The symmetrical pattern of base-pair substitutions rates across the chromosome in

***Escherichia coli* has multiple causes**

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26   Abstract

Mutation accumulation experiments followed by whole-genome sequencing have revealed that for

several bacterial species the rate of base-pair substitutions is not constant across the chromosome but

varies in a wave-like pattern symmetrical about the origin of replication. The experiments reported here

demonstrate that in *Escherichia coli* several interacting factors determine the wave. Perturbing

replication timing, progression, or the structure of the terminus disrupts the pattern. Biases in error-

correction by proofreading and mismatch repair are major factors. The activities of the nucleoid binding

proteins, HU and Fis, are important, suggesting that mutation rates increase when highly structured

DNA is replicated. These factors should apply to most bacterial, and possibly eukaryotic, genomes, and

imply that different areas of the genome evolve at different rates.

Keywords *Escherichia coli*, mutation rate, mutation accumulation, whole genome sequencing,

mismatch repair, replication timing, nucleoid associated proteins, proofreading

38   Introduction

Recent studies of mutations accumulated non-selectively across bacterial chromosomes have

revealed that rates of base-pair substitutions (BPSs) vary 2- to 4- fold in a wave like pattern that is

mirrored in the two independently replicating halves of the chromosome. Such symmetrical patterns

have been observed in mismatch-repair (MMR) defective strains of *Escherichia coli* (1), *Vibrio fischeri*,

V. cholerae (2-4), *Pseudomonas fluorescens* (5), and *P. aeruginosa* (6). Such variation in mutation rates

may affect the rate at which genes in different regions of the chromosome evolve, and may exert

selective pressure on gene placement. Yet the causes of this variation are not known.

The fidelity of DNA replication, which, in *E. coli*, is about 1 mistake in 1000 generations (7), is

determined by the intrinsic accuracy of the DNA polymerase and error correction by proofreading and

mismatch repair (reviewed in (8, 9). In *E. coli*, proofreading is performed by epsilon, a subunit of the

DNA polymerase III holoenzyme. If the polymerase inserts the incorrect base, epsilon's 5' to 3'

exonuclease activity degrades a few bases of the new strand and polymerase then re-synthesizes it.

The accuracy of DNA synthesis is improved about 4000-fold by proofreading (10). Mismatch repair is

performed by three proteins, MutS, MutL, and MutH. MutS recognizes a mismatch and recruits MutL.

Together they find a nearby GATC site in which, in *E. coli*, the A is methylated by the Dam methylase.

Because methylation lags behind replication, unmethylated As identify the "new", and presumably

error-containing, DNA strand. MutH is recruited by MutSL to the GATC site and activated to nick the

unmethylated DNA strand, which is then degraded past the mismatch by the concerted activity of the

UvrD helicase and one of four exonucleases. Pol III then re-synthesizes the strand. MMR improves the

accuracy of DNA replication 100 to 200 fold (11).

In our previous study of the BPS density pattern in MMR-defective *E. coli* (1), we correlated

mutation rates to the chromosomal sites that are affected by two nucleoid-associated proteins (NAPs),

HU and Fis. We suggested that when the replication fork encounters regions of the chromosome with

high superhelical density due to the binding of these NAPs, the mutation rate increases. An alternative

explanation ties mutation rates to replication timing (2, 3). An intriguing hypothesis is that mutation

rates vary in concert with fluctuations in dNTP concentration when the replication origin fires

repeatedly during rapid growth (2).

In the work presented here, we investigate further the causes of the wave-like pattern of BPS

rates. MMR-defective strains of *E. coli* additionally defective for other activities were used in mutation

accumulation (MA) experiments and the mutations identified by whole genome sequencing (WGS). We

also investigated the effects of different growth conditions on BPS rates. We conclude that the BPS

density pattern does not have a single cause, but is the result of several factors affecting DNA

replication, repair, and chromosome structure. In addition, we report that a MMR-defective *Bacillus*

subtilis also has a wave-like BPS density pattern that is symmetrical about the origin of replication.

Results

The base-pair substitution (BPS) density pattern in mismatch repair-defective strains

In a previous paper (1) we demonstrated that the density of BPS that accumulated across the

chromosome in a MMR-defective strain during an MA experiment fell into a wave-like pattern that was

symmetrical about the origin. We have since performed nine additional MA experiments with MMR

mutant strains, each experiment resulting in the accumulation of over 1000 BPSs, for a total of 30,061

BPSs (11). As shown in Figure 1A, the wave-like BPS density pattern was reproducible among the 10

experiments. Also as shown in Figure 1A, the mutational density pattern does not exactly match the

non-interacting chromosomal macrodomains (MCs) as defined by Valens et al, 2004 (12). In particular,

the wave pattern of BPSs is symmetrical about the origin whereas the Ori MC is not.

Following the analysis of Dillon et al, 2018 (2), we computed the wavelet coherence of the

collected MMR⁻ data taken in the clockwise and the counterclockwise directions around the

chromosome; supplementary Figure S1A shows that, except for some asymmetry at the midpoint, the

wave is symmetrical across the chromosome. The coherence is greatest between 800 to 1,600 Kb per

cycle (= 8 to 16 bins per cycle), which is a similar result to that found by Dillon et al, 2018 (2). We also

computed the wavelet coherence of the collected MMR⁻ data against each of the experimental results

discussed below, and these graphs are also given in the supplementary figures In the analyses below,

the combined data from the 10 experiments with MMR-defective strains are used as the standard to

which the results obtained in other genetic backgrounds are compared.

The spectrum of BPSs in the MMR-defective strains is dominated by A:T transitions at

5'NAC3'/3'NTG5' sites (11). To test if the mutational density pattern was simply due to the distribution

of these sites, we removed all the A:T transitions at 5'NAC3'/3'NTG5' sites from the data set. As shown

in supplementary Figures S5A, S6A, and Tables 1 and 2, although the mutation rate was reduced by

60% when these BPSs were removed, the remaining 12,542 BPSs fell into the same wave pattern. Thus,

the variation in BPS rates must be reflective of regions of the chromosome and not the distribution of

the hotspot DNA sequences.

Transcription

One obvious hypothesis is that the mutational density pattern reflects transcriptional patterns.

Mutation rates have been reported to be both increased (13) and decreased (14) by high levels of

transcription. In a previous paper (7) we reported that highly expressed genes had normal mutation

rates, a finding that was confirmed in a recent study using deep sequencing to detect mutations (15).

To determine if, nonetheless, transcription influences the wave pattern, we used RNA-Seq to

quantitate the RNA levels in a Δ*mutL* mutant strain in the lag, exponential, and stationary phases of

growth. These results should be representative of the cells in colonies during our MA experiments. We

then compared these results to the BPS density pattern by binning the RNA-Seq results into the same

bins as used for mutational data. As shown in Figure 1B and supplementary Figure S1B, there was no

similarity in the two data sets.

Because ribosomal operons are homologous, we could not call SNPs in these genes. The RNA

reads from the genes in ribosomal operons were also removed from the RNA-Seq data, but their

positions have been indicated in Figure 1B. Interestingly, bin 35, which includes the ribosomal *rrnG*

operon, has a high number of RNA reads even in the absence of reads from the *rrnG* genes. This high

level of expression is almost exclusively due to the *ssrA* gene, which encodes transfer-messenger RNA

(16), that is highly expressed under all three conditions (the RNA-Seq data will be further analyzed in a

subsequent paper). The BPS density pattern of several of the strains that will be discussed below tends

to reach a minimum in this general area, but it is as often at bin 33 as at bin 35. Given that the bin size

is 100 Kb, it seems unlikely that the high level of transcription level of *ssrA*, located in the middle of bin

35, is causing these patterns.

Replication Initiation

The BPS density pattern is centered on *oriC*, the origin of replication, and over many experiments

in different genetic backgrounds the pattern around the origin has proved to be stable. In both

replichores BPS rates decline to a minimum about 300 Kb from the origin and then increase until a

peak is reached about 900 Kb from the origin. Mutation rates then fall again and reach a minimum

about 3/5th of the distance along each replichore.

We tested whether replication initiation was responsible for the maintenance of this pattern by

performing MA experiments with strains with errant replication start sites. The *rnhA* gene encodes

RNase H1, which degrades RNA-DNA hybrids; in the absence of RNase H1, persistent R-loops can

initiate aberrant DNA replication and disrupt normal fork migration (17, 18). But an MA experiment

with a Δ*rnhA* Δ*mutL* mutant strain showed no difference in the BPS density pattern from that of the

Δ*mutL* mutant strain (Figure 1C, Supplementary Figure S1C, Tables 1 and 2), indicating that aberrant

replication Initiation does not influence where mutations occur, at least not when a powerful *oriC* is

present.

To further test the influence of replication initiation on the mutational density pattern, we

performed MA experiments with strains that have a 5.1 Kb region containing *oriC* moved to the

midpoint of the right replichore, where it is called *oriZ* (19). These strains are derived from *E. coli* K12

strain AB1157, instead of MG1655 strain, the ancestor of our MA strains, and have a large inversion in

the right replichore that relieves the head-on collision between replication initiating at *oriZ* and

transcription of the *rrnCABE* operon (20). As a control we created an AB1157 Δ*mutL* mutant strain,

which had the similar wave-like BPS density pattern as our MMR⁻ strains, indicating that the pattern is

intrinsic to *E. coli* K12, not specific to sub-strain MG1655 (Supplementary Figures S5B, S6B, Tables 1

and 2). We performed MA experiments on Δ*mutL* derivatives of two additional strains: one with both

oriZ and *oriC* (WX320 Δ*mutL*), and one with only *oriZ* (WX340 Δ*mutL*)*.* The strain that contained two

origins had a similar BPS density pattern as the MMR⁻ strains (Figure 1D, Supplementary Figure S1D,

Tables 1 and 2), suggesting that, under our conditions, firing of *oriZ* could not overcome the influence

of *oriC*. However, the strain containing only *oriZ* showed a decrease in BPS rate in the 200Kb-area

surrounding the new origin, similar to that normally observed about *oriC* (Figure 1E, Supplementary

Figure S1E, Tables 1 and 2).

SeqA

As mentioned above, in *E. coli* the adenines in GATC sites are methylated by the Dam

methylase. The SeqA protein binds to hemimethylated GATC sites, many of which are clustered around

OriC, and, by so doing, SeqA occludes the replication initiation protein, DnaA, hindering origin firing.

Sequestering of the origin persists for about one third of a generation; however, the mechanism of

relief is not clear. In the absence of SeqA, unregulated initiation presumably results in over-replication,

at least when cells are rapidly growing in rich medium (21). Downstream events, such as replication

fork collapse, add to the phenotypes of *seqA* mutant cells (22).

Loss of SeqA affects chromosomal structure in areas distant from OriC. By binding to

hemimethylated DNA, SeqA forms complexes behind the replication fork as it progresses around the

chromosome (21). In addition, SeqA binds to areas of the chromosome with closely spaced GATC sites,

as well as to particular genes regulated by GATC methylation (23). In the absence of SeqA the

superhelicity of the chromosome increases, the nucleoid condenses (24), and transcription is altered

(25).

To test whether SeqA affects the BPS density pattern, we performed an MA experiment with a

Δ*mutL* Δ*seqA* mutant strain. As shown in Figure 1F, Supplementary Figure S1F, and Tables 1 and 2, loss

of SeqA somewhat amplified the BPS density pattern of the right replichore, but the pattern was still

highly correlated to that of right replichore of the MMR-defective strains. However, the pattern in the

left replichore was disrupted in the Δ*seqA* Δ*mutL* mutant strain. Based on chromatin

immunoprecipitation analysis, this area of the left replichore is not targeted by SeqA to a greater

extent than the same area of the right replichore (23, 26), suggesting that the disruption of the

mutational pattern is not due to loss of binding by SeqA. As shown in Figure 1B, bins 44, 38, 37, and 35

contain a number of highly expressed genes; in addition, bins 42 and 35 contain highly transcribed

ribosomal RNA genes. Thus, we hypothesize that loss of SeqA makes the replication machinery

particularly susceptible to interference by transcription, disrupting the mutational pattern. If this

hypothesis is correct, the interference apparently makes replication more accurate, perhaps by slowing

the speed of DNA polymerase.

Replication Fork Progression

In a recent report, Dillon *et al.*, 2018 (2), hypothesized that the periodic variation in mutation rates across the chromosome was tied to the timing of DNA replication. Cellular levels of dNTPs are controlled by ribonucleotide reductase (RNR), the expression of which increases when the origin fires (27, 28) }. In fast-growing bacteria in which new rounds of replication are initiated before cell division, the levels of dNTPs should be high when each origin fires, but then fall as progression of the multiple forks dilute the dNTPs. High levels of dNTPs are predicted to increase the probability of misincorporation, and thus the mutation rate, whereas low levels of dNTPs should slow replication and improve fidelity. This systematic fluctuation in dNTP levels could account for the pattern of mutational density across the chromosome (2).

This hypothesis can be tested by examining the wave pattern from several experiments that we have already published (11). The number of replicating chromosomes is a positive function of the cell's growth rate (29). When Δ*mutL* or Δ*mutS* mutant strains were grown on glucose minimal medium, which reduces the growth rate about 2-fold relative to growth on LB, the BPS density pattern became chaotic (Figure 2A, Supplementary Figures S2A, S5C, S6C, Tables 1 and 2). Supplementing the minimal medium with just enough LB to increase the growth rate to normal restored the wave-like BPS density pattern (Figure 2B, Supplementary Figure S2B, Tables 1 and 2). Growing the cells on diluted LB, on which the growth rate was the same as on minimal glucose medium, also preserved the wave-like BPS density pattern (Figure 2C, Supplementary Figure S2C, Tables 1 and 2). When the cells were grown at a lower temperature, which also reduced the growth rate 2-fold, the overall shape of the BPS density pattern was retained, but the increases in BPS rates that normally peak at about 900 Kb from each side of the origin were shifted about 200 Kb further from OriC (Figure 2D, Supplementary Figure S2D, Tables

1 and 2). In addition, the magnitude of the fluctuation of the BPS rate across the chromosome was

doubled. Thus, it appears that growth rate *per se* is not a major determinant of the BPS density

pattern, but other factors, such as the composition of the growth medium, are also important. For

example, the expressions and DNA binding characteristics of nucleoid associated proteins (NAPs) are

different under different growth conditions (30-32)

In *E. coli* growing aerobically dNTP levels are regulated by a Class Ia RNR encoded by the *nrdA*

and *nrdB* genes. Although most of this regulation appears to be due to DnaA interactions (28), the

NrdR repressor, which regulates a poorly expressed Class Ib RNR, also regulates *nrdAB* transcription;

loss of NrdR results in increased expression of RNR throughout the cell cycle (33). Increased RNR

should result in increased dNTP levels, and, indeed, the Δ*nrdR* Δ*mutL* mutant strain had twice the

mutation rate as the MMR⁻ strains, as expected when dNTP levels are high (Supplementary Table S1).

As shown in Figure 2E, Supplementary Figure S2E, Tables 1 and 2, loss of NrdR did not change the basic

BPS density pattern, but the peak rate was shifted away from the origin about 200 Kb on each side.

This pattern was similar to that observed when cells were grown at low temperature, as described

above.

Replication fork progression is aided by the accessory replication helicase, Rep, and, in its

absence, the time required for chromosome duplication is doubled (34). Rep removes proteins bound

to the DNA in front of the fork (34, 35). While these nucleoproteins are primarily transcription

complexes (36, 37), Rep could also free the DNA of blocking NAPs. In addition, Rep aids in restarting

replication forks after they stall or collapse (38, 39). As shown in Figure 2F, Supplementary Figure S2F,

Tables 1 and 2, with the exception of a region close to the origin, loss of Rep disrupted the BPS density

pattern across the chromosome, suggesting that slowing or stalling the fork results in a distribution of

BPS that is essentially random.

Replication Termination

The results from almost all the strains tested show an increase in the BPS rate in the region

where replication terminates. The pattern of this increase varies somewhat among experiments.

Usually there are two unequal peaks, as shown in Figure1A, but in some experiments these peaks are

better defined and of equal heights and occasionally there is just one peak. We do not know the source

of this variation, but suspect it is simply random noise.

Replication terminates approximately 180° from the origin in a 1200 Kb region bounded by

replication pause (Ter) sites; this region extends from bin 18 to bin 31 in our figures. The anti-helicase

Tus protein binds to the Ter sites and allows each replication fork to enter but not to exit, creating a

replication fork "trap", within which the two forks fuse and the chromosome dimer is resolved (40). To

determine if the interaction of replication forks with Tus contributes to the increased mutation rate

within this region, we performed an MA experiment on a Δ*tus* Δ*mutL* mutant strain. As shown in Figure

2G, Supplementary Figure S2G, Tables 1 and 2, loss of Tus did not affect the BPS density pattern.

The Ter macrodomain (MD) extends from 1200 Kb to 2200 Kb (12), which is roughly from bin 20

to bin 28 in our figures. The structure of the Ter MD is maintained by the MatP protein, which binds to

23 *matS* sites within this region (41). In the absence of MatP, the Ter MD is disorganized, the DNA is

less compact, and the Ter MD segregates too early in the cell cycle and fails to localize properly at

midcell (41, 42). Because the mobility of the Ter MD is increased in the absence of MatP, DNA

interactions across MD barriers can occur in Δ*matP* mutant cells (41).

As shown in Figure 2H, Supplementary Figure S2H, Tables 1 and 2, loss of MatP caused a severe

disruption of the BPS density pattern. The mutation rates in the Ter MD were depressed whereas new

peaks appeared on either side of the Ter MD in the Right and Left MDs. Interestingly, the BPS pattern

near the origin was maintained in the right but not in the left replichore.

Recombination and the SOS response

Homologous recombination is intimately connected to replication. As replication proceeds,

various blocks, such as DNA lesions, transcription complexes, and DNA secondary structures, can cause

the replisome to pause and to eventually disassemble. This potentially lethal event is prevented by

recombination, which can repair and restart the replisome (43). In addition, the termination region is

subject to hyperrecombination (44, 45) particularly in the region bounded by TerA and TerB (our bins

21 to 24), named the terminal recombination zone (TRZ) (46, 47).

Elimination of *E. coli*'s major recombinase, RecA, had a modest effect on the mutational density

pattern. As shown in Figure 3A, Supplementary Figures S3A, S5D, S6D, Tables 1 and 2, in the *recA mutL*

and *recA mutS* mutant strains, BPS rates declined in bins 21 to 25, corresponding fairly well to the TRZ

described above. However, the hyperrecombination within the TRZ is dependent on the recombination

pathway defined by participation of the RecBCD complex. When we eliminated RecB, the mutational

density pattern did not phenocopy that seen when RecA was absent (Supplementary Figures S5E, S6E,

Tables 1 and 2). Either our protocol is not sensitive enough to detect an effect of loss of RecB, or

another recombination pathway, *e.g.* RecFOR (48), is sufficient to maintain the mutation rate in the

region.

In addition to its role in recombination, RecA is also a master regulator of the SOS response to

DNA damage, which includes the induction of two error-prone DNA polymerases, DNA Pol IV and V. To

test whether these polymerases are involved in determining the BPS density pattern, we performed an

MA experiment on a strain deleted for the genes that encode Pol IV, *dinB*, and PolV, *umuDC*. As shown

in Figure 3B,Supplementary Figure S3B, Tables 1 and 2, the BPS density pattern in the *mutL dinB*

umuDC mutant strain was not significantly different than the MMR⁻ pattern. The genes of the SOS

response are repressed by the LexA protein; the *lexA3* allele encodes a super-repressor LexA protein

that prevents the SOS genes from being induced (49). When this allele was present the BPS density

pattern was also unaffected (Figure 3C, Supplementary Figure S3C, Tables 1 and 2). Thus, the SOS

response appears to play no role in determining the pattern of BPSs across the chromosome.

Nucleoid Associated Proteins

In a previous report (1), we found that the BPS density pattern of a Δ*mutL* strain was correlated

with the density of genes activated by the HU protein and repressed by the Fis protein. Combining

these two factors in a linear correlation model accounted for 33% of the variation in the mutational

data. HU constrains supercoils and compacts the DNA into nucleosome-like particles; Fis also

constrains supercoils but, in addition, bends the DNA (31). While both of these NAPs affect

transcription, the general lack of correlation of the BPS rate with transcriptional levels (7); also see

above) led us to hypothesize that mutation rates across the chromosome were correlated not with

transcription *per se*, but with areas of high DNA structure (1). To further test this hypothesis we

preformed MA experiments with MMR⁻ mutant strains also defective for each of a number of NAPs.

HU exists as a dimer of its two subunits, HUα and HUβ, encoded by the paralogous genes *hupA*

and *hupB*, respectively, in the three possible configurations. While loss of both subunits confers a

severe growth defect, loss of only one has little consequence during a normal growth cycle, suggesting

they can substitute for each other. HU$\alpha\beta$ is the dominant form over most of the cell cycle, but

significant amounts of $HU\alpha_2$ are found during lag phase and early exponential phase, and $HU\beta_2$ is

prominent in stationary phase (30). Chromatin immunoprecipitation sequencing (ChIP-Seq) results

revealed that HU binds non-specifically to the chromosome and the DNA binding patterns of the three

dimers appear to be identical (50).

We performed MA experiments with both $\Delta hupA$ $\Delta mutL$ and $\Delta hupB$ $\Delta mutL$ mutant strains. As

shown in Figures 3D, 3E, Supplementary Figures S3D, S3E, Tables 1 and 2, although loss of *hupB*

appeared to affect the BPS density pattern, the differences from the MMR^- pattern were not

significant. However, loss of *hupA* depressed mutation rates across the chromosome, particularly in the

terminus region, while creating new peaks on either side of the Ter MD.

Fis has many binding sites across the chromosome, but, based on data at RegulonDB, SOBETZKO *et*

al. (2012) (51) reported more Fis binding sites in the origin region. However both Chromatin

immunoprecipitation plus microarray analysis (ChIP-chip) and ChIP-Seq studies found the density of Fis

binding to be more-or-less constant across the chromosome (32, 52). Loss of Fis in both Δfis $\Delta mutL$ and

Δfis $\Delta mutS$ mutant strains tended to flatten the BPS density pattern across the chromosome except in

the region around the origin (Figure 3F, Supplementary Figures S3F, S5F, S6F, Tables 1 and 2).

The NAP HNS binds to DNA at its high-affinity binding sites and then spreads by oligomerization

along A:T rich regions of DNA. Bridging between HNS-DNA complexes condenses the DNA into a few

clusters per chromosome (53-55). However, as shown in Figure 3G, Supplementary Figure S3G, Tables

1 and 2), loss of HNS had little effect on the BPS density pattern, and, thus, the long-range structures

produced by HNS appear not to affect BPS rates.

The DPS protein accumulates in stationary phase cells, condenses the nucleoid into a crystalline-

like state, and protects the DNA from oxidative and other damage (56). Despite this radical physical

change, loss of DPS had little effect on the BPS density pattern Figure 3H, Supplementary Figure S3H,

Tables 1 and 2). Of course, we do not know the degree to which cells in stationary phase contribute to

the BPS rates under our experimental conditions.

Proofreading

As mentioned above, epsilon is the proofreading subunit of the DNA polymerase III holoenzyme.

The *mutD5* allele encodes an epsilon protein that is inactive for proofreading, and strains carrying this

allele have a mutation rate 4000-fold greater than that of wild-type strains, and 35-fold greater than

that of MMR-defective strains (10). As shown in Figure 4A, Supplementary Figure S4A, Tables 1 and 2,

when proofreading was inactive but MMR was active, the BPS density pattern was less dramatic than

when MMR was inactive and proofreading was active; but, nonetheless, the wave pattern was basically

the same. When both MMR and proofreading were inactive, which reveals the mutations solely due to

replication errors, the BPS density pattern was nearly flat but around the origin it retained significant

correlations to the patterns of both the MMR-defective and *mutD5* mutant strains (Figure 4B,

Supplementary Figure S4B, Tables 1 and 2). Thus, the pattern of BPS on both sides of the origin appears

to be established by replication errors and then elsewhere across the chromosome the density pattern

is largely due to differential error-correction by both proofreading and MMR.

Wild-type

The mutational density wave patterns evident in our data, and in data from other bacteria (2, 3),

were obtained when MMR was inactive. Thus, the question arises: does the pattern appear in wild-

type strains? It is difficult to answer this question because mutation rates in wild-type strains are so

low (in *E. coli*, 120-fold lower than that of MMR-defective strains (7, 11) that enormous experiments

would have to be conducted in order to accumulate enough mutations to approach statistical

confidence. In a recent study we compared the mutation rates and spectra of a number of *E. coli*

strains defective in various DNA repair activities; of these, the results from seven strains were

indistinguishable from those of the wild-type parent (57). By combining the mutations from these

strains, we achieved 1933 BPSs (11), enough to expect to see a wave pattern if it existed. As is evident

in Figures 4C, 4D, Supplementary Figures S4C, S4D, Tables 1 and 2, these BPSs did not create fall into a

recognizable pattern. Indeed, the pattern from the wild-type strains appears to be random; the

variance to mean ratio of the binned mutations is 1.4, indicating the values are not disperse, and the

MatLab "runstest", a test for runs, returns a P value of 0.58, also indicating that the bin values are

random. In the wild-type strain both MMR and proofreading are active, and, while these two activities

have similar correction biases (Figure 4A), proofreading is much more powerful, producing the pattern

seen in the MMR-defective strains. Although we cannot conclude that the mutational density pattern

in the wild-type strain is other than random, it does have similarity to both the patterns seen in the

MMR-defective strains and in the *mutD5* mutant strain, particularly around the terminus (Figures 4C,

4D, Supplementary Figures S4C, S4D and Tables 1 and 2).

Bacillus subtilis

In additional to *E. coli* strains, symmetrical mutational density patterns have been demonstrated

in MMR- derivatives of *Vibrio fischeri*, *V. cholera* (2-4), *Pseudomonas fluorescens* (5), and *P. aeruginosa*

(6). Here we add *Bacillus subtilis* to this list. As shown in Figure 4E, Supplementary Figure S4E, Tables 1

and 2, the BPS mutation rates in a *B. subtilis mutS::*Tn*10* mutant strain fell into a wave like pattern that

was symmetrical about the origin. Although similar in shape, the pattern was significantly different

from that of *E. coli* (Figure 4E, Supplementary Figure S4F, Tables 1 and 2). However, as in *E. coli*, the

BPS rate appeared to increase in the terminus region, which in *B. subtilis* is not 180º from the origin

and corresponds to bins 20-24 in Figure 4E.

Discussion

In this report we have examined a number of factors that could be responsible for establishment

and maintenance of the symmetrical wave-like BPS density pattern across the chromosome. In broad

terms these factors were: transcription; DNA replication initiation, progression, and termination;

recombination and the SOS response to DNA damage; the binding of nucleoid-associated proteins;

and, error-correction by MMR and proofreading. As discussed above, we found that transcription and

the SOS response had little effect, and the effect of recombination was modest and confined to the

terminal region. We discuss the more significant, factors in greater detail here.

DNA replication initiation, progression, and termination

Providing additional replication origins, either by eliminating RNase H1 or by inserting an ectopic

oriC (*oriZ*), did not disrupt the wave (Figure 1C and 1D). However, when *oriZ* was the only origin of

replication, the region of depressed BPS rate that surrounds *oriC* when it is in the normal position was

re-established about the new origin (Figure 1E). Note that only 5.1 Kb of DNA containing *oriC* was

relocated (19), whereas the region of reduced mutation rate is about 200 Kb; thus, the mutation rate is

not determined just by the DNA sequence surrounding the origin. We hypothesize that the process of

replication initiation protects the DNA from damage and/or newly established replication forks have a

low error-rate. In addition, the BPS mutation rate was increased for about 1000 Kb (10 bins) on either

side the new origin so that it resembled the same region about the normal origin. The size of this area

is close to the same size detected as "interacting zones" around *oriZ* (58). However, the mutational

density pattern across the rest of the chromosome did not re-establish itself to be symmetrical about

oriZ, but remained symmetrical about the absent *oriC*. Thus, other factors must be important at distant

regions. We can also conclude that the overall structure of the BPS pattern across the chromosome is

not determined by active replication initiation *per se*, but may have evolved in response to replication

initiation.

Both *V. fischeri* and *V. cholera* have multiple circular chromosomes of different sizes; by

comparing the mutational density patterns of these chromosomes, Dillon et al, 2018 (2) identified the

timing of replication as a significant determinant of the mutational density patterns. As mentioned

above, they suggested that the pattern could be the result of variations in the levels of dNTPs as origins

fire during rapid growth. Our results provide partial support for this hypothesis, but also indicate that

growth on rich medium, not growth rate *per se*, is a significant determinant of the mutational density

pattern, possibly because of effects on the expression and DNA binding of HU and Fis (see below). Our

results with a Δ*nrdR* mutant strain (Figure 2E) also show that dNTP levels are important, but, again,

other factors are driving the overall wave pattern. In addition, the results with the Δ*rep* mutant strain

(Figure 2F) indicate that radically interrupting the progression of the replication fork disrupts the

mutational density pattern.

After declining to a local minimum about 3/5th of the distance along each replichore, mutation

rates rise in the terminus region (Figure 1A). We originally hypothesized that this increase was due to

collisions of the replication complexes with the Tus anti-helicase, most of which would take place in

the region between bins 18 and 31 (1). However, elimination of Tus had no effect on the wave pattern

(Figure 2G, Supplementary Figure S2G), refuting this hypothesis. But, eliminating MatP, the protein

that maintains the structure of the Ter MD, reduced mutation rates in the Ter MD, suggesting that

replication of highly structured DNA is error-prone (Figure 2H, Supplementary Figure S2H).

Interestingly, in Δ*matP* mutant cells mutation rates increased in the Right and Left MCs, suggesting

that in the absence of MatP, these adjacent regions of DNA gained structure. The mechanism by which

MatP structures the Ter MC is not clear (59, 60), but it probably involves supercoils which, when

unconstrained, could migrate into adjacent areas. However, two studies have found that loss of MatP

increases the mobility and long-range interactions of adjacent DNA (41, 61). Resolution of these

conflicts will require further experimentation.

Nucleoid-associated proteins

Our previous results predicted that the NAPs HU and Fis should play a role in establishing or

maintaining the wave-pattern of BPS, but HNS should not (1). The results presented here confirmed

that prediction. In addition, we also found that Dps had no effect on the BPS density pattern. Because

the NAPs affect gene expression in various ways, we cannot conclude that DNA binding by the NAPs

themselves is responsible for the mutational pattern. And, indeed, we found no significant positive

correlations between the BPS pattern and published binding sites of the NAPs, although the location of

the binding sites themselves vary widely among published results (e.g. see (32, 50) and the data in

RegulonDB (62). Nonetheless, we favor the hypothesis that structuring of the DNA by the NAPs,

directly or indirectly, contributes to the BPS pattern.

The local effect of HU binding is to bend the DNA, but dimer-dimer interactions produce higher-

order HU-DNA complexes that can constrain negative supercoils (63, 64). The analysis of the effect of

HU on the mutational density pattern is also complicated by the variation in the cellular concentrations

of the three forms with growth cycle (30). Although the two subunits can compensated for each other

for viability, the affinities of three forms of HU for various DNA structures (linear, nicked, and gapped)

differ (65). Both $HU\alpha_2$ and $HU\alpha\beta$ can constrain supercoils, but $HU\beta_2$ apparently cannot, at least *in vitro*

(30). Since HUβ is not stable (66), the phenotype of a Δ*hupA* mutant strain may simply be that of low

cellular HU concentration.

While loss of HUβ had little effect on the mutational density pattern (Figure 3D, Supplementary

Figure S3D), loss of HUα reduced the overall BPS rate by 33% and also changed the pattern (Figure 3E,

A Supplementary Figure S3E). In the Δ*hupA* Δ*mutL* mutant strain, mutation rates were low in the

terminus region but elevated in the Right and Left MCs, very similar to the pattern seen in the Δ*matP*

Δ*mutL* mutant strain (Figure 2H). The low mutation rate in the Ter MD corresponds well with the

density of genes activated in wild-type cells but not in HU-deleted cells (67). HU regulates transcription

by modifying the DNA superhelical density, suggesting that, like MatP, HU increases the structure of

the DNA in the terminal region, causing DNA replication to become error-prone.

The mutational pattern in the Δ*hupA* Δ*mutL* mutant strain is also similar to that of the Δ*recA*

Δ*mutL* strain (Figure 3A). An mutation accumulation experiment with a Δ*hupA* Δ*recA* Δ*mutL* mutant

strain resulted in a pattern similar to both single mutant strains, and so was not informative (data not

shown).

Fis is a major transcriptional regulator, either activating or repressing, directly or indirectly,

nearly a thousand genes (52). At some promotors Fis acts as a classic transcriptional regulator by

interacting with RNA polymerase, but at other promotors Fis affects gene expression by altering the

DNA superhelical density (68). The Fis DNA binding sequence is degenerate and the estimated number

of binding sites identified by sequence analysis across the genome varies widely among studies. The

results of ChIP analyses also vary: the number of DNA regions associated with Fis in different studies

ranges from 200 to 1500, which may reflect the effects of different growth conditions (32, 52, 69).

The loss of Fis nearly doubled the overall BPS rate, but flattened the wave pattern outside of the

origin region (Figure 3F, Supplementary Figures S5F, S6F). As mentioned above, the mutational density

pattern MMR⁻ strains is correlated to the density of genes activated in a Δ*fis* mutant strain as reported

by Blot *et al*, 2006 (70). This correlation is particularly strong in bins 14 to 33 (ρ = 0.62, P = 0.003),

which corresponds to the area flattened in the Δ*fis* Δ*mutL* and Δ*fis* Δ*mutS* mutant strains. However, no

correlation exists between our mutational data and genes found to be responsive to Fis in a recent

study (32). Clearly more studies are needed to resolve these conflicts.

Error-correction

Assuming that the BPS recovered from the *mutD5* Δ*mutL* mutant strain are due to intrinsic errors

made by DNA polymerase, we conclude that the polymerase is accurate close to the origin, then

becomes increasingly less accurate as replication proceeds to about 1/3 of the replichore, at which

point accuracy increases again (Figure 4B). The mutational pattern in the MMR-defective strains must

reflect the biased ability of proofreader to correct these polymerase errors. Thus, proofreading is

effective close to the origin, but then declines for about 1/3 of the replichore, increases in the Right

and Left MCs, but declines again in the terminus region (Figures 1A, 4B). Mutations in the *mutD5*

mutant strain are due to the failure of MMR to correct the polymerase errors that survive in the

absence of proofreading. Since the mutational pattern in the *mutD5* mutant strain mimics that of the

MMR-defective strains (Figure 4A, Supplementary Figure S4A, Tables 1 and 2), error correction by

MMR, although much less powerful, apparently has the same biases as error correction by

proofreader.

Given the above considerations, we would expect the mutational density pattern in the wild-type

parental strain to mimic that of the MMR-defective strains. However, the nearly 2000 BPS accumulated

in eight strains with wild-type mutational phenotypes appear randomly distributed across the

chromosome (Figures 4C, 4D). One explanation for this discrepancy is that when both proofreading and

MMR are active, the mutation rate is reduced to the point that other, weaker DNA repair and

mutagenic activities obscure the underlying pattern. Although not significantly correlated, the wild-

type BPS pattern is similar to the MMR⁻ pattern, particularly around the terminus, supporting this

hypothesis. Alternatively, although the eight strains that we combined to produce 2000 BPS have the

same mutation rates, they may have different wave patterns that tend to negate each other and

obscure the underlying wild-type pattern.

Conclusions

By applying mutation accumulation followed by whole-genome sequencing to bacterial strains mutant

in various activities we have determined that the most important factors determining the symmetrical

pattern of BPS rates across the chromosome are: the initiation, progression, and termination of DNA

replication, replication error-correction, and chromosome structure. Because of the conservation of

these factors, our results should apply to most bacteria, and possibly eukaryotes, and imply that

different regions of the genome evolve at different rates.

Methods

Bacterial Strains and Media

The strains used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table S1 and the methods of their

construction are in Supplementary file: Materials and Methods. Standard media and antibiotics were

used (see Supplementary file: Material and Methods).

Mutation accumulation experiments

The complete MA procedure has been extensively described (7, 11, 57). Details are given in the

Supplementary file: Material and Methods

Genomic DNA Preparation, Library construction, Sequencing, and Sequence Analysis

Details are given in the Supplementary file: Material and Methods.

RNA sequencing

The *E. coli* strain PFM144, which is PFM2 Δ*mutL* (11), was grown in LB and aliquots collected

during lag (OD = 0.022), log (OD = 0.3), and stationary (OD = 1.5) phase. The number of cells collected

was kept constant for each growth phase. Total RNA was extracted, DNA and rRNA were removed, and

libraries constructed and sequenced as detailed in the Supplementary file: Material and Methods.

Three biological triplicates were prepared for each growth phase.

A complete analysis of the RNA-Seq results will be the subject of a subsequent report. For this report

the numbers of RNA-Seq reads for each condition were first normalized to the number of reads

mapped to the gene *holD*, which was determined by rtPCR to be expressed at the same level in all

phases of growth. The means of the normalized RNA reads from the triplicates were then binned into

the same bins used for the mutational analysis. A fourth-order Daubechies wavelet transform was

performed on the binned RNA-Seq reads as described for the mutational data (1).

Statistical Analysis

To obtain the BPS density patterns, the numbers of BPSs were binned into 46 bins, each 100 Kb long, as

described (1). A fourth-order Daubechies wavelet transform was performed on the binned mutation

data as described (1). For presentation in the figures, these results were converted into rates by

dividing the number of BPS by the appropriate number of generations. Pearson's product-moment

correlation coefficient, ρ, was used to evaluate the correlations between the binned BPS data (Table

1). Spearman's nonparametric correlation coefficient was also computed for a few data sets, but gave

similar results. To account for multiple comparisons, p values were adjusted using the Benjamini-

Hochberg method (71) with the false discovery rate set at 25%, implemented with the MatLab R2018a

"mafdr" command. Because comparisons using the data from the same strain are not independent,

this adjustment was made separately for each column in Tables 1 and 2.

To further compare the BPS density patterns between two data sets, wavelet coherence was calculated

and plotted using the MatLab R2018a "wcoherence" command. While the Daubechies wavelet

provides a good visual representation of the binned data, it is not continuous and thus not easily

adapted for wavelet coherence analysis. The MatLab program first converts the binned data to Morlet

wavelets and then computes the coherence between two of these wavelets. We chose to analyze the

data with wavelet coherence because it gives a measure of the correlation between the signals

(displayed as colors in the figures) (72, 73). In addition, the MatLab wavelet coherence plot indicates,

as a dashed curve, the 'cone of influence' within which results are free of artifactual edge effects (72).

The relative phase-lag between the two signals is indicated by small arrows: arrows pointing right

indicate in-phase, arrows pointing left indicate 180° out-of-phase, and arrows pointing in other

directions indicate the various degrees in between. Because the MatLab program assumes a

frequency-time series, the X axis of the plot is cycles/sample and the Y axis is time; we converted these

to bins/cycle (on an inverted scale) and bins, respectively.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate: Not applicable

Consent for publication: Not applicable

Availability of data and material

The sequences and SNPs reported in this paper have been deposited with the National Center for

Biotechnology Information Sequence Read Archive https://trace.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Traces/sra/

(accession no. in progress) and in the IUScholarWorks Repository (hdl.handle.net/2022/20340).

Bacterial strains are available upon request

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests

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R

Authors' contributions

B.A.N. and P.L.F. designed the research, analyzed the data, and wrote the paper. B.A.N executed the

experiments. W.M., H.L., and H.T. performed the bioinformatic analyses. P.L.F. and H.T. supplied

resources. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Table 1. Pearson's correlation, ρ, of each strain versus MMR⁻

Strain	Description	Whole Chromosome Bins 1 to 46		Right Replichore Bins 1 to 23		Left Replichore Bins 46 to 24		Origin Bins 1 to 13, 46 to 34		Terminus Bins 14 to 33	
		ρ	Pa	ρ	Pa	ρ	Pa	ρ	Pa	ρ	Pa
Collective[b]	MMR⁻	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Collective	MMR⁻ minus A:T ts at NAC/NTG	0.94	<0.001	0.93	<0.001	0.96	<0.001	0.97	<0.001	0.71	0.004
PFM421	ΔrnhA ΔmutL	0.74	<0.001	0.63	0.002	0.84	<0.001	0.81	<0.001	0.47	0.075
PFM669	ΔmutL (AB1157)	0.59	<0.001	0.40	0.064	0.75	<0.001	0.71	<0.001	0.45	0.079
PFM430/ 431	oriC⁺ oriZ⁺ ΔmutL (AB1157)	0.75	<0.001	0.71	<0.001	0.81	<0.001	0.83	<0.001	0.46	0.075
PFM426	ΔoriC oriZ⁺ ΔmutL (AB1157)	0.39	0.008	0.21	0.34	0.62	0.003	0.40	0.044	0.41	0.11
PFM533/ 534	ΔseqA ΔmutL	0.49	0.001	0.71	<0.001	0.27	0.23	0.53	0.006	0.38	0.14
PFM5[b]	ΔmutL on minimal medium	0.50	0.001	0.40	0.069	0.61	0.003	0.57	0.003	0.58	0.029

PFM343[b]	Δ*mutS* on minimal medium	0.18	0.22	0.18	0.41	0.18	0.41	0.21	0.31	0.22	0.38
PFM343[b]	Δ*mutS* on diluted LB	0.84	<0.001	0.84	<0.001	0.85	<0.001	0.87	<0.001	0.71	0.004
PFM343[b]	Δ*mutS* on supplemented minimal medium	0.81	<0.001	0.82	<0.001	0.81	<0.001	0.83	<0.001	0.65	0.008
PFM342[b]	Δ*mutS* at low temperature	0.57	<0.001	0.60	0.003	0.53	0.013	0.69	<0.001	-0.02	0.95
PFM799	Δ*nrdR* Δ*mutL*	0.49	0.001	0.58	0.005	0.39	0.080	0.69	<0.001	-0.31	0.24
PFM677	Δ*rep* Δ*mutL*	0.48	0.001	0.49	0.022	0.48	0.027	0.62	0.001	-0.12	0.67
PFM256	Δ*tus* Δ*mutL*	0.82	<0.001	0.79	<0.001	0.85	<0.001	0.87	<0.001	0.70	0.004
PFM257	Δ*matP* Δ*mutL*	0.40	0.007	0.60	0.004	0.21	0.34	0.70	<0.001	-0.47	0.075
PFM422	Δ*recA* Δ*mutL*	0.71	<0.001	0.70	<0.001	0.73	<0.001	0.85	<0.001	0.06	0.84
PFM424	Δ*recA* Δ*mutS*	0.80	<0.001	0.78	<0.001	0.83	<0.001	0.91	<0.001	0.44	0.082
PFM456	Δ*recB* Δ*mutL*	0.82	<0.001	0.87	<0.001	0.79	<0.001	0.89	<0.001	0.39	0.12
PFM118	Δ*umuDC* Δ*dinB* Δ*mutL*	0.59	<0.001	0.62	0.003	0.55	0.010	0.61	0.001	0.69	0.004
PFM120	*lexA3* Δ*sulA* Δ*mutL*	0.82	<0.001	0.82	<0.001	0.83	<0.001	0.83	<0.001	0.80	0.001
PFM259	Δ*hupB* Δ*mutL*	0.73	<0.001	0.70	<0.001	0.77	<0.001	0.81	<0.001	0.57	0.031
PFM258	Δ*hupA* Δ*mutL*	0.49	0.001	0.43	0.053	0.58	0.005	0.67	<0.001	-0.23	0.38
PFM317/ 318	Δ*fis* Δ*mutL*	0.51	<0.001	0.61	0.003	0.42	0.060	0.67	<0.001	-0.30	0.25
PFM482	Δ*fis* Δ*mutS*	0.49	0.001	0.31	0.15	0.62	0.003	0.65	<0.001	-0.28	0.27

PFM741	Δhns ΔmutL	0.81	<0.001	0.81	<0.001	0.81	<0.001	0.88	<0.001	0.46	0.075
PFM713	Δdps ΔmutL	0.80	<0.001	0.84	<0.001	0.78	<0.001	0.89	<0.001	0.47	0.075
PFM163[c]	mutD5	0.76	<0.001	0.79	<0.001	0.74	<0.001	0.82	<0.001	0.78	0.001
PFM165/397/399[c]	mutD5 ΔmutL	0.64	<0.001	0.76	<0.001	0.52	0.014	0.86	<0.001	-0.46	0.075
Collective[b]	Wild type	0.36	0.014	0.41	0.061	0.31	0.17	0.37	0.065	0.51	0.060
Collective[d]	Bacillus subtilis mutS::Tn10	0.52	<0.001	0.63	0.003	0.40	0.068	0.74	<0.001	-0.52	0.055

[a] P values were adjusted for multiple comparisons using the Benjamini-Hochberg method (71) with the false discovery rate set at 25%

[b] Data are from (11)

[c] Data are from (10)

[d] Data are combined from four MA experiments with DK2140 (NCIB3610 mutS::Tn10), DK2141 (NCIB3610 mutS::Tn10), DK2142 (NCIB3610

mutS::Tn10 ΔcomI), and DK2143 (NCIB3610 mutS::Tn10 ΔcomI). There were no differences in mutation rates or spectra among these strain

Table 2. Pearson's correlation, ρ, of right versus left replichore for each strain

Strain	Description	Whole Chromosome Bins 1 to 23, 46 to 24		Origin Bins 1 to 13, 46 to 34		Terminus Bins 14 to 23, 33 to 24	
		ρ	P[a]	ρ	P[a]	ρ	P[a]
Collective[b]	MMR⁻	0.91	<0.001	0.95	<0.001	0.66	0.23
Collective	MMR⁻ minus A:T ts at NAC/NTG	0.89	<0.001	0.94	<0.001	0.42	0.60
PFM421	Δ*rnhA* Δ*mutL*	0.49	0.026	0.58	0.051	0.24	0.82
PFM669	Δ*mutL* (AB1157)	0.52	0.018	0.64	0.026	0.29	0.77
PFM430/ 431	*oriC⁺ oriZ⁺* Δ*mutL* (AB1157)	0.60	0.005	0.80	0.003	0.19	0.84
PFM426	Δ*oriC oriZ⁺* Δ*mutL (AB1157)*	0.28	0.22	0.33	0.31	-0.06	0.91
PFM533/ 534	Δ*seqA* Δ*mutL*	0.41	0.062	0.53	0.079	0.32	0.71
PFM5[b]	Δ*mutL* on minimal medium	0.27	0.22	0.19	0.53	0.05	0.91
PFM343[b]	Δ*mutS* on minimal medium	-0.02	0.93	0.32	0.31	-0.53	0.39
PFM343[b]	Δ*mutS* on diluted LB	0.87	<0.001	0.93	<0.001	0.66	0.23
PFM343[b]	Δ*mutS* on supplemented minimal medium	0.74	<0.001	0.79	0.003	0.54	0.39
PFM342[b]	Δ*mutS* at low temperature	0.84	<0.001	0.89	<0.001	0.73	0.19
PFM799	Δ*nrdR* Δ*mutL*	0.79	<0.001	0.78	0.003	0.84	0.07
PFM677	Δ*rep* Δ*mutL*	0.43	0.053	0.58	0.051	-0.16	0.84
PFM256	Δ*tus* Δ*mutL*	0.70	0.001	0.88	<0.001	0.26	0.81
PFM257	Δ*matP* Δ*mutL*	0.45	0.042	0.40	0.20	0.72	0.19

PFM422	ΔrecA ΔmutL	0.66	0.001	0.81	0.003	0.11	0.88
PFM424	ΔrecA ΔmutS	0.64	0.002	0.80	0.003	0.07	0.91
PFM456	ΔrecB ΔmutL	0.67	0.001	0.78	0.003	0.03	0.94
PFM118	ΔumuDC ΔdinB ΔmutL	0.39	0.075	0.68	0.018	-0.13	0.87
PFM120	lexA3 ΔsulA ΔmutL	0.51	0.019	0.57	0.055	0.42	0.60
PFM259	ΔhupB ΔmutL	0.64	0.002	0.78	0.003	0.35	0.65
PFM258	ΔhupA ΔmutL	0.54	0.014	0.69	0.015	0.15	0.84
PFM317/ 318	Δfis ΔmutL	0.61	0.004	0.67	0.019	0.58	0.34
PFM482	Δfis ΔmutS	0.34	0.13	0.49	0.108	0.19	0.84
PFM741	Δhns ΔmutL	0.81	<0.001	0.85	0.001	0.60	0.33
PFM713	Δdps ΔmutL	0.52	0.017	0.77	0.004	-0.20	0.84
PFM163[c]	mutD5	0.75	<0.001	0.77	0.004	0.52	0.39
PFM165/397/399[c]	mutD5 ΔmutL	0.78	<0.001	0.88	<0.001	0.39	0.62
Collective[b]	Wild type	0.17	0.46	0.24	0.45	0.17	0.84
Collective[d]	Bacillus subtilis mutS::Tn10	0.73	<0.001	0.87	0.000	0.37	0.65

[a] P values were adjusted for multiple comparisons using the Benjamini-Hochberg method (71) with the false discovery rate set at 25%

[b] Data are from (11)

[c] Data are from (10)

[d] Data are combined from four MA experiments with DK2140 (NCIB3610 *mutS*::Tn*10*), DK2141 (NCIB3610 *mutS*::Tn*10*), DK2142

(NCIB3610 *mutS*::Tn*10* Δ*comI*), and DK2143 (NCIB3610 *mutS*::Tn*10* Δ*com*I). There were no differences in mutation rates or

spectra among these strain

Figure Legends

Figure 1. The BPS density pattern is not due to transcription but is affected by moving the origin

of replication. For each plot the data were collected into 100 Kb bins starting at the origin of

replication on the left and continuing clockwise around the chromosome back to the origin on

the right. **Figure 1A**. The BPS density pattern of MMR-defective strains. Bars represent the

mean mutation rate in each bin calculated from the BPSs collected from 10 experiments with

MMR-defective strains. Error bars are the 95% CLs of the means. The grey line represents the

Daubechies wavelet transform of the binned data. The chromosomal macrodomains (MCs) are

indicated at the top of the plot: green, Ori MC; blue, Right and Left MC; red, Ter MC. **Figure 1B**.

The Daubechies wavelet transform of the binned reads from RNA-Seq samples taken during lag,

log, and stationary growth phases of the Δ*mutL* mutant strain, PFM144. The data used for the

wavelet transforms were the means of three biological replicates. Arrows indicate the positions

of the rRNA operons, but the reads from the ribosomal genes in those operons were not

included in the plot. **Figure 1C, D, E, and F**. The BPS density patterns (bars) and Daubechies

wavelet transforms (pink line) of the indicated mutant strains compared to the Daubechies

wavelet transform of the combined MMR⁻ strains (grey line). See text for a description of the

strains. In each plot the left-hand scale has been adjusted to bring the wavelets close together

for comparison. The red arrow in 1E indicates the position of *oriZ*. Strains: 1C, PFM421; 1D,

PFM430/431; 1E, PFM426; 1F, PFM533/534.

Figure 2. Altering the progression of DNA replication affects the BPS density pattern. For each

plot the data were collected into 100 Kb bins starting at the origin of replication on the left and

continuing clockwise around the chromosome back to the origin on the right. The BPS density

patterns (bars) and Daubechies wavelet transforms (pink lines) of the indicated strains are

compared to the Daubechies wavelet transform of the combined MMR⁻ strains (grey line). In

each plot the left-hand scale has been adjusted to bring the wavelets close together for

comparison. **Figure 2A, B, C, and D**. Altering the cellular growth rate by growing a Δ*mutS*

mutant strain on different medium and at different temperatures differentially affects the BPS

density pattern. In the experiments shown in Plot A, C, and D, the cells grew at about half the

normal rate, whereas in the experiment shown in plot B they grew at the normal rate. Strains:

2A, 2B, and 2C, PFM343; 2D, PFM342. **Figure 2E and F**. Dysregulation of dNTP levels and loss of

Rep, the auxiliary replication helicase, affect the BPS density pattern. 2E, PFM799; 2F, PFM677.

Figure 2G and H. Loss of the Tus antihelicase has no effect, but loss of the terminus organizing

protein, MatP, changes the BPS density pattern across the chromosome. The arrows in Figure

2G mark the major Ter sites where Tus binds. The bar in Figure 2H shows the region in which

MatP binds. Strains: 2G, PFM256; 2H, PFM257.

Figure 3. Loss of RecA, HUα, or Fis changes the BPS pattern, but the SOS response and loss of

other NAPs do not. For a description of the plots, see the legend to Figure 2. **Figure 3A, B, and**

C. Loss of RecA alters the BPS density pattern in the terminus region, but not through its role as

a master regulator of the SOS response. RecA (Figure 3A) is *E. coli*'s major recombinase. The

dinB and *umuDC* genes (Figure 3B) encode the error-prone DNA polymerases, Pol IV and Pol V,

that are induced as part of the SOS response. The *lexA3* allele encodes a non-inducible

repressor of the SOS genes. Deletion of *sulA* prevents lethal filamentation after induction of the

SOS response (not relevant to this study). Strains: 3A, PFM422; 3B, PFM118; 3C, PFM120.

Figure 3D, E, F, G, and H. Loss of the HUα subunit of HU or of Fis changes the BPS density

pattern, but loss of the HUβ subunit of HU, HNS, or DPS has only minor effects. Strains: 3D,

PFM259; 3E, PFM258; 3F, PFM317/318; 3G, PFM741/742; 3H, PFM713.

Figure 4. The BPS density pattern is a result of biased correction by replication proofreading

and MMR. For a description of the plots, see the legend to Figure 2. **Figure 4A and B**. A strain

with deficient proofreading but active MMR yields a BPS pattern similar to a MMR-defective

strain, but a strain with neither proofreading nor MMR does not. The *mutD5* allele encodes an

exonuclease deficient proofreader. Strains: 4A, PFM163; 4B, PFM165/397/399. **Figure 4C and**

D. The BPS density pattern in the wild-type strain does not match the pattern of either the

MMR-defective strain, or the *mutD5* mutant strain. The green line in Figure 1D is the

Daubechies wavelet transform of the *mutD5* mutant strain (pink line in Figure 4A). Strains: 4C

and D, eight strains with wild-type mutational phenotypes (see text). **Figure 4E**. MMR-defective

B. subtilis also has a symmetrical BPS density pattern, but it is different than *E. coli*'s pattern.

Strains: three *B. subtilis* mutant strains with the same mutational phenotype (see

supplementary Tables S1 and S3).

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Supplemental Material and Methods

Bacterial strains and media

The strains used in this study are listed in Supplemental Table S1. All E. coli strains were derived from PFM2 (1) or AB1157 (2). The *oriC+ oriZ+* and *ΔoriC oriZ+* strains were a gift from Rodrigo Reyes-Lamothe (McGill University). The *mutD5* allele was obtained from Roel Schaaper (NIEHS). The deletion mutations originated in the Keio collection (3) and were moved by P1 phage transduction (4); the Kn[r] element was removed by using FLP recombination (5). The deletions were confirmed by PCR analysis using the oligonucleotides listed in Supplemental Table S2. The *B. subtilis* strains were derived from the undomesticated ancestral strain NCIB3610 and were a gift from M.A. Konkol and D.B. Kearns (Indiana University).

Rich medium was Miller Luria Broth (LB) (Difco; BD); minimal medium was Vogel-Bonner minimal medium (VB min) with 0.2% glucose (6). When required, antibiotic concentrations were: carbenicillin (Carb), 100 μg/ml; kanamycin (Kn), 50 μg/ml; nalidixic acid (Nal), 40 μg/ml; chloramphenicol (Cam), 30 μg/ml; and, rifampicin (Rif), 100 μg/ml. Half of these concentrations were used in minimal medium.

Estimation of mutation rates from fluctuation assays

Mutation rates were determined as described (7), using mutation to Nal[R] or Rif[R]. The Ma-Sandri-Sarkar maximum likelihood method was used to calculate the mutation rates by using the FALCOR web tool found at www.mitochondria.org/protocols/FALCOR.html (8).

Mutation accumulation experiments

The MA procedure has been described (1, 9, 10). The MA lines originated from single colonies isolated from a founder colony, obtained by streaking from a freezer stock onto agar plates of the medium to be used in the MA experiment. After incubation overnight at the experimental temperature, one well

isolated colony was excised from the agar plate, soaked for 30 minutes in 0.85% NACL + 0.01% gelatin,

and then vortexed for 60 seconds. Appropriate dilutions for obtaining well-isolated colonies were then

plated onto the appropriate agar plates at the appropriate temperature to start MA lines. Plates were

incubated at 37°C for most experiments, or at 28°C for the experiment at low temperature. Each MA

line was periodically streaked for a single colony: on LB and supplemented VB min agar plates at 37°C,

this was done daily; on VB min and diluted LB agar plates at 37°C, and on LB plates at 28°C, this was

done every 48 hours. The number of passes required was determined by the preliminary mutation rate

obtained from a fluctuation assay. The parameters of the MA experiment including the number of lines

used for each strain and the total number of generations per experiment are given in Supplemental

Table S3.

Estimation of generations

The method to estimate that number of generations undergone in each MA experiment is described (1,

9). The diameter of the single colonies streaked was recorded daily, and then the number of cells in

colonies of different diameters was determined for each experiment as described (1). The daily colony

diameters were converted to generations and the results summed.

Genomic DNA preparation, library construction, and sequencing

Genomic DNA was isolated using PureLink Genomic DNA purification kit (Invitrogen) from a

predetermined amount of overnight LB culture inoculated from the freezer stocks made after the last

passage of the MA line. DNA concentration was measured on an Epoch Microplate Spectrophotometer

(BioTek Instruments, Inc.). The identity of the lines was confirmed before library construction by

verifying the presence of the expected gene deletions in the gDNA with diagnostic PCR using the

oligonucleotides in Supplemental Table S2. Libraries were made by the Indiana University Center for

Genomics and Bioinformatics and were sequenced using the Illumina HiSeq 2500 platform at the

University of New Hampshire Hubbart Center for Genome Studies or the Illumina NextSeq platform at

the Indiana University Center for Genomics and Bioinformatics.

Sequence analysis

SNP calling is described (1). The reference genome used for *E. coli* was NCBI reference sequence

NC_000913.2, and for *B. subtilis* was GenBank: CP020102.1. The Illumina reads were aligned to the

referenced genomes using the Burrows-Wheeler short-read alignment tool, BWA version 0.7.9 (11).

Poor sequence coverage resulted in some MA lines being eliminated. Cross-contamination can

occur during streaking, resulting in lines with identical mutations. If two lines shared over 50% of their

mutations then one of the lines was dropped from further analysis. If lines shared less than 50%, then

each shared mutation was assigned to one of the lines and dropped from the others. If lineage could

be established the shared mutation was assigned accordingly, otherwise the mutation was assigned

randomly.

RNA sequencing

The *E. coli* strain PFM144, which is PFM2 Δ*mutL* (10), was grown in LB and aliquots collected during lag

(OD = 0.022), log (OD = 0.3), and stationary (OD = 1.5) phase.. The number of cells collected was kept

constant for each growth phase. Cells were pelleted at 10,000gs for 10 min, 1ml of medium was added

and the cells were pelleted again at 10,000gs for 2 min. The pellets were then flash frozen in liquid

nitrogen and stored at -80°. Three biological triplicates were prepared for each growth phase.

RNA was extracted using FastRNA Pro Blue kit (MP Biomedicals). DNA was removed by using

TurboDNase (Ambion). DNA removal was confirmed with diagnostic PCR using primer pair "fis forward"

and "fis reverse" (Supplemental Table S2). rRNA was removed using RiboMinus magnetic beads kit

(Invitrogen). RNA concentration and purity was assessed with an Epoch Microplate Spectrophotometer

(BioTek Instruments, Inc.). Libraries were made by the Indiana University CGB and were sequenced at

UT Health Science Center on Illumina HiSeq 2500 platform.

Table S1. Bacterial strains used in this study

Strain	Relevant genotype	Donor	Recipient	Target gene	Reference
PFM2	MG1655 rph^+				(1)
PFM5	$\Delta mutL$				(1)
WX320	$\Delta oriC$ $oriZ^+$ (AB1157)				(12)
WX340	$oriC^+$ $oriZ^+$ (AB1157)				(12)
PF11	AB1157				Lab strain
PFM118	$\Delta umuDC$ $\Delta dinB$ $\Delta mutL$				(10)
PFM120	$lexA3$ $\Delta sulA$ $\Delta mutL$				This Study
PFM163	$mutD5$				(13)
PFM165/397/399	$mutD5$ $\Delta mutL$				(13)
PFM244	$\Delta mutL$, scarless				(10)
PFM256	Δtus $\Delta mutL$	JW1602	PFM244	$\Delta tus::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM257	$\Delta matP$ $\Delta mutL$	JW0939	PFM244	$\Delta matP::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM258	$\Delta hupA$ $\Delta mutL$	JW3964	PFM244	$\Delta hupA::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM259	$\Delta hupB$ $\Delta mutL$	JW0430	PFM244	$\Delta hupB::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM317/ 318	Δfis $\Delta mutL$	JW3229	PFM244	$\Delta fis::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM342/343	$\Delta mutS$, scarless				(10)
PFM421	$\Delta rnhA$ $\Delta mutL$	JW0204	PFM244	$\Delta rnhA::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM422	$\Delta recA$ $\Delta mutL$	JW2669	PFM244	$\Delta recA::Kn^R$	This Study

PFM424	$\Delta recA \ \Delta mutS$	JW2669	PFM342	$\Delta recA::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM426	$\Delta oriC \ oriZ^+ \ \Delta mutL$ (AB1157)	JW4128	WX320	$\Delta mutL::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM430/ 431	$oriC^+ \ oriZ^+ \ \Delta mutL$ (AB1157)	JW4128	WX340	$\Delta mutL::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM456	$\Delta recB \ \Delta mutL$	JW2788	PFM244	$\Delta recB::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM482	$\Delta fis \ \Delta mutS$	JW3229	PFM343	$\Delta fis::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM533/ 534	$\Delta seqA \ \Delta mutL$	JW0674	PFM244	$\Delta seqA::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM661	$\Delta hupA \ \Delta recA \ \Delta mutL$	JW2669	PFM258	$\Delta recA::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM669	$\Delta mutL$ (AB1157)	JW4128	PF11	$\Delta mutL::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM677	$\Delta rep \ \Delta mutL$	JW5604	PFM244	$\Delta rep::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM713	$\Delta dps \ \Delta mutL$	JW0797	PFM244	$\Delta dps::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM741	$\Delta hns \ \Delta mutL$	JW1225-2	PFM244	$\Delta hns::Kn^R$	This Study
PFM799	$\Delta nrdR \ \Delta mutL$	JW0403	PFM244	$\Delta nrdR::Kn^R$	This Study
DK2140/2141/ 2142/2143	*Bacillus subtilis mutS::Tn10*				M. Konkol & D. Kearns, personal communication

70   In all strains the Kn^R element was removed by FLP recombination (5).

71   Scarless: Scarless gene deletion using a cat-I-SceI cassette (14).

Table S2. Oligonucleotides used in this study

Relevant gene	Name	Sequence	Reference
mutL	mutL Fw	5'-GCCTGCGCAATTACTTCCTTG-3'	(1)
	mutL Rv	5'-CGCAGCTCAATGGCTAACGC-3'	
mutS	mutS FW	5'-CACGAGAGATACGCTTGCC-3'	This study
	mutS RV	5'-TCGTGGTTGCCTTTAACCGA-3'	
oriC	mioC_2958 FW	5'-CAAATAAGTATACAGATCGTG-3'	This study
	oriC dwnstrmRV	5'-CTTTGTCGGCTTGAGAAAGAC-3'	
oriZ	yahL1146FW	5'-GAGATGATGCGCGATTAAATG-3'	This study
	yahMupstrmRV	5'-CCCCGTACCATACAACAATC-3'	
rnhA	rnhA_dwnstrm RV	5'-CATCGGATTTAGCGTTAAAG-3'	This study
	rnhA_dwnstrm FW	5'-CTTTAACGCTAAATCCGATG-3'	
seqA	seqAFW	5'-CGAGTTTGTGCGTCCGATTC-3'	This study
	seqARV	5'-GATGGCATTGGAAACGGCAG-3'	
tus	tus FW	5'-CTCGTGCAAGGCCATTATGC-3'	This study
	tus RV	5'-AGTTTGACAGCTGGGTACGG-3'	
matP	matP FW	5'-ACAATACTCCTGGCATGGGC-3'	This study
	matP RV	5'-TGACGCTTACAACCAGGGTC-3'	
recA	recAF0102	5'-GCATTGCAGACCTTGTGGC-3'	This study
	recAR1134	5'-CGACGGGATGTTGATTCTG-3'	
rnhA	rnhA_dwnstrm RV	5'-CATCGGATTTAGCGTTAAAG-3'	This study
	rnhA_dwnstrm FW	5'-CTTTAACGCTAAATCCGATG-3'	

recD	recD_RV	5'-GACCACGCGCAGTATTCACT-3'	This study
	recD_FW	5'-GGGTGAAGACAGTTCGGCTT-3'	
recB	recB_RV	5'-GTTCATCTCCCCTGCTGACC-3'	This study
	recB_FW	5'-CGTTTTTCCCAACCGCAGAG-3'	
fis	fisRV	5'-CTTTTTCAGAACGCGGTGGC-3'	This study
	fisFW	5'-GGAACACGCTCCAAATGACC-3'	
hupA	hupAFW	5'-CAGGCTGGTCGCGAAATGAG-3'	This study
	hupARV	5'-GCTAAACACGGCAAGCAGATG-3'	
hupB	hupBFW	5'-CTGTGAAGCGCATTGAGGAAG-3'	This study
	hupBRV	5'-CTTGAGCACGAGACTGTTTGC-3'	
dps	dpsFW_G	5'-GGGGTCTACGCTGACAGTAC-3'	This study
	dpsRV_BAN	5'-GATGCACCATTCTGGGGCACC-3'	
hns	hnsRV_G	5'-GTGGTAGAAAAACCGAAAGC-3'	This study
	hnsFW_G	5'-CATGAATCAGGAAGTTTTAAC-3'	
rep	repRv	5'-CTGTTGACCTTGACGCTTCC-3'	This study
	repFw	5'-CTTTGGCCCAACGAATCTGC-3'	

Table S3. Experimental data

Strain	Description	No. of BPSs	No. of MA lines	Total no. of generations	BPSs per generation x 10³	95% CL
*Collective	MMR⁻	30061	334	264958	113	2
PFM421	ΔrnhA ΔmutL	3198	39	22690	141	7
PFM669	ΔmutL (AB1157)	1334	33	18850	71	6
PFM430/ 431	oriC⁺ oriZ⁺ ΔmutL (AB1157)	3150	65	33607	94	6
PFM426	ΔoriC oriZ⁺ ΔmutL (AB1157)	3544	45	25176	141	9
PFM533/ 534	ΔseqA ΔmutL	1855	44	20927	89	7
*PFM5m	ΔmutL on minimal medium	1435	48	28197	51	3
*PFM343m	ΔmutS on minimal medium	1608	46	26280	61	4
*PFM343VBs	ΔmutS on supplemented minimal medium	2476	39	23017	108	5
*PFM343dLB	ΔmutS on diluted LB	3546	40	22495	158	8
*PFM342LTM	ΔmutS at low temperature	1259	44	24875	51	5
PFM799	ΔnrdR ΔmutL	5272	42	23581	224	12
PFM677	Δrep ΔmutL	3258	43	23961	136	7
PFM256	Δtus ΔmutL	3672	28	32967	111	10
PFM257	ΔmatP ΔmutL	3979	33	36725	108	7

PFM422	Δ*recA* Δ*mutL*	6797	40	39713	171	11
PFM424	Δ*recA* Δ*mutS*	6266	36	36340	172	11
PFM456	Δ*recB* Δ*mutL*	3321	46	20598	161	9
*PFM118	Δ*umuDC* Δd*inB* Δ*mutL*	1110	23	12078	92	41
PFM120	*lexA3* Δ*sulA* Δ*mutL*	2909	33	19853	147	13
PFM259	Δ*hupB* Δ*mutL*	3910	32	36390	107	8
PFM258	Δ*hupA* Δ*mutL*	2075	26	27315	76	7
PFM317/ 318	Δ*fis* Δ*mutL*	7616	35	37731	202	14
PFM482	Δ*fis* Δ*mutS*	4669	40	22687	206	12
PFM741	Δ*hns* Δ*mutL*	3367	46	25551	132	5
PFM713	Δ*dps* Δ*mutL*	2927	40	23377	125	8
†PFM163	*mutD5*	13625	26	3481	3915	344
†PFM165/397/399	*mutD5* Δ*mutL*	40686	75	7012	5802	456
*Collective	Wild Type	1933	341	2015066	0.96	0.10
‡Collective	*Bacillus subtilis mutS::*Tn*10*	10551	71	171805	61	3

*Data are from (10)

†Data are from (13)

‡Data are combined from four MA experiments with DK2140 (NCIB3610 *mutS*::Tn*10*), DK2141 (NCIB3610 *mutS*::Tn*10*), DK2142 (NCIB3610 *mutS*::Tn*10* Δ*comI*), and DK2143 (NCIB3610 *mutS*::Tn*10* Δ*comI*). There were no differences in mutation rates or spectra among these strains

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Supplementary Figure Legends

Supplementary Figure S1. The BPS density pattern is not due to transcription but is affected by moving the origin of replication. Shown are plots of the wavelet coherence between two binned BPS data sets. The colors give the magnitude-squared coherence, a measure of the correlation between the data sets, according to the scale on the left. The dotted line gives the "cone of influence" within which the results are free of artifactual edge effects. Arrows indicate the phase-lag between the two data sets; arrows pointing right indicate in-phase, arrows pointing left indicate 180º out-of-phase, and arrows pointing in other directions indicate the various degrees in between. **Supplementary Figure S1A**. The wavelet coherence between the binned BPS data from the MMR-defective strains taken in the clockwise and counterclockwise directions around the chromosome. This presentation illustrates the almost complete symmetry of the BPS density pattern. **Supplementary Figure S1B.** Plot of the wavelet coherence between the BPS data from the MMR-defective strains and the mean binned reads from RNA-Seq samples taken during lag, log, and stationary growth phases of the Δ*mutL* mutant strain, PFM144. **Supplementary Figures S1C, D, E, and F**. Plots of the wavelet coherence between the binned BPS data from the MMR-defective strains and the indicated mutant strains. See text for a description of the strains. Strains: S1C, PFM421; S1D, PFM430/431; S1E, PFM426; S1F, PFM533/534.

Supplementary Figure S2. Altering the progression of DNA replication affects the BPS density pattern. Plots of the wavelet coherence between the binned BPS data from the MMR-defective strains and the indicated mutant strains. The colors give the magnitude-squared coherence, a measure of the correlation between the data sets, according to the scale on the left. The dotted

line gives the "cone of influence" within which the results are free of artifactual edge effects.

Arrows indicate the phase-lag between the two data sets; arrows pointing right indicate in-

phase, arrows pointing left indicate 180º out-of-phase, and arrows pointing in other directions

indicate the various degrees in between. **Supplementary Figures S2A, B, C, and D**. Altering the

cellular growth rate by growing a Δ*mutS* mutant strain on different medium and at different

temperatures differentially affects the BPS density pattern. In the experiments shown in Plot A,

C, and D, the cells grew at about half the normal rate, whereas in the experiment shown in plot

B they grew at the normal rate. Strains: S2A, B, and C, PFM343; S2D, PFM342. **Supplementary**

Figures S2E and F. Dysregulation of dNTP levels and loss of Rep, the auxiliary replication

helicase, affect the BPS density pattern. Strains: S2E, PFM799; S2F, PFM677. **Supplementary**

Figures S2G and H. Loss of the Tus antihelicase has no effect, but loss of the terminus

organizing protein, MatP, changes the BPS density pattern across the chromosome. Strains:

S2G, PFM256; S2H, PFM257.

Supplementary Figure S3. Loss of RecA, HUα, or Fis changes the BPS pattern, but the SOS

response and other NAPs do not. For a description of the plots, see the legend to

Supplementary Figure S2. **Supplementary Figures S3A, B, and C.** Loss of RecA alters the BPS

density pattern in the terminus region, but not through its role as a master regulator of the SOS

response. RecA (Figure S3A) is *E. coli*'s major recombinase. The *umuDC* and *dinB* genes (Figure

S3B) encode error-prone DNA polymerases that are induced as part of the SOS response. The

lexA3 allele encodes a non-inducible repressor of the SOS genes. Deletion of *sulA* prevents

lethal filamentation, which is not relevant to this study. Strains: S3A, PFM422; S3B, PFM118;

S3C, PFM120. **Supplementary Figures S3D, E, F, G, and H**. Loss of the HUα subunit of HU or of

Fis changes the BPS density pattern, but loss of the HUβ subunit of HU, HNS, or DPS have only

minor effects. Strains: S3D, PFM259; S3E, PFM258; S3F, PFM317/318; S3G, PFM741/742; S3H,

PFM713.

Supplementary Figure S4. The BPS density pattern is a result of biased correction by replication

proofreading and MMR. For a description of the plots, see the legend to Supplementary Figure

S2. **Supplementary Figures S4A and B**. A strain with deficient proofreading but active MMR

yields a BPS pattern similar to a MMR-defective strain, but a strain with neither proofreading

nor MMR does not. The *mutD5* allele encodes an exonuclease-deficient proofreader. Strains:

S4A, PFM163; S4B, PFM165/397/399. **Supplementary Figures S4C and D**. The BPS density

pattern in the wild-type strain does not match the pattern of either the MMR-defective strain,

or the mutD5 mutant strain. Strains: S4C and D, eight strains with wild-type mutational

phenotypes (see text). **Supplementary Figures S4E and F**. MMR-defective *B. subtilis* also has a

symmetrical BPS density pattern, but it is different than *E. coli*'s pattern. Strains: three *B.*

subtilis mutant strains with the same mutational phenotype (see Supplemental Tables S1 and

S3).

Supplementary Figure S5: The BPS density patterns from experiments mentioned in the text

but not shown. For each plot the data were collected into 100 Kb bins starting at the origin of

replication on the left and continuing around the chromosome back to the origin. The BPS

density patterns (bars) and Daubechies wavelet transforms (pink lines) of the indicated strains

are compared to the Daubechies wavelet transform of the combined MMR⁻ strains (grey line).

In each plot the left-hand scale has been adjusted to bring the wavelets close together for

comparison. Strains: S5A, MMR strains but A:T transitions at 5'NAC3'/3'NTG5' sites removed;

S5B, PFM669; S5C, PFM5; S5D, PFM424; S5E, PFM456; S5F, PFM482.

Supplementary Figure S6: Plots of the wavelet coherence between the binned BPS data from

the MMR-defective strains and the data from the experiments shown in Supplementary Figure

S5. See the legends from Supplementary Figure S2 and S5 for details

Supplementary Figure S1

Supplementary Figure S2

Supplementary Figure S3

Supplementary Figure S5

A MMR⁻ without A:T Transitions at NAC/NTG sites

B AB1157 Δ*mutL*

C Δ*mutL* on Minimal Medium

D Δ*recA* Δ*mutS*

E Δ*recB* Δ*mutL*

F Δ*fis* Δ*mutS*

Supplementary Figure S6