Third generation sequencing revises the molecular karyotype for *Toxoplasma gondii* and identifies

emerging copy number variants in sexual recombinants.

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ABSTRACT

Toxoplasma gondii is an obligate intracellular parasite that has a significant impact on

human health, especially in the immunocompromised. This parasite is also a useful genetic

model for intracellular parasitism given its ease of culture in the laboratory and relevant animal

models. However, as for many other eukaryotes, the *T. gondii* genome is incomplete, containing

hundreds of sequence gaps due to the presence of repetitive and/or uncloneable sequences

that prevent complete telomere-to-telomere de novo chromosome assembly. Here, we report

the first use of single molecule DNA sequencing to generate near complete de novo genome

assemblies for *T. gondii* and its near relative, *N. caninum*. Using the Oxford Nanopore Minion

platform, we dramatically improved the contiguity of the *T. gondii* genome (N50 of ~6.6Mb) and

increased overall assembled sequence compared to current reference sequences by ~2 Mb.

Multiple complete chromosomes were fully assembled as evidenced by clear telomeric repeats

on the end of each contig. Interestingly, for all of the *Toxoplasma gondii* strains that we

sequenced (RH, CTG, II×III F1 progeny clones CL13, S27, S21, and S26), the largest contig

ranged in size between 11.9 and 12.1 Mb in size, which is larger than any previously reported *T.*

gondii chromosome. This was due to a repeatable and consistent fusion of chromosomes VIIb

and VIII. These data were further validated by mapping existing *T. gondii* ME49 Hi-C data to our

assembly, providing parallel lines of evidence that the *T. gondii* karyotype consists of 13, rather

than 14, chromosomes. In addition revising the molecular karyotype we were also able to

resolve hundreds of repeats derived from both coding and non-coding tandem sequence

expansions. For well-known host-targeting effector loci like rhoptry protein 5 (ROP5) and

ROP38, we were also able to accurately determine the precise gene count, order and

orientation using established assembly approaches and the most likely primary sequence of

each using our own assembly correction scripts tailored to correcting homopolymeric run errors

in tandem sequence arrays. Finally, when we compared the *T. gondii* and *N. caninum*

assemblies we found that while the 13 chromosome karyotype was conserved, we determined

that previously unidentified large scale translocation events occurred in *T. gondii* and *N.*

caninum since their most recent common ancestry.

INTRODUCTION

Toxoplasma gondii and its Apicomplexan relatives are highly successful animal pathogens, infecting a wide variety of warm-blooded animals including humans and domesticated animals. *T. gondii* infection can lead to severe toxoplasmosis in immunocompromised individuals and in congenitally-infected fetuses (Joynson and Wreghitt 2005), and is a leading cause of blindness due to its ability to infect the eye causing ocular toxoplasmosis (Jones and Holland 2010). *T. gondii* belongs to the phylum Apicomplexa, a large group of animal and human pathogens including *Neospora*, *Eimeria*, *Plasmodium* and *Cryptosporidium*. The ease of genetic manipulation, accessibility to cellular and biochemical experiments, and well-established animal model make *T. gondii* an important system for studying the biology of Apicomplexans (Kim and Weiss 2004). Genomic analysis tools for this organism have been under development for decades. Data housed at ToxoDB.org, the primary genomic repository for *T. gondii* genome-wide data, presently includes sequence, *de novo* assemblies and annotation of multiple *T. gondii* genomes, next-generation sequence data for an additional 60 *T. gondii* genomes, as well as draft assemblies for both *Hammondia hammondi* and *Neospora caninum* (Lorenzi *et al.* 2016a).

Availability of a complete reference genome that contains accurate representations of all small- or large-scale structural variants is essential to have a better understanding of gene content, genotype-phenotype relationships, and the evolution of unique traits in parasites of humans and other animals. However, like all eukaryotic genomes, a substantial part of the *T. gondii* genome consists of repetitive elements (Matrajt *et al.* 1999), making gap-free *de novo* assembly impossible using standard 1st or 2nd generation sequencing approaches. Even with exceptionally high coverage, these approaches fail to resolve repetitive regions or complex structural variants with repeat units that are larger than the size of the individual reads. Three of the *T. gondii* reference genomes in ToxoDB (Gajria *et al.* 2008) were constructed by combining high quality 1st generation Sanger (Sanger *et al.* 1977) and 2nd generation 454 (Roche Applied

Science) sequence data, yet these genomes still have hundreds of sequence gaps of unknown

sequence content and length. Assembly gaps typically mask repetitive regions which can

contain previously unknown protein-coding genes, additional copies of genes found in tandem

gene arrays, and in some cases, they may also lead to incorrect predictions of chromosomal

structure. This problem is not unique to *T. gondii* and other apicomplexan genomes. For

example, all versions of the human genome have thousands of gaps due to incorrect assembly

of repetitive sequence (Vollger *et al.* 2019), including assemblies generated recently using new

sequencing technologies like those applied here.

In recent years single molecule sequencing approaches (developed by Oxford Nanopore

and PacBio) have revolutionized *de novo* sequence assembly by enabling high-throughput

generation of kilobase-sized sequence reads. These approaches have allowed for resolution of

the vast majority of repeat-driven sequence assembly gaps, the detection and assembly of

previously intractable structural variants with species, and when combined with 2nd generation

sequencing data can be used to generate near-complete *de novo* genome assemblies with high

(>99%) nucleotide accuracy. Indeed, whole genome assemblies of several organisms including

bacteria (Madoui *et al.* 2015; Fournier *et al.* 2017; Diaz-Viraque *et al.* 2018), parasites (Lapp *et*

al. 2018), plants (Schmidt *et al.* 2017; Michael *et al.* 2018), and mammals (Jain *et al.* 2018)

using a such a hybrid approach have been reported, generating assemblies of unprecedented

contiguity. Here, we apply Oxford Nanopore sequencing and de novo assembly using the

Minion Platform to multiple isolates of *T. gondii*, F1 progeny of a cross between two canonical *T.*

gondii strains, and one of its nearest extant relatives, *Neospora caninum*. Using these data, we

have generated mostly gap-free, telomere-to-telomere assemblies for the majority of the *T.*

gondii chromosomes from each sequenced isolate and/or species. These assemblies revise the

molecular karyotype for *T. gondii*, formally establishing that this parasite has 13, rather than 14,

chromosomes. This result was confirmed by Hi-C sequencing technologies as described

previously (Bunnik *et al.* 2019).This karyotype is conserved across all *T. gondii* parasite strains

that we sequenced, and is also conserved in *N. caninum*. Our new assemblies have also

resolved copy number estimates at simple- and complex repetitive loci, including multiple

tandem gene arrays harboring known host-targeting effector genes. Moreover, by directly

assembling genomes from multiple F1 progeny experimental crosses, we have determined for

the first time that changes in gene copy number occur during sexual recombination, and that

this occurs frequently at some *T. gondii* loci (like the ROP5 locus) and infrequently at others

(like the MAF1 locus), and may explain some of the differences in pathogenicity between *T.*

gondii strains. Finally, our *de novo* assembly of the *N. caninum* Liverpool genome shows that

the current draft assembly of this organism dramatically overestimates chromosome-level

synteny with *T. gondii*. This discovery is also corroborated in multiple *N. caninum* strains in a

companion paper (See cover letter for details on co-submitted manuscript).

RESULTS

De novo* assembly of *Tg*RH88 genome using nanopore reads revises the *T. gondii

karyotype

The majority of the *T. gondii* isolates collected from North America and Europe belong to three

predominant clonal lineages, types I, II, and III (Sibley and Ajioka 2008) and RH strain is a

representative strain of the type I lineage (Pfefferkorn and Pfefferkorn 1976). While RH strain

shows some unique phenotypes including higher growth rate *in vitro* and inability to form cysts

(Villard *et al.* 1997; Khan *et al.* 2009) and is most frequently used in *T. gondii* studies, a

complete *de novo* assembly for *Tg*RH genome is lacking. Therefore, our initial efforts were to

use long read single molecule sequencing to generate a more complete *Tg*RH88 assembly.

To take advantage of the long-read technology, high-molecular weight genomic DNA of

*Tg*RH88 strain was extracted using an optimized protocol which was originally designed for

extraction of gram-negative bacteria and mammalian cell DNA (Quick 2018). This protocol

included a phenol-chloroform-isoamyl alcohol extraction followed by ethanol precipitation, and

the use of large bore pipette tips for all manipulations (see Materials and Methods). For

TgRH88, we obtained 24 µg of genomic DNA from 2×10^8 tachyzoites, and 400 ng was used for

MinION sequencing. A 48-hour sequencing run on a single flow cell yielded 648,491 reads

containing 7.40 Gb of sequences for *Tg*RH88 genome. Assuming a 65 Mb *T. gondii* genome

size, these reads represented a genome coverage of ~114×. While more detailed sequence

metrics are described below, the sequence reads we obtained robustly aligned to the TgGT1

reference genome found at ToxoDB.org (**Figure 1A**).

Figure 1. Primary de novo assembly of TgRH88 genome using nanopore
reads revises T. gondii karyotype. *(A) Bivariate plot showing a comparison*
of the aligned read length with the sequencing read length. (B) Bivariate plot
showing a comparison of the aligned corrected read length (log10
transformed) with the percent identity. In this case corrected reads refer to the

Before assembly, Canu v1.7.1 corrected all reads > 1000 bp, and after alignment we found

that 99.97% of the corrected *Tg*RH88 reads could be mapped to the ToxoDB-48_*Tg*GT1

reference genome, and the mean percent identity was 92.9% (**Figure 1B**). The resulting Canu-

corrected reads were subjected to *de novo* assembly using Canu v1.7.1, which yielded a

*Tg*RH88 primary assembly with a size of 64.40 Mb. The assembly consisted of 23 contigs and 6

of them contained telomeric repeat sequences (TTTAGGG or CCCTAAA) on at least one end.

Interestingly, by aligning the *Tg*RH88 assembly sequences to the ToxoDB-48_*Tg*GT1 reference

genome, we noticed that the sequences annotated as chrVIIb and chrVIII were parts of a single

contig in our *Tg*RH88 assembly (TgRH88_tig00000001; **Figure 1C**). This contig, which was

11.93 Mb in length, was longer than any previously reported *T. gondii* chromosome, and

suggested to us that *T. gondii* consists of 13 (instead of 14) chromosomes, with the chrVIIb and

chrVIII being actually a single chromosome. Given that prior work using Hi-C chromosome

conformation capture sequencing suggested a similar fusion between chromosomes VIIb and

VIII (Bunnik *et al.* 2019), we mapped the Hi-C reads from that study onto our TgRH88 de novo

assembly to determine if it has similar contact counts. As shown in **Figure 1D** the Hi-C data

identified the position of 13, rather than 14, interchromosomal contact points (representing

centromeres; (Bunnik *et al.* 2019)) and an intrachromosomal contact map across

TgRH88tig00000001 indicating that this did indeed represent a single contiguous chromosome

(**Figure 1E**). These findings provide direct assembly-based evidence that sequence fragments

previously referred to as distinct chromosomes (VIIb and VIII) were in fact two parts of the same

chromosome. We have named this contig TgRH88_tig00000001_chrVIII.

The RH strain is one of the most commonly used laboratory strains given its genetic

tractability and robust *in vitro* growth characteristics (Saeij *et al.* 2005), but at the genomic level

this strain has been subject to much less formal annotation compared to strain types GT-1,

ME49 and VEG. However, we did identify two additional RH strain de novo assemblies in

Genbank, one generated using Illumina technology (Lau *et al.* 2016); Genbank BioProject

PRJNA294483) and the other using single-molecule long read sequencing using PacBio RS

technology (BioProject PRJNA279557). As expected, our Nanopore and the PacBio RS

assembly were more contiguous than the de novo Illumina assembly, having similar contig N50

values (6.7 Mb for both; **Figure 2A**) and both predicting the ~12 Mb chromosome VIII. Moreover

total size of the predicted nuclear-encoded genomes in each assembly differ by only 0.8% (a

raw difference of 513,977 bp of additional sequence present in the Nanopore assembly;

discussed further below). Despite this congruence of the two long-read assemblies, the most

striking observed difference between them is the total number of contigs (23 vs. 203,

respectively) in each of the final assemblies (prior to scaffolding; **Figure 2A**). Based on Nucmer

alignments, ~362 Kb of this unplaced sequence is shared between the two assemblies, while

the remaining sequences (~70 and 2700 Kb for the Nanopore and PacBio RH assemblies,

respectively) were unshared. We also used blast to identify contigs harboring what appeared to

be sequence derived from either of the two organellar genomes of *T. gondii*, the apicoplast and

the mitochondrion and compared them to the other existing RH assemblies (Figure 2A). One

contig ~35 Kb in size from each assembly was derived from the plastid genome, which is the

expected size for this organellar genome (Lorenzi *et al.* 2016b). For the mitochondrial genome,

we identified two non-chromosomal contigs of ~15 Kb in size in our assembly that likely

harbored at least fragments of this genome (Figure 2A), while there were no contigs in the other

RH assemblies with any resemblance to a mitochondrial genome. It is likely that this is due to

pre-filtering genome assemblies prior to submission to genbank to eliminate mitochondrial

sequences. However for all of our Nanopore assemblies presented here and submitted to

genbank, we have annotated all putative mitochondrial genome contigs with the

"location=mitochondria" tag so that they would pass the filters in Genbank. However given the

complexities of the mitochondrial genome and its assembly for *T. gondii* (as evidenced by

recent work from the Kissinger group;

https://www.biorxiv.org/content/10.1101/2020.05.16.099366v1), we did not perform any

extensive analyses of these sequences.

To further compare our assembly to the two existing RH88 de novo assemblies we

compared them using Mummer (Delcher *et al.* 2003) and Tandem Repeats Finder (Benson

1999). While complete chromosomes aligned with high synteny between the Nanopore and

PacBio assemblies (Figure 2B), chromosomes in the Illumina only RH assembly were

distributed across multiple scaffolds (e.g., see TgRH88 Chromosome IV; Figure 2B). Given that

long read sequencing technologies improve sequence contiguity across tandem repeats

compared to shorter read technologies like Illumina (especially at tandem repeats that are

longer than the typical Illumina read), we mapped all tandem repeats with periods greater than

500 bp as well as select known repeats in the RH assemblies and mapped them along with

nucmer-generated pairwise sequence alignments for chromosomes IV and VI (Figure 2C). For

chromosome IV, the most striking difference between the long read assemblies and that

generated using Illumina is the expanded assembly at the locus harboring the well-

characterized 529 bp repeat (Figure 2C, top). We also found that loci harboring select tandem

repeat genes (e.g., TGME49_318130 and TGME49_319090) were also expanded in the long-

read *T. gondii* chromosome IV assemblies compared to that generated using solely Illumina

sequences. Alignments for *T. gondii* chromosome VI are also shown in figure 2C, in this case

between just the long read assemblies to illustrate differences and similarities. In multiple cases

the subtelomeric repeat sequences SAT350 and TGR4 were found in larger arrays in the

Nanopore assembly, as was the case for the known tandem rhoptry gene array encoding

ROP38. In contrast gene TGME49_240310 was found in a larger array in the PacBio assembly.

Overall these data indicate the utility of long read sequencing for resolving complex tandem

repeats in *T. gondii*, especially those that are larger than typical 1st or 2nd generation sequence

reads. Moreover with a few minor exceptions both existing long-read sequencing technologies

give similar results for the size and complexity of these repeats, and results in remarkably

similar estimates for nuclear chromosome and plastid genome sizes.

A

	*Tg*RH88 Nanopore Hybrid	TgRH88 PacBio Hybrid	TgRH Illumina
# contigs	23[1]	203[2]	2,648[3]
Total bases (bp)	64,918,878	67,055,676	69,349,265
Maximum contig length (bp)	12,055,564	12,055,564	5,672,850
Contig length N50 (bp)	6,778,623	6,690,982	64,945
Plastid genome length(s)[4]	34,855	35,031	29,462
Mitochondrial genome length(s)[4]	16,985; 15,838	Unknown	Unknown

[1]20 contigs, 1 scaffold; [2]193 contigs, 4 scaffolds containing 6 contigs total. [3]Contigs arrayed into 441 Scaffolds; [4]Based on homology searches using *T. gondii* mitochondrial or plastid genome sequences.

Figure 2: Comparisons between the current Nanopore assembly of T. gondii strain RH88
and an existing long read (using PacBio RS and Illumina technology) and short read
(Illumina only) assemblies. *A) Assembly statistics for each. B) Circos plot of Nucmer pairwise*
alignments across all 3 assemblies for T. gondii chromosome IV. All alignments > 10000 bp
and > 90% identity are shown. C) Pairwise alignments for chromosomes IV (top) and VI
(bottom) along with locations of select tandem repeats identified either de novo (orange or blue
bars on the chromosome scaffolds) or known from prior studies (above or below chromosome
scaffolds). For T. gondii chromosome IV comparisons to both the PacBio and Illumina
assemblies are shown, while only the long-read comparison is shown for T. gondii chromosome
VI.
244

Nanopore read quality assessment and *de novo* genome assembly statistics

To determine whether the chr VIIb/VIII fusion was unique to TgRH88 or was also present in

other isolates, we sequenced and assembled genomes of *Tg*ME49, *Tg*CTG, *Tg*ME49×*Tg*CTG

F1 progeny (CL13, S27, S21, S26, and D3X1), and *N. caninum* Liverpool strain (**Table 1**) by

performing 6 MinION runs with 6 R9.4.1 flow cells. On average, a single flow cell yielded

approximately 600,000 reads containing more than 7.8 Gb of sequences over a 48-hour run,

and for each strain, total yield varied from 0.6 Gb to 7.4 Gb (**Table S2**). The read length N50s

(the sequence length of the shortest read at half of the total bases) were longer than 18 Kb, and

the maximum read lengths varied between 116 Kb and 266 Kb (**Table S2**). The average Phred

quality scores (a measure of the quality of the base-call, representing the estimated probability

of an error (Ewing and Green 1998; Ewing *et al.* 1998)) for all libraries were ~10.0, except for

the *Tg*RH88 library, whose average Phred score was 8.9 (**Table S2**). Aligning the reads against

their most relevant "Reference" genome in ToxoDB (based on species and then closest

genotype) revealed that 96% of the *T. gondii* reads and 85% of the *N. caninum* reads could be

mapped, with a mean percent identity of ~86% (**Table S2**). After reads were corrected using

error-correction in Canu, 99% of the *T. gondii* reads and 98.07% of the *N. caninum* reads could

be mapped to their reference genomes, and the mean percent identities were ~95% (**Table S3**).

This first round of error correction (based on alignment and overlap between Nanopore reads as

implemented in Canu; (Koren *et al.* 2017)) was sufficient for making conclusions about

previously unappreciated structural variation within and between species.

The primary assemblies had a median number of contigs of 38.5 for the *T. gondii* strains

and 58 for the *N. caninum* Liverpool strain (**Table S4**). The median assembly size of the *T.*

gondii strains was 64 Mb, with a median contig length N50 of 6.63 Mb, and a median L50 of 4

(**Table S4**). The *N. caninum* primary assembly had a size of 61.8 Mb, with a contig N50 size of

6.38 Mb and an L50 of 4 (**Table S4**). Depending on the strain, contigs containing plastid

genome sequence ranged in size from 8 Kb to 214 Kb (Table 2), which is mostly inconsistent

with the known size of the plastid genome. While for the 8Kb contig (from strain S26) was likely

due to low sequence coverage, the larger contigs may be either concatenated versions of the

plastid genome or hybrid assemblies of plastid sequence along with some other non-nuclear

sequence. This suggests that the plastid genome may be more susceptible than the nuclear

genome to artificial concatenations during assembly of error-prone long sequence reads,

although we have not investigated this directly. In contrast to the organellar genomes the

nuclear *T. gondii* genomes assembled with high consistency across multiple strain types and

their F1 progeny. Although the mean percent identity of the aligned Canu-corrected reads to the

reference genome (~95%) was improved compared to the raw reads (~86%), we used a second

round of error correction to improve sequence accuracy. To do this, we mapped whole-genome

Illumina paired-end reads (SRA: SRR5123638, SRR2068653, SRR5643140, or ERR701181) to

the *Tg*RH88, *Tg*ME49, *Tg*CTG, or *Nc*Liv primary assemblies generated by Canu, and iteratively

polished the assembly contigs four times using Pilon v1.23. The polished contigs were then

reassembled using Flye v2.5. The resulting contigs/scaffolds were then assigned, ordered, and

oriented to chromosomes using relevant ToxoDB-48 reference genomes (**Table 2 and Table**

S1). These polished assemblies have been deposited in Genbank (under BioProject number

PRJNA638608).

The final assemblies of *Tg*RH88, *Tg*ME49, or *Tg*CTG consisted of 13 chromosome

contigs/scaffolds and varying numbers of unplaced fragments, with an average total size of

~64.8 Mb (**Table 2**). The polished *N. caninum* Liverpool assembly was composed of 58 contigs,

showing a cumulative size of 62.1 Mb (**Table 2**). For all species and strains, the long reads and

high coverage led to highly improved contiguity of our assemblies compared to the reference

genomes. As reported in **Table 2**, with one exception (IIxIII F1 progeny S26), all the *T. gondii*

final assemblies were composed of 23-59 contigs, representing a 43-109-fold reduction in the

number of contigs in comparison to the ToxoDB-48_*Tg*ME49 assembly (2511 contigs; **Table 2**).

We performed one-to-one mappings between our Nanopore chromosome-sized contigs and all

aligning contigs from the ToxoDB-48_TgME49 assembly (Figure S1A) using Minimap2 and

found that the most significant contribution to overall genome structure was the elimination of

nearly all of the breaks within the ToxoDB-48_TgME49 scaffolds that are indicated within that

assembly as strings of N's at least 100 bp long (Figure S1A). We also compared the sequences

and to identify new sequence uniquely incorporated into the Nanopore chromosomes and

identified 42 regions of at least 10,000 bp ranging in size from 10,176 to 49718 bp (summing to

926 kb in total; yellow boxes in Figures S1A).

For *N. caninum*, compared to the existing assembly of the *Nc*Liv genome (Reid *et al.* 2012),

the total number of contigs in the *Nc*Liv final assembly was reduced from 247 to 58 (**Table 2**).

The contiguity improvement of long-read assembly was also evident by high contig length N50

values and low L50 values in these assemblies (**Table 2**). Furthermore, for all the long-read

assemblies, 55.2% of all chromosomes were fully assembled in single contigs and flanked by

two telomeric repeats with proper orientation (e.g., one end 5'-3' TTTAGGG and the other 5'-3'

CCCTAAA; **Table S5**). This is in contrast to version 48 of the *T. gondii* ME49 genome housed at

ToxoDB where 3 of the 14 chromosome assemblies have telomeric repeats on both ends, 7

have a telomeric repeat on one end, and the remaining 4 putative chromosomes have no

telomeric repeats at all. Upon aligning our assemblies to their respective reference genomes

(**Table S1**), we found that over 95.9% of the *Tg*RH88, *Tg*ME49, or *Tg*CTG final assembly

sequences could be mapped to their relevant reference genome. The alignments revealed that

our *de novo* assemblies had fewer mismatches and indels per 100 Kb and higher longest

alignment and total aligned length when compared to the assemblies housed on ToxoDB (**Table**

3). To assess genome assembly completeness, we used BUSCO analysis on the polished

*Tg*RH88, *Tg*ME49, and *Tg*CTG assemblies and compared the results to a similar analysis for

the unpolished assemblies. This analysis, which counts the number of single-copy orthologs

unambiguously identified in a genome assembly, found that for 215 such loci 88% of the

complete genes were recovered from the polished, long read based assemblies, while 23.3 -

54% were identified in the unpolished assemblies (**Table 3**). These data show the utility of our

sequence polishing for improving the accuracy of the assembly.

Long-read assembly identifies 13 chromosomes in multiple *T. gondii* genomes

To assess the structural correctness of all of the the long-read assemblies, we aligned our

T. gondii assembly sequences to the reference genome using Nucmer. As can be seen in

Figure S1B, all of the *T. gondii* long-read assemblies exhibited strong collinearity with their

corresponding reference genomes, barring a small number of putative inversions. Consistent

with our finding for *Tg*RH88 primary assembly, the chr VIIb/VIII fusion was observed in each of

our *T. gondii* assemblies (*Tg*ME49 is represented in **Figure 3A**, red box; and **Figure S1A,B**). To

further confirm this observation, we aligned our *Tg*ME49 corrected reads back against the

*Tg*ME49 long-read assembly and found an average read depth of 40× for the entirety of

TgME49_tig00000001_chrVIII, and 37× for the "breakpoint" (TgME49_tig00000001_chrVIII:

5090422 bp) of chrVIIb and chrVIII, indicating that this was unlikely due to an assembly error

(**Figure 3B**). We then mapped the corrected nanopore reads again to the ToxoDB-48_*Tg*ME49

reference genome, and the alignments showed that all of the reads that were mapped either to

the end of chrVIIb or to the beginning of chrVIII spanned the gap between the two

chromosomes, with an average coverage of 105× (**Figure 3C**). This link between reads aligning

to chromosome ends was not present in any other chromosome pair (for instance, between

chromosomes IX and X; **Figure 3D**).

Figure 3. Long-read assembly identifies 13 chromosomes in the T.
gondii genome from multiple strains. (A) Dot plot showing the comparison
of the TgME49 long-read assembly and the ToxoDB-48_TgME49 genome.
Red box shows that the chromosomes VIIb and VIII in the ToxoDB-
48_TgME49 genome are fused in a single contig,
TgME49_tig00000001_chrVIII, in the TgME49 long read assembly. (B)
Coverage of the "breakpoint" (TgME49_tig00000001_chrVIII: 5090422 bp,
indicated by a vertical red line) of chromosomes VIIb and VIII with 37
Nanopore reads in the TgME49 long-read assembly. (C) Coverage of the
edges (indicated by a vertical red line) of chromosomes VIIb and VIII with 105
Nanopore reads mapped to the ToxoDB-48_TgME49 genome. (D) Nanopore
reads mapping to the end of chromosomes IX and X in the ToxoDB-48-
TgME49 genome assembly, showing that Nanopore reads only map to the
end of each chromosome and do not span the junction between these
chromosomes (indicated by a vertical red line).

This observation of a fusion between chrVIIb and chrVIII was in agreement with the

observations in our TgRH88 assembly described above (**Figure 1C-E**). Similarly, when we

mapped Hi-C data from (Bunnik *et al.* 2019) was aligned to our *Tg*ME49 long read assembly,

the resulting interchromosomal contact-count map revealed 13 chromosomes in the *Tg*ME49

long read assembly by showing that each chromosome exhibited a single centromeric

interaction with each other chromosome, and that TgME49_tig00000001_chrVIII was a

complete single chromosome (**Figure S2**). The intrachromosomal contact-count map of

TgME49_tig00000001_chrVIII showed a strong and broad diagonal and no aberrant signal

along the contig or at the the "breakpoint" of chrVIIb and chrVIII (**Figure S2B**). Similar patterns

were also observed in our *Tg*CTG, S27, and S21 assemblies (**Figure S2B**). Collectively, these

data show the *T. gondii* karyotype has been incorrectly calculated and contains 13, rather than

14, chromosomes. We refer to this fused chromosome as chrVIII in our assembly and have

eliminated chrVIIb.

The *Tg*CTG assembly had chromosome scale resolution, where 13 contiguous sequences

(contigs) corresponded to the 13 chromosomes. However, chromosome VIIa in the *Tg*ME49

assembly and chromosome XI in the TgRH88 assembly was spread across two contigs. Hi-C

data has historically been used to improve genome assemblies on the basis of contact

frequency depending strongly on one-dimensional distance (Dudchenko *et al.* 2017). That is, Hi-

C alignment to contigs in the correct order and orientation would reveal the canonical

intrachromosomal pattern of enriched interactions along the diagonal (where one-dimensional

genomic distance between bins is the smallest). Hi-C alignment to contigs in the incorrect order

and orientation would be illustrated by patterns associated with large-scale inversions, where

there is a high interaction frequency between bins placed far away from each other. Leveraging

this, we were able to determine the order and orientation of the contigs for chromosomes

ChrVIIa and XI in ME49 and RH88, respectively. These changes were incorporated prior to

submission of the assemblies to Genbank.

Long-read assembly detects structural rearrangements in the *T. gondii* genome

In addition to repeated elements, our assembly was capable of detecting gross structural

rearrangements (insertions, deletions, inversions, relocations, and translocations) since the

assembly based on long reads was highly contiguous and had near chromosome scale

resolution. We aligned the final assemblies of the 8 *T. gondii* strains to the reference genomes

and searched for structural variants using MUMmer (**Figure S1B**). Consistent with the data

shown in **Figure S1B**, most contigs in the long-read assemblies were collinear with the

chromosomes in the ToxoDB-48 genomes, but not always in a 1:1 correspondence.

Interestingly, we observed a 15.7 Kb inversion on chrIII in our *Tg*RH88 assembly, which was

absent in *Tg*ME49, *Tg*CTG, or any F1 progeny assembly (**Figure 4A**). We also detected

another ~20 Kb inversion on chrXII, which was present in *Tg*ME49, *Tg*CTG, and the F1 progeny

assembly, but not in the *Tg*RH88 assembly (*Tg*ME49 is represented in **Figure 4B**).

Figure 4. Long-read assembly reveals previously unknown inversions
and the centromere location on chrIV in T. gondii. *(A) Inversion in the*
RH88 long-read assembly on chromosome III relative to the ToxoDB-48-
TgGT1 assembly. (B) Inversion in the ME49 long-read assembly on
chromosome XII relative to the ToxoDB_44-TgME49 genome. (C) Dot plot
comparison of the TgRH88 long-read assembly and the ToxoDB-48_TgGT1
genome showing a 429.3-Kb inversion at 2,096,529-2,525,795 bp on chrIV.
(D) Intrachromosomal Hi-C contact-count heat map plotted using the
sequence of contig_14 in TgRH88 long-read assembly showing a clear

centromere signal at position 2.2-2.3 Mb. (E) ChIP-on-chip signal of
centromeric histone 3 variant (CenH3) (Brooks et al. 2011) plotted using the
TgRH88 long-read assembly as coordinate.

Centromeres for 12 of the 13 *T. gondii* chromosomes have been identified using ChIP-on-

chip (chromatin immunoprecipitation coupled with DNA microarrays) of centromeric and peri-

centromeric proteins, but locations of centromere of chrVIIb and chrIV remain unknown (Brooks

et al. 2011; Gissot *et al.* 2012). For chrVIIb, no hybridization of the centromeric probe to the

genomic chip was detected in the ChIP-on-chip assay (Brooks *et al.* 2011), which could be

explained by our observation that chrVIIb and chrVIII are a single chromosome, and the

centromere of this large chromosome appears to be in the center of this "fused" chromosome, in

an area that was previously thought to be the beginning of chromosome VIII (**Figure 1E**). For

chromosome IV, two inconsecutive peaks of hybridization were detected at positions 2,501,171-

2,527,417 bp on chrIV and 1-9968 bp in the unplaced contig AAQM03000753 in the *Tg*GT1

genome based on published ChIP-on-chip data (Brooks *et al.* 2011). Our *Tg*RH88 assembly

successfully relocated the sequences in AAQM03000753 into chrIV and revealed a 430.9-Kb

inversion event at 2,096,529-2,527,423 bp on chrIV relative to the ToxoDB GT1 reference

genome (**Figure 4B**). This inversion was unlikely to be due to an assembly error since it was

shown in all of our *T. gondii* assemblies, and was supported by alignment of 128 canu-corrected

reads spanning the boundaries of the *Tg*RH88 assembly. When we mapped the ChIP-on-chip

data obtained from (Brooks *et al.* 2011) to our *Tg*RH88 assembly (after remapping the probe

sequences to our TgRH88 assembly), we resolved the chrIV centromere to a single significant

signal peak at 2.20-2.23 Mb on chrIV (**Figure 4C** and **Figure S3**). This finding was also

supported by published Hi-C data re-aligned to our Nanopore assemblies, since the

intrachromosomal contact count map showed a clear interchromosomal contact signal at 2.20-

2.30 Mb on chrIV in the *Tg*RH88 assembly (**Figure 4B**). Collectively, our data not only resolved

the molecular karyotype of *T. gondii*, but also resolved the precise location of the chrIV

centromere.

Long-read assembly adds new sequences to the *T. gondii* reference genome

As shown in **Figure 1C** and **Table S5**, each chromosome-sized contig of our long-read *de novo* assemblies was longer than its cognate chromosome of the ToxoDB-48 *T. gondii* reference genome, and for TgRH88, TgME49 and TgCTG we were able to assemble between 1.7 and 3.9 Mb of previously unlocated and/or unassembled sequence to the chromosomes of these assemblies. These new sequences were scattered across the genome, and filled in nearly all of the sequence gaps found in the reference genome. The new sequences added by the long-read assemblies extended the subtelomeric regions of the chromosomes in the *T. gondii* reference genome. While 4 chromosomes of the ToxoDB-48_*Tg*ME49 genome contained no telomeric repeat and 7 were missing one of the telomeric repeats, all of the chromosome contigs in the *Tg*ME49 long-read assembly were assembled up until both telomeric caps (**Table S5**). Both telomeres were found in 12 out of the 13 chromosomes in the *Tg*CTG long-read assembly, and one chromosome contig lacked one of the telomeric repeats, whereas only 5 chromosomes in the ToxoDB-48_*Tg*VEG genome contained one telomere and no telomeric repeat was found in the rest of the chromosomes (**Table S5**). Similarly, both telomeres in 7 chromosomes and one telomere in 6 chromosomes were resolved in the *Tg*RH88 long-read assembly, while there were only 2 chromosomes in ToxoDB-48_*Tg*GT1 genome that contained one telomere (**Table S5**).

In addition to telomeres, the bulk of the remaining new sequence was due to tandem arrays of sequence (both coding and non-coding). For example, two repetitive gene sequences are used for high sensitivity detection of *T. gondii* in tissue and environmental samples, the B1 gene (Burg *et al.* 1989) and the so-called "529 bp repeat" (Reischl *et al.* 2003; Edvinsson *et al.* 2006). The precise copy number for these genes has been impossible to determine using 1st and 2nd generation sequencing technologies and/or molecular biological experiments like Southern Blotting. Therefore, we used a curated blastn approach to quantify copy number for each of these sequences across our respective Nanopore assemblies. As shown in **Figure 5A**, copy

number for the B1 gene was dramatically higher in our Nanopore assemblies compared to

existing ToxoDB assemblies (as expected). What was unexpected, however, was that copy

number for this gene was lower than that predicted in the literature, ranging between 9 and 19

tandem copies depending on the strain (**Figure 6A**), compared to quantitative blotting-based

estimates of 35 (Burg *et al.* 1989). Copy number at this locus was stable, in that for all of the

queried IIxIII F1 progeny copy number for each was identical to the parent from which it

obtained that chromosomal segment. In contrast to the B1 locus, the "529 bp repeat" locus

varied dramatically between isolates and these same F1 progeny. Copy number ranged from 85

to 205, and copy number at this locus for all F1 progeny varied independently of the underlying

genotype for that region (white letters and green/blue in **Figure 5B**). The size of this genome

expansion is best illustrated by the whole chromosome alignment shown in **Figure 5E**

comparing the *T. gondii* ME49 529 bp repeat locus in the version 48 assembly on ToxoDB to

our Nanopore assembly (**Figure 5E**). Importantly the 529 bp repeat locus occurs near a

sequence assembly gap, and our long read assembly closed this gap (see below and **Figure**

5D), giving the most accurate estimate of 529 bp repeat copy number in any *T. gondii* strain

which again varies compared to estimates in the literature (ranging from 200-300 copies; e.g.,

(Reischl *et al.* 2003; Edvinsson *et al.* 2006)). Regardless, similar to tandem gene arrays

discussed above in **Figure 6**, it appears that even noncoding repeats like the B1 gene and the

529 bp repeat can also change in number irrespective of whether there is sexual recombination.

While the 529 bp repeat and B1 gene are found in a single locus, other tandem repeats like

TgIRE and SAT350 are found across multiple subtelomeric genomic locations (Echeverria *et al.*

2000; Clemente *et al.* 2004). We mapped these sequences across the genome in all of our

sequenced *T. gondii* strains, and again found different results depending on the queried locus.

For the TgIRE sequence, a 1919 bp repeat, chromosome-wide copy number in our sequenced

strains was ~2x that found in the reference sequences (Figure 6C), but overall copy number

was similar across all of our Nanopore-derived sequences. The SAT350 sequence was also

found at much higher copy number in our Nanopore assembled chromosomes compared to the

reference sequences (Figure 6D), but was more variable in the F1 progeny clones. This could

be due to changes during sexual recombination as for the 529 bp repeat above, or differences

in sequence coverage for the F1 progeny. Regardless, our approach has provided better

resolution of copy number for 4 well-known tandem repeat sequences, and allowed us to

determine which may be more susceptible to copy number change. Moreover, unappreciated

strain differences in copy number at these loci may adversely affect interpretation of PCR-based

detection assays, especially those using more quantitative methods.

Figure 5: Long read sequence assemblies precisely resolve canonical repeat

sequences and identify additional expansions at gene-harboring loci. (A-D)
Estimated copy number for Nanopore assemblies and existing genome
assemblies on ToxoDB ("v48") for T. gondii strain types 1, 2 and 3 and IIxIII F1
progeny. In all cases, Nanopore assemblies identified higher numbers of each
repeat locus. In the F1 progeny, B1 gene copy number tracked directly with
the genotype (type 2 or 3) at that locus (A), while these same F1 progeny
harbored unique numbers of 529 bp copies, all of which were not only distinct
from their respective genotypes of origin but distinct from one another (B). The
TgIRE and SAT350 repeats also were better resolved in our Nanopore
assemblies (C,D) although determining genotype of the corresponding region
is not possible since these repeats are found at multiple locations throughout
the genome. (E) Whole chromosome alignment focused on the 529 bp repeat
region for the v48 ToxoDB assembly (bottom) and our Nanopore-based
assembly (top). Expansion of the known genome sequence at this locus in the
Nanopore sequence compared to the ToxoDB assembly is clear, and
consistent with our identification of ~140 previously unknown 529 bp repeats
in the ME49 genome. (F) Alignment and annotation of repeat sequences of
ME49 v48 ToxoDB chromosome IV and that from our polished Nanopore
assembly. Grey bars with red borders indicate mapping regions ≥10,000 bp
determined using nucmer, while orange boxes with blue borders indicate
tandem repeats with period sizes ≥ 500 bp and at least 2 copies. Bars that
appear orange are larger than those that are only blue. Incorrect inversion on
the right arm of chromosome IV in the ToxoDB assembly is evident, as is the
more accurately resolve 529 bp repeat locus that was likely a cause for the
inversion in standard assemblies from multiple strains.*

With respect to chromosome IV, mapping the 529 bp repeat to our Nanopore assemblies

while comparing them to reference genomes in ToxoDB identified what appears to be an

inversion in the right arm of chromosome IV (Figure 6F). This inversion was present in the *T.*

gondii VEG and GT1 reference genomes, suggesting that it was due to systematic assembly

error. This inversion in the ToxoDB reference genome is flanked by multiple tandem repeats

(identified using tandem repeats finder; blue/orange boxes in **Figure 6F**). In addition, the 529 bp

repeat can be found at the end of each inversion ("529_rpt", **Figure 6F**) in the ToxoDB

chromosome, but in our Nanopore assembly the 529 repeat cluster is only found in one location

(where it is greatly expanded compared to those in the ToxoDB reference). These data provide

strong evidence that chromosome IV is incorrectly assembled in multiple ToxoDB reference

genomes due to misassembly of the 529 bp repeat locus, and our Nanopore assembly has

resolved this discrepancy in multiple *T. gondii* genomes.

Long-read assembly resolves tandem duplicated locus structure in the *T. gondii* genome

Many scaffold gaps within chromosomes remain unresolved (**Table 2**) in the *T. gondii*

reference genome particularly in the regions that contain repeated elements. Our long read

assembly closed nearly all of the gaps in the *T. gondii* and *N. caninum* genomes (Tables 2 and

S6). Furthermore, many unplaced sequences in the *T. gondii* reference genome were

assembled into contigs in our assembly. For instance, the unplaced contig KE140372 in the

ToxoDB-48_*Tg*ME49 genome, which was 2194 bp in length and contained a sequence

encoding a rhoptry protein 4 paralog, was assembled in TgME49_tig00000028_chrIa in our

*Tg*ME49 assembly. Unplaced contigs in the ToxoDB-48_*Tg*GT1 genome, AAQM03000823 and

AAQM03000824, were assembled in TgRH88_tig00000013_chrIII in our *Tg*RH88 assembly.

We have had a long-standing interest in variation at tandemly expanded gene clusters

and how this affects *T. gondii* virulence which was first spurred by our identification of ROP5

gene cluster as being a critical determinant of virulence in the mouse (Reese *et al.* 2011). Our

genome-wide analyses of copy number variation across multiple strains and species (Adomako-

Ankomah *et al.* 2014) identified 53 putative tandemly expanded gene clusters in *T. gondii*

(shown in Table S6), some of which (such as MAF1) have been shown to be important in host

pathogen interactions (Adomako-Ankomah *et al.* 2016). In that initial study we used sequence

coverage to infer copy number and we were eager to refine this analysis using the long-read de

novo assemblies presented here.

The gap closure enabled us to determine the number, order and orientation of *T. gondii*

duplicated loci including *ROP7*, *ROP5*, *ROP38*, *MIC17*, *MAF1*, and *TSEL8*. The *ROP7* locus is

represented in **Figure 6A**, where we identified two unresolved scaffold gaps on chrIa in the

ToxoDB-48_*Tg*ME49 genome (black bars), and these gaps marked the site of *ROP4/7* locus.

This entire region was spanned by a single contig, TgME49_tig00000028_chrIa, in our *Tg*ME49

assembly (the blue bar in **Figure 6A**). Aligning the *ROP7* genomic sequence (ToxoDB:

TGME49_295110) against TgME49_tig00000028_chrIa using BLASTN revealed 3 copies of the

ROP7 repeat, while only one was predicted in the ToxoDB-48_*Tg*ME49 genome (**Figure 6A**

and 6B) Interestingly, while the ToxoDB-48_*Tg*ME49 genome identified one copy of the *ROP4*

gene (GenBank: EU047558.1), our *Tg*ME49 assembly showed that 2 copies of *ROP4* exist in

this locus, one of which was found between the first and the second copy of *ROP7* (**Figure 6B**).

To validate this finding, we identified 12 individual Canu-corrected reads that spanned this entire

tandem array, and each one that we examined provided evidence for 3 copies of *ROP7* and 2

copies of *ROP4* arranged in the order ROP4_1-ROP7_1-ROP4_2-ROP7_2-ROP7_3 (**Table**

S6). The copy number and copy order of other known tandem locus expansions (taken from the

supplementary table in (Adomako-Ankomah *et al.* 2014)) in the strains we sequenced were

identified and are listed in **Table S6**. Surprisingly, we observed changes in copy number at

some of these loci when we compared the parental (*Tg*ME49 or *Tg*CTG) and the progeny

(CL13, S27, S21, S26, and D3X1) assemblies (**Figure 6C**). For example, while the *ROP5* locus

had 9 copies in our *Tg*ME49 assembly and 4 in our *Tg*CTG assembly, it harbored 6 copies in

the F1 progeny S27 and S21, and 7 in S26 (**Figure 6C**). There was an array of 7 tandem copies

of *MIC17* in *Tg*ME49 and *Tg*CTG assemblies, whereas it was present in 6 copies in the S26

assembly (**Figure 6C**). These data indicated that changes in copy number and order at tandem

gene arrays can occur during sexual recombination. Moreover the ease with which a Nanopore

assembly can be generated and assembled provides a new way to assess the occurrence and

impact of acute changes in copy number that occur during asexual and sexual propagation of

parasites like *T. gondii*. Whole chromosome alignments are shown for chromosomes Ia, VI and

XII to further illustrate the increase in sequence size at the chromosome level for loci like ROP7,

ROP38 and ROP5, as well as other known tandem gene arrays (**Figure 6D, E and F**).

We performed a similar analysis genome-wide for the remaining previously identified

tandem expansions ((Adomako-Ankomah *et al.* 2014); **Table S7**), and were able to further

curate this list of putative repetitive loci. While in some cases our predictions from shotgun

sequence read coverage was similar to that predicted using Nanopore assembly (as for those

genes described in **Figure 6** as well as many others in **Table S7**), for some we were able to

determine that there was in fact no evidence for the presence of a tandem gene array at that

locus. For example expanded locus 9 (EL9; TGME49_319090), EL19 (TGME49_204560) and

EL27 (TGME49_264420) are all likely to be single copy genes based on our Nanopore

assemblies (**Table S7**), even though based on sequence coverage alone they ranged in

predicted copy number between 15 and 60 (**Table S7** and (Adomako-Ankomah *et al.* 2014)).

While the reasons for each of these discrepancies will be locus specific, it is likely that the

overestimation of copy number using sequence coverage in our prior study was due to the

presence of low complexity sequence (e.g., short tandem repeats) across the single copy gene

rather than being due to actual tandem expansion. Overall, our current assemblies refine and

further curate this locus list, providing the most accurate estimate to date of which loci encode

tandem gene arrays and how their copy number varies across strain and species.

Figure 6. Long-read assembly resolves duplicated locus structure in T. gondii genome. (A) Two unresolved scaffold gaps on chrIa in ToxoDB-48_TgME49 genome span a 17.5-Kb tandem repeat containing multiple copies of ROP4 and ROP7. The ROP4/7 gaps are closed by the TgME49 long-read assembly (TgME49_tig00000028), revealing a tandem array of 5 copies of this gene in the order shown. (B) BLASTN alignment of the ROP4/ROP7 coding sequence in the ToxoDB-48_TgME49 genome (upper panel) and the TgME49 long-read assembly (lower panel). (C) Copy number determination at 6 canonical tandem gene arrays across 8 T. gondii strains and 1 N. caninum strain. Data from CL13, S27, S21 and S26 show that copy number can change during sexual recombination since copy number in these F1 progeny clones do not match copy number in either parent. (D-F) Whole chromosome alignments between ME49ToxoDB-48 and our Nanopore assemblies at loci harboring tandem gene arrays. Grey boxes with red borders indicate 1-to-1 mapping regions ≥ 10,000 bp determined by nucmer and orange/blue boxes are as described in Figure 5. Black bars indicate size of select tandem repeats in the ToxoDB and Nanopore assemblies.

As described above all of our sequence assemblies increased the size of the contiguous

assemblies by 1-3 Mb. While some of this new sequence is most certainly derived from gene-

poor regions containing simple tandem repeats (and some of these regions are annotated as

yellow boxes in **Figure S2**), the relatively high gene density of the *T. gondii* genome led us to

hypothesize that some of this "new" sequence should be derived from gene sequences that

were previously masked by assembly gaps. Therefore we used BLASTN and custom parsing

scripts to identify genome expansions in our Nanopore assembly relative to the v48 sequence

on ToxoDB specifically using all available predicted genes as query sequences. Overall, we

identified 62 gene-containing loci that were at least 10 Kb larger in our Nanopore assembly

compared to ToxoDB v48, representing 1.2 Mb of sequence. These expansions are represented

in **Figure S4** as yellow blocks, and are shown along with known tandem gene arrays (red

blocks) and existing sequence gaps (black lines). Well known tandem gene arrays that are

collapsed in 1st and 2nd generation sequence-based assemblies like MAF1 and ROP5 were

identified in this analysis (**Figure S4**), confirming the accuracy of the approach. What was

unexpected was the unequal distribution of these "expansions" in our genome-wide analysis

(e.g., compare chromosomes XI and X). These expansions are due to increased copy number

as well as previously unknown insertions of repetitive sequence. In addition to these gene-

containing loci, we have identified all tandem repeats with a period size > 500 bp in our de novo

assembly of *T. gondii* ME49 and estimated their copy number in our de novo assemblies of *T.*

gondii RH88 and CTG (Table S8).

Standard error correction methods for tandem gene arrays fail to remove extensive

homopolymeric repeats that lead to artifactual pseudogenization

Error correction using Pilon is a common practice after generation of single molecule

long-read assemblies since the overlap-based correction employed by assemblers like Canu

fails to correct systematic errors in the data. For Nanopore, homopolymer runs as short as 3 bp

are often truncated in the consensus [need citation], leading to extensive artificial gene

pseudogenization. As described above hybrid assembly or error correction can eliminate many

of these systematic errors leading to improved protein coding gene annotations (Table 3). To

examine this is greater detail we used TBLASTN to align *T. gondii* ME49 (version 48) protein

sequences for all single exon genes to the ToxoDB reference genome, the primary Canu

assembly, and to our hybrid-corrected assembly. As shown in Figure 2A the raw Canu

assembly had only 4 full length, identical sequence hits to single exon genes, while the Pilon-

corrected assembly predicted nearly all of the query single exon genes with 100% identity and

100% sequence coverage (1054/1121; 94%; Figure 7A). The effectiveness of Pilon error

correction is shown for 2 single exon, single copy genes (ROP16 and ROP18; Figure 8B),

where the coding sequence had numerous frameshifts causing fragmented mapping in the Raw

assembly but resolved to a single gene with 100% identity and sequence coverage after Pilon

correction. In contrast to these single copy genes, we found that Pilon-based error correction

performed much more poorly at multicopy loci like those encoding ROP5 and ROP38. As

shown in **Figure 7C** and **D**, many of the predicted ROP38 and ROP5 coding sequences are still

highly fragmented after Pilon error correction, presumably due to an inability of Pilon to assign

enough reads to each copy to correct what are mostly homopolymeric repeat errors. We wrote a

custom Perl script to correct remaining homopolymer errors in tandem gene arrays (using

Illumina sequence read alignments to either extend homopolymers up to 10 bp or truncate by a

single base pair) and found that this eliminated many of the artefactual pseudogenes for the

tandem gene expansions at the ROP5 and ROP38 loci (see bottom of **Figure 7C** and **D**). Note

that unlike single copy genes where Canu plus Pilon correction was sufficient to correct them

(**Figure 7B**), we only eliminated these likely artefactual pseudogenes after running our

supplemental correction scripts (see Materials and Methods for specific details about the

correction script). We have deposited these corrected sequences in Genbank separately from

 our genome assemblies for all the loci characterized in Figure 6C (submission numbers

 pending).

Figure 7: Error polishing with Pilon is effective for most single copy genes but
resolution of tandem gene expansion errors requires supplemental correction. (A)
We identified 1121 single exon genes with predicted proteins that mapped with
100% identity and 100% coverage using TBLASTN against the ToxoDB-48
ME49 genome. Then, we mapped these against the raw assembly generated by
Canu, the polished assembly generated by 4 rounds of Pilon, and after 4 rounds
of supplemental error correction. Pilon error correction was sufficient for perfect
mapping of 94% of the query single exon genes (compared to only 0.4% for the
raw Canu assembly), and supplemental error correction only increased this
mapping percentage slightly. (B) Plots representing TBLASTN analysis of
protein sequences from two single copy genes showing the improved mapping
achieved by Pilon-based error correction. Mapping identity is indicated by the
color of the box representing the alignment. (C-D) Plots representing protein
sequence from the ROP5A (C) or ROP38 (D) gene mapped using TBLASTN
against the raw Canu-only assembly, the Pilon-corrected assembly and the
region corrected using our supplemental approach tailored to tandem gene
arrays. Both loci have multiple pseudogenes in the Canu-only and Canu-plus
Pilon assemblies, but many of these errors are removed upon supplemental

correction. The presence of a pseudogene in the ME49 ROP5 locus has been predicted before based on direct sequencing, suggesting that this may represent the most accurate version of the ME49 ROP5 locus sequenced to date.

Long-read assembly revises *N. caninum* karyotype its lack of synteny with *T. gondii*

The comparison of *Tg*RH88 long-read assembly and annotation with the ToxoDB-

48_*Tg*GT1 genome revealed a high level of collinearity between the two genomes with no large-

scale rearrangement between chromosomes (except for the chrVIIb/VIII fusion) (**Figure 8A**),

whereas a large number of chromosomal translocations and inversions were observed in the

*Nc*Liv long-read assembly with respect to ENA_*Nc*Liv genome (**Figure 8B**). For instance, the

NcLiv_tig0000052 in *Nc*Liv long-read assembly contained a portion of chrIX and a portion of

chrX in the current *N. caninum* genome (**Figure 8B**). A portion of NcLiv_tig00000006 in *Nc*Liv

long-read assembly was mapped to the current *N. caninum* chrX, while the remainder of

NcLiv_tig00000006 was mapped to chrIX and a region of it was inverted (**Figure 8B**). In

addition to this, some chromosomal regions in the *Nc*Liv long-read assembly did not show any

synteny with the ENA_*Nc*Liv genome (**Figure 8B**). Similar chromosomal rearrangement

patterns were observed in other *N. caninum* strains (as described in the co-submitted paper).

Figure 8. Long-read assembly reveals N. caninum karyotype and its synteny
with T. gondii. (A) Circos plot showing high synteny between the TgRH88
long-read assembly and the ToxoDB-48_TgGT1 genome. (B) Circos plot
showing the chromosomal translocations and inversions in NcLiv long-read
assembly compared to the ENA_NcLiv genome. (C) Circos plot showing the
syntenic relationship between TgRH88 and NcLiv long-read assembly.

While previous studies (Reid *et al.* 2012; Lorenzi *et al.* 2016a) showed that the current *T.*

gondii and *N. caninum* reference genomes were highly syntenic, the comparison of *Tg*RH88

long-read assembly with the *Nc*Liv long-read assembly showed smaller blocks of synteny in

most regions between the two genomes (**Figure 8C**). Many individual contigs of the *Nc*Liv long-

read assembly were shown to be mapped to multiple chromosome contigs in the *Tg*RH88 long-

read assembly. For example, a 3.26-Mb region and a 4.43-Mb region of TgRH88_tig00000006

of the *Nc*Liv long-read assembly were in synteny with regions on TgRH88_tig00000001 and

TgRH88_tig00000003 of *Tg*RH88 long-read assembly, respectively (**Figure 8C**). Moreover,

some regions of *Nc*Liv long-read assembly (e.g. NcLiv_tig00007783: 2,000,000-2,500,000 bp)

exhibit no synteny with the chromosomes of *Tg*RH88 genome (**Figure 8C**). Overall, our long-

read assembly revealed a new and accurate *N. caninum* karyotype, and revised the genomic

synteny between the two closely-related species, *T. gondii* and *N. caninum*.

DISCUSSION

The first wave of genome sequencing using first- and second-generation sequencing

technologies revolutionized our ability to link phenotype to genotype in diverse strains of

Toxoplasma gondii and its near relatives. Sequence from multiple isolates have been made

publicly available and hosted on ToxoDB.org and were outlined in a recent publication (Lorenzi

et al. 2016a). These genomes, while of great use, were expectedly incomplete due to the

presence of hundreds to thousands of sequence assembly gaps depending on sequencing

depth and methodology. Recent years have experienced the impact of so-called "3rd

generation" technologies that have revolutionized the speed, cost and efficacy of de novo

sequence assembly, and most importantly provide a means to dramatically improve existing

sequence assemblies. The critical feature of these approaches is the fact that they generate

sequence read lengths hundreds to thousands of times longer than those generated using 1st

and 2nd generation approaches, and can span repetitive sequence (both short tandem repeats

and larger segmental duplications). This technology provides a unique opportunity to greatly

improve the assembly of the *T. gondii* genome, particularly at repetitive loci which are known to

encode diversified secreted effectors (Adomako-Ankomah *et al.* 2014; Adomako-Ankomah *et al.*

2016).

Our work revises the *T. gondii* and *N. caninum* karyotypes by identifying a previously

unappreciated fusion between segments previously thought to be distinct chromosomes (VIIb

and VIII). Throughout the history of the *T. gondii* genome the number of linkage groups has

been a moving target and has become more precise as new mapping and sequencing

technologies have become available. Initial genetic mapping experiments and high molecular

weight Southern blotting identified 11 linkage groups (Sibley and Boothroyd 1992), while a

denser map in later studies identified 13 linkage groups (Su *et al.* 2002). This particular map

was still not fully representative of the *T. gondii* karyotype, as markers known to be on

chromosome VI were included in linkage group X, chromosome XII was split into 2 linkage

groups ("Unknown 1" and "Unknown 2"), and chromosome XI was missing (Su *et al.* 2002). A

clearer picture emerged when this linkage map was integrated with shotgun sequence assembly

data using 1st generation sequencing, leading to a consensus karyotype of 14 chromosomes. In

all three of these assemblies (from strains GT1, ME49 and VEG), chromosomes VIIb and VIII

always assembled into separate contigs. However, in some studies significant genetic linkage

between markers on former chromosomes VIIb and VIII was observed (for example see the

discussion in (Khan *et al.* 2005) and figure S2 in (Khan *et al.* 2014)), but the lack of any

contiguous assemblies for these two genome fragments (as found on ToxoDB.org as well as

outlined in (Lorenzi *et al.* 2016a)) led to continued acceptance of the 14 chromosome model. It

was only until recently where reports using chromosome-capture technologies ("Hi-C"; (Bunnik

et al. 2019)) suggested a fusion between the VIIb and VIII genome fragments, and this was the

first study to propose a 13 chromosome karyotype that is most consistent with our nuclear

genome assembly..

Our work here conclusively establishes the *T. gondii* 13 chromosome karyotype in *T.*

gondii strain ME49, and show that this karyotype is conserved across all queried *T. gondii*

strains and one of its near relatives, *Neospora caninum*. The reason for the consistent

prediction that fragments VIIb and VIII were distinct in *T. gondii* was clearly due to repetitive

sequences near the breakpoint (hence the consistent and artificial fragmentation of this

chromosome across multiple de novo sequenced strains using both first and second generation

sequencing technology (Lorenzi *et al.* 2016a)). For *N. caninum*, it appears that the 14

chromosome model was based on overestimation of the degree of synteny between *T. gondii*

and *N. caninum* (Reid *et al.* 2012). This karyotype that is robustly supported by our assemblies

are consistent with existing Hi-C data (Bunnik *et al.* 2019) and existing genetic linkage maps

from F1 progeny derived from type IxII and IxIII crosses (Khan *et al.* 2005; Khan *et al.* 2014).

Tandem gene expansion followed by selection-driven diversification provides a means

for genome innovation and neofunctionalization, and this has occurred at multiple loci in the *T.*

gondii genome (Adomako-Ankomah *et al.* 2014; Adomako-Ankomah *et al.* 2016; Blank and

Boyle 2018). These loci can differ in copy number between strains, including those belonging to

the same clonal lineage (for example MAF1 and ROP5 copy number differs between "Type 1"

strains GT1 and RH (Adomako-Ankomah *et al.* 2014; Adomako-Ankomah *et al.* 2016), and

MAF1 copy number differs between "Type 3" strains CTG and VEG (Adomako-Ankomah *et al.*

2016). While it is generally assumed that copy number changes can occur during errors in DNA

replication, this could occur with different frequency during sexual versus asexual propagation.

Here we show that some loci can change in gene number and content during sexual

recombination by sequencing multiple F1 progeny from a well-defined cross between type 2 and

type 3 *T. gondii*. Specific changes in copy number and/or content at specific loci could have a

dramatic impact on the overall virulence phenotypes of individual F1 progeny that emerge from

natural crosses.

Our long-standing interest in tandem gene arrays was one of the original motivations of

this study as these loci are particularly prone to incomplete and inaccurate assembly in a variety

of species including *T. gondii* and N. caninum (Adomako-Ankomah *et al.* 2014; Jain *et al.* 2018;

Lapp *et al.* 2018). While the above analysis was sufficient to accurately determine the number,

order and orientation of these genes in multiple strains of *T. gondii* including the F1 progeny

clones, the loci were still artifactually pseudogenized even after multiple rounds of polishing with

Pilon. We are not aware a comprehensive attempt to solve this problem, possibly because

single copy genes tend to be very accurately corrected using tools like Pilon (Senol Cali *et al.*

2019). As a case in point, a hybrid PacBioRS/Hi-C assembly of the *P. knowlesi* genome (Lapp

et al. 2018) required manual assembly correction to removed hundreds of incorrectly

pseudogenized members of the *SICAvar* gene family. Our approach here relies on a similar

approach but is automated to permit multiple rounds of error correction efficiently using a multi-

core computer running Linux. Based on our analyses of these sequences they appear to be the

most precise version of these intractable sequences to date, given that current versions of these

genes deposited to Genbank from prior publications from our group and others on ROP5

(Reese et al. 2011) and MAF1 (Adomako-Ankomah et al. 2014; Adomako-Ankomah et al. 2016)

were obtained by PCR and subject to artefactual chimerism. This is particularly evident for the

MAF1 locus which is made up of tandem expansions of a 2 gene cassette (which we have

dubbed MAF1A and MAF1B and these genes are functionally distinct (only MAF1B drives the

unique T. gondii host mitochondrial association phenotype (Adomako-Ankomah et al. 2016;

Blank et al. 2018)).

Taken together these data clearly demonstrate that the *T. gondii* karyotype has been

mischaracterized as being made up of 14, rather than 13, chromosomes. The 13 chromosome

karyotype is consistent across multiple strains and is also conserved across the local

phylogeny, in that *N. caninum* has the same number. This is consistent with a propensity for

chromosome number to be largely conserved between closely-related species even when gene

content and overall synteny may differ dramatically (as they do for *N. caninum* and *T. gondii*, in

contrast to previous work that overestimated the extent of synteny between these species; (Reid

et al. 2012)). These data represent a new era in genome sequencing in *T. gondii* and its near

relatives, allowing for near-complete telomere-to-telomere assemblies of *T. gondii* strains to be

generated with minimal effort and cost. Moreover with existing and supplementary correction

methods that are targeted to the systematic error that is most common in Oxford Nanopore

sequencing data (incorrect calls of homopolymer nucleotide runs), we have been able to

generate the most accurate version of a key subset of virulence effector genes in this organism

with such an enormous impact on human global heatlh.

METHODS

Parasite and cell culture

All *T. gondii* strains and *N. caninum* Liverpool strain were maintained by serial passage of

tachyzoites in human foreskin fibroblasts (HFFs). HFFs were cultured in Dulbecco's modified

Eagle's medium (DMEM) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 2 mM glutamine, and 50

mg/ml each of penicillin and streptomycin at 37 ℃ in a 5% CO_2 incubator.

High-molecular-weight (HMW) genomic DNA extraction

Prior to DNA purification, tachyzoites of *T. gondii* or *N. caninum* Liverpool strain were grown

in 2×10^7 HFFs for about 5-7 days until the monolayer was fully infected. The infected cells were

then scraped, and syringe-lysed to release the parasites, and the parasites were harvested by

filtering (5.0 µm syringe filter, Millipore) and centrifugation. The pelleted parasites were

resuspended and lysed in 10 ml TLB buffer (100 mM NaCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl [pH 8.0], 25 mM

EDTA [pH 8.0], 0.5% (w/v) SDS) containing 20 µg/ml RNase A for 1 hour at 37 ℃, followed by a

3-hour proteinase K (20 mg/ml) digestion at 50 ℃. The lysate was split into two tubes containing

phase-lock gel (Quantabio), and 5 ml TE-saturated phenol (Millipore Sigma) was added to each

tube, mixed by rotation for 10 min and centrifuged for 10 min at 4,750×g. The DNA was isolated

by removing the aqueous phase to two tubes containing phase-lock gel, followed by a 25:24:1

phenol-chloroform-isoamyl alcohol (Millipore Sigma) extraction. The DNA in the aqueous phase

was further purified by ethanol precipitation by adding 4 ml 3 M NaOAc (pH 5.2), and then

mixing 30 ml ice-cold 100% ethanol. The solution was mixed by gentle inversion and briefly

centrifuged at 1000×g for 2 min to pellet the DNA. The resulting pellet was washed three times

with 70% ethanol, and all visible traces of ethanol were removed from the tube. The DNA was

allowed to air dry for 5 min on a 40 ℃ heat block, resuspended in 40 µl elution buffer (10 mM

Tris-HCl [pH 8.5]) without mixing on pipetting, followed by an overnight incubation at 4 ℃. The

concentration and purity of the eluted DNA were measured using a NanoDrop

spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific), and approximately 400 ng of DNA was used for

sequencing library preparation.

MinION library preparation and sequencing

The MinION sequencing libraries were prepared using the SQK-RAD004 or SQK-RBK004

kit (Oxford Nanopore Technologies) protocol accompanying all pipetting steps performed using

pipette tips with ~1 cm cut off of the end. High molecular weight DNA (7.5 µl corresponding to

400ng of DNA) was mixed with 2.5 µl of fragmentation mix (SQK-RAD004 kit) or barcoded

fragmentation mix (SQK-RBK004 kit), and then incubated at 30 ℃ for 1 min, followed by 80 ℃

for 1 min on a thermocycler. After incubation, 1 µl of rapid adapter mix was added and mixed

gently by flicking the tube, and the library was incubated at room temperature for 5 min. Prior to

the library loading, the flow cell (MinION R9.4.1 flow cell [FLO-MIN106, Oxford Nanopore

Technologies]) was primed by loading 800 µl of priming mix (flush tether and flush buffer mix,

Oxford Nanopore Technologies) into the priming port on the flow cell and left for 5 min. After

priming, 11 µl of DNA library was mixed with 34 µl of sequencing buffer (Oxford Nanopore

Technologies), 25.5 µl of resuspended loading beads (Oxford Nanopore Technologies), and 4.5

µl of nuclease-free water. To initiate sequencing, 75 µl of the prepared library was loaded onto

the flow cell through the SpotON sample port in a drop-by-drop manner. Sequencing was

performed immediately after platform QC, which determined the number of active pores. The

sequencing process was controlled using MinKNOW (Oxford Nanopore Technologies) and the

resulting FAST5 files were base-called using Guppy v3.2.1 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies).

The barcoded sequencing reads were demultiplexed using Deepbinner

(https://github.com/rrwick/Deepbinner). Read statistics were computed and graphed using

Nanoplot v1.0.0 (De Coster *et al.* 2018).

Read quality control and *de novo* genome assembly

To assess read quality, raw sequencing reads were aligned against the reference genomes

(Information of the reference genomes used in this study are shown in **Table S1**) using

Minimap2 (Li 2018) with the following parameter: -ax map-ont. All reads > 1000 bp in length

were input into Canu v1.7.1 (Koren *et al.* 2017) for *de novo* assembly using the complete Canu

pipeline (correction, trimming, and assembly) (Koren *et al.* 2017) with the following parameters:

correctedErrorRate=0.154, gnuplotTested=TRUE, minReadLength=1000, and –nanopore-raw.

Assembly was performed based on an estimated 65 Mb genome size for *T. gondii* strains, and

57 Mb for *N. caninum* Liverpool strain, and was run using the Slurm management system on the

high throughput computing (HTC) cluster at University of Pittsburgh.

Error correction and assembly polishing

For the Canu-yielded *Tg*RH88, *Tg*ME49, *Tg*CTG, and *Nc*Liv assemblies, assembly errors

were corrected by Pilon v1.23 (Walker *et al.* 2014) with four iterations using the alignment of

select whole-genome Illumina paired-end reads (SRA: SRR5123638, SRR2068653,

SRR5643140, or ERR701181) to the assembly contigs generated by BWA-MEM (Li 2013). The

resulting corrected contigs were reassembled using Flye v2.5 (Kolmogorov *et al.* 2019). For the

II×III F1 progeny assemblies, CL13, S27, S21, S26, and D3X1, the assembly contigs were

directly subjected to Flye for reassembly without Pilon correction. The final contigs/scaffolds in

the *Tg*RH88, *Tg*ME49, and *Tg*CTG assemblies were assigned, ordered, and oriented to

chromosomes using ToxoDB-48 genomes as reference (**Table S1**). These genomes were then

deposited in Genbank.

Supplemental assembly correction

Since tandem gene arrays were still artificially pseudogenized after Pilon-based error

correction we performed multiple rounds of error correction to eliminate any remaining

homopolymer errors. First we aligned the Illumina sequence reads used in Pilon to the polished

assembly using bowtie2 (using the -k 10 parameter to allow reads to map to up to 10 distinct

locations). We then broke the genome into 250 Kb fragments and counted all possible 30 bp

kmers in the raw reads aligning to that 250 Kb region. Then, we walked through the assembly 1

bp at a time, extracting the 30 bp starting at that position and counting the number of times that

30 bp was found in the reads mapping to the 250 Kb region. If the read count was < 5 we

attempted to determine the length of the homopolymer by adding sequence iteratively until the

number of reads harboring that sequence increased above 10. The nucleotide to be added was

selected only of ≥90% of the reads had the same nucleotide at that position. If the read was not

improved after addition of 10 nucleotides, no changes were made to the sequence, unless the

truncation of 1 nucleotide from the end of the 30 bp assembly fragment increased coverage, in

which case that change was made to the assembly. We repeated this correction 4 times

iteratively, and used the corrected assemblies to determine the sequence of individual paralogs

at tandem gene arrays such as MAF1, ROP5 and ROP38.

Long-read assembly evaluation

920   Assembly statistics were computed using Canu v1.7.1 and QUAST v5.0.2 (Mikheenko *et al.*

921   2018). Genome assembly completeness assessment was performed using BUSCO v3.0.2

922   (Waterhouse *et al.*) against the Protists ensembl dataset. Gene predictions were performed

923   using Augustus v3.3 (Keller *et al.* 2011) with the *Toxoplasma gondii*-specific training set.

Whole genome alignment

Whole genome alignments between the long-read assemblies and the reference genomes

were performed using MUMmer v4.0.0 (Kurtz *et al.* 2004) and Mauve v2.4.0 (Darling *et al.*

2004). Dotplots were generated using D-Genies (Cabanettes and Klopp 2018). BWA-MEM was

used for remapping the corrected reads to the reference genomes, and all SAM files were

parsed to sorted BAM files using SAMtools v1.9 (Li *et al.* 2009). Alignments were visualized

using a variety of tools including IGV v2.4.15 (Thorvaldsdottir *et al.* 2013), Mauve (Darling *et al.*

2004), Circos (Krzywinski *et al.* 2009) and custom scripts implemented in R statistical software

(Team 2020).

Structural variant detection

Structural variant differences between the long-read assemblies and reference genomes

(from ToxoDB.org or Genbank, depending on the strains analyzed) were identified by

processing the delta file generated by the MUMmer alignment generator NUCmer with the

parameter "show-diff". In addition, manual curation of structural variants was performed by

visual inspection of chromosomal rearrangements based on the whole genome alignments

generated using Mauve and MUMmer, and using BLASTN to identify and count repetitive loci.

Select alignment plots were generated to integrate these data using R statistical software (Team

2020).

Copy number variant detection

For all gene-coding tandem expansions in *T. gondii* or *N. caninum* identified previously

(Adomako-Ankomah *et al.* 2014), all predicted gene sequences were downloaded from

ToxoDB.org and aligned using BLASTN, and alignments showing > 80% identity and covering

at least 80% of the query gene were used to count tandem repeat numbers in *T. gondii* strains

RH88, ME49 and CTG. For a subset of these tandemly expanded loci (*ROP5*, *ROP38*, *MIC17*,

MAF1, *ROP4/7*, and *TSEL8*), similar analyses were performed manually against all queried *T.*

gondii strains (including F1 progeny clones), and in this case only alignments that showed more

than 95% identity and 98% coverage were considered as a match. Paralogs were grouped

based on alignment identity, and the number of copies at these loci was estimated by alignment

match counts. Only matches that were within a single assembled Nanopore-derived contig were

considered for copy number estimates, and the length of the sequence between the upstream of

the first match or the downstream of the last match on the genomic coordinate and the edge of

the corresponding contig had to be longer than that of the sequence between two adjacent

matches.

Identification and analysis of new sequences in the long-read assemblies

To identify new sequences that filled reference assembly gaps, we aligned the long-read

chromosome contigs to the reference assembly chromosomes using NUCmer with the "show-

diff -q" parameter. The coordinates of a) sequence expansions and b) unaligned sequences

from our *de novo* assembly were determined, and the corresponding sequences were extracted

using custom scripts. Repeats in all genome assemblies were detected using Tandem Repeat

Finder (TRF) v4.09 (Benson 1999) and all repeats with a period size of ≥ 500 bp and having at

least 2 copies were used to determine the impact of long read assembly on resolution of repeats

> 500 bp in size (which are poorly resolved by 2nd or 3rd generation sequencing technologies.

Hi-C Data analysis

Published Hi-C reads (Bunnik *et al.* 2019) were realigned to assemblies TgRH88,

TgME49, TgCTG, S27, and S21, then processed further by assigning fragments and removing

invalid and duplicate pairs using the processing pipeline HiCPro (Servant *et al.* 2015). Resulting

raw intrachromosomal and interchromosomal contact maps were built at 10-kb resolution and

corrected for experimental and technical biases using ICE normalization (Imakaev *et al.* 2012).

DATA ACCESS

All raw sequence reads (as fastq files) and polished assemblies have been deposited at

Genbank under BioProject number PRJNA638608.

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983   DISCLOSURE DECLARATION

984   The authors have no conflicts of interest.

985 **TABLES**

986 **Table 1. Description of the *T. gondii* and *N. caninum* strains sequenced in this study.**

Species	Strain	Genotype (ToxoDB PCR-RFLP genotype)	Geographical origin	Host	References
Toxoplasma gondii	RH88	Type I (ToxoDB #10, Type I)	USA	Human	Sabin, 1941
Toxoplasma gondii	ME49	Type II (ToxoDB #1, Type II)	USA	Sheep	Kasper and Ware, 1985
Toxoplasma gondii	CTG	Type III (ToxoDB #2, Type III)	USA	Cat	Pfefferkorn et al., 1977
Toxoplasma gondii	CL13	Types II×III F1 progeny	USA	Cat	Sibley *et al.*, 1992
Toxoplasma gondii	S27	Types II×III F1 progeny	USA	Cat	Sibley *et al.*, 1992
Toxoplasma gondii	S21	Types II×III F1 progeny	USA	Cat	Sibley *et al.*, 1992
Toxoplasma gondii	S26	Types II×III F1 progeny	USA	Cat	Sibley *et al.*, 1992
Toxoplasma gondii	D3X1	Types II×III F1 progeny	USA	Cat	Saeij *et al.*, 2007
Neospora caninum	Liverpool	-	USA	Dog	Dubey *et al.*, 1988

Table 2. Metrics of long-read assemblies and the reference genomes after polishing.

	Reference genome		Long-read assembly in this study								
	ToxoDB-48 *Tg*ME49	ENA *Nc*Liv	*Tg*RH88	*Tg*ME49	*Tg*CTG	F1_CL13	F1_S27	F1_S21	F1_S26	F1_D3X1	*Nc*Liv
contigs	2511	247	23[1]	38	29	36	59[2]	32	236	39	58
scaffold gaps	267	234	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Total bases (bp)	65,464,242	57,524,120	64,918,878	64,923,798	64,731,950	64,701,501	64,164,327	63,627,129	60,431,397	63,972,942	62,076,476
Maximum contig length (bp)	4,347,958	1,378,223	12,055,564	12,088,238	12,092,387	8,806,958	12,022,215	11,984,269	1,624,740	11,993,556	10,862,166
Contig length N50 (bp)	1,219,553	405,161	6,778,623	6,675,137	6,680,781	3,584,337	6,640,858	6,624,864	476,673	5,127,130	6,406,690
L50	17	50	4	4	4	6	4	4	36	4	4
Contig length N75 (bp)	609,575	224,642	3,884,487	3,410,322	3,832,413	2,159,680	2,970,120	3,316,180	264,689	3,250,471	3,004,054
L75	35	97	7	8	7	12	8	8	78	9	9
GC (%)	52.29	54.85	52.46	52.35	52.34	52.44	52.44	52.42	52.31	52.37	54.66
Length(s) of contigs with Plastid genome sequence	35,372	ND	34,855	118,556	214,201	86,161	34,657	33,601	8,902	127,818	35,072

[1]20 contigs and 1 scaffold

[2]57 contigs and 1 scaffold

Table 3. Metrics of the long-read assemblies before and after polishing.

	*Tg*RH88		*Tg*ME49		*Tg*CTG	
	Initial assembly	Final assembly	Initial assembly	Final assembly	Initial assembly	Final assembly
Contiguity						
# contigs/scaffolds	23	21	38	38	38	29
Total bases (bp)	64,401,064	64,918,878	64,522,756	64,923,798	64,789,158	64,731,950
Maximum contig length(bp)	11,930,269	12,055,564	12,002,493	12,088,238	12,040,189	12,092,387
Contig/scaffold length N50 (bp)	6,718,904	6,778,623	6,635,075	6,675,137	6,653,560	6,680,781
Accuracy						
Genome fraction (%)	97.514	97.470	95.914	95.915	98.367	98.353
# mismatches per 100 Kbp	85.91	57.33	61.34	49.82	47.85	44.11
# indels per 100 Kbp	706.9	35.1	537.5	26.59	348.43	21.94
Largest alignment (bp)	2,737,008	2,768,614	4,425,732	4,452,657	2,573,606	2,584,520
Total aligned length (bp)	62,839,196	63,538,670	63,828,373	64,235,943	63,473,895	63,611,317
Completeness						
Complete BUSCOs protists (%)	23.3	88.9	39.1	91.6	54.0	91.2
Fragmented BUSCOs protists (%)	0.9	0.0	1.4	0.0	1.9	0.0
Missing BUSCOs protists (%)	75.8	11.1	59.5	8.4	44.1	8.8

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1165