In vivo long-term voltage imaging by genetically encoded voltage
indicator reveals spatiotemporal dynamics of neuronal populations
during development.

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

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

Abstract

A central question in brain development lies in how individual neurons emerge and organize communities to acquire various functions. Voltage imaging provides unique approaches to addressing this by enabling simultaneous, non-invasive, in vivo recording of voltage dynamics from a population of cells. Recently, genetically encoded voltage indicators (GEVIs) facilitate cell-type specific imaging of voltage dynamics. However, it has not been applied to brain development. Here, we applied ArcLight, a GEVI utilizing voltage-sensitive domain, to zebrafish and established experimental approaches for analyzing voltage and morphology of neuron populations during development, focusing on the spinal cord and cerebellum. We initially demonstrated that Arclight was widely distributed in the neural tissues. With voltage imaging, we successfully visualized the coordinated, spontaneous activity of spinal cord neurons in their early stage of development at a high spatiotemporal resolution, at subcellular and population levels. Hyperpolarization and subthreshold signals were also detected. Finally, long-term voltage imaging during development revealed the process of changes in voltage dynamics in neuron populations, accompanied by axonal outgrowth. Voltage imaging could greatly contribute to our understanding of the functional organization of the nervous system during development.

Introduction

The nervous system consists of a large number of neurons that perform various functions. During development, these neurons are generated and communicate with each other to form functional networks. For deeper understanding of brain function and development, it is essential to understand how the brain is formed and organized. However, such attempts are often hindered by the vast number of neurons. Optical methods provide a powerful approach to solving these difficulties because light facilitates non-invasive access to many neurons, which is difficult with electrophysiological techniques.

Voltage imaging enables fast, direct, and simultaneous detection of membrane potentials in a population of neurons, providing an excellent system for circuit analysis [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]. Voltage imaging began with activity recording using voltage-sensitive dyes (VSDs) [6]. Subsequently, various types of VSDs have been developed to improve the brightness, signal-to-noise ratio (SNR), and wider variations in color, expanding our understanding of network dynamics and development in various brain regions [7-11]. In recent years, the development of genetically encoded voltage indicators (GEVIs) has progressed rapidly, resulting in cell-type-specific voltage imaging, which is difficult to achieve with VSDs. This yielded GEVIs with faster kinetics and brighter fluorescence, overcoming prior weaknesses in the speed and SNR [12-14]. There are several types of GEVIs, based on their structures. One is a mosaic protein that uses the voltage-sensitive domain of voltage-sensitive phosphatases [15-18]. Another class of GEVIs uses the voltage sensitivity of microbial rhodopsins [19-22]. These GEVIs have been applied to the study of brain function for various brain regions [23-27]. However, in most studies, GEVI voltage imaging was used to undermine the function of neural circuits, and very few attempts have been made to understand brain development.

In this study, to examine the dynamics of neuronal populations and their development, we applied ArcLight to zebrafish, and established a series of

recording approaches to expand the power of voltage imaging in developmental biology. Zebrafish is an optimal model system for embryology and neuroscience. The transparent and relatively small brain of zebrafish, together with various transgenic lines, provides an excellent system for analyzing the functional organization of the brain in various behavioral modalities by the whole-brain recordings [28, 29]. Several GEVIs have been successfully used for voltage imaging of the zebrafish brain, mainly to analyze the circuit functions [21, 22, 25, 26, 30]. In this study, we focus on the spinal cord and cerebellum, which are suitable for studying neural circuit development because of their rapid development, ease of observation, and accumulated information on circuit organization [31, 32].

The spinal cord contains neural circuits that play fundamental roles in locomotion. These circuits drive coordinated movements of the left and right sides of the body by a central pattern generator, which is a fundamental element of locomotion [33]. At an early stage of development, this coordinated activity emerges as the spontaneous firing of spinal cord neurons, which is considered important for circuit formation [34]. Although electrophysiological and optical studies have elucidated the firing dynamics of these neurons, the mechanisms by which this coordinated activity emerges remain to be understood [35-37]. This transient activity, known as fetal movement in mammals, has been observed as coiling movements during early development in zebrafish. In the spinal cord, this process leads to periodic bursts of alternating populations of neurons on the left and right sides [38, 39]. Previous studies have shown that such activity patterns emerge from uncorrelated activities within a few hours of early development [36, 39-41]. However, the mechanisms by which individual neurons emerge and constitute network function remain unclear. This is partly because previous studies have used either electrophysiology or calcium imaging, creating a gap between the information on the synaptic profiles of individual neurons obtained by electrophysiology and the population information obtained by calcium imaging. To solve this issue, we need to obtain voltage information from a population of neurons during the course of development.

Cumulative information has been obtained on cerebellar circuits, which play
pivotal roles in motor coordination, learning, and cognition, and are evolutionally
highly conserved [31, 42]. Inhibition and high-frequency activity are prominent in
the cerebellum and contribute to various adaptive properties of the cerebellum,
including long-term depression and modular development of the cerebellar
circuitry [43-47]. In contrast to VSD imaging, which has long been used to
uncover cerebellar circuit dynamics, the use of GEVI in the cerebellum,
particularly in its developmental process, is still limited [11, 21, 25, 44, 48].
112
113

Materials and Methods
Fish lines
Wild-type zebrafish (Danio rerio) with RW genetic background or nacre line were
used   [49].   Tg(elavl3:GAL4-VP16),   Tg(hspGFFDMC28C;UAS:RFP),
Tg(gSA2AzGFF152B;UAS:RFP), and Tg(UAS:lynRFP) fish lines have been
described previously and obtained from the National BioResource Project [25, 50,
51]. 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.
123

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 [52]. pTol2-Aldoca-ArcLight-Q239-polyA construct was generated
using a Purkinje cell-specific promoter, aldorace C, and the ArcLight-Q239
sequence. The ArcLight-Q239 and aldorace sequences were extracted from
pCS2-ArcLight-Q239 and aldoca-5k-pGEM-T, respectively, and inserted into
pTol2-UAS-MCSF-polyA pDNA. 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 [53]. 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 of the spinal cord at 20 to 24 hpf. For

the cerebellum, 5-40 ng/μl pTol2-aldoca-ArcLight-Q239-polyA plasmid DNA was

co-injected with 25 ng/μl *Tol2 transposase* mRNA into one-cell-stage nacre

embryos. ArcLight-positive embryos were screened at 4 to 5 days post

fertilization (dpf), followed by voltage imaging at 5 to 6 dpf.

Confocal imaging

151　Zebrafish embryos were paralyzed in 0.02% tricaine and mounted on 2% low

152　melting-point agarose (Sigma-Aldrich). Optical sectioning was performed using

153　an Olympus FV1000 or a Nikon A1R (detector: A1-DU4) confocal microscope.

154　ImageJ, NIS-Elements (Nikon), and Imaris (Bitplane) programs were used to

155　perform the image analysis.

Voltage imaging of the spinal cord

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 [39, 54]. 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).
176

Voltage imaging of the cerebellum
Embryos from 5 to 9 dpf were paralyzed with 0.02% tricaine and transferred to
an extracellular solution. Next, the embryos were mounted on 2% low melting-
point agarose. For 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. Fluorescent images were acquired using NIS-
Elements or HCImage (Hamamatsu Photonics) at approximately 50–200 Hz.
184

Image analysis
Images were analyzed using the NIS-Elements (Nikon), Fiji, and OriginPro
(Lightstone) programs as described previously [54]. 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).
197

199 **Results**

Establishment of the ArcLight zebrafish line

To examine neuronal activity in the developing brain using voltage imaging, GEVI ArcLight was used to establish transgenic zebrafish lines via the GAL4-UAS and Tol2 transposon systems [29]. We generated a pTol2-UAS-ArcLight-A242-polyA construct and established a transgenic line (Fig. 1a, b). To test whether ArcLight was localized to the cellular membranes in Tg(UAS:ArcLight) fish, we observed Tg(elavl3:GAL4-VP16;UAS:ArcLight;UAS:lyn-RFP) embryos, in which gal4 was expressed in neurons, and the cellular membranes were labeled with Lyn-RFP. At 1 dpf, ArcLight was widely observed in the neural tube and co-localized with Lyn-RFP, indicating that ArcLight was properly distributed on the cellular membrane in the neural tube (Fig. 1b, c). The distribution of ArcLight was also examined in other brain regions, such as the cerebellum, using transgenic lines expressing gal4 specifically in cerebellar neurons. Confocal imaging showed that ArcLight was clearly expressed in granule cells and inferior olive neurons, which are key components of cerebellar circuits [42] (Supplementary Figs. S1 and S2). These results indicate that ArcLight is expressed in various neuron types in developing zebrafish.

ArcLight could detect neural activity at the population and single-cell levels

Next, we performed high-speed imaging of the spinal cord of the Tg(elavl3:GAL4-VP16;UAS:ArcLight) embryos. Spinal cord neurons show spontaneous firing at the early stage of development, and this coordinated activity of the neuronal populations begins at 17 hpf [36, 40, 41]. As shown in Figure 1, oscillatory changes in ArcLight fluorescence intensity were detected in the ventral region of somites 3–8 at 20 hpf at a frequency of 0.14±0.10 Hz (6 fish, Fig. 1d–g). Phases of fluorescent changes differed between the left and right sides of the spinal cord and occurred alternately, which is consistent with previous reports showing periodic depolarization (PD) of spinal cord neurons (Warp et al., 2012). This activity mostly disappeared after treatment with the sodium channel blocker tetrodotoxin (TTX) (Fig. 1e-g; left side: 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). These data indicated that ArcLight can detect
spontaneous activity in developing zebrafish spinal cord neurons.

Next, we examined whether ArcLight enables the detection of neural activity at
the single-cell and population levels. Figure 2 shows an example of voltage
imaging of the spinal cord. The oscillatory activity was clearly detected in each
neuron, and differences in the size and pattern of activity between neighboring
neurons were visualized using ArcLight (Fig. 2a and b, 35 fish). Many of these
depolarizations occurred sequentially along the rostrocaudal axis. In addition to
large depolarizations that closely resembled PD, slight membrane potential
fluctuations were also observed between the PDs (Fig. 2c). Their timing and
patterns suggest that they represent a subthreshold activity called a synaptic
burst, which has been reported in electrophysiological recordings [38]. Cross-
correlation analysis revealed a strong positive correlation between the ipsilateral
neurons and a negative correlation between the contralateral neurons (Fig. 2d).
This result indicates that membrane potential changes are highly synchronized
between neurons on the ipsilateral side of the spinal cord at the single-cell level,
and that they alternate between the left and right sides. Furthermore, the
hierarchical clustering analysis suggested that populations of neurons on the
same side exhibited higher synchrony (Fig. 2e).
250

High-spatiotemporal voltage imaging at the subcellular level in the spinal
cord
Measuring membrane potential dynamics at the level of neuronal compartments
such as axons and dendrites is important for understanding information
processing in the brain [55, 56]. To record the cell bodies and axons of the spinal
cord neurons, Tg(elavl3:GAL4-VP16;UAS:ArcLight) embryos between 20 and 23
hpf were observed from their side (Fig. 3a). We focused on primary motor
neurons (PMNs), as they are easy to observe because of their distinguished
morphology (Fig. 3a and Supplementary Fig. S3). As shown in Figure 3, we
successfully performed wide-field voltage imaging and detected the membrane
potential in the soma and proximo/distal regions of the axons (13 fish). The soma
and axons showed similar patterns of depolarization, but the size of the

membrane potential fluctuations might be slightly smaller in the axons than in the
cell soma (Fig. 3b). The depolarization of the axons was also detected by using
confocal microscopy (Supplementary Fig. S3). Furthermore, recordings at a
higher spatial resolution enabled the illumination of filopodia dynamics and
voltage changes (Supplementary Fig. S4). Interestingly, we noticed that there
were areas within the axon where the amplitude of the membrane potential
dynamics was larger than that of the others (Supplementary Fig. S4).

271 Single-cell labeling of neurons by ArcLight enables simultaneous
272 observation of morphology and activity

Spinal cord circuits consist of many types of neurons whose position, morphology,
and physiological properties vary [57]. To uncover the circuit dynamics and its
development, it is essential to observe the morphology and voltage dynamics of
each neuron. For this purpose, the Tg(elavl3:GAL4-VP16;UAS:ArcLight) line has
a weakness in that neighboring neurons also express ArcLight, making it
challenging to observe the morphology of individual cells. Therefore, we obtained
both recordings by expressing ArcLight in a mosaic manner.

By injecting UAS-ArcLight pDNA into Tg(elavl3:GAL4-VP16) fish, we obtained
embryos in which spinal cord neurons were sparsely labeled by ArcLight,
enabling precise detection of the dynamics of membrane potentials (Fig. 4a–c,
20 hpf, PMNs). We also succeeded in recording interneurons that were otherwise
difficult to identify (Fig. 4d and e). In addition to PD and SB-like activity, some
neurons exhibited hyperpolarization (Fig. 4e). In contrast to cells 2 and 3, cell 1
did not show depolarization. In one hour, these neurons changed their
morphology (Supplementary Fig. S5). These results indicate that voltage imaging
using ArcLight enables measurement of the voltage dynamics of neurons at
various levels (population, single cell, and subcellular), providing a powerful
approach for analyzing neural circuits.

Sparse labeling of cerebellar neurons by ArcLight was also achieved by
injecting UAS-ArcLight pDNA into gal4 lines. We could detect ArcLight expression
in the axons (climbing fibers) and soma of the inferior olive neurons, which have
a critical role in cerebellar learning (Supplementary Fig. S2b). We also attempted

to perform voltage imaging of cerebellar Purkinje cells, which play pivotal roles in

the cerebellum. By injecting ArcLight pDNA, which drives the expression of

ArcLight specifically in Purkinje cells, we obtained embryos with sparse labeling

of Purkinje cells (Supplementary Fig. S7a and b). Voltage imaging at 5 dpf

revealed a change in fluorescence intensity, indicative of depolarization in

Purkinje cells (Supplementary Fig. S7b–d). However, significant bleaching makes

long-term imaging difficult, and the membrane potential could not be recorded

from multiple Purkinje cells.

Developmental changes in the membrane potentials of spinal neurons

Next, we examined the developmental changes in voltage dynamics in neuron

populations. The periodic firing observed in the spinal cord of zebrafish embryos

corresponds to coiling behavior, which is suggested to be essential for circuit

formation [34]. During embryogenesis, this characteristic activity appears at

approximately 17 hpf and rapidly increases in frequency and amplitude until 20

hpf, followed by a gradual decrease [36]. However, the mechanism by which the

cooperative activity of this population of spinal neurons emerges and changes

during development remains unclear. To investigate voltage dynamics in

populations of spinal cord neurons, we performed voltage imaging of zebrafish

embryos during this developmental period.

As shown in Figure 5, voltage imaging was successfully performed for the first

time from the developing spinal cord continuously from 18 to 20 hpf (Fig. 5). At

18 hpf, a PMN located in the eight somite region had an axonal structure but

seldom exhibited burst activity. Instead, it often showed fluctuations in the voltage

signal (Fig. 5c, cell 1). This neuron gradually extended its axons, increasing the

number of burst firings at 18.5 hpf. By 19.5 hpf, the firing frequency quickly

reached 0.35 Hz. In the same embryo, we also obtained a recording from the

PMN located in 10 somite region (Fig. 5c, cell 2). At 18 hpf, cell 2 exhibited a short

protrusion near its soma, suggesting that it had just started extending an axon.

Cell 2 appeared to have almost no activity at 18 hpf but started to show

depolarization at 18.5 hpf. However, the pattern of membrane potential fluctuation

was quite different from that of mature PMNs, with many cells showing a slower

rise in depolarization. Additionally, small fluctuations in membrane potentials
were continuously detected, raising the possibility that they might reflect
subthreshold dynamics of membrane potentials in PMNs (Fig. 5c). By 19.5 hpf,
cell2 extended the axon, while the frequency of bursts rapidly increased to 0.35
Hz. A similar pattern of changes in voltage dynamics was also observed in the
soma of cell 2 and in other embryos (Supplementary Fig. S6, 5 fish, 20 cells).
These findings suggest that the coordinated activity in the spinal cord develops
through multiple steps: (1) no firing, (2) small depolarization (initiation of axon
outgrowth), (3) irregular cooperative activity, and (4) cooperative activity.

Next, we examined how the spontaneous activity in the spinal cord changes
over time. Voltage imaging was performed from 20 to 23 hpf (Fig. 6;
Supplementary Fig. S8). The results showed that the regular and rapid population
activity observed at 20 hpf decreased by 23 hpf. The pattern of depolarization
also changed, with the bursts becoming longer in duration and losing alternating
activity (Fig. 6b). Cross-correlation analysis revealed that at 20 hpf, ipsilateral and
contralateral pairs of neurons showed a high degree of synchrony and periodicity
(Fig. 6c). However, at 23 hpf, they seemed to reduce, except that ipsilateral pairs
maintained their synchrony. As for the coordination between left and right, at 20–
21 hpf, almost all neurons showed alternating activity. At 23–24 hpf, this was
significantly reduced to nearly 80% (Fig. 6d; 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). These results indicate that periodic activity and left-right coordination
decrease later in development, but the synchrony in ipsilateral neurons remains.
350
351
352

Discussion
GEVI voltage imaging is useful as it enables the recording of membrane
potentials from many specific neuronal cell types noninvasively without using
electrodes. However, it has not been applied to studying neurogenesis. In this
study, we established experimental methods to enhance voltage imaging in the
zebrafish cerebellum and spinal cord. These are important not only for analyzing

neural circuits but also for revealing developmental mechanisms.

Previously, electrophysiological recordings have been used to characterize
membrane dynamics in the spinal cord. However, neurons were observed for a
short period due to the invasive nature of the recordings. In addition, recordings
were limited to single cells [57, 58]. Moreover, developmental analysis was
performed using calcium imaging; however, in principle, it is impossible to record
membrane potential dynamics using this method [39-41]. To the best of our
knowledge, this is the first report of visualizing membrane potential dynamics in
genetically defined neuronal populations during spinal cord development.
Similarly, we believe that this is the first example of long-term GEVI-based
imaging of neural circuit formation during development.

Voltage imaging of spinal cord neural circuits
In this study, we successfully established a transgenic zebrafish line expressing
ArcLight. Initially, we focused on the spinal cord: one of the earliest circuits to
emerge during development, consisting of a relatively limited number of neurons
[36]. Voltage imaging at 20 hpf showed that the spinal neuronal population
exhibited regular, alternating left-right synchronous activity. The obtained patterns
were clear, with similar patterns of voltage changes to those recorded by
electrophysiology, but with higher resolution than those previously recorded using
ASAP1 or calcium imaging (Miyazawa et al., 2018; Muto et al., 2011; Wan et al.,
2019; Warp et al., 2012). This would probably be because ArcLight has faster
kinetics than the calcium sensor, and shows a higher SNR than ASAP1 [14, 59].
Previously, electrophysiological studies showed that most of the spinal cord
neurons at the stage exhibit periodic bursts of activity called PD that drives tail-
coiling behaviors (equivalent to human fetal movements). Similar patterns of
burst firing, similar firing frequency, and the importance of sodium channel all
support the notion that the observed depolarization represents PD.

In addition to these suprathreshold activities, subthreshold activities, such as
SB and hyperpolarization, were also detected by ArcLight, further highlighting the
use of voltage imaging. While further analysis is needed, including simultaneous
electrophysiological recordings with voltage imaging, this is the first non-invasive

imaging of voltage dynamics in a spinal cord neurons population at their early
stage of development.

High-resolution voltage imaging
Subcellular information is important, because neuronal functions are regulated at
the subcellular level, for instance, in dendritic computation and axonal
compartments [55, 56]. Here we showed that ArcLight allowed recording from the
cell body and axon compartments of PMNs. In some cells, we noticed slightly
larger voltage changes at the distal region of axons. This may be due in part to
the non-uniform distribution of sodium channels [56]. In addition, filopodia and
lamellipodia were labeled by ArcLight, with filopodia also showing voltage
dynamics. Further research is desirable to understand the role of voltage changes
in filopodia; for instance, in synapse formation and plasticity. Also, further
extension of this technique to ratiometry voltage imaging is necessary for more
accurate recording [60]. The ability to simultaneously and noninvasively observe
cell morphology and activity allows a deeper understanding of network dynamics
and their formation.

Emergence and changes in spinal cord networks during development
Long-term voltage imaging in the spinal cord showed that regular cooperative
activity parallels axon outgrowth. For instance, PMNs were found to mature
through multiple steps: (1) no firing, (2) small depolarization (initiation of axon
outgrowth), (3) irregular cooperative activity, and (4) cooperative activity. This
process proceeds in the same order in neurons distributed along the roster-
caudal axis. Although it is known that spinal cord neurons without axonal
outgrowth do not fire, this is the first time that stage-dependent changes in voltage
have been demonstrated in the same population of spinal cord neurons [57].
Notably, PMNs exhibited small fluctuations in membrane potentials before
starting regular depolarization. In early-stage of spinal cord development, ion
channels and gap junctions are known to be key in driving voltage dynamics in
spinal cord neurons, whereas the contribution of chemical synapses is limited to
glycinergic ones [36]. Since electrical coupling is a powerful source of

synchronous activity, it would be interesting if the small fluctuations in membrane
potentials reflect electrical coupling [43, 61, 62]. Simple neuronal circuits
connected by gap junctions are one of the key regulators in animal behavior [63].
Further research is desirable to determine whether the observed small
depolarization contains, for instance, spikelets. Furthermore, more evidence is
necessary on other important questions; whether pattern generators exist, where
they are located, and how they facilitate network activity [41]. Our approach with
in vivo voltage imaging could provide further information.
431

Voltage imaging in the cerebellum
In the cerebellum, cumulative information on circuit dynamics was collected by
voltage-sensitive dye imaging [10, 48, 64, 65]. To further understand circuit
dynamics, optical recording of membrane potentials in a cell-type-specific
manner is desirable. However, no study has clearly described cell-type-specific
voltage imaging using GEVIs, despite several systems being available for
neuron-type-specific expression [51]. In this study, we obtained strong ArcLight
expression in cerebellar granule cells and inferior olive neurons. As for Purkinje
cells, a central neuron in the cerebellum, we obtained ArcLight positive Purkinje
cells only by the transient expression system. By voltage imaging, spontaneous
depolarization was detected in Purkinje cells. We assumed that this
depolarization represents complex spikes (CS), one of the key firing patterns of
Purkinje cells, since the frequency was similar to that of CSs detected by cell-
attached electrophysiological recordings at the same developmental stage in
zebrafish [66]. However, we could not detect simple spikes (SSs) in Purkinje cells;
this would partly be because SSs exhibit smaller amplitude and higher
frequencies, making them more difficult to target with this imaging [67, 68]. To
improve the SNR of the recordings, stronger drivers for increasing GEVI
expression, more sensitive sensors, and an improved illumination/recording
system are desirable [14, 21, 69]. Although further validation with
electrophysiology is required, this work will provide an important step forward in
understanding information processing and development in the cerebellum.
Regarding GEVI expression, we noticed considerable differences in intensity

between neuron types, similar to other GEVIs such as ASAP1 [25]. To expand GEVI voltage imaging for the analysis of various neuron types, it is essential to examine this difference in expression efficiency and to solve this issue.

In conclusion, this is the first report of simultaneous and non-invasive recordings of membrane potentials from neuronal populations during development using a GEVI. Based on the imaging system that we established in zebrafish, we would be able to further understand how complex activity and behaviors emerge from small populations of neurons by combining cell-type-specific recordings with manipulations of neuronal activity through optical, electrophysiological, and genetic approaches. Furthermore, our approach would help elucidate the bioelectric signals in various biological phenomena, including morphogenesis [70, 71].

Acknowledgement

We thank Drs M. Hibi, K. Kawakami, S. Higashijima, H. Okamoto, H. Kakinuma, and R. Amo for providing fish lines and constructs, and J. Nakai, M. Ohkura, K. Ando, K. Yamasu, L. Cohen, Y. Bando, S. Fukushima for technical supports and helpful discussion. 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, Science, and Technology of Japan (ASTEP), Kao Foundation grant, Asahi Glass Foundation, and Kato-bio Foundation.

Author Contributions

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

Additional Information

Competing interests

487   The authors declare no competing interests.
488
489   **Data Availability**
490   All data generated or analyzed in this study are included in the manuscript and
491   supporting files.
492

References

1. Cohen, L.B. and B.M. Salzberg, *Optical measurement of membrane potential.* Rev Physiol Biochem Pharmacol, 1978. **83**: p. 35-88.

2. Loew, L.M., et al., *Evidence for a charge-shift electrochromic mechanism in a probe of membrane potential.* Nature, 1979. **281**(5731): p. 497-9.

3. Djurisic, M., et al., *Optical monitoring of neural activity using voltage-sensitive dyes.* Methods Enzymol, 2003. **361**: p. 423-51.

4. Lin, M.Z. and M.J. Schnitzer, *Genetically encoded indicators of neuronal activity.* Nat Neurosci, 2016. **19**(9): p. 1142-53.

5. Homma, R., et al., *Wide-field and two-photon imaging of brain activity with voltage- and calcium-sensitive dyes.* Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci, 2009. **364**(1529): p. 2453-67.

6. Ross, W.N., et al., *Changes in absorption, fluorescence, dichroism, and Birefringence in stained giant axons: : optical measurement of membrane potential.* J Membr Biol, 1977. **33**(1-2): p. 141-83.

7. Yan, P., et al., *Palette of fluorinated voltage-sensitive hemicyanine dyes.* Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 2012. **109**(50): p. 20443-8.

8. Wuskell, J.P., et al., *Synthesis, spectra, delivery and potentiometric responses of new styryl dyes with extended spectral ranges.* J Neurosci Methods, 2006. **151**(2): p. 200-15.

9. Momose-Sato, Y., T. Nakamori, and K. Sato, *Spontaneous depolarization wave in the mouse embryo: origin and large-scale propagation over the CNS identified with voltage-sensitive dye imaging.* Eur J Neurosci, 2012. **35**(8): p. 1230-41.

10. Rokni, D., R. Llinas, and Y. Yarom, *Stars and stripes in the cerebellar cortex: a voltage sensitive dye study.* Front Syst Neurosci, 2007. **1**: p. 1.

11. Roome, C.J. and B. Kuhn, *Dendritic coincidence detection in Purkinje neurons of awake mice.* Elife, 2020. **9**.

12. Storace, D., et al., *Toward Better Genetically Encoded Sensors of Membrane Potential.* Trends Neurosci, 2016. **39**(5): p. 277-289.

13. Kannan, M., G. Vasan, and V.A. Pieribone, *Optimizing Strategies for Developing Genetically Encoded Voltage Indicators.* Front Cell Neurosci, 2019. **13**: p. 53.

14. Bando, Y., et al., *Comparative Evaluation of Genetically Encoded Voltage Indicators.* Cell Rep, 2019. **26**(3): p. 802-813 e4.

15. Akemann, W., et al., *Imaging neural circuit dynamics with a voltage-sensitive fluorescent protein.* J Neurophysiol, 2012. **108**(8): p. 2323-37.

16. Jin, L., et al., *Single action potentials and subthreshold electrical events imaged*

in neurons with a fluorescent protein voltage probe. Neuron, 2012. **75**(5): p. 779-
85.

17.   St-Pierre, F., et al., *High-fidelity optical reporting of neuronal electrical activity with*
an ultrafast fluorescent voltage sensor. Nat Neurosci, 2014. **17**(6): p. 884-9.

18.   Tsutsui, H., et al., *Improving membrane voltage measurements using FRET with*
new fluorescent proteins. Nat Methods, 2008. **5**(8): p. 683-5.

19.   Hochbaum, D.R., et al., *All-optical electrophysiology in mammalian neurons*
using engineered microbial rhodopsins. Nat Methods, 2014. **11**(8): p. 825-33.

20.   Gong, Y., et al., *High-speed recording of neural spikes in awake mice and flies*
with a fluorescent voltage sensor. Science, 2015. **350**(6266): p. 1361-6.

21.   Abdelfattah, A.S., et al., *Bright and photostable chemigenetic indicators for*
extended in vivo voltage imaging. Science, 2019. **365**(6454): p. 699-704.

22.   Piatkevich, K.D., et al., *A robotic multidimensional directed evolution approach*
applied to fluorescent voltage reporters. Nat Chem Biol, 2018. **14**(4): p. 352-360.

23.   Nakajima, R. and B.J. Baker, *Mapping of excitatory and inhibitory postsynaptic*
potentials of neuronal populations in hippocampal slices using the GEVI, ArcLight.
J Phys D Appl Phys, 2018. **51**(50).

24.   Storace, D.A. and L.B. Cohen, *Measuring the olfactory bulb input-output*
transformation reveals a contribution to the perception of odorant concentration
invariance. Nat Commun, 2017. **8**(1): p. 81.

25.   Miyazawa, H., et al., *Optical interrogation of neuronal circuitry in zebrafish using*
genetically encoded voltage indicators. Sci Rep, 2018. **8**(1): p. 6048.

26.   Bohm, U.L., et al., *Voltage imaging identifies spinal circuits that modulate*
locomotor adaptation in zebrafish. Neuron, 2022. **110**(7): p. 1211-1222 e4.

27.   Yang, H.H., et al., *Subcellular Imaging of Voltage and Calcium Signals Reveals*
Neural Processing In Vivo. Cell, 2016. **166**(1): p. 245-57.

28.   Ahrens, M.B., et al., *Brain-wide neuronal dynamics during motor adaptation in*
zebrafish. Nature, 2012. **485**(7399): p. 471-7.

29.   Asakawa, K., et al., *Genetic dissection of neural circuits by Tol2 transposon-*
mediated Gal4 gene and enhancer trapping in zebrafish. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S
A, 2008. **105**(4): p. 1255-60.

30.   Yoshimatsu, T., et al., *Ancestral circuits for vertebrate color vision emerge at the*
first retinal synapse. Sci Adv, 2021. **7**(42): p. eabj6815.

31.   Hashimoto, M. and M. Hibi, *Development and evolution of cerebellar neural*
circuits. Dev Growth Differ, 2012. **54**(3): p. 373-89.

32.   McLean, D.L., et al., *A topographic map of recruitment in spinal cord.* Nature,
2007. **446**(7131): p. 71-5.

33.   Grillner, S., *Neurobiological bases of rhythmic motor acts in vertebrates.* Science,
1985. **228**(4696): p. 143-9.

34.   Menelaou, E., et al., *Embryonic motor activity and implications for regulating*
motoneuron axonal pathfinding in zebrafish. Eur J Neurosci, 2008. **28**(6): p. 1080-
96.

35.   Fidelin, K. and C. Wyart, *Inhibition and motor control in the developing zebrafish*
spinal cord. Curr Opin Neurobiol, 2014. **26C**: p. 103-109.

36.   Saint-Amant, L., *Development of motor rhythms in zebrafish embryos.* Prog Brain
Res, 2010. **187**: p. 47-61.

37.   O'Donovan, M.J., *The origin of spontaneous activity in developing networks of*
the vertebrate nervous system. Curr Opin Neurobiol, 1999. **9**(1): p. 94-104.

38.   Saint-Amant, L. and P. Drapeau, *Motoneuron activity patterns related to the*
earliest behavior of the zebrafish embryo. J Neurosci, 2000. **20**(11): p. 3964-72.

39.   Muto, A., et al., *Genetic visualization with an improved GCaMP calcium indicator*
reveals spatiotemporal activation of the spinal motor neurons in zebrafish. Proc
Natl Acad Sci U S A, 2011. **108**(13): p. 5425-30.

40.   Warp, E., et al., *Emergence of patterned activity in the developing zebrafish*
spinal cord. Curr Biol, 2012. **22**(2): p. 93-102.

41.   Wan, Y., et al., *Single-Cell Reconstruction of Emerging Population Activity in an*
Entire Developing Circuit. Cell, 2019. **179**(2): p. 355-372 e23.

42.   Ito, M., *Cerebellar circuitry as a neuronal machine.* Prog Neurobiol, 2006. **78**(3-
5): p. 272-303.

43.   Mann-Metzer, P. and Y. Yarom, *Electrotonic coupling interacts with intrinsic*
properties to generate synchronized activity in cerebellar networks of inhibitory
interneurons. J Neurosci, 1999. **19**(9): p. 3298-306.

44.   Cohen, D. and Y. Yarom, *Patches of synchronized activity in the cerebellar cortex*
evoked by mossy-fiber stimulation: questioning the role of parallel fibers. Proc
Natl Acad Sci U S A, 1998. **95**(25): p. 15032-6.

45.   Whittington, M.A., R.D. Traub, and J.G. Jefferys, *Synchronized oscillations in*
interneuron networks driven by metabotropic glutamate receptor activation.
Nature, 1995. **373**(6515): p. 612-5.

46.   Ito, M., *Cerebellar long-term depression.* Trends Neurosci, 1996. **19**(1): p. 11-12.

47.   Apps, R. and R. Hawkes, *Cerebellar cortical organization: a one-map hypothesis.*
Nat Rev Neurosci, 2009. **10**(9): p. 670-81.

48.   Tsuda, S., et al., *Probing the function of neuronal populations: combining*
micromirror-based optogenetic photostimulation with voltage-sensitive dye
imaging. Neurosci Res, 2013. **75**(1): p. 76-81.

49.   Lister, J.A., et al., *nacre encodes a zebrafish microphthalmia-related protein that*
regulates neural-crest-derived pigment cell fate. Development, 1999. **126**(17): p.
3757-67.

50.   Kimura, Y., C. Satou, and S. Higashijima, *V2a and V2b neurons are generated*
by the final divisions of pair-producing progenitors in the zebrafish spinal cord.
Development, 2008. **135**(18): p. 3001-5.

51.   Takeuchi, M., et al., *Establishment of Gal4 transgenic zebrafish lines for analysis*
of development of cerebellar neural circuitry. Dev Biol, 2015. **397**(1): p. 1-17.

52.   Nakayama, Y., et al., *Comprehensive analysis of target genes in zebrafish*
embryos reveals gbx2 involvement in neurogenesis. Dev Biol, 2017. **430**(1): p.
237-248.

53.   Kimura, Y., et al., *Hindbrain V2a neurons in the excitation of spinal locomotor*
circuits during zebrafish swimming. Curr Biol, 2013. **23**(10): p. 843-9.

54.   Hiyoshi, K., et al., *In vivo wide-field voltage imaging in zebrafish with voltage-*
sensitive dye and genetically encoded voltage indicator. Dev Growth Differ, 2021.
63(8): p. 417-428.

55.   London, M. and M. Hausser, *Dendritic computation.* Annu Rev Neurosci, 2005.
28: p. 503-32.

56.   Garrido, J.J., et al., *Dynamic compartmentalization of the voltage-gated sodium*
channels in axons. Biol Cell, 2003. **95**(7): p. 437-45.

57.   Saint-Amant, L. and P. Drapeau, *Synchronization of an embryonic network of*
identified spinal interneurons solely by electrical coupling. Neuron, 2001. **31**(6):
p. 1035-46.

58.   Saint-Amant, L. and P. Drapeau, *Time course of the development of motor*
behaviors in the zebrafish embryo. J Neurobiol, 1998. **37**(4): p. 622-32.

59.   Storace, D.A., et al., *Monitoring brain activity with protein voltage and calcium*
sensors. Sci Rep, 2015. **5**: p. 10212.

60.   Kim, B.B., et al., *A red fluorescent protein with improved monomericity enables*
ratiometric voltage imaging with ASAP3. Sci Rep, 2022. **12**(1): p. 3678.

61.   Epsztein, J., et al., *Impact of spikelets on hippocampal CA1 pyramidal cell activity*
during spatial exploration. Science, 2010. **327**(5964): p. 474-7.

62.   de Solages, C., et al., *High-frequency organization and synchrony of activity in*
the purkinje cell layer of the cerebellum. Neuron, 2008. **58**(5): p. 775-88.

63.   Gutierrez, G.J., T. O'Leary, and E. Marder, *Multiple mechanisms switch an*
electrically coupled, synaptically inhibited neuron between competing rhythmic
oscillators. Neuron, 2013. **77**(5): p. 845-58.

64.   Roome, C.J. and B. Kuhn, *Simultaneous dendritic voltage and calcium imaging*

and somatic recording from Purkinje neurons in awake mice. Nat Commun, 2018. **9**(1): p. 3388.

65. Okumura, K., et al., *Optical measurement of neuronal activity in the developing cerebellum of zebrafish using voltage-sensitive dye imaging.* Neuroreport, 2018. **29**(16): p. 1349-1354.

66. Hsieh, J.Y., et al., *Rapid development of Purkinje cell excitability, functional cerebellar circuit, and afferent sensory input to cerebellum in zebrafish.* Front Neural Circuits, 2014. **8**: p. 147.

67. Knogler, L.D., A.M. Kist, and R. Portugues, *Motor context dominates output from purkinje cell functional regions during reflexive visuomotor behaviours.* Elife, 2019. **8**.

68. Harmon, T.C., et al., *Distinct responses of Purkinje neurons and roles of simple spikes during associative motor learning in larval zebrafish.* Elife, 2017. **6**.

69. Namikawa, K., et al., *Modeling Neurodegenerative Spinocerebellar Ataxia Type 13 in Zebrafish Using a Purkinje Neuron Specific Tunable Coexpression System.* J Neurosci, 2019. **39**(20): p. 3948-3969.

70. Levin, M., *Bioelectric signaling: Reprogrammable circuits underlying embryogenesis, regeneration, and cancer.* Cell, 2021. **184**(8): p. 1971-1989.

71. Harris, M.P., *Bioelectric signaling as a unique regulator of development and regeneration.* Development, 2021. **148**(10).

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 (6 fish, *: $p < 0.05$). The imaged plane and ROIs are in the same positions

as in (d).

Figure 2

Monitoring of 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 signals fluorescence of ArcLight at the two time points

indicated in (c). (c) Activity patterns of the 18 cells are shown. A higher

magnification view of the ArcLight signal of cell 4 is shown at the bottom. (b). (d,

e) Hierarchal clustering analysis of the voltage dynamics in the 18 cells shows
the synchronous activity in the ipsilateral neuron pairs (d), and also several
groups with higher synchrony within them (e).
697

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. S3 and S4.
705

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.
718

719 **Figure 5**
720 Long-term voltage imaging of the spinal cord shows the emergence of population
721 activity. (a) Left views of the spinal cord of ArcLight positive fish from 18 hpf to
722 19.5 hpf. (b) Enlarged views of (a). (c) Voltage dynamics obtained from the axons
723 of the two cells shown in (a). Arrowheads indicate small depolarization.
724

Figure 6

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 20-21 hpf and 23-24 hpf.
731
732

733 **Supplementary Figure S1**
734 ArcLight (green) is distributed in cerebellar granule cells (red). Dorsal view of the
735 cerebellum of Tg(hspGFFDMC152C;UAS:RFP;UAS:ArcLight) fish observed at 6
736 dpf. Higher magnification views are shown in the lower panel.
737

Supplementary Figure S2
ArcLight is expressed in inferior olivary neurons. (a) Dorsal view of the inferior
olive (IO) of Tg(hspGFFDMC28C;UAS:RFP;UAS:ArcLight) fish at 8 dpf.
Arrowheads in the cerebellum (CE) indicate ArcLight signals (green) in the
climbing fibers. (b) (left) Schematic diagram of the co-injection experiment. (right)
Transient expression of ArcLight in a single IO neuron. Higher magnification
views are shown in the right panel. ArcLight expression is observed in climbing
fibers (1), as well as in the soma and dendrites of an IO neuron (2).
746

Supplementary Figure S3
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
lameripoidia 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.
754

Supplementary Figure S4
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.
762

763 **Supplementary Figure S5**
764 Single-cell labeling by ArcLight shows the morphological changes of the spinal
765 cord neurons. Images taken at 21 hpf and 22 hpf are shown. An arrowhead
766 indicates a growth cone of the extending axon.
767

Supplementary Figure S6
ArcLight imaging in Purkinje cells. (a) (top) Schematic diagram ofpTo2-aldoca-
ArcLightQ239-polyA construct. (bottom) ArcLight is expressed in Purkinje cells in
the cerebellum (CE). Arrowheads and an arrow indicate Purkinje cell soma and
dendrite, respectively. A higher magnification view is shown on the right. (b-d)
ArcLight imaging exhibits depolarization in Purkinje cells. (b) ArcLight signal in
the recorded Purkinje cells. (c) Depolarization signals are observed by ArcLight
imaging (arrowheads). (d) Enlarged views of the traces are shown in (c).
776

Supplementary Figure S7
ArcLight imaging in Purkinje cells. (a) (top) Schematic diagram ofpTo2-aldoca-
ArcLightQ239-polyA construct. (bottom) ArcLight is expressed in Purkinje cells in
the cerebellum (CE). Arrowheads and an arrow indicate Purkinje cell soma and
dendrite, respectively. A higher magnification view is shown on the right. (b-d)
ArcLight imaging exhibits depolarization in Purkinje cells. (b) ArcLight signal in
the recorded Purkinje cells. (c) Depolarization signals are observed by ArcLight
imaging (arrowheads). (d) Enlarged views of the traces are shown in (c).
785

786 **Supplementary Figure S8**
787 Long-term voltage imaging shows the changes in the firing patterns of the spinal
788 cord neurons population. (a) ROIs position of cells 1-6. (b) Voltage dynamics of
789 the 6 cells are shown from 20 to 23 hpf. Cells on the right and left sides of the

790   spinal cord are shown in red and blue, respectively.
791
792   **Supplementary Movie1**
793   Spontaneous activity of individual cells in the spinal cord is observed by ArcLight.
794   Dorsal view of the ventral spinal cord of Tg(elavl3:GAL4-VP16;UAS:ArcLight) fish
795   at 21 hpf.
796
797   **Supplementary Movie2**
798   Monitoring of spontaneous activity of spinal cord neurons, including primary
799   motor neurons by ArcLight. Left view of the spinal cord of Tg(elavl3:GAL4-
800   VP16;UAS:ArcLight) fish at 20 hpf.
801
802   **Supplementary Movie3**
803   Single-cell labeling and voltage imaging of spinal cord neurons using ArcLight.
804   Left view of the spinal cord of Tg(elavl3:GAL4-VP16) embryo at 21 hpf. A high-
805   resolution image is shown in Supplementary Figure S4.
806
807   **Supplementary Movie4**
808   Voltage dynamics of an axonal region of a primary motor neuron at a high spatial
809   resolution. Left view of the spinal cord Tg(elavl3:GAL4-VP16;UAS:ArcLight) fish
810   at 18.5 hpf.

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
10.0
-ΔF/F₀ (%)
0

f TTX

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

g
control
TTX

Frequency (Hz)
0.3
0.2
0.1
0

* *

Left   Right

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

a

transposase mRNA
UAS-ArcLight pDNA

Tg(elavl3:GAL4)

b

50 µm

c

ROI1

10 µm

ROI 1

-ΔF/F₀
2%

5 s

d

ArcLight

50 µm

-ΔF/F₀

11.0

-ΔF/F₀ (%)

-0.5

e

cell 1

10 µm

cell 1

-ΔF/F₀
2%

5 s

Figure 5

Figure 6

Supplementary Figure S1

a

b

transposase mRNA
UAS-ArcLight-polyA pDNA

Tg(hspGFFDMC28C;UAS:RFP)

Supplementary Figure S2

Supplementary Figure S3

Supplementary Figure S4

Supplementary Figure S5

Supplementary Figure S6

Supplementary Figure S7

a

cell 1 ArcLight
2 3
4 5 6 50 µm

b

20 hpf

cell number

right
1
2
3

left
4
5
6

21 hpf

cell number

right
1
2
3

left
4
5
6

22 hpf

cell number

right
1
2
3

left
4
5
6

23 hpf

cell number

right
1
2
3

left
4
5
6

-ΔF/F$_0$
3 %

5 s

Supplementary Figure S8