

RESEARCH

Open Access



Parents' perspectives on expanded newborn genomic screening in Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates

Yasir Ahmed Mohammed Elhadi^{1*}, Marwa Alkatheeri¹, Maryam Alktifan¹, Fatma Alhammadi¹, Taif Sultan¹, Yousef M. Abu Alqumboz¹, Ahmed Jihad¹, M. Islam Shaidul¹, Mohammed Al Saadi¹, Meera Saeed Nhayah Alkaabi¹, Khalid Almaamari¹, Khalifa Alseiri¹, Naser Alshamsi¹, Omar Alzaabi¹, Saoud Al Tamimi¹, Mohamed Salem Alameri², Emad Masuadi¹ and Azhar T. Rahma^{1*}

Abstract

Background Newborn genomic screening offers the potential for early detection and management of genetic disorders. Understanding parental perspectives is essential before integrating genomic testing into standard newborn screening.

Methods This was a descriptive cross-sectional study surveyed 568 parents in Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates (UAE). An online self-administered validated and piloted questionnaire was used to gather information on demographic characteristic and perspectives regarding newborn genomic screening. Data were analysed using R version 4.4.3.

Results Most parents (78.2%) supported integrating genomics into newborn screening programs, with 63.5% stating it requires distinct management from standard screening. Females preferred geneticists (38.2% vs. 32.5%, $p < 0.001$) and hospitals (45.1% vs. 39.2%, $p < 0.001$) for discussions, with 74.2% emphasizing explicit consent compared to 68.5% of males ($p < 0.002$). Treatability (82.7%), age of symptom onset (74.1%), and severity (72.2%) were key decision-making factors. Additionally, 66.7% preferred genomic testing to be covered by insurance, and 82.2% supported storing genomic data for future use.

Conclusion Parents participated in the study strongly support genomic newborn screening. Gender-based differences emphasize the need for tailored communication and culturally sensitive strategies to inform policy development and implementation of newborn genomic screening program in the UAE and similar contexts.

Keywords Newborn genomic screening, Parental perspectives, Public health, Testing

*Correspondence:

Yasir Ahmed Mohammed Elhadi

yelhadi@uaeu.ac.ae

Azhar T. Rahma

azhar.talal@uaeu.ac.ae

¹Institute of Public Health, College of Medicine and Health Sciences, United Arab Emirates University, Al An 15551, United Arab Emirates

²Department of Health, Abu Dhabi 20224, United Arab Emirates



© The Author(s) 2025. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License, which permits any non-commercial use, sharing, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if you modified the licensed material. You do not have permission under this licence to share adapted material derived from this article or parts of it. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>.

Introduction

Newborn screening programs are foundational public health initiatives designed to detect genetic, metabolic, and other congenital conditions early in life, enabling timely interventions before clinical symptoms emerge [1]. Since their origin in the 1960s with phenylketonuria (PKU) screening, NBS programs have broadened globally to include a wide range of treatable disorders [2].

In the United Arab Emirates (UAE), the National Neonatal Screening Program was launched in January 1995, initially screening for PKU. Over the years, it expanded to include congenital hypothyroidism (1998), sickle cell disease (2002), congenital adrenal hyperplasia (2005), biotinidase deficiency (2010), and, more recently, G6PD deficiency (2019). The program incorporated tandem mass spectrometry in 2011 and initiated a cystic fibrosis screening pilot in 2020 [3, 4]. Currently, the UAE screens for more than 40 conditions, alongside universal newborn hearing and congenital heart disease screening, with over 1.3 million infants screened and approximately 2,700 cases of life-threatening or debilitating conditions identified and treated early [4].

The expansion of newborn screening is particularly crucial in the UAE due to the high consanguinity rates—estimated to exceed 50% among Emiratis—and the resulting elevated burden of autosomal recessive disorders [5, 6]. In this context, incorporating genomic technologies into newborn screening presents a significant opportunity to enhance early detection of rare but serious conditions with a genetic basis.

Genomic newborn screening (gNBS) leverages next-generation sequencing and other genomic tools to identify disease-causing variants before symptom onset [7]. Studies in the United States and China have demonstrated that gNBS shortens the diagnostic odyssey, improves survival and quality of life, and can be cost-effective in high-burden settings [8, 9]. Despite its promise, the implementation of gNBS raises a range of ethical, social, and logistical concerns. These include questions about data privacy, the psychological impact of uncertain findings, informed consent, and the return of results—especially for conditions without proven treatments or with adult-onset manifestations [10–12].

Parental perspectives are central to addressing these concerns, shaping the uptake, design, and trustworthiness of gNBS programs. Studies consistently show that parental knowledge, values, and preferences strongly influence decision-making in genomic screening [13–15]. For instance, while many parents support screening for treatable childhood-onset conditions, they are more cautious about screening for adult-onset disorders or those lacking interventions [16–18]. This reflects parents' desire for actionable results and concern about generating anxiety from uncertain or non-actionable findings

[19]. Moreover, engaging parents in the design and implementation of gNBS policies—through educational interventions, consent tools, and advisory boards—has been shown to enhance ethical acceptability and program sustainability [20, 21].

While international studies emphasize the importance of clear communication, culturally sensitive messaging, and prenatal education in building support for gNBS [22–24], little is known about parental perspectives in the UAE. This study aims to explore parental perspectives on expanded newborn genomic screening in Abu Dhabi, UAE, including ethical, social, and logistical concerns, as well as preferences for implementation and communication strategies. The findings are presented to inform future policy decisions, public health education, and the ethical rollout of genomic screening initiatives in the region.

Materials and methods

Study design population and sampling

A descriptive cross-sectional online survey was conducted targeting parents residing in Abu Dhabi to assess their perspectives on expanded newborn genomic screening. The sample size was calculated using Raosoft based on an expected proportion of 50% (to allow maximum variability) on support to the development of gNBS, with a confidence level of 95% and a 5% margin of error, the minimum required sample size was estimated to be 385 participants. To account for potential non-completion or ineligible entries, we aimed to reach at least 450 participants. A convenience sampling approach was used. The survey was made available online via digital platforms, including WhatsApp, Facebook, and Instagram.

Information about the study, including a detailed Participant Information Sheet (PIS), was shared publicly through these platforms and parental networks. The PIS explained the study's objectives, inclusion criteria, voluntary nature of participation, confidentiality safeguards, and approximate survey duration. The inclusion criteria were: (1) parent or legal guardian of a child aged less than one month, (2) residing in Abu Dhabi, and (3) able to complete the survey in either English or Arabic. No monetary incentives were provided. Participant contact information was not required or collected. IP addresses were not recorded to ensure anonymity, and the survey platform (SurveyMonkey) was configured to allow only one response per device.

Measures and data collection

An online self-administered questionnaire was developed based on recent literature [13, 17–20] and expert consultation. The literature review informed the structure and content of the tool, while three experts—a clinical geneticist, a public health researcher, and a bioethicist—were

consulted to ensure clinical relevance, cultural appropriateness, and ethical rigor. These experts provided input on question formulation, ordering, and clarity.

The questionnaire was initially drafted in English and translated into Arabic using the forward–backward translation method to ensure linguistic and conceptual equivalence. It included four main domains:

- **Demographic and health-related variables:** gender, marital status, number of children, nationality, attainment of a university level of educational, employment status, monthly income, history of chronic illness, and presence of genetic disorders in the family or children.
- **Parental perspectives on genomic newborn screening:** perceived importance, perceived benefits and risks, and attitudes toward integrating genomic testing into standard screening programs.
- **Implementation preferences:** preferred timing of information provision, responsible personnel (e.g., doctor, nurse, geneticist), preferred setting for discussion (e.g., hospital, clinic), and consent process preferences. Before presenting questions on preferences, a brief description of the roles of healthcare professionals (e.g., geneticists, pediatricians) was included in the survey introduction to assist respondents with informed choices.
- **Ethical and logistical considerations:** data privacy concerns, future use of genetic data, storage and governance of genomic information, and funding responsibility.

A combination of Likert-scale, multiple-choice, and categorical questions was used. The questionnaire was piloted with 30 parents from the target population to assess clarity, cultural appropriateness, and response time. Based on feedback, minor revisions were made. The final version was distributed online using SurveyMonkey. A ‘back button’ was enabled to allow participants to review and revise answers. Mandatory fields were enforced using the survey tool’s built-in validation settings to reduce missing data. This study was conducted and reported in accordance with the Checklist for Reporting Results of Internet E-Surveys (CHERRIES) [25].

Data management and statistical analysis

Survey responses were stored securely within the SurveyMonkey platform and were accessible only to the Principal Investigator. Data were exported and analysed using R version 4.4.3. Descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) were used to summarize participant characteristics and responses. The Chi-square test was used to assess gender-based differences in preferences on

genomic newborn screening. Statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

Ethical considerations

The study received ethical approval from the Social Science Ethical Review Committee at the United Arab Emirates University (IRB No. ERSC_2024_4422), in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. Informed consent was obtained electronically before the survey began. Participants were informed of their right to withdraw at any time, and data confidentiality and anonymity were rigorously maintained throughout the study.

Results

A total of 568 parents completed the survey out of 724 who accessed the questionnaire, yielding a response rate of 78.5%. Of these, 54.8% were female and 45.2% male. Most participants were married (93.1%), while 4.0% were divorced and 2.8% widowed. Emirati nationals accounted for 81.9% of the sample. A majority (85.4%) held a university degree, and 76.6% were employed. Monthly income distribution showed that 42.3% earned <3,000 AED, while 24.1% earned 3,000–10,000 AED, 17.6% earned 11,000–20,000 AED, and 16.0% earned >20,000 AED. Approximately quarter of participants (24.8%) reported having children with genetic disorders, while 45.8% had relatives with hereditary conditions. History of chronic illnesses was reported by 37.3% of participants (Table 1).

The majority of respondents (78.5%) supported integrating genomic testing into newborn screening program, while 59.2% agreed that the consent process should differ from that of traditional medical screening for newborns. Despite the high level of support, approximately 21.5% of respondents expressed uncertainty or opposition (Fig. 1).

Table 2. shows that most parents (74.6%) preferred genomic screening to be discussed at birth, with 13.0% favouring discussion during pregnancy and 12.3% during early childhood and most parents support different management from the traditional medical examination (63.5%). Pertaining to the appropriate personnel to inform parents, 36.1% preferred geneticists, 24.8% general practitioners, 21.5% obstetricians, 15.1% paediatricians, and 2.5% preferred midwives. The hospital (42.3%) was the preferred location for these discussions, followed by the general practitioner’s clinic (27.6%) and obstetrics clinic (27.8%). Consent for genomic testing was considered essential by 71.8%, while 28.2% believed testing should be automatic standard practice, and the majority preferred to consent during pregnancy (81.3%). Most parents (80.5%) supported offering genomic testing to all newborns, while smaller groups preferred selective testing based on clinical need at doctors’ discretion or family history (Fig. 2).

Table 1 Demographic characteristics of participants (n = 568)

Socio-demographic variables		N	(%)
Gender	Male	257	(45.2)
	Female	311	(54.8)
Number of children	1	124	(22.4)
	2	95	(17.1)
	3	86	(15.5)
	4	80	(14.4)
	5	65	(11.7)
	6	52	(9.4)
	> 6	52	(9.4)
Marital status	Married	529	(93.1)
	Divorced	23	(4.0)
	Widowed	16	(2.8)
Nationality	Emirati	465	(81.9)
	Non-Emirati	103	(18.1)
University degree attainment	Yes	485	(85.4)
	No	83	(14.6)
Employment status	Employed	435	(76.6)
	Not employed	133	(23.4)
Monthly income	Less than 3,000 AED	240	(42.3)
	3000–10,000 AED	137	(24.1)
	11,000–20,000 AED	100	(17.6)
	> 20,000 AED	91	(16.0)
Children with genetic disorders	Yes	141	(24.8)
	No	427	(75.2)
Relatives with hereditary genetic disorders	Yes	260	(45.8)
	No	308	(54.2)
Chronic illness	Yes	212	(37.3)
	No	336	(59.2)
	I do not know	20	(3.5)

Table 3 shows parental preferences for communication, consent, and data use in gNBS. Most participants (67.4%) preferred receiving information about newborn genomic testing through personal discussions, and a majority (86.8%) expressed a desire to know detailed information about the genetic conditions before pregnancy. Moreover, 66.7% believed health insurance should cover genomic testing, while 31.2% advocated for government funding. Furthermore, 82.2% supported the storage of genomic data for future use, and 82.4% wanted updates on new findings derived from stored samples.

Participants prioritized treatability (82.7%), the age of symptom onset (74.1%), and symptom severity (72.2%) as critical factors in deciding on gNBS. Additionally, the certainty of symptom manifestation during childhood (74.3%) and clarity regarding the specific symptoms (73.8%) were deemed important (Table 4).

Figure 3 lists factors influencing decision-making, these include; whether test costs are covered by insurance (63.0%); which diseases were tested for (59.7%); and the cost of testing (47.9%). Additional considerations include

treatment availability (47.7%) and the possibility of future re-contact with updated findings (41.2%).

Parents considered early detection (90.0%), early effective treatment (63.0%), and avoidance of complications (52.3%) as the top benefits of integrating genomics into newborn screening. However, they also reported risks including fear of negative results (55.1%), misinterpretation of information (39.6%), and decision-making hesitation (38.9%), indicating a dual perception of opportunity and concern surrounding genomic newborn screening (Fig. 4).

Gender-Based differences in perspectives

A post-hoc gender-stratified analysis revealed statistically significant gender-based differences in several gNBS preferences (Table 5). Female respondents more frequently selected geneticists as the preferred personnel to communicate genomic screening information (38.2% vs. 32.5%, $p=0.001$), and showed a stronger preference for hospital settings (45.1% vs. 39.2%, $p=0.001$) compared to males, suggesting a greater inclination toward institutional and specialized support. Furthermore, a significantly higher proportion of females emphasized the need for explicit parental consent (74.2% vs. 68.5%, $p=0.002$), while males were more open to automatic testing.

Discussion

The integration of next-generation sequencing into newborn screening has advanced the early detection of genetic conditions, offering diagnostic insights beyond the capabilities of traditional biochemical assays [26]. Unlike conventional screening, gNBS enable the identification of a wider array of disorders, including those without biochemical markers or immediate treatments [27, 28]. While the benefits are significant, understanding parental perspectives is essential for ethically sound implementation.

The findings revealed that 78.5% of participants supported the development of gNBS, indicating broad public acceptance and awareness of its potential benefits. However, the 21.5% who opposed or were uncertain about genomic testing reflect important knowledge gaps or concerns that must be addressed through targeted health communication. These findings mirror those from previous international studies—including in Arab and MENA countries—which have emphasized the role of prenatal education, informed consent, and trust-building in increasing parental acceptance [4, 17, 29–32]. The high level of support in this study is consistent with a U.S.-based study where participants demonstrated strong support for newborn screening regardless of the method used [17].

Preferences for discussing gNBS at birth (74.6%), receiving information from geneticists (36.1%), and doing

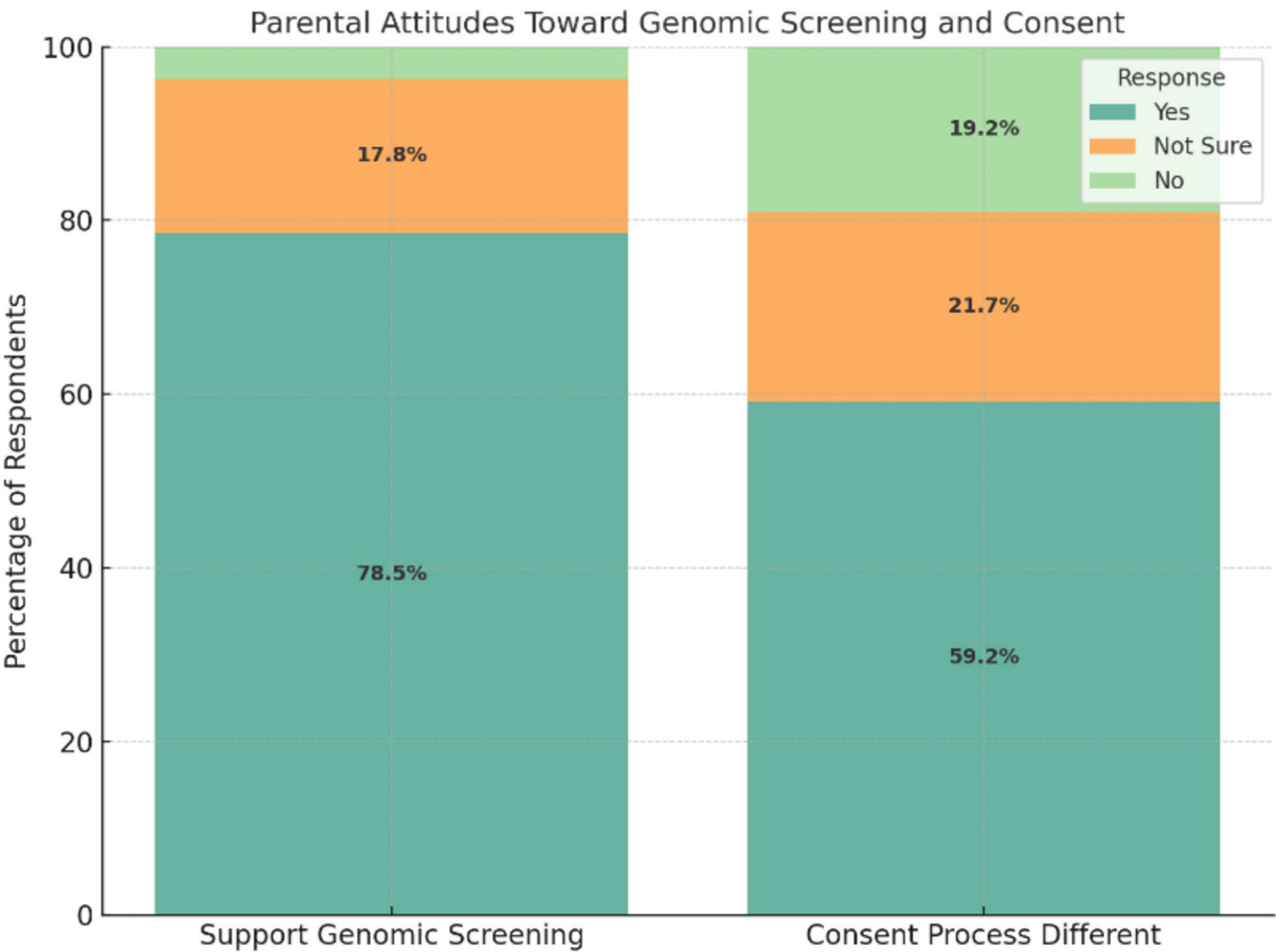


Fig. 1 Parental attitudes toward genomic screening and consent

so within hospital settings (42.3%) highlight parents’ desire for expert guidance in credible healthcare environments. These preferences point to a need for accessible and structured genomic counselling pathways. These findings are in line with existing evidence that supports using trained personnel in trusted settings to deliver complex genetic information [33–35].

Ethical considerations were central to parental decision-making. Most participants (71.8%) believed explicit consent was essential, with 81.3% preferring it be obtained during pregnancy. These results align with ethical frameworks emphasizing transparency, autonomy, and informed decision-making in genomic medicine [36]. They also resonate with studies where parents expressed a desire to receive information prenatally and emphasized the importance of tailored consent protocols for genomic screening [18, 20]. The strong support for data storage (82.2%) and receiving future updates (82.4%) suggests a general trust in the long-term medical utility of genomic information, especially when safeguards are in place.

Parents prioritized treatability (82.7%), age of symptom onset (74.1%), and symptom severity (72.2%) when evaluating which conditions should be included in newborn genomic screening. These findings are similar to previous studies showing that parents are more supportive of screening for actionable or early-onset disorders and more hesitant when the prognosis is unclear or untreatable [18, 20, 23]. These preferences underscore the need to tailor genomic screening panels to align with parental expectations and ethical thresholds for actionable outcomes. Moreover, perceived risks such as privacy concerns and psychological burden were reported in the current study as well as in many other studies identified increased anxiety as a key challenge to gNBS program sustainability [37–43]. These insights further reinforce the need for robust pre- and post-test genetic counselling.

Gender-based differences emerged in several aspects of genomic testing preferences. Female participants showed a stronger preference for geneticists (40.8% vs. 30.4%) and hospitals (51.4% vs. 31.1%) as sources and settings for discussion. They were also more supportive

Table 2 Parental preferences and key considerations for newborn genomic testing ($n = 568$)

Variable	Response	N	(%)
gNBS requires different management from traditional screening	Yes	360	(63.5)
	No	43	(7.6)
	I am not sure	164	(28.9)
Preferred timing for screening discussion	During pregnancy	74	(13.0)
	At birth	424	(74.6)
	During childhood (3–6 months)	70	(12.3)
Preferred personnel to provide information	General practitioner	141	(24.8)
	Obstetrician	122	(21.5)
	Midwife	14	(2.5)
	Geneticist	205	(36.1)
	Pediatrician	86	(15.1)
Preferred setting for discussing gNBS	General practitioner's clinic	157	(27.6)
	Obstetrics clinic	158	(27.8)
	In the hospital	240	(42.3)
	Online	13	(2.3)
Consent requirement	Consent required	408	(71.8)
	Automatic testing	160	(28.2)
Preferred timing for consent	During pregnancy	462	(81.3)
	At birth	106	(18.7)

gNBS: Genomic newborn screening

of prenatal consent (82.6% vs. 79.8%) and explicit consent overall (66.6% vs. 78.2%). These differences may reflect women's closer engagement with maternal and child health services and heightened sensitivity to ethical

Table 3 Parental preferences for communication, consent, and data use in newborn genomic screening ($n = 568$)

Variable	Response	N	(%)
Preferred mode of information delivery	Telemedicine (online)	130	(23.0)
	In writing	54	(9.6)
	Personal discussion	380	(67.4)
Desire for pre-pregnancy information	Yes	493	(86.8)
	No	39	(6.9)
	I do not know	36	(6.3)
Preferred payer for testing	Health insurance	379	(66.7)
	Government	177	(31.2)
	Individuals	12	(2.1)
Support for data storage	Yes	467	(82.2)
	No	45	(7.9)
	I do not know	56	(9.9)
Interest in future findings	Yes	468	(82.4)
	No	49	(8.6)
	I do not know	51	(9.0)

decision-making. Similar patterns have been observed in other studies, where women demonstrated greater engagement and decisional caution in genomic screening contexts [24].

This study has several limitations. The convenience sampling method limits the generalizability of the findings beyond the Abu Dhabi context. The online nature of the survey may have excluded parents with limited internet access or digital literacy, leading to potential selection

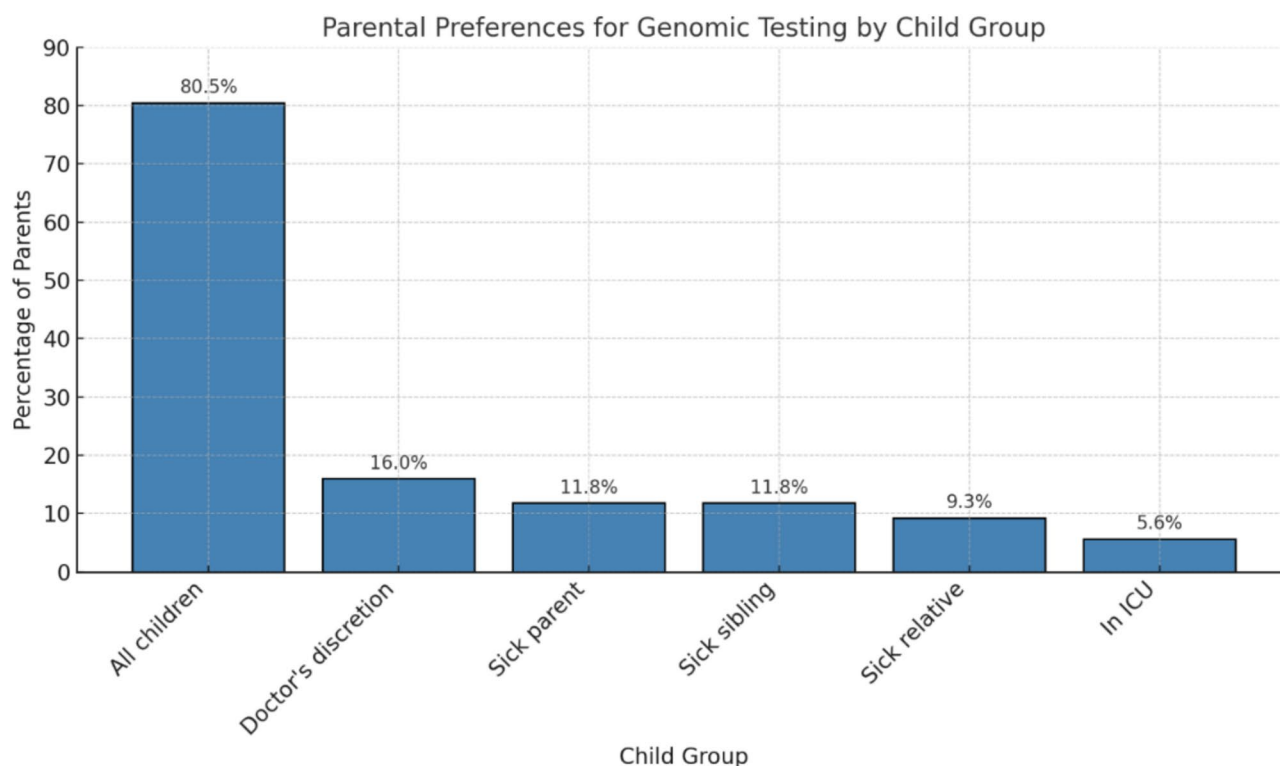
**Fig. 2** Parental preferences for genomic testing by child group

Table 4 Importance of case attributes in parental decision-making for newborn genomic testing

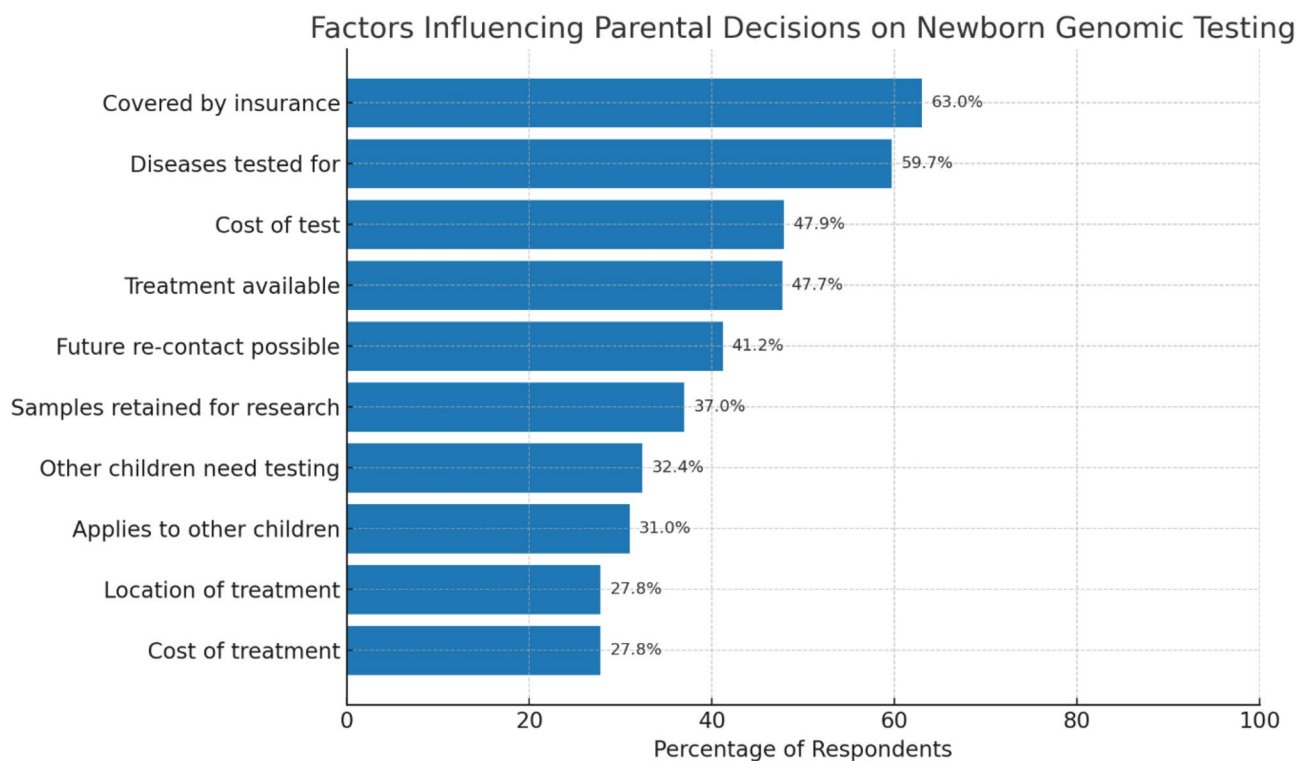
Case attributes	Yes (N (%))	No (N (%))	I don't know N (%)
Treatability (treatable or untreatable)	470 (82.7)	38 (6.7)	60 (10.6)
Age of symptom onset	421 (74.1)	35 (6.2)	112 (19.7)
Severity of the condition	410 (72.2)	37 (6.5)	121 (21.3)
Certainty of childhood onset of symptoms	422 (74.3)	34 (6.0)	112 (19.7)
Certainty about the type of symptoms	419 (73.8)	36 (6.3)	113 (19.9)

bias. Additionally, the self-reported format may be influenced by social desirability bias. Future studies should consider longitudinal or mixed-method designs, incorporating qualitative interviews to gain deeper insights into the evolving attitudes and lived experiences of parents navigating genomic screening decisions.

Conclusion

Most of participants supported integrating genomic testing into the standard newborn screening program, emphasizing treatability, age of symptom onset, and severity of conditions as key decision-making factors. Parents expressed strong preferences for discussing genomic testing at birth with geneticists in hospital settings. Most parents favored explicit consent processes,

particularly during pregnancy, and supported the storage of genomic data for future use, reflecting trust in the potential benefits of genomic advancements. However, the significant proportion of parents who were uncertain or opposed to genomic testing prompt the need for targeted education and communication strategies to address concerns such as privacy and psychological impacts.

**Fig. 3** Factors influencing parental decisions on newborn genomic testing

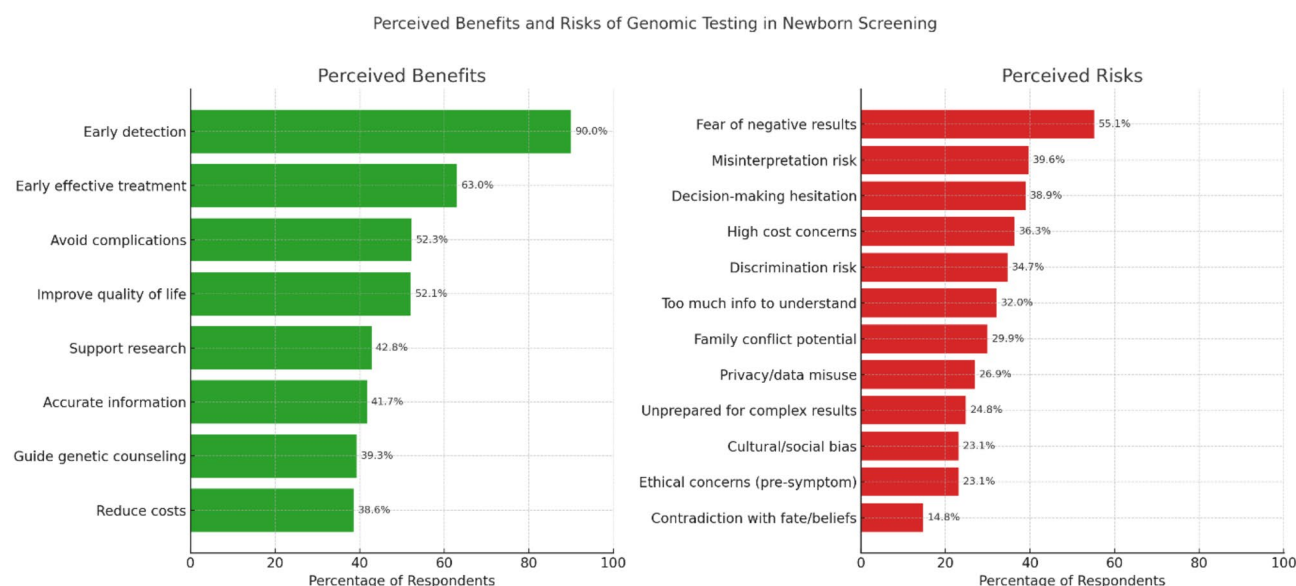


Fig. 4 Parents' perceived benefits and risks of genomic testing in newborn screening

Table 5 Comparison of parental views on key aspects of newborn genomic testing by gender

Variables and responses			Male		Female		P
			N	(%)	N	(%)	
Support for integrating genomic testing in newborn screening	Yes		209	(81.3)	237	(76.2)	0.279
	No		7	(2.70)	14	(4.5)	
	Not sure		41	(16.0)	60	(19.3)	
gNBS requires different management from traditional screening	Yes		164	(64.1)	196	(63.0)	0.395
	No		23	(9.0)	20	(6.40)	
	Not sure		69	(27.0)	95	(30.5)	
Timing of consent discussion	During pregnancy		34	(13.2)	40	(12.9)	0.672
	At birth		188	(73.2)	236	(75.9)	
	During childhood (3–6 months)		35	(13.6)	35	(11.3)	
Preferred personnel to provide information	The general practitioner		91	(35.4)	50	(16.1)	< 0.001*
	Obstetrician		53	(20.6)	69	(22.2)	
	Midwife		5	(1.9)	9	(2.9)	
	Geneticist		78	(30.4)	127	(40.8)	
	Pediatrician		30	(11.7)	56	(18.0)	
Preferred setting for discussing gNBS	General practitioner's clinic		103	(40.1)	54	(17.4)	< 0.001*
	Obstetrics clinic		67	(26.1)	91	(29.3)	
	In the hospital		80	(31.1)	160	(51.4)	
	Online		7	(2.7)	6	(1.9)	
Consent requirement	Consent required		201	(78.2)	207	(66.6)	0.002*
	Automatic testing		56	(21.8)	104	(33.4)	
Different gNBS consent from standard medical examination for newborns	Yes		154	(59.9)	182	(58.5)	0.773
	No		46	(17.9)	63	(20.30)	
	Not sure		57	(22.2)	66	(21.20)	
Preferred timing for consent	During pregnancy		205	(79.8)	257	(82.6)	0.382
	At birth		52	(20.2)	54	(17.4)	

gNBS: Genomic newborn screening

*Chi-square test statistically significant at p less than 0.05

Acknowledgements

Not applicable.

Author contributions

ATR conceptualized the study, designed the questionnaire, supervised data collection, and revised the manuscript. YAME and EM analyzed study's data and critically revised the manuscript. YAME interpreted the findings and drafted the manuscript. MA, MAA, FA, TS, YA, AJ, MS, MAS, MSN, KA, KS, NA, OA, SAT, and MSA assisted with data collection and provided critical revisions to the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Funding

This study has not received any specific funding.

Data availability

The datasets generated and analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

This study adhered to the ethical principles outlined in the Declaration of Helsinki. Ethical approval was granted by the Social Science Ethical Review Committee at the United Arab Emirates University. Informed written consent was obtained from all participants before data collection commenced.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Received: 16 January 2025 / Accepted: 27 April 2025

Published online: 06 June 2025

References

1. Wilcken B. Expanded newborn screening: reducing harm, assessing benefit. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2010;33 SUPPL. 2.
2. Dhondt JL. Expanded newborn screening: social and ethical issues. *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2010;33 Suppl 2.
3. Al Hosani H, Salah M, Osman HM, Farag HM, El-Assiouty L, Saade D, et al. Expanding the comprehensive National neonatal screening programme in the United Arab Emirates from 1995 to 2011. *East Mediterr Heal J*. 2014;20:17–23.
4. Skrinska V, Khneisser I, Schielen P, Loeber G. Introducing and expanding newborn screening in the MENA region. *Int J Neonatal Screen*. 2020;6:12.
5. Khan GA, Al Hammadi G, Ziyada A, Al Waeel K, Ayman L, Elddin Elgailani ES. Prevalence of consanguineous marriages in UAE nationals and the risk of genetic diseases. *J Med*. 2023;24:82–8.
6. Tadmouri GO, Nair P, Obeid T, Al Ali MT, Al Khaja N, Hamamy HA. Consanguinity and reproductive health among Arabs. *Reprod Health*. 2009;6:1–9.
7. Friedman JM, Cornel MC, Goldenberg AJ, Lister KJ, Sénécal K, Vears DF. Genomic newborn screening: public health policy considerations and recommendations. *BMC Med Genomics*. 2017;2017:101.
8. Bansal S, Kasturi K, Chin VL. National survey assessment of the United States' pediatric residents' knowledge, attitudes, and practices regarding newborn screening. *Int J Neonatal Screen*. 2018;5.
9. Zhang H, Wang Y, Qiu Y, Zhang C. Expanded newborn screening for inherited metabolic disorders by tandem mass spectrometry in a Northern Chinese population. *Front Genet*. 2022;13:801447.
10. Friedman JM. Implementing genomic newborn screening as an effective public health intervention: sidestepping the hype and criticism. *NPJ Genomic Med*. 2024;9:70.
11. Tarini BA, Goldenberg AJ. Ethical issues with newborn screening in the genomics era. *Annu Rev Genomics Hum Genet*. 2012;13:381.
12. King JR, Grill K, Hammarström L. Genomic-Based newborn screening for inborn errors of immunity: practical and ethical considerations. *Int J Neonatal Screen*. 2023;9:9:22.
13. Joseph G, Chen F, Harris-Wai J, Puck JM, Young C, Koenig BA. Parental views on expanded newborn screening using Whole-Genome sequencing. *Pediatrics*. 2016;137(1 Suppl 1):S36–46.
14. Botkin JR, Rothwell E, Anderson RA, Rose NC, Dolan SM, Kuppermann M, et al. Prenatal education of parents about newborn screening and residual dried blood spots: A randomized clinical trial. *JAMA Pediatr*. 2016;170:543.
15. Davis TC, Humiston SG, Arnold CL, Bocchini JA, Bass PF, Kennen EM et al. Recommendations for effective newborn screening communication: results of focus groups with parents, providers, and experts. *Pediatrics*. 2006;117.
16. Rothwell E, Clark L, Anderson R, Botkin JR. Residual newborn screening samples for research: parental information needs for decision-making. *J Speciatr Nurs*. 2013;18:115–22.
17. Armstrong B, Christensen KD, Genetti CA, Parad RB, Robinson JO, Blout Zawatsky CL, et al. Parental attitudes toward standard newborn screening and newborn genomic sequencing: findings from the babyseq study. *Front Genet*. 2022;13:867371.
18. Hasegawa LE, Fergus KA, Ojeda N, Au SM. Parental attitudes toward ethical and social issues surrounding the expansion of newborn screening using new technologies. *Public Health Genomics*. 2010;14:298.
19. Boychuk N, Kelly N, Goldenberg A, Wasserstein M. OP042: A matter of opinion: an exploratory study of parental attitudes towards newborn screening for conditions of varying onset and treatability. *Genet Med*. 2022;24:S368.
20. Liang NSY, Watts-Dickens A, Chitayat D, Babul-Hirji R, Chakraborty P, Hayeems RZ. Parental preferences for expanded newborn screening: what are the limits? *Children*. 2023;10:1362.
21. Powell SN, Byfield G, Bennetone A, Frantz AM, Harrison LK, James-Crook ER et al. Parental guidance suggested: engaging parents as partners in research studies of genomic screening for a pediatric population. *Front Genet*. 2022;13.
22. Blom M, Bredius RGM, Jansen ME, Weijman G, Kemper EA, Vermont CL, et al. Parents' perspectives and societal acceptance of implementation of newborn screening for SCID in the Netherlands. *J Clin Immunol*. 2021;41:99–108.
23. Kerruish N. Parents' experiences 12 years after newborn screening for genetic susceptibility to type 1 diabetes and their attitudes to whole-genome sequencing in newborns. *Genet Med*. 2016;18:249–58.
24. Waisbren SE, Bäck DK, Liu C, Kalia SS, Ringer SA, Holm IA, et al. Parents are interested in newborn genomic testing during the early postpartum period. *Genet Med*. 2015;17:501–4.
25. Eysenbach G. Improving the Quality of Web Surveys: The Checklist for Reporting Results of Internet E-Surveys (CHERRIES). *J Med Internet Res*. 2004;6(3):e34 <https://www.jmir.org/2004/3/e34>. 2004;6:e132.
26. Ding S, Han L, Correspondence L, Han X, Hospital S. Newborn screening for genetic disorders: current status and prospects for the future. *Pediatr Investig*. 2022;6:291.
27. Wang X, Wang YY, Hong DY, Zhang ZL, Li YH, Yang PY, et al. Combined genetic screening and traditional biochemical screening to optimize newborn screening systems. *Clin Chim Acta*. 2022;528:44–51.
28. Spiekerkoetter U, Bick D, Scott R, Hopkins H, Krones T, Gross ES, et al. Genomic newborn screening: are we entering a new era of screening? *J Inherit Metab Dis*. 2023;46:778–95.
29. Alhusseini N, Almuhanna Y, Alabduljabbar L, Alamri S, Altayeb M, Askar G, et al. International newborn screening: where are we in Saudi Arabia? *J Epidemiol Glob Health*. 2024;14:638–44.
30. Abiib S, Khodjet-El-khil H, El-Akouri K, Bux RI, Rezoug Z, Abualainin W et al. Qatar's genetic counseling landscape: current insights and future prospects. *Genet Med Open*. 2024;2 Suppl 2:101866.
31. Krotoski D, Namaste S, Raouf RK, El Nekheli I, Hindi-Alexander M, Engelson G, et al. Conference report: second conference of the middle East and North Africa newborn screening initiative: partnerships for sustainable newborn screening infrastructure and research opportunities. *Genet Med*. 2009;11:663–8.
32. Elhadi YAM, Alrawa SS, Alfadul ESA, Mahgoub EAA, El-Osta A, Belal SA et al. Consanguinity and willingness to perform premarital genetic screening in Sudan. *Eur J Hum Genet*. 2023; 1–8.
33. Suckiel SA, Linderman MD, Sanderson SC, Diaz GA, Wasserstein M, Kasarskis A, et al. Impact of genomic counseling on informed Decision-Making among ostensibly healthy individuals seeking personal genome sequencing: the healthseq project. *J Genet Couns*. 2016;25:1044–53.
34. Berrios C, James CA, Raraigh K, Bollinger J, Murray B, Tichnell C, et al. Enrolling genomics research participants through a clinical setting: the impact of existing clinical relationships on informed consent and expectations for return of research results. *J Genet Couns*. 2017;27:263.

35. Do TT, Martyn M, McClaren B, McEwen A, Gaff C. Becoming agents for genomic change: genetic counsellors' views of patient care and implementation influences when genomics is mainstreamed. *Eur J Hum Genet* 2024 3212. 2024;32:1606–14.
36. Rego S, Grove ME, Cho MK, Ormond KE. Informed consent in the genomics era. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med*. 2020;10:a036582.
37. Kerruish NJ, Healey DM, Gray AR. Psychosocial effects in parents and children 12 years after newborn genetic screening for type 1 diabetes. *Eur J Hum Genet*. 2017;2017 254:25:397–403.
38. Dikow N, Ditzgen B, Kölker S, Hoffmann GF, Schaaf CP. From newborn screening to genomic medicine: challenges and suggestions on how to incorporate genomic newborn screening in public health programs. *Medizinische Genet*. 2022;34:13–20.
39. Tluczek A, Ersig AL, Lee S. Psychosocial issues related to newborn screening: A systematic review and synthesis. *Int J Neonatal Screen*. 2022;8:53.
40. Sadat R, Hall PL, Wittenauer AL, Vengoechea ED, Park K, Hagar AF, et al. Increased parental anxiety and a benign clinical course: infants identified with short-chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency and isobutyryl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency through newborn screening in Georgia. *Mol Genet Metab*. 2020;129:20–5.
41. Seed L, Scott A, Pichini A, Peter M, Tadros S, Sortica Da Costa C et al. Perceptions of genomic newborn screening: a cross-sectional survey conducted with UK medical students. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2024-089108>
42. Meyer AP, Connolly AM, Vannatta K, Hacker N, Hatfield A, Decipeda A, et al. Parental experiences with newborn screening and gene replacement therapy for spinal muscular atrophy. *J Neuromuscul Dis*. 2024;11:129–42.
43. Kolemen AB, Akyuz E, Toprak A, Deveci E, Yesil G. Evaluation of the parents' anxiety levels before and after the diagnosis of their child with a rare genetic disease: the necessity of psychological support. *Orphanet J Rare Dis*. 2021;16:1–8.

Publisher's note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.