

Identification of at-Risk Reproductive Couples via Expanded Carrier Testing at a Commercial Laboratory

Terhaar C^{1*}, Tschirgi ML¹, Warren K¹, Hill-Harfe K¹, Swope B², Latimer R³ and Woods S¹

¹Progenity, Inc, 5230 S. State Rd., Ann Arbor, MI 48108, USA

²Genome Medical, 701 Gateway Blvd. Suite 380, South San Francisco, CA 94080, USA

³Thermo Fischer Scientific, 5350 NE Dawson Creek Dr, Hillsboro, OR 97124, USA

*Corresponding author: Catherine.Terhaar, Email: Catherine.Terhaar@progenity.com.

Received: 30 June 2020; Accepted: 28 September 2020; Published: 30 September 2020

Abstract

Introduction: One of the purposes of genetic carrier testing is to identify individuals and reproductive couples who are at increased risk for having offspring with a heritable genetic disease. Population-based testing is recommended for a handful of disorders, however ethnicity-based and expanded carrier testing approaches are also acceptable strategies. Reproductive couples who are both carriers for an autosomal recessive disease and female patients who are carriers of X-linked diseases are at increased risk for having a child with a heritable genetic disease.

Objective: This research aims to quantify the number of at-risk reproductive couples identified via carrier testing at a commercial laboratory. In addition, this study will report the most commonly identified at-risk diseases.

Materials & Methods: This is a retrospective database review which identified 1,877 known reproductive couples referred for carrier testing at a commercial laboratory. Test results were reviewed, and at-risk couples were quantified. A subset of the cohort was referred from a single practice utilizing a routinely applied expanded carrier testing approach.

Results: Of the 1,877 reproductive couples, 208 (11.1%) were classified as at-risk based on their carrier testing results. Of the 387 reproductive couples referred from a single practice, 75 (19.4%) were at-risk.

Conclusion: As expected, the number of genes examined when pursuing carrier testing affects the chance of identifying at-risk reproductive couples. A protocol routinely applying expanded carrier testing may yield a 19.4% rate of at-risk reproductive couples. Routinely applying expanded carrier testing and partner testing is a best practice for maximizing the identification of at-risk reproductive couples. The quantification of identifying at-risk couples demonstrated by this study may help a referring clinic and potential patients understand the likelihood of identifying reproductive risk via expanded carrier testing.

Keywords: Carrier testing; Expanded carrier testing; Reproductive risk; At-risk reproductive couples

Introduction

The purpose of genetic carrier testing is to detect individuals and reproductive couples who are at increased risk for having offspring with a heritable genetic disease. Every individual is potentially an asymptomatic carrier for approximately 2-3 pathogenic variants associated with autosomal recessive (AR) disease (Bell, 2011) [1].

Reproductive couples who are both carriers for the same AR disease are at increased risk to have offspring affected with the disease, with a 25% chance for every pregnancy initiated (or embryo fertilized). Ideally, at-risk reproductive couples should be identified prior to conception, to maximize reproductive choices (ACOG 690, 2017) [2]. Reproductive counseling explaining options and family planning is essential for at-risk reproductive couples. Preconception identification provides several otherwise unavailable reproductive options, such as in vitro fertilization (IVF) with preimplantation genetic testing for monogenic disease (PGT-M), use of donor gametes, adoption, or forgoing reproduction. Although performing genetic carrier testing in the preconception period allows the couple the widest variety of testing and family planning options, testing may also be incorporated into routine prenatal care during pregnancy (ACOG 690, 2017) [2]. All at-risk pregnancies, regardless of identification pre- or post-conception, have the option of prenatal diagnosis via chorionic villus sampling or amniocentesis. Recent advances in technology also make cell-free DNA screening for inherited monogenic diseases available, depending on the molecular mechanism of the familial variant(s) (Progenity, 2019) [3]. While recommended for all women of childbearing age, carrier testing is optional and voluntary, and some individuals, or their reproductive partners, may decline testing or any intervention after learning of their carrier testing options (ACOG 690, 2017) [3].

It has been well-documented that certain genetic diseases occur more frequently within specific ethnic groups [4-8]. For example, Tay-Sachs disease is more prevalent in the Ashkenazi Jewish population and recognition of this prompted development of the first genetic carrier testing programs (Kabak and Zeiger, 1972) [9]. Since then, an increased prevalence of Tay-Sachs disease has also been recognized in the Irish, French Canadian and Cajun populations (ACOG 442, 2009) [6]. Cystic fibrosis is more common in people with Caucasian and Ashkenazi Jewish ethnicities (ACOG 691, 2017) [7]. Furthermore, hemoglobinopathies (including thalassemias and other alpha/beta globin variants) are more common in the African, Mediterranean, and Asian populations (among other ethnic backgrounds) (ACOG 78, 2007) [8].

Historically, carrier testing has been offered to individuals who fit a high-risk profile. Ethnicity-based guidelines for testing individuals of Ashkenazi Jewish ancestry are published for several diseases common in that lineage [6,10] (ACOG 442, 2009; Gross et al, 2008). Fragile X carrier testing guidelines recommend testing for those with a family history of fragile X-related diseases, autism, and/or intellectual disability (ACOG 691, 2017) [7]. Carrier testing may also be prompted by a positive family history or patient interest. Recommendations for universal carrier testing (irrespective of ethnicity or family history) are currently limited to molecular evaluation for cystic fibrosis and spinal muscular atrophy (SMA), and a complete blood count with red blood cell indices and hemoglobin electrophoresis for hemoglobinopathies and thalassemias (ACOG 691, 2017; ACOG 78, 2007) [7,8].

Despite ethnicity-based testing guidelines, risk to have offspring with a genetic disease is neither limited to certain ethnic populations nor to families with a history of genetic disease (Edwards et al, 2015) [11]. Furthermore, a joint statement by multiple medical society stakeholders in 2015 acknowledged that self-reported ethnicity and family history are often not reliable indicators of which individuals are most appropriate to test (Edwards et al, 2015) [11]. More recently, professional societies have highlighted the potential benefits of expanded testing (ACOG 690, 2017) [2]. Benefits of expanded carrier testing may include reduced need for accurate knowledge of ethnicity; unbiased testing for genetic diseases that are observed across multiple

ethnicities; and improved efficiency by testing multiple diseases in a single test (ACOG 690, 2017) [2]. Additionally, advances in technology now allow for rapid and (relatively) inexpensive testing of many genes simultaneously. Carrier testing may evaluate as many as 300 genes or more in a single test. For these reasons, the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG) acknowledges that ethnicity-based, pan-ethnic, and expanded panels are all acceptable carrier testing strategies, depending on the judgement of the referring health practitioner. Nevertheless, logistical barriers may prevent implementation of expanded testing. These logistical barriers include but are not limited to determining when and how to counsel patients and their partners, and any associated costs for this service; identification of more carriers and associated follow-up; and whether to test couples simultaneously or via stepwise testing [2].

To date, there is limited published data evaluating the impact of expanded carrier testing in clinical practice in order to quantify the at-risk reproductive couples that are identified using different strategies (Capalbo et al., 2019) [12]. Here, we present our clinical experience identifying at-risk reproductive couples following carrier testing as performed at a single clinical laboratory receiving samples from across the United States. The data examined in this study included that from the general referral population (includes referring health providers using various approaches to carrier testing), as well as a subset from the general referral population from a single, high-volume clinic that routinely uses expanded carrier screening. The aim of this study is to quantify at-risk reproductive couples identified in these two cohorts and analyze the diseases for which their offspring are at risk.

Materials and methods

General referral population, representing various carrier testing approaches

The database of the clinical testing laboratory was retrospectively queried for reproductive partners, a provider-reported metric on test requisition forms. This cohort includes referrals by health providers with a variety of approaches to carrier testing. The number of genes tested ranged from 1 to >200 genes. Testing may have also included hemoglobinopathy evaluation (hemoglobin electrophoresis and red blood cell indices), and hexosaminidase A (HexA) enzyme analysis for Tay-Sachs disease. As indicated by the number of genes tested, ordering providers in this cohort may or may not take an expanded carrier testing approach. Timing of testing, including both pre- and post-conception and the logistics of partner testing (concurrent testing vs. stepwise) varied between referring health providers.

A single practice, representing a routinely applied expanded carrier testing approach

This cohort included individuals referred from a single, multi-provider clinic with a well-established protocol where expanded carrier testing is routinely offered to patients. Floating period carrier testing performed for this cohort included molecular evaluation of >200 genes, plus hemoglobinopathy evaluation, and HexA enzyme analysis. Generally, females were offered testing within the first two trimesters of their pregnancies. Testing was offered to the male partner whenever the female tested positive for any autosomal recessive disease. All patients (including male partners) at this practice were offered the same expanded carrier test and male partner testing uptake was tracked.

Analysis of data

Descriptive analysis was performed for ethnicity, test ordered, and results of carrier testing for both cohorts. Of note, the single practice population is a subset of the general referral population, analyzed for the purpose of identifying characteristics unique to a routinely applied expanded testing approach. Reproductive couples were classified as being at risk if both partners were positive for the same autosomal recessive disease or the female partner was positive for an X-linked disease. Results not associated with increased risk for clinically significant disease (intermediate/gray zone results for fragile X syndrome and silent carriers for alpha thalassemia) were excluded.

Ethical consideration

This study was approved by internal review processes in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations and determined to be exempt from IRB review.

Results

General referral population, representing various carrier testing approaches

Demographics: The distribution of self-reported ethnicity is detailed in Table 1. Caucasian/white was the most commonly reported ethnicity (48.9%) followed by Hispanic (18.5%), other or mixed (14.2%), and African American (9.1%).

At-risk reproductive couples: There were 1,877 cases in which both partners had carrier testing, with a total of 3,754 referrals and test results reviewed. Referrals originated from multiple health providers with varying carrier testing protocols. Thus, this cohort was tested for anywhere from a single disease to more than 220 genetic diseases per

Table 1: Self-reported ethnicity for individuals in this study.

| Ethnicity | General referral population Number of individuals (%) | Single practice population Number of individuals (%) |
|------------------|--|---|
| African American | 343 (9.1) | 32 (4.1) |
| Ashkenazi Jewish | 120 (3.2) | 135 (17.4) |
| Asian | 161 (4.3) | 46 (5.9) |
| Caucasian/White | 1834 (48.9) | 310 (40.1) |
| Hispanic | 693 (18.5) | 33 (4.3) |
| N/A | 46 (1.2) | 1 (0.1) |
| Native American | 6 (0.2) | 0 |
| Other or Mixed | 533 (14.2) | 199 (25.6) |
| Sephardic Jewish | 18 (0.5) | 19 (2.5) |
| Total | 3754 | 774 |

sample, depending on the preferences of health practitioner and/or the patient. In 61 cases both partners were negative for all diseases tested. In 1,816 cases (96.8%), at least one partner tested positive (i.e. was a genetic carrier). 208 (11.1%) reproductive couples were classified as at-risk (Figure 1). The designation of at-risk was based on both partners identified as carriers of the same autosomal recessive disorder or the identification that the female partner is a carrier of an X-linked disease. Some couples were at risk for more than one disease. 151 autosomal recessive and 61 X-linked at-risk scenarios were identified. Five couples were possibly at risk due to inconclusive hemoglobin evaluations or indeterminate HexA enzyme analysis. Seven couples were at risk for two diseases, and one additional pair was possibly at risk for two diseases (described below).

Diseases identified: At-risk couples were most often at risk to have affected offspring with the following diseases: hereditary hemochromatosis, HFE-related (HFE) (76/208 cases); glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency (G6PD) (42/208 cases); and cystic fibrosis (CF) (31/208 cases). Additional diseases for which couples were at risk are listed in Table 2. Seven reproductive couples (3.4%) were at risk for two diseases including G6PD and primary congenital glaucoma; G6PD and Charcot-Marie Tooth disease, GJB1-related; CF and HFE; sickle cell disease and G6PD; HFE and Smith-Lemli-Opitz syndrome; and HFE and Tay-Sachs disease.

General referral population

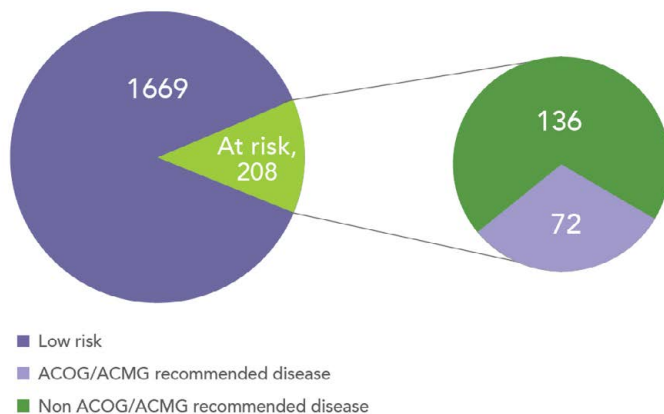


Figure 1: General referral population results. At-risk cases were those where both partners were carriers for the same autosomal recessive disease or where the female partner was a carrier for an X-linked disease. Diseases with an ACOG or ACMG recommendation are cystic fibrosis, spinal muscular atrophy, Fragile X syndrome, thalassemias, hemoglobinopathies, and diseases more commonly found in the Ashkenazi Jewish population.

Table 2: Quantification of at-risk cases and description of the diseases for which their offspring were at risk.

In the general referral population cohort, one additional couple was possibly at risk for alpha thalassemia and four couples were possibly at risk for Tay-Sachs disease due to non-specific variant hemoglobinopathy evaluation and indeterminate Hexosaminidase A enzyme values, respectively.

| Disease | General referral population Identified at-risk couples | Single practice population Identified at-risk couples |
|--|--|---|
| Hereditary hemochromatosis, HFE-related (HFE) | 76 | 16 |
| Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency (G6PD)* | 42 | 33 |
| Cystic Fibrosis (CFTR)† | 31 | - |
| Fragile X (FMR1) * † | 17 | 9 |
| Familial Mediterranean fever (MEFV) | 12 | 9 |
| Spinal muscular atrophy (SMN1)† | 10 | 1 |
| Beta hemoglobinopathy (HBB) | 7 | - |
| Alpha thalassemia (HBA1/HBA2)† | 5 | - |
| Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease, GJB1-related (GJB1)* | 3 | 1 |
| Medium-chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency (ACADM) | 2 | 1 |
| GJB2-related nonsyndromic hearing loss (GJB2) | 2 | 1 |
| Primary congenital glaucoma (CYP1B1) | 2 | 1 |
| Gaucher (GBA)† | 1 | - |
| Congenital disorder of glycosylation, type I (PMM2) | 1 | - |
| Tay-Sachs (HEXA)† | 1 | 1 |
| Methylmalonic aciduria, cblC type (MMAA) | 1 | - |
| Smith-Lemli-Opitz syndrome (DHCR7) | 1 | - |
| Phenylalanine hydroxylase deficiency (PAH) | 1 | 1 |
| Alpha-1 Antitrypsin (SERPINA1) | - | 1 |
| Glycogen Storage Disease type IA (G6PC)† | - | 1 |
| Congenital amegakaryocytic thrombocytopenia (MPL)† | - | 1 |

* denotes X-linked disease.
 † denotes disease with ACOG or ACMG guideline for carrier testing.

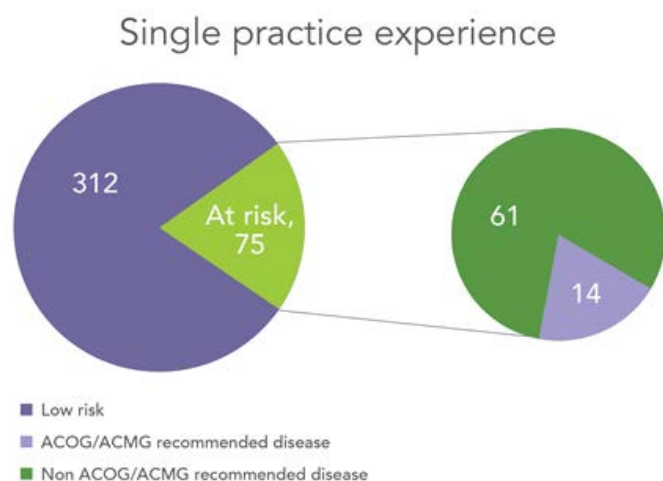


Figure 2: Single Practice results. At-risk cases were both partners were carriers for the same autosomal recessive disease or where the female partner was a carrier for an X-linked disease. Diseases with an ACOG or ACMG recommendation are cystic fibrosis, spinal muscular atrophy, Fragile X syndrome, thalassemias, hemoglobinopathies, and diseases more commonly found in the Ashkenazi Jewish population.

It was also found that 34.6% (72/208) of at-risk cases involved a disease included in published carrier testing recommendations from ACOG and/or the American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics (ACMG) (Figure 1). The remaining 65.4% (136/208) of at-risk cases were at risk for a disease not included in these recommendations.

A single practice, representing a routinely applied expanded carrier testing approach

Demographics: The distribution of self-reported ethnicity is detailed in Table 1. Caucasian/white was the most commonly reported ethnicity (40.1%) followed by other or mixed (25.6%), Ashkenazi Jewish (17.4%), and Asian (5.9%).

At-risk reproductive couples: 1,115 females underwent carrier testing at a single, multi-provider clinic. Of those, 547 (49.1%) tested positive for at least one disease. 387 male partners were subsequently tested, which is a 72.1% uptake in partner testing. 774 test results and orders were reviewed, representing the 387 couples who completed testing. All individuals in this cohort had identical carrier testing which included evaluation for ≥ 200 autosomal recessive and X-linked genetic diseases. 75 reproductive couples (19.4%) were classified as at-risk cases (Figure 2). 35 autosomal recessive and 43 X-linked at-risk scenarios were identified. One couple was at risk for two different autosomal recessive diseases, and two couples were at risk for both an X-linked and an autosomal recessive disease.

Diseases identified: At-risk cases were most often at risk to have affected offspring with the following diseases: G6PD (33/75 cases); HFE (16/75 cases); familial Mediterranean fever (FMF; 9/75 cases); and fragile X syndrome (9/75 cases). Additional diseases for which couples were at risk are listed in Table 2. Two reproductive couples (3.4%) were at risk for two diseases including G6PD and FMF. One pair was at risk for two autosomal recessive diseases (FMF and SMA). 14 (18.7%) at-risk cases involved a disease included in published carrier testing recommendations from ACOG and/or ACMG, while 61 (81.3%) at-risk cases did not involve a recommended disease (Figure 2).

Discussion

Carrier testing approaches

In the general referral population, individuals were tested for one to more than 220 genes. Stepwise testing for the male partner was also commonly observed. A stepwise approach typically involves

testing the female partner first, followed by testing her reproductive partner specifically for any recessive disease(s) she was found to carry. Regardless of the number of genes tested or whether a stepwise (vs. tandem) approach is taken, there is currently no right or wrong way to conduct carrier testing in practice. Ethnicity-based, pan-ethnic, and expanded approaches are all acceptable carrier testing strategies according to ACOG (ACOG 690, 2017) [2].

Diseases identified and demographics

Comparing general referral population data to results of a routine, expanded approach used by a single practice, the diseases identified for at-risk cases showed some similarities and differences. HFE was the most common autosomal recessive disease identified for both cohorts. Diseases that were only identified in the general referral population which used various testing approaches included cystic fibrosis; beta hemoglobinopathies; Gaucher disease; congenital disorder of glycosylation type I; methylmalonic aciduria, cblC type; and Smith-Lemli-Optiz syndrome. Conversely, diseases that were only identified in the single practice population which used an expanded carrier screening approach were alpha-1 antitrypsin deficiency; glycogen storage disease type IA; and congenital amegakaryocytic thrombocytopenia.

Ethnicity breakdown of the cohorts was also markedly different. Ashkenazi Jewish ethnicity was higher in the single practice population (17.4%) vs. general referral population (3.2%). A similar trend was seen for Sephardic Jewish ethnicity (2.5% in the single practice population vs. 0.5% in the general referral population). However, the general referral population included more individuals with African American background (9.1%) compared to the single practice population (4.1%). The general referral population also had more individuals with Hispanic background compared to the single practice cohort (18.5% and 4.3%, respectively). The difference in patient ethnicity profiles affected the diseases identified and positivity rates due to ethnicity-specific carrier frequencies and detection rates.

In order to understand the impact of different carrier testing protocols, it is important to quantify the number of at-risk reproductive couples identified. In the general referral population, 208 at-risk cases were identified, representing 11.1% of couples tested. Alternatively, 75 at-risk cases were identified in the single practice cohort, representing 19.4% of all couples tested. These data suggest that a routinely applied, expanded approach to carrier testing will result in the identification of more at-risk reproductive couples when compared to more selective protocols, as could be expected. Quantification of identified at-risk couples allows healthcare providers to establish accurate expectations around detection and the required infrastructure to support at-risk reproductive couples.

The choice of carrier testing strategy by a referring health practitioner is influenced by medical society guidelines. In the general referral cohort, 72 reproductive couples (34.6% of total at-risk couples) were identified to be at risk for diseases with current ACOG/ACMG recommendations, while the remaining 136 (65.9%) reproductive couples were at risk for diseases not included in the current testing recommendations. Therefore, the majority of at-risk reproductive couples would have been missed, had their testing been limited to diseases included in the current guidelines. With increasing adoption of expanded carrier testing, providers should anticipate and prepare for the counseling needs associated with identifying more at-risk reproductive couples.

This study identified 76 couples at risk for hereditary hemochromatosis and 42 couples at risk for G6PD. While screening for these disorders is clinically available and included on some expanded carrier testing panels, they are associated with mild and sometimes reduced penetrance disease presentations. As expanded carrier panels increase in size and included disorders have varying disease severity, pre- and post-test counseling must address patient concern, or lack of

concern, for reproductive risk for these disorders. As demonstrated in this study, reproductive risk for these two disorders was identified in 56.7% of at-risk couples, therefore healthcare providers can expect to identify these risks often if included on their chosen carrier panel.

Limitations

In this study, identifying reproductive partners relied on the inclusion of this information on the test requisitions. As not all referring healthcare providers provide partner information, it is very likely that reproductive couples were missed in this analysis, particularly with respect to the general referral cohort. Additionally, not all reproductive partners of identified carriers are available for or amenable to carrier testing; thus, more at-risk reproductive couples likely exist that cannot be captured due to lack of follow-up partner testing. As demonstrated by the single practice cohort, 72.1% of male partners were tested when a female patient was identified as a carrier of an autosomal recessive disease or G6PD. While carrier testing is a patient choice, there are implications when an individual declines testing: in this the single practice cohort, 186 patients had unknown reproductive risk due to lack of follow-up partner testing. With an observed at-risk pair rate of up to 19.4%, as many as 36 additional at-risk couples may have been missed in this cohort. 100% compliance with follow-up partner testing, or tandem carrier testing, would be required in order to provide the most accurate reproductive risk information. Five cases had possible reproductive risk identified due to indeterminate HexA enzyme level or variant (non-specific) hemoglobinopathy evaluation. Further genetic testing, such as gene sequencing for one or both individuals, may help clarify reproductive risk for these reproductive couples. All ethnicities were self-reported by the individual being tested and may not reflect their true ethnic background. Extrapolating these findings into clinical practice is difficult as each practice has a unique ethnic mix affecting disease positivity rates.

Future directions for research on identifying reproductive risk via carrier testing may include exploring patient socio-demographics that might influence test uptake including age, socio-economic status, and insurance payer. Additionally, exploring the cost-effectiveness of expanded carrier testing would be helpful in determining disease relevance for future test curation.

Conclusion

This study demonstrates the yield of at-risk reproductive couples identified via expanded carrier testing. The number of genes tested does ultimately affect positivity rate for an individual, and consequently, the chance of identifying at-risk reproductive couples – a core tenet of carrier testing. The data presented here support the benefits of routinely applying expanded carrier testing, including partner testing, as a best practice for maximizing the identification of at-risk reproductive couples. Disadvantages of routinely applying expanded carrier testing must also be considered, including the downstream implications of additional partner testing, potential for increased diagnostic testing for at-risk pregnancies, and/or referrals for reproductive endocrinology for PGT-M. Implementing an expanded carrier testing protocol, including partner testing as often as possible, is an effective way to identify couples that are at risk to have a child with a genetic disorder and allow those couples to make personalized reproductive decisions. Providers should be prepared for the additional genetic counseling and other clinic resources that may be required to support the reproductive choices of these individuals. If a referring clinic is considering moving towards offering expanded carrier screening to their patients, the data presented here may support their patients and staff to make the transition as smoothly as possible.

Contributors List

Jan Traeger-Synodinos, DPhil (Oxon), ErCLG

Jamie Allen

Laura Schuetz

Renee Zolysnky

Katie Townsend

Conflicts of Interest

CT, MLT, KW, KHH, and SW are full time employees of and hold stock in Progenity Inc.

MLT is the Founder and Managing Director of Genetix Consulting, LLC.

RL is a fulltime employee of Thermo Fischer Scientific.

BS is a fulltime employee of Genome Medical.

References

- Bell CJ, Dinwiddie DL, Miller NA, Hateley SL, Ganusova EE, Mudge J, et al. Carrier testing for severe childhood recessive disease by next-generation sequencing. *Sci Transl Med.* 2011; 65:65ra4.
- American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. Committee Opinion No. 690: Carrier Screening in the Age of Genomic Medicine. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2017; 129:e35-e40.
- Progenity Inc. 2019. Available from: <https://www.progenity.com/tests/resura>
- Lazarin GA, Haque IS, Nazareth S, Iori K, Patterson AS, Jacobson JL, et al. An empirical estimate of carrier frequencies for 400+ causal Mendelian variants: results from an ethnically diverse clinical sample of 23,453 individuals. *Genet Med.* 2013; 15:178-186.
- Terhaar C, Teed N, Allen R, Dohany L, Settler C, Holland C, et al. Clinical experience with multigene carrier panels in the reproductive setting. *Prenat Diagn.* 2018; 38:572-577.
- American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. Committee Opinion No. 442: Preconception and prenatal carrier screening for genetic diseases in individuals of Eastern European Jewish descent. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2009; 114:950-953.
- American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. Committee Opinion No. 691: Carrier Screening for Genetic Conditions. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2017; 129:e41-e55.
- American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. Practice Bulletin No. 78: Hemoglobinopathies in pregnancy. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2007; 109:229-37.
- Kaback MM, Zeiger RS. Heterozygote Detection in Tay-Sachs Disease: A Prototype Community Screening Program for the Prevention of Recessive Genetic Disorders. *Adv Exp Med Biol.* 1972; 19:613-632.
- Gross SJ, Pletcher BA, Monaghan KG. Carrier screening in individuals of Ashkenazi Jewish Descent. *Genet in Med.* 2008; 10:54-56.
- Edwards JG, Feldman G, Goldberg J, Gregg AR, Norton ME, Rose NC, et al. Expanded carrier screening in reproductive medicine—points to consider: a joint statement of the American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics, American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists, National Society of Genetic Counselors, Perinatal Quality Foundation, and Society for Maternal-Fetal Medicine. *Obstet Gynecol.* 2015; 125:653-662.
- Capalbo A, Valero RA, Jimenez-Almazan J, Pardo PM, Fabiani M, Jiménez D, et al. Optimizing clinical exome design and parallel genotyping for recessive genetic conditions in preconception carrier screening: Translational research genomic data from 14,125 exomes. *PLoS Genet.* 2019; 15:e1008409.

Supplemental Materials

Diseases and genes included in the 220+ gene panel implemented in the single practice cohort. In addition to these genes, patients also had a hemoglobin evaluation and hexosaminidase A enzyme screen. The general referral population cohort screening included one to all of these diseases depending on provider and patient preference.

| Disease Name | Gene |
|---|---------|
| Achalasia-addisonianism-alacrima syndrome | AAAS |
| Progressive Familial Intrahepatic Cholestasis, Type II | ABCB11 |
| Pseudoxanthoma elasticum | ABCC6 |
| Familial Hyperinsulinism, ABCC8-Related | ABCC8 |
| Adrenoleukodystrophy, X-Linked | ABCD1 |
| Medium-Chain Acyl-CoA Dehydrogenase (MCAD) Deficiency | ACADM |
| Very Long-Chain Acyl-CoA Dehydrogenase Deficiency | ACADVL |
| Beta-ketothiolase Deficiency | ACAT1 |
| Adenosine Deaminase Deficiency | ADA |
| Ehlers-Danlos Syndrome, Type VIIC | ADAMTS2 |
| Aspartylglycosaminuria | AGA |
| Glycogen Storage Disease, Type III | AGL |
| Primary Hyperoxaluria, Type I | AGXT |
| Autoimmune Polyglandular Syndrome, Type 1 | AIRE |
| Sjogren-Larsson Syndrome | ALDH3A2 |
| Hereditary Fructose Intolerance | ALDOB |
| Hypophosphatasia | ALPL |
| Glycine encephalopathy, AMT-related | AMT |
| MEDNIK syndrome | AP1S1 |
| Metachromatic Leukodystrophy, ARSA-Related | ARSA |
| Mucopolysaccharidosis, Type VI (Maroteaux-Lamy) | ARSB |
| Argininosuccinate Aciduria | ASL |
| Canavan Disease | ASPA |
| Citrullinemia, Type I | ASS1 |
| Ataxia-Telangiectasia | ATM |
| Wilson Disease | ATP7B |
| Bardet-Biedl Syndrome, BBS1-Related | BBS1 |
| Bardet-Biedl Syndrome, BBS10-Related | BBS10 |
| Bardet-Biedl Syndrome, BBS12-Related | BBS12 |
| Pseudocholinesterase deficiency | BCHE |
| Maple Syrup Urine Disease, Type 1A | BCKDHA |
| Maple Syrup Urine Disease, Type 1B | BCKDHB |
| GRACILE, Bjornstad Disease, Leigh Disease, c III Deficiency | BCS1L |
| Bloom Syndrome | BLM |
| Bartter Syndrome, Type IV | BSND |
| Biotinidase Deficiency | BTD |
| Desbuquois dysplasia, type I | CANT1 |
| Limb-Girdle Muscular Dystrophy, Type 2A | CAPN3 |
| Homocystinuria, CBS-Related | CBS |
| Usher Syndrome, Type ID | CDH23 |
| Cystic Fibrosis (CF) | CFTR |
| Choroideremia, X-Linked | CHM |
| Neuronal Ceroid Lipofuscinosis, CLN5-Related | CLN5 |
| Neuronal Ceroid Lipofuscinosis, CLN6-Related | CLN6 |
| Neuronal Ceroid Lipofuscinosis, CLN8-Related | CLN8 |
| Usher Syndrome, Type III | CLRN1 |
| Achromatopsia, CNGA3-related | CNGA3 |
| Achromatopsia, CNGB3-Related | CNGB3 |
| Alport Syndrome, COL4A3-Related | COL4A3 |
| Alport Syndrome, COL4A5-Related, X-Linked | COL4A5 |
| Dystrophic Epidermolysis Bullosa, COL7A1-Related | COL7A1 |
| Carnitine Palmitoyltransferase I Deficiency | CPT1A |
| Carnitine Palmitoyltransferase II Deficiency | CPT2 |
| Cystinosis | CTNS |

| | |
|---|----------------|
| Pycnodysostosis | CTSK |
| Corticosterone Methyloxidase Deficiency | CYP11B2 |
| Congenital Adrenal Hyperplasia, 17-Alpha-Hydroxylase Deficiency | CYP17A1 |
| Aromatase Deficiency | CYP19A1 |
| Primary Congenital Glaucoma | CYP1B1 |
| Vitamin D-dependent rickets, type I | CYP27B1 |
| Omenn syndrome/Severe Combined Immunodeficiency, Athabascan type | DCLRE1C |
| Smith-Lemli-Opitz Syndrome | DHCR7 |
| Retinitis Pigmentosa 59 | DHDDS |
| Dyskeratosis congenita, DKC1-related (X-linked) | DKC1 |
| Dihydrolipoamide Dehydrogenase Deficiency | DLD |
| Fetal akinesia deformation/Congenital Myasthenic Syndrome, DOK7-Related | DOK7 |
| Dihydropyrimidine Dehydrogenase Deficiency | DPYD |
| Limb-Girdle Muscular Dystrophy, Type 2B | DYSF |
| Hypohidrotic ectodermal dysplasia, EDAR-related | EDAR |
| Emery-Dreifuss Muscular Dystrophy, X-Linked | EMD |
| Ethylmalonic Encephalopathy | ETHE1 |
| Hemophilia A (X-linked) | F8 |
| Hemophilia B, X-Linked | F9 |
| Tyrosinemia, Type I | FAH |
| Fanconi Anemia, Type A | FANCA |
| Fanconi Anemia, Type C | FANCC |
| Fumarase Deficiency | FH |
| Fukuyama/Walker-Warburg Syndrome, FKTN-Related | FKRP |
| FKTN-related disorders | FKTN |
| Fragile X Syndrome | FMR1 |
| Glycogen Storage Disease, Type Ia | G6PC |
| Glucose-6-Phosphate Dehydrogenase Deficiency, X-Linked | G6PD |
| Glycogen Storage Disease, Type II | GAA |
| Krabbe Disease | GALC |
| Galactokinase Deficiency | GALK1 |
| Hyperphosphatemic familial tumoral calcinosis | GALNT3 |
| Galactosemia | GALT |
| Guanidinoacetate Methyltransferase Deficiency | GAMT |
| Gaucher Disease | GBA |
| Glycogen Storage Disease, Type IV | GBE1 |
| Glutaric Acidemia, Type I | GCDH |
| GDF5-related disorders | GDF5 |
| Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease, GJB1-related (X-linked) | GJB1 |
| Nonsyndromic Hearing Loss and Deafness: GJB2-Related DFNB1 | GJB2 |
| Fabry Disease, X-Linked | GLA |
| GM1 Gangliosidosis | GLB1 |
| Glycine Encephalopathy, GLDC-Related | GLDC |
| Inclusion Body Myopathy 2 | GNE |
| Mucopolipidosis, Type II/III Alpha/Beta | GNPTAB |
| Bilateral Frontoparietal Polymicrogyria | GPR56 (ADGRG1) |
| Primary Hyperoxaluria, Type II | GRHRP |
| Long Chain 3-Hydroxyacyl-CoA Dehydrogenase Deficiency | HADHA |
| Congenital Neutropenia, HAX1-Related | HAX1 |
| Alpha-Thalassemia | HBA1 |
| Alpha-Thalassemia | HBA2 |
| Sickle Cell Disease/Beta-Thalassemia/beta-hemoglobinopathies | HBB |
| Tay-Sachs Disease | HEXA |
| Sandhoff Disease | HEXB |
| Hereditary hemochromatosis, HFE-related | HFE |
| Hereditary hemochromatosis, HFE2-related | HFE2 (HJV) |
| Alkaptonuria | HGD |
| Mucopolysaccharidosis, Type IIIC (Sanfilippo C) | HGSNAT |
| Holocarboxylase Synthetase Deficiency | HLCS |

| | |
|--|---------------|
| 3-Hydroxy-3-Methylglutaryl-CoA Lyase Deficiency | HMGCL |
| Hermansky-Pudlak Syndrome, HPS3-Related | HPS3 |
| 17-beta-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase deficiency, type III | HSD17B3 |
| D-Bifunctional Protein Deficiency | HSD17B4 |
| 3-Beta-Hydroxysteroid Dehydrogenase Deficiency, Type II | HSD3B2 |
| Mucopolysaccharidosis, Type II (Hunter Syndrome), X-Linked | IDS |
| Mucopolysaccharidosis, Type I (Hurler Syndrome) | IDUA |
| Familial Dysautonomia | IKBKAP (ELP1) |
| Severe Combined Immunodeficiency, IL2RG-Related, X-Linked | IL2RG |
| Isovaleric Acidemia | IVD |
| Familial Hyperinsulinism, KCNJ11-Related | KCNJ11 |
| Junctional Epidermolysis Bullosa, LAMB3-Related | LAMB3 |
| Leber Congenital Amaurosis, LCA5-Related | LCA5 |
| Luteinizing hormone resistance | LHCGR |
| Stuve-Wiedemann Syndrome | LIFR |
| Cholesteryl Ester Storage Disease | LIPA |
| Autosomal recessive woolly hair/hypotrichosis | LIPH |
| Lipoprotein Lipase Deficiency | LPL |
| Leigh Syndrome, French-Canadian | LRPPRC |
| Chediak-Higashi syndrome | LYST |
| Alpha-Mannosidosis | MAN2B1 |
| Mucopolipidosis, Type IV | MCOLN1 |
| Familial Mediterranean Fever | MEFV |
| Neuronal Ceroid Lipofuscinosis, MFSD8-Related | MFSD8 |
| Methylmalonic Aciduria, MMAA-Related | MMAA |
| Methylmalonic Aciduria, MMAB-Related | MMAB |
| Methylmalonic Aciduria, Type cblC | MMACHC |
| Congenital Disorder of Glycosylation, Type IB | MPI |
| Congenital Amegakaryocytic Thrombocytopenia | MPL |
| Hepatocerebral Mitochondrial DNA Depletion Syndrome, MPV17-Related | MPV17 |
| Ataxia-telangiectasia-like disorder | MRE11A |
| Myotubular myopathy, MTM1-related (X-linked) | MTM1 |
| Abetalipoproteinemia | MTTP |
| Methylmalonic Aciduria, MUT-Related | MUT |
| Usher Syndrome, Type IB | MYO7A |
| Nijmegen Breakage Syndrome | NBN |
| Nemaline Myopathy 2 | NEB |
| Niemann-Pick Disease, Type CI/D | NPC1 |
| Niemann-Pick Disease, Type CII | NPC2 |
| Nephrotic Syndrome, Type I | NPHS1 |
| Steroid Resistant Nephrotic Syndrome | NPHS2 |
| Enhanced S-Cone Syndrome | NR2E3 |
| 3-Methylglutaconic Aciduria, Type III | OPA3 |
| Ornithine Transcarbamylase Deficiency, X-Linked | OTC |
| Phenylalanine Hydroxylase Deficiency | PAH |
| Propionic Acidemia, PCCA-Related | PCCA |
| Propionic Acidemia, PCCB-Related | PCCB |
| Usher Syndrome, Type IF | PCDH15 |
| Pyruvate Dehydrogenase Deficiency, PDHA1-Related, X-Linked | PDHA1 |
| Pyruvate Dehydrogenase Deficiency, PDHB-Related | PDHB |
| Prolidase deficiency | PEPD |
| Mitochondrial complex IV deficiency | PET100 |
| Zellweger Spectrum Disorders, PEX6-Related | PEX6 |
| Rhizomelic Chondrodysplasia Punctata, Type I | PEX7 |
| Glycogen Storage Disease, Type VII | PFKM |
| 3-Phosphoglycerate Dehydrogenase Deficiency | PHGDH |
| Autosomal Recessive Polycystic Kidney Disease | PKHD1 |
| Congenital Disorder of Glycosylation, Type IA | PMM2 |
| Muscle-Eye-Brain Disease, POMGNT1-Related | POMGNT1 |

| | |
|---|------------------|
| Neuronal Ceroid Lipofuscinosis, PPT1-Related | PPT1 |
| Arts syndrome (X-linked) / Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease, PRPS1-related (X-linked) | PRPS1 |
| Mitochondrial Myopathy and Sideroblastic Anemia | PUS1 |
| Glycogen Storage Disease, Type V | PYGM |
| Carpenter Syndrome | RAB23 |
| Severe combined immunodeficiency, RAG1-related | RAG1 |
| Leber Congenital Amaurosis, RDH12-Related | RDH12 |
| Cartilage-Hair Hypoplasia | RMRP |
| Aicardi-Goutieres syndrome, RNASEH2C-related | RNASEH2C |
| Juvenile Retinoschisis, X-Linked | RS1 |
| Dyskeratosis Congenita, RTEL1-Related | RTEL1 |
| Spastic Ataxia of Charlevoix-Saguenay (ARSACS) | SACS |
| Tumoral calcinosis, normophosphatemic | SAMD9 |
| Aicardi-Goutières Syndrome, SAMHD1-Related | SAMHD1 |
| Shwachman-Diamond syndrome | SBDS |
| Geroderma osteodysplastica | SCYL1BP1 (GORAB) |
| Alpha-1 Antitrypsin Deficiency | SERPINA1 |
| Limb-Girdle Muscular Dystrophy, Type 2D | SGCA |
| Limb-Girdle Muscular Dystrophy, Type 2E | SGCB |
| Gitelman Syndrome | SLC12A3 |
| Andermann Syndrome (Hereditary Motor and Sensory Neuropathy with Agenesis of the Corpus Callosum) | SLC12A6 |
| Salla Disease | SLC17A5 |
| Ornithine Translocase Deficiency/hyperornithinemia hyperammonemia homocitrullinuria | SLC25A15 |
| SLC26A2-Related Skeletal Dysplasias/atelosteogenesis type 2 | SLC26A2 |
| Pendred Syndrome | SLC26A4 |
| Arthrogryposis, mental retardation and seizures | SLC35A3 |
| Glycogen Storage Disease, Type Ib | SLC37A4 |
| Acrodermatitis Enteropathica | SLC39A4 |
| Corneal Dystrophy and Perceptive Deafness Syndrome | SLC4A11 |
| Creatine Transporter Defect, SLC6A8-Related, X-linked | SLC6A8 |
| Spinal Muscular Atrophy (SMA) | SMN1 |
| Spinal Muscular Atrophy (SMA) | SMN2 |
| Niemann-Pick Disease, Type A/B | SMPD1 |
| Amish infantile epilepsy syndrome | ST3GAL5 |
| Congenital Lipoid Adrenal Hyperplasia | STAR |
| Multiple Sulfatase Deficiency | SUMF1 |
| Hereditary Hemochromatosis, TFR2-Related | TFR2 |
| Lamellar Ichthyosis, Type I | TGM1 |
| Joubert Syndrome 2 | TMEM216 |
| Neuronal Ceroid Lipofuscinosis, TPP1-Related | TPP1 |
| Aicardi-Goutieres syndrome, TREX1-related | TREX1 |
| Mulibrey nanism | TRIM37 |
| Early onset myopathy w/ fatal cardiomyopathy | TTN |
| Ataxia with Vitamin E Deficiency | TTPA |
| Crigler-Najjar syndrome | UGT1A1 |
| Usher Syndrome, Type IC | USH1C |
| Pontocerebellar Hypoplasia, VRK1-Related | VRK1 |
| Xeroderma pigmentosum, XPC-related | XPC |
| Spastic paraplegia, ZFYVE26-related | ZFYVE26 |