Metagenome mining and functional analysis reveal oxidized guanine

DNA repair at the Lost City Hydrothermal Field

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Introduction

The Lost City Hydrothermal Field (LCHF) resembles conditions of a younger planet and thus provides a window to study the origin of life on Earth and other planets (1–3). Located 15 kilometers from the Mid-Atlantic Ridge, the LCHF comprises a series of carbonate chimneys at depths ranging from 700-800 meters below the ocean surface (3). The temperature and pH of the LCHF are both elevated, with temperature ranging from 40°C to 90°C and pH ranging from 9 to 11 (1). At this depth, light does not penetrate, magmatic energy sources are unavailable, and dissolved carbon dioxide is scarce (1). Despite these environmental constraints, archaea and bacteria inhabit the chimneys and hydrothermal fluids venting from the subsurface (1,4). The chemoautotrophic microbes take advantage of chemical compounds generated by subseafloor geochemical reactions such as serpentinization, the aqueous alteration of ultramafic rocks (1). Serpentinization produces hydrogen gas and low-molecular-weight hydrocarbons, which fuel modern microbial communities and also would have been needed to fuel self-replicating molecules and the emergence of primitive metabolic pathways as an antecedent to cellular life (1,2,5). Hydrothermal circulation underneath the LCHF depletes seawater oxygen, leading to an anoxic hydrothermal environment very different from the nearby oxygen-rich seawater (1,3,6–8). As such, the subsurface microbial communities may offer a glimpse into how life emerged and existed before the Great Oxidation Event that occurred over two billion years ago.

The unusual environmental conditions of the LCHF present several biochemical challenges to the survival of microbes (4,7,8). For example, high temperatures and alkaline pH conditions present at the LCHF potentiate chemistry to generate DNA-damaging, reactive oxygen species (9). However, it remains unclear whether reactive oxygen species (ROS) are a major threat to resident microbes given that the subseafloor underneath the LCHF is largely

devoid of molecular oxygen. We reasoned that the prevalence or absence of DNA repair

pathways that cope with oxidative damage would provide insight to the question: Are ROS a real

and present danger to life at the LCHF?

The guanine oxidation (GO) DNA repair system addresses the most common type of

DNA damage caused by reactive oxygen species, the 8-oxo-7,8-dihydroguanine (OG)

promutagen (**Figure 1**) (10). The OG base differs from guanine by addition of only two atoms,

but these change the hydrogen bonding properties so that OG pairs equally well with cytosine

and adenine during DNA replication. The resulting OG:A lesions fuel G:C → T:A transversion

mutations if not intercepted by the GO DNA repair system (9). The GO system comprises

enzymes encoded by mutT, mutM, and mutY, first discovered through genetic analyses of

Escherichia coli that demonstrated specific protection from G:C → T:A mutations by these three

genes (11–14). Homologs or functional equivalents of these GO system components are found

throughout all three kingdoms of life (15–17), underscoring the importance of the system, yet

there are several instances where particular bacteria (18,19) or eukaryotes (20) make do without

one or more of these genes.

Fig 1. Overview of the GO System. The gene products of mutT, mutM, and mutY (tan bubbles) prevent
or repair oxidized guanine DNA damage caused by ROS. DNA glycosylases Fpg and MutY remove OG
from OG:C and A from OG:A, respectively to create AP sites with no base. Additional enzymes (AP
nucleases, pink; DNA polymerase, orange; and DNA ligase, teal) cooperate with the GO pathway,
process these AP sites and ultimately restore the GC base pair. MutT neutralizes OG nucleotide
triphosphates to prevent incorporation of the OG nucleotide during DNA replication, thereby ensuring
that OG found in DNA is on the parent strand, not the daughter strand.
63
Biochemical analyses of the OG system gene products have provided a complete

mechanistic picture for the GO repair system. MutT hydrolyzes the OG nucleotide triphosphate

to sanitize the nucleotide pool, thus limiting incorporation of the promutagen into DNA by DNA

polymerase (13,21). The enzyme encoded by mutM, called formamidopyrimidine-DNA

glycosylase (Fpg), locates OG:C base pairs and excises the OG base to initiate base excision

repair (BER) (12,22). MutY locates OG:A lesions and excises the A base to initiate BER (11,14).

Fpg and MutY thus act separately on two different intermediates to prevent G:C → T:A

mutations. These DNA glycosylases generate abasic (apurinic/apyrimidinic; AP) sites, which are

themselves mutagenic if not processed by downstream, general BER enzymes, particularly AP

nucleases (e.g. exonuclease III and endonuclease IV), DNA polymerase and DNA ligase (17,23–

25) as shown in **Figure 1**.

MutY is the final safeguard of the GO system. If left uncorrected, replication of OG:A

lesions results in permanent G:C → T:A transversion mutations as demonstrated by mutY loss of

function mutants (26,27). Underperformance of the mammalian homolog, MUTYH, leads to

early onset cancer in humans, first discovered for a class of colon cancers now recognized as

MUTYH Associated Polyposis (28). MutY is made up of two domains that both contribute to

DNA binding and biochemical functions. The N-terminal catalytic domain shares structural

homology with EndoIII and other members of the Helix-hairpin-Helix (HhH) protein

superfamily (17). The C-terminal OG-recognition domain shares structural homology with MutT

and other NUDIX hydrolase family members (17,29). Functionally important and highly

conserved residues define chemical motifs in both domains (**Figure 2**). These chemical motifs

interact with the OG:A lesion and chelate the iron-sulfur cluster cofactor as revealed by x-ray

structural analysis (**Figure 2**) (30–33). For example, residues in the N-terminal domain establish

the catalytic mechanism for adenine excision (**Figure 2A** and **Figure 2B**) (32,34). Residues

found in a beta loop of the C-terminal domain recognize the OG base and thus direct adenine

removal from OG:A lesions (**Figure 2C**) (33). Some motifs are shared among other DNA

glycosylases, such as the residues that chelate the 4Fe4S iron-sulfur cluster cofactor (**Figure 2D**)

(17). Chemical motifs particular to MutY, especially the OG-recognition residue Ser 308 (Figure

2C) and supporting residues in the C-terminal domain, are conserved across organisms and are

not found in other DNA glycosylases and therefore can be used to identify MutY genes (17).

Fig 2. MutY chemical motifs. Panels A-C show interactions between MutY residues and DNA,
with DNA highlighted in blue. Panel A was made from pdb 3g0q, a structure which describes
interaction with the competitive inhibitor fluoro-A (31); panels B-D were made from pdb 6u7t, a
structure which describes interaction with a transition state analog (1N) of the oxacarbenium ion
formed during catalysis of adenine excision (33). MutY catalytic residues (highlighted in green)
interact with an adenine base (panel A) and the 1N moiety which mimics the charge and shape of
the transition state (panel B). The OG-recognition residues (highlighted in orange) provide
hydrogen bonding interactions with the OG base (panel C). Four cysteine residues chelate the
iron-sulfur metal cofactor (panel D). All of these interactions are important for MutY activity.
103
Our study investigated whether microbes in the anoxic LCHF environment use the GO

DNA repair system to mitigate damage caused by reactive oxygen species. It is important to note

that not all organisms have an intact GO repair system; examples are missing one, some or all

components. MutY in particular was absent frequently in a survey of 699 bacterial genomes (19),

and its absence may indicate relaxed evolutionary selection from oxidized guanine damage (35).

We mined for homologous genes within the LCHF microbial community and recombinantly

expressed candidate MutY enzymes to characterize function. We found genes encoding GO

system components and general base excision repair enzymes at all LCHF sites. MutY homologs

from the LCHF suppressed mutations when expressed in mutY deficient *Escherichia coli* (*E.*

coli) strains indicating these function similarly to authentic MutY. These Lost City MutY

homologs could be assigned confidently to metagenome assembled genomes (MAG)s, allowing

for additional gene inventory analyses that revealed metabolic strategies involving sulfur

oxidation and nitrogen reduction. These results have important implications for understanding

the repair of oxidative guanine damage in low-oxygen environments, similar to those that existed

on a younger Earth, as well as those that may exist on other planets and moons.

Results

Identification of the GO DNA repair system in LCHF microbes

To investigate the potential for LCHF microbes to endure DNA damage caused by ROS despite inhabiting a low oxygen environment, we searched for the GO DNA repair system in metagenomes obtained from LCHF hydrothermal fluids (36). We identified gene homologs for MutT, MutM, and MutY, which constitute the complete GO system (**Figure 3**). The relative abundances of these GO system gene homologs were similar to that of two other DNA repair enzymes that were also frequently found in LCHF metagenomes. Exonuclease III and endonuclease IV work in conjunction with the GO system and perform general functions necessary for all base excision repair pathways, namely the processing of AP sites (24). MutY was underrepresented in each of two samples from a chimney named "Marker 3", indicating that this GO system component is not encoded by some of the LCHF residents (**Figure 3**, pink).

Fig 3. Abundance of GO system gene homologs. Listed on the vertical axis are genes encoding DNA repair enzymes. Genes xthA and nfo genes are generally necessary for DNA repair involving base excision repair in bacteria, including the particular GO system investigated here. Together, mutT, mutM and mutY constitute the GO system that deals specifically with oxidized guanine. Across the horizontal axis are the various LCHF sites, coded by color, from which samples were collected in duplicate, along with the reported temperature and pH. The normalized coverage of each gene is reported as a proportional unit suitable for cross-sample comparisons, the transcripts/fragments per million (TPM).

Metagenomic mining for MutY genes

Having determined that GO system gene homologs are abundant at the LCHF, we

focused our efforts on the final safeguard of the pathway, MutY. A BLASTP search against the

LCHF metagenome with query MutY sequences from *Geobacillus stearothermophilus (Gs*

MutY) and *E. coli* (*Ec* MutY) preliminarily identified 649 putative MutY candidates on the basis

of sequence identity (see **Figure 4A**). Structure-guided alignments of these preliminary hits were

examined for presence and absence of MutY-defining chemical motifs. We paid particular

attention to the chemical motif associated with OG recognition as these residues in the C-

terminal domain establish OG:A specificity, which is the hallmark of MutY (37,29,33). This

approach authenticated 160 LCHF MutYs (**Figure 4B**). Four representative LCHF MutYs were

selected for further analyses described below (red branches in **Figure 4A and Figure 4B**).

Fig 4. Phylogeny for LCHF MutYs. (A) 649 sequences were identified as LCHF MutY
candidates due to sequence similarity to existing MutYs (green branches) and aligned to
reconstruct evolutionary relationships. (B) A subset of 160 members contained all necessary
MutY-defining chemical motifs. Alignment of these authenticated LCHF MutYs revealed
varying evolutionary distances from familiar MutYs and provided a basis for selecting four
representative members (red branches).
158

Figure 5 highlights conservation and diversity for the MutY-defining chemical motifs

found in the 160 LCHF MutYs. All of the LCHF MutYs retain the chemical motif to coordinate

the iron-sulfur cluster cofactor comprising 4 invariant Cys residues (4 Cs, yellow in **Figure 5**), a

feature that is also found in other HhH family members such as EndoIII (16), but which is absent

for some "clusterless" MutYs (38). Other invariant and highly conserved motifs make critical

interaction with the DNA and provide key catalytic functions for adenine base excision,

explaining the high degree of sequence conservation at these positions. For example, all LCHF

MutYs use a Glu acid which provides acid base catalysis for the mechanism (first E, green in

Figure 5). Also, all LCHF MutYs use a Gln (first Q, red in **Figure 5**) and a Tyr at position 88

(first Y, red in **Figure 5**), to wedge between base pairs to distort the DNA for access to the

adenine as seen in x-ray crystal structures of *Gs* MutY (30,32). Structures of *Gs* MutY

interacting with a transition state analog revealed close contact with Tyr 126 (second Y, green in

Figure 5), Asp 144 (D, green in Figure 5), and supported by Asn 146 (N, green in Figure 5)

indicating these chemical motifs stabilize the transition state during catalysis (32–34). For the

LCHF MutYs, the Asn residue is invariant, the catalytic Asp is nearly invariant, replaced by

chemically similar Glu for five LCHF MutYs, and the catalytic Tyr residue is often replace by

Ser and sometimes by Thr or Asn. The residue found between the catalytic Asp and Asn is

always a small residue, most often Gly (G, red in Figure 5) but sometimes Ala, Val or Thr.

Fig 5. LCHF MutY chemical motifs. (A) Conservation and diversity of MutY-defining
chemical motifs are depicted with a sequence logo for the 160 LCHF MutYs. These motifs are
associated with biochemical functions including DNA binding, enzyme catalysis, attachment of
the iron-sulfur cofactor, and recognition of the damaged OG base. Sequence logo generated by
Weblogo (39,40). See **Supporting Information** for a complete alignment and a percent identity
matrix for the representative LCHF MutYs. (B) Chemical motifs located in MutY as shown with
color-coded positions for Gs MutY. (C) Alignment for select chemical motifs highlights
conservation among the four representative LCHF MutYs and MutYs from *Ec* and *Gs*.
185
By contrast with these numerous and highly conserved motifs for the N-terminal domain,

fewer motifs with greater sequence divergence are found in the C-terminal domain. The MutY

ancestor is thought to have resulted from a gene fusion event that attached a MutT-like domain to

the C-terminus of a general adenine glycosylase enzyme, and the C-terminal domain of modern

E. coli MutY confers OG:A specificity (29). X-ray crystal structures of *Gs* MutY interacting with

OG:A and with G:A highlighted conformational difference for a Ser residue in the C-terminal

domain (Ser 308 in *Gs* MutY) (33) and mutational analysis showed this Ser residue and its close

neighbors (Phe 307 and His 309 in *Gs* MutY) establish OG specificity (33). Informed by these

insights from structure, we eliminated LCHF MutY candidates that lacked a C-terminal domain

and its OG-recognition motif. Alignment of the 160 LCHF MutYs that passed this test showed

that a second His residue is also well conserved within the H-x-FSH sequence motif (**Figure**

5C). As is evident from the alignment, there are many variations with residues replaced by close

analogs at each position. Ser, which makes the key contact with N7 of OG and no contact with

G, is often replaced by Thr, which can make the same H-bond interactions. Likewise the two His

residues are each often replaced by polar residues (e.g. Q, N, R or K) that can also H-bond to the

DNA phosphate backbone as observed for His 305 and His 309 in *Gs* MutY.

Two other positions with high conservation were revealed for the C-terminal domain in

this analysis of the 160 LCHF MutYs. These define a L-xxx-P motif. These residues are replaced

by other residues with comparable chemical properties. The Leu position is often another

hydrophobic residue such as Met or Phe, and the Pro position is most frequently replaced by Glu,

a residue that can present aliphatic methylene groups and thus resemble Pro if the polar group

hydrogen bonds with the peptide amide. In the structure of *Gs* MutY, the Pro at position 269

nucleates a hydrophobic core for the C-terminal domain. The Leu at position 265 makes a strong

VDW contact with Tyr89 in the N-terminal domain to support stacking of Tyr88 between bases

of the DNA, a molecular contact that suggests communication between the OG-recognition

domain and the catalytic domain. Other evolutionary analyses have highlighted the motifs

important for DNA contacts, catalysis and OG recognition (17), but the L-xxx-P motif has not

been identified previously.

Four representative LCHF MutYs were examined for physical properties. **Table 1** reports

these physical properties including predicted protein size, isoelectric point (pI), and stability

(Tm). Generally the physical characteristics measured for LCHF MutY representatives were

comparable to each other and to predicted properties of *Ec* MutY and *Gs* MutY. The predicted

Tm for LCHF MutY 3 was above 65℃, distinguishing it as the most stable enzyme (**Table 1**),

which may reflect adaptation to a high temperature environment. The isoelectric point predicted

for each of the LCHF MutY representatives is 3 pH units above the pI predicted for *Gs* MutY

and between 0.1 - 0.5 pH units above the pI predicted for *Ec* MutY, indicating that more

numerous positively charged residues have been recruited, possibly as an adaptation to alkaline

pH conditions of the LCHF.

Table 1. Protein Properties.

MutY	Length (residues)	MW (kDa)	pI	Predicted Tm (°C) (N-domain; C-domain)
Gs MutY	372	41.8	5.3	55 - 65 (55 - 65 ; < 55)
Ec MutY	355	39.1	8.6	< 55 (< 55 ; 55 - 65)
LCHF MutY 1	358	39.0	9.1	55 - 65 (55 - 65 ; < 55)
LCHF MutY 2	352	38.3	8.8	< 55 (55 - 65 ; < 55)
LCHF MutY 3	370	42.0	8.7	> 65 (>65 ; 55 - 65)
LCHF MutY 4	376	44.0	9.0	55 - 65 (55 - 65 ; 55 - 65)

Identification of LCHF MutY organisms, gene neighbors, environmental conditions, and metabolic strategies

Our next objective was to identify the organisms from which these LCHF MutY enzymes

originated. Each of the four representative LCHF MutY sequences were derived from contiguous

DNA sequences (contigs) belonging to a metagenome-assembled genome (MAG) representing a

LCHF microbe. The taxonomic classification of these MAGs indicated that LCHF MutY 1

originated from a species of *Marinosulfonomonas,* LCHF MutY 2 from the family

Rhodobacteraceae, LCHF MutY 3 from the family *Thiotrichaceae*, and LCHF MutY 4 from the

family *Flavobacteriaceae* (**Figure 6**). The taxonomic classification of each contig was consistent

with the classification of the MAG to which it belonged, supporting the idea that the MutY gene

is a long term resident and not a recent arrival through phage infection or some other horizontal

gene transfer mechanism. For the remainder of this work we will refer to the MutY-encoding

organisms as the lowest-level classification that was determined for each LCHF MutY (e.g.

LCHF MutY 3 will now be referred to as *Thiotrichaceae* MutY).

Figure 6. Taxonomic classification. LCHF MutY-encoding contigs were found in several branches of bacteria. The classification places these in relation to MutY of *G. stearothermophilus* and *E. coli* (accession IDs included). LCHF MutYs were mapped to their respective microbes by two methods indicated by the two arrows (see text for details).

The inclusion of MutY contigs in MAGs provided an opportunity to examine gene

neighbors for the representative LCHF MutYs. The GO repair genes are located at distant loci in

E. coli (12), and belong to separate, complex operons (41). However, MutY is the immediate 5'-

neighbor to YggX within gammaproteobacteria, and homologs of YggX are present outside this

lineage, occasionally nearby to MutY (e.g. *Bacillus subtilis*). As gene neighbors, MutY and

YggX are part of a SoxRS regulated operon in *E. coli* (41,42). YggX provides oxidative stress

protection and iron transport function with a critical Cys residue close to the N-terminus of this

small protein (43,44). A protein matching these features is encoded by a gene partly overlapping

with and the nearest 3' neighbor to *Thiotrichaceae* MutY (see **Supporting Information**).

To reveal the environmental conditions of these MutY-encoding organisms, we analyzed

the sequence coverage of each LCHF MutY contig at each of the sampling sites.

Marinosulfonomonas MutY, *Thiotrichaceae* MutY, and *Flavobacteriaceae* MutY were identified

at all sampling sites, ranging from 21℃ to 58℃ and pH 8.1 to 9.5. *Rhodobacteraceae* MutY was

present at all sampling sites excluding Marker 3 and was therefore found in temperatures ranging

from 24℃ to 52℃ and pH 8.1 to 9.5.

We further investigated the metabolic strategies utilized by MutY-encoding microbes by

examining the inventory of predicted protein functions in each MAG (**Table 2,** see also

Supporting Information). Each LCHF MutY-containing MAG possessed at least two forms of

cytochrome oxidase, with the exception of the *Flavobacteriaceae* MAG. The *Flavobacteriaceae*

MAG is only 44% complete, however, so no strong conclusions can be made regarding the

absence of genes. Cytochrome oxidases commonly provide sources of free radicals and are

essential to aerobic metabolism. Predicted proteins indicative of dissimilatory nitrate and nitrite

reduction were found in the *Marinosulfonomonas, Rhodobacteraceae,* and *Thiotrichaceae*

MAGs, suggesting that these organisms may be capable of using nitrate or nitrite as alternative

electron acceptors when oxygen is not available. Furthermore, the *Marinosulfonomonas* and

Rhodobacteraceae MAGs include predicted protein functions associated with the oxidation of

reduced sulfur compounds, though it is important to note that the directionality of these reactions

cannot be fully determined from bioinformatics alone. These patterns speak to the potential

origins of oxidants within the MutY-encoding organisms as discussed below.

Table 2. Metabolic genes identified in LCHF MutY organisms

	Symbol	KEGG ID	Marinosulfonomonas[a] MAG 1	Marinosulfonomonas[a] MAG 2	Rhodobacteraceae	Thiotrichaceae	Flavobacteriaceae
Cytochrome Oxidases	UQCRFS1	K00411	X	X	X	X	
	coxA	K02274			X	X	
	ccoN	K00404	X	X	X		
	cydA	K00425		X			
	cyoB	K02298			X		
Sulfur Oxidation	soxA	K17222	X	X	X		
	soxX	K17223	X	X	X		
	soxB	K17224	X	X	X		
	soxC	K17225	X	X	X		
	soxY	K17226	X		X		
	soxZ	K17227	X		X		
Nitrogen Reduction	narG	K00370	X	X	X		
	narH	K00371	X	X	X		
	nirB	K00362		X	X	X	
	nirD	K00363		X		X	
	nirK	K00368			X		
	norB	K04561			X		
	norC	K02305			X		
	nosZ	K00376			X		
	MAG Completeness[b]		88.37	88.21	93.69	66.12	44.27
	MAG Contamination[b]		16.43	0.61	1.36	11.75	1.65

[a]*Marinosulfonomonas* MutY belongs to two separate MAGs and genes for each are reported separately.
[b]Completeness and contamination scores generated by CheckM v1.0.5 as described in Brazelton *et al.* 2022 (36).

Predicted protein structures and virtual docking experiments

To assess the likelihood of the LCHF MutY sequences folding into enzymes capable of activity on the OG:A substrate, protein structures were predicted using AlphaFold2 (45) (**Figure 7**). These predicted structures were associated with high confidence (see Supporting Information figures for pLDDT scores). Superpositions revealed that the predicted structures for the LCHF

MutYs are each highly comparable with the experimentally determined structure for *Gs* MutY as

indicated by visual inspection (**Figure 7**) and by low, pairwise root mean square deviation

(RMSD) values (**Table 3**). The whole protein superpositions were dominated by the larger, more

structurally conserved N-terminal domain. Breaking the analysis into two separate domains

showed that the C-terminal domain, although more plastic, retained core structural features that

could be superimposed. The MutY-defining chemical motifs are positioned in locations similar

to those seen for the *Gs* MutY reference structure, providing evidence these LCHF MutY

enzymes are capable of recognizing OG:A lesions and excising the adenine base. Concisely, the

LCHF MutY structure predictions resemble a functional MutY enzyme from a thermophilic

bacterium.

Figure 7. **Structure predictions and virtual docking of MutY ligands**. (A) The x-ray crystal
structure of *Gs* MutY (blue ribbon; pdb id 3g0q) in complex with DNA (white helix) highlights
the positions of the adenine nucleotide (red) and the OG nucleotide (yellow). (B-F) Virtual
docking of ligands. Adenine and OG were separately docked to identify binding surfaces for
these ligands in the structures of *Gs* MutY (B) which served as a positive control and the four
representative LCHF MutYs: *Marinosulfonomonas* MutY (C); *Rhodobacteraceae* MutY (D);
Thiotrichaceae MutY (E); and *Flavobacteriaceae* MutY (F).
303
304

305 **Table 3. Superposition and virtual docking.**

	RMSD to *Gs* MutY (Å)[a] (number of residues)			Binding affinity (kcal/ mol)[b]	
MutY	**Whole protein**	**NTD**	**CTD**	**Adenine**	**OG**
Gs MutY (6U7T)[c]	0.53 (338)	0.39 (211)	0.54 (122)	-5.8	-5.7
Marinosulfonomonas MutY	0.95 (180)	0.95 (192)	0.95 (65)	-5.1	-5.5
Rhodobacteraceae MutY	0.96 (199)	0.95 (192)	0.83 (47)	-5.4	-5.3
Thiotrichaceae MutY	1.11 (243)	0.99 (198)	1.00 (64)	-5.0	-5.7
Flavobacteriaceae MutY	1.01 (260)	0.87 (200)	0.95 (48)	-5.4	-5.8

306 [a] Superposition with *Gs* MutY (pdb id 3G0Q) was calculated for all residues and separately for N-terminal domain
307 (NTD) and for C-terminal domain (CTD) by *ChimeraX* (46).
308
309 [b] Binding affinity for the best outcome from docking adenine to the enzyme active site and OG to the OG-
310 recognition calculated by *Autodock VINA* (47)
311
312 [c] Reference superposition values provided by comparing a second structure of the same *Gs* MutY (pdb id 6u7t)
313

We performed virtual docking experiments to examine the potential for molecular

interaction with adenine and OG ligands. MutY scans DNA looking for the OG:A base-pair by

sensing the major-groove disposition of the exocyclic amine of the OG base in its syn

conformation (48,49). After this initial encounter, the enzyme bends the DNA, flips the adenine

base from the DNA double helix into the active site pocket, and positions OG in its anti

conformation as seen in structures of the enzyme complexed to DNA (30,31). Thus, multiple

conformations and orientations for the OG and adenine ligands were anticipated. Representative

docking outcomes are shown in **Figure 7** with binding affinities reported in **Table 3**. The

adenine and OG ligands docked to surfaces found in the active site of the N-terminal domain

and close to the OG-recognition motif found in the C-terminal domain of each of the

representative LCHF MutY enzymes, similar to docking outcomes obtained with *Gs* MutY

(**Figure 7**). As anticipated, the precise orientation and position for these docked ligands varied,

and none exactly match the disposition of the adenine base or OG base as presented in the

context of double stranded DNA. Nevertheless, binding affinities for the ligand-LCHF MutY

complexes ranged from -5.0 to -5.8 kcal/mol indicating favorable interactions are attainable and

similar to the binding affinities measured for *Gs* MutY by the same virtual docking method.

Testing mutation suppression activity of LCHF MutY enzymes

by recombinant expression

With *in silico* data suggesting that the LCHF MutY representatives encoded functional

MutY enzymes capable of proper folding and interaction with OG:A lesions, we recombinantly

expressed the genes in *E. coli* and measured mutation suppression activity *in vivo*. Three of the

representative LCHF MutYs were successfully cloned into the pKK223 expression plasmid as

verified by Sanger sequencing. The *Flavobacteriaceae* MutY appeared to be toxic to *E. coli* as

only mutant versions of the gene were obtained from multiple cloning attempts, a situation that is

reminiscent of *Gs* MutY, which is also apparently toxic to *E. coli* and could not be cloned into

pKK223 (33).

To test the mutation suppression activity of *Marinosulfonomonas (Ms),*

Rhodobacteraceae (Rb), and Thiotrichaceae (Tt) MutYs, we measured mutation rates with a

rifampicin resistance assay (50). Several, independent, single-point mutations within the gene

encoding RNA polymerase beta-subunit (*rpoB*) prevent the antibiotic rifampicin from binding to

RpoB. Thus, spontaneous Rif[R] mutants arising in overnight cultures can be counted by the

colonies that emerge on rifampicin containing plates. Cultures expressing functional MutY

delivered by plasmid DNA transformation have low Rif[R] frequency compared to the high Rif[R]

frequency characterizing the reporter strain that lacks MutY and MutM (see **Materials and**

Methods).

Cultures with an empty plasmid (*null*) and cultures with a plasmid encoding *Ec* MutY

showed significant differences in the frequency of Rif^R mutants, with median values of 101 and

12, respectively, indicating the assay was fit for use (significance determined by non-overlap of

median 95% confidence intervals) (**Figure 8** and **Supporting information**). *Ms* MutY*, Rb*

MutY*,* and *Tt* MutY each demonstrated significant mutation suppression activity when compared

to the *null*. Indeed, *Rb* MutY showed mutation suppression performance equivalent to that

measured for *Ec* MutY, and *Ms* MutY was apparently better at suppressing mutations than *Ec*

MutY, a remarkable outcome given the evolutionary time separating these species (**Figure 8**). *Tt*

MutY showed partial function. Cultures expressing *Tt* MutY suppressed Rif^R mutants to 50% of

the rate observed for *null* cultures, but allowed a mutation rate about 4-fold greater than that

measured for cultures expressing *Ec* MutY (**Figure 8** and **Supporting information**).

Figure 8. **Functional analysis.** Bars represent median Rif^R colony counts for *E. coli* cultures
expressing MutY, MutY variants, or no MutY (*null*) from a plasmid DNA. Error bars represent
95% confidence intervals as determined by bootstrap sampling (see Supporting Information for
tabulated values). *Ms* MutY, *Rb* MutY, and *Tt* MutY each suppressed mutations as evidenced by
non-overlap of Rif^R confidence intervals compared to *null* cultures. Altered versions of each
LCHF MutY tested the importance of residues for catalysis and OG-recognition. Designated
catalysis- and *recognition*- along the X-axis, these alterations severely impacted mutation
suppression function indicating the LCHF MutYs share mechanistic features with the extensively
studied enzymes *Ec* MutY and *Gs* MutY.
370

To investigate the biochemical mechanism employed by LCHF MutY enzymes, we

altered residues essential for OG:A recognition and catalysis, then repeated the mutation

suppression assay (10, 12). Two mutants of each LCHF MutY were constructed through site-

directed substitution of residues. One set of substitutions was designed to disable the OG-

recognition motif by replacing F(S/T)H residues (**Figure 2 and Figure 5**) with alanine residues

(designated *recognition-*); the other set of substitutions was designed to disable catalysis by

replacing the active site Asp and Glu residues with structurally similar, but chemically inert Asn

and Gln residues (*catalysis-*). For all three LCHF MutYs, these targeted substitutions disabled

mutation suppression function *in vivo* as shown by elevated Rif^R frequencies for cultures

expressing the *recognition-* and *catalysis-* versions. The mutation frequencies for cultures

expressing these site-specific substitution variants were comparable to the Rif^R frequencies

measured for *null* cultures as judged by overlapping 95% confidence intervals (**Figure 8** and

Supporting Information). These results indicate that the representative LCHF MutYs suppress

mutations by a mechanism that is highly similar to the strategy executed by *Ec* MutY and *Gs*

MutY.

Discussion

To gain insight into DNA repair strategies in early Earth-like environments, we

investigated the status of the GO DNA repair system within microbes inhabiting the LCHF. Our

approach included mining of metagenomic data, bioinformatic comparisons informed by

structure and mechanistic understanding, predictive molecular modeling, and functional

analyses. The degree to which this approach succeeded was dependent on the assembly of

metagenomic sequences into contigs long enough to contain full-length genes (36). Earlier

attempts to search for MutY genes within older LCHF metagenomes with shorter contigs yielded

a number of hits, but these were truncated and therefore missing critical motifs, explaining weak

mutation suppression function (unpublished results). The longer contigs utilized in this study

allowed us to capture entire MutY genes, bin these MutY-encoding contigs into MAGs to assess

associated gene inventories, and thereby infer metabolic strategies for the microbes expressing

the GO DNA repair components.

Within the initial set of 649 LCHF MutY candidates identified by sequence identity, 160

genes encoded proteins with all of the chemical motifs known to be important for MutY function

from X-ray crystal structures and mechanistic studies available for *Ec* MutY and *Gs* MutY

(37,29–32,51,33,48). Indeed, leveraging this extensive body of knowledge allowed us to select

features such as sequence length, presence of MutY motifs, and structural prediction to

distinguish LCHF MutYs from other members of the helix-hairpin-helix superfamily.

Recombinant expression in *E. coli* revealed that LCHF MutY representatives suppress mutations

in vivo by a mechanism that depends on the catalytic and OG-recognition motifs (**Figure 8**),

strongly suggesting these are functional enzymes that actively seek and initiate repair of OG:A

lesions within their respective LCHF microbes. Toxicity observed for one LCHF gene encoding

Flavobacteriaceae MutY, which could not be cloned except with disabling nonsense mutations,

underscores the risks and dangers posed by MutY and DNA glycosylases in general, which

initiate DNA repair by damaging the DNA further, creating AP sites that are themselves

destabilizing (52). The potential for lethal outcomes makes cross-species function observed for

Ms MutY, *Rb* MutY, and *Tt* MutY across vast evolutionary time all the more remarkable.

Retained function across evolutionary and species barriers strongly suggests that MutY

interacts with the base excision repair apparatus through some well-preserved mechanism that

relies on a universal language understood by all organisms. Most critically, the AP sites

generated by MutY should be recognizable to downstream AP nucleases. Protein-protein

interaction between AP nucleases and MutY has been discussed as a possible mechanism (53–

56), but on its own such a mechanism would rely on coevolution of protein partners. Our results

and those reported by others for complementation with the eukaryote homolog MUTYH (57)

speaks for a mechanism that is less sensitive to sequence divergence. Therefore, we favor a

model where the distorted DNA structure created by MutY signals the location of the AP site for

handoff to the BER apparatus, as has been suggested previously (55).

Thiotrichaceae MutY underperformed in our functional evaluation despite coming from a

gammaproteobacterium most closely related to *E. coli,* compared with the other recombinantly

expressed LCHF MutYs. *Thiotrichaceae* MutY may be adapted to physical or biochemical

conditions different from those that can support growth of the *E. coli* reporter strain. In support

of this idea, the *Thiotrichaceae* MutY is predicted to be ultrastable with respect to temperature as

reflected in the theoretical T_m greater than 65℃ (**Table 1**, LCHF MutY 3). Indeed, *Geobacillus*

stearothermophilus MutY, from an extreme thermophile, has been shown to perform poorly at

37 °C and optimally at a much higher temperature of 60 ℃ (33). Thus, lower mutation

suppression performance observed for *Tt* MutY may simply be due to the difference in

temperature needed for the *in vivo* experiment and the temperature of the habitat where

Thiotrichaceae thrives at the LCHF. In future work, biochemical characterization of purified

LCHF MutY enzymes at high temperatures and high pH could address this question directly.

Our metagenomic analysis revealed that gene homologs encoding the GO DNA repair

system are abundant in basement microbes inhabiting the LCHF (**Figure 3**). This observation is

surprising given that the basement of the LCHF is expected to be anoxic (1,3). The chemical

agents commonly thought of for producing oxidized guanine (OG) are ROS derived from

molecular oxygen *via* aerobic metabolism. In an anoxic environment, what chemical agents are

producing OG and how are these generated? Models of hydrothermal field chemistry predict

abiotic production of ROS which the microbial residents may encounter, although these would

probably react with cell protective structures before encountering DNA (58). Continual mixing

of seawater with the anoxic hydrothermal fluid could provide molecular oxygen at the interface

where hydrothermal fluids vent into ambient seawater at the seafloor (1,3). Facultative anaerobes

at this interface would inevitably generate ROS (61–66), and therefore benefit from the GO

DNA repair system.

Another explanation for the source of OG in basement microbes of the LCHF, which is

suggested by our gene inventory analysis (**Table 2** and **Supporting Information**), involves

reactive sulfur species (RSS) and reactive nitrogen species (RNS). Many of the basement-

dwelling microbes within the LCHF appear to metabolize sulfur and nitrogen for energy

conservation (4,36), strategies that generate RSS and RNS as metabolic byproducts (67,68).

Indeed, mechanisms for the oxidation of guanine by both RSS and RNS have been described,

including the formation of 8-oxoguanine (OG) and chemically similar 8-nitroguanine, which

templates for adenine in a fashion similar to OG (69–72). The oxidation of guanine by RSS and

RNS generated from microbial metabolism would produce OG independent of molecular oxygen

and thereby necessitate the GO DNA repair system for both facultative and obligate anaerobes

inhabiting the LCHF.

Whether organisms developed biochemical systems to deal with oxidative damage before

or after the Great Oxidation Event (GOE) remains an open question (73,74). It is reasonable to

think of these systems arising in response to the selective pressure of oxidative damage from

rising O_2 levels. However, it is also possible that these systems were already in place as a coping

mechanism for other oxidants and were repurposed to deal with the new source of oxidizing

agents when O_2 became readily available. Indeed, obligate anaerobes contain many of the same

pathways to deal with oxidative damage as aerobes (73,74). Our discovery of the GO DNA

repair system in basement dwellers of the LCHF adds to this body of evidence and supports the

hypothesis that oxidative damage repair systems were established before the GOE. We

considered the caveat of possible phage-mediated gene transfer – modern microbes adapted to

oxygen-rich regions elsewhere may be the source of LCHF MutYs. However, the

correspondence of taxonomic assignments based on MutY sequence and based on MAGs and the

high degree of sequence diversity seen for LCHF MutY enzymes are inconsistent with expansion

of GO DNA repair in the LCHF by horizontal gene transfer. Thus, it seems more likely that

LCHF microbes inherited the GO DNA repair system from a common ancestor and retained it

through necessity, even in the absence of extrinsic O_2.

Conclusion

Performing empirical studies on how life may have evolved on Earth and other planets is

inherently difficult due to time and spatial barriers. Unique sites such as the LCHF serve as

representatives of these theorized environments (3,75). By discovering the GO DNA repair

system at the LCHF and validating mutation suppression function by LCHF MutYs, we infer that

microbes within the anoxic environment of the LCHF basement are under evolutionary pressure

to repair OG lesions. The evolutionary pressure and source of OG appear to be driven by

nitrogen reactive species or sulfur reactive species as supported by the metabolic survey of the

MutY-encoding organisms. These results highlight the need for DNA-based life to manage

oxidized guanine damage even in anoxic environments. Moreover, this work adds evidence for

the more general hypothesis that life established biochemical systems to deal with oxidative

damage early, well before the GOE, and should be considered when developing an evolutionary

model for early life.

Materials and Methods

Metagenomic Sequencing and Analysis of LCHF Fluid Samples

Generation, assembly, and annotation of metagenomes from the Lost City Hydrothermal Field (LCHF) were described in Brazelton et al. 2022 (36) and are briefly summarized here. In 2018, the remotely operated vehicle (ROV) Jason collected samples of fluids venting from chimneys at the LCHF, which is located near the Mid-Atlantic Ridge at 30 ºN latitude and a depth of ~800 m. Whole-genome community sequences ("metagenomes") were generated from the fluid samples, and assembled metagenomic contigs were binned into metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs). Potential gene homologs encoding enzymes involved in the GO DNA repair system were identified by conducting KEGG (76) orthology assignment using the BlastKOALA v2.2 program (77). The selected genes that were identified include: MutT (KEGG ID: K03574), MutM (K10563), and MutY (K03575) along with the genes xthA (K01142) and nfo (K01151), which encode exonuclease III and endonuclease IV, respectively.

The relative abundance of each GO repair pathway gene homolog at each LCHF chimney location was calculated as the normalized metagenomic sequence coverage, determined by mapping of reads from each fluid sample against the pooled assembly. Coverages are reported as transcripts (or metagenomic fragments) per million (TPM), which is a proportional unit suitable for comparisons of relative abundances between samples (36,78).

Identification of LCHF MutYs

Candidate MutY genes in the LCHF metagenomes were identified with a BLASTP (79)

search against predicted protein sequences from the LCHF pooled metagenomic assembly using

MutY queries from *Geobacillus stearothermophilus* (*Gs* MutY) (NCBI Accession ID: P83847.2)

and *Escherichia coli* (*Ec* MutY) (NCBI Accession ID: CDP76921.1). The diversity of these

candidates, visualized by aligning the sequences along with *Gs* MutY and *Ec* MutY with Clustal

Omega (80) and iTOL (81), was used to build an initial phylogeny. LCHF MutY candidate

sequences were then aligned by PROMALS3D (82), guided by the structure of *Gs* MutY (pdb id

6u7). Sequence diversity in the C-terminal domain prevented reliable alignment of this region in

this first pass at structure-guided alignment. To overcome this challenge, sequences were split

into two parts: one part with all residues before position V147 in the *Gs* MutY protein which

were reliably aligned, and the second part with all residues following position N146 in the *Gs*

MutY protein which were aligned inconsistently in the first pass. These two parts were

separately resubmitted for alignment by PROMALS3D guided by the corresponding portions of

the crystal structure. For inclusion in this alignment, the C-terminal part was required to pass a

minimum length criteria of 160 residues. The resulting alignment was inspected for the MutY-

defining chemical motifs described in the text, and a phylogeny was constructed for the 160

authenticated LCHF MutYs with iTOL (81). Selection of the four representative LCHF MutYs

was guided by this phylogeny and by the completeness of each associated MAG.

Taxonomic classification

Contiguous DNA sequences containing the LCHF MutY representatives the contig DNA

were assigned taxonomic classifications using the program MMseqs2 (83) and the Genome

Taxonomy Database (GTDB) as described in Brazelton et al., 2022 (36). Taxonomic

classification of each MAG that included a contig of interest was performed with GTDB-Tk

v1.5.1 (84). The environmental distributions of MutY-encoding MAGs were inspected for

potential signs of contamination from ambient seawater during sample collection. This

possibility was ruled out by the absence of all MutY-encoding taxa reported in this study in the

background seawater samples collected by Brazelton et al (36). MAG completeness and

contamination scores were generated by CheckM v1.0.5 as described in Brazelton et al. 2022

(36).

Prediction of physical parameters

541   The theoretical molecular weights and pIs of the LCHF MutY representatives and known

542 MutY sequences were generated via ExPASY (85). The theoretical melting temperature of the

543 representatives was calculated with the Tm predictor from the Institute of Bioinformatics and

544 Structural Biology, National Tsing-Hua University (86).

Molecular modeling

Protein structures for the LCHF MutY representatives were predicted by the AlphaFold2

plugin within UCSF ChimeraX (33, 34). Predicted structures were superimposed with crystal

structure of *Gs* MutY (pdb 3G0Q) using the MatchMaker tool in ChimeraX to generate RMSD

(Å) for pruned atom pairs. Initial superpositions were dominated by residues in the N-terminal

domain. To fairly compare structures for the more diverse C-terminal domains, the linker region

between domains was identified by inspection, and superposition with *Gs* MutY was repeated

using the MatchMaker function with appropriate selection of residues in the N-terminal domain

and in the C-terminal domain.

Ligand docking experiments were executed with the program AutoDock Vina (47).

Ligand structures representing adenine and OG were prepared with the ligand preparation tools

implemented with Autodock Tools, and receptors structures were prepared from the structures

predicted by AlphaFold or from the crystal structure of *Gs* MutY with the receptor preparation

tools, also as implemented with Autodock Tools (87,88). Receptor and ligand structures were

treated as rigid objects. Separate 20 x 20 x 20 Å^3 search volumes were defined for adenine and

for OG. The adenine search volume was centered on the position of residue A5L:18 in chain C of

the *Gs* MutY crystal structure, and the OG search volume was centered on the position of residue

8OG:6 in chain B.

Recombinant DNA cloning

Synthetic genes encoding the LCHF MutYs were codon optimized for expression in *E.*

coli except that pause sites with rare codons were engineered so as to retain pause sites found in

the gene encoding *Ec* MutY. Gene Blocks were ordered from Integrated DNA Technologies

(IDT). LCHF MutY genes designed in this way were cloned into the low-expression pKK223

vector by ligation-independent cloning (LIC) as follows. PCR reactions with the high-fidelity

Phusion polymerase amplified the synthetic Gene Blocks and two overlapping fragments derived

from approximate halves of the pKK223 plasmid. PCR products were separated by

electrophoresis in 0.8% agarose x1 TAE gels containing 1 μg/mL ethidium bromide. DNA was

visualized by long-wavelength UV shadowing to allow dissection of gel bands, and the DNA

was purified with the GeneJet gel extraction system, treated with Dpn1 at 37 °C for 45 min, and

heat shock transformed directly into DH5α competent cells. Clones were selected on ampicillin

media plates. The plasmid DNA was purified from 4-mL overnight cultures by use of the Wizard

Plus MiniPrep kit according to the manufacturer's instructions. The sequence of the LCHF MutY

encoding gene was verified by Sanger sequencing with UpTac and TacTerm primers. Genes

encoding site-directed substitution variants were created by amplifying two overlapping

fragments of the LCHF MutY-pKK223 plasmid with mutagenic PCR primers followed by

similar gel purification and transformation procedures. In our hands the LIC cloning efficiency

was close to 95% except for the *Flavobacteriaceae* MutY gene which could not be cloned intact.

Mutation suppression assay

Mutation rates were measured by the method outlined previously (50). The CC104

mutm::KAN muty::TET cells (89) were heat-shock transformed with a pKK223 plasmid encoding

the *Ec* MutY gene, LCHF MutY genes, or no gene (*null*). Transformants selected from

kanamycin-ampicillin-tetracycline (KAT) media plates were diluted prior to inoculation of 2-mL

KAT liquid media, and these cultures were grown overnight for 18 hours at 37℃ with shaking at

180 rpm. Cultures were kept cold on ice or at +4 °C prior to further processing. Cells were

collected by centrifugation, the media was removed by aspiration, and cells were resuspended in

an equal volume of 0.85% sodium chloride before seeding 100 μL aliquots to kanamycin-

ampicillin-rifampicin (KAR) media plates. Dilutions of the washed cells were also seeded to

KAR plates (10^{-1} dilution) and kanamycin-ampicillin (KA) plates (10^{-7} dilution), and allowed to

overnight at 37℃ for 18 hours. The number of Rif^R mutants were counted by counting the colony

forming units (CFU).

Statistical analysis was performed in *R* as previously described (33). Confidence intervals

were obtained by bootstrap resampling of 10,000 trials as implemented with the boot package.

Data and *R* programs, including the CFU data from the Rif^R assay, the statistical analyses, the

code to generate the bar graph shown in **Figure 8**, and the values reported in **Supporting Table**

S7, have been deposited at the GitHub repository https://github.com/paytonutzman/Lost-City-

MutY-Discovery**.**

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by NSF awards to MPH (CHE:CLP- 1905249, 2204229) and to W.J.B. (OCE-1536405) and by the NASA Astrobiology Institute Rock-Powered Life team. We thank Markel Kolendrianos, Peyton Russelberg, and Sonia Sehgal for technical expertise. We thank the University of Utah undergraduate students enrolled in Molecular Biology of DNA Lab (BIOL3525 fall 2022) for their contribution to measuring Rif^R mutant frequency data. In particular, we would like to thank the following students for their extra efforts and contributions in the lab: Tieker Duncan, Shilpi Kharidia, Jackson Munn, Kenzie Fleming, Alex Ballinger, Andrew Petersen, Brook Miller, Tom Christensen, Madison Haught, Emi Wickens, Spencer Sonntag, Abigail Johnston, Sam Aamodt, Jasmine Jacobo, Alyssa Le, Sam Hendry, Saydra Galloway, Hiroshi Aoki, Peyton Merchant, Kaliece Carter, Annie Joseph, Kathleen Brabb, Natalie Morgan, Sophia Khalaji, Helena Haddadin, Hadlee Young, Brenden Roberts, Mason Hansen, Mackenzie Montzingo, and Quyen Tran. We especially acknowledge Emily Dart who first searched LCHF metagenomes for MutY homologs which provided the impetus for development of this project.

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Supporting Information

Data and code availability

The results of the rifampicin resistance assay and R code to produce the reported statistics can be found at https://github.com/paytonutzman/Lost-City-MutY-Discovery. Additionally, FASTA files of the discovered MutY enzymes and MutYcandidates can be found within this repository.

S1 Dataset. Alignment of Lost City MutY homologs

Chemical motifs are highlighted in columns. Alignment was generated by Promals3D (81) guided by the structure of *Gs* MutY. It was necessary to align sequences in the first block including up to N146 separately from the second block and third block because otherwise the C-terminal domain residues were aligned inconsistently. The homologs flagged with dark red highlighting were eliminated because of missing chemical motifs. The homolog flagged with light pink highlighting required manual adjustment so as to align the H-x-FSH motif.

S2 Table. Percent Identity Matrix.

S3 Fig. MutY gene neighbors. Structural homology for *Ec* YggX (left) and nearest neighbor to *Thiotrichaceae* MutY (right). The structure solution NMR structure for *Ec* YggX (pdb id 1yhd) is superimposable to the structure predicted by AlphaFold2 for the nearest neighbor to *Thiotrichaceae* MutY, with RMSD of 0.99 Å for 69 pruned pairs selected from 88 possible pairs. The Cys residue critical for function is highlighted with a yellow sphere for the sulfhydryl group.

S4 Table. Metabolic gene identification

[a]*Marinosulfonomonas* MutY contig belongs to two separate MAGs and each are reported separately as MAG 1 and 2 respectively.
[b]KEGG ID gene not identified in any MAG and not reported in Table 2.
[c]Completeness and contamination scores generated by CheckM v1.0.5 as described in Brazelton et al 2022 (36).

A KEGG ID analysis was used to identify the potential metabolic strategies of the MutY encoding organisms at the LCHF. The full metabolic KEGG ID search is shown above.

S5 Fig. AlphaFold Structure Prediction pLDDT Scores

pLDDT scores represent the confidence in the prediction calculated by AlphaFold2.

S6 Table. Ligand binding affinity (kcal / mol)

*Binding affinities for each of the nine output modes generated by AutoDock Vina for molecular docking of the ligand to a protein structure. Each mode represents a predicted ligand pose, which differs by a combination of position, orientation, and rotamer conformation. The receptor structure was obtained from pdb id 3g0q for *Gs* MutY and through structure prediction for the LCHF *Marinosulfonomas* MutY, *Rhodobacteraceae* MutY, *Thiotrichaceae* MutY, and *Flavobacteriaceae* MutY.

S7 Table. Rifampicin resistance assay.

[a]95% Confidence intervals determined by bootstrap method, see Materials and Methods for details.
[b]Mutation Frequency reported as median number of resistant colonies per 10^8 viable colonies. Fold change was
calculated by dividing Rif[R] frequency by the frequency measured for cultures expressing *Ec* MutY.

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Figure 1

Figure 7

Figure 4

Figure 2

Figure 8

Figure 6

Figure 3

Figure 5