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1 Slow Growth and Increased Spontaneous Mutation Frequency in Respiratory 2 Deficient *af01*⁻ Yeast Suppressed by a Dominant Mutation in *ATP3*

3 4 Running title:

5 Suppression mechanism of respiratory deficiency in yeast

6 7 Keywords:

8 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *rho-zero*, growth velocity, mutation frequency, *ATP3*

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62 Dedicated to the memory of Bill Burhans for his scientific contributions and his enthusiastic

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77 **ABSTRACT**

78 A yeast deletion mutation in the nuclear-encoded gene, *AFO1*, which codes for a
79 mitochondrial ribosomal protein, led to slow growth on glucose, the inability to grow on
80 glycerol or ethanol, and loss of mitochondrial DNA and respiration. We noticed that *afol*⁻
81 yeast readily obtains secondary mutations that suppress aspects of this phenotype, including
82 its growth defect. We characterized and identified a dominant missense suppressor
83 mutation in the *ATP3* gene. Comparing isogenic slowly growing rho-zero and rapidly growing
84 suppressed *afol*⁻ strains under carefully controlled fermentation conditions showed that
85 energy charge was not significantly different between strains and was not causal for the
86 observed growth properties. Surprisingly, in a wild-type background, the dominant
87 suppressor allele of *ATP3* still allowed respiratory growth but increased the petite frequency.
88 Similarly, a slow-growing respiratory deficient *afol*⁻ strain displayed an about twofold
89 increase in spontaneous frequency of point mutations (comparable to the rho-zero strain)
90 while the suppressed strain showed mutation frequency comparable to the respiratory-
91 competent WT strain. We conclude, that phenotypes that result from *afol*⁻ are mostly
92 explained by rapidly emerging mutations that compensate for the slow growth that typically
93 follows respiratory deficiency.

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INTRODUCTION

111 Respiratory-deficient yeast mutants were discovered seventy years ago (Ephrussi et al.
112 1949). Subsequent research led to the discovery of cytoplasmic inheritance and
113 mitochondrial DNA [reviewed by (Chen and Clark-Walker 2000)]. Phenotypic traits of rho-
114 zero mutations, which lack mitochondrial DNA, include slow growth, loss of mitochondrial
115 respiration, and loss of the respiratory complexes of the inner mitochondrial membrane.
116 Nuclear mutations (so-called *pet* mutations) can produce a very similar phenotype and can
117 indirectly lead to loss of the mitochondrial DNA. Originally, it was thought that the observed
118 slow growth of the mutants, which presented with a small colony phenotype (hence the
119 name *petite colonie*) was caused by the presumed lack of ATP, which in those cells has to be
120 produced exclusively by fermentative metabolism (Ephrussi et al. 1949). One aspect of the
121 present paper is to demonstrate by controlled fermentation experiments that this belief is
122 wrong. Instead, defects in other essential metabolic pathways of the mitochondria are in
123 fact responsible for the slow growth phenotype.

124 Extragenic suppressor mutations of the slow growth phenotype were first described by the
125 group of Clark-Walker (Chen and Clark-Walker 1999, 1995, 2000) who also showed that
126 similar mutations enabled growth of *K. lactis* in the *petite* state. The mutations were located
127 in the nuclear encoded ATPase subunits encoded by *ATP3*, *ATP2* and *ATP1*.

128 Spontaneous mutation frequency in respiratory-deficient yeast strains and in replicatively
129 aged old mother cells was analyzed previously (Flury et al. 1976; Karthikeyan and Resnick
130 2005; Lang and Murray 2008), including in several recent papers (Stirling et al. 2014; Veatch
131 et al. 2009; Dirick et al. 2014). All of these measurements resulted in some increase in
132 spontaneous mutation frequency in respiratory-deficient cells compared to wild type cells,

133 however they were not unbiased (unselected) and were not correlated with suppressors of
134 the slow growth of the *petite* phenotype.

135 In our previous paper (Heeren et al. 2009) we showed that deletion of *AFO1*, a yeast gene
136 coding for a protein of the large subunit of the mitochondrial ribosome, caused respiratory
137 deficiency, but, however, allowed rapid growth. By comparison, a rho-zero mutant created
138 in the same strain background, had considerable growth defects. The *afo1⁻* mutant strain
139 showed an increase in the replicative lifespan. This was observed using strains of the
140 EUROSCARF yeast deletion collection.

141 Here, we deleted the *AFO1* gene in a haploid prototrophic yeast strain, and we genetically
142 analyzed in crosses the influence of the *afo1⁻* mutation and rapidly acquired suppressor
143 mutations on the phenotype of the mutant strains. The main purpose of this
144 communication is to present a dominant suppressor mutation of the slow growth
145 phenotype of the respiratory deficient *afo1⁻* mutant. Moreover, we describe additional
146 phenotypes caused by the suppressor mutation in haploid prototrophic yeast cells. We show
147 that the primary mutation that caused respiratory deficiency, *afo1⁻*, leads to a twofold
148 increase in nuclear point mutation frequency, which is again reduced to near wild-type
149 frequencies in the suppressed strain. The dominant suppressor allele is shown to be located
150 in *ATP3*, a nuclear-encoded component of the mitochondrial F₁ ATPase. This mutation did
151 not increase the activity of the F₁ ATPase. Among others, one key mitochondrial metabolic
152 pathways needed for rapid growth is the synthesis of iron sulfur clusters (Lill et al. 2014;
153 Veatch et al. 2009; Wu and Brosh 2012). The suppressor mutation did not increase cellular
154 ATP production or energy charge, thus pointing to the fact that ATP and energy charge are
155 not limiting for growth in the respiratory-deficient yeast cells.

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157

158 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

159 **Strains**

160 All strains used in this study are summarized in Table 1.

161

162

163 **Strain constructions**

164 C+ rho zero was made by treatment of C+ with ethidium bromide (Slonimski et al. 1968) and
165 the absence of mtDNA was shown by staining with DAPI and fluorescence microscopy as
166 described in Williamson and Fennell (Williamson and Fennell 1975).

167 C+ *afol*⁻ was constructed by integrative transformation of C+ with a linear fragment of DNA
168 encoding the *SAT1* gene conferring resistance to nourseothricin (Nourseo^R). In particular, we
169 used PCR primers (see list of primers) containing flanking sequences corresponding to the
170 chromosomal copy of *AFO1* and sequences corresponding to the *Candida albicans ACT1*
171 promoter and terminator, respectively, the ORF of *SAT1* was amplified from plasmid pSDS4
172 (Lettner et al. 2010). The *Candida albicans* sequences were used in this procedure because
173 their promoter and terminator elements do function in *S. cerevisiae* but do not recombine
174 with the chromosomal *S. cerevisiae* sequences. Nourseothricin resistance (Nourseo^R) is
175 conferred by the *SAT1* gene. We obtained a PCR product of 1344 bp. Integrative
176 transformation into strain C+ and selection of colonies resistant to nourseothricin yielded
177 strain C+ *afol*⁻. Analytical PCR with primers SP cognate and ASP SAT1 showed the presence
178 of a band of 663bp providing proof for the correct chromosomal deletion of *AFO1* in strain
179 C+.

180 C+*MATa* was constructed in the following way: Strain C+ *ura3*⁻ (Branduardi et al. 2007) was
181 transformed with a *URA3* selectable plasmid carrying the functional part of the yeast
182 homothallism gene, *HO*. The resultant diploid yeast strain was now cured of the *URA3*
183 plasmid on fluoro-orotic acid (FOA) (Sikorski and Boeke 1991; Boeke et al. 1987) and

184 sporulated and complete tetrads were obtained. A spore clone that was *MATa ura3⁻* was
185 mated with C+, the resulting diploid was sporulated and a spore clone was isolated by
186 micromanipulation that was *MATa URA3⁺*.

187 JS760 resulted from mating the haploid strain just described with C+ *afo1::Nourseo^R*.

188 The four haploid strains JS760-6A, B, C, D were isolated by micromanipulation of an ascus
189 from JS760. This tetrad is a tetratype with respect to *afo1::Nourseo^R* and *ATP3^{G348T}*. Six out
190 of ten complete tetrads obtained were tetratype as expected for two unlinked markers .

191 JS675 this diploid strain was obtained by a cross of JS670-6B x JS670-6D

192 C+ *his3⁻*In a procedure similar to the one described above for C+ *afo1::Nourseo^R*, we deleted
193 the gene, *HIS3*, in strain JS760-6B, which was necessary for testing the cloned suppressor
194 allele *ATP3^{G348T}*. Using primers delHIS3fwd and delHIS3rev, a deletion cassette containing
195 *kanMX4* was isolated by PCR from plasmid p416GPD *kanMX4*. The resulting DNA fragment
196 was inserted by integrative transformation into strain JS760-6B and transformants were
197 selected on YPD+G418 medium. The correct insertion was confirmed by analytical PCR and
198 by re-testing transformants on SD plates revealing single colonies that were clearly *his3⁻*
199 auxotrophs.

200

201 **Plasmids**

202 *pCaAct1-Sat1* (Lettner et al. 2010): This plasmid contains the *SAT1* gene coding for
203 nourseothricin resistance and was used for the PCR construction of the deletion cassette
204 used to disrupt *AFO1*.

205 *p416GPDkanMx4*: The KanMx4 ORF was amplified from the plasmid pAH3 (Bogengruber et
206 al. 2003) using the primers kanMX fwd and rev. The resulting linear DNA fragment was
207 cloned into the vector p416GPD (Mumberg et al. 1995) by using EcoRI and BamHI.

208 *pRS313* (addgene vector database) was used to clone the *ATP3* alleles from strains C+ and
209 C+*af01*⁻ using the primers ATP3 fwd and ATP3rev. Basic features of this derivative of
210 pBluescript are AmpR, *HIS3*⁺, *CEN6 ARS4* and lacZ_a.

211 *pRS313ATP3+* contained the WT *ATP3+* yeast gene under its cognate promoter cloned
212 BamHI/XhoI as described below.

213 *pRS313ATP3*^{G348T} contained the *ATP3*^{G348T} suppressor allele under its cognate promoter
214 cloned BamHI/XhoI from strain JS760-6D as described below.

215

216 **Primers**

217 All primers used in this study are collected in Table 2.

218

219 **Yeast genetics, gene manipulation and plasmid construction**

220 Yeast media for growth and sporulation were used as described (Trec0 and Lundblad 2001;
221 Lichten 2014). Yeast strains were grown on YPD (complex) or SD (synthetic minimal) media
222 on plates or in liquid culture. As most of the experiments were performed in prototrophic
223 strains, diploids could not be easily selected and were identified by picking colonies that
224 were unable to mate. Sporulation was induced on SPO media for five days. Asci were
225 digested with a solution of 0.5 mg Zymolyase 20T (Seikagaku, Japan) in 1 mL of PBS. After 5
226 min. the treated asci were washed and micromanipulated on YPD plates with a Singer MSM
227 manual micromanipulator. Complete tetrads were analyzed for genetic markers and the
228 haploid strains belonging to five tetrad type tetrads were further analyzed. One of these
229 tetrad type tetrads was used for most of the more advanced phenotypic analysis experiments.
230 For further genetic analysis of the haploid strains in crosses, the necessary matings were
231 performed and diploids identified by screening for non-maters, as mentioned above.

232 Gene manipulation of yeast was performed as described in (Gardner and Jaspersen 2014).
233 Plasmids pRS313-*ATP3*⁺ and pRS313-*ATP3*^{G348T} : The respective *ATP3* alleles including the
234 presumed native promoter region (the ~600 bp upstream region) were PCR amplified using
235 the primers *ATP3* forward and *ATP3* reverse. The mutant allele was obtained from genomic
236 DNA from strain JS760-6D. The WT *ATP3* allele was obtained from strain C+. PCR products
237 were subcloned into a pGEM[®]-T-Easy Vector System (Promega) and further cloned into the
238 multiple cloning site of the vector pRS313 (Sikorski and Hieter 1989) using the restriction
239 enzymes BamHI and XhoI. The respective mutation (*ATP3*^{G348T}) was confirmed by Sanger
240 sequencing.

241 DNA sequencing of the complete genome of strain C+ *afo1*⁻ was performed by the
242 sequencing service of the Roswell Park Cancer Institute (Buffalo, NY, USA). Bioinformatic
243 analysis of the primary sequencing data was performed by using the methods described
244 below for the mutation accumulation lines.

245

246 **Characterization of growth parameters of the strains:**

247 The strains were grown in SD media and the doubling times of cell numbers were
248 determined during log phase growth. Three biological replicates were analyzed both by cell
249 counting and by measuring optical density. Arithmetical means and standard deviations are
250 shown.

251

252 **Bioreactor batch cultivations**

253 The batch cultivations were performed in a 1 L bioreactor (DASGIP Parallel Bioreactor
254 System, Eppendorf, Germany). The medium contained 1.7g Difco YNB w/o amino acids and
255 ammonium sulfate, 5 g ammonium sulfate, and 22 g glucose monohydrate per L.

256 Bioreactors were inoculated from an overnight culture at an optical density of 0.3. Strains
257 were grown at 30°C at pH=5.0 kept constant by addition of NaOH. Dissolved oxygen
258 concentration was kept above 20% saturation by controlling stirrer speed and air flow. Inlet
259 and outlet gases were followed with the sensor provided by the bioreactor system. Samples
260 were taken at regular intervals throughout the experiment. Biomass production was
261 determined by measuring optical density at 600 nm and converted to cell dry mass.
262 Concentrations of glucose, ethanol, and glycerol were determined by HPLC as described in
263 Pflügl et al (Pflugl et al. 2012).

264

265 **Metabolite measurements**

266 Cells of the strains C+, C+ *rho-zero*, and C+ *afol*⁻ were grown in SC media and collected in
267 log-phase (O.D.=7.5). The cells were quenched with 25 mL of methanol precooled on dry ice,
268 centrifuged for two min at 2000 rpm and the pellets were stored at -80°C. Glass beads and
269 200 microL of acetonitrile/methanol (75/25 v/v) containing 0.2% formic acid were added and
270 incubated on ice for 20 min Cells were broken (3 x 20 sec. Fastprep, 6.5m/r) and centrifuged
271 for 5 min at 15000 rpm at 4°C. 200 microL of the supernatant were transferred to fresh
272 tubes. The pellets were re-suspended in 200 microL of H₂O, incubated on ice for 5 min,
273 centrifuged at 4°C and 15000 rpm for 5 min and the supernatant was transferred to the vial
274 to reach 400 microL. After another centrifugation for 5 min at 4°C and 15000 rpm 50 microL
275 of the supernatant was taken for amino acid analysis.

276 The remaining 350 microL were frozen and lyophilized in a Speedvac to dryness for about
277 two h. The samples were re-suspended in 87.5 microL of 7% acetonitrile, centrifuged at 4°C
278 for 5 min at 15000 rpm, 50 microL of the supernatant was transferred to an HPLC vial for
279 analysis of the pentose phosphate pathway intermediates.

280 Metabolites were quantified by liquid-chromatography selection monitoring, using a Agilent
281 1290 Infinity LC system, coupled to a triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (Agilent 6470), as
282 described previously (Mulleder et al. 2017).

283

284 **Location of the *ATP3* mutation in the structure of ATPsynthase**

285 The mutation *ATP3*^{G348T} was localized in the yeast F(1)F(0)-ATP synthase structure ((Dautant
286 et al. 2010); PDB ID: 2WPD) by using JSmol (<http://jmol.sourceforge.net/>) embedded in RCSB
287 PDB (rcsb.org). The result shows the location in the wild type structure, not in a modelled
288 structure of the mutant.

289

290 **Measurement of F₁ ATPase activity**

291 Mitochondria from yeast cells (200 ml YPD cultures grown for 24 hours) were isolated by
292 differential centrifugation. F₁ ATPase activity was determined spectrophotometrically by
293 using a coupled enzyme assay based on pyruvate kinase and lactate dehydrogenase. For a
294 detailed protocol see (Magri et al. 2010). The F₁ ATPase activity was calculated with the
295 following formula:

$$296 \frac{(\Delta Abs_{340nm} \text{ without oligomycin} - \Delta Abs_{340nm} \text{ with oligomycin}) * V}{\epsilon * L * v * [prot]}$$

297 ϵ = molar extinction coefficient (6.22 nm⁻¹ cm⁻²); L=light path length (cm); V=reaction volume
298 (cm³); v=sample volume (cm³); [prot]= protein concentration (mg/cm³)

299

300 **Measurements of oxygen uptake**

301 Several overnight cultures (JS760-6A, JS760-6B, JS760-6C, JS760-6D, C+ and C+ *rho-zero*)
302 were diluted to an OD₆₀₀=0.1 in 25 ml YPD and grown to mid exponential phase at 28°C,
303 600 rpm shaking. Oxygen consumption was analyzed in an Oxygraph 2k (Oroboros

304 Innsbruck, Austria). From each culture 2 mL were pipetted in an O2K chamber and the
305 measurement was performed as described in (Gruning et al. 2011) and according to the
306 manufacturer's instructions.

307

308 **Determination of spontaneous mutation frequencies in haploid yeast strains**

309 ***Mutation accumulation lines:*** In the mutation accumulation experiments, six strains were
310 used (see also the list of strains used in this work given above). These were: the strains of
311 the tetrad JS760-6A, JS760-6B, JS760-C, JS760-D, and the controls C+, and C+ *rho-zero*. The
312 tetrad JS760-6 is tetratype with respect to *afo1::Nourseo*^R and *ATP3*^{G348T}. All experiments
313 were performed on YPD agar plates. Four replicate lines for each strain were propagated
314 independently on YPD plates. To keep the number of cell divisions between bottlenecks the
315 same across different strains, the fast growing strains JS760-6C, JS760-D, and C+ were plated
316 to single colonies every two days, corresponding to approximately 21 cell divisions. The slow
317 growing strains JS760-6A, JS760-6B, and C+*rho-zero* were plated to single colonies every four
318 days, also accounting to approximately 21 cell divisions. The reason why the respiratory-
319 competent strain JS760-6A is a slow grower is in part caused by the presence of the
320 *ATP3*^{G348T} allele and in part by the fact that this allele leads to enhanced generation of *rho-*
321 *zero petites* during growth. Taking a freshly grown single colony from the plates is defined
322 here as a „single cell bottleneck“. We accomplished a total of 120 bottlenecks for the fast
323 and 60 bottlenecks for the slow growers. The total number of cell divisions in the mutation
324 accumulation lines between the ancestral and the final lines was therefore approximately
325 2520 for the fast-growing strains and 1260 for the slow-growing strains. Four parallel
326 mutation accumulation lines were maintained for each of the six strains leading to a total of
327 24 mutation accumulation lines for sequencing.

328 **DNA sequencing of the mutation accumulation lines and sequence analysis:** Genomic DNA
329 was extracted from the six strains at the start time point and 24 (four replicated for each
330 strain) at the endpoint of the experiments by „Yeast Master Pure“ kit (Epicenter, USA). All
331 samples were sequenced using Illumina HiSeq 4000 PE150 platform by BGI Europe A/S
332 (Copenhagen, Denmark). Our approach was to estimate mutation rates that are completely
333 unbiased by selection. It has only recently become possible to do this by sequencing very
334 large numbers of genomes at the required reading depth. The method used was based on
335 earlier work (Lynch et al. 2008; Sharp et al. 2018; Zhu et al. 2014).

336 We performed adapter removing and quality-based trimming by trimmomatic v.0.36 (Bolger
337 et al. 2014) with options ILLUMINACLIP:adapter.fa:2:30:10 SLIDINGWINDOW:5:20
338 MINLEN:36. The trimmed reads were mapped to the *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* S288C
339 reference genome (Release R64-1-1) by BWA (Burrows-Wheeler transform 0.7.16a) (Li and
340 Durbin 2009). The resulting read alignments were subsequently processed by SAMTools
341 v.1.7 (Li et al. 2009), Picard tools v.1.140, and GATK v.3.6-0 (McKenna et al. 2010). SNVs and
342 small indels were called by GATK HaplotypeCaller and Freebayes, respectively (Garrison and
343 Marth 2012). The variants called by Freebayes were filtered by the VCFfilter tool from vcflib
344 (Options: QUAL>30&QUAL/AO>10&SAF>0&RPR>1&RPL>1). The variants existing at the start
345 time point were filtered. In this way, we excluded sequencing errors mainly by rigorous
346 statistical methods based on the large sequencing depth.

347 We then intersected the calls by both GATK HaplotypeCaller and Freebayes. We used
348 Ensembl Variant Effect Predictor (VEP) to annotate the mutations (McLaren et al. 2016). All
349 the SNVs and small indels have been manually checked by the Integrative Genomics Viewer
350 (IGV) (Robinson et al. 2011). The per-base sequencing depth and the sequencing depth for
351 each of the sixteen yeast chromosomes was calculated by SAMTools v.1.7. The copy number

352 of mitochondrial DNA was estimated by the sequencing depth and normalized by the
353 sequencing depth of the nuclear genome. Statistical analysis in this work was carried out in
354 R3.6.0.

355

356 **Determination of replicative lifespans of yeast strains by microfluidics**

357 Measurements of cell lifespans were carried out following imaging in a flow chamber
358 modified from the Alcatraz design (Crane et al. 2014) having traps that show higher
359 retention of mother cells throughout their replicative lifespan (Crane et al. 2019). Cultures in
360 exponential growth, in which a high proportion of cells are either newborn or have
361 undergone only one division were introduced as described (Crane et al. 2014). Standard YPD
362 medium was infused through flow chambers at 20 microL/min. Devices were mounted on a
363 Leica inverted microscope and brightfield images captured at 5 minute intervals by a
364 Coolsnap Myo (Photometrics) camera through a 20x magnification objective. Replicative
365 lifespans were scored manually from a randomly selected sample of cells from each
366 genotype.

367 The lifespan data were statistically analyzed using Wizard ([http://www.evanmiller.org/ab-](http://www.evanmiller.org/ab-testing/survival-curves.html)
368 [testing/survival-curves.html](http://www.evanmiller.org/ab-testing/survival-curves.html)).

369

370 **Data availability**

371 The sequencing data obtained for mutation frequency estimation are available under
372 BioProject ID PRJNA632985.

373

374 **RESULTS**

375 **Phenotypic analysis of the *afo1*⁻ deletion strain**

376 In our previous paper (Heeren et al. 2009) we studied the phenotypic consequences of the
377 *afo1*⁻ deletion mutant contained in the yeast deletion mutant collection EUROSCARF in the
378 BY4741 genetic background. To re-evaluate and extend these results, the *AFO1* gene was
379 disrupted in the BY4741 strain using the nourseothricin resistance deletion cassette (see
380 Materials & Methods). Similarly, the *AFO1* gene was then disrupted in a prototrophic haploid
381 strain, C+, with a different genetic background (Brambilla et al. 1999) using the same
382 method. A prototrophic strain was used to avoid any complications that might arise from
383 the autotrophic mutations in the original BY4741 strains background. Most of the
384 experimental results are now reported in the prototrophic strain, C+. We will occasionally
385 also describe experiments done in the BY4741 background. The results found in the two
386 strain backgrounds (C+ and BY4741) were identical.

387 The *AFO1* gene was replaced by the nourseothricin resistance cassette in the haploid
388 prototrophic strain GRFc (Brambilla et al. 1999), renamed C+ for the present paper. The
389 genetic manipulations needed to obtain the *afo1*⁻ deleted strain in C+ and the
390 characterization of the correct chromosomal deletion are described in the Materials and
391 Methods. The genetic makeup (chromosome VII) of the strain derived from this analysis is
392 shown in Fig.1.

393 As expected of a respiratory-deficient mutant, the *afo1::Nourseo*^R strain did not grow on
394 glycerol. Comparison of colony size with C+ *rho-zero* and the C+ starting strain showed that
395 the newly generated C+ *afo1*⁻ mutant strain formed a mixture of small (comparable to C+
396 *rho-zero*) and large colonies (comparable to WT) (Fig. 2A). By comparison, the isogenic *rho-*
397 *zero* strain showed only small colonies after two days growth on YPD media. Restreaking one
398 small and one large colony of C+ *afo1*⁻ showed that the large colony phenotype was stable,
399 while the small colony phenotype was unstable, which once again gave rise to a low

400 percentage of large colonies (Fig.2B). This result together with examination of the colony
401 size in the newly constructed *afo1*⁻ deletion mutant in the BY4741 background showed that
402 the genetic instability of *afo1*⁻ mutants is independent of the strain background.

403 **Metabolic tests of C+ *afo1*⁻ and controls**

404 We next sought to define possible metabolic changes in the paradoxically fast growing
405 respiratory-deficient strain C+ *afo1*⁻. The strain was batch-grown in a bioreactor fermenter
406 (see Materials & Methods), and the relevant metabolic parameters were monitored
407 continuously and compared with two control strains, namely the C+ respiratory competent
408 starting strain, and the congenic *rho-zero petite* strain obtained by ethidium bromide
409 treatment and analyzed by DAPI staining. DAPI staining also showed that the C+ *afo1*⁻ strain
410 was free of mitochondrial DNA (data not shown). As shown in Fig.3, the metabolomic and
411 kinetic data surveying basic metabolism were compared between the mutant C+ *afo1*⁻ fast
412 growing strain (green) and the two controls, C+ WT (blue) and C+ *rho-zero* (red).

413 Fig. 3A shows the generation times (doubling times) of the three strains in mid-log phase
414 measured on SD medium. The rapidly growing isolate derived from the C+ *afo1*⁻ strain
415 showed a similar growth rate (and was similar in many other physiological parameters) as
416 the WT C+ strain (Fig. 3A). Similar to the difference in colony size, the difference in growth
417 rate between the rapidly growing isolate derived from the C+ *afo1*⁻ strain and the congenic
418 *rho-zero* strain was large and statistically significant.

419 To further explore the metabolic properties of the suppressor, the utilization of glucose was
420 examined by Bioreactor batch fermentation. The kinetics of glucose decline was the same in
421 WT and in the rapidly growing isolate derived from the C+ *afo1*⁻ strain (Fig. 3B, 16 h). By
422 comparison, the *rho-zero* strain needed about 20 h to completely ferment glucose. The rate
423 of glucose fermentation was in agreement with the generation times shown in Fig. 3A.

424 Ethanol production was also examined in the three strains. The maximum amount of ethanol
425 (8 g/L, which is a typical amount for laboratory yeast strains) was reached in the WT and the
426 rapidly growing isolate derived from the C+ *af^o1⁻* strains by 16 h growth (Fig. 3C), while the
427 congeneric *rho-zero* strain reached the maximum ethanol levels by 21 h. As expected, the WT
428 strain entered diauxie at 16 h and used up the ethanol produced within 32 h, while in the
429 experiments performed with the non-respiring strains, the ethanol remained constant.

430 A different pattern of results was observed by monitoring the metabolism of glycerol. The
431 rapidly growing isolate derived from the C+ *af^o1⁻* strain produced about 2.1 g/L glycerol after
432 16 h growth, while the *rho-zero* strain reached a similar amount at 21 h growth (Fig. 3D).
433 Both strains did not utilize glycerol as a carbon source, as expected for respiratory-deficient
434 strains. By comparison, the WT C+ strain showed a different response with respect to
435 glycerol, which reached a maximum of only 1.1 g/L, and which was slowly used up as a
436 carbon source during the next 32 h.

437 Likewise, in terms of biomass, the WT strain reached a transient plateau of diauxie at 11 h
438 growth and at about 15 h restarted growth (production of biomass) by using up ethanol (Fig.
439 3E). The rapidly growing isolate derived from the C+ *af^o1⁻* strain reached maximum biomass
440 production (1.5 g/L) at 14 h, which remained constant. The *rho-zero* strain reached the same
441 amount of biomass slightly later and likewise remained constant at subsequent time points.

442 Measuring the concentrations of the adenine nucleotides AMP, ADP, and ATP and
443 calculating the energy charge (EC) (Andersen and von Meyenburg 1977) of midlog cells of
444 the three strains was also performed (Fig. 3F). All strains showed the expected value of
445 EC=0.91 with little variation. The absolute concentrations of the adenine nucleotides, in
446 particular ATP, were very similar in the strains. Taken together, these results show that the
447 cause for slow growth of the *rho-zero* strain during exponential phase is not due to a defect

448 of energy charge, or adenine nucleotides. Given the rapid appearance of large colonies in
449 the C+ *afo1*⁻ strain (and also in the corresponding strain in the BY4741 background), we
450 tested the hypothesis that the large colonies were created due to an epigenetic switch,
451 which is a well-known phenomenon in yeast (Liebman and Derkatch 1999). One first guess
452 was that the rapidly growing isolates of the *afo1*⁻ deletion mutation perhaps induced
453 epigenetic changes, but this hypothesis was dismissed because the large colony phenotype
454 was stable (Fig. 2) and did not revert to a slow-growth phenotype on media containing
455 guanidinium hydrochloride. This drug reversibly inhibits the Hsp104 chaperone and cures
456 most yeast prions by blocking their generation and subsequent inheritance (Chernoff et al.
457 1995; Liebman and Derkatch 1999). These experiments were performed with strains both in
458 the C+ and in the BY4741 background. The result clearly argue against an epigenetic
459 mechanism.

460

461 **Genomic sequencing of the strains and genetic analysis of the suppressor mutation in the**
462 **rapidly growing isolates of the C+ *afo1*⁻ strain**

463 To further analyze the rapid growth properties of rapidly growing isolates of the C+ *afo1*⁻
464 strain, we chose two different but complementary strategies: i) genomic sequencing of the
465 strain to reveal possible secondary mutations that could cause the rapid growth phenotype
466 (suppressor mutations), and ii) genetic analysis of the large colony (rapid growth) phenotype
467 in crosses.

468 Genome sequencing of C+ *afo1*⁻ revealed a missense mutation in *ATP3*, *ATP3*^{G348T}, here also
469 named *ATP3*^D, due to its dominant effect in crosses (see below). *ATP3*^{G348T} would be
470 expected to produce a protein with the conservative amino acid change, Atp3^{L116F}. We
471 assume that the suppressor mutation occurred spontaneously during the time between

472 disruption of the *AFO1* gene in the haploid C+ strain and first testing of the C+ *afo1*⁻ strain. As
473 shown by Clark-Walker and his group (Chen and Clark-Walker 2000), missense mutations in
474 the three subunits of the mitochondrial F₁ ATPase, *ATP1*, *ATP2* and *ATP3* can suppress the
475 partial growth defect of *rho-zero* mutations in *S. cerevisiae* and the complete growth defect
476 in the *petite*-negative yeast, *K. lactis*. We tested this possibility by cloning and expression
477 of the *ATP3*^{G348T} allele in a slow-growing (unsuppressed) *afo1*⁻ deletion strain, which was
478 constructed in a cross of C+ *afo1*⁻ with the WT C+ strain. The suppressor allele restored
479 normal growth to the C+ *afo1*⁻ strain (see below, Fig.5). The results will be discussed in a
480 subsequent paragraph after describing the genetic analysis of C+*afo1*⁻ in a cross.

481 An isogenic *MATa* derivative of C+ was obtained as described in Materials and Methods.

482 Analysis of tetrads originating from the diploid strain JS760 (see Materials and Methods)
483 showed that a second mutation was present in C+ *afo1*⁻, which caused rapid growth in *afo1*
484 segregants forming large colonies and segregated independently of *afo1*⁻. About two thirds
485 of the tetrads were tetratypes, as indicated by the fact that only one haploid strain in the
486 tetrad was growing slowly (forming very small colonies), while the other members of the
487 tetrad showed growth parameters comparable to WT. One representative tetrad (JS760-6) is
488 shown in Fig.4A. Sequencing of the *ATP3* gene in all four member strains of this tetrad
489 revealed that mutation *ATP3*^D segregated 2:2. The double mutant (JS760-6D) *afo1*⁻, *ATP3*^D
490 grew rapidly, and the single mutant strain (JS760-6A) was respiratory competent (*grande*),
491 grew rapidly, but produced a slightly elevated number of respiratory defective (*petite*)
492 progeny on subcloning of vegetative cells. The fact that JS760-6A was respiratory competent
493 and grew on glycerol as carbon source showed that the mutant protein Atp3^D apparently
494 was functional when incorporated in the ATPsynthase structure. Fig. 4B shows the *ATP3*
495 sequences of the four strains of the tetrad. Fig.4C shows the result of a dominance test of

496 the *ATP3^D* mutation in a cross of JS760-6B with JS760-6D. The picture shows 100% large
497 colonies of the diploid strain JS765, indicating dominance of the suppressor allele *ATP3^D*. The
498 picture also shows 100% large colonies of JS760-6D and a majority of small colonies with
499 very rare large colonies after re-streaking of JS760-6B, which agrees with the original
500 analysis of the starting strain, *C⁺ afo1⁻* shown in Fig.2. In order to test the efficacy and
501 independence of the genetic background of the cloned suppressor allele, *ATP3^D*, we inserted
502 this gene in the yeast expression plasmid, pRS313 (Sikorski and Hieter 1989). As a control,
503 we also inserted the WT *ATP3* gene in the same plasmid as described in Materials and
504 Methods. Both alleles were expressed under the cognate *ATP3* promoter, and the selection
505 marker for the plasmid was *HIS3*. In order to create a useful tester strain for this experiment,
506 the unsuppressed and reasonably stable haploid strain, JS760-6B (see Fig. 4C), was
507 converted into a *his3⁻* strain (see Materials and Methods) and transformed with the plasmids
508 pRS313 *ATP3⁺* and pRS313*ATP3^{G348T}*.

509 The results are shown in Fig. 5. Large and significant differences in doubling times were
510 found between JS760-6B and JS760-6D, which correlated well with the colony size
511 differences shown in Fig. 4C. The suppressed strain JS760-6D grew at the same rate as WT
512 (JS760-6C) with a doubling time of 4 h, which is characteristic for the prototrophic *C⁺* strain
513 SD medium. Comparison of the two transformed strains, JS760-4B[*ATP3^{G348T}*] and JS760-
514 4B[*ATP3⁺*] with the strains of the tetrad and the controls clearly showed that the presence of
515 the suppressor gene, *ATP3^{G348T}*, on a plasmid could restore rapid growth to the respiratory
516 deficient strain, JS760-4B, which the wild type gene, *ATP3⁺*, could not. This provided proof
517 that the major genetic factor causing rapid growth in strain JS760-6D was the *ATP3^{G348T}*
518 allele, and was independent of the genetic background which could be somewhat different
519 in the strains of the tetrad.

520

521 **Experiments to clarify the mechanism of suppression**

522 In the next set of experiments, we aimed to test one hypothesis about the cause of rapid
523 growth in non-respiring strains carrying *ATP3* mutant alleles that had been put forward by
524 the group of Clark-Walker (summarized in (Chen and Clark-Walker 2000)). This hypothesis
525 rests on the fact that all major suppressor mutations found so far share a conspicuous set of
526 commonalities (Chen and Clark-Walker 2000): They are all located in either *ATP1*, *ATP2*, or
527 *ATP3*; they are conservative missense mutations; they depend for activity on the intact
528 presence of the other proteins constituting the soluble ATPase; and they are all dominant in
529 crosses. This leads to the tentative conclusion that these mutations (even in haploids) allow
530 the structure of the ATPase to be assembled. In our case (*ATP3*^{G348T}), this was indeed
531 supported by the respiratory competence of strain JS760-6A (Fig. 4A). To further explore this
532 question, we mapped the predicted amino acid change onto the structure of yeast ATP
533 synthase ((Dautant et al. 2010); PDB ID 2WPD). This analysis showed that L116F lies at the
534 interface between the Atp3 subunit („rotor“) and the Atp2 and Atp1 subunits („stator“) near
535 the base of the Atp3 rotor (Fig.6). The location of the amino acid, L116F, is highlighted in the
536 structural model. The other suppressor mutations found in Atp3 (Vowinckel, under review)
537 are also located at the interface between the „rotor“ and „stator“ parts of the ATPase,
538 although they were located at the C-terminal end of the Atp3 protein stalk, near the top in
539 the structural model. The hypothesis which was first put forward and tested by the group of
540 Clark-Walker (Chen and Clark-Walker 2000) and posits that all of the suppressor mutations
541 increase the ATPase activity, and, because more ATP is hydrolysed inside the mitochondria,
542 possibly the mitochondrial membrane potential across the inner mitochondrial membrane is
543 increased, caused by the change in charge separation across the inner mitochondrial

544 membrane. However, experiments later performed by the same group showed that in
545 *K.lactis* there was no correlation with F₁ ATPase activity, although assembly of the F₁ ATPase
546 complex and a minimal activity was necessary to make *K. lactis petite*-positive.

547 Of course, this is possible only as long as the mitochondrial adenine nucleotide transporter is
548 intact - which is borne out by experimental results (Chen and Clark-Walker 2000). To test this
549 hypothesis, we attempted to determine the activities of the soluble F₁ ATPase in the strains
550 of the tetrad JS760-6 and the C+, C+ *rho-zero*, and C+ *afo1*⁻ control strains. The method used
551 to measure ATPase enzymatic activity was a coupled enzyme assay (see Materials and
552 Methods) enabling the indirect quantitation of ADP using phosphoenol pyruvate as
553 substrate and lactate dehydrogenase-mediated production of NAD⁺ as endpoint (Magri et al.
554 2010). Care was taken to avoid the influence of a possible ATP synthase contribution to the
555 measurements (in the case of the respiratory-competent strains) by performing all
556 measurements in the presence of antimycinA and oligomycin, which inhibits ATPsynthase
557 but not the F₁ ATPase reaction. As shown in Fig. 7, F₁ ATPase activity is high in the respiring
558 strains, JS760-6A and JS760-6C, as well as in the control C+ strain, but significantly lower in
559 the non-respiring strains JS760-6B, 6D, and the controls C+ *rho-zero* and C+ *afo1*⁻. The
560 presence of the suppressor mutation does not increase F₁ ATPase activity as shown in JS760-
561 6D and the starting strain C+ *afo1*⁻. The conclusion is that the suppression of the slow growth
562 phenotype and the restoration of the mitochondrial metabolic activity of *afo1*⁻ cells by the
563 *ATP3*^{G348T} mutant allele is not due to an increase in ATPase activity. Therefore, a different
564 (and at present unknown) mechanism underlies the suppressor activity of the *ATP3*^{G348T}
565 allele. Nevertheless, the suppressor activity very probably requires assembly of an intact F₁
566 ATPase structure as was discussed above, and at least minimal ATPase activity (Chen and
567 Clark-Walker 2000; Lefebvre-Legendre et al. 2003).

568 Another possible mechanism was an increase in oxygen uptake by the suppressed
569 respiratory-deficient strain. Oxygen uptake was measured by high precision respirometry
570 (Oroboros Oxygraph, see Materials and Methods). The result (Fig. 8) clearly shows that the
571 suppressor allele does not cause an increase in oxygen metabolism in the suppressed *afo1*⁻
572 respiratory deficient strain, which excludes the possibility that an increase in oxygen
573 metabolism is the cause of the suppressor activity. The slightly lowered oxygen consumption
574 of strain JS760-6A as compared to WT is presumably due to an intrinsic property of the
575 suppressor allele *ATP3*^{G348T} but also due to the fact that the *ATP3*^{G348T} allele in a haploid cell
576 leads to an increased frequency of loss of the mitochondrial genome. This means that
577 possibly the cells used for the measurement were already a mixture of *rho-plus* and *rho-zero*
578 cells. This is also indicated by the fact that the copy number of mitochondrial DNA is
579 substantially lower in this strain than in the congenic WT strain (data not shown in detail).

580

581 **Spontaneous mutation frequencies in WT and C+ *afo1*⁻ strains**

582 We next turned to the question of how it was possible that the suppressor mutations
583 appeared so rapidly *de novo* in the *afo1*⁻ deleted strains. The generation of suppressor
584 mutations (forming large colonies) was approximately equally frequent in the C+ strains
585 discussed here and in the *afo1*⁻ deleted strains in the BY4741 background. Different
586 suppressor mutations in the same gene (*ATP3*) with very similar genetic properties were
587 found in diploid prototrophic *rho-zero* strains (Vowinckel, under review).

588 Another hypothesis was that besides the strong selection for fast growing genetic
589 suppressors, which occurs whenever the „slow“ strain (JS760-6B) is growing, an increased
590 spontaneous mutation frequency could result in the formation of genetic suppressors in the
591 *afo1*⁻ deletion strain. Therefore, we measured mutation frequencies in the strains of the

592 JS760-6 tetrad and in the WT and *rho-zero* controls. The purpose of these measurements
593 was to clarify if the deletion of the *AFO1* gene or the *rho-zero* state of the strain can lead to a
594 more rapid than WT occurrence of suppressor mutations by increasing the spontaneous
595 mutation frequency.

596 The results are shown in Fig.9. Genomic DNA was sequenced for the six strains shown in
597 Fig.9 (ancestors) and 24 lines generated from the ancestors that were allowed to
598 accumulate mutations. We found that the number of single nucleotide variants (SNVs) in the
599 *afo1⁻* deletion strain was two-fold higher than in the WT strain ($p < 0.05$, t-test) but similar to
600 the *rho-zero* control strain ($p = 0.863$, t-test). Note that the *afo1⁻* deletion strain is also devoid
601 of mitochondrial DNA as a consequence of the defect in mitochondrial protein synthesis.
602 However, and most importantly, the JS760-6D strain (*afo1⁻* and *ATP3^{G348T}*) which is also
603 devoid of mitochondrial DNA, displays a spontaneous mutation frequency similar to WT. In
604 order to confirm that all the mutations accumulated in a neutral fashion, we compared the
605 numbers of SNVs occurring in the genic regions and the number of non-synonymous genic
606 SNVs with the numbers expected (Liu and Zhang 2019; Sharp et al. 2018) in the absence of
607 any selection during establishing the mutation accumulation lines. Those numbers were
608 not significantly different: 71% vs 74%; $p > 0.10$ Fisher's exact test; and 73% vs. 76%; $p > 0.10$
609 Fisher's exact test thus indicating the absence of selection in the SNV generation in the
610 mutation accumulation lines.

611 The frequency of small indels was also higher in the *afo1⁻*-deleted strain compared to WT
612 ($p < 0.05$, t-test) following a similar pattern as described for the SNVs.

613 We are presenting in detail only the SNVs here because all of the suppressor mutations
614 found by us and by others were SNVs. Other aspects of this investigation of spontaneous

615 mutation events including identity of the mutations found will be treated in a separate
616 study.

617 The basic mutation frequency for point mutations (SNVs) in the unstressed haploid wild type
618 strain C+ was about 1.5×10^{-9} mutations/(bp x replication round). This value confirms many
619 textbook measurements (Alberts et al. 2008; Lodish 2016) but is nearly an order of
620 magnitude higher than the one found with a different method in diploid yeast (Zhu et al.
621 2014). This may be explained by the fact observed earlier that single nucleotide mutations
622 are less frequent in diploids than in haploids because of the additional possibilities for repair
623 in diploids (Zhu et al. 2014).

624 As early as 1976, an increased reversion frequency in yeast *rho-zero* strains as compared
625 with the congenic WT strains was observed (Flury et al. 1976). The strains were
626 appropriately marked with reversible mutations and the revertant frequencies were
627 determined. It was clear that some sort of mutation frequency increase was observed,
628 however, this was not an unbiased, selection-free system.

629 (Lang and Murray 2008) determined forward mutation rates at the *CAN1* and *URA3* loci and
630 estimated the per base mutation rates. These measurements were of course also not
631 unbiased (unselected).

632 Taken together, the deletion of *AFO1* not only leads to loss of the mitochondrial genome but
633 also to a significant increase in the spontaneous mutation frequency. An extragenic
634 suppressor mutation generated in the *afo1*⁻ deletion strain restores the mutation frequency
635 to levels observed for the wild type.

636

637 **Replicative lifespans**

638 Finally, we wanted to check replicative lifespans in the newly made *afol*⁻ and the
639 suppressor mutations identified. Lifespans were determined by the microfluidics method
640 (see Materials & Methods) in a tetrad of strains and controls in the BY4741 background and
641 are presented in short form here. There was no significant change in the replicative lifespan
642 due to *afol*⁻ deletion mutation (data not shown). There seems to be a tendency to a short
643 replicative lifespan in those members of the tetrad which carry the suppressor mutation.
644 This result is at variance with our previous publication on the *afol*⁻ mutant (Heeren et al.
645 2009).
646 There is presently no easy explanation, but likely (a) different suppressor mutation(s) must
647 have been present in the deletion collection, although unknown at the time of the previous
648 publication. Unexpected secondary mutations do occur relatively frequently in yeast
649 deletion strains (Teng 2013).

650

651 **DISCUSSION**

652 The results described here provide a tentative explanation for the occurrence of suppressor
653 mutations in C+ *afol*⁻ strains and suggest a mechanism that could lead to the observed
654 phenotypes: rapid growth in the suppressed state, increase of the mutation frequency in the
655 unsuppressed state and restoration of low mutation frequency (increased genomic stability)
656 in the suppressed strain.

657 The unsuppressed *afol*⁻ strain JS760-6B showed a twofold increase over WT in mutation
658 frequency, but the suppressed strain JS760-6D showed a mutation frequency equal to WT
659 (JS760-6C). The respiratory competent strain, JS760-6A, which carries the *ATP3*^{G348T} allele,
660 showed a mutation frequency similar to WT. The C⁺ rho-zero strain had a high mutation
661 frequency equal to JS760-6B, but the starting strain, C+, showed a low mutation frequency

662 that was comparable to the WT strain JS760-6C. We think it is possible that the large
663 difference in mutation frequencies could contribute to the rapid occurrence of large colony
664 variants after growing the *afo1*⁻ deleted strain on YPD or SD media. This tentative
665 explanation is plausible, but cannot easily explain the apparent difference in reversion
666 frequency (shown by the number of large colonies after re-streaking) between C+ *afo1*⁻ and
667 C+ *rho-zero*, in spite of the fact that the mutation frequencies are similar (Fig.9).

668 An important question is the mechanism that leads to the increase in mutation frequency,
669 and reversion to normal mutation frequency in the suppressed strain (JS760-6D). A possible
670 explanation could be the following: The respiratory deficient strain JS760-6B just like the C+
671 *rho-zero* strain shows a partial defect in iron-sulfur cluster (ISC) synthesis leading to nuclear
672 genome instability because both DNA synthesis and repair require ISC proteins (Dirick et al.
673 2014; Lill et al. 2014; Veatch et al. 2009). The authors noted increased specific growth rate in
674 the suppressed strains (Dirick et al. 2014). However, they did not identify the genetic
675 identity of the genes which harbor the suppressor alleles. Veatch et al. (Veatch et al. 2009)
676 monitored the loss of heterozygosity in diploid yeast of the BY4743 background. In the
677 present communication, forward formation of SNVs is measured in non-coding as well as
678 coding parts of the genome and in positions where the mutations created are synonymous
679 as well as non-synonymous. Comparing these results, we conclude that the mutations
680 measured originated in the absence of selection. The mutational events monitored here
681 (SNVs) are of the kind that were found to lead to the suppressor mutations found in
682 respiratory deficient *S. cerevisiae* and *K. lactis* investigations not only in the present
683 communication, but also in (Chen and Clark-Walker 1999, 1995, 2000). Loss of
684 heterozygosity, which was also found in respiratory deficient diploid yeast strains (Veatch et

685 al. 2009) or large chromosomal rearrangements are less likely to create dominant
686 suppressors of the slow growth phenotype of respiratory-deficient yeast.

687 Taken together, the results presented here contribute to understanding the physiology of
688 yeast respiratory deficient mutants. The phenotypes observed depend not on a defect in
689 ATP production, but on a change in mitochondrial metabolism, possibly in ISC protein
690 synthesis. The phenotypes observed depend not on a defect in ATP production, but on a
691 different mitochondrial defect, possibly in ISC protein synthesis, which would be in line with
692 to the observed genetic instability. However, an intact F_1 ATPase complex is apparently
693 needed (this is also clear from the work of Clark-Walker et al., (Chen and Clark-Walker
694 2000)), even if the actual ATPase activity is low (Fig.7). So, perhaps the intact soluble ATPase
695 complex could have a second function independent of splitting of ATP.

696 The new insights presented here could help to understand mitochondrial physiology in cells
697 with respiratory deficiencies.

698

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709

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836

837 **TABLES**

838 **Table 1:** Yeast stains used in this study

Strain	Mating type	Markers	Source
C+	<i>MATalpha</i>	no auxotrophic markers	Brambilla 1999*
C+ <i>rho-zero</i>	<i>MATalpha</i>	no mtDNA	this paper
C+ <i>afo1</i> ⁻	<i>MATalpha</i>	<i>afo1::Nourseo</i> ^R <i>ATP3</i> ^{G348T}	this paper **
C+ <i>MATa</i>	<i>MATa</i>	no auxotrophic markers	this paper
JS760	<i>MATa/alpha</i>	<i>afo1::Nourseo</i> ^R / <i>AFO1</i> ⁺ <i>ATP3</i> ^{G348T} / <i>ATP3</i> ⁺	this paper
JS760-6A	<i>MATa</i>	<i>AFO1</i> ⁺ <i>ATP3</i> ^{G348T}	this paper
JS760-6B	<i>MATa</i>	<i>afo1::Nourseo</i> ^R <i>ATP3</i> ⁺	this paper
JS760-6C	<i>MATalpha</i>	<i>AFO1</i> ⁺ <i>ATP3</i> ⁺	this paper
JS760-6D	<i>MATalpha</i>	<i>afo1::Nourseo</i> ^R <i>ATP3</i> ^{G348T}	this paper
JS765	<i>MATa/MATalpha</i>	a cross of 6Bx6D	this paper
C+ <i>ura3</i> ⁻	<i>MATalpha</i>	<i>ura3</i> ⁻	a gift from D.Porro
JS760-6B <i>his3</i> ⁻		same markers as JS760-6B, but <i>his3::kanMX4</i>	this paper

839

840 *strain GRFc of Brambilla et al. 1999 was renamed C+ for the purpose of the present paper

841 **The mutation *ATP3*^{G348T} in this strain occurred spontaneously and was discovered during
 842 the course of this work

843 **Table 2:** Primers used in this study

Primers	Sequence
ATP3 fwd	AAC TCG AGT CAT CCC AAA GAG GAA GCA CCA GTA ATA AT
ATP3 reverse	GGA TCC TCT CTA AAA GCC GTG TCG CAG
ΔHIS3 fwd	CTT CGA ATA TAC TAA AAA ATG AGC AGG CAA GAT AAA CGA AGG CAA AGA GTT TAT CAT TAT CAA TAC TCG
ΔHIS3 rev	TAT ACA CAT GTA TAT ATA TCG TAT GTG CAG CTT TAA ATA ATC GGT GTC ATT AGA AAA ACT CAT CGA GCA
Nourseo fwd	AAC CAT TTA TAC AGA ATA GGA AAA CCA ACT AGT GCA TTA AAC TAA ACT AAA CTA AGG ATC CAG CGT CAA AAC TAG AGA
Nourseo rev	TAC ACA TAG GGT TTA CTA TTC TAA ACT ATA GTT ATC TTC TCT CTT ATT CTC TGC AGA GGT AAA CCC AG
kanMX fwd	GGA ATT CTT AGA AAA ACT CAT CGA GCA
kanMX rev	CGG GAT CCAT GGG TAA GGA AAA GACT

844 **FIGURES**

845 **Figure 1** Genotype of strain C+ *afo1*⁻ after integrative transformation with Nourseo^R
 846 disrupting *afo1*. The figure shows the gene arrangement on chromosome VII of strain C+
 847 after the integration of the Nourseo^R cassette (red symbols) in place of *AFO1*. The sequences
 848 replaced start from the start codon of the *AFO1* ORF and end at the respective stop codon.
 849 Therefore, the promoter, as well as the terminator of *AFO1*, is still intact (green symbols)
 850 and corresponds to the WT arrangement on the chromosome. The red sequences are the
 851 *Candida albicans ACT1* promoter and the *Candida albicans ADH1* terminator which flank the
 852 bacterial SAT1 gene, which confers nourseothricin resistance (Nourseo^R).

853

854 **Figure 2** Properties of C+ *afo1* single colonies after re-streaking on YPD plates.

855 A: Single colonies of the C+ *afo1* strain after isolation on YPD plates. All colonies are
 856 nourseothricin-resistant and unable to grow on glycerol. However, the size of the colonies
 857 (and the doubling times on glucose-based media) is very different.

858 B: upper part: re-streaking of a large colony which produces a stable large phenotype; lower
859 part: re-streaking of a small colony. A low percentage of the colonies was converted to large,
860 but most of the colonies are very small. Photograph was taken after three days at 28°C.
861 Large colonies are marked with arrows in A and B.

862

863 **Figure 3** Comparison of the metabolism of C+ (blue), C+ *rho-zero* (red), and the original C+
864 *afo1*⁻ (green); this color code is used in 3A – 3F. A: doubling times of the three strains on
865 synthetic complete medium with glucose as carbon source (SC medium); the doubling time
866 of C+ *afo1*⁻ is very similar to WT C+, the doubling time of the C+ *rho-zero* strain is significantly
867 longer. Shown is the fold increase of doubling time relative to wild type. B: Glucose
868 consumption of the three strains. C: Ethanol production. D: Glycerol production. The WT
869 produces less glycerol than the non-respiring strains, and consumes it after glucose is
870 exhausted. E: Biomass production. F: EC energy charge (a measure of ATP availability for
871 growth and survival) is virtually identical for the three strains in midlog phase. Data are
872 means of four independent cultures, error bars denote the standard deviation. In
873 experiments (B-E) the results obtained with the strain C+ are significantly different from the
874 strains), C+ *rho-zero* and C+ *afo1*⁻ (P<0.0001).

875

876 **Figure 4** Analysis of the tetrad JS760-6.

877 A: Properties of the four strains of the tetrad; growth on YPG, resistance to nourseothricin,
878 sequences of the *ATP3* alleles, mating type, and colony size on YPD are monitored. B: DNA
879 sequence of the *ATP3* genes in the strains of the tetrad. C: Dominance test for the *ATP3*^{G348T}
880 mutation. A diploid strain (JS765=760-6B x 760-6D) was constructed and tested for colony
881 size after three days on YPD. The diploid strain shows 100% large colonies. Note rare large
882 colonies in strain JS760-6B.

883

884 **Figure 5** Growth rates of the four strains JS760-6A, B, C, D, and the controls C+, C+*rho-zero*;
885 JS760-6B transformed with pRS313 *ATP3*^{WT}, and with pRS313*ATP3*^{G348T}. All experiments
886 were performed in liquid culture on synthetic minimal media (SD). Doubling times were

887 determined in the exponential growth phase and the means of three independent
888 experiments are given with standard deviations of the mean. No significant difference
889 between WT strains and the suppressed mutant strain (760-6D) was found. However, a large
890 and highly significant difference was observed between strains JS760-6B (unsuppressed
891 mutant strain) and 6D (suppressed mutant strain). The C+ *rho-zero* strain is growing
892 significantly slower than the starting WT strain C+. Strain designated $ATP3^+$ is the JS760-6B
893 strain expressing the WT $ATP3^+$ gene from plasmid pRS313ATP3⁺. Strain designated G348T is
894 the JS760-6B strain expressing the suppressor allele $ATP3^{G348T}$ from plasmid
895 pRS313ATP3^{G348T}. See text for further explanations.

896

897 **Figure 6** Structural model of yeast F₁c₁₀-ATP synthase (Dautant et al. 2010). A: The Atp3
898 subunit is shown in green with the position of the G348 (L116) residue marked in red. B: The
899 position of the mutation is shown in an enlarged version of Atp3 structure. The mutant
900 position lies at the interface between the rotor (Atp3) and the stator (Atp1 + Atp2).

901

902 **Figure 7** F₁ ATPase activity measurements in strains of the tetrad JS760-6 and controls. All
903 strains were grown in YPD to midlog phase, and submitochondrial particles were isolated
904 and ATPase activity was measured as described by (Magri et al. 2010).

905

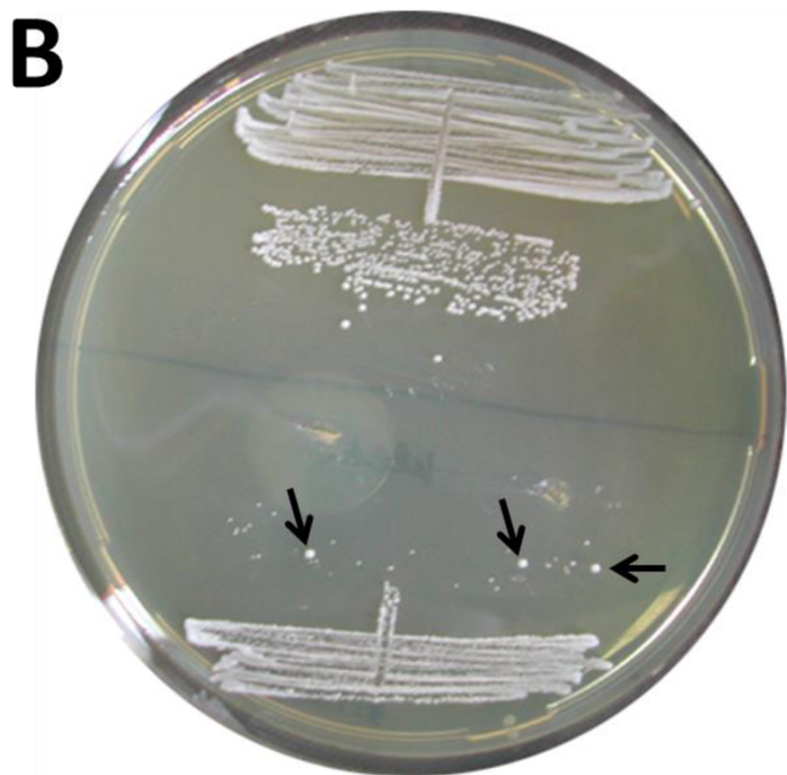
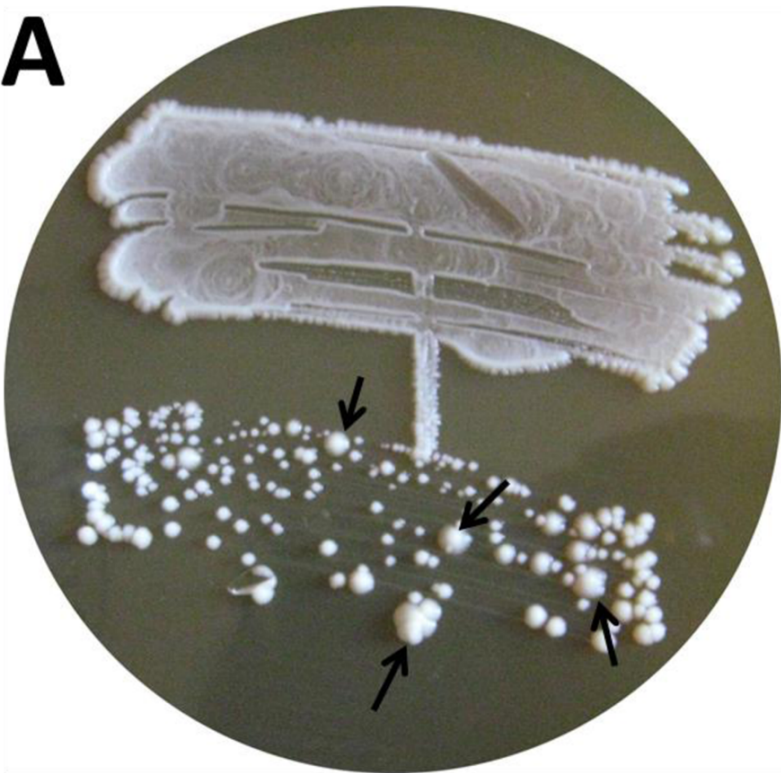
906 **Figure 8** Oxygen uptake in the same strains as in Fig.7. All strains were grown in YPD to
907 midlog phase, and oxygen consumption was measured immediately.

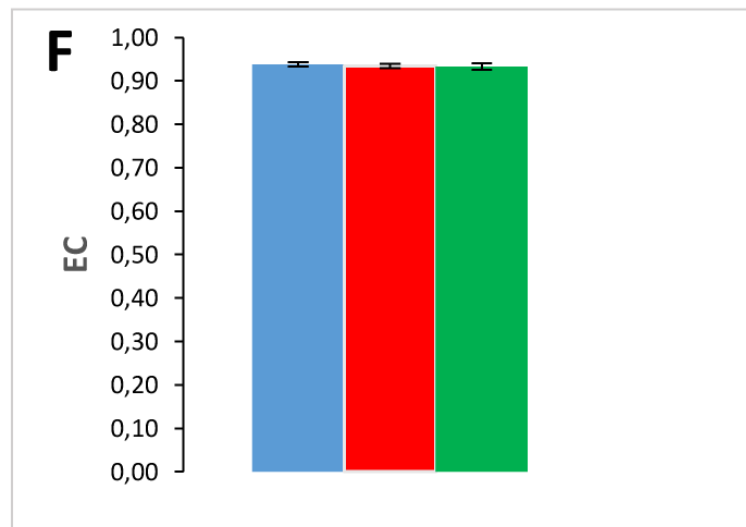
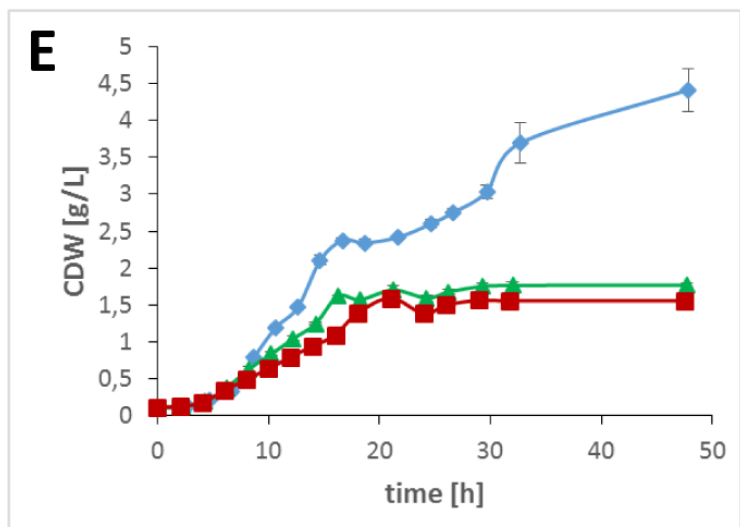
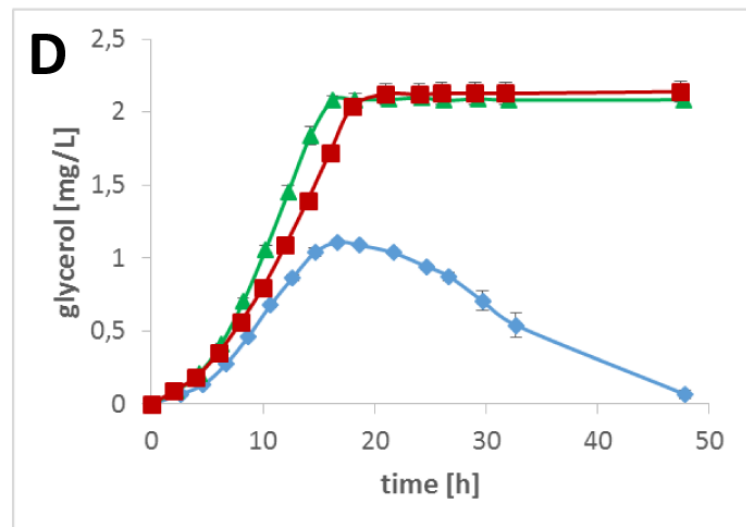
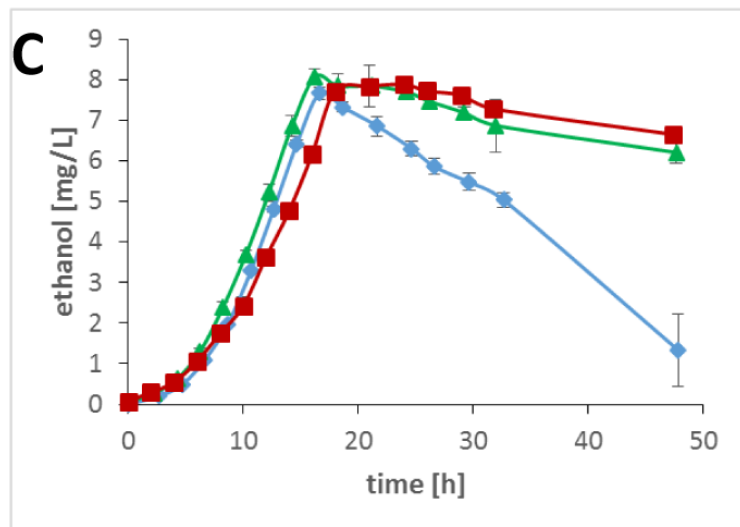
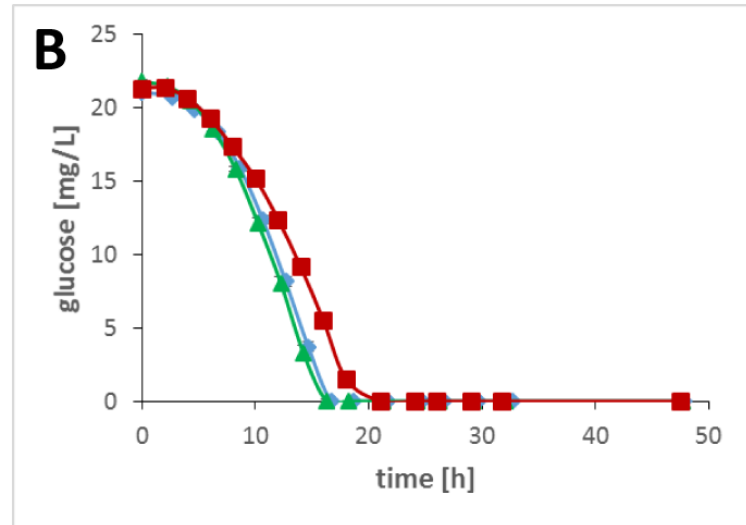
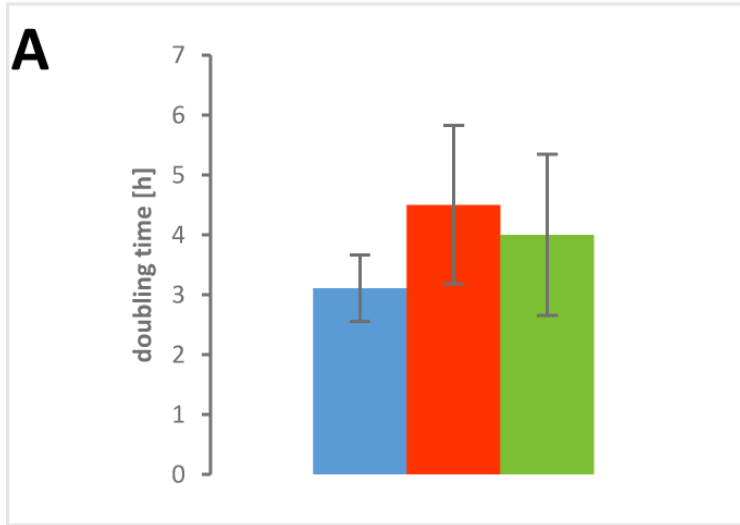
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909 **Figure 9** Spontaneous frequencies of point mutations (single nucleotide polymorphisms,
910 SNPs) of the strains of tetrad JS760-6 and controls. Student's p-values were used for pairwise
911 comparisons of the mutation frequencies.

912



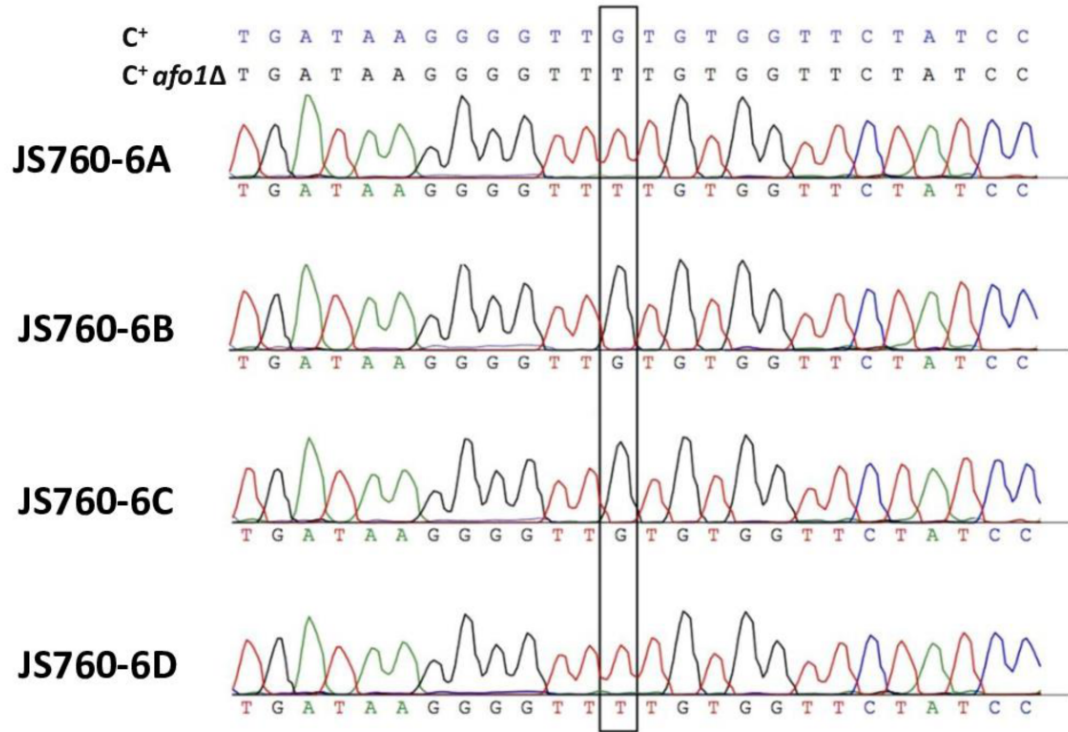




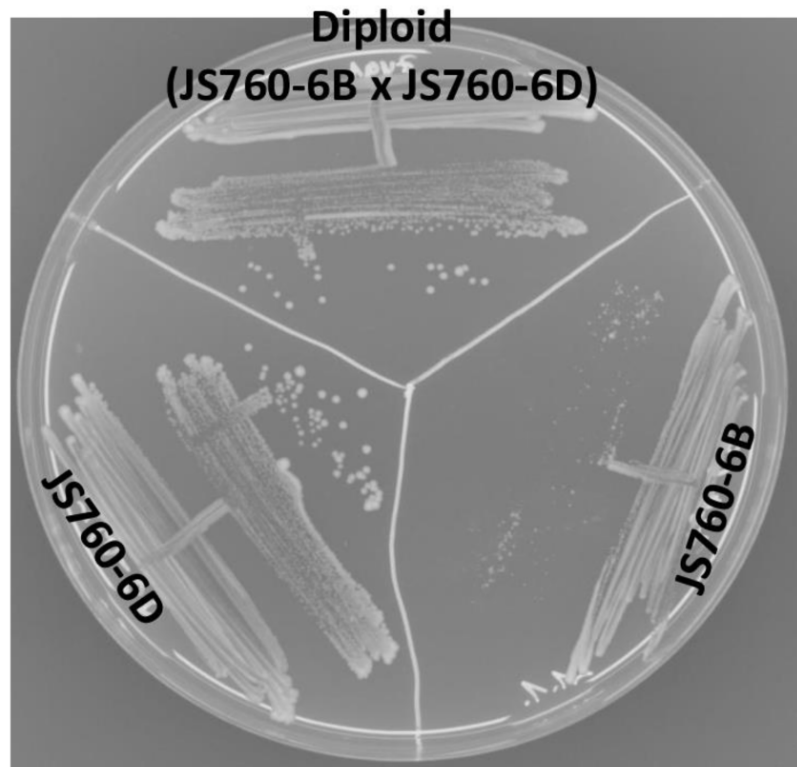
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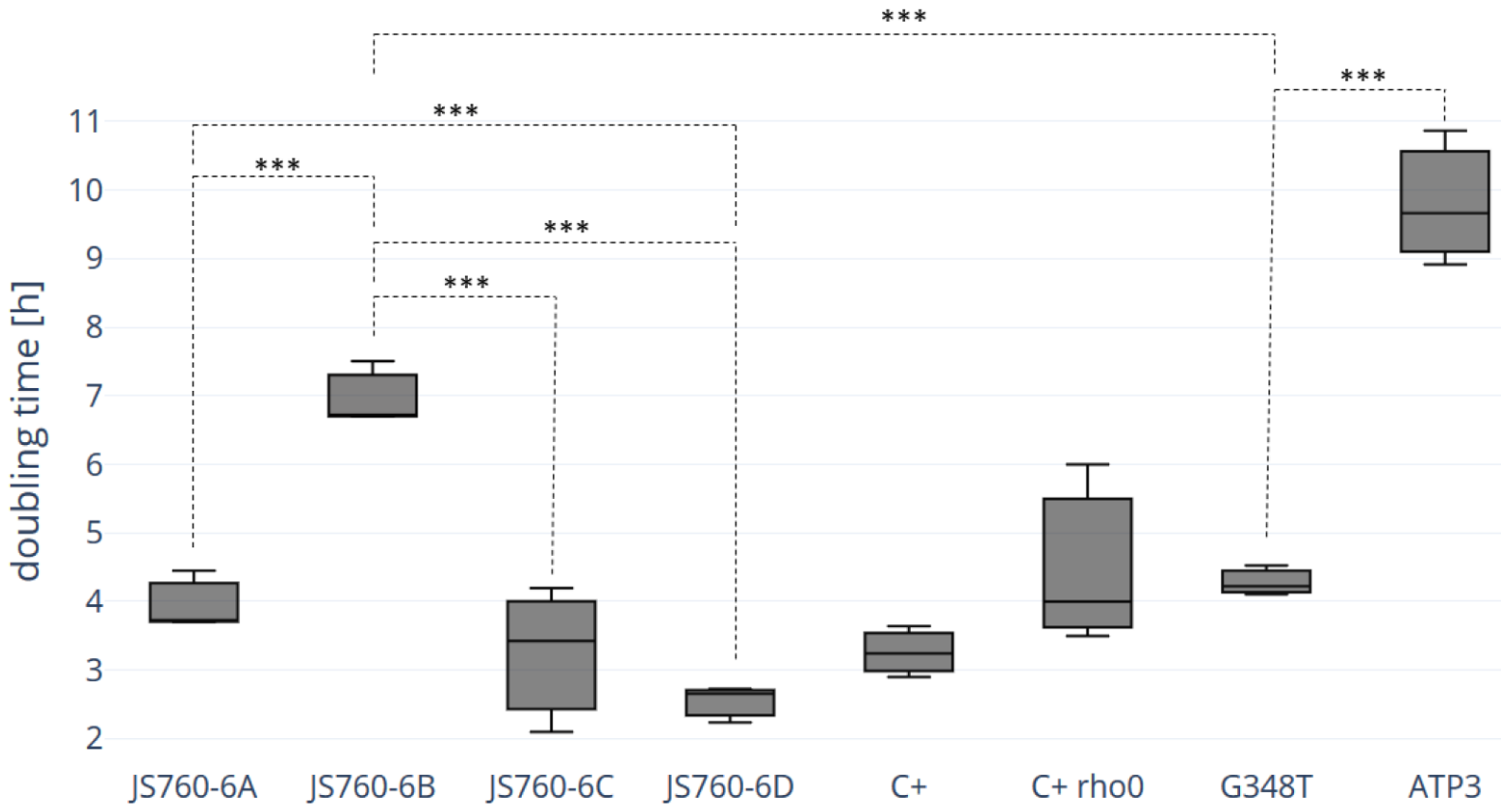
	YPG	Nourseo ^R	<i>AFO1</i>	<i>ATP3</i>	<i>MAT</i>	colony size
JS760-6A	+	-	<i>AFO1</i> ⁺	<i>ATP3</i> ^{G348T}	<u>a</u>	L
JS760-6B	-	+	<i>afO1Δ</i>	<i>ATP3</i> ⁺	<u>a</u>	S
JS760-6C	+	-	<i>AFO1</i> ⁺	<i>ATP3</i> ⁺	<u>α</u>	L
JS760-6D	-	+	<i>afO1Δ</i>	<i>ATP3</i> ^{G348T}	<u>α</u>	L

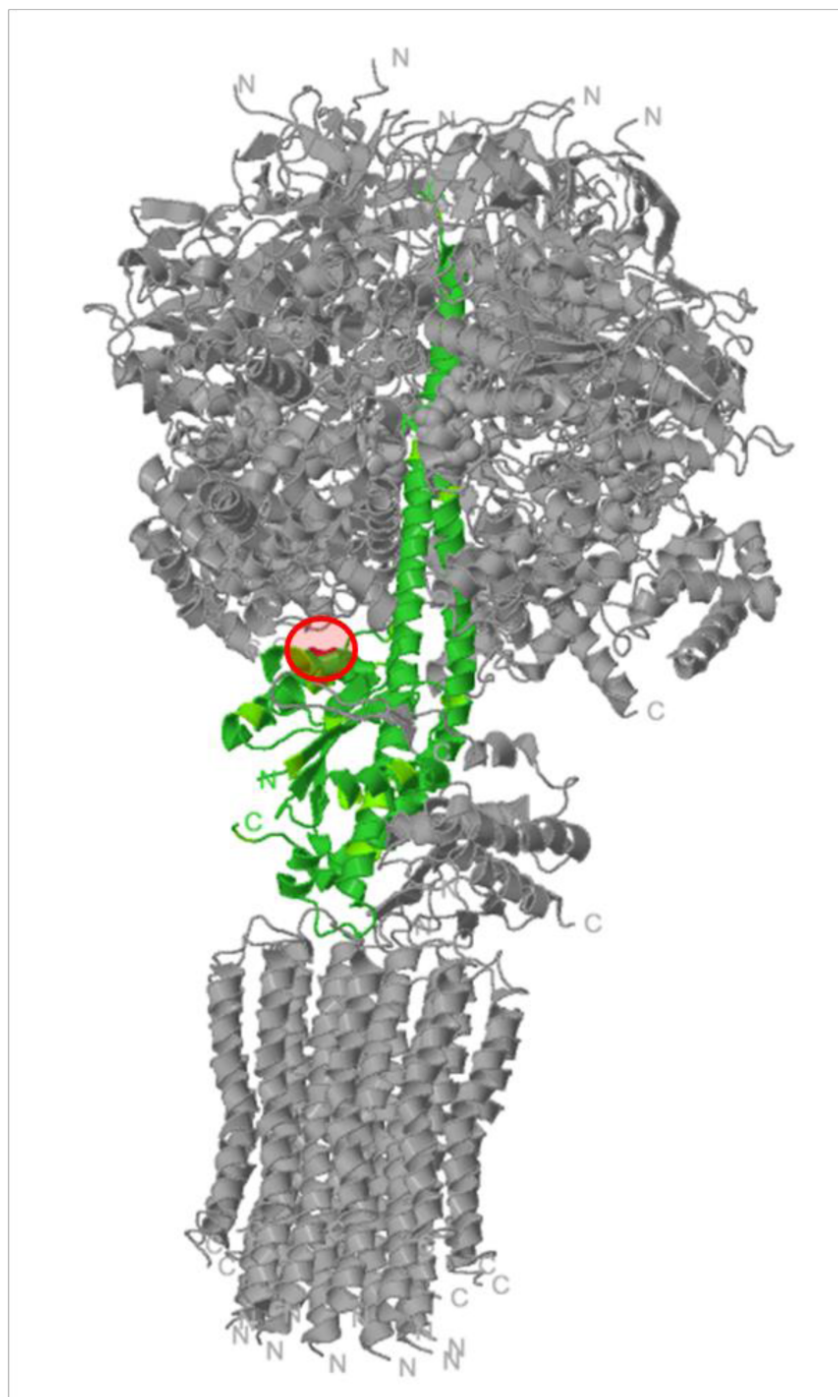
B



C





A**B**