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Authors

Sy, Mary

Chauhan, Jaynee

Prescott, Katrina

et al.

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Exome sequencing efficacy and phenotypic expansions involving esophageal atresia/tracheoesophageal fistula plus

A full list of authors and affiliations appears at the end of the article.

Abstract

Esophageal atresia/tracheoesophageal fistula (EA/TEF) is a life-threatening birth defect that often occurs with other major birth defects (EA/TEF+). Despite advances in genetic testing, a molecular diagnosis can only be made in a minority of EA/TEF+ cases. Here, we analyzed clinical exome sequencing data and data from the DECIPHER database to determine the efficacy of exome sequencing in cases of EA/TEF+ and to identify phenotypic expansions involving EA/TEF. Among 67 individuals with EA/TEF+ referred for clinical exome sequencing, a definitive or probable diagnosis was made in 11 cases for an efficacy rate of 16% (11/67). This efficacy rate is significantly lower than that reported for other major birth defects, suggesting that polygenic, multifactorial, epigenetic and/or environmental factors may play a particularly important role in EA/TEF pathogenesis. Our cohort included individuals with pathogenic or likely pathogenic variants that affect *TCF4* and its downstream target *NRXN1*, and *FANCA*, *FANCB*, and *FANCC*, which are associated with Fanconi anemia. These cases, previously published case reports, and comparisons to other EA/TEF genes made using a machine learning algorithm, provide evidence in support of a potential pathogenic role for these genes in the development of EA/TEF.

Keywords

Esophageal atresia; tracheoesophageal fistula; exome sequencing; *TCF4*; *NRXN1*; Fanconi anemia

INTRODUCTION

Esophageal atresia (EA) and tracheoesophageal fistula (TEF) are common, life-threatening birth defects seen in approximately 1:3,500 to 1:4,500 live births (Depaeppe et al., 1993; Lupo et al., 2017). These defects arise from failure of the proximal foregut to properly separate into distinct respiratory (ventral) and gastrointestinal (dorsal) tubes between 28 days and 37 days post-fertilization (Ioannides & Copp, 2009). In the majority of cases, EA and TEF occur together, with isolated EA accounting for approximately 8% of cases, and isolated H-type TEF with no EA accounting for approximately 3% of cases (Scott, 1993). EA/TEF is associated with high rates of mortality, which correlate positively with the

*Correspondence: Daryl A. Scott, R813, One Baylor Plaza, BCM225, Houston, TX 77030, USA, dscott@bcm.edu, Phone: +1 713-203-7242.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST: Baylor College of Medicine (BCM) and Miraca Holdings Inc. have formed a joint venture with shared ownership and governance of Baylor Genetics (BG), which performs genetic testing and derives revenue. The Department of Molecular & Human Genetics at Baylor College of Medicine receives revenue from clinical genetic testing completed at BG.

co-existence of other structural birth defects, and significant morbidity, including the need for multiple hospitalizations and surgeries, feeding intolerance, gastroesophageal reflux, failure to thrive, and recurrent infections (Little et al., 2003; Seo et al., 2010; Sulkowski et al., 2014).

Between 50 and 84% of individuals with EA/TEF have at least one additional congenital anomaly (EA/TEF+) with congenital heart defects (CHD) being particularly common (Cassina et al., 2016; Seo et al., 2010; Sulkowski et al., 2014). A subset of individuals with EA/TEF+ can be described as having VACTERL association, which describes the non-random association of vertebral (V), anal (A), cardiac (C), tracheoesophageal fistula with esophageal atresia (TE), renal (R) and limb (L) anomalies (MIM# 192350). In a subset of cases, a large chromosomal disorder, a microdeletion/microduplication, or a single gene disorder can be identified as the cause (Brosens, de Jong, et al., 2014; Brosens et al., 2016; Felix et al., 2007; Scott, 1993). Common examples include trisomy 18, DiGeorge syndrome (MIM# 188400) caused by recurrent microdeletions of chromosome 22q11.2, and CHARGE syndrome (MIM# 214800) caused by pathogenic variants in *CHD7*. Failure to identify an underlying cause in the majority of EA/TEF cases is likely due to failure to employ optimal genetic testing, limited knowledge about the genes that cause EA/TEF, and/or the role of multifactorial or non-genetic factors in the development of EA/TEF (Brosens, Ploeg, et al., 2014).

Here we analyze a clinical database of ~17,000 exome sequencing test results to determine the diagnostic efficacy of exome sequencing in individuals with EA/TEF+. We then use data from this clinical cohort and individuals cataloged in the DECIPHER database to identify associations between disease-causing genes and EA/TEF+.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ethical approval

This work was approved by the institutional review board of Baylor College of Medicine (protocol H-47546) and was conducted in accordance with the ethical standards of this institution's committee on human research and international standards.

Database analysis and clinical review

We searched coded information from a clinical database of ~17,000 individuals who were referred to Baylor Genetics for exome sequencing to identify individuals with EA/TEF+ based on the phenotypes included in their test indications (Supplemental Table S1). Individuals for whom a molecular diagnosis was made using array-based copy number variant detection assays or other genetic tests were not included in this study. Data for this cohort did not contain information on whether exome sequencing was performed on a proband, duo, or trio basis. Among the 18 individuals in which a molecular finding was reported, inheritance data suggests that no parental samples were submitted for two subjects, at least one parental sample was submitted for five subjects, and both parental samples were submitted for 11 subjects. One individual in the cohort with TEF had a sister with TEF, and

the cohort included two brothers, both of whom had TEF. None of these individuals had a molecular finding reported on their exome sequencing report.

We also searched for individuals with EA/TEF who carried sequence variants, or rare, small (< 2 Mb, and containing 1–20 protein-coding genes) copy number variants cataloged in the DECIPHER database (Firth et al., 2009). Contact was made with each of the submitting centers who then approved the publication of their patient's clinical and molecular data (Supplemental Table S2 and S3). Subject S32 is part of the Deciphering Developmental Disorders (DDD) Study. Subjects S35 and S45 were previously published by Mattioli et al. and Umana et al, respectively (Mattioli et al., 2017; Umana et al., 2011).

Variants reported by Baylor Genetics to be potentially related to the clinical phenotypes listed in the indication for ES testing, and sequence variants reported in DECIPHER, were reanalyzed and classified as pathogenic, likely pathogenic, or variants of uncertain significance (VUS) based on American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics (ACMG) standards for variant interpretation using the most current data available (Richards et al., 2015). Each potential diagnosis was then designated as definitive, probable, or provisional based on previously published criteria set forth by Scott et al. (Tiana M Scott et al., 2021). These criteria take into account the ACMG classification of the variant(s), the inheritance pattern within the family, variant configuration (cis vs. trans), the sex of the proband, and the overlap between the phenotypes listed in the indication and phenotypes previously shown to be associated with disorders caused by the affected gene.

Calculating diagnostic efficacy

The number of EA/TEF+ cases with a definitive or probable molecular diagnosis was divided by the total number of cases to determine the efficacy rate. This process was then repeated for the subset of EA/TEF+ cases in which CHD was also included in the indication, and the subset of EA/TEF+ cases in which the criteria for VACTERL association were fulfilled (at least two defining phenotypes in addition to EA/TEF) based on the phenotypes listed in the indication.

Literature and database searches

Genes affected by putatively deleterious variants that have not been clearly associated with the development of EA/TEF, were designated as EA/TEF candidate genes. We subsequently searched the literature for reports in which each candidate gene, and/or their associated genetic disorder(s), were mentioned in conjunction with EA and/or TEF. We also searched the Mouse Genome Informatics database (MGI; <http://www.informatics.jax.org/>) to determine if EA and/or TEF were identified in mice bearing deleterious alleles in the mouse homologs of these candidate genes (Blake et al., 2011).

Machine learning

We have previously developed a machine learning algorithm that integrates knowledge from genome-scale data sources including Gene Ontology (GO), the Mouse Genome Database (MGI), the Protein Interaction Network Analysis (PINA) platform, the GeneAtlas expression distribution, and transcription factor binding and epigenetic histone modifications data from

NIH Roadmap Epigenomics Mapping Consortium, to rank genes based on their similarity to a set of training genes known to cause a phenotype of interest (Callaway et al., 2018; Campbell et al., 2013; Tiana M Scott et al., 2021). Briefly, the method is a supervised analysis procedure that employs the input training set of known disease genes to construct a pattern in genomic feature space and ranks genes with respect to their similarity to the training set using quantitative similarity metrics. For protein-protein interactions, the method considers the number of paths from the protein encoded by a target gene to the proteins encoded by the training genes using proteome-wide protein interaction network data (Campbell et al., 2014), and then compares these path counts to a genome wide distribution. For the other knowledge sources, a centroid is created by the mean characteristics of the training set, be they annotations or tissue expression patterns. A multivariate distance metric motivated by Mahalanobis distance computes the similarity of the feature characteristics of a target gene, as annotated in the knowledge source, to this centroid. Each gene is then ranked from highest to lowest according to its similarity to the training set.

To generate EA/TEF-specific pathogenicity scores for all RefSeq genes, we trained this machine learning algorithm with a set of 42 manually curated human genes that are known to cause EA/TEF or whose mouse homologs have been shown to cause EA/TEF. This EA/TEF training gene set included *AAAS*, *AXIN1*, *CHD7*, *CHRD*, *CPLANE2*, *CTNNA1*, *DYNC2H1*, *EFNB2*, *EFTUD2*, *FGFR3*, *FOXF1*, *FUZ*, *GDF3*, *GDF6*, *GLI2*, *GLI3*, *IFT172*, *MKKS*, *MYCN*, *NDN*, *NKX2-1*, *NKX3-2*, *NOG*, *PAX2*, *PCSK5*, *POR*, *RAB25*, *SHH*, *SNRPN*, *SOX17*, *SOX2*, *SOX4*, *TBX1*, *TBX5*, *TCOF1*, *TERC*, *UBE3A*, *UPK3A*, *VANGL1*, *WDR35*, *WHSC1*, and *WNT3* (Blake et al., 2011; Brosens, Ploeg, et al., 2014). The inclusion of genes shown to cause EA/TEF in mice was supported by the strong biological evidence of causality demonstrated in these mouse models. The addition of these genes to the training gene set also resulted in an improvement in cross validation scores (data not shown).

Cross validation studies were performed to test the performance of our machine learning procedure (Callaway et al., 2018; Campbell et al., 2013). First, the full set of training genes was randomly broken into four subsets of approximately equal size. The machine learning procedure was then trained on each respective set, and a genome wide evaluation of all genes was performed including the excluded subset of training genes. The percentiles of the excluded genes were then recorded to assess performance. The procedure was repeated, reciprocally, so that all training genes received cross-validated scores.

To visualize the performance of the procedure, we tabulated the fraction of EA/TEF training set genes with percentile scores exceeding various cutoffs. This allowed us to generate receiver operating characteristic (ROC) style curves where the effectiveness of the procedure corresponds to the area between the curve and a diagonal line which represents the result that would be generated by chance alone (Figure 1A). In this case, the ROC curves generated using data from each knowledge source, and the average of the scores across all knowledge sources, were positive. This provided evidence that our scoring procedure can identify the EA/TEF training genes more efficiently than random chance.

Having validated the algorithm, we then generated EA/TEF-specific pathogenicity scores for all RefSeq genes based on the centile rank of an omnibus score generated using fit data from all knowledge sources as previously described (Callaway et al., 2018; Campbell et al., 2013). By definition, the resulting EA/TEF-specific pathogenicity scores ranged from 0 to 100%, with a median of 50%. In contrast, the EA/TEF training gene set had a range of 72.6%–99.9% with median score of 99% (Figure 1B, Supplemental Table S4), with *CPLANE2* (72.6%), *TCOF1* (74.2%), *EFTUD2* (80.2%), *SNRPN* (83.8%) and *VANGL1* (84.6%) being outliers.

Statistical analyses

Two-tailed Fisher's exact tests were performed using a 2×2 contingency table calculator available through GraphPad QuickCalcs (<https://www.graphpad.com/quickcalcs/contingency1/>) to compare the diagnostic yields between sub-cohorts. Box plots were generated using the Alcula.com Statistical Calculator: Box Plot program (<http://www.alcula.com/calculators/statistics/box-plot/>).

RESULTS

Diagnostic efficacy of clinical exome sequencing

In a clinical database of approximately 17,000 individuals who were referred for exome sequencing, we identified 67 individuals with EA/TEF+ based on phenotypes included in their test indications. Exome sequencing provided a definitive (n = 10; 15%) or probable (n = 1; 1.5%) diagnosis in 11 individuals for an efficacy rate of 16.4% (11/67). A provisional diagnosis was made in 7 additional EA/TEF+ case (7/67, 10%). If these provisional cases were included, the efficacy rate for EA/TEF+ would be 26.9% (18/67; Table S1).

In the subset of 39 individuals with EA/TEF+ who had CHD, a definitive or probable diagnosis was made in 8, for an efficacy rate of 20.5% (8/39). In the subset of 23 individuals with EA/TEF+ who met criteria for VACTERL association, a definitive or probable diagnosis was made in 3 for an efficacy rate of 13% (3/23). Although a higher efficacy rate was found for individuals with CHD, and a lower efficacy rate was found for individuals who met criteria for VACTERL association, these differences were not found to be statistically different than the subset of cases that did not have CHD (3/28, 10.7%; p = 0.3366) and the subset of cases that did not meet criteria for VACTERL association (8/44, 18.2%; p = 0.736), respectively.

Genes known to cause EA/TEF

The only gene that was recurrently found to cause EA/TEF in our clinical cohort was *CHD7*. Heterozygous, loss-of-function variants in this gene cause CHARGE syndrome (MIM# 214800). It has been previously reported that approximately 15%–20% of individuals with CHARGE syndrome have EA/TEF (Lalani et al., 1993). In our cohort, Subjects S3 and S4 carried frameshift variants in *CHD7*, and S5 carried a stop-gain variant (Supplemental Table S1). Other individuals in our clinical cohort carried pathogenic or likely pathogenic variants in other genes that have been clearly associated EA/TEF. These genes included *EFTUD2* (Subject S6) that causes mandibulofacial dysostosis, Guion-Almeida type (MIM# 610536),

FGFR3 (Subject S9) that causes a variety of skeletal dysplasias, and *MYCN* (Subject S12) that causes Feingold syndrome 1 (MIM# 164280).

Candidate genes for EA/TEF

The majority of individuals in our clinical cohort who carried a definitive or probable diagnosis had associated variants in human disease genes that have not been clearly shown to cause EA/TEF. For the remainder of our study, we considered these genes as candidate genes for EA/TEF.

To identify additional candidate genes, we searched the DECIPHER database for individuals with EA/TEF who had sequence changes or rare, small (< 2 Mb and containing 1–20 protein-coding genes) copy number variants (CNVs) (Firth et al., 2009; MacDonald et al., 2014). We obtained permission to publish the clinical and molecular data from 41 individuals with EA/TEF who met these criteria; 14 individuals with sequence variants (Subjects S19-S32; Supplemental Table S2), and 27 individuals with CNVs (Subjects S33-S59); Supplemental Table S3).

Some of the genes which were altered in individuals with EA/TEF from DECIPHER have been shown to cause EA/TEF including *CHD7* (Subjects S19 and S20) and *EFTUD2* (Subjects S21-S24). The remainder had changes affecting genes not clearly associated with EA/TEF. These genes were considered candidate genes for EA/TEF if they, 1) were affected by single nucleotide variants associated with a definitive or probable diagnosis, 2) were affected by a deletion and were predicted to have high loss-of-function intolerance (pLI >0.8 in gnomAD), or 3) if they may have been disrupted by a duplication based on the presence of one or more breakpoints within the gene (marked by an † in Supplemental Table S3) and were predicted to have high loss-of-function intolerance (pLI >0.8 in gnomAD) (Karczewski et al., 2020).

Associations between candidate genes and EA/TEF

Since EA/TEF is a relatively common birth defect, it is possible that it arose in some individuals in our cohort independent of the changes detected by exome sequencing or copy number variant analysis. As a means of determining which candidate genes for EA/TEF were the most likely to be contributing to the development of this disorder, we used an approach previously employed by Scott et al. (T. M. Scott et al., 2021). Briefly, we determined whether each gene associated with a definitive or probable diagnosis, had been previously reported in association with EA/TEF in humans, is known to cause a genetic syndrome previously associated with EA/TEF, and/or had a high similarity to genes known to cause EA/TEF based on a high EA/TEF-specific pathogenicity score (85% rank compared to all RefSeq genes) generated using our machine learning procedure. The results of these evaluations are summarized in Tables 1–3.

In Table 1, we list genes for which there is sufficient evidence to suggest an association with EA/TEF. In Tables 2 and 3, we list genes carrying sequence variants, or genes potentially disrupted by CNVs, respectively, for which there is currently insufficient evidence to suggest an association with EA/TEF.

DISCUSSION

Isolated EA/TEF is associated with an empiric sibling recurrence risk of 1%, and an approximately 2–4% recurrence risk in the offspring of an affected individual (Shaw-Smith, 2006). These low recurrence risks, and a twin concordance rate of ~2.5%, are consistent with a polygenic/multifactorial inheritance pattern (Robert et al., 1993). The sibling recurrence risk for non-isolated EA/TEF is often described as low in most families, with a minority having a higher risk (~25 to 50%) due to a Mendelian disorder. Similarly, in the absence of a genetic diagnosis, the offspring recurrence risk for EA/TEF and/or other VACTERL-associated malformations has been estimated at ~2–4%, but the offspring recurrence risk for individuals with a genetic diagnosis can be up to 50% (Robert et al., 1993; Scott, 1993). Therefore, identifying an underlying cause for EA/TEF through genetic testing can provide more accurate, and individualized recurrence risk estimates.

Other potential benefits of obtaining a molecular diagnosis include improved prognostication and medical management that can optimize the use of medical resources and can lead to the early identification and treatment of associated medical problems (Matias et al., 2019; Niguidula et al., 2018). Despite these potential benefits, exome sequencing is not universally ordered for individuals with EA/TEF+ without a molecular diagnosis. This may be due to uncertainty about the efficacy of exomes sequencing in individuals with EA/TEF+.

Efficacy of clinical ES in cases of EA/TEF+

In our clinical cohort of 67 individuals with EA/TEF+, exome sequencing provided a definitive or probable diagnosis in 11 individuals for an efficacy rate of 16.4% (11/67). Given the potential benefits of a molecular diagnosis, this efficacy rate is sufficiently high to suggest that such testing should be considered for all individuals with EA/TEF+ who do not have a molecular diagnosis.

The efficacy rate of clinical exome sequencing in individuals with EA/TEF+ is significantly lower than the efficacy rate reported in individuals with other birth defects (Meng et al., 2017; Retterer et al., 2016) including the 37% (28/76; $p = 0.0082$) rate for individuals with congenital diaphragmatic hernia plus (CDH+) determined using data from the same clinical cohort (T. M. Scott et al., 2021). This difference is maintained if provisional diagnoses are included with the efficacy rate for EA/TEF+ being 26.9% (18/67) compared to 46.1% (35/76) for CDH+ ($p = 0.024$) (T. M. Scott et al., 2021).

To further investigate this pattern, we reviewed chromosomal microarray (CMA) data from Baylor Genetics. We found that pathogenic or likely pathogenic copy number variants were reported in 2% (1/51) of CMA cases in which EA/TEF was listed as a phenotype and 10% (22/223) of CMA cases in which CDH was listed as a phenotype. Although this is consistent with the pattern seen in our exome sequencing results, the difference in CMA efficacy rates did not reach statistical significance ($p = 0.09$).

One possible reason for the difference in clinical exome sequencing efficacy rates between EA/TEF+ and CDH+ is that polygenic, multifactorial, or non-genetic factors—

environmental, epigenetic, or stochastic factors—may play a greater role in the development of EA/TEF than CDH. Unlike CDH, EA/TEF is a feature of VACTERL association. Several maternal risk factors, such as conception via assisted reproductive technologies, pregestational diabetes, and chronic obstructive lower pulmonary diseases, are positively correlated with the risk of having a child with VACTERL association (Lubinsky, 2018; van de Putte et al., 2020). Epigenetic factors have also been postulated to contribute to the development of VACTERL association (Lubinsky, 2018; Solomon, 2018).

In this study, the efficacy rate of exome sequencing in the subset of individuals with EA/TEF+ who met criteria for VACTERL association (13%; 3/23) was lower than that of the subset of cases that did not meet criteria for VACTERL association (18.2%; 8/44), although the difference was not statistically significant ($p = 0.736$). The efficacy rate observed in VACTERL association cases from our cohort is comparable to the 14% (38/271) positivity rate of individuals referred to a different reference lab (GeneDx) for exome sequencing who had VACTERL association annotated as part of their clinical characteristics (Solomon, 2018). Additionally, 10% (28/271) of individuals in this GeneDx cohort had a reportable variant in a plausible candidate gene, and 34% (91/271) had variants of unknown significance in genes that correlated with the reported phenotypes. Solomon went on to report that the exome sequencing efficacy rate for this cohort was lower than the overall exome sequencing efficacy rate and, more specifically, the exome sequencing efficacy rate of individuals with multiple congenital anomalies (Retterer et al., 2016; Solomon, 2018). Further research into the genetic, epigenetic, and environmental factors that contribute to the development of EA/TEF and VACTERL association is warranted.

Phenotypic expansions involving EA/TEF

TCF4* and *NRXN1—Autosomal dominant, pathogenic variants in *TCF4* are associated with Pitt-Hopkins syndrome (MIM# 610954), a neurodevelopmental disorder characterized by global developmental delay, intellectual disability, autism spectrum disorder, distinctive facial features, episodic hyperventilation and/or breath-holding, seizures and severe myopia (Amiel et al., 2007; Pitt & Hopkins, 1978; Zweier et al., 2007). Whalen et al. described identical twins with Pitt-Hopkins syndrome, one of whom had congenital anomalies including esophageal atresia and a sacral mass, that were not seen in her twin (Whalen et al., 2012). Subject S17 had EA/TEF, neurodevelopmental phenotypes, dysmorphic features, congenital esotropia and myopia associated with a de novo c.1486+1G>T, p.(?) [NM_001083962.2] pathogenic variant in *TCF4*. This gave her a definitive diagnosis of Pitt-Hopkins syndrome and suggests that loss of *TCF4* function may lead to an increased risk of developing EA/TEF.

TCF4 encodes a basic helix-loop-helix transcription factor that transactivates the *NRXN1 β* and *CNTNAP2* promoters in luciferase assays (Forrest et al., 2012). This suggests that *TCF4*, *NRXN1* and *CNTNAP2* may function in a common pathway during development and that disruption of this pathway may lead to a common set of phenotypes. Consistent with that hypothesis, autosomal recessive variants in *NRXN1* are associated with Pitt-Hopkins-like syndrome 2 (MIM# 614325), and autosomal dominant *NRXN1* variants are associated with susceptibility to schizophrenia (MIM# 614332), developmental delay, intellectual

disability, abnormal behaviors, autism spectrum disorder, and seizures (Dabell et al., 2013; Harrison et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2008; Lowther et al., 2017; Schaaf et al., 2012; Zweier et al., 2009). Similarly, autosomal recessive and autosomal dominant variants in *CNTNAP2* are associated with Pitt-Hopkins-like syndrome 1 (MIM# 610042) and autism susceptibility 15 (MIM# 612100), respectively (Alarcon et al., 2008; Zweier et al., 2009).

EA/TEF are not common features seen in *NRXNI* and *CNTNAP2*-related disorders. However, TEF has been previously documented in one individual with a deletion overlapping the 5' end of *NRXNI*, indicating a deletion of one or more of exons 1–4 (Lowther et al., 2017). Subject S31 had TEF, butterfly vertebrae, a dilated vestibule of the inner ear, and hearing abnormality and carried a likely pathogenic c.2138C>G, p.(Ser713*) [NM_001135659.3] stop-gain variant in *NRXNI*. In contrast, no individuals with EA/TEF harboring putatively deleterious variants in *CNTNAP2* were identified in this or previous studies. However, large (>13 Mb) terminal 7q deletions including *CNTNAP2* have been documented in two patients with EA/TEF (Busa et al., 2016; Speleman et al., 1992) and one patient with esophageal stenosis (Zen et al., 2010).

Taken together these data suggest that deleterious variants in genes associated with Pitt-Hopkins syndrome and related disorders—especially *TCF4* and *NRXNI*—may predispose to the development of EA/TEF. Consistent with this possibility, we note that *TCF4*, *NRXNI* and *CNTNAP2* had high EA/TEF-specific pathogenicity scores of 90.7%, 90.2% and 81.1%, respectively.

FANCA, FANCB, FANCC, FANCL—Fanconi anemia (FA) is a genetically heterogeneous disorder that can be caused by pathogenic variants in at least 23 genes and is characterized by a variety of structural birth defects, bone marrow failure, and increased risk for malignancy (Mehta & Ebens, 1993). EA and TEF are seen in approximately 1.4% and 3.5%, respectively, of individuals with FA (Giampietro et al., 1993). Here we report individuals with EA/TEF who carried variants in four FA-associated genes: *FANCA*, *FANCB*, *FANCC*, and *FANCL*.

Faive et al. described a boy with Fanconi anemia with EA/TEF who carried two pathogenic *FANCA* deletions, one of exons 6–8, and one of exons 11–21 (Faivre et al., 2005). More recently, Feng et al. identified four rare, heterozygous variants in *FANCA* in individuals with EA/TEF (Feng et al., 2018). In our study, Subject S25 is a 2 year-old male with TEF, a ventricular septal defect, aplasia/hypoplasia of the forearm bones, a short thumb, penoscrotal hypospadias, and 2–3 toe syndactyly who carried compound heterozygous, pathogenic c.[2175_2182del];[3788_3790del], p.[(Phe726Glufs*65)];[(Phe1263del)] [NM_000135.4] *FANCA* variants.

Holden et al. described a three-generation family with X-linked VACTERL-H syndrome caused by a c.1496+5G>A [NM_001018113.3] splice donor variant in *FANCB* that caused skipping of exon 7 (Holden et al., 2006). This family included a stillborn male fetus with EA/TEF, hydrocephalus associated with an Arnold-Chiari malformation, CHD, unilateral renal agenesis on the right, dysplastic left kidney, missing thumbs, bilateral absent radii, lumbar spina bifida occulta, and abnormal ears. McCauley et al. described two boys with

X-linked VACTERL-H and EA/TEF (McCauley et al., 2011). The first had esophageal atresia, dilation of the lateral and third ventricles with a small 4th ventricle, right renal agenesis, left ureteric and pelvicalyceal dilation, absent thumbs and radii, micropenis, a short neck, and eye and ear anomalies associated with a maternally inherited deletion of *FANCB* exons 8–10. The second had a tracheoesophageal fistula, ventriculomegaly, absent thumbs and radii, and carried a c.2150T>G, p.Leu717* stop-gain variant in *FANCB*. In our study, Subject S45 is a previously published male infant with TEF, ventricular septal defect, renal hypoplasia, anal atresia, aplasia/hypoplasia of the thumb, and hypoplasia of the radius, who carries an chrX:14,543,045-15,074-800 deletion (hg38) that affects *FANCB* (Umana et al., 2011). This deletion also includes *GLRA2*, whose loss is associated with intellectual developmental disorder, X-linked, syndromic, Pilorge type (MIM# 301076), and *MOSPD2*, which has a pLI score of 0.99 in gnomAD but is currently not associated with a genetic disorder in humans (Pilorge et al., 2016).

Cox et al. reported an Ashkenazi Jewish, non-identical twin pair with VACTERL-H (Cox et al., 1997). The male fetus had a TEF, dilated lateral ventricles, right lung lobulation defects, duodenal atresia, intestinal malrotation, an ectopic right kidney, absent right radius and thumb, and small, dysplastic ears abnormal ears. The affected female fetus did not have EA/TEF. Both twins were homozygous for the pathogenic c.456+4A>T [NM_000136.3] variant in *FANCC* that is commonly seen in individuals of Ashkenazi Jewish ancestry (Kutler & Auerbach, 2004). In our study, Subject S7 was a female infant with EA/TEF, ventricular septal defect, horseshoe kidney, duodenal atresia, anteriorly placed anus, a flexion contracture of the left wrist, short thumb, radial defect, conductive hearing impairment, atresia of the external auditory canal, absence of clitoris, vaginal prolapse, clubbing of fingers, and a sacral dimple who was homozygous for a pathogenic c.1642C>T, p.(Arg548*) [NM_000136.3] stop variant in *FANCC*.

Vetro et al. reported a female and a male fetus from the same family that had EA/TEF, cardio/pulmonary, renal anomalies, genital, radial, and thumb anomalies. Genetic testing performed on the male fetus revealed a homozygous c.268del, p.(Leu90Phefs*6) [NM_018062.4] frameshift variant in *FANCL* (Vetro et al., 2015). In our study Subject S8 is a woman with EA/TEF, abnormal position of inferior vena cava, pyloric stenosis, inguinal hernia, polyarticular arthritis, irritable bowel syndrome, skeletal abnormalities, and upslanting palpebral fissures who carries a maternally inherited c.1096_1099dup, p.(Thr367Asnfs*13) [NM_018062.4] variant of unknown significance in the *FANCL* gene. This change occurs in the final exon of the gene and is not expected to trigger nonsense mediated mRNA decay. A second *FANCL* variant was not identified. Hence, it is unclear whether this variant contributed to the phenotypes seen in Subject S8.

Although there is sufficient evidence to suggest an association between EA/TEF and *FANCA*, *FANCB*, *FANCC*, and possibly *FANCL*, the EA/TEF-specific pathogenicity scores of these genes are relatively low—41.8%, 40.4%, 51.3% and 38.7% respectively. This suggests that they represent a distinct group of EA/TEF genes whose characteristics differ from those of the other EA/TEF genes in the training set. This difference is likely due, at least in part, to their unique role in DNA damage repair, bone marrow function, and cancer.

Other EA/TEF Candidate Genes

There is currently insufficient evidence to suggest an association between the genes listed in Tables 2 and 3. However, some have high EA/TEF-specific pathogenicity scores (>80%). These genes include *SVEPI* (91%), *TMEM108* (84.4%), and *ZFYVE9* (89.1%) that have not been associated with a specific genetic disorder but have high pLI scores (0.9). It is possible that their haploinsufficiency may ultimately be found to cause a genetic syndrome in which EA/TEF is a phenotype.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Authors

Mary R. Sy¹, Jaynee Chauhan², Katrina Prescott², Aliza Imam², Alison Kraus², Ana Belezá³, Lee Salkeld⁴, Saraswati Hosdurga⁵, Michael Parker⁶, Pradeep Vasudevan⁷, Lily Islam⁸, Himanshu Goel^{9,10}, Nicole Bain¹¹, Soo-Mi Park¹², Shehla Mohammed¹³, Klaus Dieterich^{14,15}, Charles Coutton^{14,16}, Véronique Satre^{14,16}, Gaëlle Vieville¹⁴, Alan Donaldson¹⁷, Claire Beneteau¹⁸, Jamal Ghoumid¹⁹, Kris Van Den Bogaert²⁰, Anneleen Boogaerts²⁰, Elise Boudry²¹, Clémence Vanlerberghe¹⁹, Florence Petit¹⁹, Laura Bernardini²², Barbara Torres²², Teresa Mattina^{23,24}, Diana Carli²⁵, Giorgia Mandrile²⁶, Michele Pinelli^{27,28}, Nicola Brunetti-Pierrri^{28,29}, Katherine Neas³⁰, Rachel Beddow³¹, Pernille M. Tørring³², Flavio Faletra³³, Beatrice Spedicati³⁴, Paolo Gasparini^{33,34}, Alessandro Mussa^{25,35}, Giovanni Battista Ferrero³⁶, Anne Lampe³⁷, Wayne Lam³⁸, Weimin Bi^{1,39}, Carlos A. Bacino¹, Akela Kuwahara^{40,41,42}, Jeffrey O. Bush^{40,41,42}, Xiaonan Zhao^{1,39}, Pamela N. Luna¹, Chad A. Shaw¹, Jill A. Rosenfeld¹, Daryl A. Scott^{1,43,*}

Affiliations

¹Department of Molecular and Human Genetics, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX, USA

²Yorkshire Regional Genetics Service, Leeds Teaching Hospitals NHS Trust, Chapel Allerton Hospital, Leeds, UK

³Clinical Genetics Department, University Hospitals Bristol and Weston, Bristol NHS Foundation, Bristol, UK

⁴Whiteladies Medical Group, Whatley Road, Clifton, Bristol, UK

⁵Community Children's Health Partnership, Sirona Health and Care, Bristol, UK

⁶Sheffield Children's NHS Foundation Trust, Sheffield, UK

⁷University Hospitals of Leicester NHS Trust, Leicester, UK

⁸Birmingham Women's and Children's Hospital NHS Foundation Trust, Birmingham, UK

- ⁹⁾Hunter New England Local Health District, Hunter Genetics, Waratah, NSW, Australia
- ¹⁰⁾University of Newcastle, Callaghan, NSW, Australia
- ¹¹⁾Department of Molecular Medicine, New South Wales Health Pathology, Newcastle, Australia
- ¹²⁾East Anglian Medical Genetics Service, Cambridge University Hospitals NHS Foundation Trust, Cambridge, UK
- ¹³⁾Guy's and St Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust, UK
- ¹⁴⁾Département de Génétique et Procréation, Hôpital Couple Enfant, CHU Grenoble, Grenoble Cedex, France
- ¹⁵⁾INSERM U1216 Grenoble Institut des Neurosciences, Cellular Myology and Pathology, Grenoble, France
- ¹⁶⁾Genetic Epigenetic and Therapies of Infertility team, Institute for Advanced Biosciences, Inserm U 1209, CNRS UMR 5309, Université Grenoble Alpes, Grenoble, France
- ¹⁷⁾Clinical Genetics Department, St Michaels Hospital, Bristol, UK
- ¹⁸⁾Nantes Université, CHU de Nantes, UF 9321 de Fœtopathologie et Génétique, Nantes, France
- ¹⁹⁾Université de Lille, ULR7364 RADEME, CHU Lille, Clinique de Génétique Guy Fontaine, Lille, France
- ²⁰⁾Center for Human Genetics, University Hospitals Leuven–KU Leuven, Leuven, Belgium
- ²¹⁾CHU Lille, Institut de Génétique Médicale, Lille, France
- ²²⁾Medical Genetics Unit, Fondazione IRCCS Casa Sollievo della Sofferenza, San Giovanni Rotondo, Italy
- ²³⁾Department of Biomedical and Biotechnological Sciences, Medical Genetics, University of Catania, Catania, Italy
- ²⁴⁾Scientific Foundation and Clinic G. B. Morgagni, Catania, Italy
- ²⁵⁾Department of Public Health and Pediatrics, University of Torino, Torino, Italy
- ²⁶⁾Medical Genetics Unit, San Luigi University Hospital, University of Torino, Orbassano, Italy
- ²⁷⁾Department of Molecular Medicine and Medical Biotechnology, University of Naples Federico II, Naples, Italy
- ²⁸⁾Telethon Institute of Genetics and Medicine (TIGEM), Pozzuoli, Italy
- ²⁹⁾Department of Translational Medicine, University of Naples Federico II, Naples, Italy

- ³⁰)Genetic Health Service NZ, Wellington, New Zealand
- ³¹)Wellington Regional Genetics laboratory, Wellington, New Zealand
- ³²)Department of Clinical Genetics, Odense University Hospital, Odense C, Denmark
- ³³)Institute for Maternal and Child Health - IRCCS Burlo Garofolo, Trieste, Italy
- ³⁴)Department of Medicine, Surgery and Health Sciences, University of Trieste, Trieste, Italy
- ³⁵)Pediatric Clinical Genetics Unit, Regina Margherita Childrens Hospital, Torino, Italy
- ³⁶)Department of Clinical and Biological Sciences, Università degli Studi di Torino, Torino, Italy
- ³⁷)South East Scotland Clinical Genetics Service, Western General Hospital, Edinburgh, UK
- ³⁸)Department of Clinical Genetics, Western General Hospital, Edinburgh, UK
- ³⁹)Baylor Genetics, Houston, TX, 77021, USA
- ⁴⁰)Department of Cell and Tissue Biology, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco, USA
- ⁴¹)Institute for Human Genetics, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco, USA
- ⁴²)Eli and Edythe Broad Center of Regeneration Medicine and Stem Cell Research, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco, USA
- ⁴³)Department of Molecular Physiology and Biophysics, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX, USA

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DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data generated during this study can be found within the published article and its supplementary files. The clinical exome sequencing variants described in this manuscript have been submitted to ClinVar (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/clinvar/>).

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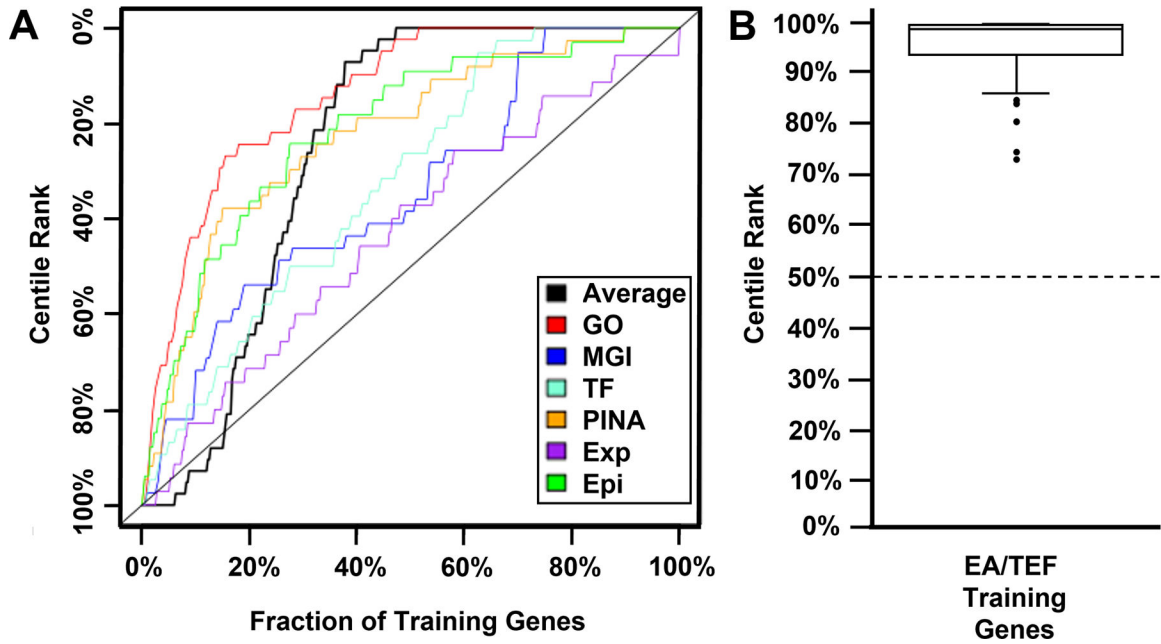


Figure 1. Generation and evaluation of EA/TEF-specific pathogenicity scores.

A) Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) style curves were generated in validation studies of our machine learning scoring approach using individual knowledge sources (colored) and the average score from all knowledge sources (black). The positive area underneath each curve indicates that our scoring approach identified training set genes known to cause EA/TEF more efficiently than random chance (diagonal dashed line). B) After validation, EA/TEF-specific pathogenicity scores were calculated for all RefSeq genes. The EA/TEF training gene set had a range of 72.6%–99.9% with median score of 99% with *CPLANE2* (72.6%), *TCOF1* (74.2%), *EFTUD2* (80.2%), *SNRPN* (83.8%) and *VANGL1* (84.6%) being outliers. This is significantly higher than the 50% median score (dashed line) for all RefSeq genes. Epi = Epigenetic histone modifications data from NIH Roadmap Epigenomics Mapping Consortium, Exp = the GeneAtlas expression distribution, GO = Gene Ontology, MGI = the Mouse Genome Database, PINA = the Protein Interaction Network Analysis platform, TF = transcription factor binding data from NIH Roadmap Epigenomics Mapping Consortium.

Table 1

Genes with sufficient evidence to support an association with EA/TEF

Gene	Disorder, MIM number	Subject ID; variant; ACMG interpretation	Number of individuals in our cohort with changes in this gene; level of diagnostic certainty	EA/TEF-specific pathogenicity score	Other cases of EA/TEF reported for this gene/ disorder	References
<i>TCF4</i>	Pitt-Hopkins syndrome, MIM# 610954	S17; c.1486+1G>T [NM_001083962.2] p.(?); Pathogenic	1; Definitive	90.7%	Yes/Yes	Whalen et al., 2012
<i>NRXN1</i>	Pitt-Hopkins-like syndrome 2, MIM# 614525; Susceptibility to schizophrenia, MIM# 614332; Susceptibility to developmental delay, intellectual disability, abnormal behaviors, autism spectrum disorder, and seizures	S31; c.2138C>G, [NM_001135659.3] p.(Ser713 [?]); Likely Pathogenic	1; Probable	90.2%	Yes/Yes	Lowther et al., 2017
<i>FANCA</i>	Fanconi anemia complementation group A, MIM# 227650	S25; c.[2175_2182del];[3788_3790del] [NM_000135.4] p.[(Phe726Glnfs*65)]; [(Phe1263del)]; Pathogenic/Pathogenic	1; Definitive	41.8%	Yes/Yes	Faivre et al., 2005
<i>FANCB</i>	Fanconi anemia complementation group B, MIM# 300514	S41 [†] ; Deletion; Pathogenic	1; Definitive	40.4%	Yes/Yes	Holden et al., 2006, McCauley et al., 2011
<i>FANCC</i>	Fanconi anemia complementation group C, MIM# 227645	S7; c.[1642C>T];[1642C>T] [NM_000136.3] p.[(R548 [*])];[(R548 [*])] Pathogenic/Pathogenic	1; Definitive	51.3%	Yes/Yes	Kutler & Auerbach, 2004

[†] Previously reported by Umama et al. (Umama et al., 2011).

Table 2

Genes with definitive or probable diagnoses that do not currently have sufficient evidence to support an association with EA/TEF

Gene	Disorder, MIM# number	Subject ID; variant; ACMG interpretation	Level of diagnostic certainty	EA/TEF specific pathogenicity score	Other cases EA/TEF reported for this gene/disorder in humans
<i>NEBDPL</i>	Periventricular nodular heterotopia 7, MIM# 617201	S13; c.814-6T>A [NM_015277.6] p.(?) Likely Pathogenic	Probable	41.9%	No/No
<i>NSD1</i>	Sotos syndrome 1, MIM# 117550	S32; c.5351T>C [NM_022455.5] p.(Ile1784Thr); Likely Pathogenic	Probable	85.4%	No/No
<i>PTPN11</i>	LEOPARD syndrome 1, MIM# 151100; Noonan syndrome 1, MIM# 163950; Metachondromatosis, MIM #156250	S15; c.922A>G [NM_002834.5] p.(N308D); Pathogenic	Definitive	71%	No/No
<i>SLC20A2</i>	Basal ganglia calcification, idiopathic, 1, MIM# 213600	S10; c.731-18_738del26 [NM_006749.5] p.(?); Pathogenic	Definitive	43.6%	No/No
<i>TPO</i>	Thyroid dysmorphogenesis 2A, MIM# 274500	S18; c.[1184_1187dupGCCG];[1472G>A] [NM_000547.6] p.[(A397Pfs*76)];[(R491H)]; Pathogenic/Pathogenic	Definitive	77.4%	No/No

Genes with high pLI scores (> 0.8) that are deleted or potentially disrupted for which there is currently insufficient evidence to support an association with EA/TEF

Table 3.

Gene (pLI score)	Disorder, MIM#	Subject ID, CNV type	EA/TEF-specific pathogenicity score	Other cases of EA/TEF reported for this gene/disorder in humans
<i>BRPPI</i> (pLI = 1)	Intellectual developmental disorder with dysmorphic facies and ptosis, MIM# 617333	S35, Deletion	47.6%	No/No
<i>FUBPI</i> (pLI = 1)	None	S34, Deletion	59.9%	No/N/A
<i>GLRA2[†]</i> (pLI = 0.97)	Intellectual developmental disorder, X-linked, syndromic, Pilorge type, MIM# 301076	S45, Deletion	61.5%	No/N/A
<i>LARGE1</i> (pLI = 0.99)	Muscular dystrophy-dystroglycanopathy (congenital with brain and eye anomalies), type A, 6, MIM# 613154; Muscular dystrophy-dystroglycanopathy (congenital with mental retardation), type B, 6, MIM# 608840	S44, Deletion	ND	No/No
<i>LINGO2</i> (pLI = 0.86)	None	S38, Deletion	0.7%	No/N/A
<i>MOSPD2[†]</i> (pLI = 0.99)	None	S45, Deletion	63.3%	No/N/A
<i>NRDC</i> (pLI = 1)	None	S33, Deletion	ND	No/N/A
<i>USP33</i> (pLI = 0.82)	None	S34, Deletion	58.5%	No/N/A
<i>SVEPI</i> (pLI = 1)	None	S39, Deletion	91%	No/N/A
<i>TMEM108</i> (pLI = 1)	None	S36, Deletion	84.4%	No/N/A
<i>ZFYVE9</i> (pLI = 0.9)	None	S33, Deletion	89.1%	No/N/A
<i>ZNF592</i> (pLI = 1)	None	S42, Deletion	38.8%	No/N/A
<i>ZZZ3</i> (pLI = 1)	None	S34, Deletion	45.5%	No/N/A
<i>DIO2</i> (pLI = 0.96)	None	S53, Breakpoint of Duplication	40.9%	No/N/A
<i>FLNA</i> (pLI = 1)	FLNA-related disorders, MIM# 300321, 314400, 300048, 305620, 300049, 300048, 309350, 311300, 304120, 300244	S59, Breakpoint of Duplication	74.3%	No/No

Gene (pLI score)	Disorder, MIM#	Subject ID, CNV type	EA/TEF-specific pathogenicity score	Other cases of EA/TEF reported for this gene/disorder in humans
<i>GMD5</i> (pLI = 0.99)	None	S49, Breakpoint of Duplication	7.3%	No/N/A
<i>OTUD7A</i> (pLI = 0.95)	None	S55, Breakpoint of Duplication	11.8%	No/N/A
<i>PACSI1</i> (pLI = 1)	Schuurs-Hoeijmakers syndrome, MIM# 615009	S51, Breakpoint of Duplication	79.5%	No/No
<i>PDE4D</i> (pLI = 1)	Acrodysostosis 2, with or without hormone resistance, MIM# 614613	S48, Breakpoint of Duplication	73.8%	No/No
<i>RORA</i> (pLI = 1)	Intellectual developmental disorder with or without epilepsy or cerebellar ataxia, MIM# 618060	S56, Breakpoint of Duplication	80.9%	No/No
<i>SART1</i> (pLI = 0.88)	None	S51, Breakpoint of Duplication	19.4%	No/N/A

[‡] Found in a male previously reported by Umama et al. who carried a deletion of *FANCB* (Umama et al., 2011).

N/A = not applicable, ND = not determined