

High Quality Phasing Using Linked-Read Whole Genome Sequencing of Patient Cohorts Informs Genetic Understanding of Complex Traits

Scott Mastromatteo^{1,2}, Angela Chen¹, Jiafen Gong¹, Fan Lin¹, Bhooma Thiruvahindrapuram^{1,2}, Wilson WL Sung^{1,2}, Joe Whitney^{1,2}, Zhuozhi Wang^{1,2}, Rohan V Patel^{1,2}, Katherine Keenan³, Anat Halevy¹, Naim Panjwani¹, Julie Avolio³, Cheng Wang¹, Guillaume Côté-Maurais⁴, Stéphanie Bégin⁴, Damien Adam^{4,5}, Emmanuelle Brochiero^{4,5}, Candice Bjornson⁶, Mark Chilvers⁷, April Price⁸, Michael Parkins⁹, Richard van Wylick¹⁰, Dimas Mateos-Corral¹¹, Daniel Hughes¹¹, Mary Jane Smith¹², Nancy Morrison¹³, Elizabeth Tullis¹⁴, Anne L Stephenson¹⁴, Pearce Wilcox¹⁵, Bradley S Quon¹⁵, Winnie M Leung¹⁶, Melinda Solomon¹⁷, Lei Sun^{18,19}, Felix Ratjen^{3,20}, and Lisa J Strug^{1,2,18,19,21}✉

¹Program in Genetics and Genome Biology, The Hospital for Sick Children; Toronto, Canada

²The Centre for Applied Genomics, Hospital for Sick Children; Toronto, Canada

³Centre de recherche du centre hospitalier de l'Université de Montréal (CRCHUM); Montréal, Canada

⁴Department of Medicine, Faculty of Medicine; Université de Montréal, Montréal, Canada

⁵Program in Translational Medicine, The Hospital for Sick Children; Toronto, Canada

⁶Alberta Children's Hospital; Calgary, Canada

⁷British Columbia Children's Hospital; Vancouver, Canada

⁸The Children's Hospital, London Health Science Centre; London, Canada

⁹University of Calgary, Department of Medicine; Calgary, Canada

¹⁰Kingston Health Sciences Centre; Kingston, Canada

¹¹IWK Health Centre; Halifax, Canada

¹²Memorial University of Newfoundland, Faculty of Medicine; St. John's, Canada

¹³Queen Elizabeth II Health Sciences Centre; Halifax, Canada

¹⁴St. Michael's Hospital, Toronto; Canada

¹⁵St. Paul's Hospital, Vancouver; Canada

¹⁶University of Alberta Hospital; Edmonton, Canada

¹⁷Division of Respiratory Medicine, The Hospital for Sick Children; Toronto, Canada

¹⁸Department of Statistical Sciences, University of Toronto; Toronto, ON, Canada

¹⁹Biostatistics Division, Dalla Lana School of Public Health, University of Toronto; Toronto, Canada

²⁰Department of Paediatrics, University of Toronto; Toronto, Canada

²¹Department of Computer Science, University of Toronto; Toronto, Canada

Abstract

Phasing of heterozygous alleles is critical for interpretation of *cis*-effects of disease-relevant variation. For population studies, phase is often inferred from external data but read-based phasing approaches that span long genomic distances would be more accurate because they enable both genotype and phase to be obtained from a single dataset. To demonstrate how read-based phasing can provide functional insights, we sequenced 477 individuals with Cystic Fibrosis (CF) using linked-read sequencing. We benchmark read-based phasing with different short- and long-read sequencing technologies, prioritize linked-read technology as the most informative and produce a benchmark phase call set from reference sample HG002 for the community. The 477 samples display an average phase block N50 of 4.39 Mb. We use these samples to construct a graph representation of *CFTR* haplotypes, which facilitates understanding of complex CF alleles. Fine-mapping and phasing of the chr7q35 trypsinogen locus associated with CF meconium ileus demonstrates a 20 kb deletion and a *PRSS2* missense variant p.Thr8Ile (rs62473563) independently contribute to meconium ileus risk ($p=0.0028$, $p=0.011$, respectively) and are *PRSS2* pancreas eQTLs ($p=9.5e-7$ and $p=1.4e-4$, respectively), explaining the mechanism by which these polymorphisms contribute to CF. Phase enables access to haplotypes that can be used for genome graph or reference panel construction, identification of *cis*-effects, and for understanding disease associated loci. The phase information from linked-reads provides a causal explanation for variation at a CF-relevant locus which also has implications for the genetic basis of non-CF pancreatitis to which this locus has been reported to contribute.

phasing | linked-reads | trypsinogen | *PRSS2* | cystic fibrosis

Correspondence: lisa.strug@utoronto.ca

1 Introduction

2 Current genetic epidemiological studies often fail to capture the complete diploid nature of the human genome (1) largely
3 because of a reliance on genotyping arrays and short-read whole genome sequencing (WGS). These technologies can identify
4 heterozygous alleles but provide little to no information regarding the *cis* or *trans* phase relationships of their heterozygous
5 allele pairs. Accurate haplotype information can be essential in informing phenotype-genotype relationships. One of the most
6 well-known examples come from compound heterozygosity in monogenic disorders such as cystic fibrosis (CF) (2).

7 CF is caused by mutations in the CF transmembrane conductance regulator (*CFTR*) (3). Over 2,100 variants have been identified
8 in *CFTR* (4), greater than 400 of these have been shown to be disease causing while others are reported to have varying
9 clinical consequence and are CF-causing only when in *cis* with another deleterious variant (5). Meanwhile, individuals with
10 identical CF-causing alleles display variable disease severity and response to *CFTR*-targeting therapies (6). CF co-morbidities
11 and variation in disease severity are complex genetic traits (7), presumed to be due to the impact of other genes beyond *CFTR*,
12 referred to as modifier genes. For example, genome-wide association studies (GWAS) of CF meconium ileus (MI), an intestinal
13 obstruction seen at birth in 13–21% of individuals with CF (8), have identified associated loci (9)(10)

14 By design, the GWAS arrays mostly contain common SNPs in easily accessible regions of the genome. The MI associated
15 SNPs do not appear in high linkage disequilibrium (LD) with protein coding variations, suggesting their impact is through gene
16 regulation. However, much remains to be learned about the variation that is in *cis* with these associated SNP risk alleles or
17 whether combinations of multiple *cis*-acting variants contribute to MI risk; for this, genotype data at the associated loci must
18 be phased.

19 In a typical epidemiological study, data external to the target individual is used to reconstruct maternal and paternal haplotypes.
20 Pedigree-based phasing offers a high degree of accuracy (11) but requires a family-based experimental design and cannot
21 resolve phase for variants that are heterozygous for all members. Population-based phasing is a cost-effective alternative that
22 exploits shared ancestry information and linkage disequilibrium (LD) patterns to statistically infer haplotypes. However, the
23 statistical nature of population-based phasing makes it vulnerable to frequent switch errors: accidental transitions from maternal
24 to paternal haplotypes between neighbouring heterozygous sites (1). Phasing rare variants can also be problematic, requiring
25 inference when few or no copies of that rare variant are present within the reference population.

26 In contrast, individual-level phasing approaches determine phase relationships for a target individual without reliance on an
27 external dataset. Sequencing reads that overlap multiple heterozygous sites are phase informative (12) but the maximum phase
28 distance is restricted by the size of the sequencing read which makes short-read data ineffective when attempting to phase over
29 non-trivial distances. Long-read sequencing technologies such as Pacific Biosciences (PacBio) SMRT sequencing and Oxford
30 Nanopore generate longer reads capable of phasing longer distances, but these technologies are often error-prone, very costly
31 or both. Other alternatives utilize a standard short-read sequencing pipeline with an additional experimental step that introduces
32 long-range information into the read data. For example, the 10x Genomics (10XG) linked-read technology (13) and Universal
33 Sequencing Technologies TELL-Seq (14) tag reads derived from a single DNA molecule with a shared nucleotide barcode,
34 enabling otherwise independent reads to be linked and capable of long-distance phasing.

35 Here, we benchmark the phasing capabilities of different sequencing technologies using public data from the well-studied
36 individual NA12878 with the practical goal of scaling to sample sizes large enough to quantify haplotype distributions for
37 statistical analysis. This work guides our choice of 10XG as a technology to apply to the Canadian CF Gene Modifier Study
38 Consortium (CGMS) cohort. We sequenced 477 individuals with CF from the CGMS using 10XG linked-read technology at
39 approximately 30x coverage and leverage the data to improve understanding of a MI associated locus.

40 MI GWAS has identified three genome-wide significant loci and a suggestive intergenic locus within the T-cell receptor beta
41 region (chr7q35) (9) that was replicated in independent samples (10). Early sequencing work in the chr7q35 region identified
42 five trypsinogen paralogs with approximately 90-91% nucleotide similarity which were annotated as T4 to T8 (15). Cationic
43 trypsinogen *PRSS1* (T4) and anionic trypsinogen *PRSS2* (T8) are major forms of trypsin found in the pancreas, one of the
44 earliest affected organs in CF (16). The other three genes are pseudogenes: *PRSS3P1* (T5), *PRSS3P2* (T6) and *TRY7* (T7); of
45 the three, there is only evidence for *PRSS3P2* transcription but no known evidence of a protein product (17). The GRCh38
46 reference genome only include three of these genes (T4, T5, T8) which is an accurate representation of a common deletion
47 polymorphism that removes T6 and T7. This approximately 20 kb deletion appears to have arisen via non-allelic homologous
48 recombination (18) and this represents a common variation found in approximately 41% of individuals with European ancestry
49 (19). The GRCh38 alternative contig, KI270803.1 (20), represents the non-deleted haplotype and contains genes T4-T8. This
50 is further complicated by reference assembly GRCh37 being erroneously structured (T4, T5, T6) and excluding *PRSS2*; a
51 correction was later released (chr7_g1582971_fix) that included all five genes.

52 In the present study, we provide a phasing benchmark using different technologies, summarize the phasing quality achievable
53 across the 477 individuals with CF and use the phase information to unravel the complex genomic architecture at the chr7q35
54 modifier locus.

55 Results

56 **Comparison of phasing potential between read technologies.** Here we consider the phasing quality of four different
57 sequencing technologies: 10XG linked-reads, PacBio continuous long-reads (CLR), PacBio circular consensus sequence (CCS;
58 branded as HiFi), and Nanopore reads. Phased variant calls for reference individual NA12878 is assessed for each technology
59 (data sources listed in Supplementary Table 1). Variant calls fall into discrete phase blocks: a set of variants that are phased
60 with respect to each other. Nanopore and 10XG technologies demonstrate longer, more contiguous phase blocks than PacBio
61 CLR or CCS (Figure 1a). Phase blocks for chromosomes 1-3 are shown in Supplementary Figure 1 and additional statistics are
62 available in Supplementary Table 2.

63 We assess phase accuracy by comparison with the NA12878 Platinum Genomes phase calls generated from a 17-member
64 pedigree (21). Figure 1b shows disagreements with the benchmark as flip errors (a single variant on the wrong haplotype)
65 and switch errors (a contiguous block of variants on the wrong haplotype). Nanopore demonstrates the lowest accuracy with
66 97.28% of assessed variant pairs agreeing with the benchmark. PacBio CLR and CCS show higher accuracy (99.12% and
67 99.82%, respectively) but 10XG has the best performance with 99.97% accuracy and only 659 flip and switch errors total
68 across all assessed variant pairs. The phasing accuracy of PacBio and 10XG specifically has been previously reported (22).

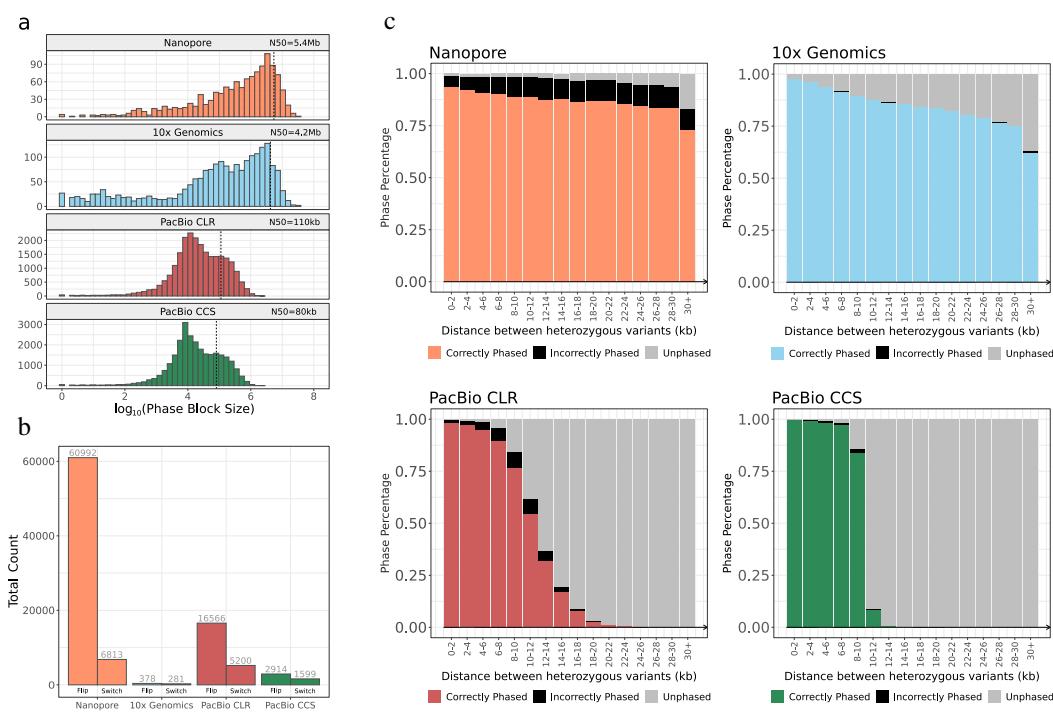


Fig. 1. Benchmarking phased calls using four different sequencing technologies against NA12878. Phased VCFs produced for reference individual NA12878 using Nanopore, 10XG, PacBio CLR and PacBio CCS. **a** Distribution of phase block lengths for each technology. N50 is annotated as dotted line. Nanopore: 1231 blocks, N50=5.41 Mb; 10XG: 2101 blocks, N50=4.19 Mb; PacBio CLR: 24129 blocks, N50=110 kb; PacBio CCS: 27407 blocks, N50=80 kb. **b** Number of flip and switch errors identified by comparison to Platinum Genomes benchmark using pairs of heterozygous variants. **c** Phase accuracy shown as a function of the distance between variant pairs in kb. A variant pair is deemed correctly phased if the phase configuration agrees with the Platinum Genome truth set; a variant pair could also disagree with the truth set (black) or have no phase call made (grey).

69 The relationship between phase quality and the distance between pairs of neighbouring variants is presented in Figure 1c.

70 Nanopore and 10XG technologies are capable of phasing variant pairs spanning tens of kilobases, correctly phasing 75% and

71 84% of adjacent heterozygous variants in the range of 28-30 kb, respectively. In contrast, the CLR and CCS PacBio data show

72 a significant drop-off in the ability to phase heterozygous variant pairs that are greater than 10 kb apart, corresponding to the

73 expected read lengths of these technologies. PacBio CLR technology correctly phases 2% of the variants within the 10-20 kb

74 range compared to 2.7% for CCS.

75 The accuracy of short-reads in conjunction with the long-range information offered by 10XG linked-reads creates long phase

76 blocks while maintaining a low error rate relative to the other technologies. Although Nanopore reads generate a more contiguous

77 set of phase blocks, it comes at a cost of a higher error rate. It is critical to minimize incorrect phase calls because even a

78 single switch error produces a multitude of misleading pairwise variant relationships by splitting a consistent phase block into

79 two completely out-of-phase parts. With this consideration, 10XG produces the highest quality phase calls of the technologies

80 assessed.

81 The insight into the strengths and weaknesses of each technology motivates an approach to combine multiple technologies and

82 improve phase quality. We devised a pipeline to combine phased variant call format (VCF) files from multiple sources

83 to generate a consensus phase set and benchmark the results against the NA12878 Platinum Genomes truth set. Supplementary

84 Figure 2 shows the effect different combinations of sequencing technologies has on phase properties. Using all four technologies

85 in combination, 99.93% of variants are phased in 894 phase blocks (N50=13.24 Mb) with an accuracy of 99.59% (complete

86 statistics in Supplementary Table 3).

87 We apply this consensus phasing strategy to create a high-quality phased VCF for the well-studied individual HG002. The
88 Genome in a Bottle (GIAB) Consortium provides phased benchmark calls for small variants in HG002 (23) generated from
89 parental genotypes and Strand-seq data. However, many phasing errors can be detected in the GIAB release VCF by manual
90 assessment of the read data (Supplementary Figure 3). In release version 4.2, 28.2% of heterozygous variants remain unphased
91 in the release VCF. To improve this resource, we generate a consensus by combining the following data: Strand-Seq, 10XG
92 linked-reads, PacBio CCS, PacBio CLR, Nanopore and include the pedigree phase information available in the GIAB release
93 VCF for HG002. The consensus of the six sources of phase information phases 99.996% of heterozygous variants within 81
94 phase blocks with N50 of 90.3 Mb across the entire genome. This data is available at (24).

95 **Phasing 477 Canadians with cystic fibrosis.** We performed whole genome sequencing of DNA for 477 individuals from
96 the CGMS cohort (10) using the 10XG linked-read technology at 30x depth (25x after trimming the 10XG barcode). The
97 phasing distance of 10XG linked-reads is limited by the size of DNA molecules extracted. We investigated different extraction
98 methods and found MagAttract produces the best results, consistent with the publicly available NA12878 sample (Figure 2a-
99 d). Mean molecular length averages 58.7 kb (range: 32.6-95.4 kb) across 463 MagAttract extracted samples and is a strong
100 predictor of the quality of the phasing. The average MagAttract extracted sample is phased in 2444 blocks, with N50 of 4.39
101 Mb and a mean of 1428 variants per block. The largest phase block across all samples is 247.97 Mb and all but two samples
102 have >97% of all genes shorter than 100 kb phased in a single block. Additional statistics can be found in Supplementary Table
103 4.

104 To complement genome-wide statistics, we assess the local phasing of a 389 kb region encompassing the CF causal gene,
105 *CFTR* (GRCh38 chr7:117379963-117768665; *CFTR* plus 100 kb on both sides). The most common CF-causing variant is
106 p.Phe508del; 241 individuals homozygous for this variant comprise about half of the sequenced samples. Due to a conserved
107 haplotype, individuals homozygous for p.Phe508del possess high levels of homozygosity along the entire *CFTR* gene which
108 makes it difficult to phase. The median p.Phe508del homozygous individual has 10 heterozygous variant calls within the
109 assessed region (one per ~40 kb) compared to 236 heterozygous variants (one per ~1.6kb) for the median individual with
110 heterozygous CF-causing alleles. Consequently, 152 of the 199 individuals with heterozygous CF-causing variants have a
111 single phase block spanning the complete 389kb region. This demonstrates how the phasing of causal loci in disease cohorts
112 with a recessive mode of inheritance could pose unique challenges for read-based phasing techniques but also highlights the
113 potential to identify complex alleles that may explain disease variation (7).

114 We construct a graph representation of the phased sequence at the *CFTR* locus from 449 individuals with CF to provide a visual
115 understanding of the 10XG-derived haplotypes (Figure 2e). The graph includes the multiallelic poly-T tract polymorphism
116 to highlight how a graph representation of haplotypes can inform disease phenotypes. Variation at the poly-T tract results in
117 altered splicing and can cause CF if in *cis* with specific *CFTR* mutations (25); p.R117H in phase with a short poly-T is CF-
118 causing while the clinical manifestations for those with longer poly-T sequence is less certain. Nine different poly-T alleles are
119 visualized and their phase is shown with respect to downstream variants including p.Phe508del.

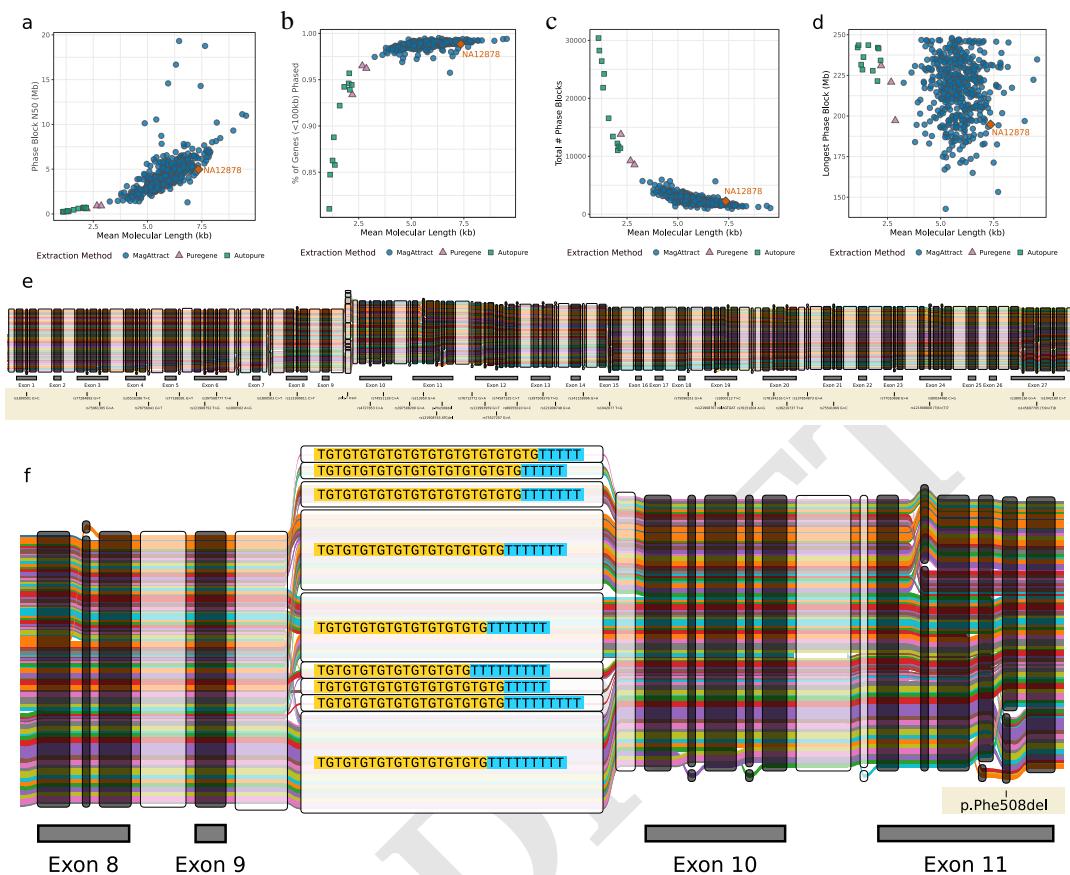


Fig. 2. Genome-wide phasing statistics versus mean molecular length for CGMS samples and NA12878 sequenced by 10XG. DNA from CGMS cohort extracted using either MagAttract (blue circle), Autopure (green square) or Puregene (purple triangle). GIAB data for NA12878 (orange diamond) was down-sampled to a comparable coverage (30x). Statistics are compared against mean molecular length reported by Long Ranger (13) **a** Phase block N50; **b** Proportion of phased genes with length less than 100 kb; **c** Total number of phase blocks; **d** Size of longest phase block in base pairs. **e** Graph representation of exonic variants for 898 *CFTTR* haplotypes. The graph is composed of nodes representing sequence and haplotype groups as colored edges. The complete haplotype sequence can be reconstructed by concatenating the nodes along a path. The thickness of each edge denotes the haplotype frequency in the dataset. Nodes belonging to exons are annotated and colored black. **f** The intronic poly-T tract is included in the graph representation. Nine different poly-T alleles are visualized here and shown with respect to three SNPs downstream from the poly-T tract.

120 **Analyzing the chr7q35 trypsinogen CF modifier locus.** The MI GWAS-suggestive locus on chr7q35 has five duplicated
121 trypsinogen paralogs (*PRSS1*, *PRSS3P1*, *PRSS3P2*, *TRY7* and *PRSS2*) but is structurally variable across reference assemblies
122 (Figure 3a). The GRCh38 chr7 sequence includes a large deletion polymorphism that removes *PRSS3P2* and *TRY7*. Reads from
123 individuals who carry a non-deleted haplotype align spuriously to GRCh38, resulting in false variant calls (Supplementary
124 Figure 4). Realignment of 10XG reads to alternative contig KI270803.1 improves the calling and phasing of variation and
125 enables the large deletion polymorphism to be unambiguously called (Supplementary Figure 5). Among individuals with
126 European ancestry, we find almost no variation within the deletion boundary on haplotypes lacking the deletion (Supplementary
127 Figure 6). A simple genotype coding of the deletion sufficiently captures the genetic variation contained in this subregion and
128 is used for all subsequent analysis.

129 424 of 477 10XG samples are completely phased in a single block across a conservative 200 kb region surrounding the *PRSS1*-
130 *PRSS2* locus (KI270803.1:700000-900000). This phase information elucidates the LD structure of this locus for the CGMS
131 cohort and is shown alongside MI GWAS summary statistics in Figure 3b. Two association peaks centered at rs3757377
132 (KI270803.1:750284C>T) and rs1799886 (KI270803.1:823812T>C) are present in different LD blocks. The rs3757377 risk
133 allele "T" has a frequency of 41% in the 10XG calls. We phase this SNP with respect to other variants of interest within the
134 same LD block, the two major haplotypes account for 94.7% of the observed data (Figure 3c).

135 The second peak centered at rs1799886 has a similar minor allele frequency of 43.5% but is not in strong LD with the deletion
136 polymorphism ($D'=-0.55$, $r^2=0.19$). A search for variants in *cis* with rs1799886 reveals a nonsynonymous PRSS2 variant
137 (p.Thr8Ile), rs62473563 (KI270803.1:793978C>T), with 10.7% minor allele frequency and a high D' with rs1799886 ($D'=-$
138 0.98, $r^2=0.09$). The rs1799886 "T" allele is in *cis* with p.Thr8Ile for 100 out of 101 haplotypes. The GWAS signal is tagging
139 this protein-coding SNP; this relationship was not uncovered in the original analysis of the GWAS results due to the absence of
140 PRSS2 from the GRCh37 reference.

141 A query of the Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) v8 data (28) was conducted to search for pancreas eQTLs with respect
142 to the five trypsinogen paralogs. *PRSS3P2* and *TRY7* are not reported by GTEx v8 due to their absence from the GRCh38.
143 *PRSS3P1* does not have significant pancreas eQTLs but this is expected as it is not transcribed. Significant pancreas eQTLs are
144 reported for *PRSS2* (Supplementary Table 5) but not for *PRSS1*. This result is surprising because there is a common SNP in
145 the promoter region that is reported to alter *PRSS1* expression (27) but did not appear as a significant eQTL. LocusFocus (29)
146 detects colocalization between MI association p-values and GTEx v8 *PRSS2* pancreas eQTLs (colocalization p-value=7.1e-8,
147 Supplementary Figure 7). This suggests that MI risk could be modulated by altered *PRSS2* expression. The reliability of these
148 results depends on accurate accounting of the 20 kb deletion polymorphism during read alignment to GRCh38. We found that
149 the presence of the extra 20 kb sequence did not significantly alter the normalized gene expression counts for *PRSS1* or *PRSS2*
150 when compared with GTEx v8 counts (r^2 correlation of the two datasets >0.99 , Supplementary Figure 8).

151 To improve comparison to the predominantly European CGMS data, 252 GTEx samples with the race labelled as "white" were
152 used to recalculate pancreas eQTLs. The GTEx v8 variant calls for these samples were lifted to KI270803.1 and the deletion
153 polymorphism was imputed using the 10XG CGMS samples as a reference panel. Similar to the GTEx v8 results, there are
154 no significant ($p<0.05$) eQTLs for *PRSS1* (Supplementary Figure 9) but *PRSS2* has pancreas eQTLs (Figure 4a). The imputed

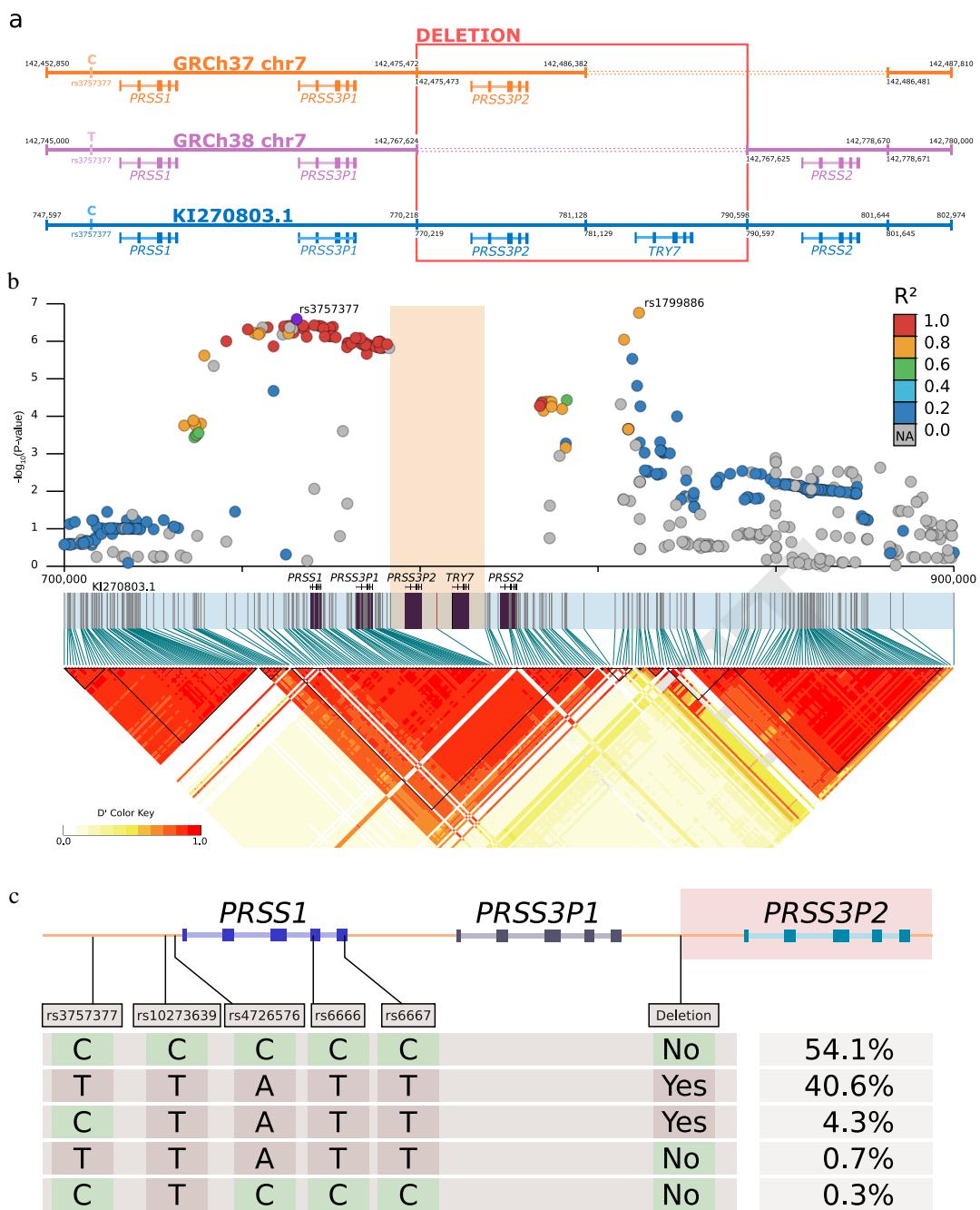


Fig. 3. Characterizing the chr7q35 trypsinogen locus. **a** Differences between chromosome 7 reference assemblies for GRCh37, GRCh38 and alternative contig KI270803.1. In the GRCh37 assembly, *TRY7* and *PRSS2* are absent. The GRCh38 assembly does not include *PRSS3P2* and *TRY7* because it accurately represents a haplotype with a common ~20 kb deletion polymorphism (highlighted in red). KI270803.1 represents a haplotype without the deletion polymorphism. **b** LD matrix calculated from 10XG phased calls; deletion allele is denoted by orange rectangle. Haplotype blocks are drawn as black triangles, all five trypsinogen homologs are located within a single block (KI270803.1:737033-802909). MI GWAS summary statistics lifted from GRCh37 to KI270803.1 are shown, r^2 with respect to rs3757377. **c** Four SNPs in the same LD block as rs3757377, phased with the deletion polymorphism. SNPs include a common pancreatitis risk allele (rs10273639) (26), a *PRSS1* promoter SNP (rs4726576) that alters expression of a reporter gene in mice (27), two synonymous *PRSS1* variants (rs6666 and rs6667). Five unique haplotypes are observed in 10XG data, the frequencies are shown as a percentage. The two major haplotypes account for 94.7% of the observed data.

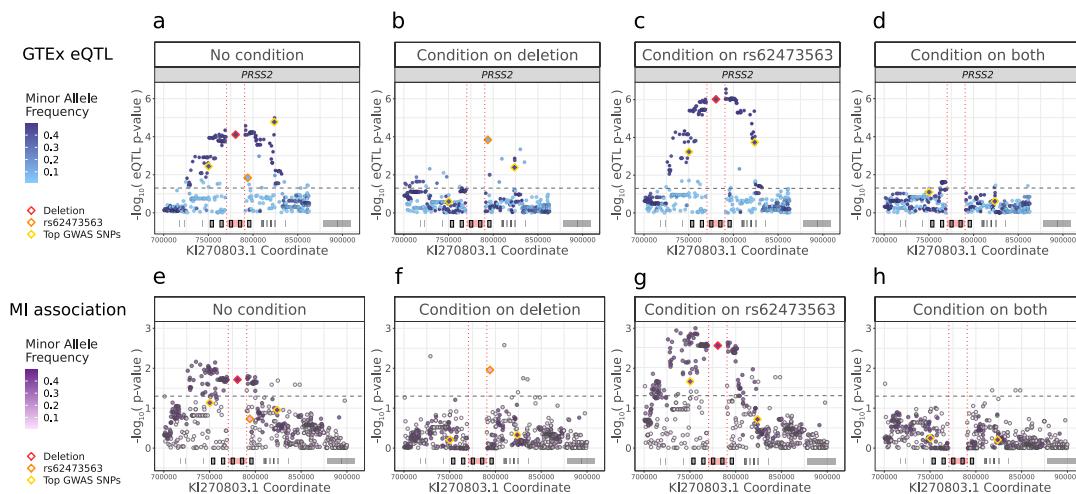


Fig. 4. Conditional association analysis reveals common association pattern for *PRSS2* pancreas eQTLs and MI risk. GTEx v8 variant calls lifted to KI270803.1 and deletion allele (red diamond) imputed from 10XG calls. **a** Recalculated *PRSS2* pancreas eQTLs. **b** GTEx *PRSS2* pancreas eQTLs conditioning on deletion polymorphism. **c** *PRSS2* pancreas eQTLs conditioning on rs62473563 (orange diamond). **d** GTEx *PRSS2* pancreas eQTLs conditioning on both rs62473563 and deletion polymorphism. **e** Association with MI was similarly performed for 309 10XG samples. **f** MI risk conditioning on deletion polymorphism. **g** MI risk conditioning on rs62473563. **h** MI risk conditioning on both rs62473563 and deletion polymorphism.

155 deletion polymorphism appears as a strong *PRSS2* pancreas eQTL ($p=7.8e-5$). Conditioning on the deletion polymorphism
 156 reveals that rs62473563 (*PRSS2* missense variant, p.Thr8Ile) acts as an independent eQTL (Figure 4b). Conditioning on
 157 rs62473563 increases the significance of the deletion polymorphism (Figure 4c) and conditioning on both eliminates the *PRSS2*
 158 eQTL signal (Figure 4d). The presence of p.Thr8Ile and the deletion polymorphism are both associated with reduced *PRSS2*
 159 expression. This conditional analysis is summarized in Table 1.

160 To understand these eQTL results in the context of MI, we analyzed genotyping array data from CGMS cohort individuals
 161 ($n=2635$, Supplementary Figure 10). The deletion polymorphism is associated with an additive increased risk of disease
 162 ($\beta=0.29$, $p=5.2e-4$) but imputation for rs62473563 is poor. Instead, we performed fine-mapping using the 10XG sequencing
 163 calls for whom MI status and 10XG data were available. A similar association pattern observed for the pancreas eQTL was
 164 recapitulated for the MI phenotype in 337 individuals sequenced with the 10XG technology. (Supplementary Figure 11).
 165 Interestingly, the contribution of this locus in CF individuals with two minimal function *CFTR* alleles appears attenuated,
 166 which is likely due to their already elevated risk due to *CFTR* (8). Exclusion of 28 individuals with minimal function CF
 167 alleles produces stronger evidence of association with MI despite the smaller sample size (Figure 4e-h, Table 1). Notably, the
 168 *PRSS2* variant p.Thr8Ile remained associated with MI after accounting for the deletion polymorphism in the model ($\beta=0.93$,
 169 $p=0.011$). Both deletion and p.Thr8Ile are associated with a reduction in *PRSS2* expression and a higher risk of MI.

Table 1. GTEx *PRSS2* pancreas eQTL analysis and association to MI risk using 10XG data under conditional analysis.

Variant	Conditioned on	<i>PRSS2</i> pancreas eQTL n=252		MI association n=309	
		Slope (SE)	P-value	Beta (SE)	P-value
rs62473563	-	-0.24 (0.10)	0.014	0.42 (0.32)	0.19
rs62473563	Deletion	-0.38 (0.097)	1.4e-4	0.93 (0.37)	0.011
Deletion	-	-0.24 (0.060)	7.8e-5	0.53 (0.22)	0.019
Deletion	rs62473563	-0.31 (0.060)	9.5e-7	0.75 (0.25)	0.0028

170 Discussion

171 Phasing of genetic sequence improves understanding of causal variation at GWAS-associated loci, especially in regions of
172 complex genetic architecture and when allelic heterogeneity is present. However, haplotype reconstruction is typically not a
173 priority when studying disease cohorts following-up GWAS identified loci. Here we demonstrate that linked-read technology
174 provides a robust and cost-effective option for epidemiological studies of complex loci.

175 Benchmarking different read technology against Platinum Genomes highlights the exceptional phasing accuracy produced by
176 10XG linked-reads. Large phase blocks with N50 upwards of 4 Mb are achievable with this technology – more than sufficient
177 for studying targeted loci. It should be noted that the Nanopore and PacBio data used in this study were based on public
178 availability and technological improvements have been made since those datasets were released. The general insights offered
179 by the benchmarking comparison still apply to newer iterations of these technologies.

180 While 10XG linked-reads provides high-quality phase information, we observed that the linked-reads often generated incom-
181 plete phase blocks where many variants remain unphased within a block. Variants with insufficient phase-informative reads
182 occur stochastically, especially in positions with low coverage. Unphased variants can also be the result of regions with low
183 mappability for short reads. In contrast, long-read technologies generate more uniform coverage, improve mappability and
184 produce complete phase blocks. To achieve the most reliable phase calls for a single individual, we show that an ensemble
185 approach can compensate for the individual deficits of each technology by taking a consensus of multiple callsets. We have
186 produced and made available a consensus VCF for the well-studied GIAB sample HG002. This consensus is a useful refer-
187 ence for studies interested in benchmarking phase calls, since HG002 has one of the most well-studied genomes and, to our
188 knowledge, has yet to be comprehensively phased.

189 To demonstrate the practical utility of phased sequence data for a cohort, we investigated the chr7q35 trypsinogen locus that did
190 not reach genome-wide significance in our largest GWAS of MI in CF to date (10). Nonetheless this locus was tantalizing due
191 to the role trypsinogen plays in digestion and the specificity to the pancreas, one of the organs most significantly impacted in
192 CF. The architecture of the chr7q35 trypsinogen locus requires careful analytic consideration. The region is heavily susceptible
193 to reference bias, where differences between which reference assembly is used can produce misleading results. Reference bias
194 in this locus has had documented clinical consequences, specifically the detection of a pathogenic *PRSS1* variant called based
195 on misaligned reads derived from trypsinogen pseudogenes (30)(31). We mitigated misalignments by using reference sequence
196 KI270803.1 that provides a more complete representation of this locus. The reference bias issues here motivate the general need
197 to transition from linear references to more comprehensive representations such as graph-based references that can capture and
198 accommodate the range of variation found within a population. The construction of these graphs can also benefit from the
199 read-based phasing made available through technologies such as linked-reads, as demonstrated by the *CFTR* graph we present
200 here.

201 The chr7q35 trypsinogen locus, and *PRSS1* in particular, is well-studied in the context of non-CF pancreatitis. An amino
202 acid substitution in *PRSS1* (p.R122H) is the most common cause of hereditary pancreatitis in Europeans (32). This small
203 change alters a trypsin cleavage site that is important for regulation of trypsin activity through autoinactivation of trypsinogen

204 (33). Similarly, chronic pancreatitis has been shown to be associated with a common T>C variant (rs10273639) near *PRSS1*
205 (26), thought to be associated with altered risk by tagging a promotor SNP (rs4726576) that increases *PRSS1* expression (27).
206 Increased genetic risk of pancreatitis is typically manifested as increased trypsin activity, by the production of more functional
207 trypsin or greater resistance to degradation via autoinactivation (34). Despite the depth of evidence supporting a relationship
208 between *PRSS1* and pancreatitis, there is not the same level of support for *PRSS2*. Transgenic human *PRSS2* in mice has
209 been shown to aggravate pancreatitis (35) and the *PRSS2* variant p.G191R promotes degradation and provides some protection
210 against chronic pancreatitis (36). This supports the hypothesis that *PRSS2* activity may also contribute to pancreatitis risk.
211 The data presented here suggests a more relevant role for *PRSS2* over *PRSS1* in MI. We identify two putatively contributing
212 polymorphisms that independently alter MI risk and *PRSS2* expression: a 20 kb deletion polymorphism and a non-synonymous
213 variant in exon 1 of *PRSS2*. These polymorphisms are in *cis* with risk variants in two independent MI associated SNP clusters,
214 confirming the evidence of allelic heterogeneity seen in our previous MI GWAS (10). The deletion polymorphism is in *cis* with
215 the common SNP rs10273639 found to alter non-CF pancreatitis risk (26). While previous work has suggested a connection
216 between this haplotype and *PRSS1* expression, the results presented in this current work do not implicate *PRSS1* expression as
217 the mechanism. The association between rs10273639 and *PRSS1* expression was initially established using 69 pancreas tissue
218 samples after removal of 3 outliers (33). However, the raw data shows positive correlation between *PRSS1* and *PRSS2* expres-
219 sion ($r^2=0.83$) and suggestive evidence of an association between rs10273639 and *PRSS2* ($p=0.053$, Supplementary Figure 12).
220 While the data was interpreted to support *PRSS1* expression as a causal explanation, it does not exclude a *PRSS2* contribution.
221 Given the extreme transcriptional activity of this locus in pancreatic cells, it would not be surprising that a structural change
222 caused by the large 20kb deletion polymorphism upstream of the *PRSS2* promoter could alter *PRSS2* transcription.
223 A second MI GWAS association signal is in near-perfect linkage with the p.Thr8Ile variant in *PRSS2* (rs62473563). When
224 restricted to a European subset, this variant is also the most significant *PRSS2* pancreas eQTL. Conditioning on the deletion
225 polymorphism, p.Thr8Ile also showed evidence of increased MI risk in the 10XG samples highlighting its independent effect.
226 *PRSS2* trypsin operates extracellularly and therefore must be targeted for the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) during translation.
227 The first 15 amino acids contain the sequence specific for binding of the signal recognition particle (SRP) targeting for the ER.
228 An amino acid change here can alter SRP recognition efficiency which triggers a translation quality control (37). As p.Thr8Ile is
229 a common variant found in healthy individuals, it does not seem consequential enough to cause a disease phenotype in isolation,
230 but perhaps it is sufficient to modify severity of phenotypes when found in combination with disease states such as CF.
231 Non-CF pancreatitis is related to increased trypsin activity, typically attributed to *PRSS1* (26). For MI we see the opposite
232 relationship where more trypsin activity reduces risk, and our data suggests this is due to *PRSS2* expression variation. Although
233 there is conflicting evidence of whether *PRSS1* or *PRSS2* is the relevant gene, in both contexts the haplotype with the common
234 deletion polymorphism is associated with lower levels of trypsinogen. Similarly, the presence of p.Thr8Ile is associated with
235 lower *PRSS2* expression and higher MI risk; the effect on non-CF pancreatitis – if any – has not been reported to our knowledge.
236 As MI is a neonatal intestinal blockage caused by thick and adhesive consistency of the first stool, a simple explanation is that
237 higher trypsin levels in the intestine break down and discourage the formation of this blockage-causing stool, thereby reducing
238 risk. In fact, it is known that the meconium of individuals with CF contain high levels of protein (38) and more active trypsin

239 could provide a protective effect against blockage.

240 Conclusions

241 This study demonstrates the benefit of sequencing technologies that simultaneously informs genotype and phase for a given
242 individual. Construction of phased haplotypes enables greater insight into *cis*-effects at complex loci. Additionally, insights
243 made available through LD structure, genome graphs and reference panel construction are also dependent on phase information.
244 Here we identify a 20 kb deletion polymorphism and *PRSS2* missense variant that alters risk of complex CF traits and is asso-
245 ciated with *PRSS2* gene expression. This could not have been elucidated without the phase information made available through
246 10XG linked-reads. It was therefore discouraging to receive news during this study that 10x Genomics was discontinuing
247 their linked-read sequencing with no intention to make it available through other providers. We hope analogous methods such
248 as Universal Sequencing Technologies TELL-Seq and long-read technology such as PacBio SMRT sequencing and Oxford
249 Nanopore continue to mature to allow the research community continued access to read-based phasing that is cost-effective for
250 population studies. Technologies that capture phase information are paramount to a complete understanding of GWAS loci,
251 contributing to a greater understanding of genetic epidemiology.

252 Methods

253 **Retrieval and phasing of benchmark genomes.** NA12878 benchmarking variant calls were downloaded from Illumina's
254 Platinum Genomes (version 2017-1.0) (21). High confidence variant calls for reference individual HG002 were downloaded
255 from the Genome in a Bottle (GIAB) Consortium (version 3.3.2 and 4.1) . Sequencing datasets for both individuals were
256 collected from multiple platforms including 10XG linked-reads, PacBio Circular Consensus Sequence (CCS) and PacBio Con-
257 tinuous Long Reads (CLR) and Oxford Nanopore. Phased variant calls respect to the reference genome GRCh38 p.12 were
258 either downloaded directly or aligned and phased. Direct links to each dataset are provided in Supplementary Table 1.

259 Long Ranger 2.2.2 (13) was used to align and call variants against GRCh38 for the 10XG NA12878 sample and was down-
260 sampled (-downsample 105) from 75x coverage to approximately 30x coverage. GATK 4.0.0.0 (39) was used inter-
261 nally by Long Ranger to produce variant calls. RTG-Tools vcfeval 3.10.1 (40) was used to generate a VCF with the vari-
262 ants intersecting NA12878 Long Ranger 2.2.2 calls and the Platinum Genomes VCF. PacBio and Nanopore reads were
263 aligned using minimap2 v2.11 (41) with recommended default settings for each respective technology. WhatsHap v0.18
264 (12) was used to phase Platinum Genome variants (whatshap phase) with either PacBio or Nanopore reads at 20x cover-
265 age (-max-coverage 20) for read-selection, which included all variants and excluded read-groups for read selection
266 (-indels -ignore-read-groups) with local realignment on (-reference) GRCh38 p.12. These steps produced
267 a single VCF for each sequencing technology which incorporates phase calls. Visualization of phase blocks was completed
268 using karyoplotR (42).

269 Each callset was then compared to the original Platinum Genomes VCF using whatshap compare to benchmark accuracy,
270 where the error rate was averaged over all chromosomes. The whatshap stats command was used to generate phasing
271 statistics for the four phased sets and GRCh38 p.12 chromosome lengths were provided (-chr-lengths) to calculate the

272 phase block N50. A custom python script was used to assess each individually phased VCF to quantify phasing accuracy
273 of adjacent heterozygous variants. The number of heterozygous variant pairs that were either unphased, phased correctly, or
274 phased incorrectly was counted and benchmarked against the NA12878 platinum genome.

275 A Python script was written to combine phased VCF files generated from different technologies and output a VCF with a
276 weighted consensus of the phase calls. For each adjacent heterozygous variant pair, a consensus call was generated by taking
277 the most common phase configuration observed in the input VCF files. Each input VCF was weighted to allow ties to be broken.
278 This script was used to generate a consensus phase callset for HG002 and the technologies included were weighted as follows:
279 GIAB pedigree calls >Strand-Seq >10XG >PacBio CCS >PacBio CLR >Nanopore. This weighting scheme was based on the
280 accuracy of these technologies. Python scripts can be found at (24)

281 **High molecular weight DNA extraction methods.** Blood samples were extracted from patients with CF across Canada
282 (Supplementary Table 6) and sent for processing to The Hospital for Sick Children in Toronto, Canada. Written informed
283 consent was obtained from all participants, or parents/guardians/substitute decision makers. High molecular weight (HMW)
284 DNA was extracted from fresh or frozen blood aliquots using the MagAttract HMW DNA Kit (Qiagen, Cat# 67563) as per
285 supplier recommendations. Quantitation was determined by Quant-iT PicoGreen dsDNA Assay Kit (Invitrogen, Cat# P11469),
286 as recommended by the supplier. Quality of DNA was then further assessed by electrophoretic migration in 0.4% agarose gel,
287 run at 50 V for 18 hours at 4°C in Tris-acetate buffer at pH 8.0 with comparison to Quick-Load 1 kb Extend DNA ladder
288 (NEB, Cat# N3239S). Unless otherwise stated, only samples indicating that bulk DNA was larger than 50 kb (>80% by visual
289 inspection of agarose gel) were submitted for sequencing.
290 We also investigated three other DNA extraction methods including two Autopure methods (Maxi, 7-10 ml of blood; Midi, 3-4
291 ml of blood) and Puregene (0.3-1 ml of blood, manual extraction) (Qiagen, Cat# 1057048, 949006, 949008, 949016, 949018
292 and 949010). These samples were prepared as recommended by the kit supplier, but typically failed the HMW quality control
293 assessment by the 0.4% agarose gel.

294 **Library preparation and 10x Genomics sequencing.** Approximately 1 µg of genomic DNA was submitted to The Centre
295 for Applied Genomics (TCAG) at the Hospital for Sick Children for genomic library preparation and whole genome sequencing.
296 DNA samples were quantified using Qubit High Sensitivity Assay and sample purity was checked using Nanodrop OD260/280
297 ratio. DNA was run on the Genomic Tape on Tapestation (Agilent, Cat# 5067-5365 and 5067-5366) to check DNA fragment
298 size. 10 ng of DNA was used as input material for library preparation using the 10XG Library Kit (PN 120258 and 120257)
299 following the manufacturer's recommended protocol. In brief, DNA was denatured and mixed with gel beads to form emulsion
300 droplets using the Chromium Controller (PN 110203); emulsion droplets were tagged with barcodes and amplified by PCR;
301 emulsions were broken and DNA captured and cleaned using magnetic beads. DNA was checked on the Bioanalyzer DNA High
302 Sensitivity chip to ensure fragment size, and the DNA proceeds to library preparation. DNA was end-repaired, A-tailed, ligated
303 with Illumina-compatible adapters, and PCR amplified with indexed Chromium i7 primers (PN 120262). Libraries are validated
304 on a Bioanalyzer DNA High Sensitivity chip to check for size and absence of primer dimers and quantified by qPCR using Kapa
305 Library Quantification Illumina/ABI Prism Kit protocol (KAPA Biosystems). Validated libraries were paired-end sequenced on

306 an Illumina HiSeq X platform following Illumina's recommended protocol to generate paired-end reads of 150-bases in length.

307 **Variant calling and phasing metrics for 10XG samples.** Long Ranger 2.2.2 and GRCh38 reference version 2.1.0 were
308 used process 10XG reads. Base calling was performed using the `mkfastq` command. VCF files were generated using the `wgs`
309 command to call and phase variants; GATK 4.0.0.0 was used internally by Long Ranger to call variants. Alignment and phasing
310 statistics were also generated by Long Ranger as output to the `wgs` command. The `stats` command from WhatsHap v0.18
311 was applied to the Long Ranger VCF files to produce additional phasing statistics. When both Long Ranger and WhatsHap
312 reported the same metric, we took the values reported by Long Ranger. For causal CF variants, chart review and manual
313 inspection of the Long Ranger alignment file with IGV was performed to investigate disagreements between clinical records
314 and called variants.

315 **Generating genome graph from haplotypes.** Using a multisample VCF of 449 10XG samples (all sequenced samples
316 available at the time of analysis), variants were filtered to only include 50 bp surrounding exonic CFTR variants (GRCh38
317 chr7:117480087-117668359). Variants were further filtered to only include those with an rsID and of three or more. The intronic
318 poly-T tract polymorphisms were manually called and phased using the 10XG sequencing reads. A graph representation of the
319 haplotypes was generated using vg toolkit 1.33.0 (43) and plotted by Sequence Tube Map (44).

320 **10XG Realignment and Deletion Polymorphism Calling.** 10XG sequencing reads aligned to the *PRSS1-PRSS2* locus
321 (GRCh38 chr7:142500000-143000000) and a region spanning *PRSS3* (GRCh38 chr9:33700000-33900000) were extracted
322 from the Long Ranger BAM file using SAMtools v1.9 (45). The extracted reads were realigned using Long Ranger 2.2.2 to
323 a custom reference containing KI270803.1 and the *PRSS3* locus (GRCh38 chr9:33500000-34100000). The *PRSS3* locus was
324 included because it shares a high base pair identity to the *PRSS1-PRSS2* locus, and we observed some reads aligned to *PRSS3*
325 map better to the chromosome 7 locus.

326 To call the large deletion polymorphism observed on KI270803.1, a custom python script was used to determine the presence of
327 the deletion by comparing the coverage of the deleted region (KI270803.1:771000-790000) to a flanking region of the same size
328 (KI270803.1:760500-770000 and KI270803.1: 791000-800500) on both sides of the deleted region. Deletion calls were also
329 visually validated using IGV. A dummy SNP was added to the VCF to encode the genotype of the deletion. An additional step
330 was required to phase heterozygous deletion calls with respect to the other variants called by Long Ranger. Using haplotype-
331 tagged 10XG linked reads, all heterozygous deletion calls were manually phased using IGV with respect to rs3757377 which
332 lies upstream of the deletion. In the case where the deletion was heterozygous and rs3757377 was homozygous, the deletion
333 was instead phased with respect to rs6666. Phase of the deletion calls in the VCF were updated using a custom script to reflect
334 the phase relationship observed in the linked-reads.

335 Each 10XG VCF was filtered for variants with `PASS` in the `FILTER` column. Using bcftools 1.12 (46) merge, a multi-sample
336 VCF was created by combining all the individual VCFs (`-missing-to-ref`). Variants in the multi-sample VCF called
337 outside of KI270803.1 were removed. Variants with allele counts less than three, multi-allelic variants and indels longer than
338 5 bases (other than the 20 kb deletion which was coded as a SNP) were removed. SHAPEIT version 4.1.2 (22) was used

339 to impute the missing variants and completely phase the multi-sample VCF to enable use as a reference panel (-use-PS
340 0.0001 -sequencing). Linkage disequilibrium blocks were computed from this VCF using ldblockshow version 1.36
341 (47) (-BlockType 2 -SeleVar 1).

342 **Illumina Genotype Arrays and Quality Control.** CGMS data are genotyped on four different Illumina platform: 610Quad,
343 660W, Omni2.5 and Omni5. Genotype calling was performed using GenomeStudio V2011.1. Quality control steps were
344 performed separately for each platform and described in detail in (10). Briefly, PLINK (48) was used for most QC steps while
345 KING (49) identified any cryptic familial relationships among all individuals and PC-AiR (50) calculated PCs. Parents in six
346 parent-offspring pairs, 19 samples clustered with Hapmap3 (51) African and East Asian ethnicity and 10 samples with sex-
347 mismatch were excluded. Significant PCs were selected to be included in the association based on the Tracy-Widom test result
348 using the function `twtable` in POPGEN of Eigensoft (52).

349 For colocalization of MI association with GTEx eQTLs, GWAS summary statistics (10) were reformatted as BED file and lifted
350 to GRCh38 by LiftOver (53) for colocalization analysis against GTEx v8 in LocusFocus (29).

351 **Imputation of Genotype Data Using 10XG.** Genotype array data was generated against GRCh37 and required lifting to
352 alternative contig KI270803.1 before imputation. A two-step lift-over was performed using Picard LiftOverVcf (54); first from
353 GRCh37 to GRCh38 using a chain file provided by UCSC and then from GRCh38 to alternative contig KI270803.1. The
354 chain file from GRCh38 to KI270803.1 was created by downloading a PSL file for alternative haplotypes using the UCSC table
355 browser and converting to a chain file using axtChain. Genotype array calls were organized by array platform into separate
356 multi-sample VCF files and imputed by BEAGLE v5.1 (11) using the 10XG reference panel and default parameters.

357 **Association with MI.** Variants from 2635 pancreatic insufficient individuals with BEAGLE imputation quality DR2 >0.3 were
358 kept for association analysis with MI using imputation dosage of each variant, which was performed using the `geeglm` function
359 from the R `geepack` package (55), with exchangeable correlation structure and binomial family. Sex, array platform and 11
360 PCs were included in the model. For conditional analysis, the dosage of the deletion was added as a covariate. For association
361 testing with the 10XG data, only pancreatic insufficient individuals with available MI status were considered. 10XG variant
362 calls within the range KI270803.1:700000-900000 were regressed against MI status (n=337 samples) using logistic regression.
363 For conditioning on deletion genotype or rs62473563, the respective dosage was included as a covariate in the model. A
364 subsequent regression was conducted where 28 individuals with the highest *CFTR* severity score were excluded.

365 **Re-processing of GTEx RNA-seq data.** A custom reference genome was generated by adding the alternative contig
366 KI270803.1 to a GRCh38 reference FASTA file. To remove sequence redundancy, the region on the chromosome 7 main
367 contig corresponding to KI270803.1 (chr7:142038121-143088503) was masked with the ambiguous base “N”. 172 RNA-
368 seq GTEx samples from pancreas were downloaded and reads were aligned to our custom reference using the scripts from
369 the GTEx pipeline (56). First, GENCODE v26 (57) annotations were retrieved from the GTEx Portal and annotations
370 within chr7:142038121-143088503 were removed. GENCODE v35 annotations for KI270803.1 were downloaded and col-
371 lapsed using `collapse_annotation.py` available from the GTEx pipeline. The two resulting GTF files were combined

372 into a single annotation file. We indexed our custom reference assembly with this annotation file using STAR v2.7.0 (58)
373 (`-sjdbOverhang 75`). For each sample, we aligned RNA-seq reads using the `run_STAR.py` script from the GTEx
374 pipeline. Transcript quantification was performed by `mmquant` (59) (`-l 20`) and read counts were normalized by conversion
375 to transcripts per million (TPM).

376 **Recalculating GTEx Pancreas eQTL Data.** Calculation of eQTLs was performed following the GTEx pipeline (56). GTEx
377 v8 variant calls were filtered to chr7:142038121-143088503 and only included 252 pancreas samples with race labelled as
378 “white”. Using the previously generated chain file, the GTEx multi-sample VCF and annotation BED file was lifted over
379 from GRCh38 to KI270803.1. BEAGLE v5.1 was then used to impute the deletion from the 10XG reference panel into the
380 GTEx VCF. Matching GTEx v8 read counts were normalized between samples using TMM (60). PEER factors were calculated
381 from the normalized gene expression values using `run_PEER.R` from the GTEx pipeline. In addition to 15 PEER factors, the
382 covariates used by GTEx v8 were included (five PCs, sex, PCR status and platform). FastQTL v2.184 (61) performed the eQTL
383 analysis restricted to gene annotations on KI270803.1. For conditioning on deletion genotype or rs62473563, the respective
384 dosage was included as a covariate in the model.

385 Abbreviations

386 CF: cystic fibrosis; CFTR: cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance; WGS: whole genome sequencing; GWAS: genome-
387 wide association studies; MI: meconium ileus; LD: linkage disequilibrium; PacBio: Pacific Biosciences; 10XG: 10x Genomics;
388 CGMS: Canadian CF Gene Modifier Study Consortium; CLR: PacBio continuous long-reads; CCS: PacBio circular consensus
389 sequence; VCF: variant call format; GIAB: Genome in a Bottle; HMW: high molecular weight; TCAG: The Centre for Applied
390 Genomics; GTEx: Genotype-Tissue Expression; ER: endoplasmic reticulum; SRP: signal recognition particle; QC: quality
391 control

392 Ethics approval and consent to participate

393 The Canadian CF Gene Modifier Study (CGMS) was approved by the Research Ethics Board of the Hospital for Sick Children
394 (#0020020214 from 2002-2019 and #1000016662 from 2019-present) and all participating sub-sites. Written informed consent
395 was obtained from all participants or parents/guardians/substitute decision makers prior to inclusion in the study. The CGMS
396 is approved by the Research Ethics Board of the Hospital for Sick Children for the usage of public and external data.

397 Consents for publication

398 Not applicable.

399 Availability of data and materials

400 The datasets generated and analyzed in this paper are publicly available. Data sources for NA12878 and HG002 reads
401 and variant calls are summarized as Supplementary Table 1. Data from the CGMS analyzed for MI association including

402 the genotype data are available from Canadian CF registry at <https://www.cysticfibrosis.ca/our-programs/cf-registry/requesting-canadian-cf-registry-data>. GTEx RNA-seq data and GTEx v8 variant calls were
403 downloaded from dbGaP (accession number phs000424.v8.p) and the GTEx Portal <https://www.gtexportal.org/home/datasets/>, respectively.
404
405

406 **Code availability**

407 All code and analyses steps implemented for phasing comparison with multiple sequencing techniques are available at <https://github.com/strug-hub/cohort-phasing>. Recalculation of GTEx eQTLs was performed following the GTEx
408 pipeline: <https://github.com/broadinstitute/gtex-pipeline>.
409

410 **Competing interests**

411 DMC received an honorarium for teaching module development for Vertex Pharmaceuticals. NM is doing contract research
412 trials for Vertex Pharmaceuticals and Abbvie. ALS has received speaking fees for educational programs sponsored by Vertex
413 Pharmaceuticals. BSQ has received speaker fees from Vertex Pharmaceuticals and has served as site PI for several Vertex-
414 sponsored clinical trials. WML is a study investigator for Vertex Pharmaceuticals. ET and FR act as consultants for Vertex
415 Pharmaceuticals. MS participated in Vertex clinical trials and received payment for education modules. SM, AC, JG, FL, BT,
416 WWLS, JW, ZW, RVP, KK, AH, NP, JA, CW, GCM, SB, DA, EB, CB, MC, AP, MP, RVW, DH, MJS, ET, PW, LS, FR, and
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