Local and global chromatin interactions are altered by large genomic deletions

associated with human brain development

Xianglong Zhang[1,2*], Ying Zhang[3*], Xiaowei Zhu[1,2*], Carolin Purmann[1,2], Michael S Haney[2],

Thomas Ward[1,2], Jie Yao[4], Sherman M Weissman[5#], Alexander E Urban[1,2#]

1 Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Sciences, 2 Department of Genetics, Stanford

University School of Medicine, 3 Department of Genetics and Genomic Sciences, Icahn School of

medicine at Mount Sinai, 4 Department of Cell Biology, Yale University School of Medicine, 5

Department of Genetics, Yale University

Email addresses:

Xianglong Zhang, xzhang8@stanford.edu;

Ying Zhang, zzhang006@gmail.com;

Xiaowei Zhu, xwzhu@stanford.edu;

Carolin Purmann, purmann@stanford.edu;

Michael S Haney, haney@stanford.edu;

Thomas Ward, wardtr@stanford.edu;

Jie Yao, yao.j@yale.edu;

Sherman M Weissman, sherman.weissman@yale.edu;

Alexander E Urban, aeurban@stanford.edu.

*These authors contributed equally to this work.

#To whom correspondence should be addressed.

Abstract

Background: Large copy number variants (CNVs) in the human genome are strongly

associated with common neurodevelopmental, neuropsychiatric disorders such as

schizophrenia and autism. Using Hi-C analysis of long-range chromosome interactions,

including haplotype-specific Hi-C analysis, and ChIP-Seq analysis of regulatory histone

marks, we studied the epigenomic effects of the prominent heterozygous large deletion CNV

on chromosome 22q11.2 and also replicated a subset of the findings for the heterozygous

large deletion CNV on chromosome 1q21.1.

Results: There are local and global gene expression changes as well as pronounced and

multilayered effects on chromatin states, chromosome folding and topological domains of

the chromatin, that emanate from the large CNV locus. Regulatory histone marks are altered

in the deletion flanking regions, and in opposing directions for activating and repressing

marks. Histone marks are changed along chromosome 22q and genome wide. Chromosome

interaction patterns are weakened within the deletion boundaries and strengthened

between the deletion flanking regions. The long-range folding contacts between the

telomeric end of chromosome 22q and the distal deletion-flanking region are increased. On

the chromosome 22q with deletion the topological domain spanning the CNV boundaries is

deleted in its entirety while neighboring domains interact more intensely with each other.

Finally, there is a widespread and complex effect on chromosome interactions genome-

wide, i.e. involving all other autosomes, with some of the effect directly tied to the deletion

region on 22q11.2.

Conclusions: These findings suggest novel principles of how such large genomic deletions

can alter nuclear organization and affect genomic molecular activity.

Keywords: Germline CNVs, Chromatin States, Chromosome Interactions, Topological

Domains

Introduction

Two of the most exciting discoveries in human genetics of the past decade are that small- to

medium-sized Copy Number Variants (CNVs) are very common in the human genome, and

that there is a group of large CNVs that are strongly associated with brain development and

neuropsychiatric disorders such as schizophrenia and the autism spectrum disorders

(ASDs) [1,2]. These large CNVs are understood to be providing enticing points of entry to the

analysis of the strong but complex genetic and molecular (and possibly even cellular) basis

of these common disorders.

Large CNVs, typically sized from hundreds of thousands to millions of basepairs of

genomic DNA sequence, were previously known to be in strong association with often-

severe but rare congenital malformations, or found in cancer genomes. It was a striking

discovery when a series of studies [1,2] showed that there is a group of more than ten large

CNVs that are strongly associated with aberrant brain development and a resulting

neuropsychiatric phenotype such as schizophrenia or ASD. These large neuropsychiatric

CNVs can encompass many genes and their effects across the various molecular levels of

gene activity and regulation and the clinical phenotype are complex and only poorly

understood.

On the molecular level these large neuropsychiatric CNVs have been mostly studied by

focusing on the effects of individual genes or small groups of genes from within the CNV

boundaries. Many very interesting insights have been gained using this approach.

However, these findings about individual genes fall short of explaining the full effects of

the large CNVs. There already have been a number of transcriptome wide studies that at

least hint at certain network effects emanating from the large CNVs [3-7]. Which mechanisms

mediate such transcription network effects is then the question. Furthermore there are an

increasing number of studies that show a potentially very important role of chromatin

regulation in the molecular etiology of neuropsychiatric disorder [8-14].

Against this backdrop we reasoned that it was worthwhile testing whether large CNVs

with association to brain development might cause a disruption or at least alteration of one

or several aspects of chromatin conformation, such as the distribution of regulatory

chromatin marks, the long-range direct physical interactions between distant regions on

one chromosome or between different chromosomes or the higher-order chromatin domain

structures that are defined by such marks or interactions. Such effects on these important

layers of molecular regulation of gene activity would then constitute a novel principle by

which large CNVs could transmit their presence to the machinery of cellular physiology.

Here we show in a cohort of lymphoblastoid cell lines (LCLs) derived from patients

with 22q11 Deletion Syndrome that indeed chromatin marks, chromatin domains and long-

range chromosome interactions are affected in several distinct ways by the large, common

and strongly disease-associated CNV on chromosome 22q11.2. We then go on to show in a

smaller number of LCLs from different patients that at least some of the same observations

can also be made for another neuropsychiatric large CNV, on chromosome 1q21.1.

22q11 Deletion Syndrome (22q11DS) is a disorder caused in the vast majority of cases

by a heterozygous deletion of about 3 million basepairs spanning about 60 known genes on

chromosome 22q11.2. It occurs in 1 per 3,000-6,000 live births [15]. The common phenotypes

of 22q11DS include a large spectrum of congenital anomalies, for example of the facial

structures and the cardiovascular system – and notably there is a strong association with

several neurodevelopmental psychiatric disorders, in particular schizophrenia and ASDs

[2,16-19]. In this study we are using the large CNV on 22q11.2 as a model to determine the

generalizable principles along which large CNVs of this important category can lead to

changes to the various ways in which chromatin is ordered, using unbiased, genome-wide,

sequencing-based assays for discovery.

Results

Producing chromosomal contact maps with Hi-C, deep-coverage capture-Hi-C and

chromosomal haplotype phasing data

To determine possible effects of the 22q11.2 deletion on chromosomal interactions, we

generated Hi-C contact maps for 11 human LCLs (5 patient cell lines with 22q11.2 deletion

and 6 control cell lines without), with a total of 3.1 billion Hi-C contact-reads of which 680

million read-pairs were of high quality and used for the downstream analyses

(**Supplementary Table 1**). The presence and boundaries of the heterozygous 3 Mbp

deletion in the patient cell lines were validated by whole genome sequencing

(Supplementary Fig. 1). To rule out an increase in overall genome instability in the patient

LCLs we carried out whole-genome sequencing at a coverage comparable to that used for

the majority of samples by the 1000 Genomes Project (i.e. <10x genome wide coverage).

Almost all of our control cell lines had been part of the 1000 Genomes Project and we

compared the genome-wide CNV load between our patient LCLs and LCLs used by the 1000

Genomes Project. We found no elevated genome-wide CNV burden in our patient cell lines

(Supplementary Table 2).

As a means of quality control our study included the cell line GM06990, which was the

cell line used in the original Hi-C paper [20]. Inter-chromosomal contacts of GM06990 as

determined by our own Hi-C data for this line (**Supplementary Fig. 2a**) show the same

patterns of chromosomal interactions across the nucleus as in [20]; i.e. small chromosomes

generally have more interactions with each other than larger chromosomes with each other,

and many more than chromosomes in the medium size range. Specific interaction pairs, e.g.

between chromosomes 17 and 19 were also replicated in our GM06990 data. Global inter-

chromosomal contact maps resulting from combining all our controls and cases,

respectively, again replicated these global interaction patterns (**Supplementary Fig. 2b,c**).

In order to be able to carry our haplotype-specific analysis of the chromatin and

transcriptome data we conducted haplotype phasing for the two related patients in our

cohort, a mother and son duo with the 22q11.2 deletion, where this was made possible by

combining the sequencing based approach of statistically-aided long-read haplotyping

(SLRH) [21] with an analysis of Mendelian inheritance of single nucleotide variants (SNVs). We

were able to phase 1,868,316 and 1,870,948 heterozygous SNVs on the autosomes of

ID00014 and ID00016, respectively (see details in Methods and Supplementary

Information). Two control samples from related donors, GM12878 and GM12892, were also

haplotype-phased using the same approach. For GM12892 we phased 1,929,967 autosomal

SNVs and for GM12878 we phased 1,874,181 autosomal SNVs. These phased SNVs were

then used to create haplotype-specific Hi-C interaction maps and to carry out allele-specific

analyses of the ChIP-Seq and RNA-Seq data.

Haplotype-specific Hi-C analysis requires very deep sequencing coverage of Hi-C

libraries since only paired-end reads that cover at least one informative (heterozygous) SNV

can be used for that purpose. To increase the Hi-C coverage for chromosome 22q to these

required very deep levels we carried out custom-designed chromosome-wide targeted

capture Hi-C. We performed capture Hi-C by using a custom-designed set of 2.1 million

NimbleGen oligomer capture probes representing the entire sequence of chromosome 22q

and Hi-C libraries prepared using the in situ Hi-C protocol from the four cell lines for which

we generated haplotype phasing data, followed by Illumina sequencing (**Supplementary**

Table 1). With this novel approach we achieved 10-16 fold levels of chromosome 22q

specific enrichment of Hi-C paired-end reads over the standard non-capture Hi-C data

(**Supplementary Fig. 3**).

Normalization of Hi-C data

Many factors, such as mappability of sequencing reads, GC content, length of the restriction

enzyme fragment etc., can lead to biases in Hi-C data. Several alternative computational

approaches for Hi-C data analysis have been developed that allow for the removal of these

biases and data [22-31]. When using these alternative algorithmic approaches on Hi-C data that

was generated for genomes without large CNVs, such as GM12878, the resulting

normalization metrics will be highly correlated [32]. For our Hi-C data however, we needed to

be certain to use a normalization method that is not thrown off from the outset by the

presence of the heterozygous 3 Mbp deletion in 22q11.2.

We tested three different commonly used normalization algorithms that were

developed for Hi-C data, following the rationale that the normalization methods should not

change the general patterns of interaction we can see in the raw data.

We found that not all of the available normalization methods are robust for the use

with Hi-C data coming from genomes with large CNVs. However, the hicpipe algorithm [22] is

quite suitable for this purpose (details of the comparison between normalization methods

in the **Supplementary Information** and **Supplementary Fig. 4**).

161 **Chromosomal contacts decrease within the 22q11.2 deletion boundaries and**

162 **between the deletion region and the remainder of chromosome 22q**

163 We observed that in 22q11DS cell lines the chromosomal contacts within the 22q11.2

164 deletion region are decreased significantly compared to control cell lines (**Fig. 1a**). Also

165 strongly reduced are the chromosomal contacts between the 22q11.2 deletion region with

166 the entire remainder of chromosome 22 (**Fig. 1a; Supplementary Fig. 5a**). This decrease is

167 consistent with the copy number of the 22q11.2 deletion region in the patient cell lines, as

168 all of the 22q11DS cell lines are heterozygously deleted for this region. No such decrease of

169 chromosomal contacts that involved an extended and contiguous chromosomal region was

170 observed that did not involve the 22q11.2 region. Likewise there was no such strong

171 decrease of intra-chromosomal contacts over an extended and contiguous chromosomal

172 region on any of the other autosomes (for example chromosome 19 in **Fig. 1b;**

173 **Supplementary Fig. 5b**).

Figure 1. Effects of the 22q11.2 deletion on chromosome contacts, gene expression and epigenetic profiles. *Panels a-d: each pixel in the heat-maps represents the intra- or inter-chromosomal contact frequency in Hi-C data from 22q11.2del cell lines versus control cell lines for a 500 kbp region. Yellow dashed lines indicate the 3 Mbp deletion on chromosome 22q. (a) Fold change of cis-contacts along chromosome 22 in 22q11.2del versus control cell lines. Black boxes indicate increased contacts between the deletion-flanking regions in 22q11.2del cell lines. Blue box: the signal for increased contacts between the centromere-distal deletion-flanking region and the telomeric end of chromosome 22q (red arrows and dashed red line indicate the corresponding chromosome folding event). (b) Lack of intra-chromosomal fold change of contacts for chromosome 19. (c) Fold change of inter-chromosomal contacts*

between chromosome 22 and chromosome 17. (d) Lack of intra-chromosomal fold change of

contacts between chromosome 18 and chromosome 19. (e) Log2 transformed fold change of

gene expression for genes on chromosome 22q in RNA-Seq data from 22q11.2del versus cell

lines. Each point represents a gene. Panels f-h: Log2 transformed fold change in ChIP-Seq

signals in 22q11.2del versus control cell lines. (f) H3K27ac histone modifications. (g)

H3K27me3 histone modifications. (h) CTCF binding sites. Black dashed lines indicate the 3

Mbp deletion on chromosome 22q in e-h.

We then investigated whether this effect of a decrease in chromosomal interactions

between the 22q11.2 deletion and *cis*-contacts (i.e. within the deletion boundaries and

between the deletion region and elsewhere on chromosome 22q) also holds for *trans*-

contacts (i.e. for contacts between the region within the deletion boundaries and the rest of

the genome). We found the *trans*-contacts involving the 22q11.2 deletion in the patient cell

lines and any other chromosome also decreased compared to control cell lines (**Fig. 1c;**

Supplementary Fig. 5c). No other regions of chromosome 22q showed such an effect, and

neither did any other pair of autosomes that did not include 22q (**Fig. 1d; Supplementary**

Fig. 5d).

The 22q11.2 deletion has an effect on gene expression and epigenetic profiles in the

22q11.2 region

To determine the effects of the 22q11.2 deletion on gene expression patterns and chromatin

marks, we performed RNA-Seq on 14 cell lines (**Supplementary Table 1**), ChIP-seq for

H3K27ac and H3K27me3 histone modifications in 6 cell lines as well as ChIP-Seq for CTCF

binding in 5 cell lines, respectively (**Supplementary Table 3**). RNA-Seq analysis showed

that if a gene that is located within the boundaries of the large CNV in 22q11.2 is expressed,

the level of that expression is decreased in 22q11.2DS patient lines relative to control cell

lines (**Fig. 1e**), consistent with a previous study [3].

Differential pattern analysis of the ChIP-Seq data for H3K27ac, H3K27me3 and CTCF

showed that for the majority of binding sites within the 22q11.2 deletion boundaries the

binding signal decreased in 22q11.2DS patient lines compared to control cell lines (**Fig.**

1f,g,h). This phenomenon of decreased binding signals over a large chromosomal region is

specific to chromosome 22q11.

Chromosome contacts increase across the 22q11DS breakpoint junction and

chromatin marks in its flanking regions are affected in a concerted manner

The distal and proximal flanking regions of the 22q11.2 deletion are brought into close

proximity to each other by the formation of the deletion breakpoint junction. We

hypothesized that since Hi-C contacts between two given regions will increase with

decreasing genomic distance, the contacts between the distal and proximal deletion-

flanking regions in 22q11DS patient cells would be markedly enhanced. We indeed found

such stronger contacts between the deletion-flanking regions in 22q11.2DS cell lines (**Fig.**

1a; Supplementary Fig. 4a).

We used the haplotype phasing information and the deep capture Hi-C data for two

patient and two control cell lines to generate haplotype-specific contact maps for

chromosome 22q (**Fig. 2a**). The chromosome contacts between proximal and distal flanking

regions of the 22q11.2 deletion increased on the chromosome 22q with the deletion when

compared with the intact chromosome 22q within the same patient cell line (**Fig. 2**). The

chromosome contacts between proximal and distal deletion-flanking regions in 22q11.2 on

the intact chromosome in the patient cell lines were not affected compared to the

chromosomes in the controls (**Fig. 2**).

Figure 2. Haplotype-specific intra-chromosomal contacts of chromosome 22q. (a) Contacts

within each homologous chromosome 22q for patients (ID00014 and ID00016) and controls

(GM12878 and GM12892) at 200 kbp resolution. The chromosome 22q with 22q11.2 deletion

is shown on the left for the two patient cell lines. Intensity of contacts is represented by a scale

from 0 (white) to 5 (deep red). The gap in signal for the region from 39 Mbp to 42 Mbp in

ID00016 is caused by a very low density of heterozygous SNVs. (b) Zoomed-in view of the

regions in black boxes in (a). The color scale goes from 0 (white) to 10 (red).

Following this observation we wanted to examine whether there is an effect on the

chromatin marks concurrent to these increased chromosomal contact patterns. To do so we

performed enrichment analysis in our ChIP-Seq data for significantly differential signal

patterns for H3K27ac, H3K27me3 and CTCF, respectively. We found that both the distal and

proximal flanking regions of the 22q11.2 deletion were enriched with significantly

differentially bound sites of both H3K27ac and H3K27me3 (**Fig. 3a,b**). For CTCF the distal

deletion-flanking region was enriched with significantly differentially bound sites (Fisher's

exact test p = 2.53E-06) (**Fig. 3c**).

Figure 3. Distribution of significantly differentially enriched H3K27ac histone marks (a), H3K27me3 histone marks (b), CTCF binding sites (c) along chromosome 22q, and haplotype-specific A/B compartments for each homologous chromosome 22q (d). Each bar represents a 500 kbp bin. Dashed lines mark the boundaries of the 3 Mbp deletion in 22q11.2. Shown in (d) is the first eigenvector for the principal component analysis of the chromosomal contact matrix. X-axis: position on chromosome 22q. Y-axis: value of the first eigenvector. The signal from the homologous chromosome 22q with 22q11.2 deletion and the intact chromosome 22q are shown in red and green, respectively, for patients (ID00016 and ID00014). Signals from the homologous chromosomes 22q of the controls are in blue.

More specifically, within the proximal deletion-flanking region, from 18 to 18.5 Mbp,

we found that 5 out of 24 sites with ChIP-Seq signal for H3K27ac and 6 out of 15 sites with

ChIP-Seq signal for H3K27me3 showed significantly differential binding (Fisher's exact test

p = 0.0075 for H3K27ac and p = 5.67E-05 for H3K27me3 respectively). Interestingly, for

H3K27ac all of the 5 sites with significant differential binding were bound less strongly

while for the same region for H3K27me3 all of the 6 sites with significant differential

binding were bound more strongly in the 22q11DS patient lines. For the distal region, from

23 Mbp to 23.5 Mbp, 5 out of 13 sites with H3K27ac binding and 11 out of 30 sites with

H3K27me3 binding showed significantly differential binding (Fisher's exact test p = 0.0004

for H3K27ac and p = 1.26E-07 for H3K27me3 respectively). Again we observed the

reciprocity between significantly differential changes for the two different histone marks: 4

out of 5 sites for H3K27ac gave a less strong signal while all of the 11 of such sites for

H3K27me3 showed a stronger signal in the 22q11.2DS patient cell lines.

Such reciprocity in signal strengths between these two histone marks is a general

feature of their principle of action and indicates that the observed changes in chromatin

marks are of physiological relevance.

Haplotype-specific analysis of the A/B compartments and of the topological domain

structure

Previous studies of cell lines without large CNVs have revealed that there is a level of

organization in the cell's nucleus where the chromatin is partitioned into two states, termed

A and B compartments, which broadly correspond to large regions that are overall active

and overall inactive, respectively [20]. These A/B compartments can be derived from Hi-C

data. We sought to determine whether the 22q11.2 deletion might lead to changes in the

A/B compartments. We computed the haplotype-specific A/B compartments for the four

cell lines for which both deep capture Hi-C and genome haplotype phasing data is available

(**Fig. 3d**). We did not observe differences in the A/B compartments between cell lines from

patients and from controls and neither between the two homologous chromosomes 22q in

any individual cell line, patient or control. Our results indicated that A/B compartments of

the homologous chromosome with the 22q11.2 deletion were not affected by the deletion.

Topological domains (also known as topologically associating domains, TADs) are a

megabase-sized structural feature of the genome organization that is constituted of highly

self-interacting chromosome regions [33]. We calculated the haplotype-specific topological

domains on the four cell lines with both capture Hi-C and haplotype phasing data (**Fig. 4,**

Supplementary Fig. 6-7). Although there were variations in the calling of topological

domains across individuals and between the homologous chromosomes, the direction

indexes were highly consistent between the two homologous chromosomes in the controls

(**Supplementary Fig. 6c-d, Supplementary Fig. 7**) as well as in the patients (**Fig. 4,**

Supplementary Fig. 6a-b), suggesting no changes of topological domains on the

homologous chromosome with the 22q11.2 deletion. In spite of the increased contacts

between the flanking regions of the deletion, they were not strong enough to incur fusion of

the topological domains proximal and distal of the 22q11.2 deletion. However, the

increased contacts between the flanking regions of the deletion extended to multiple

deletion-distal topological domains.

Figure 4. Differential chromosome contacts for the two chromosomes 22q and

haplotype-specific topological domains for two patient cell lines, ID00014 and ID00016.

Panel a: patient ID00014, panel b: patient ID00016. Heatmaps with bin size 200 kbp are

showing the intra-chromosomal contacts on the homologous chromosome 22q with the

22q11.2 deletion minus the intra-chromosomal contacts on the intact chromosome 22q. The

color scale of the heatmap goes from -5 (green) to 5 (red) with 0 represented by black. Yellow

rectangles mark the increased contacts between the topological domains proximal and distal

of the 22q11.2 region on the homologous chromosome 22 with the deletion (the topological

domain on the proximal side of the deletion increases its contact not just with the topological

domain immediately distal of the deletion, as predicted, but also with the two following

topological domains. Yellow triangles and blue dashed lines mark the topological domains

involved in the increased contacts. Black lines and red bar mark the boundaries and extent of

the 22q11.2 deletion. Signal tracks for CTCF binding, histone marks, RNA-Seq, direction

indexes (DI) and topological domains are shown twice, for the chromosome 22q with deletion

(above dashed red line) and for the intact chromosome 22q (below dashed red line). Direction

indexes (DI) are calculated at 40 kbp resolution for each homologous chromosome 22q.

Haplotype-specific gene expression, histone modifications and CTCF binding, respectively, are

shown after normalizing the reads to 10 million read pairs. RNA-Seq and ChIP-Seq read-count

bars within the boundaries of the deletion but from the intact chromosome 22q are shown for

loci where there are the phased SNVs in GM12878.

Change of chromosomal *cis*-contacts involving the distal flanking region of

22q11.2del

Based on the above findings that the genomic region distal of the 22q11.2 deletion was

affected on different levels of molecular regulation in 22q11.2DS patient cell lines, we next

sought to investigate whether the presence of the 22q11.2 deletion also affected the

chromosomal *cis*-contacts of the distal deletion-flanking region with any other region on

chromosome 22q. To do so, we analyzed our Hi-C data by calculating the fold change of

contacts between the 21.5-22 Mbp window, which is situated right distal of the 22q11.2

deletion, and all the other 1 Mbp-sized regions on chromosome 22q. We observed that

region 17-18 Mbp, i.e. the breakpoint-proximal region right *proximal* of the deletion,

showed the largest fold change (2.04) of contact with region 21.5-22 Mbp between

22q11DS and control cell lines. This was as expected given that these chromosomal regions

were brought into close proximity to each other by the 22q11.2 deletion (**Fig. 1a**).

The second largest fold change (1.96) of *cis*-contacts involving region 21.5-22 Mbp was

for contacts with region 50-51 Mbp, i.e. towards the very telomeric end of chromosome 22q

(**Fig. 1a**). Intriguingly, we also observed strong positive correlation between region 22-22.5

Mbp and region 50-50.5 Mbp for CTCF binding (Pearson's r = 0.933, p = 0.02)

(**Supplementary Fig. 8a**) and between region 22-22.5 Mbp and region 50.5-51 Mbp for

H3K27ac enrichment (Pearson's r = 0.811, p < 0.05) (**Supplementary Fig. 8b**).

Furthermore there was weak correlation between region 22-22.5 Mbp and 50.5-51 Mbp for

H3K27me3 enrichment (Pearson's r = 0.74, p = 0.090) (**Supplementary Fig. 8c**). Given that

both region 21.5-22 Mbp and region 22-22.5 Mbp are in the distal flanking region of the

22q11.2 deletion, our results indicate that increased chromosomal contacts between the

distal deletion-flanking region and the telomeric region 50-51 Mbp may be associated with

the differential changes of histone modifications and CTCF binding that we found to be in

correlation between these two regions.

To validate the increased chromosomal contact between the deletion-distal region and

the telomeric end of 22q we performed 3D FISH on 5 cell lines with the 22q11.2 deletion

and on 6 control cell lines, using two FISH probes specific to loci in region 21.8-22.5 Mbp

(RP11-47L18: chr22:21,931,796–22,118,344) and in region 50-51 Mbp (RP11-125K3:

chr22:50,149,996-50,287,311), respectively. FISH showed that the distal flanking region of

the 22q11.2 deletion is significantly closer to region 50-51 Mbp in nuclear space in

22q11DS cell lines than in control cell lines (p-value 0.008) (**Fig. 5; Supplementary Fig. 9**).

Taken together, our results strongly indicate that the 22q11.2 deletion causes

conformational changes on several levels on chromosome 22q.

Figure 5. Examples of 3D FISH visualization of intra-chromosomal interaction changes.

The regions for which Hi-C predicted changes in interaction, regions 21.8-22.5 Mbp and 50-51

Mbp on chromosome 22q, were visualized by 3D DNA FISH using BAC probes RP11-47L18 and

RP11-125K3, labeled with biotin (red) or digoxigenin (green). Arrow: an example for the red

and green FISH probes in close proximity in a cell carrying the 22q11.2 deletion. Scale bars are

5 μm. Red and green bars on chromosome 22q indicate the locations of the biotin and

digoxigenin FISH probes, respectively. Black dashed lines indicate the position of the 3 Mbp

deletion.

Global changes of inter-chromosomal contact patterns

To explore the effect of the 22q11.2 deletion on *trans*-contacts, i.e. between any non-homologous autosomes in the nucleus of 22q11.2DS patient lines, we analyzed our Hi-C data for significantly different *trans*-contacts between 22q11DS and control cell lines. On the genome-wide level, we found 272 *trans*-contacts with a p-value of less than 0.0001 (**Fig. 6a**). Interestingly the majority of these chromosomal *trans*-contacts did not involve chromosome 22q as one of the interacting partners. Notably, 56 of these inter-chromosomal contact signals are among the top 5% of the strongest *trans*-contacts (**Fig. 6b**). This enrichment of significantly different genome-wide chromosomal *trans*-contacts within the strongest *trans*-contacts is again highly statistically significant (Fisher's exact test p < 2.2e-16). We found far fewer significantly different genome-wide chromosomal *trans*-contacts by randomly swapping the assignment of 22q11.2 deletion and control status across our Hi-C data sets, by comparing within control cell lines and by comparing within 22q11.2del cell lines (**Supplementary Table 4**). None of these swapping analyses achieved the same enrichment. This indicates that a relevant amount of the significantly different genome-wide chromosomal *trans*-contacts is not due to random chromosomal motion or to as-of-yet unknown factors such as cell-culture variations across the LCLs. Rather, our analysis points to a genome-wide disturbance of the network of chromosomal *trans*-contacts that is at least in part attributable to the presence of the 22q11.2 deletion on chromosome 22q.

Figure 6. Genome-wide inter-chromosomal contact changes (either more or less frequent) determined by Hi-C analysis in 22q11.2del versus control cell lines. (a) Circos plot of the inter-chromosomal contacts exhibiting differential interaction in 22q11.2del versus control cell lines at significance level of 0.0001. (b) Circos plot of the inter-chromosomal contacts exhibiting differential interaction in 22q11.2del versus control cell lines at significance level of 0.0001 and showing only the top 5% strongest inter-chromosomal contacts.

Global changes of gene expression patterns

To investigate the global effect of the 22q11.2 deletion on gene expression, we performed differential expression analysis between the 22q11.2DS and control cell lines. Of the 11,374 genes with detectable levels of expression (FPKM > 0.5), 1,610 genes showed significantly

differential expression (FDR < 0.05). Gene ontology analysis indicated that these

differentially expressed genes are enriched for genes involved in mitochondrial pathways

such as the respiratory chain (n = 32, p-value = 2.96E-11). KEGG pathway analysis

demonstrated enrichment of genes involved in oxidative phosphorylation and

neurodegenerative diseases such as Parkinson's disease (**Fig. 7a**). Earlier studies have

noted that there are several genes related to mitochondrial function that are located within

the 22q11 deletion boundaries [34], therefore the pathways associated with this cellular

function would have a high likelihood to be affected by the change in copy number. The

enrichment for pathways related to neurodegenerative disorder is unexpected in LCLs but

notable, as an association between 22q11DS and Parkinson's Disorder has been reported

previously [35-37]. This may indicate that the LCL cell culture may in certain instances be of

relevance for the molecular study of 22q11DS even beyond fundamental and general levels.

Figure 7. Differential expression analysis and correlation between gene expression and

epigenetic profiles. (a) KEGG pathway analysis for genes differentially expressed between

22q11.2del and control cell lines. (b) Enrichment analysis for chromosome 22q for

differentially expressed genes. Red dashed lines mark the boundaries of 22q11.2del region. (c)

Differentially expressed genes correlated with different H3K27ac and H3K27me3 signal

strengths in 22q11.2del versus control cell lines. A1 represents genes significantly up-regulated

in 22q11.2del cell lines while B1 represents non-significantly up-regulated genes; A2

represents genes significantly down-regulated in 22q11.2del cell lines while B2 represents

non-significantly down-regulated genes. The y-axis shows the z-score transformed fold change

of H3K27ac signals (left) or H3K27me3 signals (right) between 22q11.2del and control cell

lines. (d) Differential H3K27ac and H3K27me3 signal strengths exhibited correlation with

differential gene expression between 22q11.2del and control cell lines. A1 represents genes

whose TSSs were significantly more marked by H3K27ac (left) or by H3K27me3 (right) in

22q11.2del cell lines. B1 represents genes with TSSs non-significantly more marked by

H3K27ac (left) or by H3K27me3 (right). A2 represents genes whose TSSs were significantly

less marked by H3K27ac (left) or by H3K27me3 (right) in 22q11.2del cell lines. B2 represents

genes with TSSs non-significantly less marked by H3K27ac (left) or by H3K27me3 (right). The

y-axis shows the z-score transformed fold change of genes' FPKM in 22q11.2del versus control

cell lines.

We also carried out genome-wide analysis to determine if there are entire genomic

regions that are enriched for differentially expressed genes. As expected, the most

significant signals for this analysis were located in the 22q11.2 region (**Fig. 7b;**

Supplementary Fig. 10). No other regions genome-wide achieved FDR corrected

significance (**Supplementary Fig. 10**).

Correlation between histone modification and gene expression

To examine whether the gene expression changes are consistent with the histone modification changes, we assigned the H3K27ac and H3K27me3 peaks to their nearest genes based on the distance to their transcription start sites and for each gene, we only retained the closest peak for both histone marks. We observed that significantly upregulated genes in 22q11.2DS cell lines exhibited significantly higher fold change of H3K27ac enrichment (permutation test p = 0.0140) and significantly lower fold change of H3K27me3 enrichment (permutation test p = 0.0018) than genes non-significantly upregulated in 22q11.2DS cell lines (**Fig. 7c**). Consistently, significantly downregulated genes in 22q11.2DS cell lines exhibited significantly lower fold change of H3K27ac enrichment (permutation test p = 0.0002) but significantly higher fold change of H3K27me3 enrichment (permutation test p = 0.0227) than genes non-significantly down regulated in 22q11.2DS cell lines (**Fig. 7c**).

Moreover, genes whose transcription start sites (TSSs) showed significantly upregulated binding by H3K27ac in 22q11DS cell lines exhibited significantly higher fold change of expression (permutation test p < 2.2e-16) than those with non-significantly upregulated binding, while those TSSs showing significantly downregulated binding exhibited a significantly lower fold change of expression (permutation test p = 0.0202) than those with non-significantly downregulated binding (**Fig. 7d**). Consistently, genes whose TSSs showed significantly upregulated binding by H3K27me3 in 22q11DS showed significantly lower fold change of expression (permutation test p = 0.0037) while those with significantly downregulated binding exhibited significantly higher fold change of expression (permutation test p = 0.0027) between 22q11DS and control cell lines (**Fig. 7d**).

We also calculated the correlation between gene expression and H3K27ac binding

affinity across the individuals for all the genes with TSSs bound by H3K27ac. In line with the

above results, we found significantly higher Pearson's correlation coefficients than the

coefficients obtained from permutations (Wilcoxon rank sum test p < 2.2e-16)

(**Supplementary Fig. 11a**). This difference was even more significant when we included

the differential expressed genes (absolute fold change > 2) only (Wilcoxon rank sum test p <

2.2e-16) or the differential H3K27ac bound genes only into our analysis (Wilcoxon rank

sum test p < 2.2e-16) (**Supplementary Fig. 11a**). We also observed significantly higher

Pearson's correlation coefficients between gene expression and H3K27me3 binding than

the coefficients obtained from permutations for the differential expressed genes (absolute

fold change > 2) only (Wilcoxon rank sum test p = 9.72e-04) and the differential H3K27me3

bound genes only (Wilcoxon rank sum test p = 3.71e-06) (**Supplementary Fig. 11b**).

Together, our results demonstrate that gene expression changes are associated with histone

modification changes in 22q11DS cell lines compared with control cell lines and that this

phenomenon occurs across the entire genome in cells with the deletion in 22q11.2.

Effects of a large CNV on chromosome 1q21.1 on chromosome folding

To explore whether large CNVs other than the one on chromosome 22q11.2 can lead to

changes in the patterns of chromosome folding, we performed Hi-C on two LCLs with a

heterozygous deletion of approximately 1.35 Mbp in size on chromosome 1q21.1

(1q21.1del). This deletion is strongly associated with the development of schizophrenia [38-40].

Similar to what we had found for the 22q11.2 deletion, we observed that both *cis*-contacts

and *trans*-contacts between the 1q21.1 deletion regions and other regions were decreased

in 1q21.1del cell lines relative to control cell lines (**Fig. 8a,b**). As observed in the 22q11DS

cell lines, in the 1q21.2del cell lines there was an increase of intra-chromosomal contacts

between the regions directly flanking the main CNV of 1q21.1 (**Fig. 8a**). Global changes of

inter-chromosomal contacts were also observed (**Supplementary Fig. 12**), again consistent

with the inter-chromosomal contact changes in 22q11.2 LCLs. Taken together cells with the

large deletion CNV on chromosome 1q21.1 exhibited similar effects on chromosomal *cis*-

contacts and *trans*-contacts as found in cells with the large deletion CNV on chromosome

22q11.2, which points towards our findings in 22q11DS being generalizable across large

neuropsychiatric CNVs.

Figure 8. Effect of the large deletion CNV on 1q21.1 on chromosome conformation. *(a)*

Fold change of cis-contacts of chromosome 1 in 1q21.1del versus control cell lines. Blue boxes

mark the regions of increased contacts between the proximal and distal flanking regions of the

1q21.1 deletion. (b) Fold change of trans-contacts between chromosome 1 and 4 in 1q21.1del

cell lines versus control cell lines. Black dashed lines mark the boundaries of the 1q21.1

deletion. Each cell in the heatmap represents the inter-chromosomal contact level between

two 500 kbp regions.

<u>Discussion</u>

Large CNVs are an important feature of the genetic architecture of several major

neurodevelopmental psychiatric disorders as well as of conditions involving aberrant

morphology of many organ systems. Their effects on the level of phenotype are complex and

the molecular mechanisms mediating these effects are very incompletely understood. While

it is still a good assumption that a considerable portion of these mechanisms are a direct

consequence of the copy number change of the genes within a given CNV's boundaries and

the resulting changes in expression levels for these genes, it also seems plausible to

investigate whether additional levels of complexity exist regarding the effects of a large CNV

across multiple layers of the control of gene activity. This plausibility stems from several

observations and lines of reasoning. There are large numbers of genes affected genome

wide and far distal from the main CNV. This leads us to consider the basic principles that

govern organizational features of the nucleus and the chromatin such as regulatory

domains being bounded by protein factors that recognize binding sites in the DNA sequence

which in turn could be affected (i.e. deleted or duplicated) by a CNV, or long-range

chromosome contacts being also influenced by the length of the involved chromosomes

(and that length being changed by large CNVs). Finally there have been several recent

reports about mutations in chromatin remodeling genes in the context of neuropsychiatric

disorders pointing to the importance of proper molecular management on the epigenomic

level in these conditions.

Here we studied the effects of the important large CNV on chromosome 22q11.2, and in

a more limited fashion the effects of the large CNV on chromosome 1q21.2, on chromatin

conformation including long-range chromosome contacts and domain formation, epigenetic

profiles and gene expression. We used a novel approach that combined genome phasing and

targeted fragment enrichment for very deep chromosome-wide Hi-C to investigate the

effects of the 22q11.2 deletion in a haplotype-specific fashion. To our knowledge this is the

first study of changes in chromatin conformation and epigenetic profile changes caused by

deletions on 22q11.2, and 1q21.2, or any such large CNVs with strong relevance to organ

development and in particular brain development and neuropsychiatric disorders using

haplotype-specific analysis. We observed multiple effects of the large CNVs on long-range

chromosome contacts, chromatin domains and epigenetic profiles as well as on gene

expression. More specifically we found increased contacts between distal and proximal

flanking regions of the 22q11.2 deletion in 22q11DS cell lines in contrast with control cell

lines. Our haplotype-specific analyses of chromosomal interactions demonstrated that these

increased contacts only occurred on the chromosome 22q carrying the deletion.

Interestingly, both distal and proximal flanking regions of the 22q11.2 deletion were

enriched with differential signals for the histone marks H3K27ac and H3K27me3 while

distal flanking regions were also enriched with differentially binding sites of CTCF.

We did not observe significant correlation either between chromosome contact

changes and gene expression changes or between chromosome contact changes and

epigenetic profile changes (data not shown) on the genome-wide level. Also, we did not

observe the end of chromosome 22 (50-51 Mbp) to be enriched with differentially

expressed genes (2 out of 24 genes) despite the Hi-C finding, validated by FISH, of

significantly increased contacts with the distal flanking region of the 22q11.2 deletion in

22q11.2DS cell lines. Allele-specific expression (ASE) analysis did not provide evidence for

the existence of differential expression between the intact chromosome 22q and the

chromosome with the 22q11.2 deletion (**Supplementary Fig. 13**), outside the CNV

boundaries. Taken together our results indicate that chromosome conformation changes

caused by the 22q11.2 deletion contribute to gene expression changes and epigenetic

profile changes between 22q11.2DS and control cell lines but not always in a linear and

clearly deterministic way.

However, we did observe significant positive correlation between H3K27ac changes

and gene expression changes but negative correlation between H3K27me3 and gene

expression changes on the genome-wide level. These findings demonstrated that the

epigenetic profiles were reshaped genome-wide in correlation with extensive gene

expression changes in 22q11.2DS cell lines.

Our pathway enrichment analysis of differentially expressed genes revealed candidate

pathways that might be associated with various clinical phenotypes of 22q11DS such as

cardiac symptoms and neurodegenerative disorders **(Fig. 7a)**, in addition to general

molecular pathways, some with obvious potential association to 22q11DS such as

mitochondrial energy metabolism. It is important to remain cautious when interpreting

these disease-specific results as they are based on data from a cell type that is not directly

relevant to the organ systems in question. At the same time many genes will of course be

relevant in more than one cell type and organ, and their expression levels may be regulated

by similar molecular mechanisms across cell types. With the proper caution in place the

findings about potential relevant pathways may be considered as an unexpected side

product of this study that may point towards additional routes for further analysis. In any

case the pathway analyses do not affect the findings about effects on chromatin states and

chromosome folding in 22q11DS.

Our study does not address the question of what the molecular causes for phenotypic

variance between individual carriers of the 22q11.2 deletion might be. This is a highly

important question but one that, given the vast number in each individual genome of

potential genetic modifiers that together with environmental factors are the prime suspects

for such variance, will need far larger cohort sizes of cell lines modeling the tissues where

such variance is observed. Such cohorts are currently being assembled and will be the basis

of highly interesting work in the coming years.

The effects of decreasing *cis*- and *trans*-contacts and the increased chromosomal

contacts between distal and proximal deletion-flanking regions in 22q11Ds cell lines were

also observed in cell lines with the 1q21.1 deletion. That similar results that were obtained

on that level of observation for the 22q11.2 deletion and the 1q21.1 deletion could suggest

that at least some of the changes caused by a large deletion CNV are generalizable for such

chromosomal aberrations instead of specific to the 22q11.2 deletion.

As a cautionary note on the technical level, we demonstrated here that for genomes

with a large deletion CNV the appropriate normalization methods for Hi-C data have to be

chosen with great care to avoid false findings. For instance we would have reached the

conclusion that the chromosomal contacts within the deletion regions are not decreased in

cell lines with deletion compared with control cell lines if the hiclib software package [23] had

been used for normalization of Hi-C data, instead of the hicpipe package [22].

Lastly, we were able to generate haplotype-specific maps of chromosomal contacts by

using a novel approach that combined genome-sequencing based phasing information and

chromosome-wide capture of Hi-C fragments before sequencing. These haplotype-specific

contact analyses enabled us to distinguish between the intact chromosome 22q and the

chromosome 22q with deletion. Based on this we derived chromosomal A/B compartments

and topological domains for both homologous chromosomes 22q separately. There was no

switch of A/B compartments on the chromosome 22q with the 22q11.2 deletion compared

to the intact chromosome 22q in the patients. There also was no evidence for newly fused

topological domains or changes of topological domain boundaries on the chromosome 22q

with the 22q11.2 deletion. Earlier, Lupiáñez et al. [41], using the 4C assay, demonstrated in a

mouse model as well as in human lines from patients with rare malformations of the limbs,

that large structural changes in the genomic sequence on mouse chromosome 1 and human

chromosome 2 can affect the topological domain architecture that is situated directly on top

of the sequence change. However, our results did not show comparable effects of the

22q11.2 deletion. Further studies will determine which factors, such as for example the size

of a given CNV or its position relative to topological domain-defining sequence elements,

might determine whether topological domains are altered or not. Interestingly, although the

topological domains on or nearby the 22q11.2 deletion themselves were not altered (rather,

they were either deleted entirely or left unchanged) there was an unexpected pattern of

increase in contact between the topological domains flanking the deletion, where the

proximal topological domain not only increased its frequency of interaction with the

nearest distal topological domain but also with the two topological domains following that.

In summary, we found multiple effects of the large deletion CNV on chromosome

22q11.2 on long-range chromosome contacts, chromatin organization, epigenetic profiles

and gene expression. Extensive changes on these levels caused by the 22q11.2 deletion are

global and seem to be rippling along the entire chromosome carrying the deletion as well as

across the entire nucleus rather than being confined to the deletion region only. Such effects

had never been shown before outside of cancer cell lines [42]. Furthermore, in contrast to the

findings in cancer cells we used a larger cohort of individual patient cell lines for most of

our analyses, with all lines carrying only one main large CNV that is clearly and strongly

associated in a causative manner with a neurodevelopmental phenotype. The earlier study

in cancer used only two cancer cell lines that each carried multiple large CNVs which could

also have been a consequence rather than a cause of the disease phenotype. This makes it

much more likely that the higher-order effects of the large CNVs that we observed may be

contributing to the molecular etiology of the developmental disorders in question, a point

which is further strengthened by another recent paper [4], where the authors describe

studying the effects of large CNVs on chromosome 16p11 on chromosome interactions. The

large CNVs on 16p11 are almost as strongly associated with neurodevelopmental disorders

than the large CNV on 22q11.2. While the study on the 16p11 CNVs used a somewhat

smaller number of cell lines than our study and also used 4C as a method of discovery,

which is, unlike the Hi-C method used by us, not able to detect changes in a global and

unbiased fashion, it is one more independent piece of supporting evidence for the biological

validity and general relevance of the findings which we describe here.

While we were able to show possible correlations across several pairs of the molecular

levels that we assayed in this study there are other combinations of molecular levels that

show no obvious connection to each other in our data. We believe that this could be a

function of either the developmental time point or the cell type, or both, being removed

from those where the 22q11.2 and 1q21.1 deletions most likely exert some of their

strongest effects (e.g. during embryonal development and in cells of the developing central

nervous system). The clear effects on several genomic and epigenomic levels that we were

able to observe in LCLs could represent the afterglow or reflection of a molecular tragedy

that played out earlier in the development of various organs in the patients carrying these

deletions. At the same time the strength of this afterglow would hint at the strength of the

effects that impacted across various levels of molecular control and gene regulation by

CNVs of this size.

Methods

Cell lines and data generation for this study. All cell lines were either acquired from the Coriell cell repository (cell lines IDs starting with GM or ID) or were taken from the Molecular Genetics of Schizophrenia (MGS) cohort (dbGaP Study Accession: phs000167.v1.p, cell lines 52425 and 82699), and were appropriately consented. The Hi-C assay was carried out according to the original protocol [20], with several modifications. For capture Hi-C of chromosome 22q we prepared separate in situ Hi-C libraries using the previously reported protocol [32]. 2.1 million oligomer capture probes that densely tile the sequence of chromosome 22q were designed using the NimbleDesign Software and ordered from Roche Sequencing (formerly NimbleGen-Roche, Pleasanton, CA). Roche Sequencing's SeqCap EZ Choice XL Enrichment Kit was used to capture fragments from the in situ Hi-C libraries using the chromosome 22q specific capture oligomers. ChIP-Seq was performed as described in previous studies [43,44]. The RNA-seq libraries were generated according as in [45]. All experimental procedures are described in the **Supplementary Information**.

Hi-C data analysis. All Hi-C data were produced using Illumina paired-end sequencing with a read length 2 x 101 bp. As there might be ligation junctions in the reads, we performed iterative mapping using bowtie2 as in Imakaev et al. 2012 [20]. Briefly, we computationally cut all the reads to 25 bp first and mapped them to human genome (hg19). Then we extended the non-uniquely mapped reads by 5 bp to 30 bp and mapped them again. This process was repeated until the read length was extended to 101 bp. This iterative mapping did improve the mapping rate (**Supplementary Table 5**). Each read end was mapped separately using the single ends mode. Only uniquely mapping reads were used and PCR duplicate read pairs were removed. We only included autosomes in our study. The filtered contact number is listed in **Supplementary Table 6**.

665  We compared three different data normalization methods: hiclib [23], hicpipe [22] and

666 HiCNorm [24]. All of the three tools were run using the default parameters except for the

667 segment length threshold being set to 600 bp. We chose normalized metrics on hicpipe for

668 the following analyses, using a bin size of 40 kbp for topological domain analysis and of 500

669 kbp for the other analyses. The total number of contacts was normalized for each sample

670 before combining cell lines in each category (control, 22q11del and 1q21del, respectively).

671 Fold changes of log2 transformed mean contacts between deletion cell lines and control cell

672 lines were calculated by (deletion – control)/control.

673  To identify the differential inter-chromosomal contacts, we only included contacts with

674 at least 1 supporting read pair in each of the cell lines. Differential contacts analysis was

675 conducted by two-sided Student's t-test with the "t.test" function in R using the normalized

676 metrics. Fisher's exact test was used to assess the enrichment of differential contacts within

677 the top 5% strongest contacts. We also performed the same analysis by permuting the

678 control and 22q11del status of the cell lines ten times. Comparison within control cell lines

679 and within 22q11del cell lines were performed by randomly dividing the cell lines into two

680 groups three times.

681 **Generation of haplotype-specific chromosomal contact maps**. To phase the homologous

682 chromosomes of two patient cell lines we first carried out deep whole genome sequencing

683 (37.4x genome-wide coverage for ID00014 and 32.8x genome-wide coverage for ID00016),

684 which yielded the required heterozygous SNV information. Haplotype phasing was then

685 carried out by statistically aided, long-read haplotyping (SLRH) [21] in combination with

686 Mendelian inheritance patterns of informative SNVs, based on the knowledge that ID00014

687 is a parent of ID00016. Briefly, genomic DNA was sheared to fragments of about 10 kbp

688 length, which were diluted as needed and pipetted into a 384-well plate with 3,000–6,000

gDNA fragments in each well. Within each well fragments were amplified, fragmented

further and ligated to barcodes unique to each well. Fragments from across all wells were

pooled together and sequenced on Illumina HiSeq. Sequencing reads were mapped to the

reference genome and assigned to their unique well based on their barcodes. For each well

reads were assembled into haplotype blocks based on their overlapping heterozygous SNVs.

The haplotype blocks were then used to construct long haplotype contigs using Illumina's

haplotyping algorithm Prism (v2.2). The N50 length of the haplotype contigs was 492,634

bp and 453,807 bp for ID00014 and ID00016 respectively. SNVs which could be phased by

Mendelian inheritance analysis (heterozygous in one individual but homozygous in the

other) were assigned to the phased haplotype contigs to assemble these haplotype contigs

into whole phased chromosomes. The phased genome data of two control cell lines from

related donors had been previously reported [21] and were included in the analysis. More

details on this approach can be found in the **Supplementary Information.**

Capture Hi-C reads were mapped by BWA-MEM [46] in single end mode after ligation

junction removal using Cutadapt [47]. Reads spanning the position of phased SNVs were

assigned to the corresponding homologous chromosome using custom-written scripts. Then

HOMER [27] was used to pair up the reads, filter the read pairs assigned to haplotypes

(duplicates, self-ligations, read pairs less than 1.5x the sequencing fragment length or

distance to restriction site more than 1.5x the fragment length), and generate contact

matrices for each homologous chromosome separately. To normalize the contacts involving

the 22q11.2 region to the comparable level with contacts involving other regions on the

intact homologous chromosome 22 in the patients we calculated the expected number of

phased heterozygous SNVs in this 3 million bp region, based on the density of phased

heterozygous SNVs on chromosome 22q in each patient. Random single base pair positions

in the 22q11.2 region were sampled to the calculated expected number. Only the contacts

involving these sampled positions were included in the analysis. We performed this random

sampling for ten times and the pattern remained consistently similar. We adjusted for

recombination events for the haplotypes of ID00014 on the grounds that intra-

chromosomal contacts should be more prevalent than inter-chromosomal contacts.

Identification of A and B compartments was performed as in Lieberman et al. 2009 [20]

and topological domains were identified as in Dixon et al. 2012 [33].

3D FISH. Two human DNA BACs (clones RP11-47L18 and RP11-125K3) covering two

distinct regions of chromosome 22 were labeled with biotin or digoxigenin (DIG) by nick

translation kit (Roche Applied Sciences) to make FISH probes (Roche). In-situ hybridization

was performed according to the method published by [48], with several modifications.

Experimental details and data analysis could be found in the **Supplementary Information**.

Differential expression analysis. All RNA-seq data were generated using Illumina paired-

end sequencing with read length 101 bp. Reads were mapped to hg19 and transcriptome

reference with TopHat 2 [49]. TopHat 2 was run using default parameters but with the

coverage search being turned off. The mapped reads were analyzed by Cufflinks [50].

Differential expression was estimated with Cuffdiff 2 [51]. We excluded the genes with low

expression (FPKM < 0.5) from downstream analysis.

Pathway analysis of significantly differential expressed genes was conducted with

DAVID [52] using all the expressed genes as background.

Allele-specific gene expression analysis. Samtools mpileup (v0.1.19) and BCFtools

(v0.1.19) [53] were used to count the number of reads mapped from bam files of RNA-Seq data

to each allele of the heterozygous single nucleotide variants (SNVs). Binomial tests were

performed to determine if the percentage of RNA-Seq reads mapped to the alternative allele

was significantly different from the mean frequency of the alternative allele of all

heterozygous SNVs within each individual. Only heterozygous SNVs with read-coverage >

10 were included in the analysis.

ChIP-Seq data analysis. All ChIP-Seq data were generated using Illumina paired-end

sequencing with read length 101 bp. Reads were aligned to hg19 with BWA-MEM using

default parameters [46]. Reads with low mapping quality (< 30) were removed. PCR duplicate

reads were removed using Picard (http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard). As a quality

control, we calculated the normalized strand cross-correlation coefficient (NSC) and relative

strand correlation (RSC) [54] to assess the signal-to-noise ratios. All the data showed higher

NSC than RSC (**Supplementary Fig. 14**). Replicates for the same cell line on average

showed higher correlation than datasets from different cell lines (**Supplementary Fig. 15**).

For CTCF and H3K27ac, we used MACS2 [55] to call narrow peaks with default

parameters. For H3K27me3, we used the broad peak calling in MACS2. For all peak calling,

we used the corresponding whole-cell extract input library as background. For differential

bound analysis, we used the R package DiffBind [56] with the effective library size for read

counts normalization. Then DBA_DESEQ2 method was employed to conduct the differential

bound analysis. Signal artifact blacklist regions were excluded from our analysis

(http://hgdownload.cse.ucsc.edu/goldenPath/hg19/encodeDCC/wgEncodeMapability).

Enrichment analysis. For the enrichment analysis of differentially expressed genes we

divided each chromosome into 500 kbp bins. Within each bin, we calculated the total

number of expressed genes and the number of genes with significantly differential

expression between 22q11del and control cell lines. Then we conducted Fisher's exact test

to identify bins enriched with significantly differentially expressed genes against the

background of the whole genome.

For the analysis of differentially enriched sites for CTCF, H3K27ac and H3K27me3, we

also used 500 kbp bins. Log2 transformed fold changes of normalized read numbers in

binding sites between 22q11del and control cell lines were further transformed to Z-scores.

We considered binding sites with Z-score >2 or < -2 as significantly bound sites. Then

within each 500 kbp bin, we calculated the total number of binding sites and the number of

significantly differentially enriched sites between 22q11del and control cell lines. Then we

conducted Fisher's exact test to identify bins with significantly differentially enriched sites

against the background of the whole genome.

Correlation analysis of gene expression and histone modification. To estimate the

correlation between gene expression and histone modification, we assigned each binding

site of H3K27ac and H3K27me3 to its nearest ENSEMBL TSS using the R package

ChIPpeakAnno [57]. If a TSS was associated with multiple binding sites, only the nearest

binding site was retained. We then used this assignment for downstream correlation

analysis. To determine the cutoff for the distance in which binding sites are associated with

TSSs, we plotted the distribution of distances between binding sites and their assigned TSSs

(**Supplementary Fig. 16**). Based on the distribution, we set the cutoff to distance to TSS to

± 1 kbp for H3K27ac and to ± 5 kbp for H3K27me3.

To investigate the effects of histone modifications on gene expression, we divided the

genes into two categories based on the differential expression analysis: differentially

expressed genes (FDR < 0.05) (category A) and not differentially expressed genes (FDR >

0.05) (category B). Within each category, we further categorized the genes into two groups:

up-regulated expressed genes (A1, B1) and down-regulated expressed genes (A2, B2) in

22q11del cell lines relative to control cell lines. Then for the genes within each of the four

groups (A1, B1, A2, B2), we calculated the Z-score transformed fold changes of the

normalized read counts in the TSS binding sites of histone marks between 22q11del and

control cell lines. To obtain the statistical significance of the fold change differences

between A1 and B1 and between A2 and B2, we performed permutation tests with 9,999

permutations.

We also carried out the reverse analysis. TSS binding sites of histone marks were

partitioned into two categories based on the differential bound analysis: differentially

bound sites ($|Z\text{-score}| > 1$ for H3K27ac, $|Z\text{-score}| > 2$ for H3K27me3) (category A) and non-

differentially bound sites ($|Z\text{-score}| < 1$ for H3K27ac, $|Z\text{-score}| < 2$ for H3K27me3) (category

B). Within each category, we further categorized the binding sites into two groups: up-

regulated bound sites (A1, B1) and down-regulated bound sites (A2, B2) in 22q11del cell

lines. Then we calculated the fold changes of the genes' FPKM between 22q11del and

control cell lines within each group. Permutation tests were performed with 9,999

permutations to obtain statistical significance.

To estimate the correlation between gene expression and histone modification in a

direct way, we calculated Pearson's correlation coefficient between gene's FPKM and

normalized read counts in the corresponding TSS binding site for each gene across all of the

cell lines. To obtain statistical significance, we first permuted genes' FPKM across the cell

lines for each TSS 10 times to assess the background correlation levels, and then performed

the Wilcoxon rank sum test between the observed correlation coefficients and the

background correlation coefficients. We also performed the same analysis using the

differentially expressed genes only and differentially enriched binding sites only.

Correlation analysis for epigenetic marks. To assess the correlation of epigenetic marks

binding between different regions on the same chromosomes, we divided the chromosomes

into 500 kbp bins. Within each bin, we calculated the mean value of the normalized read

counts for all the binding sites of each epigenetic mark. Then we calculated the Pearson's

correlation coefficients of obtained mean values across the cell lines between any two bins

on the same chromosomes.

Data availability. Hi-C, ChIP-Seq and RNA-Seq data from this study have been submitted to

the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO; http://www.ncbi. nlm.nih.gov/geo/) under

accession number GSE76922.

Competing interests

The authors declare that no competing interests exist.

Authors' contributions (in order of position in Authors List)

XZ contributed to study design, carried out data analysis and contributed to writing the

paper, YZ contributed to study design and produced experimental data, XZ contributed to

study design and carried out data analysis, CP produced experimental data and contributed

to data interpretation, MSH produced experimental data, TW produced experimental data,

JY produced experimental data, SMW and AEU conceived of and designed the study,

directed data production and data analysis and wrote the paper.

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