abbreviations: AFR - Africans; AMR - Americans; EAS - East Asians; EUR - Europeans; SAS - South Asians.

Supplementary Figure 11. Population specificity of the size of indels. The two panels show examples of (A) an insertion, (B) a deletion. In each case, on the left are the alignments of some contigs from 154 samples to the reference map, and on the right is a box plot that indicates the SV size change with respect to the reference allele of the samples in different populations, with the outside vertical bars showing the frequencies of the alleles in each super-population. In the contig alignments, red horizontal bars show the reference, with the nicking sites marked in black vertical lines. Each yellow horizontal bar represents a contig, with the two aligned nicking site labels defining the SVs in blue, other aligned labels in pink, and unaligned labels in black. "I1" and "I2" are different insertion alleles, "D1" and "D2" are different deletion alleles, and "WT" is the wild type (reference).

Supplementary Figure 12. Population structure of large insertions and large deletions at three different levels. A,B) Super-population level: The average ratio of insertions (A)/deletions (B) identified from samples in each super-population that are specific to that super-population, shared with some other super-populations but not all, or shared with all other super-populations. Random sub-sampling has been applied to balance the sizes of super-populations. The reported values are the average of 100 random sub-samples. C,D) Population level: A phylogenetic tree constructed based on the insertion (C)/deletion (D) occurrence matrix. E,F) Single-sample level: The first two principal components of the insertion (E)/deletion (F) occurrence matrix based on super-population groups. Superpopulation abbreviations: AFR - Africans; AMR - Americans; EAS - East Asians; EUR - Europeans; SAS - South Asians.

Supplementary Figure 13. Copy number variation in the pepsinogen A gene. Multiple alignment was performed using all assembled OM contigs across the 26 populations at the pepsinogen A gene region. The variable region is flanked by consensus regions on both ends, and is colored to show the variable numbers of repetitive unit among individuals within each super-population.

Supplementary Figure 14. Reference alignment of assembled genome map contigs along 21p11.2 of hg38 showing extensive unaligned regions. Assembled contigs across the 26 populations with regions highlighted in yellow and green representing aligned and unaligned regions, respectively. Similarly, consensus labels in pink and black along the contigs represent aligned and unaligned signals, respectively. Blue arrows below indicate the previously reported sub-regions: C, F2, and E, with extensive unaligned regions (in green) interspersed, suggesting a highly complex population structure of this region.

Pattern distribution (D1/D2) in different ethnic groups 100 $\begin{array}{c}\n\Box & D2 \\
\Box & D1\n\end{array}$ 80 Percent of contigs 60 \overline{a} 20 \circ AFR AMR EAS EUR SAS Population $\mathsf C$ Pattern distribution (F1/F2) in different ethnic groups 100 80

Supplementary Figure 15. Population pattern of alternative haplotypes found in 21p11.2. Distribution of different pairs of haplotypes in each sub-region were shown: (A) B1/B2, (B) D1/D2, and (C) F1/F2.

Supplementary Figure 16. Shared non-reference-aligned content with an hg38 alternative sequence and two primate sequences. In (A), non-aligned content (yellow) aligned well with *in silico* nicked chr6_GL000251v2_alt hg38 sequence, which was an alternative sequence of polymorphic MHC class II genes. The chr6_GL000251v2_alt sequence track indicated instances of sequence identity differences (white gaps) compared to the chromosome 6 hg38 reference sequence. Non-aligned content aligned with the alternative sequence, indicating polymorphism with the reference. In (B), *in silico* nicked *Pan paniscus* and *Pan troglodytes* chromosome 13 sequences aligned with non-reference-aligned content. Non-reference content may be contained within non-aligned segments of partiallyaligned maps in other genomes, allowing confirmation of maps which should be present in the reference. Hg38 chromosome 13 sequence contained two 50-kb N-gaps, while primate chromosome 13 maps (blue) contained labels in the gaps (red box). The NA19238 partial map, coupled with primate maps, which are highly identical to the hg38 non-gap sequence, indicated our non-reference content as localizing to hg38 chromosome 13 reference gaps.

Supplementary Figure 17. Comparison between lengths of reference gaps closed in genome map assemblies (y-axis) and their estimated lengths in the reference genome (x-axis). Each point represents a gap, with size and color representing the number of contigs in which that gap was closed. The diagonal line depicts a linear regression (R^2 =0.3).

Supplementary Figure 18. Comparison between median lengths of reference gaps closed in 10X assemblies (y-axis) and genome map assemblies (x-axis). Each point represents a gap, with the color representing the estimated length of the gap in the reference genome. The diagonal line depicts a linear regression $(R^2=0.56)$.

Supplementary Figure 19. Main transposable elements and other sequence repeats found in SVs. SVs were partitioned into sub groups based on their sequence content, when at least 50% of the sequence is of the same repeat class ('none' – SVs with repeat content < 50%, 'combined' – repeat content > 50% but no single class contribute 50% or more to the sequence content)

Supplementary Figure 20. Repetitive sequence distribution. As found by RepeatMasker in (A) deletions; (B) insertions; (C) deletion flanking regions; and (D) insertion flanking regions.

Supplementary Figure 21. Repetitive DNA found in SV flanking regions. A. Percentage of SVs with LINE, SINE, LTR, DNA transposons and other repeats near the SV start and/or end, and B. Percentage of SVs with specific TE combinations near start and end positions.

Supplementary Figure 22. Y chromosome assembly overview. The blue histogram above the Y chromosome illustrates the number of male samples whose assemblies aligned to the Y chromosome reference. The chromosome color scheme shows the different properties of the Y chromosome. Salmon, regions of the chromosome where Illumina can access and make variant calls unambiguously; grey, segmental duplications with at least 95% similarity between blocks; black, regions with long sequence- or nick-based gaps in the reference. The variably sized block of heterochromatin on the q arm is not shown in the diagram.

Supplementary Figure 24. Combinations of copy number variations in the Y chromosome. Stacked bar plot showing the different combinations of CNVs found in this study cohort. The x-axis labels show the copy number of CNV 1 (bottom) and CNV 2 (top).

A. Optical maps

B. 1000 Genomes

Supplementary Figure 25. Saturation analysis of SVs. The y-axis shows the number of SVs identified if only a given number of samples (specified by the x-axis) are included (A) in this study and (B) in Sudmant et al. $(2015)^2$, based on the 144 samples commonly studied.

Supplementary Figure 26. Population structure of complex SVs. (A,C,E) The first two principal components of the SV occurrence matrix based on only inversions (A), only loci with multiple indels (C) and only other complex SVs (E). (B,D,F) Heatmaps showing the similarity between different samples based on only inversions (B), only loci with multiple indels (D) and only other complex SVs (F). Super-population abbreviations: AFR - Africans; AMR - Americans; EAS - East Asians; EUR - Europeans; SAS - South Asians.

Supplementary Figure 27. Complete multi-study Venn diagrams. (A) deletions and (B) insertions. Since one SV in a call set can be verified by multiple SVs in another call set (vise versa), we take the average values for the intersection areas with multiple numbers.

Supplementary Tables

Supplementary Table 1. Summary of hybrid assembly data of individual samples.

* Including Supernova scaffolds that did not contribute to the hybrid assembly

Supplementary Table 2. Validation of SVs identified in the low-complexity regions of the human genome.

Supplementary Table 3. Concordance rate of SVs identified from 4 family trios

Supplementary Table 4. GWAS entries in analysed CNV regions.

Supplementary Table 5. List of non-aligned human genome content mapped to non-human primates.

Supplementary Table 6. Reference gaps closed with genome

Supplementary Table 7. List of structural variations found in the human Y chromosome.

Supplementary Table 8. Y chromosome CNV statistics of individual male samples.

Supplementary Table 9: Comparative analysis of inversions with the Strand-seq callset

Supplementary Table 10: Case studies of strand-seq inversions (lifted over from hg19 to hg38)

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