Lessons Learned from Large-Scale, First-Tier Clinical Exome Sequencing in a Highly Consanguineous Population

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We report the results of clinical exome sequencing (CES) on $>2,200$ previously unpublished Saudi families as a first-tier test. The predominance of autosomal-recessive causes allowed us to make several key observations. We highlight 155 genes that we propose to be recessive, disease-related candidates. We report additional mutational events in 64 previously reported candidates (40 recessive), and these events support their candidacy. We report recessive forms of genes that were previously associated only with dominant disorders and that have phenotypes ranging from consistent with to conspicuously distinct from the known dominant phenotypes. We also report homozygous loss-of-function events that can inform the genetics of complex diseases. We were also able to deduce the likely causal variant in most couples who presented after the loss of one or more children, but we lack samples from those children. Although a similar pattern of mostly recessive causes was observed in the prenatal setting, the higher proportion of loss-of-function events in these cases was notable. The allelic series presented by the wealth of recessive variants greatly expanded the phenotypic expression of the respective genes. We also make important observations about dominant disorders; these observations include the pattern of de novo variants, the identification of 74 candidate dominant, disease-related genes, and the potential confirmation of 21 previously reported candidates. Finally, we describe the influence of a predominantly autosomal-recessive landscape on the clinical utility of rapid sequencing (Flash Exome). Our cohort's genotypic and phenotypic data represent a unique resource that can contribute to improved variant interpretation through data sharing.

Introduction

Consanguinity is an ancient human practice that persists to this day in many parts of the world because of a multitude of incentives. $1,2$ A consanguineous loop renders the genomes of the offspring ''autozygous'' to an extent that correlates with the degree of haplotype sharing between the parents, and this is, in turn, a function of their de-gree of relatedness.^{[3](#page-17-1)} Autozygosity is a rich source of homozygous alleles, the phenotypic expression of which spans the entire spectrum from embryonic lethal to clin-

ically benign or even advantageous. 4.5 Furthermore, the telltale sign of autozygosity, i.e., extended regions of homozygosity delimited by crossing-over events that "shrink" the founder haplotype, is an additional advantage that makes the homozygous alleles of interest readily mappable. 6 It is not surprising, therefore, that Saudi Arabia, which has a consanguinity rate of $>50\%$ and a high fertility rate, represents a unique resource for the study of this phenomenon and for exploring its relevance both to basic human genetics and applied clinical genetics. $2,7$

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Efforts to exploit these unique characteristics have indeed revealed many important observations, not least of which was the discovery of a large number of diseaserelated genes that were almost always recessive. $8-11$ However, those efforts had two key limitations. First, the discovery of disease-related genes has largely been limited to specific phenotypes. Such a selective approach, although helpful in uncovering phenotype-specific variants, is clearly inefficient in achieving the goal of having all disease-related genes identified by 2020 .^{[12](#page-17-6)} Second, the ''phenotype-first'' approach risks missing affected individuals that have not been evaluated by experts in the delineation of that specific phenotype, individuals that have been adequately phenotyped but not enrolled in those phenotype-specific cohorts, and individuals that lack the typical phenotype.

Large-scale sequencing of all individuals with genetic diseases by any clinician who has the clinical suspicion, even if he or she lacks the necessary phenotyping expertise, offers an attractive approach that circumvents the historical limitations outlined above. Such a large scale ''genomics-first'' approach built on a central database was indeed the goal of the Saudi Human Genome Program, in order to exploit the unique characteristics of the Saudi population to the ful-lest extent possible.^{[13](#page-17-7)} However, it became quickly apparent that most clinicians were much more interested in clinical testing than research-based testing of their patients. Therefore, we launched a program of clinical exome sequencing $(CES).¹⁴$ The recent decision by the Ministry of Health to cover the cost of CES as a standard clinical test allowed clinicians from around the country to order this as a first-tier test on any individual with a suspected genetic diagnosis. Combined with the fact that all CES tests were run by a central lab, this presented an unprecedented opportunity to create the most comprehensive view to date of clinically relevant variants across the entire spectrum of genetic diseases in a highly consanguineous population.

Material and Methods

Study Population

Informed consent was obtained from all affected individuals (or their legal guardians) as a strict requirement prior to CES. The

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consent also covered the option to receive or not to receive "secondary findings'' defined as (1) ACMG (American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics) secondary findings¹⁵ and (2) carrier status for a predefined list of ''known Saudi mutations (KSMs).''[16](#page-18-0) Venous blood samples collected in EDTA tubes were collected in the majority of instances for DNA extraction. For prenatal testing, DNA was extracted from chorionic villous or amniotic fluid samples. Where family history was negative, clinicians were encouraged to consider trio CES, although the choice was also given to only request CES on the index individual and then to run a Sanger test of segregation. Similarly, clinicians were given the choice between ordering CES on multiple affected members or to request a Sanger segregation test. For molecular autopsy by proxy (see below), samples were obtained from both parents of the deceased child(ren). Phenotypic data were provided as part of a standard paper form, although clinicians were encouraged to use free text to describe additional useful information. This study was approved by the local institutional review board (IRB) (KFSHRC RAC # 2181266).

Exome Sequencing and Variant Interpretation and Confirmation

For standard CES, we used the same protocol described before. 14 Positional mapping was always incorporated in the pipeline regardless of the family history, as described before.^{[14](#page-17-8)} All indel variants and only single base-pair substitutions that fell below our predetermined quality threshold were confirmed by Sanger sequencing, as described before. 14 We also offered rapid exome sequencing with a turnaround time of $<$ 48 h (Flash Exome) as per the protocol shown in [Figure S1.](#page-17-10) We used the ACMG guidelines for variant interpretation¹⁷ to classify the outcome of CES into three categories:

- (1) Solved: instances of individuals in which we identified pathogenic or likely pathogenic variants that explain the clinical indication in the expected zygosity. In the case of molecular autopsy by proxy for a suspected recessive phenotype in the deceased child(ren), both parents had to have, in the same gene, a pathogenic or likely pathogenic variant that explains the phenotype.
- (2) Ambiguous: these include instances of individuals with (1) a monoallelic pathogenic or likely pathogenic gene variant that explains a recessive phenotype, (2) a variant of unknown significance (VUS) that is in an established disease-related gene and that explains the phenotype, whether or not it is present in the expected zygosity for the disease, or (3) a VUS in a candidate gene. The variants in the latter category were carefully chosen to qualify as much as possible as pathogenic or likely pathogenic if the gene were established in the Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM) database. In addition, only genes with compelling biological candidacy (special emphasis was made on animal models, but other lines of evidence were also pursued) were highlighted.
- (3) Negative: all other instances.

Segregation analysis was strongly encouraged, and we only report variants for which segregation analysis was either consistent with the presumed link to the disease or unavailable; all other variants that failed the segregation test were removed. Founder variants were defined as variants that are observed with a minor

allele frequency $(MAF) > 0$ in the Saudi population or that are present in two affected individuals who are not directly related but share the same haplotype and phenotype.

Results

The Diagnostic Yield of CES As A First-Tier Test Across Genetic Disorders in a Highly Consanguineous Population

A total of 3,310 CES tests were performed on 2,219 families (1,653 solo, 127 duo, 370 trio, 58 quad, and 11 others [five or more]) ([Table S1\)](#page-17-10). The majority (1,653 families) had index-only CES, although 566 families had duo, trio, quad, or other combinations [\(Figure 1](#page-3-0)). The empowerment of clinicians from all specialties to request CES as a first-tier test for individuals with any suspected genetic disease was key to the resulting diversity of clinical indications and ordering specialties [\(Table S1\)](#page-17-10). This is further highlighted by the observation that nearly half of the requested tests were ordered by non-geneticists [\(Figure 1\)](#page-3-0). As shown in [Table S1](#page-17-10) and [Figure 1](#page-3-0), the phenotypes included dysmorphic, neurodevelopmental, neuromuscular, neurodegenerative, cardiac, ophthalmologic, renal, gastrointestinal, dermatologic, audiologic, hematological, surgical, prenatal, and even pharmacogenetic phenotypes. Although we did not include any CES of cancer tissues, several individuals were referred in order to rule out hereditary cancer syndromes [\(Table S1\)](#page-17-10). The overall diagnostic yield of CES based on ''solved'' cases only was 43.3% (961 out of 2,219) [\(Figure 1](#page-3-0)).

The Landscape of Disease-Related Variants in a Highly Consanguineous Population

By only considering the ''solved'' category, we show that autosomal-recessive variants account for the overwhelming majority (742 out of 961, 77.2%) of variants, and they were usually (730 out of 742, 98.4%) homozygous ([Figure 1\)](#page-3-0). Founder variants accounted for 405 (41.3%), and the remaining 575 variants (58.7%) can be considered private. Dominant variants were observed in 20% of the solved instances (192 out of 961), 25% (48 out of 192) of which were proven to be de novo, whereas parental samples were not available for the rest. On the other hand, only 3.9% (37 out of 961) of the instances were X-linked [\(Figure 1\)](#page-3-0). Please note that the number of pathogenic or likely pathogenic variants (980) is larger than the number of solved instances (961) due to the presence of a few multi-locus phenotypes (see below). In total, we add to the literature 378 pathogenic or likely pathogenic variants not previously reported ([Table S1\)](#page-17-10). We also estimate the likelihood of carrier status for a predefined list of known Saudi mutations (KSMs, identified through our prior work on the local population), excluding variants related to the clinical indication, as follows: among the 1,653 simplex cases from this study, 498 individuals (30.1%) carried one KSM, 162 (9.8%) carried two KSMs,

Figure 1. Summary of the Study Cohort Characteristics

- (A) Age distribution.
- (B) Family history.
- (C) Testing strategy.
- (D) Ordering specialty.
- (E) Primary indication (prenatal in this figure includes individuals who presented for testing for carrier status).
- (F) ACMG classification of variants.
- (G) Mendelian patterns of pathogenic and likely pathogenic variants.
- (H) Multi-locus phenotypes.

39 (2.4%) carried three KSMs, 11 (0.7%) carried four KSMs, and one (0.06%) carried five KSMs [\(Figure S2](#page-17-10)). We also tested 1,006 parents and found (excluding the variants that are directly related to the condition in their tested children) that the percentage of parents who carry at least one KSM is 29.4% (19.8% carried one, 7.6% carried two, 1.7% carried three, and 0.3% carried four, which was the highest carrier status observed among parents). Furthermore, we asked whether the low percentage of multi-locus phenotypes in our study (see below) can be explained by the low probability of shared parental carrier status for more than one KSM. Indeed, by specifically interrogating couples, we found that of the 503 parental duos available to us, 49 (9.7%) shared one, and only 13 (2.6%) shared two KSMs, again after excluding the variants that are directly related to the condition in their tested child ([Figure S2](#page-17-10)). No couples shared more than two KSMs. This is consistent with our observation that multi-locus phenotypes (3.1% of solved instances, or 30 out of 961) comprised dual recessive diagnoses in less than half of the cases (13 out of 30) ([Figure 1](#page-3-0) and [Table S3\)](#page-17-10).

High Throughput Discovery of Candidate Genes

[Table S1](#page-17-10) lists 236 genes that have no established OMIM phenotype and that we propose as candidate genes. Not surprisingly, the majority ($n = 155$) are recessive; many of them $(n = 51)$ predict loss of function, then dominant $(n = 74)$, and then X-linked $(n = 7)$. The highest level of confidence is given to 13 genes, which we observed had mutated independently in two families with a similar phenotype [\(Table 1\)](#page-4-0). For example, we have identified two

families affected by non-syndromic intellectual disability, and each segregates a different homozygous truncating variant in $ALKBH8$ (MIM: 613306).^{[18](#page-18-2)} A syndrome of skeletal dysplasia with cerebellar atrophy was similarly identified in two families, each segregating a different homozygous truncating variant in SMPD4 (MIM: 610457) (unpublished data). Abnormal cortical development with associated intellectual disability and epilepsy segregated with a different homozygous truncating variant in TP73 (MIM: 601990) in each of the two affected families. Three families with suspected neuronal ceroid lipofuscinosis-like illness (neurodegeneration with retinal involvement) were found to harbor two different candidate variants in USO1 (MIM: 603344). Other genes found to harbor two different recessive, likely deleterious variants include EIF2A (MIM: 609234), ICE1 (MIM: 617958), IQSEC3 (MIM: 612118), SMG8 (MIM: 613175), and UNC5A (MIM: 607869). Multiple congenital anomalies syndromes were also observed in individuals who harbor independent heterozygous, likely deleterious variants in MOV10 (MIM: 610742) and RASIP1 (MIM: 609623).

The next level of confidence is for genes where the animal model recapitulates the observed human phenotype. For example, the severe, unexplained diarrhea in the child with a truncating variant in MYO1A (MIM: 601478) seems to be recapitulated by Myo1a knockout mice that have se-vere defects in the brush border of their intestine.^{[19](#page-18-3)} The child who has brain malformation and a severe neurological phenotype and harbors a homozygous truncating variant in SCYL2 (MIM: 616365) is another example wherein the candidacy of the gene is strongly supported

Abbreviations are as follows: Hom = homozygous, Het = heterozygous, Hemi = hemizygous, IUGR = intrauterine growth restriction, MRI = magnetic resonance imaging, NCL = neuronal ceroid lipofuscinosis, and GDD = global developmental delay

by the corresponding knockout mouse.^{[20](#page-18-4)} Katnal1 mutant mice display behavioral, cognitive, and structural brain anomalies, which are strikingly similar to those in the individual we report who has a truncating variant in KATNAL1 (MIM: 614764).^{[21](#page-18-5)} Similarly, the neurological phenotype in the child with a homozygous variant in NRDC (MIM: 602651) is sufficiently recapitulated by the $Nrdc^{-/-}$ mouse to support the candidacy of this gene. 22

The third level of evidence was available biological data on the gene of interest. For example, all oral-facial-digital (OFD) syndrome (MIM: 311200)- and Meckel-Gruber syndrome (MIM: 249000)-related genes are known to play a role in ciliary biology. 23 Thus, the homozygous truncations in CCDC96 and CEP29 (MIM: 617728) were attractive candidates, respectively, given their role in ciliogenesis.[24–26](#page-18-8)

In addition, our data provide high throughput ''confirmation'' of 64 genes (40 recessive, 21 dominant, and three X-linked) that have previously been proposed as candidates but are either not yet listed with OMIM phenotypes or have a listing that is based on a single study. These are listed along with the observed and previously reported phenotypes in [Table S2](#page-17-10). Interestingly, several of these genes were proposed as candidates from the same population, i.e., Saudis. These include TBC1D32 (MIM: 615867)-related OFD IX (MIM: 258865 ,^{[27](#page-18-9)} PGAP3 (MIM: 611801)-related Toriello Carey syndrome (MIM: 615716), 28 28 28 LACC1 (MIM:613409)-related arthropathy and Crohn disease (MIM: 266600),^{[29](#page-18-11)} PITX3 (MIM: 602669)-related autosomal-recessive anterior segment dysgenesis and microphthalmia,^{[30](#page-18-12)} PPP1R21 (MIM: 618159)-related intellectual disability, 31 SMG9 (MIM: 613176)-related heart and brain malformation syn-drome,^{[32](#page-18-14)} ARMC9 (MIM: 617622)-related Joubert syndrome (MIM: 617622),^{[33](#page-18-15)} DNAJC17 (MIM: 616844)-related syndrome of retinitis pigmentosa and immunodeficiency, 34 and $CLHC1$ -related myopathy.^{[8](#page-17-5)} Although we have previously reported a homozygous truncating variant in PRKD1 (MIM: 605435) in a family with non-syndromic

truncus arteriosus, 35 OMIM currently only lists this gene in the context of a syndrome of ectodermal dysplasia with congenital heart disease on the basis of de novo, heterozygous missense changes. Here, we show that individual REQ18-1959, who has a different homozygous truncating variant and an associated, non-syndromic, complex congenital heart disease, not only provides confirmation that PRKD1 is indeed associated with recessive, non-syndromic truncus arteriosus but also expands the congenital-heart-disease phenotype associated with this gene. Although the majority of the ''confirmatory'' cases have phenotypes that are similar to those originally reported, some deviate significantly and are worth highlighting. These include TBC1D32 (MIM: 615867)-related holoprosencephaly, NDUFB10 (MIM: 603843)-related non-immune hydrops fetalis, and a lack of liver involvement in two brothers with LARS (MIM: 151350)-related epileptic encephalopathy, microcephaly, and global developmental delay ([Table S2](#page-17-10)).

Identification of Unusual Mutational Mechanisms

The discovery of recessive forms of genes previously associated only with dominant disorders has the potential to unravel interesting mutational mechanisms for the associ-ated phenotypes.^{[36](#page-18-18)} [Table 2](#page-9-0) lists several recessive forms of genes that had only been described in the context of dominant phenotypes. The recessive phenotypes ranged from identical, e.g., for SLC4A10 (MIM: 605556)-related intellectual disability and epilepsy; to earlier onset, e.g., for POU4F3 (MIM: 602460)-related prelingual hearing loss; to more severe, e.g., for PITX3 (MIM: 602669)-related eye malformation and global developmental delay; to completely distinct, e.g., for MYH11 (MIM: 160745) related megacystis, microcolon, and intestinal hypoperistalsis. One remarkably distinct recessive phenotype that is worth highlighting is ATP6V1B2 (MIM: 606939)-related cutis laxa syndrome that is identical to the one we described previously in siblings with a homozygous ATP6V1E1 (MIM: 108746) variant, even though dominant

Abbreviations are as follows: LOF = loss of function, y = yes, Hom = homozygous, Het = heterozygous, Hemi = hemizygous, IUGR = intrauterine growth restriction, ARKPD = autosomal-recessive polycystic kidney disease, VUS = variant of unknown significance, IUFD = intrauterine fetal death, NA = not applicable, $MCDK =$ multicystic dysplastic kidney, and $CMP =$ compound.

^aNegative instances can be found in [Table S7](#page-17-10).

ATP6V1B2 (MIM: 606939) variants are known to cause a distinct phenotype known as Zimmermann-Laband syn-drome 1 (MIM: 135500).^{[37](#page-18-19)} Although parental gonadal mosaicism is known to occur in consanguineous families, $38-40$ the family of first-cousin parents and three children who have classical Rubinstein-Taybi syndrome (MIM: 180849) and share the same truncating variant in CREBBP (MIM: 600140) is a reminder that CES in apparently recessive pedigrees should be carefully reviewed for that possibility. More unusual is the observation of parental gonadal mosaicism in GNAO1 (MIM: 139311) in two families in our cohort who have GNAO1-related epileptic encephalopathy. This increases to three the number of families with gonadal mosaicism for this recently described gene, and only one family had no documented gonadal mosaicism. 41 41 41 De novo point mutations in the context of autosomal-recessive disorders have very rarely been reported. 39 In our cohort, we show that one individual with Joubert syndrome (MIM: 614615) harbored a compound-heterozygous mutation in C5orf42 (MIM: 614615) with one inherited variant, whereas the other has arisen *de novo*, although we cannot rule out paternal gonadal mosaicism. In addition, we show that one infant with cholestatic liver failure harbored a homozygous truncating variant in BAAT (MIM: 602938), a gene that has been implicated in the context of cholestatic liver disease as a potential modifier on the basis of a single missense variant.

Patterns of Mutations in Prenatal Cases

Despite a comparable diagnostic yield in pre- (30 out of 65, 46.2%) and post-natal cases, we note that an even higher percentage of prenatal instances are autosomal recessive (87%), and the majority of these (65.4%) represent homozygous probable loss of function ([Table 3\)](#page-10-0). The severe, and often lethal, prenatal presentation of these loss-of-function events often represents a phenotypic expansion of

the corresponding genes ([Table 3\)](#page-10-0). One example is the homozygous truncating variant of MYO9A (MIM: 604875) in a fetus with severe hydrocephalus that appears to mirror the phenotype observed in $My09$ knockout mice.⁴² This is in contrast to the neuromuscular phenotype observed in the few reported instances of bi-allelic missense variants in this gene. Half of the individuals referred for prenatal genetic counseling (80 out of 162, 49.4%) came from couples with a history of one or more deceased children (or pregnancy losses) for whom no DNA was available for testing. [Table S8](#page-17-10) shows that this approach of ''molecular autopsy by proxy $^{\prime\prime43}$ $^{\prime\prime43}$ $^{\prime\prime43}$ provided a compelling etiology in the majority of instances (45 out of 80, 56.3%). As expected by the nature of this approach, all the variants were recessive. Again, loss-of-function events were common in this sub-cohort that had lethal phenotypes (28 out 45, 62.2%).

Allelic Series and Phenotypic Expansion

[Table 4](#page-13-0) lists instances where the observed phenotypes differ noticeably from those reported in the literature (multi-locus phenotypes have been excluded). A few instances are worth highlighting. We have previously reported an IGFBP7 (MIM: 602867)-related syndrome characterized by retinal artery microaneurysm, supravalvular pulmonic stenosis, and potential liver involvement.^{[44](#page-19-1)} Individual 17-0163 presented with ductal plate malformation with resulting liver cirrhosis, ischemic stroke, and aortic coarctation, features that add to the phenotypic delineation of the syndrome. Phenotypic expansion was not limited to recessive disorders, however, as exemplified by individual 17-4116. This individual harbors a truncating variant in STAT3 (MIM: 102582) (no truncating variants have been reported in this gene to our knowledge), and this might explain the unexpectedly severe brain vascular phenotype in the form of Moyamoya disease. Similarly, the individual with a de novo truncating variant in TCF12 (MIM: 600480)

completely lacks craniosynostosis, although he does have the developmental delay component of TCF12-related craniosynostosis 3.

Human Loss-of-Function Variants in GWAS Signals

The enrichment of our cohort for loss-of-function events allowed us to encounter such events in genes with only genome-wide association study (GWAS) links in the literature. In one consanguineous family of three children with non-syndromic, early-onset $(<5$ yrs) morbid obesity, we identified a homozygous truncating variant in APOBR (MIM: 605220) (GenBank: NM_018690.3:c.1081_1087del: p.Glu361ProfsTer38). The finding of a likely null variant in HEXA (MIM: 606869) in an individual with early-onset Parkinson disease is less clear given the reported association between a carrier status for other lysosomal disorders and this adult-onset neurodegenerative disease.^{[45](#page-19-2)}

Clinical Utility of Flash Whole-Exome Sequencing

Flash whole-exome sequencing (WES) was reserved for instances when timely molecular diagnosis was needed. Typically, these included instances of fetuses approaching the legal cutoff date of termination (18.5 weeks of gestation), instances when a decision to continue or withdraw aggressive measures of life-support was needed for individuals in the neonatal intensive care unit (NICU) and pediatric intensive care unit (PICU), and instances when children required urgent decisions about liver or bone marrow transplantation. Despite the extremely rapid nature of variant interpretation in Flash WES, the overall yield was comparable to regular WES (48.1% versus 43.3%). [Table S10](#page-17-10) summarizes our experience with 54 individuals referred to us for Flash WES with various indications.

Founder Effect

[Table S6](#page-17-10) lists all the founder variants that have been encountered in two or more affected individuals who are not known to be part of the same nuclear family but share the same phenotype and haplotype. Using the broader definition of founder variants (see [Material and Methods](#page-1-24) for details), we found that 41.6% of the pathogenic or likely pathogenic variants qualify as founder variants. Importantly, several of these variants could only be up-

graded to pathogenic or likely pathogenic through this strong segregation. It is noteworthy that the contribution of founder variants to the overall pool of disease-causing variants has increased only slightly compared to our earlier pilot study involving \sim 350 exomes (41.6% versus 32.5%). Indeed, [Table S4](#page-17-10) lists the variants from that study that were reclassified on the basis of new data from this study, and we note that only 12 could be upgraded to likely pathogenic. Several founder variants in [Table S6](#page-17-10) are worth highlighting. For example, we have previously suggested on the basis of much smaller cohorts that the ADAT3 (MIM: 615302) and C12orf57 (MIM: 615140) founder variants are of comparable frequency.¹⁴ However, this cohort clearly shows that ADAT3 is the single most common recessive cause of global developmental delay and intellectual disability in the country, accounting for 20 solved instances compared to 4 solved that were based on C12orf57. We also highlight the power of the founder effect in defining genotype-phenotype correlation for variants that would otherwise be classified as VUSs; for example, ATP6V1B2-related cutis laxa syndrome, which we observed in two ''unrelated'' individuals who have the same syndromic phenotype and share the same missense variant ([Table 2](#page-9-0)).

Secondary Findings

The secondary findings we reported back were of two classes: (1) ACMG-recommended and (2) carrier status for KSMs (see above). The overwhelming majority of cases (1,971 out of 2,219, 88.8%) opted to receive secondary findings in the consent form. Consistent with our previous experience, the percentage of cases with ACMG secondary findings was small ($n = 41$, 2%), and the findings are listed in [Table S5.](#page-17-10) All of these individuals have been referred for full genetic counseling on the basis of published guidelines relevant to their results, and work is underway to characterize the outcome of these referrals. On the other hand, we have identified a very high carrier frequency of Saudi founder mutations; 697 individuals carry one KSM, 238 carry two KSMs, 56 carry three KSMs, and 15 carry four or more KSMs ([Figure S2\)](#page-17-10). We have also extended our analysis to parents and investigated the likelihood for parents to share the carrier status of a founder variant other than the one relevant to the disease in their offspring, i.e.,

unbiased analysis. We found that only 62 of 503 (12.3%) couples fall in this category ([Figure S2](#page-17-10)).

Discussion

Large-scale CES studies have greatly improved our understanding of the human variome and its medical and clinical relevance. These studies, nearly always from outbred populations, have nearly saturated the morbid genome for the recurrently mutated dominant genes that are linked to human phenotypes in the loss-of-function state. 46 Despite their very large size, those studies suffer from the conspicuous underrepresentation of autosomal-recessive, disease-related genes. A very recent analysis of the 6,040 families from the Deciphering Developmental Disorders study estimated the contribution of recessive causes at 3.6% ^{[47](#page-19-4)} Consanguineous populations, on the other hand, possess a much greater power to unmask recessive, disease-causing alleles, and this discrepancy increases exponentially as the allele frequency decreases. 4 For example, a rare recessive allele with a frequency of 0.001 will be observed in homozygosity only once per 1,000,000 individuals in an outbred population (q^2) but once per 41,494 individuals in the Saudi population that has an average inbreeding coefficient of 0.0241 (qF).^{[16](#page-18-0)} Thus, despite the much smaller size compared to the DDD cohort, our cohort revealed a remarkably higher number of autosomal-recessive candidate genes. This large number of candidates, however, raises an interesting question about the rate at which the morbid genome is being saturated for autosomal-recessive, disease-related genes. In a previously reported pilot clinical exome study involving 347 families, a similar percentage of individuals was found to harbor potential autosomal-recessive candidate genes as in this study.¹⁴ It seems unlikely, therefore, that all autosomal-recessive disease genes will have been identified by 2020 as originally proposed by the Interna-tional Rare Diseases Research Consortium (IRDiRC).^{[12](#page-17-6)} Indeed, it seems likely that many additional thousands of affected individuals from consanguineous populations will have to be sequenced, especially in view of two observations made in this study: (1) the high contribution of "private" mutations that showed little decrement as we increased the number of tested individuals from 347 to $>2,200$ families and (2) the small percentage of candidate genes for which we were able to observe independent (confirmatory) mutational events. The central processing of CES was key for an internal ''matchmaking'' that allowed us to identify candidate genes with more than one hit, as well as to confirm founder disease-causing variants that were previously reported as candidates. To this end, we emphasize the tentative candidacy of the genes we propose on the basis of single mutational events, pending future confirmation.

A key advantage of the genomics-first approach taken in this study is made clear by the fact that the overwhelming majority of individuals with solved diagnoses (77.9%) did not carry the correct clinical diagnosis when CES was requested. This is a vivid reminder of the lack of precision in the traditional clinical approach for individuals with suspected genetic diseases and the many missed opportunities for precision clinical management. It is interesting to note that the percentage of individuals that received the correct clinical diagnosis prior to molecular confirmation did not differ significantly ($p = 0.29$) between those evaluated by the genetic experts (18.6%, $n = 547$) and non-geneticists $(23.5\%, n = 409)$. This is consistent with a prior study in which we compared a traditional clinical approach to a genomics-first approach in >300 instances of intellectual disability and/or developmental delay where we found only 16% of affected individuals had received a clinical sus-picion consistent with the molecular finding.^{[11](#page-17-11)} The limited sensitivity of clinical evaluation even by genetic experts probably reflects the established challenge of the extreme heterogeneity of Mendelian disorders. Our finding also challenges the view that genetic experts alone should request CES, because we do not see evidence that such a practice will lead to a significantly higher yield and, consequently, reduce costs. It is relevant to highlight here that our unusual study design, wherein we encouraged a ''genomics-first'' approach to maximize the cost-saving benefit of CES, should be taken into account when comparing our results to other studies in which affected individuals typically undergo a ''reflex'' CES after exhausting a series of other diagnostic tests.

Beyond the high throughput discovery and confirmation of candidate genes, our unique cohort has also provided additional insights. In particular, the high throughput creation of recessive allelic series by virtue of consanguinity loops allowed us to observe important phenotypic aspects previously unknown for the respective genes. The documentation of recessive forms of dominant genes has a significant impact on the interpretation of likely deleterious variants of dominant genes in individuals with no apparent phenotype. The tendency to classify such occurrences as ''incomplete penetrance'' should be carefully balanced by the growing appreciation that these might indeed represent genuinely recessive forms of genes.³⁶ The impact on the calculation of recurrence risk cannot be overemphasized.

We have previously shown that human knockouts can inform GWAS research into complex phenotypes.^{[48](#page-19-5)} One informative example in this study is APOBR. This gene is in the same linkage disequilibrium [LD] block as SH2B1, which has been proposed as the source of the obesity GWAS signal in $16p11.2.^{49,50}$ $16p11.2.^{49,50}$ $16p11.2.^{49,50}$ However, our result suggests that APOBR might have also contributed to the obesity signal. On the other hand, lack of florid dyslipidemia in these affected children suggests that the study of APOBR in the context of complex diseases should focus on obesity rather than dyslipidemia.

The remarkable contribution of autosomal-recessive forms of genes to the disease burden in the study population presents an obvious prevention opportunity. Each of the families that had an identified recessive variant received genetic counseling that explored their future reproductive options, and we have previously shown a very high uptake for such services in the country.^{[10](#page-17-12)} Although private mutations continue to be a significant player, it is encouraging that nearly all the founder variants listed in [Table S6](#page-17-10) have already been identified by our previous studies. This suggests that the time is ripe for the use of these variants in population-based prevention programs, which are currently in development. One advantage of specifically using these high-quality pathogenic variants is the avoidance of uncertainty associated with interpreting variants for which there is no supporting human genetics evidence; these variants can pose a significant challenge to any screening program. Inexpensive genotyping-based assays that cover all of these variants and allow for a regular update as more of these variants are identified in the population will be ideally suited for primary prevention through expanding Saudi Arabia's current premarital carrier-screening program, which is limited to sickle cell disease and thalassemia. One can also envision their use in secondary prevention through early diagnosis by incorporating them into the existing Saudi newborn-screening program.

In conclusion, we report in a highly consanguineous population a large clinical exome study that highlights the power of a genomics-first approach to empower clinicians of all backgrounds to partake in the genomic medicine revolution. We also showcase the potential of consanguineous populations to contribute to the medical annotation of the human genome beyond individual discoveries of disease-related genes. The dataset we share through this publication can be a helpful resource for future clinical genomic studies both in outbred and inbred populations.

Appendix A: List of Candidate Genes Identified in the Study Cohort

Autosomal Recessive

AARSD1 (MIM: 613212), ABCA13 (MIM: 607807), ACBD3 (MIM: 606809), ACOT4 (MIM: 614314), ACSBG1 (MIM: 614362), , AKNA (MIM: 605729), ALKBH8 (MIM: 613306), AP1B1 (MIM: 600157), ATG7 (MIM: 608760), ATRN (MIM: 603130), BCAS3 (MIM: 607470), BECN1 (MIM: 604378), BMP2K (MIM: 617648), BRAP (MIM: 604986), BTNL8 (MIM: 615606), CCDC18, CCDC67 (MIM: 617148), CCDC96, CD34 (MIM: 142230), CEP85, CEP295 (MIM: 617728), CEP131 (MIM: 613479), CFAP46, CFAP221, CHEK1 (MIM: 603078), CMYA5 (MIM: 612193), CNTF (MIM: 118945), COL6A6 (MIM: 616613), CSRP2BP (MIM: 617501), CYB5R4 (MIM: 608343), DCAF15, DEGS1 (MIM: 615843), DERL3 (MIM: 610305), DGKG (MIM: 601854), DIDO1 (MIM: 604140), DMAP1 (MIM: 605077), DMRT2 (MIM: 604935), DMTF1 (MIM:

608491), DNAJA4, DNAJC11 (MIM: 614827), DSCAML1 (MIM: 611782), E2F4 (MIM: 600659), EHBP1L1, EIF2A (MIM: 609234), EIF6 (MIM: 602912), ELFN2, EMSY (MIM: 608574), EPHB6 (MIM: 602757), ERGIC3 (MIM: 616971), FAM69B (MIM: 614543), NCOR2 (MIM: 600848), FAT3 (MIM: 612483), FOSL1 (MIM: 136515), FOXB1, GAD2 (MIM: 138275), GDI2 (MIM: 600767), GLTPD2, GTF2F2 (MIM: 189969), GTF3A (MIM: 600860), HCN2 (MIM: 603781), HSF2 (MIM: 140581), ICE1 (MIM: 617958), IL6ST (MIM: 600694), INADL (MIM: 603199), IQSEC3 (MIM: 612118), ITFG2 (MIM: 617421), ITGA4 (MIM: 192975), KDM5A (MIM: 180202), KDM6B (MIM: 611577), KIAA1024 (MIM: 618054), KIF9 (MIM: 607910), KIF19, KIF13B (MIM: 607350), LAMA5 (MIM: 601033), LETM1 (MIM: 604407), LSR (MIM: 616582), LTBP1 (MIM: 150390), LURAP1 (MIM: 616129), MANEA (MIM: 612327), MAP1B (MIM: 157129), MAP2 (MIM: 157130), MAPK8IP2 (MIM: 607755), MARK1 (MIM: 606511), MCM3 (MIM: 602693), MED18 (MIM: 612384), METTL12 (MIM: 617897), MFN1 (MIM: 608506), MICAL1 (MIM: 607129), MICAL3 (MIM: 608882), MMP10 (MIM: 185260), MTCL1 (MIM: 615766), NAA20 (MIM: 610833), NAIP (MIM: 600355), NRDC (MIM: 602651), NRP1 (MIM: 602069), NUP98 (MIM: 601021), P2RX6 (MIM: 608077), PAK1IP1 (MIM: 607811), PARD3 (MIM: 606745), PARP10 (MIM: 609564), PARP16, PHF14, PIGB (MIM: 604122), PLCH1 (MIM: 612835), PLEKHH2 (MIM: 612723), PLIN5 (MIM: 613248), PLXNA1 (MIM: 601055), PLXNA2 (MIM: 601054), PRSS8 (MIM: 600823), PTPN12 (MIM: 600079), PUS7L, RINT1 (MIM: 610089), SALL3 (MIM: 605079), SCHIP1, SCNN1D (MIM: 601328), SCYL2 (MIM: 616365), SHQ1 (MIM: 613663), SIRPB2 (MIM: 605466), SLC38A3 (MIM: 604437), SLC7A1 (MIM: 104615), SLIT1 (MIM: 603742), SLK (MIM: 616563), SMG8 (MIM: 613175), SMPD4 (MIM: 610457), SOGA1, STXBP3 (MIM: 608339), SUSD2 (MIM: 615825), TAF10 (MIM: 600475), TENM2 (MIM: 610119), THOC3 (MIM: 606929), TIMM8B (MIM: 606659), TMEM130, TMEM17 (MIM: 614950), TMEM212, TNFRSF9 (MIM: 602250), TP73 (MIM: 601990), TTLL10, TTLL6 (MIM: 610849), UGCG (MIM: 602874), UNC13B (MIM: 605836), UNC13C (MIM: 614568), UNC5A (MIM: 607869), USO1 (MIM: 603344), VAT1L, VCAM1 (MIM: 192225), VPS51 (MIM: 615738), WDR6 (MIM: 606031), WDR91 (MIM: 616303), WWTR1 (MIM: 607392), XIRP2 (MIM: 609778), XRCC5 (MIM: 194364), ZMIZ2 (MIM: 611196), ZNF280C, ZNF707, and ZYX (MIM: 602002).

Autosomal Dominant

ACAT2 (MIM: 100678), ACMSD (MIM: 608889), ACO1 (MIM: 100880), AMBRA1 (MIM: 611359), AP2B1 (MIM: 601025), BCL9 (MIM: 602597), BTBD1 (MIM: 608530), CACNA1E (MIM: 601013), CACNA2D1 (MIM: 114204), CDH8 (MIM: 610528), CDH9 (MIM: 609974), CEP89 (MIM: 615470), CHD5 (MIM: 610771), CHD6 (MIM: 616114), CREBRF (MIM: 617109), DLGAP2 (MIM: 605438), DLX1 (MIM: 600029), DSCAM (MIM: 602523), ESCO1 (MIM: 609674), EYA3 (MIM: 601655), FASN (MIM: 600212), FRMD6 (MIM: 614555), FRYL, FYTTD1 (MIM: 616933), FZD9 (MIM: 601766), GLTSCR2 (MIM: 605691), HDAC4 (MIM: 605314), HOXC4 (MIM: 142974), KDM2B (MIM: 609078), KIAA1328 (MIM: 616480), KIF5B (MIM: 602809), KLF4 (MIM: 602253), LRRC4C (MIM: 608817), MGA (MIM: 616061), MOV10 (MIM: 610742), MYO16 (MIM: 615479), MYO18A (MIM: 610067), MYO1A (MIM: 601478), MYO9B (MIM: 602129), MYT1 (MIM: 600379), NAV1 (MIM: 611628), OSBPL9 (MIM: 606737), P2RY13 (MIM: 606380), PLK2 (MIM: 607023), PLPPR3 (MIM: 610391), PML (MIM: 102578), PRKACA (MIM: 601639), PTPN12 (MIM: 600079), RASIP1 (MIM: 609623), RBM14 (MIM: 612409), RNF165, RPTOR (MIM: 607130), SEPT2 (MIM: 601506), SETDB1 (MIM: 604396), SHANK1 (MIM: 604999), SMARCC2 (MIM: 601734), SMG6 (MIM: 610963), SPEN (MIM: 613484), TBXA2R (MIM: 188070), TJP1 (MIM: 601009), TLN1 (MIM: 186745), TNMD (MIM: 300459), TOMM40 (MIM: 608061), TRIM7 (MIM: 609315), TRPV5 (MIM: 606679), UNK (MIM: 616375), USF3 (MIM: 617568), USP33 (MIM: 615146), WWP1 (MIM: 602307), XPNPEP1 (MIM: 602443), XRCC6 (MIM: 152690), ZBED6 (MIM: 613512), ZFHX3 (MIM: 104155), and ZPR1 (MIM: 603901).

X-Linked

CDR1 (MIM: 302650), KLF8 (MIM: 300286), PLXNA3 (MIM: 300022), RBBP7 (MIM: 300825), RPS6KA6 (MIM: 300303), SLITRK4 (MIM: 300562), and SMARCA1 (MIM: 300012).

Supplemental Data

Supplemental Data can be found online at [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2019.04.011) [1016/j.ajhg.2019.04.011.](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajhg.2019.04.011)

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Declaration of Interests

Authors who are affiliated with Saudi Diagnostic Laboratories are paid employees of King Faisal Specialist Hospital International Holding Company.

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Web Resources

OMIM, <http://omim.org/>

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