

Research Article

Environmental and Genetic Risk Factors of Nonsyndromic and Syndromic Cleft Lip and Palate - A Literature Review

Uchenna P Egbunah*

Department of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery, Lagos University Teaching Hospital, Nigeria

Abstract

Orofacial clefts encompass a range of congenital abnormalities of the orofacial region which commonly presents as cleft lip with or without Cleft Palate (CLP) or isolated cleft palate. Studies on CLP have implicated a multifactorial etiology involving environmental factors, teratogens and genetics. The aim of this literature review was to determine the currently accepted etiologic factors of CLP. We conducted literature searches for articles on the environmental risk factors, teratogenic effects and genetic factors implicated in both non-syndromic and syndromic CLP. Etiologic factors of CLP were itemized according to environmental factors implicated in the etiology of CLP, teratogenic effects implicated in the etiology of CLP, genetic factors implicated in the etiology of non-syndromic CLP and their genetic basis and some of the more common syndromes associated with CLP and their underlying genetic basis. This review not only brings to the fore, the wide array of etiologic factors implicated in cleft lip and palate but also highlights the vast amount of data on etiology of cleft lip and palate still being collected and studied.

Keywords: Environmental factors; Genetic factors; Cleft lip and palate

Introduction

Orofacial Clefts (OFC) encompass a range of congenital abnormalities of the orofacial region which commonly presents as cleft lip with or without Cleft Palate (CLP) or isolated Cleft Palate (CP). OFC is recognized as the most common craniofacial diagnoses in humans with a worldwide prevalence of 1.2/1,000 live births [1] but can be up to 1/700 live births [2]. Generally, CLP presents as complete (involves the entire vertical height of the lip including the nasal floor) or incomplete (involves only part of the vertical height of the lip) unilateral, median or bilateral discontinuity of the lip with or without alveolus and palate involvement. CLP may present as an isolated congenital anomaly or may be part of a syndrome with affected individuals presenting with other congenital anomalies [2]. Non-syndromic forms are the best studied and occur in 70% of cases [3,4]. The remaining 30% of newborns with CLP have additional congenital anomalies occurring as part of a syndrome [3,4].

The etiology of CLP has been a major area of study among clinicians and geneticists for years in both developed and developing countries [5]. Results from these studies [5-8] suggest that CLP has a multifactorial etiology with environmental factors, teratogens and genetics being implicated. Although the exact etiological factor causing CLP in a particular patient may not be easily identified, it's usually

predisposed by a combination of environmental factors, teratogens and genetics [5]. An understanding of these etiologic factors will guide clinicians in counseling of patients and their caregivers as well as encourage more health promoting behaviors in pregnant women and women of child bearing age in general. Therefore, the aim of this literature review was to determine the currently accepted etiologic factors of cleft lip and/or cleft palate.

Methodology

Literature searches were conducted in PubMed (NLM), Cochrane, Ovid Medline, OpenGrey and Google scholar databases to identify publications on etiologic factors of cleft lip and palate published till June 2021. The following search strategy was used for PubMed (NLM): (cleft lip and palate OR orofacial cleft OR cleft lip OR cleft palate) AND (etiologic factors OR risk factors OR environmental factors OR genetic factors) AND (cleft syndromes OR syndromic cleft). Similar search strategies were used for other database searches. Due to the large number of CLP related publications, the inclusion criteria used for screening were articles written in English language, which reported on the etiologic risk factors of CLP.

The titles and abstracts of all articles identified through the electronic database searches were screened. Studies that fulfilled the inclusion criteria were selected and their abstracts and/or full texts obtained. Data extraction was done if the paper provided original data regarding etiology of CLP in accordance with the aim of this review and when available, qualitative and quantitative analysis of study data was extracted and reported. The reference section of selected studies was also hand-searched for relevant citations and results of these studies were also included in the review.

Results

CLP has a complex etiology which may include any combination of environmental factors, teratogenic effects of drugs, chemicals, chronic diseases or infections, and genetic factors [5-8]. Environmental risk factors such as maternal smoking, maternal alcohol consumption and vitamin deficiency, particularly folic acid deficiency have been

Citation: Egbunah UP. Environmental and Genetic Risk Factors of Nonsyndromic and Syndromic Cleft Lip and Palate - A Literature Review. *Ann Surg Edu.* 2022;3(1):1025.

Copyright: © 2022 Uchenna P Egbunah

Publisher Name: Medtext Publications LLC

Manuscript compiled: Jan 12th, 2022

***Corresponding author:** Uchenna P. Egbunah, Department of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery, College of Medicine: University of Lagos/Lagos University Teaching Hospital, Idi-Araba, Lagos, Nigeria, Tel: +234-9063061329, E-mail: dregbunahup@gmail.com

associated with cleft lip and palate development [9]. The teratogenic effects of corticosteroids, vasoactive drugs (dopamine, adrenaline, aspirin, and ibuprofen), anticonvulsants, chemical exposure to pesticides and cosmetics, diabetes mellitus and infections causing fever above 40°C have all been implicated in fetal cleft development [10]. Implicated genetic factors of CLP may or may not present with associated syndrome [10].

Environmental factors implicated in the etiology of cleft lip and palate

Smoking: Several studies have consistently yielded a relative risk of fetal cleft development of 1.3-1.5 in pregnant women who smoke [11]. However, the relationship between maternal smoking and CLP though significant, is not strong when smoking is the only etiologic factor [10]. When maternal smoking and a positive genetic background were considered together, the combined effect was more significant [10]. Similarly, a study by van Rooij et al. [12] found that maternal smoking combined with maternal glutathione *S*-transferase (GSTT1) genotype, significantly increased the risk of CLP with an odds ratio of 4.9. Beaty et al. [13] reported that maternal smoking and infant *MSX1* genotypes had a synergistic effect, increasing the risk of CLP development by 7.16 times.

Alcohol consumption: Heavy maternal drinking, in addition to causing fetal alcohol syndrome may increase the risk of CLP in developing fetus [10]. Studies have shown that CLP is 1.5-4.7 times more likely to develop in a dose-dependent manner when pregnant women consume alcohol [14]. And pregnant women who consume more than five drinks per occasion are 3.4 times more likely to have children with CLP [15]. Low level alcohol consumption, however, does not seem to increase the risk of CLP development [16].

Vitamin deficiency: Vitamin deficiency, particularly folic acid and cobalamin triple the risk of CLP development especially during the first trimester of fetal development [17]. Studies have shown that even low dose folic acid supplementation by folic acid fortified food products e.g. cereal grains cannot effectively protect against fetal CLP development [18]. However, high dose folic acid, taken as antenatal supplements (10 mg/day) significantly reduces the risk of CLP development by 65% [19]. The risk of CLP is further increased when folic acid deficiency is present with a pre-existing fetal TGFA TaqI C2 genotype [20]. Also, reduced metabolism of the maternal vitamin-dependent homocysteine increases risk of CLP in the offspring [10]. This was confirmed by a case-control study which reported higher level of homocysteine and lower level of whole-blood vitamin B6 in mothers of CLP children [21].

Teratogenic effects implicated in the etiology of cleft lip and palate

Corticosteroids: They are commonly used in the management of several conditions in women of child bearing age. However, they have also been implicated in the development of CLP when administered to pregnant women [10]. The clefting role of corticosteroids has been proven extensively in animal studies; glucocorticoids induced CLP in the progeny of pregnant mice, [22] cortisone induced CP, [23] and triamcinolone hexacetonide induced teratologic effects on lip morphogenesis [24]. Several human studies over the years have corroborated this evidence. Studies have shown an association between peri-conceptual (one month before conception to three months after conception) use of corticosteroids and infant anomalies in general particularly CLP [25-28]. The study by Park-Wyllie et al.

[29] reported that even at therapeutic doses, prednisolone increases the risk of fetal CLP development by 3.4 folds.

Vasoactive drugs: Several epidemiological studies have reported that maternal use of vasoactive drugs such as NSAIDs (aspirin, ibuprofen); antiepileptic drugs (phenytoin); anti-psoriasis drugs (retinoids), anti-rheumatic drugs (hydroxychloroquine, methotrexate) and chemotherapeutics, particularly during the first trimester significantly increases the risk of fetal cleft development [30,31].

Anticonvulsants: Women with epilepsy have an increased risk of having offspring with CLP [32]. This could either be due to the teratogenic effects of anticonvulsants or may be due to underlying genetic factors associated with epilepsy [32]. A strong and significant correlation has been established between the use of anticonvulsants such as phenytoin/hydantoin, oxazolindiones, and valproic acid during pregnancy and development of fetal congenital anomalies [33]. A study by Saxen et al. [34] reported a significant increase in benzodiazepine use by mothers of children with CP and a non-significant increase for CLP. Another study reported association between diazepam exposure in first trimester and fetal clefting [35].

Chemical exposure: A study reported that about 30% of expectant women come in contact with chemicals from cleaning products, pesticides and cosmetics which may predispose to fetal clefting especially when exposure is during the first trimester of fetal development [36]. Garlandžec et al. [37] reported that exposure to harmful solvents present in these chemicals is associated with CLP formation. Studies have also reported an increased incidence of CLP in children of mothers working as hairdressers, farmers, and manufactures of leather or shoes where they were exposed to lead, aliphatic acids and other organic solvents [38,39].

Diabetes mellitus: Several studies [40-42] have identified metabolic diseases such as obesity, metabolic syndrome and diabetes mellitus as risk factors of fetal birth defects when seen in women during their periconceptional period. Gestational Diabetes Mellitus (GDM) is any degree of glucose intolerance developing for the first time during pregnancy [43]. It's diagnosed as elevated fasting plasma glucose levels on glucose tolerance testing at 24 to 28 weeks of gestation more commonly seen in obese women [44]. Studies have shown that obese and diabetic women are 3-times more likely to have children with craniofacial abnormalities; however, the exact mechanism is unclear [45]. In addition to GDM, preconceptional diabetes has been suggested as a risk factor for fetal orofacial cleft development [46]. Studies have reported an increased risk of craniofacial abnormalities of up to 80% in the offspring of mothers with long-standing poorly controlled diabetes diagnosed before pregnancy [47].

Infections: An increased risk of craniofacial anomalies following hyperthermic exposure during early stage pregnancy has been confirmed in animal studies but human population studies still yield conflicting results [48]. A study by Hashmi et al. [48] conducted on over 2,000 cleft patients reported that fever of over 40°C during the first trimester increased the risk of fetal cleft development 1.28 times with risk estimates being higher for women who had fever but did not control it with antipyretics. Adequate control of fever led to a reduced risk of CLP formation.

Genetic factors implicated in the etiology of non-syndromic cleft lip and palate

Transforming growth factor-alpha: Transforming Growth

Factor-Alpha (TGFA) was first associated with non-syndromic CLP in 1989 [49]. Several follow-up studies involving different races and ethnicities have given mixed results. Machida et al. [50] in a genetic analysis study sequenced the TGFA gene in a group of non-syndromic CLP patients and discovered five mutations etiological to non-syndromic CLP. However, the combined effect of TGFA mutations and the presence or absence of synergistic environmental factors may explain mixed results in follow-up studies [50]. The rare TGFA variant (TaqI C2 allele) increases the risk of CP 6-8 times [51] and increases the risk of CLP 2 times [52] when combined with maternal smoking. Also, if the fetus has the TGFA TaqI C2 allele and multivitamins are not consumed during the first trimester, it increases the relative risk of fetal orofacial cleft formation 3 to 8 times [53].

Transforming growth factor-beta-3: Animal studies revealed that mutations of the transforming growth factor-beta-3 (TGFB3) led to defective adhesion of palatal shelves leading to CP development [54]. This result was corroborated by two human studies in different populations [55,56]. A Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP) of TGFB3 (IVS5+104 A>G) has been associated with a 16-times increased risk of CLP development [57].

Drosophila msx homeobox homolog-1: Several animal studies have shown that mutation of the autosomal dominant drosophila msx homeobox homolog-1 (*MSX1*) gene leads to development of CP and tooth agenesis [58]. In humans, *MSX1* mutation was first shown to cause tooth agenesis [59]. Follow-up familial studies revealed the presence of etiologic *MSX1* mutations in patients with cleft and tooth agenesis [60]. A large scale genetic sequence analysis reported that *MSX1* can be responsible for both CP and CLP formation and that *MSX1* is responsible for at least 2% of all non-syndromic clefts [61]. The study by Jugessur et al. [55] reported that gene-gene interaction between mutations of TGFA/TGFB3 and *MSX1* will increase the risk of fetal cleft development up to 9.7 times.

5, 10-Methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase: 5, 10-Methylene Tetrahydrofolate Reductase (MTHFR) is the enzyme responsible for conversion of 5, 10-methylene tetrahydrofolate into 5-methyl tetrahydrofolate in the folate metabolism pathway [10]. Mutation of this gene in pregnant mothers may cause inherent maternal folate deficiency increasing the risk of non-syndromic fetal clefting [62].

Other genes and chromosomal loci: Some other genes and chromosomal aberrations have been implicated in the etiology of non-syndromic clefts although supporting evidence is weak. The special *AT-rich sequence-binding protein-2 gene (SATB2)* located at chromosome 2q32-33 has been implicated in CP development [63]. The *acyl-coenzyme-A desaturase-4 gene (ACOD4)* located at chromosome 4q21 has been implicated in familial CLP [64]. The *cleft lip and palate-associated transmembrane protein-1' (CLPTM1) gene* located on chromosome 19q13 has also been implicated in non-syndromic CLP [65].

Syndromes associated with cleft lip and palate and their underlying genetic basis

There are about 400 known syndromes associated with CLP. Studies have noted varying amount of cleft associate with syndromes form about 1.5% to over 4% depending on population studied [66-68]. However, these studies all agree that their numbers irrespective of variability do not completely underestimates the true frequency with which CLP is associated with syndromes. Some of the more common syndromes associated with CLP are included below.

Van der woude syndrome and popliteal pterygium syndrome: Van Der Woude Syndrome (VDWS) is the most common form of syndromic CLP and is said to account for 2% of all CLP cases [69]. It is characterized by CLP/CP, pits or mucous cysts on the lower lip, and hypodontia. Popliteal Pterygium Syndrome (PPS) is a less common syndrome characterized by all the features of VDWS plus popliteal pterygium (webs of skin on the back of the knee joint preventing flexion), synnathia, syndactyl (and other digit abnormalities) and genitourinary malformations [10]. Both syndromes exhibit phenotypic heterogeneity as not all associated features are present in all cases. The genetic loci for both VDWS and PPS have been linked to 1q32-q41 [70]. In addition, monozygotic twin studies of VDWS patients revealed that abnormality was the result of a point mutation in the *Interferon Regulatory Factor-6 gene (IRF6)*, located within the VDWS genetic locus [71]. This result was corroborated when mutations of IRF6 were discovered in 45 unrelated patients with VDWS as well as in 13 patients with PPS [71]. The variable presentations of VDWS and PPS can be explained by the different types of IRF6 mutations [10]. The *interferon regulatory factor 6 (IRF6)* genes is also associated with non-syndromic CLP4 in which specific parental alleles at the VDWS locus were preferentially transmitted to their progeny invariably leading to non-syndromic CLP [72].

Cleft lip/palate ectodermal dysplasia syndrome: Cleft Lip/Palate Ectodermal Dysplasia Syndrome (CLPED) is characterized by CLP, hidrotic ectodermal dysplasia (Clouston syndrome), syndactyly and mental retardation [10]. CLPED inheritance is autosomal recessive and mutations of the *poliovirus receptor-like-1 gene (PVRL1)* have been implicated [73]. Also, heterogenous mutation of the *PVRL1 (W185X)* has been implicated in the etiology of non-syndromic CLP [74].

X-linked cleft palate syndrome: X-linked Cleft Palate Syndrome (CPX) has a variable presentation but generally presents as isolated cleft palate (high arched palate with bifid uvula) and ankyloglossia [10]. Genetic linkage analysis has identified the mutated gene locus on chromosome Xq21 [75]. Inheritance of this mutation is X-linked semi-dominant hence females may either be asymptomatic carriers or may exhibit full blown features of the disease. Extensive mutation analysis on mutated gene locus revealed mutations of the *T-box transcription factor-22 gene (TBX22)* as genetic etiologic factor [76].

Apert syndrome: Apert syndrome is a rare autosomal dominant disorder characterized by craniosynostosis, craniofacial abnormalities (including CLP, hypertelorism, proptosis, down-slanting palpebral fissures), midface hypoplasia and severe symmetrical syndactyly of the hands and feet [77]. Several studies have implicated S252W or P253R gain-of-function missense mutations of *Fibroblast Growth Factor Receptor-2 (FGFR2) gene* on chromosome 10q in the etiology of Apert syndrome [10,78].

Crouzon syndrome: Crouzon syndrome, also known as craniofacial dysostosis is a rare autosomal dominant disorder characterized by craniosynostosis, craniofacial abnormalities and syndactyly (less common compared to Apert syndrome) [79]. It is the mildest form of all craniosynostosis syndromes considered to be allelic to Apert syndrome as it is caused by mutations in *FGFR2* and *FGFR3* on chromosome 10q [10].

Hemifacial microsomia: Hemifacial microsomia also called craniofacial microsomia or Goldenhar syndrome is an asymmetric craniofacial malformation, variably affecting structures derived from

the first and second pharyngeal arches, characterized by structural abnormalities of the orbit, maxilla, mandible, external and middle ear, cranial nerves, and facial soft tissues [80]. The exact genetic etiology is unknown but the *Spalt Like Transcription Factor 1 (SALL1) gene* seen in Townes-Brocks syndrome has been implicated [81].

Frontonasal dysplasia: Frontonasal Dysplasia (FND) also called frontonasal malformation, median cleft face syndrome, frontorhiny is characterized by ocular hypertelorism, flat broad nose, a vertical groove along the midline of the face with or without a frontal bone defect (anterior cranium occultum). There are three genetically distinct types of FND: FND-1, FND-2 and FND-3. FND-1 is caused by mutations in the ALX3 gene; FND-2 by mutations in the ALX4 gene and FND-3 by mutations in the ALX1 gene. FND-1 and FND-3 are inherited in an autosomal recessive pattern while FND-2 is inherited in an autosomal dominant pattern. The phenotypic presentation of FND varies between the types and may vary greatly from person to person.

Median facial dysplasia: Median facial dysplasia is characterized by midline facial deformities plus unilateral, midline or bilateral cleft lip with or without cleft palate [82]. These midline facial deformities usually present as hypoplasia and may involve the frontal corpus callosum of the brain [83]. The midface is also characteristically hypoplastic, presenting as retrognathic, dished in maxilla in Class II skeletal pattern relationship.

Pierre robin syndrome: Pierre Robin Syndrome (PRS) now more correctly referred to as Pierre Robin sequence, is a rare congenital birth defect characterized by micrognathia, glossoptosis, and airway obstruction [84]. It may also present with other craniofacial abnormalities including CLP. It has been associated with deletion mutation on chromosome 2q32.3-q33.2 [85].

Treacher collins syndrome: Treacher Collins Syndrome (TCS) also known as mandibulofacial dysostosis and Franceschetti-Zwahlen-Klein syndrome is an autosomal dominant condition characterized by reduced growth of craniofacial structures derived from the first pharyngeal arch, groove and pouch, diminished symmetrically and bilaterally [86]. Typical features include hypoplasia of facial bones particularly the mandible and zygomatic complex, CLP, dental malocclusion, down-slanting palpebral fissures, notching of the lower eyelids, and alterations in the size, shape and position of the external ears [86]. The *Treacher Collins-Franceschetti syndrome 1 gene (TCOF1)* has been implicated in its etiology [87].

Velocardiofacial syndrome: Velocardiofacial Syndrome (VCFS) is an autosomal dominant condition associated with sub-microscopic deletion mutation on the long arm of chromosome 22 region q11 (deletion22q11) [83]. It occurs in approximately 0.05% of live births [88] with several phenotypic presentations as can affect every major organ in the body. The most common features include characteristic facial features (narrow palpebral fissures bilaterally, flattened malar eminence, maxillary prognathism, mandibular retrognathism, and microtia), cleft palate associated speech and feeding challenges, congenital cardiac anomalies and minor learning problems [83]. VCFS is significantly associated with DiGeorge syndrome which is also a chromosomal disorder caused by a defect in chromosome 22 [88]. It has similar features with VCFS including plus immune system dysfunction (due to small or absent thymus, tonsils, and adenoids), hypocalcemia and medially displaced carotid artery over the cervical vertebrae.

Stickler syndrome: Stickler syndrome is a hereditary connective tissue disorder characterized by vision impairment (myopia, retinal detachment), hearing impairment, underdeveloped midface and orofacial clefts, mitral valve prolapse and hyperextensible joints with eventual osteoarthritis [89]. It can be inherited in an autosomal dominant or autosomal recessive manner and is caused by genetic mutations in any one of six genes that code for collagen: COL2A1, COL11A1, COL11A2, COL9A1, COL9A2, or COL9A3 [90].

Down syndrome: Down syndrome also known as Trisomy-21 is a genetic disorder caused by deranged cell division which results in an extra genetic material on chromosome-21. The phenotype of Down syndrome comprises of several anomalies of varying presentation including brachycephaly, small head circumference, flat face, epicanthic fold, oblique palpebral fissures, single transverse palmar crease, and clinodactyly [91]. Congenital heart defects are also found in 33% of Down syndrome patients [91]. The study by Kallen et al. [91] also showed that CLP can be found in 0.45% of Down syndrome patient.

Conclusion

Orofacial clefts can either present in combination with other genetic anomalies or as lone standing conditions. Irrespective of its presentation, its etiology has been proven to involve environmental factors, genetic factors or both. Result of this review itemizes currently accepted environmental and genetic factors implicated in the etiology of non-syndromic and syndromic cleft lip and/or cleft palate. This review not only brings to the fore, the wide array of etiologic factors implicated in cleft lip and palate but also highlights the vast amount of data on etiology of cleft lip and palate still being collected and studied.

Funding

This research did not receive any grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

References

- Oginni F, Adenekan A. Prevention of oro-facial clefts in developing world. *Ann Maxillofac Surg*. 2012;2(2):163-9.
- Shkoukani MA, Chen M, Vong A. Cleft lip - a comprehensive review. *Front Pediatr*. 2013;1:53.
- Jones MC. Etiology of facial clefts: prospective evaluation of 428 patients. *Cleft Palate J*. 1988;25(1):16-20.
- Calzolari E, Pierini A, Astolfi G, Bianchi F, Neville AJ, Rivieri F. Associated anomalies in multi-malformed infants with cleft lip and palate: An epidemiologic study of nearly 6 million births in 23 EUROCAT registries. *Am J Med Genet A*. 2007;143A(6):528-37.
- Yaqoob M, Mahmood F, Hanif G, Iqbal S, Mansoor S, Sheikh MA. Etiology and Genetic Factors in Clefts of Lip and/or Palate Reported at Children's Hospital, Lahore, Pakistan. *Indian J Hum Genet*. 2013;19(2):136-43.
- Bianchi F, Calzolari E, Ciulli L, Cordier S, Gualandi F, Pierini A, et al. [Environment and genetics in the etiology of cleft lip and cleft palate with reference to the role of folic acid]. *Epidemiol Prev*. 2000;24(1):21-7.
- DeRoo LA, Wilcox AJ, Drevon CA, Lie RT. First-trimester maternal alcohol consumption and the risk of infant oral clefts in Norway: a population-based case-control study. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2008;168(6):638-46.
- Shi M, Wehby GL, Murray JC. Review on genetic variants and maternal smoking in the etiology of oral clefts and other birth defects. *Birth Defects Res C Embryo Today*. 2008;84(1):16-29.
- Oner DA, Tastan H. Cleft lip and palate: Epidemiology and etiology. *Otorhinolaryngology-Head and Neck Surgery*. 2020;5:1-5.
- Kohli SS, Kohli VS. A comprehensive review of the genetic basis of cleft lip and palate.

- J Oral Maxillofac Pathol. 2012;16(1):64-72.
11. Wyszynski DF, Wu T. Use of US birth certificate data to estimate the risk of maternal cigarette smoking for oral clefting. *Cleft Palate Craniofac J*. 2002;39(2):188-92.
 12. van Rooij IA, Wegerif MJ, Roelofs HM, Peters WH, Kuijpers-Jagtman AM, Zielhuis GA, et al. Smoking, genetic polymorphisms in biotransformation enzymes, and nonsyndromic oral clefting: a gene-environment interaction. *Epidemiology*. 2001;12(5):502-7.
 13. Beaty TH, Hetmanski JB, Zeiger JS, Fan YT, Liang KY, VanderKolk CA, et al. Testing candidate genes for non-syndromic oral clefts using a case-parent trio design. *Genet Epidemiol*. 2002;22(1):1-11.
 14. Munger RG, Romitti PA, Daack-Hirsch S, Burns TL, Murray JC, Hanson J. Maternal alcohol use and risk of orofacial cleft birth defects. *Teratology*. 1996;54(1):27-33.
 15. Shaw GM, Lammer EJ. Maternal periconceptional alcohol consumption and risk for orofacial clefts. *J Pediatr*. 1999;134(3):298-303.
 16. Natsume N, Kawai T, Ogi N, Yoshida W. Maternal risk factors in cleft lip and palate: case control study. *Br J Oral Maxillofac Surg*. 2000;38(1):23-5.
 17. Shaw GM, Nelson V, Carmichael SL, Lammer EJ, Finnell RH, Rosenquist TH. Maternal periconceptional vitamins: interactions with selected factors and congenital anomalies? *Epidemiology*. 2002;13(6):625-30.
 18. Ray JG, Meier C, Vermeulen MJ, Wyatt PR, Cole DE c. Association between folic acid food fortification and congenital orofacial clefts. *J Pediatr*. 2003;143(6):805-7.
 19. Tolarova M, Harris J. Reduced recurrence of orofacial clefts after periconceptional supplementation with high-dose folic acid and multivitamins. *Teratology*. 1995;51(2):71-8.
 20. Jugessur A, Lie RT, Wilcox AJ, Murray JC, Taylor JA, Saugstad OD, et al. Cleft palate, transforming growth factor alpha gene variants, and maternal exposures: assessing gene-environment interactions in case-parent triads. *Genet Epidemiol*. 2003;25(4):367-74.
 21. Wong WY, Eskes TK, Kuijpers-Jagtman AM, Spauwen PH, Steegers EA, Thomas CM, et al. Nonsyndromic orofacial clefts: association with maternal hyperhomocysteinemia. *Teratology*. 1999;60(5):253-7.
 22. Baxter H, Fraser FC. The production of congenital defects in the offspring of female mice treated with cortisone. A preliminary report. *McGill Med J*. 1950;19(4):245-9.
 23. Diewert VM, Pratt RM. Cortisone-induced cleft palate in A/J mice: failure of palatal shelf contact. *Teratology*. 1981;24(2):149-62.
 24. Melnick M, Jaskoll T, Slavkin HC. Corticosteroid-induced cleft lip in mice: a teratologic, topographic, and histologic investigation. *Am J Med Genet*. 1981;10(4):333-50.
 25. Carmichael SL, Shaw GM. Maternal corticosteroid use and risk of selected congenital anomalies. *Am J Med Genet*. 1999;86(3):242-4.
 26. Rodríguez-Pinilla E, Martínez-Frías ML. Corticosteroids during pregnancy and oral clefts: a case-control study. *Teratology*. 1998;58(1):2-5.
 27. Pradat P, Robert-Gnansia E, Di Tanna GL, Rosano A, Lisi A, Mastroiacovo P. First trimester exposure to corticosteroids and oral clefts. *Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol*. 2003;67(12):968-70.
 28. Carmichael SL, Shaw GM, Ma C, Werler MM, Rasmussen SA, Lammer EJ. Maternal corticosteroid use and orofacial clefts. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2007;197(6):585.e1-7;discussion 683-4, e1-7.
 29. Park-Wyllie L, Mazzotta P, Pastuszak A, Moretti ME, Beique L, Hunnisett L, et al. Birth defects after maternal exposure to corticosteroids: prospective cohort study and meta-analysis of epidemiological studies. *Teratology*. 2000;62(6):385-92.
 30. Annalisa P, Furio P, Ilaria Z, Anna A, Luca S, Marcella M, et al. Anorganic bovine bone and a silicate-based synthetic bone activate different microRNAs. *J Oral Sci*. 2008;50(3):301-7.
 31. Källén B. Maternal drug use and infant cleft lip/palate with special reference to corticoids. *Cleft Palate Craniofac J*. 2003;40(6):624-8.
 32. Durner M, Greenberg DA, Delgado-Escueta AV. Is there a genetic relationship between epilepsy and birth defects? *Neurology*. 1992;42(4 Suppl 5):63-7.
 33. Gorlin RJ, Cohen Jr MM, Hennekam RCM. *Syndromes of the head and neck*. Oxford university press; 2001.
 34. Aarskog D. Letter: Association between maternal intake of diazepam and oral clefts. *Lancet*. 1975;2(7941):921.
 35. Safra MJ, Oakley GP Jr. Association between cleft lip with or without cleft palate and prenatal exposure to diazepam. *Lancet*. 1975;2(7933):478-80.
 36. Campos Neves AT de S, Volpato LER, Espinosa MM, Aranha AMF, Borges AH. Environmental factors related to the occurrence of oral clefts in a Brazilian subpopulation. *Niger Med J*. 2016;57(3):167-72.
 37. Garlantézec R, Monfort C, Rouget F, Cordier S. Maternal occupational exposure to solvents and congenital malformations: a prospective study in the general population. *Occup Environ Med*. 2009;66(7):456-63.
 38. Kawalec A, Nelke K, Pawlas K, Gerber H. Risk factors involved in orofacial cleft predisposition - review. *Open Med (Wars)*. 2015;10(1):163-75.
 39. Chevrier C, Dananché B, Bahuau M, Nelva A, Herman C, Francannet C, et al. Occupational exposure to organic solvent mixtures during pregnancy and the risk of non-syndromic oral clefts. *Occup Environ Med*. 2006;63(9):617-23.
 40. Kutbi H, Wehby GL, Moreno Uribe LM, Romitti PA, Carmichael S, Shaw GM, et al. Maternal underweight and obesity and risk of orofacial clefts in a large international consortium of population-based studies. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2017;46(1):190-9.
 41. Trindade-Suedam IK, Kostrisch LM von, Pimenta LAF, Negrato CA, Franzolin SB, Trindade ASJ. Diabetes mellitus and drug abuse during pregnancy and the risk for orofacial clefts and related abnormalities. *Rev Lat Am Enfermagem*. 2016;24:e2701.
 42. Biggio JRJ, Chapman V, Neely C, Cliver SP, Rouse DJ. Fetal anomalies in obese women: the contribution of diabetes. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2010;115(2 Pt 1):290-6.
 43. Pascu M, Carniciu S. Gestational diabetes and its new criteria of diagnosis. In: *Proc Rom Acad, Series B*. 2010;3:225-31.
 44. Di Cianni G, Ghio A, Resi V, Volpe L. Gestational diabetes mellitus: an opportunity to prevent type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular disease in young women. *Womens Health (Lond)*. 2010;6(1):97-105.
 45. Moore LL, Singer MR, Bradlee ML, Rothman KJ, Milunsky A. A prospective study of the risk of congenital defects associated with maternal obesity and diabetes mellitus. *Epidemiology*. 2000;11(6):689-94.
 46. Meiramova A, Ainabekova B, Sadybekova G, Akhmetova Z, Imangazinova S, Omralina Y. Peculiarities of the course of gestation and pregnancy outcomes in women with gestational diabetes mellitus. *Acta Endocrinol (Buchar)*. 2018;14(2):213-8.
 47. Wang X, Bao W, Liu J, Ouyang YY, Wang D, Rong S, et al. Inflammatory markers and risk of type 2 diabetes: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Diabetes Care*. 2013;36(1):166-75.
 48. Shahrukh Hashmi S, Gallaway MS, Waller DK, Langlois PH, Hecht JT. Maternal fever during early pregnancy and the risk of oral clefts. *Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol*. 2010;88(3):186-94.
 49. Ardinger HH, Buetow KH, Bell GI, Bardach J, VanDemark DR, Murray JC. Association of genetic variation of the transforming growth factor-alpha gene with cleft lip and palate. *Am J Hum Genet*. 1989;45(3):348-53.
 50. Machida J, Yoshiura K i, Funkhauser CD, Natsume N, Kawai T, Murray JC. Transforming growth factor-alpha (TGFA): genomic structure, boundary sequences, and mutation analysis in nonsyndromic cleft lip/palate and cleft palate only. *Genomics*. 1999;61(3):237-42.
 51. Hwang SJ, Beaty TH, Panny SR, Street NA, Joseph JM, Gordon S, et al. Association study of transforming growth factor alpha (TGF alpha) TaqI polymorphism and oral clefts: indication of gene-environment interaction in a population-based sample of infants with birth defects. *Am J Epidemiol*. 1995;141(7):629-36.
 52. Shaw GM, Wasserman CR, Lammer EJ, O'Malley CD, Murray JC, Basart AM, et al. Orofacial clefts, parental cigarette smoking, and transforming growth factor-alpha

- gene variants. *Am J Hum Genet.* 1996;58(3):551-61.
53. Shaw GM, Wasserman CR, Murray JC, Lammer EJ. Infant TGF- α genotype, orofacial clefts, and maternal periconceptional multivitamin use. *Cleft Palate Craniofac J.* 1998;35(4):366-70.
 54. Proetzl G, Pawlowski SA, Wiles M V, Yin M, Boivin GP, Howles PN, et al. Transforming growth factor- β 3 is required for secondary palate fusion. *Nat Genet.* 1995;11(4):409-14.
 55. Jugessur A, Lie RT, Wilcox AJ, Murray JC, Taylor JA, Saugstad OD, et al. Variants of developmental genes (TGFA, TGFB3, and MSX1) and their associations with orofacial clefts: a case-parent triad analysis. *Genet Epidemiol.* 2003;24(3):230-9.
 56. Vieira AR, Orioli IM, Castilla EE, Cooper ME, Marazita ML, Murray JC. MSX1 and TGFB3 contribute to clefting in South America. *J Dent Res.* 2003;82(4):289-92.
 57. Kim MH, Kim HJ, Choi JY, Nahm DS. Transforming growth factor- β 3 gene SfaN1 polymorphism in Korean nonsyndromic cleft lip and palate patients. *J Biochem Mol Biol.* 2003;36(6):533-7.
 58. Satokata I, Maas R. Msx1 deficient mice exhibit cleft palate and abnormalities of craniofacial and tooth development. *Nat Genet.* 1994;6(4):348-56.
 59. Vastardis H, Karimbux N, Guthua SW, Seidman JG, Seidman CE. A human MSX1 homeodomain missense mutation causes selective tooth agenesis. *Nat Genet.* 1996;13(4):417-21.
 60. van den Boogaard MJ, Dorland M, Beemer FA, van Amstel HK. MSX1 mutation is associated with orofacial clefting and tooth agenesis in humans. *Nat Genet.* 2000;24(4):342-3.
 61. Jezewski PA, Vieira AR, Nishimura C, Ludwig B, Johnson M, O'Brien SE, et al. Complete sequencing shows a role for MSX1 in non-syndromic cleft lip and palate. *J Med Genet.* 2003;40(6):399-407.
 62. Prescott NJ, Winter RM, Malcolm S. Maternal MTHFR genotype contributes to the risk of non-syndromic cleft lip and palate. *J Med Genet.* 2002;39(5):368-9.
 63. FitzPatrick DR, Carr IM, McLaren L, Leek JP, Wightman B, Williamson K, et al. Identification of SATB2 as the cleft palate gene on 2q32-q33. *Hum Mol Genet.* 2003;12(19):2491-501.
 64. Beiraghi S, Zhou M, Talmadge CB, Went-Sumegi N, Davis JR, Huang D, et al. Identification and characterization of a novel gene disrupted by a pericentric inversion inv(4)(p13.1q21.1) in a family with cleft lip. *Gene.* 2003;309(1):11-21.
 65. Stein J, Mulliken JB, Stal S, Gasser DL, Malcolm S, Winter R, et al. Nonsyndromic cleft lip with or without cleft palate: evidence of linkage to BCL3 in 17 multigenerational families. *Am J Hum Genet.* 1995;57(2):257-72.
 66. Fraser FC. The genetics of cleft lip and cleft palate. *Am J Hum Genet.* 1970;22(3):336-52.
 67. Jensen BL, Kreiborg S, Dahl E, Fogh-Andersen P. Cleft lip and palate in Denmark, 1976-1981: epidemiology, variability, and early somatic development. *Cleft Palate J.* 1988;25(3):258-69.
 68. Yi NN, Yeow VK, Lee ST. Epidemiology of cleft lip and palate in Singapore—a 10-year hospital-based study. *Ann Acad Med Singap.* 1999;28(5):655-9.
 69. Burdick AB. Genetic epidemiology and control of genetic expression in van der Woude syndrome. *J Craniofac Genet Dev Biol Suppl.* 1986;2:99-105.
 70. Lees MM, Winter RM, Malcolm S, Saal HM, Chitty L. Popliteal pterygium syndrome: a clinical study of three families and report of linkage to the Van der Woude syndrome locus on 1q32. *J Med Genet.* 1999;36(12):888-92.
 71. Kondo S, Schutte BC, Richardson RJ, Bjork BC, Knight AS, Watanabe Y, et al. Mutations in IRF6 cause Van der Woude and popliteal pterygium syndromes. *Nat Genet.* 2002;32(2):285-9.
 72. Houdayer C, Bonaiti-Pellié C, Erguy C, Soupre V, Dondon MG, Bürglen L, et al. Possible relationship between the van der Woude syndrome (vWS) locus and nonsyndromic cleft lip with or without cleft palate (NSCL/P). *Am J Med Genet.* 2001;104(1):86-92.
 73. Suzuki K, Hu D, Bustos T, Zlotogora J, Richieri-Costa A, Helms JA, et al. Mutations of PVRL1, encoding a cell-cell adhesion molecule/herpesvirus receptor, in cleft lip/palate-ectodermal dysplasia. *Nat Genet.* 2000;25(4):427-30.
 74. Sözen MA, Suzuki K, Tolarova MM, Bustos T, Fernández Iglesias JE, Spritz RA. Mutation of PVRL1 is associated with sporadic, non-syndromic cleft lip/palate in northern Venezuela. *Nat Genet.* 2001;29(2):141-2.
 75. Stanier P, Forbes SA, Arnason A, Björnsson A, Sveinbjörnsdóttir E, Williamson R, et al. The localization of a gene causing X-linked cleft palate and ankyloglossia (CPX) in an Icelandic kindred is between DXS326 and DXYS1X. *Genomics.* 1993;17(3):549-55.
 76. Braybrook C, Doudney K, Marçano AC, Arnason A, Björnsson A, Patton MA, et al. The T-box transcription factor gene TBX22 is mutated in X-linked cleft palate and ankyloglossia. *Nat Genet.* 2001;29(2):179-83.
 77. Conrady CD, Patel BC, Sharma S. Apert Syndrome - StatPearls - NCBI Bookshelf. StatPearls Publishing LLC.;2021:1-6p.
 78. Chang CC, Tsai FJ, Tsai HD, Tsai CH, Hsieh YY, Lee CC, et al. Prenatal diagnosis of Apert syndrome. *Prenat Diagn.* 1998;18(6):621-5.
 79. Pal US, Gupta C, Chellappa AAL. Crouzon syndrome with primary optic nerve atrophy and normal brain functions: A case report. *J oral Biol craniofacial Res.* 2012;2(2):116-8.
 80. Resnick CM, Padwa BL. Hemifacial Microsomia - an overview from Clinical Review of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery, 2008. 3rd edition. Science direct; 2017:23-37p.
 81. Kelberman D, Tyson J, Chandler DC, McInerney AM, Slee J, Albert D, et al. Hemifacial microsomia: progress in understanding the genetic basis of a complex malformation syndrome. *Hum Genet.* 2001;109(6):638-45.
 82. Noordhoff MS, Huang CS, Lo LJ. Median facial dysplasia in unilateral and bilateral cleft lip and palate: a subgroup of median cerebrofacial malformations. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* 1993;91(6):996-1005; discussion 1006-7.
 83. Venkatesh R. Syndromes and anomalies associated with cleft. *Indian J Plast Surg.* 2009;42(Suppl):S51-S55.
 84. Breugem CC, Courtemanche DJ. Robin sequence: clearing nosologic confusion. *Cleft Palate Craniofac J.* 2010;47(2):197-200.
 85. Houdayer C, Portnoï MF, Vialard F, Soupre V, Crumière C, Taillemite JL, et al. Pierre Robin sequence and interstitial deletion 2q32.3-q33.2. *Am J Med Genet.* 2001;102(3):219-26.
 86. Trainor PA, Dixon J, Dixon MJ. Treacher Collins syndrome: etiology, pathogenesis and prevention. *Eur J Hum Genet.* 2009;17(3):275-83.
 87. Splendore A, Silva EO, Alonso LG, Richieri-Costa A, Alonso N, Rosa A, et al. High mutation detection rate in TCOF1 among Treacher Collins syndrome patients reveals clustering of mutations and 16 novel pathogenic changes. *Hum Mutat.* 2000;16(4):315-22.
 88. Thomas JA, Graham JM Jr. Chromosomes 22q11 deletion syndrome: an update and review for the primary pediatrician. *Clin Pediatr (Phila).* 1997;36(5):253-66.
 89. Snead MP, Yates JR. Clinical and Molecular genetics of Stickler syndrome. *J Med Genet.* 1999;36(5):353-9.
 90. Robin NH, Moran RT, Ala-Kokko L, Adam MP, Ardinger HH, Pagon RA, et al. Stickler Syndrome. 1993.
 91. Källén B, Mastroiacovo P, Robert E. Major congenital malformations in down syndrome. *Am J Med Genet.* 1996;65(2):160-6.