scRNAseq unravels the transcriptional network underlying zebrafish retina
regeneration

Laura Celotto[1], Fabian Rost[2], Anja Machate[1], Juliane Bläsche[2], Andreas Dahl[2], Anke
Weber[1], Stefan Hans[1], and Michael Brand[*1]

[1] Technische Universität Dresden, CRTD - Center for Regenerative Therapies
Dresden, Center for Molecular and Cellular Bioengineering (CMCB), Fetscherstraße
105, 01307 Dresden, Germany

[2] Technische Universität Dresden, DRESDEN-Concept Genome Center, Center for
Molecular and Cellular Bioengineering (CMCB), Fetscherstraße 105, 01307 Dresden,
Germany

*Corresponding author
ORCID: Laura Celotto: 0000-0002-9191-4056; Fabian Rost: 0000-0001-6466-2589;
Andreas Dahl: 0000-0002-2668-8371; Anke Weber: 0000-0003-2220-658X; Stefan
Hans: 0000-0003-0283-0211; Michael Brand: 0000-0001-5711-6512

Keywords: Retina, regeneration, zebrafish, Müller glia, progenitors, light lesion,
scRNAseq

SUMMARY

In the lesioned zebrafish retina, Müller glia produce multipotent retinal progenitors that generate all retinal neurons, replacing lost cell types. To study the molecular mechanisms linking Müller glia reactivity to progenitor production and neuronal differentiation, we used single cell RNA sequencing of Müller glia, progenitors and regenerated progeny from uninjured and light-lesioned retinae. We discover an injury-induced Müller glia differentiation trajectory that leads into a cell population with a hybrid identity expressing marker genes of Müller glia and progenitors. A glial self-renewal and a neurogenic trajectory depart from the hybrid cell population. We further observe that neurogenic progenitors progressively differentiate to generate retinal ganglion cells first and bipolar cells last, similar to the events observed during retinal development. Our work provides a comprehensive description of Müller glia and progenitor transcriptional changes and fate decisions in the regenerating retina, which are key to tailor cell differentiation and replacement therapies for retinal dystrophies in humans.

INTRODUCTION

The vertebrate retina is the neural tissue in the back of the eyes that detects and processes visual stimuli prior to transmission to the brain [1]. The retina has a layered structure, with outer, inner and ganglion cell nuclear layers alternating with the outer and inner plexiform layers [2–4]. The nuclear layers comprise the nuclei of retinal neurons, whereas the plexiform layers contain neuronal synapses. There are six distinct classes of retinal neurons and one main type of glia: retinal ganglion, cone photoreceptor, horizontal, amacrine, rod photoreceptor and bipolar cells, as well as Müller glia. This heterogeneity arises during development in the indicated order from a

common pool of multipotent retinal progenitor cells (RPCs), which progressively restrict their competence to generate early and mid-late born cell fates [2,4–13]. Retinal development, structure and function are highly conserved among vertebrates, including the teleost zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) with only slight variations. For instance, humans and zebrafish possess a cone-dominated retina adapted for diurnal visual tasks, whereas nocturnal animals, like mice and rats, have rod-dominated retinae adapted for a dim light lifestyle [10,14,15]. Intriguingly, and in contrast to warm-blooded vertebrates like birds and mammals, adult zebrafish can fully regenerate their retinae upon lesions affecting different neuronal cell types, depending on the injury paradigm. For instance, intense light ablates preferentially light-sensing rod and cone photoreceptors in the central and dorsal retina, whereas application of neurotoxins, like ouabain or NMDA, affects mainly retinal ganglion and amacrine cells [16–22]. Independently of the lesion type, Müller glia (MG), acting as resident stem cells, are the primary cellular origin of regenerated cells. Specifically, zebrafish MG react to the lesion by partial dedifferentiation and cell cycle re-entry, followed by an asymmetric division producing renewed MG and multipotent RPCs [23–26]. Dedifferentiation of MG to a progenitor-like state is not complete, as MG upregulate progenitor-associated genes like *pax6* or *vsx2*, but retain their glial morphology. In this context, glial markers like Glial Fibrillary Acidic Protein (*gfap*) as well as glutamine synthase (*glula*) have been reported to be either retained or downregulated, depending on the lesion paradigm, the regeneration time point, the antibody and the transgenic line used to label MG [17,25,27,28]. However, in all reported cases, MG-derived RPCs do not express *gfap* [25,28]. Asymmetric cell division of MG occurs between 31 hours and 2 days post-lesion, followed by further proliferation of MG-derived RPCs that peaks at 4-5 days post lesion, depending on the injury paradigm [16,17,27,29]. Studies on zebrafish retina regeneration have so far mainly focused on very early phases of MG dedifferentiation

and RPC production [28,30–36]. Recent work showed that MG initially assume a reactive

state, characterized by the expression of *hmga1a* and *yap1*, prior to giving rise to

proliferative, neurogenic RPCs [37]. Consequently, impaired Yap1 or Hmga1a function

impedes MG reprogramming and neurogenesis in the regenerating retina [37]. In

contrast, the molecular and cellular identities of self-renewed MG and MG-derived

RPCs remain elusive. RPCs have fusiform nuclei that closely associate with GFAP-

positive glial fibers across the inner nuclear layer. They also express markers of

multipotency, like Pax6 and Sox2, as well as markers of neurogenesis, like Atoh7

[27,29,34,38,39]. Previous studies have investigated RPCs molecular identity mainly at the

population level [18,28,37,40–47]. However, a detailed characterization of the transcriptional

network underlying RPC production and RPC differentiation, as well as the lineage

relationships between MG, RPCs and differentiating progeny is currently missing.

Here, we profiled the transcriptome of MG and MG-derived RPCs in response to an

intense light lesion, and followed their differentiation trajectories towards regenerated

retinal neurons at the single cell level. In particular, we addressed the transcriptional

state of reactive MG prior to and after their asymmetric cell division. Moreover, we

addressed whether MG-derived RPCs are heterogeneous and to what extent they

express molecular markers that are observed during embryonic retinogenesis [48]. To

this aim, we employed a short-term lineage tracing strategy that allowed the isolation

of individual MG and MG-derived cells of the regenerating zebrafish retina, which were

subsequently subjected to droplet-based, 10x Genomics single cell RNA sequencing

(scRNAseq). We find that MG can be non-reactive in uninjured and lesioned

conditions, as well as reactive upon lesion. Reactive MG give rise to a hybrid cell

population, which replenishes the pool of MG as well as feeds into the pool of

neurogenic RPCs. Moreover, MG-derived RPCs are highly heterogeneous and display

a progressive restriction in their competence during subsequent differentiation. They

upregulate developmental markers of retinogenesis and produce regenerated neurons

partially according to the developmental birth order, with retinal ganglion cells born first

and bipolar cells born last.

RESULTS

Isolation of individual MG, RPCs and regenerated progeny using fluorescent

reporters

Previous work on the regenerating zebrafish retina described the early phases of MG

de-differentiation and RPC production [27,29,30,32,34,40,49]. However, knowledge on the

molecular identity and cell fate choices of RPCs is scarce and based on analyses at a

population level [18,28,37,40,42,43,45–47]. To study MG activation, RPC identity and their

relationship with MG in more detail, we profiled the transcriptome of MG and MG-

derived RPCs and followed their differentiation trajectories towards regenerated retinal

neurons at the single cell level. To do so, we devised a strategy to isolate individual

MG, RPCs and regenerated progeny, using retinae of uninjured and light-lesioned fish

carrying the two fluorescent reporters *pcna:EGFP* and *gfap:mCherry*. The former

drives the expression of EGFP under the regulatory elements of *proliferating cell*

nuclear antigen (*pcna*), a known marker of proliferating cells, and thereby labels

actively dividing cells, and, due to the persistence of EGFP, their short-term progeny.

The other reporter drives expression of mCherry under the regulatory elements of *glial*

fibrillary acidic protein (*gfap*), a known marker of zebrafish MG. Both transgenes

recapitulate the endogenous expression in the adult zebrafish retina faithfully

(supplemental figure 1). Immunohistochemistry against the proliferation marker PCNA

co-labeled *pcna:EGFP*-positive cells mainly in the ciliary marginal zone, one of the

stem cells niches in the adult zebrafish retina [16,39]. Occasionally, *pcna:EGFP*/PCNA-

double positive cells were observed in the central retina as well (supplemental figure

1A). The MG-specific antibody Zrf1 labeled virtually all *gfap:mCherry*-positive cells in

the central retina as well as in the ciliary marginal zone [16] (supplemental figure 1B).

We also addressed the expression of the two fluorescent reporter lines following light

lesion, at three different time points upon injury. First, 44 hours post light lesion (hpl),

when MG are about to undergo or have already completed their asymmetric cell

division giving rise to the first RPCs and self-renewed MG [27,49]. Second, 4 days post

light lesion (dpl), representing the peak of RPC proliferation [16,29] and third, 6 dpl, when

the first differentiating, regenerated progeny arise [16]. Immunohistochemistry against

EGFP and mCherry in double transgenic *Tg(pcna:EGFP);Tg(gfap:mCherry)* animals

corroborated the expected expression pattern of the transgenes in the central retina at

the chosen time points (supplemental figure 2). Uninjured, central retinae displayed no

EGFP, but strong mCherry signal consistent with non-proliferating MG (white

arrowheads). In contrast, numerous EGFP/mCherry double-positive cells were present

at 44 hpl, indicating potential cell-cycle re-entry of MG (yellow arrowheads). At 4 dpl,

overall mCherry expression was reduced, consistent with the previously described

downregulation of the *gfap* promoter by MG-derived RPCs. In contrast, EGFP was

strongly found throughout all retinal layers, matching the reported peak in proliferation

of MG-derived RPCs (red arrowheads) [16,17,25,28,29]. Finally, in comparison to 4 dpl, an

increase in mCherry accompanies a decline in EGFP signal at 6 dpl (yellow

arrowhead). In order to obtain single cells of MG, RPCs and regenerated progeny, we

utilized the persistence of EGFP and mCherry fluorescence, providing a short-term

label. Initially, only MG express mCherry in uninjured, central retinae, but activate

EGFP in preparation of the asymmetric cell division upon light lesion at 44 hpl (Figure

1A). Firstborn RPCs inherit high levels of persisting fluorescent mCherry protein from dividing MG and slowly degrade/dilute the protein during subsequent rounds of cell division. Hence, MG-derived, but further dividing, RPCs are EGFP-positive, but low mCherry-positive at 4 dpl. At 6 dpl, RPCs have further diluted the mCherry reporter, thus displaying only a faint mCherry signal, but remain EGFP-positive. Similarly, RPC-derived, regenerated progeny is characterized by even lower levels of intrinsic mCherry fluorescence, and low EGFP signal during subsequent cell differentiation at 6 dpl. Following this rationale, we dissected retinae of uninjured and light-lesioned samples, dissociated them into single cell suspensions that were subjected to flow cytometry followed by droplet-based, 10x Genomics scRNAseq (Figure 1B). Flow cytometry plots confirmed the rationale of the above-mentioned strategy (Figure 1C). In all samples, we detected non-fluorescent and EGFP-positive only cells, consistent with non-proliferating and proliferating cells in the adult zebrafish retina. We also detected cell populations expressing only mCherry at all sampled time points, most likely representing non-reactive MG. In addition to cells expressing either EGFP or mCherry, we find EGFP/mCherry-double positive cells in all samples consistent with proliferating MG originating from the ciliary marginal zone and the central retina (see supplemental figure 1 and 2). The EGFP/mCherry-double positive population increased at 44 hpl, presumably due to an increase in the cell number of reactive, proliferating MG. At 4 dpl, the expanded EGFP/mCherry-double positive cell population was still present, but displayed a lower mCherry, yet an increased EGFP signal, in line with MG-derived RPCs, peaking in proliferation [16,29]. At 6 dpl, a further decreased mCherry intensity was observed for the EGFP/mCherry-double positive cell population. In order to profile the transcriptome of individual MG, RPCs and progeny of the uninjured and light lesioned retinae, we dissected retinae of the before-mentioned time points (uninjured, 44 hpl, 4 dpl, 6 dpl) and eventually sorted 15.000 cells per time point.

We applied a sorting gate that included both mCherry-positive only and

EGFP/mCherry-double positive cells at the sampled time points (Figure 1C). Non-

fluorescent as well as EGFP- only positive cells were not included. Taken together, we

devised a short-term lineage tracing strategy that allows the isolation of individual MG

and MG-derived cells of the regenerating zebrafish retina, which can be subjected to

droplet-based,10x Genomics.

scRNAseq identifies 15 distinct cell populations in the light-lesioned retina

Sorted cells underwent 10x Genomics scRNAseq and 13.139 cells passed the

sequencing quality control. We detected a median of 1.407 genes and 4.061 mean

read counts per cell. Initially, we identified three clusters for the full dataset

(supplemental figure 3A): a retinal core dataset and two additional clusters identified

as microglia and low-quality cells expressing many ribosomal transcripts

(supplemental figure 3A, B). Both populations were excluded from the subsequent

analysis. Re-clustering of the core dataset, which eventually included 11.690 cells,

revealed 15 potential, different cell populations (Figure 2A). From left to right on the

UMAP, which visualizes the cell lineage trajectory, we observed the progressive

emergence of MG, RPC and progeny clusters. We assigned the cellular identity by

inspecting the top 100, upregulated marker genes per cluster (supplemental table 1).

In detail, we identified four MG clusters (clusters 1 to 4) that locate to the left and middle

portion of the map, followed by five RPC clusters (clusters 5 to 9) locating to the right

side of the map. Regenerated progeny branch from the RPCs and include retinal

ganglion (cluster 10), amacrine (cluster 13) and bipolar cells (cluster 15) at the bottom-

right, as well as red and blue cones (clusters 11 and 12) at the top-right of the map.

Additionally, there is a second cluster of amacrine cells (cluster 14) that separates from

the first amacrine cell cluster.

To investigate how the composition of cells changed during regeneration, we

computed embedding densities for each time point (Figure 2B). Similar to the

progression of cellular identities, cells progressed over time from left to right, from the

uninjured, to the 44 hpl, the 4 dpl, as well as the 6 dpl enriched samples. As expected,

cells belonging to non-reactive MG were found at all sampled time points. In particular,

the vast majority of cells of the uninjured sample belonged to cluster 1 as well as cluster

2. However, we also observed a small proportion of cells (Figure 2B) aligning in a

trajectory from non-reactive MG (left side of the map) through reactive MG (middle

part) to RPCs and differentiating progeny (right side) in the uninjured sample. At 44

hpl, cells mapping to non-reactive MG were still abundantly present, although mostly

shifted right towards a cluster representing reactive MG (cluster 3). Cells belonging to

this cluster of reactive MG were also highly enriched in this sample. In contrast, cells

mapping to the second cluster of reactive MG (cluster 4) as well as to RPCs (clusters

5-9) were overrepresented at 4 dpl, in line with the reported peak in proliferation at this

time point [16,29]. Cells mapping to RPCs were still frequently present at 6 dpl. Moreover,

cells belonging to regenerated progeny (clusters 10-15), which first appear at 4 dpl,

became predominantly enriched at 6 dpl. In addition to the overall progression from left

to right, we noted that cells mapping to reactive MG of the second cluster (cluster 4)

and the abutting portion of non-reactive MG (cluster 1) were also enriched at this time

point, indicating a reversed direction.

Analysis of the cell cycle state further supported our cluster annotation. Specifically,

known cell cycle marker genes were used to calculate the predicted cell cycle state [50–

52], and the cell cycle phase (G1, S, G2/M) was projected onto the UMAP of the single

cell transcriptome (Figure 2C). Differentiating or differentiated cells were considered

as cells in G1 [53]. Consistently, we observed that most cells of the left side and lower

middle part as well as cells branching from the right side of the map were in G1, which

comprised most non-reactive MG (clusters 1 and 2), one cluster of reactive MG (cluster

4), one RPC population (cluster 7) and the regenerated progeny (clusters 10-15). Cells

in S phase were also present on the left side of the map, which represent non-reactive

MG (clusters 1 and 2), but were in particular enriched in two domains of the middle

part corresponding to reactive MG (cluster 3) and RPCs (clusters 5 and 7). In addition,

two domains on the right side of the map showed an accumulation of cells in S phase,

which include photoreceptor and horizontal cell precursors (clusters 8 and 9). The

pattern of cells in G2/M phase complemented the pattern of cells in G1 and S phase.

Cell proliferation pattern was further confirmed by *pcna* expression (Figure 2D). When

plotting *pcna* expression onto the main UMAP of the single cell transcriptome, we

observed high counts in one population of reactive MG (cluster 3) and in RPCs

(clusters 5, 6, 8 and 9). In summary, scRNAseq analysis enabled the establishment of

a transcriptome map, which reveals the progressive emergence of non-reactive MG,

reactive MG and MG-derived progenitors and regenerated progeny.

scRNAseq identifies two populations of non-reactive and two of reactive MG in

the light-lesioned retina

MG in the homeostatic zebrafish retina are characterized by the expression of GFAP,

as well as other canonical glial markers, like *apoeb*, *glula*, *cahz*, *rlbp1a* [28,39,54–56]. In our

scRNAseq dataset, we found clusters 1 and 2 expressing *apoeb*, *glula*, *cahz*, *rlbp1a*

as marker genes (supplemental figure 4 and supplemental table 1). When plotting

apoeb expression onto the UMAP, we observed high counts in clusters 1 and 2, as

well as in clusters 3 and 4 (Figure 3A). The glial marker *gfap*, found among the top 100

upregulated marker genes for cluster 4 (supplemental table 1), showed a similar

pattern, with high counts in clusters 1 to 4, but displayed high counts in cluster 5 as

well (Figure 3A). Given the expression pattern of *apoeb* and *gfap*, we identified clusters

1 to 4 as MG populations. Further analysis indicated clusters 1 and 2 as non-reactive

MG and clusters 3 and 4 as reactive MG (Figure 3B, C). Non-reactive MG, which were

mostly in G1 and did not express any injury-specific markers (supplemental figure 4)

showed counts for *mstnb* (Figure 3B). In addition, members of the retinoic acid

signalling pathway, like *rdh10a*, *aldh1a3*, *dhrs3a* [57–59] were enriched in these clusters

(supplemental figure 5A, supplemental table 2).

We next looked into differentially expressed genes (DEG) between the non-reactive

MG clusters 1 and 2. For instance, the UMAP plot of *inhbaa*, an evolutionarily

conserved vertebrate glia marker [37] showed strong expression only in clusters 1, 3 and

4, but not in cluster 2 (Figure 3B, supplemental figure 5A, and supplemental table 2).

Reactive MG on the other hand downregulated some glial markers, like *glula* and

rlbp1a, and upregulated inflammatory cytokines, like *crlf1a*, matrix metalloproteases,

like *mmp9*, and growth factors like *hbegfa* in the regenerating retina (supplemental

figure 4, 5B, and supplemental table 1). Consistent with that, plotting of *crlf1a*

expression onto the UMAP showed high read counts in clusters 3 and 4, as well as in

cluster 5 (Figure 3C). Again, DEG analysis showed that reactive MG can be subdivided

further, because only cluster 3, but not cluster 4 expressed Hairy-related downstream

targets of active Notch signalling including *her15.1-1*, *her9* and *her4.1* (supplemental

figure 4, 5B, and supplemental table 3). Indeed, the UMAP plot of *her4.1* showed

strong expression in cluster 3 as well as in cluster 5 (Figure 3C). To validate the

expression of *her4.1* in the regenerating retina we used *in situ* hybridization. In

agreement with our scRNAseq dataset, *her4.1* signal was not present in the uninjured

retina, but appeared at 44 hpl in the inner nuclear layer of the central retina (Figure

3D). At 4 and 6 dpl, *her4.1* transcripts remained in the inner nuclear layer and appeared

in cells of the outer nuclear layer too (Figure 3D). We further analysed the expression

of *crlf1a*, a marker of reactive MG, with fluorescent *in situ* hybridization combined with

immunohistochemistry against GFAP (located mainly to MG fibers) and the

proliferation marker PCNA (Figure 4). Consistent with our scRNAseq dataset, *crlf1a*

was not detectable in the uninjured, central retina, but was upregulated in Zrf1/PCNA-

double positive cells at 44 hpl (Figure 4A, B). At 4 dpl, *crlf1a* signal was still present in

Zrf1/PCNA-double positive cells and returned back to undetectable levels at 6 dpl

(Figure 4A, B). Taken together, we observed cellular heterogeneity in MG during

regeneration, and identified two non-reactive and two reactive MG populations that

express distinct marker genes.

scRNAseq identifies a transient cell population with hybrid characteristics of

reactive MG and early RPCs in the light-lesioned retina

As mentioned above, several MG-related genes, like *gfap* or *crlf1a*, were also

expressed in cluster 5, which locates next to the reactive MG (clusters 3 and 4), is

highly proliferative and only becomes eminent at 4 dpl. Further analysis of this cluster

showed expression of several members of the High Mobility Group (Hmg) protein

family among the top 100 upregulated marker genes (supplemental table 1).

Consistent with that, the UMAP expression profile of *hmgb2b* showed presence of high

counts already in cluster 3 (reactive MG), as well as in other, further downstream RPC

clusters and regenerating progeny (Figure 5A). This indicated a transition from MG to

RPC fate in the course of regeneration and that cells of cluster 5 might have hybrid

characteristics of reactive MG and downstream RPCs. Hence, we conducted a DEG

analysis of cluster 5 in comparison to reactive MG (clusters 3 and 4), as well as to the

neighbouring, downstream RPCs (cluster 6). When compared to reactive MG, cells of

cluster 5 showed expression of several genes, including *stmn1a*, *nr2e1* and *sox9b*

(supplemental figure 5C, supplemental table 4 and 5). Consistently, UMAP expression

profile of *stmn1a* showed counts prevalently in cluster 5 and neighbouring,

downstream RPCs on the right side of the map, but not in the reactive or non-reactive

MG on the left side (Figure 5A). The UMAP profiles of *sox9b* and *nr2e1* showed strong

expression almost exclusively restricted to cluster 5. DEG analysis between cluster 5

and the neighbouring downstream cluster 6 revealed also expression of *nr2e1* and

sox9b, but additionally transcripts like *id1* (supplemental figure 5D and supplemental

table 6). Consistently, high *id1* counts were found in cluster 5 and in other reactive or

non-reactive MG clusters, but not in downstream RPCs on the right side of the map

(Figure 5A). In order to validate the RNAseq data, we analysed the expression of

hmgb2b and *id1* transcripts in the regenerating retina using *in situ* hybridization and

fluorescent *in situ* hybridization combined with immunohistochemistry, respectively.

Consistent with our scRNAseq data, *hmgb2b* signal was not detectable in the

uninjured, central retina, but was initiated in individual cells residing in the inner nuclear

layer at 44 hpl (Figure 5B). Subsequently, *hmgb2b* transcripts could be detected in

clusters of cells in the inner and outer nuclear layers at 4 and 6 dpl (Figure 5B). The

expression of *id1* in the regenerating tissue matched the scRNAseq data. Expression

of *id1* was already detectable in Zrf1-positive but PCNA-negative cells in the inner

nuclear layer of the uninjured, central retina (Figure 6A, B). At 44 hpl, *id1* was strongly

upregulated and co-localized with Zrf1/PCNA-double positive cells in the inner nuclear

layer. At 4 and 6 dpl, *id1* expression was still associated with Zrf1/PCNA-double

positive cells and, occasionally, with PCNA-only positive cells (Figure 6A, B). In

summary, marker analysis reveals that cells in cluster 5 display a transcriptional

signature of reactive MG, as well as RPCs, which is why we assigned it a hybrid

identity.

scRNAseq identifies two neurogenic progenitor populations in the light-lesioned

retina

The before-mentioned DEG-analysis between cluster 5 (hybrid cells) and cluster 6

(neighbouring, downstream RPCs) also revealed that the latter upregulated *insm1a*

(supplemental figure 5D and supplemental table 6), which has been described to

promote cell cycle exit of RPCs in the injured fish retina at 4 dpl [47]. In addition, our

DEG analysis showed upregulation of *atoh7* and *onecut2* in cluster 6 (supplemental

figure 5D and supplemental table 6). We found that the highly redundant gene *onecut1*

was also expressed in cluster 6, albeit this was not found in the DEG analysis. As

expected, the UMAP expression profile of *insm1a* confirmed high read counts in cluster

6 but also in clusters 7, 8 and 10 (Figure 7A). The UMAP expression profile of *atoh7*

also confirmed expression in cluster 6, as well as in clusters 7 and 10 (Figure 7A).

Moreover, the UMAP expression profile of *onecut1* and *onecut2* confirmed that both

genes were expressed in clusters 6 and 7 and in addition in cluster 9 (Figure 7A).

Cluster 7 expressed additional neurogenic marker genes like *tubb5* and *sox11b* [60–62]

(supplemental figure 5D and supplemental table 1). Finally, the cell cycle status and

the UMAP expression of *mki67,* a mitotic marker, showed read counts in cluster 6, but

not in cluster 7 (Figure 7A). Hence, we concluded that cluster 6 and cluster 7

represented neurogenic progenitors, and were named progenitors 2 and progenitors

3, respectively. To validate *atoh7*, *onecut1* and *onecut2* expression in the regenerating

retina, we employed again *in situ* hybridization. In agreement with our scRNAseq data,

atoh7 signal was absent in the uninjured and 44 hpl retina, but became detectable in

the inner and outer nuclear layers at 4 and 6 dpl (Figure 7B). Similarly, *onecut1* and

onecut2 were prominently expressed in the inner and outer nuclear layer at 4 and 6

dpl, in addition to their homeostatic expression in the presumptive horizontal cell layer

in the uninjured and 44 hpl retina (Figure 7B, black arrowheads). In summary,

scRNAseq showed heterogeneity of neurogenic progenitors, which upregulate known

markers of retinogenesis in the regenerating retina.

scRNAseq identifies fate-restricted progenitors in the light-lesioned retina

Gene expression analysis of cluster 8, which locates next to the neurogenic

progenitors (cluster 6 and 7), showed significant upregulation of several well-known

photoreceptor precursor markers, including *crx*, and *thrb* (supplemental table 1).

Consistently, UMAP plots for *crx* and *thrb* revealed high counts in cluster 8 (Figure 8A).

Moreover, the former was also highly expressed in clusters 11 and 12, whereas the

latter was restricted to the additional cluster 1. Subsequent further gene expression

analysis identified clusters 11 and 12 as differentiating cone photoreceptors arising

from cluster 8. Precisely, clusters 11 and 12 represent differentiating photoreceptors

giving rise to blue and red cones as shown by the UMAP plots of *opn1sw2* and

opn1lw2, respectively (Figure 8B). Cluster 9, which abuts the neurogenic progenitor 3

(cluster 7), expressed known developmental markers of horizontal cell precursors like

prox1a and *rem1* (supplemental table 1). Consistently, the UMAP plot for *rem1* showed

high expression almost restricted to this cluster specifically. Gene expression analysis

also revealed *ptf1a* expression in cluster 9, which has been shown to be required for

lineage specification of horizontal and amacrine cells in the developing retina [63,64]. In

line with these findings, the UMAP expression profile of *ptf1a* confirms high counts in

the left part of cluster 9, but is even more pronounced in the upstream part of cluster 7

feeding into cluster 9 (Figure 8C). Gene expression analysis of the remaining clusters

10, 13, 14 and 15 identified them as differentiating progeny giving rise to retinal

ganglion cells (cluster 10), amacrine cells (clusters 13 and 14), as well as bipolar cells

(cluster 15), respectively (supplemental table 1). In this context, UMAP plots of *gap43*

and the more mature retinal ganglion cell marker *isl2b* showed a strong upregulation

in cluster 10 (Figure 8D). UMAP plots of *stx1b* and *pvalb6*, markers of differentiating

and mature amacrine cells, revealed strong expression in clusters 13 and 14, whereas

UMAP plots of *vsx1* and *samsn1a*, known and novel markers of bipolar cells,

respectively, showed high counts in cluster 15 (Figure 8E, F).

With this respect, it was recently shown that the regenerating adult zebrafish retina

recapitulates developmental fate specification programs [43]. Hence, we plotted the

fraction of cells that differentiate into a specific cell fate during the time course of

regeneration (supplemental figure 6). We found that the earliest committed progeny

emerged at 4 dpl giving rise to retinal ganglion cells or to photoreceptors, in particular

red cones. At 6 dpl, the number of retinal ganglion cells and red cones continued to

increase. In addition, we detected a significant number of blue cones and amacrine

cells, as well as a small number of bipolar cells at this time point. We did not detect

any differentiating progeny giving rise to horizontal cells or rods at this stage. To

address this issue, we further investigated the expression of more mature neuronal

markers in our dataset (supplemental figure 7). Expression of *rho* and *gnat1*, two

markers of rod photoreceptors, was very low and sparse, and did not define any

specific rod cluster (supplemental figure 7A). Expression of *gad1b*, which encodes for

glutamate decarboxylase synthetizing the neurotransmitter GABA, was mostly

restricted to amacrine cells (clusters 13 and 14) (supplemental figure 7B). To address

the expression of more mature markers of amacrine and horizontal cells, we

investigated *chata* (*choline O-acetyltransferase a*, an amacrine cell-specific marker),

as well as *calb2a* and *calb2b* (*calbindin 2a* and *calbindin 2b*, markers of amacrine and

horizontal cells) (supplemental figure 7B, C). As expected, high counts of *chata* were

specifically found in amacrine cells (clusters 13 and 14). In particular, *chata* expression

was detected only in cells located at the tip of cluster 13 and in all cells of cluster 14.

calb2a was expressed in some reactive MG (cluster 3) and quite strongly in some

amacrine cells (cluster 13). Importantly, we did not detect any *calb2a* and *calb2b* in

horizontal cell precursors (cluster 9).

We also checked the expression of transcripts for variants of protein kinase C using

prkcab and *prkcbb* (*protein kinase alpha b*, *protein kinase beta b*) to identify mature

bipolar cells (supplemental figure 7D). Counts for *prkcab* were sparsely found in some

non-reactive and reactive MG (clusters 1-4). *prkcbb*-positive cells were found more

frequently in some non-reactive and reactive MG (clusters 1-4), progenitor 1 (cluster

5), as well as in amacrine cells (clusters 13, 14). Importantly, we did not detect *prkcab*

or *prkcbb* in our bipolar cells. When plotting the expression of general synaptic markers

like *snap25a* and *snap25b*, we observed mainly transcripts in the differentiating

progeny (supplemental figure 7E). Specifically, high counts of *snap25a* were found in

retinal ganglion and amacrine cells (clusters 10, 13 and 14). High counts of *snap25b*

were observed in the same clusters as well as in red and blue cones (clusters 11 and

12) and the right part of the horizontal cell precursors (cluster 9). Taken together, our

scRNAseq data reveal the presence of fate-restricted progenitors and the sequential

appearance of differentiating progeny in the light-lesioned, adult zebrafish retina.

Moreover, the analysis of more mature markers shows that the differentiation of retinal

ganglion cells and red cones is preceding the appearance of blue cones, amacrine and

bipolar cells.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we employed a short-term lineage tracing strategy, which allowed the

selective enrichment of MG and their respective progeny for up to six days post light

lesion. Subsequent scRNAseq resolved the transcriptome of individual MG, RPCs as

well as regenerated progeny, and allowed to reconstruct their lineage relationship in

the homeostatic and regenerating zebrafish retina (Figure 1). A previous study

combined bulk RNA sequencing of sorted MG with scRNAseq of whole retinae from

zebrafish upon NMDA as well as light lesions [37]. This work focussed specifically on the

early reprogramming of MG and progenitor production, covering up to 36 hours post

light lesion. The authors report that MG go through an activated, non-proliferative state

characterized by upregulation of gliosis markers. However, neither did they find any

evidence of MG heterogeneity in uninjured conditions nor did they provide any

thorough characterization of MG-derived RPCs [37]. Additional RNA sequencing studies

of the regenerating zebrafish retina have used microarray as well as RT-PCR and qRT-

PCR to evaluate transcriptional changes at a population level, without providing any

MG/RPC single cell resolution [40–42,44–46,65]. Previous immunohistochemistry and *in situ*

hybridization experiments provided a broad description of MG-derived RPCs. Indeed,

progenitors are reported as fusiform cells that proliferate and express markers of

multipotency like Pax6 and Sox2, as well as some neurogenic markers like Atoh7,

Ptf1a, Vsx1 and others [16,17,29,38,43,47]. In contrast to these previous results, our study is

the first providing a comprehensive overview of MG, MG-derived cells and their lineage

relationship up to 6 days post lesion in the zebrafish retina. Due to our selective

enrichment of MG and their respective progeny, we gain an adequate single cell

resolution to observe substantial heterogeneity in the molecular identity of MG in

homeostatic as well as regenerating conditions. We also provide an in depth

description of MG as well as RPC molecular identity, cell fate decisions and production

of regenerated progeny that cover all key aspects during zebrafish retina regeneration.

Our strategy allowed us to define two main trajectories in the regenerating zebrafish

retina (Figure 9). The first trajectory (solid and dashed red lines) comprises clusters 1

to 5 and constitutes a closed cycle that both maintains the MG pool and generates the

first-born neurogenic RPCs. The second trajectory (solid black lines) involves clusters

6 to 15 and gives rise to all retinal neurons via the progressive restriction in cell fate

competence of neurogenic RPCs. We discuss the two trajectories separately.

Müller glia self-renew and give rise to early, multipotent progenitors

The glial trajectory starts with non-reactive MG (clusters 1 and 2), which express

canonical glial markers like *gfap*, *apoeb* and additional genes like *glula*, *rlbp1a* and

cahz that ensure the housekeeping function of MG during homeostasis (Figure 3A,

supplemental figure 4, supplemental table 1). Most cells in the non-reactive MG

clusters are quiescent based on the analysis of the cell cycle, and are frequently found

in the uninjured, but also in the lesioned retina at all sampled time points (Figure 2).

However, some non-reactive MG are in S or G2/M phases of the cell cycle, and

express *pcna*, albeit at a lower level as compared to the expression in injury-induced,

proliferating cell clusters (Figure 2C, D). This is consistent with the proposed model

that zebrafish MG proliferate occasionally also in the uninjured, central retina and

generate rod progenitors that feed the rod precursor pool at the base of the outer

nuclear layer [10,16]. Accordingly, we detect PCNA-positive cells in the uninjured, central

retina (supplemental figure 1) as well as a small fraction of cells that align in a trajectory

from non-reactive MG on the left through reactive MG in the middle, to photoreceptor

precursors on the right side of the UMAP in the uninjured retina (Figure 2B). However,

some cells end up in the amacrine as well as retinal ganglion cell clusters. This

suggests that MG might have the potential to generate not only rods, but also all other

retinal neurons in the homeostatic adult retina. Indeed, MG in the uninjured retina

express, albeit at a low level, multipotency markers like *pax6*, and share many marker

genes with RPCs [16,39,66]. Still, MG and injury-induced RPCs are considered distinct cell

populations. Upon injury, MG divide only once between 31 and 48 hpl, whereas MG-

derived RPCs continue to divide, reaching a peak of proliferation at 4-5 dpl (discussed

in [25,28,29,43]). We isolated cells at 44 hpl, a time point when MG are about to undergo,

or already underwent, their asymmetric cell division [16,25,27,49] and identify cells in cluster

3 as early reactive MG. Consistent with that, we find that cells in cluster 3 do not only

express *gfap* and *apoeb*, but also *pcna* (Figure 2D, 3A). Moreover, the predicted cell

cycle status supports this notion. Whereas cells in the left part of cluster 3 are mostly

in G1, cells in G2/M phase are found in the right part, with cells in S phase overlapping

with both domains (Figure 2C). Cells in cluster 3 also upregulate inflammation-related

markers like *crlf1a*, as well as *mmp9* and *hbegfa* (Figure 3C, 4, supplemental figure 5B

and supplemental table 1). The upregulation of inflammatory genes makes MG similar

to immune cells [35,36,67]. In this context, our population of early reactive MG (cluster 3),

identified mostly at 44 hpl, resembles the reactive MG pool found in the regenerating

zebrafish retina at 36 hpl [37]. However, our MG cluster is proliferative, whereas the one

discussed by the mentioned study is not. The presence of a distinct pool of non-

proliferative, reactive MG as early as 36 hpl in the earlier study might be explained by

the different time points of sample collection, and/or by the lower number of cells

sequenced in our experiment (11.690) in comparison to the previous one (45.153) [37].

In summary, MG in the homeostatic zebrafish retina behave like multipotent RPCs.

Upon injury, reactive MG express genes associated with inflammation, like *crlf1a*, and

undergo asymmetric cell division. Daughter cells derived from this cell division most

likely map to cluster 5, which is discussed below.

A crossroad in the glial trajectory: hybrid cells with MG and RPC characteristics

The close similarity between zebrafish MG and MG-derived RPCs at the level of expressed markers as well as cellular and subcellular morphology has been described extensively in the literature [24,25,29]. Thus, we suggest that cells in cluster 5, which displays a transcriptional hybrid identity between MG and RPCs, are the product of the asymmetric cell division from the early reactive MG (cluster 3). Cells in cluster 5 are still *gfap* positive, and share marker expression with early reactive MG, like *her4.1* and *crlf1a* (Figure 3A, C). However, cluster 5 is highly proliferative and becomes only prominent at 4 dpl, a time point when predominantly RPCs are proliferating [16,25,27,29]. Consistently, *pcna* is highly expressed in cluster 5 and the predicted cell cycle status indicates that most cells are in S or G2/M phase (Figure 2C, D). Moreover, previous studies have found *her4.1* and *crlf1a* in MG-derived RPCs in the light- as well as stab-lesioned retina, where they control RPC proliferation at 4 dpl [35,36,68]. We found that *her4.1* at 4 and 6 dpl locates to the inner nuclear layer as well as to the outer nuclear layer, where presumptive RPCs reside at this time point (Figure 3D) [68,69]. In addition, cells in cluster 5 upregulate *sox9b* and *nr2e1*, which have been found in early, multipotent RPCs of the developing fish, avian and mammalian retinae, as well as in late retinogenesis, where they regulate MG genesis [70–74]. Hence, we propose that cells in cluster 5 represent a crossroad of the glial and neurogenic trajectory, containing self-renewed MG as well as first-born, MG-derived RPCs as a direct result of the earlier (44 hpl) asymmetric MG cell division. We further propose that self-renewed MG close the cycle via late reactive MG (cluster 4) and return into non-reactive MG (clusters 1 and 2, red, dashed line in Figure 9). In contrast, MG-derived RPCs embark into the neurogenic pathway (cluster 6, solid, black line). In an alternative model, cells in cluster

5 might represent only MG cells that have upregulated early RPC markers like *sox9b*

and *nr2e1* and are dividing a second time at 4 dpl to generate renewed MG (cluster 4)

and neurogenic RPCs (cluster 6). However, MG have been described to divide only

once between 24 and 42 hpl and additional and/or asynchronous MG divisions later

than 2 dpl have not been investigated [25,27,49]. BrdU/EdU lineage tracing experiments

will be required to address this issue, with the caveat that MG and RPCs are hardly

distinguishable from each other in the 4 dpl retina, especially when using the Zrf1

antibody to label MG [29,39]. Live imaging of the regenerating retina would be the best

tool to follow MG and MG-derived progenitors *in vivo*, but the technique is not optimized

yet for long recordings from the intact tissue in the living animal [49]. Either way, our

proposed model of self-renewing MG is further supported by the change of cell density

over time (Figure 2B). Following the cells across the four time points on the UMAP, we

observe that initially most cells of the uninjured sample map to non-reactive MG

(clusters 1 and 2) located at the far left. At 44 hpl, the cell density shifts towards the

upper right portion of cluster 1 and towards the early reactive MG (cluster 3) in the

upper, middle of the map. At 4 dpl, sampled cells mostly map to RPCs (clusters 5-9)

on the right, as well as to late reactive MG (cluster 4) in the lower, middle part.

Additionally, cells mapping to the lower right part of non-reactive MG (clusters 1 and

2) are enriched in this sample, indicating a reverse direction from right to left. This

population is significantly further increased at 6 dpl, when the number of RPCs is less

prominent and the differentiating neural types at the top and bottom right are

predominantly present in the sample. According to this model, sample collection at

even later time points, e.g. 10 or 14 dpl, might show that the initial status has been

restored and that non-reactive MG are mostly enriched. However, it is unlikely that this

experiment could be performed with our short-term labelling strategy.

The neurogenic trajectory produces regenerated progeny that partially follow the developmental order of neurogenesis

Neurogenic RPCs map to the right of cluster 5, and include proliferating, neurogenic RPCs (cluster 6) and the downstream, non-proliferating, neurogenic RPCs (cluster 7). Cells in these clusters express *insm1a*, *atoh7* and additional neurogenic genes that are required for the generation of several neuronal lineages (Figure 7, supplemental figure 5D and supplemental table 1 and 6). Indeed, *atoh7* expression has been described to be initiated in RPCs on their way to the last cell division giving rise to a retinal ganglion cell and another cell that can be either an amacrine cell, or a precursor of a horizontal or of a cone cell in the developing zebrafish retina [2,75,76]. Cluster 6 and 7 appear also highly similar to the transient, neurogenic RPC state that has been described recently in the developing mouse retina [53]. We propose that cluster 6 and 7 are the roots of the neurogenic trajectory from which fate-restricted RPCs and regenerated progeny arise at 4 and 6 dpl (solid, black line in Figure 9). Cells in cluster 6 are *mki67*-positive, but additionally express *insm1a*, which promotes RPC cell cycle exit at 4 dpl in the injured retina [47]. Cells in cluster 6 might undergo their last cell division, as suggested by the concomitant expression of *atoh7*. Consistently, in our scRNAseq high counts of *atoh7* are found in cells of cluster 6, to cluster 7 and eventually cluster 10. Cluster 10 represents differentiating retinal ganglion cells that are the first regenerated progeny, evident as early as 4 dpl (Figure 7, 9 and supplemental figure 6).

While amacrine cells arise directly from the core of neurogenic RPCs, fate restricted precursors for regenerated cones and for horizontal cells are identified (Figure 8 and 9), as it occurs during development [12,77]. Consistently with the events during development, red cones (cluster 11) branch from *thrb*-positive cells of the

photoreceptor RPC cluster (cluster 8). Interestingly, *thrb* transcripts are found in

neurogenic RPCs of cluster 7 as well as at the beginning of cluster 9, which contains

horizontal cell precursors becoming evident at 4 dpl (Figure 8B). This is in agreement

with observations in the developing zebrafish retina, where horizontal and cone cells

share a common Thrb-positive progenitor [78]. Mature markers of horizontal cells, like

calbindins, are not found in cluster 9 (Figure 8B, supplemental figure 6C and

supplemental table 1), in contrast to cone photoreceptor mature markers, like opsins,

at 4 and 6 dpl. While it might be that mature horizontal cells arise later than 6 dpl, their

absence from our dataset could also be due to our experimental set-up. As explained

before, we isolated mCherry-only positive and EGFP/mCherry-double positive cells to

obtain MG and MG-derived cells. Whereas mCherry, driven by a *gfap* promoter

fragment, is actively transcribed in MG, the label of MG-derived cells is completely

dependent on the half-life of the fluorophore. Protein turnover and further cell divisions

would result in a constant depletion of mCherry in MG-derived cells over time. In this

context, we find a strong expression of *pcna* in cluster 9, indicating that additional cell

divisions might have diluted the mCherry label to undetectable levels (Figure 2D).

Inclusion of EGFP-positive only cells in our sample collection may reveal the pool of

mature horizontal cells, which inherit the fluorophore from their *pcna:EGFP*-positive

precursors. Accordingly, we find the presence of horizontal cell precursor markers in

our dataset. For instance, cells in cluster 9 express *onecut1* and *onecut2*, which

encode transcription factors and are upregulated in horizontal cell RPCs in the

developing mouse retina, and which regulate horizontal cell maintenance in adult

animals [79–81]. Counts for *onecut1* and *onecut2* are found also in earlier neurogenic

RPCs of clusters 6 and 7, where they most likely contribute to the transient state of

RPCs together with additional neurogenic markers, like *atoh7* [53]. This is again

consistent with observations in the developing mouse retina, where Onecut1 and

Onecut2 regulate the development of retinal ganglion cells, as well as the development

of cones, horizontal cells, and of a subset of amacrine cells, while inhibiting rod

specification genes [79,81].

In addition to mature horizontal cells, we were also unable to detect any rod-specific

cluster expressing mature rod markers like *rho* and *gnat1* (supplemental figure 7A).

We assume that mature rods might arise as a third branch from the photoreceptor RPC

cluster (Figure 9), which indeed expresses rod specification markers like *nr2e3*

(supplemental table 1). We speculate that rods either become evident only later than

6 dpl, or that they do not survive the isolation procedure, since rods possess a complex

morphology with long outer segments. A third possibility might be that rod

photoreceptors are replenished by their dedicated rod precursors faster than the

triggering of the MG-dependent injury response. In this context, rod precursors form a

pool of cells at the base of the outer nuclear layer and proliferate as early as 16 hours

post-light lesion [28,82,83]. Since the already available pool of rod precursors would be

gfap:mCherry-negative, we might have missed the derived rod progeny, given our

sorting strategy. In summary, we show that in the light-lesioned retina, zebrafish MG

go through an inflammatory-like state before generating hybrid MG/RPCs that

eventually cycle-back to non-reactive MG as well generate neurogenic RPCs. The

neurogenic RPCs progressively restrict their competence to produce neurons that

include retinal ganglion cells first and bipolar cell last up to 6 dpl. Our study is the first

comprehensive description of the molecular network underlying MG self-renewal and

RPC differentiation to regenerating neurons which will inform future regenerative

therapies to treat retinal dystrophies in humans.[84].

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals

Zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) were raised as previously described [85]. Adult fish (6-12 months old) of either sex were used for all experiments. WT animals were in the AB genetic background.

Transgenic lines

To generate the *Tg(pcna:EGFP)*, the BAC CH73-140L11, containing more than 100 kb of the genomic *pcna* locus, was obtained from the BACPAC resource centre. A cassette containing EGFP and a polyadenylation signal was recombined at the starting ATG of exon 1. First, FRTgb- neo-FRT and EGFP cassettes where amplified by PCR. Then, the cassettes where amplified and merged by fusion PCR with primers carrying 50 nucleotides of homology of the targeting sequence. Recombineering of the BAC was performed as previously described [86]. BAC DNA was purified and about 50 pg of BAC DNA were injected into fertilized eggs at the one cell stage. F0 were raised and incrossed. F1 were identified by visual screening for GFP expression and raised. The *Tg(gfap:nls-mCherry)* line was generated as previously described [61]. In addition, to the line described in Lange et al. (tud117tg), a second independent insertion was isolated. This insertion displays a stronger expression in MG and was hence used for this study.

Light injury

WT AB and *Tg(pcna:EGFP);Tg(gfap:nls-mCherry)* fish were dark adapted for 3 days. Afterwards, diffuse light lesion was performed as previously described [22]. Briefly, up to 4 fish were placed in a beaker filled with system water (300 ml), positioned 3 cm away

from the light bulb of a metal halide lamp (EXFO X-Cite 120W, EXFO Photonic

Solutions, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada). Fish were exposed for 30 min to a bright

light (≥ 100.000 lux), and then put back to system tanks in normal light conditions.

Uninjured fish controls were dark adapted and processed in parallel to light injured

animals.

Dissociation of retinae to a single cell suspension

Uninjured and light-lesioned *Tg(pcna:EGFP);Tg(gfap:nls-mCherry)* fish were exposed

to an overdose (0.2%) of MS-222 (Sigma) [85] until cessation of the operculum

movement. Subsequently, each cornea was poked with a needle, and tweezers were

gently pressured on each side of the eye to remove the lens. Then, tweezers were

used to carefully isolate the retinae, which were put in a dissociation solution of papain

(16 U/ml), dispase (0.2 U/ml) and DNAse (168 U/ml) dissolved in Earle's Balanced Salt

Solution (EBSS, Worthington Biochemical Corporation). Up to 6 retinae were put in 1.7

ml of dissociation solution. Retinae were digested for 30 minutes at 28°C, and then

calcein blue (final concentration: 1µM, Invitrogen) was added for 10 minutes to the

digestion solution at 28°C to stain for living cells. At the end of the enzymatic digestion,

mechanical trituration was applied using fire-polished glass pipettes of decreasing tip

diameter to help tissue dissociation. Single cells were centrifuged (300 g) at 4°C, for 6

minutes. The cell pellet was re-suspended in EBSS supplemented with DNAse (100

U/ml) to eliminate residual, ambient DNA, and albumin ovomucoid inhibitor (1:10 of

stock solution, Worthington Biochemical Corporation) to stop papain action. The single

cell solution was eventually filtered (20 µm filters) to remove clumps and debris, and

put on ice, ready for Fluorescent Activated Cell Sorting (FACS). Each single cell

suspension was obtained by pooling 8 retinae (from 4 fish, 2 males and 2 females) of

uninjured and light-lesioned *Tg(pcna:EGFP);Tg(gfap:mCherry)* animals. Uninjured WT

AB, *Tg(gfap:mCherry)* and *Tg(pcna:EGFP)* fish were used to prepare single cell

suspensions of dissected retinae for setting the single fluorophore gates in flow

cytometry. Additionally, a calcein only stained single cell suspension was prepared

from uninjured WT AB fish retinae for the setting of the calcein gate in the flow

cytometry.

Flow cytometry and FACS

A BD FACSAria™ III cell sorter was used for flow cytometry and FACS. mCherry

fluorophore was detected using a 561 nm excitation laser and a 610/20 nm band pass

filter, EGFP using a 488 nm laser and a 530/30 nm band pass filter and calcein blue

using a 405 nm laser and a 450/40 nm band pass filter. The gating strategy is shown

in the supplemental method figure for uninjured samples and was the same for all the

light-lesioned samples. Forward and side scatters were used to gate cells among all

the events in the single cell suspension and to gate singlets among those cells

(supplemental method figure A). mCherry-positive only as well as EGFP-positive only

gates were set in comparison to the unstained, WT control (supplemental method

figure B). Calcein blue positive, single cells were eventually gated as living cells

(60.000 living cells from uninjured, 44 hpl and 4 dpl samples, 41.389 living cells from

6 dpl sample). 15.000 cells were sorted from each samples, put on ice and sent to the

CMCB Deep Sequencing Facility for single cell RNA sequencing (scRNAseq).

(Droplet based) single cell transcriptomics

Single cell transcriptome sequencing was performed based on the 10x Genomics

Single cell transcriptome workflow [87]. Specifically, 15.000 FACS-sorted cells were

recovered in BSA-coated tubes containing 5 ul PBS with 0.04% BSA. Cell samples

were carefully mixed with Reverse Transcription Reagent (Chromium Single Cell 3'

Library Kit v3) and loaded onto a Chromium Single Cell B Chip to reach a recovery of

10.000 cells per sample. The samples were processed further following the guidelines

of the 10x Genomics user manual for single cell 3' RNA-seq v3. In short, the droplets

were directly subjected to reverse transcription, the emulsion was broken and cDNA

was purified using silane beads (Chromium Single Cell 3' Gel Bead Kit v2). After

amplification of cDNA with 11 cycles, samples were purified with 0.6x volume of SPRI

select beads to deplete DNA fragments smaller than 400 base pairs and cDNA quality

was monitored using the Agilent FragmentAnalyzer 5200 (NGS Fragment Kit). 10 ul of

the resulting cDNA were used to prepare single cell RNA seq libraries - involving

fragmentation, dA-Tailing, adapter ligation and 11 cycles of indexing PCR following

manufacturer's guidelines. After quantification, both libraries were sequenced on an

Illumina NextSeq500 in 75 base pair paired-end mode, generating 45-109 million

fragments per transcriptome library. The raw sequencing data was processed with the

'count' command of the Cell Ranger software (v2.1.0) provided by 10X Genomics. To

build the reference, the zebrafish genome (GRCz11) as well as gene annotation

(Ensembl 90) were downloaded from Ensembl and the annotation was filtered with the

'mkgtf' command of Cell Ranger (options: '—e attribute=gene_biotype:protein_coding

--attribute=gene_biotype:lincRNA   –attribute=gene_biotype:antisense').   Genome

sequence and filtered annotation were then used as input to the 'mkref' command of

Cell Ranger to build the appropriate Cell Ranger.

Bioinformatic analysis

The complete software stack for the analysis is available as a Singularity container (https://gitlab.hrz.tu-chemnitz.de/dcgc-bfx/singularity/singularity-single-cell, tag 1f5da0b). The count matrices generated with Cell Ranger were further analysed using scanpy 1.8.2 (https://genomebiology.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s13059-017-1382-0). For quality control, we removed cells with less than 2.000 counts, less than 500 detected genes, more than 15% mitochondrial reads or more than 60% of the counts in the top 50 highest expressed genes. The counts were normalised with the size factors computed with calculateSumFactors from scran 1.18.5 (min.mean=0.1)[88]. The normalised counts were log-transformed using the numpy function log1p. The top 4000 highly variable genes were detected using the scanpy function scanpy.pp.highly_variable_genes (n_top_genes= 4000). Cell cycle scores were computed using scanpy.tl.score_genes_cell_cycle on each sample separately. As genes associated to S-phase, the genes *mcm5*, *pcna*, *tyms*, *fen1*, *mcm2*, *mcm4*, *rrm1*, *unga*, *gins2*, *mcm6*, *cdca7a*, *dtl*, *prim1*, *uhrf1*, *si:dkey-185e18.7*, *hells*, *rfc2*, *rpa2*, *nasp*, *rad51ap1*, *gmnn*, *wdr76*, *slbp*, *ccne2*, *ubr7*, *pold3*, *msh2*, *atad2*, *rad51*, *rrm2*, *cdc45*, *cdc6*, *exo1*, *tipin*, *dscc1*, *blm*, *casp8ap2*, *usp1*, *pola1*, *chaf1b*, *brip1* and *e2f8* were used. As genes associated to G2/M phase, the genes *hmgb2a*, *cdk1*, *nusap1*, *ube2c*, *birc5a*, *tpx2*, *top2a*, *ndc80*, *cks2*, *nuf2*, *cks1b*, *mki67*, *tmpoa*, *cenpf*, *tacc3*, *smc4*, *ccnb2*, *ckap2l*, *aurkb*, *bub1*, *kif11*, *anp32e*, *tubb4b*, *gtse1*, *kif20ba*, *si:ch211-69g19.2*, *jpt1a*, *cdc20*, *ttk*, *kif2c*, *rangap1a*, *ncapd2*, *dlgap5*, *si:ch211-244o22.2*, *cdca8*, *ect2*, *kif23*, *hmmr*, *aurka*, *anln*, *lbr*, *ckap5*, *cenpe*, *ctcf*, *nek2*, *g2e3*, *gas2l3*, *cbx5* and *selenoh* were used. A principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on the highly variable genes (function scanpy.pp.pca using svd_solver='arpack'). A k-nearest-neighbour (knn) graph was computed using scanpy.pp.neighbors and a UMAP was computed using scanpy.tl.umap. Clustering was performed with scnapy.tl.leiden (resolution=

0.01). For the three resulting clusters, marker genes were computed using

scanpy.tl.rank_genes_groups. Two smaller clusters identified as microglia and low-

quality cells were removed from the downstream analysis. Detection of highly variable

genes PCA were performed as above on the remaining cells. A new knn graph was

computed (this time with n_neighbors= 50) and a new UMAP was computed.

Embedding densities were computed using scanpy.tl.embedding_density. Clustering

was performed in multiple steps, always using scanpy.tl.leiden: First, the data were

clustered with the resolution parameter set to 0.45. Next, cluster 10 was subclustered

with resolution 0.1 and cluster 0 was subclustered with resolution 0.2. Marker genes

of the resulting 15 clusters were computed with scanpy.tl.rank_genes_groups.

Differential expression analysis of pairs of clusters was performed by subsetting the

data to cells from those two clusters and computing differentially expressed genes with

scanpy.tl.rank_genes_groups. The source code for the analysis is available upon

reasonable request.

Cluster annotation

Cluster annotation was performed in several steps. Initially, we identified clusters by

considering the top 100 upregulated genes per cluster, the time point at which they

appeared and their cell cycle profile. Genes were manually annotated by consulting

the ZFIN database (http://zfin.org/) and Pubmed (https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/)

indexed literature about retina development and regeneration. In particular, we took as

a reference the single cell RNA sequencing dataset of the regenerating zebrafish retina

from Hoang et al., 2020, for marker genes lists. Following the initial identification of cell

clusters, we proceeded with a finer characterization by considering differential gene

expression analysis for clusters that shared a similar identity. Occasionally (e.g., in the

case of horizontal cell precursor marker *ptf1a*), we plotted the UMAP profile of known

candidates from retina development or regeneration. Selected marker genes were then

checked for expression in the retina tissue via *in situ* hybridization, fluorescent *in situ*

hybridization and immunohistochemistry on cryosections.

Tissue preparation and cutting

Fish heads were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (PB, pH:

7.4) overnight, at 4°C. Subsequently, fixed heads where decalcified and cryoprotected

in 20% EDTA and 20% sucrose in 0.1M PB (pH: 7.5) overnight, at 4°C. Heads were

eventually embedded in 7.5% gelatin, 20% sucrose in 0.1M PB and sectioned (12 or

14 µm) at the cryostat (CryoStar Nx70, Thermo Scientific). Cryosections were stored

at -20°C.

in situ **hybridization probe synthesis**

For the synthesis of *in situ* hybridization RNA probes, 4 dpl retinae were dissected and

sonicated at 4°C to homogenate the tissue and to extract total RNA. We chose 4 dpl

samples, because transcripts of interest were enriched at 4 dpl. RNA was extracted

using the total RNA purification kit and following manufacturer's instructions (Norgen

Biotek Corporation). cDNA was then transcribed using the first strand cDNA synthesis

kit (Roche), followed by PCR to amplify the fragments of interest using primer pairs

listed in the key resource table. The amplicon was subsequently purified (gel and DNA

recovery kit, Zymo Research) and cloned in a TOPO TA® vector (Thermo Fisher), with

which competent *E coli* bacteria were transformed and cultured on Petri dishes coated

with agar and ampicillin, overnight at 37°C. The next day, colonies were picked up and

cultured in LB medium supplemented with ampicillin (1:2000) overnight at 37°C,

shaking, to enrich cultures for mini-prep (Gene Jet Plasmid Miniprep kit k0503, Thermo

Fisher). Purified plasmids were sent for sequencing (Eurofins) to verify the sequence.

Insert-positive colonies were further enriched in LB/ampicillin cultures for midi-prep

(Nucleo Bond® Xtra Midi, Macherey – Nagel) and purified plasmids were linearized to

transcribe anti-sense, digoxigenin labelled (DIG) RNA probes, which were stored in

hybridization buffer at -20°C. Probes for *her 4.1*, *crlf1a*, *hmgb2b*, *onecut1*, *onecut2*

were transcribed from a TOPO TA® cloned insert. Instead, the *id1* probe was

transcribed directly from the PCR – amplified cDNA using SP6-conjugated forward and

T7-conjugated reverse primers (key resource table).

in situ hybridization

in situ hybridization and fluorescent i*n situ* hybridization were performed on three

animals per injured time point and on three uninjured controls processed in parallel.

Cryosections were dried for 30 minutes at room temperature, then washed two times

for 10 minutes in phosphate buffer saline supplemented with 0.3% Triton X-100

(PBSTx) for permeabilization. *in situ* hybridization probes were denatured by warming

up at 70°C for 10 minutes and brief vortexing. Permeabilized sections were incubated

overnight in denatured probes at 62°C. The next day, sections were rinsed three times

(once for 15 minutes, followed by two washes of 30 minutes each) in washing buffer

(refer to key resource table) at 62°C. Then, in the case of chromogenic *in situ*

hybridization, sections were washed twice in MABT (key resource table) for 30 minutes

each and incubated with 2% digoxigenin blocking reagent (key resource table) in

MABT for 1 hour at room temperature. In the case of fluorescent *in situ* hybridization,

sections were washed in TNT buffer (key resource table), and then incubated with 2%

digoxigenin blocking reagent dissolved in TNT buffer. After, sections were incubated

with the AP-conjugated, anti-digoxigenin antibody (chromogenic *in situ* hybridization,

1:2000, key resource table) or with the POD-conjugated, anti-digoxigenin antibody

(fluorescent *in situ* hybridization, 1:2000, key resource table) overnight, at 4°C. The

next day, sections were washed four times for 20 minutes each in MABT (chromogenic

in situ hybridization) or three times for 10 minutes each in TNT buffer (fluorescent *in*

situ hybridization) at room temperature. Then, sections for chromogenic *in situ*

hybridization were washed for 5 minutes in staining buffer (key resource table) and

eventually incubated with 20 µl/ml NBT/BCIP stock solution in staining buffer, at room

temperature, to develop the colour reaction. Time of incubation varied between three

hours and overnight, depending on the target mRNA and probe concentration. In the

case of fluorescent *in situ* hybridization, after TNT washing steps, sections were

incubated for 30 minutes with 1:200 Cy3-Tyramide in TSA amplification buffer (Akoya

Biosciences®), at room temperature. Finally, sections from chromogenic *in situ*

hybridization were washed three times with PBS, for 10 minutes each and mounted in

70% glycerol in PBS, ready for bright field microscopy. Fluorescent *in situ* hybridization

sections were rinsed three times in PBS, for 10 minutes each, and then incubation with

primary antibody for immunohistochemistry was performed as described below.

Immunohistochemistry

Immunohistochemistry was conducted as previously described [89,90]. Sections were

dried at room temperature for 30 minutes and washed 3 times in PBSTx for 10 minutes

each. Then, primary antibodies diluted in PBSTx were applied overnight at 4°C (refer

to the key resource table for primary antibody host, antigen specificity and dilution).

For proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA) retrieval, sections were immersed in 10

mM sodium citrate (pH: 6) for 6 minutes at a temperature higher than 80°C, then

washed, and finally primary anti-PCNA antibody was applied. After primary antibody

incubation, sections were washed three times in PBSTx for 10 minutes each, then

Alexa® fluorophore conjugated, secondary antibodies diluted In PBSTx were applied

accordingly (refer to key resource table for secondary antibody host, primary antibody

specificity and dilution) for 2 hours at room temperature. Sections were eventually

washed three times in PBS, mounted in 70% glycerol in PBS, and stored at 4°C. Each

staining was performed on three fish per time point upon injury and on three uninjured

fish controls processed in parallel. When combined with fluorescent *in situ*

hybridization, immunohistochemistry followed fluorescent *in situ* hybridization

processed sections.

Microscopy

Bright field images of chromogenic *in situ* hybridizations and fluorescent images in

supplemental figure 2 were acquired with the Widefield ApoTome microscope (Zeiss

Axio Imager.Z1) using the 20x/0.8 Plan-Apochromat, Air, DIC objective. Fluorescent

images in supplemental figure 1, and in Figure 4 and 6 were acquired with the laser

scanning confocal microscope 780 (Zeiss Axio Imager.Z1) using the 40x/1.2 C-

Apochromat, Water, DIC, Zeiss (supplemental figure 1 and Figure 4) and the 20x/0.8

Plan-Apochromat, Air, DIC, Zeiss (Figure 6). Fluorescent channels were acquired

sequentially to minimize crosstalk in multicolour specimens.

Image acquisition and processing

Bright field microscope images were processed with the Zeiss ZEN blue, V 2012

software. The extended depth of focus function (contrast method) was applied to raw,

bright field images of *her4.1*, *hmgb2b*, *atoh7* and *onecut1 in situ* hybridizations to

project the chromogenic signal of the optical stack to a single plane. Fluorescent

microscope images were processed using Fiji [91] for image contrast adjustments, crop

and rotation. Adobe Illustrator CC 2015.3 was used to assemble figures. Excel 2016

(Microsoft) was used to generate the plot in supplemental figure 6.

STATISTICS

Marker genes were ranked by their test statistic computed with a t-test for each gene,

comparing cells within the cluster to the cells outside the cluster, as implemented in

the scanpy function tl.rank_genes_groups. The same was done to identify differentially

expressed genes between pairs of clusters.

ETHICAL STATEMENT

Fish were kept according to FELASA guidelines [92]. All animal experiments were

conducted according to the guidelines and under supervision of the

Regierungspräsidium Dresden (permit: TVV 44/2017). All efforts were made to

minimize animal suffering and the number of animals used.

Data availability

All sequencing data that support the findings of this study have been deposited at
https://singlecell.broadinstitute.org/single_cell/reviewer_access/5a29ec20-d572-
4461-bfd3-cb8973c05f33 and are accessible through BioProject ID SCP1973.

Acknowledgements

We thank Dr. Judith Konantz, M. Fischer, S. Kunadt and D. Mögel for excellent
zebrafish care. We thank Katja Bernhardt for the excellent technical assistance in flow
cytometry and cell sorting. We would like to thank also Susanne Reinhardt and Dr.
Andreas Petzold from the DRESDEN-concept Genome Center for support with initial
planning and bioinformatic processing of the scRNAseq experiment, respectively. We
thank Prof. Marius Ader, Prof. Mike O. Karl, Dr. Volker Kroehne, Juliane Hammer and
Elisa Nerli for critically reading the manuscript. In addition, we thank the members of
the Brand laboratory for continued support and discussions as well as helpful
comments on the manuscript. We thank also Dr. Christian Lange, Dr. Robert Münch
and Dr. Steffen Rulands for excellent scientific discussion. This work was supported
by grants to M.B. from the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (BR 1746/11-1), the
European Union (European Research Council AdG Zf-BrainReg) and the German
Excellence Initiative (Wissenschaftsrat and Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft) (EXC
168). Work was supported by the DRESDEN-concept Genome Center, the Light
Microscopy Facility and Flow Cytometry Facility, core facilities of the CMCB at the
Technische Universität Dresden. The funders had no role in study design, data
collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Author contributions

924   Conceptualization: L.C, F.R., A.W., S.H., M.B.; Investigation: L.C., F.R., A.M., J.B.,

925   A.D.; Writing - original draft: L.C., S.H., M.B.; Writing - review & editing: L.C., F.R.,

926   A.M., J.B., A.D., A.W., S.H., and M.B.; Supervision: M.B.; Funding acquisition: M.B.

REFERENCES

1.	Dowling, J.E. (1987). The Retina: An Approachable Part of the Brain (Harvard University Press).
2.	Amini, R., Rocha-Martins, M., and Norden, C. (2018). Neuronal Migration and Lamination in the Vertebrate Retina. Front. Neurosci. *11*, 742. 10.3389/fnins.2017.00742.
3.	Hoon, M., Okawa, H., Santina, L.D., and Wong, R.O.L. (2014). Functional Architecture of the Retina: Development and Disease. Prog Retin Eye Res *42*, 44–84. 10.1016/j.preteyeres.2014.06.003.
4.	Stenkamp, D.L. (2015). Development of the Vertebrate Eye and Retina. Prog Mol Biol Transl Sci *134*, 397–414. 10.1016/bs.pmbts.2015.06.006.
5.	Agathocleous, M., and Harris, W.A. (2009). From progenitors to differentiated cells in the vertebrate retina. Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol *25*, 45–69. 10.1146/annurev.cellbio.042308.113259.
6.	Alexiades, M.R., and Cepko, C.L. (1997). Subsets of retinal progenitors display temporally regulated and distinct biases in the fates of their progeny. Development *124*, 1119–1131. 10.1242/dev.124.6.1119.
7.	Cepko, C. (2014). Intrinsically different retinal progenitor cells produce specific types of progeny. Nat Rev Neurosci *15*, 615–627. 10.1038/nrn3767.
8.	Cepko, C.L., Austin, C.P., Yang, X., Alexiades, M., and Ezzeddine, D. (1996). Cell fate determination in the vertebrate retina. PNAS *93*, 589–595. 10.1073/pnas.93.2.589.
9.	Livesey, F.J., and Cepko, C.L. (2001). Vertebrate neural cell-fate determination: lessons from the retina. Nat Rev Neurosci *2*, 109–118. 10.1038/35053522.
10.	Stenkamp, D.L. (2007). Neurogenesis in the fish retina. Int Rev Cytol *259*, 173–224. 10.1016/S0074-7696(06)59005-9.
11.	Turner, D.L., and Cepko, C.L. (1987). A common progenitor for neurons and glia persists in rat retina late in development. Nature *328*, 131–136. 10.1038/328131a0.
12.	Weber, I.P., Ramos, A.P., Strzyz, P.J., Leung, L.C., Young, S., and Norden, C. (2014). Mitotic Position and Morphology of Committed Precursor Cells in the Zebrafish Retina Adapt to Architectural Changes upon Tissue Maturation. Cell Reports *7*, 386–397. 10.1016/j.celrep.2014.03.014.
13.	Young, R.W. (1985). Cell differentiation in the retina of the mouse. Anat Rec *212*, 199–205. 10.1002/ar.1092120215.
14.	Fleisch, V.C., Fraser, B., and Allison, W.T. (2011). Investigating regeneration and functional integration of CNS neurons: Lessons from zebrafish genetics and other fish species. Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) - Molecular Basis of Disease *1812*, 364–380. 10.1016/j.bbadis.2010.10.012.
15.	Saade, C.J., Alvarez-Delfin, K., and Fadool, J.M. (2013). Rod photoreceptors protect from cone degeneration-induced retinal remodeling and restore visual responses in zebrafish. J Neurosci *33*, 1804–1814. 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2910-12.2013.
16.	Bernardos, R.L., Barthel, L.K., Meyers, J.R., and Raymond, P.A. (2007). Late-Stage Neuronal Progenitors in the Retina Are Radial Muller Glia That Function as Retinal Stem Cells. Journal of Neuroscience *27*, 7028–7040. 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1624-07.2007.
17.	Fimbel, S.M., Montgomery, J.E., Burket, C.T., and Hyde, D.R. (2007). Regeneration of Inner Retinal Neurons after Intravitreal Injection of Ouabain in

Zebrafish. Journal of Neuroscience *27*, 1712–1724. 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.5317-06.2007.

18. Powell, C., Cornblath, E., Elsaeidi, F., Wan, J., and Goldman, D. (2016). Zebrafish Müller glia-derived progenitors are multipotent, exhibit proliferative biases and regenerate excess neurons. Sci Rep *6*, 24851. 10.1038/srep24851.

19. Sherpa, T., Fimbel, S.M., Mallory, D.E., Maaswinkel, H., Spritzer, S.D., Sand, J.A., Li, L., Hyde, D.R., and Stenkamp, D.L. (2008). Ganglion cell regeneration following whole-retina destruction in zebrafish. Devel Neurobio *68*, 166–181. 10.1002/dneu.20568.

20. Vihtelic, T.S., Soverly, J.E., Kassen, S.C., and Hyde, D.R. (2006). Retinal regional differences in photoreceptor cell death and regeneration in light-lesioned albino zebrafish. Experimental Eye Research *82*, 558–575. 10.1016/j.exer.2005.08.015.

21. Vihtelic, T.S., and Hyde, D.R. (2000). Light-induced rod and cone cell death and regeneration in the adult albino zebrafish (Danio rerio) retina. J Neurobiol *44*, 289–307. 10.1002/1097-4695(20000905)44:3<289::aid-neu1>3.0.co;2-h.

22. Weber, A., Hochmann, S., Cimalla, P., Gärtner, M., Kuscha, V., Hans, S., Geffarth, M., Kaslin, J., Koch, E., and Brand, M. (2013). Characterization of light lesion paradigms and optical coherence tomography as tools to study adult retina regeneration in zebrafish. PLoS One *8*, e80483. 10.1371/journal.pone.0080483.

23. Gorsuch, R.A., and Hyde, D.R. (2014). Regulation of Müller glial dependent neuronal regeneration in the damaged adult zebrafish retina. Experimental Eye Research *123*, 131–140. 10.1016/j.exer.2013.07.012.

24. Lahne, M., Nagashima, M., Hyde, D.R., and Hitchcock, P.F. (2020). Reprogramming Müller Glia to Regenerate Retinal Neurons. Annu Rev Vis Sci *6*, 171–193. 10.1146/annurev-vision-121219-081808.

25. Lenkowski, J.R., and Raymond, P.A. (2014). Müller glia: Stem cells for generation and regeneration of retinal neurons in teleost fish. Progress in Retinal and Eye Research *40*, 94–123. 10.1016/j.preteyeres.2013.12.007.

26. Wan, J., and Goldman, D. (2016). Retina regeneration in zebrafish. Curr Opin Genet Dev *40*, 41–47. 10.1016/j.gde.2016.05.009.

27. Nagashima, M., Barthel, L.K., and Raymond, P.A. (2013). A self-renewing division of zebrafish Müller glial cells generates neuronal progenitors that require N-cadherin to regenerate retinal neurons. Development *140*, 4510–4521. 10.1242/dev.090738.

28. Thummel, R., Kassen, S.C., Enright, J.M., Nelson, C.M., Montgomery, J.E., and Hyde, D.R. (2008). Characterization of Müller glia and neuronal progenitors during adult zebrafish retinal regeneration. Experimental Eye Research *87*, 433–444. 10.1016/j.exer.2008.07.009.

29. Fausett, B.V., and Goldman, D. (2006). A Role for 1 Tubulin-Expressing Muller Glia in Regeneration of the Injured Zebrafish Retina. Journal of Neuroscience *26*, 6303–6313. 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0332-06.2006.

30. Fausett, B.V., Gumerson, J.D., and Goldman, D. (2008). The Proneural Basic Helix-Loop-Helix Gene Ascl1a Is Required for Retina Regeneration. Journal of Neuroscience *28*, 1109–1117. 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4853-07.2008.

31. Ramachandran, R., Zhao, X.-F., and Goldman, D. (2011). Ascl1a/Dkk/ -catenin signaling pathway is necessary and glycogen synthase kinase-3 inhibition is sufficient for zebrafish retina regeneration. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences *108*, 15858–15863. 10.1073/pnas.1107220108.

32. Nelson, C.M., Ackerman, K.M., O'Hayer, P., Bailey, T.J., Gorsuch, R.A., and Hyde, D.R. (2013). Tumor Necrosis Factor-Alpha Is Produced by Dying Retinal Neurons and Is Required for Muller Glia Proliferation during Zebrafish Retinal Regeneration. Journal of Neuroscience *33*, 6524–6539. 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3838-12.2013.

33. Ramachandran, R., Reifler, A., Parent, J.M., and Goldman, D. (2010). Conditional gene expression and lineage tracing of tuba1a expressing cells during zebrafish development and retina regeneration. J. Comp. Neurol. *518*, 4196–4212. 10.1002/cne.22448.

34. Thummel, R., Enright, J.M., Kassen, S.C., Montgomery, J.E., Bailey, T.J., and Hyde, D.R. (2010). Pax6a and Pax6b are required at different points in neuronal progenitor cell proliferation during zebrafish photoreceptor regeneration. Experimental Eye Research *90*, 572–582. 10.1016/j.exer.2010.02.001.

35. Wan, J., Ramachandran, R., and Goldman, D. (2012). HB-EGF Is Necessary and Sufficient for Müller Glia Dedifferentiation and Retina Regeneration. Developmental Cell *22*, 334–347. 10.1016/j.devcel.2011.11.020.

36. Zhao, X.-F., Wan, J., Powell, C., Ramachandran, R., Myers, M.G., and Goldman, D. (2014). Leptin and IL-6 family cytokines synergize to stimulate Müller glia reprogramming and retina regeneration. Cell Rep *9*, 272–284. 10.1016/j.celrep.2014.08.047.

37. Hoang, T., Wang, J., Boyd, P., Wang, F., Santiago, C., Jiang, L., Yoo, S., Lahne, M., Todd, L.J., Jia, M., et al. (2020). Gene regulatory networks controlling vertebrate retinal regeneration. Science *370*, eabb8598. 10.1126/science.abb8598.

38. Gorsuch, R.A., Lahne, M., Yarka, C.E., Petravick, M.E., Li, J., and Hyde, D.R. (2017). Sox2 regulates Müller glia reprogramming and proliferation in the regenerating zebrafish retina via Lin28 and Ascl1a. Exp Eye Res *161*, 174–192. 10.1016/j.exer.2017.05.012.

39. Raymond, P.A., Barthel, L.K., Bernardos, R.L., and Perkowski, J.J. (2006). Molecular characterization of retinal stem cells and their niches in adult zebrafish. BMC Dev Biol *6*, 36. 10.1186/1471-213X-6-36.

40. Cameron, D.A., Gentile, K.L., Middleton, F.A., and Yurco, P. (2005). Gene expression profiles of intact and regenerating zebrafish retina. Mol Vis *11*, 775–791.

41. Kassen, S.C., Ramanan, V., Montgomery, J.E., T. Burket, C., Liu, C.-G., Vihtelic, T.S., and Hyde, D.R. (2007). Time course analysis of gene expression during light-induced photoreceptor cell death and regeneration in *albino* zebrafish. Devel Neurobio *67*, 1009–1031. 10.1002/dneu.20362.

42. Kramer, A.C., Gurdziel, K., and Thummel, R. (2021). A Comparative Analysis of Gene and Protein Expression Throughout a Full 28-Day Retinal Regeneration Time-Course in Adult Zebrafish. Front Cell Dev Biol *9*, 741514. 10.3389/fcell.2021.741514.

43. Lahne, M., Brecker, M., Jones, S.E., and Hyde, D.R. (2020). The Regenerating Adult Zebrafish Retina Recapitulates Developmental Fate Specification Programs. Front Cell Dev Biol *8*, 617923. 10.3389/fcell.2020.617923.

44. Morris, A.C., Forbes-Osborne, M.A., Pillai, L.S., and Fadool, J.M. (2011). Microarray Analysis of XOPS-mCFP Zebrafish Retina Identifies Genes Associated with Rod Photoreceptor Degeneration and Regeneration. Investigative Ophthalmology & Visual Science *52*, 2255–2266. 10.1167/iovs.10-6022.

45. Ng Chi Kei, J., Currie, P.D., and Jusuf, P.R. (2017). Fate bias during neural regeneration adjusts dynamically without recapitulating developmental fate progression. Neural Dev *12*, 12. 10.1186/s13064-017-0089-y.

46. Qin, Z., Barthel, L.K., and Raymond, P.A. (2009). Genetic evidence for shared mechanisms of epimorphic regeneration in zebrafish. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *106*, 9310–9315. 10.1073/pnas.0811186106.

47. Ramachandran, R., Zhao, X.-F., and Goldman, D. (2012). Insm1a-mediated gene repression is essential for the formation and differentiation of Müller glia-derived progenitors in the injured retina. Nat Cell Biol *14*, 1013–1023. 10.1038/ncb2586.

48. Xu, B., Tang, X., Jin, M., Zhang, H., Du, L., Yu, S., and He, J. (2020). Unifying developmental programs for embryonic and postembryonic neurogenesis in the zebrafish retina. Development *147*, dev185660. 10.1242/dev.185660.

49. Lahne, M., Li, J., Marton, R.M., and Hyde, D.R. (2015). Actin-Cytoskeleton- and Rock-Mediated INM Are Required for Photoreceptor Regeneration in the Adult Zebrafish Retina. J. Neurosci. *35*, 15612–15634. 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.5005-14.2015.

50. Macosko, E.Z., Basu, A., Satija, R., Nemesh, J., Shekhar, K., Goldman, M., Tirosh, I., Bialas, A.R., Kamitaki, N., Martersteck, E.M., et al. (2015). Highly Parallel Genome-wide Expression Profiling of Individual Cells Using Nanoliter Droplets. Cell *161*, 1202–1214. 10.1016/j.cell.2015.05.002.

51. Tirosh, I., Izar, B., Prakadan, S.M., Wadsworth, M.H., Treacy, D., Trombetta, J.J., Rotem, A., Rodman, C., Lian, C., Murphy, G., et al. (2016). Dissecting the multicellular ecosystem of metastatic melanoma by single-cell RNA-seq. Science *352*, 189–196. 10.1126/science.aad0501.

52. Whitfield, M.L., Sherlock, G., Saldanha, A.J., Murray, J.I., Ball, C.A., Alexander, K.E., Matese, J.C., Perou, C.M., Hurt, M.M., Brown, P.O., et al. (2002). Identification of genes periodically expressed in the human cell cycle and their expression in tumors. Mol Biol Cell *13*, 1977–2000. 10.1091/mbc.02-02-0030.

53. Wu, F., Bard, J.E., Kann, J., Yergeau, D., Sapkota, D., Ge, Y., Hu, Z., Wang, J., Liu, T., and Mu, X. (2021). Single cell transcriptomics reveals lineage trajectory of retinal ganglion cells in wild-type and Atoh7-null retinas. Nat Commun *12*, 1465. 10.1038/s41467-021-21704-4.

54. Bernardos, R.L., and Raymond, P.A. (2006). GFAP transgenic zebrafish. Gene Expr Patterns *6*, 1007–1013. 10.1016/j.modgep.2006.04.006.

55. Peterson, R.E., Fadool, J.M., Mcclintock, J., and Linser, P.J. (2001). Müller cell differentiation in the zebrafish neural retina: Evidence of distinct early and late stages in cell maturation. Journal of Comparative Neurology *429*, 530–540. 10.1002/1096-9861(20010122)429:4<530::AID-CNE2>3.0.CO;2-C.

56. Yurco, P., and Cameron, D.A. (2005). Responses of Müller glia to retinal injury in adult zebrafish. Vision Research *45*, 991–1002. 10.1016/j.visres.2004.10.022.

57. D'Aniello, E., Ravisankar, P., and Waxman, J.S. (2015). Rdh10a Provides a Conserved Critical Step in the Synthesis of Retinoic Acid during Zebrafish Embryogenesis. PLOS ONE *10*, e0138588. 10.1371/journal.pone.0138588.

58. Feng, L., Hernandez, R.E., Waxman, J.S., Yelon, D., and Moens, C.B. (2010). Dhrs3a regulates retinoic acid biosynthesis through a feedback inhibition mechanism. Developmental Biology *338*, 1–14. 10.1016/j.ydbio.2009.10.029.

59. Holmes, R.S., and Hempel, J. (2011). Comparative studies of vertebrate aldehyde dehydrogenase 3: Sequences, structures, phylogeny and evolution.

Evidence for a mammalian origin for the ALDH3A1 gene. Chemico-Biological Interactions *191*, 113–121. 10.1016/j.cbi.2011.01.014.

60. Baraban, M., Anselme, I., Schneider-Maunoury, S., and Giudicelli, F. (2013). Zebrafish Embryonic Neurons Transport Messenger RNA to Axons and Growth Cones In Vivo. J. Neurosci. *33*, 15726–15734. 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1510-13.2013.

61. Lange, C., Rost, F., Machate, A., Reinhardt, S., Lesche, M., Weber, A., Kuscha, V., Dahl, A., Rulands, S., and Brand, M. (2020). Single cell sequencing of radial glia progeny reveals diversity of newborn neurons in the adult zebrafish brain. Development, 1855951. 10.1242/dev.185595.

62. Mu, Z., Zhang, S., He, C., Hou, H., Liu, D., Hu, N., and Xu, H. (2016). Expression of SoxC Transcription Factors during Zebrafish Retinal and Optic Nerve Regeneration. Neurosci Bull *33*, 53–61. 10.1007/s12264-016-0073-2.

63. Jusuf, P.R., Almeida, A.D., Randlett, O., Joubin, K., Poggi, L., and Harris, W.A. (2011). Origin and Determination of Inhibitory Cell Lineages in the Vertebrate Retina. J. Neurosci. *31*, 2549–2562. 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4713-10.2011.

64. Jusuf, P.R., and Harris, W.A. (2009). Ptf1a is expressed transiently in all types of amacrine cells in the embryonic zebrafish retina. Neural Dev *4*, 34. 10.1186/1749-8104-4-34.

65. Craig, S.E.L., Calinescu, A.-A., and Hitchcock, P.F. (2008). Identification of the molecular signatures integral to regenerating photoreceptors in the retina of the zebra fish. j ocul biol dis inform *1*, 73–84. 10.1007/s12177-008-9011-5.

66. Blackshaw, S., Harpavat, S., Trimarchi, J., Cai, L., Huang, H., Kuo, W.P., Weber, G., Lee, K., Fraioli, R.E., Cho, S.-H., et al. (2004). Genomic analysis of mouse retinal development. PLoS Biol *2*, E247. 10.1371/journal.pbio.0020247.

67. Silva, N.J., Nagashima, M., Li, J., Kakuk-Atkins, L., Ashrafzadeh, M., Hyde, D.R., and Hitchcock, P.F. (2020). Inflammation and matrix metalloproteinase 9 (Mmp-9) regulate photoreceptor regeneration in adult zebrafish. Glia *68*, 1445–1465. 10.1002/glia.23792.

68. Wilson, S.G., Wen, W., Pillai-Kastoori, L., and Morris, A.C. (2016). Tracking the fate of her4 expressing cells in the regenerating retina using her4:Kaede zebrafish. Exp Eye Res *145*, 75–87. 10.1016/j.exer.2015.11.002.

69. Campbell, L.J., Levendusky, J.L., Steines, S.A., and Hyde, D.R. (2022). Retinal regeneration requires dynamic Notch signaling. Neural Regen Res *17*, 1199–1209. 10.4103/1673-5374.327326.

70. Buenaventura, D.F., Ghinia-Tegla, M.G., and Emerson, M.M. (2018). Fate-restricted retinal progenitor cells adopt a molecular profile and spatial position distinct from multipotent progenitor cells. Dev Biol *443*, 35–49. 10.1016/j.ydbio.2018.06.023.

71. Corso-Díaz, X., and Simpson, E.M. (2015). Nr2e1 regulates retinal lamination and the development of Müller glia, S-cones, and glycineric amacrine cells during retinogenesis. Molecular Brain *8*, 37. 10.1186/s13041-015-0126-x.

72. Kitambi, S.S., and Hauptmann, G. (2007). The zebrafish orphan nuclear receptor genes nr2e1 and nr2e3 are expressed in developing eye and forebrain. Gene Expression Patterns *7*, 521–528. 10.1016/j.modgep.2006.10.006.

73. Muto, A., Iida, A., Satoh, S., and Watanabe, S. (2009). The group E Sox genes Sox8 and Sox9 are regulated by Notch signaling and are required for Müller glial cell development in mouse retina. Exp Eye Res *89*, 549–558. 10.1016/j.exer.2009.05.006.

74. Poché, R.A., Furuta, Y., Chaboissier, M.-C., Schedl, A., and Behringer, R.R. (2008). Sox9 is expressed in mouse multipotent retinal progenitor cells and

functions in Müller Glial cell development. Journal of Comparative Neurology *510*, 237–250. 10.1002/cne.21746.

75. Nerli, E., Kretzschmar, J., Bianucci, T., Rocha-Martins, M., Zechner, C., and Norden, C. (2022). Deterministic and probabilistic fate decisions co-exist in a single retinal lineage. 2022.08.11.503564. 10.1101/2022.08.11.503564.

76. Poggi, L., Vitorino, M., Masai, I., and Harris, W.A. (2005). Influences on neural lineage and mode of division in the zebrafish retina in vivo. J Cell Biol *171*, 991–999. 10.1083/jcb.200509098.

77. Godinho, L., Williams, P.R., Claassen, Y., Provost, E., Leach, S.D., Kamermans, M., and Wong, R.O.L. (2007). Nonapical Symmetric Divisions Underlie Horizontal Cell Layer Formation in the Developing Retina In Vivo. Neuron *56*, 597–603. 10.1016/j.neuron.2007.09.036.

78. Suzuki, S.C., Bleckert, A., Williams, P.R., Takechi, M., Kawamura, S., and Wong, R.O.L. (2013). Cone photoreceptor types in zebrafish are generated by symmetric terminal divisions of dedicated precursors. PNAS *110*, 15109–15114. 10.1073/pnas.1303551110.

79. Emerson, M.M., Surzenko, N., Goetz, J.J., Trimarchi, J., and Cepko, C.L. (2013). Otx2 and Onecut1 promote the fates of cone photoreceptors and horizontal cells and repress rod photoreceptors. Dev Cell *26*, 59–72. 10.1016/j.devcel.2013.06.005.

80. Klimova, L., Antosova, B., Kuzelova, A., Strnad, H., and Kozmik, Z. (2015). Onecut1 and Onecut2 transcription factors operate downstream of Pax6 to regulate horizontal cell development. Developmental Biology *402*, 48–60. 10.1016/j.ydbio.2015.02.023.

81. Sapkota, D., Chintala, H., Wu, F., Fliesler, S.J., Hu, Z., and Mu, X. (2014). Onecut1 and Onecut2 redundantly regulate early retinal cell fates during development. PNAS *111*, E4086–E4095. 10.1073/pnas.1405354111.

82. Morris, A.C., Schroeter, E.H., Bilotta, J., Wong, R.O.L., and Fadool, J.M. (2005). Cone survival despite rod degeneration in XOPS-mCFP transgenic zebrafish. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci *46*, 4762–4771. 10.1167/iovs.05-0797.

83. Stenkamp, D.L. (2011). The rod photoreceptor lineage of teleost fish. Progress in Retinal and Eye Research *30*, 395–404. 10.1016/j.preteyeres.2011.06.004.

84. Javed, A., and Cayouette, M. (2017). Temporal Progression of Retinal Progenitor Cell Identity: Implications in Cell Replacement Therapies. Frontiers in Neural Circuits *11*.

85. Nusslein-Volhard, C., and Dahm, R. (2002). Zebrafish (Oxford University Press).

86. Zhang, Y., Buchholz, F., Muyrers, J.P.P., and Stewart, A.F. (1998). A new logic for DNA engineering using recombination in Escherichia coli. Nat Genet *20*, 123–128. 10.1038/2417.

87. Zheng, G.X.Y., Terry, J.M., Belgrader, P., Ryvkin, P., Bent, Z.W., Wilson, R., Ziraldo, S.B., Wheeler, T.D., McDermott, G.P., Zhu, J., et al. (2017). Massively parallel digital transcriptional profiling of single cells. Nat Commun *8*, 14049. 10.1038/ncomms14049.

88. Lun, A.T.L., McCarthy, D.J., and Marioni, J.C. (2016). A step-by-step workflow for low-level analysis of single-cell RNA-seq data with Bioconductor. 10.12688/f1000research.9501.2.

89. Grandel, H., Kaslin, J., Ganz, J., Wenzel, I., and Brand, M. (2006). Neural stem cells and neurogenesis in the adult zebrafish brain: Origin, proliferation dynamics, migration and cell fate. Developmental Biology *295*, 263–277. 10.1016/j.ydbio.2006.03.040.

90. Kroehne, V., Freudenreich, D., Hans, S., Kaslin, J., and Brand, M. (2011). Regeneration of the adult zebrafish brain from neurogenic radial glia-type progenitors. Development *138*, 4831–4841. 10.1242/dev.072587.

91. Schindelin, J., Arganda-Carreras, I., Frise, E., Kaynig, V., Longair, M., Pietzsch, T., Preibisch, S., Rueden, C., Saalfeld, S., Schmid, B., et al. (2012). Fiji: an open-source platform for biological-image analysis. Nat Methods *9*, 676–682. 10.1038/nmeth.2019.

92. Aleström, P., D'Angelo, L., Midtlyng, P.J., Schorderet, D.F., Schulte-Merker, S., Sohm, F., and Warner, S. (2020). Zebrafish: Housing and husbandry recommendations. Lab Anim *54*, 213–224. 10.1177/0023677219869037.

Figure 1

Figure 1: Isolation of individual MG, RPCs and regenerated progeny using fluorescent reporters. (A) Schematic illustration of the rationale to isolate individual cells from regenerating retinae of double transgenic *Tg(pcna:EGFP);Tg(gfap:mCherry)* animals. In the uninjured retina, MG express strong levels of mCherry but no EGFP. Upon light lesion, which results in dying photoreceptors, MG turn on EGFP resulting in the presence of both fluorophores at 44 hours post lesion (hpl). At 4 days post lesion (dpl), MG remain to contain strong mCherry and EGFP levels. In contrast, further proliferating RPCs display weak mCherry but strong EGFP fluorescence. Finally, MG have lost the EGFP signal at 6 dpl, expressing mCherry only. RPCs, which start to migrate and differentiate, are still detectable but show diluted levels of mCherry and EGFP. **(B)** Schematic illustration of the workflow for the scRNAseq experiment. Uninjured control and light lesioned retinae (44 hpl, 4 dpl, 6 dpl) of double transgenic *Tg(pcna:EGFP);Tg(gfap:mCherry)* animals were dissociated to obtain a single cell suspension. Following fluorescent activated cell sorting of mCherry-positive only and EGFP/mCherry-double positive cells, individual cells were eventually subjected to droplet-based, 10x Genomics scRNAseq. **(C)** Flow cytometry plots depicting EGFP and mCherry fluorescence of dissociated retinal cells at the indicated time points. Cells in the sorting gate include mCherry-positive only as well as mCherry/EGFP-double positive cells.

Figure 2

A

1. Non-reactive Müller glia 1
2. Non-reactive Müller glia 2
3. Reactive Müller glia 1
4. Reactive Müller glia 2
5. Müller glia/Progenitors 1
6. Progenitors 2
7. Progenitors 3
8. Photoreceptor precursors
9. Horizontal cell precursors
10. Retinal ganglion cells
11. Red cones
12. Blue cones
13. Amacrine cells 1
14. Amacrine cells 2
15. Bipolar cells

B

Uninjured   44 hpl   4 dpl   6 dpl

C

G1   S   G2/M

D

pcna

Figure 2: scRNAseq identifies 15 different cell populations in the light-lesioned retina. (A) 11.690 cells depicted on the uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) map. From left to right, the map shows a progressive emergence of MG, RPCs and progeny clusters. See figure legend for the detailed information about cluster identity. **(B)** Normalized cell density on the UMAP for the 4 different samples (uninjured, 44 hpl, 4 and 6 dpl). Dark red shows strong cell enrichment and no color absence of cells. **(C)** Cells colored by cell cycle phases (G1, S, and G2/M phase in blue, green and orange, respectively). **(D)** Expression of *pcna*. Legend: logarithm of normalized counts per million.

Figure 3

Figure 3: scRNAseq reveals heterogeneity in Müller glia and identifies two populations of non-reactive and two of reactive Müller glia in the light-lesioned retina. (A) Four Müller glia clusters (cluster 1-4) and the expression levels of *apoeb* and *gfap*. **(B)** The two non-reactive Müller glia clusters (cluster 1 and 2) and the expression levels of *mstnb* and *inhbaa*. Cells of both clusters express *mstnb*, but only cells in cluster 1 expresses *inhbaa*. **(C)** Visualization of the two reactive Müller glia clusters (cluster 3 and 4) and the relative expression levels of *crlf1a* and *her4.1* projected onto the main transcriptional UMAP. Cells of both clusters express *crlf1a*, but only cells in cluster 3 expresses *her4.1*. **(D)** Bright field microscopy images of chromogenic *in situ* hybridization detecting *her4.1* on retinal sections of uninjured control animals and at 44 hours post lesion (hpl), 4 days post lesion (dpl) and 6 dpl. The position of the outer nuclear layer (ONL), inner nuclear layer (INL) and ganglion cell layer (GCL) is indicated in the uninjured sample. Scale bar: 30 µm.

Figure 4

A

	Uninjured	44 hpl	4 dpl	6 dpl

Zrf1

crlf1a

PCNA

Merge

ONL
INL
GCL

B

1 Zrf1 PCNA | Zrf1 PCNA *crlf1a* 2 Zrf1 PCNA | Zrf1 PCNA *crlf1a*

44 hpl

4 dpl

Figure 4: expression profile of *crlf1a* during retina regeneration. (A) Confocal images of fluorescent *in situ* hybridization for *crlf1a* (grey) and immunohistochemistry detecting Zrf1-positive MG fibers (magenta) and the proliferation marker PCNA (green) on retinal sections of uninjured control animals and at 44 hours post lesion (hpl), 4 days post lesion (dpl) and 6 dpl. The position of the outer nuclear layer (ONL), inner nuclear laser (INL) and ganglion cell layer (GCL) is indicated in the uninjured sample. Scale bar: 30 µm. **(B)** Magnification of the areas indicated by the squares 1 and 2 in panel A. Scale bar: 10 µm.

Figure 5

A

Müller glia/Progenitors 1

B

Figure 5: scRNAseq identifies a transient cell population with hybrid characteristics of reactive Müller glia and early progenitors in the light-lesioned retina. (A) The progenitor 1 cluster (cluster 5) and the expression levels of *hmgb2b*, *stmn1a*, *nr2e1 sox9b* and *id1*. **(B)** Bright field microscopy images of chromogenic *in situ* hybridization detecting *hmgb2b* on retinal sections of uninjured control animals and at 44 hours post lesion (hpl), 4 days post lesion (dpl) and 6 dpl. The position of the outer nuclear layer (ONL), inner nuclear layer (INL) and ganglion cell layer (GCL) is indicated in the uninjured sample. Scale bar: 30 µm.

Figure 6
A

Figure 6: expression profile of *id1* during retina regeneration. (A) Confocal images of fluorescent *in situ* hybridization for *id1* (grey) and immunohistochemistry detecting Zrf1-positive MG fibers (magenta) and the proliferation marker PCNA (green) on retinal sections of uninjured control animals and at 44 hours post lesion (hpl), 4 and 6 days post lesion (dpl). The position of the outer nuclear layer (ONL), inner nuclear layer (INL) and ganglion cell layer (GCL) is indicated in the uninjured sample. Scale bar: 30 µm. **(B)** Magnification of the areas indicated by the squares 1 and 2 in panel A. Scale bar: 10 µm.

Figure 7

A

Progenitors 2 - 3

insm1a

atoh7

onecut1

onecut2

mki67

B

	Uninjured	44 hpl	4 dpl	6 dpl
atoh7	ONL INL GCL			
onecut1	ONL INL GCL			
onecut2	ONL INL GCL			

Figure 7: scRNAseq identifies two neurogenic progenitor populations in the light-lesioned retina. (A) The two progenitor clusters (cluster 6 and 7) and the relative expression levels of *insm1a*, *atoh7*, *onecut1*, *onecut2* and *mki67*. **(B)** Bright field microscopy images of chromogenic *in situ* hybridization detecting *atoh7*, *onecut1* or *onecut2* on retinal sections of uninjured control animals and at 44 hours post lesion (hpl), 4 days post lesion (dpl) and 6 dpl. The position of the outer nuclear layer (ONL), inner nuclear layer (INL) and ganglion cell layer (GCL) is indicated in the uninjured sample. Scale bar: 30 µm.

Figure 8

A Photoreceptor precursors

B Cones

C Horizontal cell precursors

D Retinal ganglion cells

E Amacrine cells

F Bipolar cells

Figure 8: scRNAseq identifies fate-restricted progenitors and differentiating progeny in the light-lesioned retina. (A) The photoreceptor precursor cluster (cluster 8) and the expression levels of *crx* and *thrb*. **(B)** The red and blue cone cluster (cluster 11 and 12) and the expression levels of the blue cone marker *opn1sw2* and red cone marker *opn1lw2*. **(C)** The horizontal cell precursor cluster (cluster 9) and the expression levels of *ptf1a* and *rem1*. **(D)** The ganglion cell cluster (cluster 10) and the expression levels of *gap43* and *isl2b*. **(E)** The two amacrine cell clusters (cluster 14 and 15) and the expression levels of *stx1b* and *pvalb6*. **(D)** The bipolar cell cluster (cluster 15) and the expression levels of the known bipolar cell marker *vsx1* and the novel marker *samsn1a*.

Figure 9

LEGEND

Non-reactive Müller glia   Reactive Müller glia 1   Reactive Müller glia 2   Progenitor 1   Progenitor 2   Progenitor 3   Horizontal cell precursor   Photoreceptor precursor

Retinal ganglion cell   Red cone   Blue cone   Amacrine cell   Bipolar cell   Predicted rod   Predicted horizontal cell

Injury-induced MG trajectory   Injury-induced MG self-renewal trajectory   Injury-induced neurogenic trajectory

Figure 9: model summarizing the cellular events underlying retina regeneration in zebrafish. Upon lesion, non-reactive MG on the left side of the main transcriptional UMAP feed into a hybrid Müller glia/progenitor population via reactive Müller glia (solid red line). Based from this hybrid cell population, we find a Müller glia trajectory reverting to the initial starting point indicating Müller glia self-renewal (dashed red line). Moreover, the hybrid cell population represents the tip of the neurogenic trajectory, resulting in the formation of neuronal precursors and differentiating neurons (solid black lines). Differentiating rods and horizontal cells, which have not been found in the scRNAseq, are indicated with dashed lines and positioned in the predicted location on the main UMAP.