

REVIEW ARTICLE

A developmental and genetic classification for malformations of cortical development: update 2012

A. James Barkovich,¹ Renzo Guerrini,^{2,3} Ruben I. Kuzniecky,⁴ Graeme D. Jackson^{5,6} and William B. Dobyns^{7,8}

- 1 Departments of Radiology and Biomedical Imaging, Neurology, Paediatrics and Neurosurgery, The University of California at San Francisco and the Benioff Children's Hospital at UCSF, San Francisco, CA 94143-0628, USA
- 2 Child Neurology Unit, A. Meyer Children's Hospital, University of Florence, Florence 50100, Italy
- 3 IRCCS Stella Maris, Pisa 56108, Italy
- 4 Department of Neurology and NYU Comprehensive Epilepsy Center, New York University, New York, NY 10016, USA
- 5 Florey Neuroscience Institutes, Austin Hospital, Heidelberg, 3084 Victoria, Australia
- 6 Department of Medicine, University of Melbourne, Melbourne Brain Centre, Heidelberg, 3084 Victoria, Australia
- 7 Departments of Paediatrics and Neurology, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98195, USA
- 8 Center for Integrative Brain Research, Seattle Children's Research Institute, Seattle, WA 98101, USA

Correspondence to: A. James Barkovich, MD,
Neuroradiology,
Room L371,
University of California at San Francisco,
505 Parnassus Avenue,
San Francisco,
CA 94913-0628, USA
E-mail: james.barkovich@ucsf.edu

Malformations of cerebral cortical development include a wide range of developmental disorders that are common causes of neurodevelopmental delay and epilepsy. In addition, study of these disorders contributes greatly to the understanding of normal brain development and its perturbations. The rapid recent evolution of molecular biology, genetics and imaging has resulted in an explosive increase in our knowledge of cerebral cortex development and in the number and types of malformations of cortical development that have been reported. These advances continue to modify our perception of these malformations. This review addresses recent changes in our perception of these disorders and proposes a modified classification based upon updates in our knowledge of cerebral cortical development.

Keywords: cerebral cortex; malformation of cortical development; microcephaly; cortical dysplasia; polymicrogyria

Abbreviations: FCD = focal cortical dysplasia

Introduction

Malformations of cortical development have been of interest to clinicians and neuroscientists for many decades (Friede, 1989; Sarnat, 1992; Norman *et al.*, 1995). In 1996, the term malforma-

tion of cortical development was introduced to designate a collectively common group of disorders in children with developmental delay and young people with epilepsy; a classification scheme was introduced, based upon the earliest developmental step at which the developmental process was disturbed

Received July 20, 2011. Revised November 14, 2011. Accepted December 5, 2011. Advance Access publication March 16, 2012

© The Author (2012). Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Guarantors of Brain.

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0>), which permits unrestricted non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

(Barkovich *et al.*, 1996). Updates of the classification relied more heavily on genetics, and noted that the classification likely would never be finalized because of ongoing discoveries (Barkovich *et al.*, 2001, 2005). Since the last revision, many new syndromes have been described, and many new genes and mutations of known genes have been identified. A new classification has been proposed for focal cortical dysplasias (FCDs), and our knowledge of the molecular biology of both normal and abnormal cortical development has evolved.

This abundance of new information has largely fit well into the existing framework, but a few structural changes and the addition of new syndromes and genes were needed to remain consistent with current literature. Here we present an updated version of the classification. Many disorders listed in Appendix 1 and Supplementary Table 2 are not mentioned in the text because discussing all of them would make the article prohibitively long. The discussions, therefore, focus on those disorders that have conceptual importance whereas the tables attempt to include as many disorders as possible, recognizing that some will inevitably be missed. Hopefully, this update will prove useful for clinicians evaluating and treating affected patients, as well as for researchers investigating these important disorders.

Recent advances in embryology of cerebral cortical development

The cerebral cortex is a modular structure (Cholfin and Rubenstein, 2007; Cholfin and Rubenstein, 2008; Hoch *et al.*, 2009): modules of neurons are induced in a neuroepithelial sheet and subsequently differentiate, migrate and organize into a functioning cerebral cortex. Neuronal induction results from a combination of graded extracellular signals and transcription factor gradients that operate across several fields of neocortical progenitor cells (Sansom and Livesey, 2009). This process is regulated by interplay between intrinsic genetic mechanisms and extrinsic information relayed to cortex by thalamocortical input and other, largely unknown, factors (O'Leary *et al.*, 2007; Rakic *et al.*, 2009; Supplementary material).

Although details of the neural cell proliferation differ among mammalian species, GABAergic cortical interneurons are produced in the medial and caudal ganglionic eminences, and the subventricular zone of the pallial (dorsal) germinal epithelium (Petanjek *et al.*, 2009; Miyoshi *et al.*, 2010; Lui *et al.*, 2011) and migrate tangentially (from the medial ganglionic eminences) or radially (from the dorsal subventricular zone) to the developing cortex. The precise details in humans are not yet known (Lui *et al.*, 2011). In the dorsal subventricular zone, neuroepithelial cells differentiate into radial glial cells, in part promoted by fibroblast growth factor (Sahara and O'Leary, 2009). Whereas neuroepithelial cells divide symmetrically to expand their numbers, radial glial cells divide asymmetrically to both self-renew and generate restricted intermediate progenitor cells, which divide symmetrically to produce two or more neurons but no progenitors. Both radial glial and intermediate progenitor cells produce glutamatergic

neurons (Merkle and Alvarez-Buylla, 2006; Kang *et al.*, 2009). Another class of precursor cells in the dorsal ventricular zone, the short neural precursors, appear to be committed to symmetrical neurogenic divisions (Howard *et al.*, 2006; Stancik *et al.*, 2010).

Based upon interspecies comparisons, the generation of increased numbers of intermediate progenitor cells underlies increased cortical complexity and size (Kriegstein *et al.*, 2006). Thus, the balance between self-renewal and progression to a more restricted state is a critical factor in regulating the number of intermediate progenitor cells, and ultimately, cortical size. The mechanisms that regulate this progression are poorly understood (Elias *et al.*, 2008; Mérot *et al.*, 2009; Subramanian and Tole, 2009; Lui *et al.*, 2011). However, mutations have been found in genes regulating the progenitor cell mitotic cycle in several types of severe congenital microcephaly (Thornton and Woods, 2009; Yu *et al.*, 2010; Castiel *et al.*, 2011; Kalay *et al.*, 2011). Further, human microcephaly syndromes can be classified, to some degree, by the affected cell cycle phase (Supplementary Table 1).

Understanding of cell proliferation has been aided by the discovery that the primate subventricular zone is complex, composed of an outer subventricular zone, a layer of radially oriented neurons that is divided from the underlying subventricular zone by an 'inner fibre layer' that is presumably composed of corticocortical, corticothalamic and thalamocortical axons (Smart *et al.*, 2002; Zecevic *et al.*, 2005). Large numbers of radial glial-like cells and intermediate progenitor cells populate the human outer subventricular zone. The radial glial-like cells are non-epithelial, as they lack contact with the neuroependyma of the ventricular surface (Hansen *et al.*, 2010), but still undergo both symmetric and self-renewing asymmetric divisions that allow further proliferation (Hansen *et al.*, 2010). The expansive proliferation of progenitor cells in the outer subventricular zone helps to explain the evolutionary expansion of the number of radial glial units, surface area and gyrification in the primate cortex, as these later-born cells are presumed to occupy the outer cortical layers (Zecevic *et al.*, 2005; Lui *et al.*, 2011).

Recent advances in the genetics of cortical development

Progress has been made in understanding neuronal migration at the intracellular level (Heng *et al.*, 2008; Nóbrega-Pereira *et al.*, 2008; Stanco *et al.*, 2009; Marin *et al.*, 2010). As the importance of microtubule transport, centrosomal positioning, nuclear transport (associated with LIS1), microtubule stabilization (associated with DCX), vesicle trafficking and fusion (ARFGEF2 and FLNA), and neuroependymal integrity (MEKK4 and FLNA) in neuronal migration are well known (Wynshaw-Boris, 2007; Ferland *et al.*, 2009; Pramparo *et al.*, 2010), it was not surprising that mutations affecting microtubule proteins TUBA1A, TUBA8, TUBB2B and TUBB3 are associated with abnormal neuronal migration (lissencephaly) and postmigrational development (polymicrogyria or polymicrogyria-like dysplasias) (Poirier *et al.*, 2007; Abdollahi

et al., 2009; Jaglin and Chelly, 2009; Kumar *et al.*, 2010; Poirier *et al.*, 2010). Many genes linked to several pathways are known to regulate neuronal migration, but the mechanisms are poorly understood. Knockdown of some genes (such as *Rnd2*) result in migration defects that are identical to those observed with deletions of others (such as *Neurog2*) (Heng *et al.*, 2008). Proteins that function in anchoring of the radial glial cells to the ventricular epithelium (such as *BIG2*; Ferland *et al.*, 2009) or to the pial limiting membrane (such as *GPR56*; Luo *et al.*, 2011) affect migration in a manner similar to those that directly affect migration. Clearly, any classification based upon these genes will require changes as the mechanisms of action of their protein products are elucidated.

The processes that direct postmitotic neurons in the ventricular and subventricular zones are being elucidated. In mice, neurons in the medial ganglionic eminences migrate to the striatum because *Nkx2-1* (human *NKX2.1* or *TITF1*) regulates expression of neuropilin-2, a guidance receptor that enables interneurons to enter the developing striatum. When *Nkx2-1* is downregulated, interneurons are repulsed by class 3 semaphorins and bypass the striatum, migrating instead to the cortex (Nóbrega-Pereira *et al.*, 2008; Hernández-Miranda *et al.*, 2011). The laminar fate of neurons is determined in progenitor cells prior to their final mitosis. Early cortical progenitors are competent to generate late-born neurons after transplantation into older hosts, indicating that they can respond to later environmental cues, but progenitors become progressively restricted in their ability to populate different lamina as neurogenesis proceeds (Lui *et al.*, 2011). Neuronal genes that correlate with their layer-specific neuronal identity are selectively expressed by cortical progenitors. Many continue to be expressed in their progeny (Chen *et al.*, 2008; Lai *et al.*, 2008), and some exhibit very high laminar specificity in the cortex in both animals and humans. Examples include *Ror-beta* (in 50% of layer IV neurons), *Er81* (in 31% of layer V neurons) and *Nurr1* in layer VI (Hevner, 2007; Garbelli *et al.*, 2009).

Newborn projection neurons pause in the subventricular zone for up to 24 h before initiating radial migration, suggesting that the subventricular zone constitutes a unique 'permissive' environment for synchronizing migration by projection neurons and interneurons generated at the same time, thereby giving them their appropriate laminar identity (Mérot *et al.*, 2009; Lui *et al.*, 2011). In contrast, late cortical progenitors generate only upper layer neurons, even when transplanted into the more permissive environment of younger embryos (Lui *et al.*, 2011). Thus, the expression of many early neural genes appears to be 'turned off' as neurogenesis proceeds. These factors may provide clues to genes and pathways underlying malformations of abnormal postmigrational development (formerly malformations of cortical organization) such as polymicrogyria. Misspecification of projection, commissural and association neurons could potentially underlie disorders of sensorimotor or visual function, commissuration or cognition, respectively.

The developing leptomeninges affect multiple stages of cortical development. For example, retinoic acid produced in the leptomeninges regulates the generation of cortical neurons (Siegenthaler *et al.*, 2009). Tangential migration of cortical

hem-derived Cajal–Retzius cells, which play an important role in termination of neuronal migration to the cortex, is controlled by the leptomeninges via *CXCL12/CXCR4* signalling (Borrell and Marin, 2006). The leptomeninges are also essential for the survival of radial glial cells, which undergo apoptotic cell death if the meninges are removed (Radokovits *et al.*, 2009). Finally, the leptomeninges play an important role in maintaining the cerebral basement membrane. Loss of *Zic* activity reduces proliferation of meningeal cells, resulting in a thin and disrupted pial basement membrane in mouse models (Inoue *et al.*, 2008). Reduction of *Foxc1* activity in the leptomeninges impairs the ability of the basement membrane to expand in conjunction with brain growth, resulting in lamination defects, neuronal overmigration and subpial heterotopia formation (Hecht *et al.*, 2010). Thus, abnormal leptomeningeal development may result in cortical dysgenesis via multiple mechanisms.

Discussion and rationale for changes in new classification

Mutations of many genes have been newly described in patients with malformations of cortical development and these, along with the new advances concerning normal development discussed in the previous section, form the basis for this update. The overall framework of the classification remains largely the same (Appendix 1 and Supplementary Table 2) making it useful in everyday practice, while providing a theoretical basis for posing of academic questions. Group I remains 'Malformations secondary to abnormal neuronal and glial proliferation or apoptosis' and Group II remains 'Malformations Secondary to Abnormal Neuronal Migration'. The name of Group III has been changed from 'Malformations secondary to abnormal cortical organization' to 'Malformations secondary to Abnormal Postmigrational Development', as the process of cortical organization begins before the termination of neuronal migration. Another structural change is that Group IV, 'Malformations of cortical development, Not otherwise classified', has been eliminated and the disorders previously listed there have been moved. A third change is that disorders are classified according to their mode of inheritance (autosomal recessive, autosomal dominant, X-linked, polygenic in rare cases, etc.) and whether the disorder is clinically or genetically defined. This change should help clinicians classify their patients more easily, particularly in complicated disorders such as microcephalies. One concern is that the division into genetically defined and clinically defined disorders moves the classification, at least partially, from one based upon underlying mechanisms to one based upon current understanding. With the proliferation of gene discovery, it has become clear that different mutations of the same gene can result in completely different syndromes; thus, disorders defined by gene alone quickly become excessive and confusing. The optimal classification will not be based on genes but pathways and mechanism of protein action, with variations based on how the specific gene mutation alters protein function in the affected pathway. Clinically defined disorders may rapidly become obsolete. However, our current

understanding of pathways and mechanisms of protein action is not adequate to classify disorders on that basis, while genetic knowledge has advanced to the point where the old classification was becoming less useful. This revision can be viewed as an intermediate system that should prove useful while the foundations of the pathway-based classification are constructed. Genes, genetic loci and references for each disorder are in Appendix 1. The references should make Appendix 1 more useful to clinicians trying to make a diagnosis. Some disorders in Appendix 1 have no associated reference, either because they are well known and can be accessed in any textbook (such as ganglioglioma or isolated periventricular nodular heterotopia), or because the specific entities are not published, but have been identified as specific entities by the authors.

Group I: malformations secondary to abnormal neuronal and glial proliferation or apoptosis

This group continues to be separated into three categories: reduced proliferation or accelerated apoptosis (congenital microcephalies); increased proliferation or decreased apoptosis (megalencephalies); and abnormal proliferation (focal and diffuse dysgenesis and dysplasia).

Groups I.A and III.D: microcephaly

Most genes known to cause primary microcephaly (Appendix 1) affect pathways involving neurogenesis: transcription regulation (*MCPH1*, *CENPJ*, *CDK5RAP2*; Thornton and Woods, 2009), cell cycle progression and checkpoint regulation (*MCPH1*, *CENPJ*, *CDK5RAP2*; Thornton and Woods, 2009), centrosome maturation (*CDK5RAP2* and *CENPJ*; Thornton and Woods, 2009), dynein binding and centrosome duplication (*NDE1*; Alkuraya *et al.*, 2011; Bakircioglu *et al.*, 2011), DNA repair (*MCPH1*; Thornton and Woods, 2009), progenitor proliferative capacity (*ASPM* and *STIL*; Desir *et al.*, 2008; Kumar *et al.*, 2009; Passemard *et al.*, 2009), interference with mitotic spindle formation [*WDR62* (Bilgüvar *et al.*, 2010; Yu *et al.*, 2010) and *NDE1* (Feng and Walsh, 2004)] and DNA repair deficit [*PNKP* (Shen *et al.*, 2010) and *PCNT* (Griffith *et al.*, 2008)]. These pathways affect processes—alterations of cell cycle length, spindle positioning or DNA repair efficiency—that affect neurogenesis and, in particular, the cell cycle phases of mitosis (Supplementary Table 1). *WDR62*, *ASPM* and *STIL* are spindle pole proteins, suggesting that focused spindle poles are of great significance in neural progenitor cell division. Spindle poles attach to mature centrosomes; they control the position of the central spindle and, hence, the direction of the last stage of the cytokinesis cleavage furrow (Nicholas *et al.*, 2010). If cell division is perfectly symmetric, it produces two daughter cell neural precursors. If not, the daughter cell may fail to inherit a part of the cadherin hole; as a result, it differentiates

into a neuron, becomes postmitotic, and migrates out of the neuroepithelium (Nicholas *et al.*, 2010). Microcephaly secondary to mutations of *WDR62* has associated cortical malformations (Yu *et al.*, 2010). Mutations of *ARFGEF2* have associated periventricular nodular heterotopia (de Wit *et al.*, 2009) and some individuals with microcephalic osteodysplastic primordial dwarfism have cortical dysgenesis (Juric-Sekhar *et al.*, 2011). Mutations of other primary microcephaly genes described so far do not have obvious brain anomalies other than simplification of the gyral pattern and hypoplasia of the corpus callosum (Passemard *et al.*, 2009; Rimol *et al.*, 2010; Shen *et al.*, 2010), although few have had pathological analyses. No definable clinico-radiological characteristics have been identified that separate microcephalies caused by mutations affecting different parts of the mitotic cycle. Although no human microcephaly syndromes have yet been described in association with excessive developmental neuron apoptosis, *AMSH*-deficient mice have been shown to have postmigrational microcephaly due to increased developmental neuronal death (Ishii *et al.*, 2001). Overall, a great deal of progress has been made in the understanding of genetic causes of microcephaly but not enough to justify a purely genetic- or pathway-based classification. Therefore, for the current classification, microcephalies are classified based upon inheritance, associated clinical features, and causative gene.

Patients born with normal to slightly small head size (2 standard deviations or less below mean) and developing severe microcephaly in the first 1–2 years after birth form a separate group designated postmigrational microcephaly (now listed in Group III), because brain growth seems to slow during late gestation or the early postnatal period after normal early development. X-linked postmigrational microcephaly associated with mutations of *CASK* is placed in this group; this disorder is seen in girls with mental retardation, short stature, and disproportionate cerebellar and brainstem hypoplasia (Najm *et al.*, 2008; Takanashi *et al.*, 2010). Also in this group are pontocerebellar hypoplasias due to mutations in transfer RNA splicing endonuclease subunit genes (*TSEN54*, *TSEN2*, *TSEN34*), prenatal onset neurodegenerative disorders in which significant microcephaly develops after birth (Barth *et al.*, 2007; Namavar *et al.*, 2011). Also in this group is microcephaly due to mutations or genomic deletions of *FOXP1*, sometimes described as a congenital variant of Rett syndrome (Kortüm *et al.*, 2011). The processes that interfere with normal brain development in late gestation or the early postnatal period are not understood. With the disruption of normal brain development occurring late, these disorders may be good candidates for intervention once the molecular cause of the disorder is understood.

Group I.B: megalencephalies

As reasons for megalencephaly are not established in many disorders in this group, many are clinically defined, even if the mutated gene is known. Megalencephaly is seen in 6% of patients with polymicrogyria (Leventer *et al.*, 2010). These megalencephalic polymicrogyria syndromes have been named macrocephaly, polymicrogyria, polydactyly, hydrocephalus (MPPH) (Mirzaa *et al.*, 2004), Macrocephaly–Cutis Marmorata Telangiectata Congenita (M-CMTC) and the Macrocephaly Capillary

Malformation (MCAP) syndromes (Conway *et al.*, 2007; Tore *et al.*, 2009). Nearly all of these patients have some sort of cortical malformation; most have perisylvian polymicrogyria, but the polymicrogyria may be more widely scattered and is sometimes more severe over the convexities. Progressive tonsillar ectopia (herniation) is characteristic. Until the different entities are sorted out, we have chosen to list all patients with polymicrogyria and macrocephaly within a single group, called MCAP (megalencephaly capillary malformation-polymicrogyria). Further subcategories will likely be established based upon genetic findings and associated anomalies.

Hemimegalencephaly is not included in this group because of the presence of abnormal (dysmorphic) cells in that disorder (Flores-Sarnat *et al.*, 2003).

Group I.C: cortical dysgeneses with abnormal cell proliferation

An important advance in understanding cell proliferation has been the elucidation of specific molecular pathways that control proliferation, in particular the mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) pathway, which is important in abnormal cerebral cortical development (as well as renal, cardiac and pulmonary development) of the tuberous sclerosis complex (Crino *et al.*, 2006). The tuberous sclerosis complex1–tuberous sclerosis complex2 protein complex integrates cues from growth factors, the cell cycle and nutrients to regulate the activity of mTOR, p70S6 kinase (S6K), 4E-BP1 and ribosomal S6 proteins. A number of groups have contributed to work showing that mutations leading to loss of function of the *tuberous sclerosis complex1* or *tuberous sclerosis complex2* genes result in enhanced Rheb-GTP signalling and consequent mTOR activation, causing increased cell growth, ribosome biogenesis and messenger RNA translation; ultimately, the result is overgrowth of normal cells and production of abnormal cells in many organs (Crino *et al.*, 2006). This discovery has had significant therapeutic implications in managing cerebral, visceral and cognitive disorders associated with tuberous sclerosis (de Vries, 2010).

A major change in this group has been the proposal of a new classification of FCDs, a heterogeneous group of disorders that commonly cause medically refractory epilepsy in children (Taylor *et al.*, 1971; Blümcke *et al.*, 2011). FCDs are very likely to have many aetiologies (Krsek *et al.*, 2010; Orlova *et al.*, 2010; Blümcke *et al.*, 2011). The new classification and several other works support the classification of FCD type II (FCDII) as a malformation due to abnormal proliferation. Histological characteristics of FCDII are fairly consistent across affected patients and it is likely to be a much more homogeneous disorder than FCDI or the new FCDIII (both discussed in the 'Group III: Malformations secondary to abnormal postmigrational development' section). Several groups have demonstrated that FCDI and FCDII cells (neurons and balloon cells) express different proteins at different cortical layers (Hadjivassiliou *et al.*, 2010; Orlova *et al.*, 2010). The protein phenotype of cells found in FCDII is similar to that seen in tubers of the tuberous sclerosis complex, justifying their classification together; both have progenitor proteins that appear

early in development, are present in deep cell layers, and are similar to those found in multipotent or pluripotent stem cells. In contrast, cells from FCDI express few early proteins (Hadjivassiliou *et al.*, 2010; Orlova *et al.*, 2010) and those expressed are found in more superficial layers (junction of layers I and II) (Hadjivassiliou *et al.*, 2010). Other studies (Yasin *et al.*, 2010; Han *et al.*, 2011) suggest that balloon cells in patients with FCDII originate from glioneuronal progenitor cells, strongly suggesting that defects of neuronal and glial specifications are important in the histogenesis of FCDII. These findings support the concept that cells of FCDII derive from radial glial progenitors (Lamparello *et al.*, 2007) and may support the 'dysmature cerebral developmental hypothesis' that seizures in some forms of FCD may be the result of interactions of dysmature cells with normal postnatal ones (Cepeda *et al.*, 2006). Focal transmantle dysplasia (Barkovich *et al.*, 1997) and bottom of sulcus dysplasia (Hofman *et al.*, 2011), described as specific types of cortical dysplasia based on imaging features, have histological features of FCDIIb and are likely different names for the same entity (Krsek *et al.*, 2010). They have excellent outcomes after surgical resection, probably because their presence and location are easily identified by imaging (Krsek *et al.*, 2010).

Several authors have made the observation that hemimegalencephaly has increased cell densities in the outer cortical layers and white matter of the affected hemisphere, but decreased cell densities in the inner cortical layers (Salamon *et al.*, 2006; Mathern *et al.*, 2007). MRI studies showed that the non-affected hemisphere was smaller than hemispheres of age-matched normal subjects, resulting in the suggestion that somatic mutations affect each developing cerebral hemisphere differently (Salamon *et al.*, 2006), possibly due to incomplete apoptosis (Mathern *et al.*, 2007). The abnormal contralateral hemisphere may explain the poorer than expected post-surgery seizure control and cognitive outcomes (Salamon *et al.*, 2006; Mathern *et al.*, 2007). Hemimegalencephaly is divided into three categories because the appearance of hemimegalencephaly associated with tuberous sclerosis is one of multiple tubers in a single hemisphere (Griffiths *et al.*, 1998; Galluzzi *et al.*, 2002; Parmar *et al.*, 2003), rather than the more diffuse process involving a variable portion of a hemisphere, seen in other neurocutaneous disorders and in isolated hemimegalencephaly. This classification will need to be re-evaluated as more cases are carefully analysed.

Group II: malformations due to abnormal neuronal migration

Several studies have shown that abnormalities of the neuroependyma (ventricular epithelium) are associated with periventricular nodular heterotopia (Ferland *et al.*, 2009). Group II has, therefore, been divided into four subcategories: malformations resulting from abnormalities of the neuroependymal (initiation of migration), mainly including periventricular heterotopia; generalized abnormalities of transmantle migration, mainly including lissencephalies; localized abnormalities of transmantle migration, mainly subcortical heterotopia; and abnormalities due to abnormal terminal

migration/defects in pial limiting membrane. The latter group now consists mostly of cobblestone malformations, although less severe forms of these have been defined in foetal alcohol syndrome and in mice with mutations of some transcription factors such as *Foxc1* (Zarbališ *et al.*, 2007).

Group II.A: heterotopia

Macroscopic collections of heterotopic neurons come in many forms and sizes, ranging from periventricular nodular heterotopia, the most common form, to periventricular linear heterotopia, consisting of a smooth layer of grey matter lining the ventricular wall, to columnar heterotopia, a linearly arranged collection of neurons that span the cerebral mantle from the pia to the ependyma, to large subcortical heterotopia that consist of curvilinear swirls of grey matter originating from deep sulci, which wind their way through the cerebral mantle to the ependyma. Little is known about the genetic and embryological causes of the more complex heterotopia. As the neurons are deposited everywhere between the ventricle and the pia in these disorders, they remain classified as malformations due to abnormal neuron migration. However, as periventricular nodular heterotopia appears to have a different embryogenesis than other heterotopia, and many have known genetic causes, they have been separated from the others and placed in the subcategory of malformations with neuroependymal abnormalities (Group II.A).

Ferland *et al.* (2009) showed that injury to, or denudation of, the neuroependyma (ventricular zone epithelium) is likely an important factor in the formation of periventricular nodular heterotopia (rather than a cell-intrinsic motility defect. This observation clarifies why periventricular nodular heterotopia is caused by *ARFGEF1* mutations even though its protein product (BIG2) is not involved in neuronal migration (Ferland *et al.*, 2009). Similar to subpial heterotopia in cobblestone malformations, which result from a loss of structural integrity of the pial limiting membrane (Yamamoto *et al.*, 2004; Luo *et al.*, 2011), the denuded ventricular epithelium in periventricular nodular heterotopia may cause disengagement of radial glia, resulting in an inability of young neurons to migrate away (Ferland *et al.*, 2009). Neurons in periventricular nodular heterotopia seem to be arranged in a layered pattern (Garbelli *et al.*, 2009); analysis of layer-specific genes suggests that the outer layer of neurons in the nodule is composed of layer 6 neurons (expressing *Rorb*), with the next layer being composed of layer 5 (expressing *Er81*) and the next for layer 4 (expressing *Nurr1*) (Garbelli *et al.*, 2009). Compared with controls, fewer cells in the overlying cortex expressed these three genes in the appropriate layers, suggesting that late migrating neurons are less affected (Garbelli *et al.*, 2009).

Group II.B: lissencephaly

Malformations due to widespread abnormal transmantle migration including agyria, pachygyria and subcortical band heterotopia, are all part of the lissencephaly spectrum. A major change in this group has come from the discovery that mutations of *TUBA1A* are responsible for 1–4% of classic (four-layered, with a cell-sparse

zone) lissencephalies (Morris-Rosendahl *et al.*, 2008; Kumar *et al.*, 2010) and 30% of lissencephalies with cerebellar hypoplasia (Kumar *et al.*, 2010). The *TUBA1A*-associated classic lissencephalies can have a wide range of dysgenesis involving the cortex, corpus callosum, basal ganglia/white matter and mid/hindbrain (Kumar *et al.*, 2010). Patients with *TUBA1A*-associated classic lissencephaly have either p.R402C mutations, resulting in frontal pachygyria and posterior agyria with a cell-sparse zone, or p.R402H mutations, resulting in nearly complete agyria; both of these phenotypes are essentially identical to those associated with *LIS1* mutations (Kumar *et al.*, 2010), suggesting involvement of the same molecular pathways. Other groups with *TUBA1A*-associated lissencephaly had variant lissencephaly with heterogeneous missense mutations throughout the gene resulting in cortical dysgenesis varying from diffuse, often asymmetric, pachygyria with moderately thick cortex to a smooth, relatively thin cortex associated with diminution of cerebral white matter (Kumar *et al.*, 2010). These phenotypes had absent or nearly absent corpus callosum, thin brainstem and severe cerebellar hypoplasia; callosal and mid-hindbrain malformations were most severe in the patients with thinner cerebral cortex (Kumar *et al.*, 2010). Some patients have upward rotation of the cerebellar vermis with a dilated fourth ventricle and enlarged posterior fossa, fulfilling the criteria for Dandy–Walker malformation (Kumar *et al.*, 2010). In our prior classification, these phenotypes were listed as variant lissencephaly with extreme microcephaly, absent (or nearly absent) corpus callosum, moderate to severe cerebellar hypoplasia and brainstem hypoplasia; they are likely the malformation that Forman *et al.* (2005) called ‘two layer lissencephaly’. The clinical phenotypes caused by mutations of *TUBA1A* also vary considerably; however, most affected patients have congenital microcephaly, mental retardation and severe neurodevelopmental delay with di/tetraplegia (Bahi-Buisson *et al.*, 2008).

Group II.C: subcortical heterotopia and sublobar dysplasia

Subcortical heterotopia are poorly understood malformations in which large collections of neurons are found regionally in the deep cerebral white matter (Barkovich, 2000). Some are transmantle, composed of linear (columnar heterotopia) or curvilinear, swirling nodules of neurons continuous from the ependyma to the cortex. Others are composed of multiple nodules of neurons localized to the deep cerebral white matter. In all, the involved portion of the affected hemisphere is abnormally small and the overlying cortex appears thin, and sometimes, microgyric. The histology and embryogenesis of these disorders is unknown, but they are presumably due to localized abnormal late migration.

Also included in this category is sublobar dysplasia, a very rare malformation characterized by a region of dysmorphic brain within an otherwise normal-appearing hemisphere (Barkovich and Peacock, 1998). Histopathology, recently reported in a single patient, showed leptomenigeal and subcortical heterotopia, disturbance of cortical lamination, and marked cortical and subcortical astrocytosis, but no dysmorphic cells (Tuxhorn *et al.*, 2009).

As the early of these features correspond to abnormal cell migration, this disorder was moved to Group II.C.

Group II.D: cobblestone malformations

It has become clear that mutations of any genes involved in O-glycosylation of α -dystroglycan can cause a wide range of disorders ranging from Walker–Warburg syndrome to muscle–eye–brain disease to Fukuyama congenital muscular dystrophy to congenital muscular dystrophy types 1C and 1D to limb-girdle (LGMD2I, LGMD2K, LGMD2M) muscular dystrophies (Barresi and Campbell, 2006; Godfrey *et al.*, 2007; Clement *et al.*, 2008; Hewitt, 2009; van Reeuwijk *et al.*, 2010). The precise molecular mechanisms underlying these phenotypic variations are slowly being elucidated (Hewitt, 2009; Ackroyd *et al.*, 2011; Luo *et al.*, 2011). The cause of the muscular, ocular or brain disorders in these patients is defective formation of basement membranes (of skeletal muscle, retina and cerebrum/cerebellum, respectively), which is related to impaired linkage of radial glia to the pial basement membrane, which is, in turn, dependent upon O-mannosylation of α -dystroglycan (Barresi and Campbell, 2006; Hewitt, 2009), laminin α 1 deposition (Ackroyd *et al.*, 2011) and GPR56-collagen III interactions (Luo *et al.*, 2011). Resulting deficiencies in the cerebral basement membranes result in impaired anchorage of radial glial cells to the basement membranes, causing abnormal cortical lamination and overmigration of neurons through the incomplete basement membrane into the pial layer (Li *et al.*, 2008; Luo *et al.*, 2011). Less severe mutations may partially allow development of basement membranes and result in a less severe phenotype (Barresi and Campbell, 2006; van Reeuwijk *et al.*, 2010; Luo *et al.*, 2011; Yis *et al.*, 2011). No direct correlation has been found between the severity of clinical disease and the particular gene mutation; however, null mutations of nearly all causative glycosylation genes result in severe (Walker–Warburg syndrome) phenotypes (except for *POMGnT1*) (van Reeuwijk *et al.*, 2010). Much recent work has focused on cobblestone malformations due to *Gpr56* and *Col4a1* mutations (Li *et al.*, 2008; Luo *et al.*, 2011) and malformations associated with several genes affecting glycosylation within the endoplasmic reticulum or Golgi apparatus (classified as congenital disorders of glycosylation). Concerning the latter, the two best documented disorders to date are *SRD5A3* (Al-Gazali *et al.*, 2008; Cantagrel *et al.*, 2010) and *ATP6VOA2* (Kornak *et al.*, 2008; Van Maldergem *et al.*, 2008). *GPR56* mutations appear to cause a ‘cobblestone cortex’ and not true polymicrogyria (Piao *et al.*, 2005; Bahi-Buisson *et al.*, 2010); therefore, the term ‘frontoparietal polymicrogyria’, which was the original name given to the cortical malformations seen in patients with *GPR56* mutations, would be better replaced with a more appropriate one, such as ‘frontal-predominant cobblestone malformation’. The cortical malformation associated with *TUBB2B* mutations also has cobblestone-like features including overmigration of neurons through gaps in the leptomeninges (Jaglin *et al.*, 2009). Its proper classification awaits further study, but it is currently classified in Group III.A.3, syndromes with polymicrogyria, the neuropathology of which may differ from classic polymicrogyria.

Group III: malformations secondary to abnormal postmigrational development

Group III.A: polymicrogyria and schizencephaly

Polymicrogyria has been known for many years to be a spectrum of disorders classified under a single name and many discussions of ‘true’ polymicrogyria and variants of microgyria have appeared in the literature (Volpe and Adams, 1972; Evrard *et al.*, 1989; Barkovich, 2010a). However, the term is still widely used to describe disorders that have different causes, somewhat different gross appearance, association with different accompanying malformations or disruptions, and different microscopic appearance, making it difficult to understand and properly classify the disorders (Judkins *et al.*, 2011). Polymicrogyria has been described in conjunction with many genetic disorders (listed in Appendix 1, Group III.A.3). Unfortunately, little is understood of the range of histopathology seen in polymicrogyria, partly because few large scale pathological studies have been performed. The paucity of pathological data stems from polymicrogyria often being located in eloquent cortical areas; thus, it is rarely resected when causing intractable epilepsy (Leventer *et al.*, 2010). Recent studies suggest a great deal of heterogeneity in the gross (Barkovich, 2010b; Leventer *et al.*, 2010) and microscopic (Judkins *et al.*, 2011) appearance of polymicrogyria, supporting the concept that polymicrogyria is heterogeneous in cause, embryogenesis and gross characteristics. In addition, it has been speculated that the underlying mechanisms by which polymicrogyria develops in patients with mutations and infections may be vascular (Robin *et al.*, 2006). Many authors describe malformations resulting from disruption of the radial glial fibre attachment to the pial limiting membrane and the consequent gaps in that membrane as polymicrogyria (Jaglin and Chelly, 2009), but (as discussed in the previous section) others believe that cortical malformations associated with pial membrane defects are distinct from polymicrogyria and are better classified as cobblestone malformations (Jansen and Andermann, 2005; Leventer *et al.*, 2010; Judkins *et al.*, 2011). To determine the mechanisms leading to polymicrogyria, a first step will be to perform histological and molecular studies on resected tissue or autopsy specimens, in addition to developing appropriate animal models, before the differences among the many patterns can be understood.

In this classification, we have put polymicrogyria into four groups: Group III.A. with schizencephalic clefts or calcifications, presumably due to infection or vascular causes; Group III.B. without clefts or calcifications, which may be genetic or disruptive; Group III.C. as part of genetically defined multiple congenital anomaly syndromes (some of these have atypical histology); and Group III.D. in conjunction with inborn errors of metabolism (these also have atypical histology). These groups should be refined as new studies of the pathology and pathogenesis of polymicrogyria are performed.

Although past work suggested that mutations of *EMX2* are a common cause of schizencephaly (Granata *et al.*, 1997), recent work has shown that *EMX2* mutations are highly unlikely to be a cause of schizencephaly (Tietjen *et al.*, 2007; Merello *et al.*, 2008); the authors recommend against testing for this gene, as the results would be uninterpretable. Furthermore, a large population study of <4 million births in California from 1984 to 2001 found an association with young maternal age and with monozygotic twin pregnancies (Curry *et al.*, 2005). One-third of cases had a non-CNS abnormality, over half of which could be classified as secondary to vascular disruption (including gastroschisis, bowel atresias and amniotic band syndrome) (Curry *et al.*, 2005). The authors concluded that schizencephaly is a disorder with heterogeneous causes, many of which are vascular disruptive in origin (Curry *et al.*, 2005). It is unquestionably associated with polymicrogyria of disruptive aetiology. Accordingly, it is classified in Group III.A and by clinical characteristics.

Group III.C: focal cortical dysplasias

Certain FCDs are classified as 'Malformations secondary to abnormal postmigrational development' because evidence supports proposals that they can result from injury to the cortex during later stages of cortical development. Evidence has been published that prenatal and perinatal insults including severe prematurity, asphyxia, shaking injury, bleeding, hydrocephalus and stroke, occur in children with mild malformation of cortical development or FCDI (Marin-Padilla *et al.*, 2002; Krsek *et al.*, 2010). Patients with significant prenatal and perinatal risk factors had more abnormal neurological findings, lower IQ scores, and slower background EEG activity than subjects with mild malformation of cortical development/FCD without prenatal or perinatal brain injury (Krsek *et al.*, 2010). As FCDIII are, by definition, associated with injury, vascular malformation or epileptogenic tumour, it is very possible that FCDIII are caused by seizures or by the lesion causing the seizures. A subtype of FCDI has increased neuronal densities and decreased cortical thickness, with an abundance of cortical microcolumns (Blümcke *et al.*, 2010); the affected hemisphere is significantly smaller than the non-epileptogenic contralateral side. These observations support the concept that FCDI is a heterogeneous group of disorders that may result from late insult/injury to the developing cortex.

Group III.D: postmigrational microcephaly

Postmigrational microcephaly and the rationale for placing it in this section was discussed in the earlier 'Microcephaly' section.

Conclusion

In order to retain its utility for the clinician and physician scientist, both the framework and the content of this classification of Malformations of Cortical Development have been updated based upon recent scientific and clinical advances. Although complexity of this classification has increased, making it more

cumbersome, accurate diagnoses are essential for both clinical and genetic counselling; thus, the authors believe that this level of complexity is currently necessary. Further updates (and, hopefully, simplification) will be required as information accumulates about the clinical, embryological, genetic and molecular biological aspects of these disorders. Unfortunately despite the many discoveries in genetics, advances in this field have been slowed by the limited access to human brain specimens for developmental neuropathology studies, such as cell lineage, gene expression and searches for somatic mosaicism, upon rare malformation of cortical developments. FCD is the exception, and this can be attributed to the flourishing of epilepsy surgery programmes. However, limited resources appear to be available for classical developmental neuropathology, with inadequate networks to facilitate access to post-mortem brain tissue containing malformations of cortical development. Hopefully, such an organization can be developed, and our knowledge will quickly increase to the point where these disorders are grouped according to the affected pathways; the tasks of both future authors and their readers will thereby be simplified.

Funding

Unite States National Institutes of Health under NINDS grant NS058721 (Dobyns)

Supplementary material

Supplementary material is available at *Brain* online.

References

- Abdollahi MR, Morrison E, Sirey T, Molnar Z, Hayward BE, Carr IM, et al. Mutation of the variant [alpha]-tubulin TUBA8 results in polymicrogyria with optic nerve hypoplasia. *Am J Hum Genet* 2009; 85: 737–44.
- Abidi FE, Holloway L, Moore CA, Weaver DD, Simensen RJ, Stevenson RE, et al. Mutations in *JARID1C* are associated with X-linked mental retardation, short stature and hyperreflexia. *J Med Genet* 2008; 45: 787–93.
- Ackroyd MR, Whitmore C, Prior S, Kaluarachchi M, Nikolic M, Mayer U, et al. Fukutin-related protein alters the deposition of laminin in the eye and brain. *J Neurosci* 2011; 31: 12927–35.
- Aicardi J. Aicardi syndrome. *Brain Dev* 2005; 27: 164–71.
- Al-Dosari MS, Shaheen R, Colak D, Alkuraya FS. Novel *CENPJ* mutation causes Seckel syndrome. *J Med Genet* 2010; 47: 411–4.
- Al-Gazali L, Hertecant J, Algawi K, El Teraifi H, Dattani M. A new autosomal recessive syndrome of ocular colobomas, ichthyosis, brain malformations and endocrine abnormalities in an inbred Emirati family. *Am J Med Genet A* 2008; 146A: 813–9.
- Alkuraya FS, Cai X, Emery C, Mochida GH, Al-Dosari MS, Felie JM, et al. Human mutations in *NDE1* cause extreme microcephaly with lissencephaly. *Am J Hum Genet* 2011; 88: 536–47.
- Amir R, Van den Veyver I, Wan M, Tran C, Francke U, Zoghbi H. Rett syndrome is caused by mutations in X-linked *MECP2*, encoding methyl-CpG-binding protein 2. *Nat Genet* 1999; 23: 185–8.
- Armentano M, Chou S-J, Srubek Tomassy G, Leingartner A, O'Leary DDM, Studer M. COUP-TFI regulates the balance of cortical

- patterning between frontal/motor and sensory areas. *Nat Neurosci* 2007; 10: 1277–86.
- Baala L, Briault S, Etchevers HC, Laumonnier F, Natiq A, Amiel J, et al. Homozygous silencing of T-box transcription factor EOMES leads to microcephaly with polymicrogyria and corpus callosum agenesis. *Nat Genet* 2007; 39: 454–6.
- Bahi-Buisson N, Poirier K, Bodaert N, Fallet-Bianco C, Specchio N, Bertini E, et al. GPR56-related bilateral frontoparietal polymicrogyria: further evidence for an overlap with the cobblestone complex. *Brain* 2010; 133: 3194–209.
- Bahi-Buisson N, Poirier K, Bodaert N, Saillour Y, Castelnaud L, Philip N, et al. Refinement of cortical dysgeneses spectrum associated with TUBA1A mutations. *J Med Genet* 2008; 45: 647–53.
- Bakircioglu M, Carvalho OP, Khurshid M, Cox JJ, Tuysuz B, Barak T, et al. The essential role of centrosomal NDE1 in human cerebral cortex neurogenesis. *Am J Hum Genet* 2011; 88: 523–35.
- Barak T, Kwan KY, Louvi A, Demirbilek V, Saygi S, Tuysuz B, et al. Recessive LAMC3 mutations cause malformations of occipital cortical development. *Nat Genet* 2011; 43: 590–4.
- Barkovich AJ. Subcortical heterotopia: a distinct clinico-radiologic entity. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 1996; 17: 1315–22.
- Barkovich AJ. Morphologic characteristics of subcortical heterotopia: MR imaging study. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 2000; 21: 290–5.
- Barkovich AJ. Current concepts of polymicrogyria. *Neuroradiology* 2010a; 52: 479–87.
- Barkovich AJ. MRI analysis of sulcation morphology in polymicrogyria. *Epilepsia* 2010b; 51 (Suppl. 1): 17–22.
- Barkovich AJ, Fram EK, Norman D. Septo-optic dysplasia: MR imaging. *Radiology* 1989; 171: 189–92.
- Barkovich AJ, Hevner R, Guerrini R. Syndromes of bilateral symmetrical polymicrogyria. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 1999; 20: 1814–21.
- Barkovich AJ, Kjos BO. Schizencephaly: correlation of clinical findings with MR characteristics. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 1992; 13: 85–94.
- Barkovich AJ, Kuzniecky RI, Bollen AW, Grant PE. Focal transmantle dysplasia: a specific malformation of cortical development. *Neurology* 1997; 49: 1148–52.
- Barkovich AJ, Kuzniecky RI, Dobyns WB, Jackson GD, Becker LE, Evrard P. A classification scheme for malformations of cortical development. *Neuropediatrics* 1996; 27: 59–63.
- Barkovich AJ, Kuzniecky RI, Jackson GD, Guerrini R, Dobyns WB. Classification system for malformations of cortical development: update 2001. *Neurology* 2001; 57: 2168–78.
- Barkovich AJ, Kuzniecky RI, Jackson GD, Guerrini R, Dobyns WB. A developmental and genetic classification for malformations of cortical development. *Neurology* 2005; 65: 1873–87.
- Barkovich AJ, Peacock W. Sublobar dysplasia: a new malformation of cortical development. *Neurology* 1998; 50: 1383–7.
- Barresi R, Campbell KP. Dystroglycan: from biosynthesis to pathogenesis of human disease. *J Cell Sci* 2006; 119: 199–207.
- Barth PG, Aronica E, de Vries L, Nikkels P, Scheper W, Hoozemans J, et al. Pontocerebellar hypoplasia type 2: a neuropathological update. *Acta Neuropathologica* 2007; 114: 373–86.
- Basel-Vanagaite L, Sarig O, Hershkovitz D, Fuchs-Telem D, Rapaport D, Gat A, et al. RIN2 deficiency results in macrocephaly, alopecia, cutis laxa, and scoliosis: MACS syndrome. *Am J Hum Genet* 2009; 85: 254–63.
- Behunova J, Zavadilkova E, Bozoglu T, Gunduz A, Tolun A, Yalcinkaya C. Familial microhydranencephaly, a family that does not map to 16p13.13-p12.2: relationship with hereditary fetal brain degeneration and fetal brain disruption sequence. *Clin Dysmorphol* 2010; 19: 107–18.
- Beltran-Valero de Bernabe D, Currier S, Steinbrecher A, Celli J, van Beusekom E, van der Zwaag B, et al. Mutations in the O-mannosyltransferase gene POMT1 give rise to the severe neuronal migration disorder Walker-Warburg syndrome. *Am J Hum Genet* 2002; 71: 1033–43.
- Beltran-Valero de Bernabe D, van Bokhoven H, van Beusekom E, Van den Akker W, Kant S, Dobyns WB, et al. A homozygous nonsense mutation in the fukutin gene causes a Walker-Warburg syndrome phenotype. *J Med Genet* 2003; 40: 845–8.
- Beltran-Valero de Bernabe D, Voit T, Longman C, Steinbrecher A, Straub V, Yuva Y, et al. Mutations in the FKRP gene can cause muscle-eye-brain disease and Walker-Warburg syndrome. *J Med Genet* 2004; 41: e61.
- Bem D, Yoshimura S-I, Nunes-Bastos R, Bond FF, Kurian MA, Rahman F, et al. Loss-of-function mutations in RAB18 cause Warburg micro syndrome. *Am J Hum Genet* 2011; 88: 499–507.
- Bernal JA, Venkitaraman AR. A vertebrate N-end rule degron reveals that Orc6 is required in mitosis for daughter cell abscission. *J Cell Biol* 2011; 192: 969–78.
- Bicknell LS, Bongers EMHF, Leitch A, Brown S, Schoots J, Harley ME, et al. Mutations in the pre-replication complex cause Meier-Gorlin syndrome. *Nat Genet* 2011a; 43: 356–9.
- Bicknell LS, Walker S, Klingseisen A, Stiff T, Leitch A, Kerzendorfer C, et al. Mutations in ORC1, encoding the largest subunit of the origin recognition complex, cause microcephalic primordial dwarfism resembling Meier-Gorlin syndrome. *Nat Genet* 2011b; 43: 350–5.
- Bielle F, Griveau A, Narboux-Neme N, Vigneau S, Sigrist M, Arber S, et al. Multiple origins of Cajal-Retzius cells at the borders of the developing pallium. *Nat Neurosci* 2005; 8: 1002–12.
- Bilgüvar K, Öztürk AK, Louvi A, Kwan KY, Choi M, Tatli B, et al. Whole-exome sequencing identifies recessive WDR62 mutations in severe brain malformations. *Nature* 2010; 467: 207–10.
- Blümcke I, Pieper T, Pauli E, Hildebrandt M, Kudernatsch M, Winkler P, et al. A distinct variant of focal cortical dysplasia type I characterised by magnetic resonance imaging and neuropathological examination in children with severe epilepsies. *Epileptic Disord* 2010; 12: 172–80.
- Blümcke I, Thom M, Aronica E, Armstrong D, Vinters HV, Palmini A, et al. The clinicopathologic spectrum of focal cortical dysplasias: a consensus classification proposed by an ad hoc Task Force of the ILAE Diagnostic Methods Commission. *Epilepsia* 2011; 52: 158–74.
- Bond J, Scott S, Hampshire DJ, Springell K, Corry P, Abramowicz MJ, et al. Protein-truncating mutations in ASPM cause variable reduction in brain size. *Am J Hum Genet* 2003; 73: 1170–7.
- Bond J, Roberts E, Springell K, Lizarraga SB, Scott S, Higgins J, et al. A centrosomal mechanism involving CDK5RAP2 and CENPJ controls brain size. *Nat Genet* 2005; 37: 353–5.
- Bonneau D, Toutain A, Laquerrier A, Marret S, Saugier-Verber P, Barthez M, et al. X-linked lissencephaly with absent corpus callosum and ambiguous genitalia (XLAG): clinical, magnetic resonance imaging, and neuropathological findings. *Ann Neurol* 2002; 51: 340–9.
- Borck G, Wunram H, Steiert A, Volk A, Körber F, Roters S, et al. A homozygous RAB3GAP2 mutation causes Warburg Micro syndrome. *Hum Genet* 2011; 129: 45–50.
- Borrell V, Marin O. Meninges control tangential migration of hem-derived Cajal-Retzius cells via CXCL12/CXCR4 signaling. *Nat Neurosci* 2006; 9: 1284–93.
- Boycott KM, Flavell S, Bureau A, Glass HC, Fujiwara TM, Wirrell E, et al. Homozygous deletion of the very low density lipoprotein receptor gene causes autosomal recessive cerebellar hypoplasia with cerebral gyral simplification. *Am J Hum Genet* 2005; 77: 477–83.
- Briggs TA, Wolf NI, D'Arrigo S, Ebinger F, Harting I, Dobyns WB, et al. Band-like intracranial calcification with simplified gyration and polymicrogyria: a distinct “pseudo-TORCH” phenotype. *Am J Med Genet A* 2008; 146A: 3173–80.
- Brooks AS, Bertoli-Avella AM, Burzynski GM, Breedveld GJ, Osinga J, Boven LG, et al. Homozygous nonsense mutations in KIAA1279 are associated with malformations of the central and enteric nervous systems. *Am J Hum Genet* 2005; 77: 120–6.
- Brunetti-Piéri N, Paciorkowski AR, Ciccone R, Mina ED, Bonaglia MC, Borgatti R, et al. Duplications of FOXP1 in 14q12 are associated with developmental epilepsy, mental retardation, and severe speech impairment. *Eur J Hum Genet* 2011; 19: 102–7.

- Budny B, Chen W, Omran H, Fliegauf M, Tzschach A, Wisniewska M, et al. A novel X-linked recessive mental retardation syndrome comprising macrocephaly and ciliary dysfunction is allelic to oral-facial-digital type I syndrome. *Hum Genet* 2006; 120: 171–8.
- Cantagrel V, Lefeber DJ, Ng BG, Guan Z, Silhavy JL, Bielas SL, et al. SRD5A3 is required for converting polyprenol to dolichol and is mutated in a congenital glycosylation disorder. *Cell* 2010; 142: 203–17.
- Cardoso C, Boys A, Parrini E, Mignon-Ravix C, McMahon J, Khantane S, et al. Periventricular heterotopia, mental retardation, and epilepsy associated with 5q14.3-q15 deletion. *Neurology* 2009; 72: 784–92.
- Castiel A, Danieli MM, David A, Moshkovitz S, Aplan PD, Kirsch IR, et al. The Stil protein regulates centrosome integrity and mitosis through suppression of Chfr. *J Cell Science* 2011; 124: 532–9.
- Celentano C, Zannoli R, Buoni S, Domizio S, Sabatino G, Colosimo C, et al. Classical lissencephaly associated with dolichocephaly, hair and nail defect. *Brain Dev* 2006; 28: 392–4.
- Cepeda C, André VM, Levine MS, Salamon N, Miyata H, Vinters HV, et al. Epileptogenesis in pediatric cortical dysplasia: the dysmature cerebral developmental hypothesis. *Epilepsy & Behavior* 2006; 9: 219–35.
- Chang BS, Apse KA, Caraballo R, Cross JH, McLellan A, Jacobson RD, et al. A familial syndrome of unilateral polymicrogyria affecting the right hemisphere. *Neurology* 2006; 66: 133–5.
- Chang BS, Piao X, Giannini C, Cascino GD, Scheffer I, Woods CG, et al. Bilateral generalized polymicrogyria (BGP): a distinct syndrome of cortical malformation. *Neurology* 2004; 62: 1722–8.
- Chen B, Wang SS, Hattox AM, Rayburn H, Nelson SB, McConnell SK. The *Fezf2-Ctip2* genetic pathway regulates the fate choice of subcortical projection neurons in the developing cerebral cortex. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2008; 105: 11382–7.
- Chizhikov VV, Lindgren AG, Mishima Y, Roberts RW, Aldinger KA, Miesegaes GR, et al. *Lmx1a* regulates fates and location of cells originating from the cerebellar rhombic lip and telencephalic cortical hem. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2010; 107: 10725–30.
- Cholfin JA, Rubenstein JL. Patternin of frontal cortex subdivisions by *Fgf17*. *Proc Nat Acad Sci USA* 2007; 104: 7652–7.
- Cholfin JA, Rubenstein JL. Frontal cortex subdivision patterning is coordinately regulated by *Fgf8*, *Fgf17*, and *Emx2*. *J Comp Neurol* 2008; 509: 144–55.
- Clement E, Mercuri E, Godfrey C, Smith J, Robb S, Kinali M, et al. Brain involvement in muscular dystrophies with defective dystroglycan glycosylation. *Ann Neurol* 2008; 64: 573–82.
- Conway RL, Pressman BD, Dobyns WB, Danielpour M, Lee J, Sanchez-Lara PA, et al. Neuroimaging findings in macrocephaly-capillary malformation: a longitudinal study of 17 patients. *Am J Med Genet A* 2007; 143A: 2981–3008.
- Corona-Rivera J, Corona-Rivera E, Romero-Velarde E, Hernández-Rocha J, Bobadilla-Morales L, Corona-Rivera A. Report and review of the fetal brain disruption sequence. *Eur J Pediatr* 2001; 160: 664–7.
- Cramer SC, Schaefer PW, Krishnamoorthy KS. Microgyria in the distribution of the middle cerebral artery in a patient with DiGeorge syndrome. *J Child Neurol* 1996; 11: 494–7.
- Crino PB, Nathanson KL, Henske EP. The tuberous sclerosis complex. *N Engl J Med* 2006; 355: 1345–56.
- Curry CJ, Lammer EJ, Nelson V, Shaw GM. Schizencephaly: heterogeneous etiologies in a population of 4 million California births. *Am J Med Genet A* 2005; 137: 181–9.
- Darvish H, Esmaeeli-Nieh S, Monajemi GB, Mohseni M, Ghasemi-Firouzabadi S, Abedini SS, et al. A clinical and molecular genetic study of 112 Iranian families with primary microcephaly. *J Med Genet* 2010; 47: 823–8.
- de Vries P. Targeted treatments for cognitive and neurodevelopmental disorders in tuberous sclerosis complex. *Neurotherapeutics* 2010; 7: 275–82.
- de Wit M, de Coo I, Halley D, Lequin M, Mancini G. Movement disorder and neuronal migration disorder due to ARFGF2 mutation. *Neurogenetics* 2009; 10: 333–6.
- Deconinck N, Duprez T, des Portes V, Beldjord C, Ghariani S, Sindic CJ, et al. Familial bilateral medial parietooccipital band heterotopia not related to *DCX* or *LIS1* gene defects. *Neuropediatrics* 2003; 34: 146–8.
- Desir J, Cassart M, David P, Van Bogaert P, Abramowicz M. Primary microcephaly with ASPM mutation shows simplified cortical gyration with antero-posterior gradient pre- and post-natally. *Am J Med Genet A* 2008; 146A: 1439–43.
- Dixon-Salazar T, Silhavy JL, Marsh SE, Louie CM, Scott LC, Gururaj A, et al. Mutations in the *AHI1* gene, encoding joubertin, cause Joubert syndrome with cortical polymicrogyria. *Am J Hum Genet* 2004; 75: 979–87.
- Dobyns WB, Curry CJR, Hoyme HE, Turlington L, Ledbetter DH. Clinical and molecular diagnosis of Miller-Dieker syndrome. *Am J Hum Genet* 1991; 48: 584–94.
- Dobyns WB, Kirkpatrick JB, Hittner HM, Roberts RM, Kretzer FL. Syndromes with lissencephaly. 2: Walker-Warburg and cerebral ocular muscular syndromes and a new syndrome with Type 2 lissencephaly. *Am J Med Genet* 1985; 22: 157–95.
- Dobyns WB, Mirzaa G, Christian SL, Petras K, Roseberry J, Clark GD, et al. Consistent chromosome abnormalities identify novel polymicrogyria loci in 1p36.3, 2p16.1 – p23.1, 4q21.21 – q22.1, 6q26 – q27, and 21q2. *Am J Med Genet A* 2008; 146A: 1637–54.
- Dobyns W, Reiner O, Carozzo R, Ledbetter D. Lissencephaly: a human brain malformation associated with deletion of the *LIS1* gene located at chromosome 17p13. *J Am Med Assoc* 1993; 270: 2838–42.
- Dobyns WB, Truwit CL, Ross ME, Matsumotomo N, Pilz DT, Ledbetter DH, et al. Differences in the gyral pattern distinguish chromosome 17-linked and X-linked lissencephaly. *Neurology* 1999; 53: 270–7.
- Dobyns WB. Walker-Warburg and other cobblestone lissencephaly syndromes: 1995 update. In: Fukuyama Y, Osawa M, Saito K, editors. *Congenital muscular dystrophies*. Amsterdam: Elsevier; 1997. p. 89–98.
- Elias LAB, Potter GB, Kriegstein AR. A time and a place for *Nkx2-1* in interneuron specification and migration. *Neuron* 2008; 59: 679–82.
- Evrard P, de Saint-Georges P, Kadhim HJ, Gadioux J-F. Pathology of prenatal encephalopathies. In: French J, editor. *Child neurology and developmental disabilities*. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes; 1989. p. 153–76.
- Feng Y, Walsh CA. Mitotic spindle regulation by *Nde1* controls cerebral cortical size. *Neuron* 2004; 44: 279–93.
- Ferland RJ, Batiz LF, Neal J, Lian G, Bundock E, Lu J, et al. Disruption of neural progenitors along the ventricular and subventricular zones in periventricular heterotopia. *Hum Mol Genet* 2009; 18: 497–516.
- Ferland R, Gaitanis J, Apse K, Tantravahi U, Walsh CA, Sheen V. Periventricular nodular heterotopia and Williams syndrome. *Am J Med Genet A* 2006; 140: 1305–11.
- Fish JL, Kosodo Y, Enard W, Pääbo S, Huttner WB. *Aspm* specifically maintains symmetric proliferative divisions of neuroepithelial cells. *Proc Nat Acad Sci USA* 2006; 103: 10438–43.
- Flores-Sarnat L. Hemimegalencephaly. I. Genetic, clinical, and imaging aspects. *J Child Neurol* 2002; 17: 373–84.
- Flores-Sarnat L, Sarnat H, Davila-Gutierrez G, Alvarez A. Hemimegalencephaly: part 2. Neuropathology suggests a disorder of cellular lineage. *J Child Neurol* 2003; 18: 776–85.
- Forman MS, Squier W, Dobyns WB, Golden JA. Genotypically defined lissencephalies show distinct pathologies. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol* 2005; 64: 847–57.
- Friede RL. *Developmental neuropathology*. 2nd edn. Berlin: Springer; 1989.
- Galluzzi P, Cerase A, Strambi M, Buoni S, Fois A, Venturi C. Hemimegalencephaly in tuberous sclerosis complex. *J Child Neurol* 2002; 17: 677–80.
- Garbelli R, Rossini L, Moroni RF, Watakabe A, Yamamori T, Tassi L, et al. Layer-specific genes reveal a rudimentary laminar pattern in human nodular heterotopia. *Neurology* 2009; 73: 746–53.
- Gawlik-Kuklinska K, Wierzbica J, Wozniak A, Iliuszko M, Debiec-Rychter M, Dubaniewicz-Wybieralska M, et al. Periventricular heterotopia in a boy

- with interstitial deletion of chromosome 4p. *Eur J Med Genet* 2008; 51: 165–71.
- Giannandrea M, Bianchi V, Mignogna ML, Sirri A, Carrabino S, D'Elia E, et al. Mutations in the small GTPase gene RAB39B are responsible for X-linked mental retardation associated with autism, epilepsy, and macrocephaly. *Am J Hum Genet* 2010; 86: 185–95.
- Gilfillan GD, Selmer KK, Roxrud I, Smith R, Kyllerman M, Eiklid K, et al. SLC9A6 mutations cause X-linked mental retardation, microcephaly, epilepsy, and ataxia, a phenotype mimicking angelman syndrome. *Am J Hum Genet* 2008; 82: 1003–10.
- Ginocchio VM, De Brasi D, Genesio R, Ciccone R, Gimelli S, Fimiani F, et al. Sonic Hedgehog deletion and distal trisomy 3p in a patient with microphthalmia and microcephaly, lacking cerebral anomalies typical of holoprosencephaly. *Eur J Med Genet* 2008; 51: 658–65.
- Gleeson JG, Keeler LC, Parisi MA, Marsh SE, Chance PF, Glass IA, et al. Molar tooth sign of the midbrain–hindbrain junction: occurrence in multiple distinct syndromes. *Am J Med Genet A* 2004; 125A: 125–34.
- Glickstein SB, Monaghan JA, Koeller HB, Jones TK, Ross ME. Cyclin D2 is critical for intermediate progenitor cell proliferation in the embryonic cortex. *J Neurosci* 2009; 29: 9614–24.
- Godfrey C, Clement E, Mein R, Brockington M, Smith J, Talim B, et al. Refining genotype phenotype correlations in muscular dystrophies with defective glycosylation of dystroglycan. *Brain* 2007; 130: 2725–35.
- Govaert P, Swarte R, De Vos A, Lequin M. Sonographic appearance of the normal and abnormal insula of Reil. *Dev Med Child Neurol* 2004; 46: 610–6.
- Granata T, Farina L, Faiella A, Cardini R, D'Incerti L, Boncinelli E, et al. Familial schizencephaly associated with EMX2 mutation. *Neurology* 1997; 48: 1403–6.
- Graziano C, D'Elia AV, Mazzanti L, Moscano F, Guidelli Guidi S, Scarano E, et al. A de novo nonsense mutation of PAX6 gene in a patient with aniridia, ataxia, and mental retardation. *Am J Med Genet A* 2007; 143A: 1802–5.
- Griffith E, Walker S, Martin C-A, Vagnarelli P, Stiff T, Vernay B, et al. Mutations in pericentrin cause Seckel syndrome with defective ATR-dependent DNA damage signaling. *Nat Genet* 2008; 40: 232–6.
- Griffiths PD, Gardner S-A, Smith M, Rittley C, Powell T. Hemimegalencephaly and focal megalencephaly in tuberous sclerosis complex. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 1998; 19: 1935–8.
- Griveau A, Borello U, Causeret F, Tissir F, Boggetto N, Karaz S, et al. A novel role for Dbx1-derived Cajal-Retzius cells in early regionalization of the cerebral cortical neuroepithelium. *PLoS Bio* 2010; 8: e1000440.
- Grønberg S, Krätzner R, Spiegler J, Ferdinandusse S, Wanders RJA, Waterham HR, et al. Typical cMRI pattern as diagnostic clue for D-bifunctional protein deficiency without apparent biochemical abnormalities in plasma. *Am J Med Genet A* 2010; 152A: 2845–9.
- Guernsey DL, Matsuoka M, Jiang H, Evans S, Macgillivray C, Nightingale M, et al. Mutations in origin recognition complex gene ORC4 cause Meier-Gorlin syndrome. *Nat Genet* 2011; 43: 360–4.
- Guerrini R, Barkovich A, Sztriha L, Dobyns W. Bilateral frontal polymicrogyria. *Neurology* 2000; 54: 909–13.
- Guerrini R, Dobyns W. Bilateral periventricular nodular heterotopia with mental retardation and frontonasal malformation. *Neurology* 1998; 51: 499–503.
- Guerrini R, Dubeau F, Dulac O, Barkovich AJ, Kuzniecky R, Fett C, et al. Bilateral parasagittal parietooccipital polymicrogyria and epilepsy. *Ann Neurol* 1997; 41: 65–73.
- Hadjivassiliou G, Martinian L, Squier W, Blumcke I, Aronica E, Sisodiya S, et al. The application of cortical layer markers in the evaluation of cortical dysplasias in epilepsy. *Acta Neuropathol* 2010; 120: 517–28.
- Haltia M, Leivo I, Somer H, Pihko H, Paetau A, Kivelä T, et al. Muscle-eye-brain disease: a neuropathological study. *Ann Neurol* 1997; 41: 173–80.
- Han C-W, Min B-W, Kim Y, Jeong E-H, Park C-S, Woo Y-J, et al. Immunohistochemical analysis of developmental neural antigen expression in the balloon cells of focal cortical dysplasia. *J Clin Neurosci* 2011; 18: 114–8.
- Hansen DV, Lui JH, Parker PRL, Kriegstein AR. Neurogenic radial glia in the outer subventricular zone of human neocortex. *Nature* 2010; 464: 554–61.
- Haverkamp F, Zerres K, Ostertun B, Emons D, Lentze M. Familial schizencephaly: further delineation of a rare disorder. *J Med Genet* 1995; 32: 242–4.
- Hecht J, Siegenthaler J, Patterson K, Pleasure SJ. Primary cellular meningeal defects cause neocortical dysplasia and dyslamination. *Ann Neurol* 2010; 68: 454–64.
- Heng JI, Nguyen L, Castro D, Zimmer C, Wildner H, Armant O, et al. Neurogenin 2 controls cortical neuron migration through regulation of Rnd2. *Nature* 2008; 455: 114–8.
- Hernández-Miranda LR, Cariboni A, Faux C, Ruhrberg C, Cho JH, Cloutier J-F, et al. Robo1 regulates semaphorin signaling to guide the migration of cortical interneurons through the ventral forebrain. *J Neurosci* 2011; 31: 6174–87.
- Hevner R. The cerebral cortex malformation in thanatophoric dysplasia: neuropathology and pathogenesis. *Acta Neuropathol* 2005; 110: 208–21.
- Hevner RF. Layer-specific markers as probes for neuron type identity in human neocortex and malformations of cortical development. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol* 2007; 66: 101–9.
- Hewitt JE. Abnormal glycosylation of dystroglycan in human genetic disease. *Biochem Biophys Acta* 2009; 1792: 853–61.
- Hill AD, Chang BS, Hill RS, Garraway LA, Bodell A, Sellers WR, et al. A 2-Mb critical region implicated in the microcephaly associated with terminal 1q deletion syndrome. *Am J Med Genet A* 2007; 143A: 1692–8.
- Hoch RV, Rubenstein JL, Pleasure SJ. Genes and signaling events that establish regional patterning of the mammalian forebrain. *Semin Cell Dev Biol* 2009; 20: 378–86.
- Hofman PAM, Fitt GJ, Harvey AS, Kuzniecky RI, Jackson G. Bottom-of-sulcus dysplasia: imaging features. *Am J Roentgenol* 2011; 196: 881–5.
- Hong SE, Shugart YY, Huang DT, Al Shahwan S, Grant PE, Hourihane JOB, et al. Autosomal recessive lissencephaly with cerebellar hypoplasia (LCH) is associated with human reelin gene mutations. *Nature Genet* 2000; 26: 93–6.
- Howard B, Chen Y, Zecevic N. Cortical progenitor cells in the developing human telencephalon. *Glia* 2006; 53: 57–66.
- Iannetti P, Nigro G, Spalice A, Faiella A, Boncinelli E. Cytomegalovirus infection and schizencephaly: case reports. *Ann Neurol* 1998; 43: 123–7.
- Inoue T, Ogawa M, Mikoshiba K, Aruga J. Zic deficiency in the cortical marginal zone and meninges results in cortical lamination defects resembling those in type II lissencephaly. *J Neurosci* 2008; 28: 4712–25.
- Ishii N, Owada Y, Yamada M, Miura S, Murata K, Asao H, et al. Loss of neurons in the hippocampus and cerebral cortex of AMSH-deficient mice. *Mol Cell Biol* 2001; 21: 8626–37.
- Jaglin XH, Chelly J. Tubulin-related cortical dysgeneses: microtubule dysfunction underlying neuronal migration defects. *Trends Genet* 2009; 25: 555–66.
- Jaglin XH, Poirier K, Saillour Y, Buhler E, Tian G, Bahi-Buisson N, et al. Mutations in the beta-tubulin gene TUBB2B result in asymmetrical polymicrogyria. *Nat Genet* 2009; 41: 746–52.
- Jan MM. Outcome of bilateral periventricular nodular heterotopia in monozygotic twins with megalencephaly. *Dev Med Child Neurol* 1999; 41: 486–8.
- Jansen A, Andermann E. Genetics of the polymicrogyria syndromes. *J Med Genet* 2005; 42: 369–78.
- Jensen LR, Amende M, Gurok U, Moser B, Gimmel V, Tzschach A, et al. Mutations in the JARID1C gene, which is involved in transcriptional regulation and chromatin remodeling, cause X-linked mental retardation. *Am J Hum Genet* 2005; 76: 227–36.
- Jones A, Shyamsundar M, Thomas M, Maynard J, Idziaszczyk S, Tomkins S, et al. Comprehensive mutation analysis of TSC1 and TSC2-and phenotypic correlations in 150 families with tuberous sclerosis. *Am J Hum Genet* 1999; 64: 1305–15.

- Judkins AR, Martinez D, Ferreira P, Dobyns WB, Golden JA. Polymicrogyria includes fusion of the molecular layer and decreased neuronal populations but normal cortical laminar organization. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol* 2011; 70: 438–43.
- Juric-Sekhar G, Kapur RP, Glass IA, Murray ML, Parnell SE, Hevner RF. Neuronal migration disorders in microcephalic osteodysplastic primordial dwarfism type I/III. *Acta Neuropathol* 2011; 121: 545–54.
- Kalay E, Yigit G, Aslan Y, Brown KE, Pohl E, Bicknell LS, et al. CEP152 is a genome maintenance protein disrupted in Seckel syndrome. *Nat Genet* 2011; 43: 23–6.
- Kamei A, Houdou S, Takashima S, Suzuki Y, Becker L, Armstrong DL. Peroxisomal disorders in children: immunohistochemistry and neuropathology. *J Pediatr* 1993; 122: 573–9.
- Kang W, Wong LC, Shi S-H, Hebert JM. The transition from radial glial to intermediate progenitor cell is inhibited by FGF signaling during corticogenesis. *J Neurosci* 2009; 29: 14571–80.
- Kato M, Takizawa N, Yamada S, Ito A, Honma T, Hashimoto M, et al. Diffuse pachygyria with cerebellar hypoplasia: a milder form of micro-lissencephaly or a new genetic syndrome? *Ann Neurol* 1999; 46: 660–3.
- Kavaslar G, Onengut S, Derman O, Kaya A, Tolun A. The novel genetic disorder microhydranencephaly maps to chromosome 16p13.3-12.1. *Am J Hum Genet* 2000; 66: 1705–9.
- Kitsiou-Tzeli S, Tzetis M, Sofocleous C, Vrettou C, Xaidara A, Giannikou K, et al. De novo interstitial duplication of the 15q11.2-q14 PWS/AS region of maternal origin: clinical description, array CGH analysis, and review of the literature. *Am J Med Genet A* 2010; 152A: 1925–32.
- Kornak U, Reynders E, Dimopoulou A, van Reeuwijk J, Fischer B, Rajab A, et al. Impaired glycosylation and cutis laxa caused by mutations in the vesicular H⁺-ATPase subunit ATP6V0A2. *Nat Genet* 2008; 40: 32–4.
- Kortüm F, Das S, Flindt M, Morris-Rosendahl DJ, Stefanova I, Goldstein A, et al. The core FOXG1 syndrome phenotype consists of postnatal microcephaly, severe mental retardation, absent language, dyskinesia, and corpus callosum hypogenesis. *J Med Genet* 2011; 48: 396–406.
- Kriegstein A, Noctor S, Martinez-Cerdeño V. Patterns of neural stem and progenitor cell division may underlie evolutionary cortical expansion. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 2006; 7: 883–90.
- Krsek P, Jahodova A, Maton B, Jayakar P, Dean P, Korman B, et al. Low-grade focal cortical dysplasia is associated with prenatal and perinatal brain injury. *Epilepsia* 2010; 51: 2440–8.
- Kumar A, Girimaji SC, Duvvari MR, Blanton SH. Mutations in STIL, encoding a pericentriolar and centrosomal protein, cause primary microcephaly. *Am J Hum Genet* 2009; 84: 286–90.
- Kumar RA, Pilz DT, Babatz TD, Cushion TD, Harvey K, Topf M, et al. TUBA1A mutations cause wide spectrum lissencephaly (smooth brain) and suggest that multiple neuronal migration pathways converge on alpha tubulins. *Hum Mol Genet* 2010; 19: 2817–27.
- Kuzniecky R, Andermann F, Guerrini R. Congenital bilateral perisylvian syndrome: study of 31 patients. The congenital bilateral perisylvian syndrome multicenter collaborative study. *Lancet* 1993; 341: 608–12.
- Labelle-Dumais C, Dilworth DJ, Harrington EP, de Leau M, Lyons D, Kabaeva Z, et al. COL4A1 Mutations Cause Ocular Dysgenesis, Neuronal Localization Defects, and Myopathy in Mice and Walker-Warburg Syndrome in Humans. *PLoS Genet* 2011; 7: e1002062.
- Lai T, Jabaudon D, Molyneaux BJ, Azim E, Arlotta P, Menezes JRL, et al. SOX5 controls the sequential generation of distinct corticofugal neuron subtypes. *Neuron* 2008; 57: 232–47.
- Lamparello P, Baybis M, Pollard J, Hol EM, Eisenstat DD, Aronica E, et al. Developmental lineage of cell types in cortical dysplasia with balloon cells. *Brain* 2007; 130: 2267–76.
- Leventer RJ, Jansen A, Pilz DT, Stoodley N, Marini C, Dubeau F, et al. Clinical and imaging heterogeneity of polymicrogyria: a study of 328 patients. *Brain* 2010; 133: 1415–27.
- Levin M, Lupski J, Carpenter R, Gerson L, Greenberg F. An additional case of pachygyria, joint contractures and facial abnormalities. *Clin Dysmorphol* 1993; 2: 365–8.
- Li S, Jin Z, Koirala S, Bu L, Xu L, Hynes RO, et al. GPR56 regulates pial basement membrane integrity and cortical lamination. *J Neurosci* 2008; 28: 5817–26.
- Lindhurst MJ, Sapp JC, Teer JK, Johnston JJ, Finn EM, Peters K, et al. A mosaic activating mutation in AKT1 associated with the Proteus syndrome. *N Eng J Med* 2011; 365: 611–9.
- López-Hernández T, Ridder M, Montolio M, Capdevila-Nortes X, Polder E, Sirisi S, et al. Mutant GlialCAM causes megalencephalic leukoencephalopathy with subcortical cysts, benign familial macrocephaly, and macrocephaly with retardation and autism. *Am J Hum Genet* 2011; 88: 422–32.
- Lui JH, Hansen DV, Kriegstein AR. Development and evolution of the human neocortex. *Cell* 2011; 146: 18–36.
- Luo R, Jeong S-J, Jin Z, Strokes N, Li S, Piao X. G protein-coupled receptor 56 and collagen III, a receptor-ligand pair, regulates cortical development and lamination. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2011; 108: 12925–30.
- Mallamaci A, Stoykova A. Gene networks controlling early cerebral cortex arealization. *Eur J Neurosci* 2006; 23: 847–56.
- Manya H, Sakia K, Kobayashi K, Taniguchi K, Kawakita M, Toda T, et al. Loss-of-function of an N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase, POMGnT1, in muscle-eye-brain disease. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 2003; 306: 93–7.
- Manzini MC, Gleason D, Chang B, Sean Hill R, Barry B, Partlow J, et al. Ethnically diverse causes of Walker-Warburg syndrome (WWS): FCMD mutations are a more common cause of WWS outside of the Middle East. *Hum Mutat* 2008; 29: E231–41.
- Marin O, Valiente M, Ge X, Tsai LH. Guiding neuronal cell migrations. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol* 2010; 2: a001834.
- Marin-Padilla M, Parisi JE, Armstrong DL, Sargent SK, Kaplan JA. Shaken infant syndrome: developmental neuropathology, progressive cortical dysplasia, and epilepsy. *Acta Neuropathol* 2002; 103: 321–32.
- Marsh D, Dahia P, Zheng Z, Liaw D, Parsons R, Gorlin R, et al. Germline mutations in PTEN are present in Bannayan-Zonana syndrome. *Nat Genet* 1997; 16: 333–4.
- Marsh DJ, Kum JB, Lunetta KL, Bennett MJ, Gorlin RJ, Ahmed SF, et al. PTEN mutation spectrum and genotype-phenotype correlations in Bannayan-Riley-Ruvalcaba syndrome suggest a single entity with Cowden syndrome. *Hum Mol Genet* 1999; 8: 1461–72.
- Mathern GW, Andres M, Salamon N, Chandra PS, Andre VM, Cepeda C, et al. A hypothesis regarding the pathogenesis and epileptogenesis of pediatric cortical dysplasia and hemimegalencephaly based on MRI cerebral volumes and NeuN cortical cell densities. *Epilepsia* 2007; 48: 74–8.
- Matsuura T, Sutcliffe J, Fang P, Galjaard R, Jiang Y, Benton C, et al. De novo truncating mutations in E6-AP ubiquitin-protein ligase gene (UBE3A) in Angelman syndrome. *Nat Genet* 1997; 15: 74–7.
- McLarren KW, Severson TM, du Souich C, Stockton DW, Kratz LE, Cunningham D, et al. Hypomorphic temperature-sensitive alleles of NSDHL cause CK syndrome. *Am J Hum Genet* 2010; 87: 905–14.
- Mercuri E, D'Amico A, Tessa A, Berardinelli A, Pane M, Messina S, et al. POMT2 mutation in a patient with “MEB-like” phenotype. *Neuromuscular Disord* 2006; 16: 446–8.
- Merello E, Swanson E, De Marco P, Akhter M, Striano P, Rossi A, et al. No major role for the EMX2 gene in schizencephaly. *Am J Med Genet A* 2008; 146A: 1142–50.
- Merkle FT, Alvarez-Buylla A. Neural stem cells in mammalian development. *Curr Opin Cell Biol* 2006; 18: 704–9.
- Mérot Y, Rétaux S, Heng JI-T. Molecular mechanisms of projection neuron production and maturation in the developing cerebral cortex. *Semin Cell Dev Biol* 2009; 20: 726–34.
- Mirzaa G, Dodge NN, Glass I, Day C, Gripp K, Nicholson L, et al. Megalencephaly and perisylvian polymicrogyria with postaxial polydactyly and hydrocephalus: a rare brain malformation syndrome

- associated with mental retardation and seizures. *Neuropediatrics* 2004; 35: 353–9.
- Mitchell TN, Free S, Williamson K, Stevens J, Churchill A, Hanson I, et al. Polymicrogyria and absence of pineal gland due to PAX6 mutation. *Ann Neurol* 2003; 53: 658–63.
- Miyoshi G, Hjerling-Leffler J, Karayannis T, Sousa VH, Butt SJB, Battiste J, et al. Genetic fate mapping reveals that the caudal ganglionic eminence produces a large and diverse population of superficial cortical interneurons. *J Neurosci* 2010; 30: 1582–94.
- Molyneaux BJ, Arlotta P, Menezes JRL, Macklis JD. Neuronal subtype specification in the cerebral cortex. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 2007; 8: 427–37.
- Moog U, Jones MC, Bird LM, Dobyns WB. Oculocerebrocutaneous syndrome: the brain malformation defines a core phenotype. *J Med Genet* 2005; 42: 913–21.
- Moro F, Pisano T, Bernadina BD, Polli R, Murgia A, Zoccante L, et al. Periventricular heterotopia in fragile X syndrome. *Neurology* 2006; 67: 713–5.
- Morris-Rosendahl DJ, Najm J, Lachmeijer AM, Sztriha L, Martins M, Kuechler A, et al. Refining the phenotype of alpha-1a Tubulin (TUBA1A) mutation in patients with classical lissencephaly. *Clin Genet* 2008; 74: 425–33.
- Morris-Rosendahl DJ, Segel R, Born AP, Conrad C, Loeys B, Brooks SS, et al. New RAB3GAP1 mutations in patients with Warburg Micro Syndrome from different ethnic backgrounds and a possible founder effect in the Danish. *Eur J Hum Genet* 2010; 18: 1100–6.
- Najm J, Horn D, Wimplinger I, Golden JA, Chizhikov VV, Sudi J, et al. Mutations of CASK cause an X-linked brain malformation phenotype with microcephaly and hypoplasia of the brainstem and cerebellum. *Nat Genet* 2008; 40: 1065–7.
- Namavar Y, Barth PG, Kasher PR, van Ruissen F, Brockmann K, Bernert GN, et al. Clinical, neuroradiological and genetic findings in pontocerebellar hypoplasia. *Brain* 2011; 134: 143–56.
- Neal J, Ape K, Sahin M, Walsh CA, Sheen V. Deletion of chromosome 1p36 is associated with periventricular nodular heterotopia. *Am J Med Genet A* 2006; 140: 1692–5.
- Nicholas AK, Khurshid M, Desir J, Carvalho OP, Cox JJ, Thornton G, et al. WDR62 is associated with the spindle pole and is mutated in human microcephaly. *Nat Genet* 2010; 42: 1010–4.
- Nóbrega-Pereira S, Kessar N, Du T, Kimura S, Anderson SA, Marin O. Postmitotic Nkx2-1 controls the migration of telencephalic interneurons by direct repression of guidance receptors. *Neuron* 2008; 59: 733–45.
- Norman MG, McGillivray BC, Kalousek DK, Hill A, Poskitt KJ. Congenital malformations of the brain: pathologic, embryologic, clinical, radiologic and genetic aspects. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 1995.
- O'Driscoll MC, Daly SB, Urquhart JE, Black GCM, Pilz DT, Brockmann K, et al. Recessive mutations in the gene encoding the tight junction protein occludin cause band-like calcification with simplified gyration and polymicrogyria. *Am J Hum Genet* 2010; 87: 354–64.
- O'Driscoll M, Jackson AP, Jeggo PA. Microcephalin: a causal link between impaired damage response signalling and microcephaly. *Cell Cycle* 2006; 5: 2339–44.
- O'Driscoll M, Ruiz-Perez VL, Woods CG, Jeggo PA, Goodship JA. A splicing mutation affecting expression of ataxia-telangiectasia and Rad3-related protein (ATR) results in Seckel syndrome. *Nat Genet* 2003; 33: 497–501.
- O'Leary DM, Chou S-J, Sahara S. Area patterning of the mammalian cortex. *Neuron* 2007; 56: 252–69.
- Orlova KA, Tsai V, Baybis M, Heuer GG, Sisodiya S, Thom M, et al. Early progenitor cell marker expression distinguishes type II from type I focal cortical dysplasias. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol* 2010; 69: 850–63.
- Paramasivam M, Chang YJ, LoTurco JJ. ASPM and citron kinase co-localize to the midbody ring during cytokinesis. *Cell Cycle* 2007; 6: 1605–12.
- Parmar H, Patkar D, Shah J, Patankar T. Hemimegalencephaly with tuberous sclerosis: a longitudinal imaging study. *Australas Radiol* 2003; 47: 438–42.
- Parrini E, Ramazzotti A, Dobyns WB, Mei D, Moro F, Veggiotti P, et al. Periventricular heterotopia: phenotypic heterogeneity and correlation with Filamin A mutations. *Brain* 2006; 129: 1892–906.
- Passemard S, Titomanlio L, Elmaleh M, Afenjar A, Alessandri J-L, Andria G, et al. Expanding the clinical and neuroradiologic phenotype of primary microcephaly due to ASPM mutations. *Neurology* 2009; 73: 962–9.
- Petanjek Z, Berger B, Esclapez M. Origins of cortical GABAergic neurons in the cynomolgus monkey. *Cereb Cortex* 2009; 19: 249–62.
- Piao X, Basel-Vanagaite L, Straussberg R, Grant P, Pugh E, Doheny K, et al. An autosomal recessive form of bilateral frontoparietal polymicrogyria maps to chromosome 16q12.2-21. *Am J Hum Genet* 2002; 70: 1028–33.
- Piao X, Chang BS, Bodell A, Woods K, BenZeev B, Topcu M, et al. Genotype-phenotype analysis of human frontoparietal polymicrogyria syndromes. *Ann Neurol* 2005; 58: 680–7.
- Pilarski R, Stephens JA, Noss R, Fisher JL, Prior TW. Predicting PTEN mutations: an evaluation of Cowden syndrome and Bannayan-Riley-Ruvalcaba syndrome clinical features. *J Med Genet* 2011; 48: 505–12.
- Pilia G, Hughes-Benzie RM, MacKenzie A, Baybayan P, Chen EY, Huber R, et al. Mutations in GPC3, a glypican gene, cause the Simpson-Golabi-Behmel overgrowth syndrome. *Nat Genet* 1996; 12: 241–7.
- Pilz D, Kuc J, Matsumoto N, Bodurtha J, Bernadi B, Tassinari C, et al. Subcortical band heterotopia in rare affected males can be caused by missense mutations in DCX (XLIS) or LIS1. *Hum Molec Genet* 1999; 8: 1757–60.
- Pilz DT, Matsumoto N, Minnerath S, Mills P, Gleeson JG, Allen KM, et al. LIS1 and XLIS (DCX) mutations cause most classical lissencephaly, but different patterns of malformation. *Hum Molec Genet* 1998; 7: 2029–37.
- Poirier K, Keays DA, Francis F, Saillour Y, Bahi N, Manouvrier S, et al. Large spectrum of lissencephaly and pachygyria phenotypes resulting from de novo missense mutations in tubulin alpha 1A (TUBA1A). *Hum Mutat* 2007; 28: 1055–64.
- Poirier K, Saillour Y, Bahi-Buisson N, Jaglin XH, Fallet-Bianco C, Nabbout R, et al. Mutations in the neuronal beta-tubulin subunit TUBB3 result in malformation of cortical development and neuronal migration defects. *Hum Mol Genet* 2010; 19: 4462–73.
- Pramparo T, Youn YH, Yingling J, Hirotsune S, Wynshaw-Boris A. Novel embryonic neuronal migration and proliferation defects in Dcx mutant mice are exacerbated by Lis1 reduction. *J Neurosci* 2010; 30: 3002–12.
- Prayson R, Khajavi K, Comair Y. Cortical architectural abnormalities and MIB1 immunoreactivity in gangliogliomas: a study of 60 patients with intracranial tumors. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol* 1995; 54: 513–20.
- Puelles L. A segmental morphological paradigm for understanding vertebrate forebrains. *Brain Behav Evol* 1995; 46: 319–37.
- Puffenberger EG, Strauss KA, Ramsey KE, Craig DW, Stephan DA, Robinson DL, et al. Polyhydramnios, megalencephaly and symptomatic epilepsy caused by a homozygous 7-kilobase deletion in LYK5. *Brain* 2007; 130: 1929–41.
- Radokovits R, Barros CS, Belvindrah R, Patton B, Müller U. Regulation of radial glial survival by signals from the meninges. *J Neurosci* 2009; 29: 7694–705.
- Rakic P, Ayoub AE, Breunig JJ, Dominguez MH. Decision by division: making cortical maps. *Trends Neurosci* 2009; 32: 291–301.
- Ramocki MB, Bartnik M, Szafranski P, Kolodziejska KE, Xia Z, Bravo J, et al. Recurrent distal 7q11.23 deletion including HIP1 and YWHAG identified in patients with intellectual disabilities, epilepsy, and neuro-behavioral problems. *Am J Hum Genet* 2010; 87: 857–65.
- Rauch A, Thiel CT, Schindler D, Wick U, Crow YJ, Kicic AB, et al. Mutations in the pericentrin (PCNT) gene cause primordial dwarfism. *Science* 2008; 319: 816–9.
- Rimol LM, Agartz I, Djurovic S, Brown AA, Roddey JC, Kähler AK, et al. Sex-dependent association of common variants of microcephaly genes with brain structure. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2010; 107: 384–8.

- Robin N, Taylor C, McDonald-McGinn D, Zackai E, Bingham P, Collins K, et al. Polymicrogyria and deletion 22q11.2 syndrome: window to the etiology of a common cortical malformation. *Am J Med Genet A* 2006; 140A: 2416–25.
- Roll P, Rudolf G, Pereira S, Royer B, Scheffer I, Massacrier A, et al. SRPX2 mutations in disorders of language cortex and cognition. *Hum Mol Genet* 2006; 15: 1195–207.
- Roll P, Vernes SC, Bruneau N, Cillario J, Ponsolle-Lenfant M, Massacrier A, et al. Molecular networks implicated in speech-related disorders: FOXP2 regulates the SRPX2/uPAR complex. *Hum Mol Genet* 2010; 19: 4848–60.
- Rosenberg M, Agarwala R, Bouffard G, Davis J, Fiermonte G, Hilliard M, et al. Mutant deoxynucleotide carrier is associated with congenital microcephaly. *Nat Genet* 2002; 32: 175–9.
- Ross ME, Swanson K, Dobyns WB. Lissencephaly with cerebellar hypoplasia (LCH): a heterogeneous group of cortical malformations. *Neuropediatrics* 2001; 32: 256–63.
- Rossi M, Guerrini R, Dobyns WB, Andria G, Winter RM. Characterization of brain malformations in the Baraitser-Winter syndrome and review of the literature. *Neuropediatrics* 2003; 34: 287–92.
- Rubenstein JLR, Shimamura K, Martinez S, Puelles L. Regionalization of the prosencephalic neural plate. *Annu Rev Neurosci* 1998; 21: 445–77.
- Sahara S, O'Leary DD. FGF10 regulated transition period of cortical stem cell differentiation to radial glia controlling generation of neurons and basal progenitors. *Neuron* 2009; 63: 48–62.
- Salamon N, Andres M, Chute DJ, Nguyen ST, Chang JW, Huynh MN, et al. Contralateral hemimicrocephaly and clinical-pathological correlations in children with hemimegalencephaly. *Brain* 2006; 129: 352–65.
- Salonen R, Somer M, Haltia M, Lorentz M, Norio R. Progressive encephalopathy with edema, hypsarhythmia, and optic atrophy (PEHO syndrome). *Clin Genet* 1991; 39: 287–93.
- Sansom SN, Livesey FJ. Gradients in the brain: the control of the development of form and function in the cerebral cortex. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol* 2009; 1: a002519.
- Santavuori P, Somer H, Sainio K, Rapola J, Kruus J, Nikitin T, et al. Muscle-eye-brain disease. *Brain Dev* 1989; 11: 147–53.
- Santos NF, Secolin R, Brandão-Almeida IL, Silva MS, Torres FR, Tsuneda SS, et al. A new candidate locus for bilateral perisylvian polymicrogyria mapped on chromosome Xq27. *Am J Med Genet A* 2008; 146A: 1151–7.
- Sarnat HB. *Cerebral dysgenesis: embryology and clinical expression*. New York: Oxford University Press; 1992.
- Sertié AL, Sossi V, Camargo AA, Zatz M, Brahe C, Passos-Bueno MR. Collagen XVIII, containing an endogenous inhibitor of angiogenesis and tumor growth, plays a critical role in the maintenance of retinal structure and in neural tube closure (Knobloch syndrome). *Hum Mol Genet* 2000; 9: 2051–8.
- Shanske A, Caride DG, Menasse-Palmer L, Bogdanow A, Marion RW. Central nervous system anomalies in Seckel syndrome: report of a new family and review of the literature. *Am J Med Genet* 1997; 70: 155–8.
- Sheen V, Dixon P, Fox J, Hong S, Kinton L, Sisodiya S, et al. Mutations in the X-linked filamin 1 gene cause periventricular nodular heterotopia in males as well as in females. *Hum Mol Genet* 2001; 10: 1775–83.
- Sheen VL, Ganesh VS, Topcu M, Sebire G, Bodell A, Hill RS, et al. Mutations in ARFGF2 implicate vesicle trafficking in neural progenitor proliferation and migration in the human cerebral cortex. *Nat Genet* 2004; 36: 69–76.
- Sheen V, Wheless J, Bodell A, Braverman E, Cotter P, Rauen K, et al. Periventricular heterotopia associated with chromosome 5p anomalies. *Neurology* 2003; 60: 1033–6.
- Shen J, Eyaid W, Mochida GH, Al-Moayyad F, Bodell A, Woods CG, et al. ASPM mutations identified in patients with primary microcephaly and seizures. *J Med Genet* 2005; 42: 725–9.
- Shen J, Gilmore EC, Marshall CA, Haddadin M, Reynolds JJ, Eyaid W, et al. Mutations in PNKP cause microcephaly, seizures and defects in DNA repair. *Nat Genet* 2010; 42: 245–9.
- Siegenthaler JA, Ashique AM, Zarbalis K, Patterson KP, Hecht JH, Kane MA, et al. Retinoic acid from the meninges regulates cortical neuron generation. *Cell* 2009; 139: 597–609.
- Smart IHM, Dehay C, Giroud P, Berland M, Kennedy H. Unique morphological features of the proliferative zones and postmitotic compartments of the neural epithelium giving rise to striate and extrastriate cortex in the monkey. *Cerebral Cortex* 2002; 12: 37–53.
- Snape KMG, Ruddy D, Zenker M, Wuys W, Whiteford M, Johnson D, et al. The spectra of clinical phenotypes in aplasia cutis congenita and terminal transverse limb defects. *Am J Med Genet A* 2009; 149A: 1860–81.
- Solé G, Coupry I, Rooryck C, Guérineau E, Martins F, Devès S, et al. Bilateral periventricular nodular heterotopia in France: frequency of mutations in FLNA, phenotypic heterogeneity and spectrum of mutations. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 2009; 80: 1394–8.
- Stancik EK, Navarro-Quiroga I, Sellke R, Haydar TF. Heterogeneity in ventricular zone neural precursors contributes to neuronal fate diversity in the postnatal neocortex. *J Neurosci* 2010; 30: 7028–36.
- Stanco A, Szekeres C, Patel N, Rao S, Campbell K, Kreidberg JA, et al. Netrin-1-alpha-3-beta-1 integrin interactions regulate the migration of interneurons through the cortical marginal zone. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2009; 106: 7595–600.
- Steinberg SJ, Dodt G, Raymond GV, Braverman NE, Moser AB, Moser HW. Peroxisome biogenesis disorders. *Biochem Biophys Acta* 2006; 1763: 1733–48.
- Stromme P, Dahl E, Flage T, Stene-Johansen H. Apple peel intestinal atresia in siblings with ocular anomalies and microcephaly. *Clin Genet* 1993; 44: 208–10.
- Subramanian L, Tole S. Mechanisms underlying the specification, positional regulation, and function of the cortical Hem. *Cerebral Cortex* 2009; 19: i90–5.
- Takanashi J, Arai H, Nabatame S, Hirai S, Hayashi S, Inazawa J, et al. Neuroradiological Features of CASK Mutations. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 2010; 31: 1619–22.
- Taylor DC, Falconer MA, Bruton CJ, Corsellis JAN. Focal dysplasia of the cerebral cortex in epilepsy. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatr* 1971; 34: 369–87.
- Thornton GK, Woods CG. Primary microcephaly: do all roads lead to Rome? *Trends Genet* 2009; 25: 501–10.
- Tietjen I, Bodell A, Apse K, Mendonza AM, Chang BS, Shaw GM, et al. Comprehensive EMX2 genotyping of a large schizencephaly case series. *Am J Med Genet A* 2007; 143A: 1313–6.
- Tore HG, McKinney AM, Nagar VA, Lohman B, Truwit CL, Raybaud C. Syndrome of megalencephaly, polydactyly, and polymicrogyria lacking frank hydrocephalus, with associated MR imaging findings. *AJNR Am J Neuroradiol* 2009; 30: 1620–2.
- Trimborn M, Bell SM, Felix C, Rashid Y, Jafri H, Griffiths PD, et al. Mutations in microcephalin cause aberrant regulation of chromosome condensation. *Am J Hum Genet* 2004; 75: 261–6.
- Türkmen S, Gillissen-Kaesbach G, Meinecke P, Albrecht B, Neumann L, Hesse V, et al. Mutations in NSD1 are responsible for Sotos syndrome, but are not a frequent finding in other overgrowth phenotypes. *Eur J Hum Genet* 2003; 11: 858–65.
- Tuxhorn I, Woermann FG, Pannek HW, Hans VH. Sublobar dysplasia—a clinicopathologic report after successful epilepsy surgery. *Epilepsia* 2009; 50: 2652–7.
- Valente EM, Brancati F, Silhavy JL, Castori M, Marsh SE, Barrano G, et al. AH11 gene mutations cause specific forms of Joubert syndrome-related disorders. *Ann Neurol* 2006; 59: 527–34.
- Valente EM, Logan CV, Mougou-Zerelli S, Lee JH, Silhavy JL, Brancati F, et al. Mutations in TMEM216 perturb ciliogenesis and cause Joubert, Meckel and related syndromes. *Nat Genet* 2010; 42: 619–25.
- Van Maldergem L, Yuksel-Apak M, Kayserili H, Seemanova E, Giurgea S, Basel-Vanagaite L, et al. Cobblestone-like brain dysgenesis and altered glycosylation in congenital cutis laxa, Debre type. *Neurology* 2008; 71: 1602–8.
- van Reeuwijk J, Grewal P, Salih M, Beltrán-Valero de Bernabé D, McLaughlan J, Michiels C, et al. Intragenic deletion in the LARGE

- gene causes Walker-Warburg syndrome. *Hum Genet* 2007; 121: 685–90.
- van Reeuwijk J, Janssen M, van den Elzen C, Beltran-Valero de Bernabe D, Sabatelli P, Merlini L, et al. POMT2 mutations cause (alpha)-dystroglycan hypoglycosylation and Walker-Warburg syndrome. *J Med Genet* 2005; 42: 907–12.
- van Reeuwijk J, Maugendre S, van den Elzen C, Verrips A, Bertini E, Muntoni F, et al. The expanding phenotype of POMT1 mutations: from Walker-Warburg syndrome to congenital muscular dystrophy, microcephaly, and mental retardation. *Hum Mutat* 2006; 27: 453–9.
- van Reeuwijk J, Olderode-Berends MJW, van Den Elzen C, Brouwer OF, Roscioli T, van Pampus MG, et al. A homozygous FKR1 start codon mutation is associated with Walker-Warburg syndrome, the severe end of the clinical spectrum. *Clin Genet* 2010; 78: 275–81.
- Vanhatalo S, Somer M, Barth P. Dutch patients with progressive encephalopathy with edema, hypsarrhythmia, and optic atrophy (PEHO) syndrome. *Neuropediatrics* 2002; 33: 100–4.
- Villard L, Nguyen K, Cardoso C, Martin C, Weiss A, Silfry-Platt M, et al. A locus for bilateral perisylvian polymicrogyria maps to Xq28. *Am J Hum Genet* 2002; 70: 1003–8.
- Volpe JJ, Adams RD. Cerebro-hepato-renal syndrome of Zellweger. An inherited disorder of neuronal migration. *Acta Neuropathol* 1972; 20: 175–98.
- Wieck G, Leventer RJ, Squier WM, Jansen A, Andermann E, Dubeau F, et al. Periventricular nodular heterotopia with overlying polymicrogyria. *Brain* 2005; 128: 2811–21.
- Woods CG, Bond J, Enard W. Autosomal Recessive Primary Microcephaly (MCPH): a review of clinical, molecular, and evolutionary findings. *Am J Hum Genet* 2005; 76: 717–28.
- Wynshaw-Boris A. Lissencephaly and LIS1: insights into the molecular mechanisms of neuronal migration and development. *Clin Genet* 2007; 72: 296–304.
- Yamamoto T, Kato Y, Kawaguchi M, Shibata N, Kobayashi M. Expression and localization of fukutin, POMGnT1, and POMT1 in the central nervous system: consideration for functions of fukutin. *Med Electron Microsc* 2004; 37: 200–7.
- Yasin S, Latak K, Becherini F, Ganapathi A, Miller K, Campos O, et al. Balloon cells in human cortical dysplasia and tuberous sclerosis: isolation of a pathological progenitor-like cell. *Acta Neuropathol* 2010; 120: 85–96.
- Yis U, Uyanik G, Heck PB, Smitka M, Nobel H, Ebinger F, et al. Fukutin mutations in non-Japanese patients with congenital muscular dystrophy: less severe mutations predominate in patients with a non-Walker-Warburg phenotype. *Neuromusc Disord* 2011; 21: 20–30.
- Yoshida M, Assimacopoulos S, Jones KR, Grove EA. Massive loss of Cajal-Retzius cells does not disrupt neocortical layer order. *Development* 2006; 133: 537–45.
- Yoshioka M. Phenotypic spectrum of Fukutinopathy: most severe phenotype of Fukutinopathy. *Brain Dev* 2009; 31: 419–22.
- Yu TW, Mochida GH, Tischfield DJ, Sgaier SK, Flores-Sarnat L, Sergi CM, et al. Mutations in WDR62, encoding a centrosome-associated protein, cause microcephaly with simplified gyri and abnormal cortical architecture. *Nat Genet* 2010; 42: 1015–20.
- Zarbalis K, Siegenthaler JA, Choe Y, May SR, Peterson AS, Pleasure SJ. Cortical dysplasia and skull defects in mice with a *Foxc1* allele reveal the role of meningeal differentiation in regulating cortical development. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2007; 104: 14002–7.
- Zecevic N, Chen Y, Filipovic R. Contributions of cortical subventricular zone to the development of the human cerebral cortex. *J Comp Neurol* 2005; 491: 109–22.
- Zweier C, de Jong EK, Zweier M, Orrico A, Ousager LB, Collins AL, et al. CNTNAP2 and NRXN1 are mutated in autosomal-recessive Pitt-Hopkins-like mental retardation and determine the level of a common synaptic protein in drosophila. *Am J Hum Genet* 2009; 85: 655–66.
- Zweier C, Peippo MM, Hoyer J, Sousa S, Bottani A, Clayton-Smith J, et al. Haploinsufficiency of TCF4 causes syndromal mental retardation with intermittent hyperventilation (Pitt-Hopkins syndrome). *Am J Hum Genet* 2007; 80: 994–1001.

Appendix 1 Full classification scheme

- (I) MALFORMATIONS SECONDARY TO ABNORMAL NEURONAL AND GLIAL PROLIFERATION OR APOPTOSIS
- (A) SEVERE CONGENITAL MICROCEPHALY (MIC), pre-migrational reduced proliferation or excess apoptosis
- (1) MIC with severe IUGR deficiency and short stature
Clinically defined with AR inheritance
 - (a) Seckel syndrome with unknown cause (Shanske *et al.*, 1997)
 - (b) MOPD syndromes with unknown cause
 - (c) Other MIC-IUGR syndromes
 - (d) Seckel syndrome with mutations in *ATR* at 3q22–q24 (O'Driscoll *et al.*, 2003)
 - (e) MOPD type 2 with mutations in *PCNT* at 21q22.3 (Rauch *et al.*, 2008)
 - (f) MOPD type 1 with mutations in *ORC1* at 1p32 (Bicknell *et al.*, 2011)
 - (g) MOPD type 1 with mutations in *ORC4* at 2q22–q23 (Guernsey *et al.*, 2011)
 - (h) MOPD type 1 with mutations in *ORC6* at 16q12 (Bernal and Venkitaraman, 2011)
 - (i) MOPD type 1 with mutations in *CDT1* at 16q24.3 (Bicknell *et al.*, 2011b)
 - (j) MOPD type 1 with mutations in *CDC6* at 17q21.2 (Bicknell *et al.*, 2011a)
 - (2) MIC with variable short stature (severe IUGR to mildly short), moderate to severe DD/ID, normal to thin cortex, SIMP, with/without callosal hypogenesis
Genetically defined with AR inheritance
 - (a) Seckel syndrome or AR primary microcephaly (MCPH) with mutations in *CENPJ* at 13q12.12 (Al-Dosari *et al.*, 2010)
 - (b) Seckel syndrome or MCPH with mutations in *CEP152* at 15q21.1 (Kalay *et al.*, 2011)
 - (3) MIC with mildly short stature or normal growth, mild-moderate DD/ID, normal to thin cortex, with/without SIMP, with/without callosal hypogenesis and with/without focal PNH
Clinically defined with AR inheritance
 - (a) AR primary microcephaly (MCPH) (Woods *et al.*, 2005)
Genetically defined with AR inheritance
 - (b) MCPH with mutations in *ASPM* at 1q31.3 (Bond *et al.*, 2003; Shen *et al.*, 2005; Desir *et al.*, 2008)
 - (c) MCPH with mutations in *MCPH1* at 8p23.1 (Trimborn *et al.*, 2004; Darvish *et al.*, 2010)
 - (d) MCPH with mutations in *CDKRAP5* (Bond *et al.*, 2005; W.B.D., in preparation)
 - (e) MCPH with mutations in *STIL* at 1p33 (Kumar *et al.*, 2009)
 - (4) MIC with mildly short stature or normal growth, severe DD/ID, variable cortical development with SIMP or cortical dysgenesis and with/without ACC (includes genes with spectrum from SIMP to dysgenetic cortex or PMG)
Clinically defined with AR or XL inheritance
 - (a) MIC with diffuse PMG
 - (b) MIC with asymmetric PMG
 - (c) MIC with atypical cortical dysgenesis
Genetically defined with AR inheritance
 - (d) MCPH with mutations in *PNKP* at 19q13.33 (Shen *et al.*, 2010)
 - (e) MCPH, MIC with diffuse PMG (MDP) or MIC with asymmetric PMG (MAP) with mutations in *WDR62* at 19q13.12 (Bilgüvar *et al.*, 2010; Yu *et al.*, 2010)
 - (f) MCPH, MDP (other cortical malformation) with mutations in *NDE1* at 16p13.11 (Alkuraya *et al.*, 2011; Bakircioglu *et al.*, 2011)
 - (g) MDP–MAP and ACC with mutations of *TBR2* (*EOMES*) at 3p24.1 (Baala *et al.*, 2007)
 - (5) MIC with variable anomalies and less well characterized syndromes; with/without SIMP; with/without PNH, with/without CBLH
Clinically defined with probable AR inheritance
 - (a) MIC with diffuse periventricular nodular heterotopia
 - (b) MIC with disproportionate cerebellar hypoplasia
 - (c) MIC (extreme) with jejunal atresia (Stromme *et al.*, 1993)
Genetically defined with AR inheritance
 - (d) MIC–PNH associated with mutations in *ARFGF2* at 20q13.13 (Sheen *et al.*, 2004; de Wit *et al.*, 2009)
 - (6) MIC with severe DD/ID and evidence of degeneration, with/without mildly short stature, with/without enlarged extra-axial spaces, with/without ACC, with/without atypical cortical dysgenesis
Clinically defined with AR inheritance
 - (a) MIC with enlarged extra-axial space
 - (b) MIC with enlarged extra-axial spaces and disproportionate cerebellar hypoplasia
 - (c) MIC due to foetal brain disruption with unknown cause

(continued)

Appendix 1 Continued

- Genetically defined with AR inheritance
- (d) Amish lethal microcephaly associated with mutations in *SLC25A19* at 17q25.1 (Rosenberg *et al.*, 2002)
- (e) MIC-capillary malformation syndrome (mutations in pending report)
- (7) MIC with LIS (MLIS)—cortex thick or relatively thick, smooth white–grey border
- Clinically defined with AR inheritance
- (a) Barth MLIS syndrome
- (b) Norman–Roberts MLIS syndrome
- (c) MOPD1 variant with three-layer lissencephaly (Juric-Sekhar *et al.*, 2011)
- (d) MIC with lissencephaly, CBLH and Hirschsprung disease
- (8) MIC with tissue loss and enlarged ventricles (hydrocephalus *ex vacuo* or hydranencephaly), with/without cortical dysplasia and with/without ACC
- Clinically defined with presumed extrinsic (non-genetic) cause
- (a) Foetal brain disruption sequence (Corona-Rivera *et al.*, 2001)
- Clinically defined with AR inheritance
- (b) Familial foetal brain disruption-like syndrome with unknown cause
- (c) Familial ‘microhydranencephaly’ with unknown cause (Behunova *et al.*, 2010)
- Genetically defined with AR inheritance
- (d) Familial ‘microhydranencephaly’ associated with mutations of *MHAC* at 16p13.13–p12.2 (Kavaslar *et al.*, 2000)
- (B) MEGALENCEPHALY (MEG) including both congenital and early postnatal
- (1) MEG with normal cortex (or presumably normal cortex)
- Clinically defined with polygenic or AD inheritance
- (a) Familial MEG
- Genetically defined with AD inheritance
- (b) Bannayan–Riley–Ruvalcaba syndrome, Cowden disease and MEG–autism with mutations in *PTEN* at 10q23.31 (Marsh *et al.*, 1997; Marsh *et al.*, 1999; Pilarski *et al.*, 2011)
- (c) Sotos syndrome with mutations in *NSD1* at 5q35.2–q35.3 (Türkmen *et al.*, 2003)
- (d) DD/ID, autism with *HEPACAM* mutations at 11q24.2 (AD, homozygous mutations cause AR megalencephaly with leukoencephalopathy and cysts) (López-Hernández *et al.*, 2011)
- (e) MEG, thumb anomalies and Weaver-like dysmorphism with dup 2p24.3 (includes *MYCN*)
- Genetically defined with AR inheritance
- (f) MACS syndrome with mutations in *RIN2* at 20p11.23 (Basel-Vanagaite *et al.*, 2009)
- Genetically defined with XL inheritance
- (g) Simpson–Golabi–Behmel syndrome 1 with mutations in *GPC3* at Xq26.2 (Pilia *et al.*, 1996)
- (h) Simpson–Golabi–Behmel syndrome 2 with mutations in *OFD1* at Xp22.2 (Budny *et al.*, 2006)
- (i) MEG with DD/ID and seizures with mutations in *RAB39B* at Xq28 (Giannandrea *et al.*, 2010)
- Genetically defined with somatic mosaicism
- (j) Proteus syndrome caused by somatic activating mutation in *AKT1* at 14q32.33 (Lindhurst *et al.*, 2011)
- (2) MEG with PNH—plus other anomalies
- Clinically defined with AD or unknown inheritance
- (a) MEG–PNH phenotype (Jan, 1999)
- (3) MEG with PMG and other cortical dysgenesis
- Clinically defined with unknown cause
- (a) MCAP syndrome, includes MPPH (Mirzaa *et al.*, 2004; Conway *et al.*, 2007)
- (b) Thanatophoric dysplasia or Apert syndrome with mutation of *FGFR3* at 4p16.3 (six-layered PMG-like cortex) (Hevner, 2005)
- (C) CORTICAL DYSGENESIS WITH ABNORMAL CELL PROLIFERATION BUT WITHOUT NEOPLASIA
- (1) Diffuse cortical dysgenesis
- Genetically defined with AR inheritance
- (a) PMSE syndrome with MEG, cortical dysgenesis including leptomenigeal glioneuronal heterotopia and cortical dyslamination with mutations in *STRADA* (*LYK5*) (Puffenberger *et al.*, 2007)
- (2) Focal and multifocal cortical and subcortical dysgenesis
- Clinically defined with putative postzygotic mosaicism
- (a) HMEG isolated (Flores-Sarnat, 2002; Salamon *et al.*, 2006; Mathern *et al.*, 2007)
- (b) HMEG with neurocutaneous syndromes (Flores-Sarnat, 2002)
- (c) FCD Type II with large, dysmorphic neurons (FCDIIa) (Blümcke *et al.*, 2011)
- (d) FCD Type II with large, dysmorphic neurons and balloon cells (FCDIIb), including transmantle dysplasia and bottom of sulcus dysplasia (Blümcke *et al.*, 2011)

(continued)

Appendix 1 Continued

- Genetically defined with AD inheritance
 - (e) Tuberous sclerosis with cortical hamartomas and mutations of *TSC1* at 9q34.13 (Jones *et al.*, 1999; Crino *et al.*, 2006)
 - (f) Tuberous sclerosis with cortical hamartomas and mutations of *TSC2* at 16p13.3 (Jones *et al.*, 1999; Crino *et al.*, 2006)
 - (g) Tuberous sclerosis with HMEG (Galluzzi *et al.*, 2002)
- (D) CORTICAL DYSPLASIAS WITH ABNORMAL CELL PROLIFERATION AND NEOPLASIA
 - (1) Neoplastic dysgenesis with primitive cells
 - (a) DNET
 - (2) Neoplastic dysgenesis with mature cells
 - (a) Ganglioglioma
 - (b) Gangliocytoma
- (II) MALFORMATIONS DUE TO ABNORMAL NEURONAL MIGRATION
 - (A) MALFORMATIONS WITH NEUROEPENDYMAL ABNORMALITIES: PERIVENTRICULAR HETEROTOPIA
 - (1) Anterior predominate and diffuse PNH
 - Clinically defined with unknown cause
 - (a) Diffuse PNH with/without sparing of temporal horns
 - (b) Diffuse PNH composed of micronodules
 - (c) Diffuse PNH with frontonasal dysplasia (Guerrini and Dobyns, 1998)
 - (d) Anterior predominant PNH
 - (e) Anterior predominant PNH with fronto-perisylvian PMG (Wieck *et al.*, 2005)
 - (f) Unilateral or bilateral isolated PNH
 - Genetically defined with AD inheritance (new mutations)
 - (g) Anterior PNH with duplication 5p15.1 (Sheen *et al.*, 2003)
 - (h) Anterior or diffuse PNH with duplication 5p15.33 (Sheen *et al.*, 2003)
 - (i) Diffuse (but variable) PNH with del 6q27 (W.B.D, in preparation)
 - (j) PNH and Williams syndrome with del 7q11.23, including *HIP1* and *YWHAG* (Ferland *et al.*, 2006; Ramocki *et al.*, 2010)
 - (k) PNH with del 4p15 (gene not identified) (Gawlik-Kuklinska *et al.*, 2008)
 - (l) PNH with deletion 5q14.3–q15 (Cardoso *et al.*, 2009)
 - (m) PNH and agenesis of the corpus callosum with del 1p36.22-pter (Neal *et al.*, 2006)
 - Genetically defined with XL inheritance
 - (n) Bilateral PNH due to mutations of *FLNA*, with/without Ehlers–Danlos (Sheen *et al.*, 2001; Parrini *et al.*, 2006)
 - (o) PNH and Fragile X syndrome (Moro *et al.*, 2006)
 - (2) Posterior predominant (temporal-trigonal) PNH
 - Clinically defined with unknown cause
 - (a) Posterior PNH only
 - (b) Posterior PNH with hippocampal dysgenesis, colpocephaly, anomalies of midbrain tectum or cerebellar hypoplasia
 - (c) Posterior PNH with posterior PMG (Wieck *et al.*, 2005)
 - (3) Periventricular heterotopia, not nodular (unilateral or bilateral)
 - Clinically defined with unknown cause
 - (a) Diffuse PLH
 - (b) Frontal predominant PLH
 - (c) Posterior predominant PLH
 - (4) Ribbon-like heterotopia, bilateral undulating heterotopic band
 - Clinically defined with unknown cause
 - (a) Posterior predominant ribbon-like heterotopia
 - (b) Diffuse ribbon-like heterotopia
 - (B) MALFORMATIONS DUE TO GENERALIZED ABNORMAL TRANSMANTLE MIGRATION (radial and non-radial)
 - (1) Anterior predominant or diffuse classic (four-layered) LIS and SBH
 - Clinically defined with unknown cause
 - (a) Anterior predominant LIS with abrupt transition and cerebellar hypoplasia (previously LCHe)
 - (b) Anterior predominant or diffuse LIS (ILS)
 - Clinically defined with AR inheritance
 - (c) Anterior predominant LIS (ILS) with AR inheritance
 - (d) Winter–Tsukahara syndrome (Levin *et al.*, 1993)
 - Clinically defined with AD (new mutation) inheritance
 - (e) Baraitser–Winter syndrome with anterior or diffuse LIS–SBH (Rossi *et al.*, 2003)
 - (f) Anterior predominant LIS (ILS) or SBH with *DCX* mutation at Xq22.3–q23 (Dobyns *et al.*, 1999)

(continued)

Appendix 1 Continued

- (2) Posterior predominant or diffuse classic (four-layered) and two-layered (without cell-sparse zone) LIS and SBH
Clinically defined with unknown cause
- Posterior predominant or diffuse LIS with brainstem and cerebellar hypoplasia, with/without ACC (includes former LCHa, LCHc, LCHd, LCHf (Ross *et al.*, 2001))
 - Posterior predominant or diffuse LIS (ILS) (Pilz *et al.*, 1998, Dobyns *et al.*, 1999)
 - Diffuse LIS with hair and nail anomalies (Celentano *et al.*, 2006)
 - Perisylvian (central) pachygyria (ILS)
 - Ribbon like deep white matter heterotopia with/without ACC, thin overlying cortex
Clinically defined with AD inheritance
 - Posterior predominant SBH (Deconinck *et al.*, 2003)
Genetically defined with AD inheritance (new mutation)
 - Posterior or diffuse LIS with cerebellar hypoplasia or LIS (ILS) with *TUBA1A* mutations at 12q12-q14 (Poirier *et al.*, 2007; Kumar *et al.*, 2010)
 - Miller-Dieker syndrome (four-layered) with deletion 17p13.3 (*YWHAE* to *LIS1*) (Dobyns *et al.*, 1991)
 - Posterior or diffuse LIS (ILS, four-layered) or posterior SBH with *LIS1* deletions or mutations at 17p13.3 (Dobyns *et al.*, 1993; Pilz *et al.*, 1999)
- (3) X-linked lissencephaly (three-layered, without cell-sparse zone) with callosal agenesis, ambiguous genitalia (XLAG)
Clinically defined with unknown cause
- XLAG-like syndrome with temporal-posterior predominant LIS, ACC, microphthalmia and midline cleft lip and palate
 - XLAG with temporal-posterior predominant LIS and ACC with mutations in *ARX* at Xp22.13 (Bonneau *et al.*, 2002)
- (4) Reelin-type LIS (inverted cortical lamination, without cell-sparse zone)
Clinically defined with AR inheritance
- Frontal predominant mild LIS with severe hippocampal and CBLH (Kato *et al.*, 1999)
Genetically defined with AR inheritance
 - Frontal predominant mild LIS with severe hippocampal and CBLH with *RELN* mutation at 7q22 (Hong *et al.*, 2000)
 - Frontal predominant mild LIS with severe hippocampal and CBLH with *VLDLR* mutation at 9p24 (Boycott *et al.*, 2005)
- (5) Variant LIS (other rare types exist but are poorly characterized)
- (C) MALFORMATIONS PRESUMABLY DUE TO LOCALIZED ABNORMAL LATE RADIAL OR TANGENTIAL TRANSMANTLE MIGRATION
- Subcortical heterotopia (other than band heterotopia or cortical infolding), all clinically defined with unknown cause
 - Curvilinear transmantle heterotopia, with thinning of overlying cortex, decreased volume of affected hemisphere, with/without ACC, with/without basal ganglia anomalies (Barkovich, 1996)
 - Multinodular subcortical heterotopia with thin overlying cortex, with/without PMG (Barkovich, 2000)
 - Transmantle columnar heterotopia with/without PNH
 - Sublobar Dysplasia, clinically defined with unknown cause (Tuxhorn *et al.*, 2009)
- (D) MALFORMATIONS DUE TO ABNORMAL TERMINAL MIGRATION AND DEFECTS IN PIAL LIMITING MEMBRANE
- Dystroglycan–laminin complex abnormalities with cobblestone malformation complex (COB), with or without congenital muscular dystrophy
Clinically defined with AR inheritance but causative gene unknown
 - Walker–Warburg syndrome (Dobyns *et al.*, 1985, 1997)
 - Muscle–eye–brain syndrome (Santavuori *et al.*, 1989; Haltia *et al.*, 1997)
 - Congenital muscular dystrophy with CBLH (Italian MEB)
Genetically defined with frontal predominant COB and AR inheritance
 - WWS or MEB with *POMT1* mutation at 9q34.1 (Beltran-Valero de Bernabe *et al.*, 2002; van Reeuwijk *et al.*, 2006)
 - WWS or MEB with *POMT2* mutation at 14q24.3 (van Reeuwijk *et al.*, 2005; Mercuri *et al.*, 2006)
 - MEB with *POMGnT1* mutation at 1p34–p33 (Manya *et al.*, 2003)
 - WWS, FCMD or FCMD with retinal abnormality (MEB-like) with *FKTN* mutation at 9q31 (Beltran-Valero de Bernabe *et al.*, 2003, Manzini *et al.*, 2008, Yoshioka, 2009, Yis *et al.*, 2011)
 - WWS or MEB with *FKRP* mutation at 19q13.3 (Beltran-Valero de Bernabe *et al.*, 2004)
 - WWS or MEB with *LARGE* mutation at 22q12.3–q13.1 (van Reeuwijk *et al.*, 2007)
Genetically defined with posterior predominate COB and AR inheritance
 - Posterior predominant COB and CMD with *LAMA1A* mutation at 18p11.31
 - Posterior predominant COB with *LAMC3* mutation at 9q33–q34 (lacks CMD) (Barak *et al.*, 2011)
 - Cobblestone malformations in CDG
Genetically defined with AR inheritance
 - CHIME-like syndrome with frontal predominant COB with *SRD5A3* mutation at 4q12 (Al-Gazali *et al.*, 2008; Cantagrel *et al.*, 2010)

(continued)

Appendix 1 Continued

- (b) Debré-type cutis laxa with frontal predominant COB and *ATP6V0A2* mutation at 12q24.3 (Kornak *et al.*, 2008; Van Maldergem *et al.*, 2008)
 - (3) Cobblestone malformation with no known glycosylation defect
 - (a) Frontal predominant COB with *GPR56* mutations at 16q13 ('bilateral frontoparietal polymicrogyria') (Piao *et al.*, 2002, 2005)
 - (b) Walker-Warburg syndrome secondary to *COL4A1* mutations at 13q34 (Labelle-Dumais *et al.*, 2011)
 - (4) Other syndromes with cortical dysgenesis and marginal glioneuronal heterotopia, but with normal cell types
 - Clinically defined with extrinsic or unknown cause
 - (a) Foetal alcohol syndrome
 - Clinically defined with AR inheritance
 - (b) Galloway–Mowat syndrome
- (III) MALFORMATIONS DUE TO ABNORMAL POSTMIGRATIONAL DEVELOPMENT
- (A) MALFORMATIONS WITH PMG OR CORTICAL MALFORMATIONS RESEMBLING PMG
- (1) PMG (classic) with transmantle clefts (schizencephaly) or calcification
 - Clinically defined with clefts suggesting vascular pathogenesis or unknown cause
 - (a) Schizencephaly (Barkovich and Kjos, 1992)
 - (b) Septo-optic dysplasia with schizencephaly (Barkovich *et al.*, 1989)
 - Clinically defined with prenatal viral exposure (especially CMV)
 - (c) Schizencephaly with positive neonatal CMV testing (Iannetti *et al.*, 1998)
 - (d) Diffuse or patchy PMG with periventricular calcifications and positive neonatal CMV testing
 - (e) Diffuse, patchy or perisylvian PMG with hearing loss and positive neonatal CMV testing
 - Clinically defined with AR inheritance
 - (f) Familial schizencephaly with single unilateral or bilateral clefts (Haverkamp *et al.*, 1995)
 - (g) Familial schizencephaly with multiple bilateral clefts
 - (h) Band-like calcifications with PMG (pseudo-TORCH) (Briggs *et al.*, 2008)
 - Genetically defined with AR inheritance
 - (i) Band-like calcifications with PMG (pseudo-TORCH) with mutations of *OCLN1* at 5q13.2 (O'Driscoll *et al.*, 2010)
 - (2) Polymicrogyria without clefts or calcifications classified by location
 - Clinically defined bilateral PMG without clefts of unknown cause
 - (a) Generalized PMG (Chang *et al.*, 2004)
 - (b) Frontal PMG (Guerrini *et al.*, 2000)
 - (c) Perisylvian PMG (Kuzniecky *et al.*, 1993)
 - (d) Posterior PMG (lateral parieto-occipital) (Barkovich *et al.*, 1999)
 - (e) Parasagittal PMG
 - (f) Parasagittal mesial occipital PMG (Guerrini *et al.*, 1997)
 - Clinically defined unilateral PMG without clefts of unknown cause
 - (g) Hemispheric PMG (Chang *et al.*, 2006)
 - (h) Perisylvian PMG (Chang *et al.*, 2006)
 - (i) Focal PMG (Barkovich, 2010a)
 - (3) Syndromes with PMG (neuropathology may differ from classic PMG)
 - Clinically defined syndromes with AD inheritance
 - (a) Adams–Oliver syndrome AD form (Snape *et al.*, 2009)
 - Clinically defined syndromes with AR inheritance
 - (b) Adams–Oliver syndrome AR form (Snape *et al.*, 2009)
 - (c) Joubert syndrome and related disorders with PMG, includes Meckel–Gruber, Arima (cerebro-oculo-renal) and Joubert syndromes with causative genes unknown (Gleeson *et al.*, 2004)
 - Clinically defined syndromes with XL inheritance (probable)
 - (d) Aicardi syndrome (Aicardi, 2005)
 - (e) Oculocerebrocutaneous (Delleman) syndrome (Moog *et al.*, 2005)
 - Genetically defined with AD inheritance (new mutations)
 - (f) Fronto-parietal PMG, variable ACC and delayed myelination of anterior limb internal capsule with *TUBB2B* mutations at 6p25.2 (Jaglin *et al.*, 2009)
 - (g) Fronto-parietal PMG, variable with *TUBB3* mutations at 16q24.3 (Poirier *et al.*, 2010)
 - (h) Knobloch syndrome with high myopia, vitreoretinal degeneration, retinal detachment, occipital cephalocele and variable PMG with *COL18A1* mutations at 21q22.3 (Sertié *et al.*, 2000)
 - (i) Aniridia, variable temporal PMG, absent anterior commissure and pineal gland, and variable CBLH with *PAX6* mutations at 11p13 (Mitchell *et al.*, 2003; Graziano *et al.*, 2007)
 - (j) Perisylvian PMG with deletion 1p36.3 (gene not identified) (Dobyns *et al.*, 2008)
 - (k) Perisylvian PMG with deletion 22q11.2 (gene not identified) (Cramer *et al.*, 1996)

Appendix 1 Continued

- Genetically defined with AR inheritance
- (l) Goldberg–Shprintzen (megacolon) syndrome with mutations of *KIAA1279* at 10q22.1 (Brooks *et al.*, 2005)
 - (m) Joubert syndrome with variable (low penetrance) PMG and *AHI1* mutations at 6q23.3 (Dixon-Salazar *et al.*, 2004; Valente *et al.*, 2006)
 - (n) Meckel–Gruber syndrome with variable (low penetrance) PMG and *TMEM216* mutations at 11q12.2 (Valente *et al.*, 2010)
 - (o) Generalized (versus perisylvian) PMG, ACC and optic nerve hypoplasia with *TUBA8* mutations at 22q11.21 (Abdollahi *et al.*, 2009)
 - (p) Perisylvian PMG, ACC, delayed myelination of anterior limb internal capsule and cerebellar vermian hypoplasia with mutation of *TBR2 (EOMES)* at 3p24.1 (Baala *et al.*, 2007)
 - (q) Warburg Micro syndrome with mutations of *RAB3GAP1* at 2q21.3 (Morris-Rosendahl *et al.*, 2010)
 - (r) Warburg Micro syndrome with mutations of *RAB3GAP2* at 1q41 (Borck *et al.*, 2011)
 - (s) Warburg Micro syndrome with mutations of *RAB18* at 10p12.1 (Bem *et al.*, 2011)
- Genetically defined with XL inheritance
- (t) Perisylvian PMG, rolandic seizures and speech-language dyspraxia with *SRPX2* at Xq22.1 mutations (Roll *et al.*, 2006, 2010)
 - (u) Perisylvian PMG, mild MIC and thin body habitus with *NSDHL* mutation at Xq28 (McLarren *et al.*, 2010)
 - (v) Perisylvian PMG with Xq27 locus (gene not identified) (Santos *et al.*, 2008)
 - (w) Perisylvian PMG with Xq28 locus (gene not identified) (Villard *et al.*, 2002)
- (B) CORTICAL DYSGENESIS SECONDARY TO INBORN ERRORS OF METABOLISM (neuropathology differs from classic PMG)
Genetically and biochemically defined with AR inheritance
- (1) Mitochondrial and pyruvate metabolic disorders
 - (a) Non-ketotic hyperglycinaemia with mutations of *GLDC* at 9p24.1, *GCSH* at 16q23.2 or *AMT* at 3p21.31
 - (b) Multiple Acyl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiency (Glutaric aciduria type II) with mutations of *ETFA* at 15q24.2–q24.3, *ETFB* at 19q13.41 or *ETFDH* at 4q32.1 (Govaert *et al.*, 2004)
 - (2) Peroxisomal disorders
 - (a) Zellweger syndrome with mutation of many genes involved in peroxisomal biogenesis (Volpe and Adams, 1972; Steinberg *et al.*, 2006)
 - (b) Neonatal adrenoleukodystrophy with mutation of many genes involved in peroxisomal biogenesis (Kamei *et al.*, 1993)
 - (c) D-Bifunctional protein deficiency with *HSD17B4* mutation at 5q2 (Grønborg *et al.*, 2010)
- (C) FOCAL CORTICAL DYSPLASIAS (WITHOUT DYSMORPHIC NEURONS) DUE TO LATE DEVELOPMENTAL DISTURBANCES
Clinically/histologically defined and sporadic
- (1) Minor malformations of Cortical Development (mMCD)
 - (2) Type I FCD
 - (a) Abnormal radial cortical lamination (Blümcke *et al.*, 2011)
 - (b) Abnormal tangential cortical lamination (Blümcke *et al.*, 2011)
 - (c) Abnormal radial and tangential lamination (Blümcke *et al.*, 2011)
 - (3) Type III FCD
 - (a) Associated with hippocampal sclerosis (Blümcke *et al.*, 2011)
 - (b) Associated with tumors (Blümcke *et al.*, 2011)
 - (c) Associated with vascular malformations (Blümcke *et al.*, 2011)
 - (d) Associated with other principal lesions during early life (Blümcke *et al.*, 2011)
- (D) POSTMIGRATIONAL DEVELOPMENTAL MICROCEPHALY (PREVIOUSLY POSTNATAL MIC) WITH BIRTH OFC –3 SD OR LARGER, LATER OFC BELOW –4 SD AND NO EVIDENCE OF BRAIN INJURY
- (1) Postmigrational MIC with limited functional deficits
Clinically defined
 - (a) Postmigrational MIC with no cause or syndrome identified
 Genetically defined with AD inheritance (sporadic new mutations)
 - (b) MIC and mild ID with *SHH* mutation (Ginocchio *et al.*, 2008)
 - (c) MIC and variable ACC with deletion 1q43q44 (includes *AKT3*) (Hill *et al.*, 2007)
 - (2) Postmigrational MIC with broad functional deficits consistent with a 'developmental encephalopathy' (Angelman-like, Rett-like class of disorders)
Clinically defined with AR inheritance
 - (a) PEHO syndrome (Salonen *et al.*, 1991; Vanhatalo *et al.*, 2002)
 Genetically defined with AD inheritance (sporadic new mutations)
 - (b) Pitt–Hopkins syndrome with mutations of *TCF4* at 18q21.1 (Zweier *et al.*, 2007)
 - (c) FOXP1 syndrome with deletions or mutations of *FOXP1* at 14q13 (Kortüm *et al.*, 2011)
 - (d) Duplication of *FOXP1* at 14q13 (Brunetti-Pierri *et al.*, 2011)

(continued)

Appendix 1 Continued

- Genetically defined with AD inheritance (or pathogenic *de novo* copy number variant) and imprinting effects
- (e) Maternal duplication 15q11.2 (Kitsiou-Tzeli *et al.*, 2010)
 - (f) Angelman syndrome with maternally deletion 15q11.2 or mutation of *UBE3A* at 15q11.2 (Matsuura *et al.*, 1997)
- Genetically defined with AR inheritance
- (g) Pitt–Hopkins like syndrome with mutations of *NRXN1* at 2p16.3 (Zweier *et al.*, 2009)
 - (h) Pitt–Hopkins-like syndrome with mutations of *CNTNAP2* at 7q35–q36 (Zweier *et al.*, 2009)
 - (i) Pontocerebellar hypoplasia with mutations of *TSEN54* at 17q25.1, *TSEN2* at 3p25.1, *TSEN34* at 19q13.4, *RARS2* at 6q16.1 (Namavar *et al.*, 2011)
- Genetically defined with XL inheritance
- (j) Rett syndrome with mutations of *MECP2* at Xq28 (Amir *et al.*, 1999)
 - (k) Angelman-like syndrome with mutations of *SLC9A6* at Xq26.3 (Gilfillan *et al.*, 2008)
 - (l) X-linked mental retardation and autistic features with mutations of *JARID1C* at xp11.22–p11.21 (Jensen *et al.*, 2005; Abidi *et al.*, 2008)
 - (m) X-linked MIC with disproportionate cerebellar hypoplasia with mutations of *CASK* at Xp11.4 (in females) (Najm *et al.*, 2008)

ACC = agenesis of corpus callosum; AD = autosomal dominant inheritance; AR = autosomal recessive inheritance; CBLH = cerebellar hypoplasia; CDG = congenital disorders of glycosylation; CHIME = coloboma, heart defect, ichthyosiform dermatosis, mental retardation, ear anomalies; CMD = congenital muscular dystrophy; CMV = cytomegalovirus; COB = cobblestone complex; DD/ID = developmental delay/intellectual disability; DNET = dysembryoplastic neuroepithelial tumour; FCMD = Fukuyama congenital muscular dystrophy; HMEG = hemimegalencephaly; ILS = isolated lissencephaly syndrome; IUGR = intrauterine growth retardation; LCH = lissencephaly with cerebellar hypoplasia; LIS = lissencephaly; MACS = macrocephaly, alopecia, cutis laxa, scoliosis; MAP = microcephaly with asymmetric polymicrogyria; MCPH = autosomal recessive primary microcephaly; MDP = microcephaly with diffuse polymicrogyria; MEB = muscle–eye–brain syndrome; MEG = megalencephaly; MIC = microcephaly; MLIS = microcephaly with lissencephaly; MOPD = microcephalic osteodysplastic primordial dwarfism syndrome; MPPH = megalencephaly with polymicrogyria, polydactyly and hydrocephalus; PEHO = progressive encephalopathy with oedema, hypsarrhythmia and optic atrophy; PLH = periventricular laminar heterotopia; PMG = polymicrogyria; PMSE = polyhydramnios, megalencephaly and symptomatic epilepsy; PNH = periventricular nodular heterotopia; SBH = subcortical band heterotopia; SIMP = simplified gyral pattern; WWS = Walker–Warburg syndrome; XL = X-linked inheritance; XLAG = X-linked lissencephaly with agenesis of corpus callosum and ambiguous genitalia.