Title: Regulatory variants drive Hsp90's effect on adaptation

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Summary: The essential, stress-responsive protein chaperone Hsp90 impacts adaptation from microbes to humans. Yet the molecular mechanisms involved remain unclear and are often presumed to be driven by variation in opening reading frames. Here, we identify over 1,000 natural genotype-to-phenotype associations governed by Hsp90 at single-nucleotide resolution in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Strikingly, *cis*-regulatory variants contributed to the chaperone's effect on heredity more strongly than coding variation. Most of these mutations nonetheless impacted clients of Hsp90 or targets of its direct binding partners. The chaperone's influence was especially potent on evolutionarily young genes, highlighting its influence on variation central to novelty. Synthetic reconstructions and genome editing revealed that Hsp90 may regulate the relationship between activity and phenotype for many dosage-sensitive genes. The unexpected role of the chaperone in buffering the effects of regulatory variants and releasing their consequences under stress suggests a mechanism for its widespread effects on evolution and development.

Keywords

- Hsp90; systems genetics; protein chaperones; natural variation; genotype-phenotype maps; evolution; adaptation; development; epistasis

INTRODUCTION

The phenotypes expressed from the genome are constantly remodeled throughout development and under stress[1], with profound impacts on disease and evolution[2]. The stress-regulated Heat Shock Protein 90 kDa (Hsp90) chaperone has attracted keen interest as a molecular mediator of these effects[3,4]. Hsp90 is a highly expressed[5] 'hub of hubs' that interacts genetically and physically[6] with hundreds of client[7] kinases, ubiquitin ligases, and other signaling factors[8] that are likewise highly connected nodes of regulatory networks. Thus, Hsp90 couples the turnover, steady-state levels, and localization of much of the regulatory proteome[9,10] to environmental stress[11].

As a result, this chaperone has profound impacts on the phenotypic manifestation of genetic variation[11–18]. Hsp90 activity is tightly linked to oncogenesis[19,20] and the Hsp90 chaperone network plays a central role in neurodegeneration[21]. Such effects are not limited to disease: modest impairment of Hsp90 function during development in *Drosophila melanogaster* results in pronounced changes to wings, eyes, and legs[16], phenotypes classically associated with regulatory variation. The lineage specificity of these effects[16,22], as well as those observed in other organisms[17] from yeast to plants, indicates that Hsp90, in addition to its effects on disease variants, controls the fitness consequences of a substantial fraction of natural polymorphisms. Moreover, this influence is most pronounced under stress when protein quality control is compromised[23]— and when the value of phenotypic novelty is greatest.

However, owing to the limitation of existing genetic mapping technologies, the precise underlying mutations whose effects are modified by Hsp90 have remained obscure in all but a handful of instances[14]. Because Hsp90 is a chaperone of protein folding, prior studies examining the interactions between Hsp90 and, variously, gene deletions[24,25], naturally segregating

haplotypes[26], Fanconi anemia mutations[14], variants underlying Mendelian disorders[27], and

genotypes harboring small numbers of nearly random mutations[13] made the pragmatic assumption

that chaperone-dependent phenotypes arose primarily from coding variation. Yet the

morphological and other developmental traits impacted when the chaperone's activity is

compromised are most frequently caused by *cis*-regulatory variation[28].

Here, we take advantage of the deep conservation of the molecular activity and clientele of

Hsp90[29] and the power of quantitative genetics in the budding yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* to

identify, at unprecedented scale, hundreds of natural polymorphisms whose effects depend

strongly on Hsp90 function. The advent of genetic mapping approaches in *S. cerevisiae* that dissect

complex traits to their underlying causal variants[30,31], in conjunction with collections of wild

isolates[32,33], genome engineering tools[34,35], and systematic knowledge of genetic and physical

interactions[36,37] and the targets of key Hsp90 clients[38–40], make this an ideal venue to understand

the mechanisms by which the chaperone reshapes phenotypes. In contrast to prevailing

assumptions, we found that even though Hsp90 is a protein chaperone, its effects were most

pronounced for non-coding variation. This surprising role in the phenotypic expression of *cis*-

regulatory variation provides a mechanistic explanation for Hsp90's potent impact on the evolution

of developmental phenotypes. Indeed, buffering the consequences of excursions in activity and

releasing their fitness effects under stress may facilitate the accumulation of environmentally

specific adaptive variation across Eukarya.

RESULTS

Comprehensive mapping of Hsp90-dependent phenotypes

To enable genetic mapping with high resolution and sensitivity, we employed ~15,000 fully genotyped progeny[30] from an F_6 intercross between two wild *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* parents[31,41]: RM11, isolated from a California vineyard[42], and YJM975, isolated from an immunocompromised patient[43]. Although most genes are polymorphic in this mapping panel, those encoding Hsp90—*HSC82* and *HSP82*—are not (mutations in these genes could confound mapping). To assess Hsp90's impact on phenotypes driven by the diverse natural variants present in this cross [**Fig. 1A**], we used a potent and specific natural product inhibitor, radicicol[44], at a dose that reduced but did not eliminate chaperone activity[18] [**Fig. S1A**], did not perturb growth in the absence of stress [**Fig. S1B**], and did not induce a bounce-back heat shock response[26] [**Fig. S1CD**].

We first examined the growth of the 15,000 diploid progeny in response to diverse environmental perturbations (including alternate carbon sources, toxic metal ions, and DNA-damaging agents, as well as antifungal drugs used clinically and in agriculture) [**Supplemental Table S1**]. Parallel experiments in the presence of radicicol revealed that Hsp90 inhibition dramatically altered the growth of many progeny [**Fig. 1B**], but did so in a manner that was highly specific to genotype and environment [**Fig. S1E**]. Coarse genetic mapping readily identified loci with Hsp90-dependent phenotypic effects logically connected to the traits we examined [**Fig. 1C**], including the rapamycin-resistance phenotype of a locus centered about the *AVO3* (*TSC11*/RICTOR[45]) gene [**Fig. 1D**] – the Avo3 protein is a key component of the TORC2 complex, a direct target of rapamycin.

To investigate whether our findings from this defined mapping panel generalized across

distinct genetic backgrounds, we assessed how Hsp90 inhibition influenced growth in rapamycin

across > 1,000 wild yeast isolates[33] from diverse ecological niches and geographic origins.

Resistance associated with the clinical allele of Avo3, and its Hsp90-dependence, was apparent

across the >100 wild isolates that harbored this allele amidst additional variation at more than one

million other loci [**Fig. 1E**]. Although genetic background can exert a strong influence on

phenotype, these observations suggest that inferences about Hsp90's relationship to the effects of

specific genetic variants from our experiments may hold across a very wide range of wild isolates.

Hsp90 is a potent buffer of regulatory variation

Integrating over 1,000,000 growth measurements and employing a multivariate mapping

procedure[30], we identified more than 5,000 Hsp90-dependent loci throughout the genome,

exceeding the number previously identified by orders of magnitude [**Supplemental Table S2**],

and emphasizing Hsp90's widespread influence on the heredity of diverse biological traits. Our

mapping approach provided a comprehensive picture of Hsp90-dependent heredity, revealing that

up to 76.2% of Hsp90's effect on fitness was due to changes in the phenotypic effects of genetic

variation [**Fig. S1FG**]. Consistent with the minimal effect of radicicol on growth in the absence of

stress, no more than 20% of the Hsp90-dependent QTLs in any environment overlapped with those

identified in the no-stress condition, and even less so for the strongest-effect loci. The expression

of Hsp90 itself also made a minor contribution: the lone regulatory variant near either the *HSC82*

or *HSP82* genes explained only 0.08% of Hsp90-dependent growth. Moreover, only two of the

Hsp90-dependent loci we identified overlapped with Hsf1 binding sites [**Supplemental Table S2**],

further confirming that the heat shock response was not engaged.

We classified Hsp90-dependent loci into two broad categories. In the first, known as

buffering interactions, the phenotypic effect of an allele is masked by Hsp90 and thus *increased*

upon radicicol treatment, a release of cryptic variation sometimes termed decanalization[46,47]. In

the second, known as potentiation interactions, the phenotypic effect of a variant is dependent on

Hsp90 and thus *reduced* upon radicicol treatment (as with the transforming kinase v-Src[18]) [**Fig.**

S1H]. Across the 1,154 interactions (that is, Hsp90-dependent effects on phenotype) that we

identified, both behaviors were common. Buffering interactions were somewhat stronger than

potentiations (median 15%; $p < 10^{-4}$) [**Fig. S1I**], and we noted that Hsp90 inverted the fitness

effects of 309 variants. Although they were a minority of the interactions we observed, the average

effect size of such inversions was large [**Fig. S1J**] and may explain the 'line-crossing' Hsp90

dependence that has been reported for randomly accumulated mutations[13]. Overall, the magnitude

of Hsp90's impact on individual variants (median variance explained ~ 0.21%) was comparable

to the phenotypic contributions of the variants themselves (~ 0.26%) [**Fig. S1K**] and, when Hsp90

was inhibited, buffered variants exhibited the largest effects [**Fig S1L**]. The majority of these

effects far exceed the threshold for effective neutrality in this organism ($s \sim 10^{-8}$ - 10^{-6})[48],

establishing that Hsp90 is poised to impact the evolutionary fate of a broad swath of natural genetic

variation. Consistent with reduced selection on variants that are typically buffered, allowing them

to reach fixation more often, alleles buffered by Hsp90 rose to higher frequencies in *S. cerevisiae*

than variants that were causal with Hsp90 active ($p < 0.01$); the same was not true of potentiated

alleles ($p = 0.27$) [**Fig. S1M**].

To pinpoint the polymorphisms responsible for Hsp90-dependent traits, we performed

high-resolution genetic mapping[31,41,49] of the change in growth upon chaperone inhibition across

each environmental perturbation. These nucleotide-resolution data revealed that nearly half (542

of 1,154) of the fine-mapped variants were outside of annotated open reading frames. Moreover,

regulatory variants accounted for more Hsp90-dependent heredity than protein-altering variants

[**Fig. 1FG; Fig. S1N**], even though only 30% of the yeast genome is noncoding and only 44% of

the SNPs in our mapping panel lie outside open reading frames.

Figure 1. Mapping the basis of Hsp90-dependent phenotypes. (A) Schematic of genetic mapping population and hypothetical Hsp90-dependent phenotypes of different strains. (B) Rank-ordered normalized growth of 146 randomly selected progeny in rapamycin, with (red) and without (gray) radicicol. Data are normalized to mean = 0 and standard deviation = 1 amongst the F_6 progeny in that treatment condition. (C) Manhattan plot of univariate genetic mapping of Hsp90-dependent rapamycin resistance. Loci are in genomic order, with chromosomes as indicated. LOD, log of the odds distribution. 5% FDR threshold < 5 by permutation. (D) Growth in rapamycin with (red shading) and without (no shading) radicicol of progeny bearing the sensitive (blue) and resistant (orange) alleles of Avo3/RICTOR. Data shown are mean and s.e.m. for the indicated number of progeny with each homozygous genotype; F test p-value from multivariate regression. (E) Replication of the Hsp90-dependent phenotype in wild isolates sorted by their Avo3 genotype as indicated: $Avo3^{Thr1342}$ in blue ($n = 152$) and $Avo3^{Lys1342}$ in orange ($n = 806$). Growth was measured with Hsp90 active (no shading) and inhibited (red shading) Data shown are mean and s.e.m. normalized to the growth of the RM11 $Avo3^{Thr1342}$ allele; p value by t test relative to growth without radicicol. (F) Cumulative frequency plots of multivariate regression p values for protein-altering, synonymous, and regulatory Hsp90-modified variants. (G) Cumulative frequency plots of multivariate regression variance explained for protein-altering, synonymous, and regulatory Hsp90-modified variants. See also [**Fig. S1**].

Reconstruction by gene editing to confirm the nucleotide-resolution map

To confirm the findings from our mapping analyses, we first used genome editing to reconstruct a

SNP in Avo3[50] linked to Hsp90-dependent rapamycin resistance [**Fig. 2A**]. Statistical fine

mapping suggested that a missense variant at position 1342 of the Avo3 protein was likely

responsible, as indicated by a pronounced peak in the QTN score (although, notably, not in the

traditional LOD metric). Examining the predicted structure[51] of this Hsp90 client[36], we noted a salt

bridge formed by the polymorphic Lys1342 residue that appeared to stabilize the region of

Avo3/RICTOR that renders TORC2 insensitive to rapamycin[52] [**Fig. 2B**]. Consistent with this

hypothesis, introduction of the alternate Thr1342 allele found in the RM11 vineyard parent by

gene editing conferred pronounced rapamycin sensitivity that was attenuated by radicicol

treatment [**Fig. 2C**]. By contrast, introduction of the Lys1342 allele found in the clinical parent

conferred potentiated resistance [**Fig. 2C**]. We obtained similar results with radicicol and the

structurally and mechanistically distinct Hsp90 inhibitor geldanamycin[53], and neither variant

strongly influenced growth in the absence of rapamycin [**Fig. S2A**], confirming that the

phenotypes of these polymorphisms were transformed by Hsp90 activity.

Next, to better understand the surprising enrichment for Hsp90-dependent regulatory

variants, we investigated a T>C variant 206 base pairs upstream of the *ERG11* transcription start

site[54] [**Fig. 2D**] linked to Hsp90-buffered resistance to the antifungal drugs tebuconazole and

fluconazole, which inhibit Erg11 and are widely used in agriculture[55] and the clinic[56] [**Fig. S2B**].

Genomic reconstruction of the regulatory SNP recapitulated its chaperone-dependent effect on

sensitivity to these mainline antifungal drugs [**Fig. 2E; Fig. S2C**]. The mutation had a negligible

effect on growth in the absence of drug, regardless of Hsp90 activity [**Fig. S2D**]. The results of

these genome editing studies establish that drug resistance was due to a buffering interaction

between this regulatory variant and Hsp90, a chaperone of protein folding.

Figure 2. Identifying individual genetic variants underlying Hsp90-dependent phenotypes.
(A) Univariate genetic mapping of Hsp90-dependent rapamycin resistance (LOD score; left
ordinate) overlaid with multivariate fine-mapping (ANOVA QTN score; right ordinate) of the
same phenotype, highlighting the causal variant Avo3^{Thr1342Lys}. (B) Schematic of the TORC2
complex, rapamycin binding pocket, and RICTOR C-terminal domain; Alphafold2 predicted
structure of Avo3, highlighting the causal residue Avo3^{Lys1342} and its proximity to Avo3^{Glu1362}. (C)
Growth in rapamycin of genome-edited strains with Hsp90 active (no shading) and inhibited (red
shading). The right panel shows wild type RM11 Avo3^{Thr1342} strains and edited RM11 Avo3^{Lys1342}
strains (orange stars); the left panel shows wild type YJM975 Avo3^{Lys1342} and edited YJM975
Avo3^{Thr1342} strains (blue stars). Hsp90 was inhibited with both radicicol (rad) and geldanamycin
A (GdA). Data shown are mean and s.e.m. normalized to the wild type; p values by t test; $n = 96$
per genotype. (D) Univariate genetic mapping of Hsp90-dependent fluconazole resistance (LOD
score; left ordinate) overlaid with multivariate fine-mapping (ANOVA QTN score; right ordinate)
of the same phenotype, highlighting the causal variant $ERG11^{122014C>T}$. Indicated below are
overlapping near-cognate binding sites for Ecm22/Upc2 centered about the polymorphism. (E)
Growth in fluconazole of genome-edited strains in fluconazole with (red shading) and without (no
shading) Hsp90 inhibition with radicicol (+Hsp90i). Each panel shows wild type YJM975
$ERG11^{122014T}$, edited YJM975 $ERG11^{122014C}$ (blue stars), wild type RM11 $ERG11^{122014C}$, and
edited RM11 $ERG11^{122014T}$ (orange stars) strains. Mean and s.e.m. are shown, normalized to the
wild type; p values by t test against the same mutant strain without radicicol treatment; $n = 384$
per genotype. (F) Top: Schematic of $ERG11$ alleles in the hybrid diploid; indicated are the Hsp90-
dependent 122014C>T regulatory variant and the Erg11^{Lys433Asn} tag SNP. Below left: Total counts
at the Erg11^{Lys433Asn} tag SNP with Hsp90 inhibited with radicicol (red) or Hsp90 active (grey).

Below middle: estimated counts at Erg11$^{\text{Lys433Asn}}$ tag SNP for the RM11 allele (blue) and the
YJM975 allele (orange) with Hsp90 inhibited with radicicol (red shading) or Hsp90 active. Bars
show mean and dots show replicates. Below right: Mean allelic ratio (RM11 counts/YM975
counts) at the Erg11$^{\text{Lys433Asn}}$ tag SNP with Hsp90 inhibited with radicicol (red) or Hsp90 active
(grey). Bars show mean and dots show replicates; p values by binomial test; $N = 3$. See also [**Fig.**
S2].

Hsp90 controls the phenotypic effects of cis-*regulatory variation*

We initially hypothesized that Hsp90 might alter how these SNPs impact mRNA levels, and therefore investigated allele-specific mRNA expression in the heterozygous diploid parent of our genetic mapping panel. This approach capitalizes on polymorphisms in transcribed regions that 'tag' transcripts as originating from either the RM11 or YJM975 parental chromosomes [**Fig. S3A**]. A predominance of one haplotype over the other indicates the presence of a *cis*-acting regulatory variant at that gene[57]. Roughly a quarter of all non-coding variants with phenotypes that were impacted by Hsp90 (107 of 451) exhibited significant allele-specific expression (ASE) when the chaperone was inhibited (amongst ORFs with tag SNPs; Bonferroni-corrected $q < 0.05$; see **Methods**, **Fig. S3B**, and **Supplemental Table S3**). The buffered variant at *ERG11*, for instance, showed pronounced RM11-biased expression (RM:YJM allelic ratio $= 1.78 \pm 0.06$) [**Fig. 2F**]. This *cis*-regulatory effect was consistent with the variant's proximity to two near-cognate Ecm22/Upc2 binding motifs near the start of *ERG11* transcription [**Fig. 2D**][58] and our observation that the RM11 allele conferred azole resistance [**Fig. 2A**]. Hsp90 inhibition markedly decreased the overall level of *ERG11* expression, possibly because the Upc2 transcription factor associates with Hsp90[59]. Yet the biased allelic expression was preserved (1.89 ± 0.03) [**Fig. 2F**].

Indeed, Hsp90 inhibition rarely had a strong effect on ASE—only 18% of Hsp90-dependent SNPs changed in allelic ratio by more than 50%—despite often affecting expression in *trans* [**Fig. 3A**; **Fig. S3C**]. As with the *ERG11* mutation, the largest and most frequent effects we identified across the genome arose from variants upstream of the TSS, consistent with altered transcription factor recruitment or transcription initiation [**Fig. 3B**]. 123 Hsp90-dependent variants, however, were in the predicted 3' UTR of mRNAs and 55 in the 5' UTR [**Fig. 3C**], pointing to a significant role for post-transcriptional regulation. For example, a polymorphism that

caused Hsp90-dependent resistance to both lithium and nickel stress localized to the highly

structured 3' UTR[60] of *HAC1*, which regulates pre-mRNA splicing and levels *via* Ire1[61]. Likewise,

numerous Hsp90-dependent phenotypes arose from the 3' UTR of the cysteine desulfurase gene

NFS1, which exhibits nutrient-dependent interactions with RNA-binding proteins[62]. Introducing a

G>A polymorphism 61 base pairs downstream of *NFS1* by gene editing was sufficient to confer

pronounced buffered sensitivity to fluconazole and concomitant buffered resistance to the DNA-

damaging agent doxorubicin, confirming the role of this 3' UTR in chaperone-dependent heredity

[**Fig. 3D**].

Interestingly, we previously implicated coding variation in Nfs1 in Hsp90-buffered

rapamycin resistance arising in a different segregant panel[26]. These observations, in conjunction

with the modest effect on ASE, led us to hypothesize that the nature of Hsp90's impact on genetic

variation may be a gene-level property in which the chaperone controls fitness effects by enhancing

the amount of folded, active protein that is produced, thereby limiting the phenotypic impact of

cis-regulatory effects. Indeed, despite having little effect on mRNA ASE itself, Hsp90 more

strongly impacted the consequences of potent regulatory variants (polymorphisms associated with

significant allelic imbalances; $q < 0.05$) [**Fig. S3D**].

We also noted that more than 200 Hsp90-modified variants were synonymous – that is,

they represented a change in codon choice but not in protein sequence. Of these, 38 of 247 ($\sim 15\%$)

exhibited mRNA allele-specific expression. As expected, this was a much lower fraction than for

regulatory variants, which we expect to act predominantly on mRNA ($\sim 29\%$). Consistent with

roles for both mRNA- and protein-level regulation, synonyms with mRNA ASE did not exhibit

larger effect sizes than synonymous variants with no ASE [**Fig. S3E**]. Thus, many of the Hsp90-

interacting synonymous variants may drive phenotypes via protein levels or co-translational

folding. Synonyms without ASE that interacted with Hsp90 indeed exhibited larger changes in

normalized translational efficiency (nTE; a statistic that estimates codon optimality based on

codon usage and tRNA availability[63]) than Hsp90-dependent synonyms with ASE (which

presumably act at the mRNA level) [**Fig. S3E**], further suggesting that protein-level effects may

play a role for these variants. On the other hand, synonyms with ASE were closer to protein domain

boundaries than those without [**Fig. S3E**], potentially suggesting a role for changes in translation

rate and co-translational folding feeding back onto mRNA stability[64]. Thus, synonyms likely

constitute an additional form of *cis*-regulatory variant within the open reading frame, analogous to

cis-regulatory variants outside ORFs that control mRNA expression.

Proteins are typically present at levels that do not limit growth[65]; however, their

destabilization upon Hsp90 inhibition might elicit dosage sensitivity, which, in turn, would reveal

newfound phenotypes derived from the pre-existing molecular consequences of buffered *cis*-

regulatory variants. Consistent with this idea, we found that buffering interactions were stronger

than potentiations amongst variants associated with mRNA *cis*-regulation (median 63% larger; *p*

< 0.03) [**Fig. 3E**; **Fig. S3F**]. Studies in diverse organisms have illustrated the potential for Hsp90

to have profound and lineage-specific consequences for developmental phenotypes[17] typically

associated with *cis*-regulatory variation, often involving the release of cryptic phenotypic diversity.

Our results suggest that these buffering interactions may naturally and frequently arise from the

confluence of *cis*-acting variants with the widespread consequences of Hsp90 on the folding and

activity of proteins at the core of eukaryotic regulatory circuitry.

Figure 3. Hsp90 controls the phenotypic outcomes of *cis*-regulatory variation. (A) Allelic ratio (RM counts/YJM975 counts) in the hybrid diploid with Hsp90 inhibited by radicicol (abscissa) or with Hsp90 active (ordinate) for all SNPs with genome-wide significant allele-specific expression (grey) and for SNPs with Hsp90-dependent phenotypic effects (red). Mean allelic ratios are shown across three replicates for each condition. (B) Schematic illustrating the position of upstream Hsp90-modified regulatory variants relative to the TSS of the nearest gene; genome-wide significant allele-specific expression is as indicate (black dots: SNP has ASE [$q < 0.05$]; grey dots: no ASE). Selected large-effect alleles are highlighted. (C) As in (B), but for downstream Hsp90-modified regulatory variants relative to the TES. (D) Growth in fluconazole (left) and doxorubicin (right) of genome-edited strains with Hsp90 active (no shading) and inhibited with radicicol (+Hsp90i; red shading). Each panel shows wild type YJM975 *NFS1*[*61G], and edited YJM975 *NFS1*[*61A] (blue stars) strains. Mean and s.e.m. are shown, normalized to the wild type; *p* values by *t* test against the same mutant strain without radicicol treatment; $n = 384$ per genotype. (E) Absolute change in allele effect for Hsp90-modified regulatory variants that were buffered (green) and potentiated (purple), sorted by whether the transcript exhibited allele-specific expression (left) or had a tag SNP but no allele-specific expression (right). Box plots show the median and upper

296 and lower quartiles; whiskers show 1.5 times the interquartile range; p values by t test; n as
297 indicated. See also [**Fig. S3**].

Hsp90 modifies variation in its clients and their targets

Our observation that both coding and non-coding variants drove Hsp90-dependent phenotypes led us to ask whether either were linked directly to Hsp90's well-characterized chaperone activity [**Fig. 4A**] or instead were connected by complex nonspecific percolation through regulatory circuitry. We initially considered both genetic and physical interactions, as genetic interactions provide information on functional connections that can be challenging to capture physically if the proteins in question are expressed at low levels, or if the relevant interactions are fleeting. Strikingly, modified alleles of all types were much more likely to occur in or regulate genes that interact with Hsp90 (Bonferroni-corrected $q < 10^{-5}$ for Hsc82, $q < 0.001$ for Hsp82) [**Fig. 4B**][66]. We also searched the interactors of Hsp70 chaperones, which collaborate with Hsp90 to catalyze the folding of many client proteins, and those of the Hsp70/Hsp90 Organizing Protein (HOP/Sti1[67–69]). These interactors were enriched for modified alleles ($q < 10^{-5}$ for Sti1 and the Hsp70 proteins Ssa1, Ssb1, and Sse1), and the well-characterized Hsp40 adaptor Ydj1 and the kinase co-chaperone Cdc37 exhibited similar enrichments ($q < 10^{-5}$) [**Fig. 4B**]. We also noted enrichments amongst the interactors of the Hsp70 homologue Lhs1 ($q < 0.003$) and Hsp40 homologue Xdj1 ($q < 0.02$), suggesting a role for ER and mitochondrial protein quality control in the effects we observed [**Fig. S4AB**]. Although the Hsp90-dependent phenotypes we identified were mechanistically diverse and often driven by *cis*-regulatory variation, most interacting variants (59.8%) occurred in genes that encode direct clients of the Hsp90/Hsp70/Sti1 chaperone system[36] ($p < 10^{-3}$ by Fisher's exact test). In fact, the genes controlled by interacting *cis*-regulatory variants exhibited particularly strong enrichments for both physical and genetic interactors of Hsp90 and related chaperones [**Fig. 4CD**]. This was consistent with the hypothesis that cells are sensitized to

the effects of regulatory mutations on mRNA levels when the client proteins they control are

destabilized or otherwise functionally compromised.

An unbiased analysis to identify the 'hub' genes with the most direct biological

connections[66] to the interacting SNPs also highlighted numerous members of the Hsp90/Hsp70

chaperone machinery (*e.g.* Hsc82, Hsp82, Ydj1, Ssa1, Ssb1, Cdc37, Sti1) amongst the genes most

connected to the Hsp90-dependent fitness effects we mapped [**Fig. 4EF**]. Moreover, 73 of the top

100 hubs were themselves interactors of Hsc82 or Hsp82 ($p < 10^{-22}$, Fisher's exact test), illustrating

the ubiquity of connections from the 'hub of hubs' Hsp90 to genes throughout the cellular network.

Notably, the hub candidates included not only ubiquitin ligase components such as Slx5 and the

kinase activator Mob2, but also numerous RNA-binding proteins including Dhh1, Ccr4, and Nab2

[**Fig. 4F**]. These interactions may point toward multiple mechanisms linking Hsp90 activity to the

outcomes of 3' and 5' UTR variation, as described above.

To better understand these second-order connections, we examined the targets of three

classes of regulatory proteins that are prominent amongst Hsp90's clientele: kinases, transcription

factors (TFs), and E3 ubiquitin ligases[70]. We first assessed which kinases might connect Hsp90

inhibition to changes in the effects of natural variants, identifying seventeen kinases whose

targets[38] were enriched for Hsp90-dependent variation (Bonferroni-corrected q value < 0.05) [**Fig.**

4G, Fig. S4C] of which thirteen are known to interact with Hsp90[71]. Two of the remaining four

interact with either Hsp70 or the kinase adapter Cdc37. Hsp90 exerted a broad influence via these

client kinases: ninety-two predicted targets of the client MAP kinase Slt2, for example, bore

interacting alleles[72]. The targets of these enriched kinases accounted for another 32.2% of the

interacting alleles in our experiments. Indeed, many of these kinases themselves respond to various

stresses (*e.g.*, DNA damage and replication checkpoints [Kcc4, Mek1, Rad53, Cdc28, Pcl2],

nutrient response [Gcn2, Pho80/Pho85, Rim15]), heat and cold shock and the UPR [Slt2, Kin1],

stress granule regulation [Sky1], and osmotic shock [Hog1]), adding another layer of potential

environmental specificity.

Modified variants were also enriched at the targets of five TFs [**Fig. 4G**, **Fig. S4D**; see

Methods][39] but comparatively poor characterization of the substrate specificity of E3 ligases[71] [see

Methods] limited our capacity to assess this class of clients, with only three ligases exhibiting

significant enrichments [**Fig. 4G**, **Fig. S4E**][73]. In spite of these limitations, our data establish that

> 90% of Hsp90's effects on the inheritance of biological traits can be explained by genetic

variation in direct targets of chaperone function or in the targets of kinases, a deeply conserved

class of Hsp90 client proteins. This close coupling enables the simultaneous modification of

multiple alleles in complex sub-networks engaged by the integration of diverse stress and signaling

inputs that control the function of Hsp90 and its client kinases.

Figure 4. Hsp90-dependent phenotypes arise from the Hsp90/Hsp70 chaperone network and client regulatory proteins. (A) Schematic of the Hsp90/Hsp70 chaperone network and associated co-chaperones and adapter proteins[74]. (B) Relative enrichment of interactors of the indicated proteins amongst Hsp90-modified alleles as compared to all segregating genetic variants. Interactions from the BioGRID database. Bonferroni-corrected q values from Fisher's exact test. (C) As in (B), for only regulatory Hsp90-modified variants and physical interactions from BioGRID. (D) As in (B), for only regulatory Hsp90-modified variants and genetic interactions from BioGRID. (E) Genes ranked by the fraction of their interactors amongst Hsp90-modified alleles. Inset: top 100 hits. Chaperone network components are colored as in (A). (F) Interaction enrichment q value (ordinate) as a function of the fraction of interactors amongst Hsp90-modified alleles (abscissa) for all genes in BioGRID. Chaperone network components are colored as in (A). Bonferroni-corrected q values from Fisher's exact test. (G) Relative enrichment of targets of the indicated proteins amongst Hsp90-modified alleles as compared to all segregating genetic variants. Left: kinases; middle: transcription factors; right: E3 ligases. Bonferroni-corrected q values from Fisher's exact test. All proteins shown have $q < 0.05$. See also [**Fig. S4**].

The influence of Hsp90 on complex heredity

The Hsp90-dependence of phenotype was often highly complex — the median trait comprised 142 modified alleles [**Fig. S5A**] – consistent with a widespread reservoir of co-regulated variants under the influence of Hsp90 activity. Hsp90-dependent growth in maltose, for example, depended on three separate large-effect alleles segregating at the *MAL1*, *MAL3*, and *GAL10/GAL1* loci. The modified loci at *MAL3* and *GAL10* included regulatory variants; the locus at *MAL1* mapped to a deletion encompassing three maltose metabolic genes – *IMA1, MAL11*, and *MAL13*[75]. This segmental deletion was much more deleterious to growth in maltose when Hsp90 was inhibited [**Fig. S4B**], indicating that it was buffered by the chaperone. Gal1 is an Hsp90 client, whereas Mal13, Mal33, and Gal10 are clients of Hsp70[36] and the kinase Yck3 is thought to act on Ima1[38], illustrating the far-reaching polygenic impact of the Hsp90 chaperone network.

These joint interactions resulted in a remarkably environment-specific effect of Hsp90 inhibition on fitness [**Fig. 5A**]. Yet despite Hsp90's pronounced impact in maltose, the three loci had negligible Hsp90 dependence in raffinose [**Fig. 5A**]. This was a general property of Hsp90-dependent heredity in our experiments: the effect of Hsp90 inhibition on the phenotypic consequences of variation was uncorrelated between different stress conditions [**Fig. S5C**]. To better understand how Hsp90 influenced the concerted effects of multiple variants, we examined the eight possible combinations of homozygous genotypes at these three loci and the fitness consequences of evolutionary paths between them. Several of these mutational steps were permitted (did not significantly decrease fitness) exclusively when Hsp90 was either fully active or inhibited [**Fig. S5D**]. This, in turn, altered the mutational paths accessible between genotypes without a stepwise decrease in fitness [**Fig. 5B**]. Simultaneously, Hsp90 inhibition coarsened the landscape: the effect of single-mutation steps[76] in this mutational neighborhood was increased

when Hsp90 was inhibited in maltose, but had little effect on the same transitions in raffinose [**Fig.**

5C]. We observed similar behavior for buffered variants linked to fluconazole resistance at

ERG11, *PDR1*, and *GRE2* [**Fig. 5DE**], and, as above, these gene products are closely linked to

Hsp90 activity: Erg11 is an Hsp90 client, Gre2 a client of Hsp70, and Pdr1 a predicted target of

the Rim15, Rad53, Kin1, and Hog1 kinases, among others[36,38]. These results illustrate how Hsp90

can affect polygenic adaptation in ways that are highly selective for a given environment. By

altering the effects of mutations from deleterious to permissible (neutral), chaperone activity

shapes the tradeoff between metabolic specialization and the accessibility of other phenotypes

when the environment changes.

Figure 5. Complex genetic architectures of Hsp90-dependent heredity. (A) Left: Mean normalized growth on maltose of F_6 segregants binned by their genotypes at *GAL10*, *MAL1*, and *MAL3* and organized by their mutational distance from the fittest genotype (*GAL10^{YJM975}*; *MAL1^{RM11}*; *MAL3^{RM11}*) without (black) and with (red; +Hsp90i) inhibition of Hsp90 by radicicol. Box plots show the median and upper and lower quartiles; whiskers show 1.5 times the interquartile range. Right: As left, but for growth in raffinose. (B) Phenotypic landscape of growth in maltose (top) or maltose with radicicol (bottom). Genotypes at *MAL1, MAL3,* and *GAL10* are as indicated in (A); the fitness of each genotype is encoded in the line width of the enclosing circle. Phenotypic landscapes highlight mutational paths accessible by drift (solid lines; reversible; do not significantly decrease fitness; nominal $p > 0.05$) and paths that alter fitness (dashed lines; irreversible; nominal $p < 0.05$). Indicated within each circle is the fitness of that genotype (in units of standard deviations of F_6 growth; adjusted such that fitness values are positive). (C) Change in mean normalized growth on maltose for all possible single-mutation steps amongst *GAL10*, *MAL1*, and *MAL3* alleles with (red) without (black) Hsp90 inhibition by radicicol (+Hsp90i). Box plots show the median and upper and lower quartiles; whiskers show 1.5 times the interquartile range. (D) As in (B), but for *ERG11*, *PDR1*, and *GRE2* in fluconazole and glucose. (E) As in (C), but for *ERG11*, *PDR1*, and *GRE2* in fluconazole and glucose. See also [**Fig. S5**].

Hsp90-dependent variation at young genes

Our identification of interacting variants not only at the *MAL* but also the *FLO* genes, young, rapidly evolving subtelomeric gene families with highly variable gene content across *S. cerevisiae*[77] [**Supplemental File S2**], prompted us to ask if evolutionarily young genes, as a group, were predisposed to harbor Hsp90-dependent variation. After stratifying all *S. cerevisiae* genes by evolutionary age[78] [**Fig. 6A**], we found that the youngest genes harbored alleles that exhibited the strongest Hsp90-dependent phenotypic effects [**Fig. 6B**]. Consistent with the prominent role for *cis*-regulation described above, this enrichment was driven predominantly by regulatory variation [**Fig. 6C**; **Fig. S5E**] and strong buffering interactions [**Fig. S5FG**].

In turn, subtelomeric regions across the genome exhibited an unusually high density of Hsp90-dependent mutations relative to their gene content ($p < 10^{-9}$) [**Fig. 6D**]. Indeed, even though the set of natural variants we examined harbors an excess of regulatory mutations near chromosome ends, Hsp90-dependent regulatory variants were nonetheless enriched in these hypervariable regions ($p < 0.03$) [**Fig. S5H**]. Across *S.* cerevisiae, both young and subtelomeric genes are enriched for coding and non-coding polymorphisms [**Fig. 6EF**] Moreover, subtelomeric Hsp90-dependent variants exhibited much stronger buffering interactions as compared to potentiations ($p < 10^{-4}$) than did variants in the remainder of the chromosome **Fig. 6G**]. Thus, Hsp90-buffered variation provides a potent reservoir of phenotypic novelty[79], particularly at subtelomeric genes, such as the *MAL* loci, that are known contribute to niche-specific adaptation and harbor more condition-specific alleles of large effect[77].

Figure 6. Hsp90 buffers the effects of subtelomeric genetic variation. (A) Schematic of phylogeny used to classify *S. cerevisiae* genes by their evolutionary age based on the presence or absence of homologues in the taxa shown. (B) Absolute change in allele effect for Hsp90-modified variants with ages as indicated. Box plots show the median and upper and lower quartiles; whiskers show 1.5 times the interquartile range; *p* values by Mann-Whitney *U* test. *n* as indicated. (C) As in (B), but only for Hsp90-modified variants outside of open reading frames. (D) Relative frequency of Hsp90-modified variants (blue) and all genes (grey) as a function of distance from the nearest chromosome end (normalized to chromosome length). *p* value by Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. (E) Left: Missense variants per base pair in the 1,002 Yeast Genomes collection for genes with ages as indicated. Right: As left, but for variants outside open reading frames. *p* values by Mann-Whitney *U* test. (F) Left: Missense variants per base pair in the 1,002 Yeast Genomes collection for genes with positions relative to the nearest chromosome end as indicated. Right: As left, but for variants outside open reading frames. *p* values by Mann-Whitney *U* test. (G) Absolute change in allele effect for Hsp90-buffered variants (green) and Hsp90-potentiated variants (purple)

with positions relative to the nearest chromosome end as indicated. *p* values by Mann-Whitney *U*
test. See also [**Fig. S5**].

A generalizable model for buffering by Hsp90

How does Hsp90 simultaneously buffer the outcomes of coding and non-coding variation? To

investigate this question, we returned to two observations from genetic mapping: first, that Hsp70

and Hsp90's direct clients were enriched in interacting genes, and second, that regulatory variation,

which does not alter protein sequence, was a central driver of Hsp90-dependent heredity. These

observations led us to hypothesize that Hsp90-dependence was often an intrinsic property of

certain gene products, rather than a property of particular mutations that led one allele to become

Hsp90-dependent.

To test this idea, we revisited the buffered *ERG11* regulatory variant [**Fig. 2A**].

Interestingly, genetic mapping also suggested a role for the neighboring Erg11[Asn433Lys] coding

variant in azole resistance when Hsp90 was fully active. We hypothesized that, due to a reduction

in Erg11 activity upon Hsp90 inhibition, the effects of both variants would be buffered [**Fig. 7A**].

After reconstructing sensitive strains bearing each variant singly as well as a strain bearing both

mutations, we found that, strikingly, the single and double mutants all exhibited buffered resistance

to azoles ($p < 10^{-4}$; $p < 0.001$) [**Fig. 7B**; **Fig. S6A**].

We next sought to explain why these distinct mutations were affected similarly by Hsp90.

Building on our observation that *cis*-regulatory variation is frequently buffered, we hypothesized

that this behavior could arise if activity-to-fitness relationships for a given gene modified by the

chaperone were sigmoidal rather than linear [**Fig. 7C**]. Sigmoidal relationships of this kind have

been observed empirically for combinations of mutations in proteins[80,81] and for combinations of

cis-regulatory variants at different genes[82]. Under normal physiological conditions, most such

relationships are relatively flat, permitting modestly perturbative variants to accumulate. However,

when environmental stress depletes the reservoir of Hsp90 function, sigmoidal activity-to-fitness

relationships would be transformed for genes that interact with the chaperone or its client kinases,

shifting toward the precipice of a high slope regime. The previously tolerated molecular

consequences of variants that cause the protein to be improperly folded, aberrantly post-

translationally modified, or decrease its expression would have a very different fitness impact due

to the increased local slope of the activity-fitness sigmoid, amplifying the phenotypic impact of

buffered variants. Such a model has a striking prediction: for a given locus such as *ERG11,* the

fitness effects of arbitrary mutations should depend on Hsp90 activity, and the phenotypic

consequences of reducing Erg11 activity should be buffered.

To test these predictions quantitatively, we used synthetic CRISPR interference[83] to reduce

ERG11 transcription in the YJM975 parent [**Fig. 7D**]. As compared to a non-targeting guide RNA,

reducing *ERG11* levels [**Fig. S6B**] caused a dose-dependent sensitivity to fluconazole [**Fig. 7E**].

In turn, Hsp90 inhibition caused a progressively greater sensitivity concomitant with decreasing

ERG11 transcription ($p < 10^{-8}$) [**Fig. 7EF**]. That is, the phenotypic consequences of reduced Erg11

activity were systematically buffered by Hsp90, just as we had observed for natural variation.

Reducing *ERG11* levels had no effect in the absence of azole, regardless of Hsp90 activity [**Fig.**

S6C], and comparable results were obtained in the RM11 parent, indicating that the phenomenon

was a general property of reduced Erg11 levels rather than a property of a specific *ERG11* genotype

[**Fig. S6D**].

Finally, we asked whether we could identify genes with a steep activity-fitness relationship

that might be more prone to Hsp90-dependent buffering. We examined haploinsufficient genes—

those whose heterozygous mutants affect the diploid—because reducing their expression by

approximately one-half leads to an appreciable phenotype [**Fig. S6E**]. Indeed, mutations in these

genes[84] had stronger Hsp90-dependent effects [**Fig. S6F**]. This did not arise simply because many

haploinsufficient genes are essential: essential genes that are not haploinsufficient did not exhibit

this trend. Moreover, in concordance with our model, these enrichments arose exclusively amongst

buffering interactions [**Fig. 7G**]. Intriguingly, human genes scored as more essential based on the

frequency of predicted loss-of-function mutants in gnomAD[85] or identified as haploinsufficient in

experiments in embryonic stem cells[86] are also enriched for known Hsp90 interactors[87] [**Fig. 7H**].

These genes may likewise be candidates to harbor Hsp90-buffered genetic variation arising from

sigmoidal activity-fitness relationships.

Figure 7: Hsp90 modifies the activity-fitness relationship. (A) Schematic of the effect of Hsp90 inhibition on fitness assuming a non-linear relationship between protein activity and phenotype. Mutations in the hypothetical gene increase activity; the fitness consequences of these changes are amplified when total activity is compromised by Hsp90 inhibition. (B) Growth in fluconazole of genome-edited strains with Hsp90 active (grey) and inhibited with radicicol (+Hsp90i; red). Each panel shows wild type YJM975, edited YJM975 *ERG11*^{122014C}, edited YJM975 Erg11^{433Lys}, and edited double-mutant YJM975 *ERG11*^{122014C} Erg11^{433Lys} strains. Data shown are mean and s.e.m. normalized to the wild type; *p* values by *t* test against the same mutant strain without radicicol treatment; *n* = 384 per genotype. (C) Schematic of the effect of Hsp90 inhibition on fitness assuming a non-linear relationship between protein activity and phenotype. Increasing CRISPRi expression reduces *ERG11* expression; the fitness consequences of these changes are amplified when total activity is compromised by Hsp90 inhibition. (D) Schematic of CRISPR transcriptional interference mediated by a dCas9:Mxi1 fusion and anhydrotetracycline (+aTc) inducible gRNA. (E) Growth of YJM975 haploid strains expressing either a non-targeting control gRNA (open boxes) or an anti-*ERG11* gRNA (closed boxes) in fluconazole without the addition of radicicol (grey boxes) or with radicicol (red boxes). Shown is the concentration of inducing molecule (aTc) added to each culture. Box plots show the median and upper and lower quartiles; whiskers show 1.5 times the interquartile range; *n* = 384 per genotype. (F) Data in (E) normalized to the growth of the YJM975 strain expressing the non-targeting control gRNA. Growth is in fluconazole without the addition of radicicol (black) or with radicicol (+Hsp90i; red). The concentrations of inducing molecule (aTc) added to each culture are (left to right) 1000 ng/µL, 500 ng/µL, 250 ng/µL, 125 ng/µL, and 62.5 ng/µL. Data shown are mean and s.e.m. (G) Absolute change in allele effect for Hsp90-modified variants in haploinsufficient genes, essential but not haploinsufficient genes, or all other genes, as indicated. Buffered interactions are shown at left (green) and potentiated interactions at right (purple). Box plots show the median and upper and lower quartiles; whiskers show 1.5 times the interquartile range; *p* values by *t* test; *n* as indicated. (H) Fraction of Hsp90-interacting gene products amongst all human genes, divided in quintiles by increasing gnomAD pLOF score (blue) and amongst genes haploinsufficient in embryonic stem cells (grey). See also [**Fig. S6**].

DISCUSSION

The influence of Hsp90 on the developmental and adaptive consequences of genetic variation has long been appreciated. However, aside from a handful of examples of mutations in client proteins, the molecular underpinnings of these effects have remained enigmatic. Here, the unprecedented scale of our nucleotide-resolution approach revealed a surprise: *cis*-regulatory variants, which by definition do not alter protein stability, emerged as a driver of nearly half of Hsp90-dependent phenotypes. This behavior arises naturally from the chaperone's pervasive influence on the activity-fitness relationships of core regulatory proteins. Buffering interactions, which are enriched amongst these relationships, position Hsp90 to govern the release of cryptic, potentially adaptive variation in this regulatory circuitry. This mechanism combines the privileged evolutionary role of *cis*-regulatory variation[88], which enables sophisticated spatiotemporal programming, with the exquisite stress-dependent regulation of the Hsp90 chaperone machinery to release adaptive phenotypes under stress.

The preponderance of this behavior in the concise budding yeast genome suggests that interactions between Hsp90 and regulatory variation may be even more prominent in organisms with more elaborate regulatory architectures. Considering the modest number of conditions we surveyed in our experiments, the involvement of more than 10% of genes in Hsp90-dependent phenotypes emphasizes the widespread influence of Hsp90 on heredity. Indeed, the pragmatic need for a low density of polymorphisms in our panel means that our results likely represent a lower bound on the prevalence of this phenomenon, even in budding yeast. Significant technical advances are still needed to understand Hsp90-dependent alleles of small effect and genetic epistasis that is itself controlled by chaperone activity, both of which may play a role in Hsp90-dependent heredity. Nonetheless, even generous estimates of the contribution of epistasis suggest

that, for some phenotypic transformations driven by the chaperone, other heritable variation that

depends on Hsp90 activity (*e.g.*, prions[89] or long-lived chromatin modifications[6]) may also play

an important role.

Our experiments identified numerous instances in which the effect of Hsp90 activity on

fixed natural polymorphisms was as large as the effect of the variant alone. These were widespread

throughout the genome, and although it is not straightforward to infer selection coefficients

directly from genetic mapping experiments, the effects we observed likely exceed the threshold

for effective selection by multiple orders of magnitude. That many Hsp90-contingent effects were

buffered and highly condition-specific further suggests a role in adaptation. Connecting a wide

array of mutations to chaperone activity both directly and *via* client regulatory proteins may confer

a particular advantage in rapidly changing environments[90], when modular regulons can be engaged

in a stress-dependent fashion (*e.g.* by kinases).

Indeed, multiple mechanisms may converge on a single protein: many interacting alleles

at direct clients were also *trans* targets of client regulators. The environmental specificity of these

interactions means that buffered variation can accumulate under normal conditions without

compromising fitness. At the same time, this variation is likely shaped by repeated selection during

periods when Hsp90 activity is compromised. This allows a greater diversity of genetic variation

to persist in the population[91], broadening the accessible adaptive trajectories under stress.

Moreover, by virtue of repeated cycles of selection, this reservoir of genetic potential may be

predisposed to drive adaptive phenotypes[92]. Our results also explain why Hsp90 has such a

profound impact on development, where the revelation of phenotypes due to *cis*-acting regulation

would have especially potent consequences.

Might there be an advantage to maintaining such a dependence on Hsp90? Some

connections may be an inevitable consequence of kinase structure and dynamics, although the

diversity of client status within kinases families suggests that these proteins can readily evolve

away from chaperone dependence[8]. Our results illustrate a potential evolutionary advantage for

the retention of this dependence. Sigmoidal activity-to-fitness relationships, which are common

among Hsp90 clients, limit the fitness effects of modest perturbations to a protein's activity. Yet

they also amplify the phenotypic consequences of variants that spark larger excursions in activity.

Coupling Hsp90 function to the shape of such activity-to-fitness relationships thus provides a route

for organisms to reconcile the competing evolutionary demands of robustness and evolvability by

modulating the fitness consequences of changes in activity in response to environmental

conditions.

The mechanisms we have discovered allow the evolutionary potential of variants of large

effect to be harnessed precisely when organisms are most ill-suited to their environments. The

involvement of highly polymorphic subtelomeric genes may enhance this phenomenon, as may

other environmentally responsive mechanisms, such as the Hsp90-dependent [*ESI*+] prion. This

epigenetic element regulates the expression of previously silent genetic information in precisely

these regions[93]. In some instances, Hsp90 contingency may even be co-opted as a regulatory

strategy. Haploinsufficient genes, which are enriched in Hsp90 clients, may preferentially harbor

such buffered *cis*-regulatory effects, and our data suggest *cis*-regulatory variants controlling

proteins known to interact with Hsp90 or its client kinases may be especially profitable to explore.

Understanding how the integration of Hsp90 and kinase signaling modules enable re-interpretation

of the genotype-to-phenotype relationship in different environmental contexts is also an exciting

avenue for future discovery.

Prior studies have indicated that Hsp90 facilitates the accumulation of coding variation in clients[94], accelerating their evolution[95]. Our findings suggest that the chaperone enables the accumulation of cryptic regulatory variation at these genes at least as strongly, which provides an unappreciated and appealing potential mechanism for the influence of Hsp90 on developmental evolution in diverse systems from fruit flies to Mexican cavefish. Likewise, in cancer and in pathogens, the buffering of drug-resistant regulatory mutations by Hsp90 may allow their accumulation, subsequently being enriched amongst the surviving cells following treatment and promoting future drug-resistance. This, in turn, suggests that a paradigm favoring therapeutic Hsp90 inhibition, predicated on the Hsp90-addicted v-Src kinase, may be counterproductive if cryptic, buffered resistance is revealed and enriched. Distinguishing cases in which Hsp90 inhibition is helpful or deleterious to treatment is an important question for future investigation, as is the relationship between an individual's reservoir of Hsp90-dependent buffering capacity and their polygenic risk for genetic disease. The decline of this buffering reservoir throughout the lifespan may also contribute to the emergence of pathologies with age.

Our findings address long-standing mechanistic questions surrounding the role of Hsp90 in transmuting genetic variation into selectable phenotypes. Hsp90's activity and connectivity with an expansive regulon of client proteins position it to control activity-fitness relationships, and their evolution, throughout the core eukaryotic regulatory circuitry. In turn, the effects of numerous coding and regulatory variants simultaneously depend strongly on its stress-regulated activity. Finally, the acute environmental specificity of these buffered fitness effects facilitates their accumulation in advance of stress. Together, these features render Hsp90 a central governor of the critical evolutionary tradeoff between robustness and adaptability in the face of a changing environment, when diversification is most crucial.

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Author contributions: C.M.J., J.A.-R., and D.F.J. conceived the project. C.M.J. performed pilot,

mapping, genome editing, phenotyping, and transcriptomic experiments, designed and

implemented the genetic mapping pipeline, performed transcriptomic and bioinformatic analyses,

and prepared the figures. J.A.-R. performed pilot experiments, designed genome editing reagents,

and performed genome editing experiments. C.M.J. wrote the original draft of the manuscript.

C.M.J. and D.F.J. reviewed and edited the manuscript with input from J.A.-R.

Declaration of interests: The authors declare no competing interests.

List of Supplemental Figures and Tables:

Supplemental Figure S1: Related to Figure 1.

Supplemental Figure S2: Related to Figure 2.

Supplemental Figure S3: Related to Figure 3.

Supplemental Figure S4: Related to Figure 4.

Supplemental Figure S5: Related to Figure 5 and Figure 6.

Supplemental Figure S6: Related to Figure 7.

Supplemental Figure S7: Related to Method Details.

Supplemental Table S1: Stress conditions used in this study.

STAR METHODS

Resource availability

Lead contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be

fulfilled by Prof. Daniel F. Jarosz (jarosz@stanford.edu).

Materials availability

The original F_6 haploid genetic mapping panel is available from the National Collection of Yeast

Cultures and the F_6 diploid mapping panel and all other yeast strains described here are available

upon request to Prof. Daniel F. Jarosz (jarosz@stanford.edu).Bacterial strains bearing plasmids

used here are likewise available upon request. Various CRISPEY gene editing plasmids are

available from AddGene.

Data and code availability

All data supporting the findings of this study are available within the paper and its Supplemental

Materials. All data required to recapitulate the mapping results and analyses are available at

https://www.dropbox.com/scl/fo/0bx04fxbmzdm2tx63o2im/ACqBYF9kjZCe0DyLybhnJzU?rlke

y=49cj84huufa5b2j7ikvamgigf&dl=0. All code required to generate the figures is available at

https://github.com/cjakobson/hsp90-mapping. Upon publication a snapshot of the code and

dependencies will be deposited as a Zenodo repository. RNA sequencing data are available at the

Gene Expression Omnibus (GSE242925). Raw images of phenotyping experiments and custom

code for cropping images and estimating spot sizes are available upon reasonable request to Prof.

Daniel F. Jarosz (jarosz@stanford.edu).

Experimental model details

Yeast strains

The construction and genotypes of the parents of the F_6 haploid collection, RM11 and YJM975, are described in She and Jarosz[31]. Briefly, the F_6 diploids used here were constructed by mating *leu⁻HYG*[R] and *LEU⁺hyg*[S] F_6 haploid isolates genotyped previously[31] on YPD agar [RPI] followed by selection for diploidy on synthetic defined medium lacking leucine [Sunrise] and supplemented with 200 mg/L hygromycin. These F_6 diploids were arrayed into 384-well microtiter plates for cryostorage in SD-Leu+Hyg with 15% glycerol. All robotic manipulations were carried out using a Singer ROTOR pinning robot. The RM11 and YJM975 haploid parents of the original genetic cross bear auxotrophies used to facilitate crossing that are not present in the final F_6 diploid mapping panel. To avoid undesired interactions with these auxotrophies during validation experiments, reconstructions of Hsp90-interacting alleles were carried out in strains YDJ6635 (YJM975a from the SGRP haploid collection[32]) and YDJ6649 (a spore derived from diploid RM11a/α), both of which are auxotrophic only for uracil. Key yeast strains and plasmids are listed in the **Key Resources Table**.

Yeast culture conditions

Unless otherwise noted, yeast were propagated and phenotyped in minimal glucose medium consisting of 6.7 g/L yeast nitrogen base [RPI] and 20 g/L glucose [Sigma] supplemented with 20 mg/L uracil [Sigma] to satisfy the lone auxotrophy of the F_6 diploid panel. Prior to phenotyping experiments, diploid strains were revived from frozen stocks in liquid SD-Leu+Hyg medium in 384-well microtiter plates, propagated 24 hr at 30°C, then pinned to 1536-spot arrays on minimal glucose agar PlusPlates [Singer] and grown for 24 hr – 48 hr at 30°C. 1536-spot source plates prepared as described above were replicated to conditions as indicated using a Singer ROTOR

1016 pinning robot. Plates were incubated at 30°C and imaged at 24 hr intervals using an Epson V800

1017 scanner. Images were cropped using custom R scripts and spot sizes were quantified using the

1018 *gitter* R package. Colony sizes were extracted for genetic mapping using custom MATLAB scripts.

1019 Working concentrations for the various environmental perturbations are described in

1020 **Supplemental Table S1**.

1021

Method details

v-Src *assay for Hsp90 activity*

v-Src was expressed under the control of a galactose-inducible promoter from PDJ308 in the F_0

heterozygous diploid YDJ5924. Cells were grown on solid medium containing either 2% glucose

(repressing) or 2% galactose (inducing) as the sole carbon source and with or without 10 μM

radicicol; Images were cropped using custom R scripts and spot sizes were quantified using the

gitter R package[96].

Western blotting

Cell lysis was conducted by bead beating in 20% trichloroacetic acid for 10 min at 50 Hz. Cell

mass was normalized by optical density prior to lysis; approximately 1 OD-mL of cell mass was

used per sample. Protein was precipitated for 30 min at ~23,000 x g at 4°C and the precipitate was

resuspended in Tris pH 7.5 with 2% SDS before denaturation at 95°C for 5 min. Polyacrylamide

gel electrophoresis was performed using 12-20% gradient gels at 120 V for 75 min. Proteins were

transferred to PVDF membranes in Towbin transfer buffer for 2 hr at 100 V. Membranes were

blocked with rehydrated milk, probed overnight at 4°C, and developed using WestFemto

chemiluminescent substrate. Matched gels loaded with equal sample volumes were stained with

Coomassie brilliant blue in parallel to western blotting. When required for reprobing, membranes

were stripped of primary and secondary antibodies by boiling in Tris-buffered saline for 5 min.

Antibodies are listed below.

Genome editing using CRISPEY

Oligonucleotides containing appropriate guide and donor sequences for CRISPEY editing were

designed as described by Sharon and colleagues[35] using code provided in that study. Oligos were

designed separately for RM11 to YJM975 and YJM975 to RM11 mutations to account for

differences in guide and template sequences due to neighboring polymorphisms (see **Key**

Resources Table). SRR800790 and SRR1569760 were used as reference genomes for YJM975

and RM11, respectively. Gene editing was conducted largely as described in Sharon and

colleagues[35]. Briefly, dsDNA was synthesized from oligos by PCR, dsDNA fragments were

inserted into the NotI-digested PDJ2318 editing plasmid by isothermal assembly using a 2xHiFi

Assembly kit, and the ligated DNA was transformed into chemically competent *E. coli*. Gene

editing of yeast was performed by transformation of the editing plasmid and selection on SD-Ura

followed by 24h of growth in synthetic galactose medium lacking uracil. From these editing

reactions, yeast cells were streaked to single colonies on YPD plates followed by restreaking to 5-

FOA plates to cure the editing plasmid. Single colonies were genotyped by PCR and Sanger

sequencing of the desired edited locus; screening two colonies per edit was typically sufficient to

recover an edited clone.

Homozygous diploid mRNA sequencing

Cell were grown in triplicate in minimal media as described above with and without 10 µM

radicicol and harvested at OD ~ 0.8-1.0. Cell pellets were snap-frozen and stored at -80°C before

submission to BGI for RNA extraction, polyA enrichment, reverse transcription, and sequencing,

as described above for allele-specific expression analysis. Transcript abundance was again

estimated using *kallisto*. Transcripts per million (TPM) estimates agreed well between replicates

[**Fig. S7**]. Results are summarized in **Supplemental Table S4**.

CRISPR interference

CRISPRi plasmids were cloned as described in Smith *et al.* Briefly, the anti-*ERG11* guide RNA

sequence was ordered as an ssDNA oligonucleotide and amplified using extension primers as

described in[83]. The CRISPRi plasmid (p416gT-Gal4-dCas9-Mxi1) was opened with NotI and the

anti-*ERG11* guide inserted by isothermal assembly using a 2xHiFi Assembly kit, and the ligated

DNA was transformed into chemically competent *E. coli* to create PDJ2494. After transformation

into *S. cerevisiae* alongside a matched control plasmid with a non-targeting gRNA (PDJ397),

strains were pre-grown for 24 hrs in the appropriate concentration of anhydrotetracycline (aTc) to

establish steady-state knock-down then subjected to phenotyping under the appropriate aTc

concentrations as described. Knock-down of Erg11 was quantified using a C-terminal fusion of

mNeonGreen to the *ERG11* ORF[97].

1075

Quantification and statistical analysis

Genetic mapping

Prior to analysis, colony sizes were normalized to mean 0 and variance 1 (*i.e.* Z-scored) and filtered

for outliers attributable to missing spots or debris (due to occasional pinning errors or image

artifacts). Trait vectors were filtered for strains with an excess of missing genotypes and markers

with insufficient genotype coverage were excluded. Statistical genetic mapping was performed

essentially as described previously[30], with the difference that in the present work we mapped the

change in the Z-scored trait for each segregant in each condition with and without 10 μM radicicol

treatment. Briefly, coarse mapping was conducted by sequential stepwise selection on the

homozygous followed by full (homozygous and heterozygous) genotype matrices. Fine mapping

was conducted by ANOVA on *in silico* allele swaps as described in She and Jarosz 2018[31]. The

genotype matrix included geometric pseudogenotypes corresponding to edge wells and to capture

systematic plate-to-plate variability. Loci that were fine-mapped for one trait were inferred to be

the underlying causal variant for other traits in which they were the lead candidate.

1002 Genomes yeast strains and phylogenetic analysis

Genotype information for the 1,002 Genomes collection and the corresponding yeast strains[33] were

a generous gift of Joseph Schacherer (Univ. of Strasbourg). Frozen stocks were revived and

phenotyping experiments performed as described above for the F_6 diploid mapping panel. Growth

measurements and quantification were conducted by optical scanning of Singer PlusPlates using

gitter and custom code as described above.

Allele-specific expression analysis

Cells were grown in triplicate in minimal media as described above with and without 10 μM

radicicol and harvested at OD ~ 0.8-1.0. Cell pellets were snap-frozen and stored at -80°C before

submission to BGI (www.bgi.com/us/home) for RNA extraction, polyA enrichment, reverse

transcription, and sequencing. Transcript abundance was estimated using *kallisto*[98] and read counts

per-site were estimated with *bcftools*[99] from *kallisto* pseudo-alignments. Allele-specific expression

was called per-site based on a binomial test against the prior of major allele frequency = 0.5, with

genome-wide Bonferroni correction based on the number of transcribed biallelic sites. Indels were

excluded. After per-site calling, SNPs were assigned to genes and genes were assigned allelic

imbalances if any SNP associated with their transcript exhibited significant allele-specific

expression in any of the three replicate sequencing samples. Allelic imbalances agreed well

between replicates [**Fig. S7**]. Results are summarized in **Supplemental Table S3**. Sensitivity

estimates were conducted based on a sliding simulated read depth followed by binomial tests, with

mock Bonferroni correction performed assuming the true number of transcribed biallelic sites in

the hybrid diploid.

Bioinformatic resources and enrichment analyses

Genomic analyses used the *S. cerevisiae* R64 reference genome unless otherwise noted.

Transcription start and end sites were retrieved from[100]. Targets of sequence-specific transcription

factors were retrieved from[39]. Predicted kinase targets were retrieved from[38]. Enriched TF hits

were logically connected to Hsp90 function: Mig1[101] and Pdr1[25] interact with Hsp90; Hsp90

inhibition downregulates Met4 targets[7]; and Yap1[102] and Stb5[103] homologues interact with Hsp90

in other species. Modified alleles at targets of Pdr1 and Stb5 were enriched for fitness effects in

fluconazole, consistent with the role of these TFs in multidrug resistance. Although several E3

ligases exhibited modest enrichments for BioGRID physical interactors, only three (Etp1, Siz1,

and Ssm4) were significant ($q < 0.05$) after multiple-testing correction. We also examined the

targets of RNA-binding proteins based on PAR-CLIP and other interaction data (from the

POSTAR3 database), but did not observe any significant enrichments ($q < 0.05$) after multiple-

testing correction[104]. Gene and protein descriptions and GO terms were retrieved from SGD[71] and

UniProt[105]. Predicted protein structures were retrieved from the AlphaFold Protein Structure

Database[51]. Gene age estimates were retrieved from[78]. Haploinsufficient genes in *S. cerevisiae*

were retrieved from[84]. pLoF data was retrieved from[85]. Haploinsufficient genes in human

embryonic stem cells were retrieved from[86].

Key Resources Table

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
Anti-Hsp104	Enzo Life Sci.	ADI-SPA-1040
Anti-Pgk1	Invitrogen	22C5D8
Chemicals		
Yeast nitrogen base	RPI	Y20040
Glucose	Fisher	D16-3
Uracil	Sigma	U0750
Agar	IBI	IB49170
Maltose	Sigma	M9171
Raffinose	RPI	R20500
Ethanol (95%)	Fisher	04-355-226
4-nitroquinoline 1-oxide [4-NQO]	Sigma	N8141
Doxorubicin	Cayman	15007
Fluconazole	TCI	F0677
Lithium chloride	Acros	AC19988
Nickel sulfate	Sigma	227676
Rapamycin	Cayman	13346
Tebuconazole	Santa Cruz	SC204906
Deposited data		
mRNA sequencing data	This study	Gene Expression Omnibus (GSE242925)
Genetic mapping data	This study	Zenodo repository available upon publication.
Organisms/strains		
F_6 diploid progeny derived from RM11 x YJM975	Jakobson and Jarosz[30]	n/a
YJM975 haploid *LEU$^+$HIS$^+$ura$^-$ MATa*	Liti *et al.*[32]	YDJ6635
RM11 haploid *LEU$^+$HIS$^+$ura$^-$ MATα*	This study	YDJ6649
RM11/YJM975 F_0 heterozygous diploid	This study	YDJ5924
YJM975 haploid *LEU$^+$HIS$^+$ura$^-$ MATa AVO3^{Lys1342Thr}*	This study	YDJ8426
RM11 haploid *LEU$^+$HIS$^+$ura$^-$ MATα AVO3^{Thr1342Lys}*	This study	YDJ8428
YJM975 haploid *LEU$^+$HIS$^+$ura$^-$ MATa ERG11^{T122014C}*	This study	YDJ8281
RM11 haploid *LEU$^+$HIS$^+$ura$^-$ MATα ERG11^{C122014T}*	This study	YDJ8280
YJM975 haploid *LEU$^+$HIS$^+$ura$^-$ MATa NFS1^{T92671C}*	This study	YDJ9255
YJM975 haploid *LEU$^+$HIS$^+$ura$^-$ MATa ERG11^{Asn433Lys}*	This study	YDJ8436
YJM975 haploid *LEU$^+$HIS$^+$ura$^-$ MATa ERG11$^{T122014C/Asn433Lys}$*	This study	YDJ8437
Oligonucleotides		

AVO3 RM>YJM GAGTTACTGTCTGTTTTCCTTGAAAGGATATGA TTGCCTAGCTGACTTACTATATGTAGTACCTTG CTCTCGATGGAGTCATCGTCATTGCGGTATTGT GTAACATAGGGAGAAGAAAGGAGGAAACCCG TTTCTTCTGACGTAAGGGTGCGCAATGTAGTAC CGTGCTCTCGAGTTTCAGAGCTATGCTGGAA	This study	CMJP595- 597+CMJP602- 603
AVO3 YJM>RM GAGTTACTGTCTGTTTTCCTTGAAAGGATATGA TTGCCTAGCTGACTTACTATATGTAGTACCGTG CTCTCGATGGAGTCATCGTCATTGCGGTATTGT GTAACATAGGGAGAAGAAAGGAGGAAACCCG TTTCTTCTGACGTAAGGGTGCGCAATGTAGTAC CTTGCTCTCGAGTTTCAGAGCTATGCTGGAA	This study	CMJP595- 597+CMJP604- 605
ERG11[122014] RM>YJM GAGTTACTGTCTGTTTTCCTATGGAGGGCAATT TTTAGAGGCTTTTCGAATACATGCGAGTACGTA AACGTCGTTAACTCGTGGAGATGCACAATAGG ATGTGCTCATATCAAGAAAAAAAGGAAACCCG TTTCTTCTGACGTAAGGGTGCGCAACGTAAAC GCCGTTAACTCGGTTTCAGAGCTATGCTGGAA	This study	RM_SNP_4
ERG11[122014] YJM>RM GAGTTACTGTCTGTTTTCCTATGGAGGGCAATT TTTAGAGGCTTTTCGAATACATGCGAGTACGTA AACGCCGTTAACTCGTGGAGATGCACAATAGG ATGTGCTCATATCAAGAAAAAAAGGAAACCCG TTTCTTCTGACGTAAGGGTGCGCAACGTAAAC GTCGTTAACTCGGTTTCAGAGCTATGCTGGAA	This study	YJM_SNP_4
ERG11[433] YJM>RM GAGTTACTGTCTGTTTTCCTCGTAATCGACTTC TTCACCGACGGAATAAGAGGAGGCAGAATCTT TGTTCCAACGGTGAATGTTGAATTGGTGAGCA TTAGGGAAGTATTCGTCTCTTAAAGGAAACCC GTTTCTTCTGACGTAAGGGTGCGCAAGGCAGA ATCGTTGTTCCAAGTTTCAGAGCTATGCTGGA A	This study	CMJP670
NFS1 YJM>RM GAGTTACTGTCTGTTTTCCTAATTGCACTTTAA CATTAATATTGACAAGGAGGAGGGCACCACAC AAAAAGTTAGGTGTAACAGAAAATCATGAAAC TATGATTTCTAATTTATATATTGAGGAAACCCGT TTCTTCTGACGTAAGGGTGCGCAAGGGCATCA CACAAAAAGTTGTTTCAGAGCTATGCTGGAA	This study	CMJP718
anti-*ERG11* gRNA ctgggagctgcgattggcagATAATTTACCAATAACGAAA gttttagagctagaaatagc	Smith *et al.*[83]	CMJP769

CRISPRi extension primer 1 gactagccttattttaacttgctatttctagctctaaaac	Smith *et al.*[83]	CMJP770
CRISPRi extension primer 2 tcgcggctgggaacgaaactctgggagctgcgattggcag	Smith *et al.*[83]	CMJP771
Recombinant DNA		
pRS316 CEN Cb/URA3 pGAL::v-Src	D. Morgan (UCSF)	PDJ308
CRISPEY editing vector *pEASY CEN Cb/URA3 pGAL::Cas9 pGAL::RT Ec86 pGAL::sgRNA::template*	This study	PDJ2318
CRISPRi control vector *pRS416 CEN Cb/URA3 pTEF1::dCas9::Mxi1 pRPR1:gRNA (non-targeting)*	Smith *et al.*[83]	PDJ397
anti-*ERG11* CRISPRi *pRS416 CEN Cb/URA3 pTEF1::dCas9::Mxi1 pRPR1:gRNA (anti-ERG11)*	This study	PDJ2494
Software and algorithms		
Custom genetic mapping code	This study	https://github.com/cjakobson/hsp90-mapping
Gitter	Wagih and Parts[96]	https://omarwagih.github.io/gitter/
Kallisto	Bray *et al.*[98]	https://pachterlab.github.io/kallisto/
Bcftools	Danecek *et al.*[99]	https://samtools.github.io/bcftools/bcftools.html

1129

1130 **List of Other Supplemental Items:**

1131   Supplemental Table S2: Summary of genetic mapping results.

1132   Supplemental Table S3: Allele-specific expression data.

1133   Supplemental Table S4: Homozygous diploid mRNA expression data.