

Review

The Consequences of Abnormal Gene Dosage: Lessons from Chromosome 18

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Accurate interpretation of genomic copy number variation (CNV) remains a challenge and has important consequences for both congenital and late-onset disease. Hemizygosity dosage characterization of the genes on chromosome 18 reveals a spectrum of outcomes ranging from no clinical effect, to risk factors for disease, to both low- and high-penetrance disease. These data are important for accurate and predictive clinical management. Additionally, the potential mechanisms of reduced penetrance due to dosage compensation are discussed as a key to understanding avenues for potential treatment. This review describes the chromosome 18 findings, and discusses the molecular mechanisms that allow haploinsufficiency, reduced penetrance, and dosage compensation.

How Does an Abnormal Number of Copies of Normally Functioning Genes Cause Disease?

Detecting genomic **copy number variation (CNV)** [1] (see [Glossary](#)) is now routine in clinical practice with utility throughout the lifespan. CNVs are important prenatally in the detection of life-limiting syndromes [2], postnatally as explanations of birth defects or developmental delay [3], and later in life as edifying or anticipatory for adult-onset conditions [4–7]. While detecting CNVs has become straight forward, predicting their impact is a more elusive and nuanced endeavor.

Understanding the effects of abnormal gene dosage, both gene duplication as well as **hemizygosity** are equally important. However, this discussion focuses on the effects of hemizygosity because there are significantly more data about the effects of individual gene deletions due to the widespread use of knockout mouse models. Additionally, the molecular simplicity of hemizygosity resulting in an absent and therefore nonfunctional allele make determinations of the effect of hemizygosity clearer. By contrast, an allele that is individually duplicated cannot be presumed to be as appropriately functional as the wild-type allele, unless all of the *cis* regulatory elements are duplicated as well and the nuclear topological domains remain unchanged. Until these elements of gene regulation and function are determined, the effects of individual gene duplication are beyond precise definition.

In particular, the examples provided here will largely involve the genes on chromosome 18, and the insights gained from those data because of the comprehensive chromosome-wide evaluation of their hemizygous effects. Chromosome 18 is unique because of the large number of nonrecurrent gene deletions. Nearly every unrelated individual with a chromosome 18q deletion and half of those with an 18p deletion have a unique region of hemizygosity, which in total span almost the entire chromosome [8–10]. Because the affected individuals have unique regions of hemizygosity, this facilitates genotype–phenotype correlations and the calculation of the penetrance of those effects [11]. The result is a chromosome-wide map of the hemizygous effect of almost every gene on the chromosome [11]. These data show that the

Highlights

Abnormalities of gene dosage result in a wide number of effects ranging from being causal for disease to acting as a risk factor or having no clinical effect.

Those effects may manifest congenitally or later in life.

Reduced penetrance for any of the effects is a common finding and is an essential element of the clinical interpretation of genomic copy number variation.

Understanding the mechanisms underlying reduced penetrance due to dosage compensation could provide important insight into potential treatment strategies for people with chromosome abnormalities.

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effects of hemizyosity are not dichotomous, but rather span a spectrum of severity, from causing significant disability to no detectable effect and everything in between [11].

Chromosome 18 Genes as Exemplifications

Chromosome 18 contains 263 genes; of which, 238 have sufficient information on which to hypothesize a potential hemizyosity effect [11]. These data, combined with the phenotypic and genotypic data from a cohort of almost 700 individuals, with chromosome 18 CNVs, revealed a spectrum of effects linked to abnormal gene dosage for these individual genes [12]. This spectrum includes genes that when hemizygous cause phenotypes with high penetrance; phenotypes with low penetrance; conditional phenotypes resulting from the effects of a single additional factor; genes whose hemizyosity poses a risk factor for disease; as well as the majority of genes for whom hemizyosity has no clinically significant effect (Figure 1, Key Figure).ⁱ

High-Penetrance Genes

A small number of genes on chromosome 18 cause an abnormal phenotype in at least 50% of people with hemizyosity [11]. Of the 238 genes on chromosome 18, only one (*TCF4*) has a detrimental effect that is 100% penetrant and is the cause of Pitt–Hopkins syndrome [13,14]. In total, only 19 genes (7% of 263) have a clinically significant effect with >50% penetrance when hemizygous (Table 1 and Box 1) [11].

Low-Penetrance Genes

There are a smaller number of genes with rarer effects that cause an abnormal phenotype in 1% to 50% of individuals with hemizyosity for that gene [11]. Nine genes were identified in this category (3% of the chromosome 18 genes) associated with an abnormal phenotype and exhibit a low penetrance (Table 1 and Box 1) [11]. These represent a particularly interesting group of genes, whose hemizyosity phenotypes must have one or more buffering mechanisms, such as other genetic or environmental factors that are either protective or contributory, thereby changing susceptibility. Recognizing the potential effect of these low-penetrance genes is important for several reasons. First, with regard to clinical implications, physicians should be aware of the low probability effect of these genes for appropriate counseling of patients, as well as increasing surveillance for these conditions. Second, these genes can provide insight into the complex biological processes involved in maintaining homeostasis from development to physiology, as they play a necessary but not sufficient role in producing an abnormal phenotype.

Key Figure

Schematic Depicting a Rough Estimate of the Proportion of Genes on Chromosome 18 for Each Classification That Contributes to a Hemizyosity Effect

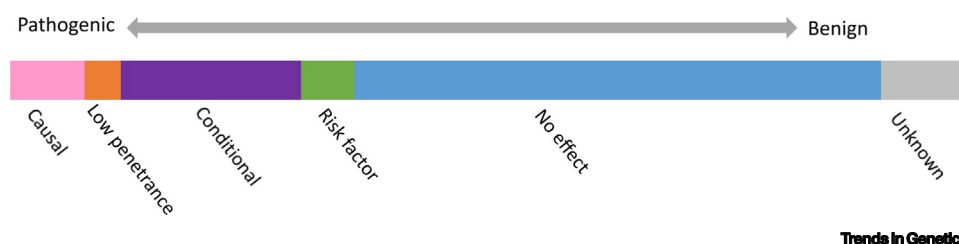


Figure 1.

Glossary

Conditional-effect genes: genes with a hemizygous effect only in the presence of a single additional factor; either genetic or environmental.

Copy number variation (CNV): genomic deletions or duplications of 50 base pairs of DNA or larger.

Hemizyosity: the state in which an autosomal gene is present in one copy instead of two.

Haploinsufficiency: the mechanism by which a gene in hemizyosity causes an abnormal phenotype.

Haplosufficient: the mechanism by which a gene in hemizyosity maintains a normal phenotype.

Ohnologs: gene duplicates resulting from whole genome duplication.

Topologically associated domains (TADs): a type of genomic organization within the cell nucleus in which the chromatin loops maintain a close configuration that impacts gene expression.

Table 1. Chromosome 18 Gene Dosage Classifications^a

Gene symbol	Hemizyosity phenotypes	Refs
Genes with highly penetrant hemizygous phenotypes		
<i>DLGAP1</i>	Behavioral abnormalities	[57–59]
<i>FAM210A</i>	Decreased bone mineral density	[60]
<i>GATA6</i>	Congenital heart defects	[61,62]
<i>LAMA3</i>	Dental enamel pitting	[63]
<i>OSBPL1A</i>	Low HDL cholesterol	[64]
<i>ZNF521</i>	Behavioral abnormality	[65]
<i>MAPRE2</i>	Facial dysmorphology	[66]
<i>ZNF24</i>	CNS dysmyelination	[67]
<i>SETBP1</i>	Speech delay	[68]
<i>SMAD4</i>	Polyposis	[69]
<i>TCF4</i>	Pitt–Hopkins syndrome	[70]
<i>TXNL1</i>	Multiple congenital anomalies	[13]
<i>MALT1</i>	Decreased IgM	[71]
<i>NETO1</i>	Learning/memory	[72]
<i>CYB5A</i>	Cryptorchidism	[73]
<i>TSHZ1</i>	Aural atresia	[47]
<i>MBP</i>	Sensorineural hearing loss	[74,75]
Genes with low-penetrance hemizygous phenotypes		
<i>AFG3L2</i>	Spinocerebellar ataxia 28	[76]
<i>PTPN2</i>	Inflammatory bowel disease	[77]
<i>GREB1L</i>	Renal agenesis	[78]
<i>CABLES1</i>	Cushing's disease	[79]
<i>NPC1</i>	Motor or anxiety disorders	[80]
<i>DSG1</i>	Keratosis palmoplantar	[81]
<i>CELF4</i>	Seizures	[82]
<i>SLC14A2</i>	Vesicoureteral reflux	[83]
<i>DCC</i>	Congenital mirror movements	[84]
Genes with conditional hemizygous phenotypes		
<i>TYMS</i>	Tetralogy of Fallot	[85]
<i>SMCHD1</i>	Facioscapulohumeral dystrophy type 2	[86]
<i>LPIN2</i>	Majeed syndrome	[87]
<i>TGIF1</i>	Holoprosencephaly	[21]
<i>ZBTB14</i>	Congenital heart disease	[88]
<i>LAMA1</i>	Poretti–Boltshauser syndrome	[89]
<i>TWSG1</i>	Holoprosencephaly	[90,91]
<i>RALBP1</i>	Oxidative stress	[92]
<i>PIEZO2</i>	Arthrogryposis	[93]
<i>GNAL</i>	Dystonia	[94,95]
<i>PSMG2</i>	CANDLE	[96]
<i>SEH1L</i>	Anonychia congenita	[97]
<i>MC2R</i>	Primary adrenal insufficiency	[98]

Table 1. (continued)

Gene symbol	Hemizyosity phenotypes	Refs
<i>RBBP8</i>	Jawad syndrome	[99]
<i>TAF4B</i>	Azoospermia	[100]
<i>DSC3</i>	Hypotrichosis	[101]
<i>DSC2</i>	Arrhythmia	[102]
<i>DSG4</i>	Hypotrichosis	[103]
<i>DSG2</i>	Cardiomyopathy	[104]
<i>B4GALT6</i>	Connective tissue disorder	[105]
<i>ELP2</i>	Intellectual disability	[89]
<i>MOCOS</i>	Xanthinuria type II	[18]
<i>EPG5</i>	Vici syndrome	[106]
<i>PSTPIP2</i>	Osteomyelitis	[107]
<i>ATP5A1</i>	Mitochondrial complex deficiency	[108]
<i>LOXHD1</i>	Hearing loss	[109]
<i>IER3IP1</i>	Microcephaly/encephalopathy	[110]
<i>DYM</i>	Smith–McCort dysplasia	[111]
<i>MYO5B</i>	Microvillus inclusion disease	[112]
<i>CCDC11</i>	Heterotaxy	[113]
<i>RAB27B</i>	Griscelli syndrome	[114]
<i>WDR7</i>	Amelogenesis imperfecta	[115]
<i>FECH</i>	Erythropoietic protoporphyria	[116]
<i>ATP8B1</i>	Intrahepatic cholestasis	[117]
<i>RAX</i>	Anophthalmia	[118]
<i>LMAN1</i>	Factor V/VIII deficiency	[119]
<i>CCBE1</i>	Lymphangiectasia–lymphedema	[120]
<i>MC4R</i>	Obesity	[11]
<i>PIGN</i>	Multiple congenital anomalies	[121]
<i>TNFRSF11A</i>	Paget disease	[122]
<i>KDSR</i>	Erythrokatoderma variabilis	[123]
<i>SERPINB7</i>	Palmarplantar keratosis	[124]
<i>SERPINB8</i>	Exfoliative ichthyosis	[125]
<i>TMX3</i>	Ichthyosis	[126]
<i>RTTN</i>	Polymicrogyria, seizures, dwarfism	[127]
<i>CNDP1</i>	Carnosinemia	[128]
<i>ZNF407</i>	ID/Autism	[129]
<i>CTDP1</i>	Congenital cataracts, facial dysmorphism, and neuropathy	[55]
<i>TXNL4A</i>	Burn-McKeown syndrome	[130]
Genes that are risk factors for hemizygous phenotypes		
<i>LRRC30</i>	Autism	[55]
<i>IMPA2</i>	Eosinophilic esophagitis	[131]
<i>ZNF519</i>	Epilepsy	[132]
<i>CHST9</i>	Hematological malignancy	[133]
<i>ZNF125</i>	Sjögren syndrome	[134]

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Table 1. (continued)

Gene symbol	Hemizyosity phenotypes	Refs
<i>ZNF396</i>	Autism	[135]
<i>PIAS2</i>	Autism	[136]
<i>KATNAL2</i>	Autism	[137]
<i>SMAD2</i>	Heterotaxy	[138]
<i>ZBTB7C</i>	Stroke	[139]
<i>SMAD7</i>	Arterial arch defects	[140]
<i>MBD1</i>	Autism	[141]
<i>SERPINB4</i>	Atopic dermatitis	[142]
<i>CD226</i>	Autoimmune disease	[143,144]
<i>NFATC1</i>	Lumbar scoliosis	[145,146]

^aAbbreviations: CANDLE, chronic atypical neutrophilic dermatosis with lipodystrophy and elevated temperature; CNS, central nervous system; HDL, high-density lipoprotein; ID, intellectual disability.

Conditional-Effect Genes

Conditional-effect genes cause an abnormal phenotype only in the presence of a single additional factor either genetic or environmental. Therefore, conditional genes have a low probability of causing a hemizyosity effect and include 49 of the 263 chromosome 18 genes (19% of 263) (Table 1 and Box 2). The majority of these genes (42 of 49) cause disease by a recessive mechanism, thereby causing an abnormal phenotype only in the presence of a loss of function mutation in the remaining allele [11]. These genes actually function in a **haplosufficient** manner. An individual with hemizyosity for one of these genes is functionally equivalent to being a carrier of a disease causing allele with double the chance of manifesting the disease compared with that of a noncarrier. As such, hemizyosity for one of these genes has potential clinical relevance for hastening diagnosis, should symptoms of one of these conditions appear.

Additionally, a second type of conditional mechanism includes those few cases in which disease is caused by digenic loss of function variants (Box 2) [11]. This mechanism is not dependent on the remaining allele but rather another gene which could be closely linked or on another chromosome [15].

Although this is the largest group of genes to potentially cause disease associated with hemizyosity, the actual probability of disease in someone with hemizyosity of anyone of these genes is small. The probability of someone with hemizyosity for one of these genes to also have a loss of function mutation of the extant allele is quite low in the range of 0.5% [16].

Box 1. Examples of Hemizygous Gene Classifications Most Likely to Cause an Abnormal Phenotype

High-Penetrance Genes

Hemizyosity of the *TSHZ1* gene can cause aural atresia without microtia [47]. In our cohort, this phenotype is 78% penetrant in those individuals who are hemizygous for this gene [12].

Low-Penetrance Genes

Examples from this small group of genes include *PTPN2*, which can be a contributory factor in inflammatory bowel disease [48]. *AFG3L2* is a dominant cause of spinocerebellar ataxia type 28 (SCA28) [49]. One adolescent with SCA28 has been reported with hemizyosity for this gene [50]. However, individuals with hemizyosity for this gene have also been identified in control populations [51,52]. In our cohort of 94 individuals with hemizyosity of *AFG3L2*, no individuals have been diagnosed with SCA28, in spite of our active surveillance program (unpublished data).

Box 2. Examples of Hemizygous Gene Classifications Less Likely to Cause an Abnormal Phenotype**Conditional-Effect Genes**

The gene *FECH*, which encodes the enzyme ferrochelatase, is associated with erythropoietic protoporphyria (EPP) but the inheritance pattern has been confusing because it appears to be inherited in a dominant pattern in some families and a recessive pattern in others. This is because the disease manifests when enzyme levels are 10–25% [53] due to one non-functional or absent allele and one hypomorphic allele [54]. In the case of EPP, the risk of the condition becoming manifest in someone who is hemizygous for the *FECH* gene is correlated with the population frequency of the hypomorphic allele.

An example of a digenic condition is facioscapulohumeral dystrophy type 2 (FSHD2). The manifestation of FSHD2 results from aberrant expression of a permissive *DUX4* gene. This can occur through a specific configuration of and around the *DUX4* gene (4q35.2) in combination with hemizygosity of the *SMCHD1* gene (18p11.32). This is because the function of the *SMCHD1* gene product is to maintain the methylation and hence repression of the *DUX4* gene. One functional copy of the *SMCHD1* gene provides insufficient methylation and thereby insufficient repression of *DUX4* leading to disease [15]. *SMCHD1* is therefore an example of a gene whose dosage sensitivity is conditional because the specific *DUX4* configuration is also required in order for disease to be manifest.

Another example is the combination of *TWSG1* and *TGIF* hemizygosity that can cause holoprosencephaly. What makes this interesting is that these two genes are just 5.9 Mb apart on chromosome 18p. Hemizygosity or loss-of-function mutations in both genes results in holoprosencephaly but only in about 10% of cases [21]. Because they are tightly linked they are more likely to both be hemizygous in an individual than they would be had they been on different chromosomes thereby greatly increasing the probability of an abnormal phenotype.

Risk-Factor Genes

Additionally, some genes are risk factors for certain polygenic disorders such as autoimmune disorders, epilepsy, or autism (Box 3). Although the clinical relevance to someone with hemizygosity of one of the risk-factor genes is negligible, this designation of risk factor is relevant for two reasons. First, with regard to clinical relevance, knowledge of existing risk factors may shorten the time to diagnosis should first symptoms begin to appear. Second, with regard to furthering research, someone with hemizygosity of one of these risk factors genes who has one of the associated polygenic phenotypes means that there are fewer additional genes to identify in order to reveal the underlying genetic basis of these conditions. This makes the risk factor designation a useful research tool and people with a polygenetic condition and hemizygosity important research participants.

Dosage-Insensitive Genes

At the opposite end of this continuum of effect from 100% probability of an abnormal phenotype are those genes with no discernable hemizygous effect (Box 3). Over 1000 genes in the human genome have been identified as dispensable genes because they were homozygously deleted in healthy individuals [17,18]. Additionally, there are an even greater number of genes identified as loss-of-function variants, in which one copy is predicted to be nonfunctional in apparently healthy individuals [19].

On chromosome 18, 146 of 263 genes (56%) have no evidence for a clinically significant effect when hemizygous [11]. This group includes genes whose hemizygous effect is not clinically significant, although it may be measurable (Box 3) [20].

Box 3. Examples of Hemizygous Gene Classifications Likely to Cause an Abnormal Phenotype**Risk Factors**

Several genes on chromosome 18 have been found to be hemizygous more often in people with autism than in people without autism [55] (see Table 1 in main text).

Haplosufficient Genes

These are illustrated by data from the mouse with a deletion of the *SLC14A1* gene. Although these mice have a urea transport deficiency, they do not manifest any clinical syndrome, suggesting the existence of compensatory mechanisms [20]. Another measurable but not clinically significant example not involving a chromosome 18 gene is hemizygosity of the *OCA2* gene associated with red hair [56].

This discussion on the role of individual genes in hemizyosity should not imply that all the phenotypes associated with a hemizygous deletion of chromosome 18 have the specific causative genes identified and that conversely every gene's role is defined. There are in fact 47 phenotypes linked to critical regions of chromosome 18 that have yet to be narrowed down to the causative genes [9]. Most of these phenotypes are low incidence or potentially polygenic, making it more difficult to identify the role of individual genes. Adding to this genetic complexity are the potential for conditions caused by tightly linked conditional-effect genes within the same CNV [21]. There is clearly more work to be done to completely define the role of each chromosome 18 gene, especially with regard to its hemizyosity.

The data show that the effects of hemizyosity are not a pathogenic or benign dichotomy but rather a continuum that includes a low probability of causing disease, to contributory to disease, to risk factor for disease. Using what we have learned about the hemizyosity effects of the chromosome 18 genes can help to inform the fundamental questions about the effects of abnormal gene dosage. There are three main questions to address. First, what molecular mechanisms allow **haploinsufficiency**? Second, what molecular mechanisms create variable penetrance? Third, what are the mechanisms of gene dosage compensation? Together these should highlight areas for future research and potential strategies for remediation and treatment.

What Molecular Mechanisms Allow Haploinsufficiency?

Are there characteristics of the genes themselves that make them dosage sensitive? One hypothesis is that genes with an evolutionarily conserved sequence, with few functional coding variants, are more likely to be dosage sensitive [22]. The idea being that genes that evolutionarily cannot tolerate sequence variation are components of systems or pathways that can also not tolerate variation in protein quantity. However, not all sequence variation results in a change in the protein quantity and could just as likely be synonymous mutations that do not change the amino acid content, or missense mutations that change the amino acid but do not alter the protein function. Therefore, sequence variation is not a guarantee of protein quantity variation.

Another observation is that monoallelically expressed genes are under-represented in pathogenic CNVs compared with normal-variant CNVs, which led a study to hypothesize that genes that are monollically expressed are less likely to be dosage sensitive [23]. For the 10–30% of genes that are monoallelically expressed, a single gene level of expression is sufficient for normal function [23]. These authors point out that monoallelically expressed genes have more variable expression than biallelically expressed genes, yet do not fully compensate for the lack of expression from one of its alleles.

In addition to sequence-determined and expression-determined hypotheses, another is based on the spatial context in which the gene lies within the nucleus. The nuclear localization hypothesis suggests that haploinsufficiency is a combination of a potentially dosage-sensitive gene located within a region of hemizyosity that then alters the 3D structure and position of the chromatin within the interphase nucleus [24]. Changes in these **topologically associated domains (TADs)** can change the expression of the genes within those domains, by changing the proximity of a gene to *cis* regulatory element such as promoters or enhancers by changing the epigenetic modifications that then impact gene expression [24]. While this is not a feature of the specific hemizygous gene or its product, this could be a mechanism impacting the manifestation of the phenotype.

Another hypothesis is based on evolutionary retention and that dosage sensitive genes are more likely to be **ohnologs** [25]. The hypothesis is that evolutionarily, after whole genome duplication, some genes are retained, while others are lost. The genes that are retained are ohnologs and are

included within pathogenic CNVs, more often than in nonpathogenic CNVs [25]. Because ohnologs are more likely to be developmental genes and genes whose products are members of protein complexes, they are postulated to be more likely to be dosage sensitive. The functionality of multimeric protein complexes depends on the exact stoichiometry of the component proteins in these complexes [26]. For example, a protein that is part of a heterotetrameric complex, composed of two different proteins requires a 1:1 ratio of subunits. When one subunit is present in half the normal amount only a third as many of the complexes have the correct ratio of components and therefore are functional [26].

A similar hypothesis is that genes that are dosage sensitive are more likely to be hubs within biological networks [27]. This hypothesis is similar to the multiprotein complex hypothesis because haploinsufficiency is not a feature of the gene *per se*, but rather determined by the processes in which the gene product operates. The network hub hypothesis is based in the notion that in humans the more interactions a gene product has with other proteins or processes, the higher the likelihood that one of those processes will be adversely affected by a reduction in the amount of protein caused by hemizygosity [27].

What is not known is the correlation between evolutionarily sequence-constrained genes, monoallelically expressed genes, ohnologs, genes that code for network hubs, and the gene position within TADs. Additionally, do any of those data correlate with dosage-sensitive genes? More importantly, do any of these characteristics predict dosage sensitivity? Alternatively, it is possible that each hypothesis has some validity, and dosage-sensitive genes are those that possess all of these characteristics: they are sequence-restricted ohnologs that are components of multiprotein complexes that are also network hubs. The individually curated chromosome 18 gene-dosage classifications could be used to test these hypotheses.

What Molecular Mechanisms Create Variable Penetrance?

One aspect of haploinsufficiency that is often overlooked is the issue of reduced penetrance [28]. Complete penetrance is rare. Conceptually, the rarity of complete penetrance could be explained by two mechanisms potentially working in concert. First, abnormal phenotypes caused by hemizygosity and resulting in haploinsufficiency are the result of a chain of events beginning with one gene, instead of two generating an insufficient amount of mRNA, thereby producing insufficient protein resulting in tissue then organ dysfunction (Figure 2) [29]. Gene-dosage compensation could happen at any one of these steps. Conversely, all the steps in this process from gene to clinical phenotype must be haploinsufficient in order for an abnormal phenotype to become apparent [29]. Second, haploinsufficiency is caused by half the normal amount of gene product. However, even in recessively inherited conditions in which both genes have loss-of-function mutations, there are examples of individuals who are nonpenetrant for the phenotype [28,30,31]. It is therefore not surprising that hemizygosity creates an equivocal state that can be swayed toward normalcy or disease, by potentially numerous or even small fluctuations in network or pathway activity.

For the phenotypes resulting from conditional effects, the combination of a hemizygous and a loss-of-function allele is likely a rare event. For comparison, one of the most common recessive conditions is sickle-cell disease occurring in one in 12 African Americans or 8% of that population [32]. This prevalence of 8% for a common recessively inherited condition is lower than most of the low-penetrance hemizygosity conditions that occurs in the range of 20–30% of those people with hemizygosity for the causative gene [11]. This suggests that complete loss-of-function variants in the remaining allele are not the cause of an abnormal phenotype in a low-penetrance phenotype.

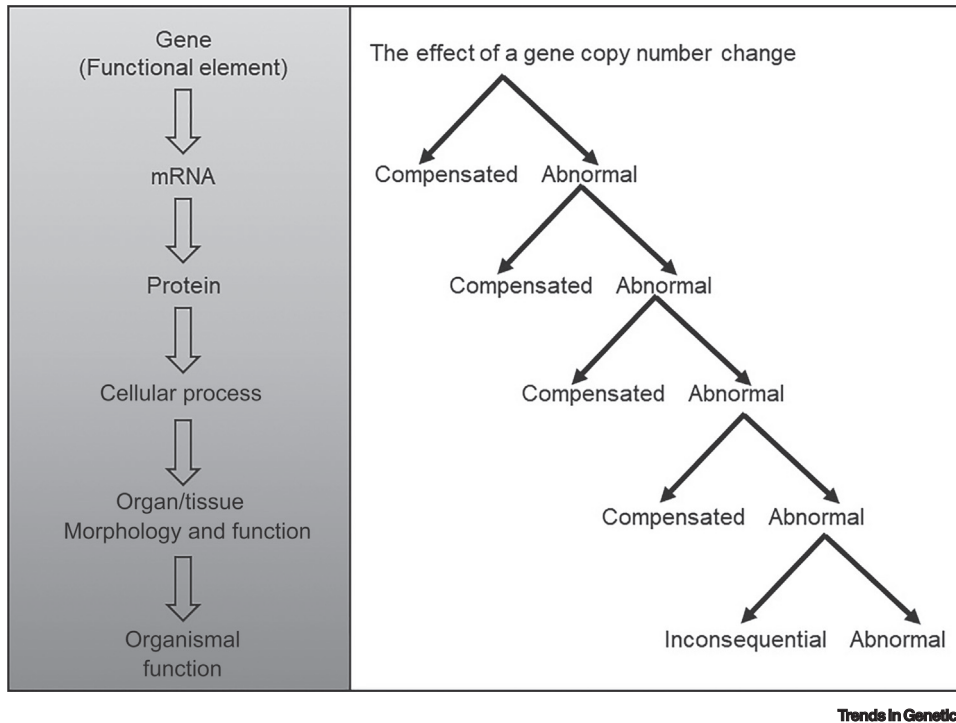


Figure 2. The Pathway from Abnormal Gene Copy Number to Abnormal Phenotype and All the Potential Points of Compensation in Between. The general pathway from gene to clinically apparent phenotype is shown down the left side of the figure. The right side illustrates the numerous stages at which compensation can happen between an abnormal gene copy number and an abnormal phenotype. Adapted, with permission, from [29].

However, the remaining allele may affect the penetrance by being hypomorphic or hypermorphic. Such variance in gene activity could be due to sequence variation or the result of epigenetic phenomenon. An interesting example of epigenetic variation involves the conditional-effect gene *FECH* (Box 2), requiring the remaining allele to be hypomorphic in order for hemizygosity to cause disease. In this case, the methylation status can affect the expression of the remaining allele and cause it to be hypomorphic [33] making the combination of hemizygosity and a silenced remaining allele result in the disease.

Disease penetrance can also be impacted by environmental factors. In the case of 22q11 deletions, the *TBX1* gene within that region of hemizygosity is a cause of cardiac and pharyngeal defects with a prevalence of 74% and 69%, respectively, and have a highly variable penetrance within affected families [34]. One study [35] has implied that mice hemizygous for the *Tbx1* gene when exposed prenatally to excess retinoic acid have markedly increased prevalence of cardiac and pharyngeal defects. A gene whose hemizygous effect exhibits low penetrance could be one in which an environmental factor is necessary for expression of the trait.

What Are the Mechanisms of Gene Dosage Compensation?

Understanding the mechanisms of reduced penetrance and gene-dosage compensation can provide insight into potential treatment strategies because they are two aspects of the same phenomenon normalizing the phenotypic outcome. Phenotypic modifiers in the context of hemizygosity could include multiple factors. (i) As previously mentioned, sequence variation in *cis* or *trans* affects regulatory factor effectiveness and can increase or decrease the severity of the phenotype from hemizygosity. Genetic modifiers of rare diseases as a topic has been recently

reviewed [36]. (ii) Epigenetic modification differences are becoming appreciated as potentially having a major effect on gene expression. Investigating the epigenetic differences between penetrant and nonpenetrant individuals could shed light on gene regulation [37]. (iii) Other proteins in the affected pathways or networks may provide compensation through upregulation [38]. (iv) Extrinsic factors such as environmental or dietary effects, could impact any of the above factors.

The probability of disease manifestation, that is, the penetrance, may largely depend on the activity of the remaining allele, which can be affected by sequence variation or epigenetic variation. Studies that compare the DNA sequence and epigenetic modifications between the affected and unaffected individuals may provide insight into the parameters necessary for an abnormal phenotype to become apparent. Data pertaining to each of the factors mentioned above could provide insight into the dysregulated pathway, create additional points of potential remediation, and shed light on the inflection points most amenable for dosage compensation. Examples of both transcriptional and post-transcriptional genetic compensation were recently reviewed [39].

Nonpenetrance data can also yield important information about the parameters within which normal function can occur. For example, do the nonpenetrant individuals have normal levels of transcription? If not, these data can help define the range of transcription that is sufficient for normal function. This same type of comparison could be used to compare phenotype-relevant physiology or biochemistry between those who do and do not exhibit the phenotype, thereby more precisely defining the range of normal function?

Reduced penetrance and variable expressivity are not the products of stochastic events. There is an underlying biological cause. That cause stems from a genetic variation or an environmental trigger that enhances or suppresses the effect of the abnormal gene dosage. To quote Albert Einstein, 'God does not play dice with the universe.' There is much to learn about the myriad ways the human body copes, compensates, and counteracts in order to maintain homeostasis. This information can then inform studies aimed at treatment.

Concluding Remarks

Careful curation of the hemizygosity outcomes data for the genes on chromosome 18 revealed a spectrum of potential effects. Individual gene function data were then applied to the actual phenotype data from almost 700 individuals with chromosome 18 CNVs, showing that dosage insensitivity and dosage compensation are the norm. Multiple authors had previously created models and made predictions attempting to identify dosage sensitive genes [27,40–46] using small training sets to model genome wide. However, the potential of reduced penetrance and polygenic disease was not appreciated. This review touches on the potential mechanisms leading to haploinsufficiency and those by which dosage compensation can occur. Future work to define the gene composition and activity of individuals who exhibit a hemizygosity phenotype with those who do not could lead to insights relevant to treatment options. Many challenges remain; the greatest of which is the precise phenotyping of a large cohort of people with hemizygosity (see [Outstanding Questions](#)). Studies of normal CNV typically enroll subjects who self-declare their normalcy. While studies of abnormal CNV typically enroll subjects whose phenotype is described as global developmental delay or dysmorphic features. In both cases, this level of phenotyping is grossly inadequate. Considering the ubiquitous nature of genomic CNVs, an effort to catalog the precise phenotypic ramifications would have wide-reaching implications for both health and disease.

Resources

¹ <https://wp.uthscsa.edu/chrome-18/research/>

Outstanding Questions

In the continuum from annotating the genome to developing treatments for chromosome abnormalities there are numerous outstanding questions:

What are the phenotypes of the rarely published heterozygous knockout mice? In many cases these data already exist and if published could add to the knowledge base for the individual genes, as well as identify potential animal models for use in drug development.

On an individual cell level, how does hemizygosity affect the expression of monoallelically expressed genes? Is there a randomness to which alleles are expressed so that half of the cells have no expression and the other half have single gene expression. Or, is there some sort of regulation so that in the absence of one allele the other allele is active?

What are the microforms and endophenotypes of the heterozygous parents of individuals with recessively inherited loss of function conditions and nonpenetrant homozygotes? This could identify both the more subtle effects of hemizygosity and identify the factors leading to nonpenetrance.

Is the current system of gene-dosage annotation both conceptually and logistically in need of re-evaluation?

What is that natural history of adults with chromosome abnormalities? Little attention has been given to the long-term effects of gene CNV.

What are the physiological and biochemical correlates of behavioral and intellectual disability that could be tied to single-gene hemizygosity? This concept is particularly relevant for the behavioral phenotypes known to be polygenic.

What are the potential modes of therapeutic gene regulation?

What features of a gene or protein network that correlate with haploinsufficiency?

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