GnRH-1 Neurons Are Not in the Goofy Group: 123cre Tracing Sets the

Record Straight

Enrico Amato Jr.[1], Mia V. Call[1], Noah M. LeFever[1], Mya Aviles-Carlos[1], Nikki M.

Dolphin[1], Paolo E. Forni[1]*

[1] Department of Biological Sciences, The Center for Neuroscience Research, The RNA

Institute, University at Albany, State University of New York, Albany, New York, USA.

*Corresponding author: pforni@albany.edu

Abstract

The olfactory placode (OP) gives rise to a wide array of chemosensory neurons in the nasal

region, including olfactory sensory neurons, vomeronasal sensory neurons, and those of

the septal organ and Grueneberg ganglion. During placodal invagination, the OP also

produces migratory neurons such as gonadotropin-releasing hormone-1 (GnRH-1) neurons,

terminal nerve (TN) neurons, and olfactory pioneer neurons, which are thought to initiate

olfactory bulb development. Despite decades of research, the genetic lineage and

molecular identity of OP-derived neuronal types remain under investigation. GnRH-1

neurons play essential roles in reproduction and chemodetection but appear genetically

distinct from olfactory and vomeronasal chemosensory neurons. The Golgi-associated

olfactory signaling regulator Goofy/Gfy is expressed in developing chemosensory neurons.

To determine whether its expression is specific to nasal chemosensory epithelia or shared

across OP derivatives, we characterized its expression and lineage at embryonic and

postnatal stages. Our results confirm broad expression in developing chemosensory

neurons and subsets of olfactory pioneer neurons, but not in GnRH-1 neurons, with only

sparse expression in putative TN neurons. These findings reveal a previously unrecognized

genetic distinction between nasal migratory and chemosensory neuronal populations.

Introduction

The olfactory placode (OP) is the ectodermal thickening responsible for the

development of the olfactory system of vertebrates (Verwoerd and van Oostrom, 1979). In

mice, the OP primordium can first be identified at E9.0 (embryonic day 9) (Ikeda et al.,

2007; Klein and Graziadei, 1983; Rawson, 1999). The OP then invaginates around E10.5

(Brunjes and Frazier, 1986; Tarozzo et al., 1995) to give rise to the olfactory pit which further

develops into multiple derivatives which include various specialized chemosensory

epithelia: the main olfactory epithelium (OE), the vomeronasal organ (VNO), septal organ

and Gruenberg ganglion (GG) (Couly and Le Douarin, 1985; Cuschieri and Bannister,

1975b). As the OP forms and then invaginates, it undergoes several waves of neurogenesis

(Forni et al., 2013; Paronett et al., 2023; Rukh et al., 2024). Around E10.5, shortly after its

formation, the OP is highly proliferative, and presents mitotic figures in the apical layers

(Cuschieri and Bannister, 1975a; Graham et al., 2007; Smart, 1971; Taroc et al., 2020)

Between E10.5 and E11.5 the OP mostly produces migratory neurons that leave the

OP and migrate toward the developing brain (Fornaro et al., 2003; Forni et al., 2011a;

Murakami et al., 2022). The migratory neurons include the gonadotropin-releasing

hormone-1 (GnRH-1) neurons, presumptive terminal nerve (TN), and the presumptive

olfactory pioneer neurons, which are crucial for inducing olfactory bulb (OB) formation

(Gong and Shipley, 1995). Around E11, the number of Achaete-scute homolog-1 (Ascl1)-

expressing neuronal progenitors increases in the developing olfactory epithelia, and the

neurogenesis of most chemosensory neurons is established (Guillemot et al., 1993; Taroc

et al., 2020).

The GnRH-1 neurons are broadly accepted to have a placodal origin in vertebrates

(Murakami et al., 2022; Schwanzel-Fukuda and Pfaff, 1989; Whitlock and Westerfield,

2000; Wray et al., 1989). The GnRH-1 neurons are ancestral cells (Herbison, 2025), in fact,

both GnRH peptides and GnRH-expressing neurons have been reported in ascidians,

where specialized olfactory chemosensory epithelia are absent and only proto-placodal

structures have also been described (Abitua et al., 2015; Kamiya et al., 2014; Poncelet and

Shimeld, 2020; Sakai et al., 2020; Stolfi et al., 2015).

The TN neurons form the migratory mass, along with the olfactory pioneer neurons,

neuropeptide-Y (Npy) expressing neurons, Somatostatin (Sst) expressing neurons, the

GnRH-1 neurons, and the olfactory ensheathing cells (Demski and Schwanzel-Fukuda,

1987; Hilal et al., 1996; Miller et al., 2010; Murakami et al., 2022; Taroc et al., 2017;

Valverde et al., 1993; Vilensky, 2012).

The migratory neurons emerging from the developing olfactory structures exhibit

several molecular/genetic differences relative to the chemosensory neurons of the

olfactory and vomeronasal epithelia. The GnRH-1 neurons express the transcription factor

Isl1, which defines a unique genetic lineage across the neurons of the migratory mass

(Lund et al., 2020; Shan et al., 2020; Taroc et al., 2020). Additionally, the GnRH-1 neurons

can form in animals with loss-of-function mutations in the transcription factor Gli3, which

instead causes severe impairment of olfactory and vomeronasal neurogenesis (Taroc et al.,

2020). Furthermore, characterization of mice expressing the human Peripherin BAC

transgene or Prokineticin Receptor 2-Cre (Prokr2Cre) suggests distinct genetic lineages

between the migratory pioneer-TN neurons and the GnRH-1 neurons (Amato et al., 2024;

Taroc et al., 2017).

GnRH-1, TN, and olfactory pioneer neurons are among the earliest neuronal populations to

develop in the nose. Prokr2Cre lineage tracing showed that these cells can be identified

genetically and through strong immunoreactivity for Cntn2 (TAG-1) and Map2 between

E11.5 and E14.5. In contrast, little to no immunoreactivity for either marker is seen in the

sensory neurons of the developing olfactory and vomeronasal epithelia (Amato et al., 2025;

Schwarting et al., 2001; Taroc et al., 2017).

Patients affected by Kallmann syndrome are characterized by a defective sense of

smell and delayed or absent puberty (Forni and Wray, 2015; Kallmann, 1944; Lieblich et al.,

1982). Roles of GnRH-expressing neurons for chemodetection have been proposed from

ascidians to vertebrates (Abitua et al., 2015; Umatani and Oka, 2019). Recent data have

identified that a subpopulation of GnRH-1 neurons around the OB plays a role in processing

chemosensory signals (Decoster et al., 2024). Notably, this group of OB GnRH-1 neurons

has been shown to function in both mating behavior and in olfactory preference for

opposite-sex odors. These data indicate that GnRH-1 neurons, beyond their established

function in regulating the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis, can also play a crucial role

in processing chemosensory stimuli (Umatani and Oka, 2019).

The developmental relationship between the olfactory system and the other

neurons of the migratory mass has been a matter of investigation for decades. However,

the lack of distinct markers and defined genetic entry points has hindered efforts to identify

early nasal neurons and clarify the functions of specific genes in their development. The

Golgi Associated Olfactory Signaling Regulator (Goofy/ Gfy) is an integral membrane

protein located in the Golgi membrane, which is expressed in nasal chemosensory neurons

of rodents, including neurons of the main olfactory epithelium (OE), vomeronasal sensory

epithelium (VSE), and GG (Kaneko-Goto et al., 2013). Here, we characterized Gfy

expression and genetic lineage during early stages of olfactory development (E11.5-E15.5)

and the postnatal VNO. Our data indicates a molecular distinction and differences in

developmental dynamics between the migratory neuronal population originating from the

OP and the neurons belonging to the specialized chemosensory system of rodents.

Results

Gfy is heterogeneously expressed across newly formed neurons in the developing

olfactory system

The developing OP and its derivatives are highly neurogenic, resulting in continuous

and asynchronous neuronal production throughout the nasal region. In mouse,

neurogenesis in the OP starts soon after its formation around E9.5, as pioneer neurons can

be already detected at E10.5 (Chen et al., 2009; Fornaro et al., 2003; Forni et al., 2011b;

Katoh et al., 2011). Analyzing single-cell RNA sequencing data of the nasal area at E14.5

(Fig. 1A) (Amato et al., 2024), we found Gfy expression in cell clusters containing the

olfactory maturation marker gene Omp (Olfactory marker protein) expressing putative

developing chemosensory neurons (OSNs/VSNs), as well as in some of the putative

migratory pioneer/TN neurons (positive for Prokr2) (Amato et al., 2024) (Fig. 1F,H,I). By

analyzing Gfy expression (Fig. 1A-I) and its correlation (Fig. 1J) with markers of

neurogenesis and olfactory maturation, we found that Gfy is not expressed by proliferative

olfactory-vomeronasal progenitors (Ascl1+) (Fig. 1B), nor by olfactory-vomeronasal

precursors expressing Neurod1 and Neurog1 (Fig. 1C-D). However, its expression

correlates with the RNA binding protein Elav3 (HuC) (Fig. 1E) and reaches its highest

correlation with Gap43 (Growth Associated Protein 43), a neuron-specific protein

expressed during axon growth (Karns et al., 1987; Verhaagen et al., 1989) (Fig. 1G, J). Gfy

expression is further retained in cells expressing mRNA of Omp (Fig. 1G-J). These data

support Gfy expression across various postmitotic maturing neurons originating from the

OP (Kaneko-Goto et al., 2013; Margolis, 1972; Margolis and Tarnoff, 1973).

The GfyCre (123Cre) mouse line can produce different recombination patterns; in

chemosensory epithelia recombination starts to be apparent at E12

To further characterize the Gfy genetic lineage across the various neurons

originating from the OP, we bred GfyCre mice with homozygous R26tdTomato (Ai14$^{-/-}$)

reporter mice. PCR analysis of the pups showed Cre inheritance following the expected

Mendelian ratios (data not shown); however (Fig. S1A-C), among the Cre-positive pups, we

observed two recombination patterns: 1) a highly chimeric recombination throughout the

body, including the chemosensory epithelia, and 2) recombination limited to the

chemosensory regions of the developing nose. Notably, similar recombination patterns

were seen regardless of whether the Cre was inherited maternally or paternally. From this

point on, we will discuss only results from animals in which recombination is limited to the

nasal chemosensory epithelia.

We examined embryos at multiple stages from E11.5 to E15.5 (Fig. 2). At E11.5, only

a few neurons positive for recombination were observed, some of which appeared in the

developing OE and VNO, whereas others were seen in the nasal mesenchyme (Fig. 2A). At

E12.5 and E13.5, neurons positive for recombination were clearly detected in the

developing chemosensory epithelia and in migratory neurons associated with Peripherin-

positive fibers (Fig. 2B-C). By E14.5 and E15.5, widespread recombination was evident

across the olfactory-vomeronasal epithelia and their projections to the OB (Fig. 2D-E), as

well as in neurons of the Gruenberg ganglion (GG) (Fig. S2) (Kaneko-Goto et al., 2013).

Notably, at these stages, we also observed Peripherin-positive fibers resembling those of

the putative TN invading the brain ventrally to the OB, which appeared negative for

recombination (Fig. 2D-E)(Fueshko and Wray, 1994; Wray et al., 1994). The migratory

neurons forming within the OP are readily detectable at E10.5 (Fornaro et al., 2003; Forni et

al., 2011b; Miller et al., 2010), prior to the initial neurogenesis of the olfactory/vomeronasal

chemosensory neurons that begins around E11.5 (Rawson et al., 2010; Taroc et al., 2020).

Around 2-3 days after the beginning of neurogenesis in the OP (E11.5 and E12.5), the

vomeronasal epithelium and part of the migratory mass showed only sparse GfyCre

recombination(Fig. 2A-B).

To better determine the time reference between the birth of chemosensory neurons

and GfyCre recombination, we injected GfyCre$^{+/-}$/A14$^{-/-}$ embryos with EdU first at E10.5,

then again at E11.5, and analyzed them at E14.5. (Fig. 3A). At this stage, we found that only

~60% (SD ± 3.02) of EdU-positive neurons born 3 or 4 days before showed detectable

recombination (Fig. 3B-E). Altogether, this indicates that GfyCre-mediated recombination

is variably detected between 2 and 4 days after neurogenesis.

Gfy is neither expressed by the GnRH-1 neurons nor by other neurons migrating from

the nose to the brain.

After confirming that GfyCre mice exhibited the expected recombination in

chemosensory neurons within 3 days from neurogenesis, we aimed to understand if the

Gfy lineage included ancestral cells such as the TN neurons, GnRH-1 neurons, or other

neuronal populations that form in the nose and migrate to the brain (Hilal et al., 1996;

Murakami et al., 2022; Murakami et al., 2024). The GnRH-1 neurons form between E10 and

E12 (Jasoni et al., 2009; Schwanzel-Fukuda and Pfaff, 1989; Wray et al., 1989). To trace

different neurogenic waves of the GnRH-1 neurons in GfyCre/Ai14 embryos, some dams

were injected with EdU at E8.5 and E9.5, and others at E10.5 and E11.5 (Fig. S3). We found

that 15% (SD ± 5.35) of the GnRH-1 neurons were labeled by EdU injection at E8.5 and E9.5

(Fig. S3B-C''), while 40% (SD ± 7.59) were labeled after injections at E10.5 and E11.5 (Fig.

S3D-F''). Notably, at all analyzed stages (E11.5 to E15.5) we never found GnRH-1 neurons

or other neuronal cells positive for Gfy tracing in the brain (Fig. 4), suggesting that Gfy is not

expressed in newly formed or maturing GnRH-1 neurons even 6 days after neurogenesis.

However, EdU injections at E10.5 and E11.5 revealed that 50% (SD ± 2.97) of migratory Gfy

traced neurons in the nose were labelled with EdU at these stages (Fig. S4) (Change images

for Fig. S4).

The terminal nerve neurons are negative for GfyCre tracing

In a recent paper, Prokr2 was identified as a reliable genetic marker for the neurons

forming the TN as well as for putative olfactory pioneer neurons. In the developing nose,

migratory cells positive for Prokr2Cre/Ai14 tracing can also be identified based on high

immunoreactivity for Map2 up to E14.5 (Amato et al., 2024). However, by pairing GfyCre

tracing with Map2 immunostaining at E14.5, we found that only a subset of Map2-positive

migratory neurons were also positive for GfyCre tracing (Fig. 5A-B'').

In line with work done in chick (Murakami et al., 2022), we observed that also in mouse,

cells expressing Sst emerge from the developing VNO and appear to migrate as part of the

migratory mass toward the brain, however, Sst expressing cells were not positive for Gfy

tracing (Fig. 5C-E). In contrast, by using Prokr2Cre tracing, we observed that Sst is

expressed at least transiently by some of the Prokr2 traced migratory cells (Fig. 5F-H''). In

Prokr2 traced animals immunolabelled against Sst, we found that some of the Sst

expressing cells, were also positive for Prokr2 tracing in the migratory mass. However, Sst

expressing cells in the brain appeared to be negative for both GfyCre and Prokr2Cre tracing.

(Fig. 5H-H'').

Analyzing GnRH-1 migration (Fig. 4D), we could see that the GnRH-1 neurons

invading the brain, were not associated with GfyCre traced fibers. In fact, the Peripherin+

fibers of the TN appeared negative for Gfy tracing (Fig. 2), though sparse axons positive for

Gfy tracing could be found in the basal forebrain (Fig. S5B-B'').

To determine whether Gfy-tracing could discriminate among different subpopulations of

Map2–Prokr2–expressing migratory neurons, we compared E14.5 GfyCre and Prokr2Cre

lineage-traced embryos (Fig.5I-I''). In Prokr2Cre-traced animals, neuronal cell bodies and

fibers extended into the brain alongside the migrating GnRH-1 neurons. In contrast, GfyCre

tracing labeled only neurons that remained within the nasal region. No GfyCre traced cell

bodies enter the forebrain (Fig. 2, 4). These results suggest that while the migratory neurons

expressing Prokr2, GnRH-1, and Sst invade the brain, the cell bodies belonging to the

GfyCre lineage remain in the nose.

Following Gfy expression in postnatal VSNs revealed differences in the developmental

dynamics of V1R and V2R VSNs.

The expression of Gfy in newly generated neurons makes this line a valuable tool for

manipulating chemosensory neurons prior to their maturation. Because of our focus on

neuronal populations of and arising from the vomeronasal primordium, we further

examined Gfy expression in this area. During embryonic development, we found that

GfyCre recombined in both Meis2 and AP-2ε (Tfap2e) expressing neurons, which later will

mature into V1R and V2R VSNs respectively (Fig. S6) (Enomoto et al., 2011; Katreddi et al.,

2022).

To characterize GfyCre recombination in relation to postnatal vomeronasal

neurogenesis, we reanalyzed whole-VNO single cell RNA-sequencing datasets (Hills et al.,

2024; LeFever et al., 2024) and reconstructed the canonical dichotomy of apical and basal

VSN development (Fig. 6A). UMAP projections and expression overlays for progenitors

(Ascl1, Mki67, Neurog1), precursors (non-proliferative Neurog1, Neurod1), maturing VSNs

(Gap43, Gng8/Gy8 and Gfy) and the maturation marker Omp. These recapitulated the

expected neurogenic sequence, with progenitors at the base of the Y-trajectory,

transitioning through neuronal precursors and immature VSNs, and diverging into the

apical and basal branches, which culminate in mature V1R/Meis2+ and V2R/AP-2ε+

neurons (Fig. 6B).

Pearson coefficient calculation of global gene–gene correlation revealed consistent

transcriptional changes across the dataset (Fig. 6C). This analysis showed that in contrast

to what was observed during embryonic development (Fig. 1J), a negative correlation

between Gfy and Gap43, along with a positive correlation between Gng8 and Omp. This

suggests that postnatally, Gfy is expressed with a delay relative to Gap43 in maturing

neurons and maintains high expression in mature neurons, while Gng8 clusters with

intermediate neuronal states (Fig. 6D,G).

When the apical and basal branches were examined separately, we found additional

interesting differences in their internal development (Fig. 6E–E"). In fact, we noticed that

Gap43 expression rises earlier in Meis2+/apical lineage as opposed to AP-2ε+/basal

lineage (Fig. 6E', E''). On the contrary, the Meis2-/basal lineage was found to have a

negative correlation between Neurod1 and Gap43.

Further analysis at precursor stages reinforced this difference (Fig. S7), showing

higher Gap43 and Gfy expression in the Meis2+/apical lineage. Moreover, by performing

correlation analysis on Meis2+/apical and AP-2ε+/basal precursor populations, we

observed that Meis2+ cells have a more precocious expression of Gfy, partial overlapping

with Neurod1 and Omp (Fig. S7C'-C''). Suggestive of differences in developmental

dynamics between the two main types of VSNs.

From previous work we know that V2R VSN specific transcription factor Ap2e

directly binds and negatively regulates the expression of the Gt(ROSA)26Sor locus (Lin et

al., 2022). Based on that, we assessed expression of the Gt(ROSA)26Sor locus to evaluate

baseline reporter activity across VSN classes. Violin plots revealed a modest but

consistent elevation in ROSA expression in apical (Meis2+) VSNs relative to basal neurons

(AP-2ε+) (Fig. 6F), suggesting lineage-specific differences that may influence reporter

sensitivity in genetic tracing experiments.

To validate some of these observations in vivo, we combined GfyCre lineage tracing with

Gap43 immunofluorescence (Fig. 7A-A'''). At P30, GfyCre-traced neurons were present in

both immature and mature VSNs. However, a difference in the intensity of tdTomato

expression was visibly noticeable between neurons in the apical and basal territories (Fig

7A-A"). In the marginal zones, where the VSNs give rise to maturing Gap43+ cells, we

noticed that tdTomato fluorescence was often absent or very low, confirming that GfyCre-

mediated recombination lags behind Gap43 expression.

As expected from their known axonal guidance programs, V1R/Meis2+ VSNs (Neuropilin-

2+) projected to the anterior AOB, whereas V2R/AP-2ε+ VSNs (Robo2+) projected to the

posterior AOB. GfyCre-mediated recombination was detected in the axons targeting both

AOB domains (Fig. 7B-B"). The reduced Rosa26 expression characteristic of basal VSNs

again translated into visibly weaker tdTomato signals in the posterior AOB glomeruli

compared to those in the anterior AOB glomeruli (Fig. 6F).

Discussion

The lineage and developmental relationship between olfactory sensory neurons

(OSNs) and neurons of the migratory mass in the developing nose has been a subject of

much speculation. Early observations showed that the GnRH-1 neurons emerge from the

OP and migrate alongside olfactory axons toward the forebrain, suggesting that a caudal

branch of the vomeronasal nerve might provide structural or molecular cues essential for

GnRH-1 pathfinding to the basal forebrain (Hanchate et al., 2012; Schwanzel-Fukuda and

Pfaff, 1989; Wierman et al., 2011; Wray et al., 1989). This idea was strengthened by findings

in Kallmann syndrome (Kallmann, 1944), where anosmia frequently co-occurs with failed

GnRH-1 neuronal migration, implying a shared developmental dependency (Schwarting et

al., 2001; Yoshida et al., 1995). However, subsequent work has suggested that the

association between OSNs and GnRH-1 neurons is less direct than initially assumed.

Accumulating evidence indicates that populations of neurons distinct from OSNs and

VSNs serve as the primary substrates guiding GnRH-1 neurons into the brain (Amato et al.,

2025; Amato et al., 2024; Murakami et al., 2024; Taroc et al., 2019; Taroc et al., 2020; Taroc

et al., 2017). This evolving understanding has shifted the field away from the long-held

assumption of a direct OSN/VSN-GnRH link and toward a model in which multiple

placode-derived neuronal lineages play specialized and non-redundant roles in GnRH-1

migration (Murakami et al., 2022).

Here, we present a characterization of the neuronal cell types within the developing

olfactory system that can be genetically traced through the use of Gfy(123)Cre.

Characterizing the mice, we observed that 50% of the Cre-positive mice exhibit some early

Gfy expression during development that can lead to chimeric recombination (Fig. S1). This

is an important caveat for designing genetic strategies with this line, we suggest keeping

these mice on a reporter line to monitor the recombination pattern. However, at least 50%

of the GfyCre mice have the expected olfactory recombination.

From the experiments shown here, we provide new evidence distinguishing GnRH-1

neurons and other TN neuron cells from the OSN, VSN and GG lineages. Initial analysis of

Gfy expression using E14.5 single-cell RNA sequencing data revealed that both

differentiated olfactory neurons and groups of migratory neurons in the nose exhibit Gfy

enrichment (Fig. 1). Moreover, these data showed that Gfy largely overlaps with Gap43

expression during embryonic development (Fig. 1J). Consistent with these transcriptomic

findings, examination of GfyCre$^{+/-}$;Ai14$^{+/-}$ traced embryos revealed a progressive increase in

Gfy lineage tracing between E11.0 and E15.5, spanning many OSNs, VSNs, and GG

neurons, as well as their projections to the developing OBs (Fig. 2, S2). In addition, we also

identified subsets of Gfy labeled cell bodies that appeared to be migrating away from the

chemosensory epithelia toward the developing OBs (Fig. 2B-C). These results indicate that

some of the migratory neurons express Gfy, supporting prior observations that Gfy

expression is associated with neuronal populations forming from or belonging to the nasal

chemosensory epithelia (Baker and Farbman, 1993; Habif et al., 2023; Hirata et al., 2006;

Kaneko-Goto et al., 2013; Valverde et al., 1993).

Recent work identified Sst expression in cells invading the brain with the GnRH-1

neurons (Murakami et al., 2022). We observed that Sst is expressed by some of the

Prokr2Cre traced neurons but not positive for GfyCre tracing (Fig. 5C-H'').However, recent

data in mouse suggests that the GnRH-1 neurons themselves can express Sst, making it

possible that previously identified Sst cells include subsets or maturing GnRH-1 neurons

(Zouaghi et al., 2025). No overlap between GnRH-1, Sst, and Gfy tracing was observed at

any point during the development or migration of the GnRH-1 neurons (Fig. 4,5).

Interestingly, GnRH-1 immunoreactivity appears days before the onset of GfyCre

recombination. In fact, while at E11.5 and E12.5, numerous neurons within the VNO and

nasal area were positive for GnRH-1, only sparse cells showed detectable Gfy lineage

tracing (Fig. 4A-B''').

Our birth-dating experiments indicate that chemosensory neurons in the OE and

VNO undergo Cre-mediated recombination between 3-4 days after neurogenesis (Fig. 3).

Birth dating of GnRH-1 neurons confirmed that GfyCre recombination is not detectable in

these cells even 6 days after their generation (Fig. S3).

We previously identified that Prokr2Cre tracing and Map2 strong immunoreactivity

overlap in migratory TN neurons emerging from the developing olfactory epithelia. Notably,

some Prokr2+ expressing neurons also express GnRH-1 (Amato et al., 2024).

Map2 immunostaining combined with GfyCre lineage tracing revealed that approximately

50% of the migratory neurons within the migratory mass were positive for Gfy tracing (Fig.

5A–D). These findings indicate that at least half of the neurons previously identified by

Prokr2 lineage tracing also express Gfy, consistent with the embryonic single-cell

transcriptomic data (Fig. 1). Together, these data suggest that Prokr2 exhibits broader

expression across migratory neuronal populations, including olfactory pioneer and TN

neurons, while GfyCre is limited only to pioneer neurons that remain in the nasal

compartment. The GnRH-1 neurons enter the brain along TN fibers, which are positive for

Cntn2 (Tag1), Peripherin and Prokr2Cre lineage (Amato et al., 2025; Schwarting et al., 2001;

Taroc et al., 2017). However, Peripherin-positive TN projections that invade the basal

forebrain together with the GnRH-1 neurons were for the most part negative for Gfy tracing

(Fig. 2, S5). GfyCre does not label the GnRH-1 neurons, nor other cell bodies that invade

the brain.

Following Gfy expression and recombination in the VNO lead us to some other

interesting findings. GfyCre recombination occurs in neurons of both apical (Meis2/V1R)

and basal (AP-2ε/V2R) vomeronasal lineages, indicating that Gfy is not lineage-restricted

(Fig. 6). However, reanalysis of postnatal single-cell transcriptomic data of apical and basal

trajectories reveals subtle but important differences in their maturation dynamics. Apical

VSNs display earlier and stronger overlap between Gap43 and Gfy expression, whereas

basal VSNs show delayed or weaker expression suggesting lineage-specific developmental

gene expression progressions (Fig. 6E-E'') (Hills et al., 2024; Lin et al., 2018). These intrinsic

differences extend to reporter sensitivity at the Rosa26 locus (Fig. 6F), which exhibits lower

baseline expression in basal VSNs (Lin et al., 2022) and likely contributes to weaker

lineage-tracing signals in this population (Fig. 6F).

In vivo validation confirmed that GfyCre recombination lags behind early

differentiation markers such as Gap43, yet robustly labels neurons as they progress toward

maturity and project appropriately to both anterior and posterior domains of the accessory

olfactory bulb. Together, these findings establish Gfy as a developmentally timed marker of

postmitotic vomeronasal neurons, refine the interpretation of Cre-based lineage tracing

across VSN subtypes, and provide a framework for selectively manipulating chemosensory

neurons without perturbing earlier neurogenic events.

Methods

Animals

Gfy(123)-Cre mice were provided generously from Dr. Thomas Bozza (Northwestern University), originally generated at RIKEN Brain Science Institute, Japan (Dr. Yoshihiro Yoshihara). PCR analysis was performed for genotyping, using generic Cre primers as follows: Cre FWD, AGG TGT AGA GAA GGC ACT TAG C, *Cre RVS, CTA ATC GCC ATC TTC CAG CAG G*. Ai14 mice were genotyped following the B6.Cg-*Gt(ROSA)26Sor*$^{tm14(CAG-tdTomato)Hze}$/J protocols available on jax.org. Generation of Prokr2Cre$^{+/-}$ mice (Mohsen et al. [2017]) and genotyping (Amato Jr. et al. [2024]) were previously described. CO_2 euthanasia was performed, then immediate cervical dislocation. Mice of either sex were used for experiments. All animal experiments and procedures were completed in accordance with the guidelines of the Animal Care and Use Committee at the University at Albany, SUNY.

Tissue Preparation

Embryonic Tissue Collection

Embryo collection was carefully performed on time-mated females, where observation of the vaginal plug was estimated to be embryonic day 0.5 (E0.5). Collected embryos were placed into 3.7% formaldehyde/PBS at 4°C for 2 h to fix. Embryos then were submerged in 30% sucrose overnight, then embedded and frozen in O.C.T (Tissue-Tek) before storing at −80°C. The CM3050S Leica cryostat was used to cryosection embedded embryos, tissue sections were collected using Superfrost plus slides (VWR) at 18 µm thickness for immunofluorescent staining.

Postnatal Tissue Collection

P30 mice were sedated with Sodium Pentobarbital, then transcardial perfusion was performed with 1X PBS followed by 4% Paraformaldehyde in PBS. Noses were separated from brains, with the noses being post fixed in 4% Paraformaldehyde overnight at 4°C. Brains were post fixed in 1% Paraformaldehyde overnight at 4°C. The following day, brains were cryoprotected with 30% Sucrose in 1X PBS at 4°C overnight and noses were incubated in 500mM EDTA in 1X PBS for decalcification. At end of EDTA incubation noses were cryoprotected in sucrose. Samples were embedded and frozen in O.C.T and stored in -80°C prior to cryosectioning serial sections on Superfrost plus (VWR) slides. Noses were sectioned in a coronal orientation, while brains were sectioned in the parasagittal orientation.

Immunohistochemistry

The following primary antibodies and dilutions were used for this study: goat-α-RFP (1:1000, Rockland), chicken-α-Peripherin (1:500, Abcam), SW rabbit-α-GnRH-1 (1:6000, Susan Wray, NIH), rabbit-α-Map2 (1:150, Cell Signaling Technology), mouse-α-RFP (1:500, Origene), rabbit-α-Somatostatin (1:100, Abcam), rabbit-α-Gap43 (1:1000, Abcam), goat-α Neuropilin2 (1:4000, R&D Systems), mouse-α-Robo2 (1:50, Santa Cruz), rabbit-α-RFP (1:500, Rockland), goat-α-OMP (1:4000, WAKO), goat-α-AP-2ε (1:500, R&D Systems), and rabbit-α-Meis2 (1:1000, Abcam).

Antigen retrieval was used for experiments utilizing rabbit-α-Map2, mouse-α-RFP, goat-α Neuropilin2, mouse-α-Robo2, rabbit-α-RFP, goat-α-AP-2ε, and rabbit-α-Meis2, slides were submerged in a citric acid solution, gradually heated to 95°C, once at 95°C, boiling for 15 min. Slides were then cooled for 15 min before proceeding with standard immunohistochemical protocol.

Immunofluorescence

For immunofluorescent staining, secondary antibodies selected for the correct species were conjugated with Alexa Fluor-488, Alexa Flour-594, or Alexa Flour-680 (Invitrogen and

Jackson Laboratories). 4',6'-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI, 1:3000; Sigma-Aldrich) was

used to counterstain sections and coverslips were mounted using Fluorogel l (Electron

Microscopy Sciences). Confocal microscopy image acquisition was taken on a LSM 710

microscope (Zeiss). Epifluorescence images were acquired on a DM4000 B LED

fluorescence microscope equipped with a Leica DFC310 FX camera. Whole embryo

images were acquired using the Nikon SMZ25 stereo microscope. Image analysis and

quantifications were done using FIJI/ImageJ software. Each staining presented was

replicated on three different animals.

Edu Administration and Detection

Edu was prepared according to ClickTech EdU Cell Proliferation Kit 488 for IM (Millipore-sigma,

BCK-EDU488). Edu injections were performed on time-mated females previously described in

the tissue preparation section of the methods. Intraperitoneal injections were done at various

time points at a dosage of 50mg/kg body weight. We observed that development was not affected

by the injections. To detect Edu positive cells, we performed immunofluorescence as described in

the previous section and followed the standard ClickTech EdU Cell Proliferation Kit 488 protocol.

Slides were incubated for 30 minutes at room temperature in the prepared detection solution

protected from light. After, we followed standard immunofluorescent protocol.

Cell Quantifications

Quantifications performed were done in FIJI/ImageJ using the cell counter plugin. All cell

number quantifications in the nasal region were done on parasaggital E12.0-P1 tissue. For

each quantification reported, cell bodies of neurons were counted. For all quantifications

of cell counts, the number of cells per section (~5 sections) was averaged for each animal.

Embryonic Single-Cell Cell RNA Sequencing

Dimplots and feature plots were generated in R studio using the Seurat R package. The

E14.5 single-cell sequencing data can be found on the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO)

database: GEO accession number GSE234871

(**https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE234871**). The data

collection process and analysis was previously described (Amato Jr. et al. **2024**).

Post-natal scRNA-seq quality control, clustering and analysis.

Quality Control and Filtering: Postnatal single-cell RNA sequencing datasets (P14, P56, and

P10, P21, P60) used for analysis can be found with GEO accession numbers GSE247872,

and GSE252365. Data collection and analysis were previously described (Hills et al., 2024;

LeFever et al., 2024). Independent ages respective datasets were merged and integrated to

get a more full picture of the vomeronasal development. Cell filtering was done

downstream to remove genes expressed in ≤3 cells, and ≥200 detectable genes. Quality

control was done to clean up the data to only cells expressing between 200 and 9000 with

≤25% of those genes being mitochondrial genes.

CellCycle Regression: To avoid noise from cells undergoing active cell cycling, cells were

scored for their features aligning with S, and G2/M phase as described in a SeuratV5

vignette (Hao et al., 2023). The difference between S.Score and G2M.Score was calculated,

and these cells were regressed to include differences between cell types but remove

differences within cycling cells.

DoubletFinder: The DoubletFinder program built for Seurat was applied to reduce and

remove a predicted number of artificial doublets created during the process of single cell

sequencing. This package was used as previously described (McGinnis et al., 2019).

Processing: Using SCTransform the data was scaled and normalized, the top 2000 highly

variable features within the top 50 principal components were used for clustering. About

18,000 cells were used in this analysis and different developmental stages were identified

through well documented key markers. When completing analysis each cluster/gene were

compared against all other clusters/genes. In the Apical/V1R v Basal/V2R comparisons,

only the Apical/V1R lineage was compared to the Basal/V2R lineage. Analysis of the

differential Gt(ROSA)26Sor expression was conducted on P10, P21, P60 data previously

published (LeFever et al., 2024).

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health

and Human Development (NICHD) under Grants R01HD09733 (P.E.F.) and R01HD114827

(P.E.F.), as well as by the National Institute on Deafness and Other Communication

Disorders (NIDCD) under Grant R01DC017149 (P.E.F.). The Zeiss 980 microscope at the

University at Albany was funded by the Office of the Director, NIH, under Award Number

S10OD028600.

We thank Dr. Yoshiro Yoshihara (Riken Center for Brain Science, Japan) and Dr. Thomas

Bozza (Department of Neurobiology, Northwestern University, USA) for donating and

sharing the Gfy Cre line with us.

501
502

References

Abitua, P. B., Gainous, T. B., Kaczmarczyk, A. N., Winchell, C. J., Hudson, C., Kamata, K.,
Nakagawa, M., Tsuda, M., Kusakabe, T. G. and Levine, M. (2015). The pre-vertebrate
origins of neurogenic placodes. *Nature* **524**, 462-465.

Amato, E., Jr., Semon, A. M. and Forni, P. E. (2025). Tracing Early Migratory Neurons in the
Developing Nose Using Contactin-2 (Cntn2) CreERT2. *Genesis* **63**, e70021.

Amato, E., Jr., Taroc, E. Z. M. and Forni, P. E. (2024). Illuminating the terminal nerve:
Uncovering the link between GnRH-1 neuron and olfactory development. *J Comp Neurol*
532, e25599.

Baker, H. and Farbman, A. I. (1993). Olfactory afferent regulation of the dopamine phenotype
in the fetal rat olfactory system. *Neuroscience* **52**, 115-134.

Brunjes, P. C. and Frazier, L. L. (1986). Maturation and plasticity in the olfactory system of
vertebrates. *Brain Res* **396**, 1-45.

Chen, B., Kim, E. H. and Xu, P. X. (2009). Initiation of olfactory placode development and
neurogenesis is blocked in mice lacking both Six1 and Six4. *Dev Biol* **326**, 75-85.

Couly, G. F. and Le Douarin, N. M. (1985). Mapping of the early neural primordium in quail-
chick chimeras. I. Developmental relationships between placodes, facial ectoderm, and
prosencephalon. *Dev Biol* **110**, 422-439.

Cuschieri, A. and Bannister, L. H. (1975a). The development of the olfactory mucosa in the
mouse: electron microscopy. *J Anat* **119**, 471-498.

---- (1975b). The development of the olfactory mucosa in the mouse: light microscopy. *J Anat*
119, 277-286.

Decoster, L., Trova, S., Zucca, S., Bulk, J., Gouveia, A., Ternier, G., Lhomme, T., Legrand, A., Gallet, S., Boehm, U., et al. (2024). A GnRH neuronal population in the olfactory bulb translates socially relevant odors into reproductive behavior in male mice. *Nat Neurosci* **27**, 1758-1773.

Demski, L. S. and Schwanzel-Fukuda, M. (1987). The terminal nerve (nervus terminalis): structure, function, and evolution. Introduction. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* **519**, ix-xi.

Enomoto, T., Ohmoto, M., Iwata, T., Uno, A., Saitou, M., Yamaguchi, T., Kominami, R., Matsumoto, I. and Hirota, J. (2011). Bcl11b/Ctip2 controls the differentiation of vomeronasal sensory neurons in mice. *J Neurosci* **31**, 10159-10173.

Fornaro, M., Geuna, S., Fasolo, A. and Giacobini-Robecchi, M. G. (2003). HuC/D confocal imaging points to olfactory migratory cells as the first cell population that expresses a post-mitotic neuronal phenotype in the chick embryo. *Neuroscience* **122**, 123-128.

Forni, P. E., Bharti, K., Flannery, E. M., Shimogori, T. and Wray, S. (2013). The indirect role of fibroblast growth factor-8 in defining neurogenic niches of the olfactory/GnRH systems. *J Neurosci* **33**, 19620-19634.

Forni, P. E., Fornaro, M., Guenette, S. and Wray, S. (2011a). A role for FE65 in controlling GnRH-1 neurogenesis. *J Neurosci* **31**, 480-491.

Forni, P. E., Taylor-Burds, C., Melvin, V. S., Williams, T. and Wray, S. (2011b). Neural crest and ectodermal cells intermix in the nasal placode to give rise to GnRH-1 neurons, sensory neurons, and olfactory ensheathing cells. *J Neurosci* **31**, 6915-6927.

Forni, P. E. and Wray, S. (2015). GnRH, anosmia and hypogonadotropic hypogonadism--where are we? *Front Neuroendocrinol* **36**, 165-177.

Fueshko, S. and Wray, S. (1994). LHRH cells migrate on peripherin fibers in embryonic olfactory explant cultures: an in vitro model for neurophilic neuronal migration. *Dev Biol* **166**, 331-348.

Gong, Q. and Shipley, M. T. (1995). Evidence that pioneer olfactory axons regulate telencephalon cell cycle kinetics to induce the formation of the olfactory bulb. *Neuron* **14**, 91-101.

Graham, A., Blentic, A., Duque, S. and Begbie, J. (2007). Delamination of cells from neurogenic placodes does not involve an epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition. *Development* **134**, 4141-4145.

Guillemot, F., Lo, L. C., Johnson, J. E., Auerbach, A., Anderson, D. J. and Joyner, A. L. (1993). Mammalian achaete-scute homolog 1 is required for the early development of olfactory and autonomic neurons. *Cell* **75**, 463-476.

Habif, J. C., Xie, C., de Celis, C., Ukhanov, K., Green, W. W., Moretta, J. C., Zhang, L., Campbell, R. J. and Martens, J. R. (2023). The role of a ciliary GTPase in the regulation of neuronal maturation of olfactory sensory neurons. *Development* **150**.

Hanchate, N. K., Giacobini, P., Lhuillier, P., Parkash, J., Espy, C., Fouveaut, C., Leroy, C., Baron, S., Campagne, C., Vanacker, C., et al. (2012). SEMA3A, a gene involved in axonal pathfinding, is mutated in patients with Kallmann syndrome. *PLoS genetics* **8**, e1002896.

Herbison, A. E. (2025). Evolution of the GnRH Neuron. In *Evolutionary and Comparative Neuroendocrinology* (ed. V. Grinevich & R. Oliveira), pp. 143-164. Cham: Springer Nature Switzerland.

Hilal, E. M., Chen, J. H. and Silverman, A. J. (1996). Joint migration of gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) and neuropeptide Y (NPY) neurons from olfactory placode to central nervous system. *J Neurobiol* **31**, 487-502.

Hills, M. H., Ma, L., Fang, A., Chiremba, T., Malloy, S., Scott, A. R., Perera, A. G. and Yu, C. R. (2024). Molecular, cellular, and developmental organization of the mouse vomeronasal organ at single cell resolution. *Elife* **13**.

Hirata, T., Nakazawa, M., Yoshihara, S., Miyachi, H., Kitamura, K., Yoshihara, Y. and Hibi,
M. (2006). Zinc-finger gene Fez in the olfactory sensory neurons regulates development
of the olfactory bulb non-cell-autonomously. *Development* **133**, 1433-1443.
Ikeda, K., Ookawara, S., Sato, S., Ando, Z., Kageyama, R. and Kawakami, K. (2007). Six1 is
essential for early neurogenesis in the development of olfactory epithelium. *Dev Biol*
311, 53-68.
Jasoni, C. L., Porteous, R. W. and Herbison, A. E. (2009). Anatomical location of mature
GnRH neurons corresponds with their birthdate in the developing mouse. *Dev Dyn* **238**,
524-531.
Kallmann, F. (1944). The genetic aspects of primary eunuchoidism.
Kamiya, C., Ohta, N., Ogura, Y., Yoshida, K., Horie, T., Kusakabe, T. G., Satake, H. and
Sasakura, Y. (2014). Nonreproductive role of gonadotropin-releasing hormone in the
control of ascidian metamorphosis. *Dev Dyn* **243**, 1524-1535.
Kaneko-Goto, T., Sato, Y., Katada, S., Kinameri, E., Yoshihara, S., Nishiyori, A., Kimura, M.,
Fujita, H., Touhara, K., Reed, R. R., et al. (2013). Goofy coordinates the acuity of
olfactory signaling. *J Neurosci* **33**, 12987-12996, 12996a.
Karns, L. R., Ng, S. C., Freeman, J. A. and Fishman, M. C. (1987). Cloning of complementary
DNA for GAP-43, a neuronal growth-related protein. *Science* **236**, 597-600.
Katoh, H., Shibata, S., Fukuda, K., Sato, M., Satoh, E., Nagoshi, N., Minematsu, T.,
Matsuzaki, Y., Akazawa, C., Toyama, Y., et al. (2011). The dual origin of the peripheral
olfactory system: placode and neural crest. *Mol Brain* **4**, 34.
Katreddi, R. R., Taroc, E. Z. M., Hicks, S. M., Lin, J. M., Liu, S. T., Xiang, M. Q. and Forni, P.
E. (2022). Notch signaling determines cell-fate specification of the two main types of
vomeronasal neurons of rodents. *Development* **149**.
Klein, S. L. and Graziadei, P. P. (1983). The differentiation of the olfactory placode in Xenopus
laevis: a light and electron microscope study. *J Comp Neurol* **217**, 17-30.
LeFever, N. M., Katreddi, R. R., Dolphin, N. M., Mathias, N. A. and Forni, P. E. (2024).
Following the p63/Keratin5 basal cells in the sensory and non-sensory epithelia of the
vomeronasal organ. *Genesis* **62**, e23596.
Lieblich, J. M., Rogol, A. D., White, B. J. and Rosen, S. W. (1982). Syndrome of anosmia with
hypogonadotropic hypogonadism (Kallmann syndrome): clinical and laboratory studies in
23 cases. *Am J Med* **73**, 506-519.
Lin, J. M., Mitchell, T. A., Rothstein, M., Pehl, A., Taroc, E. Z. M., Katreddi, R. R., Parra, K.
E., Zuloaga, D. G., Simoes-Costa, M. and Forni, P. E. (2022). Sociosexual behavior
requires both activating and repressive roles of Tfap2e/AP-2epsilon in vomeronasal
sensory neurons. *Elife* **11**.
Lin, J. M., Taroc, E. Z. M., Frias, J. A., Prasad, A., Catizone, A. N., Sammons, M. A. and
Forni, P. E. (2018). The transcription factor Tfap2e/AP-2epsilon plays a pivotal role in
maintaining the identity of basal vomeronasal sensory neurons. *Dev Biol* **441**, 67-82.
Lund, C., Yellapragada, V., Vuoristo, S., Balboa, D., Trova, S., Allet, C., Eskici, N., Pulli, K.,
Giacobini, P., Tuuri, T., et al. (2020). Characterization of the human GnRH neuron
developmental transcriptome using a GNRH1-TdTomato reporter line in human
pluripotent stem cells. *Dis Model Mech* **13**.
Margolis, F. L. (1972). A brain protein unique to the olfactory bulb. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **69**,
1221-1224.
Margolis, F. L. and Tarnoff, J. F. (1973). Site of biosynthesis of the mouse brain olfactory bulb
protein. *J Biol Chem* **248**, 451-455.
Miller, A. M., Treloar, H. B. and Greer, C. A. (2010). Composition of the migratory mass during
development of the olfactory nerve. *J Comp Neurol* **518**, 4825-4841.

Murakami, S., Ohki-Hamazaki, H. and Uchiyama, Y. (2022). Olfactory placode generates a
diverse population of neurons expressing GnRH, somatostatin mRNA, neuropeptide Y,
or calbindin in the chick forebrain. *J Comp Neurol* **530**, 2977-2993.
---- (2024). Somatostatin affects GnRH neuronal development and migration and stimulates
olfactory-related fiber fasciculation. *Dev Neurobiol* **84**, 3-17.
Paronett, E. M., Bryan, C. A., Maynard, T. M. and LaMantia, A.-S. (2023). Identity, lineage
and fates of a temporally distinct progenitor population in the embryonic olfactory
epithelium. *Developmental Biology*.
Poncelet, G. and Shimeld, S. M. (2020). The evolutionary origins of the vertebrate olfactory
system. *Open Biol* **10**, 200330.
Rawson, N. E. (1999). Cell and molecular biology of olfaction. *Quintessence Int* **30**, 335-341.
Rawson, N. E., Lischka, F. W., Yee, K. K., Peters, A. Z., Tucker, E. S., Meechan, D. W.,
Zirlinger, M., Maynard, T. M., Burd, G. B., Dulac, C., et al. (2010). Specific
mesenchymal/epithelial induction of olfactory receptor, vomeronasal, and gonadotropin-
releasing hormone (GnRH) neurons. *Dev Dyn* **239**, 1723-1738.
Rukh, S., Meechan, D. W., Maynard, T. M. and Lamantia, A. S. (2024). Out of Line or Altered
States? Neural Progenitors as a Target in a Polygenic Neurodevelopmental Disorder.
Dev Neurosci **46**, 1-21.
Sakai, T., Yamamoto, T., Matsubara, S., Kawada, T. and Satake, H. (2020). Invertebrate
Gonadotropin-Releasing Hormone Receptor Signaling and Its Relevant Biological
Actions. *Int J Mol Sci* **21**.
Schwanzel-Fukuda, M. and Pfaff, D. W. (1989). Origin of luteinizing hormone-releasing
hormone neurons. *Nature* **338**, 161-164.
Schwarting, G. A., Kostek, C., Bless, E. P., Ahmad, N. and Tobet, S. A. (2001). Deleted in
colorectal cancer (DCC) regulates the migration of luteinizing hormone-releasing
hormone neurons to the basal forebrain. *J Neurosci* **21**, 911-919.
Shan, Y., Saadi, H. and Wray, S. (2020). Heterogeneous Origin of Gonadotropin Releasing
Hormone-1 Neurons in Mouse Embryos Detected by Islet-1/2 Expression. *Front Cell Dev*
Biol **8**, 35.
Smart, I. H. (1971). Location and orientation of mitotic figures in the developing mouse olfactory
epithelium. *J Anat* **109**, 243-251.
Stolfi, A., Ryan, K., Meinertzhagen, I. A. and Christiaen, L. (2015). Migratory neuronal
progenitors arise from the neural plate borders in tunicates. *Nature* **527**, 371-374.
Taroc, E. Z. M., Lin, J. M., Tulloch, A. J., Jaworski, A. and Forni, P. E. (2019). GnRH-1
Neural Migration From the Nose to the Brain Is Independent From Slit2, Robo3 and
NELL2 Signaling. *Front Cell Neurosci* **13**, 70.
Taroc, E. Z. M., Naik, A. S., Lin, J. M., Peterson, N. B., Keefe, D. L., Jr., Genis, E., Fuchs,
G., Balasubramanian, R. and Forni, P. E. (2020). Gli3 Regulates Vomeronasal
Neurogenesis, Olfactory Ensheathing Cell Formation, and GnRH-1 Neuronal Migration.
J Neurosci **40**, 311-326.
Taroc, E. Z. M., Prasad, A., Lin, J. M. and Forni, P. E. (2017). The terminal nerve plays a
prominent role in GnRH-1 neuronal migration independent from proper olfactory and
vomeronasal connections to the olfactory bulbs. *Biol Open* **6**, 1552-1568.
Tarozzo, G., Peretto, P. and Fasolo, A. (1995). Cell migration from the olfactory placode and
the ontogeny of the neuroendocrine compartments. *Zoolog Sci* **12**, 367-383.
Umatani, C. and Oka, Y. (2019). Multiple functions of non-hypophysiotropic gonadotropin
releasing hormone neurons in vertebrates. *Zoological Lett* **5**, 23.
Valverde, F., Heredia, M. and Santacana, M. (1993). Characterization of neuronal cell varieties
migrating from the olfactory epithelium during prenatal development in the rat.
Immunocytochemical study using antibodies against olfactory marker protein (OMP) and
luteinizing hormone-releasing hormone (LH-RH). *Brain Res Dev Brain Res* **71**, 209-220.

Verhaagen, J., Oestreicher, A. B., Gispen, W. H. and Margolis, F. L. (1989). The expression
of the growth associated protein B50/GAP43 in the olfactory system of neonatal and
adult rats. *J Neurosci* **9**, 683-691.
Verwoerd, C. D. and van Oostrom, C. G. (1979). Cephalic neural crest and placodes. *Adv*
Anat Embryol Cell Biol **58**, 1-75.
Vilensky, J. A. (2012). The neglected cranial nerve: Nervus terminalis (cranial nerve N). *Clin*
Anat.
Whitlock, K. E. and Westerfield, M. (2000). The olfactory placodes of the zebrafish form by
convergence of cellular fields at the edge of the neural plate. *Development* **127**, 3645-
3653.
Wierman, M. E., Kiseljak-Vassiliades, K. and Tobet, S. (2011). Gonadotropin-releasing
hormone (GnRH) neuron migration: initiation, maintenance and cessation as critical
steps to ensure normal reproductive function. *Front Neuroendocrinol* **32**, 43-52.
Wray, S., Grant, P. and Gainer, H. (1989). Evidence that cells expressing luteinizing hormone-
releasing hormone mRNA in the mouse are derived from progenitor cells in the olfactory
placode. *P Natl Acad Sci USA* **86**, 8132-8136.
Wray, S., Key, S., Qualls, R. and Fueshko, S. M. (1994). A subset of peripherin positive
olfactory axons delineates the luteinizing hormone releasing hormone neuronal
migratory pathway in developing mouse. *Dev Biol* **166**, 349-354.
Yoshida, K., Tobet, S. A., Crandall, J. E., Jimenez, T. P. and Schwarting, G. A. (1995). The
migration of luteinizing hormone-releasing hormone neurons in the developing rat is
associated with a transient, caudal projection of the vomeronasal nerve. *J Neurosci* **15**,
7769-7777.
Zouaghi, Y., Alpern, D., Gardeux, V., Russeil, J., Deplancke, B., Santoni, F., Pitteloud, N.
and Messina, A. (2025). Transcriptomic profiling of murine GnRH neurons reveals
developmental trajectories linked to human reproduction and infertility. *Theranostics* **15**,
3673-3692.

Figure 1. Gfy expression in the developing olfactory system.
A) UMAP of neuronal populations in the developing olfactory system at E14.5 generated
from single-cell RNA sequencing of the nasal area. B–I) Feature plots showing expression
of for Ascl1, Neurog1, Neurod1, Elav3, Prokr2, Gap43, Omp, and Gfy. Progenitor markers
(Ascl1, Neurog1) precede neuronal differentiation markers (Neurod1, Elavl3),
while Gap43 labels immature neurons and Omp marks mature sensory neurons. Gfy is
enriched in differentiating and immature neuronal populations. J) Correlation matrix
showing negative correlations (diagonal lines) between progenitor and maturation markers
and positive correlations between Gfy and neuronal differentiation genes.

Figure 2. Time course of Gfy genetic lineage tracing in the developing olfactory system.
A) At E11.5, GfyCre$^{+/-}$;Ai14$^{+/-}$ parasagittal sections show sparse Gfy lineage tracing (magenta) in the olfactory epithelium (OE) and vomeronasal organ (VNO). B) At E12.5, Gfy tracing is detected in both chemosensory neurons (tailed arrows) and migratory neurons (white notched arrowheads), closely associated with peripherin-positive fibers (Prph, green), including near the olfactory bulb (OB). C) At E13.5, Gfy-traced cells are present in the OE (tailed arrows) and within the peripherin-positive migratory mass (notched arrowheads); peripherin-positive axons positive for the tracing are visible near the OB (open arrowhead).
D–E) At E14.5 and E15.5, Gfy tracing becomes abundant throughout the nasal epithelium, particularly in the OE (tailed arrows). In contrast, Peripherin-positive axons projecting to the basal forebrain and peripherin positive migratory neurons in the basal forebrain (bFB) are largely Gfy-negative (open arrowheads). Scale bars, 200 μm.

Figure 3. Gfy lineage tracing labels early-born chemosensory neurons.
A) Schematic of EdU birth-dating experiments: EdU injections at E10.5 and E11.5 followed
by tissue collection at E14.5. B–B") GfyCre+/−;Ai14+/− E14.5 olfactory epithelium (OE)
sections stained for EdU (green) and Gfy lineage tracing (tdTomato, magenta). Gfy-traced
neurons (open arrowheads) include a substantial fraction that is EdU-positive (filled
arrowheads). C) Quantification of EdU-positive neurons in the OE showing the proportion
that is Gfy-traced versus EdU-only. D–D") GfyCre+/−;Ai14+/− E14.5 vomeronasal organ
(VNO) sections stained for EdU and Gfy tracing. E) Quantification of EdU-positive neurons
in the VNO showing the proportion that is Gfy-traced versus EdU-only. Scale bars, 25 µm.

Figure 4. GnRH-1 neurons do not express Gfy.
Parasagittal sections from GfyCre$^{+/-}$;Ai14$^{+/-}$ embryos at E11.5-E14.5 stained for GnRH-1 (green)(arrowheads). A-A‴) At E11.5, GnRH-1 neurons are located within and emerging from the vomeronasal organ (VNO), while Gfy lineage tracing (magenta) is sparse (arrows). B-B‴) At E12.5, Gfy-traced neurons increase in the VNO and olfactory epithelium (OE), coinciding with continued GnRH-1 neuronal migration. C-C‴) By E13.5, GnRH-1 neurons begin invading the brain, whereas Gfy tracing remains restricted to the nasal compartment. D) At E14.5, GnRH-1 neurons reach the basal forebrain (bFB); Gfy tracing is abundant in the nasal epithelium and detectable in the olfactory bulb (OB) but remains absent from GnRH-1 neurons. Scale bars: D, 200 µm; A-C and A'-B‴, 100 µm; C'-C‴, 50 µm.

Figure 5. A subpopulation of the migratory mass neurons express Gfy, but do not invade the brain.

A-B'') GfyCre$^{+/-}$/Ai14$^{+/-}$ embryos at E13.5 paired with TN marker Map2 (green) immunofluorescent staining (notched arrows). Many Map2+ TN neurons were observed to migrate in clusters out of the vomeronasal organ (VNO). Gfy traced neurons (magenta)

were observed in the VNO, and olfactory epithelium (OE) and migratory mass. Many of the
migratory Gfy traced neurons appeared to be Map2+ (arrows). C-E) E14.5 GfyCre$^{+/-}$ /Ai14$^{+/-}$
embryos stained for Somatostatin (Sst, green). Sst neurons in the migratory mass near the
forebrain junction (FBJ) and basal forebrain (bFB) are not positive for Gfy tracing
(arrowheads). F-H'') Prokr2Cre$^{+/-}$ /Ai14$^{+/-}$ E14.5 sections stained with Sst. Prokr2 tracing
appears to overlap with Sst expression in both the VNO and migratory mass near the FBJ. I-
I'') Prokr2Cre$^{+/-}$ /Ai14$^{+/-}$ E14.5 embryos paired with GnRH-1 immunofluorescent staining.
Prokr2 traced cell bodies and fibers migrate from the nose (notched arrowheads) invade
the brain, distinct from the GnRH-1 neurons. Scale bars in C,F,I-I'', 200 µm; A, G-G'', H-H'',
100 µm; B-B'', D,E, G-G'', 50 µm.

Figure 6. Single-cell transcriptomic analysis of the postnatal vomeronasal organ.
A) UMAP projection of scRNA-seq data from the postnatal vomeronasal organ illustrating the major neuronal populations, including Neuronal Progenitors, Neuronal Precursors, Immature apical and basal VSNs, and mature V1R/Meis2+ and V2R/AP-2ε+ VSNs. The characteristic Y-shaped dichotomy of apical and basal lineages is resolved.
B) UMAP feature plots showing expression of key developmental markers across the dataset. Ascl1 and Mki67 label proliferative progenitors, Neurog1 and Neurod1 label neuronal precursors, Gap43 marks immature neurons of both lineages, whereas Omp labels mature VSNs. Gfy and Gng8 are associated with early postmitotic neuronal states. Tfap2e and Meis2 highlight the basal and apical lineages, respectively. C) Correlation matrix illustrating co-expression patterns among canonical developmental and lineage-specific markers. Strong positive correlations identify the sequential transitions from progenitors to neuronal precursors to immature and mature VSNs. Negative correlations indicated with diagonal lines. D) Dot plot summarizing Gap43, Gfy, and Gng8 expression across immature and mature apical and basal VSNs. Average expression and percent of expressing cells show that Gfy and Gng8 are lowly expressed in immature stages and are enriched upon maturation. E) UMAP projections showing the apical (V1R/Meis2+) and basal (V2R/Tfap2e+) VSN lineages segregated for comparison. E'–E") Correlation matrices demonstrating that the developmental progression of apical and basal VSNs involves similar transcriptional transitions, but with distinct lineage-specific marker relationships. F) Violin plots comparing expression of the Gt(ROSA)26Sor locus between basal and apical VSNs, revealing differential baseline activity of the ROSA locus across lineages. (G) Co-expression UMAPs illustrating the spatial and developmental relationships of Gfy and Gng8 with Neurod1, Gap43, and Omp, highlighting that Gfy and Gng8 mark neurons before and after they reach full maturation.

Figure 7. GfyCre-traced neurons in the VNO and AOB exhibit distinct levels of Gfy
expression. A) Postnatal day 30 (P30) GfyCre$^{+/-}$;Ai14$^{+/-}$ vomeronasal organ (VNO) coronal
sections stained for the immature vomeronasal sensory neuron (VSN) marker Gap43
(green) and tdTomato (red). Gfy lineage tracing (magenta) is detected at lower levels in
neurons in the basal territories (small arrows) and at higher levels in VSNs in the apical
regions (larger arrows). A'-A''' enlargements of the marginal zone (boxed in (A)) showing
GAP43; tdTomato and merge A''). Arrows indicate GAP43 immunoreactive cells negative for
tdTomato or expressing below detectability. B–B'') P30 GfyCre$^{+/-}$;Ai14$^{+/-}$ accessory olfactory
bulb (AOB) sections stained for Robo2 (green) and Nrp2 (blue) to distinguish posterior and
anterior AOB projections, respectively. B'-B'') GfyCre tracing (magenta) is present in both
anterior and posterior AOB regions but appears weaker in the Nrp2-positive posterior AOB
(small arrows) compared with the anterior AOB (large arrows). Scale bars: A–A''', 100 µm; B–
B'', 200 µm.

Supplementary Figures

Figure S1.

GfyCre Non-specific Recombination.

A) An E14.5 GfyCre$^{+/-}$/Ai14$^{+/-}$ with nonspecific, broad chimeric tracing throughout the nasal area including the olfactory epithelium (OE). B) Whole-embryo imaging comparing a GfyCre$^{+/-}$/Ai14$^{+/-}$ embryo with nonspecific tracing present throughout the whole body (left) and a GfyCre$^{+/-}$/Ai14$^{+/-}$ embryo with correct tracing exclusive to the olfactory system (right, arrow). C) A correctly traced GfyCre$^{+/-}$/Ai14$^{+/-}$ E14.5 embryo, Gfy tracing can be visualized in the developing vomeronasal organ (VNO) and OE. Scale bars in B, 200 μm; A,C, 100 μm.

Figure S2.

The Grueneberg Ganglion Expresses Gfy.

A-A''') E14.5 GfyCre$^{+/-}$/Ai14$^{+/-}$ embryos immunostained for Omp (green). Gfy tracing can be observed in the olfactory bulb (OB), olfactory epithelium (OE) and the neurons of the Grueneberg ganglion (GG) (arrowheads). B-B''') P2 GfyCre$^{+/-}$/Ai14$^{+/-}$ animals show increased Gfy tracing in the vomeronasal organ (VNO) and GG. Scale bars in A-B''', D, 100 µm.

Figure S3.

GnRH-1 EdU Birth-dating Experiments.

A) Schematic of E8.5 and E9.5 EdU injection experiments, then collection at E14.5. B-C'')
E14.5 C57 BLWT control tissue immunostained for EdU (green) and GnRH-1 (magenta, grey
arrowheads). D) Schematic of E10.5 and E11.5 EdU injection experiments, then collection
at E14.5. E-F'') EdU labelling at E10.5 and E11.5 was abundant in the forebrain junction (FBJ)
and basal forebrain (bFB), overlapping with GnRH-1 immunoreactivity (white arrowheads).
Scale bars in B, E 100 µm; C-C'', F-F'', 50 µm.

E10.5 EdU Injection   E11.5 EdU Injection   E14.5 Collection

Figure S4.
Gfy Tracing EdU Brith-dating Experiments in Migratory Mass.
A) Schematic of EdU injection experiments performed at E10.5 and E11.5 and subsequently
collected at E14.5. B) Parasagittal section on E14.5 GfyCre$^{+/-}$ /Ai14$^{+/-}$ embryos stained for
EdU (green) and Gfy tracing (magenta). C-C'') Gfy tracing (magenta) and EdU staining (green)
overlap (white) indicated with the arrowheads. D) Quantifications of EdU positive Gfy traced
migratory neurons in the migratory mass. Scale bars in B, 200 µm; C-C'', 100 µm.

Figure S5.

The GnRH-1 neurons are closely intertwined with Gfy traced fibers in the brain.

A-A'') E13.5 GfyCre^{+/−}/Ai14^{+/−} sections paired with GnRH-1 immunofluorescent staining. At this stage, GnRH-1 neurons (green, arrowheads) are migrating out of the vomeronasal organ (VNO), surrounded by Gfy traced cell bodies and axons/fibers (magenta, notched arrowheads) that also appear to be migrating out of the VNO. The GnRH-1 neurons invading the brain are not traced for Gfy. B-B'') GnRH-1 neurons invading the basal forebrain (bFB) with faint Gfy traced fibers entangling the GnRH-1 neurons and some Gfy traced cell bodies entering the brain. Scale bars in A, 100 µm; B-B'', C-C'', 50 µm.

934 **Figure S6. Genetic lineage tracing of Gfy in the embryonic VNO.**

935 A-B'') E14.5 GfyCre^{+/-} /Ai14^{+/-} vomeronasal organ (VNO) sections stained for vomeronasal

936 sensory neuron (VSN) populations, Meis2 (green, arrows, apical) and AP-2ε (blue, notched

937 arrowheads, basal). Both apical and basal developing VSNs were positive for Gfy tracing at

938 E14.5. Scale bars in A, 100 μm; B-B'', 50 μm.

Figure S7. Single-cell transcriptomic analysis of the postnatal vomeronasal organ
neuronal precursor populations.
A) UMAP projection of scRNA-seq data from the postnatal vomeronasal organ illustrating
the major neuronal populations: the Neuronal Progenitors, Neuronal Precursors, immature
apical and basal VSNs, and mature V1R/Meis2+ and V2R/AP-2ε+ VSNs. B-B') UMAP feature
plots of the neuronal precursor population, Neurod1 highlights both apical and basal
neuronal precursors (NP), while Meis2 expression is more enriched in apical neuronal
precursors. C-C') Correlation matrix showing correlations between the neuronal precursor
markers Neurod1 and key maturation markers (Gap43, Gng8, Gfy, Meis2). C'') Dotplot
illustrating the expression pattern of Gap43, Gfy and Gng8 across both the apical basal
populations of neuronal precursors.

993