Voltage imaging reveals the emergence of population activity in the spinal cord

Asuka Shiraishi[1#], Ayane Hayashi[2#], Narumi Fukuda[1], Mari Hishinuma[1], Hiroaki Miyazawa[1], Sachiko Tsuda[1§]

1 Division of Life Science, Graduate School of Science and Engineering, Saitama University, 255 Shimo-Okubo, Sakura-ku, Saitama City, Saitama 338-8570, Japan

2 Department of Regulatory Biology, Faculty of Science, Saitama University, 255 Shimo-Okubo, Sakura-ku, Saitama City, Saitama 338-8570, Japan

# These authors contributed equally.

§Author for correspondence (stsuda@mail.saitama-u.ac.jp)

Abstract

One of the central questions in neural development is how individual neurons assemble functional networks. To address this, it is essential to elucidate how coordinated activity emerges during development. However, tracking the functional maturation of neuronal populations over time remains challenging, as it requires long-term, non-invasive monitoring of membrane potential dynamics. Here, we developed a voltage imaging approach for zebrafish embryos using genetically encoded voltage indicators (GEVIs), enabling fast, direct and cell-type-specific measurements of membrane potentials from defined neuronal populations in a non-invasive manner. Using this approach, we detected coordinated voltage changes in spinal motor neurons with high spatiotemporal resolution. Depolarization and hyperpolarization events were observed at the population, single-cell, and subcellular levels. Notably, long-term voltage imaging revealed the early emergence and progressive maturation of membrane potential dynamics, characterized by increased firing rate, coupling strength and axonal outgrowth. This optical approach constitutes a significant advancement in the study of neural development, providing a powerful tool for investigating the spatiotemporal dynamics of neuronal populations in vivo.

Introduction

The nervous system is composed of a vast number of neurons that perform diverse functions. How are these neurons generated and how do they communicate with each other to form functional networks? To better understand the function and development of the nervous system, it is crucial to examine the dynamic behavior of neuronal populations and how these dynamics evolve over time. However, such investigations are often hampered by the huge number of neurons involved and the invasiveness of conventional electrophysiological recording techniques.

Optical methods provide a powerful alternative, as light facilitates non-invasive access to large populations of neurons, which is difficult with electrophysiological recordings that insert electrodes into target tissues as single-point detectors. Voltage imaging enables fast, direct, and simultaneous detection of membrane potentials across multiple cells, providing an excellent system for understanding the dynamic behavior of neuronal populations [1-3]. Its high speed and directness allow the detection of action potentials, hyperpolarization, and subthreshold responses, which are difficult to examine using calcium imaging, partly because of the slow kinetics of the indicators and the dynamics of calcium [4, 5]. Various voltage-sensitive dyes have been developed to improve brightness, signal-to-noise ratio, and spectral range, thereby advancing our understanding of network dynamics in the brain [6-10]. More recently, genetically encoded voltage indicators (GEVIs) have been developed, allowing for cell-type-specific voltage imaging [11-13]. These GEVIs include the ones based on voltage-sensitive phosphatase domains [14-17], as well as microbial rhodopsin-based sensors [18-21]. Although GEVIs have been successfully applied to investigate brain and cardiac function [22-29], their application to developmental studies of the nervous system remains limited. This is largely due to the technical challenges of achieving long-term, non-invasive voltage imaging in developing tissues.

One of the earliest neural structures to develop is the spinal cord, which serve as the core of rhythmic motor behaviors through central pattern generators [30]. Neurons in the spinal cord, including motor neurons, exhibit prominent population activity even at early in development. This activity drives fetal movement and is suggested to play a critical role for circuit formation [31, 32]. While electrophysiological studies have characterized the firing properties of these

neurons, the spatiotemporal organization and developmental emergence of their

coordinated voltage dynamics, the core of the remain to be understood [33-35].

In this study, to examine the spatiotemporal dynamics of neuronal

populations and their emergence during development, we applied GEVI ArcLight to

zebrafish embryos, taking advantage of their optical transparency, genetic tools, and

rapid development [36, 37]. Although recent studies have employed GEVIs in

zebrafish larvae primarily to explore circuit function [20, 21, 24, 25, 28], long-term

developmental imaging has not yet been achieved. Here, we establish a long-term

voltage imaging approach that enables the observation of voltage dynamics in

neuronal populations over the course of development. This approach allowed us to

reveal how coordinated voltage activity emerge during early neural development.

Materials and Methods

Fish lines

Wild-type zebrafish (Danio rerio) with RW genetic background or nacre line were

used [38]. *Tg(elavl3:GAL4-VP16)*, *Tg(UAS:lynRFP)*, and *Tg(elavl3:GCaMP6f)* fish

lines have been described previously and obtained from the National BioResource

Project [24, 39]. The Tg lines were crossed with the nacre line. All procedures were

performed in accordance with a protocol approved by the Saitama University

Committee on Animal Research.

DNA Construction and establishment of ArcLight transgenic line

To generate pTol2-UAS-ArcLight plasmid, ArcLight-A242 sequence was excited

from the pCS2-ArcLight-A242 plasmid (Addgene) and inserted into pTol2-UAS-

MCSF-polyA, in which UAS and polyA sequences were integrated into the pTol2-

MCS plasmid [40]. To establish pTol2-UAS-ArcLight line, Tol2 plasmid DNA and

transposase mRNA were co-injected into one-cell-stage embryos. Genotyping was

performed using the primers for ArcLight-A242 (5′-

TCGACGGTATCGATAAGCTTGC-3′,5′- CACCTCCCCCTGAACCTGAAACATA-3′).

Transient expression of ArcLight in the spinal cord and cerebellum

For the spinal cord, 25 ng/μl pTol2-UAS-ArcLight-A242-polyA plasmid DNA was co-

injected with 25 ng/μl *Tol2 transposase* mRNA into one-cell-stage embryos of
Tg(elavl3:GAL4-VP16) embryos, which express Gal4 in neurons [39]. After the
injection, the embryos were incubated at 23°C and then transferred to 28°C by 18
hour post fertilization (hpf). ArcLight-positive embryos were screened at the 18.5 to
19 hpf, followed by voltage imaging.
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Confocal imaging

108 Zebrafish embryos were paralyzed in 0.02% tricaine and mounted on 2% low
109 melting-point agarose (Sigma-Aldrich). Optical sectioning was performed using an
110 Olympus FV1000 or a Nikon A1R confocal microscope. ImageJ, NIS-Elements
111 (Nikon), and Imaris (Bitplane) programs were used to perform the image analysis.
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Voltage imaging

Embryos from 16 to 23 hpf were paralyzed with tubocurarine (0.5 mM, Sigma-
Aldrich), with their tail tips cut for better penetration of tubocurarine [41, 42]. Then,
embryos were mounted on 1.8% low melting-point agarose containing 0.1-0.2 mM
tubocurarine. After embedding the embryos onto 1% agarose, an extracellular
solution (134 mM NaCl, 2.9 mM KCl, 2.1 mM $CaCl_2$, 1.2 mM $MgCl_2$, 10 mM HEPES,
and 10 mM glucose, adjusted to pH 7.8 with NaOH) containing 150 mM tubocurarine
was added. The agarose around the tail was removed using a surgical blade to allow
efficient transfer of the drug solution. For high-speed voltage imaging, a
fluorescence microscope (FN-1, Nikon) equipped with a CMOS camera (ORCA-
Flash4.0, Hamamatsu Photonics) was used with a 40×/0.8 NA water-immersion lens.
For most recordings, a 0.7× relay lens (NIKON) was also used. Fluorescence
images were acquired using NIS-Elements (Nikon) software at approximately 16-
200 Hz. High-speed confocal scanning was performed using a confocal microscope
(Nikon A1R) with a 25×/1.0 NA water-immersion lens. For drug treatment,
tetrodotoxin (1 μM, TOCRIS) was added to the extracellular solution using a
peristaltic pump (World Precision Instruments). A thermo plate was used to keep the
recording chamber at 28°C   (Tokai hit).
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Image analysis

Images were analyzed using the NIS-Elements (Nikon), Fiji, and OriginPro
(Lightstone) programs as described previously [41]. To extract changes in
fluorescence intensity, regions of interest (ROIs) were manually set using NIS-
element software (Nikon). Normalized changes in fluorescence intensity in the target
regions (ROIs) were quantitatively analyzed by calculating dF/F in the ROIs
($dF/F_0=[F_{(t)}–F_0]/F_0$, where $F_{(t)}$ and F_0 are the fluorescence intensities at a certain
time point and initial time points, respectively). If the larvae/embryos moved during
the voltage imaging, the images were aligned using a Fiji program (TurboReg plugin).
Denoising and bleach corrections were also applied to some data using OriginPro
(Lightstone). Cross-correlation and hierarchical clustering analyses were performed
using OriginPro (Lightstone). The coupling rate was calculated as the ratio of the
frequency of target cell activity to that of mature cells. Among depolarizing signals
with small voltage changes, those characterized by a longer time to peak and a
shorter decay time were defined as "immature firing" and were distinguished from
other small depolarizations.
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Electrophysiological recordings
Patch clamp recordings were conducted as described previously, using borosilicate
glass pipettes at 28 ℃ (World Precision Instrument, IB150F-4WPI) [24]. Electrical
responses were acquired via a Multiclamp 700B (Molecular devices) and DAQ
interface (National Instruments, USB-6212 BNC) with WinWCP software (Univ. of
Strathclyde), which also recorded the timing of image acquisition.
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Results
Establishment of voltage imaging using ArcLight zebrafish embryos
To investigate voltage dynamics of neuronal populations in neuronal populations
during development, we established a transgenic zebrafish line that expresses
ArcLight specifically in neurons. We first established the transgenic line
Tg(*UAS:ArcLight*) using the GAL4-UAS and Tol2 transposon systems [37] (Fig. 1a).
To confirm ArcLight localization to cellular membranes in Tg(*UAS:ArcLight*) fish, we
examined Tg(*elavl3:GAL4-VP16;UAS:ArcLight;UAS:lyn-RFP*) embryos, in which
GAL4 is expressed in neurons and cellular membranes are labeled with Lyn-RFP.

At 1 dpf, ArcLight was widely observed in the neural tube and co-localized with Lyn-
RFP, indicating proper membrane localization of ArcLight in neurons (Fig. 1b, c).

Spinal cord neurons exhibit spontaneous firing early in development, with
coordinated activity of the neuronal populations beginning around 17 hpf [34, 43].
Consistent with this, Tg(*elavl3:GAL4-VP16;UAS:ArcLight*) embryos displayed
oscillatory changes in ArcLight fluorescence in the ventral spinal cord (Fig. 1d–g,
0.14±0.10 Hz, 6 fish). Fluorescence fluctuations alternated between the left and right
sides of the spinal cord, consistent with previous reports of periodic depolarization
(PD) in spinal neurons [43]. This activity was largely abolished following treatment
with the sodium channel blocker tetrodotoxin (TTX) (Fig. 1e-g). These results
demonstrate that ArcLight can reliably detect spontaneous activity in developing
spinal neurons.

We next examined whether ArcLight can resolve spinal voltage dynamics at
both single-cell and population levels. As shown in Figure 2, oscillatory activity was
clearly detected in individual neurons, with distinct amplitudes and temporal patterns
among neighboring neurons (Fig. 2a-c). Depolarizations typically propagated
sequentially along the rostrocaudal axis. In addition to large depolarizations that
closely resemble PD, small membrane potential fluctuations were also observed
between the PDs (Fig. 2d arrowheads). Based on their size and timing, these may
be synaptic bursts or subthreshold events, which are generally only captured by
electrophysiological recordings [43]. Cross-correlation analysis revealed strong
positive correlations among ipsilateral neurons and negative correlations between
contralateral pairs, indicating high synchrony within each side of the spinal cord (Fig.
2e). Hierarchical clustering analysis also supported this synchrony with partially
disordered activity along rostrocaudal axis (Fig. 2f). The depolarization was
confirmed by electrophysiological recordings (Supplementary Fig S1). To evaluate
the strength of ArcLight voltage imaging, we performed spinal calcium imaging using
Tg(*elavl3:GCaMP6f*) and compared its temporal resolution with ArcLight. Calcium
imaging exhibited substantially lower temporal resolution and reduced variability in
activity patterns (Supplementary Fig S1), highlighting the superior precision of the
GEVI ArcLight in capturing neural population dynamics.

Subcellular voltage imaging of neural populations

Measuring membrane potential dynamics in subcellular compartments such as
axons and dendrites is crucial for understanding neuronal information processing
[44, 45]. As shown in Figure 3, ArcLight voltage imaging successfully captured
depolarizations in somata as well as in proximal and distal axonal regions. Although
somata and axons exhibited similar depolarization patterns, the amplitude of voltage
changes was slightly smaller in axons than in somata (Fig. 3b). Axonal
depolarizations were also confirmed by confocal microscopy (Supplementary Fig.
S2). Furthermore, high-resolution recordings revealed voltage fluctuations and
morphological dynamics in fine structures such as filopodia (Supplementary Fig. S3).
208

209   Single-cell voltage imaging reveals simultaneous voltage and morphological
210   dynamics
Spinal circuits comprise diverse neuronal types with distinct distributions,
morphologies, and physiological properties [46]. To understand how these circuits
develop, it is important to simultaneously monitor voltage dynamics and
morphological changes. To achieve this, we used mosaic expression of ArcLight. By
injecting *UAS-ArcLight* pDNA into Tg(*elavl3:GAL4-VP16*) fish, we sparsely labeled
neurons, enabling high-resolution tracking of membrane potential changes and
cellular morphology (Fig. 4a–c, 20 hpf, PMNs). We also captured voltage dynamics
from interneurons that are otherwise difficult to identify (Fig. 4d, e). In addition to PD
and synaptic burst (SB)-like activity, some neurons showed hyperpolarizing
responses (Fig. 4e). Over the course of one hour, we observed notable
morphological changes in these neurons, suggesting active developmental
remodeling (Supplementary Fig. S4).
223

224   Developmental changes in voltage dynamics of neuronal populations
Finally, we investigated the emergence and maturation of voltage dynamics during
development. Periodic firing in the spinal cord drives coiling behavior, analogous
to fetal movement in humans, which are thought to contribute to spinal circuit
formation [32]. This characteristic activity appears around 17 hpf and rapidly
increases in frequency and amplitude until 20 hpf, followed by a gradual decline [34].
However, how population-level coordinated activity arises during this process
remains to be elucidated.
To address this, we performed long-term voltage imaging of the spinal cord

along the course of development (Fig. 5). At 18 hpf, primary motor neurons (PMNs) possesses an axonal protrusion but seldom exhibited firing, instead showing small voltage fluctuations (Fig. 5c, arrowheads, cell 1, located at somite 8). These fluctuations were observed in both soma and axons (Supplementary Fig. S5) and displayed slower kinetics than mature firing (Supplementary Fig. S6). Over the next 30 minutes, PMNs gradually extended axons and increased firing frequency. By

19.5 hpf, the firing frequency reached ~0.3 Hz (0.29 ± 0.05 Hz). In addition to cell 1,

PMN cell 2, located more caudally, showed slower axonal extension and began firing after 18.5 hpf, ultimately synchronizing with other neurons by 19.5 hpf (Fig. 5). Similar temporal maturation patterns were also observed in other PMNs with some variability (Supplementary Fig. S7). Quantitative analyses revealed that firing frequency and coordination increased in tandem with axonal extension (Fig. 6a, b). In deede, the emergence of small depolarization and matured firing strongly correlated with morphological maturation (Fig. 6c, d). Moreover, coordination among PMNs also increased alongside the maturation of their individual voltage dynamics (Fig. 6e, f). These data suggest a sequence in the emergence of coordinated activity in spinal neurons: (1) absence of depolarization, (2) small depolarizations, (3) irregularly coordinated activity, and (4) fully synchronized firing.

To further assess how spontaneous activity evolves later in development, we extended voltage imaging to 23 hpf. By this stage, the previously regular and rapid firing observed at 20 hpf had decreased (Fig. 7, Supplementary Fig. S8). Depolarization patterns also changed—bursts became longer and left–right alternation diminished (Fig. 7b). Cross-correlation analysis revealed that at 20 hpf, neurons on both sides of the spinal cord were highly synchronized and exhibited strong periodicity (Fig. 7c). By 23 hpf, this coordination was largely diminished, although synchrony among ipsilateral neurons persisted. Notably, left–right alternating activity, which was prominent at 20–21 hpf, was markedly reduced at 23–24 hpf (Fig. 7d). These results suggest that while coordinated PMN activity declines during later stages of development, intra-hemispheric synchrony is maintained.

Discussion

Understanding how neuronal populations generate coordinated activity during development is a central challenge in neuroscience. Electrophysiological recordings have historically provided valuable insights into the membrane dynamics of spinal

neurons. However, these techniques are invasive and largely limited to short-duration and single-cell level [43, 46]. Calcium imaging has been used to examine developing circuits but lacks the temporal resolution and direct voltage sensitivity required to resolve fine membrane potential dynamics [42, 47, 48]. In this context, genetically encoded voltage indicators (GEVIs) offer a promising alternative, providing direct, fast, and non-invasive readouts of membrane potential. While GEVIs have been applied in mature brain tissues and cardiac tissues, their application to vertebrate embryonic development has remained rare due to technical limitations. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to achieve long-term voltage imaging of genetically defined neuronal populations in the spinal cord during development in a vertebrate model.

High-resolution imaging of voltage and morphological dynamics

Subcellular compartments—such as dendrites axons, and filopodia—play essential roles in neuronal function, shaping synaptic integration and signal propagation [44, 45]. In this study, ArcLight enabled voltage imaging not only at the soma, but also at proximal and distal axonal regions of primary motor neurons (PMNs). Notably, voltage fluctuations were also observed in filopodia, suggesting that even fine structures can exhibit membrane potential dynamics. Such fine-scale resolution opens opportunities to investigate the bioelectrical properties of neurite outgrowth, synaptogenesis, and structural remodeling. Combining voltage imaging with ratiometric or dual-color imaging approaches may allow simultaneous measurement of voltage and morphological parameters at high spatiotemporal precision [49].

Long-term population-level voltage dynamics in the developing spinal cord

The zebrafish spinal cord possesses one of the earliest neuronal circuits to form during development, and its transparency makes it an ideal model for in vivo imaging. Using a newly generated ArcLight transgenic line, we visualized voltage dynamics in spinal neuron populations from early developmental stages. At 20 hpf, we detected left-right alternating depolarizations, consistent with periodic depolarizations (PDs) previously observed via electrophysiology [34]. Compared to calcium imaging or earlier voltage sensors like ASAP1, ArcLight offered superior

temporal resolution and signal-to-noise ratio, respectively [13, 50]. This enabled detection of not only suprathreshold PDs, but also subthreshold events and hyperpolarizations, capturing a wider dynamic range of neuronal activity. Importantly, ArcLight could resolve activity patterns at both the single-cell and population levels, providing a comprehensive picture of how spinal circuits operate and evolve during development.

Emergence of voltage dynamics in the spinal neuron populations

One of the significant findings of this study is the stepwise emergence of coordinated voltage dynamics in motor neurons, closely tied to their morphological maturation. By performing long-term voltage imaging from, we found that PMNs followed a developmental sequence: (1) absence of depolarization, (2) emergence of small voltage fluctuations, (3) irregular and weakly coordinated activity, and (4) synchronized, robust left-right firing. This progression was strongly correlated with axonal extension, suggesting a tight coupling between structure and function.

It has been implicated that spinal cord neurons do not fire before axonal outgrowth, but detailed observation was missing [46]. Interestingly, here early voltage fluctuations preceded axon outgrowth, possibly driven by intrinsic dynamics of ion channels or electrical coupling via gap junctions, which predominate at these early stages. These small fluctuations may represent primitive forms of population synchrony, preceding the establishment of mature synaptic connections. This idea is consistent with other model systems where early electrical coupling plays an instructive role in circuit patterning [51].

Our approach provides a first-in-class demonstration of long-term, non-invasive voltage imaging in a developing vertebrate nervous system. Beyond the spinal cord, this approach can be extended to other regions, enabling a detailed dissection of diverse population dynamics during development. Furthermore, applying this imaging system to genetic models of neurodevelopmental disorders— such as autism spectrum disorders (ASD), epilepsy, or motor neuron disease—may allow the identification of early disruptions in coordinated neuronal activity. Detecting such early electrophysiological phenotypes could contribute to a better understanding of disease mechanisms.

In conclusion, we have established GEVI-based long-term voltage imaging

platform for long-term, high-resolution monitoring of developing neuronal populations in vivo. This system revealed the temporal emergence and maturation of population-level voltage dynamics in the spinal cord, offering new insights into how coordinated neural activity is built during development. The combination of spatial, temporal, and functional resolution achieved here represents a critical advance for the field of developmental neuroscience. By integrating this approach with optogenetics, cell-type-specific reporters, or functional perturbation, future studies can address how intrinsic and extrinsic factors shape circuit assembly. Moreover, our findings highlight the value of voltage imaging as a general tool for probing bioelectric mechanisms in morphogenesis, circuit development, and disease [52, 53].

Acknowledgement

We thank Drs Koichi Kawakami, Shinichi Higashijima, Hitoshi Okamoto, Hisashi Kakinuma, and Ryunosuke Amo for providing fish lines; Kyo Yamasu for plasmid DNA; Junichi Nakai, Masamichi Ohkura, and Keiko Ando for technical support; and Lawrence Cohen and Shinichi Higashijima for helpful discussions. This work was supported in part by JSPS KAKENHI (Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research), JST Tenure Track program at Saitama University (SUTT), Strategic Research Program for Brain Science from Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, JST A-STEP Grant Number JPMJTM20C05, New Energy and Industrial Technology Development Organization (NEDO), Kao Foundation grant, Asahi Glass Foundation, and Kato-bio Foundation.

Author Contributions

A.S, A.H., N.F., M.H., K.M., and S.T. performed the experiments. S.T. conceived and designed the experiments. S.T., A.S., A.H., and N.F. wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1

Transgenic zebrafish showing membrane-localized ArcLight and spontaneous activity in the neural tube. (a) Schematic diagram of plasmid construct for ArcLight. (b) Lateral views of ArcLight-expressing embryos at 1 dpf. ArcLight is distributed widely in the neural tube of Tg*(elavl3:GAL4-VP16;UAS:ArcLight)* fish. (c) Dorsal view of the neural tube of Tg*(elavl3:GAL4-VP16;UAS:ArcLight;UAS:lyn-RFP)* embryos at 1 dpf. ArcLight (green) is co-localized with Lyn-RFP (red: cell membranes) in the neural tube (arrowheads). Higher magnification images are shown in the lower panel. (d-f) Spontaneous activity of spinal cord neurons is detected by ArcLight imaging. (d) Dorsal view of the ventral spinal cord of Tg *(elavl3:GAL4-VP16;UAS:ArcLight-A242)* fish at 20 hpf. The rostral side is to the left, and the area between 3–8 somites is shown. A schematic diagram of the imaging system is shown on the right. Changes in the fluorescence of ArcLight ($-\Delta F/F_0$) are indicated by the pseudocolor scale shown at right. White arrowheads indicate the activated neurons. Regions of interest (ROIs) located between 5–7 somites are indicated by red (right side) and blue (left side) rectangular in (d). Fluorescence changes of ArcLight in the ROIs are shown on the right. The time point of the image is indicated by a black arrowhead. (f-g) The spontaneous activity in the spinal cord mostly disappeared by tetrodotoxin (TTX) treatment (control 0.14±0.10 Hz, TTX 0.01±0.02 Hz, p<0.05, right side: control 0.14±0.10 Hz, TTX 0.01±0.02 Hz, *: p<0.05, Wilcoxon signed-rank test, 6 fish). The imaged plane and ROIs are in the same positions as in (d).

Figure 2

Monitoring spontaneous activity of individual cells in the spinal cord by ArcLight imaging. (a) A fluorescence image of the ventral spinal cord of Tg*(elavl3:GAL4-VP16;UAS:ArcLight)* fish at 21 hpf. ROIs are located at the 18 cells (red: right side, blue: left side). Higher magnification views are shown on the right. (b) Changes in ArcLight signal at the two time points indicated in (c). (c) Activity patterns of the 18 cells are shown. Higher magnification views of the ArcLight signal of cells 4 and 13 are shown at the bottom. (d). (e, f) Hierarchal clustering analysis of the voltage dynamics in the 18 cells shows the synchronous activity in the ipsilateral neuron pairs (e), and also several groups with higher synchrony within them (f).

Figure 3

Voltage imaging of spinal cord neurons at a high spatiotemporal resolution at the cellular compartment level by ArcLight. (a) Lateral views of the spinal cord of Tg*(elavl3:GAL4-VP16;UAS:ArcLight)* fish at 20 hpf. A schematic diagram of the imaging system is shown on the right. (b) Changes in ArcLight signal are observed at soma and axons in three different ROIs shown in (a). Higher resolution observations are shown in Supplementary Fig. S2 and S3.

Figure 4

Single cell labeling of neurons by ArcLight enables simultaneous recording of voltage and morphology. (a) Schematic diagram of the co-injection experiment. (b) A stacked confocal image of the spinal cord region of the injected embryo at 20 hpf. The left side view is shown. Arrowheads and arrows indicate the soma and axons of ArcLight positive cells, respectively. (c) Voltage dynamics of a primary motor neuron are indicated by a yellow arrowhead in (b). ROIs at soma and axons are shown in red and blue, respectively. (d, e) Voltage imaging of the spinal cord interneurons. A higher magnification view is shown in (e). ArcLight signals from three cells are shown on the right. In addition to periodic depolarization, hyperpolarization (white arrowheads) and subthreshold-like signals (black arrowheads) are observed.

Figure 5

Long-term voltage imaging of the spinal cord PMNs shows the emergence of population activity. (a) Left views of the spinal cord of ArcLight positive fish from 18 hpf to 19.5 hpf. (b) Enlarged views of (a). (c) Voltage dynamics obtained from the axons of the two cells shown in (a). Black and white arrowheads indicate small depolarization and immature firing, respectively.

Figure 6

Characteristic patterns of depolarization observed during the development of PMNs population activity. Quantitative analysis indicates that coupled activity among PMNs emerged via small depolarization and immature firing. (a,b) (a) The relationship between axon length and firing frequency. (b) The relationship between

axon length and coordination with neighboring neurons. Developmental process of each PMN is indicated by lines. Developmental stages are indicated by dots colors. (c) The relationship between the axonal length and existence of small depolarization (no depolarization: 13.76±3.75 μm, small depolarization: 11.97±1.67 μm, Firing: 27.12±1.38 μm, 5 fish, 30 cells, **p<0.01, Mann–Whitney U test). (d) The relationship between axonal length and immature firings (no depolarization: 10.48±2.38 μm, small depolarization: 22.42±2.69 μm, Firing: 26.06±1.44 μm, 5 fish, 30 cells, **p<0.01, Mann–Whitney U test). (e) Comparison of coupling rates between PMNs with small depolarizations and those with firings (immature and mature firings) (small depolarization: 0.24±0.07, firing: 0.93±0.03, 4 fish, 18 cells,, **p<0.01, Mann–Whitney U test). (f) Comparison of coupling rates between PMNs exhibiting immature and mature firings (immature firing: 0.58±0.10, mature firing: 0.94±0.03, 4 fish, 18 cells, **p<0.01, Mann–Whitney U test).

Figure 7
Changes in firing properties in spinal cord neuron populations. (a) Dorsal view of ArcLight positive spinal cord at 20 hpf. (b) Voltage dynamics of each neuron are shown at 20 and 23 hpf. The position of ROIs is indicated in (a). (c) Cross-correlation analysis of ipsilateral and contralateral pairs of spinal cord neurons at 20 and 23 hpf. (d) Probability of altering activity at 23-24 hpf was significantly reduced compared to that at 23-24 hpf. 20–21 hpf: 98.9±1.10%; 23–24 hpf: 98.9±1.10%, 5 fish; 23–24 hpf: 79.8%±5.71%, 4 fish; p<0.05, Mann–Whitney U test.

Supplementary Figure S1
Monitoring spontaneous activity of individual cells in the spinal cord by calcium imaging by GCaMP6f. (a) Fluorescence image of the ventral spinal cord of Tg*(elavl3: GCaMP6f)* embryo at 21 hpf. ROIs were placed on six cells (red: right side, blue: left side). Higher-magnification views are shown on the right. (b) Schematic diagram of the recording setup. (c) Activity patterns of the six cells shown in (a). (d) A higher magnification view of the ArcLight signal of cells 1 and 5. (e) Simultaneous recordings of membrane potential by cell-attached patch-clamp recordings and ArcLight imaging showed that the recorded neurons were indeed depolarized. A fluorescence image of the spinal cord of Tg*(HuC:GVP;UAS:ArcLight)*

fish at 23 hpf. (f) Voltage (top) and optical (bottom) signals detected at the cell

indicated in (e).

Supplementary Figure S2

Confocal observation of ArcLight expression and voltage dynamics in the spinal cord.

(a) Lateral views of Tg*(elavl3:GAL4-VP16;UAS:ArcLight)* embryo at 1 dpf. Higher

magnification images shown on the right indicate filopodia and lamellipodia of

primary motor neurons (arrowheads). (b) Voltage imaging of cell1 in (a). ROIs were

set at the axonal region. ArcLight detected depolarization at axons (black

arrowheads). The gray area is the period when the embryos moved.

Supplementary Figure S3

Voltage imaging of a primary motor neuron at higher spatial resolution. (a) Left views

of the spinal cord at two different time points. Arrowheads indicate filopodia (white,

yellow). A yellow arrowhead indicates a filopodium that shows a prominent extension.

(b, c) An example of voltage dynamics detected at various positions in the axon.

ROI4-6 were set on a filopodium. ROI 7 was set in a region where no clear structure

was observed.

Supplementary Figure S4

Single-cell labeling by ArcLight shows the morphological changes of the spinal cord

neurons. Images taken at 21 hpf and 22 hpf are shown. An arrowhead indicates a

growth cone of the extending axon.

Supplementary Figure S5

Developmental changes in the voltage dynamics of PMNs at the soma and axons.

Voltage dynamics were generally similar between the soma and axons.

Representative traces from Cell 2 in Figure 5 are shown.

Supplementary Figure S6

Comparison of voltage dynamics between immature and mature firings. Immature

firings showed a significantly longer time to peak (a) but not decay time (b) (time to

peak; immature firing: 1.31±0.43 s, mature firing: 0.63±0.20 s, decay time; immature

firing: 0.59±0.25 s, mature firing: 0.50±0.17 s, **p < 0.01, Mann–Whitney U test, 3

fish, 65 transients).

Supplementary Figure S7

Developmental change in the voltage dynamics of PMNs. (a-e) Left-side views of

the spinal cord of ArcLight-positive fish from 18 to 20 hpf (top), and corresponding

voltage traces (bottom) of the PMNs indicated by arrowheads. ROIs were set on

axons, as shown in (f).

Supplementary Figure S8

Long-term voltage imaging shows the changes in the firing patterns of the spinal

cord neurons population. (a) ROIs position of cells 1-6. (b) Voltage dynamics of the

6 cells are shown from 20 to 23 hpf. Cells on the right and left sides of the spinal

cord are shown in red and blue, respectively.

Supplementary Movie1

Spontaneous activity of individual cells in the spinal cord is observed by ArcLight.

Dorsal view of the ventral spinal cord of Tg*(elavl3:GAL4-VP16;UAS:ArcLight)* fish at

21 hpf.

Supplementary Movie2

Monitoring of spontaneous activity of spinal cord neurons, including primary motor

neurons by ArcLight. Left view of the spinal cord of Tg*(elavl3:GAL4-*

VP16;UAS:ArcLight) fish at 20 hpf.

Supplementary Movie3

Single-cell labeling and voltage imaging of spinal cord neurons using ArcLight. Left

view of the spinal cord of Tg*(elavl3:GAL4-VP16)* embryo at 21 hpf. A high-resolution

image is shown in Supplementary Figure S4.

Supplementary Movie4

Voltage dynamics of an axonal region of a primary motor neuron at a high spatial

resolution. Left view of the spinal cord Tg*(elavl3:GAL4-VP16;UAS:ArcLight)* fish at

18.5 hpf.

Supplementary Movie5

Voltage imaging of spinal neurons at 18.5 hpf (12 s). Left-side view is shown.

Supplementary Movie6

Voltage imaging of spinal neurons at 19 hpf (12 s). Left-side view is shown.

Supplementary Movie7

Voltage imaging of spinal neurons at 19.5 hpf (12 s). Left-side view is shown.

Figure 1

a pTol2-UAS-ArcLight-A242-polyA

Tol2 | UAS | ArcLight-A242 | pA | Tol2

b
300 μm

c
ArcLight | Lyn-RFP | Merge
30 μm
10 μm

d ArcLight
50 μm
lens

e -ΔF/F₀ control
-ΔF/F₀ (%)

f TTX

right
left
right
left
-ΔF/F₀
0.5 %
5 s

g
Frequency (Hz)
control
TTX
Left   Right

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

a transposase mRNA
UAS-ArcLight pDNA

Tg(elavl3:GAL4)

b 50 μm

c ROI1
2
3
10 μm

ROI 1
2
3

-ΔF/F₀
2%
5 s

d ArcLight
50 μm

-ΔF/F₀
11.0
-0.5

-ΔF/F₀ (%)

e cell 1
2
3
10 μm

Cell 1
2
3

-ΔF/F₀
2%
5 s

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

a

b

c

d