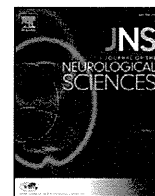


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Letter to the Editor

Megalencephalic leukoencephalopathy with subcortical cysts caused by compound heterozygous mutations in *MLC1*, in patients with and without subcortical cysts in the brain



Keywords:

Van der Knaap disease
Megalencephalic leukoencephalopathy
Subcortical cysts
MLC1 mutation
MRI
Astrocytes

To the Editor,

Megalencephalic leukoencephalopathy with subcortical cysts (MLC) is a rare hereditary disorder characterized by infantile-onset macrocephaly and a gradual onset of progressive neurological symptoms including ataxia, spasticity, and mild mental decline [1]. As the name of the disorder suggests, patients with MLC invariably had subcortical cysts in the anterior temporal region of the brain [1].

Mutations in two different genes, *MLC1* and *GLIALCAM*, may cause MLC [1,2]. Homozygous or compound heterozygous mutations of *MLC1* were reportedly found in approximately 75% of MLC patients. *MLC1* is a plasma membrane protein expressed in the brain and is mainly localized in astrocyte–astrocyte junctions and Bergmann glial cells [3,4]. Although pathophysiological functions of the *MLC1* protein remain to be fully elucidated, this protein may be involved in ion transport and water homeostasis [1,5].

In this manuscript, we report on two adult MLC patients who had compound heterozygous mutations, p.Ser93Leu/Ala275Asp, in the *MLC1* gene with and without subcortical cysts in the brain. These findings are important for making an accurate diagnosis of this disease.

1. Case report

A 21-year-old female patient (case 1) was the second child to healthy and non-consanguineous parents. Her birth weight, length, and head circumference were 2988 g (25th–75th percentile), 51 cm (5th–95th percentile), and 34.5 cm (25th–75th percentile), respectively. Her head circumference was 43.5 cm (more than 95th percentile) at 3 months of age, which indicated mild macrocephaly. She rolled over and controlled her head at 4 and 8 months of age, respectively. She

walked alone at 16 months of age, but with some difficulty. She showed a gait disturbance at 2.5 years of age and lost the ability to walk and sit unsupported at 3 years of age. Generalized clonic–tonic seizures occurred at 3 years of age and continued until 9 years of age. She was treated with sodium valproate. Brain magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) at 3 years old revealed extensive bilaterally symmetrical white matter changes. She was undiagnosed at that time. Her symptoms progressed gradually. At 21 years of age, she had dysarthria, spasticity, and ataxia. Mental impairment was not observed. Her mini-mental state examination (MMSE) score was 29/30. Brain MRI revealed a diffuse high intensity in the cerebral white matter on fluid-attenuated inversion recovery (FLAIR) images; subcortical cysts were not found in all sections (axial, coronal, sagittal image) in the brain (Fig. 1A–F).

Her younger sister, an 18-year-old female patient (case 2), had been previously diagnosed as having unclassified leukoencephalopathy. Her birth weight, length, and head circumference were 2904 g (25th–75th percentile), 48 cm (25th–75th percentile), and 31 cm (5th–95th percentile), respectively. She rolled over and controlled her head at 5 and 8 months of age, respectively. She walked alone at 18 months of age but fell down easily. She lost the ability to walk and sit unsupported at 2 years of age. At 18 years of age, she also had dysarthria, spasticity, and ataxia without mental impairment. Her MMSE score was 28/30. Brain MRI FLAIR images revealed a diffuse high intensity in the cerebral white matter, with subcortical cysts in the bilateral anterior temporal region (Fig. 1G–J).

We analyzed the *MLC1* cDNA from peripheral leukocytes by using sequence analysis [6] in case 1, case 2, and their parents after we had obtained informed consent. Case 1 and case 2 had compound heterozygous mutations, c. 393C > T (p.Ser93Leu) in exon 4 and c. 823C > A (p.Ala275Asp) in exon 10. Their father had a heterozygous p.Ala275Asp mutation, and their mother had a heterozygous p.Ser93Leu mutation. On the basis of these genetic analysis results, we diagnosed the sisters as having MLC.

2. Discussion

Here, we described two Japanese sisters affected with MLC that was caused by compound heterozygous mutations, p.Ser93Leu/Ala275Asp, in the *MLC1* gene. *MLC1* p.Ser93Leu and p.Ala275Asp mutations were frequently found, especially in Japanese MLC patients [6–9]. Although these two sisters with MLC caused by the same compound heterozygous mutations had similar clinical disease courses and symptoms, subcortical cysts occurred in the brain of only one patient (case 2).

As the name of the disorder suggests, the presence of subcortical cysts in the anterior temporal region, and frequently also in the frontal and parietal regions, is a hallmark of MLC [1]. We did not find any cysts, however, in one MLC patient (case 1). To the best of our knowledge, this patient (case 1) is the first MLC case without subcortical cysts findings in MRI. This patient (case 1) with leukoencephalopathy did not receive a definitive diagnosis until she was 21 years old because

Abbreviations: MLC, megalencephalic leukoencephalopathy with subcortical cysts; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; FLAIR, fluid-attenuated inversion recovery.

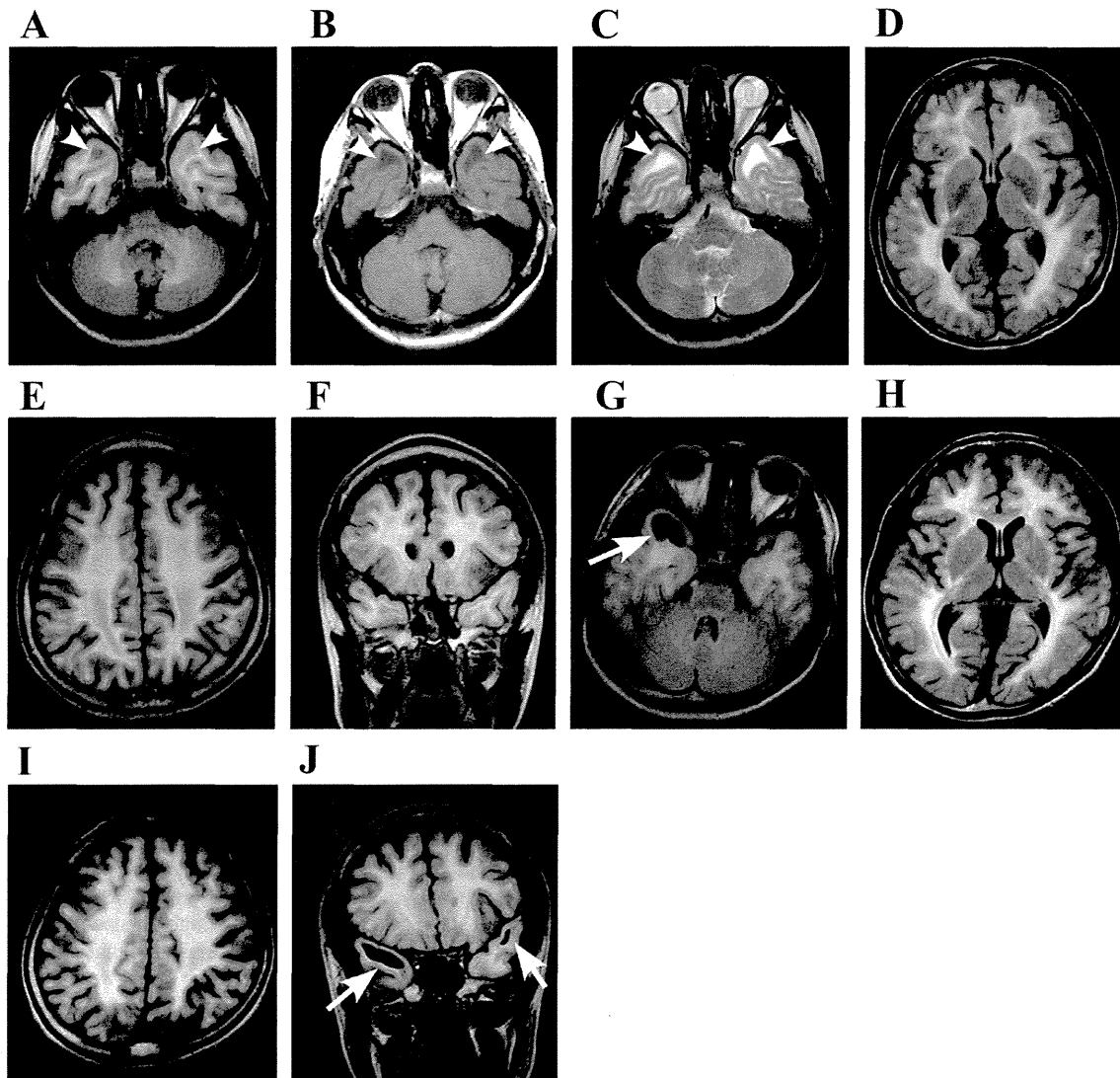


Fig. 1. Brain MRI images of the two adult sisters with MLC. (A–F) Case 1 (II-2). (G–J) Case 2 (II-3). (A, D–J) FLAIR images. (B) T1-weighted image. (C) T2-weighted image. Arrows point to subcortical cysts in the anterior temporal region; the arrowheads indicate anterior temporal lesions without cystic changes in MRI.

her brain MRI did not show the typical subcortical cyst findings. MRI findings in her younger sister (case 2) provided an important clue to her definitive diagnosis. As clinicians attempting to make an accurate diagnosis of MLC, we should understand that certain MLC patients may not have subcortical cysts in the brain.

Via careful evaluation of the FLAIR images, we found small lesions which were isointense with the cortex in the white matter of the anterior temporal region in case 1 (Fig. 1C). These lesions were low intensity in T1-weighted image and high intensity in T2-weighted image. Van der Knaap et al. reported that MLC patients had large numbers of microscopic vacuoles in the white matter based on histopathological examinations [10]. The anterior temporal lesions which were isointense with the cortex without cysts in the FLAIR images may have microscopic vacuoles in the white matter. Since subcortical cysts in MLC might change in size and number over time, subcortical cysts could have been present on earlier MRIs in the case 1. Also, longitudinal follow-up evaluation of this MRI finding should be performed.

In conclusion, in this report, we described two adult sisters with MLC caused by compound heterozygous mutations of *MLC1*, one sister with and one sister without subcortical cysts in the brain. We should thus include MLC in the differential diagnosis of leukoencephalopathy, even in adult patients without subcortical cysts.

Declaration of conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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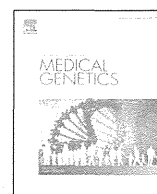
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30 January 2015



Clinical research

Leukoencephalopathy associated with 11q24 deletion involving the gene encoding hepatic and glial cell adhesion molecule in two patients



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ABSTRACT

Leukoencephalopathies are heterogeneous entities with white matter abnormalities. Mutations of the gene encoding hepatic and glial cell adhesion molecule (*HEPACAM*) located on 11q24 are related to one of the leukoencephalopathies: megalencephalic leukoencephalopathy with subcortical cysts type 2 (*MLC2*). Genomic copy number aberrations were analyzed by microarray comparative hybridization for two patients. One patient who presented with abnormal intensity of the white matter had been previously been diagnosed with the typical genotype and phenotype of Jacobsen syndrome due to an 11q subtelomere deletion, which was further characterized here. In a second patient who exhibited the characteristic finding of leukoencephalopathy, an interstitial deletion of 11q24 was also identified. *HEPACAM* was involved in both deletions. We therefore suggest that haploinsufficiency of *HEPACAM*, a gene previously associated with the features of *MLC2* and located on the overlapping deletion region between the two patients, might be related to the observed white matter abnormalities.

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1. Introduction

Leukoencephalopathies are heterogeneous entities characterized by white matter abnormalities (Schiffmann and van der Knaap, 2009). Leukoencephalopathies are generally diagnosed on the basis of their clinical course and neurological findings; however, the patterns of the neuroradiological findings serve as critical elements for ascertaining the specific diagnosis or disease classification (Schiffmann and van der Knaap, 2009). Megalencephalic leukoencephalopathy with subcortical cysts (MLC, MIM #604004) is one type of leukoencephalopathy wherein patients show early onset macrocephaly and delayed-onset neurological deterioration (van der Knaap et al., 1995). Typical patients with MLC show characteristic neuroradiological findings with subcortical cysts in the anterior-temporal region and/or in the frontoparietal region

(van der Knaap et al., 2012). Cases of leukoencephalopathy associated with typical findings are relatively easily diagnosed, and 75% of patients with MLC show mutations in *MLC1* (MIM #605908), which is a major gene responsible for MLC that is located on chromosome 22q13.33 (Leegwater et al., 2001). Such molecular genetic evaluation is often required for the final diagnosis (Shimada et al., 2014). The remaining 25% of the patients manifesting the features of MLC show no mutation in *MLC1*, indicating genetic heterogeneity within the leukoencephalopathies. In 2011, the gene encoding the hepatic and glial cell adhesion molecule (*HEPACAM*, MIM #611642) was identified as the second gene associated with MLC features (Arnedo et al., 2014; Lopez-Hernandez et al., 2011a). *HEPACAM* and *MLC1* both localize in axons and colocalize in the junctions between astrocytes, and *HEPACAM* has been shown to be required as a chaperon for proper localization of *MLC1* and activation of volume-regulated anion currents (Capdevila-Nortes et al., 2013; Lopez-Hernandez et al., 2011b).

In this study, we identified two patients with white matter abnormalities associated with partial deletions of chromosome 11. We found that the shortest region of overlap (SRO) of both patients

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included the *HEPACAM* locus. In addition, we discuss the functional relevance of haploinsufficiency of *HEPACAM* in these two patients in association with leukoencephalopathies.

2. Methods

This study was approved by the ethics committee in Tokyo Women's Medical University. After obtaining written informed consents from the patients' families, blood samples were obtained from the patients. Chromosomal microarray testing was performed using the Agilent 60K Human Genome CGH Microarray platform (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) according to the method described previously (Yamamoto et al., 2011, 2014). Sanger sequencing analysis for *MLC1* and for five genes encoding subunits of the eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2B (*EIF2B1*, *EIF2B2*, *EIF2B3*, *EIF2B4*, and *EIF2B5*) was performed for patient 2 in accordance with our previous studies (Shimada et al., 2012, 2014, 2015). The respective *HEPACAM* sequences were also analyzed by Sanger sequencing for both patients 1 and 2.

3. Results

3.1. Molecular cytogenetic analyses

The two patients reported in this study showed genomic copy number losses in 11q (Fig. 1). Patient 1 showed a subtelomeric deletion of 11q [arr 11q23.3q25(120,930,746–134,868,407) × 1]. The parents of this patient declined to be genotyped. Patient 2 showed an interstitial deletion of 11q [arr 11q23.3q24.2(119,982,356–125,310,469) × 1]. This region was not deleted in either parent of this patient, indicating *de novo* occurrence in patient 2. Additionally, patient 2 did not show any

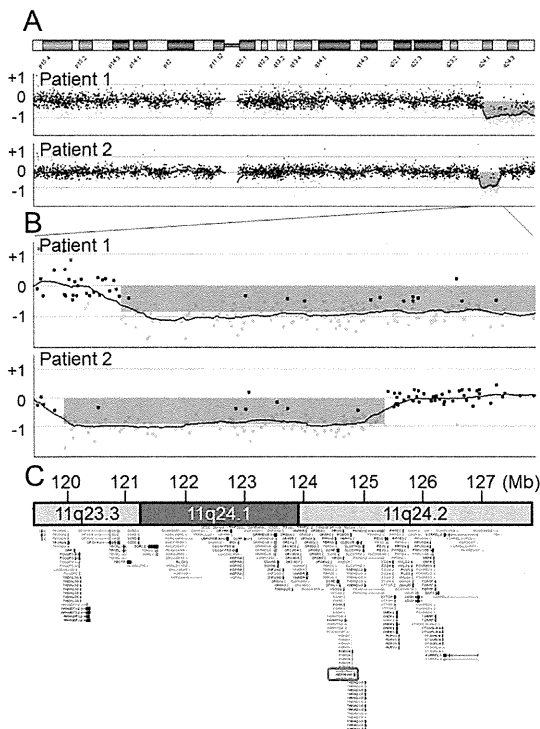


Fig. 1. Genome map of 11q and the results of chromosomal microarray testing. (A) The Chromosome View shows genomic copy number losses in the 11q24 regions in both patients. (B) The shortest region of overlap (SRO) is expanded in the Gene View. (C) Genome map in the same scale as shown in B. *HEPACAM* (red rectangle) is included in the SRO. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

mutation in the coding regions of *MLC1*, *EIF2B1*, *EIF2B2*, *EIF2B3*, *EIF2B4*, and *EIF2B5*. No mutations were identified in the remaining allele of *HEPACAM* in either patient.

3.2. Patient reports

3.2.1. Patient 1

A 5-year-old girl was born with a birth weight of 1744 g (<3rd centile), a length of 41 cm (<3rd centile), and an occipitofrontal circumference (OFC) of 29.5 cm (3rd–10th centile) at 37 weeks of gestation. Her Apgar score was 5/9 at 1/5 min. After birth, petechial spots were noted on her entire body. Blood examination revealed a low concentration of platelets (17,000/ μ l). No visceral anomaly was noted. In infancy, she showed delayed growth and development. She started walking without support at the age of 3 years and 5 months. At the age of 3 years and 8 months, her height was 84.5 cm (<3rd centile) and weight was 12.3 kg (10th–25th centile). At that time, brain magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) revealed signal abnormalities in the white matter, predominantly in the deep white matter of the bilateral occipital lobes and faintly in the subcortical regions (Fig. 2). Conventional chromosomal analysis revealed an abnormal karyotype of 46,XX,del(11) (q23), indicating Jacobsen syndrome. Because the clinical features of the patient were compatible with those of Jacobsen syndrome, clinical diagnosis was confirmed.

At present, she still has not spoken meaningful words. The patient has a round face, short neck, bilateral ptosis, long philtrum, and thin upper vermillion. Laboratory examination has revealed her peripheral platelet level in the range of 10,000–80,000/ μ l.

3.2.2. Patient 2

A 20-month-old boy was born with a birth weight of 3105 g (50th–75th centile), a length of 49.4 cm (50th–75th centile), and an OFC of 36.0 cm (>97th centile) at 41 weeks of gestation, suggesting prenatal macrocephaly. He showed mild psychomotor developmental delay and could stand-up with support at 15 months of age. At present, he can walk with support and can speak only some decipherable words. He shows no distinctive features except for left ptosis and right cryptorchidism. His OFC is 49 cm (50th–75th centile), indicating improvement upon his initial macrocephaly. Brain MRI examination at 20 months of age revealed signal abnormalities remarkably in the subcortical regions rather than in the deep white matter (Fig. 2).

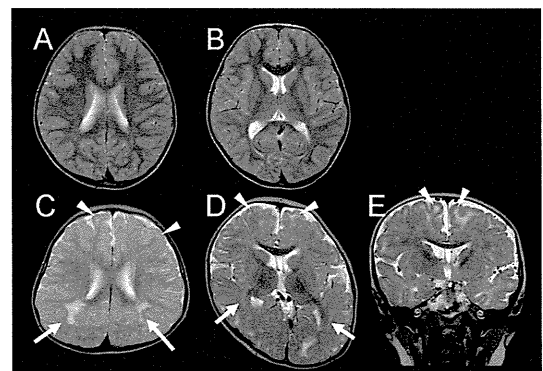
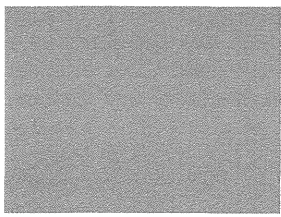


Fig. 2. Brain MRI findings of the patients reported in this study. (A and B) The T2-weighted axial images of a normally developing 4-year-old boy, who was examined for the aim of the disease screening for epilepsy, with normal MRI results. (C) The T2-weighted axial image of patient 1 examined at 3 years and 8 months of age. (D, E) The T2-weighted axial (D) and coronal (E) images of patient 2 examined at 20 months of age. Compared to the normal control (A, B), both patients show T2-high intensities in their deep (arrows) and subcortical (arrow heads) white matter.

Table 1
Gene information included in the deletion region of the patients.

Gene symbol	Gene/Locus MIM number	Description	Position ^a	Phenotype MIM number	Phenotype	Deletion region of the patients
<i>TRIM29</i>	#610658	tripartite motif containing 29	119,981,994–119,992,701			Patient 2
<i>OAF</i>		OAF homolog (<i>Drosophila</i>)	120,081,747–120,100,650			
<i>POU2F3</i>	#607394	POU class 2 homeobox 3	120,107,349–120,190,653			
<i>TMEM136</i>		transmembrane protein 136	120,195,838–120,204,388			
<i>ARHGEF12</i>	#604763	Rho guanine nucleotide exchange factor (GEF) 12	120,207,618–120,360,645			
<i>GRIK4</i>	#600282	glutamate receptor, ionotropic, kainate 4	120,530,978–120,856,969			
<i>TBCEL</i>	#610451	tubulin folding cofactor E-like	120,894,803–120,960,354			
<i>TECTA</i>	#602574	tectorin alpha	120,973,375–121,061,515	#601543	Deafness, autosomal dominant 8/12	Patient 1
				#603629	Deafness, autosomal recessive 21	
<i>SC5D</i>	#602286	sterol-C5-desaturase	121,163,388–121,184,119	#607330	Lathosterolosis	
<i>SORL1</i>	#602005	sortilin-related receptor, L(DLR class) A repeats containing	121,322,912–121,504,471	#104300	Association with Alzheimer disease	
<i>BLID</i>	#608853	BH3-like motif containing, cell death inducer	121,986,062–121,986,923			
<i>UBASH3B</i>	#609201	ubiquitin associated and SH3 domain containing B	122,526,398–122,685,187			
<i>CRTAM</i>	#612597	cytotoxic and regulatory T cell molecule	122,709,255–122,743,347			
<i>C11orf63</i>		chromosome 11 open reading frame 63	122,753,236–122,830,430			
<i>BSX</i>	#611074	brain-specific homeobox	122,848,357–122,852,379			
<i>HSPA8</i>	#600816	heat shock 70 kDa protein 8	122,928,200–122,931,094			
<i>CLMP</i>	#611693	CXADR-like membrane protein	122,943,033–123,066,007	#615237	Congenital short bowel syndrome	
<i>GRAMD1B</i>		GRAM domain containing 1B	123,396,528–123,493,518			
<i>SCN3B</i>	#608214	sodium channel, voltage-gated, type III, beta subunit	123,499,895–123,525,315	#613120	Atrial fibrillation, familial, 16	
				#613120	Brugada syndrome 7	
<i>ZNF202</i>	#603430	zinc finger protein 202	123,594,997–123,612,363			
<i>OR6X1</i>		olfactory receptor, family 6, subfamily X, member 1	123,624,288–123,625,226			
<i>TMEM225</i>		transmembrane protein 225	123,753,633–123,756,340			
<i>OR8D4</i>		olfactory receptor, family 8, subfamily D, member 4	123,777,139–123,778,083			
<i>OR4D5</i>		olfactory receptor, family 4, subfamily D, member 5	123,810,324–123,811,280			
<i>OR6T1</i>		olfactory receptor, family 6, subfamily T, member 1	123,813,574–123,814,545			
<i>OR10S1</i>		olfactory receptor, family 10, subfamily S, member 1	123,847,403–123,848,398			
<i>OR10G4</i>		olfactory receptor, family 10, subfamily G, member 4	123,886,282–123,887,217			
<i>OR10G9</i>		olfactory receptor, family 10, subfamily G, member 9	123,893,720–123,894,655			
<i>OR10G8</i>		olfactory receptor, family 10, subfamily G, member 8	123,900,330–123,901,265			
<i>OR10G7</i>		olfactory receptor, family 10, subfamily G, member 7	123,908,773–123,909,708			
<i>VWASA</i>	#602929	Willebrand factor A domain containing 5A	123,986,111–124,017,618			
<i>OLFR959</i>		NI	124,029,125–124,029,838			
<i>OR10D3</i>		NI	124,055,975–124,056,912			
<i>OR8G2</i>		olfactory receptor, family 8, subfamily G, member 2	124,095,398–124,096,312			
<i>OR8G1</i>		olfactory receptor, family 8, subfamily G, member 1	124,120,423–124,135,763			
<i>OR8D1</i>		olfactory receptor, family 8, subfamily D, member 1	124,179,736–124,180,662			
<i>OR8D2</i>		olfactory receptor, family 8, subfamily D, member 2	124,189,158–124,190,093			
<i>OR8B2</i>		olfactory receptor, family 8, subfamily B, member 2	124,252,298–124,253,239			
<i>OR8B3</i>		olfactory receptor, family 8, subfamily B, member 3	124,266,306–124,267,247			
<i>OR8B4</i>		olfactory receptor, family 8, subfamily B, member 4	124,293,838–124,294,767			
<i>OR8B8</i>		olfactory receptor, family 8, subfamily B, member 8	124,310,046–124,310,981			
<i>OR8B12</i>		olfactory receptor, family 8, subfamily B, member 12	124,412,618–124,413,550			
<i>OR8A1</i>		olfactory receptor, family 8, subfamily A, member 1	124,439,965–124,440,945			
<i>PANX3</i>	#608422	pannexin 3	124,481,453–124,490,251			
<i>TBRG1</i>	#610614	transforming growth factor beta regulator 1	124,492,742–124,505,822			
<i>SIAE</i>	#610079	sialic acid acetyltransferase	124,505,685–124,543,777	#613551	Autoimmune disease susceptibility	
<i>SPA17</i>	#608621	sperm autoantigenic protein 17	124,543,740–124,564,687			
<i>NRGN</i>	#602350	neurogranin (protein kinase C substrate, RC3)	124,609,829–124,617,102			
<i>VSIG2</i>	#606011	V-set and immunoglobulin domain containing 2	124,617,370–124,622,109			
<i>ESAM</i>	#614281	endothelial cell adhesion molecule	124,623,019–124,632,223			
<i>MSANTD2</i>		Myb/SANT-like DNA-binding domain containing 2	124,636,394–124,670,299			
<i>ROBO3</i>	#608630	roundabout, axon guidance receptor, homolog 3 (<i>Drosophila</i>)	124,735,305–124,751,370	#607313	Gaze palsy, horizontal, with progressive scoliosis	



ROBO4	#607528	roundabout, axon guidance receptor, homolog 4 (Drosophila)	124,754,114–124,767,831	#613925	Megalencephalic leukoencephalopathy with subcortical cysts 2A
HEPNI	#611641	hepatocellular carcinoma, down-regulated 1	124,789,146–124,790,573		
HEPACAM	#611642	hepatic and glial cell adhesion molecule	124,789,146–124,806,308		
CCDC15		coiled-coil domain containing 15	124,824,017–124,911,385	#613926	Megalencephalic leukoencephalopathy with subcortical cysts 2B, remitting, with or without mental retardation
SLC37A2		solute carrier family 37 (glycerol-3-phosphate transporter), member 2	124,933,013–124,960,412		
TMEM218		transmembrane protein 218	124,964,266–124,981,604		
PKNOX2	#613066	PBX/knotted 1 homeobox 2	125,034,559–125,303,285		

^a Genomic position on the chromosome 11 referring to the GRCh37 build reference sequence (hg19); NI, no information.

4. Discussion

In this study, we identified two overlapping chromosomal deletions of 11q associated with white matter abnormalities. Patient 1 showed a subtelomeric deletion of 11q, which is a typical pattern for Jacobsen syndrome. Patients with typical features of Jacobsen syndrome show intellectual disability, short stature, congenital heart defects, thrombocytopenia, and characteristic facial features (Grossfeld et al., 2004; Mattina et al., 2009; Takahashi et al., 2012). Although patient 1 did not show congenital heart defects, the incidence of congenital heart defects in Jacobsen syndrome is not 100% (Wenger et al., 2006). Therefore, clinical features of patient 1 fulfilled the diagnostic criteria for Jacobsen syndrome. Patient 2 showed an interstitial deletion of 11q. Although this patient showed mild developmental delay, he exhibited no other clinical feature distinctive of Jacobsen syndrome. Therefore, patient 2 did not satisfy the diagnostic criteria for this syndrome (Mattina et al., 2009).

Both patients showed neuroradiological abnormalities in the deep and subcortical white matter regions, albeit with different patterns. In patient 1, the main white matter abnormality is observed in the deep white matter, especially in the bilateral occipital lobes, as detected by the T2-weighted MRI (Fig. 2C). In addition to that, signal abnormalities can be detected also in the subcortical white matter regions. In patient 2, white matter abnormalities are remarkable in the subcortical white matter regions rather than in the deep white matter regions (Fig. 2). Although subcortical cysts were not clearly detected in both patients, the distribution of white matter abnormalities was similar to that seen in the early stage of MLC. Macrocephaly observed in early infantile period of patient 2 is also a suggestive feature of MLC.

We identified a 5.3 Mb region of 11q23.3q24.2 that was deleted in patient 2. Of the genes included in the deletion region, nine genes are registered as disease-causing genes in the database online Mendelian inheritance in men (OMIM), i.e., *ARHGEF12*, *TECTA*, *SC5D*, *SORL1*, *CLMP*, *SCN3B*, *SIAE*, *ROBO3*, and *HEPACAM* (Table 1). Among these, *HEPACAM* has been shown to be associated with megalencephalic leukoencephalopathy with subcortical cysts-2A (MLC2A; MIM# 613925) and B (MLC2B; MIM# 613926) (Lopez-Hernandez et al., 2011a). Furthermore, *HEPACAM* mutations have been shown to exert novel, dual effects including both autosomal recessive (MLC2A) and autosomal dominant (MLC2B) patterns (Arnedo et al., 2014). Patients with *HEPACAM* mutations in an autosomal recessive fashion show classical phenotypes with infantile-onset macrocephaly, delayed-onset motor deterioration, epilepsy, and cognitive decline of variable severity, which are associated with white matter abnormalities (MLC2A) (Lopez-Hernandez et al., 2011a). In comparison, patients with *HEPACAM* mutations inherited in an autosomal dominant fashion have also been reported who show macrocephaly within the first year of life; however, the motor capabilities in these patients were rarely impaired. Furthermore, white matter abnormalities detected upon initial examination of these patients showed improvement upon follow-up; this pattern is classified as MLC2B (Arnedo et al., 2014). Dominantly inherited *HEPACAM* mutations have been reported to often cause benign familial macrocephaly or macrocephaly with intellectual disability and/or autism. However, because the previously reported *HEPACAM* mutations related to MLC2B consisted of missense mutations in the specific domain required for interaction with *MLC1* (Lopez-Hernandez et al., 2011a), it is reasonable to suspect that the underlying mechanism of MLC2B in these patients might be related to dominant-negative effects. Macrocephaly has also been reported in one of the parents of a patient with MLC2A who carried a loss-of-function mutation (Lopez-Hernandez et al., 2011a), indicating that both *HEPACAM* haploinsufficiency as well

as mutation might cause macrocephaly. Because we were unable to identify a *HEPACAM* mutation in the remaining allele of patient 2, we assume that haploinsufficiency of *HEPACAM* is the only mechanism related to macrocephaly and white matter abnormalities in this patient. Macrocephaly of patient 2 was identified at birth, but has improved at 20 months; it is unclear whether the white matter abnormalities might improve as well, as do those of patients with *HEPACAM* mutations rather than deletions.

Although most of the deletion regions identified in patients with Jacobsen syndrome include *HEPACAM*, no previous patient with Jacobsen syndrome has been reported to show an MLC-like phenotype. However, some of the previously reported patients with Jacobsen syndrome have shown related findings. For example, Ono et al. reported two patients with 11q deletions associated with delayed myelination, suspected by the abnormal signal intensities revealed by MRI (Ono et al., 1994). In addition, Grossfeld et al. reported that abnormal brain imaging findings were identified in 24/47 (51%) of patients with Jacobsen syndrome (Grossfeld et al., 2004). The result of the present study provide additional insight into these findings: we identified a patient with Jacobsen syndrome (patient 1) associated with white matter abnormalities, although the identified distributions were different from those observed in patient 2. *HEPACAM* was included in the SRO of both patients, we considered that haploinsufficiency of *HEPACAM* might therefore cause white matter abnormalities to varying degrees. We suggest that the improvement of phenotype overtime, or a low penetrance of white matter abnormalities consequent to *HEPACAM* deletion might, among other factors, contribute to the lack of descriptions of MLC-like phenotypes in patients with Jacobsen syndrome to date.

In addition, it is likely that the developmental delay observed in patient 2 could have been modified by the loss of neighboring genes included in the deletion region. In 2009, Coldren et al. analyzed genotype–phenotype correlations for 14 patients with Jacobsen syndrome and suggested that two genes, the brain-specific homeobox gene (*BSX*) and the neurogranin gene (*NRGN*), might be possible candidate genes for global and selective deficits in neurocognitive functions (Coldren et al., 2009). Because both of these genes are also included in the SRO identified in this study (Table 1), haploinsufficiencies of these two genes in particular might have modified neurodevelopment in patient 2 as well.

In conclusion, we report the characterization of two patients with white matter abnormalities in association with 11q24 deletions involving *HEPACAM*. This finding suggests that haploinsufficiency of *HEPACAM* might be related to white matter abnormalities. Further studies are required to obtain more information on white matter abnormalities in patients with 11q24 deletions in order to confirm the results of this study.

Conflict of interest

The authors have no conflict of interests to declare.

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Letter to the Editor

Comment on “Delayed myelination is not a constant feature of Allan–Herndon–Dudley syndrome: Report of a new case and review of the literature” by Azzolini S et al. *Brain & Development* 2014;36:716–720

Dear the editor of *Brain and Development*, we read a manuscript by Azzolini et al. with a great interest, because we have been participating in the clinical and genetic diagnosis of patients with congenital hypomyelinating disorders [1] by establishing a research network for Pelizaeus–Merzbacher disease (PMD) and related disorders. There, we have many opportunities in evaluating the radiological findings of the patients suspected to have hypomyelinating disorders including Allan–Herndon–Dudley syndrome (AHDS) [2,3]. Compared to other congenital hypomyelination disorders, radiological findings of AHDS patients are different in that the magnetic resonance imagings (MRIs) in infancy show lack of myelin, which improve over time. Therefore, it would rather be termed as delayed myelination than hypomyelination [4].

Azzolini et al. reported a male patient (as assumed by the description “he”) [1]. The patient showed severe

psychomotor developmental delay. The thyroid function test showed an elevated free T3 level. Molecular testing identified one nucleotide insertion in *SLC16A2*. Together, they concluded that this patient has AHDS. Finally, they reported that the patient show “normal” myelination by MRI [1], while delayed myelination is commonly observed in AHDS patients, as we also reported previously [2,3].

We suggest that the description of “normal” MRIs presented by Azzolini et al. is inappropriate [1]. For comparison, we presented a reference MRIs observed in a normally developing 12-month-old boy (Fig. 1). As we can see, the T1-weighted image shows high intensity in the white matter, which is almost the same pattern observed in adults. T2-weighted image clearly shows low intensity in the subcortical regions, except for the temporal lobe, the latest to myelinate (not shown). Compared to these, the MRIs reported by Azzolini et al. shows apparently lower intensity (than normal) on T1-weighted image, and higher intensity on T2-weighted image in most of the subcortical regions [1]. We would rather consider this finding as delayed myelination and is typical for AHDS.



Fig. 1. Brain MRI findings in a normally developing 12-month-old boy. T1 – (left) and T2 – (right) weighted axial images the slice matched with that reported by Azzolini et al. The subcortical regions are enough high and low in T1- and T2-weighted images, respectively. This patient was examined for the aim of the disease screening for epilepsy and the results came out as normal.

As Azzolini et al. reported [1], there are three case reports showing “normal” myelination in the literature; however, these cases were examined in either too early (at 3 months) [5,6] or too late stage (13 years) [7] for the evaluation of the delayed myelination in AHDS. Therefore, it is possible that delayed myelination could not be captured in those cases simply because of the timing of MRI examination. Altogether, it would be improper to conclude that the delayed myelination is not constant feature for AHDS. We suggest that adequate timing is important to access MRIs in the evaluation of delayed myelination in AHDS patients [4].

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