geal atresia¹³ and renal agenesis and renal dysplasia with von Maeyer-Rokitanski-Küster complex.¹⁴

As yet, there is no consistent detectable chromosomal or metabolic cause of the 3C syndrome, including the 22q11.2 deletion discussed here. In the 16 families known to have children with the 3C syndrome, four males and 14 females, two had two affected daughters, three are related, and five belong to a small, isolated part of Canada with its own dialect. The most likely aetiology, therefore, is autosomal recessive inheritance, as proposed in the first report of the syndrome. It would be prudent, however, to exclude a deletion in 22q11.2 before a definitive diagnosis of 3C syndrome is made owing to possible overlap of the variable clinical features.

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A mother with VCFS and unilateral dysplastic kidney and her fetus with multicystic dysplastic kidneys: additional evidence to support the association of renal malformations and VCFS

Devriendt *et al* recently described in this journal a female fetus with Potter sequence caused by unilateral renal agenesis and contralateral multicystic renal dysplasia, who was retrospectively found to have a deletion in chromosome 22q11 following identification of the deletion in the father. The father presented with typical VCFS features but no urological anomalies. We describe a patient with a clinical diagnosis of VCFS and a unilateral dysplastic kidney but with negative high resolution cytogenetic and FISH studies, who had a female fetus with bilateral multicystic kidneys. This provides additional evidence to support the conclusion of Devriendt *et al* that in VCFS the renal malformation can dominate the clinical phenotype.

Our patient is a 24 year old female initially referred because of facial dysmorphism and developmental delay. She had a long nose and a long, thin face, a small chin, prominent incisors, a deep philtrum (fig 1), a high palate which had the appearance of a cleft, velopharyngeal insufficiency, and long, thin fingers and toes. She also had a repaired ASD, developmental and speech delay, depression, chemical dependency, and seizures. A renal ultrasound showed a unilateral multicystic dysplastic kidney. Karyotype analysis and FISH using a digoxigenin labelled probe localised to 22q11.2 (Oncor Inc, Gaithersburg, MD) were negative. Her first pregnancy was uncomplicated and she delivered a healthy male with no dysmorphic features. He had a normal renal ultrasound and at the age of 2 years is developmentally appropriate. During her second pregnancy, ultrasound examination of her female fetus at 19 weeks 4 days identified bilateral multicystic kidneys

Figure 1 Patient with long nose, long, thin face, small chin, prominent incisors, and deep philtrum.

and anhydramnios. The pregnancy was terminated and necropsy confirmed the presence of multicystic dysplastic kidneys, hypoplastic bladder, and low set ears. No other abnormalities were noted. Karyotype analysis was normal.

Of patients diagnosed clinically with VCFS, only 68 to 81% have a deletion of 22q11.2.^{2,3} Several recent articles have noted the presence of nephrourological malformations as a component of VCFS syndrome.^{4,7} Of the 39 patients reported by Devriendt *et al* with 22q11 deletions, four had nephrourological malformations. Another patient with unilateral renal agenesis and dysmorphic features suggestive of DiGeorge sequence had a normal G banded karyotype.⁴ Driscoll *et al* reported a patient with a multicystic kidney and a normal karyotype; however, molecular studies showed the absence of a paternal 22q11 allele. Of 11 patients with DiGeorge syndrome reported by Palacios *et al*,⁷ one had a dysplastic right kidney and left ureterohydronephrosis and one had a right megaureter; karyotype analysis was not performed on these two patients.

We concur with Devriendt *et al* that renal malformations associated with VCFS can lead to the Potter sequence and can dominate the clinical phenotype. These authors retrospectively investigated 10 additional cases of Potter sequence and no other patient with a del(22q11) was found. The possibility of performing FISH for 22q11.2 on all fetuses with Potter sequence, along with a thorough evaluation of both parents for physical features of VCFS, needs to be examined further.

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New overgrowth syndrome and FGFR3 dosage effect

The 4p16 chromosome band is the object of intense scrutiny because the region is known to be genetically dense,¹ containing many genes responsible for well known disorders such as the HD gene,² FGFR3,³ and the Wolf-Hirschhorn critical region.⁴ More recently, the question has been raised whether

the Pitt-Rogers-Danks syndrome may be caused by a deletion in the same region.^{5,7}

In a recent issue of the *Journal of Medical Genetics*, Partington *et al.*⁸ reported on a number of patients with deletions or duplications of 4p16.3, adding new information potentially useful for characterising this segment of the human genome.

However, in reading their article "Translocations involving 4p16.3 in three families: deletion causing Pitt-Rogers-Danks syndrome and duplication resulting in a new overgrowth syndrome", we have serious concerns about (1) their definition of a new overgrowth syndrome and, more importantly, (2) their idea that a triple dose of FGFR3 results in physical overgrowth.

First, we have rearranged the data from their table 2 to show that overgrowth is not really a prominent manifestation of duplication involving FGFR3 (table 1). For both height and head circumference, fewer than half of the patients have values ≥ 90 th centile; only with respect to weight do slightly more than half of the patients have values ≥ 90 th centile. On the other hand, a good proportion of patients have values ≤ 50 th centile and even ≤ 25 th centile. Combining all three parameters ($n=76$), at the extremes, 28% of patients have values ≥ 97 th centile and 8% have values ≤ 3 rd centile. Although some values for all three growth parameters are large and the trend appears to be in that direction, so many patients have middle and lower range values that overgrowth per se does not seem to us to be a particularly prominent manifestation of dup(4p16.3). In fact, when thinking of classical overgrowth syndromes, such as Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome, Simpson-Golabi-Beckwith syndrome, or Bannayan-Riley-Ruvalcaba syndrome with overgrowth frequently present at birth,⁹ it is difficult to think of dup(4p16.3) as an overgrowth syndrome at all.

Secondly, the function of FGFR3 can be deduced from the *Fgfr3* $-/-$ knockout mouse,¹⁰ which is overgrown with excessively long femora and elongated vertebrae, resulting in a long tail. Thus, the normal function of FGFR3 is to regulate endochondral ossification by "putting the brakes on growth".

Evidence is accumulating that the known mutations on FGFRs are of the gain of function type. For example, Neilson and Friesel¹¹ made mutations in mRNA and expressed them in *Xenopus* that corresponded to known human mutations on FGFR1 and FGFR2. Analysis of mutant receptor proteins expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes indicated that all but one had increased tyrosine kinase activity compared to their wild type counterparts. FGFR3 mutations for achondroplasia and thanatophoric dysplasia have also been shown to have greatly increased levels of phosphotyrosine.^{12,13} Ligand independent constitutive signalling produced by these mutations results in premature maturation of bones of the skeleton and cranium. This type of activation depends on the particular mutation and its location on the receptor and appears to result from (1) aberrant disulphide bonded or hydrogen bonded FGFR dimers

or (2) involvement in the activation loop of the kinase domain.¹⁴

Thus, the mutations for short limb skeletal dysplasias on FGFR3 (hypochondroplasia, achondroplasia, and thanatophoric dysplasia) are gain of function mutations that "put the brakes on even more" to various degrees. *Fgfr3* $+/-$ heterozygous mice have been shown to be normal.¹⁰

In conclusion, the idea put forth by Partington *et al.*⁸ that FGFR3 in single dose leads to growth failure and in triple dose to physical overgrowth is not tenable in view of current clinical and experimental evidence.

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This letter was shown to Dr Partington *et al.*, who reply as follows.

Thank you for the opportunity of seeing the comments of Cohen and Neri on our recent paper. We were mildly surprised at their confidence not only in dismissing the possibility of a dosage effect of FGFR3 on growth, but also in asserting that all the short

stature syndromes associated with mutations in this gene are explained by loss of gain of function. We believe the jury is still out and all will be revealed in good time.

However, we must protest at Cohen and Neri's attempt to extinguish our overgrowth syndrome by the rather cavalier manipulation of the growth data presented in table 2 of our paper. They have chosen to ignore two explicit points stated in the text: first that II.12 in family 1 is a special case because of severe disease (empyema), which probably limited growth in childhood and, second, that overgrowth "became more obvious in late adolescence and early adult life".

What Cohen and Neri have done is to take our mixed longitudinal and cross sectional growth data, translate it all into cross sectional data and, neglecting age, treat these measurements in the same way. This does dilute the overgrowth patterns observed. However, if one omits the data on II.12 for the reasons stated and takes the measurements at the oldest age of the 10 remaining subjects (all over the age of 15 years), then all the heights are at or above the 75th centile and five of them are above the 90th centile. In the same way, the head circumferences are all at or above the 50th centile with five above the 97th centile. This tells quite a different story from table 1 presented in Cohen and Neri's letter.

Some confirmation of this late growth pattern emerges from the heights recorded on II.11 and II.12 from family 1. Thus, between the ages of 18 and 28 years 5 months, II.11 grew 15 cm and between 17 years 5 months and 28 years II.12 grew 26 cm. Such growth increments are commonplace between the ages of 12 and 16 years, but are quite abnormal after the age of 17 years.

Physical measurements do not convey the whole picture. Clinically, those with overgrowth appear to be big people with large body frames, prominent supraorbital ridges, heavy facial features, and big hands and feet. Some, but not all, of these features are shown in the illustrations in our article.

Lastly, your readers may be interested to know that since our paper was published we have managed to meet III.8 in family 1 again and, on this occasion, were able to make some measurements and take a blood sample. At the age of 33, III.8 is a big woman with a heavy body frame and rather coarse or heavy facial features of which she is self-conscious and will not allow herself to be photographed. Her height is 180 cm, head circumference 60 cm, and hand length is 20.5 cm. She has mild intellectual handicap and a duplication of 4p16.3.

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Robinow syndrome

I would like to comment on the paper by Sabry *et al.* in the September issue of the *Journal of Medical Genetics*. In it, they describe three patients they diagnosed as having Robinow syndrome in conjunction with a number of unusual abnormalities.

When looking at the photographs of their patients, I doubt whether the diagnosis of Robinow syndrome is correct, especially in the first patient. She has a number of facial characteristics that are indeed seen in Robinow syndrome, such as hypertelorism and

Table 1 Rearranged data

	No	Centiles (%)		
		≥ 90	≤ 50	≤ 25
Height	31	32	29	26
Weight	23	52	35	22
Head circumference	22	41	32	9