

Manuscript version: Author's Accepted Manuscript

The version presented in WRAP is the author's accepted manuscript and may differ from the published version or Version of Record.

Persistent WRAP URL:

http://wrap.warwick.ac.uk/125489

How to cite:

Please refer to published version for the most recent bibliographic citation information. If a published version is known of, the repository item page linked to above, will contain details on accessing it.

Copyright and reuse:

The Warwick Research Archive Portal (WRAP) makes this work by researchers of the University of Warwick available open access under the following conditions.

Copyright © and all moral rights to the version of the paper presented here belong to the individual author(s) and/or other copyright owners. To the extent reasonable and practicable the material made available in WRAP has been checked for eligibility before being made available.

Copies of full items can be used for personal research or study, educational, or not-for-profit purposes without prior permission or charge. Provided that the authors, title and full bibliographic details are credited, a hyperlink and/or URL is given for the original metadata page and the content is not changed in any way.

Publisher's statement:

Please refer to the repository item page, publisher's statement section, for further information.

For more information, please contact the WRAP Team at: wrap@warwick.ac.uk.

Human Genome Editing and The Identity Politics of Genetic Disability

Dr Felicity Boardman

Warwick Medical School, University of Warwick, Coventry, CV4 7AL

Felicity.Boardman@warwick.ac.uk

As highlighted by Kleiderman and Kellner Stedman's (2019) recent article, the case for the use of genomic technologies, such as CRISPR/cas9 to undertake germline editing of human embryos has been gaining momentum in recent years. In the UK, for example, a license was granted to researchers in 2016 to allow CRISPR research using human embryos- although such embryos would not be permitted to develop past 14 days (HFEA, 2016).

Monogenetic rare conditions are amongst those most frequently targeted by those developing human genome editing technologies, with recent claims of curative editing techniques being achieved for Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy (Nelson et al, 2019), Fragile X Syndrome (Yrigollen and Davidson, 2019) and Cystic Fibrosis (Brothers et al, 2019), despite continued highly restrictive global governance of the practice, ongoing concerns about its future biological impacts and evolving debates regarding its social and ethical implications (Daley et al, 2019; Ormond et al, 2019).

Unlike other forms of reproductive genetic disease prevention, such as pre-conception or prenatal genetic screening, or the use of pre-implantation genetic diagnosis (techniques used to effectively filter out and eradicate embryos and foetuses affected by genetic conditions, or prevent their conception in the first place), germline genome editing techniques differ substantially in their approach to genetic disease prevention. As Cavaliere (2018) has argued, such technologies are targeted towards the correction or removal of disabling genetic traits, rather than the so-called 'seek and destroy' approach of currently used technologies (Rothstein, 2001). Through preservation of the life of the embryo (that would otherwise be disabled), and eradication only of the disabling trait, germline genome editing indeed appears to neatly sidestep one of the most critical social and ethical concerns levelled at current methods of genetic disease amelioration: that the disabling trait is considered more significant than the life of the embryo or foetus.

Parens and Asch (2000) have been amongst those who have most prominently developed this critique, initially in relation to prenatal testing and selective termination although more recently towards other technologies and practices. Parens and Asch argue that such technological intervention involves otherwise wanted embryos/foetuses being eradicated on the grounds of a single genetic difference; a genetic trait that is assigned such negative value as to render all other characteristics and traits of that (would-be) person irrelevant (Parens and Asch, 2000). Given the nature of this critique, it does not take a large intellectual leap to arrive at the second most commonly cited disability rights critique of selective reprogenetic practices, known as the 'expressivist objection' (Buchanan, 1996). This objection holds that selective reprogenetic practices not only prevent disabled people from coming into existence, but that their very availability- and the associated, and often clandestine, social pressures to use them (Clarke, 1991; Markens et al, 2010)-both convey and perpetuate negative views about the particular disabling conditions they are targeted towards, and, by extension, people who currently live with those conditions (Asch and Wasserman, 2015). Moreover, these negative appraisals of disability are seen as reverberating throughout wider society, affirming and reinforcing negative appraisals of the lives and worth not

only of people with screened/tested for conditions, but of disabled people as a whole (Peterson, 2012).

Recent empirical research by myself and other researchers clearly demonstrate the existence, ethical dilemmas and the ambivalence towards genetic technologies that emerge directly from these two concerns about reprogenetic technologies in the accounts of both genetically, and non-genetically disabled people (Boardman, 2014). My research has revealed, for example, that the majority of people with genetic disabilities feel that it would be a loss to society to have fewer people with their particular condition coming into the world (Boardman and Hale, 2018) and the majority (90%) of family members of people with genetic disabilities such as haemophilia, for example, feel uncomfortable with the idea of pregnancy termination for the condition in their family (Boardman et al, 2019).

Despite this burgeoning body of research (e.g. Roadhouse et al, 2018; Barter et al, 2017; Stern et al, 2002; Taneja et al, 2004; Maxwell et al, 2011; Potrata et al, 2013; Gollust et al, 2003), however, the voices of the disability community remain largely under-represented in dialogue around the future development of reproductive genomic medicine such as genome editing (Wolbring and Diep, 2016), and an ongoing and challenging relationship of mistrust and suspicion has been observed between the disability and genetics communities (Madeo et al, 2011).

The development of human germline genome editing is particularly significant, however, because unlike current practice, it directly challenges the first of the disability rights critiques of selective reproduction outlined above. By retaining- as an alternative to destroying- the (would-be) disabled embryo, and instead removing only the disabling trait, genome editing marks a significant departure in the way in which genetically selective reproduction operates. Whilst, as Kleiderman and Kellner Stedman (2019) outline, for many people with genetic conditions, this possibility suggests clear benefits for the embryo in question, their family and wider society, the assumption that this development is of universal benefit to the disability community may be challenged when expressivist objections and the identity politics of disability and personhood is taken into account.

As Shakespeare (2006) and others outline, research that explores the relationship between disabled people and the concept of cure, or other modes of disability removal (e.g. reprogenetics) is complex and multi-faceted, with disabled people experiencing particular forms of impairment (typically those involving pain, deterioration and shortened-life span) more likely to welcome the notion of disability removal than others (e.g. those with static impairments since birth). For example, recent research on adults with Spinal Muscular Atrophy has highlighted a degree of ambivalence towards the first, and only recently licensed, drug therapy for the condition, Nusinersen (Pacione et al, 2019). Some adults with SMA, particularly those with the static form of impairment (type II), regard their condition as an integral part of their personhood and identity and as a mediator of their interactions with the world. This deep cleft in the responses between genetically disabled people with contrasting experiences of their impairment, of disability and also the role of identity politics in their lives has also been mirrored in studies that explore attitudes towards genetic screening (Roadhouse et al, 2018; Boardman et al, 2017; Gollust et al, 2003). A recognition of the emerging literature that explores the role of impairment experiences and identity politics, therefore, is critical to understanding the broad spectrum of responses that are currently being observed amongst genetically disabled people to technologies that ameliorate genetic disability, of which genome editing is but one.

It is not yet possible to explore the new forms of personhood, identity and genetic relatedness that will inevitably emerge amongst individuals subject to embryonic germline genome editing in the future. The argument espoused by many prominent ethicists, that life without disability is

unequivocally preferable to one with disability, would render genome editing a technology of undeniable benefit to the embryo in question (Savulescu et al, 2015; Savulescu and Singer, 2019). However, such a focus on the benefit to individual embryos is to overlook the broader societal changes that genome editing will signal, as well as the potential negative impacts on existing persons with genetic conditions (Coller, 2019). Indeed, unlike currently used forms of reprogenetic selection, genome editing, by treating germ cells, not only eliminates genetic variation in the treated embryo, but also makes permanent and heritable changes to the germline, that will invariably be transferred to offspring, consequently reducing the incidence of the genetic condition in the human gene pool in ways that currently used technologies are not capable of.

People with lived experience of genetic conditions have much to offer our current understanding of the social, personal and ethical implications this technology will have. Expressivist concerns around genome editing, and the potential negative impacts on people with unedited genomes or spontaneous mutations are important considerations as we move towards genomic futures where genome editing is normalised (and non-use socially penalised) along with the inevitable changes to the demographic characteristics of society that will follow (Nuffield Council on Bioethics 2018: 78).

Whilst the technologies and methods of implementation of genomic medicine are likely to transform and shift overtime, the core ethical and social issues that genetic disability eradication and/or minimisation present, will invariably remain the same. It is critical, therefore, that the literature exploring the views of people with the most vivid and visceral insights into the lived realities of genetic disability are included and valued in the processes of development and evaluation of new technologies such as genome editing (Petersen, 2006). This is not only so that the potential impacts on them can be explored, but also so that informed decisions regarding which conditions are the appropriate targets of genome editing can be made. Indeed, given the inherent potential of germline genome editing, this inclusion is now of paramount importance, when it is considered that such voices and experiences could eventually become a resource of increasing inaccessibility in the future.

References

Asch A, Wasserman D. 2015. Reproductive testing for disability, in Arras JD, Fenton E, Kukla R (eds), Routledge Companion to Bioethics, London: Routledge.

Barter B, Hastings RP, Williams R, Huws JV. 2017. Perceptions and discourses relating to genetic testing: interviews with people with Down Syndrome, Journal of Applied Research in Intellectual Disabilities, 30 (2): 395-406.

Boardman F, Hale R, Gohel R, Young P. 2019. Preventing lives affected by haemophilia: a mixed methods study of the views of haemophiliac adults and their families towards genetic screening, Molecular Genetics and Genomic Medicine, 7 (5): e618. doi: 10.1002/mgg3.618

Boardman F, Hale R. 2018. How do genetically disabled adults view selective reproduction? Impairment, identity and genetic screening, Molecular Genetics and Genomic Medicine, 6 (6): 941-956.

Boardman, F., Young, P., Griffiths, F. 2017. Impairment experiences, identity and attitudes towards genetic screening: the views of people with spinal muscular atrophy, Journal of Genetic Counseling, 27 (1): 69-84.

Boardman F. 2014. The expressivist objection to prenatal testing: the experiences of families living with genetic disease, Social Science and Medicine, 107, 18-25.

Brothers KB, Devereaux M, Sade RM. 2019. Bespoke Babies: Genome Editing in Cystic Fibrosis Embryos, The Annals of Thoracic Surgery, pii: S0003-4975(19)30708.

Buchanan A. 1996. Choosing who will be disabled: genetic intervention and the morality of inclusion, Social Philosophy and Policy, 13: 18-46.

Cavaliere G. 2018. Genome editing and assisted reproduction: curing embryos, society or prospective parents? Medical Healthcare and Philosophy, 21: 215-225.

Clarke A. 1991. Is non-directive genetic counselling possible? The Lancet, 338 (19): 998-1001.

Coller BS. 2019. Ethics of human genome editing, Annual Review of Medicine, 70: 289-305.

Daley GQ, Lovell - Badge R, Steffann J. 2019. After the Storm — a responsible path for genome editing, New England Journal of Medicine, 380:897-899.

Gollust SE, Thompson RE, Gooding HC, Biesecker BB. 2003. Living with achondroplasia: attitudes towards population screening ad correlation with quality of life, Prental Diagnosis, 23: 1003-1008.

Human Embryology and Fertilisation Authority. 2016. License Committee Minutes(14th January), <u>https://www.hfea.gov.uk/media/2444/licence-committee-minutes-14-january-2016.pdf</u> (accessed 11/08/19).

Kleiderman E, Kellner Stedman IN. 2019. Through a rare disease lens: genome editing as a poignant public health opportunity for Canada, Journal of Community Genetics,

Madeo AC, Biesecker BB, Brasington C, Erby LH, Peters KF. 2011. The relationship between the genetic counseling profession and the disability community: a commentary, American Journal of Medical Genetics Part A, 155: 1777-1785.

Markens S, Browner C, Preloran HM. 2010. Interrogating the dynamics between power, knowledge and pregnant bodies in amniocentesis decision making, Sociology of Health and Illness, 32 (1): 37-56.

Maxwell SJ, Kyne G, Molster C, Barker NM, Ormsby J, O'Leary P.e 2011. Perceptions of population cystic fibrosis prenatal and preconception carrier screening among individuals with cystic fibrosis and their family members, Genetic Testing and Molecular Biomarkers, 15(3):159-64.

Nelson CE, Wu Y, Gemberling MP, Oliver ML, Waller MA, Bohning JD, Robinson-Hamm JN, Bulaklak K, Catellanos Rivera RM, Collier JH, Asokan A, Gersbach CA. 2019. Long-term evaluation of AAV-CRISPR genome editing for Duchenne muscular dystrophy, Nature Medicine, 25: 427–432.

Nuffield Council on Bioethics. 2018. Genome editing and human reproduction: social and ethical issues, London: Nuffield Council on Bioethics.

Ormond K, Bombard Y, Bonham V, Hoffman-Andrews L, Howard H, Isasi R, Musunuru K, Riggan K, Michie M, Allyse M. 2019. The clinical application of gene editing: ethical and social issues, Personalised Medicine, 16 (4): 337-350.

Pacione M, Siskind C, Day J, Tabor H. 2019. Perspectives on Spinraza (Nusinersen) treatment study: views of individuals and parents of children diagnosed with spinal muscular atrophy, Journal of Neuromuscular Diseases, 6: 119-131.

Parens E, Asch A. 2000. The disability rights critique of prenatal testing: reflections and recommendations, Parens E and Asch A (eds) Prenatal Testing and Disability Rights, Washington DC: Georgetown University Press.

Petersen A. 2006. The best experts: the narratives of those who have a genetic condition, Social Science and Medicine, 63: 32-42.

Peterson M. 2012. Disability advocacy and reproductive choice: engaging with the expressivist objection, Journal of Genetic Counselling, 21: 13-16.

Potrata B, McKibbin M, Lim JNW, Hewison J. 2014. "To perpetuate blindness!": attitudes of UK patients with inherited retinal disease towards genetic testing, Journal of Genetic Counselling, 5: 215-222.

Roadhouse C, Shuman C, Anstey K, Sappleton K, Chitayat D, Ignagni E. 2018. Disability experiences and perspectives regarding reproductive decisions, parenting and the utility of genetic services: a qualitative study, Journal of Genetic Counseling, 27: 1360-1373.

Rothstein J. 2001. Impairments: always linked to meaningful disability? Physical Therapy, 81 (3): 886-887.

Savulescu J, Singer P. 2019. An ethical pathway for gene editing, Bioethics, 32 (2): 221-222.

Savulescu J, Pugh J, Douglas Tm Gyngell C. 2015. The moral imperative to continue gene editing research on human embryos, Protein and Cell, 6 (7): 476-479.

Shakespeare T. 2006. Disability Rights and Wrongs, London: Routledge.

Stern SJ, Arnos KS, Murrelle L, Oelrich Welch K, Nance WE, Pandya A. 2002. Attitudes of deaf and hard of hearing subjects towards genetic testing and prenatal diagnosis of hearing loss, Journal of Medical Genetics, 39 (6): 449-453.

Tanjeja PR, Pandya A, Foley DL, Nicely LV, Arnos KS. 2004. Attitudes of deaf individuals towards genetic testing, American Journal of Medical Genetics Part A, 15, 130A(1):17-21.

Wolbring G, Diep L. 2016. The discussions around precision genetic engineering: role of and impact on disabled people, Laws, 5 (3): 37-60.

Yrigollen CM, Davidson BL. 2019. CRISPR to the Rescue: Advances in Gene Editing for the *FMR1* Gene, Brain Sciences, 9 (1): 17.