# A comprehensive rRNA variation atlas in health and disease

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## Summary

The hundreds of copies of ribosomal-DNA genes are the dark-matter of the human genome as it is unknown whether they possess sequence variation that forms different types of ribosomes. Here, we have overcome the technical hurdle of long-read sequencing of full-length ribosomal-RNA (rRNA) and developed an efficient algorithm for rRNA-variant detection. We discovered hundreds of variants that are not silent but are incorporated into translating ribosomes. These include tens of abundant variants within functionally important domains of the ribosome. Strikingly, variants assemble into distinct ribosome subtypes encoded on different chromosomes. With this first atlas of expressed rRNA-variants, we discover the impact of rRNA variation on health and disease. Across human tissues, we observe tissue-specific variant expression in endoderm/ectoderm derived tissues. In cancer, low abundant rRNA-variants become highly expressed. Together, this study provides a curated atlas for exploring rRNA variation and functionally links ribosome variation to tissue-specific biology and cancer.

## Introduction

The ribosome is a complex, ancient machine responsible for all protein synthesis, which has a core ribosomal RNA (rRNA) structure that is conserved across all kingdoms of life. However, when comparing the human and prokaryotic ribosome, a dramatic change occurred during the course of evolution, which increased the overall size of the ribosome. This is due in part to the insertion of blocks of sequences called expansion segments (ESs), as they "expand" the eukaryotic rRNA relative

to that of prokaryotes [1]. Interestingly, ESs vary greatly in length and sequence both within and among different species, and very little is known about their function [2–5]. These ESs are mostly solvent exposed, with highly flexible parts that allow for interactions with additional proteins or RNAs [6–8]. In humans, rRNA genes are present in hundreds of ribosomal DNA (rDNA) copies in tandem arrays that are spread across multiple chromosomal loci [9]. These high rDNA copy numbers are thought to be necessary to produce millions of ribosomes in each cell. Nevertheless, these hundreds of rDNA copies may allow for sequence variation between copies, which was first noted in mice and humans almost 50 years ago [10]. A recent important study has shown that about a quarter of positions in rDNA bear sequence variants [11]. Interestingly, the majority of these differences can be attributed to ES variability at the level of sequence variation in the form of indels and substitutions. Moreover, there have been a few examples of rRNA single nucleotide variants (SNVs) in non-human organisms [11–14]. Nevertheless, it is still an open question how abundant these expressed rRNA variants are in the context of a translating ribosome and if such variability is also linked to human physiology.

Until now, characterization of variants in genomic rDNA and expressed rRNA remained an outstanding challenge since previous studies used short-read sequencing, which has many limitations. One problem is that GC-rich sequences are highly depleted from short-read sequencing, and rRNA genes are extremely GC-rich, with certain regions including ESs having >80% GC on average [15–17]. This bias makes it difficult to reliably estimate the abundances of variants. Additionally, the assembly of longer rDNA regions has also remained a major problem with short read sequencing, given their high copy numbers, as combinatorially it is unknown which variants reside in the same rDNA copy. In order to compare variations between full length rDNA copies, new computational method development is also necessary to facilitate multiple sequence alignment, which is a hard computational problem [18]. Lastly, rRNA is highly structured with high GC-content and technologies that would enable long read sequences of full length 18S and 28S rRNA have not been developed (18S having about 1,800 bp and 28S having about 5,000 bp). As a result, previous studies mainly focused on copy number variations. Most interestingly, rDNA copy number was shown to decrease both with age and in cancer [19–23]. Recently, long read sequencing has successfully transformed the ability to analyze long repetitive regions in the human genome. Notably, this has enabled the successful complete assembly of a human genome by the Telomere-2-Telomere (T2T) consortium, including the positioning of rDNA copies in the five acrocentric chromosomes [24].

In this study, we address outstanding gaps in our understanding of rDNA variation. We developed novel experimental and computational strategies to comprehensively analyze rDNA and rRNA variants. We have overcome the challenges of long-read rRNA sequencing, which enabled us to characterize transcribed full length human 18S and 28S rRNA from actively translating ribosomes. Surprisingly, only a fraction of rRNA variants are expressed at high abundance. We discovered extensive 18S and 28S diversity including novel ribosome subtypes, which have multiple linked sequence variants, whose rRNA sequences are positioned on different chromosomes. We compiled this resource as the first coherent atlas of 18S and 28S gene variations. We have made this resource available in standard formats with detailed usage examples. We further use this atlas to find major changes in relative abundance of rRNA variants across different tissues. Moreover, we show that the rRNA variants can be detected in biopsies and that specific rRNA variants are at higher frequencies in some types of cancer. Together, these results suggest that ribosomes with unique sequence variation may be used to modulate different cellular programs underlying human physiology and disease.

# Results

## An atlas of 18S and 28S human rDNA variants validated in rRNA of translating ribosomes

Previously, a quarter of rDNA positions were reported to bear sequence variants [11]. Yet, with the exception of several variants, it is unknown if variants are transcribed and assembled into functionally active ribosomes. Moreover, the absolute abundance of any variant within the cell remains completely unknown. Due to technological barriers from using short read sequencing, nucleotide variants were not aggregated beyond Single Nucleotide Variants (SNVs), and it is unknown if variants are grouped to higher levels of structural organization units such as whole gene variants. With no reference of different rRNA subtypes, studies performing RNA sequencing discard the majority of rRNA reads. These rRNA variants remain completely ignored, which limits our understanding of the contribution of rRNA to human physiology and disease.

In this study we have characterized all human 18S and 28S rRNA full length variants from a human embryonic stem cell line (H7-hESC). Sequencing of rRNA has been historically technically

challenging [17,25] and we therefore have optimized long read sequencing. Here in order to extract rRNA from translationally active ribosomes, we first employed sucrose gradient fractionation wherein ribosomes can be separated into free ribosomal subunits, and translationally active ribosomes, which contain one or more bound ribosomes. We extracted RNA from translating ribosomes-containing fractions (**Figure S1**)**,** performed reverse transcription, and then sequenced complete 18S and 28S rRNA by HiFi accurate long read sequencing (**Figure 1A**, **Methods**). Here, we obtained 128,801 sequences of the 18S and 28,853 sequences of the 28S rRNAs from translating ribosomes. Since the reverse transcription may introduce errors at modified rRNA sites, we also sequenced the rDNA, and only included rRNA variants found in both rDNA and rRNA of H7-hESC in the atlas of variants (**Methods**).

In order to identify all positions with sequence variants, we developed a computational method which we term Reference Gap Alignment (RGA). Importantly, multiple sequence alignment (MSA) is computationally challenging and current MSA methods are heuristic and do not offer optimal sequence alignment. Here, we do not perform MSA. Instead, we extract all variants at a given position with respect to a common reference in a non-heuristic method as follows (**Figure 1B, S2**):

1. We classified sequences as either 18S or 28S followed by Needleman–Wunsch global sequence alignment [27] of each H7-hESC sequence to one RNA45S5 reference (either 18S or 28S based on read classification) [28].
2. We created a reference sequence that aligns to all other sequences that we call a gap-aligned reference. This gap-aligned reference has the same sequence as the reference but at each nucleotide position we extended a gap at the size of the maximal gap found by the global sequence alignment to all sequences. Importantly, this gap-aligned reference allows straightforward comparison among all sequences without requiring computationally expensive all-by-all pairwise sequence alignments.
3. We aligned all H7-hESC sequences to the gap-aligned reference using the previous global alignment with additional extended gaps at reference positions.
4. Lastly, we extracted all variants at a given position, across all aligned sequences.

In agreement with previous studies [11,17], we found that rDNA is highly variable (**Figure 2A-B**). Yet studies ignore rDNA variations as they are usually not thought as being expressed. An outstanding question is whether this rDNA is transcribed into function rRNA that is part of the translating

ribosome. In this regard, we find that rDNA variants are also found in functionally translating ribosomes as they are present in polysome fractions (**Figure S1**). Remarkably, we found 256 SNVs in the 18S and 1338 SNVs in the 28S, corresponding to about one variant every four rRNA positions (**Figure S3A-B**). Most variants (59%) are in ES regions (**Figure S3A-B**, ES/non-ES regions are annotated). Most importantly, with full coverage of the underlying rDNA and transcribed rRNA copies, we can accurately measure the frequency of each variant. The vast majority of rRNA variants are at low abundance, with only one variant from the 18S and 41 variants from the 28S having frequencies above 10% (**Figure 2C-D, Figure S3** annotated positions, **S3C** minor allele frequency with dashed like marking at 10% frequency).

Next we focused on the high abundance SNVs (> 10% rRNA frequency). In the 18S gene, a single variant appears at high rRNA frequency but has low frequency in rDNA (**Figure 2C**). This variant is at position 807 and is part of the es6s region. This ES is in the binding site for important eukaryotic translation initiation factors eIF3 and eIF4G [29–31]. In contrast, for the 28S high abundance variants, there is very good agreement between variant frequencies in rRNA and rDNA (**Figure 2D**, R=0.93 Pearson correlation, correlating all variants (colored in red)). Notably, most of these variants are single nucleotide insertions, located in 5 ES regions (es7l, es15l, es27l, es31l and es39l), and 3 non-ES helices (28S:h11, h68 and h76) (**Figure 2E**). While the function of these ESs is largely unknown, a growing body of research supports various roles in translation regulation. es27l has been shown to be important for control of translation fidelity and binding of ribosome-associated proteins for several processes, such as initiator methionine cleavage from the nascent polypeptide [7] or acetylation of nascent polypeptides [6]. Moreover, es39l interacts with the Signal Recognition Particle (SRP), which identifies the signal sequence on nascent polypeptides emerging from the translating ribosome [32]. Interestingly, the most abundant variant in the non-ES helices, at position 60 in 28S:h11, a G to A substitution is unique to humans. The alternative allele, A, is the reference allele for other mammals including chimpanzees [33,34].

For most positions, the RNA45S5 reference allele is the major allele in the sequenced H7-hESC line (**Figure 2E**, reference allele in gray, **Extended Data 1-2 SNV atlas**). However, at 2 sites that belong to es15l region and another 2 sites that belong to es27l region, the 28S RNA45S5 reference allele is less abundant than other variants (**Figure 2E**, gray for the reference allele and red for variants). Importantly, the comparison between rRNA and rDNA revealed global high agreement between a

variant's copy number in rDNA and its rRNA expression levels. Additionally, most variants have low abundance. However, these variant frequencies change in the context of human physiology and disease (as we later analyze here).

rRNA genes are organized into domains with helix-like structures, including the ES regions (**Figure S3, S4, Table S1-2** for region annotation). Here, using full length rRNA and rDNA sequencing we bin variants to different structural units of the ribosome and created an atlas at four resolutions (1) nucleotide position (as described earlier), (2) helix, (3) ES and non-ES intervening regions, and (4) complete 18S and 28S gene-resolution with multiple linked sequence variants where we later describe to be separated into subtypes.

## 28S variants assemble to genomically distinct ribosome subtypes

Using long read sequencing and accurate variant calling we next analyzed 18S and 28S in their entirety to address the outstanding question of whether rDNA variations lead to the formation of different ribosome subtypes. For the 18S, variants appear at low frequency and therefore there is not much evidence for 18S subtypes. For the 28S, we found high agreement between rRNA and rDNA variant frequency so we first asked which rDNA variants are co-expressed on a given gene copy. To do this, we calculated the correlation coefficient (Pearson's $r^2$) between positions across all 28S H7-hESC rDNA sequences. This is analogous to measuring the linkage disequilibrium (LD) coefficient in population genetics, though across paralogous copies within a single genome rather than across individuals in a population. Notably, we found low global LD structure between highly abundant rDNA variants (**Figure 3A** showing LD for rDNA positions with found rRNA frequency > 10%), perhaps indicating high rates of nonallelic gene conversion across rDNA copies. The highest LD ($r^2 > 0.2$) was found within three ES regions, es15l, es27l and es39l. However for es7l region, all variants were in low LD. Comparing different regions, we found LD between four regions: 28S:h11, es15l, es27l and es39l, where in each region we identified a position with higher linkage to the other three regions (**Figure 3A**, four positions are annotated, position 60 being 28S:h11, with higher linkage to other positions). By considering the variants at this subset of positions, we found a total of 21 different haplotypes both in rDNA and rRNA that we consider as candidate 28S subtype variants (**Figure S5**).

We next asked if our atlas variants replicate in other datasets, and assessed their linkage. We ran our computational pipeline on two long-read DNA resources: (1) the fully assembled genome from the T2T with 219 rDNA copies with their chromosome location [24], and (2) the Genome In A Bottle (GIAB) dataset with HiFi long-read genomic DNA sequencing on two families and a cell line [35]. In the T2T we discovered that although there are only 35 reported rDNA SNVs, the high frequency rDNA SNVs in H7-hESC also appeared in high frequency in the T2T rDNA (**Figure S6A**, R=0.74 Pearson correlation). In the GIAB samples, like in the H7-hESC, we found hundreds of SNVs with high agreement between their frequencies and H7-hESC frequencies (**Figure S6B-D**). Next, we analyzed the LD of the same positions in the T2T and GIAB, and found once again that es7l positions have low LD, and es15l, es27l and es39l have relatively higher LD within each region (**Figure S7**). Moreover, 3 out of the 4 positions with higher linkage to other positions in the H7-hESC, had higher LD in the GIAB dataset (**Figure 3B**). Since these three variants are linked to variants at other positions (due to higher LD to other variants) we define the haplotypes formed by positions 60, 3513 and 4913, belonging to regions 28S:h11, es27l and es39l respectively, as different 28S subtypes (**Figure 3C**, **Extended Data 7 28S atlas**).

We next asked whether different 28S subtypes are spatially separated in the genome. For the H7-hESC we have 386 complete 28S rDNA sequences and in the GIAB dataset we randomly subsampled each GIAB sample to 386 complete 28S rDNA sequences. For these datasets, we do not know rDNA-chromosome positioning. Notably, by comparison of 28S rDNA sequence similarities we detected distinct 28S sequence groups in both hESC and GIAB (**Figure 3D**, Principal Coordinate Analysis, PCoA, of Bray-Curtis dissimilarities between 28S sequences [36], **Methods**). Notably, the different clusters in PCoA space match different 28S subtypes. Specifically, we observed that 28S sequences of a given subtype are more similar to one another in their entire sequence compared to 28S rRNAs of other subtypes (**Figure 3D**). In the T2T assembly, rDNA copies have chromosome coordinates, which enables us to measure 28S subtype presence at the five acrocentric chromosomes. Remarkably, we discovered that 28S subtypes are largely chromosome specific (**Figure 3E**). Taken together, this supports that 28S subtypes are genomically separated.

In conclusion, we present the first atlas of functional human rRNA variants at different resolutions, from SNVs to complete gene subtypes (**Extended Data 1-7**, **Methods**). Importantly, this atlas is an

essential resource for measuring the abundance of rRNA variants and their association across various biological conditions which we further analyze here.

## Quantifying rRNA variants relative abundances in expression data.

With this rRNA atlas, we next aimed to investigate how rRNA composition changes in different human conditions. Importantly, our atlas is a novel dataset of rRNA variants that enables us to measure rRNA variant composition in any sequencing dataset. Moreover, this resource is available in standard FASTA and VCF formats (**Extended Data**), which are useful for quantifying rRNA variant relative abundances, including in short read data without *de novo* assembly of variants. We aggregated SNVs to regional ES/non-ES regional variants as an atlas reference, which is well suited for mapping short-reads (**Figure 4A, Figure S8**, **Table S2**, **Extended Data 5-6, Methods** for usage instructions).

Here, we used the publicly available Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) short-read RNA-seq dataset to test if rRNA variant frequencies are associated with human tissue biology. Previous studies comparing mRNA across tissues in the GTEx dataset found tissue-specific, including brain-specific, gene expression [37,38]. Here we analyzed 2,618 samples from 332 individuals and 44 tissues from GTEx and asked if rRNA variants differ in their expression in these tissues (**Figure 4A**). We hypothesized that the rRNA regions, which were found here earlier to have high abundant variants in hESC (**Figure 2E**, namely, regions es6s from the 18S and h11, es7l, es15l, es27l, h76, es31l and es39l from the 28S), may be important for tissue development. Surprisingly, some of the highly abundant hESC regional variants were not highly abundant in GTEx (**Table S3**, highest regional variants expressed in GTEx). Nonetheless, the most abundant variant in GTEx in each of these regions significantly differed in expression in many tissues (**Figure 4B-I, Figure S9-12**, and **Table S4**: P-value < 0.05 FDR corrected Mann-Whitney U rank sum test; **Table S5**: P-value < 0.05 FDR corrected MANOVA test). Notably, when comparing the regional variant expression across tissues, we observe significant difference between tissues derived from the ectoderm and endoderm germ layers (**Figure 4J-Q, Table S6** FDR corrected ranksums test comparing regional variant median relative abundances of ectoderm-derived tissues in blue and endoderm-derived tissues in red). Most of the ectoderm derived tissues belong to brain tissues and most endoderm derived tissues are digestive-system tissues (**Figure 4A** endoderm and ectoderm derived tissues are labeled). Next, we asked if rRNA subtypes associate with tissues and analyzed the newest nanopore long-read

RNA-seq GTEx dataset with 88 samples from 12 tissues [39]. In this dataset, however, we found only 213 complete rRNA reads, 208 reads being from fibroblasts (**Table S7**). While this dataset is not suitable for comparing the 28S subtypes across tissues, we found the same 28S subtypes in the fibroblasts (**Table S7**). Taken together, our results support major changes in the expression of rRNA variants across tissues which could be a result of differential expression of 28S subtypes.

Lastly, we asked if changes in the expression of rRNA variants are associated with cancer. For this, we used 10,030 samples of short-read RNA-seq with clinical phenotypes from The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) [40]. When comparing cancer types, we found distinct expression patterns of rRNA regional variants across cancers (**Figure S13-18**). This observation is in agreement with our finding that rRNA variants are differentially expressed across tissues (**Figure 4**). To test if rRNA variants are cancer-specific, we compared cancer biopsies to control biopsies from the same tissues. Strikingly, we identified specific rRNA regional variants which are found in low abundance in control biopsies and are significantly differentially expressed in cancer biopsies for 11 cancers (**Figure 5**, **Table S8** for alternative allele regional variant abundances**, Table S9,** P-value < 0.05 after FDR correction, Mann-Whitney U rank sum test). Thus even low abundant variants hold immense importance as disease biomarkers.

We conclude that our atlas enables direct measuring of rRNA variants changes in expression data. Moreover, we showed that atlas variants are functional in translating ribosomes and that they are differentially expressed across tissues and cancer-types.

# Discussion

With hundreds of rDNA copy numbers in the genome and poor understanding of their sequence variation, rDNA and other repetitive genomic regions could be considered the 'dark-matter' of the genome. Neither CRISPR genome editing nor assembly of rDNA genes with short-read sequencing is currently possible with these high copy numbers. However, long-read sequencing has enabled the final assembly of these highly repetitive regions. Here, using high quality long read sequencing of rDNA, and rRNA of actively translating ribosomes, we were able to curate an atlas of over a thousand rRNA sequence variants from an H7-hESC line. By analyzing full length 18S and 28S rRNA, we built an atlas at different resolutions from nucleotide position variants to 28S gene-level subtypes as a

useful resource for studying rRNA variations, and composition across biological conditions (**Extended data 1-5**).

Utilizing the first fully assembled human genome, from the T2T Consortium [24], we have discovered chromosome associated rDNA subtypes. It is an interesting finding in light of the prevailing understanding in the field about concerted evolution of rDNA units [41–43]. Specifically, it has been hypothesized that a tandem array of rDNA genes is generated from unequal crossing over between sister chromatids [44–46], leading to homogenization of rDNA units within a single chromosomal locus. It is possible that chromosomally distinct rDNA subtypes are important to maintain functionally different subtypes from being lost. Additionally, spatial separation of rDNA haplotypes might enable regulation of their expression at the chromosome level, through allelic inactivation of rDNA loci or inactivation of nucleolar organizer regions (NORs) in the distal junction [47–49].

With the creation of this comprehensive characterization of functional human rRNA variants, we have enabled greater understanding of the often neglected yet ubiquitous rRNA sequencing data. Our study offers the community a new resource to study rRNA in various biological systems. By utilizing publicly available datasets from GTEx and TCGA, we have found tissue and cancer-specific expression of human rRNA variants, which suggest regulation of ribosome composition in both normal and diseased physiology. In GTEx, we identified tissue-specific rRNA composition. It is yet to be discovered if the differential expression of these variants comes from different 28S subtypes. We have analyzed the GTEx long read dataset [39], however very few full length rRNA reads were found, highlighting the importance of our method in optimizing full length rRNA reverse transcription for 28S subtype analyses.

It is possible that human rRNA variants fine-tune regulation of mRNA translation, based on differential association with ribosome-associated proteins, mRNA transcripts, or other factors. We observed interesting differential expression of rRNA variants between tissues beloging to ectoderm and endoderm lineages. This pattern might hint at specialized functions of different ribosome subtypes. Long-lived cells associated with the nervous system might require ribosome subtypes that emphasize translation fidelity over speed, as compared to rapidly dividing cells in the digestive tract for example that require constant replacement given harsh local environments. Indeed, our lab and others have previously shown that es27l plays a role in translation fidelity through association with

ribosome-associated proteins [7,50,51]. Such interactions that trade speed over fidelity might be fine-tuned by the expression of different rRNA variants.

Finally, in cancer we discovered that some low abundant rRNA variants in control biopsies were elevated in cancer biopsies. Future work is needed to understand whether they promote oncogenic ribosome activity and how they are regulated. These results are in agreement with the growing appreciation that ribosomes in cancer may have different rRNA modifications and activities [52–56]. Therefore our results provide another layer of ribosome specificity wherein cancer cells might deploy a particular rRNA variant that is more compatible with their cellular fitness. Importantly, we found that specific rRNA variants may be used as biomarkers for disease. Notably, 5-fluorouracil, a common chemotherapy drug, was recently shown to incorporate into rRNA and promote drug resistance by changing mRNA translation [57]. Together, it may be that drugs directly target specific rRNA variants and further examination would be needed to test whether they should be used for cancer specific therapy.

Together, our results provide the first atlas to distinguish different types of ribosomes and to link them to different cellular programs, including those underlying human health and disease.

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# Authors contributions

DR conceived the project, designed experimental and computational analyzes, conducted all computational analyses, interpreted the results, and wrote the manuscript. TTS designed and conducted all experiments, interpreted the results, and wrote the manuscript. JPS helped in computational analyses. NG helped in experimental data collection. NSA helped interpret GTEx data, MB and JKP conceived and directed the project and analyses, designed the analyses, interpreted the results and wrote the manuscript.

# Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

# Data and materials availability

The atlas is available as Extended Data to this publication.
H7-hESC raw rDNA and rRNA sequencing data is available under BioProject ID PRJNA926787.

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# Figures

**Figure 1. Graphical Illustration of the rRNA atlas variant extraction pipeline.**

A. 18S and 28S rDNA / rRNA sequence extraction pipeline from H7-hESC

B. Variant extraction pipeline that starts with 18S and 28S rRNA / rDNA sequences from (A)

**Figure 2. 18S and 28S rRNA atlas variants and high correlation between rDNA and rRNA variant frequency.**

A. 40S 3D structure with 18S atlas SNVs. Ribosomal proteins are presented in semitransparent green, 18S rRNA in gray. SNVs variants are highlighted in red.

B. Same as (A) for the 60S and the 28S atlas SNVs.

C. Scatter plot of 18S rRNA frequency (x-axis) and rDNA frequency (y-axis) for reference and alternate alleles. Alternate alleles are marked in red and reference alleles are marked in gray. A dashed black line indicates rRNA frequency equal to 10%. Spearman and Pearson correlations for rRNA frequency and rDNA frequency between alternate alleles alone are presented (calculated on variants, red dots alone).

D. Same as (C) for the 28S.

E. Stacked bar plots of allele frequencies at positions with rRNA SNVs with frequency >10%. The nucleotide sequence matching the alleles are indicated inside the bar plots for variants with >10% allele frequency. The reference allele is indicated in gray and alternate alleles are indicated in red colors.

**Figure 3. 28S subtypes found by haplotype analysis**

A. Correlation coefficient (Pearson's $r^2$) heatmap between positions across H7-hESC 28S rDNA with variant frequency >10%. X-axis and Y-axis are annotated by regions. Helix regions are annotated by light blue and ES regions are annotated by yellow. Individual positions with higher $r^2$ between regions are also indicated.

B. Same as (A) for the Genome In A Bottle (GIAB) dataset.

C. Haplotype digit code to variant sequence conversion at the 3 positions with higher $r^2$ in (A) and (B)

D. Bray-Curtis Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) of 386 H7-hESC 28S rDNA sequences (upper panel) and 386 28S rDNA sequences from each GIAB sample (lower panel). Each dot is a complete 28S rDNA sequence. The colors correspond to coloring an rDNA sequence by its 3 position haplotype described in (C). Numbers in the X and Y labels represent the PCoA explained variance.

E. Telomere-to-telomere haplotype distribution across the 5 acrocentric chromosomes. The rDNA acrocentric arms are presented in a schematic cartoon with proportions of rDNA haplotypes in different colors as found in the matching table below. Haplotypes match the 3 position haplotypes in (C). We indicate the rDNA copy number of each haplotype in every chromosome.

**Figure 4. rRNA variant expression is tissue specific and differs between tissues derived from the ectoderm and endoderm lineages**

A. Schematic representation of the GTEx analysis focusing on Cortex versus Stomach comparison. We map rRNA reads from different samples to rRNA regional variants (See **Figure S8** for ES/non-ES atlas and **Methods** for usage). Per rRNA regional variant, we illustrate variant expression comparison between tissues: Upper panel with a box plot comparing rRNA regional expression in Cortex and Stomach samples. Bottom panel shows the median rRNA regional expression across all tissues. Cortex and Stomach are annotated, and all ectoderm and endoderm tissues are highlighted in blue/red marks.

B. Box plot comparing es6s rRNA regional variant, ES:es6s:12_d1_r31, expression in Lung and Gastroesophageal Junction samples.

C. Same as (B) for region 28S:h11 (pre-es5l), ES:pre_es5l:1_d119_r4743, highlighting Stomach and Tibial nerve.

D. Same as (B) for region es7l, ES:es7l:7_d1_r39, highlighting Testis and Brain Spinal cord.

E. Same as (B) for region es15l, ES:es15l:19_d1_r17, highlighting Testis and Brain Spinal cord.

F. Same as (B) for region es27l, ES:es27l:1_d5_r280, highlighting Transverse colon and Brain Substantia nigra.

G. Same as (B) for region h76 (pre-es31l), ES:pre_es31l:1_d21_r5146, highlighting Esophagus mucosa and Brain Caudate nucleus.

H. Same as (B) for region es31l, ES:es31l:2_d1_r488, highlighting Adrenal gland and Brain Cerebellum.

I. Same as (B) for region es39l, ES:es39l:11_d2_r45, highlighting Terminal ileum and Heart Left ventricle.

J. Scatter plot showing median frequency of es6s regional variant, ES:es6s:12_d1_r31, across all tissues. Tissues derived from ectoderm are marked in blue, tissues derived from endoderm are marked in red, other tissues in gray. The Lung and Gastroesophageal Junction that were shown in panel (B) are annotated with a line.

K. Same as (J) for region 28S:h11 (pre-es5l), ES:pre_es5l:1_d119_r4743, the Stomach and Tibial nerve that were shown in panel (C) are annotated with a line.

L. Same as (J) for region es7l, ES:es7l:7_d1_r39, the Testis and Brain Spinal cord that were shown in panel (D) are annotated with a line.

M.  Same as (J) for region es15l, ES:es15l:19_d1_r17, the Testis and  Brain Spinal cord  that were shown in panel (E) are annotated with a line.

N.  Same as (J) for region es27l, ES:es27l:1_d5_r280, the Transverse colon and Brain Substantia nigra that were shown in panel (F) are annotated with a line.

O.  Same as (J) for region h76 (pre-es31l), ES:pre_es31l:1_d21_r5146, the Esophagus mucosa and Brain Caudate nucleus that were shown in panel (G) are annotated with a line.

P.  Same as (J) for region es31l, ES:es31l:2_d1_r488, the Adrenal gland and Brain Cerebellum that were shown in panel (H) are annotated with a line.

Q.  Same as (J) for region es39l, ES:es39l:11_d2_r45, the Terminal ileum and Heart Left ventricle that were shown in panel (I) are annotated with a line.

**Figure 5. Cancer-specific rRNA variant expression**

A. Box plot showing the rRNA frequency of the top expressed, alternate allele regional variant, of 28S:h61 (pre-es27l), ES:pre_es27l:11_d1_r27, across TCGA cancer and control samples for Breast Invasive Carcinoma.

B. Same as (A) for region 28S:h52 (pre-es20l), ES:pre_es20l:1_d1_r348,  in Liver Hepatocellular Carcinoma.

C. Same as (A) for region es43l, ES:es43l:2_d9_r420, in Colon Adenocarcinoma.

D. Same as (A)  for region es5l, ES:es5l:2_d4_r495, in Lung Squamous Cell Carcinoma.

E. Same as (A)  for region h101 (post-es41l), ES:post_es41l:2_d2_r168, in Uterine Corpus Endometrial Carcinoma.

F. Same as (A)  for region es45l, ES:es45l:4_d1_r82, in Prostate Adenocarcinoma.