DNA variants affecting the expression of numerous genes in *trans* have

diverse mechanisms of action and evolutionary histories

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Abstract

DNA variants that alter gene expression contribute to variation in many phenotypic traits. In

particular, *trans*-acting variants, which are often located on different chromosomes from the genes

they affect, are an important source of heritable gene expression variation. However, our

knowledge about the identity and mechanism of causal *trans*-acting variants remains limited. Here,

we developed a fine-mapping strategy called CRISPR-Swap and dissected three expression

quantitative trait locus (eQTL) hotspots known to alter the expression of numerous genes in *trans*

in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Causal variants were identified by engineering

recombinant alleles and quantifying the effects of these alleles on the expression of a green

fluorescent protein-tagged gene affected by the given locus in *trans*. We validated the effect of

each variant on the expression of multiple genes by RNA-sequencing. The three variants were

strikingly different in their molecular mechanism, the type of genes they reside in, and their

distribution in natural populations. While a missense leucine-to-serine variant at position 63 in the

transcription factor Oaf1 (L63S) was almost exclusively present in the reference laboratory strain,

the two other variants were frequent among *S. cerevisiae* isolates. A causal missense variant in the

glucose receptor Rgt2 (V539I) occurred at a poorly conserved amino acid residue and its effect

was strongly dependent on the concentration of glucose in the culture medium. A noncoding

variant in the conserved fatty acid regulated (FAR) element of the *OLE1* promoter influenced the

expression of the fatty acid desaturase Ole1 in *cis* and, by modulating the level of this essential

enzyme, other genes in *trans*. The *OAF1* and *OLE1* variants showed a non-additive genetic

interaction, and affected cellular lipid metabolism. These results revealed remarkable diversity in

the molecular basis of *trans*-regulatory variation, highlighting the challenges in predicting which

natural genetic variants affect gene expression.

Author summary

Differences in the DNA sequence of individual genomes contribute to differences in many traits, such as appearance, physiology, and the risk for common diseases. An important group of these DNA variants influences how individual genes across the genome are turned on or off. In this paper, we describe a strategy for identifying such "*trans*-acting" variants in different strains of baker's yeast. We used this strategy to reveal three single DNA base changes that each influences the expression of dozens of genes. These three DNA variants were very different from each other. Two of them changed the protein sequence, one in a transcription factor and the other in a sugar sensor. The third changed the expression of an enzyme, a change that in turn caused other genes to alter their expression. One variant existed in only a few yeast isolates, while the other two existed in many isolates collected from around the world. This diversity of DNA variants that influence the expression of many other genes illustrates how difficult it is to predict which DNA variants in an individual's genome will have effects on the organism.

Introduction

DNA variants that alter gene expression are an important source of genetic variation for many traits [1], including common disease in humans [2], agricultural yield [3,4] and evolutionary change [5]. To map gene expression variation in the genome, expression levels are measured in a population of individuals and related to the genotype of each individual. This approach identifies expression quantitative trait loci (eQTLs) – genomic regions that each contain one or more variants that affect gene expression.

eQTLs can be classified into two types based on their mechanism of action. *Cis* eQTLs arise from variants that alter the expression of genes on the same DNA molecule, for example by changing the sequence of a regulatory element in a promoter. Most *cis*-acting variants are located close to or within the genes they influence, such that *cis* eQTLs can be detected as "local" eQTLs that overlap the given gene. By contrast, *trans* eQTLs arise from variants that change the activity and/or abundance of a diffusible factor which in turn alter the expression of other genes. *Trans* eQTLs can be located anywhere in the genome relative to the genes they affect. While they can be local (e.g., if a gene encoding a transcription factor resides next to a gene targeted by that factor), most *trans* eQTLs are "distant" from the genes they affect, usually on different chromosomes.

As in genetic mapping of other traits, identifying the specific DNA variants that have causal effects in eQTL regions is challenging. Recent studies have made progress in identifying *cis* acting variants (e.g. [6–10]). However, few *trans*-eQTLs have been resolved to single variants. This is although most of the heritable contribution to gene expression variation arises from *trans* rather than *cis* eQTLs [11–16], and although *trans* acting variation is likely to play pivotal roles in shaping diseases and phenotypes within species [11,17]. Identifying the molecular nature of *trans*-acting variants and the mechanisms by which they alter gene expression is key to understanding the connection between genotypic and phenotypic variation.

Natural isolates of the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* have provided fundamental insights into the genetics of gene expression variation ([12,18–34], reviewed in [35]). Particularly intensive efforts have been directed at the comparison between a laboratory strain (the genome reference strain S288C, or "BY") and a wine strain (RM11a, "RM"), whose genomes differ at about 40,000 variants. eQTL mapping in recombinant progeny from a cross between these strains revealed the existence of eQTL hotspots that each influence the expression of numerous genes in *trans* [18].

Many of these hotspots also affect protein levels [22,36,37]. Recently, an analysis of mRNA levels

in an expanded set of 1,012 BY/RM progeny provided a more comprehensive view of regulatory

variation in this cross [12]. Specifically, *trans*-acting variation arose almost exclusively from 102

hotspots, some of which affected the expression of thousands of genes (Fig 1A). A small number

of hotspots in this and other crosses have been resolved to their causal genes and nucleotide

variants [18,20,23,30,31,34,38–41], but progress towards a more complete view of hotspot

variants has been hampered by the challenges of engineering and measuring the expression effects

of candidate variants.

Fig 1. Hotspot fine mapping strategy. A. Illustration of the possible *cis* and *trans* effects at an eQTL hotspot.

A genomic region, shown in blue with several genes depicted as wide arrows, harbors multiple variants

(stars). Of these, one causal variant (red star) alters the activity and/or abundance of a gene product (blue

circle with red star), which alters the expression of multiple genes (gray arrows) in *trans*. Another variant is

shown affecting a neighboring gene in *cis*, but has no *trans* effect. B. A schematic showing two examples of

engineering a BY allele (blue) to an RM allele (red) using CRISPR-Swap. In step one, a non-essential gene is

replaced by the G418 resistance cassette (KanMX) or an essential gene is flanked by the hygromycin

resistance (hphMX) and KanMX cassettes. In step two, the strain is transformed with the CRISPR-Swap

plasmid pFA0055 that expresses Cas9 and the guide RNA gCASS5a and the auxotrophic marker LEU2; and

a PCR-generated repair template containing the desired RM allele. The gCASS5a/Cas9 complex directs

cleavage (scissors) of the cassettes. Either a single-cut or a double-cut occurs depending on the number of

cassettes present. Selection of transformants for leucine prototrophy and loss of G418, or hygromycin and

G418, resistance identifies strains with the desired RM allele replacement. C. Quantifying the expression of

a representative gene affected in *trans* by a hotspot. Fluorescence of the protein expressed from the GFP-

tagged gene and optical density (OD_{600}) of the culture are measured in 15 minute intervals during growth

in a plate reader. The inflection point, the point where the culture exits logarithmic growth, and two

flanking points are used to determine the GFP/OD_{600} ratio for phenotyping the effect of the engineered

alleles.

Here, we describe a strategy for the identification of causal eQTL hotspot variants that combines

a genome engineering approach with high-throughput quantification of fluorescently tagged

protein expression as a phenotypic readout. We used this strategy to identify causal variants

underlying three *trans*-acting eQTL hotspots in the BY and RM strains: a common missense

variant in the glucose receptor Rgt2, a rare missense variant in the oleate-activated transcription

factor Oaf1, and a common variant in the promoter of *OLE1* that alters the expression of this

essential fatty acid desaturase gene. We studied the effects of these variants in more detail and

discovered that the effect of the *RGT2* variant is influenced by the environment, and that the *OAF1*

and *OLE1* variants interact in a non-additive fashion and lead to changes in cellular lipids. These

results show that variants underlying *trans*-acting hotspots are highly diverse. They can be

common or rare in the population, different in their evolutionary conservation, and located in the

coding or noncoding region of genes encoding functionally diverse proteins.

Results

The CRISPR-Swap strategy for engineering allelic series

To assist fine-mapping of hotspot intervals, we devised "CRISPR-Swap" (Fig 1B), a two-step strategy for efficient allele exchange that combines advantages of "insert-then-replace" methods [42,43] with CRISPR/Cas9 engineering [44–46]. In the first step, a given locus is replaced with a selectable marker cassette. Second, the strain is transformed with a plasmid that expresses Cas9 and a guide RNA (gRNA) that targets the cassette, along with a DNA repair template containing terminal homology to sequences flanking the cassette in the genome. We designed the "gCASS5a" gRNA to specifically target a sequence shared by several selectable marker cassettes used for gene deletions in the popular pFA6a series (e.g., KanMX6, natMX4 and hphMX4; [47–50]; S1 Fig) such that the same gRNA can be used to replace each of these cassettes. By inserting two different cassettes flanking a genomic region, this gRNA can be used to exchange both cassettes along with the intervening sequence. This "double-cut" CRISPR-Swap method enables allele exchange even when the region contains sequences essential for survival (Fig 1B). Additionally, we designed a "gGFP" that specifically targets cassettes used for C-terminal tagging of open reading frames with GFP.

The gRNA/Cas9 complex is constitutively expressed from the CRISPR-Swap plasmid and will continue to cleave at the cassette(s) in the genome until a repair is made that abolishes the gRNA recognition sequence or the cell dies. Consequently, after transformation, all colonies that form on media lacking leucine have undergone a repair that blocks further cleavage by the gRNA/Cas9 complex. We designed the gCASS5a and gGFP gRNAs to cleave in the cassette but outside of the selectable marker gene, such that marker expression should be maintained if repair occurs without exchange of the selectable marker (Figure S1). Thus, transformants with the desired allele swap can be easily identified by screening for the loss of the resistance or auxotrophy conferred by the selectable marker.

We analyzed the results of 40 independent CRISPR-Swaps we performed to determine the efficiency of CRISPR-Swap. After transformation with the CRISPR-Swap plasmid expressing either gCASS5a or gGFP and a PCR-generated repair template, a median of 87.5% of the transformants no longer expressed the cassette selectable marker. We screened over 100 of these transformants for integration of the desired allele by colony PCR, restriction digestion or

sequencing and found that all had the correct allele exchange. We also sequenced the guide RNA

recognition site in 13 transformants that remained G418 resistant and found that 2 had the

hallmarks of repair by non-homologous end-joining, while the remaining 11 were repaired using

the homologous sequence present in the GFP-His3MX cassette in these strains (see below) to

repair the locus. We observed no difference in CRISPR-Swap efficiency among the two strain

backgrounds (BY and RM), the genomic loci we targeted, or the gCASS5a and gGFP gRNAs. In

summary, CRISPR-Swap readily creates allele replacements with high efficiency.

Fine-mapping of hotspot regions using GFP-tagged proteins to measure *trans*-gene

expression

We leveraged the ability of CRISPR-Swap to rapidly engineer allelic series at a given locus to

dissect three *trans*-acting hotspot regions to the causal variant. We focused on these hotspots

because they have strong effects on many genes in *trans*, and because earlier fine-mapping in the

1,012 BY/RM segregant panel had located them to only a few genes. Before engineering each

hotspot, we selected one abundantly expressed gene strongly affected by the hotspot in *trans* to

monitor the effects of our genome edits on its gene expression (Fig 1C). We C-terminally tagged

the open reading frame of this gene with GFP, engineered the hotspot locus with CRISPR-Swap,

and measured GFP fluorescence in each engineered strain during growth on a 96-well plate reader

(Methods). This approach provided high-throughput measurements of gene expression for the

statistically powerful dissection of the hotspot loci.

A missense variant in *RGT2* influences expression of *HXT1* in trans

A hotspot locus on chromosome IV affects the expression of many genes at the mRNA and protein

levels in crosses between BY and RM [12]. In the expanded BY/RM segregant panel, this locus

had been mapped to a region containing three genes: *RGT2*, *ARF2*, and *RPL35-B* (Fig 2A). There

mRNA levels of 1,400 genes are affected by this hotspot in *trans*, and these genes are enriched for

roles in ATP synthesis and carbohydrate derivative metabolism. The strongest *trans* effect was on

HXT1 mRNA (LOD = 182), which encodes a low affinity glucose transporter whose expression is

affected by Rgt2 [51], suggesting *RGT2* is likely the causal gene at this hotspot. In support of this,

genetic variation within the *RGT2* coding region was previously shown to influence protein levels

of the high affinity glucose transporter Hxt2p [29]. *RGT2* encodes a low affinity glucose sensor

located in the plasma membrane (Fig 2B; reviewed in [52]). The BY and RM alleles of *RGT2*

differ at five missense single nucleotide variant (SNVs). Three of these SNVs are located in the

long cytoplasmic-facing C-terminal tail required for glucose signaling, and the remaining two are

within the 12 predicted transmembrane helices (Fig 2B). *RGT2*, as well as *ARF2*, is also influenced

by a local eQTL.

Fig 2. Fine mapping the causal variant in *RGT2*. A. Schematic of the eQTL hotspot on Chromosome IV. From top to bottom, the figure shows the hotspot location on the chromosome and the number of genes it affects, the positions of the BY and RM sequence variants (gray lines mark synonymous and intergenic variants and orange lines mark missense variants), the genes and their positions in the hotspot (large gray arrows; red outlines denote genes with a local eQTL) The 90% confidence interval (light blue), 95%

confidence interval (medium blue) and the position of markers perfectly linked to the hotspot peak marker

(dark blue). B. Schematic of the Rgt2 protein in the plasma membrane. BY / RM missense variants are

indicated by stars, with the identified causal variant in red. The missense variant amino acid positions, their

resulting amino acid change and their PROVEAN scores [53] are shown. The synonymous variants are not

depicted. C. On the left are schematics of *RGT2* alleles with BY sequences in blue and RM sequences in red.

Positions of SNVs are marked with a straight line and INDELs are marked with two diagonal lines. The

variants in the *RGT2* 3'UTR and synonymous variants are not depicted. On the right are the corresponding

Hxt1-GFP fluorescence levels for each allele. P-values are for tests comparing each allele to its respective

wildtype. Significant p-values are outlined. Blue boxplots indicate alleles in the BY background and red

boxplots and gray background shading indicate alleles in the RM background. Lines group measurements

of the same clone. Different symbols (circles, squares, etc.) denote different plate reader runs. Small dots

next to a clone indicate a 5'UTR indel with an allele that does not match the one indicated in the allele

schematics (see Methods).

To determine if *RGT2* is the causal gene at this hotspot and identify the responsible variant, we C-

terminally tagged Hxt1 with GFP and created a series of allele replacements at the *RGT2* locus

using CRISPR-Swap. In both BY and RM backgrounds, deletion of *RGT2* drastically reduced

Hxt1-GFP levels, confirming that *RGT2* is required for proper Hxt1-GFP expression. Replacing

the BY *RGT2* promoter region with the RM allele had no measurable effect on Hxt1-GFP.

Reciprocal allele replacement of the entire *RGT2* coding region showed that the *RGT2* RM allele

resulted in lower Hxt1-GFP expression compared to the BY allele (Fig 2C), which is the direction

of effect expected from eQTL data [12].

By engineering a series of chimeric *RGT2* alleles spanning the coding region we systematically

narrowed the causal region to two missense variants, neither of which were predicted to be

deleterious (Fig 2C; S1 Table). Of these, a G-to-A SNV at 241,965 bp, resulting in a valine to

isoleucine change at amino acid position 539 (V539I), recapitulated the effect of swapping the

entire coding region. In a strain that carried all *RGT2* RM coding variants *except* V539I, Hxt1-

GFP expression was indistinguishable from the BY wildtype, suggesting that V539I is the single

causal variant in this gene. The effect of V539I on Hxt1-GFP expression was present in both BY

and RM (Fig 2C), with no evidence that the strain background influences the effect of this variant

(interaction p-value = 0.1). The variant caused a minor effect on growth rate in the RM
background, but no effect in the BY background (Table 1).

Table 1. Effects of causal hotspot variants on growth rates

Variant	Growth rate in BY (RM allele relative to BY wildtype allele)	p-value in BY	Growth rate in RM (BY allele relative to RM wildtype allele)	p-value in RM
RGT2(V539I)	98%	0.5	93%	0.02
OAF1(S63L)	96%	0.09	100%	>0.99
OLE1(FAR)	92%	0.3	92%	0.005

The *RGT2* V539I variant affects Hxt1-GFP expression in a glucose-dependent manner

Increasing glucose concentrations results in an increase in the expression of Hxt1 [51]. Given that
the V539I variant lies within one of the predicted transmembrane helices that likely form the
pocket necessary for glucose sensing by Rgt2 [54], we hypothesized that the effect of the V539I
variant may change depending on the concentration of glucose in the culture medium. To test this
idea, we measured Hxt1-GFP expression in BY and RM strains with their native *RGT2* alleles as
well as with engineered V539I alleles in a range of glucose concentrations (Fig 3).

Fig 3. Effect of the *RGT2* I539V variant on Hxt1-GFP expression in different glucose concentrations. Hxt1-GFP fluorescence levels in the four different genotypes in increasing glucose concentrations are shown. Blue boxplots indicate alleles in the BY background and red boxplots and gray background shading indicate alleles in the RM background. Lines group measurements of the same clone. Different symbols (circles, squares, etc.) denote different plate reader runs. The inset graph shows fitted effect sizes as a function of glucose concentration. Error bars show standard errors of the mean. P-values are shown for ANOVA models examining the various main and interaction terms.

In both BY and RM, higher glucose concentrations increased expression of Hxt1-GFP regardless of which V539I allele was present. However, the difference in Hxt1-GFP expression between the V539I alleles showed a clear dependence on glucose levels (ANOVA test for interaction between allele effect and glucose concentration: p = 7e-13). The BY allele drove nearly 2-fold higher Hxt1-GFP expression than the RM allele at 1% glucose, while the difference between alleles became almost indistinguishable at 12% glucose. Thus, the effect size of the V539I variant underlying the *RGT2* eQTL hotspot strongly depends on the environment.

A missense variant in *OAF1* alters expression of *FAA4* in trans

Several of the eQTL hotspots identified in the BY/RM cross affect the expression of genes involved in fatty acid metabolism. They include a hotspot on chromosome I, which affects the mRNA and protein levels of 450 genes in *trans*. The locus was previously mapped to a region containing the genes *FLC2* and *OAF1* [12] (Fig 4A). Neither *FLC2* nor *OAF1* are influenced by a local eQTL, suggesting the causal variant is likely coding. *OAF1* encodes a transcription factor that activates expression of genes involved in peroxisome related functions including the β-oxidation of fatty acids [55–57], making it a promising candidate causal gene. The BY and RM alleles of *OAF1* differ at three missense SNVs (Fig 4B).

Fig 4. The *OAF1* causal variant. A. Schematic of the eQTL hotspot on Chromosome IV. From top to bottom, the figure shows the hotspot location on the chromosome and the number of genes it affects, the positions of the BY and RM sequence variants (gray lines mark synonymous and intergenic variants and orange lines mark missense variants), the genes and their positions in the hotspot (large gray arrows; red outlines denote genes with a local eQTL) The 95% confidence intervals (medium blue) and the position of markers perfectly linked to the hotspot peak marker (dark blue).B. Schematic of the Oaf1 protein domains and variants. The conserved zinc-finger domain and the ligand-binding domain [58] are in orange. BY / RM missense variants are indicated by stars, with the identified causal variant in red. The missense variant amino acid positions, their resulting amino acid change and their PROVEAN scores [53] are shown. The synonymous variants are not depicted. C. The figure shows Faa4-GFP fluorescence levels for strains with the indicated *OAF1* (L63S) alleles. P-values are for tests comparing the allele to its respective wildtype. Blue

boxplots indicate alleles in the BY background and red boxplots indicate alleles in the RM background. Lines

group measurements of the same clone. Different symbols (circles, squares, etc.) denote different plate

reader runs.

We engineered a series of *OAF1* alleles and measured Faa4-*GFP* expression in *trans*. *FAA4*

mRNA abundance was shown to be strongly affected by this locus (LOD score = 102, [12]), and

FAA4 encodes a long chain fatty acyl-CoA synthetase, a protein with clear phenotypic connection

to fatty acid metabolism. We found that a single T-to-C missense variant in *OAF1* at 48,751 bp

resulted in a decrease in Faa4-GFP expression in agreement with the direction of effect observed

in the eQTL data (Fig 4C, S2 Fig, S1 Table). The variant encodes a leucine at position 63 in BY

and a serine in RM (L63S). In the Oaf1 protein, the L63S variant is located next to the Zn(2)Cys(6)

DNA binding domain (Fig 4B) where it may alter Oaf1 binding to its regulatory targets. The effect

of L63S on gene expression was consistent in both strain backgrounds (interaction p-value = 0.4;

Fig 4C), and L63S had no detectable effects on growth rate (Table 1).

A noncoding promoter variant influences *OLE1* expression in *cis* and *FAA4* in *trans*

A second fatty-acid related hotspot resides on chromosome VII and affects the mRNA levels of

977 genes, which are enriched for functions in lipid biosynthetic processes as well as the response

to endoplasmic reticulum stress. The confidence interval of this locus spans ~1 kb centered in the

noncoding region between the *SDS23* and *OLE1* genes (Fig 5A). *OLE1* encodes the ER-bound Δ9-

fatty acid desaturase, the only yeast enzyme capable of desaturating fatty acids [59,60]. *SDS23* is

likely involved in regulation of the metaphase to anaphase transition of the cell cycle [61]. Given

the enrichment of target genes of this hotspot involved in lipid metabolism, we reasoned that *OLE1*

is the more likely causal gene. The BY and RM alleles of *OLE1* differ at one missense SNV and

four non-coding variants (2 indels and 2 SNVs) in the *SDS23* and *OLE1* intergenic region.

Fig 5. The *OLE1* causal variant. A. Schematic of the eQTL hotspot on Chromosome VII. From top to bottom,

the figure shows the hotspot location on the chromosome and the number of genes it affects, the positions

of the BY and RM sequence variants (gray lines mark synonymous and intergenic variants and orange lines

mark missense variants), the genes and their positions in the hotspot (large gray arrows; red outlines

denote genes with a local eQTL) The 95% confidence interval (medium blue) and the position of markers

perfectly linked to the hotspot peak marker (dark blue). B. Schematic of the *SDS23 / OLE1* region. BY / RM

variants in the intergenic region and missense variants in the genes are indicated by stars, with the

identified causal variant in the FAR element (peach box) in red. The missense variant amino acid positions,

their resulting amino acid change and their PROVEAN scores [53] are shown. The synonymous variants are

not depicted. C. Fluorescence levels of Ole1-mCherry (left panel) and Faa4-GFP (right panel). The BY strains

harbor both Ole1-mCherry and Faa4-GFP and the indicated *OLE1* alleles. Lines group measurements of the

same clone. Different symbols (circles, squares, etc.) denote different plate reader runs.

We engineered the essential *OLE1* locus using double-cut CRISPR-Swap, by flanking the region

with the HphMX and KanMX cassettes and replacing both cassettes along with the intervening

region with a series of alleles (Fig 1B). We again measured Faa4-GFP expression in the engineered

strains, given *FAA4* mRNA levels are strongly affected by this locus (LOD = 78). We identified a

noncoding A-to-G SNV at 398,081 bp in the intergenic region between *SDS23* and *OLE1* that

affected Faa4-GFP expression in the expected direction based on the eQTL data (S3 Fig, S1 Table).

This effect was consistent in both strain backgrounds (interaction p-value = 0.8). While the BY

allele of this variant decreased growth rate in the RM background, the variant had no effect in the

BY background (Table 1).

The causal variant is located in the fatty-acid regulated (FAR) promoter element, a region known

to be important for transcriptional activation and fatty acid regulation of *OLE1* expression [62]

(Fig 5B). Both *OLE1* and *SDS23* are strongly affected by local eQTLs with higher mRNA

expression linked to the BY allele, suggesting that *OLE1* and/or *SDS23* expression may be affected

by the FAR variant. To test the effect of the FAR variant on *OLE1* expression, we created BY

strains with *OLE1* tagged with mCherry in addition to *FAA4* tagged with *GFP*. In these strains,

the RM FAR allele significantly decreased Ole1-mCherry levels in *cis* and increased Faa4-GFP

levels in *trans* (Fig 5C), which are the directions of effect expected based on the eQTL results [12].

To further examine the *cis*-regulatory activity of the FAR variant, we created reporter plasmids

with multiple alleles of the *SDS23/OLE1* intergenic region driving expression of yeVenus. When

the intergenic region drove expression of yeVenus in the direction of *SDS23*, the promoter alleles

all drove similar yeVenus expression (S4 Fig). In sharp contrast, when the intergenic region drove

expression of yeVenus in the direction of *OLE1*, the FAR-BY allele drove significantly higher

yeVenus expression than the RM allele, fully recapitulating the difference between the all-BY and

all-RM promoter alleles (S4 Fig). The effect did not depend on whether the yeVenus plasmids

were expressed in the BY or RM background (interaction p > 0.29). Together, these results suggest

that the FAR variant influences *OLE1* in *cis*, as well as *FAA4* in *trans*.

Small changes in *OLE1* expression from wildtype levels are sufficient to affect *FAA4* gene expression in *trans*

To explore the effect of *OLE1* and *SDS23* abundance on gene expression in *trans*, we added an additional copy of *OLE1*, *SDS23* or the intergenic sequence on a single-copy plasmid in a BY *FAA4-GFP* strain. The presence of an extra copy of *OLE1* resulted in significant reduction of Faa4-GFP levels, consistent with eQTL data (S5 Fig). By contrast, an extra copy of *SDS23* resulted in an increase in Faa4-GFP levels. An extra copy of the intergenic sequence alone did not change Faa4-GFP levels (S5 Fig). These results further support that it is a change in *OLE1* and not *SDS23* expression that is responsible for the *trans*-effect of the hotspot on *FAA4* expression.

While changes in Ole1 levels appear to be the primary cause for the *trans* effect on Faa4-GFP, the noncoding FAR variant alters *OLE1* expression by only about 15% (Fig 5B). To understand the relationship between *OLE1* and *FAA4* over a range of expression levels, we inserted a synthetic, inducible Z_3EV promoter upstream of *OLE1*. This promoter can be activated precisely and quantitatively by addition of estradiol to the culture medium [63]. We measured both Ole1-mCherry and Faa4-GFP as a function of estradiol concentration and observed a clear anticorrelation between Ole1-mCherry and Faa4-GFP levels (Fig 6). At an estradiol dose of $4 - 5$ nM, the Z_3EV strain expressed Ole1-mCherry and Faa4-GFP at levels comparable to BY strains expressing *OLE1-mCherry* from its native promoter with either the wildtype or FAR-RM allele. Higher doses of estradiol continued to increase Ole1-mCherry levels, while Faa4-GFP dropped rapidly and reached a plateau at levels well below the native BY strains. As expected for the essential *OLE1* gene, low levels of induction resulted in poor growth (S6 Fig). Notably, growth of the Z_3EV strain was closest to wildtype at 6 nM estradiol and higher, a concentration in which *OLE1* expression levels are well above wildtype levels. The reason for this growth defect at wildtype expression levels is unknown and may reflect an inability of strains with the Z_3EV promoter and C-terminal mCherry fusion to finely regulate *OLE1* transcription. Taken together, our results indicate that the BY strain expresses *OLE1* at a level at which even slight alterations in *OLE1* expression, like that caused by the FAR variant, are sufficient to change *FAA4* expression in *trans*.

Fig 6. Expression modulation of Ole1. Fluorescence levels of Ole1-mCherry (solid red lines) under control

of the estradiol-inducible Z₃EV promoter and Faa4-GFP (solid green lines) under its native promoter at

various estradiol doses. Fluorescence levels of strains with the native *OLE1* promoter and the FAR-BY or

FAR-RM allele respectively, are shown as dotted and dashed lines, respectively, at each estradiol

concentration for comparison. All strains harbor both the mCherry tag on Ole1 and the GFP tag on Faa4.

A non-additive interaction between the *OAF1* and *OLE1* variants

The Oaf1 transcription factor binds throughout the *OLE1* promoter including in the close vicinity

of the FAR variant [64]. This raises the possibility that the effects of *OAF1* L63S and the FAR

variant may interact with each other genetically. While neither variant had shown significant

interactions with the genetic background as a whole (see above), a specific interaction between

these two variants could have been obscured by the thousands of other sequence differences

between the BY and RM backgrounds. Indeed, the previous eQTL data contained a non-additive

interaction affecting *FAA4* mRNA levels between two *trans* eQTLs that contained *OAF1* and

OLE1, respectively (Fig 7A). To test if this *trans*-by-*trans* interaction could be explained by the

specific causal variants we identified here, we constructed a BY strain that carried the RM alleles

at both *OAF1* and the FAR variant and compared its Faa4-GFP expression to strains that carried

one or the other of these edits. The combined alleles resulted in Faa4-GFP expression that differed

from an additive allele combination (interaction p = 0.002) in a manner that mirrored the detected

eQTL interaction (Fig 7B). Specifically, in the presence of the more active RM *OAF1* allele, the
FAR variant showed a greater effect than in the presence of the less active BY *OAF1* allele. As
with the majority of epistatic interactions identified in this cross [65], the deviation from additivity
caused by this interaction is detectable but subtle.

To test if this *trans*-by-*trans* interaction affecting *FAA4* could be mediated by a *cis*-by-*trans*
interaction between the same two variants, we introduced our yeVenus plasmids with the two FAR
alleles into BY strains with either the BY or RM *OAF(L63S)* alleles. We again found a significant
interaction between the FAR and *OAF1* variants (Fig 7C). In the presence of the *OAF1*-L63S-RM
allele, the FAR variant resulted in a larger difference in yeVenus expression than in the presence
of the *OAF1*-L63S-BY allele (p = 1.5 e-7). The *OAF1* RM allele also resulted in overall higher
expression of the yeVenus construct (p = 1.6 e-6). Taken together, these results show that the
OAF1 L63S variant and the *OLE1* FAR variant interact genetically such that their effects on gene
expression in *cis* as well as *trans* are not simply additive.

Fig 7. Nonadditive genetic interaction between the *OAF1* and *OLE1* causal variants. A. Data from [12] show
levels of *FAA4* mRNA in 1,012 BY/RM segregants, divided into four groups depending on their genotypes at
OAF1 and *OLE1*. Note the slightly larger difference between *OLE1* alleles in segregants that carry the RM
allele (red boxplots) compared to the BY allele (blue boxplots) at *OAF1*. B. Faa4-GFP fluorescence levels in
strains engineered to carry the BY or RM allele at OAF1-L63S and OLE1(FAR). C. yeVenus fluorescence levels
for strains engineered to carry the BY or RM allele at OAF1-L63S and the OLE1(FAR) promoter driving
yeVenus expression on a plasmid. The difference between *OLE1* alleles in segregants (in A) or strains (in B
and C) that carry the RM allele (red boxplots) compared to the BY allele (blue boxplots) at *OAF1* are
highlighted by gray arrows.

The *OAF1* and *OLE1* variants alter lipid profiles

To test if the two causal variants in the fatty acid metabolism genes *OAF1* and *OLE1* alter cellular phenotypes other than gene expression, we measured overall lipid composition as well as non-esterified ("free") fatty acids (NEFAs) in the RM and BY strains, as well as in BY strains with *OAF1(L63S)-RM*, *OLE1* FAR-RM, or both of these alleles (Fig 8 & S7 Fig). The BY and RM strains differed in multiple metabolites (S7 Fig, S2 Table, S3 Table), and the presence of either of the two variant alleles in the BY background also resulted in significant differences in lipid metabolites. The BY *OAF1* allele decreased the fraction of longer-chain (C18) lipids (Fig 8A) and also caused a decrease in the amount of C18 NEFAs (S7 Fig). This change resembles the effect of an *OAF1* deletion on lipid metabolism [64], consistent with the BY *OAF1* allele having reduced function (S2 Fig). The *OLE1* FAR-RM allele resulted in a significant increase in the amount of saturated NEFAs but did not significantly reduce the amount of desaturated NEFAs (Fig 8B). This suggests that reduced expression of the Ole1 desaturase caused by the FAR-RM allele results in reduced consumption of the substrate but maintains levels of the reaction product in the reaction catalyzed by Ole1. We did not detect changes in overall lipid composition due to the *OLE1* FAR-RM allele. Taken together, our results show that the variants affecting *OLE1* expression and Oaf1 activity translate to changes in cellular lipids.

437   **Fig 8. Lipid and fatty acid measurements.** A. The fraction of C18 lipids in BY strains with wildtype or RM

438   alleles at *OAF1(L63S)* or *OLE1*(FAR) or a combination of both. B. The concentration of saturated and

439   unsaturated non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA) in the same strains. For each strain, the figure shows values

440   for each replicate (smaller points) along with the mean (larger points) and standard deviation (vertical

441   lines). See S7 Fig for all measurements.

The fine-mapped variants are the cause of the hotspot effects on mRNA levels

We have shown that each of the variants in *RGT2*, *OAF1*, and the *OLE1* FAR element affect the

protein expression of a representative gene in *trans*. If these variants underlie the *trans*-acting

hotspots, we expect them to alter the transcript levels of many genes, and that these expression

changes will correlate with the known effects of the hotspots we sought to fine-map. To test this,

we quantified transcript levels in BY strains edited at each variant (S4 Table – S6 Table).

Each of the three variants altered the transcript levels of dozens of genes including the

representative gene we used for fine-mapping (*HXT1* or *FAA4*) with the expected direction of

effect (Fig 9, Table 2). In addition, the FAR variant caused a nominally significant ($p = 0.03$) effect

on *OLE1* but not on *SDS23* ($p = 0.7$), in agreement with our yeVenus reporter assay (S4 Fig).

Crucially, the magnitude of expression change caused by the three variants was significantly and

positively correlated with the respective hotspot effects (Fig 9) when considering all expressed

genes. Like the vast majority of *trans* eQTLs [12], the three hotspots dissected here have small

effects on most genes, typically explaining only a few percent of variance in mRNA levels. Our

RNA-Seq experiment was not designed to detect such small effects at statistical significance,

which would require dozens to hundreds of replicates. When we used a lenient significance cutoff

(uncorrected $p < 0.05$) to restrict our analysis to genes with some evidence for differential

expression, the correlations with hotspot effects increased at each hotspot (Table 2). These strong

correlations were reflected in high directional concordance. For example, at a more stringent

threshold (false discovery rate = 10%), every differentially expressed gene had concordant

direction of effect with the given hotspot for *RGT2* and *OLE1*, and there was just a single

discordant gene (out of 30) for *OAF1* (Fig 9). This strong agreement between expression changes

caused by the three variants and known hotspot effects shows that these variants are causal variants

at their respective hotspots.

Fig 9. Comparison of the differential gene expression caused by each causal variant and the eQTL hotspot

effects. The differential expression of an edited vs wildtype strain is on the x-axis and the previously

determined hotspot effects are on the y-axis. All genes with non-zero hotspot effects are shown. Red points

are genes with differential expression p-value < 0.05. Purple points are genes with differential expression

at FDR < 0.1. The larger red circles mark the genes used for fine-mapping. The blue circles are genes we

investigated in the confidence interval of each hotspot. The correlation between differential expression

and hotspot effects is given in each panel. For *RGT2*, orange circles show adenine-metabolism related genes

that are described in the text.

Table 2. RNA Seq results

Variant	Number of DE genes (10% FDR)	Number of DE genes (p < 0.05)	Correlation[1] between DE[2] and hotspot effect: all genes	Correlation[1] between DE[2] and hotspot effect: genes with DE p < 0.05
RGT2 (V539I)	45	183	Rho = 0.30, p = 2e-25	Rho = 0.64, p ≈ 0
OAF1(L63S)	45	147	Rho = 0.62, p = 1e-46	Rho = 0.80, p = 6e-15
FAR	18	95	Rho = 0.34, p = 1e-19	Rho = 0.48, p = 0.0015

[1]These correlations exclude genes without a hotspot effect detected in [12].

[2]log2 fold change

If a hotspot is caused by multiple causal variants in the same or neighboring genes, our single

variant edit might not account for all the effects of the hotspot. Therefore, we examined genes with

transcript levels strongly affected by the hotspot that are unaffected by our variant edits. Genes

strongly affected by the hotspot at *RGT2* but not by the *RGT2 V539I* variant showed a significant

enrichment for "*de novo* IMP biosynthetic process" (corrected p = 9e-9) and related terms in purine

metabolism. This enrichment is driven by seven ADE genes with large hotspot effects that were

all non-significant in our experiment (Fig 9). We suspect that a second variant in this region is

responsible for these effects.

Population distribution and conservation of causal variants

To explore the evolutionary history of the three causal hotspot variants, we examined their

distribution across a worldwide panel of 1,011 *S. cerevisiae* isolates with genomic sequence [66].

The BY allele at *OAF1* L63S is rare among yeast isolates (Fig 10). It is carried only by BY and a

few close relatives while the RM allele is present in all other isolates as well as related species.

Reflecting this pattern, the Protein Variation Effect Analyzer (PROVEAN) tool [53] assigned a

"deleterious" score of -5.4 to the BY allele at this variant. In our experiments, the BY *OAF1* allele

increased Faa4-GFP expression, which was the same direction caused by the *OAF1* knockout (S2

Fig). Thus, the *OAF1* hotspot is caused by a rare, derived missense variant almost exclusive to the

BY laboratory strain that probably reduces function of the Oaf1 transcription factor.

Fig 10. Population genetic features of the causal variants. Neighbor joining tree of the 1,011 *S. cerevisiae* strains sequenced in [66]. For each causal variant, the presence of the BY (blue), RM (red), BY and RM (purple), or other (black) allele is shown across the tree. For the *OAF1* and *RGT2* missense variants, amino-acid alignments with the indicated species are shown. For the intergenic FAR variant, we show nucleotide alignments as well as PhastCons conservation scores for the depicted *SDS23* / *OLE1* region from the UCSC Genome Browser.

The *RGT2* and *OLE1* variants show very different patterns. At *RGT2* V539I, both the valine in BY and the isoleucine in RM are also encoded by related yeast species (Fig 10). Evidently, the V539I variant can be tolerated without severe fitness consequences, as reflected in a "neutral" PROVEAN score of 0.12. Within *S. cerevisiae*, the highly divergent and likely ancestral group of Chinese isolates [66–68] carry the valine found in BY, suggesting that the isoleucine in RM is derived. This derived allele has ~25% frequency in the *S. cerevisiae* population, where it is predominantly found in isolates from the European wine clade, as well as in a second group of isolates with mixed origin (Fig 10). Both the derived RM variant and an *RGT2* deletion resulted in reduced induction of *HXT1* expression (Fig 2C).

At the *OLE1* FAR variant, the alanine found in BY is present in the ancestral Chinese isolates,

suggesting that the guanine in RM is derived (Fig 10). Indeed, the nucleotide sequence of the

noncoding region surrounding the FAR variant is conserved among *Saccharomyces sensu stricto*

species, and all other species carry the alanine found in BY at this position. The RM allele has

high frequency (46%) among yeast isolates, predominantly due to near fixation among the many

isolates in the European wine clade. The allele is also present in isolates from dairy, ale beer, and

other origins. The RM allele increased *FAA4* expression in *trans*. This is the same direction of

effect we observed when inserting the kanMX cassette immediately downstream of *OLE1*. Such

engineered alleles are commonly called "Decreased Abundance by mRNA Perturbation" (DAmP)

alleles and are expected to decrease gene function by lowering mRNA transcript levels ([69]; S3

Fig).

Thus, the three causal variants identified here have diverse population genetic characteristics. They

include a rare, lab-specific allele and two common alleles found in a quarter or more of the

sequenced yeast isolates. At all three variants, we observed that the likely derived allele altered

gene expression in the same direction as alleles that eliminate or reduce gene function.

Discussion

We fine-mapped natural DNA variants that each result in expression changes at many genes in
trans using CRISPR-Swap, a strategy that facilitates rapid engineering of allelic series at a given
locus. CRISPR-Swap is similar to other recently developed two-step engineering approaches
[70,71], and has multiple advantages: 1) The great majority of clones that are transformed with the
CRISPR-Swap plasmid and repair template incorporate the desired allele and clones without the
desired allele are easily identified by screening for maintained expression of the cassette selectable
marker. 2) gRNAs do not need to be designed and tested for each region due to the use of a common
gRNA. 3) Regions without a nearby PAM site can be engineered because the gRNAs target
integrated cassettes rather than the genomic region directly. 4) Larger regions, including those that
contain essential genes can be engineered by flanking the region with two cassettes and using a
single gRNA to cut and swap both cassettes and the intervening region. 5) Our gRNAs can be
directly used to engineer existing strains that already contain cassettes e.g., strains in the *S.*
cerevisiae deletion and GFP collections [72,73].

While we successfully used GFP-tagged protein abundance as phenotypic readouts amenable to
high-throughput measurement, the hotspots we dissected had been identified via their effects on
mRNA levels. The effects of the locus on the mRNA and protein of the gene used for phenotyping
cannot always assumed to be consistent [22,37]. Further, fine-mapping using the expression of a
single focal gene can only detect variants that influence this focal gene. Additional variants in the
same region that specifically affect other genes would be missed. Indeed, while our RNA-Seq
results were consistent with single causal variants at *OAF1* and *OLE1*, they suggested the presence
of a second causal variant close to *RGT2*, which acts on genes involved in purine metabolism.
Evidently, even such narrowly mapped hotspot loci as those we dissected here can be due to
multiple causal variants with distinct effects but in close proximity to each other, as has been
observed for QTLs for other traits in yeast [74,75].

A key result from this work is that the three causal variants we identified are strikingly different
from each other. First, the variants include two coding missense variants (in *RGT2* and *OAF1*),
along with the *cis*-acting noncoding FAR variant at *OLE1*. In yeast, 10 additional natural variants
have been experimentally demonstrated to affect gene expression in *trans*, and there are 5
additional hotspots for which the gene but not the causal variant is known (S7 Table ,

[18,20,23,30,31,34,38–41], see also [76]) Coding variation underlies at least 13 of these 18 cases,

including missense, frameshift and transposon insertion variants. In species other than yeast,

information about causal *trans* eQTL variants remains extremely limited [77–80]. In human

genetics, searches for *trans* eQTLs often assume a model in which noncoding variants alter the

expression of a regulator gene in *cis*, which in turn alters the expression of other genes in *trans*

[81–85]. The FAR variant at *OLE1* discovered here is an example of such a mechanism. However,

the predominance of causal coding variants in yeast suggests that *trans* eQTLs caused by coding

variants may also exist in other species.

Second, the genes affected by the three variants encode different types of proteins: a glucose sensor

(Rgt2), a transcription factor (Oaf1), and the essential enzyme Ole1. While genes encoding

transcription factors are enriched in hotspot regions [12], hotspots clearly also arise from other

gene classes (S7 Table). Among these, enzymes are a particularly interesting group. Because most

enzymes do not directly regulate gene expression, metabolic changes caused by differential

enzyme activity or expression must trigger *trans* changes in gene expression indirectly [86,87].

The FAR variant at *OLE1* illustrates the indirect mechanisms that could underlie such indirect

trans effects. Its RM allele reduced Ole1 expression and increased saturated NEFAs. Higher lipid

saturation decreases membrane fluidity [88–90] which is sensed by membrane-bound dimers of

Mga2 or Spt23 [88,91–93]. In our data, the FAR RM allele increased *MGA2* expression in *trans*.

Apparently, this noncoding variant perturbs mechanisms involved in membrane homeostasis,

which may ultimately alter gene expression via the transcriptional regulator *MGA2*.

The *trans* effects of the FAR variant were caused by a decrease in Ole1 levels of only about 15%

(Fig 5B & 6). Such sensitivity to small expression changes may be unusual among genes. While

the BY and RM strains carry thousands of local eQTLs affecting at least half of the genes in the

genome, most of these local eQTLs do not result in detectable expression changes at other genes

in *trans* [12]. Little is known about whether, when, and how small expression changes at one gene

influence other genes in *trans*, and how some of these changes go on to influence the organism.

Pioneering studies have shown that even relatively small reductions in the expression of the

enzyme genes *TDH3* [94] and *LCB2* [95] can reduce fitness, and that the relationship between

gene expression and fitness is specific to each gene [96], the environment [96], and the strain

background [95]. Future work will explore the causal relationships among fitness and gene

expression changes in *trans*.

Finally, the three causal variants we discovered also differed in their population genetic
characteristics. The *OAF1(S63L)* variant is rare, while the *RGT2* and *OLE1* variants are found in
many isolates. These two common variants differ in the degree of evolutionary conservation of
their site, with poor conservation at *RGT2(V539I)* and high conservation at the noncoding FAR
variant. At least in the case of *RGT2*, simple evolutionary conservation alone would not have been
sufficient to predict the causal variant.

At all three variants, the derived alleles affected *trans* gene expression in the same direction as loss
of function or reduced function alleles. While this suggests that the derived alleles are detrimental,
the high frequency in the population of the *RGT2* and *OLE1* alleles argues against strong negative
fitness consequences. While these two variants could potentially be beneficial in some
backgrounds or conditions, they could also be sufficiently mildly deleterious to have drifted to
high frequency, as has been proposed to be the case for many *trans*-acting polymorphisms [97,98].
Indeed, none of the three variants resulted in consistent growth differences in both backgrounds in
our culture medium (Table 1), suggesting that any fitness effects they may have are minor or occur
in other environments. For example, at *RGT2*, the effect of the V539I variant on *HXT1* expression
was reduced dramatically simply by altering the amount of glucose in the medium, suggesting that
the long-term evolutionary consequences of this variant could be highly dependent on the
environment.

With the arrival of population-scale genome sequencing [99], the functional interpretation of
individual DNA variants has become a major goal of genetics, and numerous experimental and
computational approaches aiming to predict phenotypic consequences of variants have been
developed [53,100–107]. The diverse nature of variants that cause *trans*-eQTLs revealed here will
make prediction of *trans* effects challenging. More data on the effects of variants on gene
expression in *trans* will be important to understand *trans*-regulatory variation, both from high
throughput approaches [108–114], and focused dissection of individual hotspots.

Materials and methods

Strains, Plasmids, Primers and Media

Experiments were performed in haploid *S. cerevisiae* strains derived from S288C (BY4741 (MATa, his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0), referred to as "BY" in the text) and RM-11a, (RM HO(BY) (MATa, his3Δ1::CloNAT, leu2Δ0, ura3Δ0 HO(BY) allele) AMN1(BY allele), referred to as "RM"). All strains used in this study can be found in S8 Table. The HO(BY) allele was introduced into this RM strain by replacing the hphMX cassette at HO with the BY allele in YLK2442 (a gift from L. Kruglyak) by CRISPR-Swap. Importantly, the CloNAT resistance gene at the *HIS3* locus in RM HO(BY) is not recognized by the gCASS5a. All plasmids used in this study are in S9 Table. All primers/oligonucleotides are in S10 Table.

We used the following media (recipes are for 1L):

YNB+2% Glu +all (6.7 g yeast nitrogen base with ammonium sulfate and without amino acids, 20 g glucose, 50 mg histidine, 100 mg leucine, 50 mg methionine, 200 mg uracil and sterilized by filtration)

YNB+2% Glu -Leu (YNB+2% Glu+all (without leucine)

YPD (10 g yeast extract, 20 g peptone, 20 g glucose)

SDC-Leu (1.66 g SC -His -Leu -Ura, 50 mg histidine, 200 mg uracil, 20 g glucose)

SDC-His (1.66 g SC -His -Leu -Ura, 100 mg leucine, 200 mg uracil, 20 g glucose)

LB (10 g tryptone, 10 g NaCl, 5 g yeast extract)

Media for selection of resistance gene expression was supplemented at the following concentrations: ampicillin (100 µg/ml), nourseothricin sulfate (100 µg/ml), G418 sulfate (200 µg/ml), hygromycin B (300 µg/ml). For solid media, 20 g/L agar was added prior to autoclaving. Yeast were grown at 30°C. Bacteria were grown at 37°C.

Plasmid construction

To construct the CRISPR-Swap plasmids we annealed oligos OFA0185 and OFA0186 for
gCASS5a (pFA0055) and OFA0552 and OFA0553 for gGFP (pFA0057), and ligated them into
the BclI and SwaI sites of pML107, a gift of John Wyrick (Addgene #67639) as described in [45].

We are depositing pFA0055 and pFA0057 to Addgene under #131774 and #131784, respectively.

The yeVenus reporter plasmids were created by PCR fusion of the *OLE1* (-1 to -936) or *SDS23* (-
1 to -1090) promoter fragment with the open reading frame of yeVenus, a gift of Kurt Thorn
(Addgene plasmid #8714) [115]. To create plasmids pRS415-p*OLE1*(BY)-yeVenus and pRS415-
p*OLE1*(RM)-yeVenus, the *OLE1* promoter and yeVenus PCR fragments were digested with
HindIII and BglII and ligated into pRS415 [116] digested with HindIII and BamHI. To create
pRS415-pOLE1(BY_FAR_RM)-yeVenus and pRS415-pOLE1(RM_FAR_BY)-yeVenus the
OLE1 promoter PCR fragment was digested with HindIII and PstI and ligated into the same sites
of pRS415-OLE1(BY)-yeVenus_1. To create pRS415-SDS23(BY)pVenus, the *SDS23* promoter
and yeVenus PCR fragment was digested with SalI and NdeI and cloned into the same sites of
pRS415-pOLE1(BY)-yeVenus_1. For details on the creation of the PCR fusions see S11 Table.

pRS415-OLE1(BY) was created by ligating the OLE1(BY) gene (-936 to+373) after PCR
amplification and digestion with HindIII (native in OLE1) and BamHI (on OFA0641 primer) into
the same sites of pRS415. pRS415-SDS23(BY) was created by ligating the SDS23(BY) gene (-
1033, +4730) after PCR amplification and digestion with BamHI and SacI into the same sites of
pRS415. pRS415-SDS23-OLE1p(BY) was created by ligating the 1009-bp intergenic region
between SDS23 and OLE1 after PCR amplification and digestion with BamHI and HindIII into
the same sites of pRS415.

Tagging genes and cassette insertion

Insertions of cassettes for genome modification were performed using a standard PCR-based
one-step method [50]. Selection markers used were HIS3MX6, which allows growth of *his3-*
mutants without exogenous histidine, KanMX4, which allows growth with G418, natMX6,
which allows growth with nourseothricin sulfate/CloNAT and hphMX4 or hphNT1, which
allows growth with hygromycin B. For C-terminal tagging of *HXT1*, we used the GFP-

HIS3MX6 cassette for tagging of *HXT1*, and the mCherry-hphNT1 cassette, a gift of Jiří Hašek

(Addgene plasmid #74635) [117] for tagging of *OLE1*. For the first step of CRISPR-Swap, we

used KanMX4 and hphMX cassettes for gene deletion or for cassette insertion without deletion.

After selection for these markers, the transformants were single colony purified and insertion

of the cassette in the correct location and absence of the wild-type allele were verified by PCR.

Construction of repair templates for CRISPR-Swap

680 Repair templates were PCR amplified from BY and RM genomic DNA with primers designed to

681 create products with termini homologous (ranging from 84 – 338 bp) to the region flanking the

682 targeted cassette and, when possible, to be free of BY/RM sequence differences. To create hybrid

683 BY and RM repair templates, we used PCR SOEing techniques [118]. See S11 Table for details

684 on construction of each template.

CRISPR-Swap

Strains were transformed with the gCASS5a or gGFP plasmid and a PCR-generated repair

template using a standard lithium acetate procedure [119]. For each transformation, we used 25 ml

of cells at OD_{600}= 0.4-0.8. To prepare 50 ml of cells for transformation, the cells were pelleted by

centrifugation at 3,000 g for 3 min, the supernatant removed and the cells were resuspended in 1

ml water and transferred to a 1.7 ml microfuge tube. The cells were pelleted at 2,500 g for 2 min,

the supernatant removed, and the cells were resuspended in 1 ml of Solution 1 (0.1M LiAc, 1X TE

buffer). The cells were pelleted once again, supernatant removed, and then resuspended in 200 μl

of Solution 1. For each transformation, ~125 μl of the cell mixture was transferred to a 1.7 ml

microfuge tube containing 100 ng of the guide RNA plasmid, 1000 ng of PCR-generated repair

template and 5 μl (10 μg/μl) of salmon sperm carrier DNA (Sigma #D7656) and the tube was

incubated on a turning wheel at 30°C for 30 min. After which, 700 μl of Solution 2 (0.1M LiAc,

1X TE and 40% PEG 3350) was added and the mixture was returned to the turning wheel and

incubated at 30°C for 30 min. Next, the mixture was incubated at 42°C for 15 min and then 500

μl of water was added. To wash the cells prior to plating, the cells were pelleted at 2,500 g for 2

min, the supernatant removed, and the cells were resuspended in 1 ml of water. The cells were

pelleted once again at 2,500 g for 2 min, the supernatant removed, and the cells resuspended in

200 µl of water, plated onto two SDC-Leu plates, and incubated at 30°C for 3 – 4 days. The median

number of colonies growing on SDC-Leu after single-cut CRISPR-Swap was 38 for BY and 3 for

RM strains. After double-cut CRISPR-Swap there were ~50% fewer transformants in each

background. The resultant leucine prototrophic colonies were single-colony purified on SDC-Leu

plates and then assayed for loss of the selectable marker cassette by identifying strains that could

no longer grow on YPD with G418, or, for *OLE1* allele exchanges, YPD with G418 and/or YPD

with hygromycin. We did not cure the strains of the CRISPR-Swap plasmid with the exception of

the strains used for RNA sequencing and the RM HO(BY) strain YFA0254. In our experience, the

plasmid is rapidly lost and therefore was likely not present during phenotyping of the strains. To

cure the strains of the plasmid, the strains were single-colony streaked and then replica plated to

SC-Leu to identify leucine auxotrophic colonies. We preserved a minimum of three independently

derived strains for each allele swap in glycerol (15% final concentration) stored at -80°C.

Verification of allele exchange

We performed colony PCR to verify the absence of the selectable marker cassette(s) and presence

of the desired allele. Further verification of variant incorporation was in some cases performed by

sequencing or by restriction enzyme digestion. To verify variants by enzyme digestion, we

screened for the presence of an SspI site created by the *OAF1* L63S BY allele and an NcoI site

created by the *OLE1* L304M RM allele. We did not always verify the allele exchange since we

found that 100% of the colonies that no longer expressed the selectable marker had the desired

allele. Special cases of allele exchange verification are described below.

The *RGT2* repair templates in some allele swaps contained a single indel variant within the 5'

homologous flanking region. In these strains, the variant was sequenced and only strains with the

desired variant were preserved when possible. In other cases, the mismatched variant is indicated

in Fig 2 and S8 Table. We found this variant to have no effect on expression of Hxt1-GFP.

The BY FAA4-GFP OLE1(L304M) strains were created using single-cut CRISPR-Swap of the

KanMX cassette in BY FAA4-GFP DAmP(OLE1) (YFA0547) and a repair template made from

BY genomic DNA with OFA0519, which carries the RM variant at L304M, and OFA0120.

Because the site of homologous recombination can initiate anywhere along the *OLE1* gene present

in the genome, the L304M variant was verified by restriction digestion and sequencing and 4 of

10 allele swaps successfully incorporated the RM variant at L304M.

When performing double-cut CRISPR-Swap at the *OLE1* locus, we observed incorporation of

unexpected BY/RM chimeric alleles in 2/36 strains in which we genotyped at least one variant.

We believe this can occur because the *OLE1* repair template is homologous to the sequence

between the two cassettes, allowing recombination to occur between the repair template and the

intervening sequence.

740   Phenotyping of engineered strains

Precultures were inoculated with cells from strains freshly growing on YPD plates or from glycerol

stocks and grown overnight in 800 – 1000 µl of YNB+2% Glu+all medium in a 2-ml deep-96-

well-plate on an Eppendorf Mixmate shaker set at 1100 rpm at 30°C. The precultures were diluted

to an OD_{600}=0.05 in 100 µl of the same medium in a 96-well flat bottom plate (Costar) and the

plates were sealed with a Breathe Easy membrane (Diversified Biotech). The strains were

phenotyped in a BioTek Synergy H1 (BioTek Instruments) plate reader at 30°C with readings

taken every 15 min for 97 cycles with 10 sec of orbital shaking between reads and 11 – 13 min

between cycles. Cell growth was characterized using absorbance readings at 600 nm and protein

expression was measured using fluorescence readings taken from the bottom of the plate with the

following parameters: GFP (excitation 488, emission 520 nm) and yeVenus (excitation 502,

emission 532 nm) with an average of 10 reads per well and gain set on extended; and mCherry

(excitation 588 nm, emission 620 nm) with an average of 50 reads per well and gain set at 150.

All plate reader measurements are available at our code repository at

https://github.com/frankwalbert/threeHotspots.

756   Growth of *RGT2* strains in different glucose concentrations

HXT1-GFP tagged strains, BY (YFA0276-8), BY RGT2(V539I) (YFA0489-91), RM (YFA0279-

81) and RM RGT2(I539V) (YFA0492-95) were precultured overnight in 1 ml of YNB+all with

the indicated glucose concentration (1%-12% glucose w/vol.) The cultures were diluted in 100 µl

of the same media and phenotyped as described above. We removed one strain (YFA0275, a BY

wild type strain present on one plate) from the analyses because it showed highly unusual *HXT1-*

GFP expression at high glucose.

yeVenus reporter expression

Strains BY (YFA0993), RM (YFA0254), or BY OAF1(L63S) (YFA0907) were transformed with

pRS415-based plasmids containing *OLE1 / SDS23* intergenic fragments driving expression of the

yeVenus reporter. Phenotyping was performed as described above in YNB+2% Glu -Leu to

maintain the plasmids. Precultures were inoculated with transformants that were single colony

purified on SDC-Leu plates or using pools of transformants (~5-10 colonies) taken directly from

the SDC-Leu transformation plates and grown overnight, diluted, and phenotyped as described

above.

Modulation of OLE1 expression using Z_3EV

The BY *FAA4-GFP* strain expressing the estradiol responsive transcription activator was created

by inserting p*ACT1*-Z_3EV-NATMX [63] at the *HO* locus, S11 Table for more details. The *OLE1*

gene was then modified to have the Z_3EV responsive promoter cassette (KANMX-pZ_3EV and a

C-terminal fusion with mCherry-hphNT1. Cells of BY FAA4-GFP OLE1-mCherry(YFA1105),

BY FAA4-GFP OLE1(FAR_RM)-mCherry(YFA1140) and BY HO::pACT1_Z_3EV FAA4-GFP

Z_3EVpOLE1-mCherry (YFA1110; glycerol stock prepared from a culture grown in 8 nM

estradiol) were precultured overnight in 250 µl of YNB+2% Glu+all with 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 15, 20, 30

or 40 nM of estradiol (Sigma E1024: 10 µM stock solution in ethanol), diluted in 100 µl of the

same media, and phenotyped as described above.

Extraction and sequencing of mRNA

Strains BY(YFA1130), BY RGT2 back to WT(YFA1131), BY OAF1(L63S) (YFA1132), BY

OLE1(FAR_RM) (YFA1133) and BY RGT2(V539I) (YFA1134) were precultured (7 precultures

of each strain) in 1 ml of YNB+2% Glu+all as described above. After ~18 hours of growth, the

precultures were diluted to OD_{600}=0.05 in 1 ml of the same media. After ~7 hours of growth, the

optical density of the cultures was measured in the plate reader and growth was continued until an

average plate $OD_{600} = 0.37$, at which time the plate was centrifuged for 3 min at 2,100 g, the

supernatant removed, and each cell pellet was resuspended in 1 ml of H_2O and transferred to a 1.7

ml microfuge tube. The tubes were centrifuged for 2 min at 16,000g, the supernatant removed, and

the cell pellets were immediately frozen by immersion of the tube in liquid nitrogen and stored at

-80°C.

Five cell pellets from each strain were chosen for RNA isolation so that the average OD_{600} within

and between strains were as uniform as possible, with an average $OD_{600} = 0.37$ (range of 0.34 to

0.40). Total RNA was isolated from cell pellets in 5 batches (each batch contained one of each of

the 5 strains) using the ZR Fungal/Bacterial RNA mini-prep kit including the DNase I on-column

digestion step (Zymo Research). Each cell pellet was resuspended in lysis buffer and transferred

to screw-capped tubes containing glass beads and the cells were broken open using a mini-

beadbeater (Biospec Products) in 5 cycles of 2 min bead beating followed by 2 min at -80°C. The

total RNA was eluted in 50 µl of DNAse/RNAse free water and the RNA Integrity and

concentration was measured using an Agilent 2200 Tape Station. RINe scores ranged from 9.8 –

10, with an average RNA concentration of 137 ng/µl.

Poly-A RNA was extracted from 550 ng of total RNA using NEBNext Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic

Isolation Module (NEB) and used as input into the NEB Ultra II Directional RNA library kit for

Illumina (NEB E7760) in two batches. NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina (Dual Index

Primers Set1) were used to amplify and barcode the libraries using the following cycling

conditions: Initial Denaturation at 98°C for 30 s and 10 cycles of: 98°C for 10 s and 65°C for 75

s, followed by a 65°C extension for 5 min.

The amplified DNA was quantified using Qubit DNA HS. Sample concentrations ranged from 47

– 102 ng/µl. An equal concentration of each of the 25 barcoded libraries was pooled and the

average fragment size of the library was 350 bp, as determined using an Agilent High Sensitivity

chip. High-output sequencing of 76-bp single-end reads was performed on an Illumina NextSeq

550 at the University of Minnesota Genomics Core. An average of 14 million reads were obtained

for each sample.

Sequencing reads are available at GEO as series GSE134169.

Lipid Measurements

Strains BY (YFA0897), RM HO(BY) (YFA0254), BY OAF1(L63S) (YFA0907), BY OLE1(FAR_RM) (YFA0914) and BY OLE1(FAR_RM)OAF1(L63S)(YFA1096) were precultured (6 precultures of each strain) for ~18 hours in 1 ml of YNB+2% Glu+all and then diluted in 7 ml of the same media to an $OD_{600} = 0.002$ in a loosely capped 16 X 150 mm culture tube and grown at 30°C on a turning wheel until an approximate $OD_{600} = 0.34$ (measured in plate reader). Samples were centrifuged for 3 min at 2,100g, the supernatant was removed and the cell pellets were resuspended in 1 ml of water and transferred to 1.7 ml microfuge tubes. The cells were pelleted for 2 min at 16,000g, the supernatant removed, and the cell pellets were immediately frozen by immersion of the tube in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

Cell pellets from each strain were resuspended in 1X PBS and sonicated. Fatty acids and total lipid composition were measured against a standard curve on a triple quadrupole mass spectrometer coupled with an Ultra Pressure Liquid Chromatography system (LC/MS) as previously described [120]. Briefly, the cell pellets were spiked with internal standard prior to extraction with tert-Butyl Methyl Ether (MTBE). Roughly 25% of the sample was dried down, hydrolyzed, re-extracted and brought up in running buffer for the analysis of total fatty acid composition. The remaining portion of the extract was dried down and brought up in running buffer prior to injecting on the LC/MS for the NEFA measurement. Data acquisition was performed under negative electrospray ionization condition.

Allele frequencies of the variants in the population

The phylogenetic tree used to describe the evolution of the causal variants was obtained from [66] (personal communication). Briefly, the tree was formed from the analysis of 1,544,489 biallelic sites across 1,011 *S. cerevisiae* strains using the R package "ape" [121] with the 'unrooted' method to display the tree. For each of the three variants, the matrix of variants from [66] was used to define which of the 1,011 strains carry the RM allele, the BY allele, both the BY and RM allele, or another allele. The edges of the tree were colored based on the alleles each strain carries. The absence of color continuity as seen with *OLE1* and *RGT2* can indicate multiple independent mutation events, but is more likely to arise from out-crossing events leading to mosaic genomes [122].

Alignments were performed using Clustal Omega (www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalo/) with

default settings. Sequences for alignment were retrieved from the NCBI nucleotide database.

Predictions of variant effect on the function of the Rgt2, Oaf1, Sds23, and Ole1 proteins were

calculated using Provean (Protein Variation Effect Analyzer) (http://provean.jcvi.org).

Computational and statistical analyses

All analyses described below were conducted in R (www.r-project.org), with individual packages

indicated throughout. Figures were generated using base R and ggplot2 [123]. Analysis code is

available at https://github.com/frankwalbert/threeHotspots.

Quantification of gene expression from plate reader data

We used the 'growthcurver' R package [124] to fit a logistic growth curve to the OD_{600} readings

in each well. Every plate had several blank wells that contained medium but no yeast, and we used

these blank wells to correct for the optical density of the medium. We visually confirmed

successful fit of the growth curve for every well, and additionally excluded any wells for which

growthcurver indicated poor model fit. From the fitted growth model, we extracted growth rates

as well as the "inflection point" of the growth curve, i.e. the time point at which the population

reached half its maximum capacity. We chose this time point for our measure of expression

because in practice it closely matches the OD_{600} values used to map the hotspots [12], and because

while cultures are still growing exponentially at this time point, they have reached a high enough

density to allow accurate quantification of fluorescence.

To obtain expression values for downstream analyses, we subtracted the mean OD_{600} and mean

fluorescence of the blank wells included on each plate from all other wells on the plate. We

calculated the mean of three background-subtracted time points centered on the inflection point

(Fig 1C) for OD_{600} and fluorescence. Downstream analyses of gene expression used the ratio of

this mean fluorescence divided by the mean OD_{600}.

Prior to statistical analysis, we log_2-transformed these fluorescence ratios. Every plate that carried

strains with the BY and RM backgrounds also carried untagged wild type control strains without

any fluorescent markers. We subtracted the average log_2(fluorescence ratio) values from these

untagged strains from those of the tagged strains. Thus, the fluorescent phenotypes used in
statistical analyses and displayed in the figures are in units of $\log_2$-fold change compared to
untagged strains with matched genetic background.

Statistical analyses of plate reader data

For fine-mapping, we used pairwise comparisons of genotypes to determine whether the
expression associated with a given edited allele differed significantly from the wild type or other
alleles. These pairwise tests were computed using mixed linear models whose random effect terms
depended on the structure of the data available for each comparison. Specifically, two random
terms were included where appropriate:

Plate identity. As fine-mapping progressed, most genotypes were measured on several plate runs,
usually along with different sets of other genotypes. This resulted in a complex data structure in
which genotypes were sometimes but not always included on the same plates, run over a span of
several months. To account for this structure, the model included plate identity as a random term.
To ensure that plate effects were properly accounted for in both genotypes in a given pairwise
comparison, each comparison was computed using only data from plates that carried both
genotypes under consideration. For example, while wildtype strains were run on multiple plates, a
given edited strain may only have been present on one of these plates. In this scenario, only this
one plate would be used in the statistical comparison. Note that data in figures in the paper that
display plate reader data from multiple plates were not corrected for plate effects. We chose to not
correct for plate effects in the plots because we wished to present a raw view of the data, and
because there is no good way to apply a common visual correction for plate identity when different
genotype comparisons require different plate corrections, depending on which genotypes were
present on each plate. In the figures, plate identity is indicated with different symbols (dots,
squares, triangles, etc.).

Clone identity. During strain engineering, we created at least three independent clones of each
strain. Clone identity was included in the model as a random effect to control for any systematic
differences among these clones. In the figures, we visually grouped data from different wells for a
clone by connecting these wells with a line. For the yeVenus reporter experiments, we collected
data from individual transformed colonies as well as from small transformant pools that each

contained (and effectively averaged) multiple colonies. For statistical analyses, we treated each
small transformant pool as if it were a colony.

In the equations below, we denote random effects in parentheses. For each genotype, we used the
"lmer" function in the lme4 package [125] to fit a model of the phenotype y with the above random
effect terms as appropriate:

H0: y = (plate) + (clone) + ε

where ε is the residual error. We fit a second model that includes a fixed effect term for genotype
identity:

H1: y = (plate) + (clone) + genotype + ε

We tested for significance of the genotype term using ANOVA comparing *H0* and *H1*. Note that
for a few comparisons in which only a single clone was run in replicate on a single plate, we did
not include random effects terms. We fit these models using the "lm" function.

P-values in plate reader analyses during fine mapping were not corrected for multiple testing.

Tests for non-additive genetic interactions

To test for non-additive interactions of a given allele (i.e., the BY or RM allele at a given causal
variant) with the strain background (BY or RM), we fit a model with a fixed effect term for strain
background, in addition to a term for the allele at the variant of interest:

H0: y = (plate) + (clone) + strain + allele + ε

and a second model that adds an interaction term between allele and strain background:

H1: y = (plate) + (clone) + strain + allele + strain:allele + ε

We used ANOVA to test if the inclusion of the *strain:allele* interaction term in *H1* significantly
improved model fit. These interaction tests only considered plates that contained both alleles for
the given variant in both strain backgrounds. We used the same models to test for interactions
between FAR alleles and *OAF1* alleles by replacing the "RM" factor level in *strain* with "BY
(OAF1-RM)".

To compare the *OAF1*/*OLE1* allele interaction to that observed earlier in eQTL data (Source Data

14 in [12]), we obtained expression values (Source Data 1 from [12]) and used a linear model to

regress out effects of collection batch and OD_{600} for these data (Source Data 2 from [12]). We then

used genotypes (Source Data 3 from [12]) at the marker positions corresponding to the two

interacting loci at *OAF1* and *OLE1* to divide the segregants in [12] into four two-locus genotype

classes and plot their *FAA4* mRNA levels in Fig 7A.

Dependence of the RGT2(V539I) effect on glucose concentration

To test if the effect of the causal variant in *RGT2* depended on glucose concentration in the

medium, we extended our modeling framework to include *glucose* ($\log_2$(glucose concentration))

as a numeric covariate. We fit a model that included all possible pairwise interactions between

strain, allele, and glucose:

H1: y = (plate) + (clone) + strain + allele + glucose + strain:allele + strain:glucose +

allele:glucose + ε

and compared this model to simpler models from which we dropped the respective interaction term

of interest. For example, to test for the interaction between glucose and the allele effect:

H0: y = (plate) + (clone) + strain + allele + glucose + strain:allele + strain:glucose + ε

We computed p-values comparing these models using ANOVA.

RNASeq data handling

We used trimmomatic [126] version 0.38 to trim Illumina adapters, filter out reads shorter than 36

bp, trim bases with a quality score of less than 3 from the start and end of each molecule, and

perform sliding window trimming to remove bases with an average quality of less than 15 in a

window of four bases. This filtering retained ≥97% of reads. We used kallisto [127] to pseudoalign

these trimmed and filtered reads to the *S. cerevisiae* transcriptome obtained from Ensembl [128]

build 93 based on genome version sacCer3 [129]. Following recommendations in [130], we used

FastQC [131] and RSeQC [132] to examine the quality of our 25 samples and found them to all

be of high quality and, importantly, highly similar to each other. We retained all 25 samples for

downstream analysis.

As a measure of gene expression, we used "estimated counts" in the kallisto output for each gene

in each sample. To exclude genes with poor alignment characteristics, we used RSeQC to calculate

Transcript Integrity Numbers (TINs) per gene and sample, and also considered "effective gene

length" produced by kallisto. We retained genes in which no sample had a count of zero, no sample

had a TIN of zero, and with effective length larger than zero. This filtering retained 5,400 genes

(out of 6,713 annotated) for further analysis.

RNASeq statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were conducted using the DESeq2 R package [133]. During RNA isolation and

sequencing library generation, we had collected a number of covariates and batch identities:

Bioanalyzer-based RNA Integrity Number (RIN), Bioanalyzer-based RNA concentration, Qubit-

based RNA concentration, OD_{600} of the culture at time of flash freezing, as well as batch for cell

harvest, RNA isolation, and library generation. Samples from our 5 genotypes had been distributed

equally among these three batches. We examined the influence of these technical covariates by

comparing them to principal components computed on variance-stabilized data [133] and found

that the three batches (in particular cell harvest) appeared to influence the results. We thus included

these three batches as covariates in all further analyses. We used surrogate variable analysis (SVA)

[134] to further account for unexplained technical variation and included two SVs in our statistical

model. While choices about which specific technical covariates and SVs to include in the model

did slightly alter the significance tests for individual genes, our main result of positive correlations

between hotspot effects and differential expression was robust to these choices.

We fit the DESeq2 model to all 25 samples and conducted pairwise tests for differential expression

between genotypes. Specifically, we compared the edited *OAF1* and *OLE1* alleles to a BY

wildtype strain (YFA1130) engineered by CRISPR-Swap with gGFP to remove the GFP tag from

FAA4. We compared the edited *RGT2* variant to a BY wild type strain (YFA1131) engineered by

CRISPR-Swap with gCASS5a to replace rgt2Δ::kanMX6 with the *RGT2* BY allele. The main text

describes differential expression results based on either nominal p-values ($p < 0.05$), or based on

a multiple-testing corrected threshold computed via false discovery rate estimation using the
Benjamini-Hochberg method [135] as reported by DESeq2.

To compare differential expression to hotspot effects, we used $\log_2$-fold changes estimated by
DESeq2 and hotspot effects that had been estimated by fitting a lasso model to all expressed genes
and all 102 hotspots, as described in [12]. These hotspot effects were obtained from Source Data
9 in [12]. We used nonparametric Spearman rank correlation to compare differential expression
with the hotspot lasso coefficients. We excluded genes with a hotspot effect of zero. While
inclusion of these genes slightly degraded the magnitude of the correlations between hotspot
effects and differential expression, all correlations remained significant and positive.

Gene ontology enrichment analysis for genes with strong hotspot effects but no differential
expression was conducted using the "Gene Ontology Term Finder" tool on SGD [136]. As the
background set, we used all genes present in both the hotspot effect matrix and our RNASeq data.
As the test set, we used genes with an absolute hotspot effect of at least 0.3 and a differential
expression p-value larger than 0.3.

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Statistical analyses of lipid data

To correct for possible technical confounders from lipid composition and NEFAs, we used a linear
model to regress out effects of acquisition order and sample grouping. For NEFAs, we also
regressed out total protein, which had been measured from the same samples. The residuals from
these regression were used in the statistical analyses below. To obtain total saturated, unsaturated,
C18, and C16 measures, we summed the measures for the respective individual lipid species in
these groups.

To analyze the effects of the *OAF1* and *OLE1* alleles in the BY background, we jointly considered
the measures from the four genotypes (BY, BY(*OAF1-L63S*), BY(FAR-RM), and BY with both
RM alleles) by fitting a linear model to each lipid compound *y* that models the effects of the *OAF1*
and the FAR allele at *OLE1*:

y = OAF1 + OLE1 + OAF1:OLE1 + ε

where *ε* is the residual error. We analyzed this model using ANOVA to test for main effects of
each allele as well as for the interaction term. P-values were not corrected for multiple testing.

The BY and RM backgrounds we compared using T-tests.

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Supporting information captions

S1 Fig. Guide RNA recognition sequences. A. Schematic of a cassette typically used for gene deletions. The gCASS5a recognition sequence is marked with a bracket and the PAM site is underlined. Start of the TEF promoter sequence driving expression of the selectable marker is in red letters. B. Schematic of a cassette used for C-terminally tagging open reading frames with GFP. The location of the gGFP recognition sequence is marked with a bracket and the PAM site is underlined. The start of the GFP sequence is in neon green. The recognition sites for SalI (pink) and PacI (purple) are the Cas9 cleavage sites (scissors) are shown to allow easy comparison of the gRNA recognition sequences, which are specific to each cassette. Designated with arrows are the universal primer sequences, S1 or U2 and F1, used for amplification of common cassettes.

S2 Fig. *OAF1* fine mapping. On the left are schematics of *OAF1* alleles with BY sequences in blue and RM sequences in red. Missense variants are marked with a straight line. Synonymous and non-coding variants are not shown. On the right are the corresponding Faa4-GFP fluorescence levels for each allele. P-values are for tests comparing each allele to its respective wildtype. Significant p-values are outlined. Blue boxplots indicate alleles in the BY background and red boxplots and background gray shading indicate alleles in the RM background. Lines group measurements of the same clone. Different symbols (circles, squares, etc.) denote different plate reader runs.

S3 Fig. *OLE1* fine mapping. On the left are schematics of *OLE1* alleles with BY sequences in blue and RM sequences in red. Only the one missense variant and none of the synonymous variants in the open reading frame are marked. Variants in the non-coding region are maked with a single line for a SNV and a two diagonal lines for INDELs. On the right are the corresponding Faa4-GFP fluorescence levels for each allele. P-values are for tests comparing each allele to its respective wildtype. Significant p-values are outlined. Blue boxplots indicate alleles in the BY background and red boxplots and background gray shading indicate alleles in the RM background. Lines group measurements of the same clone. Different symbols (circles, squares, etc.) denote different plate reader runs.

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S4 Fig. yeVenus reporter expression. On the top are schematics of the SDS23/OLE1 locus and

the two orientations of the yeVenus reporter constructs. The bottom panel shows yeVenus

fluorescence levels for the indicated yeVenus reporter constructs. Blue boxplots indicate alleles in

the BY background and red boxplots indicate alleles in the RM background. Lines group

measurements of the same clone. Different symbols (circles, squares, etc.) denote different plate

reader runs.

1442

1443 **S5 Fig. Effects of plasmid overexpression of SDS23/OLE1 sequences on Faa4-GFP**

1444 **expression.** Faa4-GFP fluorescence levels of strains transformed with a *LEU2*-CEN plasmid

1445 containing the indicated sequence. Lines group measurements of the same clone.

1446

1447 **S6 Fig. Growth rates as a function of estradiol dose.** Error bars show standard deviations.

1448

1449 **S7 Fig. Lipid and fatty acid measurements.** All individual measurements are shown. For each

1450 genotype, the figure shows values for each replicate (smaller points) along with the mean (larger

1451 points) and standard deviation (vertical lines).

1452

S1 Table. Fine-mapping p-values

S2 Table. Lipid measurements

S3 Table. Lipid statistics

S4 Table. RNA sequencing gene expression counts

S5 Table. RNA sequencing sample and batch information

S6 Table. RNA sequencing results

S7 Table. eQTL hotspot literature review

S8 Table. Yeast strains

S9 Table. Plasmids

S10 Table. Oligos

S11 Table. Yeast strain and plasmid construction