

¹ Legacy Data Confounds Genomics Studies

³ Luke Anderson-Trocmé^{1,2}, Rick Farouni^{1,2}, Mathieu Bourgey^{1,2}, Yoichiro
⁴ Kamatani³, Koichiro Higasa³, Jeong-Sun Seo^{4,5}, Changhoon Kim⁴, Fumihiko
⁵ Matsuda³, Simon Gravel^{1,2}

*For correspondence:

simon.gravel@mcgill.ca (SG)

⁶ ¹Department of Human Genetics, McGill University, Montreal, QC H3A 0G1, Canada;

⁷ ²McGill University and Genome Quebec Innovation Centre, Montreal, QC H3A 0G1,

⁸ Canada; ³Center for Genomic Medicine, Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto University,

⁹ Kyoto 606-8501, Japan; ⁴Bioinformatics Institute, Macrogen Inc., Seoul, 08511, Republic of

¹⁰ Korea; ⁵Precision Medicine Center, Seoul National University Bundang Hospital,

¹¹ Seongnam, 13605, Republic of Korea

¹²

¹³ **Abstract** Recent reports have identified differences in the mutational spectra across human populations. While some of these reports have been replicated in other cohorts, most have been reported only in the 1000 Genomes Project (1kGP) data. While investigating an intriguing putative population stratification within the Japanese population, we identified a previously unreported batch effect leading to spurious mutation calls in the 1kGP data and to the apparent population stratification. Because the 1kGP data is used extensively, we find that the batch effects also lead to incorrect imputation by leading imputation servers and suspicious GWAS associations. Lower-quality data from the early phases of the 1kGP thus continues to contaminate modern studies in hidden ways. It may be time to retire or upgrade such legacy sequencing data.

²² **Key words :** Batch Effect, Mutational Signature, Statistical Genetics, Population Genetics, Reference Cohorts, Imputation

²⁴

²⁵ Introduction

²⁶ Batch Effects in Aging Reference Cohort Data

²⁷ The last 5 years have seen a drastic increase in the amount and quality of human genome sequence data. Reference cohorts such as the International HapMap Project (*International HapMap Consortium, 2005*), the 1000 Genomes Project (1kGP) (*1000 Genomes Project Consortium, 2010, 2012; Consortium et al., 2015*), and the Simons Diversity project (*Mallick et al., 2016*), for example, have made thousands of genome sequences publicly available for population and medical genetic analyses. Many more genomes are available indirectly through servers providing imputation services (*McCarthy et al., 2016*) or summary statistics for variant frequency estimation (*Lek et al., 2016*).

³⁴ The first genomes in the 1kGP were sequenced 10 years ago (*van Dijk et al., 2014*). Since then, sequencing platforms have rapidly improved. The second phase of the 1kGP implemented multiple technological and analytical improvements over its earlier phases (*1000 Genomes Project Consortium, 2012; Consortium et al., 2015*), leading to heterogeneous sample preparations and data quality over the course of the project.

³⁹ Yet, because of the extraordinary value of freely available data, early data from the 1kGP is still widely used to impute untyped variants, to estimate allele frequencies, and to answer a wide range

41 of medical and evolutionary questions. This raises the question of whether and how such legacy
42 data should be included in contemporary analyses alongside more recent cohorts. Here we point
43 out how large and previously unreported batch effects in the early phases of the 1kGP still lead to
44 incorrect genetic conclusions through population genetic analyses and spurious GWAS associations
45 as a result of imputation using the 1kGP as a reference.

46 **Mutational Signatures**

47 Different mutagenic processes may preferentially affect different DNA motifs. Certain mutagens
48 in tobacco smoke, for example, have been shown to preferentially bind to certain genomic motifs
49 leading to an excess of G to T transversions (*Pfeifer et al., 2002; Pleasance et al., 2010*). Thus,
50 exposure of populations to different mutational processes can be inferred by considering the DNA
51 context of polymorphism in search of *signatures* of different mutational processes (*Alexandrov*
52 *et al., 2013; Shiraishi et al., 2015*). Such genome-wide mutational signatures have been used as
53 diagnostic tools for cancers (e.g., *Alexandrov et al. (2013); Shiraishi et al. (2015)*).

54 In addition to somatic mutational signatures, there has been recent interest in population
55 variation in germline mutational signatures which can be revealed in large sequencing panels.
56 In 2015, Harris reported 50% more TCC → TTC mutations in European populations compared
57 to African populations, and this was replicated in a different cohort in 2017 (*Harris, 2015; Harris*
58 *and Pritchard, 2017; Mathieson and Reich, 2017*). Strong population enrichments of a mutational
59 signature suggests important genetic or environmental differences in the history of each population
60 (*Harris, 2015; Harris and Pritchard, 2017*). Harris and Pritchard further identified distinct mutational
61 spectra across a range of populations, which were further examined in a recent publication by
62 Aikens et al. (*Harris and Pritchard, 2017; Aikens et al., 2019*).

63 In particular, the latter two studies identified a heterogeneous mutational signature within 1kGP
64 Japanese individuals. This heterogeneity is intriguing because differences in germline signatures
65 accumulate over many generations. A systematic difference within the Japanese population would
66 suggest sustained environmental or genetic differences across sub-populations within Japan with
67 little to no gene flow. We therefore decided to follow up on this observation, by using a newly
68 sequenced dataset of Japanese individuals from Nagahama.

69 While we were unable to reproduce the mutational heterogeneity within the Japanese population,
70 we could trace back the source of the discrepancy to a technical artefact in the 1kGP data. In addition
71 to creating biases in mutational signatures, this artefact leads to spurious imputation results which
72 have found their way in a number of recent publications.

73 The results section is organized as follows. We first attempt to reproduce the original signal and
74 identify problematic variants in the JPT cohort from the 1kGP. Next, we expand our analysis to the
75 other populations in the 1kGP and identify lists of variants that show evidence for technical bias.
76 Finally, we investigate how these variants have impacted modern genomics analyses.

77 **Results**

78 **A peculiar mutational signature in Japan**

79 Harris and Pritchard reported an excess of a 3-mer substitution patterns *AC→*CC in a portion
80 of the Japanese individuals in the 1kGP (*Harris and Pritchard, 2017*). While trying to follow up on
81 this observation in a larger and more recent Japanese cohort from Nagahama, we did not find this
82 particular signature. When comparing the allele frequencies between the Japanese individuals from
83 the 1kGP and this larger dataset, we observed a number of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)
84 private to one of the two groups (Figure 1). Given the similarity of the two populations, this strongly
85 suggests a technical difference rather than a population structure effect. These mismatches were
86 maintained despite only considering sites that satisfied strict quality masks and Hardy-Weinberg
87 equilibrium in both cohorts.

88 When mismatch sites are removed from the 1kGP data, the *AC→*CC signal disappears (Figure

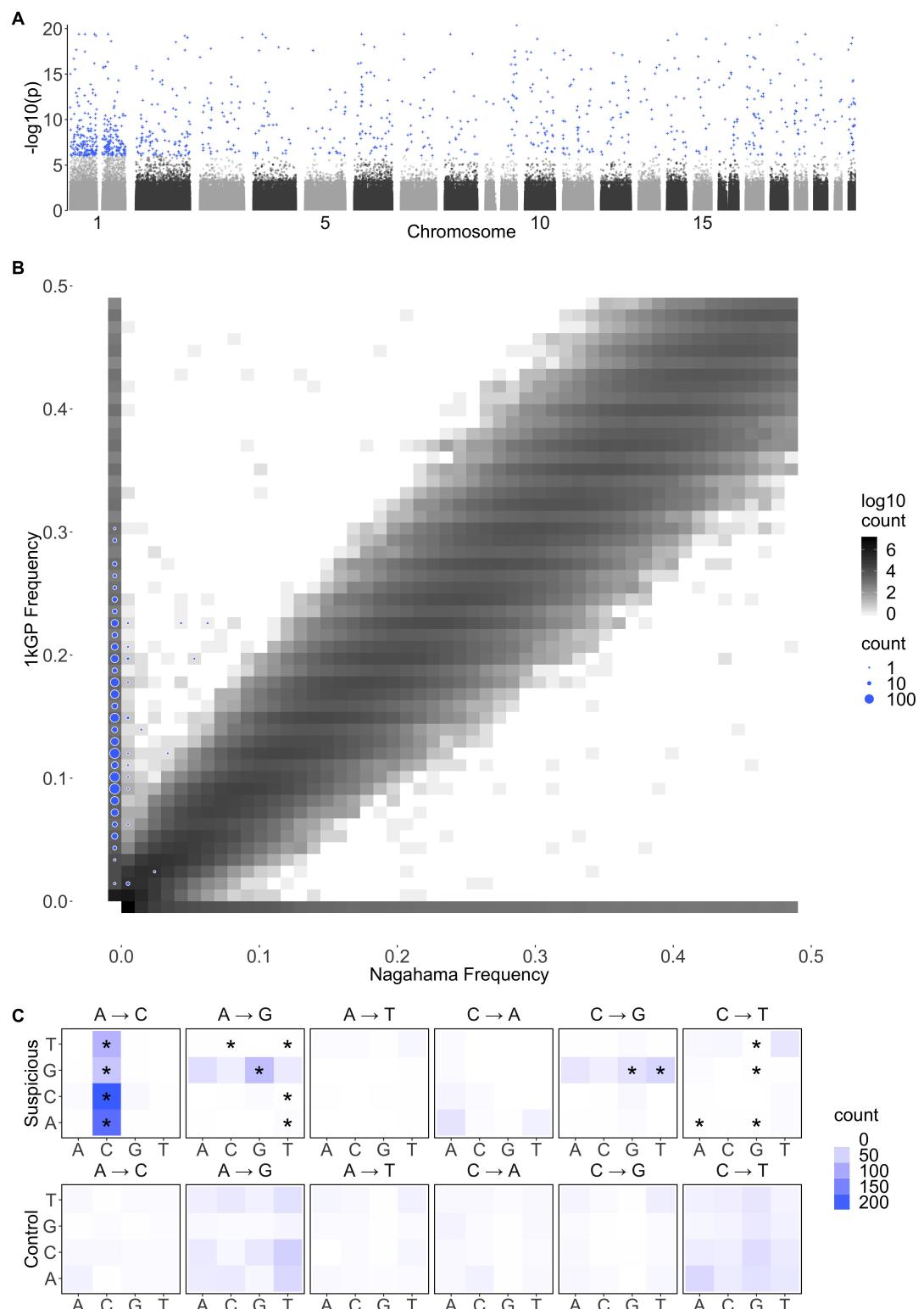


Figure 1. Suspicious mutations carried by individuals with low quality data have distinct mutational profiles, reproduce poorly across studies, and are distributed across the genome. **A** Genome wide association of the average quality of mapped bases Q for the 104 Japanese individuals included in the 1000 Genomes Project. This GWAS identified 587 $p < 10^{-8}$ and 1034 $p < 10^{-6}$ SNPs that were associated to the average Q of SNPs mapped for an individual. The same analysis was performed independently for each of the populations in the 1000 Genomes Project. **B** Joint frequency spectrum plot of the Japanese from the 1000 Genomes Project and a more recent Japanese dataset from Nagahama. The size of blue dots are proportional to the number of variants that associate with Q in the JPT. **C** Mutation spectrum of the 1034 variants that associated with Q in the JPT ($p < 10^{-6}$), compared to a random set of SNPs. The majority of the variants with significant associations to Q have the *AC \rightarrow *CC mutational pattern. There is also a slight enrichment in GA \rightarrow GG* and GC \rightarrow GG* mutations. These three enrichments can be summarized as G** \rightarrow GG*. Stars (*) indicate significant difference from the mutational spectrum of a set of control SNPs.

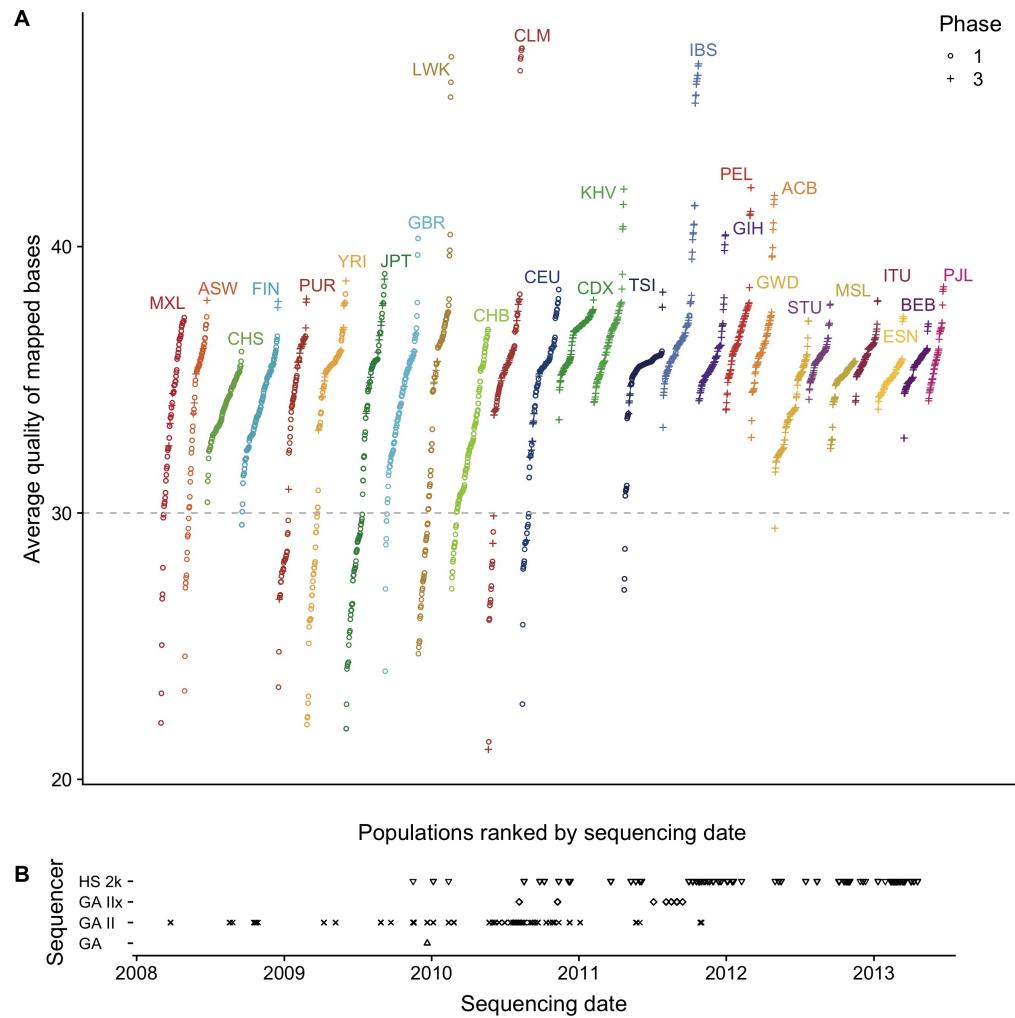


Figure 2. Sampling and sequencing technologies over time in the 1000 Genomes Project. **A** The average quality of mapped bases Q for each individual per population included in the 1000 Genomes Project. Populations are ranked by mean sequencing date (the earliest sequencing date was used for individuals with multiple dates). The shape indicates whether the individual belongs to Phase 1 or Phase 3 of the 1000 Genomes project. **B** The sequencing technologies used over time. A change in technology coincides with an increase in overall quality of data produced.

89 1). To identify possible technical reasons for the difference, we performed regressions of the
90 prevalence of the *AC→*CC mutational signature against different individual-level quality metrics
91 provided by the 1kGP (see Figure S15). The average quality of mapped bases Q per individual
92 stood out as a strong correlate : Individuals with low Q show elevated rates of the signature. Thus,
93 sequences called from low- Q data contain variants that reproduce poorly across studies and exhibit
94 a particular mutational signature.

To identify SNPs that are likely to reproduce poorly across cohorts without having access to a second cohort, we performed an association study in the JPT for SNPs that associate strongly with low Q (Figure 1). Traditionally, genome wide association studies use genotypes as the independent variable. Here we perform a [Luke: genotype conditional association test \(GCAT\)](#), where genotypes are now the dependent variable that we attempt to predict using the continuous variable Q as the independent variable ([Song et al., 2015](#)). We use logistic regression of the genotypes on Q and identify 587 SNPs with $p < 10^{-8}$ and 1034 SNPs with $p < 10^{-6}$. While identifying putative low-quality SNPs to exclude, using a higher p -value threshold increases the stringency of the filtering (i.e.,

103 excluding SNPs with $p < 10^{-6}$ is more stringent than excluding SNPs with $p < 10^{-8}$). The variants
104 that are associated to Q have a significant enrichment in *AC→*CC mutations, GA*→GG*, and
105 GC*→GG* mutations (Figure 1A). These three enrichments can be summarized as an excess of
106 G**→GG* in individuals with low Q . [Luke: Statistical significance of these enrichment is computed](#)
107 [using a chi-squared test as described by Harris 2017 \(Harris and Pritchard, 2017\)](#).

108 Thus, this mutational signal is heavily enriched in Q -associated SNPs, but residual signal remains
109 in non-significant SNPs, presumably because many rare alleles found in individuals with low Q
110 remain unidentifiable using association techniques (Figure S16). The removal of individuals with
111 Q below 30 successfully removes the *AC→*CC signal, however other signals identified by Harris
112 and Pritchard appear unchanged (Figure S16). For population genetic analyses sensitive to the
113 accumulation of rare variants, the removal of individuals with low Q appears preferable to filtering
114 specific low-quality SNPs. For other analyses where quality of imputation matters, identifying
115 Q -associated variants may be preferable.

116 **Identifying suspicious variants in the 1000 Genomes Project**

117 The distribution of Q across 1kGP populations shows that many populations have distributions
118 of Q scores comparable to that of the JPT, especially populations sequenced in the phase 1 of the
119 project: sequencing done in the early phases of the 1kGP was more variable and overall tended to
120 include lower quality sequencing data (Figure 2). This variability could result from evolving sequence
121 platform and protocols or variation between sequencing centres. By 2011, older sequencing
122 technologies were phased out, and methods became more consistent, resulting in higher and more
123 uniform quality.

124 We therefore performed the same reverse GWAS approach in all populations independently,
125 and similarly identified Q -associated SNPs in 23 of the 26 populations in the 1kGP, with the phase 1
126 populations being most affected, with on average four times as many significantly associated sites
127 compared to the phase 3 populations. Over 812 variants were independently associated to low Q
128 in at least two populations with $p < 10^{-6}$ in each (Figure S2).

129 To build a test statistic to represent the association across all populations simultaneously, we
130 performed a simple logistic regression predicting genotype based on Q with the logistic factor
131 analysis (LFA) as an offset to account for population structure or Genotype-Conditional Association
132 Test (GCAT) as proposed by ([Song et al., 2015](#)). We also considered two alternative approaches to
133 account for confounders, namely using the leading five principal components, and using population
134 membership as covariates. These models were broadly consistent (See Figure S1).

135 This method identifies a total of 24,390 variants associated to Q distributed across the genome
136 with 15,270 passing the 1kGP strict mask filter (Figures S10,S11, S12, and S13). Most analyses below
137 focus on the 15,270 variants satisfying the strict mask, since these variants are unlikely to be filtered
138 by standard pipelines. To account for the large number of tests, we used a two-stage Benjamini &
139 Hochberg step-up FDR-controlling procedure to adjust the p-values using a nominal Type-I error
140 rate $\alpha = 0.01$ ([Benjamini et al., 2006](#)). We tested SNPs, INDELs and repetitive regions separately as
141 they may have different error rates (Table 1). Lists of Q -associated variants and individuals with low
142 Q are provided in Supplementary Data.

143 Q -associated variants are distributed across the genome, with chromosome 1 showing an excess
144 of such variants, and other chromosomes being relatively uniform (Figure S3). At a 10kb scale, we
145 also see rather uniform distribution with a small number of regions showing an enrichment for such
146 variants (Figure S4). An outlying 10kb region in chromosome 17 (bases : 22,020,000 to 22,030,000)
147 has 35 Q -associated variants. Distribution of association statistics in this region is provided in Figure
148 S5. By contrast, variants that do not pass the 1kGP strict mask are more unevenly distributed across
149 the genome(Figure S4).

	Repeat	Non-Repeat	Total
SNP	3,369 0.53‰	11,059 0.56‰	14,428
INDEL	181 0.3‰	657 0.66‰	838
Total	3,550	11,716	15,270

Table 1. Number of statistically significant variants passing the 1000 Genomes Project strict mask per category. Variants that are flagged by the 1000 Genomes Project nested repeat mask file were analyzed separately for FDR calculation. SNPs and INDELS were also analyzed separately. A total of 15,270 are statistically significantly associated to Q . The number of variants included in the analysis for SNPs, SNPs in repeat regions, INDELS and INDELS in repeat regions are 19,846,786, 6,312,620, 1,770,315 and 586,342 respectively.

150 Cell line or technical artifact

151 In 2017, Lan et al. resequenced 83 Han Chinese individuals from the 1kGP ([Lan et al., 2017](#)). To
 152 assess consistency between the two datasets, we consider consistency of genotype calls for Q -
 153 associated variants that are predicted to be polymorphic in these 83 individuals according to the
 154 1kGP. Among the 296 such variants that were Q -associated in the CHB or CHS, only 6 are present
 155 in the resequenced data (Figure S8). This is more than our nominal false discovery rate of [Luke:](#)
 156 $\alpha = 0.01$ of the sites. Thus a small number of variants associated to Q are present in the population
 157 but with somewhat biased genotypes.

158 We did a similar analysis using all variants identified in the GCAT model (rather than only variants
 159 significantly associated to Q within the CHB and CHS). Of the 15,270 Q -associated variants identified
 160 globally, 6,307 are polymorphic in the 1kGP for the 83 resequenced individuals (See Figure S6).
 161 From this subset, only 1,139 (or 18%) are present in the resequenced data. The allele frequencies of
 162 these variants are nearly identical between datasets suggesting that among these 83 individuals,
 163 these variants are properly genotyped in the 1kGP. There are 5 [Luke: variants](#) that show differing
 164 frequencies between both datasets that are likely explained by biased genotypes. The vast majority
 165 of polymorphisms associated with Q are not present at all in the resequencing dataset, supporting
 166 sequencing rather than cell line artifacts.

167 Among the 15,270 Q -associated variants, 613 are present on Illumina's Omni 2.5 chip (See Figure
 168 S14). These are likely among the small number of variants that are present in the data but exhibit
 169 biased genotyping in 1kGP.

170 Suspicious variants impact modern genomics analyses

171 State of the art imputation servers use a combination of many databases including some that
 172 are not freely available. From the perspective of researchers, they act as black-box imputation
 173 machines that take observed genotypes as input and return imputed genotypes.

174 To investigate whether suspicious calls from the 1kGP are imputed into genotyping studies, we
 175 submitted genotype data for the first two chromosomes of the 1kGP genotype data to the Michigan
 176 Imputation Server. We found that all of the variants associated with Q were imputed back in the
 177 samples. This suggests that the imputation reference panel still includes individuals with low Q ,
 178 and the dubious variants will be imputed in individuals who most closely match the low-quality
 179 individual.

180 We searched the literature for any GWAS that might have reported these dubious variants as
 181 being significantly associated with some biological trait, even though there is no particular reason
 182 for these variants to be associated with phenotypes. The NHGRI-EBI Catalog of published genome-
 183 wide association studies identified seventeen recent publications that had reported these variants
 184 as close to or above the genome-wide significant threshold (Table 2).

185 Eleven of these studies included the 1kGP in their reference panel for imputation ([Xu et al., 2012; Lutz et al., 2015; Park et al., 2015; Astle et al., 2016; Herold et al., 2016; Suhre et al., 2017; López-Mejías et al., 2017; Tian et al., 2017; Spracklen et al., 2017; Nagy et al., 2017; Gao et al., 2018](#)) and another used the 1kGP sequence data and cell lines directly ([Mandage et al., 2017](#)). One

189 study used an in-house reference panel for imputation (*Nishida et al., 2018*), two studies genotyped
190 individuals and imputed the data using the HapMap II as a reference database for imputation (*Kraja*
191 *et al., 2011; Ebejer et al., 2013*) and two studies used genotyping chip data (*Yucesoy et al., 2015;*
192 *Ellinghaus et al., 2016*).

193 These articles used a variety of strict quality filters, including Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium test,
194 deviations in expected allele frequency and sequencing data quality thresholds. They also removed
195 rare alleles and alleles with high degrees of missingness. Despite using state-of-the-art quality
196 controls, these variants managed not only to be imputed onto real genotype data, but they also
197 reached genome wide significance for association with biological traits.

198 These associations are not necessarily incorrect – a weak but significant bias in imputation
199 may still result in a correct associations. To distinguish between variants with weak but significant
200 association with Q from variants with strong biases, we distinguished between variants where
201 the allele frequency difference between individuals with low- and high- Q is larger than a factor of
202 two (which naturally separates two clusters of variants on Figure S6). The majority (92.7%) of the
203 Q -associated variants are strongly biased in that they are more than twice as frequent in individuals
204 with low- Q compared to high- Q data. By contrast, most Q -associated variants reported in the GWAS
205 catalogue had weak bias (See Figure S7), with three exceptions. One study reports associations
206 with seven Q -associated variants that we find to be highly biased (*Mandage et al., 2017*). That study
207 considered copy number of Epstein-Barr virus sequence in the 1kGP as a phenotype. Thus the
208 phenotype in that study is likely confounded by the same technical artefacts that lead to biased
209 SNP calling.

210 Discussion

211 The variants identified in this study are likely to be technical artifacts from legacy technologies.
212 Different sequencing technologies will have different error profiles. A report comparing the Genome
213 Analyzer II (GAII) to the Illumina HiSeq found that the GAII had much higher rates of reads below a
214 quality score of 30 (*Minoche et al., 2011*) with, for instance, different patterns of quality decrease
215 along reads. Differences in read quality and error profiles in turn require different calling pipelines.

216 To pinpoint the precise technical source of the discrepancy would require further forensic
217 inquiries into the details of the heterogeneous sample preparation and data processing pipelines
218 used throughout the 1kGP. Given the progress in sequencing and calling that occurred since the
219 early phases of the 1kGP (Figure 2), it is likely that the source of these biases is not longer being
220 actively introduced in recent sequence data.

221 However, because the 1kGP data is widely used as a reference database, these variants are
222 still being imputed onto new genotype data and can then impact association studies for a variety
223 of phenotypes. Even though significant association of a variant with a quality metric is not in
224 itself an indication that the variant is spurious, we would recommend to carefully examine GWAS
225 associations for such variants, e.g. by repeating the analysis without the 1kGP as part of the
226 imputation panel.

227 For analyses where individual variants cannot be examined individually (mutation profiles,
228 distributions of allele frequencies, polygenic risk scores), we would recommend to simply discard the
229 Q -associated SNPs or the individuals with $Q < 30$ (lists of such variants and sample IDs are provided
230 in the Supplementary Data). We also recommend that imputation servers discard individuals with
231 low Q (or at least provide the option of performing the imputation without). Given the value of freely
232 accessible data, resequencing individuals with low Q would also likely be a worthwhile investment
233 for the community.

234 Conclusion

235 On a technical front, we were surprised that strong association between variants and technical
236 covariates in the 1kGP project had not been identified before. The genome-wide logistic regression

Pubmed ID	Disease/Trait	rsID	GWAS	<i>Q</i>
			$-\log_{10} p$	$-\log_{10} p$ (adjusted)
28654678	EBV copy number in lymphoblastoid cell lines	rs201761909	5.7	78.11
		rs201130852	5.05	72.28
		rs201255786	5.7	68.97
		rs200655768	6.52	66.67
		rs184202621	5.52	60.45
		rs80274284	6	56.15
		rs200699422	5.3	7.43
23527680	ADHD [†]	rs6057648	5.4	20.5
28928442	Cold sores	rs201471471	6.52	7.87
26053186	HMPMA [‡] levels in smokers	rs60136336	5.7	2.25
28270201	HDL cholesterol	rs453755	7.52	5.29
23023329	Prostate cancer	rs103294	*15.3	4.32
28334899	HDL cholesterol	rs103294	*29.3	4.32
28240269	Blood protein levels	rs103294	*72.7	4.32
27863252	High light scatter reticulocyte count	rs3794738	*13.15	3.73
29534301	Response to hepatitis B vaccine	rs9273062	*9.7	3.36
21386085	Metabolic syndrome	rs301	*10.52	3.02
26830138	Alzheimer disease and age of onset	rs77894924	6.7	2.77
29617998	Intraocular pressure	rs4963156	*22.4	2.52
28698626	Immunoglobulin A vasculitis	rs11015915	5.05	2.45
26974007	Chronic inflammatory diseases	rs3124998	*8.05	2.33
26634245	Post bronchodilator FEV1/FVC ratio	rs451000	6	2.28
		rs443874	5.3	2.26
		rs400942	6	2.2
25918132	Diisocyanate-induced asthma	rs76780579	6	2.09

Table 2. Recent publications that reported *Q*-associated variants as close to or above the genome-wide significant threshold. The variants reaching genome wide significance have a star (*). The black text colour indicates that this variant is twice as frequent in individuals with *Q* < 30, grey text colour indicates that these variants are less than twice as frequent in individuals with *Q* < 30 (See Figure S7). [†] Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. [‡] 3-hydroxy-1-methylpropylmercapturic acid.

analysis of genotype on quality metric is straightforward, and should probably be a standard in a variety of -omics studies. The logistic factor analysis is more computationally demanding but produces more robust results (*Song et al., 2015*). Both approaches produce comparable results.

More generally, to improve the quality of genomic reference datasets, we can proceed by addition of new and better data and by better curation of existing data. Given rapid technological progress, the focus of genomic research is naturally on the data generation side. However, cleaning up existing databases is also important to avoid generating spurious results. The present findings

244 suggest that a substantial fraction of data from the final release of the 1kGP project is overdue for
245 retirement or re-sequencing.

246 Methods

247 Code and data availability

248 Since this data is primarily performed using publicly available data, we provide fully reproducible and
249 publicly available on [GitHub](#). This repository includes scripts used for data download, processing,
250 analysis and plotting.

251 Metadata

252 The metadata used in this analysis was compiled from each of the index files from the 1kGP file
253 system. Average quality of mapped bases Q per sample was obtained from the BAS files associated
254 with each alignment file. Each BAS file has metadata regarding each sequencing event for each
255 sample. If a sample was sequenced more than once, we took the average of each Q score from
256 each sequencing instance. The submission dates and sequencing centres for each sample in the
257 analysis was available in the sequence index files.

258 Quality Controls

259 For the mutation spectrum analysis, we reproduced the quality control and data filtering pipelines
260 used by Harris et al. as they applied the current state of the art quality thresholds to remove
261 questionable sequences for detecting population level differences. Several mask files were applied
262 to remove regions of the genome that might be lower quality, or might have very different mutation
263 rates or base pair complexity compared to the rest of the genome. The 1kGP strict mask was used
264 to remove low quality regions of the genome, highly conserved regions were removed using the
265 phastCons100way mask file and highly repetitive regions were removed using the NestedRepeats
266 mask file from RepeatMasker. Furthermore, only sites with missingness below 0.01, MAF less than
267 0.1, and MAF greater than 0.9 were considered. In total, 7,786,023 diallelic autosomal variants
268 passed our quality controls for the mutation spectrum analysis. We calculated the mutation
269 spectrum of base pair triplets for the list of significant variants for the JPT population using a similar
270 method as described in ([Harris and Pritchard, 2017](#)).

271 For the reverse GWAS, the only filtration used was the application of an minor and major
272 allele frequency cutoff of 0.000599 (removing singletons, doubletons and tripletons) resulting in
273 a total of S=28,516,063 variants included in the test. We also used the NestedRepeats mask file
274 to flag variants inside repetitive regions as these were analyzed separately for false discovery
275 rate estimation. Variants flagged by the 1kGP strict mask are included in the association test and
276 included in the FDR adjustment. These variants are only removed after the FDR and excluded from
277 downstream discussion of error patterns, since most population genetics analyses use the strict
278 mask as a filter, and we expect to find problematic variants in filtered regions.

279 Testing the association of quality to genotype

When conducting a statistical analysis of population genetics data, we must account for population structure. In a typical GWAS, we are interested in modelling the phenotype as a function of the genotype. Here we have the opposite situation, where the quantitative variable (Q) is used as an explanatory variable. So we consider models where the genotype y is a function of an expected frequency π_{si} , based on population structure, and Q . The null model is

$$y_{si} \mid \pi_{si} \sim \text{Binomial}(2, \pi_{si}). \quad (1)$$

280 The expected frequency for a SNP s and individual i can be estimated using principal component
281 analysis, categorical population labels, or logistic factor analysis ([Song et al., 2015](#)). The alternative
282 model then takes in Q as a covariate:

$$y_{si} \mid q_i, \mathbf{h}^{(i)} \sim \text{Binomial}\left(2, \text{logit}^{-1}\left(\text{logit}(\pi_{si}) + \beta_s q_i\right)\right). \quad (2)$$

283 Under the null hypothesis the slope coefficient β_s is zero and Model (2) reduces to Model (1).
 284 β_s denotes the association to average quality of mapped bases Q to genotype y_s . To test the null
 285 hypothesis, we use the generalized likelihood ratio test statistic, whose deviance is a measure of
 286 the marginal importance of adding Q in the model. The deviance test statistic under the null model
 287 is approximately chi-square distributed with one degrees of freedom.

288 We run a total of S regressions, where S is the total number of genomic loci. Given the large
 289 number of tests, the large proportion of expected null hypotheses and the positive dependencies
 290 across the genome, we used the two-stage Benjamini & Hochberg step-up FDR-controlling proce-
 291 dure to adjust the p -values (*Benjamini et al., 2006*). By using a nominal Type-I error rate $\alpha = 0.01$, a
 292 total of 15,270 variants were found to be statistically significance. See Supplementary Data for a list
 293 of variants and adjusted p -values.

294 Individual-specific allele frequency

Examples of models that are widely used to account population structure include the Balding-Nichols model (*Balding and Nichols, 1995*), and the Pritchard-Stephens-Donnelly model (*Pritchard et al., 2000*). These and several other similar models used in GWAS studies can be understood in terms of the following matrix factorization.

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{H} \quad (3)$$

where the i^{th} column ($\mathbf{h}^{(i)}$) of the $K \times I$ matrix \mathbf{H} encodes the population structure of the i^{th} individual and the s^{th} row of the $S \times K$ matrix \mathbf{A} determines how that structure is manifested in SNP s . When Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium holds, observed genotype can be assumed to be generated by the following Binomial model.

$$y_{si} \mid \pi_{si} \sim \text{Binomial}(2, \pi_{si}) \quad (4)$$

295 for $s = 1 \dots S$ and $i = i, \dots, I$, where $y_{si} \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ and $\text{logit}(\pi_{si})$ is the (s, i) element of the matrix \mathbf{L}
 296 such that π_{si} is the individual-specific allele frequency.

To test whether quality is associated to genotype while adjusting for population structure, we performed the Genotype-Conditional Association Test (GCAT) proposed by (*Song et al., 2015*). The GCAT is a regression approach that assumes the following model.

$$y_{si} \mid q_i, \mathbf{h}^{(i)} \sim \text{Binomial}\left(2, \text{logit}^{-1}\left(\sum_{k=0}^K a_{sk} h_{ki} + \beta_s q_i\right)\right) \quad (5)$$

297 for $s = 1 \dots S$ and $i = i, \dots, I$ ($S = 28,516,063$ and $I = 2,504$) and where $\hat{h}_{0i} = 1$ so that a_{s0} is the
 298 intercept term and $\text{logit}(\pi_{si}) = \sum_{k=0}^K a_{sk} h_{ki}$. The vectors \mathbf{h}^i of the matrix \mathbf{H} are unobserved but can
 299 be estimated using Logistic Factor Analysis (LFA) (*Song et al., 2015*) and are therefore used directly
 300 in the model. We approximated the population structure using $K = 5$ latent components from a
 301 subsampled genotype matrix consisting of $M = 2,306,130$ SNPs (we picked SNPs from the 1kGP
 302 OMNI 2.5). To avoid possible biases in computing PCA from the biased variants, we considered the
 303 genotype matrix L obtained by downsampling 1kGP variants the positions from the OMNI 2.5M
 304 chip.

305 Imputation

306 Using the Michigan Imputation Server, we imputed the genotype data from 1kGP for chromosomes
 307 1 and 2. We used the genotyped data from the 1kGP Omni 2.5M chip genotype data. The VCF file
 308 returned from the server was then downloaded and used to search for the number of significant
 309 variants successfully imputed.

310 **Acknowledgments**

311 We would like to thank Kelly Harris for sharing her mutation spectrum scripts. We would also like to
312 thank the members of the Gravel lab for their help with coding and useful discussions.

313 **References**

- 314 1000 Genomes Project Consortium (2010). A map of human genome variation from population-scale sequencing.
315 *Nature*, 467(7319):1061–73.
- 316 1000 Genomes Project Consortium (2012). An integrated map of genetic variation. *Nature*, 135:0–9.
- 317 Aikens, R. C., Johnson, K. E., and Voight, B. F. (2019). Signals of Variation in Human Mutation Rate at Multiple
318 Levels of Sequence Context. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*.
- 319 Alexandrov, L. B., Nik-Zainal, S., Wedge, D. C., Aparicio, S. A., Behjati, S., Biankin, A. V., Bignell, G. R., Bolli, N.,
320 Borg, A., Børresen-Dale, A. L., Boyault, S., Burkhardt, B., Butler, A. P., Caldas, C., Davies, H. R., Desmedt, C.,
321 Eils, R., Eyfjörd, J. E., Foekens, J. A., Greaves, M., Hosoda, F., Hutter, B., Ilicic, T., Imbeaud, S., Imlielinsk, M.,
322 Jäger, N., Jones, D. T., Jonas, D., Knappskog, S., Koo, M., Lakhani, S. R., López-Otín, C., Martin, S., Munshi,
323 N. C., Nakamura, H., Northcott, P. A., Pajic, M., Papaemmanuil, E., Paradiso, A., Pearson, J. V., Puente, X. S.,
324 Raine, K., Ramakrishna, M., Richardson, A. L., Richter, J., Rosenstiel, P., Schlesner, M., Schumacher, T. N., Span,
325 P. N., Teague, J. W., Totoki, Y., Tutt, A. N., Valdés-Mas, R., Van Buuren, M. M., Van 'T Veer, L., Vincent-Salomon,
326 A., Waddell, N., Yates, L. R., Zucman-Rossi, J., Andrew Futreal, P., McDermott, U., Lichter, P., Meyerson, M.,
327 Grimmond, S. M., Siebert, R., Campo, E., Shibata, T., Pfister, S. M., Campbell, P. J., and Stratton, M. R. (2013).
328 Signatures of mutational processes in human cancer. *Nature*, 500(7463):415–421.
- 329 Astle, W. J., Elding, H., Jiang, T., Allen, D., Ruklisa, D., Mann, A. L., Mead, D., Bouman, H., Riveros-Mckay, F.,
330 Kostadima, M. A., et al. (2016). The allelic landscape of human blood cell trait variation and links to common
331 complex disease. *Cell*, 167(5):1415–1429.
- 332 Balding, D. J. and Nichols, R. A. (1995). A method for quantifying differentiation between populations at
333 multi-allelic loci and its implications for investigating identity and paternity. *Genetica*, 96(1-2):3–12.
- 334 Benjamini, Y., Krieger, A. M., and Yekutieli, D. (2006). Adaptive linear step-up procedures that control the false
335 discovery rate. *Biometrika*.
- 336 Consortium, . G. P. et al. (2015). A global reference for human genetic variation. *Nature*, 526(7571):68.
- 337 Ebejer, J. L., Duffy, D. L., Van Der Werf, J., Wright, M. J., Montgomery, G., Gillespie, N. A., Hickie, I. B., Martin,
338 N. G., and Medland, S. E. (2013). Genome-wide association study of inattention and hyperactivity-impulsivity
339 measured as quantitative traits. *Twin Research and Human Genetics*.
- 340 Ellinghaus, D., Jostins, L., Spain, S. L., Cortes, A., Bethune, J., Han, B., Park, Y. R., Raychaudhuri, S., Pouget, J. G.,
341 Hübenthal, M., et al. (2016). Analysis of five chronic inflammatory diseases identifies 27 new associations and
342 highlights disease-specific patterns at shared loci. *Nature genetics*, 48(5):510.
- 343 Gao, X. R., Huang, H., Nannini, D. R., Fan, F., and Kim, H. (2018). Genome-wide association analyses identify new
344 loci influencing intraocular pressure. *Human molecular genetics*, 27(12):2205–2213.
- 345 Harris, K. (2015). Evidence for recent, population-specific evolution of the human mutation rate. *Proceedings of
346 the National Academy of Sciences*, 112(11):3439–3444.
- 347 Harris, K. and Pritchard, J. K. (2017). Rapid evolution of the human mutation spectrum. *eLife*, 6.
- 348 Herold, C., Hooli, B. V., Mullin, K., Liu, T., Roehr, J. T., Mattheisen, M., Parrado, A. R., Bertram, L., Lange, C., and
349 Tanzi, R. E. (2016). Family-based association analyses of imputed genotypes reveal genome-wide significant
350 association of alzheimer's disease with osbpl6, ptprg, and pdcl3. *Molecular psychiatry*, 21(11):1608.
- 351 International HapMap Consortium (2005). A haplotype map of the human genome. *Nature*, 437(7063):1299–320.
- 352 Kraja, A. T., Vaidya, D., Pankow, J. S., Goodarzi, M. O., Assimes, T. L., Kullo, I. J., Sovio, U., Mathias, R. A., Sun, Y. V.,
353 Franceschini, N., Absher, D., Li, G., Zhang, Q., Feitosa, M. F., Glazer, N. L., Haritunians, T., Hartikainen, A. L.,
354 Knowles, J. W., North, K. E., Iribarren, C., Kral, B., Yanek, L., O'Reilly, P. F., McCarthy, M. I., Jaquish, C., Couper,
355 D. J., Chakravarti, A., Psaty, B. M., Becker, L. C., Province, M. A., Boerwinkle, E., Quertermous, T., Palotie, L.,
356 Jarvelin, M. R., Becker, D. M., Kardia, S. L., Rotter, J. I., Chen, Y. D. I., and Borecki, I. B. (2011). A bivariate
357 genome-wide approach to metabolic syndrome: STAMPEED Consortium. *Diabetes*.

- 358 Lan, T., Lin, H., Zhu, W., Laurent, T. C. A. M., Yang, M., Liu, X., Wang, J., Wang, J., Yang, H., Xu, X., and Guo, X. (2017).
359 Deep whole-genome sequencing of 90 han chinese genomes. *GigaScience*, 6(9):gix067.
- 360 Lek, M., Karczewski, K. J., Minikel, E. V., Samocha, K. E., Banks, E., Fennell, T., O'Donnell-Luria, A. H., Ware, J. S.,
361 Hill, A. J., Cummings, B. B., Tukiainen, T., Birnbaum, D. P., Kosmicki, J. A., Duncan, L. E., Estrada, K., Zhao, F.,
362 Zou, J., Pierce-Hoffman, E., Bergthout, J., Cooper, D. N., Deflaux, N., DePristo, M., Do, R., Flannick, J., Fromer,
363 M., Gauthier, L., Goldstein, J., Gupta, N., Howrigan, D., Kiezun, A., Kurki, M. I., Moonshine, A. L., Natarajan,
364 P., Orozco, L., Peloso, G. M., Poplin, R., Rivas, M. A., Ruano-Rubio, V., Rose, S. A., Ruderfer, D. M., Shakir, K.,
365 Stenson, P. D., Stevens, C., Thomas, B. P., Tiao, G., Tusie-Luna, M. T., Weisburd, B., Won, H. H., Yu, D., Altshuler,
366 D. M., Ardissino, D., Boehnke, M., Danesh, J., Donnelly, S., Elosua, R., Florez, J. C., Gabriel, S. B., Getz, G., Glatt,
367 S. J., Hultman, C. M., Kathiresan, S., Laakso, M., McCarroll, S., McCarthy, M. I., McGovern, D., McPherson, R.,
368 Neale, B. M., Palotie, A., Purcell, S. M., Saleheen, D., Scharf, J. M., Sklar, P., Sullivan, P. F., Tuomilehto, J., Tsuang,
369 M. T., Watkins, H. C., Wilson, J. G., Daly, M. J., and MacArthur, D. G. (2016). Analysis of protein-coding genetic
370 variation in 60,706 humans. *Nature*, 536(7616):285–291.
- 371 López-Mejías, R., Carmona, F. D., Castañeda, S., Genre, F., Remuzgo-Martínez, S., Sevilla-Perez, B., Ortego-
372 Centeno, N., Llorca, J., Ubilla, B., Mijares, V., et al. (2017). A genome-wide association study suggests the hla
373 class ii region as the major susceptibility locus for iga vasculitis. *Scientific reports*, 7(1):5088.
- 374 Lutz, S. M., Cho, M. H., Young, K., Hersh, C. P., Castaldi, P. J., McDonald, M.-L., Regan, E., Mattheisen, M., DeMeo,
375 D. L., Parker, M., et al. (2015). A genome-wide association study identifies risk loci for spirometric measures
376 among smokers of european and african ancestry. *BMC genetics*, 16(1):138.
- 377 Mallik, S., Li, H., Lipson, M., Mathieson, I., Gymrek, M., Racimo, F., Zhao, M., Chennagiri, N., Nordenfelt, S.,
378 Tandon, A., Skoglund, P., Lazaridis, I., Sankararaman, S., Fu, Q., Rohland, N., Renaud, G., Erlich, Y., Willem, T.,
379 Gallo, C., Spence, J. P., Song, Y. S., Poletti, G., Balloux, F., Van Driem, G., De Knijff, P., Romero, I. G., Jha, A. R.,
380 Behar, D. M., Bravi, C. M., Capelli, C., Hervig, T., Moreno-Estrada, A., Posukh, O. L., Balanovska, E., Balanovsky,
381 O., Karachanak-Yankova, S., Sahakyan, H., Toncheva, D., Yepiskoposyan, L., Tyler-Smith, C., Xue, Y., Abdulla, M. S., Ruiz-Linares, A., Beall, C. M., Di Rienzo, A., Jeong, C., Starikovskaya, E. B., Metspalu, E., Parik, J., Villem, R., Henn, B. M., Hodoglugil, U., Mahley, R., Sajantila, A., Stamatoyannopoulos, G., Wee, J. T., Khusainova, R.,
382 Khusnutdinova, E., Litvinov, S., Ayodo, G., Comas, D., Hammer, M. F., Kivisild, T., Klitz, W., Winkler, C. A., Labuda, D., Bamshad, M., Jorde, L. B., Tishkoff, S. A., Watkins, W. S., Metspalu, M., Dryomov, S., Sukernik, R., Singh, L.,
383 Thangaraj, K., Paäbo, S., Kelso, J., Patterson, N., and Reich, D. (2016). The Simons Genome Diversity Project:
384 300 genomes from 142 diverse populations. *Nature*, 538(7624):201–206.
- 385 Mandage, R., Telford, M., Rodríguez, J. A., Farré, X., Layouni, H., Marigorta, U. M., Cundiff, C., Heredia-Genestar,
386 J. M., Navarro, A., and Santpere, G. (2017). Genetic factors affecting EBV copy number in lymphoblastoid cell
387 lines derived from the 1000 Genome Project samples. *PLoS ONE*.
- 388 Mathieson, I. and Reich, D. (2017). Differences in the rare variant spectrum among human populations. *PLoS
389 Genetics*, 13(2).
- 390 McCarthy, S., Das, S., Kretzschmar, W., Delaneau, O., Wood, A. R., Teumer, A., Kang, H. M., Fuchsberger, C.,
391 Danecek, P., Sharp, K., et al. (2016). A reference panel of 64,976 haplotypes for genotype imputation. *Nature
392 genetics*, 48(10):1279.
- 393 Minoche, A. E., Dohm, J. C., and Himmelbauer, H. (2011). Evaluation of genomic high-throughput sequencing
394 data generated on Illumina HiSeq and Genome Analyzer systems. *Genome Biology*, 12(11).
- 395 Nagy, R., Boutin, T. S., Marten, J., Huffman, J. E., Kerr, S. M., Campbell, A., Evenden, L., Gibson, J., Amador, C.,
396 Howard, D. M., et al. (2017). Exploration of haplotype research consortium imputation for genome-wide
397 association studies in 20,032 generation scotland participants. *Genome medicine*, 9(1):23.
- 398 Nishida, N., Sugiyama, M., Sawai, H., Nishina, S., Sakai, A., Ohashi, J., Khor, S.-S., Kakisaka, K., Tsuchiura, T., Hino,
399 K., et al. (2018). Key hla-drb1-dqb1 haplotypes and role of the btl2 gene for response to a hepatitis b vaccine.
400 *Hepatology*, 68(3):848–858.
- 401 Park, S. L., Carmella, S. G., Chen, M., Patel, Y., Stram, D. O., Haiman, C. A., Le Marchand, L., and Hecht, S. S. (2015).
402 Mercapturic acids derived from the toxicants acrolein and crotonaldehyde in the urine of cigarette smokers
403 from five ethnic groups with differing risks for lung cancer. *PLoS One*, 10(6):e0124841.
- 404 Pfeifer, G. P., Denissenko, M. F., Olivier, M., Tretyakova, N., Hecht, S. S., and Hainaut, P. (2002). Tobacco smoke
405 carcinogens, DNA damage and p53 mutations in smoking-associated cancers. *Oncogene*, 21-48(6):7435–7451.

- 409 Pleasance, E. D., Stephens, P. J., O'Meara, S., McBride, D. J., Meynert, A., Jones, D., Lin, M. L., Beare, D., Lau,
410 K. W., Greenman, C., Varela, I., Nik-Zainal, S., Davies, H. R., Ordóez, G. R., Mudie, L. J., Latimer, C., Edkins, S.,
411 Stebbings, L., Chen, L., Jia, M., Leroy, C., Marshall, J., Menzies, A., Butler, A., Teague, J. W., Mangion, J., Sun, Y. A.,
412 McLaughlin, S. F., Peckham, H. E., Tsung, E. F., Costa, G. L., Lee, C. C., Minna, J. D., Gazdar, A., Birney, E., Rhodes,
413 M. D., McKernan, K. J., Stratton, M. R., Futreal, P. A., and Campbell, P. J. (2010). A small-cell lung cancer genome
414 with complex signatures of tobacco exposure. *Nature*, 463(7278):184–190.
- 415 Pritchard, J. K., Stephens, M., and Donnelly, P. (2000). Inference of population structure using multilocus genotype
416 data. *Genetics*, 155(2):945–959.
- 417 Shiraishi, Y., Tremmel, G., Miyano, S., and Stephens, M. (2015). A Simple Model-Based Approach to Inferring and
418 Visualizing Cancer Mutation Signatures. *PLoS Genetics*, 11(12).
- 419 Song, M., Hao, W., and Storey, J. D. (2015). Testing for genetic associations in arbitrarily structured populations.
420 *Nature genetics*, 47(5):550.
- 421 Spracklen, C. N., Chen, P., Kim, Y. J., Wang, X., Cai, H., Li, S., Long, J., Wu, Y., Wang, Y. X., Takeuchi, F., et al. (2017).
422 Association analyses of east asian individuals and trans-ancestry analyses with european individuals reveal
423 new loci associated with cholesterol and triglyceride levels. *Human molecular genetics*, 26(9):1770–1784.
- 424 Suhre, K., Arnold, M., Bhagwat, A. M., Cotton, R. J., Engelke, R., Raffler, J., Sarwath, H., Thareja, G., Wahl, A.,
425 DeLisle, R. K., et al. (2017). Connecting genetic risk to disease end points through the human blood plasma
426 proteome. *Nature communications*, 8:14357.
- 427 Tian, C., Hromatka, B. S., Kiefer, A. K., Eriksson, N., Noble, S. M., Tung, J. Y., and Hinds, D. A. (2017). Genome-wide
428 association and hla region fine-mapping studies identify susceptibility loci for multiple common infections.
429 *Nature communications*, 8(1):599.
- 430 van Dijk, E. L., Auger, H., Jaszczyzyn, Y., and Thermes, C. (2014). Ten years of next-generation sequencing
431 technology. *Trends in Genetics*, 30(9):418–426.
- 432 Xu, J., Mo, Z., Ye, D., Wang, M., Liu, F., Jin, G., Xu, C., Wang, X., Shao, Q., Chen, Z., et al. (2012). Genome-wide
433 association study in chinese men identifies two new prostate cancer risk loci at 9q31. 2 and 19q13. 4. *Nature
434 genetics*, 44(11):1231.
- 435 Yucesoy, B., Kaufman, K. M., Lummus, Z. L., Weirauch, M. T., Zhang, G., Cartier, A., Boulet, L.-P., Sastre, J.,
436 Quirce, S., Tarlo, S. M., et al. (2015). Genome-wide association study identifies novel loci associated with
437 diisocyanate-induced occupational asthma. *Toxicological Sciences*, 146(1):192–201.

Supplementary Figures

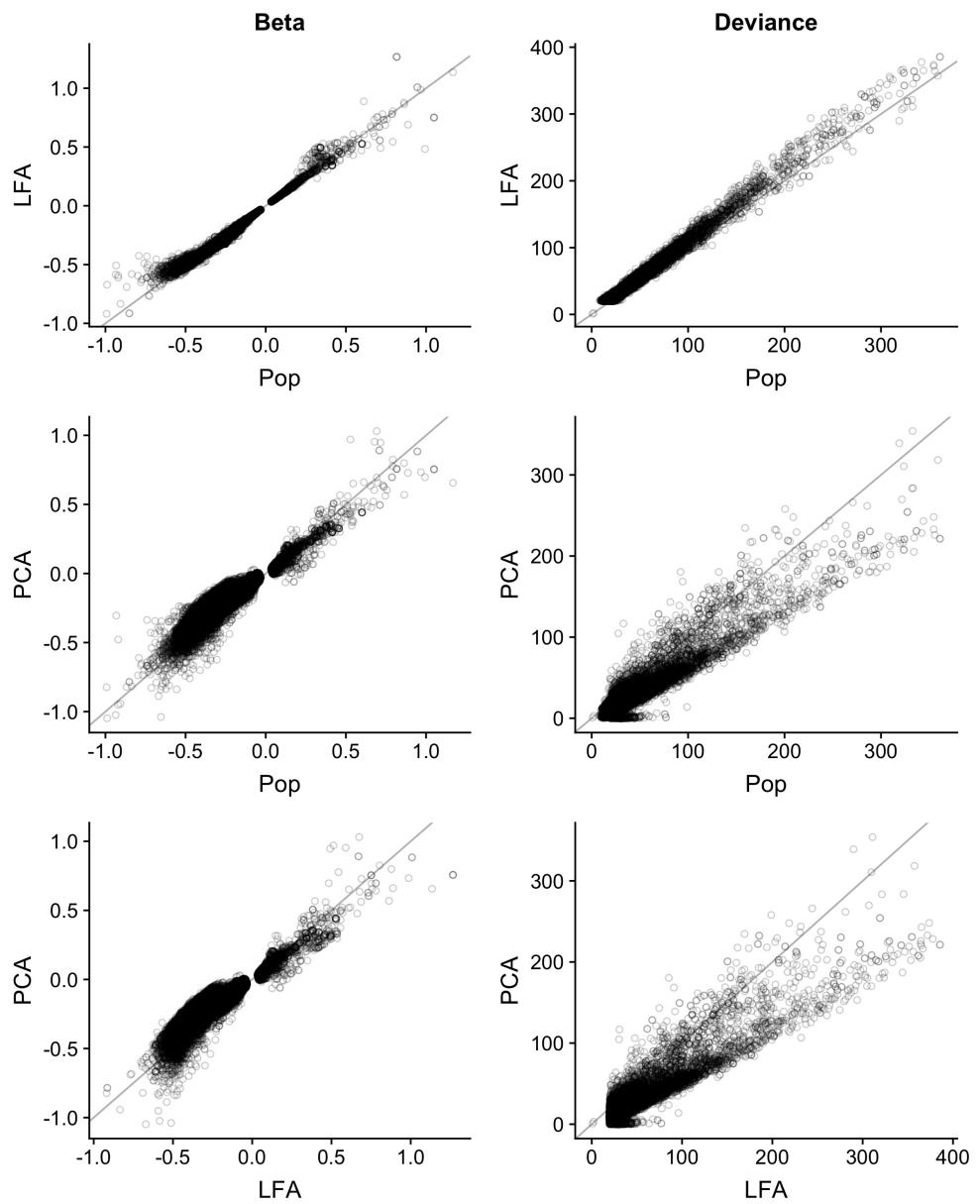


Figure S1. Comparison of three logistic regression models for testing association to Q . These methods model each genotype as a logistic function using principal components (PC), Population membership (Pop) or LFA as an offset. In these plots we are comparing the deviance from the null model in the 15,270 variants identified using the LFA model.

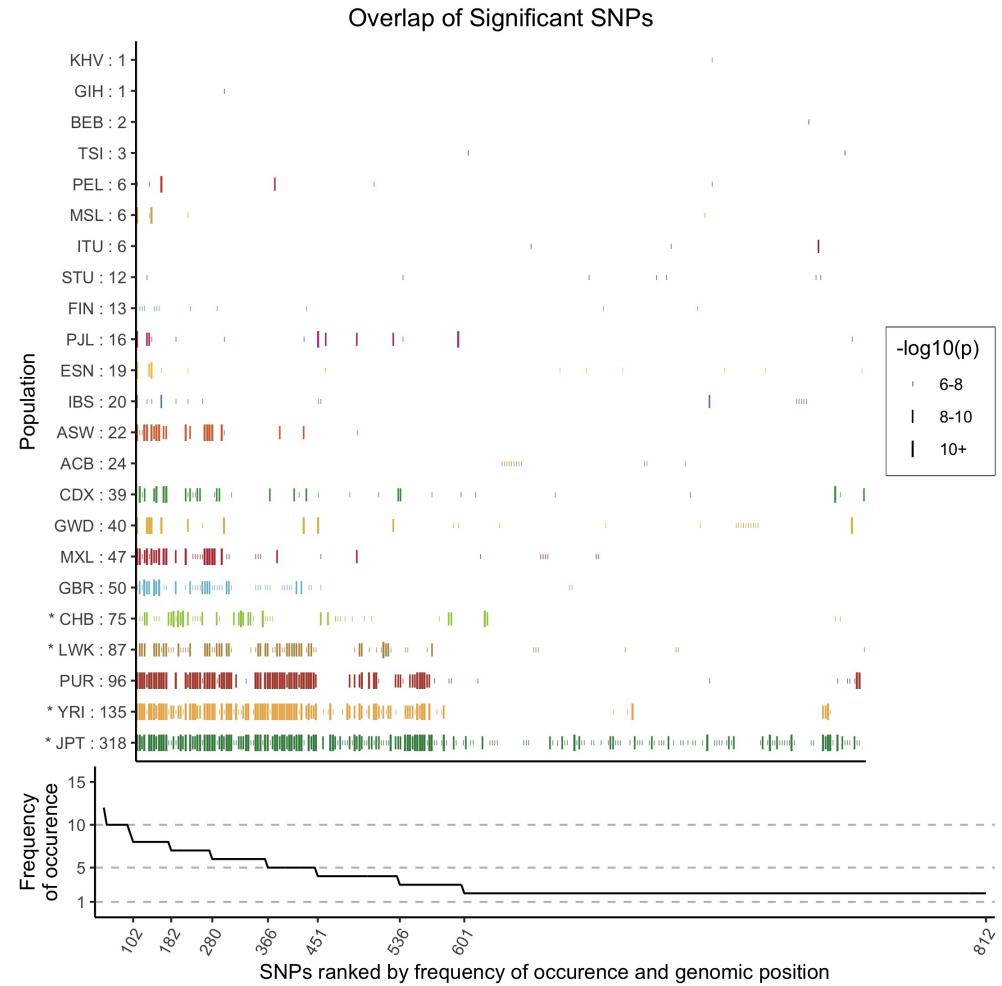


Figure S2. Variants associated with average quality of mapped bases Q in more than one population. The size of the vertical bars (|) are proportional to the $-\log_{10}(p)$ value of that SNP. The x axis is ranked by the frequency of occurrence of a SNP, then by genomic position. Phase 1 populations are marked by a star (*). The line plot underneath shows the number of populations for which a variant has reached significance. The populations that tend to have the most individuals with low Q also tend to have the most variants associated to Q .

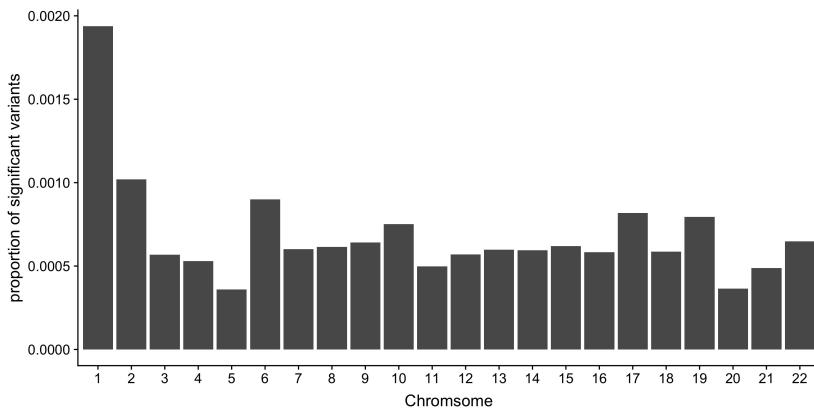


Figure S3. The proportion of *Q*-associated variants per chromosome.

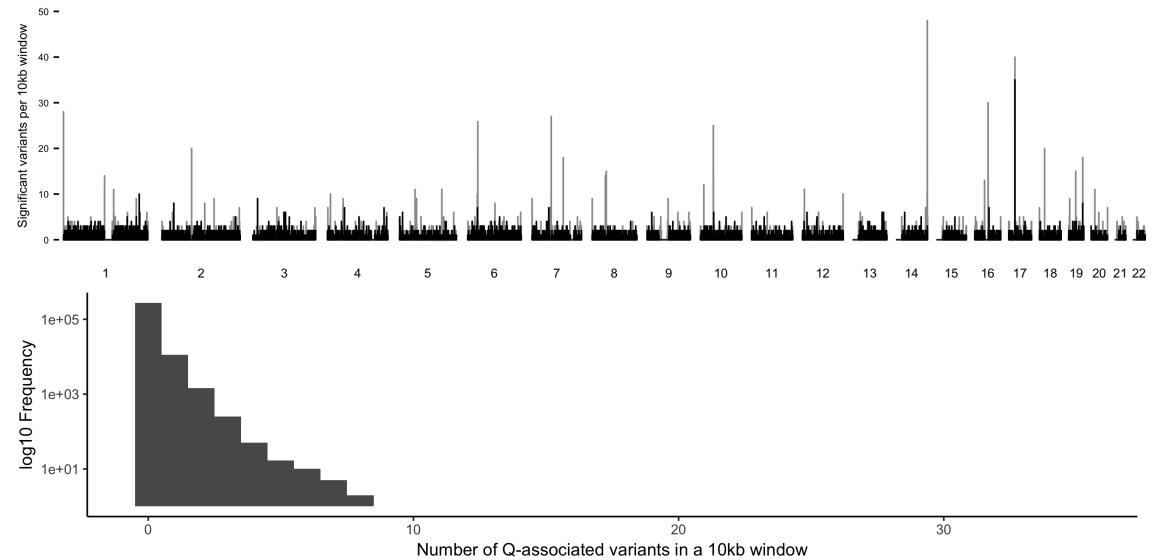


Figure S4. The number of *Q*-associated variants per 10kb window across the genome. Grey bars indicate regions within and black bars indicate regions outside the 1000 Genomes Project strict mask. One region not flagged by the 1000 Genomes Project strict mask in chromosome 17 has more than 10 variants per window.

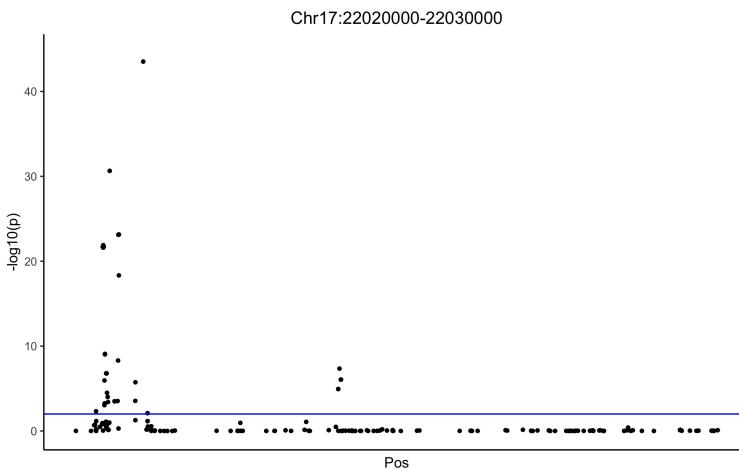


Figure S5. Manhattan plot of the $-\log_{10}(p)$ values for the reverse GWAS logistic regression analysis for the 10kb window with the most *Q*-associated variants per 10kb across the genome.

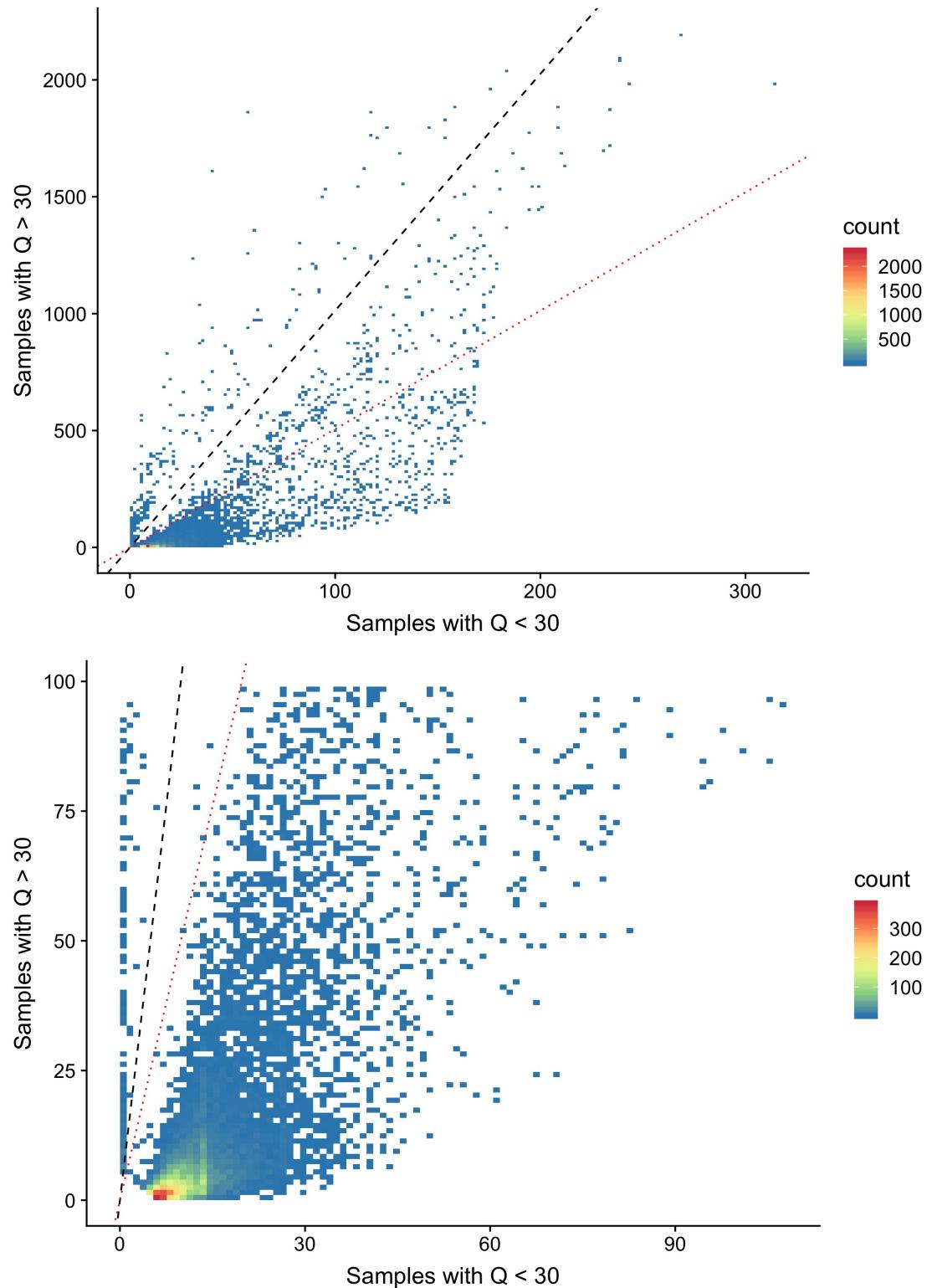


Figure S6. Site frequency spectrum plot comparing the allele frequency difference between individuals with low- and high- Q . The black dashed lines indicate equal allele frequencies while the red dotted line for variants twice as frequent in individuals with Q scores below 30. Two clusters of variants are visible, where the majority (92.7%) of the Q -associated variants are more than twice as frequent in individuals with low- Q .

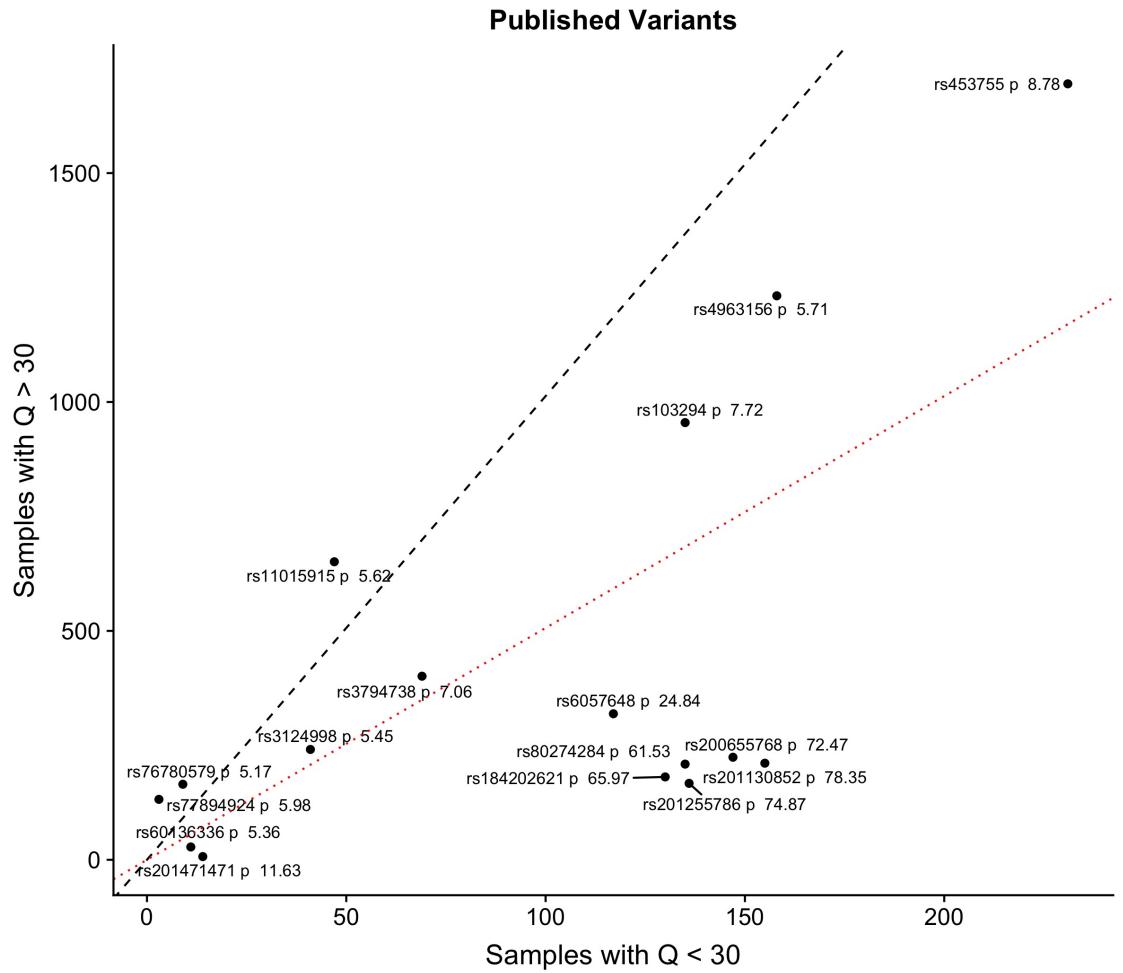


Figure S7. Site frequency spectrum plot comparing the frequency of Q -associated variants identified in publications, for individuals with Q scores above and below 30. The black dashed lines indicates equal allele frequencies while the red dotted line for variants twice as frequent in individuals with Q scores below 30. Each of the rsIDs of the variants are labelled for clarity.

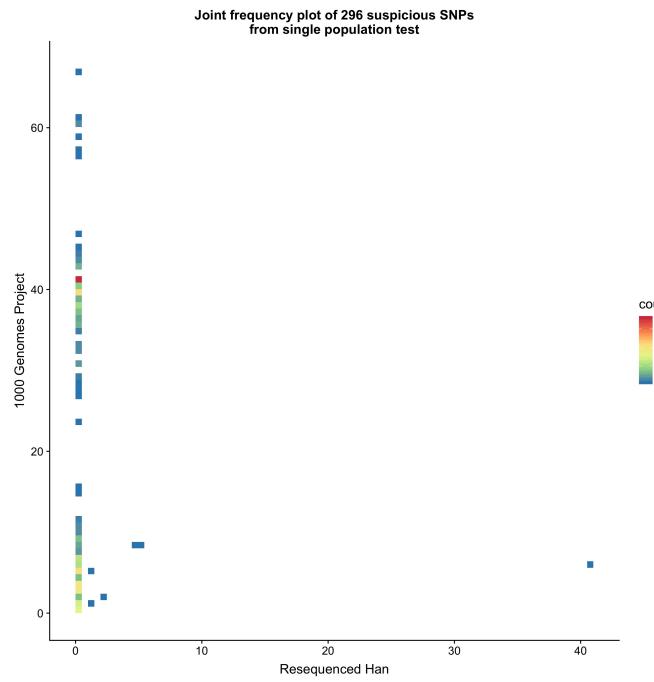


Figure S8. Site frequency spectrum plot comparing the original 1000 Genomes Project data to the high depth resequence data for variants that, in the 1000 Genomes Project, are both associated with Q and polymorphic in the 83 individuals that were resequenced. Among the 296 variants associated with Q in the single population tests within the 1000 Genomes Project CHB and CHS, 6 are present in the resequenced data (*Lan et al., 2017*).

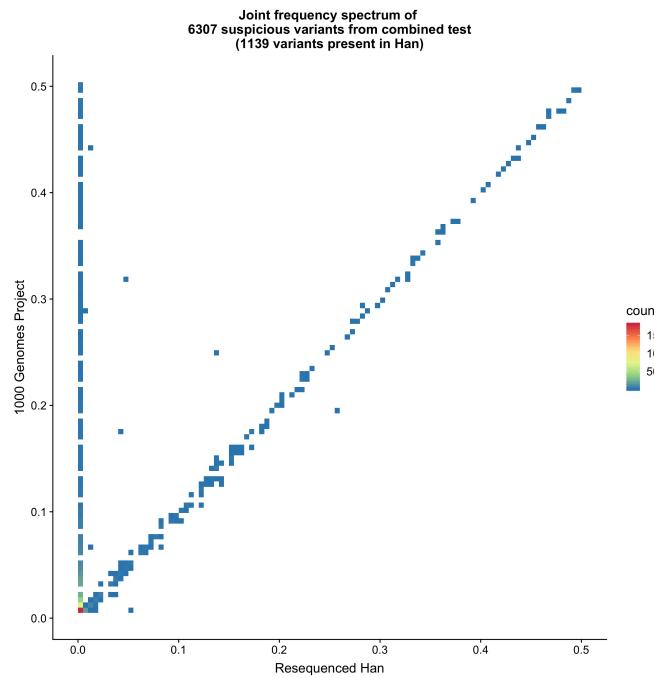


Figure S9. Site frequency spectrum plot comparing the original 1000 Genomes Project data to the high depth resequence data for variants that, in the 1000 Genomes Project, are both associated with Q and polymorphic in the 83 individuals that were resequenced. Among the 6,307 variants associated with Q in the GCAT model including all populations, 1,139 are present in the high depth resequenced individuals.

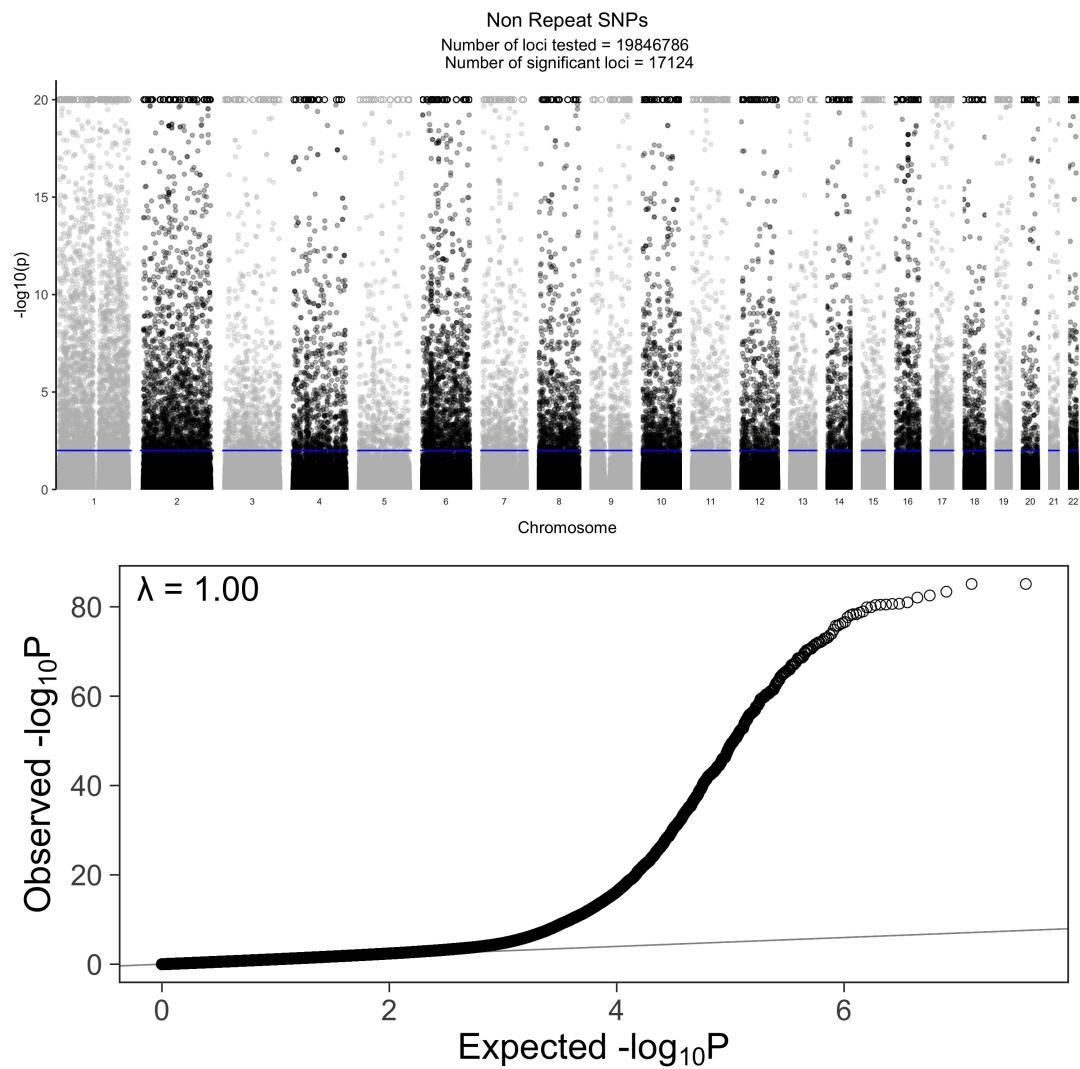


Figure S10. Association of SNPs in non-repetitive regions with Q . **A** Manhattan plot of the $-\log_{10}(p)$ values for the reverse GWAS logistic regression analysis for SNPs in non repetitive regions. There are 15,018 SNPs that reach p values greater than $p < 0.01$ after performing a two-stage Benjamini and Hochberg FDR adjustment. The circles (o) are variants that reached values greater than 20, for clarity we implemented hard ceiling at 20. **B** QQ plot of the unadjusted p values for the reverse GWAS logistic regression analysis for SNPs in non repetitive regions.

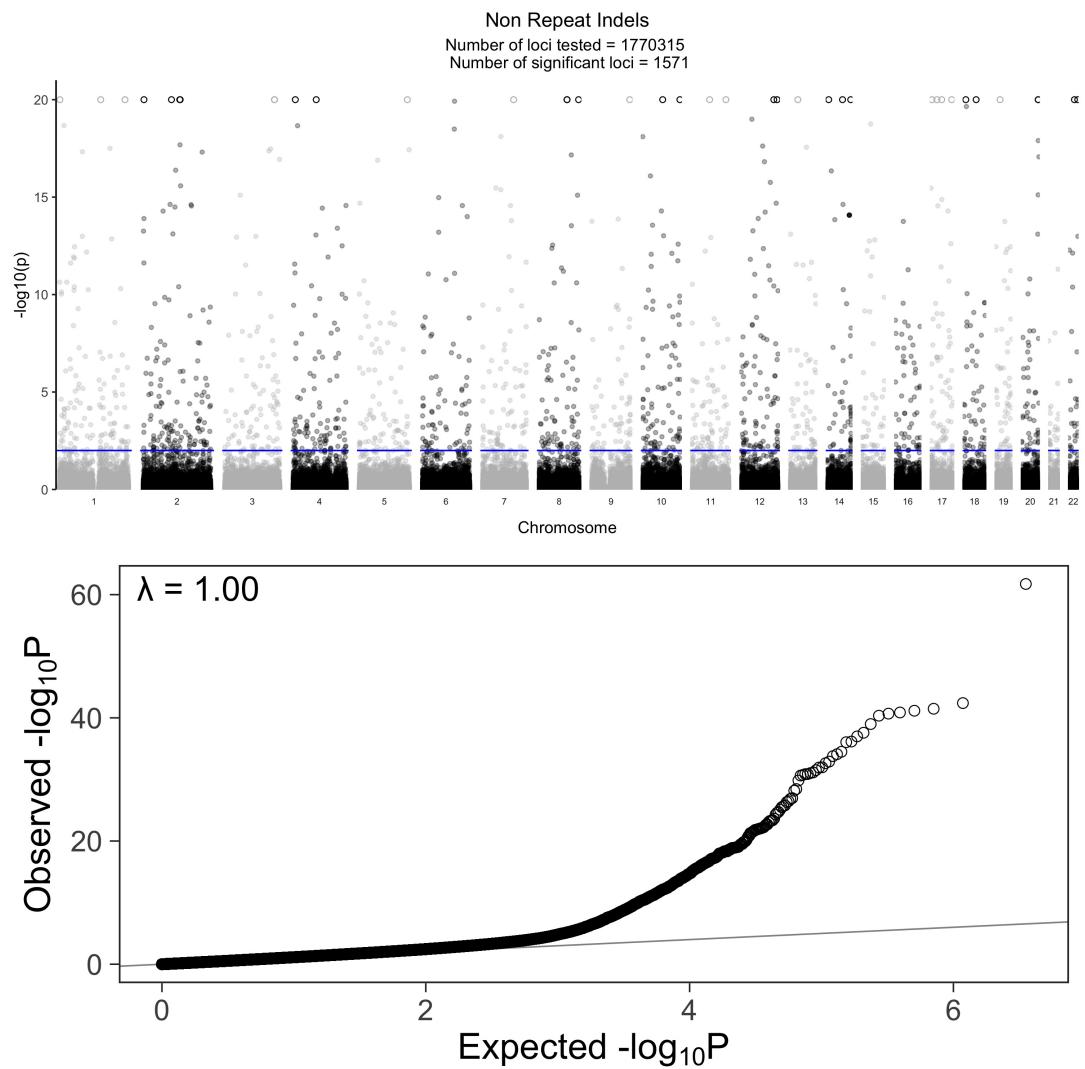


Figure S11. Association of indels in non-repetitive regions with Q . **A** Manhattan plot of the $-\log_{10}(p)$ values for the reverse GWAS logistic regression analysis for INDELs in non repetitive regions. There are 2,121 INDELs that reach p values greater than $p < 0.01$ after performing a two-stage Benjamini and Hochberg FDR adjustment. The circles (o) are variants that reached values greater than 20, for clarity we implemented hard ceiling at 20. **B** QQ plot of the unadjusted p values for the reverse GWAS logistic regression analysis for INDELs in non repetitive regions.

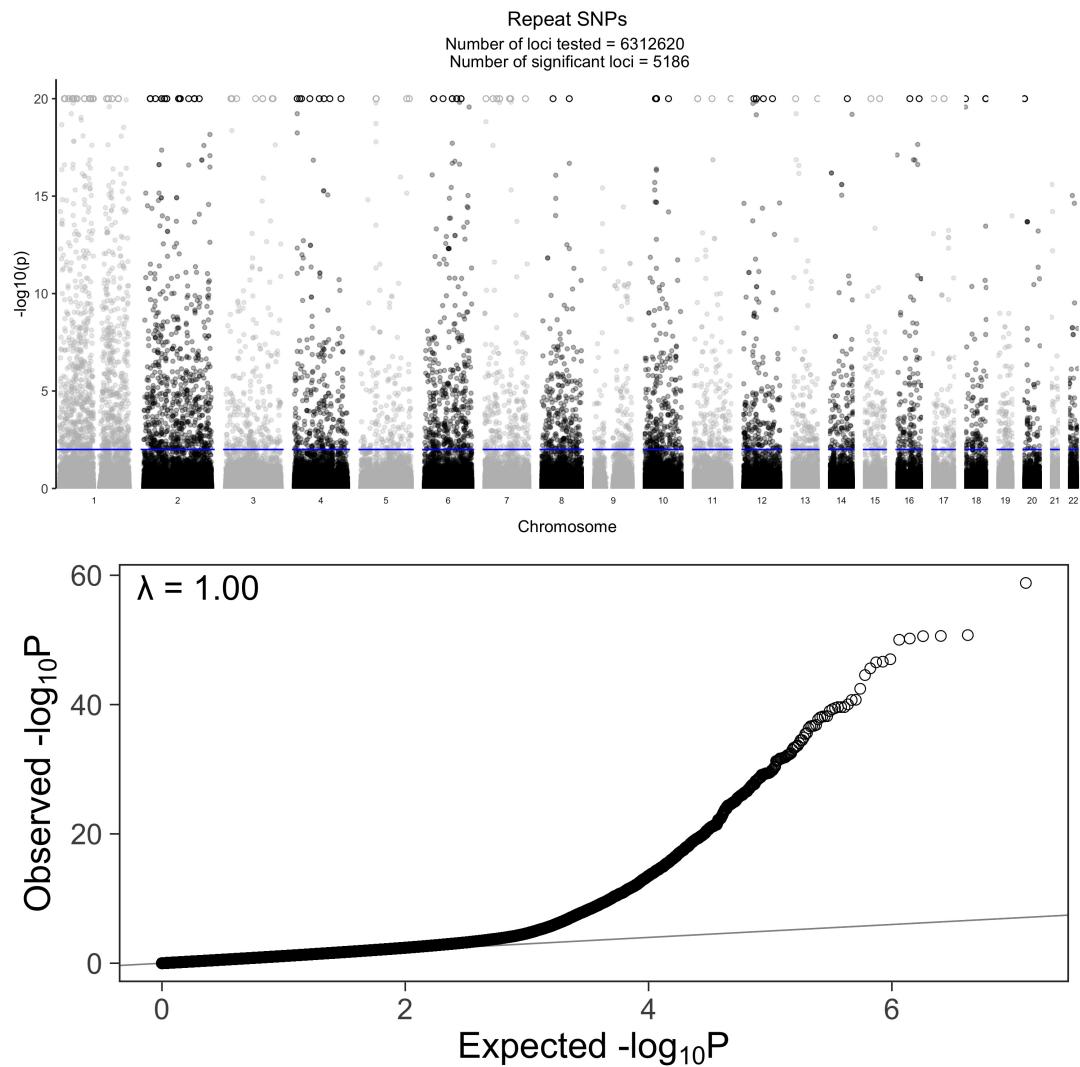


Figure S12. Association of SNPs in repetitive regions with Q . **A** Manhattan plot of the $-\log_{10}(p)$ values for the reverse GWAS logistic regression analysis for SNPs in repetitive regions. There are 4,405 SNPs that reach p values greater than $p < 0.01$ after performing a two-stage Benjamini and Hochberg FDR adjustment. The circles (\circ) are variants that reached values greater than 20, for clarity we implemented hard ceiling at 20. **B** QQ plot of the unadjusted p values for the reverse GWAS logistic regression analysis for SNPs in repetitive regions.

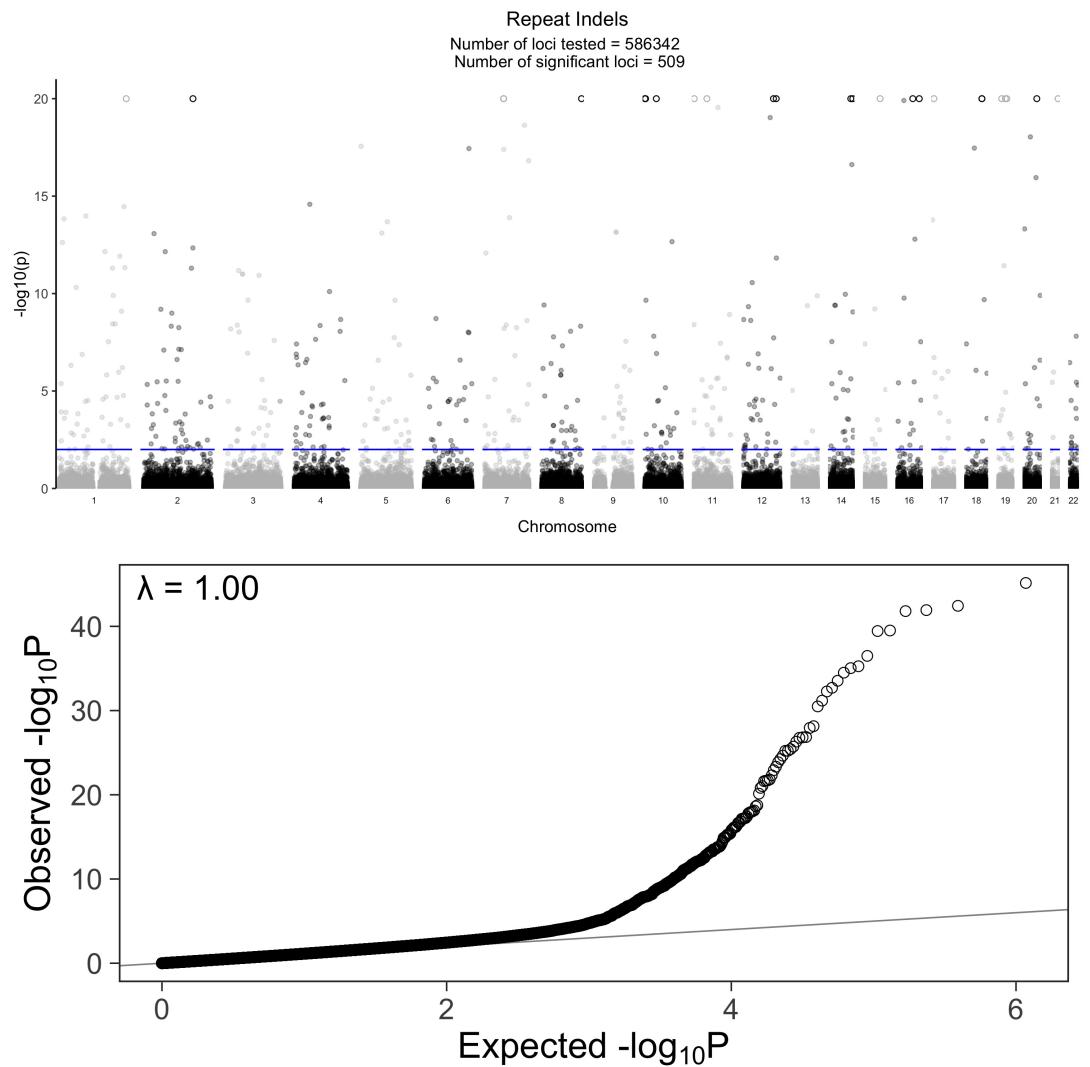


Figure S13. Association of indels in repetitive regions with Q . **A** Manhattan plot of the $-\log_{10}(p)$ values for the reverse GWAS logistic regression analysis for INDELs in repetitive regions. There are 642 INDELs that reach p values greater than $p < 0.01$ after performing a two-stage Benjamini and Hochberg FDR adjustment. The circles (\circ) are variants that reached values greater than 20, for clarity we implemented hard ceiling at 20. **B** QQ plot of the unadjusted p values for the reverse GWAS logistic regression analysis for INDELs in repetitive regions.

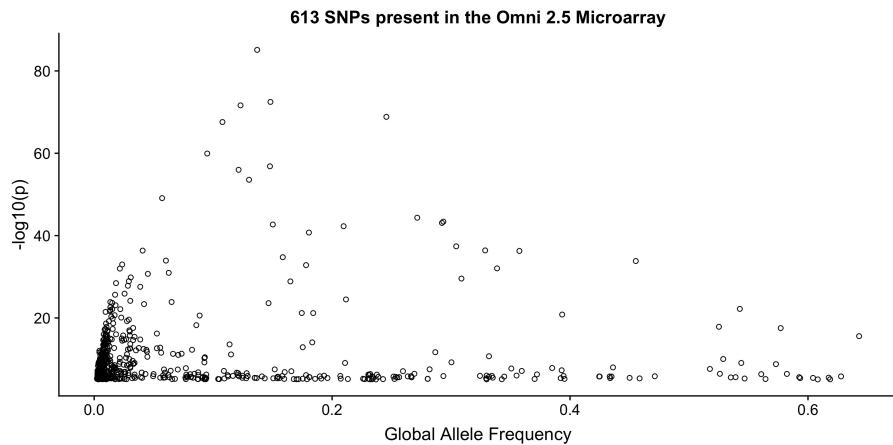


Figure S14. Estimated frequency and association strength of *Q*- associated variants present on Illumina's Omni 2.5 chip. Variants highly associated to *Q* tend to have low global allele frequencies.

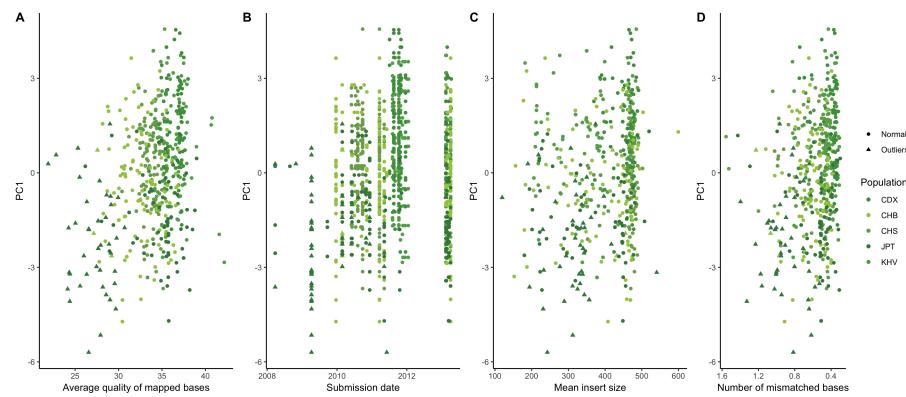


Figure S15. Sequencing metrics against the prevalence of the *AC→*CC mutational signature in 1000 Genomes Project. The average quality per mapped bases *Q* per individual shows some clustering with individuals with low-quality data showing elevated rates of the signature.

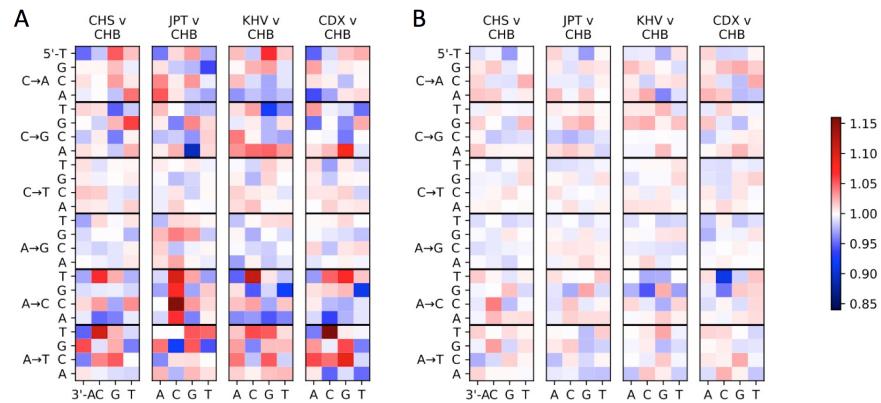


Figure S16. Comparing mutational signatures after removing *Q*-associated variants and after removing individuals with low *Q*. **A** The *AC→*CC mutational signature in JPT remains despite removing variants associated to quality. **B** Removing individuals with average quality per mapped bases *Q* below a threshold of 30 removes the mutational signature completely.