# Selective single molecule sequencing and assembly of a human Y chromosome of African origin

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**Mammalian Y chromosomes are often neglected from genomic analysis. Due to their**

**inherent assembly difficulties,  high repeat content, and large ampliconic regions[1], only a**

**handful of species have their Y chromosome properly characterized. To date, just a single**

**human reference quality Y chromosome, of European ancestry, is available due to a lack of**

**accessible methodology[2–5]. To facilitate the assembly of such complicated genomic territory,**

**we developed a novel strategy to sequence native, unamplified flow sorted DNA on a MinION**

**nanopore sequencing device. Our approach yields a highly continuous and complete**

**assembly of the first human Y chromosome of African origin. It constitutes a significant**

**improvement over comparable previous methods, increasing continuity by more than**

**800%[6], thus allowing a chromosome scale analysis of human Y chromosomes. Sequencing**

**native DNA also allows to take advantage of the nanopore signal data to detect epigenetic**

**modifications in situ[7]. This approach is in theory generalizable to any species simplifying the**

**assembly of extremely large and repetitive genomes.**

Recombinational arrest in the common ancestor of the X and Y chromosomes led to the

degeneration and accumulation of large amounts of repetitive DNA on the Y chromosome along

its evolutionary trajectory[8]. Furthermore, many sequencing efforts have traditionally chosen

female samples, as the hemizygous nature of the sex chromosomes leads to half the effective

sequencing coverage on both of them in a male, resulting in inferior genome assemblies[9]. Together,

these causes have led to an underrepresentation of Y chromosomes in genomic studies and proper

characterization of the Y chromosome in only a handful of mammalian species through a time-

and labor-intensive clone by clone approach[3–5,10]. One strategy to reduce the complexity of the

assembly problem for the Y chromosome, is to isolate it by flow cytometry, thus dramatically

reducing the potential amount of overlaps of repetitive regions in the context of the whole genome[1].

Notwithstanding, previous efforts which sought to do this have faced some drawbacks, as the

material has been heavily amplified post sorting to increase yield[6]. Whole genome amplification

(WGA) introduces biases that are detrimental to genome assembly, such as unequal sequence

coverage and chimera formation, as well as limited fragment length[11]. Moreover, these methods

lead to the loss of epigenetic modifications that can now be directly determined from the signal

data from nanopore sequencers[7]. Additionally, previous efforts to assemble the Y chromosome

purely from flow sorted material did so using the gorilla[6], a species with a previously

uncharacterized Y chromosome, meaning that potential biases in the assembly cannot be detected

without a gold standard reference to compare to, such as human. Integrating single molecule

sequencing has been shown to produce far superior whole genome shotgun assemblies than

sequencing by synthesis platforms[12–15]. Furthermore, the MinION sequencing platform from

Oxford Nanopore Technologies has recently been used to create the most contiguous human whole

genome shotgun assembly to date[16] and to resolve the structure of the human Y chromosome

centromere[17]. To take advantage of these benefits, we developed a protocol to sequence native,

unamplified flow-sorted DNA on the MinION sequencing device. We sorted approximately

9,000,000 individual Y chromosomes from a lymphoblastoid cell line (HG02982) from the 1000

Genomes Project, whose haplogroup (A0) represents one of the deepest known splits in humans[18]

(see figure 1a). Given the large volume in which the chromosomes were sorted, and potential issues

with residual dyes that are necessary for the sorting process, we devised a purification protocol to

bring the DNA into conditions suitable for sequencing. We ran four Oxford Nanopore MinION

flowcells to generate 305,528 reads summing to a total of 2,329,124,808 bases of data. The yields

per flowcell varied considerably between from 897.6 Mb to 163.8 Mb (see figure 1c). Sequencing

yields were on the lower end of the reported spectrum, but read N50 surpassed most of them[16] (see

figure 1d). Additionally, for the same flow sorted material we ran an Illumina MiSeq lane for

2x300 cycles but including 4 rounds of PCR amplification. To check the enrichment specificity,

we aligned the reads to the human reference genome (GRCh38) and calculated the normalized

coverage on each chromosome. Taking into account the size of the Y chromosome and its haploid

nature, we find it to be over 110-fold enriched compared to a random sampling from the human

genome (see figure 1b and supplementary material).

We used the Nanopore data to construct a complete *de novo* assembly using Canu[19]. We performed

a self-correction by aligning the reads used for assembly and called consensus using Nanopolish[7],

correcting a total of 127,809 positions. Finally, the Illumina library served to polish residual errors

within the assembly using pilon[20]. By this means, we corrected a further 101,723 single nucleotide

positions and introduced 105,640 small insertions and 6,983 small deletions. The final assembly

is comprised of 35 contigs, with an N50 of 1.46 Mb amounting to 21.5 Mb, in contrast to a contig

N50 of 6.91 Mb of the GRCh38 Y chromosome assembly. Compared to the gorilla Y chromosome

assembly with a contig N50 of 17.95 kb[6], our assembly is two orders of magnitude more

contiguous (see figure 2b).

The Y chromosome is comprised of a set of discrete sequence classes[10]. To check the completeness

of our assembly we assessed how well each of them is represented. After retaining only single best

placements, we were able to align 21.2 Mb, or 98.9% of its total length, with 99.9% of identical

bases on average (see figure 2a). We recovered the full-length (>99% of the annotated length in

GRCh38) reconstructions of both the X-transposed and the X-degenerate regions. While the X-

degenerate region can be considered a single copy region due its distant common ancestry with

the X chromosome, the X-transposed region emerged only after the split between humans and

chimpanzees[21]. The largest sequence class on the Y chromosome is comprised of ampliconic

regions, which amount to around 30% of the euchromatic portion and sum to 9.93 Mb. These

regions contain eight massive, segmentally duplicated palindromes, all of which share more than

99.9% identity between their two copies, with the largest one spanning over 2.90 Mb. We find this

region to be the most challenging to reconstruct, with fragmented and collapsed sequences, but are

nevertheless able to recover 6.44 Mb, or 65.6% of its length in GRCh38. Surprisingly, we recover

only 80.2% of the pseudo-autosomal regions (PARs). We observed a rather steep drop-off in

coverage coinciding with the PAR-1 boundary on GRCh38. As we are sequencing native,

unamplified DNA, the genomic coverage is directly proportional to the number of copies of the

underlying sequenced region[22]. We compared the mapped coverage of our raw data on GRCh38

and find that PAR-1 exhibits only around 72% of the average coverage of the whole chromosome

(19.8-fold versus 27.3-fold). Given the sharp coincidence with the PAR-1 boundary, we suspect

this to not be a technical artifact of the library preparation (see supplementary material). Finally,

of the remaining sequence classes we are able to recover around 28.8% of the resolved

heterochromatic regions, and 98.9% of the remaining unclassified sequences (referred to as

"other"; see Table 1).

To contrast our approach to a long-read whole genome shotgun (WGS) assembly, we assembled

the publicly available PacBio dataset from the Ashkenazim son from the Genome in a Bottle

Consortium[23], which has a sequencing depth comparable to ours on the sex chromosomes (~30X).

We identified 193 contigs mapping to the Y chromosome, with an N50 of 213 kb, covering 15.3

Mb, or around 28% less than by our approach. The WGS fails to assemble roughly a 56.6% of the

X-transposed region and 47% of the ampliconic regions (see Table 1). We hence show our

approach to yield significantly superior Y-chromosomal reconstruction than from long-read WGS

assemblies in terms of content and contiguity.

We performed a comparative annotation to check the completeness of our assembly at the gene

level. To this end, we projected all Gencode (v. 27, GRCh38) annotations on the Y chromosome

onto our assembly and annotated them there. Due to its peculiar evolutionary trajectory, the gene-

space on the Y chromosome is degenerate, and any remaining genes can generally be classified

into two categories: On one hand there are single copy genes, which are broadly expressed beyond

the testis. On the other, there are multi-copy genes within the ampliconic regions, that are mainly

involved in spermatogenesis[24]. We recover the complete gene set of the genes in the MSY region

and are therefore able to annotate all single copy genes. Furthermore, we are able to retrieve at

least one member of all multi-copy gene families. For 4 out of 9 of these gene families, we are

additionally able to resolve further copies within our assembly. Surprisingly, we find four genes

(ASMTL, IL3R, P2RY, SLC25) from a comparatively short syntenic block of around 200 kb in

the PAR-1 region to be at least partially missing from our assembly. However, mapping the raw

data onto GRCh38 shows that this is an artifact, and the deletion is due to the aforementioned

assembly difficulties within the PAR-1 region.

We produced a stringent call set of structural variants (SVs) derived from alignments to GRCh38

using Assemblytics[25]. We detect 347 SVs at least 50 bp in size (931 variants at least 10 bp in size)

of which 82 are at least 500 bp long (see Figure 2C). The cumulative length of these variants sums

to 184 kb. We observe a 4.8-fold excess number of deletions versus number of insertions,

amounting to a 2-fold excess of bases in deletions versus bases in insertions. While a deletion bias

for nanopore based assemblies had previously been reported[16], we find the strength of this bias to

be decreasing in our analysis, probably reflecting improvements in base-calling accuracy. To

check the presence of large-scale copy number variation in multi-copy genes, we additionally

determined the chromosome-wide copy number based on a read-depth approach. We find

extensive genic copy number variation, with expansions in 5 of the 9 multicopy genes, when

compared to the reference individual. Among these, we find expansions in RBMY, PRY, BPY2

and DAZ, all members of the AZFc-region locus with implications for male fertility. Lastly, to

assess concordance with previous studies, we compared our SV calls to those generated by the

1000 Genomes Project, which contains the same cell line used for this study[26]. We manually

validate all structural variants called in HG02982 in the 1000 Genomes Project in our assembly

(see supplementary material).

Finally, we called the methylation status of 5-methylcytosin (5-mc) at CpG positions from the

signal data using Nanopolish[7]. We checked the concordance of these calls against whole genome

bisulfite sequencing calls from similar primary cell types of the ENCODE project (B-cell, T-cell

and natural killer cell), as well as another male cell line derived from skin fibroblast, and find all

methylation calls on the Y chromosome to be well correlated with these data (Pearson's r 0.502-

0.583, see supplementary material), and note the previously observed lower methylation levels in

LCL in our cell line compared to primary tissues[27].

Here, we report the first successful sequencing and assembly of native, flow-sorted DNA on an

Oxford Nanopore sequencing device, without previous amplification. We apply our methodology

to assemble the first human Y chromosome of African origin to benchmark our approach. This is

arguably the most challenging human chromosome to assemble due to its high repeat and

segmental duplication content, and hence a good test-case to explore the possibilities and

limitations of this approach. With the exception of BAC-based assemblies, we are able to

reconstruct the Y chromosome to unprecedented contiguity and completeness in terms of sequence

class representation. We show that we not only outperform previous efforts that sought to achieve

a similar goal[6], but also accomplish a much better reconstruction than the Y chromosomal

sequences derived from a long-read whole genome shotgun assembly. Additionally, our method

is orders of magnitude cheaper than reconstructions from WGS data too, especially considering

that twice the desired Y chromosomal target coverage is needed on the autosomes. Given the

current developments in sequencing throughput, a single MinION flowcell should now be

sufficient to assemble a whole human Y chromosome. Furthermore, it is becoming clear that the

upper read length boundary is only delimited by the integrity of the DNA, suggesting the

possibility that complete Y chromosome assemblies, including full resolution of amplicons, might

be possible in the near future. It also is worth noting that our efforts to sequence the same input

material on Pacific Biosciences Sequel platform have been fruitless, presumably due to

interference of residual dyes with the sequencers optical detection system. The method described

here offers the opportunity to take advantage of the benefits of long-range data together with local

complexity reduction. Immediate applications are either very complex chromosomes, such as the

human Y, or extremely large genomes with a very high degree of common repeats which have

long challenged traditional whole genome shotgun approaches, such as wheat, the loblolly pine,

or the axolotl[28–31].

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**Figure 1**: **A**: Flow-karyogram of a human genome. The different clusters correspond to different
chromosomes. The red circle delimits the cluster corresponding to the Y chromosome used for this
project. **B**: Enrichment specificity of the sequencing data. Sequences on the Y chromosome are
~110-fold enriched compared to WGS sequencing. Chromosome 22 partially co-sorts with Y. All
other chromosomes are depleted. **C**: Read-length distribution of the four runs. **D**: N50 values for
all four runs and the combined dataset.

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**Figure 2**: **A**: Dot-plot comparing GRCh38 to HG02982. The reconstruction is highly continuous
along most sequences classes, with ampliconic regions showing a higher degree of fragmentation.
**B**: Treemap comparing the contiguity of HG02982 chrY to GRCh38 chrY and the gorilla Y
chromosome by Tomaszkiewicz et al. The size of each rectangle corresponds to the size of a contig
within each of the assemblies. **C**: Histogram of size distribution of the structural variants called
against GRCh38.
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| Sequence Class | Aligned Length HG02982 (bp) | Identity of alignments HG02982 (%) | Proportion recovered in HG02982 from GRCh38 (%) | Aligned Length NA24385 WGS (bp) | Proportion recovered in NA24385 WGS from GRCh38 (%) | Length of seq. class in GRCh38 w\o gaps (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Ampliconic** | 6,437,254 | 99.93 | 65.64 | 5,242,461 | 53.46 | 9,807,089 |
| **Heterochromatic** | 477,140 | 99.69 | 28.80 | 171,045 | 10.32 | 1,656,797 |
| **Others** | 75,675 | 99.04 | 98.86 | 63,973 | 83.57 | 76,547 |
| **Pseudo-autosomal** | 2,283,873 | 99.71 | 80.28 | 117,626 | 4.13 | 2,844,939 |
| **X-degenerate** | 8,573,300 | 99.94 | 99.36 | 8,238,733 | 95.48 | 8,628,904 |
| **X-transposed** | 3,368,361 | 99.94 | 99.05 | 1,474,610 | 43.36 | 3,400,750 |

209   Table 1: Summary of sequence class coverage of HG02982 versus GRCh38, as well as the contigs from NA23385 identified as
210   derived from the Y chromosome.

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   Materials and Methods

Chromosome preparation for flow karyotyping

Mitotic chromosomes suspension were prepared as previously described[32] with some

modifications. Briefly, lymphoblastoid cell lines were cultured in RPMI 1640 medium

supplemented with 2mM L-glutamine (Invitrogen, ref. 21875-034), 15% fetal bovine serum and

antibiotics (Penicillin and Streptomycin (Invitrogen, ref. 15140-122)) at initial concentration no

less than 150,000 viable cells/ml. Near confluence, cells were subcultured to 50%. After 24h, the

cells were blocked in mitosis by adding Colcemid to the culture (10 µg/ml demecolcine solution

(Gibco, ref. 15210-040)) to a final concentration of 0.1 µg/ml and incubated for an additional 6-7

h. To swell and stabilize mitotic cells, they were centrifuged 5 min at 300×g at room temperature.

The pellet was slowly resuspended in 10 mL hypotonic solution (Hypotonic solution: 75 mM KCl,

10 mM $MgSO_4$, 0.2 mM spermine, 0.5 mM spermidine. pH 8.0), incubated for 10 min at room

temperature. After the incubation in the hypotonic solution, the swollen cells were centrifuged at

300×g for 5 min. The cell pellet was resuspended in 1.5 mL of ice-cold polyamine isolation buffer

(PAB: 15 mM Tris, 2 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM EGTA, 80 mM KCl, 3 mM dithiothreitol, 0.25% Triton

X-100, 0.2 mM spermine, 0.5 mM spermidine. pH 8.0) for 20 min to release the chromosomes.

To ensure the integrity of the chromosomes, their morphology was checked before staining them.

To this end, the pellet was vigorously vortexed for 30 s to liberate the chromosomes from the

mitotic cells. The suspension was filtered through a 35 µm mesh filter and stored at 4°C until its

sorting.

Finally, chromosomes were stained with chromomycin-A3 (Sigma, ref. C2659) and Hoechst

33258 (Invitrogen, ref. H3569) at a final concentration of 40 µg/ml and 5 µg/ml respectively in

presence of divalent cations (10 mM MgSO$_4$ (Sigma, ref. 60142)). Staining was performed for at

least 8 h at 4°C, to allow the dyes to equilibrate. Before the sample analysis on a cell sorter,

potassium citrate was added to a final concentration of 10 mM (Sigma, ref. 89306) to enhance

peak resolution in the flow karyotype.

Chromosome sorting

Flow Karyotyping for chromosome sorting was performed on BD Influx cell sorter (Becton

Dickinson, San Jose, CA), a jet-in-air cell sorter that was selected for its relatively easy manual

daily fine-tuning and high-resolution capabilities. Of the five available lasers, only the blue (488

nm laser at 200 mW), deep-blue (457 nm laser at 300 mW) and ultraviolet (355 nm laser at 100

mW) ones were used for flow karyotyping. The setup and performance were optimized using

standard 8-peaks Rainbow beads (Sphero$^{TM}$ Rainbow Calibration Particles 3.0 – 3.4µm, BD

Biosciences, ref. 559123), 1-peak UV beads for UV laser alignment (Alignflow$^{TM}$ Flow Cytometry

Alignment 2.7µm, Molecular Probes, ref. A16502) and 1-peak 457nm for deep-blue laser

alignment (Fluoresbrite$^{TM}$ Plain YG Microspheres 1.0µm, Polysciences, Inc ref. 17154) were

respectively used for 488-blue, 355-UV and 457-DeepBlue optimal laser alignment and instrument

fine-tuning to obtain the highest resolution of chromosome detection and sorting.

The threshold for chromosome sorting was set triggering in chromomycin-A3 fluorescence on

457nm laser as primary excitation line and set at approximately 1800 a.u. Then, chromomycin-A3

fluorescence was used as primary fluorescence reference through a light line of 500 LP filter and

collected by a 550/50nm band-pass filter. Hoechst was excited with the UV laser and its

fluorescence was collected through a light line of 400 LP filter and by 460/50 BP. All parameters

were collected in lineal mode and analyzed with the BD FACS™ Sortware (v. 1.0.0.0.650, Becton

Dickinson, San Jose, CA).

We chose a 100 μm nozzle because we found it to have the best piezoelectric-frequency/electronic-

noise ratio. The piezoelectric frequency was adjusted at 38.7 KHz. The sample flow rate for

chromosome sorting was adjusted at up to 6000 events $s^{-1}$. The gating strategy for chromosome

sorting was simple because only a bi-parametrical dot plot Hoechst vs. chromomycin-A3

fluorescence was used (see Figure 1A).

Purification and concentration of flow-sorted Y chromosomes

For each of the two rounds of purification, the fractions corresponding to approximately 4.5 M Y

chromosomes (~500 ng of DNA per aliquot) were divided into 1 ml aliquots with an estimated

chromosome count of 400,000, corresponding to a DNA concentration of approximately 0.04

ng/ul. The approximate total volume per round of purification was around 22.5 ml. Each tube

containing the flow-sorted DNA was treated overnight with 10 μl of proteinase K (20 mg/ml) at

50 °C. After treatment, the buffer was exchanged, and proteinase K as well as chromomycin-A3

and Hoechst 33258 removed by dialysis against 1 L of TE buffer using a Pur-A-Lyzer™ Maxi

Dialysis column with a MWCO of 50 kDa (Sigma-Aldrich). Dialysis was carried out for 48 h

exchanging the buffer every 10-16 h. To reduce the volume after buffer exchange, DNA was

transferred into 1.5 ml tubes and concentrated by evaporation in a miVac DNA concentrator

(Barnstead GeneVac, Ipswich, UK) up to a volume of approximately 5 to 10 μl. A final purification

step was performed by pooling the concentrated DNA into two tubes and subjecting it to a SPRI

bead purification with a 2X ratio (SPRI beads/sample). DNA was eluted in 9 µl of Low TE buffer

and pooled into one tube. Concentrations were determined by absorbance at 260 nm with a

NanoDrop 2000 (Thermo Scientific) and by fluorometric assay with the Qubit 2.0 using the Qubit

dsDNA HS kit (Invitrogen) (see supplementary material).

Sequencing the flow sorted chromosomes

The purified DNA was prepared for sequencing following the protocol in the Rapid Sequencing

kit SQK-RAD002 (ONT, Oxford, UK). Briefly, approximately 200 ng of purified DNA was

tagmented for 1 min at 75ºC with the Fragmentation Mix (ONT, Oxford, UK). The Rapid Adapters

(ONT, Oxford, UK) were added along with Blunt/TA Ligase Master Mix (NEB, Beverly, MA)

and incubated for 30min at RT. The resulting library was combined with RBF (ONT, Oxford, UK)

and Library Loading Beads (ONT, Oxford, UK) and loaded onto a primed R9.4 Spot-On Flow cell

(FLO-MIN106). Sequencing and initial base-calling was performed with a MinION Mk1B v1.7.10

software package running for 48 h. Estimates for DNA quantification were based on chromosomal

counts with corresponding quantification values from Gribble et al, 2009[32]. The uncertainties in

quantification with Qubit 2.0 or NanoDrop are presumed to be due to residual intercalating dyes

present within the sample, that interfere with the quantification platforms detection systems, with

competition of additional intercalants leading to underestimation on the Qubit 2.0, and the

additional presence of aromatic groups leading to overestimation on the NanoDrop.

A total estimated amount of 100 ng of Y chromosome was fragmented on a Covaris ultrasonicator

with settings targeting fragments of 450 bp. The library was prepared using NEBNext Ultra II

DNA Library Prep Kit (New England BioLabs) following the manufacturer's instructions,

including 4 cycles of PCR amplification. Agilent BioAnalyzer High-Sensitivity DNA Kit was used

to determine the size distribution and molarity. The library was sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq

using the v3 kit and 600 cycles resulting in 300 bp paired end reads.

Assembly, error-correction and polishing

The Nanopore data was assembled with Canu (v 1.6)[19] without previous read separation of reads

deriving from different chromosomes and assuming a chromosome size of 52 Mb. The following

parameters were used:

`canu -p HG02982 -d HG02982_canu genomeSize=52m overlapper=mhap utgReAlign=true -`
`nanopore-raw raw_data/HG02982/all.joint.fastq`

The 2.3 Gb of input data resulted in 25X of error corrected reads for assembly, assuming a

chromosome size of 52 Mb. The data assembled into 35 contigs which where self-corrected using

the Nanopore input reads. To this end, we re-performed base-calling from the fast5 files using

Albacore (v 2.1, available from the nanopore user community) to be used for variant calling with

Nanopolish (v. 0.8.4, https://github.com/jts/nanopolish, Dec. 11, 2017)

`read_fast5_basecaller.py -f FLO-MIN106 -k SQK-RAD002 -i input_folder -s outout_folder`
`-t 8 -o fastq,fast5 -q 10000000 -n 100000 --disable_pings`

We indexed the reads to be used with Nanopolish:

```
nanopolish index -f fast5.fofn reads.joint.fastq
```

The reads were mapped onto the raw assembly using bwa mem (v. 0.7.120)[33] with the additional

flag -x ont2d and the mappings merged and sorted with samtools (v. 1.5):

```
bwa mem -x ont2d HG02982_canu.uncorrected.fasta reads.joint.fastq | samtools sort -o
reads.joint.mappings.bam -T tmp -
```

The mappings were fed to Nanopolish and corrected in chunks of 50 kb using the helper script

'nanopolish_makerange.py' included in the Nanopolish package. Variants were called using

'nanopolish variants –consensus' with the optional flag '--min-candidate-frequency 0.1'.

```
nanopolish_makerange.py  HG02982_canu.uncorrected.fasta  |  xargs  -i  echo  nanopolish
variants   --consensus   selfcorrected.{}.fa   -w   {}   -r   reads.joint.fastq   -b
reads.joint.mappings.bam  -g  HG02982_canu.uncorrected.fasta  -t  4  --min-candidate-
frequency 0.1 | sh
```

By this means, we corrected 127,801 positions in the initial assembly. The self-corrected assembly

was further polished with the Illumina library. To this end, we trimmed the Illumina reads to get

rid    of    any    adapters    in    the    sequences    using    trimgalore    (v    3.7,

https://github.com/FelixKrueger/TrimGalore).

```
trim_galore --fastqc --paired --retain_unpaired –gzip pair1.fastq pair2.fastq
```

439    The trimmed reads were mapped with BWA mem (v.0.7.12)[33] in paired end mode and the

440    mappings converted to a sorted bam files using samtools sort. PCR duplicates were removed with

441    Picardtools (v. 2.8.2, https://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/).

```
443  bwa mem HG02982_canu.selfcorrected.fasta reads.p1.fastq reads.p2.fastq | samtools sort
444  -o reads.paired.mappings.bam -T tmp -;
445  java      -jar      picard.jar      MarkDuplicates      I=reads.paired.mappings.bam
446  O=reads.paired.mappings.markdup.bam M=reads.paired.mappings.markdup.bam
```

448    Polishing was performed with Pilon (v 1.22)[20], resulting in 132,336 residual errors being corrected.

```
450  java   -Xmx96G   -jar   pilon-1.22.jar   --threads   12   --genome   HG02982_canu.sel
451      fcorrected.fasta     --frags     reads.paired.mappings.markdup.bam     --output
452  HG02982_canu.selfcorrected.pileon --outdir pilon_corrections --changes --vcf --tracks
453  --fix all
```

455    The PacBio data from the Ashkenazim Son (Coriel ID NA24385) produced by the genome in a

456    bottle consortium was also assembled using Canu (v. 1.6) with default assembly parameters and

457    assuming a genome size of 3.2 Gb:

```
459  canu  -p  NA24385  -d  NA24385_canu  genomeSize=3.2g  -pacbio-raw  data/fastq/*fastq.gz
460  gridOptionsExecutive='--mem-per-cpu=16g --cpus-per-task=2'
```

Variant calls

For variant calls, the Illumina data was mapped onto the GRCh38 or the HG02982 assembly

respectively, and processed the same way as detailed above. Variants were called using GATKs

Haplotype Caller with the following optional flags: '--genotyping-mode DISCOVERY --sample-

ploidy 1'.

`java  -jar  gatk-package-4.0.0.0-local.jar  HaplotypeCaller  -R  reference.fa  -I`

`mappings.bam --genotyping-mode DISCOVERY -O variants.vcf`

Repeat annotations

Repeat annotations were performed using RepeatMasker (v. 4.0.7) with rmblastn v. 2.6.0+ as the

engine. To be comparable, the annotations for both the HG02982 as well as the GRCh38 assembly

were performed the same way. We used the RepBase-20170127 as the repeatmasker database, and

Homo sapiens as the query species. Divergence of the repeat annotations to their consensus was

calculated using the 'calcDivergenceFromAlign.pl' utility included in the RepeatMasker package.

`RepeatMasker -e ncbi -pa 12 -s -species human -no_is -noisy -dir ./outDir -a -gff -u`

`reference.fa`

Whole genome alignments

Whole genome alignments to GRCh38 were produced using last (v. 914) with the following

parameters as suggested by the developer for highly similar genomes for indexing and alignments:

```
488   lastdb -uNEAR -R01 index reference.fa
489   lastal -v -j4 index query.fa > mappings.maf
490
```

Single best placements of query sequences were retained using the 'last-split' script included in

the last alignment package. Alignments were filtered for a maximum mismap probability of 10e-

5. The alignments were converted to psl format for further processing.

Comparison to WGS PacBio data

The PacBio data from the Ashkenazim Son (Coriel ID NA24385) produced by the genome in a

bottle consortium was also assembled using Canu (v. 1.6) using default assembly parameters and

assuming a genome size of 3.2 Gb:

```
501   canu  -p  NA24385  -d  NA24385_canu  genomeSize=3.2g  -pacbio-raw  data/fastq/*fastq.gz
502   gridOptionsExecutive='--mem-per-cpu=16g --cpus-per-task=2'
503
```

After genome assembly, we performed a whole genome alignment to GRChg38 and retained single

best placements as mentioned above. To identify contigs belonging to the Y chromosome, we

performed the following filtering steps: For contigs which have local best placements on a

chromosome different than the Y, we filtered out those whose proportion of mapped bases is higher

on a sequence from the reference assembly different from the Y chromosome. Additionally, we

filtered out any alignments with a mismap probability higher than 10e5. By this means, we retained

193 contigs mapping 15,308,468 base pairs on the Y chromosome (see supplementary material)

Structural variant calls

Structural variants were called with assemblytics[25]. To this end, we produced whole genome

alignments using nucmer from the Mummer package (v. 3.22)[34]. The resulting delta file was passed

to assemblytics, with the required unique anchor length set to 10000 bp.

```
nucmer -maxmatch -l 100 -c 500 GRCh38.chrY.fa HG02982_chrY_v1.fasta    -prefix
```
519 ```
HG02982_vs_HG38
```
520 ```
Assemblytics HG02982_vs_HG38_.delta HG02982_chrY_v1.vs.hg38_10kanchor.50kmax 10000
```
521 ```
bin/Assemblytics/
```

Read depth duplication detection

We estimated absolute copy number using the Illumina data as previously described[22]. Briefly, we

masked all common repeats as identified by RepeatMasker (see above) and tandem repeat finder.

We created non-overlapping 36-mers of the raw reads, that were mapped onto the assembly using

GEM (v 2) allowing for a divergence of up to 5%. The read depth was calculated in non-

overlapping windows of 1 kb of non-repetitive sequence. After correcting for GC content using

mrCanavar (v. 0.51), we normalized by the mean read depth. To assign a copy number to each

gene, we calculated the median copy number of all windows intersecting a gene. For the hg38 Y

chromosome, a set of custom single-copy regions needed to be provided to the CN caller as

calibration. These regions were inferred by subtracting the reference WGAC (whole genome

assembly comparison, UCSC track genomic superdups) segmental duplication track from the

whole Y chromosome and keeping only stretches of single-copy sequence longer than 2 kb.

### Gene annotation

The annotation of the HG02982 assembly was performed by trying to assign the genes present in

the Y chromosome annotation of GRCh38 gencode version 27. For this purpose, we downloaded

the gff3, the transcript sequences and the protein sequences that corresponded to the Y

chromosome annotation and performed transcript and protein mappings with GMAP (v. 20170317,

[35]) and exonerate (v. 2.2.0, [36]), respectively. Additionally, a numeric index was assigned to each

gene in the HG38 Y chromosome according to the order in the chromosome. Next, we combined

all the data (transcript mappings, protein mappings and gene synteny) with an in-house script to

locate each gene in our assembly and assign parts of the assembly to their corresponding region in

the Y chromosome of GRCh38. After following the strategy mentioned above for all the genes,

we took a closer look to the protein-coding genes, by manually checking some of the mappings in

order to determine possible errors in the sequence caused by the Nanopore reads that could

introduce frameshifts or internal stop codons in the aminoacidic sequence.

### Comparison of methylation status

554 The methylation status was called using Nanopolish[7] as suggested by the developers. To this end,

555 we aligned the Nanopore reads to GRCh38 with minimap2[37] and sorted with samtools (v 1.5). The

556 calls were performed in 200 kb windows.

```
558 minimap2 -a -x map-ont chrY.fa joint_reads.fastq | samtools sort -T tmp -o
559 joint_reads.mappings.bam
```

```
560    samtools index joint_reads.mappings.bam
```

```
561    nanopolish  call-methylation  -v  --progress  -t  8  -r  joint_reads.fastq  -b
```

```
562    joint_reads.mappings.bam -g chrY.fa -w"chrY:$start-$stop" > methylation_calls.tsv
```

564    Finally, we calculated the methylation frequency and log-likelyhood ratios of methylation at each position:

```
566    calculate_methylation_frequency.py -i methylation_calls.tsv
```

We downloaded publicly available methylation calls based on whole genome bisulfite sequencing

(WGBS) from the ENCDODE project to compare to. These included calls from similar primary

tissue: b-cell, ID: ENCFF774VLD; t-cell, ID: ENCFF355UVU; killer cell, ID: ENCFF435ETE.

Additionally, we also compared our calls to another male cell line derived from skin fibroblasts,

ID: ENCFF752NXS. The comparisons were performed using the compare_methylation.py script

included in the Nanopolish package. We filtered out any position with less than 10 reads in either

the WGBS or the Nanopore data. Additionally, any position with a log-likelihood ratio of less than

2.5 in the Nanopore data was also excluded.

Material and Methods References

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