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Single cell analysis of the aging hypothalamus

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ABSTRACT

Alterations in metabolism, sleep patterns, body composition, and hormone status are all key

features of aging. The hypothalamus is a well-conserved brain region that controls these

homeostatic and survival-related behaviors. Despite the importance of this brain region in

healthy aging, little is known about the intrinsic features of hypothalamic aging. Here, we utilize

single nuclei RNA-sequencing to assess the transcriptomes of 22,718 hypothalamic nuclei from

young and aged female mice. We identify cell type-specific signatures of aging in neurons,

astrocytes, and microglia, as well as among the diverse collection of neuronal subtypes in this

region. We uncover key changes in cell types critical for metabolic regulation and body

composition, as well as in an area of the hypothalamus linked to cognition. In addition, our

analysis reveals female-specific changes in sex chromosome regulation in the aging brain. This

study identifies critical cell-specific features of the aging hypothalamus in mammals.

INTRODUCTION

While human lifespan has increased dramatically in recent years, improvements in healthspan, the period of life in which a person is disease-free, have been more modest[1]. Susceptibility to a host of diseases increases with aging, including diabetes, stroke[2], cancer[3], and neurodegenerative diseases[4]. Aging is accompanied by changes in body composition, including decreased lean muscle mass, loss of bone density, and increased abdominal fat[1]. Concomitant with these changes are alterations in endocrine states, such as decreased sex hormone production, and reduced growth hormone and insulin-like growth factor-I[5]. Endocrine function and homeostatic processes, such as energy homeostasis[6] and release of sex hormones[7], are controlled by neuropeptidergic neurons in the hypothalamus.

Nutrient sensing is one of several functions of the hypothalamus that implicates this brain region in healthy aging. Specific neuronal subtypes in the hypothalamus respond to circulating cues to organize the response to dietary changes through regulation of energy balance, glucose homeostasis and growth factor secretion. Caloric restriction (CR) is one of the most well-established behavioral interventions that improves lifespan and healthspan in many model organisms[8]. Genetic models that mimic the effects of CR via modulation of energy sensing pathways have revealed the mechanistic underpinnings of lifespan extension. For example, in *C. elegans*, the effects of dietary restriction are dependent on the function of neuropeptidergic energy sensing neurons; genetic manipulation of energy sensing genes in those neurons is sufficient to increase longevity[9]. Similarly, lifespan extension in the fruit fly *Drosophila* is dependent on specialized neurons called median neurosecretory cells[10]. In rodents, manipulations to the hypothalamus can also alter lifespan. Specifically, brain-specific over expression of *Sirt1*

leads to alterations in the dorsomedial and lateral hypothalamus and increases lifespan[11].

Similarly, alteration of immune signaling in the mediobasal hypothalamus affects longevity,

where a reduction in immune signaling promotes longevity[12].

Epigenetic and transcriptional changes are widespread across tissues during aging, including in

the brain[13,14]. Key transcriptional factors such as FOXO/DAF-16, NF-κB,, and MYC function as

conserved regulators of these networks and have been implicated in aging[12,15,16]. However,

despite a great interest in how changes in transcriptional programs affect aging, our

understanding of how distinct cellular subtypes change transcriptionally with age remains

limited. Investigation of how transcriptional programs change in a cell-type specific manner in

the hypothalamus will provide important insight into the aging process across tissues. Recent

advances in single-cell RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) have expanded our understanding of the

diverse cell types that comprise the hypothalamus[17–21]. This approach allows the investigation of

previously unappreciated transcriptional and functional diversity of this brain region. Here, we

use a single nuclei RNA-seq approach to identify aging-associated transcriptional changes across

the mouse hypothalamus, thereby capturing the diversity of cell types in this brain region.

RESULTS

Single nuclei sequencing of the aging mouse hypothalamus

We employed single nuclei RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq), which is currently the

optimal method for single cell transcriptomic profiling of the diversity of cell types in the adult

mammalian brain[22,23]. We isolated nuclei from the hypothalamus of young (3 month) and aged

(24 month) mice, with replicate libraries for each age (Figure 1A). After quality filtering, we

obtained 22,718 high quality nuclei for analysis: 7862 and 14,856 nuclei from young and aged

animals, respectively (Figure S1A). We observed a high correlation between replicates at each

age (Figure S1B).

Clustering analysis with the Louvain algorithm revealed distinct clusters representing the

major cell types of the hypothalamus, which we identified based on expression of canonical

markers (Figure 1B-D, S1C). For each individual cluster, we identified the top 10 genes that

were differentially expressed using the Wilcoxon Rank Sum test (Supplementary Table 1). For

example, neurons were defined by expression of *Syt1*, astrocytes defined by *Agt and Gja1*,

oligodendrocytes by *Olig1* and *Plp1* expression, and OPCs were identified by expression of

Pdgfra. The microglia/macrophage cluster was defined by expression of *C1qa* (Figure 1C). Less

abundant cell types were also observed, including ependymocytes (ependymal cells; *Ccdc153*),

and arachnoid barrier cells (ABC; *Slc47a1*), pericyte/endocytes (*Flt1* and *Clnd5I*) and vascular

and leptomeningeal cells (VLMC; *Slc6a13*). We also observed a distinct cluster of tanycytes,

which are specific to the hypothalamus and defined by *Rax* expression. Nuclei in these broad

categories expressed additional canonical markers associated with their cell type, for example,

the astrocyte cluster expressed *Gfap,* further validating the identify of each cluster.

Cell type diversity is achieved through expression of transcriptional regulators that

orchestrate cell type-specific gene expression networks. To identify the regulators responsible for

distinct expression networks across cell types in the hypothalamus, we used SCENIC, a

regulatory network inference tool. This analysis revealed specific transcriptional regulators of

cell identity in this region[24] (Figure 2). Strong cell-type specific signatures emerged for each

cluster. Some regulons, such as Foxn2, are strongly enriched across all cell types, while others

are unique to one or two cell types. For example, Atf2 is uniquely highly enriched in neurons. In

tanycytes, a cell population unique to the hypothalamus, the regulons Foxo1 and Foxo3 are

enriched. Tanycytes are considered to be neurogenic, and function in response diet[25,26]. FOXO

factors are critical regulators of neural stem cell homeostasis, and FOXOs sit downstream of the

insulin/IGF-1 pathway[27]. These data suggest that FOXO factors may be critical regulators of

tanycyte response to organismal energy states.

Major cell types of the hypothalamus acquire cell type-specific gene expression changes

with age

We next investigated the changes in gene expression that occur with age in the major cell

types of the hypothalamus. As expected, aging was not associated with changes in composition

of this brain region, and each major cell type was similarly represented in young and aged mice

(Figure 3A). To control for differences in nuclei numbers obtained, we randomly downsampled

the aged nuclei and performed differential expression analysis on identical numbers of aged and

young nuclei (Figure S2A-C). To gain a global understanding of how gene expression is altered

with age, we first performed differential expression analysis using the Model-based Analysis of

Single-cell Transcriptomics (MAST)[28,29], treating the data in bulk. Using this approach, we

identified 216 and 326 genes that were upregulated and downregulated with age, respectively

(padj < 0.05, fold change > 0.1) (Figure 3B, Supplementary Table 3). Intriguingly, highly

downregulated genes included *Pmch* and *Oxt*, which encode Pro-melanocyte stimulating

hormone and Oxytocin, respectively. Melanocyte stimulating hormone and oxytocin are heavily

involved in regulating energy homeostasis[6], which is altered with age[30]. Interestingly, the most

upregulated genes included *Xist* and *Tsix*, which are both long non-coding RNAs involved in X

chromosome inactivation[31,32].

Next, we investigated the impact of age on gene expression in each major cell type.

Neurons, astrocytes, oligodendrocytes, and microglia showed the greatest numbers of

differentially expressed genes with age (Figure 3C, Supplementary Table 4). Analysis of most

other cell types also revealed differential expression, though the ability to discern differentially

expressed genes was related to the number of nuclei per cluster (Figure S2D). We also performed

coefficient of variation analysis on the major cell types and, interestingly, we observed a

significant difference between ages, with nearly all types showing in increase with age (p <

0.001; Wilcoxen test) (Figure 3D). This finding suggests that variability in gene expression

increases with age in each cell type, which likely contributes to cellular dysfunction with age.

To investigate the cellular processes that are altered with age in the different cell types in

the hypothalamus, we performed Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) using the hallmark

gene set[33] (Figure 3E). Interestingly, the neuron sub-cluster had the greatest number of gene sets

represented, which included a number of known aging-associated pathways. For example,

metabolic pathways such as PI3K/AKT/mTOR, adipogenesis, glycolysis and OxPhos were all

under-enriched with age (negative normalized enrichment score). In addition, DNA damage and

repair pathways, p53 signaling, and proteostasis were all downregulated in the aged neurons.

This analysis also revealed a number of cell type-specific changes with age. For example, among

the pathways that were altered with age in astrocytes, some overlapped with the neuronal

changes (e.g unfolded protein response and mTORC1 signaling) while others were specific to

glia (e.g. coagulation factors, the inflammatory response and NFKB activity).

Aged hypothalamic microglia are heterogeneous, representing a progressive aging

trajectory

Microglia are macrophage-like cells found throughout the brain, and are critical for the

immune response, including release of cytokines and chemokines, antigen presentation, and

phagocytosis of debris[34]. Recent studies have revealed gene expression changes and microglial

activation in the aged brain, which likely contribute to neurodegeneration[34]. Due to the lower

frequency of microglia in our dataset, we sought additional strategies to uncover changes with

age in these cells. Using Monocle3[35], we performed pseudotemporal ordering of the

microglia/macrophage nuclei. The trajectory accurately captures the transition from young to

aged nuclei, suggesting a gradual progression toward aging in this cell type (Figure 4A). To

identify the gene expression changes across the aging trajectory, we performed Moran's I test

(Figure 4B, Supplementary Table 5, Supplementary Table 6). This approach revealed four

modules (1, 2, 3, and 7) that have decreased expression along the pseudotime trajectory, and

three modules (4-6) with increased expression (Figure 4B-C). We named modules after their

most enriched GO term. The modules decreasing in expression along the pseudotime trajectory

include terms related to neurotransmitter release, cell migration, cell projection and cytoskeleton

makeup, and myelination (Supplementary Table 6). In contrast, the modules increasing with

expression across pseudotime include immune response, regulation of cell-cell signaling, and

response to immune signals (Supplementary Table 6).

To gain a deeper understanding of the heterogeneity of microglial aging in the

hypothalamus, we examined the top 20 most significant genes for each cluster (q value < 0.05).

We visualized expression of genes with high significance in the module and plotted gene

expression as a function of pseudotime, and directly comparing young and aged populations

(real-time; Figure 4D). This approach reveals that while the young microglia are clustered early

in pseudotime (pseudotime 0.0, 0.5 and 1.0), microglial nuclei from aged animals are dispersed

throughout pseudotime. Indeed, pseudotime 1.5 and 2.0 are comprised almost entirely of nuclei

from aged animals, and expression in these cells varies strongly compared to expression in cells

in pseudotime 0.0. Thus, hypothalamic microglia from aged animals have increased

heterogeneity representing a progressive aging trajectory, with a subset of microglia retaining a

youthful gene expression signature.

Age-associated changes in X-inactivation genes is a sexually dimorphic feature of aging

Sex differences in lifespan have been documented in many species, including mice[36]. In

addition, interventions that extend life span do so in a sex-specific manner. For example, caloric

restriction (CR) is one of the most robustly studied interventions and its effects have been

observed from yeast to non-human primates[8]. Like many interventions, CR has sex-specific

effects, with restricted females generally living longer than males on the same diet[37,38]. Similarly,

the brain-specific *Sirt1* overexpression model results in a larger lifespan increase for females

when compared to males[11]. To understand how the female hypothalamus may be uniquely

affected by aging, we used female animals in our study.

Our initial differential expression analysis revealed the unexpected finding that the long

non-coding RNA *Xist* is the most highly upregulated gene in the female hypothalamus with age

(Figure 3B). Differential expression analysis of each major cell type indicated upregulation of

Xist with age in astrocytes, neurons, oligodendrocytes, as well as tanycytes (Figure 5A). *Xist* is

involved in X chromosome inactivation in females and is encoded on the X-inactivation center

(XIC), which harbors additional non-coding RNA genes involved in the same process[39].

Intriguingly, we observed age-related upregulation of two of these RNAs in some cell types: *Tsix*

and *Ftx*[40] (Figure 5A). We validated the upregulation of *Xist* using whole cell RNA preps from

the hypothalamus and investigated other brain regions as well (cerebellum, cortex and olfactory

bulb). All regions trended toward increased expression of *Xist* with age, but the strongest

upregulation was observed in the hypothalamus (Figure 5B). As expected, we did not detect *Xist*

expression in adult male mice, and there was no upregulation of this gene with age in males

(Figure 5B).

The age-associated dysregulation of XIC genes lead us to investigate whether there was

an enrichment for expression changes among genes on the X chromosome. Because all three

XIC genes assessed were differentially expressed with age in the neuronal cluster (Figure 5A),

we focused on neurons. Interestingly, a chi-square analysis indicated that the proportion of

upregulated and downregulated genes was not distributed as expected between the X

chromosome and autosomes (X^2 = 8.7548, df = 2, p-value = 0.01256). There were more

downregulated genes arising from the X chromosome than expected (24 observed, 13.732428

expected, standardized residual = 2.9107035). Additionally, there were fewer nonsignificant

genes than expected (198 observed, 209.292371 expected, standardized residual = -2.6499813)

(Figure 5C). Since the function of *Xist* is to silence gene expression in *cis* on the X, this

observation suggests that increased *Xist* with age may contribute to the repression of expression

with age across the chromosome.

Although most genes on the inactive X chromosome are not expressed in females, a small

number of genes are well-known to "escape" inactivation, and are expressed from both X

chromosomes. In the mouse brain, 14 genes are considered to be X escape genes not silenced by

the XIC[41]. This list includes both *Xist* and *Ftx*, which have increased expression with age in our

dataset. To determine if increased XIC gene expression with age might be affecting escape

genes, we interrogated expression of the other 12 genes in this category. We found that most

escape genes were not significantly altered with age in our dataset. In contrast, the X escape

genes *Syp* and *Plp1* have decreased expression with age in neurons and oligodendrocytes,

respectively. *Ddx3x*, a gene involved in neurodevelopment, showed significantly increased

expression with age in astrocytes, although it appears to be expressed at low levels overall

(Figure 5D). Together, these data indicate the effect of XIC gene alterations with age may be

cell-type specific, and that increased *Xist* expression does not exclusively correlate with the X

escape network.

Neuronal subtype specific changes during aging

Hypothalamic neurons are highly diverse and function to orchestrate a wide range of

processes and behaviors necessary for organismal survival[42]. This diversity of function is

accomplished by cell type-specific gene expression programs, with each area of the

hypothalamus containing a range of transcriptionally dissimilar neuronal subtypes[17,18,21]. Indeed,

even neurons expressing the same neuropeptide gene may comprise functionally distinct

subpopulations[43]. To address this complexity, we sub-clustered the neuronal nuclei to identify

transcriptionally distinct populations. This analysis revealed 34 transcriptionally distinct clusters

(Figure 6A), and broadly separated the nuclei into inhibitory (*Gad1* expressing GABAergic) or

excitatory (*Slc17a6* expressing glutamatergic) identity (Figure 6B). The 34 clusters represent

both known and undefined neuronal subtypes (see Supplementary Table 7 for markers of cluster

identity). To discern the relationship between the clusters, we organized them according to

transcriptional similarity using a Cluster Tree analysis (Figure 6C). Neuronal subpopulations

from the same hypothalamic nucleus were not necessarily transcriptional neighbors on the cluster

tree. For example, even though some AgRP/NPY neurons and POMC neurons may arise from

common progenitors[43], the Npy/Agrp (23) and Pomc/Tac2 (25) clusters are not most closely

related to one another.

We next investigated expression of specific neuropeptide genes across the clusters in

order to functionally define the distinct neuronal subpopulations (Figure 6D). These clusters

generally correspond to known cell types expressing one or two hallmark neuropeptides. As

additional insight into neuronal subtype identity, we utilized the SCENIC pipeline to uncover

regulons enriched in each cluster[24] (Figure 6E, Supplementary Table 8). For example, Tbx3 is a

known regulator of Npy/Agrp cluster (23), and the Tbx3 regulon is active in this cluster in our

dataset[44]. Similarly, both POMC and AgRP/NPY neurons are leptin-responsive, and Stat3, the

transcriptional regulator of leptin response, is active in both these populations.

Using this approach, we were able to associate many of these clusters with a known

function and location in the hypothalamus, as well as specific changes with age. Similar to our

analysis of the whole hypothalamus, we did not detect major changes in neuronal composition

with age (Figure 7A). We next performed differential expression on clusters in which there were

at least 20 nuclei per condition (Figure 7B, Supplementary Table 9). The number of differentially

expressed genes appears to be a function of the number of nuclei per cluster, for example, the

Npas3/Gpc cluster (12) which has a large number of nuclei (1923) shows 224 genes

downregulated in age and 70 genes upregulated in age. For each cluster, we also performed

GSEA using the Hallmark gene set. Interestingly, several neuronal subtypes involved in feeding

and energy homeostasis were altered with age. For example, *Ralyl* and *Tenm2* were upregulated

in the Npy/Agrp cluster (23). In the Pomc/Tac2 cluster (25), *Plod1* and *Cxcl12* were

downregulated, and *Epha6, Xist, B3galt1, Lingo2*, and *Sgcz* were upregulated. Pathways altered

in this cluster with age include adipogenesis, DNA repair, oxidative phosphorylation, the

unfolded protein response, and UV response down (Figure 7C). Thus, for the first time, our

dataset links neuron-specific gene expression changes in the hypothalamus with key features of

organismal aging, such as weight and metabolic changes.

Based on expression of specific peptides and transcription factors, the

Dgkb/B230323A14Rik cluster (7) is likely made up of cells of the medial mammillary nucleus.

This region is notable because unlike most areas of the hypothalamus, this region is involved in

memory via connections with the hippocampus[45]. Strikingly, this cluster is highly dysregulated

with age, with 65 downregulated and 31 upregulated genes. This gene set is enriched for changes

in adipogenesis, mTORC1 signaling, OxPhos, DNA damage (UV response down), and

xenobiotic metabolism. The identification of changes in this brain region is significant, as they

may contribute to cognitive impairments with age.

DISCUSSION

In this work, we used single nuclei RNA-seq to identify the age-associated transcriptional

changes in the mouse hypothalamus. This brain region is critical for the regulation of

physiological homeostasis, including sleep, circadian rhythms, feeding, and metabolism. These

functions are well known to be disrupted during aging, and our findings implicate widespread

transcriptional changes concomitant with physiological changes.

Our approach successfully captured the major cell types in the brain, as well as

hypothalamus-specific cell-types such as tanycytes. We found that cellular subtypes in this

region acquire distinct aging signatures, and discovered that increased transcriptional

heterogeneity is a common feature across all cell types with age. Consistent with our findings,

age-related transcriptional alterations have been observed in aging human brains[46], and increased

transcriptional noise is thought to be a hallmark of aging[47]. Our finding that different neuronal

subtypes have distinct aging signatures is consistent with recent reports identifying differential

susceptibility to neurodegeneration[48]. Identification of the transcriptional signatures involved

may pave the way for therapeutics targeted at subpopulations most susceptible to dysregulation

with age. In addition, analysis of cell types arising from the arcuate nucleus illustrate intriguing

cell-type specific differences in populations responsible for nutrient sensing. For example,

despite the importance of AgRP/NPY neurons in initiating feeding in steady state animals[49], the

Npy/Agrp cluster (23) is relatively unaffected by age. In contrast, the Pomc/Tac2 cluster (25)

gene set is enriched for changes in DNA repair and the unfolded protein response, among others.

While these two cell populations have complementary functions in steady state, POMC neurons

seem to be uniquely affected by aging. Interestingly, upregulation of the unfolded protein

response has been linked to improved protection against diet-induced obesity[50]. Thus, the

downregulation of the unfolded protein response pathway with age in these cells may represent a

mechanism underlying body composition changes that occur with age.

We observed striking changes in the microglial population with age. Microglia are

resident immune cells in the brain, and previous research has shown that microglia-mediated

inflammation in the hypothalamus can affect lifespan[12]. By utilizing trajectory inference

analysis, we uncovered an aging trajectory among microglia in the aged brain. While some

microglia retain features of young cells, the population shows a progression toward an aged

phenotype based on distinct gene expression modules. Interestingly, modules of immune genes

were some of the most changed throughout pseudotime. Module 2, which contains GO

categories related to leukocyte migration, cell chemotaxis, and cell-cell adhesion, was among the

most downregulated with pesudeotime. In contrast, Module 4, which also contains GO categories

related to immune function, was highly upregulated with pseudotime. Together, these data

indicate that the aged hypothalamus harbors a heterogeneous population of microglia comprising

an aging trajectory.

Sex differences in aging have been observed across taxa, including in mice[51,52]. In

mammals, females generally live longer than males[53], and many aging interventions such as CR,

are more effective in females[11,37]. In addition, the sexually dimorphic response to aging

interventions appears to be a conserved phenomenon, with female *Drosophila* responding more

strongly to dietary restriction paradigms than males[54], and hermaphroditic *C. elegans* responding

more strongly to DR than males[55]. In mice, males and females differ in regards to sex

chromosome content (males are XY and females are XX) and the presence of gonadal hormones

such as higher androgens in males and estrogens in females. Interestingly, X chromosome

content has been linked to longevity, and the presence of two X chromosome contributes to

increased longevity regardless of hormonal status[56]. This work was performed in the four core

genomes mouse line, in which the *Sry* gene (which induced testes development) exists on an

autosome rather than the Y chromosome, allowing for chromosomal sex to be disambiguated

from gonadal sex/hormone status. In our study, we uncover a potential mechanism by which the

X chromosome affects aging. We observed widespread upregulation of *Xist* in aged female

animals, as well as upregulation of other XIC genes including *Tsix* and *Ftx*. Intriguingly, this

increased expression was highly prominent in neurons, although upregulation of *Xist* in was

observed in oligodendrocytes, astrocytes, and tanycytes as well. Together, our findings reveal a

novel feature of aging in females. Moreover, this work suggests that that understanding the

mechanisms and consequences of *Xist* upregulation in aging may provide novel insight into sex

differences in aging.

In summary, our study reveals the major transcriptional features of hypothalamic aging.

We observed transcriptional variation across cell types, cell-type specific aging signatures, and

novel features of aging in females. Understanding how individual populations of cells in this

region contribute to overall loss of homeostasis with age will be vital to identifying treatments

for aging and age-related disease.

METHODS

Animals

Young (3 month) and aged (24 month) C57/Bl6 female mice were obtained from the

National Institute on Aging. Mice were housed and used according to protocols approved by

Brown University and in accordance with institutional and national guidelines.

Single-cell RNA sequencing

Two whole hypothalamuses were pooled into each biological replicate, for a total of two

replicates for the young and aged conditions. Nuclei extraction was performing using the Nuclei

Isolation Kit: Nuclei PURE Prep Kit (Millipore Sigma) according to the manufacturer's

instructions with the following modifications: for each sample, two hypothalamuses were

dissected out of the animals and rinsed in cold PBS. Tissue was transferred using a transfer

pipette into a refrigerated Dounce homogenizer with 5 mL of lysis solution following kit

instructions. Tissue was homogenized with the Dounce B and the lysate was transferred into a 15

mL falcon tube through a 40-micron filter. The sucrose purification step was performed with the

following modifications: half the volume of all reagents was used to account for the small tissue

sample sizes, an SW34 rotor was used, and samples were spun for 45 minutes at 30,000 X g

(13,000 rpm) at 4 °C. Nuclei were counted using a hemocytometer, and 5000 cells per sample

were loaded onto the Chromium Single Cell 3′ Chip (10x Genomics) and processed with the

Chromium Controller (10x Genomics). Libraries were prepared using the Chromium Single Cell

3′ Library & Gel Bead kit v2 according to manufacturer's instructions. Samples were sequenced

at GENEWIZ, Inc on an Illumina HiSeq, with a target of 50,000 reads per sample. The Aged 1

and Young 2 samples underwent an additional round of sequencing to obtain sufficient read

depth.

Quality control, data processing and analysis

Demultiplexing and sequence alignment to a custom pre-mRNA transcriptome (mm10-

3.0.0) were performed using the CellRanger (version 3.0.2) software from 10x Genomics. The

resulting feature-barcode matrices were read into R, excluding any nuclei expressing fewer than

200 genes, and any gene expressed in fewer than three nuclei.

Filtering and visualization were performed using Seurat_3.2.3 in R (4.0.3). For quality

control, cells with fewer than 200 or more than 3000 features were filtered out. Similarly, cells

with more than 10% mitochondrial mapping were removed, resulting in 14,856 nuclei in the

aged condition, and 7862 nuclei in the young condition. Integration of the datasets was

performed using the IntegrateData function with default settings. The number of cells, unique

molecular identifiers, and unique genes per cluster are reported in Supplementary Figure 1C. To

assign identities to clusters, the FindAllMarkers() command with default parameters was used.

This finds the top genes that define a cluster identity. We named each cluster using the top 2

genes to come out of the FindAllMarkers() analysis. This function uses the Wilcoxon Rank Sum

test identify the top 10 differentially expressed genes in cell-type specific clusters, with a log fold

change threshold of 0.25.

In order to ensure similar cell counts per condition, data were downsampled by randomly

selecting cells from each cluster using the sample() function in R. Differential expression was

performed using MAST(1.16.0)[28]. Genes were considered significant if the adjusted p-value was

less than 0.05, and the log2 fold change was greater than 0.1 or less than -0.1.

Gene Set Enrichment Analysis

412 Gene Set Enrichment Analysis was performed using the fgsea package (Release 3.12)[57]

413 using the Hallmark gene set list (version 7.2.)[33]. Gene sets were considered to be enriched if the

414 adjusted p value was less than 0.1. Conversions between mouse and human annotation was

415 performed using biomaRt (2.46.0).

Trajectory inference and analysis using Monocle3

The trajectory inference tool Monocle3[35] (https://github.com/cole-trapnell-lab/monocle3)

was used to infer the aging process for the microglia cluster (n = 761 cells) generated in Seurat.

The microglia cluster was subsetted and the root of the trajectory was programmatically

specified using the node that was most enriched with young cells. Spatially differential

expression analysis along the trajectory was performed with Moran's I test in Monocle3 using

the downsampled microglia data (n = 448 cells), and selected genes with $q < 0.05$ as trajectory-

dependent genes. The set of genes were grouped into seven modules using find_gene_modules()

to run UMAP on these genes and group them into modules by Louvain community analysis

(Supplementary Table 6).

Functional enrichment analysis

The g:Profiler g:GOSt tool was applied to perform the functional enrichment analysis of

939 genes in individual microglia modules, and to identify statistically significant enriched terms

(adjusted p < 0.05 with Benjamini-Hochberg correction) for individual modules (Supplementary

Table 5). Seven modules were identified: Module 1 (19 terms), module 2 (25 terms), module 3

(26 terms), module 4 (202 terms), module 5 (11 terms), module 6 (13 terms), module 7 (6 terms).

The 939 genes were treated as unordered queries, and statistical tests were applied in a domain

scope of annotated genes, choosing terms sized from 4 to 500 genes in sources including GO

molecular function, GO cellular component, GO biological process, KEGG, Reactome, and

WikiPathways. The top GO biological process term was used to name individual modules.

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439 ***Single-cell gene regulatory network analysis using pySCENIC***
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We performed GRN analysis with pySCENIC v0.10.4[24] using the Singularity v3.6.1 image.

We first converted the Seurat object (DefaultAssay: RNA, i.e. raw counts without normalization)

with loomR v0.2.1.9 and export into a loom file for the GRN inference. In the GRN

inference, for the downsampled all-cell data (n=15445 cells), we filtered out genes that are

detected in less than 300 cells with Scanpy v1.4.4, resulting in 11574 genes in total; for the

downsampled neuron data (n= 8846 cells), we used all genes (22054 genes). We performed 100

runs on both datasets. Only regulons that recurred at least 80% were retained, along with target

genes that were predicted to recur at least 80% if the regulon recurred 100 times, and all target

genes for regulons that recurred between 80 and 100 times[58]. After filtering, we identified 216

motif regulons for all-cell dataset, and 285 motif regulons for neurons. The regulon activity was

quantified by AUCell with AUCell_calcAUC in AUCell R package v1.8.0, R/3.6.3. To

understand if a regulon is active or not in a specific cell type, we created a binary regulon

activity matrix of the filtered regulons with binarize function in pyscenic.binarization and

visualized in R. For the regulon specificity score (RSS), we use the regulon_specificity_scores

from pyscenic.rss[59]. The RSS is calculated for each cell type separately, and top 5 regions for

each cell type are shown in red.ref.

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Data and code availability

Raw single nuclei RNA sequencing deposited at GEO accession XYZ. Code available at

https://github.com/Webb-Laboratory/single_cell_analysis.

RT-qPCR

Hypothalamus, olfactory bulb, cerebellum, and cortex were dissected in cold PBS from

the brains of 3 month old and 24 month old C57Bl/6 mice (n=6, 3 male and 3 female for each

age) and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen. RNA was purified using the Qiagen RNeasy Lipid

Tissue Mini Kit (Qiagen #74804). cDNA was generated using 500 ng of RNA and the High-

Capacity Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems #4374966). A negative control (-RT)

for each sample was also generated by excluding the Multiscribe Reverse Transcriptase

component of the reaction. qPCR reactions were completed using the PowerUp™ SYBR ™

Green Master Mix (Invitrogen #A25918). Stock primers were diluted to 10 μM in sterile water,

and cDNA was diluted 1:5 in sterile water. Expression levels of the genes of interest (see table

below) were quantified using a ViiA 7 Real Time PCR System with QuantStudio software. *Actin*

was used as a housekeeping gene for normalization. Each sample, water control, and -RT control

sample was run in triplicate for each primer set. CT values were normalized to *Actin*, and ΔCT

values were plotted as $2^{-\Delta CT}$. Technical replicates were averaged per biological replicate.

Gene	F sequence	R sequence

Actin	TGTTACCAACTGGGACGACA	CTCTCAGCTGTGGTGGTGAA
Xist	GGTTCTCTCTCCAGAAGCTAGGAAG	TGGTAGATGGCATTGTGTATTATATGG

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Supplementary Table 1. Markers for hypothalamic cell clusters.
Supplementary Table 2. Binarized regulons for hypothalamic cell clusters.
Supplementary Table 3. Results of differential expression analysis for all nuclei.
Supplementary Table 4. Differential expression analysis of individual cell types.
Supplementary Table 5. Results of Moran's I Test.
Supplementary Table 6. Gene modules from monocle analysis.
Supplementary Table 7. Cluster markers for neuronal subtypes.
Supplementary Table 8. Regulon specificity scores for each neuronal cluster.
Supplementary Table 9. Results of differential expression for neuronal subtypes.

Figure 1.

A Pipeline for single nuclei RNA-seq of the aging mouse hypothalamus

Obtain young and aged mice — Young 3 months, Aged 24 months

Dissect whole hypothalamus

Isolate nuclei

Load 5,000 nuclei per sample into 10x Chromium Controller

Sequence pooled libraries on Illumina Hi Seq

Analyze data from 22,718 nuclei in R

B Major cell types in the hypothalamus

- Arachnoid Barrier Cell
- Astrocyte
- Ependymocyte
- Microglia/Macrophage
- Neuron
- Oligodendrocyte
- OPC
- Pericyte/Endocyte
- Tanycyte
- Vascular/Leptomeningeal cell

C Expression of marker genes

Syt1

Agt

Plp1

C1qa

D Canonical markers of major cell types

 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Single-nuclei analysis of the hypothalamus. A) Schematic detailing the experimental

workflow from dissection through analysis. n = 2 replicated per age. B) Uniform Manifold

Approximation and Projection (UMAP) plot of all 22,718 nuclei used for analysis. Clustering

analysis revealed 10 broad categories of cell type identity. C) UMAP plots of all nuclei labeled

for expression of cell type-specific markers. *Syt1*, neurons; *Agt*, astrocytes; *Plp1*,

oligodendrocytes; *C1qa*, microglia/macrophages. Color scale indicates level of gene expression.

D) Heatmap highlighting expression of cell type markers in each cluster, a maximum of 500

nuclei per cluster are displayed. E) RSS scores for representative subclusters. Top 5 regulons in

red.

Figure 2.

652 **Figure 2. Gene regulatory network reconstruction for cellular subtypes.** A) Binarized

653 regulon activity for each regulon in a given cell. Top 20 most expressed regulons per cluster

654 shown. Maximum 500 cells per cluster shown. Color indicates a regulon is "on" in a given cell.

Figure 3.

Figure 3. The aging hypothalamus harbors cell type-specific transcriptional changes. A)

UMAP of the 22,718 nuclei analyzed, color indicates age. B) Volcano plot showing overall

differential expression of genes between all young and aged nuclei. Significant genes in purple

(adjusted p value < 0.05, FC > 0.1). C) Strip plot showing DE genes per cell type. Significant

genes (adjusted p value < 0.05, FC > 0.1, MAST analysis) in color, nonsignificant genes are in

gray. D) Coefficient of variation analysis for each cellular subtype. In all subtypes the CV is

significantly higher in the aged condition (two sided Wilcoxen Test with Bonferonni correction,

***adjusted p value < 0.001). E) Heatmap showing GSEA enrichment analysis for Hallmark

terms. Color indicates normalized enrichment score. Significant gene sets calculated as adjusted

p value < 0.1.

Figure 4.

Figure 4. Trajectory analysis of aging hypothalamic microglia. A) Monocle3 pseudotemporal

ordering of the microglia/macrophage cluster (n = 761 cells). Cells are colored by age (top) and

pseudotime (bottom). The number in the circle indicates the pseudotime start point. B) Heatmap

showing modules of spatially restricted genes in the microglia cluster after downsampling (n =

448 cells). In total, 939 genes were clustered by hierarchical clustering. The genes were grouped

into seven modules after dimension reduction and community detection. Modules are named by

the most significantly enriched Gene Ontology (GO) terms, biological process, for module-

specific genes using g:Profiler (adjusted p < 0.05 with Benjamini-Hochberg correction). C)

Projection of modules' aggregate expression onto the UMAP plot for microglia cluster (n = 761

cells). Genes in modules 1-3 have decreased expression along the pseudotime trajectory. Genes

in modules 4-6 have increased expression along the pseudotime trajectory. D) Left: kinetics plot

showing the relative expression of representative genes for modules 1-6. The lines approximate

expression along the trajectory using polynomial regressions. Right: violin plots of gene

expression using Seurat. Differential expression performed using MAST on non-downsampled

data (* , adjusted p value < 0.05, ***, adjusted p value < 0.001).

Figure 5

Figure 5. *Xist* upregulation is a feature of the aged female hypothalamus. A) Expression of

genes involved in X chromosome inactivation by age and cell type. Differential expression

between young and aged samples was calculated using MAST (* , adjusted p value < 0.05, ***,

adjusted p value < 0.001). B) RT-qPCR of *Xist* expression in specific brain regions. *Xist*

expression is significantly higher in the hypothalamus (two sided t test, t = 7.06, df = 3.25, n = 3

per age group, *p adjusted = 0.0179, Bonferroni correction). C) Comparison of the number of

upregulated, downregulated, and non-significant genes arising from the X chromosome or

autosomes in (X^2 = 8.7548, df = 2, p-value = 0.01256). D) Violin plots of known X escape genes.

Differential expression between young and aged samples was calculated using MAST (* ,

adjusted p value < 0.05, **, adjusted p value < 0.01, ***, adjusted p value < 0.001).

Figure 6.

Figure 6. Identification of transcriptionally distinct neuronal subtypes. A) UMAP of all

neuronal nuclei. Distinct clusters are identified by color, with identities listed in (C). B)

FeaturePlots highlighting glutamatergic (*Slc17a6*) and GABAergic (*Gad1*) cell neuronal clusters.

Color scale indicates expression level. C) Neuronal clusters are labeled according to the top 2

marker genes and ordered based on overall transcriptional similarity. D) Expression of

neuropeptide genes in each cluster. Dot size indicates percent of nuclei expressing the gene,

color indicates intensity of expression.

Figure 7.

763 **Figure 7. Neuronal subtypes exhibit distinct transcriptional changes with age.** A) UMAP

764 plot of young and aged nuclei. B) Strip plot showing DE genes per cluster. Significant genes (FC

765 > 0.1, padj < 0.05) are colored, non-significant genes in gray. C) Heatmap of GSEA results for

766 each neuronal cluster. Significantly enriched terms (padj <0.1) are colored according to the

767 normalized enrichment score.

Supplementary Figure 1.

A

Number of nuclei per sample

B

Correlation of gene expression

C

Quality control data per cluster

785   **Supplementary Figure 1**. Quality control metrics for single nuclei data. A) Number of nuclei

786   per sample. B) Correlation of gene expression (scaled) between each sample. Color reports

787   Spearman's correlation. C) Violin plots showing the number of UMIs per nuclei per cluster (left)

788   and the number of genes nuclei per cluster (right). Number of nuclei per cluster are listed in

789   parentheses.

Supplementary Figure 2.

A Number of nuclei before and after downsampling

B UMI and gene counts per cell

C UMI and gene counts for young and aged nuclei

D Number of DE genes per number of nuclei

807   **Supplementary Figure 2.** Downsampling and quality control for downsampled clusters. A)

808   Number of nuclei per cell type before (top) and after (bottom) down sampling. B) Quality control

809   data for the nuclei used for analysis after down sampling. C) Quality control data after down

810   sampling split by age. D) Relationship between number of nuclei per cluster and the number of

811   differentially expressed genes. ($R2 = 0.510$, $p < 0.05$).

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