

1 **What is the meaning of a ‘genomic result’ in the context of pregnancy?**

2

3 Running title:

4 Defining results from genome testing in pregnancy

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26 **Abstract**

27 Prenatal genetic testing and analysis in the past was usually only offered when a
28 particular fetal phenotype was noted or suspected, meaning that filtering and
29 interpretation of genetic variants identified could be anchored in attempts to explain
30 an existing health concern. More recently, advanced genomic testing is increasingly
31 being used in “low-risk” pregnancies, producing information on genotype adrift of the
32 phenotypic data that is often necessary to give it meaning, thus increasing the
33 difficulty in predicting whether and how particular genetic variants might affect future
34 development and health. This presents an increasing challenge to healthcare scientists,
35 clinicians, and parents in deciding what qualities prenatal genotypic variation should
36 have in order to be constructed as a ‘result’. At the same time, such tests are often re
37 requested in order to make binary decisions about whether to continue a pregnancy or
38 not. As a range of professional organisations develop guidelines on the use of
39 advanced genomic testing during pregnancy we highlight the particular difficulties of
40 discovering ambiguous findings such as variants with uncertain clinical significance,
41 susceptibility loci for neurodevelopmental problems and susceptibility to adult-onset
42 diseases and aim to foster international discussions about how decisions around
43 disclosure are made and how uncertainty is communicated.

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46 Key words: prenatal; pregnancy; genomic test; ethics; results

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51 **Introduction**

52 Constructing genomic results in the context of pregnancy is particularly challenging
53 as the data they are developed from often convey rather uncertain information but are
54 nevertheless the substrate for a very binary decision – whether to continue a
55 pregnancy or not. Public discourse around genomic technology tends to portray all
56 genomic information as meaningful. Unsurprisingly, some prospective parents
57 express a wish to know ‘everything’ from prenatal genetic and genomic tests(1). The
58 dichotomy of the decision driven by such findings in pregnancy clashes
59 uncomfortably with the uncertain or probabilistic nature of the information that
60 genomic tests often provide. Recently, advanced genomic testing is increasingly being
61 used in “low-risk” pregnancies(2), producing information on genotype adrift of the
62 phenotypic data that is often necessary to give it meaning, so greatly increasing the
63 difficulty in predicting whether and how particular genetic variants might affect future
64 development and health. This presents a challenge to scientists, clinicians, and parents
65 in deciding what qualities prenatal genotypic variation should have in order to be
66 constructed as a ‘result’.

67

68 **Genomics in a prenatal context**

69 Attempts to predict the future health of a fetus are inevitably coarse. Any pregnancy
70 involves uncertainty: for any pregnancy that continues to term there will be a 2-3%
71 chance that the resultant child will have a ‘birth defect’(3); a 50% chance they will
72 develop cancer at some point in their lifetime(4); a 33% chance they will experience
73 mental health problems(5) and a 25% chance they will die from cardiovascular
74 disease(6).

75

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76 Tests carried out during pregnancy, such as fetal ultrasound, might delineate, say, a
77 structural brain anomaly, but whether this will have any functional consequences may
78 be unclear(7), and the resulting uncertainty or anxiety about effects has the potential
79 to persist for many years after a child is born. Additional investigations may be
80 offered in pursuit of clarity, for example fetal MRI, or genomic testing, but often the
81 future of the fetus will remain opaque(8). Many potential fetal phenotypes will be
82 difficult or impossible to assess in the prenatal period, for example intellectual
83 disability.

84

85 Genomic tests generate a slew of data, and plucking out meaningful results is no
86 simple task. For example, each person has around 100,000 rare genetic variants in
87 their genome(9); most of these will have very little effect on health, but many will
88 appear concerning based on purely hypothetical evidence(10) – genomic tests must go
89 beyond simply delineating where these variants are in order to be useful. This opens
90 up questions as to what qualities genetic variants should have in order be considered
91 meaningful results in the prenatal context, and then whether there is different meaning
92 in pregnancies in which an abnormality is already suspected.

93

94 The challenge of constructing a result from genomic data is not unique to pregnancy,
95 but with limited opportunity to assess phenotype, and curtailed time for decision-
96 making, the prenatal context intensifies the pressure on making decisions regarding
97 which genetic variants to value as clinical results: what nature, magnitude, and
98 certainty of risk might they need to confer? This complexity is reflected in the wide
99 variation in clinical practice between different centres and countries: policy ranges
100 from tending to disclose a wide range of findings, including genetic variants with

101 uncertain or adult-onset impacts(11), to disclosing only variants with well-established,
102 childhood-onset clinical consequences(12, 13). What factors should determine
103 whether and when a particular genomic variant is valued as a meaningful result (e.g.
104 magnitude, and certainty of risk) and who should be involved in these decisions? The
105 landscape to which these questions apply is shifting both as the genetic tests on offer
106 become broader in scope, and as they increasingly detach from being used only in
107 ‘high-risk’ contexts where they sought to explain or clarify existing clinical problems,
108 to being used in ‘low-risk’ pregnancies where there is (at least initially) no clinical
109 concern to explore. Testing in 'low-risk' pregnancies may be offered routinely to all
110 pregnant women if non-invasive genomic testing- that do not have the associated
111 miscarriage risks of older invasive investigations- becomes more accessible through
112 better sensitivity and lower costs.

113

114 **The nuanced nature of genomic results**

115 Currently, the main prenatal investigations are chromosomal-microarray-analysis
116 (CMA), which checks for missing or extra genomic material, and exome-sequencing
117 (ES), which identifies variants in the coding sequence of the genome. CMA is offered
118 as a first-line test in pregnancies with structural anomalies(14), and ES is gradually
119 being offered in pregnancies with structural anomalies and normal CMA (15). Most
120 CMAs and ESs will be ‘normal’, but some will establish comparatively clear-cut
121 diagnoses. As tests interrogate progressively more of the genetic code at ever-higher
122 resolution, they exponentially increase the chance of finding genetic variants with
123 uncertain or unexpected implications(16).

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124 Although uncertain genomic variants have in common the inability to define in
125 pregnancy the exact phenotype of the child once born, there are unique aspects to
126 various types of uncertain information:

127 Variants of uncertain significance

128 Variants of unknown/uncertain clinical significance (VUS) are genetic variations that
129 have conflicting evidence of pathogenicity based on various bioinformatic tools, or no
130 data at all. Obtaining greater phenotypic detail can assist in the interpretation of these
131 variants, yet is often difficult in pregnancy where not all phenotypes can be readily
132 identified (e.g. intellectual disability). Establishing whether a variant is inherited or *de*
133 *novo* may sometimes assist interpretation, yet due to the possibility of variable
134 expression/penetrance, inherited variants cannot automatically be classified as
135 benign(17, 18). In time, with growing evidence, it is likely that the majority of VUS
136 could be classified as pathogenic (playing a part in disease causation) or benign(19).
137 Yet in the context of a current pregnancy, the hope of future clarification cannot help
138 decision-making. Nevertheless, classification might be achieved prior to the next
139 pregnancy, which could be helpful for parents on the one hand, but could be
140 emotionally challenging on the other hand, especially if based on the eventual
141 classification, parents might have made a different decision about their earlier
142 pregnancy.

143 Susceptibility loci

144 Susceptibility loci (SL) are recurrent copy-number-variants (CNVs) identified via
145 CMA with incomplete penetrance and variable phenotype, often associated with
146 neurodevelopmental problems(20). The spectrum of effects of an SL may be well
147 understood, but there is no way to know whether a given fetus will experience any of
148 the difficulties associated. For SL, unlike VUS, uncertainty centres around whether a

149 genetic variation will cause disease in a particular person, rather than whether the
150 variation is associated with disease at all. SL are often inherited from a healthy parent,
151 in which case there would be a 50% chance of similar inheritance in each pregnancy.
152 SL can explain part of the aetiology of the associated disorder(s) but other genetic and
153 non-genetic events are likely required in order for associated clinical features to
154 manifest. The more common SL are those with low penetrance, meaning the majority
155 of individual carrying the SL will never go onto develop associated symptoms(20).
156 Single-nucleotide-variants (SNVs) identified via ES can also be associated with low-
157 penetrance and variable expression inviting us to reflect on at what point penetrance is
158 sufficiently low that it is no longer appropriate to consider an SL/low-penetrance SNV
159 to constitute a prenatal result.

160 *Predisposition to adult-onset conditions*

161 Another challenging finding is a genetic variation associated with risks for adult-onset
162 conditions. For example, finding that a fetus would have an increased risk of breast
163 cancer from the third decade of life onwards(21). In a postnatal setting, professional
164 guidance suggests that children should not usually be tested for adult-onset conditions
165 known in their families until they are old enough to decide for themselves whether
166 they might want this information, even if their parents request it (22). Should fetuses
167 have similar protections against their parents finding out about possible health risks in
168 their far future? Parents may express a strong interest in knowing such information,
169 but what, if any, boundaries should be placed around what it is reasonable for them to
170 know. In addition, what are legitimate responses by the clinical team if parents ask for
171 a termination of the pregnancy based on such findings? For example, how much
172 should clinicians press the point that such findings are rarely absolute and that

173 especially where findings are made in the absence of a family history of the condition,
174 never develop?

175 Genetic tendencies towards adult-onset conditions might of course have been
176 inherited from a parent, so that if such findings in a fetus are constructed as a result,
177 this might allow parents themselves to be made aware of and tested for a health risk at
178 a point in their lives where screening or treatment might be beneficial. Such parents
179 may already be aware of their inheritance, but finding this out will require a form of
180 result construction in the fetus. Arguably, in pregnancies that continue, the fetus as a
181 future person benefits if their genomic test contributes to safeguarding the health of
182 their parents. To what extent should construction of prenatal genomic results be
183 influenced by the timeframe within which identification of a risk is likely to lead to
184 benefit, and to whom should this benefit apply?

185

186 **The changing landscape around prenatal testing**

187 Early prenatal tests sought to determine whether a fetus had inherited a genetic
188 condition that had affected others in the family, for example cystic fibrosis or Tay-
189 Sachs disease, or to check whether unusual features in a pregnancy might be
190 explained by a major chromosomal anomaly. Whilst the results of such tests might
191 leave prospective parents with difficult choices, there was usually a clear clinical
192 indication for the test, and some certainty as to what the results might mean(23). For
193 such pregnancies, genomic testing will aim to give clarity: highly uncertain or
194 tentative genotypic findings may be unhelpful, and vulnerable to being given greater
195 weight than might be warranted from a technical scientific perspective, but the
196 already identified clinical problem provides a lens through which to interpret the
197 genomic data.

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198 Interpretation of genomic data depends heavily on the clinical context (phenotype) in
199 which it is acquired, but this nuance is often missing from public discussions about
200 genetic and genomic tests. Advertising from direct-to-consumer genetic testing
201 companies, and popular discourse around ‘personalised medicine’ and the genomic
202 testing that underlies it, gives a pervasive message that genomic information is
203 routinely clear-cut and useful, and that more data will mean more information, more
204 power, and more choice (24, 25). Such messages are also propagated by stakeholders
205 with less direct commercial interests, for example, ongoing genomics research
206 funding depends on society continuing to view the information it provides as
207 valuable, and worthy of investment.

208

209 It is therefore unsurprising that some prospective parents might see prenatal genomic
210 testing as a way to achieve certainty and/or reassurance as to the future of a
211 pregnancy, regardless of whether there is a clinical problem to explain. In a survey of
212 nearly 2000 adults in the UK, ‘informative’ was the most popular word chosen to
213 describe genome sequencing in healthcare (26).

214

215 The growing availability of genomic testing, together with a very low miscarriage rate
216 from invasive prenatal diagnosis (27-29), result in a demand for genomic tests in
217 uneventful pregnancies (30, 31). With the increasing sensitivity of non-invasive
218 prenatal testing (NIPT) in identifying fetal sub-chromosomal copy number variations
219 (32) and single nucleotide variants (33-35), it is expected that the number of advanced
220 genomic tests done in the context of uneventful pregnancies will continue to escalate.
221 The chances of identifying variants with uncertain clinical significance and/or low-
222 penetrant susceptibility loci in these uneventful pregnancies will often be higher than

223 the chance of identifying variants that would clearly have a severe impact on health in
224 childhood(2).

225

226 Invasive prenatal tests cannot be done without health professional involvement, as
227 specialist equipment and expertise are needed to obtain a sample for testing,
228 embedding an opportunity for parents to discuss their expectations around prenatal
229 testing with a clinician experienced in maternal and fetal medicine prior to undergoing
230 a test. This is set to change with increasing use of “non-invasive” prenatal testing –
231 this only requires a maternal blood sample, which a patient could arrange to have
232 taken and sent away to, for example, a direct-to-consumer genetic testing company,
233 without crossing paths with a specialist. Whilst being able to offer prenatal tests
234 without the risk of miscarriage is something to celebrate, there are risks that their
235 technical safety will lead to people thinking of prenatal testing as ‘risk-free’ and
236 routine. This may mean that more people have prenatal genomic testing without
237 having thought in detail as to whether they truly want to know the information that it
238 might provide, and perhaps without being aware that its outcome may be very
239 uncertain (23,36).

240

241 **Decision-makers in prenatal genomic result construction**

242 Navigating from millions of variants per person to clinical results requires filtering,
243 interpretation and disclosure decisions. Well-established bioinformatic filtering
244 pipelines, and variant interpretation guidelines such as the ACMG criteria(37),
245 perform much of this curation, but in choosing a filtering pipeline, or considering
246 which ACMG criteria apply, scientists and clinicians are already placed in the
247 position of working out what sort of data should potentially be valued as a ‘result’.

248

249 Over the last few decades, medicine has increasingly recognised the importance of
250 involving patients in clinical decision-making, and acknowledging their expertise in
251 terms of judging what way forward would be best in the context of their own lives.
252 Clinical genetics has a long history of aspiring to non-directive counselling(38),
253 where clinicians aim to provide a balanced view of a patient's options, but the patient
254 determines how and whether to act on the information that they have been given.
255 'Binning' models for communicating findings from genomic tests have been
256 advocated as a potential way by which patients can make choices as to what sort of
257 information they might want to know from a test, picking from menus of
258 'preventable', 'high risk' etc(39). However, these choices are often more ambiguous
259 than they might appear – for example different people might mean different things by
260 an 'actionable' finding(40), and might attribute different weight to the same numerical
261 risk(41).

262

263 Capturing subtle differences as to what sort of genomic information parents might
264 value as a result of testing, in such a way that professionals can use this as an
265 unambiguous guide to interpreting their prenatal test, is next to impossible. Expecting
266 deference to parental consent to easily and exclusively resolve any dilemma relating
267 to construction of prenatal genomic results is therefore inappropriate, both relying on
268 and feeding into an overly deterministic perspective on genomics (i.e. unwarranted
269 expectations that genomic variation can be controversially boxed into discrete
270 categories with clear sequelae). Whilst in-depth consent conversations in advance of
271 testing might give health professionals some idea of what a prenatal 'result' might
272 mean for particular parents, even where such conversations have happened,

273 professionals are still left in the position of trying to apply principles discussed in
274 abstract, to the genotypic data actually identified.

275

276 We argue that as part of the consent process for prenatal genomic testing, it is
277 essential to be explicit about the necessary involvement of scientists and clinicians in
278 the process of interpreting data to produce genomic results. This is important both for
279 maintaining trust by explaining why prenatal genomic results might sometimes be
280 different in nature to what parents initially anticipated, and to avoid unfairly
281 positioning parents as wholly carrying the burden of whatever result comes from their
282 prenatal test, whether or not it bears any relation to what they were expecting, because
283 ‘they asked for it’ (42). Perhaps the parental role in construction of genomic results in
284 the prenatal setting could be seen as somewhat analogous to the birth plan a woman
285 might develop regarding delivery – developing preferences, and establishing key
286 information in advance are very important, and sometimes these preferences can then
287 be followed to the letter. However, an evolving or unexpected situation might mean
288 that a different course is more appropriate, and in order to achieve a good outcome,
289 the woman and the professionals involved in her care need to depart from or adapt the
290 original plan.

291

292 **Conclusions**

293 The clinical uncertainty and ambiguity of the information provided by many genomic
294 tests is particularly glaring in the prenatal context. Popular discourse around genomic
295 testing tends to present its results as clear-cut and informative, so many prospective
296 parents may understandably express a wish to know ‘all the information’, and yet be
297 unprepared that this may be uncertain and probabilistic. We highlight that

298 construction of a genomic result in the context of a particular pregnancy is an
299 interpretative process – parental preference may guide and to some extent direct this
300 process, but professionals will sometimes have to make choices as to how best to
301 honour previously expressed parental preferences in situations involving ambiguity.
302 We argue the need to be explicit about this as part of the consent process for prenatal
303 genomic tests – caricaturing prenatal result construction as a simple matter of parental
304 choice does a disservice both to the scientists and clinicians whose expertise is
305 brought to bear in the process, but also to the parents, who may feel they were told
306 they had choices that turned out to be illusory.
307 As prenatal genomic testing expands in technical scope and transitions to being
308 offered in uneventful pregnancies, the need to explore what a prenatal genomic result
309 should encompass, who should be involved in defining this, and how and to what
310 extent parental preferences can meaningfully influence result construction, is
311 becoming more urgent.

312

313 **Conflict of interest**

314 The authors declare no conflict of interest

315

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