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Title: A yeast phenomic model for the influence of Warburg metabolism on genetic

buffering of doxorubicin

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Abstract:

Background:

Saccharomyces cerevisiae represses respiration in the presence of adequate glucose, mimicking the Warburg effect, termed aerobic glycolysis. We conducted yeast phenomic experiments to characterize differential doxorubicin-gene interaction, in the context of respiration *vs.* glycolysis. The resulting systems level biology about doxorubicin cytotoxicity, including the influence of the Warburg effect, was integrated with cancer pharmacogenomics data to identify potentially causal correlations between differential gene expression and anti-cancer efficacy.

Methods:

Quantitative high-throughput cell array phenotyping (Q-HTCP) was used to measure cell proliferation phenotypes (CPPs) of the yeast gene knockout/knockdown library, treated with escalating doxorubicin concentrations in fermentable and non-fermentable media. Doxorubicin-gene interaction was quantified by departure of the observed and expected phenotypes for the doxorubicin-treated mutant strain, with respect to phenotypes for the untreated mutant strain and both the treated and untreated reference strain. Recursive expectation-maximization clustering (REMc) and Gene Ontology-based analyses of interactions were used to identify functional biological modules that buffer doxorubicin cytotoxicity, and to characterize their Warburg-dependence. Yeast phenomic data was applied to cancer cell line pharmacogenomics data to predict differential gene expression that causally influences the anti-tumor efficacy, and potentially the anthracycline-associated host toxicity, of doxorubicin.

Results:

Doxorubicin cytotoxicity was greater with respiration, suggesting the Warburg effect can influence therapeutic efficacy. Accordingly, doxorubicin drug-gene interaction was more

extensive with respiration, including increased buffering by cellular processes related to chromatin organization, protein folding and modification, translation reinitiation, spermine metabolism, and fatty acid beta-oxidation. Pathway enrichment was less notable for glycolysis-specific buffering. Cellular processes exerting influence relatively independently, with respect to Warburg status, included homologous recombination, sphingolipid homeostasis, telomere tethering at nuclear periphery, and actin cortical patch localization. Causality for differential gene expression associated with doxorubicin cytotoxicity in tumor cells was predicted within the biological context of the phenomic model.

Conclusions:

Warburg status influences the genetic requirements to buffer doxorubicin toxicity. Yeast phenomics provides an experimental platform to model the complexity of gene interaction networks that influence human disease phenotypes, as in this example of chemotherapy response. High-resolution, systems level yeast phenotyping is useful to predict the biological influence of functional variation on disease, offering the potential to fundamentally advance precision medicine.

Keywords:

genetic buffering, yeast phenomics, quantitative high throughput cell array phenotyping (Q-HTCP), cell proliferation parameters (CPPs), doxorubicin, Warburg metabolism, differential gene interaction networks, recursive expectation-maximization clustering (REMc), pharmacogenomics, human-like / HL yeast media

Background:

Doxorubicin is used widely in oncology to treat both hematologic cancer and solid tumors [1]. Proposed mechanisms of doxorubicin cytotoxicity include topoisomerase II poisoning, DNA adduct formation, oxidative stress, and ceramide overproduction [1-6]. Topoisomerase II is an ATP-dependent enzyme that relieves the DNA torsional stress occurring with replication or transcription by catalyzing a double-stranded DNA (**dsDNA**) break, relaxing positive and negative DNA supercoiling, and finally re-ligating the DNA [7]. Inhibiting this activity can result in irreparable DNA damage and induction of apoptosis, selectively killing rapidly dividing proliferating cells [8-10]. Doxorubicin also causes histone eviction leading to chromatin trapping and damage [2, 11-13]. In addition to its potent anti-cancer therapeutic properties, doxorubicin is known for dose-limiting cardiomyocyte toxicity, causing cardiomyopathy and heart failure years post-treatment [14]. In this regard, topoisomerase IIB is highly expressed specifically in myocardiocytes, where tissue-specific deletion suppresses cardiac toxicity in mice [15]. Clinical guidelines recommend a maximum cumulative lifetime dose of 500 mg/m^2; however, doxorubicin toxicity is variable and has a genetic basis [16]. Thus, a detailed understanding of drug-gene interaction could advance the rationale for more precisely prescribing doxorubicin (among other cytotoxic agents) and also predicting toxicity, based on the unique genetic context of each patient's tumor genetic profile as well as germline functional variation.

This work establishes a yeast phenomic model to understand genetic pathways that buffer doxorubicin toxicity [17-23], and how the Warburg effect influences the doxorubicin-gene interaction network. Warburg won the Nobel Prize in 1931, yet there remains lack of consensus about how cancer cells undergo the Warburg transition and how aerobic glycolysis contributes to cancer [24-27]. In humans, aerobic glycolysis is considered a tumor-specific metabolic transition; however, yeast normally repress

respiration in the presence of adequate glucose [28-30]. Thus, we wondered whether

doxorubicin-gene interaction manifests differentially under glycolytic vs. respiratory

conditions in yeast and if genetic insights from this model could lead to better

understanding its variable anti-tumor efficacy between different patients [17]. We

observed increased toxicity of doxorubicin in non-fermentable media, where yeast must

respire to proliferate, suggesting the Warburg transition could confer resistance of tumor

cells to doxorubicin, and perhaps help explain the dose-limiting toxicity observed in

cardiomyocytes, which have respiratory rates among the highest of all cell types [31].

We conducted yeast phenomic analysis of doxorubicin-gene interaction,

consisting of quantitative high throughput cell array phenotyping (**Q-HTCP**) of the yeast

knockout and knockdown (**YKO/KD**) libraries, using multiple growth inhibitory

concentrations of doxorubicin in either dextrose- (**HLD**) or ethanol/glycerol-based

(**HLEG**) media. Q-HTCP provided cell proliferation parameters (**CPPs**) with which to

quantify doxorubicin-gene interaction and determine its dependence on respiratory *vs.*

glycolytic metabolism [32-34]. The yeast phenomic model was used to predict causality

underlying correlations between doxorubicin sensitivity and increased or decreased

expression of the homologous human gene in pharmacogenomics data from cancer cell

lines. Thus, the work details genetic pathways for buffering doxorubicin toxicity in yeast

and applies the information to predict interactions between doxorubicin and functional

genetic variation manifest in cancers from different, individual patients.

Methods:

Strains and media

The yeast gene knockout strain library (**YKO**) was obtained from Research

Genetics (Huntsville, AL, USA). The knockdown (**KD**) collection, also known as the

Decreased Abundance of mRNA Production (**DAmP**) library, was obtained from Open

Biosystems (Huntsville, AL, USA). The genetic background for the YKO library was

BY4741 (S288C MAT**a** *ura3-Δ0 his3-Δ1 leu2-Δ0 met17-Δ0*). Additional information and

lists of strains can be obtained at https://dharmacon.horizondiscovery.com/cdnas-and-

orfs/non-mammalian-cdnas-and-orfs/yeast/#all. Some mutants appear multiple times in

the library and they are treated independently in our analysis. HL yeast media, a

modified synthetic complete media [20], was used with either 2% dextrose (HLD) or 3%

ethanol and 3% glycerol (HLEG) as the carbon source.

Quantitative high throughput cell array phenotyping (Q-HTCP)

Phenomic data was obtained by Q-HTCP, a custom, automated method of

collecting growth curve phenotypes for the YKO/KD library arrayed onto agar media [34].

A Caliper Sciclone 3000 liquid handling robot was used for cell array printing, integrated

with a custom imaging robot (Hartman laboratory) and Cytomat 6001 (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, Asheville, NC, USA) incubator. 384-culture array images were obtained

approximately every 2 hours and analyzed as previously described [21, 34]. To obtain

CPPs, image data were fit to the logistic equation, $G(t) = K/(1 + e^{-r(t-l)})$, assuming $G(0) <$

K, where $G(t)$ is the image intensity of a spotted culture vs. time, K is the carrying

capacity, r is the maximum specific growth rate, and l is the moment of maximal absolute

growth rate, occurring when $G(t) = K/2$ (the time to reach half of carrying capacity) [32].

The resulting CPPs were used as phenotypes to measure doxorubicin-gene interaction.

Quantification of doxorubicin-gene interaction

Gene interaction was defined by departure of the corresponding YKO/KD strain

from its expected phenotypic response to doxorubicin. The expected phenotype was

determined by cell proliferation phenotypes of the mutant without doxorubicin, together

with those of the reference strain with and without doxorubicin [17-19, 21]. The

concentrations of doxorubicin (0, 2.5, 5, 7.5 and 15 ug/mL) were chosen based on

phenotypic responses being functionally discriminating in the parental strain. We tested

for effects of mating type or ploidy on doxorubicin growth inhibition (**Additional File 1,**

Fig. S1), and noted only small differences between the YKO/KD parental strain

genotypes, BY4741 (MAT**a** *ura3-Δ0 his3-Δ1 leu2-Δ0 met17-Δ0*), BY4742 (MATα *ura3-Δ0*

his3-Δ1 leu2-Δ0 lys2Δ0), BY4741R (MAT**a** *ura3-Δ0 his3-Δ1 leu2-Δ0 lys2Δ0*), BY4742R

(MATα *ura3-Δ0 his3-Δ1 leu2-Δ0 met17-Δ0*), and diploid strains derived from these

haploids. In this regard, haploid *MET17/lys2-Δ0* was associated with a lower carrying

capacity in HLD media (**Additional File 1, Fig. S1**), but genome-wide experiments were

not performed in this background.

Interaction scores were calculated as previously described [21], with slight

modifications, as summarized below. Variables were defined as:

D_i = concentration (dose) of doxorubicin

R_i = observed mean growth parameter for parental Reference strain at D_i

Y_i = observed growth parameter for the YKO/KD mutant strain at D_i

$K_i = Y_i - R_i$, the difference in growth parameter between the YKO/KD mutant (Y_i) and

Reference (R_i) at D_i

$K_0 = Y_0 - R_0$, the effect of gene KO/KD on the observed phenotype in the absence of

doxorubicin; this value is annotated as 'shift' and is subtracted from all K_i to obtain L_i

$L_i = K_i - K_0$, the interaction between (specific influence of) the KO/KD mutation on

doxorubicin response, at D_i

For cultures not generating a growth curve, $Y_i = 0$ for K and r, and the L

parameter was assigned Y_i max, defined as the maximum observed Y_i among all

cultures exhibiting a minimum carrying capacity (K) within 2 standard deviation (SD) of

the parental reference strain mean at D_i. Y_i max was also assigned to outlier values (*i.e.,*

if $Y_i > Y_i$ max).

Interaction was calculated by the following steps:

1) Compute the average value of the 768 reference cultures (R_i) at each dose (D_i):

2) Assign Y_i max (defined above) if growth curve is observed at D_0, but not at D_i, or if

observed Y_i is greater than Y_i max.

3) Calculate $K_i = Y_i - R_i$.

4) Calculate $L_i = K_i - K_0$

5) Fit data by linear regression (least squares): $L_i = A + B*D_i$

6) Compute the interaction value 'INT' at the max dose: $INT = L_i\text{-max} = A + B*D_{max}$

7) Calculate the mean and standard deviation of interaction scores for reference strains,

mean(REF_{INT}) and SD(REF_{INT}); mean(REF_{INT}) is expected to be approximately zero, but

SD(REF_{INT}) is useful for standardizing against variance (**Additional Files 2-4**).

8) Calculate interaction z-scores (**Fig. 1D**):

z-score(YKO/KD_{INT}) = (YKO/KD_{INT} – mean(REF_{INT}))/SD(REF_{INT})

z-score(YKO/KD_{INT}) > 2 for L or < -2 for K are referred to as gene deletion enhancers of

doxorubicin cytotoxicity, and conversely, L interaction score < -2 or K interaction scores

>2 are considered gene deletion suppressors (**Fig. 1E**).

*Recursive expectation-maximization clustering (**REMc**) and heatmap generation*

REMc is a probability-based clustering method and was performed as previously

described [35]. Clusters obtained by Weka 3.5, an EM-optimized Gaussian mixture-

clustering module, were subjected to hierarchical clustering in R (http://www.r-

project.org/) to further aid visualization with heatmaps. REMc was performed using L

and K interaction z-scores (**Fig. 1F**). The effect of gene deletion on the CPP (in the

absence of drug), termed 'shift' (K_0), was not used for REMc, but was included for

visualization in the final hierarchical clustering. **Additional File 5** contains REMc results

in text files with associated data also displayed as heatmaps. In cases where a culture

did not grow in the absence of drug, 0.0001 was assigned as the interaction score, and

associated data were colored red ('NA') in the shift columns of the heatmaps.

*Gene ontology term finder (**GTF**)*

A python script was used to format REMc clusters for analysis with the command

line version of the GO Term Finder (GTF) tool downloaded from

http://search.cpan.org/dist/GO-TermFinder/ [36]. GTF reports on enrichment of Gene

Ontology (GO) terms by comparing the ratio of genes assigned to a term within a cluster

to the respective ratio involving all genes tested. **Additional File 5** contains GTF

analysis of all REMc clusters. GO-enriched terms from REMc were investigated with

respect to genes representing the term and literature underlying their annotations [37].

*Gene ontology term averaging (**GTA**)*

In addition to using GTF to survey functional enrichment in REMc clusters, we

developed GTA as a complementary workflow, using the GO information on SGD at

https://downloads.yeastgenome.org/curation/literature/ to perform the following analysis:

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1. Calculate the average and SD for interaction values of all genes in a GO term.

2. Filter results to obtain terms having GTA value greater than 2 or less than -2.

3. Obtain GTA scores defined as |GTA value| - gtaSD; filter for GTA score > 2.

The GTA analysis is contained in **Additional File 6** as tables and interactive plots

created using the R *plotly* package https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=plotly. GTA

results were analyzed primarily using the L interaction scores, however GTA results with

K interaction scores are included in **Additional File 6 (File D).**

Validation of doxorubicin-gene interaction

229   We retested 364 YKO/KD strains having human homologs in the P-POD

database [38] and L interaction scores greater than 2 or less than -2 in at least one

media type. Strains were struck to obtain four single colonies and arranged on replicate

384 well plates along with twenty reference strain controls and reanalyzed by Q-HTCP

on HLD and HLEG, as in the genome-wide experiment. Results are summarized in **Fig**

2S-T, **Additional File 2 (Tables S5-S8), and Additional Files 3-4 (Files C-D).**

Prediction of human homologs that influence tumor response to doxorubicin

237   PharmacoDB holds pharmacogenomics data from cancer cell lines, including

transcriptomics and drug sensitivity [39]. The *PharmacoGx* R/Bioconductor package [40]

was used to analyze the GDSC1000 (https://pharmacodb.pmgenomics.ca/datasets/5)

and gCSI (https://pharmacodb.pmgenomics.ca/datasets/4) datasets, which contained

transcriptomic and doxorubicin sensitivity results. A p-value < 0.05 was used for

differential gene expression and doxorubicin sensitivity. For gene expression, the sign of

the standardized coefficient denotes increased (+) or decreased (-) expression. The

biomaRt R package [41, 42] was used with the Ensembl database [43] to match yeast

and human homologs from the phenomic and transcriptomic data, classifying yeast-

human homology as one to one, one to many, and many to many.

Results:

Phenomic characterization of doxorubicin response genes

The workflow for analyzing doxorubicin-gene interaction and differential buffering of doxorubicin with respect to the Warburg effect is summarized in **Fig. 1**. Alternately, in a respiratory or glycolytic (HLEG or HLD media, respectively) context (**Fig. 1A**), Q-HTCP technology was used for high throughput kinetic imaging of 384-culture cell arrays plated on agar media (**Fig. 1B**), image analysis (**Fig. 1C**), and growth curve fitting (**Fig. 1D**) to obtain the CPPs, L (time to reach half carrying capacity), K (carrying capacity), and r (maximum specific rate) [21, 32, 34], which were used to measure doxorubicin-gene interaction across the entire YKO/KD library. Departure of the observed CPP from the expected doxorubicin response for each YKO/KD strain was derived using distributions from many replicate reference strain control cultures, and summarized across all doxorubicin concentrations by linear regression (**Fig. 1E**). Interaction scores with absolute value greater than two were considered as gene *deletion enhancement* (z-score_L ≥ 2 or z-score_K ≤ -2) or *deletion suppression* (z-score_L ≤ -2 or z-score_K ≥ 2) of doxorubicin cytotoxicity. Gene deletion enhancement (*e.g.*, *mms1-Δ0*) and suppression (*e.g.*, *vps54-Δ0*) reveal functions that buffer or confer doxorubicin cytotoxicity, respectively. Doxorubicin-gene interaction profiles (selected if they contained L interaction scores with absolute value greater than two, in either HLD or HLEG media) were analyzed by REMc and assessed for GO Term enrichment (**Fig. 1F**). As a complement to clustering gene interaction profiles, functional enrichment was analyzed by GTA (see methods), systematically querying all GO processes, functions, and components (**Fig. 1G and methods**) with respect to CPPs and Warburg status. Taken together, REMc and GTA reveal genetic modules that buffer doxorubicin, and how they are influenced by Warburg metabolism (**Fig. 1H**).

Doxorubicin cytotoxicity was greater in HLEG than HLD media, evidenced by the

reference strain being more growth inhibited (**Fig. 2A-L, Additional File 1, Fig. S1**). The

'L' parameter was the most sensitive CPP, while K reported larger phenotypic effects

(**Fig. 2M-N) (Additional File 1, Fig. S2**). We noted positive correlation between

doxorubicin-gene interaction in HLEG and HLD, however interaction was media-specific

and more abundant in the context of respiration, i.e., with HLEG media (**Fig. 2O**).

We compared our results with two prior studies of doxorubicin cytotoxicity in the

yeast knockout collections [44, 45]. One study was conducted in SC media with the

haploid (BY4741) YKO library and identified 71 deletion enhancers of cytotoxicity [44]. A

second study reported on the homozygous diploid (BY4743) YKO collection in YPD

media, identifying 376 enhancers [45]. Overlap between these studies and ours is shown

in **Fig. 2P-2R** and in **Additional File 7 (Table S9-10)**. While many genes overlapped

between the studies, differing results were also observed, possibly attributable to strain

background, media conditions, as well as methods for scoring interactions [20, 46]. To

assess within-study reproducibility, we sub-cloned four colonies from glycerol stocks

used in the first experiment and retested doxorubicin-gene interaction, revealing higher

correlation and overall reproducibility within-study than between-study (**Fig. 2S-T**).

Identification of functional gene interaction modules

Gene interaction profiles were analyzed by REMc (**Figs. 3,4**), as described

previously [35]. Briefly, REMc uses an expectation-maximization algorithm to define

clusters probabilistically, and is applied recursively to resolve gene interaction profile

clusters. REMc terminates when a round of clustering reveals no new clusters. The

cluster naming convention is "A-B.C.D-X", where 'A' = the round of clustering, 'B' = 0,

and 'C.D-X' indicates the cluster pedigree. For example, 1-0-0 refers to the first cluster of

the first round, 2-0.0-3 the fourth cluster derived from 1-0-0 (in round 2 of REMc), 3-

0.0.3-1 indicates the second cluster derived from 2-0.0-3 (in round 3), and so on [35].

The main effect of the gene KO or KD on cell proliferation, *i.e.*, K_i in the absence

of doxorubicin (D_0) is also referred to as 'shift' (see methods). 'Shift' was not subjected to

REMc, but was included for hierarchical clustering and visualization by heatmaps after

REMc (**Fig. 3; Additional File 5, File B)**. K_i is termed 'shift', because this value is

subtracted from the data series for each YKO/KD to obtain L_i values, which are fit by

linear regression for calculating drug-gene interaction (**Fig. 1E;** see methods).

GO TermFinder [36] was used to associate enrichment of biological functions

with particular patterns of doxorubicin-gene interaction identified by REMc (**Figs. 3-4;**

Table 1; Additional File 5, File C). In general, the first two rounds of REMc revealed

distinctive profiles of gene interaction in respiratory vs. glycolytic media (**Fig. 4**). Later

round clusters exhibited greater GO term enrichment in some cases; however, GO

enrichment was other times reduced by further clustering (see **Additional File 8**).

GTA score revealed 129 GO terms, 39 of which were found by REMc/GTF

(**Table 2** and **Additional File 6, Files A-C**). GTA identifies functions of smaller GO

terms, *e.g.*, protein complexes. GTA with K interaction scores yielded only 35 GO terms

(**Additional File 6, File D**), with only 3 being unique from GTA with L interaction; thus,

we focused on L interaction for GTA analysis. Interactive scatter plots (html files in which

points contain embedded information) were used to visualize significant GO terms from

both REMc and GTA (**Additional File 6, File B**). GO term-specific heatmaps further

aided visualization of relationships between genes and the GO terms (see **Figs. 6-11**

and **Additional File 9**) by systematically displaying, for all genes attributed to a parent

term and its children, uniformity *vs.* pleiotropy of interaction effects across different

conditions.

In summary, we used REMc, GTA, and GO term-specific scatterplots and

heatmaps to discover genetic modules that alternatively buffer (*i.e.*, deletion enhancing)

or confer (*i.e.*, deletion suppressing) doxorubicin cytotoxicity, and to determine whether

the Warburg-transition exerts influence on their effects (**Fig. 5)**.

Warburg transition-dependent doxorubicin gene interaction modules

Respiration-specific gene deletion enhancement

Respiration-specific deletion-enhancing clusters (see **Fig. 4**; 1-0-7 and 1-0-8)

revealed GO Term enrichment for *histone modification and chromatin organization*,

respiratory chain complex III assembly, *protein import into mitochondria, protein*

urmylation, the *NatC complex*, *protein folding in endoplasmic reticulum*, *and DNA*

topological change (**Figs. 6-8; Additional File 5, File C).** Additional modules were

identified using GTA (**Fig. 8C and Additional File 6, File A**).

Chromatin organization and histone modification

REMc/GTF and GTA identified several chromatin-related processes that buffer

doxorubicin toxicity in a respiration-specific manner, including *DNA replication-*

independent nucleosome assembly, *histone exchange*, *histone deacetylation*, and

histone methylation (**Figs. 6 and 7)**.

(i) DNA replication-independent nucleosome assembly (HIR complex)

REMc/GTF identified the HIR complex (*HIR1-3* and *HPC2*), which functions as a

histone chaperone in chromatin assembly and disassembly, in cluster 2-0.7-2 (**Fig. 4,**

Table 1) [47]. Along with Asf1 and Rtt106, the HIR complex is involved in DNA

replication-independent (*i.e.*, RNA transcriptional) histone deposition, and regulates

transcription of three of the four histone genes [47-49]. Furthermore, genes encoding for

HTA1/HTB1, HHT1/2, and *HHF1/2* were also respiratory-specific deletion enhancers.

Asf1 and Rtt106 function in nucleosome assembly in both DNA replication and DNA

replication-independent contexts. Asf1, which functions in the Rad53-dependent DNA

damage response [50], enhanced doxorubicin toxicity in both respiratory and glycolytic

media, like other DNA repair genes (see below). In further contrast, genes associated

with *replication-dependent nucleosome assembly* (*RLF2, CAC2, MSI1*) by the chromatin

assembly factor complex, CAF-1, [51] were HLD-specific suppressors (**Fig. 6A-B**).

Prior studies have reported enhanced doxorubicin cytotoxicity due to nucleosome

disassembly and "chromatin trapping" by the FACT complex, referring to binding and

resulting damage to disassembled chromatin in the context of doxorubicin exposure [13].

POB3-DAmP, the only member of the FACT complex represented in the YKO/KD library,

resulted in suppression of doxorubicin cytotoxicity (**Fig. 6B**), presumably by suppressing

its effect of trapping and damaging disassembled chromatin.

(ii) Histone exchange (Swr1 complex)

The Swr1 complex (enriched in cluster 2-0.7-2) uses ATP hydrolysis to replace

the H2A nucleosome with the H2AZ variant [52]. Swr1 complex genes showing

respiration-specific buffering of doxorubicin toxicity included *RVB1, SWC3, SWC5,*

ARP6, SWR1, VPS71, and *VPS72* (**Fig. 6C**). Accordingly, the H2AZ variant, Htz1, which

is enriched at most gene promoters in euchromatin [53-55], was also an HLEG-specific

deletion enhancer. The Swr1 complex is recruited for repair of dsDNA breaks, where the

H2AZ variant is incorporated [56]; however, the interaction profile of the Swr1 complex

more closely resembles other respiratory specific enhancers involved in transcriptional

regulation, whereas dsDNA-break repair by homologous recombination buffered

doxorubicin toxicity independent of Warburg context (see cluster 1-0-6 from **Fig. 4**,

Table 1, and descriptions below). The Swr1 complex can also inhibit subtelomeric

spread of heterochromatin by impeding SIR-dependent silencing [57]. Consistent with

knockout of Swr1 promoting silencing and having a deletion enhancing effect, deletion of

SIR1, *SIR3* or *SIR4* (which disrupts chromatin silencing) also exerted respiratory-specific

suppression of doxorubicin toxicity (**Fig. 6C**).

(iii) Histone deacetylation (Sin3-type and HDA1 complexes)

Deletion of genes functioning in the Rpd3L and Rpd3S histone deacetylase

complexes (**HDAC**) was associated with strong respiratory enhancement of doxorubicin

toxicity (cluster 2-0.7-2; **Fig. 7A**); however, genes constituting the Hda1 complex exerted

weaker effects, but in both respiratory and glycolytic media (**Fig. 7A**, **Table 2**). The yeast

Rpd3 deacetylase histone complexes are homologous to mammalian class I Rpd3-like

proteins (Hdac1-3,8), while the yeast Hda1 complex is homologous to mammalian class

II Hda1-like proteins (Hdac4-5,7,9) [58]. Hda1 and Rpd3 complexes both deacetylate

histones H3 and H4; however, deletion of *RPD3* *vs. HDA1* revealed different degrees of

H4 lysine 5 and K12 hyperacetylation [59], implicating this functional distinction in

Warburg-differential doxorubicin response.

Histone acetylation was GO-enriched in cluster 2-0.6-1, which displayed a

Warburg-independent gene interaction profile (**Fig. 4, Table 1).** GTA analysis confirmed

H3K56 acetylation (*SPT10* and *RTT109*) and histone H3 acetylation (*TAF9* and *HFI1*) as

media-independent, but also histone H4 acetylation (*EAF3, ESA1, NGG1,* and *ELP4*),

which was relatively respiratory-specific in its deletion enhancement (**Fig. 7B**, **Table 2**).

Rtt109 promotes H3K56 acetylation, which is associated with elongating RNA

polymerase II [60], and can be persistent in the setting of DNA damage [61]. Warburg-

independent deletion enhancement suggests its role in DNA repair becomes invoked.

The SAS acetyltransferase complex was deletion suppressing; *SAS2* and *SAS5*

were HLEG-specific, and *SAS4* was HLD-specific (**Fig. 7B**). The Sas2 acetyltransferase

complex creates a barrier against spread of heterochromatin at telomeres by opposing

Sir protein deacetylation via effects on histone H4K16 [62]. The deacetylating SIR

proteins (*SIR1, SIR3, SIR4*) were also HLEG-specific suppressors (**Fig. 6C**), suggesting

dynamic regulation of telomeric histones (not simply acetylation or deacetylation), or

perhaps a function of Sas2 acetyltransferase that is independent of SIR protein

functions, confers doxorubicin cytotoxicity in respiring cells.

*(**iv**) Histone methylation (*Set1C*/COMPASS complex)*

Histone methylation differentially influences gene transcription, depending on the

histone residues modified and the number of methyl groups added [63]. The Set1C/

COMPASS complex, which catalyzes mono-, di-, and tri- methylation of H3K4 [64-67],

was enriched in cluster 1-0-7 (**Fig. 4; Table 1**). All genes tested from the Set1C/

COMPASS complex (*SPP1, SDS1, SWD1, SWD3, BRE2, SHG1; SET1* not in YKO/KD)

were EG-specific deletion enhancers (**Fig. 7C**). The Set1C/COMPASS complex and

H3K4 trimethylation localize at transcription start sites of actively transcribed genes [68,

69]. Furthermore, the Rad6-Bre1 complex, which mono-ubiquitinates histone H2B before

Set1C/COMPASS methylates histone H3K4 [70-72], shared the same interaction profile,

cross-implicating the Set1C/COMPASS and Rad6-Bre1 functions (**Fig. 7C**). The Rad6-

Bre1 complex is additionally involved in the DNA damage response checkpoint to

activate Rad53 [73], however, its HLEG-specific enhancing profile was more closely

shared with transcriptional regulation modules, indicating its latter role is better related.

JHD1 and *JHD2* are JmjC domain family histone demethylases that act on H3-K36 and

H3-K4 respectively, and their deletion suppression interactions are further evidence that

histone methylation buffers doxorubicin cytotoxicity, especially in a respiratory context

(**Fig. 7C**).

Taken together, the data suggest transcription-associated chromatin regulation

buffers doxorubicin-mediated cellular toxicity, which is alleviated by the transition from

respiratory to glycolytic metabolism. In contrast, Warburg-independent buffering by

histone modifiers appears to be associated with functions related to DNA repair.

Mitochondrial functions

The abundance of deletion-enhancing doxorubicin-gene interactions in HLEG media

(**Figure 2O**) caused us to closely examine genes annotated to mitochondrial function.

Many mitochondrial gene deletion strains grew poorly on HLEG media, with petite-like

proliferation defects on HLD media, as respiration is required to reach carrying capacity.

Completely respiratory-deficient mutants clustered together in 1-0-0, however, many

mitochondrial mutants maintained some or all respiratory capacity. For example, the

respiratory chain complex III assembly and *protein import into mitochondrial matrix* terms

were enriched in deletion enhancing clusters, 1-0-7 and 1-0-8 (**Table 1, Figure 4**,

Additional File 1, **Fig. S3**). Some of these strains appeared respiratory sufficient yet the

genes were required to buffer doxorubicin cytotoxicity under respiratory conditions. For

example, evolutionarily conserved genes functioning in complex IV assembly

(*RCF1/YML030W* and *COA6*) reached carrying capacity on HLEG media, yet exerted

strong deletion enhancement of doxorubicin growth inhibition (**Additional File 1, Fig.**

S3A). In contrast, other HLEG-specific deletion enhancing complex IV assembly

components (*COA2*, *CMC1*, *RCF2*) and complex III assembly genes (*FMP25, FMP36,*

QCR9, CBP4) were either not conserved in humans or exhibited strong respiratory

defects (in absence of doxorubicin) (**Additional File 1**, **Fig. S3A-B**). Interactions specific

to assembly of respiratory chain complexes may be informative for studies in

cardiomyocytes regarding doxorubicin inhibition, depletion of cytochrome c and

cardiolipin, reduced workload capacity, and accelerated aging [74, 75]. Functionally

conserved (*TOM70*, *TIM10*, *TIM17*, *TIM23,* and *MGR2*) and yeast-specific (*TOM6* and

TOM7) genes in *protein import into mitochondrial matrix* buffered doxorubicin cytotoxicity

(**Additional File 1**, **Fig. S3C-E)**, possibly due to increased oxidative stress [76], which

enhances doxorubicin toxicity [1, 4].

      Systematic examination of the GO annotation *mitochondrion* (**Additional File 1**,

Fig. S4) revealed several additional respiratory-competent gene-deletion strains

exhibiting HLEG-specific enhancing interactions. *COX13* encodes subunit VIa of

cytochrome c oxidase, which functions with Rcf1 in the formation of respirasomes (also

called 'supercomplexes') [77, 78]. Others included *COX8,* encoding subunit VIII of

cytochrome c oxidase [79]; *MPC1*, encoding a mitochondrial pyruvate carrier [80, 81];

MME1, encoding an inner mitochondrial membrane magnesium exporter [82]; *OMS1*, an

inner membrane protein predicted to have methyltransferase activity [83]*; GUF1*, a

matrix-localized GTPase that binds mitochondrial ribosomes and influences cytochrome

oxidase assembly [84]*;* and *MIC10 (YCL057C-A),* encoding a component of the MICOS

complex, functioning in inner membrane organization and membrane contact site

formation [85].

Protein folding, localization, and modification pathways

      Protein biogenesis and modification pathways enriched in HLEG-specific

enhancement clusters included the *endoplasmic reticulum membrane complex* (**EMC**)

(2-0.7-1), *protein urmylation* (2-0.2-1), and N-terminal acetylation by the *NatC complex*

(2-0.8-1) (**Figure 4, Table 1**).

(i) Protein folding in endoplasmic reticulum (ER membrane protein complex)

The ER membrane complex (*EMC1-6,* **Fig. 8A**) functions in protein folding in the

ER [86] and together with the ER-mitochondria encounter structure (**ERMES**), the EMC

enables ER-mitochondria phosphatidylserine transfer and tethering [87]. The EMC

physically interacts with the mitochondrial translocase of the outer membrane (e.g.,

TOM5, 6, 7, 22, 70; described above) for the process of ER-mitochondria

phosphatidylserine transfer [87]. The shared respiratory-specific, deletion-enhancing

profiles suggest cooperative functions of the EMC and mitochondrial outer membrane

translocase (**Additional File 1, Fig. S3D**) in buffering doxorubicin cytotoxicity. In

contrast to the EMC, genes involved in the ERMES complex (1-0-0; **Additional File 5,**

File B-C) were essential for respiration, and thus their influence on doxorubicin

cytotoxicity could not be addressed with knockout mutants in HLEG media.

(ii) Protein urmylation, Elongator complex, and tRNA wobble uridine thiolation

ELP2, UBA4, URM1, and *URE2* clustered together in 2-0.2-1, constituting GO-

enrichment in protein urmylation, the covalent modification of lysine residues with the

ubiquitin-related modifier, Urm1 [88]. Other protein urmylation genes, *ELP6, NCS2,* and

NCS6/YGL211W, displayed similar interaction profiles and clustered together in 1-0-7

(**Figure 8A**). *ELP2* and *ELP6* also function in the Elongator holoenzyme complex (*IKI1,*

IKI3, ELP2, ELP3, ELP4, and *ELP6*) [89-91], associated with similar interaction profiles

(**Additional File 1, Fig. S5**). *URM1*, *UBA4, NCS2,* and *NCS6* further function in tRNA

wobble position uridine thiolation, where Urm1 functions as a sulfur carrier. Genes

uniquely annotated to these terms (*IKI1, IKI3, ELP3, ELP4, TUM1, URE2*) also displayed

related profiles (**Additional File 1, Fig. S5**). Thus, protein urmylation, Elongator complex

function, and tRNA wobble thiolation appear to be distinct modules, comprised of shared

genes, each buffering doxorubicin toxicity in a respiratory-specific way.

(iii) N-terminal acetylation by the NatC complex

The NatC complex (Mak3, Mak10, and Mak31) specifically acetylates

methionine-starting hydrophobic N-terminal proteins (Met-Leu, Met-Phe, Met-Ile, Met-

Tyr) [92], neutralizing positive charge on the alpha-amino group and impeding turnover

by ubiquitination or other modifications [93]. N-acetylation occurs on around half of the

soluble yeast proteome and over 80% in humans [94]. NatC-mediated N-terminal

acetylation facilitates Golgi or inner nuclear membrane localization of some [95-98], but

not most proteins [99]. The three genes encoding the NatC complex clustered together

(**Fig. 8A**), however, NatC substrates were not enriched among doxorubicin-gene

interactions (**Additional File 7, Table S11**). Perhaps a select few NatC targets or a

novel function for NatC underlie its compensatory effects.

DNA topological change

DNA topological change, which refers to remodeling the turns of a double

stranded DNA helix, was enriched in cluster 2-0.8-0 (**Figure 4, Table 1**). Representative

genes were *SGS1*, *TOP1*, *RFA1*, *RMI1*, *TOP3, MMS4*, and *MUS81* (**Fig. 8B**). Types I

and II topoisomerases resolve supercoiling during replication and transcription [100,

101]. Top1 is a type IB topoisomerase, which relaxes positive and negative supercoils

[102, 103], compared to Top3, a type IA topoisomerase that specifically acts on negative

supercoiling [104]. The Mms4-Mus81 endonuclease has overlapping functions with Top3

and Sgs1 in DNA repair [105]; however, their respective influences on doxorubicin

toxicity were quantitatively distinct in both respiratory and glycolytic contexts, with a

greater requirement for the *MMS4/MUS81* than *SGS1, TOP3*, *RFA1*, and *RMI1*; the

latter four, functioning together for decatenation and unknotting of dsDNA [106].

GTA reveals additional biological functions that buffer doxorubicin toxicity

GTA scores revealed 71 respiratory-specific deletion enhancing GO terms, 24 of

which were also found by REMc/GTF (see **Additional File 6, File A**). Strong enhancing

terms (GTA value > 10) with functions relatively distinct from those identified above by

REMc were *tRNA (m1A) methyltransferase complex*, *MUB1-RAD6-UBR2 ubiquitin*

ligase complex, *malonyl-CoA biosynthetic process*, *pyridoxal 5'-phosphate salvage*,

maintenance of transcriptional fidelity during DNA-templated transcription elongation

from RNA polymerase II promoter, *RNA polymerase II transcription corepressor activity*,

pyruvate dehydrogenase activity, and *eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2 complex*

(**Fig. 8C**). Most terms identified by GTA consisted of 2-3 genes, and did not necessarily

cluster together by REMc.

<u>Respiration-specific gene deletion suppression of doxorubicin cytotoxicity</u>

REMc clusters exhibiting respiration-dependent gene deletion suppression revealed GO

Term enrichment for *regulation of fatty acid beta-oxidation*, (cluster 2-0.3-1) and

translation reinitiation (cluster 2-0.3-5) (**Fig. 4, Table 1**). By GTA analysis, the

EKC/KEOPS complex and *spermine biosynthetic process* were additionally found to

confer HLEG-specific deletion suppression (**Fig. 8D, Table 2**).

Regulation of fatty acid beta-oxidation

ADR1, *OAF1*, and *PIP2* were grouped together in cluster 2-0.3-1 (**Fig. 4, Table 1**),

displaying HLEG-specific gene deletion suppression (**Fig. 8D**). The Pip2-Oaf1 complex

binds to oleate response elements, and along with *ADR1*, regulates transcription of

peroxisomal genes [107, 108]. Doxorubicin inhibits beta-oxidation of long chain fatty

acids in cardiac tissues, which is reversed by supplementing with propionyl-L-carnitine,

and alleviates effects of doxorubicin cardiotoxicity [109]. Thus, the yeast model may be

informative for investigating related gene networks in greater depth.

Translation reinitiation

In the respiratory-specific deletion suppressing cluster 2-0.3-5 (**Fig. 4)**, *TMA20*, *TMA22*,

and *TIF34* represented enrichment for translation reinitiation, which is necessary after

termination of short upstream open reading frames (**uORFs**) [110] (**Fig. 8D**). Some

uORFs function in translational regulation of a downstream protein; for example *GCN4*

expression is regulated in response to amino acid starvation [110]. However, using the

Welsh two sample t-test we found no significant difference in means of interaction

scores between the distribution of proteins regulated or not by uORFs [111] (p-value =

0.8357) (**Additional File 7, Table S12**).

Spermine biosynthetic process

Loss of spermine biosynthesis, specifically *SPE2* (S-adenosylmethionine decarboxylase)

and *SPE4* (spermine synthase)*,* suppressed doxorubicin toxicity in HLEG media (**Fig.**

8D). The pathways of polyamine metabolism and their physiologic effects on cancer are

complex [112, 113], and although our data suggest spermine metabolism contributes to

doxorubicin cytotoxicity, how this occurs mechanistically and specifically in respiring

cells awaits further study [114].

EKC/KEOPS complex

GTA revealed the EKC/KEOPS complex (*CGI121, GON7,* and *BUD32*) as HLEG-

specific deletion suppressing (**Fig. 8D**). The EKC/KEOPS complex is involved in threonyl

carbamoyl adenosine (t6A) tRNA modification [115], which strengthens the A-U codon–

anticodon interaction [116]. EKC/KEOPS has also been characterized with respect to

telomere maintenance [117] and transcription [118]. Deletion of *GON7, BUD32,* or to a

lesser extent, *CGI121,* inhibited cell proliferation in the absence of doxorubicin

treatment, indicating that translational and/or transcriptional activity of the EKC/KEOPS

complex function contributes to doxorubicin sensitivity.

Glycolysis-specific gene deletion enhancement of doxorubicin cytotoxicity:

HLD-specific deletion enhancement of doxorubicin cytotoxicity could represent lethal

vulnerabilities that emerge when a tumor undergoes the Warburg transition. In this

regard, several genes, but few enriched GO terms were identified by REMc (**Fig. 4,**

clusters 1-0-5, 2-0.3-0, and 2-0.2-2; **Additional File 5, File A**). *Ribonucleoprotein*

complex subunit organization was suggested (**Table 1)**, however, the term-specific

heatmap revealed doxorubicin-gene interaction within this cellular process to be

pleiotropic (**Additional File 1, Fig. S6**).

Glycolysis-specific deletion enhancing terms identified by GTA

GTA analysis revealed HLD-specific deletion-enhancing genes encoding the Cul4-RING

E3 ubiquitin ligase, the Dom34-Hbs1 complex, and the Ubp3-Bre5 deubiquitinase. *GDP-*

Mannose Transport and *dTTP biosynthesis* were also revealed (**Fig. 9A; Supplemental**

File 6, File A). *SOF1, HRT1,* and *PRP46* were computationally inferred to form the Cul4-

RING E3 ubiquitin ligase complex [119]. Yeast Sof1 is an essential protein that is

required for 40s ribosomal biogenesis, and overexpression of its human ortholog,

DCAF13/WDSOF1, is associated with aggressive tumors and poorer survival in

hepatocellular carcinoma [120]. *DOM34/PELO* and *HBS1/HBS1L* facilitate recycling of

stalled ribosomes by promoting dissociation of large and small subunits through a

process called no-go decay [121-123]. Knockdown by siRNA of either *WDSOF1* or

HBS1L was synthetic lethal in a KRAS-driven tumor model [124]. The Ubp3-Bre5

deubiquitination complex regulates anterograde and retrograde transport between the

ER and Golgi [125, 126]. Vrg4 and Hvg1 transport GDP-mannose into the Golgi lumen

for protein glycosylation [127, 128]. Reduced dTTP pools, evidenced by *CDC8/DTYMK*

and *CDC21/TYM*S, can increase doxorubicin cytotoxicity in cancer cell lines [129]. The

human homologs of *UBP3*, *CDC8*, and *CDC21* were identified in genome-wide siRNA

synthetic interaction studies in cancer cell line models [130-132].

For several examples above, like *SOF1/DCAF13,* genes could be targeted as

both a driver of the tumor and as a sensitizer to doxorubicin. To systematically identify all

candidate vulnerabilities specific to glycolytic tumor cells (not constrained by GO

enrichment), we filtered the overall data set, limiting the list to genes with human

homologs and to YKO/KD strains that were growth sufficient (low shift on HLD)

(**Additional File 1, Fig. S7)**. The human homologs, along with functional descriptions,

are provided in **Additional File 10, Table S13**.

Glycolysis-specific gene deletion suppression of doxorubicin cytotoxicity

HLD-specific deletion suppression clusters (**Fig. 4**, clusters 2-0.1-0, 2-0.4-0, 2-0.4-2, and

3-0.3.3-1) had GO Term enrichment for terms related to mRNA processing and *meiotic*

chromosome condensation. GTA also identified *histone deubiquitination* (**Table 2**).

Deletion suppression points to genes that could potentially increase doxorubicin toxicity

if overexpressed.

RNA processing

HLD-specific deletion suppression clusters (2-0.4-0, 2-0.4-2; **Fig. 4**) were enriched for

mRNA processing-related terms including *mRNA 3' end processing*, *mRNA cleavage*,

and *7-methylguanosine cap hypermethylation* (**Table 1**), but the term-specific heatmaps

revealed pleiotropic gene interaction profiles (**Additional File 1, Fig. S8**).

SWM2/YNR004W and *TGS1* function in 7-methylguanosine (m^7G) cap trimethylation

(cluster 2-0.4-0), however, the *tgs1-Δ0* allele also exerted deletion suppression in a

respiratory context (**Fig. 9B**). m^7G cap trimethylation protects small nuclear RNAs

(**snRNAs**), and small nucleolar RNAs (**snoRNAs**) from degradation by exonucleases

[133, 134], and promotes efficient pre-rRNA processing and ribosome biogenesis [135].

Meiotic chromosome condensation

SMC2, SMC4, YCG1, and *YCS4* constitute the nuclear condensin complex, which

functions in chromosome condensation and segregation. The condensin complex

associates with chromosomal sites bound by TFIIIC and the RNA Pol III transcription

machinery [136], where it facilitates clustering of tRNA genes at the nucleolus [137] (**Fig.**

9B). The condensin complex has been suggested as a potential therapeutic target for

cancer [138], and human homologs *YCG1/NCAPG2*, *YCS4/NCAPD2*, and *SMC4/SMC4*

are synthetic lethal with the Ras oncogene [124].

Histone deubiquitination

Histone deubiquitination was identified by GTA and includes *SUS1, SGF11, SGF73,*

UBP8, and SEM1 (**Fig. 9B**); all except *SEM1* are part of the DUBm complex, which

mediates histone H2B deubiquitination and mRNA export [139]. Loss of histone H2B

ubiquitination resulting in HLEG-specific enhancement (**Fig. 7C**) is consistent with loss

of the DUBm deubiquitinase being suppressing. Together, they implicate regulation by

histone ubiquitination as a mechanism of doxorubicin response. The human homologs of

UBP8, USP22 and *USP51,* were identified in an RNAi screen for resistance to ionizing

radiation [140].

Warburg transition-independent doxorubicin gene-interaction modules:

Since many tumors have both respiratory and glycolytic cell populations, targeting

Warburg-independent interactions could be especially efficacious, as described below.

Deletion enhancement:

Cluster 1-0-6 (**Fig. 4**) had a strong deletion-enhancing profile in both metabolic contexts

with GO Term enrichment for DNA repair (**Fig. 10**), as well as histone acetylation

(discussed above, **Fig. 7B**). GTA analysis additionally revealed the Lst4-Lst7, the Cul8-

RING ubiquitin ligase, and MCM complexes (**Fig. 10B**).

DNA repair

Warburg-independent, deletion-enhancing pathways included homologous

recombination and break-induced replication repair (**Fig. 10A),** along with the Ino80

complex (**Fig. 10B**), the latter explained by its role of histone acetylation in recruitment of

DNA repair machinery to dsDNA break sites [52]. The Ino80 complex influences

doxorubicin response in fission yeast [141, 142], further suggesting evolutionary

conservation of this interaction, and thus potential relevance to mammalian systems

[143]. DNA repair pathways, such as those involving *RAD52* and *INO80*, are

evolutionarily conserved, involved in genome instability and tumorigenesis [144], and

predictive of therapeutic response in some cancers [145], thus representing potential

tumor-specific biomarkers for chemotherapeutic efficacy.

Complexes identified by GTA

Warburg-independent deletion enhancing modules identified by GTA were weaker, in many cases, than the dsDNA break repair pathways found by REMc, some of which had strong K parameter interactions (**Fig. 10, Additional File 9**). GTA-identified terms included: (1) The Cul8-RING ubiquitin ligase complex, which is encoded by *RTT101, RTT107, MMS1, MMS22*, and *HRT1,* and functions in replication-associated DNA repair [146]. Cul8/Rtt101, in fact, contributes to multiple complexes that regulate DNA damage responses, including Rtt101-Mms1-Mms22, which is required for Eco1-catalyzed Smc3 acetylation for normal sister chromatid cohesion establishment during S phase [147]; (2) The Lst4-Lst7 complex, which functions in general amino acid permease (*GAP1*) trafficking [148], threonine uptake, and maintenance of deoxyribonucleotide (**dNTP**) pools [19], clustered with *thr1-Δ0* (threonine biosynthesis) in 2-0.2-1 (**Additional File 5, File B**); and (3) the mini-chromosome maintenance (**MCM**) complex, which licenses and initiates DNA replication [149], was evidenced by the *mcm2-DAmP*, *mcm3-DAmP*, and *mcm5-DAmP* YKD strains (**Fig. 10B**). Work in pea plants showed that doxorubicin inhibits the *MCM6* DNA helicase activity [150]. Prior genome-wide experiments with doxorubicin did not analyze YKD mutants, thus the MCM complex highlights the utility of the DAmP collection in drug-gene interaction studies.

Media-independent deletion suppression

Genes functioning in processes that augment doxorubicin toxicity, when lost (*e.g.*, by deletion), can result in suppression. This was suggested in both respiratory and glycolytic contexts for *sphingolipid homeostasis*, *telomere tethering at nuclear periphery*, and *actin cortical patch localization* (**Fig. 4,** clusters 2-0.4-1 and 2-0.3-3). Conversely, their overexpression in cancer could potentiate toxicity and thereby therapeutic efficacy.

 Sphingolipid homeostasis and metabolism

From cluster 2-0.4-1, *VPS51, VPS52, VPS53*, and *VPS54* (**Fig. 11A**) form the

Golgi-associated retrograde protein (**GARP**) complex, which is required for endosome-

to-Golgi retrograde vesicular transport. GARP deficiency results in accumulation of

sphingolipid synthesis intermediates [151]. Also from this cluster came fatty acid

elongase activity (*FEN1/ELO2* and *SUR4/ELO3*), which when deficient leads to reduced

ceramide production and phytosphingosine accumulation [152, 153].

Since the GARP genes and fatty acid elongase activity genes function together in

sphingolipid metabolism, we searched all genes annotated to this term and found other

media-independent suppressors to include *TSC3, LIP1, SUR1, SUR2, IPT1,* and *SKN1*

(**Fig. 11A**). Doxorubicin treatment induces accumulation of ceramide [5, 6], which

mediates anti-proliferative responses and apoptosis in yeast and human and appears to

mechanistically underlie the influence of this gene group [154] (**Additional File 1, Fig.**

S9). These findings were further supported by the deletion enhancer, *SCH9*, which

negatively regulates ceramide production by inducing ceramidases and negatively

regulating *ISC1* (**Fig. 11A**) [155]. Multidrug-resistant HL-60/MX2 human promyelocytic

leukemia cells are sensitized to doxorubicin by N,N-Dimethyl phytosphingosine [156].

Taken together, the model provides genetic detail regarding how disruption of

sphingolipid metabolism increases resistance to doxorubicin, and that this occurs in a

Warburg-independent manner, seemingly by reducing apoptosis associated with

doxorubicin-induced ceramide overproduction [5, 157, 158].

Telomere tethering at nuclear periphery

Enrichment for *telomere tethering at nuclear periphery* in cluster 2-0.4-1 was

comprised of *NUP60, NUP170, MLP1,* and *ESC1*. Paradoxically growth deficient on

HLD media, *NUP84, NUP120,* and *NUP133* also exerted deletion suppression in HLEG

(**Fig. 11B**). Nuclear pore functions include coordinating nuclear-cytoplasmic transport

and localizing proteins and/or chromosomes at the nuclear periphery, which contributes

to DNA repair, transcription, and chromatin silencing [159]. Thus, deletion of nuclear

pore genes could influence doxorubicin resistance by multiple potential mechanisms

involving altering chromatin states, transcriptional regulation, maintenance of telomeric

regions, and DNA repair. Doxorubicin-gene interaction profiles for all nuclear pore-

related genes are provided in **Additional File 1, Fig. S10 A**.

Actin cortical patch localization

Cluster 2-0.4-1 was enriched for *actin cortical patch localization*, including

RVS167, LSB3, RVS161, and *VRP1* (**Fig. 11B**). Related terms (*Arp2/3 protein complex*

and *actin cortical patch*) exhibited similar doxorubicin-gene interaction profiles, including

ARC15, *ARC18*, *ARC35*, *INP52*, *INP53*, *ARP2*, *ARP3*, *GTS1*, *RSP5*, and *FKS1 (*see

Additional File 1, Fig. S10 B-C). This result corroborates studies in mouse embryonic

fibroblasts where deletion of *ROCK1* increased doxorubicin resistance by altering the

actin cytoskeleton and protecting against apoptosis [160, 161]. Additional literature

indicates an importance of actin-related processes for doxorubicin cytotoxicity [162-164],

highlighting the utility of yeast phenomics to understand these effects in greater depth.

Respiratory-deficient doxorubicin-gene interaction modules

From cluster 1-0-0, we noted that respiratory deficient YKO/KD strains (those not

generating a growth curve on HLEG) also had low K and/or increased L 'shift' values on

HLD, as would be expected of petite strains [165]. Among strains in this category, those

displaying doxorubicin-gene interaction tended to show deletion enhancement (**Fig. 4**).

Respiratory deficient deletion enhancers on HLD functioned primarily in

mitochondrial processes (**Additional File 5, File C**; see GO enrichment for cluster 1-0-0

and derivative clusters), including *mitochondrial translation*, *mitochondrion-ER tethering*,

protein localization into mitochondria, *mitochondrial genome maintenance*, *respiratory*

chain complex assembly, and *proton transport*. Compromise of mitochondrial respiration

leading to sensitization of cells to doxorubicin is of interest given recent findings that

some glycolytic cancers are respiratory deficient [166, 167].

Phenomics-based predictions of doxorubicin-gene interaction in cancer cell lines

Differential gene expression, by itself, is a poor predictor of whether protein

function affects proliferative response to a particular drug [168]. Thus, yeast phenomic

data, which precisely measures enhancing and suppressing interactions with respect to

growth phenotypes, could provide a systems model to prioritize candidate effectors of

cancer cell line sensitivity and transcriptomic data [169, 170]. To investigate this

possibility, yeast doxorubicin-gene interaction was matched by homology to differential

gene expression in doxorubicin-sensitive cancer cell lines, using *PharmacoGx* [40] and

biomaRt [41, 42]) in conjunction with the GDSC1000 [171, 172] or gCSI [173, 174]

databases (**Fig. 12)**. Differential gene expression was analyzed for individual tissues and

also aggregated across all tissues. Yeast gene deletion enhancers were matched to

human homologs underexpressed in doxorubicin-sensitive cancer cell lines, termed

'**UES**'. Conversely, yeast gene deletion suppressors were matched to human homologs

overexpressed in doxorubicin sensitive cells, termed '**OES**' (**Additional File 11)**.

There was greater overlap in differential gene expression between the gCSI and

GDSC databases for aggregated data (compared to data for individual tissues), of which

agreement was greater for OES than UES. Among individual tissues, there was highest

agreement between hematopoietic/lymphoid and lung. Differences could be partially

explained by the two studies using different platforms for measuring gene expression

and cell cytotoxicity (https://pharmacodb.pmgenomics.ca/drugs/273). The gCSI

database also reported more UES and OES genes than GDSC (**Additional File 11,**

Files B and C). Differentially expressed genes were mined with respect to p-value and

matched to homologous yeast gene interactions (**Additional File 11, Files D-I**).

Warburg status was not available for the cancer cell lines, so we first matched Warburg-

independent yeast gene interactions to differentially expressed genes from aggregated

data in both the gCSI and GDSC datasets, predicting eight UES (*ARP4/ACTL6B,*

ERG13/HMGCS2, PTC1/PPM1L, SCH9/RPS6KB2, SEC11/SEC11C, SEC7/ARFGEF2,

SEC7/IQSEC3, and *SIS2/PPCDC*) and 18 OES genes (*ARP2/ACTR2, CDC3/SEPT6,*

CKA2/CSNK2A2, DBR1/DBR1, DOA1/PLAA, EFT2/EEF2, HTS1/HARS, KIN28/CDK7,

MAP1/METAP1, RPL16B/RPL13A, *RPL32/RPL32, RPL34A/RPL34, RPL40B/ZFAND4,*

RPS6A/RPS6, *SSE1/HSPA4, STO1/NCBP1, TRZ1/ELAC2,* and *UBC4/UBE2D1*) to

have causal influences on the doxorubicin sensitivity phenotype (**Fig. 12C-D**).

As detailed in **Tables 3-4** and described below, we expanded the analysis to

genes representative of GO Term enrichments revealed by the yeast phenomic model,

restricting to human genes differentially expressed across all cancer tissues, but without

restricting by Warburg-independence or gCSI/GDSC co-evidence. Results for individual

tissues are also provided in **Additional File 11, File A**.

Deletion enhancers with UES homologs

Concordance between deletion-enhancing doxorubicin-gene interaction in yeast

and UES observed for the corresponding human homologs in cancer cells suggests

synergistic targets and biomarkers to increase therapeutic efficacy for doxorubicin, as

summarized in **Table 3 and Fig. 12C**, and briefly discussed below.

Doxorubicin-enhancing interactions that were UES in both gCSI and GDSC

included: *ACTL6B*, identified as a candidate tumor suppressor gene in primary

hepatocellular carcinoma tissue [175]; *PPM1L*, which regulates ceramide trafficking at

ER-Golgi membrane contact sites [176], and exhibits reduced expression in familial

adenomatous polyposis [177]; *RPS6KB2*, which was UES in breast, ovarian and bone in

gCSI, while *RPS6KA1*, *A2*, *A5* and *A6* were UES in select tissues in both databases

(**Additional File 11, File A);** *SEC11/SEC11C*, which is upregulated in response to

hypoxia in non-small cell lung cancer tissue [178], and for which deletion enhancement

was stronger in HLD media (**Additional File 1, Fig. S7**); *SEC7/ARFGEF2* (alias *BIG2)*

exhibits increased gene and protein expression in pancreatic cancer [179], and shRNA

knockdown of *ARFGEF2* can reduce Burkitt's lymphoma cell survival [180].

We expanded the analysis above by matching yeast gene deletion enhancers to

human UES genes in either database, i.e., not requiring that genes be significant in both

datasets (**Figs 12E-F**). The result highlighted chromatin-related buffering processes,

including nucleosome assembly (*HTA1, HTB1, HHF1, HHF2, HHT1, HHF1)*, histone

exchange (*SET2/SETBP1* and *SWR1/SRCAP)*, and histone modifiers (*BRE1, HDA1,*

RCO1) (**Fig. 12E, Table 3**). Other functions predicted by the yeast model to buffer

doxorubicin toxicity in cancer cells included DNA topological change (*MUS81, SGS1*),

mitochondrial maintenance (*MGR2, TOM70*), protein acetylation (*MAK3*), and

metabolism (*SFA1, ERG13, SOD1*).

MUS81 knockdown enhances sensitivity of colon cancer lines to cisplatin and

other chemotherapy agents by activating the *CHK1* pathway [181]. *MGR2/ROMO1* is

involved in protein import into the mitochondrial matrix and overexpression of *ROMO1*

has been associated with poor prognosis in colorectal [182] and non-small cell lung

cancer patients [183]. *MAK3/NAA30,* a component of the NatC complex (**Fig 8A**),

induces p53-dependent apoptosis when knocked down in cancer cell lines [184]. The

HLD-specific deletion enhancer, *SFA1,* has seven human homologs, of which three

(*ADH4, ADH1A,* and *ADH6*) were UES in gCSI data (**Additional File 1, Figure S7)**..

High expression of *ADH1A* or *ADH6* was predictive of improved prognosis for pancreatic

adenocarcinoma [185] and high expression of *ADH1A* or *ADH4* had improved prognosis

for non-small cell lung cancer [186]. The *ERG13* homolog, *HMGCS1*, has been

suggested as a synthetic lethal target for BRAF^{V600E}-positive human cancers [187], and

HMGCS2 plays a role in invasion and metastasis in colorectal and oral cancer [188].

Thus, doxorubicin treatment may have anti-tumor efficacy specifically in glycolytic

tumors with reduced expression of *SFA1* and *ERG13* homologs.

Deletion suppressors with OES homologs

Choosing chemotherapeutic agents for patients based on their tumors exhibiting

high expression of genes known to increase sensitivity represents a targeted strategy to

increase therapeutic efficacy and could be particularly effective if the sensitizing

overexpressed genes happen to also be drivers [189]. Human genes that are OES,

homologous to yeast genes that are deletion suppressors, are highlighted in **Table 4** and

Fig. 12D. *ARP2/ACTR2* is a member of the Arp2/3 protein complex (see **Additional File**

1, Figure S10C), and silencing of the Arp2/3 protein complex reduces migration of

pancreatic cancer cell lines [190]. *EEF2* protein is overexpressed in multiple cancer

types, where shRNA knockdown inhibits growth [191]. *CDK7* overexpression in breast

[192, 193] and gastric [194] cancer is predictive of poor prognosis. *RPL34*

overexpression promotes proliferation, invasion, and metastasis in pancreatic [195], non-

small cell lung [196], and squamous cell carcinoma [197], while *RPL32* was also

overexpressed in a prostate cell cancer model [198]. In contrast to Rps6k family

members being UES/deletion enhancing, Rps6 was OES/deletion suppressing in

ovarian tissue. *RPS6* overexpression portends reduced survival for patients with renal

carcinoma [199] and hyperphosphosphorylation of Rps6 confers poor prognosis in non-

small cell lung cancer [200]. Overexpression of *UBE2D1* is associated with decreased

survival in lung squamous cell carcinoma tissue [201], and numerous additional

ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme family members were OES in analysis of individual tissues

(**Additional File 11, File A**).

We expanded the analysis, similar to the way described above for the deletion

enhancers, by relaxing the matching criteria in order to identify additional deletion

suppressing pathways revealed by the yeast model (**Additional File 11**). The extended

analysis identified yeast-human conserved functions in metabolism (*SPE2, SPE4,*

VPS53, ELO2, ELO4), histone demethylation (*JHD1, JHD2*), translation reinitiation

(*TMA22, TIF32*), the condensin complex (*YCG1*, *YCS4*, *SMC2*), and telomere tethering

at the nuclear periphery (*NUP170*) (**Table 4, Fig. 12F**). *SPE2/AMD1* is required for

spermidine and spermine biosynthesis, and up-regulation of *AMD1* by mTORC1 rewires

polyamine metabolism in prostate cancer cell lines and mouse models [202]. *VPS53*, a

component of the GARP complex involved in sphingolipid homeostasis, is a tumor

suppressor in hepatocellular carcinoma [203-205]. Inhibition of *ELOVL6* (homologous to

yeast *ELO2* and *ELO3*) in mice reduces tumor growth and increases survival [206]. The

histone demethylase, *JHD1/KDM2B*, is overexpressed in pancreatic cancer [207] and is

associated with poor prognosis in glioma [208] and triple negative breast cancer [209]. A

second homolog, *JHD2/JARID2*, is required for tumor initiation in bladder cancer [210].

The yeast model also predicts causality underlying OES associated with genes involved

in translation reinitiation, *TMA22/DENR* (translation machinery associated) and

TIF32/EIF31. DENR-MCT-1 regulates a class of mRNAs encoding oncogenic kinases

[211-213], and its overexpression in hepatocellular carcinoma is associated with

metastasis [214]. *TMA22/DENR* also exerts evolutionarily conserved influence on

telomeric function and cell proliferation [215]. *YCG1/NCAPG* and *SMC2/SMC2* are

components of the condensin complex, which are overexpressed in cancer [138].

NUP170/NUP155, which functions in telomere tethering at the nuclear periphery (**Fig.**

11B), is hyper-methylated in association with breast cancer [216, 217], where its

reduced expression contributes to a signature for bone metastasis [218].

Discussion:

Many genes are implicated in tumorigenesis and in chemotherapeutic response,

with varying degrees of tissue-specific influence and yeast-human homology. The ability

to assess mutation, differential gene expression, and other molecular correlates of

cancer and chemotherapeutic efficacy is growing, but the direct assessment of drug-

gene interaction (i.e., phenotypic/cell proliferative responses) remains a challenge due to

the complex genetics and tissue-specific aspects of cancer. In stark contrast, yeast is a

single-cell eukaryotic organism that is uniquely amenable to precise and genome-wide

measures of drug-gene interaction, for which fundamental contributions to our

understanding of human disease are well established [219-223]. Thus, we wondered

whether phenomic analysis, using the yeast YKO/KD resource, might be informative

about the potential of the Warburg effect to influence the anti-cancer efficacy of

doxorubicin, and potentially other chemotherapeutic agents [25, 224]. From this

unbiased systems perspective, we observed that a less extensive genetic network is

required to buffer doxorubicin in glycolytic vs. respiring cells. The HLEG-specific

doxorubicin-gene interaction network points to genetic vulnerabilities that respiratory

tumors have, but that can be relieved of by the Warburg transition to glycolytic

metabolism. Thus, the yeast phenomic model could be applied in the context of Warburg

status and analysis of somatic mutations in an individual patient's cancer, to aid in

predicting doxorubicin therapeutic efficacy (**Fig. 13, Tables 3-4**). Cells can buffer the

cytotoxic effects of doxorubicin in a glycolytic context with less reliance on pathways that

can go awry in cancer and that influence doxorubicin cytotoxicity more in a respiratory

context; examples include pathways of chromatin regulation, protein folding and

modification, mitochondrial function, and DNA topological change. The yeast model also

predicts that respiring tumors can better survive doxorubicin if functions for fatty acid

beta-oxidation, spermine metabolism, and translation reinitiation are compromised by

mutation (**Fig. 13, Table 3**). On the other hand, cells that transition to glycolytic

metabolism need dTTP biosynthesis and protein complexes including the Cul4-RING E3

ubiquitin ligase, and the Ubp3-Bre5 deubuiquitinase, as well as Dom34-Hbs1, which

functions in 'no-go' mRNA decay, in order to buffer doxorubicin. However, glycolytic cells

become even more resistant if losing histone deubiquitination or the nuclear condensin

complex (**Fig. 13, Table 3**). The yeast model also highlighted Warburg-independent

pathways for which loss of function enhanced doxorubicin cytotoxicity, such as DNA

repair and histone H3-K56 acetylation, along with deletion suppressing pathways,

including sphingolipid homeostasis, actin cortical patch localization, and telomere

tethering at the nuclear periphery (**Fig. 13, Table 3**).

Studies in cancer cell lines, mice, and acute myeloid leukemia blast cells from

patients were highlighted by the yeast phenomic model, suggesting histone eviction,

increased mutation rates at active promoter sites [11, 12, 225], and accumulation of

damage from chromatin trapping by the FACT complex as mechanisms of doxorubicin

toxicity [13]. Further support of the importance of chromatin regulation was suggested by

transcriptional control and assembly of histones, as well as histone modifications, which

are all particularly important in a respiratory context. From a precision medicine

perspective, tumors that are promoted by genetic compromise in chromatin regulation

[226, 227] would be potentially more susceptible to treatment, but only if they have not

undergone the Warburg transition to glycolysis. Analogously, patients with germline

variation resulting in functional compromise of chromatin regulation may have normal

tissue (e.g., cardiac muscle) that is susceptible to doxorubicin and thus may suffer

greater toxic side effects of cancer treatment.

The examples of integrating yeast phenomic data with cancer cell line

pharmacogenomics data to predict therapeutic efficacy are not limited to doxorubicin

and/or the Warburg phenomenon. Analogous phenomic models could be generated for

many cytotoxic agents and/or metabolic states. We found the global correlation of

human UES and OES with yeast deletion suppressors and enhancers to be very low,

consistent with yeast studies examining this expectation [168]. However, there were

many examples of differential expression of individual genes, which were potentially

explained biologically by the yeast phenomic model. These observations suggest that

yeast phenomic models can be helpful and may even be necessary to associate

differential gene expression and sensitivity of cancer cells to chemotherapy. We hope

and anticipate that future integrative studies and ultimately clinical trials can further

demonstrate whether yeast phenomic studies contribute useful information for

personalizing clinical guidance and increasing therapeutic efficacy for patients.

The HDAC inhibitor, Abexinostat, enhanced doxorubicin cytotoxicity in cancer

cell lines [228, 229], and a phase I clinical trial combining the agents in metastatic

sarcomas showed some tumor responses [230]. Enhanced doxorubicin cardiotoxicity

was observed with co-administration of HDAC inhibitors in mice [231]. The yeast

phenomic model suggests it could be informative to monitor the Warburg status of

cancer cells in such studies (**Fig. 7A**). The Sin3-type histone deacetylase complexes

(Class I) exhibit respiration-specific deletion enhancement, however the influence of

HDA1/HDAC6 (Class II) is Warburg-independent, with *HDAC6* being UES (**Fig. 12E,**

Table 3). *HDAC6* has a unique structure among histone deacetylases, increasing the

ability to target it pharmacologically [232]. A clinical trial using Vorinostat in combination

with paclitaxel and doxorubicin-cyclophosphamide to treat advanced breast cancer

showed a positive response and reduced expression of *HDAC6* in the primary tumor

[233]. Ricolinostat is a clinically safe *HDAC6*-specific inhibitor [234] that could enhance

doxorubicin toxicity to cancer driven by epigenetic plasticity [226, 227], if the cancer

undergoes the Warburg transition, as HDA1 complex mutants are less protected by

glycolysis. Yet in a respiratory context, Sin3-type complexes exhibit stronger interaction

(**Fig. 7A**). While speculative, these examples are intended to illustrate the potential

power of yeast phenomic models to generate novel, testable hypotheses through

integration of existing knowledge and new, unbiased experimental results.

In summary, we envision yeast phenomic drug-gene interaction models as a

complement to existing cancer pharmacogenomics, providing an experimental platform

to quantitatively derive drug-gene interaction network knowledge that can be integrated

with DNA, RNA, protein, epigenetic, metabolite profiling, and/or cell proliferation data

collected from tumors. Such predictions, applied to individual patients' tumors, could be

further used in conjunction with evaluation of tumor drug response; for example, before

and after treatment to understand how recurrent cancer buffers the drug's toxicities.

Analyses of patient-derived tumor organoids, for example, could include predictive

modeling and experimental validation for development of treatment strategies, both

initially and with recurrence [235-237]. The influence of Warburg status could also be

integrated into such personalized models if monitoring its influence on responsiveness of

cancer to chemotherapy proves useful for selectively killing tumors [238]. Moreover,

yeast phenomic models could be tailored to individual patients to examine more complex

interactions: for example, in the background of homologous recombination deficiency

[145]. Yeast phenomics provides the experimental capabilities and genetic tractability to

model genetic buffering networks relevant to human disease at high precision and

resolution, and the biological relevance of yeast genetics to human disease is

established; however, the extent to which yeast phenomics is predictive of human

disease biology and complexity remains to be determined.

A major premise of precision medicine should be to systematically account for

the contribution of genetic variance to phenotypes as well as influential interacting

factors such as cell energy metabolism, age, drugs, or other environmental factors.

However, functional genetic variation in human populations, and particularly for cancer,

is essentially too abundant to resolve at a systems level with respect to drug-gene

interaction. Thus, yeast phenomics, which can define gene interaction networks and

genetic buffering in a highly tractable way [21, 239, 240], offers the potential to help

resolve disease complexity [17, 241]. Although, the example of doxorubicin is a small

sliver of biology, it exemplifies the potential of yeast phenomic modeling of human

disease complexity. Lastly, doxorubicin and other cytotoxic agents are typically used in

combination cocktails, and a future direction should be to develop yeast phenomic drug-

gene interaction network models for buffering combination therapies.

Conclusions:

A yeast phenomic model for the influence of Warburg metabolism on doxorubicin

cytotoxicity revealed that glycolysis reduces the cellular reliance on genetic buffering

networks. The model reports gene deletion-enhancing and deletion-suppression

pathways, and leverages yeast phenomic results to predict differentially expressed

human genes that are causal in their association with doxorubicin killing from cancer cell

line pharmacogenomics data. As such, this yeast model provides systems level

information about gene networks that buffer doxorubicin, serving as example of how the

YKO/KD enables experimental designs to quantify gene interaction globally at high

resolution. In the case of doxorubicin, gene networks buffer cytotoxicity differentially with

respect to Warburg metabolic status. Understanding cytotoxicity in terms of differential

gene interaction networks has the potential to inform systems medicine by increasing the

precision and rationale for personalizing the choice of cytotoxic agents, improving anti-

tumor efficacy and thereby reducing host toxicity. Yeast phenomics is a scalable

experimental platform that can, in principle, be expanded to other cytotoxic

chemotherapeutic agents, singly or in combination, thus providing versatile, tractable

models to map drug-gene interaction networks and understand their complex influence

on cell proliferation.

List of abbreviations

CPP – Cell proliferation parameter; **DAmP** – Decreased Abundance of mRNA

Production; **DE** – Deletion enhancer; **dNTP** – deoxyribonucleotide triphosphate; **DS** –

Deletion suppressor; **dsDNA** – double-stranded DNA; **EMC** – Endoplasmic reticulum

membrane complex; **ER** – Endoplasmic reticulum; **ERMES** – ER-mitochondria

encounter structure; **GARP** - Golgi-associated retrograde protein; **GO** – Gene ontology;

GTF – Gene ontology term finder; **GTA** – Gene ontology term averaging; **GTA value** –

Gene ontology term average value; **gtaSD** – standard deviation of GTA value; **GTA**

score – (GTA value - gtaSD); **HDAC** – Histone deacetylase complex; **HLD** – Human-like

media with dextrose; **HLEG** – Human-like media with ethanol and glycerol; **INT** –

Interaction score; **m7G** - 7-methylguanosine; **MCM** – Mini-chromosome maintenance;

OES – Overexpressed in doxorubicin sensitive cells; **Q-HTCP** – Quantitative high

throughput cell array phenotyping; **Ref** – Reference; **REMc** – Recursive expectation

maximization clustering; **ROS** – Reactive oxygen species; **RPA** - Replication Protein A;

SD – Standard deviation; **SGD** – Saccharomyces cerevisiae genome database;

snoRNAs - Small nucleolar RNA; **snRNA** - Small nuclear RNA; **t6A** - Threonyl

carbamoyl adenosine; **UES** – Underexpressed in doxorubicin sensitive cells; **uORF** -

Upstream open reading frames; **YKO** – Yeast knockout; **YKD** = Yeast knockdown

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

-Not Applicable

Consent for Publication

-Not Applicable

Availability of data and materials

All data generated or analyzed during this study are either included in this

published article and supplementary files or will be freely supplied upon request.

Competing Interests

JLH has ownership in Spectrum PhenomX, LLC, a shell company that was formed to

commercialize Q-HTCP technology. The authors declare no other competing interests.

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Author's contributions

SMS and JLH designed and conducted the experiments and analysis techniques, and

wrote the manuscript.

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Figures, Tables, and Additional Files

Figures:

Figure 1. Experimental strategy to characterize differential doxorubicin-gene

interaction, with respect to the Warburg metabolic transition. (A) The phenomic

model incorporates treatment of individually grown cultures of the YKO/KD collection

with increasing doxorubicin (0, 2.5, 5, 7.5, and 15 ug/mL) in "fermentable/glycolytic"

(HLD) or "non-fermentable/respiratory" (HLEG) media. **(B)** Representative cell array

images, treated and untreated with 15 ug/mL doxorubicin. **(C)** Time series of individual

culture images, exemplifying gene deletion suppression (*vps54-Δ0*) and gene deletion

enhancement (*mms1-Δ0*), relative to parental control ('RF1') in HLEG media with

indicated concentrations (0, 5, and 15 ug/mL) of doxorubicin. **(D)** After image analysis,

data time series are fit to a logistic growth function, G(t), to obtain the cell proliferation

parameters (CPPs), K (carrying capacity), L (time at which K/2 is reached) and r

(maximum specific rate) for each culture. 'ΔL' (left panel) indicates K_i (see methods). **(E)**

Interaction is quantified by linear regression of L_i (indicated 'Delta_L' and 'Delta_K' in

right panels; see methods) across the entire dose range, which is converted to a z-score

by dividing with the variance of the parental reference control (see methods). **(F)** Gene

interaction profiles were grouped by recursive expectation-maximization clustering

(REMc) to reveal deletion enhancing and deletion suppressing doxorubicin-gene

interaction modules and the influence of the Warburg effect. Resulting clusters were

analyzed with GOTermFinder (GTF) to identify enriched biological functions. **(G)** Gene

Ontology Term Averaging (GTA) was used as a complement to REMc/GTF. **(H)** The

model for genetic buffering of doxorubicin cytotoxicity incorporates primary and

interaction effects involving glycolysis (green), and respiration (red), to explain the

influence of Warburg context (blue) on doxorubicin-gene interaction (black).

Figure 2. Q-HTCP provides cell proliferation parameters as phenotypes to quantify

gene interaction. (**A, B**) Average pixel intensity and standard deviation for 768

reference strain cultures at indicated times after exposure to escalating doxorubicin

concentrations in (**A**) HLD or (**B**) HLEG media. (**C-D**) Semi-log plots after fitting the data

plotted above for (**C**) HLD or (**D**) HLEG to a logistic function (see Fig. 1D). (**E-L**) CPP

distributions from data depicted in panels A-D for (**E-H**) HLD and (**I-J**) HLEG, including

(**E, I**) L, (**F, J**) K, (**G, K**) r, and (**H, L**) AUC. **(M, N)** Comparison of doxorubicin-gene

interaction scores using the L *vs.* K CPP in the context of either **(M)** HLD or **(N)** HLEG

media. Score distributions of knockout (YKO, green), knock down / DAmP (YKD, Red),

and non-mutant parental (Ref, Purple) strain cultures are indicated along with thresholds

for deletion enhancement and suppression (dashed lines at +/- 2). **(O)** Differential

doxorubicin-gene interaction (using L as the CPP) for HLD vs. HLEG, classified with

respect to Warburg metabolism as non-specific (NS), respiratory-specific (R), or

glycolysis-specific (G) deletion enhancement (Enh) or deletion suppression (Sup). **(P-R)**

Comparisons between genome-wide studies of doxorubicin-gene interaction: **(P)** Genes

reported from Westmoreland *et al.* (green), Xia *et al.* (Red) or both studies (purple) are

plotted overlying L interaction scores (gray) in HLD *vs.* HLEG. (**Q-R**) L interaction scores

(gray) for genes reported by Westmoreland *et al.* (green), Xia *et al.* (red), or both studies

(purple) in (**Q**) HLD or (**R**) HLEG media. (**S-T**) Doxorubicin-gene interaction from

genome wide (GWS) and validation (V) studies on **(S)** HLD or **(T)** HLEG media.

Figure 3. Characterization of Warburg-differential, doxorubicin-gene interaction

profiles. (A) The union of enhancers (L z-score > 2) or suppressors (L z-score < -2)

from the HLD and HLEG analyses totaled 2802 gene interaction profiles that were

subjected to REMc (see methods). **(B-C)** The column order is the same for all heatmaps;

'+' indicates doxorubicin-gene interaction and '-' indicates 'shift' (K_0; see methods).

Interactions by K are negative (brown) if enhancing and positive (purple) if suppressing,

while the signs of interaction are reversed for L (see methods). The heatmap color scale

is incremented by twos; red indicates no growth curve in the absence of doxorubicin. **(B)**

First round cluster 1-0-7 has a gene interaction profile indicative of HLEG-specific

deletion enhancement. (**C**) Second round clusters (2-0.7-X) are ordered left to right by

strength of influence. **(D)** The pattern of distributions for the different doxorubicin-gene

interaction scores ('+' columns only from panel C) summarizes respective clusters from

panel C. Deletion enhancement is considered to be qualitatively stronger if observed for

K in addition to L.

Figure 4. A summary of the first and second rounds of REMc. First round clusters

are at the left end of each row of heatmap thumbnails; second round clusters derived

from each first round cluster are ordered to the right by relative strength. Rows are

grouped into panels by similarity in their gene interaction profiles. The columns in each

heatmap have the same order from left to right (see inset panel), with K to the left and L

to the right. Within the K and L groups, HLD is to the left and HLEG to the right. Within

each of the CPP-media groupings, 'shift' (-) is left of the doxorubicin-gene interaction (+).

(A) Respiration-specific enhancement. **(B)** Warburg-independent enhancement. **(C)**

Glycolysis-specific enhancement. **(D)** HLD and HLEG suppression modules. **(E)**

Respiratory deficiency.

Figure 5. GO annotations associated with deletion enhancement or suppression of

doxorubicin cytotoxicity, with respect to Warburg-dependence. Representative GO

terms are listed, which were identified by REMc/GTF (orange), GTA (purple), or both

methods, for HLD (left, red), HLEG (right, blue), or both media types (black), and for

enhancement (above dashed line) or suppression (below dashed line) of doxorubicin

cytotoxicity. Distance above or below the horizontal dashed line indicates the GTA value

for terms identified by REMc or the GTA score if identified by GTA (see methods). See

Additional Files 5 and 6, respectively, for all REMc and GTA results.

Figure 6. Respiration increases the role for chromatin organization in buffering

doxorubicin toxicity. **(A)** GO term-specific heatmaps for chromatin organization and its

child terms (indicated by arrows) clarify related but distinct biological functions that buffer

doxorubicin, with respect to Warburg status. **(B-C)** L-based doxorubicin-gene interaction

scores associated with GO terms that were enriched in cluster 2-0.7-2. Dashed lines

indicate z-score thresholds for enhancers (>2) and suppressors (<-2). Sub-threshold

gene interaction values are plotted, but not labeled.

Figure 7. Distinct histone modifications differentially influence doxorubicin

cytotoxicity. (A) Rpd3L and Rpd3S complexes exert strong HLEG-specific doxorubicin-

enhancing influence relative to other Sin3-type histone deacetylases and the HDA1

complex. **(B)** In contrast to histone deacetylation (panel A), histone acetylation exhibits

deletion enhancement that is Warburg-independent. **(C)** Histone H3K4 methylation by

the Set1C/COMPASS complex, which requires histone mono-ubiquitination of H2B by

the Bre1/Rad6 complex, is opposed by Jhd2, a histone H3K4 demethylase. The

respiration-specific deletion enhancing interactions suggest the Warburg transition can

protect tumors promoted by certain types of chromatin deregulation from doxorubicin.

Figure 8. Additional respiration-specific deletion-enhancing and -suppressing

functions that influence doxorubicin cytotoxicity. Heatmaps depicting complete

phenotypic profiles are inset, corresponding to plots of L-based doxorubicin-gene

interaction. (**A**) Protein folding in endoplasmic reticulum and the N-terminal protein-

acetylating NatC complex are largely respiratory-dependent in their deletion-enhancing

influence. **(B)** DNA topological change exerts deletion-enhancing interactions in both

respiratory and glycolytic contexts. **(C)** GTA-identified terms tend to be smaller in

number and display greater variability in the Warburg dependence among genes sharing

the same functional annotation. **(D)** Functions implicated in respiratory-dependent

deletion suppression of doxorubicin toxicity.

Figure 9. Glycolysis-specific enhancement and suppression of doxorubicin

cytotoxicity. Doxorubicin-gene interaction profiles for HLD-specific GO terms identified

by GTA are depicted for **(A)** deletion enhancement and **(B)** deletion suppression.

Figure 10. Warburg-independent deletion enhancement of doxorubicin

cytotoxicity. Gene interaction profiles showing deletion enhancement in both

respiratory and glycolytic context included: **(A)** *double-strand break repair via*

homologous recombination, and its child terms (indicated by arrows), and **(B)** the *Cul8-*

RING ubiquitin ligase, *Ino80 complex*, *Lst4-7 complex*, and *MCM complex*.

Figure 11. Warburg-independent deletion suppression of doxorubicin cytotoxicity.

Doxorubicin-gene interaction profiles and L-interaction plots for genes associated with

deletion suppression in HLEG or HLD media, including: (**A**) *Cellular sphingolipid*

homeostasis, along with its parent term, *lipid homeostasis*, and related term *sphingolipid*

metabolism; and **(B)** *actin cortical patch localization* and *telomere tethering at nuclear*

periphery.

Figure 12. Use of the yeast phenomic model to predict doxorubicin-gene

interaction in cancer cells. (A) *BiomaRt* was used to assign yeast-human gene

homology for the GDSC and gCSI datasets. (**B**) *PharmacoGx* was used to retrieve

differential gene expression for doxorubicin sensitive cell lines from the gCSI and GDSC

databases, searching data from individual tissues or across data aggregated from all

tissues. Human genes that are underexpressed in doxorubicin sensitive cell lines (UES)

with yeast homologs that are deletion enhancers are predicted to be causal in their

phenotypic association. Similarly, human genes that are overexpressed in doxorubicin

sensitive cancer cell lines (OES) would be predicted to be causal if the yeast homolog

was a deletion suppressor in the phenomic dataset. (**C-D**) Boxes inside of Venn

diagrams indicate the genes for which gene interaction profiles are shown in the

heatmaps below. Gene names are to the right of heatmaps, with **blue** labels indicating

genes identified in both the GDSC and gCSI databases and **black** labels indicating

genes found only in the gCSI dataset. The category of homology (see panel A) is

indicated in the left column of each heatmap. **(C)** Deletion enhancement by yeast genes

predicts human functions that buffer doxorubicin cytotoxicity, and thus, reduced

expression of homologs in cancer cell lines is predicted to increase doxorubicin

sensitivity. (**D**) Deletion suppression by yeast genes predicts functions that mediate

cytotoxicity and is shown for human homologs having significant association of

overexpression in cancer cell lines with increased doxorubicin sensitivity. (**E-F**) Genes

representing enhancing or suppressing modules from REMc or GTA that are **(E)** UES or

(F) OES in at least one of the two databases. **Red** labels indicate genes found only in

the GDSC database. **Additional File 13** reports all results from the analysis described

above, including assessment of individual tissues.

Figure 13. Yeast phenomic model for the influence of Warburg metabolism on

doxorubicin-gene interaction. Shaded areas indicate influences that are relatively

Warburg-dependent, being red or green if their effects are relatively specific to a

respiratory or glycolytic context, respectively. Processes that influence doxorubicin

cytotoxicity in a more Warburg-independent manner are unshaded. Arrowheads indicate

processes for which genes predominantly transduce doxorubicin toxicity, based on their

loss of function suppressing its growth inhibitory effects. Conversely, a perpendicular bar

at the line head indicates a process that buffers doxorubicin toxicity, as genetic

compromise of its function enhances the growth inhibitory effects of doxorubicin.

Additional Files:

Additional File 1. Supplemental figures. Figure S1. Doxorubicin dose responses of

the YKO/KD parental strains, BY4741a, BY4742alpha, and BY4743a/alpha diploid.

Figure S2. Correlation between interaction scores based on L *vs.* other CPPs (K, r, and

AUC), for both HLD and HLEG media. **Figure S3.** Doxorubicin-gene interaction profiles

for selected mitochondrial GO terms. **Figure S4.** Deletion of mitochondrial genes tends

to influence doxorubicin-gene interaction in a respiratory (HLEG media) more so than a

glycolytic (HLD media) context. **Figure S5.** Heatmaps for GO terms comprised of

overlapping gene sets. **Figure S6.** Pleiotropic phenotypic influences from genetic

perturbation of ribonucleoprotein complex subunit organization. **Figure S7.** HLD-specific

deletion enhancement of doxorubicin toxicity by evolutionarily conserved genes. *See*

also Additional File 10 (Table S13). **Figure S8.** GO term-specific heatmaps for *mRNA 3'*

end processing and *mRNA cleavage* gene interaction profiles. **Figure S9.** Suppression

of doxorubicin cytotoxicity by perturbation of sphingolipid and ceramide metabolism.

Figure S10. Deletion suppressing doxorubicin-gene interaction for nuclear pore and

actin cortical patch functions is relatively Warburg-independent.

Additional File 2. Doxorubicin-gene interaction data; Tables S1-S8. Tables S1-S4

are the genome-wide experiment: **Table S1.** YKO/KD strains in HLEG. **Table S2.**

Reference cultures in HLEG. **Table S3.** YKO/KD strains in HLD. **Table S4.** Reference

cultures in HLD. **Tables S5-S8** are the validation study: **Table S5.** YKO/KD strains in

HLEG. **Table S6.** Reference cultures in HLEG. **Table S7.** YKO/KD strains in HLD.

Table S8. Reference cultures in HLD.

Additional File 3. Interaction plots for HLEG. (A, B) Genome-wide and **(C, D)**

validation analyses for **(A, C)** YKO/KD and **(B, D)** reference strains in HLEG. See also

methods and Additional File 2.

Additional File 4. Interaction plots for HLD. (A, B) Genome-wide and **(C, D)** validation

analyses. **(A, C)** YKO/KD and **(B, D)** reference strains in HLD media. See also methods

and Additional File 2.

Additional File 5. REMc results with doxorubicin-gene interaction profile heatmaps

and Gene Ontology enrichment (GO Term Finder; GTF) results. File A contains

REMc results and associated gene interaction and shift data. **File B** is the heatmap

representation of each REMc cluster after incorporating shift values and hierarchical

clustering. **File C** contains the GTF results obtained for REMc clusters for the three

ontologies – process, function, and component.

Additional File 6. Gene Ontology Term Averaging (GTA) results and interactive

plots. File A contains all GTA values, cross-referenced with REMc-enriched terms. **File**

B displays GTA values associated with above-threshold GTA scores (see note below)

plotted for HLD *vs.* HLEG. GTA values for REMc-enriched terms are also included

(regardless of whether |GTA score| >2). **File C** displays a subset of File B, containing

only GO Terms with above-threshold GTA scores and that were enriched by REMc/GTF.

File D reports GTA value using the K parameter. **Files B-D** should be opened in an

Internet web browser so that embedded information from **Additional File 6A** can be

viewed by scrolling over points on the graphs. Subsets in each of the plots can be

toggled off and on by clicking on the respective legend label. In the embedded

information, X1 represents HLEG and X2 represents HLD information. <u>Note</u>: The GTA

score threshold (for L) indicates that GTA-gtaSD > 2 for enhancers or GTA+gtaSD < -2

for suppressors, in at least one media.

Additional File 7. Systematic comparisons involving genome-wide studies of

doxorubicin-gene interaction. Table S9. Genes with deletion-enhancing doxorubicin-

gene interaction from *Xia et al. 2007* and *Westmoreland et al. 2009.* **Table S10.**

Summary of experimental details associated with Table S9. **Table S11.** Test of

enrichment for doxorubicin-gene interaction among genes encoding proteins predicted

as substrates of the NatC complex. **Table S12.** Test of enrichment for doxorubicin-gene

interaction among genes predicted to be regulated by conserved uORFs (*Cvijovic et al.*

2007).

Additional File 8. Quantitative summaries of REMc clusters. File A depicts REMc

results, in terms of cluster distributions of L and K interaction ('shift' is not used for REMc

and thus is not displayed), as a way to visualize cluster differences quantitatively. **File B**

is organized by first round clusters and plots the change in p-value for significant terms

with respect to round of clustering. Clusters derived from one another and sharing

enrichment of the same GO term are connected by a line. Only GO terms with a

background size of 500 or smaller are included. Scroll over a symbol to see embedded

detail about each GO term. The square root of the p-value is used on the y-axis to

evenly distribute data.

Additional File 9. GO term-specific heatmaps for REMc/GTF-enriched clusters. GO

term-specific heatmaps for significant GO process terms were generated as described in

methods and Figures 3 and 4. Any related child terms are presented in subsequent

pages of the parent file name. GO terms with more than 100 children, with 2 or fewer

genes annotated to the term, or a file size over 300KB are not shown. All heatmaps are

generated with the same layout (see Figures 3 and 4).

Additional File 10 (Table S13). HLD-specific gene deletion enhancement, not

associated with 'shift' / growth deficiency. Data were selected for yeast-human

homologs if the respective YKO/KD strains generated growth curves in both HLD and

HLEG media (in the absence doxorubicin), and either of the following two sets of criteria

were met: (1) HLD L interaction > 2 and HLEG L interaction < 2; these data were further

filtered for *HLD L Interaction - HLD L Shift* > 4, and are presented in Fig. S7A.; or (2)

HLD L Interaction – HLEG L interaction > 4 and HLEG K interaction > - 10; these data

were further filtered for *HLD L Interaction - HLD L Shift* > 4, and are presented in Fig.

S7B. Data included in Fig. S7 are indicated in the last column.

Additional File 11. Integration of yeast phenomic and cancer cell line

pharmacogenomic data to predict human genes that modify doxorubicin toxicity

in cancer cells. (A) Tables of UES and OES human genes and whether their yeast

homologs were found to be deletion enhancing or deletion suppressing, respectively. **(B-**

C) Overlap between the gCSI and GDSC1000 databases with regard to UES and OES

human genes (**B**) across all tissues or (**C**) for individual tissues. Note: the intersection of

UES with OES between gCSI and GDSC was used as a negative control for assessing

UES and OES overlap. **(D-E)** Yeast phenomic doxorubicin-gene interaction profiles for

homologs of human UES or OES genes, sub-classified according to interaction type

(deletion enhancing or suppressing) and Warburg-dependence of the interaction, for the

(D) gCSI or **(E)** GDSC1000 databases. Similar to Figure 12, yeast-human homology

relationships are shown to the left of heatmaps (blue - one to one; green - one to many;

red - many to many). **(F-I)** Interactive plots for yeast-human homologs, comparing the p-

value of human genes to L interaction scores for yeast counterparts in **(F, G)** HLD or **(H,**

I) HLEG from **(F, H)** gCSI or **(G, I)** GDSC1000. For the standardized coefficient

('estimate'; color gradient), a negative value (purple) indicates UES, while a positive

value (orange) indicates OES. Thus, the model would predict causality for a human gene

if its yeast homolog has a positive L interaction (deletion enhancing) and is colored

purple (UES), or a negative L interaction (deletion suppressing) and colored orange

(OES). Genes are only plotted if the human homolog was significant (p-value < 0.05).

Tables:

1999

Table 1. GO Terms enriched in REMc clusters.

Media	INT	GTA HLEG	GTA HLD	Clust	GO Term Name	p-value	Genes
Resp	Enh	5.0	2.8	1-0-7	nucleosome organization	1.1E-07	VPS71|RSC2|SWR1|LDB7|HHF1|RSC4|IES1|ISW1|ARP6|RTT106|HIR3|SWC3|HPC2|YAF9|HIR1|HIR2|HTB1|NHP6A|SWC5|NHP10
Resp	Enh	7.1	0.1	1-0-7	Set1C/COMPASS complex	5.5E-04	SPP1|SDC1|SWD1|SWD3|BRE2
Resp	Enh	3.9	-0.6	1-0-7	histone methylation	4.1E-03	SPP1|SDC1|LGE1|NOP1|SWD3|HHF1|SWD1|BRE2
Resp	Enh	3.4	3.0	1-0-7	protein import into mitochondrial matrix	6.4E-03	MGR2|TOM7|YME1|TOM70|PAM17|TIM17|TIM23|TOM6
Resp	Enh	0.6	0.8	2-0.7-1	ER membrane protein complex	4.6E-06	EMC6|EMC4|EMC3|EMC5
Resp	Enh	4.6	0.2	2-0.7-2	Sin3-type complex	1.5E-05	RCO1|RXT2|SAP30|PHO23|DEP1|UME1
Resp	Enh	5.2	-0.1	2-0.7-2	Rpd3L complex	7.1E-05	RXT2|SAP30|PHO23|DEP1|UME1
Resp	Enh	7.3	1.6	2-0.7-2	Swr1 complex	1.2E-06	SWC3|SWC5|VPS71|YAF9|SWR1|ARP6
Resp	Enh	5.9	2.1	2-0.7-2	histone exchange	5.7E-06	SWC3|SWC5|VPS71|YAF9|SWR1|ARP6
Resp	Enh	5.0	3.4	2-0.7-2	ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling	2.4E-04	SWC3|SWC5|VPS71|YAF9|SWR1|LDB7|ARP6
Resp	Enh	11.9	0.2	2-0.7-2	HIR complex	6.6E-06	HPC2|HIR1|HIR3|HIR2
Resp	Enh	11.4	3.2	2-0.7-2	DNA replication-independent nucleosome assembly	4.5E-04	HPC2|HIR1|HIR3|HIR2
Resp	Enh	11.0	1.7	1-0-8	respiratory chain complex III assembly	4.2E-02	QCR9|CBP4|FMP25
Resp	Enh	7.9	0.7	2-0.8-0	DNA topological change	2.6E-02	TOP3|MUS81
Resp	Enh	14.9	-0.4	2-0.8-1	NatC complex	5.6E-03	MAK31|MAK3
Resp	Sup	-2.6	-1.5	2-0.3-1	regulation of fatty acid beta-oxidation	2.1E-02	ADR1|OAF1|PIP2
Resp	Sup	-0.3	6.7	2-0.3-5	translation reinitiation	2.0E-02	TMA20|TIF34|TMA22
Glyc	Enh	1.1	0.5	2-0.2-2	ribonucleoprotein complex subunit organization	1.9E-02	RSA4|HBS1|BRR1|SDO1|RPS17A|DHH1|CLF1|RRP7|TIF6|RPS14A|RPS27B|PRP9
Glyc	Sup	-2.2	-3.0	2-0.4-0	7-methylguanosine cap hypermethylation	5.6E-03	SWM2|TGS1
Glyc	Sup	1.5	-0.4	2-0.4-2	mRNA 3'-end processing	8.6E-04	MPE1|CDC73|YSH1|KIN28|RNA14|NRD1
Glyc	Sup	1.3	0.9	2-0.4-2	mRNA cleavage	3.3E-02	MPE1|YSH1|POP8|RNA14
Glyc	Sup	-0.8	-2.9	2-0.4-2	meiotic chromosome condensation	3.4E-03	SMC2|YCG1|YCS4
Glyc	Sup	-1.0	-2.7	2-0.4-2	condensin complex	2.8E-03	SMC2|YCG1|YCS4
Both	Enh	2.9	2.3	1-0-6	cellular response to DNA damage stimulus	4.1E-08	CTK3|SIT4|RTT109|RVB1|RAD54|MMS22|CDC1|RAD55|PSF3|RAD50|BUD25|RAD51|MRE11|ARP8|ARP4|RAD57|TFB1|CDC7|RAD52|NPL6
Both	Enh	5.0	5.0	1-0-6	double-strand break repair via homologous recombination	2.9E-07	PSF3|RAD50|RAD51|MRE11|RAD54|MMS22|RAD57|CDC7|RAD52|RAD55
Both	Enh	7.7	9.7	1-0-6	double-strand break repair via synthesis-dependent strand annealing	4.3E-06	RAD54|RAD57|RAD51|RAD52|MRE11|RAD55
Both	Enh	9.2	5.0	2-0.6-1	ATP-dependent 3'-5' DNA helicase activity	1.9E-04	RVB1|ARP5|ARP8|ARP4
Both	Enh	9.0	2.5	2-0.6-1	Ino80 complex	2.1E-05	RVB1|IES6|ARP5|ARP8|ARP4
Both	Enh	3.4	1.6	2-0.6-1	histone acetylation	4.1E-02	RTT109|RVB1|NGG1|SPT20|ARP4
Resp	Enh	7.4	1.1	2-0.2-1	protein urmylation	1.1E-03	URM1|URE2|UBA4|ELP2
Both	Enh	9.9	3.9	2-0.2-1	Lst4-Lst7 complex	3.1E-02	LST7|LST4
Both	Sup	-4.5	-2.3	2-0.4-1	cellular sphingolipid homeostasis	9.6E-05	VPS53|VPS52|VPS54|VPS51
Both	Sup	-12.2	-7.0	2-0.4-1	fatty acid elongase activity	2.9E-02	ELO3|ELO2
Both	Sup	-3.0	-1.3	2-0.4-1	actin cortical patch localization	8.1E-03	RVS167|LSB3|RVS161|VRP1
Both	Sup	-9.0	-3.5	2-0.4-1	Rvs161p-Rvs167p complex	1.7E-02	RVS167|RVS161
Both	Sup	-4.4	-0.6	2-0.4-1	telomere tethering at nuclear periphery	1.8E-02	NUP60|MLP1|NUP120|NUP133

2002 The table headers are defined as follows: For Column 'Media', 'Resp', 'Glyc', and 'Both' refer to whether the gene interaction
2003 type observed for the REMc cluster associated with the term was prominent in HLEG, HLD, or both media (see Fig. 4).
2004 For column 'INT', 'Enh' and 'Sup' indicate deletion enhancing or suppressing. Column 'GTA' refers to GO Term Average.
2005 Column 'Clust' refers to REMc ID.

    Table 2. GO terms identified by GTA

GO Term Name	Media	INT	HLEG GTA	HLEG gtaSD	HLD GTA	HLD gtaSD	Genes	REMc related	p-value
HIR complex	Resp	Enh	11.9	1.5	0.2	0.9	HIR1 | HIR2 | HPC2 | HIR3	2-0.7-2	6.6E-06
histone monoubiquitination	Resp	Enh	11.4	7.0	0.1	1.2	RAD6 | BRE1	NA	NA
Ino80 complex	Resp	Enh	9.0	6.8	2.5	7.7	RVB1 | IES6 | ARP5 | ARP8 | ARP4 | ARP7 | IES5 | IES3 | NHP10 | IES2 | IES1 | RVB2 | IES4 | TAF14	3-0.6.1-1	1.5E-06
histone H4 acetylation	Resp	Enh	8.0	4.8	-0.8	2.1	ESA1 | NGG1 | ELP4 | EAF3 | HAT1	NA	NA
mitochondrial respiratory chain complex III assembly	Resp	Enh	11.0	6.8	1.7	2.0	QCR7 | CBP6 | CBP4 | BCS1 | QCR9 | FMP25 | FMP36 | CBP3	1-0-8	4.2E-02
mitochondrial respiratory chain supercomplex assembly	Resp	Enh	15.9	0.6	0.8	0.1	RCF1 | COX13	1-0-8	7.0E-02
mitochondrial outer membrane translocase complex	Resp	Enh	9.1	6.4	0.7	3.1	TOM22 | TOM5 | TOM6 | TOM70 | TOM7 | TOM40	NA	NA
protein urmylation	Resp	Enh	7.4	2.6	1.1	0.9	ELP2 | URM1 | NCS2 | UBA4 | ELP6 | URE2	2-0.2-1	1.1E-03
Elongator holoenzyme complex	Resp	Enh	8.9	3.6	0.0	0.9	TUP1 | IKI3 | ELP4 | ELP2 | ELP3 | IKI1 | ELP6	3-0.7.2-0	1.4E-04
NatC complex	Resp	Enh	14.9	1.7	-0.4	0.6	MAK31 | MAK10 | MAK3	2-0.8-1	5.6E-03
DNA topological change	Resp	Enh	7.9	5.7	0.7	2.6	RFA2 | TOP3 | MUS81 | RMI1 | TOP1 | SGS1 | RFA1 | RAD4 | TOP2	2-0.8-0	2.6E-02
tRNA (m1A) methyltransferase complex	Resp	Enh	17.0	0.8	9.3	17.4	GCD10 | GCD14	NA	NA
MUB1-RAD6-UBR2 ubiquitin ligase complex	Resp	Enh	12.9	3.1	0.9	0.5	RAD6 | MUB1 | UBR2	NA	NA
malonyl-CoA biosynthetic process	Resp	Enh	11.1	7.4	1.5	0.1	HFA1 | ACC1	NA	NA
pyridoxal 5'-phosphate salvage	Resp	Enh	11.1	8.7	1.5	5.3	PDX3 | BUD16 | BUD17	NA	NA
maintenance of transcriptional fidelity during DNA-templated transcription elongation from RNA polymerase II promoter	Resp	Enh	11.1	7.5	-0.4	4.2	RPB9 | DST1	NA	NA
RNA polymerase II transcription corepressor activity	Resp	Enh	11.0	7.6	2.2	1.7	SIN3 | MED8 | SRB7	NA	NA
pyruvate dehydrogenase activity	Resp	Enh	10.6	6.4	2.8	0.9	PDA1 | LPD1 | PDB1	NA	NA
eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2 complex	Resp	Enh	10.3	4.7	8.2	8.7	SUI2 | GCD11	NA	NA
L-aspartate:2-oxoglutarate aminotransferase activity	Resp	Sup	-3.9	0.5	-0.9	0.8	AAT2 | AAT1	2-0.4-3	5.9E-04
nuclear pore outer ring	Resp	Sup	-6.3	3.7	1.4	7.6	NUP145 | SEH1 | NUP84 | NUP120 | NUP133	3-0.4.1-0	9.7E-02
positive regulation of fatty acid beta-oxidation	Resp	Sup	-2.6	0.5	-1.5	0.2	OAF1 | ADR1 | PIP2	2-0.3-1	2.1E-02
EKC/KEOPS complex	Resp	Sup	-7.9	4.6	-1.8	1.1	KAE1 | CGI121 | GON7 | BUD32	NA	NA
spermine biosynthetic process	Resp	Sup	-2.6	0.3	-0.3	0.7	SPE4 | SPE2	NA	NA
Dom34-Hbs1 complex	Glyc	Enh	0.3	2.1	2.7	0.3	HBS1 | DOM34	NA	NA
Ubp3-Bre5 deubiquitination complex	Glyc	Enh	-1.1	3.2	8.8	2.2	BRE5 | UBP3	NA	NA
Cul4-RING E3 ubiquitin ligase complex	Glyc	Enh	1.8	4.1	4.6	2.3	HRT1 | PRP46 | SOF1	NA	NA
dTTP biosynthetic process	Glyc	Enh	-1.3	3.2	7.0	0.6	CDC21 | CDC8	NA	NA
GDP-mannose transport	Glyc	Enh	1.5	1.9	9.5	5.6	VRG4 | HVG1	NA	NA
7-methylguanosine cap hypermethylation	Glyc	Sup	-2.2	1.5	-3.0	0.9	SWM2 | TGS1	2-0.4-0	5.6E-03
meiotic chromosome condensation	Glyc	Sup	-0.8	0.9	-2.9	0.9	SMC2 | YCG1 | SMC4 | YCS4	2-0.4-2	3.4E-03
histone deubiquitination	Glyc	Sup	1.8	1.9	-3.4	1.1	SEM1 | UBP8 | SGF73 | SGF11	NA	NA
HDA1 complex	Both	Enh	8.9	0.3	4.0	1.1	HDA2 | HDA1 | HDA3	NA	NA
CTDK-1 complex	Both	Enh	15.6	0.7	3.8	0.9	CTK2 | CTK3 | CTK1	1-0-8	5.3E-02
Cul8-RING ubiquitin ligase complex	Both	Enh	9.1	4.5	6.1	1.1	MMS22 | MMS1 | RTT101 | HRT1 | RTT107	1-0-2	1.0E-01
Lst4-Lst7 complex	Both	Enh	9.9	1.4	3.9	0.3	LST7 | LST4	2-0.2-1	3.1E-02
MCM complex	Both	Enh	4.2	1.4	4.9	2.6	MCM7 | MCM6 | MCM5 | MCM2 | MCM3	NA	NA
histone H3-K56 acetylation	Both	Enh	10.3	7.0	8.6	4.3	RTT109 | SPT10	NA	NA
fatty acid elongase activity	Both	Sup	-12.2	2.4	-7.0	1.1	SUR4 | FEN1	2-0.4-1	2.9E-02
GARP complex	Both	Sup	-6.8	0.9	-3.5	0.8	VPS53 | VPS54 | VPS52 | VPS51	3-0.4.1-0	6.9E-07
nuclear cap binding complex	Both	Sup	-4.7	0.5	-3.4	0.5	STO1 | CBC2	3-0.4.1-0	9.9E-03
Rvs161p-Rvs167p complex	Both	Sup	-9.0	0.4	-3.5	0.2	RVS167 | RVS161	3-0.4.1-0	9.9E-03

2007   The table headers are defined as follows: 'GTA SD' refers to the standard deviation of GTA; 'REMc cluster' refers to an REMc
2008   cluster ID if GTA-identified term was also found by REMc/GTF; 'p-value' reports results from REMc/GTF. See Table 1 for other
2009   header definitions.

Table 3. Yeast-human homologs with deletion enhancement and UES across all tissues

hGene	yGene	DB	Fig.	GO term	HLD L|K	HLEG L|K	GDSC pval	gCSI pval	Ref	H	Description hGene
ACTL6B	ARP4	Both	12E	Ino80 Complex	8.3|-10	16.4|-12.6	3.3E-02	3.8E-02	175	2	actin like 6B
HMGCS2	ERG13	Both	S7B	N/A	34.8|-21.4	3.7|-3.3	2.4E-02	7.9E-04	188	2	3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA synthase 2
PPM1L	PTC1	Both	12C	N/A	15.2|-4.7	14.7|-13	3.1E-04	1.6E-02	176-7	2	protein phosphatase, Mg2+/Mn2+ dependent 1L
RPS6KB2	SCH9	Both	12E	Sphingolipid Metabolic Process	6|-3.7	8.8|-9.8	3.5E-02	4.2E-03	NA	3	ribosomal protein S6 kinase B2
SEC11C	SEC11	Both	S7B	N/A	11.6|-1.3	2.8|0	3.5E-04	3.5E-04	178	2	SEC11 homolog C, signal peptidase complex subunit
ARFGEF2	SEC7	Both	12C	N/A	2.9|0	2.6|0.8	7.5E-03	1.5E-08	179-80	2	ADP ribosylation factor guanine nucleotide exchange factor 2
IQSEC3	SEC7	Both	12C	N/A	2.9|0	2.6|0.8	7.5E-03	4.9E-02	NA	2	IQ motif and Sec7 domain 3
PPCDC	SIS2	Both	12C	N/A	7.3|-3.5	12.1|-9.8	3.9E-02	4.7E-03	NA	2	phosphopantothenoylcysteine decarboxylase
CCS	CCS1	gCSI	NA	N/A	2.4|-0.4	5.6|-3.7	3.4E-01	1.2E-02	NA	2	copper chaperone for superoxide dismutase
HMGCS1	ERG13	gCSI	S7B	N/A	34.8|-21.4	3.7|-3.3	9.5E-01	1.4E-02	187	3	3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA synthase 1
HDAC6	HDA1	gCSI	7A	HDA1 Complex	5.2|-1	9.1|-1.8	9.1E-01	1.7E-03	NA	2	histone deacetylase 6
MUS81	MUS81	gCSI	8B	DNA Topological Change	5.2|-2.4	15.9|-11.1	6.9E-02	1.9E-04	181	2	MUS81 structure-specific endonuclease subunit
SGK2	SCH9	gCSI	12E	Sphingolipid Metabolic Process	6|-3.7	8.8|-9.8	4.6E-01	8.5E-04	NA	1	SGK2, serine/threonine kinase 2
CCS	SOD1	gCSI	12E	N/A	6.2|-0.5	8.1|-10.7	3.4E-01	1.2E-02	NA	2	copper chaperone for superoxide dismutase
SOD1	SOD1	GDSC	12E	N/A	6.2|-0.5	8.1|-10.7	4.3E-02	7.9E-01	NA	2	superoxide dismutase 1
PELO	DOM34	gCSI	9A	Dom34-Hbs1 Complex	2.5|-0.7	-1.2|1.1	NA	1.7E-02	NA	2	pelota mRNA surveillance and ribosome rescue factor
ADH1A	SFA1	gCSI	12E	N/A	4.8|0	0.9|-0.3	1.1E-01	2.9E-02	185-6	2	alcohol dehydrogenase 1A (class I), alpha polypeptide
ADH4	SFA1	gCSI	12E	N/A	4.8|0	0.9|-0.3	3.6E-01	3.6E-03	186	3	alcohol dehydrogenase 4 (class II), pi polypeptide
ADH6	SFA1	gCSI	12E	N/A	4.8|0	0.9|-0.3	8.6E-01	3.3E-03	185	1	alcohol dehydrogenase 6 (class V)
HIST1H3D	HHT1	Both	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	0.4|-0.2	15|-10.2	4.2E-02	2.1E-02	NA	2	histone cluster 1 H3 family member d
HIST1H2BN	HTB1	Both	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	0.2|-0.6	7.8|-5.8	4.0E-02	3.0E-06	NA	2	histone cluster 1 H2B family member n
HIST2H2BE	HTB1	Both	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	0.2|-0.6	7.8|-5.8	4.0E-02	2.3E-08	NA	2	histone cluster 2 H2B family member e
SETBP1	SET2	Both	6A,C	Histone exchange	1.3|-1.6	5.4|-2.5	7.3E-07	3.0E-04	NA	3	SET binding protein 1
RNF40	BRE1	gCSI	7C	Histone Monoubiquitination	-0.7|0.5	6.5|-4.9	7.4E-01	8.5E-03	NA	2	ring finger protein 40
HIST1H4D	HHF1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	-0.6|0.2	13.7|-3.8	NA	8.9E-03	NA	2	histone cluster 1 H4 family member d
HIST1H4H	HHF1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	-0.6|0.2	13.7|-3.8	8.6E-02	2.8E-06	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H4 family member h
HIST1H4I	HHF1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	-0.6|0.2	13.7|-3.8	NA	3.8E-02	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H4 family member i
HIST1H4K	HHF1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	-0.6|0.2	13.7|-3.8	NA	8.0E-03	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H4 family member k
HIST2H4A	HHF1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	-0.6|0.2	13.7|-3.8	NA	4.8E-02	NA	3	histone cluster 2 H4 family member a
HIST2H4B	HHF1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	-0.6|0.2	13.7|-3.8	NA	3.7E-03	NA	3	histone cluster 2 H4 family member b
HIST4H4	HHF1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	-0.6|0.2	13.7|-3.8	5.4E-02	2.4E-02	NA	3	histone cluster 4 H4
HIST1H4D	HHF2	gCSI	12E	Chromatin Assembly or Disassembly	-1.6|0.4	4.3|-0.1	NA	8.9E-03	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H4 family member d
HIST1H4H	HHF2	gCSI	12E	Chromatin Assembly or Disassembly	-1.6|0.4	4.3|-0.1	8.6E-02	2.8E-06	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H4 family member h
HIST1H4I	HHF2	gCSI	12E	Chromatin Assembly or Disassembly	-1.6|0.4	4.3|-0.1	NA	3.8E-02	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H4 family member i
HIST1H4K	HHF2	gCSI	12E	Chromatin Assembly or Disassembly	-1.6|0.4	4.3|-0.1	NA	8.0E-03	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H4 family member k
HIST2H4A	HHF2	gCSI	12E	Chromatin Assembly or Disassembly	-1.6|0.4	4.3|-0.1	NA	4.8E-02	NA	3	histone cluster 2 H4 family member a
HIST2H4B	HHF2	gCSI	12E	Chromatin Assembly or Disassembly	-1.6|0.4	4.3|-0.1	NA	3.7E-03	NA	3	histone cluster 2 H4 family member b
HIST4H4	HHF2	gCSI	12E	Chromatin Assembly or Disassembly	-1.6|0.4	4.3|-0.1	5.4E-02	2.4E-02	NA	3	histone cluster 4 H4
HIST1H2AE	HHT1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	0.4|-0.2	15|-10.2	NA	1.1E-02	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H2A family member e
HIST1H3E	HHT1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	0.4|-0.2	15|-10.2	NA	1.3E-02	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H3 family member e
HIST1H3H	HHT1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	0.4|-0.2	15|-10.2	NA	6.8E-03	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H3 family member h
HIST1H2AC	HTA1	gCSI	12E	Chromatin Assembly or Disassembly	-3.5|0.8	13.5|-5.2	7.1E-01	2.9E-05	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H2A family member c
HIST1H2AD	HTA1	gCSI	12E	Chromatin Assembly or Disassembly	-3.5|0.8	13.5|-5.2	3.7E-01	5.8E-03	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H2A family member d
HIST1H2AG	HTA1	gCSI	12E	Chromatin Assembly or Disassembly	-3.5|0.8	13.5|-5.2	5.6E-01	1.4E-02	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H2A family member g
HIST1H2AK	HTA1	gCSI	12E	Chromatin Assembly or Disassembly	-3.5|0.8	13.5|-5.2	NA	6.3E-04	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H2A family member k
HIST2H2AA3	HTA1	gCSI	12E	Chromatin Assembly or Disassembly	-3.5|0.8	13.5|-5.2	NA	2.6E-02	NA	3	histone cluster 2 H2A family member a3
HIST2H2AA4	HTA1	gCSI	12E	Chromatin Assembly or Disassembly	-3.5|0.8	13.5|-5.2	NA	5.3E-03	NA	3	histone cluster 2 H2A family member a4
H2BFM	HTB1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	0.2|-0.6	7.8|-5.8	NA	3.0E-02	NA	3	H2B histone family member M
H2BFWT	HTB1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	0.2|-0.6	7.8|-5.8	3.3E-01	6.5E-04	NA	3	H2B histone family member W, testis specific
HIST1H2BC	HTB1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	0.2|-0.6	7.8|-5.8	9.8E-01	5.3E-05	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H2B family member c
HIST1H2BD	HTB1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	0.2|-0.6	7.8|-5.8	4.7E-01	3.0E-06	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H2B family member d
HIST1H2BE	HTB1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	0.2|-0.6	7.8|-5.8	NA	2.5E-04	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H2B family member e
HIST1H2BF	HTB1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	0.2|-0.6	7.8|-5.8	NA	5.3E-03	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H2B family member f
HIST1H2BG	HTB1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	0.2|-0.6	7.8|-5.8	NA	5.8E-04	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H2B family member g
HIST1H2BJ	HTB1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	0.2|-0.6	7.8|-5.8	9.2E-02	1.5E-03	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H2B family member j
HIST1H2BK	HTB1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	0.2|-0.6	7.8|-5.8	NA	9.0E-04	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H2B family member k
HIST1H2BO	HTB1	gCSI	6A-B	Nucleosome Assembly	0.2|-0.6	7.8|-5.8	NA	2.9E-02	NA	3	histone cluster 1 H2B family member o
NAA30	MAK3	gCSI	8A	NatC Complex	0.2|-0.5	16.6|-11.6	8.5E-01	2.9E-02	184	2	N(alpha)-acetyltransferase 30, NatC catalytic subunit
ROMO1	MGR2	gCSI	S3C	Protein import into mitochondrial matrix	0|-0.2	10.3|0.1	7.1E-02	4.1E-02	182-3	2	reactive oxygen species modulator 1
AIRE	RCO1	gCSI	7A	Rpd3S Complex	0.9|-0.5	7.9|-4.4	5.5E-01	1.3E-03	NA	3	autoimmune regulator
ASH1L	SET2	gCSI	6A,C	Histone exchange	1.3|-1.6	5.4|-2.5	6.6E-01	5.5E-04	NA	3	ASH1 like histone lysine methyltransferase
RECQL4	SGS1	gCSI	8B	DNA Topological Change	-0.2|0.7	6.1|-2.5	7.3E-01	3.2E-02	NA	3	RecQ like helicase 4
RECQL5	SGS1	gCSI	8B	DNA Topological Change	-0.2|0.7	6.1|-2.5	2.7E-01	3.0E-04	NA	1	RecQ like helicase 5
SRCAP	SWR1	gCSI	7A	Swr1 complex	0.4|-0.5	7.3|-6.2	NA	5.1E-04	NA	3	Snf2 related CREBBP activator protein
UNC45B	TOM70	gCSI	S3C	Protein import into mitochondrial matrix	0.8|-0.4	12.4|-0.3	7.4E-01	1.6E-02	NA	2	unc-45 myosin chaperone B
MOCS3	UBA4	gCSI	8A	protein urmylation	1.5|-3.3	8.1|-3.4	8.0E-01	3.0E-02	NA	1	molybdenum cofactor synthesis 3
EMC3	EMC3	GDSC	8A	ER Membrane Protein Complex	1.5|-0.8	5.6|-1.8	1.1E-02	NA	NA	2	ER membrane protein complex subunit 3
EMC4	EMC4	GDSC	8A	ER Membrane Protein Complex	-0.1|-0.3	6.2|-1.6	2.6E-02	NA	NA	2	ER membrane protein complex subunit 4

2011 For column 'DB': 'gCSI', 'GDSC', or 'Both' indicate UES in the gCSI, GDSC, or both databases. Column 'Fig.' refers to
2012 specific figures. Columns "HLD L|K" and "HLEG L|K" contain the L and K interaction scores for HLD and HLEG media,
2013 respectively. "GDSC pval" and "gCSI pval" refer to the significance of differential gene expression in the respective
2014 databases. 'Ref' refers to relevant literature citations. 'H' refers to homology type: '1', '2', and '3' indicate 1:1, 1:many, and
2015 many:many, respectively.

Table 4. Yeast-human homologs with deletion suppression and OES across all tissues

hGene	yGene	DB	Fig	GO term	HLD L|K	HLEG L|K	GDSC pval	gCSI pval	Ref	H	Description hGene
ACTR2	ARP2	Both	12D	Arp2/3 Protein Complex	-3.7|1.4	-3.3|-6.9	3.2E-02	6.0E-05	190	1	ARP2 actin related protein 2 homolog
SEPT6	CDC3	Both	12D	N/A	-2.1|0.7	-2.6|0.3	1.7E-04	2.8E-05	NA	1	septin 6
CSNK2A2	CKA2	Both	12D	N/A	-5.5|1	-4|1.2	4.3E-03	3.6E-03	NA	2	casein kinase 2 alpha 2
DBR1	DBR1	Both	12D	N/A	-2.1|0.6	-3.5|1	4.3E-02	9.8E-04	NA	1	debranching RNA lariats 1
PLAA	DOA1	Both	12D	N/A	-2.2|0.7	-7.7|1.9	2.6E-02	1.5E-04	NA	3	phospholipase A2 activating protein
EEF2	EFT2	Both	12D	N/A	-2.7|0.2	-2.1|1.1	1.9E-02	9.7E-06	191	2	eukaryotic translation elongation factor 2
HARS	HTS1	Both	12D	N/A	-2.4|0.6	-2.9|0.5	4.1E-03	1.6E-03	NA	1	histidyl-tRNA synthetase
CDK7	KIN28	Both	12D	N/A	-2.2|1.1	-2.5|-1.2	2.4E-02	2.6E-04	192-4	3	cyclin dependent kinase 7
METAP1	MAP1	Both	12D	N/A	-4.7|3.3	-4.2|-0.6	8.9E-03	2.3E-02	NA	1	methionyl aminopeptidase 1
RPL13A	RPL16B	Both	12D	N/A	-4.5|3.7	-5.8|1.4	1.5E-03	9.5E-05	NA	2	ribosomal protein L13a
RPL32	RPL32	Both	12D	N/A	-3.9|1	-11.3|1.1	6.9E-03	3.6E-03	198	2	ribosomal protein L32
RPL34	RPL34A	Both	12D	N/A	-4.8|2.3	-7.2|2.4	1.5E-02	4.4E-03	195-7	3	ribosomal protein L34
ZFAND4	RPL40B	Both	12D	N/A	-4.1|1.1	-5.7|1.1	3.7E-02	1.7E-02	NA	2	zinc finger AN1-type containing 4
RPS6	RPS6A	Both	12D	N/A	-5.7|1.8	-6|2.6	2.0E-04	2.5E-07	199-200	2	ribosomal protein S6
HSPA4	SSE1	Both	12D	N/A	-6.3|3	-13.7|4.4	1.5E-02	4.2E-07	NA	2	heat shock protein family A (Hsp70) member 4
NCBP1	STO1	Both	12D	N/A	-3|1.7	-4.3|1.3	2.3E-03	3.5E-04	NA	2	nuclear cap binding protein subunit 1
ELAC2	TRZ1	Both	12D	N/A	-2.3|0.6	-2.6|0.1	1.1E-05	1.5E-08	NA	3	elaC ribonuclease Z 2
UBE2D1	UBC4	Both	12D	N/A	-4.6|2.2	-12.3|2.6	1.0E-02	8.1E-03	201	1	ubiquitin conjugating enzyme E2 D1
TPRKB	CGI121	gCSI	12F	EKC/KEOPS Complex	-2.2|-0.8	-7.7|2.1	1.3E-01	7.6E-04	NA	1	TP53RK binding protein
ELOVL6	ELO2	gCSI	12F	Fatty Acid Elongase Activity	-7.7|1.4	-13.9|4.1	5.1E-01	2.7E-02	206	2	ELOVL fatty acid elongase 6
ELOVL6	ELO3	gCSI	12F	Fatty Acid Elongase Activity	-6.3|1.3	-10.5|1.9	5.1E-01	2.7E-02	206	1	ELOVL fatty acid elongase 6
NUP155	NUP170	gCSI	12F	Telomere tethering at the nuclear periphery	-3.7|0.6	-6.5|1.3	1.0E-01	4.4E-02	216-18	1	nucleoporin 155
SSRP1	POB3	gCSI	12F	FACT Complex	-4.1|1.2	-5.1|1.4	6.0E-02	2.2E-06	13	2	structure specific recognition protein 1
TGS1	TGS1	gCSI	12F	7-methylguanosine cap hypermethylation	-2.4|2.6	-3.3|0.7	8.5E-02	2.0E-03	NA	2	trimethylguanosine synthase 1
VPS53	VPS53	gCSI	12F	Cellular sphingolipid homeostasis	-2.4|1.8	-5.8|1.4	2.0E-01	2.4E-02	203-5	2	VPS53, GARP complex subunit
USP22	UBP8	Both	12F	histone deubiquitination	-2|0.8	0.3|0.3	2.3E-02	1.2E-02	NA	1	ubiquitin specific peptidase 22
SMC2	SMC2	gCSI	12F	meiotic chromosome condensation	-3.5|1.2	0.4|-0.9	1.1E-01	4.3E-02	138	3	structural maintenance of chromosomes 2
NCAPG	YCG1	gCSI	12F	meiotic chromosome condensation	-2|0.8	-0.8|-0.6	7.9E-01	9.2E-06	138	3	non-SMC condensin I complex subunit G
NCAPD2	YCS4	gCSI	12F	meiotic chromosome condensation	-2.4|0.8	-1.7|-0.9	2.3E-01	1.7E-03	NA	2	non-SMC condensin I complex subunit D2
USP44	UBP8	GDSC	12F	histone deubiquitination	-2|0.8	0.3|0.3	4.1E-04	6.1E-01	NA	2	ubiquitin specific peptidase 44
KDM2B	JHD1	Both	12F	Histone Demethylation	0.2|-0.2	-2.3|1.9	4.6E-02	3.5E-02	207-9	1	lysine demethylase 2B
AMD1	SPE2	Both	12F	spermine biosynthetic process	0.2|-0.2	-2.8|0.5	1.7E-02	1.5E-04	202	1	adenosylmethionine decarboxylase 1
SMS	SPE4	gCSI	12F	spermine biosynthetic process	-0.8|0.4	-2.4|1	NA	3.9E-02	NA	1	spermine synthase
EIF3I	TIF34	gCSI	12F	translation reinitiation	1.2|0	-3.9|1.4	8.2E-01	7.1E-05	NA	2	eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3 subunit I
STRAP	TIF34	gCSI	12F	translation reinitiation	1.2|0	-3.9|1.4	6.7E-01	9.1E-03	NA	2	serine/threonine kinase receptor associated protein
DENR	TMA22	gCSI	12F	translation reinitiation	-1.1|0.6	-6.4|1.9	4.0E-01	1.9E-02	211-15	1	density regulated re-initiation and release factor
PHF2	JHD1	GDSC	12F	Histone Demethylation	0.2|-0.2	-2.3|1.9	1.9E-03	6.8E-02	NA	1	PHD finger protein 2
JARID2	JHD2	GDSC	12F	Histone Demethylation	-0.2|0.1	-3.2|1	1.9E-03	2.5E-02	210	2	jumonji and AT-rich interaction domain containing 2

 See Table 3 for header descriptions.

A Experimental model

Doxorubicin → Aerobic respiration → Gene-drug interaction
Doxorubicin → Aerobic glycolysis →

~6000 YKO/KD strains, 768 ref strains

Q-HTCP on **HLD** or **HLEG** with 0, 2.5, 5, 7.5, or 15ug/mL doxorubicin

Quantify gene interaction and mine profiles

B Imaging

HLD   HLEG

No drug

15 ug/mL DOX

Hrs: 20 24 30 40   24 48 72 96

C Image analysis

RF)
vps54-Δ0)
mms1-Δ0)   No Drug
Hours: 40 → 80

RF)
vps54-Δ0)
mms1-Δ0)   5 ug/mL DOX
Hours: 50 → 116

RF)
vps54-Δ0)
mms1-Δ0)   15 ug/mL DOX
Hours: 60 → 124

D Growth curve fitting

Strain
RF
mms1-Δ0
vps54-Δ0

$$G(t) = \frac{K}{1+e^{-r(t-1)}}, G(0) < K$$

E Quantification of Interactions

Strain
RF
mms1-Δ0
vps54-Δ0

Raw L vs Doxorubicin
Delta_L vs Doxorubicin
Raw K vs Doxorubicin
Delta K vs Doxorubicin

G GTA: GO module assessment

HPC2
Avg
HIR2
HIR3 HIR1

L z−score Doxo HLD vs L z−score Doxo HLEG

H Warburg-dependence of doxorubicin-gene interaction

Gene interaction
? ?
doxorubicin
glycolysis
cell proliferation
respiration

F REMc/GTF: Gene interaction modules >> GO functional association

Select gene interaction profiles   REMc >> Phenomic modules >> GO enrichment

z-score L > 2 Deletion Enhancers
z-score L < -2 Deletion Suppressors

Media-independent enhancers
Media-independent suppressors
HLEG-specific enhancers
HLEG-specific suppressors
HLD-specific enhancers
HLD-specific suppressors

Media: D EG
CPP: K L

Reference strain growth curve distributions

A HLD

B HLEG

Ref strain CPPs

E F G H

I J K L

Comparison with prior published data

P

Past_Screen
- Westmoreland
- Xia
- Xia_and_Westmoreland

Doxorubicin-gene interaction

M HLD

Ref
- KD
- Ref
- YKO

N HLEG

Ref
- KD
- Ref
- YKO

O

y = 0.33x − 0.19
R² = 0.16

NS_Enh
G_Enh
R_Sup
R_Enh
NS_Sup
G_Sup

G_   glycolytic
R_   respiratory
NS_   non-specific
Enh   enhancement
Sup   suppression

Reproducibility

Q HLD

R HLEG

S

R-squared = 0.69

T

R-squared = 0.76

A

Select gene interaction profiles

Deletion Enhancers

HLEG 1036 | 419 | HLD 408

Deletion Suppressors

HLEG 461 | 241 | HLD 416

U = 2802

C

Classify / annotate clusters based on K and L interaction

Color Key

−10 −5 0 5 10
Value

Four 2nd round clusters derived from 1-0-7, denoted 2-0.7-x; x= :
2: strong K and L interaction
3: moderate K and L interaction
0: no K with strong L interaction
1: weak K and weak L interaction

2-0.7-2   2-0.7-3   2-0.7-0   2-0.7-1

Doxo: - + - + - + - +
Media: D EG D EG
CPP: K L

2ⁿᵈ round REMc

B

1-0-7

Doxo: - + - + - + - +
Media: D EG D EG
CPP: K L

D

HLD K Int
HLEG K Int
HLD L Int
HLEG K Int

Interaction

−10

Cluster name: 1−0−7 2−0.7−2 2−0.7−3 2−0.7−0 2−0.7−1

HLD – Glycolysis

HLEG –Respiration

- NatC complex
- MUB1−RAD6−UBR2 ubiquitin ligase complex
- HIR complex (Nucleosome assembly)
- Histone monoubiquitination
- Respiratory chain complex III assembly
- Histone H3−K56 acetylation
- Lst4−7 complex
- Cul8−RING ubiquitin ligase complex
- HDA1 histone deacetylase complex
- DNA topological change
- ds−break repair via synthesis dependent annealing
- Protein urmylation
- Swr1 complex (Histone exchange)
- Set1C/COMPASS complex
- Rpd3L histone deacetylase complex
- ds−break repair via homologous recombination
- MCM complex
- Protein import into mitochondrial matrix
- ER membrane protein complex

ds−break repair via synthesis dependent annealing
Ubp3−Bre5 deubiquitination complex
Histone H3−K56 acetylation
dTTP biosynthetic process
Cul8−RING ubiquitin ligase complex
ds−break repair via homologous recombination
MCM complex
Cul4−RING E3 ubiquitin ligase complex
HDA1 histone deacetylase complex
Lst4−7 complex
Dom34−Hbs1 Complex

Enhancement

Suppression

- Translation reinitiation
- Regulation of fatty acid beta−oxidation
- Spermine biosynthetic process
- Actin cortical patch localization
- Telomere tethering at nuclear periphery
- Cellular sphingolipid homeostasis

Telomere tethering at nuclear periphery
Actin cortical patch localization
Cellular sphingolipid homeostasis
Condensin complex
7−methylguanosine cap hypermethylation
Histone deubiquitination

Fatty acid elongase activity
- EKC/KEOPS complex

- HLD Specific
- HLEG Specific
- Media Independent
- Identified by REMc
- Identified by GTA

- Fatty acid elongase activity

A

B

A

ds-break repair via homologous recombination

ds break repair via synthesis-dependent strand annealing

ds-break repair via break-induced replication

Term
+ Both double−strand break repair via synthesis−dependent strand annealing and via break−induced replication
+ double−strand break repair via break−induced replication
+ double−strand break repair via homologous recombination
+ double−strand break repair via synthesis−dependent strand annealing

B

Term
+ Cul8−RING ubiquitin ligase complex
+ Ino80 complex
+ Lst4−Lst7 complex
+ MCM complex

A

B

Term
+ cellular sphingolipid homeostasis
+ sphingolipid metabolic process
+ Sphingolipid metabolic process and fatty acid elongase activity

Color Key
−10 −5 0 5 10

Term
+ actin cortical patch localization
+ telomere tethering at nuclear periphery

Warburg-dependent doxorubicin-gene interaction