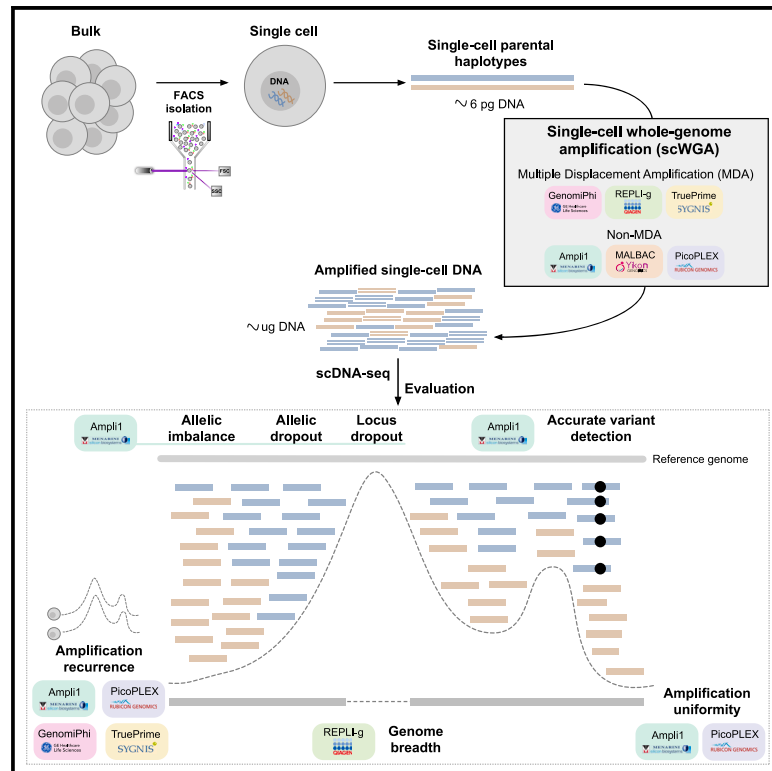


# Differential performance of strategies for single-cell whole-genome amplification

## Graphical abstract



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## In brief

Estévez-Gómez et al. evaluate the performance of six single-cell whole-genome amplification (scWGA) methods, focusing on important metrics such as genome coverage, amplification error, allelic dropout, and variant-calling accuracy. Their findings provide a useful guide to help researchers choose the most appropriate scWGA strategy for single-cell DNA experiments.

## Highlights

- No scWGA method is entirely superior; method choice should be based on study goals
- Non-MDA scWGA methods display a more uniform and reproducible amplification
- Ampli1 shows the lowest allelic dropout rate and one of the smaller false positive rates
- REPLI-g provides the longest amplicons and the highest genome breadth



## Resource

# Differential performance of strategies for single-cell whole-genome amplification

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**MOTIVATION** Single-cell whole-genome amplification (scWGA) is a critical step for the genomic study of single cells, yet its impact on downstream analysis remains poorly understood. Previous studies were not comprehensive in the number of methods tested and the metrics assessed. Besides, they have mostly been conducted or replicated by the original authors of a method rather than by independent third-party laboratories. Here, we test six commercially available scWGA methods to understand their performance and propose a guide for selecting the best scWGA approach for studies on single-cell genomics.

## SUMMARY

Single-cell genomics enables studying tissues and organisms at the highest resolution. However, since a cell contains a small amount of DNA, single-cell DNA sequencing (scDNA-seq) typically requires single-cell whole-genome amplification (scWGA). Unfortunately, scWGA methods introduce technical biases that complicate the interpretation of scDNA-seq data. We compared six scWGA methods, three MDA (multiple displacement amplification; GenomiPhi, REPLI-g, and TruePrime) and three non-MDA (Ampli1, MALBAC, and PicoPLEX), on 206 tumoral and 24 healthy human cells. scWGA methods performed differently depending on the parameter of interest. REPLI-g minimized regional amplification bias, while non-MDA methods showed a more uniform and reproducible amplification. Ampli1 exhibited the lowest allelic imbalance and dropout, the most accurate insertion or deletion (indel) and copy-number detection, and a low polymerase error rate. However, REPLI-g yielded higher DNA quantities, longer amplicons, and greater genome coverage. We offer a comprehensive guide for selecting a scWGA approach, outlining trade-offs that influence the interpretation of scDNA-seq data.

## INTRODUCTION

Advances in single-cell genomics have made the study of genomic and transcriptomic variation possible at the most fundamental level, rapidly generating new insights into complex biological systems from microbial diversity to immune response, development, or tumor progression.<sup>1–5</sup> While single-cell RNA sequencing has been thoroughly developed, single-cell DNA

sequencing (scDNA-seq) remains more elusive and challenging.<sup>6–8</sup> The difficulties of scDNA-seq mainly derive from the amplification step needed to sequence the small amount of DNA typically present in single cells (e.g., 6–7 pg in a human cell). Although whole-genome single-cell library preparation without preamplification is possible using direct tagmentation,<sup>9–12</sup> these strategies usually rely on microfluidic devices, which limits their adoption in standard research laboratories.



Most critically, tagmentation causes 50% random molecule loss, which prevents sensitive cell-level genotyping of variants other than copy numbers.<sup>13</sup> Finally, direct tagmentation methods necessitate the pooling and multiplexing of thousands of cells to generate sufficient library material, making them unsuitable for scenarios involving only one or a few cells. Therefore, single-cell whole-genome amplification (scWGA) is still a prerequisite in many applications of single-cell DNA genomics.

Multiple scWGA methods have been proposed, typically based on pure PCR,<sup>14–17</sup> multiple displacement amplification (MDA),<sup>18–20</sup> or a combination of both<sup>21,22</sup> but always relying on the use of DNA polymerases.<sup>23</sup> Unfortunately, DNA polymerases have a limited strand extension rate and processivity, and during scWGA, lots of priming and extension reactions are required.<sup>24</sup> This large amount of reactions entails significant technical errors such as (1) allelic imbalance, allelic dropout (ADO), and locus dropout (LDO), when a particular allele is preferentially amplified or not amplified at all or neither allele is amplified, respectively; (2) non-uniform coverage usually attributed to GC content affecting denaturation and primer binding efficiency<sup>25–27</sup>; (3) generation of chimeric DNA molecules originating false structural variants due to the polymerase strand displacement activity<sup>28–30</sup>; and (4) false single-nucleotide variants (SNVs) and insertions or deletions (indels) owing to the low fidelity of the DNA polymerase<sup>26</sup> (Figure S1A).

While several studies comparing the relative performance of different scWGA strategies have already been published, their scope is usually limited regarding the scWGA methods evaluated, the sequencing target, and the number and type of amplified cells<sup>20,29–43</sup> (Table S1). We are unaware of any study comparing many scWGA strategies on whole genomes obtained from many individual cells. Here, we report a comprehensive benchmark of six popular scWGA kits, over five next-generation sequencing (NGS) library preparation kits, and two NGS platforms using three human cell lines. In total, we obtained 230 single-cell whole-genome sequences under 54 experimental scenarios (Figure S1B). We show that MDA and non-MDA methods perform differently for distinct purposes and identify essential differences within these categories. Our results should help single-cell genomics researchers choose the best amplification method for their question of interest.

## RESULTS

We assessed the performance of six scWGA commercial kits, three MDA (GenomiPhi, REPLI-g, and TruePrime) and three non-MDA (Ampli1, MALBAC, and PicoPLEX) (Figure S2; Table S2), and five library preparation kits (Table S3) in terms of amplification yield, amplicon size, genome breadth, amplification uniformity, allelic imbalance, ADO, LDO, erroneous bases, false SNVs, indels, copy numbers, and inversion and translocation breakpoints. To do this, we obtained low-pass (0.07–1.76 $\times$ ) whole-genome sequencing (WGS) data from 230 individual human cells from a healthy fibroblast cell line (HDF), a colorectal cancer cell line (Caco-2), and a mantle lymphoma cell line (Z-138). For the HDF cells, we completed a second WGS run at a higher depth (7.6–16.8 $\times$ ).

### DNA yield and amplicon size

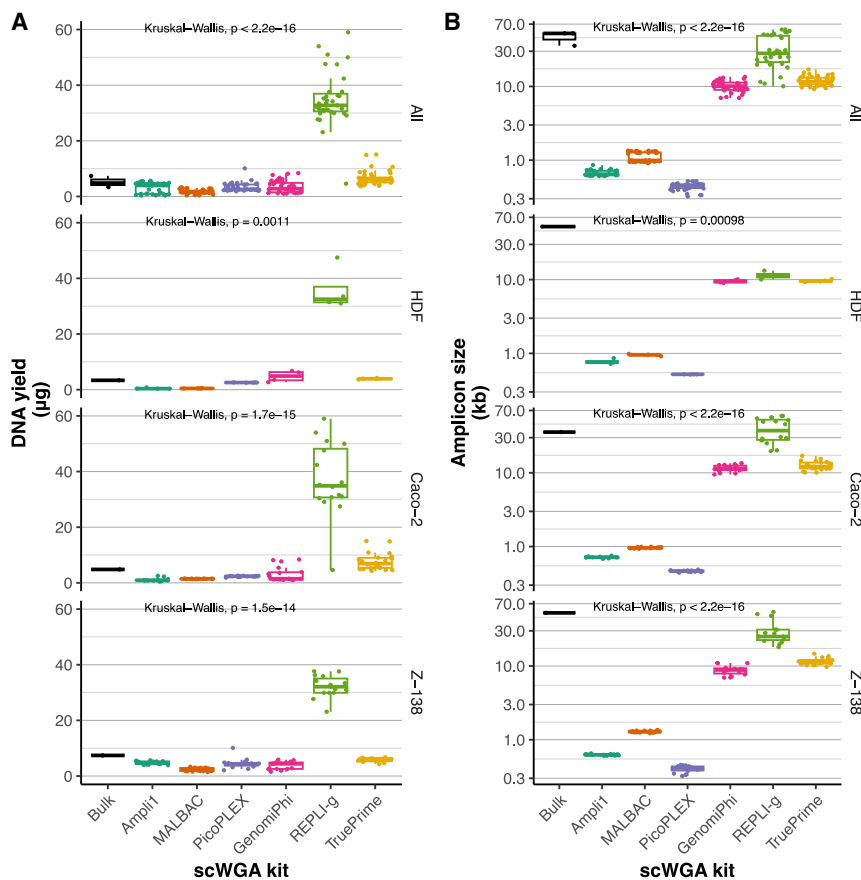
The amount of DNA obtained with the different scWGA kits and the size of the amplicons could be a limitation for downstream experiments. Here, we observed statistically significant differences among the scWGA methods in DNA yield and amplicon size, independently of the cell line (Figure 1; Table S4). REPLI-g provided the highest DNA yield by far, with a mean value across cell lines close to 35  $\mu$ g, while the other scWGA kits produced average yields below 8  $\mu$ g. For comparison, the average DNA yield from unamplified material (bulk;  $\sim$ 1 million cells) was below 10  $\mu$ g. MDA approaches (GenomiPhi, REPLI-g, and TruePrime) produced much larger amplicon sizes than non-MDA methods (Ampli1, MALBAC, and PicoPLEX) (around 10 and 1.2 kb on average, respectively). REPLI-g showed the largest amplicons (>30 kb), close to the average genomic DNA size obtained for the bulk (Figure 1B; Table S4). For both DNA yield and amplicon size, MDA methods were much more variable than non-MDA approaches, particularly in the case of REPLI-g, which displayed large standard deviations (Table S4).

### Mapping rates and duplicated reads

For all scWGA methods, we observed a high percentage of mapped reads (Table S4), with marginally significant differences among them ( $p = 0.04$ ). However, TruePrime showed many reads mapped to the mitochondrial genome ( $\sim$ 9% in Caco-2,  $\sim$ 6% in Z-138, and  $\sim$ 85% in HDF). Also, we identified clear mapping differences among the sequencing library kits ( $p < 2.2e-16$ ; data not shown). Within these, the library protocols that include an enrichment PCR step (SureSelect and Nextera) showed a significantly higher percentage of mapped reads ( $p = 3.8e-15$ ). Additionally, Ion Torrent produced significantly more duplicates than Illumina (averages of  $\sim$ 25% and  $\sim$ 5%, respectively; Figure S3A).

### Genome breadth and amplification uniformity

An ideal scWGA method should provide a set of DNA molecules that represent the target genome as completely as possible. If the amplification is not uniform, then multiple genomic regions may be missed. We observed statistically significant differences among scWGA methods for amplification disuniformity (in comparison to the bulk; see STAR Methods) and genome breadth (i.e., the fraction of the genome covered by one or more reads) for the different cell lines. Thus, for 218 cells at 0.15 $\times$  (we excluded 12 cells with lower depth from further analyses), Ampli1, MALBAC, and REPLI-g yielded the most extensive average genome breadth (8.5%–8.9%) close to the breadth observed for the bulk (12.1%), and TruePrime the lowest (4.1%), for all cell lines (Figure 2A; Table S4). For the higher-depth HDF dataset (24 cells downsampled at 7.6 $\times$ ), the results were qualitatively similar, with genome breadths of 64%, 58%, and 92% for REPLI-g, Ampli1, and bulk, respectively (Figure 2B). Again, TruePrime showed the lowest breadth (3%). For the pseudo-bulks (i.e., reads pooled across cells amplified with the same scWGA kit), MDA approaches showed the highest breadth ( $\sim$ 88%), with the exception of TruePrime (12%), while non-MDA strategies showed a genome breadth of around 70% (Figure 2B). On the other hand, at 0.15 $\times$ , the amplifications were more uniform and reproducible for non-MDA methods than for



**Figure 1. Amplification yield and amplicon size**

Values are shown for all the cells together (“all”) and for each cell line. Kruskal-Wallis test *p* values comparing all scWGA methods are indicated inside the plot. Results from the unamplified bulk (“bulk”) are shown in the first column of each graph.

(A) DNA yield.

(B) Amplicon size (genomic DNA size for the bulk). Results are also shown by combining the three cell lines (all).

(A and B) Boxplots: the central line indicates the median, while the box limits correspond to the Q1 and Q3 quartiles; upper and lower whiskers extend from Q3 to  $Q3 + 1.5 \times (Q3 - Q1)$  and from Q1 to  $Q1 - 1.5 \times (Q3 - Q1)$ , respectively.

See also Table S4.

GC content, whereas the other MDA methods showed no preference based on sequence content.

### Allelic imbalance, ADO, and LDO

During scWGA, a biased amplification of the two original alleles can cause a deviation of the expected allele frequencies at heterozygous sites (i.e., allelic imbalance) and even incorrect/missing genotype calls (ADO/LDO; Figure S4B). PicoPLEX and particularly Ampli1 outperformed the other methods regarding allelic imbalance and ADO rates

MDA methods, with TruePrime performing the worst (Figures 2C and 2D; Table S4).

Albeit less dramatic, the library protocol also significantly affected genome breadth. For the combined cell lines, our modified KAPA protocol provided slightly more genome breadth at  $0.15 \times$  than the other library protocols, with Nextera being the worst (Figure S3B). On the other hand, Nextera, SureSelect, and KAPA yielded slightly more uniform amplifications, although these differences were only marginally significant for Caco-2 (Figure S3C). The two sequencing technologies used, Illumina and Ion Torrent, did not significantly affect the amplification uniformity (Figure S3D).

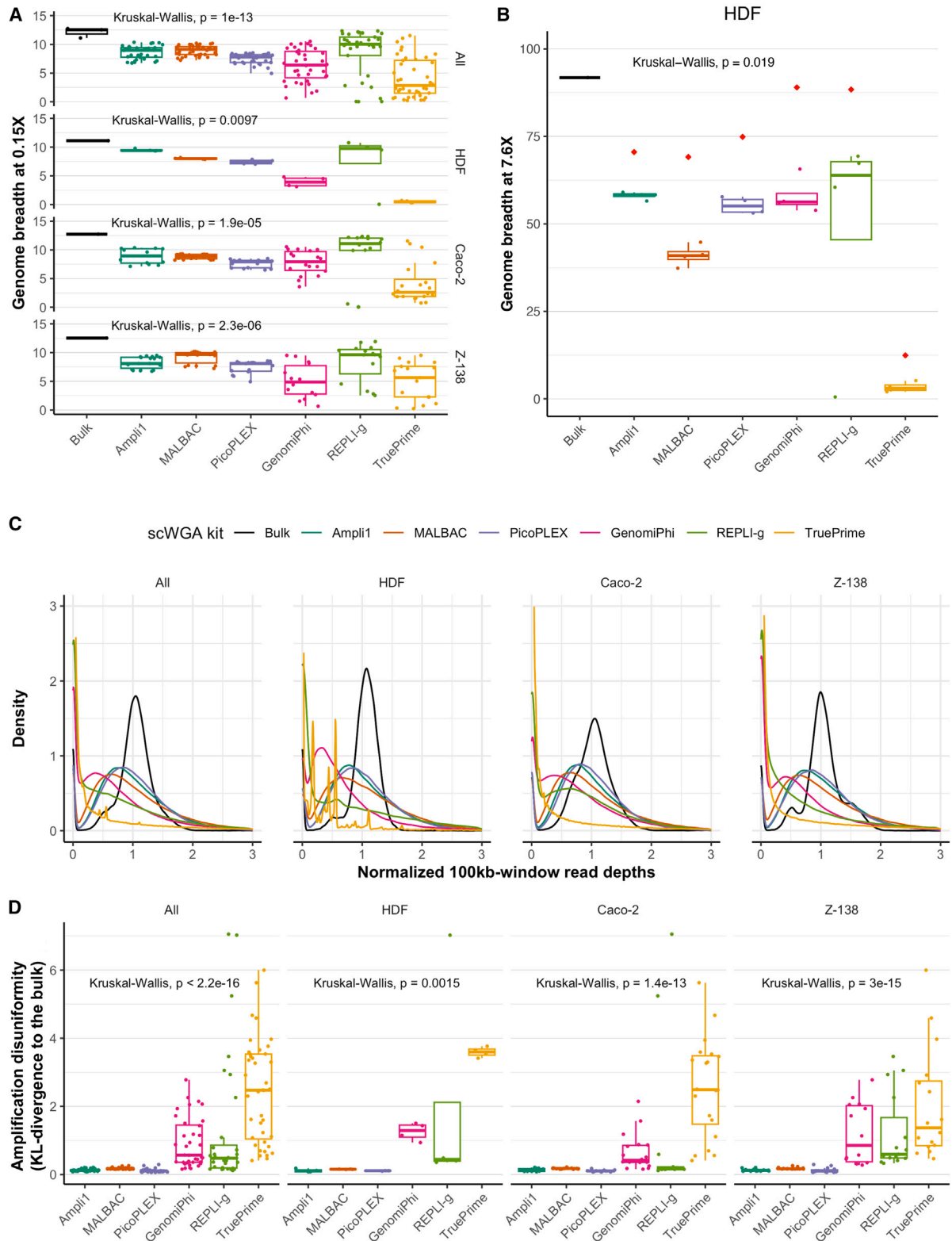
### Amplification recurrence

The coverage distribution along the genome observed for the HDF cells was significantly correlated with the coverage distribution of the unamplified bulk (Figure 3). Importantly, we found that two cells amplified with the same scWGA kit showed significantly more regions amplified in common than two cells amplified with a different scWGA kit, except for REPLI-g, which showed the same amplification recurrence with itself as with MALBAC (Figures 3 and S4A). In addition, we observed that non-MDA methods showed significantly higher coverage in regions with high GC content, as previously reported.<sup>44</sup> Interestingly, REPLI-g showed a negative coverage correlation with

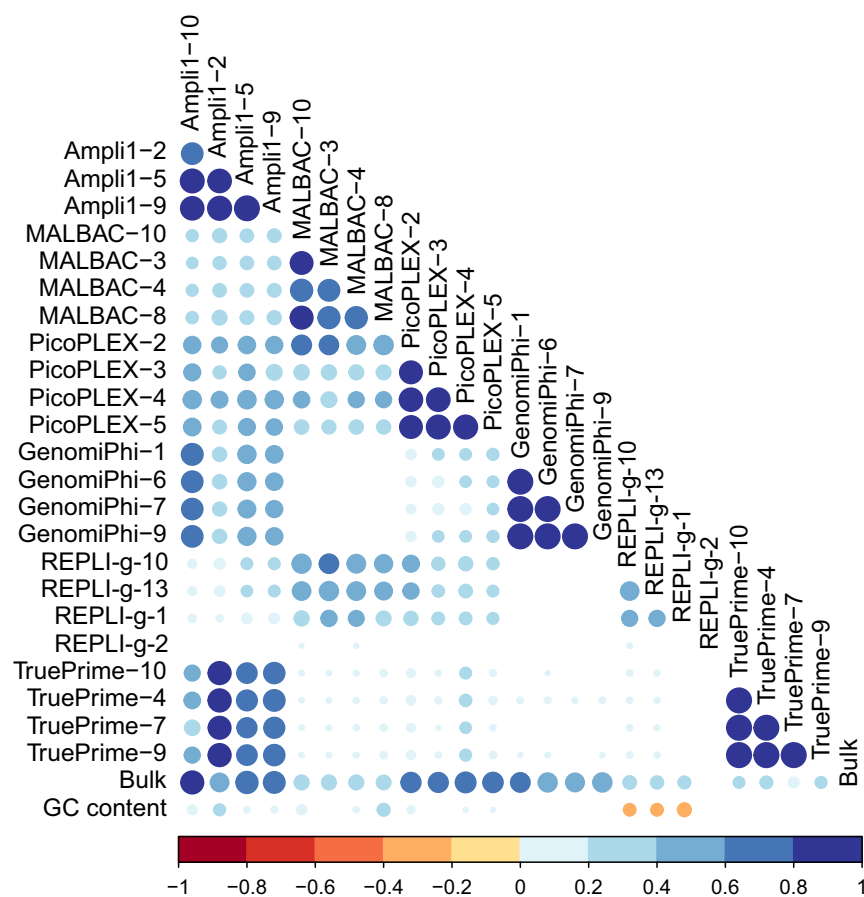
(Figures 4A and 4B). Still, average ADO rates were significant, ranging from  $\sim 16\%$  for Ampli1 to  $\sim 98\%$  for TruePrime (Table S5). The observed LDO rates were highly correlated with the observed genome breadth values (Figure S4C). Here, the mean LDO values ranged from  $\sim 36\%$  for Ampli1 to  $\sim 96\%$  for TruePrime (Figure 4C; Table S5).

### Erroneous bases, false SNVs, and indels

In the amplification process, the DNA polymerase can introduce erroneous bases (detected as alternative alleles, sometimes leading to false SNV calls) or insert/miss nucleotides into/from the template (which can lead to false indel calls). The proportions of erroneous bases at genomic positions in the single cells identified as homozygous in the HDF bulk were  $\sim 0.3\%$  for PicoPLEX and MALBAC and  $< 0.1\%$  for the other methods (TruePrime was the lowest) (Figure 5A; Table S5). These erroneous bases contribute to differences in false SNV rates, where Ampli1 ( $4.19e-5$ ) and MDA methods ( $3.52e-5$  to  $6.83e-4$ ) were between one and two orders of magnitude more accurate than MALBAC and PicoPLEX (Figure 5B; Table S5). False SNVs were biased toward transitions (Figure S4D). In terms of indel detection, sensitivity was highest for Ampli1 (87.7%) and lowest for TruePrime (63.9%), while PicoPLEX and MALBAC showed the lowest specificity (Figures 5C and 5D; Table S5).



(legend on next page)



**Figure 3. Amplification recurrence**

Correlation of read counts between cells along 1-Mb-long genome windows for the HDF cell line at 7.6 $\times$ . The size of the dots indicates the Pearson correlation coefficient value from low (small) to high (big), and they are colored differently if positive (blue scale) or negative (red scale). Only statistically significant values ( $p < 0.05$ ) are shown. See also [Figure S4A](#).

([Figure 6A](#)). The segmentation is very dependent on the estimated ploidy value, which can, therefore, influence the accuracy of the CNV profiles ([Figure S5C](#)). CNV sensitivity and specificity depended on the size of the segmentation window ([Figure S5D](#)). On average, non-MDA methods were the most sensitive (>75%), although MALBAC's sensitivity comes at the expense of lower specificity (~54%) ([Figure S5E](#)). On the other hand, MDA strategies were less sensitive and showed much more variance. In terms of specificity, Ampli1 was superior (~91%), followed by PicoPLEX (~80%) and GenomiPhi (~74%). The CNV false positives were not biased toward gains or losses, although TruePrime often resulted in more false gains than false losses, while Ampli1 tended to show the opposite pattern ([Figure S5F](#)). Regarding the detection of structural variant break-

### False structural variants

Copy-number aberrations, inversions, and translocations are structural variations of interest in assessing the genomic heterogeneity among cells. The copy-number variation (CNV) profiles were noisier for the MDA methods ([Figure S5A](#)). Accordingly, the coverage dispersion measure (MAD [median absolute deviation]),<sup>45</sup> which gives an indirect idea of the copy-number resolution, was, in general, significantly lower for non-MDA methods ([Figure S5B](#)). Although some of the TruePrime single cells achieved very low MAD values, this was likely due to cases with an excess of windows lacking actual coverage. The copy-number distances to the unamplified bulk increased overall with the segmentation bin size, except for TruePrime and some MALBAC and REPLI-g cells. Ampli1 provided the CNV profiles closest to the bulk, independently of the segmentation window size

points, REPLI-g showed the highest sensitivity and TruePrime the lowest ([Figure 6B](#)). However, these differences were non-statistically significant and likely resulted from a low number of true events, leading to very low counts of true positives and false negatives ([Figures S6A](#) and [S6B](#)). On the other hand, the differences in specificity were significant ( $p = 4.3e-3$ ), with the non-MDA methods and, to a lesser extent, REPLI-g performing the best ([Figure 6C](#)). This result was due to the higher frequency of false positives in GenomiPhi and TruePrime; in this case, Ampli1 introduced the smallest number of false positives ([Figure S6C](#)).

### DISCUSSION

In our experiments, MDA approaches (GenomiPhi, REPLI-g, and TruePrime) produced higher yields than non-MDA methods

**Figure 2. Genome breadth and amplification disuniformity**

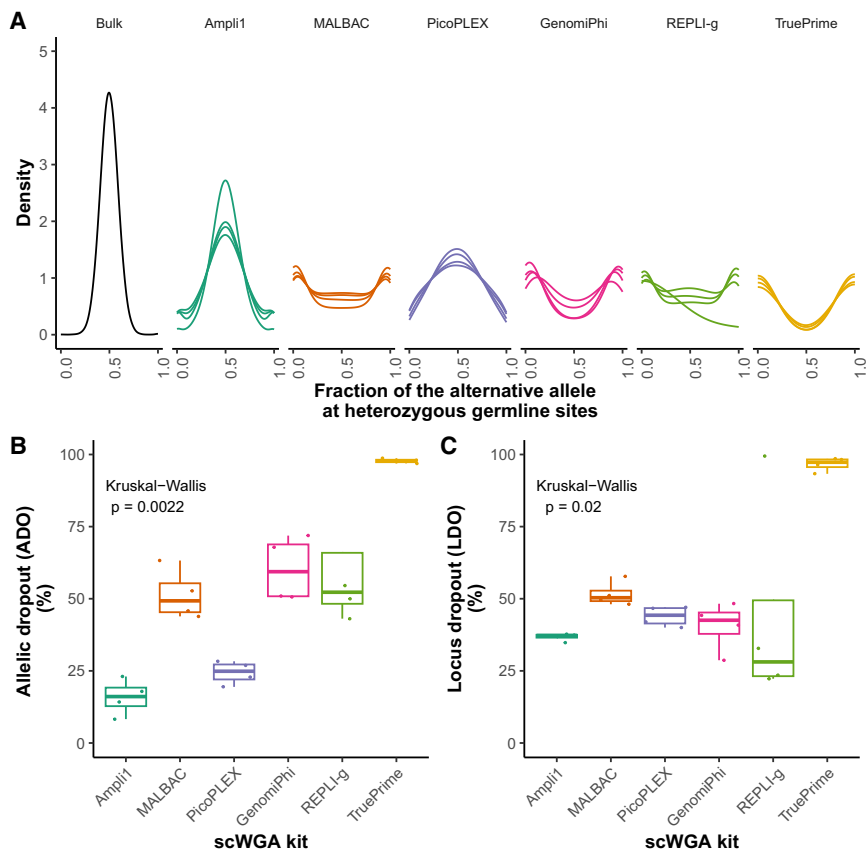
(A, B, and D) Boxplots as in [Figure 1](#).

(A and B) Effect of the scWGA method on genome breadth, measured by the percentage of the genome covered at 0.15 $\times$  for all cell lines and at 7.6 $\times$  for HDF. Results from the HDF pseudobulks (reads pooled across cells amplified with the same scWGA kit) at 7.6 $\times$  are shown as red diamonds for each method. Breadth for the unamplified bulks is shown in the first column of each graph.

(C) Densities of the normalized read counts along genome windows spanning 100 kb constructed from the 0.15 $\times$  data.

(D) Amplification disuniformity is measured as the Kullback-Leibler (K-L) divergence between the per-100 kb window read counts of each single cell and the bulk. The higher the K-L divergence to the bulk, the higher the amplification disuniformity.

See also [Figure S3](#) and [Table S4](#).



**Figure 4. Allelic imbalance, ADO, and LDO for the HDF cell line**

(A) Kernel density estimation of the alternative allele fraction at heterozygous germline sites. Each line within a panel tab represents a different cell. Each cell was sequenced at an average depth of 7.6 $\times$ . Here, we used 100,000 heterozygous positions with at least 15 reads of coverage in the HDF bulk.

(B) ADO.

(C) LDO.

(B and C) Measurements were carried out along chromosome 1. Boxplots are as in Figure 1.

See also Figures S4B and S4C and Table S5.

(Ampli1, MALBAC, and PicoPLEX), which could be related to a more stable polymerase activity under isothermal conditions.<sup>46</sup> At the same time, MDA approaches generated larger amplicon sizes than non-MDA methods, likely due to a higher processing capability and template affinity of the Phi29 DNA polymerase.<sup>47–49</sup> In particular, REPLI-g outperformed the other scWGA strategies in this aspect, possibly resulting from a higher DNA polymerase concentration.<sup>50</sup>

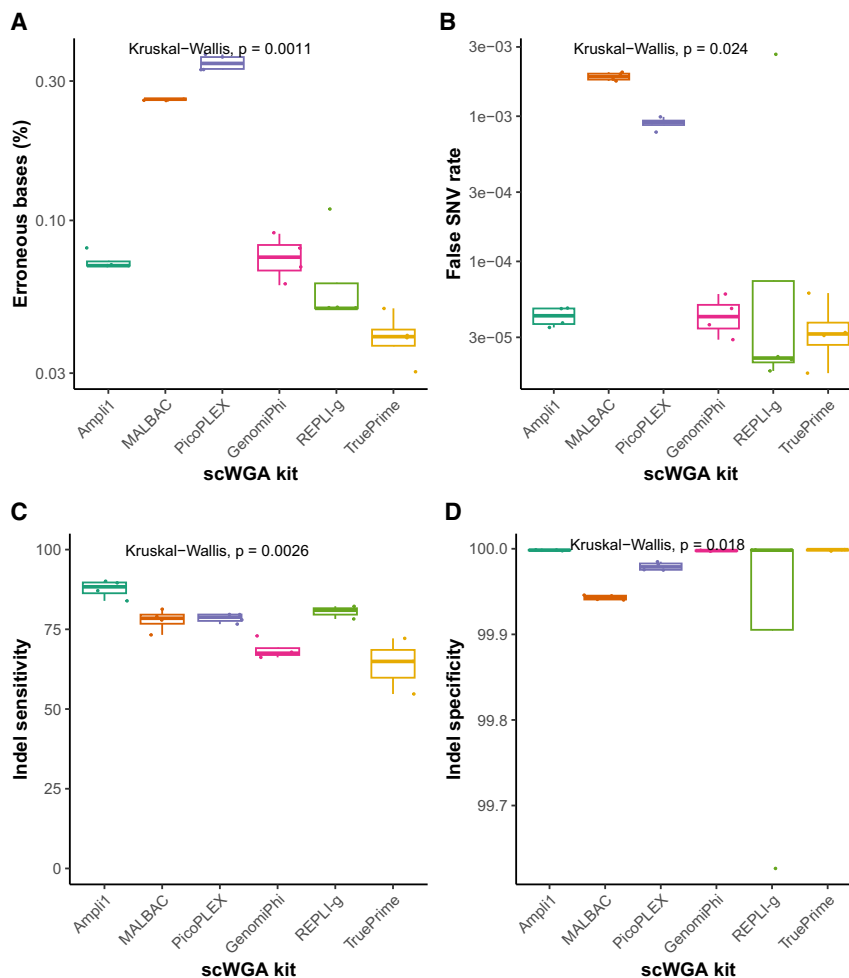
Not surprisingly, the amplification protocols only marginally affected the mapping rates. While the scWGA kit employed had a much smaller effect on the percentage of mapped reads than the library construction method—strategies with an enrichment PCR step like SureSelect and Nextera were better—in all cases, these percentages were relatively high (data not shown). Ion Torrent sequencing resulted in significantly more duplicates than Illumina, probably due to the emulsion PCR step included in its protocol.<sup>51</sup>

REPLI-g resulted in the highest breadth, as previously reported,<sup>29,30,34,43,52</sup> which can likely be explained by its ability to initiate long amplicons at almost any genomic location. As expected, Ampli1 showed more breadth than the other two non-MDA methods.<sup>43</sup> Similarly, this trend was also observed in the pseudobulks (i.e., pooled reads across cells amplified with the same method), with MDA methods resulting in higher breadths than non-MDA methods, excluding TruePrime. Non-MDA methods amplified the genome more uniformly than MDA ap-

proaches, consistent with previous findings.<sup>30,32–34,42</sup> We attribute this result to the controlled PCR process based on exponential amplification cycles, which are absent in the isothermal acyclic MDA reactions. TruePrime produced the least uniform amplifications, which aligns with its lowest genome breadth. The lysis and denaturation steps of TruePrime take place on ice, which might prevent the availability of single-stranded DNA for the primase,<sup>46</sup> affecting breadth and amplification uniformity.

A correlation of the coverage along the genome between single cells and the unamplified bulk was anticipated, mainly due to mappability limitations for repetitive sequences.<sup>53</sup> However, unless there is a recurrent amplification bias, we would not expect to see a higher correlation among cells amplified with the same scWGA kit than cells amplified with a different scWGA kit or with the bulk. Therefore, our results suggest that the different scWGA kits tend to amplify the same regions, although the recurrence is lower for REPLI-g. We expect spatial recurrence in the amplification for non-MDA methods because they use their own non-random primers. For MDA methods, the results are more challenging to interpret. GenomiPhi and REPLI-g use random primers, while TruePrime's primase generates its primers, with the latter process being potentially less random.<sup>19</sup> Besides, the differences in the DNA denaturation conditions among the MDA kits might also affect spatial recurrence due to dissimilarities in DNA template availability.<sup>46</sup> Strikingly, none of the MDA approaches showed a random amplification pattern, although the recurrence was not as strong for REPLI-g. Zhang et al.<sup>24</sup> obtained a better fit with a statistical model with random amplification bias for MDA, but they did not clarify which MDA method they used.

For the HDF cell line, the non-MDA methods, except for MALBAC, showed a distribution for the alternative allele frequency in heterozygous germline sites more similar to the bulk, clearly outperforming the MDA methods in terms of allelic imbalance. In particular, Ampli1 produced a very low allelic imbalance. This sought behavior of Ampli1 might result from a synthesis



**Figure 5. Erroneous bases, false SNV rate, and indel sensitivity and specificity for the HDF cell line**

Boxplots are as in Figure 1.

(A) Percentage of alternative bases at sites genotyped as homozygous in the bulk.

(B) False SNV rate.

(C) Indel sensitivity.

(D) Indel specificity. Measurements were carried out on chromosome 1.

See Figure S4D and Table S5.

procedure that converts residual single-strand DNA (ssDNA) molecules into double-strand DNA (dsDNA) molecules. In agreement with these results—ADO is an extreme case of allelic imbalance—PicoPLEX and particularly Ampli1 showed lower ADO rates than the other methods. Conversely, TruePrime showed a substantial ADO rate ( $\sim 98\%$ ). Still, the observed 16% average ADO rate for Ampli1 is slightly higher than previously reported.<sup>37,54,55</sup> Here, the estimated ADO rates for MDA methods were high ( $>60\%$ ), as observed by others.<sup>37,40,56</sup>

We found significant differences among methods regarding the proportion of erroneous bases, false SNVs, and false indels, suggesting different amplification error rates. The average false SNV rates, between  $3.5e-5$  and  $1.9e-3$ , were generally in the range of previous estimates.<sup>30,34,57,58</sup> In principle, we expect MDA methods to show lower error rates due to the use of *Phi29*, a DNA polymerase with higher fidelity than those used by non-MDA methods.<sup>23,26,49</sup> In agreement with this idea, MALBAC showed the highest false SNV rate. Furthermore, a fraction of these apparent errors might be proper somatic variants, so the absolute value of the amplification error might be inflated to some extent. However, this bias should not be significant, as healthy fibroblasts should not possess

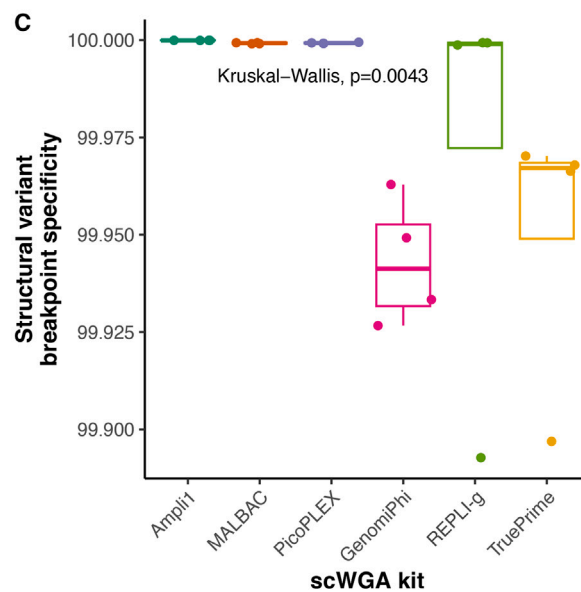
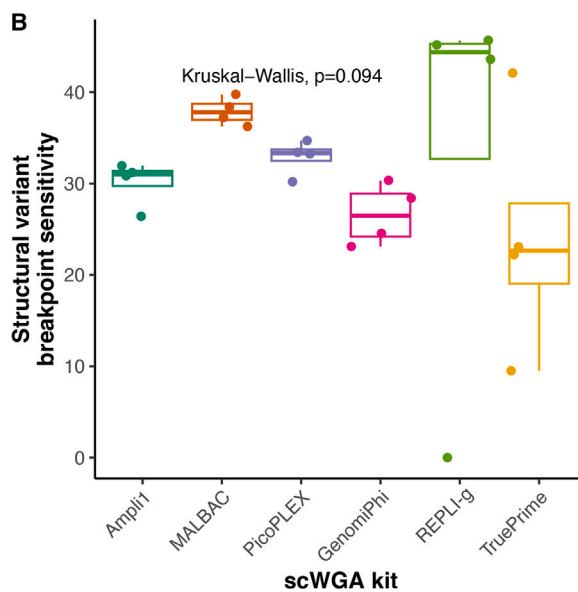
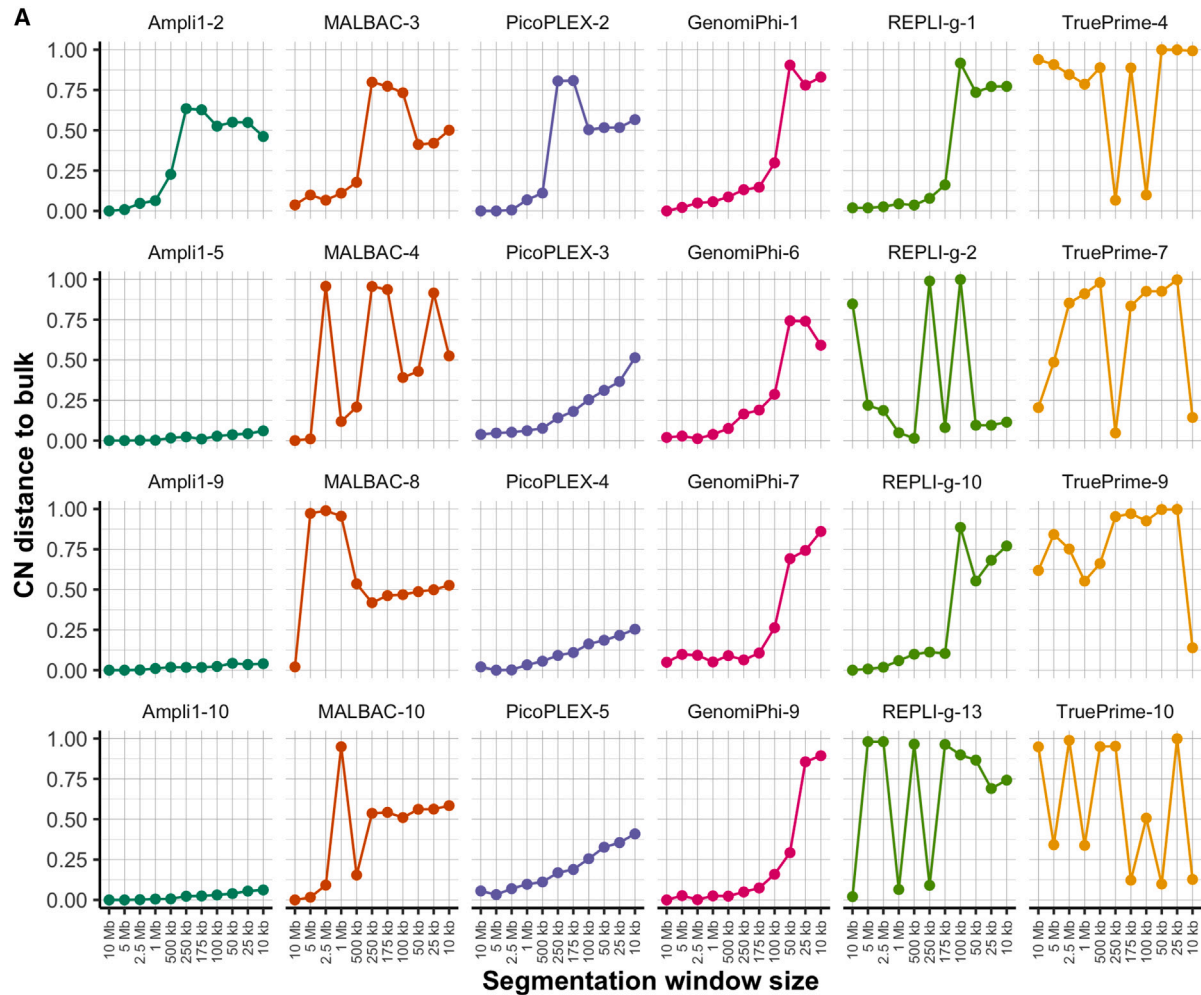
extensive somatic variation. In any case, consensus/census approaches, where only mutations seen in more than one cell are trusted, or linked-read strategies should dramatically reduce this rate.<sup>24,59-61</sup> Interestingly, the different scWGA methods evaluated here showed distinct error profiles. However, they all showed an excess of C:G>T:A transitions, previously attributed to high-temperature denaturation protocols.<sup>62</sup> Being aware of different error signatures for some scWGA kits is a fact to consider if one is interested in single-cell mutational signatures. For indel detection, Ampli1 was superior, which might be related to the type of polymerase used and the level of ADO.<sup>37,63</sup>

According to Ginkgo, the HDF copy-number profiles were very accurate for Ampli1, no matter the segmentation window size. On the contrary, PicoPLEX and GenomiPhi seem to

benefit from larger window sizes, whereas REPLI-g, MALBAC, and particularly TruePrime were less predictable. Although the read counts were generally more dispersed for the MDA methods, this apparent dispersion was not always directly related to the accuracy of the copy-number profiles. Regarding inversion and translocation breakpoints, the absolute number of false positives was noticeably different, with Ampli1 performing the best. The superiority of Ampli1 is expected, given that it does not use a polymerase with strand displacement activity, which can create spurious chimeric amplicons.<sup>28,64,65</sup>

This benchmark focuses on popular, reproducible, out-of-the-box methods for scWGA, which are likely to see widespread use. Other homemade protocols exist for scWGA, like LIANTI,<sup>58</sup> and other MDA modifications have also been proposed.<sup>62,66</sup> As far as we know, these methods have only been implemented by the authors who developed them, so they have yet to be extensively validated by third parties. When we carried out these experiments, primary template-directed amplification (PTA; now ResolveDNA<sup>20</sup>) was not commercialized, so we could not test it under the same conditions.

In conclusion, none of the scWGA methods tested here outperformed the others in all scenarios assessed, but some



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**Table 1. Strengths and weaknesses of the six scWGA kits tested**

scWGA kit	Ampli1	MALBAC	PicoPLEX	GenomiPhi	REPLI-g	TruePrime
Genome breadth	+	–	+	+	++	–
Amplification disuniformity	++	+	++	–	–	–
Amplification recurrence	++	+	++	++	–	++
ADO	++	–	+	–	–	–
False SNV rate	+	–	–	+	+	+
Indel calling	++	–	–	–	+	–
CNV calling	++	–	–	–	–	–
SV calling	++	++	++	–	+	–
Price per reaction (€) <sup>a</sup>	28.5	34	36	20	31.5	15

++, very good performance; +, good performance; –, inferior performance; ADO, allelic dropout; SNV, single-nucleotide variant; CNV, copy-number variant; SV, structural variant.

<sup>a</sup>Prices only include the scWGA reagents. The price is as of November 2024 for the currently available versions of the kits.

are better than others in different aspects (Table 1). For tracking cell lineages, which are key in cancer evolution or neurobiology, we should use a method that tends to amplify homologous regions. In this case, REPLI-g is not the best option. Ampli1 might be the method of choice for prenatal screening, given its copy-number profiles' accuracy and low ADO. In cancer genomics, where ploidy alterations can be significant, Ampli1 might also be the best option. For *de novo* unicellular genome assembly, a method like REPLI-g, with large amplicon sizes and not too many false structural variants, could be optimal. However, its lack of reproducibility might be somehow problematic.

### Limitations of the study

Our amplification error estimations are inherently relative because it is not feasible to fully distinguish amplification errors from real healthy somatic variation in cell lines. Using genetically closer cells (i.e., kindred cells) could mitigate this issue. Increasing the number of cells in the study should help to obtain more accurate metrics and reduce the impact of outliers.

### RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

#### Lead contact

All requests for reagents and resources should be directed to the lead contact, David Posada ([dposada@uvigo.es](mailto:dposada@uvigo.es)).

#### Materials availability

This study did not generate new unique reagents.

#### Data and code availability

- Bulk and single-cell FASTQ files generated for this study have been deposited at the Sequence Read Archive under STUDY accession SRA: PRJNA494024.
- The scripts used for this study are available in the following repository: <https://gitlab.com/phylocancer/scwga-benchmark/>.

- Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this study is available from the lead contact upon request.

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### AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

D.P. designed the project and supervised the whole study. N.E.-G., S.P.-L., P.A., A.G.-A., and H.H. performed the experiments. T.P. and L.T. carried out the bioinformatic analyses. N.E.-G. and T.P. performed the statistical analyses. N.E.-G., T.P., L.T., S.P.-L., and D.P. wrote the manuscript. All authors read, commented on, and approved the final manuscript.

### DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

H.H. is a cofounder and shareholder of Omniscope, a scientific advisory board member of MiRXES and Nanostring, and a consultant to Moderna and Singularity.

### Figure 6. False structural variants for the HDF cell line

(A) Distance of each single-cell CNV profile to the bulk measured as the percentage of bases erroneously assigned to a copy-number state times the total length of the profile.

(B and C) Sensitivity and specificity of structural variant breakpoints for the different scWGA kits. Boxplots are as in Figure 1.

See Figures S5 and S6.

## STAR★METHODS

Detailed methods are provided in the online version of this paper and include the following:

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## SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

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STAR★METHODS

KEY RESOURCES TABLE

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
<b>Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins</b>		
Fibroblast growth medium	Sigma-Aldrich	116-500
DMEM: F12	Lonza	BE04-687Q
IMDM	ATCC	30-2005
Fetal bovine serum	Biochrom	S01005
Penicillin/streptomycin	Lonza	DE17-602E
Hoechst 33342	BD Biosciences	561908
Accutase enzyme	Linus	10950-100C
Phosphate-buffered saline (PBS)	Lonza	17-513F
Propidium iodide	BD Pharmingen	556463
DNase/RNase free water	ThermoFisher	10977-035
NEBuffer 4 10X	New England Biolabs	174B7004S
MseI 50U/μl	New England Biolabs	R0525M
AMPure XP beads	Agencourt, Beckman Coulter	A63881
<b>Critical commercial assays</b>		
Ampl1	Menarini Silicon Biosystems	WGOO1R
MALBAC	Yikon Genomics	YK001B
PicoPLEX	Rubicon Genomics	R30050
Illustra Single Cell GenomiPhi	GE Healthcare	29-1081-07
REPLI-g Single-Cell	QIAGEN	509150345
TruePrime	SYGNIS	350100
REPLI-g human control kit	QIAGEN	150090
Ampl1 QC kit	Menarini Silicon Biosystems	WGQC4
Ampl1 ReAmp/ds kit	Menarini Silicon Biosystems	WGRDS1
QIAquick PCR Purification	QIAGEN	50928104
dsDNA HS	ThermoFisher Scientific	Q32854
dsDNA BR	ThermoFisher Scientific	Q32853
D5000 assay	Agilent Technologies	5067-5592/5067-5593
Genomic DNA assay	Agilent Technologies	5067-5365/5067-5366
QIAamp DNA Mini kit	QIAGEN	51304
SureSelect <sup>QXT</sup> Library prep kit	Agilent Technologies	G9682B
NxSeq AmpFREE Low DNA	Lucigen	14000-1
Ion Plus Fragment library	ThermoFisher Scientific	4471252
Nextera DNA sample preparation kit	Illumina	15028211
KAPA Library Preparation kit	Kapa Biosystems	KK8201
NEXTflex-96 DNA Barcodes	Bioo Scientific	514105
High Sensitivity DNA assay	Agilent Technologies	5067-4626
High Sensitivity D1000 assay	Agilent Technologies	5067-5584/5067-5585
Kapa Library Quantification Kit	Kapa Biosystems	KK4824
Ion Library Quantitation Kit	Life Technologies	4468802
<b>Deposited data</b>		
Raw data	This paper	SRA: PRJNA494024

(Continued on next page)

**Continued**

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Human reference genome hs37d5	GATK	<a href="https://console.cloud.google.com/storage/browser/gcp-public-data-broad-references/Homo_sapiens_assembly19_1000genomes_decoy">https://console.cloud.google.com/storage/browser/gcp-public-data-broad-references/Homo_sapiens_assembly19_1000genomes_decoy</a>

Experimental models: Cell lines

Human: HDF neonatal	Sigma-Aldrich	106-05N
Human: Caco-2	ATCC	HTB-37
Human: Z-138	ATCC	CRL-3001

Software and algorithms

FACSDiva (v.8.0.1)	BD Biosciences	<a href="https://www.bdbiosciences.com/">https://www.bdbiosciences.com/</a>
FlowJo (v7.6.2)	FlowJo, LLC	<a href="https://www.flowjo.com/">https://www.flowjo.com/</a>
CutAdapt (v.1.11, v.1.14, v.1.18)	Martin <sup>67</sup>	<a href="https://cutadapt.readthedocs.io/en/stable/">https://cutadapt.readthedocs.io/en/stable/</a>
BWA-MEM (v.0.7.15-r1140, v.0.7.17)	Li <sup>68</sup>	<a href="https://github.com/lh3/bwa/">https://github.com/lh3/bwa/</a>
Torrent Mapping Alignment Program (TMAP; v.3.4.1)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	<a href="https://github.com/iontorrent/TMAP/">https://github.com/iontorrent/TMAP/</a>
Picard (v.2.2.1, v.2.18.14) <i>SortSam</i> <i>MarkDuplicates</i> <i>SamToFastq</i> <i>DownsampleSam</i>	Broad Institute	<a href="http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/">http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/</a>
GATK (v.3.7, v.4.0.0.0) <i>HaplotypeCaller</i> <i>VariantRecalibration</i> <i>SelectVariants</i> <i>GenotypeGVCF</i> <i>ApplyVQS</i>	McKenna et al. <sup>69</sup>	<a href="https://github.com/broadinstitute/gatk/releases">https://github.com/broadinstitute/gatk/releases</a>
Samtools (v.1.9) <i>flagstats</i> <i>bedcov</i> <i>mpileup</i> <i>depth</i>	Li et al. <sup>70</sup>	<a href="https://www.htslib.org/download/">https://www.htslib.org/download/</a>
Bedtools (v.2.29.0) <i>genomecov</i> <i>makewindows</i> <i>nuc</i>	Quinlan and Hall <sup>71</sup>	<a href="https://bedtools.readthedocs.io/en/latest/content/installation.html">https://bedtools.readthedocs.io/en/latest/content/installation.html</a>
Pysamstats (v.1.1.2)	N/A	<a href="https://github.com/alimanfoo/pysamstats">https://github.com/alimanfoo/pysamstats</a>
LUMPY (v.0.2.13)	Layer et al. <sup>72</sup>	<a href="https://github.com/arq5x/lumpy-sv">https://github.com/arq5x/lumpy-sv</a>
svtyper (v.0.7.0)	Chiang et al. <sup>73</sup>	<a href="https://github.com/hall-lab/svtyper">https://github.com/hall-lab/svtyper</a>
R (v.4.4.1)	N/A	<a href="https://www.r-project.org/">https://www.r-project.org/</a>
R package reshape2 (v.1.4.4)	N/A	<a href="https://github.com/hadley/reshape">https://github.com/hadley/reshape</a>
R package dplyr (v.1.1.4)	Wickham et al. <sup>74</sup>	<a href="https://github.com/tidyverse/dplyr">https://github.com/tidyverse/dplyr</a>
R package ggplot2 (v.3.5.1)	Wickham <sup>75</sup>	<a href="https://github.com/tidyverse/ggplot2">https://github.com/tidyverse/ggplot2</a>
R package data.table (v.1.15.4)	N/A	<a href="https://github.com/Rdatatable/data.table">https://github.com/Rdatatable/data.table</a>
R package ggpubr (v.0.6.0)	N/A	<a href="https://rpkgs.datanovia.com/ggpubr/">https://rpkgs.datanovia.com/ggpubr/</a>
R package extrafont (v.0.19)	N/A	<a href="https://github.com/wch/extrafont">https://github.com/wch/extrafont</a>
R package Hmisc (v.5.2.0)	N/A	<a href="https://hbiostat.org/R/Hmisc/">https://hbiostat.org/R/Hmisc/</a>
R package RColorBrewer (v.1.1.3)	N/A	<a href="https://github.com/cran/RColorBrewer">https://github.com/cran/RColorBrewer</a>
R package corrplot (v.0.95)	N/A	<a href="https://github.com/taiyun/corrplot">https://github.com/taiyun/corrplot</a>
R package ggnewscale (v.0.5.0)	N/A	<a href="https://github.com/elioecamp/ggnewscale">https://github.com/elioecamp/ggnewscale</a>
R package plyr (v.1.8.9)	N/A	<a href="https://github.com/hadley/plyr">https://github.com/hadley/plyr</a>
R package scales (v.1.3.0)	N/A	<a href="https://github.com/r-lib/scales">https://github.com/r-lib/scales</a>
R package ComplexHeatmap (v.2.20.0)	Gu et al. <sup>76</sup>	<a href="https://github.com/jokeergoo/ComplexHeatmap">https://github.com/jokeergoo/ComplexHeatmap</a>
R package tidyr (v.1.3.1)	Wickham et al. <sup>74</sup>	<a href="https://github.com/tidyverse/tidyr">https://github.com/tidyverse/tidyr</a>

Other

Scripts for the bioinformatic analysis	This paper	<a href="https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15025379">https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15025379</a> ; <a href="https://gitlab.com/phylocancer/scwga-benchmark/">https://gitlab.com/phylocancer/scwga-benchmark/</a>
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**EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND STUDY PARTICIPANT DETAILS**

**Cell lines**

We used three different cell lines: HDF, Caco-2, and Z-138. HDF is a healthy neonatal, diploid fibroblast cell line (HDF) purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (<https://www.sigmaaldrich.com>); Caco-2 is a polyploid colorectal cancer cell line with a modal chromosome number of 96 purchased from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC; <https://www.atcc.org>); Z-138 is a hyperdiploid mantle cell lymphoma cell line with a modal chromosome number of 49, purchased from ATCC. We cultured all cell lines under an

atmosphere containing 5% CO<sub>2</sub> at 37°C. We grew HDF in an all-in-one ready-to-use fibroblast growth media (Sigma-Aldrich), Caco-2 in a media consisting of Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium/F12 with 3.151 g/l glucose and L-glutamine (Lonza) and Z-138 with Iscove's Modified Dulbecco's Medium (ATCC). For Caco-2 and Z-138, we completed the media with 10% fetal bovine serum EU standard (Biochrom) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Lonza) at a working concentration of 100 units of potassium penicillin and 100 µg of streptomycin sulfate per 1 ml of culture media.

### METHOD DETAILS

#### Single-cell isolation

Following the fabricant's recommendations, we cultured HDF and Caco-2 cells until 80% confluence before staining with Hoechst 33342 (BD Biosciences). After that, we harvested the cells using the accutase enzyme (not needed for Z-138), resuspended them at a concentration of 10<sup>6</sup> cells per ml in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), filtered using a 70 µm cell strainer and marked them with propidium iodide (PI; BD Pharmingen). Then, we sorted alive single cells in G0/G1 with a BD Biosciences FACSAria III flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, Madrid, Spain) and collected them into 96-well plates with 1–3 µl of PBS (Figure S7). For sorting, we used BD FACSDiva v8.0.1 (BD Biosciences, Madrid, Spain) and FlowJo v7.6.2 (FlowJo, LLC, Ashland, OR, USA) for further analysis. For Z-138, we followed the same strategy but without Hoechst staining and using a FACS Aria 2.0 (BD Biosciences, Madrid, Spain) for sorting. We stored the single cells at -80°C until they were ready for amplification.

#### Single-cell whole-genome amplification (scWGA)

We used six different kits for amplification: Ampli1 (Menarini Silicon Biosystems), Multiple Annealing and Looping Based Amplification Cycles (MALBAC; Yikon Genomics), PicoPLEX (Rubicon Genomics), Illustra Single Cell GenomiPhi (GE Healthcare), REPLI-g Single-Cell (QIAGEN) and TruePrime (SYGNIS) following the manufacturer's protocols (Figure S1B; Table S2). To limit contamination, we carried out scWGA in a laminar-flow hood using a dedicated set of pipettes and UV-irradiated plastic materials. We also included positive (10 ng/µl REPLI-g human control kit, QIAGEN) and negative (DNase/RNase free water) controls. For Ampli1, we carried a few extra steps after amplification. We used the Ampli1 QC kit to select positive amplification products for four PCR markers. To increase the total dsDNA content, we used the Ampli1 ReAmp/ds kit. Afterward, we removed the adaptors adding 5 µl of NEBuffer 4 10X (New England Biolabs), 1 µl of MseI 50U/µl (New England Biolabs), and 19 µl of nuclease-free water to 25 µl of dsDNA, using a thermal cycler at 37°C for 3 h, followed by enzyme inactivation at 65°C for 20 min.

Attending the fabricant's recommendations, we purified the PicoPLEX and MALBAC products with the QIAquick PCR Purification protocol (QIAGEN) and the Ampli1 products with 1.8X AMPure XP beads (Agencourt, Beckman Coulter). MDA methods do not include a purification step. We measured DNA yield with the dsDNA HS or BR assay in a Qubit 3.0 (ThermoFisher Scientific) fluorometer and amplicon fragment size with a 2200 TapeStation platform (Agilent Technologies). We measured the amplicons from the non-MDA-based scWGA methods using the D5000 ScreenTape System and the amplicons from the MDA-based kits using the Genomic DNA ScreenTape System. The latter also allowed us to measure the integrity of the amplicons (DNA Integrity Number or DIN).

We amplified >570 cells but finally selected the best 230 cells regarding DNA quantity and quality. We amplified 34 cells with Ampli1 (4 HDF, 12 Caco-2, and 18 Z-138), 40 with MALBAC (4 HDF, 18 Caco-2, and 18 Z-138), 40 with PicoPLEX (4 HDF, 18 Caco-2 and 18 Z-138), 37 with GenomiPhi (4 HDF, 18 Caco-2 and 15 Z-138), 35 with REPLI-g (4 HDF, 16 Caco-2 and 15 Z-138) and 44 with TruePrime (4 HDF, 22 Caco-2 and 18 Z-138) (Figure S2; Table S2).

#### Bulk DNA extraction

According to the fabricant's recommendations, we extracted bulk genomic DNA (gDNA) from the HDF cell line with the QIAamp DNA Mini kit (QIAGEN). We estimated concentration and gDNA integrity as previously described for the amplified products from single cells.

#### Next-generation sequencing libraries

We built 230 single-cell whole-genome libraries employing five different library preparation kits: SureSelectQXT (Agilent Technologies), NxSeq AmpFREE Low DNA (Lucigen), Ion Plus Fragment library (ThermoFisher Scientific), Nextera DNA (Illumina), and KAPA (Kapa Biosystems). We built SureSelect and NxSeq libraries following the commercial indications while slightly modifying the Ion Plus and Nextera protocols. KAPA libraries were built using a modified protocol at the sequencing facility of the National Center for Genomic Analysis (CNAG; <http://www.cnag.crg.eu>) (Table S3). We mechanically sheared the DNA in an S2 or a LE220 Focused-ultrasonicator (Covaris) for the NxSeq, Ion Plus, and KAPA protocols (Table S6), while for SureSelect and Nextera, we fragmented the DNA enzymatically. For Ion Plus, we included an extra purification step with AMPure XP beads (1.2X beads/sample ratio) (Agencourt, Beckman Coulter) to better remove NGS adaptors. For Nextera, we used 200 µl of washing buffer instead of the 300 µl recommended by the provider, the centrifugation speed was 10,000 g at room temperature (RT) for 30 s instead of 1,300 g at 20°C for 2 min, and we used AMPure XP beads in a 0.8X ratio instead of 0.6X. In addition, we eluted the Nextera libraries in 20 µl of resuspension buffer instead of 32.5 µl after a 5 min air-dried step instead of 15 min. For the modified KAPA protocol, we performed the end-repair of 500 ng of sheared DNA, adenylation, and ligation to Illumina-specific indexed paired-end adaptors (NEXTflex-96 DNA Barcodes, Bioo Scientific). We selected the DNA by size in two steps (0.65X and 0.85X beads/sample ratio) with AMPure XP

beads to reach the desired fragment size (450 bp). Finally, we measured the library insert sizes with a 2100 Bioanalyzer High Sensitivity DNA Kit or a 2200 TapeStation High Sensitivity D1000 assay. We quantified library concentration with the Kapa Library Quantification Kit (Kapa Biosystems) in the case of Illumina and with the Ion Library Quantitation Kit (Life Technologies) for Ion Torrent.

In addition, we constructed a whole-genome HDF bulk library using NxSeq AmpFREE Low DNA (Lucigen) (Table S3). We performed size selection using AMPure XP beads and checked fragment size with the 2100 Bioanalyzer High Sensitivity DNA Kit. Finally, we quantified library concentration using the KAPA Library Quantification Kit.

### Whole-genome sequencing

We initially sequenced all the single-cell libraries at shallow depth (0.07–1.76X). We sequenced 24 HDF and 166 Caco-2/Z-138 libraries on an Illumina HiSeq 4000 (PE150) or HiSeq 2000 (PE125), respectively, at CNAG. We sequenced the remaining 40 libraries with an Ion Proton platform (Ion PI chip v3) at the Galician Public Foundation of Genomic Medicine (FPGMX; <http://www.xenomica.eu>). We also sequenced the bulk library of HDF at 30X on an Illumina HiSeq 4000 (PE150) at CNAG. In addition, for the 24 HDF libraries, we completed a second WGS run at a higher depth (7.6–16.8X) on a HiSeq 2500 v4 (PE125) at CNAG.

### Preprocessing of NGS data

From Illumina data, we clipped library adapters and those included in the Ampli1, PicoPLEX, and MALBAC amplifications using CutAdapt (v.1.11, v.1.14, v.1.18).<sup>67</sup> We mapped the sequencing reads with at least 70 bp to the human reference genome (hs37d5) with BWA-MEM (v.0.7.15-r1140, v.0.7.17).<sup>68</sup> We sorted reads and flagged duplicates with Picard *SortSam* (v.2.2.1, v.2.18.14; <http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard>) and Picard *MarkDuplicates*, respectively. We independently mapped reads from different lanes and merged them during the duplicate marking process, considering their read group. Regarding Ion Plus libraries, to map the reads with the Torrent Mapping Alignment Program (TMAP; v.3.4.1; <https://github.com/iontorrent/TMAP>) to the hs37d5 genome, we had to transform first of all the original BAM files to FASTQ format using Picard *SamToFastq*. We also sorted the BAM files and marked duplicates as explained above.

To carry out the variant calling at similar sequencing depths for all the HDF cells and avoid potential batch effects, we downsampled the corresponding BAM files at 7.6X (the lowest depth observed) using Picard *DownsampleSam*. Also, we recalibrated the HDF base quality scores using GATK (v.3.7).<sup>69</sup> Afterward, we realigned the reads from the single cells and the bulk around known indels to avoid potential false SNV calls unrelated to the amplification process but due to misalignments.

### Mapping rates and duplicates

To calculate the percentage of mapped reads and duplicates, we analyzed the BAM files with the duplicate flags annotated using Samtools (v.1.9) *flagstats*.<sup>70</sup> To obtain the mapping rate, we divided the mapped alignments by the total number of alignments, whereas to calculate the duplication rates, we divided the number of duplicate alignments by the number of mapped alignments.

### Genome breadth

We calculated the percentage of autosomes and sex chromosomes covered by one or more reads (i.e., genome breadth) using Bedtools (v.2.29.0)<sup>71</sup> *genomecov*. For this calculation, we downsampled all single-cell and bulk BAM files to the same depth (0.15X) with Picard *DownsampleSam* (with the options *HighAccuracy* for the single cells and *ConstantMemory* for the bulk). We discarded 12 cells with less than 0.15X. In addition, for HDF, we computed the genome breadth at 7.6X. We then merged all four downsampled bam files at 7.6X for each scWGA kit, to create “pseudobulks” and measured genome breadth as previously described.

### Amplification disuniformity

We estimated amplification disuniformity using the downsampled BAM files at 0.15X. We defined non-overlapping 100-kb windows along the genome using Bedtools *makewindows* and counted the number of reads mapped within each window with Samtools *bedcov*. Then, we calculated the Kullback-Leibler (K-L) divergence between the read count distribution of every cell and the bulk using the R *FlexMix* package.<sup>77</sup> We then used the resulting value to measure amplification disuniformity: the lower the K-L divergence to the bulk, the lower the amplification disuniformity.

### Amplification recurrence

To understand whether a given scWGA method tends to preferentially amplify the same genomic regions in different cells compared to other scWGA methods, we counted the number of reads within non-overlapping windows of 1 Mb with Pysamstats (v.1.1.2) (<https://github.com/alimanfoo/pysamstats>). For this, we used BAM files at 7.6X –after removing duplicates, secondary alignments, and unmapped reads with Samtools *view*– as input. Subsequently, we computed the Pearson correlation coefficient of the read counts between pairs of single cells (amplified with the same scWGA kit or not) and between single cell and bulk. We further explored the correlations between read counts and GC content in sliding windows. We measured the GC content with Bedtools *nuc*.

### Allelic imbalance, ADO, and LDO

During scWGA, the two alleles of a diploid cell can be unequally amplified. Deviations of allele frequencies at heterozygous germline sites reveal such events. If these frequencies differ from the theoretical 50%, we consider it an allelic imbalance event. If the

imbalance is so high that one of the alleles is completely lost and cannot be detected, we designate it as allelic dropout or ADO. Finally, if both alleles are lost, we define this event as locus dropout or LDO (Figure S1A). To calculate the allele frequencies at the heterozygous germline sites, we used the 7.6X HDF dataset. Besides, we limited the analysis to the autosomes since they are primarily diploid.

### Allelic imbalance

We ran GATK *HaplotypeCaller* for the HDF bulk with the parameter `-pcr_indel_model` set to NONE. We ran GATK *VariantRecalibration* and *ApplyVQSR* (v. 4.0.0.0) to select a high-confidence set of variants (`-ts-filter-level` 90.0), and then we used GATK *SelectVariants* to keep the heterozygous sites. In parallel, we created pileup files from all the HDF single cells and bulk with Samtools *mpileup* and extracted the alternative allele fraction at the high-confidence heterozygous positions using a Python script. We only considered the allele frequencies derived from sites covered by at least 15 reads. To obtain a smooth distribution from the discrete counts, we estimated the probability density function of the alternative allele fractions with the *core* R stats package,<sup>78</sup> with the *bandwidth adjust* parameter set to three.

### Allelic dropout (ADO) and locus dropout (LDO)

To measure ADO, we need to obtain the genotypes for the bulk and the single cells. For this, we ran GATK *HaplotypeCaller* in -ERC GVCF mode for every single cell and the bulk independently (again setting `-pcr_indel_model` to NONE). Then, we merged the resulting gVCFs with GATK *GenotypeGVCF*, combining the calls for every cell with the calls obtained for the bulk, keeping the invariable positions. We counted an ADO event when the bulk was called heterozygous (AB) and the single cell homozygous for either the reference or the alternative allele (AA or BB) (Figure S4B). We only considered positions covered by 15 or more reads in both single cells and bulk. The exact calculation per cell was

$$ADO\ rate = \frac{1}{N_{het}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{het}} \alpha \begin{cases} \alpha = 1 & \text{if } gSC_i \neq gB_i \\ \alpha = 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

where  $N_{het}$  is the number of heterozygous positions in the bulk,  $i$  is the considered genomic position,  $gSC_i$  is the genotype of the single cell at position  $i$ , and  $gB_i$  is the genotype of the bulk at position  $i$ .

**Locus dropout (LDO).** Using the genotypes obtained above, we counted an LDO event when the bulk was genotyped as AB, and the genotype was not called in the single cell ( $./$  or NA), independently of the coverage at that position. The exact calculation per cell was

$$LDO\ rate = \frac{1}{N_{het}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{het}} \alpha \begin{cases} \alpha = 1 & \text{if } gSC_i = NA \text{ and } gB_i = AB \\ \alpha = 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}. \quad (\text{Equation 2})$$

### Amplification polymerase errors

During the whole-genome amplification, polymerases can introduce errors like incorrect bases, insertions, and deletions. These errors become part of the sequenced templates and appear as reads carrying out distinct alleles. These wrong reads can lead to spurious SNV and indel calls.

### Erroneous bases

We calculated the proportion of alternative alleles in the single-cell reads at those positions genotyped as 0/0 in the bulk. We only considered bulk sites covered by at least 20 reads with a reference allele and zero reads with an alternative.

### False SNVs

Using the same genotypes estimated above for the ADO calculation, we counted a false SNV call event when the bulk genotype was homozygous, and the single cell had a different genotype than the bulk (Figure S4B). We only considered autosomal positions with 15 or more reads in both single cells and bulk. The exact calculation per cell was

$$False\ SNV\ rate = \frac{1}{N_{hom}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{hom}} \alpha \begin{cases} \alpha = 1 & \text{if } gSC_i \neq gB_i \\ \alpha = 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}. \quad (\text{Equation 3})$$

We also explored the error profile of the false SNV calls directly, extracting the alternative and reference alleles from the VCFs and grouping them into different categories.

### False indel rate

Using the same VCFs as for the false SNV calls, we identified indels with GATK *SelectVariants* and calculated the number of false and true positives and negatives (FP, TP, FN, and TN) only in autosomes as follows:

- FP: 0/0 for the bulk, and 0/1 or 1/1 in the single cell
- FN: 0/1 or 1/1 for the bulk, and 0/0 in the single cell
- TP: 0/1 or 1/1 for the bulk, and 0/1 or 1/1 in the single cell
- TN: 0/0 for the bulk and 0/0 in the single cell

Then, we computed *sensitivity* as  $100 \times TP / (TP + FN)$  and *specificity* as  $100 \times TN / (TN + FP)$ .

### Copy number

The uneven distribution of the coverage, added to the possibility of ADO, can make copy number (CN) detection from a single cell very problematic. We compared how different scWGA methods behave in this regard using the coverage dispersion measure (MAD).<sup>45</sup> For this calculation, we used the downsampled BAM files at the lowest depth for each cell line (0.25X, 0.07X, and 0.08X for HDF, Caco-2, and Z-138, respectively). We filtered out reads with a mapping quality lower than 20 from the downsampled BAMs using Samtools and created the BED files required to run Ginkgo<sup>45</sup> with Bedtools. We ran Ginkgo under default settings except for the Binning Simulation Options, which were set to 150 bp reads and mapping with BWA. The segmentation was inferred independently for each sample to allow a fair comparison. We calculated the MAD from the resulting read counts using a custom R script. Besides, we also segmented the 24 HDF single cells and the bulk using all the other possible bin segmentation sizes allowed by Ginkgo. For each bin size, we computed the CN distance from every cell to the bulk, which is defined as the total length of the genomic segments with different copy numbers divided by the length of the CN profile. To compute sensitivity and specificity as before, we obtained the counts for FP, FN, TP, and TN for autosomes as follows (for sex chromosomes, exchange 1 for 2):

FP: CN of 2 for the bulk, and CN  $\neq$  2 in the single cell

FN: CN  $\neq$  2 for the bulk, and CN = 2 in the single cell

TP: CN  $\neq$  2 for the bulk, and CN  $\neq$  2 in the single cell

TN: CN of 2 for the bulk, and CN = 2 in the single cell

### Structural variant breakpoints

We identified structural variants in the HDF 7.6X data. For this, we ran LUMPY (v.0.2.13)<sup>72</sup> independently for each single cell and the bulk, and then we genotyped the calls using svtyper (v.0.7.0).<sup>73</sup> We selected the autosomal breakpoints with genotypes 0/1, 1/0, or 1/1 and obtained the depth in those positions for all the samples using Samtools *depth*. We removed breakpoints in positions covered by less than 15 reads in the bulk of the single cell. We also removed breakpoints with abnormally high depth in the bulk ( $>1,000X$ ) since they tend to be errors.<sup>79</sup> We considered the positions with no called breakpoint to be genotype 0/0. Then, we compared the breakpoints in the single cells and in the bulk to count FP, FN, and TP in the same way we did for indels. As the LUMPY output does not contain the TN, we calculated them by getting the number of autosomal positions showing at least 15 reads in both bulk and single cells using Samtools *mpileup* and subtracting the number of FP, FN, and TP from this value. Then, we computed sensitivity and specificity as described above.

### QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

We performed the downstream data analysis in R using the tidyverse<sup>74</sup> framework. We calculated standard descriptive statistics using the *kruskal.test*, *wilcox.test*, and *cor.test* functions available in the *core* R stats package<sup>78</sup> and produced the plots using ggplot2,<sup>75</sup> and ComplexHeatmap<sup>76</sup> R packages.