

Vangl2 deficient zebrafish exhibit hallmarks of neural tube closure defects

Jacalyn MacGowan^{1,2}, Mara Cardenas^{2,3,4}, and Margot Kossmann Williams^{1,2*}

¹ Center for Precision Environmental Health, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX

² Department of Molecular and Cellular Biology, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX

³ Center for Cell and Gene Therapy, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX

⁴ Stem Cells and Regenerative Medicine Center, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX

*Author for correspondence: margot.williams@bcm.edu

Running title

Zebrafish neural tube closure

Keywords

Neurulation

Neural tube defects

Planar cell polarity

Zebrafish

Summary statement

The anterior neural tube of zebrafish exhibits fold-and-fuse neurulation which is disrupted upon loss of Vangl2, highlighting conservation of vertebrate neurulation and the potential to model neural tube defects in zebrafish.

Abstract

Neural tube defects (NTDs) are among the most devastating and common congenital anomalies worldwide, and the ability to model these conditions *in vivo* is essential for identifying causative genetic and environmental factors. Although zebrafish are ideal for rapid candidate testing, their neural tubes develop primarily via a solid neural keel rather than the fold-and-fuse method employed by mammals, raising questions about their suitability as an NTD model. Here, we demonstrate that despite outward differences, zebrafish anterior neurulation closely resembles that of mammals. For the first time, we directly observe fusion of the bilateral neural folds to enclose a lumen in zebrafish embryos. The neural folds fuse by zippering between multiple distinct but contiguous closure sites. Embryos lacking *vangl2*, a core planar cell polarity and NTD risk gene, exhibit delayed neural fold fusion and abnormal neural groove formation, yielding distinct openings and midline bifurcations in the developing neural tube. These data provide direct evidence for fold-and-fuse neurulation in zebrafish and its disruption upon loss of an NTD risk gene, highlighting conservation of vertebrate neurulation and the utility of zebrafish for modeling NTDs.

Introduction

Neural tube defects (NTDs) such as spina bifida and anencephaly are among the most common and devastating congenital anomalies, affecting approximately 1 in 1,000 births in the United States (1) and even more worldwide (2). These conditions result from incomplete closure of the neural tube during embryogenesis, often leaving the neural tube lumen open to the outside of the body. While folate supplementation has greatly

50 reduced the incidence of NTDs, as many as 70% of cases are folate-resistant (3). Mutations in a number of
51 genes are associated with an increased likelihood of NTDs (4), but are not the sole risk factors for NTD (5, 6).
52 Additional potential risk factors include mutations in multiple risk genes (7), certain teratogenic drugs (8, 9),
53 and exposure to environmental toxicants (10-16), implicating complex gene-environment interactions in their
54 etiology. Indeed, the stalled decline in NTDs after folate fortification in the U.S. (3) demonstrates that additional
55 risk factors remain to be discovered. One major limitation is the inability to draw causal relationships between
56 reported risk factors and NTD occurrence. Some genetic and/or environmental risk factors identified from
57 patient cohorts have been shown to cause NTDs in mouse models (17-19). However, the small litter sizes, high
58 husbandry costs, and large space requirements of mice are prohibitive of large-scale genetic and/or chemical
59 screening that could convert associations into causal relationships, highlighting the need for additional animal
60 models of NTDs.

61
62 Due to their relatively low husbandry costs, rapid external development, large clutch sizes, and amenability to
63 genetic manipulation, zebrafish are an ideal vertebrate model for genetic and chemical screens to identify
64 causes of NTDs. However, the morphology of the developing neural tube differs substantially between
65 zebrafish and amniote species. Primary neurulation in chick, mouse, and human embryos is driven by
66 convergent extension (CE) of the developing neural plate followed by formation of hinge points (20-27) that
67 elevate the bilateral neural folds and bend them toward each other (26, 28, 29). The neural folds then meet at
68 the dorsal midline and fuse by zippering between discrete closure points (30, 31), completing the “fold-and-
69 fuse” process that encloses the neural tube lumen. By contrast, the zebrafish spinal cord develops from the
70 neural keel, a solid structure that later undergoes cavitation to form a central lumen (32, 33). The site of this
71 lumen is established through a series of midline-crossing mitoses termed “C-divisions” which distribute one
72 daughter cell of each side of the neural keel midline (32, 34-39). For this reason, primary neurulation in
73 zebrafish has been likened to secondary neurulation in amniote embryos (33, 40, 41). Zebrafish were therefore
74 viewed not only as questionable for NTD modeling, but also as fundamentally different from other vertebrates
75 in their mechanism of neurulation.

76
77 However, more recent findings reveal that despite these outward differences, several hallmarks of primary
78 neurulation are conserved in zebrafish. For example, CE morphogenesis narrows the neural plate (38, 42), and
79 apical constriction at the midline forms a medial hinge point-like structure (43, 44). The neural folds were also
80 shown to zipper closed in the forebrain region of zebrafish (44) in a fashion strikingly similar to mice (30, 31).
81 These conserved neurulation mechanisms open the possibility of modeling NTDs, or aspects thereof, in the
82 experimentally tractable zebrafish model. Indeed, previous studies have proposed bifurcation of pineal gland
83 precursors and/or the dorsal roof plate as proxies for NTDs in zebrafish (45-48). These phenotypes are
84 suggestive of reduced neural fold convergence, but it is unclear whether they exhibit other hallmarks of NTDs,
85 such as lumens that remain open to the outside. Furthermore, bifurcated pineal and roof plate domains
86 resulted from reduced Nodal signaling and N-cadherin function (45-48), but mutations in Nodal signaling

87 components are associated with holoprosencephaly in human patients (49-51) rather than NTDs. Whether
88 these or other NTD-like phenotypes are induced by loss of human NTD risk genes in zebrafish was unknown.

89
90 Among mutations known or suspected to cause NTDs in mice and humans, respectively, many affect
91 components of planar cell polarity (PCP) signaling, a highly conserved regulator of vertebrate morphogenesis.
92 Loss of PCP genes like *Vangl2* disrupts both CE of the neural plate and hinge point formation, preventing
93 anteroposterior axis elongation and neural tube closure in mouse, chick, and *Xenopus* (20, 21, 52-65).
94 Mutations in PCP genes (including *VANGL2*) are also associated with NTDs in several patient cohorts (7, 66-
95 71). Loss of PCP signaling similarly disrupts CE and neural tube development in zebrafish (38, 42, 72-81), but
96 these phenotypes differ from amniote NTDs due to differences in neurulation. For example, C-divisions (which
97 determine the site of lumen formation) are disorganized in PCP mutant *vangl2 / trilobite (tri)-/-* zebrafish, giving
98 rise to ectopic neuroectodermal structures and neural tube lumens (38, 39, 72). Because these phenotypes do
99 not outwardly resemble NTDs in other vertebrate species or humans (i.e. no lumens that remain open to the
100 outside), it was broadly assumed that zebrafish neurulate via fundamentally different mechanisms than other
101 vertebrates and are poor models for NTD research.

102
103 Here, we reevaluate the neural tube phenotypes of *vangl2* deficient zebrafish embryos with a focus on the
104 brain region at early stages of neurulation. By examining neural tube development at the time of neural fold
105 zippering, we found that many *vangl2*-deficient embryos exhibit a Distinct Opening of the Neural Tube
106 (DONuT), a 3-dimensional pit-shaped structure in the forebrain region. DONuT formation correlates with the
107 severity of axis extension defects and delayed midline convergence of pineal precursors, linking it to reduced
108 CE morphogenesis. Live time-lapse imaging of neural tube closure revealed that, in addition to the previously
109 described zippering of the anterior neural folds, wild-type (WT) zebrafish exhibit a distinct but contiguous
110 posterior site of neural fold fusion. These two sites zipper in opposite directions from a central point of contact
111 to close the anterior neural tube. Using optical transverse sectioning of live embryos, we further showed that
112 the bilateral neural folds fuse to enclose a lumen in a process strikingly similar to amniote neurulation.
113 Moreover, neural fold fusion is delayed in *vangl2* deficient embryos, reflecting reduced CE cell movements and
114 abnormal neural groove formation. Together, these data provide direct evidence for fold-and-fuse neurulation in
115 zebrafish and show that this process requires *Vangl2*. This demonstrates the deep conservation of neurulation
116 mechanisms among vertebrates and highlights the potential utility of zebrafish for modeling the morphogenetic
117 processes underlying neural tube closure and NTDs.

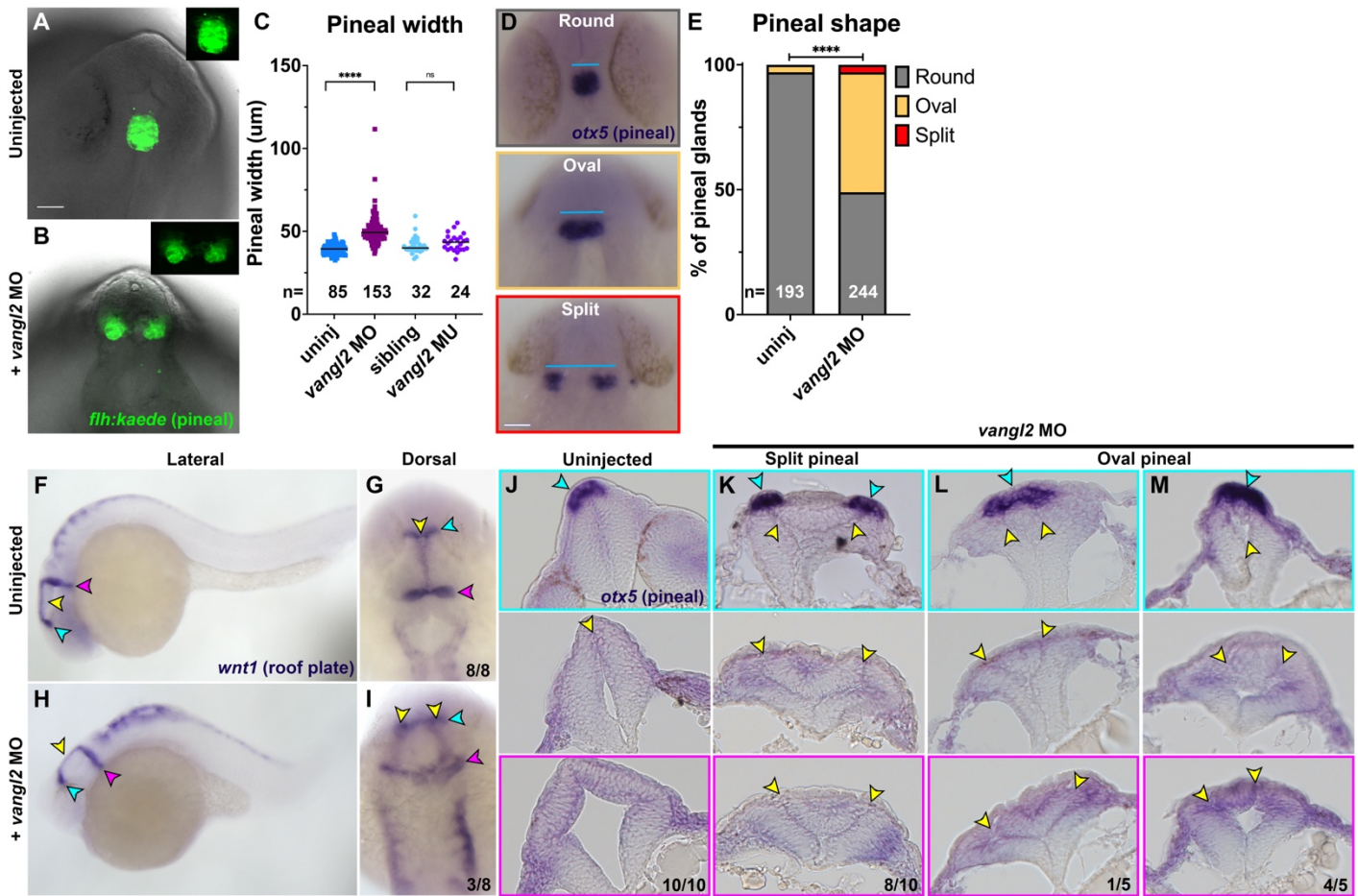
118 119 120 **Results**

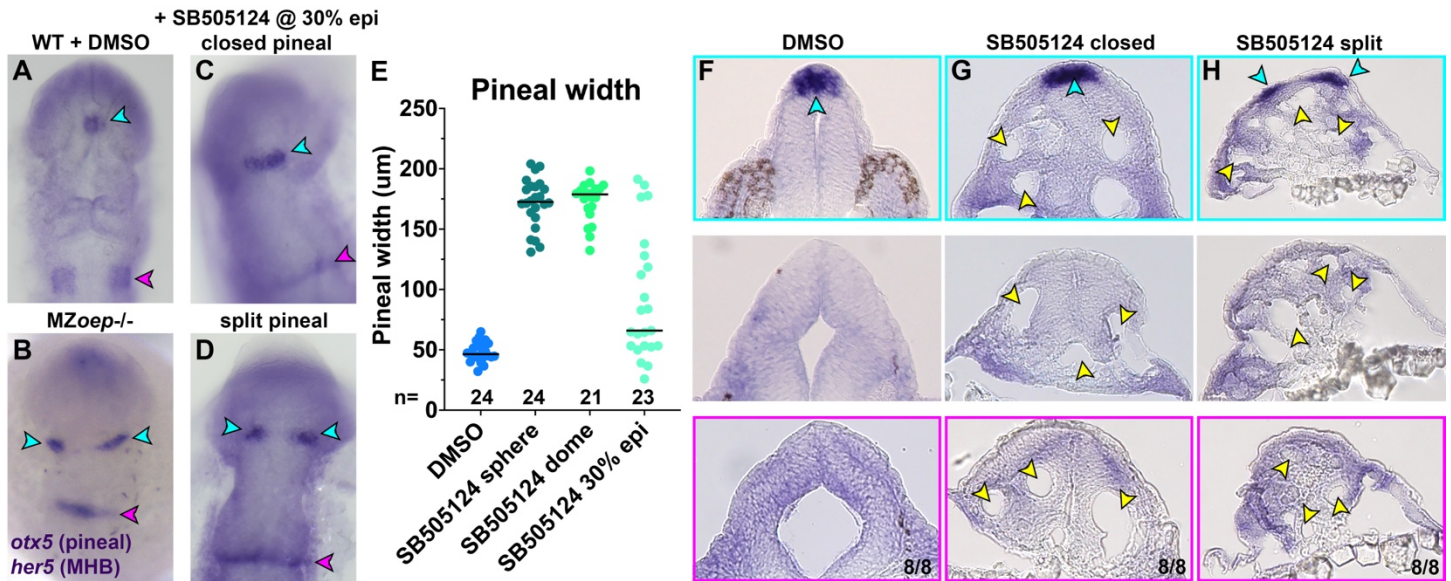
121 122 **Bifurcated pineal precursors and roof plates reflect abnormal anterior neural tube morphology in** 123 ***Vangl2* deficient zebrafish embryos.**

124
125 Bifurcation of pineal gland precursors and the dorsal roof plate around 24 hours post fertilization (hpf) were
126 previously suggested as proxies for NTDs in zebrafish embryos with disrupted Nodal signaling or mutations in

127 *cdh2* (encoding N-cadherin) (45-48). To determine whether such phenotypes were present in zebrafish
128 embryos lacking the PCP signaling component (and ortholog of a human NTD risk gene (70, 71)) *vangl2*, we
129 examined the morphology of these structures in *vangl2/trilobite (tri)* homozygous mutants, *vangl2* morphants,
130 and sibling controls at approximately 28 hpf. Using both a transgenic *flh:kaede* (82) line in which pineal
131 precursors fluoresce green (**Fig. 1A-B**) and whole mount *in situ* hybridization (WISH) for the pineal marker *otx5*
132 (**Fig. 1D**), we found that embryos injected with 2 ng *vangl2* morpholino oligonucleotide (MO) (83) exhibited
133 significantly wider pineal domains than control siblings when measured from the lateral-most edges (**Fig. 1C**)
134 and were significantly more likely to have split or elongated oval-shaped pineal domains than controls (**Fig.**
135 **1E**). Notably, homozygous *vangl2/trilobite (tri)*^{-/-} embryos did not exhibit increased pineal width at this stage
136 (**Fig. 1C**). This is likely due to maternally deposited *vangl2* that is eliminated by the MO (42, 84), consistent
137 with more severe phenotypes in maternal zygotic (MZ)*vangl2*^{-/-} than zygotic (Z)*vangl2*^{-/-} embryos (72). WISH
138 for the dorsal neural tube marker *wnt1* also revealed bifurcated roof plates in a subset *vangl2* morphants (**Fig.**
139 **1F-I**). Histological analysis of 28 hpf *vangl2* morphant anterior neural tubes (fore- through hind-brain) with split
140 or oval-shaped pineal domains revealed ectopic tissue and supernumerary midline structures (**Fig. 1J-M**,
141 yellow arrows) similar to those reported in the spinal cord region of *vangl2* deficient embryos (38, 39, 72). Eight
142 of the ten embryos with split pineal domains contained ectopic midline tissue at all rostrocaudal positions
143 examined, including at the level of the pineal (**Fig. 1K**). Among the embryos examined with oval-shaped
144 pineals, only one contained ectopic midline tissue at the level of the pineal (**Fig. 1L**) while the remaining four
145 contained a single midline in the rostral-most sections but ectopic midlines further rostrally (**Fig. 1M**). This
146 suggests that split pineal domains are associated with ectopic midline tissues resulting from abnormal C-
147 divisions, but that the anterior neural tube is less sensitive to loss of *vangl2* than more posterior regions.

148 We compared these phenotypes to those of Nodal signaling-deficient embryos, in which split pineal
149 domains were hypothesized to represent open neural tubes (45-47). As previously reported, embryos
150 completely lacking Nodal signaling through maternal and zygotic loss of the Nodal coreceptor *oep/tdgf1*
151 (MZ*oep*^{-/-}) or treated with the Nodal inhibitor SB505124 at either sphere or dome stage (4-4.3 hpf) exhibited
152 substantially wider and split pineal domains (**Supp. Fig. 1A-E**). Later SB505124 treatment at 30% epiboly (4.7
153 hpf) yielded embryos with a range of pineal phenotypes from split to round, as seen previously (46).
154 Histological analysis of SB505124-treated embryos at 28 hpf revealed a striking Swiss cheese-like pattern of
155 multiple small holes in the neural tube of every embryo examined, regardless of whether their pineal domains
156 were split or closed (**Supp. Fig. 1F-H**). This internal anatomy of the neural tube is consistent with previous
157 reports of multiple lumen-like structures in MZ*oep*^{-/-} embryos (85), and is distinct from the ectopic bilateral
158 midlines observed in *vangl2* morphants (**Fig. 1 J-M**) despite similar pineal phenotypes. This demonstrates that
159 bifurcation of the pineal precursors and roof plate externally can be underlain by multiple distinct internal
160 phenotypes, which do not appear to share features with amniote NTDs.





Supplemental Figure 1. Distinct neural tube morphologies underlie split pineal phenotypes in Nodal deficient embryos.

A-D) Representative images of the anterior neural tube in DMSO-treated WT (**A**), MZoepl-/-, or SB505124-treated (**C-D**) embryos at 28 hpf WISH stained for *otx5* and *her5*, viewed dorsally. Cyan arrowheads indicate pineal precursors, magenta arrowheads indicate the MHB. **E**) Width of pineal precursor domains in embryos of the conditions indicated, measured from *otx5* WISH at 28 hpf (as shown in **A-D**). Each dot represents a single embryo, black bars are median values. **F-H**) Transverse histological sections through the anterior neural tube at the level of the epithalamus (top panels), midbrain (middle panels), and MHB (bottom panels) in 28 hpf embryos of the conditions indicated. Cyan arrowheads indicate pineal precursors stained by *otx5* WISH. Yellow arrowheads indicate ectopic lumens in a Swiss cheese-like pattern. Fractions indicate the number of embryos with the depicted phenotype over the total number of embryos examined for each condition. Anterior is up in (**A-D**), dorsal is up in (**F-H**).

Vangl2 deficient embryos exhibit delayed pineal precursor convergence and distinct openings of the neural tube.

Previous analysis of the spinal cord region in *vangl2* deficient embryos determined that ectopic tissue at the neural tube midline results from abnormal C-divisions (38, 39, 72) that normally distribute pairs of neural progenitor cells on either side of the neural midline (32, 34, 37) but occur ectopically in the absence of *vangl2*. We frequently observed a tissue mass between the split pineal domains of *vangl2* morphants (**Fig. 1K**), raising the possibility that ectopic midline tissue prevents pineal fusion. However, WT pineal fusion and anterior neural tube closure (at the 7-somite stage (44, 45)) precede C-divisions (at approximately 10-somite stage (34, 35, 41)), and are therefore unlikely to be caused by abnormal cell divisions. To identify the developmental origins of pineal phenotypes in embryos lacking *vangl2*, we examined neural development at the time of neural fold zippering (44) from 3-10 somite stages. In control embryos, pineal precursors marked by *flh/noto* expression began as bilateral domains that converged at the midline and fused at approximately 7 somite stage (**Fig. 2A, D**), as previously described (45). In *vangl2* morphant (and to a lesser degree, *tri*^{-/-} mutant) embryos, we found that this convergence was delayed, as reflected by the increased width of *flh*⁺ domains across several time points (**Fig. 2B, D; Supp. Fig. 2A**).

However, we observed an even more striking phenotype in *vangl2* morphant embryos during this analysis: a distinct, horseshoe-shaped pit in the neural plate between the *flh*⁺ pineal domains (**Fig. 2B-C**). This structure was present in most *vangl2* morphant embryos from 3-6 somite stages, and although its incidence decreased as development proceeded, it persisted in approximately 20% of *vangl2* morphants at the 8-somite stage (**Fig. 2D**). This pit-like structure was not common to all embryos whose pineal precursors had not yet fused, as only one control embryo (of 163 examined) possessed such a structure even at pre-pineal fusion stages. Although the pineal domains of *vangl2*/*tri*^{-/-} embryos were wider than their WT and heterozygous controls, none exhibited a pit in their forebrain region (**Supp. Fig. 2A-B**), consistent with more severe phenotypes in *vangl2* morphants than mutants. 3-dimensional reconstructions of these structures from confocal Z-stacks of fixed *vangl2* morphant and control embryos stained with phalloidin (**Fig. 2F-G**) corroborated our WISH images. At 5 somite stages, this structure resembled a pit that was open to the exterior of the embryo (**Fig. 2G**, yellow arrowheads). Many *vangl2* morphants also possessed a second, more posteriorly positioned pit structure (**Fig. 2G**, cyan arrowheads). By contrast, the anterior neural plate of control embryos was covered by periderm (which develops from and is sometimes referred to as the enveloping layer (EVL)) and appeared smooth (**Fig. 2F**). This smooth appearance persisted to the 7-somite stage, whereas *vangl2* morphant embryos exhibited openings from which rounded cells protruded to the embryo's exterior. Because these findings provide direct evidence for open neural tubes in *vangl2* morphant embryos, we termed this pit-shaped structure the Distinct Opening of the Neural Tube (DONuT).

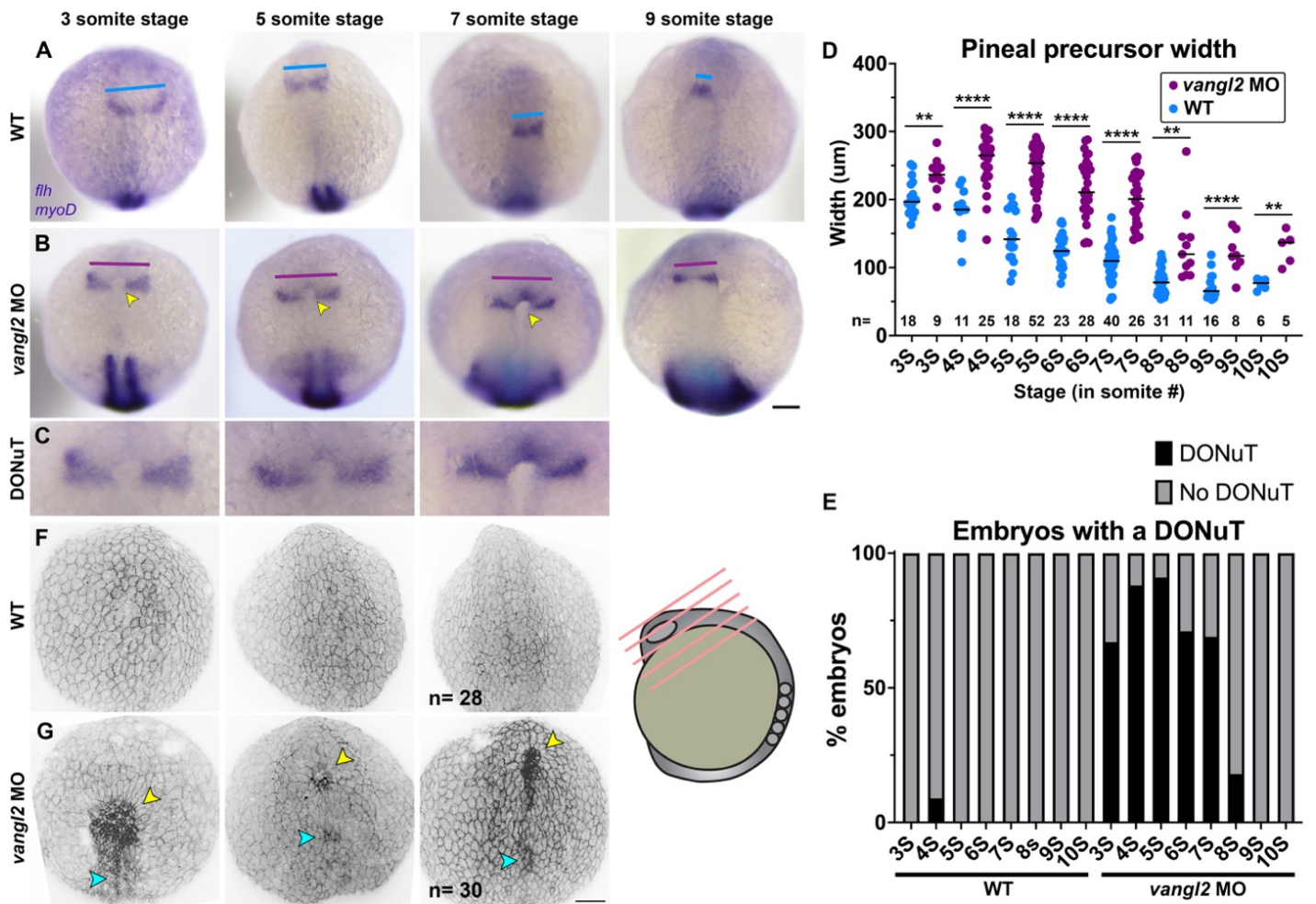
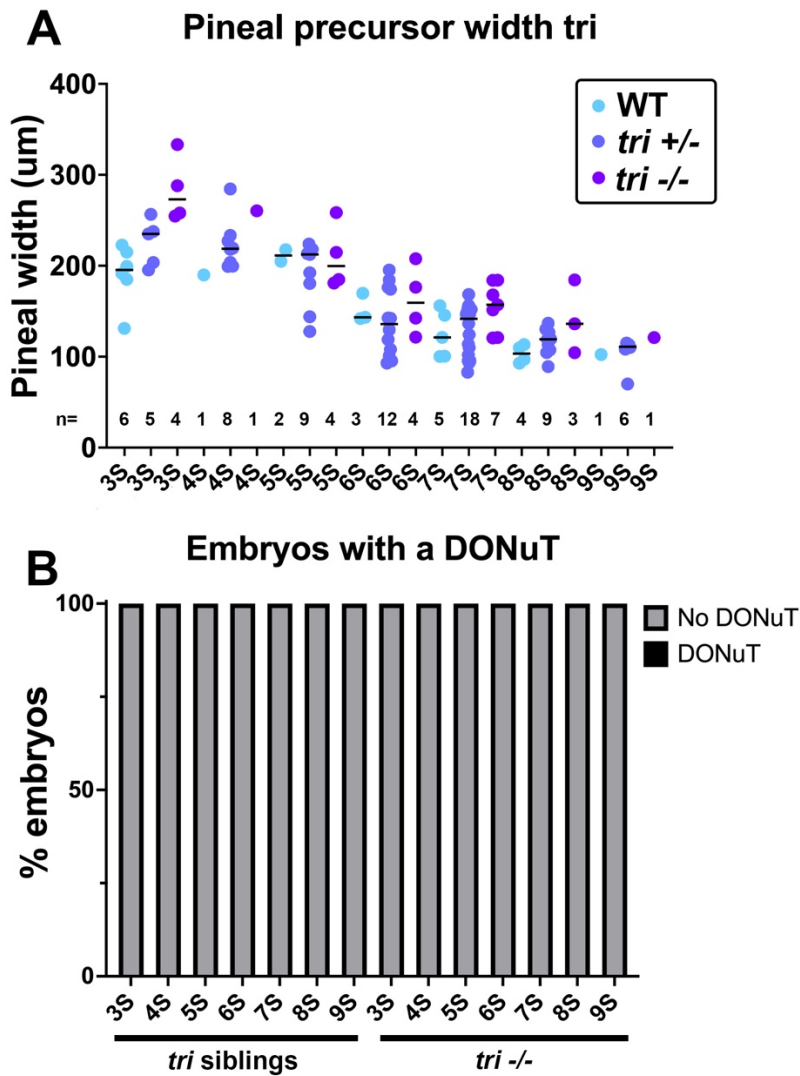


Figure 2. *vangl2* deficient embryos exhibit delayed pineal convergence and a Distinct Opening of the Neural Tube (DONuT).

A-B Representative images of pineal precursors (*flh* WISH) and somites/adaxial cells (*myoD* WISH) in control (A) and *vangl2* MO-injected (B) embryos at the stages indicated, viewed dorsally. Blue and burgundy lines indicate pineal precursor width, yellow arrowheads indicate the presence of a DONuT. **C** Enlargements of the DONuTs from images in (B). **D** Width of pineal precursor domains (as shown in A-B) in control (blue) and *vangl2* morphant (burgundy) embryos at the stages indicated. Each dot represents a single embryo, black bars are median values. n values indicate the number of embryos of each stage/condition measured from 3 independent trials, **p=0.003, p=0.008, p=0.007, ****p<0.0001, T-test. **E** Percentage of embryos (as shown in A-B) of the stage/condition indicated with (black) or without (gray) a DONuT. **F-G** 3-dimensional reconstructions of confocal Z-stacks through the anterior neural plate of fixed and phalloidin-stained embryos of the stages and conditions indicated. Yellow arrowheads indicate a DONuT, cyan arrowheads indicate openings in more posterior regions. n values indicate the number of embryos examined for each condition from 3 independent trials. Anterior is up in all images, scale bars = 100 μ m.



Supplemental Figure 2. Trilobite mutants do not exhibit DONuTs.

A) Width of pineal precursor domains (as shown in A-B) in WT (blue), *tri* het (indigo), and *tri* homozygous (purple) embryos at the stages indicated. Each dot represents a single embryo, black bars are median values. n values indicate the number of embryos of each stage/condition measured from 3 independent trials. **B)** Percentage of embryos from *tri* heterozygote incrosses of the stage/genotype indicated with (black) or without (gray) a DONuT.

Anterior neural tube openings correlate with severity of convergent extension defects.

Vangl2 deficient embryos have well described defects in CE morphogenesis during gastrulation (42, 78, 84), and their neural tube phenotypes at later stages are thought to be secondary to reduced CE (38). We hypothesized that defective CE also underlies the observed delay in convergence of the bilateral pineal precursors, which in-turn manifests as a DONuT. Consistent with this hypothesis, we found that both the *flh*⁺ pineal domains and *myoD*⁺ somites were significantly wider (consistent with reduced CE) in 3-7 somite staged *vangl2* morphants with a DONuT than those without a DONuT (**Fig. 3A-C, E-F**). Notably, the width of pineal domains and somites of *vangl2/ tri*^{-/-} embryos did not differ from morphants without DONuTs but were narrower than morphants with DONuTs (**Fig. 3D, E-F**). This is consistent with our failure to observe DONuTs in mutant embryos, and with previous findings that *Zvangl2*^{-/-} CE phenotypes are less severe than those of *MZvangl2*^{-/-} and *vangl2* morphants (72). Together, these findings indicate that embryos with more severe CE defects are more likely to exhibit openings in the neural tube, strongly implicating reduced CE during gastrulation in neural tube closure. We further speculate that some *vangl2* deficient embryos can never overcome this delay to successfully fuse the anterior neural folds, and that any embryos with a persistent DONuT and/or whose pineal domains have not yet fused by the onset of C-divisions around 10 somite stage go on to become the minority of embryos with split pineal precursors and/or roof plates at 28 hpf (**Fig. 1**).

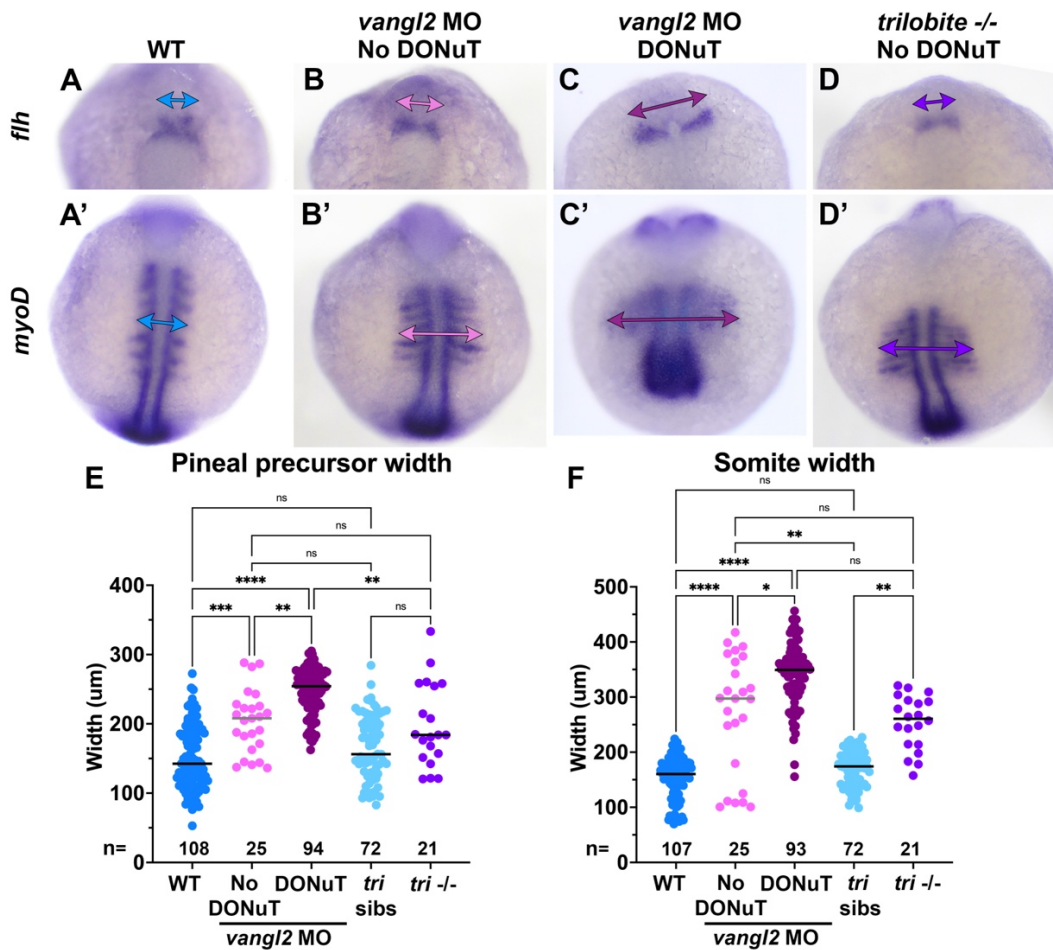


Figure 3. DONuT formation is correlated with severity of convergent extension defects.

A-D') Representative images of pineal precursors (*flh* WISH) and somites/adaxial cells (*myoD* WISH) in the same control (A), *vangl2* MO-injected (B-C), and *vangl2/tri*-/- (D) embryos at the 7-somite stage, viewed dorsally. Double arrows indicate pineal precursor width (A-D) or somite width (A'-D'). **E-F)** Width of pineal precursor domains (E, as shown in A-D) and somites (F, as shown in A'-D') in control (blue), *tri*-/- (purple), and *vangl2* morphant embryos with (burgundy) or without (pink) a DONuT at 3-7 somite stages. Each dot represents a single embryo, black/gray bars are median values. **** $p < 0.0001$, *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$, Kruskal-Wallis test with multiple comparisons. n values indicate the number of embryos of each stage/condition measured from 3 independent trials. Anterior is up in all images.

Zebrafish neural folds fuse by zippering of distinct anterior and posterior openings.

A recent study used live time-lapse imaging to directly observe closure of the forebrain neural tube in zebrafish, revealing bidirectional zippering of an eye-shaped opening between the fusing neural folds beginning at approximately 6-7 somite stage (44). To characterize neural tube closure more fully in WT embryos, we performed confocal time-lapse imaging of the anterior neural plate beginning at the 4-somite stage. In each of the 23 control embryos imaged, we observed the presence and zippering of an eye-shaped opening in the forebrain region as previously reported (44). However, examining the neural plate at earlier stages revealed a sequence of preceding morphogenetic changes (Fig. 4). At around the 5-somite stage, we observed a continuous keyhole-shaped groove in the neural plate midline with the round portion positioned anteriorly (Fig. 4A-B', green shading). The bilateral neural folds then elevated on either side of this groove, resembling the two sides of a hot dog bun (Supp. videos 2, 5), and came together near the center of the keyhole to "pinch off" the anterior and posterior portions (Fig. 4B and Supp. Fig. 3, white arrows, and Supp. videos 1-5). Elevation of the neural folds was accompanied by apical constriction of midline neuroectoderm cells (see Supp. video 2), consistent with observations in the future forebrain and hindbrain (43, 44).

The posterior opening began zippering closed first, beginning at the "pinch point" and continuing posteriorly (Fig. 4A-B', blue shading and arrows, Supp. videos 1, 3,), leaving the anterior portion to form the eye-shaped opening later. In some control embryos, a small opening at the posterior end of this zipper could later be seen completing closure (Fig. 4A-A'). Once the posterior opening had zippered (mostly) closed, the neural folds of the anterior portion approached one another at the midline and made contact to generate the posterior closure point of the eye-shaped opening (Fig. 4A and Supp. Fig. 3, yellow shading and arrows), as previously described (44). The anterior closure point of the eye-shaped opening arose from the anterior-most edge of the initial keyhole-shaped groove (Fig. 4 and Supp. Fig. 3, yellow arrows), and the opening zippered closed predominantly from anterior to posterior (Supp. videos 4, 6). As mentioned above, the posterior-most end of the posterior opening also completed its zippering at this stage. Notably, this live imaging also enabled examination of the relationship between midline-crossing C-divisions and neural tube closure. In embryos in which the left and right sides of the developing neural keel exhibited distinct levels of fluorescent protein expression (Supp. videos 1, 3, 4, 5), cells were only seen crossing the midline after the anterior eye-shaped opening had closed. This provides further evidence that neural fold fusion precedes C-divisions.

Together, these observations delineate a complex series of morphogenetic events that close the anterior zebrafish neural tube. First, apical constriction of midline neuroectoderm cells creates a medial hinge point and elevates the bilateral neural folds, producing a shallow groove along the dorsal midline. The neural folds come together near the center of this groove, pinching it into anterior and posterior segments. The neural folds zipper together posteriorly from the pinch point while the neural folds continue toward the midline in the anterior portion of the groove, creating the previously described eye-shaped opening that then zippers shut between two closure points. Around the time the anterior eye-shaped opening closes, the caudal-most end of the posterior portion completes its zipper closure (see model in Fig. 7).

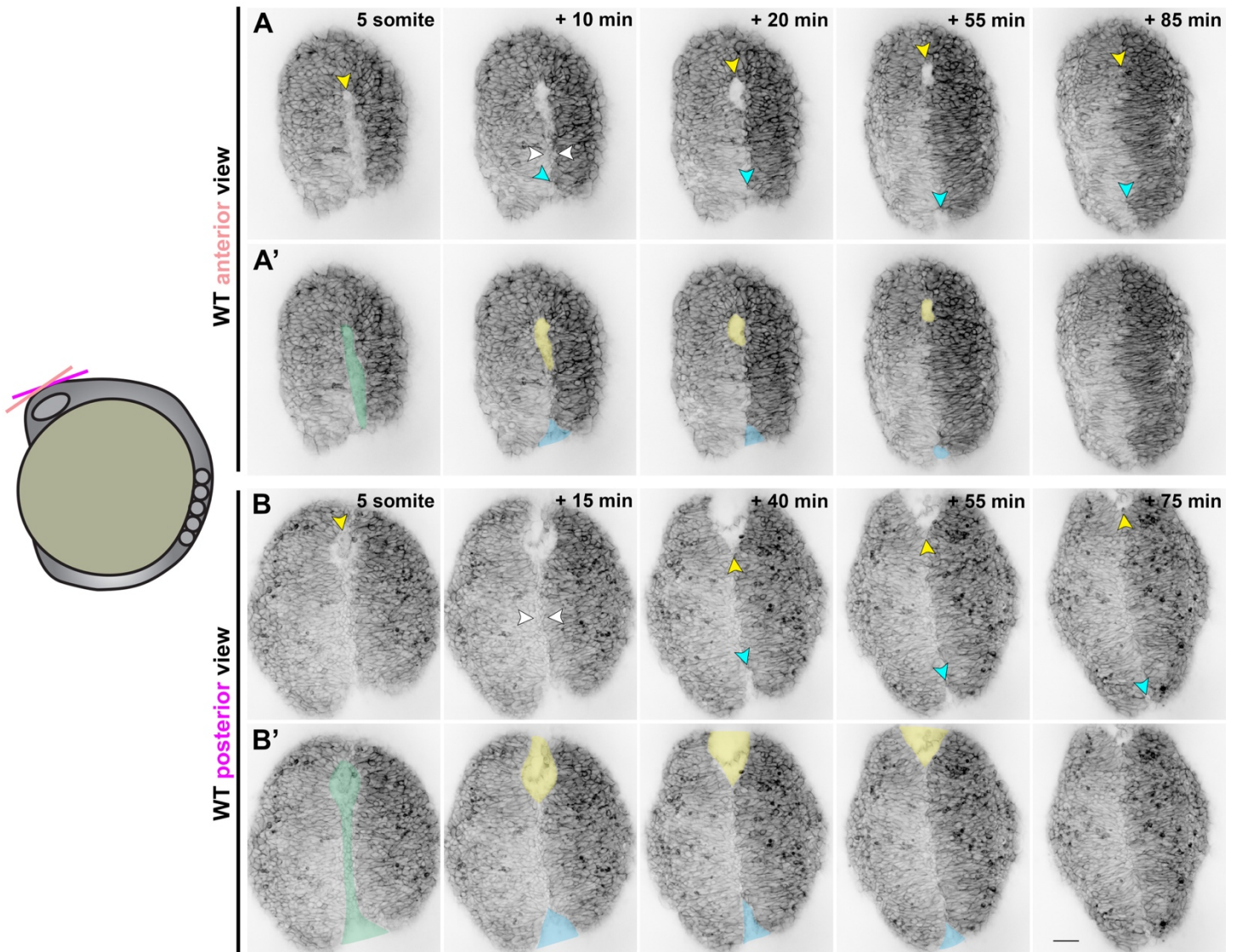
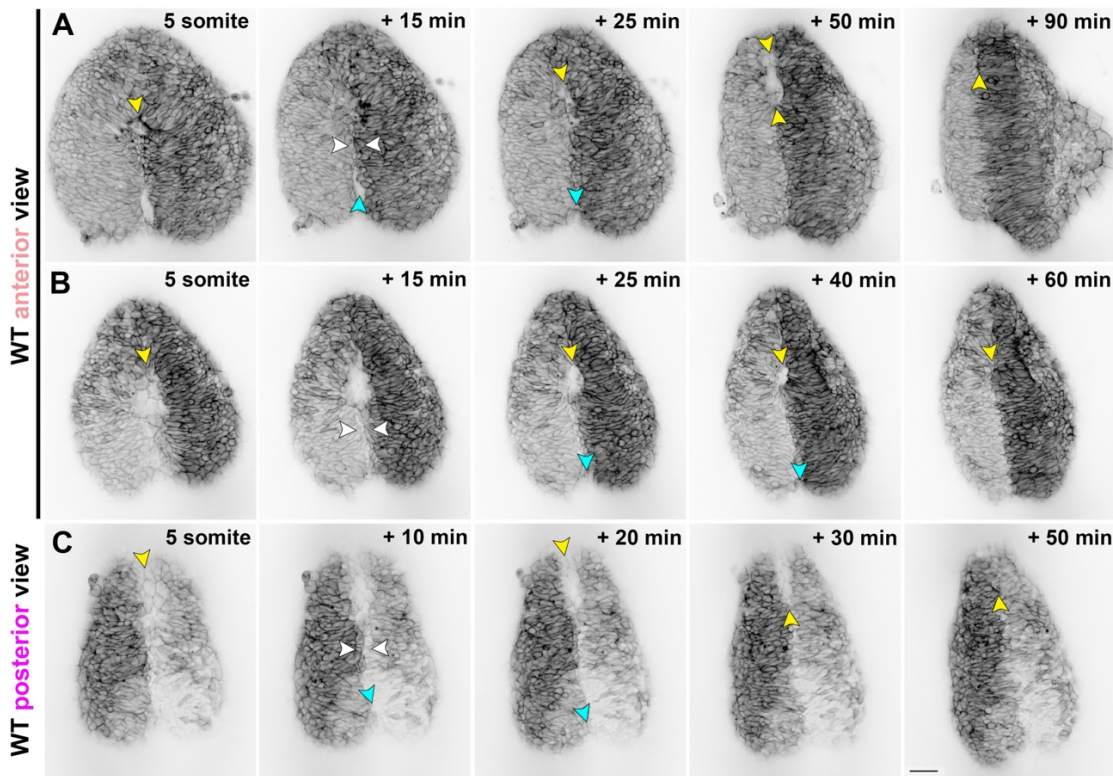


Figure 4. Neural fold fusion proceeds bidirectionally from a central “pinch point”.

A-B’) Still frames from time-lapse series of anterior neural tube development in WT or *tri* sibling embryos expressing membrane GFP or mCherry beginning at the 5-somite stage, viewed dorsally from more anterior (A-A’) or posterior (B-B’) positions. **A-B)** Yellow arrowheads indicate the anterior edge of the neural groove and eventually the eye-shaped opening. White arrowheads indicate the pinch-point at which the bilateral neural folds make contact. Cyan arrowheads indicate the posterior opening that zippers closed in the posterior direction from the pinch-point. **A’-B’)** Pseudo-colored versions of the images shown in (A-B). Green indicates the early neural groove before formation of the pinch-point. Thereafter, yellow and blue indicate the anterior and posterior openings, respectively. Each image series is a single Z plane from a confocal stack and is representative of 23 individual WT and sibling embryos imaged in 6 independent trials. Additional examples are shown in Supp. Fig. 3 and Supp. videos 1-5. Anterior is up in all images, scale bar = 50 μ m.



Supplemental Figure 3. Live imaging reveals neural fold fusion dynamics in live WT embryos.

A-C) Still frames from time-lapse series of anterior neural tube development in WT or *tri* sibling embryos expressing membrane GFP or mCherry beginning at the 5-somite stage, viewed dorsally from more anterior (A-B) or posterior (C) positions. Yellow arrowheads indicate the anterior edge of the neural groove and eventually the eye-shaped opening. White arrowheads indicate the pinch-point at which the bilateral neural folds make contact. Cyan arrowheads indicate the posterior opening that zippers closed in the posterior direction from the pinch-point. Anterior is up in all images, scale bar = 50 μ m.

255
256 **Neural fold fusion is delayed in *Vangl2* deficient embryos.**
257

258 To determine if the DONuT is a consequence of delayed, abnormal, or failed neural fold zippering, we
259 performed confocal time-lapse imaging of the anterior neural plate in *vangl2* deficient embryos beginning at the
260 4-somite stage (**Fig. 5, Supp. video 7**). We observed that the bilateral neural folds of *vangl2* morphant and
261 *vangl2/tri/-* embryos began much farther apart than control siblings, which led to a delay in formation of the
262 anterior eye-shaped opening. Indeed, while control embryos had formed the eye-shaped opening by 6-7
263 somite stage (**Fig. 5A**), the neural folds of stage-matched *vangl2* mutants and morphants had not yet made
264 contact, leaving wide gaps between them that were open to the posterior (**Fig. 5B-D**). This is reflected in
265 quantitative measurements of the distance between the neural folds over time, beginning at 6-somite stage
266 when the eye-shaped opening had formed in control embryos. A simple linear regression revealed that the
267 distance between the neural folds of both *vangl2* morphants and mutants started nearly three times larger (Y
268 intercepts of 167.6 and 132 μm , respectively) than sibling control embryos (Y intercepts of 57.8 and 48.2) (**Fig.**
269 **5E**). Interestingly, the rate of neural fold convergence was significantly higher in *vangl2* morphants and mutants
270 (with slopes of -0.76 and -0.59, respectively) compared with their sibling controls (slopes of -0.31 and -0.25)
271 (**Fig. 5E**). This accelerated closure could not fully compensate for the increased width of their neural folds,
272 however, and closure of the anterior opening was significantly delayed in *vangl2* morphants and mutants (with
273 X intercepts at 220.7 and 224.9 minutes, respectively) with respect to sibling controls (X intercepts of 188.2
274 and 192.6 minutes) (**Fig. 5E**).

275 Additional differences in neural fold fusion were apparent from these time-lapse series. First, the
276 anterior eye-shaped opening of control embryos closed predominantly from anterior to posterior (**Supp. videos**
277 **4, 6**), whereas *vangl2* morphant and mutant neural folds zippered closed from posterior to anterior (**Supp.**
278 **video 7**). The continuous nature of the anterior and posterior openings in the neural plate was also more
279 apparent in *vangl2* deficient embryos, where “pinching” at the center of the keyhole-shaped groove was more
280 dramatic (**Fig. 5B**, white arrows). Closure of the posterior opening was also substantially delayed and
281 sometimes blocked in *vangl2* mutants and morphants. While the posterior opening was only briefly visible in
282 control embryos after 6-somite stage and zippered closed rapidly, a large and persistent opening could be
283 seen in the posterior region of essentially all *vangl2* morphants and mutants examined and often had not
284 closed by the end of the imaging period at 10-somite stage (**Fig. 5B-D**, blue arrows). Finally, rounded cells
285 were seen protruding from the neural groove during closure (**Fig. 5B-D**, orange arrows), as observed in 3D
286 reconstructions of fixed *vangl2* morphants (**Fig. 2G**). These results highlight severe and regionally distinct
287 defects in neural fold fusion in the absence of *Vangl2*. Because the zippering process itself was not disrupted
288 in morphant and mutant embryos, we suspect that delayed neural fold fusion is largely the consequence of
289 increased width of the neural plate that ultimately results from reduced CE (**Fig. 3**).

290
291

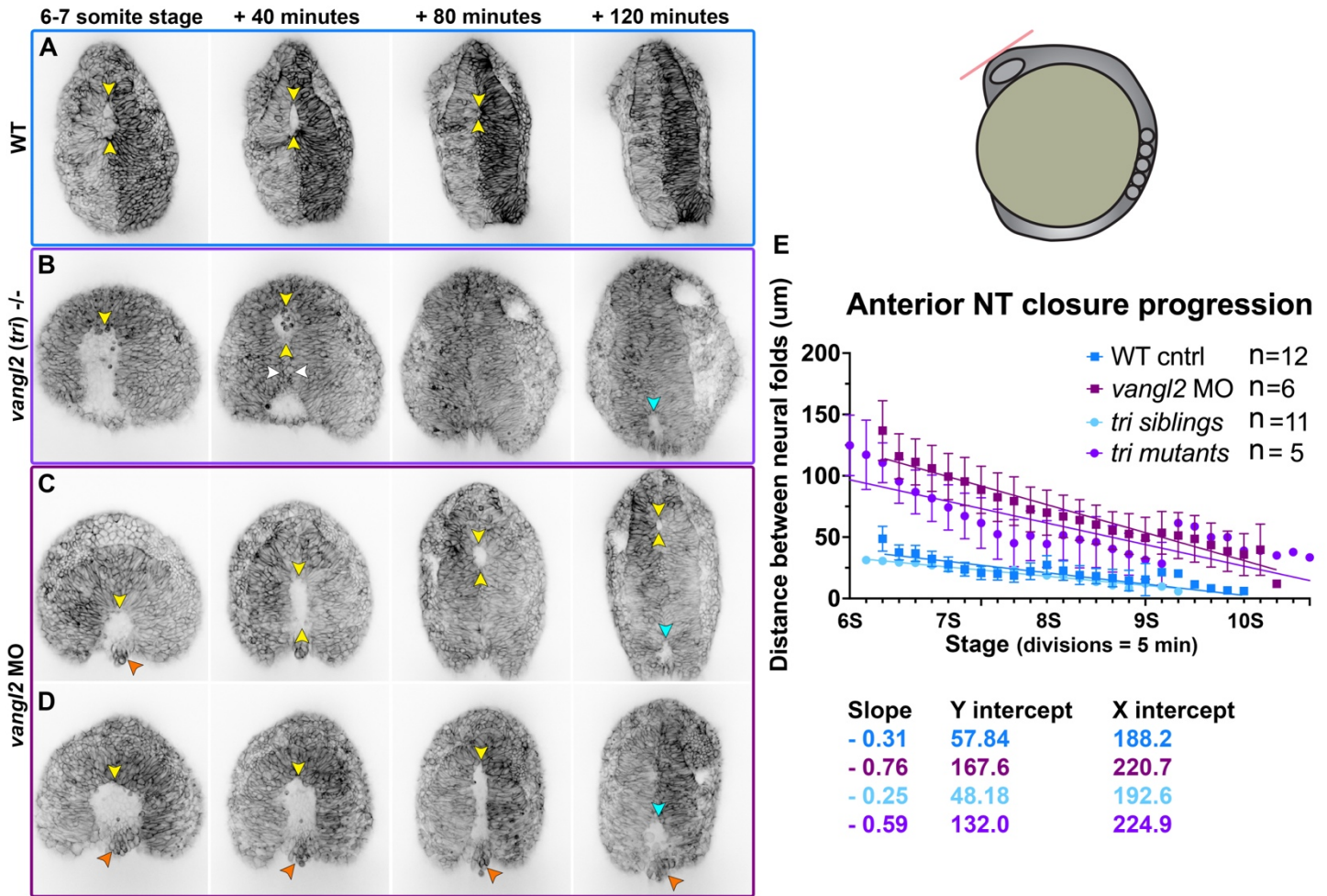


Figure 5. Neural fold fusion is delayed in *vangl2* deficient embryos.

A-D) Still frames from time-lapse series of anterior neural tube development in WT (A), *tri*^{-/-} mutant (B), and *vangl2* morphant (C) embryos expressing membrane GFP or mCherry beginning at 6-7 somite stage, viewed dorsally. Yellow arrowheads indicate the anterior edge of the eye-shaped opening, white arrowheads indicate the pinch-point, cyan arrowheads indicate the posterior opening, and orange arrowheads indicate rounded cells protruding from the neural groove of *vangl2* deficient embryos. Each image series is a single Z plane from a confocal stack and is representative of multiple embryos of that condition (see n values for each condition in E). **E)** Distance between the bilateral neural folds over time in embryos of the conditions indicated, beginning when the eye-shaped opening forms around the 6-somite stage. Symbols are mean + SEM, lines are simple linear regressions, for which slopes and intercepts are provided below. n values indicate the number of embryos measured of each condition from 4 independent *vangl2* MO and 2 independent *tri* mutant trials. Anterior is up in all images, scale bar = 50 μm . See also Supp. videos 6-7.

292
293 **The Forebrain neural folds fuse to enclose a lumen.**
294

295 Neural tube closure in zebrafish and amniote embryos involves not only CE and zippering, but also formation
296 of medial and dorsolateral hinge points within the neural plate (25, 26, 29, 44, 86). Using time-lapse confocal
297 microscopy to collect optical transverse sections through the developing forebrain region, we observed hinge
298 point formation and neural fold elevation in WT embryos beginning at the 3-4 somite stage. The neural plate
299 began largely flat across the apical surface but developed a prominent medial hinge point by the 5-somite
300 stage (**Fig. 6A-A'**)(as described in (44)). In the anterior region of the forebrain, cells lining the V-shaped neural
301 groove sealed up progressively from ventral to dorsal until the neural tube was closed and smooth across its
302 outer surface (**Fig. 6A**). This is apparent from measurements of medial hinge point angle, which became more
303 acute as the neural folds elevated and then widened again as the folds sealed up (**Fig. 6E**). Optical sections
304 through a more posterior region of the forebrain, however, showed the bilateral neural folds elevating around a
305 larger U-shaped groove and then fused at the dorsal side to enclose a lumen (**Fig. 6A', Supp. video 8**). This is
306 strikingly similar to the mechanisms of primary neurulation in amniote embryos and distinct from those of spinal
307 cord development in zebrafish, in which the neural tube lumen is formed through cavitation of the solid neural
308 rod (33, 40). We also observed that at this more posterior position, the periderm separated slightly from the
309 underlying ectoderm and bridged the gap between the bilateral neural folds until they fused dorsally (**Fig. 6A'**,
310 orange arrow), which can also be observed in time-lapse series from a previous study (44). These data directly
311 demonstrate that neural folds within the forebrain region of zebrafish embryos elevate and fuse to enclose a
312 lumen, as in many other vertebrate species.

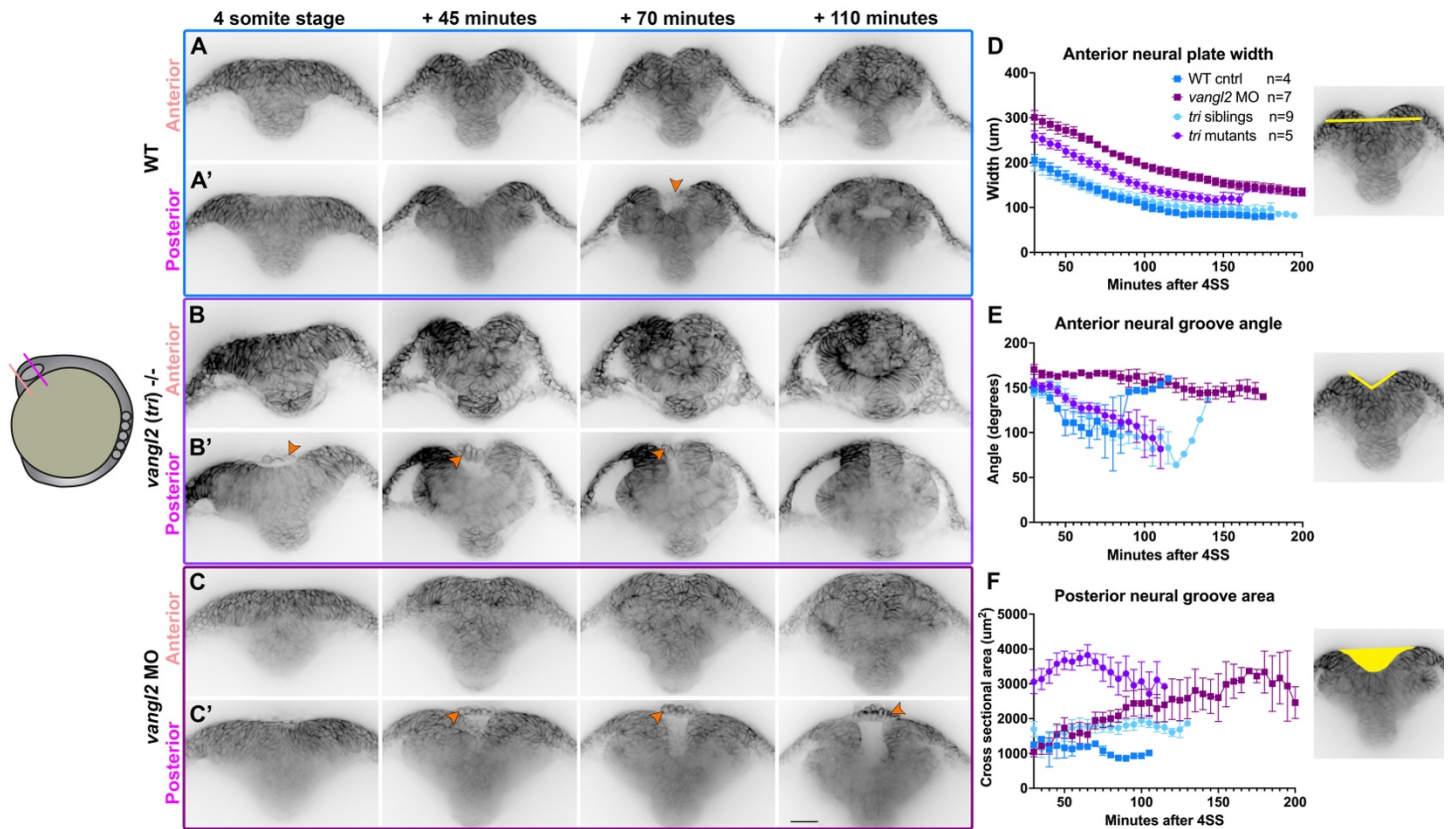
313
314 **Neural groove formation is abnormal in *vangl2* deficient embryos.**
315

316 Our live confocal imaging revealed significant delays in neural fold fusion in *vangl2* deficient embryos, but it
317 was unclear whether this delay alone underlies DONuT formation. First, control embryos almost never
318 exhibited a DONuT even prior to fusion of the pineal precursors and neural folds. Second, some
319 developmentally advanced (8-somite stage) *vangl2* deficient embryos exhibited bifurcated pineal precursors in
320 the absence of a DONuT (**Fig. 2**). Together, this implies that a DONuT is not simply the consequence of un-
321 fused pineal domains but likely reflects additional developmental abnormalities. We therefore collected
322 transverse optical sections through the developing brain of *vangl2* mutant and morphant embryos.

323 The anterior forebrain regions of *vangl2/ tri-/-* embryos (**Fig. 6B**) were wider than their siblings
324 throughout neural tube development (**Fig. 6D**) but exhibited formation of a V-shaped groove that sealed from
325 ventral to dorsal, similar to sibling controls (**Fig. 6E**). The posterior forebrain also exhibited a U-shaped groove
326 with bilateral neural folds that fused dorsally, although no open lumen was apparent upon fusion (**Fig. 6B'**).
327 This groove was substantially larger by cross-sectional area than sibling controls (**Fig. 6F**), likely due to
328 increased width of the neural plate. Consistent with all other data in this study, *vangl2* morphants presented
329 with a more severe phenotype than mutants. The anterior forebrain regions of morphants were even wider than
330 mutants (**Fig. 6D**) and exhibited neither hinge points nor V-shaped grooves, instead resembling a solid mass of
331 cells at this level (**Fig. 6C, E**). A large U-shaped groove was apparent in a more posterior region, but fusion of

332 these folds was significantly delayed and sometimes blocked (**Fig. 6C'**), as evidenced by the enlarged cross-
333 sectional area of the neural groove over time (**Fig. 6F**). Notably, cross-sectional area of the neural groove was
334 larger in *vangl2* mutants than morphants at early stages (**Fig. 6F**), which likely reflects the combination of
335 widened neural plates and robust hinge point formation in mutants. In both *vangl2* mutants and morphants, the
336 periderm spanned the gap between neural folds in the posterior region as in control embryos, although this cell
337 layer separated from the underlying neural plate earlier and by a larger distance than in controls. These cells
338 were also highly rounded and protruded outward from the neural groove (**Fig. 6B'-C'**, orange arrows),
339 indicating that cells observed protruding from the neural tube of fixed and live *vangl2* deficient embryos (**Figs.**
340 **2 and 5**) were almost certainly periderm. These results reveal that a combination of increased neural plate
341 width and decreased bending at hinge points produce larger neural grooves in the forebrain region of *vangl2*
342 morphant embryos, manifesting as a DONuT.

343
344
345



Discussion

Closure of the neural tube is essential for proper development of the central nervous system, and its failure leads to deadly and debilitating congenital anomalies. Primary neurulation is well described in vertebrate models including mouse, chick, and *Xenopus*, which share a core set of cellular behaviors including convergent extension of the neural plate, apical constriction at hinge points, and dorsal fusion of the bilateral neural folds. Although neurulation in zebrafish embryos differs outwardly from these other species, it is increasingly clear that many aspects of primary neurulation are conserved, including apical constriction of neural midline cells and zippering of the neural folds (40, 43, 44). In this study, we have further characterized cell and tissue behaviors driving neural tube closure in the brain region of zebrafish embryos and how these behaviors are affected by loss of the NTD risk gene *vangl2*.

Conservation of primary neurulation

It has long been appreciated that the zebrafish trunk neural tube forms through in-folding, by which the lateral edges of the neural plate come together at the dorsal surface (34, 87). This is facilitated by an enrichment of myosin contractility and subsequent apical constriction of midline cells, which drives their internalization (43). Although these features are common to other vertebrate embryos, they differ in that the neural tube lumen forms in mice and chick when the bilateral neural fold enclose an empty space upon dorsal fusion, whereas the zebrafish lumen (at the level of the trunk) forms later by cavitation of a solid rod (33). Hypotheses for evolutionary drivers of this unique method of neurulation include reducing exposure of the neural tube lumen to the outside environment (88) and overcoming the high mechanical stress imposed by axial curvature of the embryo that could otherwise prevent elevation of the neural folds (89). However, our findings provide direct evidence for neural fold elevation and enclosure of a lumen in zebrafish. Our time-lapse imaging directly demonstrates that, within the future forebrain, the bilateral neural folds elevate around a midline groove then fuse at the dorsal surface, leaving a hollow lumen inside (**Fig. 6, Fig. 7C**). This mechanism is apparently unique to a portion of the forebrain region, as it was not observed in transverse images through more anterior (**Fig. 6, Fig. 7B**) or posterior regions (33, 43, 87, 90) of the neural keel, which is likely why it was not described previously. An elegant live imaging study did capture formation of hinge points and elevation of neural folds in the forebrain region (44), but did not describe lumen enclosure.

Our findings also expand our understanding of neural fold fusion within zebrafish. The aforementioned live imaging study of zebrafish forebrain (44) directly demonstrated neural fold fusion by bidirectional “zippering” of an eye-shaped opening. By imaging an earlier stage of neural development, the current study captures the events preceding formation of this closure point (**Fig. 7**). We first observe elevation of bilateral neural folds to create a keyhole-shaped neural groove, which then pinches together in the center to create anterior and posterior opening that zipper closed away from the pinch-point (**Fig. 4**). The anterior portion of the groove goes on to form the previously described eye-shaped opening (44). The posterior opening has not (to our knowledge) been described before, but a previous time-lapse imaging study of midbrain-hindbrain boundary formation captured zippering of an opening in the hindbrain (91) that we speculate is the same

384 posterior closure point. We observed that closure at each point occurs in a reproducible order - first the central
385 pinch-point, then the anterior followed by posterior ends of the eye-shaped opening (**Fig. 7**) - raising the
386 possibility that they are analogous to the multiple discreet closure points where neural fold zippering initiates in
387 the mouse (30, 31). It was further shown in mice that this closure is facilitated by contact between the non-
388 neural ectoderm (NNE) (31, 92), which extends protrusions that meet across the neural groove to “button up”
389 the neural folds (93). Our study did not directly address the behavior of NNE and provides no evidence for
390 such protrusions, but neuroectoderm cells were previously shown to extend filopodia and make contact with
391 cells on the contralateral side (44). We did observe, however, that the periderm overlying the developing neural
392 tube spanned the neural groove as the neural folds elevated and fused (**Fig. 6**). Whether this thin epithelial
393 sheet contributes to neural tube closure, similarly to the NNE of mouse embryos, will require additional
394 investigation.

395 396 *Effect of *vangl2* deficiency on neural development*

397 Loss of the planar cell polarity protein and NTD risk gene *vangl2* has dramatic effects on vertebrate
398 neural tube development. While disruption of this gene prevents neural tube closure in mice and frogs (20, 21,
399 56, 94), in zebrafish it produces double neural lumens divided by a mass of neuroectoderm cells that result
400 from abnormal midline C-divisions (38, 72). By examining a more anterior region of the developing neural tube
401 in *vangl2* deficient zebrafish embryos, we have identified additional phenotypes that more closely resemble
402 those of other vertebrate species. During early neurulation, we observe pit-shaped openings in the future
403 forebrain of morphant embryos (**Fig. 2**) that likely reflect the combination of delayed neural fold fusion and
404 abnormal neural groove formation observed during live imaging (**Figs. 5-6**). We note that neural fold fusion
405 itself is not disrupted by loss of *vangl2* (unlike mice (95)), and that zippering is actually accelerated in these
406 embryos (**Fig. 5**). Instead, we find that this delay is due to increased width of the neural plate at the time of
407 fusion and therefore, is likely a consequence of reduced CE of neuroectoderm (38, 42) (**Fig. 3**). Because
408 anterior neural fold fusion is complete (even in most *vangl2* deficient embryos) by the onset of C-divisions (34,
409 35, 41), it is unlikely that abnormal C-divisions contribute to defects in forebrain closure. Live imaging also
410 revealed abnormal morphology of the periderm overlying the neural plate in *vangl2* deficient embryos. Although
411 the periderm was also seen spanning the neural folds in WT embryos (**Fig. 6**), it remained relatively close to
412 the neural plate surface and its constituent cells were flat. By contrast, *vangl2* deficient periderm cells were
413 rounded and protruded dramatically from the neural groove (**Figs. 5, 6**). Whether abnormal periderm cells are
414 contributors to, a consequence of, or unrelated to delayed neural fold fusion in these embryos is unknown.

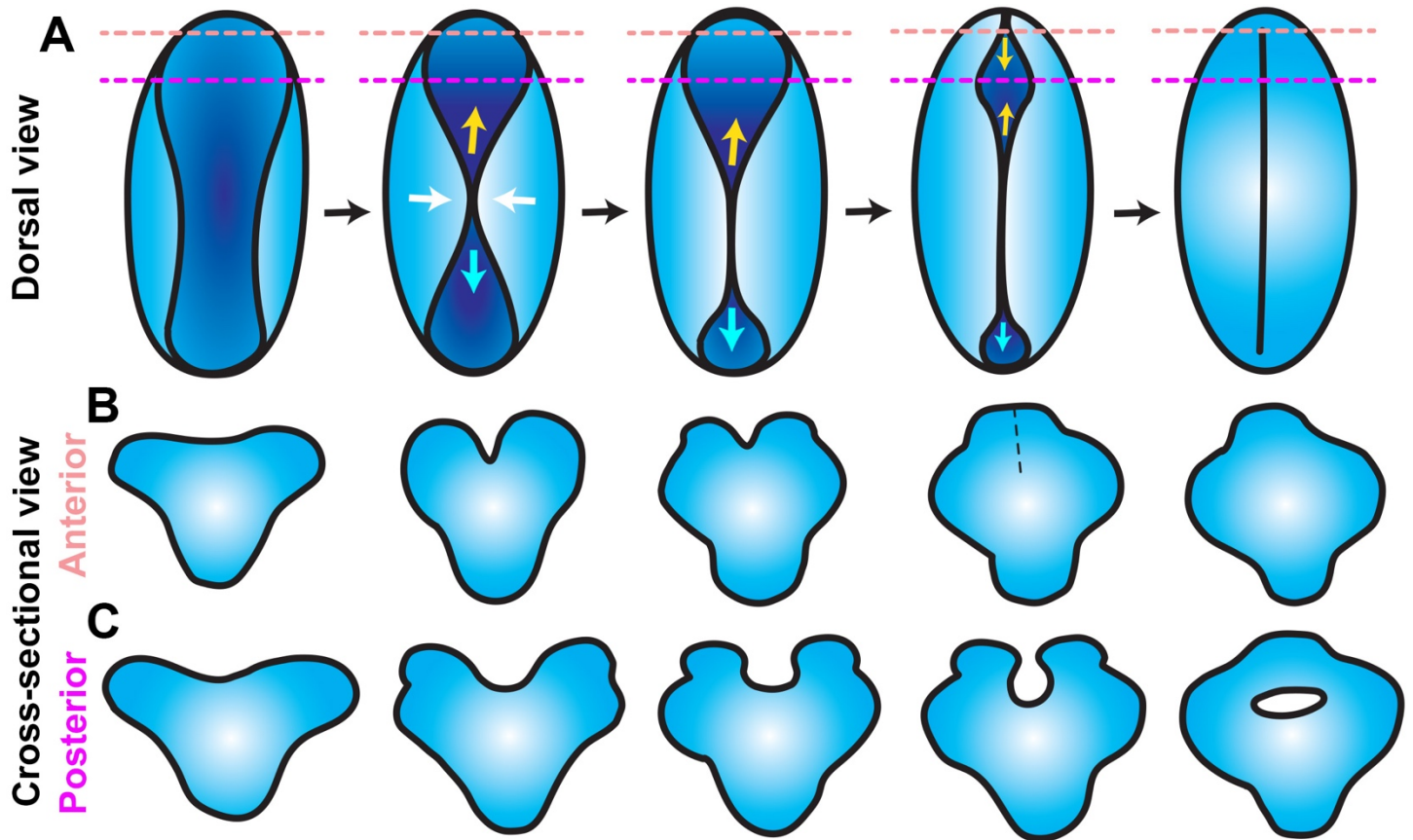


Figure 7. Model for anterior neural tube closure in zebrafish embryos.

A) Diagram of the anterior (brain region) neural plate in WT zebrafish embryos from approximately 4-10 somite stage, viewed from the dorsal surface with anterior to the top. A shallow neural groove (dark blue) forms at the dorsal midline between the bilateral neural folds (light blue). The neural folds come together at a central “pinch point” (white arrows), creating anterior and posterior openings. The posterior opening zippers closed caudally from the pinch point (cyan arrows) and the anterior opening goes on to form an eye-shaped opening in the forebrain region. The anterior edge of the eye-shaped opening zippers toward the posterior while its posterior edge zippers anteriorly, closing the eye-shaped opening from both sides. The posterior opening continues to zipper toward the hindbrain until the neural folds in the entire brain region have fused. Dashed lines represent the positions of the cross-sectional views shown in (B-C). **B-C)** Cross-sectional views of anterior (B) and posterior (C) forebrain regions of the neural plate at the positions of the dashed lines in (A), dorsal is up. The anterior forebrain (B) forms a V-shaped neural groove that seals up from ventral to dorsal as the neural folds fuse. The posterior forebrain (C) forms a U-shaped neural groove between the bilateral neural folds, which approach the midline and then fuse dorsally to enclose a hollow lumen.

419 *Implications for NTD modeling in zebrafish*

420 Zebrafish embryos are highly amenable to genetic and chemical screening techniques (96-98) that
421 could enable identification of causative genetic variants and gene-environmental interactions, but their utility in
422 NTD modeling has been limited by their apparent poor resemblance to mammalian neurulation. Researchers
423 have suggested bifurcated pineal precursors as a proxy for NTDs in zebrafish embryos and have even
424 identified gene-environment interactions that exacerbate pineal defects (45, 47). However, it was not clear to
425 what extent these phenotypes resemble NTDs because A) they were not examined histologically and B) the
426 mutations that induce them (in genes encoding Nodal signaling components and N-cadherin) are not
427 associated with human NTDs. Here, we show that loss of an NTD risk gene does indeed cause widened and
428 sometimes split pineal domains in the forebrain (**Fig. 1**). However, we find that this external phenotype can
429 manifest with a variety of internal phenotypes, some of which show little resemblance to amniote NTDs (**Supp.**
430 **Fig. 1**). By instead examining neural development at the time of neural tube closure, we avoid the confounding
431 effects of ectopic lumen formation seen at later stages upon loss of *vangl2* or Nodal signaling (**Supp. Fig. 1**).
432 Indeed, the delay in neural fold fusion in *vangl2* morphants is readily observed as a DONuT within fixed
433 embryos at peri-closure stages, providing an easily screen-able phenotype. Whether the DONuT occurs in
434 upon loss of other NTD risk genes, and/or whether it is common to other planar cell polarity mutants, remains
435 to be tested. Given that open neural tubes are only apparent in the brain region of zebrafish embryos, it is also
436 not clear whether this is a fitting model for only anterior NTDs (like anencephaly and craniorachischisis) or
437 whether mutations causing posterior NTDs like spina bifida would yield similar phenotypes. Taken together, this
438 study provides direct evidence for conservation of fold-and-fuse neural tube closure within zebrafish,
439 highlighting their potential for NTD modeling.

440 **Materials and Methods**

441 *Zebrafish*

442 Adult zebrafish were maintained through established protocols (99) in compliance with the Baylor College of
443 Medicine Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. Embryos were obtained through natural mating and
444 staging was based on established morphology (100). Studies were conducted using AB WT,
445 *tdgf1/oeptz257* (101), *vangl2/ trilobite^{vu67}* (102), and TgBAC[*flh:flh-kaede*] (82) embryos. Fish were crossed from
446 their home tank at random and embryos were chosen for injection and inclusion in experiments at random.

447 *Microinjection of synthetic mRNA and morpholino oligonucleotides*

448 Single-celled embryos were placed in agarose molds (Adaptive Science tools I-34) and injected with 0.5-2 nL
449 volumes using pulled glass needles (Fisher Sci #50-821-984). mRNAs were transcribed using the SP6
450 mMessage mMachine kit (Fisher Sci #AM1340) and purified using Biorad Microbiospin columns (Biorad
451 #7326250). Each embryo was injected with 100 pg memGFP or 200 pg mCherry mRNA, and/or 2 ng *vangl2*
452 MO-4 ((83) sequence: 5' - AGTTCCACCTTACTCCTGAGAGAAT - 3').

458 *Whole mount in situ hybridization*

459 Antisense riboprobes were transcribed using NEB T7 or T3 RNA polymerase (NEB #M0251s and Fisher
460 #501047499) and labeled with digoxigenin (DIG) NTPs (Sigma/Millipore #11277073910). Whole mount in situ
461 hybridization (WISH) was performed according to (103) with minor modifications. Embryos were fixed as
462 described above, washed in PBS + 0.1% Tween-20 (PBT), gradually dehydrated, and stored in methanol at -
463 20C. Immediately prior to staining, embryos were rehydrated into PBT and hybridized overnight with antisense
464 probes within the wells of a 24-well plate. Embryos were gradually washed into SSC buffer and then into PBT
465 before overnight incubation with an anti-DIG primary antibody at 1:5000 (Roche #11093274910). Embryos
466 were washed in PBT and then staining buffer before developing in BM Purple staining solution (Roche
467 #11442074001). Embryos were washed and stored in stop buffer (10 mM EDTA in PBT) until imaging.

469 *Histology*

470 After whole mount in situ hybridization, the head regions of 28 hpf embryos were isolated, mounted in Tissue
471 Tek O.C.T. medium (VWR #25608-930) within plastic base molds, and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen. 14 μ m
472 serial sections were cut and collected by the Baylor College of Medicine RNA In Situ Hybridization Core.
473 Sections were mounted under coverslips and imaged using a Nikon Fi3 color camera on the Nikon ECLIPSE
474 Ti2 microscope described below.

476 *Inhibitor treatments*

477 Nodal inhibitor SB505124 (VWR #103540-834) was stored as a 10 mM stock in DMSO at 4 C. Embryos were
478 dechorionated prior to treatment with 50 μ M SB505124 in 0.3x Danieau's solution at the stages indicated.
479 Embryos were incubated at 28.5 C within the agarose-coated wells of a 6-well plate until 28 hpf, at which time
480 they were fixed as described above and processed for WISH.

482 *Phalloidin staining*

483 Embryos were fixed as described above, rinsed in PBT, and either stained directly or dehydrated and stored at
484 -20 C in ethanol for later use. Embryos were rehydrated in PBS + 0.1% Triton-X (PBTr) immediately before
485 staining and incubated with Alexa Fluor 546 Phalloidin (ThermoFisher A22283) in PBTr for several hours.
486 Embryos were rinsed in PBTr and mounted for confocal imaging as described below.

488 *Microscopy*

489 Fixed phalloidin stained embryos were mounted in 3% methylcellulose, and live embryos were mounted in
490 0.35% low-melt agarose (ThermoFisher #16520100) in glass bottomed 35 mm petri dishes (Fisher Sci
491 #FB0875711YZ) prior to imaging. Confocal Z-stacks were collected using a Nikon ECLIPSE Ti2 confocal
492 microscope equipped with a Yokogawa W1 spinning disk unit, PFS4 camera, and 405/488/561nm lasers
493 (emission filters: 455/50, 525/36, 605/52). Confocal Z-stacks were obtained with a 1 μ m (fixed embryos) or 2
494 μ m (live embryos) step size using a Plan Apo Lambda 20X lens. For time-lapse series, embryos were
495 maintained at 28.5 C in a Tokai Hit STX stage top incubator and Z-stacks were collected at 5-minute intervals.

496 Images of WISH-stained embryos were taken with a Nikon Fi3 color camera on a Nikon SMZ745T
497 stereoscope.

498 *Image analysis*

500 ImageJ/FIJI was used to visualize and measure all microscopy data sets. Researchers were blinded to the
501 conditions of all image data using the *blind_renamer* Perl script prior to analysis. Measurements of embryonic
502 structures from fixed embryos, including pineal precursors and somites, were made by drawing a line from one
503 side of the structure to the other at its widest point. Distance between neural folds, neural plate width, and
504 neural groove angle and cross-sectional area were measured similarly from images of live embryos. 3D
505 projections of confocal z-stacks were made using the '3D project' plugin.

506 *Statistical Analysis*

507 Graphpad Prism 10 software was used to perform statistical analyses and to generate graphs for the data
508 collected during image analysis. Datasets were tested for normality prior to analysis and statistical tests were
509 chosen accordingly. The statistical tests used for each data set are noted in figure legends.

510 **Acknowledgements**

511 We thank Dr. Patrick Blader for generously sharing the Tg[*flh:kaede*] fish line and Dr. Lila Solnica-Krezel for
512 sharing additional fish lines and plasmids. Histology services were provided by Dr. Cecilia Ljungberg and Rong
513 Jyh Kao of the BCM RNA In Situ Hybridization Core and animal care was provided by the BCM Center for
514 Comparative Medicine. We thank Drs. Rachel Brewster, Dan Gorelick, and Ryan Gray for helpful discussions
515 and comments on the manuscript. Thanks to Williams lab members for technical assistance, support, and
516 feedback on this project.

517 **Competing Interests**

518 The authors declare no competing interests.

519 **Funding**

520 This work was supported by National Institutes of Health R00HD091386 and R01HD104784 to MLKW, and a
521 P30ES030285 (PI: Dr. Cheryl Walker) pilot grant to MLKW. The project was supported in part by the RNA In
522 Situ Hybridization Core facility at Baylor College of Medicine, which is supported by a shared Instrumentation
523 grant from the National Institutes of Health (1S10OD016167).

Supplemental video descriptions

Supp. video 1: Anterior view of neural fold fusion in the forebrain region of a wild-type zebrafish embryo labeled with membrane-GFP. Movie begins at the 4-5 somite stage and each frame = 5 minutes. Video shows a single Z plane of a 3D confocal time series.

Supp. video 2: Posterior view of neural fold fusion in the forebrain region of a wild-type zebrafish embryo labeled with membrane-GFP. Movie begins at the 4-5 somite stage and each frame = 5 minutes. Video shows a single Z plane of a 3D confocal time series.

Supp. video 3: Anterior view of neural fold fusion in the forebrain region of a wild-type zebrafish embryo labeled with membrane-GFP. Movie begins at the 4-5 somite stage and each frame = 5 minutes. Video shows a single Z plane of a 3D confocal time series.

Supp. video 4: Anterior view of neural fold fusion in the forebrain region of a wild-type zebrafish embryo labeled with membrane-GFP. Movie begins at the 4-5 somite stage and each frame = 5 minutes. Video shows a single Z plane of a 3D confocal time series.

Supp. video 5: Posterior view of neural fold fusion in the forebrain region of a wild-type zebrafish embryo labeled with membrane-GFP. Movie begins at the 4-5 somite stage and each frame = 5 minutes. Video shows a single Z plane of a 3D confocal time series.

Supp. video 6: Neural fold fusion in the forebrain region of a wild-type zebrafish embryo labeled with membrane-GFP. Movie begins at the 6-7 somite stage and each frame = 5 minutes. Video shows a single Z plane of a 3D confocal time series.

Supp. video 7: Neural fold fusion in the forebrain region of a *vangl2* morphant zebrafish embryo labeled with membrane-GFP. Movie begins at the 6-7 somite stage and each frame = 5 minutes. Video shows a single Z plane of a 3D confocal time series.

Supp. video 8: Optical transverse section through the posterior forebrain region of a wild-type zebrafish embryo labeled with membrane-GFP. Movie begins at the 4-somite stage and each frame = 5 minutes. Video shows a single Z plane of a 3D confocal time series.

Supp. video 9: Optical transverse section through the posterior forebrain region of a *vangl2* morphant zebrafish embryo labeled with membrane-GFP. Movie begins at the 4-somite stage and each frame = 5 minutes. Video shows a single Z plane of a 3D confocal time series.

References

1. S. E. Parker *et al.*, Updated National Birth Prevalence estimates for selected birth defects in the United States, 2004-2006. *Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol* **88**, 1008-1016 (2010).
2. I. Zaganjor *et al.*, Describing the Prevalence of Neural Tube Defects Worldwide: A Systematic Literature Review. *PLoS One* **11**, e0151586 (2016).
3. J. Williams *et al.*, Updated estimates of neural tube defects prevented by mandatory folic Acid fortification - United States, 1995-2011. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep* **64**, 1-5 (2015).
4. M. E. Ross, C. E. Mason, R. H. Finnell, Genomic approaches to the assessment of human spina bifida risk. *Birth Defects Res* **109**, 120-128 (2017).
5. J. G. Joó *et al.*, Neural tube defects in the sample of genetic counselling. *Prenat Diagn* **27**, 912-921 (2007).
6. K. L. Deak *et al.*, Further evidence for a maternal genetic effect and a sex-influenced effect contributing to risk for human neural tube defects. *Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol* **82**, 662-669 (2008).
7. L. Wang *et al.*, Digenic variants of planar cell polarity genes in human neural tube defect patients. *Mol Genet Metab* **124**, 94-100 (2018).

- 591 8. I. Matok *et al.*, Exposure to folic acid antagonists during the first trimester of pregnancy and the risk of
592 major malformations. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* **68**, 956-962 (2009).
- 593 9. M. Artama, A. Auvinen, T. Raudaskoski, I. Isojärvi, J. Isojärvi, Antiepileptic drug use of women with
594 epilepsy and congenital malformations in offspring. *Neurology* **64**, 1874-1878 (2005).
- 595 10. J. Gelineau-van Waes *et al.*, Maternal fumonisin exposure and risk for neural tube defects:
596 mechanisms in an in vivo mouse model. *Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol* **73**, 487-497 (2005).
- 597 11. E. Gamero-Estevez, A. I. Baumholtz, A. K. Ryan, Developing a link between toxicants, claudins and
598 neural tube defects. *Reprod Toxicol* **81**, 155-167 (2018).
- 599 12. R. P. Rull, B. Ritz, G. M. Shaw, Neural tube defects and maternal residential proximity to agricultural
600 pesticide applications. *Am J Epidemiol* **163**, 743-753 (2006).
- 601 13. Ş. Özel *et al.*, Maternal second trimester blood levels of selected heavy metals in pregnancies
602 complicated with neural tube defects. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* **32**, 2547-2553 (2019).
- 603 14. N. Demir *et al.*, The relationship between mother and infant plasma trace element and heavy metal
604 levels and the risk of neural tube defect in infants. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med* **32**, 1433-1440 (2019).
- 605 15. S. Kalra *et al.*, Organochlorine pesticide exposure in mothers and neural tube defects in offsprings.
606 *Reprod Toxicol* **66**, 56-60 (2016).
- 607 16. C. Kalliora *et al.*, Association of pesticide exposure with human congenital abnormalities. *Toxicol Appl*
608 *Pharmacol* **346**, 58-75 (2018).
- 609 17. M. J. Harris, D. M. Juriloff, Mouse mutants with neural tube closure defects and their role in
610 understanding human neural tube defects. *Birth Defects Res A Clin Mol Teratol* **79**, 187-210 (2007).
- 611 18. I. E. Zohn, A. A. Sarkar, Modeling neural tube defects in the mouse. *Curr Top Dev Biol* **84**, 1-35 (2008).
- 612 19. I. E. Zohn, Mouse as a model for multifactorial inheritance of neural tube defects. *Birth Defects Res C*
613 *Embryo Today* **96**, 193-205 (2012).
- 614 20. M. Williams, W. Yen, X. Lu, A. Sutherland, Distinct apical and basolateral mechanisms drive planar cell
615 polarity-dependent convergent extension of the mouse neural plate. *Dev Cell* **29**, 34-46 (2014).
- 616 21. P. Ybot-Gonzalez *et al.*, Convergent extension, planar-cell-polarity signalling and initiation of mouse
617 neural tube closure. *Development* **134**, 789-799 (2007).
- 618 22. R. Massarwa, H. J. Ray, L. Niswander, Morphogenetic movements in the neural plate and neural tube:
619 mouse. *Wiley Interdiscip Rev Dev Biol* **3**, 59-68 (2014).
- 620 23. I. E. Zohn, C. R. Chesnutt, L. Niswander, Cell polarity pathways converge and extend to regulate neural
621 tube closure. *Trends Cell Biol* **13**, 451-454 (2003).
- 622 24. G. C. Schoenwolf, Cell movements driving neurulation in avian embryos. *Development Suppl* **2**, 157-
623 168 (1991).
- 624 25. A. S. Shum, A. J. Copp, Regional differences in morphogenesis of the neuroepithelium suggest multiple
625 mechanisms of spinal neurulation in the mouse. *Anat Embryol (Berl)* **194**, 65-73 (1996).
- 626 26. J. L. Smith, G. C. Schoenwolf, J. Quan, Quantitative analyses of neuroepithelial cell shapes during
627 bending of the mouse neural plate. *J Comp Neurol* **342**, 144-151 (1994).
- 628 27. L. A. Davidson, R. E. Keller, Neural tube closure in *Xenopus laevis* involves medial migration, directed
629 protrusive activity, cell intercalation and convergent extension. *Development* **126**, 4547-4556 (1999).
- 630 28. S. L. Haigo, J. D. Hildebrand, R. M. Harland, J. B. Wallingford, Shroom induces apical constriction and
631 is required for hinge point formation during neural tube closure. *Curr Biol* **13**, 2125-2137 (2003).
- 632 29. S. G. McShane *et al.*, Cellular basis of neuroepithelial bending during mouse spinal neural tube closure.
633 *Dev Biol* **404**, 113-124 (2015).
- 634 30. R. Massarwa, L. Niswander, In toto live imaging of mouse morphogenesis and new insights into neural
635 tube closure. *Development* **140**, 226-236 (2013).
- 636 31. C. Pyrgaki, P. Trainor, A. K. Hadjantonakis, L. Niswander, Dynamic imaging of mammalian neural tube
637 closure. *Dev Biol* **344**, 941-947 (2010).
- 638 32. M. L. Concha, R. J. Adams, Oriented cell divisions and cellular morphogenesis in the zebrafish gastrula
639 and neurula: a time-lapse analysis. *Development* **125**, 983-994 (1998).
- 640 33. B. Schmitz, C. Papan, J. A. Campos-Ortega, Neurulation in the anterior trunk region of the zebrafish
641 *Brachydanio rerio*. *Roux Arch Dev Biol* **202**, 250-259 (1993).
- 642 34. B. Geldmacher-Voss, A. M. Reugels, S. Pauls, J. A. Campos-Ortega, A 90-degree rotation of the mitotic
643 spindle changes the orientation of mitoses of zebrafish neuroepithelial cells. *Development* **130**, 3767-
644 3780 (2003).
- 645 35. C. E. Buckley *et al.*, Mirror-symmetric microtubule assembly and cell interactions drive lumen formation
646 in the zebrafish neural rod. *EMBO J* **32**, 30-44 (2013).

- 647 36. C. Buckley, J. Clarke, Establishing the plane of symmetry for lumen formation and bilateral brain
648 formation in the zebrafish neural rod. *Semin Cell Dev Biol* **31**, 100-105 (2014).
- 649 37. J. Clarke, Role of polarized cell divisions in zebrafish neural tube formation. *Curr Opin Neurobiol* **19**,
650 134-138 (2009).
- 651 38. M. Tawk *et al.*, A mirror-symmetric cell division that orchestrates neuroepithelial morphogenesis. *Nature*
652 **446**, 797-800 (2007).
- 653 39. E. Quesada-Hernández *et al.*, Stereotypical cell division orientation controls neural rod midline
654 formation in zebrafish. *Curr Biol* **20**, 1966-1972 (2010).
- 655 40. L. A. Lowery, H. Sive, Strategies of vertebrate neurulation and a re-evaluation of teleost neural tube
656 formation. *Mech Dev* **121**, 1189-1197 (2004).
- 657 41. C. B. Kimmel, R. M. Warga, D. A. Kane, Cell cycles and clonal strings during formation of the zebrafish
658 central nervous system. *Development* **120**, 265-276 (1994).
- 659 42. J. R. Jessen *et al.*, Zebrafish trilobite identifies new roles for Strabismus in gastrulation and neuronal
660 movements. *Nat Cell Biol* **4**, 610-615 (2002).
- 661 43. C. Araya *et al.*, Cdh2 coordinates Myosin-II dependent internalisation of the zebrafish neural plate. *Sci*
662 *Rep* **9**, 1835 (2019).
- 663 44. J. M. Werner *et al.*, Hallmarks of primary neurulation are conserved in the zebrafish forebrain. *Commun*
664 *Biol* **4**, 147 (2021).
- 665 45. A. Aquilina-Beck, K. Ilagan, Q. Liu, J. O. Liang, Nodal signaling is required for closure of the anterior
666 neural tube in zebrafish. *BMC Dev Biol* **7**, 126 (2007).
- 667 46. N. Gonsar *et al.*, Temporal and spatial requirements for Nodal-induced anterior mesendoderm and
668 mesoderm in anterior neurulation. *Genesis* **54**, 3-18 (2016).
- 669 47. P. Ma, M. R. Swartz, L. M. Kindt, A. M. Kangas, J. O. Liang, Temperature Sensitivity of Neural Tube
670 Defects in Zoep Mutants. *Zebrafish* **12**, 448-456 (2015).
- 671 48. Z. Lele *et al.*, parachute/n-cadherin is required for morphogenesis and maintained integrity of the
672 zebrafish neural tube. *Development* **129**, 3281-3294 (2002).
- 673 49. J. M. de la Cruz *et al.*, A loss-of-function mutation in the CFC domain of TDGF1 is associated with
674 human forebrain defects. *Hum Genet* **110**, 422-428 (2002).
- 675 50. K. W. Gripp *et al.*, Mutations in TGIF cause holoprosencephaly and link NODAL signalling to human
676 neural axis determination. *Nat Genet* **25**, 205-208 (2000).
- 677 51. E. Roessler *et al.*, Reduced NODAL signaling strength via mutation of several pathway members
678 including FOXH1 is linked to human heart defects and holoprosencephaly. *Am J Hum Genet* **83**, 18-29
679 (2008).
- 680 52. W. W. Yen *et al.*, PTK7 is essential for polarized cell motility and convergent extension during mouse
681 gastrulation. *Development*, (2009).
- 682 53. X. Lu *et al.*, PTK7/CCK-4 is a novel regulator of planar cell polarity in vertebrates. *Nature* **430**, 93-98
683 (2004).
- 684 54. M. Montcouquiol *et al.*, Identification of Vangl2 and Scrb1 as planar polarity genes in mammals. *Nature*
685 **423**, 173-177 (2003).
- 686 55. Y. Wang, N. Guo, J. Nathans, The role of Frizzled3 and Frizzled6 in neural tube closure and in the
687 planar polarity of inner-ear sensory hair cells. *J Neurosci* **26**, 2147-2156 (2006).
- 688 56. N. D. Greene, D. Gerrelli, H. W. Van Straaten, A. J. Copp, Abnormalities of floor plate, notochord and
689 somite differentiation in the loop-tail (Lp) mouse: a model of severe neural tube defects. *Mech Dev* **73**,
690 59-72 (1998).
- 691 57. Z. Kibar *et al.*, Ltap, a mammalian homolog of Drosophila Strabismus/Van Gogh, is altered in the
692 mouse neural tube mutant Loop-tail. *Nat Genet* **28**, 251-255 (2001).
- 693 58. J. N. Murdoch *et al.*, Disruption of scribble (Scrb1) causes severe neural tube defects in the circletail
694 mouse. *Hum Mol Genet* **12**, 87-98 (2003).
- 695 59. T. Goto, L. Davidson, M. Asashima, R. Keller, Planar cell polarity genes regulate polarized extracellular
696 matrix deposition during frog gastrulation. *Curr Biol* **15**, 787-793 (2005).
- 697 60. J. B. Wallingford, R. M. Harland, Neural tube closure requires Dishevelled-dependent convergent
698 extension of the midline. *Development* **129**, 5815-5825 (2002).
- 699 61. J. Wang *et al.*, Dishevelled genes mediate a conserved mammalian PCP pathway to regulate
700 convergent extension during neurulation. *Development* **133**, 1767-1778 (2006).
- 701 62. O. Ossipova, K. Kim, S. Y. Sokol, Planar polarization of Vangl2 in the vertebrate neural plate is
702 controlled by Wnt and Myosin II signaling. *Biol Open* **4**, 722-730 (2015).

- 703 63. T. Nishimura, H. Honda, M. Takeichi, Planar cell polarity links axes of spatial dynamics in neural-tube
704 closure. *Cell* **149**, 1084-1097 (2012).
- 705 64. J. A. Curtin *et al.*, Mutation of *Celsr1* disrupts planar polarity of inner ear hair cells and causes severe
706 neural tube defects in the mouse. *Curr Biol* **13**, 1129-1133 (2003).
- 707 65. R. S. Darken *et al.*, The planar polarity gene *strabismus* regulates convergent extension movements in
708 *Xenopus*. *EMBO J* **21**, 976-985 (2002).
- 709 66. Z. Chen *et al.*, Genetic analysis of Wnt/PCP genes in neural tube defects. *BMC Med Genomics* **11**, 38
710 (2018).
- 711 67. Y. Lei *et al.*, Mutations in planar cell polarity gene *SCRIB* are associated with spina bifida. *PLoS One* **8**,
712 e69262 (2013).
- 713 68. Y. Lei *et al.*, Identification of novel *CELSR1* mutations in spina bifida. *PLoS One* **9**, e92207 (2014).
- 714 69. T. Tian *et al.*, Somatic mutations in planar cell polarity genes in neural tissue from human fetuses with
715 neural tube defects. *Hum Genet* **139**, 1299-1314 (2020).
- 716 70. T. Tian *et al.*, Rare copy number variations of planar cell polarity genes are associated with human
717 neural tube defects. *Neurogenetics* **21**, 217-225 (2020).
- 718 71. Z. Kibar *et al.*, Contribution of *VANGL2* mutations to isolated neural tube defects. *Clin Genet* **80**, 76-82
719 (2011).
- 720 72. B. Ciruna, A. Jenny, D. Lee, M. Mlodzik, A. F. Schier, Planar cell polarity signalling couples cell division
721 and morphogenesis during neurulation. *Nature* **439**, 220-224 (2006).
- 722 73. F. Carreira-Barbosa *et al.*, Prickle 1 regulates cell movements during gastrulation and neuronal
723 migration in zebrafish. *Development* **130**, 4037-4046 (2003).
- 724 74. C. P. Heisenberg *et al.*, Silberblick/Wnt11 mediates convergent extension movements during zebrafish
725 gastrulation. *Nature* **405**, 76-81 (2000).
- 726 75. B. Kilian *et al.*, The role of Ppt/Wnt5 in regulating cell shape and movement during zebrafish
727 gastrulation. *Mech Dev* **120**, 467-476 (2003).
- 728 76. F. Ulrich *et al.*, *Slb/Wnt11* controls hypoblast cell migration and morphogenesis at the onset of zebrafish
729 gastrulation. *Development* **130**, 5375-5384 (2003).
- 730 77. D. Čapek *et al.*, Light-activated *Frizzled7* reveals a permissive role of non-canonical wnt signaling in
731 mesendoderm cell migration. *Elife* **8**, (2019).
- 732 78. L. Solnica-Krezel *et al.*, Mutations affecting cell fates and cellular rearrangements during gastrulation in
733 zebrafish. *Development* **123**, 67-80 (1996).
- 734 79. J. Topczewski *et al.*, The zebrafish glypican *knypek* controls cell polarity during gastrulation movements
735 of convergent extension. *Dev Cell* **1**, 251-264 (2001).
- 736 80. F. Carreira-Barbosa *et al.*, *Flamingo* regulates epiboly and convergence/extension movements through
737 cell cohesive and signalling functions during zebrafish gastrulation. *Development* **136**, 383-392 (2009).
- 738 81. Y. Y. Xing *et al.*, Mutational analysis of dishevelled genes in zebrafish reveals distinct functions in
739 embryonic patterning and gastrulation cell movements. *PLoS Genet* **14**, e1007551 (2018).
- 740 82. J. A. Clanton, K. D. Hope, J. T. Gamse, Fgf signaling governs cell fate in the zebrafish pineal complex.
741 *Development* **140**, 323-332 (2013).
- 742 83. B. B. Williams *et al.*, *VANGL2* regulates membrane trafficking of *MMP14* to control cell polarity and
743 migration. *J Cell Sci* **125**, 2141-2147 (2012).
- 744 84. M. Park, R. T. Moon, The planar cell-polarity gene *stbm* regulates cell behaviour and cell fate in
745 vertebrate embryos. *Nat Cell Biol* **4**, 20-25 (2002).
- 746 85. C. Araya *et al.*, Mesoderm is required for coordinated cell movements within zebrafish neural plate in
747 vivo. *Neural Dev* **9**, 9 (2014).
- 748 86. J. L. Smith, G. C. Schoenwolf, Cell cycle and neuroepithelial cell shape during bending of the chick
749 neural plate. *Anat Rec* **218**, 196-206 (1987).
- 750 87. C. Papan, J. A. Campos-Ortega, On the formation of the neural keel and neural tube in the
751 zebrafish *Danio* (*Brachydanio*) *rerio*. *Roux's Arch Dev Biol* **203**, 178-186 (1994).
- 752 88. M. J. Harrington, E. Hong, R. Brewster, Comparative analysis of neurulation: first impressions do not
753 count. *Mol Reprod Dev* **76**, 954-965 (2009).
- 754 89. C. Araya, L. C. Ward, G. C. Girdler, M. Miranda, Coordinating cell and tissue behavior during zebrafish
755 neural tube morphogenesis. *Dev Dyn* **245**, 197-208 (2016).
- 756 90. M. J. Harrington, K. Chalasani, R. Brewster, Cellular mechanisms of posterior neural tube
757 morphogenesis in the zebrafish. *Dev Dyn* **239**, 747-762 (2010).

- 758 91. G. Kesavan, A. Machate, S. Hans, M. Brand, Cell-fate plasticity, adhesion and cell sorting
759 complementarily establish a sharp midbrain-hindbrain boundary. *Development* **147**, (2020).
- 760 92. E. Nikolopoulou *et al.*, Spinal neural tube closure depends on regulation of surface ectoderm identity
761 and biomechanics by Grhl2. *Nat Commun* **10**, 2487 (2019).
- 762 93. H. J. Ray, L. A. Niswander, Dynamic behaviors of the non-neural ectoderm during mammalian cranial
763 neural tube closure. *Dev Biol* **416**, 279-285 (2016).
- 764 94. T. Goto, R. Keller, The planar cell polarity gene strabismus regulates convergence and extension and
765 neural fold closure in *Xenopus*. *Dev Biol* **247**, 165-181 (2002).
- 766 95. D. Gerrelli, A. J. Copp, Failure of neural tube closure in the loop-tail (Lp) mutant mouse: analysis of the
767 embryonic mechanism. *Brain Res Dev Brain Res* **102**, 217-224 (1997).
- 768 96. A. Burger *et al.*, Maximizing mutagenesis with solubilized CRISPR-Cas9 ribonucleoprotein complexes.
769 *Development* **143**, 2025-2037 (2016).
- 770 97. R. S. Wu *et al.*, A Rapid Method for Directed Gene Knockout for Screening in G0 Zebrafish. *Dev Cell*
771 **46**, 112-125.e114 (2018).
- 772 98. K. Bambino, J. Chu, Zebrafish in Toxicology and Environmental Health. *Curr Top Dev Biol* **124**, 331-367
773 (2017).
- 774 99. W. M. (University of Oregon Press, 1993).
- 775 100. C. B. Kimmel, W. W. Ballard, S. R. Kimmel, B. Ullmann, T. F. Schilling, Stages of embryonic
776 development of the zebrafish. *Dev Dyn* **203**, 253-310 (1995).
- 777 101. M. Hammerschmidt *et al.*, Mutations affecting morphogenesis during gastrulation and tail formation in
778 the zebrafish, *Danio rerio*. *Development* **123**, 143-151 (1996).
- 779 102. X. Li *et al.*, Gpr125 modulates Dishevelled distribution and planar cell polarity signaling. *Development*
780 **140**, 3028-3039 (2013).
- 781 103. C. Thisse, B. Thisse, High-resolution in situ hybridization to whole-mount zebrafish embryos. *Nat Protoc*
782 **3**, 59-69 (2008).
- 783