Parallel organization of cerebellar pathways to sensorimotor, associative, and modulatory forebrain

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Abstract

Cerebellar outputs take multisynaptic paths to reach higher brain areas, impeding tracing

efforts. Here we quantify pathways between cerebellum and contralateral

thalamic/corticostriatal structures using the anterograde transsynaptic tracer herpes

simplex virus type 1 (H129), the retrograde tracer pseudorabies virus (Bartha), adeno-

associated virus, and a whole-brain pipeline for neuron-level analysis using light-sheet

microscopy. In ascending pathways, sensorimotor regions contained the most labeled

neurons, but higher densities were found in associative areas, including orbital, anterior

cingulate, prelimbic, and infralimbic cortex. Ascending paths passed through most

thalamic nuclei, especially ventral posteromedial and lateral posterior (sensorimotor),

mediodorsal (associative), and reticular (modulatory) nuclei. Retrograde tracing revealed

descending paths originating largely from somatomotor cortex. Patterns of ascending

influence correlated with anatomical pathway strengths, as measured by brainwide

mapping of c-Fos responses to optogenetic inhibition of Purkinje cells. Our results

reveal parallel functional networks linking cerebellum to forebrain and suggest that

cerebellum uses sensory-motor information to guide both movement and nonmotor

functions.

INTRODUCTION

The cerebellum has an increasingly recognized role in nonmotor processing[1–3]. Patients

with cerebellar damage show multiple cognitive and affective symptoms[1], and damage at birth

leads to autism spectrum disorder (ASD) in half of cases[4–6]. These observations suggest a

broad role for the cerebellum in nonmotor function during development and adulthood.

However, the pathways that mediate these influences are poorly characterized. Of

particular interest is the cerebellum's partnership with neocortex, especially in cognitive

domains[7], as these two structures are the second-largest and largest divisions, respectively, of

most mammalian brains[8]. The major descending corticocerebellar pathway passes through the

pons and the majority of returning ascending fibers pass through the thalamus[9,10], comprising

two massive within-brain long-distance pathways[11]. Other polysynaptic pathways exist between

the cerebellum and neocortex, including a smaller ascending pathway through ventral tegmental

area that has attracted recent interest[12]. These descending and ascending pathways are

suggested to form closed loops[13], giving each cerebellar region one or more specific neocortical

partners with which it exchanges information.

This picture lacks critical information: the identity of those distant regions, which have

been difficult to map. Given the brain-wide nature of cerebello-cortical pathways, researchers

have used large-scale approaches to examine the functional significance of these pathways.

Transcranial magnetic stimulation in humans demonstrated that the cerebellum influences

neocortical excitability[14], including cognitive and affective circuits[15]. Functional MRI can attain

subcentimeter resolution, detect long-distance correlations[16], and when coupled with cerebellar

stimulation, demonstrate causal relationships[17]. Functional imaging at cellular resolution in

nonhuman animals has been made possible by visualizing c-Fos, an immediate-early gene

product whose expression is regulated by neural activity. Although useful in demonstrating

communication with distant brain regions, these methods do not provide cellular-resolution

information about cerebello-cortical circuits.

Pathways entering and exiting the cerebellum pass through synapses in the brainstem

and the cerebellum itself, blocking the passage of most cellular tracer molecules. However, this

problem can be overcome using transsynaptically transported viruses[18]. The H129 strain of

herpes simplex virus type 1 (HSV-H129) is a reliable, largely anterograde tracer that can identify

long-distance targets of specific brain regions. For retrograde tracing, the Bartha strain of

pseudorabies virus (PRV-Bartha) allows efficient, synapse-specific transport. Thus recent

molecular technology opens a means of mapping the cerebellum to its brainwide information-

processing partners.

A circuit-level understanding of cerebello-cortical connectivity is needed to better probe

how abnormalities can lead to neurocognitive disorders like ASD. Viral tracing and cellular

activity measurements enable cellular-level dissection of cerebello-cortical pathways, but

conventional histological methods are too laborious for quantifying connectivity in the whole

brain at once. But with the recent advent of optimized tissue clearing techniques with light-sheet

microscopy[19], the same tracing methods can now be scaled to cover entire brains. The resulting

imaging datasets can occupy terabytes, creating a need for computationally efficient cell

detection and anatomical assignment. These challenges can be addressed using machine

learning algorithms to detect neurons and image registration methods to align brains. For the

cerebellum, an additional problem is the absence of a reference template: the current field

standard, the Allen Brain Atlas, omits the posterior two-thirds of the cerebellum. Any integrative

study of cerebellar anatomy and function must therefore start with the creation of a suitable

atlas.

In this project, we used HSV-H129 to map the cerebellum's direct ascending outputs to

the thalamus and striatum and disynaptic paths to the neocortex, and PRV-Bartha to map

descending paths from neocortex to cerebellum. We then used these measurements to

generate a brainwide atlas of cerebellum-forebrain connectivity. We developed an analysis

pipeline that allows per-region cell counts to be converted from cell counts to per-volume cell

density, giving a measure of relative impact on local circuitry. The impact of ascending paths

was confirmed using optogenetic stimulation of c-Fos expression. All measurements were

referred to a whole-brain atlas that includes the entire cerebellum. Taken together, our results

provide a brainwide map of the cerebellum's paths to and from thalamo-cortical-striatal systems,

providing insight into possible cerebellar contributions to whole-brain function and

neurocognitive disorders.

 RESULTS

 Transsynaptic viral labeling reveals distant cerebellar targets

To trace transsynaptic pathways from cerebellum to midbrain and neocortex, we used

HSV-H129-VC22 (**Figure 1a**), an HSV-H129 recombinant virus that expresses enhanced green

fluorescent protein (EGFP) targeted by means of a localization sequence to the cell nucleus.

Transsynaptic viral tracing yields weaker labeling of cells compared with longer-expression-time

strategies such as AAV-driven fluorophore expression. To achieve high signal-to-noise ratio, we

used iDISCO+, a method that combines tissue clearing with whole-brain immunostaining using

Dako anti-HSV antibody with light-sheet microscopy.

To determine the optimal timepoints for examining disynaptic (i.e. Purkinje cell to deep

nuclear to thalamic) and trisynaptic (Purkinje cell to deep nuclear to thalamic to neocortical)

targets, we injected H129-VC22 into the cerebellar cortex of mice and examined tissue between

30 and 89 hours post-injection (hpi; **Figure 1b,c**). At 54 hpi, labeling was observed in thalamus

with little visible neocortical labeling (**Figure 1c,d**), so we defined 54 hpi as the thalamic

timepoint. Labeling was also seen in other midbrain and hindbrain areas, consistent with known

monosynaptic targets of the cerebellar nuclei[20]. Neocortical labeling was visible first at 73 hours

and throughout neocortex at 82 hpi. These timepoints are consistent with prior studies using

conventional histological methods[2,12].

 Automated cell detection using a convolutional neural network

Each brain generated a dataset exceeding 100 gigabytes. To automate cell detection,

we trained a three-dimensional convolutional neural network (CNN) to recognize neurons. A

CNN with U-Net architecture running on a GPU-based cluster was trained by supervised

learning using more than 3600 human-annotated centers of cells as ground truth (**Figure 1e**;

Table 1). The performance at different likelihood thresholds was plotted as a receiver-operator

curve of precision and recall (**Figure 1f**), where precision was defined as the number of true

positives divided by all positives, and recall was defined as the number of true positives divided

by the number of true positives plus false negatives. A threshold likelihood of 0.6 was found to

maximize the harmonic mean of precision and recall, a quantity known as the F1 score.

Querying the CNN with the testing dataset gave an F1 score of 0.864, nearly the F1 score for

human-human concordance, 0.891, indicating that the CNN had successfully generalized to

whole-brain datasets.

Generation of the Princeton Mouse Atlas

To overcome past difficulties in registering images taken using different modalities, we

devised a two-step procedure to calculate an averaged light-sheet-based brain template for

referral to the Allen Brain Atlas (**Figure 2**). After this procedure, individual light-sheet brains

were fitted to this template. The Allen Brain volumetric Atlas (ABA), a field standard, is based on

serial two-photon microscopy and lacks a complete cerebellum (**Figure 2a**). To remedy that lack

and to generate a template useful for our light-sheet images, we constructed a Princeton Mouse

brain Atlas (PMA; **Supplementary Figure 1**). To make the PMA compatible with Allen

standards, we computed a transform to convert it to Allen Brain CCFv3 space (**Figure 2b**). We

then extended the space using manually-drawn contours to generate a complete, annotated

cerebellar anatomy (**Figure 2c,d**) that included posterior lobules (**Figure 2c,d** red lines;

Supplementary Figure 2).

To quantify the precision of atlas registration, we asked blinded users to find readily

identifiable points in our atlas and in four sets of unregistered, affine-only registered, and fully

registered volumes (**Figure 2b**; **Supplementary Figure 3**). After registration, the median

Euclidean distance from complementary points in the PMA was 93 ± 36 μm (median ±

estimated standard deviation) to b-spline registered volumes. Blinded users determined points

in the same volume twice to establish an intrinsic minimum limit of 49 ± 40 μm. Assuming that

uncertainties sum as independent variables, the estimated accuracy of the registration method

was $\sqrt{(93^2\text{-}49^2)}$ = 79 μm, or 4 voxels.

Cerebellar paths to ventral tegmental area are weaker than thalamic projections

Among other monosynaptic targets of the cerebellar nuclei, an area of renewed focus

has been the ventral tegmental area (VTA)[26,27], including a recent report of cerebellar influence

over reward processing[12]. We used our anterograde tracing pipeline to compare the relative

projection strengths of contralateral cerebellar paths to thalamus and two midbrain

dopaminergic areas, VTA and the substantia nigra (**Supplementary Figure 4**). We found that

the total number of neurons in contralateral VTA[28] was considerably lower than in thalamic

regions, consistent with known tracing[12,20,21,27]. Normalized to density per unit volume of the

target region, VTA projections were less than one-third as strong as projections to VPM, MD,

and RTN. Neuron densities in substantia nigra (SNr and SNc) were mostly lower than in VTA. In

summary, cerebellar projections to VTA constituted a moderate-strength projection, smaller in

strength than thalamic pathways but greater than other dopaminergic targets.

Like the VTA, striatal regions are also involved in reward learning. The cerebellar cortex

is known to project to basal ganglia trisynaptically via the cerebellar nuclei and thalamus[29].

Among striatal regions, at our neocortical labeling timepoint, we observed the most labeling in

the caudate followed by the nucleus accumbens and the central amygdala (**Supplementary**

Figure 5). Dense clusters of labeled cells were found in the dorsal striatum (**Supplementary**

Figure 6), suggestive of striosomes, which convey reward prediction or error information[30]. At

the neocortical timepoint we also quantified hypothalamic expression, observing high variability

in projection density, likely related to the small volumes of hypothalamic nuclei (**Supplementary**

Figure 7). We observed the most and densest labeling in the lateral hypothalamic area which

has been shown to regulate feeding and reward[31].

The cerebellum sends output to a wide range of thalamic targets

We used our automated analysis pipeline, which we named BrainPipe, to quantify

cerebello-thalamic connectivity (**Figure 3a**). We injected 23 brains with H129-VC22 at different

sites in the posterior cerebellum (**Figure 3b**) and collected brains at 54 hpi, the thalamic

timepoint. At this time, the number of neurons per region were widely distributed among

contralateral thalamic regions (**Figure 3c**). The density of neurons observed in neocortical

regions was 0.085 ± 0.073 (mean ± standard deviation, 17 regions) times that seen in 80 hpi

injections, indicating that sufficient time had elapsed to allow transport to thalamus but not

neocortex. Number of neurons by region (**Figure 3d**) were not systematically related to

anteroposterior position (rank correlation with anteroposterior position r=+0.05), suggesting that

the efficiency of labeling was not strongly dependent on differences in transport distance. For

display, the number of neurons for each region were converted to percentage of total per-brain

thalamic neurons and coded according to "sensory/motor" and "polymodal association"

functionalities based on ABA ontology (**Figure 3,** yellow/green shading).

The cerebellothalamic tract originates entirely from the deep cerebellar nuclei and

ascends through the superior cerebellar peduncle (also known as brachium conjunctivum), with

most axons crossing the midline before reaching the thalamus. Consistent with findings that a

principal target of cerebellothalamic axons is the ventral thalamus[20,21] a site of somatosensory

relay nuclei[22], we found the highest contralateral cell count in the ventral posteromedial nucleus

(VPM; **Figure 3c,d,e**), which conveys sensory information from the face and mouth. Other

structures with large number of neurons included the nearby ventromedial (VM) and ventral

posterolateral (VPL) nuclei. These findings confirm that cerebellar-injected H129-VC22 labels

major known pathways to thalamus.

Prominent labeling was also observed outside the ventral thalamus. After VPM, the

contralateral structure with the second-largest fraction of expressing cells was the reticular

thalamic nucleus (RTN), followed by the lateral posterior (LP) and mediodorsal (MD) nuclei. MD

and LP are association thalamic nuclei. MD is engaged in reversal learning[23], sends its output to

frontal regions, including insular, orbital, and prelimbic cortex[24], and is engaged in cognitive and

working memory tasks in humans[23]. Lobule VI, a site of structural abnormality in ASD[25], had

dense projections to MD (**Figure 3f,g**). These results suggest a strong role for cerebellum in

flexible cognition. LP sends its output to primary somatosensory cortex, primary and secondary

motor cortex, and frontal association area[24]. RTN, unlike other thalamic nuclei, does not project

to neocortex, instead sending inhibitory projections to other thalamic nuclei. Thus, major paths

from cerebellum to thalamus include both relay nuclei and the other two major classes of nuclei,

association (MD, LP) and local modulatory (RTN).

To identify specific topographical relationships, we fitted a generalized linear model

(GLM; **Figure 3f**), using the fraction-by-lobule of the total cerebellar injection as input

parameters, and the fraction-by-nucleus of total thalamic expression as output measurements.

The GLM revealed a broad mapping of lobules I-X to a variety of thalamic targets, and a more

focused pattern of mapping from simplex, crus I and II, paramedian lobule, and copula

pyramidis to specific thalamic targets. Hotspots of mapping included lobules I-X to VPM, RTN,

MD, lateral dorsal (LD), VM, VPL, reuniens, anteroventral, and medial habenula; simplex to

posterior complex, ventral anterolateral (VA-L), and central medial; crus I to VPM, LP, and

anteroventral; crus II to VPM, MD, posterior complex, LD, and VPL; and paramedian lobule and

copula pyramidis to LP, parafascicular, ventral lateral geniculate, and central lateral (**Table 2**).

Deep-nuclear direct projections to thalamus are consistent with transsynaptic tracing

As a second approach to characterizing cerebellar projections to thalamus, we injected adeno-associated virus containing the GFP sequence into cerebellar nuclei and characterized the spatial distribution of fluorescent nerve terminals (**Figure 4**). Injections (n=4) of 125 nl (titer 7×10^{12} vg/mL) primarily targeted bilateral dentate nuclei and also reached interposed and fastigial nuclei (**Figure 4a**). Three weeks after injection, animals were sacrificed and brains sectioned and imaged by confocal microscopy (**Figure 4b**).

Terminals were clearly visible throughout thalamic sites, largely contralateral to the site of injection. Manual counts of varicosities in twenty randomly picked 50 by 50 μm regions were strongly correlated with average brightness (r = 0.88, t = 8.115, p < .0001). Therefore we used summed brightness as a measure of total innervation. Summed brightness was defined as the total fluorescence within a nucleus, summed across all sections where the nucleus was present. Overall, the highest summed brightness was found in ventral thalamic nuclei including VM, VA-L, VPM, and VPL, consistent with previous literature reports and with the density of cells observed in HSV-H129 injections. The nucleus-by-nucleus fluorescence density (i.e. summed brightness divided by the total area covered by the nucleus in the analyzed images) was highly correlated with the HSV-H129 neuron density (**Figure 4c**; Kendall's rank correlation 0.49, p = 0.01). Taken together, these measurements indicate that HSV-H129 injections at the thalamic timepoint accurately capture the overall pattern of projection from deep nuclei to contralateral thalamus.

Cerebellar paths to neocortex are strongest in somatomotor regions and densest in frontal regions

To characterize cerebellar paths to neocortex, we examined 33 HSV-injected brains at 80 hpi (**Figure 5a,b,c**). As expected, the majority of neurons were found in contralateral

somatosensory and somatomotor areas, with additional neurons found at more anterior and

posterior locations (**Figure 5d,f**).

When converted to density, a different pattern of projection density became apparent

(**Figure 5e,g**). The highest densities of neurons were found in contralateral anterior and medial

neocortical regions, with peak regions exceeding 400 neurons per mm^3, more than twice the

highest density found in somatosensory and somatomotor regions. The most densely labeled

regions included infralimbic, orbital, and prelimbic areas but excluded the frontal pole (**Figure**

5e,g).

We fitted a GLM to the data in the same way as for thalamic labeling. Sensorimotor and

frontal regions were strongly represented in the model weights. The GLM also sharpened the

cerebellocortical topographical relationship (**Figure 5f**). All injected cerebellar sites showed high

weighting in somatomotor and somatosensory cortex. In addition, lobules I-V showed significant

weights in anterior cingulate cortex. Weak clusters of connectivity were also visible in visual and

retrosplenial cortex. Averaging neuron density by primary injection site (**Figure 5g**) revealed

that all injected cerebellar sites sent dense projections to infralimbic cortex. Lobules I-X and

crus I and II sent denser projections to infralimbic, prelimbic, and orbital cortex compared to

other cerebellar injection sites (**Figure 5g**).

Cerebellum-neocortical paths strongly innervate deep neocortical layer neurons

To investigate the layer-specific contributions of cerebellar paths to neocortex, we

examined laminar patterns of expression at the neocortical time point of H129-VC22 injections

(**Figure 6**). To minimize near-surface false positives, 60 μm was eroded from layer 1. In most

neocortical areas, the most and densest anterogradely labeled neurons were found in layers 5,

layers 6a and 6b (**Figure 6b,c**). No differences were found among the layer-specific patterns

resulting from injections to anterior vermis, posterior vermis, and posterior hemisphere (p>0.95,

ANOVA, two-tailed, 3 injection groups).

The layer-specificity of thalamocortical connections varies by neocortical region[33,34]. A

common motif of thalamocortical projections is strong innervation of layer 6 neurons, especially

in sensory regions[35,36]. In sensorimotor regions (somatomotor and somatosensory), over 40% of

our labeled cells were found in layer 6, a higher fraction than in other categories of neocortex

(**Figure 6b**). However, even though sensory regions are known to receive thalamic innervation

of layer 4 neurons[35], labeled layer 4 neurons comprised only 10% of cells in somatosensory

cortex and even less in other sensory regions (gustatory, visceral, temporal, visual). Thus

cerebellar paths to neocortex emphasized deep-layer neurons and tended to exclude classical

layer-4 targets, even in sensorimotor regions.

A different pattern was seen in rhinal cortex, which forms part of the medial temporal

system for declarative memory. Rhinal regions (perirhinal, ectorhinal, and entorhinal) had the

highest fraction of layer 2/3 neurons (**Figure 6b**). This finding recalls the observation that in

associative neocortical regions, thalamocortical axons send substantial projections to superficial

layers[36]. Frontal and other association regions showed patterns that were intermediate between

sensorimotor and rhinal regions, while infralimbic, prelimbic, orbital, and anterior cingulate

cortex also received more and denser projections to layer 1 (**Figure 6b**). Taken together, our

analysis indicates that cerebellar influences on neocortex arrive first through superficial and

deep layer pathways (**Figure 6d**).

Pseudorabies virus reveals strong descending somatomotor influence

To characterize descending paths from neocortex to the cerebellum, we performed a

series of injections of pseudorabies virus Bartha strain (PRV-Bartha), a strain that travels

entirely in the retrograde direction (**Figure 7a,b,c**). In pilot experiments, expression was strong

in neocortex at 80 hpi. To isolate layer 5 neurons, whose axons comprise the descending

corticopontine pathway, we analyzed neurons registered to deep layers, which comprised 64%

of all contralaterally labeled neocortical neurons.

Similar to the anterograde tracing results, the largest proportion of neurons was found in

somatosensory and somatomotor areas (**Figure 7d,f**). Normalized to volume, neuron densities

were highest in somatosensory, somatomotor, and frontal cortex (**Figure 7e,g**). Two regions

identified as sources of corticopontine axons by classical tracing[37] were labeled: anterior

cingulate areas from injection of lobule VI and VII, and agranular insular cortex from crus II. In

addition, retrosplenial and auditory areas were labeled from injection of paramedian lobule and

copula pyramidis.

A GLM fitted to the data by the same procedure as the HSV-H129 tracing showed

highest weighting in somatomotor, somatosensory, and frontal regions (**Figure 7f**). Weights in

retrosplenial and visual cortex were smaller for vermal injections, and weights in gustatory,

agranular insula, and visceral cortex were elevated for simplex and crus II injections. Averaging

neuron density by primary injection site revealed all injected cerebellar sites received dense

projections from somatomotor and somatosensory cortex. Lobules I-VII and crus II received

denser projections from anterior cingulate and prelimbic cortex compared to other cerebellar

injection sites. Crus II also received dense projections from infralimbic, agranular insula,

gustatory, ectorhinal, and visceral cortex.

Descending corticopontine projections are known to be largely contralateral. To test the

extent to which descending paths remain contralateral across multiple synaptic steps, we

quantified the ratio of contralateral to ipsilateral cells for PRV-Bartha injections. Contralateral

cells outnumbered ipsilateral cells in all major neocortical areas, with average contralateral-to-

ipsilateral ratios of 1.4 in frontal cortex, 1.7 in posterior cortex, and 3.2 in somatomotor and

somatosensory cortex. Contralateral-to-ipsilateral ratios were higher for hemispheric injection

sites than vermal sites (**Supplementary Table 1**).

Ascending axonal projections of cerebellar nuclei are known to largely decussate to

reach contralateral midbrain structures[38]. For H129-VC22 injections, we observed bilaterality at

both the thalamic and neocortical timepoints. At the thalamic timepoint, the mean ratio of

contralateral cells to ipsilateral cells was 2.5 in sensorimotor nuclei and 1.0 in polymodal

association nuclei. Contralateral-to-ipsilateral ratios were highest for hemispheric injection sites

(**Supplementary Table 1**). Taken together, our HSV-H129 and PRV-Bartha observations

suggest that the organization of projections between cerebellum and neocortex is most strongly

contralateral in pathways that concern movement, and more symmetrically distributed for

nonmotor paths.

c-Fos mapping reveals brainwide patterns of activation consistent with transsynaptic

tracing

The reciprocal paths we have identified suggest that cerebellum incorporates

descending information and influences forebrain processing through diverse thalamocortical

paths. To test whether the functional strength of ascending paths was commensurate with their

anatomical connection, we measured expression of the immediate early gene c-Fos after

optogenetic perturbation of cerebellar activity (**Figure 8**). c-Fos expression reflects cumulative

neural activity and provides an independent means of quantifying long-distance influence. We

expressed the hyperpolarizing proton pump ArchT in Purkinje cells by injecting rAAV1-CAG-

FLEX-ArchT-GFP into the cerebellar vermis of L7-Cre+/- mice, using L7-Cre-/- mice as controls

(**Figure 8a**). Inactivation of Purkinje cells, which inhibit neurons of the deep cerebellar nuclei,

would be expected to have a net excitatory effect on thalamic and therefore neocortical activity.

After 1 hour photostimulation over lobule VI, either in mice expressing ArchT (Cre+/-) or

in nonexpressing controls (Cre-/-), brains were removed and cleared using iDISCO+, then

immunohistochemically stained for c-Fos using AlexaFluor-790 as the fluorophore, and

analyzed using ClearMap (**Figure 8b,c**; **Supplementary Figure 8**) for comparison with HSV-

H129 tracing (**Figure 8d**).

Fourteen structures were identified having both significant count differences by a

nonparametric t-test and an activation ratio (defined as stimulation-group c-Fos average count

divided by control-group average) greater than 2.5 (**Figure 8e,f**). The strongest activation ratios

occurred in the anterior cingulate cortex, centrolateral nucleus of the thalamus, and the nucleus

accumbens (**Figure 8f**). Lobule VI itself also showed elevated c-Fos counts, as expected for

pulsed-light inactivation of Purkinje cells[32]. A voxel-wise t-test on cell count volumes

(**Supplementary Figure 9**) showed strong c-Fos expression in frontal neocortical regions,

especially in deep and middle neocortical layers. In a separate experiment, midline lobule VIa

injection of H129-VC22 into Thy1-YFP mice, which express YFP primarily in layer V, revealed

viral labeling in frontal cortex subjacent to YFP, coincident with the layer-specificity of c-Fos

expression in the optogenetic experiments.

Among neocortical regions, the rank order of c-Fos stimulation-to-control cell density

differences and H129-VC22 expression density was highly correlated (**Figure 8g**; Kendall's

τ=+0.47), indicating that brainwide patterns of neural activity coincide with patterns of ascending

polysynaptic targets from lobule VI. Subcortical examination of c-Fos brains revealed further

broad similarities in expression with H129-VC22 labeling, including pontine nuclei, midbrain,

superior colliculi, and hypothalamus (**Supplementary Figure 10; Supplementary Figure 11**).

Overall, these data show that c-Fos-based measures of brain activation coincide well with

patterns of anatomical projection as measured by transsynaptic viral labeling.

DISCUSSION

We found that ascending synaptic paths from the cerebellum can be classified into three

parallel ascending systems serving sensorimotor, flexible cognitive, and modulatory functions

(**Figure 9**). Well-known sensorimotor regions contained the most connections, but nonmotor

paths achieved comparable or higher local peak connection densities. Overall, these paths

reached nearly all parts of neocortex through a variety of thalamic, striatal, and midbrain

structures.

In both neocortex and thalamus, the majority of neurons labeled by anterograde (HSV-

H129) or retrograde (PRV-Bartha) viruses were found in structures classified as sensorimotor,

including ventral anterior (VA), ventrolateral (VL) and ventromedial (VM) thalamic nuclei[39]. By

per-volume density, the strongest ascending projections went to anterior cingulate, prelimbic

and infralimbic cortex, as well as agranular and orbital areas. In the thalamus, the three thalamic

nuclei with the most neurons were VPM (sensorimotor), reticular thalamic (modulatory), and

mediodorsal (associative), providing a substrate for a wide variety of brain functions.

Descending pathways from neocortex were most strongly concentrated in somatomotor and

somatosensory cortex. Taken together, these anatomical tracing patterns suggest that sensory-

motor information is used by cerebellum to exert influence on a wide range of motor and

nonmotor neocortical functions.

Nonmotor functions of the cerebellum. Among the cerebellar injection sites, nonmotor

functions have been suggested for lobule VI in the posterior vermis, and crus I and II in the

posterior parts of the hemispheres. We found that Lobule VI sent strong projections to

mediodorsal nucleus of thalamus and to frontal neocortical regions, which serve a wide range of

cognitive and emotional functions. Because the refinement of neural circuitry is activity-

dependent[40], this projection may also potentially account for the observation that cerebellar

perturbation of lobule VI can affect cognitive and social development in rodents[2] and humans[6],

and the association of posterior vermal abnormalities to a high risk of ASD[25]. Optogenetic

stimulation of lobule VI also led to strong activation of c-Fos in the nucleus accumbens (NAc),

the main component of the ventral striatum, which is implicated in reward learning and

motivation[41]. This observation is consistent with our observation of NAc labeling at the

neocortical timepoint of HSV anterograde tracing.

We found that crus I projects to lateral dorsal thalamus and frontal neocortical regions.

Crus I has previously been observed to be activated during working memory[43]. In mice,

disruptions of crus I activity in adulthood or juvenile life lead to deficits in adult flexible

behavior[2,44]; adult disruption shortens the time constant of a working memory task[3]. Crus II

projects to a wide variety of sensorimotor (ventral) and non-ventral thalamic nuclei. This may

provide a substrate for the observation that juvenile disruption of crus II leads to long-lasting

deficits in social preference[2].

Midline lobules (I-X) and crus II projected strongly to reticular thalamic nucleus (RTN), a

known monosynaptic target of the deep nuclei[45,46]. RTN is of functional interest because it is the

only thalamic nucleus that is inhibitory and because it sends projections exclusively within the

thalamus itself. RTN may control sensory gain[47] and the flow of information in and out of the

neocortex[48]. RTN also receives a strong descending projection from neocortical layer 6[48,49], a

site of prominent expression in our work. This descending projection completes an inhibitory

loop, and has been suggested to contribute to neocortical oscillations and synchrony[50,51]. Our

findings add cerebellum as a substantial contributor to this modulatory thalamocortical network.

A pipeline for long-distance transsynaptic mapping. Although many individual

projections within these pathways have been previously reported, our work presents a brainwide

survey of their relative strength. Polysynaptic transsynaptic tracing studies have relied on time-

consuming human identification for analysis. Tissue clearing has been used for volumetric

histological analyses, with the recent introduction of automated methods for cell identification[19].

We find that cell counting can be efficient, accurate, and scalable to the whole brain. Our

mapping project relied on our BrainPipe pipeline, which combines transsynaptic tracing, whole-

brain clearing and microscopy, automated neuron counting, and atlas registration. BrainPipe

should be scalable for larger datasets as the resolution of light-sheet microscopy improves.

Adapting BrainPipe to other experimental studies requires only a different annotated dataset to

train a new convolutional neural network to identify objects of interest. Our pipeline can run on

high-performance computing clusters, allowing for faster turnaround of results than other

analysis pipelines, such as ClearMap[19].

Our viral transsynaptic approach was designed to identify disynaptic paths from

cerebellum to thalamus and trisynaptic paths to neocortex. However, alternative paths are

possible. The fastigial nuclei have bilateral efferents to the ipsilateral brachium conjunctivum

(BC) and, via the uncinate fasciculus to the contralateral BC[11,52] and the cerebellar nuclei project

to hindbrain/midbrain targets in addition to thalamus[11,53]. Indeed, we observed contralateral

crossing of axons after AAV injections in the fastigial nucleus (**Supplementary Figure 12**). Over

long distances, where transport time is increasingly dominated by axon-associated transport

mechanisms[54], HSV-H129 may follow such alternative paths, as well as retrograde paths for

incubations of 96 hours or longer. We therefore minimized incubation periods and restricted our

analysis to contralateral projections. The correlation of the resulting observed labeling with c-

Fos activation suggests that our observations reflect major routes by which the cerebellum

influences neocortical function.

In creating our light-sheet brain atlas, we overcame the general problem of creating a

reference atlas for a different imaging modality from the ABA. Our solution consisted of three

steps: (1) align individually imaged brains to a single experimental brain serving as the initial

template, (2) average the post-aligned brains to obtain a project-specific atlas for precise

automated registration, and (3) learn the transform between the project-specific atlas and the

field standard. Our basic software package (github.com/PrincetonUniversity/pytlas) is capable of

efficiently generating atlases for other imaging modalities as well.

From local cerebellar circuitry to global brain function. The local circuitry of

cerebellum is thought to make rapid predictions about future states, which then modulate the

activity of other brain regions. In the motor domain, evidence suggests error learning through a

supervised learning process. Contextual information in this learning process comes from the

mossy fiber-granule cell pathway, and a teaching signal comes from the climbing fiber pathway.

This circuitry is homologous across cerebellar regions, with each part of the cerebellar cortex

managing a massive convergence of diverse incoming information from a distinct assortment of

distant brain regions. Purkinje cells integrate this convergence to generate subsecond

predictions converging on cerebellar and vestibular nuclei, which serve as an exit gateway for

influencing target brain regions[11]. The cerebellum may generate predictions to fine-tune activity

across nonmotor functions as well[3,6,55] as it is composed of many modules, each with its own

specific extracerebellar partners[56].

In this work, we mapped the efferent paths that convey cerebellar ascending output to

show that nearly every neocortical region is potentially influenced by cerebellar processing. To

complete the picture, it will be necessary to perform similar mapping of inputs to the cerebellum.

Increasingly sophisticated genetic and viral methods make it possible to trace polysynaptic input

streams separately through the pons and the inferior olive[11]. It is also possible to perturb and

monitor both input and output pathways with high precision. Such approaches will reveal the

many contributions of cerebellum to global brain function.

METHODS

OVERVIEW OF AUTOMATED PIPELINE FOR TRANSSYNAPTIC TRACING

In order to identify and quantify cerebellar connectivity on the long distance scale, we developed

a pipeline, BrainPipe, to enable automated detection of transsynaptically labeled neurons using

the mostly anterogradely-transported HSV-H129[57], identifying cerebellar output targets, and

retrogradely-transported PRV-Bartha[58], identifying the descending corticopontine pathway,

comprised mostly of layer V pyramidal neurons[59]. Mouse brains with cerebellar cortical

injections of Bartha or H129 were cleared using iDISCO+. We then imaged the brains using

light-sheet microscopy, generating brain volumes with a custom Python package. Next, to

ensure accurate anatomical identification across brains, we created a local light-sheet template,

the Princeton Mouse Brain Atlas (PMA) and quantified registration performance of individual

volumes to the local template. We then determined the transform between the PMA and the

Allen Brain Atlas, enabling standardization of our results with the current field standard. Next, to

automatically and accurately detect labeled cells, we developed a convolutional neural network

whose performance approached that of human classifiers.

ANIMAL EXPERIMENTATION

Experimental procedures were approved by the Princeton University Institutional Animal Care

and Use Committee (protocol number 1943-19) and performed in accordance with the animal

welfare guidelines of the National Institutes of Health.

VIRUS SOURCES

HSV-1 strain H129 recombinant VC22 (H129-VC22) expresses EGFP-NLS, driven by the CMV

immediate-early promoter and terminated with the SV40 polyA sequence. To engineer this

recombinant, we used the procedure previously described to construct HSV-772, which

corresponds to H129 with CMV-EGFP-SV40pA[57]. We generated plasmid VC22 by inserting into

plasmid HSV-772 three tandem copies of the sequence for the c-Myc nuclear localization signal

(NLS) PAAKRVKLD[60], fused to the carboxy-terminus of EGFP. Plasmid VC22 contains two

flanking sequences, one of 1888-bp homologous to HSV-1 UL26/26.5, and one of 2078-bp

homologous to HSV-1 UL27, to allow insertion in the region between these genes. HSV-1 H129

nucleocapsid DNA was cotransfected with linearized plasmid VC22 using Lipofectamine 2000

over African green monkey kidney epithelial cell line Vero (ATCC cell line CCL-81), following the

manufacturer's protocol (Invitrogen). Viral plaques expressing EGFP-NLS were visualized and

selected under an epifluorescence microscope. PRV-152 (PRV Bartha[58]), which drives the

expression of GFP driven by the CMV immediate-early promoter and terminated with the SV40

polyA sequence, was a gift of the laboratory of Lynn W. Enquist. Adeno-associated virus was

obtained from Addgene (https://www.addgene.org).

IN VIVO VIRUS INJECTIONS

Surgery for HSV and PRV injections. Mice were injected intraperitoneally with 15% mannitol

in 0.9% saline (M4125, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) approximately 30 minutes before surgery

to decrease surgical bleeding and facilitate viral uptake. Mice were then anesthetized with

isoflurane (5% induction, 1-2% isoflurane/oxygen maintenance vol/vol), eyes covered with

ophthalmic ointment (Puralube, Pharmaderm Florham Park, NJ), and stereotactically stabilized

(Kopf Model 1900, David Kopf Instruments, Tujunga, CA). After shaving hair over the scalp, a

midline incision was made to expose the posterior skull. Posterior neck muscles attaching to the

skull were removed, and the brain was exposed by making a craniotomy using a 0.5 mm micro-

drill burr (Fine Science Tools, Foster City, CA). External cerebellar vasculature was used to

identify cerebellar lobule boundaries to determine nominal anatomical locations for injection.

Injection pipettes were pulled from soda lime glass (71900-10 Kimble, Vineland, NJ) on a P-97

puller (Sutter Instruments, Novato, CA), beveled to 30 degrees with an approximate 10 µm tip

width, and backfilled with injection solution.

AAV injections. During stereotaxic surgery, mice were anesthetized with isoflurane (PCH,

induction: 5%; maintenance: 2.0-2.5%) and received a mannitol injection ntraperitoneally (2.33

g/kg in milli-Q) and a Rimadyl injection subcutaneously (5 mg/kg Carprofen 50 mg/ml, Pfizer,

Eurovet, in NaCl).. Body temperature was kept constant at 37°C with a feedback measurement

system (DC Temperature Control System, FHC, Bowdoin, ME, VS). Mice were placed into a

stereotactic frame (Stoelting, Chicago laboratory supply), fixing the head with stub ear bars and

a tooth bar. DURATEARS® eye ointment (Alcon) was used to prevent corneal dehydration. A 2

cm sagittal scalp incision was made, after which the exposed skull was cleaned with sterile

saline. Mice were given 2 small (Ø±1 mm) craniotomies in the interparietal bone (-2 mm AP

relative to lambda; 1.8 mm ML) for virus injection. Craniotomies were performed using a hand

drill (Marathon N7 Dental Micro Motor). A bilateral injection of AAV5-Syn-ChR2-eYFP (125 nl

per hemisphere, infusion speed ~0.05 µl/minute) in the AIN was done using a glass micropipette

controlled by a syringe. After slowly lowering the micropipette to the target site (2.2 mm ventral),

the micropipette remained stationary for 5 minutes before the start of the injection, and again

after finishing the injection. Micropipette was then withdrawn slowly from the brain (ejection

speed ~1 mm/minute). Craniotomies and skin were closed and mice received post-op Rimadyl.

Animals were perfused transcardially 3 weeks after viral injection using 4% PFA. Brains were

collected post mortem, stained for co-stained for DAPI (0100-20, Southern Biotech, Birmingham

AL), coronally sectioned at 40 µm/slice and imaged with an epifluorescent microscope at 20x

(Nanozoomer, Hamamatsu, Shizuoka, Japan).

Transsynaptic viral tracing for tissue clearing (H129 and Bartha). Transsynaptic viral

tracing studies used male and female 8-12 week-old C57BL/6J mice (The Jackson Laboratory,

Bar Harbor, Maine). Injection solution was prepared by making a 9:1 dilution of virus stock to

0.5% cholera toxin B conjugated to Alexa Fluor 555 in saline (CTB-555, C22843, Sigma-Aldrich;

as per [61]). At the timepoints used CTB-555 persisted at the injection site. Pressure injections

delivered 80 to 240 nl into the target location. Pipettes were inserted perpendicular to tissue

surface to a depth of approximately 200 μm. **Table 3** describes injection parameters for each

type of experiment.

After viral injection, Rimadyl (0.2 ml, 50 mg/ml, Carprofen, Zoetis, Florham Park, NJ)

was delivered subcutaneously. At the end of the post-injection incubation period, animals were

overdosed by intraperitoneal injection of ketamine/xylazine (ketamine: 400 mg/kg, Zetamine,

Vet One, ANADA #200-055; xylazine: 50 mg/kg, AnaSed Injection Xylazine, Akorn, NADA #139-

236) and transcardially perfused with 10 ml of 0.1 M phosphate buffer saline (PBS) followed by

25 ml 10% formalin (Fisher Scientific 23-245685). Tissue was fixed overnight in 10% formalin

before the iDISCO+ clearing protocol began.

For anterograde transport experiments, incubation times were determined by

immunostaining for viral antigens at various timepoints (30, 36, 41, 49, 54, 58, 67, 73, 80, 82

and 89 hours post-injection) the canonical ascending pathway of cerebellar cortex to deep

cerebellar nuclei to thalamus to neocortex. For retrograde transport experiments, incubation

times were determined by immunostaining for GFP (48, 60, 72, 78, 81, 84 and 91 hpi) targeting

the canonical descending pathway: neocortex to brainstem to cerebellar cortex. We selected

timepoints with the goal of achieving sufficient labeling for detection, while minimizing incubation

periods, given that with increasing long distance, transport time is increasingly dominated by

axon-associated transport mechanisms[54,62–64], leading to labeling of alternative paths and

retrograde paths after 96 hours[57].

VIRAL TRACING WITH TISSUE SECTIONING AND SLIDE-BASED MICROSCOPY

Viral tracing by with classical sectioning-based histology: HSV-772 cerebellar injections.

Adult Thy1-YFP male mice (YFP +, n=2, B6.Cg-Tg(Thy1-YFP)HJrs/J, 003782, The Jackson

Laboratory, 22 weeks), were prepared for surgery, in a similar fashion as in *Transsynaptic viral*

tracing for tissue clearing (H129 and Bartha). We used the HSV recombinant HSV-772 (CMV-

EGFP, 9.02 x 10^8 PFU/ml; as in [57]), a H129 recombinant that produces a diffusible EGFP

reporter. Again, using a 9:1 HSV:CTB-555 injection solution, 350 nl/injection was pressure

injected into two mediolateral spots in lobule VIa. Eighty hours post-injection, animals were

overdosed using a ketamine/xylazine mixture as described previously. Brains were extracted

and fixed overnight in 10% formalin and cut at 50 μm thickness in PBS using a vibratome

(VT1000S, Leica). Sections were immunohistochemically blocked by incubating for 1 hour in

10% goat serum (G6767-100ML, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO), 0.5% Triton X100 (T8787-

50ML, Sigma-Aldrich) in PBS. Next sections were put in primary antibody solution (1:750 Dako

Anti-HSV in 2% goat serum, 0.4% Triton X100 in PBS) for 72 hours at 4°C in the dark. Sections

were washed in PBS 4 times for 10 minutes each, and then incubated with secondary antibody

(1:300 Goat anti-rabbit-AF647 in 2% goat serum, 0.4% Triton X100 in PBS) for two hours.

Another series of PBS washes (four times, 10 minutes each) before mounting onto glass

microscope slides with vectashield mounting agent (H-1000, Vector Laboratories, Burlingame,

CA). Sections were fluorescently imaged at 20x (Nanozoomer, Hamamatsu, Shizuoka, Japan)

and at 63x with 5 µm z steps (Leica SP8 confocal laser-scanning microscope).

TISSUE CLEARING AND LIGHT-SHEET MICROSCOPY

iDISCO+ tissue clearing. After extraction, brains were immersed overnight in 10% formalin. An

iDISCO+ tissue clearing protocol[19] was used (*Supplementary Clearing Worksheet*). Brains were

dehydrated step-wise in increasing concentrations of methanol (Carolina Biological Supply,

874195; 20, 40, 60, 80, 100% in doubly distilled H20 (ddH20), 1 hr each), bleached in 5%

hydrogen peroxide/methanol solution (Sigma, H1009-100ML) overnight, and serially rehydrated

(methanol: ddH20 100, 80, 60, 40, 20%, 1 hr each). Brains were washed in 0.2% Triton X-100

(Sigma, T8787-50ML) in PBS, then in 20% DMSO (Fisher Scientific D128-1) + 0.3 M glycine

(Sigma 410225-50G) + 0.2% Triton X-100/PBS at 37°C for 2 days. Brains were then immersed

in a blocking solution of 10% DMSO + 6% donkey serum (EMD Millipore S30-100ml) + 0.2%

Triton X-100 + PBS at 37°C for 2-3 days to reduce non-specific antibody binding. Brains were

then twice washed for 1 hr/wash in PBS + 0.2% Tween-20 (Sigma P9416-50ML) + 10 µg/ml

heparin (Sigma H3149-100KU) (PTwH).

For HSV and c-Fos antibody labeling, brains were incubated with primary antibody

solution (see **Table 3** for antibody concentrations) consisting of 5% DMSO + 3% donkey serum

+ PTwH at 37°C for 7 days. Brains were then washed in PTwH at least 5 times (wash intervals:

10 min, 15, 30, 1 hr, 2 hr), immunostained with secondary antibody in 3% donkey serum/PTwH

at 37°C for 7 days, and washed again in PTwH at least 5 times (wash intervals: 10 min, 15, 30,

1 hr, 2 hr). Finally, brains were serially dehydrated (methanol: ddH20: 100, 80, 60, 40, 20%, 1 hr

each), treated with 2:1 dichloromethane (DCM; Sigma, 270997-2L):methanol and then 100%

DCM, and placed in the refractive index matching solution dibenzyl ether (DBE; Sigma, 108014-

1KG) for storage at room temperature before imaging.

Light-sheet microscopy for transsynaptic tracing. Cleared brain samples were glued

(Loctite, 234796) ventral side down on a custom-designed 3D-printed holder and imaged in an

index-matched solution, DBE, using a light-sheet microscope (Ultramicroscope II, LaVision

Biotec., Bielefeld, Germany). Version 5.1.347 of the ImSpector Microscope controller software

was used. An autofluorescent channel for registration purposes was acquired using 488 nm

laser diode excitation and 525 nm emission (FF01-525/39-25, Semrock, Rochester, New York).

Injection sites, identified by CTB-555, were acquired at 561 nm excitation and 609 nm emission

(FF01-609/54-25, Semrock). Cellular imaging of virally infected cells (anti-HSV Dako B011402-

2) was acquired using 640 nm excitation and 680 nm emission (FF01-680/42-25, Semrock).

Cellular-resolution imaging was done at 1.63 μm/pixel (1x magnification, 4x objective, 0.28 NA,

5.6 - 6.0 mm working distance, 3.5 mm x 4.1 mm field of view, LVMI-FLuor 4x, LaVision

Biotech) with 3x3 tiling (with typically 10% overlap) per horizontal plane. Separate left- and right-

sided illumination images were taken every 7.5 micrometers step size using a 0.008 excitation-

sheet NA. A computational stitching approach[65] was performed independently for left- and right-

side illuminated volumes, followed by midline sigmoidal-blending of the two volumes to reduce

movement and image artifacts.

REGISTRATION AND ATLAS PREPARATION

Image registration. Most registration software cannot compute transformation with full-sized

light-sheet volumes in the 100-200 gigabyte range due to computational limits. Using mid-range

computers, reasonable processing times are obtained with file sizes of 300-750 megabytes,

which for mouse brain corresponds to 20 μm/voxel. Empirically, we found that light-sheet brain

volumes to be aligned ("moving") resampled to approximately 140% the size of the reference

("fixed") atlas volume yielded the best registration performance. Alignment was done by

applying an affine transformations allowing for translation, rotation, shearing and scaling to

generally align with the atlas, followed by b-spline transformation to account for brain-subregion

variability among individual brains.

For uniformity among samples, registration was done using the autofluorescence

channel, which has substantial autofluorescence at shorter wavelengths useful for registration[66].

In addition to autofluorescence-to-atlas registration, the signal channel was registered using an

affine transformation to the autofluorescence channel to control for minor brain movement

during acquisition, wavelength-dependent aberrations, and differences in imaging parameters[19].

Affine and b-spline transformations were computed using elastix[67,68]; see supplemental

Elastix affine and b-spline parameters used for light-sheet volume registration. Briefly, the

elastix affine transform allows for translation (t), rotation (R), shearing (G), and scaling (S) and is

defined as:

618
$$T_\mu(x) = RGS(x - c) + t + c$$

619   where c is a center of rotation and t is a translation. The elastix b-spline transformation allows

620   for nonlinearities and is defined as:

621
$$T_\mu(x) = x + \sum_{x_k \in \mathcal{N}_x} p_k \beta^3 \left(\frac{x - x_k}{\sigma} \right)$$

Where x_κ are control points, $\beta^3(x)$ the B-spline polynomial, p_κ the b-spline coefficient vectors,

Nx, B-spline compact support control points, and σ is the b-spline compact control point-spacing

(see [69], pages 8-10 for reference). For the assignment of cell centers to anatomical locations,

we calculated transformations from cell signal space to autofluorescent space (affine only) and

autofluorescent space to atlas space (affine and b-spline; **Supplementary Figure 13**).

Princeton Mouse Atlas generation. To generate a light-sheet atlas with a complete posterior

cerebellum, autofluorescent light-sheet volumes from 110 mice (curated to eliminate distortions

related to damage, clearing, or imaging) were resampled to an isotropic 20 μm per voxel

resolution (**Figure 2; Supplementary Figure 1a**). We selected a single brain volume to use as

the fixed (template) volume for registration of the other 109 brains and computed the

transformations between the other 109 brains and the template brain. The registration task was

parallelized from ClearMap[19] adapting code for use on a Slurm-based[70] computing cluster.

After registration, all brains were pooled into a four-dimensional volume (brain, x, y, z),

and the median voxel value at each xyz location was used to generate a single median three-

dimensional volume. Flocculi and parafloculi, which can become damaged or deformed during

extraction and clearing, were imaged separately from a subset of 26 brains in which these

structures were intact and undeformed. Manual voxel curation sharpened brain-edges in areas

where pixel intensity gradually faded. Finally, contrast limited adaptive histogram equalization

(skimage.exposure.equalize_adapthist) applied to the resulting volume increased local contrast

within brain structures, generating the final PMA (**Supplementary Figure 1b; Supplementary**

Figure 14). We then determined the transformation between the PMA and the Allen Brain

CCFv3[71] space in order to maintain translatability. Our software for basic atlas creation with an

accompanying Jupyter tutorial notebook is available online via

github.com/PrincetonUniversity/pytlas. Volumetric projection renderings were made using

ImageJ[72]; 3D project function (**Supplementary Figure 1a**).

Statistical analysis of registration precision. Precision of registration was measured by

quantifying euclidean landmark distances, defined by blinded users (similar to [73]) between the

PMA and brains at different stages of registration. Estimated standard deviations are defined as

the median absolute deviation (MAD) divided by 0.6745. MADs were calculated with

Statsmodels[74] 0.9.0 (statsmodels.robust.mad). One measurement was considered to be user

error and was dropped in the theoretical-limit measurements, as it was over 12 times the

median of the other measures.

Generation of 3D printable files. To generate 3D printable Princeton Mouse Atlas files usable

for experimental and educational purposes, we loaded volumetric tiff files as surface objects

using the ImageJ-based 3D viewer. After resampling by a factor of 2 and intensity thresholding,

data were then imported to Blender[75], where surfaces were smoothed (Smooth Vertex tool)

before finally exporting as stereolithography (stl) files.

AUTOMATED DETECTION OF VIRALLY LABELED CELLS

BrainPipe, an automated transsynaptic tracing and labeling analysis pipeline. Whole-brain

light-sheet volumes were analyzed using a new pipeline, BrainPipe. BrainPipe consists of three

steps: cell detection, registration to a common atlas, and injection site recovery. For maximum

detection accuracy, cell detection was performed on unregistered image volumes, and the

detected cells were then transformed to atlas coordinates.

Before analysis, datasets were manually curated by stringent quality control standards.

Each brain was screened for (1) clearing quality, (2) significant tissue deformation from

extraction process, (3) viral spread from injection site, (4) antibody penetration, (5) blending

artifacts related to microscope misalignment, (6) injection site within target location, (7)

successful registration, and (8) CNN overlay of detected cells with brain volume in signal

channel. Because of the relatively high concentration of antibody solution needed for brain-wide

immunohistochemical staining, non-specific fluorescence was apparent at the edges of tissue,

i.e. outside of the brain and ventricles, in the form of punctate labeling not of cell origin. We

computationally removed a border at the brain edge at the ventricles to remove false positives,

at the cost of loss of some true positives (skimage.morphology.binary_erosion, **Table 4**). For

neocortical layer studies, a subregion of the primary somatosensory area: "primary

somatosensory area, unassigned" in PMA did not have layer-specific mapping in Allen Atlas

space and was removed from consideration.

Injection site recovery and cell detection. Injection sites were identified in H129 studies by

co-injecting CTB with virus (**Supplementary Figure 15**) and in c-Fos studies using ArchT-GFP

expression. Post-registered light-sheet volumes of the injection channel were segmented to

obtain voxel-by-voxel injection-site reconstructions. Volumes were Gaussian blurred (3 voxels).

All voxels below 3 standard deviations above the mean were removed. The single largest

connected component was considered the injection site (scipy.ndimage.label, SciPy 1.1.0[76]).

CTB was selected for injection site labelling for transsynaptic tracing as it does not affect the

spread of alpha-herpesviruses and its greater diffusion due to its smaller size overestimates the

viral injection size by as much as two-fold[77,78]. CTB overestimates the viral spread during

injection, due to its lower molecular weight compared with H129. **Supplementary Figure 16**

shows the percentage of cerebellum covered by at least one injection in each of the three

datasets. Lobules I-III, flocculus, and paraflocculus were not targeted.

Automated detection of transsynaptically labeled neurons.

To optimize cell detection for scalability, whole-brain light-sheet volumes (typically 100-150 GB

16-bit volumes) were chunked into approximately 80 compressed 32-bit TIF volumes per brain,

with an overlap of 192 x 192 x 20 voxels in xyz between each volume, and stored on a file

server.

For deploying the custom-trained cell-detection neural network, the file server streamed

the volumes to a GPU cluster for segmentation. Once the segmentation was completed, the

soma labels were reconstructed across the entire brain volume from the segmented image on a

CPU cluster by calculating the maximum between the overlapping segments of each volume.

The reconstructed brain volumes after segmentation were stored as memory-mapped arrays on

a file server. Coordinates of cell centers from the reconstructed volumes were obtained by

thresholding, using the established threshold from training evaluation, and connected-

component analysis. Additionally, measures of detected cell perimeter, sphericity, and number

of voxels it spans in the z-dimension were calculated by connected-component analysis for

further cell classification if needed. The final output consisted of a comma-separated values file

that includes the xyz coordinates as well as measures of perimeter, sphericity, and number of

voxels in the z-dimension for each detected cell in the brain volume.

Convolutional neural network training. Supervised learning using CNN is useful in complex

classification tasks when a sufficient amount of training data is available. Annotated training

volumes were generated by selecting volumes at least 200 x 200 x 50 pixels (XYZ) from full-

sized cell channel volumes. To ensure training data were representative of the animal variability

across the whole-brain, training volumes were selected from different anatomical regions in

different brains with various amounts of labeling (see **Table 1** for dataset description).

Annotations were recorded by marking cell centers using ImageJ[72]. To generate labeled

volumes, Otsu's thresholding method (skimage.filters.threshold_otsu, Scikit-Image[79] 0.13.1) was

applied within windows (30 x 30 x 8 voxels, XYZ) around each center to label soma. Using

annotated volumes, we trained a three-dimensional CNN with a U-Net architecture[80,81]

(github.com/PrincetonUniversity/BrainPipe). A 192 x 192 x 20 CNN window size with 0.75

strides was selected. The training dataset was split into a 70% training, 20% validation, and

10% testing subset. Training occurred on a SLURM-based GPU cluster. During training, the

CNN was presented with data from the training dataset, and after each iteration its performance

was evaluated using the validation dataset. Loss values, which measure learning by the CNN,

stabilized at 295,000 training iterations, at which point training was stopped and the CNN was

evaluated for performance, as a risk in machine learning is overfitting, i.e. the possibility that the

neural network will learn particular training examples rather than learning the category.

Evaluation of CNN. To determine CNN performance on H129 data, we calculated an F1 score

[82]. First, we needed to compare CNN output with our ground truth annotations by quantifying

true positives (TP), false negatives (FN), and false positives (FP). Our neural network

architecture produced a voxel-wise 0 (background) to 1 (cell) probability output. To determine a

threshold value for binarization of the continuous 0-1 CNN-output values, F1 scores as a

function of thresholds between 0 and 1 were determined (**Figure 1f**). Connected-component

analysis (scipy.ndimage.label) grouped islands of nonzero voxels to identify each island as a

putative cell. Pairwise Euclidean distances (scipy.spatial.distance.euclidean) were calculated

between CNN-predicted cell centers and human-annotated ground truth centers. Bipartite

matching serially paired closest predicted and ground truth centers, removing each from

unpaired pools. Unmatched predicted or ground truth centers were considered FPs or FNs,

respectively. Prediction-ground truth center pairs with a Euclidean distance greater than 30

voxels (~49 μm) were likely inaccurate and not paired.

The F1 score was defined as the harmonic average of precision and recall. Precision is

the number of correct positive results divided by the number of all positive results returned by

the classifier, i.e. TP/(TP+FP). Recall is the number of correct positive results divided by the

number of all samples that should have been identified as positive, i.e. TP/(TP+FN). The F1

score reaches its best value at 1 (perfect precision and recall) and worst at 0. Using a 20 voxel

cutoff instead of 30 gave 0.849 and 0.875 for human-CNN and human-human F1 scores,

respectively. To determine CNN performance metrics, the testing dataset, which the network

had yet to be exposed to was finally run using the established threshold producing an F1 score

of 0.864. To generate the precision-recall curve, precision and recall values were calculated

between thresholds of 0.002 and 0.998 with a step size of 0.002. Values of precision and 1-

recall were used to plot the curve. The area-under-curve of the precision-recall curve was

calculated using the composite trapezoidal rule (numpy.trapz).

Statistical analysis of transsynaptic tracing data. For initial inspection of thalamic or

neocortical neurons, each injected brain was sorted by cerebellar region with the greatest

volume fraction of the injection (as in [2]; this region was defined as the primary injection site.

Injections from each "primary" region were then pooled and averaged per thalamic nucleus

(**Figure 3f**).

Generalized linear model analysis. Contribution of each cerebellar meta-lobule to viral spread

in each neocortical or thalamic region was fitted to a generalized linear model (GLM) consisting

of an inhomogeneous Poisson process as a function of seven targeted cerebellar regions

("meta-lobules"). The predictor variables were x_j, where x_j is defined as the fraction of the total

injection to be found in the j-th meta-lobule, such that $\Sigma\, x_j = 1$. The outputs to be predicted were

y_k defined as the fraction of the total number of cells in the entire neocortex (or thalamus) to be

found in the k-th region. For the resulting fit coefficients β_{jk}, the change in $\hat{y}_k$ arising from a unit

change in x_j is $e^{\beta_{jk}} - 1$. In **figures 3f**, **5f,** and **7f,** the heatmap indicates a measure of

confidence, defined as the coefficient (β_{jk}) divided by the coefficient's standard error.

To determine greater than chance significant weights, we compared significant weights

computed from the t-stats of the coefficients with those observed in a shuffle-based null model

in which predictors were shuffled uniformly at random (n = 1,000). We found that the true

number of positive significant weights is significantly greater than that expected under the null

model with a one-sided, non-parametric p < 0.05. In **Figure 7**, the neocortical region "Frontal

pole, cerebral cortex" was excluded from generalized linear model analysis due to zero counts

across all brains for the region.

C-FOS MAPPING EXPERIMENT

c-Fos mapping after optogenetic perturbation. Neural activity has been shown to increase c-

Fos, an immediate-early gene product[83]. Mapping of c-Fos expression used L7-Cre +/- (n=10)

and -/- (n=8) mice (males, B6; 129-Tg(Pcp2-cre)2Mpin/J, 004146, The Jackson Laboratory, Bar

Harbor, Maine, bred in-house, 56 days or older). L7-Cre mice express Cre recombinase

exclusively in Purkinje neurons[84]. rAAV1-CAG-FLEX-ArchT-GFP (UNC Vector Core, deposited

by Dr. Ed Boyden, 4x10^{12} vg/ml, AV5593B lot number, 500 nl/injection 250 μm deep

perpendicular to tissue) was pressure injected into four locations in lobule VIa/b. After virus

injection, a cover slip (round 3 mm, #1 thickness, Warner Instruments 64–0720) was used to

cover the craniotomy and a custom titanium plate for head fixation[85] was attached using dental

cement (S396, Parkell, Brentwood, NY). Mice were allowed to recover after surgery for 4 weeks

and then were habituated to a head-fixed treadmill[85] for three days, 30 minutes per day. On the

last day of habituation, ArchT-GFP expression was confirmed using wide-field fluorescence

microscopy. The following day, mice were again placed on the treadmill and a 200 μm fiber

(M200L02S-A, Thorlabs, Newton, NJ) was placed directly over the cranial window for

optogenetic stimulation with 532 nm laser (1 Hz, 250 ms pulse-width, 56 mW, 1 hr, GR-532-

00200-CWM-SD-05-LED-0, Opto Engine, Midvale, UT). Mice were then individually placed into

a clean cage, kept in the dark for one hour, and perfused as described previously. Brains were

fixed overnight in 10% formalin (4% formaldehyde) before beginning the iDISCO+ clearing

protocol (**Table 1**). Both ArchT-expressing mice and non-expressing mice received cranial

windows, habituation, and photostimulation.

Electrophysiological confirmation of ArchT expression in Purkinje cells. To confirm that

ArchT was optically activatable in Purkinje cells, photostimulation was done during patch clamp

recording in acutely prepared brain slices. Brain slices were prepared from three 10 week-old

male Pcp2-cre mice (B6.Cg-Tg(Pcp2-cre)3555Jdhu/J, 010536, The Jackson Laboratory), two

weeks after injection with rAAV1-CAG-FLEX-ArchT-GFP. Mice were deeply anesthetized with

Euthasol (0.06 ml/30g), decapitated, and the brain removed. The isolated whole brains were

immersed in ice-cold carbogenated NMDG ACSF solution (92 mM N-methyl D-glucamine, 2.5

mM KCl, 1.25 mM NaH$_2$PO$_4$, 30 mM NaHCO$_3$, 20 mM HEPES, 25 mM glucose, 2 mM thiourea,

5 mM Na-ascorbate, 3 mM Na-pyruvate, 0.5 mM CaCl$_2$, 10 mM MgSO$_4$, and 12 mM N-acetyl-L-

cysteine, pH adjusted to 7.3–7.4). Parasagittal cerebellar brain slices 300 μm) were cut using a

vibratome (VT1200s, Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany), incubated in NMDG ACSF at

34°C for 15 minutes, and transferred into a holding solution of HEPES ACSF (92 mM NaCl, 2.5

mM KCl, 1.25 mM NaH_2PO_4, 30 mM $NaHCO_3$, 20 mM HEPES, 25 mM glucose, 2 mM thiourea,

5 mM Na-ascorbate, 3 mM Na-pyruvate, 2 mM $CaCl_2$, 2 mM $MgSO_4$ and 12 mM N-acetyl-L-

cysteine, bubbled at room temperature with 95% O_2 and 5% CO_2). During recordings, slices

were perfused at a flow rate of 4–5 ml/min with a recording ACSF solution (120 mM NaCl, 3.5

mM KCl, 1.25 mM NaH_2PO_4, 26 mM $NaHCO_3$, 1.3 mM $MgCl_2$, 2 mM $CaCl_2$ and 11 mM D-

glucose) and continuously bubbled with 95% O_2 and 5% CO_2.

Whole-cell recordings were performed using a Multiclamp 700B (Molecular Devices,

Sunnyvale, CA) using pipettes with a resistance of 3–5 MΩ filled with a potassium-based

internal solution (120 mM potassium gluconate, 0.2 mM EGTA, 10 mM HEPES, 5 mM NaCl, 1

mM $MgCl_2$, 2 mM Mg-ATP and 0.3 mM Na-GTP, pH adjusted to 7.2 with KOH). Purkinje

neurons expressing YFP were selected for recordings. Photostimulation parameters used were

525 nm, 0.12 mW/mm², and 250 ms pulses at 1 Hz.

Light-sheet microscopy for c-Fos imaging. Opaque magnets (D1005A-10 Parylene,

Supermagnetman, Pelham, AL) were glued to ventral brain surfaces in the horizontal orientation

and imaged using a light-sheet microscope as described previously. Version 5.1.293 of the

ImSpector Microscope controller software was used. ArchT-GFP injection volumes were

acquired using the 561 nm excitation filter. Cellular imaging of c-Fos expressing cells was

acquired using 640 nm excitation filter at 5.0 μm/pixel (1x magnification, 1.3x objective, 0.1

numerical aperture, 9.0 mm working distance, 12.0 x 12.0 mm field of view, LVMI-Fluor 1.3x,

LaVision Biotech) with a 3 μm step-size using a 0.010 excitation NA. This resolution was

selected to allow whole-brain imaging using ClearMap without tiling artifacts. To speed up

acquisitions, the autofluorescence channel and injection channels were acquired separately with

a shorter exposure time than the cell channel. The left and right horizontal focus was shifted

towards the side of the emitting sheet. Left and right images were then sigmoidally blended

before analysis. In order to maximize field of view, some olfactory areas were not completely

represented in images and were removed from analysis. Five brains were reimaged a second

time due to ventricular imaging artifacts.

Automated detection of c-Fos expressing cells. Detection of c-Fos expressing cells after

optogenetic stimulation was done using ClearMap software for c-Fos detection[19] modified to run

on high performance computing clusters ("ClearMapCluster", see **Table 5** for analysis

parameters). Cell detection parameters were optimized by two users iterating through a set of

varying ClearMap detection parameters and selecting those that minimized false positives while

labelling only c-Fos positive neurons with high signal-to-noise ratio.

Statistical analysis of c-Fos data. Cell and density heat maps and p-value maps were

generated using ClearMap. Projected p-value maps were generated by binarizing the p-value

maps and counting non-zero voxels in z; color bar thresholding displayed greater than 25% for

coronal and 27% for sagittal sections of the z-distance. Injection sites were segmented and

aligned in the manner described previously. Activation ratio was defined as the mean number of

cells in an anatomical area across experimental brains divided by the mean number of cells in

the same anatomical area in control brains. To compare the c-Fos activation data with

transsynaptic tracing data across the major divisions in the neocortex, average viral-labeling

neocortical densities from brains with lobule-VIa H129-VC22 injections were compared with the

cell count ratio of c-Fos stimulation vs control groups by performing a rank order regression

(scipy.stats.kendalltau).

SOFTWARE

Data analysis pipelines were run using custom code written for Python 3+ (available at

github.com/PrincetonUniversity/BrainPipe and github.com/PrincetonUniversity/ClearMapCluster)

Unless otherwise noted, analyses and plotting were performed in Python 2.7+.

DataFrame manipulations were done using Numpy[86] 1.14.3 and Pandas[87] 0.23.0. Plotting was

done with Matplotlib[88] 2.2.2 and Seaborn[89] 0.9.0. Image loading, manipulation and visualization

was done using Scikit-Image[79] 0.13.1 and SimpleITK[90] 1.0.0. SciPy[76] 1.1.0 was used for

statistical analyses. Clustering analysis was performed using Seaborn[89] 0.9.0 and Scikit-Learn[91]

0.19.1 was used for hierarchical agglomerative clustering (average metric, Ward's method).

Coefficients and standard errors for the generalized linear model were obtained by fitting the

model using the statsmodels 0.9.0 package in Python 3.7.1 (as [2]). The Mann-Whitney U test

(two-tailed; scipy.stats.mannwhitneyu, SciPy[76] 1.1.0) was used to determine statistical

significance between control and experimental brain regions in c-Fos studies.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

T.P., M.K., H.-J.B., and S.W. conceived and designed the experiments. T.P., D.B., and J.V.

performed virus injections and prepared tissue. Z.D. and T.P. imaged tissue and ran the

computational data analysis pipeline for whole-brain imaging data. T.P., Z.D., and H.-J. B.

performed subsequent data analysis and prepared figures. E.E. designed and provided HSV

vectors. K.V. and T.P. designed algorithms for image analysis. M.K.., J.L., and T.P. performed

optogenetics experiments. H.-J. B. and N. de O. performed AAV experiments and collected and

analyzed images. T.P. and S.W. wrote the initial draft of the manuscript, which was edited by all

authors.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Figure 1. Large-scale transsynaptic tracing with tissue clearing and light-sheet microscopy. (a) *Top,* H129-VC22, a recombinant HSV-H129 virus that expresses a nuclear location signal tagged to an enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP). *Bottom,* experimental design to transsynaptically trace pathways from cerebellar cortex to thalamus and neocortex. (b) Example images of an iDISCO+ cleared brain ~82 hours post-injection. 158 μm maximum intensity projection. (c) Time course of infection. Images show horizontal maximum intensity projections of iDISCO+ cleared brains in the deep cerebellar nuclei (3.0 mm dorsal of bregma), thalamus (3.0 mm dorsal), and neocortex (0.7 mm dorsal). Dorsoventral depth of projection: 300 μm for deep cerebellar nuclei and thalamus, 150 μm for neocortex. (d) Quantification of viral spread. Cell counts from five planes from each brain region are shown. (e) Training data for convolutional neural network (CNN). *Left,* Representative images of raw input data. *Middle,* human-annotated cell centers (green overlay) for training the network. *Right,* segmented labels (green) used as training input. (f) Receiver operating characteristic curve for the trained neural net. The diagonal line indicates chance performance.

Figure 2. The Princeton Mouse Brain Atlas for light-sheet volume registration. (a) Sagittal
views demonstrate differences between Allen Brain Atlas (ABA, left) and the Princeton Mouse
Brain Atlas (PMA, right). The red dotted box indicates the caudal limit of the ABA. To map
between PMA and ABA space, ABA annotations were transformed into PMA space. (b)
Registration of whole-brain light-sheet volumes to the PMA. Light-sheet volume of an individual
brain (green) overlaid with PMA (red) at different stages of registration. Median discrepancy is
shown for each stage of alignment. (c) PMA cerebellar annotations. The red dotted box
indicates newly annotated areas. (d) PMA cerebellar hierarchy depicting structure ontology and
shows relative substructure size contributions. Abbreviations: PM, paramedian lobule; PF,
paraflocculi; CP, copula pyramidis; FI, flocculus.

Figure 3. Cerebellar paths to thalamus. (a) Disynaptic path from the cerebellar cortex to thalamus traced using H129-VC22. (b) Coverage of cerebellum by thalamic timepoint injections. Coronal projections show the number of injections covering each location. (c) Example sagittal image of labeling ~54 hours post-injection, with outlines defining key thalamic nuclei. 150 μm maximum intensity projection. (d) Percentage fraction of neurons detected in each thalamic area. Each point represents one cerebellar injection site. Percentage fraction was calculated by dividing the number of neurons detected by the total number of neurons detected across all thalamus. The top 10 thalamic areas are shown. (e) Density of neurons in each thalamic area across all cerebellar injection sites. Top 10 areas are shown. (f) *Left*, fraction of neurons across all injection sites. Injection coverage fractions (red) and fraction of neurons (blue) are represented. One column represents one injection site. *Right*, a generalized linear model showing the influence of each cerebellar region on thalamic expression. The heatmap (blue) represents the coefficient divided by the standard error. Significant coefficients are marked with asterisks. (g) *Left*, density of neurons in each thalamic area across all cerebellar injection sites. *Right*, grouping according to[22]. For boxplots, whiskers are 1.5 times the interquartile range. Abbreviations: VPM, ventral posteromedial; VA-L, ventral anterior-lateral; VPL, ventral posterolateral; LGN, lateral geniculate nucleus.

Figure 4. Cerebellothalamic AAV-identified axonal projections correspond with
transsynaptic viral tracing. (a) Deep cerebellar nuclei were injected with AAV. Brains were
coronally sectioned to identify cerebellothalamic axonal projection density. (b) Coronal sections
after a deep cerebellar nuclear injection primarily targeting the dentate nucleus. Manually drawn
Paxinos coronal overlays are shown. Bregma -1.40 mm corresponds to A. (c) Cerebellothalamic
axons identified by AAV injections align with transsynaptic tracing. Kendall correlation (τ=0.49,
p=0.01) of rank order density of HSV-labeled thalamic neurons after cerebellar cortical injection
versus cerebellothalamic axonal projection density. Abbreviations: VPM, ventral posteromedial;
VA-L, ventral anterior-lateral; VPL, ventral posterolateral; VM, ventral medial; LatHab, lateral
habenula; AV, anteroventral; MD, mediodorsal; Po, posterior complex; LP, lateral posterior; CL,
central lateral; ParaFasc, parafascicular; LD, lateral dorsal, vLGN, ventral lateral geniculate
nucleus.

Figure 5. Cerebellar paths to neocortex. (a) The trisynaptic path from the cerebellar cortex to the neocortex traced using H129-VC22. (b) Coverage of cerebellum by neocortical timepoint injections. Coronal projections show the number of injections covering each cerebellar location. (c) Example sagittal image of labeling ~80 hours post-injection. 158 μm maximum intensity projection. (d) Fraction of neurons detected in each neocortical area across all cerebellar injection sites. The fraction was calculated by dividing the number of neurons detected in each area by the total number of neurons detected across all neocortex. The top 10 areas are shown. (e) Density of neurons in each neocortical area across all cerebellar injection sites. The top 10 neocortical areas with the densest labeling are shown. (f) *Left*, fraction of neurons in each neocortical area across all injection sites. Injection coverage fractions (red) and fraction of neurons (blue) are represented for each brain injected. Brains are ordered by primary injection site. *Right*, a generalized linear model showing the influence of each cerebellar region on neocortical expression. The heatmap (blue) represents the coefficient divided by the standard error. Significant coefficients are marked with asterisks. (g) *Left*, density of neurons in each neocortical area across all injections. *Right*, mean density of neurons. For boxplots, whiskers are 1.5 times the interquartile range. Abbreviations: Ant, anterior; CP, Copula pyramidis; PM, Paramedian; Post, posterior.

c

Cortical Layer	Neurons %	Layer volume %	Count-to-volume ratio
I	11.8	17.6	0.67
II/III	17.0	26.6	0.64
IV	3.8	6.3	0.6
V	28.1	28.8	**0.98**
VIa	35.2	18.1	**1.94**
VIb	4.0	2.6	**1.54**

Figure 6. Cerebellar projections to thalamocortical and deep-layer modulatory systems. (a) Example images of labeling in the neocortex ~80 hours post-injection, with outlines defining neocortical layers in each area. 75 μm maximum intensity projections. (b) Distribution of neocortical neurons in layers by neocortical area. *Top*, mean percentage of neurons normalized by area. *Bottom*, mean density of neurons. (c) Layer distribution of counts aggregated across all of neocortex. (d) Summary of cerebellar output connectivity to thalamus and neocortex demonstrated by transsynaptic tracing. Thalamic targets include sensory relay nuclei, polymodal association nuclei, and the reticular nucleus. Abbreviations: Som mot, somatomotor; Som sens, somatosensory; Retrospl, retrosplenial; Ant cing, anterior cingulate; Post par, posterior parietal; Infralimb, infralimbic; Frontal p, frontal pole.

Figure 7. Descending projections to cerebellar cortex labeled using PRV-Bartha. (a) Schematic of the retrograde trisynaptic path from the cerebellar cortex to the neocortex traced using PRV-Bartha. (b) Coverage of cerebellum by neocortical timepoint injections. Coronal projections show the number of injections covering each cerebellar location. (c) Example sagittal image of typical labeling ~80 hours post-injection. 375 μm maximum intensity projection. (d) Fraction of neurons detected in each neocortical area across all injection sites. The percentage fraction was calculated by dividing the number of neurons detected in each area by the total number of neurons detected in neocortex. The top 10 neocortical areas with the most labeling are shown. (e) Density of neurons in each neocortical area across all cerebellar injection sites. The top 10 neocortical areas with the densest labeling are shown. (f) *Left*, fraction of neurons in each neocortical area across all injection sites. Injection coverage fractions (pink) and fraction of neurons (blue) are represented for each brain injected. *Right*, a generalized linear model showing the influence of each cerebellar region on neocortical expression. The heatmap (blue) represents the coefficient divided by the standard error. Significant coefficients are marked with asterisks. (g) *Left*, density of neurons in each neocortical area across all cerebellar injection sites. *Right*, mean density of neurons in each neocortical area grouped by primary injection site. For boxplots, whiskers are 1.5 times the interquartile range. Abbreviations: Ant, anterior; CP, Copula pyramidis; PM, Paramedian; Post, posterior.

Figure 8. Cerebellar perturbation activates transsynaptically connected regions across the brain. (a) Experimental setup for photostimulating the inhibitory optogenetic protein ArchT-GFP through a cranial window over cerebellar lobule VI. *Top*, silencing of Purkinje cells as measured in brain-slice whole-cell recordings after photostimulation with 525 nm light. (b) Coverage of cerebellum by ArchT-GFP expression. Coronal projections show the number of injections covering each cerebellar location. (c) Neural activity identified by c-Fos immunostaining. *Top*, voxel-by-voxel regions of statistically significant c-Fos activation in Princeton Mouse Atlas (PMA) space (planes 320-360, 20 µm isotropic voxel size). *Bottom*, example horizontal image of typical c-Fos labeling after optogenetic perturbation. 132 µm maximum intensity projection. (d) Transsynaptic targets of lobule VI labeled using H129-VC22 (red) injected into Thy1-YFP (green) mice. Standard non-clearing histological imaging, 50 µm section, 80 hpi. (e) Activation ratios, defined by number of c-Fos neurons in photostimulated divided by control-group, for all brain regions. Regions were scored as responding (blue coloring) if they had activation ratios greater than 2.5 and p<0.05 by two-tailed Mann-Whitney test. (f) Distribution of c-Fos neurons for all responding regions. (g) Rank order of c-Fos density is positively correlated (Kendall's τ=+0.47) with rank order from transsynaptic tracing. Abbreviations: AC, anterior cingulate; ant, anterior; Aud, auditory; C, caudal; D, dorsal; EcR, ectorhinal area; IL, infralimbic; Insula, agranular insula; F Pole, frontal pole; Gust, gustatory areas; n., nucleus; Orb, orbital area; P Par, posterior parietal; PR, perirhinal areas; PrL, prelimbic; RS, retrosplenial area; SC, superior colliculus; SM, somatomotor areas; SS, somatosensory areas; Temp, temporal; V, ventral; VIS, visual; Visc, visceral area.

Largest amount of cerebellar output

Most concentrated cerebellar output

Thalamocortical modulation

Figure 9. Parallel ascending cerebellar pathways for sensorimotor, associative, and regulatory function. *Top*, the most cerebellar projections in thalamus and neocortex are found in sensorimotor structures. *Middle*, the densest cerebellar projections are found in frontal neocortical structures. *Bottom*, the cerebellum projects to thalamocortical regions involved in sensory modulation, attentional selection [109], and control of processing [110].

CNN	Different brains	Different volumes	Number of cells	Human-CNN concordance	Human-human concordance
H129	8	44	3603	F1: 0.864 Precision: 0.912 Recall: 0.821	F1: 0.891 Precision: 0.947 Recall: 0.842 1091 cells annotated by both users
PRV	7	41	5119	F1: 0.873 Precision: 0.833 Recall: 0.926	F1: 0.886 Precision: 0.936 Recall: 0.841 1280 cells annotated by both users

1281   **Table 1.** Training datasets descriptions used to train cell detectors.

Thalamic Area	General function	Reference
Anteroventral	Spatial Memory	[92]
Central lateral	Emotional aspects of nociception	[93]
Lateral dorsal	Somatosensory processing	[94]
Lateral posterior	Visually-guided behavior	[95]
Lateral habenula	Reward Negative	[96]
Mediodorsal	Processing/integration of memory/cognition	[23]
Medial habenula	Emotion-associated behavior	[97]
Parafascicular	Reversal Learning	[98]
Paraventricular	Emotional arousal, +/- behavioral mediation	[99]
Posterior triangle	Nociception	[100]
Posterior complex	Adjusting response to unexpected sensory input	[101]
Reticular	Cortical-based modulation of thalamus	[102]
Reuniens	Hippocampal modulation	[103]
Submedial	Olfaction	[104]
VA-L	Memory/Spatial navigation & Motor	[105]
Ventral medial	Motor	[106]
VPL	Sensory Body	[107]
VPM	Sensory Face	[107]

Ventral LGN	Visuomotor response & Circadian rhythms	[108]

1282 **Table 2.** Thalamic target area function references. Abbreviations: VA-L, ventral anterior-lateral;

1283 VPL, ventral posterolateral; VPM, ventral posteromedial; LGN, lateral geniculate nucleus.

Target	Injection	Primary antibody	Secondary antibody
c-Fos	rAAV1-CAG-FLEX-ArchT-GFP	1:2000 Rabbit anti-c-Fos Synaptic Systems Cat. No. 226003	1:500 Donkey anti-Rabbit AlexaFluor 790 ThermoFisher A11374
Anterograde thalamic timepoint (53 hpi)	H129-VC22 (2.7×10^4 to 8.0×10^4 PFUs)	1:350 Rabbit anti-HSV Dako B011402-2	1:250 Donkey anti-Rabbit AlexaFluor 647 ThermoFisher A31573
Anterograde neocortical timepoint (80 hpi)	H129-VC22 (2.7×10^4 to 8.0×10^4 PFUs)	1:1750 Rabbit anti-HSV Dako B011402-2	1:500 Donkey anti-Rabbit AlexaFluor 647 ThermoFisher A31573
Retrograde neocortical timepoint (80 hpi)	PRV-Bartha 152 (6.0×10^4 PFUs)	1:500 Chicken anti-GFP Aves GFP-1020	1:300 Donkey anti-Chicken AlexaFluor 647 Jackson ImmunoResearch 703-606-155

1284 **Table 3.** Experimental injection and clearing protocols for transsynaptic and physiologic tracing

1285 from cerebellum. Abbreviations: hpi, hours post-injection.

Structure	Timepoint	Number of brains	Edge erosion	Ventricular erosion
Thalamus (H129)	55 hpi	23	60 µm	80 µm
Neocortex (H129)	80 hpi	33	60 µm	80 µm
Striatum (H129)	80 hpi	33	60 µm	80 µm
Hypothalamus (H129)	80 hpi	31	60 µm	160 µm
Neocortex (PRV)	80 hpi	25	60 µm	80 µm

1286 **Table 4.** Cohort details for each structure analyzed. Abbreviations: hpi, hours post-injection.

ClearMap parameter	Value
removeBackgroundParameter_size	(5,5)
findExtendedMaximaParameter_size	(5,5)
findExtendedMaximaParameter_threshold	0
findIntensityParameter_size	(3,3,3)
detectCellShapeParameter_threshold	105

Table 5. ClearMap parameters used on whole-brain light-sheet volumes for detecting c-Fos positive neurons.

Target	Cerebellar injection site	Structure	Mean ± std. dev.
Anterograde thalamic timepoint (53 hpi)	All injections	Sensory-motor	2.5 ± 5.7
		Polymodal association	1.0 ± 0.7
	Vermis	Sensory-motor	1.6 ± 2.4
		Polymodal association	1.0 ± 0.6
	Hemisphere	Sensory-motor	3.5 ± 7.8
		Polymodal association	1.2 ± 0.9
Anterograde neocortical timepoint (80 hpi)	All injections	Frontal	1.2 ± 0.5
		Medial	1.2 ± 0.4
		Posterior	1.0 ± 0.4
	Vermis	Frontal	1.2 ± 0.5
		Medial	1.2 ± 0.5
		Posterior	1.0 ± 0.5
	Hemisphere	Frontal	1.3 ± 0.4
		Medial	1.2 ± 0.3
		Posterior	1.2 ± 0.3
Retrograde neocortical timepoint (80 hpi)	All injections	Frontal	1.4 ± 0.6
		Medial	3.2 ± 2.8
		Posterior	1.7 ± 1.5
	Vermis	Frontal	1.2 ± 0.3
		Medial	2.7 ± 3.1
		Posterior	1.3 ± 0.8
	Hemisphere	Frontal	1.6 ± 0.7

		Medial	3.9 ± 2.4
		Posterior	2.2 ± 1.8

Supplementary Table 1. Contralateral-to-ipsilateral projection ratios for sub-regions in ascending and descending cerebellar pathways traced using H129-VC22 and PRV-Bartha. Front neocortical regions include infralimbic, prelimbic, anterior cingulate, orbital, frontal pole, gustatory, auditory, and visual cortex; medial regions include somatomotor and somatosensory cortex; posterior regions include retrosplenial, posterior parietal, temporal, perirhinal, and ectorhinal cortex.

Supplementary Figure 1. The Princeton mouse atlas, a light-sheet volumetric atlas with a

complete cerebellum. (a) Schematic depicting atlas generation. Mouse brains cleared using

iDISCO+ (n=110) were imaged using a light-sheet microscope were resampled to 20 µm/voxel.

A single volume was selected and the other brains registered to it. The median XYZ voxel was

then used from the resulting metabrain. (b) Three-dimensional projection rendering ("3D project"

function, ImageJ) of the light-sheet atlas. (c) Histogram correlations demonstrate human-

independent improvement in volumetric alignment. Pearson's correlations (scipy.stats) were

calculated using normalized histograms (bins=300) for unregistered (r=.005, p=.856, medians),

affine (r=0.518, p=4.94 x 10^-22), and affine & B-spline (r=0.712, p=1.26 x 10^-47) registered

volumes (n=224) with the PMA. (d) Color-blind friendly version demonstrating landmark

alignment example.

Supplementary Figure 2. Percent contributions of substructures to cerebellar volume in the

PMA. (a) Cerebellar substructure percent volumes. Bar plot depicts volumes as percentage of

gross cerebellar volumes in the PMA. Relative volume percentages of substructures in the

vermis (b), deep cerebellar nuclei (c), and hemispheres (d) are also shown. Abbreviations: CP,

copula pyramidis.

Supplementary Figure 3. Landmark euclidean distance quantification demonstrates

registration performance. Users (n=11), blinded to each volume's condition, annotated a total of

69 complementary points, across four brains, in unregistered (two identical volumes, human

precision), affine, affine & B-spline. Three-dimensional euclidean distances were determined.

Points are median user performance per condition and numbers displayed are median

distances across users. Dashed horizontal line depicts single voxel distance (20 μm).

Supplementary Figure 4. Cerebellar paths to ventral tegmental area are weaker than

thalamic projections. *Right*, mean percentage of total thalamic and midbrain neurons in each

region grouped by primary injection site. *Left,* mean density of neurons in each region grouped

by primary injection site. The top 3 most labeled thalamic regions and selected midbrain regions

are shown.

Supplementary Figure 5. Cerebellar projections to the contralateral striatum at the neocortical

timepoint. Percent of total labeled striatal neurons (left) and neuron density (right) for each

structure are shown. Median and quartiles 1 and 3 shown, whiskers are 1.5 times the

interquartile range.

Supplementary Figure 6. The striatum receives cerebellar input in dense striosome-like

clusters. Example viral labeling after a lobule VIII midline injection. 300 μm maximum intensity

projection. Autofluorescent horizontal plane used for anatomical reference.

Supplementary Figure 7. Cerebellar output to bilateral hypothalamus. Percent of total labeled

hypothalamic neurons (left) and neuron density (right) for each structure are shown. To

minimize false positives, areas around ventricles were eroded by 160 μm removing some

volume from the hypothalamic areas around ventral portions of the third ventricle. Median and

quartiles 1 and 3 shown, whiskers are 1.5 times the interquartile range. Abbreviations: a., area;

n., nucleus.

Supplementary Figure 8. ClearMap automatically quantifies c-Fos expression. A horizontal

image of a whole mouse brain with c-Fos antibody labeling (left) and overlay of c-Fos (gray) with

c-Fos positive cells detected using ClearMap (purple) are shown. 132 µm maximum intensity

projection.

Supplementary Figure 9. Cortical areas show increased c-Fos cell counts after cerebellar

optogenetic perturbation. Coronal maximum intensity projections (left) across 1 mm of tissue

corresponding to Princeton mouse atlas planes 100-150 (top) and 150-200 (bottom) after 375

μm spherical voxelization. Complementary sections (right) with anatomical labels of 18

structures with the largest number of significant voxels. Structures with the largest AP span are

shown when they overlap. Black X's in legend denote structures not shown due to overlap.

Schematic in lower left of D shows coronal ranges. Abbreviations: 1°, primary; 2°, secondary;

ant, anterior; AP, anteroposterior, D, dorsal; L, lateral, M, medial; n., nucleus; SS,

somatosensory; sub, substania; V, ventral.

Supplementary Figure 10. c-Fos p-value maps comparing brain regions activated by

cerebellar optogenetic perturbation (green) vs. controls (red) reveal patterns of activation in

pontine nuclei (a), midbrain (b), and superior colliculi (upper arrow) and hypothalamus (lower

arrow) (c). White arrows in each panel indicate named regions of interest. Significant voxels

(green or red) are shown overlaid on the Allen Brain Atlas template brain.

Area	Region	Subregion	Activation Ratio (Stim: Control)
Cortex	Agranular insula	Dorsal, 5	2.3
		Ventral, 6a	2.6
	Orbital area	Ventrolateral, 1	2.6
	Anterior cingulate	Ventral, 2/3	3.4
		Ventral, 5	**4.1**
	Dentate gyrus	Granule layer	2.1
	Temporal association area	6b	2.7
	Primary auditory	6b	2.6
		6a	2.0
	Dorsal auditory	6b	3.3
	Primary somatosensory	Upper limb, 1	2.4
		Upper limb, 5	2.3
		Lower limb, 5	2.9
		Upper limb, 6a	3.1
	Gustatory	4	3.9
	Piriform area		2.3
	Visceral area	2/3	2.0
	Secondary motor	5	2.5
		6a	2.2
	Endopiriform nucleus	Dorsal	2.4
Cerebral Nuclei	Globus pallidus	External	2.0
	Nucleus accumbens		**5.3**
Diencephalon	Thalamus	Complete	1.9
		Interanterodorsal	2.1
	Thalamus	**Centrolateral**	**6.0**
		Posterior complex	2.8
		Lateral geniculate	2.3
	Supramammillary nucleus		2.3
Midbrain	Anterior pretectal nucleus		1.8
	Periaqueductal gray		1.5
Hindbrain	Pontine central gray		2.3
	Barrington's nucleus		2.3
	Lobule VI		3.8
Fiber tracts	Lateral olfactory tract	Body	2.7
	Mammilothalamic tract		2.1

Cre +/-
Cre -/-

c-Fos positive cells/mm³

Supplementary Figure 11. A brain-wide nonmotor network traced from the cerebellum. Lobule

VI Purkinje cell inhibition leads to strong activity increases in nonmotor areas including the

anterior cingulate, nucleus accumbens and centrolateral nucleus of thalamus. Structures listed

have a Mann-Whitney p-value < 0.05.

Supplementary Figure 12. Cerebellar stereotactic AAV injection site reveals successful

targeting of deep cerebellar nuclei. (a) Coronal section after a unilateral cerebellar injection

with dentate and interposed nuclear expression. Axons are visible exiting from nuclei. (b)

Coronal section after a unilateral cerebellar injection (different animal) demonstrating fastigial

nuclear expression. Axons can be visualized exiting bilaterally from the cerebellum.

Supplementary Figure 13. Cell center anatomical assignments require multiple

transformations. Cell center anatomical assignment requires learning mapping between atlas

and signal space. The optimal approach is determining the transformations of atlas (moving) to

autofluorescence (fixed) and autofluorescence to signal space. Detected cell centers that have

been resampled to registration volume dimensions can be point transformed and anatomically

assigned.

Supplementary Figure 14. A template solution for anatomical commutability between groups.

Schematic depicting a solution of balancing considerations for project specific atlas

requirements while maintaining consistency with field standards. Groups independently

generate local atlases with all features required in their respective projections. Each experiment

can accurately be registered with the local atlas. Each group then determines transformation

between their local atlas and the field standard, allowing for anatomical commutability across

groups. Line with arrows represents determining a transformation between two volumes.

Supplementary Figure 15. Injection site segmentation and alignment process. Injection site

anatomical assignment is most efficiently done by mapping signal space (moving) with atlas

space (fixed). After the signal image transformation into atlas space, the injection site can be

easily segmented and voxels anatomically assigned. F, fixed image; M, moving image. The

lower half of B shows an example of segmenting a raw injection site and anatomically assigning

to vermal cerebellar lobules IV/V and VI.

Supplementary Figure 16. Graphs show percent of cerebellar cortical region covered by at

least 1 injection after automated injection site quantification of H129-VC22 and PRV injected

brains. Brains used in the H129 thalamic cohort (n=23) (a), the H129 neocortical cohort (n=33)

(b), and the PRV neocortical cohort (n=25) (c).