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Topography of mutational signatures in human cancer

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SUMMARY

The somatic mutations found in a cancer genome are imprinted by different mutational

processes. Each process exhibits a characteristic mutational signature, which can be affected by

the genome architecture. However, the interplay between mutational signatures and

topographical genomic features has not been extensively explored. Here, we integrate mutations

from 5,120 whole-genome sequenced tumours from 40 cancer types with 516 topographical

features from ENCODE to evaluate the effect of nucleosome occupancy, histone modifications,

CTCF binding, replication timing, and transcription/replication strand asymmetries on the

cancer-specific accumulation of mutations from distinct mutagenic processes. Most mutational

signatures are affected by topographical features with signatures of related aetiologies being

similarly affected. Certain signatures exhibit periodic behaviours or cancer-type specific

enrichments/depletions near topographical features, revealing further information about the

processes that imprinted them. Our findings, disseminated via COSMIC, provide a

comprehensive online resource for exploring the interactions between mutational signatures and

topographical features across human cancer.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

HIGHLIGHTS

- Comprehensive topography analysis of mutational signatures encompassing 82,890,857 somatic mutations in 5,120 whole-genome sequenced tumours integrated with 516 tissue-matched topographical features from the ENCODE project.

- The accumulation of somatic mutations from most mutational signatures is affected by nucleosome occupancy, histone modifications, CTCF binding sites, transcribed regions, or replication strand/timing.

- Mutational signatures with related aetiologies are consistently characterized by similar genome topographies across tissue types.

- Topography analysis allows both separating signatures from different aetiologies and understanding the genomic specificity of clustered somatic mutations.

- A comprehensive online resource, disseminate through the COSMIC signatures database, that allows researchers to explore the interactions between somatic mutational processes and genome architecture within and across cancer types.

Keywords: somatic mutations; topography; mutational processes; mutational patterns; mutational signatures; human cancer

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INTRODUCTION

Cancer genomes are peppered with somatic mutations imprinted by the activities of different endogenous and exogenous mutational processes[1,2]. Due to their intrinsic biophysical and biochemical properties, each mutational process engraves a characteristic pattern of somatic mutations, known as a mutational signature[3]. Our previous analyses encompassing more than 5,000 whole-genome and 20,000 whole-exome sequenced human cancers have revealed the existence of at least 78 single base substitution (SBS), 11 doublet-base substitution (DBS), and 18 indel (ID) mutational signatures[4-7]. Through statistical associations and further experimental characterizations, aetiology has been proposed for approximately half of the identified signatures[4,8-15]. Prior studies have also explored the interactions between somatic mutations imprinted by different mutational processes and the topographical features of the human genome for certain cancer types and a small subset of topographical features. However, previously, there has been no comprehensive evaluation that examined the effect of genome architecture and topographical features on the accumulation of somatic mutations from different mutational signatures across human cancer.

Early studies have shown that late replicating regions and condensed chromatin regions accumulate more mutations when compared to early replicating regions, actively transcribed regions, and open chromatin regions[16-19]. Subsequent analyses of hundreds of cancer genomes have revealed that differential DNA repair can explain variations in mutation rates across some cancer genomes[20] as well as that chromatin features originating from the cell of origin, which gave rise to the tumour, can affect mutation rate and the distribution of somatic mutations[17]. Recently, Morganella *et al.* examined the effect of the genomic and the epigenomic architecture

on the activity of 12 SBS signatures in breast cancer[21]. These analyses demonstrated that

mutations generated by different mutational processes exhibit distinct strand asymmetries and

that mutational signatures are differently affected by replication timing and nucleosome

occupancy[21]. Pan-cancer exploration of strand asymmetries was also conducted for different

mutation types across multiple cancer types[22] as well as for different mutational signatures[23]. In

particular, pan-cancer analyses of more than 3,000 cancers have revealed the strand asymmetries

and replication timings of the 30 SBS mutational signatures from the Catalogue of Somatic

Mutations in Cancer version 2 signatures database (COSMICv2)[23]. Similarly, more than 3,000

cancer genomes were used to elucidate the effect of nucleosome occupancy for the 30

substitution signatures from COSMICv2[24]. More recently, a study has also shown the interplay

between the three-dimensional genome organization and the activity of certain mutational

signatures[25,26].

Here, we report the most comprehensive evaluation of the effect of nucleosome occupancy,

histone modifications, CCCTC-binding factor (CTCF) binding sites, replication timing,

transcription strand asymmetry, and replication strand asymmetry on the cancer-specific

accumulation of somatic mutations from distinct mutational signatures. Our analysis leverages

the complete set of known COSMICv3.3 signatures (78 SBS, 11 DBS, and 18 ID) and it

examines 5,120 whole-genome sequenced cancers while simultaneously utilizing 516 unique

tissue-matched topographical features from the ENCODE project (**Table S1**)[27]. In all analyses,

the observed patterns of somatic mutations are compared to background simulation models of

mutational signatures that mimic both the trinucleotide pattern of these signatures as well as their

mutational burden within each chromosome in each examined sample (**Methods**). Our results

confirm many of the observations previously reported for strand asymmetry, replication timing,

and nucleosome periodicity for the original COSMICv2 signatures. Further, the richer and larger

COSMICv3.3 dataset allowed us to elucidate novel biological findings for some of these 30 SBS

signatures revealing previously unobserved pan-cancer and cancer-specific dependencies.

Additionally, this report provides the first-ever map of the genome topography of indel, doublet-

base, and another 24 substitution signatures in human cancer. Moreover, our study is the first to

examine the tissue-specific effect of CTCF binding and 11 different histone modifications on the

accumulation of somatic mutations from different mutational signatures. As part of the results,

we provide a global view of the topography of mutational signatures across 5,120 whole-genome

sequenced tumours from 40 types of human cancer and we include cancer type specific

examples. As part of the discussion, we zoom into two distinct case studies: *(i)* the topography of

different types of clustered somatic mutations; and *(ii)* using the topography of mutational

signatures to separate mutational signatures with similar patterns. Lastly, the reported results are

released as part of the COSMICv3.3 signatures database, https://cancer.sanger.ac.uk/signatures,

providing an unprecedented online resource for examining the topography of mutational

signatures within and across human cancer types.

RESULTS

Transcription Strand Asymmetries

Transcription strand asymmetries have been generally attributed to transcription-coupled

nucleotide excision repair (TC-NER) since bulky adducts (*e.g.*, ones due to tobacco carcinogens)

in actively transcribed regions of the genome will be preferentially repaired by TC-NER[28].

Additionally, transcription-coupled damage may also lead to transcription strand asymmetry due

to one of the strands being preferentially damaged during transcription[22].

Mutational signatures with similar aetiologies generally exhibited consistent patterns of

transcription strand asymmetries across cancer types. Specifically, most signatures attributed to

exogenous mutational processes showed transcription strand bias with mutations usually

enriched on the transcribed strand (**Figure 1*A&E***). This included signatures SBS4/DBS2 (both

previously attributed to mutagens in tobacco smoking), SBS16 (alcohol consumption), SBS24

(aflatoxin), SBS29 (tobacco chewing), SBS25/SBS31/SBS35/DBS5 (prior chemotherapy), and

SBS32 (prior treatment with azathioprine). Nevertheless, for some exogenous signatures, strand

asymmetries could differ between cancer types. For example, while transcriptional asymmetries

for C>A and T>A mutations from SBS4 were observed across most cancer types, asymmetries

for C>G mutations were only observed in lung adenocarcinoma and cancers of the head and neck

(**Figure 1*C***). Interestingly, C>T mutations attributed to SBS4 had strand asymmetry only in lung

adenocarcinoma. In contrast, mutational signatures due to direct damage from ultraviolet light

(*viz.*, SBS7a/b/c/d and DBS1) were the only known exogenous mutational processes to exhibit

transcription strand asymmetry with strong enrichment of mutations on the untranscribed strand,

consistent with damage from ultraviolet light on cytosine (**Figure 1*A&E***).

Transcription strand asymmetry with consistent enrichment of mutations on the transcribed

strand was also observed for clock-like signature SBS5 and for multiple mutational signatures

with unknown aetiology, including: SBS12, SBS19, and ID14 (**Figure 1*A&E***). Strand bias with

preferences for the untranscribed strand was observed for signatures ID11 and SBS33 (both with

unknown aetiology). Lastly, other mutational signatures exhibited transcription strand

asymmetry in only a small subset of cancer types (**Figure 1*A&E***).

Mutational Signatures in Genic and Intergenic Regions

Except for SBS16 and ID11, all other signatures were enriched in intergenic regions across most

cancer types with the enrichment ranging from 1.30-fold (*e.g.*, SBS24) to more than 2-fold (*e.g.*,

SBS17a/b; **Figure S1*A-C***). The observed depletion of mutations in genic regions was not due to

transcription strand asymmetries as correcting the asymmetries, by assigning the number of

mutations on both transcribed and untranscribed strands to their highest value, resulted in only a

minor alterations of the fold change increases (**Figure S1*D-E***). Overall, these results suggest that

transcription strand asymmetry, usually attributed to the activity of TC-NER, does not account

for the high enrichment of somatic mutations in intergenic regions.

SBS16 and ID11 showed enrichment of mutation in genic regions in liver and oesophageal

cancers, while ID11 was also enriched in genic regions in cancers of the head and neck. SBS16

has been previously associated with exposure to alcohol[29-31] and attributed to the activity of

transcription-coupled damage[22]. Prior studies have also associated ID11 to alcohol consumption

in oesophageal cancers[7]. Re-examining ID11 in the current cohort of whole-genome sequenced

liver cancers, by comparing the mutations attributed to ID11 in 32 heavy drinkers to the

mutations attributed to ID11 in 94 light drinkers, reveals a 2-fold enrichment in heavy drinkers

(p-value: 1.31×10^{-3}; Mann-Whitney U test). This and the prior associations in oesophageal

cancers[7] strongly suggest a similar exogenous mutational processes, related to alcohol

consumption, accounting for the enrichment of mutation in genic regions for both signatures

SBS16 and ID11.

Replication Strand Asymmetries

Replication strand bias was consistently observed in most signatures attributed to aberrant or

defective endogenous mutational processes with strand bias either on the leading or on the

lagging strand (**Figure 1*B&F***). Strong replication strand asymmetries with enrichment of

mutations on the leading strand was observed for signatures previously attributed to the defective

activity of polymerases, including: *(i)* SBS10a/SBS10b/DBS3 found in samples with

exonuclease domain mutations in DNA polymerase epsilon (*POLE*); *(ii)* SBS9, attributed to

infidelity of polymerase eta (POLH); and *(iii)* SBS10c due to defective polymerase delta

(*POLD1*). Interestingly, SBS28 (unknown aetiology) exhibited a strong replication strand bias

when found at high levels in POLE deficient samples.

Mutational signatures associated with defective DNA mismatch repair exhibited statistically

significant replication strand bias either predominately on the leading strand (*viz.*, SBS6) or on

the lagging strand (*viz.*, SBS14, SBS15, SBS20, SBS21, SBS26, SBS44, ID1). There were some

minor inconsistencies of replication strand bias across cancer types. For example, SBS44 did not

have replication strand asymmetry for C>T, T>A, and T>C mutations in oesophageal squamous

cell carcinoma (**Figure 1*D***). Somatic mutations due to signatures SBS2 and SBS13, both

attributed to the aberrant behaviour of the APOBEC3 family of deaminases[32], were found

enriched on the lagging strand in all cancer types. This result is consistent with the observation

that single-stranded DNA formed during DNA replication on the lagging strand is a major

substrate for the APOBEC3 family of deaminases[33,34]. Lastly, several other mutational

signatures, most with unknown aetiology, exhibited replication strand bias within a small set of

cancer types (**Figure 1***B&F*).

Strand-coordinated Mutagenesis

Prior analyses have shown that certain types of mutations on the same reference allele were

observed on the same strand more frequently than expected by chance[21,34,35]. This strand-

coordinated clustered mutations usually arise due to damage on single-stranded DNA, and they

are often indicative of the formation of hypermutable loci in the genome[33,34].

SBS7a, attributed to ultraviolet (UV) light, attained the highest strand-coordinated mutagenesis

with lengths of subsequent mutations up to 40 consecutive mutations (**Figure 1***G*). In contrast,

other mutational signatures attributed to ultraviolet light, mainly, SBS7b/c/d, either did not

exhibit or exhibited much lower strand-coordinated mutagenesis. APOBEC3-attributed SBS2

and SBS13 showed strand-coordinated mutagenesis with as many as 21 consecutive strand-

coordinated mutations. Additionally, strand-coordinated mutations were observed for SBS17b

(unknown aetiology), SBS10a/b (*POLE* deficiency), SBS4 (tobacco smoking), SBS26 (defective

mismatch repair), and SBS28 (unknown aetiology).

The Effect of DNA Replication Timing

Consistent with prior reports[18,36-38], the aggregated set of somatic mutations was shown to be enriched in late replicating regions for most cancer types (**Figure 2***A*). Specifically, from the examined 40 cancer types, SBSs were found more common in regions of the genome that undergo late replication in 39/40 cancer types and were not associated with replication only in uveal melanoma (**Figure 2***A*). Similarly, DBSs and IDs were enriched in late replicating regions in 18/18 and 30/32 cancer types, respectively. Note that due to their lower mutational burdens, we could confidently evaluate DBSs and IDs only in a subset of cancer types. In agreement with the aggregates analysis, most mutational signatures imprinted somatic mutations with an increased normalized mutational density from early to late replicating regions (**Figure S2**). For example, SBS3 (defective homologous recombination) was enriched in late replicating regions in all 14 cancer types where the signature can be confidently evaluated. Other examples include signatures DBS2 and ID1, which were also consistently enriched in all examined cancer types (**Figure 2***B*).

Nevertheless, at least seven mutational signatures were found predominately enriched in early replicating regions, including: ID17 likely due to *TOP2A* mutations; SBS11 due to temozolomide therapy; SBS16, ID11 both associated with alcohol consumption; SBS6, SBS15 both attributed to mismatch repair deficiency; and SBS84 due to the aberrant activities of activation-induced (AID) cytidine deaminases (**Figure 2***C*; **Figure S2**). Moreover, multiple mutational signatures were generally unaffected by replication timing, including: SBS7b (UV-light); SBS20, SBS21, SBS44 (attributed to failure of mismatch repair); SBS30 (deficient base excision repair); and SBS39, ID12 (unknown aetiology; **Figure 2***D*; **Figure S2**). The lack of

association with replication timing for some of these mutational signatures can be potentially

attributed to the activity of DNA translesion polymerases[39,40].

Interestingly, a number of mutational signatures exhibited cancer-type specific associations with

replication timing (**Figure S2**). For example, signature ID8 was enriched with replication timing

in 5 cancer types, depleted in 6 cancer types, and unaffected by replication timing in 7 cancer

types (**Figure 2*E***). Multiple aetiologies have been associated with ID8[4,41], including mutations

resulting in K743N amino acid change in TOP2A. All samples harbouring such mutations in

TOP2A exhibited an enrichment of ID8 in early replicating regions (**Figure 2*E***). The other

cancer-type specific mechanisms resulting in different associations with replication timing for

ID8 remain unknown.

Another notable example of cancer-type specific associations with replication timing is the

APOBEC3-associated SBS13 (**Figure S2**). SBS13 showed no dependence with replication

timing in 7/17 cancer types (*viz.*, bladder, breast, uterus, cervix, ovary, thyroid, and acute

lymphocytic leukaemia; **Figure 2*F***). This behaviour is consistent with prior reports where

SBS13 was attributed to uracil excision of deaminated cytosine followed by processing by DNA

translesion polymerases in breast cancer[39,40]. Surprisingly, in 10/17 cancer types, SBS13 was

highly enriched in late replicating regions. Using a previously defined approach for separating

the cancer samples on ones where SBS13 is not a hypermutator (low APOBEC3) and ones where

SBS13 is a hypermutator (high APOBEC3) revealed that the lack of dependence with replication

timing is predominately characteristic for hypermutated samples (**Figure 2*F***). This result

indicates that DNA translesion polymerases may play a significantly larger role in APOBEC3

hypermutators than previously anticipated.

The Effect of Nucleosome Occupancy

Nucleosomes are the basic packing units of chromatin with each nucleosome consisting of ~147

base-pair (bp) DNA wrapped around a histone octamer with 60 to 80 bp linker DNA between

consecutive nucleosomes[42,43]. Previous analyses have revealed dependencies between mutational

signatures operative in breast cancer and nucleosome occupancy[21] as well as a pan-cancer

periodicity of mutation rates within nucleosomes due to multiple substitution signatures[24].

However, beyond breast cancer, there has been no cancer-specific examination of the effect of

nucleosome occupancy on different mutational signatures.

Aggregated somatic mutations and mutations attributed to most mutational signatures were

depleted near nucleosomes compared to simulated data that mimic the mutational landscapes of

the examined cancer genomes (**Figure 3***A*). Remarkably, the majority of SBS, DBS, and ID

mutational signatures were similarly affected by nucleosome occupancy across most cancer

types (**Figure S3**). Some signatures were consistently enriched in the vicinity of nucleosomes.

For example, clock-like signature SBS1 exhibited a pattern closely mimicking simulated data

and showing higher number of mutations at nucleosomes in 36/36 cancer types, including

cancers of the lung, head and neck, liver, and oesophagus (**Figure 3***B*). In contrast, some

signatures were markedly different that simulated data (**Figure S3**), including signature DBS2

which was consistently depleted across 13/13 cancer types (**Figure 3***C*). Moreover, some

signatures were depleted in nucleosomes and strikingly appeared at linker DNA (**Figure S3**). For

example, clock-like signature ID1 was depleted when compared to simulated data and it

exhibited depletion in nucleosomes in 24/24 examined cancer types (**Figure 3D**). The mutations

engraved by most flat mutational signatures (*e.g.*, SBS5, SBS8, SBS40) were generally

unaffected by nucleosomes (**Figure S3**).

Different types of periodicities of mutation rates around the nucleosome structure were observed

for signatures associated with tobacco smoking (SBS4 and ID3), ultraviolet light (SBS7a/b/c/d),

POLE deficiency (SBS10a), aristolochic acid (SBS22), and reactive oxygen species (SBS18,

SBS36, SBS38; **Figures 3E & S3**). Interestingly, signatures SBS17a/b also showed similar

periodic dependencies (**Figure 3E)** providing further circumstantial evidence for the hypothesis

that SBS17a/b may also be due to reactive oxygen species damage of the deoxyribonucleoside

triphosphate pools[23,44-48]. With the exception of signature SBS22 and ID3, all other periodic

signatures exhibited enrichment of mutations at nucleosomes (**Figure 3E&G**). Further, for most

signatures periodicity of mutation rates was observed in each cancer types where the signature

was operative (**Figure S3**). Nevertheless, signature SBS4 showed strong periodicity in cancers of

the lung and head and neck but not in cancers of the liver or oesophagus (**Figure 3F**). Similarly,

signature ID3 exhibited periodic behaviour only in cancers of the lung but not in any other

cancer type (**Figure 3G**).

The Effect of CTCF Binding

CCCTC-binding factor (CTCF) is a multi-purpose sequence-specific DNA-binding protein with

an essential role in transcriptional regulation, somatic recombination, and chromatin

architecture[49]. The human genome harbours many CTCF binding sites with prior studies

reporting that mutations due to ultraviolet light are enriched in CTCF binding sites[50].

Somatic mutations exhibited clear patterns of both enrichment and/or periodicity for multiple

mutational signatures and CTCF binding sites (**Figure 4**). While some signatures were

consistently depleted at CTCF biding sites across the majority of cancer types when compared to

simulated data (SBS1, SBS9, SBS10a/b, SBS15, SBS37, SBS84, and SBS85), others were

commonly enriched (SBS3, SBS5, SBS7a/b/d, SBS12, SBS17a/b, SBS18, SBS22, and SBS40;

DBS1; ID5, ID6, ID8, and ID9; **Figure 4*A***).

Aggregated single base substitutions exhibited an inconsistent behaviour across cancer types

with enrichment in some cancers (*e.g.,* liver cancers) and depletions in others (*e.g.*, lymphomas).

In contrast, indels were enriched at CTCF binding sites in the majority of cancer types (**Figure**

4*A*). Remarkably, the effect of CTCF occupancy tended to be also consistent for many signatures

with similar aetiologies. Strong periodicities of mutation rates around CTCF binding sites were

observed for UV-associated signature SBS7a but not for UV-associated signatures DBS1 and

SBS7b/c/d (**Figure 4*B***).

Mutations due to SBS9, associated with defective polymerase eta driven replication errors, and

signatures SBS10a/b, found in samples with mutations in *POLE* and/or *POLD1*, were strikingly

depleted at CTCF binding sites. Signatures SBS15, associated microsatellite instability, was

strongly depleted at CTCF binding sites (**Figure 4*A***).

Only one of the clock-like signatures, SBS1, exhibited a depletion of mutations at CTCF binding

sites (**Figure 4***A*) while simulated data indicated that SBS1 should be enriched at these sites

(**Figure 4***B*). Signature SBS3, attributed to defective homologous recombination, was highly

elevated in CTCF binding sites for breast, ovarian, stomach, and oesophageal cancers. Signatures

SBS17a/b exhibited a striking enrichment at CTCF binding sites in all cancer types with

sufficient number of mutations from each signature (**Figure 4***A*). SBS17a showed enrichment in

stomach and oesophageal cancers, while SBS17b shows enrichment for stomach, oesophageal,

breast, pancreatic cancers, and non-Hodgkin's lymphomas. In contrast, simulated data indicate

that CTCF binding should have no effect on the accumulation of mutations from signatures

SBS17a/b (**Figure 4***B*).

The Effect of Histone Modifications

Each nucleosome consists of four pairs of core histones: H2A, H2B, H3, and H4. Post-

translational modifications of histone tails play a key role in regulating DNA replication, gene

transcription, and DNA damage response[51]. To evaluate the effect of histone modifications on

the accumulation of mutations from different mutational signatures, we mapped the depletion or

enrichment of mutations compared to simulated data in the context of the tissue specific

positions of 11 histone modifications: *(i)* H2AFZ, a replication-independent member of the

histone H2A family that renders chromatin accessible at enhancers and promoters

regulating transcriptional activation and repression[52]; *(ii)* H3K4me1, histone mark often

associated with enhancer activity[53] ; *(iii)* H3K4me2, a histone post-translational modification

enriched in *cis*-regulatory regions, including both enhancers and promoters[54]; *(iv)* H3K4me3,

post-translational modification enriched in active promoters near transcription start sites[55]; *(v)*

H3K9ac, associated with active gene promoters and active transcription[56]; *(vi)* H3K9me3,

silencer, typical mark of constitutive heterochromatin[57]; *(vii)* H3K27ac, histone modification

generally contained at nucleosomes flanking enhancers[55]; *(viii)* H3K27me3, repressive,

associated with silent genes[58]; *(ix)* H3K36me3, associated with transcribed regions and playing a

role in regulating DNA damage repair[59]; *(x)* H3K79me2, detected in the transcribed regions of

active genes[60]; and *(xi)* H4K20me1, found in gene promoters and associated with gene

transcriptional elongation and transcription activation[61].

Aggregated substitutions, dinucleotides, and indels exhibited dissimilar behaviour for different

histone modifications across cancer types (**Figure S4**). Aggregated substitutions were

predominately depleted around H2AFZ, H3K4me2, H3K4me3, and H3K27ac in approximately

half of the examined cancer types (**Figure S4*A-C***). Aggregated doublets and indels did not have

any clear pan-cancer preference but showed cancer-type specific enrichments and depletions. In

contrast, majority of mutational signatures had generally similar behaviour in vicinity of

different histone modifications revealing that histone modifications have similar effect on

mutagenesis across cancer types (**Figure S4**). Most SBS mutational signatures were either

unaffected or depleted near histone marks (**Figure S4*A***). Notable exceptions were APOBEC3-

associated signatures SBS2 and SBS13, AID-associated signatures SBS84 and SBS85, and

POLH attributed SBS9 which were generally enriched near most histone modifications (**Figure**

S4*A*). Doublet signatures DBS1, DBS2, DBS3, DBS4, and DBS5 were also predominately

depleted near most histone marks (**Figure S4*B***). In contrast, signatures DBS7, DBS9, and

DBS11 were highly enriched near most histone marks. Most ID mutational signatures were

either unaffected or very highly enriched near histone marks (**Figure S4*C***) with the only

exceptions being depletions of: *(i)* ID1 and ID6 near H2AZ; *(ii)* ID3 in the vicinity of H3K4me3;

(iii) ID5 near H3K27me3; and *(iv)* ID14 in the vicinity H3K36me3. While enrichments and

depletions of somatic mutations in the vicinity of histone marks were commonly observed for

different mutational signatures (**Figure S4***A-C*), there was no specific pattern of mutations

within 1,000 base-pairs for any of the examined histone modifications. Exemplars of typically

observed patterns of enrichments, depletions, or no changes around different histone

modifications are provided for signatures SBS7a and ID1 across several histone modifications

(**Figure S5***D*).

Next, we examine two mutational signatures that exhibited inconsistent enrichments and

depletions near specific histone marks. Clock-like signature SBS1 was consistently depleted

across cancer-types for multiple histone marks, including H3K9me3 (**Figure 5***A*). Nevertheless,

SBS1 exhibited enrichment of mutations near H3K9me3 in two cancer types of the central

nervous system, depletion of mutations near H3K9me3 in three haematological malignancies,

and no effect in all other solid tumour types (**Figure 5***A*). Similarly, signature ID1 exhibited

dissimilar behaviour near H3K27ac with enrichments in medulloblastoma and lymphoma,

depletions in stomach and prostate cancer, and no change in most other cancer types (**Figure**

5*B*).

DISCUSSION

Our analysis provides a comprehensive resource that maps the effects of topographical genomic features on the cancer-specific accumulation of somatic mutations from distinct mutational signatures. The reported results confirmed many of the prior observations for strand asymmetry, replication timing, and nucleosome periodicity for some of the original 30 COSMICv2 SBS signatures[21,23,24]. The examined larger dataset provided us with a greater resolution to identify previously unobserved pan-cancer and cancer-specific dependencies for some of these 30 signatures as well as to reveal the effect of genome architecture on the accumulation of another 46 mutational signatures across human cancer. Importantly, this report also provides the first-ever examination of the tissue-specific effect of CTCF binding and 11 different histone modifications on the accumulation of somatic mutations from different mutational signatures. In addition to the comprehensive global view in the results section, in this discussion, we zoom into two specific case studies to further illustrate the power of using this resource for examining topography of mutational signatures.

First, analysis of SBS28 in *POLE* deficient samples (*POLE*⁻) and *POLE* proficient samples (*POLE*⁺) revealed a distinct behaviour (**Figure 6**). While the trinucleotide patterns of SBS28 in *POLE*⁺ and *POLE*⁻ samples were similar (cosine similarity: 0.96), SBS28 in POLE⁻ samples accounted for 97.7% mutations of all SBS28 mutations and it exhibited a clear enrichment in late replicating regions as well as depletions at nucleosomes and at CTCF binding sites (**Figure 6B-D,F**). Moreover, SBS28 in *POLE*⁻ samples showed a strong replication strand bias on the leading strand and exhibited a strand-coordinated mutagenesis with as many as 11 consecutively mutated substitutions (**Figure 6E,G**). In contrast, SBS28 in *POLE*⁺ samples were enriched in early

425 replication regions, lacked depletion of mutations at nucleosomes or CTCF binding sites, had

426 weak replication strand bias on lagging strand, and did not exhibit much of a strand-coordinated

427 mutagenesis (**Figure 6**). Based on these topographical differences, we have now split SBS28 into

428 two distinct signatures: *(i)* SBS28a due to *POLE* deficiency found in ultra-hypermutate

429 colorectal and uterine cancers; and *(ii)* SBS28b with unknown aetiology found in lung and

430 stomach cancers.

432 Second, our analyses revealed striking difference in topographical features of clustered and non-

433 clustered somatic mutations in 288 whole-genome sequenced B-cell malignancies[4]. In particular,

434 the topographical behaviours of single base substitutions were examined after separating them

435 into non-clustered mutations, diffuse hypermutation of substitutions termed *omikli*[62], and longer

436 clusters of strand-coordinated substitutions termed *kataegis*[34,35,63]. In contrast to most cancer

437 types, where *omikli* and *kataegis* are predominately generated by APOBEC3 deaminases[64], in B-

438 cell malignancies, these clustered events are almost exclusively imprinted by the activity of

439 AID[64]. Further, the overall pattern of non-clustered mutations was very different than the ones of

440 *omikli* or *kataegis*. A representative example is provided using a single malignant B-cell

441 lymphoma (**Figure 7*A***) where non-clustered and clustered mutations have very different

442 trinucleotide patterns (**Figure 7*B-D***). Non-clustered mutations exhibited different topographical

443 features when compared to *omikli* or *kataegis*. Specifically, while non-clustered mutations had

444 some minor periodicity in regard to nucleosome occupancy, such periodicity was not observed

445 for any type of clustered events (**Figure 7*E***). Similarly, non-clustered mutations were slightly

446 depleted around CTCF binding sites while *omikli* and *kataegis* were very highly depleted

447 (**Figure 7*F&H***). Further, non-clustered and *omikli* events were clearly enriched in late

replication regions while *kataegis* was highly enriched in early replication regions (**Figure 7*G***).

Distinct patterns of enrichments were also observed for both *omikli* and *kataegis* mutations in the

vicinity of promoter and enhancer sites delineated by histone marks of H3K4me3, H3K9ac,

H3K27ac, H3K36me3, and H4K20me1(**Figure 7*H***). Only very minor differences were observed

for transcription or replication strand asymmetries between clustered and non-clustered somatic

mutations across the 288 whole-genome sequenced B-cell malignancies (**Figure S5**).

In summary, in this report we have performed a comprehensive topography analysis of

mutational signatures encompassing 82,890,857 somatic mutations in 5,120 whole-genome

sequenced tumours integrated with 516 tissue-matched topographical features from the

ENCODE project. Our evaluation encompassed examining the effects of nucleosome occupancy,

histone modifications, CTCF binding sites, replication timing, transcription strand asymmetry,

and replication strand asymmetry on the accumulation of somatic mutations from more than 70

distinct mutational signatures. The results from these analyses have been provided as an online

resource as a part of COSMIC signatures database, https://cancer.sanger.ac.uk/signatures/, where

researchers can explore each mutational signature as well as each topographical feature in a

cancer-specific manner.

 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Strand asymmetries and strand-coordinated mutagenesis. *(A)* Transcription strand

asymmetries of signatures of single base substitutions (SBSs). Rows represent the signatures,

where *n* reflects the number of cancer types in which each signature was found. Columns display

the six substitution subtypes based on the mutated pyrimidine base: C>A, C>G, C>T, T>A, T>C,

and T>G. SBS signatures with transcription strand asymmetries on the transcribed and/or

untranscribed strands with q-values ≤ 0.05 are shown in circles with blue and green colours,

respectively. The colour intensity reflects the odds ratio between the ratio of real mutations and

the ratio of simulated mutations, where each ratio is calculated using the number of mutations on

the transcribed strand and the number of mutations on the untranscribed strand. Only odds ratios

above 1.10 are shown. Circle sizes reflect the proportion of cancer types exhibiting a signature

with specific transcription strand asymmetry. *(B)* Replication strand asymmetries of SBS

signatures. Rows represent the signatures, where *n* reflects the number of cancer types in which

each signature was found. Columns display the six substitution subtypes based on the mutated

pyrimidine base: C>A, C>G, C>T, T>A, T>C, and T>G. SBS signatures with replicational

strand asymmetries on the lagging strand or leading strand with q-values ≤ 0.05 are shown in

circles with red and yellow colours, respectively. The colour intensity reflects the odds ratio

between the ratio of real mutations and the ratio of simulated mutations, where each ratio is

calculated using the number of mutations on the lagging strand and the number of mutations on

the leading strand. Only odds ratios above 1.10 are shown. Circle sizes reflect the proportion of

cancer types exhibiting a signature with specific replication strand asymmetry. *(C)* Transcription

strand asymmetries of signatures of SBS4 across cancer types. Data are presented in a format

similar to the one in panel *(A)*. *(D)* Replication strand asymmetries of signature SBS44 across

cancer types. Data are presented in a format similar to the one in panel *(B)*. *(E)* Transcription

strand asymmetries of signatures of doublet-base substitutions (DBSs) and of small

insertions/deletions (IDs). Data are presented in a format similar to the one in panel *(A)*. *(F)*

Replication strand asymmetries of DBS and ID mutational signatures. Data are presented in a

format similar to the one in panel *(B)*. *(G)* Strand-coordinated mutagenesis of SBS signatures.

Rows represent SBS signatures and columns reflect the lengths, in numbers of consecutive

mutations, of strand-coordinated mutagenesis groups. SBS signatures with statistically

significant strand-coordinated mutagenesis (q-values $\leq$ 0.05) are shown as circles under the

respective group length with a minimum length of 5 consecutive mutations. The size of each

circle reflects the number of consecutive mutation groups for the specified group length

normalized for each signature. The colour of each circle reflects the statistical significance of the

number of subsequent mutation groups for each group length with respect to simulated

mutations.

Figure 2. Interplay between replication timing and mutational signatures. Replication time

data are separated into deciles, with each segment containing exactly 10% of the observed

replication time signal (x-axes). Normalized mutation densities per decile (y-axes) are presented

for early (left) to late (right) replication domains. Real data for single base substitutions (SBSs)

signatures are shown as blue bars, for doublet-base substitutions (DBSs) signatures as red bars,

and for small insertions/deletions (IDs) signatures as green bars. Simulated somatic mutations

are shown as dashed lines. Where applicable, the total number of evaluated cancer types for a

particular mutational signature is shown on top of each plot (*e.g.,* 18 cancer types were evaluated

for ID8 in panel E). For each signature, the number of cancer types where the mutation density

increases with replication timing is shown next to ↗ (*e.g.,* 5 cancer types for ID8). Similarly, the

number of cancer types where the mutation density decreases with replication timing is shown

next to ↘ (*e.g.,* 6 cancer types for ID8). Lastly, the number of cancer types where the mutation

density is not affected by replication timing is shown next to → (*e.g.,* 7 cancer types for ID8).

(A) All SBSs, DBSs, and IDs across all examined cancer types with each cancer type examined

separately. *(B)* Exemplar signatures consistently associated with late replication timing. *(C)*

Exemplar signatures consistently associated with early replication timing. *(D)* Exemplar

signatures consistently unaffected by replication timing. *(E)* ID8 as a mutational signature

inconsistently affected by replication timing. *(F)* The effect of replication timing on APOBEC3-

associated signature SBS13 in samples with low and high APOBEC3 mutational burden.

Figure 3. Relationship between mutational signatures and nucleosome occupancy. In all

cases, solid lines correspond to real somatic mutations with blue solid lines reflecting single base

substitutions (SBSs), red doublet-base substitutions (DBSs), and green small insertions/deletions

(IDs). Simulated somatic mutations are shown as dashed lines. Solid lines and dashed lines

display the average nucleosome signal (y-axes) along a 2 kilobase window (x-axes) centred at

the mutation start site for real and simulated mutations, respectively. The mutation site is

annotated in the middle of each plot and denoted as 0. The 2 kilobase window encompasses

1,000 base-pairs 5' adjacent to each mutation as well as 1,000 base-pairs 3' adjacent to each

mutation. Where applicable, the total number of similar and considered cancer types using an

X/Y format, with *X* being the number of cancer types where a signature has similar nucleosome

behaviour (Pearson correlation ≥ 0.5 and q-value ≤ 0.05) and *Y* representing the total number of

examined cancer types for that signature. For example, signature ID3 in panel G annotated with

6/9 reflects a total of 9 examined cancer types with similar nucleosome behaviour observed in 6

cancer types. *(A)* All SBSs, DBSs, and IDs across all examined cancer types with each cancer

type examined separately. The nucleosome occupancy of signatures SBS1 *(B)*, DBS2 *(C)*, and

ID1 *(D)* are shown across all cancer types as well as within cancers of the lung, head and neck,

liver, and oesophagus. *(E)* Signatures with consistent periodicities of mutation rates around the

nucleosome. Tobacco-associated SBS4 *(F)* and ID3 *(G)* exhibiting periodicities of mutation rates

only in certain cancer types.

Figure 4. Relationship between mutational signatures and CTCF binding sites. *(A)*

Enrichments and depletions of somatic mutations within CTCF binding sites. Heatmaps display

only mutational signatures and cancer types that have at least one statistically significant

enrichment or depletion of somatic mutations attributed to signatures of either single base

substitutions (SBSs), doublet-base substitutions (DBSs), or small insertions/deletions (IDs). Red

colours correspond to enrichments of real somatic mutations when compared to simulated data.

Blue colours correspond to depletions of real somatic mutations when compared to simulated

data. The intensities of red and blue colours reflect the degree of enrichments or depletions based

on the fold change. White colours correspond to lack of data for performing statistical

comparisons *(e.g.*, signature not being detected in a cancer type). Statistically significant

enrichments and depletions are annotated with * (q-value $\leq$ 0.05). *(B)* The top three panels

reflect average CTCF occupancy signal for all SBSs, DBS, and IDs across all examined cancer

types. Bottom panels reflect all somatic mutations attributed for several exemplar mutational

signatures across all cancer types. In all cases, solid lines correspond to real somatic mutations

with blue solid lines reflecting SBSs, red solid lines reflecting DBSs, and green solid lines

reflecting IDs. Solid lines and dashed lines display the average CTCF binding signal (y-axes)

along a 2 kilobase window (x-axes) centred at the mutation start site for real and simulated

mutations, respectively. The mutation start site is annotated in the middle of each plot and

denoted as 0. The 2 kilobase window encompasses 1,000 base-pairs 5' adjacent to each mutation

as well as 1,000 base-pairs 3' adjacent to each mutation.

Figure 5. Exemplar relationships between mutational signatures and histone modifications.

The effect of histone modifications is shown for signatures SBS1 *(A)* and ID1 *(B)*. For each

signature, an evaluation was made for each of the 11 histone marks across all cancer types with

sufficient numbers of somatic mutations with results presented as circles. Each circle is separated

in red, blue, and grey segments proportionate to the cancer types in which the signature has a

specific behaviour. A red segment in a circle reflects the signature being enriched in the vicinity

of a histone modification (q-value ≤ 0.05 and at least 5% enrichment). A blue segment in a circle

reflects the signature being depleted in the vicinity of a histone modification (q-value ≤ 0.05 and

at least 5% depletion). A grey segment in a circle corresponds to neither depletion nor

enrichment of the signature in the vicinity of a histone modification. The figure zooms into the

effect of H3K9me3 on SBS1 *(A)* and H3K27ac on ID1 *(B)*. Red colours correspond to

enrichments of real somatic mutations when compared to simulated data. Blue colours

correspond to depletions of real somatic mutations when compared to simulated data. The

intensities of red and blue colours reflect the degree of enrichments or depletions based on the

fold change. We further zoom into the patterns of mutations around H3K9me3 and H3K27ac.

Solid lines correspond to real somatic mutations with blue solid lines reflecting SBSs and green

solid lines reflecting IDs. Solid lines and dashed lines display the average histone mark signal (y-

axes) along a 2 kilobase window (x-axes) centred at the mutation start site for real and simulated

mutations, respectively. The mutation start site is annotated in the middle of each plot and

denoted as 0. The 2 kilobase window encompasses 1,000 base-pairs 5' adjacent to each mutation

as well as 1,000 base-pairs 3' adjacent to each mutation.

Figure 6. Topography of signature SBS28 in *POLE* deficient (*POLE*⁻) and *POLE* proficient

(*POLE*⁺) samples. *(A)* Mutational patterns of signature SBS28 in *POLE*⁻ and *POLE*⁺ samples

displayed using the conventional 96 mutational classification schema for single base

substitutions. *(B)* Nucleosome occupancy of SBS28 in *POLE*⁻ and *POLE*⁺ samples. Blue solid

lines and grey dashed lines display the average nucleosome signal (y-axes) along a 2 kilobase

window (x-axes) centred at the mutation start site for real and simulated mutations, respectively.

The mutation start site is annotated in the middle of each plot and denoted as 0. The 2 kilobase

window encompasses 1,000 base-pairs 5' adjacent to each mutation as well as 1,000 base-pairs

3' adjacent to each mutation. *(C)* CTCF occupancy of SBS28 in *POLE*⁻ and *POLE*⁺ samples.

Blue solid lines and grey dashed lines display the average CTCF binding signal (y-axes) along a

2 kilobase window (x-axes) centred at the mutation start site for real and simulated mutations,

respectively. The mutation start site is annotated in the middle of each plot and denoted as 0. The

2 kilobase window encompasses 1,000 base-pairs 5' adjacent to each mutation as well as 1,000

base-pairs 3' adjacent to each mutation. *(D)* Replication timing of SBS28 mutations in *POLE*⁻

and *POLE*⁺ samples. Replication time data are separated into deciles, with each segment

containing exactly 10% of the observed replication time signal (x-axes). Normalized mutation

densities per decile (y-axes) are presented for early (left) to late (right) replication domains.

Normalized mutation densities of real somatic mutations and simulated somatic mutations from

early to late replicating regions are shown as blue bars and dashed lines, respectively. *(E)*

Replication strand asymmetry of SBS28 mutations in *POLE⁻* and *POLE⁺* samples. Bar plots

display the number of mutations accumulated on the lagging strand and leading strand for six

substitution subtypes based on the mutated pyrimidine base: C>A, C>G, C>T, T>A, T>C, and

T>G in red and yellow colours, respectively. Simulated mutations on lagging and leading strands

are displayed in shaded bar plots. Statistically significant strand asymmetries are shown with

stars: * q-value ≤ 0.05; ** q-value ≤ 0.01; *** q-value ≤ 0.001. *(F)* Enrichments and depletions

of SBS28 somatic mutations in *POLE⁻* and *POLE⁺* samples within CTCF binding sites, histone

modifications, and nucleosome occupied regions. Red colours correspond to enrichments of real

somatic mutations when compared to simulated data. Blue colours correspond to depletions of

real somatic mutations when compared to simulated data. The intensities of red and blue colours

reflect the degree of enrichments or depletions based on the fold change. White colours

correspond to lack of data for performing statistical comparisons. Statistically significant

enrichments and depletions are annotated with * (q-value ≤ 0.05). *(G)* Strand-coordinated

mutagenesis of SBS28 mutations in *POLE⁻* and *POLE⁺* samples. Rows represent SBS28

signature in *POLE⁻* and *POLE⁺* samples across all cancer types and columns reflect the lengths,

in numbers of consecutive mutations, of strand-coordinated mutagenesis groups. Statistically

significant strand-coordinated mutagenesis (q-value ≤ 0.05) are shown as circles under the

respective group length with a length starting from 2 to 11 consecutive mutations. The size of

each circle reflects the number of consecutive mutation groups for the specified group length

normalized for each SBS28 signature in *POLE⁻* and *POLE⁺* samples. The colour of each circle

reflects the statistical significance of the number of subsequent mutation groups for each group

length with respect to the simulated mutations using -$\log_{10}$ (q-value).

Figure 7. Topography of non-clustered, *omikli*, and *kataegis* substitutions across 288 whole-

genome sequenced B-cell malignancies. *(A)* A rainfall plot of an example B-cell malignancy

sample, MALY-DE_SP116612, depicting the intra-mutational distance (IMD) distributions of

substitutions across genomic coordinates. Each dot represents the minimum distance between

two adjacent mutations. Dots are coloured based on their corresponding classifications.

Specifically, non-clustered mutations are shown in grey, doublet-base substitutions (DBSs) in

red, multi-base substitutions (MBSs) in black, *omikli* events in green, *kataegis* events in orange,

and all other clustered events in blue. The red line depicts the sample-dependent IMD threshold

for each sample. Specific clustered mutations may be above this threshold due to corrections for

regional mutation density. *(B-D)* The trinucleotide mutational spectra for the different catalogues

of non-clustered, *omikli,* and *kataegis* mutations for the exemplar sample (DBSs and MBSs are

not shown). *(E)* Nucleosome occupancy of non-clustered, *omikli*, and *kataegis* mutations of B-

cell malignancies. Blue solid lines and grey dashed lines display the average nucleosome signal

(y-axes) along a 2 kilobase window (x-axes) centred at the mutation start site for real and

simulated mutations, respectively. The mutation start site is annotated in the middle of each plot

and denoted as 0. The 2 kilobase window encompasses 1,000 base-pairs 5' adjacent to each

mutation as well as 1,000 base-pairs 3' adjacent to each mutation. *(F)* CTCF occupancy of non-

clustered, *omikli*, and *kataegis* mutations of B-cell malignancies. Blue solid lines and grey

dashed lines display the average CTCF signal (y-axes) along a 2 kilobase window (x-axes)

centred at the mutation start site for real and simulated mutations, respectively. The mutation

start site is annotated in the middle of each plot and denoted as 0. The 2 kilobase window

encompasses 1,000 base-pairs 5' adjacent to each mutation as well as 1,000 base-pairs 3'

adjacent to each mutation. *(G)* Replication timing of non-clustered, *omikli,* and *kataegis*

mutations of B-cell malignancies. Replication time data are separated into deciles, with each

segment containing exactly 10% of the observed replication time signal (x-axes). Normalized

mutation densities per decile (y-axes) are presented for early (left) to late (right) replication

domains. Normalized mutation densities of real somatic mutations and simulated somatic

mutations from early to late replicating regions are shown as blue bars and dashed lines,

respectively. *(H)* Enrichments and depletions of non-clustered, *omikli*, and *kataegis* mutations of

B-cell malignancies within CTCF binding sites and histone modifications. Red colours

correspond to enrichments of real somatic mutations when compared to simulated data. Blue

colours correspond to depletions of real somatic mutations when compared to simulated data.

The intensities of red and blue colours reflect the degree of enrichments or depletions based on

the fold change. White colours correspond to lack of data for performing statistical comparisons.

Statistically significant enrichments and depletions are annotated with * (q-value ≤ 0.05).

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure S1. Somatic mutations in genic and intergenic regions imprinted by different

mutational signatures. Related to Figure 1. *(A)* Somatic mutations in genic and intergenic

regions for signatures of single base substitutions (SBSs). Rows represent the signatures, where *n*

reflects the number of cancer types in which each signature was found. Columns display the six

substitution subtypes based on the mutated pyrimidine base: C>A, C>G, C>T, T>A, T>C, and

T>G. SBS signatures with genic and intergenic regions asymmetries with q-values ≤ 0.05 are

shown in circles with cyan and grey colours, respectively. The colour intensity reflects the odds

ratio between the ratio of real mutations and the ratio of simulated mutations, where each ratio is

calculated using the number of mutations in the genic regions and the number of mutations in the

intergenic regions. Only odds ratios above 1.10 are shown. Circle sizes reflect the proportion of

cancer types exhibiting a signature with specific genic versus intergenic regions asymmetry. *(B)*

Somatic mutations in genic and intergenic regions for signatures of doublet-base substitutions

(DBSs). Data are presented in a format similar to the one in panel *(A)*. *(C)* Somatic mutations in

genic and intergenic regions for small insertions/deletions (IDs). Data are presented in a format

similar to the one in panel *(A)*. *(D)* Histogram of fold enrichment as odds ratio between the ratio

of real mutations and the ratio of simulated mutations, where each ratio is calculated using the

number of mutations in the genic regions and the number of mutations in the intergenic regions.

Frequency of fold enrichments (y-axis) are presented for discreet bins of fold enrichments (x-

axis). Each fold enrichment reflects the odds ratio between real and simulated mutations where

each ratio is the number of mutations in intergenic regions divided by the number of mutations in

genic regions. Total number of fold enrichments, mean, and standard deviation of fold

enrichments are shown in the upper right corner of the histogram. *(E)* Same format as panel *(D)*

with the underlaying data reflecting fold enrichments after inflating the number of somatic

mutations in genic regions to remove any transcription strand asymmetry.

Figure S2. The effect of replication timing on mutational signatures. Related to Figure 2.

Top three panels reflect results for all single base substitutions (SBSs), all doublet-base

substitutions (DBSs), and all small insertions/deletions (IDs) across all examined cancer types

with each cancer type examined separately. Bottom panels reflect all somatic mutations

attributed to a particular signature across all cancer types. Replication time data are separated

into deciles, with each segment containing exactly 10% of the observed replication time signal

(x-axes). Normalized mutation densities per decile (y-axes) are presented for early (left) to late

(right) replication domains. Real data for SBS signatures are shown as blue bars, for DBS

signatures as red bars, and for ID signatures as green bars. In all cases, simulated somatic

mutations are shown as dashed lines. The total number of evaluated cancer types for a particular

mutational signature is shown on top of each plot (*e.g.,* 36 cancer types were evaluated for

SBS1). For each signature, the number of cancer types where the mutation density increases with

replication timing is shown next to ↗ (*e.g.,* 23 cancer types for SBS1). Similarly, the number of

cancer types where the mutation density decreases with replication timing is shown next to ↘

(*e.g.,* 0 cancer types for SBS1). Lastly, the number of cancer types where the mutation density is

not affected by replication timing is shown next to → (*e.g.,* 13 cancer types for SBS1).

Figure S3. The effect of nucleosome occupancy on mutational signatures. Related to Figure

3. Top three panels reflect results for all single base substitutions (SBSs), all doublet-base

substitutions (DBSs), and all small insertions/deletions (IDs) across all examined cancer types

with each cancer type examined separately. Bottom panels reflect all somatic mutations

attributed to a particular signature across all cancer types. In all cases, solid lines correspond to

real somatic mutations with blue solid lines reflecting SBSs, red solid lines reflecting DBSs, and

green solid lines reflecting IDs. Solid lines and dashed lines display the average nucleosome

signal (y-axes) along a 2 kilobase window (x-axes) centred at the mutation start site for real and

simulated mutations, respectively. The mutation start site is annotated in the middle of each plot

and denoted as 0. The 2 kilobase window encompasses 1,000 base-pairs 5' adjacent to each

mutation as well as 1,000 base-pairs 3' adjacent to each mutation. For each mutational

signatures, the total number of similar and considered cancer types using an *X/Y* format, with *X*

being the number of cancer types where a signature has similar nucleosome behaviour (Pearson

correlation ≥ 0.5 and q-value ≤ 0.05) and *Y* representing the total number of examined cancer

types for that signature. For example, signature SBS3 annotated with 11/14 reflects a total of 14

examined cancer types with similar nucleosome behaviour observed in 11 of these 14 cancer

types.

Figure S4. Relationships between mutational signatures and histone modifications. Related

to Figure 5. *(A-C)* Relationships between 11 histone modifications and signatures of single base

substitutions (SBSs) in panel *(A)*, doublet-base substitutions (DBSs) in panel *(B)*, and small

insertions/deletions (IDs) in panel *(C)*. The examined histone modifications encompass H2AFZ,

H3K4me1, H3K4me2, H3K4me3, H3K9ac, H3K9me3, H3K27ac, H3K27me3, H3K36me3,

H3K79me2, and H4K20me1. Rows and columns reflect the mutational signatures and histone

modifications, respectively. The circle in each cell is separated in red, blue, and grey segments

proportionate to the cancer types in which the signature has a specific behaviour. A red segment

in a circle reflects the signature being enriched in the vicinity of a histone modification (q-value

≤ 0.05 and at least 5% enrichment). A blue segment in a circle reflects the signature being

depleted in the vicinity of a histone modification (q-value ≤ 0.05 and at least 5% depletion). A

grey segment in a circle corresponds to neither depletion nor enrichment of the signature in the

vicinity of a histone modification. Cells without a circle correspond to insufficient data to

perform any statistical comparisons. *(D)* Exemplars of enrichment, depletions, or no effect for

several histone modifications and signatures SBS7a and ID1. Solid lines and dashed lines display

the average signal for a particular histone modification (y-axes) along a 2 kilobase window (x-

axes) centred at the mutation start site for real and simulated mutations, respectively. The

mutation start site is annotated in the middle of each plot and denoted as 0. The 2 kilobase

window encompasses 1,000 base-pairs 5' adjacent to each mutation as well as 1,000 base-pairs

3' adjacent to each mutation.

Figure S5. Strand asymmetries of non-clustered, *omikli*, and *kataegis* substitutions across

288 whole-genome sequenced B-cell malignancies. Related to Figure 7. Transcription strand

asymmetries are shown in the left panels where bars display the six substitution subtypes based

on the mutated pyrimidine base: C>A, C>G, C>T, T>A, T>C, and T>G (depicted on the x-axes).

Y-axes correspond to the numbers of single base substitutions. Blue bars reflect real transcribed

substitutions, while shaded blue bars correspond to simulated transcribed substitutions.

Similarly, green bars reflect real untranscribed mutations, whereas shaded green bars correspond

to simulated untranscribed substitutions. Replication strand asymmetries are shown in the middle

panels where bars display the six substitution subtypes based on the mutated pyrimidine base:

C>A, C>G, C>T, T>A, T>C, and T>G (depicted on the x-axes). Y-axes correspond to the

numbers of single base substitutions. Red bars reflect real substitutions on the lagging strand,

while shaded red bars correspond to simulated substitutions on the lagging strand. Similarly,

yellow bars reflect real substitutions on the leading strand, whereas shaded yellow bars

correspond to simulated substitutions on the leading strand. Comparisons of genic and intergenic

regions are shown in the right panels where bars display the six substitution subtypes based on

the mutated pyrimidine base: C>A, C>G, C>T, T>A, T>C, and T>G (depicted on the x-axes). Y-

axes correspond to the numbers of single base substitutions. Cyan bars reflect real substitutions

in genic regions, while shaded cyan bars correspond to simulated substitutions in genic regions.

Similarly, grey bars reflect real substitutions in intergenic regions, whereas shaded grey bars

correspond to simulated substitutions in intergenic regions. Results for non-clustered mutations

are shown in panel *(A)*, *omikli* mutations in panel *(B)*, and *kataegis* mutations in panel *(C)*.

Statistically significant strand asymmetries are shown with stars: * q-value ≤ 0.05; ** q-value ≤

0.01; *** q-value ≤ 0.001.

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

Supplementary Table 1: External Datasets Utilized in Performing the Topography Analyses.

The table provides information on the ENCODE (https://www.encodeproject.org/) or GEO

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/gds) datasets used for examining every topography feature within

each evaluated cancer type.

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DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

LBA is a compensated consultant and has equity interest in io9, LLC and Genome Insight. His

spouse is an employee of Biotheranostics, Inc. LBA is also an inventor of a US Patent

10,776,718 for source identification by non-negative matrix factorization. ENB and LBA declare

U.S. provisional applications with serial numbers: 63/289,601; 63/269,033; and 63/483,237.

LBA also declares U.S. provisional applications with serial numbers: 63/366,392; 63/367,846;

63/412,835; and 63/492,348. All other authors declare they have no known competing financial

interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this

paper.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

BO and LBA conceived the performed computational analyses and wrote the manuscript with assistance from MDG. BO developed the Python code and performed the bioinformatics analyses with assistance from MDG, ENB, MZ, and MB. The online COSMIC signatures topography database was designed by BO, IV, and LBA with assistance from MDG, MZ, and MB. The COSMIC signatures topography database was implemented by IV with feedback from all authors. LBA supervised the overall development of the code, website, analysis, and writing of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Figure 1. Strand asymmetries and strand-coordinated mutagenesis.

Figure 2. Interplay between replication timing and mutational signatures.

Figure 3. Relationship between mutational signatures and nucleosome occupancy.

Figure 4. Relationship between mutational signatures and CTCF binding sites.

Figure 5. Exemplar relationships between mutational signatures and histone modifications.

Figure 6. Topography of signature SBS28 in POLE deficient (POLE-) and POLE proficient (POLE+) samples.

Figure 7. Topography of non-clustered, omikli, and kataegis substitutions across 288 whole-genome sequenced B-cell malignancies.