

RESEARCH ARTICLE

A comparative study of pre-alpha islands in the entorhinal cortex from selected primates and in lissencephaly

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In memoriam of Karl Zilles (26.04.2020).

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Abstract

The entorhinal cortex (EC) is the main interface between the sensory association areas of the neocortex and the hippocampus. It is crucial for the evaluation and processing of sensory data for long-term memory consolidation and shows damage in many brain diseases, for example, neurodegenerative diseases, such as Alzheimer's disease and developmental disorders.

The pre-alpha layer of the EC in humans (layer II) displays a remarkable distribution of neurons in islands. These cellular islands give rise to a portion of the perforant path—the major reciprocal data stream for neocortical information into the hippocampal formation. However, the functional relevance of the morphological appearance of the pre-alpha layer in cellular islands and the precise timing of their initial appearance during primate evolution are largely unknown. Here, we conducted a comparative study of the EC from 38 nonhuman primates and *Homo sapiens* and found a strong relationship between gyrification index (GI) and the presence of the pre-alpha cellular islands. The formation of cellular islands also correlated with brain and body weight as well as neopallial volume. In the two human lissencephalic cases, the cellular islands in the pre-alpha layer were lacking. These findings emphasize the relationship between cortical folding and island formation in the EC from an evolutionary perspective and suggest a role in the pathomechanism of developmental brain disorders.

KEYWORDS

cytoarchitecture, entorhinal cortex, gyrification, lissencephaly, phylogeny, pre-alpha islands

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1 | INTRODUCTION

The human entorhinal cortex (EC) is a cortical region at the rostro-medial side of the temporal lobe extending over the ambient gyrus and the rostral portions of the parahippocampal gyrus. It is part of the allocortex. Ramón y Cajal coined a still valid definition of the EC as the part of the mediobasal temporal cortex, which gives rise to a neuronal link to the hippocampus known as the perforant path (Cajal, 1902). He realized that the EC represents the major input-output station for data transfer between the neocortex and the hippocampus (Braak & Braak, 1992; Braak et al., 2000; Canto et al., 2008). The EC integrates sensory information for memory and learning as well as conscious integration of external input and output. It is involved in brain diseases, including temporal lobe epilepsy, Down's syndrome, schizophrenia, Rett syndrome, Huntington's disease, progressive supranuclear palsy, argyrophilic grain disease, Parkinson's disease, dementia, and Alzheimer's disease (AD) (Braak & Braak, 1992, 1990; Braak & Del Tredici, 2015; Braak et al., 2000; Hof et al., 1995; Kuhn et al., 2018; Leontovich et al., 1999; Mann & Esiri, 1989; Wakabayashi et al., 1994). In AD, for example, the presence of intraneuronal tau pathology within projection neurons of the cellular islands of layer pre-alpha gradually causes extensive disruption of efferences to the hippocampus (Braak et al., 1996), such that, in late-stage AD, the hippocampal formation becomes "disconnected" from the neocortex (Delbeuck et al., 2007; Hyman et al., 1986; Kemper, 1984; Reid & Evans, 2013; Van Hoesen & Hyman, 1990).

Cytoarchitecturally, a cell-poor lamina dissecans separates an external principal layer (pre) from the internal principal stratum (pri). The cortical layers have been differently numbered and named. Lorente de Nó defined six layers with Roman numerals. Layer II neurons are arranged in clusters—mostly designated as islands—with an almost neuron-free interspace containing the neuropil. With Nissl staining, two inner and two outer strata separated by the lamina dissecans are discernible. To avoid confusion with neocortical layers, other authors refer to the allocortical entorhinal layer II as layer pre-alpha as it was termed by Rose (Braak & Braak, 1992; De Nó, 1933; Insausti, 1993; Insausti et al., 2017; Rose, 1927). We mostly follow this designation as well. Several features, for example, different immunoreactive neurons in the layers, neurons in patches as in pre-alpha layer, and the corresponding interneuron cytoarchitecture, hint at a module architecture of the pre-alpha islands (Solodkin & Van Hoesen, 1996), whose intrinsic and extrinsic connections are well known, although the transition to function remains elusive. The cellular islands give rise to a portion of the perforant path—the major reciprocal data stream for neocortical information into the hippocampus, and are therefore key in processes of learning and memory, and its disturbances, for example, in AD (Canto et al., 2008).

The EC receives input from many association areas, including prefrontal areas. We hypothesized that there might be an impact of increased size of the neocortex, measured as the gyrification index, neopallial volume, and partly also in brain weight, on the existence of

pre-alpha islands in different species and in a pathological condition of cortical folding.

Therefore, we examined the brains of 38 nonhuman primates and two human individuals for the presence or absence of pre-alpha islands in relationship to the gyrification index (and other measures for neopallial increase) to test the hypothesis of a relationship between the expansion of the cortex in evolution and pre-alpha island formation. Second, we studied cellular islands in two cases of lissencephaly, that is, an abnormal formation of cerebral gyri during ontogeny (Donato et al., 2017) in comparison to normal development.

2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 | Tissue

2.1.1 | Animal brains

Cresyl violet/Nissl-stained tissue sections from the brains of 39 primates including *Homo sapiens* were analyzed: 18 Strepsirhini, two Haplorhini (Tarsiiformes), eight Haplorhini (Semiformes/Platyrrhini), and 11 Haplorhini (Semiformes/Catarrhini) (listed in Table 1; Figures 1–3). Sections are part of the collection of the Cecile and Oskar Vogt Institute for Brain Research of the Heinrich Heine University of Düsseldorf.

2.1.2 | Human brains

Two cases of lissencephaly were obtained from the NIH Neurobiobank at the University of Maryland, Baltimore, MD (cases 683, 4524) (Federal Wide Assurance: FWA00025179). Demographic and neuropathological data for NIH cases 683 (case 1) and 4524 (case 2) are provided in Table 2. The brain of a 15-year-old female from the Ulm University brain bank served as a control (Table 2, case 3).

2.2 | Methods

2.2.1 | Analysis of histological, coronal sections of nonhuman primate species and humans

In most of the instances, two individuals from each species were examined, if available one male and one female. Human individuals were a male (39 years of age) and female (43 years of age). Representative images are shown from one individual per species in Figure 1. The brain collection includes coronal section series that permitted assessment of the EC over the entire rostro-caudal extent. The quality and intensity of the staining were, in part, very different. The investigator (MS) was blinded to the parameters on the animals (gyrification index [GI], brain weight, etc.) at the time of examination to avoid biased

TABLE 1 Overview of data from 39 primates. Continuous species parameters are taken from Zilles et al. (1989)

ID	Species	Body weight (g)	Brain weight (g)	NEO (cm ³)	NEO/brain weight	Brain weight/body weight	GI	L1	L2	L3	L4	IF
Strepsirrhini												
S1	<i>Lepilemur ruficaudatus</i>	915	7.4	3.28	0.443	0.008	1.135	b	b	n	n	b
S2	<i>Lemur catta</i>	1960	22	NA	NA	0.011	1.325	b	n	n	n	b
S3	<i>Eulemur mongoz</i>	1600	17.7	NA	NA	0.011	1.33	n	b	b	n	bb
S4	<i>Eulemur albifrons</i>	1385	32.9	12.21	0.371	0.024	1.46	n	b	b	n	bb
S5	<i>Microcebus murinus</i>	82	1.9	0.74	0.389	0.023	1.11	b	b	n	n	b
S6	<i>Cheirogaleus medius</i>	167	3	1.22	0.407	0.018	1.11	b	b	b	n	bb
S7	<i>Cheirogaleus major</i>	400	6.6	2.93	0.444	0.017	1.15	b	b	n	n	b
S8	<i>Avahi laniger occidentalis</i>	860	9.7	4.44	0.458	0.011	1.145	y	b	n	n	y
S9	<i>Avahi laniger laniger</i>	1270	11.5	4.81	0.418	0.009	1.255	b	b	b	n	bb
S10	<i>Propithecus verreauxi</i>	3480	26.7	13.17	0.493	0.008	1.345	b	n	n	n	b
S11	<i>Indri indri</i>	6250	38.3	20.11	0.525	0.006	1.455	y	b	n	n	y
S12	<i>Daubentonia madagascariensis</i>	2800	45.2	22.13	0.49	0.016	1.25	b	y	y	b	yy
S13	<i>Galago senegalensis</i>	122	4.8	2.14	0.446	0.039	1.17	b	y	n	n	y
S14	<i>Galagoides demidoff a</i>	82	4	1.57	0.393	0.049	1.21	b	b	y	n	y
S15	<i>Galagoides demidoff b</i>	82	4	1.57	0.393	0.049	1.21	n	n	n	n	n
ID	Species	Body weight (g)	Brain weight (g)	NEO (cm ³)	NEO/brain weight	Brain weight/body weight	GI	L1	L2	L3	L4	IF
S16	<i>Otolemur crassicaudatus</i>	625	10.4	4.72	0.454	0.017	1.255	y	y	b	n	y
S17	<i>Nycticebus coucang</i>	895	11.3	6.19	0.548	0.013	1.245	b	b	n	n	b
S18	<i>Loris tardigradus</i>	322	6.6	3.52	0.534	0.021	1.285	b	n	n	n	b
S19	<i>Perodicticus potto</i>	980	12.95	6.68	0.516	0.013	1.32	n	b	n	n	b
Haplorhini (Tarsiiformes)												
T1	<i>Carlito syrichta</i>	87	4.2	NA	NA	0.048	1.1	b	n	n	n	b
T2	<i>Tarsius bancanus</i>	115	3	NA	NA	0.026	1.075	b	b	b	n	bb
Haplorhini (Semi-formes/Platyrrhini)												

(Continues)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

ID	Species	Body weight (g)	Brain weight (g)	NEO (cm ³)	NEO/brain weight	Brain weight/body weight	GI	L1	L2	L3	L4	IF
P1	<i>Callithrix jacchus</i>	277.5	7.45	4.37	0.587	0.027	1.176	b	b	n	n	b
P2	<i>Saguinus midas</i>	320	10.7	5.88	0.55	0.033	1.195	n	n	n	b	b
P3	<i>Saguinus oedipus</i>	244	9.6	5.89	0.614	0.039	1.195	b	b	b	b	bb
P4	<i>Saimiri sciureus</i>	532.5	21.85	15.54	0.711	0.041	1.485	b	n	n	n	b
P5	<i>Callimico goeldii</i>	480	11	6.48	0.589	0.023	1.255	n	n	n	n	n
P6	<i>Lagothrix lagotricha</i>	4190	102.3	65.87	0.644	0.024	1.97	b	b	b	n	bb
P7	<i>Ateles paniscus</i>	8500	111	70.86	0.638	0.013	1.813	y	y	b	n	y
P8	<i>Alouatta seniculus</i>	6400	52	31.66	0.609	0.008	1.465	y	y	b	n	y
ID	Species	Body weight (g)	Brain weight (g)	NEO (cm ³)	NEO/brain Weight	Brain weight/body weight	GI	L1	L2	L3	L4	IF
Haplorhini (Semiformes/Catarrhini)												
C1	<i>Pygathrix nemaeus</i>	7500	69	48.76	0.707	0.009	1.635	b	n	n	n	b
C2	<i>Ptilocolobus badius</i>	8250	75	50.91	0.679	0.009	1.805	y	y	y	b	yy
C3	<i>Lophocebus albigena</i>	10,500	116	68.73	0.593	0.011	1.865	y	b	n	n	y
C4	<i>Macaca mulatta</i>	7350	86.7	63.48	0.732	0.012	1.805	y	n	n	n	y
C5	<i>Erythrocebus patas</i>	7800	108	77.14	0.714	0.014	1.91	y	b	n	n	y
C6	<i>Miopithecus talapoin</i>	1200	40	26.43	0.66	0.033	1.74	y	b	b	n	y
C7	<i>Hylobates lar</i>	5700	102	65.8	0.645	0.019	1.855	y	b	n	n	y
Haplorhini: Homidae (Semiformes/Catarrhini)												
C8	<i>Pongo pygmaeus</i>	54,000	333	219.8	0.66	0.006	2.32	b	y	y	y	yy
C9	<i>Pan troglodytes</i>	46,000	405	291.59	0.72	0.009	2.433	y	y	y	n	yy
C10	<i>Gorilla gorilla</i>	105,000	500	341.44	0.682	0.005	2.26	y	y	y	y	yyy
C11	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	70,000	1330	1006.5	0.757	0.019	2.56	y	y	y	y	yyy

Note: B = between—pre-alpha is wavy or partly discontinuous; n = no islands; NEO = neopallium volume; L1, L2, L3, L4 = four positions of cellular island formation from rostral to caudal; y = yes – Islands visible
Abbreviations: GI, gyrification index; IF, island formation (final value); NA, not available.

TABLE 2 Demographic and neuropathological data for the three human cases studied. Cases 1 and 2 are from lissencephalic individuals; case 3 is a control case. Fresh brain weight in grams. The information in additional data and neurological histopathology were extracted from documents of the NIH Neurobiobank

Case	Age (years)	F/M	Hemisphere	Fresh brain weight	Additional data	Neurological histopathology
Lissencephaly						
1	8	F	Right	620	Unknown lissencephaly syndrome; blindness (bilateral colobomas), bilateral hearing loss, severe scoliosis, as a newborn difficult feeding (dysphagia), muscular hypotonia, pneumonia. Craniofacial abnormalities and other dysmorphic changes. Severely delayed development: inability to sit, crawl, stand, walk, or speak. Some vocalization. MRI: smooth surface; thickened cortex.	Lissencephaly with features of pachygyria; only inferior frontal sulci and major fissures present; cortical ribbon markedly thickened with a white line separating an outer from an inner layer; thinning of the corpus callosum; indistinct separation of the caudate nucleus from putamen; benign parenchymal cyst of the left cerebellum.
2	13	M	Right	1056	Minor facial dysmorphism. Developmentally disabled. Genetics: deletion in the lissencephaly critical region of chromosome 17: LIS-1 (Miller-Dieker) microdeletion; MRI: moderate or grade 3 lissencephaly with pachygyria over frontal lobe to sylvian region; beyond that point agyria; small remnant of corpus callosum.	Type 1 lissencephaly; cortex with smooth pattern with minimal sulcation; thick four-layered cerebral cortex in the retro-sylvian cerebrum; hypoplastic hippocampus; hypoplastic degenerating cerebellum, heterotopic remnants of inferior olive in the mid-medulla oblongata.
Control						
3	15	F	Left	1450	Malignom (ovary) with extensive peritoneal carcinomatosis.	Normal cortical morphology. No intracranial metastases.

Abbreviations: F, female; M, male.

assessment. Multiple coronal sections of both hemispheres were examined at four rostro-caudal positions (locations L1–L4): L1 was located at the level of the maximal extent of the amygdala, L2 at the most rostral appearance of the stratum granulare (dentate gyrus), L3 at the most rostral distinct medio-lateral extent of the stratum granulare, and L4 was located at the most caudal position where the hippocampus rises supracommissurally or just before the disappearance of the lamina dissecans. One individual from each species was re-examined in a second sitting to corroborate the categorization of cellular island formation.

Pre-alpha islands were classified into three categories considering their appearance between L1 and L4: (1) n = no cellular islands, that is, the cellular band was continuous; (2) b = between, the pre-alpha layer was wavy or implied interrupted; (3) y = yes, islands were clearly visible. A summary category was then generated: if there were only n at all four positions, it was classified as “n,” if there were only y, then “yyy.” If there was one b or y, then “b” or “y,” if there were at least two b or y and if one of them was at L3, “bb” or “yy.”

In *Pongo pygmaeus*, L1 was classified as b. However, because the amygdala area was artifactual, acquisitions were made between L1 and L2—here islands are clearly visible. It was also difficult to distinguish between “b” and “y” at L1.

2.2.2 | Acquisition and processing of the images

Images were acquired using Zeiss Axio Observer with an isotropic point resolution of 4.09 $\mu\text{m}/\text{pixel}$. Sections were oriented so that left is medial (see Figure 1). Artefacts (air bubbles, dust particles) in the empty areas surrounding the tissue sections and, to a very limited extent, in the sections were carefully removed without topographical/anatomical relationships especially of the pre-alpha layer (also in the images from tissue described in the following paragraph). Minor adjustments were made for brightness and contrast.

2.2.3 | Tissue processing of human lissencephalic and control tissue

Coronal blocks were cut with a vibratome (Leica Biosystems) at a thickness of 100 μm . A single free-floating section from each case was pretreated with performic acid and stained with aldehyde fuchsin (12763.00500; Morphisto, Frankfurt am Main, Germany) for selective staining of lipofuscin deposits combined with a basophilic Nissl stain (Darrow red; 211885, Sigma-Aldrich, Steinheim, Germany) for topographical overview and to mark neuronal loss, as described previously (Braak, 1984; Braak & Braak, 1991). Tissue sections were

cleared, mounted, and cover-slipped (Histomount, National Diagnostics, Atlanta, GA, USA). Image acquisition was performed with an Olympus BX61 microscope (Olympus Optical, Tokyo, Japan). Digital micrographs were taken with an Olympus XC50 camera using the Cell D® Imaging Software (Olympus, Münster, Germany). We used small coronal blocks available and cannot draw conclusions over the whole rostro-caudal EC extent.

2.2.4 | Statistical analysis of categorization with continuous data

Continuous brain data (GI, brain weight, neopallial volume, body weight, and ratios neopallial volume-to-brain weight, brain weight-to-body weight) as obtained from the publication of Zilles et al. (1989) were compared with the categorization defined by the presence or absence of cellular islands in the pre-alpha layer from this present study (Figure 3). Data were averaged for multiple individuals of a species (tab. 1 in Zilles et al., 1989), and these mean values were used for further analyses.

The correlations between the island formation score and all six continuous parameters were calculated in the statistical computing software R v.4.0.5. To account for possible dependencies in the primate data, we used a computer-intensive test procedure that exhaustively evaluates all possible correlations (Spearman's rank correlation) in all subsets of sample size two to six of all island formation categories, in total 4,598,438.

We additionally investigated a relationship between the island formation and the continuous brain morphological parameters by using the Bayesian generalized linear mixed models with the ordinal phenotype distribution (probit link). The phylogenetic dependency was introduced into the models as a random effect. We used an inverse gamma prior for random effects and ran each analysis for 5,000,000 interactions with burn-in of 1000 and the thinning interval equal to 500. The pMCMC (Bayesian p) value, a posterior probability that the effect parameter is different from zero, was used to determine the significance of the parameter estimates (statistically significant if $p\text{MCMC} < .05$). The analysis was performed by implementing functions from the "MCMCglmm" R package (Hadfield, 2010). GI was squared because an increase in gyrification leads to an increase in (two-dimensional) cortex surface area. Levels of significance were defined as $p < .05 = *$, $p < .01 = **$, and $p < .001 = ***$. Brain weight, body weight, and neopallial volume values were log transformed prior to the analysis to reduce the skewness of the data.

Since we used the phylogenetic tree with divergence times to account for the phylogenetic autocorrelation in the "MCMCglmm" model, we had to exclude *Galagoides demidoff* species from statistical analysis. These two individuals had very different island characteristics (Table 1, S14 and S15). By including only one species, we would introduce bias into our model. Yet, if both primates were present in the paradigm, this would lead to false pedigree construction and generate further computational errors.

2.2.5 | Ancestral character state reconstruction

The likelihood that a common ancestor possessed the feature "cellular islands" in the EC was calculated (see Figure 4). The phylogenetic tree was established using the open-access TimeLife database (Hedges et al., 2015; Kumar et al., 2017). In order to estimate the ancestral state reconstruction, we applied function ace for discrete characters from the "ape" R package (Paradis & Schliep, 2018) to the phylogenetic tree and the states of the island formation. The resulting reconstruction was built by fitting the equal-rates model for the maximum likelihood estimation with the joint reconstruction (Pagel, 1994). The final tree was plotted using functions built in "ape" and "phytools" (Revell, 2011) R packages. The length of the tree edges corresponds to the divergence time estimates between the species (Hedges et al., 2015, see Figure 4), and also here *Galagoides demidoff* was excluded.

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | Pre-alpha cellular islands in primate brains

Figure 1 shows examples of 39 species. On pages 1 and 2, 18 Strepsirrhini are displayed. Note that S14 and S15 are from two individuals of the same species (*Galagoides demidoff*). Although the male had islands in pre-alpha, they were completely absent in the female. However, the island expression in the other species was largely identical between the two individuals examined. The images shown in Figure 1 correspond to position L3 (see also Table 1).

From rostral to caudal, four positions were chosen that were comparably detectable in all species. As an example, from seven species, these four rostro-caudal positions are shown with the hippocampus, including the four Hominidae (Figure 2).

To establish relationships between continuous parameters that were known from a previous publication (Zilles et al., 1989), such as gyrification and other parameters, and the presence of pre-alpha cellular islands in the primates studied, we analyzed the different species in a comparative approach including nonhuman and human primate brains (Figure 3). The available species ranged from those with smooth cortical surface = lissencephalic animals (e.g., *Saguinus oedipus*, *Loris tardigradus*) to those with a complex gyrification, with *Homo sapiens* having the highest gyrification index. Although most species of the Strepsirrhini, Platyrrhini, and Tarsiiformes did not have distinct islands ("n", "b", or "bb"), almost all Catarrhini had them in the pre-alpha layer of the EC. When looking at the cellular island formation at the individual positions, a rostro-caudal gradient with decreasing expression is noticeable for all species (Table 1).

In particular, beginning from "y," a relationship with increase of these parameters becomes apparent except for brain weight-to-body weight ratio. Gyrification index and neopallial volume both showed a significant positive correlation with the proposed island formation score ($p < 2e-16***$), while brain weight-to-body weight ratio showed a significant negative correlation ($p < 2e-16***$, sign test). The determined

Strepsirrhini

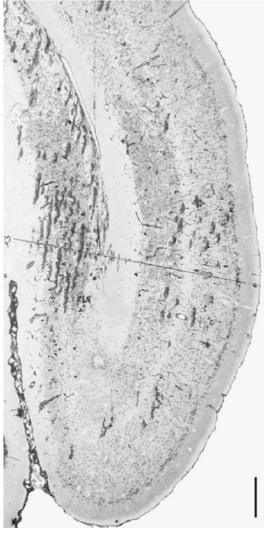
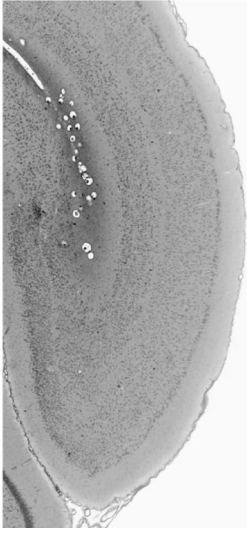
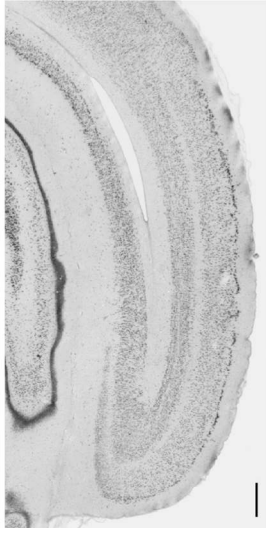
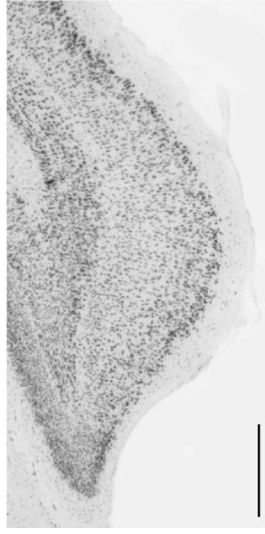
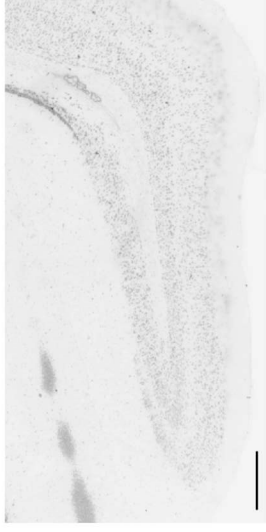
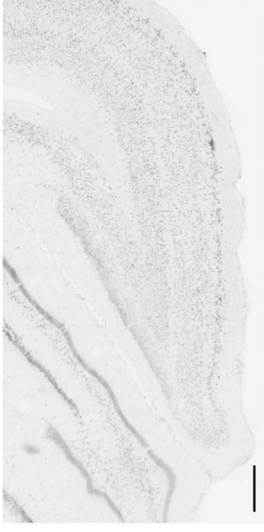
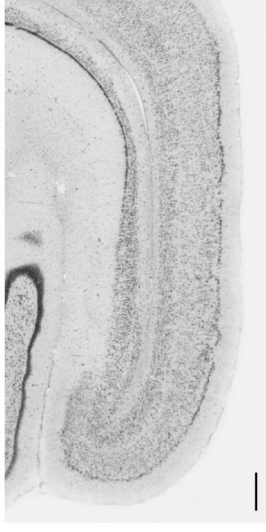
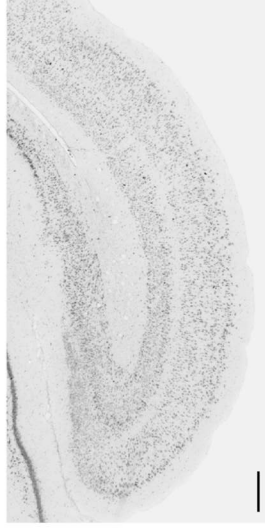
S1 *Lepilemur ruficaudatus* (f)S2 *Lemur catta* (m)S3 *Eulemur mongoz* (f)S4 *Eulemur albifrons* (m)S5 *Microcebus murinus* (m)S6 *Cheirogaleus medius* (m)S7 *Cheirogaleus major* (m)S8 *Avahi laniger occidentalis* (f)S9 *Avahi laniger laniger* (f)S10 *Propithecus verreauxi* (f)

FIGURE 1 Entorhinal cortices of 39 primate species. Sections of the entorhinal cortices of 39 species are shown. All images are oriented so that medial is left. Exemplary images from position L3 are shown (most rostral fully medio-laterally extended dentate gyrus visible; explanation in Section 2). Codes refer to Table 1. Scale bars are 0.5 mm on pages 1–4 and 1 mm on page 5. Abbreviations: f, female; m, male

Strepsirrhini

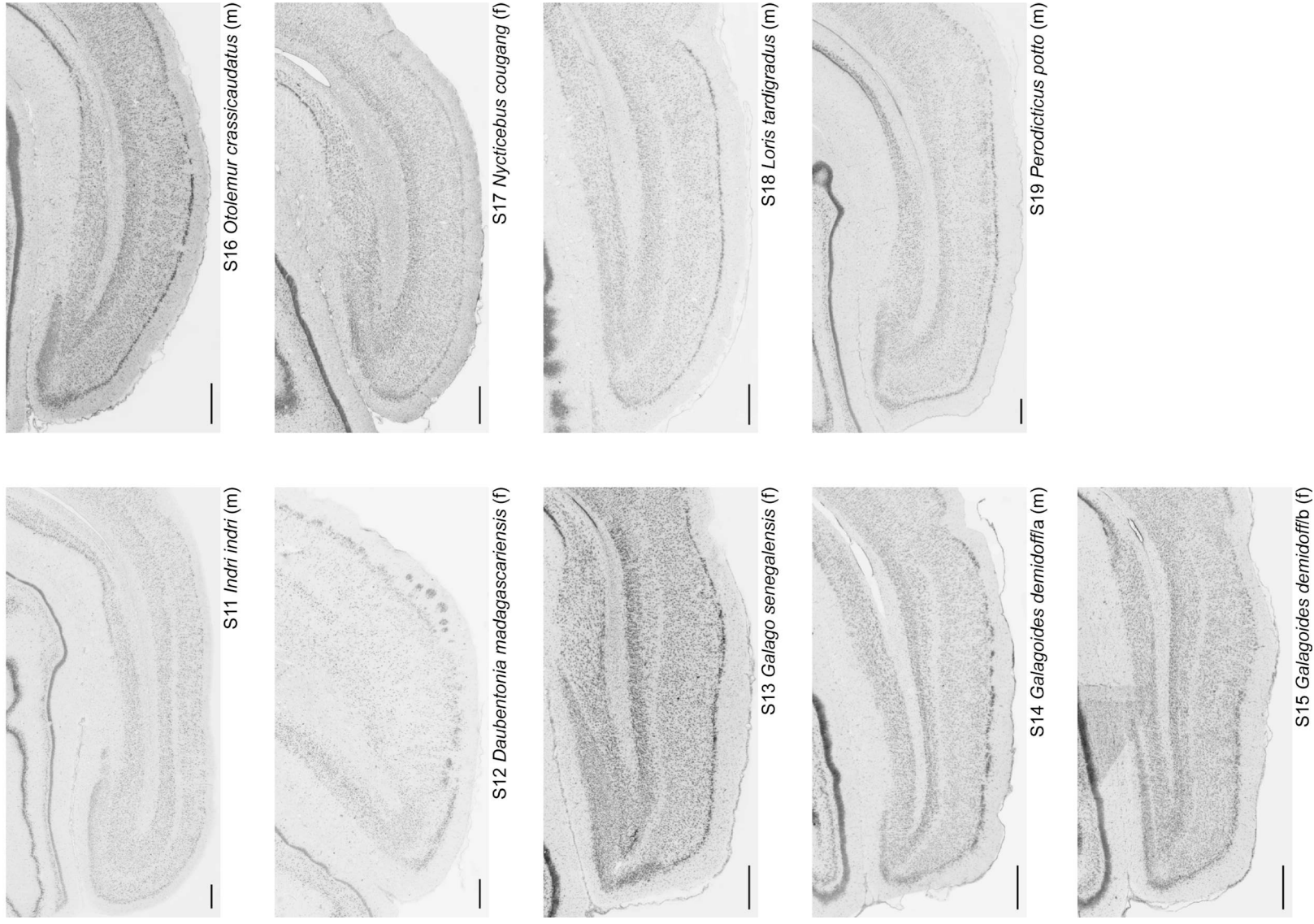
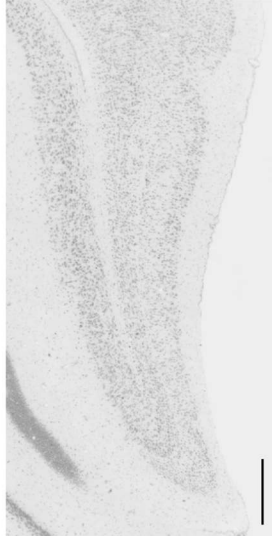


FIGURE 1 Continued

Tarsiiformes

T1 *Carlito syrichita* (f)

Platyrrhini

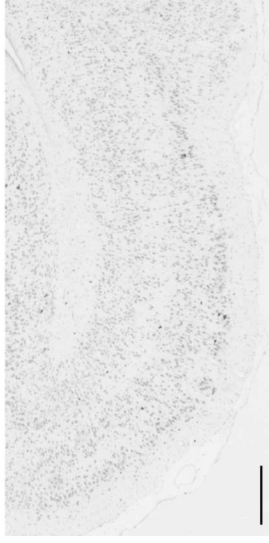
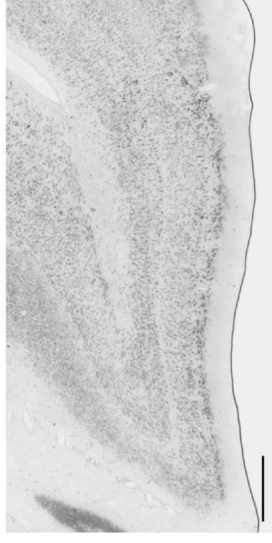
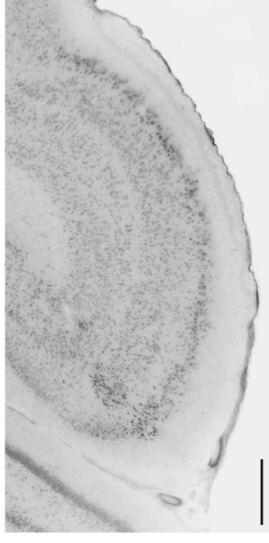
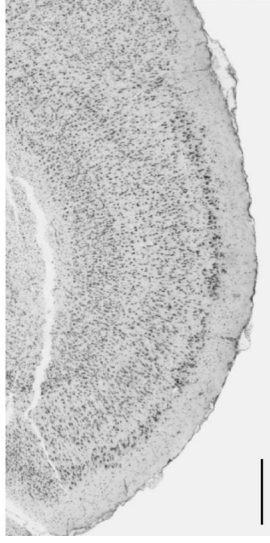
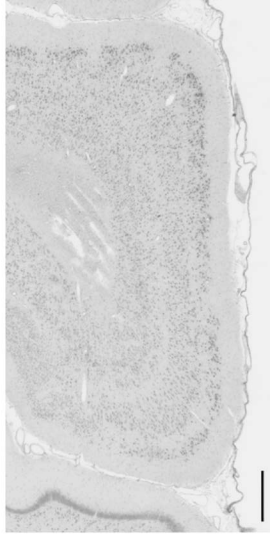
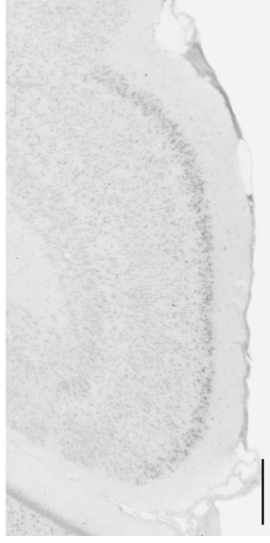
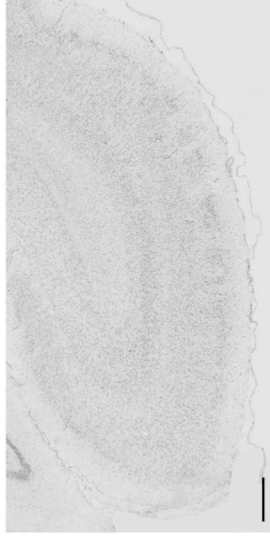
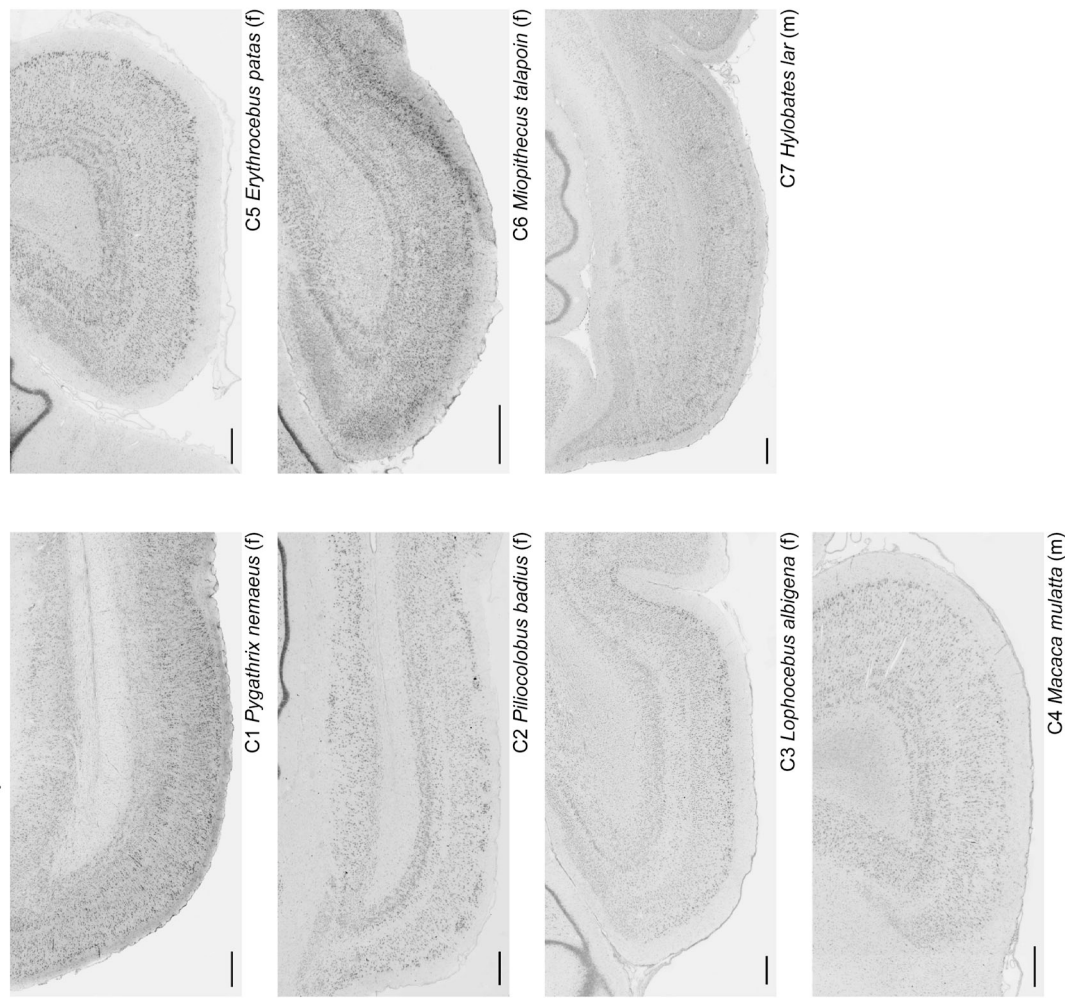
P1 *Callithrix jacchus* (f)T2 *Cephalopachus bancanus* (f)P5 *Callimico goeldii*P2 *Saguinus midas* (f)P6 *Lagothrix lagotricha* (f)P3 *Saguinus oedipus* (f)P7 *Ateles paniscus* (m)P4 *Saimiri sciureus* (m)P8 *Alouatta seniculus* (m)

FIGURE 1 Continued

Catarrhini: Cercopithecoidea



Catarrhini: Hominoidea

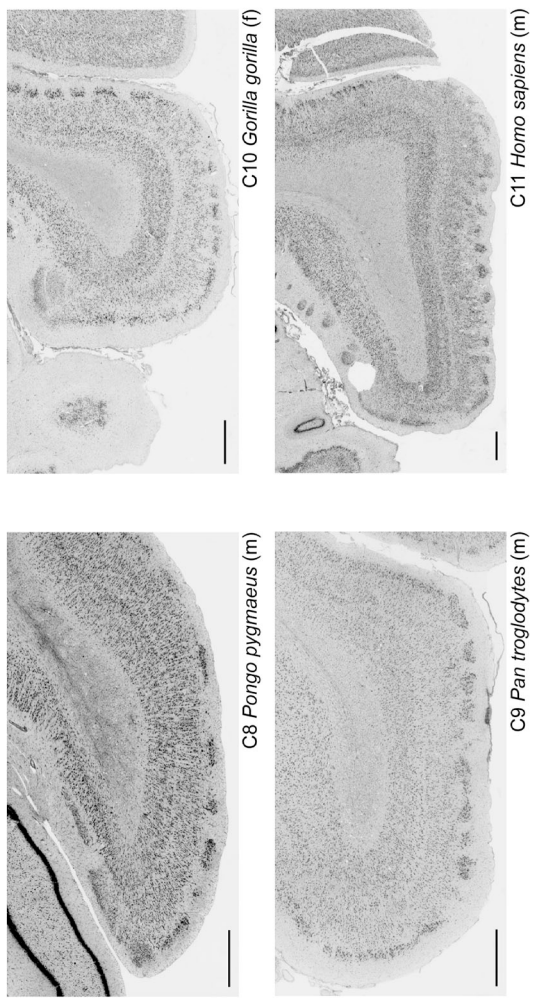
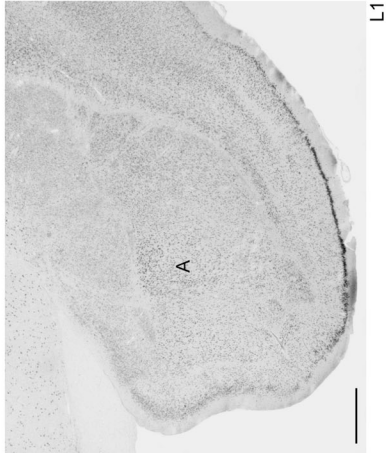
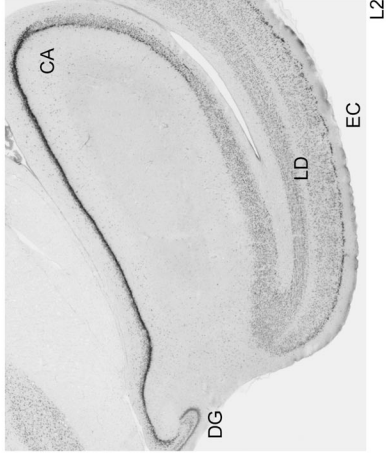


FIGURE 1 Continued

S4 Eulemur albifrons

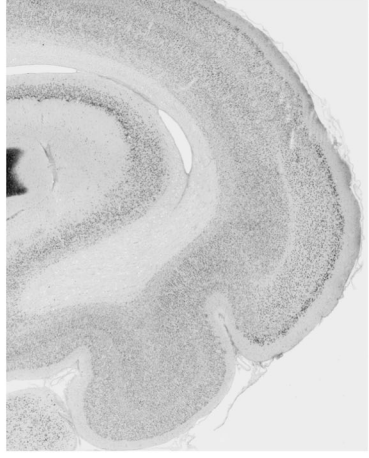
L1



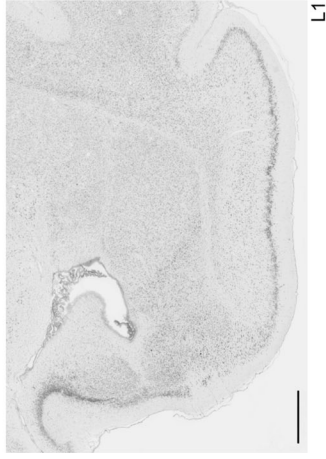
L2



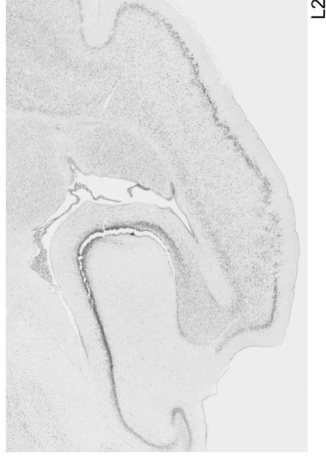
L3



L4

S19 Perodicticus potto

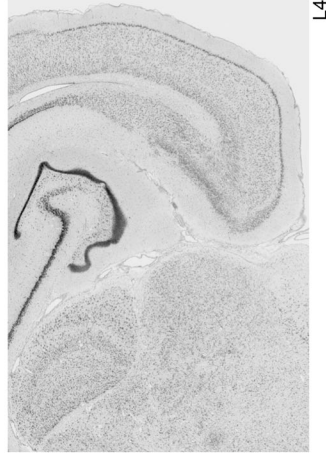
L1



L2



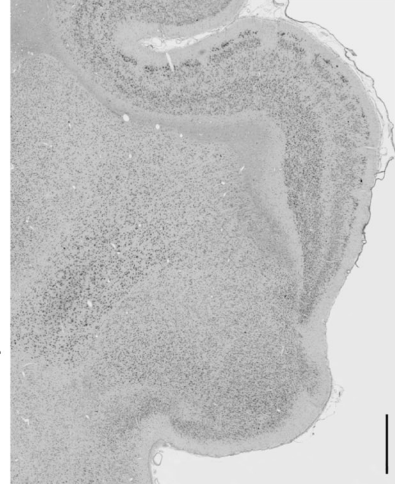
L3



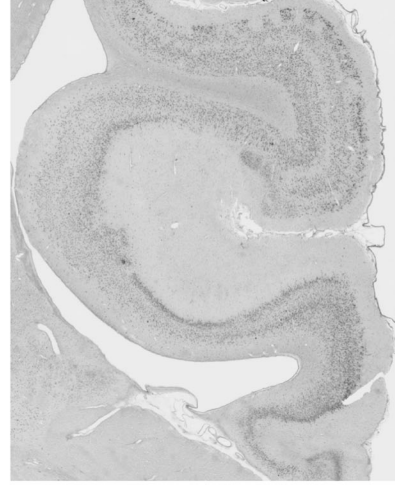
L4

FIGURE 2 Hippocampal formation at four selected rostro-caudal positions of exemplary species. Hippocampal formations at positions L1–L4 of seven species are shown (explanation of the positions in 2.2.1). Codes refer to Table 1. Scale bars are 1 mm. Abbreviations: A, amygdala; CA, cornu ammonis; EC, entorhinal cortex; DG, gyrus dentatus; LD, lamina dissecans

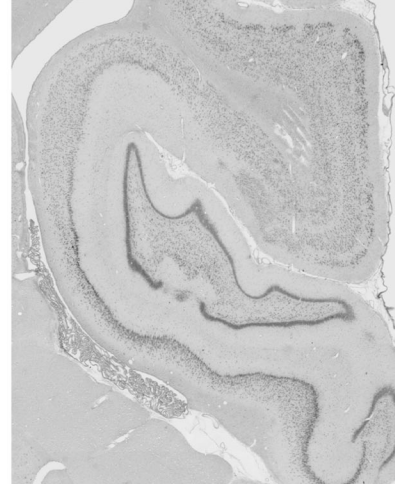
P7 *Ateles paniscus*



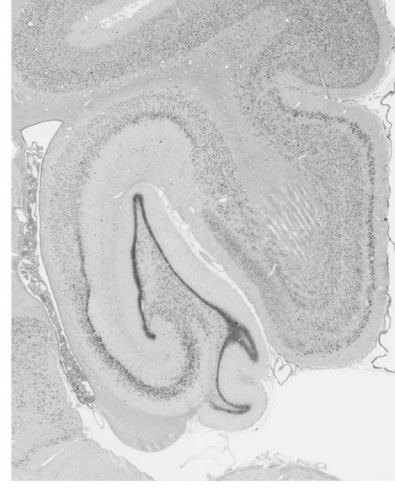
L1



L2

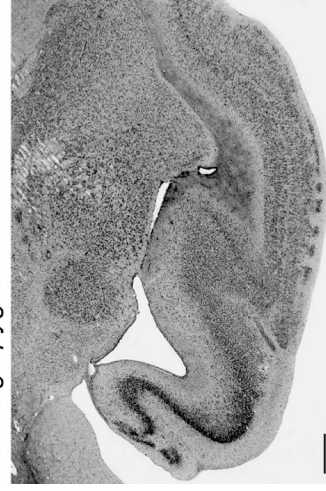


L3



L4

C8 *Pongo pygmaeus*



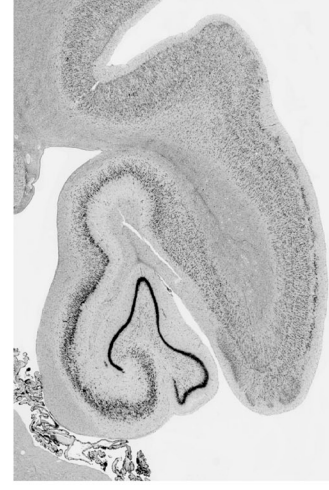
L1



L2



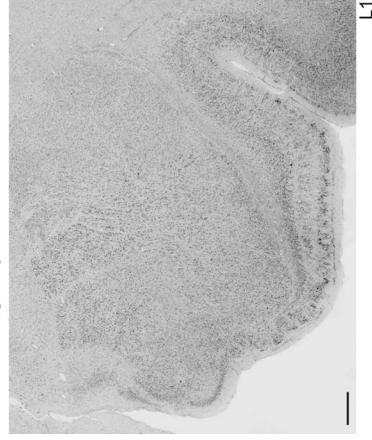
L3



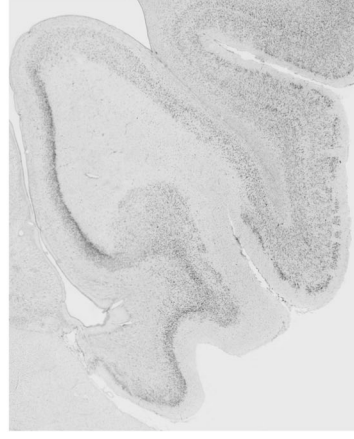
L4

FIGURE 2 Continued

C9 *Pan troglodytes*



L1



L2

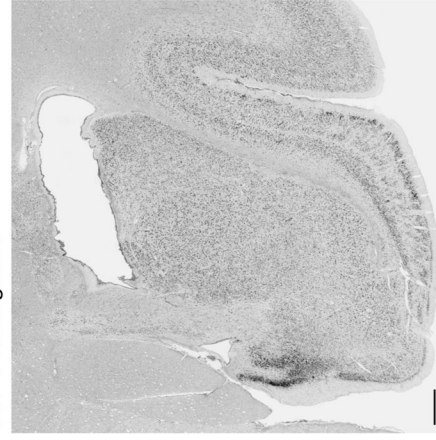


L3

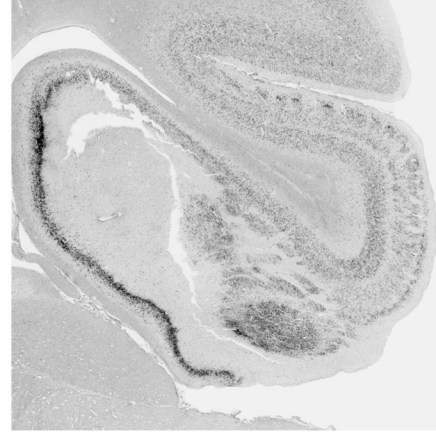


L4

C10 *Gorilla gorilla*



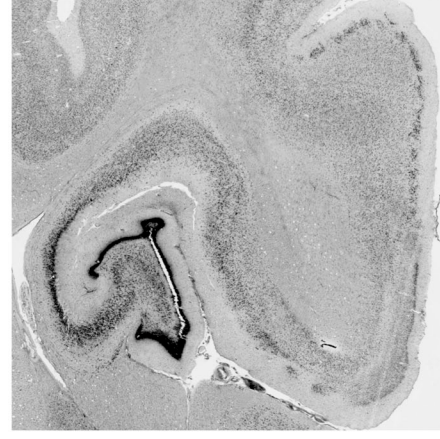
L1



L2



L3



L4

FIGURE 2 Continued

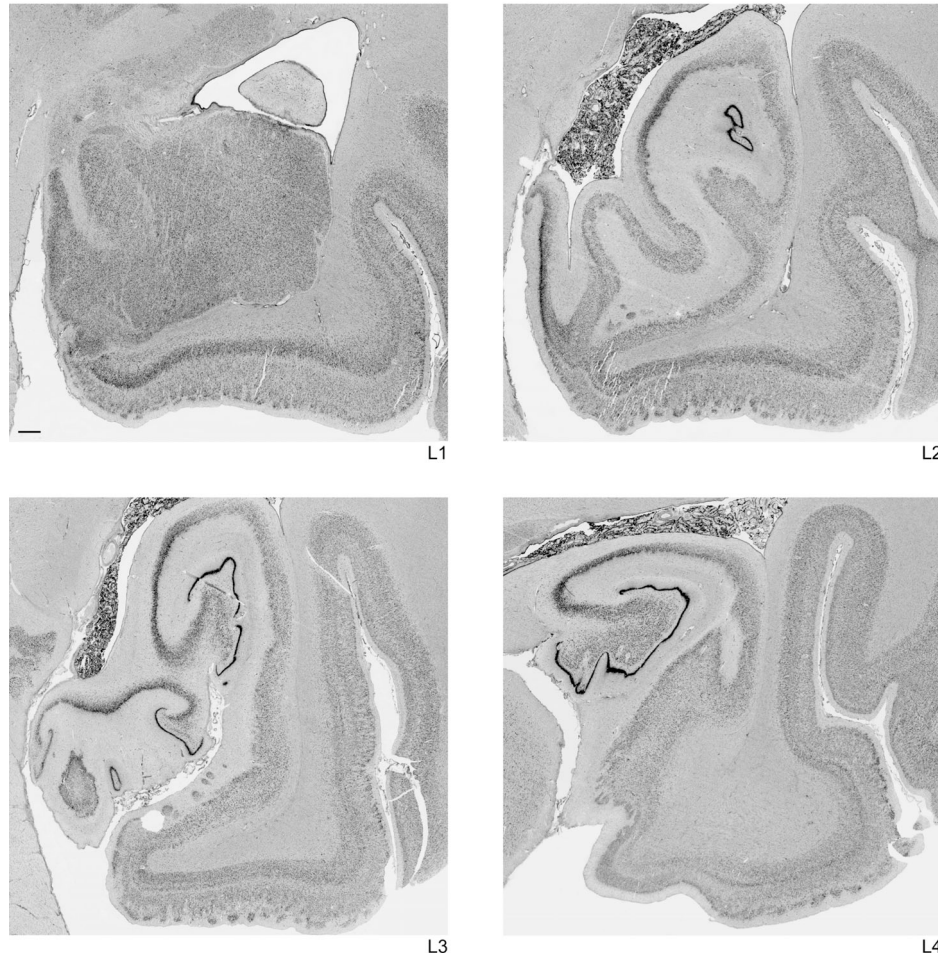
C11 *Homo sapiens*

FIGURE 2 Continued

median correlation of the parameters was as follows: GI 0.58, neopallial volume 0.63, brain weight 0.64, body weight 0.64, neopallial volume-to-brain weight 0.44, and brain weight-to-body weight -0.35 . In a second calculation, we added phylogenetic relatedness as another influencing factor. While neopallial volume-to-brain weight and brain-to-body weight were not significant (Bayesian p .504 and 0.511), progressive body weight (.0028**), neopallial volume (.0018**), brain weight (.001**), GI (.002**), and GI² (.0004***) were significant.

We also performed an ancestral character state reconstruction (Figure 4). The Strepsirrhini mainly showed the feature “b” and with increased likelihood also the common ancestors. Some close relatives, such as S3 (*Eulemur mongoz*) and S4 (*Eulemur albifrons*), had quite similar pre-alpha traits (“bb”), similarly S13 (*Galago senegalensis*) and S16 (*Otolemur crassicaudatus*), or S17 (*Nycticebus coucang*) and S18 (*Loris tardigradus*) as well as their ancestors each seem to have formed similar expressions of the pre-alpha islands (“y” vs. “b”). However, there were also examples of close relationship but distinct island formation, such as between C1 (*Pygathrix nemaeus*) and C2 (*Ptilocolobus badius*). S12 (*Daubentonia madagascariensis*) was especially striking: It was the only member of the Strepsirrhini to exhibit islands in more than one of the four rostro-caudal positions of the EC. In contrast

to the common ancestor of the Strepsirrhini, the common ancestor of Platyrrhini and Catarrhini was more likely to display stronger island formation. While island forming was more prevalent in the analyzed Catarrhini, it was less pronounced in the Platyrrhini. The parvorder Platyrrhini tended to have “b,” “bb,” or “y,” whereas all Catarrhini had “y,” “yy,” or “yyy.” Only one species, C1 (*Pygathrix nemaeus*), harbored no clear islands in pre-alpha throughout the EC. The common ancestor of C1 to C6 seemed more likely to have had a lower defined island expression than the common ancestor of C7 to C11, including the Hominidae. In the remainder of the Catarrhini group, only the phylogenetically more distant C7 (*Hylobates lar*) had a less well-defined island formation, whereas the Hominidae or great apes C8–C11 displayed particularly conspicuous and rostrocaudally continuous islands in the pre-alpha layer.

3.2 | Pre-alpha islands in the human brains

The two lissencephaly brains revealed a different degree of lissencephaly (see Table 2), and the pre-alpha cellular islands were absent in both. Figure 5a shows a coronal section of the brain of an

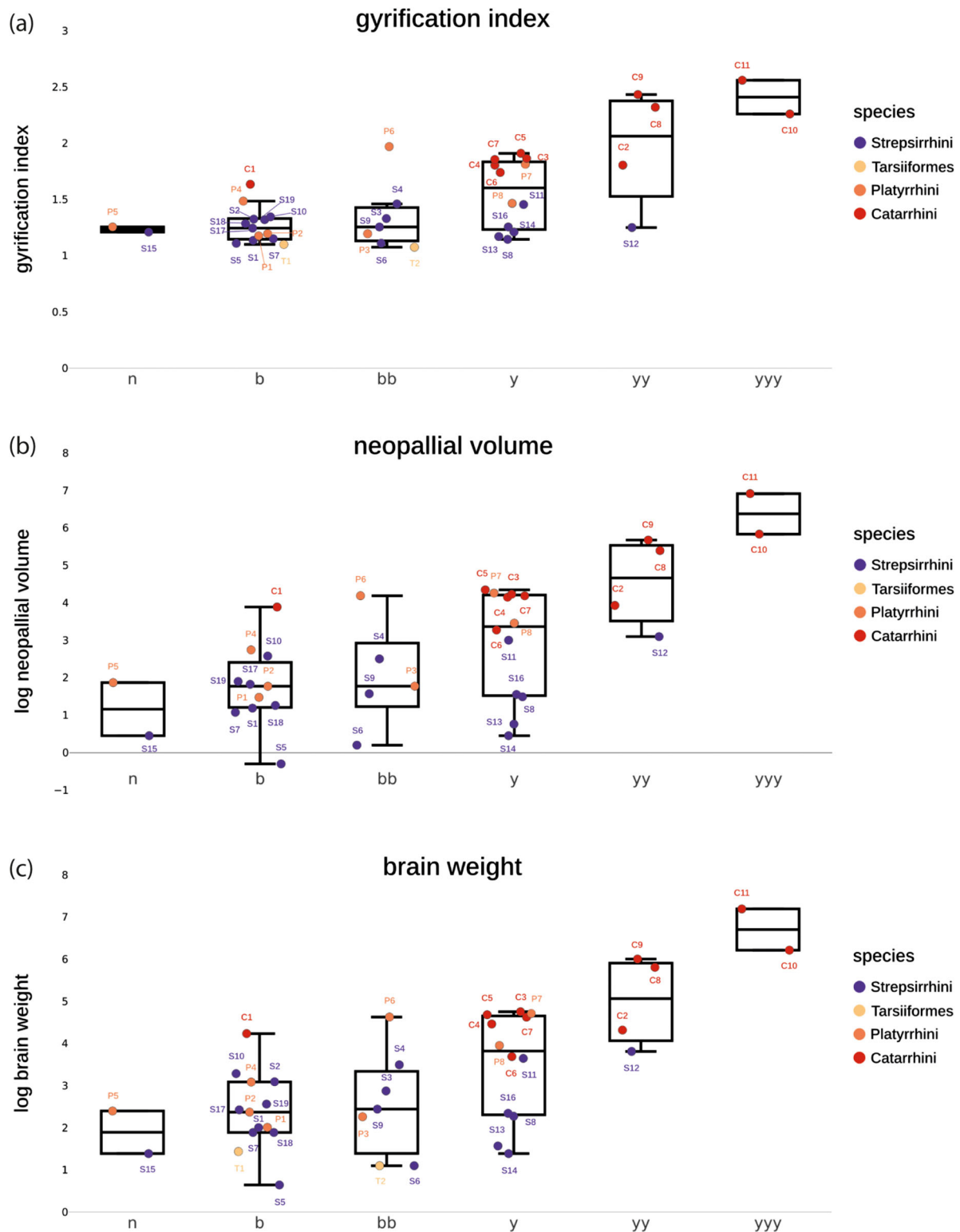


FIGURE 3 Relationship of cellular island formation with quantitative continuous parameters of primate species. Shown are the relationships of island formation in pre-alpha with the continuous parameters gyrification index (a), neopallial volume (b), brain weight (c), body weight (d), neopallial volume-to-brain weight (e), and brain weight-to-body weight (f). Each data point represents a species (codes refer to Table 1), color indicates assignment to one suborder (Strepsirrhini), one infraorder (Tarsiiformes), and two parvorders (Platyrrhini and Catarrhini). Both *Galagoides demidoff* individuals (S14 and S15) were excluded in statistical calculations. b = between—pre-alpha is wavy or partly discontinuous; n = no islands; y = yes—yes—yes

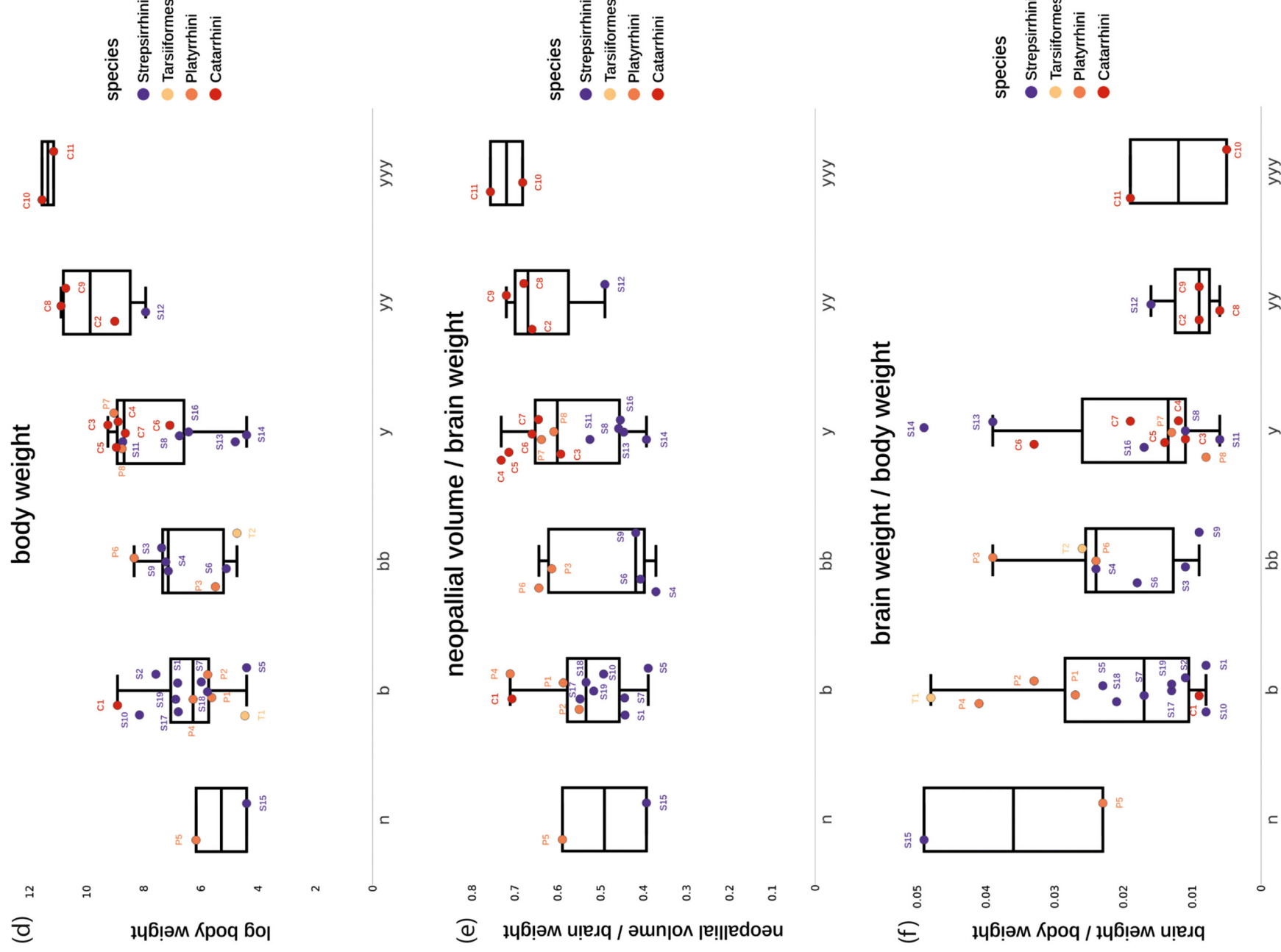


FIGURE 3 Continued

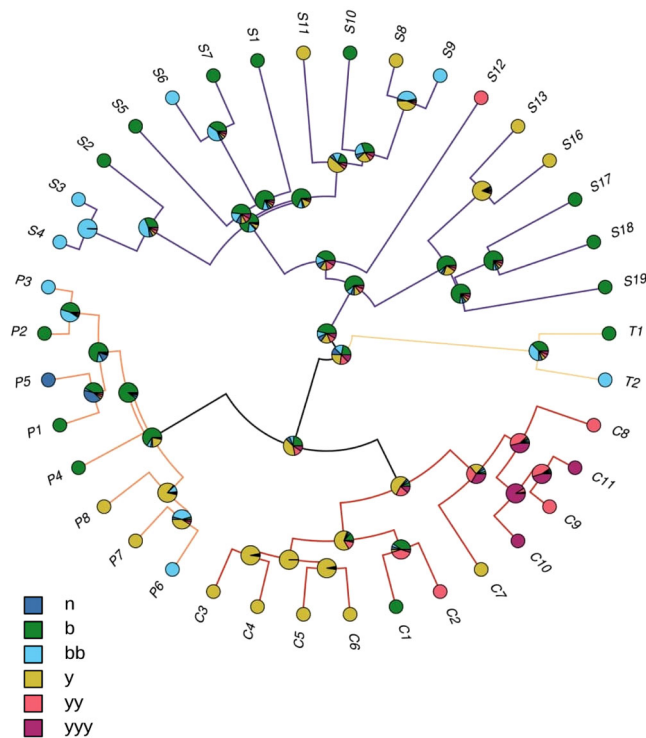


FIGURE 4 Ancestral character state reconstruction of cellular island formation in the primate lineage. Pie charts provide the likelihood that an ancestor exhibited a particular characteristic in pre-alpha by taking into account the relatedness of all species and the cellular island categories of all species included. Both *Galagoides demidoff* individuals S14 and S15) were excluded in statistical calculations as their different island traits would influence the likelihoods of their ancestral states. Colors of the linkage lines refer to the colors for the primate groups in Figure 3. Species codes refer to Table 1. b = between—pre-alpha is wavy or partly discontinuous; n = no islands; y = yes— islands visible

8-year-old lissencephalic male (case 1). The pre-alpha layer revealed no clustering of islands (Figure 5b). The same finding was seen in the EC of a lissencephalic 13-year-old male (case 2; Figure 5c). For comparison with an adolescent control, the EC of a 15-year-old female is depicted in Figure 5d, where the islands are clearly present in the pre-alpha layer.

4 | DISCUSSION

This study is the first to comprehensively examine the pre-alpha layer in a larger number of primates for the morphological feature of cellular island formation. We showed that cellular islands also evolve independently of phylogenetic relatedness and that the tendency toward cell clustering was already present in the common ancestors of all primates. A rostro-caudal gradient with more pronounced cellular compaction rostrally could also be determined. We found significant differences, with islands in pre-alpha of EC particularly related to the increase in gyrification. Lissencephalic brains, even in the pathological case in human individuals, have significantly low formation of com-

pacted neuronal islands in pre-alpha regardless of their phylogenetic relationship.

In the primate lineage, evolving structures of the brain increase in volume except for those serving olfaction (Stephan & Andy, 1964, 1969; Stephan et al., 1981). There is a close relationship between increased gyrification and neocortical volume in primates (Zilles et al., 1989). While brain size is more genetically determined, gyrification may be influenced by nongenetic factors, at least in humans (Zilles et al., 2013).

4.1 | Neocortex expansion relates with cellular islands in pre-alpha

Here, we found that the degree of gyrification, a marker for neocortex expansiveness, and other parameters that most likely correspond to this (neopallial volume, brain weight, neopallial volume-to-brain weight, body weight), in several species representing a spectrum of nonhuman and human primates significantly correlated with the presence of the pre-alpha cellular islands. After squaring the GI, which we saw as an essential factor to see the real brain anatomical processes through an increase in cortex surface area, this factor was most significant. The two human lissencephalic cases examined, accordingly, displayed completely island-free pre-alpha layers as we frequently observed in virtually lissencephalic animals. We hypothesized that there might be a connection between the extent of the neocortex and the presence of the pre-alpha cellular islands in layer II of the EC. This idea was driven by other examples in which cytoarchitectural modules showed an overlap with afferently connected nonneuronal structures, for example, the neuronal grids in the EC representing the external environment (Fyhn et al., 2004) or the somatosensory barrel cortex associated with the whiskers in rodents (Woolsey & Van der Loos 1970). In 1996, Horton and Hocking described another interesting example of cell segregation in a cortex layer: the ocular dominance columns in layer IV of the area striata of macaques. Newborn monkeys were light-deprived after birth, and it was found that these cell mosaics were already established at birth without visual sensory input (Horton & Hocking, 1996). Also, in humans, are already present at birth, as seen in 10 μ m thick pigment-Nissl-stained sections from the brain of a 1-day-old male (Figure S1). If the EC collects all highly processed sensory data streaming from neocortical association areas toward the hippocampus and beyond (prefrontal neocortex), the cortical representation might be in keeping with topological designation of EC areas (Insausti et al., 1998), and thus, the cellular islands, to cortical areas and their functions (e.g., in the sense of a “gyrotopy”). In this line of thought, the increased data stream via the entorhinal region in higher primates and humans might have triggered or exerted an influence on the formation of the cellular islands. It might also explain, in part, the severe cognitive impairment in our lissencephaly cases and in most lissencephalic individuals (Donato et al., 2017). The EC is a “bottleneck” for mnemonic and other higher cognitive functions in humans. Whether the formation of cellular islands is phylogenetically associated with higher cognitive capabilities in primates can only

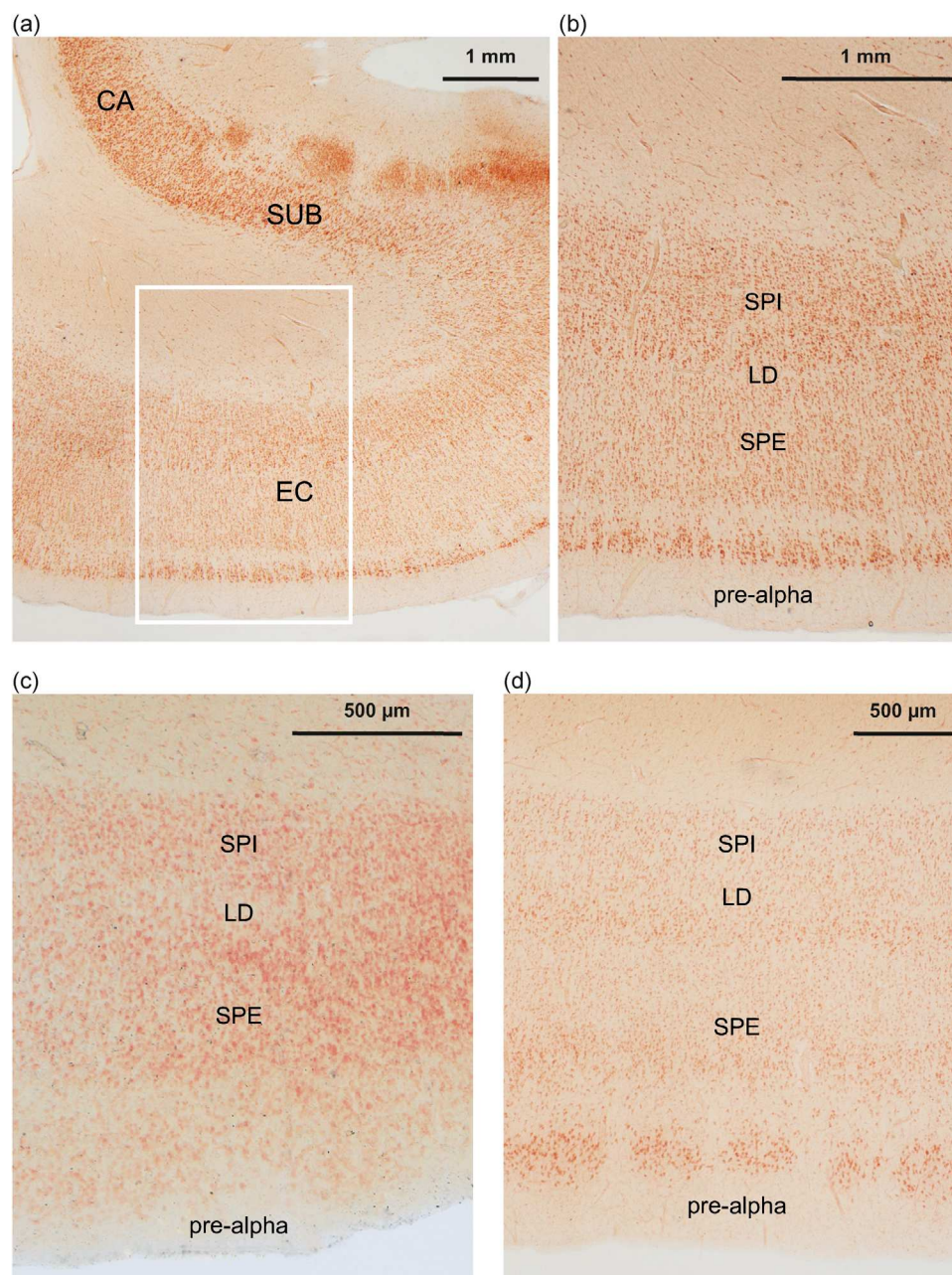


FIGURE 5 Human lissencephalies lack pre-alpha islands. A coronal section of a human lissencephalic mediobasal temporal cortex is provided (case 1; [a]). The left image shows the brain of an 8-year-old male with the Ammon's horn (CA), subiculum (SUB), and entorhinal cortex (EC). At right, a magnification of the highlighted area in the left image is depicted (b). The layers are highlighted from deep to superficial layers as stratum principale internum (SPI), stratum principale externum (SPE), and the lamina dissecans (LD) separating them. Pre-alpha stands for pre-alpha layer and shows no cellular islands in this case. The full dorso-ventral extent of EC of a 13-year-old female individual is depicted in (c) (case 2). The latter harbors no islands. The EC of a 15-year-old female control with no brain abnormalities and a clearly visible pre-alpha layer with islands is shown for comparison (d)

be speculated. In a very recent work, Piguet et al. (2020) found different developmental layer- and subdivision-specific patterns of EC development and discuss that this might be owing to distinct neuronal networks of different parts of the EC. A conjunctive evolution of the neocortex with the EC is highly likely since the two are massively interlinked by reciprocal connections (Nieuwenhuys et al., 2007; Schulz & Engelhardt, 2014). The mass of cortical connections increased

in various levels of mammalian organization. This main input into the limbic system is phylogenetically and ontogenetically young and expanded enormously from macrosomatic to microsmatic mammals. Along these lines, the lateral and caudal EC, which are most likely the main relays to and from the neocortex, have increased enormously in humans (Insausti, 1993). Interestingly, EC neurons appear ontogenetically before neocortical and archicortical ones (Stranahan & Mattson,

2010), which might also provide a clue to the key position EC neurons occupy.

The results of correlation calculations between brain-to-body weight measurements were, surprisingly, the only variable that negatively correlated with the formation of islands in pre-alpha in one of the two calculations. Given the positive correlation between brain size and islands, it was anticipated that no correlation would occur, inasmuch as brain size and body weight are generally positively correlated (Finlay, 2009; Shultz, 2010). However, several aspects must be considered: Although brain weight is relatively stable within a species and with respect to sex, body weight can vary widely interindividually, for example, in obesity. The values we used here for the calculations were predominantly from the few female and male species studied (Zilles et al., 1989); therefore, biases cannot be ruled out. Sexual dimorphism may also influence both brain and body weight. In particular, mammalian species with small bodies have relatively large brains (Finlay, 2009; Shultz, 2010). This is associated with the observation that, for certain basic functions, brain parts are largely independent of body size (Finlay, 2009; Dunbar & Shultz, 2007). When considering the calculations for island formation with the brain-to-body weight ratio, it is noticeable that some small Platyrrhini species with relatively large brains had few islands. To account for these allometric differences between species, the encephalization quotient was introduced as a better measure to compare brain sizes and cognitive performance between species (Jerison, 1973; Shultz, 2010). Furthermore, interpretation of correlation analysis results may not be focused on p -values since the underlying hypothesis is that r differs from 0. More telling, however, is an assessment of clinical or biological relevance, which suggests only a weak relationship here ($r = -0.35$).

4.2 | Methodological limitations of the study

In this section, methodological limitations are addressed in greater detail. Although we found a strong correlation between pre-alpha islands and the cortex expansion in various primates species, no direct proof of a direct influence of neocortical surface extent on pre-alpha cellular island formation can be deduced. However and notably, the first appearance of the cellular islands in the 13th postovulatory week (Kostović et al., 1993) is coincident with initial gyrification of the neocortex (White et al., 2010).

Second, it has been described that gyrification is different in the rostro-caudal axis of the forebrain in primates (Zilles et al., 1988). In the present study, the EC was examined at four positions from the amygdala to the caudal end of the hippocampus. This classification allowed for a good anatomical reference between species. Nevertheless, it is unclear whether these anatomical recognition features (e.g., the amygdala or the rostral beginning of the EC) actually have similar cortical connections in all species and are therefore functionally comparable. Whether the EC can in fact be defined as such at all four positions in all species examined is also unclear, inasmuch as it is defined both cytoarchitecturally and by its connections with the hippocampus. Here, the

lamina dissecans and neighboring structures, such as the amygdala, cornu ammonis, and dentate gyrus, have been used to distinguish it.

Third, transitions in this study between positions and also the self-defined categories for pre-alpha cell formation are not abrupt but, rather, continuous. It has to be acknowledged that the distinction between the three categories (no islands, partially interrupted, distinct islands) was not always sharp; but the intention was to use a semiquantitative classification. It must be emphasized, however, that the islands are three-dimensional structures, which were examined in two-dimensional coronal sections. This may have resulted in an underestimation in some instances.

Fourth, intraspecies differences in folding patterns have been described, and the brains analyzed may not fully represent the average of the species (Zilles et al., 2013). Still, we would expect that intraspecies differences in GI are lower in most of the nonhuman primates as compared to humans, considering that folding pattern have undergone significant changes during evolution toward humans. Cortical folding in humans is thought to be a result of genetic and nongenetic factors (Schmitt et al., 2020; Fernandez et al., 2016). Mechanical stimuli also play a role (Foubert et al., 2019).

4.3 | The evolution of pre-alpha islands in primates

Notably, some very closely related species show similar island features in pre-alpha. Brain morphological parameters were rather similar in several closely related species. In other cases, the categories were very similar despite a close relationship of the species (C1 and C2). Where these differences originate is largely unclear. According to Zilles et al. (1989), the GI was different in these species (*Pygathrix nemaeus* and *Ptilocolobis badius*); thus, this might be—in light of our findings—a major contributing factor. Of interest is S12 (*Daubentonia madagascariensis*), the only representative of Strepsirrhini with clear islands in several rostro-caudal positions. Independent evolution due to low relatedness is likely. The Hominoidea (C8–C11) are particularly outstanding: All of them show a distinct island formation in at least three positions in the rostro-caudal extent of the EC. Their brain morphological parameters (GI, brain weight, neopallial volume) also increased massively.

Most species in our analysis that harbored cellular islands ("y" or higher) belonged to the superfamilies Cercopithecoidea (C1–C6) and Hominoidea (C7–C11) also denominated as the parvorder Catarrhini or Old World anthropoids. These groups within the Catarrhini, Cercopithecoidea, and Hominoidea separated approximately 15 million years ago. Both phylogenetic lineages show other common but separately developed features, namely, increased brain volume and decreased olfactory bulb size (Gonzales et al., 2015). It is possible that, in these two primate groups, the EC islands developed independently owing to the increased brain size and, thus, to the complexity of the cerebral cortex. However, the common ancestor most likely already displayed islands in parts of the EC. Although the Hominoidea have cellular islands in pre-alpha in major parts of the EC, they are found

in most Cercopithecoidea only in one of the rostro-caudal positions studied here.

Within the major phylogenetic groups of primates (the suborder Strepsirrhini, the infraorder Tarsiiformes, and the parvorders Platyrrhini and Catarrhini), there seem to be two different trends of island formation in pre-alpha. Although the ancestors of the Strepsirrhini and Tarsiiformes tended not to have islands ("bb" or lower), they probably were already present in the common ancestor of the Platyrrhini and Catarrhini. The lineages of the parvorders Catarrhini and Platyrrhini separated approximately 50 million years ago (Perez et al., 2013). While only two of the Platyrrhini exhibited islands, most of the Catarrhini did so. This tendency toward more island formation throughout the EC (Catarrhini > Platyrrhini > Strepsirrhini and Tarsiiformes) fits with phylogenetic relationships, on the one hand, and likewise with increasing brain morphological parameters, such as GI, neopallial volume, and brain weight in terms of independent formation of island expression in each of the groups. Therefore, it is likely that this trait is not simply inherited but is significantly influenced by the increase in neocortex of the different species.

5 | CONCLUSION

To our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate a possible link between the neocortex increase in primates and pre-alpha island formation. Owing to the strong reciprocal connection of the neocortex with the EC, it stands to reason that cellular islands formed under this evolutionary influence. It could even be that a highly individual pattern of islands is formed, depending on the individual cortical folding in humans, and this, in turn, might have an influence on individual predispositions to neurodevelopmental and neurodegenerative disorders.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

The study design was generated by Heiko Braaks, Kelly Del Tredici, Katrin Amunts, Tobias M. Boeckers, and Michael Schön. Analyses were conducted by Anastasia Nosanova, Christian Jacob, Simone Feldengut, and Michael Schön. Katrin Amunts provided access to the Zilles, Amunts (Stephan) mammals' collections and contributed to the analysis. Anastasia Nosanova, Hans A. Kestler, Johann Michael Kraus, and

Benjamin Mayer contributed to the statistical calculations. Writing of preliminary and final versions of the manuscript was the joint work of all authors.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings are not already included in figures or tables of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

PEER REVIEW

The peer review history for this article is available at <https://publons.com/publon/10.1002/cne.25233>.

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