

HHS Public Access

Author manuscript *Am J Med Genet A*. Author manuscript.

Cornelia de Lange Syndrome in Diverse Populations

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

Abstract

Cornelia de Lange syndrome (CdLS) is a dominant multisystemic malformation syndrome due to mutations in 5 genes - NIPBL, SMC1A, HDAC8, SMC3, and RAD21. The characteristic facial dysmorphisms include microcephaly, arched eyebrows, synophrys, short nose with depressed bridge and anteverted nares, long philtrum, thin lips, micrognathia, and hypertrichosis. Most affected individuals have intellectual disability, growth deficiency, and upper limb anomalies. This study looked at individuals from diverse populations with both clinical and molecularly confirmed diagnoses of CdLS by facial analysis technology. Clinical data and images from 246 individuals with CdLS were obtained from 15 countries. This cohort included 49% female patients and ages ranged from infancy to 37 years. Individuals were grouped into ancestry categories of African descent, Asian, Latin American, Middle Eastern, and Caucasian. Across these populations, 14 features showed a statistically significant difference. The most common facial features found in all ancestry groups included synophrys, short nose with anteverted nares, and a long philtrum with thin vermillion of the upper lip. Using facial analysis technology we compared 246 individuals with CdLS to 246 gender/age matched controls and found that sensitivity was equal or greater than 95% for all groups. Specificity was equal or greater than 91%. In conclusion, we present consistent clinical findings from global populations with CdLS while demonstrating how facial analysis technology can be a tool to support accurate diagnoses in the clinical setting. This work, along with prior studies in this arena, will assist in earlier detection, recognition, and treatment of CdLS worldwide.

Keywords

Cornelia de lange syndrome; CdLS; diverse populations; underrepresented minorities; facial analysis technology; NIPBL; SMC1A; HDAC8; SMC3; RAD21; Asia; Africa; Latin America; Middle East

INTRODUCTION

Cornelia de Lange syndrome (CdLS) is a dominant multisystemic malformation syndrome with an estimated incidence of 1:10,000 to 1:30,000 live births [Mannini et al, 2013]. The characteristic facial dysmorphisms, critical in establishing a clinical diagnosis, include microcephaly, arched eyebrows, synophrys, short nose with depressed bridge and anteverted nares, long philtrum, thin vermillion of the upper lip, micrognathia, and hypertrichosis.

Correspondence to: Leah Dowsett and Ian Krantz, Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Address: 3401 Civic Center Boulevard, Philadelphia, PA 19104. Phone: (215) 590-2920, Fax: (215) 590-3298, leah.dowsett@kapiolani.org (LD), krantz@email.chop.edu (IK).

While wide phenotypic variability exists within the CdLS spectrum, ranging from mild to severe, most patients have growth deficiency, intellectual disability, and facial dysmorphism [Kline et al, 2007a; Mehta et al, 2016]. There are 5 identified genes known to cause CdLS when mutated – *NIPBL*, *SMC1A*, *HDAC8*, *SMC3*, and *RAD21* [Krantz et al, 2004]. Because there is variability between clinical presentation based on causative gene and mutation type, evaluating the CdLS phenotype in patients of diverse descent or mixed-ancestry can make diagnosis difficult. Early diagnosis of CdLS is imperative to address life threatening medical issues such as malrotation and seizures [Deardorff et al, 2016; Kline et al, 2007b].

CdLS is a well-recognized condition; however, clinical descriptions of patients with CdLS from diverse ancestral backgrounds in the available medical literature is limited. There are a few case reports with African, Korean, Indian, Iranian, and Malaysian individuals with CdLS [Familant, 1968; Kim et al, 2005; Bhuiyan et al, 2006; Badoe, 2006; Tayebi, 2008; Reddy et al, 2013; Shenoy et al, 2014]. There are, however, numerous case reports of Caucasian individuals [Russell et al, 2001; DeScipio et al, 2005]. Larger studies have come out of Europe including patients from Italy, Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States of America [Musio et al, 2006; Kline et al, 2007b; Olioso et al, 2009; Rohatgi et al, 2010; Deardorff, 2012; Pehlivan et al, 2012; Huisman et al, 2017].

Very few publications have focused on diverse populations such as Africans, Asians, and Latin Americans. As a result, many clinicians are trained with clinical genetic resources where only patients of European descent serve as the standard of reference [Muenke et al, 2016]. Here we compare physical exam findings of patients from underrepresented minority groups with CdLS and demonstrate how facial analysis technology can be a useful clinical tool in diagnosis of individuals from diverse ancestral backgrounds.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Review of Medical Literature

A Medline search was performed to find studies that characterize CdLS in diverse populations. The key words and search terms included: Cornelia de Lange syndrome, NIPBL, SMC1A, HDAC8, SMC3, RAD21, diverse populations, underrepresented minorities, Africa, African-American, Asia, Latin America, Hispanic, Indian, Middle East, and facial analysis technology. Review of the references in papers pertaining to CdLS was also conducted.

Patients

We evaluated the dysmorphologic features in a large cohort of individuals with a clinical diagnosis of CdLS, and limited our analyses to patients with both clinical diagnoses and available clinical images. The average age was 4.2 years (range from birth to 37 years), the median age was 3 years, and 49% were females (Supplementary Table 1). We evaluated individuals with CdLS from 15 countries and identified 246 individuals belonging to the following ancestry groups – Caucasian (n=183), African and African American (n=14), Asian (n=23), Latin American (n=22), and Middle Eastern (n= 8). These groupings were made based on self-identification, with the understanding that phenotypes may vary considerably even within the same ancestry group. All patients had been consented and

evaluated by a trained clinical geneticist for features consistent with a diagnosis of CdLS, many of whom also had confirmed molecular diagnoses. Exam findings from our current study and those from the medical literature are recorded for review (Table 1).

Facial Analysis Technology

As described previously [Kruszka et al., 2017a; Kruszka et al., 2017b, Kruszka et al., 2017c], digital facial analysis technology was used to evaluate the frontal photos of individuals with CdLS from underrepresented minority backgrounds in our study [Zhao et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2014a; Zhao et al., 2014b; Cerrolaza et al., 2016]. Both the underrepresented minority patients in our study and Caucasian controls with CdLS were matched by age and gender to unaffected individuals. The distribution of the dataset is presented in Table 2.

Using only facial images of our study participants, analysis was performed with our algorithms. Output consisted of feature extraction, selection, and classification. As in our previous studies, after facial detection and landmark positioning, a set of 126 facial features were extracted from a set of 44 landmarks placed on the frontal face images. This included both geometric and texture biomarkers. The geometric biomarkers consisted of a set of distances and angles calculated between the different inner facial landmarks as represented in Figure 1. As markers of monotonic illumination changes, local binary patterns were calculated at each of the 33 inner facial landmarks to quantify texture information. From the collection of geometric and texture features, those with the most significance were selected by methods previously described [Cai et al., 2010]. For each feature set, a support vector machine classifier [Cortes and Vapnik, 1995] was trained using a leave-one-out strategy cross-validation [Elisseef and Pontil, 2003]. The optimal number of features was selected as the one which maximized the classification of accuracy. Supplementary Figures 1-5graphically demonstrate how the addition of features improves sensitivity, specificity, and accuracy within each ancestry group. Additionally, as an estimator of the individual discriminant power of each selected feature, the significance (p-value) was estimated using the Student's t-test. Significance between methods used to detect CdLS was assessed using the Fisher's exact test.

RESULTS

Clinical information and photos were collected on 246 patients with confirmed molecular diagnoses of CdLS, coming from diverse ancestral categories from 15 countries. Figures 2–5 show facial features of individuals of African descent (n=14), Asian descent (n=23), Latin American descent (n=31), and Middle Eastern descent (n=8) respectively. Figure 6 shows an age progression in some of the patients. Table 1 demonstrates physical exam variations in our CdLS population (Table 1). The participants with photographs used for Figures 1–6 are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

The cardinal signs of CdLS are listed in Table 1, and include synophrys, arched eyebrows, thick eyelashes, short nose with anteverted nares, long philtrum with thin upper lip and downturned mouth, hypertrichosis, and upper extremity anomalies. Features that varied across ancestry groups included palate anomalies, reflux, and hearing loss.

Facial analysis technology was utilized for a more objective approach to phenotypic analysis. Table 2 shows the age and ancestry of cases and their Caucasian controls studied. A total of 63 minorities with CdLS, 183 Caucasians with CdLS, and 246 healthy controls were evaluated. When using both geometric and texture measures across the global population, sensitivity was 0.95, specificity was 0.93, and accuracy was 0.94 (Table 3). Accuracy was defined as the percentage of correct classifications in the cohort. All five population groups (African American, Asian, Middle Eastern, Latin American, and Caucasian) had improved sensitivity and accuracy when combining both geometric features and texture measures (p <0.001 for all groups, Table 3). Supplementary Figures 1–5 graphically demonstrate how the addition of features improves these measures respectively. Supplementary Tables 2–6 present the relevant features for diagnosis of CdLS for each ancestry group as selected by the digital facial analysis technology.

DISCUSSION

CdLS is a rare condition that has multisystemic phenotypic variability within the general population. It is most commonly the recognition of the classically reported facial and limb anomalies that leads to clinical suspicion of the diagnosis and subsequent testing (when available and accessible) of the multiple genes known to be implicated in CdLS. These characteristic features have been typically recognized and predominantly reported in individuals of Caucasian/European ancestry and may be missed in patients from diverse populations. While molecular diagnostics is becoming more widely accessible and allows for an unbiased diagnosis, this is not the case in developing countries where clinical features are relied upon. Here, we present individuals with CdLS from diverse backgrounds. This study characterizes CdLS subjectively with images of facial findings, objectively through digital facial analysis technology, and collectively by organizing clinical exam findings from the medical literature. Facial analysis technology has been reported for the diagnosis of CdLS cohorts in the past, but have not looked specifically across diverse ancestry groups [Basel-Vanagaite et al, 2016]. The goal of this study is to give providers a baseline reference to help make a clinical diagnosis of CdLS in patients from underrepresented minorities. Earlier diagnosis can lead to screening for life threatening complications, thus leading to better care and preventative measures. This also facilitates discussion of prognosis, recurrence risk, and genetic counseling with patients and their families.

This study has found differences between phenotypic findings across various ancestry groups in individuals with CdLS. When looking at the 23 clinical characteristics, the only elements with statistical significance were long eyelashes, ptosis, hearing loss, palate anomalies, micromelia, reflux, malrotation, and growth deficiency (Table 1, p<0.05; χ^2 test). The clinical characteristics in our study present in over 80% of individuals were synophrys, arched eyebrows, full lashes, short nose with anteverted nares, long philtrum with thin upper lip, growth deficiency, and intellectual disability. Congenital heart disease was identified in 40% of the patients in our study – which falls within expected reports based on prior characterization studies ranging from 14–70% [Chatfield et al, 2012].

For many patients with *NIPBL* mutations, the severity of their features makes their clinical diagnosis easily recognizable. However, we do know that there are more subtle features

appreciable depending on gene involved and mutation type (Figures 2–6), and this diagnosis can potentially be missed [Deardorff et al, 2013; Gil-Rodriguez et al, 2015; Gillis et al, 2004]. Facial analysis technology can complement the elements of dysmorphologic examination, especially where molecular diagnosis may not be readily available. The study showed that the technology was able to diagnose patients from all ancestry groups with a sensitivity of 95% and a specificity of 93%. When evaluating within ancestry groups by the facial analysis algorithm, sensitivity and accuracy both increased to greater than or equal to 95% for all groups (Table 3). The technology identified quantitative facial biometrics specific to CdLS for each ancestry group. As expected, the analysis found lip width, distance between nose root and apex, and distance between medial canthi as significant features in all population groups (Supplementary tables 2–6).

Though molecular technologies are becoming more widespread and readily available, they are not as ubiquitous as the internet and social media. Throughout the world CdLS is still primarily diagnosed or suspected based on clinical exam features alone. Facial analysis technology for CdLS detection has proven to be both sensitive and specific, and can serve as a mobile, portable tool to aid in diagnosis. Presently, there are programs utilizing facial recognition technology that are widely available at no cost. Based on the authors' collective experiences, mobile device availability is widespread amongst providers in developing countries. The availability of this technology for recognizable malformation syndromes in developing countries has the potential to greatly inform providers in making diagnoses.

Study limitations include the ascertainment bias that exists when looking at individuals with clinical diagnosis that present with the most severe phenotypes which require medical attention; milder phenotypes are likely being missed. Inherent to studies looking at genetic syndromes across diverse populations comes the fact that many participating countries have limited resources and barriers to accessing medical care, let alone molecular testing in many instances. Thus, we accepted patients for inclusion in this study that were diagnosed clinically by a trained medical geneticist. The majority of our cohort, greater than 90%, had confirmed molecular diagnoses.

We understand that while ancestral subpopulations are unique, grouping individuals into broad categories is arbitrary. We also acknowledge that racial admixture exists across global populations as well. Future studies will allow us to account for genotype-phenotype correlations between mutation type and gene involvement. Also, facial analysis technology can be a tool to aid the clinician in supporting a diagnosis, but should not serve as a substitute for an evaluation by a geneticist.

In conclusion, we have assembled a catalog of ethnically diverse individuals with CdLS, summarized the limited medical literature pertaining to CdLS and diverse populations, and conducted objective evaluation with digital facial analysis technology to demonstrate differences in facial features between ancestral groups. Based on our study and similar reports (Kruszka et al., 2015; Kruszka et al., 2017a; Kruszka et al., 2017b), we predict that digital facial analysis technologies have applicability to individuals from widespread and diverse ancestral backgrounds – for both CdLS and other syndromes with distinct and recognizable dysmorphology.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Authors

Leah Dowsett^{1,2,3,4}, Antonio R. Porras⁵, Paul Kruszka⁶, Brandon Davis⁶, Tommv Hu⁶, Engela Honey⁷, Eben Badoe⁸, Meow-Keong Thong⁹, Eyby Leon¹⁵, Katta M. Girisha¹⁰, Anju Shukla¹⁰, Shalini S. Nayak¹⁰, Vorasuk Shotelersuk¹¹, Andre Megarbane¹², Shubha Phadke¹³, Nirmala D. Sirisena¹⁴, Vajira H.W. Dissanayake¹⁴, Carlos R. Ferreira¹⁵, Monisha S. Kisling¹⁵, Pranoot Tanpaiboon¹⁵, Annette Uwineza¹⁶, Leon Mutesa¹⁶, Cedrik Tekendo-Ngongang¹⁷, Ambroise Wonkam¹⁷, Karen Fieggen¹⁷, Leticia Cassimiro Batista¹⁸, Danilo Moretti-Ferreira¹⁸, Roger E. Stevenson²⁰, Eloise J. Prijoles²⁰, David Everman²⁰, Kate Clarkson²⁰, Jessica Worthington²⁰, Virginia Kimonis²¹, Fuki Hasama²², Carol Crowe²³, Paul Wong²⁴, Kisha Johnson²⁴, Robin D. Clark²⁵, Lynne Bird^{26,27}, Diane Masser-Frye²⁷, Marie McDonald²⁸, Patrick Willems³², Elizabeth Roeder³³, Sulgana Saitta³⁴, Kwame Anyane-Yeoba³⁵, Laurie Demmer³⁶, Naoki Hamajima³⁷, Zornitza Stark³⁸, Greta Gillies³⁹, Louanne Hudgins⁴⁰, Usha Dave⁴¹, Stavit Shalev⁴², Victoria Siu⁴³. Ann Ades^{2,29}, Holly Dubbs³⁰, Sarah Raible¹, Maninder Kaur¹, Emanuela Salzano¹, Laird Jackson^{1,31}, Matthew Deardorff^{1,2}, Antonie Kline¹⁹, Marshall Summar¹⁵, Maximilian Muenke⁶, Marius George Linguraru⁵, and Ian D. Krantz^{1,2}

Affiliations

¹Division of Human Genetics and Molecular Biology, The Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania ²The Department of Pediatrics, University of Pennsylvania Perelman School of Medicine, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania ³Department of Pediatrics, University of Hawai'i John A. Burns School of Medicine, Honolulu, Hawai'i. ⁴Kapi'olani Medical Specialists, Honolulu, Hawai'i. ⁵Sheikh Zayed Institute for Pediatric Surgical Innovation, Children's National Health System, Washington, D.C. ⁶Medical Genetics Branch, National Human Genome Research Institute, The National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland. ⁷Department of Genetics, University of Pretoria, Pretoria, South Africa. 8School of Medicine and Dentistry, College of Health Sciences, University of Ghana, Accra, Ghana. ⁹Department of Paediatrics, Faculty of Medicine, University of Malava, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. ¹⁰Department of Medical Genetics, Kasturba Medical College, Manipal Academy of Higher Education, Manipal, India. ¹¹Center of Excellence for Medical Genetics, Department of Pediatrics, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand. ¹²Institut Jérôme Lejeune, Paris, France. ¹³Department of Medical Genetics, Sanjay Gandhi Postgraduate Institute of Medical Sciences, Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, India. ¹⁴Human Genetics Unit, Faculty of Medicine, University of Colombo, Sri Lanka. ¹⁵Division of Genetics and Metabolism, Children's National Health System, Washington, D.C. ¹⁶University of Rwanda, College of Medicine and Health Sciences, School of Medicine and Pharmacy, Center for Human Genetics, Kigali, Rwanda. ¹⁷Division of Human Genetics, University of Cape Town, Cape Town, South Africa. ¹⁸Department of Genetics,

Institute of Biosciences, São Paulo State University – UNESP, SãoPaulo, Brazil. ¹⁹Harvey Institute for Human Genetics, Department of Pediatrics, Greater Baltimore Medical Center, Baltimore, Maryland. ²⁰Greenwood Genetic Center, Greenwood, South Carolina ²¹University of California, Department of Pediatrics, Division of Genetics and Genomic Medicine, Irvine, California. ²²Department of Medicine, Division of Medical Genetics, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington. ²³MetroHealth Medical Center, Case Western Reserve University School of Medicine, Cleveland, Ohio. ²⁴Department of Pediatrics, Rush University Medical College, Chicago, Illinois. ²⁵Division of Medical Genetics, Department of Pediatrics, Loma Linda University School of Medicine, Loma Linda, California. ²⁶Department of Pediatrics, University of California Sand Diego, San Diego, California. ²⁷Department of Genetics, Rady Children's Hospital, San Diego, California. ²⁸Division of Medical Genetics, Department of Pediatrics, Duke Health, Durham, North Carolina. ²⁹Division of Neonatology, The Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. ³⁰Division of Neurology, The Children's Hospital of Philadelphia, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. ³¹Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Drexel University College of Medicine, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. ³²GENDIA, GENetic DIAgnostic Network, Antwerp, Belgium. ³³Department of Pediatrics and Molecular and Human Genetics, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas. ³⁴Medical Genetics Institute, Division of Genetics, Department of Pediatrics, Cedars-Sinai Medical Center, Los Angeles, California. ³⁵Professor of Pediatrics, Columbia University Medical College, New York, New York. ³⁶Department of Pediatrics, Carolinas Medical Center, Charlotte, North Carolina. ³⁷Department of Pediatrics, Nagoya City Jouhoku Hospital, Nagoya, Japan. ³⁸Victorian Clinical Genetics Services, Murdoch Children's Research Institute, Melbourne, Australia. ³⁹Bruce Lefroy Centre for Genetic Health Research, Murdoch Children's Research Institute, Melbourne, Australia. ⁴⁰Department of Pediatrics, Division of Medical Genetics, Stanford University School of Medicine, Palo Alto, California. ⁴¹Haffkine Institute, MILS International India, Mumbai, India. ⁴²The Genetic Institute, Ha'emek Medical Center, Hafia, Israel. ⁴³Medical Genetics Program, London Health Sciences Centre, Ontario, Canada.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are grateful to all of the patients and their families for their participation in this study. PK and MM are supported by the Division of Intramural Research at the National Human Genome Research, NIH. Partial funding of this project was from a philanthropic gift from the Government of Abu Dhabi to the Children's National Health System. VS is supported by the Chulalongkorn Academic Advancement Into Its 2nd Century Project and the Thailand Research Fund. We would also like to acknowledge other clinicians who supported this work – MZ, JP, GC. We would like to acknowledge that IDK, LD, MK and SR are supported by the CdLS Center Endowed Funds at The Children's Hospital of Philadelphia and PO1 HD052860 from the NICHD. ES is supported by a fellowship from PKS Italia and PKSKids USA. LD was also supported by a postdoctoral training grant (T32 GM008638) from the NIGMS.

REFERENCES

Badoe EV (2006). Classical Cornelia de Lange Syndrome. Ghana Medical Journal, 40(4), 148-150.

- Basel-Vanagaite L, Wolf L, Orin M, Larizza L, Gervasini C, Krantz ID, & Deardoff MA (2016). Recognition of the Cornelia de Lange syndrome phenotype with facial dysmorphology novel analysis. Clinical Genetics, 89(5), 557-563. [PubMed: 26663098]
- Bhuiyan Z a, Zilfalil B. a, & Hennekam RCM (2006). A Malay boy with the Cornelia de Lange syndrome: clinical and molecular findings. Singapore Medical Journal, 47(8), 724-727. [PubMed: 16865217]
- Cai D, Zhang C, He X (2010). Unserpervised feature selection for multi-cluster data. Proceedings of the 16th ACM SIGKDD international conference on Knowledge discovery and data mining: ACM, 333-342
- Cerrolaza JJ, Porras AR, Mansoor A, Zhao Q, Summar M, Linguraru MG (2016). Identification of dysmoprhic syndromes using landmakr-specific local texture descriptors. Biomedical Imaging (ISBI), IEEE 13th International Symposium on: IEEE, 1080-1083.
- Chatfield KC, Schrier SA, Li J, Clark D, Kaur M, Kline AD, ... Krantz ID (2012). Congenital heart disease in Cornelia de Lange syndrome: Phenotype and genotype analysis. American Journal of Medical Genetics, Part A, 158 A(10), 2499-2505.
- Cortes C, Vapnik V (1995). Support-vector networks. Machine learning 20(3): 273-297.
- Deardorff MA, Krantz ID, & Shirahige K (2013). HDAC8 mutations in Cornelia de Lange Syndrome affect the cohesin acetylation cycle, 489(7415), 313-317.
- Deardorff MA, Wilde JJ, Albrecht M, Dickinson E, Tennstedt S, Braunholz D, ... Kaiser FJ (2012). RAD21 mutations cause a human cohesinopathy. American Journal of Human Genetics, 90(6), 1014-1027. [PubMed: 22633399]
- Deardorff MA, Noon SE, & Krantz ID. (2016). Cornelia de Lange Syndrome. In: Pagon RA, Adam MP, Ardinger HH, Wallace SE, Amemiya A, Bean LJH, Bird TD, Ledbetter N, Mefford HC, Smith RJH, Stephens K, editors. GeneReviews (R). Seattle (WA).
- DeScipio C, Kaur M, Yaeger D, Innis JW, Spinner NB, Jackson LG, & Krantz ID (2005). Chromosome rearrangements in Cornelia de Lange Syndrome (CdLS): Report of a der(3)t(3;12) (p25.3;p13.3) in two half sibs with features of CdLS and review of reported CdLS cases with chromosome rearrangements. American Journal of Medical Genetics, 137 A(3), 276-282.
- Elisseeff A, Pontil M (2003). Leave-out-one error and stability of learning algorithms with applicatoins. NATO science series sub series iii computer systems sciences 190: 111-130.
- Familant JW (1968). Cornelia de Lange Syndrome Reported in the Negro, 411-415.
- Gil-Rodríguez MC, Deardorff MA, Ansari M, Tan CA, Parenti I, Baquero-Montoya C, ... Pié J (2015). De novo heterozygous mutations in SMC3 cause a range of cornelia de lange syndromeoverlapping phenotypes. Human Mutation, 36(4).
- Gillis LA, McCallum J, Kaur M, DeScipio C, Yaeger D, Mariani A, ... Krantz ID (2004). NIPBL mutational analysis in 120 individuals with Cornelia de Lange syndrome and evaluation of genotype-phenotype correlations. American Journal of Human Genetics, 75(4), 610–623. [PubMed: 15318302]
- Huisman S, Mulder PA, Redeker E, Bader I, Bisgaard AM, Brooks A, ... Hennekam RC (2017). Phenotypes and genotypes in individuals with SMC1A variants. American Journal of Medical Genetics, Part A, 173(8), 2108-2125.
- Kim IT, Park JW, & Choi WC (2005). A Korean case of Cornelia de Lange syndrome. Korean Journal of Ophthalmology : KJO, 19(2), 153–155. [PubMed: 15988935]
- Kline AD, Krantz ID, Sommer A, Kliewer M, Jackson LG, FitzPatrick DR, Levin AV, and Selicorni A (2007a). Cornelia de Lange Syndrome: Clinical Review, Diagnostic and Scoring Systems, and Anticipatory Guidance. Am J Med Genet A, 143A(18), 1287-1296.
- Kline AD, Grados M, Sponseller P, Levy HP, Blagowidow N, Schodel C, Rampolla J, Clemens DK, Krantz ID, Kimball A, Pichard C, & Tuchman D (2007b). Natural History of Aging in Cornelia de Lange Syndrome. Am J Med Genet C Semin Med Genet., 143C(3), 248-260.
- Krantz ID, McCallum J, DeScipio C, Kaur M, Gillis LA, Yaeger D, ... Jackson LG (2004). Cornelia de Lange syndrome is caused by mutations in NIPBL, the human homolog of Drosophila melanogaster Nipped-B. Nature Genetics, 36(6), 631-635. [PubMed: 15146186]
- Kruszka P, Addissie YA, McGinn DE, Porras AR, Biggs E, Share M, Crowley TB, Chung BH, Mok GT, Mak CC, Muthukumarasamy P, Thong MK, Sirisena ND, Dissanayake VH, Paththinige CS,

Prabodha LB, Mishra R, Shotelersuk V, Ekure EN, Sokunbi OJ, Kalu N, Ferreira CR, Duncan JM, Patil SJ, Jones KL, Kaplan JD, Abdul-Rahman OA, Uwineza A, Mutesa L, Moresco A, Obregon MG, Richieri-Costa A, Gil-da-Silva-Lopes VL, Adeyemo AA, Summar M, Zackai EH, McDonald-McGinn DM, Linguraru MG, Muenke M. (2017a). 22q11.2 deletion syndrome in diverse populations. Am J Med Genet A, 173(4):879–888.

- Kruszka P, Porras AR, Sobering AK, Ikolo FA, La Qua S, Shotelersuk V, Chung BH, Mok GT, Uwineza A, Mutesa L, Moresco A, Obregon MG, Sokunbi OJ, Kalu N, Joseph DA, Ikebudu D, Ugwu CE, Okoromah CA, Addissie YA, Pardo KL, Brough JJ, Lee NC, Girisha KM, Patil SJ, Ng IS, Min BC, Jamuar SS, Tibrewal S, Wallang B, Ganesh S, Sirisena ND, Dissanayake VH, Paththinige CS, Prabodha LB, Richieri-Costa A, Muthukumarasamy P, Thong MK, Jones KL, Abdul-Rahman OA, Ekure EN, Adeyemo AA, Summar M, Linguraru MG, Muenke M. (2017b). Down syndrome in diverse populations. Am J Med Genet A, 173(1):42–53.
- Kruszka P, Porras AR, Addissie YA, Moresco A, Medrano S, Mok GT, Leung GC, Takendo-Ngongang C, Uwineza A, Thong M, Muthukumarasamy P, Honey E, Ekure EN, Sokunbi OJ, Kalu N, Jones KL, Kaplan JD, Abdul-Rahman OA, Vincent LM, Love A, Belhassan K, Ouldim K, Bouchikhi IE, Shukla A, Girisha KM, Patil SJ, Sirisena ND, Dissanayake VH, Paththingie CS, Mishra R, Klein-Zighelboim E, Jugy BE, Pastor MC, Barringa HH, Skinner SA, Prijoles EJ, Bandoe E, Gill AD, Shotelersuk V, Smpokou P, Kisling MS, Ferreira CR, Mutesa L, Megarbane A, Okello E, Lwabi P, Aliku T, Tenywa E, Boonchooduang N, Tanpaiboon P, Richeieri-Costa A, Wonkam A, Chung BH, Stevenson RE, Summar M, Obregon MG, Linguraru MG, Muenke M. (2017c). Noonan Syndrome in diverse populations. Am J Med Genet A, 173(9): 2323–2334.
- Mannini L, Cucco F, Quarantotti V, Krantz ID, & Musio A (2013). Mutation Spectrum and Genotype-Phenotype Correlation in Cornelia de Lange Syndrome. Human Mutation, 34(12), 1589–1596. [PubMed: 24038889]
- Mehta D, Vergano SAS, Deardorff M, Aggarwal S, Barot A, Johnson DM, ... Krantz ID (2016). Characterization of limb differences in children with Cornelia de Lange Syndrome. American Journal of Medical Genetics Part C: Seminars in Medical Genetics, 172(2), 155–162.
- Muenke M, Adeyemo A, & Kruszka P (2016). An electronic atlas of human malformation syndromes in diverse populations. Genetics in Medicine, (March), 3–5.
- Musio A, Selicorni A, Focarelli ML, Gervasini C, Milani D, Russo S, ... Larizza L (2006). X-linked Cornelia de Lange syndrome owing to SMC1L1 mutations. Nature Genetics, 38(5), 528–530. [PubMed: 16604071]
- Olioso G, Passarini A, Atzeri F, Milani D, Cereda A, Cerutti M, ... Selicorni A (2009). Clinical Problems and Everyday Abilities of a Group of Italian Adolescent and Young Adults With Cornelia de Lange Syndrome, (October), 2532–2537.
- Pehlivan D, Hullings M, Carvalho CMB, Gonzaga-Jauregui CG, Loy E, Jackson LG, ... Lupski JR (2012). NIPBL rearrangements in Cornelia de Lange syndrome: evidence for replicative mechanism and genotype-phenotype correlation. Genetics in Medicine, 14(3), 313–322. [PubMed: 22241092]
- Reddy HB, Neelaveni K, & Kumar KH. (2013). Letter to the Editor: Cornelia de Lange Syndrome. Indian Journal of Endocrinology and Metabolism, 17(4): 763. [PubMed: 23961504]
- Rohatgi S, Clark D, Kline AD, Jackson LG, Pie J, Siu V, ... Deardorff MA (2010). Facial diagnosis of mild and variant CdLS: Insights from a dysmorphologist survey. American Journal of Medical Genetics, Part A, 152(7), 1641–1653.
- Russell KL, Ming JE, Patel K, Jukofsky, Lori, Magnusson MA, & Krantz ID (2001). Dominant Paternal Transmission of Cornelia de Lange Syndrome: A New Case and Review of 25 Previously Reported Familial Recurrencesess. Am J Med Genet, 104(4), 267–276. [PubMed: 11754058]
- Shenoy BH, Gupta A, Sachdeva V, & Kekunnaya R (2014). Cornelia de Lange syndrome with optic disk pit: Novel association and review of literature. Oman Journal of Ophthalmology, 7(2), 69–71. [PubMed: 25136230]
- Tayebi N, Shenoy BH, Gupta A, Sachdeva V, Kekunnaya R, Rohatgi S, ... Hennekam RCM (2017). NIPBL rearrangements in Cornelia de Lange syndrome: evidence for replicative mechanism and genotype–phenotype correlation. American Journal of Medical Genetics, 14(2), 31–37.

- Zhao Q, Okada K, Rosenbaum K, Kehoe L, Zand DJ, Sze R, ... Linguraru MG (2014). Digital facial dysmorphology for genetic screening: Hierarchical constrained local model using ICA. Medical Image Analysis, 18(5), 699–710. [PubMed: 24835178]
- Zhao Q, Rosenbaum K, Okada K, Zand DJ, Sze R, Summar M, & Linguraru MG (2013). Hierarchical constrained local model using ICA and its application to Down Syndrome detection. Med Image Comput Assist Interv 16(pt2): 222–229.
- Zhao Q, Werghi N, Okada K, Rosenbaum K, Summar M, & Linguraru M George (2014). Ensemble learning for the detection of facial dysmorphology. Conference Proceedings : ... Annual International Conference of the IEEE Engineering in Medicine and Biology Society. IEEE Engineering in Medicine and Biology Society. Annual Conference, 2014, 754–757.

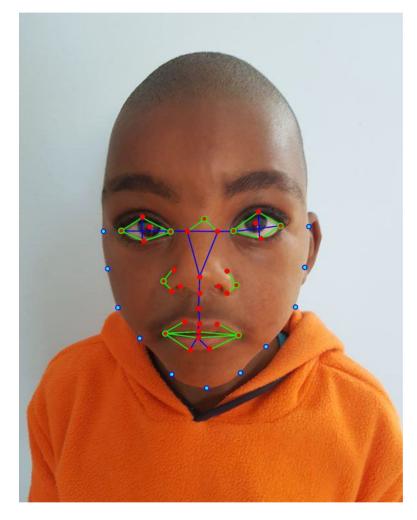


Figure 1.

Facial landmarks on a CdLS patient. Inner facial landmarks are represented in red, external landmarks in blue. Blue lines indicate the calculated distances. Green circles represent the corners of the calculated angles. Texture features are extracted only from the inner facial landmarks.





Figure 2.

Frontal profiles of individuals of African descent with CdLS. A) *NIPBL* mutations, B) *SMC1A* mutation, C) Clinical diagnosis only. Gender, age, and country of origin found in Supplementary Table 1.

Dowsett et al.



Figure 3.

Frontal profiles of individuals of Asian descent with CdLS. A) *NIPBL* mutations, B) *HDAC8* mutations, C) Clinical diagnosis only. Gender, age, and country of origin found in Supplementary Table 1.

Dowsett et al.

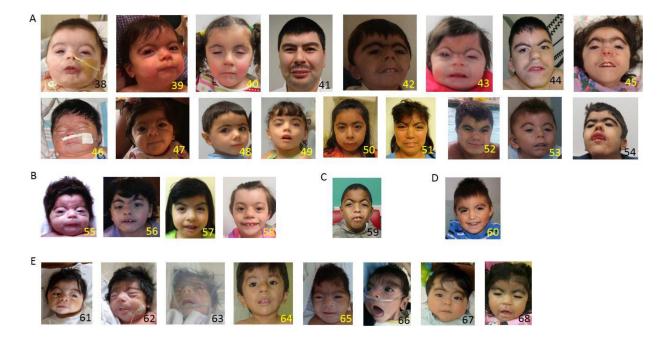


Figure 4.

Frontal profiles of individuals of Latin American descent with CdLS. A) *NIPBL* mutations, B) *HDAC8* mutations, C) *SMC1A* mutation, D) *SMC3* mutation, and E) Clinical diagnosis only. Gender, age, and country of origin found in Supplementary Table 1.

Page 15

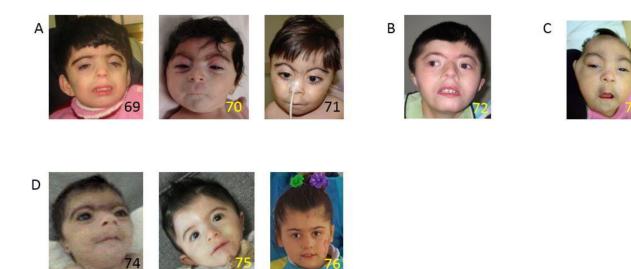


Figure 5.

Frontal profiles of individuals of Middle Eastern descent with CdLS. A) *NIPBL* mutations, B) *HDAC8* mutations, C) *SMC1A* mutation, D) Clinical diagnosis only. Gender, age, and country of origin found in Supplementary Table 1.











Figure 6.

Sequential photos of individuals of various descent with CdLS at different ages. Gender, age, and country of origin found in Supplementary Table 1.

Table 1.

Summary of exam findings of individuals with CdLS from diverse backgrounds including 67 individuals from the present study.

| | Present Study | | | | | |
|---|---------------|--------------|----------------------------|----------------------|----------|---|
| | Africa n = 14 | Asia n = 23 | Latin America n = 22 | Middle East n = 8 | p-values | Kline et al. (2007b)n = 49 *90% Caucasian descent |
| Average Age (years) | 1.4 | 4.3 | 6.5 | 2.6 | | 17 |
| Age Range | 2w - 9y | 2w - 12y | 1d - 37y | 3m – 8y | | 11–50y |
| NIPBL (%) | 100% (6/6) | 75% (6/8) | 77% | 60% (3/5) | | 93% (13/14) |
| HDAC8(%) | 0 | 2/8 (25%) | 18% | 1/5 (20%) | | 0 |
| SMC1A (%) | 0 | 0 | 5% | 1/5 (20%) | | 7% (1/14) |
| Synophrys | 100% | 91% | 100% | 88% | 0.278 | 100% |
| Arched eyebrows | 100% | 91% | 100% | 100% | 0.268 | n/a |
| Long eyeashes | 100% | 100% | 100% | 75% | 0.002 | n/a |
| Ptosis | 71% | 39% | 36% | 0% | 0.011 | n/a |
| Short nose/anteverted nares | 100% | 83% | 100% | 88% | 0.090 | 78% |
| Long philtrumThin vermillion border of upper lipDownturned corners of mouth | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% | 0.999 | 78% |
| Hearing loss | 69% (9/13) | 22% (4/18) | 32% | 60% (3/5) | 0.037 | 65% |
| Micrognathia | 85% (11/13) | 56% (10/18) | 59% | 40% (2/5) | 0.235 | 47% |
| Palate anomalies | 23% (3/13) | 11% (2/18) | 27% | 80% (4/5) | 0.021 | 37% |
| Clinodactyly | 92% (12/13) | 56% (10/18) | 45% | 60% (3/5) | 0.051 | n/a |
| Micromelia | 92% (12/13) | 89% (16/18) | 100% | 60% (3/5) | 0.037 | 74% |
| Crease anomalies | 38% (5/13) | 33% (6/18) | 32% | 20% (1/5) | 0.903 | n/a |
| Upper extremity anomaly | 77% (10/13) | 33% (6/18) | 45% | 60% (3/5) | 0.722 | 33% |
| Hypertrichosis | 85% (11/13) | 67% (12/18) | 68% | 100% (5/5) | 0.331 | 80% |
| Hypoplastic umbilicus/nipples | 54% (7/13) | 17% (3/18) | 32% | 20% (1/5) | 0.159 | n/a |
| Reflux | 85% (11/13) | 28% (5/18) | 73% | 40% (2/5) | 0.004 | 82% |
| Malrotation | 15% (2/13) | 0% | 0% | 0% | 0.038 | 10% |
| Renal anomalies | 27% (4/13) | 11% (2/18) | 9% | 20% (1/5) | 0.342 | 4% |
| Congenital heart disease | 28% (3/13) | 22% (4/18) | 41% | 40% (2/5) | 0.527 | 22% |
| Behavioral changes | 38% (5/13) | 17% (3/18) | 23% | 0% | 0.514 | 80% |
| Neurologic abnormalities | 8% (1/13) | 6% (1/18) | 5% | 0% | 0.885 | 26% |
| Intellectual disability (mod-severe) | 85% (11/13) | 100% (18/18) | 100% | 80% (4/5) | 0.066 | 74% |
| Growth deficiency | 100% (13/13) | 100% (18/18) | 100% | 80% (4/5) | 0.013 | 98% (43/44) |

Table 2.

Population data used in facial analysis technology which includes 246 individuals with CdLS from Supplementary Table 1 and additional archival images of individuals with CdLS.

| | CdLS (N=246) | | Controls (N=246) | | |
|-----------------|--------------|-----|------------------|-----|--|
| Age | Number | % | Number | % | |
| Newborn | 6 | 2% | 6 | 2% | |
| Infant | 67 | 27% | 67 | 27% | |
| Toddler | 61 | 25% | 61 | 25% | |
| Child | 66 | 27% | 66 | 27% | |
| Adolescent | 19 | 8% | 19 | 8% | |
| Adult | 27 | 11% | 27 | 11% | |
| Total | 246 | | 246 | | |
| Ancestry | | | | | |
| African descent | 13 | 5% | 13 | 5% | |
| Asian | 22 | 9% | 22 | 9% | |
| Latino | 22 | 9% | 22 | 9% | |
| Middle Eastern | 6 | 2% | 6 | 2% | |
| Caucasian | 183 | 74% | 183 | 74% | |
| Total | 246 | | 246 | | |
| Gender | | | | | |
| Male | 126 | 51% | 126 | 51% | |
| Female | 120 | 49% | 120 | 49% | |
| Total | 246 | | 246 | | |

Table 3.

Measures of diagnostic accuracy for facial analysis technology that discriminate between CdLS and unaffected individuals, stratified by ancestry group.

| | Number of features | AUC | Accuracy | Sensitivity | Specificity |
|-----------------|--------------------|------|----------|-------------|-------------|
| Global | 14 | 0.98 | 0.94 | 0.95 | 0.93 |
| African descent | 4 | 0.92 | 0.96 | 1.00 | 0.92 |
| Asian | 6 | 0.98 | 0.95 | 1.00 | 0.91 |
| Latin American | 7 | 0.96 | 0.98 | 1.00 | 0.95 |
| Caucasian | 12 | 0.99 | 0.95 | 0.96 | 0.93 |

 * AUC – area under the receiver operating characteristic curve