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Abnormal spindle-like microcephaly-associated (ASPM) mutations strongly disrupt neocortical structure but spare the hippocampus and long-term memory

Sandrine Passemard, Alain Verloes, Thierry Billette de Villemeur, Odile Boespflug-Tanguy, Karen Hernandez, Marion Laurent, Bertrand Isidor, Corinne Alberti, Nathalie Pouvreau, Séverine Drunat, et al.

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3 Abnormal spindle-like microcephaly-associated (*ASPM*) mutations strongly
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11 disrupt neocortical structure but spare the hippocampus and long-term memory
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15 Sandrine Passemard (1-4), Alain Verloes (1-3), Thierry Billette de Villemeur (1,5-6), Odile
16 Boespflug (1,2,4), Karen Hernandez (3), Marion Laurent (7), Bertrand Isidor (8), Corinne
17 Alberti (2,9), Nathalie Pouvreau (3), Séverine Drunat (1, 3), Bénédicte Gérard (3), Vincent El
18 Ghouzzi (1,2), Jorge Gallego (1,2), Monique Elmaleh-Bergès (1,2,10), Wieland B. Huttner
19 (11), Stephan Eliez (12), Pierre Gressens* (1,2,4,13), Marie Schaer* (12,14).

20 * These authors contributed equally to this work

21
22 (1) Inserm, U1141, Hôpital Robert Debré, Paris, France

23
24 (2) Université Paris Diderot – Sorbonne Paris Cité, Paris, France

25
26 (3) Département de Génétique, Hôpital Robert Debré, AP-HP, Paris, France

27
28 (4) Service de Neuropédiatrie, Hôpital Robert Debré, AP-HP, Paris, France

29
30 (5) Sorbonne Universités, UPMC Université Paris 06, Paris, France

31
32 (6) Service de Neuropédiatrie, Hôpital Trousseau, AP-HP, Paris, France

33
34 (7) Service de Psychopathologie, Hôpital Robert Debré, AP-HP, Paris, France

35
36 (8) Service de Génétique, Hôpital Mère-Enfant, Nantes, France

37
38 (9) Inserm CIC-EC1426, Hôpital Robert Debré, AP-HP, Paris, France

39
40 (10) Service de Radiopédiatrie, Hôpital Robert Debré, AP-HP, Paris, France

41
42 (11) Max Planck Institute of Molecular Cell Biology and Genetics, Dresden, Germany

43
44 (12) Office Médico-Pédagogique, Département de psychiatrie, Université de Genève,

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52 Suisse

53
54 (13) Center for Developing Brain, King's College, St. Thomas' Campus, London, United

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1 (14) Stanford Cognitive & Systems Laboratory, Stanford University School of Medicine,

Palo Alto, California, USA

Corresponding author:

Sandrine Passemaid

Address: Inserm U1141, Hôpital Robert Debré, 48 boulevard Sérurier, 75019 Paris, France

sandrine.passemaid@inserm.fr

Phone: +33 (0)1 40 03 36 91, Fax: +33 (0)1 40 03 22 77

Running title: Brain structure and memory in ASPM microcephaly

ABSTRACT

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5 Autosomal recessive primary microcephaly results from abnormal brain development linked
6
7 to proliferation defects in neural progenitors. The most frequent form, caused by *ASPM*
8
9 mutations, is usually defined by a reduced brain volume and is associated with intellectual
10
11 disability. Although many *ASPM* cases have now been reported, structural brain abnormalities
12
13 and their link with cognitive disabilities have been rarely investigated. In this study, we used
14
15 high resolution T1-weighted magnetic resonance imaging in seven patients with *ASPM*
16
17 mutations and 39 healthy age-matched controls to quantify regional volumes, thickness,
18
19 surface area, gyrification index and white matter volumes of 30 cortical regions. We observed
20
21 a consistent reduction of 50% or more in the volume and surface area of all cortical regions
22
23 except for the hippocampus and surrounding medial temporal structures, which were
24
25 significantly less reduced. Neuropsychologic assessment indicated significant impairments of
26
27 cognitive abilities. However, these impairments were associated with normal mnemonic abilities,
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29 in keeping with the relative preservation of the hippocampus and medial temporal structures.
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31 These results show that, contrary to current opinion, the cortical volume and surface area of
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33 patients with *ASPM* mutations is reduced depending on a regionally specific fashion and their
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35 cognitive profile reflects this heterogeneity. The precise characterization of the cortical map
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37 and cognitive abilities of patients with *ASPM* mutations should allow developing more
38
39 focused reeducative interventions well-suited to their real abilities.
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Keywords:

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57 Brain development, human cerebral cortex, hippocampus, MCPH, memory
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3 **Abbreviations:**
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7 ANOVA: Analysis Of Variance
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9 aRGcs: apical Radial Glial cells
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11 APs: apical progenitors
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13 ASPM: Abnormal Spindle Microcephaly associated
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16 bRGcs: basal Radial Glial cells
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18 BPs: basal progenitors
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21 CMS: Children's Memory Scale
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23 CTRL: Control group
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26 CSF: Cerebrospinal Fluid
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28 FSIQ: Full scale IQ
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30 IQ: Intelligence Quotient
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33 IGI: local Gyrfication Index
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36 MCPH: Autosomal recessive primary microcephaly
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38 MEM: Wechsler Memory Scale-III
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41 NECs: Neurepithelial cells
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43 OFC: Occipitofrontal circumference
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46 ROIs: Regions-Of-Interest
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48 SD: Standard Deviation
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51 SEM: Standard Error of the Mean
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53 SVZ: SubVentricular Zone
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56 VZ: Ventricular Zone
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58 WAIS-III: Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale-III
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WISC IV: Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-IV

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1. Introduction

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3 Microcephaly represents the most common clinical sign of various developmental disorders
4 of the brain (Barkovich, Kuzniecky *et al.*, 2005), with a prevalence of about 2% worldwide
5 (Van Den Bosch, 1959). Microcephaly is characterized by a decrease in brain size that is
6 indirectly reflected by a decrease of occipitofrontal circumference (OFC) that is more than
7 two standard deviations (SD) below normal values for age and sex, and is closely associated
8 with intellectual disability (Passemar, Kaindl *et al.* 2013). Genetic forms of primary
9 microcephaly (collectively known as MicroCephal Primary Hereditary or MCPH), are very
10 rare, genetically heterogeneous disorders with a recessive inheritance, and considered model
11 diseases for impaired brain growth. The incidence of MCPH is estimated at 1-3/100 000
12 births in Western countries, and is probably ten times higher in the Indian subcontinent
13 (Szabo, Pap *et al.*, 2010; Woods, Bond *et al.*, 2005). MCPH patients usually display normal or
14 slightly delayed motor development, mild-to-moderate intellectual disability, and in a
15 minority of cases, mild pyramidal signs and late onset epilepsy (Kaindl, Passemar *et al.*,
16 2009). Microcephaly, always present at birth, may already be detectable by the second
17 trimester of gestation.

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20 MCPH is caused by a reduction in the number of neural progenitors undergoing proliferation
21 possibly associated with increased apoptosis among these progenitors (Gilmore and Walsh,
22 2013; Kaindl, Passemar *et al.*, 2009; Thornton and Woods, 2009; Verloes, Drunat *et al.*,
23 2013). In mouse models of MCPH, this decrease results in a variable reduction in the volume,
24 surface area and/or thickness of the cerebral cortex, depending on the MCPH gene involved
25 (Gruber, Zhou *et al.*, 2011; Lizarraga, Margossian *et al.*, 2010; Passemar, El Ghouzzi *et al.*,
26 2011; Pulvers, Bryk *et al.*, 2010).

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28
29 In humans, MCPH can result from mutations in at least thirty genes that nevertheless explain
30 less than half the cases in Western countries (for review, see (Verloes, Drunat *et al.*, 2013). Of

1 these, mutations in the *ASPM* (Abnormal spindle-like, microcephaly associated) gene cause
2 MCPH5, the most frequent genetic form of MCPH, especially in Pakistan (Bond, Roberts et
3 al., 2002). *ASPM* is known to contribute to the genetic basis of brain evolution in humans and
4 other primates (Evans, Anderson et al., 2004; Kouprina, Pavlicek et al., 2004; Mekel-Bobrov,
5 Gilbert et al., 2005; Montgomery and Mundy, 2013). Mouse *Aspm* is expressed in the
6 ventricular zone (VZ) of the neocortex during neurogenesis (Bond, Roberts et al., 2002; Fish,
7 Kosodo et al., 2006). It encodes a protein associated with the centrosome (Bond et al., 2002)
8 and the midbody (Paramasivam, Chang et al., 2007) that, by participating in spindle pole
9 positioning in apical progenitor cells, allows them to maintain symmetric divisions (Fish,
10 Kosodo et al., 2006).
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24 *ASPM* mutations cause a global reduction in brain volume in humans that is usually not
25 associated with major cerebral malformations. So far, MRI data have been published for only
26 12 among the 200 reported families with *ASPM* mutations (Bond, Roberts et al., 2002; Desir,
27 Cassart et al., 2008; Passemar, Titomanlio et al., 2009). Hypoplastic frontal lobes have been
28 described in a single patient with an *ASPM* mutation (Desir, Cassart et al., 2008), suggesting
29 that the reduction in brain volume may be non-homogeneous, with some regions being more
30 affected than others. But no quantitative description, according to region of the cortical
31 reduction in volume/thickness and surface area has been reported in these microcephalic
32 patients. It is thus still unclear whether the cortical map is maintained in patients with *ASPM*
33 mutations, or if some cortical regions are less preserved than others.
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49 In addition to the scarcity of information on cerebral and cortical structures in MCPH
50 patients, the impact of MCPH mutations on cognitive development remains obscure. Mild to
51 severe cognitive or behavioral deficits have been identified in patients with *ASPM* mutations
52 in previous studies (Bond, Roberts et al., 2002; Bond, Scott et al., 2003; Desir, Cassart et al.,
53 2008; Hu, Suckow et al., 2014; Kumar, Blanton et al., 2004; Muhammad, Mahmood Baig et
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1 al., 2009; Nicholas, Swanson et al., 2009; Sajid Hussain, Marriam Bakhtiar et al., 2013; Shen,
2 Eyaid et al., 2005; Tan, del Gaudio et al., 2013). However, the systematic cognitive
3 evaluation of these patients has not been reported so far. The magnitude of their cognitive
4 impairments is thus still undetermined and the possibility that MCPH patients with *ASPM*
5 mutations may have conserved cognitive abilities in some domains despite the overall
6 reduction in brain volume should be considered.
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12 Here, we aimed to determine how these small brains are organized structurally and to what
13 extent they are functionally impaired in a genetically homogeneous cohort of patients with
14 mutations in the *ASPM* gene. To this end, we combined quantitative neuroimaging using T1-
15 weighted anatomical imaging with neuropsychological assessment. We used a region-based
16 approach to measure changes in cortical volume, surface area and thickness, white matter
17 volume, as well as gyrification index in seven patients ranging in age from 7 to 24 years, to
18 test the hypothesis that patients with *ASPM* mutations would display regional differences in
19 brain volume reduction and in cortical area patterning. In addition, we asked whether any
20 structural differences revealed by neuroimaging would differentially impact cognitive
21 outcome.
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43 2. MATERIALS and METHODS

44 2.1 Participants

45 *Patients:*

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52 Seven microcephalic male patients with *ASPM* mutations, ranging in age from 7 to 24 years,
53 were recruited in this study. All patients were right-handed. Clinical and mutational data are
54 summarized in Table 1. OFCs of the patients are given in the Supplementary Figure 1A.
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1 Patients, and their parents if they were younger than 18 years old, provided informed consent
2 to participate. The protocol was favorably reviewed by the ethical committee of Paris.
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5 *Healthy controls:*

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8 Age-matched controls (CTRL) included 39 healthy right-handed male subjects, aged from 6
9 to 25 years and paired by age with patients. The distribution of the subjects according to age
10 is shown in Supplementary Figure 1B. Control participants had no past or present history of
11 neurological or psychiatric diseases. The control group had an average full scale IQ of 109.8
12 ± 12.34 SD. Written informed consent was obtained from all subjects, as well as the parents of
13 subjects younger than 18 years of age, in accordance with protocols approved by the
14 Institutional Review Board of the Geneva University School of Medicine.
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25 **2.2 Imaging**

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28 Cerebral magnetic resonance images were acquired with a T1-weighted 3D volumetric pulse
29 sequence on a 1.5 Tesla Philips scanner (Gyrosan Intera 1.5 T, Philips Medical Systems,
30 Best, The Netherlands) at the time of cognitive evaluation (or within a few weeks). The MRI
31 dataset consisted of a series of 124 coronal slices with a voxel size of 0.94 x 0.94 x 1.5 mm
32 (TR = 35ms, TE = 6ms, flip angle = 45°). Image processing was carried out using published
33 algorithms included in the FreeSurfer software (<http://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu>). Briefly,
34 the processing consisted of the exclusion of non-brain tissue, the automatic segmentation of
35 subcortical grey matter structures, and the extraction of cortical surfaces (Fischl, Liu et al.,
36 2001). Both intensity and continuity information from the entire 3D MR volume were used in
37 segmentation and deformation procedures, thus generating an accurate representation of
38 cortical thickness and volumes. These procedures have been validated with histological
39 studies (Rosas, Liu et al., 2002) and shown to be reliable across scanner manufacturers and
40 field strengths (Han, Jovicich et al., 2006). At the end of the reconstruction process, the
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1 regions was not particularly affected by the absence of some secondary or tertiary sulci (see
2 some examples of cortical parcellation in Supplementary Figure 2).
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5 Lobar volumes were computed by summing the volumes of the cortical regions corresponding
6 to each of the four main lobes (frontal, parietal, temporal, occipital) and to the regions
7 corresponding to the cingulate cortex.
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11 **2.4 Cortical thickness, surface area and cortical gyrification**

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13 Cortical thickness was measured in the native space of the images, as the shortest distance
14 between the white (grey-white boundary) and the pial (grey-CSF interface) surfaces. As a
15 result, cortical thickness values with submillimeter accuracy were available for more than 150
16 000 points in each hemisphere. Finally, based on the outer cortical surface reconstruction (pial
17 surface), local Gyrification Index (IGI) was measured at thousands of points across each
18 hemisphere using previously validated algorithms (Schaer, Cuadra *et al.*, 2008). IGI is a
19 surface-based measurement of the degree of cortical folding that iteratively quantifies the
20 amount of cortex buried within the sulcal folds in the surrounding circular region.
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36 **2.5 Regional white matter volumes**

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38 The parcellation of the cortex was subsequently used to subdivide the underlying white matter
39 volume as described in (Salat, Greve *et al.*, 2009). Briefly, a Voronoi diagram was created in
40 the white matter voxels based on the distance to the nearest parcellation label, using a distance
41 constraint of 5 mm. At the end of this process, regional white matter volumes were available
42 for the 30 regions corresponding to the aforementioned cortical labels.
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52 **2.6 Cognitive assessment**

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54 Intellectual abilities of patients and healthy controls were assessed using the recommended
55 Wechsler scale at the time of assessment.
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Patients

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3 The Intelligence Quotient (IQ) was assessed between 2009 and 2013 using the Wechsler
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5 Adult Intelligence Scale-III (Wechsler, 1997) or the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-
6
7 IV (Wechsler, 2003) according to age (WISC IV: 6 to 16 years, n=2; WAIS-III after the age
8
9 of 16 years, n=3). Two patients (Patients 6 and 7) could not participate in the
10
11 neuropsychological assessment. The pregnant mother of patient 7 had learned of the
12
13 recurrence of microcephaly in her fetus and did not wish her son to contribute to the
14
15 evaluation at that time. Patient 6 was too hyperkinetic and restless to be assessed with the
16
17 Wechsler scales.
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21
22 Full Scale IQ (FSIQ) was calculated from four scores: a verbal score (Verbal Comprehension
23
24 Index, VCI), a visual or visuospatial scale with the use of materials (Perceptual Organisation
25
26 Index, POI), a score of mental manipulation of data (Working Memory Index, WMI) and a
27
28 score of graphic processing speed (Processing Speed Index, PSI). The 4 scores are
29
30 independent and involve specific cognitive abilities such as lexical stock, general knowledge,
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32 verbal comprehension and verbal reasoning (VCI); visuomotor and visuospatial skills to
33
34 examine a problem, organize thoughts and find solutions using cubes or pictures (POI); short-
35
36 term memory, concentration abilities, mental manipulation, planning abilities, cognitive
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38 flexibility, arithmetic reasoning (WMI) and finally performance speed in graphic realization
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40 and visual discrimination (PSI).
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48 Memory was assessed by the Wechsler Memory Scale-III (Wechsler, 1998) and the Children's
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50 Memory Scale (Cohen, 1997) depending on age (CMS: 5 to 16 years, n=2; MEM after the age
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52 of 16 years, n=3). These scales consist of different memory mechanisms: immediate memory
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54 and delayed memory with respect to both verbal and visual modalities, and the process of
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56 learning and delayed recognition.
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Healthy controls

1 The Intelligence Quotient (IQ) was assessed between 2002 and 2009 using the Wechsler
2 Adult Intelligence Scale-III (Wechsler, 1997) or the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-
3 III (Wechsler, 1991) according to age (WISC III: 6 to 16 years, n=29; WAIS-III after the age
4 of 16 years, n=10). Full scale IQ (FSIQ), Verbal Comprehension Index and Perceptual
5 Organisation Index were calculated from the subtests as recommended for all subjects.
6
7 Working memory IQ and processing speed IQ were available for subjects who were evaluated
8 using the WAIS-III scale. Memory was assessed as for patients.
9

10 **2.7 Statistical analysis:**

11 *Imaging analysis:*

12 Based on histological and structural-MRI studies that provided information on dynamic
13 regional and age-related changes in the volume and thickness of grey matter and in the
14 volume of white matter in developing children and adolescents (Chouinard-Decorte, McKay
15 et al., 2014; Franke, Ziegler et al., 2010; Giedd, Blumenthal et al., 1999; Giedd, Stockman et
16 al., 2010; Gogtay, Giedd et al., 2004; Lenroot and Giedd, 2006; Raznahan, Lerch et al., 2011;
17 Sowell, Thompson et al., 2001), we divided our participant samples into 3 age groups (6-11.9,
18 12-17.9 and 18-25 years). The raw data for intracranial and cerebral cortex volumes are
19 indicated in Supplementary Figure1 C-D. To take into account age-related differences in
20 cortical volumes as detailed below, all volumes in both groups were expressed as a percentage
21 of the average of the controls of the corresponding age group \pm SEM.
22

23 We compared the differences in the volume data between microcephalic patients with *ASPM*
24 mutations and controls. To investigate whether the decrease in cortical volume was similar in
25 the different lobes, we analyzed the volume of the frontal, parietal, occipital and temporal
26 lobes and cingulate cortex. Within each hemisphere, we measured the volumes of 31 specific
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1 cortical and underlying white matter regions and, finally, the thickness and surface area of 30
2 cortical regions as previously defined (Desikan, Segonne *et al.*, 2006).
3

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5 All variables were analyzed by a repeated-measures two-way ANOVA (GraphPad Prism 5.0),
6
7 with genotype (controls versus patients) as a between-subject factor, and lobes or regions as
8
9 within-subject factors (since volume, thickness and area are measured in the same subjects
10
11 (Lew, 2007)). Topographical differences in the effects of the *ASPM* mutations were
12
13 investigated through genotype-by-lobe or genotype-by-region interaction analyses. A
14
15 significant genotype-by-region interaction indicates/means that differences between patients
16
17 and controls depend on the region. Whenever ANOVA revealed statistically significant
18
19 interactions for lobes or specific regions, partial pairwise comparisons were conducted with a
20
21 post hoc test (using the Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons) in order to identify
22
23 regional differences in patients as compared to controls. In all analyses, a statistical threshold
24
25 of $p < 0.05$ indicated significance (uncorrected for multiple comparisons).
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31 *Cognitive analysis:*

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35 Within the group of patients, general intellectual abilities (Full Scale IQ, Verbal IQ,
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37 Performance IQ, Processing Speed IQ and Working Memory IQ) and mnemonic abilities
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39 (Immediate or Delayed Auditory/Verbal Memory and Immediate or Delayed Visual Memory)
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41 were compared to search for specific learning disorders using a one-way ANOVA followed
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43 by a Bonferroni post hoc test if specific differences were observed among scores. In all
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45 analyses, a statistical threshold of $p < 0.05$ indicated significance.
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51 The results of the Wechsler tests in controls were used merely to establish the validity of this
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53 group for structural analyses (i.e. to ensure that they were normal) and were not compared to
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55 those of patients.
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3. Results

3.1 Brain volume is reduced by half in patients with *ASPM* mutations and this reduction differentially affects brain regions

Mean values \pm SEM of global brain volumes are presented in Supplementary Table 1. The intracranial volume was strongly reduced in patients as compared to controls (~45% of that in controls, Figure 1A, i.e. a 55% volume reduction). This effect was supported by a significant reduction of supratentorial and infratentorial volumes ($p < 0.0001$ for both comparisons, Figure 1A). However, the volume reduction was stronger in the supratentorial compartment than in the infratentorial compartment in patients as compared to controls (~45% vs 67 % of that in controls, respectively, i.e. a 55% vs 33% volume reduction) as supported by the significant genotype-by-region interaction ($F = 75.45$, $dF = 2;88$, $p < 0.0001$) and the partial pairwise comparisons shown in Figure 1A. Within the infratentorial compartment, the reduction in volume was not uniform in patients as compared to controls (Figure 1B), with the cerebellar volume significantly better preserved than that of the brainstem (~70% vs 58% of that in controls respectively, i.e. a 30% vs 42% volume reduction), as supported by the significant genotype-by-region interaction ($F = 21.96$, $dF = 1;44$, $p < 0.0001$) and the partial pairwise comparisons (Figure 1B). Similarly, the reduction in volume in patients was higher in the total white matter of the brain than in the total grey matter, as shown by the significant genotype-by-region interaction ($F = 9.74$, $dF = 1;44$, $p = 0.0032$) and the partial pairwise comparisons (Figure 1C). Finally, the cortical grey matter was more affected than the subcortical or cerebellar grey matter in patients as compared to controls (~45%, 64% and 70% of that in controls respectively, i.e. a 55%, 36% and 30% volume reduction) as supported by the significant genotype-by-region interaction ($F = 57.2$, $dF = 2;88$, $p < 0.0001$) and the partial pairwise comparisons (Figure 1E). In contrast, *ASPM* mutations caused a similar volume

1 reduction on the cortex and on the underlying white matter (genotype-by-region interaction:
2 ns, Figure 1E).
3

4
5 Taken together, these data indicate that, in our series, *ASPM* deficiency strongly reduces the
6 cerebral cortical grey and underlying white matter volumes by over 50% and has a lesser
7 impact on the subcortical grey matter and cerebellum.
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10 11 12 **3.2 Neocortical areas - but not the hippocampus - are strongly reduced in patients** 13 14 **with *ASPM* mutations** 15

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18 Within each lobe, the cortical volume was strongly reduced in patients as compared to
19 controls (Figure 2A-B). However, this reduction was not similar across lobes in the right
20 hemisphere, as supported by the significant genotype-by-region interaction (Supplementary
21 Table 2A) and the pairwise comparisons (Figure 2B). The reduction in volume was
22 significantly higher in the right cingulate cortex than in the right frontal, parietal and temporal
23 cortices in patients as compared to controls. To determine whether this reduction in the
24 cortical volume was similar in all cortical regions in patients as compared to controls, we
25 carried out a more detailed analysis within each lobe. Mean values \pm SEM of the 31 regional
26 cortical volumes are presented in Supplementary Table 2B.
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41 ***Parietal, occipital and cingulate regions*** 42

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44 In both hemispheres, *ASPM* mutations caused a similar volume reduction in regions of
45 parietal, occipital lobes and cingulate cortex (genotype-by-region interaction: ns,
46 Supplementary Table 2B).
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51 ***Frontal regions*** 52

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54 We observed a significant regional effect of the *ASPM* mutations on frontal cortical volumes
55 as supported by the significant genotype-by-region interaction (Supplementary Tables 2A)
56 and the partial pairwise comparisons (Supplementary Figure 3). In the left hemisphere, the
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1 volume of the paracentral cortex (premotor cortex and supplementary motor cortex, in orange
2 in Figure 2C) or pars opercularis (Broca's area, in yellow in Figure 2C) was better preserved
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4 than that of the caudal middle frontal (posterior part of the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex) or of
5
6 the rostral middle frontal cortices (anterior part of the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, in red in
7
8 Figure 2C). Within the right hemisphere, pars opercularis was significantly higher in volume
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10 than the prefrontal regions (caudal/rostral middle frontal, lateral or medial orbitofrontal
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12 cortices (Figure 2C, Supplementary Figure 3C-D).
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17 ***Temporal regions***

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19 We observed a regional effect of *ASPM* mutations on temporal cortical volumes, as supported
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21 by the significant genotype-by-region interaction (Supplementary Tables 2A) and the partial
22
23 pairwise comparisons (Figure 3). The cortical volume of the medial temporal structures
24
25 including the entorhinal and parahippocampal cortices and the hippocampus was significantly
26
27 better preserved than that of the five other temporal regions (Figure 2C and Figure 3A-B).
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29 This difference was highly significant in the bilateral parahippocampal cortex and
30
31 hippocampus and in the right entorhinal cortex when compared to other regions of the
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33 temporal lobes (Figure 3C-F).
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40 Together, these data indicate that, in our series, the hippocampus and surrounding medial
41
42 temporal structures display a relatively preserved volume when compared to the extreme
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44 decrease in the volume of all neocortical areas in both hemispheres in patients with *ASPM*
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46 mutations.
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50 **3.3 The decrease in cortical volume is associated with regional increases in** 51 **cortical thickness** 52 53

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55 Since the cortical volume is the product of thickness x surface area (Im, Lee et al., 2008), we
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57 sought to determine whether or not the reduction in cortical volume in the absence of *ASPM*
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1 was due to decreased cortical thickness in the regions analyzed above. We observed a
2 regional effect of *ASPM* mutations on cortical thickness within each lobe, as supported by the
3 significant genotype-by-region interaction (Supplementary Table 2A) and the pairwise
4 comparisons (Supplementary Figures 4 and 5), except for the right temporal lobe and the left
5 cingulum. Mean values \pm SEM of the 30 regional cortical thickness are presented in
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Occipital, temporal and cingulate regions

Only two regions of significant decreased cortical thickness were observed in these lobes in patients as compared to controls. These regions (highlighted in green in Figure 4) were located in the cuneus within the left occipital lobe and in the rostral anterior cingulate cortex within the right cingulate region (see also Supplementary Figure 4A, F). No difference in cortical thickness was observed between patients and controls in the temporal lobes (Figure 4 and Supplementary Figure 4 C-D). A few clusters of increased cortical thickness, shown in dark blue in Figure 4, were observed within the right occipital lobe (pericalcarine cortex and lingual gyrus) and cingulate regions (left caudal anterior cingulate cortex, isthmus regions bilaterally, Supplementary Figure 4 B, E-F) in patients as compared to controls.

Frontal and parietal regions

Surprisingly, several frontal and parietal cortical regions were significantly thicker in patients than in controls in both hemispheres, as supported by the significant genotype-by-region interaction (Supplementary Table 2A) and the pairwise comparisons shown in Supplementary Figures 5. Indeed, significant increased cortical thickness was observed in the pars opercularis bilaterally, in the rostral middle frontal, lateral orbitofrontal, pars orbitalis of the left frontal lobe, as well as in the right caudal middle frontal region (in dark blue in Figure 4, see also Supplementary Figure 5A-D).

1 The cortex was also significantly thicker bilaterally in all parietal regions in patients as
2 compared to controls, except for the left precuneus and the right supramarginal gyrus (in blue
3 green or light blue in Figure 4, see also Supplementary Figure 5 E-H).
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7 Together, these data indicate that the observed decrease in cortical volume in patients with
8 *ASPM* mutations, in our series, is not due to a decrease in cortical thickness. On the contrary,
9 the cerebral cortex is thicker in the prefrontal cortex, inferior frontal gyrus and parietal
10 regions lining the Sylvian fissure and the postcentral sulcus, especially in the left hemisphere.
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17 **3.4 The reduction in cortical volume in patients with *ASPM* mutations is** 18 **accounted for by a decrease in surface area** 19 20 21

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23 As the reduction in cortical volume was not related to a decrease in cortical thickness in most
24 regions examined, we investigated whether this reduction in volume could be due to
25 decreased surface area. We measured the surface area of the same regions as above. We
26 observed an extreme and homogeneous reduction of the surface area of all lobes in patients as
27 compared to controls in both hemispheres. In the right hemisphere, this reduction was not
28 similar across lobes as supported by the genotype-by-region interaction (Supplementary Table
29 2A) and the pairwise comparisons shown in Figure 5B. The reduction in cortical surface area
30 was significantly higher in the cingulate cortex than in the frontal, parietal and temporal lobes
31 in patients as compared to controls (Figure 5B). Mean values \pm SEM of the 30 regional
32 cortical surface area are presented in Supplementary Table 2B.
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48 ***Frontal, parietal, occipital and cingulate regions*** 49

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51 The cortical surface area of most regions of the frontal, parietal, occipital and cingulate lobes
52 in both hemispheres depicted in Figure 5 as was strongly reduced in patients as compared to
53 controls. We did not find any genotype-by-region interaction for the parietal, occipital and
54 cingulate lobes and the right frontal lobe (Supplementary Table 2A). *ASPM* mutations had a
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1 very mild regional effect on surface area of the left frontal lobe as supported by the genotype-
2 by-region interaction (Supplementary Tables 2A) and the partial pairwise comparisons shown
3
4 in Supplementary Figure 6 C-D. The precentral and pars opercularis regions (depicted in
5 orange in Figure 5) were lightly higher in terms of surface area than the caudal and rostral
6
7 middle frontal regions (depicted in dark red in Figure 5) in patients as compared to controls
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9 (see also Supplementary Figure 6A-B).
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14 *Temporal regions*

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16 We observed a significant regional effect of *ASPM* mutations on temporal cortical surface
17 area as supported by the significant genotype-by-region interaction (Supplementary Table 2A)
18 and the partial pairwise comparisons (Supplementary Figures 6 E-H). As for volume
19 measurements, the surface area of the parahippocampal cortices and of the left entorhinal
20 cortex, depicted in green or yellow in Figure 5, was significantly higher than that of the five
21 other temporal regions (middle, transverse, inferior temporal cortex or fusiform region,
22 depicted in red or dark red in Figure 5) in both hemispheres in patients as compared to
23 controls (see also Supplementary Figure 6 E-H).
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38 Taken together, these data suggest that the surface area of various cortical regions is reduced
39 to the same extent as their volume in patients with *ASPM* mutations as compared to controls,
40 except for the parahippocampal and entorhinal cortices, which are significantly more
41 preserved.
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48 **3.5 The volumes of the cerebral cortex and the underlying cortical white matter**

49 **are reduced in similar proportions**

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51 To assess the impact of the loss of cortical volume on the underlying white matter, we
52 measured white matter volume in all regions.
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1 A strong reduction in the subcortical white matter volume was observed in patients as
2 compared to controls throughout the frontal, parietal, occipital and temporal lobes and
3
4 cingulate regions (Figure 6 A-B), without genotype-by-lobe interaction (Supplementary Table
5
6 3A). However, upon further examination of the regions within each lobe, we detected a
7
8 significant regional effect of the *ASPM* mutations on the temporal lobes, as demonstrated by
9
10 the significant genotype-by-region interaction (Supplementary Tables 3B) and the pairwise
11
12 comparisons (Figure 6 C-D). Mean values \pm SEM of the 30 regional white matter volumes are
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14 presented in Supplementary Table 3B. Within the temporal lobes, significantly more
15
16 preserved white matter regions were located exclusively in the medial temporal lobes in
17
18 patients as compared to controls. As in the cerebral cortex, the regions with the least reduction
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20 in the volume of the white matter in patients were in the parahippocampal cortices and in the
21
22 right entorhinal cortex (Figure 6C-D).
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29 These data indicate that regions that are more preserved in volume at cortical levels are also
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31 preserved at the white matter level.
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34 **3.6 The Gyrification Index is reduced in patients with *ASPM* mutations and this** 35 36 **reduction differentially affects cortical regions** 37 38 39

40 Mean values \pm SEM of the IGI of the 30 cortical regions are presented in Supplementary
41
42 Table 4A. The local Gyrification Index (IGI) was significantly reduced in patients as
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44 compared to controls in all part of the cortex as shown in Figure 7. However, this reduction
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46 was not similar across regions, as supported by the significant genotype-by-region interaction
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48 (Supplementary Table 4A), and the pairwise comparisons (Supplementary Tables 4C) except
49
50 for the left parietal lobe. Regions with the higher IGI (Figure 7) were located within the
51
52 frontal lobes (paracentral, superior frontal, medial orbitofrontal regions), the temporal lobes
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54 (inferior temporal region, entorhinal and parahippocampal cortices) and cingulate regions
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(rostral and caudal anterior cingulate and posterior cingulate regions). At the opposite, pars opercularis and superior temporal bilaterally were regions with the lower IGI (Figure 7).

These data suggest that *ASPM* deficiency disrupts the gyrification with regional variations. Exploratory correlation analysis between IGI and surface area, thickness or volume did not reveal significant relationship.

3.7 Patients with *ASPM* mutations display preserved mnemonic capacities but mildly reduced or borderline intellectual abilities

Neuropsychological tests could be performed in five patients. All patients had mild to moderate intellectual deficiency (mean FSIQ 51.2 ± 6.5), with an impairment of their language skills (Verbal Comprehension Index = 60.6 ± 11.4 , limited lexical stock, but most importantly, difficulties with verbal or conceptual reasoning), and of their visuomotor or visuospatial analysis (Perceptual Organisation Index = 57.2 ± 9.1). They also displayed deficits in the memorization of new information, had significant difficulties with arithmetic and problem solving (Working Memory Index = 54.2 ± 4), and were very slow at performing graphical tasks (Processing Speed Index = 59.4 ± 13.2) (Figure 8 and Supplementary Table 5).

In contrast, and despite this global cognitive disability, in the domain of memory function, all patients had a mean score in the normal range or at the limits of normality for verbal tasks (immediate verbal memory = 82.80 ± 11.86), and more particularly for visual tasks (immediate visual memory = 90.2 ± 12.03). Their abilities in encoding/learning can be mobilized with a low rate of forgetting in delayed memory at recall tasks (delayed verbal memory = 75.6 ± 16.26 and especially delayed visual memory = 85.8 ± 6.4); these differences were very significant ($p < 0.001$ for each of the four comparisons for FSIQ versus immediate (or delayed) verbal (or visual) memory)). No difference was observed between mnemonic

1 processes (immediate and delayed memory) regardless of the type of memory tested
2 (auditory-verbal or visual memory).
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5 These data reveal that patients with *ASPM* mutations in our series have mild intellectual
6 disability, but all of them have preserved memory functions and learning abilities.
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10 11 12 13 4. DISCUSSION 14 15

16 Our study demonstrates that *ASPM* loss-of-function mutations in microcephalic patients
17 disrupt cortical and white matter development in a region-specific fashion. The 50% reduction
18 in cortical volume is the result of a decrease in cortical expansion mainly in terms of surface
19 area, although this is partially counterbalanced by a regional increase in cortical thickness.
20
21 The volume of the cerebellum and subcortical grey matter was relatively spared when
22 compared to the cerebral cortex and underlying white matter. Within the cortex, the volume of
23 the hippocampus, surrounding medial temporal structures and the underlying white matter
24 was preserved compared to other regions of the neocortex. In keeping with the relative
25 integrity of the hippocampus, the mnemonic abilities of patients with *ASPM* mutations were
26 preserved despite their intellectual disabilities. These results provide strong evidence for a
27 regional variation in the reduction of brain volume and significant differences in cortical
28 arealization in these patients that could influence their cognitive functions.
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46 **Global reduction in brain volume** 47 48

49 The brain volume of MCPH patients is reduced by definition, but to our knowledge, no study
50 has quantified this reduction region-wise. Here, we show that the reduction in the brain
51 volume of patients with *ASPM* mutations affects the cortex and the underlying white matter to
52 a greater extent than the subcortical grey matter and cerebellum. Murine *Aspm* gene is
53 expressed in the ventricular zone of the pallium (Bond, Roberts *et al.*, 2002; Fish, Kosodo *et*
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1 al., 2006). In humans, recent data have shown that *ASPM* is expressed in the VZ, inner and
2 outer subventricular zone (i and oSVZ) (Fietz, Lachmann et al., 2012), and in apical and basal
3 radial glial cells (Florio, Albert et al., 2012) of the pallium. In line with this pattern of
4 expression, our data show that *ASPM* mutations affect structures derived from the pallium to a
5 greater extent than those derived from the subpallium, the diencephalon, the mesencephalon
6 or the rhombencephalon.
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13 **Cortical regionalization**

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18 Our study highlights a differential reduction in several cortical regions in patients as
19 compared to controls, rather than a homogeneous cortical reduction, suggesting that *ASPM*
20 mutations disrupt cortical and white matter development in a regionally specific fashion.
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22 Regional differences in cortical patterning, in particular the regulation of the expression
23 gradients of specific morphogens and their influence on brain size and cortical arealization,
24 have been previously described in both animals and humans (Arai and Pierani, 2014; Bartley,
25 Jones et al., 1997; Bishop, Goudreau et al., 2000; Chen, Fiecas et al., 2013; Chen, Gutierrez et
26 al., 2012; Lohmann, von Cramon et al., 1999; Mallamaci, Muzio et al., 2000; O'Leary, Chou
27 et al., 2007). However, there is increasing evidence that the genetic contribution to cortical
28 regionalization or gyrification is linked to a differential rather than a uniform process of
29 cortical expansion (Chen, Panizzon et al., 2011; Fei, Haffner et al., 2014; Florio, Albert et al.,
30 2015; Lukaszewicz, Cortay et al., 2006; Ronan, Voets et al., 2013; Stahl, Walcher et al.,
31 2013). One could thus envisage that the differential expression of *ASPM* at either the cellular
32 or the regional level or differences in the region-specific rate of proliferation of progenitors
33 expressing *ASPM* could result in locoregional variations in cortical expansion. Whereas
34 genetic factors have been demonstrated to influence the establishment of regionalization,
35 extrinsic factors such as thalamocortical axons are known to impose functional arealization
36 (Miyashita-Lin, Hevner et al., 1999; Rakic, 1988). Since white matter volumes also differ
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1 according to region in patients with *ASPM* mutations, it is conceivable that in the absence of
2 *ASPM*, changes in peripheral sensory inputs also regulate the dimensions of cortical areas.
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5 **Volume/surface/thickness/gyrification relationship**

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8 The present study provides evidence that cortical volume, surface area and the gyrification
9 index are significantly decreased in patients with *ASPM* mutations while cortical thickness is
10 maintained or locally increased in some regions. This indicates that in the absence of *ASPM*,
11 there is not enough lateral/tangential cortical expansion and folding, but intact or locally
12 increased radial expansion. The 3D growth in volume of the cerebral cortex is closely related
13 to its surface and thickness components as well as to its folding. The radial expansion (i.e.
14 increase in thickness) and tangential expansion (i.e. increase in surface area) of the future
15 cortex occur concomitantly and depend on the balance between the proliferation and
16 differentiation of the progenitor pool within a limited window of time i.e. neurogenesis
17 (Rakic, 2009). The tangential expansion of the cerebral cortex is the result first of the
18 amplification of neuroepithelial cells (NECs) and apical Radial Glial cells (aRGcs), which
19 undergo symmetric proliferative divisions within the VZ (Florio and Huttner, 2014; Gotz and
20 Huttner, 2005; Stancik, Navarro-Quiroga et al., 2010; Taverna, Gotz et al., 2014), and later
21 during neurogenesis, of the amplification of basal Radial Glial cells (bRGcs). *Aspm* is
22 expressed in apical progenitors (AP; which include the aRGcs) of the VZ and is necessary to
23 maintain their symmetric divisions in mice (Fish, Dehay et al., 2008; Fish, Kosodo et al.,
24 2006). The differential regional amplification of basal progenitors (BPs; including bRGc and
25 basal Intermediate Progenitors or bIPs), which form a large population in the outer SVZ of
26 gyral species such as ferrets, primates and humans (Betizeau, Cortay et al., 2013; Fietz,
27 Kelava et al., 2010; Garcia-Moreno, Vasistha et al., 2012; Hansen, Lui et al., 2010;
28 LaMonica, Lui et al., 2013; Lui, Hansen et al., 2011), is sufficient to drive cortical surface
29 area expansion and gyrification even in lissencephalic species such as mice (Florio, Albert et
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1 al., 2015; Nonaka-Kinoshita, Reillo et al., 2013; Rash, Tomasi et al., 2013; Stahl, Walcher et
2 al., 2013). The hypothesis put forward by Sun and Hevner in a recent review is that bRGcs
3 may expand the cortical plate tangentially whereas bIPs primarily amplify neuron number to
4 “fill in” the cortical layers that have been thinned out by tangential expansion (Sun and
5 Hevner, 2014). In keeping with this hypothesis, our findings suggest that *ASPM* loss-of-
6 function mutations may lead to a reduction in the amplification not only of the pool of APs
7 but also of BPs (bRGcs rather than bIPs). However, this remains a hypothesis and needs to be
8 verified by studying the pattern of expression of *ASPM* in humans during neurogenesis and
9 analyzing fetuses carrying *ASPM* mutations.
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21 **Cognition**

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25 Five of the seven patients were assessed using Wechsler neuropsychological tests. Our results
26 show that despite their mild-to-moderate intellectual disabilities, patients with *ASPM*
27 mutations have preserved mnemonic abilities. These findings are consistent with the protection of
28 the volume of their hippocampus and medial temporal structures (entorhinal and
29 parahippocampal cortices). Both the grey and white matter of medial temporal regions are
30 significantly protected compared to other neocortical regions in patients with *ASPM*
31 mutations, suggesting possible interconnections between these structures and other cortical
32 regions required for memory retrieval. Our data demonstrate objectively and quantifiably
33 what other studies have previously suggested based on either partial, or non homogeneous
34 neuropsychological evaluations (Desir, Cassart et al., 2008; Kumar, Blanton et al., 2004;
35 Passemar, Titomanlio et al., 2009) the absence of formal assessments (Bond, Roberts et al.,
36 2002; Bond, Scott et al., 2003; Desir, Cassart et al., 2008; Hu, Suckow et al., 2014; Kumar,
37 Blanton et al., 2004; Muhammad, Mahmood Baig et al., 2009; Nicholas, Swanson et al.,
38 2009; Sajid Hussain, Marriam Bakhtiar et al., 2013; Shen, Eyaid et al., 2005; Tan, del Gaudio
39 et al., 2013). As a rule, higher IQ is associated with higher grey and white matter volumes in
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1 all lobes (Haier, Jung et al., 2004; Posthuma, De Geus et al., 2002). Typically, the strongest
2 correlations with IQ involve frontal grey matter volumes (Haier, Jung et al., 2004; Sowell,
3 Thompson et al., 2001), which are strongly reduced in our patients. Intelligence is linked to
4 dynamic changes in the thickness and surface area of the human cortex during childhood and
5 adolescence: children and adolescents with higher IQ show cortical thinning and surface
6 expansion (Karama, Colom et al., 2011; Schnack, van Haren et al., 2014). This is concordant
7 with the reverse observation in our patients. A large number of studies support the role of
8 medial temporal structures, most notably the hippocampus, in episodic memory, in concert
9 with the parahippocampal, perirhinal and entorhinal cortices (Eichenbaum, 2004; Quiroga;
10 Squire, Stark et al., 2004; Squire, Wixted et al., 2007). Because long-term memory is still
11 functional in patients with *ASPM* mutations, promoting, maintaining and improving their
12 ability to learn would be of great interest.
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32 Our study aimed to provide new data concerning brain structure in *ASPM* microcephaly that
33 could help extend our understanding of the role of *ASPM* in human brain development. To
34 our knowledge, regional changes in cortical volume, surface, thickness and gyrification have
35 never been analyzed so far in MCPH patients. Our analysis of variance shows that each *ASPM*
36 mutation significantly reduces brain size, supporting the assumption that *ASPM* plays a role
37 in brain development, and that this effect depends significantly on the region under study, as
38 shown by the genotype-by-region interactions. A limitation of the present study is the small
39 cohort size, although the reported data are all statistically significant. Considering that OFC
40 (ranging from -3.5 to -7.5 SD) appear to be reduced to a lower extent than in other studies
41 (Bond, Scott et al., 2003), one could reasonably ask whether this cohort is representative of
42 patients with *ASPM* mutations. However, it should be remembered that our patients are on
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average younger than in other cohorts and we expect their OFC to worsen with age (Supplementary Figure 1A and (Passemar, Titomanlio et al., 2009).

5. CONCLUSION

Our findings show that despite the mild intellectual disability caused by the reduction of the volume and surface area of their neocortex, patients with *ASPM* mutations exhibit a relative sparing of the volume/surface area of the hippocampus and surrounding medial temporal structures as well as preserved mnemonic abilities. These results highlight how *ASPM* loss-of-function mutations could affect neocortical and hippocampal development and reveal a link between genetics and cognitive behavior in microcephaly.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1

Regional differences in brain volume reduction in patients with *ASPM* mutations

(A-E) Quantification of the overall brain volumes in controls and patients. Volumes are expressed as a percentage of the average of the controls. *ASPM* mutations result in regional differences of brain volume reduction between supra and infratentorial compartments (A), brain stem and cerebellum (B), total grey matter and white matter (C), cerebral cortex, subcortical gray matter and cerebellar cortex (D).

Analyses are two-way ANOVAs followed by Bonferroni post hoc tests (# $p < 0.05$; ## $p < 0.01$; ###: $p < 0.001$). Values are group means \pm SEM.

Figure 2

Regional differences in cortical volume reduction in patients with *ASPM* mutations

(A-B) Quantification of the cerebral cortical volume in the different lobes in controls and patients (AB). Volumes are expressed as a percentage of the average of the controls. The volume of the cingulate cortex was more reduced than that of the frontal, parietal and temporal lobes in patients as compared to controls, in the right hemisphere (B).

Analyses are two-way ANOVAs followed by Bonferroni post hoc tests (## $p < 0.01$; ###: $p < 0.001$). Values are group means \pm SEM.

(C) Color-coded representation of the cortical volume in patients with *ASPM* mutations, expressed as a percentage of the average of the controls.

The reduction in volume was not uniform throughout the cerebral cortex. Regions in orange to brown indicate those most reduced in volume, i.e. the occipital and cingulate cortices. In contrast, green and yellow regions are those in which patients showed a relative preservation

1
2 of their cortical volume, i.e. the parahippocampal and entorhinal cortices and the pars
3 opercularis.
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6 7 Figure 3

8 9 **Hippocampal volume is preserved in patients with *ASPM* mutations**

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11 (A-B) Example of a 3D "cutaway" view that includes a coronal section and an axial section of
12 the hippocampus in a control subject (A) and in a patient with *ASPM* mutation (B) (as
13 previously shown in (Cho, Han et al.; Dager, Wang et al., 2007; Hopkins, Abildskov et al.,
14 1997; Szabo, Forster et al.), highlighting the volume of the hippocampus in comparison with
15 the rest of the brain (both images are at the same scale).
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24 (C-F) Quantification of the cortical volume in nine regions of the temporal lobes in controls
25 and patients (C, E: bar graph; D, F: individual data presented in a vertical scatter plot).
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Volumes are expressed as a percentage of the average of the controls. *ASPM* mutations result
in regional differences of cortical volume reduction within temporal lobes with preservation
of both hippocampi and parahippocampal cortices as well as of the right entorhinal cortex as
compared to the other temporal regions.

Analyses are two-way ANOVAs followed by Bonferroni post hoc tests (###: $p < 0.001$).
Values are group means \pm SEM.

Figure 4

Cortical thickness is maintained or increased in patients with *ASPM* mutations

Color-coded representation of the cortical thickness in patients with *ASPM* mutations,
expressed as a percentage of the average of the controls, using the same code as for
volumetric data.

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Cortical regions depicted in dark blue indicate regions with the thicker cortex in patients with *ASPM* mutations as compared to controls, i.e. regions in the dorsolateral cortex lining the Sylvian fissure and the post central sulcus.

Figure 5

The cortical surface area is the most affected parameter in patients with *ASPM* mutations in all regions except in the hippocampus and surrounding medial temporal cortex

(A-B) Quantification of the surface area of the cerebral cortex in the different lobes in controls and patients (AB). Surface areas are expressed as a percentage of the average of the controls. The surface area of the cingulate cortex was more reduced than that of the frontal, parietal, occipital and temporal lobes in patients as compared to controls, in the right hemisphere (B).

Analyses are two-way ANOVAs followed by Bonferroni post hoc tests (##: $p < 0.01$). Values are group means \pm SEM.

(C) Color code representation of the cortical surface area in patients, expressed as a percentage of the average of the controls. Regions in dark red or brown indicate those most reduced in surface area, i.e. the caudal and rostral middle frontal and rostral anterior cingulate region regions. In contrast, regions in green or yellow are those in which the cortical surface area was more preserved in patients as compared to controls, i.e. the parahippocampal cortices and the right entorhinal cortex.

Figure 6

White matter volume is reduced in similar proportion as the cortex

(A-B) Quantification of the reduction in the volume of the white matter in the different lobes in controls and patients. Volumes are expressed as a percentage of the average of the controls

(C-D) Quantification of the volume of the white matter in the temporal lobes in controls and patients. *ASPM* mutations result in regional differences of white matter volume reduction within the temporal lobe with preservation of the white matter volume of both parahippocampal regions and of the right entorhinal region as compared to the other temporal regions.

Analyses are two-way ANOVAs followed by Bonferroni post hoc tests (#: $p < 0.05$; ##: $p < 0.01$). Values are group means \pm SEM.

Figure 7

Regional differences in Gyrfication Index reduction in patients with *ASPM* mutations

Color code representation of the local Gyrfication Index in patients, expressed as a percentage of the average of the controls. Regions in yellow are those in which the GI was the lowest in patients as compared to controls, i.e. both pars opercularis and superior temporal regions.

Figure 8

Mnesic abilities of patients with *ASPM* mutations are preserved despite their intellectual deficiency

Cognitive assessment of patients with *ASPM* mutations using Wechsler scales [WAIS III and MEM III (Patients 1 and 2) or WISC IV and CMS (Patients 3 to 5)]. Normal IQ values [115-85] are indicated in dark grey and borderline IQ values [84-70] in light grey. Patients with *ASPM* mutations exhibited mild-to-moderate intellectual disabilities with better performances on long-term memory tests compared to their mean Full scale IQ.

Analyses are one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post hoc tests (***: $p < 0.001$). Values are group means \pm SEM.

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TABLES

Table 1

Molecular and clinical characteristics of patients with *ASPM* mutations

	Referred as in Passemard et al 2009	<i>ASPM</i> mutations	OFC at birth	Age at the time of evaluation	OFC at the time of evaluation	Cortical dysgenesis	Education and/or career (age)
Patient 1 *	1-2	c.7782_7783delGA homozygous	29cm (-4SD)	24y	47.2cm (-7.5 SD)	0	Sheltered employment in an office (24y)
Patient 2 #	7-1	c.9319+C9507_delG	31cm (-3SD)	20y	47.5cm (-6SD)	0	Sheltered employment as gardener (20y) Reads and writes
Patient 3 *	1-1	c.7782_7783delGA homozygous	32cm (-2SD)	14y	48cm (-4SD)	0	Apprentice baker (at 17y) Reads and writes
Patient 4 #	7-2	c.9319+C9507_delG	31cm (-3SD)	17y	46cm (-6SD)	Right extensive polymicrogyria	Occupational activity Reads and writes with difficulty
Patient 5	3-1	c.6651_6654delAACA homozygous	31,5cm (-2.5SD)	13y9m	47.5 cm (-4SD)	0	Middle school with special educational facilities (13y9m). Reads and writes
Patient 6	10-1	c.2389C>T+c.6686_6689 delGAAA	28 cm (-5SD)	7y	42.5cm (-6SD)	Focal parietal cortical dysplasia	Special educational setting
Patient 7	2-1	c.77delG+c.6232T>C	32cm (-2SD)	8y	42.5 cm (-6SD)	0	Elementary school with special educational setting

OFC = Occipitofrontal circumference, SD = standard deviation, y = year, m = months

*, # : siblings

Abnormal spindle-like microcephaly-associated (*ASPM*) mutations strongly disrupt neocortical structure but spare the hippocampus and long-term memory

Sandrine Passemard (1-4), Alain Verloes (1-3), Thierry Billette de Villemeur (1,5-6), Odile Boespflug (1,2,4), Karen Hernandez (3), Marion Laurent (7), Bertrand Isidor (8), Corinne Alberti (2,9), Nathalie Pouvreau (3), Séverine Drunat (1, 3), Bénédicte Gérard (3), Vincent El Ghouzzi (1,2), Jorge Gallego (1,2), Monique Elmaleh-Bergès (1,2,10), Wieland B. Huttner (11), Stephan Eliez (12), Pierre Gressens* (1,2,4,13), Marie Schaer* (12,14).

HIGHLIGHTS

- First study of cortical volume/surface/thickness/gyrification in *ASPM* microcephaly
- *ASPM* mutations disrupt cortical development in a region-specific fashion
- Neocortical volume and surface are reduced by 50%, but with regional variations
- The hippocampus and surrounding medial temporal structures are spared
- There is a corresponding preservation of long-term memory in *ASPM* patients

Figure 1
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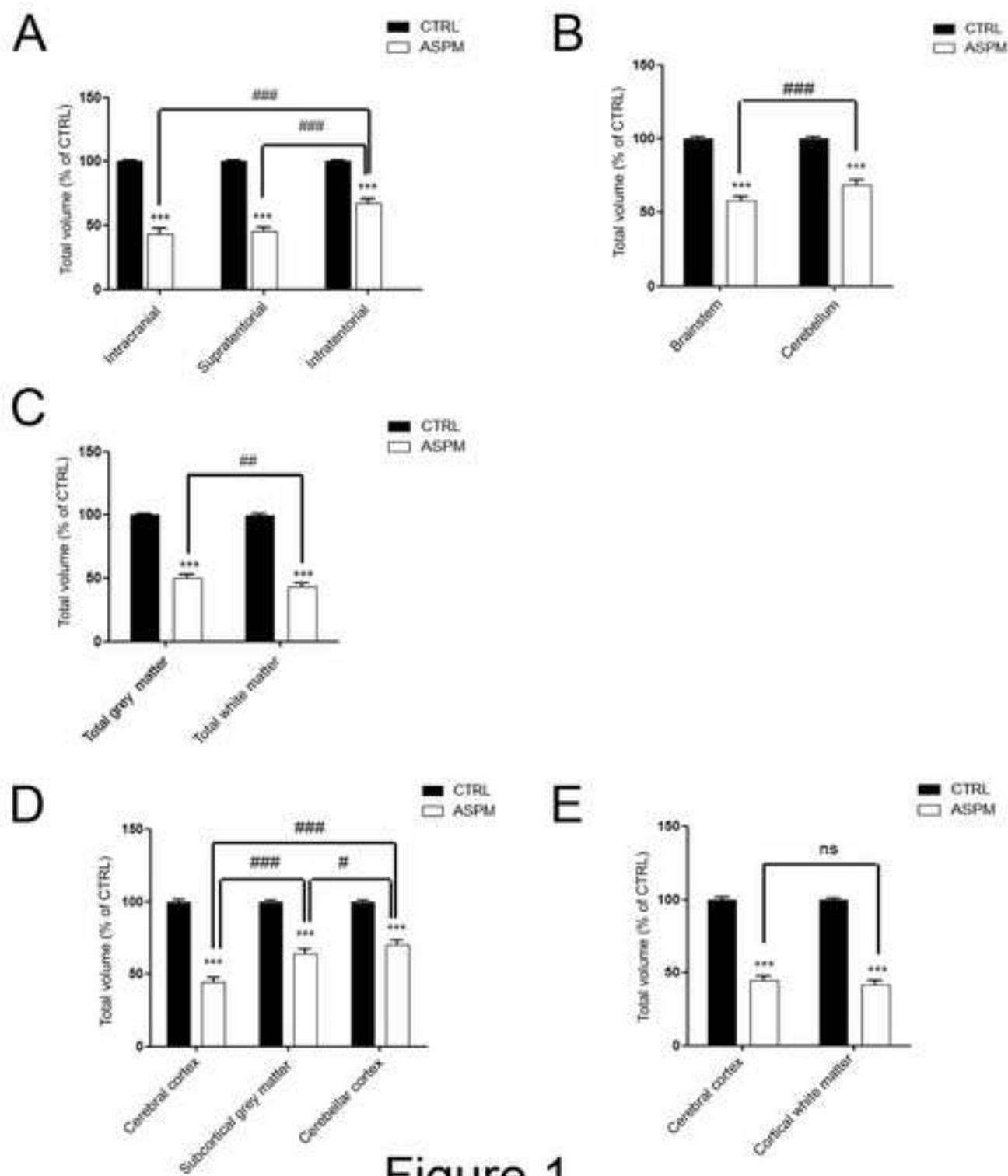


Figure 1

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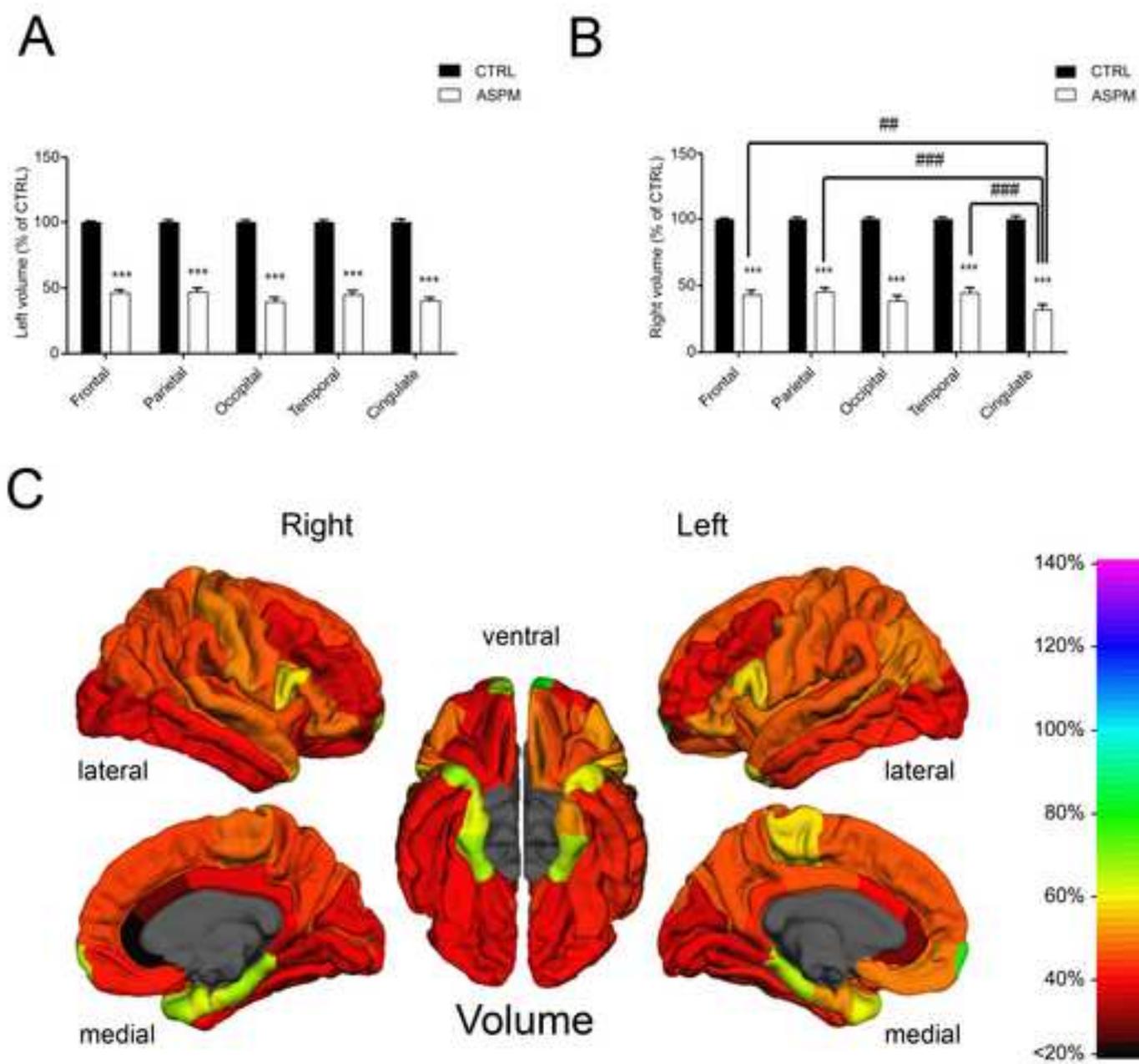


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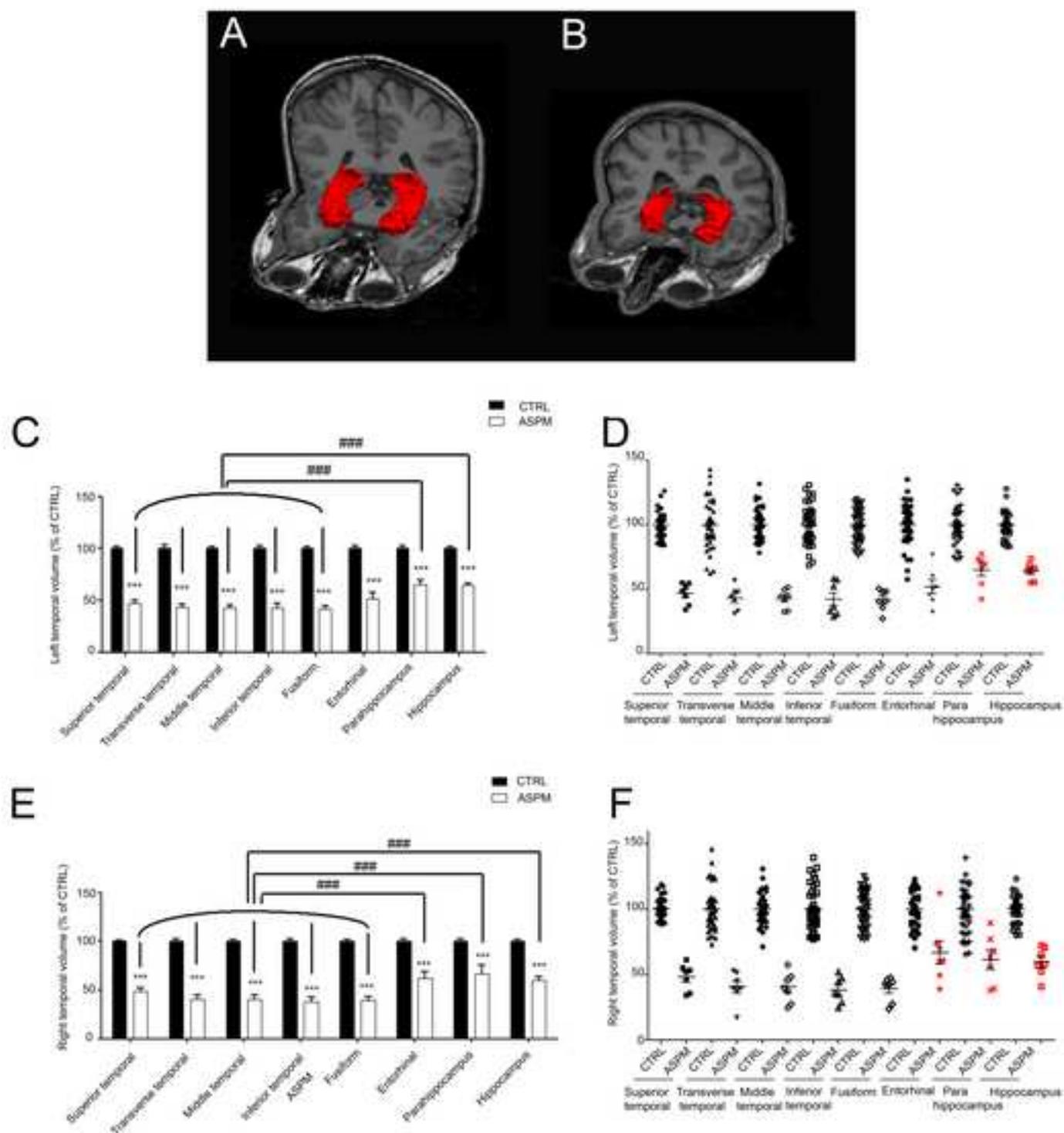


Figure 3

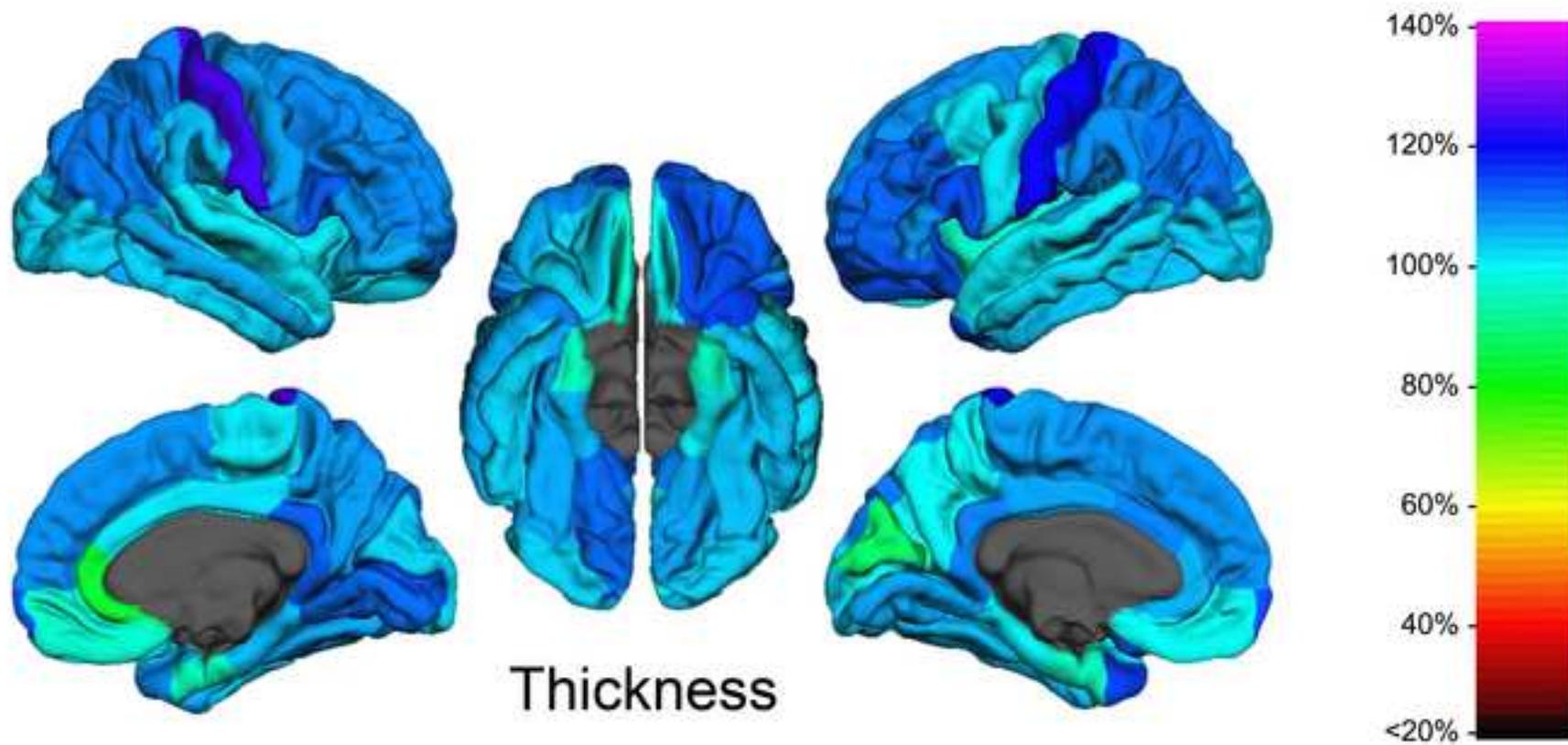


Figure 4

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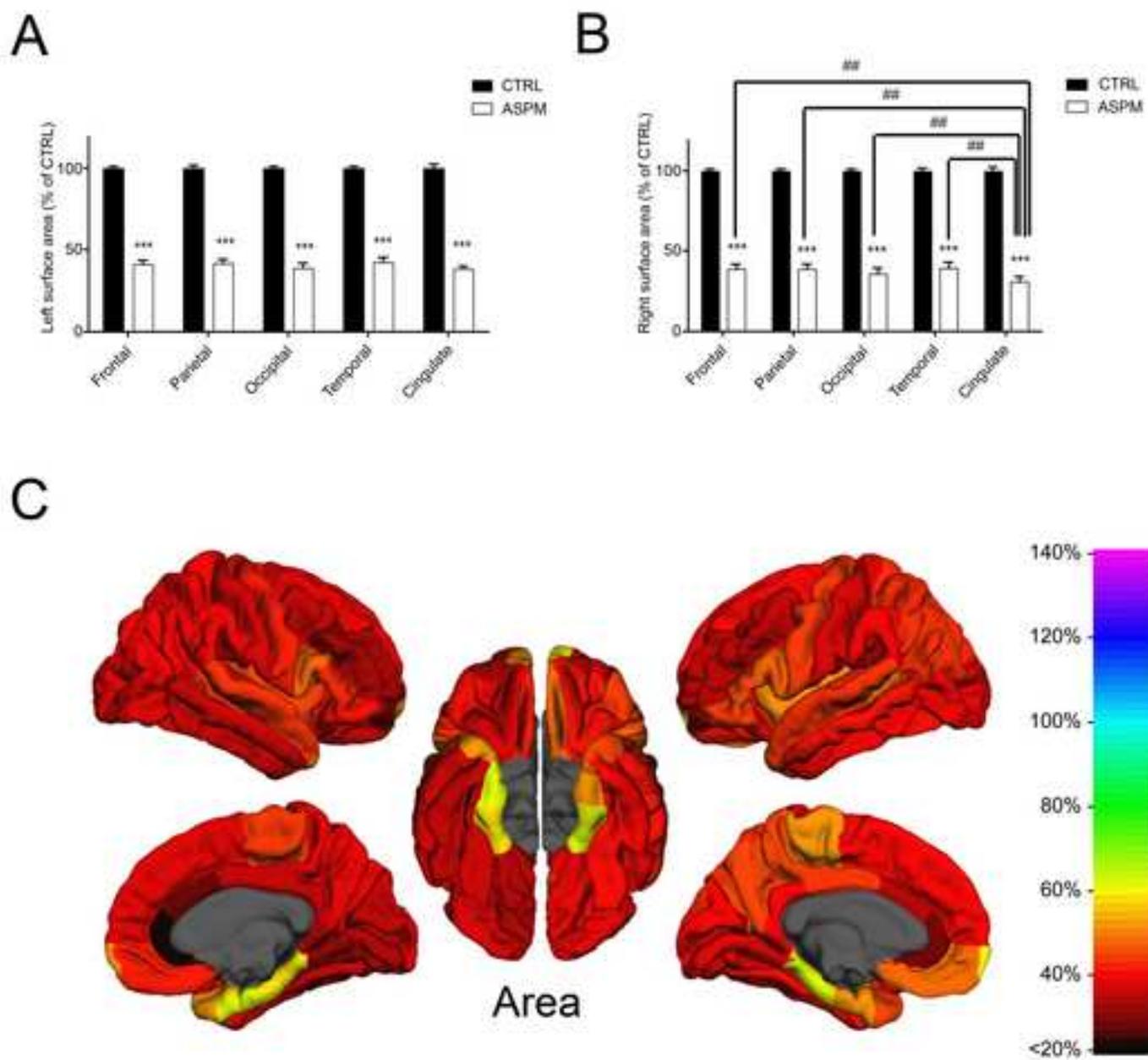


Figure 5

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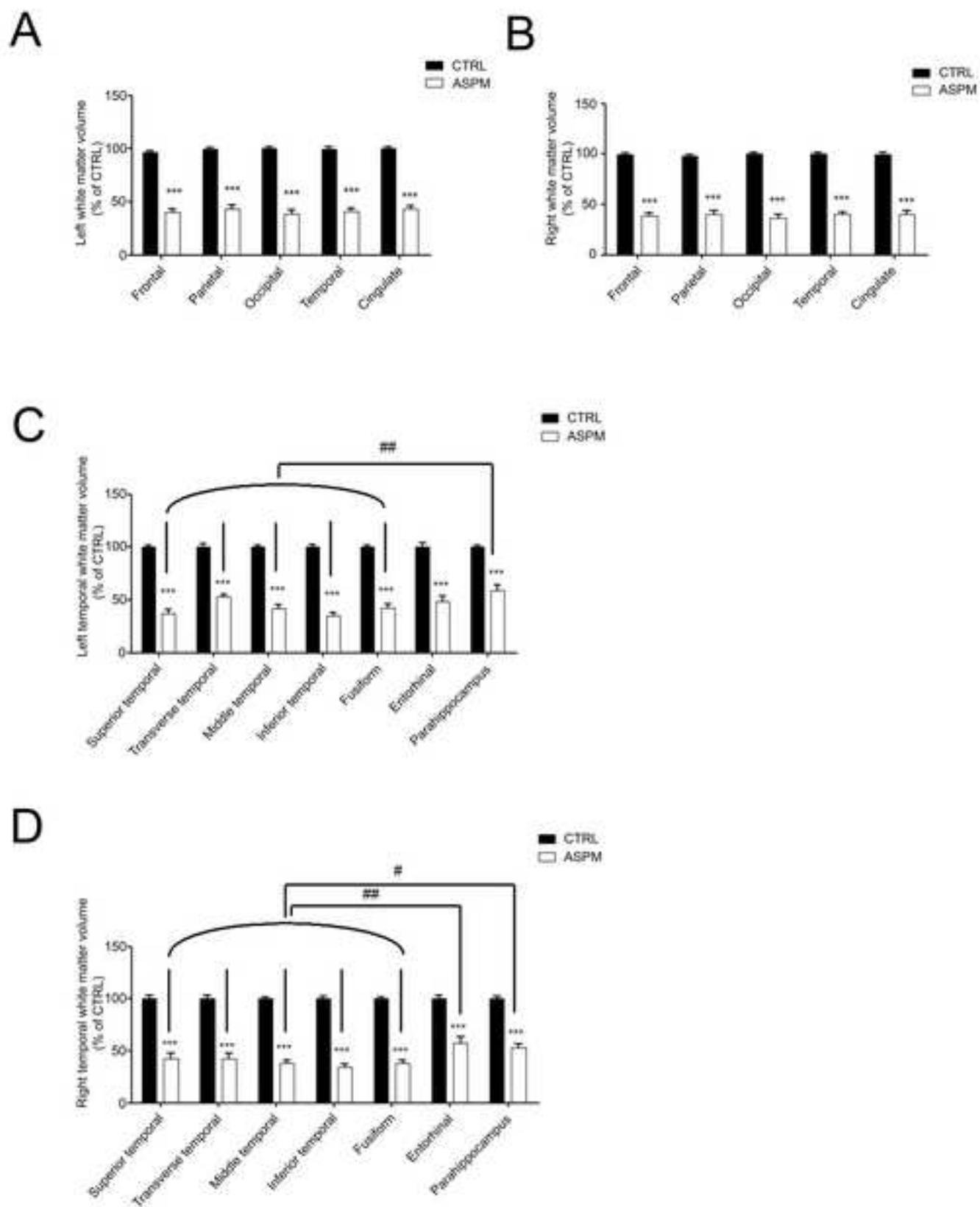


Figure 6

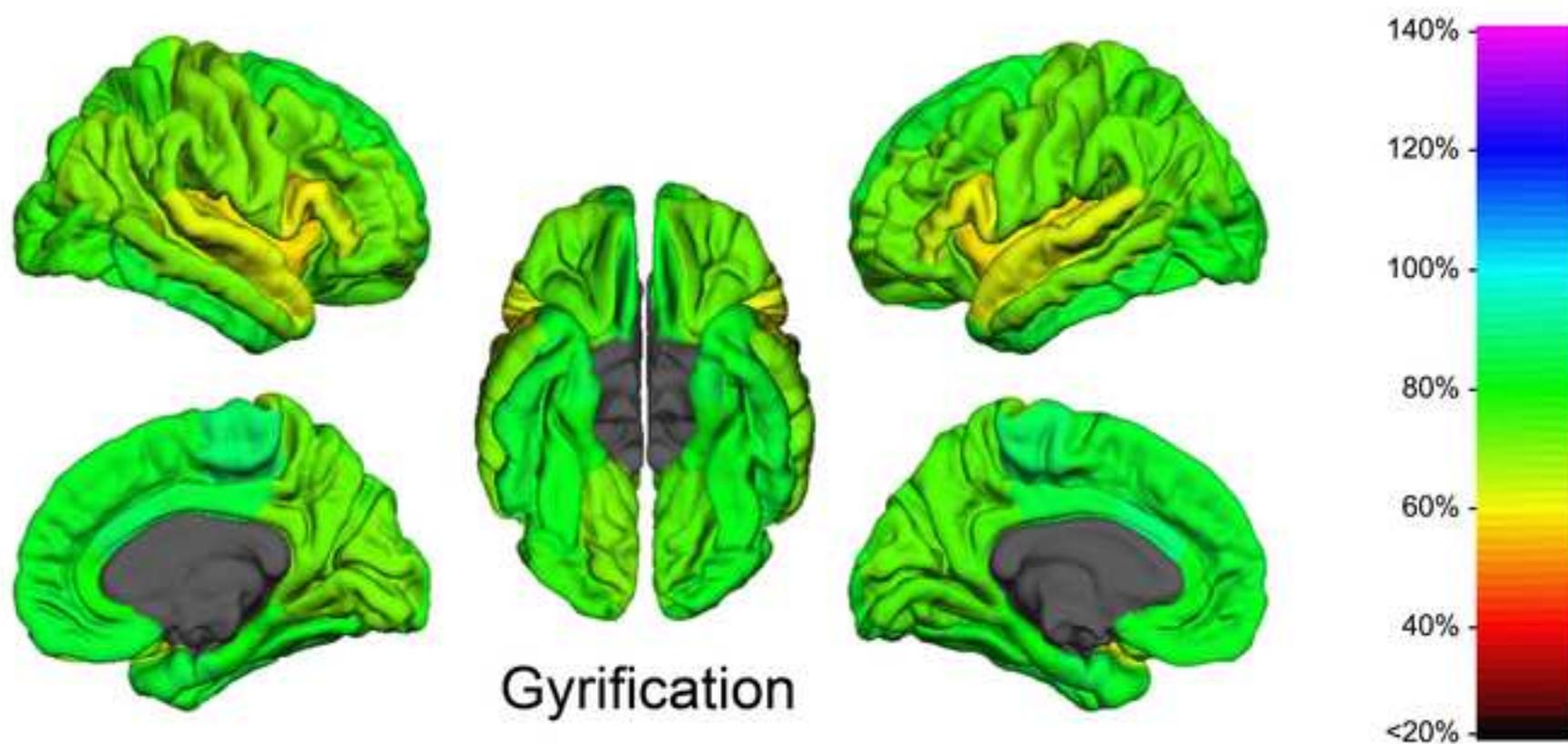


Figure 7

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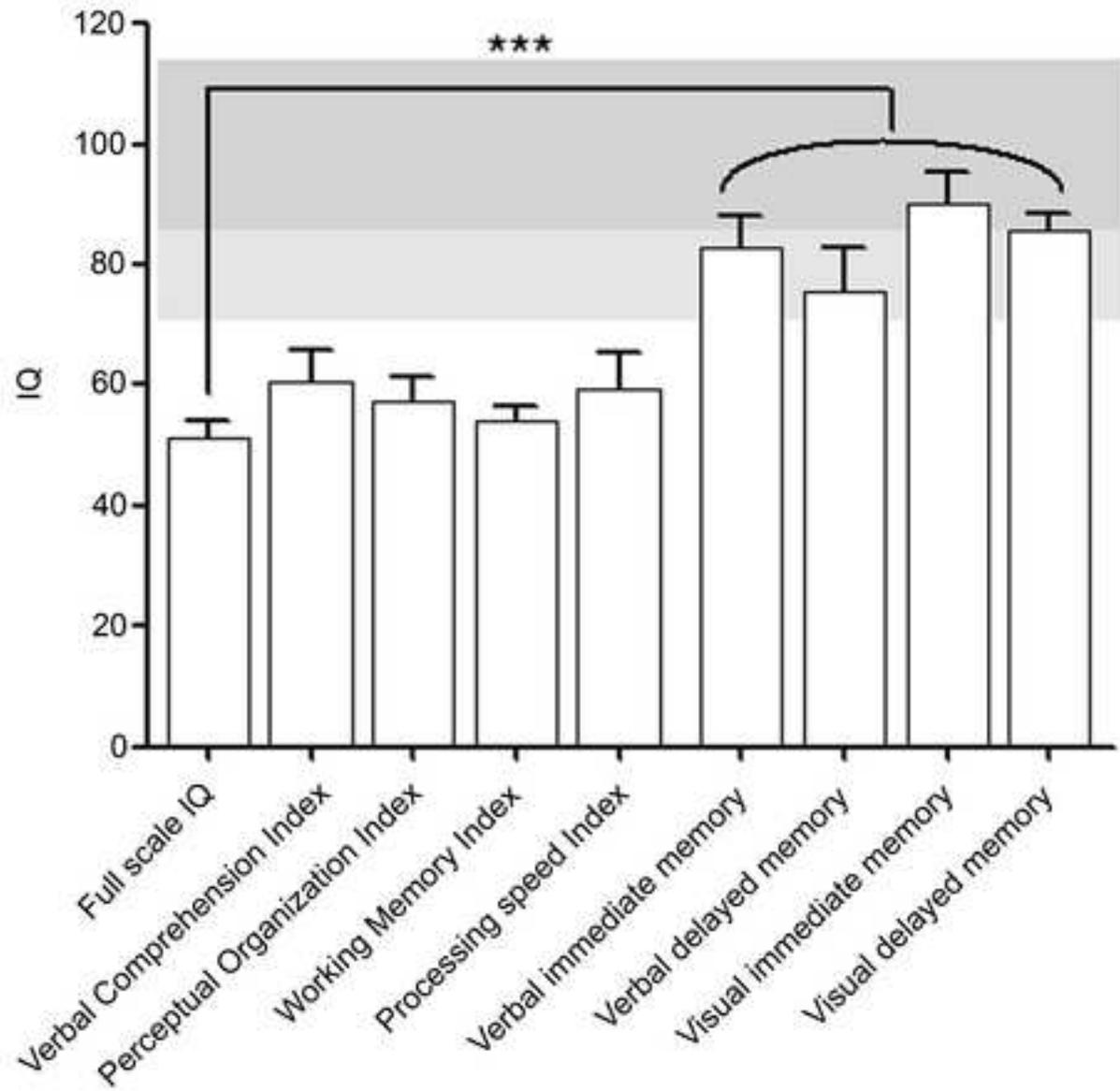


Figure 8