1 **TITLE**
2 Inherited *MUTYH* mutations cause elevated somatic mutation rates and distinctive mutational
3 signatures in normal human cells
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40   **Summary**
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42   **KEYWORDS**
43   Somatic mutations, normal tissues, genomics, ageing, mutational signatures, DNA repair
44
45   **ABSTRACT**
46
Cellular DNA damage caused by reactive oxygen species is repaired by the base excision repair (BER)
pathway which includes the DNA glycosylase MUTYH. Inherited biallelic *MUTYH* mutations cause
predisposition to colorectal adenomas and carcinoma. However, the mechanistic progression from
germline *MUTYH* mutations to **M**UTYH-**A**ssociated **P**olyposis (MAP) is incompletely understood. Here,
we sequenced normal tissue DNAs from 10 individuals with MAP. Somatic base substitution mutation
rates in intestinal epithelial cells were elevated 2 to 5-fold in all individuals, except for one showing a
33-fold increase, and were also increased in other tissues. The increased mutation burdens were of
multiple mutational signatures characterised by C>A changes. Different mutation rates and signatures
between individuals were likely due to different *MUTYH* mutations or additional inherited mutations
in other BER pathway genes. The elevated base substitution rate in normal cells likely accounts for the
predisposition to neoplasia in MAP. Despite ubiquitously elevated mutation rates, individuals with
MAP do not display overt evidence of premature ageing. Thus, accumulation of somatic mutations
may not be sufficient to cause the global organismal functional decline of ageing.
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INTRODUCTION

The genomes of all normal human cells are thought to acquire mutations during the course of life. However, the mutation rates of normal cells and the processes of DNA damage, repair and replication that underlie them are incompletely understood[1-8]. A ubiquitous source of potential mutations is DNA damage caused by reactive oxygen species (ROS) which are formed as by-products of aerobic metabolism[9]. ROS cause a variety of DNA lesions, the most common being 8-oxoguanine (8-OG)[10]. As a consequence of mispairing with adenine during DNA replication, 8-OG can cause G:C>T:A (referred to as C>A for brevity) transversion mutations[11]. Under normal circumstances, 8-OG and its consequences are efficiently mitigated by the Base Excision Repair (BER) pathway effected by DNA glycosylases; oxoguanine DNA glycosylase (OGG1) removes 8-OG[12] and MutY DNA glycosylase (MUTYH) removes adenines misincorporated opposite 8-OG[13].

Mutations in *MUTYH* engineered in experimental systems can impair its glycosylase activity, reducing its ability to excise mispaired bases and leading to an increased rate of predominantly C>A mutations[14-18]. *MUTYH* mutations inherited in the germline in humans cause an autosomal recessive syndrome (MUTYH-associated polyposis, MAP) characterised by intestinal adenomatous polyposis and an elevated risk of early onset colorectal and duodenal cancer[19-22]. The age of onset and the burden of intestinal polyps are highly variable between individuals, ranging from 10s to 100s leading to a substantially increased incidence of colorectal cancer.[23-27] Risks of other cancer types are also thought to be increased[28].

Colorectal adenomas and carcinomas from individuals with MAP show a predominance of C>A mutations consistent with the presence of an elevated mutation rate attributed to defective MUTYH function[29-33]. However, whether there is an increased mutation rate in normal cells from individuals with biallelic germline *MUTYH* mutations is unknown. If present in normal cells, understanding the magnitude of the increase in mutation rate, the tissues and cell types in which it occurs, the proportion of cells which show it, the mutational processes responsible and the effects of early neoplastic change would provide insight into the genesis of the elevated cancer risk observed in these individuals. In this study we characterise the somatic mutation rates and mutational signatures of normal intestinal cells, and other normal cells, from individuals with MAP.

RESULTS
Clinical information
Ten individuals aged 16 to 79 years with biallelic germline *MUTYH* mutations were studied. These included five missense mutation homozygotes (four MUTYH$^{Y179C+/+}$, one MUTYH$^{G286E+/+}$), three compound heterozygotes for the same pair of missense mutations (MUTYH$^{Y179C+/-;G396D+/-}$), and two siblings homozygous for a nonsense mutation (MUTYH$^{Y104*+/+}$). These *MUTYH* germline mutations have all been previously recognised as predisposing to MAP[22,23]. All 10 individuals had colorectal polyposis, with between 16 and >100 colonic adenomas, six were known to have duodenal polyps, five had colorectal cancer and one developed jejunal and pancreatic neuroendocrine cancer (Extended Data Table 1).

Mutation rates in normal intestinal stem cells

An intestinal crypt is constituted predominantly of a population of epithelial cells arising from a single
recent common ancestor[34-36]. The somatic mutations which have accumulated over the course of the
individual's lifetime in the ancestral crypt stem cell are present in all its descendant cells[3]. Thus, by
sequencing individual crypts, somatic mutations present in the ancestral stem cell can be identified.
Using laser-capture microdissection, 144 individual normal intestinal crypts (large intestine n=107 and
small intestine n=37) were isolated from the 10 individuals with germline *MUTYH* mutations (Extended
Data Table 2). DNA libraries were prepared from individual crypts using a bespoke low-input DNA
library preparation method[37] and were whole-genome sequenced at a mean 28-fold coverage.

The single base substitution (SBS) mutation burdens of individual crypts ranged from a median for
each individual of 2,294 to 33,350, equating to mutation rates of 79-1470 SBS/year, 2-33-fold higher
than normal crypts from wild-type individuals (~43 SBS/year)[3] (Figure 1b). Therefore, all normal crypts
from all MAP individuals studied showed elevated somatic mutation rates (Figure 1a-b).

Differences in mutation rate were observed between individuals with MAP (Figure 1b). A 33-fold
higher rate of SBS accumulation than in wild-type crypts[3] was observed in PD44890, a 16 year old male
with MUTYH$^{Y179C+/-\ G396D+/-}$. By contrast, the nine other individuals showed only 2- to 5-fold increases in
mutation rate compared to wild type. The reason for this substantial difference is not clear. However,
in addition to the *MUTYH* mutations, PD44890 carried two heterozygous germline missense variants
in *OGG1* (Extended Data Figure 1), one of which (R46Q) is reported to impair OGG1 activity in
experimental systems[38,39] and has been observed as somatically mutated in human cancer[40]. Germline
OGG1 mutations are not currently recognised as causing cancer predisposition in humans[41]. However,
if either or both of these mutations results in defective 8-OG excision they could account for the
substantially elevated mutation rate in PD44890, particularly in the context of defective MUTYH
activity.

There was also evidence of differences in mutation rates between the various *MUTYH* germline
genotypes studied (Fig. 1b). Excluding the outlier individual PD44890, mutation rates were lower in
individuals with the compound heterozygous MUTYH$^{Y179C+/-\ G396D+/-}$ (102 SBS/year, range 61-182) than
individuals with MUTYH$^{Y179C+/+}$ (214 SBS/year, range 84-356), MUTYH$^{Y104*+/+}$ (204 SBS/year, range 153-
309) or MUTYH$^{G286E+/+}$ (152 SBS/year, range 82-238) (MUTYH$^{Y179C+/-\ G396D+/-}$ vs MUTYH$^{Y179C+/+}$ /
MUTYH$^{Y104*+/+}$ / MUTYH$^{G286E+/+}$,P=9.5x10^{-8}, P=6.1x10^{-19}, P=9.8x10^{-3} respectively. MUTYH$^{G286E+/+}$ vs.
MUTYH$^{Y179C+/+}$ / MUTYH$^{Y104*+/+}$ P=2.7x10^{-2} and P=4.5x10^{-3} respectively). The results, therefore, indicate
that different *MUTYH* genotypes confer differentially elevated mutation rates and that the extent of
the mutation rate increase can be modified by other factors.

SBS mutation rates in coding exons in normal intestinal crypts from MAP individuals were also
elevated compared to wild-type individuals (Extended Data Fig 2a-b). These increases were, however,
slightly smaller than those observed in the genome-wide mutation rate (Extended Data Fig 2a-b).
Nonsense, missense and synonymous mutation rates were all increased compared with wild-type
crypts, with the greatest increase observed in nonsense mutations (~10-fold more nonsense than
wild-type vs ~3.5-fold more missense and ~2.6-fold more synonymous) (Extended Data Fig. 2c). This
is attributable to the mutational signatures present (see below) and the tendency of specific mutations
at particular trinucleotide contexts to preferentially generate protein-truncating mutations[42,43] .

Neoplastic glands from 13 intestinal adenomas from five individuals with MAP showed SBS mutation
burdens that were, on average, ~2-fold higher (range 1.2 to 2.5 fold) (Figure 1c) than normal crypts
from the same individuals sampled at the same time. Therefore, the elevated mutation rate observed
in histologically normal intestinal crypts in individuals with germline *MUTYH* mutations is further
increased during the process of neoplastic transformation, as previously observed in wild type
individuals[44,45].
156
Small insertion and deletion (ID) mutations accumulated at a rate of 2.1 ID/yr (linear mixed-effects
model, 95% confidence interval (C.I.) 1.2-3.0, *P*= <10[-4]), which is higher than in wild-type controls (1.3
ID/yr, linear mixed-effects model, C.I. 0.54-2.0, *P*= 0.0011)[3,43]. The cause of this modestly elevated ID
rate is not clear. In two MAP individuals additional mutational processes could explain the higher
burdens observed in these cases. In PD44890 the high ID mutation rate (ID rate 6/yr) was, at least
partially, explained by the presence of an additional ID generating mutational process associated with
exposure to the mutagen colibactin produced by a strain of E.*Coli*[3,46,47] present in the colonic
microbiome of some people (see below). In PD50747 (ID rate 6/yr), a previously undescribed sporadic
ID signature IDA was identified which was not present in other MAP individuals (described below).
Structural rearrangements and copy number changes were only observed in a small number of normal
intestinal crypts, at similar frequencies to those in wild-type controls (Extended Data Table 2)[3].
168
Mutational signatures
Mutational signatures were extracted from the combined catalogues of SBS mutations from all normal
and neoplastic intestinal crypts and glands using two independent methods. We then decomposed
each *de novo* extracted signature into known COSMIC reference mutational signatures. Finally, we
used these decompositions to estimate the contribution of each reference signature to each sample
(Methods, Supplementary Note). Three *de novo* extracted signatures, N1-N3, accounted for the
majority of mutations, all of which were mainly characterised by C>A mutations (Fig. 2a). Two of these
closely corresponded to the reference mutational signatures SBS18 and SBS36. The third was
abundant only in individual PD44890 (the individual with a high mutation rate carrying *OGG1* germline
variants) (Fig. 2b and Supplementary Note) but could also be accounted for by a combination of SBS18
and SBS36 according to the standard parameters used for decomposition (Supplementary
Information).
181
Following decomposition and signature attribution, four reference SBS mutational signatures, SBS1,
SBS5, SBS18 and SBS36 were identified in all samples (Fig. 3, Supplementary Note). SBS1, due to
deamination of 5-methlycytosine at CG dinucleotides and SBS5, of unknown aetiology, have both been
found ubiquitously in normal and cancer cells and accumulate in a more or less linear fashion with
age[2-4,8,33,48-50]. SBS18, thought to result from DNA damage due to reactive oxygen species, has
previously been reported in normal colorectal cells[3] and many types of cancer[33] and is characterised
by C>A mutations predominantly at ACA, CCA, GCA and TCT trinucleotide contexts (mutated base
underlined) (Fig. 2a and Fig. 3). SBS36 has previously been found in cancers with germline or somatic
MUTYH mutations and is also characterised by C>A mutations, albeit with a different profile of
preferred trinucleotide contexts from SBS18[30-33](Fig. 2a). SBS88, which is predominantly characterised
by T>C and T>G mutations, and is due to early life exposure to the mutagenic agent colibactin
produced by some strains of E.*Coli*[3,46,47], was observed in a subset of crypts from PD44890 (Figure 3b).

The SBS88 mutation burdens were consistent with those previously seen in wild type individuals
indicating that MUTYH is unlikely to be implicated in the genesis of SBS88.
196
The increased SBS mutation burdens in normal crypts from individuals with *MUTYH* germline
mutations appeared to be due to the contributions of SBS18 and SBS36 mutations (Fig. 3a-e). The
proportions of SBS18 and SBS36, however, differed between *MUTYH* germline genotypes. SBS18
accounted for a substantially higher proportion of mutations in crypts and glands from individuals
with the MUTYH$^{Y179C+/- G396D+/-}$ genotype (n=85 crypts) than in individuals with the MUTYH$^{Y179C+/+}$,
MUTYH$^{Y104*+/+}$ and MUTYH$^{G286E+/+}$ genotypes (n=59 crypts, Extended Data Fig. 3a). Since MUTYH^{Y104*}
causes MUTYH protein truncation, it is conceivable that SBS36 is the consequence of complete loss of
MUTYH function and therefore that this is also effected by MUTYH^{Y179C} and MUTYH^{G286E}. Conversely,
MUTYH^{G396D} may retain partial activity[14,21] and thus generates a signature more closely resembling
SBS18 which is found in normal tissues with fully active MUTYH.
207
The *de novo* extracted mutational signature N2, which primarily contributes to the mutational spectra
of crypts from PD44890 (MUTYH$^{Y179C+/- G396D+/-}$), resembled reference signature SBS18
(https://cancer.sanger.ac.uk/cosmic/signatures) but showed differences, notably with over
representation of C>A mutations at G<u>C</u>A and, to a lesser extent, C<u>C</u>A and A<u>C</u>A trinucleotides (mutated
base underlined) (Fig. 2a-b and Extended Data Fig. 1). A signature reported in human cells with *in vitro*
engineered biallelic *OGG1* deletion is also primarily characterised by C>A mutations at G<u>C</u>A and A<u>C</u>A
trinucleotides[51]. It is, therefore, possible that mutagenesis due to the germline *OGG1* variant(s) in
PD44890 (see above) is superimposed on the mutational signature produced by the *MUTYH* germline
mutations to generate N2 (see Supplementary Information for further analysis and discussion).
217
218 The mutational signatures in adenoma glands were similar to those seen in normal crypts from the
219 same individuals (Fig. 3a,b,d,e). SBS36 and SBS18 were principally responsible for the increased
220 mutation burdens observed in adenomas compared to normal crypts.
221
Candidate cancer "driver" mutations, defined as known or likely oncogenic hotspot mutations and
truncating mutations in tumour suppressor genes (Methods), were observed in 15% of normal crypts
(22/144), more than double the rate observed in wild-type crypts from comparable healthy controls;
6% (25/449)[3,43]. A substantial proportion of candidate drivers (16/22) were nonsense mutations,
mirroring the broader exome-wide increase in nonsense mutations (Extended Data Fig. 2c), and
reflecting the proclivity of certain mutation types to generate truncating mutations[29,42,43]. The
mutational spectrum of driver mutations in normal crypts and neoplastic glands resembled the
genome-wide spectra with substantial contributions from SBS18 and SBS36 (Extended Data Fig. 4).
Hence, the mutational processes resulting from defective MUTYH activity appear to promote the
accumulation of putative cancer driver mutations in normal and neoplastic tissues[52,53].
232
Three known ID signatures were identified. ID1 & ID2 are characterised predominantly by insertions
and deletions of single T bases at T mononucleotide repeats which are associated with strand slippage
during DNA replication and are seen in most human cancers and normal tissues[1-4,8,33]. ID18 is
associated with colibactin exposure, is found in normal intestinal stem cells and certain cancers, and
usually associated with SBS88[3,47]. ID1 was the dominant signature in normal cells whereas ID2
predominated in neoplastic cells (Extended Data Fig. 5). ID18 was principally observed in samples from

PD44890 and is responsible for the elevated ID rate in this individual (Extended Data Fig. 6). A further
ID signature, IDA, identified in PD50747, was characterised by single C insertions at C mononucleotide
repeats (Extended Data Fig. 6). IDA was present in both normal crypts (~5% of total ID burden) and to
a greater extent in adenoma glands (~20% of total ID burden). The cause of this previously undescribed
signature is unclear but may be associated with previous capecitabine treatment and seems unlikely
to be related to germline MUTYH mutations.
245
Mutations in other cell types
To investigate whether the elevated mutation rates and mutational signatures observed in intestinal
epithelium caused by defective MUTYH are present in other cell types, peripheral white blood cell and
tissue lymphocyte DNAs from individuals with biallelic *MUTYH* mutations were whole genome
sequenced using a duplex sequencing method (NanoSeq)[50] that allows mutation calling from single
DNA molecules and thus accurately discovers somatic mutations in tissues in which multiple clonal
lineages are intimately mixed.
253
The white blood cell SBS mutation rates of all individuals with *MUTYH* mutations were higher than
wild-type controls (*n*=15 granulocyte samples from 9 healthy individuals aged 20-80yrs)(Fig. 4)(25
SBS/yr vs 19 SBS/yr, linear mixed-effects model, R^2=0.89, MUTYH; 95% C.I., 19-31, *P*=10^{-7} and wild-
type; 95% C.I., 14-24, *P*=10^{-6}). The relative increases in blood mutation rates were lower than in
intestinal crypts from each individual (Fig. 4b). Nevertheless, the relative increases paralleled the
differential increases observed between individuals in intestinal crypts. SBS mutation rates in tissue
lymphocytes were modestly raised compared with wild-type healthy individuals (Fig. 4d) (53 SBS/yr
vs 40 SBS/yr, linear mixed-effects model, R^2=0.68, *MUTYH*; 95% C.I., 21-85, *P*=0.01 and wild-type; 95%
C.I., 13-66, *P*=0.01). The signatures associated with defective MUTYH, SBS18 and SBS36, contributed
the excess mutations in all samples (Fig. 4c and Fig. 4e). An additional mutational signature was seen
in lymphocytes. SBS9, which is associated with DNA polymerase eta mediated somatic hypermutation
and is a key process in the physiological maturation of B-cells, was observed in most lymphocyte
samples indicating that the lymphocyte cell populations contained mature B-cells (Fig. 4e).
267
DISCUSSION
This study shows elevated base substitution somatic mutation rates due to SBS18 and/or SBS36 in
normal tissues from individuals with *MUTYH* mutations. The results are compatible with all intestinal,
and potentially all other cells in the body, showing elevated mutation rates. The relative increases in
mutation rate and mutational signature composition differed between individuals, probably due to
different *MUTYH* mutations and perhaps to other modifying influences.
274
We have previously highlighted the capability of normal human cells to tolerate substantially elevated
mutation rates[43]. Carriers of POLE and POLD1 germline exonuclease domain mutations exhibited
elevated somatic mutation burdens without evident cellular or organismal consequences, other than
an increased cancer risk[43]. This capability is confirmed in *MUTYH* germline mutation carriers. It is
further emphasised by the observation of a 33-fold genome-wide elevated base substitution mutation
burden in the 16 year old PD44890, which would confer a "mutational age" of ~500 years, without
overt evidence of premature ageing. The increase in mutation burden in coding exons is lower than
genome-wide in POLE/POLD1 mutation carriers. Similarly, in individuals with *MUTYH* mutations there
is a smaller increase of coding exon than genome-wide mutation burdens (Extended Data Fig. 2a-b).

Nevertheless in PD44890 the increase is still ~29-fold, and therefore equivalent to a "mutational age"
of ~450 years. Whilst lesser increases in mutation rates compared to wild-type individuals were
observed in other tissues from PD44890, ~8-fold in white blood cells and ~7 fold in tissue lymphocytes,
these still conferred substantially elevated "mutational ages" in the absence of features of premature
ageing. Thus direct deleterious effects of base substitutions accumulated over the course of a lifetime
may not be an important cause of ageing.
290
The elevated mutation rate in normal intestinal epithelium likely contributes to the increased risk of
colorectal adenomas and cancers in individuals with *MUTYH* mutations. Indeed, there appears to be
a correlation between the extent of elevation of mutation rate and the rate of acquisition of colorectal
adenomas. Individuals with the MUTYH$^{Y104*+/+}$ and MUTYH$^{Y179C+/+}$ genotypes exhibited greater
increases in somatic mutation rates than individuals with the MUTYH$^{Y179C+/- G396D+/-}$ genotype. Previous
detailed clinical phenotyping of large series indicates that individuals with biallelic truncating
mutations or MUTYH$^{Y179C+/+}$ show higher rates of accumulation of adenomas and earlier age of onset
of carcinoma[22,23] than MUTYH$^{Y179C+/- G396D+/-}$. The correlation between elevation of mutation rate and
severity of clinical phenotype is further highlighted by individual PD44890 (16 years of age,
MUTYH$^{Y179C+/- G396D+/-}$) who exhibited a substantially higher mutation rate than others of this genotype,
and showed a much accelerated rate of colorectal adenoma development (Extended Data Table 1-2).
We previously described ~7-fold elevated genome-wide base substitution mutation rates in intestinal
cells of POLE germline exonuclease domain mutation carriers[43]. POLE mutation carriers, however,
show lower colorectal adenoma rates than *MUTYH* biallelic mutation carriers who generally only show
2-5 fold increased mutation rates. This apparent discrepancy may, however, be explained by the
genomic distribution of mutations. In POLE mutation carriers there is relative sparing of coding
sequences, with only a three to four fold increase in exonic mutations in intestinal cells, whereas this
sparing is less pronounced in *MUTYH* mutation carriers leading to similar increases in exonic mutation
rates (Extended Data Fig. 7a-b). These observations lead to the proposition that measurements of
somatic coding mutation rates undertaken early in life could, in future, be used to refine individual
cancer risk predictions for *POLE/POLD* and *MUTYH* germline mutation carriers.
312
313 As for many other cancer predisposition syndromes, it is unclear why *MUTYH* germline mutations lead
314 particularly to intestinal neoplasia. Elevated somatic mutation rates are also found in white blood cells
315 in MAP individuals (and may therefore be present in other tissues) although the increases appear
316 lesser in extent than in intestinal cells. The propensity to generate SBS18 mutations appears greater
317 in wild type intestinal cells than in other cell types[49] and this may also be contributory.
318
In summary, we report elevated somatic base substitution rates characterised by distinctive
mutational signatures in normal tissues from individuals with MAP. These findings underscore
previous observations that elevated somatic base substitution rates are largely tolerated by cells and
do not overtly accelerate the process of ageing. It is likely, however, that increased mutation rates in
normal intestinal cells throughout life lead to increased rates of accumulation of driver mutations and,
hence, the procession of neoplastic clones culminating in cancer.
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FIGURE 1 | Somatic mutation burdens in cells with *MUTYH* mutations
Elevated mutation burdens in normal intestinal cells with *MUTYH* mutations (a) Genome-wide single
base substitution (SBS) mutation burden of individual intestinal crypts grouped according to patient.
Each dot represents an individual intestinal crypt. *MUTYH* genotypes are displayed separately.
Boxplots display median, inter-quartile range (IQR) from 1st to 3rd quartiles and whiskers extend from
the last quartile to the last data point that is within 1.5x IQR (b) Fold-change in SBS rate compared
with wild-type controls[3] coloured according to germline genotype (orange; MUTYH[Y179C+/- G396D+/-],
yellow; MUTYH[Y179C+/+], green; MUTYH[Y104*+/+], blue; MUTYH[G286E+/+]). Median values are represented by
the dot, whiskers represent the range from the minimum to maximum value. P-values for pair-wise
comparisons are shown in Supplementary Note. (c) Genome-wide single base substitution burden in
histologically normal crypts (grey) and adenoma crypts (orange, yellow and green) arranged by patient

and germline mutation. Median values represented by the dot, whiskers represent the range from the

minimum to maximum value. Data available for 5 individuals who had adenoma crypts sequenced.

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FIGURE 2 | Mutational spectra and signature components from normal cells with MUTYH mutations
(a) Probability distribution for COSMIC reference signature SBS36[40], recently described *OGG1* deletion
signature SBSOGG1[51] and reference signature SBS18[40]. Mutational signature components N1-3 from
HDP *de novo* signature extraction (see Supplementary Information for all components and Methods /
Supplementary Note for further explanation). **(b)** Mutational spectra in normal tissues displayed by
the germline *MUTYH* mutation. Distinctive peaks are annotated with their trinucleotide context
(mutated base is underlined). PD44890 is displayed separately to highlight the difference in spectrum
observed in this individual.
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FIGURE 3 | Phylogenetic trees and mutational signatures intestinal cells with germline *MUTYH* mutations

Phylogenetic trees per-individual reconstructed from SBS mutations in individual intestinal crypts
showing the number of SBS mutations per branch. Stacked barplots are overlaid onto each branch to
represent the proportion of each mutational signature contributing to that branch. Phylogenetic trees
are arranged by *MUTYH* germline mutation; (a) MUTYH$^{Y179C+/-\ G396D+/-}$ (b) MUTYH$^{Y179C+/-\ G396D+/-}$ with
OGG1 germline mutations, (c) MUTYH$^{G286E+/+}$, (d) MUTYH$^{Y179C+/+}$ and (e) MUTYH$^{Y104*+/+}$. Adenoma glands
bearing cancer driver mutations are indicated with an asterisk '*'.
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FIGURE 4 | Mutation burdens and mutational signatures in blood and immune cell populations

(a) Mutation burden in peripheral blood. SBS mutation burden per cell plotted against the age of the

individual in years coloured according to the individual's germline mutation; orange; MUTYH[Y179C+/-

G396D+/-], yellow; MUTYH[Y179C+/+], green; MUTYH[Y104*+/+] and blue; MUTYH[G286E+/+]. Whiskers represent the

95% confidence interval. Black dashed line represents the average mutation rate in normal wild-type

control samples[50] **(b)** Mutation burden of *MUTYH* associated mutational signatures; SBS18 and SBS36

per cell for peripheral blood (x-axis) against the SBS18 & SBS36 mutation burden of normal intestinal

crypts (y-axis). Each dot represents one individual and they are coloured according to the individual's

germline mutation; orange; MUTYH[Y179C+/- G396D+/-], yellow; MUTYH[Y179C+/+], green; MUTYH[Y104*+/+] and

blue; MUTYH[G286E+/+]. Ratio MUTYH mutational processes in colon vs blood ~13x fold (linear model, 95%

C.I.; 10-17). Black line indicates ratio and dotted lines the 95% confidence intervals. **(c)** Stacked bar

plot displaying the mutational signature contribution in each peripheral blood sample organised by

patient. Coloured squares indicate the *MUTYH* germline mutation. Normal control data from

granulocytes sequenced using the same method (data from Abascal et al 2021)[50]. Significantly higher
proportion of SBS18 and SBS36 are observed in individuals with MUTYH mutations vs normal healthy
controls (two-sided Wilcoxon rank sum, *P*=0.00004) **(d)** SBS mutation burden in intestinal lymphocyte
cells from wild-type healthy individuals (grey) and individuals with *MUTYH* mutations (coloured
according to the germline *MUTYH* genotype) plotted against age (years). Dots represent median
values and whiskers represent the 95% confidence interval. Dashed line indicates the rate of increase
of SBS burden in wild-type lymphocytes (40 SBS/yr, linear mixed-effects model, R^2=0.68, 95% C.I., 13-
66, *P*=0.01) and dotted line indicates the rate of increase in SBS burden in lymphocytes from
individuals with *MUTYH* mutations (53 SBS/yr, linear mixed-effects model, R^2=0.68, 95% C.I., 21-85,
P=0.01). **(e)** Stacked bar plots showing the absolute (above) and relative (below) contributions of each
mutational signature in tissue lymphocytes from wild-type healthy individuals (grey squares) and
individuals with *MUTYH* mutations (coloured squares).
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 EXTENDED FIGURES

Extended Data Figure 1 | Germline mutations and mutational spectrum of somatic mutations in PD44890

Two candidate germline modifier mutations were identified in individual PD44890 both of which are in the oxoguanine glycosylase (OGG1) gene which is a key component of the base excision repair pathway and a partner of MUTYH in the repair of 8-oxo-guanine DNA lesions. Both mutations are heterozygous nonsynonymous mutations. JBrowse images are displayed showing the reads for each mutation; **(a)** OGG1 R46Q **(b)** OGG1 R308E. See Supplementary Note for further discussion of these putative germline modifier mutations. **(c)** Mutational spectrum of SBS mutations from a representative intestinal crypt from individual PD44890, mutational spectra for the COSMIC reference signatures SBS36 and SBS18 are displayed below for comparison (https://cancer.sanger.ac.uk/cosmic/signatures). Mutational spectrum of IPS cells with homozygous OGG1 deletion (Zou et al 2021, Nature Cancer)[51] denoted SBS OGG1. **(d)** Matrix displaying cosine similarity between the observed spectrum in individual PD44890 and reference signatures SSB18, SBS36 and SBS OGG1.

Extended Data Figure 2 | Genome-wide and exome-wide mutation burdens in intestinal crypts
(a) Stacked bar plots show the proportion of SBS mutations contributed by MUTYH-related signatures
SBS18 and SBS36 (coloured bar) and normal ageing signatures (SBS1 and SBS5) (grey bar). Genome-
wide signature proportions (left) protein-coding exome-wide signature proportions (right). **(b)** Fold-
increase in the genome- and exome-wide mutation burden of samples from individuals with MUTYH-
Associated Polyposis (MAP) compared with normal controls plotted on a logarithmic scale. **(c)**
Boxplots showing nonsense, missense and synonymous coding mutation rates (SBS
mutations/crypt/year) in histologically normal intestinal crypts from individuals with MUTYH-
Associated Polyposis (MAP) (red) and healthy individuals; wild type (WT) (black). Boxplots display
median, inter-quartile range (IQR) from 1st to 3rd quartiles and whiskers extend from the last quartile
to the last data point that is within 1.5x IQR . Fold changes compared to WT, are shown above each

pair, *P*-values calculated using a two-sided Wilcoxon test. Data for healthy wild-type individuals from
Lee-Six et al 2019[3]
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MUTYH^{Y179C+/- / G396D +/-}   MUTYH^{Y179C+/+}   MUTYH^{Y104*+/+}   MUTYH^{G286E+/+}

Extended Data Figure 3 | Mutational signatures in normal intestinal crypts and adenoma glands

(a) Somatic SBS mutation burden in normal intestinal crypts due to SBS36 (x-axis) and SBS18 (y-axis)

coloured according to germline mutation (orange; MUTYH^{Y179C+/- G396D+/-}, yellow; MUTYH^{Y179C+/+}, green;

MUTYH^{Y104*+/+}, blue; MUTYH^{G286E+/+}). Crypts with MUTYH^{Y179C+/+}, MUTYH^{Y104*+/+} and MUTYH^{G286E+/+} show

greater relative increases in SBS36 whereas those with MUTYH^{Y179C+/- G396D+/-} show greater increases in

SBS18. Crypts from individual PD44890 are a clear outlier with much greater SBS18 burdens. Magnified

plot inset.

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Extended Data Figure 4 | Mutational Spectrum of driver mutations in normal and neoplastic
intestinal crypts
(a) Mutational spectrum of drivers mutations identified in normal and neoplastic intestinal stem cells
in this cohort (n=59). Mutational spectra for the COSMIC reference signatures **(b)** SBS36 and **(c)** SBS18
are displayed below for comparison. The spectra of driver mutations is dominated by SBS36 and
SBS18. COSMIC reference signatures available at: https://cancer.sanger.ac.uk/cosmic/signatures.
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Extended Data Fig 5 | Phylogenetic trees showing ID signature exposure
Phylogenetic trees with ID signature exposure overlaid. Branches of the phylogenetic tree with >100
somatic ID mutations have been converted into stacked bar plots displaying the contribution of each
HDP signature component / mutational process to that branch: N1/ID1 shown in dark red, N2/ID2 in
orange, N3/ID18 in mustard yellow and N4/IDA in lime green. Phylogenetic tress organised by
germline genotype, **(a)** MUTYH$^{Y179C+/- \ G396D+/-}$, **(b)** MUTYH$^{Y179C+/+}$, **(c)** MUTYH$^{Y104*+/+}$ and **(d)** MUTYH$^{G286E+/+}$
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Extended Data Figure 6 | ID mutational spectra

ID mutational spectra for crypts with sporadic ID signature exposures. **(a)** Representative sample from PD44890 with high ID18 exposure. Representative normal crypt from PD50747 showing IDA exposure

637   in **(b)** normal crypt and **(c)** adenoma gland. **(d)** ID signature component arising from unconditioned *de*
638   *novo* HDP signature extraction (Methods) corresponding to signature IDA.
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Extended Data Figure 7 | Coding mutation burdens in intestinal crypts from individuals with germline MUTYH and POLE/D1 mutations

Coding mutation burdens in individuals with MUTYH and POLE/D1.**(a)** SBS coding mutation rate (SBS/year) coloured according to cohort; MUTYH; red, POLE/D1; blue. (b) ID coding mutation rate (ID/year).

Extended Data Table 1 | Clinical summary and phenotypic characteristics of individuals with germline *MUTYH* mutations
Summary of phenotypic features and disease burden in all individuals in this cohort.

Extended Data Table 2 | Summary of samples sequenced including germline *MUTYH* mutation, sequencing method and mutation burdens

Extended Data Table 3 | Cancer driver mutations identified in this cohort
Cancer driver mutations identified across all samples in this cohort

METHODS

Ethical approval and study participants

This research complies with all relevant ethical regulations. MAP patients were recruited as part of Wales Research Ethics Committee (REC) 12-WA0071 and 15-WA0075 and samples collected were approved for use in this project by REC 18/ES/0133. Normal healthy controls were recruited as part of the following UK Research Ethics Committee (REC) studies; 15/WA/0131, 15/EE/0152, 18/ES/0133 and 08/h0304/85+5.

Informed consent was obtained from all participants and no monetary compensation was offered for their participation. A complete list of study participants and tissue samples is summarised in Extended Data Table 1 and 2.

DNA extraction from bulk samples

Frozen whole blood underwent DNA extraction using the Gentra Puregene Blood Kit (Qiagen). Briefly, 1-2ml of frozen blood were thawed, lysed in RBC lysis solution and centrifuged. Cell pellet was resuspended in cell lysis solution and incubated at 37 ℃ for 2 hours. RNA and protein was degraded using RNase A solution and protein precipitation solution. DNA was precipitated with isopropanol.

Tissue Preparation

Tissues were embedded in Optimal Cutting Temperature (OCT) compound, frozen histological sections were cut at 25-30μm and mounted on polyethylene naphthalate (PEN) slides and fixed in 70% ethanol for 5 minutes followed by two washes with phosphate buffered saline for 1 minute each. Slides were manually stained in haematoxylin and eosin using a conventional staining protocol. A subset of samples were fixed in RNAlater (Sigma Aldrich) according to manufacturer's instructions. Fixed tissue samples were embedded in paraffin using a Tissue-Tek tissue processing machine (Sakura). No formalin was used in the preparation, storage, fixation or processing of samples. Processed tissue blocks were embedded in paraffin wax, sectioned to 10μm thickness and mounted onto PEN slides (Leica). Tissue slides were stained using a standard haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) protocol. Slides were temporarily cover-slipped and scanned on a NanoZoomer S60 Slide Scanner (Hamamatsu), images were viewed with NDP.View2 software (Hamamatsu).

Laser Capture Microdissection

Laser capture microdissection was undertaken using a LMD7000 microscope (Leica) into a skirted 96-well PCR plate. Cell lysis was undertaken using 20μl proteinase-K PicoPure® DNA Extraction kit (Arcturus®), samples were incubated at 65 ℃ for 3 hours followed by proteinase denaturation at 75 ℃ for 30 minutes. Thereafter samples were stored at -20 ℃ prior to DNA library preparation.

Low-input DNA library preparation and sequencing

DNA library preparation of micro-dissected tissue samples was undertaken as previously described using a bespoke low-input enzymatic-fragmentation-based library preparation method[2-4,37]. This method was employed as it allows for high quality DNA library preparation from very low starting quantity of material (from 100-500 cells). DNA library concentration was assessed after library preparation and used to guide choice of samples to take forward to DNA sequencing, minimum library concentration was 5ng/μL and libraries with >15ng/μL were preferentially chosen. 150bp paired-end Illumina reads were prepared with Unique Dual Index barcodes (Illumina).

DNA sequencing was undertaken on a NovaSeq 6000 platform using an XP kit (Illumina). Samples were multiplexed in pools of 6-24 samples. Pools were sequenced to achieve a coverage of ~30x.

Mutation calling and post-processing filters

Sequencing reads were aligned to NCBI human genome GRCh37 and aligned using the Burrow-Wheeler
Alignment (BWA-MEM). Single Base Substitutions (SBS) were called using the 'Cancer Variants through
Expectation Maximization' algorithm (CaVEMan)[54]. Mutations were called using an unmatched normal synthetic
bam file to retain early embryonic and somatic mutations. Post-processing filters were applied to remove low-
input library preparation specific artefacts and germline mutations using a previously described method[1,2,37,55].
Filters applied were: (1) common single nucleotide polymorphisms were removed by filtering against a panel of
75 unmatched normal samples[56] (2) to remove mapping artefacts, mutations were required to have a minimum
median read alignment score of mutant reads (ASMD ≥ 140) and fewer than half of the reads supporting the
mutation should be clipped (CLPM =0); (3) a filter to remove overlapping reads that result from the relatively
short insert size which could lead to double counting of variant reads; and (4) a filter to remove cruciform DNA
structures that can arise during the low-input library preparation method.
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Next, we applied multiple filters to remove germline variants and potential artefacts whilst retaining *bona fide*
embryonic and somatic variants. This approach has been detailed in previous publications and the code for these
filters can be found at https://github.com/TimCoorens/Unmatched_NormSeq. Mutations were aggregated per
patient and a read pile-up was performed using an in-house algorithm (cgpVAF) to tabulate the read count of
mutant and reference reads per sample for each mutation locus. Germline mutations were filtered out using an
exact binomial test. The exact binomial test is used to distinguish germline from somatic variants and uses the
aggregate read counts from all samples of the same patient[1,55]. In brief, the read depth across all samples from
that individual was calculated (median in this study 496-fold). This high coverage yields a very precise estimate
of the true VAF of each mutation. While the VAF estimates of the earliest embryonic SNVs and germline variants
from samples sequenced at 30x might overlap, the VAFs from the aggregate coverage from that individual will
be distinguishable using statistical testing. To achieve this, the beta-binomial test was applied. The
overdispersion parameter (rho) threshold for genuine variants of rho>0.1 was used.
733
734 Phylogenetic trees were created using MPBoot (version 1.1.0 bootstrapped - 1000) and mutations were mapped
735 to branches using maximum likelihood assignment.
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737 Indels (ID) were called using Pindel[57] using the same synthetic unmatched normal sample employed in SBS
738 mutation calling. ID calls were filtered to remove calls with a quality score of <300 ('Qual'; sum of mapping
739 qualities of the supporting reads) and a read depth of less than 15. Thereafter, ID filtering was performed in a
740 similar manner as SBS to remove germline variants and library preparation / sequencing artefacts.
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Copy-number alteration calling
Somatic copy-number variants (CNVs) were called using the Allele-Specific Copy number Analysis of Tumours
(ASCAT) algorithm[58], https://github.com/Crick-CancerGenomics/ascat) in the ascatNGS package[59]. Bulk blood
samples or phylogenetically unrelated normal samples were used as matched normals. ASCAT was initially run
with default parameters. To reduce the number of false-positive calls that arise when analysing normal tissue
samples using ASCAT, a bespoke algorithm ascat-PCA was applied. ascat-PCA extracts a noise profile by
aggregating the LogR ratio from across a panel of normal unrelated samples and subtracts this signature from
that observed in the sample being analysed using principal component analysis (INSERT GITHUB).
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Structural variant calling
Whole-genome sequences were analysed for somatic structural variants (SVs) using the Genomic
Rearrangement Identification Software Suite (GRIDSS). In preparation for this analysis, genomes were remapped
to Human Genome Version 38 and GRIDSS was run using the same matched normal as used for CNV analysis.
Coordinates for SV calls were subsequently converted back to GRCh37. SV calls in L1 transposon donor regions
and fragile sites were excluded from the final SV analysis.
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Mutational signature analysis

The R package HDP (https://github.com/nicolaroberts/hdp), based on the hierarchical Dirichlet process[60], was used to extract mutational signatures. Analysis of mutational signatures using this package has been applied to normal tissues previously[1-4]. In brief, this nonparametric Bayesian method models categorical count data using the hierarchical Dirichlet process. A hierarchical structure is established using patients as the first tier (parent nodes) and individual samples as the second tier (dependent nodes). Uniform Dirichlet priors were applied across all samples. The algorithm creates a mutation catalogue for each sample and infers the distribution of signatures in any one sample using a Gibbs sampler. We performed mutational signatures analysis per-branch, counting each branch of the phylogenetic tree as a distinct sample to avoid double counting of mutations. Since the MCMC process scales linearly with the number of counts, we randomly subsampled each branch to a maximum of 2500 total substitutions. Branches with fewer than 100 mutations were excluded from the mutational signature extraction. No reference signatures were included as priors.

To assess the contribution of each mutational process, mutational signatures were refitted to all mutation counts of branches of phylogenies using the R package sigfit (https://github.com/kgori/sigfit)[61]. To avoid overfitting, a limited subset of reference mutational signatures were included per patient corresponding to the HDP signatures that have been identified in that individual.

Ageing signatures SBS1 and SBS5 are present in all normal intestinal crypts[3]. Lower than expected burdens of SBS1 and SBS5 were observed in most individuals in this study due to; 1. the inherent challenges of accurately estimating mutation burden in hypermutated samples and 2. the appreciable contamination of reference signatures with SBS1 and SBS5. To partially address this, we used the extracted HDP component corresponding to SBS36 in the refitting stage which has lower SBS1 and SBS5 contamination than the COSMIC reference SBS36 signature. Nevertheless, in individual PD44890 where SBS18 and SBS36 exposures are many tens of times greater than the normal mutation rate, the estimates of SBS1 and SBS5 are substantially lower than would be expected.

Cancer driver mutations

Cancer driver mutations were identified using two methods aiming to identify genes and mutations in this cohort that are subject to positive selection. Firstly, to identify mutations in cancer genes under positive selection in an unbiased manner, we ran a modified dNdS method[62]. To avoid double-counting of mutations, only unique mutations (SBS and ID) which were mapped to branches of the phylogenetic trees were analysed. dNdScv was run using the following parameters; max_coding_muts_per_sample=5000 and max_muts_per_gene_per_sample=20. Genes with a qval of <0.05 were considered to be under positive selection.

A second phase of cancer gene mutation analysis was undertaken; identifying mutations in this cohort which are codified in cancer mutation databases and exhibit characteristic traits of cancer driver mutations; an approach previously employed in the study of normal tissues[1,2]. In this phase of the analysis we sought to identify the spectrum and frequency of cancer driver mutations in this cohort. Somatic mutations (SBS and ID) were collated per-sample from all tissues. Analysis was restricted to protein coding regions and mutations were filtered using lists of known cancer genes; mutations in samples from intestinal epithelium were filtered using a list of 90 genes associated with colorectal cancer and includes variants that are commonly identified in small bowel adenocarcinoma[3]; samples from all other tissues including blood were filtered using a pan-cancer list of 369 driver genes[62]. Genes were then characterised according to their predominant molecular behaviour; dominant, recessive or intermediate (those demonstrating aspects of both types of behaviour) using the COSMIC Cancer Gene Census[63]. All candidate mutations were annotated using the cBioportal MutationMapper database

(https://www.cbioportal.org/mutation_mapper). Mutations meeting the following criteria were considered to
be driver mutations; truncating mutations (those that cause a shortened RNA transcript, nonsense, essential
splice-site, splice region and frameshift ID) in recessively acting genes, known activating hotspot mutations in
dominant (and recessive) genes and lastly mutations that were in neither of the above categories but
characterised by the MutationMapper database as being 'likely oncogenic' were also included in the final driver
mutation catalogue. We also sought to compare the frequency of driver mutations in histologically normal crypts
with MUTYH mutations to those from individuals who do not carry DNA polymerase mutations. Somatic
mutations from 445 normal intestinal crypts[3] were annotated and filtered using the above criteria. Comparison
was made with normal intestinal crypts from this cohort of individuals with MUTYH germline mutations.
816
817
818 **Modified duplex sequencing (NanoSeq)**
819
DNA from bulk blood samples from individuals with germline *MUTYH* mutations was extracted as outlined
above. Samples from normal healthy control was obtained and processed using the following method. Whole
blood was diluted with PBS and mononuclear cells (MNC) were isolated using lymphoprepTM (STEMCELL
Technologies) density gradient centrifugation. The red blood cell and granulocyte fraction of the blood was then
removed. The MNC fraction was depleted of red blood cells by lysis steps involving 3 incubations at room
temperature for 20 mins/10 mins/10 mins respectively with RBC lysis buffer (BioLegend). Tissue lymphocytes
were isolated from Peyer's patches in intestinal mucosa using laser capture microdissection and subjected to
protein lysis as outlined above. Cell lysates were processed and whole genome sequenced using the NanoSeq
protocol.
829
830 Our modified duplex sequencing method, called NanoSeq, relies on blunt-end restriction enzymes to fragment
831 the genome in order to avoid errors associated to the filling of 5' overhangs and the extension of internal nicks
832 during end repair after sonication. Our modified method has error rates < 5e-9[50].
833
834 Given the uneven frequencies of trinucleotides in the digested genome, the strong filtering of common SNPs
835 sites (typically occurring at CpG), and the strong dependence of mutation rates on trinucleotide contexts, our
836 estimates of mutation burdens are normalized and projected onto genomic trinucleotide frequencies.
837
838 Let t denote the count of a given trinucleotide of type i = 1…32. The frequency of each trinucleotide is calculated
839 separately for the genome f_i^g and for the NanoSeq experiment f_i^e where:
840

$$f_i = \frac{t_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{32} t_i}$$

842
843 The ratio of genomic to experimental frequencies for a given trinucleotide is:
844

$$r_i = \frac{f_i^g}{f_i^e}$$

846
847 There are j = 1…6 classes of substitution where the mutated base is a pyrimidine. Let s_{ij} denote the count of
848 substitution j in trinucleotide context i, giving a total of 96 substitution classes. Each substitution count is
849 corrected as follows:
850

$$s'_{ij} = s_{ij} r_i$$

853 The corrected substitution counts provide a substitution profile projected onto the human genome, and are also
854 used to calculate the corrected mutation burden:
855

$$\beta' = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{32} \sum_{j=1}^{6} s'_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^{32} t_i}$$

857
Software used in this study is publicly available at the following locations. Mutation calling algorithms are
available at https://github.com/cancerit. Code for filtering mutation calls is available
at https://github.com/TimCoorens/Unmatched_NormSeq. Software for mutational signature analysis is
available at https://github.com/nicolaroberts/hdp
, https://github.com/kgori/sigfit and https://github.com/AlexandrovLab. Software for analysis of duplex /
NanoSeq data is provided at https://github.com/cancerit/NanoSeq. Parameters used for these various pieces of
software have been included in the manuscript methods section and supplementary information.
865

Data Availability

DNA sequencing data are deposited in the European Genome-Phenome Archive (EGA) with accession code: EGAD00001007958 and EGAD00001007997.

The cBioPortal MutationMapper database was accessed at:
https://www.cbioportal.org/mutation_mapper?standaloneMutationMapperGeneTab=ATM

Code Availability

Code/software required to reproduce the analyses in this paper are available online and are listed in Methods.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

P.S.R., M.R.S., J.R.S. and L.T. conceived the study design. J.R.S., L.T., F.L., L.B., N.L., H.D.W., R.B-S., S.R, R.t.H., N.C., S.J.A.B. and K.S.P. recruited individuals, collected samples and curated sample and clinical data. P.S.R., B.C.H.L. and S.V.L. undertook laboratory work. F.A., I.M., S.V.L., L.M.R.H., T.H.H.C. and M.A.S. developed bespoke DNA library preparation, sequencing and bioinformatic methods. F.A., I.M., L.M.R.H., H.L.S. and S.O. contributed and analysed control data. P.S.R., F.A., I.M., S.O. and H.J. performed data analysis. M.R.S., P.J.C. and I.M. oversaw statistical analysis. M.R.S. and J.R.S. oversaw the study. All authors were involved in the preparation and review of the manuscript.

COMPETING INTERESTS

P.J.C. is a founder, consultant, and stockholder of Mu Genomics Ltd.