Frequency of mosaicism points towards mutation-prone early cleavage cell divisions.

As much as 30% and 50% of de novo mutations (DNM) may occur during the early cleavage cell divisions in males and females, respectively, causing frequent mosaicism and a high sibling recurrence risk of DNM-dependent diseases.

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It has recently become possible to directly estimate the germ-line de novo mutation (DNM) rate by sequencing the whole genome of father-mother-offspring trios, and this has been conducted in human[1-5], chimpanzee[6], birds[7] and fish[8]. In these studies DNMs are defined as variants that are heterozygous in the offspring while being absent in both parents. They are assumed to have occurred in the germ-line of a parent and to have been transmitted to the offspring via the sperm or oocyte. This definition assumes that detectable mosaïcism in the individual in which the mutation occurred is negligible. However, instances of mosaïcism are well-

documented in humans and other organisms, including ruminants[9,10]. We

herein take advantage of the unique pedigree structure of cattle to show

that mosaïcism associated with DNMs is a common occurrence, and that

this should be taken into account to accurately estimate the mutation rate

in this and possibly other species. It suggests that early cleavage cell

divisions are particularly mutation-prone, and that the recurrence risk of

DNM-dependent disorders in sibs may be higher than generally assumed.

To study the process of DNMs in the cattle germ-line, we sequenced the whole

genome of 46 members of three four-generation pedigrees (Figure 1). The

source of the sequenced DNA was venous blood for females and sperm for males.

Grand-parents, parents and offspring (referred to as probands) were sequenced

at average 26-fold depth (min = 23), and grand-offspring at average 21-fold

depth (min = 10).

We identified 151 candidate DNMs as variants that were (i) detected in a

proband, (ii) absent in both parents (and grand-parents when available), (iii)

transmitted to at least one grand-offspring, and (iv) not previously reported in

unrelated individuals from the 1,000 Bulls project[11] (Suppl. Table 1 and Suppl.

Figure 1). We developed amplicons spanning 94 candidate DNMs and sequenced

them at average depth of ~1,250 in the 46 animals plus 57 relatives (Figure 1).

This confirmed the genuine nature of 91/94 variants, demonstrating the

excellent specificity of our pipeline. The three remaining ones were also

detected in one of the parents (although not in the grand-parents) in the

confirmation, and momentarily ignored.

We examined what proportion of DNMs detected in a proband occurred during

its development rather than inherited via the sperm or oocyte. An unambiguous

distinction between the two types of mutations is that the former will, upon

transmission to the next generation, show partial linkage with one of the

homologues (i.e. never transmitted with homologue A, sometimes transmitted

with homologue B), while the latter will show complete linkage (i.e. never

transmitted with homologue A, always transmitted with homologue B). We first

examined the pedigree with 11 grand-offspring as it provided the best

opportunity to distinguish partial from complete linkage (Suppl. Fig. 2).   21

variants showed complete linkage with the paternal homologue, 13 complete

linkage with the maternal homologue, and 16 partial linkage with either the

paternal or maternal homologue.   Thus 21 DNMs appeared to have been

inherited from the father, 13 from the mother, while 16 would have occurred

early enough during the development of the proband to generate detectable

levels of mosaïcism in sperm DNA. Three additional predictions can be made if

these 16 mutations occurred during the development of the proband. (i) They

should a priori have equal chance to affect the paternal and maternal

homologues. Five of the 16 variants affected the paternal and 11 the maternal

homologue (p=0.21).   (ii) The allelic ratio should be inferior to 50% in the

proband but equal to 50% in the grand-offspring. The mean allelic ratio was

0.28 in the proband, and 0.50 in the grand-offspring, and this difference was

highly significant ($p < 10^{-6}$).   The corresponding means were 0.47 and 0.48 (p =

0.40) for the 34 mutations showing complete linkage with either the paternal or

maternal homologue (Figure 2, Suppl. Table 1).   (iii) The proportion of grand-

offspring inheriting the mutation and the strength of linkage should increase

with the allelic ratio in the proband, and this was indeed the case ($p_{transmission}$ =

0.02; $p_{linkage}$ = 0.008) (Suppl. Fig. 3). We conclude that, in this pedigree, at least

32% of the DNMs detected in bulk sperm DNA of the proband using standard

criteria did not occur in the germ-line of either the sire or dam but rather during

the development of the proband.   We will refer to this type of DNMs as Proband-

Mosaic (PM), while the DNMs that are absent in the sire and showing complete

linkage with the paternal homologue in the grand-offspring will be referred to as

Sperm-Non-Mosaic (SNM) (meaning that the sire is not mosaic for the mutation

transmitted via his sperm), and those that are absent in the dam yet showing

complete linkage with the maternal homologue as Oocyte-Non-Mosaic (ONM)

(meaning that the dam is not mosaic for the mutation transmitted via her oocyte).

One could argue that the observed high level of mosaicism is due to the fact that

we analyzed sperm DNA rather than somatic DNA.   We therefore analyzed the

three female probands (blood DNA), using the same approach. It is noteworthy

that with only five grand-offspring, the probability to detect a mosaic DNM and

demonstrate incomplete linkage is reduced (Suppl. Fig. 2). We detected 72

mutations transmitted in complete linkage with the paternal homologue, 14 in

complete linkage with the maternal homologue, and 12 in partial linkage with

either of these.   Three of 12 were partially linked to the paternal and nine to the

maternal homologue (p=0.14). Their allelic ratio in the probands was 0.29, while

being 0.50 in the grand-offspring ($p < 10^{-6}$). The corresponding means were 0.50

and 0.49 (p = 0.66) for the 86 mutations showing complete linkage with either

the paternal or maternal homologue (Figure 2, Suppl. Table 1).   Thus at least

12% of DNMs detected in blood DNA of female probands using standard

procedures occurred during their development rather than being inherited from

the parents, hence being of "PM" type. We did not observe a positive correlation

between the level of somatic mosaicism in the female probands and the

proportion of grand-offspring inheriting the mutation or the strength of linkage

in the grand-offspring ($p_{transmission}$ = 0.85; $p_{linkage}$ = 0.94), suggesting that the

degree of mosaicism in the female soma is a poor indicator of the degree of

mosaicism in the germ line (Suppl. Fig. 3).

If detectable mosaicism for DNMs is common, requiring their absence from the

parental DNA (as typically done) will eliminate genuine DNMs. We attempted to

recover such events as variants that were (i) absent in the grant-parents, (ii)

detected in either sire or dam with a fraction of mutant reads significantly < 50%

(Suppl. Table 1), (iii) transmitted to the proband with an allelic ratio of ~50%,

(iv) transmitted to at least one grand-offspring with an allelic ratio of ~50%, and

(v) not previously reported in unrelated individuals[11].   We detected 61

candidates, including the 3/89 variants mentioned above (Suppl. Table 1 and

Suppl. Fig. 1). We developed amplicons for 37, and sequenced (average 1,083-

fold depth) all 46 individuals plus 57 relatives including ≥ five half-sibs for each

proband (Figure 1). For 11 of the 37 tested candidates, the sire's or dam's allelic

ratio in the confirmation was ~1:1, and linkage to either the paternal or maternal

homologue (in the proband's half-sibs) perfect. These 11 events were thus

genuine DNMs, yet were more likely to have occurred in the grand-parents than

in the parents. For 25/26 remaining candidates, we observed partial linkage in

the half-sibs of the corresponding probands, confirming that these DNMs

occurred during the development of the (hence mosaic) parent. For the last

1/26, although linkage in the half-sibs of the proband appeared complete, the

allelic ratio in the parent remained very significantly skewed when compared to

descendants (p < 10^{-5}), strongly suggesting that this mutation also occurred

during the development of the (hence mosaic) parent. For 20/26 the DNMs were

transmitted to at least one of the analyzed half-sibs (Suppl. Table 1 and Suppl. Fig.

1).   Following this targeted confirmation, we took advantage of whole genome

sequence information that became available for 17 of the probands' half-sibs, to

trace the inheritance of the 24 non-confirmed candidate variants.   We

demonstrated partial linkage for 23/24 variants, hence confirming the

mosaicism of the corresponding parent.   For 15/24 the DNMs were transmitted

to at least one of the analyzed half-sibs (Suppl. Table 1 and Suppl. Fig. 1). Taken

together, confirmation data provided (i) strong evidence against parental

mosaicism for 11/61 variants, (ii) strong evidence in favor of parental mosaicism

for 49/61, and (iii) unconfirmed evidence for parental mosaicism for 1/61.

Twenty-seven of the 50 (49+1) non-excluded variants were detected in a sire,

and 23 in a dam (despite the fact that the sire could not be studied in the 11-

grand-offspring pedigree). Twenty-three occurred on the paternal and 27 on the

maternal chromosome (p = 0.34). The allelic ratio in the parents was 0.13, while

being 0.50 in the proband and grand-offspring (p < 10^{-6}) (Figure 2, Suppl. Table

1).   We did observe a significant positive correlation between the level of

somatic mosaicism in the sire and the strength of linkage in half-sibs ($p_{transmission}$

= 0.002), and between the level of somatic mosaicism in the dam and the

proportion of half-sibs inheriting the mutation ($p_{linkage}$ = 0.0008) (Suppl. Fig. 3).

These data suggest that – in cattle – paternal bulk sperm DNA may be mosaic for

at least 24% of DNMs present in a sperm cell, while maternal blood DNA may be

mosaic for at least 51% of DNMs present in an oocyte. We will refer to these

types of mutations as Sperm-Mosaic (SM) and Oocyte-Mosaic (OM), respectively

(meaning that the sire/dam is mosaic for the mutation transmitted via the

sperm/oocyte).

When analyzing the transmission patterns of SM and OM mutations to the half-

sibs of the probands, we were struck by the fact that (i) very few half-sibs

inherited none of the DNMs detected in the proband, while more than 50%

would be expected (23/60; p = 0.05), and (ii) half-sibs sharing multiple DNMs

with the proband appeared surprisingly common (Suppl. Fig. 4).

In mammals, after fertilization, cleavage, and segregation of (i) the inner cell

mass from the trophoblast, (ii) the epiblast from the hypoblast, (iii) the

embryonic epiblast from the amniotic ectoderm, a small number of epiblast-

derived cells located in the wall of the yolk sac in the vicinity of the allantois are

induced to become primordial germ cells (PGC). These migrate to the primitive

gonad where they expand and produce >1 million gametogonia. Oogonia initiate

meiosis prior to birth in females. Spermatogonia will resume mitotic divisions at

puberty allowing (i) the maintenance of a pool of stem cell like spermatogonia,

and (ii) sustained spermiogenesis involving ~2 additional mitotic divisions

followed by meiosis (Suppl. Fig. 5).   We simulated the process of de novo

mutagenesis in the male and female germ cell lineages assuming (i) uniform pre-

and post-natal mutation rates per cell divisions, and (ii) 40 unrelated PGCs (i.e.

sampled at random from the epiblast). Pre- and post-natal mutation rates were

adjusted to match the observed number of mutations per gamete (31 in sperm,

14 in oocytes). Under these conditions, we virtually never observed the level of

mosaicism, nor the sharing between sibs characterizing the real data (Figure 3).

We (i) increased the relative mutation rate during the early cell divisions

(keeping the mutation rate per gamete constant)(10 and 20-fold increase during

the first 2, 4 or 6 cell divisions), (ii) reduced the number of induced PGCs (40 or

4), and (iii) varied the relatedness between PGCs (unrelated or related)(Suppl.

Fig. 5).   Increasing the mutation rate during the very first cell divisions, and

increasing the relatedness between induced PGCs in the simulations matched the

real data much better (Figure 3).   To quantitatively evaluate model fitting we

used (i) the proportion of PM, SM and OM mutations with corresponding rate of

mosaicism in sperm and soma, and (ii) the proportion of sibs sharing 0, 1, 2, …

DNMs with a proband, to compute the likelihood of the data under different

scenarios (see M&M).   The data were at least $10^{5.8}$ times more likely when

assuming an increased mutation rate during the very first cell divisions than not

(whichever the values of the other parameters).   Assuming a higher mutation

rate during the first cell divisions, the best model with 40 related PGCs was $10^{6.1}$

times more likely than the best model with 40 unrelated PGCs, and $10^{18.3}$ times

more likely than with 4 PGCs.   The data were $10^{3.2}$ more likely when the

mutation rate was increased during the 4 or 6 first cell divisions rather than only

the first two cell divisions (Table 1 and Supplemental Table 2).

We estimated the numbers of the five types of mutations for the four studied

probands, accounting for estimated genome coverage (Figure 4A).   The

estimated number of DNMs per gamete (SNM+SM, ONM+OM) averaged 44.5 for

sperm cells and 18.1 for oocytes (male/female ratio of 2.5), corresponding to an

average mutation rate of ~1.25×10^{-8} per base pair per gamete. These rates are

likely to be slightly underestimated as a number (~ 1-5) of SM and OM mutations

(with highest degree of mosaicism in the parents) would have remained

undetected. The standard approach of ascertaining DNMs (i.e. erroneously

considering PM mutations, ignoring SM and OM mutations) would have yielded a

mutation rate of 0.97×10^{-8} per bp per gamete, with a 2.2-fold higher mutation

rate in bulls than in cows. 195 of the 209 identified DNMs were nucleotide

substitutions, 14 small insertion-deletions. Amongst substitutions, the transition

(Ti) – transversion (Tv) ratio was unexpectedly low (1.14). This was shown to

be due to a significant ~8-fold enrichment of C>A and/or G>T transversions in

the mosaic classes of mutations (PM, SM and OM).   The non-mosaic classes of

mutations (SNM and ONM) were ~30-fold enriched in CpG>TpG transitions as

expected, while this signature was less pronounced for mosaic mutations (Figure

4B&C).   There was no obvious difference between the profile of DNMs in the

male and female germ line (data not shown).   DNMs were uniformly scattered

across the genome (Suppl. Fig. 6).

Estimates of the DNM rate per generation from sequencing human families are

~2-fold lower than estimates from primate sequence divergence and possible

reasons for this discrepancy have been discussed[12,13].   We wondered whether

the rate of mosaicism might affect the rate of nucleotide substitution per

generation.   We simulated the fixation of DNM per generation in populations of

varying effective population size, with constant mutation rate per gamete but

varying levels of mosaicism. There was no evidence for an effect of mosaicism on

fixation rate (which was always ~ μ) nor on fixation time (which was always

~4Ne)(Suppl. Figure 7).

Our work strongly suggests that – in the bovine - early cleavage cell divisions are

particularly mutation prone, possibly accounting for as many as ~50% of DNM

detected in oocyte, and ~30% of DNM detected in a sperm cell. These findings

are consistent with recent evidence reported in humans[14].   The corresponding

early mutations were characterized by a distinct signature dominated by C>A

and/or G>T transversions, in contrast with DNM occurring during later stages of

gametogenesis which are dominated by the expected methyl-CpG to TpG

transversions. It is worth nothing that mutations in the proofreading domain of

polymerase epsilon, synthesizing the leading strand during DNA replication,

cause a mutator phenotype dominated by C>A in tumors[15].   This suggests that

the observed early DNM might primarily result from replication errors. The

predominance of early C>A transversions causes the overall Ti/Tv ratio to ~1.14,

well below expectations.   This was unlikely to be artifactual, as the expected

Ti/Tv was obtained when applying the same bioinformatics pipeline on

simulated DNM in the same pedigrees (M&M). Paradoxically the Ti/Tv ratio is ~2

when considering DNA sequence polymorphisms segregating in the domestic

cattle population (Suppl. Figure 8). This suggests either sampling variation

(meaning that Ti/Tv ratios might differ between families and that we by chance

sampled families at the low end) or that the mechanisms underlying the

observed excess of C>A (or G>T) transitions emerged recently. It is worth noting

in this regard that most analyzed animals were bred by artificial insemination

and/or in vitro embryo production.

Our results support the notion that the population of induced PGCs is

ontogenetically related. This is not unexpected given their physical proximity at

the base of the allantois. This may - in combination with a high incidence of

early cleavage cell divisions – be medically extremely relevant. Indeed, if

applicable to human, it implies that the recurrence risk of DNM-dependent

disorders in sibs may be higher than generally assumed[9,13].

DNM occurring during the development of an individual, should a priori affect

the maternal and paternal chromosome with equal probability. Indeed, this null

hypothesis could not be disproved within specific individuals for the PM, OM and

SM type of mutations detected in this work. When repeating the test across

individuals, however, we note that 47 mosaic mutations occurred on the

maternal chromosome versus 29 on the paternal chromosome (p = 0.05).   This

suggests that the maternal and paternal chromosomes might be epigenetically

distinct during early development and that this may affect their mutability.

Our work points towards the fact that direct estimates of mutation rates from

sequencing families may have to be revisited, taken PM, OM and SM status into

account, to obtain more accurate estimates of the mutation rate per gamete and

per generation which have been raising some questions[12,13].   This may affect

both the overall mutation rate as well as its male/female ratio.   However, our

analyses suggest that the effect is likely to be modest and insufficient to explain

the present discrepancy between direct and indirect estimates in human studies.

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Authors contributions

MG, CH, CC: designed the experiments. EM: provided samples. LK, NC, MD, WC:

performed the sequencing. CH, MG, CC: analyzed data. MG, CH, CC: wrote the

paper.

Figure 1: Pedigrees used for the detection of DNMs. PGS: paternal grand-sire,
PGD, paternal grand-dam, MGS: maternal grand-sire, MGD: maternal grand-dam,
Pr: probands. S: sires. D: dams. Animals in gray were used for confirmation.

Figure 2A

Figure 2B

Figure 2: Cumulative frequency distribution of the proportion of mutant
reads. (A) DNMs with detectable mosaicism in the individual (proband or
parent) in which the mutation occurred: Blue triangles: P(roband)M(osaic)
mutations having occurred during the development of the male proband (Pr1)
and for which the proband's sperm is mosaic. Red triangles: P(roband)M(osaic)
mutations having occurred during the development of the three female probands
(Pr2, Pr3, Pr4) and for which the proband's blood is mosaic. Blue circles:
S(perm)M(osaic) mutations having occurred during the development of two
sires (S2, S3) and for which the sires' sperm is mosaic. Red circles:
O(oocyte)M(osaic) mutations having occurred during the development of three
dams (D1, D2, D3) and for which the dams' blood is mosaic. Grey diamonds:
same mutations in the descendants of the mosaic animal. **(B) DNMs without**
detectable mosaicism in the individual in which the mutation occurred:
Blue triangles: S(perm)N(on)M(osaic) mutations transmitted by the (non
mosaic) sire to the male proband (Pr1) in whom the mutation was detected. Red
triangles: S(perm)N(on)M(osaic) mutations transmitted by the (non mosaic) sire
to the three female probands (Pr2, Pr3, Pr4) in whom the mutation was detected.
Blue circles: O(oocyte)N(on)M(osaic) mutations transmitted by the (non mosaic)
dam to the male proband (Pr1) in whom the mutation was detected. Red circles:

O(oocyte)N(on)M(osaic) mutations transmitted by the (non mosaic) dam to the
three female probands (Pr2, Pr3, Pr4) in whom the mutation was detected.

Figure 3A

Figure 3B

Figure 3: (A) DNMs mosaic in sperm DNA of the male proband (PM – sperm) or
sires (SM – sperm), or in blood DNA of the female probands (PM – blood) or
dams (OM – blood) ranked by rate of mosaicism. Colored lines: real data. Pr1-4:
proband 1-4. Dark gray shaded area: 95% confidence interval obtained from
simulations assuming uniform mutation rate per cell division and 40 unrelated
PGCs.   Light gray shaded area: 95% confidence interval obtained from
simulations assuming 10-fold higher mutation rate during the first 4 cell
divisions, and 40 related PGCs (Table 1). **(B)** Distribution of the proportion of
half-sibs of the four probands that share 0, or at least 1 (1+) of the DNMs
detected in the corresponding proband. Red bars: real observations for DNMs

transmitted by the sire (SM+SNM). Blue bars: real observations for DNMs
transmitted by the dam (OM+ONM). Dark grey bars: expectation under the null
hypothesis of uniform prenatal mutation rate per cell division and 40 unrelated
PGCs. Light grey bars: expectation under the best alternative model assuming a
10x increased mutation rate during the first 4 cell division and 40 related PGCs
(Table 1).

Figure 4A

Figure 4C

Figure 4B

Figure 4: (A) Types and number of DNMs detected in sperm DNA of male
proband Pr1, and in blood DNA of female probands Pr2, Pr3 and Pr4. The overall
numbers were estimated based on the observed DNMs, their rate of
confirmation, and the estimated degree of genome coverage. **(B)** SNM and ONM
(i.e. DNMs assumed to have occurred in the later stages of gametogenesis): fold
excess or deficiency over expected for specific nucleotide substitutions
accounting for trinucleotide context;   ***: p< 0.002 (accounting for multiple

testing by Sidak correction). Inset: Proportion of DNMs corresponding to the six
possible types of nucleotide substitutions. **(C)** Idem for PM, SM and OM (i.e.
DNMs assumed to have occurred in the early stages of gametogenesis).

Table 1:   Relative likelihood of the observations under different models of
gametogenesis

Fold increase mutation rate	During first x divisions	Number of PGC	Related PGCs or not	Log(LR)
10x	**4**	**40**	**T**	0.00
10x	**6**	40	T	-0.16
10x	**2**	40	T	-3.31
20x	2	40	T	-4.90
10x	4	40	**F**	-5.01
10x	2	**4**	F	-18.33
1x	6	40	T	-38.83

The first four columns correspond to the parameters that were tested in the model: (i)
the fold increase of the mutation rate (1x, 10x, 20x), (ii) during the x first cell divisions
(2, 4, 6), (iii) the number of PGCs (4, 40), and (iv) the ontogenetic relatedness of the
PGCs (F(alse) or T(rue)).   Log(LR) corresponds to the logarithm (base 10) of the
likelihood of the data relative to the best model (first line).   Parameters are in bold
when the corresponding model is the best given that parameter value.   We only show
results for models that are the best given at least one parameter value.   Likelihoods of
all models are given in Suppl. Table 2.