Chiari II brain malformation is secondary to open spina bifida

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ABSTRACT

The Chiari II brain malformation affects 90% of children with open spina bifida. The hindbrain herniates through the foramen magnum into the vertebral canal leading to frequent hydrocephalus and occasional respiratory emergency. Chiari II is not confined to the back of the brain, but is a global brain syndrome, with supratentorial defects that are associated with learning disability, affecting 20-25% of children with open spina bifida. The reason for the association between Chiari II and open spina bifida has long been debated. Separate effects on the brain and spinal cord of causative genetic or non-genetic factor(s) are possible. Conversely, Chiari II may be secondary to open spina bifida, and a prominent hypothesis cites chronic leakage of cerebrospinal fluid through the open spinal lesion as causative. To resolve the issue of causation, we bred mice in which *Pax3* gene function is conditionally deleted by *Cdx2*^{Cre}, specifically in the lower body, whereas the head is wild-type. Open spina bifida is seen in all *Cdx2*^{cre}*; Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ fetuses, together with many of the features of Chiari II in the wild-type brain of the mice. These include: hindbrain and cerebellar herniation, cortical thinning, hypogenesis of the corpus callosum and hippocampus, heterotopic neurons in the cerebral cortex and habenula and thickening of the proliferative zone. We conclude that the brain defects of Chiari II arise secondary to open spina bifida, with the implication that these may occur early in human gestation through disturbed neurogenesis. The *Cdx2*^{cre}*; Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ mouse provides a model for improved understanding of Chiari II pathogenesis.

INTRODUCTION

The Chiari II congenital brain malformation is present in up to 90% of individuals with open spina bifida (SB; myelomeningocele). The cerebellar vermis, with or without the brainstem, herniates through the foramen magnum into the vertebral canal. This can lead to hindbrain compression that may cause acute bulbar dysfunction with impaired swallow, aspiration, inspiratory stridor and central apnoea. Posterior fossa surgical decompression may be required in such emergency cases. More chronically, Chiari II is strongly associated with subsequent development of hydrocephalus, which often requires placement of a cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) shunt, and periodic revision surgery (McLone and Dias, 2003; Stevenson, 2004; Tubbs and Oakes, 2013).

Chiari II is not confined to hindbrain herniation but is a global brain syndrome with, in addition to hydrocephalus, medullary kinking and malformations of the supratentorial brain including an enlarged massa intermedia of the thalamus, small third ventricle, tectal beaking, dysgenesis of the corpus callosum and defects of cerebral cortical structure (Copp et al., 2015). The severity of these brain defects correlates with neurocognitive deficit which affects 20-25% of children with SB, and that can seriously affect the lives and independence of people with SB (Rofail et al., 2013; Schneider et al., 2021).

The strong association of Chiari II with SB has prompted much speculation in the neurosurgical and other literature on the causal relationship between the two conditions. In principle, they may share a common cause: for example, a genetic factor that affects both brain and spine directly, so that SB and Chiari II occur frequently together but are largely independent of each other developmentally. Alternatively, Chiari II could be a secondary consequence of SB, and this idea has been elaborated in most detail within the ‘CSF leakage’ hypothesis of McLone and Knepper (1989). The persistent leakage of cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) from the SB lesion is seen as preventing establishment of a sealed ventricular system

within the brain, with reduced hydrostatic pressure causing failure of the developing hindbrain to expand normally. Skull tissues are ‘induced’ by the underlying brain structure during development (Richtsmeier and Flaherty, 2013), so the deflated hindbrain is seen as inducing an abnormally small posterior cranial fossa. This cannot contain the cerebellum and brain stem which herniate through the foramen magnum as fetal development proceeds.

In recent years, the widespread introduction of surgery for SB in the fetal period has led to the finding that the hindbrain herniation of Chiari II can be diminished, in the short-term following closure of the SB lesion, with a significant reduction in the need for CSF shunting (Adzick et al., 2011; Joyeux et al., 2018). However, postnatal MRI assessment of children after fetal SB surgery shows that, while hindbrain herniation is reduced, the constellation of other brain defects is still present in almost all cases (Calle et al., 2020). Hence, the supratentorial aspects of the Chiari II malformation are not ameliorated by fetal surgery in the second trimester, arguing for an earlier developmental origin of the brain defects.

Here, we present a test of the hypothesis that Chiari II results secondarily from the occurrence of SB. Mouse fetuses that lack *Pax3* gene function throughout the body develop SB and, in a preliminary study, we identified co-existing Chiari II by fetal MRI (Norris et al., 2015). Here, we bred mice lacking Pax3 only in the lower body, using *Cdx2*^{Cre} to recombine a floxed *Pax3* allele only in the trunk region. These embryos develop SB at full penetrance, but with a wild-type head. We demonstrate that both hindbrain herniation and supratentorial brain defects are present in the heads of these mice, showing experimentally for the first time that Chiari II develops entirely secondary to SB.

RESULTS

Chiari II co-exists with most cases of human SB, and hindbrain herniation has also been detected in several mouse SB models caused by genetic (Briner and Moellenberndt, 1997; Miro et al., 2009; Norris et al., 2015) or teratogenic (Alles and Sulik, 1992; Briner and Lieske, 1995) influences. However, in none of these animal studies was it possible to determine whether the features of Chiari II were direct effects of the causative gene/teratogen on the brain or, alternatively, whether they arose secondary to the SB. To resolve this long-standing question, we made use of Cre-loxP recombination technology to generate a *Cdx2*^{cre}*;Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ mouse: a model designed to selectively remove Pax3 expression from the caudal half of the embryo, while leaving the head wild-type (Figure 1A). We reasoned that the presence or absence of Chiari II defects in the brain and skull of *Cdx2*^{cre}*;Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ mice would resolve the possible cause-and-effect relationship between SB and Chiari II.

Cdx2^{Cre} recombines *Pax3* solely in the lower body

Use of an *mTmG* reporter line confirmed the previous finding (Coutaud and Pilon, 2013) that *Cdx2*^{Cre}-mediated recombination is confined to the lower embryonic body. We detected a rostral recombination limit at upper trunk level (Figure 1B,C). Open SB occurred in *Cdx*^{cre}*;Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ embryos and fetuses (Figure 1D-F), consistent with the SB observed in *splotch* mutant mice that constitutionally lack Pax3 (Greene et al., 2009). To determine whether, as predicted, Pax3 persists in the heads of *Cdx*^{cre}*;Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ embryos, we performed anti-Pax3 immunohistochemistry on sagittal sections of E10.5 embryos. Similar intensities of Pax3 expression were detected in the heads of control (non-Cre) and *Cdx*^{cre}*;Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ embryos, and also in the lower body of controls (Figure 2A-C). Strikingly, however, there was no Pax3 signal in the lower body of mutants, confirming the loss of Pax3 expression in association with open SB in the mouse model (Figure 2D). These findings confirm that Pax3 expression has been selectively removed from the trunk region of *Cdx2*^{Cre}*;Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ embryos.

It was important to examine the efficiency of the *Cdx*^{cre}-mediated *Pax3* removal in inducing SB, particularly as different *splotch* alleles (e.g. *Pax3*^{Sp}, *Pax3*^{Sp2H}) vary in their penetrance of SB (Greene et al., 2009). Among 10 sampled litters, from *Cdx*^{cre}*;Pax3*$^{fl/+}$ x *Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ matings, we identified 15 *Cdx*^{cre}*;Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ (hereafter 'mutant') embryos and fetuses, all of which exhibited SB (Figure 2E). We conclude that the *Cdx*^{cre}*;Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ genotype produces fully penetrant SB..

Cerebellar-hindbrain herniation in the *Cdx2*^{cre}*;Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ mouse

In children with SB, hindbrain and cerebellar tonsillar herniation and a small posterior fossa with enlarged foramen magnum are major signs of the Chiari II malformation. To explore their occurrence in the mouse model, we carried out histology and performed micro-computed tomography (microCT) for both soft and hard tissues. In haematoxylin and eosin (H&E)-stained midsagittal sections of E18.5 brains, the distance between the lowest point of the cerebellum and a line drawn from the base of the skull to the posterior part of the parietal bone (hereafter referred to as the 'skull exit point') was compared between control and mutant fetuses (Figure 3A, B). In addition, the dorso-ventral length of the skull exit point was measured as equivalent to the foramen magnum at this stage. SB mutants exhibit a highly significant cerebellar herniation compared with control fetuses whose cerebellum is confined within the skull (Figure 3D; $p = 0.0004$). In contrast, there was no difference between control and SB fetuses in length of the skull exit point (Figure 3C; $p = 0.2$). Hence, hindbrain herniation is present in the *Cdx2*^{cre}*;Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ mouse model, as in human Chiari II.

Posterior skull defects in the *Cdx2*^{cre}*;Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ mouse

In mice, the posterior skull fossa is composed of multiple bones that eventually fuse, including the supraoccipital (SO), which sits directly behind the cerebellum. To visualise SO size and structure, we carried out alcian blue and alizarin red staining of skeletal preparations from control and SB fetuses at E18.5 (Figure 3E, F). The surface area of the SO was measured on photographic images taken from a dorsal/posterior direction. In controls, the SO was a bilobed structure that straddled the midline (Figure 3G), whereas in all 3 mutants the SO was

underdeveloped and existed as two separate bony structures, either side of the midline (Figure 3H). A comparable control-SB difference was found in microCT hard tissue scan images (Figure 3I, J). Quantitative analysis revealed a trend towards a smaller SO area in SB skeletal preparations (Figure 3P) and SO bone volume measured from microCT scans was significantly smaller in SB than control skulls (Figure 3Q).

Closer inspection revealed two degrees of SO dysgenesis in fetuses with SB: partial (SB T1) and complete (SB T2) (Figure 3K-M). To determine possible reasons for this finding, we asked whether lower pressure, resulting from smaller ventricles in the mutants, might induce smaller SO bones. However, when normalised to A-P brain length, overall ventricular volume did not vary significantly between control and mutant brains (Figure 3R), with no correlation between SO volume and ventricular volume in individual fetuses.

An alternative possibility was that variations in direct pressure of the brain on bone-forming cranial mesenchyme might account for the differing degrees of SO dysgenesis. When visually compared in individual fetal microCTs, we found a stepped increase in space between the cerebellum, brainstem and skull. In controls, little intervening space occurred, with contact between posterior skull and both cerebellum and brainstem (Figure 3T-1,1i). In SB T1, there was increased space, with only the cerebellum in direct contact with the skull (Figure 3T-2, 2i). In SB T2 there was essentially no brain-skull contact at all (Figure 3T-3, 3i). Hence, it seems possible that failure of the hindbrain to contact the developing posterior skull results in the SO dysgenesis we observe in SB heads.

Although overall ventricular volume did not differ between control and SB brains, we found variation in length of the third ventricle in the three-dimensional (3D)-microCT reconstructions (Figure 3N and O) with a significant length reduction in mutants (Figure 3S). This suggested a possible difference in A-P brain length, and this was compared with SO bone volume using an ordinary least squares regression model, which revealed a strong linear relationship

between brain length and SO bone volume in SB heads (Figure 3U). Controls exhibited larger A-P brain lengths than SB fetuses, with less variation between individuals. We conclude that two major signs of Chiari II: herniated hindbrain and diminished posterior skull development, are present in the *Cdx2*^{cre}*;Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ mouse, validating it as a model of human Chiari II.

Global brain posterior displacement in SB mutants

Having identified a diminished A-P brain axis in mutants, we sought to further understand the brain abnormalities associated with SB using soft tissue microCT. This method yielded sagittal images of E18.5 fetuses which revealed both larger and smaller open SB lesions (Figure 4B, C), compared with normal controls (Figure 4A). Interestingly, all six mutant fetuses displayed signs of a full bladder (asterisks in Figure 4B, C), which was not seen in controls. Hence, bladder dysfunction may be a feature of mouse SB, as in affected children.

To address possible anomalies along the brain's A-P axis, we examined mid-sagittal microCT images and noted an abnormal placement of the region of the pons and hypothalamus (Figure 4D, E). In controls, these structures were clearly separated, whereas in SB mutants, the hypothalamus appeared compressed against the dorsal element of the pons (Figure 4Di, Ei). Further, we identified a flattened cerebellum and choroid plexus of the fourth ventricle (Figure 4F, Fi, G, Gi). To quantify these, we measured three angles: midbrain-skull (Figure 4H, I), cerebellum-skull (Figure 4J, K, angle x) and forebrain-skull (Figure 4J, K, angle y). Each of these angles was significantly different between control and mutant (Figure 4M-O), suggesting a global posteriorly-directed displacement of the dorsal brain in fetuses with SB.

As the dorsoventral axis of the choroid plexus in the fourth ventricle appeared shortened, we measured total choroid plexus volume in control and mutant fetuses. Morphologically, this appeared smaller in SB mutants (Figure 4Q, R) and this was confirmed when volumes were normalised to A-P brain length (Figure 4P). Together, these findings suggest that SB brains undergo a degree of posteriorly-directed distortion, with reduction in choroid plexus volume.

Callosal hypogenesis, neuronal migration defects and smaller ventricles at E15.5

We carried out an initial histological analysis of the forebrain at E15.5, when 5 of the 6 cortical layers have formed, the majority of radial migration has occurred and tangentially migrating neurons have begun entering the neocortex. Coronal sections through control and SB brains were immuno-stained for CTIP2 and TBR1, markers of cortical layers 5 and 6, with DAPI counterstaining. Whole head sections show a marked dorsoventral 'compression' of the SB brain (double arrowheads in Figure 5D-F) compared with controls (Figure 5A-C). At higher magnification, we detected an extended trailing edge of TBR1+ cells, possibly tangentially migrating interneurons from the ganglionic eminences, which suggested a possible cell number or migration defect (Figure 5G, H). A smaller amygdala region was observed in SB brains (Figure 5I, J), while Probst bundle-like TBR1+ structures were found lateral to the interhemispheric fissure (Figure 5K, L) suggestive of callosal hypogenesis. Lateral ventricles also appeared smaller in SB brains (Figure 5M, N).

Differential thickness of cortex and ventricular zone in SB brains

To extend the investigation of brain anomalies associated with mouse SB, we carried out immunostaining for cortical markers, BRN2, CASP and CTIP2, on coronal brain sections at E18.5 (Figure 6A, B). Cortical layering was examined (Figure 6C) by aligning control and SB sections in an attempt to discern specific variations. Grid lines in Figure 6C demarcate the boundaries between cortical layers in control brains. The analysis showed that cortical layers in mutants appeared below where expected from controls, suggesting an overall thinner SB cortex. Further, the SB proliferative ventricular zone (VZ) occupied a larger total proportion of the telencephalic wall than in control brains. To quantify these differences, we measured total cortical and VZ thickness in DAPI-stained brain sections (Figure 6D). Normalising these values to total brain length (smaller in SB: Figure 3U) showed that SB brains have significantly thinner cortices and thicker VZ regions (Figure 6E, F). Together, these results indicate a reduction of

cortical size in association with SB, potentially due to a defect or delay in cortical neurogenesis and/or neuronal migration.

Neuronal heterotopia and diminished neuronal number in SB brain regions

To test for a neurogenic and/or migratory defect of cells colonising the cerebral cortex, we looked for two signs: a mixing/heterotopia of cortical layers and a decrease in cell number. To test for cortical mixing, we identified a region of interest of BRN2+ and CTIP2+ cells from the E18.5 cortices of control and SB fetuses (Figure 7A, B) and evaluated the total overlap of these immuno-positive areas using a support vector machine-learning algorithm on individual cell coordinates (see Materials & Methods). BRN2+ and CTIP2+ populations appeared more overlapping in SB samples than in controls (Figure 7C-F), and this was analysed using the machine-learning algorithm. Figure 7G, H shows a visual representation of control and SB algorithmic learning and recall performance, while Figure 7I shows the F1 scores of control and SB samples. F1 scores closer to 1 indicate better predictive accuracy of the algorithm in drawing a 'perfect' boundary between the two cell populations, whereas F1 scores close to 0 indicate extensive overlap, with no clear boundary. SB brains performed closer to zero than controls: a statistically significant difference (Figure 7I). Hence, SB brains exhibit diminished segregation of cortical layer populations, indicative of cortical heterotopia. Further, we performed manual cell counts of the BRN2+ and CTIP2+ populations, finding a significant decrease in BRN2+ cells in SB brains (Figure 7J), although CTIP2+ cell number did not differ (Figure 7K). Together, these results suggest a neurogenic and/or migratory defect in SB cortical development.

SB brains at E18.5 display callosal and hippocampal dysgenesis

The corpus callosum and hippocampus are two brain regions reliant on timely neurogenesis, with known abnormalities in human Chiari II patients (Table 1). As detected at E15.5 (Figure 5K, L), callosal hypogenesis was found to be a feature of E18.5 SB brains (Figure 7L, M), with significantly reduced callosal thickness compared with controls (Figure 7N). At the same

stage, we evaluated the presence of CTIP2+ and BRN2+ cells in the hippocampus and habenula (Figure 7O, P). The region of the SB dentate gyrus entirely lacked CTIP2+ cells, and the CA1 and CA2 regions showed reduced cell numbers in SB compared with controls (Figure 7Q, R). We also found a lack of BRN2+ cells at the lateral ridge of the habenular nuclei in SB, and a general heterotopic arrangement of cells medially (Figure 7S, T). Together, these findings suggest the supratentorial defects characteristic of Chiari II in humans are also present within our *Cdx*^{cre};*Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ mouse model.

DISCUSSION

Open SB, also called myelomeningocele, is a common birth defect in which the spinal cord fails to close during embryonic development. It affects on average 0.5 per 1000 live births worldwide, but with much higher frequencies in some resource-poor countries: e.g. 3-13 per 1000 in Ethiopia (Gebremariam et al., 2025). Fortification of the food supply with folic acid reduces SB prevalence by up to 50% (Atta et al., 2016), but at least a proportion of other cases are likely 'folate-non-preventable' (Greene et al., 2017). The increasing availability in many countries of fetal surgery for SB (Gallagher et al., 2023) offers an alternative to prenatal diagnosis and abortion, and may increasingly encourage parents to pursue postnatal survival of their SB-affected children. Hence, understanding and working towards improvement of the physical and mental health of children with SB is a research priority.

The focus in SB, postnatally, is usually on lower body functional deficit (Oakeshott et al., 2012). However, many key long-term sequelae of SB result from brain anomalies, collectively termed the Chiari II malformation, which affects up to 95% of SB cases (Stevenson, 2004). This leads to hydrocephalus due to the associated hindbrain herniation, and also higher ('supratentorial') brain disorders, which include cortical heterotopias, callosal hypogenesis and basal ganglia anomalies (summarised in Table 1). The higher brain defects are associated with frequent learning difficulties that can seriously affect the lives and independence of young people with SB (Rofail et al., 2013).

Causation of Chiari II

The co-existence of Chiari II and SB has long indicated a significant link between the two conditions. However, it has been unclear whether Chiari II occurs secondary to an open spine or as a separate, primary defect that is related to SB (e.g. having a common genetic aetiology) but involving different direct effects of the causative factor. In our study, the *Cdx2*^{cre}*;Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ mouse maintains a genetically wild-type head despite a mutant lower body and SB phenotype.

Nonetheless, we find typical Chiari II signs, including hindbrain herniation, hypogenesis of the posterior fossa, global brain 'collapse' with its posterior displacement, and a number of supratentorial defects including hippocampal and callosal agenesis, and heterotopia of the cortical layers. Together, our results demonstrate that Chiari II can arise entirely secondary to SB, placing great importance on understanding the cause-and-effect relationship between SB and the origin of Chiari II.

Evidence for disorders of brain neurogenesis and neuronal migration in Chiari II

We found cortical thinning and proliferative (ventricular) zone thickening in the telencephalon of our mouse fetuses with SB, raising the possibility of a brain neurogenesis disorder. Moreover our finding of cortical heterotopias, in which neuronal sub-populations were intermixed in SB brains, as opposed to segregated in distinct layers, provides evidence for early-arising neuronal migration disorders. These results coincide with previous observations in humans: Fietz et al. (2020) found a thickening of the subventricular zone (SVZ) by immunofluorescence of neuropathological specimens at 11-15 gestational weeks; Masse et al. (2023) reported thickening of proliferative zones (VZ and SVZ) in human SB based on *in utero* MRI at 17-26 weeks; Juranek et al. (2008) identified a series of brain morphometric changes in children aged around 12 years with open SB who has received CSF shunts for hydrocephalus and Chiari II. Hence, at varying stages of fetal and postnatal development, individuals with SB show higher brain anomalies, and this correlates with a series of specific neurocognitive disorders that can limit the education and independent living of children with SB (Rofail et al., 2013; Schneider et al., 2021). A challenge for future research is to determine the molecular and cellular pathways that are disturbed during brain neurogenesis in Chiari II, in order to arrive at potential preventive interventions.

Origin of posterior skull disorders in Chiari II

A small, overcrowded posterior skull fossa is a recognised feature of Chiari II in humans (Stovner et al., 1993), and this has been reproduced in chick embryos with surgically-created

SB (Sim et al., 2013; Hwang et al., 2022). Interestingly, in the sheep model of surgically-induced SB, which provided the first demonstration of fetal surgical SB closure (Meuli et al., 1995), there is a lack of full-blown Chiari II disorder, and this has been attributed to the late creation of the artificial SB, long after the early events of brain and skull development are complete (Steele et al., 2020). McLone and Knepper (1989) proposed a small posterior fossa in Chiari II to result from failure of hindbrain expansion during development, and this idea fits well with accumulated research showing close alignment between brain and skull development (Richtsmeier and Flaherty, 2013). Our findings bear on this topic, as we identified different degrees of posterior bony defect in fetuses with SB. The most extreme situation involved a complete absence of the SO bone, and these fetuses showed a total lack of contact between hindbrain and developing posterior skull. Less severe SO reduction was associated with reduced hindbrain-skull contact. Hence, it seems possible that a sequence of developmental events, leading from brain expansion to posterior skull fossa induction, may be conserved in mice and humans and, when faulty, may account for the posterior skull phenotype in Chiari II.

Role for CSF in Chiari II brain disorder

McLone and Knepper's (1989) unified theory of Chiari II suggested CSF leakage through the SB lesion as the primary disruptor of embryonic brain development. Since that time, much circumstantial evidence has accumulated to support this idea. For example, Chiari II brain defects are found in open SB but not in skin-covered low spinal dysraphic conditions, where there is no CSF leakage (Schneider et al., 2021). Spinal cord ‘tethering’ occurs in both, hence ruling out downward traction as an alternative explanation for hindbrain herniation in Chiari II. Curtailment of CSF leakage by fetal surgery to close the SB lesion reduces hindbrain herniation in a proportion of cases, lowering the risk of hydrocephalus (Joyeux et al., 2018). However, the higher (supratentorial) defects in Chiari II persist into childhood, despite fetal surgery for SB (Calle et al., 2020), arguing for an earlier pathogenesis. Our finding that Chiari II brain defects occur in the mouse SB model, despite a wild-type head, provides the first

experimental evidence for a secondary origin of Chiari II in relation to SB, which could well be mediated through CSF leakage.

Embryonic CSF is rich in growth factors and signalling molecules that play major roles in guiding brain morphology, neural progenitor proliferation and CNS specification. For example, midbrain neuroepithelial explants from chick embryos fail to undergo neurogenesis, and show failed cell proliferation and apoptosis, in the absence of CSF (Gato et al., 2005). Moreover, CSF of embryonic origin supports neuronal differentiation from cultured stem cells (Shokohi et al., 2018), and stimulates more neurogenesis than adult CSF in embryonic brain slices (Alonso et al., 2017). Adult CSF promotes glial (astrocytic) rather than neuronal differentiation (Buddensiek et al., 2009).

Prior to neural tube closure, amniotic fluid is captured within the open neural tube, including the brain, whereas soon after the neural tube has closed and sealed, CSF composition diverges (Chau et al., 2015). Identified CSF components include serotonin, retinoids, Shh, LIF, Otx, Fgf2, Igf2, Wnts , nanovesicles and exosomes: factors all involved in neural progenitor survival, differentiation and brain morphogenesis (Fame and Lehtinen, 2020). In the case of SB, CSF composition was found to differ between unaffected children and those with postnatally-repaired SB (Pal et al., 2005). Since CSF leaks continuously from the open spinal lesion, this may reduce pressure within the cranium, but also could alter the availability of molecules essential for neurogenesis. Hence, there is a strong precedent for CSF compositional change affecting neuronal development, with a key role in the neurogenesis disorders of Chiari II.

Conclusion

We have developed a mouse genetic model in which Chiari II can be proven to arise secondary to SB, rather than as a separate primary lesion. Given the close similarity between mouse and human SB, this suggests that human Chiari II may also be entirely secondary to an open SB.

We show that the mouse model exhibits a wide range of brain anomalies, typical of human Chiari II, and further present evidence that these may largely arise from early disorders of brain neurogenesis and neuronal migration. Our work will now focus attention on the causative SB-to-Chiari II link which may in future become susceptible to clinical interventions to prevent Chiari II defects, even in the presence of SB.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Mouse procedures

Mouse work was conducted under auspices of the UK Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986 and the National Centre for the 3R's Responsibility in the Use of Animals for Medical Research (2019). *Cdx2*^{Cre} male mice were obtained from the Jackson Laboratory (strain 009350: B6.Cg-Tg(CDX2-cre)101Erf/J) and maintained by breeding with C57BL/6J females. Genotyping was by PCR for Cre genomic sequence (Danielian et al., 1998). *Pax3*$^{fl/+}$ mice were a gift of Dr Simon Conway and kindly provided by the Pasteur Institute, Paris. They were inter-crossed to produce *Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ offspring which were maintained as a homozygous colony. Genotyping was as described (Koushik et al., 2002). Experimental litters were produced by mating *Cdx2*^{Cre}*;Pax3*$^{fl/+}$ males with *Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ females, to produce 4 offspring genotype categories (Figure 2E). *Cdx2*^{Cre}*;Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$ embryos and fetuses provided the model of SB/Chiari II, while non-Cre littermates (*Pax3*$^{fl/+}$ or *Pax3*$^{fl/fl}$) served as controls. Pregnant dams were culled by cervical dislocation, with death confirmed via cutting the femoral artery. Embryos were dissected from the uterus in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) containing 10% fetal bovine serum, rinsed in PBS and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS (PFA) at 4°C overnight for histological analysis or in 4% PFA for 7 days then 1% PFA for microCT scanning. Yolk sacs of individual embryos were rinsed in PBS and stored for genotyping.

Cryosection preparation

Embryos and fetuses were fixed by immersion in 4% PFA, washed in PBS and dehydrated in increasing increments of 10%, 20% and 30% sucrose in PBS, kept at 4°C overnight or until the embryo sank to the bottom of the tube. Embryos and fetuses were dissected further (brain only for E18.5 coronal sections; entire body for sagittal sections; head only for E15.5 coronal sections), patted dry from sucrose and placed in OCT (SciGen, Oxford Instruments: 51-1625-0019). Once manoeuvred to desired cutting positions in embedding moulds, samples were frozen on dry ice and stored at -80°C. Cryosections were then prepared using a Bright cryostat

at 15 μm thickness, mounted on Superfrost Plus™ slides (Fisher Scientific: 10149870) and stored at -80°C until stained.

Haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining

Slides were washed in double distilled (dd) H_2O, then stained in hematoxylin (filtered Harris's Hematoxylin) for 4 min. Slides were further rinsed in H_2O and differentiated in acid/alcohol (1% HCl in 70% ETOH), rinsed in ultrapure (UP) H_2O and "blued up" in saturated lithium carbonate. Following another UPH_2O wash, the slides were then stained with filtered eosin, washed in UPH_2O and dehydrated in 100% ETOH, cleared in Histoclear (National Diagnostics; Scientific Laboratory Supplies: NAT1330) and coverslip-mounted using DPX (Sigma-Aldrich: 06522).

Immunohistochemistry

Primary antibodies (all used at 1:200 dilution) were: anti-BRN2, rabbit polyclonal (Cell Signaling Technology: 12137S); anti-CASP (CUX1), mouse monoclonal IgG1 (ABCAM: ab54583); anti-CTIP2, rat monoclonal (ABCAM: ab184650); anti-TBR1, rabbit polyclonal (ABCAM: ab31940). DAPI nuclear dye was used at 1:5000 (ThermoFisher Scientific). Cryosectioned tissue was processed for antigen retrieval using sodium citrate (0.1 M, pH 6.0) and warmed to 120°C in a decloaking chamber for 45 min. Slides were removed from the chamber and 2 ml PBS was applied for 10 min at room temperature (RT). PBS was removed and replaced by blocking buffer (10 ml PBS, 100 μL heat inactivated sheep serum, 100 μL 10% Triton-x100) for 1 h at RT. After blocking, primary antibody in blocking buffer was applied and left overnight at 4°C. After overnight incubation, slides were washed 3x in PBS for 10 min per wash, on a slow speed shaker. PBS was removed and secondary antibody in blocking buffer was added to the slides and left for 1 h at RT. DAPI was added to the slides for 10 min, followed by washes 3x in PBS. Sudan black (in 70% ETOH) was added to the slides at this stage for 10 min to minimise autofluorescence. A further 3-5 PBS washes were used if

necessary to remove excess staining. Slides were mounted in Prolong Gold mounting medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific: P36934) beneath coverslips.

MicroCT

MicroCT preparation and scanning was carried out in the Embryo Phenotyping facility at the Mary Lyon Centre at MRC Harwell, Oxford, UK.

Hard tissue scanning: fetuses were dissected in ice cold phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and exsanguinated by severing the umbilical vessels. After washing in PBS, embryos were fixed by immersion in 4% PFA for 7 days at 4°C on a rocker, before storage in 1% PFA at 4°C. Samples were rinsed through 3 changes of ddH_2O before embedding within an acrylic mount in 1% agarose, which was allowed to set for at least 1 h. MicroCT data sets were acquired using a Skyscan 1272 scanner (Bruker) with the x-ray source set to 70 kV and using 0.5 mm aluminium filter. Pixel resolution of 15 µm/pixel was set at 3x3 camera pixel binning (1344 x 896). Four projections were acquired and averaged every 0.4° through a total rotation of 360°, with random movements set to 25. NRecon (Bruker) was using for 3D reconstruction to PNG.

Soft tissue scanning: After storage in 1% PFA at 4°C prior to scanning, fetuses were contrasted by immersion in 50% Lugol's solution (Sigma-Aldrich: 32922. 1:1 Lugol:ddH_2O) at room temperature for 2 weeks on a rocker, protected from light, with the solution replaced every 2 days. Samples were then rinsed and incubated in ddH_2O for at least 1 h before embedding within an acrylic mount in 1% agarose which was allowed to set for at least 2 h. MicroCT data sets were acquired using a Skyscan 1272 scanner (Bruker) with the X-ray source set to 80 kV and using 1 mm aluminium filter. Pixel resolution of 12 µm/pixel was set at 2x2 camera pixel binning (2048x2048). Four projections were acquired and averaged every 0.15° through a total rotation of 360°, with random movements set to 25. NRecon (Bruker) was using for 3D reconstruction to PNG using a constrained volume of 1000x1400 pixels (width x height).

Support vector machine learning analysis

Python 3.11.3 and its pandas, matplotlib and scikit-learn packages were used. For each sample, two datasets were combined: BRN2+ and CTIP2+ cell coordinates, as 2D X and Y values. These were labelled as 0 (BRN2+) and 1 (CTIP2+). After merging, the final dataset consisted of all measurements from both conditions. This dataset was then split into training (70%) and test (30%) subsets using a random state of 42 to ensure reproducibility. A linear Support Vector Machine (SVM) was trained on the ‘X‘,‘Y‘`X`, `Y`‘X‘,‘Y‘ features in the training set to distinguish between the two labelled groups. Following training, the model’s performance was evaluated by generating predictions on the unseen test set. A confusion matrix revealed how many points were correctly classified in each category versus those that were misclassified. A classification report provided an F1 score of the model’s accuracy, while a harmonic mean of precision and recall of the SVM indicated its overall performance. Script for this analysis is available upon request.

Statistical analysis

All statistical tests and graph preparation were carried out using Python 3.11.3 and the pandas, matplotlib, seaborn, scipy, and numpy packages. Scripts are available upon request.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Figure 1

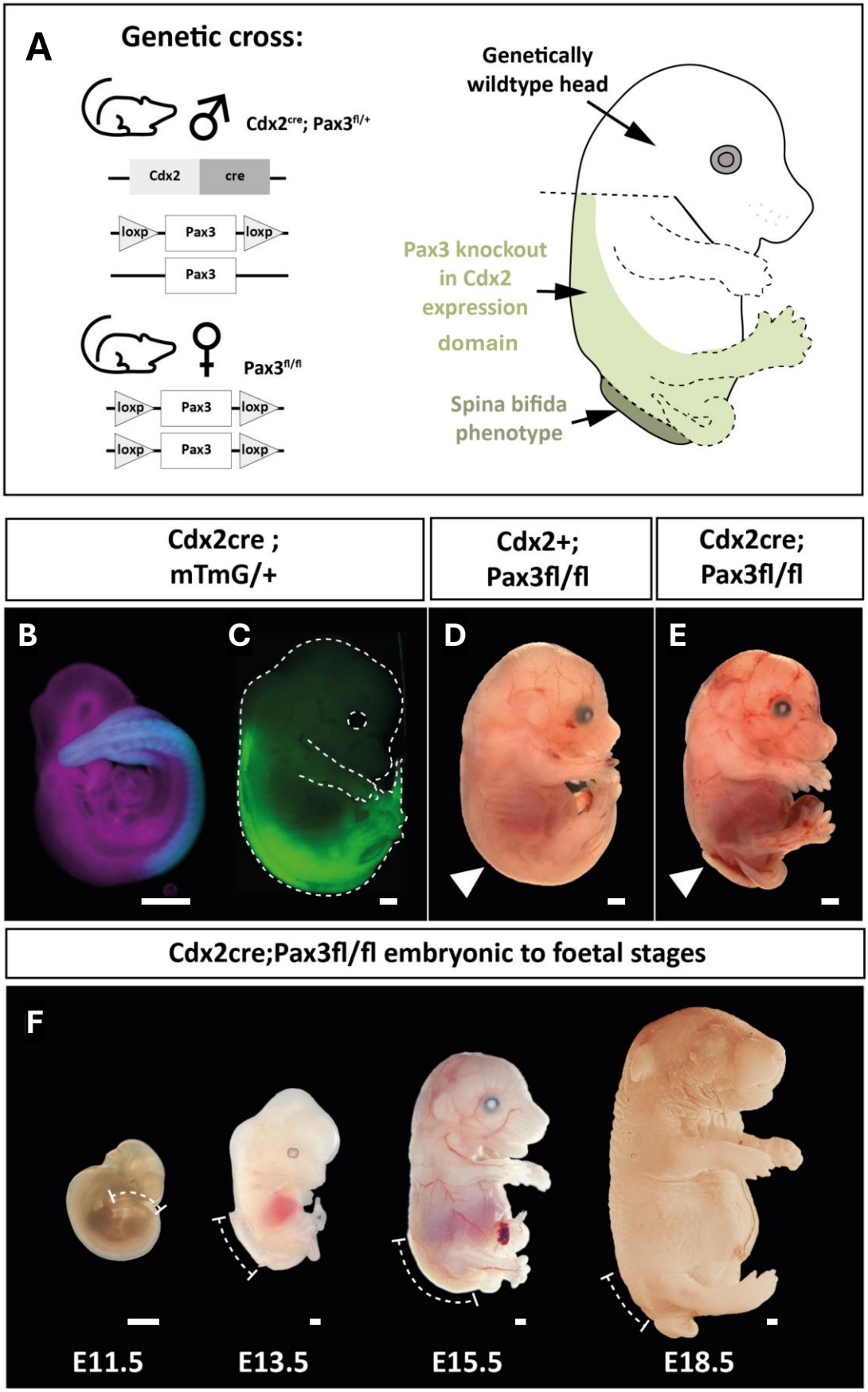
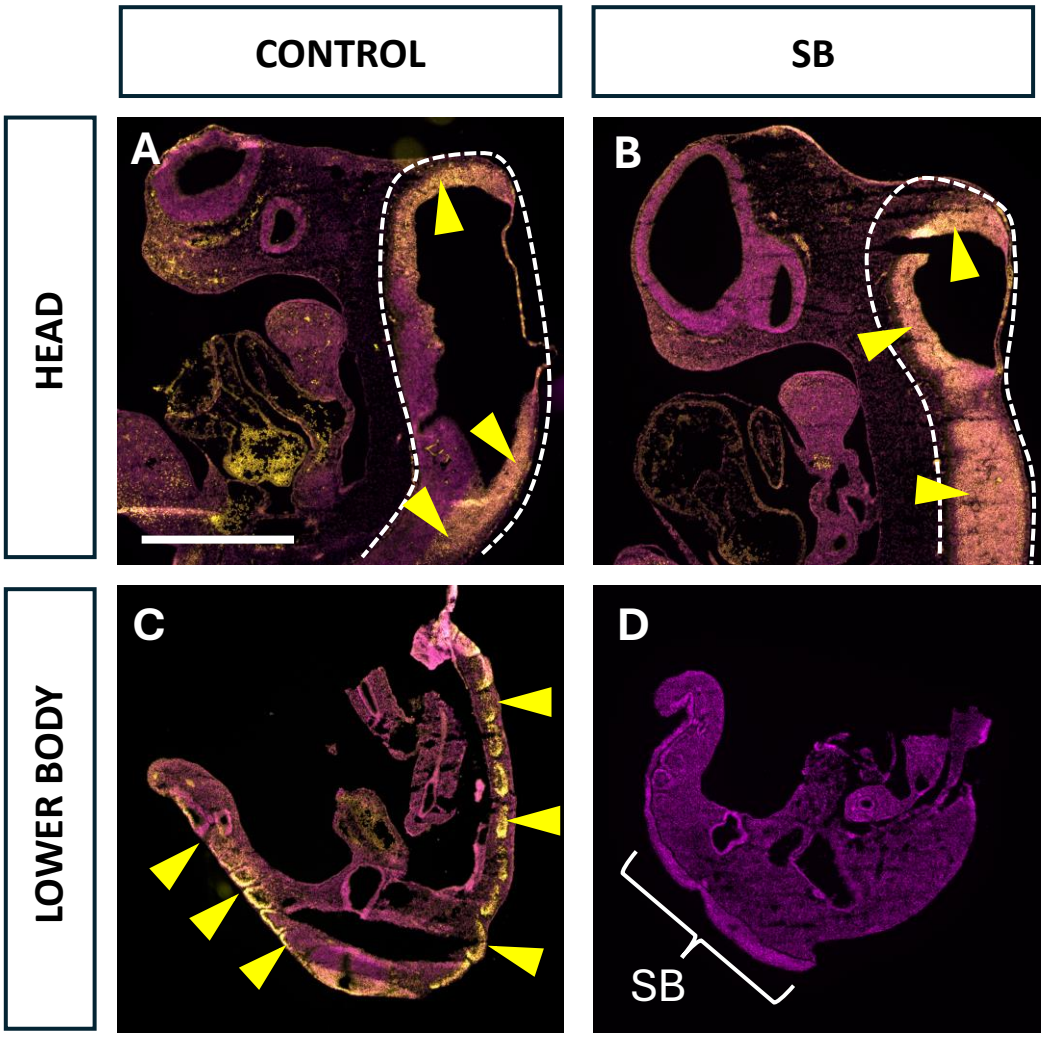

A
Genetic cross:
Cdx2cre; Pax3fl/+
Cdx2
cre
loxp
Pax3
loxp
Pax3
Pax3fl/fl
loxp
Pax3
loxp
loxp
Pax3
loxp
Genetically wildtype head
Pax3 knockout in Cdx2 expression domain
Spina bifida phenotype
Cdx2cre ; mTmG/+
Cdx2+; Pax3fl/fl
Cdx2cre; Pax3fl/fl
B
C
D
E
Cdx2cre;Pax3fl/fl embryonic to foetal stages
F
E11.5
E13.5
E15.5
E18.5

Figure 1: Generation of the *Cdx2^{cre};Pax3^{flfl}* mouse model.

(**A**) Illustration of the Cre-LoxP cross used to generate mice with SB phenotype. *Cdx2Cre* drives *Pax3* knockout in the body only (light green highlight). The head remains genetically wild-type. (**B, C**) *Cdx2Cre* driving *mTmG* reporter expression in the body of E10.5 (A, cyan) and E15.5 (B, green). Magenta in (B) indicates region of no *Cdx2* expression. (**D, E**) Representative images of E15.5 control (non-Cre; *Pax3$^{fl/fl}$*) and mutant (*Cdx2^{cre};Pax3^{flfl}*) embryos. White arrows indicate the location of the open SB lesion (in E). (**F**) Phenotypic developmental timeline of *Cdx2^{cre};Pax3^{flfl}* mice, with dotted line indicating extent of open AV lesion. All scale bars = 500 µm.

Figure 2



E

Genotype	*Average No. (%)*	*Phenotype*	*Total Normal*	*Total SB*
Cdx2 cre ; Pax3 fl/fl	23.1	SB	0	15
Cdx2 cre ; Pax3 fl/+	25.55	Normal	22	0
Cdx2 + ; Pax3 fl/fl	14.9	Normal	12	0
Cdx2 + ; Pax3 fl/+	36.2	Normal	29	0

Figure 2: Pax3 expression and genotype versus phenotype in E10.5 *Cdx2^{cre};Pax3^{flfl}* mouse embryos.

Sagittal cryosections of control (n = 3) and SB (n = 3) embryos, immunostained for Pax3 (yellow) and nuclear-stained with DAPI (magenta). (**A, B**) Head sections: *Pax3* expression is present in the neural tube (rhombencephalon) of both control and SB (yellow arrowheads). (**C, D**) Lower body: Pax3 expression is present in the spinal region of control (yellow arrowheads), but it is not detectable in the SB section, consistent with lower body *Pax3* knockout. (**E**) The four genotypes resulting from the mating in Figure 1A, with % values from 10 litters, and number of embryos with normal or SB phenotypes. Note the exclusive occurrence and full penetrance of SB in *Cdx2^{cre};Pax3^{flfl}* embryos. Overall genotype ratios do not differ significantly from Mendelian expectation ($p > 0.05$). Scale bar = 500 µm for A-D.

Figure 3

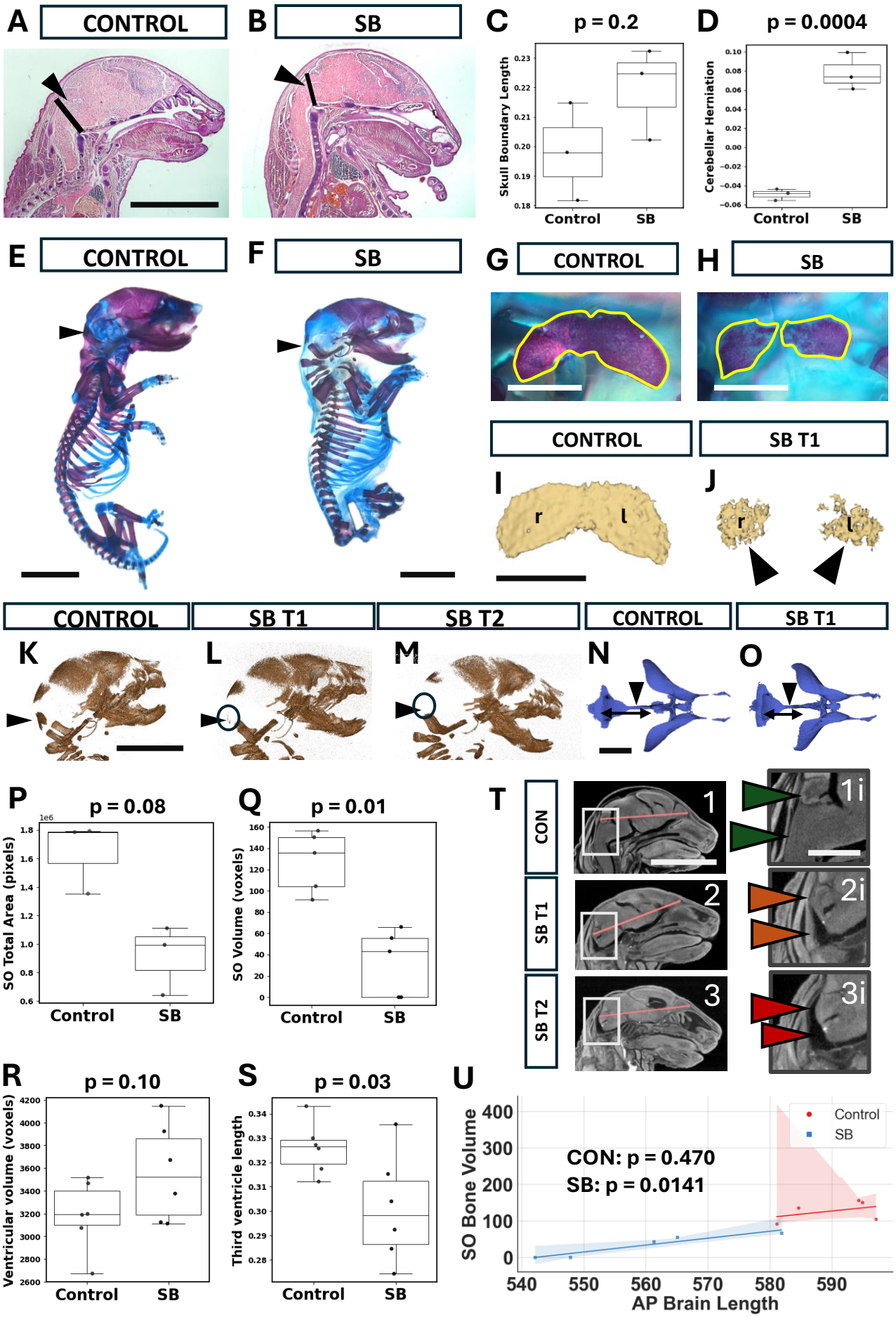

A
CONTROL
B
SB
C
p = 0.2
Skull Boundary Length
Control
SB
D
p = 0.0004
Cerebellar Herniation
Control
SB
E
CONTROL
F
SB
G
CONTROL
H
SB
CONTROL
SB T1
I
r
l
J
r
l
CONTROL
SB T1
SB T2
CONTROL
SB T1
K
L
M
N
O
P
p = 0.08
SO Total Area (pixels)
Control
SB
Q
p = 0.01
SO Volume (voxels)
Control
SB
T
CON
SB T1
SB T2
1
2
3
1i
2i
3i
R
p = 0.10
Ventricular volume (voxels)
Control
SB
S
p = 0.03
Third ventricle length
Control
SB
U
SO Bone Volume
AP Brain Length
Control
SB
CON: p = 0.470
SB: p = 0.0141

Figure 3: Hindbrain herniation and supra-occipital (SO) bone formation.

(A, B) H&E stain of head sagittal sections at E18.5. A line was drawn from the parietal bone to skull base (purple tissue, black line), and taken as the boundary between skull and spinal region at this stage. Distances between the cerebellum (black arrowhead) and the line were measured: below/caudal to the line = negative values; above/rostral = positive values. The cerebellum in SB is located below the line (B), indicating a herniation.

(**C, D**) Boxplots showing comparisons between control and SB (images as in A, B) for length of the boundary line between skull and spinal region (C) and cerebellar position relative to the boundary (D). Values were normalised to head A-P length. Boundary length does not differ (Mann-Whitney U Test: $p = 0.1763$) between control ($n = 3$, mean: 0.1981, SD: 0.0166) and SB ($n = 3$, mean: 0.2197, SD: 0.0157). Cerebellar position is significantly more negative (Welch's t-test: $p = 0.0004$) in SB ($n = 3$, mean: 0.0779, SD: 0.0194) than control ($n = 3$, mean: -0.0490, SD: 0.0060).

(**E, F**) Right-sided views of alizarin red (bone) and alcian blue (cartilage) stained skeletal tissues in control and SB at E18.5. Black arrowheads indicate the region of the SO bone. Scale bars = 5 mm.

(**G-J**) Dorsal views of SO bone in control and SB skull preparations (G, H) and after mcroCT 3D-reconstruction (I, J). Alizarin red-stained bone is outlined in yellow for clarity. SB T1 indicates condition in which SO is present but reduced in size (arrowheads in J). r: right; l: left. Scale bars = 0.5 mm.

(**K-M**) 3D-microCT reconstructions of the cranium in control, SB T1 (SO present) and SB T2 (SO absent) at E18.5. Black arrows indicate the region where the SO bone is usually found, although markedly reduced or absent in SB (black circles). Scale bar = 5 mm.

(**N, O**) 3D-microCT reconstructions of 4th, 3rd and lateral ventricles (left to right) in control and SB T1 embryos. Black arrow heads point to 3rd ventricles, with double headed arrow indicating the 4th to 3rd length of these regions, which is reduced in SB. Scale bar = 2 mm.

(**P-S**) Boxplots showing comparisons (E18.5) of total SO stained area from skeletal preparations (P), and SO volumes (Q), ventricular volumes (R) and 3rd to 4th ventricle lengths (S) from 3D-microCT skull/brain reconstructions. SO stained area (P) shows a statistically non-significant trend towards reduction in SB (Mann-Whitney U: 9.0, $p = 0.08$). SO volume (Q) is significantly reduced in SB (Welch's t-test: 5.014, $p = 0.001$), as is 3rd to 4th ventricle length (S) (Welch's t-test: 2.47, $p = 0.03$), whereas ventricular volume (R) does not differ significantly between control and SB (Welch's t-test: -1.74, $p = 0.1$).

(**T**) MicroCT sagittal cranial soft tissue images showing morphological variation in contact between cerebellum/hindbrain and the SO bone region. (1i-3i) Traffic light system of arrow colours indicates increasing distance between the cerebellum and/or hindbrain and SO bone region in controls, SB T1 and SB T2 embryos. This results in SB T2 embryos exhibiting no contact between brain and SO bone region. Scale bars = 5 mm in 1-3; 2 mm in 1i-3i.

(**U**) Relationship between A-P brain length and SO bone volume in control ($n = 5$, mean: 590.40 SD: ± 7.08) and SB ($n = 5$, mean: 559.64, SD: ± 15.62) at E18.5. A linear correlation exists in SB heads ($R^2 = 0.89$; $p = 0.014$), but not in control ($R^2 = 0.18$; $p = 0.47$), with SB showing significantly shorter brains and smaller SO bone volumes (Welch's t-test: 4.01, $p = 0.0082$).

Figure 4

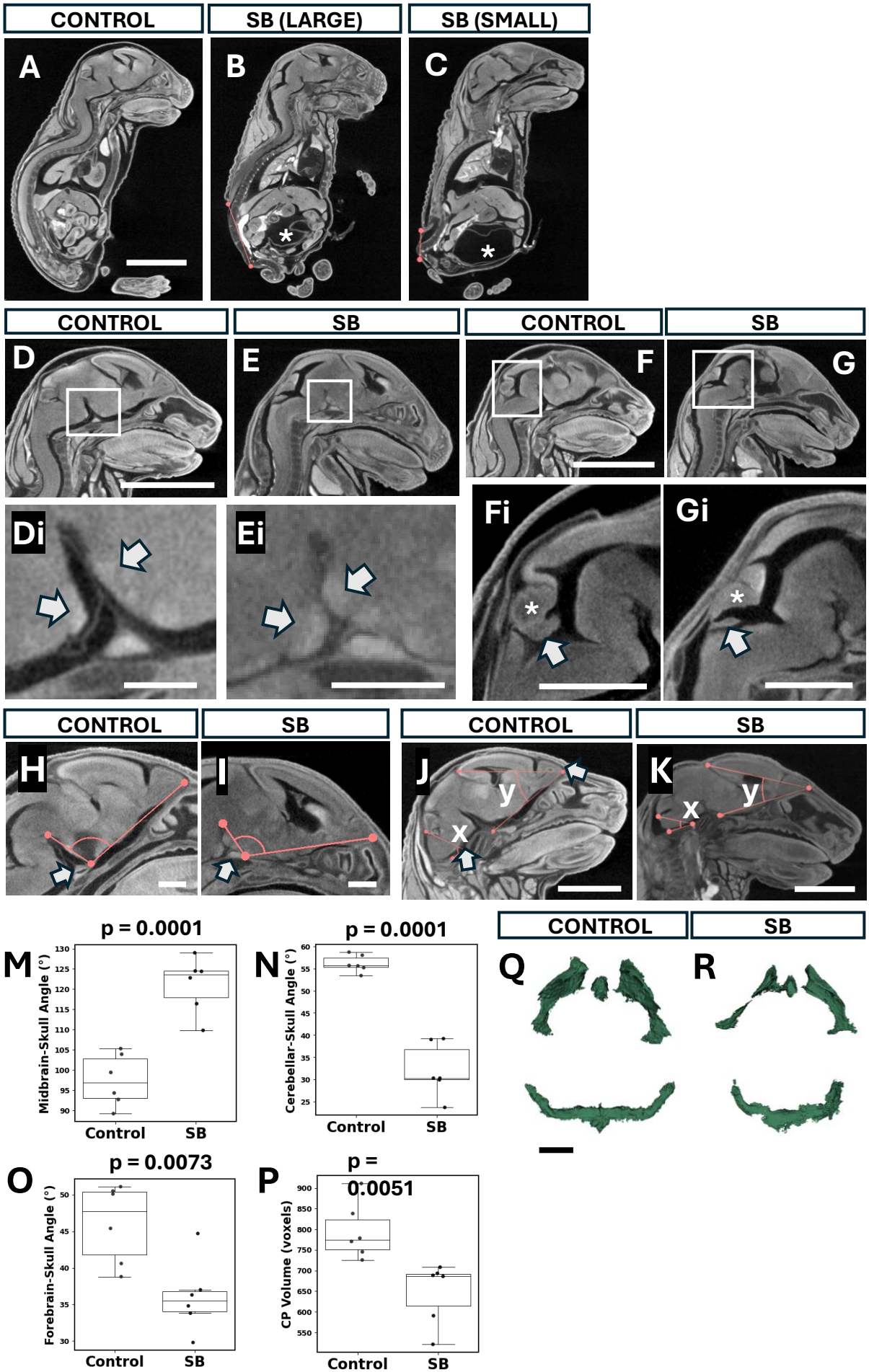

CONTROL
SB (LARGE)
SB (SMALL)
A
B
C
CONTROL
SB
CONTROL
SB
D
E
F
G
Di
Ei
Fi
Gi
CONTROL
SB
CONTROL
SB
H
I
J
K
y
x
y
x
p = 0.0001
M
Midbrain-Skull Angle (°)
Control
SB
p = 0.0001
N
Cerebellar-Skull Angle (°)
Control
SB
CONTROL
SB
Q
R
p = 0.0073
O
Forebrain-Skull Angle (°)
Control
SB
p = 0.0051
P
CP Volume (voxels)
Control
SB

Figure 4: Global signs of brain displacement in open SB at E18.5.

(**A-C)** Sagittal microCT images of control (A) and SB fetuses (B, C). Red dot connectors indicate the extent of the SB lesion, which varies from large (B) to small (C). White asterisks indicate a full bladder which was present in all SB fetuses, but not in controls (n = 5 of each). Scale bar = 5 mm.

(**D-Gi**) Sagittal microCT images of control (D, F) and SB heads (E, G).Boxed areas are magnified in (D, E) showing significant overlap of pons and hypothalamus in SB but not in control (left and right arrows in Di, Ei). Magnifications of boxed areas in (F, G) show a flattened cerebellum (asterisk) and choroid plexus (arrow) in SB compared with control. Scale bars = 5 mm in D, E and F, G; 1 mm in Di, Ei; 2 mm in Fi, Gi.

(**H, I**) Sagittal microCT images showing angle between midbrain and plane of base of forebrain. SB shows midbrain displacement dorsally, as indicated by larger angle in (I) compared with control (H). White arrows indicate landmark used for angle normalisation. Scale bars = 1 mm.

(**J, K**) Sagittal images to illustrate forebrain “collapse” (y angle) and cerebellar herniation (x angle) which are both greater in SB than control brains. White arrow indicates skull base landmark used for angle normalisation. Scale bars = 3 mm.

(**M-O**) Box plots showing angle data from images in (H-K). Midbrain-skull angle (M: from H, I) is significantly greater in SB than control (Welch’s t-test: -6.15, p = 0.0001) as is cerebellar-skull base angle (N: angle x in J, K) (Welch’s t-test: 9.34, p = 0.0001). Forebrain-skull base angle (O: angle y in J, K) is significantly smaller in SB (Welch’s t-test: 3.36, p = 0.0073).

(**P-R**) Segmented and 3D-reconstructed choroid plexus (CP) from microCT scans: dorsal views with anterior upwards and posterior downwards (Q, R). Quantification (P) shows significant decrease in SB (Mann-Whitney U test: 36.00, p = 0.0051). Scale bar = 1 mm in Q, R.

Figure 5

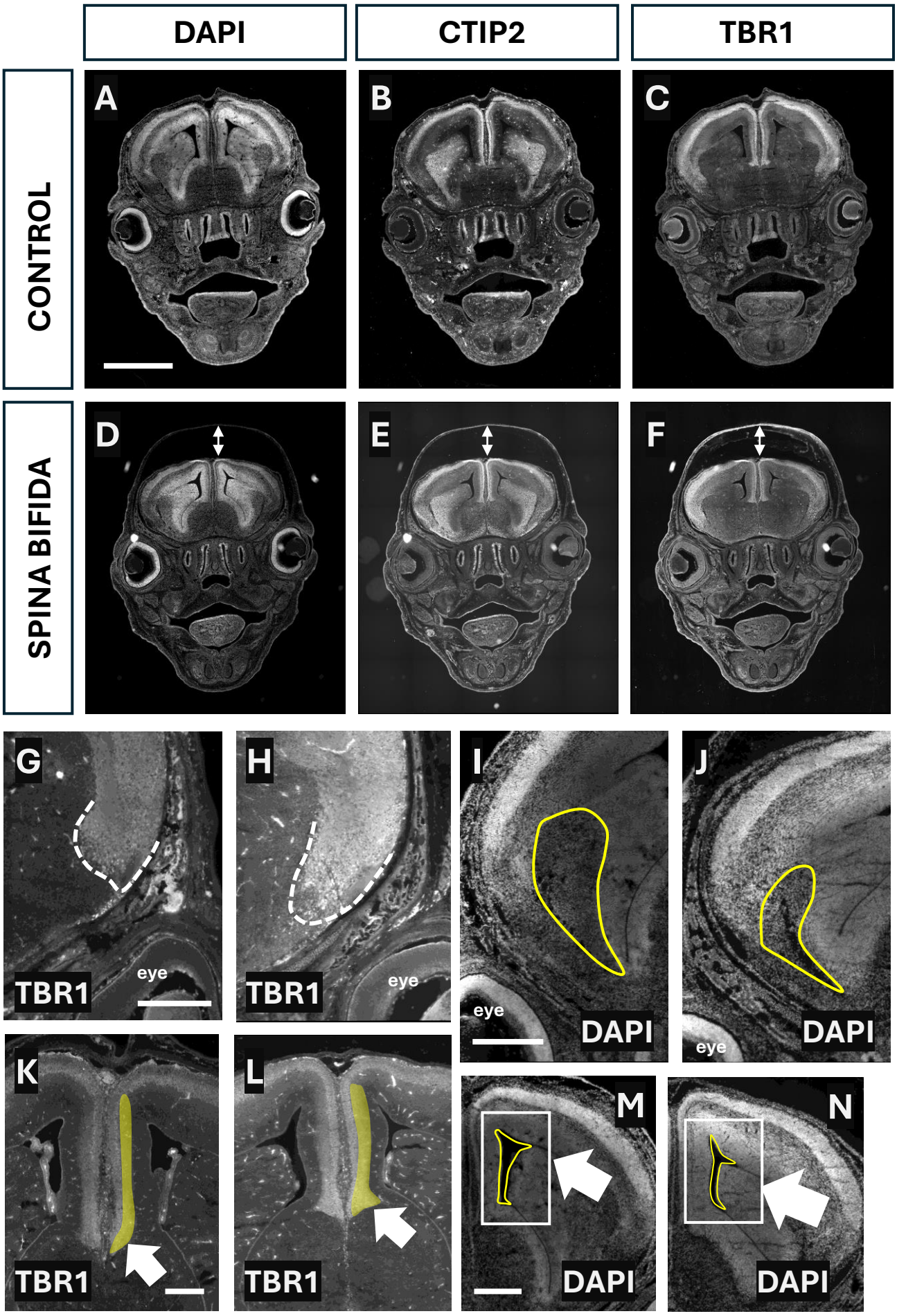

DAPI
CTIP2
TBR1
CONTROL
SPINA BIFIDA
A
B
C
D
E
F
G
H
I
J
K
L
M
N
TBR1
eye
DAPI

Figure 5: Supratentorial defects in SB brains at E15.5

(**A, F**) Coronal sections of control and SB brains, immunostained for CTIP2 and TBR1 with DAPI counterstain. Note the dorsoventrally ‘compressed’ brain in SB (double-headed arrows). Scale bar = 1 mm.

(**G-N**) Sections stained with TBR1 and DAPI showing various abnormalities in SB brains compared with control. At the level of the medial and lateral ganglionic eminences (G, H), a trailing edge of cells (dashed lines) suggests a delay in tangential neuronal migration towards the cortex. The developing amygdala (I, J) appears smaller in SB embryos (yellow outline). Probst bundles (K, L) lateral to the interhemispheric fissure (yellow highlight) indicate callosal hypogenesis. Lateral ventricles (M, N) appear smaller in SB (yellow outline). Scale bars = 500 µm.

Figure 6

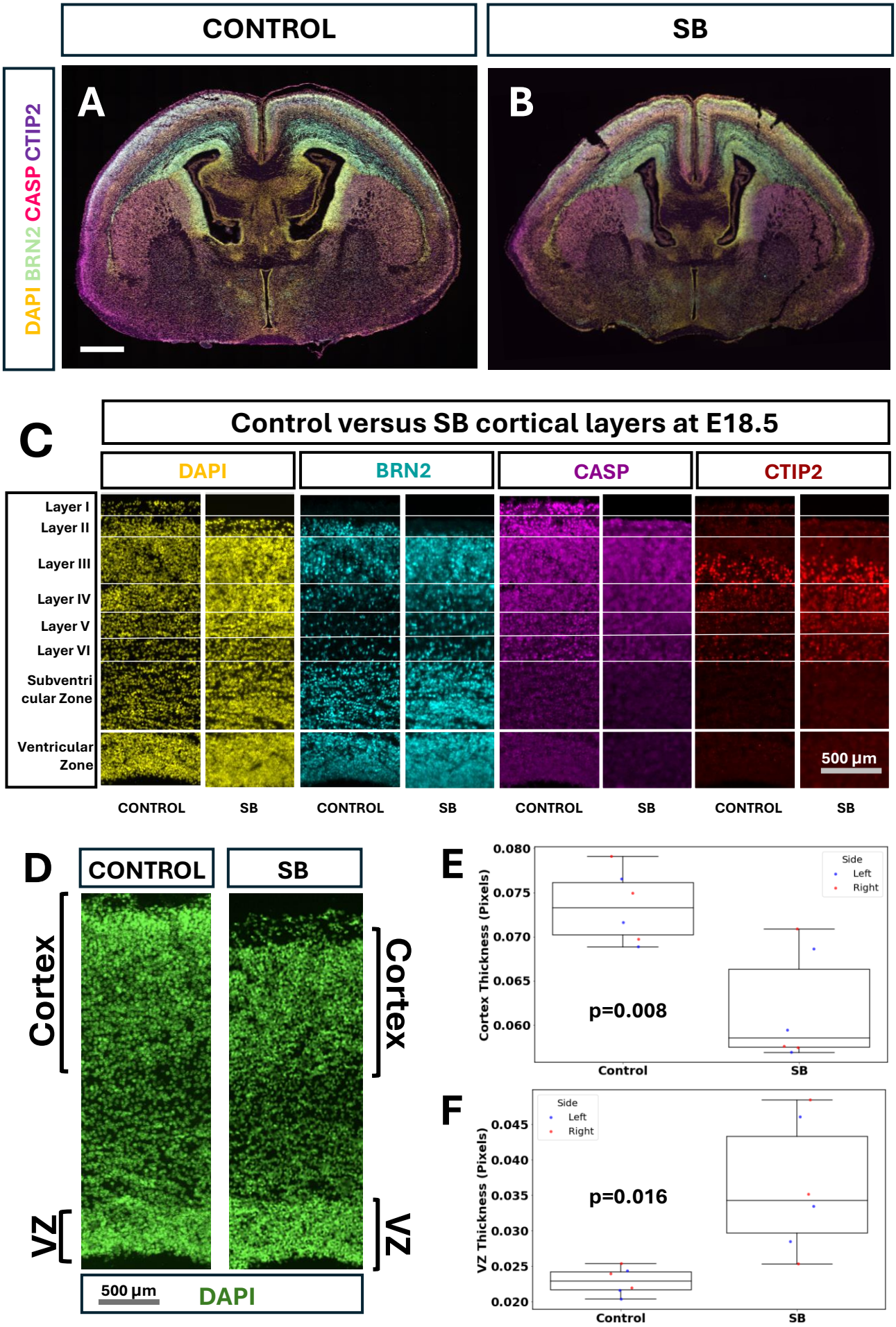

CONTROL
SB
DAPI BRN2 CASP CTIP2
A
B
C
Control versus SB cortical layers at E18.5
DAPI
BRN2
CASP
CTIP2
Layer I
Layer II
Layer III
Layer IV
Layer V
Layer VI
Subventricular Zone
Ventricular Zone
500 µm
CONTROL
SB
CONTROL
SB
CONTROL
SB
CONTROL
SB
D
CONTROL
SB
Cortex
Cortex
VZ
VZ
500 µm
DAPI
E
Cortex Thickness (Pixels)
0.080
0.075
0.070
0.065
0.060
Side
Left
Right
p=0.008
Control
SB
F
VZ Thickness (Pixels)
0.045
0.040
0.035
0.030
0.025
0.020
Side
Left
Right
p=0.016
Control
SB

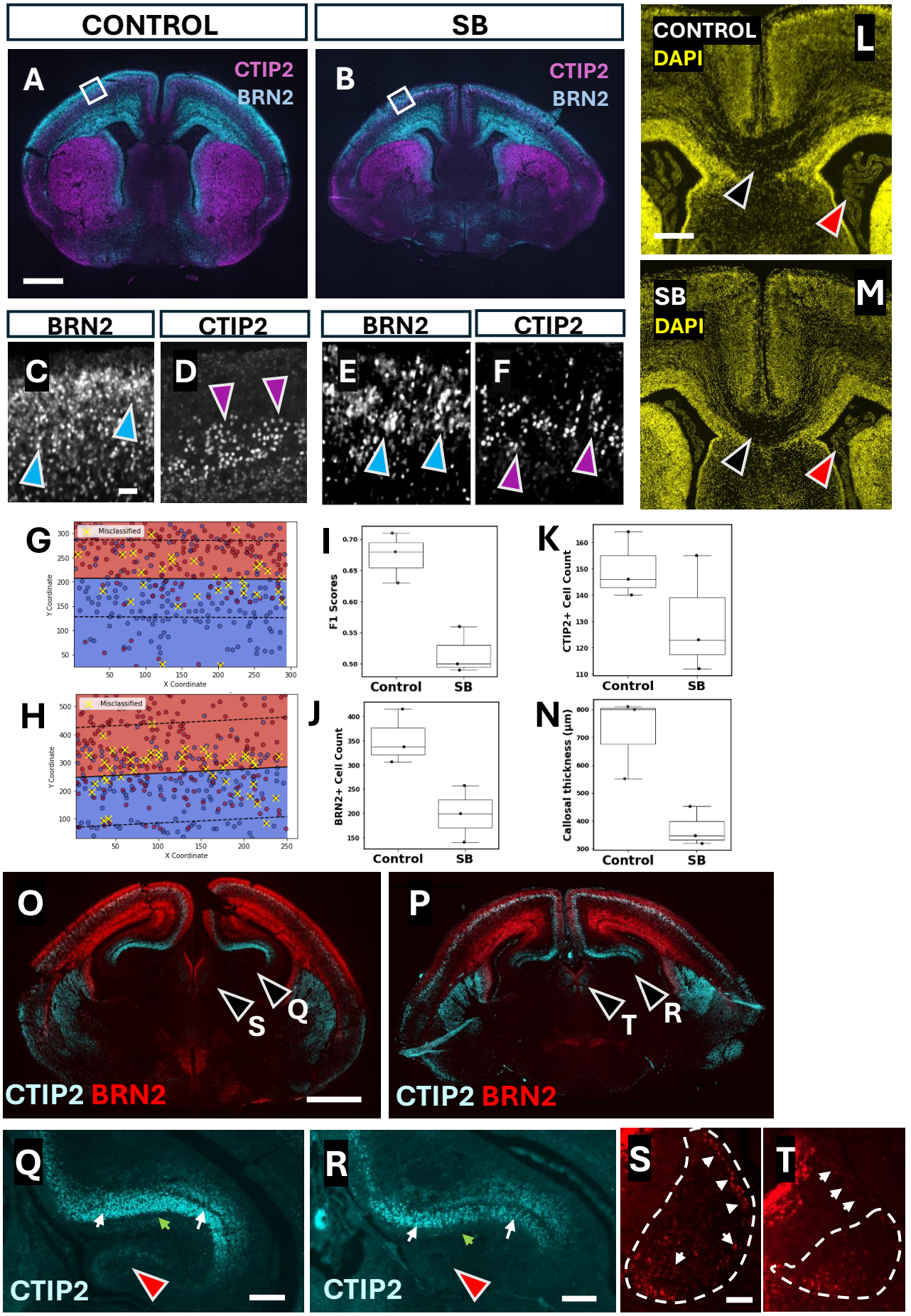
Figure 6: Cortical layering anomalies at E18.5 in SB

(**A, B**) Representative coronal sections of control and SB brains at forebrain level, with immunohistochemistry for BRN2, CASP and CTIP2, and counterstaining with DAPI. Scale bar = 1 mm.

(**C**) Comparison of cortical layering (inside/apical = bottom; outside/basal = top) in control and SB (n = 3 per group), immunostained as in (A, B). White grid lines indicate layer boundaries, as guided by control samples. SB cortices show apico-basal reduction in overall thickness whereas the SB ventricular zone (VZ) is relatively thickened. Scale bar = 500 µm.

(**D-F**) Comparison of relative cortical and VZ thickness in control and SB sections with DAPI staining (D). Brackets indicate regions, based on nuclear density, considered as cortex and VZ for quantification. Scale bar = 500 µm. Cortical and VZ thickness measurements were obtained from left and right sides of n = 3 brains each for control and SB, with normalisation to total brain length. Two-Way ANOVA shows that cortical thickness (E) is significantly greater in control than SB ($p = 0.008$) whereas left and right sides do not differ significantly ($p = 0.71$). In contrast, VZ thickness (F) is significantly greater in SB brains ($p = 0.016$) with no significant difference between left and right sides ($p = 0.83$).

Figure 7


CONTROL
SB
A
CTIP2
BRN2
B
CTIP2
BRN2
CONTROL
DAPI
L
SB
DAPI
M
BRN2
CTIP2
BRN2
CTIP2
C
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H
Misclassified
Y Coordinate
X Coordinate
I
F1 Scores
Control
SB
J
BRN2+ Cell Count
Control
SB
K
CTIP2+ Cell Count
Control
SB
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Callosal thickness (µm)
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SB
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CTIP2 BRN2
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CTIP2
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T

Figure 7: Neuronal heterotopia and agenesis in supratentorial structures

(**A-F**) Representative coronal sections through the forebrain of control (A) and SB (B) at E18.5, immunostained with CTIP2 (magenta) and BRN2 (blue). Higher magnification (C-F) of boxed areas in (A, B) show binarised BRN2+ (blue arrowheads) and CTIP2+ neurons (magenta arrowheads). There is greater mixing of CTIP2+ and BRN2+ neurons in SB than control. Scale bars: A, B = 1 mm; C-F = 100 µm.

(**G, H**) Representative plots illustrating the decision-boundary learned by the linear SVM in control (G) and SB (H) cerebral cortex (see Methods). The boundary line, along with its parallel margins (dotted lines), is plotted over a mesh spanning the observed X-Y space. Each data point is coloured according to its original class label (BRN2 (red) and CTIP2 (blue)). Points highlighted in yellow are the misclassified instances.

(**I**) F1 accuracy scores from the SVM analysis of control and SB (n = 3 for each) showing significantly lower scores in SB than control (Student's t-test: 4.9, p = 0.008), confirming that the two neuronal populations overlap more extensively in SB.

(**J, K**) Comparison of BRN2+ (J) and CTIP2+ (K) cell counts in the cortex between control (n = 3, mean: 352.67, SD: 56.16) and SB (n = 3, mean: 198.67, SD: 58.50). BRN2+ cells are significantly less abundant in SB than control (Student's t-test: 3.29, p = 0.03), whereas CTIP2+ cell number does not differ significantly (Student's t-test: 1.35, p = 0.25).

(**L-N**) DAPI staining of coronal sections midway through the forebrain in control (L) and SB (M). Black arrowheads point to the corpus callosum, which appears thinner in SB. Red arrowheads point to choroid plexus of the lateral ventricles, which appears less convoluted and with a smaller area in SB. Scale bar = 500 µm. Quantification shows significantly reduced callosal thickness (N) in SB compared with control (Student's t-test: 3.71, p = 0.021). See Figure 4P for quantification of choroid plexus volumes.

(**O-T**) Coronal sections through control (O, Q, S) and SB (P, R, T) forebrain-midbrain regions, immunostained for CTIP2 and BRN2. Magnified views of hippocampus (Q, R) reveal lack of CTIP2+ cells in the dentate gyrus (red arrow in R) and fewer C2 and C3 cells (white and green arrows in R) in SB compared with control. Magnified habenula views (S, T) show a reduced overall area of BRN2+ cells (dashed lines), with few in a dorsolateral position (white arrowheads in T) and abnormally located cells in the ventromedial habenula. Scale bars: O, P = 1 mm; Q-T = 200 µm.

Table 1: Brain related anomalies in Chiari II in humans

Region	Chiari II description
Cerebellar Vermis and 4th Ventricle	Downward displacement, peg-like shape (Chiari, 1891)
Cisterna magna	Absent, producing "banana sign" (Van den Hof, 1990)
Cerebellum	Folia shallow or absent (Wolpert, 1987), heterotopia, (Paschereit et al, 2022)
Tentorium cerebelli	Dysplastic (Peach, 1965), low lying (Gardner
Cortex	Reduced thickness, heterotopia, smaller occipital surface areas (Gilbert, 1986; Juranek et al, 2008),
White matter	Total significantly reduced (Juranek et al, 2008)
Ependyma	Denudation and rosettes (Paschereit et al, 2022)
Global neuronal nuclei	Varied heterotopia only present in SBA not in SBO (Paschereit et al, 2022)
Corpus Callosum	Anomalies/partial agenesis (Paschereit et al, 2022; Masse et al, 2023), hypoplasia (splenium and truncus affected most frequently) (Schneider et al, 2021)
Pons	Hypoplastic (Schneider et al, 2021)
Meninges	Dysplasia of subarachnoid space (Paschereit et al, 2022)
Ventricular system	Hydrocephalus, aqueductal stenosis (Paschereit et al, 2022), ventriculomegaly (Nagaraj et al, 2017), enlarged lateral ventricles prenatally (Masse et al, 2023)
Mesencephalon	Hypoplastic (Schneider et al, 2021)
Gyri	Stenogyria (Schneider et al, 2021; Paschereit et al, 2022), polymicrogyria (Bekiesinska-Figatowska et al, 2014)
Medulla	Medullary kinking (Schneider et al, 2021)
Tectum	Tectal Beaking (Peach et al, 1965; Nagaraj et al, 2017)
Colliculus	Collicular fusion (Nagaraj et al, 2017)
Massa Intermedia	Enlargement (Gooding et al, 1967)
Habenular Commissure	Elongation (Gooding et al, 1967)
Pineal Gland	Elongation (Gooding et al, 1967)
Periventricular zone	Nodular heterotopia (Hino-Shishikura et al, 2012)
Cranial Nerves	Hypoplasia (Tubbs and Oakes, 2013)
Foetal proliferative zones (Ventricular and Subventricular)	Larger volumes (Masse et al, 2023)
Diencephalon (foetal)	Decreased volume (Masse et al, 2023)