Neuronal integration in the adult olfactory bulb is a non-selective addition process

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Abstract:

Adult neurogenesis is considered a competition in which neurons scramble during a critical period for integration and survival. Moreover, newborn neurons are thought to replace preexisting ones that die. Despite a wealth of evidence supporting this model, systematic in vivo observations of the process are still scarce. We used 2-photon imaging to study neuronal integration and survival directly in the olfactory bulb (OB) of living mice. Long-term tracking of over 1400 neurons demonstrated that cell-loss in the OB is virtually absent. Neuronal death resembling a critical period was induced by standard doses of BrdU or EdU, but disappeared when low doses of EdU were used, demonstrating toxicity. Finally, we demonstrate that the OB grows throughout life. This shows that neuronal selection during OB-neurogenesis does not occur during integration and argues against the existence of a critical period. Moreover, the OB is not a "turnover" system but shows lifelong neuronal addition.

Introduction

Neurogenesis continues after birth in the hippocampus and olfactory bulb of rodents. During OB neurogenesis predetermined stem cell population along the walls of forebrain ventricles generate neuronal precursors that migrate via the rostral migratory stream (RMS) into the center of the OB. After their radial migration into the principal target layers, the granule cell (GCL) and glomerular layers (GL), cells integrate into the preexisting circuitry and function as

interneurons using GABA and dopamine as their principal neurotransmitters (Whitman and Greer, 2007).

The currently available information indicates that OB neurogenesis is based on two key principles: First, neuronal integration in the adult is a competitive process, during which large numbers of newly arriving neurons compete for integration into the circuitry and ultimately survival. This competition is thought to occur during a defined critical window of 2-8 weeks after arrival and leads to the apoptotic elimination of about half of the initial population (Bergami and Berninger, 2012; Lledo et al., 2006; Mandairon et al., 2006; Petreanu and Alvarez-Buylla, 2002; Winner et al., 2002). Second, the OB represents a turnover system, in which newly integrating cells replace preexisting ones, leading to a relatively stable total number of neurons in the target layers (Bergami and Berninger, 2012; Imayoshi et al., 2008; Lledo et al., 2006).

These two concepts are to a large extend based on lineage tracing experiments using thymidine analogs like bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU) or 3H-thymidine to label the DNA of dividing cells, (Mandairon et al., 2006; Petreanu and Alvarez-Buylla, 2002; Winner et al., 2002). A common observation in such experiments is a loss of labeled cells during the first few weeks after their arrival in the bulb, which led to the postulation of a selection mechanism allowing the remodeling of specific OB circuits during a critical window for survival (Petreanu and Alvarez-Buylla, 2002). Alternatively, genetic approaches using CRE-inducible markers layers (Imayoshi et al., 2008) have been performed and demonstrated an accumulation of adult born neurons in the OB over time. In agreement with the turnover model this has been interpreted as a replacement of older neurons that died (Imayoshi et al., 2008). Only recently more direct approaches based on 2-photon in vivo imaging allowed studying OB neurons directly in the living animal Mizrahi (Mizrahi et al., 2006). Interestingly, long-term observation of either juxaglomerular neurons in general (Mizrahi et al., 2006), or more specifically of dopaminergic neurons, demonstrated an increase in these populations over time (Adam and Mizrahi, 2011). While at first sight this finding contradicts a pure replacement model, it was interpreted as a change in the interneuron subtype composition of the OB (Adam and Mizrahi, 2011).

Thus, while the available data is still mostly indirect and fragmentary, the elegant model based on selection and replacement appears justified. However, to doubtlessly validate this model and to really understand the adult neurogenic process, all populations of integrating neurons have to be observed in the living animal from their arrival in the OB throughout the critical window until their disappearance.

Here we combined genetic birthdating and lineage tracing with long term in vivo microscopy to follow timed cohorts of postnatal and adult born neurons from their arrival in the OB for up to six months. Quantitative analyses demonstrate that neuronal loss during the critical period

and at later stages is very rare in all observed populations. We demonstrate that classically used doses of the tracers BrdU and 5-ethynyl-2'-deoxyuridine (EdU) induce cell loss resembling a critical window, but that this toxicity disappears when low doses of EdU are used. Finally, we show that neuronal addition merely than replacement occurs in the adult OB, leading to permanent growth of the structure.

Results

Long term in vivo imaging of postnatal and adult born OB neurons

We used 2-photon imaging to directly study the integration and survival of perinatal and adult born OB neurons at high spatial and temporal resolution in the living animal. We first focused on the perinatal period, when most OB interneurons are generated (Batista-Brito et al., 2008). Postnatal in vivo brain electroporation of the dorsal ventricular zone targets stem cell populations that generate neurons for the superficial layers of the OB (Fig 1a,b (de Chevigny et al., 2012b), which can be reliably reached by two-photon microscopy (Adam and Mizrahi, 2011). We used this dorsal targeting approach to introduce a CRE-expression plasmid into R26-RFP reporter mice (Fig 1a). Three weeks later, OB labeled neurons comprised a mixed population of 6% tyrosine hydroxylase expressing dopaminergic neurons, 12% calretinin positive purely GABAergic neurons, 22% other PGN (Fig 1b) and 60% mostly superficially positioned granule cells (GC).

An adaptation of the reinforced thin skull method allowed for frequent and long term imaging of awake mice while perturbing the physiology of the OB only minimally (Drew et al., 2010). In agreement with previous observations (Xu et al., 2007), there was no detectable astroglia reaction or accumulation of microglia after thinning and window implantation (Fig S1).

Three weeks after electroporation, when skull growth was sufficiently advanced, thin-skull preparation was performed and neurons in the glomerular layer (GL; Fig 1d-g) and the superficial granule cell layer (GCL, Fig S2) were imaged in awake animals at high resolution over the following weeks and months. All analyzed neurons were individually identified in Z-stacks (Supplementary Video 1) based on relative position and morphology. Neurons were numbered and revisited weekly during the critical period (Fig 1d-f; Supplementary Video 1; Fig S3a,b). After identification of the first cohort, smaller numbers of additional neurons appeared permanently in the observation window as a consequence of ongoing neurogenesis in the stem cell compartment (arrowheads in Fig 1d, 5wpi). Neurons in the observation field showed stable relative positions over time (Fig 1d), however, in some cases minor positional adjustment were observed that could be followed over subsequent imaging sessions (Fig 1d,f). Generally, resolution was sufficient to observe even minor changes in dendritic organization of neurons over time (see neuron no. 7 in Fig 1d,f).

Absence of cell death during the critical period: perinatal born neurons

Based on this direct and systematic imaging approach, we first focused on perinatally born neurons during the proposed critical period, thus until 8 weeks after their generation at the ventricles (Mandairon et al., 2006). Neurons that were present during the first observation time point (3 weeks after electroporation of the respective stem cells) were followed over the next 5 weeks. Among 755 periglomerular neurons in 11 mice only 5.1% were lost over the proposed critical period (Fig 2a, see circles for lost cells no. 14 and 17 in Fig 1d,g). The percentage of lost neurons was very similar between individual animals and was independent of the density of labeled cells in the observation window (between 18 and 100 neurons; Fig 2a). Next, we investigated neurons in the underlying superficial granule cell layer in 6 mice with particularly high-quality and stable window preparations (Fig S2). Out of 178 RFP positive neurons observed between 3 and 8 weeks after their birth not a single cell disappeared over the subsequent imaging sessions (Fig 2b). We conclude that perinatally generated OB interneurons in both, the glomerular and the granule cell layers are rarely eliminated during the proposed critical period.

Absence of cell death during the critical period: adult born neurons

We then investigated the stability of adult born neurons during the critical period. As in vivo electroporation is inefficient in adult mice we crossed the Rosa-RFP line with Nestin Cre-ER^{T2} mice (Lagace et al., 2007) and induced a heterogeneous cohort of labeled newborn neurons by tamoxifen injection at 2 months of age (Ninkovic et al., 2007) (Fig S4 a,b). During the first two weeks after induction many of the RFP labeled neurons in the OB layers expressed the immature neuron marker doublecortin in agreement with their recent arrival in the OB (Fig S4c,d). Reinforced thin skull preparation was routinely performed at 1-week post induction (wpi). Weekly observations of individually identified neurons in the GL were performed as described above (Supplementary Video 2, Fig S3c,d). Analyses of 538 neurons of the first cohort in 8 animals showed that only 1.5% disappeared over the 7-weeks period after their first identification (Fig. 2c). Thus, under physiological conditions cell loss in adult PGN during the proposed critical period was almost absent, comparable to the findings for perinatally born neurons (Fig 2d).

Next we asked if PGN neuron loss could be detected in non-physiological situations. It has been shown that olfactory sensory deprivation induces additional cell death in adult born OB neurons (Mandairon et al., 2006). To investigate if increased cell death could be observed in our imaging paradigm we performed naris closure in adult Nestin Cre-ER^{T2}/Rosa-RFP mice one week after tamoxifen induction (Fig 2e). Analysis of RFP positive cells over the following 8 weeks revealed a significant increase in cell loss (Fig 2fg; $p=0.03$, 3 animals). In conclusion, under physiological conditions newly born neurons in the perinatal and adult OB

show very little cell loss during the proposed critical period. However, significant cell loss during this period was found after blocking sensory input, demonstrating that cell death could be detected. We did not extend this *in vivo* imaging approach to adult born GCs, as this population cannot be reliably reached by 2-photon microscopy using the low-invasive thin-skull preparation.

Dose dependent toxicity of thymidine analogues

The above findings were at odds with the existence of a critical period for survival during which, under normal conditions, about half of the adult born neurons are removed from the OB by apoptosis (Mandairon et al., 2006; Petreanu and Alvarez-Buylla, 2002; Winner et al., 2002). This concept is to a large extent based on tracing of timed cohorts of newborn neurons using the integration of thymidine analogs, most often BrdU, into the DNA of dividing cells. To investigate if these differences were due to our particular experimental conditions we first repeated such BrdU studies using standard protocols (Mandairon et al., 2006). Indeed, using four i.p. injections of 50 mg/kg BrdU into adult mice we found an approximately 40% loss of labeled neurons in the OB between 2 and 6 weeks in the GL as well as in the GCL (Fig 3a-c). As in our direct imaging approach we focused on the dorsal aspect of the OB we investigated if in this region BrdU positive cells showed a different behavior than in the rest of the structure. BrdU+ cell number in the dorsal OB showed the same 40% loss that was found in the entire bulb (Fig. 3c). Moreover, the imaging procedure itself did not influence the presence of BrdU positive cells over time, as window preparation followed by weekly imaging did not lead to increased numbers (Fig S5).

Altogether, these DNA-labeling based findings were in full agreement with previous studies, showing a strong reduction of newborn cells during the critical period (Mandairon et al., 2006; Petreanu and Alvarez-Buylla, 2002; Winner et al., 2002). However, they strongly contradicted our own *in vivo* observations showing very little cell loss. As suggested before (Lehner et al., 2011), we considered the possibility that incorporation of modified nucleotides impacted on neuronal survival in the OB and developed an approach to test this hypothesis.

To allow immunohistological BrdU detection, tissue samples have to be subjected to strong denaturing conditions that break the complementary base-pairing of DNA, a prerequisite for efficient BrdU antibody binding. Such treatment invariably leads to sample degradation and negatively impacts on staining intensity (Salic and Mitchison, 2008). In concert with limitations due to antibody penetration this imposes the use of relatively high concentrations of BrdU, generally 50 to 200 mg/kg of body weight i.p., for reliable detection (Imayoshi et al., 2008). In contrast, EdU labeling of DNA is based on a reaction with fluorescent azides (Rostovtsev et al., 2002; Salic and Mitchison, 2008; Tornoe et al., 2002) that have much higher diffusion rates in tissue than antibodies. Moreover, the staining reaction can be can be

repeated several times to increase signal strengths and DNA denaturation is dispensable, altogether allowing the use of considerably lower concentrations of EdU in comparison to BrdU. Based on this increased sensitivity we asked if the concentration of altered nucleotides in the DNA impacts on cell survival of new neurons in the OB.

Injection of 50 mg/kg EdU in two month old mice led to an about 40% loss of labeled cells in the GL and the GCL of the OB between 2 and 8 weeks, highly comparable to the results based on BrdU (Fig 3d,f). Injection of 1 mg/kg EdU under the same conditions followed by two rounds of the staining protocol led to the detection of similar amounts of newly generated cells in the OB layers after 2 weeks (Fig. 3ef) despite the appearance of some homogeneous background (Fig. 3e). However, under these conditions the decrease in cell numbers between 2 and 6 weeks was not detectable anymore both in the GL and the GCL (Fig. 3f). We conclude that loss of labeled cells during the critical period is correlated with the concentration of altered nucleotides in the DNA of newborn OB neurons.

These results allow a second conclusion. As mentioned above we were unable to investigate the long-term survival of adult born GCs by thin skull preparation in concert with 2-photon in vivo microscopy. However, in our EdU lineage tracing studies adult born GCs show exactly the same behavior than PGN: cell loss between 2 and 6 weeks at high EdU concentrations but survival at low EdU doses (Fig 3f). This strongly suggests that the constitutive survival we observed for all other observed OB interneuron populations also applies to adult born GCs.

Neuronal addition in the OB

The OB is considered to be a turnover system in which new neurons replace older ones, leading to a relatively stable size of the structure (Imayoshi et al., 2008; Petreanu and Alvarez-Buylla, 2002). In such a scenario cell loss has to be expected. As we did not observe considerable cell death during the proposed critical period, we asked if neurons disappear at later stages. Continuous long-term observations of perinatally generated PGN and GC provided no evidence for sustained cell loss after the initial 8 weeks time window (Fig 4a,b). The same stability of the labeled population was evident when adult generated PGN were observed for up to 24 weeks after their generation (Fig. 4c). Moreover, as CRE-induced recombination in Nestin-CRE-ERT2 mice occurs often at the stem cell level (Imayoshi et al., 2008), recombined stem cells continue neurogenesis. In agreement, additional adult born neurons permanently appeared and survived in the observation window (Fig 4d), leading to a more than doubling of the neuron population of adult generated PGN over an observation period of six months (Fig. 4e).

How does the OB deal with this permanent addition of neurons in the absence of considerable cell loss? Two potential consequences can be imagined: Either the OB grows in size or the cell density in the different layers increases over time. Currently, information

about these parameters in the adult rodent OB is based on measurements of serial sections and the available data are fragmentary and in part contradictory (Hinds and McNelly, 1977; Imayoshi et al., 2008; Mirich et al., 2002 ; Petreanu and Alvarez-Buylla, 2002; Pomeroy et al., 1990; Richard et al., 2010). We aimed at a systematic 3D analysis of OB volume and cell density.

First, we used light sheet microscopy on CUBIC-treated (Susaki et al., 2014) transparent brains to investigate the structure and volume of the adult mouse OB in three dimensions at different ages. Volumetric analysis based on 3D reconstructions of OBs (Fig 5a,b and Supplementary Video 3) revealed a steady increase in OB volume leading to a significant 44% enlargement of the structure from 2 to 12 months (Fig 5b,c). This volume increase affected equally the granule and the glomerular layers (Fig 5d) in the absence of obvious changes in layer repartition (Fig 5e). Second, we investigated the evolution of cell density in the more homogeneous granule cell layer using transparent brain tissues. As NeuN, a classically used marker for neuronal nuclei, is expressed only in a subset of OB neurons (Winner et al., 2002) we stained for the fluorescent nuclear marker TOPRO3. Quantification revealed that the density of nuclei was highly stable at all observed time points (Fig 5 f,g). As the number of OB astrocytes does not undergo significant changes in adult mice (Mirich et al., 2002) these analyses showed that neuronal density was unchanged over the analyzed period (Fig. 5f,g).

Finally, we asked if the constant volume increase in the OB could be detected directly in the living brain during *in vivo* imaging experiments. We found that over time slightly larger image frames were necessary to accommodate the same group of neurons in our Z-maximum projections of the GCL and GL (Fig 1d; Fig S2b). In agreement, volumetric analysis of inter-neuronal space between individually identified neurons (groups of four neurons in X,Y,Z; thus an irregular pyramid) showed that distance between neurons increased significantly over time (Fig 5hi, 4 animals). Thus, the mouse OB grows significantly during adult life in the absence of detectable changes in cell density. This is in strong support of the permanent addition of new neurons to a stable preexisting circuitry in the absence of substantial cell death.

Discussion

Our work combining long term in vivo observations, pulse chase experiments and 3D morphometric analyses, leads to three main conclusions:

First, the level of neuronal cell death among perinatal and adult born OB interneurons is very low. Second, the adult OB is not a homeostatic, but a developing and growing brain

structure. Third, classical lineage tracing approaches based on thymidine analogs are associated with unwanted side effects and have to be interpreted with care.

Using a non-invasive long-term imaging approach combined with lineage tracing approaches using low concentrations of the thymidine analogue EdU we were unable to detect considerable cell loss among postnatal and adult generated neurons during their integration phase in the OB. These findings are not compatible with the existence of a critical period during which only a subset of newborn neurons is selected for survival while about the same amount dies by apoptosis.

The predominant evidence that led to the postulation of a critical period is based on the use of thymidine analogues, generally BrdU or 3H-dT, that incorporate into the nuclear DNA during the S-phase of the cell cycle (Petreanu and Alvarez-Buylla, 2002; Winner et al., 2002). However, both BrdU and 3H-dT are toxic (Breunig et al., 2007; Ehmann et al., 1975; Kolb et al., 1999; Kuwagata et al., 2007; Nowakowski and Hayes, 2000; Sekerkova et al., 2004) (Taupin, 2007) and studies in both rodents (Lehner et al., 2011; Webster et al., 1973) and primates (Duque and Rakic, 2011) pointed to unwanted, and hard to interpret, long term effects associated to their use. Accordingly, warnings concerning the interpretation of such data have been issued (Costandi, 2011; Lehner et al., 2011).

In agreement with the existing literature we observed massive loss of newborn neurons in the OB during the critical period when standard doses (50 mg/kg) of BrdU or EdU were used for tracing. Interestingly, in the presence of considerably lower concentrations of EdU (1 mg/kg) neurogenesis was still obvious but cell loss was not detectable anymore. This finding is in perfect agreement with our in vivo observations, in which we find almost no neuronal death during the critical period. Thus, death of newborn neurons during the critical period appears to be tightly linked to the concentration of thymidine analogues used for their detection.

These results lead to the conclusion that a selection step in which an overproduced precursor population is matched to the needs of the target structure, does not occur during synaptic integration in the OB. While this observation is unexpected it is not completely isolated. For example, in Bax-KO mice, in which apoptotic cell death is blocked, the general structure and size of the OB neuron layers are indistinguishable (Kim et al., 2007). However, Bax-mutants show a strong disorganization and accumulation of neuronal precursors in the RMS, pointing to the possibility that neuronal selection occurs more at the level of recruitment from the RMS than at the level of integration in the target layers. Such a scenario of "early selection" is also supported by the observation that the density of apoptotic cells is much higher in the RMS than in the OB proper (Biebl et al., 2000).

Alternatively, integration or death of OB interneurons might be intrinsically encoded. It has been shown that in developing cortical interneurons neuronal survival is largely independent

of signals from the local environment but that about 40% of the total population is predestined to undergo Bax-dependent apoptosis (Southwell et al., 2012). In such a scenario cell death would be expected to occur already in the SVZ/RMS.

Adult generated granule neurons, the population for which cell loss and turnover has been most extensively studied (Imayoshi et al., 2008; Mandairon et al., 2006; Mouret et al., 2008) cannot be reliably reached by in vivo microscopy using the low-invasive thin skull preparation. Despite this limitation the EdU based pulse chase tracking approach provides new insights into the behavior of this cell population. In the presence of high concentrations of EdU, adult generated GCs - like their PGN counterparts - show the well-characterized loss that was interpreted as a critical selection period. However, using a low EdU dose this cell loss completely disappeared for both, adult born PGN and GCs, strongly suggesting that the absence of cell death extends to the GC population. This leads to the conclusion that like all other cell populations analyzed in this study - perinatal born PGN and GCs as well as adult born PGN - adult born GCs do not undergo selection during a critical period.

Our results demonstrate that neuronal death is a rare event not only during the postulated critical selection period, but at all observed time points. However, the permanent arrival of new neurons in the absence of considerable cell removal is not compatible with the current idea that the OB represents a turnover system of constant size (Bergami and Berninger, 2012; Imayoshi et al., 2008). Growth has to be expected, and our 3D microscopy studies clearly demonstrate a 40% volume increase during the first year of adulthood in the absence of detectable changes in cell density. Indeed, growth of the adult OB in mice has been observed in other studies, although considerable variation and dependence on genetic background have been reported (Mirich et al., 2002; Richard et al., 2010). Other studies did not find considerable differences in total OB size or specific sublayers (Imayoshi et al., 2008; Petreanu and Alvarez-Buylla, 2002; Pomeroy et al., 1990). What could be the reason underlying these contradictory findings? Past approaches were based on the 2D analysis of a subset of tissue sections and the extrapolation of the total volume based thereon. But the OB is not a simple radial symmetric globule, but a complex multi-layered structure that shows huge variations along the rostro-caudal and dorso-ventral axes (see Supplementary Video 3). Measuring a limited amount of tissue sections may not sufficiently consider longitudinal growths and intra-bulbar variations.

Light sheet microscopy is suited to overcome many of these limitations as the OB is imaged and measured in its entirety. Extrapolations can be avoided and the selection of comparable levels for layer analyses is simple and reliable. Increases in OB lengths are directly obvious and do not have to be deduced from varying numbers of sections that can be generated from a given bulb. As a consequence inter-animal variations are minor and growth of the structure becomes evident. Independently from the light-sheet approach we show that during in vivo

long-term observations constantly larger frames are needed to accommodate the same group of cells and that the distance of individually identified neurons measurably increases. The latter finding is in full agreement with the finding that the distance between specific glomeruli increases with age of the animal (Richard et al., 2010). Altogether, these data clearly demonstrate growth of the mouse OB during the entire first year of the animal's life.

In conclusion, we show here that neuronal cell death is rare in the OB and that neuronal addition, but not replacement, is the outcome of adult neurogenesis. Genetic fate mapping studies (Ninkovic et al., 2007) and also direct observation of the TH positive neuron population (Adam and Mizrahi, 2011) already pointed towards an increase in specific neuronal subsets in the adult OB. We show that neuronal addition is a general phenomenon that affects perinatally and adult generated neurons, leading to substantial growth of the OB throughout life. Thus, OB neurogenesis appears to reflect ongoing brain development rather than homeostasis.

Our work leaves of course open questions. For example, it has been shown that olfactory enrichment and learning increases the survival of newborn neurons in the OB. Neurons are "saved" from dying apoptotic death (Mouret et al., 2008; Rochefort et al., 2002; Sultan et al., 2010). But how can neurons be saved when death is extremely rare in first place? Repeating in vivo observations and low-dose EdU studies in the context of olfactory stimulation and learning will help to clarify these matters.

Finally, neuronal selection at the level of integration has been proposed to underlie adult hippocampal neurogenesis and even cortical development (Bergami and Berninger, 2012; Buss et al., 2006). Despite the difficulty to perform in vivo long-term observations in deep brain regions or at embryonic/early postnatal stages, our findings oblige to revisit these structures to clarify the general impact of cell competition during neuronal integration.

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Supplementary Materials

Materials and Methods

Fig S1 – S5

References (29 – 32)

Supplementary Video S1-S3

Figure legends

Figure 1: Long-term in vivo imaging in the OB

a. Induction protocols and imaging timeline. In perinatal animals a CRE-expression plasmid was introduced in the dorsal neural stem cell compartment of Rosa-RFP mice using postnatal electroporation. To label neurons in adults, Nestin-CreERT2 animals were bred to Rosa-RFP mice and induced with tamoxifen at 2 months of age. Thin skull preparation was routinely performed one-week post induction. A weekly imaging scheme was implemented over the critical period and up to 5 months. **b**. Postnatal in vivo brain electroporation at P1-P4 leads at 3 wpi to the appearance of various interneuron types, including TH and CR expressing subtypes, in the superficial GCL and the GL layers of the OB. **c.** In vivo microscopy setup. Mice were imaged with the head fixed to the two-photon microscope. Animals could move on a treadmill but rarely did so during imaging sessions. Thin skull preparation allowed high-resolution imaging on a weekly basis. **d**. Example of an image Z-stack showing 25 individually identified neurons from 3, 5, and 8 weeks after CRE electroporation. Note that neurons 14 and 17 are lost (circles) while several neurons are added (arrowheads). **e,f,g.** High resolution images of weekly observations of three groups of neurons highlighted in d. Cell substructures, dendrites and minor cell displacements can be followed over time. Scale bar: 200 µm in b, 50 µm in d, 30 µm in e,f, g.

Figure 2: Stability of neuron populations in the OB in vivo

a. Tracing of perinatally induced timed neuron cohorts (755 neurons) in 11 mice from 3 to 8 wpi. **b**. Tracing of perinatally induced GCs (178 cells in 6 mice) during the proposed critical period. **c.** Tracing of neurons in 8 adult animals (538 neurons) after induction with tamoxifen injection at two months. **d.** Survival rate over the proposed critical period from 3-8 weeks. **e.** Timeline for sensory deprivation experiment. Naris occlusion and thin skull preparation were performed one week after induction of RFP positive neurons in adult mice. **f.** Two weeks after occlusion neurons with complex morphologies were lost in the OB. **g.** Quantification of neuron loss in control and occluded Obs over 8 weeks. Scale bar: 20 µm in f.

Figure 3: Neuronal survival after thymidine analog pulse chase

a. Timeline of BrdU or EdU pulse chase experiment. 4 BrdU/EdU injections at different concentrations were performed in adult mice. Animals were sacrificed 2 and 6 wpi, respectively. **b.** Example of immunohistochemical staining of a coronal OB section 2 and 6 weeks after 50 mg/kg BrdU injection. **c**. BrdU cell density in GL, dorsal GL and GCL between 2 and 6 weeks after injection. **d.** Example of immunohistochemical staining of a coronal OB section 2 and 6 weeks after 50 mg/kg EdU injection. **e**. Example of immunohistochemical

staining of a coronal OB section 2 and 6 weeks after 1 mg/kg edU injection. **f.** EdU cell density in GL and GCL between 2 and 6 weeks after 50 mg/kg edU and 1 mg/kg EdU injection, respectively. Note that for 1 mg/kg EdU there is no significant decrease in cell density between 2 and 6 weeks, as seen with 50 mg/kg EdU injections. Scale bar: 80 µm in b, 100 µm in d and e.

Figure 4: Long-term survival of neuron populations and neuronal addition in vivo

Absence of cell loss in **a.** perinatal PGNs, **b.** perinatal GCs and **c.** adult born PGNs in long-term in vivo observations. **d.** Additional RFP expressing neurons appear constantly in the observation window. **e.** Net increase in newborn OB neurons in adult Nestin Cre-ERT2 mice over time. Scale bar in 40 µm in d.

Figure 5: Neuronal addition and growth of the OB

a. Reconstruction of an adult OB and part of the cortex based on 3-D light sheet imaging. **b.** Comparison of 2- and 12-month old OBs reconstructed from lightsheet images. **c**. Quantification of volume increase in OBs from 1-12 months, normalized to 2 months. **d.** Quantification of volume increase in OB sublayers from 1-12 months, normalized to 2 months. Volume increase affects both, the GL and the GCL. **e.** Repartition of OB layers (GL, EPL, GCL) with increasing age. Although the volume of all layers increases with time their ratio remains constant. **f.** Examples of GCL cell density based on TOPRO-3 nuclear staining in whole, cleared OBs of 2 and 6 month old mice. **g.** Quantification of cell density from 1 to 12 months. Cell density is constant over the observation period. **h.** Example of volumetric analysis of inter-neuronal space between individually identified neurons in vivo (groups of four neurons in X,Y,Z; thus an irregular pyramid). **i.** Quantification inter-neuronal space shows that distances between identified neurons increase in adult animals. Scale bar: 800 µm in a,b. 40 µm in f, 50 µm in h.

Materials and Methods

Animals

All mice were treated according to protocols approved by the French Ethical Committee (#5223-2016042717181477v2). Mice were group housed in regular cages under standard conditions, with up to 5 mice per cage on a 12-h light–dark cycle. 2 months old C57Bl6 males were used for BrdU and edU pulse chase experiments. Rosa-RFP mice (Ai14, Rosa26-CAG-tdTomato(Madisen et al., 2010)) were obtained from the Jackson laboratory and used on a mixed C57Bl6/CD1 background. For lightsheet experiments, 1, 2, 4,6 and 12 months old male C57Bl6 were obtained from Janvier labs. Nestin-CreERT2 mice were obtained from

Amelia Eisch(Lagace et al., 2007) and crossed with Rosa-RFP mice. Male and female Nestin-CreER^{T2} X rosa-RFP mice were used between 2 and 3 month old at the time of surgery.

In vivo labeling of neurons

In vivo electroporation was performed as previously described(Boutin et al., 2008). Briefly, 1-day-old pups were anaesthetized by hypothermia and 1µl of a pCAG-CRE) plasmid(Platel et al., 2010) at 4µg/µl) was injected in the lateral ventricle. Electrical pulses were applied to target the dorsal V-SVZ.

In adult Nestin-CreERT2 X rosa-RFP mice, RFP expression was induced by tamoxifen injection (Sigma-Aldrich; intraperitoneal; dissolved in 10% EtOH/ 90% sunflower oil) at 100mg/kg per day for 2 days.

Surgical preparation

Implantation of an observation window was performed as previously described(Drew et al., 2010) but with minor modifications. Briefly, mice were anaesthetized by intraperitoneal (ip.) injection of ketamine/ xylazine (125/12,5 mg/kg). Dexaméthasone (0.2 mg/kg) and buprenorphine (0.3 mg/mL) were injected subcutaneously and lidocaine was applied locally onto the skull. The pinch withdrawal reflex was monitored throughout the surgery, and additional anesthesia was applied if needed. Carprofen (5 mg/kg) was injected ip. after the surgery. A steel bar was added during this step to allow fixation of the animal to the microscope. The skull overlying the OB was carefully thinned with a sterile scalpel blade until a thickness of 10-20 µm was reached. A thin layer of cyanoacrylate (superglu3, Loctite) was applied and a 3mm round coverslip was apposed and sealed with dental cement (superbond, GACD). A first microscopic observation was performed on these anesthetized mice.

For olfactory sensory deprivation, a silicone tube was inserted (Intramedic; 0,5mm diameter, 3mm long) into one naris and sealed with cyanoacrylate glue(Cummings et al., 1997). Efficiency of occlusion was checked the following day and before each imaging session. At the end of the experiment immunostaining against tyrosine hydroxylase was performed to confirm the efficiency of occlusion.

***In vivo* two-photon imaging**

We used a Zeiss LSM 7MP two-photon microscope modified to allow animal positioning under a 20X water immersion objective (1.0 NA, 1.7mm wd) and coupled to a femtosecond pulsed infrared tunable laser (Mai-Tai, SpectraPhysics). After two-photon excitation, epifluorescence signals were collected and separated by dichroic mirrors and filters on 4 independent non-descanned detectors (NDD). Images were acquired using an excitation

wavelength of 950 nm. RFP was first collected between 605-678. In addition, we collected an additional RFP signal between 560-590 that was voluntarily saturated to allow a better identification of subcellular structures like dendrites.

In general, image acquisition lasted about 10 min. Mice could potentially move on a treadmill during imaging, but rarely did so. On consecutive observation, the same field of view was localized based on the geometric motifs of groups of neurons and specific morphological features of individual cells. Between 18 and 179 neurons were imaged initially every week for the first 8 weeks and further imaged at irregular intervals for up to 22 weeks. Images of 606x606 µm were acquired at 0.59 µm/pixel resolution in the xy dimension and 2 µm/frame in the z dimension to a maximal depths of 400 µm.

Chronic *in vivo* imaging analysis

Quantitative analyses were performed on raw image stacks using FIJI software(Schindelin et al., 2012). All neurons identified on the first image were assigned a number using ImageJ overlay. Based on morphology and relative position each neuron was individually numbered and tracked on the successive weekly images (see fig. S3b, d). Results were summarized in Microsoft Excel. Occasionally neurons located at the border of an image were placed outside of the imaged field in one of the following sessions. These cells were excluded from further analyses. Animals showing an evident degradation of the imaging window were excluded from further imaging sessions.

For the analyses of the distance between neurons (fig. 5h,i), we measured over time the volume between 4 neurons (3 neurons in the same plane and another neuron in a different plane) using FIJI.

Brdu and edU pulse chase experiments

BrdU (Sigma) was injected ip. 4 times at 50 body weight every 2 hours. EdU (Sigma) was injected 4 times at 1 or 50 mg/g body weight every 2 hours. Staining was performed as described previously (de Chevigny et al., 2012a). For the low dose of edu experiment, the labeling protocol was repeated to increase the intensity of the staining. BrdU positive cells in the glomerular layer or granule cell layer of 2 to 5 slices from 3 to 5 animals were counted using FIJI software and Imaris software.

Light sheet microscopy

For brain transparization, we followed the cubic protocol(Susaki et al., 2014). After clearing, brains were incubated for 1 day in the red nuclear dye TOPRO3 (1/1000) in PBS, 0.01% Tween 20, 0.01% sodium Azide at 37°C. The brains were then kept in PBS, 0.01 sodium

azide until re-transparisation. Timing of all steps was carefully monitored to prevent any potential size artefacts.

We used a lightsheet Z1 microscope (Zeiss) with a 5x/0,16NA objective to image the transparized OB. OB layers were easily distinguishable using the nuclear staining of the TOPRO3. Planes were taken every 5.9µm in Z with a xy pixel dimension of 2.5 µm. We used Imaris software (Bitplane, Germany) to reconstruct and measure the volume of the total OB as well as the periglomerular and the granule cell layers. All measurement were normalized to the mean obtained on 2 month brain.

Measurement of cell density

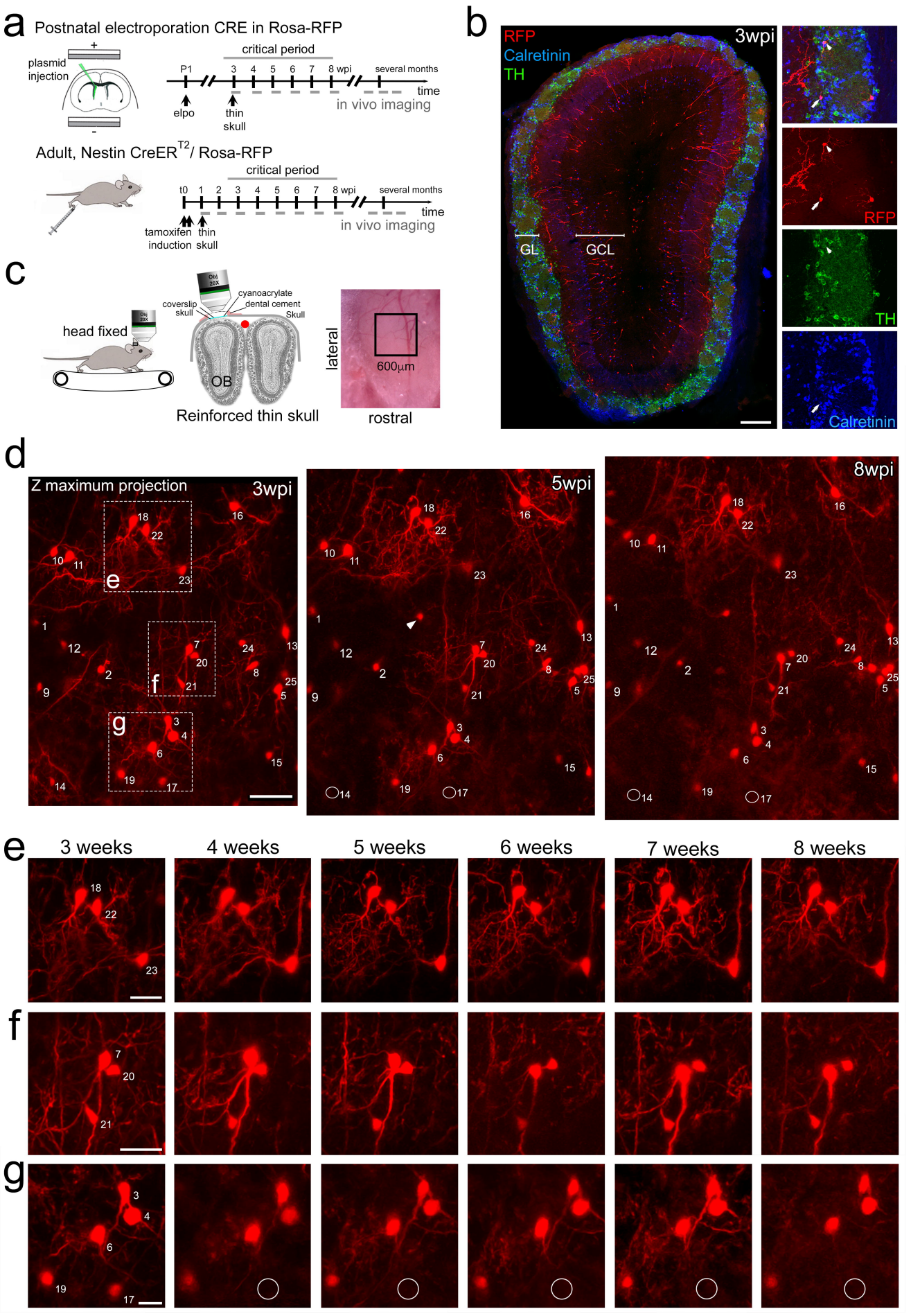
We measured cell density in the granule cell layer by imaging the same transparized brain with the 2-photon microscope used for *in vivo* imaging to obtain a better resolution. We acquired Z stacks of 200 µm with 2µm resolution in Z and 0.3 µm in xy. These images were first de-noised in Fiji using a 3D mean filter. Then the volumetric density of nuclei was quantified using *Imaris* software.

Immunohistochemistry

Stainings were done on floating vibratome sections as described before(Tiveron et al., 2016). Primary antibodies: GFP (rabbit IgG, Life technologies,1 1:1000 or chicken Ig, AVES, 1:1000), Calretinin (mouse IgG1, Synaptic Systems; 1:2000), Tyrosine Hydroxylase (chicken Ig, AVES; 1:1000), IBA1 (life technologies, 1:500), GFAP (life technologies, 1:500). Secondary antibodies were purchased from Life Technologies. Before mounting, cell nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33258 or TOPRO3. Optical images were taken either using a fluorescence microscope (Axioplan2, ApoTome system, Zeiss, Germany) or a laser confocal scanning microscope (LSM780, Zeiss, Germany).

Statistical analyses

All data are presented as mean ± s.e.m. Statistical comparisons were performed using Matlab software (Mathworks) or R. All statistical tests were two-tailed. Threshold for significance was set at p=0.05. For occlusion experiments (Fig 2g) we used a Wilcoxon Rank-sum test (p=0,0357). For Brdu and Edu pulse chase experiment, (Fig 3), we used a Wilcoxon Rank-sum test ((* 0,05, ** 0,01, *** 0,001). For quantification of the volume of the OB and the volume of the layer we used a wilcoxon ranksum test for each comparison (6 comparison) and adjusted the p-value threshold for multiple comparison using Bonferroni (* 0,0083, ** 0,00167, *** 0,000167). For the quantification of the increase of size during in vivo imaging experiments, (Fig 5i) we used a Friedman rank sum test followed with a post hoc test in the R software (between 2 and 3 month p=0,0245, between 2 and 4 month p=0,0038, between 2 and 5 month p=0,0232).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head fixed
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skull
cyanoacrylate
dental cement
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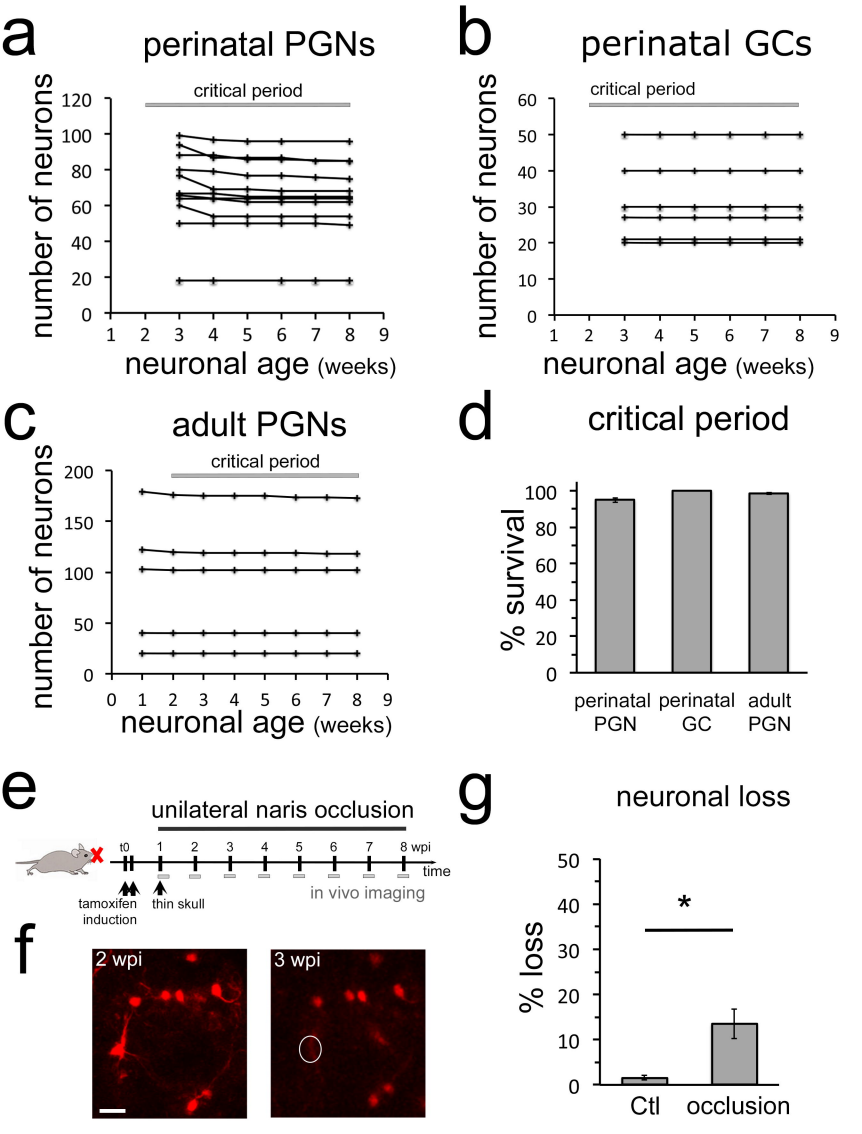
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critical period
number of neurons
neuronal age (weeks)
b
perinatal GCs
critical period
number of neurons
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c
adult PGNs
critical period
number of neurons
neuronal age (weeks)
d
critical period
% survival
perinatal PGN
perinatal GC
adult PGN
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3 wpi
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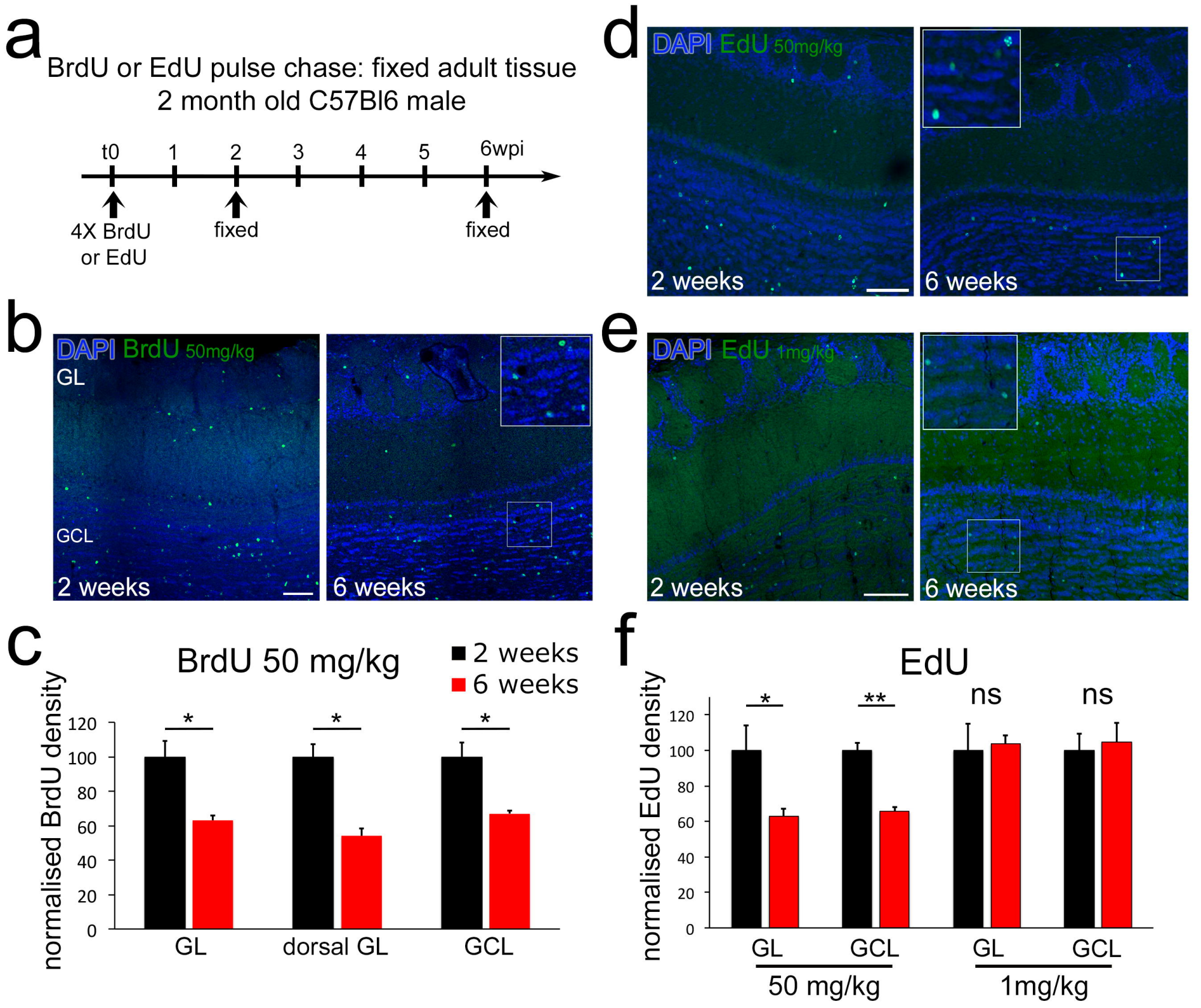
occlusion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2 month old C57Bl6 male
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5
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4X BrdU or EdU
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b
DAPI BrdU 50mg/kg
GL
GCL
2 weeks
6 weeks
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BrdU 50 mg/kg
2 weeks
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normalised BrdU density
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100
80
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DAPI EdU 1mg/kg
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normalised EdU density
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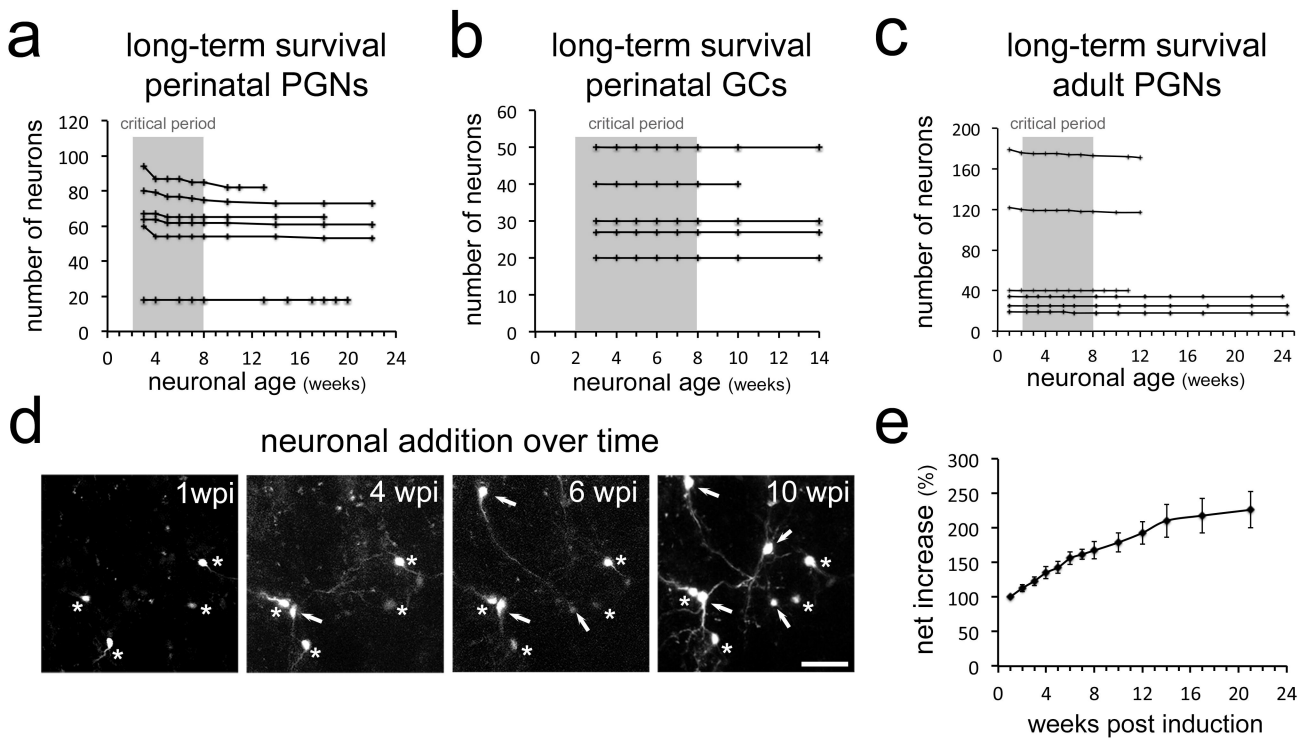
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c
long-term survival
adult PGNs
critical period
number of neurons
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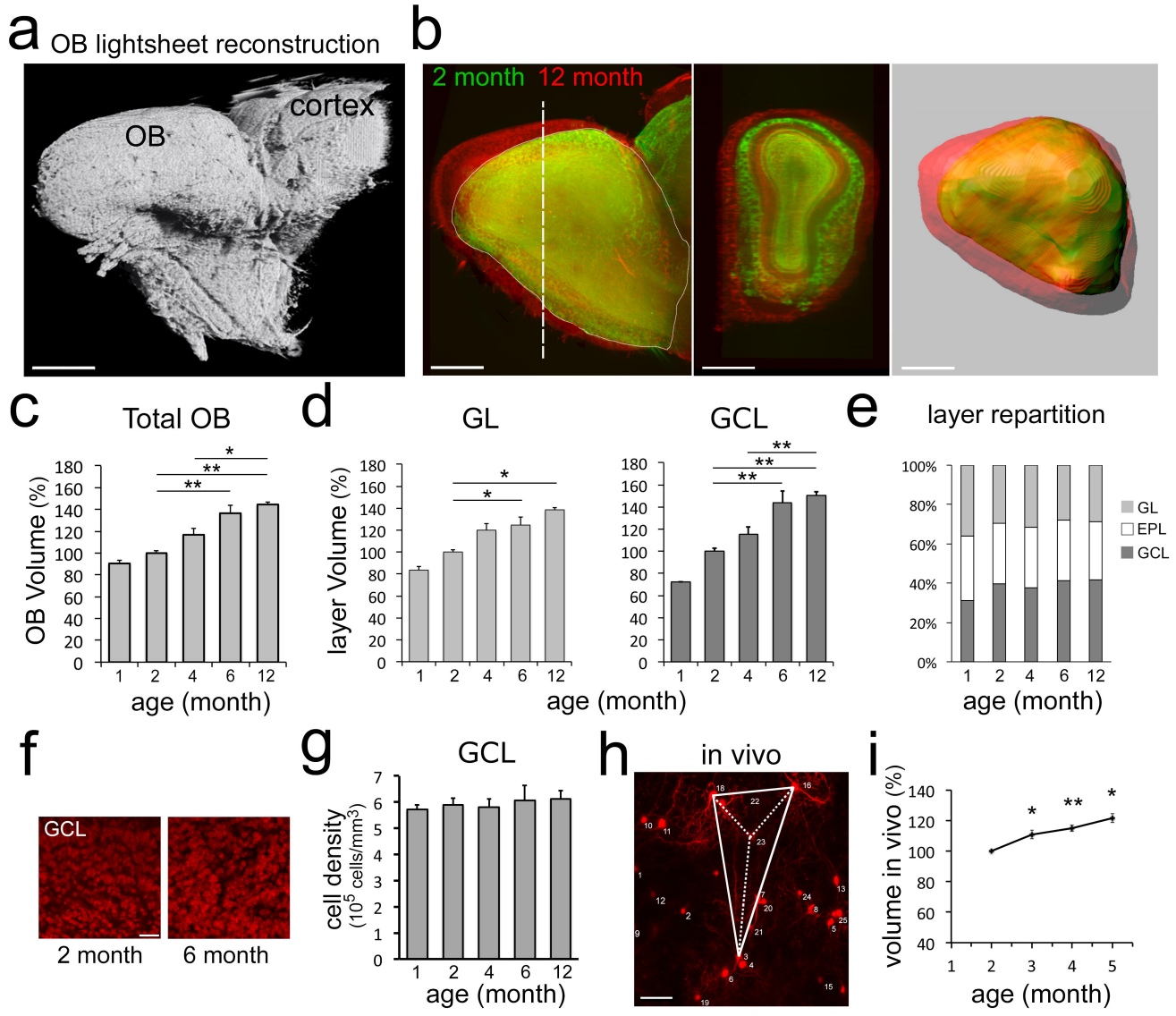
4 wpi
6 wpi
10 wpi
e
net increase (%)
weeks post induction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cortex
b
2 month
12 month
c
Total OB
OB Volume (%)
age (month)
d
GL
layer Volume (%)
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age (month)
e
layer repartition
GL
EPL
GCL
age (month)
f
GCL
2 month
6 month
g
GCL
cell density
(10^5 cells/mm^3)
age (month)
h
in vivo
i
volume in vivo (%)
age (month)