Title: Cell type-specific gene expression dynamics during human brain maturation

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Abstract

The human brain undergoes protracted post-natal maturation, guided by dynamic changes in

gene expression. Most studies exploring these processes have used bulk tissue analyses,

which mask cell type-specific gene expression dynamics. Here, using single nucleus (sn)RNA-

seq on temporal lobe tissue, including samples of African ancestry, we build a joint paediatric

and adult atlas of 75 cell subtypes, which we verify with spatial transcriptomics. We explore

the differences between paediatric and adult cell types, revealing the genes and pathways

that change during brain maturation. Our results highlight excitatory neuron subtypes,

including the *LTK* and *FREM* subtypes, that show elevated expression of genes associated with

cognition and synaptic plasticity in paediatric tissue. The new resources we present here

improve our understanding of the brain during its development and contribute to global
efforts to build an inclusive brain cell map.
44
45   **Introduction**
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The adult human brain is a complex assembly of diverse cell types, which has been defined
with unprecedented accuracy using single cell transcriptomics[1-4]. This adult transcriptomic
signature is set up over a protracted period of development, which begins in the embryo and
continues after birth. While the single cell diversity of the embryonic human brain has been
explored[5,6], little is known about how these cell type-specific gene expression profiles change
during childhood[7]. Most existing studies have used bulk transcriptomic approaches, which
revealed a dramatic period of global gene expression change during the late foetal/early
infancy transition, that stabilises during childhood (1 to <12-years-old) and adolescence (12
to <20-years-old)[6,8-11]. Bulk transcriptomics, however, cannot reveal the more subtle, cell
type-specific changes in gene expression that drive brain maturation from childhood,
through adolescence to adulthood.

Childhood and adolescence are periods of important changes in brain structure, during which
neuronal connections are refined and strengthened. While synaptogenesis peaks in the early
postnatal period, synaptic pruning activity begins during late childhood, peaks during
adolescence, and then gradually decreases[12-14]. These stages therefore represent periods of
enhanced susceptibility to environmental influence, as well as increased neuropsychiatric
risk[15]. Describing the typical cell type-specific gene expression trajectories of the maturing
brain will allow us to assess the effects of genetic perturbations and early adverse experiences
on brain maturation. Furthermore, investigating the driving forces behind cell type-specific
maturational processes may help develop targeted therapies for neurological disease[16].

To this end, the Paediatric Cell Atlas (PCA)[17], a branch of the Human Cell Atlas (HCA)[3], aims to
ensure that the benefits of single cell transcriptomics are available to children as well as adults
from diverse populations[3,17]. Africa has the most genetically diverse[18] and youngest
population[19] worldwide and by 2050, 37% of the world's children will grow up in Africa[20].
Consequently, it is essential to include the African paediatric population in the PCA's efforts.
A reference paediatric brain cell atlas that includes data from African donors will contribute
to developing treatments for locally prevalent conditions, such as tuberculosis meningitis
(TBM) and HIV[21,22]. In addition, studying the differences in gene expression dynamics between
adult and paediatric brains may explain why the manifestation of neurological conditions and
responses to therapies differ across the lifespan[17].

To contribute to these endeavours, we present a joint paediatric and adult temporal cortex
cell atlas, including samples from eight Southern African donors, annotated using the Allen
Brain Map middle temporal gyrus (MTG) cell taxonomy[1]. We validate our annotation using
spatial transcriptomics analysis. In addition, we use *de novo* marker gene analysis with

machine learning tools to compare our paediatric and adult datasets to the existing MTG cell
taxonomy and compare markers that define paediatric versus adult cell states. Using
differential gene expression analysis, we highlight 21 cell subtypes that show differential
expression of genes involved in neurodevelopment and cognition. Finally, we use our datasets
to define the cell type-specific gene expression of putative site-of-disease TBM biomarkers[23].
Overall, we highlight the subtle cell type-specific differences between the paediatric and adult
brain and expand the representation of diverse paediatric populations in the HCA.

88
89   **Results**
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91   **A joint paediatric and adult temporal cortex cell atlas**
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We generated snRNA-seq libraries from five paediatric and three adult donor temporal cortex
tissue samples. The majority of our samples were obtained from surgeries to treat epilepsy
(Extended Data Table 1). These new libraries were analysed alongside similar published
datasets[24], resulting in a total of 23 snRNA-seq datasets (including technical replicates) from
12 individuals (six paediatric and six adult) (Fig. 1a). The samples were sequenced to a median
depth of 19,853 reads per nucleus, with 176,012 nuclei remaining after removing low quality
barcodes (Extended Data Fig. 1, Extended Data Table 2). While our new datasets had a lower
average sequencing depth than the co-analysed published datasets, the average number of
genes and transcripts detected across datasets was similar (Extended Data Table 2).
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Using data integration and clustering we aligned similar cell types across the 23 datasets,
yielding 40 clusters (Fig. 1a, Extended Data Fig. 1i-h). Each cluster was assigned to one of the
major brain cell types (level 1 annotation) based on marker gene expression (Extended Data
Fig. 2a, Extended Data Table 3, Supplementary Figure 1). Additionally, we used label transfer[25]
to classify each nucleus according to the Allen Brain Map MTG atlas[1] (level 2 annotation)
(Extended Data Table 3). Barcodes with discordant level 1 and level 2 annotations (17.94%)
were removed to focus downstream analyses on nuclei with high confidence annotations
(Extended Data Table 3). Based on marker gene analysis[1] (Extended Data Fig. 2b), many of
these filtered barcodes are likely multiplets or nuclei contaminated with ambient mRNA.
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All 75 reference cell types were present in the final filtered dataset of 144,438 nuclei (Fig. 1b;
Extended Data Table 3) and expressed the expected marker genes[1] (Fig. 1d). Both neuronal
and non-neuronal cell types showed high correlation with the corresponding reference cell
types[1] (cosine similarity score > 0.83) and lower correlation to other subtypes within their
class (Fig. 1e). This pattern was maintained when we considered either the paediatric or adult
datasets on their own, with the majority of paediatric cell types showing only slightly lower
similarity scores than the adults (Extended Data Table 3), which is likely due to the reference
dataset only containing adult data. The cell composition of the samples was very similar with

no significant differences in cell type proportions between paediatric and adult samples or
between biological sexes (Fig. 1c; Extended Data Figure 2c-d; Extended Data Table 3). Similar
to the reference atlas[1], oligodendrocytes were the most common non-neuronal cell type and
Exc_L2-3_LINC00507_FREM3 was the most common neuronal subtype. Neuronal clusters had
a greater number of expressed genes and unique molecular identifiers (UMIs) compared to
non-neuronal cells (Extended Data Figure 3a), while excitatory neurons had a greater number
of genes detected per nucleus than inhibitory neurons (Extended Data Table 3). When
comparing the paediatric to adult cell types, there were no significant differences in the
number of genes or UMIs between the age categories. Overall, the quality and composition
of the paediatric and adult cell atlases were very similar.
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133 **Spatial mapping of cell types reveals similar tissue cytoarchitecture in adult and paediatric**
134 **temporal cortex**
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136 Next, we used spatial transcriptomics to explore the positions of our annotated cell types
137 within the temporal cortex. We generated Visium datasets from adult (31-year-old) and
138 paediatric (15-year-old) temporal cortex samples (two sections each; Extended Data Table 1;
139 Extended Data Fig. 4). The four Visium libraries were sequenced to a median depth of 87,178
140 reads per spot (median of 5,878 UMIs and 2,745 genes per spot) (Extended Data Table 4).
141
Using *cell2location*[26], we calculated cell type abundance estimates for each Visium spot, with
our annotated snRNA-seq dataset as a reference. Oligodendrocytes were the most common
cell type, while Exc_L2_LAMP5_LTK was the most abundant neuronal cell type (Extended Data
Fig. 5a). The annotated cell types mapped to their expected cortical layer locations across all
tissue sections (Fig. 2a; Extended Data Fig. 5b), matching the spatial expression of known
cortical layer marker genes[1,27,28] (Fig. 2b). These layered expression patterns were verified for
a subset of layer-specific marker genes using *in situ* hybridisation (Extended Data Fig. 6).
To examine the co-location of cell types within the layered structure of the temporal cortex,
non-negative matrix factorization (NMF) was performed resulting in 15 cellular
compartments, which were visualised across the Visium samples, revealing their spatial
distribution (Fig. 2c-d, Extended Data Fig. 5c). In both the paediatric and adult datasets, there
was clear co-location of the expected neuronal cell types within overlapping compartments
across the cortical layers. Layer 2 was dominated by Exc_L2_LAMP5_LTK (factor_11) and
Exc_L2-3_LINC00507_FREM (factor_5), layer 3 by Exc_L3-4_RORB_CARM1P1 (factor_13),
layer 4 by the *RORB* excitatory neuron subtypes (factor_12), layer 5 by the *THEMIS* excitatory
neuron subtypes (factor_10) and layer 6 by the *FEZF2* excitatory neuron subtypes (factor_14
and factor_1), with the latter extending into the white matter. Inhibitory neurons were
primarily associated with factors 6 and 2, which were more widely spread across the layers.
Interestingly, these factors were more strongly associated with layers 5/6 in the adult than in

the paediatric samples. The two astrocyte subtypes were confirmed to have distinct
distribution profiles, with Astro_L1-2_FGFR3_GFAP (factor_4) located primarily in layer 1 and
the white matter, and Astro_L1-6_FGFR3_SLC14A1 (factor_9) more widely distributed. The
remaining non-neuronal cell types were largely associated with factors located in layer 1 and
the white matter.

Overall, our spatial transcriptomic analyses provide support for our annotation approach,
showing the expected spatial distribution of annotated cell types, and revealing a largely
similar tissue cytoarchitecture in adult and paediatric temporal cortex tissue.

A machine learning approach identifies new temporal cortex cell type markers

To establish a standardized approach for defining cell types, it has been proposed to use the
minimum combination of gene markers that can classify a cell type and distinguish it from
other cell types[29,30]. Towards achieving this, Aevermann et al. (2021)[29] developed the machine
learning tool, *NS-Forest V2.0*, which they applied to the MTG cell atlas. Ideally, these MTG
minimal markers would be conserved in similar datasets to facilitate accurate comparisons
across different studies[31]. Indeed, we found that the majority of MTG cell atlas minimal
markers[29] (~94%) are expressed at significantly higher levels in the expected cell types than
in other cell types (Extended Data Fig. 7, Extended Data Table 5).

Application of the *NS-Forest V2.0*[29] algorithm to our down-sampled snRNA-seq datasets (see
Methods) revealed 202 paediatric and 196 adult minimal marker genes (Fig. 3; Extended Data
Table 5). The median F-beta score per cell type (the measure of the discriminative power of a
given combination of marker genes; paediatric=0.55; adult=0.6) and the average binary
expression score (a measure of an individual gene's classification power; paediatric=0.9;
adult=0.89) were comparable across age groups and only slightly lower than that obtained
for the MTG cell atlas (0.68 and 0.94 respectively)[29]. 47 paediatric (23.3%) and 45 adult
(23.0%) minimal markers overlapped with existing markers[29] (Fig. 3; Extended Data Table 5).
However, there was a greater overlap in minimal markers between the paediatric and adult
datasets, with 68 markers (~34%) present in both lists. MERFISH[32] spatial transcriptomic
analysis of a subset of minimal makers that were shared between paediatric and adult
datasets confirmed their co-expression with previously described minimal markers[29] in adult
(31-year-old) and paediatric (15-year-old) temporal cortex samples (Extended Data Fig. 8).

Our minimal marker analysis revealed improved markers for some cell types when compared
to the reference MTG cell atlas. In our datasets, the long non-coding RNA, *LINC01331*, is a
minimal marker for Exc_L2-3_LINC00507_FREM3 with a beta score of 1, indicating high
specificity. In contrast, one of the existing markers for this cell type, *PALMD*, is more highly
expressed in endothelial cells in our datasets (Fig. 3; Extended Data Fig. 9a-b). This

discrepancy is likely due to the lower percentage of endothelial cells in the MTG cell atlas
compared to our datasets (0.06% vs 0.9%)[1]. Similarly, one of the existing MTG cell atlas
markers for Exc_L5-6 _THEMIS_CRABP1, *OLFML2B*, is more highly expressed in other layer
5/6 neurons in our dataset, whereas our minimal marker, *POSTN*, shows greater specificity
(Fig. 3; Extended Data Fig. 9c-d). Additionally, UMAP analysis of our annotated datasets using
our minimal marker gene list for each age group, in comparison to an equivalent number of
random genes, resulted in better grouping of the cell subtypes into clusters, similar to the
original UMAP plot (compare Fig. 1a and Fig. 4 a-b). This analysis reveals that our shortlists of
~200 marker genes capture much of the underlying transcriptomic diversity in our datasets.
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Gene ontology (GO) analysis of our minimal marker gene lists revealed significant enrichment
of GO terms related to development, cell signalling, extracellular matrix and synapse
organisation, when considering the paediatric and adult datasets individually or together
(Extended Data Table 6). These results suggest that genes involved in neuronal development
and signalling are key to neuronal identity as the brain matures and in adult life. To further
assess the difference in cell type markers between our paediatric and adult datasets, we
expanded our analysis to include all genes with a high NS-Forest binary expression score (>
0.7)[29]. For most cell types, the majority of these top markers (>18 genes) were shared
between our paediatric and adult datasets (Fig. 4c; Extended Data Tables 7-8). The
oligodendrocytes showed the highest number of shared marker genes (53), as well as the
second highest number of paediatric-specific markers (22). Exc_L3-4_RORB_CARM1P1 had
the highest number of adult-specific marker genes (30), while Exc_L2-4_LINC00507_GLP2R
had no shared markers. GO analysis of the shared oligodendrocyte marker genes revealed
driver terms related to oligodendrocyte structure and function, including "structural
constituent of myelin sheath", while the top driver terms for the paediatric-specific markers
were "oligodendrocyte differentiation" and "myelination" (Extended Data Table 6). Overall,
our expanded marker gene analysis suggests that neuronal cell types show greater
dissimilarity between their paediatric and adult states than non-neuronal cells. It is likely that
more diversity in the non-neuronal marker gene profiles could be revealed with subdivision
into further subtypes.
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232   **Differential gene expression analysis highlights enriched expression of genes associated**
233   **with neurodevelopment in paediatric samples.**
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To identify genes that were upregulated in the paediatric cell populations and thus might be
involved in brain maturation, we conducted cell type-specific differential gene expression
analysis with *DESeq2*[33]. In total, we detected 165 significantly differentially expressed genes
(DEGs) across 21 cell types (123 upregulated in paediatric samples and 42 downregulated),
with some DEGs associated with multiple cell types (Fig. 5a; Extended Data Table 9-10). For
all DEGs, the change in expression was accompanied by a corresponding change in the

percentage of nuclei expressing the gene (Extended Data Table 10). *BayesSpace*[34] analysis of

a subset of DEGs in our Visium datasets confirmed that the genes were expressed at higher

levels in the 15-year-old compared to the 31-year-old (Extended Data Fig. 10).

Many of the excitatory neuron subtypes shared DEGs that are known to be developmentally

regulated in the mammalian brain (Fig. 5b-e,h). *LAMC3*, a subunit of the extracellular matrix

protein laminin, was upregulated in three paediatric subtypes (Exc_L3-5_RORB_ESR1, Exc_L2-

3_LINC00507_FREM3, Exc_L4-5_RORB_FOLH1B) (Fig. 5b-d,h). *LAMC3* plays a role in cortical

lamination in the mouse[35] and mutations are implicated in human brain heterotopias and

gyration defects[36,37]. Similarly, *SOX11*, a transcription factor that plays a role in embryonic and

adult neurogenesis in the mouse brain[38] and decreases in expression in the cerebral cortex

during development[39,40], was upregulated in paediatric Exc_L3-5_RORB_ESR1 and Exc_L2-

3_LINC00507_FREM3 (Fig. 5b-c,h). *FNBP1L* (*TOCA-1*) was upregulated in Exc_L2-

3_LINC00507_FREM3 and Exc_L2_LAMP5_LTK (Fig. 5c,e,h). FNBP1L promotes actin

polymerisation, regulating neurite outgrowth, and declines in expression over the course of

brain maturation in the rat[41]. Two genes, *STEAP2*, a metalloreductase, and the TNF receptor

TNFRSF25 (*DR3*), were higher in adult Exc_L3-5_RORB_ESR1 and Exc_L4-5_RORB_FOLH1B

subtypes (Fig. 5b,d,h). *STEAP2* increases in expression during post-natal hippocampal

maturation in mice[42]. *TNFRSF25* is activated post-natally in the mouse brain, where it may

play a role in retention of motor control during aging[43]. These findings indicate that previously

reported expression dynamics for these genes in mammalian models are conserved in the

human temporal cortex. Importantly, our analysis reveals these patterns are specific to

groups of excitatory neuron subtypes.

The majority of the DEGs were not shared across the cell types. For example, *FGF13* (*FHF2*)

and *TENM1* were upregulated in paediatric Exc_L3-5_RORB_ESR1 (Fig. 5b). *FGF13* decreases

in expression with age in the mouse brain, where it regulates post-natal neurogenesis[44] and

axonal formation[45]. *TENM1* is a member of the teneurin transmembrane protein family that

regulates cytoskeletal organisation and neurite outgrowth, as well as shaping synaptic

connections[46-48]. *KCNG1,* a voltage gated-potassium channel (Kv6.1), was upregulated in

paediatric Exc_L2-3_LINC00507_FREM3 neurons (Fig. 5c), while *MYO16* (*MYR8*), an

unconventional myosin protein, was upregulated in the Exc_L2_LAMP5_LTK subtype (Fig. 5e).

Both of these genes decrease in expression with age in the mammalian brain[49,50].

In line with our minimal marker analyses, fewer genes were differentially expressed in non-

neuronal cells (Fig. 5f-g, Extended Data Table 10). In Astro_L1-6_FGFR3_SLC14A1, *PIK3R3* was

upregulated in paediatric samples, while *PFKFB2* was downregulated. *PIK3R3* is involved in

the PI3K-AKT growth signalling pathway, which is implicated in brain growth disorders[51].

PFKFB2 is a bifunctional kinase/phosphatase that controls glycolysis. In contrast to our

findings, PFKFB2 expression is higher in juvenile rat hippocampal astrocytes than in adults,

where it may support energy demands during learning[52]. In oligodendrocytes, *NOTCH2* and

RRAS2 were both upregulated in paediatric samples. *Notch2* expression decreases in the rat
cortex with age[53] and is proposed to regulate glial differentiation[54]. These results provide new
molecular candidates to expand our understanding of the mechanisms of astrocyte and
oligodendrocyte maturation.
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To explore the trajectories of DEG expression, we employed *psupertime* pseudotime
trajectory analysis[55], focussing on the four excitatory neuron sub-types with the highest
number of DEGs. In support of our DESeq2 findings, several of the identified DEGs had non-
zero psupertime coefficients and therefore represent genes that are relevant to the ordering
of the cells in pseudotime[55] (Fig. 5i; Exc_L3-5_RORB_ESR1: 13/47 [28%], Exc_L2-
3_LINC00507_FREM3:   16/38   [42%],   Exc_L4-5_RORB_FOLH1B   3/27   [11%]   and
Exc_L2_LAMP5_LTK: 5/18 [28%]; Extended Data Table 11). When considering the pseudotime
trajectories for all DEGS in these excitatory neuron subtypes, the direction of the expression
matched the DESeq2 results (Supplementary Fig. 2-5). The pseudotime trajectories revealed
subtle expression dynamics within the analysed sample groups, showing that the majority of
DEGs gradually increase in expression with age from childhood to adolescence, followed by
a decrease in expression towards late adulthood.
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Genes associated with intelligence quotient (IQ) and educational attainment (EA), as well as
those associated with accelerated evolution in humans, have recently been shown to be
enriched in adult temporal lobe cortical neurons, especially the Exc_L2-3_LINC00507_FREM3
subtype[56]. Since childhood is a key period of cognitive development[57], we explored whether
the same genes were found amongst our DEGs. Of the 149 DEGs found in at least one cell
type, 20 (13.42%, p=0.02) are known to be significantly associated with EA[58], 6 (4.02%, p=0.7)
with IQ[59] and 30 (20.13%, p=3.89E-07) with accelerated evolution in humans[60]. These
included several genes that are upregulated in paediatric samples, such as *MYO16*, *KCNG1*,
FGF13 and *SOX11* (Extended Data Table 10).
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310 Overall, we highlight several genes that are upregulated in children/adolescents which have
311 known roles in brain development and have been associated with cognitive ability. Our
312 analysis builds on previous knowledge by implicating specific cell subtypes and provides new
313 candidate genes that likely contribute to cell type-specific maturation processes.
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315 **Gene pathways involved in cellular respiration and synaptic functioning are enriched in**
316 **paediatric cell types**
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318 We next used gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) to conduct a broad analysis of the gene
319 pathways that are differentially regulated across all brain cell types during brain maturation.
320 2,006 GOBP terms where enriched in the paediatric samples compared to the adults, while
321 866 were depleted (p<0.01 and q<0.1) (Extended Data Table 12). When focussing on the 25
322 most frequently enriched terms, the majority (10 terms) were associated with cellular

respiration pathways (Fig. 6; Extended Data Table 12). Six were associated with intra-cellular transport, including transport of neurotransmitters, while five were linked to neurotransmitter release and synaptic plasticity. Three terms, including the top enriched term, were associated with protein translation and modification. The majority of depleted terms (10 terms) were associated with synaptic processes (Fig. 6). A further six depleted terms were connected to neuronal morphogenesis, including axon and dendrite morphogenesis. Two of the top depleted terms were associated with axon ensheathment. Interestingly, neither of these terms were significantly enriched in oligodendrocytes or OPCs, while they were associated with neuronal sub types, and microglia.

Overall, our GSEA analysis points towards putative genetic pathways that may drive maturation in the paediatric brain. Cellular respiration processes needed to support the higher metabolic rates in the brain during childhood[61] may be enriched. Additionally, pathways related to strengthening synapses through neurotransmitter release may be enhanced. On the other hand, as synaptic pruning is underway[62], pathways that promote synaptic growth may need to be suppressed.

Cell type-specific expression of site-of-disease TBM biomarkers

The PCA aims to create reference atlases that can be used to improve our understanding of cell type-specific responses to disease in children[17]. Here, we used our snRNA-seq datasets to interrogate the cell type-specific expression of putative genetic biomarkers for TBM[23]. These biomarkers are enriched in the ventricular cerebrospinal fluid from children with TBM in comparison to controls with meningitis caused by other brain infections[23].

66 of the 76 TBM biomarkers were expressed in our dataset, with similar expression across the two age groups, and genes clearly clustering according to their relative expression across the broad cell type categories (Extended Data Fig. 11). The genes with the highest relative expression in our data were expressed by non-neuronal cell types, which is in line with the view that immunological activity of supporting cells and their intercellular signalling interactions are important drivers of the immune response to TBM[63]. Several of these biomarkers (e.g. *FADS2*, *AMOT* and *ALDH6A1*) were enriched in the two astrocyte subtypes, potentially pointing towards a prominent role for astrocytes in the host response to TBM.

Our analyses also clearly revealed subsets of biomarkers that are more highly expressed by neuronal subtypes than non-neuronal cell types. This included biomarkers that were associated with Exc_L2_LAMP5_LTK, Exc_L2-4_LINC00507_GLP2R and Exc_L5-6_THEMIS_C1QL3 (*LYNX1*, *FAIM2*, *MAP1A*, *TUBB4A*). This is line with the finding that neuronal excitotoxicity is elevated in TBM[23] and suggests that specific excitatory neuron subtypes may be contributing to this signal.

Interestingly, the two most enriched genes in the TBM biomarker dataset, *CXCL9* and *CXCL11*,
were either completely absent from our datasets (*CXCL11*) or expressed by very few nuclei
(*CXCL9*). The absence of these interferon-inducible chemokines in our datasets from
uninfected tissue, supports the proposition that they are indeed biomarkers from the site-of-
disease[64] in both adults and children with TBM, and could also reflect the contribution of
peripheral immune cells recruited to the brain during infection.
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372   **Discussion**
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374   The brain is the most complex organ in the human body, which continuously changes as we
375   mature. Here, we begin to unmask the molecular mechanisms guiding these processes in the
376   temporal cortex, using single cell and spatial transcriptomics to compare similar cell types
377   between paediatric and adult datasets.
378
To facilitate accurate comparisons of cell types across age groups, we used the existing Allen
Brain Map MTG cell atlas[1] to annotate our datasets. This demonstrated that the reference
atlas, generated from adult snRNA-seq datasets, is indeed generalisable[31], and can be used
to classify cell types from samples of different ages. This generalisability is essential for
healthy human reference atlases to serve as a baseline to improve our understanding of
human development and disease[3]. Our samples and those in the reference MTG cell atlas
include neurosurgical tissue from donors with epilepsy, and while the analysed tissue is not
from the site of pathology, it is important to view our findings in light of the patient diagnosis.
Previous research comparing gene expression between the neurosurgical and post-mortem
samples used in the reference MTG cell atlas found a strong correlation of expression
between cell types across conditions[1]. In addition, a comparison of samples from 45 adult
donors with epilepsy to the post-mortem samples from the reference MTG cell atlas found a
similar number of genes and similar cell abundance per cell subclass across tissue sources,
however they did find more variation for these parameters in neurosurgical samples[65]. As
more paediatric MTG samples of post-mortem and neurosurgical origin become available, it
will be important to conduct similar analyses to determine if these findings hold for the
paediatric temporal cortex.
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Our machine-learning marker gene analysis shows that while the cell type classifications,
which are based on the expression of thousands of genes, can be transferred onto new
datasets, the minimal markers that define the cell types do vary across datasets. Only a
quarter of our *NS-Forest* minimal markers overlap with the existing MTG cell atlas minimal
markers[29]. The differences in the single cell transcriptomics technologies used to generate
our dataset and the MTG cell atlas may account for much of this discrepancy. Nonetheless,
our analyses suggest that some of our markers may provide better discrimination between
cell types than existing markers. These results highlight a challenge that the HCA faces to

revise cell type markers as more datasets are made available to ensure that the cell type
classification is as widely applicable as possible.
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Similar to analyses of aging in the mouse[66], our analyses show there is little change in cell type
composition within the temporal cortex during human brain maturation. However, our
differential expression analysis highlights differences in cell states between specific paediatric
and adult cell subtypes. Recently, the supragranular excitatory pyramidal neurons in the MTG
have been shown to have high transcriptional diversity[1,67], large arborisations[68] and
electrophysiological properties that impact signal integration and encoding[69-72] in ways that
may contribute to cognition. Since cognitive ability is a key feature that is established during
childhood[68], our analysis offers an opportunity to explore how cell type-specific gene
expression dynamics contribute to cognitive development. Interestingly, two of the 21
highlighted cell types were the layer 2/3 excitatory neurons, Exc_L2_LAMP5_LTK and Exc_L2-
3_LINC00507_FREM3, that have recently been associated with human cognition[56]. In line with
these findings, several of the DEGS associated with these cell types, including *FNBP1L*[73] and
SOX11[74], have been implicated in cognitive ability and intelligence. Overall, our data points
towards genes that may play roles in cognitive development specifically within these
excitatory neurons.
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The relatively low number of genes implicated in our differential expression analysis in
comparison to similar studies in mouse[66] suggests that the difference between the paediatric
and adult brain are subtle. However, the inherent high variability in human gene expression
data may mask some of the differential gene expression in our limited sample. Nonetheless,
our pseudotime trajectory analyses reveals some of the expression dynamics that may be
occurring during childhood, with many genes rising in expression towards adolescence and
dropping off in adulthood. As the HCA database for the human temporal cortex expands, it
will be important to build on these analyses with more samples. Binning of samples of similar
age will provide a higher resolution analysis of cell type-specific gene expression trajectories
over the course of brain maturation.
434
Finally, we have provided the first single nucleus gene expression datasets for the brain that
includes data from black Southern African donors, thus increasing the diversity of the HCA
database. We demonstrate how this resource can be used to deconvolute site-of-disease
biomarker analyses for TBM, pinpointing which cell types may be driving altered gene
expression profiles in the brain. Importantly, these investigations have the potential to
contribute to the development of effective treatments, that are tailored to specific needs of
both adult and paediatric patients.
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443
444 **Methods**
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Human samples

Ethical approval was granted for the collection and use of paediatric and adult human brain tissue by the University of Cape Town Human Research Ethics Committee (UCT HREC REF 016/2018; sub-studies 146/2022 and 147/2022). The human brain tissue samples used to generate new datasets were obtained by informed consent for studies during temporal lobe surgical resections to treat epilepsy and/or cancer performed at the Red Cross War Memorial Children's Hospital and Constantiaberg Mediclinic in Cape Town, South Africa. The samples used in this study were of temporal cortex origin and represent radiologically and macroscopically normal neocortex within the pathological context (details in Extended Data Table 1). Race was recorded by the clinical teams based on their knowledge of the donors. The category "black South African" includes both black and mixed race ancestries. Upon resection, samples were placed in carbogenated ice-cold artificial cerebral spinal fluid (aCSF) containing in (mM): 110 choline chloride, 26 $NaHCO_3$, 10 D-glucose, 11.6 sodium ascorbate, 7 $MgCl_2$, 3.1 sodium pyruvate, 2.5 KCl, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, and 0.5 $CaCl_2$ (300 mOsm) and immediately transported to the laboratory (~20 minutes). Tissue blocks containing the full span from pia to white matter were prepared and either flash frozen in liquid nitrogen or embedded in optimal cutting temperature compound (OCT) and stored at -80°C. The OCT-embedded samples were flash frozen in a 10×10 mm^2 cryomold which was either frozen directly in liquid nitrogen or placed in a container of isopentane (Merck) which was in turn placed in liquid nitrogen at the same level as the isopentane. The publicly available snRNA-seq datasets[24], generated from samples obtained during elective surgeries performed at Universitair Ziekenhuis Leuven, Belgium, were downloaded from the Sequence Read Archive database.

Nuclei isolation for snRNA-seq

Nuclei were isolated according to a protocol adapted from Habib et al. (2017)[75] and the 10X Genomics nuclei isolation protocol (CG000124, User Guide Rev E). Frozen brain tissue was homogenised in a dounce-homogeniser containing 2 ml ice-cold lysis solution (Nuclei EZ Lysis Buffer [Sigma-Aldrich, NUC101] or Nuclei PURE Lysis buffer [Sigma-Aldrich, NUC201] with 1 mM dithiothreitol [DTT, Promega, P1171, US] and 0.1% Triton X-100 [Sigma-Aldrich, NUC201-1KT, US]). Homogenisation was done 20 times with the loose pestle A followed by 20 times with the tight pestle B. An additional 2 ml lysis solution was added, and the sample was incubated for 5 minutes on ice. The sample was centrifuged at 500 x g for 5 minutes at 4°C after which the supernatant was discarded and the nuclei resuspended in 3 ml ice cold nuclei suspension buffer (1x phosphate-buffered saline [PBS, Sigma-Aldrich, P4417-50TAB, US]), 0.01% bovine serum albumin [BSA, Sigma-Aldrich, A2153-10G, US], and 0.2 U/µl RNAsin Plus RNase inhibitor [Promega, N2615, US]). Resuspended nuclei were passed through a 40 µm filter and centrifuged at 900 x g for 10 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant was discarded and pelleted nuclei were resuspended in 3 ml blocking buffer (1xPBS [Sigma-Aldrich, P4417-50TAB, US], 1% BSA [Sigma-Aldrich, A2153-10G, US], 0.2 U/µl RNAsin Plus RNase inhibitor [Promega, N2615, US]).

To remove myelin debris, 30 μl of myelin removal beads [Miltenyi Biotec. 130-096-733, US]
was added to the solution which was mixed by gently pipetting 5 times. The sample was
incubated for 15 minutes at 4°C after which it was mixed with 3 ml blocking buffer and
centrifuged at 300 x g for 5 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant was removed and the nuclei were
resuspended in 2 ml clean blocking buffer. The sample was transferred to a 2 ml tube and
placed on a Dynamag magnet for 15 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant was transferred to a
new tube and stored on ice. An aliquot of trypan blue stained nuclei was counted using a
haemocytometer to determine the nuclei concentration and the volume to use in snRNA-seq
library preparation.

10X Genomics snRNA-seq library preparation
snRNA-seq library preparation was carried out using the 10x Genomics Chromium Next Gem
Single Cell 3' Reagent Kit (v3.1) according to manufacturer's protocols (CG000204, User Guide
Rev D), targeting 10,000 nuclei per sample. At step 2.2d and 3.5e, the libraries were amplified
using 11 cycles and 13 cycles, respectively. Library quality and concentration was assessed
using either the TapeStation or Bioanalyser (Agilent) and Qubit (Invitrogen) at the Central
Analytical Facility (CAF, University of Stellenbosch). cDNA libraries were sequenced by
Novogene (Singapore) on either the Illumina HiSeq or NovaSeq system using the Illumina High
Output kits (150 cycles).

snRNA-seq read alignment and gene expression quantification
Fastq files were aligned to the human reference transcriptome (GRCh38) and quantified using
the count function from the 10X Genomics Cell Ranger v6.1.1 software (Cell Ranger, RRID
SCR_017344) (Code availability: script 1). The inclusion of introns was specified in the count
function. An automatic filtering process was performed to remove barcodes corresponding
to background noise which have very low UMI counts.

snRNA-seq quality control
The resulting count matrices were processed using a pipeline adapted from the Harvard Chan
Bioinformatics Core (https://hbctraining.github.io/scRNA-seq_online/). The filtered gene
barcode matrix for each sample was imported into R (V.4.2.0) using the Read10X function
from the Seurat (v.2.0)[25]. Nuclei-level filtering was performed to remove poor quality nuclei
according to their number of UMIs (nUMIs) detected, number of genes detected (nGene),
number of genes detected per UMI (log10GenesPerUMI), and the fraction of mitochondrial
read counts to total read counts (mitoRatio) (Code availability: script 2). Nuclei that met the
following criteria were retained: nUMI > 500, nGene > 250, log10GenesPerUMI > 0.8 and
mitoRatio < 0.2. Gene-level filtering was performed to remove genes that had zero counts in
all nuclei, remove genes expressed in fewer than 10 nuclei, and remove mitochondrial genes
from the gene by cell counts matrix. Three doublet removal tools namely

DoubletFinder[76](Code availability: script 3), DoubletDecon[77] (Code availability: script 4), and
Scrublet[77] (Code availability: script 5,6) were used to identify doublets for each dataset
individually. The sample-specific parameters of each of the tools were adjusted according to
the specified guidelines. To achieve a balance between the false positive and false negative
rate of the different doublet detection tools, all doublets identified by DoubletFinder as well
as the intersection of the doublets identified by DoubletDecon and Scrublet, were removed[77].
533

snRNA-seq data normalization, integration and clustering
Principal component analysis was performed to evaluate known sources of within-sample
variation between nuclei, namely the mitoRatio and cell cycle phase (Code availability: script
7). The UMI counts of the 3000 most variable features were normalised and scaled on a per
sample basis by applying Seurat's SCTransform function with mitoRatio regressed out. A
Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) analysis was performed on the
merged object to assess whether integration was necessary. The datasets were subsequently
integrated using Seurat's SelectIntegrationFeatures, PrepSCTIntegration,
FindIntegrationAnchors, and IntegrateData functions (Code availability: script 7). To cluster
the datasets following integration, dimensionality reduction was first performed using UMAP
embedding, specifying 40 dimensions (Code availability: script 8). The Seurat FindClusters
function was then applied at a resolution of 0.8.
546

snRNA-seq cluster annotation
Two levels of annotation were performed. Clusters were initially annotated as one of the
major brain cell types (level 1 annotation) based on the expression of known markers genes
(Code availability: script 9). Label transfer was then performed using Seurat's TransferData
function with Allen Brain Map MTG atlas[1] as a reference dataset (level 2 annotation) (Code
availability: scripts 10-11). This resulted in each barcode in the query dataset receiving a
predicted annotation based on a similarity score to an annotated cell type in the reference.
Barcodes were then filtered to remove those with discordant level 1 and level 2 annotations
(e.g. barcodes with "oligodendrocyte" level 1 annotation and "Exc_L4-5_RORB_FOLH1" level
2 annotation) (Code availability: script 12). To validate the annotation, the expression of
known marker genes was assessed. Cosine similarity scores were computed to compare the
transcriptomic similarity of each of the annotated query cell types to the 75 reference MTG
cell types using the SCP package (https://github.com/zhanghao-njmu/SCP) (Code availability:
script 13). This was achieved by computing cosine similarity scores for each pair of query and
reference cell types using the expression of the top 2000 shared highly variable features
between the query and reference datasets. The log normalised expression counts were used
for this purpose (RNA assay, data slot). To assess the difference between the paediatric and
adult datasets relative to the reference, the above cosine similarity analysis was repeated on
the paediatric and adult datasets individually (Code availability: script 13).
566

NS-Forest machine learning marker analysis of snRNA-seq datasets

The NS-Forest tool (v2.0)[29,30] was used to identify combinations of marker genes uniquely defining each annotated cell type (Code availability: script 14-15) in the paediatric and adult datasets separately. The number of nuclei per sample was randomly down-sampled to that of the sample with the fewest nuclei (n=4,865). A random-forest model was used to select a maximum of 15 marker genes per cell type based on them being both highly expressed as well as uniquely expressed within a cell type compared to other cell types (i.e., the top Gini Index ranked features with positive expression values). The number of trees chosen for this model was 30,000, the cluster median expression threshold was set to the default value of zero, the number of genes used to rank permutations of genes by their F-beta-score was 6, and the beta weight of the F score was set to 0.5. The aforementioned parameters were set according to the parameters described in Aevermann et al. (2021)[29], allowing the outputs to be directly compared to their markers and to the Allen Brain Map MTG atlas minimal markers[1]. To assess the relevance of these markers in terms of their capacity to distinguish different cell types in a UMAP analysis, the SCT and integration methods were repeated using either a random set of genes or the NS-Forest markers as anchors[29] (Code availability: script 16).

DESeq2 age-dependent differential gene expression analysis of snRNA-seq datasets

DESeq2[33] was used to identify genes that were differentially expressed with age (Code availability: script 17). The unnormalized counts were aggregated across all nuclei for each cluster and sample to generate a 'pseudobulk' counts matrix with the counts from technical replicates collapsed to the level of biological replicates. Genes were filtered to only include those expressed in more than 10% of nuclei for a given cell type. Principal component analysis was performed on each cell type separately in order to assess the variation between samples and determine which variables were contributing most to inter-sample variation from a set of possible variables. The collapsed counts served as input into DESeq2's DESeqDataSetFromMatrix function in which the design formula ~single_cell_chemistry + age_group was specified to treat the age_group (paediatric vs adult) as the variable of interest while the effect of single_cell_chemistry (version2 vs version3 chemistry) was regressed out. A hypothesis test was performed using the Wald test. The null hypothesis for each gene was that there is no difference in gene expression between the sample groups (i.e Log2Fold Change = 0). A Wald test statistic was determined for each gene together with the associated p-value after which the p-values were adjusted for multiple testing using the Benjamini-Hochberg method. Positive log2 Fold Changes represent genes which are upregulated in paediatric samples compared to adult samples (p_{adj} <0.05).

Pseudotime trajectory analysis with psupertime

To validate the differentially expressed genes identified with DESeq2, a pseudotime trajectory
analysis was performed for a subset of excitatory neuron subtypes using the psupertime
package[55] (Code availability: script 18). Psupertime is a supervised approach that uses time-
series labels as input to improve the identification of time-varying genes. Each cell type of
interest (Exc L3-5 RORB ESR1, Exc L2 LAMP5 LTK, Exc L4-5 RORB FOLH1B, Exc L2-3 LINC00507
FREM3) was individually sub-setted from the Seurat object after which a single cell
experiment (sce) object was generated using the log normalized counts (RNA assay, data slot).
The donor age (4, 5, 7, 9, 15, 20, 24, 26, 31, 41, 50) was included as metadata in the object.
The psupertime function was applied to the sce object with the sel_genes argument
specifying all genes to be used. An automatic filtering step was performed to remove genes
expressed in fewer than 10% of cells for each cell type. As an output of the function, the beta
coefficients for the association of each gene with pseudotime were extracted and plots were
generated showing the expression trajectories of the DESeq2 DEGs with pseudotime.
Additionally, the overlap between the DESeq2 DEGs and genes changing as a function of
pseudotime (Psupertime-relevant genes) was determined.
622
623   **Pathway enrichment analysis of snRNA-seq datasets**
624   GO analysis of NS-Forest marker genes was performed on the gProfiler web server[78] using
625   default settings (p_{adj} <0.05) with "highlight diver terms in GO" selected.
626
DEGs identified by DESeq2 (see Extended Data Table 10) that were associated with EA and IQ,
as well as those associated with accelerated evolution in humans (HARs), were determined
by comparing the list of neuronal DEGS to the EA, IQ and HAR gene lists used by Driessens et
al. (2023)[56], which were subsets of the lists from Lee et al. (2018)[58], Savage et al. (2018)[59] and
Doan et al. (2016)[60] respectively. A hypergeometric test was performed to test the
significance of the results relative to chance (Code availability: script 19).
633
GSEA on the DESeq2 output for all genes was performed using the Broad Institute's GSEA
software (https://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb) (Code availability: script 20). GSEA
aggregates the information from many genes to identify enriched functional pathways,
allowing us to interrogate the gene signature changes across all cell types, including those
that did not show any significant DEGs[66]. The gene lists for each cell type were queried against
the C5 GO Biological Processes collection comprising of gene sets derived from the GO
Biological Process ontology. The input lists of genes were ranked according to the -log(p-
value)*log_2FoldChange for each gene. The parameters specified to the GSEA function
included number of permutations (nperm)=1000, minimum gene set size (set_min=15),
maximum gene set size (set_max=200), excludes genes that have no gene symbols (collapse)=
No_Collapse, value to use for the single identifier that will represent all identifiers for the
gene (mode)=Max_probe, normalised enrichment score method (norm)= meandiv, weighted
scoring scheme (scoring_scheme) = classic. Positive Normalised Enrichment Scores (NES)
represent genes that were upregulated in the paediatric population compared to the adult

population (p<0.01 and q<0.1). To visualise the output of universally enriched pathways
across multiple cell types, the top 25 most frequently appearing positively and negatively
associated terms were plotted. Additionally, for five cell types of interest [which had DEGs
meeting the threshold of $p<0.05$ and abs($\log_2$FC)>0.1], the top 5 positively associated terms
were plotted.
653
654 **Analysis of site-of-disease TBM markers**
655
The dittoheatmap function from the dittoSeq package[79] was used to generate heatmaps for
the expression of the TBM biomarkers (upregulated genes listed in Rohlwink et al. 2019,
Supplementary Table 5[23]) across cell types in the paediatric and adult datasets individually.
Additionally, Seurat's dotplot function[25] was used to visualize the level of expression and
proportion of nuclei expressing the markers across cell types (Code availability: script 21).
Prior to generating the plots, the TBM marker genes were filtered to remove those expressed
in 15 nuclei or fewer across all cell types. Gene counts for each marker were aggregated
across cell types and scaled. The markers were clustered according to their expression profiles
using dittoheatmap's default hierarchical clustering method (Euclidean, complete). The
clustering order and dendrogram from this output for the peadiataric datasets were used to
generate dotplots for both peaditaric and adult datasets (Code availability: script 21).
667
668 **snRNA-seq data plots**
669 Plots were produced with Seurat[25], ggplot2[80], ShinyCell[81] and Microsoft Excel.
670
10x Genomics Visium library preparation
Frozen OCT embedded temporal cortex tissue samples were scored using a pre-chilled razor
blade to fit in the Spatial Gene Expression slide capture areas. 10 µm-thick sections were cut
using a cryostat (Leica CM1860/CM1950) and collected onto the Spatial Gene Expression slide
capture areas. Two replicate sections of the 15-year-old (10 µm apart) and two replicate
sections of 31-year-old (40 µm apart) were collected. The spatial Gene Expression slides with
tissue sections were stored in a sealed container at -80°C. Captured sections were
Haematoxylin and Eosin (H&E) stained according to the 10x Genomics Demonstrated Protocol
Guide (CG000160, Rev B). Brightfield images of the stained sections were captured using an
EVOS M5000 microscope (Thermo Fisher Scientific) at 20x magnification without
coverslipping. Overlapping images of the sections including the fiducial frame were stitched
together using Image Composite Editor-2.0.3 (Microsoft). Visium libraries were prepared
from the stained tissue sections following the Visium Spatial Gene Expression Reagents Kit
User Guide (CG000239, Rev D). At Step 1.1 the tissue was permeabilised for 12 minutes as
determined using the Visium Spatial Gene Expression Tissue Optimisation User Guide
(CG000238, Rev D). At Step 3.2, cDNA was amplified using 20 cycles. Library quality and
concentration was assessed using TapeStation (Agilent) and Qubit (Invitrogen) at the Central

Analytical Facility (CAF, University of Stellenbosch). Libraries were sequenced by Novogene
(Singapore) on the Illumina NovaSeq system using the Illumina High Output kits (150 cycles).
690

Visium read alignment and gene expression quantification

692   The H&E images were processed using the 10X Genomics Loupe Browser V4.0 Visium Manual
693   Alignment Wizard. 10X Genomics Space Ranger *count* (10X Space Ranger V1.3.0) was used to
694   perform alignment of FASTQ files to the human reference transcriptome (GRCh38), tissue
695   detection, fiducial detection and barcode/UMI counting.
696

cell2location analysis of Visium datasets

The average number of nuclei per Visium spot was determined using Vistoseg[82] (Code
availability: script 22). Cell2location (version 0.7a0)[26] was used to spatially map the brain cell
types by integrating the Visium data count matrices (Space Ranger output) with the
annotated snRNAseq datasets (Code availability: script 23). To avoid mapping artifacts,
mitochondrial genes were removed from the Visium datasets prior to spatial mapping.
Reference signatures of the 75 annotated cell populations were derived using a negative
binomial regression model using the default values (Code availability: script 24).
Unnormalized and untransformed snRNA-seq mRNA counts were used as input in the
regression model for estimating the reference signatures (Code availability: script 24. The
snRNA-seq mRNA counts were filtered to 14,209 genes and 144,438 cells. The cell2location
model for estimating the spatial abundance of cell populations was filtered to 14,197 genes
and 14,324 cells that were shared in both the snRNA-seq and Visium data. The following
cell2location parameters were used: training iterations = 30,000 cell per location, $N^\wedge$ = 7
(estimated using Vistoseg segmentation results), Normalization (ys) alpha prior = 20 (Code
availability: script 25). To visualise the cell abundance in spatial coordinates 5 % quantile of
the posterior distribution was used, which represents the value of cell abundance that the
model has high confidence in (Code availability: script 26). Cell2location's Non-negative
Matrix Factorization (NMF) was used to identify cellular compartments and cell types that co-
locate from the cell type abundance estimates. NMF was tested using a range of factors (5 to
30) for the "n_fact" parameter (Code availability: script 26). n_fact=15 was chosen as it clearly
grouped the oligodendrocyte, astrocyte and excitatory neuron cell sub-types into known
tissue zones i.e. the layers of the cortex (Code availability: script 27).
720

BayesSpace analysis of Visium datasets

The raw gene expression counts from Space Ranger were normalized, log transformed and
principal component analysis was performed on the top 2000 highly variable genes. To obtain
high-resolution gene expression for selected genes, the principal component values were
mapped back to their original log-transformed gene expression space (spot level) using the
default BayesSpace[34] regression (Code availability: script 28). To do this the principal
components from the original data were used as predictors in training the model for each
gene, in which the results were the measured gene expression at the spot level. The trained

model was then used to predict the gene expression at sub spot level using high resolution
PCs. The high-resolution model was trained using default values except for the following
parameters: 7 PCs, Number of clusters = 8, nrep = 100,000, burn-in = 10,000. The BayesSpace
outputs for each sample were quantified for spots with expression level > 0 and displayed as
boxplots (Code availability: script 29).
734
***In situ* Hybridisation Chain Reaction (HCR) on frozen human tissue sections**
10 μm thick frozen sections were collected on Histobond+ slides (Marienfeld) and stored at -
20°C. The *In situ* HCR protocol was carried out on tissue sections as detailed in Choi et al.
(2016)[83] using reagents, probes and hairpins purchased from Molecular Instruments. Probes
were ordered for the following genes: *RELN* (NM_005045.4), *FABP7* (CR457057.1), *AQP4*
(NM_001650.5), *RORB* (NM_006914.4), *CLSTN2* (NM_022131.3) and *TSHZ2* (NM_173485.6).
When necessary to quench lipofuscin autofluorescence, sections were rinsed after HCR in 1x
PBS and treated with 200 μl TrueBlack (Biotium) for 30 sec. Slides were rinsed in PBS, stained
with Hoescht (Thermofisher) and mounted using SlowFade Gold Antifade Reagent
(Invitrogen). Sections were imaged using the LSM 880 Airyscan confocal microscope (Carl
Zeiss, ZEN SP 2 software) using the 40X or 60X objective.
746
MERFISH analysis on frozen temporal cortex tissue sections
10 μm thick frozen sections were cut from frozen OCT embedded temporal cortex tissue
samples using a cryostat (Leica CM1950). Sections from a peaditaric and adult sample were
collected onto the same MERSCOPE coverslip (VIZGEN 2040003), fixed and stored in 70%
ethanol following the instructions in the VIZGEN protocol (Fresh & Fixed Frozen Tissue
Sectioning & Shipping Procedure Rev A, Doc. number 91600107). The slide was processed on
the VIZGEN MERSCOPE system by the MRC Weatherall Institute of Molecular Medicine Single
Cell Facility (University of Oxford) within 1 month of storage. Sections were photobleached
for 10 hours at 4°C and then washed in 5 ml Sample Prep Wash Buffer (VIZGEN 20300001) in
a 5 cm petri dish. Sections were incubated in 5 ml Formamide Wash Buffer (VIZGEN
20300002) at 37°C for 30 min and hybridized at 37°C for 36 to 48 hours by using 50 μl of
VIZGEN-supplied custom Gene Panel Mix according to the manufacturer's instructions.
Following hybridization, sections were washed twice in 5 ml Formamide Wash Buffer for 30
min at 47°C. Sections were then embedded in acrylamide by polymerizing VIZGEN Embedding
Premix (VIZGEN 20300004) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Following
embedding, sections were digested in Digestion Pre-Mix (VIZGEN 20300005) and RNase
inhibitor (New England Biolabs M0314L) for 3 h at 37°C and then cleared for 16 to 24 hours
with a mixture of VIZGEN Clearing Solution (VIZGEN 20300003) and Proteinase K (New
England Biolabs P8107S) according to the Manufacturer's instructions. Following clearing,
sections were washed twice for 5 min in Sample Prep Wash Buffer (PN 20300001) and then
stained with VIZGEN DAPI and PolyT Stain (PN 20300021) for 15 min followed by a 10 min
wash in Formamide Wash Buffer. Formamide Wash Buffer was removed and sections were

washed with Sample Prep Wash Buffer during MERSCOPE imaging set up. A mixture of 100 ml of RNAse Inhibitor (New England BioLabs M0314L) and 250 ml of Imaging Buffer Activator (PN 203000015) was added to the cartridge activation port to a prethawed and mixed MERSCOPE Imaging cartridge (VIZGEN PN1040004). 15 ml mineral oil (Millipore-Sigma m5904-6X500ML) was added on top of the activation port and the MERSCOPE fluidics system was primed according to VIZGEN instructions. The flow chamber was assembled with the section coverslip according to VIZGEN specifications and the imaging session was initiated after collection of a 10X mosaic DAPI image and selection of the 1cm^2 imaging area. MERFISH data was visualised using the VIZGEN MERSCOPE Vizualizer software (version 2.3.3330.0).

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Data Availability

All scripts used to analyse the data are indicated in the methods section and are available in the supplementary material. A description of the raw and analysed data files will be made available on the University of Cape Town's ZivaHub data sharing platform on publication. As the data is from living donors, access to the data will be mediated through contact with the corresponding author. A ShinyApp will be made publicly available on publication for exploration of the annotated snRNA-seq data.

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Contributions

C.S. and S.F. conducted the snRNA-seq experiments. C.S. conducted the majority of snRNA-seq analyses. R.M. conducted the Visium and HCR experiments and analysis. J.M. conducted additional HCR experiments. S.Q. provided additional bioinformatics support. M.B.V. liaised with neurosurgeons and prepared all neurosurgical brain tissue samples. R.M., J.B. and J.M.N.E conducted the neurosurgeries and provided donor metadata. C.S., T.S.S., M.G. and D.H. conceptualised, conducted and analysed the MERFISH experiments. U.K.R., M.Z., J.V.R, C.G.D, A.F, and D.H. conceptualised the study and raised funds. D.H., C.S. and R.M wrote the manuscript. D.H. conducted additional analyses and supervised the project. All authors read and commented on the manuscript.

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Fig. 1: Annotation of nuclei by label transfer identifies 75 cell types across the 23 datasets. a, Data integration
shows alignment of nuclei across the technical (T) and biological (B) replicates from donors ranging in age from
4 to 50 years. **b**, UMAP plot annotated to show the 75 cell types from the Allen Brain Map MTG atlas after filtering
to retain nuclei with high confidence annotations. Each cell type is annotated with 1) a major cell class (e.g. Exc
for excitatory neuron), 2) the cortical layer the cell is associated with (e.g. L2 for layer 2), 3) a subclass marker
gene and 4) a cluster-specific marker gene. **c**, Stacked barplot showing the proportion of nuclei per cell type for
each age category out of the total number of nuclei for each group. The cell types are coloured as in **b.** See
Extended Data Table 3 for details of statistical tests performed. **d**, Validation of the high-resolution cell type
annotations shows a high degree of correspondence in the expression of known cell type-specific marker genes
(x axis) with their expected cell type (y axis) (left). The number of nuclei per cell type is shown on the right. **e**,
Correlation plot showing the cosine similarity scores assessing similarity between the annotated cell types in our
dataset (y axis as in **d**) and the MTG reference dataset (x axis) based on the log normalized expression counts of
the top 2000 shared highly variable features between query and reference datasets.

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Fig. 2: Visium spatial transcriptomics in the adult and paediatric temporal cortex validates snRNA-seq annotation.
a, Estimated cell type abundances (colour intensity) in the 31-year-old and 15-year-old temporal cortex tissue
sections for a selection of cell types including non-neuronal cell types, excitatory neurons (top row) and inhibitory
neurons (bottom row). **b**, Visium gene expression profiles (colour intensity) for a selection of known cortical layer
marker genes in the 31-year-old and 15-year-old temporal cortex tissue sections including *AQP4* (layer 1), *LAMP5*
(layer 2), RORB (layer 4) and *CLSTN2* (layer 5-6). **c,d**, Identification of co-locating cell types using NMF. The dot plot
(**c**) shows the NMF weights of the cell types (rows) across each of the NMF factors (columns), which correspond to
tissue compartments. Block boxes indicate cell types that co-locate within the indicated compartments. Spatial plots
show (**d**) show the NMF weights for selected NMF factor/tissue compartment across the 31-year-old and 15-year-
old temporal cortex tissue sections. Panels are displayed in the same order as the dotplot in (**c**), with the dominant
cell types for each factor indicated in brackets. Dashed white lines and numbers indicate estimated cortical layer
boundaries as indicated in the first two panels of **b** and **d**. WM: white matter. See also Extended Data Figs 4-6.

Fig. 3: NS-Forest identifies minimal marker genes distinguishing the cell types in the paediatric and adult temporal cortex snRNA-seq datasets. a,b, Heatmap showing the scaled average normalised expression counts of the NS-Forest minimal marker genes (y-axis) identified for 75 cortical cell types (x-axis) across the six adult (**a**) and six paediatric (**b**) datasets. As input into NS-Forest, the nuclei of each sample were randomly down-sampled to the size of the sample with the fewest nuclei. Heatmaps show gene expression values for the down-sampled datasets. The minimal marker genes are annotated (colour codes on the y-axes) according to whether they are unique to a given cell type, whether they are coding/non-coding genes, whether they are unique to the indicated age group, whether they overlap with existing MTG minimal marker gene sets for the same cell type, and according to the cell type they define.

Fig. 4: Validation of NS-Forest minimal markers and assessment of the top NS-forest markers. a,**b**, Annotated UMAP plots following data integration using either the minimal marker genes (left) or the equivalent number of a random set of genes (right) as anchors for the adult (**a**) and paediatric (**b**) datasets. The colour scheme for the cell types is in accordance with the MTG cell taxonomy. **c**, Overlap of the paediatric and adult NS-Forest markers with a high binary expression score (> 0.7) per cell type. The bar plot shows the number of shared markers between paediatric and adult datasets (blue), the number of markers unique to the paediatric datasets (orange), and the number of markers unique to the adult datasets (grey) for each cell type.

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Fig. 5: Differential expression analysis reveals genes guiding temporal cortex maturation. a, 21 cell types with
DEGS. **b-g**, Volcano plots showing log₂FoldChange (x axis) and -log₁₀padj values (y axis) for all DESeq2-tested
genes in Exc_L3-5_RORB_ESR1, Exc L2-3_LINC00507_FREM3, Exc_L4-5_RORB_FOLH1B, Exc_L2_LAMP5_LTK,
Astro_L1-6_FGFR3_SLC14A1 and Oligo L1-6 OPALIN. Red dots indicate genes that were significantly upregulated
or downregulated in paediatric samples (padj<0.05 & abs(log₂FoldChange)>10%) and selected genes are
labelled. Red labels indicate DEGs shared between neuronal cell types. Magenta labels indicate DEGS not shared
between cell types that are discussed in the text. Blue dots indicate non-significant genes (padj>0.05 or
abs(log₂FoldChange)<10%). **h**, Dot plot showing the scaled average normalised expression across samples for
DEGS shared between Exc_L3-5_RORB_ESR1, Exc L2-3_LINC00507_FREM3, Exc_L4-5_RORB_FOLH1B,
Exc_L2_LAMP5_LTK, Exc_L3-4_RORB_CARM1P1 and Exc_L3-5_RORB_FILIP1L. **i**, psupertime gene expression
trajectories for selected DEGs in the indicated cell types. The *x*-axis is the calculated psupertime value for each
cell, coloured by sample of origin. The black lines are smoothened curves fit by geom_smooth in the R package
ggplot2.

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Fig. 6: Pathways that are enriched or depleted across multiple cell types in paediatric samples. GSEA heatmap showing the top 25 most frequently enriched (top 25 rows) or depleted (bottom 25 rows) terms appearing across all cell types. Abbreviations in bold indicate the following categories as referred to in the text: AE, axon ensheathment; CR, cellular respiration; ICT, intracellular transport; NM, neuronal morphogenesis; NR/SP, neurotransmitter release/synaptic plasticity; PT/M, protein translation/modification. Only significantly (p < 0.01 and q < 0.1) terms are shown. NES value represents the normalized enrichment scores. Grey indicates that the term was not significantly enriched or depleted in the indicted cell type. See also Extended Data Table 12.

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Extended Data Fig. 1: Nuclei quality control (QC) and clustering. a, Number of doublets identified across all 23 datasets by DoubletDecon, DoubletFinder, and Scrublet. Red outline indicates the subset of barcodes called as doublets that were removed. **b**, Total number of nuclei per dataset before (yellow) and after (green) QC. **c**, Mean number of reads per nucleus (y axis) by dataset before QC split by age group (x axis). p value determined by two-tailed Welch's t-test. **d**, Number of nuclei (y axis) by sample after QC split by age group (x axis). p value determined by Brunnermunzel permutation test**. e**, Violin plots showing the number of unique molecular identifiers (UMIs) (top) and the number of genes detected (bottom) per nucleus per sample after QC. Black dots indicate the median value. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals. **f,g,** Median number of UMIs (2,263 paediatric and 2,011 adult) (**f**) and the median number of genes (1,372 paediatric and 1,226 adult) (**g**) detected

per nucleus (y axes) by sample after QC split by age group (x axis). p values determined by two-tailed Brunnermunzel permutation test. **h**, UMAP plot for the 23 datasets prior to integration. **i**, UMAP plot showing the resulting clusters determined by the shared nearest neighbour algorithm. Data in all box plots represent mean ± sem for six paediatric and six adult samples. No significant differences were detected between paediatric and adult samples. B, biological replicate; NS, not significant; T, technical replicate. See also Extended Data Table 2.

Extended Data Fig. 2: Annotation and assessment of cell composition across datasets. a, UMAP plot showing cluster annotation at the level of major brain cell types (level 1 annotation). **b**, Examination of known cell type-specific marker genes (x axis) after label transfer classify each nucleus according to the Allen Brain Map MTG atlas[1] (level 2 annotation) (y axis) (left). Off-target gene expression is evident in several cell types (marked in red), which is likely due to multiplets or nuclei contaminated with ambient mRNA. **c-d**, Stacked barplots after filtering to retain nuclei with high confidence annotations showing the proportion of nuclei per cell type (y axis) for each technical replicate (**c**) or biological replicate (**d**) (x axis) out of the total number of nuclei for each group. Samples with technical replicates showed high degrees of similarity in cell composition between their replicates (**c**). Technical replicates from each donor were merged to allow comparisons between the 12 samples (**d**).

Extended Data Fig. 3: Assessment of the sequencing metrics for the annotated cell types. a, Violin plots showing the distribution of the number of genes (left) and transcripts (right) detected per nucleus per cell type across all datasets. Black dots indicate the median value. Error bars show 95% confidence intervals. **b,c**, Boxplots showing the number of genes (**b**) and the number of UMIs (**c**) (y axis) detected per cell type per sample (x axis) split by age group (red: adult, grey: paediatric). Data in all box plots represent mean ± sem for six paediatric and six adult samples for each cell type. No significant differences were detected (i.e. padj > 0.05). See Extended Data Table 3 for details of statistical tests performed.

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1178 **Extended Data Fig. 4: Visium Spatial Gene Expression samples. a,b**, 31-year-old (**a**) and 15-year-old (**b**) temporal
1179 cortex tissue blocks embedded in OCT. Black dashed boxes outline the regions collected onto the Visium Spatial
1180 Gene Expression slide. **c-f**, H&E stained technical replicate tissue sections used to generate Visium Spatial Gene
1181 Expression libraries for the 31-year-old (**c,e**) and 15-year-old (**d,f**) tissue samples. T, technical replicate.

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Extended Data Fig. 5: Spatial mapping of cell types in the human temporal cortex. a, Estimated cell abundance
of 75 cell types across all Visium samples. Shown is a heatmap with the colour indicating the relative cell
abundance of cell types (rows) across the different samples (columns). **b,** Estimated cell type abundances (colour
intensity) in the technical replicate 31-year-old and 15-year-old temporal cortex tissue sections for a selection
of cell types including non-neuronal cell types, excitatory neurons (top row) and inhibitory neurons (bottom
row). **d**, Spatial plots show of the NMF weights for selected NMF factor/tissue compartment across the 31-year-
old and 15-year-old temporal cortex tissue sections. Panels are displayed in the same order as the dotplot in Fig.
2c, with the dominant cell types for each factor indicated in brackets. T, technical replicate.

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Extended Data Fig. 6: *In situ* **HCR analysis of selected cortical layer marker genes.** Expression of **a**, layer 1 markers *AQP4*, *FABP7* and *RELN* and **b**, layer 4-6 markers *RORB*, *CLSTN2* and *TSHZ2* in frozen temporal cortex tissue sections from the same 31-year-old and 15-year-old donor tissue used for Visium. High magnification views of layer 1 in **a** indicate *AQP4/RELN*-positive cells (yellow arrowheads) and *FABP7* positive cells (green arrowhead). In high magnification views of layer 4 in **b** in the 31-year-old tissue section, *RORB/CLSTN2*-positive (white arrowhead) and *RORB/TSHZ2*-positive cells (green arrowhead) are indicated. In high magnification views of layer 4 in **b** in the 15-year-old tissue section *RORB/CLSTN2/TSHZ2*-positive cells (white arrowheads) are indicated. Dashed white lines indicate layer boundaries. Solid white line indicates tissue edge. Scale bars are 100 µm in low magnification views (tile scan at 40x) and 20 µm in high magnification views (63x).

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Extended Data Fig. 7: Expression of the reference MTG atlas minimal markers. Heatmap showing the scaled average normalised expression counts of the NS-Forest minimal marker genes identified for the reference MTG cell atlas dataset (y-axis) in each of the 75 query cortical cell types identified in the combined adult and paediatric snRNA-seq datasets (x-axis). The minimal marker genes are annotated (colour codes on the y-axes) according to the cell type they define.

Extended Data Fig. 8: MERFISH spatial transcriptomics analysis of selected NS-forest markers. a, **b** Low magnification views of the 31-year-old (a) and 15-year-old (b) MERFISH datasets showing the expression of known layer maker genes in the expected layers as validation of the MERFISH experiment. **c-p**, High magnification views of 31-year-old (c,e,g,I,k,m,o) and 15-year-old (d,f,h,j,l,n,p) MERFISH datasets showing the overlap of new NS-Forest minimal markers (green) with published NS-Forest minimal markers (magenta) in indicated cells (arrowheads). The cell type that the NS-Forest markers are associated with is indicated in the top left corner. Scale bars: 100 μm.

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Extended Data Fig. 9: Evaluation of NS-Forest minimal marker gene expression across cell types in comparison to MTG cell taxonomy markers. a-d, Boxplots showing the normalised expression counts for *LINC01331* (**a**), *PALMD* (**b**)*, POSTN* (**c**) and *OLFML2B* (**d**) in paediatric (top) and adult (bottom) datasets. The cell types expressing the markers at high levels are indicated in bold.

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Extended Data Fig. 10: BayesSpace analysis of differentially expressed genes. High resolution Visium spatial gene expression profiles for selected DEGs using BayesSpace analysis to compare sub-spot level expression intensities between 31-year-old and 15-year-old temporal cortex tissue sections. Barplots show the average gene gene expression (log-counts) across technical replicate (T) samples for the indicated genes for spots with gene expression levels > 0. In all cases, average gene expression is higher in the 15-year-old samples than in the 31-year-old samples.

Extended Data Fig. 11: Cell type-specific expression of putative TBM biomarkers. **a**. Hierarchical clustering of TBM biomarker genes across the 75 cell types identified in the peaditaric snRNA-seq dataset reveals clusters of genes that are expressed by specific groups of cell types. **b**. Analysis of the same genes across the adult snRNA-seq dataset, using the gene order in (a) reveals very similar patterns of cell type-specific expression across the age-groups. Dashed boxes highlight gene clusters, with associated cell types indicated on the left and right of the right diagram

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1262 **Supplementary Fig. 1:** Violin plots showing the expression of known cell type marker genes across the Seurat
1263 clusters. These data were used for level 1 annotation of each cluster as one of the indicated major brain cell types
1264 (see also Extended Data Table 3).

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Exc L3-5 RORB ESR1

Supplementary Fig. 2: psupertime gene expression trajectories for all DEGs in Exc_L3-5_RORB_ESR1. The *x*-axis is the calculated psupertime value for each cell, coloured by sample of origin. The black lines are smoothened curves fit by geom_smooth in the R package ggplot2.

Exc L2-3 LINC00507 FREM3

psuedotime

Supplementary Fig. 3: psupertime gene expression trajectories for all DEGs in Exc L2-3_LINC00507_FREM3. The *x*-axis is the calculated psupertime value for each cell, coloured by sample of origin. The black lines are smoothened curves fit by geom_smooth in the R package ggplot2.

Exc L4-5 RORB FOLH1B

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Supplementary Fig. 4: psupertime gene expression trajectories for all DEGs in Exc_L4-5_RORB_FOLH1B. The *x*-axis is the calculated psupertime value for each cell, coloured by sample of origin. The black lines are smoothened curves fit by geom_smooth in the R package ggplot2.

Exc L2 LAMP5 LTK

 Supplementary Fig. 5: psupertime gene expression trajectories for all DEGs in Exc_L2_LAMP5_LTK. The *x*-axis is
 the calculated psupertime value for each cell, coloured by sample of origin. The black lines are smoothened
 curves fit by geom_smooth in the R package ggplot2.

Extended data Tables:

Extended Data Table 1: Summary of snRNA-seq, Visium and MERFISH sample metadata. Samples are ordered by age. The eight "P00" datasets were generated in the Hockman laboratory while the four "Nuc" datasets were generated by Thrupp et al. (2020)[24].

Extended Data Table 2: Summary of average quality control metrics for snRNA-seq datasets across nuclei for each sample before and after filtering. Several measures for quality control were evaluated on a per sample basis including the sequencing saturation, the mean number of reads per nucleus, the number of barcodes, the median number of genes detected per nucleus, the median number of UMIs detected per nucleus, and the number of doublets removed.

Extended Data Table 3: Label transfer annotation of snRNA-seq datasets using the Allen Brain Map MTG atlas as a reference. Sheet 1, Manual annotation of clusters into major cell types (level 1 annotation). **Sheet 2**, Number of nuclei per level 1 annotation category per sample. **Sheet 3**, Number of nuclei per MTG cell type per sample. The number of barcodes corresponding to each MTG cell type and sample is shown. Additionally, the total, minimum, and maximum number of nuclei per cell type and sample was computed. The number of cell types represented per sample was also determined. **Sheet 4**, Number of removed nuclei per level 1 annotation category per sample. **Sheet 5**, Number of removed nuclei per MTG cell type per sample. **Sheet 6**, Subtraction matrix comparing cosine similarity scores (i.e. similarity score for each cell subtype compared to the MTG cell Atlas as in Fig. 1d) for paediatric dataset to the adult dataset. Values are the paediatric scores minus the adult scores. **Sheet 7**, p-values, tests performed for each cell type and padj values (Benjamini-Hochberg method) when comparing the proportion of nuclei between male and female samples. **Sheet 8-10,** p-values, tests performed for each cell type and padj values (Benjamini-Hochberg method) when comparing the proportion of nuclei (sheet 8), number of genes (sheet 9; see Extended Data Fig. 3b) and number of UMIs (sheet 10; see Extended Data Fig. 3c) for each cell type between paediatric and adult samples shown.

Extended Data Table 4: Summary of average quality control metrics for Visium datasets. Several measures for quality control were evaluated on a per sample basis including the sequencing saturation, the percentage of read mapped to the transcriptome, the number of spots under the tissue, the average number of nuclei per spot determined by Vistoseg analysis, the mean reads detected per spot, the median genes detected per spot, the total number of genes detected, the median UMI Counts per Spot and the total number of nuclei.

Extended Data Table 5: NS-Forest minimal marker analysis. Sheet 1, Statistical tests evaluating the expression of Aevermann et al. (2021)[29] minimal markers (see their Supplementary Tables 1-2) in our datasets. **Sheets 2-3**, Metadata for each feature identified by NS-Forest marker in the down-sampled paediatric (**sheet 2**) and down-sampled adult (**sheet 3**) datasets describing the cell type, the F-beta score for each marker gene, overlap with Aevermann et al. (2021) and Hodge et al. (2019), uniqueness to the age group of interest, coding status, and uniqueness to the associated cell type as shown in Fig. 3. As input to NS-Forest, all datasets (six paediatric and six adult) were randomly down-sampled such that the total number of nuclei per sample was equal to the sample with the fewest number of nuclei.

Extended Data Table 6: gProfiler analysis of NS-forest markers. **Sheet1-3**, Significantly enriched GO terms associated with the paediatric (**sheet1**), adult (**sheet2**) and paediatric plus adult minimal marker genes identified by NS-forest. **Sheet3-5**, Significantly enriched GO terms associated with shared (i.e associated with both adult and paediatric samples) or paediatric-specific minimal marker genes with a binary expression score (> 0.7) for Oligo L1-6 OPALIN. Terms for which "highlighted" is true are driver terms.

Extended Data Table 7: Summary of metadata for NS-Forest markers with a binary expression score (> 0.7) per cell type across the paediatric and adult datasets. The number of shared markers, the number of markers unique to paediatric samples, and the number of markers unique to adult samples is shown for each cell type.

1347 The number of nuclei per cell type is shown for the combined paediatric and adult down-sampled datasets, the
1348 down-sampled paediatric datasets, and down-sampled adult datasets.

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1350 **Extended Data Table 8: Overlap NS-Forest markers with a binary expression score (> 0.7) per cell type between**
1351 **the paediatric and adult datasets.** NS-Forest markers with a binary expression score (> 0.7) per cell type were
1352 extracted for the down-sampled paediatric and down-sampled adult datasets. Each sheet represents 1 of 75
1353 cortical cell types and the NS-Forest features which were shared (intersect) between the paediatric and adult
1354 datasets, unique to paediatric datasets, or unique to adult datasets are shown.

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Extended Data Table 9: DESeq2 output of all genes tested for differential expression between paediatric and
adult brains per cell type. Sheet 1-75, Differential expression analysis was performed using DESeq2's Wald Test
for each cell type separately. Genes were filtered prior to testing to only include those expressed in > 10% of
nuclei for that cell type across all paediatric and adult datasets. The associated log2FoldChanges, p-adjusted
values (padj, Benjamini-Hochberg method), and description of each feature are shown. Positive log_2FoldChanges
represent genes upregulated in paediatrics versus adults. See DESeq2 documentation for explanation of NA
values (https://bioconductor.org/packages/release/bioc/vignettes/DESeq2/inst/doc/DESeq2.html#why-are-
some-p-values-set-to-na).

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Extended Data Table 10: DESeq2 output of significant DEGs only between paediatric and adult brains in a
subset of cell types. Sheet 1-21, Significant DEGs (padj < 0.05) for cell types shown in Fig. 5a. The associated
log_2FoldChanges, p-adjusted values (padj), description, percentage of paediatric nuclei expressing the gene,
percentage of adult nuclei expressing the gene, average normalised expression across paediatric nuclei, and
average normalised expression across adult nuclei are shown. The difference in the peaditaric and adult values
for percentage of nuclei and average normalised expression is also shown. Positive log_2FoldChanges represent
genes upregulated in paediatric versus adults datasets. See DESeq2 documentation for explanation of NA values
(https://bioconductor.org/packages/release/bioc/vignettes/DESeq2/inst/doc/DESeq2.html#why-are-some-p-
values-set-to-na). **Sheet 22-24**, EA (sheet 6), IQ (sheet7) and HAR (sheet8) associated DEGs and their associated
cell types.

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1376 **Extended Data Table 11: psupertime coefficients.** The calculated psupertime coefficients for each gene for
1377 indicated excitatory neuron subtypes that showed the highest number of DEGs. Genes with non-zero psupertime
1378 coefficients represent genes that are relevant to the ordering of the cells in pseudotime.

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Extended Data Table 12: **GSEA terms associated with each cell type showing enriched or depleted pathways in**
paediatric versus adult samples. GSEA was performed using DESeq2's output gene lists for each cell type ranked
according to the log2FoldChange*-log_2(padj) for each gene. All DESeq2-tested genes served as input into GSEA
(genes were expressed in > 10% of nuclei for the cell type of interest). Matrix shows the corresponding positive
(**sheet 1**) and negative (**sheet 2**) NES values for each GSEA term (y axis) and cell type (x axis) based on the analysis
using the ranked list of genes for each cell type. Terms were filtered to only include significantly associated terms
(p<0.01, q<0.1). Positive NES values indicate pathways that are enriched in paediatric versus adult samples;
negative NES values indicate pathways that are depleted in paediatric versus adult samples. The total number of
terms per cell type and the total number of cell types associated with a given term are shown.

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