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

Thomas J. Pisano[1*], Zahra M. Dhanerawala[1*], Mikhail Kislin[1], Dariya Bakshinskaya[1], Esteban A. Engel[1], Junuk Lee[1], Nina L. de Oude[2], Ethan J. Hansen[3], Kannan Umadevi Venkataraju[4], Freek Hoebeek[5], Ben D. Richardson[3,6,] Jessica L. Verpeut[1], Henk-Jan Boele[1**], and Samuel S.-H. Wang[1**]

[1]Neuroscience Institute, Washington Road, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ 08544 USA.
[2]Department of Neuroscience, Erasmus MC, 3000 DR Rotterdam, The Netherlands.
[3]WWAMI Medical Education, University of Idaho, Moscow, ID 83844 USA.
[4]Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, One Bungtown Road, Cold Spring Harbor, NY 11724 USA.
[5]Heidelberglaan 100, University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht, The Netherlands.
[6]Department of Pharmacology, Southern Illinois University School of Medicine, Springfield, IL 62794 USA.

*Contributed to this work equally.
**Corresponding authors.

Correspondence: Samuel S.-H. Wang
                       Neuroscience Institute, Washington Road
                       Princeton University
                       Princeton, New Jersey 08544 USA
                       sswang@princeton.edu
                       +1 (609) 258-0388

                       Henk-Jan Boele
                       Neuroscience Institute, Washington Road
                       Princeton University
                       Princeton, New Jersey 08544 USA
                       hboele@princeton.edu
                       +1 (609) 510-3154

Abstract

Cerebellar outputs take almost exclusively polysynaptic routes to reach the rest of the

brain, impeding conventional tracing efforts. Here we quantify pathways between

cerebellar cortex and contralateral thalamic and corticostriatal structures using an

anterograde (H129) transsynaptic tracer herpes simplex virus type 1, a retrograde (Bartha)

tracer pseudorabies 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 that the majority of descending paths originate 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 is capable of using 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 on a

whole-brain scale. Of particular interest is the cerebellum's partnership with neocortex as these

two structures are the second-largest and largest divisions, respectively, of most mammalian

brains[7]. The major descending corticocerebellar pathway passes through the pons and the

majority of returning ascending fibers pass through the thalamus[8,9], comprising two massive

within-brain long-distance pathways[10]. These descending and ascending pathways are

suggested to form closed loops[11], giving each cerebellar region one or more specific neocortical

partners with which it exchanges information.

Great efforts have been made in mapping the structure of inputs, organization, and outputs

of the cerebellum. Two information streams, originating from the cortex and spinal cord, serve as

input into the cerebellum, with their targets arranged in zones defined by gene expression and

climbing fiber connections[12–15]. Incoming information through the mossy fiber/granule-cell

pathway diverges massively, followed by convergence onto Purkinje cells and deep cerebellar

nuclei (DCN)[13]. However, although classic tracing methodology can label monosynaptic

connections along these paths, the same methods cannot trace incoming or outgoing

polysynaptic chains of connection.

Given the brain-wide nature of cerebello-cortical pathways, researchers have examined

them using large-scale functional approaches. Transcranial magnetic stimulation in humans has

demonstrated that the cerebellum influences neocortical excitability[16]. Functional MRI can attain

subcentimeter resolution, detect long-distance correlations[17], and when coupled with cerebellar

stimulation in mice, demonstrate causal relationships[18]. Rat cerebellar output to focal regions in

the sensorimotor cortex and primate cerebellar output to specific motor and nonmotor regions

have been mapped by transsynaptic tracers[19,20]. 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

coupling between 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[21]. The H129 strain of

herpes simplex virus type 1 (HSV-H129) is an 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.

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[22], 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 trisynaptic 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 potential 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

quantitative map of the cerebellum's connectivity partners and provide insight into the extent of

divergence and convergence in pathways between neocortex and cerebellum, as well as possible

cerebellar contributions to whole-brain function and neurocognitive disorders.

RESULTS

HSV-H129 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 a high signal-to-noise ratio we

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

anti-HSV antibody, and light-sheet microscopy.

To determine the optimal timepoints for examining primarily disynaptic (*i.e.* Purkinje cell

to cerebellar nuclear to thalamic) and primarily trisynaptic (Purkinje cell to cerebellar nuclear to

thalamic to neocortical) targets, we injected H129-VC22 into the cerebellar cortex of mice and

examined tissue between 12 and 89 hours post-injection (hpi; **Figure 1b,c**). At 54 hpi, labeling

was observed in thalamus, with little visible labeling in neocortex (**Figure 1c,d**), and we used this

as the thalamic timepoint (**Table 1**). Labeling was seen in other midbrain and hindbrain areas,

consistent with known monosynaptic anterograde targets of the cerebellar and vestibular

nuclei[23,24]. Neocortical labeling was first visible at 73 hpi and throughout its extent by 82 hpi; we

defined 80 hpi as our neocortical timepoint. These timepoints are consistent with prior studies

using transsynaptic tracing with conventional histological-sectioning methods spanning two

synapses (60-72 hpi; Refs. 2,25; **Table 6**) and three synapses (80-96 hpi; Refs. 2,25).

HSV-H129 has previously been reported to have a slow retrograde component[26], which

might occur via uptake by axon terminals[27] followed by transport backward across synapses. To

test this, we examined dorsal column nuclei, which are two synaptic steps retrograde from the

cerebellar cortex (via mossy fibers) but which receive no known cerebellar-nuclear or vestibular-

nuclear innervation (**Supplementary Figure 1**). At 28-36 hpi, HSV-H129 led to minimal visible

labeling in the dorsal column nuclei). We normalized injections by dividing cell density by

anterogradely labeled cell density in the DCN. The retrograde:anterograde density ratio for HSV-

H129 injections was a median of 0.084 ± 0.032 at 28-36 hpi (estimated SEM, n=15 locations in 5

mice), and 0.096 ± 0.017 at 54 hpi (n=69 locations in 23 mice). To demonstrate the maximum

possible amount of retrograde labeling we used PRV (80 hpi) and found a median

retrograde:anterograde density ratio of 2.06 ± 0.17 (n=75 locations in 25 mice). Finally, we

ascertained where any retrograde HSV-H129 viral uptake would lead via subsequent anterograde

spread by examining the Mouselight database[28] (http://ml-neuronbrowser.janelia.org/). We found

36 fully-traced brainstem (medulla and pons) neurons with at least one axon projecting into the

cerebellum. In all but one of these neurons, the cerebellum was the sole target (**Supplementary**

Figure 2). Thus, to the extent that retrograde transport from injection sites occurs, it would still

not lead to alternate noncerebellar pathways. For purposes of transsynaptic tracing we conclude

that at our selected timepoints, HSV-H129 acts as an anterograde tracer.

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 2**). 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, we fitted individual light-sheet

brains 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 3**). 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 4**).

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

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

registered volumes (**Figure 2b**, **Supplementary Figure 5**). 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 $\sqrt{(93^2-}$

$49^2)$=79 μm, or 4 voxels.

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; Supplementary 6,7**) 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 to

neocortex. Number of neurons by region 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 from the cerebellar nuclei and ascends through the

superior cerebellar peduncle (also known as brachium conjunctivum), with most axons crossing

the midline before reaching the thalamus. We observed vestibular nuclear labeling after cerebellar

cortical injections, consistent with a direct projection from the cerebellar cortex (**Supplementary**

Figure 8). Short-incubation experiments showed that vestibular nuclei contained 22% of the total

combined vestibular and cerebellar-nuclear cell count. To assess the contribution of these paths

to vestibular nuclei, we examined the Mouselight database[28] and found 9 Purkinje cells with direct

vestibular-projecting axons, 6 of which were found in non-flocculonodular regions

(**Supplementary Figure 8)**. Thus a substantial fraction of cerebellar projections to vestibular

nuclei arise from widely distributed lobules.

A principal target of cerebellothalamic axons is the thalamic ventral nuclear group[23,29], which include somatosensory and somatomotor nuclei[30]. Consistent with known DCN projections, we observed strong connectivity to ventromedial (VM) and ventral anterior-lateral (VAL), motor thalamic nuclei[31], from vermal lobules (I-VII) and Crus II, and moderate connectivity from Crus I (**Figure 3d,e**). The ventral posteromedial nucleus (VPM), which conveys somatosensory whisker and mouth information, received diverse input from all but the most extreme posterior cerebellar areas (**Figure 3c,d,e**) consistent with known interpositus and vestibular nuclear projections[24,32]. These findings confirm that cerebellar-injected H129-VC22 labels major known pathways to neocortex via multiple distributed cerebellar-nuclear, vestibular, and thalamic intermediates.

179   We also observed labeling outside the ventral thalamus, including the thalamic reticular nucleus (TRN), lateral posterior (LP) and mediodorsal (MD) nuclei, and zona incerta[33]. MD and LP are association thalamic nuclei. MD is engaged during reversal learning[34], sends its output to frontal regions, including insular, orbital, and prelimbic cortex[35], and is engaged in cognitive and working memory tasks in humans[34]. Lobule VI, a site of structural abnormality in ASD[36], made dense projections to MD (**Figure 3d,e**). 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[35]. TRN, 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 (TRN).

190   To identify specific topographical relationships, we fitted a generalized linear model (GLM; **Figure 3d**), 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, TRN, MD, VM, VPL, VA-L,

paraventricular, anteromedial, and centrolateral; simplex to VPM, LP, dorsal lateral geniculate,

medial geniculate, and anterodorsal; crus I to VPM, lateral dorsal, reuniens, paraventricular and

anteromedial and central lateral; crus II to zona incerta, VPM, MD, TRN, VA-L, posterior complex,

and LP; and paramedian lobule and copula pyramidis to zona incerta, LD, parafascicular, ventral

lateral geniculate, and lateral habenula (**Table 3**).

Direct projections from cerebellar nuclei to thalamus are largely consistent with

transsynaptic tracing

As a second, non-transsynaptic 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; Supplementary Figure 9**). 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. Counts of vGluT2 and YFP co-labeled varicosities in thirteen randomly picked regions

in VM, VA-L, and CL (each region 100x100x5 microns) were strongly correlated with average

YFP brightness for that same region (r=+0.94, t=8.76, p<0.0001; **Supplementary Figure 10**).

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

correlated with the HSV-H129 neuron density averaged across all injections (**Figure 4c**; log-log

correlation r=+0.59, p=0.023). Taken together, these measurements indicate that HSV-H129

injections at the thalamic timepoint capture a representative pattern of projection from cerebellar

nuclei to contralateral thalamus.

Cerebellar nuclei project directly to the reticular thalamic nucleus

To identify neurons forming a monosynaptic projection to TRN, we injected into the TRN an

adeno-associated virus (AAV) that infects presynaptic terminals and expressed retrogradely

along axons to the parent neuronal cell body (AAVrg; Ref. 37). Injection into TRN of AAVrg-hSyn-

Chronos-GFP[38] induced GFP expression in a subset of neurons contralateral to the injection in

the ventrolateral dentate and dorsolateral interpositus nuclei (**Figure 4d-g; Supplementary**

Figure 11), consistent with prior reports[39–41] (**Supplementary Figure 12**). This pattern of

retrograde labeling in the cerebellar nuclei using a non-transsynaptic viral tracer (AAVrg) supports

the thalamic-timepoint HSV labeling data which indicate a direct projection from cerebellar nuclei

to TRN. An injection that missed TRN and instead infected nearby internal capsule

(**Supplementary Figure 11**) did not label neurons in cerebellar nuclei. In summary, AAVrg-based

retrograde labeling from TRN confirms a monosynaptic projection from cerebellar nuclei and is

consistent with the disynaptic projection from cerebellar cortex uncovered by HSV-H129

injections.

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 contralateral neocortical neurons were found in

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

posterior locations (**Figure 5d**). No output projection patterns were identified within subregions of

the somatosensory and somatomotor areas (**Supplementary Figure 13**).

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

(**Figure 5e**). 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**).

To build a single map from the results of many injections, 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 5d**). 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. Mean

neuron density by primary injection site (**Figure 5g**) revealed that all injected cerebellar sites sent

dense projections to infralimbic cortex. Cerebellar vermis (lobules VI-X) and crus I sent denser

projections than other cerebellar injection sites to infralimbic, prelimbic, and orbital cortex (**Figure**

5g). A similar pattern was observed by taking the maximum of the fraction of neurons across each

cerebellar region, where the majority of neurons were found in the somatosensory and

somatomotor cortex and a smaller number of neurons were found the retrosplenial, agranular

insular, anterior cingulate, and orbital cortex (**Supplementary Figure 14**).

Cerebellar paths reach reward-based structures in striatum and hypothalamus and project

modestly to ventral tegmental area

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

focus has been the ventral tegmental area (VTA)[42,43], including a recent report of cerebellar

influence over reward processing[44]. 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 15**). We found that

the total number of neurons in contralateral VTA[45] was considerably lower than in thalamic

regions, consistent with known tracing[23,32,43,44]. 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 TRN.

Cell count densities in substantia nigra (SNr and SNc) were even 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[46]. Among

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

nucleus accumbens, and cortical amygdala. Labeling was dense in nucleus accumbens,

septohippocampal and septofimbral nuclei as well as central/medial amygdala (**Supplementary**

Figure 16). At the thalamic and neocortical timepoints we also quantified hypothalamic

connectivity observing relatively strong expression in the lateral area as well as the periventricular

nucleus. We also observed high variability in projection density, likely related to the small volumes

of hypothalamic nuclei (**Supplementary Figure 17**). At both time points, we observed strong

labeling in the lateral hypothalamic area, which has been shown to regulate feeding and reward[47]

and the zona incerta, a well established recipient of DCN output[48].

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[49,50]. A

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

in sensory regions[51,52]. 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**). To validate these findings, we injected H129-VC22 at midline lobule VIa in Thy1-

YFP mice, which express YFP primarily in layer 5. These injections revealed viral labeling in

neocortex subjacent to YFP (**Supplementary Figure 18**).

Sensory regions are known to receive thalamic innervation of layer 4 neurons[51], However,

classical tracing typically does not identify the cellular target, only the cortical layer where the

synapse occurs[53]. We found that labeled layer 4 neurons comprised only 10% of cells in

somatosensory cortex and even less in other sensory regions (gustatory, visceral, temporal,

visual). Our results are consistent with the fact that thalamocortical synapses often occur in a

more superficial layer than the postsynaptic neuron[54].

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 6c,d,e**). This finding recalls the observation that in

associative neocortical regions, thalamocortical axons send substantial projections to superficial

layers[52]. 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 6c,d,e**). The share of labeling found

in in layer 5 and 6 neurons was higher for frontal nonmotor regions than for other cortical areas.

Taken together, our analysis reflects past findings that thalamic influences on neocortex arrive

first through superficial and deep layer pathways[54] (**Figure 6f**).

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 (**Supplementary Figure 19**).

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

somatosensory and somatomotor areas (**Figure 7d,f, Supplementary Figure 13**). 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[55]

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[56]. 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, by total proportion, to

sensorimotor cortical areas, 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 cerebellar nuclei, would be expected to

have a net excitatory effect on thalamic and therefore neocortical activity.

Photostimulation led to reductions in Purkinje cell firing rate that were restricted to the

light-flash period and led to no perturbations in arm speed during treadmill running

(**Supplementary Figure 20**). 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[22] (**Figure 8b,c**; **Supplementary Figure 21**) 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[57]. A voxel-wise t-test on cell count volumes

(**Supplementary Figure 22**) showed strong c-Fos expression in frontal neocortical regions,

especially in deep and middle neocortical layers. These findings are consistent with transsynaptic

tracing using both automated analysis of cleared tissue (**Supplementary Figure 19**) and standard

tissue sectioning and epifluorescent microscopy (**Supplementary Figure 18**).

Among neocortical regions, mean c-Fos stimulation-to-control cell density ratios and

H129-VC22 expression density was highly correlated (**Figure 8g**; c-Fos ratio vs. log HSV

expression r=+0.66, p=0.004), 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 23 and 24**).

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

homologous systems serving sensorimotor, flexible cognitive, and modulatory functions (**Figure**

9). Parallel paths to several of these systems often originated from a single injection site. Well-

known sensorimotor regions contained the most connections by total proportion, but nonmotor

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

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

structures.

In both neocortex and thalamus, the majority of total count of neurons labeled by

anterograde (HSV-H129) or retrograde (PRV-Bartha) viruses were found in structures classified

as sensorimotor, including ventral anterior-lateral (VAL; some portions termed ventrolateral (VL)

in older atlases[58]) and ventromedial (VM) thalamic nuclei[59]. By per-volume density of labeled

neurons, the strongest ascending projections went to anterior cingulate, prelimbic and infralimbic

cortex, as well as agranular and orbital areas. We also observed substantial relative labeling in

the VPM (sensorimotor), reticular thalamic (modulatory), and mediodorsal (associative) nuclei,

providing substrates for a variety of brain functions.

Although paths from cerebellum to thalamus and neocortex have been well-reported in

the past, differences from previous approaches may arise for several reasons. Traditional tracers

that do not cross synapses emphasize large presynaptic axons and extend only to their

terminations, which can be up to hundreds of microns away from postsynaptic neuronal cell

bodies. Such a distinction between axonal and transsynaptic tracing may account in part for the

strength of our observed projection to TRN neurons, which have elaborate dendritic processes

that extend into other thalamic nuclei[60]. Similarly, neocortical layer 5/6 pyramidal neuron dendrites

extend to superficial layers where thalamocortical synapses occur, and presynaptic fiber tracing

reveals connectivity to some superficial layers[53] while electrophysiological recordings identify

cortical recipient neurons in deeper layers[54]. Our neocortical labeling is consistent with

electrophysiological recordings.

A major architectural theme of cerebellar-neocortical interaction is that of closed loops, in

which it has been suggested that each region of neocortex may have a small number of principal

partners in the cerebellum, and vice versa[11]. Our work builds upon and broadens that picture.

Ascending cerebellar paths are influenced by a variety of both motor and nonmotor descending

information, thus forming a bidirectionally communicating loop between the neocortex and

cerebellum. Descending pathways from the neocortex were most strongly concentrated in

somatomotor and somatosensory cortex. Consistent with recent anterograde tracing from

neocortex to mossy fibers[61], by far the strongest neocortical paths to cerebellum originated from

somatosensory and somatomotor sites. Although that study did not encompass frontal nonmotor

neocortex, transsynaptic tracing in rat[15] does align with our observation of strong input from frontal

areas (prelimbic, infralimbic, insula and orbital cortices) to crus II. Taken together, connectivity

patterns observed suggest that the cerebellum receives information from a wide variety of

neocortical sites to exert returning influence on a similarly broad range of thalamic and neocortical

targets.

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

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

range of cognitive and emotional functions[62,63]. Because the refinement of neural circuitry is

activity-dependent[64], 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 with a high risk of ASD[36].

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[65]. This observation is consistent with our observation of NAc labeling at

the neocortical timepoint of HSV anterograde tracing (**Supplementary Figure 18**).

We found that crus I projects to lateral dorsal and paraventricular nuclei of the thalamus,

as well as frontal neocortical regions. Crus I has previously been observed to be activated during

working memory[66]. Novel projections from the DCN through lateral dorsal thalamus to regions

involved in working memory, the hippocampus and retrosplenial cortex, have been described

previously in the mouse[67]. In mice, disruptions of crus I activity in adulthood or juvenile life lead

to deficits in adult flexible behavior[2,68]; adult disruption shortens the time constant of a working

memory task[3]. Crus I also projects to paraventricular nucleus[62], which provides a possible

substrate for the observation that juvenile disruption of crus I leads to long-lasting deficits in social

preference[2]. In addition, we observed dense expression in septal and amygdalar regions

consistent with pathways established in rat and cat[69].

The cerebellum is known to be a site of sensory gating[70,71]. Tracing to thalamus suggests

that such gating might contribute to a broader regulatory network. Lobules (I-VII) and crus II sent

strong paths to thalamic reticular nucleus (TRN), a known monosynaptic target of the cerebellar

nuclei[72]. Our identification of neurons in the dentate and interpositus cerebellar nuclei that project

to TRN agrees with similar studies in rat[39,40] (**Supplementary Figure 12**) and cat[41].

TRN is the only thalamic nucleus that is inhibitory and the only one to send projections

exclusively within the thalamus itself. TRN may control sensory gain[73] and the flow of information

in and out of the neocortex[74]. TRN also receives a strong descending projection from neocortical

layer 6[74,75], 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[76,77]. 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 relied on time-

consuming human identification for analysis. More recently, tissue clearing has been used for

volumetric histological analyses, with the recent introduction of automated methods for cell

identification[22]. 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[22].

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.

We took two approaches to quantifying relative projection strength: fraction of total

expression for an entire parent structure (*e.g.* whole thalamus or neocortex) or density of cells

within a nucleus or region. Fraction of total expression allows for relative comparison of projection

strengths within a parent structure, conveying information about the distribution of influence. In

contrast, density takes the local target structure into account and provides information about the

concentrated influence on a particular recipient target. For example, although the great majority

of projections to neocortex are found in somatomotor and somatosensory cortices, the smaller

prefrontal areas receive a higher density of projections. This suggests cerebellum's capacity for

influence on prefrontal areas, while smaller in total terms, might still provide a means by which

cerebellar disruptions lead to deficits in nonmotor behavior[2,68].

Our HSV-based transsynaptic approach was designed to identify disynaptic paths from

cerebellar cortex to thalamus and trisynaptic paths to neocortex. Our control experiments using

shorter timepoints (28 and 36 hpi) and brainstem analysis at the disynaptic timepoint indicate that

retrograde transport was minimal. However, a variety of longer anterograde paths are possible.

The fastigial nuclei have bilateral efferents to the ipsilateral brachium conjunctivum (BC) and, via

the uncinate fasciculus to the contralateral BC[10,78] and the cerebellar nuclei project to

hindbrain/midbrain targets in addition to thalamus[10,79]. Tracing from neurons in the dentate

(lateral) nucleus has been shown to have axons crossing the thalamic midline terminating in the

ipsilateral VL[40,80] (current atlas definitions mostly of VA-L; **Supplementary Figure 12**). Indeed,

we observed contralateral crossing of axons after AAV injections in the fastigial nucleus

(**Supplementary Figure 9**). Over long distances, where transport time is increasingly dominated

by axon-associated transport mechanisms[81], HSV-H129 may follow such alternative paths, as

well as retrograde paths for incubations of 96 hours or longer. We therefore restricted our analysis

to contralateral projections and the shortest necessary incubation times, decreasing risk for

asynchronous or retrograde spread. 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.

Our cerebellum-to-thalamus projection data is broadly consistent with the literature,

though with more emphasis on sensory (*e.g.* VPM, DLG) over motor (*e.g.* VAL) structures. This

difference may arise from HSV-H129's ability to track the summed contributions of multiple

pathways with different intermediates. Convergent cerebellar projections to motor and sensory

neocortex have been recently characterized in the rat[19]. Some connectivity to sensory thalamus

may arise from vestibular nuclei[24,82,83]. Vestibular nuclei receive a well-known input from Purkinje

cells in flocculonodular cerebellum, but we found even more total input from other cerebellar

regions. In this way, cerebellar influence over a thalamic or neocortical target may be transmitted

via more than one path. Additional contrasts may arise from differences in the uptake, selectivity

and spread of tracers[84–86]. In particular, HSV spreads slower in large axons than small axons[87],

which may emphasize sensory pathways.

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. Initial fast and early learning occurs at parallel-fiber to Purkinje cell synapses

and other synapses[88]. Cerebellar and vestibular nuclei have their own information-processing and

learning rules and serve as an exit gateway to influence other brain regions[10,88]. The cerebellum

may generate predictions to fine-tune activity across nonmotor functions as well[3,6,89] as it is

composed of many modules, whose processing converges strongly onto cerebellar and vestibular

nuclei. Although classically these modules are considered to have specific extracerebellar

partners[13], our tracing quantifies the extent to which ascending cerebellar output paths from a

single site may provide the same predictive information to many targets with diverse functions at

the same time.

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[26], identifying cerebellar output targets, and retrogradely-transported PRV-Bartha[90], identifying the descending corticopontine pathway, comprised mostly of layer 5 pyramidal neurons[91]. 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 Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees of Princeton University (protocol number 1943-19), the University of Idaho (protocol number 2017-66), and the Dutch national experimental animal committees (DEC), and performed in accordance with the animal welfare guidelines of the National Institutes of Health (USA) or the European Communities Council Directive (Netherlands).

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[26]. 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[92], 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[90]), 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 deep cerebellar nuclear injections. During stereotaxic surgery, mice were anesthetized

with isoflurane (PCH, induction: 5%; maintenance: 2.0-2.5%) and received a mannitol injection

intraperitoneally (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. This AAV was used because it gave reliable strong axon terminal labeling

and because the animals were also used for another optogenetic study. 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).

AAV TRN injections. During stereotaxic surgery, mice (1-3 months of age) were anesthetized

with isoflurane (VetOne, induction: 3-5%; maintenance: 1.5-2.5%). For analgesic support mice

provided oral carprofen *ad libitum* from the day before and through 24hrs after surgery and given

slow release meloxicam (4mg/kg; ZooPharm, Larami, WY). Body temperature was maintained by

a warming blanket (Stoelting, Wood Dale, IL) under the animal throughout the surgery. Mice were

placed into a stereotactic frame (Kopf, Tujunga, CA), fixing the head with non-rupture ear bars, a

tooth bar and nose cone. Puralube® Vet eye ointment (Dechra) was used to prevent corneal

dehydration. A sagittal scalp incision was made, after which the exposed skull was cleaned with

sterile saline. A single small craniotomy (Ø0.6 mm) was made in the parietal bone (−1.3 mm AP

relative to lambda; 2.3 mm to the right of ML) for virus injection. Craniotomies were performed

using a stereotaxic-mounted drill (Foredom K.1070 Micromotor Drill). A unilateral 200-300 nl

injection of AAVrg-hSyn-Chronos-GFP (9.0×10^{12}; Addgene, Watertown, MA) at an infusion speed

of 0.01 µl/minute in the right TRN was done using a glass syringe and needle (Hamilton Company,

Franklin, MA). After slowly lowering the needle to the target site (-2.9 mm ventral), the needle

remained stationary for 1 minute before the start of the injection, and for 5 min after finishing the

injection. The needle was then withdrawn slowly from the brain. Craniotomies and skin were

closed using removable staples and mice continued to receive oral carprofen *ad libitum* for 24hrs

post-surgery. Animals were euthanized 20-25 days after viral injection and brains were fixed in

4% PFA. Brains were collected, frozen and coronally sectioned into 40 µm slices, then co-stained

with Hoechst 33324 (5 µg/ml; Invitrogen), chicken anti-GFP (1:500; Novus Biologicals; NB100-

1614), and rabbit anti-parvalbumin (1:500; ZRB1218; Millipore Sigma), and imaged with a

confocal fluorescence microscope at 10X and 20x (Nikon Instruments TiE Inverted Microscope

with Yokogawa X1 Spinning Disk) or epifluorescence microscope at 2.5X and 10X (Zeiss Axio

Imager.M2).

Transsynaptic viral tracing for tissue clearing (HSV-H129 and PRV-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 Ref. 93). At the timepoints used CTB-555 persisted at the injection site. Pipettes

were inserted perpendicular to tissue surface to a depth of approximately 200 μm. **Table 4**

describes injection parameters for each type of experiment.

Pressure injections delivered 80 to 240 nl into the target location. Consistent with prior

literature we observed that minimum injections of 10^4 PFUs were required for successful HSV-

H129 infection[94]. This viral feature dictated a lower injection size limit. Smaller injections

consistently produced unsuccessful primary infections and thus no transsynaptic spread.

Unfortunately, this feature also prevented consistent injections of single zones as defined by

zebrin staining.

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 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[81,95–97], leading to labeling of alternative paths and retrograde paths after

96 hours[26]. Our selected timepoints were shorter than published timepoints (**Table 6**), and were

therefore likely to reduce the degree of supernumerary synaptic spread.

Considerations when using transsynaptic tracing viruses. For practical use in tracing,

transsynaptic viral tracers typically require doses close to the infectivity threshold. For H129, the

minimum dose is 10^4 pfus[94]; consistent with our injections). Although injecting close to the

infectivity threshold results in greater infection variability as well as failure to label all second- and

third- order neurons, it ensures the most specific transport, protecting against nonspecific

nontransneural transport[98,99].

To quantify possible retrograde HSV-H129 transport from the injection site[27]

(**Supplementary Figure 1**), we compared retrograde:anterograde density ratios for HSV-H129

and PRV at disynaptic (HSV-H129 54 hpi; PRV 80 hpi) timepoints. We used the dorsal column

nuclei, disynaptically retrograde from cerebellar cortex that lacks anterograde projections from

DCN, for retrograde spread. We used the DCN, monosynaptic anterograde, for anterograde

spread. PRV provides the maximum amount of retrograde labeling.

To minimize unintended further downstream synaptic spread, we performed empirical time

series and selected the minimal time that provided sufficient spread. We compared our time points

with known literature and found that we never exceeded published timepoints and often had

considerably shorter timepoints than other work (**Table 6**). Transsynaptic tracing is always at risk

for loss of synchrony with viral particles traveling along parallel polysynaptic circuits. For example,

the HSV-H129 neocortical timepoint will not be 100% thalamocortical target neurons, but may

contain a small fraction of "leading-edge" cells that are one step further. However, our shorter-

than-published timepoints suggests our studies minimize this risk. This also suggests that tissue

clearing is likely a more sensitive method, allowing for unbiased whole-brain observation of viral

spread. Previous studies, by nature of manual annotation, could only observe a small subset of

brain regions without robust quantification. Every tool, viral or nonviral, has its own differential

selectivity for different types of neurons; Alphaherpesviruses (such as PRV and HSV) have been

shown to spread faster in sensory peripheral nerves than motor paths[87,100]. Other viral tropism

differences have been directly studied in Rabies versus AAV[84] as well as tropism across AAV

serotypes[85,86]. Although HSV-H129 has its limitations with different spread characteristics across

strains[101] is it the most robust tool currently available for anterograde transsynaptic viral tracing.

Therefore likely some of differences between our findings and classically established literature

could be related to both the use of transsynaptic viruses as well as whole-brain statistical unbiased

quantification.

VIRAL TRACING WITH TISSUE SECTIONING AND SLIDE-BASED MICROSCOPY

Viral tracing 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 Ref. 26), 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 a 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[22] was used (*Supplemental 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 4** 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[102] 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[103]. 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[22].

Affine and b-spline transformations were computed using elastix[104,105]; 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:

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

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

nonlinearities and is defined as:

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

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

Ref. 106, 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 25**).

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** and **Supplementary Figure 3a**). 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[22] adapting code for use on a Slurm-based[107] 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 paraflocculi, 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 3b** and **Supplementary**

Figure 26). We then determined the transformation between the PMA and the Allen Brain

CCFv3[108] 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[109]; 3D project function (**Supplementary Figure 3a**). The PMA interactive three-

dimensional rendering of the PMA is available http://brainmaps.princeton.edu/pma_neuroglancer

and can be downloaded from https://brainmaps.princeton.edu/pma_landing_page.

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

quantifying euclidean landmark distances, defined by blinded users (similar to Ref. 110) 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[111] 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[112], 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 27**) 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[113]).

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[114,115]. Although typically used as a tracer itself, used

during the small window of ~80 hours post-injection, it did not have time to spread.

Supplementary Figure 7 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 (**Table 2** for dataset description). Annotations were

recorded by marking cell centers using ImageJ[109]. To generate labeled volumes, Otsu's

thresholding method (skimage.filters.threshold_otsu, Scikit-Image[116] 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[117,118]

(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

(Ref. 119). First, we needed to compare CNN output with our ground truth annotations by

quantifying true positives (TP), false negatives (FN), and false positives (FP). We defined human-

annotation as ground truth, consistent with the machine learning field[120]. 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 Ref. 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**).

Two primary methods of quantification were used, fraction of all labeled neurons in the

thalamus or neocortex, and density within particular structures. Fraction of neurons is defined as

the total labelled neuron count within a structure (*e.g.* VAL) divided by the main parent structure

(*e.g.* thalamus). This number is useful as it gives relative target projection strength relative to

other projection strengths within the parent structure. However, this does not provide information

in non-relative terms. Density, defined as total labelled neurons divided by volume of the structure,

takes into account the relative sizes for each structure, allowing for more absolute comparisons

of recipient structures. In anterograde examples, density therefore provides information on the

concentration of influence a cerebellar region may have on a target structure.

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 4f**, **6f,** and **8f,** 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.

IMMUNOFLUORESCENCE IMAGE AND ANALYSIS

AAV DCN Injections. To visualize YFP labeled fibers and vGluT2-positive terminals in the

thalamus, 40 micron thick slices were stained for vGluT2 anti-guinea pig Cy5 (Millipore Bioscience

Research reagent 1:2000 diluted in PBS containing 2% NHS and 0.4% Triton). Images were taken

using a confocal LSM 700 microscope (Carl Zeiss). Terminals positive to VGluT2 staining were

identified and morphologically studied using confocal images that were captured using the

following excitation wavelengths: 488 nm (YFP) and 639 nm (Cy5). High resolution image stacks

were acquired using a 63X1.4 NA oil objective with 1X digital zoom, a pinhole of 1 Airy unit and

significant oversampling for deconvolution (voxel dimension is: 46 nm width x 46 nm length x 130

nm depth calculated according to Nyquist factor; 8-bit per channel; image plane 2048 x 2048

pixels). Signal-to-noise ratio was improved by 2 times line averaging. Image stacks were

deconvolved using Huygens software (Scientific Volume Imaging). With a custom-written Fiji-

scripts (ImageJ) we identified putative synaptic contacts, *i.e.* YFP-positive varicosities that

colocalized with vGluT2-staining, following the same analysis pipeline as Ref. 59 (script available

upon reasonable request). The color channels (YFP and Cy5) of the images were split to get

separate stacks. The YFP and Cy5 channels were Gaussian blurred (sigma = 1) and selected by

a manually set threshold. A binary open function was done on both images (iterations = 4, count

= 2) and objects were removed if their size was <400 pixels (YFP). A small dilatation was done

on the red image (iteration = 1, count = 1). With the image calculator an 'and-operation' was done

using the binary red and green image. The values 255 (white) of the binary YFP image were set

to 127. This image and the result of the AND-operation were combined by an OR-operation. The

resulting image was measured with the 3D-object counter plugin for volumes and maximum

intensities. Only objects containing pixels with an intensity of 255 (overlap) are taken in account

for particle analysis. Estimation of synapse density (number of terminals/area μm^3) was obtained

for each image by dividing the number of terminals by the image area[121]. Regression between

AAV and HSV-H129 density was performed using two-sided Pearson's regression was performed

(R, cor.test).

C-FOS MAPPING EXPERIMENT

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

Fos, an immediate-early gene product[122]. 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[123]. rAAV1-CAG-FLEX-ArchT-GFP (UNC Vector Core, deposited

by Dr. Ed Boyden, 4×10^{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.

Unlike transsynaptic tracing, where each individual animal can be used to test connectivity

of a different cerebellar region, this experimental paradigm requires targeting the same cerebellar

region (Lobule VI) to achieve sufficient statistical power. To ensure adequate power in this

experiment our sample sizes were at least double the size in the original studies developing this

methodology[22]. We selected lobule VI as the target, given prior nonmotor findings associated with

this lobule[2].

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[124] 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[124] 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). We determined the appropriate

stimulation power using test animals, prepared in the same manner as previously described, but

also with electrophysiological recordings. We titrated our stimulus on these test animals (not

included in manuscript cohort) to ensure it did not produce movements while producing reliable

silencing of Purkinje cells during light stimulus, but without significant silencing after termination

of the light-stimulus (**Supplementary Figure 20**). The experimental configuration delivered light

from illumination from outside the brain, which was therefore attenuated through the air, coverslip,

and brain tissue, leading to light scattering and heat dissipation. This made power requirements

higher than other published studies[18].

We selected the comparison between Cre +/- and Cre -/- animals to ensure our control

animals (no Cre, no channelrhodopsin) received the same surgery, injection, coverslip placement,

and head mount, and were placed on the same wheel and received the laser placement and

activation. This controlled for differences in experimental stress. These animals were also cage

mates (mixed Cre +/- and Cre -/- in each cage) since birth and provided natural blinding of

condition to the experimenter.

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. Both ArchT-expressing mice and non-expressing

mice received cranial windows, habituation, and photostimulation.

For behavioral quantification (**Supplementary Figure 20**), videos were imported into

ImageJ using QuickTime for Java library, and images converted into grayscale. Timing of

optogenetic stimulation was confirmed by analysis of pixel intensity over optical fiber connection

to implanted cannulae. Forelimb kinematic data and treadmill speed were analyzed by Manual

Tracking plugin. For arm movement stimulation movements with forearm moving forward (initial

positive slope) from forearm moving backwards (initial negative slope).

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_2PO_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[22] 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, linear-least squares regression

(scipy.stats.linregress, two-sided) were calculated using mean viral-labeling neocortical densities

with H129-VC22 injections (80 hpi) were compared with the mean cell density ratio of c-Fos

stimulation vs control groups.

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[125] 1.14.3 and Pandas[126] 0.23.0. Plotting was done with

Matplotlib[127] 2.2.2 and Seaborn[128] 0.9.0. Image loading, manipulation and visualization was done

using Scikit-Image[116] 0.13.1 and SimpleITK[129] 1.0.0. SciPy[113] 1.1.0 was used for statistical

analyses. Clustering analysis was performed using Seaborn[128] 0.9.0 and Scikit-Learn[130] 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 in Ref. 2). The Mann-Whitney U test (two-tailed;

scipy.stats.mannwhitneyu, SciPy[113] 1.1.0) was used to determine statistical significance between

control and experimental brain regions in c-Fos studies.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Aleksandra Badura for advice on experimental design, Lynn W. Enquist for discussion and for the generous gift of PRV-Bartha 152 (CNNV, P40 OD010996), James Gornet for neural network implementation assistance, Austin Hoag for software design and management, Nicolas Renier and Kelly Seagraves for tissue-clearing optimization, Stephan Thiberge for microscopy help, and Shruthi Deivasigamani, Joseph Gotto, Joyce C. Lee, Laura A. Lynch, Caroline Jung, Dafina Pacuku, and Thaddeus Weigel for technical assistance. This work was supported by NIH R01 NS045193, R01 MH115750, and U19 NS104648 (S.W.), F31 NS089303 (T.P.), P40 OD010996 (E.E.), R21 DC018365 (B.R.), and P20GM103408 (E.H. and B.R.), Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research - Veni ZonMW, 91618112 (H.-J.B), Erasmus MC Fellowship 106958 (H.-J.B), and the New Jersey Council on Brain Injury Research (J.V.) .

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.U.V. and T.P. designed algorithms for image analysis. M.K., J.L., and T.P. performed optogenetics experiments. E.H. and B.R. performed AAVrg experiments, B.R. collected and analyzed images. H.-J. B., N. de O. and F.H. 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

1102

1103 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

DATA AVAILABILITY

1104

1105 The datasets generated and analyzed in the current study are available from the corresponding

1106 author upon request.

CODE AVAILABILITY

1107

All experimental and analysis code is available at the links provided in the Methods section.

FIGURES

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 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 cerebellar nuclei and thalamus, 150 µm for neocortex. (d) Quantification of viral spread. Quantification of cell counts from five planes at each timepoint for each brain region is shown. Error bars represent 95% confidence interval. (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) *Left*, fraction of neurons across all injection sites. Percentage fraction was calculated by dividing the number of neurons detected by the total number of neurons detected across all thalamus. Injection coverage fractions (red) and fraction of neurons (blue) are represented. One column represents one mouse. *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. (e) *Left*, density of neurons in each thalamic area across all cerebellar injection sites. *Middle*, mean density projections across injections sites from the same cerebellar region. *Right*, grouping according to Ref. 30. 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 including the thalamic reticular nucleus. (a) Cerebellar nuclei

were injected with AAV-YFP. Brains were coronally sectioned to identify cerebellothalamic axonal projection density. (b) Coronal sections after a cerebellar nuclear injection primarily targeting the interpositus and dentate nuclei. Manually drawn Paxinos coronal overlays are shown. Bregma -1.40 mm corresponds to A. (c) Cerebellothalamic axons identified by AAV injections aligned with transsynaptic tracing. Pearson's correlation (r=0.59, p=0.023) of rank order density of HSV-labeled thalamic neurons after cerebellar cortical injection versus cerebellothalamic axonal projection density. (d) Schematic of AAVrg-hSyn-Chronos-GFP (AAVrg-GFP) injection into right TRN. (e) Confocal microscopy image of AAVrg-GFP expression in TRN (outlined in white). Co-labeling of GFP (green) that labels a major subset of TRN neurons. (f) Example confocal microscopy images from the left cerebellar nuclei demonstrate presence of GFP-expressing (green) neuron bodies primarily in the ventrolateral dentate with additional expression in dorsal IP and fastigial nuclei. Nuclei are labeled with Hoechst (blue). (g) Distribution of GFP+ neuronal cell bodies (dot) throughout the cerebellar nuclei quantified from 4-5 coronal cerebellar sections per animal with GFP-expressing neurons color-coded to correspond to individual experiments. Abbreviations: 4V, fourth ventricle; AV, anteroventral; CL, central lateral; DN, dentate nucleus; FN, fastigial nucleus; GFP, green fluorescent protein; Hip, hippocampus; IP, interpositus nucleus; LatHab, lateral habenula; LD, lateral dorsal; LP, lateral posterior; M, motor cortex; MD, mediodorsal; ParaFasc, parafascicular; Po, posterior complex; PV, parvalbumin; S, somatosensory cortex; TRN, thalamic reticular nucleus; VA-L, ventral anterior-lateral; VM, ventral medial; VN, vestibulocerebellar nucleus; VPL, ventral posterolateral; VPM, ventral posteromedial; vLGN, ventral lateral geniculate nucleus; ZI, zona incerta.

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 coronal image of labeling ~80 hours post-injection. 100 µm maximum intensity projection. (d) *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. (e) *Left*, density of neurons in each neocortical area across all injections. *Right*, mean density of neurons. Abbreviations: Ant, anterior; CP, Copula pyramidis; PM, Paramedian; Post, posterior.

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) Projection differences by layer after grouping cortical regions by function. Percent of cortical neurons shown. (d) Average percent of HSV-H129 neurons per region and (e) average density for neocortical regions separated by layer. Neocortical regions are functionally grouped as in (c). (f) 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: Ant, anterior. Functional categories: Rhinal: perirhinal and ectorhinal areas; Somatosensory/-motor: somatosensory and somatomotor areas; Special sensory & association: retrosplenial, visual, gustatory, visceral, auditory, and temporal association areas; Frontal nonmotor: infralimbic, anterior cingulate, orbital, prelimbic, agranular insular areas.

Figure 7. Descending projections to cerebellar cortex labeled using PRV-Bartha. (a) Schematic of the retrograde disynaptic 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) *Left*, fraction of neurons 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. 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. (e) *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.

a

Cranial window

500 μm

Purkinje cell

75 μm

Photostimulation
532 nm,
1 Hz, 250 ms,
56 mW/mm2

Cranial window

100 ms

Thal   N. Acc

IO   PN

D
P ← → A
V

b

N = 10 registered brains

Brains expressing

1 mm

D
L ← → R
V

c

c-Fos after photostimulation

Sig. ML voxels

1 mm

D
L ← → R
P

300 μm

d

Thy1-YFP + HSV-H129

HSV-H129

1 mm

250 μm

e

Structure count

Regions with Mann-W
sign. & act. ratio > 2.5

0.1   0.3   1   3   10

Activation ratio

g

c-Fos density ratio
(stimulation:control)

Motor
Sensory
Gustatory
Visceral
Orbital
Infralimbic
Auditory
Prelimbic
Temporal
Insula
Parietal
Ectorhinal   Ant Cingulate
Retrospl.
Perirhinal
Visual
Frontal Pole

r = 0.66, p = 0.004

6x10¹   10²   2x10²   3x10²   4x10²

HSV tracing density (cells/ mm³)

f

Signal/ activation

■ Photostimulated
□ Control

Region	Signal/activation		Group
Agranular insular, V, 6a	2.6		Neocortex
Orbital, VL, 1	2.6		
Ant. cingulate, V, 2/3	3.4		
Ant. cingulate, V, 5	4.1		
Temp. association, 5	2.7		
Primary auditory, 6b	2.6		
Dorsal auditory, 6b	3.3		
SSa, lower limb, 5	5.0		
SSa, upper limb, 6a	3.1		
Gustatory, 4	3.9		
N. Accumbens	5.3		Basal ganglia
CL nucleus	6.0		Thalamus
Posterior complex	2.8		
Lobule VI	3.8		Cerebellum

10⁰   10¹   10²   10³

c-Fos positive cells/ mm³

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 the number of c-Fos neurons in the photostimulated divided by the 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) c-Fos density ratio (mean stimulation density divided by mean control density) is positively correlated (r=0.66) with neocortical transsynaptic tracing density. For boxplots, center line represents median; box limits, upper and lower quartiles; whiskers, 1.5 times the interquartile range. Abbreviations: Ant, Anterior; C, caudal; D, dorsal; N, nucleus; Retrospl., retrosplenial area; SM, somatomotor areas; SS, somatosensory areas; V, ventral.

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].

Table 1. Cohort details for each structure analyzed. Abbreviations: hpi, hours post-injection.

Structure	Timepoint	Number of brains	Edge erosion	Ventricular erosion
Brainstem (H129)	28-36 hpi	5	60 µm	80 µm
Thalamus (H129)	54 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

Table 2. Training datasets descriptions used to train cell detectors.

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

Table 3. Thalamic target area function references. Abbreviations: VA-L, ventral anterior-lateral; VPL, ventral posterolateral; VPM, ventral posteromedial; LGN, lateral geniculate nucleus.

Thalamic Area	General function	Reference
Anteroventral	Spatial Memory	131
Central lateral	Emotional aspects of nociception	132
Lateral dorsal	Somatosensory processing	133
Lateral posterior	Visually-guided behavior	134
Lateral habenula	Reward Negative	135
Mediodorsal	Processing/integration of memory/cognition	34
Medial habenula	Emotion-associated behavior	136
Parafascicular	Reversal Learning	137
Paraventricular	Emotional arousal, +/- behavioral mediation	62,138
Posterior triangle	Nociception	139
Posterior complex	Adjusting response to unexpected sensory input	140
Reticular	Cortical-based modulation of thalamus	74
Reuniens	Hippocampal modulation	141
Submedial	Olfaction	142
VA-L	Memory/Spatial navigation & Motor	143
Ventral medial	Motor	144
VPL	Sensory Body	145
VPM	Sensory Face	145
Ventral LGN	Visuomotor response & Circadian rhythms	146

Table 4. Experimental injection and clearing protocols for transsynaptic and physiologic tracing from cerebellum. Abbreviations: hpi, hours post-injection.

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 (28-36 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
Anterograde thalamic timepoint (54 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
Anterograde neocortical timepoint (80 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
Retrograde neocortical timepoint (28-50 hpi)	PRV-Bartha 152 (6.0×10^4 PFUs)	1:750 Chicken anti-GFP Aves GFP-1020	1:400 Donkey anti-Chicken AlexaFluor 647 Jackson ImmunoResearch 703-606-155
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

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

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

Table 6. HSV-H129 timepoints used in transsynaptic tracing studies.

H129 Publication	Circuit	Timepoint (hours post injection)
147	Airway related-sensory circuitry (1 synapse)	48 hours (no expression at 24 hours).
25	White adipose tissue to CNS (1 synapse)	48 hr (no expression at 24 hr)
44	DCN -> midbrain (1 synapse)	50 hr
Our study	**Cerebellum -> DCN -> midbrain (2 synapses)**	**54 hr**
2	Cerebellum -> DCN -> midbrain (2 synapses)	60 hr
25	White adipose tissue to CNS (2 synapses)	72 hr
148	Tracheal sensory pathways (peripheral nervous system -> CNS 2 synapses at 72hr, 3 at 96hr)	72 hr (also 96-144 hr)
2	Cerebellar -> DCN -> thalamus -> neocortex (3 synapses)	80 hr
149	Cerebellar output to neocortex (3 synapses)	96 hours

REFERENCES

1. Stoodley, C. J. & Schmahmann, J. D. Functional topography in the human cerebellum: a meta-analysis of neuroimaging studies. *Neuroimage* **44**, 489–501 (2009).

2. Badura, A. *et al.* Normal cognitive and social development require posterior cerebellar activity. *Elife* **7**, (2018).

3. Deverett, B., Koay, S. A., Oostland, M. & Wang, S. S.-H. Cerebellar involvement in an evidence-accumulation decision-making task. *Elife* **7**, (2018).

4. Courchesne, E. *et al.* Unusual brain growth patterns in early life in patients with autistic disorder: an MRI study. *Neurology* **57**, 245–254 (2001).

5. Limperopoulos, C. *et al.* Does cerebellar injury in premature infants contribute to the high prevalence of long-term cognitive, learning, and behavioral disability in survivors? *Pediatrics* **120**, 584–593 (2007).

6. Wang, S. S.-H., Kloth, A. D. & Badura, A. The cerebellum, sensitive periods, and autism. *Neuron* **83**, 518–532 (2014).

7. Clark, D. A., Mitra, P. P. & Wang, S. S. Scalable architecture in mammalian brains. *Nature* **411**, 189–193 (2001).

8. Voogd, J. & Ruigrok, T. J. H. Chapter 15 - Cerebellum and Precerebellar Nuclei. in *The Human Nervous System (Third Edition)* (eds. Mai, J. K. & Paxinos, G.) 471–545 (Academic Press, 2012). doi:10.1016/B978-0-12-374236-0.10015-X.

9. Percheron, G., François, C., Talbi, B., Yelnik, J. & Fénelon, G. The primate motor thalamus. *Brain Res. Brain Res. Rev.* **22**, 93–181 (1996).

10. Ruigrok, T. J. H., Sillitoe, R. V. & Voogd, J. Chapter 9 - Cerebellum and Cerebellar Connections. in *The Rat Nervous System (Fourth Edition)* (ed. Paxinos, G.) 133–205 (Academic Press, 2015). doi:10.1016/B978-0-12-374245-2.00009-7.

11. Strick, P. L., Dum, R. P. & Fiez, J. A. Cerebellum and nonmotor function. *Annu. Rev. Neurosci.* **32**, 413–434 (2009).

12. Voogd, J. & Ruigrok, T. J. H. The organization of the corticonuclear and olivocerebellar climbing fiber projections to the rat cerebellar vermis: the congruence of projection zones and the zebrin pattern. *J. Neurocytol.* **33**, 5–21 (2004).

13. Apps, R. & Hawkes, R. Cerebellar cortical organization: a one-map hypothesis. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.* **10**, 670–681 (2009).

14. Sugihara, I. & Shinoda, Y. Molecular, topographic, and functional organization of the cerebellar cortex: a study with combined aldolase C and olivocerebellar labeling. *J. Neurosci.* **24**, 8771–8785 (2004).

15. Suzuki, L., Coulon, P., Sabel-Goedknegt, E. H. & Ruigrok, T. J. H. Organization of cerebral projections to identified cerebellar zones in the posterior cerebellum of the rat. *J. Neurosci.* **32**, 10854–10869 (2012).

16. Popa, T., Russo, M. & Meunier, S. Long-lasting inhibition of cerebellar output. *Brain Stimul.* **3**, 161–169 (2010).

17. Buckner, R. L., Krienen, F. M., Castellanos, A., Diaz, J. C. & Yeo, B. T. T. The organization of the human cerebellum estimated by intrinsic functional connectivity. *J. Neurophysiol.* **106**, 2322–2345 (2011).

18. Choe, K. Y., Sanchez, C. F., Harris, N. G., Otis, T. S. & Mathews, P. J. Optogenetic fMRI and electrophysiological identification of region-specific connectivity between the cerebellar cortex and forebrain. *Neuroimage* **173**, 370–383 (2018).

19. Aoki, S., Coulon, P. & Ruigrok, T. J. H. Multizonal Cerebellar Influence Over Sensorimotor Areas of the Rat Cerebral Cortex. *Cereb. Cortex* **29**, 598–614 (2017).

20. Middleton, F. A. & Strick, P. L. Cerebellar output: motor and cognitive channels. *Trends Cogn. Sci.* **2**, 348–354 (1998).

21. Dum, R. P. & Strick, P. L. Transneuronal tracing with neurotropic viruses reveals network macroarchitecture. *Curr. Opin. Neurobiol.* **23**, 245–249 (2013).

22. Renier, N. *et al.* Mapping of Brain Activity by Automated Volume Analysis of Immediate

Early Genes. *Cell* **165**, 1789–1802 (2016).

23. Teune, T. M., van der Burg, J., van der Moer, J., Voogd, J. & Ruigrok, T. J. Topography of cerebellar nuclear projections to the brain stem in the rat. *Prog. Brain Res.* **124**, 141–172 (2000).

24. Wijesinghe, R., Protti, D. A. & Camp, A. J. Vestibular Interactions in the Thalamus. *Front. Neural Circuits* **9**, 79 (2015).

25. Song, C. K., Kay Song, C., Schwartz, G. J. & Bartness, T. J. Anterograde transneuronal viral tract tracing reveals central sensory circuits from white adipose tissue. *American Journal of Physiology-Regulatory, Integrative and Comparative Physiology* vol. 296 R501–R511 (2009).

26. Wojaczynski, G. J., Engel, E. A., Steren, K. E., Enquist, L. W. & Patrick Card, J. The neuroinvasive profiles of H129 (herpes simplex virus type 1) recombinants with putative anterograde-only transneuronal spread properties. *Brain Struct. Funct.* **220**, 1395–1420 (2015).

27. Su, P. *et al.* Evaluation of retrograde labeling profiles of HSV1 H129 anterograde tracer. *J. Chem. Neuroanat.* **100**, 101662 (2019).

28. Winnubst, J. *et al.* Reconstruction of 1,000 Projection Neurons Reveals New Cell Types and Organization of Long-Range Connectivity in the Mouse Brain. *Cell* **179**, 268–281.e13 (2019).

29. Gao, Z. *et al.* A cortico-cerebellar loop for motor planning. *Nature* **563**, 113–116 (2018).

30. Jones, E. G. *The Thalamus*. (Springer Science & Business Media, 2012).

31. Sieveritz, B., García-Muñoz, M. & Arbuthnott, G. W. Thalamic afferents to prefrontal cortices from ventral motor nuclei in decision-making. *Eur. J. Neurosci.* **49**, 646–657 (2019).

32. Aumann, T. D., Rawson, J. A., Finkelstein, D. I. & Horne, M. K. Projections from the lateral and interposed cerebellar nuclei to the thalamus of the rat: a light and electron microscopic study using single and double anterograde labelling. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **349**, 165–181

(1994).

33. Ossowska, K. Zona incerta as a therapeutic target in Parkinson's disease. *J. Neurol.* **267**, 591–606 (2020).

34. Mitchell, A. & Chakraborty, S. What does the mediodorsal thalamus do? *Front. Syst. Neurosci.* **7**, 37 (2013).

35. Hunnicutt, B. J. *et al.* A comprehensive thalamocortical projection map at the mesoscopic level. *Nat. Neurosci.* **17**, 1276–1285 (2014).

36. Courchesne, E., Yeung-Courchesne, R., Press, G. A., Hesselink, J. R. & Jernigan, T. L. Hypoplasia of cerebellar vermal lobules VI and VII in autism. *N. Engl. J. Med.* **318**, 1349–1354 (1988).

37. Tervo, D. G. R. *et al.* A Designer AAV Variant Permits Efficient Retrograde Access to Projection Neurons. *Neuron* **92**, 372–382 (2016).

38. Klapoetke, N. C. *et al.* Independent optical excitation of distinct neural populations. *Nat. Methods* **11**, 338–346 (2014).

39. Cavdar, S. *et al.* Cerebellar connections to the rostral reticular nucleus of the thalamus in the rat. *J. Anat.* **201**, 485–491 (2002).

40. Chan-Palay, V. *Cerebellar Dentate Nucleus: Organization, Cytology and Transmitters*. (Springer, 2013).

41. Nakamura, H. Cerebellar projections to the ventral lateral geniculate nucleus and the thalamic reticular nucleus in the cat. *J. Neurosci. Res.* **96**, 63–74 (2018).

42. Watabe-Uchida, M., Zhu, L., Ogawa, S. K., Vamanrao, A. & Uchida, N. Whole-brain mapping of direct inputs to midbrain dopamine neurons. *Neuron* **74**, 858–873 (2012).

43. Phillipson, O. T. Afferent projections to the ventral tegmental area of Tsai and interfascicular nucleus: a horseradish peroxidase study in the rat. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **187**, 117–143 (1979).

44. Carta, I., Chen, C. H., Schott, A. L., Dorizan, S. & Khodakhah, K. Cerebellar modulation of

the reward circuitry and social behavior. *Science* **363**, (2019).

45. Snider, R. S. & Maiti, A. Cerebellar contributions to the Papez circuit. *J. Neurosci. Res.* **2**, 133–146 (1976).

46. Bostan, A. C. & Strick, P. L. The basal ganglia and the cerebellum: nodes in an integrated network. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.* **19**, 338–350 (2018).

47. Stamatakis, A. M. *et al.* Lateral Hypothalamic Area Glutamatergic Neurons and Their Projections to the Lateral Habenula Regulate Feeding and Reward. *J. Neurosci.* **36**, 302–311 (2016).

48. Mitrofanis, J. & deFonseka, R. Organisation of connections between the zona incerta and the interposed nucleus. *Anat. Embryol.* **204**, 153–159 (2001).

49. Jones, E. G. & Burton, H. Areal differences in the laminar distribution of thalamic afferents in cortical fields of the insular, parietal and temporal regions of primates. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **168**, 197–247 (1976).

50. Jones, E. G. Lamination and differential distribution of thalamic afferents within the sensory-motor cortex of the squirrel monkey. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **160**, 167–203 (1975).

51. Herkenham, M. Laminar organization of thalamic projections to the rat neocortex. *Science* **207**, 532–535 (1980).

52. Thomson, A. M. Neocortical layer 6, a review. *Front. Neuroanat.* **4**, 13 (2010).

53. Hooks, B. M. *et al.* Organization of cortical and thalamic input to pyramidal neurons in mouse motor cortex. *J. Neurosci.* **33**, 748–760 (2013).

54. Llinás, R. R., Leznik, E. & Urbano, F. J. Temporal binding via cortical coincidence detection of specific and nonspecific thalamocortical inputs: A voltage-dependent dye-imaging study in mouse brain slices. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **99**, 449–454 (2002).

55. Wiesendanger, R. & Wiesendanger, M. The corticopontine system in the rat. I. Mapping of corticopontine neurons. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **208**, 215–226 (1982).

56. Hashimoto, M. *et al.* Motor and non-motor projections from the cerebellum to rostrocaudally

distinct sectors of the dorsal premotor cortex in macaques. *Eur. J. Neurosci.* **31**, 1402–1413 (2010).

57. Lee, K. H. *et al.* Circuit mechanisms underlying motor memory formation in the cerebellum. *Neuron* **86**, 529–540 (2015).

58. Sakai, S. T. Cerebellar Thalamic and Thalamocortical Projections. in *Handbook of the Cerebellum and Cerebellar Disorders* (eds. Manto, M., Schmahmann, J. D., Rossi, F., Gruol, D. L. & Koibuchi, N.) 529–547 (Springer Netherlands, 2013). doi:10.1007/978-94-007-1333-8_24.

59. Gornati, S. V. *et al.* Differentiating Cerebellar Impact on Thalamic Nuclei. *Cell Rep.* **23**, 2690–2704 (2018).

60. Pinault, D., Smith, Y. & Deschênes, M. Dendrodendritic and axoaxonic synapses in the thalamic reticular nucleus of the adult rat. *J. Neurosci.* **17**, 3215–3233 (1997).

61. Henschke, J. U. & Pakan, J. M. Disynaptic cerebrocerebellar pathways originating from multiple functionally distinct cortical areas. *Elife* **9**, (2020).

62. Yamamuro, K. *et al.* A prefrontal-paraventricular thalamus circuit requires juvenile social experience to regulate adult sociability in mice. *Nat. Neurosci.* **23**, 1240–1252 (2020).

63. Marton, T. F., Seifikar, H., Luongo, F. J., Lee, A. T. & Sohal, V. S. Roles of Prefrontal Cortex and Mediodorsal Thalamus in Task Engagement and Behavioral Flexibility. *J. Neurosci.* **38**, 2569–2578 (2018).

64. Hubel, D. H. & Wiesel, T. N. Binocular interaction in striate cortex of kittens reared with artificial squint. *J. Neurophysiol.* **28**, 1041–1059 (1965).

65. Salgado, S. & Kaplitt, M. G. The Nucleus Accumbens: A Comprehensive Review. *Stereotact. Funct. Neurosurg.* **93**, 75–93 (2015).

66. Küper, M. *et al.* Cerebellar fMRI Activation Increases with Increasing Working Memory Demands. *Cerebellum* **15**, 322–335 (2016).

67. Bohne, P., Schwarz, M. K., Herlitze, S. & Mark, M. D. A New Projection From the Deep

Cerebellar Nuclei to the Hippocampus via the Ventrolateral and Laterodorsal Thalamus in Mice. *Front. Neural Circuits* **13**, 51 (2019).

68. Stoodley, C. J. *et al.* Altered cerebellar connectivity in autism and cerebellar-mediated rescue of autism-related behaviors in mice. *Nat. Neurosci.* **20**, 1744–1751 (2017).

69. Heath, R. G., Dempesy, C. W., Fontana, C. J. & Myers, W. A. Cerebellar stimulation: effects on septal region, hippocampus, and amygdala of cats and rats. *Biol. Psychiatry* **13**, 501–529 (1978).

70. Ozden, I., Dombeck, D. A., Hoogland, T. M., Tank, D. W. & Wang, S. S.-H. Widespread state-dependent shifts in cerebellar activity in locomoting mice. *PLoS One* **7**, e42650 (2012).

71. Apps, R. Gating of climbing fibre input to cerebellar cortical zones. *Prog. Brain Res.* **124**, 201–211 (2000).

72. Ando, N., Izawa, Y. & Shinoda, Y. Relative contributions of thalamic reticular nucleus neurons and intrinsic interneurons to inhibition of thalamic neurons projecting to the motor cortex. *J. Neurophysiol.* **73**, 2470–2485 (1995).

73. Pinto, D. J., Brumberg, J. C. & Simons, D. J. Circuit dynamics and coding strategies in rodent somatosensory cortex. *J. Neurophysiol.* **83**, 1158–1166 (2000).

74. Lam, Y.-W. & Sherman, S. M. Functional organization of the somatosensory cortical layer 6 feedback to the thalamus. *Cereb. Cortex* **20**, 13–24 (2010).

75. Guillery, R. W., Feig, S. L. & Lozsádi, D. A. Paying attention to the thalamic reticular nucleus. *Trends Neurosci.* **21**, 28–32 (1998).

76. Bruno, R. M. & Sakmann, B. Cortex is driven by weak but synchronously active thalamocortical synapses. *Science* **312**, 1622–1627 (2006).

77. Destexhe, A. Modelling corticothalamic feedback and the gating of the thalamus by the cerebral cortex. *J. Physiol. Paris* **94**, 391–410 (2000).

78. Haroian, A. J., Massopust, L. C. & Young, P. A. Cerebellothalamic projections in the rat: an

autoradiographic and degeneration study. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **197**, 217–236 (1981).

79. Faull, R. L. The cerebellofugal projections in the brachium conjunctivum of the rat. II. The ipsilateral and contralateral descending pathways. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **178**, 519–535 (1978).

80. Aumann, T. D. & Horne, M. K. Ramification and termination of single axons in the cerebellothalamic pathway of the rat. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **376**, 420–430 (1996).

81. Card, J. P., Enquist, L. W. & Moore, R. Y. Neuroinvasiveness of pseudorabies virus injected intracerebrally is dependent on viral concentration and terminal field density. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **407**, 438–452 (1999).

82. Shiroyama, T., Kayahara, T., Yasui, Y., Nomura, J. & Nakano, K. Projections of the vestibular nuclei to the thalamus in the rat: a Phaseolus vulgaris leucoagglutinin study. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **407**, 318–332 (1999).

83. Meng, H., May, P. J., Dickman, J. D. & Angelaki, D. E. Vestibular signals in primate thalamus: properties and origins. *J. Neurosci.* **27**, 13590–13602 (2007).

84. Chatterjee, S. *et al.* Nontoxic, double-deletion-mutant rabies viral vectors for retrograde targeting of projection neurons. *Nat. Neurosci.* **21**, 638–646 (2018).

85. Aschauer, D. F., Kreuz, S. & Rumpel, S. Analysis of transduction efficiency, tropism and axonal transport of AAV serotypes 1, 2, 5, 6, 8 and 9 in the mouse brain. *PLoS One* **8**, e76310 (2013).

86. Watakabe, A. *et al.* Comparative analyses of adeno-associated viral vector serotypes 1, 2, 5, 8 and 9 in marmoset, mouse and macaque cerebral cortex. *Neurosci. Res.* **93**, 144–157 (2015).

87. Ugolini, G. Transneuronal transfer of herpes simplex virus type 1 (HSV 1) from mixed limb nerves to the CNS. I. Sequence of transfer from sensory, motor, and sympathetic nerve fibres to the spinal cord. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **326**, 527–548 (1992).

88. Lisberger, S. G. The Rules of Cerebellar Learning: Around the Ito Hypothesis. *Neuroscience* (2020) doi:10.1016/j.neuroscience.2020.08.026.

89. Schmahmann, J. D. & Sherman, J. C. The cerebellar cognitive affective syndrome. *Brain* **121**, 561–579 (1998).

90. Smith, B. N. *et al.* Pseudorabies virus expressing enhanced green fluorescent protein: A tool for in vitro electrophysiological analysis of transsynaptically labeled neurons in identified central nervous system circuits. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **97**, 9264–9269 (2000).

91. Legg, C. R., Mercier, B. & Glickstein, M. Corticopontine projection in the rat: the distribution of labelled cortical cells after large injections of horseradish peroxidase in the pontine nuclei. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **286**, 427–441 (1989).

92. Ray, M., Tang, R., Jiang, Z. & Rotello, V. M. Quantitative tracking of protein trafficking to the nucleus using cytosolic protein delivery by nanoparticle-stabilized nanocapsules. *Bioconjug. Chem.* **26**, 1004–1007 (2015).

93. Conte, W. L., Kamishina, H. & Reep, R. L. Multiple neuroanatomical tract-tracing using fluorescent Alexa Fluor conjugates of cholera toxin subunit B in rats. *Nat. Protoc.* **4**, 1157–1166 (2009).

94. Ugolini, G., Kuypers, H. G. & Simmons, A. Retrograde transneuronal transfer of herpes simplex virus type 1 (HSV 1) from motoneurones. *Brain Res.* **422**, 242–256 (1987).

95. Callaway, E. M. Transneuronal circuit tracing with neurotropic viruses. *Curr. Opin. Neurobiol.* **18**, 617–623 (2008).

96. Granstedt, A. E., Bosse, J. B., Thiberge, S. Y. & Enquist, L. W. In vivo imaging of alphaherpesvirus infection reveals synchronized activity dependent on axonal sorting of viral proteins. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **110**, E3516–25 (2013).

97. Miranda-Saksena, M., Denes, C. E., Diefenbach, R. J. & Cunningham, A. L. Infection and Transport of Herpes Simplex Virus Type 1 in Neurons: Role of the Cytoskeleton. *Viruses* **10**, (2018).

98. Saleeba, C., Dempsey, B., Le, S., Goodchild, A. & McMullan, S. A Student's Guide to

Neural Circuit Tracing. *Front. Neurosci.* **13**, 897 (2019).

99. Ugolini, G. Advances in viral transneuronal tracing. *J. Neurosci. Methods* **194**, 2–20 (2010).

100. Card, J. P., Enquist, L. W., Miller, A. D. & Yates, B. J. Differential tropism of pseudorabies virus for sensory neurons in the cat. *J. Neurovirol.* **3**, 49–61 (1997).

101. Garner, J. A. & LaVail, J. H. Differential anterograde transport of HSV type 1 viral strains in the murine optic pathway. *J. Neurovirol.* **5**, 140–150 (1999).

102. Bria, A. & Iannello, G. TeraStitcher - a tool for fast automatic 3D-stitching of teravoxel-sized microscopy images. *BMC Bioinformatics* **13**, 316 (2012).

103. Renier, N. *et al.* iDISCO: a simple, rapid method to immunolabel large tissue samples for volume imaging. *Cell* **159**, 896–910 (2014).

104. Shamonin, D. P. *et al.* Fast parallel image registration on CPU and GPU for diagnostic classification of Alzheimer's disease. *Front. Neuroinform.* **7**, 50 (2013).

105. Klein, S., Staring, M., Murphy, K., Viergever, M. A. & Pluim, J. P. W. elastix: a toolbox for intensity-based medical image registration. *IEEE Trans. Med. Imaging* **29**, 196–205 (2010).

106. Klein, S. & Staring, M. Image registration. in *Elastix, the manual* 13–16 (2015).

107. Yoo, A. B., Jette, M. A. & Grondona, M. SLURM: Simple Linux Utility for Resource Management. in *Job Scheduling Strategies for Parallel Processing* 44–60 (Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2003). doi:10.1007/10968987_3.

108. Allen Institute for BrainScience. Technical white paper informatics data processing for the allen developing mouse brain atlas. (2012).

109. Schmid, B., Schindelin, J., Cardona, A., Longair, M. & Heisenberg, M. A high-level 3D visualization API for Java and ImageJ. *BMC Bioinformatics* **11**, 274 (2010).

110. Sergejeva, M. *et al.* Anatomical landmarks for registration of experimental image data to volumetric rodent brain atlasing templates. *J. Neurosci. Methods* **240**, 161–169 (2015).

111. Seabold, S. & Perktold, J. Statsmodels: Econometric and statistical modeling with python. in *Proceedings of the 9th Python in Science Conference* vol. 57 61 (Scipy, 2010).

112. Roosendaal, T. & Selleri, S. *The Official Blender 2.3 guide: free 3D creation suite for modeling, animation, and rendering*. vol. 3 (No Starch Press San Francisco, CA, 2004).

113. Jones, E., Oliphant, T. & Peterson, P. {SciPy}: Open source scientific tools for {Python}. (2001--).

114. Chen, S., Yang, M., Miselis, R. R. & Aston-Jones, G. Characterization of transsynaptic tracing with central application of pseudorabies virus. *Brain Res.* **838**, 171–183 (1999).

115. Aston-Jones, G. & Card, J. P. Use of pseudorabies virus to delineate multisynaptic circuits in brain: opportunities and limitations. *J. Neurosci. Methods* **103**, 51–61 (2000).

116. van der Walt, S. *et al.* scikit-image: image processing in Python. *PeerJ* **2**, e453 (2014).

117. Lee, K., Zung, J., Li, P., Jain, V. & Sebastian Seung, H. Superhuman Accuracy on the SNEMI3D Connectomics Challenge. *arXiv [cs.CV]* (2017).

118. Gornet, J. *et al.* Reconstructing neuronal anatomy from whole-brain images. in (2019).

119. Goutte, C. & Gaussier, E. A Probabilistic Interpretation of Precision, Recall and F-Score, with Implication for Evaluation. in *Advances in Information Retrieval* 345–359 (Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2005). doi:10.1007/978-3-540-31865-1_25.

120. Yao, B., Yang, X. & Zhu, S.-C. Introduction to a Large-Scale General Purpose Ground Truth Database: Methodology, Annotation Tool and Benchmarks. in *Energy Minimization Methods in Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition* 169–183 (Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2007). doi:10.1007/978-3-540-74198-5_14.

121. DeKosky, S. T. & Scheff, S. W. Synapse loss in frontal cortex biopsies in Alzheimer's disease: correlation with cognitive severity. *Ann. Neurol.* **27**, 457–464 (1990).

122. Martinez, M., Calvo-Torrent, A. & Herbert, J. Mapping brain response to social stress in rodents with c-fos expression: a review. *Stress* **5**, 3–13 (2002).

123. Barski, J. J., Dethleffsen, K. & Meyer, M. Cre recombinase expression in cerebellar Purkinje cells. *Genesis* **28**, 93–98 (2000).

124. Kloth, A. D. *et al.* Cerebellar associative sensory learning defects in five mouse autism

models. *Elife* **4**, e06085 (2015).

125. Oliphant, T. E. Guide to NumPy. (2006).

126. McKinney, W. & Others. Data structures for statistical computing in python. in *Proceedings of the 9th Python in Science Conference* vol. 445 51–56 (Austin, TX, 2010).

127. Hunter, J. D. Matplotlib: A 2D Graphics Environment. *Comput. Sci. Eng.* **9**, 90–95 (2007).

128. Waskom, M. *et al. seaborn: v0.5.0 (November 2014)*. (2014). doi:10.5281/zenodo.12710.

129. Lowekamp, B. C., Chen, D. T., Ibáñez, L. & Blezek, D. The Design of SimpleITK. *Front. Neuroinform.* **7**, 45 (2013).

130. Pedregosa, F. *et al.* Scikit-learn: Machine Learning in Python. *J. Mach. Learn. Res.* **12**, 2825–2830 (2011).

131. van Groen, T., Kadish, I. & Michael Wyss, J. Role of the anterodorsal and anteroventral nuclei of the thalamus in spatial memory in the rat. *Behav. Brain Res.* **132**, 19–28 (2002).

132. Wang, C. C. & Shyu, B. C. Differential projections from the mediodorsal and centrolateral thalamic nuclei to the frontal cortex in rats. *Brain Res.* **995**, 226–235 (2004).

133. Bezdudnaya, T. & Keller, A. Laterodorsal nucleus of the thalamus: A processor of somatosensory inputs. *J. Comp. Neurol.* **507**, 1979–1989 (2008).

134. Allen, A. E., Procyk, C. A., Howarth, M., Walmsley, L. & Brown, T. M. Visual input to the mouse lateral posterior and posterior thalamic nuclei: photoreceptive origins and retinotopic order. *J. Physiol.* **594**, 1911–1929 (2016).

135. Matsumoto, M. & Hikosaka, O. Representation of negative motivational value in the primate lateral habenula. *Nat. Neurosci.* **12**, 77–84 (2009).

136. Lee, H. W., Yang, S. H., Kim, J. Y. & Kim, H. The Role of the Medial Habenula Cholinergic System in Addiction and Emotion-Associated Behaviors. *Front. Psychiatry* **10**, 100 (2019).

137. Brown, H. D., Baker, P. M. & Ragozzino, M. E. The parafascicular thalamic nucleus concomitantly influences behavioral flexibility and dorsomedial striatal acetylcholine output in rats. *J. Neurosci.* **30**, 14390–14398 (2010).

138. Kirouac, G. J. Placing the paraventricular nucleus of the thalamus within the brain circuits that control behavior. *Neurosci. Biobehav. Rev.* **56**, 315–329 (2015).

139. Gauriau, C. & Bernard, J.-F. Posterior triangular thalamic neurons convey nociceptive messages to the secondary somatosensory and insular cortices in the rat. *J. Neurosci.* **24**, 752–761 (2004).

140. Casas-Torremocha, D., Clascá, F. & Núñez, Á. Posterior Thalamic Nucleus Modulation of Tactile Stimuli Processing in Rat Motor and Primary Somatosensory Cortices. *Front. Neural Circuits* **11**, 69 (2017).

141. Dolleman-van der Weel, M. J. *et al.* The nucleus reuniens of the thalamus sits at the nexus of a hippocampus and medial prefrontal cortex circuit enabling memory and behavior. *Learn. Mem.* **26**, 191–205 (2019).

142. Tham, W. W. P., Stevenson, R. J. & Miller, L. A. The functional role of the medio dorsal thalamic nucleus in olfaction. *Brain Res. Rev.* **62**, 109–126 (2009).

143. Jankowski, M. M. *et al.* The anterior thalamus provides a subcortical circuit supporting memory and spatial navigation. *Front. Syst. Neurosci.* **7**, 45 (2013).

144. Starr, M. S. & Summerhayes, M. Role of the ventromedial nucleus of the thalamus in motor behaviour--II. Effects of lesions. *Neuroscience* **10**, 1171–1183 (1983).

145. Vertes, R. P., Linley, S. B., Groenewegen, H. J. & Witter, M. P. Chapter 16 - Thalamus. in *The Rat Nervous System (Fourth Edition)* (ed. Paxinos, G.) 335–390 (Academic Press, 2015). doi:10.1016/B978-0-12-374245-2.00016-4.

146. Harrington, M. E. The ventral lateral geniculate nucleus and the intergeniculate leaflet: interrelated structures in the visual and circadian systems. *Neurosci. Biobehav. Rev.* **21**, 705–727 (1997).

147. McGovern, A. E., Davis-Poynter, N., Farrell, M. J. & Mazzone, S. B. Transneuronal tracing of airways-related sensory circuitry using herpes simplex virus 1, strain H129. *Neuroscience* vol. 207 148–166 (2012).

148. McGovern, A. E. *et al.* Anterograde neuronal circuit tracing using a genetically modified herpes simplex virus expressing EGFP. *J. Neurosci. Methods* **209**, 158–167 (2012).

149. Lo, L. & Anderson, D. J. A Cre-dependent, anterograde transsynaptic viral tracer for mapping output pathways of genetically marked neurons. *Neuron* **72**, 938–950 (2011).