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# Conclusion of diagnostic odysseys due to inversions disrupting GLI3 and FBN1 

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#### Abstract

Many genetic testing methodologies are biased towards picking up structural variants (SVs) that alter copy number. Copy-neutral rearrangements such as inversions are therefore likely to suffer from underascertainment. In this study, manual review prompted by a virtual multidisciplinary team meeting and subsequent bioinformatic prioritisation of data from the 100K Genomes Project was performed across 43 genes linked to well-characterised skeletal disorders. Ten individuals from three independent families were found to harbour diagnostic inversions. In two families, inverted segments of $1.2 / 14.8 \mathrm{Mb}$ unequivocally disrupted GL/3 and segregated with skeletal features consistent with Greig cephalopolysyndactyly syndrome. For one family, phenotypic blending was due to the opposing breakpoint lying $\sim 45 \mathrm{~kb}$ from HOXA13. In the third family, long suspected to have Marfan syndrome, a 2.0 Mb inversion disrupting FBN1 was identified. These findings resolved lengthy diagnostic odysseys of 9-20 years and highlight the importance of direct interaction between clinicians and data-analysts. These exemplars of a rare mutational class inform future SV prioritisation strategies within the NHS Genomic Medicine Service and similar genome sequencing initiatives. In over 30 years since these two disease-gene associations were identified, large inversions have yet to be described and so our results extend the mutational spectra linked to these conditions.


## INTRODUCTION

The rare-disease pilot phase of the 100 K Genomes Project (100KGP) involved 2183 families spread across 20 different diagnostic categories. ${ }^{1}$ Building on previous studies, ${ }^{2}$ this has been a major step towards embedding whole-genome sequencing (WGS) into standard healthcare, providing valuable lessons which are being applied in the UK National Health Service (NHS) Genomic Medicine Service. One notable finding was the significant uplift in diagnostic yield made with the help of researchers, which increased the overall yield to $25 \%$. These researcher-enabled findings included 22 noncoding variants, many of which were confirmed experimentally by splicing/luciferase studies, and several repeat expansions.

Many individuals recruited to 100 KGP had previously been pre-screened by microarrays, PCR-Sanger, multiplex ligation-dependent probe
amplification, exome sequencing or panel-NGS. These types of genetic analysis are typically inefficient at picking up inversions. Although traditional karyotyping can identify inversions, in most cases this is limited to events of $>10 \mathrm{Mb}$ and such methods are nowadays employed infrequently as a first-line test. ${ }^{3}$ While the latest optical mapping methods demonstrate a high concordance with traditional approaches ${ }^{4}$ and have the potential to be used as first-line test for detecting cryptic SVs, ${ }^{5}$ these methods are not yet performed routinely in clinical laboratories. Therefore, one might anticipate 100 KGP to be enriched for cryptic structural variants (SVs). Given that the raison d'être of WGS is to pick up all forms of variation, the absence of diagnostic inversions or other complex copyneutral rearrangements in the 100 KGP pilot is notable. Of the 40 variants classed as SVs, all were simple deletions/duplications. ${ }^{1}$

This study was prompted by an unanticipated finding resulting from a virtual multidisciplinary (MDT) meeting involving clinical and academic centres in the UK set up to review genetic/clinical data for unsolved musculoskeletal cases from the 100 KGP . These meetings aimed to integrate phenotypic information with dREAMS radiological characterisation ${ }^{6}$ and combine with manual review of genomic data. To follow-up our initial findings, which included a family with an inversion disrupting GLI3, bioinformatic SV prioritisation tools were developed to search systematically for gene-disrupting inversions across 43 genes that have been linked to well-characterised autosomal dominant forms of skeletal disorders.

## METHODS

The 100KGP was initiated in 2013 to establish diagnoses for patients with rare-disease and cancer and promote the use of WGS in the NHS. ${ }^{7}$ The clinical filtering pipeline designed by Genomics England to analyse data from the 100 KGP uses a tiering system (online supplemental figure S1A). Variants are assigned as tier $1-3$ depending on inheritance, consequence and on whether they lie in a gene assessed as Green in PanelApp (https://panelapp. genomicsengland.co.uk), a crowdsourcing knowledgebase containing virtual gene panels relating to a wide range of human disorders. Data from the 100KGP are held in the National Genomic Research

Library (https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.4530893.v6) and researchers can apply to access data at www.genomicsengland. co.uk/join-a-gecip-domain. If researchers discover variants that could represent a diagnosis for a participant, they are asked to submit the variants into a review/triage pipeline (online supplemental figure S1B), helping provide assurance to the Genomic Medicine Service that the diagnoses are of high quality and clinical relevance.

In the majority of rare-disease cases, DNA was extracted from blood using the EDTA method and TruSeq PCR-free high throughput library preparation was followed by 150 bp pairedread sequencing on a HiSeqX machine (Illumina). SVs were called using a combination of CANVAS and MANTA algorithms and combined into single 'SV.vcf' files. Mean sequence coverage for the 10 individuals reported here was $35-55 \mathrm{x}$ and 341-519 inversions were called, consistent with the numbers seen across the 100 KGP as a whole (mean 427; online supplemental table S1). Further quality control statistics are available within the Genomics England research environment.

A monthly virtual MDT meeting process was initiated to scrutinise clinical/WGS data with the aim of helping to solve unsolved musculoskeletal cases from the 100KGP. Further details describing these meetings are available in online supplemental methods. Manual review of read alignments was performed using IGV (v2.11.9), with visibility range threshold setting increased to 100 kb . The SV.vcf file was also loaded into IGV with the feature visibility window size set to 0 kb .

SVs are thought to play a significant role in dominant disease and yet are often missed by WGS analytical pipelines. We therefore sought to extend the preliminary results arising from the MDT meetings by focussing on 43 autosomal genes (online supplemental table S2) listed in the 2019 revision of the skeletal disorder nosology ${ }^{8}$ which curators at the Clinical Genome Resource (www.clinicalgenome.org) assessed as having 'sufficient evidence' supporting haploinsufficiency as a disease mechanism ( $\mathrm{HI}=3$ ). Gene-oriented filtering of SVs in rare disease cases from the main-programme of the 100 KGP was performed with SVRare, ${ }^{9}$ as described in online supplemental methods. To validate inversions, breakpoint PCR and Sanger sequencing was performed using primers listed in online supplemental table S3.

## RESULTS

Prior to the first MDT meeting, details were circulated of a boy with clinical features consistent with Greig cephalopolysyndactyly syndrome (GCS) that included relative macrocephaly, hypertelorism, postaxial polysyndactyly of hands and preaxial polysyndactyly of feet (Family 1; online supplemental figure S2). Similarly affected family members included two older siblings, the father and the paternal grandmother (figure 1A). Targeted GLI3 sequencing in 2004 and again in 2015 had been negative (online supplemental table S4). Due to a confident clinical diagnosis of GCS syndrome, manual inspection of read alignments was performed and in $4 / 4$ affected family members clustering of split read-pairs was identified in intron 4 (figure 1B). Relative strand orientations were consistent with the presence of a 1.2 Mb inversion. This inversion had been called by Manta as chr7:42 051 297-43 254780 (GRCh38). While the distal breakpoint disrupts GLI3, the proximal breakpoint lies within HECW1, another gene predicted to be constrained against loss of function variants ( $\mathrm{pLI}=1$, gnomAD 2.1.1) but not yet associated with any Mendelian disease. Breakpoints called by Manta were consistent with those seen in the Sanger validation data (online supplemental figure S 3 ), confirming a small $\sim 25 \mathrm{bp}$
deletion at one end (online supplemental figure S4). The genuine 1.2 Mb GLI3 inversion lay within a larger 11.6 Mb inversion call. Manual scrutiny of read alignments suggested the latter to be an artefact and increased confidence for genuine inversions may be achieved by the fact that breakpoints are detected separately and represented twice in the SV.vcf file in a reciprocal manner (online supplemental figure S5, table S4).

As inversions are an under-reported class of SV, we sought to replicate this finding using SVRare ${ }^{9}$ across 71408 rare-disease participants from 100KGP. This cohort corresponds to 33924 families, of which 5222 were recruited under the musculoskeletal domain. Here, we focused on 43 genes linked to skeletal disorders where haploinsufficiency is a known mechanism. ${ }^{8}$ Although Manta typically calls $\sim 400$ inversions per genome, prioritisation is simpler than for deletions/duplications because only genes overlapping breakpoints are unequivocally disrupted. More detailed information of the filtering/interpretation process is provided in online supplemental figures S 6 and S 7 .

Our systematic prioritisation uncovered Family 2, where a 14.8 Mb inversion (chr7:27 245 456-42 072 394) disrupting GLI3 was identified in $4 / 4$ affected family members (figure 1A and B). The proband was first reviewed in the genetics clinic in her early 30 s , following a termination of pregnancy due to multiple congenital abnormalities. She presented with an unusual combination of distal limb and genitourinary tract malformations. The patient was noted to have a bicornuate uterus with solitary vagina and cervix, a unilateral duplex kidney, bilateral broad and proximally placed thumbs (online supplemental figure S8A), bilateral medial displacement of the great toe ('sandal gap') and bilateral $2 / 3$ toe syndactyly (online supplemental figure S8B). Clinical details for other family members are available in the online supplemental methods. Although hand-foot-genital syndrome (MIM \#140000) had been suspected, targeted HOXA13 analysis and exome sequencing failed to identify any pathogenic variants. While disruption of GLI3 at the proximal breakpoint likely contributes to the skeletal phenotype, the distal breakpoint in 7 p 15.2 lies $\sim 45 \mathrm{~kb}$ upstream of HOXA13 and so positional effects may underlie the more variable urogenital anomalies. Breakpoint PCR and Sanger sequencing validated the inversion and confirmed the breakpoints to be consistent with those called by Manta (online supplemental figure S9), although with a small 14 bp insertion at the proximal end and a 6 bp deletion at the distal end (online supplemental figure S10).

Lastly, a mother-daughter duo (Family 3) with Marfan syndrome suspected for $\sim 20$ years shared a 2.0 Mb inversion (chr15:46 635 052-48 604 302) disrupting FBN1 (figure 1A,C). The daughter, first seen in the genetics clinic in her early teens, had skeletal features typical of the condition, with an increased upper segment:lower segment ratio, positive wrist and thumb signs, striae over the knees, upper legs and lower back, mild pectus excavatum and mild scoliosis. An echocardiogram showed marked aortic root dilatation. Despite previous genetic testing of FBN1 using a variety of methods (online supplemental table S4), the family remained without a diagnosis. Additional clinical details are available in online supplemental methods. Breakpoint PCR and Sanger sequencing validated the inversion in both affected family members and confirmed the breakpoints to be consistent with those called by Manta (online supplemental figures S11 and S12). Finding the molecular cause of disease in this family will have direct clinical utility as there are several relatives for whom we may now be able to provide accurate advice about their risks. Most notably, the proband's son would be difficult to discharge without any molecular testing, as clinical


Figure 1 Pedigrees and characteristic read-alignment signatures for rare diagnostic inversions in three Families from 100KGP. (A) Pedigrees and genetic segregation. Shading in Family 1 indicates polysyndactyly of hands/feet, relative macrocephaly and suspected Greig syndrome. Shading in Family 2 indicates radial dysplasia, toe syndactyly and variable urogenital features, as detailed in online supplemental figure S 13 . Shading in Family 3 indicates thoracic aortic aneurysm and suspected Marfan syndrome. Clinical status of the proband's son is unknown. *WGS data available from 100KGP. NA, genetic testing not performed. (B) Read-alignments viewed with IGV showing inversions of chr7:42 051 297-43 254780 (Family 1) and chr7:27 245 456-42 072394 (Family 2). Both GLI3-disrupting inversions have breakpoints in intron 4, confirming that truncation of the gene at this point is a bona fide disease mechanism. (C) Distal breakpoint of inversion (chr15:46 635 052-48 604 302) disrupting FBN1 shared by proband (upper track) and mother (middle). tControl (lower) is unrelated individual from 100 KGP analysed using similar methods. GRCh38 read-alignments are coloured by pair orientation such that read-pairs where both reads map to the +ve genomic strand are highlighted in green. Read-pairs where both reads map to the -ve strand (blue) are seen on the other side of the breakpoint.
features of Marfan syndrome are often incomplete in childhood and it can be a very variable condition even in adulthood.

## DISCUSSION

In this study, a combination of MDT discussion, manual review and systematic bioinformatics filtering helped identify rare germline inversions involving GLI3 and FBN1. In family 1, the variant was found by manual assessment of a single candidate gene, prompted by an MDT meeting, highlighting the importance of having detailed phenotypic information to guide analysis. GCS is a highly recognisable condition and we recognise that for a majority of Mendelian disorders, genetic heterogeneity would make manual assessment of read alignments impractical. We therefore performed a systematic analysis of 43 genes involving 33924 families which identified additional pathogenic inversions disrupting GLI3 and FBN1, highlighting that bioinformatic prioritisation of such variants is possible. Until now, the clinical pipeline used by Genomics England has only used SV calls from Canvas, explaining why copy-neutral changes such as these have been missed. As noted in other studies, ${ }^{10}$ optimisation of SV calling/prioritisation is a key area for pipeline development if the full value of clinical WGS is to be realised.

No large germline inversions have been reported for these genes previously, despite both disease-gene associations being described $>30$ years ago. ${ }^{112}$ A recent study identified 48 novel cases with causative variants in GLI3 and performed a review with 314 previously reported GLI3 variants, looking primarily for genotype-phenotype correlations-none of the variants were inversions. ${ }^{13}$ Searching HGMD identified two historical cases of GCS with translocation breakpoints in $7 \mathrm{p} 13,{ }^{14-16}$ which were critical to help pinpoint this disease gene, ${ }^{12}$ but no inversions. Literature searches on FBN1 identified a CAA $>$ TTG variant ${ }^{17}$ but this could be classified as a multinucleotide substitution. This variant (NM_000138.5:c.1881_1883inv, p.Cys628Asn) was also present in $\overline{\mathrm{C}}$ linVar, alongside two other small inversions
(c.6617-9_6617-8inv and c.1875_1876inv; p.Gly626Arg), but these are all much smaller than the three inversions reported here $(1.2-14.8 \mathrm{Mb})$ and likely result from different mutational processes. Another recent study assessed $>373$ paediatric patients with Marfan syndrome and did not identify any inversions, although the methods used may have made detection of such variants difficult. ${ }^{18}$ Last, the Universal Mutation Database for FBN1 (www.umd.be/FBN1) contains information about 3077 mutations, but there were no inversions reported.

Although for all three families described, the correct clinical diagnoses had been proposed previously, the precise genetic basis had remained unexplained for $9-20$ years and so no specific diagnostic or predictive/prenatal test could be offered. In each case, although multiple genetic techniques were used prior to 100 KGP recruitment (figure 2), most of these methods are unable to detect copy-neutral SVs such as inversions. The exception to this is karyotyping which had been performed only for Family 1. However, in that family, the inversion was 1.2 Mb in size and thus below the detection threshold. Another striking observation is that the respective diagnostic odysseys continued, even after the WGS data had been generated and the time between the sequencing data being available and reporting of the variants ranged from $31 / 2$ to $5^{1 / 2}$ years. This lag-time highlights the difficulty in picking up bona fide diagnostic inversions in a national clinical WGS project and the importance of understanding the limitations of the methodology employed. In such settings, a high degree of specificity is needed due to limited knowledge regarding the pathogenic importance of copy-neutral SVs.

Both GCS and Pallister-Hall syndrome (PHS) are caused by variants in GLI3. Genotype-phenotype correlation studies have indicated that mutations in the N -terminal and C-terminal thirds of the gene lead to GCS whereas mutations in the middle section lead to PHS. ${ }^{19}$ A later study confirmed this correlation and suggested the coordinates of the central PHS specific region to be between nucleotides 1998 and $3481 .^{20}$ Both inversions


Figure 2 Diagnostic odyssey timelines for Families 1-3. For Family 1, precise dates were unavailable for karyotyping and array testing. *Sequence data initially analysed in 2016 using GRCh37 as a reference. The same data were remapped and reanalysed on GRCh38 in February 2020. †Variant identified on Rare Disease Day 2021. WGS, whole-genome sequencing.
reported here for Families 1 and 2 had breakpoints in intron four and so disrupt GLI3 after cDNA position 474 and therefore these results are largely consistent with the previously reported genotype-phenotype correlation for GCS. However, for Family 1, while disruption to GLI3 is likely responsible for most of the clinical features seen in this family, we cannot rule out that HECW1 disruption could be relevant with respect to some of the atypical features. For Family 2, a degree of phenotypic blending seems highly plausible given the prior suspicion for hand-footgenital syndrome. A study from 2016 used karyotyping/WGS to characterise a homozygous 66 Mb inversion that lies 523 kb upstream of HOXA13, found in a patient with hand-foot-genital syndrome. ${ }^{21}$ Given that studies using mouse limb cells suggest that expression of HoxA genes can be controlled by enhancer elements located $5^{\prime}$ of the gene cluster, ${ }^{22}$ the authors suggested that the large pericentric inversion might dysregulate the spatial/ temporal expression of HOXA13. Due to the large distance involved, any dysregulation would likely be less severe than for dominantly acting mutations that result in disease due to haploinsufficiency, hence leading to the recessive mode of inheritance. ${ }^{21}$ Here, the distal breakpoint of the inversion in Family 2 lies just 45 kb from HOXA13 and so could potentially have a more severe effect of gene regulation.

In summary, our work stresses the need to integrate multiple SV-calling algorithms and the importance of direct interaction between clinicians and data-analysts for cases where clinical suspicion points to a particular gene. Our identification of three unrelated families harbouring inversions disrupting well-known disease genes highlights examples of a rare mutational class that had not been prioritised by Genomics England's pipeline. Manual review prompted by a virtual MDT meeting and subsequent bioinformatic prioritisation of data can help to conclude lengthy diagnostic odysseys for the respective families.

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## SHORT REPORT

# Supplemental material: Conclusion of diagnostic odysseys due to inversions disrupting GLI3 and FBN1 

## Supplemental methods

## 1. Musculoskeletal MDT meetings

In March 2021 we initiated a virtual multidisciplinary team meeting (MDT) process with the aim of reviewing unsolved musculoskeletal families from the 100KGP. This MDT process is ongoing, with support from an MRC grant. Clinicians are asked to circulate background information prior to these meetings, including any suspected clinical diagnoses and sets of genes/pathways potentially involved. Details of any prior genetic testing are also requested and where appropriate, radiological images are also shared in advance via an online Image Exchange Portal. Clinicians are also asked to comment on most likely modes of inheritance. Multiple disciplines attend these monthly meetings, including clinical geneticists, adult and paediatric endocrinologists/rheumatologists (including trainees), musculoskeletal radiologists and data analysts. Even when no genetic diagnosis could be established, these meetings aimed to help make recommendations for additional clinical assessment and investigations including imaging, genes to prioritise for detailed analysis and optimum sampling of other family members for segregation analysis (e.g. the parents to complete the trio).

Our initial experiences of these meetings were presented in brief at the Bone Research Society 2021 conference ${ }^{1}$ and an early outcome from this initiative has been the description of a novel subtype of spondylometaphyseal dysplasia (MIM \#619638) due to a homozygous frameshift variant in PRKG2. ${ }^{2}$

Regular participants of the MDT meeting have included:
Dr Meena Balasubramanian (Sheffield Children's NHS Foundation Trust, Sheffield, UK), Dr Judith Bubbear (Royal National Orthopaedic Hospital NHS Trust, UK), Dr Christine Burren (University Hospitals Bristol and Weston NHS Foundation Trust, Bristol, UK), Dr Alistair Calder (Great Ormond Street Hospital for Children, London, UK), Dr Jo Fairhurst (University Hospital Southampton NHS Foundation Trust, Southampton, UK), Dr Evelien Gevers (Queen Mary University of London, London, UK), Dr David Hunt (University Hospital Southampton NHS Foundation Trust, Southampton, UK), Dr Melita Irving (Guy's and St Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust, London, UK), Dr Kassim Javaid (University of Oxford, Oxford, UK), Dr Zaineb Mohsin (University of Oxford, Oxford, UK), Prof Amaka Offiah (University of Sheffield, Sheffield, UK), Dr Alistair Pagnamenta (University of Oxford, Oxford, UK), Dr Ataf Sabir (Birmingham Women's and Children's NHS Foundation Trust, Birmingham, UK), Dr Debbie Shears (Oxford University Hospitals NHS Foundation Trust, Oxford, UK), Prof Sarah Smithson (University Hospitals Bristol NHS Foundation Trust, Bristol, UK), Dr Mohnish Suri (Nottingham University Hospitals NHS Trust, Nottingham, UK), Prof Jenny Taylor (University of Oxford, Oxford, UK), Prof Andrew Wilkie (University of Oxford, Oxford, UK) and Dr Louise Wilson (Great Ormond Street Hospital for Children, London, UK).

## 2. Clinical phenotype - Family 1

In advance of the first MDT meeting, details were shared of a boy (then 12 years old) with clinical features of Greig syndrome including relative macrocephaly, hypertelorism, post-axial polysyndactyly of hands and pre-axial polysyndactyly of feet (Fig. S2). Radiographs identified polysyndactyly of hands (post-axial) and feet (pre-axial) and short broad metacarpals, metatarsals and phalanges. Other family members including paternal grandmother, father and two older siblings were similarly affected (Fig. 1A, Fig. S2), suggesting an autosomal dominant mode of inheritance. Additional clinical features were observed in some family members. In the proband, these included spinal cord lipoma with dermal sinus tract and recurrent tethering of spinal cord with associated syrinx, whereas his sister had an umbilical hernia, elder brother had hypospadias and paternal grandmother, a cerebral astrocytoma. These subsidiary findings are not expected in Greig syndrome and their significance is unclear. The suspected diagnosis could not initially be confirmed molecularly as targeted sequencing analysis conducted in 2004, and repeated in 2015 by a different laboratory, had been negative (Table S4). Karyotype and array-CGH testing of the affected children was also negative.

DNA for the paternal grandmother was unavailable and so recruitment to the 100KGP was limited to the other four affected family members. Filtering of variants by Genomic England's clinical pipeline was performed as a quad family using the complete penetrance option. Gene-panels from PanelApp ${ }^{3}$ applied were Skeletal dysplasia 1.192 (352 GREEN genes); Limb disorders 1.44 (114 GREEN genes); Rare multisystem ciliopathy disorders 1.119 ( 89 GREEN genes), where GREEN genes are those for which there are multiple lines of independent evidence confirming the disease-gene association. These all included GLI3, as a GREEN-rated candidate gene and comprised a total of 447 genes. This analysis did not yield any TIER1 or TIER2 candidate variants (loss-offunction/de novo or missense variants in known candidate genes for the disease, respectively) and the family was signed-off as unsolved in July 2020.

## 3. Clinical phenotype - Family 2

The proband, a female in her early 40s, is one of three siblings of non-consanguineous Caucasian parents (Fig. 1A). She was first reviewed in the genetics clinic following a termination of pregnancy due to multiple congenital abnormalities. Similar to other affected family members (Fig. S13), she presented with an unusual combination of distal limb and genitourinary tract malformations. A diagnosis of hand-foot-uterus syndrome (MIM \#140000) was, therefore, suspected upon initial assessment. The patient was noted to have a bicornuate uterus with solitary vagina and cervix, a unilateral duplex kidney, bilateral broad and proximally placed thumbs (Fig. S8A), bilateral medial displacement of the great toe ("sandal gap"), and bilateral 2/3 toe syndactyly (Fig. S8B).

The proband's elder sister had bilateral preaxial polydactyly ("duplicated thumbs") and bilateral 2/3 toe syndactyly. No urogenital abnormalities were reported. The proband's younger brother was noted to have hypospadias, bilateral undescended testes, bilateral thumb brachydactyly, and bilateral 2-3 toe syndactyly. The proband's mother was reported to have uterine didelphys, double cervix, a longitudinal vaginal septum, bilateral broad thumbs, and bilateral $2 / 3$ toe syndactyly. She had an obstetric history that included three miscarriages: two at 12 weeks and one at 28 weeks (Fig. 1A). All affected family members had typical neurodevelopment.

Post-mortem (PM) examination of her aborted male fetus at 17 weeks gestation showed short humeri and lower limbs, marked mandibular recession, broad thumbs showing duplication of the terminal phalanges, absent rectum and anus with narrow colo-vesical fistula, absent prostate gland, single umbilical artery, urethral agenesis with early urethral obstruction sequence including megacystis, bilateral hydroureter, hydronephrosis, and renal dysplasia. Genetic investigations on uncultured placental material (targeted QF-PCR aneuploidy test) revealed trisomy for at least the region of chromosome 15 represented by five informative markers.

Complete trisomy 15, in a non-mosaic form, would be expected to contribute to fetal demise. Nevertheless, the post mortem examination revealed specific familial phenotypic features, for example; broad duplicated thumbs and urogenital anomalies (urethral agenesis). This raised the suspicion of dual genetic diagnoses in the proband's deceased son, who might have harboured the familial 14.8 Mb inversion.

The skeletal limb features observed in Family 2 are congruent with a GLI3 disruption, namely the short broad thumbs, the preaxial polydactyly, and the 1-3 toe syndactyly. The overall phenotype including urogenital abnormalities, however, was more consistent with a HOXA13-related disorder. Interestingly, the 7p15.2 breakpoint of the 14.8 Mb inversion lies $\sim 45 \mathrm{~kb}$ upstream of HOXA13. We hypothesize that the familial inversion contributed to the phenotype observed in Family 2 via GLI3 disruption, in addition to a potential HOXA13 enhancer delocalization effect.

The 100 KGP clinical pipeline had yielded a negative result (Sept 2019) with TIERING having been performed prioritising variants in 120 genes made up of the following panels: Limb disorders v1.2 (114 GREEN genes; GLI3 and HOXA13 both GREEN), Radial dysplasia 1.6 (47 GREEN genes; GLI3 absent, HOXA13 GREEN) and VACTERLlike phenotypes v1.22 (16 green genes; GLI3 listed as RED, HOXA13 GREEN).

## 4. Clinical phenotype - Family 3

The proband was first seen in the genetics clinic in her early teens and has had a possible diagnosis of Marfan syndrome for many years. Skeletal features were typical of the condition, with an upper segment:lower segment (US:LS) ratio of 0.79 (normal >0.85), positive wrist and thumb signs, striae over the knees, upper legs, and lower
back, mild pectus excavatum and mild scoliosis, with hypermobility, and a high palate. She had soft, stretchy, skin. An echocardiogram performed at age 11 showed marked aortic root dilatation with a diameter of 3.68 cm ( $>95$ th centile). She was started on beta-blockers, aged 13. A spinal MRI identified dural ectasia at age 18. The echocardiogram also identified mitral valve prolapse and eventually she had an aortic root replacement aged 23. Genetic testing of FBN1 was initially performed using DHPLC and MLPA. Aortic gene panel testing via Next Generation Sequencing (12 gene panel) in 2014 also did not identify a cause. Although previous testing identified a variant of unknown significance in FBN2 (NM_001999.4:c.976C>T, p.Pro326Ser), this was not shared by the affected mother.

Her mother had a reduced US:LS ratio of 0.72, had easy bruising, striae on her thighs, pes planus, long toes and dental overcrowding. She is myopic. An echocardiogram aged 51 was unremarkable but when reviewed aged 68 she was noted to have pectus carinatum, typical facial features, striae, reduced elbow extension, and a CT aorta identified a mildly dilated sinus of Valsalva of 4.2 cm ( $z$ score $=1.95$ ), and coeliac and splenic artery aneurysms. There was no other relevant family history. Over the years, other conditions were considered but Marfan syndrome was always the primary clinical diagnosis for this family.

The clinical analysis pipeline run by Genomic England focussed on genes in the thoracic aortic aneurysm or dissection panel (v1.112) from PanelApp, which contains FBN1 as a GREEN gene. The total number of GREEN genes that were on this panel was 31. Although the genomes were originally sequenced in 2016 and reanalysed again in 2020, no TIER1 or TIER2 variants were reported.

## 5. Filtering structural variants with SVRare

We systematically reviewed results of gene-oriented analyses of SVs using SVRare (17 ${ }^{\text {th }}$ November 2021 version). ${ }^{4}$ SVRare was built on a MySQL database that hosted 554 million SVs from 71,408 100KGP participants from 33,924 families. Of these families, 232 (including Family 1) were recruited due to unexplained skeletal dysplasia, 24 (including Family 2) due to radial dysplasia and 664 (including Family 3) due to familial thoracic aortic aneurysm disease. For the current iteration, analysis is limited to deletions, duplications and inversions. In brief, SVRare calculates the similarity between SVs of the same type by using the fraction of the overlap (intersection) over the total length (union), and SVs are considered the same if their similarity score is higher than $80 \%$. This enables estimation of allele frequency for rare SV prioritisation. Once clustered, variants were filtered out if they were seen in $>1 \%$ of individuals. To further aid discovery of disease-causing SVs, the tool also annotates each SV for familial segregation and predicts protein-coding disruption. SVRare prioritised SVs are freely available to GeCIP members as individual gene reports in the "re_gecip/shared_allGeCIPs/JingYu-SVquery" directory within the GEL research environment.

This analysis identified 4 families with predominantly balanced inversions which the breakpoint analysis suggested would unequivocally disrupt gene function and where the phenotype was consistent with well-known known genetic conditions. This included re-identification of the 1.2 Mb GLI3 inversion in Family 1 and a 13Mb TWIST1 inversion, published previously in a mother-son duo with craniosynostosis. ${ }^{5}$ Two additional families were identified, as described in more detail below (Families 2 and 3).

## 6. Detailed summary of inversions involving GLI3

The SVRare report for GLI3 identified 15 rare inversions ( $3.8 \mathrm{~kb}-159.3 \mathrm{Mb}$ ) that overlapped GLI3 (Fig. S6). Of these, review of breakpoint positions indicated that only 3 would likely lead to complete gene inactivation (i.e. at least 1 breakpoint lying within the gene). One of these inversions was the same 1.2 Mb inversion already identified in Family 1. Strikingly, a second quad family (Family 2) was identified where all 4 individuals had been submitted to the 100 KGP with a clinical diagnosis of radial dysplasia and all 4 harboured a 14.8 Mb inversion disrupting GLI3. This inversion had been called by Manta as involving chr7:27,245,456-42,072,394. Like Family 1, the breakpoint for Family 2 lay in intron 4 of $G L I 3$ but this time it was the proximal not distal end of the rearrangement (Fig. 1B). Clinical information about Family 2 is provided above. The third inversion was a much smaller 6.6 kb event that would potentially invert exon 4 , however closer scrutiny of read alignments suggested this variant to be an artefact, possibly due to a rare intronic deletion lying nearby.

## GLI3/FBN1 inversions - supplemental

## 7. Detailed summary of inversions involving FBN1

There were 12 rare inversions involving FBN1 that were prioritised by SVRare that ranged in size by 3 orders of magnitude ( $78.5 \mathrm{~kb}-78.2 \mathrm{Mb}$ ). Of these, only 3 inversions had breakpoints internal to the gene and thus would be predicted to disrupt gene function (Fig. S7). One of these was a 1.97 Mb inversion for which the distal breakpoint lay in intron 4 of FBN1 (Fig. 1C). This variant was called by Manta as chr15:46,635,052-48,604,302 and detected in the proband and her affected mother, both of whom had been recruited to the 100KGP with a diagnosis of "familial thoracic aortic aneurysm disease". Clinical information about this family is provided above.

The other two inversions involving FBN1 were present in the same family - further scrutiny of the read alignments suggested they were in fact part of a complex DUP-INV-DUP structural variant (Fig. S14). The two inversions (from Manta) and two duplicated segments (from Canvas) could be explained by at least two different genetic conformations. However, neither conformation would alter gene dosage in terms of the number of complete copies of FBN1. Unaltered dosage would be consistent with the fact that individuals in this family did not exhibit a Marfan-like phenotype. This highlights that caution must be taken with DUP-INV-DUP type variants because with short read data there is often ambiguity regarding precisely how the genomic segments are organised and these type of rearrangement can have no effect on gene-dosage.

## 8. Supplemental discussion

This study commenced with MDT-based review of Family 1, a family for whom Genomics England's clinical pipeline had assessed SNVs and indels in 447 genes. From information shared prior to our MDT meeting it quickly became apparent that the clinician's initial interest was to double-check just 1 or 2 genes really thoroughly. Prior to 100 KGP , targeted sequencing of GLI3 had been done not once but twice, demonstrating the high level of suspicion for GLI3 being involved for this family. This long diagnostic odyssey was solved by manually reviewing read alignments in IGV. We provide IGV screenshots showing the characteristic read alignment signature associated with balanced inversions (Fig. 1B,C) and hope this may prompt clinical scientists to scrutinise other unsolved cases with WGS data where there is a strong clinical suspicion pointing to a single gene.

We then developed a robust pipeline for prioritisation of rare high-confidence inversions and used this to focus on 43 genes linked to skeletal disorders, which allowed us to identify 2 more families with rare inversions. By coincidence, for all 3 inversions the breakpoint of interest lay in intron 4 and thus are highly likely to result in loss of function as it is very hard to see how gene-function, in cases with such a rearrangement so early on in a gene, could be retained.

One limitation of our follow up analysis is that it involved a manual review step and thus not every inversion was scrutinised with an equal degree of attention. In addition, inversions can often impact on gene expression via a positional effects and our prioritisation strategy may have missed such cases. Positional effects are exemplified in Family 2 where the distal breakpoint lies just 45 kb upstream of HOXA13, but the inversion was only picked up on account of the proximal breakpoint which disrupts GLI3. In Family 1, we also speculate that disruption to HECW1 could potentially explain some of the atypical features seen. Together, these cases highlight the importance of considering both breakpoint regions for rare balanced inversions.

Even with WGS data, balanced inversions can only be picked up by Manta or other algorithms that use split-read information. Currently the Genomics England structural variant pipeline only utilises Canvas and even with copy number variants there is typically a 10kb limit to resolution. This study helps emphasise the importance of developing clinical SV prioritisation pathways that can integrate multiple calling algorithms.

## 9. The Genomics England Research Consortium

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Tables
Table S1: Selected QC statistics for WGS data from 10 individuals from 3 families with diagnostic inversions in GLI3 (F1, F2) or FBN1 (F3). QC based on data mapped to GRCh38 with decoys. *originally analysed on GRCh37. †mean across all 100KGP samples is 427 . The mean across these 10 samples is 418.

| ID | F1 proband | F1 brother | F1 sister | F1 father | F2 proband | F2 sister | F2 brother | F2 mother | F3 proband | F3 mother |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Delivery date (remapping) | May 2017 | Aug 2017 | Aug 2017 | May 2017 | Apr 2018 | May 2018 | Apr 2018 | Apr 2018 | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { Apr2016* } \\ & \text { (Feb 2020) } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { May2016* } \\ & \text { (Feb 2020) } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| Total aligned reads | 871,004,459 | 1,052,818,353 | 932,959,733 | 755,979,204 | 1,025,504,334 | 749,957,343 | 884,423,031 | 815,883,876 | 816,243,785 | 1,281,867,717 |
| Percent duplicate aligned reads | 8.77\% | 9.14\% | 7.66\% | 6.78\% | 5.82\% | 6.02\% | 8.03\% | 8.52\% | 7.61\% | 14.55\% |
| Percent aligned reads | 93.19\% | 92.88\% | 92.73\% | 92.15\% | 93.98\% | 91.81\% | 92.30\% | 93.60\% | 95.15\% | 94.78\% |
| Percent read pairs aligned to different chromosomes | 0.17\% | 0.17\% | 0.15\% | 0.19\% | 0.31\% | 0.76\% | 1.50\% | 0.53\% | 0.71\% | 0.43\% |
| Percent soft-clipped bases | 2.01\%: | 1.82\% | 1.94\% | 1.91\% | 1.74\% | 1.42\% | 1.64\% | 1.56\% | 1.84\% | 2.02\% |
| Mean coverage | 39.64 | 47.78 | 43.02 | 35.18 | 48.31 | 35.36 | 40.67 | 37.39 | 37.75 | 54.83 |
| Coverage at 15X | 97.40\% | 98.07\% | 97.32\% | 96.50\% | 97.56\% | 97.04\% | 97.64\% | 97.22\% | 97.44\% | 97.93\% |
| Fragment length median | 493 | 490 | 473 | 500 | 448 | 495 | 442 | 484 | 437 | 491 |
| SNVs (All) | 3897444 | 3882458 | 3914338 | 3884196 | 3926566 | 3945642 | 3886341 | 3905448 | 3910612 | 3969352 |
| SNV Het/Hom ratio | 1.605 | 1.553 | 1.562 | 1.57 | 1.595 | 1.606 | 1.584 | 1.527 | 1.556 | 1.574 |
| SNV Ts/Tv ratio | 2.061 | 2.066 | 2.062 | 2.059 | 2.062 | 2.06 | 2.06 | 2.059 | 2.057 | 2.067 |
| SNVs (Percent found in dbSNP) | 94.63\% | 94.69\% | 94.75\% | 94.62\% | 94.59\% | 94.42\% | 94.54\% | 94.59\% | 94.41\% | 94.61\% |
| Indels (All) | 959057 | 971729 | 968234 | 936189 | 1003501 | 967602 | 977021 | 974545 | 971216 | 1005026 |
| SV Inversions (All) $\dagger$ | 406 | 432 | 379 | 341 | 481 | 361 | 400 | 427 | 432 | 519 |
| SV Inversions in genes | 235 | 251 | 215 | 176 | 290 | 203 | 226 | 246 | 258 | 310 |

Table S2: Details of 43 autosomal genes listed in 2019 revision of the skeletal disorder nosology ${ }^{6}$ for which ClinGen assess as having "sufficient evidence" supporting haploinsufficiency (downloaded $10^{\text {th }}$ January 2022).

| Gene symbol | Approved name | HGNC ID | Location |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ALX4 | ALX homeobox 4 | HGNC:450 | 11p11.2 |
| ARID1B | AT-rich interaction domain 1B | HGNC:18040 | 6q25.3 |
| CDKN1C | cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 1C | HGNC:1786 | 11p15.4 |
| COL1A1 | collagen type I alpha 1 chain | HGNC:2197 | 17q21.33 |
| COL2A1 | collagen type II alpha 1 chain | HGNC:2200 | 12q13.11 |
| CREBBP | CREB binding protein | HGNC:2348 | 16p13.3 |
| EFTUD2 | elongation factor Tu GTP binding domain containing 2 | HGNC:30858 | 17q21.31 |
| EP300 | E1A binding protein p300 | HGNC:3373 | 22q13.2 |
| ERF | ETS2 repressor factor | HGNC:3444 | 19q13.2 |
| EXT1 | exostosin glycosyltransferase 1 | HGNC:3512 | 8q24.11 |
| EXT2 | exostosin glycosyltransferase 2 | HGNC:3513 | 11p11.2 |
| FBN1 | fibrillin 1 | HGNC:3603 | 15q21.1 |
| FGF10 | fibroblast growth factor 10 | HGNC:3666 | 5p12 |
| FGFR1 | fibroblast growth factor receptor 1 | HGNC:3688 | 8p11.23 |
| GDF5 | growth differentiation factor 5 | HGNC:4220 | 20q11.22 |
| GLI3 | GLI family zinc finger 3 | HGNC:4319 | 7p14.1 |
| GNAS | GNAS complex locus | HGNC:4392 | 20q13.32 |
| HOXD13 | homeobox D13 | HGNC:5136 | 2q31.1 |
| KAT6B | lysine acetyltransferase 6B | HGNC:17582 | 10q22.2 |
| LEMD3 | LEM domain containing 3 | HGNC:28887 | 12q14.3 |
| LMX1B | LIM homeobox transcription factor 1 beta | HGNC:6654 | 9q33.3 |
| MNX1 | motor neuron and pancreas homeobox 1 | HGNC:4979 | 7q36.3 |
| MYCN | MYCN proto-oncogene, bHLH transcription factor | HGNC:7559 | 2p24.3 |
| NF1 | neurofibromin 1 | HGNC:7765 | 17q11.2 |
| NIPBL | NIPBL cohesin loading factor | HGNC:28862 | 5p13.2 |
| NOG | noggin | HGNC:7866 | 17q22 |
| NSD1 | nuclear receptor binding SET domain protein 1 | HGNC:14234 | 5q35.3 |
| PAX3 | paired box 3 | HGNC:8617 | 2q36.1 |
| POLR1D | RNA polymerase I and III subunit D | HGNC:20422 | 13q12.2 |
| PTPN11 | protein tyrosine phosphatase non-receptor type 11 | HGNC:9644 | 12q24.13 |
| SALL4 | spalt like transcription factor 4 | HGNC:15924 | 20q13.2 |
| SF3B4 | splicing factor 3b subunit 4 | HGNC:10771 | 1q21.2 |
| SHH | sonic hedgehog signalling molecule | HGNC:10848 | 7 q 36.3 |
| SMAD3 | SMAD family member 3 | HGNC:6769 | 15q22.33 |
| SMAD4 | SMAD family member 4 | HGNC:6770 | 18q21.2 |
| SMARCB1 | SWI/SNF related, matrix associated, actin dependent regulator of chromatin, subfamily b, member 1 | HGNC:11103 | 22q11.23 |
| TBX3 | T-box transcription factor 3 | HGNC:11602 | 12q24.21 |
| TBX4 | T-box transcription factor 4 | HGNC:11603 | 17q23.2 |
| TBX5 | T-box transcription factor 5 | HGNC:11604 | 12q24.21 |
| TCF12 | transcription factor 12 | HGNC:11623 | 15q21.3 |
| TCOF1 | treacle ribosome biogenesis factor 1 | HGNC:11654 | 5q32-q33.1 |
| TRPS1 | transcriptional repressor GATA binding 1 | HGNC:12340 | 8q23.3 |
| TWIST1 | twist family bHLH transcription factor 1 | HGNC:12428 | 7p21.1 |

Table S3: Primers used for Sanger validation in Families 1, 2 and 3.

| Family | Primer name | Sequence | End of inversion |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Family 1 | GLI3_Inv1_F_V1 | TACTGCTGAGAAGCAACAGTG | Distal |
|  | GLI3_Inv1_R_V1 | CAGCTTTCTTAGATATGATATAC |  |
|  | GLI3_Inv2_F_V1 | AGTATATACTAGGCTCAGTACATG | Proximal |
|  | GLI3_Inv2_R_V1 | GAAGGTTAGGGTGTATAAATGAC |  |
| Family 2 | GLI3-1F | CCGGGAGAACTACGTATCCA |  |
|  | GLI3-2F | CCCTGCTTTGGAAAATGAAT |  |
|  | GLI3-1R | TGTGTGTATGGGAGGAGCAG | Proximal |
|  | GLI3-2R | TGGGAATGTAGGCAATTGGT | Distal |
|  | FBN1-INV-1F | TCCCCAAGACGAAATGAACTT |  |
|  | FBN1-INV-2F | GGCACCTGGATCTCAATACCT |  |
|  | FBN1-INV-1R | CCCTCTGTGACAATGCCAAG |  |
|  | FBN1-INV-2R | GTGTGTCTTTAGGCATCCCCC |  |

Table S4: Details of diagnostic odysseys and prior genetic testing for Families 1-3.

| Family number | Family 1 | Family 2 | Family 3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Date variant detected | February 2021 | November 2021 | November 2021 |
| Proband WGS date | May 2017 | April 2018 | April 2016 (Feb 2020 for remapping to GRCh38) |
| Negative report issued from 100KGP | July 2020 | September 2019 | May 2018 |
| Time from WGS to variant being identified | 33/4 years | $31 / 2$ years | 51/2 years |
| Start of diagnostic odyssey | 2004 | August 2013 | Family known to clinical genetics since ca. 2002 |
| Gender (proband) | Male | Female | Female |
| Ethnicity | White British | White British | White British |
| GRCh38 coordinates from Manta (reciprocal call) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { chr7:42,051,297-43,254,780 } \\ & \text { (chr7:42,051,291-43,254,759) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { chr7:27,245,456-42,072,394 } \\ & \text { (chr7:27,245,448-42,072,397) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { chr15:46,635,052-48,604,302 } \\ & \text { (chr15:46,635,053-48,604,300) } \end{aligned}$ |
| Size of inversion | 1.20 Mb | 14.83 Mb | 1.97 Mb |
| Position of breakpoint in gene | Intron 4 of GLI3 <br> (NM_000168.6) | Intron 4 of GLI3 (NM_000168.6) | Intron 4 of $F B N 1$ <br> (NM_000138.5) |
| Other breakpoint | Intron 3 of HECW1 (NM_015052.5) | Intron 2 of EVX1 <br> (NM_001989.5); ~45kb from HOXA13 | No genes nearby |
| Family structure | Affected brother/sister/ father all in 100KGP | Affected sister/brother/mother all in 100KGP | Patient and her affected mother are in 100KGP |
| Recruitment diagnosis | Unexplained skeletal dysplasia | Radial dysplasia | Familial Thoracic Aortic Aneurysm Disease |
| Cytogenetic testing | Karyotyping done but no details available | No indication that karyotyping was ever done, but has now been requested | N/A |
| Array testing (date, array type/version) | Array CGH done but no details available | Agilent 60K aCGH (design version 028469). Median resolution: 120kb. Oct 2013 | N/A |
| MLPA testing | N/A | N/A | Genetic testing of FBN1 for large deletions and duplications by MLPA in 2005 |
| Targeted sequencing | Targeted sequencing of GLI3 first in 2004 (Biesecker lab) and then repeated in 2015 using PCR-Sanger method. HOXD13 also sequenced in 2006-7 in Oxford | Analysis of HOXA13 and flanking intronic sequences by PCR multiplex AmpliSeq (IAD47762_93, Ion Torrent. Also by PCR and Sanger sequencing. Done in Lille (Hopital Jeanne de Flandre) January 2015 | NGS testing of ACTA2, COL3A1, EFEMP2, FBN1, FBN2, FLNA, MYH11, MYLK, NOTCH1, SK1, SLC2A, SMAD3 in 2015, using the Illumina Trusight One sequencing panel |
| Exome testing | N/A | WES at Viapath with Agilent SureSelectXT Clinical Research Exome (SureSelectXT Human All Exon V5 baited with clinically relevant genes). The enriched exome libraries WES using paired-end, 125 cycle chemistry on an Illumina HiSeq2500. November 2016. | N/A |

## GLI3/FBN1 inversions - supplemental

| Other genetic testing | N/A | The proband's aborted fetus has had QF-PCR aneuploidy test for chromosomes $13,14,15$, $16,18,21,22, \mathrm{X}$ and Y . The test showed trisomy for at least the region of chromosome 15 represented by five informative markers. The test was done on uncultured placental material and is likely the cause of the fetal loss. | Testing of FBN1 by DHPLC in 2005 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Other variants from GEL pipeline | No TIER1/2 from GEL pipeline | No TIER1/2 from GEL pipeline | No TIER1/2 from GEL pipeline. Previous testing identified FBN2 variant NM_001999.4:c.976C>T (p.Pro326Ser) in proband. <br> Variant not seen in mother and too common in gnomAD so LB/B, see <br> www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/clinvar/ variation/137316. |
| Validation of inversion | PCR of both inversion breakpoints and Sanger sequencing in $4 / 4$ affected individuals - May 2021 | PCR of both inversion breakpoints in 4/4 affected individuals and Sanger sequencing (proband only) January 2022; karyotyping is underway | PCR and Sanger sequencing May 2022 |
| Reason to check gene and detection method | Clinical suspicion for GLI3 mutation shared with data analyst prior to March 2021 MDT meeting. Detected by manual review of read alignments but also called by Manta | AD gene mentioned in Mortier haploinsufficiency is a known m Detection by Manta following g prioritised by SVRare ${ }^{4}$ | al $2019^{6}$ where hanism of pathogenesis. ome sequencing in 100KGP and |

## Supplemental Figures



Figure S1: Summary of clinical tiering and researcher identified variant pipelines linked to the 100K Genomes Project. A) Schematic of the clinical tiering pipeline employed by Genomic England. Although only Tier 1 and 2 variants are assessed routinely by the respective Genomic Laboratory Hub (GLH), Tier 3 variants are also available for review, if required. B) Researchers may discover variants that could represent a diagnosis for a participant. This diagram summarises the official pathway to feed back these findings to the NHS Diagnostic Discovery Oversight Group. This group comprises clinicians and scientists from each GLH, whom meet every 2 months with NHS England and Genomics England representatives. This pipeline provides assurance to the Genomic Medicine Service that the diagnoses being returned are of high quality and clinical relevance. A separate pathway exists for the rapid return of variants considered to be urgent.


Figure S2: Distal limb anomalies observed in siblings of Family 1 are shown, including symmetrical pre-axial polysyndactyly of feet of sister (above) and post-axial polysyndactyly of hands of brother (mid-section). Radiographs of the feet of the proband (below, left and centre) illustrate the interfamilial variability of pre-axial polydactyly with a single proximal phalanx on each side. The first metatarsals are broad. Radiograph of right hand of brother (below right) shows 3-4 soft tissue and bone (terminal phalangeal) syndactyly with relatively short metacarpals and middle/terminal phalanges (post-axial additional digit previously surgically removed).


Figure S3: Sanger validation and primer positions for distal end of the GLI3 inversion in Family 1. PCR primer positions are shown for 2 of the 4 primers. Amplicons for 4 affected family members were sequenced bidirectionally and the resulting sequences were uploaded to the UCSC genome browser in FASTA format using the Blat Search tool. An interactive view is shown at https://genome.ucsc.edu/s/AlistairP/GLI3 SANGER where one can navigate to the proximal end of the inversion and see the same pattern. The breakpoints defined by Manta are consistent with the Sanger traces.


Figure S4: Sanger sequencing electropherograms confirming breakpoints for the 1.2 Mb inversion in Family 1. Close scrutiny reveals a 25 bp deletion at the proximal end and 4bp of microhomology at the respective junctions. Genomic positions are based on GRCh38.


Figure S5: IGV screenshot showing Manta/Canvas SV calls and read alignments in the proband from Family 1. A) Manta calls from structural variant vcf file suggests an inversion within a larger inversion on 7 p . Genuine inversions such as the 1.2 Mb inversion that disrupts GLI3 are often reported twice in the SV.vcf in a reciprocal manner. B) +ve to +ve read pairs (green) and -ve to -ve read pairs (blue) are seen on each side of the breakpoints. At this level of zoom, the small deleted region is visible at the proximal end of the 1.2 Mb inversion. C) Artefactual inversion calls such as the larger 11.6 Mb one shown above are only supported by one breakpoint (in this case ve to -ve strand read pairs) and coverage is more variable.


Figure S6: Screenshot of UCSC genome browser graphic showing positions of rare inversion calls overlapping GLI3 in the rare disease arm of the 100KGP. The custom track "GLI3_INV_fromSVRare" contains 15 entries labelled by size in bp, of which only 2 large inversions directly disrupt GLI3. The first of these was reidentification of the 1.2 Mb inversion seen in Family 1. The second was a 14.8 Mb inversion in Family 2. The 6574 bp event would in theory invert a single exon but review of read alignments suggested that this may be an artefact on account of a nearby intronic deletion. An interactive version is available here: https://genome.ucsc.edu/s/AlistairP/GLI3 INVERSION F2.


Figure S7: Screenshot of UCSC genome browser showing positions of rare inversion calls overlapping FBN1 in the rare disease arm of the 100KGP. Only 3 of the 12 rare inversions prioritised by SVRare and shown in the track "FBN1_INV_fromSVRare" have breakpoints which disrupt FBN1 directly. The 1.97 Mb inversion identified in Family 3 likely results in loss of function. The 78.5 kb and 237.5 kb inversions are from the same family and appear to represent a complex DUP-INV-DUP which is inherited from an unaffected parent. An interactive version is available here: https://genome.ucsc.edu/s/AlistairP/FBN1 INV SVRare.


Figure S8: Clinical photographs of proband in Family 2. A) Hands showing bilateral short and broad thumbs. B) Feet displaying bilateral $2 / 3$ toe syndactyly and sandal gap.


Figure S9: Sanger validation and primer positions for proximal end of the GLI3 inversion in Family 2. PCR primer positions are shown for 2 of the 4 primers. PCR amplicons for the proband were sequenced bidirectionally and the resulting sequences were uploaded to the UCSC genome browser in FASTA format using the Blat Search tool. An interactive view is shown at https://genome.ucsc.edu/s/AlistairP/GLI3 INVERSION F2 SANGER where one can navigate to the distal end of the inversion and see the same pattern. Breakpoints for the 14.8 Mb inversion as defined by Manta are consistent with the Sanger data.


Figure S10: Sanger sequencing electropherograms confirming breakpoints for the 14.8 Mb inversion in Family 2. Close scrutiny reveals a 14bp insertion at the proximal end and a 6bp deletion at the distal end. Genomic positions are based on GRCh38.


Figure S11: Sanger validation and primer positions for distal end of the FBN1 inversion in Family 3. PCR primer positions are shown for $2 / 4$ primers. Amplicons for the proband, mother and a control were sequenced and the resulting sequences were uploaded to the UCSC genome browser in FASTA format using the Blat Search tool. An interactive view is available at https://genome.ucsc.edu/s/AlistairP/FBN1 INVERSION F3 SANGER where one can navigate to the proximal end of the inversion and see the same pattern. Breakpoints for the 1.97 Mb inversion as defined by Manta are consistent with the Sanger data.


Figure S12: Sanger sequencing electropherograms confirming breakpoints for the 1.97 Mb inversion in Family 3. Close scrutiny reveals 3bp of microhomology at the distal junction - the resulting ambiguity in annotation may explain why the coordinates appear to be 1bp out compared to the MantaINV call. Genomic positions are based on GRCh38.


Figure S13: Detailed pedigree and additional clinical information for Family 2.


Figure S14: DUP-INV-DUP rearrangement in a 100 KGP family with non-Marfan phenotype. A) Schematic diagram showing relative positions of 78 kb and 238 kb inversions and duplication calls with respect to FBN1. B) IGV screenshot showing read alignments supporting both junctions internal to FBN1 in introns 47 and 56. C) Two possible configurations can explain the pattern of split-reads but neither are predicted to impact on dosage of full functional copies of FBN1.

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