



35 *Aristotle (384–322 BC), in his Nicomachean Ethics, first conceptualized the widely*  
36 *known Latin phrase “In medio stat virtus” (virtue stands in the middle), defining a virtue as a*  
37 *balance point between a deficiency and an excess of a trait.*

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40 In his informative review, Smucny (2018) describes our study as one of the first  
41 neuroimaging genetics investigations using large databases. Since such large-scale resources are  
42 becoming increasingly available, we are at the beginning of an exciting development, expecting  
43 a steep increase in the number of studies investigating the genetic contributions to brain function  
44 in the coming years. Several large-scale datasets in various age groups are available and  
45 currently being extended, including IMAGEN and PNC used in our study, the Adolescent Brain  
46 Cognitive Development (ABCD) project (<https://abcdstudy.org/scientists-protocol.html>), the UK  
47 Biobank (<http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk>), and the Human Connectome Project (HCP  
48 <https://www.humanconnectome.org>), among others. Large-scale data consortiums focusing on  
49 clinical populations, such as the Alzheimer’s Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI  
50 <http://adni.loni.usc.edu/>), are especially promising with regards to the clinical relevance  
51 emphasized in Smucny’s review. Most of future functional neuroimaging genetics studies are  
52 likely to be performed on resting state functional MRI data. Task-free fMRI is included in most  
53 large-scale neuroimaging protocols, and is more readily comparable across different cohorts  
54 promoting replication across datasets. Resting state data lend themselves easily to exploratory  
55 approaches (Biswal et al., 2010), but by their very nature will focus efforts on intrinsic functional  
56 brain circuits. However, many datasets include fMRI from a few select cognitive tasks,  
57 permitting hypothesis-driven investigations into the genetics of neural activity underlying  
58 specific high-level cognitive processes as exemplified in our study.

59 The core message of Smucny’s review revolves around our observation of an  
60 overdominant effect (aka heterozygote advantage) at the common *CHRNA4* rs1044396 single  
61 nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) (Sadaghiani et al., 2017). We emphatically agree with  
62 Smucny’s focus on this aspect of our study. As progress in the neuroimaging genetics field clips  
63 along, we encourage researchers to include models of non-linear allele contributions in their  
64 investigations. It should be acknowledged that the search for overdominant loci has been largely  
65 overlooked by the scientific community leading to a constant bias towards additive and dominant

66 models in most of the genetic-association studies carried out so far. Indeed, it is typical to model  
67 genetic variation using an additive framework, but the architecture of complex traits is arguably  
68 more complex than the additive model allows (Hemani et al., 2013). Epistatic phenomena have  
69 been frequently neglected in complex trait studies, and only recently has the scientific  
70 community started to investigate gene-gene and gene-environment interactions using efficient  
71 tools able to overcome the computational burden linked to such analyses.

72 Epistasis has been often approached as a genetic phenomenon occurring between  
73 multiple loci, ideally located far apart on the genome, but linked by their functional role.  
74 However, epistasis may occur at a single locus, leading to overdominance, which is central to  
75 processes of heterosis and inbreeding depression (Hemani et al., 2013). Overdominance has been  
76 identified in molecular studies as well (molecular heterosis), both in humans and in animal  
77 models (Comings and MacMurray, 2010; Hemani et al., 2013). In humans, the best-known  
78 examples of overdominance have been described for *HBB* in relation to sickle-cell anemia  
79 (Aidoo et al., 2002), the *KLOTHO* gene (Arking et al., 2005; Dubal et al., 2014) and the *PRPN*  
80 gene (Palmer et al., 1991).

81 Evolutionary genetics and biology provide a strong basis for the existence of heterosis, as  
82 largely demonstrated in agricultural and animal genetics (Birchler et al., 2006; Draghi and  
83 Whitlock, 2015). However, the search for overdominant loci through genome-wide association  
84 studies (GWAS) presents several methodological drawbacks which limit its feasibility,  
85 especially when applied to a case-control study design (e.g. effective departures from Hardy-  
86 Weinberg equilibrium due the presence of selective pressures on heterozygotes; increased  
87 frequency of inbred subjects in one study group; subtle population stratification biases not  
88 captured through the adjustment by principal components).

89 The interpretation of overdominance at the molecular level can be very challenging,  
90 especially for genetic polymorphisms that do not change the coding sequence, such as  
91 synonymous, non-coding, intronic, 5'- and 3'-UTR SNPs. In this scenario, the SNP may alter  
92 gene-expression at the post-transcriptional level, by expanding (or reducing) the range of  
93 binding-sites for transcription factors, or by changing the splice-isoform ratios in a way that  
94 heterozygotes have a molecular advantage over homozygotes [e.g., splicingQTL (Monlong J et  
95 al. 2014)]. At the same time, heterozygotes may display a phenotypical advantage over  
96 homozygotes just because of their intermediate gene-expression level providing them a

97 functional, physiological optimum, as reported in our paper on *CHRNA4* rs1044396 and cingulo-  
98 opercular network activity (Sadaghiani et al., 2017)

99 Overall, we greatly encourage future efforts in the search of overdominant loci, both for  
100 quantitative and qualitative traits, especially because overdominance may occur at SNPs with  
101 very high minor allele frequency (MAF), thus affecting a large portion of the human population  
102 (as exemplified by *CHRNA4* rs1044396). This may help us to better understand the genetic  
103 architecture of common traits, the possible evolutionary pressures acting at a certain locus, and  
104 its underlying biology. The socio-demographic processes that occurred after World-War II have  
105 greatly affected the global population (Bittles and Black, 2010), both at the social and the  
106 biological level, by drastically reducing the level of inbreeding and, conversely, by increasing the  
107 level of ethnic admixture. Heterozygous effects can be profound and warrant substantial further  
108 investigation, especially at the behavioral/neurological level, where we expect most of the  
109 evolutionary pressures will be focused in the coming decades.

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