Drosophila **models of pathogenic copy-number variant genes show global and**

non-neuronal defects during development

Short title: Non-neuronal defects of fly homologs of CNV genes

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ABSTRACT

While rare pathogenic copy-number variants (CNVs) are associated with both neuronal and non-neuronal phenotypes, functional studies evaluating these regions have focused on the molecular basis of neuronal defects. We report a systematic functional analysis of non-neuronal defects for homologs of 59 genes within ten pathogenic CNVs and 20 neurodevelopmental genes in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Using wing-specific knockdown of 136 RNA interference lines, we identified qualitative and quantitative phenotypes in 72/79 homologs, including 21 lines with severe wing defects and six lines with lethality. In fact, we found that 10/31 homologs of CNV genes also showed complete or partial lethality at larval or pupal stages with ubiquitous knockdown. Comparisons between eye and wing-specific knockdown of 37/45 homologs showed both neuronal and non-neuronal defects, but with no correlation in the severity of defects. We further observed disruptions in cell proliferation and apoptosis in larval wing discs for 23/27 homologs, and altered Wnt, Hedgehog and Notch signaling for 9/14 homologs, including *AATF/Aatf*, *PPP4C/Pp4-19C*, and *KIF11/Klp61F*. These findings were further supported by tissue-specific differences in expression patterns of human CNV genes, as well as connectivity of CNV genes to signaling pathway genes in brain, heart and kidney-specific networks. Our findings suggest that multiple genes within each CNV differentially affect both global and tissue-specific developmental processes within conserved pathways, and that their roles are not restricted to neuronal functions.

AUTHOR SUMMARY

Rare copy-number variants (CNVs), or large deletions and duplications in the genome, are associated with both neuronal and non-neuronal clinical features. Previous functional studies for these disorders have primarily focused on understanding the cellular mechanisms for neurological and behavioral phenotypes. To understand how genes within these CNVs contribute to developmental defects in non-neuronal tissues, we assessed 79 homologs of CNV and known neurodevelopmental genes in *Drosophila* models. We found that most homologs showed developmental defects when knocked down in the adult fly wing, ranging from mild size changes to severe wrinkled wings or lethality. Although a majority of homologs tested showed defects when knocked down specifically in wings and eyes, we found no correlation in the severity of the observed defects in these two tissues. A subset of the homologs showed disruptions in cellular processes in the developing fly wing, including alterations in cell proliferation, apoptosis, and cellular signaling pathways. Furthermore, human CNV genes also showed differences in gene expression patterns and interactions with signaling pathway genes across multiple human tissues. Our findings suggest that genes within CNV disorders affect global developmental processes in both neuronal and non-neuronal tissues.

INTRODUCTION

Rare copy-number variants (CNV), or deletions and duplications in the genome, are associated

with neurodevelopmental disorders such as autism, intellectual disability (ID), and schizophrenia

[1,2]. While dosage alteration of CNV regions contribute predominantly to defects in nervous

system development, several CNV-associated disorders also lead to early developmental features

involving other organ systems [3,4], including cardiac defects [5,6], kidney malformations [7],

craniofacial features [3], and skeletal abnormalities [8]. In fact, an overall survey of ten rare

disease-associated CNVs among individuals within the DECIPHER database [9] showed a wide

range of non-neuronal phenotypes across multiple organ systems for each CNV disorder (**S1

Fig., S1 Data**). For example, the 1q21.1 deletion causes variable expression of multiple neuronal

and non-neuronal phenotypes, including developmental delay, autism, and schizophrenia as well

as craniofacial features, cataracts, cardiac defects, and skeletal abnormalities [10–12].

Additionally, while the 7q11.23 deletion associated with Williams-Beuren syndrome (WBS)

causes neuropsychiatric and behavioral features, other non-neuronal phenotypes, including

supravalvular aortic stenosis, auditory defects, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, and

musculoskeletal and connective tissue anomalies, are also observed among the deletion carriers

[13].

Despite the prevalence of non-neuronal phenotypes among CNV carriers, functional

studies of CNV genes have primarily focused on detailed assessments of neuronal and behavioral

phenotypes in model systems. For example, mouse models for the 16p11.2 deletion exhibited

post-natal lethality, reduced brain size and neural progenitor cell count, motor and habituation

defects, synaptic defects, and behavioral defects [14–16]. Similarly, mouse models for the 3q29

deletion showed decreased weight and brain size, increased locomotor activity, increased startle

response, and decreased spatial learning and memory [17,18]. However, fewer studies have

focused on detailed evaluation of non-neuronal phenotypes in functional models of CNV

disorders. For example, Arbogast and colleagues evaluated obesity and metabolic changes in

16p11.2 deletion mice, which showed reduced weight and impaired adipogenesis [19]. While

Haller and colleagues showed that mice with knockdown of *MAZ,* a gene within the 16p11.2

deletion region, exhibit genitourinary defects observed in individuals with the deletion [20],

mouse studies for other homologs of 16p11.2 genes, including *TAOK2*, *KCTD13*, and *MAPK3,*

have only focused on assessing neuronal defects [21–25]. Furthermore, Dickinson and

colleagues reported a high-throughput analysis of essential genes in mice and identified both

neuronal and non-neuronal phenotypes for individual gene knockouts, including more than 400

genes that lead to lethality [26]. While these efforts aided in implicating novel genes with human

disease, our understanding of how genes associated with neurodevelopmental disorders

contribute towards non-neuronal phenotypes is still limited. Therefore, a large-scale analysis of

non-neuronal phenotypes is necessary to identify specific candidate genes within CNV regions

and associated biological mechanisms that contribute towards these phenotypes.

Drosophila melanogaster is an excellent model system to evaluate homologs of

neurodevelopmental genes, as many developmental processes and signaling pathways are

conserved between humans and flies [27]. In fact, over 75% of human disease genes have

homologs in *Drosophila*, including many genes involved in cellular signaling processes [28,29].

We recently examined the contributions of individual *Drosophila* homologs of 28 genes within

the 16p11.2 and 3q29 deletion regions towards specific neurodevelopmental phenotypes,

including rough eye phenotypes and defects in climbing ability, axon targeting, neuromuscular

junction, and dendritic arborization [30,31]. While these findings implicated multiple genes

within each CNV region towards conserved cellular processes in neuronal tissues, the conserved

role of these genes in non-neuronal tissues is not well understood. The *Drosophila* wing is an

effective model system to evaluate such developmental defects, as key components of conserved

signaling pathways, such as Notch, epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR), Hegdehog, and

Wnt pathways, were identified using fly wing models [32–38]. Although fly wing phenotypes

cannot be directly translated to human phenotypes, defects observed in fly wings can be used to

assess how homologs of human disease genes alter conserved cellular and developmental

mechanisms. For example, Wu and colleagues showed that overexpression of the *Drosophila*

homolog for *UBE3A*, associated with Angelman syndrome, leads to abnormal wing and eye

morphology defects [39]. Furthermore, *Drosophila* mutant screens for developmental

phenotypes, including wing defects, were used to identify conserved genes for several human

genetic diseases, including Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease and syndromic microcephaly [40].

Kochinke and colleagues also recently performed a large-scale screening of ID-associated genes,

and found an enrichment of wing trichome density and missing vein phenotypes in ID genes

compared to control gene sets [41]. Hence, the fly wing provides a model system that is ideal for

evaluating the contributions of individual homologs of CNV genes towards cellular and

developmental defects.

In this study, we tested tissue-specific and cellular phenotypes of 79 total fly homologs,

including 59 fly homologs of human genes within ten pathogenic CNV regions and 20 genes

associated with neurodevelopmental disorders. We used the adult fly wing to evaluate

phenotypes in a non-neuronal tissue, and observed a wide range of robust qualitative and

quantitative wing phenotypes among 136 RNA interference (RNAi) lines, including size defects,

ectopic and missing veins, severe wrinkling, and lethality. Further analysis of cellular

phenotypes revealed disruptions in conserved developmental processes in the larval imaginal

wing disc, including altered levels of cell proliferation and apoptosis as well as altered

expression patterns in the Wnt, Hedgehog, and Notch signaling pathways. However, we found

no correlation in the severity of phenotypes observed with wing and eye-specific knockdown.

These findings were further supported by differences in expression patterns and network

connectivity of human CNV genes across different tissues. Our analysis emphasizes the

importance of multiple genes within each CNV region towards both global and tissue-specific

developmental processes.

RESULTS

Knockdown of fly homologs of CNV genes contribute to a range of wing defects

We used the bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4* wing-specific driver to assess a total of 136 RNAi lines for 59 fly

homologs of 130 total human genes within pathogenic CNV regions (chromosomal locations

1q21.1, 3q29, 7q11.23, 15q11.2, 15q13.3, 16p11.2, distal 16p11.2, 16p12.1, 16p13.11, and

17q12), as well as 20 fly homologs of human genes associated with neurodevelopmental

disorders (**S2 Data**). Fly homologs of these genes were identified using the DIOPT orthology

prediction tool [42]. We list both the human gene name and the fly gene name for each tested

gene as *HUMAN GENE/Fly gene* (i.e. *KCTD13/CG10465*), as well as the human CNV region for

context at first instance. We scored 20-25 adult wings for five distinct wing phenotypes in each

non-lethal RNAi line, including wrinkled wing, discoloration, ectopic veins, missing veins, and

bristle planar polarity phenotypes (**Fig. 1; S3 Data**). We categorized adult female wing

phenotypes based on their severity, and performed k-means clustering analysis to categorize each

RNAi line by their overall phenotypic severity (**Fig. 2A-B**). We observed four clusters of RNAi

lines: 75 lines with no observable qualitative phenotypes (55.2%), 24 lines with mild phenotypes

(17.6%), 10 lines with moderate phenotypes (7.4%), 21 lines with severe phenotypes (15.4%),

and 6 lines with lethal phenotypes (4.4%), including *ACACA/ACC* within 17q12, *DLG1/dlg1*

within 3q29, and *STX1A/Syx1A* within 7q11.23 (**Fig. 2; S3 Data**). We observed severe wrinkled

wing phenotypes for 13/79 fly homologs, including *PPP4C/Pp4-19C* within 16p11.2,

ATXN2L/Atx2 within distal 16p11.2, *AATF/Aatf* within 17q12, and *MFI2/Tsf2* within 3q29 (**Fig.**

3A-B, S4 Data). Interestingly, seven out of ten CNV regions contained at least one homolog that

showed lethality or severe wing phenotypes, and five CNV regions (3q29, 16p11.2, distal

16p11.2, 16p12.1, and 17q12) had multiple homologs showing lethality or severe wing

phenotypes (**Fig. 3A, S4 Data**). For example, RNAi lines for both *UQCRC2/UQCR-C2* and

POLR3E/Sin within 16p12.1 showed lethality. Within the 3q29 region, *NCBP2/Cbp20* and

MFI2/Tsf2 showed severe phenotypes while *DLG1/dlg1* showed lethality. In contrast, 12/20

known neurodevelopmental genes showed no observable wing phenotypes, suggesting that these

genes could be responsible for neuronal-specific phenotypes (**Fig. 3B, S4 Data**). We note that

18/79 fly homologs showed discordant phenotypes between two or more RNAi lines for the

same gene, which could be due to differences in expression of the RNAi construct among these

lines (**S4 Data**).

Certain qualitative phenotypes were present at a higher frequency in males compared to

females among all non-lethal and non-severe RNAi lines (independent of k-means clustering

analysis). For example, discoloration (87 lines in males compared to 55 lines in females;

$p=1.315\times10^{-4}$, two-tailed Fisher's exact test) and missing vein phenotypes (92 lines in males

compared to 29 lines in females; $p=2.848\times10^{-16}$, two-tailed Fisher's exact test) were more

commonly observed in males than females (**S3 Data**). In particular, 25/92 lines in males

(compared to 1/29 in females) showed a total loss of the anterior crossvein (ACV) (**S3 Data**).

We further identified 17 RNAi lines that were lethal in males with wing-specific knockdown of

fly homologs. While higher frequencies of wing phenotypes in males could be due to a sex-

specific bias of developmental phenotypes, the increased severity we observed in males is most

likely due to a stronger RNAi knockdown caused by an X-linked dosage compensation, as the

bx^{MS1096}-GAL4 driver is inserted on the fly X chromosome [43,44].

Next, we measured the total adult wing area and lengths of six veins (longitudinal L2, L3,

L4, L5, ACV, and posterior crossvein or PCV) in the adult wing for each of the tested RNAi

lines that did not show lethality (or severe wrinkled phenotypes for vein length measurements)

(**Fig. 4A**). Overall, we identified significant wing measurement changes for 89 RNAi lines

compared to controls, which included lines that did not have an observable qualitative wing

phenotype (**Fig. 2C**). A summary of L3 vein lengths is presented in **Fig. 4B**, and the

measurements for the remaining five veins are provided in **S2 Fig.** and **S3 Data**. We found that

33/61 of the homologs (54.1%) showed significant changes in L3 vein length, including 20

homologs with longer vein lengths and 13 homologs with shorter vein lengths (**S4 Data**).

Additionally, 41/74 of the fly homologs (55.4%) showed changes in wing area (**S4 Data**),

including 36 homologs which showed smaller wing areas and five homologs showed larger wing

areas compared to controls (**S4 Data**). For example, both homologs of genes within 1q21.1

region, *BCL9*/*lgs* and *FMO5/Fmo-2*, showed decreased wing area and vein length, potentially

mirroring the reduced body length phenotype observed in mouse models of the deletion [45]

(**Fig. 4B-C**). In addition, *PAK2/Pak* within 3q29*, TBX1/org-1* within 22q11.2, autism-associated

CHD8/kis, and microcephaly-associated *ASPM/asp* also showed smaller wing areas and vein

lengths (**Fig. 4B-C**). In contrast, *TRPM1/Trpm* within 15q13.3 and the cell proliferation gene

PTEN/Pten [46] both showed larger wing areas and vein lengths (**Fig. 4B-C**). Furthermore, we

identified eight homologs that showed no qualitative wing phenotypes but had significant

changes in wing areas and vein lengths (**S4 Data**), including *CCDC101/Sgf29* in distal 16p11.2*,

FMO5/Fmo-2, TRPM1/Trpm, DHRS11/CG9150* in 17q12, and *NSUN5/Nsun5* in 7q11.23 (**Fig.

4B-C; S4 Data**). These results indicate that homologs of certain CNV genes may influence

variations in size without causing adverse wing phenotypes, and may be specifically implicated

towards cellular growth mechanisms.

Homologs of CNV genes show global and tissue-specific effects during development

We previously showed that many fly homologs of CNV genes that showed wing defects in the current study also contributed towards neuronal phenotypes in the fly eye [30,31], suggesting a role for these genes in global development. We therefore performed ubiquitous and eye-specific knockdown of fly homologs to assess tissue-specific effects in comparison to the wing phenotypes. First, we used the *da-GAL4* driver at 25°C to drive ubiquitous knockdown of RNAi lines for 31 homologs of CNV genes, including 19 that were previously published [30,31]. We observed complete or partial lethality at larval and pupal stages with knockdown of 10/31 homologs (32.3%) (**Fig. 5A**). Lethal phenotypes have also been documented for 43/130 knockout mouse models of individual CNV genes as well as for the entire deletion (**S5 Data**). For example, mouse models heterozygous for the 16p11.2 deletion showed partial neonatal lethality, while knockout mouse models of four individual genes within the 16p11.2 region, including $Ppp4C^{-/-}$ and $Kif22^{-/-}$, showed embryonic lethality [14,47,48]. In our study, the *DLG1/dlg1* line that showed lethality with wing-specific knockdown also exhibited larval lethality with ubiquitous knockdown, indicating its role in global development (**Fig. 5A**). In addition, six homologs that showed severe wing phenotypes also showed larval or pupal lethality with ubiquitous knockdown, including *ALDOA/Ald* and *PPP4C/Pp4-19C* within 16p11.2 and *ATXN2L/Atx2* and *TUFM/mEFTu1* within distal 16p11.2 (**Fig. 5A**). The remaining homologs that showed lethality with ubiquitous knockdown showed at least a mild qualitative or quantitative wing phenotype.

We next compared the phenotypes observed with wing-specific knockdown of fly homologs to their corresponding eye-specific knockdowns to evaluate tissue-specific effects. The *Drosophila* eye has been classically used to evaluate neuronal phenotypes due to genetic

perturbations, as individual ommatidial units within the eye contain photoreceptor neurons that

project into the optic lobe within the brain [49,50]. In fact, numerous genes associated with

human neurological disorders have been modeled using the fly eye [51–53]. To quantitatively

assess the phenotypic severity of cellular defects with eye-specific knockdown of fly homologs,

we developed a tool called *Flynotyper* [54] that quantifies the degree of disorganization among

the ommatidia in the adult eye. We analyzed phenotypic scores obtained from *Flynotyper* for 66

RNAi lines of 45 fly homologs, including from previously-published datasets [30,31,54]. We

found that 37/45 homologs (82.2%) exhibited both eye and wing-specific defects (**Fig. 5B, S3**

Fig., S6 Data). Two homologs with significant eye phenotypes did not show any wing

phenotypes, including *SPNS1/spin* within distal 16p11.2 and microcephaly-associated

SLC25A19/Tpc1 [55], while five homologs only showed wing-specific phenotypes, including

CDIPT/Pis and *YPEL3/CG15309* within 16p11.2, *FBXO45/Fsn* and *OSTalpha/CG6836* within

3q29, and *UQCRC2/UQCR-C2* (**Fig. 5B, S3 Fig.**). In particular, *UQCRC2/UQCR-C2* showed

lethality with wing-specific knockdown, suggesting potential tissue-specific effects of this gene

in non-neuronal cells (**Fig. 5B**). While most homologs contributed towards both eye and wing-

specific phenotypes, we observed a wide range of severity in eye phenotypes that did not

correlate with the severity of quantitative or qualitative wing phenotypes (**Fig. 5C**). For example,

TUFM/mEFTu1 showed a severe wing phenotype but only a mild increase in eye phenotypic

score, while *SH2B1/Lnk,* also within the distal 16p11.2 region, showed severe rough eye

phenotypes but only a mild increase in wing size (**Fig. 5D**). Similarly, *BCL9/lgs* also showed

opposing tissue-specific effects with mild qualitative wing phenotypes and severe eye

phenotypes, suggesting that the role of these homologs towards development differs across tissue

types.

CNV genes show variable expression across different tissues in flies and humans

To assess how expression levels of CNV genes vary across different tissues, we first examined

the expression patterns of fly homologs in larval and adult tissues using the FlyAtlas Anatomical

Microarray dataset [56]. We found that 76/77 homologs with available data were expressed in at

least one larval and adult tissue (**S4 Fig., S7 Data**). In general, we did not observe a correlation

between wing phenotype severity and expression patterns of homologs in larval or adult tissues

(**Fig. 6A**). For example, 58/77 homologs (75.3%) showed ubiquitous larval expression, including

both fly homologs that showed no qualitative wing phenotypes, such as *KCTD13/CG10465*

within 16p11.2 and *FBXO45/Fsn*, and those with severe wing phenotypes, such as *PPP4C/Pp4-*

19C and *NCBP2/Cbp20* (**Fig. 6A, S4 Fig.**). Furthermore, 30/39 homologs (76.9%) that showed

eye phenotypes also had ubiquitous larval expression, providing further support to the

observation that genes causing neuronal phenotypes may also contribute to developmental

phenotypes in other tissues (**S6 Data**). Of note, 9/77 homologs (11.7%) did not have any

expression in the larval central nervous system, including *FMO5/Fmo-2*, *BDH1/CG8888* within

3q29, and *TBX6/Doc2* within 16p11.2 (**Fig. 6A, S4 Fig.**). However, we observed wing

phenotypes for 8/9 of these homologs, suggesting that they may contribute to tissue-specific

phenotypes outside of the nervous system. Except for the epilepsy-associated *SCN1A/para* [57],

which was exclusively expressed in both the larval central nervous system (CNS) and adult brain

tissues, other tested neurodevelopmental genes were also expressed in non-neuronal tissues (**Fig.**

6A).

We further used the GTEx Consortium dataset [58] to examine tissue-specific expression

of 130 human CNV genes and 20 known neurodevelopmental genes across six tissues including

brain, heart, kidney, lung, liver, and muscle. We found 121/150 genes (80.7%) that were

expressed in at least one adult tissue, including 49/150 genes (32.7%) that showed ubiquitous

expression across all six tissues (**S6 Data**). Furthermore, 112/150 genes (74.7%) were expressed

in non-neuronal tissues, including 34/150 (22.7%) genes without any neuronal expression, such

as *TBX1*, *FMO5* and *GJA5* within 1q21.1, and *ATP2A1* within distal 16p11.2 (**Fig. 6B**, **S7 Data**).

FMO5 and *TBX1* also showed non-neuronal expression in *Drosophila* tissues, suggesting that

their tissue-specific expression is highly conserved (**Fig. 6A**). Other genes with ubiquitous

expression also showed preferentially higher expression within specific non-neuronal tissues,

including *ALDOA* and *UQCRC2* for muscle and heart (**Fig. 6B**). In contrast, we found nine genes

that were expressed only in the adult brain, including *FAM57B* and *DOC2A* within 16p11.2, as

well as *SCN1A*, which showed similar CNS-only expression in *Drosophila* tissues (**Fig. 6B**, **S7**

Data).

Knockdown of fly homologs of CNV genes lead to disruption of cellular processes

Disruptions of basic cellular processes in neuronal cells, such as cell proliferation and apoptosis,

have been implicated in neurodevelopmental disorders [59–61]. We previously identified defects

in cell proliferation among photoreceptors neurons in larval eye discs with knockdown of

16p11.2 homologs, as well as increased apoptosis with knockdown of a subset of 3q29 homologs

[30,31]. Here, we explored how these basic cellular processes are altered in non-neuronal cells,

specifically in the developing wing disc, with knockdown of homologs of CNV genes. We

targeted 27 fly homologs that showed a range of adult wing phenotypes for changes in cell

proliferation and apoptosis, using immunostaining for anti-phospho-Histone H3 Ser10 (pH3) and

anti-*Drosophila* caspase-1 (dcp1), respectively, in the third instar larval wing discs. We

identified 23/27 homologs that showed significant increases in apoptotic cells compared to

controls, including seven homologs, such as *PPP4C/Pp4-19C*, *ATXN2L/Atx2*, and *AATF/Aatf* ,

which showed dcp1 staining across the entire larval wing pouch (**Fig. 7A-B, S5-S6 Figs., S8**

Data). In addition, 16/27 homologs showed decreased levels of proliferation, including eight

homologs which also showed apoptosis defects, such as *CYFIP1/Sra-1* within 15q11.2,

SH2B1/Lnk, and the microcephaly gene *KIF11/Klp61F* (**Fig. 7A and 7C, S5-S6 Figs., S8 Data**).

All six of the tested homologs with severe adult wing phenotypes showed both increased

apoptosis and decreased proliferation (**S8 Data**). Similarly, 3/4 homologs showing lethality with

wing-specific knockdown also showed defects in apoptosis or proliferation, with the exception of

ACACA/ACC (**S5 Fig., S8 Data**). As *bx^{MS1096}-GAL4* is located on the X-chromosome, we

expected to see more severe defects in males compared with females due to the X-linked dosage

compensation [43,44]. However, knockdown of 3/11 tested homologs with sex-specific

differences in adult wing phenotypes, including *BCL9/lgs*, *CYFIP1/Sra-1*, and

DNAJC30/CG11035 within 7q11.23, showed significantly decreased levels of cell proliferation

in females but no changes for males compared to their respective controls, suggesting sex-

specific effects of these genes towards cell proliferation (**S6 Fig., S8 Data**). Overall, our results

suggest that cell proliferation and apoptosis are disrupted by reduced expression of homologs of

CNV genes in both neuronal and non-neuronal tissues.

Knockdown of homologs of CNV genes disrupt conserved signaling pathways

Several conserved signaling pathways that are active in a spatial and temporal manner in the

larval wing disc, such as Wnt, Hedgehog, BMP, and Notch signaling, regulate the anterior-

posterior (A/P) and dorsal-ventral (D/V) boundaries to determine accurate morphology and vein

patterning in the adult wing [37,38,62–64]. For example, Wnt and Notch signaling pathways act

along the D/V boundary to determine cell fate [65,66], while Hedgehog signaling is dependent

upon expression of both engrailed in the posterior compartment and patched along the A/P

border [67,68]. Furthermore, O'Roak and colleagues showed that genes identified from *de novo*

mutations in patients with autism are linked to β-catenin/Wnt pathway [69]. In addition, familial

loss-of-function mutations in the human hedgehog signaling pathway gene *PTCH1* are

implicated in basal cell nevus syndrome, leading to basal cell carcinoma [70,71].

Based on adult wing phenotypes and disruptions to cellular processes, we next tested

whether knockdown of 14 fly homologs disrupt conserved signaling pathways in the third instar

larval wing disc (**S8 Data**). In particular, we evaluated the role of Wnt, Hedgehog, and Notch

signaling pathways by testing the expression patterns of four key proteins within these pathways,

including wingless (Wnt), patched (Hedgehog), engrailed (Hedgehog), and delta (Notch). We

found that 9/14 homologs, including 8/10 homologs showing severe wing phenotypes or

lethality, exhibited disruptions in at least one signaling pathway. For example, five homologs

with severe or lethal phenotypes showed disruptions of all four signaling pathways, including

AATF/Aatf, *NCBP2/Cbp20*, *POLR3E/Sin*, *PPP4C/Pp4-19C*, and *KIF11/Klp61F* (**Fig. 8, S8**

Data). Our observations are in concordance with previous findings by Swarup and colleagues,

who showed that *PPP4C/Pp4-19C* is a candidate regulator of Wnt and Notch signaling pathways

in *Drosophila* larval wing discs [72]. Furthermore, two genes from the 3q29 region, *DLG1/dlg1*

and *MFI2/Tsf2*, showed altered expression patterns for delta and patched but not for engrailed,

indicating that they selectively interact with the Hedgehog as well as Notch signaling pathway

(**S7 Fig.**). In fact, Six and colleagues showed that Dlg1 directly binds to the PDZ-binding domain

of Delta1 [73]. In contrast, *ACACA/ACC* and *UQCRC2/UQCR-C2* showed no changes in

expression patterns for any of the four signaling proteins tested, suggesting that the observed

lethality could be due to other cellular mechanisms (**S7 Fig.**). We conclude that several

homologs disrupt the expression of key proteins in signaling pathways in the developing larval

wing discs, potentially accounting for the developmental defects observed in the adult wings.

Connectivity patterns of CNV genes vary across human tissue-specific networks

We examined patterns of connectivity for nine candidate genes, based on disruptions of signaling

pathways identified in developing *Drosophila* wing discs, within the context of human brain,

heart, and kidney-specific gene interaction networks [74]. These tissue-specific networks were

constructed using Bayesian classifier-generated probabilities for pairwise genetic interactions

based on co-expression data [74]. Within each network, we calculated the lengths of the shortest

paths between each candidate gene and 267 genes from the Wnt, Notch, and Hedgehog pathways

as a proxy for connectivity (**S9 Data**). In all three networks, each of the candidate genes were

connected to a majority of the signaling pathway genes (**Fig. 9A, S8 Fig.**). Interestingly, we

observed a higher connectivity (i.e. shorter path distances) between candidate genes and Wnt and

Hedgehog pathway genes in the brain-specific network compared to the heart and kidney-

specific networks (**Fig. 9B**). We further identified enrichments for genes involved in specific

biological processes among the connector genes that were located in the shortest paths within

neuronal and non-neuronal tissue-specific networks (**Fig. 9C, S9 Data**). For example, axon-

dendrite transport, dopaminergic signaling, and signal transduction functions were enriched

among connector genes only for the brain-specific network, while organelle organization and

protein ubiquitination were enriched among connector genes only for kidney and heart networks

(**Fig. 9C**). However, several core biological processes, such as cell cycle, protein metabolism,

transcriptional regulation, and RNA processing/splicing, were enriched among connector genes

within all three tissue-specific networks (**Fig. 9C**). Our analysis highlights that human CNV

genes potentially interact with developmental signaling pathways in a ubiquitous manner, but

may affect different biological processes in neuronal and non-neuronal tissues.

DISCUSSION

We used the *Drosophila* wing as a model to assess how homologs of key CNV genes contribute towards non-neuronal phenotypes. We tested fly homologs of 79 genes and identified multiple homologs within each CNV region that exhibited robust phenotypes indicative of developmental disruptions. Several themes have emerged from our study highlighting the importance of fly homologs of CNV genes towards both global and tissue-specific phenotypes.

First, we found that fly homologs of CNV genes contribute towards developmental phenotypes through ubiquitous roles in neuronal and non-neuronal tissues. Although we did not study models for the entire CNV, nearly all individual fly homologs of CNV genes contribute to wing-specific developmental defects. It is likely that these genes also contribute to additional phenotypes in other tissues that we did not assess. In fact, a subset of these homologs also showed early lethality with ubiquitous knockdown in addition to severe or lethal wing-specific phenotypes. However, we found no correlation between the severity of the eye and wing phenotypes, suggesting tissue-specific effects of these homologs towards developmental defects. In contrast, fly homologs of known neurodevelopmental genes generally showed milder wing phenotypes compared with eye phenotypes, indicating a more neuronal role for these genes. While our study only examined a subset of CNV genes with *Drosophila* homologs, phenotypic data from knockout mouse models also support a global developmental role for individual CNV genes. In fact, 44/130 (33.8%) knockout models of CNV genes within the Mouse Genome Informatics (MGI) database [75] exhibited non-neuronal phenotypes, including 20 homologs of CNV genes that showed both neuronal and non-neuronal phenotypes (**S5 Data**). For example, knockout mouse models of *Dlg1*$^{-/-}$ showed defects in dendritic growth and branching in the developing nervous system, in addition to craniofacial features and multiple kidney and urinary

tract defects [76–79]. Furthermore, Chapman and colleagues showed that knockout of $Tbx6^{-/-}$

caused defects in mesodermal and neuronal differentiation early in development, leading to

abnormal vascular, tail bud, and neural tube morphology [80]. These observations further

support our findings that most fly homologs of CNV genes have a global role in development

that could account for the observed non-neuronal defects.

Second, based on tissue-specific phenotypes, we identified fly homologs of CNV genes

that are key regulators of conserved cellular processes important for development. For example,

9/10 homologs with severe or lethal adult wing phenotypes also exhibited defects in cell

proliferation and apoptosis during development. In fact, we found concordance between cellular

processes affected by wing and eye-specific knockdown of homologs of genes within 16p11.2

and 3q29 regions, including decreased proliferation for *MAPK3/rl* and increased apoptosis for

NCBP2/Cbp20 and *DLG1/dlg1* [30,31]. While eye-specific knockdown of *BDH1/CG8888*

showed decreased cell proliferation in larval eye discs [31], we found increased cell proliferation

with wing-specific knockdown, suggesting a tissue-specific effect for this gene. Notably, at least

one fly homolog per CNV region showed defects in cell proliferation or apoptosis, suggesting

these cellular processes are important for development in both neuronal and non-neuronal

tissues. For example, *ATXN2L/Atx2*, *SH2B1/Lnk*, and *CCDC101/Sgf29* each showed decreased

proliferation and increased apoptosis, suggesting a potential shared cellular mechanism for

several genes within the distal 16p11.2 deletion. Furthermore, a subset of these genes also

disrupted multiple signaling pathways, indicating a potential role for these homologs as key

regulators of developmental processes. We specifically identified five homologs whose

knockdown caused disruptions of Wnt, Notch, and hedgehog signaling pathways. Each of these

genes have important roles in cell cycle regulation, apoptosis, transcription, or RNA processing,

based on Gene Ontology annotations [81,82]. In fact, we found that the RNA transport protein

NCBP2/Cbp20 [83], which we recently identified as a key modifier gene for the 3q29 deletion

[31], interfaced with all three signaling pathways. Furthermore, *AATF* disrupts apoptosis and

promotes cell cycle progression through displacement of HDAC1 [84–86], while *PPP4C*

promotes spindle organization at the centromeres during mitosis [87]. While we only evaluated

the role of these genes towards development in a single fly tissue, our additional analysis of

human gene interaction networks showed strong connectivity between the CNV genes and

signaling pathways in multiple neuronal and non-neuronal human tissues. In fact, cell cycle

genes were enriched among the connector genes in all three tested tissue-specific networks,

further emphasizing the role of cell cycle processes towards developmental phenotypes. Notably,

we also observed certain biological processes enriched among connector genes that were specific

to neuronal or non-neuronal tissues, indicating that genes within CNV regions may affect

different biological processes in a tissue-specific manner.

Overall, we show that fly homologs of most CNV genes contribute towards global

developmental phenotypes, although exactly how they contribute toward such phenotypes varies

between neuronal and non-neuronal tissues. Previous functional studies for CNV disorders have

focused primarily on identifying candidate genes for the observed neuronal phenotypes. In this

study, we identified several homologs of CNV genes that are responsible for non-neuronal

defects, as well as novel associations between these homologs and conserved biological

processes and pathways. We therefore propose that multiple genes within each CNV region

differentially disrupt conserved cellular pathways and biological processes in neuronal versus

non-neuronal tissues during development (**Fig. 10**). These results are in line with a multigenic

model for CNV disorders, as opposed to models where individual causative genes are

responsible for specific phenotypes [30,31,88]. Our study further exemplifies the utility of

evaluating non-neuronal phenotypes in addition to neuronal phenotypes in functional models of

individual genes and CNV regions associated with developmental disorders, including future

studies in mammalian or cellular model systems. Further studies exploring how CNV genes

interact with each other and with other developmental pathways could more fully explain the

conserved mechanisms underlying global developmental defects and identify potential

therapeutic targets for these disorders.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Fly stocks and genetics

We selected *Drosophila* homologs for 59 human genes out of 130 total genes located within 10

pathogenic CNV regions [89] associated with neurodevelopmental disorders (1q21.1, 3q29,

7q11.23, 15q11.2, 15q13.3, 16p11.2, distal 16p11.2, 16p12.1, 16p13.11, and 17q12) (**S2 Data**).

These 59 genes were selected based on presence of fly homologs, availability of RNAi lines for

fly homologs, and quality control of the RNAi lines. In addition, we evaluated fly homologs of

20 human genes known to be in involved in neurodevelopmental disorders [54,90] (**S2 Data**).

These include genes involved in beta-catenin signaling pathway (5 genes), core genes implicated

in neurodevelopmental disorders (8 genes), and genes associated with microcephaly (7 genes)

[91]. We note that 2/20 neurodevelopmental genes, *TBX1* (22q11.2 deletion) [92] and *UBE3A*

(Prader-Willi/Angelman syndrome region) [93], are located within other pathogenic CNV

regions. We used the DRSC Integrative Ortholog Prediction Tool (DIOPT, v.7.1) [42] to select

fly homologs for each human gene based on highest numeric score, excluding genes with "low"

rankings (score <2) (**S2 Data**).

To knockdown individual genes in specific tissues, we used RNA interference (RNAi)

and the *UAS-GAL4* system (**Fig. 1**), a well-established tool that allows for tissue-specific

expression of a gene of interest [94]. RNAi lines were obtained from Vienna *Drosophila*

Resource Center (VDRC) that include both GD and KK lines. We tested a total of 136 lines in

our final data analysis (**S10 Data**). A complete list of stock numbers and full genotypes for all

RNAi lines used in this study is presented in **S10 Data**. We used the *bx^{MS1096}-GAL4/FM7c;;UAS-*

Dicer2/TM6B driver for wing-specific knockdown and *w^{1118};GMR-GAL4;UAS-Dicer2* driver

(Claire Thomas, Penn State University) for eye-specific knockdown of RNAi lines. Ubiquitous

knockdown experiments were performed using the *w;da-GAL4;+* driver (Scott Selleck, Penn

State University). For all experiments, we used appropriate GD (*w^{1118}*, VDRC# 60000) or KK

(*y,w^{1118}; P{attP,y$^+$,w$^{3`}$}*, VDRC# 60100) lines as controls to compare against lines with

knockdown of individual homologs. All fly lines were reared on standard yeast *Drosophila*

medium at room temperature. All crosses were set and maintained at 25°C, except for the eye

knockdown experiments which were maintained at 30°C.

Phenotypic analysis of adult wing images

Adult progeny were isolated from crosses between RNAi lines and *bx^{MS1096}-GAL4* driver shortly

after eclosion, and kept at 25°C until day 2-5 (**Fig. 1**). At that point, the progeny were frozen at -

80°C, and were then moved to -20°C prior to imaging and storage. Approximately 20-25

progeny, both male and female, were collected for each RNAi line tested. The adult wings were

plucked from frozen flies and mounted on a glass slide. The slides were covered with a coverslip

and sealed using clear nail polish. Adult wing images were captured using a Zeiss Discovery

V20 stereoscope (Zeiss, Thornwood, NY, USA), with a ProgRes Speed XT Core 3 camera and

CapturePro v.2.8.8 software (Jenoptik AG, Jena, Germany) at 40X magnification.

For each non-lethal RNAi line, we scored the adult wing images for five qualitative

phenotypes, including wrinkled wing, discoloration, missing veins, ectopic veins, and bristle

planar polarity defects, on a scale of 1 (no phenotype) to 5 (lethal) (**Fig. 3C**). Lines showing

severely wrinkled wings or lethality were scored as 4 (severe) or 5 (lethal) for all five

phenotypes. We calculated the frequency of each phenotypic score (i.e. mild bristle polarity,

moderate discoloration) across all of the wing images for each line (**Fig. 3A-B**, **S3 Data**), and

then performed k-means clustering of values for female RNAi lines to generate five clusters for

overall wing phenotypes (**Fig. 2B**, **S3 Data**). For quantitative analysis of wing phenotypes, we

used the Fiji ImageJ software [95] to calculate the wing area using the Measure Area tool, and

calculated the lengths of longitudinal veins L2, L3, L4, and L5 as well as the anterior and

posterior crossveins (ACV and PCV) by tracing individual veins using the Segmented Line tool

(**Fig. 4A, S3 Data**). We determined discordant homologs when multiple RNAi lines for the same

homolog showed no wing phenotype versus any qualitative or quantitative wing phenotypes,

followed by discordance for small or large wing measurement phenotypes (**S4 Data**).

Phenotypic analysis of adult eye images

We crossed RNAi lines with *GMR-GAL4* to achieve eye-specific knockdown of homologs of

CNV and known neurodevelopmental genes. Adult 2-3-day old female progenies from the

crosses were collected, immobilized by freezing at -80°C, and then moved to -20°C prior to

imaging and storage. Flies were mounted on Blu-tac (Bostik Inc, Wauwatosa, WI, USA) and

imaged using an Olympus BX53 compound microscope with LMPLan N 20X air objective using

a DP73 c-mount camera at 0.5X magnification (Olympus Corporation, Tokyo, Japan). CellSens

Dimension software (Olympus Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) was used to capture the eye images,

which were then stacked using the Zerene Stacker software (Zerene Systems LLC, Richland,

WA, USA). All eye images presented in this study are maximum projections of 20 consecutive

optical z-sections, at a z-step size of 12.1μm. Finally. we used our computational method called

Flynotyper (https://flynotyper.sourceforge.net) to quantify the degree of rough eye phenotypes

present due to knockdown of homologs of CNV or neurodevelopmental genes [54]. *Flynotyper*

scores for homologs of 16p11.2 and 3q29, as well as select core neurodevelopmental genes, were

derived from our previous studies [30,31,54].

Immunohistochemistry

Wing imaginal discs from third instar larvae were dissected in 1X PBS. The tissues were fixed

using 4% paraformaldehyde and blocked using 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA). The wing discs

were incubated with primary antibodies using appropriate dilutions overnight at 4°C. We used

the following primary antibodies: mouse monoclonal anti-pHistone3 (S10) (1:100 dilutions, Cell

Signaling 9706L), rabbit polyclonal anti-cleaved *Drosophila* Dcp1 (Asp216) (1:100 dilutions,

Cell Signaling 9578S), mouse monoclonal anti-wingless (1:200 dilutions, DSHB, 4D4), mouse

monoclonal anti-patched (1:50 dilutions, DSHB, *Drosophila* Ptc/APA1), mouse monoclonal

anti-engrailed (1:50 dilutions, DSHB, 4D9), and mouse monoclonal anti-delta (1:50 dilutions,

DSHB, C594.9B). Following incubation with primary antibodies, the wing discs were washed

and incubated with secondary antibodies at 1:200 dilution for two hours at room temperature.

We used the following secondary antibodies: Alexa Fluor 647 dye goat anti-mouse (A21235,

Molecular Probes by Invitrogen/Life Technologies), Alexa Fluor 568 dye goat anti-rabbit

(A11036, Molecular Probes by Invitrogen/Life Technologies), and Alexa Fluor 568 dye goat

anti-mouse (A11031, Molecular Probes by Invitrogen/Life Technologies). All washes and

antibody dilutions were made using 0.3% PBS with Triton-X.

Third instar larvae wing imaginal discs were mounted in Prolong Gold antifade reagent

with DAPI (Thermo Fisher Scientific, P36930) for imaging using an Olympus Fluoview FV1000

laser scanning confocal microscope (Olympus America, Lake Success, NY). Images were

acquired using FV10-ASW 2.1 software (Olympus, Waltham, MA, USA). Composite z-stack

images were analyzed using the Fiji ImageJ software [95]. To calculate the number of pH3

positive cells within the wing pouch area of the wing discs, we used the AnalyzeParticles

function in ImageJ, while manual counting was used to quantify Dcp1 positive cells. We note

that cell proliferation and apoptosis staining for *NCBP2/Cbp20*, *DLG1/dlg1*, *BDH1/CG8888*, and

FBXO45/Fsn were previously published[31].

Statistical analysis

Significance for the wing area and vein length measurements, cell counts for proliferation and

apoptosis, and *Flynotyper* scores were compared to appropriate GD or KK controls using one-

tailed or two-tailed Mann-Whitney tests. P-values for each set of experiments were corrected for

multiple testing using Benjamini-Hochberg correction. All statistical and clustering analysis was

performed using R v.3.6.1 (R Center for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria). Details for the

statistical tests performed for each dataset are provided in **S11 Data**.

Expression data analysis

We obtained tissue-specific expression data for fly homologs of CNV genes from the FlyAtlas

Anatomical Microarray dataset [56]. Raw FPKM (fragments per kilobase of transcript per

million reads) expression values for each tissue were categorized as follows: <10, no expression;

10-100, low expression; 100-500, moderate expression; 500-1000, high expression; and >1000,

very high expression (**S7 Data**). The median expression among midgut, hindgut, Malpighian

tube, and (for adult only) crop tissues was used to represent overall gut expression. We similarly

obtained human tissue-specific expression data for CNV genes from the GTEx Consortium v.1.2

RNA-Seq datasets [58]. Median TPM (transcripts per million reads) expression values for each

tissue were categorized as follows: <3, no expression; 3-10, low expression; 10-25, moderate

expression; 25-100, high expression; and >100, very high expression (**S7 Data**). The median

expression among all brain and heart sub-tissues was used to represent brain and heart

expression, while the median expression among all colon, esophagus, small intestine, and

stomach sub-tissues was used to represent digestive tract expression. Tissue-specific preferential

gene expression was determined if the expression of a gene within a particular tissue was greater

than the third quartile of expression values for that gene across all tissues, plus 1.5 times the

interquartile range. Venn diagrams were generated using the Venny webtool

(http://bioinfogp.cnb.csic.es/tools/venny) (**S4 Fig.**).

Network analysis

We obtained human tissue-specific gene interaction networks for brain, heart, and kidney tissues

from the GIANT network database [74] within HumanBase (https://hb.flatironinstitute.org).

These networks were built using a Bayesian classifier trained on tissue-specific gene co-

expression datasets, which assigned posterior probabilities for interactions between pairs of

genes within a particular tissue. We downloaded the "Top edge" version of each tissue-specific

network, and extracted all gene pairs with posterior probabilities >0.2 to create sub-networks

containing the top ~0.5% tissue-specific interactions. Next, we identified the shortest paths in

each sub-network between human CNV genes whose fly homologs disrupted signaling pathways

in the larval wing disc and human genes within each disrupted pathway, using the inverse of the

posterior probabilities as weights for each edge in the network. Gene sets from the human Notch

(KEGG:map04330), Wnt (KEGG:map04310) and Hedgehog pathways (KEGG:map04340) were

curated from the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) pathway database [96].

Using the NetworkX Python package [97], we calculated the shortest distance between each

CNV gene and pathway gene, and identified connecting genes that were within each of the

shortest paths for the three tissue-specific networks. We further tested for enrichment of Gene

Ontology (GO) terms (PantherDB GO-Slim) among the connector genes using the PantherDB

Gene List Analysis tool [98]. Lists of the shortest paths and connector genes in each tissue-

specific network, as well as enriched GO terms for sets of connector genes, are provided in **S9**

Data. Gene networks were visualized in Cytoscape v.3.7.2 [99] using an edge-weighted spring

embedded layout.

Mouse and human phenotypic data analysis

Phenotypic data for mouse models of CNV gene homologs, categorized using top-level

Mammalian Phenotype Ontology terms, were obtained from the Mouse Genome Informatics

(MGI) database [75] (**S5 Data**). Phenotypic data for human carriers of 10 pathogenic CNVs were

obtained from the DECIPHER public database [9] (**S1 Data**). Clinical phenotypes for each CNV

carrier were categorized by top-level Human Phenotype Ontology terms [100] using the Orange3

Bioinformatics software library (https://orange-bioinformatics.readthedocs.io), and the frequency

of individuals carrying each top-level phenotype term was calculated for each CNV.

Data availability

All data supporting the findings of this study are available within the paper and its

supplementary data files. All source code for data analysis in this manuscript, including scripts

for k-means clustering of fly phenotypes, network connectivity of CNV and developmental

pathway genes, and extraction of top-level human phenotype terms, are available on the

Girirajan lab GitHub page at https://github.com/girirajanlab/CNV_wing_project.

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CONTRIBUTIONS

T.Y., M.J., S.Y., and S.G. designed the study. T.Y., S.Y., L.P., S.K., D.J.G., A.S., E.G., Y.M.,

J.I., and Z.C.L. performed the functional experiments. T.Y. and M.J. performed the expression

and network experiments. T.Y., M.J., and S.G. analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript with

input from all authors.

COMPETING OF INTERESTS

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Experimental approach to identify developmental phenotypes of homologs of

CNV genes in the *Drosophila* wing. Strategy for identifying non-neuronal phenotypes and

underlying cellular mechanisms for homologs of CNV and known neurodevelopmental genes

using the fly wing as a model system. We evaluated 59 *Drosophila* homologs of genes within 10

CNV regions and 20 known neurodevelopmental genes (79 total homologs). Using the *UAS-*

GAL4 system with wing-specific bx^{MS1096} driver, we knocked down 136 individual RNAi lines

for homologs of CNV and neurodevelopmental genes, and evaluated qualitative and quantitative

phenotypes. We next clustered RNAi lines based on severity of qualitative phenotypes, and

compared adult wing phenotypes to phenotypes observed with ubiquitous and eye-specific

knockdown of homologs. Furthermore, we evaluated underlying cellular mechanisms for the

observed wing-specific phenotypes, and examined the connectivity patterns of candidate

homologs for developmental phenotypes in multiple human tissue-specific gene networks.

Figure 2. Global analysis of developmental phenotypes with knockdown of homologs of

CNV genes. (A) Representative brightfield images of adult wing phenotype severity observed

with knockdown of homologs of CNV genes, based on clustering analysis, are shown. **(B)**

Heatmap with k-means clustering of qualitative phenotypes in adult female wings across 136

RNAi lines is shown. The color of each cell represents the frequency of individual fly wings

(n=20-25 adult wings) for each RNAi line (x-axis) that show a specific severity (no phenotype,

mild, moderate, severe, lethal) for the five qualitative phenotypes assessed (y-axis; wrinkled

wings, ectopic veins, missing veins, discoloration, bristle planar polarity), as detailed in **S3 Data**.

Based on these data, we identified clusters for no phenotype (n=75 lines), mild (n=24 lines),

moderate (n=10 lines), severe (n=21 lines), and lethal (n=6 lines) RNAi lines. **(C)** Summary

table of qualitative and quantitative adult wing phenotypes for all tested RNAi lines of homologs

of CNV and neurodevelopmental genes. Quantitative phenotype totals do not include lethal

RNAi lines for both area and vein length. In addition, L3 vein length totals do not include severe

RNAi lines.

Figure 3. Qualitative adult wing phenotypes of *Drosophila* homologs of CNV and

neurodevelopmental genes. Heatmaps representing five qualitative adult wing phenotypes for

all 136 RNAi lines, with **(A)** 59 tested homologs for 10 CNV regions and **(B)** 20 homologs for

neurodevelopmental genes (β-catenin, core neurodevelopmental genes, and microcephaly genes),

are shown. The color of each cell represents the frequency of each qualitative phenotype by

severity (wrinkled wings, WR; ectopic veins, EV; missing veins, MV; discoloration, DC; bristle

planar polarity, BP), ranging from no phenotype to lethal. **(C)** Representative brightfield images

of adult fly wings (scale bar = 500µm) with wing-specific knockdown of homologs of CNV and

neurodevelopmental genes showing the five assessed qualitative phenotypes, including

discoloration, wrinkled wings, bristle polarity, ectopic veins, and missing veins, are shown.

Panels in the bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4* control and $C6836^{KK112485}$ images highlight bristle planar polarity

phenotypes for the representative images. Black arrowheads highlight ectopic veins, and white

arrowheads highlight missing veins. Genotypes for the images are: w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4;+; UAS-*

Dicer2/+, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4;UAS-Rph^{GD7330} RNAi/+;UAS-Dicer2/+,* w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-

GAL4;UAS-CG15528^{KK107736} RNAi/+; UAS-Dicer2/+, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4;UAS-CG6836^{KK112485}

RNAi/+; UAS-Dicer2/+, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4;+;UAS-CG14182^{GD2738} RNAi/UAS-Dicer2,* and

w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4;UAS-kis^{KK100890} RNAi/+; UAS-Dicer2/+.*

Figure 4. Quantitative adult wing phenotypes of *Drosophila* homologs of CNV and neurodevelopmental genes. (A) Representative brightfield images of adult fly wings (scale bar = 500µm) with wing-specific knockdown of homologs of CNV and neurodevelopmental genes with size defects are shown. The bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4* control image highlights six veins, including longitudinal veins L2, L3, L4, and L5 as well as the anterior and posterior crossveins (ACV and PCV), that were measured for quantitative analysis. The dotted line in the control image represents the total wing area calculated for each RNAi line. Genotypes for the images are: w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4;+; UAS-Dicer2/+*, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4;UAS-Fmo-2^{KK109203} RNAi/+; UAS-Dicer2/+*, and w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4;+;UAS-Trpm^{GD4541} RNAi/UAS-Dicer2*. **(B)** Boxplot of L3 vein lengths for knockdown of select homologs in adult fly wings (n = 9-91, *p < 0.05, two-tailed Mann–Whitney test with Benjamini-Hochberg correction). Vein measurements for all other longitudinal veins and crossveins (ACV and PCV) for these lines are represented in **S3 Fig**. **(C)** Boxplot of wing areas for knockdown of select homologs in adult fly wings (n = 9-91, *p < 0.05, two-tailed Mann–Whitney test with Benjamini-Hochberg correction). Boxplots indicate median (center line), 25th and 75th percentiles (bounds of box), and minimum and maximum (whiskers), with red dotted lines representing the control median.

Figure 5. Comparison of wing-specific, eye-specific, and ubiquitous knockdown of fly homologs. (A) Heatmap with the penetrance of phenotypes with ubiquitous knockdown (*da–GAL4*) of select homologs of CNV genes, compared to their adult wing-specific (bx^{MS1096}–*GAL4*) phenotypic severity, is shown. **(B)** Boxplots of *Flynotyper*-derived phenotypic scores for adult eyes with eye-specific knockdown (*GMR-GAL4*) of select fly homologs, normalized as fold-

change (FC) to control values (n = 7–40, *p < 0.05, one-tailed Mann–Whitney test with

Benjamini-Hochberg correction). Boxplots are arranged by severity of adult wing phenotypes,

while eye phenotypic scores are categorized by severity: no change (0–1.1 FC), mild (1.1–1.5

FC), moderate (1.5–2.0 FC), and severe (>2.0 FC). **(C)** Boxplot showing average eye phenotypic

scores for 66 RNAi lines of select fly homologs, normalized as fold-change (FC) to control

values, according to wing phenotypic category (n=4–30 RNAi lines per group). We did not

observe significant changes in eye phenotype severity across the five wing phenotypic categories

(Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test, p=0.567, df = 5, χ^2 = 3.881). Examples of average eye phenotypic

scores for RNAi lines with no phenotype (*para$^{GD3392\_1}$*), mild (*rl^{KK115768}*), and lethal (*dlg1^{GD4689}*)

wing phenotypes are highlighted in the plot. Boxplots indicate median (center line), 25th and

75th percentiles (bounds of box), and minimum and maximum (whiskers), with red dotted lines

representing the control median. **(D)** Representative brightfield adult eye (scale bar = 100 μm)

and wing (scale bar = 500μm) images with tissue-specific knockdown of CNV homologs are

shown. Genotypes for the eye images are: *w^{1118};GMR-GAL4/+; UAS-Dicer2/+, w^{1118};GMR-*

GAL4/UAS-Lnk^{KK105731} RNAi; UAS-Dicer2/+, w^{1118};GMR-GAL4/UAS-mEFTu1^{GD16961} RNAi;

UAS-Dicer2/+. Genotypes for the wing images are: *w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;+; UAS-Dicer2/+,*

w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4; UAS-Lnk^{KK105731} RNAi/+; UAS-Dicer2/+, and *w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4; UAS-*

mEFTu1^{GD16961} RNAi/+; UAS-Dicer2/+.

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Figure 6. Expression patterns of *Drosophila* homologs and human CNV and

neurodevelopmental genes across multiple tissues. (A) Heatmap with expression of fly

homologs of select CNV and neurodevelopmental genes in multiple *Drosophila* larval and adult

tissues (derived from the FlyAtlas Anatomical Microarray dataset), compared with adult wing

phenotype severity, is shown. Expression values are grouped into no expression (<10 fragments

per kilobase of transcript per million reads, or FPKM), low (10–100 FPKM), moderate (100–500

FPKM), high (500–1000 FPKM), and very high (>1000 FPKM) expression categories. **(B)**

Heatmap with expression of select human CNV and neurodevelopmental genes in multiple adult

tissues, derived from the Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) dataset v.1.2, is shown.

Expression values are grouped into no expression (<3 transcripts per million reads, or TPM), low

(3–10 TPM), moderate (10–25 TPM), high (25–100 TPM), and very high (>100 TPM)

expression categories. "X" symbols denote preferential expression in a particular tissue (see

Methods). Expression data for all CNV and neurodevelopmental genes are provided in **S7 Data**.

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Figure 7. *Drosophila* homologs of CNV and neurodevelopmental genes show altered levels

of apoptosis and proliferation. (A) Larval imaginal wing discs (scale bar = 50 µm) stained with

nuclear marker DAPI, apoptosis marker dcp1, and cell proliferation marker pH3 illustrate altered

levels of apoptosis and cell proliferation due to wing-specific knockdown of select fly homologs

of CNV genes. We quantified the number of stained cells within the wing pouch of the wing disc

(white box), which becomes the adult wing. Additional representative images of select homologs

are presented in **S6 Fig**. Genotypes for the wing images are: w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;+; UAS-

Dicer2/+, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;+; UAS-Aatf^{GD7229} RNAi/UAS-Dicer2, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;UAS-

Pp4-19C^{GD9561}/+; UAS-Dicer2/+, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;+; UAS-Atx2^{GD11562} RNAi/UAS-Dicer2,

and w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;+; UAS-Sin^{GD7027} RNAi/UAS-Dicer2. **(B)** Box plot of dcp1-positive

cells in larval wing discs with knockdown of select fly homologs of CNV and

neurodevelopmental genes, normalized to controls (n = 7–18, *p < 0.05, two-tailed Mann–

Whitney test with Benjamini-Hochberg correction). We note that several RNAi lines showed

severe dcp1 staining across the entire wing disc and could not be quantified. The number of dcp1

positive cells were calculated manually. **(C)** Box plot of pH3-positive cells in the larval wing

discs with knockdown of select fly homologs of CNV and neurodevelopmental genes,

normalized to controls (n = 6–18, *p < 0.05, two-tailed Mann–Whitney test with Benjamini-

Hochberg correction). The number of pH3 positive cells were calculated using the

AnalyzeParticles function in ImageJ. Boxplots are organized by adult wing phenotype (wing size

defect, mild, moderate (mod.), severe (sev.), lethal). Boxplots indicate median (center line), 25th

and 75th percentiles (bounds of box), and minimum and maximum (whiskers), with red dotted

lines representing the control median.

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Figure 8. Candidate *Drosophila* homologs of genes within CNV regions interact with

conserved signaling pathways. Larval imaginal wing discs (scale bar = 50 µm) stained with **(A)**

wingless, **(B)** patched, **(C)** engrailed, and **(D)** delta illustrate disrupted expression patterns for

proteins located within the Wnt (wingless), Hedgehog (patched and engrailed), and Notch (delta)

signaling pathways due to wing-specific knockdown of select fly homologs. Dotted yellow boxes

represent expression patterns for signaling proteins in bx^{MS1096}-GAL4 control images. White

arrowheads and dotted white boxes highlight disruptions in expression patterns of signaling

proteins with knockdown of homologs of CNV or neurodevelopmental genes. Additional

representative images of select homologs are presented in **S8 Fig**. Genotypes for the wing

images are: w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;+; UAS-Dicer2/+, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;UAS-Pp4-19C^{GD9561}/+;

UAS-Dicer2/+, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;UAS-Cbp20^{KK109448}/+; UAS-Dicer2/+, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-

GAL4;+; UAS-Sin^{GD7027} RNAi/UAS-Dicer2, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;+; UAS-Aatf^{GD7229} RNAi/UAS-

Dicer2, and w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;UAS-Klp61F^{GD14149}/+; UAS-Dicer2/+.

1052

Figure 9. Connectivity of human CNV genes with conserved signaling pathway genes in

human tissue-specific networks. (A) Diagrams representing the connectivity of eight human

CNV and neurodevelopmental genes whose fly homologs disrupt the Notch signaling pathway to

57 human Notch signaling genes within kidney, heart, and brain-specific gene interaction

networks are shown. Yellow nodes represent CNV and neurodevelopmental genes, pink nodes

represent Notch signaling pathway genes, and green nodes represent connector genes located

within the shortest paths between CNV and Notch pathway genes. **(B)** Violin plots showing the

average connectivity (i.e. inverse of shortest path lengths) of human CNV genes to genes in

Hedgehog, Notch, and Wnt signaling pathways across three tissue-specific networks (n=322–810

pairs of genes, $*p < 0.05$, two-tailed Welch's t-test with Benjamini-Hochberg correction). **(C)**

Table showing clusters of enriched Gene Ontology (GO) Biological Process terms for connector

genes observed for each signaling pathway in the three tested tissue-specific networks,

categorized by enrichments in ubiquitous, neuronal, and non-neuronal tissues (p<0.05, Fisher's

Exact test with Benjamini-Hochberg correction).

1067

1068   **Figure 10. Multiple genes contribute towards neuronal and non-neuronal phenotypes**

1069   **associated with pathogenic CNVs.** While a subset of genes within CNV regions contribute

1070   towards tissue-specific phenotypes, a majority of genes contribute towards both neuronal and

1071   non-neuronal phenotypes through disruption of developmental signaling pathways and global

1072   biological processes.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION LEGENDS

S1 Figure. Phenotypic expression of CNV carriers across tissues. Heatmap with frequencies of non-neuronal developmental phenotypes observed in 1,225 human carriers of 10 pathogenic CNV deletions, curated from the DECIPHER database, is shown. CNV carriers show a variety of phenotypes that manifest across different tissues, including eye, limbs, muscle, and skeleton.

S2 Figure. Quantitative vein length phenotypes for select *Drosophila* homologs of CNV and neurodevelopmental genes. Boxplots of **(A)** L2, **(B)** L4, and **(C)** L5, longitudinal veins, and **(D)** anterior crossvein (ACV) and **(E)** posterior crossvein (PCV) lengths for knockdown of select homologs in adult fly wings (n = 9-91, *p < 0.05, two-tailed Mann–Whitney test with Benjamini-Hochberg correction). Boxplots indicate median (center line), 25th and 75th percentiles (bounds of box), and minimum and maximum (whiskers), with red dotted lines representing the control median.

S3 Figure. Comparisons of eye-specific and wing-specific knockdowns for select *Drosophila* homologs of CNV and neurodevelopmental genes. Boxplots of *Flynotyper*-derived phenotypic scores for 66 tested adult eyes with eye-specific knockdown (*GMR-GAL4*) of select homologs of CNV and neurodevelopmental genes, normalized as fold-change (FC) to control values (n = 1–40, *p < 0.05, one-tailed Mann–Whitney test with Benjamini-Hochberg correction). RNAi lines that do not show any observable qualitative adult wing phenotypes, including lines that show wing measurement phenotypes, are represented in **(A)**, while RNAi lines with observable mild to lethal qualitative wing phenotypes are represented in **(B)**. Boxplots indicate median (center line),

1095   25th and 75th percentiles (bounds of box), and minimum and maximum (whiskers), with red

1096   dotted lines representing the control median.

1097

1098   **S4 Figure. Expression of *Drosophila* homologs of CNV and neurodevelopmental genes in**

1099   **larval and adult tissues.** Venn diagrams representing the number of 76/77 fly homologs of

1100   CNV and neurodevelopmental genes that are expressed (>10 fragments per kilobase of transcript

1101   per million reads, or FPKM) in **(A)** larval (central nervous system or CNS, gut, trachea, and fat

1102   body) and **(B)** adult tissues (brain, gut, heart and fat body) are shown.

1103

S5 Figure. Additional *Drosophila* homologs of CNV and neurodevelopmental genes show

altered levels of cell proliferation and apoptosis. Larval imaginal wing discs (scale

bar = 50 μm) stained with nuclear marker DAPI, apoptosis marker dcp1, and cell proliferation

marker pH3 illustrate altered levels of cell proliferation and apoptosis due to wing-specific

knockdown of select fly homologs of CNV genes. We examined changes in the number of

stained cells within the wing pouch of the wing disc (white box), which becomes the adult wing.

Genotypes for the wing images are: w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4;+; UAS-Dicer2/+*, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-

GAL4;UAS-Cbp20^{KK109448}/+; UAS-Dicer2/+, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4;+; UAS-dlg1^{GD4689}*

RNAi/UAS-Dicer2, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4;UAS-CG8888^{GD3777}/+; UAS-Dicer2/+*, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-

GAL4;+; UAS-UQCR-C2^{GD11238} RNAi/UAS-Dicer2, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4;+; UAS-ACC^{GD3482}*

RNAi/UAS-Dicer2, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4;UAS-Klp61F^{GD14149}/+; UAS-Dicer2/+*, and

w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4;UAS-Rph^{GD7330} RNAi/+;UAS-Dicer2/+*.

1116

S6 Figure. Select female and male *Drosophila* homologs of CNV and neurodevelopmental

genes show altered levels of cell proliferation and apoptosis. (A) Larval imaginal wing discs

(scale bar $= 50\ \mu m$) stained with nuclear marker DAPI, apoptosis marker dcp1, and cell

proliferation marker pH3 illustrate altered levels of cell proliferation and apoptosis due to wing-

specific knockdown of select fly homologs of CNV genes in females and males. We examined

changes in the number of stained cells within the wing pouch of the wing disc (white box), which

becomes the adult wing. Genotypes for the wing images are: w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;+; UAS-

Dicer2/+, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;+; UAS-lgs^{GD1241}/UAS-Dicer2, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;+; UAS-Sra-

1^{GD11477}/UAS-Dicer2, and w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;UAS-CG11035^{KK101201} RNAi+; UAS-Dicer2/+.

(B) Box plot of dcp1-positive cells in larval wing discs with knockdown of select fly homologs

of CNV and neurodevelopmental genes, normalized to controls (n $= 9$–13, *p < 0.05, two-tailed

Mann–Whitney test with Benjamini-Hochberg correction). The number of dcp1 positive cells

were calculated manually. **(C)** Box plot of pH3-positive cells in the larval wing discs with

knockdown of select fly homologs of CNV and neurodevelopmental genes, normalized to

controls (n $= 9$–13, *p < 0.05, two-tailed Mann–Whitney test with Benjamini-Hochberg

correction). The number of pH3 positive cells were calculated using the AnalyzeParticles

function in ImageJ. Boxplots indicate median (center line), 25th and 75th percentiles (bounds of

box), and minimum and maximum (whiskers), with red dotted lines representing the control

median.

1136

S7 Figure. Additional *Drosophila* homologs of genes within CNV regions interact with

conserved signaling pathways to induce developmental phenotypes. Larval imaginal wing

discs (scale bar $= 50\ \mu m$) stained with **(A)** wingless, **(B)** patched, **(C)** engrailed, and **(D)** delta

illustrate disrupted expression patterns for proteins located within the Wnt (wingless), Hedgehog

(patched and engrailed), and Notch (delta) signaling pathways due to wing-specific knockdown

of additional fly homologs of CNV and neurodevelopmental genes. Dotted yellow boxes

represent expression patterns for signaling proteins in bx^{MS1096}-GAL4 control images. White

arrowheads and dotted white boxes highlight disruptions in expression patterns of signaling

proteins with knockdown of CNV or neurodevelopmental genes. Genotypes for the wing images

are: w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;+; UAS-Dicer2/+, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;+; UAS-dlg1^{GD4689} RNAi/UAS-

Dicer2, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;+; UAS-Tsf2^{GD2442} RNAi/UAS-Dicer2, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;+;

UAS-Atx2^{GD11562} RNAi/UAS-Dicer2, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;+; UAS-UQCR-C2^{GD11238} RNAi/UAS-

Dicer2, w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-GAL4;+; UAS-nudE^{GD15226} RNAi/UAS-Dicer2, and w^{1118}/bx^{MS1096}-

GAL4;+; UAS-ACC^{GD3482} RNAi/UAS-Dicer2.

1151

S8 Figure. Tissue-specific network diagrams showing connectivity of human CNV genes

with conserved signaling pathway genes. Representative diagrams for connectivity between

nine human CNV and neurodevelopmental genes whose fly homologs disrupt the **(A)** Wnt and

(B) Hedgehog signaling pathways and 162 human Wnt and 46 human Hedgehog signaling genes

within kidney, heart, and brain-specific gene interaction networks are shown. Yellow nodes

represent CNV and neurodevelopmental genes, pink nodes represent Notch signaling pathway

genes, and green nodes represent connector genes within the shortest paths between CNV and

Notch pathway genes.

1160

1161 **S1 Data (Excel file).** Non-neuronal phenotypes of individuals carrying rare pathogenic CNVs in

1162 the DECIPHER database.

1163

1164 **S2 Data (Excel file).** *Drosophila* homologs of human CNV and neurodevelopmental genes, as

1165 determined using DIOPT v.7.1. Grey shading indicates human CNV genes that were not assessed

1166 in this study.

1167

1168 **S3 Data (Excel file).** Qualitative and quantitative adult wing phenotypes for *Drosophila*

1169 homologs of human CNV and neurodevelopmental genes. This file shows the raw frequencies of

1170 severity categories for five qualitative wing phenotypes and average areas and vein lengths for

1171 all 136 female and male tested RNAi lines. The file also includes k-means clusters for the female

1172 RNAi lines.

1173

1174 **S4 Data (Excel file).** Summary of adult wing qualitative and quantitative phenotypes for tested

1175 *Drosophila* homologs. This file summarizes qualitative k-means clustering and longitudinal L3

1176 vein length and wing area changes for 79 tested fly homologs. We defined discordant homologs

1177 when multiple RNAi lines for the same fly homolog showed no phenotype versus any qualitative

1178 or quantitative phenotypes, followed by discordance for small or large quantitative phenotypes.

1179

1180 **S5 Data (Excel file).** Phenotypes of mouse knockdown models for homologs of CNV genes.

1181 This file lists lethality and neuronal and non-neuronal phenotypes, categorized using top-level

1182 Mammalian Phenotype Ontology terms, for knockdown models of 130 mouse homologs of CNV

1183 genes, derived from the Mouse Genome Informatics (MGI) database.

1184

S6 Data (Excel file). Summary of eye-specific and wing-specific phenotypes for fly homologs.

This file summarizes eye-specific and wing-specific phenotypes by severity category for fly

homologs of CNV and neurodevelopmental genes. Eye phenotype severity is defined by

Flynotyper phenotypic scores with fold-change (FC) normalization to control as follows: no

change (0–1.1 FC), mild (1.1–1.5 FC), moderate (1.5–2.0 FC), and severe (>2.0 FC). Wing

phenotype severity is defined by k-means clustering for qualitative phenotypes and quantitative

size changes as listed in **S4 Data**.

1192

S7 Data (Excel file). Tissue-specific expression of *Drosophila* homologs and human CNV and

neurodevelopmental genes. This file lists expression values across multiple fly and human

tissues for 79 *Drosophila* homologs and 150 human genes. Fly expression data (fragments per

kilobase of transcript per million reads, or FPKM) was derived from the FlyAtlas Anatomical

Microarray dataset, and human expression data (transcripts per million reads, or TPM) was

derived from the Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) dataset v.1.2.

1199

1200   **S8 Data (Excel file).** Summary of immunostaining of the larval imaginal wing discs. This file

1201   summarizes changes in apoptosis (27 homologs), cell proliferation (27 homologs), and Wnt,

1202   Hedgehog, and Notch signaling pathway proteins (14 homologs), along with qualitative and

1203   quantitative adult wing phenotypes (as listed in **S3 Data**), for female and male fly homologs.

1204

S9 Data (Excel file). Tissue-specific network connectivity for candidate CNV genes and

signaling pathway genes. This file lists the shortest path lengths between nine candidate CNV

genes and 265 genes within Wnt, Hedgehog, and Notch signaling pathways for heart, kidney,

and brain-specific gene interaction networks, along with the connector genes that are within the

shortest paths. Enriched Gene Ontology (GO) Biological Process, Cellular Component, and

Molecular Function terms for sets of connector genes for each signaling pathway in each tissue-

specific networks are also provided.

1212

1213 **S10 Data (Excel file)**. List of *Drosophila* stocks used for experiments, including stock numbers

1214 and genotypes.

1215

1216 **S11 Data (Excel file).** Statistics for all experimental data. This file shows all statistical

1217 information (sample size, mean/median/standard deviation of datasets, test statistics, p-values,

1218 degrees of freedom, confidence intervals, and Benjamini-Hochberg FDR corrections) for all data.

1219 Statistical information for Kruskal-Wallis test includes factors, degrees of freedom, test statistics,

1220 and post-hoc pairwise Wilcoxon tests with Benjamini-Hochberg correction.

Figure 1

Experimental strategy

Wing-specific driver   **UAS-RNAi**
bx^{MS1096}-GAL4   (79 genes)

Phenotyping of adult wings

Qualitative analysis	**Quantitative analysis**
• Wrinkled wings	• Longitudinal veins
• Ectopic veins	(L2, L3, L4, L5)
• Missing veins	• Crossveins (ACV, PCV)
• Discoloration	• Wing area
• Bristle planar polarity	

Tissue-specific effects

• Compare to ubiquitous knockdown
• Compare to eye-specific knockdown
• Gene expression across multiple tissues
(human and flies)

**Cellular processes and
developmental pathways**

• Cell proliferation
• Apoptosis
• Disruptions in signaling pathways
• Human tissue-specific network analysis
(brain, heart, kidney)

Figure 2

A   Phenotypic analysis of adult wings in *Drosophila*

bx^{MS1096}-*GAL4* control   No phenotype   Mild   Moderate   Severe

B   K-means clustering of qualitative wing data

C   Summary of qualitative and quantitative adult wing phenotypes

Fly homologs	RNAi lines	Qualitative phenotypes					Quantitative phenotypes	
		No pheno.	Mild	Moderate	Severe	Lethal	Wing area	L3 vein length
CNV genes	95	45	21	7	16	6	65	53
Neurodevelopmental genes	41	30	3	3	5	0	24	21
Total	136	75	24	10	21	6	89	74

Figure 3

A Qualitative wing phenotypes of homologs of CNV genes

B Qualitative wing phenotypes of homologs of neurodevelopmental genes

C Representative qualitative phenotypes in the adult wing

Figure 4

A

Representative quantitative phenotypes in the adult wing

Smaller area/L3 vein length

Larger area/L3 vein length

B   L3 vein length for select homologs

1q21.1 | 3q29 | 7q11.23 | 15q11.2 | 15q13.3 | Distal 16p11.2 | 16p11.2 | 17q12 | β-catenin | Core Genes | Microcephaly

Length (μm)

2500 · 2000 · 1500 · 1000

bx^{MS1096}-GAL4 · Igs^{GD1241} · $Fmo-2^{KK109203}$ · $Fsn^{GD11383}$ · $CG6836^{KK112485}$ · $Pak^{KK101874}$ · $Nsun5^{GD17096}$ · $CG2059^{KK108732}$ · $Sra-1^{GD11477\_2}$ · $Trpm^{GD4541\_2}$ · $Sgf29^{GD10067}$ · $Lnk^{KK105731}$ · $CG17841^{KK102573}$ · $r^{KK115768}$ · $CG15309^{KK108714}$ · $CG9150^{GD6560}$ · $CG8204^{KK108466}$ · $Nrx-1^{GD11451\_2}$ · $Pten^{KK109278}$ · $Prosap^{KK101537}$ · $org-1^{KK108197}$ · $kis^{KK100890}$ · asp^{GS1375_1}

C   Wing area for select homologs

1q21.1 | 3q29 | 7q11.23 | 15q11.2 | 15q13.3 | Distal 16p11.2 | 16p11.2 | 16p13.11 | 17q12 | β-catenin | Core genes | Microcephaly

Area (×10⁵ μm²)

20 · 15 · 10 · 5 · 0

bx^{MS1096}-GAL4 · Igs^{GD1241} · $Fmo-2^{KK109203}$ · $Cbp20^{KK109448}$ · $CG8888^{GD3777\_1}$ · $Pak^{KK101874}$ · $LIMK1^{GD9586\_1}$ · $CG2059^{KK108732}$ · $Sra-1^{GD11477\_2}$ · $Trpm^{GD4541\_2}$ · $Atx2^{GD11562}$ · $Lnk^{KK105731}$ · $r^{KK115768}$ · $CG15309^{KK108714}$ · $MRP^{KK101457}$ · $CG9150^{GD6560}$ · $Aatf^{KK100453}$ · $Pten^{KK109278}$ · $Prosap^{KK101537}$ · $org-1^{KK108197}$ · $kis^{KK100890}$ · asp^{GS1375_1} · $Klp61F^{GD4149\_2}$

Figure 5

A Ubiquitous knockdown

B Eye versus wing phenotypes

C Severity of eye versus wing phenotype

D Representative eye and wing images

Figure 6

A   Expression patterns of fly homologs of CNV genes across multiple fly tissues

B   Expression patterns of CNV genes across multiple human tissues

Figure 7

A   Cellular processes in larval wing discs

DAPI   Apoptosis   Cell proliferation

dcp1   pH3

bx^{MS1096}-GAL4

$Aatf^{GD7229}$ — Increased / Decreased

$Pp4$-$19C^{GD9561}$ — Increased / Decreased

$Atx2^{GD11562}$ — Increased / Decreased

Sin^{GD7027} — Increased / Decreased

B   Quantification of apoptotic cells

Wing size defect   Mild   Mod.   Sev.   Lethal

Normalized dcp1 positive cells

bx^{MS1096}_GAL4 (GD), bx^{MS1096}_GAL4 (KK), $CG10465^{KK105756}$ (ns), $Fsn^{GD11383}$ (ns), $Sgf29^{KK107577}$ (*), $Lnk^{KK105731}$ (*), $rl^{KK115768}$ (*), $CG11035^{KK101201}$ (*), Igs^{GD1241} (*), $rk^{KK108009}$ (*), Sra-$1^{GD11477\_2}$ (*), org-$1^{KK108197}$ (*), $CG15309^{KK108714}$ (*), $CG17841^{KK102573}$ (*), Fmo-$2^{KK109203}$ (*), $CG8888^{GD3777\_1}$ (*), $kis^{KK100890}$ (*), $UQCR$-$C2^{GD111238\_1}$ (*), ACC^{CG3482} (ns), $dlg1^{GD4689}$ (ns)

C   Quantification of proliferating cells

Wing size defect   Mild   Mod.   Sev.   Lethal

Normalized pH3 positive cells

bx^{MS1096}_GAL4 (GD), bx^{MS1096}_GAL4 (KK), $Lnk^{KK105731}$ (*), $Sgf29^{KK107577}$ (*), $CG10465^{KK105756}$ (ns), $Fsn^{GD11383}$ (ns), Igs^{GD1241} (*), org-$1^{KK108197}$ (*), Sra-$1^{GD11477\_2}$ (*), $rk^{KK108009}$ (*), $rl^{KK115768}$ (*), $CG11035^{KK101201}$ (*), Fmo-$2^{KK109203}$ (ns), $CG15309^{KK108714}$ (ns), $CG17841^{KK102573}$ (ns), $CG8888^{GD3777\_1}$ (*), Rph^{GD7330} (*), $nudE^{GD15226}$ (ns), $kis^{KK100890}$ (ns), $arm^{KK102545}$ (*), $Cbp20^{KK109448}$ (*), $Atx2^{GD11562}$ (*), $Pp4$-$19C^{GD9561}$ (*), $Aatf^{GD7229}$ (*), $Klp61F^{GD11449\_2}$ (*), $UQCR$-$C2^{GD111238\_1}$ (ns), Sin^{GD7027} (*), ACC^{CG3482} (ns), $dlg1^{GD4689}$ (*)

Figure 8

Disruption of signaling pathways in larval wing discs

Figure 9

A   Human CNV genes interact with Notch signaling pathway genes in multiple tissues

Kidney   *Heart*   *Brain*

● CNV/neurodevelopmental gene   ● Signaling pathway gene   ● Connector gene

B   Average connectivity of CNV genes to genes in signaling pathways

Hedgehog   *Notch*   *Wnt*

C   GO term enrichment for connector genes in tissue-specific networks

Figure 10

CNV region