

# 1 **The genetic basis of mutation rate variation in yeast**

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14

## 15 **Abstract**

16

17 Mutations are the root source of genetic variation and underlie the process of  
18 evolution. Although the rates at which mutations occur vary considerably between  
19 species, little is known about differences within species, or the genetic and molecular  
20 basis of these differences. Here we leveraged the power of the yeast *Saccharomyces*  
21 *cerevisiae* as a model system to uncover natural genetic variants that underlie  
22 variation in mutation rate. We developed a high-throughput fluctuation assay and  
23 used it to quantify mutation rates in natural yeast isolates and in 1008 segregant  
24 progeny from a cross between BY, a lab strain, and RM, a wine strain. We observed  
25 that mutation rate varies among yeast strains and is highly heritable ( $H^2=0.46$ ). We

26 performed linkage mapping in the segregants and identified four quantitative trait loci  
27 (QTLs) underlying mutation rate variation in the cross. We fine-mapped two QTLs to  
28 the underlying causal genes, *RAD5* and *MKT1*, that contribute to mutation rate  
29 variation. These genes also underlie sensitivity to the DNA damaging agents 4NQO  
30 and MMS, suggesting a connection between spontaneous mutation rate and mutagen  
31 sensitivity.

32

### 33 **Author Summary**

34

35 Spontaneous mutation rate varies between species, as well as between individuals  
36 within species. The genetic basis for mutation rate variation within species is poorly  
37 understood. Part of the challenge is accurately measuring mutation rates in many  
38 individuals. We addressed this challenge by developing a high-throughput fluctuation  
39 assay, and we used this assay to identify and genetically dissect differences in  
40 mutation rate between yeast strains. To do so, we measured mutation rates in 1008  
41 segregant progeny from a cross between a laboratory strain and a vineyard strain and  
42 used linkage analysis to map four genetic loci underlying the mutation rate variation  
43 in this cross. We then identified the genes and variants that underlie the two loci with  
44 largest contributions to mutation rate variation. These genes also affect sensitivity to  
45 DNA damaging agents, suggesting a connection between spontaneous mutation rate  
46 and mutagen sensitivity.

47

### 48 **Introduction**

49

50 Mutations are permanent changes to the genome of an organism that can result from  
51 DNA damage that is improperly repaired, from errors in DNA replication, or from the  
52 movement of mobile genetic elements. Mutations give rise to genetic variants in  
53 populations and are the wellspring of evolution. Mutations also play a major role in  
54 both inherited diseases and acquired diseases such as cancer.

55

56 The mutation rate can be defined as the number of mutational events per cell division,  
57 generation, or unit of time [1]. Mutation rates tends to be approximately  $10^{-9}$  to  $10^{-10}$   
58 mutations per base pair, per cell division, for most microbial species [2], making them  
59 difficult to measure and compare across individuals. As a consequence, the effects of  
60 genetic background differences on mutation rates have only been investigated on a  
61 small scale [3]. Two types of experimental approaches have been used to measure  
62 mutation rates in yeast. The first is the fluctuation assay [4]. This method requires a  
63 gene with a selectable phenotype such that loss-of-function mutations in the gene  
64 enable the mutants to grow in the corresponding selective conditions. Spontaneous  
65 mutation rate is then estimated from the distribution of mutant numbers in parallel  
66 cultures. Lang and Murray applied the fluctuation assay to *S. cerevisiae* and estimated  
67 the per-base-pair mutation rate in yeast [5]. A second method tracks mutation  
68 accumulation during experimental evolution and uses whole-genome sequencing to  
69 estimate mutation rates [6]. This approach also provides information on the number,  
70 locations and types of spontaneous mutations. However, this assay requires growing  
71 the mutation accumulation lines over hundreds of generations, as well as sequencing  
72 many genomes. Although the fluctuation assay is faster and cheaper, the need for  
73 many parallel cultures makes it laborious to extend it to many different strains.

74

75 Here we developed a modified version of the fluctuation assay to enable higher-  
76 throughput measurements of spontaneous mutation rates. We used the new assay to  
77 quantify mutation rates across genetically distinct yeast strains and observed  
78 considerable variation. To find the genes underlying the observed variation, we  
79 applied the modified fluctuation assay to a large panel of 1,008 segregants from a  
80 cross between the laboratory strain BY4724 (hereafter referred to as BY) and the  
81 vineyard strain RM11-1a (hereafter referred to as RM). We identified four loci  
82 associated with mutation rate variation and narrowed the two loci that contributed the  
83 most to mutation rate variation to missense variants in the genes *RAD5* and *MKT1*.  
84 We also found interactions between alleles of *RAD5* and *MKT1*.

85

## 86 **Results**

87

### 88 **High-throughput fluctuation assay for measuring mutation rates**

89 The fluctuation assay for measuring mutation rate involves growing many parallel  
90 cultures, each starting from a small number of cells, under non-selective conditions,  
91 followed by plating to selective medium to identify mutants. The number of mutations  
92 that occurs in each culture should follow the Poisson distribution, as mutations arise  
93 spontaneously. However, the number of mutant cells that survive on the selective  
94 plates can vary greatly, because early mutations are inherited by all offspring of the  
95 mutant. This leads to the “jackpot” effect, in which some cultures contain a large  
96 number of mutant individuals. The number of observed mutant cells per culture  
97 follows the Luria-Delbrück distribution [4], and the Ma-Sandri-Sarkar maximum  
98 likelihood method can be used to estimate the expected number of mutations per  
99 culture from the observed numbers of mutants [7]. The underlying mutation rate is

100 then calculated by dividing the number of mutations per culture by the average  
101 number of cells per culture [1,4]. Here we measured rare spontaneous loss-of-function  
102 mutations in the gene *CANI*, which encodes an arginine permease. Yeast cells  
103 carrying loss-of-function mutations in *CANI* can grow on canavanine, an otherwise  
104 toxic arginine analog. Typically, fluctuation assays are labor-intensive and have  
105 limited throughput, because a large number of parallel cultures is required for  
106 estimating the mutation rate in each assay, and several replicate assays are needed for  
107 a robust measurement of the mutation rate in each strain [8]. We modified the  
108 fluctuation assay into a high-throughput method for measuring mutation rates in many  
109 strains in parallel. We grew cultures in 96-well plates, automated the spotting of  
110 cultures, and used high-resolution imaging to rapidly count mutants on many plates  
111 (Methods, Fig 1A). The automated spotting process for 96 strains took only  
112 approximately twenty minutes, and the imaging process required even less time.  
113 These improvements enabled us to measure the spontaneous mutation rates in the  
114 hundreds of strains necessary for genetic mapping.

115

### 116 **Spontaneous mutation rate varies among yeast isolates**

117

118 To investigate mutation rate variation among *S. cerevisiae* strains, we measured the  
119 spontaneous mutation rate of seven yeast isolates using the high-throughput  
120 fluctuation assay (S1 Table). The seven strains span a large range of yeast genetic  
121 diversity [9]. We found that the mutation rates of these strains range from  $1.1 \times 10^{-7}$  to  
122  $5.8 \times 10^{-7}$  mutations per gene per generation, with a median of  $1.7 \times 10^{-7}$  (S1 Table, S1  
123 Fig). The median mutation rate was very similar to the previously reported mutation  
124 rate at *CANI* [5]. In particular, the mutation rate we observed for the BY strain

125  $(1.7 \times 10^{-7})$  is very similar to the previously reported rate, which was measured in  
126 strain W303  $(1.5 \times 10^{-7})$  [5], consistent with the fact that W303 shares a large fraction  
127 of its genome with BY [10]. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that strain  
128 identity explained a significant fraction of the observed variance in mutation rates  
129  $(F=69.9, df=6, p < 2 \times 10^{-16})$  (S1 Fig). The fraction of total variance in mutation rates  
130 explained by the repeatability of measurements for each strain, 46%, serves as an  
131 upper bound for the estimate of the total contribution of genetic differences between  
132 strains to trait variation (broad-sense heritability or  $H^2$ ). We observed that RM, a  
133 vineyard strain, had a mutation rate higher than all other strains (S1 Fig).

134

#### 135 **Four QTLs explain the majority of observed mutation rate variation**

136

137 In order to find the genetic factors underlying the difference in mutation rate between  
138 BY and RM, we performed quantitative trait locus (QTL) mapping in 1,008  
139 genotyped haploid segregants from a cross between these strains [11]. We measured  
140 the mutation rate of each segregant using the high-throughput fluctuation assay  
141 (Methods). We estimated the fraction of phenotypic variance explained by the  
142 additive effects of all segregating markers (narrow-sense heritability) to be 30%  
143 (Methods) [12]. This sets an upper bound for the expectation of the total amount of  
144 additive genetic variance that could be explained with a QTL-based model. QTL  
145 mapping in the segregant panel identified significant linkage at four distinct loci (Fig  
146 1B). At two of the QTLs, on chromosomes XII and V, the RM allele conferred a  
147 higher mutation rate, consistent with the higher mutation rate of this strain. At the  
148 other two QTLs, on chromosomes XIV and I, the BY allele conferred a higher  
149 mutation rate (S2 Fig), showing that a strain with lower trait value can nevertheless

150 harbor trait-increasing alleles. The four detected QTLs explained 20.7% of the  
151 phenotypic variance, thus accounting for 69% of the estimated additive heritability.  
152 The loci on chromosomes XII, XIV, I and V explained 8.8%, 6.1%, 3.1% and 2.6% of  
153 the variance, respectively. We tested the four identified QTLs for pairwise  
154 interactions and found a significant interaction between the QTL on chromosome XII  
155 and the QTL on chromosome XIV that explained 1% of the phenotypic variance  
156 ( $F=8.41$ ,  $df=1$ , Bonferroni-corrected  $p=0.023$ ).

157

158 **Polymorphisms in genes *RAD5* and *MKT1* underlie the major QTLs on**  
159 **chromosomes XII and XIV**

160

161 Ten genes fell within the confidence interval of the QTL on chromosome XII. A  
162 strong candidate was *RAD5*. Previous studies showed that natural variants in *RAD5*  
163 contribute to sensitivity to the mutagen 4-nitroquinoline 1-oxide (4NQO) [13]. *RAD5*  
164 encodes a DNA repair protein involved in the error-free DNA damage tolerance  
165 (DDT) pathway [14,15]. The DDT pathway promotes the bypass of single-stranded  
166 DNA lesions encountered by DNA polymerases during DNA replication, thus  
167 preventing the stalling of DNA replication [16]. *RAD5* plays a crucial role in one  
168 branch of the DDT pathway called template switching (TS), in which the stalled  
169 nascent strand switches from the damaged template to the undamaged newly  
170 synthesized sister strand for extension past the lesion [16]. Two non-synonymous  
171 substitutions exist between BY and RM strains in *RAD5* (Fig 2A), at amino acid  
172 positions 783 (glutamic acid in BY and aspartic acid in RM) and 791 (isoleucine in  
173 BY and serine in RM). According to Pfam alignments [17], *RAD5* contains a HIRAN  
174 domain, an SNF2-related N-terminal domain, a RING-type zinc finger domain, and a

175 helicase C-terminal domain (Fig 2A). Both non-synonymous polymorphisms mapped  
176 to the helicase domain of *RAD5* (Fig 2A), and no other sequenced strains of *S.*  
177 *cerevisiae* contain the aspartic acid 783 and serine 791 variants that are private to the  
178 RM strain. We used protein variation effect analyzer (PROVEAN) [18] to predict  
179 whether the two non-synonymous substitutions have an impact on the biological  
180 function of the protein. PROVEAN showed the I791S substitution (score -5.4) might  
181 have a strong deleterious effect, while the E783D variant (score -1.8) was not  
182 predicted to have a strong effect.

183

184 Nineteen genes fell within the confidence interval of the QTL on chromosome XIV.  
185 A strong candidate was *MKT1*, which was also reported to affect 4NQO sensitivity  
186 [13]. *MKT1* encodes an RNA-binding protein that affects multiple traits and underlies  
187 an eQTL hotspot in yeast [19]. The RM allele of *MKT1* increases sporulation rate [20]  
188 and improves survival at high temperature [21], in low glucose [22], after exposure to  
189 DNA-damaging agents [13], and in high ethanol levels [23]. The coding region of the  
190 BY and RM alleles of *MKT1* differs by one synonymous polymorphism and two non-  
191 synonymous substitutions. *MKT1* has an XPG domain, which is relevant to DNA  
192 repair, and an *MKT1* domain, which is related to the maintenance of K2 killer toxin  
193 [24]. One non-synonymous variant is in the XPG domain at amino acid position 30  
194 (aspartic acid in BY and glycine in RM), while the other non-synonymous variant is  
195 in the *MKT1* domain at position 453 (lysine in BY and arginine in RM). PROVEAN  
196 predicted a large effect of the D30G variant (score 6.7) on the function of *MKT1*, and  
197 this variant was previously found to influence sporulation rate [20], mitochondrial  
198 genome stability [25] and survival at high temperature [22]. The other variant (K453R)  
199 was not predicted to have a strong effect (score 0.6).



200

201 We tested whether *RAD5* and *MKT1* alleles caused differences in mutation rate by  
202 using the fluctuation test on allele replacement strains [13,26] (Table 1). The BY  
203 strain carrying the RM allele of *RAD5* (BY::*RAD5*-RM) had a higher mutation rate  
204 than the BY strain (permutation t-test, mean difference= $2.9 \times 10^{-7}$ ,  $p < 1 \times 10^{-4}$ ),  
205 demonstrating that the RM *RAD5* allele increases mutation rate (Fig 3A). This result  
206 is consistent with the observed difference between segregants grouped by parental  
207 allele at *RAD5* (mean difference= $2.3 \times 10^{-7}$ ). The RM strain carrying the BY allele of  
208 *MKT1* (RM::*MKT1*-BY) had a higher mutation rate than the RM strain (permutation  
209 t-test, mean difference= $6.1 \times 10^{-7}$ ,  $p < 1 \times 10^{-4}$ ), showing that the BY *MKT1* allele  
210 increases mutation rate (Fig 3A), consistent with the direction of effect observed in  
211 the segregants.

212

213 **Table 1. The allele replacement strains and variant substitution strains**

214

Strain	Background	Relevant Genotype	Source
YLK802	RM	<i>MAT</i> $\alpha$ , <i>MKT1</i> -BY, ho $\Delta$ ::HphMX, flo8 $\Delta$ ::NatMX	Smith <i>et al.</i> , 2008
EAY1463	BY	<i>MAT</i> $\alpha$ , <i>lys2</i> $\Delta$ , <i>RAD5</i> -RM::NatMX	Demogines <i>et al.</i> , 2008
EAY1471	BY	<i>MAT</i> $\alpha$ , <i>lys2</i> $\Delta$ , <i>RAD5</i> -I791S::KanMX	Demogines <i>et al.</i> , 2008
EAY2169	BY	<i>MAT</i> $\alpha$ , <i>lys2</i> $\Delta$ , <i>RAD5</i> -E783D::KanMX	Demogines <i>et al.</i> , 2008

215

216 To gain a finer-level understanding of the two missense variants between BY and RM  
217 in the gene *RAD5*, we tested strains [13] in which these sites in BY were individually  
218 replaced with the RM alleles (Table 1) by site-directed mutagenesis. Strains with  
219 either variant had a higher mutation rate than BY (permutation t-test, mean  
220 difference= $0.9 \times 10^{-7}$ ,  $p < 1 \times 10^{-4}$  for BY::*RAD5*-I791S; mean difference= $0.3 \times 10^{-7}$ ,  
221  $p = 6 \times 10^{-4}$  for BY::*RAD5*-E783D) (Fig 2B), suggesting that both variants contribute to  
222 the higher mutation rate. The BY strain with the I791S substitution had a higher

223 mutation rate than the BY strain with the E783D substitution (permutation t-test,  
224 mean difference= $0.6 \times 10^{-7}$ ,  $p < 1 \times 10^{-4}$ ) (Fig 2B), consistent with the PROVEAN  
225 prediction of a stronger effect for the I791S variant. However, neither variant alone  
226 nor the additive effect of the two variants fully recapitulated the increase in mutation  
227 rate that we observed when replacing the entire coding region of *RAD5* in BY with  
228 the RM allele ( $F=67.6$ ,  $df=1$ ,  $p=3.3 \times 10^{-15}$ ), suggesting an interaction between the two  
229 variants.

230

### 231 **Mutation rate shares two large effect QTLs with growth on DNA damaging**

#### 232 **agents 4NQO and MMS**

233

234 Deficiencies in DNA repair can increase mutation rate [27,28] and increase sensitivity  
235 to DNA damaging agents such as alkylating compounds and UV light [29,30]. We  
236 hypothesized that genetic variants that cause deficiencies in DNA repair may underlie  
237 QTLs for both mutation rate variation and sensitivity to DNA damaging agents.  
238 Previously, Demogines *et al.* identified a large-effect QTL on chromosome XII for  
239 MMS and 4NQO sensitivity in a panel of 123 segregants from a cross between BY  
240 and RM [13]. Additionally, they identified a QTL on chromosome XIV for 4NQO  
241 sensitivity by using backcrossing and bulk segregant analysis. These QTLs  
242 overlapped with the major QTLs that we identified for mutation rate variation, and the  
243 underlying causal genes for 4NQO sensitivity were also *RAD5* and *MKT1*.

244

245 To follow up on these results, we measured sensitivity to three different DNA  
246 damaging agents in our panel of 1008 segregants (Table 2). The compounds assayed  
247 included methyl methanesulfonate (MMS), an alkylating agent that induces DNA

248 double strand breaks and stalls replication forks [31], 4NQO, an ultraviolet light  
249 mimetic agent [31] and hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>), a compound that induces DNA  
250 single and double strand breaks [31]. We observed that segregants with higher  
251 mutation rate, and presumably less efficient DNA repair systems, were more sensitive  
252 to MMS, 4NQO and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (S3 Fig), consistent with our hypothesis that deficiencies in  
253 DNA repair increase the rate of spontaneous mutations and increase sensitivity to  
254 DNA damaging agents. We identified two large-effect QTLs for 4NQO and MMS  
255 sensitivity that overlapped with the major QTLs for mutation rate (Fig 4A and B). An  
256 interaction between *RAD5* and *MKT1* was observed for 4NQO sensitivity (F=8.5,  
257 df=1, p=0.004) (S4 Fig). The QTLs on chromosome 12 and 14 were still observed in  
258 the linkage mapping for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, but they had small effects (S5 Fig). The large effect  
259 QTLs detected for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> sensitivity on other chromosomes likely reflects trait-specific  
260 effects of variants acting on sensitivity to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (S5 Fig).

261

262 **Table 2. DNA damaging agents used for the sensitivity assay**

263

Agent	Agent characteristic
Hydrogen peroxide (H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> )	Altering DNA structure
Methyl methane sulfonate (MMS)	Altering (alkylating) DNA bases
4-nitroquinoline 1-oxide (4NQO)	UV mimetic

264

## 265 **Discussion**

266

267 We developed and implemented a high-throughput fluctuation assay to directly  
268 measure mutation rates in yeast. We used this assay to map four QTLs that influence  
269 differences in the spontaneous mutation rate.

270

271 We identified *RAD5* as the gene underlying the QTL with the largest effect on  
272 mutation rate. *RAD5* encodes a DNA helicase and ubiquitin ligase involved in error-  
273 free DNA damage tolerance (DDT), a pathway that facilitates chromosome  
274 replication through DNA lesions [32,33]. Previous work showed that Rad5 is a  
275 structure-specific DNA helicase that is able to carry out replication fork regression  
276 [14], a process of remodeling the replication fork into four-way junctions when  
277 replication perturbations are encountered [34]. This process was hypothesized to  
278 promote DNA damage tolerance and repair during replication [34]. We showed that  
279 two non-synonymous variants between BY and RM in the helicase domain affect  
280 mutation rate. The RM allele of *RAD5* increases the sensitivity of yeast to 4NQO and  
281 MMS [35], probably due to a defect in replication fork regression. Thus the RM allele  
282 of *RAD5* causes both decreased growth in mutagenic conditions and a higher mutation  
283 rate in non-stressful normal conditions.

284

285 We furthermore showed that polymorphisms in *MKT1* contribute to mutation rate  
286 variation. *MKT1* is a highly pleiotropic gene that has been shown to affect levels of  
287 transcript and protein abundance for numerous genes [26] [36], as well as numerous  
288 cellular phenotypes [13,19–23,37]. The BY and RM alleles of *MKT1* differ by two  
289 non-synonymous substitutions that map to amino acid positions 30 (aspartic acid in  
290 BY; glycine in RM) and 453 (lysine in BY; arginine in RM). The latter variant  
291 (K453R) is located in the MKT1 domain, which is required for activity of the Mkt1  
292 protein in maintaining K2 killer toxin [38]. The former variant (D30G) localizes to  
293 the XPG-N (the N-terminus of XPG) domain. Four other yeast proteins contain this  
294 domain: Exo1, Din7, Rad27 and Rad2. All of these proteins have functions related to  
295 DNA repair and cellular response to DNA damage, including DNA double-strand

296 break repair (Exo1) [39], DNA mismatch repair (Exo1, Din7) [40,41], nucleotide  
297 excision repair (Rad2) [42], ribonucleotide excision repair (Rad27) [43] and large  
298 loop repair (LLR) (Rad27) [44]. The internal XPG (XPG-I) domain, together with  
299 XPG-N, forms the catalytic domain of the Xeroderma Pigmentosum  
300 Complementation Group G (XPG) protein. The XPG protein has well-established  
301 catalytic and structural roles in nucleotide excision repair, a DNA repair process, and  
302 acts as a cofactor for a DNA glycosylase that removes oxidized pyrimidines from  
303 DNA [45]. In humans, mutations in the XPG protein commonly cause Xeroderma  
304 Pigmentosum, which often leads to skin cancer [46]. The aspartic acid at position 30  
305 in the XPG domain of Mkt1 is only found in BY and related laboratory strains. We  
306 hypothesize that Mkt1 has a previously unknown function in DNA damage repair,  
307 mediated through its XPG domain.

308

309 We found that variants in *RAD5* and *MKT1* contribute to both mutation rate variation  
310 and mutagen sensitivity. These results suggest that spontaneously occurring mutations  
311 may have a similar mutation spectrum to those created by 4NQO and MMS, and are  
312 potentially repaired by the same mechanisms. Deficient DNA repair can lead to  
313 increased sensitivity to agents such as alkylating compounds and UV light [29,30,47]  
314 and to higher mutation rates at sites that are less accessible to the DNA repair system  
315 [27]. Because mutation rates can be difficult to measure, sensitivity to mutagens may  
316 serve as a useful proxy.

317

318 Recently, Jerison et al. reported heritable differences in adaptability in 230 yeast  
319 segregants from the same cross we studied here [48]. They measured adaptability as  
320 the difference in fitness between a given segregant ('founder') and a descendant of

321 that founder after 500 generations of experimental evolution. Interestingly, *RAD5* fell  
322 within one of the QTLs found to influence adaptability. Together with our observation  
323 that *RAD5* influences mutation rate, this finding suggests that differences in mutation  
324 rate can affect the adaptability of organisms.

325

## 326 **Materials and Methods**

### 327 **Yeast strains and media**

328 Seven natural *S. cerevisiae* strains (S1 Table) were used in this study. The 1008  
329 segregants derived from BY4724 (MATa) and RM11-1a (MATa, *MKTI*-BY,  
330 *hoΔ::HphMX*, *flo8Δ::NatMX*) were generated, genotyped and described previously  
331 [11]. The RM::*MKTI*-BY strain was made previously by our lab. The BY::*RAD5*-RM  
332 strain and the *RAD5* variants substitution strains (Table 1) were from Demogines et al  
333 [13]. For fluctuation assay, yeast was grown in synthetic complete liquid medium  
334 without arginine (SC-Arg) before plating onto selective plates. For DNA damaging  
335 agents sensitivity assays, yeast were grown in rich YPD medium (1% yeast extract,  
336 2% peptone and 2% glucose) before plating onto YPD agar plates with DNA  
337 damaging agents. SC-Arg and YPD liquid media and agar plates were made  
338 according to Amberg et al [49].

339

### 340 **Selection agar plate construction**

341 Selective canavanine plates were made from arginine minus synthetic complete agar  
342 medium with 60mg/liter L-canavanine (Sigma C1625). The canavanine plates were  
343 dried by incubating at 30°C overnight. Selective plates for the DNA damaging agents  
344 sensitivity assay were made with YPD agar medium containing the respective agents  
345 at the concentrations indicated in Table 2. 50ml of the agar medium was poured into

346 each Nunc OmniTray plates (Thermo Scientific 264728) and placed on a flat surface  
347 to solidify. Each experiment was performed with the same batch of selection plates.  
348 The concentrations for 4NQO (Sigma N8141), MMS (Sigma 64382) and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>  
349 (Sigma 216763) were 0.1µg/ml, 0.01% and 4mM. These concentrations capture the  
350 sensitivity difference between the segregants, while maintaining enough colony  
351 growth for QTL mapping.

352

### 353 **Fluctuation assays**

354 To begin the fluctuation assay, yeast were grown in synthetic complete medium  
355 without arginine (SC-Arg) in 96-well plates (Costar 3370) for ~48 hours to saturation.  
356 Saturated cultures were diluted and pinned into a new 96-well plate with liquid SC-  
357 Arg medium. This step ensured a small number of ~1000 yeast cells in the initial  
358 inoculum. Plates were sealed with a Breathe-Easy sealing membrane (Sigma Z380059)  
359 to prevent evaporation, and incubated at 30°C with shaking for ~48 hours. 100µl  
360 saturated cultures were spot-plated onto canavanine plates in a four by six  
361 configuration using a Biomek FX<sup>P</sup> automated workstation. Plates with spot-plated  
362 yeast culture were dried in the laminar flow hood (Nuair) for half an hour or until dry,  
363 and incubated at 30°C for ~48 hours. We imaged the plates using an imaging robot  
364 (S&P Robotics BM3-SC), and the number of colonies in each spot was manually  
365 counted from the images.

366

367 For each of the seven natural isolate strains, we performed ninety-six replicates of the  
368 fluctuation assay. In each replicate three cultures were plated onto canavanine plates  
369 to estimate the mutation events per culture. One culture was diluted and plated onto  
370 YPD to determine the number of cells per culture in each replicate. For the panel of

371 BYxRM segregants twelve cultures per segregant were plated onto canavanine plates  
372 to calculate the number of mutations per culture, and one culture was used to  
373 determine the number of cells. For each allele replacement strain (Table 1), ninety-six  
374 replicates of fluctuation analysis were performed. In each replicate, twelve cultures  
375 were plated onto canavanine plate to estimate the number of mutations per culture,  
376 and three cultures were pooled, diluted and plated to determine the number of cells  
377 per culture.

378

### 379 **Analysis of fluctuation analysis data**

380 Mutation rate was estimated using the Ma-Sandri-Sarkar Maximum Likelihood  
381 Method where the number of observed colonies on canavanine plate was fitted into  
382 the Luria-Delbrück distribution on the basis of a single parameter  $m$  [7]. The  
383 parameter  $m$  represents the expected number of mutation events per culture. For the  
384 natural isolates and engineered strains, the mutation rate was calculated from the  
385 equation  $\mu = m/N$ , where  $N$  is the average number of cells per culture (as a proxy for  
386 the number of cell divisions given the starting inoculum is much smaller than  $N$ ). In  
387 the segregant panel, mutation rate was calculated as the residual phenotype after  
388 regressing out the effect of average number of cells per strain from the estimate of  $m$   
389 per strain across all of the segregants.

390

### 391 **Yeast growth measurement for DNA damaging agents sensitivity assay**

392 The segregant panel were originally stored in 96-well plates (Costar 3370). During the  
393 DNA damaging agents sensitivity assay, individual segregants were inoculated in two  
394 plate configurations in 384-well plates (Thermo Scientific 264574) with YPD and  
395 grown for ~48 hours in a 30°C incubator without shaking. Saturated cultures were



396 mixed for 1min at 2,000 r.p.m. using a MixMate (Eppendorf) before pinning. The  
397 colony handling robot (S&P Robotics BM3-SC) was used to pin segregants onto  
398 selective agar plates with 384 long pins. The plates were incubated at 30°C for ~48  
399 hours and imaged by the colony handling robot (S&P Robotics BM3-SC). Custom R  
400 code [11] was used to determine the size of each colony and the size was used as a  
401 proxy for growth in the presence of the DNA damaging agents.

402

### 403 **QTL mapping**

404 In order to control for intrinsic growth rate differences and plate position effects, we  
405 normalized the traits for growth by fitting a regression for growth of the yeast that  
406 were in the same layout configuraton on control plate (YPD agar plates for mutagen  
407 sensitivity assay). Residuals were used for QTL mapping. We tested for linkage by  
408 calculating logarithm likelihood ratio (LOD scores) for each genotypic marker and  
409 trait as  $-n(\ln(1 - r^2))/(2 \ln(10))$ , where  $r$  is the Pearson correlation coefficient  
410 between the segregant genotypes and the segregant mutation rate or DNA damaging  
411 agents sensitivity. The threshold declaring the significant QTL effect was calculated  
412 from the empirical null distribution of the maximum LOD score determined from  
413 1,000 permutations [50]. The estimated 5% family-wise error rate significance  
414 thresholds were 3.52, 3.62, 3.61 and 3.64 for mutation rate, mutagen sensitivity for  
415 4NQO, MMS and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> respectively. The 95% confidence intervals were determined  
416 using a 1.5 LOD score drop.

417

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423

## 424 **Author Contributions**

425 Conceived and designed the experiments: LG JSB LK. Performed the experiments:  
426 LG. Analyzed the data: LG JSB. Wrote the paper: LG JSB LK.

427

## 428 **References**

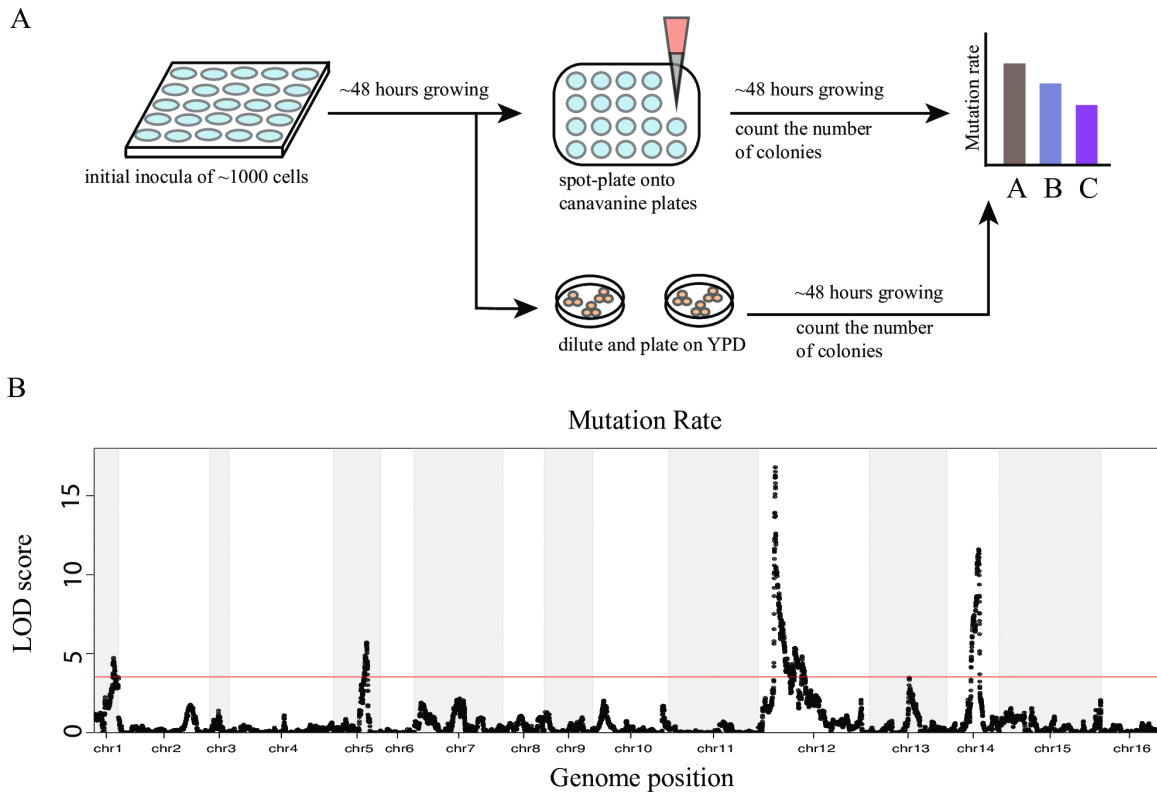
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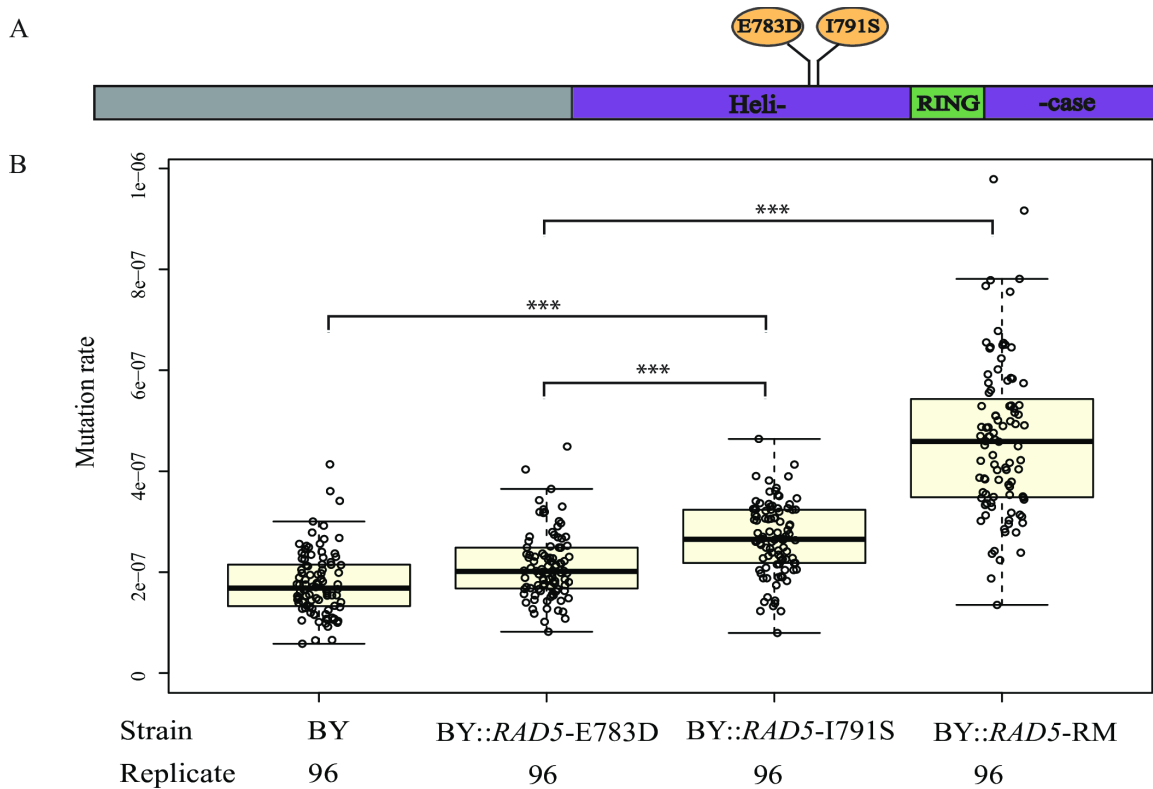
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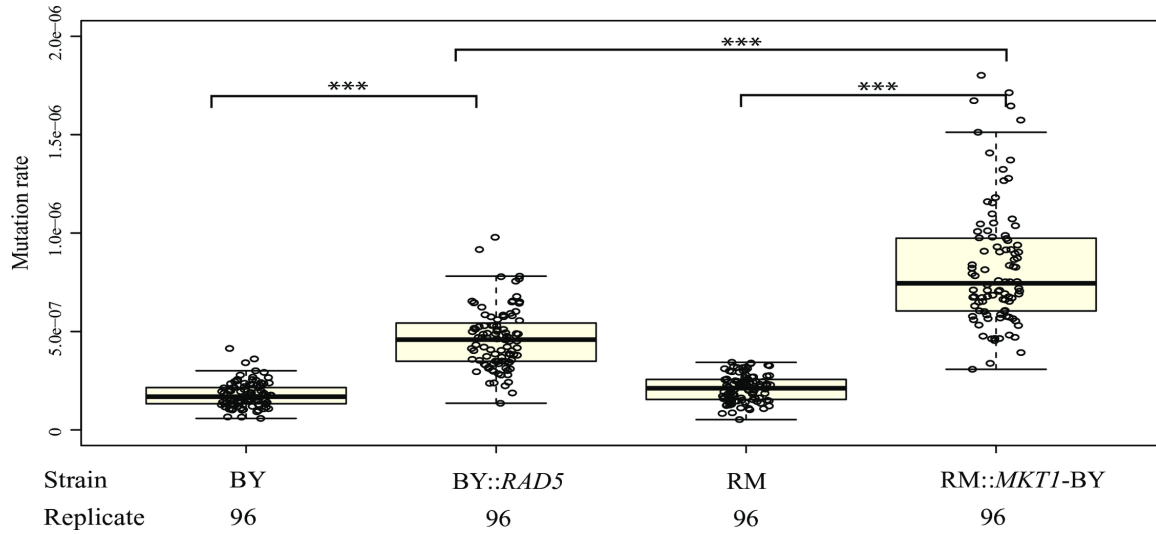
**Fig 1. Linkage analysis identified four loci underlying mutation rate variation.**

(A) The fluctuation assay was performed as shown in the workflow. The assay started with a small number of cells growing in 96-well plates in liquid SC-Arg medium for ~48 hours, followed by plating onto selective agar plates with canavanine. A proportion of the cultures were diluted to measure the number of cells per culture (Methods). Plates were imaged two days after spot-plating, and the number of colonies on canavanine plate was counted. (B) LOD score for mutation rate variation is plotted against the genetic map. The 4 significant QTLs explain 20.7% of the phenotypic variance. The red line indicates a 5% FWER significance threshold (Lod = 3.52).



**Fig 2. Polymorphisms in *RAD5* underlie mutation rate variation.**

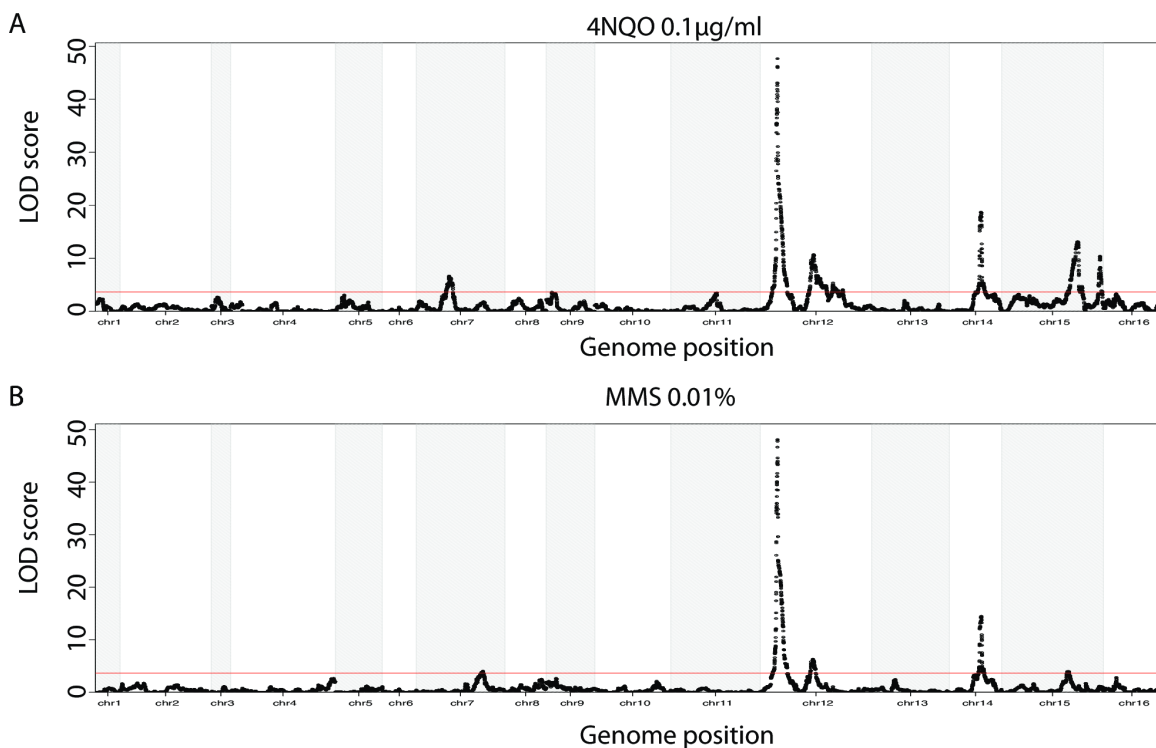
(A) *RAD5* polymorphisms between BY and RM are located in the helicase region. The first letter for each polymorphism indicates the BY polymorphisms (E783, I791) and the second letter indicates the RM polymorphisms (D783, S791). (B) The effect of single *RAD5* polymorphism and *RAD5* whole gene replacement was tested in the BY strain background for mutation rate. For each strain, the mutation rates of ninety-six replicates were measured. Bold lines show the mean. Boxes show the interquartile range. Statistical significance was tested using a permutation t-test. Permutation p value < 0.001 is shown as \*\*\*.



**Fig 3. The RM allele of *RAD5* and BY allele of *MKT1* increase mutation rate.**

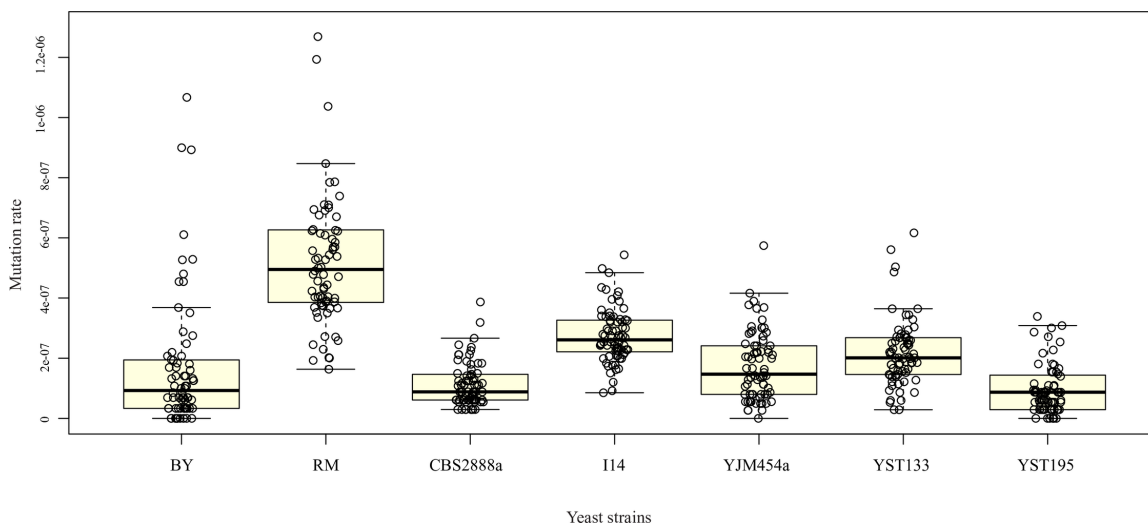
The mutation rate of two allele replacement strains, the BY strain and the RM strain are measured and compared. For each strain, ninety-six replicate measurement for mutation rate was performed. Bold lines show the mean. Boxes show the interquartile range. Statistical significance was tested using permutation t-test. Permutation p value < 0.001 is shown as \*\*\*.





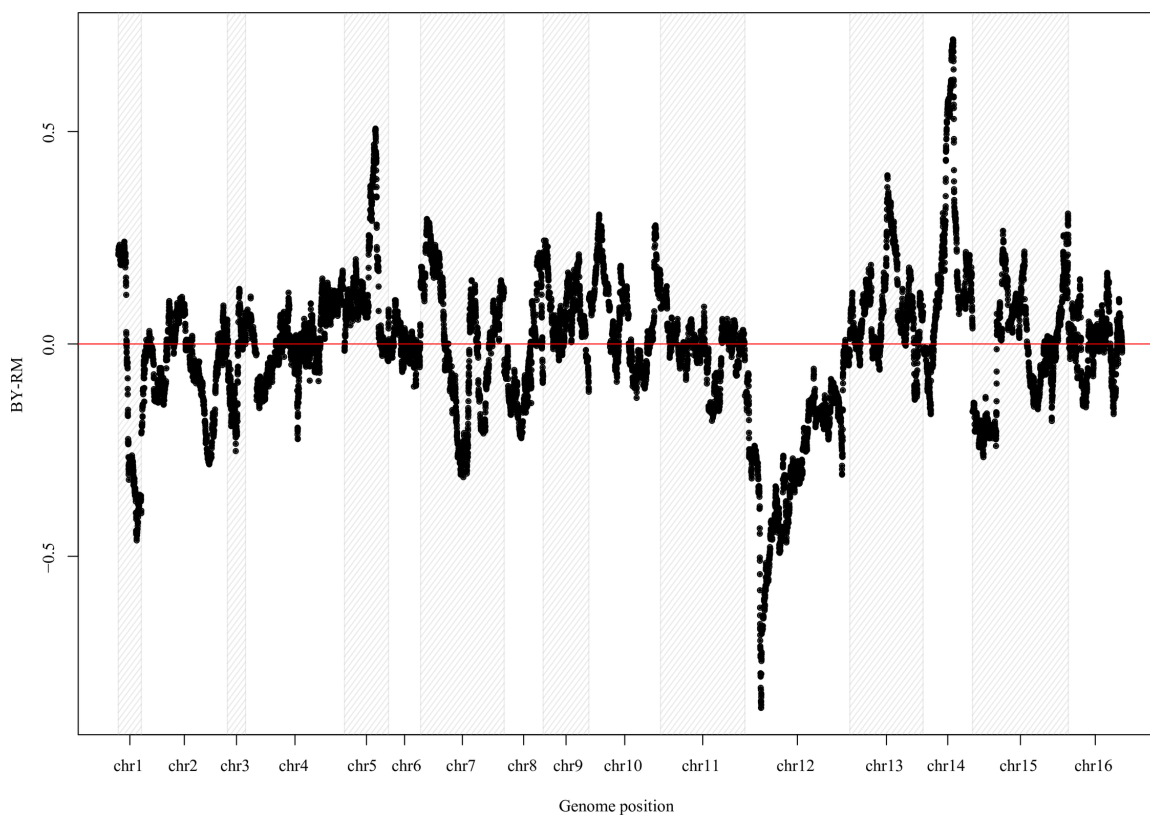
**Fig 4. Loci underlying mutation rate variation, 4NQO sensitivity and MMS sensitivity are overlapped.**

(A-B) The LOD scores for 4NQO (0.1 µg/ml) sensitivity and MMS (0.01%) sensitivity are plotted against the genetic map. The red line indicates a 5% FWER significance threshold (LOD=3.62 for 4NQO and LOD=3.61 for MMS).



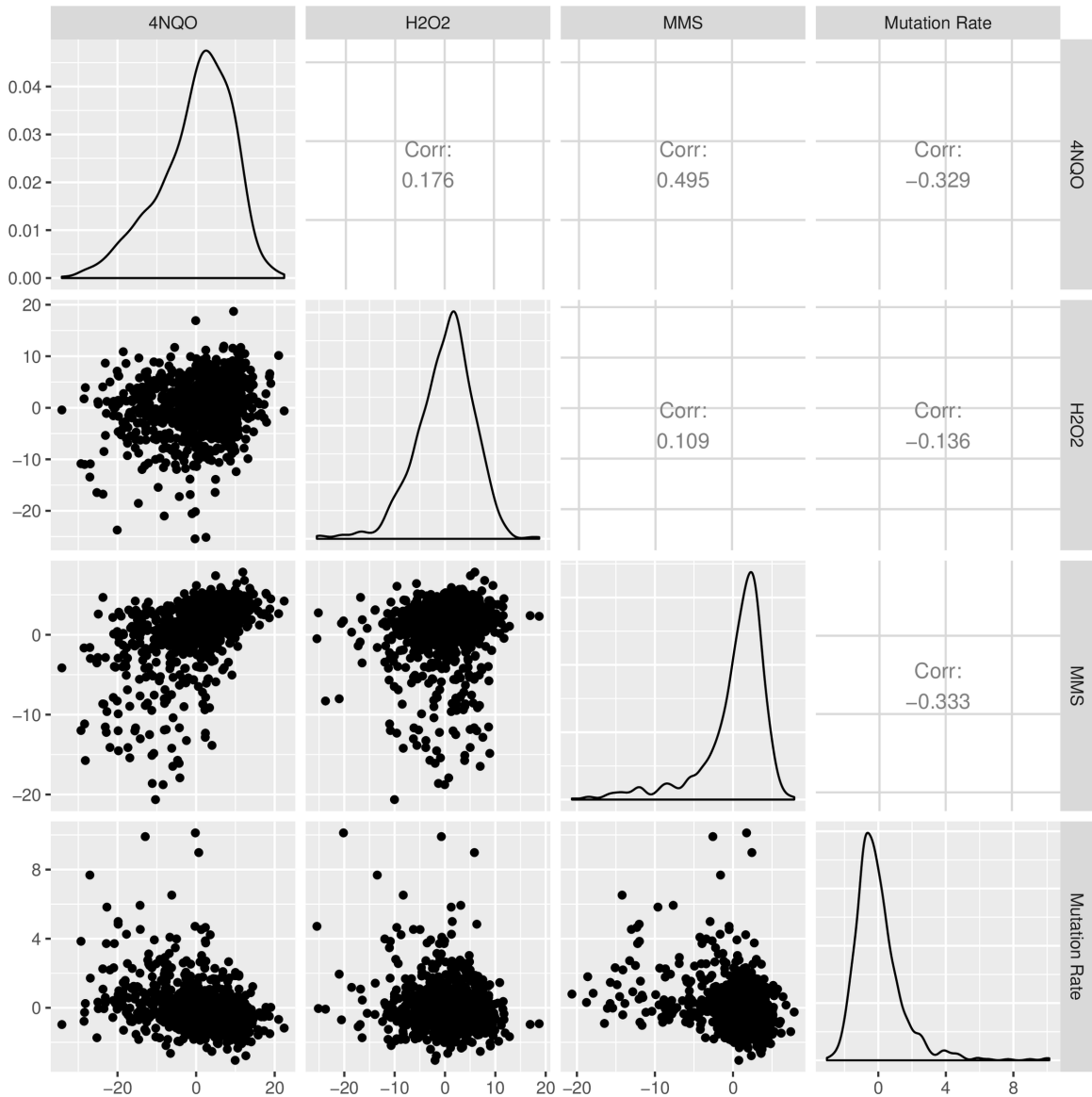
**S1 Fig. Mutation rate differs between seven natural yeast strains.**

Ninety-six measure of mutation rate was performed for each strain. Means of the mutation rate are plotted as the line. Boxes show the 25%-75% percentile.



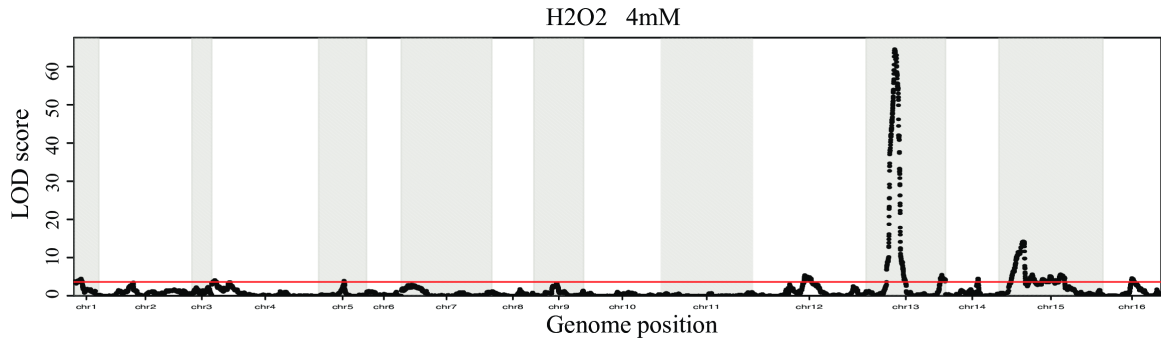
**S2 Fig. Loci on chromosome XII and XIV have large effects on mutation rate.**

Effect size of genetic markers along the genome shows the BY alleles on chromosome XIV and V increase the mutation rate, while the RM alleles on chromosome XII and I increase the mutation rate.



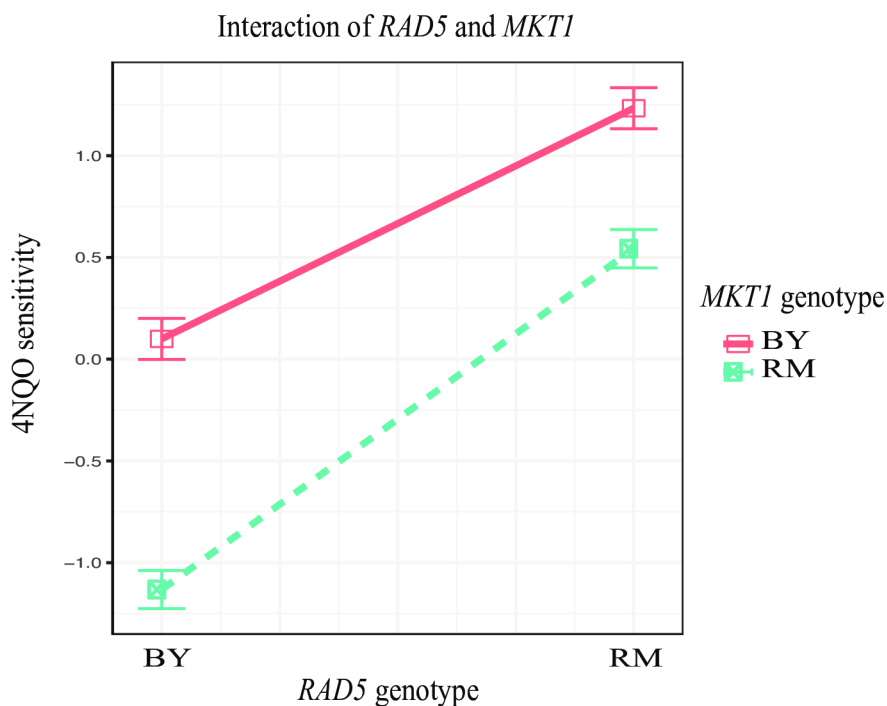
**S3 Fig. Mutation rate is positively correlated with 4NQO, MMS and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> sensitivity in the segregant panel.**

Trait values for mutagens are proxy measurements for mutagen resistance. As shown in the first row, mutation rate is negatively correlated with 4NQO, MMS and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> resistances, meaning mutation rate is positively correlated with the sensitivity of these mutagens. Data are displayed in the lower triangle and the linear Pearson correlation values are shown in the upper triangle.



**S4 Fig. Loci underlie the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> sensitivity.**

LOD scores of sensitivity for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (4mM) are plotted against the genetic map. The red line indicates the significant threshold (3.64) from 1000 permutations.



**S5 Fig. 4NQO sensitivity in 1008 segregants shows interaction between *RAD5* and *MKT1*.**

The 4NQO sensitivity of segregants is plotted with respect to their *RAD5* and *MKT1* genotypes. The x-axis corresponds to different parental alleles at *RAD5*. The colors correspond to different parental alleles at *MKT1* (Red corresponds to the BY allele, and green corresponds to the RM allele). The y-axis corresponds to the sensitivity to 4NQO.

<b>Strain</b>	<b>Mutation rate</b>	<b>Std. Error</b>
<b>BY4724</b>	$1.7 \times 10^{-7}$	$2.2 \times 10^{-7}$
<b>RM11-1a</b>	$5.8 \times 10^{-7}$	$4.0 \times 10^{-7}$
<b>CBS2888a</b>	$1.1 \times 10^{-7}$	$7.2 \times 10^{-8}$
<b>I14</b>	$2.8 \times 10^{-7}$	$9.0 \times 10^{-8}$
<b>YJM454a</b>	$1.7 \times 10^{-7}$	$1.1 \times 10^{-7}$
<b>YST133</b>	$2.2 \times 10^{-7}$	$1.1 \times 10^{-7}$
<b>YST195</b>	$1.7 \times 10^{-7}$	$5.3 \times 10^{-7}$

**S1 Table. The mutation rate of seven natural yeast strains.**

Mutation rate shown in the table is the mean of ninety-six replicates.