Diaphragmatic Eventration in Sisters with Asparagine Synthetase Deficiency: A Novel Homozygous *ASNS* Mutation and Expanded Phenotype

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Abstract *Background:* Asparagine Synthetase Deficiency (ASNSD; OMIM #615574) is a newly described rare autosomal recessive neurometabolic disorder, characterised by congenital microcephaly, severe psychomotor delay, encephalopathy and progressive cerebral atrophy. To date, seven families and seven missense mutations in the ASNSD disease causing gene, *ASNS*, have been published. *Methods:* We report two further affected infant sisters from a consanguineous Indian family, who in addition to the previously described features had diaphragmatic eventration.

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Both girls died within the first 6 months of life. Whole exome sequencing (WES) was performed for both sisters to identify the pathogenic mutation. The clinical and biochemical parameters of our patient are compared to previous reports. *Results:* WES demonstrated a homozygous novel missense *ASNS* mutation, c.1019G > A, resulting in substitution of the highly conserved arginine residue by histidine (R340H). *Conclusion:* This report expands the phenotypic and mutation spectrum of ASNSD, which should be considered in neonates with congenital microcephaly, seizures and profound neuro-developmental delay. The presence of diaphragmatic eventration suggests extracranial involvement of the central nervous system in a disorder that was previously thought to exclusively affect the brain. Like all previously reported patients, these cases were diagnosed with WES, highlighting the clinical utility of next generation sequencing in the diagnosis of rare, difficult to recognise disorders.

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Introduction

Asparagine Synthetase Deficiency (ASNSD) was first described in 2013 as a rare autosomal recessive inborn error of non-essential amino acid synthesis caused by homozygous or compound heterozygous mutations in the *ASNS* gene (Ruzzo et al. 2013). In the initial report of nine individuals from four families, key features included: congenital microcephaly, intellectual disability, progressive cerebral atrophy and early onset intractable seizures. Recently, four additional patients from three families were reported (Ben-Salem et al. 2015; Alfadhel et al. 2015; Palmer et al. 2015). The *ASNS* gene is highly expressed in the brain and encodes for asparagine synthetase, the enzyme which catalyses the ammonia transfer from glutamine to aspartic acid (Ruzzo et al. 2013). While CSF and plasma amino acid profiles may be abnormal in ASNSD, normal levels have been seen in some patients, making biochemical diagnosis unreliable and contributing to the challenge in diagnosing this rare disorder.

We report two sisters, born to consanguineous parents (first cousins) of Indian ancestry, with ASNSD caused by a novel missense homozygous mutation in *ASNS*. This is now the eighth family to be reported with this disorder, and the eighth pathogenic mutation. We describe the phenotypic, biochemical and molecular features of our two patients and compare them with previously reported cases.

Clinical Report

We report on two affected sisters born to first cousin Indian parents (see Fig. 1a).

Patient 1

Patient 1 was born at 38 weeks' gestation following a pregnancy complicated by intrauterine growth restriction. Her birth weight was 2,216 g, length 45.5 cm and OFC 30.5 cm (all less than 3rd percentile). She had flattened and simple ears and a prominent nasal tip. Following an episode of aspiration, she was found to have elevation of the right hemidiaphragm on chest X-ray. Airway fluoroscopy demonstrated paradoxical movement on the right side consistent with phrenic nerve palsy and eventration. She underwent two right-sided hemidiaphragmatic plications. She had progressive respiratory failure due to diaphragmatic failure followed by central respiratory failure. She became dependent on nasogastric feeds and her growth remained static. She was jittery and had early truncal hypotonia, then generalised hypertonia with clonus. There were no seizures.

Cerebral MRI at 3 weeks showed mild ventriculomegaly, simplified gyral pattern, and hypoplasia of the pons and cerebellum and mild delay in myelination. At 3 months there was cortical volume loss, corpus callosum thinning and bilateral caudate atrophy. EEG at 3 weeks showed low voltage with no epileptiform activity. At 3 months EEG was very abnormal with episodic bursts of theta, delta and sharp activity with an intervening isoelectric pattern. She became dependent on ventilator support. Critical care was withdrawn at 6 months of age.

Patient 2

Patient 2 was born 7 years after Patient 1. Two healthy boys were born in the intervening period. She was born at 37 weeks and 5 days by caesarean section following reduced foetal movements and abnormal cardiotocography (CTG). Intrauterine growth restriction with severe microcephaly was noted prenatally. Her birth weight was 2,236 g, length 44.5 cm and head circumference 28.5 cm (all <3rd percentile). Respiratory insufficiency was present from birth, requiring intubation and ventilation. She had a sloping forehead, hypertelorism and a prominent nasal tip. She had hyperekplexia but no evidence of clinical seizures. Amp-integrated Brainz EEG demonstrated a premature pattern but there were no electrical seizures. She initially had hypertonia and hyperreflexia, which evolved into hypotonia and minimal gag reflex. Cerebral MRI on day 5 showed a simplified gyral pattern, mild ventriculomegaly with enlarged axial spaces, suggesting a moderate degree of atrophy and hypoplasia of the corpus callosum, pons and inferior cerebellum (see Fig. 1b–g). Myelination was age-appropriate. She developed right-sided diaphragmatic eventration (see Fig. 1h), with associated refractory lung collapse, diminishing respiratory effort and three failed extubation attempts. She had right-sided choanal stenosis. She died on day 11.

Methods

Preliminary Investigations

See supplementary information.

Homozygosity Mapping in Patient 2

The determination of long segments of chromosome homozygosity (LSCH) in Patient 2 was performed with single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) analysis using an Illumina HuamnCore-12 v1.0 array (mean resolution 0.2 Mb).

Fig. 1 (A) Pedigree and chromatograms of the DNA sequence changes in *ASNS*. The parents and siblings are heterozygous for the c.1019G > A variant. Patients 1 and 2 are homozygous for this variant. (B–G) MRI brain of Patient 2 at 5 days old. B Sagittal T1 demonstrates small corpus callosum, atrophic brainstem and vermis. C&D Axial T2 images show severe microcephaly and prominence of the lateral ventricles, particularly the temporal horns. E Axial T1

shows wide Sylvian fissure and prominent subarachnoid space overlying the small cerebral hemispheres. F Coronal T2 shows generalised microcephaly, with severe involvement of the temporal lobes. G Coronal T2 demonstrates enlarged trigones of both lateral ventricles. (H) Chest X-ray of Patient 2, showing raised right hemidiaphragm and midline mediastinal shift to the right

Exome Sequencing

Whole exome sequencing (WES) was performed on two affected subjects by BGI, Shenzhen, China (see supplementary information).

Data Analysis

Raw data was processed by the Illumina pipeline (version 1.3.4) for image analysis, error estimation, base calling and generation of the primary sequence data. A local algorithm was used to remove low-quality reads and potential adaptor contamination from the primary data. The called variants were annotated using Gaea, a BGI in-house developed annotation pipeline. The details of data analysis are described in the supplementary information.

Variant Interpretation

Given the history of consanguinity in the family, homozygosity mapping followed by exome sequencing was implemented. Variants identified by exome sequencing were filtered based on their annotated function and allele frequency in control databases. We then focussed on the subset of the filtered variants which were identified within LSCH. The associated phenotypic features of candidate genes were analysed against the patient's phenotype. The phenotype match was based on the OMIM database (<http://omim.org/>) and published papers.

Sanger Sequencing

The identified possible disease causing mutation in *ASNS* was confirmed as homozygous by Sanger sequencing for two patients and as heterozygous in unaffected family members (parents and two unaffected brothers).

Molecular Dynamics Simulation

A workspace of automated homology modelling, SWISS-MODEL (Biasini et al. 2014), was used to construct the 3D structure of ASNS and mutant R340H from homo sapiens (amino acid sequence NP_899199). By alignment, the structure of asparagine synthetase B (ASNB) from *E. coli* (Larsen et al. 2000) was selected as the template to construct the model as it shares a sequence identity of ~49% with the human ASNS sequence.

See supplementary information.

Results

Patient 1

Initial normal genetic investigations included 400 band resolution G-banding metaphase karyotype, 17p13.2 (*LIS1*) florescent in situ hybridisation and subtelomere multiligand probe amplification. Metabolic investigations showed normal urine amino and organic acids, serum ammonia, creatine kinase, orotic acid, very long chain fatty acids, cholesterol, 7-dehydrocholesterol, transferrin isoforms and cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) pyruvate, glucose, protein, lactate and amino acids. While serum and CSF amino acids were reported as normal, neither included analysis of asparagine. Serology provided no evidence for prior infection with cytomegalovirus, toxoplasmosis, rubella or syphilis.

Patient 2

Initial genetic investigations included a normal oligonucleotide chromosome array, and an SNP array which did not detect any clinically significant genomic imbalance but identified 20 long continuous stretches of homozygosity on chromosomes 2, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 16 and 18, representing 8.6% of the genome (see supplementary information). Metabolic investigations showed normal urinary organic and amino acids and glycosaminoglycans, plasma very long chain fatty acids, 7-dehydrocholesterol and transferrin isoforms. Plasma amino acids detected low asparagine (7 $\mu\text{mol/L}$, reference range 26–76 $\mu\text{mol/L}$) and cystine levels (19 $\mu\text{mol/L}$, reference range 28–77 $\mu\text{mol/L}$). CSF amino acid analysis was not performed.

Whole Exome Sequencing

WES was performed for the two affected daughters in this family. For Patient 2, for whom an adequate DNA sample was available, 9,570 megabases of raw data was generated with a depth of 98.11-fold for the target region. For Patient 1, the quantity was insufficient for standard WES library construction. Only 4,009 megabases of raw data was generated with a depth of 32.87-fold for the target region for Patient 1 (see supplementary information).

Because of concerns of inadequate coverage in Patient 1, primary analysis focussed on Patient 2. The list of candidate genes from Patient 2 was then compared manually with Patient 1.

In total, 25,232 variants were identified in Patient 2, of which 10,217 were in regions of LSCH. After filtering out those variants which were synonymous, non-coding or present in >1% of population according to internal and public databases, 62 variants remained of which 19 were homozygous. These 19 homozygous variants were then manually compared to Patient 1. There was at least 10× coverage in Patient 1 for 18 of the 19 sites. The one variant that was not covered well in Patient 1 was in the *FMNL2* gene, which is not known to be disease causing. Of the 19 homozygous variants in Patient 2, 11 were also homozygous in Patient 1.

Identification of Pathogenic Mutation

The 19 variants remaining after filtration were interpreted manually according to phenotype, function, site conservation and software prediction (supplementary information). Of the 19 homozygous variants identified in Patient 2, two were predicted to be deleterious by PolyPhen2 software (Adzhubei et al. 2010) and Ens Condel software (Gonzalez-Perez and Lopez-Bigas 2011), and only one of these two variants, a missense variant in the *ASNS* gene (c.1019G > A), was also identified in Patient 1 in homozygous form. The c.1019G > A in the *ASNS* gene was absent in the four control databases used in this analysis. Given the consistent clinical, neuro-imaging and biochemical phenotype, this homozygous mutation in the *ASNS* gene (c.1019G > A) was determined to be the disease causing mutation in this family. We found that most reported pathogenic *ASNS* mutations are located in the same domain as the mutation identified in our patients (see Fig. 2a).

The missense mutation c.1019G > A in the *ASNS* gene results in substitution of the highly conserved arginine residue by histidine at position 340 (see Fig. 2b). Sanger validation of this mutation was performed on all family members. The parents and brothers were found to be heterozygous for the mutation (see Fig. 1), which is consistent with the autosomal recessive inheritance mode of ASNSD.

Molecular Dynamics Simulation

We constructed a protein model of human ASNS based on the structure of ASNB from *E. coli*. According to the sequence alignment, position R340 in human ASNS corresponds to R324 in *E. coli* ASNB, and this residue is highly conserved (Supplementary Fig. 1). The protein structure of human ASNS was modelled according to the structure of ASNB (Fig. 2c). The topology of the two proteins, human ASNS (brown) and *E. coli* ASNB (blue), are very similar, except for the unstable loop regions

(Fig. 2c). From the structural alignment, we found that the highly conserved position 340 is very close to the catalytic activity centre. Indeed, when arginine at the corresponding position in *E. coli* was substituted by alanine, leucine or lysine, the Asn synthetase activity disappeared (Richards and Schuster 1998). It is possible that the mutation from arginine to histidine also affects the enzyme activity of ASNS in humans.

We also performed molecular dynamics (MD) simulation on wild type (WT) and mutant R340H. The details of this experiment are in the supplementary information. We demonstrated that the R340 mutation results in a protein which is less compact.

Discussion

We describe two infant sisters with congenital microcephaly, severe psychomotor retardation and cortical and posterior fossa atrophy in whom WES identified a novel pathogenic homozygous *ASNS* mutation, c.1019G > A, p. R340H. This variant was absent in public and internal databases, predicted to be pathogenic on in silico analysis and confirmed on Sanger sequencing. The parents and unaffected siblings were confirmed as heterozygous for the mutation. Furthermore, reduced plasma asparagine in Patient 2 provided further evidence of a phenotypic consequence for the mutation. With these additional two cases, there are now 15 published patients with homozygous or compound heterozygous mutations in *ASNS* resulting in ASNSD, a newly described very rare neuro-metabolic disorder.

The *ASNS* gene maps to chromosome 7, spans 35 kb and contains 13 exons (Zhang et al. 1989). The enzyme asparagine synthetase converts aspartate to asparagine, with glutamine as the amino donor group in an ATP-dependent reaction (Alfadhel et al. 2015; Zhang et al. 1989).

The in-silico model of the mutant ASNS protein shows that the highly conserved position 340 is adjacent to the catalytic region, therefore substitution of arginine residue by histidine at this position may have a significant effect on the enzyme reaction.

The R340H mutation is in the C-terminal domain of the ASNS enzyme, and most reported pathogenic mutations are located in the same domain. In 3D modelling, the change is near the ATP binding pocket, in common with the majority of *ASNS* mutations reported to date (Palmer et al. 2015). Mutations in these regions may alter ATP binding or hydrolysis (Palmer et al. 2015).

There is enrichment of *ASNS* expression in foetal mouse brain, in patterns similar to those seen in the primary microcephaly genes (Ruzzo et al. 2013; Bond et al. 2002; Jackson et al. 2002). The hypomorphic *Asns* mouse model

Fig. 2 (A) Allelic spectrum and location by functional domain of reported pathogenic mutations of the *ASNS* gene. The R340H mutation identified in this study is marked with a *black arrow*. (B) Evolutionary sequence conservation analysis. Multiplex sequence alignment of the ASNS protein across ten different species from *homo sapiens* to *Salmo salar* shows that Arginine (R) at codon 340 is highly conserved among species. The *red arrow* locates codon 340 of the ASNS protein. (C) ASNS and asnB ASNB structure. The E. coli

ASNB is shown in *blue*. (D) Molecular dynamics simulations on wild type and mutant R340H ASNS protein. The *black curve* denotes the structural dynamics of the WT protein and the *red curve* denotes the R340H protein. The root square deviation of backbone atoms (RMSD) reflects a stable protein, allowing for comparison of structure. Radgyr (radius of gyration) reflects the volume of protein structure. The higher Radgyr value in the *red curve* suggests that the mutant protein is held in a more extended state

shows structural abnormalities which reflect the human phenotype, with enlarged ventricles and reduced cortical thickness, as well as deficits in learning and memory (Ruzzo et al. 2013).

The phenotypic consequences of deficiency of this enzyme can be attributed to deficiency of asparagine and accumulation of glutamine and aspartate. Asparagine is considered a non-essential amino acid, and nutritional availability is one of the key transcriptional regulators of ASNS (Balasubramanian et al. 2013; Palmer et al. 2015). The predominantly neurological phenotype of the disorder is proposed to be due to the poor transport of exogenous sources of asparagine across the blood–brain barrier, suggesting that the amino acid is ‘essential’ in the central nervous system (Ruzzo et al. 2013; Palmer et al. 2015). In support of this proposed mechanism, Palmer et al. demonstrated a reduction in patient fibroblast proliferation when cultured in a growth medium depleted of asparagine, mimicking the environment within the blood–brain barrier. While peripheral cells compensate for ASNS hypofunction with dietary sources of asparagine, cells within the blood brain barrier – which have a significant requirement for this substrate – experience significant depletion (Palmer et al. 2015). Accumulation of aspartate and glutamine result in increased neuronal excitability, the likely mechanism for seizures and hyperkplexia (Ruzzo et al. 2013).

On review of all cases (see Table 1), severe microcephaly of prenatal onset and with a progressive course, severe psychomotor delay, appendicular hypertonia, hyperreflexia and progressive brain atrophy are universally present. Early onset epilepsy was present in 10/15 cases, but all had an abnormal EEG. 4/14 patients were described as having hyperekplexia, and two additional cases (Patient 1 in our report and Palmer et al. 2015) were described as having unusual jittery movements.

Aberrations in serum and CSF levels of asparagine, glutamine and aspartate are seen in some patients with ASNSD, but normal values do not rule out the diagnosis, making biochemical diagnosis unreliable and underpinning the diagnostic challenge of this disorder (see Table 1). Of the ten patients in whom plasma asparagine was measured, six were below reference range. Interestingly only two patients had CSF asparagine measured and both were below reference range. Low CSF asparagine may be a better diagnostic clue to this condition, and reflect the predominantly central effect of this disorder.

Our cases were remarkable for the presence of diaphragmatic eventration in both patients. None of the genes with homozygous variants in our patients were

known to be associated with this feature. Diaphragmatic eventration is broadly described as a permanent elevation of a hemidiaphragm that is free of defects as a result of paralysis or varying degrees of atrophy of muscle fibres, with clinical manifestations ranging from asymptomatic to respiratory failure (Ghribi et al. 2015; Tiryaki et al. 2006; Yazici et al. 2003). Cases may be congenital and less commonly, acquired, most often secondary to phrenic nerve injury (Yazici et al. 2003). Given our patients’ presentations, and the origin of the phrenic nerve from C3-5, we wonder if ASNSD has consequences for the extracranial central nervous system. While no cases of diaphragmatic eventration have been reported in ASND previously, patient CIL3 in Ruzzo’s series was noted to have right hemidiaphragm palsy at 2 months of age (Patient 11, Table 1). The autopsy on Patient DII2 (Ruzzo et al. 2013, supplementary information) showed spinal cord hydromelia, secondary degeneration of motor neurons and reactive gliosis in an affected child, offering potential support to spinal cord involvement in this condition. Despite some functional differences, the blood–spinal cord barrier has long been considered an extension of the blood–brain barrier (Bartanusz et al. 2011). It is likely that the reliance of the brain on endogenous production of asparagine is mirrored in the spinal cord, but the basis of the vulnerability of the origin of the phrenic nerve specifically remains unclear.

ASNSD is the third of three recently recognised disorders of synthesis of non-essential amino acids, all of which are characterised by severe encephalopathy and microcephaly (Ruzzo et al. 2013), following glutamine synthetase deficiency (Haberle et al. 2012) and the serine biosynthesis disorders (de Koning and Klomp 2004). While supplementation has resulted in some therapeutic benefits for these two disorders (van der Crabben et al. 2013; Haberle et al. 2012), the prenatal presentation of ASNSD, transport into the blood–brain barrier and potential for competition with other amino acids have been raised as potential issues that need to be addressed when considering the use of asparagine in patients with ASNSD (Palmer et al. 2015).

With this report, there are now 15 patients with ASNSD. All cases to date have been diagnosed with WES, highlighting the utility of next generation sequencing in diagnosing rare, newly described disorders. The presence of diaphragmatic eventration in our patients suggests that the consequences of this disorder are not confined to the brain, but extend to the extracranial central nervous system.

Table 1 Overview of our patients compared with 13 others previously reported

	Family 1		Family 2		Family 3		Family 4		Family 5		Family 6		Family 7		Family 8		Feature present/total
	This report		Palmer et al. 2015	Ben-Salem et al. 2015	Alfadhel et al. 2015		Ben-Salem et al. 2015	Ruzzo et al. 2013									
Ethnicity	Indian		Chinese/ Brunei		Saudi Arabian		Emirati		Iranian Jews		Iranian Jews		Bangladeshi		French Canadian		
ASNS mutation^a	Homo c. 1019G > A, p.R340H		CP c. 866G > C/ 1010C > T, Y377C p.G289A, T377I		Homo c. 1160A > G, Y377C		Homo c. 1193A > C, p.Y398C		Homo c. 1084T > G, 1084T > G, p.F362V		Homo c. 1084T > G, 1084T > G, p.F362V		Homo c. 1648C > T, p.R550C		CP c. 1648C > T/c. 17C > A, p.A6E/p.R550C		
Patient	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15		
Gender	F	F	M	M	F	M	M	M	F	M	M	M	M	M	M		
Age	6 months ^b	11 day ^b	7 years	5 years	4 years	5 years	14 years	14 years	12 years	4 months ^b	3 months ^b	6 months ^b	9 days ^b	11 month ^b	12 monthsb.		
Birth HC (cm)/ percentile (Villar et al. 2014)	30.5/<3rd	28.5/<3rd	32.5/3rd–10th	29.5 <3rd	26.5/<3rd	29.5/<3rd	31.5/<3rd	31/<3rd	31/<3rd	31/<3rd	31/<3rd	32/<3rd	31.5/<3rd	31/<3rd	28.5/<3rd		
Birth weight (kg)/ percentile (Villar et al. 2014)	2.22/<3rd	2.24/<3rd	3.34/50th	3.1/10–25th	2.65/<10th	3.1/<10th	NA	NA	NA	3.4kg/50th	3.52/50th	3.23/50th	NA	NA	2.160/50–75th		
Neurological																	
Severe psychomotor delay	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		15/15
Axial hypotonia	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		10/14
Peripheral hypertonia	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		14/14
Hyperreflexia	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		15/15
Epilepsy/age of onset	–	–	+1 month	+1 day	+1 day	+1 day	+1 month	+2 weeks	+3 weeks	–	–	–	+4 days	+9 months	+8 days		10/15
Hyperreflexia	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–		4/15
Abnormal EEG	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		13/13
Progressive microcephaly	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		
Extra-CNS features																	
Diaphragmatic eventration and/or phrenic nerve palsy	R + L eventration	R eventration	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	Right hemidia- phragmatic palsy	–	–		3/15
Brain MRI																	
Decreased cerebral volume	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		15/15
Decreased size pons	+	+	+	–	–	+	–	–	–	+	+	+	+	+	+		10/15
Gyrals simplification	+	+	+	+	+	+	–	–	–	+	+	+	+	+	+		12/15
Biochemistry																	
Low plasma asparagine	NA	+	+	+	+	–	NA	–	–	NA	+	NA	+	–	NA		6/10
High plasma glutamine	–	–	NA	–	–	–	NA	+	+	NA	NA	NA	–	–	NA		2/9
Low CSF asparagine	NA	NA	+	+	+	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		2/2
High CSF glutamine	–	NA	NA	+	–	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		1/3

^a Homo homozygous, CP compound heterozygous^b Deceased

NA not available

Concise Synopsis

A novel homozygous mutation in *ASNS* causes asparagine synthetase deficiency in two sisters with microcephaly, severe psychomotor delay, cerebral atrophy and diaphragmatic hernia.

Authors' Contributions

Jun Sun was responsible for the NGS experiment, interpretation of mutation data and drafting the relevant part of manuscript.

Angela J McGillivray, Jason Pinner, Drago Bratkovic and Elizabeth Thompson drafted the relevant parts of manuscript and critically revised the paper.

Fengxia Liu performed the bioinformatic analysis of the NGS data.

Zhihui Yan and Huifeng Jiang performed and interpreted the protein simulation experiment.

Xiuxiu Wei performed and interpreted the Sanger sequencing experiment.

Asan was responsible for the experiment design and reviewed the manuscript.

Maya Chopra was responsible for the study conception and design, the drafting of the manuscript.

Guarantor

Asan.

Disclosure

Maya Chopra has received a reimbursement from BGI as an invited speaker to a conference sponsored by BGI.

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Compliance with Ethics Guidelines

The parents of the patients have consented to take part in this study. They have consented to the publication of this paper. Consent for photographs was declined. There are no photographs in this paper.

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