Single-cell genome-wide bisulfite sequencing for assessing epigenetic heterogeneity

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We report a single-cell bisulfite sequencing (scBS-seq) method that can be used to accurately measure DNA methylation at up to 48.4% of CpG sites. Embryonic stem cells grown in serum or in 2i medium displayed epigenetic heterogeneity, with ‘2i-like’ cells present in serum culture. Integration of 12 individual mouse oocyte datasets largely recapitulated the whole DNA methylome, which makes scBS-seq a versatile tool to explore DNA methylation in rare cells and heterogeneous populations.

DNA methylation at cytosine residues (5mC) is an epigenetic mark that has critical roles in the regulation and maintenance of cell type–specific transcriptional programs1,2. Our understanding of 5mC functionality has been revolutionized by the development of BS-seq, which offers single-cytosine resolution and absolute quantification of 5mC genome-wide. Recent advances have demonstrated the power of single-cell sequencing to deconvolve mixed cell populations3–5. Incorporating epigenetic information into this single-cell arsenal will transform our understanding of gene regulation and provide insights into epigenetic heterogeneity6. Here we report an accurate and reproducible method, scBS-seq, that allows assessment of 5mC heterogeneity in cell populations across the entire genome.

In commonly used BS-seq protocols, sequencing adaptors are ligated to fragmented DNA before bisulfite conversion, which results in a loss of information owing to DNA degradation by the bisulfite treatment. To minimize DNA loss from single cells, we developed a modification of post-bisulfite adaptor tagging2. In scBS-seq, bisulfite treatment is performed first, which results in simultaneous DNA fragmentation and conversion of unmethylated cytosines to thymine (Fig. 1a). Then, synthesis of complementary strands is primed using oligonucleotides containing Illumina adaptors sequences and a 3’ stretch of nine random nucleotides. This step is performed five times to maximize the number of tagged DNA strands and to generate multiple copies of each fragment. After capturing the tagged strands, a second adaptor is similarly integrated, and PCR amplification is performed with indexed primers.

We performed scBS-seq on ovulated metaphase II oocytes (MIIs) and mouse embryonic stem cells (ESCs) cultured either in 2i medium or serum conditions. MIIs are an excellent model for technical assessment as they: (i) can be individually hand-picked to ensure that only one cell is processed; (ii) represent a highly homogeneous population, which allows discrimination between technical and biological variability; and (iii) present a distinct DNA methylome comprising large-scale hypermethylated and hypomethylated domains8. ESCs grown in serum conditions exist in a state of dynamic equilibrium characterized by transcriptional heterogeneity and stochastic switching of transcriptional states9–12, and emerging evidence from immunofluorescence and locus-specific studies suggests that 5mC heterogeneity exists in ESCs13. Recent studies have also demonstrated remarkable plasticity in the ESC methylome; genome-wide hypomethylation is induced by two kinase inhibitors (2i), which inhibit FGFR signaling13,14. We used ESCs grown in serum (‘serum ESCs’) and ESCs grown in 2i medium (‘2i ESCs’) to determine whether scBS-seq can reveal DNA methylation heterogeneity in single cells.

We sequenced 12 MII, 12 2i ESC, 20 serum ESC and 7 negative control scBS-seq libraries, and their bulk cell counterparts (pools of cells) on an Illumina HiSeq at relatively low sequencing depth (average 19.4 million 100-base-pair (bp) paired-end reads). On average, 3.9 million (M) reads (range, 1.5 M–14.3 M reads) were mapped, corresponding to an efficiency of 20.1% (Supplementary Fig. 1 and Supplementary Table 1); this low efficiency is mostly due to the presence of low-complexity sequences (Supplementary Fig. 2). We obtained methylation scores on an average of 3.7 million CpG dinucleotides (CpGs; range, 1.8 M–7.7 M) corresponding to 17.7% of all CpGs (range, 8.5–36.2%; Fig. 1b). More CpGs can be obtained with deeper sequencing, as the limiting duplication plateau was not reached at this sequencing depth (Supplementary Fig. 3). To validate this, we sequenced two MII libraries close to saturation and with longer sequencing reads (150 bp), which resulted in 1.5-fold and 1.9-fold more CpGs captured (Supplementary Table 1). In addition, because of the broad size distribution of fragments in scBS-seq libraries (Supplementary Fig. 1b), longer reads led to 9% greater CpG coverage at saturating sequencing depth and 16% greater coverage at low depth. Integrating this additional sequencing revealed that up to 10.1 M CpGs (48.4% of all CpGs) can be obtained by scBS-seq.

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Received 28 April; Accepted 25 June; Published online 20 July 2014; doi:10.1038/nmeth.3035
Next, we investigated the reproducibility and accuracy of scBS-seq. Bisulfite conversion efficiency was ≥97.7%, as assessed by analysis of non-CpG methylation (or ≥88.5% by examining the unmethylated mitochondrial chromosome in ESCs; Fig. 1c and Supplementary Table 1). CpG sites in MIIs were overwhelmingly called methylated or unmethylated, which is consistent with a highly digitized output from single cells (Supplementary Fig. 4). As expected, global methylation of MIIs was highly homogeneous (33.1 ± 0.8%; ± s.d.) and 2i ESCs were hypomethylated compared to serum ESCs. Yet both 2i ESCs and serum ESCs exhibited 5mC heterogeneity (serum, 63.9 ± 12.4%; 2i medium, 31.3 ± 12.6%; Fig. 1c). Global 5mC levels measured in individual MIIs were slightly lower than in the bulk sample (39.0%), but merging all MIIs datasets resulted in 38.8% global methylation.

To test the technical reproducibility of scBS-seq, we determined the average pairwise concordance between individual CpGs across single oocyte libraries, which was 87.6% genome-wide (range, 85.3–88.9%) and 95.7% in unmethylated CpG islands (CGIs), a highly homogeneous genomic feature (Fig. 1d). CpG concordance in ESCs was lower (serum, 72.7%; 2i medium, 69.8%), which reflected the heterogeneity of these cells (Fig. 1d and Supplementary Fig. 5). At 2-kilobase (kb) resolution, we observed high correlation between individual MIIs (average R = 0.92), and between individual MIIs and bulk (average R = 0.95) (Fig. 1e). In addition, for each MII, we obtained methylation information on an average of 61.5% of all CGIs (range, 46.3–82.7%); of 1,615 CGIs identified as methylated from bulk libraries and informative in individual MIIs, ≥92% were called methylated by scBS-seq, with ≤0.3% incorrectly called unmethylated (Supplementary Fig. 6).

Mapped scBS-seq reads were distributed across the genome and provided information on all genomic contexts, including regulatory regions (Supplementary Table 2); however, the enrichment in exons, promoters and CGIs observed in bulk libraries was exaggerated in scBS-seq libraries (Supplementary Fig. 7). Yet the fact that we obtained ~20% coverage of CpGs per cell means that the proportion of sites that can be compared across samples will depend on the nature of the analytic units (features, window size, etc.); conversely, in silico merging of individual datasets rapidly increased the number of CpGs with information (Supplementary Fig. 8). We could largely reproduce the entire 5mC landscape of oocytes using only 12 single cells (Fig. 1ef and Supplementary Fig. 9). This capability is particularly beneficial for analyses of homogeneous cell populations and makes scBS-seq an important tool to investigate the 5mC landscape in very rare material.

To explore 5mC heterogeneity in ESCs, we used a 3-kb sliding window to estimate the methylation rate across each ESC genome as well as the mean methylation rate and variance across all ESCs (Fig. 2a). We clustered cells on the basis of the methylation rate while penalizing estimation uncertainty owing to low read counts. We identified two distinct clusters that represented the
majority of 2i ESCs and serum ESCs (Fig. 2b). Outlier cells from the serum condition clustered with 2i ESCs, which implies that serum cultures contain ‘2i-like’ ESCs and demonstrates the ability of scBS-seq to identify rare cell types in populations. To examine 5mC heterogeneity in ESCs in greater detail, we ranked sites by the estimated cell-to-cell variance and repeated the cluster analysis for the 300 most variable sites (Fig. 2c). The structure of the resulting clusters was grossly similar to that in the genome-wide analysis, and all 300 variable sites followed the global trend of being more highly methylated in serum than 2i ESCs with high similarity between sites (Figs. 1c and 2b, c, and Supplementary Figs. 10 and 11). This observation is consistent with the genome-wide hypomethylation observed in ESCs grown in 2i medium 13 and indicates that a major determinant of ESC heterogeneity is global methylation.

scBS-seq also identified sites whose methylation varied more than the genome average, including sites with marked heterogeneity even among cells from the same growth condition (e.g., clusters 5 and 6 in serum ESCs; Fig. 2c). Regions containing H3K4me1 and H3K27ac, marks associated with active enhancers, had the greatest variance in 5mC, whereas CGIs and intracisternal A-particle repeats had lower variance than the genome average (Fig. 2d and Supplementary Fig. 12). These findings are consistent with observations that distal regulatory elements are differentially methylated between tissues and throughout development15–17.

While this manuscript was in preparation, a single-cell reduced-representation bisulfite sequencing (scRRBS) method was reported18, based on the single-tube RRBS strategy we had previously developed19. Although scRRBS and scBS-seq could be seen as complementary, our methodology currently provides information on ~5-fold more CpGs and ~1.5-fold more CGIs at equivalent sequencing depth (Supplementary Fig. 13). Future developments will undoubtedly allow information to be recovered from most genomic CpGs, the key being the ability to amplify DNA before bisulfite conversion. The capacity to capture the DNA methylome from individual cells will be critical for a full understanding of early embryonic development, cancer progression and generation of induced pluripotent stem cells.

Our work demonstrates that large-scale single-cell epigenetic analysis is achievable, and demonstrates that scBS-seq is a powerful
approach to accurately measure 5mC across genomes of single cells and to reveal 5mC heterogeneity in cell populations.

METHODS
Methods and any associated references are available in the online version of the paper.

Accession codes. Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO): GSE56879.

Note: Any Supplementary Information and Source Data files are available in the online version of the paper.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS
We thank K. Tabbada and the Welcome Trust Sanger Institute sequencing pipeline team for assistance with Illumina sequencing, R. Walker for assistance with flow cytomety, T. Hore (Babraham Institute, Cambridge, UK) for providing ESCs maintained in 2i medium and serum conditions, and T. Hore, J. Huang, I. Macaulay, S. Lorenz, M. Quail, T. Voet and H. Swerdlow for helpful discussions. This work was supported by the UK Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council grant BB/004499/1, UK Medical Research Council grant MR/K011332/1, Wellcome Trust award 095645/Z/11/Z and EU FP7 EpiGeneSys and BLUEPRINT.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS
S.A.S. and H.J.L. designed the study, prepared scBS-seq libraries, analyzed data and wrote the manuscript. F.K., H.S. and S.R.A. performed sequence mapping and analyzed data. J.P. contributed to technical developments. C.A. and O.S. analyzed data. O.S. provided advice on statistical analyses. W.R. and G.K. supervised the study and wrote the manuscript.

COMPETING FINANCIAL INTERESTS
The authors declare competing financial interests: details are available in the online version of the paper.

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**ONLINE METHODS**

**Sample collection.** MII oocytes were collected from superovulated 4–5-week-old C57BL/6Nab mice, under a stereomicroscope, by mouth pipetting, and stored at −80 °C. Before scBS-seq, 2× oocyte lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-Cl pH 7.4 and 2% SDS) and 0.5 µl proteinase K were added (final volume 12 µl) followed by incubation at 37 °C for 1 h. E14 ESCs were cultured in serum plus LIF or 2i medium plus LIF conditions as described previously. The 2i ESCs had been maintained in this medium for 24 d and matched serum ESCs were cultured in parallel. Single ESCs were collected by flow cytometry in 12 µl of ESC lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-Cl pH 7.4, 0.6% SDS and 0.5 µl proteinase K) using a BD Influx instrument in single cell 1 drop mode. ToPro-3 and Hoechst 33342 staining were used to select for live cells with low DNA content (i.e., in G0 or G1 phase). ESCs were incubated at 37 °C for 1 h and stored at −20 °C until required for library preparation. Negative controls were either lysis buffer alone (‘empty’ tubes) or sorted BD Accudrop Beads, and were prepared and processed concomitantly with all single-cell samples.

**Single-cell library preparation.** Bisulfite conversion was performed on cell lysates using the Imprint DNA Modification Kit (Sigma) with the following modifications: all volumes were halved, and chemical denaturation was followed by incubation at 65 °C for 90 min, 95 °C for 3 min and 65 °C for 20 min. Purification was performed as described previously, and DNA was eluted in 10 mM Tris-Cl (pH 8.5) and combined with 0.4 mM dNTPs, 0.4 µM oligo 1 ((Biotin)CTACAGCAGCTTCCGATCTNN NNNNNNNN) and 1× Blue Buffer (Sigma) (24 µl final) before incubation at 65 °C for 3 min followed by 4 °C pause. 50 U of Klenow exo− (Sigma) were added and the samples incubated at 4 °C for 5 min, +1°C/15 s to 37 °C, 37 °C for 30 min. Samples were incu bated at 95 °C for 1 min and transferred immediately to ice before addition of fresh oligo 1 (10 pmol), Klenow exo− (25 U), and dNTPs (1 nmol) in 2.5 µl total. The samples were incubated at 4 °C for 5 min, +1°C/15 s to 37 °C, 37 °C for 30 min. This random priming and extension was repeated a further three times (five rounds in total). Samples were then incubated with 40 U exo− nuclease I (NEB) for 1 h at 37 °C before DNA was purified using 0.8× Agencourt Ampure XP beads (Beckman Coulter) according to the manufacturer’s guidelines. Samples were eluted in 10 mM Tris-Cl (pH 8.5) and incubated with washed M-280 Streptavidin Dynabeads (Life Technologies) for 20 min with rotation at room temperature. Beads were washed twice with 0.1 N NaOH, and with 10 mM Tris-Cl (pH 8.5) and resuspended in 48 µl of 0.4 mM dNTPs, 0.4 µM oligo 2 (TGGCTGACCCGCTTCCGATCTNNNNNNN) and 1× Blue Buffer. Samples were incubated at 95 °C for 45 s and transferred immediately to ice before addition of 100 U Klenow exo− (Sigma) and incubation at 4 °C for 5 min, +1°C/15 s to 37 °C, 37 °C for 30 min. Beads were washed with 10 mM Tris-Cl (pH 8.5) and resuspended in 50 µl of 0.4 mM dNTPs, 0.4 µM PE1.0 forward primer (AAGTATACGCGACGCTTCCGATCTNNNNNNN) and 0× Blue Buffer. Samples were incubated at 55 °C for 45 s and transferred immediately to ice before addition of 100 U Klenow exo− (Sigma) and incubation at 4 °C for 2 min, 12–13 repeats of (94 °C 80 s, 65 °C 30 s, 72 °C 30 s), 72 °C 3 min and 4 °C hold. Amplified libraries were purified using 0.8× Agencourt Ampure XP beads, according to the manufacturer’s guidelines, and were assessed for quality and quantity using High-Sensitivity DNA chips on the Agilent Bioanalyzer, and the KAPA Library Quantification Kit for Illumina (KAPA Biosystems). Pools of 12–14 single cell libraries were prepared for 100-bp paired-end sequencing on a HiSeq2500 in rapid-run mode (2 lanes/run).

**Bulk sample library preparation.** Samples from bulk cell populations were prepared according to the protocol above, with some modifications. For the bulk oocyte sample, 120 MII oocytes were collected and lysed as described above. For ESC bulk cell samples, DNA was purified from cell pellets using the QIAamp micro kit (QIAGEN), according to the manufacturer’s instructions, and 50 ng of purified DNA was used in the library preparation. One round of first-strand synthesis was performed using 0.8 mM dNTPs and 4 µM oligo 1, and second-strand synthesis also used 0.8 mM dNTPs and 4 µM oligo 2. Bulk cell libraries were amplified as above with 9–12 cycles of PCR.

**Sequencing data processing and data analysis.** Raw sequence reads were trimmed to remove the first 9 base pairs, adaptor contamination and poor-quality reads using Trim Galore! (v0.3.5, http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim_galore/, parameters:--clip_r1 9–clip_r2 9–paired). Owing to the multiple rounds of random priming performed with oligo 1, scBS-seq libraries are nondirectional. Trimmed sequences were first mapped to the human genome (build GRCh37) using Bismark21 (v0.10.1; parameters:--pe−,--bowtie2,--non_directional,-- unmapped), resulting in 1.4% mapping efficiency (0.2–13.2% range). Remaining sequences were mapped to the mouse genome (build NCBI37) in single-end mode (Bismark parameters:--bowtie2−non_directional). Methylation calls were extracted after duplicate sequences had been excluded. For oocyte bulk analysis, our MII bulk data set was merged in silico with previously published data sets (DNA Data Bank of Japan, GenBank and European Molecular Biology Laboratory accession number DRA000570). Data visualization and analysis were performed using SeqMonk, custom R and Java scripts. For Figure 1c, C+G methylation was calculated as the average of methylation for each CpG position, and non-CpG methylation was extracted from the Bismark reports. Trend line in Figure 1b was calculated using polynomial regression. Percentage of concordance was calculated as the percentage of CpGs presenting the same methylation call at the same genomic position across two cells. For correlation analysis (Pearson’s), 2-kb windows were defined informative if at least 8 CpGs per window were sequenced. CGI annotation used is from CXCC affinity purification plus deep sequencing (CAP-seq) experiments. Informative CGIs were defined if at least 10 CpGs per CGI were sequenced. Hyper-methylated and hypo-methylated CGIs were defined as ≥80% and ≤20% methylation, respectively. Annotation for comparison of genomic contexts (Fig. 2d, Supplementary Fig. 12, and Supplementary Table 2) were extracted from previously published datasets15,23.

**Statistical analyses.** Estimating sample-specific methylation rates. We estimated for each cell j at position i the methylation rate $r_{ij}$. To increase the coverage across cells, we employed a sliding-window approach, which is conceptually similar to approaches that have been used for bulk BS-Seq24,25. With window size $w = 3,000$ bp
and step size 600 bp, we computed the sum of methylated \( (c_{i,j}^+) \) and unmethylated \( (c_{i,j}^-) \) read counts in each window
\[
s_{i,j}^+ = \sum_{k=-w/2}^{w/2} c_{i,j}^+ k, j = \sum_{k=-w/2}^{w/2} c_{i,j}^- k, j
\]
To estimate methylation rates, we modeled the sum \( s_{i,j}^\pm \) of methylated counts as a binomial (Bin) random variable with methylation rate \( r_{ij} \)
\[
s_{i,j}^+ \sim \text{Bin}(s_{i,j}^+, s_{i,j}^- n_{ij})
\]
Assuming a beta (1, 1) prior on \( r_{ij} \), leads to the maximum a posteriori estimator for methylation rates for each window and cell
\[
\hat{r}_{ij} = \frac{s_{i,j}^+ + 1}{s_{i,j}^+ + s_{i,j}^- + 2}
\]
We approximated the standard error of the rate estimator as
\[
\text{SE}[\hat{r}_{ij}]^2 = \frac{\hat{r}_{ij}(1-\hat{r}_{ij})}{s_{i,j}^+ + s_{i,j}^-}
\]

**Estimating mean methylation rates.** We used the estimated sample-specific methylation rates \( \hat{r}_{ij} \) to estimate mean methylation rates and cell-to-cell variances. We modeled the mean methylation rate \( r_i \) at position \( i \) across all cells as a Gaussian random variable with mean \( \overline{r_i} \) and variance \( v_i \)
\[
r_i \sim N(\overline{r_i}, v_i)
\]
To account for differences in the standard errors \( \text{SE}[\hat{r}_{ij}] \), we weighted sample \( j \) and position \( i \) by \( w_{i,j} = \text{SE}[\hat{r}_{ij}]^{-2} \), and used the weighted maximum likelihood estimator
\[
\hat{\overline{r}} = \frac{1}{\sum_i w_{i,j}} \sum_i w_{i,j} \hat{r}_{ij}
\]
to estimate \( \overline{r}_i \). The corresponding standard error is given by
\[
\text{SE}[\hat{\overline{r}}]^2 = \frac{1}{\sum_i w_{i,j}}
\]
The maximum likelihood estimator of the cell-to-cell methylation variance \( v_i \) is
\[
v_i = \frac{\sum_i w_{i,j} \sum_i w_{i,j} (\hat{r}_{ij} - \hat{\overline{r}})^2}{(\sum_i w_{i,j})^2 - \sum_i w_{i,j}^2 (\hat{r}_{ij} - \hat{\overline{r}})^2}
\]
which is the unbiased weighted sample variance. The chi-squared confidence interval of the variance estimator with confidence level \( \alpha \) is
\[
[v_{l,i}^\alpha, v_{u,i}^\alpha] = \left[ \frac{n_i \hat{v}_i}{\chi^2_{1, p(n_i - 1)}} \right]^2 \left[ \frac{n_i \hat{v}_i}{\chi^2_{p(n_i - 1), n_i}} \right]
\]
Here, \( \chi^2_{p,n_i} \) is the \( p \) quantile of the chi-squared distribution with \( n_i \) degrees of freedom, where \( n_i \) is the sum of sample weights
\[
n_i^2 = \frac{\sum_j w_{i,j}}{(\sum_i w_{i,j})^2 - \sum j w_{i,j}^2}
\]
To determine highly variable methylated sites, we ranked these by the lower bound \( \hat{v}_i^\alpha \) of the chi-squared confidence interval and defined the top \( k \) sites as the most variable sites. This approach is selecting sites with large estimates of cell to cell variance while penalizing for uncertainty of these estimates, which typically stems from low read counts.

**Clustering.** To cluster cells and sites, we considered a complete linkage clustering and employed the weighted Euclidean norm as distance measure for comparing sample \( j \) with sample \( j' \)
\[
d(j,j') = \sqrt{\sum_i w_{i,j} \hat{r}_{ij}^2 (\hat{r}_{ij} - \hat{r}_{ij'})^2}
\]
We defined the weight \( w_{i,j}^{j,j'} \) at position \( i \) as
\[
w_{i,j}^{j,j'} \propto \sqrt{w_{i,j} w_{i,j'}}
\]
and normalized weights to sum up to the total number of positions \( d \). This distance measure places most emphasis on sites that are well covered in both samples.

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