

Computational framework for targeted high-coverage sequencing based

NIPT

Hindrek Teder^{1,2*}, Priit Paluoja^{1,3}, Andres Salumets^{1,2,4,5}, Kaarel Krjutškov^{1,6}, Priit Palta^{7,8}

¹ Competence Centre on Health Technologies, Tartu, Estonia

² Institute of Biomedicine and Translational Medicine, Department of Biomedicine, University of Tartu, Tartu, Estonia

³ Institute of Computer Science, University of Tartu, Tartu, Estonia

⁴ Institute of Clinical Medicine, Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, University of Tartu, Tartu, Estonia

⁵ Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, University of Helsinki and Helsinki University Hospital, Helsinki, Finland

⁶ Research Program of Molecular Neurology, Research Programs Unit, University of Helsinki and Folkhälsan Institute of Genetics, Helsinki, Finland

⁷ Estonian Genome Center, University of Tartu, Tartu, Estonia

⁸ Institute for Molecular Medicine Finland (FIMM), University of Helsinki, Helsinki, Finland

* Corresponding author

E-mail: hindrek.teder@gmail.com

Abstract

Non-invasive prenatal testing (NIPT) enables accurate detection of fetal chromosomal trisomies. The majority of existing computational methods for sequencing-based NIPT analyses rely on low-coverage whole-genome sequencing (WGS) data and are not applicable for targeted high-coverage sequencing data from cell-free DNA samples.

Here, we present a novel computational framework for a targeted high-coverage sequencing-based NIPT analysis. The developed methods use a hidden Markov model (HMM)-based approach in conjunction with supplemental machine learning methods, such as decision tree (DT) and support vector machine (SVM), to detect fetal trisomy and parental origin of additional fetal chromosomes. These methods were tested with simulated datasets covering a wide range of biologically relevant scenarios with various chromosomal quantities, parental origins of extra chromosomes, fetal DNA fractions and sequencing read depths. Consequently, we determined the functional feasibility and limitations of each proposed approach and demonstrated that read count-based HMM achieved the best overall classification accuracy of 0.89 for detecting fetal euploidies and trisomies. Furthermore, we show that by using the DT and SVM methods on the HMM state classification results, it was possible to increase the final trisomy classification accuracy to 0.98 and 0.99, respectively.

We demonstrated that read count and allelic ratio-based models can achieve a high accuracy (up to 0.98) for detecting fetal trisomy even if the fetal fraction is as low as 2%. Currently existing methods require at least 4% fetal fraction, which can be an issue in the case of early gestational age (<10 weeks) or elevated maternal body mass index (>35 kg/m²). More accurate detection can be achieved at higher sequencing depth using HMM in conjunction with supplemental methods, which significantly improve the trisomy detection especially in

47 borderline scenarios (e.g., very low fetal fraction) and can enable to perform NIPT even
48 earlier than 10 weeks of pregnancy.
49

Introduction

It is well known that chromosomal aneuploidies are the leading cause of spontaneous miscarriages and congenital disorders in humans (1,2). At least 10% of all clinically diagnosed pregnancies are trisomic or monosomic. It is assumed that many aneuploid conceptions are eliminated during the earliest stages of pregnancy (3). The most common aneuploidies are trisomies, which are characterized by the presence of an additional chromosome and caused by segregation errors, occurring during meiotic divisions. In case of trisomy of chromosome 21, approximately 90% are of maternal origin and 73% occur during first meiotic division (4–9). Despite routinely performed prenatal screenings in most developed countries, more than 0.1% of all live births are trisomic and the corresponding risk continues to rise with increasing maternal age (10).

Advanced non-invasive methods for prenatal screening using cell-free DNA (cfDNA) have considerably improved the detection of fetal aneuploidies (11). The most commonly used technique, whole-genome sequencing (WGS)-based non-invasive prenatal testing (NIPT) enables inference of the ploidy of each chromosome by counting the specifically mapped sequencing reads to each chromosome (12,13). Although NIPT offers increased accuracy compared to the first trimester serum screening and ultrasound, it is usually not a part of conventional prenatal screenings due to its high cost.

Alternative NIPT techniques have the potential to reduce high-cost limitations by using a targeted sequencing approach (14–16). Instead of low coverage WGS, only certain genomic regions are analyzed at high coverage. Targeting involves the use of hybridization-based capture or multiplex PCR amplification to enrich the genomic regions of interest (14,15). Compared to the WGS-based methods, targeted approaches require less cfDNA and enable to

study more samples in parallel, making it a cost-efficient alternative. A few already available targeted solutions rely on sequencing single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). In these cases, allelic information from sequencing read counts can be used to calculate allelic ratios obtained from heterozygous SNPs and also serve as an extra source of information for inferring fetal aneuploidies (17). For example, NATUS software, developed by Natera, Inc., considers parental genotypes and crossover frequency data to calculate the expected allele distributions for SNPs and possible fetal genotypes based on recombination sites in the parental chromosomes (18). The algorithm compares predicted allelic distributions with measured allelic distributions by employing a Bayesian-based maximum likelihood approach to determine the relative likelihood of chromosomal copy number hypothesis. The likelihoods of each sub-hypothesis are summarized and the hypothesis with the maximum likelihood is the chromosome copy number in the fetal DNA fraction (FF). Although feasible, this method is proprietary and not available to the community. An alternative approach is to model a chromosome as hidden Markov model (HMM) of sequential loci and determine the most likely chromosomal copy number status at each locus and consequently the overall chromosomal ploidy. Kermany and colleagues used HMM to detect fetal trisomy using high-density SNP markers from a trisomic individual and one parent (19), and similar HMM-based approaches have been previously used to detect both full and sub-chromosomal aneuploidies using binned read counts (20,21).

In the current study, we present a novel statistical framework for detecting fetal trisomy and possibly the parental origin of the trisomy from targeted high-coverage sequencing data of pregnant women's cfDNA. The framework incorporates three different HMMs that utilize read counts of targeted loci, allelic ratios of targeted SNPs, or both in combination with a decision tree (DT) or support vector machine (SVM)-based trisomy detection, without

100 requiring any prior knowledge of parental genotypes. We provide a comprehensive
 101 evaluation of the performance and limitations of these methods on simulated datasets
 102 generated for a wide range of biologically and technically relevant scenarios. These results
 103 can be used as guidelines for appropriate study design and feasibility analysis for future NIPT
 104 studies using targeted sequencing approach.
 105

Materials and Methods

Sequencing data simulation

A total of 1,800 datasets were generated with different parameters to mimic the read count data obtained from targeted sequencing of 10,000 pregnant women's cfDNA samples in various conditions. Simulated datasets varied in the context of (1) fetal condition – euploidy, maternally or paternally originated trisomy characteristic to meiosis I segregation failure; (2) sequencing read depth (RD) – in the range of 500 to 15,000 at increments of 500; and (3) FF – in the range of 1 to 20% at increments of 1%. Each dataset incorporated 10,000 individual chromosome sets, each chromosome incorporated 1,000 SNPs.

As the cfDNA of a pregnant woman contains both maternal and fetal DNA, we started the simulation with the formation of parental chromosomes. For both parents, we generated two sets of 1,000 SNPs representing a pair of homologous chromosomes. Each SNP was biallelic and both alleles had an equal likelihood of occurrence ($MAF = 0.5$). Before creating a fetal set of chromosomes, parental homologous chromosomes underwent a chromosomal crossover by exchanging a random number of homologous alleles. The resulting recombined chromosomes were used to form a set of fetal chromosomes according to the fetal conditions.

In addition, we generated allele counts for each SNP according to the mean sequencing coverage and FF of the dataset. One might assume that all reads in a given region would follow a Poisson distribution with a mean proportional to the copy number of the region. However, due to the various technical biases, the process is over-dispersed and the simulation distribution followed the negative binomial distribution with a variance-to-mean ratio of 3 (22).

Allelic ratio calculation

Based on the simulated data, we calculated the allelic ratio for every “informative” SNP. Only SNPs which were heterozygous in mother and/or fetus were considered as informative. If both alleles have equal likelihood of occurrence (MAF = 0.5), on average 75% of SNPs were informative in case of maternally originated trisomy and the proportion of informative SNPs was even higher in the case of paternally originated trisomy as both paternal alleles contributed to heterozygosity independently. The allelic ratio was defined as the number of sequencing reads carrying a major allele for a certain variant divided by the number of sequencing reads carrying a minor allele.

Fetal fraction calculation

FF showed the proportion of fetal cfDNA in total cfDNA. We estimated the FF of a cfDNA sample using the allelic counts of the sample’s reference chromosome. First, we filtered the informative SNPs on the reference chromosome, where the mother was homozygous and the fetus was heterozygous (allelic ratio > 2.5). In this subset, the major allele count was the sum of maternal allele counts and 1/2 of the fetal allele count. The minor allele count was proportional to 1/2 of the fetal allele count. The FF was calculated as the median value of the ratios between $2 \times$ minor allele counts and the sum of major and minor allele counts.

The FF of a sample was calculated using the following formula:

$$FF = \text{median}\left(\frac{2 \times \min_i}{\max_i + \min_i}\right),$$

where FF denotes the fetal fraction, \max_i – the major allele count of SNP i , and \min_i – the minor allele count of SNP i . The median value over all informative SNPs was considered as estimated FF of a sample, which showed high similarity to actual FF (Fig in S2 Fig).

Hidden Markov model

For the detection of fetal trisomy and the parental origin of the trisomy, we implemented HMM in Python (version 3.6.2) using the hmmlearn (version 0.2.0) package. First, we created three distinct models based on the observed measurements of sequential SNPs – (1) read counts (Fig A in S1 Fig), (2) allelic ratios (Fig B in S1 Fig), and (3) the combination of both read counts and allelic ratios (Fig B in S1 Fig). Second, we estimated the parameters for the models empirically using a simulated training dataset. Finally, we used the Viterbi algorithm to find the most likely underlying fetal condition behind each SNP.

Read count model

The read count (RC) model is a 2-state HMM which enables detection of underlying fetal conditions of sequential SNPs using read counts (Fig A in S1 Fig). The possible outcome states of the model are “euploidy” and “trisomy”. The RC model is based on the hypothesis that the mean coverage of a given region is proportional to the copy number of the region. In the case of fetal trisomy, there is an extra chromosome and therefore we would expect to see a 1/3 increase in fetal read counts compared to the euploid chromosome.

Allelic ratio and combined models

The allelic ratio (AR) model and the combined model of read count and allelic ratio (RCAR) are both 7-state HMMs, which enable detection of underlying fetal conditions and the parental origin of SNPs (Fig B in S1 Fig). The AR model uses allelic ratios of sequential informative SNPs as inputs. The RCAR model incorporates sequential read counts and allelic ratios as inputs. Both models classify loci into seven categories by the allelic pattern. The allelic pattern depends on the maternal and fetal genotypes and the fetal condition (Table in S6 Table). The possible outcome states of the model are “euploidy”, “trisomy”, and “paternal

trisomy”. Although the “trisomy” condition includes loci typical to both maternally and paternally originated trisomy, here we associated “trisomy” with maternally originated trisomy to avoid over-estimation of paternally originated trisomy.

Parameter estimation

In all three HMMs, no prior distribution of the initial state was assumed. Each possible state had an equal likelihood of occurrence. The HMM transition probability was set to 10 times more likely to stay in the same state than to switch between states with different fetal conditions. The emission probabilities were obtained using the training datasets. For each test dataset, we simulated a training dataset of 100 cfDNA samples with corresponding FF and sequencing coverage. In our models, the emission probabilities were approximated to a Gaussian distribution. The distribution parameters were obtained for each state by calculating the mean and variance of the read counts and allelic ratios of the training dataset.

Fetal condition estimation

The chromosomal condition of a cfDNA sample was determined by the most frequently occurring underlying condition of targeted loci using the RC, AR, and RCAR models. If no condition was prevalent, the cfDNA sample was marked as unclassified.

To improve the accuracy, especially in the case of paternally originated trisomy, we applied the DT and the SVM on HMM-classified state proportions of the targeted loci. Both methods were implemented in Python (version 3.5.5) using scikit-learn (version 0.19.1). The DT was used with default parameters, except the maximum depth of the tree was set to three and the random state generator to 123. The SVM also used default parameters and the random state generator was set to 123. As the DT and SVM are supervised learning models, we used the

205 training dataset to fit the models. Eventually, each cfDNA sample was classified using both
206 models by the following features – RD, FF and HMM state frequencies. The possible
207 classification output values were identical to HMM.

208

Results and Discussion

We developed three novel HMM-based statistical methods to detect fetal chromosomal trisomies from targeted sequencing assays. In addition to a naïve HMM-based frequentist approach for trisomy detection, we applied two machine learning (ML) methods to infer fetal trisomy. While considering a wide range of biologically and technically motivated conditions, we simulated datasets mimicking cfDNA sequencing assays and used these data to perform a comprehensive evaluation of our proposed computational methods (Fig 1).

Novel HMM-based methods for trisomy detection

By considering the sequencing read counts (RC) of targeted loci, allelic ratios (AR) of targeted SNPs, or both (RCAR), the developed HMM models were used to classify consecutive target loci on a studied chromosome into pre-defined underlying states. In the 2-state RC model, these unique states represented fetal euploidy and trisomy (Fig A in S1 Fig). In the case of the 7-state AR and RCAR models, these different states can occur with fetal euploidy or maternally/paternally originated trisomy (Fig B in S1 Fig). Consequently, the proportion of loci classified into these distinct states can be used to estimate the fetal condition of each studied chromosome (see “Fetal condition estimation” in Methods). And although such naïve classification works relatively well in case of high sequencing read depth (RD) and fetal fraction (FF) scenarios, the proportion of loci classified into these underlying states can be similar and thus difficult to distinguish unambiguously in the case of low RD and FF (Fig 2).

Therefore, the precise calculation of FF is also crucial for controlling the precision and uncertainty of fetal trisomy detection and sequencing-based NIPT. Notably, in the case of the RC model and autosomal chromosomes there is no information that could be used to infer the

FF of the studied sample so that optimal corresponding model parameters can be used. One possible solution to overcome this challenge is to use the expected median FF of 10% (23). In the case of the AR and RCAR models, we used informative polymorphic SNPs with heterozygous alleles in mother and/or fetus to infer the sample-specific FF (Fig in S2 Fig), similarly to previous studies (24–26). Additionally, in the case of the AR and RCAR models, allelic count data at informative SNPs can be used to calculate allelic ratios, distinguishing maternally and paternally originated trisomies (see “Allelic ratio calculation” in Methods) according to their distinct allelic patterns (Table in S6 Table). On the other hand, these models only consider informative targeted SNPs that are polymorphic in a given sample, which reduces the total number of analyzed SNPs least by 25% and therefore somewhat decreases the detection accuracy (data not shown).

Supplemental methods for trisomy detection

Since in some possible scenarios, such as paternally originated trisomy, the previously described HMM-based models did not unambiguously infer the underlying fetal condition (Fig 2), we developed two additional “supplemental” machine learning (ML)-based methods to improve the sample classification accuracy. The supplemental methods, which take HMM-classified state proportions as input, significantly improved the sample classification especially when the proportion of loci inferred into one or the other HMM state was not an obvious majority and where the frequentist approach, therefore, did not work (Table 1 and 2).

All three HMMs (RC, AR, and RCAR) independently and conjointly with the supplemental methods (DT and SVM) were tested on the same collection of simulated cfDNA datasets representing all combinations of different fetal chromosomal conditions (euploidy, maternally

and paternally originated trisomy) and FFs (1-20%) sequenced with various RDs (500-15,000 reads), which is feasible for targeted sequencing assays.

Read count (RC) model

The RC model enables detection of fetal euploidy and trisomy by using sequencing read counts in successive (targeted) regions along the chromosome of interest. As read count data alone cannot be used to infer the FF of a studied sample, we assumed FF as 10% in this testing model. Nevertheless, the HMM method showed excellent accuracy in detecting fetal euploidy (Fig 3). On the other hand, this method was ineffective at detecting fetal trisomy if the FF was lower than 6% and increasing the RD induced only a minor increase in detection accuracy (Table 1). It is also important to note that since there is no direct method to distinguish between paternally and maternally inherited alleles, the read count model does not enable determination of the parental origin of the trisomy. Since it uses only sequencing read count information to detect fetal trisomies, it is relatively straightforward to integrate this model with most existing sequencing-based solutions.

In general, applying supplemental methods significantly improved the RC model-based classification at lower FFs (Table 2). The DT method allowed accurate detection of fetal euploidy and trisomy even if the FF was as low as 3%; the SVM method successfully lowered that limit even further, allowing accurate detection of fetal trisomies at FF 2%, with a small trade-off in detecting aneuploid chromosomes (Fig 3). Unexpectedly, DT trisomy detection improved at a lower read coverage. This can be explained by the strictly set maximum depth ($max_depth = 3$) of the DT, which prevented overfitting of the model; on the other hand, this method was not suitable for classifying a wide range of FF values. This

shortcoming is due to the fixed FF parameter rather than the properties of the DT (Fig 3, Fig in S3 Fig).

Allelic ratio (AR) model

The AR model uses counts of sequencing reads containing one or the other allele at informative SNP loci along the chromosome of interest to estimate if the studied sample has euploid, maternally or paternally originated trisomy to infer the FF of the corresponding sample. The AR model showed excellent accuracy detecting fetal euploidy even at an FF of 1% and an RD of 500 and reasonable accuracy to detect maternally originated trisomy if FF was $\geq 6\%$ and RD was higher than 10,000 (Fig 4). In contrast to the DT and the SVM methods, it was unable to detect paternally originated trisomy in a given range of FF and RD (Fig in S4 Fig).

Compared to the read count data, allelic ratio information was used to estimate the FF of a sample using specific allelic patterns (Table in S6 Table). In addition, allelic ratio data were used to separate maternally and paternally originated trisomies. As for the HMM, the inability to detect paternally originated trisomy can be explained by the overlapping emission distributions of the allelic ratios of maternally and paternally originated trisomies.

In general, the supplementary methods increased the detection accuracy for the AR model significantly (Table 2), especially in the case of paternally originated trisomy (Table 1, Fig in S4 Fig). In the case of maternally originated trisomy, all three methods had similar characteristics as the detection accuracy was positively correlated with both sequencing RD and FF (Fig 4). The read count had a stronger impact on the AR model, whereas the RC model was mostly affected by FF. The DT had a slight fetal trisomy detection improvement

compared to the HMM, and the SVM in turn had a slight advantage over the DT. DT methods also showed excellent accuracy in detecting fetal euploidy. Unlike the other methods, the SVM showed slightly better maternally originated trisomy detection accuracy and consistently good results if the read coverage was low ($RD = 500$); on the other hand, the SVM had poor results detecting fetal euploidy if the read coverage was low ($RD = 500$). The SVM failure for euploidy and excellent results for maternally originated trisomy at low read coverage contradicted each other, which was a sign of maternally originated trisomy over-estimation. In the case of paternally originated trisomy, the DT and SVM had excellent detection accuracy (Table 1).

Combined (RCAR) model

Finally, we studied the RCAR model, which incorporates both read count and allelic ratio information to predict fetal euploidy or trisomy. Furthermore, it utilizes informative SNPs, which enables separation of maternally and paternally originated trisomy by allelic patterns (Table in S6 Table) and estimated FF. The RCAR model showed excellent results in detecting fetal euploidy (Fig in S5 Fig). Compared to the HMM, the supplemental methods were inefficient to detect fetal euploidy when the FF and read coverage were low ($RD \leq 1,500$; $FF \leq 3\%$). All three methods showed a positive correlation between detection accuracy, RD and FF, while the HMM detection accuracy was approximately twice as worse compared to the supplemental methods. In case of maternally originated trisomy, the DT and the SVM had better detection accuracy than HMM (Fig 4). In the case of paternally originated trisomy, the DT had excellent detection accuracy followed closely by the SVM (Table 1). However, the HMM was unable to detect paternally originated trisomy in any give range of FF and read coverage (Fig in S5 Fig).

332 The RCAR model showed significantly higher accuracy in conjunction with supplemental
 333 methods (Table 2). Compared to the HMM, the supplementary methods increased the
 334 detection accuracy in the case of fetal trisomies (Fig in S5 Fig). As for the HMM, the
 335 inability to detect paternally originated trisomy can be explained by the overlapping emission
 336 distributions (allelic ratios) of maternally and paternally originated trisomy. Similarly to the
 337 AR model, the overall accuracy of the RCAR model was affected by both FF and sequencing
 338 RD, whereas the RC model was mostly affected by FF (Fig in S5 Fig, Fig 3).

339

Conclusions

Targeted sequencing approaches have the potential to reduce the price of NIPT and improve the quality of healthcare. In the current study, we present HMM-based models in conjunction with supplemental methods (DT and SVM), which enabled the detection of fetal trisomy and the parental origin of an extra chromosome using targeted sequencing-based prenatal (NIPT) assays. The developed methods were tested on simulated datasets generated for a wide range of biologically and technically motivated scenarios to determine the functional feasibility and limitations of each approach.

We determined that regardless of the computational method used, the most challenging factor in fetal trisomy detection is low FF. In our study, the RC model in conjunction with ML-based supplemental methods can detect fetal trisomy at 2% FF, which enables earlier testing compared to the current NIPT assays. Although the RC model can be easily incorporated into currently available targeted workflows, the RCAR model is the recommended choice for its high accuracy and ability to determine the parental origin of the trisomy and to accurately estimate the studied sample FF.

357 **Acknowledgments**

358 We would like to acknowledge Jüri Lember and Mart Kals for their insights and useful
 359 comments. This work was supported by the Estonian Ministry of Education and Research
 360 (grant no IUT34-16) and by the Enterprise Estonia (grant no EU48695). Computing was
 361 performed at the High Performance Computing Centre of the University of Tartu.

362

References

1. Jia CW, Wang L, Lan YL, Song R, Zhou LY, Yu L, et al. Aneuploidy in early miscarriage and its related factors. *Chin Med J (Engl)*. 2015;128(20):2772–6.
2. Hassold T, Hunt P. To err (meiotically) is human: The genesis of human aneuploidy. *Nat Rev Genet*. 2001 Apr 1;2(4):280–91.
3. Nagaoka SI, Hassold TJ, Hunt PA. Human aneuploidy: Mechanisms and new insights into an age-old problem. *Nat Rev Genet*. 2012 Jul;13(7):493–504.
4. Antonarakis SE. Parental Origin of the Extra Chromosome in Trisomy 21 as Indicated by Analysis of DNA Polymorphisms. *N Engl J Med* [Internet]. 1991 Mar 28 [cited 2018 Nov 20];324(13):872–6. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1825697>
5. Antonarakis SE, Petersen MB, McInnis MG, Adelsberger PA, Schinzel AA, Binkert F, et al. The meiotic stage of nondisjunction in trisomy 21: determination by using DNA polymorphisms. *Am J Hum Genet* [Internet]. 1992 Mar [cited 2018 Nov 20];50(3):544–50. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1347192>
6. Yoon PW, Freeman SB, Sherman SL, Taft LF, Gu Y, Pettay D, et al. Advanced maternal age and the risk of Down syndrome characterized by the meiotic stage of chromosomal error: a population-based study. *Am J Hum Genet* [Internet]. 1996 Mar [cited 2018 Nov 20];58(3):628–33. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8644722>
7. Hassold T, Sherman S. Down syndrome: genetic recombination and the origin of the extra chromosome 21. *Clin Genet* [Internet]. 2000 Feb [cited 2018 Nov 20];57(2):95–100. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10735628>
8. Freeman SB, Allen EG, Oxford-Wright CL, Tinker SW, Druschel C, Hobbs CA, et al. The National down Syndrome Project: Design and Implementation. *Public Health Rep*

- [Internet]. 2007 Jan 3 [cited 2018 Nov 20];122(1):62–72. Available from:
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17236610>
9. GHOSH S, BHAUMIK P, GHOSH P, DEY SK. Chromosome 21 non-disjunction and Down syndrome birth in an Indian cohort: analysis of incidence and aetiology from family linkage data. *Genet Res (Camb)* [Internet]. 2010 Jun 29 [cited 2018 Nov 20];92(03):189–97. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20667163>
10. Loane M, Morris JK, Addor MC, Arriola L, Budd J, Doray B, et al. Twenty-year trends in the prevalence of Down syndrome and other trisomies in Europe: Impact of maternal age and prenatal screening. *Eur J Hum Genet* [Internet]. 2013;21(1):27–33. Available from: <http://www.nature.com/doi/10.1038/ejhg.2012.94>
11. Gil MM, Quezada MS, Revello R, Akolekar R, Nicolaides KH, et al. Analysis of cell-free DNA in maternal blood in screening for fetal aneuploidies: updated meta-analysis. *Ultrasound Obs Gynecol*. 2015 Mar;45(3):249–66.
12. Fan HC, Blumenfeld YJ, Chitkara U, Hudgins L, Quake SR. Noninvasive diagnosis of fetal aneuploidy by shotgun sequencing DNA from maternal blood. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* [Internet]. 2008 Oct 21 [cited 2016 May 24];105(42):16266–71. Available from: <http://www.pnas.org/cgi/doi/10.1073/pnas.0808319105>
13. Sauk M, Žilina O, Kurg A, Ustav E-L, Peters M, Paluoja P, et al. NIPTmer: rapid k-mer-based software package for detection of fetal aneuploidies. *Sci Rep* [Internet]. 2018 Dec 4 [cited 2018 May 24];8(1):5616. Available from: <http://www.nature.com/articles/s41598-018-23589-8>
14. Liao GJW, Lun FMF, Zheng YWL, Chan KCA, Leung TY, Lau TK, et al. Targeted massively parallel sequencing of maternal plasma DNA permits efficient and unbiased detection of fetal alleles. *Clin Chem* [Internet]. 2011 Jan 1 [cited 2016 May 25];57(1):92–101. Available from:

- 413 <http://www.clinchem.org/cgi/doi/10.1373/clinchem.2010.154336>
- 414 15. Zimmermann B, Hill M, Gemelos G, Demko Z, Banjevic M, Baner J, et al.
415 Noninvasive prenatal aneuploidy testing of chromosomes 13, 18, 21, X, and Y, using
416 targeted sequencing of polymorphic loci. *Prenat Diagn* [Internet]. 2012 Dec [cited
417 2016 May 25];32(13):1233–41. Available from:
418 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23108718>
- 419 16. Teder H, Koel M, Paluoja P, Jatsenko T, Rekker K, Laisk-Podar T, et al. TAC-seq:
420 targeted DNA and RNA sequencing for precise biomarker molecule counting. *bioRxiv*
421 [Internet]. 2018 Jan 1; Available from:
422 <http://biorxiv.org/content/early/2018/04/05/295253.abstract>
- 423 17. Liao GJW, Chan KCA, Jiang P, Sun H, Leung TY, Chiu RWK, et al. Noninvasive
424 prenatal diagnosis of fetal trisomy 21 by allelic ratio analysis using targeted massively
425 parallel sequencing of maternal plasma DNA. *PLoS One* [Internet]. 2012 [cited 2016
426 Apr 27];7(5):e38154. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22666469>
- 427 18. Sherry ST. dbSNP: the NCBI database of genetic variation. *Nucleic Acids Res*
428 [Internet]. 2001 Jan 1 [cited 2017 Nov 29];29(1):308–11. Available from:
429 <https://academic.oup.com/nar/article-lookup/doi/10.1093/nar/29.1.308>
- 430 19. Kermany AR, Segurel L, Oliver TR, Przeworski M. TroX: a new method to learn
431 about the genesis of aneuploidy from trisomic products of conception. *Bioinformatics*
432 [Internet]. 2014 Jul 15 [cited 2018 Jun 18];30(14):2035–42. Available from:
433 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24659032>
- 434 20. Gole J, Mullen T, Celia G, Wagner C, Kaplan B, Katz-Jaffe M, et al. Analytical
435 validation of a novel next-generation sequencing based preimplantation genetic
436 screening technology. *Fertil Steril* [Internet]. 2016 Feb 1 [cited 2018 Jun
437 18];105(2):e25. Available from:

- 438 <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0015028215022542>
- 439 21. Umbarger MA, Germain K, Gore A, Breton B, Walters-Sen LC, Mullen T, et al.
440 Accurate detection of segmental aneuploidy in preimplantation genetic screening using
441 targeted next-generation DNA sequencing. Fertil Steril [Internet]. 2016 Sep 1 [cited
442 2018 Jun 18];106(3):e152. Available from:
443 <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0015028216618629>
- 444 22. Miller CA, Hampton O, Coarfa C, Milosavljevic A. ReadDepth: A parallel R package
445 for detecting copy number alterations from short sequencing reads. PLoS One
446 [Internet]. 2011 [cited 2017 Apr 24];6(1). Available from:
447 <http://code.google.com/p/readdepth/>.
- 448 23. Ashoor G, Syngelaki A, Poon LCY, Rezende JC, Nicolaides KH. Fetal fraction in
449 maternal plasma cell-free DNA at 11-13 weeks' gestation: Relation to maternal and
450 fetal characteristics. Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol [Internet]. 2013 Jan [cited 2016 Apr
451 13];41(1):26–32. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23108725>
- 452 24. Jiang P, Chan KCA, Liao GJW, Zheng YWL, Leung TY, Chiu RWK, et al.
453 FetalQuant: Deducing fractional fetal DNA concentration from massively parallel
454 sequencing of DNA in maternal plasma. Bioinformatics. 2012;28(22):2883–90.
- 455 25. Kim SK, Hannum G, Geis J, Tynan J, Hogg G, Zhao C, et al. Determination of fetal
456 DNA fraction from the plasma of pregnant women using sequence read counts. Prenat
457 Diagn. 2015;35(8):810–5.
- 458 26. Kang X, Xia J, Wang Y, Xu H, Jiang H, Xie W, et al. An advanced model to precisely
459 estimate the cell-free fetal DNA concentration in maternal plasma. PLoS One
460 [Internet]. 2016;11(9):e0161928. Available from:
461 <http://dx.plos.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0161928>
- 462

Supporting information captions

S1 Fig. Architecture of 2- and 7-state hidden Markov models (HMMs). (A) The 2-state HMM classified sequential single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) into 2 underlying states, which represent fetal euploidy (white) and trisomy (grey), using read counts. (B) The 7-state HMM classified SNPs into 7 underlying states, which represent fetal euploidy (white), maternally (white-grey) and paternally originated trisomy (grey-white), using allelic ratios with or without read counts.

S2 Fig. Difference between estimated and simulated fetal fraction (FF). The simulated FF was subtracted from the estimated FF for each simulated cell-free DNA sample to determine the FF difference (y-axis). The differences were grouped as boxplots by sequencing read depth (x-axis). The results show a positive correlation between sequencing read depth and FF estimation accuracy.

S3 Fig. Results of the read count model. The simulated datasets of fetal euploidy and trisomy (vertical panels) were classified by three methods – hidden Markov model (HMM), decision tree (DT) and support vector machine (SVM) (horizontal panels). Each panel includes cells with different fetal DNA fractions (x-axis) and sequencing read coverages (y-axis). Each cell includes 10,000 cell-free DNA samples and the color represents the model classification accuracy.

S4 Fig. Results of the allelic ratio model. The simulated datasets of fetal euploidy, maternally and paternally trisomy (vertical panels) were classified by three methods – hidden Markov model (HMM), decision tree (DT) and support vector machine (SVM) (horizontal panels). Each panel includes cells with different fetal DNA fractions (x-axis) and sequencing

read coverages (y-axis). Each cell includes 10,000 cell-free DNA samples and the color represents the model classification accuracy.

S5 Fig. Results of the combined model. The simulated datasets of fetal euploidy, maternally and paternally trisomy (vertical panels) were classified by three methods – hidden Markov model (HMM), decision tree (DT) and support vector machine (SVM) (horizontal panels). Each panel includes cells with different fetal DNA fractions (x-axis) and sequencing read coverages (y-axis). Each cell includes 10,000 cell-free DNA samples and the color represents the model classification accuracy.

S6 Table. Allelic patterns. Allelic ratio depends on fetal condition and maternal and fetal genotype.

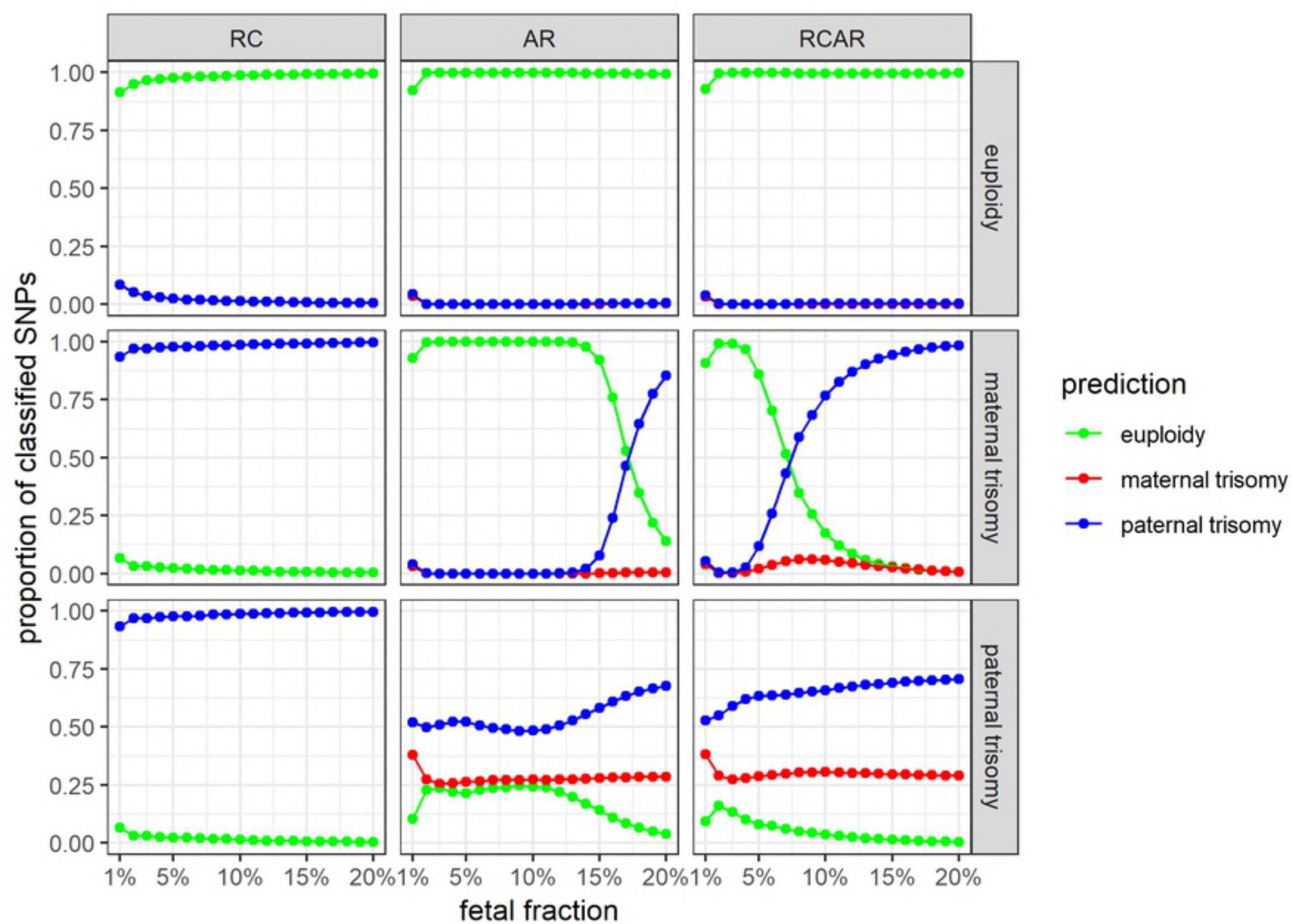


Fig2

sequencing read depth

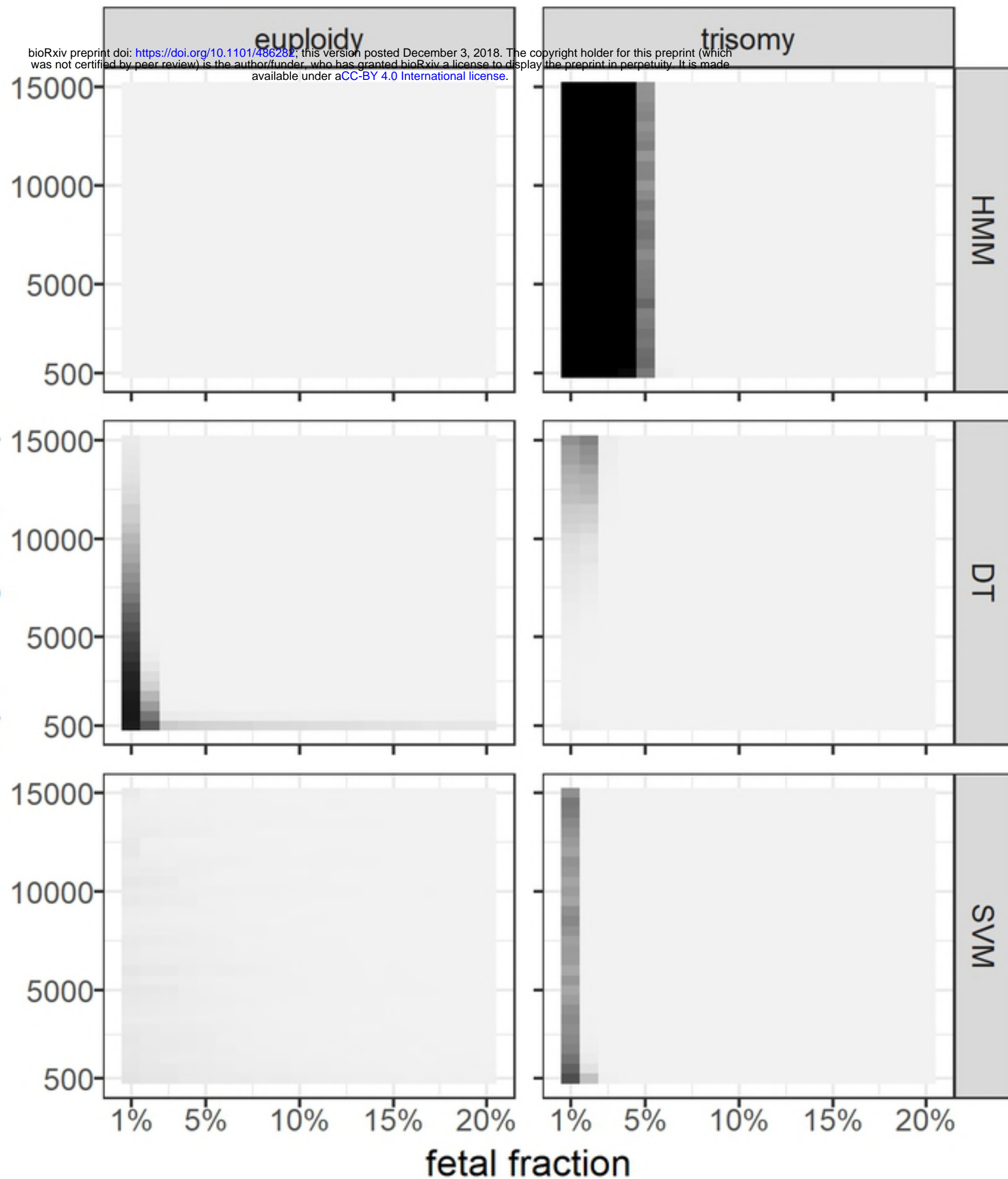


Fig3

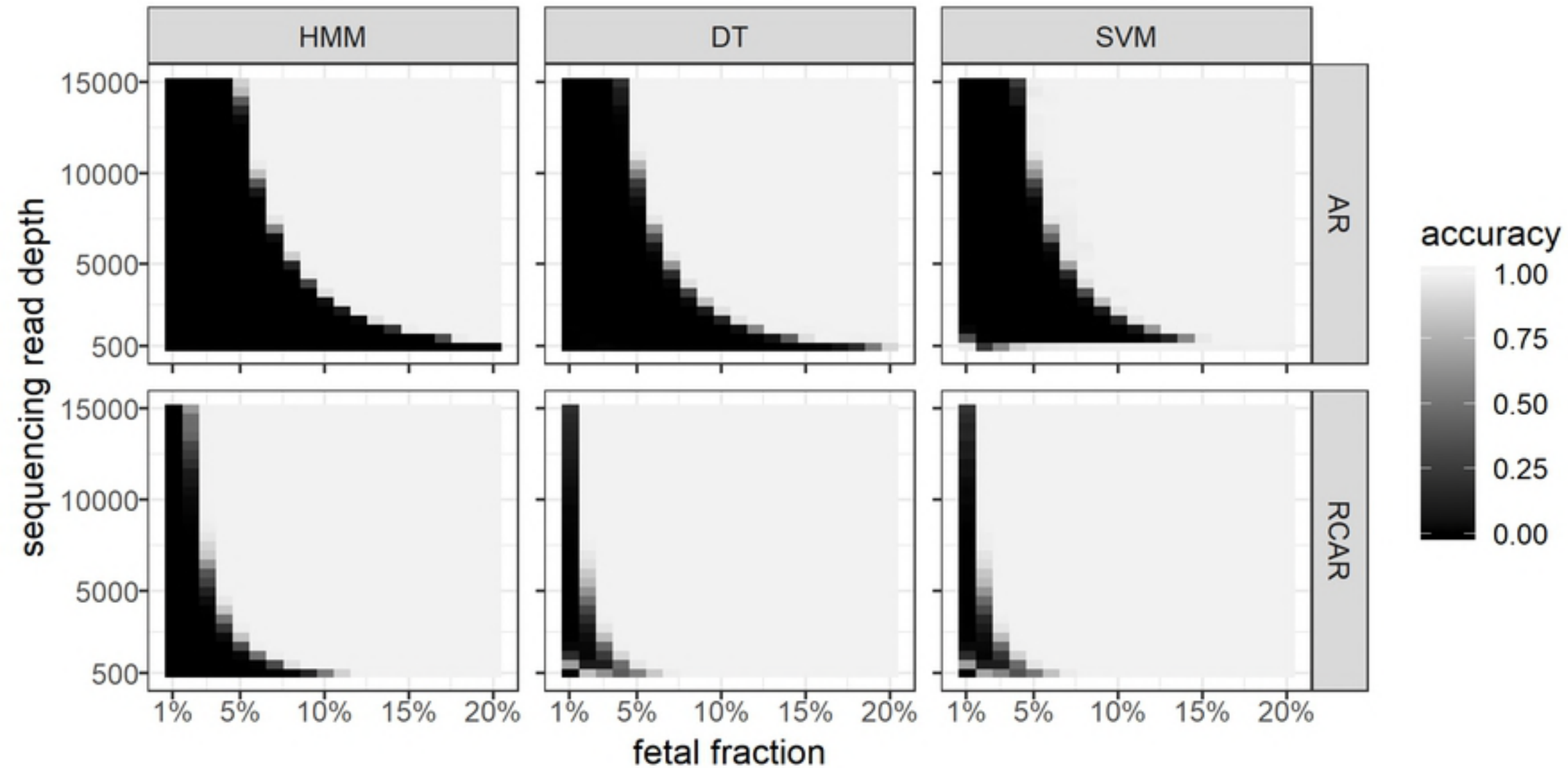


Fig4

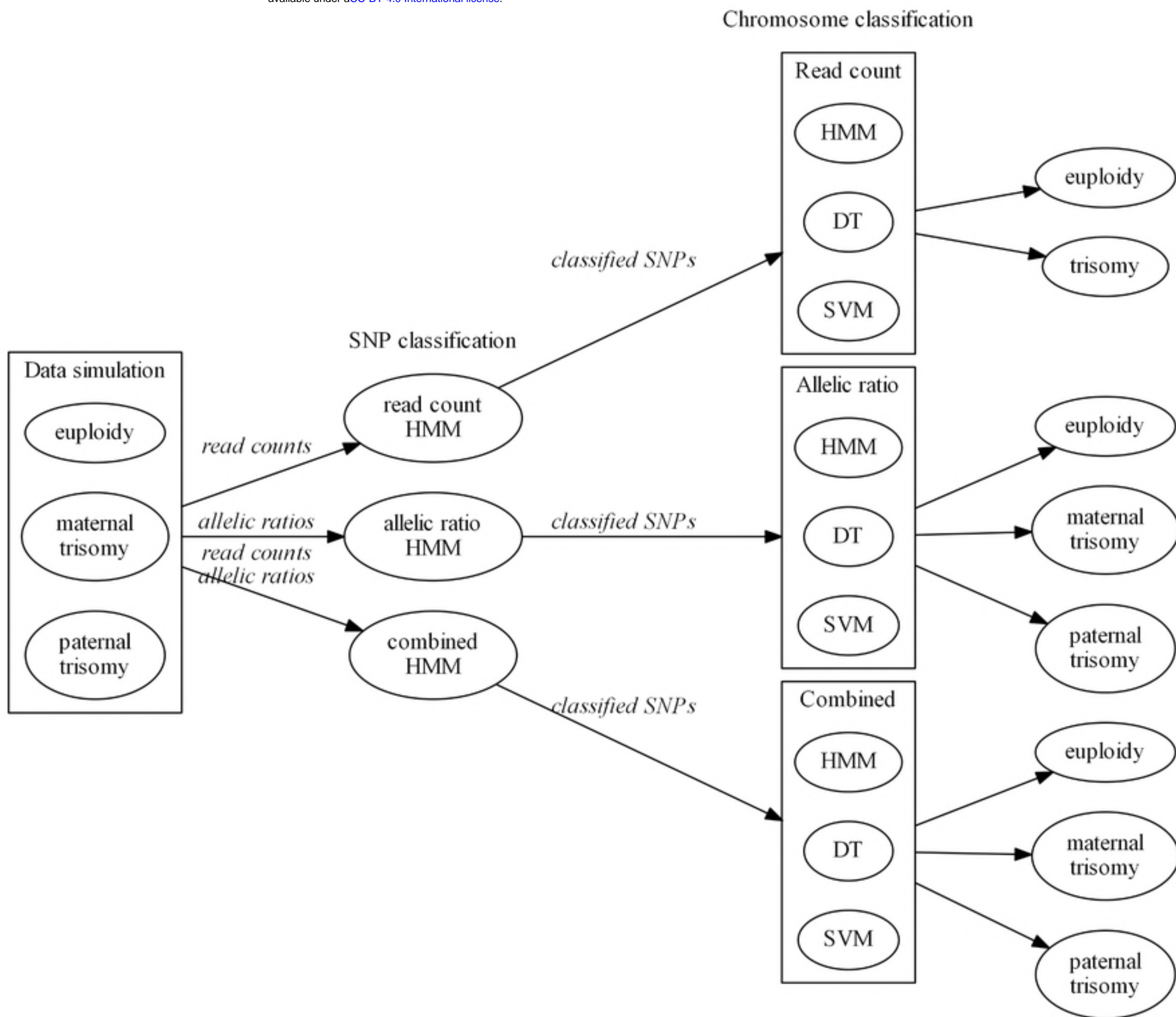


Fig1