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48

ABSTRACT:

A fundamental question in the biology of sex-differences has eluded direct study

in humans: how does sex chromosome dosage (SCD) shape genome function?

To address this, we developed a systematic map of SCD effects on gene

function by analyzing genome-wide expression data in humans with diverse sex

chromosome aneuploidies (XO, XXX, XXY, XYY, XXYY). For sex chromosomes,

we demonstrate a pattern of obligate dosage sensitivity amongst evolutionarily

preserved X-Y homologs, and update prevailing theoretical models for SCD

compensation by detecting X-linked genes whose expression increases with

decreasing X- and/or Y-chromosome dosage. We further show that SCD-

sensitive sex chromosome genes regulate specific co-expression networks of

SCD-sensitive autosomal genes with critical cellular functions and a

demonstrable potential to mediate previously documented SCD effects on

disease. Our findings detail wide-ranging effects of SCD on genome function with

implications for human phenotypic variation.

SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT:

Sex chromosome dosage (SCD) effects on human gene expression are central

to the biology of sex differences and sex chromosome aneuploidy syndromes,

but challenging to study given the co-segregation of SCD and gonadal status.

We address this obstacle by systematically modelling SCD effects on genome-

wide expression data from a large and rare cohort of individuals with diverse

SCDs (XO, XX, XXX, XXXX, XY, XXY, XYY, XXYY, XXXXY). Our findings

update current models of sex chromosome biology by (i) pinpointing a core set of

X- and Y-linked genes with "obligate" SCD sensitivity, (ii) discovering several

non-canonical modes of X-chromosome dosage compensation, and (iii)

dissecting complex regulatory effects of X-chromosome dosage on large

autosomal gene networks with key roles in cellular functioning.

INTRODUCTION

Disparity in SCD is fundamental to the biological definition of sex throughout much of the animal kingdom. In almost all eutherian mammals, females carry two X-chromosomes, while males carry an X- and a Y-chromosome: presence of the Y-linked SRY gene determines a testicular gonadal phenotype, while its absence allows development of ovaries (1). Sexual differentiation of the gonads leads to hormonal sex-differences that have traditionally been considered the major proximal cause for extra-gonadal phenotypic sex-differences. However, diverse studies, including recent work in transgenic mice that uncouple Y-chromosome and gonadal status, have revealed direct SCD effects on several sex-biased metabolic, immune and neurological phenotypes (2).

These findings - together with reports of widespread transcriptomic differences between pre-implantation XY and XX embryos (3, 4) - suggest that SCD has gene regulatory effects independently of gonadal status. However, genome-wide consequences of SCD remain poorly understood, especially in humans, where experimental dissociation of SCD and gonadal status is not possible. Understanding these regulatory effects is critical for clarifying the biological underpinnings of phenotypic sex-differences, and the clinical features of sex chromosome aneuploidy (5) [SCA, e.g. Turner (XO) and Klinefelter (XXY) syndrome], which can both manifest as altered risk for several common autoimmune and neurodevelopmental disorders (e.g. systemic lupus erythematosus and autism spectrum disorders) (6, 7). Here, we explore the

genome wide consequences of SCD through comparative transcriptomic

analyses amongst humans across a range of dosages including typical XX and

XY karyotypes, as well as several rare SCA syndromes associated with 1, 3, 4 or

5 copies of the sex chromosomes. We harness these diverse karyotypes to

dissect the architecture of dosage compensation amongst sex chromosome

genes, and to systematically map the regulatory effects of SCD on autosomal

gene expression in humans.

We examined gene expression profiles in a total of 470 lymphoblastoid

cell lines (LCLs), from (i) a core sample of 68 participants (12 XO, 10 XX, 9 XXX,

10 XY, 8 XXY, 10 XYY, 9 XXYY) yielding for each sample genome-wide

expression data for 19,984 autosomal and 894 sex-chromosome genes using the

Illumina oligonucleotide Beadarray platform (**Methods**), and (ii) an independent

set of validation/replication samples from 402 participants (4 XO, 146 XX, 22

XXX, 145 XY, 33 XXY, 16 XYY, 17 XXYY, 8 XXXY, 10 XXXXY) with quantitative

reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) measures of expression

for genes of interest identified in our core sample (**Table S1, Methods**).

RESULTS

Extreme Dosage Sensitivity of Evolutionarily Preserved X-Y Gametologs

To first verify our study design as a tool for probing SCD effects on gene

expression, and to identify core SCD-sensitive genes, we screened all 20,878

genes in our microarray dataset to define which, if any, genes showed a

persistent pattern of significant differential expression (DE) across all unique

pairwise group contrasts involving a disparity in either X- or Y-chromosome

dosage (n=15 and n=16 contrasts respectively, **Fig. 1a**). Disparities in X-

chromosome dosage were always accompanied by statistically significant DE in

4 genes, which were all X-linked: *XIST* (the orchestrator of X-inactivation) and 3

other known genes known to escape X-chromosome inactivation (*PUDP*,

KDM6A, *EIF1AX*) (8). Similarly, disparities in Y-chromosome dosage always led

to statistically-significant DE in 6 genes, which were all Y-linked: *CYorf15B*,

DDX3Y, *TMSB4Y*, *USP9Y*, *UTY,* and *ZFY*. Observed expression profiles for

these 10 genes perfectly segregated all microarray samples by karyotype group

(**Fig. 1b**), and could be robustly replicated and extended using available qPCR

data for 5/5 of these genes in the independent sample of 402 LCLs from

participants with varying SCD (**Fig. S1, Methods**).

Strikingly, 8 of the 10 genes showing obligatory SCD sensitivity (excepting

XIST and PUPD) are members of a class of 16 sex-linked genes with homologs

on both the X and Y chromosomes (i.e. 16 X-Y gene pairs, henceforth

gametologs) (9) that are distinguished from other sex-linked genes by (i) their

selective preservation in multiple species across ~300 million years of sex

chromosome evolution to prevent male-female dosage disparity, (ii) the breadth

of their tissue expression from both sex chromosomes; and (iii) their key

regulatory roles in transcription and translation (9, 10) (**Fig. 1c**). Broadening our

analysis to all 14 X-Y gametolog pairs present in our microarray data found that

these genes as a group exhibit a heightened degree of SCD-sensitivity that

distinguishes them from other sex-linked genes (**Fig. 1d, Methods**). These

findings provide direct evidence that the evolutionary maintenance, broad tissue

expressivity and enriched regulatory functions of X-Y gametologs (10) are indeed

accompanied by a distinctive pattern of dosage sensitivity, which firmly

establishes these genes as candidate regulators of SCD effects on wider

genome function.

Figure 1 (next page). Consistent Gene Expression Changes with Altered Sex Chromosome

Dosage. a) Cross table showing all unique pairwise SCD group contrasts within our microarray

dataset, color coded for their involvement of changes in X- and Y-chromosome count. **b)** Two-

dimensional expression heat-map for the 10 genes showing differential expression across all

contrasts that involve disparity in X or Y-chromosome count. Column colors encode SCD group

membership for each sample. Rows detail gene expression across all SCD samples as a log 2

fold change relative to the mean expression in XY males. **c)** Table providing Gene ID, location,

function and homolog annotations for the 10 genes that showed obligate SCD sensitivity. Eight

genes in this set are members of X-Y gametolog gene pairs. **d)** Density plots showing observed

mean SCD sensitivity of the 14 gametolog genes in our study (red line), vs. null distribution (black

line) of mean SCD sensitivity for 10,000 randomly sampled sets of non-gametolog sex-linked

genes of equal size. Results are provided separately for X- and Y-chromosomes. For both

chromosomes, the mean SCD sensitivity of the gametolog gene set is greater is than that of all

10k permuted gene sets.

c

Gene_Name (Alias)	Entrez_ID	Chromosome	Probe_Start	Probe_End	Functions	Gametolog_Name (Alias)	Functions
PUDP (HDHD1)	8226	X	6967201	6967250	encodes protein of unknown biological function	-	-
KDM6A (UTX)	7403	X	44970808	44970857	catalyzes the demethylation of tri/dimethylated histone H3	UTY	protein-protein interactions
XIST	7503	X	73040921	73040970	essential for initiation and spread of X inactivation	-	-
EIF1AX	1964	X	20150300	20150326	essential translation initiation factor	EIF1AY	translation initiation

Gene_Name (Alias)	Entrez_ID	Chromosome	Probe_Start	Probe_End	Functions	Gametolog_Name (Alias)	Functions
ZFY	7544	Y	2849596	2849645	transcription factor	ZFX	transcription factor
USP9Y	8287	Y	14971985	14972034	ubiquination	USP9X	ubiquination
DDX3Y	8653	Y	15032184	15032233	RNA and ATP binding, hydrolysis	DDX3X	RNA helicase, transcriptional regulation and translation
UTY	7404	Y	15360382	15360431	protein-protein interactions	KDM6A (UTX)	catalyzes the demethylation of tri/dimethylated histone H3
TMSB4Y (TB4Y)	9087	Y	15817595	15817644	uncharacterized	TMSB4X (TB4X)	actin polymerization, cell proliferation/differentiation
TXLNGY (CYorf15B)	84663	Y	21765838	21765887	pseudogene	TXLNG	transcriptional regulation, intracellular trafficking

d

Observed Sex Chromosome Dosage Effects on X- and Y-chromosome Genes Modify Current Models of Dosage Compensation

We next harnessed our study design to test the canonical ("Four Class") model for SCD compensation, which defines four mutually-exclusive classes of

sex chromosome genes that would be predicted to have differing responses to

changing SCD(11): (i) pseudoautosomal region (PAR) genes, (ii) Y-linked genes,

(iii) X-linked genes that undergo X-chromosome inactivation (XCI), and (iv) X-

linked genes that "escape" XCI (XCIE). Under the Four Class Model, PAR genes

would be predicted to increase their expression with increases in X- or Y-

chromosome count, whereas expression of Y-linked genes would increase

linearly with mounting Y-chromosome count. Due to the non-binary nature of

gene silencing with XCI (12), theorized SCD effects on expression of XCI and

XCIE genes represent extreme ends of an X-chromosome dosage sensitivity

continuum: an X-linked genes that undergoes full silencing with XCI would show

no expression change with changes in X-chromosome dosage, whereas an X-

linked gene that undergoes complete escape from X-chromosome inactivation

would show a linear increase in expression with increasing X-chromosome count.

To test this canonical "Four Class Model" we considered all sex

chromosome genes and performed unsupervised k-means clustering of genes by

their mean expression in each of the 7 karyotype groups represented in our

microarray dataset, and compared this empirically-defined grouping with that

given *a priori* by the Four Class Model (**Methods**). k-means clustering

distinguished 5 reproducible (color-coded) clusters of SCD-sensitive sex-

chromosome genes that overlapped strongly with gene groups predicted by the

Four Class Model, from a large left-over cluster of 773 genes with low or

undetectable expression levels in most samples (median detection rate of 4/68

samples), and no significant SCD sensitivity (**Table S2, Fig. 2a,b, Fig. S2a,b**).

The 5 SCD-sensitive groups of sex chromosome genes detected by k-

means were highly reproducible over k-means analyses across 1000 bootstrap

draws from our sample pool (**Fig. S2b**), and consisted of: an Orange cluster of

PAR genes, a Pink cluster of Y-linked genes (especially enriched for Y

gametologs, odds ratio=5213, p=$1.3*10^{-15}$), a Green cluster enriched for known

XCIE genes (especially X gametologs, odds ratio=335, p=$3.4*10^{-11}$), and a

Yellow cluster enriched for known XCI genes. The X-linked gene responsible for

initiating X-inactivation - XIST - fell into its own Purple "cluster" (**Fig. 2b**). For all

but the Orange cluster of PAR genes, observed patterns of gene-cluster dosage

sensitivity across karyotype groups deviated from those predicted by the Four

Class Model (**Fig. 2c**).

Mean Expression for the Pink cluster of Y-linked genes increased in a

stepwise fashion with Y-chromosome dosage, but deviated from the Four Class

Model prediction by showing a sub-linear relationship with Y-chromosome count

– indicting that these Y-linked genes may be subject to active dosage

compensation. Fold-changes observed by microarray for 3/3 of these Y-linked

genes were highly correlated across group contrasts with fold-changes observed

between karyotype groups by qPCR in an independent sample of 402

participants with varying SCD (**Methods, Fig. S2d).**

Observed expression profiles the Yellow and Green clusters of X-linked

genes also deviated from predictions of the Four Class Model predictions (**Table**

S2, Fig. 2c,d). Linear models for X- and Y-chromosome dosage effects on

expression (**Methods**) indicated that the XCI-enriched Yellow cluster was highly

sensitive to SCD (F=47.7, p<$2.2*10^{-16}$), and that the expression of this cluster

was significantly *inversely* related to X-chromosome dosage at the level of both

mean cluster expression (coefficient for linear effect of X-chromosome count on

expression = -0.12, p=$3.8*10^{-15}$) and the individual expression profile of 60/66

genes within the cluster (p<0.05 for negative linear effect of X count on

expression). This observation suggests that increasing X copy number may not

solely involve silencing of these genes from the additional inactive X-

chromosome, but a further repression of their expression from the single active

X-chromosome.

Remarkably, expression of the XCI gene cluster was also significantly

decreased by presence of a Y-chromosome, at the level of both mean cluster

expression (coefficient for linear effect of Y-chromosome count on expression = -

0.09, p= $1.4*10^{-14}$) and expression profiles of 48/66 individual cluster genes

(p<0.05 for negative linear effect of Y count on expression). The Green XCIE

cluster manifested an inverted version of this effect whereby increases in Y

chromosome dosage were associated with increased gene expression (p<

$6.2*10^{-11}$ for mean cluster expression and p<0.05 for 23/39 cluster genes) -

providing the first evidence that Y-chromosome status can influence the

expression level of X-linked genes independently of circulating gonadal factors.

Mean expression of Green XCIE cluster genes also scaled sub-linearly with X-

chromosome dosage. For both Green and Yellow clusters, we established that

observed patterns of dosage sensitivity held when analysis was restricted to X-

linked genes with only high confidence annotations for XCIE and XCI status

(respectively) (**Fig 2d**) – suggesting that observed expression profiles was

unlikely to be explained by misclassification of X-linked genes by XCI status. To

further probe the sublinear relationship between XCIE Green cluster expression

and X-chromosome dosage, we integrated our findings with those of a recently-

published (13) survey of allelic expression imbalance analyses from female

LCLs with skewed X-inactivation (**Text S1, Fig. S2**). This analysis revealed that

the magnitude of observed sub-linear relationships between Green cluster gene

expression values and X-chromosome dosage is consistent with independent

measurements of incomplete of escape from XCI (12, 13).

To determine the reproducibility and convergent validity of the unexpected

modes of dosage sensitivity observed for XCI (reduced expression with

increasing X- and Y-chromosome dosage) and XCIE (increased expression with

increasing Y-chromosome dosage) clusters, we first confirmed that the distinct

expression profiles for these two clusters were reproducible at the level of

individual genes and samples. Indeed, unsupervised clustering of microarray

samples based on expression of XCI and XCIE cluster genes relative to XX

controls distinguished three broad karyotype groups: females with one X-

chromosome (XO), males with one X-chromosome (XY, XYY), and individuals

with extra X-chromosome (XXX, XXY, XXYY) (**Fig. 2e**). We were also able to

validate our data-driven discovery of XCI and XCIE gene clusters against

independently generated X-chromosome annotations (**Fig. 2f**), which detail 3

distinct genomic predictors of inactivation status for X-linked genes. Specifically,

XCI cluster genes were relatively enriched (and XCIE cluster genes relatively

impoverished) for (i) having lost a Y-chromosome homolog during evolution (14)

(X^2 = 10.9, p=0.01), (ii) being located in older evolutionary strata of the X-

chromosome (15) (X^2 = 22.6, p=0.007), and (iii) bearing heterochromatic markers

(16) (X^2 = 18.35, p=0.0004).

Finally, qPCR assays in LCLs from an independent sample of 402

participants with varying SCD validated the fold changes observed in microarray

data for 5/6 of the most SCD-sensitive XCIE and XCI cluster genes (**Methods,**

Fig. S2e). To independently extend these observations, we measured gene

expression by qPCR in novel karyotype groups not represented in our microarray

dataset (XXXY, XXXXY, **Methods**) and were able to confirm reduction in

expression with greater X-chromosome dosage for 2 of 3 XCI cluster genes (**Fig**

S2f, *NGFRAP1*, *CXorf57*), and Y-chromosome dosage effects upon expression

for 5 of 6 X-linked genes from XCI and XCIE clusters (**Fig S2g**, downregulation:

NGFRAP1, *CXorf57* | up-regulation: *PIM2*, *PRKX).* Taken together, these

findings update the canonical Four Class Model of SCD compensation for

specific Y-linked and X-linked genes, and expand the list of X-linked genes

capable of mediating wider phenotypic consequences of SCD variation.

Figure 2 (next page). Data-Driven Partitioning of Sex Chromosome Genes by Dosage

Sensitivity. **a)** 2D Multidimensional scaling (MDS) plot of sex chromosome genes by their mean

expression profiles (+/- 95% confidence intervals) across all 7 SCD groups. Genes are coded by

both Four Class Model and k-means cluster grouping. Note that MDS2 arranges X-linked genes

along the established gradient of X-linked dosage sensitivity that ranges from extreme XCIE

(XIST), to full XCI. **b)** Cross table showing enrichment of k-means clusters (rows) for Four Class

Model gene groups. Lower-bounds for enrichment odds-ratios are given where mean enrichment

= ∞. **c)** Dot and line plots showing observed and predicted mean expression values for each k-

means gene cluster across karyotype groups. **d)** Close-up of observed (solid, color-coded) vs.

predicted (dashed, gray) mean (+/- 95% confidence intervals) expression profiles of Green and

Yellow gene clusters. Observed expression profiles still counter predictions when analysis is

restricted to core genes in each cluster with XCIE/XCI status that has been confirmed across

three independent reports (Balaton et al). **e)** Heatmap showing normalized (vs. XX mean)

expression of dosage sensitive genes in the XCIE and XCI k-means groups (rows, color-coded

green and yellow respectively), for each sample (columns, color coded by SCD group). **f)** Pie-

charts showing how genes within XCIE and XCI-enriched k-means clusters (green and yellow

columns respectively), display mirrored over/under-representation for three genomic features of

X-linked gene that have been linked to XCEI in prior research (i) persistence of a surviving Y-

linked homolog, (ii) location of the gene within "younger" evolutionary strata of the X-

chromosome, and (iii) presence of euchromatic rather than heterochromatic epigenetic markers.

a

XIST

FOUR CLASS
● PAR ⊠ Y ▲ XCIE ■ XCI ╋ X-other

K MEANS
🔴 🔴 🔴 🔴 🔴 (⚫ not expressed)

b

FOUR CLASS GROUP

	PAR	Y	XCIE	XCI
	> 175.6			
		> 28.9		
			XIST	
			14.8	
				6.6

K MEANS GROUP

- log10 p value for enrichment
0 5 10 15 20 25 30

c

MEAN Log2 EXPRESSION (+/- 95% CI) OF EACH K MEANS GROUP BY KARYOTYPE

XIST PAR Y XCIE XCI

Observed expression profiles 🔴🔴🔴🔴   Expression profiles predicted by Four Class Model - - -

d

XCIE

XCI

Log2 EXPRESSION (mean +/- 95% CI)

GROUP

Expression profiles

Predicted by Four Class Model
- - - - - -

Observed (for all genes in cluster)

XCIE —— XCI ——

Observed (for core genes only)

XCIE —— XCI ——

e

KARYOTYPE

XO, XY, XYY, XXX, XXY, XXYY

XCIE: UPRT, SLC25A14, PPP2R3B, MORF4L2, TAF1, PNPLA4, FUNDC1, IL2RG, BCOR, ZRSR2, KDM5C, TXLNG, DDX3X, ZFX, PRKX, EIF2S3, EIF1AX, KDM6A, HDHD1

XCI: ZBTB33, ARAF, MST4, ELK1, CFP, SPIN3, FAM50A, MOSPD1, MMGT1, SATL1, ATP6AP1, GSPT2, G6PD, ARMCX5, GRPR, TCEAL4, GDI1, FAM127A, ZNF711, MPP1, CXorf57

K MEANS GROUP

-1 Log2 FC vs. XX 1

f

K-MEANS GROUP

XCI	XCIE

Y-LINKED HOMOLOGY
none / pseudogene / gene
$X^2 = 10.98$, p=0.01

EVOLUTIONARY STRATUM
OLDER   YOUNGER
$X^2 = 22.6$, p=0.007

CHROMATIN STATE
heterochromatin /other/ transcription
$X^2 = 18.35$, p=0.0004

Context-Specific Disruption of Autosomal Expression by Sex Chromosome Aneuploidy

We next leveraged the diverse SCAs represented in our study to assess how SCD variation shapes expression on a genome-wide scale. By counting the total number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs, **Methods**) in each SCA group relative to its respective euploidic control (i.e XO and XXX compared with XX; XXY, XYY, XXYY compared with XY), we detected order of magnitude differences in DEG count amongst SCAs across a range of log2 fold change (log2FC) cut-offs (**Fig. 3a,b**). We observed an order of magnitude increase in DEG count with X-chromosome supernumeracy in males vs. females, which although previously un-described, is congruent with the more severe phenotypic consequences of X-supernumeracy in males vs. females (17). Overall, increasing the dosage of the sex chromosome associated with the sex of an individual (i.e. X in females and Y in males) had a far smaller effect than other types of SCD changes. Moreover, the ~20 DEGs seen in XXX contrasted with >2000 DEGs in XO – revealing a profoundly asymmetric impact of X-chromosome loss vs. gain on the transcriptome of female LCLs, which echoes the asymmetric phenotypic severity of X-chromosome loss (Turner) vs. gain (XXX) syndromes in females (6).

To clarify the relative contribution of sex chromosome vs. autosomal genes to observed DEG counts with changes in SCD, we calculated the proportion of DEGs in every SCD group (comparing SCAs to their "gonadal controls", and XY males to XX females) that fell within each of four distinct genomic regions: autosomal, PAR, Y-linked and X-linked (**Fig. 3c**). Autosomal

genes accounted for >75% of all DEGs in females with X-monosomy (XO) and

males with X-supernumeracy (XXY, XXYY), but <30% DEGs in all other SCD

groups (**Methods**). These results reveal that SCD changes vary widely in their

capacity to disrupt genome function, and demonstrate that differential

involvement of autosomal genes is central to this variation. Moreover, associated

SCA differences in overall DEG count broadly recapitulate SCA differences in

phenotypic severity.

Figure 3 (next page). Genome-wide Effects of Sex Chromosome Dosage Variation. a-b)

Table **a** and corresponding line-plot **b** showing number of genes with significant differential

expression (after FDR correction with q<0.05) in different SCD contrasts at varying |log2 fold

change| cut-offs. Note the order-of-magnitude differences between the number of Differentially

Expressed Genes (DEGs) in XO ("removal of X from female") vs. XXY and XXYY ("addition of X

to male") vs. XYY and XXX ("addition of Y and X to male and female, respectively"). A |log2 fold

change| threshold of 0.26 (~20% change in expression) was applied to categorically define

differential expression in other analyses, by identifying the log2 fold change threshold increase

causing the greatest drop in DEG count for each karyotype group, and then averaging this value

across karyotype groups. **c)** Dot-and-line plot showing the proportion of DEGs in each karyotype

group that fell within different regions of the genome. The proportion of all genes in the genome

within each genomic region is shown for comparison. All SCD groups showed non-random DEG

distribution relative to the genome (p<2*10^-16), but DEG distributions differed significantly

between SCD groups (p<2*10^-16). XO, XXX and XXYY are distinguished from all other SCDs

examined by the large fraction of their overall DEG count that comes from autosomal genes.

DOSAGE CHANGE	CONTRAST	LOG2 FOLD CHANGE CUT-OFF			
		0.26	0.5	1	2
Loss of X in female	XO vs. XX	2204	469	50	7
Addition of X in male	XXY vs. XY	268	85	13	1
	XXYY vs. XY	266	93	9	2
Addition of Y in male	XYY vs. XY	34	15	0	0
Addition of X in female	XXX vs. XX	28	7	3	1

Sex Chromosome Dosage Regulates Large-Scale Gene Co-expression Networks

To provide a more comprehensive systems-level perspective on the impact of SCD on genome-wide expression patterns, we leveraged Weighted Gene Co-expression Network Analysis (18) (WGCNA, **Methods**). This analytic approach uses the correlational architecture of gene expression across a set of samples to detect sets (modules) of co-expressed genes. Using WGCNA, we identified 18 independent gene co-expression modules in our dataset (**Table S3**).

We established that these modules were not artifacts of co-differential expression

of genes between groups by demonstrating their robustness to removal of all

group effects on gene expression by regression (**Fig. S3a**), and after specific

exclusion of XO samples (**Fig. S3b**) given the extreme pattern of DE in this

karyotype (**Fig. 3b**). We focused further analysis on modules meeting 2

independent statistical criteria after correction for multiple comparisons: (i)

significant omnibus effect of SCD group on expression, (ii) significant enrichment

for one or more gene ontology (GO) process/function terms (**Methods, Table S3,**

Fig. 4a-b). These steps defined 8 functionally coherent and SCD-sensitive

modules (Blue, Brown, Green, Purple, Red, Salmon, Tan and Turquoise).

Notably, the SCD effects we observed on genome wide expression patterns

appeared to be specific to shifts in sex chromosome gene dosage, as application

of our analytic workflow to publically available genome-wide Illumina beadarray

expression data from LCLs in patients with trisomy 21 (Down syndrome)

revealed a highly dissimilar profile of genome-wide expression change to that

observed in sex chromosome trisomies (**Methods, Fig. 4c, Table S4**).

To specify SCA effects on module expression, we compared all

aneuploidy groups to their respective "gonadal controls" (**Fig. 4d**). Statistically

significant differences in modular eigengene expression were seen in XO, XXY

and XXYY groups - consistent with these karyotypes causing larger total DE

gene counts than other SCD variations (**Fig. 3a**). The largest shifts in module

expression were seen in XO, and included robust up-regulation of protein

trafficking (Turquoise), metabolism of non-coding RNA and mitochondrial ATP

synthesis (Brown), and programmed cell death (Tan) modules, alongside down-regulation of cell cycle progression, DNA replication/chromatin organization (Blue, Salmon), glycolysis (Purple) and responses to endoplasmic reticular stress (Green) modules. Module DE in those with supernumerary X chromosomes on an XY background, XXY and XXYY, involved "mirroring" of some XO effects – i.e. *down-regulation* of protein trafficking (Turquoise) and *up-regulation* of cell-cycle progression (Blue) modules – plus a more karyotype-specific up-regulation of immune response pathways (Red).

The distinctive up-regulation of immune-system genes in samples of lymphoid tissue from males carrying a supernumerary X-chromosome carries potential clinical relevance for one of the best-established clinical phenotypes in XXY and XXYY syndromes: a strongly (up to 18-fold) elevated risk for autoimmune disorders (ADs) such as Systemic Lupus Erythmatosus, Sjogren Syndrome, and Diabetes Mellitus (7). In further support of this interpretation, we found the Red module to be significantly enriched (p=0.01 by Fisher's Test, and p=0.01 by gene set permutation) for a set of known AD risks compiled from multiple large-scale Genome Wide Association Studies (GWAS, **Methods**). The two GWAS implicated AD risk genes showing strongest connectivity within the Red module and up-regulation in males bearing an extra X-chromosome were *CLECL1* and *ELF1* – indicating that these two genes should be prioritized for further study in mechanisms of risk for heightened autoimmunity in XXY and XXYY males. Collectively, these results represent the first systems-level characterization of SCD effects on genome function, and provide convergent

evidence that increased risk for AD risk in XXY and XXYY syndrome may be

arise due to an up-regulation of immune pathways by supernumerary X-

chromosomes in male lymphoid cells.

To test for evidence of coordination between the changes in sex-

chromosome genes imparted by SCD (**Fig. 2**), and the genome-wide

transcriptomic variations detected through WGCNA (**Fig. 4a**), we asked if any

SCD-sensitive gene co-expression modules were enriched for one or more of the

5 SCD-sensitive clusters of sex chromosome genes (i.e. "PAR", "Y-linked",

"XCIE", "XCI" and the gene XIST). Four WGCNA modules - all composed of

>95% autosomal genes - showed such enrichment (**Fig. 4e**): The Turquoise and

Brown modules were enriched for XCI cluster genes, whereas the Green and

Blue modules were enriched for XCIE cluster genes. The Blue module was

unique for its additional enrichment in PAR genes, and its inclusion of XIST. We

generated network visualizations to more closely examine SCD-sensitive genes

and gene co-expression relationships within each of these four sex-chromosome

enriched WGCNA modules (**Fig. 4f** Blue and **Fig. S3c-e** for others**, Methods)**.

The Blue module network highlights XIST, select PAR genes (*SLC25A6*,

SFRS17A) and multiple X-linked genes from X-Y gametolog pairs (*EIF1AX*,

KDM6A (*UTX*), *ZFX*, *PRKX*) for their high SCD-sensitivity, and shows that these

genes are closely co-expressed with multiple SCD-sensitive autosomal genes

including *ZWINT*, *TERF2IP* and *CDKN2AIP*.

Our detection of highly-organized co-expression relationships between

SCD sensitive sex-linked and autosomal genes hints at specific regulatory effects

of dosage sensitive sex chromosome genes in mediating the genome-wide effects of SCD variation. To test this, and elucidate potential regulatory mechanisms, we performed an unbiased transcription factor binding site (TFBS) enrichment analysis of genes within Blue, Green, Turquoise and Brown WGCNA modules (**Methods**). This analysis converged on a single TF - ZFX, encoded by the X-linked member of an X-Y gametolog pair – as the only SCD sensitive TF showing significant TFBS enrichment in one or more modules. Remarkably, the gene *ZFX* was itself part of the Blue module, and ZFX binding sites were not only enriched amongst Blue and Green module genes (increased in expression with increasing X-chromosome dose), but also amongst Brown module genes that are downregulated as X-chromosome dose increases (**Fig. 4g**). To directly test if changes in ZFX expression are sufficient to modify expression of Blue, Green or Brown modules genes in immortalized lymphocytes, we harnessed existing gene-expression data from murine T-lymphoblastic leukemia cells with and without ZFX knockout (19) (GEO GSE43020). These data revealed that genes downregulated by ZFX knockout in mice have human homologs that are specifically and significantly over-represented in Blue (p=0.0005) and Green (p=0.005) modules (p>0.1 for each of the other 6 WGCNA modules) – providing experimental validation of our hypothesized regulatory role for ZFX.

Figure 4 (next page). Weighted Gene Co-expression Network Analysis of Sex Chromosome Dosage

Effects. a) Dot and line plots detailing mean expression (+/- 95% confidence intervals) by SCD group for 8

SCD-sensitive and functionally-coherent gene co-expression modules. **b)** Top 3 GO term enrichments for

each module. **c)** Heatmap showing distinct profile of module DE with a supernumerary chromosome 21 vs. a

supernumerary X-chromosome. **d)** Heatmap showing statistically significant differential expression of gene

co-expression modules between karyotype groups. **e)** Cross tabulation showing enrichment of each module

for the dosage-sensitive clusters of sex-chromosome genes detected by k-means. Lower-bounds for

enrichment odds-ratios are given where mean enrichment = ∞. **f)** Gene co-expression network for the Blue

module showing the top decile of co-expression relationships (edges) between the top decile of SCD-

sensitive genes (nodes). Nodes are positioned in a circle for ease of visualization. Node shape distinguishes

autosomal (circle) from sex chromosome (square) genes. Sex chromosome genes within the blue module

are color coded by their SCD-sensitivity grouping as per **Figure 2a** (PAR-Orange, XCIE – dark green, XIST

–purple). Larger node and gene name sizes reflect greater SCD sensitivity. Edge width indexes the strength

of co-expression between gene pairs. **g).** ZFX and its target genes from Blue, Green and Brown modules

with significant ZFX TFBS enrichment. Note that expression levels of ZFX (which increases in expression

with mounting X-chromosome dosage) are positively correlated (solid edges) with SCD sensitive genes that

are up-regulated by increasing X-chromosome dose (Blue and Green modules), but negatively correlated

(dashed edges) with genes that are down-regulated by increasing X-chromosome dose (Brown module).

DISCUSSION

In conclusion, our study – which systematically examined gene expression

data from 470 individuals representing a total of 9 different sex chromosome

karyotypes - yields several new insights into sex chromosome biology with

consequences for basic and clinical science. First, our discovery and validation of

X-linked genes that are upregulated by reducing X-chromosome count – so that

their expression is elevated in XO vs. XX for example – runs counter to dominant

models of sex chromosome dosage compensation in mammals, and thereby

modifies current thinking regarding which subsets of X-chromosome genes could

contribute to sex and SCA-biased phenotypes (20). We speculate that this newly-

observed non-canonical mode of X-chromosome dosage sensitivity could arise

through one or more of the following candidate mechanisms: (i) repression of X-

linked genes on the active X-chromosome by genes that are expressed from

inactive X-chromosomes, and (ii) sensitivity of X-linked genes on the active X-

chromosome to the changes in nuclear heterochromatin dosage that would follow

from varying numbers of inactivated X-chromosomes (21).

Our findings also modify classical models of sex-chromosome biology by

identifying X-linked genes that vary in their expression as a function of Y–

chromosome dosage – indicating that the phenotypic effects of normative and

aneuploidic variations in Y-chromosome dose could theoretically be mediated by

altered expression of X-linked genes. Moreover, the discovery of Y chromosome

dosage effects on X-linked gene expression provides novel routes for

competition between maternally and paternally inherited genes beyond the

previously described mechanisms of parental imprinting and genomic conflict–

with consequences for our mechanistic understanding of sex-biased evolution

and disease (22).

Beyond their theoretical implications, our data help to pinpoint specific

genes that are likely to play key roles in mediating sex chromosome dosage

effects on wider genome function. Specifically, we establish that a distinctive

group of sex-linked genes - notable for their evolutionary preservation as X-Y

gametolog pairs across multiple species, and the breadth of their tissue

expression in humans (10) – are further distinguished from other sex-linked

genes by their exquisite sensitivity to SCD, and exceptionally close co-

expression with SCD-sensitive autosomal genes. These results add critical

evidence in support of the idea that X-Y gametologs play a key role in mediating

SCD effects on wider genome function. In convergent support of this idea we

show that (i) multiple SCD-sensitive modules of co-expressed autosomal genes

are enriched with TFBS for an X-linked TF from the highly dosage sensitive *ZFX*-

ZFY gemetolog pair, and (ii) ZFX deletion causes targeted gene expression

changes in such modules. Inclusion of ZFX in a co-expression module (Blue)

with enriched annotations for chromatin organization and cell cycle pathways is

especially striking given the rich bodies of experimental data which have

independently identified ZFX as a key regulator of cellular renewal and

maintenance (23).

Gene co-expression analysis also reveal the diverse domains of cellular

function that are sensitive to SCD – spanning cell cycle regulation, protein

trafficking and energy metabolism. These effects appear to be specific to shifts in

SCD as they are not induced by trisomy of chromosome 21. Furthermore, gene

co-expression analysis of SCD effects dissects out specific immune activation

pathways that are upregulated by supernumerary X-chromosomes in males, and

enriched for genes known to confer risk for autoimmune disorders that are

overrepresented amongst males bearing an extra X-chromosome. Thus, we

report coordinated genomic response to SCD that could potentially explain

observed patterns of disease risk in SCA.

Collectively, these novel insights serve to refine current models of sex-

chromosome biology, and advance our understanding of genomic pathways

through which sex chromosomes can shape phenotypic variation in health, and

sex chromosome aneuploidy.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Acquisition and preparation of biosamples

RNA was extracted by standard methods (Qiagen, MD, USA) from

lymphoblastoid cell lines (LCLs) for 469 participants recruited through studies of

SCA at the National Institute of Health Intramural Research Program, and

Thomas Jefferson University (24). All participants with X/Y-aneuploidy were non-

mosaic, and stability of karyotype across LCL derivation was confirmed by

chromosome fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) in all members of a

randomly selected subset of 9 LCL samples representing each of the 4

supernumerary SCA groups included in our microarray analysis**.** Sixty-eight

participants provided RNA samples for microarray analyses (12 XO, 10 XX, 9

XXX, 10 XY, 8 XXY, 10 XYY, 9 XXYY), and 40 participants provided RNA

samples for a separate qPCR validation/extension study (4 XO, 145 XX, 22 XXX,

146 XY, 34 XXY, 16 XYY, 17 XXYY, 8 XXXY, 10 XXXXY). The microarray and

qPCR samples were fully independent of each other (biological replicates), with

the exception of 2 XO participants in the microarray study, who each also

provided a separate LCL sample for the qPCR study (**Table S1**).

Microarray data preparation, differential expression analysis, annotation

and probe selection

Gene expression was profiled using the Illumina HT-12 v4 Expression

BeadChip Kit (Illumina Inc, San Diego, CA). Expression data were quantile

normalized across arrays and log2 transformed using the *limma* package in

R(25). For each of 47323 probes, we estimated mean expression by karyotype

group, and log2 fold change in gene expression for each unique pairwise group

contrast between karyotype groups (**Fig. 1a**), along with their associated false-

discover-rate (FDR) corrected p-values. For each pairwise karyotype group

comparison, we identified probes with significant log2 fold-changes that survived

FDR correction for multiple comparisons across all 47323 probes with q (the

expected proportion of falsely rejected nulls) set at 0.05. We also calculated a

single summary estimate of SCD effects for each probe, by calculating the

proportion of variance (r^2) in probe expression that was accounted for by the 7-
level factor of SCD group.

All 47323 microarray probes were annotated using both the vendor
manifest file and an independently published re-annotation that assigns a quality
rating to each probe based on the specificity of its alignment to the purported
transcript target (26). We filtered for all probes with "perfect" or "good" quality
alignment to a known gene according to this reannotation, and then used the
collapseRows function from the WGCNA (27) package in R (with default
settings), to select one probe per gene. We also applied a further filter to remove
any Y-linked probes that showed differential expression between female
karyotype groups. These steps resulted in high-quality measures of expression
and estimates of differential expression for 19984 autosomal and 894 sex-
chromosome genes in each of 68 independent samples from 7 different
karyotype groups.

To select a log2 threshold for use in categorical definition of differentially
expressed genes (DEGs), we estimated DEG count across a range of absolute
log2 fold-change cut-offs for 6 contrasts of primary interest: karyotypically normal
males vs. females (i.e. XY vs. XX), and each SCA group vs. its respective
"gonadal control" (i.e XX was the control for XO and XXX groups / XY was the
control for XXY, XYY and XXYY). An absolute log2 fold change of 0.26
(equivalent to a ~20% increase/decrease in expression) was empirically selected
as the cut-off to define differential expression by (i) separately identifying the
increase in log2FC threshold that cause the greatest drop in DEG count for each

SCA group, (ii) averaging these log2FC thresholds across all 5 SCA groups.

Thus in any contrast between two karyotype groups, DEGs showed log 2 fold-

changes that met both of the following two criteria: an associated p value that

met FDR correction with q<0.05, and an absolute magnitude greater than 0.26.

Identifying Genes Showing Significant Differential Expression Across All

Sampled Changes in X- and Y-Chromosome Count

The 21 unique pairwise karyotype group comparisons in our microarray

dataset included 15 contrasts involving a disparity in X-chromosome count, and

16 contrasts involving a disparity in Y-chromosome count (**Fig. 1a**). Using the

empirically-defined |log2 fold change| cut-off of 0.26 (see above), we screened all

20878 genes for evidence of significant differential expression across all

instances of X- or Y-chromosome disparity.

Comparing SCD Sensitivity of Gametolog vs. non-Gametolog Sex-Linked

Genes

Fourteen of 16 established (9) X-Y gametolog gene pairs were

represented in our microarray dataset. To compare the SCD sensitivity of this

gene set to that of non-gametolog sex-linked genes we first quantified the mean

effect of SCD group on gene expression within the gametolog gene set by

averaging gene-wise r-squared values for the effect of SCD group on expression.

We then determined the centile of this observed gene set mean r-squared

against a distribution of r-squared values for 10,000 similarly sized sets of

randomly sampled non-gametolog sex-linked genes (**Fig. 1d**). This procedure

was conducted separately for X- and Y-chromosomes.

A Priori Assignment of Sex Chromosome Genes to Four Class Model

Categories

PAR genes were defined as those lying distal to the PAR1 and PAR2

boundaries specified in hg18 build of the human genome. Y-linked and X-linked

genes were defined as those lying proximal to these PAR boundaries on the Y-

and X-chromosome respectively. X-linked genes were assigned to XCIE and XCI

using consensus classifications from a systematic integration (8) of XCI calls

from 3 large-scale assays: expression from the inactivated human X-

chromosome in 9 hybrid human-mouse cell lines (12), allelic-imbalance analysis

of expression data in cell-lines from females with skewed X-inactivation (28), and

X-chromosome methylation data from microarray (29). According to the XCI

categories of this consensus report we classified X-linked genes as X-inactivated

("Subject" or "Mostly Subject" categories), X-escape ("Escape" or "Mostly

Escape" categories), or X-other (all other intermediate categories).

Clustering of Sex Chromosome Genes by Dosage Sensitivity

For all 894 sex chromosome genes within our dataset we calculated the

mean fold-change per SCD group relative to mean expression across all SCD

groups. The resulting 894 by 7 matrix was submitted to k-means clustering

across a range of k-values using the *kmeans* function in R with nstart and

iter.max set at 100. Visual inspection of a scree plot of mean within partition sum-

of-squared residuals against k indicated an optimal 6-cluster solution (**Fig. S2a**).

The largest of these 6 clusters (Gray cluster) gathered genes with low or

undetectable expression levels across all samples, and was excluded from

further analysis.

Reproducibility of 6 cluster solution was established using a bootstrap

method whereby individuals were randomly drawn (with replacement) from each

SCD group within our microarray dataset to derive 1000 bootstrap sets of 68

samples. k-means clustering was repeated for each of these 1000 sets to define

a 6-cluster solution in each draw (**Fig. S2b**). Consistency of clustering was

quantified for each gene as the proportion of bootstrap draws in which it was

assigned to the same cluster as it had been in the original sample. The median

consistency score for cluster designation was >93% for all 5 clusters of SCD-

sensitive sex chromosome genes.

The observed grouping of sex chromosome genes from k-mean

clustering, was compared with the predicted Four Class Model groupings using

two-tailed Fishers tests for all pairwise cluster-grouping combinations (**Fig. 2b**).

Modelling X- and Y-chromosome Dosage Effects on Expression of Sex

Chromosome Gene Clusters

We used the following linear models to estimate the combined influence of

X and Y chromosome dosage in cluster and gene-level expression of Yellow

(XCI enriched) and Green (XCIE enriched) gene clusters:

Expression ~ β_0 (intercept) + β_1(X_count) + β_2(Y_count) + error

We computed p-values for comparisons of both β_1 and β_2 coefficient

estimates against the null (0), and used these to test for significant directional

effects of sex chromosome dosage on the mean expression of each gene

cluster, as well the expression of individual genes within each cluster.

Aligning Sex Chromosome Expression, Epigenetic and Evolutionary Data

We validated our data-driven clustering of X-linked genes into Yellow (XCI

enriched) and Green (XCIE enriched) groups, by overlapping the genomic

coordinates of gene probes with segmentations of the X-chromosome according

to (i) "chromatin states" defined by computational analysis of coordinated

changes in 10 distinct chromatin marks in LCLs (16), (ii) "evolutionary strata"

reflecting staged loss of recombination between the X- and Y-chromosome (15).

Overlaps of our probe coordinate with these two annotations were defined using

the GenomicRanges package in R. As a third validation we also aligned our

clustering of X-lined genes with a previously published annotation of X-linked

genes according to whether their corresponding ancestral Y-linked homologue

has been lost, converted to a pseudogene or maintained (8). Non-random

associations between these three annotations and Yellow vs. Green k-means

cluster membership were assessed using Chi-squared tests.

Comparison of DEG Count and Genomic Distribution Across SCA Groups

Total DEG counts were compared across SCD groups across a range of log 2 fold change cut-offs as described above and reported in **Fig. 3 a,b**. To test for non-random distribution of DEGs across the genome in each SCD group **(Fig. 3c)**, we compared observed DEG counts across 4 genomic regions - autosomal, PAR, Y-linked and X-linked - to the background distribution of total gene counts across these regions using the prop.test function in R. All SCD groups showed a high non-random distribution of DEGs across the genome – reflecting preferential involvement of sex chromosome genes ($p < 7.2 * 10^{-13}$).

Quantitative rtPCR validation of Differentially-Expressed Genes in Microarray

Selecting genes of interest: For selected genes showing significant differential expression between karyotype groups in our core sample, we used qPCR to validate and extent observed fold-changes in an independent sample of 402 participants representing all the karyotypes in our core sample plus two additional SCAs: XXXY, and XXXXY. Selection of specific genes for qPCR validation was as follows. From the set of 10 sex-linked genes with patterns of "obligate" dosage sensitivity (**Fig 1b**), we selected XIST, the 2 most X-chromosome sensitive X-linked gametologs [EIF1AX, KDM6A(UTX)], and the 2 most Y-chromosome sensitive Y-linked gametologs (ZFY, DDX3Y). All genes selected for qPCR from the sets of dosage sensitive sex chromosome genes defined by k-means clustering (**Fig. 2a,b**) showed (i) stable cluster membership

in >95% of bootstrap draws (**Fig. S2b**), and (ii) consistent inclusion in the top 10

DEGs across multiple relevant group contrasts for that k-means cluster (Pink Y-

linked cluster: XYY vs. XY and XXYY vs. XXY | Yellow XCI and Green XCIE

clusters: XO vs. XXX, XO vs. XY, XXY vs. XX).

Fluidigm qPCR protocol: Reverse Transcription reaction was performed using

RT2 HT First Strand Kit (QIAGEN, 330411) with 1000 ng RNA input per sample.

One-tenth of cDNA was preamplified using RT2 Microfluidics qPCR Reagent

system (QIAGEN, 330431) in combination with custom RT2 PreAmp pathway

primer mix Format containing 94 RT2 primer assays. Fourteen cycles of

preamplification were performed using the manufacturer recommended

preamplification protocol. Amplified cDNA was diluted 5-fold using RNase-free

water and assessed in real-time PCR using the RT2 Micrifluidics EvaGreen

qPCR Master mix and a Custom RT2 profiler PCR array PCR Array containing

96 assays, including selected DEGs of interest, housekeeping genes, reverse-

transcription controls, and positive PCR control. Real-time PCR was performed

on a Fluidigm BioMark HD (Fluidigm, San Francisco, US) using the RT2 cycling

program for the Fluidigm BioMark, which consists of an initial thermal mix stage

(50°C for 2 minutes, 70°C for 30 minutes, and 25°C for 10 minutes) followed by a

hot start at 95°C for 10 minutes and 40 cycles of 94°C for 15 seconds, and 60°C

for 60 seconds. For data processing, an assay with Ct > 23 was deemed to be

not expressed.

Differential Expression Analysis of qPCR data: The ΔΔCT method of relative

quantification was used to analyze qPCR data (30). To provide normalized

estimates of expression for each gene we calculated ΔCT values, by subtracting

the CT for each gene of interest from the mean CT of two housekeeping genes

(GAPDH and RPLP0) which were not differentially expressed across groups in

either microarray or qPCR data. Thus, larger ΔCT values reflected greater

normalized expression relative to mean expression of the reference

housekeeping genes. These ΔCT values were used as input for calculation of all

unique pairwise group differences in expression between karyotype groups

represented in the independent qPCR validation dataset. Group differences in

expression were modeled using the limma R package with identical setting to

those used in analysis of microarray data (see above). The resulting ΔΔCT

represent fold-changes in gene expression between groups, on a log scale with a

base determined by the effective qPCR efficiency.

Validation Microarray Results Using qPCR Results: All 21 unique pairwise SCD

group contrasts in our microarray sample could be reproduced in the

independent qPCR dataset. We used the correlation across these 21 group

contrasts for the qPCR fold-change and microarray log2 fold change to quantify

the degree of agreement between qPCR and microarray findings (**Fig. S1a and**

Fig. S2d,e).

Extension of Microarray Results Using qPCR Results: The qPCR dataset also

included two SCD groups that were not represented in the microarray dataset –

XXXY and XXXXY – allowing for a total of 15 novel pairwise SCD group

contrasts ("XO-XXXY", "XO-XXXXY", "XXXY-XX", "XXXXY-XX", "XXX-XXXY", "XXX-

XXXXY", "XXXY-XY",   "XXXXY-XY", "XXY-XXXY", "XXY-XXXXY", "XYY-XXXY", "XYY-

XXXXY", "XXYY-XXXY", "XXYY-XXXXY", "XXXY-XXXXY") sampling diverse disparities of

X- and Y-chromosome dosage. These novel contrasts were used as a further

test for the validity and reproducibility of our microarray findings. Each of the 15

novel pairwise SCD group contrasts was coded according to two effects of

interest: difference in X-chromosome count and difference in Y-chromosome

count. These coded SCD disparities were then correlated with observed fold-

changes for unique pairwise group contrasts in the qPCR dataset to test if

patterns of fold-change observed in the microarray dataset could be extension

into unseen karyotype groups (**Fig. S1b**,**c**: X- and Y-linked genes with

"obligatory" sex chromosome dosage sensitivity | **Fig. S2f,g**: X-linked genes from

the "Yellow" and "Green" k-means that countered expectations of the classical

Four Class Model).

Weighted Gene Co-expression Network Analysis (WGCNA)

Defining Gene Co-expression Modules: Gene co-expression modules were

generated using the R package Weighted Gene Co-expression Network Analysis

(WGCNA). Briefly, this involved first calculating the Pearson correlation

coefficient between all 20978 genes across all 68 samples in our study. This

correlation matrix was transformed using a signed power adjacency function with

a threshold power of 12 (selected based on fit to scale-free topology), and then

converted into Topological Overlap Matrix (TOM) by modifying the correlation

between each pair of genes using a measure of the similarity in their respective

correlations with all other genes (31). The resulting TOM was then converted to a

distance matrix by subtraction from 1, and used to generate a dendrogram for

clustering genes into modules. Gene modules were defined using the Dynamic

Hybrid cutree function (32) [with the following parameter settings: deepSplit

(control over sensitivity of module detection to module splitting) = 2,

mergeCutHeight (distance below which modules are merged)= 0.25, minimum

module size=30)]. Given the large number of genes included in our analyses, we

implemented module detection using the "blockwise" WGCNA algorithm, which

starts with a computationally inexpensive method to assort genes into smaller co-

expression blocks, and then completes the above steps within each block before

merging module designations across blocks. This implementation of WGCNA

defined 18 mutually exclusive co-expression gene modules within our data,

which ranged from 45 to 1393 genes in size, and a left-over group of 14630

genes without module membership (**Table S3**). The expression of each module

was summarized as a module eigengene value (ME: the right singular vector of

standardized expression values for genes in that module) in every sample. These

ME values were used to determine differential expression of modules across

(omnibus F-tests) and between (T-tests) SCD groups, as well as module co-

expression across samples (Pearson correlation coefficient).

Further characterizing gene co-expression modules: We used module

preservation analysis to establish that our defined co-expression modules were

not dominated by (i) the large number of DEGs induced by X-monosomy (using

expression data excluding XO samples), or (ii) other SCD group differences in

mean expression levels (using expression data after residualization for the

effects of SCD group and re-centering at a common mean). All modules showed

high reproducibility based on a module-specific $Z_{summary}$ scores derived by

comparing observed modular connectivity and density metrics with null values

generated by 200 permutations of gene-level module membership(33). We

focused further characterization of modules which passed two independent

statistical criteria; (i) SCD sensitivity - quantified using F-tests for the omnibus

effects of karyotype group on modular expression quantified as the ME, (ii)

functional coherence as inferred by analysis of modular gene ontolology term

enrichments using GO elite (34), and Gorilla (35).

Testing for enrichment of autoimmune disorder risk genes in WGCNA modules:

A large-scale records-based study was used to define 10 Autoimmune Disorder

(ADs) with clearly elevated prevalence rates in XXY vs. XY males (7), 9 of which

were represented in the largest available catalog of Genome Wide Association

Study (GWAS) findings (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/gwas/): Diabetes Mellitus type 1,

Multiple Sclerosis, Autoimmune Hypothyroidism, Psoriasis, Rheumatoid Arthritis,

Sjogren's Syndrome, Systemic Lupus Erythematosus, Ulcerative Colitis, and

Coeliac Disease. A total of 495 genes within our microarray sample were

annotated for showing a significant association in GWAS with one or more of

these 9 AD conditions. Overrepresentation of this AD gene set in the XXY

upregulated Red gene co-expression module was tested for using both Fisher's

exact test (p=0.01), and by comparing the observed representation of AD genes

against a null distribution generated by 10,000 random gene samples of equal

size to the red module.

Testing for patterned enrichment of dosage sensitive sex chromosome genes in

WGCNA modules: We tested if any of the 8 SCD-sensitive and functionally

enriched WGCNA modules showed enrichment for the previously derived k-

means clusters of dosage sensitive sex chromosome genes (**Fig. 2**) by applying

two-tailed Fishers tests to all pairwise module-cluster combinations (**Fig. 4 e**). All

observed associations survived Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons.

Module Visualization: WGCNA co-expression modules were visualized by

selecting genes within the top decile of SCD-sensitivity (indexed using r-squared

for proportion of expression variance explained by group), and edges (co-

expression links between genes) in the top decile of edge strengths. All

visualizations were constructed using the igraph R package in R.

Transcription factor binding site analyses: Transcription factor binding site

(TFBS) enrichment analysis was performed each of the 4 SCD-sensitive

WGCNA modules - Blue, Green, Turquoise and Brown - that were enriched for

inclusion of gene from one or more of the 5 SCD-sensitive clusters of sex

chromosome genes. In each module, we scanned canonical promoter regions

(1000bp upstream of the transcription start site) for the top 500 genes with

strongest intramodular "connectivity" (based on kME - the magnitude of each

gene's coexpression with its module's eigengene). Next we utilized TFBS

position weight matrices (PWMs) from JASPAR database (205 non-redundant

and experimentally defined motifs) (36) to examine the enrichment for

corresponding TFBS within each module. For TFBS enrichment all the modules

were scanned with each PWMs using the Clover algorithm (37). To compute the

enrichment analysis, we utilized three different background datasets (1000 bp

sequences upstream of all human genes, human CpG islands and human

chromosome 20 sequence). To increase confidence in the enrichment analyses,

we considered TFBS to be over-represented based on the P-values (<0.05)

obtained relative to all the three corresponding background datasets.

Enrichment of SCD sensitive modules for genes with DE due to experimental

ZFX knockout. To provide an orthogonal experimental test for evidence of a

regulatory role for ZFX within Blue, Green or Brown WGCNA modules, we used

a list of genes with significantly decreased expression due to ZFX knockout in

murine lymphocytes(19). Human homologs were found for these genes

([http://www.informatics.jax.org/downloads/reports/index.html)](http://www.informatics.jax.org/downloads/reports/index.html), and two-tailed

Fishers Tests were used to assess if these human genes were significantly

enriched/impoverished in any of the 8 SCD sensitive WGCNA modules.

Comparison of Autosomal Gene Fold-Change in SCA and Down Syndrome

The transcriptomic effects on Trisomy 21 (T21) were characterized in

LCLs by passing a publically available Illumina microarray gene expression

dataset (GEO, Accession number GSE34458) through an identical analytic

pipeline to that used in characterizing genome-wide fold changes in our SCA

sample (see above). We first independently confirmed the previously reported

finding that chromosome 21 was robustly enriched for genes showing differential

expression in this T21 data set (Chi-squared=999, $p < 2*10-16$ for enrichment of

DEGs on chromosome 21) – buttressing use of these data to assess

transcriptomic effects of T21. We examined overlaps in genome-wide expression

change between T21 and the three sex-chromosome trisomes in our samples

(XXY, XYY and XXX) using 17671 genes with complete expression data in both

microarray datasets (after exclusion of genes on chromosomes X, Y and 21).

We tested for, and failed to find any evidence of significant overlap in DEGs

using Chi-squared tests (**Table S4**). To test if T21 showed a similar shift in gene

co-expression modules to sex chromosome trisomies, we used the designation

of genes to modules in the SCA sample to recalculate module Eigengenes. We

then calculated MR fold changes for T21 and three SCA trisomies (XXX, XXY

and XYY). Trisomy of chromosome 21 was associated with a clearly distinct

profile of ME expression chance than all three of the SCA trisomies (**Fig. 4c**).

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