

1            *Responsibility, Identity and Genomic Sequencing: A*  
2            *Comparison of Published Recommendations and Patient*  
3            *Perspectives on Accepting or Declining Incidental Findings*

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**ABSTRACT**

19 **Background:** The use of genomic sequencing techniques are increasingly being incorporated  
20 into mainstream healthcare. However, there is a lack of agreement on how ‘incidental  
21 findings’ (IFs) should be managed and a dearth of research on patient perspectives.

22 **Methods:** In-depth qualitative interviews were carried out with 31 patients undergoing  
23 genomic sequencing at a regional genetics service in England. Interviews explored decisions  
24 around IFs, and were comparatively analysed with published recommendations from the  
25 literature.

26 **Results:** 13 participants opted to receive all IFs from their sequence, 12 accepted some and  
27 rejected others, whilst 6 participants refused all IFs. The key areas from the literature, 1)  
28 genotype/phenotype correlation 2) seriousness of the condition and 3) implications for  
29 biological relatives, were all significant, however patients drew on a broader range of social  
30 and cultural information to make their decisions.

31 **Conclusion:** This study highlights the range of costs and benefits for patients of receiving IFs  
32 from a genomic sequence. Whilst largely positive views towards the dissemination of  
33 genomic data were reported, ambivalence surrounding genetic responsibility and its  
34 associated behaviours (e.g. duty to inform relatives) was reported by *both* IF decliners and  
35 accepters, suggesting a need to further explore patient perspectives on this highly complex  
36 topic area.

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38 **Key words:** Experiential knowledge, genomic sequencing, UK, incidental findings,  
39 responsibility.

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**INTRODUCTION**

41 The appropriate handling of ‘incidental findings’ (IFs) is an issue that has long concerned  
42 medical practitioners (Ofri, 2013). IFs have been defined as findings that have ‘health or  
43 reproductive importance for an individual, discovered in the course of conducting a  
44 particular study (screening or clinical practice) but beyond the scope of that study’  
45 (Christenhusz et al, 2013). From the identification of an enlarged gallbladder, to a benign  
46 brain tumour during routine investigations for other conditions, health care professionals in  
47 various fields of medicine frequently have to make judgements in the course of their clinical  
48 practice about whether patients should be informed of these findings given that they are  
49 unsolicited medical information, often of unclear significance, and for which prior consent  
50 to obtain them has not typically been secured.

51 Whilst genetic medicine is already an area where the discovery of IFs is particularly common  
52 (Christenhusz et al, 2013), the increasing application of genomic sequencing and exploratory  
53 (as opposed to targeted) analysis techniques within mainstream NHS healthcare has further  
54 compounded this issue. Indeed, the sheer volume of data that can be generated and  
55 analysed through the use of genomic sequencing has been revolutionised by the emergence  
56 and increasing cost-effectiveness of new technologies. Due to this exponential rise in  
57 available data, the potential for IFs to emerge in the context of genomic research and  
58 clinical practice has correspondingly soared, raising important ethical and social issues  
59 around the acceptability of their identification and more pertinently, their (non)disclosure  
60 to genomic medicine patients.

61 Whilst it has been widely acknowledged that the boundaries between ‘clinically significant’  
62 and ‘clinically actionable’ findings within a genomic sequence are often highly uncertain or

63 even malleable (when interpreted in the context of other relevant health data) (Knoppers et  
64 al, 2006), their very generation raises significant questions around whether or not patients  
65 have the right to access them. Studies that have explored the attitudes of researchers,  
66 health care professionals, patients and the general public have consistently demonstrated  
67 enthusiasm for, and interest in, receiving IFs on the parts of both the general public and  
68 genomic medicine patients, highlighting that the latter two groups harbour the most  
69 permissive views around the return of unsolicited genomic findings than any other  
70 stakeholder group (Bollinger et al, 2012; Middleton et al, 2016; Haga et al, 2011; Townsend  
71 et al, 2012; Fernandez et al, 2014; Driessnack et al, 2013; Ploug and Holm, 2017; Yushack et  
72 al, 2016).

73 In the context of public and patient demand to receive them, therefore, ethical arguments  
74 both for and against the return of IFs have been extensively rehearsed in the literature in  
75 recent years (Hofmann, 2016; Shkedi-Rafid, 2014; Hens et al, 2011; Berkman and Chandros  
76 Hull, 2014; Christenhusz et al, 2013; Gilwa & Berkman, 2013). Within this literature, it has  
77 been suggested that both extreme positions in this debate (i.e. the case for full disclosure of  
78 IFs and the case for their complete non-disclosure) are both ethically unacceptable  
79 (Christenhusz et al, 2013). In other words, both withholding potentially relevant health  
80 information from patients, but also indiscriminately disclosing all unsolicited findings are  
81 both viewed as both morally deplorable strategies, with the latter requiring substantial (and  
82 often non-existent) resources to be acceptable, and the former critiqued for its inherent  
83 paternalism and neglect of duty of care (Ravitsky and Wilfond, 2006; Townsend et al, 2013).

84 In order to reach an ethically sound solution to the problem of genomic IFs both in clinical  
85 practice and sequencing research, various taxonomic systems have been developed to guide

86 decisions around which IFs should be returned to patients, and which should not (see Table  
87 1). These taxonomies use categories, or 'bins' (Berg et al, 2011) to group similar IFs together  
88 in order to determine whether they should be returned to patients. Whilst the categories  
89 used vary between studies and authors, the taxonomies generally coalesce around the  
90 following three distinct constituent components:

91 1) *The strength of the genotype/phenotype correlation.* This area of categorisation  
92 addresses the diversity of gene penetrance and expressivity and includes IFs that  
93 relate to pre-dispositions rather than certain genetic disease (e.g. Berg et al, 2011;  
94 Boycott et al, 2015; Klitzman et al, 2013; Leitsalu et al, 2016; Wolf et al, 2008)

95 2) *The impact, severity and treatability of the associated genetic disease(s).* This  
96 dimension of IFs appears most commonly across the taxonomies, and determines  
97 the management of the IF based on the likelihood of symptoms, the age at which  
98 they will occur, their severity, as well as the degree to which the condition can be  
99 prevented or ameliorated through an intervention such as treatment or surveillance  
100 (e.g. Bennette et al, 2013; van El et al, 2013; Hens et al, 2011; Himes et al, 2017;  
101 Knoppers et al, 2013; Korngiebel et al, 2016; Mayer et al, 2007; Netzer et al, 2009;  
102 Sénécal et al, 2015).

103 3) *The relevance of the IF beyond the index case.* This area of categorisation incorporates the  
104 rights and interests of biologically-related kin to the patient, including IFs that may impact  
105 the health of existing relatives, or decisions around child bearing e.g. carrier status (e.g.  
106 Netzer et al, 2009; Klitzman et al, 2013).

107 The evidence used to support these taxonomies (Table 1), however, has largely been  
108 developed by clinicians and professional bodies, with far less data available on the way in

109 which sequencing patients and the general public make decisions. Where the views and  
110 decisions of genomic sequencing patients and their families have been included, studies  
111 have mostly emphasised their liberal attitudes towards the dissemination of IFs, both inside  
112 and outside the clinic (Clift et al, 2015; Kaphingst et al, 2016). Whilst there is evidence that  
113 greater ambivalence exists around IFs that relate to children (especially when the IF is not  
114 clinically actionable and/or relates to a late-onset condition) (Kleiderman et al, 2014; Sapp  
115 et al, 2014; Ziniel et al, 2014), the literature nevertheless suggests that the majority of  
116 sequencing patients overwhelmingly support the sharing of all IF information that is  
117 available to the clinician, so long as the patient requests it.

118 As most NHS genomic sequencing is undertaken to facilitate a diagnosis, and, as such, on  
119 people already living with unspecified long-term health conditions, it has been argued that  
120 these groups of patients are better equipped (than members of the general public) to cope  
121 with uncertain or 'bad news' results (Hitch et al, 2014), features that may characterise an IF.  
122 However, as genomic sequencing frequently relies on sequencing not only the index case,  
123 but also other members of their (extended) family- those with less experience and  
124 knowledge of genetic disease- are also being called upon to make decisions around the  
125 return of IFs. However, the effect such contextual factors (such as prior experience with  
126 genetic disease) have on patients' decision-making, and the reasons patients refuse receipt  
127 of genomic information has generally been under-researched.

128 This paper explores this identified gap in the literature through a qualitative study of the  
129 views of people undergoing genomic sequencing as part of Genomic England's 100,00  
130 Genomes Project. Taking as its analytic framework the taxonomies developed by clinicians  
131 and researchers to classify and define various different types of IF (Table 1), this paper

132 offers an in-depth comparison of the views of 31 genomic sequencing patients (13 of whom  
133 accepted IFs and 18 of whom refused some or all IFs offered to them) with those of genetics  
134 professionals (as expressed in the literature) in order to identify areas of concordance and  
135 discordance between the perspectives and priorities of these two important stakeholder  
136 groups. By taking the patient's perspective as a point of departure, this paper contributes to  
137 a small but emerging body of literature designed to better understand the processes  
138 through which patients come to accept or decline IFs, and consequently, how they can be  
139 supported through this.

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#### 141 **100,000 Genomes Project**

142 The 100,000 Genomes Project is a Genomics England initiative that aims to sequence  
143 100,000 genomes from approximately 70,000 people who are either NHS patients with a  
144 rare disease or cancer and their unaffected family members, in order to assist with  
145 obtaining a diagnosis and/or to facilitate research for their condition.

146 Participants in the 100,000 Genomes Project receive the results of their genomic sequence  
147 as two components: 1) the 'main finding' from their genomic sequence, which concerns the  
148 health issue they came to the project with, and 2) Additional findings (referred to  
149 throughout this paper as IFs) that were discovered surreptitiously during the sequence. Only  
150 variants deemed clearly pathogenic (or with a high likelihood of becoming pathogenic) and  
151 where an early intervention is both available, and deemed beneficial, are authorised for  
152 return within the project (see Table 2). These IFs are then sub-categorised into two types:  
153 health-related IFs (i.e. findings that relate to health conditions that could affect the  
154 participant and/or their biologically related kin) and reproductive IFs (findings that relate to

155 conditions that will likely not affect the participant, but could be passed on to offspring).

156 Participants in the 100,000 Genomes Project can choose to accept either, both, or neither of

157 the types of IFs. They may also accept or decline individual findings within each of these two

158 broad categories. As the list of authorised IFs is likely to expand over time, either because

159 new genes are identified, the variant is re-categorised (for example, if a treatment becomes

160 available), or a new category of IFs is added to the list, participants are made aware at the

161 start of the project that they could potentially be contacted in years to come with an IF

162 result. As such, informed consent in this context is an on-going rather than one-off event.

163 There are currently six health-related IFs on the list of approved IFs (five relating for cancer

164 predispositions and one for familial hypercholesterolaemia) with children disqualified from

165 receiving any IF that relates to an adult-onset condition (see Table 2). Currently, Cystic

166 Fibrosis is the only reproductive IF that is being returned. Furthermore, as Cystic Fibrosis is

167 inherited recessively, this finding is only returned if both members of a couple participate in

168 the project and both agree to receive it.

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**METHODS**

177 The data presented within this paper are derived from interviews with 31 patients who  
178 underwent genomic sequencing as part of the 100,000 Genomes Project at a large regional  
179 Genomic Medicine Centre in England. The data were collected between October 2017 and  
180 March 2018. These interviews were part of a larger study that compares the views of the  
181 general population taking part in genomic sequencing research with the views of individuals  
182 and families living with genetic conditions (Boardman & Hale, 2018).

183 Interview participants were identified through 100,000 Genomes Project clinic lists held by  
184 the regional genetics service. Participants were considered eligible if they were a)  
185 volunteering for genomic sequencing as part of the 100K genomes project b) over the age of  
186 18 c) had either accepted or declined IFs d) were able to communicate fluently in English  
187 without the need for an interpreter. Initially, genomic medicine clinic staff conducted the  
188 identification of potential participants through clinic lists and mailed out participant  
189 information sheets to 100 eligible genomic sequencing patients with a covering letter. This  
190 initial strategy of recruitment led to the successful recruitment of 22 participants, although  
191 all those who responded were IF accepters. Given that the overwhelming majority of  
192 genomic sequencing volunteers accept all IFs associated with their sequence, purposive  
193 sampling was employed to selectively target IF decliners. A second round of 40 letters were  
194 sent out, exclusively to IF decliners (including those who had declined some, but accepted  
195 other IFs), which yielded only two responses. In a final attempt to increase the number of IF  
196 decliners, follow-up phone calls were made to each of the participants who had not  
197 responded to the letter as well as to the six decliners who had received a letter in the first

198 round. This strategy of under-taking a follow-up phone calls led to the successful  
199 recruitment of a further 16 IF declining participants (see Table 3).

200 The interview schedule was developed by reference to the literature surrounding genomic  
201 sequencing, the 100,000 Genomes Project's policy on IFs and from interviews conducted, as  
202 part of the same study, with families living with genetic diseases (Boardman & Hale, 2018).

203 The interview schedule for this study covered participants' experiences of, and views  
204 towards, both genomic sequencing and genetic screening, their perceptions of genomic  
205 information vis-à-vis other forms of health data, as well as their prior knowledge of genetic  
206 conditions, particularly Cystic Fibrosis, a condition for which an IF could feasibly be  
207 returned. Finally, participants were asked to recount their decision-making around  
208 accepting or declining IFs and their anticipated uses of this information should an IF be  
209 returned to them.

210 Interviews were conducted via three methods, face-to-face interviews (n= 8) telephone  
211 interviews (n= 22) and email interviews (n=1). The choice of interview method was  
212 determined primarily by the participant's preference, ability and health status. Face-to-face  
213 interviews were carried out either at the participant's home or at the University. All  
214 interviews were transcribed verbatim (or responses collated within one document for the  
215 email interview) with names, place names and any other identifiers removed. As such, all  
216 names reported in this paper are pseudonyms.

217 The data were analysed with the help of NVivo 11 qualitative data analysis software. Open  
218 coding was conducted first to identify core themes (for example, 'stories of genomic  
219 sequencing involvement' and 'meanings of genetic data'), before more specific sub-themes  
220 were developed (for example, 'meaning and value of the return of carrier status as an

221 additional finding'). A modified grounded theory approach to the analysis was used to  
222 generate new themes from the data, but also to cross-reference the themes with the three  
223 key areas of classification that emerged from the IF taxonomies in the literature (Table 1) in  
224 order to compare professional and lay classifications of IFs. This paper presents the three  
225 core overarching themes, but also the sub-themes that emerged from this analysis.

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## 228 EDITORIAL POLICIES AND ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

229 Ethical approval for the study was granted through the Health Research Authority in  
230 September 2017 (17/WM/0240 01/08/2017).

231 All participants in this study signed a consent form (or gave permission by email – where the  
232 participant was physically unable to write) indicating that they had been fully informed  
233 about the nature of the interview, as well as the likely uses of their data. All names and  
234 identifiers were removed during transcription of the interviews.

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**RESULTS**

243 In total, 31 genomic sequencing volunteers took part in an interview, of which, 13 (42%)  
244 participants accepted both health and reproductive IFs, 12 (39%) accepted health related IFs  
245 but not reproductive IFs and 6 (19%) participants refused all IFs (Table 3). IF decliners are  
246 over-represented in our sample as their perspectives are both poorly understood and  
247 under-represented in the literature. Participants ranged in age from 21 to 80, with an  
248 average age of 46. The vast majority of the sample, 21 (68%), were women. Twenty-eight  
249 (90%) participants were undergoing genomic sequencing due to an undiagnosed rare  
250 disease in their family, with 3 (10%) coming from a family affected by cancer. Thirteen  
251 participants (42%) were the 'index case' in the family, i.e. the person with the rare disease  
252 or cancer, meaning that the majority, 18 (58%), were unaffected family members. These  
253 family members included 11 mothers, 3 fathers, 2 brothers, 1 sister and 1 aunt (see Table 3).

254 The results of the analysis are presented according to the three major themes used to  
255 classify IFs identified from the literature (Table 1).

*256 1) The Geno/Phenotype Correlation*

257 The core theme of geno/phenotype correlation was a recurrent theme across the literature  
258 on the return of IFs in clinical practice and research (Table 1). Whilst for professionals, this  
259 theme appraises IFs where the penetrance or expressivity of a genetic mutation is not clear  
260 (Klitzman et al, 2013), for sequencing volunteers, this theme emerged through their  
261 understandings and visualisations of the complex process by which a genomic finding comes  
262 to be manifested physically as a genetic disease.

263 In order to explore the views of sequencing volunteers on this correlation, as well as the  
264 way(s) in which it influenced decisions around accepting or refusing the return of IFs,  
265 participants were encouraged to discuss their motivations for getting involved with the  
266 100,000 Genomes Project, their perceptions of genomic data (and the way(s) it might differ  
267 from other forms of health data) and its relationship to genetic diseases.

268 It was clear that from the outset, that genomic data held a very particular status for  
269 participants in the project, although many found it difficult to pin point in exactly what  
270 ways. For some, the very difficulties associated with accessing the data and the need for  
271 specialist interpretation were part of what made the information precious and valuable,  
272 highlighting its complexity but also its invulnerability to manipulation, as Malcolm, a 38 year  
273 old man and father of a young son who had joined the 100,00 Genomes Project due to  
274 cancer in his family commented:

275 *[Genomic data]... It's not something you can hide from, it's not something you can make*  
276 *up, it's not something you can manipulate. Your DNA is your DNA, simple as that. So you*  
277 *can't manipulate that. So to me that's more of a pure, data more pure science than*  
278 *numbers that are taken from averages from surveys. This is, it's deeper than that. It's real,*  
279 *honest data. ...the holy grail if you will.*

280 Unlike other health data- such as weight and height, which fluctuate over the life course and  
281 are not unique to an individual- a person's genome was viewed, by many participants, as an  
282 inimitable and static entity. For Malcolm, a person's genome was the formula underpinning  
283 their human existence; the source from which all other physical and mental characteristics  
284 as well as health experiences, emerged. Unlike health data, it also had social significance,  
285 forming the biological link connecting family members past, present and future. It was this

286 perception of his genomic data as an integral part of his personal, familial and social  
287 identity, with the various responsibilities that be perceived as accompanying these identities  
288 that were key to Malcom's ultimate decision to receive all IFs generated from his sequence,  
289 even those that were uncertain:

290 *Well I think [incidental findings], I think it's all very important. Because it gives you insight*  
291 *into yourself- what could come and bite you... it just, it gives you... it takes away some of the*  
292 *guess work because it gives you an educated guess to go actually this could, this follows a*  
293 *trend it's being passed on...[...]. You know.... And I want to see my son grow up, I want to*  
294 *see him have his own family. So if it helps.... not my generation but their generation, then I'll*  
295 *be happy with that, you know.....But it's also, unless people are willing to participate fully in*  
296 *things like this [100,000 Genomes Project], then you're never going to get that*  
297 *information...it would need to be everyone being screened...for it to then really progress. But*  
298 *people then would then say that's the government wanting all your details, and all your*  
299 *DNA. But... idiots really. Actually, you know, it's bigger than you. They just feel like it's an*  
300 *invasion of privacy, but it's not.*

301 For Malcolm, his perceived responsibilities to maintain his own health, protect that of his  
302 son, but also to contribute to a wider project of genomic data accumulation that could be  
303 used to address major health problems such as cancer were all important in his decision to  
304 become fully involved with the research and to receive as much information from his  
305 genome as possible.

306 The intertwining of genomic data, personal identity, responsibility and altruism were  
307 frequently mentioned drivers behind participants' decisions to opt to receive all IFs they  
308 could, even those with reduced expressivity, with participants citing reasons such as

309 *'wishing to understand themselves', 'curiosity about who I am' or 'wanting to help others' to*  
310 *justify their decision to receive findings where their clinical implications were not clear cut.*  
311 *Participants also cited the possibilities of preventative treatments/lifestyle changes,*  
312 *screening (either self-screening or as part of a formalised screening programme) and*  
313 *reduced time to diagnosis as possible advantages of knowing about propensities in their*  
314 *genetic make-up.*

315 *For other participants, however, the uncertainty associated with IFs of variable expressivity*  
316 *rendered the results less meaningful and led to different understandings of responsibility.*  
317 *Simon was 42 years old at the time of interview and described joining the 100,000 Genomes*  
318 *Project because of his young daughter, Dasiy, who has ataxia, hydratonia, hyper-mobility*  
319 *and global developmental delay of unknown origin. For Simon, his interest in the project*  
320 *was very specific- gaining a diagnosis for Daisy, with the associated hope of improving the*  
321 *management of her condition. He declined both reproductive IFs (saying that he and his*  
322 *wife, Jo- who was also volunteering for the project- would not have another biological child,*  
323 *but would instead choose to adopt) as well as health-related IFs, which he viewed as being*  
324 *of limited value to his life. Simon described his decision in the following way:*

325 *So from my point of view I'm... I've isolated anything that can help and is to do with Daisy*  
326 *and that's fine. Conditions that I may have that may come up in the future, I don't really*  
327 *want to know about to be honest. It is what it is. I wouldn't have known [if hadn't*  
328 *participated in 100,000 Genomes Project], and if something came up and they went "oh, by*  
329 *the way, you've got an 80% chance- or whatever- of having cancer", or having this, or having*  
330 *whatever else, will that change the way I live my life? Probably. Would it have a massive*  
331 *effect on my family and me? Yes. Do I want that? No. If something comes up in the future,*

332 *it comes up in the future. I'd be no different as I was before it came. So yeah, no, I think, I*  
333 *don't know, I think in some instances knowing something, especially when it's not even*  
334 *definite...you've got an 80% chance of having something at some point in the future can*  
335 *define how you live your life and could actually destroy your life...[...]...and I have a good*  
336 *life....So I don't really, I wouldn't really want to upset it for any reason, for something may or*  
337 *may not happen. I don't kind of, I don't think like that.*

338 Simon viewed propensities to genetic disease, rather than being part of his personal identity  
339 and sense of self as Malcolm had, as instead belonging to a particular mindset, or approach  
340 to life, which had been developed through his experiences of living with, and caring for,  
341 Daisy:

342 *That's the thing, you know, Daisy, you know, she's got a condition, and it's step-by-step, you*  
343 *deal with what comes up, and the more information that comes up, you find something else*  
344 *to help it, you know, and you try and progress through it. You don't... it's no good... it*  
345 *doesn't benefit me or Daisy or Jo if we're worrying about what's going to happen in ten*  
346 *years' time. I can't....I can't enjoy what I'm doing now, but I also can't, function and do, you*  
347 *know.... how are you going to deal with your day-to-day knowing what might happen? So*  
348 *yeah, not me. I wasn't really interested in anything other than that.*

349 Whilst it has been suggested that people with experience of chronic health conditions are  
350 better able than those without to process and respond to uncertain and complex health  
351 information such as genetic propensities (Hitch et al, 2014; Sapp et al, 2014), like many  
352 parents of disabled children with high support needs and uncertain or life-limiting  
353 prognoses, Simon described an approach to managing his day-to-day life that focused on  
354 immediate need (Heiman, 2002). Unlike Malcolm, who viewed the retrieval of as much

355 information as possible from his sequence as an enactment of his 'genetic responsibility'  
356 (Kenen, 1994) towards his son, for Simon, acting responsibly instead meant eschewing this  
357 information to retain a clear focus on the present. By so-doing, Simon was better able to  
358 cope with, and enjoy, his current reality with Daisy, undisturbed by the potential pain of  
359 future-orientated and uncertain health information.

360       2) *Genetic Disease Severity and the Return of IFs*

361 For many participants, the acceptability of uncertain health information (such as a genetic  
362 finding of reduced penetrance) rested, at last in part, on the severity, impact and availability  
363 of treatments for the implicated condition. This concern applied to both types of IF available  
364 through the 100,000 Genomes Project, influencing perceptions of the utility of health-  
365 related and reproductive (carrier status) findings.

366 Whilst the list of conditions for which participants could be identified as having a pre-  
367 disposition to, or being a carrier of, through IFs were limited to seven in the 100,000  
368 Genomes Project (see Table 2), in describing examples of what they considered to be  
369 'serious', participants spontaneously mentioned a range of diseases. The most commonly  
370 mentioned were cancers and heart conditions (both n=6); followed by motor neurone  
371 disease (n=3), cystic fibrosis, multiple sclerosis, diabetes and blood disorders (all n=2). The  
372 following conditions were also spontaneously mentioned by one participant each as an  
373 example of conditions that can be serious in their presentation: arthritis, Down's Syndrome,  
374 dyspraxia, dyslexia, asthma, cerebral palsy, dementia, lung conditions, kidney conditions  
375 and sexual diseases. Whilst specific conditions were listed as examples by many  
376 participants, there was a wide variety of interpretations as to what 'serious' meant, and an  
377 acknowledgement that it encompassed a range of social, environmental, psychological as

378 well as biological factors. Due to this broad understanding of the impact of a genetic  
379 disease, participants frequently referred to different types of experience with a condition  
380 (such as 'pain' or 'restricted mobility') without these necessarily being ascribed to a single  
381 diagnosis. Jennifer, for example, a 31 year old woman who accepted all IFs and was  
382 participating in the project due to an undiagnosed condition in her sister described a serious  
383 condition in terms of the degree to which it affected life opportunities and independence:  
384 *Anything that would impede like a normal life physically or mentally where they couldn't*  
385 *grow to be an adult and they were dependent for their whole life. I'd consider that serious if*  
386 *they couldn't go to a normal school and have a normal education and be independent. So*  
387 *that probably covers a lot of things [diagnoses].*

388 However, for other participants, unpicking the severity of a condition from other factors,  
389 such as the likelihood of it ever developing and the social and environmental context in  
390 which the condition is experienced was near-impossible. Whilst components of this  
391 information (e.g. geno/phenotype correlation) was viewed as largely objective information,  
392 however, judgements on disease severity were considered to be far more nuanced,  
393 idiosyncratic and subjective, causing some participants to question whose role it was to  
394 make the judgement on where the boundaries around it should be drawn. Karen was 40  
395 years old at the time of her interview, had refused reproductive IFs, and was the mother to  
396 a young daughter, Molly, who was suspected to have Mayer-Rokitansky- Küster-Hauser  
397 (MRKH) Syndrome (a condition characterised by the absence of sex organs). Whilst Karen  
398 acknowledged that disease severity was an important consideration in determining whether  
399 people should receive IFs, she called into question the authority of the medical profession to

400 decide how severity should be defined, and therefore which results she would have the  
401 option of receiving;

402 *.....More severe, you know, more severe kind of conditions are the ones that are going to*  
403 *affect... I suppose if they're, you know, if a condition affects your life, your quality of*  
404 *life...[...]... although that's different for each person.....And I think, I think that's the, there's a*  
405 *line somewhere- so this is the threshold of things we give the information or not, but*  
406 *anything above this line we don't give the information.....But I would hope not, I would*  
407 *definitely not agree with that. I don't think you can ever hold back someone's information*  
408 *after you've got that information, but I think you have to say everything above this line we*  
409 *need to consider that all the facts and where the benefits and detrimental effects could be*  
410 *for this person, before giving that information. But then who is making that decision? What*  
411 *right have they got to make a decision? So there needs to be a, you know, I presume a very,*  
412 *very strict protocol you would need to go through to make a decision on who knows what,*  
413 *but I wouldn't want to be the one making those kinds of decisions!*

414 Like Karen, many other participants also thought that the medical profession should take  
415 into account the person's character (including their tendency towards anxiety and  
416 depression) when considering whether or not to return IFs, leading some to argue that  
417 findings related to mild conditions should not be returned at all. Natalie was 41 at the time  
418 of her interview and was participating in the 100,000 Genomes Project on account of her  
419 brother's diagnosis with Spastic Paraparesis and her daughter's diagnosis of Multiple  
420 Sclerosis. Whilst Natalie opted to receive health-related AFs from her sequence, she  
421 situated her ideas about the return of 'mild' IFs and pre-dispositions within a consumerist

422 and commercially driven cultural milieu which she perceived as bringing with it a particularly  
423 low tolerance of risk:

424 *I don't know, I think you've got to work with the individual, you know? I think there's*  
425 *probably lots of push out there for people to want to know if there's something the matter*  
426 *with them, we want to control everything. And everything is serious now, no one ever says*  
427 *they have a headache, it's always a migraine. And I've been... a lot of it is to do with*  
428 *finances as well, whether or not you can find these things out....whether you can get a house*  
429 *and get insurance, if you are right for this job, that sort of thing. And sometimes I think you*  
430 *can just frighten people without good cause really. So if it's mild I really don't think you need*  
431 *to know. I mean, we've done ok without knowing about them so far.*

432 For participants such as Natalie, living in a risk-adverse society which emphasises personal  
433 responsibility for health was critical to the push towards an expanding definition of what  
434 'serious' conditions are. Indeed, whilst accepting health-related IFs herself, Natalie  
435 simultaneously critiqued the rationale for providing this form of information in the first  
436 place, reflecting an ambivalence towards genomic medicine that was widespread amongst  
437 both IF accepters and decliners. The co-existence of seemingly contradictory views  
438 highlights not only the complexity of responses to IFs (and their situation within broader  
439 social and cultural ideas about health and health behaviours), but also the limitations of  
440 understanding patient perspectives on genomic medicine by recourse to test acceptance or  
441 decline alone.

442 Whilst the majority of participants in this study presented far more nuanced understandings  
443 of what 'mild' and 'serious' conditions were, that incorporated broader ranges of modifying  
444 factors than those offered within the professional taxonomies, for other participants, the

445 very concept of disease severity in relation to IF return was an entirely moot point. For  
446 these participants, using notions of seriousness or gene expressivity as a filter to determine  
447 which IFs should be returned was unacceptable, primarily because they viewed their  
448 genomic sequence as their own data, to which they should have full rights of access,  
449 irrespective of what the data meant.

450 Mary had just turned 60 and was being treated for a heart condition at the time of her  
451 participation in the 100,000 Genomes Project. Whilst Mary had declined reproductive IFs  
452 (which she described as being on account of her lack of children), she described her views  
453 on IFs, and her decision to receive all health-related ones in the following way:

454 *....you know, I think even if it's a mild condition....it's by the by. If somebody else knows it,*  
455 *then I should know it. I guess the medical profession are the people that would hold that*  
456 *information...But I do think that, yes, it's an entitlement, I wouldn't like to think somebody*  
457 *was keeping it from me. Or at the very least ask me if I want to know, which is what, you*  
458 *know, I signed the form to say, yes I would like to know please, because I don't think they*  
459 *have a right to withhold my information.*

460 For participants such as Mary, any harms of not receiving the information that had been  
461 generated from her sequence were perceived to out-weigh the harms of knowing, even if  
462 they related to conditions that might be considered mild or unlikely to present. For Mary,  
463 ownership of the data was presented within a discourse of rights and entitlement and  
464 expressed as a desire to make autonomous decisions over how the data were used. For her,  
465 there was something inherently wrong with another person knowing more about her health  
466 status than she did herself, and addressing what she perceived as imbalanced access to her

467 information overrode any of the difficulties associated with incomplete or flawed  
468 information that were raised by other participants.

469 The question of who owns genomic information arose in participants' accounts not only in  
470 relation to disease severity, however, but also in discussions of participants' rights and  
471 responsibilities to their biologically related kin, to which we now turn.

### 472 *3) Incidental Findings and Biologically Related Kin*

473 Whilst participants described accepting health-related and reproductive incidental findings  
474 for a host of different reasons, both future- orientated (to assist the development of cures  
475 and treatments; to help plan their lives) and anchored in the present (enabling them to  
476 access tailored treatments and to better understand themselves), one of the most  
477 commonly mentioned reasons for accepting both health-related and reproductive IFs  
478 concerned relationships with biologically-related others. Indeed, whilst not specifically  
479 asked about within the interview schedule, seven participants spontaneously mentioned  
480 that they felt they had an obligation to ensure that genetic diseases did not get passed on  
481 through their family, and there was evidence of participants experiencing both shame and  
482 guilt when this had occurred. Niall, who opted to receive all IFs available, was 26 years old at  
483 the time he participated in the 100,000 Genomes Project, with a suspected diagnosis of an  
484 X-linked (i.e. expressed in males and transmitted by females) neuromuscular condition. Niall  
485 described the impact his taking part in the project had had on his relationship with both his  
486 mother, but also could have on his daughter, who is suspected of being a carrier:

487 *....I remember phoning my mum and going, "I've been told about this [100,000 Genomes*  
488 *Project]. And she said "oh", and one of the first things she said was "I'm sorry, I didn't*  
489 *know". And I guess she felt bad that she'd passed [undiagnosed condition] on to me,*

490 *because she didn't know. So yeah, I think people need to know what's in their genes so they*  
491 *won't have to have that conversation that me and mum had. And I said "it's not your fault*  
492 *mum, I'm sorry", and then she cried. And then I felt bad, and I felt bad that I'd passed that*  
493 *same burden on to my daughter. So yeah, maybe it would spare people the future pain or*  
494 *future problems, if they're just open and honest, and say "look, this is what you've got, or*  
495 *you could have", you know, people should know. Yeah, it was a tough phone call to have,*  
496 *and then telling my wife about it, she got really upset. And she said "well, what if we want*  
497 *more children?" And I remember just being positive and saying "well, it might be recessive,*  
498 *and we can have more children". But if it's something that I'm going to pass on, I'll be*  
499 *honest, I don't want them to have to go through what I go through on a daily basis. Some*  
500 *days are better than others and I'm perfectly fine. Other days, I don't get out of bed because*  
501 *it's just too much. Yeah. So the more people that know the better, it's only fair.*

502 Niall's sense of genetic responsibility, not only to his daughter, but also to his future and as-  
503 yet hypothetical children, had entirely shifting since his participation in the 100,000  
504 Genomes Project. Up until this point, Niall had not considered the potential genetic origins  
505 of his condition, nor what this information might mean for daughter, wife and mother, as  
506 well as himself, as they considered both their future, present and past reproductive  
507 responsibilities.

508 Indeed, for some participants, the perceived need to obtain, distribute and act on genetic  
509 information within families was so powerful that those who did not co-opt into such  
510 practices were labelled 'irresponsible' or even 'selfish', as Frank, a 71 year old participant  
511 commented:

512 *....Well I think people have to think long and hard about whether they want to pass*  
513 *something on, and then take advice. I think it's their job really to make sure they tell*  
514 *everyone who could be affected because basically you are... maybe bringing somebody into*  
515 *this world with a problem that you've got yourself, and it may even be worse, and making*  
516 *your life bad and their life hell...and some people are just selfish aren't they? They don't care*  
517 *if they, you know if they... if it's going to affect somebody else. But I would say it's your duty*  
518 *as a human being to look after other human beings, and certainly those within your own*  
519 *family, otherwise, where are we going?*

520 Whilst participants most frequently spoke of the need to disseminate genetic information to  
521 biologically-related kin, to inform them both of their chances of developing the condition,  
522 but also their chances of passing it on, for some participants, this sense of genetic  
523 responsibility was, paradoxically, also the reason they opted to decline IFs.

524 Bethany was 42 at the time of her interview and had joined the project due to an  
525 undiagnosed degenerative disorder in her teenage daughter. For Bethany, it was not an  
526 absence of a sense of genetic responsibility that influenced her decision to decline all IFs,  
527 but rather her acute awareness of that accountability, and the concomitant possibility that  
528 she might be held responsible and blamed for any decisions taken if they were made in the  
529 context of genomic information:

530 *I think that I just decided that, I thought why would you really want to know about the*  
531 *carrier testing? Because we just were happy to sort of get on with our life. We didn't want to*  
532 *find out something that maybe there was nothing we could do about it, and then have that*  
533 *hanging over us for the rest of our lives, and also if you don't know about something you*  
534 *can't get blamed for it either, can you?*

535 Like Niall and Frank, Bethany's perception of the strong association between genetic  
536 responsibility and 'genetic blame' were reflected in her views on IF decision-making, even as  
537 these participants eventually arrived at entirely polarised decisions.

538 In addition to Bethany, other participants who declined IFs did not necessarily do so as a  
539 rejection of their responsibilities to biological kin, but rather because they had a broader  
540 view of those responsibilities, incorporating responsibilities to promote social justice,  
541 acceptance and diversity in a society that views genetic impairment in typically negative  
542 ways. Toby, for example, was 34 at the time of his interview and had been diagnosed with a  
543 form of Muscular Dystrophy. For Toby, participation in the 100,000 Genomes Project was  
544 about gaining a definitive diagnosis and access to potentially more suitable treatments.  
545 However, he had concerns about accessing and disseminating his genomic data beyond the  
546 boundaries of this goal. Indeed, for him, declining all IFs was an active decision to  
547 demonstrate his affirmation of life with genetic impairment:

548 *I suppose I always wonder with that [disclosure to biologically related kin] how far down the*  
549 *road are you going to get with that until you're starting to verge on eugenics? Well maybe*  
550 *not that as such but, you know, those kind of areas..... So, you know, it's not just affecting*  
551 *the person who is making the decision [about IFs], but how do you, how is that decision*  
552 *going to have an effect on somebody else who has got that condition, and what are you*  
553 *saying to them? What you're saying to them is that, you know, you shouldn't have been*  
554 *born, we want to stop you happening again so we better make sure everyone knows and*  
555 *does the right thing. I'm sorry, no. So yeah, that's my, you know, I don't like that, that idea.*  
556 *So, you know, people say that if the information's available, everyone should have it, but*

557 *should you be getting that information in the first place? I don't know, but I think probably*  
558 *not.*

559 Unlike Niall and Frank, Toby's interpretation of his genetic responsibility extended beyond  
560 his biological family, to other people with the same condition as him. For him, reproductive  
561 responsibility lay primarily in his reinforcement of the intrinsic value of life with a genetic  
562 disorder, rather than in the prevention of lives affected by them. Through a dislocation of  
563 his genomic data from the discourse of rights and entitlement which often surround it, Toby  
564 situated the return of IFs within a sociopolitical context in which the lives of disabled people  
565 are valued in very particular ways.

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**DISCUSSION**

578 As genomic medicine continues to expand, there are mounting concerns around how the  
579 swathes of data that can be generated from its usage are accessed, stored, interpreted and  
580 communicated to patients (Christenhusz et al, 2013; Klitzman et al, 2013; Himes et al, 2017;  
581 Clift et al, 2015). Indeed, these concerns are only set to increase as techniques such as  
582 whole genome sequencing enter mainstream healthcare, particularly in the fields of  
583 diagnostics and reproduction. Whilst it is hoped that genomic sequencing will facilitate  
584 more accurate diagnoses, tailored treatments and better information about one's genomic  
585 health, IFs nevertheless remain a persistently controversial area, with different views in the  
586 published literature on how they should be managed (Ewuoso, 2016). In spite of this  
587 burgeoning professional literature, comparatively little is known about the views of people  
588 undergoing genomic sequencing towards the return of IFs. To the best of our knowledge,  
589 this qualitative study is the first to offer a comparative analysis between the decision-  
590 making of geneticists, clinicians and researchers, with the views, experiences and decisions  
591 of 31 whole genome sequencing volunteers who had all recently made decisions about  
592 whether or not to receive them. This study is also one of the first to include the under-  
593 explored perspectives of participants who declined IFs; a minority group within genomic  
594 sequencing patients overall, and a challenging population to recruit. However, by  
595 purposefully oversampling this group and employing more intensive recruitment strategies  
596 to do so, we were able to conduct a more in-depth and substantial analysis of their views.

597 There was evidence from across the sample that genomic data was held in particularly high  
598 regard by those participating in the project and considered vastly different to other forms of  
599 health data. The need for specialist technological input to both access and interpret it, its

600 relevance to all systems and organs within the body, but, critically, also its permanency and  
601 uniqueness, were are pivotal to the demarcation of genomic data as the ‘holy grail’  
602 (Malcolm) of health information. Indeed, for many participants, genomic data was regarded  
603 as ‘trumping’ all other forms of health data- forming the very blueprint for an individual’s  
604 existence.

605 It was this high status assigned to genomic information by participants in the study that  
606 made the potential of an imperfect correlation between genomic findings and phenotypic  
607 expression particularly hard to reconcile. As many participants had joined the 100,000  
608 Genomes Project with expectations of finding a ‘solid answer’ (Hallie) to the health  
609 difficulties affecting their family, IFs that related to pre-dispositions or that had reduced  
610 expressivity, posed particular challenges to deeply entrenched beliefs about the power of  
611 genomic data. Participants typically responded to these uncertainties by drawing on  
612 fatalistic ideas about genomics in order to minimise its intrinsic uncertainties (e.g. Malcolm).  
613 Whilst for others- particularly those who rejected IFs- probabilistic information was likened  
614 to a ‘sword of Damocles’ hanging over them, which, if related to a condition that could not  
615 be prevented, treated or cured, was considered to only cause anxiety and reduce enjoyment  
616 of life. This view is also reflected in the professional literature that argues for restrictions on  
617 the return of IFs (Berkman & Chondros Hall, 2014) as well as being echoed in the debates  
618 that surround the possible expansion of the newborn bloodspot screening (Taylor-Philips et  
619 al, 2014). Indeed, as the ‘therapeutic gap’ (Botkin, 2016) (i.e. the chasm that exists between  
620 the capacity to identify genetic diseases and ability to treat them) appears to be widening  
621 alongside improvements in detection technologies (of which genomic sequencing is one),  
622 increasing numbers of IFs with highly uncertain impacts and few available therapeutic

623 options are likely to continue to appear in the future, suggesting a need for ongoing regular  
624 revisions of the criteria used to determine which IFs should be returned to patients.

625 However, the likelihood of the genetic disease actually occurring was not the only factor  
626 that participants considered important when deciding whether or not to receive its  
627 associated IF. The severity of the condition and its anticipated trajectory were also  
628 considered to be of paramount importance, both for interview participants, as well as within  
629 published recommendations in the literature (e.g. European Society of Human Genetics,  
630 2013; Bennette et al, 2013; Knoppers et al, 2013; Sénécal et al, 2015; Wolf et al, 2008;  
631 Korngiebel et al, 2016).

632 Despite its significance, however, the notion of 'seriousness', remains a nebulous and poorly  
633 defined concept, both in relation to whole genome and exome sequencing (Korngiebel et al,  
634 2016; Nuffield Council on Bioethics, 2018; Sapp et al, 2014), but also genomic screening  
635 (Lazarin et al, 2014; Molster et al, 2017; Leo et al, 2016), with calls for more systematic  
636 guidelines on the classification of different genetic disorders along this dimension (Ceyhan-  
637 Bisroy et al, 2017; Crouch, 2018).

638 To navigate this uncertainty, participants in this study drew on a broad spectrum of lived  
639 experience with health, disease and disability to make sense of both the IF, and their  
640 decision to receive it or not (Etchegary et al, 2008). Rather than focusing on individual  
641 conditions, however, 'experiential categories' were frequently used by participants as a  
642 means by which to decipher severity. Participants drew boundaries around different types  
643 of disease experience, such as 'life-limiting' 'painful' 'treatable' to cluster groups of  
644 conditions together and define them as either serious or mild. Unlike the classifications used  
645 within the literature that have typically only examined the medical implications of a disorder

646 (e.g. Korngiebel et al, 2016; Lazarin et al, 2014), participants' understandings were both  
647 nuanced and broadly contextualised, incorporating social, economic, environmental and  
648 psychological aspects of living with genetic disease. Indeed, participants not only considered  
649 the condition itself, but were also able to *personalise* that genetic risk, tailoring their  
650 appraisal of it to their unique set of circumstances and values (e.g. Simon and Daisy) and  
651 using it as a tool with which to make decisions around the return of IFs.

652 As well as IF accepters, IF decliners (e.g. Karen) also considered the severity of the condition  
653 associated with an IF as an important part of their decision-making. However, this group  
654 expressed far more reticence than IF accepters about the possibility of being able to  
655 appraise the condition's severity in advance of it occurring. As has been highlighted in  
656 critiques of IF return from the published literature (Berkman & Chandros Hull, 2014), these  
657 participants were more likely to express concerns over who has the authority to deem a  
658 condition severe (e.g. Karen), as well as to highlight the fact that definitions of seriousness  
659 are likely to alter over time, reducing the utility of an IF in predicting severe genetic disease.

660 A final key feature of the way in which participants described and understood their genomic  
661 information that cut across all of the three key domains explored was its tangible  
662 relationship to identity- not just personal identity and sense of self- but also to familial  
663 identity. For participants, it was the identity-constituting nature of genomic data that led  
664 them to challenge the authority of clinicians to withhold any IFs that were generated from  
665 their sequence. By understanding IFs through a discourse of rights and entitlement, these  
666 participants discounted the relevance of professional judgements on phenotype expression  
667 and disease severity in determining access to their IFs, and instead regarded their genomic  
668 data as belonging *a priori* to themselves. Whilst Birch et al (2012) have argued that

669 members of the public perceive geneticists as opening the lid of ‘pandora’s box’ through  
670 genomic sequencing, the findings of this study suggest that many participants regarded  
671 geneticists as having a much less active and creative role in the generation of IFs, acting  
672 instead as the interpreter through which *pre-existing* genomic variants could be accessed  
673 and appraised, rather than contributing to the generation or ‘release’ of new ones.

674 Prior claims on the ownership of genomic data, however, not only created tensions in the  
675 relationships between patients and health care professionals, but was also played out in the  
676 negotiation of rights and responsibilities within families. The notion of ‘genetic  
677 responsibility’ has been widely used within the literature to describe the range of  
678 obligations and activities undertaken by those at genetic risk (Kenen, 1994; Hallowell, 1999;  
679 Hallowell et al, 2006; D’Agincourt-Canning, 2001). However, the findings of this study  
680 highlight that a broad move away from targeted genetic testing to an age expansive  
681 genomic sequencing brings with it new forms of ‘*genomic* responsibility’ that go beyond  
682 previously understood responsibilities. The most common ways that this genomic  
683 responsibility was referred to within this dataset was in relation to the perceived duty to  
684 disclose genetic information to related family members whose health could be implicated  
685 and/or to act on future-orientated genetic risk information that could minimise the risk of  
686 disease in either their future selves or offspring. However, as this study has highlighted,  
687 participants’ sense of genomic responsibility frequently extended beyond the boundaries of  
688 their biologically related kin, reflecting an interest in the emerging project of ‘social  
689 genomics’. Participants such as Toby, for example, raised concerns about the directions this  
690 project may take in the future, including its impacts on the lives of disabled people. Indeed,  
691 this notion of collective responsibility for the future directions of genomics was significant  
692 even for those participants who declined IFs. For these participants, interpreting their

693 rejection of IFs as an expression of apathy would be to underestimate the powerful  
694 discourse of genomic responsibility that they were reacting to. Indeed, the avoidance of IFs  
695 for these participants was not a rejection or disvalue of genomic information per se, but  
696 instead was a rejection of the perceived responsibilities associated with that information,  
697 for which they did not want to be 'blamed' (Bethany). As such, whilst advances in genomic  
698 medicine are frequently justified on the basis of their extension of patient autonomy and  
699 choice, this study highlights the way that accountability to notions of genomic responsibility  
700 (personal, familial and social) can paradoxically undermine and displace participants'  
701 autonomy- by reducing the means available to justify and present their decision, including  
702 their right 'not to know' (Berkman and Chandros Hull, 2014; Hallowell, 1999).

703 Overall, therefore, this study brings into critical relief the simultaneously telescopic and  
704 expansive effects that the use of genomic sequencing can have on understandings of  
705 personal and familial health, identities and roles. By focusing on decisions around the return  
706 of IFs, this study highlights that participants' responses to IFs were at once tightly focused  
707 (on one particular variant) but also macroscopic, taking into account their personal  
708 biographies, social and biological relationships with known and unknown others, as well as  
709 the broader socio-political context in which they lived. Their accounts underscore the value  
710 placed on personal choice and autonomy (and a rejection of clinical paternalism) in  
711 determining which IFs they should have access to, but simultaneously demonstrate how  
712 broad notions of genomic responsibility can have a similarly restrictive effects on IF  
713 decision-making as those imposed by clinicians. By closing down particular ways of  
714 justifying, and accounting for decisions- particularly IF refusal- participants found  
715 themselves navigating difficult (and not previously well-trodden) pathways, balancing the  
716 various (and sometimes competing) interests, harms, benefits and responsibilities

717 associated with IF return, even when this was at the expense of their own autonomy and  
718 free choice.

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## 720 **FURTHER RESEARCH**

721 Further research may usefully focus on the ways in which concepts such as reproductive  
722 citizenship, genomic responsibility and risk may be deployed to better understand the full  
723 range of responsibilities and burdens associated with participation in genomic sequencing  
724 research and clinical practice. As the capacities of genomic medicine continue to expand and  
725 consequently also the list of potential IFs that could be returned, the involvement of patient  
726 and public groups in decisions surrounding returnable variants is now of paramount  
727 importance.

728 The expansion of genomic medicine also challenges traditional methods of gathering  
729 informed consent from genetics patients (Lucassen et al, 2016). Further research that  
730 explores patients' prior experiences with health and disease, and how these relate to their  
731 perceptions of disease severity, may be particularly useful in assisting the development of  
732 patient orientated taxonomies of IF return that could be used to supplement existing clinical  
733 taxonomies. Such patient orientated taxonomies would likely include a broader range of  
734 social, cultural and environmental factors that are currently not acknowledged in clinical  
735 taxonomies (Table 1), but which are nevertheless aspects of disease experience that can  
736 render it 'severe' in the eyes of patients (for example, the experience of social stigma and  
737 inaccessible environments). Through the generation of patient centred taxonomies to assist  
738 decision-making, the process of IF return can be rendered more meaningful, particularly in

739 contexts where participants are likely to lack any prior experience and knowledge of the  
740 condition in question.

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## 742 **STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES**

743 This study, whilst representing a wide range of views and decisions, may nevertheless be  
744 biased by its reliance on 100,000 Genomes Project volunteers. As the majority of the  
745 participants in this project were having their genomes sequenced to assist, primarily, in the  
746 diagnosis of a family member (rather than for their own direct benefit), this may have  
747 contributed to accounts whereby notions of genetic responsibility were particularly  
748 emphasised. In spite of this limitation, however, the final sample demonstrated an  
749 acceptable level of diversity, with participants having a wide range of prior experiences with  
750 rare disease and cancer (see Table 3). IF decliners were also over-represented in this study,  
751 however, the lack of prior research on their perspectives counter-balances this sampling  
752 bias as it allowed for a detailed analysis of their (difficult to access) perspectives, which is  
753 ultimately a key strength of this paper.

754

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761 **CONFLICTS OF INTEREST**

762 The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

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