Complete chromosome 21 centromere sequencing of families with Down syndrome reveals centromere size asymmetry

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ABSTRACT

Down syndrome, the most common form of human intellectual disability, is caused by nondisjunction and chromosome 21 trisomy (T21). Small centromeres have been hypothesized to contribute to its aetiology and studies on mammals suggest that larger centromeres are more efficiently transmitted, yet complete sequencing of chromosome 21 (chr21) centromeres has been particularly challenging. Using long-read sequencing, we sequenced and assembled the centromeres from eight families that include a child with free T21 (1 trio, 6 child–mother duos, and 1 singleton) all resulting from maternal meiosis I errors. Two of these families carry the smallest chr21 centromeres (143 and 181 kbp) observed in female individuals to date, exhibiting a ~10.7- and ~19.4-fold centromeric α-satellite higher-order repeat array size difference between the maternally inherited homologs, respectively. In both cases, the longer centromere harbors a poorly defined centromere dip region, marked by DNA hypomethylation, in the proband but not in the mother. A comparison of all proband chr21 centromeres (n=24) to those of controls (n=261) shows that small centromeres are not enriched in families with T21 (p-value=0.73); contrarily, chr21 extreme centromere size asymmetry (>10-fold) is unique of T21 (p-value=0.003), suggesting that this feature may represent a genetic risk factor for a subset of families with free T21. Additionally, phylogenetic reconstruction reveals that human chr21 has been particularly prone to such variation with some of the biggest size differences occurring over the last ~17 thousand years of human evolution.

KEYWORDS

Down syndrome, Trisomy 21, centromere, chromosome 21, intellectual disability, aneuploidy, long-read sequencing, methylation, genome assembly

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CDR = centromere dip region

chr21 = chromosome 21

FISH = fluorescence *in situ* hybridization

Gbp = Gigabase pairs

IF = immunofluorescence

kbp = kilobase pairs

kya = thousand years ago

H1/2/3/4 = haplotype 1/2/3/4

HiFi = high fidelity

HGSVC = Human Genome Structural Variation Consortium

HPRC = Human Pangenome Reference Consortium

HOR = higher-order repeat

MMI/IIE = maternal meiosis I/II error

Mbp = Megabase pairs

PacBio = Pacific Biosciences

T21 = Trisomy 21

T2T = telomere-to-telomere

UL-ONT = ultra-long Oxford Nanopore Technologies sequencing

INTRODUCTION

Trisomy 21 (T21) is the most common autosomal chromosomal aneuploidy in humans[1] and the most common genomic cause of intellectual disability[2]. The clinical condition, known as Down syndrome, in most cases (>95%) is caused by the presence of an entire extra chromosome 21 (chr21) in the cells of the individual with the syndrome (free T21)[2]. Other cases are caused by a portion or the entire long arm of chr21 translocated to another chromosome as a result of Robertsonian translocations t(14;21) or t(21;21) or mosaic occurrences[2]. The majority of cases arise as a result of maternal meiosis I errors (MMIEs; ~66%), followed by maternal meiosis II errors (MMIIEs; ~21%), paternal meiosis I (~3%) and meiosis II (~5%) errors, or mitotic events after the zygote formation (~5%)[2].

Centromeres play an essential role in accurate chromosome segregation during meiosis by promoting equal segregation of homologous chromosomes and sister chromatids. Human centromeric regions consist of different types of satellite DNA, with the most abundant type being α-satellite: a ~171 base pair (bp) nearly identical sequence tandemly repeated up to several megabase pairs (Mbp) in length[3]. For most human chromosomes, the functional centromere is composed of α-satellite repeats organized into higher-order repeat (HOR) arrays that tend to diverge in sequence at the pericentromeric edges. Until recently, the complete sequence of all human centromeres was unknown because they could not be assembled with standard short-read sequencing data. However, in the last five years, improvements in long-read sequencing technologies and computational assembly methods have made it possible to assemble centromeres[4–7], the short arm of acrocentric chromosomes[8,9], large segmental duplications[10,11], and other complex loci[8,12,13] previously regarded as inaccessible.

Functionally, the kinetochore is marked by the presence of nucleosomes containing the histone

variant H3 CENP-A, which provides the foundation for the assembly of inner- and outer-

kinetochore proteins and plays a crucial role in cell division and chromosome segregation[14,15].

The analysis of the complete sequence of human centromeres[5–7] has made it possible to define

the likely site of kinetochore attachment: a pocket of hypomethylated CpG DNA called the

centromere dip region (CDR)[16,17], where chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by sequencing

(ChIP-seq) shows an enrichment of CENP-A. All completely sequenced human centromeres to

date derive from primary tissue (blood) or cell lines and possess CDRs up to tens of kilobase

pairs (kbp) in length where CENP-A accumulates, implicating this as a general epigenetic

signature of the kinetochore[7].

Given their role in cell division, centromeres, and in particular length differences, have been

postulated to play an important role in chromosome nondisjunction, including Down

syndrome[18,19]. Some studies on mice suggest that centromeres with longer repeat arrays are

preferentially retained in the egg during maternal meiosis I[20–23] and that in general, centromeric

features, such as sequence and length, and kinetochore components[23–26] are correlated: a

concept known as "centromere strength." A recent investigation in humans also suggested that

individuals with T21 might uniformly have smaller chr21 centromeres (possibly as a result of

reduced size of the centromeric α-satellite HOR array)[27]. Centromere size was estimated,

however, based on quantitative, real-time PCR[27], which can be challenging given the high

degree of sequence identity between chromosome 13 and 21 α-satellite DNA and a limited

understanding of the sequence diversity within the allelic α-satellite HOR array[27]. Other studies

showed that cohesion loss between sister centromeres[28] and reduced recombination[29] increase

the risk of nondisjunction. Nevertheless, the most well-established nongenetic risk factor is

increased maternal age at conception[19], though there is not a well-established genetic risk

factor for free T21.

It is currently unknown whether centromere variation amongst humans increases the likelihood

of nondisjunction. For instance, centromere size, sequence, allelic differences, and epigenetic

features might influence nondisjunction risk and indicate predisposition to such events.

Recently, combining both Pacific Biosciences (PacBio) high-fidelity (HiFi) long-read sequencing

and ultra-long Oxford Nanopore Technologies (UL-ONT) sequencing, we demonstrated that it is

possible to completely sequence and distinguish human autosomal alleles for chr21[7]. Here, we

present the first complete linear sequence and epigenetic profile of chr21 centromeres in eight

individuals with MMIE free T21 and eight of their parents (7 mothers and 1 father). We also

compare genetic and epigenetic features of the chr21 centromeres to a control group of 261

completely sequenced chr21 centromeres from two hydatidiform moles and control individuals

generated as part of the Human Genome Structural Variation Consortium[30] (HGSVC) and

Human Pangenome Reference Consortium[31] (HPRC) to reveal unique features of T21

centromeres.

RESULTS

Maternally inherited chr21 centromeres show size asymmetry in an individual with T21.

To study the chr21 centromeres of an individual with T21, we initially sequenced the DNA of a

proband (maternal age at childbirth = 29) using both PacBio HiFi sequence data (59×) and UL-

ONT sequence data (23×). We used Verkko, a hybrid genome assembly workflow[32], to

assemble all proband chr21 centromere haplotypes (total genome assembly size = 6.118 Gbp,

contigs = 3,466, contig N50 = 7.72 Mbp). After standard validation and quality control[5,7]

(**Methods**, **Supplementary Figure 1**), sequence assembly of phased chr21 centromere

haplotypes confirmed an MMIE where haplotypes 1 (H1) and 2 (H2) arose from maternal

nondisjunction and haplotype 3 (H3) was inherited from the father (**Figure 1a**).

H1 and H3 centromeres are the most similar in size with an α-satellite HOR array of ~1.53 Mbp

and ~1.47 Mbp, respectively. By contrast, maternal H2 is 10.7-fold smaller, with an α-satellite

HOR array of only 143 kbp (**Figure 1a**). The α-satellite HOR array sequences from all three

haplotypes are predominantly composed of 11-monomer α-satellite HORs (~86-93%) with a

smattering of rarer α-satellite HORs 2-, 10-, 13-, 17-, and 18-monomers in length (each

constituting <3% of the sequence) (**Figure 1a; Supplementary Table 1**). Other than their size,

the three chr21 centromeres share a remarkably similar organization, with the α-satellite HOR

array flanked by human satellite 1a (HSat1a; annotated as "SAR'' by RepeatMasker) on the p-

arm and various classes of mobile elements (SINEs and LINEs) on the q-arm. Also, H3 is

distinguished by a 317 bp AluY retrotransposon insertion in its α-satellite HOR array (**Figure**

1a).

Given the use of long-read sequencing, which allows for CpG methylation to be detected, we

were able to assess the position and distribution of each chr21 centromere CDR, the pocket of

hypomethylated DNA indicating the location of the kinetochore[5,6,17]. Both H2 and H3 match this

description with a CDR of 120 kbp and 135 kbp, respectively. By contrast, the maternally

inherited H1 does not have a clearly defined CDR. The CDR is fragmented into five smaller

pockets ranging from 10 to 50 kbp and spanning across 280 kbp of centromeric α-satellite

HORs (**Figure 1b**). For each CDR, we calculated the percentage of methylated CpGs (defined

as having ≥25% methylated CpGs at the same position; **Methods**) across the region comprising

the CDR pockets (from the start of the first CDR window to the end of the last one). We found

that the percentage of methylated CpGs within H1's CDR was much higher than those of H2

and H3 CDRs (~71% vs. ~39% and ~38%, respectively; **Figure 1b**). This more diffuse pattern

of CDRs is associated with the largest HOR array within this family. We orthogonally validated

the centromere methylation profiles using PacBio HiFi sequencing data (**Supplementary**

Figure 2).

Because of the central role of centromeric proteins, such as CENP-A and CENP-C, in defining

the site of kinetochore assembly other than the CDRs, we assessed the level of CENP-A and

CENP-C on chr21 centromeres in proband AG16777 and their parents using an

immunofluorescence (IF) combined with fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH) targeting the

α-satellite sequence, CENP-A, and CENP-C proteins (**Supplementary Figure 3**). We observed,

however, no statistically significant differences in CENP-A or CENP-C signal intensities in any

member of the family.

For each chr21 centromere, we also generated sequence identity heatmaps, based on pairwise

sequence alignment of 5 kbp segments using StainedGlass[33] (**Figure 1c**). All three haplotypes

show similar compositional features, with the most identical segments mapping to the central

section of the α-satellite HOR array but not corresponding to the CDR, with the exception of H2

due to its smaller size. This structure is also similar to the complete chr21 α-satellite HOR arrays

described for two complete hydatidiform moles (CHM1 and CHM13)[5,6], as well as population

samples[7], and generally follows the Smith organizational model with monomeric satellite at the

edges as previously described in 1976[34]. For both H1 and H3, the CDR and the predicted site of

kinetochore attachment occur peripherally in a region composed of more heterogeneous α-

satellite HOR cassettes (with an admixture of 5- and 11-monomer HORs).

For this index family, we also studied additional proband centromeres (chromosomes 4, 12, 15)

for which both haplotypes were correctly assembled (**Supplementary Figure 4**). Chromosome

12 homologs are the only ones having the CDRs roughly in the same relative position on both

homologs. Chromosome 4 and 15 haplotype CDRs are positioned differently instead and one of

chromosome 4 is divided into three windows intervaled by small highly methylated regions

(**Supplementary Figure 4**) confirming the CDR heterogeneity recently observed by Logsdon et

al. from their analysis of cell line samples as part of the HGSVC[35].

Figure 1. Genetic composition and epigenetic profile of three chromosome 21 (chr21) centromeres
from an individual with Trisomy 21 (T21). a) Size and repeat composition of three centromeric
haplotypes for an individual with T21 (Coriell ID: AG16777). Different α-satellite higher-order repeat
(HOR) monomers mapping within the α-satellite array are colored (see legend). Only α-satellite HOR
monomers present more than 10 times in at least one haplotype are shown (see **Supplementary Table 1**
for complete monomer composition). **b)** Methylation profile of each centromere with hypomethylated
pockets indicating the location of the kinetochore. **c)** Pairwise sequence identity heatmaps
(StainedGlass[33]). Sequence identity is depicted in 5 kbp windows across the centromeres revealing
regions of high- and low-identity homology within each α-satellite HOR array (see legend).
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Parental chr21 centromeres show transgenerational methylation changes and suggest a

preferential CDR position. To understand the inheritance of the chr21 centromeres, we

sequenced and assembled the genomes of both parents using DNA extracted from

lymphoblastoid cell lines and fully reconstructed each of the centromere haplotypes from the

diploid parental cell lines. We generated PacBio HiFi sequencing data at 37× coverage for the

mother and 40× for the father and complemented these data with UL-ONT data at 25× and 12×

coverage, respectively, to generate *de novo* assemblies (mother: total genome assembly size =

6.078 Gbp, contigs = 4,827, contig N50 = 5.41 Mbp; father: total genome assembly size = 5.947

Gbp, contigs = 5,032, contig N50 = 5.01 Mbp). Centromeric contigs from chr21 were extracted,

validated, and compared to the child with T21 (see **Methods** for assembly correction).

Sequencing confirmed that the largest and the smallest chr21 centromeres (H1 and H2,

respectively) were maternally transmitted, while H3 originated from the father (**Figure 2a-b**).

Sequence identity between parent and proband haplotypes was >99.99% identical, confirming

the accuracy of the assembly as well as the stability of the centromere transgenerationally and

in cell culture (**Supplementary Figure 5**). No difference in the α-satellite repeat composition,

organization, or array size was observed, except for a 1 bp deletion in the poly(T) tract

associated with an AluY insertion on the paternal haplotype (H3) when compared to the

proband (**Supplementary Figure 6**). We note that the second non-transmitted paternal

haplotype (father H4) has an α-satellite HOR array size of 254 kbp (**Figure 2a**). This is 112 kbp

larger than the small maternal haplotype (H2). Like the other haplotypes, the 11-monomer α-

satellite HORs constitute the majority of its array sequence (~86%), with 2- to 5-, 7-, 9-, 10-, and

13-monomer HORs at lower frequency (each composing <6% of the array sequence).

Comparing the centromeric CpG methylation profiles between the parents and the proband, we

find that the atypical methylation pattern observed in proband H1 (five hypomethylated pockets

10-50 kbp in size) appears to be specific to the proband (**Figure 2a-b**; see **Supplementary**

Figure 2 for orthogonal validation). The mother shows a more typical CpG methylation profile,

with two clear CDRs of 30 and 105 kbp in length, and ~46% methylated CpGs across the region

comprising the CDR pockets. This is 25% less compared to the proband (~71%), and it

contrasts with the transmitted maternal H2 (42% vs. 39% in proband) and paternal H3 (48% vs.

38% in proband), which show more similar CDR patterns. The CDRs of chr21 H2 and H3

centromeres differ by only an estimated 5-10 kbp in size between the generations (**Figure 2c**).

We also observe a shift of both proband H2 and H3 CDRs towards the p-arm relative to the

parents despite nearly identical sequences. The maternal H2 CDR, for example, starts 37 kbp

from the beginning of the α-satellite array, while in the proband, the hypomethylated pocket

starts 11 kbp upstream. The paternal H3 has a CDR initiating 131 kbp from the beginning of the

α-satellite HOR array, which is shifted 25 kbp towards the p-arm in the proband (**Figure 2c**).

Figure 2. Genetic and epigenetic features of parent–proband transmission of chr21 centromeres.
Composition and organization of α-satellite HOR arrays (only α-satellite HORs present more than 10
times in at least one haplotype are shown; see **Supplementary Table 1** for complete HOR composition),
with CpG methylation profiles of **a)** parental chr21 centromeres and **b)** transmitted proband chr21
centromeres. **c)** Log_2 ratio of CpG methylation frequency between proband and parental haplotypes.
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Analysis of additional families with Down syndrome reveals another case of asymmetric chr21 centromeres. To validate the findings from the index trio, we generated PacBio HiFi and UL-ONT sequence data from seven additional families: six mother-proband duos where MMIEs had been previously identified and one singleton where parental DNA was not available. Importantly, unlike the original trio, in six of these families both blood and cell line DNA material were available for investigation. Because the maternal age of the index case was 29 years, we specifically selected mothers representing a younger age range (20-34 years) (**Supplementary Table 2**). Despite the well-known maternal age effect with T21, we note, however, that this age range still represents the majority of the cases in the extended collection from the Atlanta and National Down Syndrome Projects[36,37] (maternal age at birth <35 for ~54% of the cases; 2,171/3,985), with a mean maternal age at birth of 32.9 years old. We assembled their genomes with the same methods used for the original family (probands mean genome assembly size = 6.072 Gbp, # of contigs = 1,237, contig N50 = 45.84 Mbp; mothers mean genome assembly size = 6.064 Gbp, # of contigs = 2,217, contig N50 = 35.16) and analyzed their chr21 centromeric sequences. Of the proband centromeres, 95% (20/21) were completely assembled while 67% (8/12) of the maternal centromeric haplotypes were assembled without any detectable error.

In this extended cohort, we identified one additional family showing extreme centromere size differences similar to that described in the original trio with T21. Duo 7210079 shows a 19.4-fold chr21 centromere size difference between maternal homologs (original trio: 10.7-fold) with a small centromere α-satellite HOR array of only 181 kbp (original trio: 143 kbp) and a longer one of ~3.5 Mbp (original trio: 1.5 Mbp). In this duo as well, we observed a *de novo* epigenetic change in the centromeric methylation profile, with the proband having a less-defined CDR compared to the maternal for the largest haplotype (**Figure 3**). Since the 7210079.00-H3 centromere was not assembled completely in the proband, we leveraged the maternal locus

(assembled contiguously with few sequence errors) as a reference to align UL-ONT reads both

from mother and child and compare methylation profiles and CDR structure. Specifically, the

maternal CDR maps to a unique window of 150 kbp more proximally toward the p-arm, while in

the proband, the CDR is divided into five smaller windows (size range 75-10 kbp) despite

remaining in the same genomic area (**Figure 3**). Mother 7210079.20 had a similar age at

childbirth (age: 27) as the original trio mother (age: 29).

A third family from the cohort with T21, 7210223, showed an epigenetic change between the

transmitting parent and proband despite showing only a 2.6-fold centromere size difference

between maternal homologs (587 kbp and 1.5 Mbp). Contrary to what we observed for the other

two families with extreme maternal size difference, we observe a CDR shift occurring on the

smaller maternally inherited centromere for proband 7210223.00. The 7210223.00-H2

centromere (size: 587 kbp) shows four CDR windows in the mother (size range 50-10 kbp)

distributed across 170 kbp, while in the proband, we detect six smaller CDRs ranging in size

from 10 to 20 kbp distributed across 310 kbp (**Supplementary Figure 7**). For all other families,

only minor transgenerational changes in the CDR methylation profiles were observed for chr21

centromeres (**Supplementary Figure 7**). Among the remaining five probands, all have maternal

homologs that are at least 1 Mbp large and a size difference of less than twofold

(**Supplementary Table 2**).

With respect to sequence composition, most proband centromeric α-satellite HOR arrays in this

cohort are similar to the original, composed predominantly of 11-monomer α-satellite HORs

(~77-94%), with rarer HORs representing the rest of the sequence. Notably, 4710291.00-H3

has 10% of its sequence composed of a 4-monomer α-satellite HOR, 7210239.00-H1 has 8%,

and 7210008.00-H1 has 5%. The smallest haplotype of this cohort, 7210079.00-H1, has 9% of

its sequence organized in a 9-monomer HOR (**Supplementary Table 1**). However,

7210079.00-H3 is unique compared to all the other centromeres. Based on the maternal α-

satellite HOR array structure (**Figure 3**), it is the largest centromere sequenced amongst all

characterized (α-satellite HOR array of ~3.5 Mbp), with almost 1 Mbp more sequence than the

second largest (4710291.00-H3). Also, its predominant α-satellite HOR array unit is composed

of 5-monomer units (88%) with only 6.65% of its sequence made up of the more typical 11-

monomer units.

Because both blood and cell line DNA were available for a subset of the probands, we

compared the chr21 centromere methylation patterns for the two sample types for the five

probands with complete centromeres. PacBio HiFi data were generated from blood DNA, and

UL-ONT data were generated from cell line DNA. We confirm that the CDR positions remain the

same from primary tissue (blood) to cell line (lymphoblastoid) (**Supplementary Figure 8**). This

was concluded by observing ONT and HiFi data processed with the latest methylation callers

dorado (v0.4.2) or guppy (6.3.7 or newer) and Jasmine (v2.2.1), respectively. We also

confirmed the methylation callers' concordance in the original trio AG167 (**Supplementary**

Figure 2) and other samples (**Supplementary Figure 8**), for which the two long-read datasets

were generated from cell lines. Despite a stable CDR position, we observed an overall higher

level of methylation in blood and more readily defined CDR in lymphoblastoid cell lines

(**Supplementary Figure 8**).

Figure 3. **Chromosome 21 (chr21) centromeres in duo 7210079 exhibit size asymmetry and transgenerational methylation changes**. Repeat structure, α-satellite HOR array organization, CpG methylation profile, and NucFreq validation of each chr21 centromere in 7210079 mother–child duo. Transgenerational DNA methylation changes are circled in red. The 7210079.00 proband H3 was not completely assembled. Since the same haplotype was assembled in the mother, we used the maternal assembly as reference to study the methylation profile in the proband.

Population chr21 centromere diversity and phylogeny. To understand genetic and

epigenetic diversity in the general population, we initially selected 35 fully resolved chr21

centromere haplotypes from 16 different ethnic groups representing all five ancestry

superpopulations as defined by the 1000 Genomes Project[38]. We observed considerable

diversity in α-satellite HOR composition and length amongst these 35 complete chr21

centromeres. While the most prevalent α-satellite HOR is 11-monomers in length and comprises

~83% to ~95% of the α-satellite HOR array sequence, in most of the complete chr21

centromeres, we also detect less abundant α-satellite HORs that are 12, 14, 15, 16, and 20 α-

satellite monomers in length (**Supplementary Table 1, Figure 4a-b**). There are two notable

haplotypes whose composition differs markedly from the predominant 11-monomer α-satellite

HOR organization: an individual of Gambian (GWD) descent, HG02647, carries a 4-monomer α-

satellite HOR composing ~15% of its H2 centromere sequence; and an individual of Punjabi

(PJB) descent, HG03710, with 44% of its H1 centromere sequence composed of 5-monomer α-

satellite HORs (**Figure 4c, Supplementary Table 1**). The 7210079.00-H3 described earlier is

the only other chr21 centromere containing a majority of 5-monomer HORs (88%), and along

with HG03710-H1, represent the two largest chr21 centromeres sequenced to date. Sequence

identity plots (**Figure 4c**) also reveal that the 11-monomer-enriched α-satellite HOR region of

HG03710-H1 shows greater sequence identity when compared to the 5-monomer-enriched

regions. In contrast, the 4-monomer α-satellite HOR of HG02647-H2 shows greater sequence

identity when compared to other flanking monomers (**Figure 4c**). If sequence divergence is a

proxy for evolutionary age, our analyses may suggest that the 4-monomer α-satellite HOR has

more recently evolved, while the 5-monomer α-satellite HOR is more ancient. Notwithstanding,

both of these rarer centromere haplotypes map their CDRs to the noncanonical 5-monomer and

4-monomer α-satellite HORs.

We also compared the diversity in length and location of the CDRs for the various chr21

centromere haplotypes. The number of CDRs typically range from 1 to 4 and span a total of 90-

335 kbp in total length (**Figure 4b; Supplementary Figure 9**). None show patterns similar to

the one observed in the proband (H1) with multiple small CDRs mapped in close proximity.

However, some haplotypes, such as HG02647-H1 and HG03927-H1, show large CDR windows

with peaks of higher methylation within. We observe four chr21 centromere haplotypes that

have two hypomethylated regions separated by more than 100 kbp: HG002-H1 and H2;

HG02293-H1; and HG01573-H2. The dispersed CDRs tend to be smaller (10 to 25 kbp) and

contained within a single pocket, except for HG01573-H2, which has two. Irrespective of

sequence composition, 91% (20/22) of the chr21 CDRs map to the p-arm of the centromere,

suggesting a polarity or preference for CDR location (**Supplementary Figure 9**).

We also constructed a chr21 centromere phylogenetic tree using 20 kbp of flanking

pericentromeric sequence in the q-arm from the genomes assembled in this study and

chimpanzee as an outgroup (**Methods**). We have shown previously that these flanking

sequences can serve as a reasonable proxy of evolutionary history due to the large block of

linkage disequilibrium created by the suppressed recombination around the centromere[7]. We

find that 50% (11/22) of T21 haplotypes included in the analysis are part of a large monophyletic

clade comprising 40% (23/57) of all chr21 centromeres (**Figure 4a**). The clade harbors the

largest (H1) and smallest (H2) centromeres for proband AG16777, which are predicted to have

arisen from a common ancestor 17 thousand years ago (kya), despite the fact that these two

haplotypes vary by more than 10-fold in their overall length. It also contains the small

centromere found in the second family (7910079) showing extreme centromere size asymmetry.

We note that this particular clade is significantly enriched for centromeres smaller than 500 kbp

(Fisher's exact test p-value = 0.001). In contrast, our analysis also reveals that the two large

chr21 centromeres containing an abundance of 5-monomers α-satellite HORs (7210079.00-H3

and HG03710-H1) diverged much earlier (126 and 172 kya) compared to the other haplotypes.

The low degree of sequence identity with other canonical 11-monomers (**Figure 4a**) confirms an

ancient origin, possibly the result of an archaic introgression.

Figure 4. Diversity in α-satellite HOR array length, composition, and CpG methylation profile amongst diverse chr21 centromere haplotypes. a) Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree based on a multiple sequence alignment of a 20 kbp segment from the pericentromeric q-arm regions from 57 unique completely sequenced chr21 centromeres. The HOR array structure of each is depicted and estimated divergence time for each cluster is projected onto the nodes. Bootstrap values 95 to 100 (**) are marked with asterisks. Black lines connect homologous chr21 centromeres found in mothers, which were both transmitted to their child with T21. Red lines indicate the homologs exhibiting extreme centromere size asymmetry. **b)** CpG methylation profiles of 16 population haplotypes (see also **Supplementary Figure 9**). **c)** Pairwise sequence identity heatmaps (generated with StainedGlass[33] using 5 kbp windows) across chr21 centromeres enriched with 5-monomer and 4-monomer α-satellite HORs (see legend).

Maternal asymmetry in T21 centromeric α-satellite HOR length. To establish a baseline for

centromere length distributions in the human population, we compared the T21 centromeres to

an expanded set of 261 completely assembled chr21 centromeres from control individuals. The

control cohort consists of two hydatidiform mole (CHM13 and CHM1) chr21 centromeres, 184

chr21 centromeres (92 samples) from the recently released genomes part of the HPRC[31] (year

2 release), 40 chr21 centromeres recently published by the HGSVC[30], and an additional 35 from

the two consortia characterized with the same methods applied to the families with T21

(**Supplementary Table 3**). The centromeres from the HPRC year 2 release were characterized

with CenMAP (v0.3.1), a recently released centromere mapping and annotation pipeline

(https://github.com/logsdon-lab/CenMAP).

Comparing the size distribution of all control haplotypes (*n*=261) to those from individuals with

T21 (*n*=24), we find no statistically significant difference (t-test p-value = 0.92) (**Figure 5a**).

Similarly, the frequency of small centromeres (<500 kbp) also showed no significant difference

between the two groups (3/24 in T21 and 27/261 in the general population groups; Fisher's

exact test p-value = 0.73) despite an earlier report suggesting the contrary[27]. Notwithstanding,

the small centromeres identified in AG16777 and 7210079 families (mothers and children)

remain the smallest chr21 α-satellite HOR array sequenced to date in any female individual,

measuring 143 kbp and 181 kbp respectively (**Figure 5a**). For the male individuals, only one

centromere was found to have a smaller α-satellite HOR array: HG00739-H1, which represents

the smallest chr21 centromere ever sequenced with an array of only 100 kbp.

Next, we considered the diplotype of the transmitting mothers and assayed the frequency of

extreme centromere size asymmetry (>10-fold) in the population using 116 control samples

(females = 55; males = 61) and seven individuals with T21 for which both centromere

haplotypes were fully resolved (the singleton with T21 was excluded since we could not phase

the centromeres nor determine if the centromere size remained the same between the two

generations; **Supplementary Figure 10**). A significant difference in extreme homologous chr21

centromere size asymmetry cases was observed between mothers with children with T21 and

the general population. We identified two cases in the cohort of individuals with T21 and none in

116 control individuals where homologous centromere HOR length differed more than 10-fold

(Fisher's exact test p-value = 0.003) (**Supplementary Figure 10**). Given the fundamental

differences in male and female meiosis, we repeated the analysis restricting further to only

female individuals from the general population. The number of asymmetrical centromeres

remained statistically significant for families with T21 (Fisher's exact test p-value = 0.011)

(**Figure 5b**). We further expanded the controls by including another 23 female and 22 male

individuals from the HPRC year 2 release that were completely assembled but had small errors

in their sequences (e.g., collapses, misjoins, etc.). In these samples, the centromere size

estimate is not as accurate, but we do not expect a great difference between the estimate and

their actual sizes. Once again, none exhibited extreme centromere asymmetry. If we consider

these additional female samples in our comparison, the difference becomes even more

statistically significant (Fisher's exact test p-value = 0.006).

Figure 5. Comparison between centromere HOR array sizes from individuals with T21 and controls. a) Size distribution comparison of chr21 centromeric α-satellite HOR arrays from individuals with T21 and population samples. This plot includes the HOR array sizes of 24 T21, 2 hydatidiform moles, and 259 population haplotypes. **b)** Homologous chr21 centromere size fold differences in individuals with T21 (only maternally inherited centromeres; orange) and female population samples (blue). P-value indicates a significant difference in extreme asymmetry cases between the two groups.

DISCUSSION

Down syndrome was first described in 1866[39] and its typical T21 karyotype description was made in 1959[40]. Despite extensive research over the last 65 years, very little is still known about the genetic etiology of this condition. To this day, we still do not have a method to assess predisposition to this condition nor are aware of any direct genetic risk factor that leads to free T21. We could only test directly for T21 during pregnancies with invasive procedures, such as amniocentesis until more recent, safer noninvasive prenatal tests emerged[41]. Understanding the genetic architecture of T21 and genetic factors that predispose to it may be another important consideration in its prevention.

In this study, we present for the first time the complete sequence and epigenetic characterization of chr21 centromeres of eight individuals with free T21, seven of their mothers, and one father. In all families, T21 was caused by MMIEs and all mothers were <35 years old at childbirth. We initially aimed to investigate chr21 centromere variability in individuals with T21 and test the hypothesis that individuals with the syndrome carry small centromeres. Previous studies postulated that "centromere strength" could be associated with the amount of centromeric DNA sequence[20–23]. Other independent reports revealed a statistically significant higher number of small chr21 α-satellite HOR arrays in individuals with the syndrome compared to controls[27], suggested an association of small chr21 α-satellite HOR arrays and MMIEs[42], and proposed that individuals with T21 generally harbor small chr21 centromeres[27]. Nevertheless, a 2003 study explored the relationship between the size of α-satellite HOR arrays on chr21 centromeres and repressed recombination, one of the known phenomena that correlate with nondisjunction, and concluded that the features are independent[43].

In our investigation, chr21 centromeres showed remarkable variability in length, α-satellite HOR array structure, and CDR patterns within the human population (**Figure 4**), suggesting that

chr21 is amongst the top four most variable centromeres in the human genome[7]. We show that

small centromeres are found at low frequency in individuals with T21 (3/24; 3 centromeres

smaller than 500 kbp in 3 individuals, 2 of which of maternal origin) and that T21 centromere

size distribution is comparable to that of the general population (**Figure 5a**). Despite being

present at low frequency in the general population (10%), our data do not support the

observation that small centromeres alone constitute a risk factor for T21 nondisjunction. Rather,

our results suggest an alternative hypothesis, where centromere size asymmetry may be a

more important consideration and possibly one of the features that contribute to suppressed

recombination and nondisjunction.

Small centromeres might have been previously reported in children with T21, as they make size

asymmetry more likely than larger centromeres. Our results support other observations[44], which

noted that small centromeres are not exclusive of individuals with T21; contrarily, extreme

homologous chr21 centromere size asymmetry (>10-fold) appears to be absent in individuals

without the syndrome (**Figure 5b; Supplementary Figure 10**). We report two cases in families

that include an individual with T21 with similar features, but none in the general population.

Moreover, our phylogenetic analysis (**Figure 4a**) shows that rapid changes of chr21 centromere

size are possible and might facilitate the occurrence of centromere size asymmetry in the

population. We speculate that an extreme difference between chr21 centromere sizes makes

homologous pairing less efficient for example by complicating meiotic synapsis across the entire

centromere length. There is evidence demonstrating that larger domains of homology are

essential for synapsis formation and/or recombination in complex organisms such as *C.elegans*,

Drosophila, and mice but not in simpler organisms like yeast[45–49]. Nevertheless, more

experimental data are needed to test how asymmetry impacts meiosis, recombination, and

chromosome segregation.

The families (AG167 and 7210079) showing extreme centromere size asymmetry (10.7- and

19.4-fold) have other features in common, suggesting a common T21 aetiology. For instance,

they carry the smallest chr21 centromeres ever characterized in females (143 and 181 kbp),

both exhibit a transgenerational CDR change on the longer homologous centromere, and both

mothers had a similar age at time of childbirth (29 and 27 years old). Another family (7210223)

exhibited a transgenerational CDR change. In this case, we do not observe an extreme

centromere size asymmetry (2.6-fold), and the methylation change occurred on the smaller

haplotype (587 kbp). Mother 7210223.20 was 22 at childbirth and we did not observe any other

unusual centromeric features, thus suggesting an alternative mechanism underlying T21.

In this study we also investigated the amount of centromeric proteins forming the kinetochore

complex on each of the chr21 centromeres of family AG167. Our IF-FISH data (**Supplementary**

Figure 3) suggest that none of the chr21 centromeres have a significantly lower amount of

CENP-A or CENP-C proteins, arguing against the hypothesis that MMIEs are caused by

malfunctions in the kinetochore complex. It is unclear how the kinetochore function is impacted

by the altered CDRs observed in three of the children with T21 and we cannot determine

whether the poorly defined CDRs were already present in the maternal germ cells or developed

later in the children after establishment of T21.

The first family with T21 (AG167) centromere showed epigenetic transgenerational differences

between maternal and child centromeres in the absence of genetic changes. Specifically, we

observed significant differences in CDR size of child's maternal H2 and paternal H3 CDRs as

well as a positional shift of ~11 kbp and 25 kbp towards the p-arm in the child for the former and

the latter, respectively (**Figure 2c**), despite the fact that the sequence and structure between

parent and child were practically identical (**Supplementary Figure 5**). This reinforces the notion

that CDRs and kinetochore position are not defined by the primary sequence but can change

location potentially even within a single generation. This is also supported by two population

haplotypes, HG03710-H1 and HG02647-H2, which both carry their CDRs closer to the p-arm

yet differ radically in their HOR array monomers with 5-monomers and 4-monomers

corresponding to older and younger repeats, respectively.

The second cohort of families with T21 also allowed us to compare CDR differences between

cell lines and a primary tissue like blood. Little is known regarding the stability of CDRs

somatically; however, our limited data on multiple samples demonstrate that CDRs position

between blood and cell lines remain positionally conserved. The only detected difference is a

generally higher level of methylation in the blood. This could be due to multiple reasons. First,

comparison of methylation callers (**Supplementary Figure 8**) on cell line data indicates that

PacBio basecallers (Jasmine and especially the older Primrose) detect a slightly higher level of

methylation. Also, HiFi reads might be mapping less precisely than the much longer UL-ONT

reads. Lastly, it is possible that some highly specialized cells in the blood, which are generated

from the progenitors in the bone marrow and do not typically undergo mitosis[50], might lose

epigenetic signatures over time like those associated with CDRs.

There are several limitations in this study. First and foremost, the observation of asymmetry

rests on relatively few observations in part because the sequence and assembly of centromeres

is still a costly and time-consuming endeavor. Moreover, we focused here on individuals with

T21 conceived by younger mothers (age range: 20-34) despite the known, strong association of

nondisjunction with advanced maternal age. It will be important to pull apart these confounders

by assessing centromere asymmetry in even younger and older mothers and incorporating the

maternal age effect. Larger T21 population-based studies are, therefore, required to confirm this

finding as well as evaluating families with MMIEs and MMIIEs. Large cohorts with short-read

sequence data, such as the Atlanta or the National Down Syndrome Projects[36,37], have been

assembled and imputation of chr21 centromere length in these cohorts once a large enough

pangenome has been amassed may be possible instead of direct sequencing. Finally, future

studies should evaluate not only centromere sequence and methylation using long-read

sequencing data but also evaluate the composition and location of the kinetochore complex as it

relates to epigenetic differences of the CDR.

Acknowledgments

563 **COI (Conflicts of Interest) Statement**

564 E.E.E. is a scientific advisory board (SAB) member of Variant Bio, Inc. The other authors

565 declare no conflicts of interest.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Sample recruitment and data collection. The following lymphoblastoid cell lines were obtained from the NIGMS Human Genetic Cell Repository at the Coriell Institute for Medical Research: proband (AG16777), mother (AG16778), and father (AG16782). The proband is described as a mosaic with karyotype: 47,XX,+21[21]/47,XX,+21,t(21;22)(q22;q13)[29] with 10% of the cells examined showing random chromosome loss and the karyotype confirming the diagnosis. Parents do not have Down syndrome and have a normal karyotype. The proband was 43 years old at sampling, while mother and father were 72 and 74, respectively. We obtained lymphoblastoid cell lines from Emory University biobank for seven probands with MMIE T21 and six mothers. Blood samples were also obtained for the same probands.

PacBio HiFi sequencing. PacBio HiFi data were generated per manufacturer's recommendations. Briefly, high-molecular-weight (HMW) DNA was extracted from frozen blood or cultured lymphoblasts using the Monarch® HMW DNA Extraction Kit for Cells & Blood (New England Biolabs, T3050L). At all steps, quantification was performed with Qubit dsDNA HS (Thermo Fisher, Q32854) measured on DS-11 FX (Denovix) and size distribution checked using FEMTO Pulse (Agilent, M5330AA & FP-1002-0275.) HMW DNA was sheared with Megaruptor 3 (Diagenode, B06010003 & E07010003) using settings 28/31 or 28/30 (depending on original length distribution) and used to generate PacBio HiFi libraries via the SMRTbell Prep Kit 3.0 (PacBio, 102-182-700). Size selection was performed with Pippin HT using a high-pass cutoff of 17 kbp (Sage Science, HTP0001 & HPE7510.) Samples AG16778, AG16782, and NG16777 were sequenced on the Sequel II platform on SMRT Cells 8M (PacBio, 101-389-001) using Sequel II Sequencing Chemistry 3.2 (PacBio,102-333-300) with 2-hour pre-extension and 30-hour movies, aiming for a minimum estimated coverage of 30× in PacBio HiFi reads for parents (3 SMRT Cells per sample) and 60× for the proband (5 SMRT Cells, assuming a genome size of 3.1 Gbp). The remaining samples were sequenced on the Revio platform on SMRT Cells

25M (PacBio, 102-817-900) with diffusion loading and 24-hour movies or Adaptive Loading and

30-hour movies, aiming for a minimum estimated coverage of 30× in PacBio HiFi reads for the

parents (1-1.5 SMRT Cells per sample) and 60× for the probands (2-2.5 SMRT Cells, assuming

a genome size of 3.1 Gbp).

UL-ONT sequencing. Ultra-high molecular weight gDNA was extracted from the

lymphoblastoid cell lines according to a previously published protocol. Briefly, 3-5 × 10^7 cells

were lysed in a buffer containing 10 mM Tris-Cl (pH 8.0), 0.1 M EDTA (pH 8.0), 0.5% w/v SDS,

and 20 mg/mL Rnase A for 1 hour at 37°C. 200 ug/mL Proteinase K was added, and the

solution was incubated at 50°C for 2 hours. DNA was purified via two rounds of 25:24:1 phenol-

chloroform-isoamyl alcohol extraction followed by ethanol precipitation. Precipitated DNA was

solubilized in 10 mM Tris (pH 8.0) containing 0.02% Triton X-100 at 4°C for two days. Libraries

were constructed using the Ultra-Long DNA Sequencing Kit (ONT, SQK-ULK001 or SQK-

ULK114) following the manufacturer's protocol. 75 uL of library was loaded onto a primed FLO-

PRO002 R9.4.1 or FLO-PRO114M R10.4.1 flow cells for sequencing on the PromethION, with

two nuclease washes and reloads after 24 and 48 hours of sequencing. Sequence reads >100

kbp in length were classified as ultra-long (UL). All ONT data were base called using guppy

(v6.3.7 or newer) or dorado (v0.4.2 or newer) with the SUP model.

Genome assembly. Proband AG16777 genome assembly was generated with the Verkko[32]

(v1.2) (https://github.com/marbl/verkko) workflow using HiFi sequencing data at ~59× and UL-

ONT (>100 kbp) data at ~23× coverage following the developer instructions. Parental

assemblies (AG16778 and AG16782) were generated with both Verkko[32] (v1.4)

(https://github.com/marbl/verkko) and hifiasm[51] (v0.19.5) (https://github.com/chhylp123/hifiasm)

using HiFi data at ~37× for the mother and 40× for the father and UL-ONT data at 25× and 12×,

respectively. HiFi developer instructions were followed. Similarly, genome assemblies for the

second cohort of probands with T21 and their mothers were generated using Verkko[32] (2.0 or

newer) and hifiasm[51] (v0.19.8 or newer).

Cell culture, slide preparation and Immunofluorescence (IF) combined with fluorescence

in situ **hybridization (FISH).** AG16777, AG16778 and AG16782 cells were cultured in RPMI-

1640 medium supplemented with 16% fetal bovine serum, 1% L-glutamine, and 1% penicillin–

streptomycin. Metaphase and interphase nuclei undergoing immunofluorescence with mouse

CENP-A monoclonal antibody (Enzo, ADI-KAM-CC006-E) were prepared by blocking the cells

in metaphase with colcemid, followed by washing in phosphate-buffered saline (1× PBS). The

cells were then counted and resuspended in a hypotonic buffer (75 mM KCl : 0.8% NaCitrate : 3

mM CaCl2 : 1.5 mM MgCl2, 1:1:1 ratio) for 15 minutes to reach a final concentration of 5×10^5

cells/mL. A 0.5 mL aliquot of the cell suspension was then cytocentrifuged onto Superfrost Plus

slides at 1,500 rpm for 5 minutes using a Shandon Cytospin 3 (Thermo Scientific). The slides

were immediately used for immunofluorescence. For slides undergoing immunofluorescence

with mouse CENP-C monoclonal antibody (Abcam, ab50974), colcemid-treated cells were

incubated in hypotonic solution (0,56% KCl) for 30 min and prefixed by adding methanol:acetic

acid (3:1) fixative solution. Prefixed cells were collected by centrifugation and then fixed in

methanol:acetic acid (3:1). Spreads were dropped on a glass slide and incubated at RT

overnight.

Immunofluorescence was performed on the metaphase spreads using mouse CENP-C and

CENP-A monoclonal antibodies as previously described with minor modifications[52]. In brief,

each slide was rehydrated by immersion in 1× PBS-azide (10 mM NaPO4, pH 7.4, 0.15 M NaCl,

1 mM EGTA and 0.01% NaN3) for 15 min at room temperature. Chromosomes were then

swollen by washing the slides (three times, 2 min each) with 1× TEEN (1 mM triethanolamine-

HCl, pH 8.5, 0.2 mM NaEDTA, and 25 mM NaCl), 0.5% Triton X-100 and 0.1% BSA. The

primary antibodies were diluted to a final concentration of 0,001 μg/μl in the same solution and

then added (100 μl) onto the slides. Each slide was incubated for 2 h at 37 °C. Excess of primary

antibody was removed by washing the slides at room temperature (three times, 2, 5 and 3 min

each) with 1× KB buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.7, 0.15 M NaCl and 0.1% BSA). A goat anti-

mouse IgG secondary antibody conjugated to FITC (Abcam, ab6785) was diluted 1:100 in the

same solution, and 100 μl was then added to the slides that were then incubated for 45 min at

37 °C in a dark chamber. After incubation with the secondary antibody, the slides were washed

once with 1× KB for 2 min, prefixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in 1× KB for 45 min at room

temperature, washed with dH2O by immersion for 10 min at room temperature, and fixed with

methanol and acetic acid (3:1) for 15 min. FISH was then performed using a plasmid containing

the α-satellite sequence shared between chromosomes 13 and 21 (pZ21A) directly labelled by

nick-translation with Cy3-dUTP (Enzo, 42501) according to a standard procedure with minor

modifications[53]. In brief, 100 ng of labelled probe was used for the FISH experiments; DNA

denaturation was performed at 70 °C for 8 min and hybridization at 37 °C in 2× SSC, 50% (v/v)

formamide, 10% (w/v) dextran sulphate and 3 mg sonicated salmon sperm DNA, in a volume of

10 μl. Post-hybridization washing was performed under high stringency conditions: at 60 °C in

0.1× SSC (three times, 5 min each). Nuclei and chromosome metaphases were simultaneously

DAPI-stained. Digital images were obtained using a Leica DMRXA2 epifluorescence

microscope equipped with a cooled CCD camera (Princeton Instruments). DAPI, Cy3 and

fluorescein fluorescence signals, detected with specific filters, were recorded separately as

grayscale images. Pseudocolouring and merging of images were performed using ImageJ

(v.1.53k). The CENP-C fluorescence intensity at chr21 centromeres was measured on 13

metaphases for each sample using a modified version of the ImageJ macro, CRaQ[54]. Signals

from chr21 were isolated, and a 7 × 7 pixel box was placed around the centroid position of each

signal. The pixel intensity within each box was measured and normalized dividing it by the lower

chr21 signal intensity for each analyzed metaphase. Plots were then obtained using the

ggplot2[55] package in R[56].

Centromere characterization and validation. Assemblies of individuals with T21 and from the

general population were aligned against the T2T-CHM13[8] (v2.0) reference genome with

minimap2[57] (v2.24) (https://github.com/lh3/minimap2) using the following options "-t {threads} -I

15G -a –eqx -x asm20 -s 5000". Fasta sequences from the contigs mapping against chr21

centromere (chr21:10700000-11650000) and flanking regions were extracted. RepeatMasker[58]

(v4.1.0) was used to identify the regions containing the α-satellite array (marked as

"ALR/Alpha") and HumAS-HMMER (https://github.com/fedorrik/HumAS-HMMER_for_AnVIL) to

determine the α-satellite HOR array composition with the following command: hmmer-run.sh

{path_to_directory_with_fasta} AS-HORs-hmmer3.0-170921.hmm {threads}. For the contigs

aligning to the reference genome in the minus orientation, we converted the fasta sequences to

their reverse complement before running the analysis. The outputs from HumAS-HMMER

analyses were visualized with R[56] (v4.2.2) using the ggplot2[55] package.

Another 44 population chr21 centromere sizes were obtained from the recently published

HGSVC data[35]. Additionally, 115 female and 101 male samples from the HPRC year 2 release

were processed and validated with CenMap (v0.3.1) (https://github.com/logsdon-lab/CenMAP),

a newly developed pipeline for centromere mapping and annotation, to calculate their chr21

centromere sizes.

We validated each centromeric contig sequence aligning each sample's HiFi reads to their own

genome assembly using pbmm2 (v1.1.0) (https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/pbmm2) and

showing uniform read coverage across the centromeric region with NucFreq[59]

(https://github.com/mrvollger/NucFreq). To confirm that the extracted centromeric contig

sequences represented chr21 centromere repeats, we compared them to the α-satellite

monomer units extracted from the T2T-CHM13[8] reference genome using StringDecomposer[60]

(https://github.com/ablab/stringdecomposer) and showed they have high identity (>90%).

Finally, we generated pairwise sequence identity heatmaps of each centromere using

StainedGlass as previously described[33] (https://github.com/mrvollger/StainedGlass).

Supplementary note. We were not able to characterize both chr21 centromeres in 35 females

and 30 males from the HPRC year 2 release. In these samples, one or none of the chr21

centromeres was assembled, or the haplotypes could not be reliably assigned to chr21 or chr13,

which typically has much larger centromeres. This is common when the genomic contigs

containing the centromeric sequences are not sufficiently extended to encompass the

pericentromeric regions of both p- and q-arms and highlights the difficulty of sequencing and

assembling large centromeres. As an example, two female samples (HG00320 and HG04184)

carried a small chr21 centromere (228 and 263 kbp), but their putative homologs were either

incomplete or contained errors, with ambiguous assignments to chr21 or chr13. Some of these

contigs contained large α-satellite arrays, but despite further analysis, we were unable to

conclusively determine whether these putative homologs represented chr21, chr13 or a mix of

the two centromeres. Consequently, they were excluded. It is worth noting though that even with

two cases of extreme size asymmetry in the female population cohort, we would still have a

significant difference in the number of cases observed in the two groups (population samples =

80; Fisher's exact test p-value = 0.031).

Centromere alignments and dotplots. AG16777 proband and parental centromere sequences

were aligned using minimap2[57] (v2.26) and the following command: minimap2 -cx asm5

{proband_centromeric_fasta} {corresponding_parental_centromeric_fasta} > alignment.paf. The

results in .paf format were visualized with R[56] (v4.2.2) using the ggplot2[55] package. Proband H3

721 and father H3 AluY centromeric insertions with 10 kbp padding sequence on both sides were

722 aligned with BLAST[61].

724 **CpG methylation and CDR analysis.** All ONT sample data were basecalled with guppy v6.3.7

725 or newer to generate BAM files containing methylation tags linked to each read. HiFi data were

726 base called using CCS (v.6.4.0 or newer) (https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/ccs), Primrose

727 (v1.4.0 or newer) or (Jasmine (v2.0.0 or newer) (https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/jasmine),

728 which generated the equivalent BAM files containing the methylation tags linked to each read.

729 Jasmine 5mC predictions were used as a validation for the centromeric methylation profiles.

730 Briefly, we extracted the reads for each sample and aligned them to their respective genome

731 assembly using Winnowmap[62] (v2.03 or newer). We then used modbam2bed

732 (https://github.com/epi2me-labs/modbam2bed) to obtain bedMethyl files.

734 Using the bedMethyl files as an input and an early developer version of CDR-Finder[17], we

735 identified the CDRs for each centromere. The tool first divides the region of interest (the

736 centromeric α-satellite arrays with padding sequence on both sides, e.g., coordinates for

737 Proband H1: unassigned-0003018:0-2000000) in sequential 5 kbp bins and calculates their

738 average methylation frequency (if a bin does not have an assigned value, the bin is excluded). It

739 then computes the median CpG methylation frequency for each window containing α-satellite

740 sequences (based on RepeatMasker[58] output). It selects the bins with a lower methylation

741 frequency than the median of the region and merges consecutive bins into candidate CDRs.

742 These candidate CDRs are then evaluated on two criteria: whether or not they have flanking

743 windows on either side with greater than the maximum percent methylation (defined as within 1

744 standard deviation of the maximum) for the entire region and if they clear a user-specified size

745 threshold (25 kbp). Each call is annotated with a confidence label: "high confidence" if it clears

746 both criteria or "low confidence" if it does not. The low-confidence labels are appended with

either "neighbor_peaks" for the first criterion and/or "size" for the second criterion. In small

centromeres where the median can be quite low due to the CDR taking up the majority of the

centromeric sequence space, the initial search algorithm of taking windows which are below the

median is flipped to identify the windows that are above the median and thus not part of the

CDR. After removing these windows from consideration, what remains are candidate CDRs,

and the algorithm continues as normal. All CDR calls were manually confirmed inspecting the

read alignments. False positives at the boundaries of the centromeres as well as calls not

confirmed by the reads and due to low coverage were excluded.

For each AG167 family CDR, we calculated the percentage of methylated CpGs (defined as

having ≥25% methylated CpGs at the same position across all UL-ONT reads) within the total

CDR window (from start of the first CDR window to the end of the last CDR window). Formula =

(number of methylated CpGs within the CDR window) * 100 / (number of CpGs within the CDR

window).

Contig fixing and patching. Centromeric contigs that showed misassemblies or collapses

during NucFreq[59] analysis (above) were corrected following this procedure. Sequencing reads

mapping to the misassembly/collapse and flanking regions were extracted and locally

assembled using the module Canu from the tool HiCanu[63]. The local assemblies were validated

using NucFreq[59] as described previously and inserted in the original assembly.

Verkko[32] genome assemblies containing errors were corrected with an alternative assembly

generated via hifiasm[51] or vice versa. Briefly, we generated assemblies of each genome with

hifiasm[51] (v0.19.5 or newer) and the following command: "hifiasm -o {output} -t {threads} –ul

{ultra-long read fastq} {hifi reads fastq}". Then, we aligned the hifiasm assemblies to the Verkko

ones with minimap2[57] (v2.24) and the following command: minimap2 -t {threads} -I 15G -a –eqx

-x asm20 -s 5000. We identified the corresponding locations of the centromeric regions in each

assembly and then determined the α-satellite HOR array composition of each with HumAS-

HMMER (https://github.com/fedorrik/HumAS-HMMER_for_AnVIL) and the following command:

hmmer-run.sh {path_to_directory_with_fasta} AS-HORs-hmmer3.0-170921.hmm {threads}. We

compared the α-satellite HOR compositions of each array and then replaced erroneous

sequences in the Verkko assembly with the corresponding sequence in the hifiasm assembly

(or vice versa). To ensure that we had resolved the assembly error, we aligned PacBio HiFi

reads from the same genome to the new assembly and then ran NucFreq[59] to validate the

assembly.

Phylogenetic analysis. For the phylogenetic reconstruction of chr21 centromere haplotypes,

we first aligned a chimpanzee assembly to the T2T-CHM13[8] reference genome using

Minimap2[57] with the following options "-t {threads} -I 15G -x asm5 -a –secondary=no". We

identified a chr21 pericentromeric region on the q-arm where only two chimpanzee contigs

mapped (chr21:11855000-11875000). The chimpanzee alignment was used as an outgroup for

the analysis. We aligned all the human assemblies available against the T2T-CHM13[8] reference

genome as described above and selected only the samples with chr21 centromeric contigs

spanning the selected pericentromeric window. We then extracted the sequences mapping to

the pericentromeric region of interest of each sample. Using these sequences, we generated a

multi-alignment with the tool MAFFT[64,65] (v7.453) using these options: "–auto –thread {threads}".

The maximum-likelihood phylogeny tree was constructed with IQ-TREE[66] (v2.1.2) with the

following options: "-T {threads} -m MFB -B 1000". Divergence time amongst haplotypes were

estimated with IQ-TREE[66] (options: "–keep-ident –date-tip 0 –date-ci 100 -redo") using the

MAFFT multi-alignment, the consensus tree, and a time estimate file containing the known

divergence time between human and chimpanzee (6.4 million years) as inputs. The resulting

tree was visualized with iTOL[67] and FigTree (https://github.com/rambaut/figtree).

Data availability. Sequencing data were submitted to the database of Genotypes and

Phenotypes (dbGaP) for general research use and public access. The phs accession ID is:

phs003761.v1.p1.

Supplementary Figures

804
805 **Supplementary Figure 1.** NucFreq validation of all the chromosome 21 (chr21) centromeres
806 described in the family AG167 and population samples.

809 **Supplementary Figure 2. a)** Comparison of the ONT- and HiFi-based methylation profiles in all
810 family AG167 chr21 centromeres. **b)** Comparison between proband and parental chr21
811 centromere methylation profiles based on the HiFi data.

CENP-A

CENP-C

Supplementary Figure 3. CENP-A and CENP-C detection and quantification in proband AG16777, mother AG16778, and father AG16782. IF-FISH on metaphase chromosome spreads from all members of the AG167 family, with fluorescent probes targeting the chr13/21 α-satellite array (red) and CENP-A/CENP-C (green). All chr21 are highlighted in the boxes. A weaker α-satellite array probe signal on one of the chr21 centromeres of proband and mother is due to the smaller centromeric α-satellite HOR array present in each of these individuals. The violin plots represent the CENP-A and CENP-C signal ratios for each member of the family. Each data point represents a metaphase from which the values of CENP-A/CENP-C protein signals were quantified. Each signal value was divided by the homolog lowest value to obtain the ratio and self-comparisons were removed. Signal ratio of 1 indicates an identical value between homolog signals. T-test p-values are indicated at the top for each comparison.

AG16777 chromosome 2,12, and 15 centromeres

831 **Supplementary Figure 4.** Repeat structure, NucFreq plot validation, methylation profile of
832 chromosome 4, 12, and 15 centromeres in proband AG16777.

833
834 **Supplementary Figure 5.** Dotplots comparing AG167 proband and parental centromeric
835 sequences haplotypes. The plots represent the alignments of proband and parental centromeric
836 α-satellite array sequences.

Query: Proband AluY insertion sequence + 10bp padding sequence on both sides
Subject: Father AluY insertion sequence + 10bp padding sequence on both sides

Score	Expect	Identities	Gaps	Strand
616 bits(333)	0.0	336/337(99%)	1/337(0%)	Plus/Plus

```
Query  1    AGTAGTTTCtttttttttttttttttttttttttttttttttGAGACGGAGTCTCGCTCTGTC  60
            |||||||||  |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
Sbjct  1    AGTAGTTTC-TTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTGAGACGGAGTCTCGCTCTGTC  59

Query  61   GCCCAGGTCGGACTGCGGACTGCAGTGGCGCAATCTCGGCTCACTGCAAGCTCCGCTTCC  120
            ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
Sbjct  60   GCCCAGGTCGGACTGCGGACTGCAGTGGCGCAATCTCGGCTCACTGCAAGCTCCGCTTCC  119

Query  121  CGGGTTCACGCCATTCTCCTGCCTCAGCCTCCCGAGTAGCTGGGACTACAGGCGCCCGCC  180
            ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
Sbjct  120  CGGGTTCACGCCATTCTCCTGCCTCAGCCTCCCGAGTAGCTGGGACTACAGGCGCCCGCC  179

Query  181  ACCGCGCCCGGCTAATTTTTTGTATTTTTAGTAGAGACGGGGTTTCACCTTGTTAGCCAG  240
            ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
Sbjct  180  ACCGCGCCCGGCTAATTTTTTGTATTTTTAGTAGAGACGGGGTTTCACCTTGTTAGCCAG  239

Query  241  GATGGTCTCGATCTCCTGACCTCATGATCCACCCGCCTCGGCCTCCCAAAGTGCTGGGAT  300
            ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
Sbjct  240  GATGGTCTCGATCTCCTGACCTCATGATCCACCCGCCTCGGCCTCCCAAAGTGCTGGGAT  299

Query  301  TACAGGCGTGAGCCACCGCGCCCGGCCACCAAGTAGT  337
            |||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||
Sbjct  300  TACAGGCGTGAGCCACCGCGCCCGGCCACCAAGTAGT  336
```

837
838   **Supplementary Figure 6**. BLAST-based pairwise alignment of the AluY sequences inserted in
839   AG167 proband H3 and father H3 centromere sequences.

7210223 duo chromosome 21 centromeres

4710291 duo chromosome 21 centromeres

9915166 duo chromosome 21 centromeres

846 **Supplementary Figure 7.** Centromeres of individuals with T21 from families that do not exhibit
847 extreme maternal homolog size asymmetry. Repeat structures, HORs and methylation profiles
848 are shown. 7210223 duo is the only one showing transgenerational methylation changes.

Proband 9910163
chromosome 21 comparison between blood and cell lines DNA data

Proband 7210223
chromosome 21 comparison between blood and cell lines DNA data

Proband 7210239
chromosome 21 comparison between blood and cell lines DNA data

Proband 4710291
chromosome 21 comparison between blood and cell lines DNA data

Proband 7210008
chromosome 21 centromeres methylation comparison between blood and lymphoblastoid cell line data

b.

Proband 9915166
chromosome 21 centromeres methylation comparison between methylation callers on cell lines data

**Supplementary Figure 8. Comparison of methylation profiles of chr21 centromeres in
blood and cell line data. a)** Chr21 centromere methylation profiles detected from HiFi (blood
DNA) and UL-ONT (lymphoblastoid cell line DNA) in probands 9910163.00, 7210223.00,
7210239.00, 4710291.00, and 7210008.00. **b)** Performance comparison of methylation callers
on cell line data in proband 9915166.00 and mother 7210008.20.

861
862 **Supplementary Figure 9.** Extended version of Figure 3c representing the methylation profiles
863 and CDR positions in 22 population chr21 centromere haplotypes.
864

865
Supplementary Figure 10. Homologous chr21 centromere size fold differences in T21 centromeres (only maternally inherited) and population samples. T21 (orange) and population (blue) samples are represented with different colors; sex is represented with different shapes. P-value indicates a significant difference in asymmetry cases between the two groups.

870 **Supplementary Table 1.** All HOR monomers identified in 35 highly curated population chr21
871 centromeres.
872
873 **Supplementary Table 2.** Information on families with T21.
874
875 **Supplementary Table 3.** All chr21 centromeres described in the manuscript.
876

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