



Published in final edited form as:

Curr Opin Genet Dev. 2020 December ; 65: 47–52. doi:10.1016/j.gde.2020.05.001.

Long overdue: including adults with brain disorders in precision health initiatives

Brenda M. Finucane¹, Scott M. Myers¹, Christa Lese Martin¹, David H. Ledbetter¹

¹Autism & Developmental Medicine Institute, Geisinger

Abstract

Developmental brain disorders (DBD), including autism spectrum disorder, intellectual disability, and schizophrenia, are clinically-defined and etiologically-heterogeneous conditions with a wide range of outcomes. Rare pathogenic copy number and single nucleotide genomic variants are among the most common known etiologies, with diagnostic yields approaching 50% for some DBD cohorts. Incorporating genetic testing into the care of adult patients with DBD, paired with targeted genetic counseling and family cascade testing, may increase self-advocacy and decrease stigma. In the long-term, breakthroughs in the understanding of DBD pathophysiology will hinge on the identification, engagement, and study of individuals with rare genetic DBD etiologies, consistent with successful precision medicine approaches to the treatment of cancer and cardiovascular disease.

Keywords

developmental; psychiatric; brain disorders; Autism; intellectual disability; global developmental delay; epilepsy; cerebral palsy; schizophrenia; diagnostic genetic testing; genomic screening; precision medicine; population health

Introduction

Developmental brain disorders (DBD), including autism spectrum disorder (ASD), schizophrenia, and intellectual disability, are relatively common, clinically-defined, and etiologically-heterogeneous conditions with a wide range of severity and outcomes [1,2]. Rare copy number (CNVs) and single nucleotide variants (SNVs) that result in loss of gene function are among the most common known etiologies, with numerous reports over several decades linking specific genetic diagnoses to DBD clinical phenotypes [3,4]. Hundreds of distinct genetic etiologies are now known, collectively representing a significant and growing subset of pediatric and adult-onset DBD.

Corresponding author: Brenda Finucane, M.S., L.G.C., Genetic Counselor and Professor, Geisinger, Autism & Developmental Medicine Institute, 120 Hamm Drive, Suite 2A, Lewisburg, Pennsylvania USA.

Publisher's Disclaimer: This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

Evidence suggests that hundreds of different rare genetic disorders converge into a more circumscribed number of shared neurobiological pathways, ultimately leading to an interconnected matrix of brain disorders [1,4]. Many genes and CNVs implicated in the etiology of DBD demonstrate wide phenotypic variability and can manifest as clinically-distinct presentations. Thus, the expression of the same pathogenic variant may take the form of ASD in one person, epilepsy in another, and bipolar disorder in another, even within the same family. Unlike the individually-small effect sizes of common variants that additively contribute to polygenic risk, rare loss-of-function variants have large, primary impacts on neuronal pathways and can be considered causative of brain dysfunction. These large effects are modulated in part by background genomic variation, now being quantified as polygenic risk scores, which may then be further modified by environmental exposures and stochastic developmental variation [1,5]. Given these many secondary influences on primary brain dysfunction, the high degree of variable expressivity of DBD presentations for a single genetic disorder is not surprising.

Consensus recommendations from expert groups and professional societies have been in place for over a decade for clinical genetic testing in children with DBD. These now include exome sequencing (ES) as a first tier-diagnostic test for the evaluation of ASD and developmental delay / intellectual disability [6]. Similar guidelines for adults have been slow to emerge, even as thousands of children with DBD inexorably cross over the threshold into adulthood every year.

Most major insurers in the United States offer coverage for fragile X testing and chromosomal microarray analysis, although many healthcare plans have not yet codified specific policies for next-generation sequencing technologies, such as ES [7]. Those with explicit coverage for DBD-related genetic testing often restrict claims to children. However, at least one health insurer has recently recognized the potential benefits of genetic testing for adults with DBD, lifting the artificial age limit on covering ES for developmental disorders while adding neuropsychiatric disorders, such as schizophrenia, as covered indications [8]. Developmental pediatricians and child neurologists have increasingly become aware of the recommendations for clinical genetic testing, but the same has not been true for adult healthcare providers. Most adults with DBD are not offered diagnostic testing and often live with multiple symptom-based clinical diagnoses without ever knowing the underlying genetic etiologies that may provide unifying explanations for these disparate findings. Here, we describe the rationale for diagnostic genetic testing, along with advances in population DNA screening that may accelerate both the incidental and intentional identification of DBD-related etiologies.

The case for diagnostic genetic testing in adults

Although individually rare, it is well-established that genetic etiologies collectively account for a significant proportion of childhood DBD (Table 1). A specific genetic cause can be determined in a quarter of individuals with ASD and half of those with ID using a combination of clinically-available chromosomal microarray analysis and ES [6,9–15]. Many rare genetic causes of epilepsy involve biological pathways with particular relevance for pharmacological treatment [10]. Pathogenic variants also account for a significant

proportion of cerebral palsy, a disorder once considered almost exclusively due to hypoxic and ischemic perinatal events [11,12]. There are far fewer published surveys of diagnostic testing for conditions such as schizophrenia and bipolar disorder, where the research focus has historically been on identifying common variants through genome-wide association studies rather than on rare variants. Numerous CNVs have been reported in schizophrenia [13–15], including well-described conditions such as the 22q11.2 deletion syndrome [16]. The diagnostic yield of genetic testing in other adult DBD is less clear, but studies using new technologies, including genome sequencing, are ongoing (17,18 – also in this issue of the Journal).

The rationale for pursuing diagnostic genetic testing in pediatric populations is well-accepted, including the establishment of an etiological genetic diagnosis that can direct medical care, as well as the potential healthcare cost savings related to a reduction in the “diagnostic odyssey” [19–21]. Comparatively fewer studies have assessed the clinical utility of genetic testing in adults with DBD. The 22q11.2 deletion syndrome [16], with its complex and variable medical phenotypes and 25% risk for schizophrenia, is often cited to illustrate the value of genetic diagnosis for anticipatory medical guidance through the lifespan. Several other known genetic DBD etiologies include actionable adult-onset manifestations, such as a lifetime cancer risk for individuals with pathogenic *PTEN* variants [22], maturity onset diabetes of the young (*MODY5*) in those with 17q12 microdeletions [23], and renal failure in adults with tuberous sclerosis complex [24]. However, as in pediatric DBD populations, one cannot argue for widespread diagnostic genetic testing solely on the basis of clinical utility, as many genetic etiologies of DBD are non-syndromic with primary effects on cognition and behavior.

Absent medical actionability, there is growing recognition of the broader benefits to patients of learning a genetic cause for their existing symptoms [25,26]. Although genetically-targeted treatments are not yet available for most rare DBD etiologies, genetic diagnosis may open the door to promising clinical trials and expert resources. Knowledge of genomic variants can also inform reproductive decision-making for adults with DBD, and for their relatives who can pursue targeted cascade testing [26,27]. A less tangible benefit, but one with particular relevance to DBD, relates to the psychological utility of understanding the etiology of one’s developmental and psychiatric history. There is often value to “knowing for the sake of knowing” a genetic diagnosis by correcting misconceptions about DBD causes, reducing stigma, and fostering links with etiology-specific support and advocacy groups [25–30]. In our experience disclosing DBD-related genetic test results as part of Geisinger’s MyCode Community Health Initiative, many adults expressed profound relief to finally have a medical explanation for their disabilities [Martin et al., submitted]. As one participant remarked, “It’s one thing to know that psychiatric problems run in families, but it’s another thing to see my actual lab report.”

When one considers the known high rates of behavioral, cognitive, and medical comorbidities among adults with DBD, there has been a striking lack of attention given to diagnostic genetic testing and research in this population as compared to pediatrics [30,31]. The pervasive absence of etiological inquiry for adults with complex DBD contrasts with most other areas of specialty medicine, where the differential work-up of presenting

symptoms is an essential part of clinical practice. In the United States, insurance coverage for “behavioral health” is separated out from “physical medicine,” further punctuating an artificial dichotomy between DBD and other types of medical illness. Accurate diagnostic genetic testing is now widely available for DBD, yet adult healthcare providers have been largely absent in developing guidelines for standards of care that would drive insurance reimbursement. One exception is the International Society of Psychiatric Genetics whose recent guidelines, while conservative, acknowledge the importance of diagnostic testing to rule out rare genetic etiologies [32]. A handful of genomic initiatives, such as those led by Geisinger and the Simons Foundation, are prioritizing the return of DBD-related WES results to research participants (Martin et al., submitted) [33]. Although these promising efforts are moving forward, widespread adoption remains slow and may soon be overtaken by the large volume of genetic DBD etiologies revealed as a by-product of population-based genomic screening.

DBD at the intersection of precision medicine and population health

Advances in the understanding of DBD causation have occurred within the broader context of transformational change in population health, led by genomic medicine [19,34–36]. The cost of genetic testing has dramatically declined over the past decade, allowing health systems and insurers to consider the long-term value of population-based exome and genome sequencing for preventive medicine. At the same time, large commercial genetics laboratories offer billing and shipping services, facilitating sample collection and increasing patient access. In addition, the widespread adoption of electronic health record (EHR) systems has improved the consistency, long-term storage, and portability of patient information [37]. When linked with genomic data from voluntary patient biobanks, EHR findings fuel translational research aimed at achieving precision medicine for human disease.

In oncology and cardiology, successful examples of genomics-enabled research strategies have already emerged. The discovery of widely-prescribed statin drugs was made possible by research initially focused on a rare genetic form of hypercholesterolemia which revealed an underlying pathway with ‘druggable’ biochemical targets [38]. Likewise, the study of specific genetic etiologies of cancer has transformed the practice of oncology over the past decade, dramatically improving outcomes for all cancer patients [39]. Although the brain’s specific circuitry and influence on behavior are far from fully characterized, research on rare genetic etiologies of DBD will pave the way for an improved overall understanding of brain disorders, with and without known genetic causes.

In current clinical practice and research studies, pathogenic DBD-related variants are readily detectable as incidental findings of genomic sequencing, yet guidance is lacking about the circumstances under which such results should be disclosed, if at all, to patients. The American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics (ACMG) has identified a list of 59 medically-actionable genes that should be reviewed in the context of any genome-wide clinical genetic testing, with disease-causing variants returned to patients as secondary findings [40]. These primarily include genes that confer significant risks for cancer and cardiovascular disease, all with associated medical recommendations that have the potential

for early detection and improved health outcomes [40,41]. Two of the results recommended for disclosure, *PTEN* disorders and tuberous sclerosis complex, happen to include neurodevelopmental and psychiatric phenotypes, although their inclusion on the ACMG list relates to their medically actionable non-DBD health risks [22,24]. At least 2% of all clinical genome-wide test results include an ACMG-recommended returnable secondary finding [42–44]. By comparison, DBD-related CNVs alone have been reported in 1% of samples from large unselected population studies, including surveys of the U.K. Biobank [45], deCODE [46], and the population biobank of Estonia [47]. Geisinger’s MyCode® Community Health Initiative, which pairs EHR information with genomic data from its biorepository, currently has ES results from >145,000 research participants, primarily comprised of unselected adults presenting for primary and specialty healthcare [48]. Consistent with other studies, approximately 1% of individuals in MyCode harbors a pathogenic DBD-related CNV (Martin et al., submitted). The prevalence of SNVs is still being determined, but pathogenic DBD SNVs are expected to be more common than CNVs. Despite their clinical relevance and significant personal utility, DBD-related incidental findings are not yet recommended for return, although their estimated prevalence in unselected populations rivals the detection rate of all the ACMG medically-actionable variants combined.

While population health initiatives await the full integration of genomic findings into translational medicine, there are discussions within the genomics community about expanding the scope of returnable secondary findings. This dialogue includes consideration of clinically relevant results which, while not strictly “medically actionable”, have significant personal utility for individuals and families [30]. Given their prevalence and the potential benefits of disclosure, rare DBD-related etiologies should be at the forefront of this discussion. As is currently the practice for all secondary findings, the return of CNVs and other DBD-related results should be optional. This is consistent with public perceptions of genomic test disclosure, which value patient autonomy while prioritizing disease severity, regardless of medical actionability (49). The practice of returning such results is not entirely new, as medical geneticists and genetic counselors have decades of experience revealing unexpected genetic diagnoses secondarily identified through parental testing of children with known DBD etiologies [50]. As with the original ACMG list, additional research and pilot studies will be needed to develop thoughtful disclosure protocols and methods for monitoring patient response [47,51]. Particular attention should be focused on the potential for genetic stigmatization, given the past history of research abuses related to vulnerable DBD populations [52]. Developmental and psychiatric disorders are already among the most highly stigmatizing of all human conditions, not only in western cultures but throughout the world. Based on our experience so far, we anticipate that ‘medicalizing’ DBD by revealing underlying genetic etiologies may paradoxically decrease shame and stigma among individuals with brain disorders.

Conclusion

A growing number of distinct, genetic disorders can now be identified as causative of DBD, allowing healthcare providers to move beyond vague discussions of multifactorial risk to more targeted, medical explanations for brain dysfunction. Combined diagnostic yields of

widely-available genetic tests are approaching 50% for some DBD clinical cohorts, reflecting the important collective impact of rare etiologies. Knowing an underlying genetic cause can inform prognosis and medical care, particularly in pediatric populations. In adults, medicalizing DBD through diagnosis of genetic etiologies, paired with targeted genetic counseling and family cascade testing, may decrease stigma, increase self-advocacy, and lead to closer engagement of these patients with healthcare providers. Incorporating genetic testing into the care of adult DBD patients could ultimately translate into more cost-effective utilization of healthcare resources and improved compliance with treatment recommendations. In the long-term, breakthroughs in the understanding of DBD pathophysiology will hinge on the identification, engagement, and study of individuals with rare genetic DBD etiologies, consistent with successful precision medicine approaches to the treatment of cancer and cardiovascular disease [53]. As next generation sequencing moves out of the genetics clinic and into mainstream medicine, there is strong interest in harnessing its predictive and diagnostic power toward the realization of effective treatments for DBD.

References

1. Moreno-De-Luca A, Myers SM, Challman TD, Moreno-De-Luca D, Evans DW, Ledbetter DH: Developmental brain dysfunction: revival and expansion of old concepts based on new genetic evidence. *Lancet Neurol* 2013, 12:406–414. [PubMed: 23518333]
2. Ismail FY, Shapiro BK: What are neurodevelopmental disorders? *Curr Opin Neurol*, 2019, 32:611–616. [PubMed: 31116115]
3. Clark MM, Stark Z, Farnaes L, Tan TY, White SM, Dimmock D, Kingsmore SF. Meta-analysis of the diagnostic and clinical utility of genome and exome sequencing and chromosomal microarray in children with suspected genetic diseases. *NPJ Genom Med* 2018. doi:10.1038/s41525-018-0053-8
4. Coe BP, Girirajan S, Eichler EE. The genetic variability and commonality of neurodevelopmental disease. *Am J Med Genet CSemin Med Genet* 2012, 160C:118–129.
5. Bergen SE, Ploner A, Howrigan D, CNV Analysis Group and the Schizophrenia Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium, O'Donovan MC, Smoller JW, Sullivan PF, Sebat J, Neale B, Kendler KS. Joint contributions of rare copy number variants and common SNPs to risk for schizophrenia. *Am J Psychiatry* 2019 176:29–35 [PubMed: 30392412]
6. Srivastava S, Love-Nichols J A, Dies KA, Ledbetter DH, Martin CL, Chung WK, Firth HV, Frazier T, Hansen RL, Prock L, et al. Meta-analysis and multidisciplinary consensus statement: exome sequencing is a first-tier clinical diagnostic test for individuals with neurodevelopmental disorders. *Genet Med* 2019 21:2413–2421.** [PubMed: 31182824] ** Based on a meta-analysis of existing studies, the authors conclude that exome sequencing (ES) consistently outperforms chromosomal microarray analysis in terms of diagnostic yield for the etiological evaluation of neurodevelopmental disorders (NDD). They recommend elevating ES to a first-tier clinical test for individuals presenting with autism, ID, and other NDD.
7. Trosman JR, Weldon CB, Slavotinek A, Norton ME, Douglas MP, Phillips KA. Perspectives of US private payers on insurance coverage for pediatric and prenatal exome sequencing: Results of a study from the Program in Prenatal and Pediatric Genomic Sequencing (P3EGS). *Genet Med* 2020 22:283–291. [PubMed: 31501586]
8. Geisinger Health Plan Policy M280, updated 11/2018: <https://www.geisinger.org/-/media/OneGeisinger/Files/Policy-PDFs/MP/251-300/MP280-Whole-Exome-Sequencing.pdf?la=en>
9. Waggoner D, Wain KE, Dubuc AM, Conlin L, Hickey SE, Lamb AN, Martin CL, Morton CC, Rasmussen K, Schuette JL, et al. Yield of additional genetic testing after chromosomal microarray for diagnosis of neurodevelopmental disability and congenital anomalies: a clinical practice resource of the American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics (ACMG). *Genet Med* 2018, 20:1105–1113. [PubMed: 29915380]

10. Sanchez-Fernández I, Loddenkemper T, Gainza-Lein M, Sheidley BR, Poduri A. Diagnostic yield of genetic tests in epilepsy: A meta-analysis and cost-effectiveness study. *Neurology* 2019 92:e418–e428.
11. Matthews AM, Blydt-Hansen I, Al-Jabri B, Andersen J, Tarailo-Graovac M, Price M, Selby K, Demos M, Connolly M, Drogemoller B, et al. Atypical cerebral palsy: genomics analysis enables precision medicine. *Genet Med* 2019 21:1621–1628. [PubMed: 30542205]
12. Corbett MA, van Eyk CL, Webber DL, Bent SJ, Newman M, Harper K, Berry JG, Azmanov DN, Woodward KJ, Gardner AE, et al. Pathogenic copy number variants that affect gene expression contribute to genomic burden in cerebral palsy. *NPJ Genom Med* 2018. doi:10.1038/s41525-018-0073-4
13. Balakrishna T, Curtis D. Assessment of Potential Clinical Role for Exome sequencing in Schizophrenia. *Schizophr Bull* 2020 46:328–335. [PubMed: 31112269]
14. Singh T, Walters JTR, Johnstone M, Curtis D, Suvisaari J, Torniainen M, Rees E, Iyegbe C, Blackwood D, McIntosh AM, et al. The contribution of rare variants to risk of schizophrenia in individuals with and without intellectual disability. *Nat Genet* 2017 49:1167–1173. [PubMed: 28650482]
15. Lowther C, Merico D, Costain G, Wasserman J, Boyd K, Noor A, Speevak M, Stavropoulos DJ, Wei J, Lionel AC, Marshall CR, Scherer SW, Bassett AS. Impact of IQ on the diagnostic yield of chromosomal microarray in a community sample of adults with schizophrenia. *Genome Med* 2017. doi:10.1186/s13073-017-0488-z
16. Gur RE, Bassett AS, McDonald-McGinn DM, Bearden CE, Chow E, Emanuel BS, Owen M, Swillen A, Van den Bree M, Vermeesch J, et al. A neurogenetic model for the study of schizophrenia spectrum disorders: the International 22q11.2 Deletion Syndrome Brain Behavior Consortium. *Mol Psychiatry* 2017 22:1664–1672. [PubMed: 28761081]
17. Lee H, Huang AY, Wang LK, Yoon AJ, Renteria G, Eskin A, Signer RH, Dorrani N, Nieves-Rodriguez S, Wan J, et al. Diagnostic utility of transcriptome sequencing for rare Mendelian diseases. *Genet Med* 2020 22:490–499. [PubMed: 31607746]
18. Lee and Nelson, to be published in same special issue of COGEDE. Draft title: “The frontiers of sequencing in undiagnosed neurodevelopmental disease”
19. Bilkey GA, Burns BL, Coles EP, Bowman FL, Beilby JP, Pachter NS, Baynam G, Dawkins HJS, Nowak KJ, Weeramanthri TS. Genomic Testing for Human Health and Disease Across the Life Cycle: Applications and Ethical, Legal, and Social Challenges. *Front Public Health* 2019. doi:10.3389/fpubh.2019.00040
20. Mollison L, O’Daniel JM, Henderson GE, Berg JS, Skinner D. Parents’ perceptions of personal utility of exome sequencing results. *Genet Med* 2019. doi:10.1038/s41436-019-0730-8.
21. Riggs ER, Wain KE, Riethmaier D, Smith-Packard B, Faucett WA, Hoppman N, Thorland EC, Patel VC, Miller DT. Chromosomal microarray impacts clinical management. *Clin Genet* 2014 85:147–153. [PubMed: 23347240]
22. Yehia L, Seyfi M, Niestroj L-M, Padmanabhan R, Ni Y, Frazier TW, Lai D, Eng C. Copy number variation and clinical outcomes in patients with germline *P TEN* mutations. *JAMA Network Open* 2020. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2019.20415
23. Mitchel MW, Moreno-De-Luca D, Myers SM, Finucane B, Ledbetter DH, Martin CL. 17q12 Recurrent Deletion Syndrome In GeneReviews® [Internet], Edited by Adam MP, Ardinger HH, Pagon RA, et al. University of Washington, Seattle; 2016.
24. Randle SC. Tuberous Sclerosis Complex: A Review. *Pediatr Ann* 2017 46:e166–e171.
25. Mollison L, O’Daniel JM, Henderson GE, Berg JS, Skinner D. Parents’ perceptions of personal utility of exome sequencing results. *Genet Med* 2019. doi:10.1038/s41436-019-0730-8.
26. Matias M, Wusik K, Neilson D, Zhang X, Valencia A, Collins K. Comparison of medical management and genetic counseling options pre- and post-whole exome sequencing for patients with positive and negative results. *J Genet Couns* 2019 28:182–193. [PubMed: 30648779]
27. Finucane B, Myers SM. Genetic counseling for autism spectrum disorder in an evolving theoretical landscape. *Curr Genet Med Rep* 2016 4:147–153. [PubMed: 27570713]
28. Navon D *Mobilizing Mutations: Human Genetics in the Age of Patient Advocacy*. University of Chicago Press; 2019.

29. Hayeems RZ, Babul-Hirji R, Hoang N, Weksberg R, Shuman C. Parents' experience with pediatric microarray: transferrable lessons in the era of genomic counseling. *J Genet Couns* 2016 25:298–304. [PubMed: 26259530]
30. Lázaro-Muñoz G, Farrell MS, Crowley JJ, Filmeyer DM, Shaughnessy RA, Josiassen RC, Sullivan PF. Improved Ethical Guidance for the Return of Results from Psychiatric Genomics Research. *Mol Psychiatry* 2018 23:15–23.** [PubMed: 29158581] ** The authors review current criteria for the return of secondary genomic research findings and propose that DBD-related actionable results should also be disclosed. They further propose consideration of a list of pre-determined clinically relevant genomic results, even if not medically actionable, that help corroborate a psychiatric diagnosis or impact health risks.
31. Sabatello M, Chen Y, Zhang Y, Appelbaum PS. Disability inclusion in precision medicine research: a first national survey. *Genet Med* 2019 21:2319–2327. [PubMed: 30899094]
32. Genetic Testing Committee of the International Society of Psychiatric Genetics (ISPG). Genetic Testing Statement: Genetic Testing and Psychiatric Disorders. ISPG Website 2019 <https://ispg.net/genetic-testing-statement/>
33. Consortium SPARK. SPARK: A US Cohort of 50,000 Families to Accelerate Autism Research. *Neuron* 2018 97:488–493. [PubMed: 29420931]
34. Truncheon DC, Novarino G. Genomics in neurodevelopmental disorders: an avenue to personalized medicine. *Exp Mol Med* 2018. doi:10.1038/s12276-018-0129-7
35. Owusu Obeng A, Fei K, Levy KD, Elsej AR, Pollin TI, Ramirez AH, Weitzel KW, Horowitz CR. Physician-reported benefits and barriers to clinical implementation of genomic medicine: a multi-site IGNITE-Network survey. *J Pers Med* 2018. doi:10.3390/jpm8030024
36. Amendola LM, Berg JS, Horowitz CR, Angelo F, Bensen JT, Biesecker BB, Biesecker LG, Cooper GM, East K, Filipinski K, et al. CSER consortium. The Clinical Sequencing Evidence-Generating Research Consortium: Integrating Genomic Sequencing in Diverse and Medically Underserved Populations. *Am J Hum Genet* 2018 103:319–327. [PubMed: 30193136]
37. Abul-Husn NS, Kenny EE. Personalized medicine and the power of electronic health records. *Cell* 2019 177:58–69. * [PubMed: 30901549] * The widespread adoption of electronic health record (EHR) systems, along with the establishment of EHR-linked population-based biobanks, is fueling research in translational medicine. The authors review developments and opportunities related to EHR-enabled genomics research and the impact on the future of personalized medicine.
38. Endo A A historical perspective on the discovery of statins. *ProcJpn Acad Ser B Phys Biol Sc* 2010 86:484–493.
39. Schwaederle M, Zhao M, Lee JJ, Eggermont AM, Schilsky RL, Mendelsohn J, Lazar V, Kurzrock R. Impact of precision medicine in diverse cancers: A meta-analysis of phase II clinical trials. *J Clin Oncol* 2015 33:3817–3825. [PubMed: 26304871]
40. Kalia SS, Adelman K, Bale SJ, Chung WK, Eng C, Evans JP, Herman GE, Hufnagel SB, Klein TE, Korf BR. Recommendations for reporting of secondary findings in clinical exome and genome sequencing, 2016 update (ACMG SF v2.0): a policy statement of the American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics. *Genet Med* 2017 19:249–255.* [PubMed: 27854360] * In this updated report, the Secondary Findings Maintenance Working Group of the American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics establishes a minimum list of 59 medically actionable genes to be reported as secondary findings of clinical genomics testing. The authors encourage additional research and continued input from the medical community on the impact of returning genomic secondary findings.
41. Webber EM, Hunter JE, Biesecker LG, Buchanan AH, Clarke EV, Currey E, Dagan-Rosenfeld O, Lee K, Lindor NM, Martin CL, et al. ClinGen Resource. Evidence-based assessments of clinical actionability in the context of secondary findings: Updates from ClinGen's Actionability Working Group. *Hum Mutat* 2018 39:1677–1685. [PubMed: 30311382]
42. Haer-Wigman L, van der Schoot V, Feenstra I, Vulto-van Silfhout AT, Gilissen C, Brunner HG, Vissers LELM, Yntema HG. 1 in 38 individuals at risk of a dominant medically actionable disease. *Eur J Hum Genet* 2019 27:325–330. [PubMed: 30291343]
43. Kim J, Luo W, Wang M, Wegman-Ostrosky T, Frone MN, Johnston JJ, Nickerson ML, Rotunno M, Li SA, Achatz MI, et al. Prevalence of pathogenic/likely pathogenic variants in the 24 cancer genes

- of the ACMG Secondary Findings v2.0 list in a large cancer cohort and ethnicity-matched controls. *Genome Med* 2018. doi:10.1186/s13073-018-0607-5
44. Green RC, Goddard KAB, Jarvik GP, Amendola LM, Appelbaum PS, Berg JS, Bernhardt BA, Biesecker LG, Biswas S, Blout CL, et al. Clinical Sequencing Exploratory Research Consortium: accelerating evidence-based practice of genomic medicine. *Am J Hum Genet* 2016 98:1051–1066. [PubMed: 27181682]
 45. Kendall KM, Bracher-Smith M, Fitzpatrick H, Lynham A, Rees E, Escott-Price V, Owen MJ, O'Donovan MC, Walters JTR, Kirov G. Cognitive performance and functional outcomes of carriers of pathogenic copy number variants: analysis of the UK Biobank. *Br J Psychiatry* 2019 214:297–304. * [PubMed: 30767844] * The authors analyzed cognitive performance among individuals with 33 pathogenic copy number variants (CNVs) from over 420,000 participants in the UK Biobank, representing approximately a 1% prevalence of CNVs in this unselected population database. They conclude that DBD-related CNVs are associated with significant cognitive deficits, even among individuals not diagnosed with a clinical disorder.
 46. Stefansson H, Meyer-Lindenberg A, Steinberg S, Magnusdottir B, Morgen K, Arnarsdottir S, Bjornsdottir G, Walters GB, Jonsdottir GA, Doyle OM, et al. CNVs conferring risk of autism or schizophrenia affect cognition in controls. *Nature* 2014 505:361–366. [PubMed: 24352232]
 47. Mannik K, Magi R, Mace A, Cole B, Guyatt A, Shihab HA, Maillard AM, Alavere H, Kolk A, Reigo A. Copy number variations and cognitive phenotypes in unselected populations. *JAMA* 2015 313:2044–2054. [PubMed: 26010633]
 48. Williams MS, Buchanan AH, Davis FD, Faucett WA, Hallquist MLG, Leader JB, Martin CL, McCormick CZ, Meyer MN, Murray MF, et al. Patient-centered precision health in a learning health care system: Geisinger's genomic medicine experience. *Health Aff (Millwood)* 2018 37:757–764. [PubMed: 29733722]
 49. Graves KD, Sinicropo PS, McCormick JB, Zhou Y, Vadaparampil ST, Lindor NM. Public perceptions of disease severity but not actionability correlate with interest in receiving genomic results: nonalignment with current trends in practice. *Public Health Genom* 201518:173–183.
 50. McDonald-McGinn DM, Tonnesen MK, Laufer-Cahana A, Finucane B, Driscoll DA, Emanuel BS, Zackai EH. Phenotype of the 22q11.2 deletion in individuals identified through an affected relative: cast a wide FISHing net! *Genet Med* 2001 3:23–29. [PubMed: 11339373]
 51. Delanne J, Nambot S, Chassagne A, Putois O, Pelissier A, Peyron C, Gautier E, Thevenon J, Cretin E, Bruel AL, et al. Secondary findings from whole-exome/genome sequencing evaluating stakeholder perspectives. A review of the literature. *Eur J Med Genet* 2019. doi:10.1016/j.ejmg.2018.08.010.
 52. Iacono T, Carling-Jenkins R. The human rights context for ethical requirements for involving people with intellectual disability in medical research. *J Intellect Disabil Res* 2012 56:1122–1132. [PubMed: 23106755]
 53. Insel TR, Cuthbert BN. Medicine. Brain disorders? Precisely. *Science* 2015 348:499–500. [PubMed: 25931539]

Table 1.

Diagnostic Yields of Genetic Testing for Developmental Brain Disorders (DBD)

DBD	Chromosomal Microarray*	Exome Sequencing*	Selected Relevant Publications	Comments
ID / Global Developmental Delay	15%	35%	Srivastava et al., 2019[6] Waggoner et al., 2018[9]	Numerous published studies; strong evidence for combined diagnostic yield approaching 50%
ASD	10%	15%	Srivastava et al., 2019[6] Waggoner et al., 2018[9]	Numerous published studies; strong evidence for combined diagnostic yield approaching 25%**
Epilepsy	8%	45% (23% for targeted epilepsy panels)	Sánchez-Fernandez et al., 2019[10]	Wide range of diagnostic yields across study cohorts, depending on epilepsy phenotype and other factors**
Cerebral Palsy	10-31%	14-65%	Matthews et al., 2019[11] Corbett et al., 2018[12]	Relatively small studies with a mix of cohorts selected by motor phenotypes and comorbidities**
Schizophrenia	3-7%	<1% (single study[13])	Balakrishna and Curtis, 2020[13] Singh et al., 2018[14] Lowther et al., 2017[15]	Does not include several published ES studies aimed at gene discovery. The single ES study noted here examined only genes reported for neuropsychiatric phenotypes, possibly excluding other relevant DBD genes**

* averaged across multiple published studies investigating diagnostic yield for each DBD

** The comorbid presence and severity of ID affects yield across all other disorders