An applicable and efficient retrograde monosynaptic circuit mapping tool for larval zebrafish

Tian-Lun Chen[1,2,5], Qiu-Sui Deng[1,2,5], Kun-Zhang Lin[3], Xiu-Dan Zheng[1], Xin Wang[1,2], Yong-Wei Zhong[1], Xin-Yu Ning[1], Ying Li[1], Fu-Qiang Xu[3], Jiu-Lin Du[1,2,4*], Xu-Fei Du[1,2*]

[1]Institute of Neuroscience, State Key Laboratory of Neuroscience, Center for Excellence in Brain Science and Intelligence Technology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, 320 Yue-Yang Road, Shanghai 200031, China

[2]University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, 19A Yu-Quan Road, Beijing 100049, China

[3]The Brain Cognition and Brain Disease Institute (BCBDI), Shenzhen Key Laboratory of Viral Vectors for Biomedicine, Shenzhen Institute of Advanced Technology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shenzhen, China

[4]School of Life Science and Technology, ShanghaiTech University, 319 Yue-Yang Road, Shanghai 200031, China

[5]These authors contributed equally

*Correspondence: xufeidu@ion.ac.cn, forestdu@ion.ac.cn

Abstract

The larval zebrafish is a vertebrate model for in vivo monitoring and manipulation of whole-brain neuronal activity. Tracing its neural circuits still remains challenging. Here we report an applicable methodology tailored for larval zebrafish to achieve efficient retrograde trans-monosynaptic tracing from genetically defined neurons via EnvA-pseudotyped glycoprotein-deleted rabies viruses. By combinatorially optimizing multiple factors involved, we identified the CVS strain trans-complemented with advanced expression of N2cG at 36°C as the optimal combination. It yielded a tracing efficiency of up to 20 inputs per starter cell. Its low cytotoxicity enabled the viable labeling and calcium imaging of infected neurons 10 days post-infection, spanning larval ages commonly used for functional examination. Cre-dependent labeling was further developed to enable input cell-type-specific tracing and circuit reconstruction. We mapped cerebellar circuits and uncovered the ipsilateral preference and subtype specificity of granule cell-to-Purkinje cell connections. Our method offers an efficient way for tracing neural circuits in larval zebrafish.

Introduction

Given the small transparent brain and accessible genetic manipulations, the larval zebrafish has been emerging as a promising animal model for systems neuroscience. Large-scale molecular, light- and electron-microscopical (LM and EM) morphological, and physiological datasets have been gathered over the past decade to decipher the identity and connectivity of its whole-brain cells[1–7]. Whole-brain neurons' activity can be monitored and manipulated in awake as well as behaving zebrafish larvae, providing an unprecedented research paradigm for dissecting neural mechanisms of brain functions[8–14]. Further mechanistic insights into the roles of different cell types in brain-wide activity require effective tools for dissecting underlying neural circuits[15].

Virus-based tracing tools have opened new avenues for disentangling neural circuits[16,17]. Among them, the EnvA-pseudotyped glycoprotein (G)-deleted rabies virus (RV) (RVdG[EnvA]) has achieved the most success[18–20]. Its success derives from being a native retrograde transsynaptic tracer engineered for cell-type-specific targeting through the recognition between EnvA and its receptor TVA[21] and crossing only one synaptic step via trans-complementation of rabies G[18,19]. This tool has revolutionized the structural analysis of neural circuits in rodents[15,22] and has continually evolved to adapt to functional studies[23–25]. However, its application in other species including zebrafish is retarded due to a lack of tailored methodologies.

The G-deleted RV (RVdG) infection of neurons in zebrafish was first demonstrated in 2009. Ten years later, RVdG[EnvA] was applied to trace input neurons in the adult zebrafish cerebellum, but the efficiency showed very low[26]. Recently, the herpes simplex virus (HSV1) was used as a helper virus to deliver TVA and rabies G, leading to an increased efficiency of around one input per starter neuron in the brain of adult zebrafish[27]. For larval zebrafish, efforts have been focused on the vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV), another rhabdovirus similar to RV but with anterograde spread[28–30]. However, these reported VSV tools for larval zebrafish appeared relatively high cytotoxicity and have not been iterated to utilize the EnvA-TVA system to achieve initial infection specificity[28–30]. Therefore, developing applicable efficient viral tracing methods is still an important mission in the field, and will boost the application of larval zebrafish in systems neuroscience research.

In the present study, we established applicable methodologies to implement RVdG[EnvA] for

efficient retrograde trans-monosynaptic tracing from genetically defined neurons in larval
zebrafish. We first demonstrated that the transient co-expression of the helper proteins TVA and
rabies G in specific neurons through one-cell-stage microinjection of the GAL-UAS binary DNA
plasmids could successfully help the RVdG[EnvA] microinjected later on to infect and spread
from targeted starter cells. This simple two-round microinjection procedure ensures the high
feasibility of our method. Then via practicing in the cerebellar circuit, we iteratively tested key
factors that influence the tracing efficiency and cytotoxicity, which include the virus strain, G
protein type, G expression level, and working temperature. We discovered an optimal combinatory
condition: CVSdG trans-complemented with advanced expression of N2cG at 36°C. The
optimality lies in the high tracing efficiency and low cytotoxicity, embodied by a 20-fold increase
in efficiency compared to previous studies in zebrafish[26,27] and a long enough time window (final
fish age up to 2 - 3 weeks old) for conducting functional studies in larval zebrafish. Furthermore,
by using Cre-expressing RVdG, we developed a transgenic reporter framework to enable input
cell-type-specific tracing and circuit reconstruction based on single-neuron morphology. As an
application demonstration, we applied the method to map the monosynaptic inputs to Purkinje
cells (PCs) from granule cells (GCs) in the cerebellum and revealed the wiring relationship
between morphological subtypes of GCs and PCs. These endeavors prove the applicability and
efficiency of our method in dissecting interested circuits in larval zebrafish.

Results

Implementation of RVdG[EnvA]-based neural circuit tracing in larval zebrafish
To implement RVdG[EnvA]-based retrograde tracing in larval zebrafish, we first verified that
larval zebrafish themselves do not express endogenous TVA. In wild type (WT) larvae without
exogenous TVA expression, the injected SADdG-mCherry[EnvA], a type of RVdG[EnvA], did not
infect any cells (Figure 1—figure supplement 1A). The observed mCherry-positive puncta co-
localized with microglia (Figure 1—figure supplement 1B), suggesting the clearance of uninfected
virus particles by microglia. These data demonstrate that similar to mammals[31], zebrafish do not
express endogenous TVA.

Then we specifically expressed TVA in neurons (Figures 1A and B), and found that injected
SADdG-mCherry[EnvA] infected TVA-expressing cells (Figure 1C and D, dashed yellow circles).
The targeted expression of TVA and the fluorescent indicator enhanced green fluorescent protein
(EGFP) in neurons was achieved through transient transgene of GAL4-UAS constructs in which
the GAL4 activator is driven by *elavl3*, a pan-neuronal marker in zebrafish (Figure 1A, and "*UGT*"
in Figure 1B). As the G protein is necessary for viral spread, SADdG-mCherry[EnvA] did not
spread beyond the initially infected neurons (i.e. starter cells) (Figure 1C,E–G).
We next examined whether viral particles can spread to other cells by complementing the G
protein in starter neurons. As the efficiency of virus spread is reported to be positively correlated
with the level of G expression in starter neurons[32,33], we generated two helper plasmids,
UAS:EGFP-P2A-TVA-T2A-B19G (*UGTB*) and *UAS:EGFP-P2A-B19G-T2A-TVA* (*UGBT*), to
search for a plasmid design with higher G expression while ensuring the co-expression of TVA
and G (Figure 1B, see Methods). The position of the RV G-protein-coding gene SAD B19G was
varied in the tri-cistronic 2A constructs for adjusting its expression level[34]. As shown in Figure 1D,
besides starter cells (EGFP$^+$ and mCherry$^+$, dashed yellow circles) and uninfected TVA-expressing

cells (EGFP$^+$ only), we observed mCherry$^+$ only cells (arrows) of which the number increased

over time, indicating the virus spread beyond the starter cells by trans-complementation with G.

Notably, the traced cells included both neurons and radial glia (hereafter referred to as glia)

identified by their distinct morphology (Figure 1D, red and gray arrows, respectively). Notably,

the trans-infection of glia was also observed in mice[35,36], and its mechanism remains unknown.

Convergence index (CI), defined as the number of trans-infected cells divided by that of

starter cells, was then used to estimate the tracing efficiency[19,32]. We calculated the CI of traced

neurons and glia separately, and found a higher tracing efficiency in larvae expressing *UGBT* than

those expressing *UGTB* (Figure 1E–G and Figure 1,2—table supplement 1; CI$_{neuron}$: 1.55 ± 0.29 *vs*

0.44 ± 0.11, $P < 0.01$; CI$_{glia}$: 4.41 ± 1.48 *vs* 2.50 ± 0.65, $P = 0.30$; mean ± SEM), suggesting that

UGBT is better for G expression and tracing efficiency. Taken together, these results demonstrate

that in larval zebrafish, transneuronal tracing from genetically defined cell types can be

implemented by combining the injection of RV*d*G[EnvA] with the co-expression of helper

proteins mediated by the GAL4-UAS system.

Optimization and verification of the retrograde monosynaptic tracing

To optimize this system for high tracing efficiency and application feasibility in circuit research,

we iterated it step-by-step in the cerebellum via testing different combinations of RV strains

(SAD-B19 *vs* CVS-N2c), G proteins (SAD B19G *vs* CVS N2cG), and rearing temperatures (28°C

vs 36°C) (Figure 2A). The cerebellar structure is evolutionarily conserved in zebrafish compared

with mammals[37,38]. In zebrafish, Purkinje cells (PCs), the central cell type in the cerebellar circuit,

receive excitatory inputs from parallel fibers and climbing fibers originated respectively from

granule cells (GCs) and inferior olivary cells (IOCs), and local inhibitory inputs from stellate cells

(SCs)[37,38] (Figure 2B). The helper proteins G and TVA were co-expressed in PCs by using the

plasmid in *UGBT* mode, driven by *cpce*, a *ca8* promoter-derived PC-specific enhancer element[37,39]

(Figure 2A).

With the same G protein SAD B19G and rearing temperature at 28°C, CVS*d*G[EnvA]

exhibited around a 6-fold increase in neuron tracing efficiency compared to SAD*d*G[EnvA]

(Figure 2C,D, Figure 2—figure supplement 1A-C and Figure 1,2—table supplement 1; CI$_{neuron}$:

0.41 ± 0.07 *vs* 0.06 ± 0.03, $P < 0.001$). After replacing SAD B19G with CVS N2cG to

complement CVS*d*G[EnvA], the tracing efficiency was further increased by ~ 2 times (Figure

2C,D and Figure 1,2—table supplement 1; CI$_{neuron}$: 1.02 ± 0.18 *vs* 0.41 ± 0.07, $P < 0.01$). In

addition, CVS*d*G[EnvA] showed a greater tendency to spread to neurons rather than glia in

comparison with SAD*d*G[EnvA] (Figure 2C,E). In all experiments, virus injection was performed

at 4–6 days post-fertilization (dpf). The labeling of input neurons usually emerged around 2 days

post injection (dpi), and all CIs were calculated at 6–10 dpi, during which the viral transfer was

relatively stable (Figure 2—figure supplement 1C).

After elevating the temperature from 28°C to 36°C for rearing virus-injected larvae, the

neuron tracing efficiency of SAD*d*G[EnvA] became obvious (Figure 2C,D, Figure 2—figure

supplement 1D, and Figure 1,2—table supplement 1; CI$_{neuron}$: 4.96 ± 1.01 *vs* 0.06 ± 0.03, $P <$

0.001); for CVS*d*G[EnvA] trans-complemented with N2cG, the efficiency further increased by

one order of magnitude (Figure 2C,D, Figure 2—figure supplement 1E and Figure 1,2—table

supplement 1; CI$_{neuron}$: 11.61 ± 2.43 *vs* 1.02 ± 0.18, $P < 0.001$). In addition, the elevated

temperature also significantly increased the proportion of initially infected larvae (Figure 2F) and

the tendency of viral spread to neurons (Figure 2E). This efficient trans-synaptic viral transfer
from PCs allowed clear labeling of GC parallel fibers and long-range contralateral inputs from
IOCs (Figure 2G–I). We then generated a *Tetoff* element-based advanced helper plasmid (*UGNT-A*)
to enhance the expression level of CVS N2cG (A-N2cG) (Figure 2—figure supplement 1F, see
Methods), and this optimization resulted in a nearly two-fold increase in the neuron tracing
efficiency (Figure 2C,D, Figures 2—figure supplement 1F,G and Figure 1,2—table supplement 1;
CI_{neuron}: 20.35 ± 3.45 *vs* 11.61 ± 2.43, $P < 0.05$). The improvement was also observed for tracing
glia (Figure 2C, Figure 2—figure supplement 1H,I and Figure 1,2—table supplement 1).

To further functionally test the synaptic specificity of RV retrograde spread in the cerebellar
circuit, we conducted in vivo Ca^{2+} imaging of starter PCs while simultaneously activating single
traced GCs via electrical stimulation (Figure 2J, see Methods). To monitor the activity of starter
PCs, the fluorescent protein in the helper plasmid was replaced with the Ca^{2+} indicator GCaMP6s
(*UG6sNT-A*, Methods). In total, we stimulated 33 individual GCs across 32 animals, among which
15 elicited detectable calcium responses in putative postsynaptic PCs. In 11 of these 15 cases
where the stimulated GC was successfully ablated, the GC-evoked Ca^{2+} activity in starter PCs was
abolished after two-photon laser-based ablation of the GC (Figure 2K–M). These results indicate
that RV can retrogradely spread to GCs which are functionally connected with starter PCs,
confirming the capability of RV to trace monosynaptic inputs in larval zebrafish.

Time window for normal neuronal health after RV infection
In sum, we have identified the optimal conditions for efficient retrograde monosynaptic tracing in
zebrafish larvae: CVS*d*G[EnvA] trans-complemented with A-N2cG via the GAL4-UAS system at
36°C. The high efficiency of these optimal tracing conditions prompted concerns regarding the
potential cytotoxicity of CVS*d*G and CVS N2cG. In line with previous reports in mice[20], we found
lower toxicity of CVS*d*G compared with SAD*d*G. At 36°C, the survival rate of larvae infected
with CVS*d*G was significantly higher than those infected with SAD*d*G (Figure 3A; $75\% \pm 3\%$ *vs*
$52\% \pm 7\%$, $P < 0.05$). Furthermore, by using the time-lapse imaging as shown in Figure S2, we
often observed that early emerged starter cells disappeared in larvae infected with SAD*d*G (Figure
3B). As new starter cells continued to appear from 2 to 6 dpi (Figure 3C), we utilized starter cells
that emerged at 2 dpi to quantify their lifetime. Consistently, starter cells infected by CVS*d*G
survived longer than those infected by SAD*d*G (Figure 3D; 10.0 ± 0 days *vs* 7.5 ± 0.48 days, $P <$
0.001). Notably, the viability of starter cells decreased when CVS*d*G was trans-complemented
with A-N2cG (Figure 3D; 10.0 ± 0 days *vs* 8.7 ± 0.48 days, $P < 0.001$).

To further test whether the physiological functions of starter cells were impaired by CVS*d*G
trans-complemented with A-N2cG, we conducted in vivo whole-cell recordings on starter PCs at
around 10 dpi (Figure 3E, see Methods). Infected PCs exhibited normal spontaneous excitatory
postsynaptic currents and potentials (sEPSCs and sEPSPs), and current injection-evoked firing
patterns (Figures 3F,G)[40]. Then we examined Ca^{2+} activity of infected (i.e., starter cells) and
uninfected PCs (i.e., non-starter cells) in response to complex visual stimulation[41] (see Methods).
No significant differences were detected between starter and non-starter PCs (Figure 3H–L).
Taken together, these results indicate that under the optimal tracing conditions, infected neurons
can remain relatively healthy up to 10 days after infection in larval zebrafish, allowing for
functional probing of traced neural circuits.

Input cell-type-specific tracing and circuit reconstruction in the cerebellum

One important application of neural circuit tracing is to map the structural connectivity of specific
neuron types to build the brain connectome atlas. As shown above, even under the optimal tracing
conditions, glia still constituted around 47% on average of the traced cells (see Figure 2C,E). This
will certainly affect the discrimination of traced neurons and their neural fibers. To confine
retrograde tracing to neurons instead of glia, we generated a Cre-Switch[42] transgenic reporter fish
Tg(elavl3:Tetoff-DO_DIO-Hsa.H2B-mTagBFP2_tdTomato-CAAX). This reporter expresses
pan-neuronally nuclear-localized blue fluorescent protein (mTagBFP2) by default, which serves as
a reference for image registration and data integration. It also achieves Cre-dependent neuron-
specific labeling with tdTomato-CAAX via the *elavl3* promoter (Figure 4A, see Methods). We
employed this reporter together with Cre-expressing CVS*d*G (CVS*d*G-Cre[EnvA]) to map
neuronal inputs to PCs in the cerebellum (Figure 4B). The transgenic labeling of traced neurons
showed much brighter and sharper fluorescence compared with virus-assisted labeling (Figure 4C).
Among all 13 fish examined, we detected tdTomato-CAAX signals exclusively in neurons without
any labeling of glia (Figure 4C), facilitating the reconstruction of traced neural circuits (Figure
4D). We noticed a relatively lower tracing efficiency of this Cre-dependent tracing system
(Figures 4C, 2C; CI_{neuron}: 5.20 ± 1.09 *vs* 11.61 ± 2.43). Efforts are underway to enhance the
completeness of transgene expression and improve the efficiency of Cre-mediated recombination.
To demonstrate the feasibility of our tracing system in building and analyzing brain input
maps, we then generated a three-dimensional (3D) reference template brain from the transgenic
reporter fish at 17 dpf (see Methods). To incorporate cerebellar expression patterns, we generated
the transgenic lines *Tg(2×en.cpce:tdTomato-CAAX)* and *Tg(cbln12:GAL4FF)* to label PCs and
GCs, respectively. By utilizing H2B-mTagBFP2 expression in the reporter fish as a bridge, we
mapped the two cerebellar expression patterns and circuit tracing results of 13 fish mentioned
above onto the common coordinate space of the reference template (Figure 4B,E, see Methods).
We delineated the cerebellar brain area and reconstructed each starter PC (n = 24) and its input
GCs (n = 58) with clearly visible morphology (Figure 4E,F), resulting in a digital cellular-
resolution input atlas of cerebellar PCs (Figure 4F).
This input atlas clearly shows an ipsilateral preference of afferents from GCs to PCs (Figure
4G), which was in accordance with the summarized results of non-Cre-dependent viral tracing
data (Figures 4H and 2C,D). Interestingly, all reconstructed GCs also innervated contralaterally by
crossing the midline. We found two morphological subtypes for both GCs and PCs in the
reconstruction, and each included one local subtype with axonal projections within the cerebellar
area and one long projection subtype with axons extending caudally to the dorsal hindbrain
(Figure 4I). This classification of GC subtypes (GC1 and GC2) is consistent with previous
studies[37,43,44]: GC1 corresponds to rostromedial GCs with T-shaped axons and somata located in
the valvula cerebelli (Va) and corpus cerebelli (CCe), whereas GC2 corresponds to caudolateral
GCs that project to the dorsal hindbrain and innervate crest cells, with somata in the eminentia
granularis (EG) and lobus caudalis cerebelli (LCa). Interestingly, although a single PC can receive
inputs from the two subtypes of GCs (Figure 4J), the two subtypes of PCs prefer inputs from
different subtypes of GCs (Figure 4K,L). These results demonstrate how cellular-level
connectivity can advance our understanding of circuit wiring patterns.
Together, the development of the Cre-dependent tracing tool empowers the RV*d*G-based
circuit tracing method, enabling input-specific tracing, cellular-level circuit reconstruction, and

integrated mapping and analysis of afferent connections in larval zebrafish.

Discussion
Understanding brain functions requires systematic dissection of the involved neural circuits. Here,
we developed a highly feasible and efficient implementation of the viral tracing tool RV*d*G[EnvA]
for circuit studies in larval zebrafish (Figure 1–4—table supplement 1). Through step-by-step
improvement, we identified an optimal tracing condition for larval zebrafish, which includes the
CVS*d*G strain, the native G protein of the CVS (i.e., N2cG), an enhanced expression system for
the G protein, and elevated rearing temperature. Our method exhibited a 20-fold increase in
tracing efficiency compared to previous studies in adult zebrafish[26,27], and demonstrated low
cytotoxicity. Moreover, we established a custom-designed transgenic reporter framework, which
enables genetic access to specific input cell types and allows for cellular-resolution reconstruction
and alignment of traced circuits. We demonstrated the application of this framework to decipher
cell-type specific connections from GCs to PCs in the cerebellum.

Helper protein expression design that guarantees high feasibility of the tracing method
Precise spatial control of helper protein expression (i.e. TVA and G) in starter cells is critical for
the application of RV*d*G[EnvA]-based circuit tracing. In zebrafish, previous studies expressed
these proteins through generating transgenic fish lines[26,27] or injecting helper viral vectors[27,29,30].
Both strategies allow genetic targeting of specific neuronal types or populations via the GAL4-
UAS system. However, transgenic expression typically labels the majority of the targeted neuron
type, often distributed across multiple brain regions. Viral delivery can provide regional specificity,
but achieving precise targeting in the compact larval zebrafish brain remains technically
challenging. Our method employs the transient transgene technique in zebrafish to express helper
proteins. This involves temporarily introducing GAL4-UAS binary DNA plasmids into the fish's
genome through microinjection into fertilized eggs (see Figures 1A and 2A). It enables sparse
expression of TVA and G in genetically defined cell types, even in a single neuron. Tracing from a
single neuron can help cell-subtype-specific circuit dissection.
Furthermore, we linked the two helper protein genes with the 2A element to co-express TVA
and G in the same neuron (see Figures 1A and 2A). Co-expression guarantees that the tracing is
monosynaptically restricted. If G is expressed in neurons lacking TVA and a fluorescent indicator,
these cells may act as input cells for the initially infected starter cells, resulting in further trans-
complementation and spread of RV*d*G across the second and even more synaptic steps[32]. Previous
studies expressed TVA and G separately, either using two transgenic lines or dual viral vectors[26,27],
raising the risk of their expression in different neurons and potentially compromising
monosynaptic specificity.
On the other hand, our helper protein expression strategy is also compatible with multi-
synaptic circuit tracing. By combining sparse, cell-type-specific helper expression with an EnvA-
pseudotyped, glycoprotein-competent rabies virus and time-lapse imaging, multi-step trans-
synaptic spread can be monitored within individual animals. Assuming a consistent temporal delay
between successive rounds of viral transmission, this approach may enable the temporal resolution
of successive higher-order presynaptic populations based on their sequential emergence over time.
Our study demonstrated that the transient expression of helper proteins effectively facilitates
subsequent viral infection and trans-complementation, offering a time-efficient and cost-effective

alternative to generating stable transgenic lines. It also addresses the potential cytotoxicity effects
associated with the use of helper viral vectors. With commercially available recombinant RV tools,
our method can be easily implemented by zebrafish research laboratories using three commonly
used techniques: plasmid construction, microinjection (with DNA constructs and recombinant RV
injected 3–6 day apart), and live optical imaging. Additional enhancements for the helper plasmid
could include the implementation of light-responsive inducible systems[45] to achieve both temporal
and spatial control of helper protein expression.

Key factors that influence tracing efficiency

To enhance RVdG tracing efficiency, we introduced the CVS-N2c rabies strain in zebrafish for the
first time. It has been reported that the CVS-N2c strain exhibits significantly higher tracing
efficiency in mice compared to the SAD-B19 strain, with an improvement of almost tenfold[20]. In
zebrafish larvae, CVSdG, when trans-complemented with its native N2cG, also showed an
average increase close to tenfold compared to SADdG trans-complemented with its native B19G
(see Figure 2D and Figure 1,2—table supplement 1, CI$_{neuron}$). This improvement may be attributed
to the reduced replication and protein expression of the CVS-N2c[20]. This could result in decreased
toxicity to host cells, longer reproductive times, and ultimately higher spread efficiency.
Consistently, in zebrafish larvae, we found that neurons infected with CVS-N2c displayed lower
fluorescence intensity and longer survival times compared to those infected with SAD-B19.
Notably, N2cG exhibited higher tracing efficiency than B19G when they were used to trans-
complement the same CVSdG (see Figure 2D and Figure 1,2—table supplement 1). This could be
attributed to the greater neurotropism of N2cG compared to B19G, or potential mismatches
between the cytoplasmic domain of B19G and the CVS-N2c capsid. Further investigation into the
impact of different G proteins on RVdG tracing efficiency in zebrafish would benefit from the
construction of chimeric G proteins for comparison[46].

Besides the virus strain, temperature also plays a pivotal role. Under the optimal temperature
for virus replication at 36°C, the tracing efficiency of CVS-N2c increased more than tenfold in
comparison with that under the standard rearing temperature for zebrafish at 28°C. This effect was
more pronounced for SAD-B19, showing an increase of over 80 times (see Figure 2D and Figure
1,2—table supplement 1). Importantly, no significant increase in mortality or behavioral
abnormalities was observed in either non-injected or virus-injected larvae maintained at elevated
temperatures. In virus-injected (CVS-N2c) larvae, survival rates decreased slightly from 100% to
~80% at both 28°C and 36°C, likely due to electrode insertion-related injury rather than
temperature-dependent toxicity. Virus-injected larvae could be maintained at 36°C for over a
month without adverse consequences, indicating that elevated temperature is well tolerated. This
is consistent with a previous report showing no temperature-dependent effects on various
behaviors in adult zebrafish between 28°C and 36°C[27].

The expression level of G proteins is another determinant for efficient rabies tracing[46].
Building upon the codon optimization of the G protein, we further increased the expression of
N2cG by inserting the Tetoff element upstream of the N2cG gene (A-N2cG) in the UAS helper
plasmid (see Figure 2-figure supplement 1F, Figure 2D and Figure 1,2—table supplement 1). This
integration enables dual amplification of N2cG and TVA expression by both the GAL4-UAS and
tTA-TRE binary systems. Combining the three key optimal conditions: CVS-N2c strain, 36°C
temperature, and A-N2cG, we have achieved the highest tracing efficiency in zebrafish to date,

with a 20-fold increase compared to previous reports[27].

To assess the efficacy of our trans-synaptic labeling relative to endogenous connectivity, we
quantified PC, GC, and IOC populations based on transgenic labeling in *Tg(2×en.cpce-*
E1B:tdTomato-CAAX), Tg(cbln12:GAL4FF);Tg(5×UAS:EGFP), and *Tg(elavl3:H2B-GCaMP6s)*
lines, respectively. At ~7 dpf, we counted approximately 330 PCs, 2300 GCs, and 330 IOCs in
fish brain. Considering developmental scaling and anatomical constraints (e.g., a subset of GCs
project exclusively ipsilaterally), we estimate that by 10–14 dpf, a single PC receives ~1000–2000
GC inputs. The IOC-PC connectivity is primarily one-to-one[47,48].

Under optimal tracing conditions, we labeled an average of ~20 GC inputs per PC (~1–2%
capture rate) and observed IOC labeling in 7 of 248 starter PCs (~3%). While the capture
efficiency is modest, it aligns with values reported in mammalian systems[32,49]. Nevertheless, this
indicates inherent limitations of rabies virus-based circuit tracing in zebrafish. Fundamentally
addressing this limitation may require the development of viral tracing tools engineered from
viruses that naturally infect fish[50].

Monosynaptic specificity of the tracing

Employing the cerebellar circuit as a model, we examined the complete pattern of traced neurons
from PCs in larval zebrafish, and found that CVS*d*G was able to trace well-known presynaptic
neurons of PCs, including both intra-cerebellar GCs and extra-cerebellar IOCs (see Figure 2G–I).
Importantly, IOCs were the only labeled cells outside of the cerebellum, even after extended
periods allowing for viral spread, demonstrating the retrograde and monosynaptic specificity of
the rabies viral tracer in the zebrafish brain.

We further provided functional evidence that CVS*d*G, even at its highest efficiency with A-
N2cG, spreads retrogradely between neurons through synaptic connections (see Figure 2J–M). In
all experiments involving the successful activation of PCs in response to electrical stimulation of
single GCs, we consistently did not observe PC activation after ablating the GCs. In addition, as
shown in Figure 2L, calcium imaging at 5 Hz revealed PC responses with an average latency of
152 ± 35 ms (mean $\pm$ SEM), indicative of immediate and likely monosynaptic activation. Together
with the anatomical tracing data, these findings provide strong evidence that CVS*d*G spreads
retrogradely and monosynaptically from postsynaptic PCs to functionally connected presynaptic
GCs.

Transneuronal labeling of glial cells

Transneuronal labeling of radial glia mediated by VSV, a member of the Rhabdoviridae family
like RV, has been commonly observed in larval zebrafish[29,30]. In our experiments, labeled radial
glia were consistently located near the somata and dendrites of starter neurons (see Figure 1D). In
zebrafish, radial glia—also referred to as radial astroglia—are considered functional equivalents of
mammalian astrocytes. These cells are known to participate in tripartite synapses and may express
endogenous receptors capable of mediating RV*d*G uptake at postsynaptic sites. This anatomical
proximity suggests that rabies-based trans-synaptic tracing could not only resolve neuronal
connectivity but also identify glial populations that are synaptically associated and functionally
coupled to defined neuronal targets. Leveraging this feature offers a promising strategy for
investigating neuron–glia interactions in vivo.

Glial labeling typically emerged around 2 dpi and increased over time; however, the rate of
labeling plateaued or declined during the late phase (6–10 dpi), in contrast to the continued

increase in neuronal labeling (see Figure 2—figure supplement C, G). This divergence was

quantified using a labeling rate index, calculated as R_{glia} - R_{neuron}, which shifted from 0.87 to

−0.80 between the early (2–6 dpi) and late (6–10 dpi) phases. Moreover, glial labeling observed at

2 or 4 dpi was largely diminished by 6 dpi (~11 dpf), regardless of onset timing. This age-

dependent, rather than duration-dependent, decline is consistent with a model of abortive infection,

in which the host's innate antiviral responses suppress viral replication, preventing progeny virion

production and resulting in the eventual loss of reporter expression[51]. Supporting this

interpretation, we did not observe punctate fluorescent debris characteristic of apoptotic cell death,

suggesting that fluorescence loss reflects functional silencing of viral gene expression rather than

glial degeneration. These findings imply that abortive infection becomes more prominent with

larval maturation, potentially accounting for the negligible glial labeling observed in adult

zebrafish[26,27].

Notably, the eventual disappearance of glial fluorescence does not indicate a lack of initial

viral entry. Glial infection likely competes with neuronal infection for viral particles, thereby

reducing neuronal tracing efficiency. Future studies should elucidate the molecular mechanisms

underlying glial susceptibility—particularly receptor-mediated viral entry at synaptic sites.

Targeted suppression of viral receptors in glial cells may help minimize off-target labeling and

enhance the efficiency of neuronal circuit tracing.

Low cytotoxicity that enables functional experiments in a wide time window

We found that the CVS-N2c strain did not significantly affect the neuronal health and physiology

of starter cells for at least 10 days after infection (see Figure 3D–L). Meanwhile, consistent with

previous reports in mice[20], the SAD-B19 strain exhibited higher cytotoxicity than CVS-N2c,

resulting in more cell death of starter cells (see Figure 3D). It indicates that CVS-N2c is more

suitable for application in zebrafish. We could observe the labeling of starter cells even one month

later after CVS-N2c infection, and the infected zebrafish could be raised to adulthood.

A potential concern is whether viral titer or injection volume contributes to cytotoxicity.

However, RVdG-EnvA infection generally occurs at a rate of one viral particle per cell[52],

indicating that a higher viral dose does not proportionally increase the viral load per infected cell,

and is therefore unlikely to enhance tracing efficiency or aggravate cytotoxicity at the single-cell

level. Consistently, in our experiments, increasing the injection volume up to 20 nL had no

detectable effect on starter cell survival.

The enhanced G protein expression achieved through the introduction of the Tetoff element

(i.e. A-N2cG) in the helper plasmid improved tracing efficiency, but also resulted in elevated

levels of cytotoxicity, though lower than that induced by SAD-B19 (see Figure 3D). This indicates

an association between the expression levels of G proteins and cytotoxicity[53,54]. Given the

transferred RV is deficient in G, it is expected that retrogradely infected input cells will have lower

cytotoxicity levels than starter cells. Therefore, input cells will survive for longer periods of time.

Based on our experience, the CVS-N2c can be microinjected into zebrafish larvae between 3

and 6 dpf, and stable and viable labeling of traced circuits can be observed within 6 to 16 dpi.

Therefore, the observation time window ranges from 9 to 22 dpf, spanning the larval ages

commonly used for whole-brain functional imaging studies[14,55].

Functions and expandability of the transgenic framework

In the transgenic reporter framework (i.e. *elavl3DoDioBR*) (see Figure 4A), we designed three
expansion motifs: 1) a promoter (*elavl3*) motif that allows genetic access to the expression of
reporter cassettes in specific cell types, e.g. the *vglut2a* and *gad1b* gene promoters to restrict
excitatory and inhibitory targeting, respectively; 2) a Cre-dependent "Switch-On" reporter
(tdTomato-CAAX) motif that allows the expression of various structural and functional tools in
traced neurons after viral spread, such as photoconvertible fluorescent proteins and optogenetic
tools; 3) a Cre-dependent "Switch-Off" reporter (H2B-mTagBFP2) motif that allows a default
reporter to be turned off specifically in infected neurons. In addition, the helper plasmid can serve
as an additional expansion motif that works together with the Cre-dependent transgenic reporter,
allowing for full genetic visualization and dissection of neural circuits[15].

In this study, we used the *elavl3* promoter to restrict the fluorescence reporter to neurons and
the "Switch-On" reporter tdTomato-CAAX to label the membrane of traced neurons. This enables
clear neuron morphology labeling (see Figure 4C), facilitating the reconstruction of traced neural
circuits based on single-neuron morphology. We used H2B-mTagBFP2 as the default "Switch-Off"
reporter to provide a reference expression pattern for registering and integrating traced circuit
images from different individual fish and experiments. As an application demonstration, we
applied the transgenic framework to map the monosynaptic inputs to PCs from GCs in the
cerebellum of larval zebrafish at ~ 2.5 weeks old (see Figure 4). Interestedly, we uncovered two
properties of the cerebellar circuit: 1) the ipsilateral preference of GC-to-PC connections; 2) the
subtype specificity of GC-to-PC connections. Further investigation is required to elucidate the
functional implications of subtype-specific GC-to-PC connections and the apparent contradiction
between the bilateral projection of GC parallel fibers and the GCs' preference for ipsilateral
connections to PCs. The reference expression pattern can serve as a reference atlas to integrate
other modal data from brain-wide images with information on gene expression, neurochemistry
and neuronal activity. This will largely enhance our understanding of neural wiring patterns in
relation to other neural characteristics[56].

Conclusion
Our study established an applicable and effective viral circuit tracing system for larval zebrafish.
We believe that this tracing system will offer an avenue for the integrated structural and functional
dissection of neural circuits underlying a wide range of brain functions in larval zebrafish.
434

Methods

Animals

Adult zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) were reared under standard laboratory conditions, with temperatures set at 28°C, and a light/dark cycle of 14 hr/10 hr. The larval zebrafish used were in *nacre* background (transparent strain with no melanophore pigmentation) and at 3–21 dpf. The sex of the larvae at this stage is not determined. All experimental procedures were approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee of the Center for Excellence in Brain Science and Intelligence Technology (CEBSIT), Chinese Academy of Sciences (NA-046-2023).

Generation of DNA constructs and transgenic lines

The GAL4-UAS binary plasmids were applied to express fluorescent protein, TVA protein, and viral G in specific neuronal types. To randomly target neurons, we used *elavl3:GAL4-VP16*[57]. To target Purkinje cells (PCs), we generated a construct to drive the *GAL4FF* under the control of *cpce* (*ca8* promoter derived PC-specific enhancer element) fused to *E1B*[39]. The *cpce* sequence was PCR-amplified from the zebrafish genome DNA, and the *cpce-E1B:GAL4FF* was flanked by a minimal *Tol2* transposase recognition sites[58]. We generated seven helper plasmids (abbreviated names are in parentheses): *14×UAS-E1B:EGFP-P2A-TVA* (*UGT*), *14×UAS-E1B:EGFP-P2A-TVA-T2A-B19G* (*UGTB*), *14×UAS-E1B/5×UAS-hsp:EGFP-P2A-B19G-T2A-TVA* (*UGBT*, the *14×* and *5×UGBT* were used with *elavl3:GAL4-VP16* and *cpce-E1B:GAL4FF*, respectively), *5×UAS-hsp:sfGFP-P2A-N2cG-P2A-TVA* (*UGNT*), *5×UAS-hsp:sfGFP-P2A-Tetoff-N2cG-P2A-TVA* (*UGNT-A*), and *5×UAS-hsp:GCaMP6s-P2A-Tetoff-N2cG-P2A-TVA* (*UG6sNT-A*). The *sfGFP*, *N2cG*, *B19G*, *TVA*, and *Tetoff* were codon optimized for zebrafish and *de novo* synthesized; the *GCaMP6s* was PCR-amplified from *elavl3:GCaMP6s* plasmid (gift from M. B. Ahrens, Janelia Research Campus, USA). All these elements were sequentially assembled with 2A sequences and the linearized *miniTol2-UAS* backbone to generate polycistronic vectors through In-Fusion cloning. Sparse expression of helper proteins was achieved by the microinjection of a mixture (1 nl) of *elavl3* or *cpce*-driven GAL4 plasmid, UAS-driven helper plasmid, and *Tol2* transposase mRNA into one-cell stage zebrafish embryos at a concentration of 30 (10+10+10) ng/µl using an air-puffed pressure injector (MPPI-3, ASI).

To generate *Tg(2×en.cpce-E1B:tdTomato-CAAX)*, we created a construct to drive *tdTomato* with a 3' membrane tag encoding the *CAAX* box of human Harvey Ras (*CTGAACCCTCCTGATGAGAGTGGCCCCGGCTGCATGAGCTGCAAGTGTGTGCTCTCC*) under the control of two tandem *cpce* fused to E1B. To generate *Tg(cbln12:GAL4FF)* for labeling granule cells (GCs) in the cerebellum, we amplified a ~2-kbp regulatory element from zebrafish genome DNA by PCR for the *cbln12* (*cerebellin12*) gene and subcloned it into the linearized *miniTol2-GAL4FF* backbone. To generate *elavl3DoDioBR*, we first *de novo* synthesized a zebrafish codon-optimized *mTagBFP2* and constructed an intermediate plasmid containing *Tetoff-DO_DIO-Hsa.H2B-mTagBFP2_tdTomato-CAAX* using In-Fusion cloning. Subsequently, we subcloned this target fragment into the linearized mini*Tol2-elavl3* backbone to generate the final vector. Transgenic zebrafish were prepared using the *Tol2* transposase-based approach. Purified target plasmid DNA was microinjected with the *Tol2* transposase mRNA into one-cell stage zebrafish embryos at a concentration of 60 (30+30) ng/µl. Injected embryos were raised to sexual maturity to identify founder fish. The *Tg(cbln12:GAL4FF)* was crossed with *Tg(5×UAS:EGFP)* to

477 visualize GCs.

Production of EnvA-pseudotyped rabies virus

The EnvA-pseudotyped rabies viruses (RV), including SADdG-mCherry[EnvA], CVSdG-
tdTomato[EnvA], and CVSdG-mCherry-2A-Cre[EnvA], were rescued and prepared following the
previously reported method[59,60]. Rabies vectors were prepared in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS)
and stored at –80°C in aliquots for experimental use. The injected titers were 2×10^8 infectious
units per ml (IU/ml) for SADdG-mCherry[EnvA] and CVSdG-tdTomato[EnvA], and 3×10^8
IU/ml for CVSdG-mCherry-2A-Cre[EnvA]. We found that mCherry fluorescence after CVSdG-
Cre[EnvA] infection in vivo was much weaker than that of transgenetically expressed tdTomato-
CAAX, and thus did not affect the observation and reconstruction of neuronal morphology.

Virus application

At 3–6 dpf, larvae expressing helper proteins in specific neurons were anesthetized using 0.03%
tricaine methanesulfonate (MS-222) and mounted laterally in 1.0% low-melting agarose (Sigma)
on a glass-bottom dish filled with the extracellular solution consisted of (in mM): 134 NaCl, 2.9

KCl, 2.1 $CaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$, 1.2 $MgCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$, 10 HEPES, and 10 glucose (pH = 7.8, osmolality =

290 mOsm). Virus delivery was performed under a standard high-magnification upright (135×,
Nikon SMZ18) or inverted fluorescence microscope (200×, Olympus IX51), enabling clear
visualization of target neurons labeled with sfGFP or GCaMP6s. Approximately 2–5 nl of virus
suspension was injected adjacent to the cells of interest in one hemisphere using a glass
micropipette with a ~10 µm tip diameter. The micropipette was held by a microinjector
(Nanoliter2010, WPI) and positioned using a motorized manipulator (MC1000e, Siskiyou) to
ensure accurate placement. Injection into the brain tissue but not ventricle was necessary to allow
the virus solution to disperse locally and reach surrounding target neurons for efficient infection.
After injection, the fish were allowed to rest for one minute before withdrawing the pipette. Then,
they were placed in standard tanks in an incubator set at temperatures of 28°C or 36°C.

Confocal and two-photon imaging

Larval fish were mounted dorsal-side up in 1.5% low-melting agarose on a custom-made chamber.
Structural live imaging of virus-injected fish and transgenic lines was conducted using an upright

confocal laser scanning microscope (FV3000, Olympus) equipped with a 20× water-immersion

objective (N.A., 0.9). Image acquisition was performed at a lateral resolution of 0.5 × 0.5 µm and

a z-step size of 1 µm. For virus-injected fish, the imaging dimension was based on the specific
region of viral infection and spread. For transgenic lines, the entire brain was imaged by multiple
volumes, which were then stitched together using a custom ImageJ (http://fiji.sc) macro based on
the Grid/Collection stitching plugin[61]. Functional Ca^{2+} imaging of PCs expressing GCaMP6s was

performed using an upright two-photon microscope (FVMPE-RS, Olympus) equipped with a 25×

water-immersion objective (N.A., 1.05) at a wavelength of 920 nm. The calcium activity was
recorded at ~5 Hz on single optical plane.

Electrical stimulation of single granule cell

Within 6 to 10 days after virus injection, larvae were paralyzed with pancuronium dibromide
(PCD, 1mM, Tocris 0693) for 1 min and then mounted in 1.5% low-melting agarose on a chamber
filled with the extracellular solution. The agarose and skin over the caudal side of the cerebellum
were removed for the access of stimulation electrodes. Stimulation microelectrodes (1 - 2 µm tip
opening) were created using borosilicate theta glass capillaries (BT-150-10, Sutter Instrument)
through a micropipette puller (P-97, Sutter Instrument). Then a silver wire was inserted into the
electrode filled with the extracellular solution. The electrode was positioned at and attached to the
cell body of the target GC, which was identified by the fluorescence and morphology using
confocal imaging. The stimulation was delivered by a flexible stimulus isolator (ISO-Flex, AMPI),
consisting of 5 pulse trains (6 - 8 V, 10 ms duration for one pulse, 10 pulses, 50 Hz) with inter-trial
intervals of 40 s. The electrical stimulation of single GC was synchronized with the Ca^{2+} imaging
of PCs by a stimulator (Master-8, AMPI).

Two-photon laser-based ablation of granule cells
A two-photon laser (795 nm) was used to ablate the GC after electrical stimulation. Confirmation
of a successful ablation involved the identification of a bulb-like structure in the bright-field image
and the absence of the tdTomato fluorescence signal from the targeted GC body. The efficiency of
the ablation was further validated one hour later, before performing post hoc electrical stimulation
at the same position using the bulb-like structure and adjacent fluorescent cells as references.

In vivo whole-cell recording of Purkinje cells
Within 6 to 15 days after virus injection, larvae were paralyzed with α-bungarotoxin (1mM) for 1
min, then mounted in 1.5% low-melting agarose on a chamber filled with the extracellular solution.
The agarose and skin over the caudal side of the cerebellum were removed for the access of
recording pipettes. A recording micropipette (15 - 20 MΩ, 1 - 1.5 µm tip opening) filled with
internal solution was approached to the target PC by a motorized micromanipulator (MP-225,
Sutter Instruments). The internal solution consisted of (in mM): 100 K-gluconate, 10 KCl, 2
$CaCl_2•2H_2O$, 2 $Mg_2•ATP$, 0.3 $GTP•Na_4$, 2 phosphocreatine, 10 EGTA, and 10 HEPES (pH = 7.4,
osmolality = 270☐mOsm). The target PC was identified by double fluorescence (sfGFP[+] and
tdTomato[+]) using confocal imaging and was recorded at whole-cell mode with similar procedures
as our previous work[6]. The EPSP recording and current-step delivery were conducted in current-
clamp mode, and the EPSC was assessed in voltage-clamp mode. Data were acquired using a
patch-clamp amplifier (MultiClamp 700B, Axon Instruments) and a digitizer (Digidata 1440A,
Axon Instruments), and signals were sampled at 10 kHz with Clampex 10.6 software (Molecular
Devices).

Visual stimulation
Larvae examined were not anesthetized and were fully embedded in low-melting agarose. Visual
stimuli were generated by a custom program written in Python and presented using an LCD screen
covered with red filter paper to avoid spectrum interference. The visual stimuli basically followed
a prior study[41]. Briefly, three trials were presented and each trial consisted of three types of stimuli
in the following order: (1) four-directional whole-field gratings in black and white (including three
forward, one backward, one leftward, and one rightward directions); (2) windmill patterns in black
and white rotating at 0.2 Hz and varying in velocity following a sine function (including six whole,
two right-half, and two left-half filed stimuli presented in alternating clockwise and

counterclockwise directions); (3) whole-field flashes of 1-second duration (alternating between
white and black, repeated 4 times). Except for the flash, each stimulus lasted 5 seconds, with a 5-
second inter-stimulus interval.

Quantification of RVdG[EnvA]-based circuit tracing

Cells were counted by manually annotating the center of their cell bodies in image stacks using the
Cell Counter plugin in ImageJ. This was done for cells showing green (sfGFP/GCaMP6s; i.e.,
infected and uninfected TVA-expressing cells), red (tdTomato/mCherry; i.e., traced input cells and
starter cells), or yellow (both green and red; i.e., initially infected starter cells) fluorescence
separately. To count the traced neurons and glia separately, we also manually identified and
marked the neurons based on their significant morphological distinctions with glia in larval
zebrafish. The number of traced glia was then calculated by subtracting the number of starter cells
and traced neurons from the total number of cells with red fluorescence. To determine virus
tracing efficiency, a convergence index (CI) was calculated as the number of traced inputs
(neurons, glia, or all) divided by the number of starter cells.

Analysis of calcium imaging data

The acquired time-lapse images were aligned first, and individual regions of interest (ROIs) were
manually circled on the averaged image. Each ROI corresponds to either a starter cell or a non-
starter cell, and the mean grayscale value within each ROI over time was represented as F. In the
electrical stimulation experiment, the baseline value F_0 was calculated as the average value of F
from a 10-second interval before each stimulus. In the visual stimulation experiment, F_0 was
calculated as the average value of F over a 30-second period preceding the stimuli. The relative
change in the intensity of each ROI was calculated using the formula $(F - F_0)/F_0$. Response
latency was defined as the time interval between the onset of electrical stimulation and the first
post-stimulus imaging frame in which $\Delta F/F_0$ exceeded the pre-stimulus baseline by more than 3×
standard deviations (SD). The area under the curve (AUC) and the number of Ca^{2+} activity events
were determined by applying a threshold of 2× SD of a 60-second baseline activity. All of the
mentioned calculations were performed using custom Python scripts.

Template generation and registration

We first generated two two-channel templates (17 dpf), *Tg(2×en.cpce:tdTomato-*
CAAX);elavl3DoDioBR and *Tg(cbln12:GAL4FF);Tg(5×UAS:EGFP);elavl3DoDioBR*, by running
a shell script antsMultivariateTemplateConstruction2.sh (-d 3 -b 1 -g 0.1 -i 10 -c 2 -j 6 -k 2 -w 1x1
-f 12x8x4x2 -s 4x3x2x1vox -q 400x200x200x20 -r 1 -n 0 -m CC -t SyN ${image-inputs}) on the
CEBSIT's Linux computing cluster using the open-source Advanced Normalization Tools (ANTs)
software[62]. Confocal images were acquired at $1 \times 1 \times 1$ μm resolution. Both templates were shape-
based average representations from 6 transgenic larvae after 7 iterations. Using normalized cross
correlation (NCC) as a metric to evaluate the registration accuracy between *elavl3DoDioBR*
templates and individual *elavl3DoDioBR* scans of larvae used for circuit tracing, we determined
the *elavl3DoDioBR* in *Tg(2×en.cpce:tdTomato-CAAX);elavl3DoDioBR* template space as the
common coordinate reference for registration. The expression pattern of
Tg(cbln12:GAL4FF);Tg(5×UAS:EGFP) and circuit tracing results were transformed into the

common coordinate space by using *elavl3DoDioBR* as a bridge. For image registration, we used
antsRegistration and antsApplyTransforms functions in ANTs, following the registration
parameters for live fish scans reported in previous work[63]. Neuron reconstructions (SWC files[64])
were aligned using antsApplyTransformsToPoints function in ANTs.

Cerebellum delineation and neuron reconstruction
The 3D cerebellum region was delineated manually using 3D Slicer software
(https://www.slicer.org/) based on the expression patterns of *elavl3DoDioBR*,
Tg(2×en.cpce:tdTomato-CAAX), and *Tg(cbln12:GAL4FF);Tg(5×UAS:EGFP)* in the common
coordinate space. The boundary delineation was performed on *elavl3DoDioBR*, assisted by
overlaying the other two patterns.
To reconstruct the morphology of neurons in virus-traced circuits, neurons expressing
membrane-bound tdTomato were semi-automatically traced using the simple neurite tracer
(SNT)[65] plugin in ImageJ. The classification of dendritic and axonal compartments of neurites was
based on structural knowledge. Neurons with low fluorescence intensity and ambiguous
morphology were excluded during reconstruction. The resulting individual neuron skeletons were
saved in SWC format. Tracings containing undistinguished several neuron skeletons were also
saved as individual SWC files. Connectivity between individual starter PCs and traced GCs was
determined by examining original confocal image stacks for clear appositions between GC axons
and PC dendrites or somata.
The co-volume rendering of template cerebellum and cerebellum region (see Figure 4E) was
performed using ParaView[66] (https://www.paraview.org). The co-visualization of the cerebellar
region and registered neuron reconstructions (see Figure 4F,I,J) was performed using custom
python scripts based on NAVis package[67] (https://github.com/navis-org/navis).

Statistics
All statistical tests and graphs were performed with GraphPad Prism or Python software. Data
normality was first examined with Shapiro-Wilk test. Comparisons between two groups with
normal and non-normal distributions were made using two-tailed unpaired Student's *t* test and
nonparametric two-tailed Mann-Whitney test, respectively. Differences between groups involving
multiple factors were analyzed using two-way ANOVA. *P* value < 0.05 achieved statistical
significance. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. The sample size and/or the number of
replicates for each experiment are reported in the text, figures or figure legends.

Acknowledgments
We are grateful to Drs. M. B. Ahrens for sharing DNA plasmids, F. Peri and K. Kawakami for
sharing zebrafish lines. We thank X.L. Shen, L. Sun, S. Li, and K. Wang for their kind help on
virus injection, calcium imaging, visual stimulation, and plasmid construction experiments,
respectively. This work was supported by STI2030-Major Projects (2021ZD0204500 and
2021ZD0204502), National Natural Science Foundation of China (32321003 and 62320106010),
and Shanghai Municipal Science and Technology Major Project (18JC1410100 and
2018SHZDZX05). X.F.D. is also supported by the Youth Innovation Promotion Association of
CAS.

Author contributions

X.F.D. and J.L.D. conceptualized and supervised the project. T.L.C. and Q.S.D. developed the methodology and designed the experiments with input from X.F.D. and J.L.D.. T.L.C. and Q.S.D. performed the experiments with input from X.W. and X.D.Z.. X.D.Z. created the cerebellum-related transgenic fish. K.Z.L. produced the rabies viruses under the supervision of F.Q.X.. T.L.C. analyzed data and made the illustrations with input from Q.S.D., Y.W.Z., and X.Y.N.. Y.L. helped to establish the virus injection in zebrafish. T.L.C., Q.S.D., X.F.D., and J.L.D. wrote the manuscript.

Data availability

We have deposited the related zebrafish lines at CZRC (China Zebrafish Resource Center) and uploaded plasmid maps and sequences to Addgene. The viral vectors are available through BrainCase (Shenzhen, China). The neuron reconstructions can be downloaded at https://doi.org/10.12412/BSDC.1748509594.10001. All original code has been deposited at https://github.com/soaringdu/Proj-RVCT and is publicly available as of the date of publication. Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available upon request.

References

1. Raj, B., Farrell, J.A., Liu, J., El Kholtei, J., Carte, A.N., Navajas Acedo, J., Du, L.Y., McKenna, A., Relić, Đ., Leslie, J.M., et al. (2020). Emergence of neuronal diversity during vertebrate brain development. Neuron *108*, 1058-1074.e6.

2. Zhang, H., Wang, H., Shen, X., Jia, X., Yu, S., Qiu, X., Wang, Y., Du, J., Yan, J., and He, J. (2021). The landscape of regulatory genes in brain-wide neuronal phenotypes of a vertebrate brain. eLife *10*, e68224.

3. Shainer, I., Kuehn, E., Laurell, E., Kassar, M.A., Mokayes, N., Sherman, S., Larsch, J., Kunst, M., and Baier, H. (2023). A single-cell resolution gene expression atlas of the larval zebrafish brain. Sci. Adv. *9(8)*, eade9909.

4. Kunst, M., Laurell, E., Mokayes, N., Kramer, A., Kubo, F., Fernandes, A.M., Förster, D., Dal Maschio, M., and Baier, H. (2019). A cellular-resolution atlas of the larval zebrafish brain. Neuron *103*, 21-38.e5.

5. Svara, F., Förster, D., Kubo, F., Januszewski, M., Dal Maschio, M., Schubert, P.J., Kornfeld, J., Wanner, A.A., Laurell, E., Denk, W., et al. (2022). Automated synapse-level reconstruction of neural circuits in the larval zebrafish brain. Nat. Methods *19*, 1357–1366.

6. Mu, Y., Li, X., Zhang, B., and Du, J. (2012). Visual input modulates audiomotor function via hypothalamic dopaminergic neurons through a cooperative mechanism. Neuron *75*, 688–699.

7. Yao, Y., Li, X., Zhang, B., Yin, C., Liu, Y., Chen, W., Zeng, S., and Du, J. (2016). Visual cue-discriminative dopaminergic control of visuomotor transformation and behavior selection. Neuron *89*, 598–612.

8. Vanwalleghem, G.C., Ahrens, M.B., and Scott, E.K. (2018). Integrative whole-brain neuroscience in larval zebrafish. Curr. Opin. Neurobiol. *50*, 136–145.

9. Loring, M.D., Thomson, E.E., and Naumann, E.A. (2020). Whole-brain interactions underlying zebrafish behavior. Curr. Opin. Neurobiol. *65*, 88–99.

10. Naumann, E.A., Fitzgerald, J.E., Dunn, T.W., Rihel, J., Sompolinsky, H., and Engert, F.

(2016). From whole-brain data to functional circuit models: the zebrafish optomotor response.
Cell *167*, 947-960.e20.

11. Mu, Y., Bennett, D.V., Rubinov, M., Narayan, S., Yang, C.-T., Tanimoto, M., Mensh, B.D.,
Looger, L.L., and Ahrens, M.B. (2019). Glia Accumulate Evidence that Actions Are Futile
and Suppress Unsuccessful Behavior. Cell *178*, 27-43.e19.

12. Kappel, J.M., Förster, D., Slangewal, K., Shainer, I., Svara, F., Donovan, J.C., Sherman, S.,
Januszewski, M., Baier, H., and Larsch, J. (2022). Visual recognition of social signals by a
tectothalamic neural circuit. Nature *608*, 146–152.

13. Petrucco, L., Lavian, H., Wu, Y.K., Svara, F., Štih, V., and Portugues, R. (2023). Neural
dynamics and architecture of the heading direction circuit in zebrafish. Nat. Neurosci. *26*,
765–773.

14. Shang, C.-F., Wang, Y.-F., Zhao, M.-T., Fan, Q.-X., Zhao, S., Qian, Y., Xu, S.-J., Mu, Y., Hao,
J., and Du, J.-L. (2024). Real-time analysis of large-scale neuronal imaging enables closed-
loop investigation of neural dynamics. Nat. Neurosci. *27*, 1014–1018.

15. Luo, L., Callaway, E.M., and Svoboda, K. (2018). Genetic dissection of neural circuits: a
decade of progress. Neuron *98*, 256–281.

16. Xu, X., Holmes, T.C., Luo, M.-H., Beier, K.T., Horwitz, G.D., Zhao, F., Zeng, W., Hui, M.,
Semler, B.L., and Sandri-Goldin, R.M. (2020). Viral vectors for neural circuit mapping and
recent advances in trans-synaptic anterograde tracers. Neuron *107*, 1029–1047.

17. Nectow, A.R., and Nestler, E.J. (2020). Viral tools for neuroscience. Nat. Rev. Neurosci. *21*,
669–681.

18. Wickersham, I.R., Lyon, D.C., Barnard, R.J.O., Mori, T., Finke, S., Conzelmann, K.-K.,
Young, J.A.T., and Callaway, E.M. (2007). Monosynaptic restriction of transsynaptic tracing
from single, genetically targeted neurons. Neuron *53*, 639–647.

19. Miyamichi, K., Amat, F., Moussavi, F., Wang, C., Wickersham, I., Wall, N.R., Taniguchi, H.,
Tasic, B., Huang, Z.J., He, Z., et al. (2011). Cortical representations of olfactory input by
trans-synaptic tracing. Nature *472*, 191–196.

20. Reardon, T.R., Murray, A.J., Turi, G.F., Wirblich, C., Croce, K.R., Schnell, M.J., Jessell, T.M.,
and Losonczy, A. (2016). Rabies virus CVS-n2c ΔG strain enhances retrograde synaptic
transfer and neuronal viability. Neuron *89*, 711–724.

21. Barnard, R.J.O., Elleder, D., and Young, J.A.T. (2006). Avian sarcoma and leukosis virus-
receptor interactions: from classical genetics to novel insights into virus–cell membrane
fusion. Virology *344*, 25–29.

22. Yao, S., Wang, Q., Hirokawa, K.E., Ouellette, B., Ahmed, R., Bomben, J., Brouner, K., Casal,
L., Caldejon, S., Cho, A., et al. (2023). A whole-brain monosynaptic input connectome to
neuron classes in mouse visual cortex. Nat. Neurosci. *26*, 350–364.

23. Chatterjee, S., Sullivan, H.A., MacLennan, B.J., Xu, R., Hou, Y., Lavin, T.K., Lea, N.E.,
Michalski, J.E., Babcock, K.R., Dietrich, S., et al. (2018). Nontoxic, double-deletion-mutant
rabies viral vectors for retrograde targeting of projection neurons. Nat. Neurosci. *21*, 638–646.

24. Jin, L., Sullivan, H.A., Zhu, M., Lea, N.E., Lavin, T.K., Fu, X., Matsuyama, M., Hou, Y.,
Feng, G., and Wickersham, I.R. (2023). Third-generation rabies viral vectors allow nontoxic
retrograde targeting of projection neurons with greatly increased efficiency. Cell Rep.
Methods *3*, 100644.

25. Jin, L., Sullivan, H.A., Zhu, M., Lavin, T.K., Matsuyama, M., Fu, X., Lea, N.E., Xu, R., Hou,

Y., Rutigliani, L., et al. (2024). Long-term labeling and imaging of synaptically connected
neuronal networks in vivo using double-deletion-mutant rabies viruses. Nat. Neurosci. *27*,
373–383.

26. Dohaku, R., Yamaguchi, M., Yamamoto, N., Shimizu, T., Osakada, F., and Hibi, M. (2019).
Tracing of afferent connections in the zebrafish cerebellum using recombinant rabies virus.
Front. Neural Circuits *13*, 30.

27. Satou, C., Neve, R.L., Oyibo, H.K., Zmarz, P., Huang, K.-H., Arn Bouldoires, E., Mori, T.,
Higashijima, S., Keller, G.B., and Friedrich, R.W. (2022). A viral toolbox for conditional and
transneuronal gene expression in zebrafish. eLife *11*, e77153.

28. Mundell, N.A., Beier, K.T., Pan, Y.A., Lapan, S.W., Göz Aytürk, D., Berezovskii, V.K., Wark,
A.R., Drokhlyansky, E., Bielecki, J., Born, R.T., et al. (2015). Vesicular stomatitis virus
enables gene transfer and transsynaptic tracing in a wide range of organisms. J. Comp. Neurol.
523, 1639–1663.

29. Ma, M., Kler, S., and Pan, Y.A. (2020). Structural neural connectivity analysis in zebrafish
with restricted anterograde transneuronal viral labeling and quantitative brain mapping. Front.
Neural Circuits *13*, 85.

30. Kler, S., Ma, M., Narayan, S., Ahrens, M.B., and Pan, Y.A. (2021). Cre-dependent
anterograde transsynaptic labeling and functional imaging in zebrafish using VSV with
reduced cytotoxicity. Front. Neuroanat. *15*, 758350.

31. Federspiel, M.J., Bates, P., Young, J.A., Varmus, H.E., and Hughes, S.H. (1994). A system for
tissue-specific gene targeting: transgenic mice susceptible to subgroup a avian leukosis virus-
based retroviral vectors. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. *91*, 11241–11245.

32. Callaway, E.M., and Luo, L. (2015). Monosynaptic circuit tracing with glycoprotein-deleted
rabies viruses. J. Neurosci. *35*, 8979–8985.

33. Miyamichi, K., Shlomai-Fuchs, Y., Shu, M., Weissbourd, B.C., Luo, L., and Mizrahi, A.
(2013). Dissecting local circuits: parvalbumin interneurons underlie broad feedback control of
olfactory bulb output. Neuron *80*, 1232–1245.

34. Liu, Z., Chen, O., Wall, J.B.J., Zheng, M., Zhou, Y., Wang, L., Ruth Vaseghi, H., Qian, L., and
Liu, J. (2017). Systematic comparison of 2A peptides for cloning multi-genes in a
polycistronic vector. Sci. Rep. *7*, 2193.

35. Marshel, J.H., Mori, T., Nielsen, K.J., and Callaway, E.M. (2010). Targeting single neuronal
networks for gene expression and cell labeling in vivo. Neuron *67*, 562–574.

36. Beier, K.T. (2021). The Serendipity of Viral Trans-Neuronal Specificity: More Than Meets
the Eye. Front. Cell. Neurosci. *15*, 720807.

37. Bae, Y.-K., Kani, S., Shimizu, T., Tanabe, K., Nojima, H., Kimura, Y., Higashijima, S., and
Hibi, M. (2009). Anatomy of zebrafish cerebellum and screen for mutations affecting its
development. Dev. Biol. *330*, 406–426.

38. Hibi, M., and Shimizu, T. (2012). Development of the cerebellum and cerebellar neural
circuits. Dev. Neurobiol. *72*, 282–301.

39. Namikawa, K., Dorigo, A., Zagrebelsky, M., Russo, G., Kirmann, T., Fahr, W., Dübel, S.,
Korte, M., and Köster, R.W. (2019). Modeling neurodegenerative spinocerebellar ataxia type
13 in zebrafish using a purkinje neuron specific tunable coexpression system. J. Neurosci. *39*,
3948–3969.

40. Sengupta, M., and Thirumalai, V. (2015). AMPA receptor mediated synaptic excitation drives

state-dependent bursting in purkinje neurons of zebrafish larvae. eLife *4*, e09158.

41. Knogler, L.D., Kist, A.M., and Portugues, R. (2019). Motor context dominates output from
purkinje cell functional regions during reflexive visuomotor behaviours. eLife *8*, e42138.

42. Saunders, A., Johnson, C., and Sabatini, B. (2012). Novel recombinant adeno-associated
viruses for cre activated and inactivated transgene expression in neurons. Front. Neural
Circuits *6*, 47.

43. Takeuchi, M., Yamaguchi, S., Yonemura, S., Kakiguchi, K., Sato, Y., Higashiyama, T.,
Shimizu, T., and Hibi, M. (2015). Type IV collagen controls the axogenesis of cerebellar
granule cells by regulating basement membrane integrity in zebrafish. PLOS Genet. *11*,
e1005587.

44. Matsui, H., Namikawa, K., Babaryka, A., and Koster, R.W. (2014). Functional regionalization
of the teleost cerebellum analyzed in vivo. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. *111*, 11846–11851.

45. Morikawa, K., Furuhashi, K., de Sena-Tomas, C., Garcia-Garcia, A.L., Bekdash, R., Klein,
A.D., Gallerani, N., Yamamoto, H.E., Park, S.-H.E., Collins, G.S., et al. (2020).
Photoactivatable Cre recombinase 3.0 for in vivo mouse applications. Nat. Commun. *11*, 2141.

46. Kim, E.J., Jacobs, M.W., Ito-Cole, T., and Callaway, E.M. (2016). Improved Monosynaptic
Neural Circuit Tracing Using Engineered Rabies Virus Glycoproteins. Cell Rep. *15*, 692–699.

47. Hsieh, J.-Y., Ulrich, B., Issa, F.A., Wan, J., and Papazian, D.M. (2014). Rapid development of
Purkinje cell excitability, functional cerebellar circuit, and afferent sensory input to
cerebellum in zebrafish. Front. Neural Circuits *8*.

48. Hamling, K., Tobias, Z., and Weissman, T. (2015). Mapping the development of cerebellar
Purkinje cells in zebrafish. Dev. Neurobiol. *75*.

49. Wall, N.R., Wickersham, I.R., Cetin, A., De La Parra, M., and Callaway, E.M. (2010).
Monosynaptic circuit tracing in vivo through Cre-dependent targeting and complementation
of modified rabies virus. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. *107*, 21848–21853.

50. Lei, Y., Xiong, Y., Tao, D., Wang, T., Chen, T., Du, X., Cao, G., Tu, J., and Dai, J. (2022).
Construction of attenuated strains for red-spotted grouper nervous necrosis virus (RGNNV)
via reverse genetic system. Viruses *14*, 1737.

51. Tian, B., Zhou, M., Yang, Y., Yu, L., Luo, Z., Tian, D., Wang, K., Cui, M., Chen, H., Fu, Z.F.,
et al. (2018). Lab-Attenuated Rabies Virus Causes Abortive Infection and Induces Cytokine
Expression in Astrocytes by Activating Mitochondrial Antiviral-Signaling Protein Signaling
Pathway. Front. Immunol. *8*, 2011.

52. Zhang, A., Jin, L., Yao, S., Matsuyama, M., van Velthoven, C.T., Sullivan, H.A., Sun, N.,
Kellis, M., Tasic, B., Wickersham, I., et al. (2024). Rabies virus-based barcoded
neuroanatomy resolved by single-cell RNA and in situ sequencing. eLife *12*, RP87866.

53. Faber, M., Pulmanausahakul, R., Hodawadekar, S.S., Spitsin, S., McGettigan, J.P., Schnell,
M.J., and Dietzschold, B. (2002). Overexpression of the rabies virus glycoprotein results in
enhancement of apoptosis and antiviral immune response. J. Virol. *76*, 3374–3381.

54. Ohara, S., Sato, S., Oyama, K., Tsutsui, K.-I., and Iijima, T. (2013). Rabies virus vector
transgene expression level and cytotoxicity improvement induced by deletion of glycoprotein
gene. PLoS One *8*, e80245.

55. Cong, L., Wang, Z., Chai, Y., Hang, W., Shang, C., Yang, W., Bai, L., Du, J., Wang, K., and
Wen, Q. (2017). Rapid whole brain imaging of neural activity in freely behaving larval
zebrafish (danio rerio). eLife *6*, e28158.

56. Leergaard, T.B., and Bjaalie, J.G. (2022). Atlas-based data integration for mapping the
connections and architecture of the brain. Science *378*, 488–492.

57. Du, X., Xu, B., Zhang, Y., Chen, M., and Du, J. (2018). A transgenic zebrafish model for in
vivo long-term imaging of retinotectal synaptogenesis. Sci. Rep. *8*, 14077.

58. Kawakami, K. (2005). Transposon tools and methods in zebrafish. Dev. Dyn. *234*, 244–254.

59. Osakada, F., and Callaway, E.M. (2013). Design and generation of recombinant rabies virus
vectors. Nat. Protoc. *8*, 1583–1601.

60. Lin, K.-Z., Li, L., Ma, W.-Y., Yang, X., Han, Z.-P., Luo, N.-S., Wang, J., and Xu, F.-Q. (2022).
A rabies virus– based toolkit for efficient retrograde labeling and monosynaptic tracing.
Neural Regen. Res. *0*, 0.

61. Preibisch, S., Saalfeld, S., and Tomancak, P. (2009). Globally optimal stitching of tiled 3D
microscopic image acquisitions. Bioinformatics *25*, 1463–1465.

62. Avants, B.B., Yushkevich, P., Pluta, J., Minkoff, D., Korczykowski, M., Detre, J., and Gee,
J.C. (2010). The optimal template effect in hippocampus studies of diseased populations.
Neuroimage *49*, 2457–2466.

63. Marquart, G.D., Tabor, K.M., Horstick, E.J., Brown, M., Geoca, A.K., Polys, N.F., Nogare,
D.D., and Burgess, H.A. (2017). High-precision registration between zebrafish brain atlases
using symmetric diffeomorphic normalization. GigaScience *6*.

64. Cannon, R.C., Turner, D.A., Pyapali, G.K., and Wheal, H.V. (1998). An on-line archive of
reconstructed hippocampal neurons. J. Neurosci. Methods *84*, 49–54.

65. Arshadi, C., Günther, U., Eddison, M., Harrington, K.I.S., and Ferreira, T.A. (2021). SNT: a
unifying toolbox for quantification of neuronal anatomy. Nat. Methods *18*, 374–377.

66. Ahrens, J., Geveci, B., and Law, C. (2005). ParaView: An End-User Tool for Large-Data
Visualization. In Visualization Handbook (Elsevier), pp. 717–731.

67. Schlegel, P., Barnes, C., Champion, A., Dokato, Jagannathan, S., Court, R., Pedigo, B.,
Newstein, P., Azatian, Y., and Antonio (2023). Navis-org/navis: version 1.5.0. Version v1.5.0
(Zenodo).

838
839

Figures

Figure 1. Implementation of RV*d*G[EnvA]-based neural circuit tracing in larval zebrafish

(A) Schematic of the method used to implement RV*d*G[EnvA]-based circuit tracing from genetically defined cell types in larval zebrafish. Virus injections were carried out at 3–5 dpf; exact age for individual animals are listed in Figure 1—table supplement 2.

(B) Schematic of the three *UAS*-driven plasmids used to express the helper proteins TVA and G.

(C and D) Time-lapse confocal images of the *nacre* larval hindbrain expressing EGFP and TVA using *UGT* (C), or EGFP, TVA, and B19G using *UGTB* (D) in randomly sparse neurons (with expression of *UAS* constructs driven by the *elavl3:GAL4-VP16* plasmid) and infected by SAD*d*G-mCherry[EnvA] (magenta) injected into the hindbrain. Dashed yellow circles, starter neurons (EGFP$^+$/mCherry$^+$); arrows, transneuronally labeled neurons (red) and radial glia (gray) (mCherry$^+$/EGFP$^-$); dashed white lines, hindbrain boundaries. C, caudal; R, rostral. Scale bars, 50 μm.

(E) Plots of the numbers of starter neurons, transneuronally traced neurons and glia in each larva

expressing one of the three helper plasmids shown in (B) and injected with SAD*d*G-mCherry[EnvA]. Data was collected between 6 and 10 dpi. Numbers in brackets indicate the number of larvae examined.

(F and G) Boxplots of the convergence index for the connection of transneuronally traced neurons (F) and glia (G) to starter neurons shown in (E). Center, median; bounds of box, first and third quartiles; whiskers, minimum and maximum values.

**$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$ (nonparametric two-tailed Mann-Whitney test).

Figure 2. Optimization and verification of RV*d*G[EnvA]-based retrograde monosynaptic tracing

(A) Schematic of the method used to trace inputs to PCs with RV*d*G[EnvA] in larval zebrafish. The *cpce:GAL4FF* plasmid and one of the three *UAS* helper plasmids were injected into *nacre* fish and combined with subsequent injection of SAD*d*G-mCherry[EnvA] or CVS*d*G-tdTomato[EnvA]. Virus injections were carried out at 4–6 dpf; exact age for individual animals are listed in Figure 1,2—table supplement 2. The virus-injected larvae were raised at either 28 or 36°C, and the resulting labeling was monitored from 2 to 16 dpi.

(B) Schematic of the zebrafish cerebellar circuit related to inputs to PCs.

(C) Top, examples of in situ complementation in PCs under six tracing conditions. Confocal

images and corresponding schematic illustrations of one cerebellar hemisphere are shown. Bottom, plots of the numbers of starter neurons, transneuronally traced neurons and glia in each larva under one of the six tracing conditions at 6–10 dpi. Dashed lines, the cerebellar boundaries. CI, convergence index of traced neurons. Numbers in brackets indicate the number of larvae examined.

(D–F) CI for the connection of transneuronally traced neurons to starter PCs (D), the ratio of the number of traced neurons to that of glia (E), and the proportion of infected fish (F, 3 to 5 independent experiments) under the six tracing conditions shown in (C, bottom).

(G), Confocal image of a larva infected with CVSdG-tdTomato[EnvA] that was trans-complemented with CVS N2cG at 36°C. Dashed yellow circle, starter PC; dashed white line, the cerebellar boundary.

(H and I) Enlarged view of the boxed regions in (G), showing transneuronally traced parallel fibers of GCs (H) and two IOCs (I). Blue arrows, somata of IOCs.

(J) Schematic of the experiment for verifying the functional connection between traced GCs and the starter PC in *nacre* larvae injected with *cpce:GAL4FF* and advanced *UG6sNT-A* plasmids and infected with CVSdG-tdTomato[EnvA] at 36°C. Ca^{2+} imaging was conducted on the starter PC in response to electrical stimulation (ES) at the GC position before and after two-photon laser ablation of the GC.

(K) Representative image (top) showing both the stimulated GC and the simultaneously recorded PC. Bottom panels display the stimulated GC before (left) and after (right) two-photon laser ablation. Dashed yellow circle, recorded PC (GCaMP6s$^+$/tdTomato$^+$); dashed white circles, stimulated GC (GCaMP6s$^-$/ tdTomato$^+$).

(L) Average Ca^{2+} response (5 trials) of the same starter PC before (red) and after (black) GC ablation. The shadowed area represents SEM.

(M) Quantification of the amplitude of PC Ca^{2+} responses before and after GC ablation. The number in bracket indicate the number of GC-PC pairs examined.

Scale bars, 50 μm (C, G–I), 10 μm (K, top), 5 μm (K, bottom). SAD/CVS|B19G/N2cG/A-N2cG|28/36°C, the tracing conditions written as the G-deleted RV strain that was injected | the helper glycoprotein used for trans-complementation | fish rearing temperature after virus injection. C, caudal; L, lateral; R, rostral. Boxplots in (D and L): center, median; bounds of box, first and third quartiles; whiskers, minimum and maximum values. n.s., not-significant; *$P < 0.05$, **$P <$ 0.01, ***$P < 0.001$ (nonparametric two-tailed Mann-Whitney test in (D–F); two-tailed unpaired Student's t test in (L)). Error bars denote SEM..

Figure 3. Neuronal health and physiology appeared normal for at least 10 days after RV infection

(A) Survival rate of larvae injected with SAD*d*G-mCherry[EnvA] or CVS*d*G-tdTomato[EnvA]. Five independent experiments were repeated.

(B) Time-lapse confocal images showing a starter cell (unfilled white arrowhead) present at 2 dpi disappears by 8 dpi, and two starter cells (white arrowheads) that remain present from 2 to 8 dpi. Boxed regions are enlarged on the right. Dashed lines indicate the cerebellar boundaries.

(C) Cumulative proportion of starter cells that have appeared at 2, 4, 6 and 10 dpi to the total number of observed starter cells under the three tracing conditions, showing the continuous appearing of starter cells at 2–6 dpi. Numbers in brackets indicate the number of larvae examined. The shadowed area represents SEM.

(D) Summary of the lifetime of starter cells appeared at 2 dpi under the three tracing conditions. The color scheme follows the same conventions shown in (C). Numbers in brackets indicate the number of starter cells examined.

(E) Schematic illustration of in vivo whole-cell recording on a starter PC at 11 dpi.

(F) Example traces of spontaneous EPSCs (left) and EPSPs (right) from starter PCs.

(G) Example trace of spikes in response to current-step injection into a starter PC.

(H) Confocal image (top) and Ca^{2+} responses (bottom) of a starter PC (dashed orange circle) and non-starter PC (dashed blue circle) to visual stimuli at 10 dpi.

(I–L) Boxplots (I and J) and distributions (K and L) of Ca^{2+} activity event number (I and K) and area under curve (AUC) of Ca^{2+} activity events (J and L) of starter PCs (n = 88) and non-starter PCs (n = 127) in larvae (N = 8) at 6–10 dpi.

All tracing experimental procedures were identical to those described in Figure 2. In panels H–L,
the helper plasmid *UG6sNT-A* was used to express GCaMP6s for calcium imaging of PCs. Scale

bars, 5 µm (H), 10 µm (B), 20 µm (E). SAD/CVS|B19G/N2cG/A-N2cG|28/36°C, the tracing

conditions written as the G-deleted RV strain that was injected | the helper glycoprotein used for
trans-complementation | fish rearing temperature after virus injection. L, lateral; R, rostral.
Boxplots in (D, I and J): center, median; cross symbol, mean; bounds of box, first and third
quartiles; whiskers, minimum and maximum values. n.s., not-significant; *$P < 0.05$; ***$P < 0.001$
(two-tailed unpaired Student's *t* test). Error bars denote SEM.
940

Figure 4. Input cell-type-specific tracing and circuit reconstruction in the cerebellum

(A) A single Cre-Switch[42] transgene (*elavl3:Tetoff-DO_DIO-Hsa.H2B-mTagBFP2_tdTomato-CAAX*; abbr., *elavl3DoDioBR*) was generated to achieve a reference transgene (*elavl3:H2B-mTagBFP2*) for image registration and the Cre-dependent reporter expression (*tdTomato-CAAX*) specifically in neurons (*elavl3+*). Two ORFs flanked by two pairs of LOX sites oriented oppositely

with the activation of forward-oriented *H2B-mTagBFP2* ORF by the *elavl3* promotor in global
neurons. After Cre-expressing virus infection, Cre acts on either pair of LOX sites (LOXP (gray
triangles) or LOXP2272 (black triangles)), resulting in stable inversion of the two ORFs and the
activation of *tdTomato-CAAX* ORF by *elavl3* promotor in initially infected starter neurons and
transneuronally infected input neurons.

(B) Schematic of building PC input atlas in larval zebrafish. The *elavl3DoDioBR* reporter fish
(pan-neuronal H2B-mTagBFP2$^+$) expressing helper proteins in PCs (sfGFP$^+$/mTagBFP2$^+$) were
injected with Cre-expressing CVS*d*G[EnvA], which were trans-complemented in starter PCs and
spread to direct inputs, resulting in Cre-dependent expression of the reporter protein (tdTomato-
CAAX) in *elavl3*$^+$ starter PCs (sfGFP$^+$/tdTomato$^+$/mTagBFP2$^-$) and input GCs
(sfGFP$^-$/tdTomato$^+$/mTagBFP2$^-$). The pan-neuronally-expressing *H2B-mTagBFP2* in
elavl3DoDioBR serves as the reference and bridge for the registration of reconstructed circuits.
BCs, Bergmann glia; GCs, granule cells; PCs, Purkinje cells.

(C) Example of in situ complementation (11 dpi) in *nacre* larvae (left) and *elavl3DoDioBR*
reporter larvae (right). Both were co-injected with *cpce-GAL4FF* and *UGNT* plasmids, and
infected with CVS*d*G-tdTomato[EnvA] and CVS*d*G-Cre[EnvA], respectively. All larvae were
maintained at 36°C. In the reporter larvae, Cre-dependent tdTomato expression was confined to
neurons, driven by neuron-specific *elavl3* promoter. Confocal images (top) and corresponding
schematic illustrations (bottom) are shown. Dashed yellow circles, starter PCs; dashed lines, the
cerebellar boundaries. Black arrows indicate the reconstructed neurons shown in (D).

(D) Dorsal 3D view of the reconstructed starter PC and two input GCs. Dashed line indicates the
cerebellar boundary. The color scheme follows the same conventions as in (F).

(E) Left, single horizontal section view of *Tg(2×en.cpce-E1B:tdTomato-CAAX)* (red),

Tg(cbln12:GAL4FF);Tg(5×UAS:EGFP) (green), and *elavl3DoDioBR* (blue) templates aligned in

a common coordinate space. Right, volume rendering of the cerebellar area (dashed white rectangle
on the left) of the templates labeling PCs (red) and GCs (green) in outline of cerebellum region
(gray).

(F) Dorsal (left) and lateral (right) 3D view of reconstructed starter PCs (n = 24) and input GCs (n
= 58) in the cerebellum (gray). Different subcellular parts of PCs and GCs are color-coded. Data
were collected from 13 larvae at 10–16 dpi (15–21 dpf).

(G and H) Ipsilateral *vs* contralateral proportions of GC inputs to PCs in the left and right
cerebellum. Analysis were performed using the reconstructed data in (E) and the viral tracing data
shown in Figures 2C and 2D for (G) and (H), respectively. Numbers in brackets indicate the
number of larvae examined which only had starter PCs on one cerebellar hemisphere.

(I) Subtypes of reconstructed PCs and GCs. Two typical cells are shown for each subtype.

(J) Example showing three GCs traced from a single PC.

(K) Summed input proportion of two subtypes of GCs to two subtypes of PCs. Cases with only
one subtype of PC and clearly identifiable GCs were included. The cell numbers are as follows:
PC1, 12; PC2, 6; GC1, 19; GC2, 18.

(L) Schematic representation of subtype-specific connectivity patterns from GCs to PCs. High
saturation of color indicates a higher input strength. CCe, corpus cerebelli; EG, eminentia
granularis; LCa, lobus caudalis cerebelli; Va, valvula cerebelli.

Scale bars, 50 μm. A, anterior; C, caudal; L, lateral; R, rostral; V, ventral. Dashed vertical lines

indicate the midline of the cerebellum.

Figure 1—figure supplement 1. No infectiousness of RV*d*G[EnvA] in the absence of TVA

(A) Injection of SAD*d*G-mCherry[EnvA] into the brain of *nacre* larvae. Left, schematic; Right, time-lapse confocal images of the optic tectum of a WT larva injected with the virus.

(B) Time-lapse confocal images of the optic tectum of a *Tg(apoeb:LY-EGFP)* larva injected with SAD*d*G-mCherry[EnvA], showing the location of mCherry-positive puncta in EGFP-positive microglia.

Scale bars, 50 μm. Arrowheads, fluorescent-positive punctate structure with no discernible cellular morphology under high laser excitation; dashed lines, boundaries of the cell body layer of the optic tectum. C, caudal; R, rostral.

1001

Figure 2—figure supplement 1. Time-lapse images of trans-complemented tracing from Purkinje cells in the cerebellum under different tracing conditions

(A, B, and D–F) Time-lapse (2, 4, and 6 dpi) confocal images of in situ complementation in Purkinje cells (PCs) under tracing conditions of SAD|B19G|28°C (A), CVS|B19G|28°C (B), SAD|B19G|36°C (D), CVS|N2cG|36°C (E), and CVS|A-N2cG|36°C (F). The schematic drawing of the advanced helper plasmid (*UGNT-A*) is shown in (F). Dashed yellow circles, starter PCs; dashed white lines, the cerebellar boundaries. L, lateral; R, rostral. Scale bars, 20 μm.

(C and G) Summary of CI for the connection of traced neurons, glia or all cells to starter PCs at 2, 4, 6 and10 dpi under the first two tracing conditions at 28°C (C) and the last three tracing conditions at 36°C (G). Significant intergroup differences exist in CI for traced neurons, glia or all cells (see the *P* values). There are no statistical differences between 6 and 10 dpi in any of the groups (n.s.). Two-way ANOVA and nonparametric two-tailed Mann-Whitney test for intergroup

and intragroup statistics, respectively. Error bars denote SEM. Numbers in brackets indicate the

number of larvae examined.

(H and I) Boxplots of CI for the connection of traced glia (H) or all cells (I) to starter PCs under

six tracing conditions at 6–10 dpi. See also Figures 2C–E. Center, median; bounds of box, first

and third quartiles; whiskers, minimum and maximum values. n.s., not-significant; *$P < 0.05$; **P

< 0.01; ***$P < 0.001$ (nonparametric two-tailed Mann-Whitney test).

1020

1021 **Figure 1,2—table supplement 1. The efficiency of viral transfer under different tracing**
1022 **conditions in larval zebrafish.** The convergence index (CI) was calculated as the number of
1023 traced cells divided by the number of starter cells.

Promoter	RV Strain	Helper plasmid	Glyco-protein	Temp ($\square$)	CI_{neuron}	CI_{glia}	CI_{all}
elavl3 (Pan-neuron)	SAD	*UGT*	No	28	0	0	0
	SAD	*UGTB*	B19G	28	0.44 ± 0.11	2.50 ± 0.65	2.94 ± 0.72
	SAD	*UGBT*	B19G	28	1.55 ± 0.29	4.41 ± 1.48	5.97 ± 1.69
cpce (Purkinje cell)	SAD	*UGBT*	B19G	28	0.06 ± 0.03	0.10 ± 0.05	0.16 ± 0.06
	CVS	*UGBT*	B19G	28	0.41 ± 0.07	1.58 ± 0.23	1.99 ± 0.26
	CVS	*UGNT*	N2cG	28	1.02 ± 0.18	4.20 ± 0.94	5.22 ± 1.05
	SAD	*UGBT*	B19G	36	4.96 ± 1.01	14.91 ± 2.49	19.87 ± 3.14
	CVS	*UGNT*	N2cG	36	11.61 ± 2.43	13.21 ± 2.44	24.82 ± 4.58
	CVS	*UGNT-A*	N2cG	36	20.35 ± 3.45	27.03 ± 4.37	47.38 ± 7.25

1024

1025 **Figure 1,2—table supplement 2. Injection age and corresponding fish numbers for each**

1026 **tracing condition.** The proportion of fish at each injection age is shown in parentheses.

Promoter	RV Strain	Helper plasmid	Glyco-protein	Temp (□)	3 dpf	4 dpf	5dpf	6 dpf
elavl3 (Pan-neuron)	SAD	*UGT*	No	28	4 (50%)	4 (50%)	0	-
	SAD	*UGTB*	B19G	28	11 (52.4%)	9 (42.9%)	1 (4.8%)	-
	SAD	*UGBT*	B19G	28	3 (30%)	7 (70%)	0	-
cpce (Purkinje cell)	SAD	*UGBT*	B19G	28	-	0	16 (100%)	0
	CVS	*UGBT*	B19G	28	-	13 (100%)	0	0
	CVS	*UGNT*	N2cG	28	-	0	14 (100%)	0
	SAD	*UGBT*	B19G	36	-	0	15 (100%)	0
	CVS	*UGNT*	N2cG	36	-	0	31 (100%)	0
	CVS	*UGNT-A*	N2cG	36	-	0	23 (88.5%)	3 (11.5%)
	CVS	*UG6sNT-A*	N2cG	36	-	0	8 (25%)	24 (75%)

1027

Figure 1-4—table supplement 1. Properties of currently available viral circuit tracing systems for zebrafish.

	This work	Dohaku *et al.* 2019[26]	Satou *et al.* 2022[27]		Ma *et al.* 2020[29]	Kler *et al.* 2021[30]
Age	3 - 21 dpf	Adult	Adult	7 - 14 dpf	2.5 - 9 dpf	3 - 9 dpf
Region being studied	Brain	Brain	Brain	Spinal cord	Brain	Brain
Virus strains	RV-SAD*d*G[EnvA]; RV-CVS*d*G[EnvA]	RV-SAD*d*G[EnvA]	RV-SAD*d*G[EnvA]	RV-SAD*d*G[EnvA]	rVSV*d*G[VSVG]	rVSV(M51R)*d*G[VSVG]
Glycoprotein	SAD-B19G; CVS-N2cG	SAD-B19G	SAD-B19G	SAD-B19G	VSVG	VSVG
Spread direction	Retrograde	Retrograde	Retrograde	Retrograde	Anterograde	Anterograde
Highest Tracing efficiency (CI)	~20	N.A.	~1	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Genetic targeting of starter cells?	Y (EnvA-TVA)	Y (EnvA-TVA)	Y (EnvA-TVA)	Y (EnvA-TVA)	N	N
Methods for helper proteins expression	Transient expression using single plasmid	Transgenesis	HSV1	HSV1	Lentivirus	Lentivirus
Co-expression of TVA & G?	Y	N	N	N	N	N
Synaptic specificity verification?	Y	N	N	N	N	N
Input or output selectivity?	Y	N	N	N	N	Y
Neuron viability test?	Y	N	Y	N	N	N
Life span of infected cells (d)	10 - 14 (starter cells)	N.A.	~6 (starter cells)	N.A.	<6 (traced cells)	<6 (traced cells)
Rearing temperature for virus-injected fish (°C)	28 & 36	~35	36	36	28	28
Experimental procedure feasibility ■1.Helper protein expression ■Plasmid microinjection ■Transgenic fish ■Helper virus ■2.Virus injection ■3.Fluorescence signal amplification ■Brain slicing ■Immunohistochemistry ■4.Imaging	■■■	■■■■■	■■■■■	■■■■	■■■	■■■

 Y, yes; N, no; N.A., not available