Spatiotemporal transcriptomic niches of complement pathway and serine protease inhibitor activation in aging and infection

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Abstract

Aging is a multifactorial and complex physiological process, affecting every organ with
characteristic manifestations. Understanding the molecular mechanisms that drive
aging processes is crucial to targeting age-related disorders. Recent reports suggest
that severe post-infection syndromes can partially accelerate aging. However, the
underlying gene-encoded regulatory interplay, whether being shared or distinct
between aging and infection biology are poorly understood. Here, we employed spatial
transcriptomics to establish a multi-organ atlas (brain, heart, kidney, liver, lung, and
spleen) across the mouse lifespan (4, 17, and 26 months). Dissecting high-quality fresh-
frozen tissue samples at unbiased molecular resolution, we found both organ-specific
and cross-organ gene dysregulation upon aging. We identified age-related trajectories
in gene expression and cell state, some only detectable within their spatial context, and
provide validation at subcellular resolution. The most prominent effect was organ-wide
immune system activation with spatially variable severity. We therefore evaluated how
aging mimics the expression signatures observed in systemic infection, using spatial
transcriptomics slices from young mice infected with Plasmodium berghei ANKA. While
on the gene level the effect sizes caused by the infection outweighed those of aging, we
reveal a shared activation of the early complement pathway (C4b) and serine protease
inhibitors (Serpin gene family) within by phenotype distinct spatial niches. We show

that this common RNA signature is driven by tissue-specific cell types and eventually

affects protein levels in the aged brain, rendering them a target for future mechanistic

and drug discovery studies. Taken together, our study provides a coherent in-depth and

cross-organ transcriptomics atlas to systematically study aging and infection in the

mouse at spatiotemporal resolution.

Key highlights

- Large-scale and high-resolution atlas of spatial transcriptomics from six organs to study aging and systemic infection across two mouse cohorts.
- Strong transcriptional alterations found in distinct organ-specific niches for aging and acute malaria, with organ- and cell type-associated immune responses.
- Dysregulation of early complement proteases (C4b) and serine protease inhibitors (Serpina3n) as common theme across central nervous system and peripheral organs.

Main

The population-wide risk of cardiovascular, neurodegenerative, and metabolic syndromes is inextricably connected to societal aging, which involves an organism-wide deterioration of tissue structure and function[1]. Previous genomics studies across multiple organs have examined molecular changes associated with aging and provided insights into unique trajectories occurring in both organs and individual cell types[2-5]. Single-cell RNA-seq approaches revolutionized our understanding of cell type-specific gene regulation in health and disease. The human and the murine brain have been of particular interest for the application of -omics approaches to identify molecular mechanisms in age-related cognitive decline and progressive neurodegeneration[6-9]. However, a detailed and spatially-resolved understanding of the molecular programs underlying the functional consequences of aging in the hundreds of mammalian cell types within and between organs is still missing. Recent advances in image- and sequencing-based spatial transcriptomics approaches have enabled us to profile the expression of thousands of genes from tissue slices in two- or three-dimensional space[10]. These approaches facilitate the discovery of fine-grained structural changes across tissue sections. Thereby, they overcome the existing limitations of single-cell RNA-seq approaches that typically miss the microenvironment, imposed by the inevitable tissue dissociation process leading to the loss of spatial information[11]. Among those, unbiased genome-wide approaches operating at the (super-)cellular level together with targeted, gene panel-based approaches of sub-cellular resolution have been developed. In the context of aging, spatial transcriptomics hold the promise of narrowing down the cell etiology, specifically by identifying early cellular hot spots of gene dysregulation[9].

The mechanistic interplay between the innate and adaptive immune systems in aging, for instance the observed chronic low-grade sterile inflammation ("inflammaging"), has been a long withstanding aspect in the field[12]. But, the task to discern cause (driver) from effect (passenger) of the aging process is still one of the major ongoing challenges, in particular the aspect how acute events might eventually promote chronic symptoms. In fact, an entire spectrum of inflammatory phenotypes of increasing severity exists, although their relationship to human aging is mostly unclear. The wealth of COVID-19 accelerated interdisciplinary research has pinpointed a potential causal connection between severe infectious diseases and aging-associated disease development on a global scale[13]. This innumerable data indicates common molecular immune pathways across the human body underlying both systemic aging and infection. Still, when and where such a potentially conserved biological mechanism is at play has remained unclear. Therefore, we performed 168 spatial transcriptomics experiments at an unprecedented scale utilizing two independent mouse cohorts, reporting 100 manually annotated spatial compartments based on genome-wide expression clustering of 383,040

high-quality barcoded sequencing spots. For in-depth validation of brain aging signatures, we

used STOmics Stereo-seq, an unbiased genome-wide spatial transcriptomics technique,

providing sub-cellular views on gene expression. We comprehensively compared organismal

aging against systemic infection on the RNA level, both in the periphery and the central nervous

system, and identified a shared mechanism of complement dysregulation occurring in specific

local niches.

Spatial transcriptomics of aging mouse organs

We first performed spatial transcriptomics experiments using the spot-based 10x

Visium platform on a wildtype mouse aging cohort, consisting of up to five mice per timepoint

(young: 4 months; middle-aged: 17 months; aged: 26 months) followed by deep sequencing

(**Fig. 1a**). For each individual mouse, we processed single sections for the peripheral organs

(heart, kidney, liver, lung and spleen) and five sections from the brain (Bregma: –1.7, -2.06, -

2.7, -3.52 and -4.72). Following a stringent image-based and sequencing metrics-based quality

control, we focused our downstream analysis on 111 high-quality samples (**Extended Data**

Fig. 1-2, **Supplementary Table 1**). With a tissue-specific average number, out of a total of

4992 spots available per capture area, we maximized the number of spots located under tissue

(mean of 2522 before QC, 2441 after QC), while retaining a high level of reproducibility

between replicates of the same organ and across all ages (**Fig. 1b**). The data set covered

around 22.3 billion reads (~201 Mio. per sample) for an average of 3783 median genes

detected at each spot (12,048 average of median UMIs). To this end, we selected histologically

motivated cutting angles, trying to optimize capture of the inherent cellular heterogeneity of

each peripheral organ (**Fig. 1c**). After filtering individual spot locations of lower quality (cf.

Methods), we found specific properties of the spot clustering in our cleaned data set. While

gene expression programs in spots of the structurally more defined organs like the kidney

primarily clustered according to their spatial domain, the spot clustering in more homogenous

tissues was overly driven by cell type-specific markers (**Fig. 1d, Supplementary Table 2**). In

fact, the size and number of distinct expression clusters correlated with histological tissue

complexity. We thus followed a hierarchical annotation approach, defining either a local region

of gene expression (e.g. "Atria" in the heart), or if possible, naming each cluster after the most

enriched cell type (e.g. "Periportal hepatocytes" in the liver) based on known marker genes.

For the peripheral organs, markers for most of the expected cell types were identified, and no

major deviations in size and location of each cluster were observed between the aging groups

(**Extended Data Fig. 3a-e**). Nevertheless, comparing the expression for each annotated

cluster between young and old mice returned a differentiated picture, with the kidney showing

more than ten times the number of significant differentially expressed genes (DEGs) than the

heart (**Fig. 1e**). Thereby, the peripheral organs each retained an almost disjunct aging-driven

signature of dysregulation with notably varying effect sizes (**Fig. 1f, Extended Data Fig. 3f-j,**

Supplementary Table 3). Interestingly, the peripheral gene expression clusters with the most

DEGs were those known to harbor many immune cells (**Fig. 1g**). Yet, we found strong aging

DEGs in each organ directly related to tissue function (**Fig. 1h**), such as genes of the myosin

heavy chain in the heart (Myh7), members of the cytochrome P450 family in the kidney

(Cyp2d12), or major urinary protein coding genes in the liver (Mup7). We wondered however,

whether tissue-specific DEGs exhibited a spatially variable domain, independent of our

supervised spot annotation. Thus, we determined the list of highly significant and reproducible

spatially variable genes (SVGs) for each organ without making use of the spot cluster labeling

(cf. Methods, **Extended Data Fig. 4a, b**, **Supplementary Table 4**). Similarly to the DEGs, the

number of SVGs was organ-specific and we found that per tissue between 5% (spleen) and

24% (kidney) of the genes were both differentially expressed and spatially variable (**Extended**

Data Fig. 4c). Still, except for liver and spleen, the number of SVGs clearly outweighed the

number of aging DEGs. As one example, the prolactin hormone receptor (Prlr), a type I

cytokine receptor, was induced upon aging specifically in the inner and outer stripe of the outer

kidney medulla (**Fig. 1i**). Prolactin accumulation was previously reported as a sign of renal

failure[14]. Another way to leverage the spatial resolution of the data is by investigating whether

the local neighborhood, i.e. tissue microenvironment depends on the age (cf. Methods), since

we found only minor changes in cluster proportion along the aging trajectory. Indeed, we again

found tissue-specific neighborhood alterations, such as a progressive depletion of fibroblasts

in the myocardium of the aging heart (**Fig. 1j**), or the loss of Kupffer cells in adjacency to

periportal hepatocytes in the aging liver (**Extended Data Fig. 4d-g**). The immune system

appeared to be implicated in all peripheral organs with increasing age, suggesting a more

systemic relationship, especially considering the autocrine effects of parts of the dysregulated

transcriptome such as the Prlr gene, which is typically also mediated through the central

nervous system.

Spatial aging signatures across the mouse brain

To better capture the structural and functional complexity of the murine brain, we

decided to profile each sample at five different bregmata, using expert annotations from the

Allen Mouse Brain Atlas for guidance (**Fig. 2a**). We observed well reproducible cluster gene

signatures for each brain section (e.g. cortical layers I-Vi) with highly preserved marker

expression between adjacent slides and used a previously established nomenclature to

annotate the spot clusters[9] (**Fig. 2b**, **Supplementary Table 5**). Similar to the peripheral organs,

differences in observed cluster proportions were driven by the bregma and not by age. There

was however, a trend for an overall decreasing clustering complexity for lower bregma

(**Extended Data Fig. 5a-e**), due to the increasing area assigned to the midbrain structure. As
expected, the different brain sections shared most of the DEGs due to similar constituting
clusters, with a notable peak in Brain5, the only slice already covering parts of the cerebellum
(**Fig. 2c, d**). Overall, the global effect sizes of aging DEGs in the brain were comparable to the
peripheral organs, although much lower in their absolute number (**Extended Data Fig. 5f-j**,
Supplementary Table 6). Interestingly, across all bregmata the number of SVGs clearly
outweighed the number of DEGs by a factor of almost 100 (**Extended Data Fig. 6**,
Supplementary Table 7). Still, the 17 aging DEGs shared between all five brain sections
showed an enrichment of immune-system-related and disease-associated functions, such as
C1qa-c and Trem2, while also exhibiting the strongest dysregulation in the white matter tract
(**Fig. 2e**). Among those, 16 genes are also SVGs in the brain, demonstrating the need for
transcriptomics in spatial dimensions to better understand the directions of aging-driven
dysregulation. In particular, Egr1, Gfap and Trem2 are all known markers for neurons,
astrocytes and microglia, respectively, triggering the question whether certain cell types
specifically contribute on their own to the immune activation commonly observed during brain
aging.

To follow up on this observation, we validated our analysis of the super-cellular 10x Visium
brain experiments with the sub-cellularly-resolved Stereo-seq[15] technology developed by BGI
STOmics, sparing one mouse brain from each age group (**Fig. 2f**). To evaluate concordance
after quality control, we first aggregated the Stereo-seq spots into bins, artificially replicating
the size of Visium spots. This allowed us to reproduce most of the gene expression clusters
for each bregma and age but with slightly varying marker genes (**Fig. 2g, Extended Data Fig.**
7, Supplementary Table 8). All of the 17 shared brain aging genes from the Visium data set
were successfully reported as DEG in at least four of the five matching brain layers in the
Stereo-seq dataset, corroborating our findings (**Supplementary Table 9**). Next, we utilized the
specific capabilities of Stereo-seq to perform an image-based cell binning of all spots near
DNA fluorescence signals followed by cell type clustering and annotation. This enabled us to
differentiate several types of neurons from common glia cells in the spatial domain (**Fig. 2h**).
With our close-to-cell resolution (bin20), we confirmed the elevated expression of Trem2, a
well-known microglia activation marker[16], throughout the whole aged mouse brain (**Fig. 2i**).
Taken together our findings further suggest a progressive dysregulation of the innate immune
system that co-occurs with an increased spatially-dependent prevalence of major brain cell
types in proinflammatory states.

Spatial transcriptomics of mouse organs in acute malaria

Severe infectious diseases (e.g. long COVID, tuberculosis, hepatitis, malaria) are

associated with accelerated biological aging of the immune system in humans[17-19]. To dissect

how organismal aging is (dis-)similar to systemic infection at the molecular level and which

parts of the immune system activation are shared at the gene and pathway level, we repeated

the 10x Visium experiments with a separate cohort of mice (cf. Methods). The infection cohort

consisted of five young mice infected with the mouse parasite *Plasmodium berghei*, an animal

model of cerebral malaria[20] and five age- and gender-matched young controls (**Fig. 3a**).

Because heart and spleen showed rather small effect sizes in the aging cohort, sections from

the infection cohort were processed for three peripheral organs (liver, kidney and lung), in

addition to two preselected brain regions at bregma –2.06 and bregma 3.89 (the olfactory bulb),

the latter of which is the very first affected brain structure in this model[20]. After QC, we retained

42 high-quality capture areas with comparable spot statistics as mentioned above (**Fig. 3b**,

Extended Data Fig. 8, **Supplementary Table 10**). The angles of histological slices were

analogously chosen to best capture the tissue complexity, yielding a highly similar number,

type and spatial distribution of spot clusters as for the aging cohort (**Fig. 3c, d**, **Supplementary**

Table 11). However, here we noticed significant differences in the spot cluster proportions

between the infected mice and controls. For example, the loss of blood vessels in kidney and

liver parallel to a massive increase of immune cells in the liver and lung (**Extended Data Fig.**

9a-e). In line with this observation, the total number of DEGs in the infection cohort was much

higher than for the aging cohort, with most being strongly upregulated after infection in a tissue-

specific manner, meeting our expectations of an acute inflammation resembling a much more

severe phenotype than aging (**Fig. 3e, f**, **Supplementary Table 12**). In particular the leukocyte,

blood and lymphatic vessels as well as endothelial spot clusters exhibited the most DEGs and

highest effect sizes across tissues (**Extended Data Fig. 9f-k**). In stark contrast to the aging

cohort, the reproducible number of SVGs exceeded the number of DEGs exclusively in the

brain, but with similar percentages of overlap per tissue, reaching from 7% in the olfactory bulb

to 19% in the kidney (**Extended Data Fig. 10a-c**, **Supplementary Table 13**). The substantial

expansion of connective tissue around the lung pulmonary veins together with a massive

leukocyte invasion represented an intriguing phenotype alteration of the infected lung, which

is immediately visible from the spatially annotated gene expression data alone (**Fig. 3g**). All

three peripheral organs underwent remarkable changes in their spatial microenvironment, like

the increased proximity between Kupffer and other immune cells in the infected liver, as

revealed through a differential spot neighborhood analysis (**Extended Data Fig. 10d-f**).

Since *P. berghei* causes cerebral malaria and strongly affects the olfactory bulbs, we

investigated the intersection of SVGs and DEGs more closely to understand the underlying

mechanism. In general, many immune cell surface genes from the clusters of differentiation were significantly upregulated at specific locations in the infected olfactory bulbs, including Cd151, Cd164, Cd1d, Cd200, Cd24a, Cd44, Cd52, Cd55, Cd63, Cd74, Cd82, Cd9, and Cd99l2. Moreover, it appeared that antimicrobial factors such as Cystatin C (Cst3) were highly upregulated in the center of the infected olfactory bulb. This dysregulation pattern completely diminished toward the outer layers, thus showing an intriguing spatial expression pattern (**Fig. 3h**). Because *P. berghei* is a eukaryotic pathogen, we exploited the fact that both host and pathogen transcribe polyadenylated messenger-RNA, such that in principle both should be captured through the reverse poly-T tag in 10x Visium 3' gene expression libraries. Indeed, we were able to map a certain percentage of high-quality reads from each infected sample against the *P. berghei* ANKA genome, with olfactory bulb, liver, and lung exhibiting the highest percentage of cells with pathogenic reads (**Fig. 3i**). We were thus able to narrow down the position of individual parasites within the tissue by following the distribution of pathogenic reads into the different spot expression clusters (**Extended Data Fig. 11**). Our analysis further revealed that they preferentially reside in the outer layers of the olfactory bulb, rendering the expression of Cst3 reciprocal to the distance between center and parasite location. We then identified the spots in the olfactory bulb clearly enriched for parasite reads and compared the gene expression of each such center spot with its six direct neighbors in the hexagonal spot array on 10x Visium capture areas. Neighbors of a parasite-enriched center spot exhibited a significant activation of the cytokine CC-chemokine ligand 5 (Ccl5) as well as the cluster of differentiation 74 (Cd74), indicating an acute T cell response around the pathogens. Such a severe immune system activation is a necessary means to fight infections. Still it raises questions as to whether such an inflammatory process causes permanent organ damage and how in contrast the aging-induced immune activation may initially cause more attenuated but, in the end, similar disease phenotypes.

Shared spatial dysregulation in aging and systemic infection

To better understand similarities and differences between organismal aging and systemic infection using our high-resolution spatiotemporal transcriptomics readouts, we correlated the effect sizes between aging and infection cohorts for the same tissues and expression clusters. Here, the brain showed a remarkable resemblance between aging and infection, with the complement component C4b being one of the top upregulated genes (**Fig. 4a**). Similar trends were observed in the peripheral organs (**Supplementary Table 14**). C4b is part of the early complement pathway, specifically upregulated in the white matter tract of the aging brain, also upregulated in the infected brain but beyond the white matter area, thus showing a different spatial presence (**Fig. 4b**).

We then performed an over-representation analysis for all the cluster-specific DEGs shared
between infection and aging cohorts, and obtained "Neutrophil degranulation" and "Regulation
of complement cascade" as top significantly enriched categories for brain, kidney, liver and
lung (**Fig. 4c**, **Supplementary Table 14**). To validate this finding, we first created a gene
signature feature for the complement pathway to measure its activity through gene module
scores. Indeed, the spatially restricted activity of the early complement pathway was a common
molecular feature of dysregulation between organismal aging and systemic infection across
multiple organs (**Fig. 4d**). Since the enrichment analysis yielded the "Regulation of
complement cascade", we next wondered which gene regulatory components known from the
literature are centered around C4b, revealing with STRING[21] a dense network of other
complement genes but also two serine protease inhibitors (Serpina3n, Serping1) (**Fig. 4e**).
Surprisingly, Serpina3n was one of the top dysregulated genes in the aging brain and also
upregulated in the infected brain. Leveraging aggregated pseudobulk expression, we
confirmed the almost perfect intra-sample correlation between C4b and Serpina3n across both
cohorts and all organs in common (**Fig. 4f**). These findings suggested a central gene regulatory
role between serin proteases involved in complement activation and serine protease inhibitors,
mediating immune responses in two physiologically different processes that each depend on
extrinsic and intrinsic stimuli. We then looked into the whole family of Serpin genes and
discovered a tissue-specific dysregulation of its members in aging and infection (**Fig. 4g**).
Subsequently, we made use of our sub-cellularly resolved Stereo-seq data sets to closely
compare the complement activity against the activity of reactive astrocytes that drive parts of
the brain aging signature and obtained a high degree of spatial correlation (**Fig. 4h**). Utilizing
our respective marker-based cell bin annotations, we deconvolved the spatial pattern of
correlated C4b and Serpina3n expression to primarily originate from both from Astrocytes and
Oligodendrocytes. We confirmed this for the cell-marker enriched spots in the aging and
infected brain Visium samples (**Extended Data Fig. 12a, b**). Finally, we externally validated a
significant aging-associated upregulation of C4b and Serpina3n on the protein level in the
mouse brain cortex and hippocampus, using a previously published proteomics data set[22]
(**Extended Data Fig. 12c**).
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283   In sum, our findings indicated a cross-organ gene regulatory mechanism as part of the immune
284   system, being centered around serine proteases (**Extended Data Fig. 13**). This dysregulated
285   pathway appeared to be orchestrated in each organ in a cell type-specific and spatiotemporal
286   manner and translated from the transcriptional level into differential protein abundances,
287   increasing the level of confidence for functional relevance.
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Discussion

Understanding the heterogeneous and physiological consequences of mammalian aging is a challenging task. Our large-scale spatiotemporal cross-organ study provides new molecular insights into the underlying mechanisms. Several spatially and temporally resolved genomic data sets on the mammalian brain[9,23-27], olfactory bulb[28-30], heart[31-40], kidney[41-45], liver[46-48], lung[49-55], and spleen[56-59] have been published, each describing their molecular architecture in health and disease. However, most of them lacked a sample size sufficient to compare multiple experimental groups and organs in parallel, especially lacking from the same donor[60]. Large sequencing studies are inherently challenging to perform and thus carry certain risks of producing unwanted batch effects[61]. We tackled these challenges by utilizing two separate breeds of wildtype mice, one from the United States for the aging cohort and one from Germany for the infection cohort, while ensuring a minimum number of three replicates per experimental group. The aging cohort was processed first and fully completed before continuing with the infection cohort to prevent potential sample cross-contamination.

Our findings suggest shared physiological processes between aging and infectious diseases, at least in malaria, that are progressively dysregulated and are centered around complement activation and serine protease inhibitors. C4b and Serpina3n were previously reported to be upregulated in the subventricular zone of the aged mouse brain and as being indicative of a reactive type of oligodendrocyte[62]. Yet, Hajdarovic et al. recently reported an activation of C4b in reactive Astrocytes from the female hypothalamus and hippocampus, suggesting a more general, sex-specific role of glia cell types in mediating a neuroinflammatory or autoimmune phenotype[6,63]. Moreover, Allen et al. narrowed down C4b upregulation in the aged mouse brain in both astrocytes and oligodendrocytes that was further escalated by LPS treatment [7], also corroborating our findings. Others reasoned that such a phenotype could solely arise from the body-wide accumulation of senescent cells or an organ-dependent dysregulation of the circadian clock, two other hallmarks of aging[12,64]. In humans, C3 and C4 levels were reported to be anti-correlated with centenarian longevity[65]. It therefore remains intriguing, having perceived an almost perfect correlation between C4b and Serpina3n across the aging and infection cohorts, to raise further questions about the mutual gene regulation of complement proteases and protease inhibitors, and conceivable downstream effects. Proteases play an important role in innate immune defense mechanisms, but need to be tightly regulated in order to prevent autoimmunity and self-attack, and thus have already been brought in connection with age-related decline and neurodegeneration[66]. Within the complement system, C4 is cleaved through the serin protease activity of C1 in the classical pathway and through MBL-associated serine proteases (MASPs) within the lectin pathway[67]. Both proteases can be inhibited by Serping1, a serin protease inhibitor[68], which is upregulated in the aging mouse

heart and kidney as well as during malaria infection of kidney, brain, olfactory bulb, liver and lung. We were able to confirm for cortex and hippocampus that indeed the upregulation of C4b and Serpina3n RNA transcripts results in increased protein abundance. Besides, Serpina3n is another dysregulated serine protease inhibitor of chymotrypsin, like Serping1, but is mostly known for the regulation of Cathepsin G[69]. After glycosylation, Serpina3n can also bind double-stranded DNA in the nucleus and cause chromatin condensation[70]. Whether the observed correlation of C4b and Serpina3n is explainable through its regulatory capacity within the nucleus can only be determined in further proteomics studies with functional validation assays. In general, looking beyond the complement system, the distribution of lymphoid and myeloid cells in aging tissues, as well as their contribution to sterile inflammation during the aging process is being increasingly recognized as highly complex and tissue-dependent[71]. Our data as well as previous reports[72] point toward a cross-communication of native tissue parenchymal cells with lymphoid cells that is implicated in the different tissue-specific aging niches, for instance the white matter compartment in the brain or the lung alveoli. A more targeted and deeper approach using single-cell or spot-free spatial *in situ* mapping techniques to quantify the contribution of myeloid and lymphoid cells toward the development of shared aging- and infection-driven niches and how this is mediated through the peripheral systems, is needed.

Moreover, it remains to show whether the effects described here occur in the same or similar way in human tissue, given the expression of cell markers obtained with single-cell experiments was already shown to be partially discordant between species[73]. In fact, an evolutionary discrepancy determines in any case the baseline chances of success to carry over our findings into new therapeutic strategies targeting aging and infectious diseases. With the establishment of improved spatial transcriptomics platforms capable of resolving RNA expression at the sub-cellular level, we will be able to better narrow down the origins of individual RNA classes and molecules, for instance whether they are enriched in the nucleus or the cytosol. This will help to resolve missing details about the so far hidden cell to cell crosstalk involved in complement biology as just recently suggested[74]. Our findings position individual members of the complement system and protease inhibitor families as potential broad therapeutic targets in progressive aging and infectious disease research. Such targets are desperately needed to tackle pathogenicity, as for example cerebral malaria is still lethal for approximately 20% of affected patients, with many survivors being affected by prolonged neurocognitive impairment after primary therapy[75]. We therefore reason that a complement activation-based pathomechanism plays an important role in autoimmunity-related tissue damage that in turn contributes to diverse aging- and infectious disease-related phenotypes.

Beyond aging research, single-cell and spatial transcriptomics are pivotal techniques to study

the host-pathogen interface and reveal specific biological mechanisms such as cell invasion

or clearance[76,77]. While most bacteria and virus specific protocols still have to be developed in

order to dual-detect both host and pathogen from the same sequencing sample, multicellular

parasite species can be directly sequenced due to the same type of polyadenylated

messenger-RNA as in the host[78]. This compatibility was already broadly used to describe the

organismal development of *P. berghei*, mechanisms behind its transmission as well as specific

effects on gene expression induced in individual organs and cell types[59,79-85].

We initially combined the existing literature knowledge on individual tissues and cell types as

well as several independent single-cell and spatial studies to carefully annotate the spot gene

expression clusters needed for the downstream analysis. Unfortunately, there exists no

common data annotation standard in the community, even though a few interesting

nomenclatures and solutions to single-cell reference atlases were already proposed[86-88]. Our

data set is specifically designed to foster spatiotemporal driven research into specific organs

and cell types that are of particular interest in the aging and infection research communities,

but also beyond to serve as a reference data set for any other biomedical domain. However,

analyzing almost 200 Visium samples in an integrative approach brings also significant

computational challenges. Many tools are not ready to scale up to large samples sizes,

requiring extensive compute infrastructure and workflow optimizations. Therefore, we

anticipate that our data set is also beneficial to the computational methods community,

fostering the development of novel and scalable data analysis methods in the spatial

transcriptomics domain.

Figures

Figure 1: Spatial transcriptomics of the aging mouse.

a, Illustration of the experimental workflow conducted for the mouse aging cohort.

b, Distribution of the number of cleaned spots under tissue per organ and age. Average number of cleaned spots located under tissue varied between organs (Brain1: 2825, Brain2: 2839, Brain3: 2764, Brain4: 2534, Brain5: 1939, Heart: 3093, Kidney: 3342, Liver: 2824, Lung: 1926, Spleen: 759), out of the 4992 spots possible per capture area. In general, the number of spots per sample was influenced by slight inter-individual variances in organ size. Colored boxes span the first to the third quartile with the line inside the box representing the median value. The whiskers show the minimum and maximum values or values up to 1.5-times the interquartile range below or above the first or third quartile if outliers are present (shown as separate, colored dots).

c, Illustration of cut angle plane and one representative H&E-stained capture area per peripheral organ.

d, From left to right: Two-dimensional UMAP representation of colored spot clusters computationally integrated by organ (top to bottom), pie chart showing the proportion of annotated clusters across all samples, one representative annotated Visium sample with the spot cluster identities plotted over the H&E-stained tissue image.

e, Number of differentially expressed genes per aging peripheral organ (old vs. young) and direction of dysregulation. Total DEG counts were derived across all organ clusters, without removing duplicates.

f, UpSet plot comparing the unique gene sets across all organ cluster DEGs shown in (**e**).

g, Bar plot showing the number of DEGs per annotated spot cluster. Tissues sharing the same cluster names are stacked on top of each other.

h, Heatmap showing scaled expression of representative aging DEGs (rows) across all pseudobulk samples (columns).

i, Normalized expression of Prolactin receptor (Prlr) in the kidney across two spot clusters and three aging groups (left) and representative spatial transcriptomics samples from each aging group with Prlr expression overlaid (right).

j, Clustered heatmap showing differential neighborhood distance analysis for clusters of the aging heart (old vs. young).

Figure 1: Spatial transcriptomics of the aging mouse

Figure 2: Spatial transcriptomics across the aging mouse brain.

a, Visualization of the five Bregmata selected to study different regions of the aging brain.

b, From left to right: Two-dimensional UMAP representation of colored spot clusters
computationally integrated by brain slice (top to bottom), pie chart showing the proportion of
annotated clusters across all brain samples, one representative annotated Visium sample
with the spot cluster identities plotted over the H&E-stained tissue image.

c, Number of differentially expressed genes per aging brain bregma (old vs. young) and
direction of dysregulation. Total DEG counts were derived across all organ clusters, without
removing duplicates.

d, Five-dimensional Venn diagram comparing the brain DEG sets from (**c**).

e, Heatmap showing scaled expression of the 17 aging DEGs (rows) shared between all five
brain slices, using the Brain1 pseudobulk samples and spot clusters for visualization
(columns). All genes except Rbm3 are also significant SVGs in at least one of the five brain
bregmata.

f, Sketch of 10x Visium and STOmics Stereo-seq examples comparing the features of both
spatial transcriptomics technology platforms.

g, Examples for binned (bin200) and annotated spot clusters of the aging brain (top to
bottom; young, middle, old) at Bregma#1 sequenced with Stereo-seq.

h, Dot plot showing the top 3 most significant marker genes per cell type annotated spot
cluster using the Stereo-seq cellbin resolution of Brain1 samples.

i, Normalized spatial expression of Trem2 across all 15 STOmics Stereo-seq brain samples
using the near-cellular resolution bin20 (from left to right: young, middle, old; from top to
bottom: Brain1-5). For visualization spot sizes were rescaled into the point interval [0.1, 1.5]
according to their expression of Trem2.

Figure 2: Spatial transcriptomics across the aging mouse brain

Figure 3: Spatial transcriptomics of the acute malaria-infected mouse.

a, Illustration of the experimental workflow conducted for the malaria infection cohort.

b, Distribution of the number of cleaned spots under tissue per organ and experimental group (controls, *P. berghei* infection). Average number of cleaned spots located under tissue varied between organs (Brain: 2760, Olfactory bulb: 722, Kidney: 3154, Liver: 3435, Lung: 3024), out of the 4992 spots possible per capture area. In general, the number of spots per sample was influenced by slight inter-individual variances in organ size. Colored boxes span the first to the third quartile with the line inside the box representing the median value. The whiskers show the minimum and maximum values or values up to 1.5-times the interquartile range below or above the first or third quartile if outliers are present (shown as separate, colored dots).

c, Illustration of cut angle plane and one representative H&E-stained capture area per organ.

d, From left to right: Two-dimensional UMAP representation of colored spot clusters computationally integrated by organ (top to bottom), pie chart showing the proportion of annotated clusters across all samples, one representative annotated Visium sample with the spot cluster identities plotted over the H&E-stained tissue image.

e, Number of differentially expressed genes per organ (day 6 post *P. berghei* infection vs. controls) and direction of dysregulation. Total DEG counts were derived across all organ clusters, without removing duplicates.

f, UpSet plot comparing the gene sets shown in (**e**).

g, In-depth zoom into a lung pulmonary vein from a control mouse (top) and an infected mouse (bottom), demonstrating the expansion of connective tissue and leukocyte invasion caused by the malaria disease. Spots are colored according to cluster identity, in particular Leukocytes in red, Smooth muscle cells in purple and Blood / immune cells in light purple.

h, Normalized expression of Cystatin C (Cst3) in all spot clusters of the olfactory bulb split by infection and controls with clusters ordered by their ascending distance to the center of the tissue (left). Trend lines were computed with loess regression of y ~ log(x). Shown on the right is the normalized expression of Cst3 in the spatial domain of one representative control (top) and infected mouse (bottom).

i, Percentage of reads per spot mapped to the *P. berghei* ANKA genome split by experimental group and organ.

Figure 3: Spatial transcriptomics of the acute malaria-infected mouse

Figure 4: Molecular niches shared between aging and systemic infection.

a, Scatter plot showing the average log2-scaled fold-change between aging and infection for all brain DEGs matched and colored by spot cluster.

b, Normalized spatial expression of C4b in four representative brain samples (Bregma: -2.06), two from aging (top left: young, top right: old) and infection (bottom left: control, bottom right: infected) cohort.

c, Dot plot showing adjusted and log-scaled Hypergeometric test p-values and the number of gene hits for the enriched categories from the Reactome pathway database across the four organs shared between aging and infection cohort. For each row of results a different list of genes was used as input (cf. Methods).

d, Relative (scored) complement pathway activity in pseudobulk samples across all aging and infection cohort organs, split and colored by the five experimental groups (young, middle, old, healthy controls, infected).

e, STRING network for Serpina3n in Mus musculus after performing one level of network expansion and removing edges from text mining and gene fusion. Edges are colored according to the type of association or interaction: curated databases (light blue), experientially determined (purple), gene neighborhood (green), gene co-occurrence (dark blue), co-expression (black), or protein homology (light purple). Nodes are colored according to their shell of interactions towards Serpina3n.

f, Scatter plot showing normalized pseudobulk expression of C4b (x-axis) against Serpina3n (y-axis) across all samples and colored by the five experimental groups (young, middle, old, healthy controls, infected).

g, Row and column clustered heatmap showing the scaled pseudobulk expression for all members of the serine protease inhibitor (Serpin*) gene family.

h, Demonstration of spatially connected (sub-)cellular activity of the complement pathway (C4b+) and activated Astrocytes (Gfap+) in the aging brain (Bregma -2.06). Normalized expression values from one young representative on the top and one old representative on the bottom originating from the Stereo-seq samples at bin20 resolution are displayed.

Figure 4: Molecular niches shared between aging and systemic infection

Methods

Mouse tissue processing and screening

For the aging cohort, male C57BL/6JN mice were shipped from the National Institute on Aging colony (Charles River) to the Stanford ChEM-H animal facility, where they were housed at 12/12h light/dark cycle in cages of 2-3 mice. Water and food were provided ad libitum. The aging cohort consisted of 5 mice per age group (age groups: 17, 73 and 112 weeks; 3.91, 16.8 and 25.78 months). Tissues from brain, heart, kidney, liver, lung and spleen were collected after anaesthetization with 2.5% v/v Avertin and transcardial perfusion with 20 mL cold PBS and flash frozen in isopentane cooled with liquid nitrogen, all between 10:15 AM- 12:00 PM on a single day. For brain samples, the right and left hemisphere were separated before freezing and stored separately. Samples were stored at -80°C until embedding in OCT. Samples were embedded for sectioning in precooled OCT on dry ice. All animal care and procedures complied with the Animal Welfare Act and were in accordance with institutional guidelines and approved by the institutional administrative panel of laboratory animal care at Stanford University.

For the infection cohort, experimental procedures were conducted as described previously[89]. In brief, C57BL/6 mice were bred at the animal facility and *P. berghei* ANKA parasites were obtained from the blood of sporozoite-infected C57BL/6 mice provided by the Parasitology Section of the Bernhard Nocht Institute. Mice in the control and experimental groups were age-matched (6 to 8 weeks old) and sex-matched (male & female). For the experimental group, C57BL/6 mice were infected i.p. with 1×10^5 parasitized red blood cells. Positive parasitemia was determined in Giemsa-stained blood smears from tail blood. Body weights were determined at different time points. All required organs were collected on two consecutive days, from 9:30 AM (Ctrl.) and 10:30 AM (day 6 post-infection) until 12 PM. To prevent lung deflation, the tracheae were sutured, and the lungs were inflated with a 1:1 mixture of PBS and OCT. The small lung lobe was separated and frozen separately from the residual lung tissue. Brains were frozen without separating the hemispheres. All tissue samples were simultaneously frozen while embedded in OCT, in an isopentane bath cooled with liquid nitrogen and kept stored at -80°C. All animal care and procedures complied with institutional guidelines and were approved by the administrative panel of laboratory animal care at the Bernhard Nocht Institute under the admission TVA N118/2020, as well as the Hamburg Animal Welfare agency.

Cryosectioning and section mounting were performed according to the manufacturer's protocol, in a Leica cryostat (LEICA CM3050 S) set to -15°C with a slice thickness of 16 µm (except for the spleen of the infection cohort; 10 µm). For the aging cohort, five brain sections were mounted using visual landmarks and the Allen Mouse Brain Atlas, resulting in sections from bregma –1.7, -2.06, -2.7, -3.52 and -4.72. For the infection cohort, two brain sections were mounted, namely from bregma –2.06 and bregma 3.89 (Olfactory bulb). Sections were mounted on designated capture areas and stored at -80°C until further processing. After tissue mounting on the slide, an additional 10-15 sections were collected for RNA Quality assessment. All samples used in this study had a RIN value between 4.4 and 9.0 (**Supplementary Table 1, 10**).

Spatial gene expression assay (10x Visium)

Following the Tissue Optimization protocol, we determined the permeabilization times to 18 minutes for the brain, 24 minutes for the olfactory bulb, 15 minutes for heart, 15 minutes for kidney, 16 minutes for liver, 20 minutes for lung, and 30 minutes for the spleen samples using the Tissue Optimization (TO) Slide & Reagent Kit (10x Genomics, PN-1000184).

We followed the standard protocol for fresh frozen tissues (compare document CG000239 - Rev F) using the Visium Spatial Gene Expression (GEX) Slide & Reagent Kits with recommended reagents (10x Genomics, PN-1000193). In brief, after H&E staining and imaging (10x magnification, Axio Imager KMAT - ZEISS), tissues were permeabilized with the previously defined permeabilization times. After reverse transcription on the slide and

denaturation, second strand synthesis is performed. For further processing, cDNA is released
via denaturation. To determine cycle number for amplification the KAPA SYBER FAST qPCR
Master Mix Kit (KAPA Biosystems) is used in a qPCR. All samples in this study were amplified
using 14 – 19 PCR cycles. After bead purification using SPRIselect beads (Beckman Coulter,
Product No. B233318), cDNA is quantified via 2100 Bioanalyzer using the Bioanalyzer High
Sensitivity DNA kit (Agilent, cat.no.:5067-4626).
598
The library construction was either performed manually or using the MGISP-100 liquid handling
system according to the 10x Visium user guide. In short, the following steps were performed:
fragmentation, end repair, A-tailing, double sided size selection, adaptor ligation, post ligation
cleanup, sample index PCR, double sided size selection; followed by post library construction
QC performed using the Bioanalyzer High Sensitivity DNA kit (Agilent, cat.no.:5067-4626) and
KAPA Library Quantification Kit (Roche, KK4824).
605
606 Libraries were pooled in an equimolar fashion with up to 15 samples in one library, multiplexing
607 only samples that originated from the same organ whenever possible. All libraries were
608 sequenced using NovaSeq 6000 (Illumina).
609
Spatial gene expression assay (STOmics Stereo-seq)
One brain sample of each age was processed at the MGI Tech Co., Ltd. (Riga, Latvia) using
the STOmics Stereo-seq Transcriptomics T Kit (MGI). For each brain, five 10µm sections
(Bregma: –1.7, -2.06, -2.7, -3.52 and -4.72) identical to the Visium cohort were collected and
loaded onto the Stereo-seq Chip T-Slide according to manufacturer´s protocol. In short, after
fixation of the tissue using ice-cold methanol, cell nuclei were stained using the ssDNA Qubit
dye (Thermo Fisher) and imaged in 10x resolution in FITC channel. Subsequently, brain tissue
was permeabilized for 12 min at 37°C, releasing mRNAs from the cells onto the Chip T-Slide.
Reverse transcription of mRNAs was conducted for 3 hours at 42°C generating cDNA with
sequence barcodes indicating their unique location on the T-Slide. Afterwards, the tissue was
removed using tissue removal buffer for 10 min at 55°C and cDNA was collected from the chip
o/n at 55°C. CDNA was then purified, amplified and size distribution was checked using High
Sensitivity DNA Bioanalyser Kit (Agilent). Library Preparation was performed using Stereo-seq
Library Preparation Kit (MGI) using 30ng of cDNA and 13 cycles of amplification following the
manufacturer´s protocol. Final quality check of the size distribution of the library was performed
using High Sensitivity DNA Bioanalyzer Kit. Libraries were sequenced on DNBSEQ-Tx
sequencer (MGI).
627
Image and data preprocessing
We stitched the image series from the Axio Imager KMAT brightfield microscope using the
Zeiss ZEN software (v3.6) and cropped and rotated the resulting high-resolution TIFF files
using Fiji. Individual sample images were color corrected where needed to match the other
images. In the next step, we ran Spaceranger (v2.1) with the demultiplexed FASTQ files and
the corresponding TIFF images. In brief, Spaceranger aligns the reads to a reference genome
(refdata-gex-mm10-2020-A), detects tissue under spots and the fiducial frame in the image, to
create a spot x UMI count matrix. For the infection cohort, we additionally built a custom
Spaceranger reference genome combining mouse (GRCm39) and *Plasmodium berghei* -
ANKA genome (PBANKA01). For two samples the alignment of the fiducial frame was
manually corrected after the automatic detection had failed initially.
639
640 In case of the STOmics Stereo-seq samples, images were obtained and stitched with the Zeiss
641 Moticam Pro 500i. Combined QC and primary analysis of sequencing and image data was
642 performed using the STOmics analysis workflow (SAW) v1.0 to obtain quantification matrices
643 for the mouse genome (GRCm38). The SAW pipeline was also used to accumulate DNB spot
644 gene expression counts into the specific area and cell binnings.
645
646
647

Bioinformatics and quality control

Based on the Spaceranger reports, we either excluded a sample completely from further analysis, or using the 10x Loupe browser tool (v6.5.0) manually selected small spot regions to exclude from downstream analysis where necessary (e.g. removing corners with uneven permeabilization), and further applied the following criteria-based spot filtering on each sample, to eventually obtain a high-quality data set. To this end, we inspected the variable distributions for the number of UMIs, the number of read counts, mitochondrial content, as well as spot complexity (=log10(Number of features) / log10(Number of counts)) for each tissue separately, and applied the following filtering criteria on the filtered spot count matrix from Spaceranger after loading into Seurat objects: (*Maximum percentage of mitochondrial read content; Minimum number of UMIs; Maximum number of UMIs; Minimum number of detected features; Maximum number of detected features; Minimum spot complexity*)
Brain: (35; 500; 70,000; 300; 10,000; 0.75), Bulb: (35; 500; 70,000; 300; 10,000; 0.75),
Heart: (60; 1000; 25,000; 300; 5000; 0.75), Kidney: (30; 1000; 50,000; 300; 8000; 0.75)
Liver: (15; 1000; 40,000; 500; 8000; 0.75), Lung: (10; 1000; 30,000; 300; 8000; 0.75)
Spleen: (10; 500; 35,000; 300; 8000; 0.75).

We then rotated the images of the remaining samples to best match the desired orientation for each tissue. We then followed the default Seurat (v4.4) workflow to preprocess each sample by applying *NormalizeData*, *FindVariableFeatures* with variance stabilizing transformation for 2000 features, followed by *SCTransform* (v1), regressing out the percentage of mitochondrial reads and subsetting to 3000 variable features. Subsequently, we performed *RunPCA* on the SCT assay, *FindNeighbors* on up to 30 PCs, *FindClusters* with leiden clustering followed by *RunUMAP* with up to 30 dimensions. Using the cleaned list of Visium samples, we created one Seurat object for each tissue using the SCT-based integration workflow as follows: set the default assay to SCT, run *SelectIntegrationFeatures* with 3000 features, then *PrepSCTIntegration*, and *FindIntegrationAnchors* followed by *IntegrateData*, each with "SCT" set as normalization method and up to 30 dimensions. Next, we performed the standard dimension reduction workflow consisting of *RunPCA*, *RunUMAP*, *FindNeighbors*, and *FindClusters* again with up to 30 dimensions and fixed random seeds.

For the STOmics Stereo-seq samples, we first converted the outputs of the Stereo-Seq Analysis Workflow (SAW) pipeline[90] (v1.0) into Seurat objects for both bin200 (200x200 Stereo-seq spots) and cell bins. This was accomplished using the *io.stereo_to_anndata* function in the Stereopy package[91] (v1.1.0), followed by applying the *h5ad2rds.R* script provided by BGI. Cell bins were obtained using image-based cell segmentation of the corresponding ssDNA-stained images. Filtering was performed using the following criteria: (*Maximum percentage of mitochondrial read content; Minimum number of UMIs; Maximum number of UMIs; Minimum number of detected features; Maximum number of detected features; Minimum spot complexity*)
Brain (bin200): (35; 500; 100,000; 300; 10,000; 0.75), Brain (cell bin): (35; 100; 10,000; 100; 3,000; 0.75).

In line with the Visium 10x samples we applied a default Seurat preprocessing workflow for each sample. Using the cleaned list of STOmics Stereo-Seq samples, we performed the Harmony-based integration workflow as follows: set the default assay to SCT, run *SelectIntegrationFeatures* with 5000 features, merge the sample list into one Seurat sample, run *RunPCA* with 50 components, run *RunHarmony* on SCT assay and the PCA reduction using *Sample_ID* and *Age* as latent variables, run JoinLayers on the RNA assay. Then, we performed the sample dimension reduction workflow as in the Visium samples with up to 50 dimensions.

Spot clustering annotation

For the Visium aging cohort we employed tissue-specific clustering resolutions to match their individual complexity as follows: Brain1 0.8, Brain2 0.7, Brain3, 0.6, Brain4 0.5, Brain5 0.5, Heart 0.5, Kidney 0.5, Liver 0.2, Lung 0.5, and Spleen 0.6. For the Visium infection cohort, we

set the clustering resolution for Brain to 1, Olfactory bulb to 0.6, Kidney to 0.5, Liver to 0.2 and
Lung to 0.5, aiming to reproduce about the same number and type of gene expression clusters
as for the aging cohort. In the next step, we computed the enriched cluster marker genes for
each tissue object in a one vs. all approach by using *FindAllMarkers* on the normalized data
slot of the spatial assay in combination with MAST[92], setting the minimal percentage of positive
cells to 0.1, requiring a minimal alpha to 0.01 and log fold-change of 0.1 for Heart, Kidney,
Lung, Spleen as well as 0.25 for brain and using the sample identity of each spot as latent
variable for gene regression. We then applied a hierarchical approach of annotating the
clusters using the top-enriched genes, trying to resolve at best the most-enriched cell type, if
possible, through the expression of clear marker genes, and annotating the spatial
compartment based on histological knowledge and functional properties instead. We made
combined use of transcriptomics literature on each organ, in particular single-cell and single-
nucleus reference data, reference atlases such as the Allen Mouse Brain atlas, as well as an
in-depth analysis of the stained tissue slices, to manually annotate all clusters with a
nomenclature used previously. Thereby, clusters having no distinctive but unclear markers but
showed shared marker expression overall to other clusters, were merged together.
720
For the STOmics Stereo-seq samples with bin 200 (200x200 DNB bins), we employed tissue-
specific clustering resolution aiming to approximately reproduce the number of clusters from
the Visium 10x aging cohort at each bregma as follows: Brain1 3.2, Brain2 3, Brain3 3, Brain4
2.5, Brain5 2.5. For stereo-seq samples with single-cell resolution we utilized a clustering
resolution of 0.5 across all Bregmata. In the next step, we computed the enriched cluster
marker genes for each tissue object in a one vs. all approach by using *FindAllMarkers* on the
normalized data slot of the spatial assay in combination with MAST, setting the minimal
percentage of positive cells to 0.1, requiring a minimal alpha of 0.01 and fold-change of 0.25
for all samples and using the sample identity of each spot as latent variable for gene
regression. This was accomplished equivalently for both bin200 and cell bins. For bin200, we
performed annotation by first calculating the marker overlap of each cluster with every cluster
from the corresponding Visium 10x samples. Here, we always considered the top 50 markers
selected by lowest adjusted p-value. To annotate a cluster, we then identified Visium clusters
with marker overlap and additionally took the anatomical location, via the Allen Mouse Brain
Atlas of the corresponding spots, into account. In most cases, this allowed us to pinpoint one
annotation for each cluster. In cases where multiple annotations we plausible, we split the
clusters based on spatial location and anatomical information. Clusters annotated with the
same label were merged together. For cell bins we aimed for a high-level cell type annotation
matching the limited counts per cell of the stereo-seq cell segmentation. We utilized the current
literature on single-cell and single-nucleus datasets as reference for our annotation together
with the anatomical location of the clusters. Spot clusters with similar markers and anatomical
location were then merged together.
743
Differential gene expression analysis
To compare the gene expression program of each tissue cluster between old and young mice
as well as infected and control mice, we performed a DEG analysis using the *FindMarkers*
function of Seurat in combination with MAST. Thereby, we used the normalized data slot of the
spatial assay, requiring a minimal fold-change of 0.25, minimal percentage expressed of 0.1,
as well as an alpha level of 0.01, while again using the sample identity of each spot as latent
variable for gene regression. A gene was considered as significantly dysregulated for an organ
if it returned as significant in at least one of the spot clusters.
752
Spatially variable gene analysis
We applied SPARK-X[93,94] (v1.1.1) to each Spaceranger-filtered and preprocessed but
uncleaned sample matrix to detect the spatially variable genes in each tissue sample,
independent of our clustering and annotation approach and thus to prevent any artifacts arising
from our cleaning procedures. To this end, we used the SCT normalized counts as input to
SPARK-X and selected the mixture projection kernel. We then only consider genes as spatially
variable, if they are significant in the *mtest* slot to an alpha level of 0.01. For the comparison

to the tissue cluster DEGs we further filtered the SVGs by keeping only those with the lowest 15% of all adjusted p-values and which are then significant in more than 50% of all the samples in each tissue over all ages.

Pseudobulk and spatial neighborhood expression analysis
Expression analysis on the sample-level was performed using pseudobulk aggregation of normalized counts via the Seurat function AggregateExpression, either per experimental group or per spot cluster. Resulting count matrices were then scaled to zero mean and unit variance using the ScaleData function. Clustering of expression matrices was performed using hierarchical clustering with Euclidean distance metric. To perform a spot neighborhood expression analysis for parasite invasion hot spots in the infection cohort, we selected all spots with more than 0.5% of ANKA mapped reads, and pulled all up to six direct neighbors in the hexagonal spot array. We then compared the group of center spots against their neighbors using the Seurat *FindMarkers* function with a minimum log fold-change of 0.25, minimum percentage of expressed spots of 0.1, an alpha level of 0.05 as well as using Spot sample identity for latent variable regression. To analyze the combined expression of genes from the complement pathway via an activity score, we used the *AddModuleScore* function from Seurat with a fixed seed on the data slot of the spatial assay and all other parameters kept at default.

Spatial neighborhood enrichment analysis
To perform spatial neighborhood analysis on our Visium 10x samples, we first converted all Seurat objects to Squidpy[95] (v1.4.1) *AnnData* objects. This was accomplished by first extracting gene expression matrix, spatial coordinates and required metadata from the Seurat object, subsequently loading them into Squidpy using the *AnnData* function. To process groups of samples together, we first manually shifted the spatial coordinates of each sample such that there is no spatial overlap between samples in the same dimensions. Based on those common coordinates, we first calculated the spatial connectivity matrix using the function *gr.spatial_neighbours*. To validate that there is no inter-sample connectivity we created spatial scatter plots using the *pl.spatial_scatter* function with connectivity key set to *spatial_connectivities*. Then, we used the Squidpy function *gr.nhood_enrichment* with mode *zscore* to calculate the neighborhood enrichment matrix for each group of samples. To compare between two groups (e.g. young vs. old), we computed the pointwise difference between their neighborhood enrichment matrices, providing us with a differential neighborhood enrichment matrix per contrast.

Pathway enrichment analysis
To perform gene set over-representation analysis on DEGs we used the Transcriptomics module of GeneTrail3[96], with the target species set to Mus musculus, null hypothesis set to two-sided, and Benjamini-Hochberg FDR p-value correction at an alpha level of 0.05. We tested against Gene Ontology (Biological process, Cellular component, Molecular function), KEGG, Reactome, Wikipathway, and Pfam databases with all supported mouse genes as background normalization set.

Statistics and reproducibility
All scripts were executed in a reproducible environment using a custom Snakemake v7.32.4 workflow with dedicated conda environments, fixing each utilized R and python package to a particular version: R v4.3.2, python v3.12, numpy v1.26.4, pandas v2.2.1, tidyverse v.2.0.0, patchwork v1.2.0, umap v0.2.10.0, pals v1.8, colorspace v2.1_0, ggrepel v.0.9.5, complexupset v1.3.3, bioconductor-complexheatmap v.2.18.0, readxl v1.4.3, openxlsx v4.2.5.2, future v1.33.0, pbapply v1.7_2, bioconductor-mast v1.28.0, seurat v4.4.0, seuratobject v4.1.4, seurat-disk v0.0.0.9021, matrix v1.6_1.1, sctransform v0.4.1, bioconductor-glmgampoi v1.14.0, hdf5r v1.3.10, python leidenalg v0.10.2, leidenalg v1.1.3, reticulate v1.34.0, python-igraph v0.11.4, umap-learn v0.5.5, devtools v2.4.5, remotes v2.4.2, yaml v2.3.8, doparallel v1.0.17, data.table v 1.15.2, ggVennDiagram v1.5.2, viridis v0.6.5, ggdendro v0.2.0, fmsb v0.7.6, Stereopy (v1.1.0), SPARK-X (v1.1.1), and Squidpy (v1.4.1). Statistical tests were performed two-tailed if not stated otherwise. Raw p-values were adjusted

816   for multiple testing bias to an alpha level of 0.05 using either the Bonferroni (DEG analysis) or
817   Benjamini-Hochberg FDR (pathway analysis) correction method. Trend curves were obtained
818   through Local Polynomial Regression Fitting (loess) of $y \sim log(x)$ with a span of 0.75, two
819   degrees of freedom and a standard error confidence interval of 0.95.

Data availability

822   The sequencing datasets and images generated throughout this study will be made available
823   in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) as well as through Gene Expression Omnibus
824   (GEO). Preprocessed Seurat R objects will also be made available through GEO.

Code availability

827   Custom scripts used to produce the results of this study are available from the corresponding
828   authors upon request.

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Author contributions

F.K. and Vi.W. wrote the manuscript with input from all other authors; F.K. led the data analysis
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Competing interests

858   The authors declare no conflicts of interests.

Supplementary Information

Supplementary Information is available for this paper.

Supplementary Table 1: Sample metadata and quality control metrics for the mouse aging
cohort.
Supplementary Table 2: Spot cluster marker genes for peripheral organs from the aging
cohort (10x Visium).
Supplementary Table 3: Aging DEGs per cluster and peripheral organ (10x Visium).
Supplementary Table 4: Aging SVGs per peripheral organ and sample (10x Visium).
Supplementary Table 5: Spot cluster marker genes for brain sections from the aging cohort
(10x Visium).

Supplementary Table 6: Aging DEGs per cluster and brain bregma (10x Visium).
Supplementary Table 7: Aging SVGs per brain bregma and sample (10x Visium).
Supplementary Table 8: Spot cluster marker genes for brain sections from the aging cohort
(STOmics Stereo-seq).
Supplementary Table 9: Aging DEGs per cluster and brain bregma (STOmics Stereo-seq).
Supplementary Table 10: Sample metadata and quality control metrics for the mouse
infection cohort.
Supplementary Table 11: Spot cluster marker genes for all organs from the infection cohort
(10x Visium).
Supplementary Table 12: Infection DEGs per cluster and organ (10x Visium).
Supplementary Table 13: Infection SVGs per organ and sample (10x Visium).
Supplementary Table 14: Raw GeneTrail3 results for the over-representation analysis of
brain, kidney, liver and lung DEGs shared between aging and infection clusters.

 Extended Data Figures

886 **Extended Data Figure 1: Aging peripheral organ samples quality control.**
887
888 **a-e**, Distribution of percentage of mitochondrial reads (top left), total number of UMIs (top
889 right), number of detected gene features (bottom left) and spot complexity (bottom right), per
890 cleaned high-quality sample and experimental group, for heart (**a**), kidney (**b**), liver (**c**), lung
891 (**d**), and spleen (**e**).

Extended Data Figure 1: Aging peripheral organ samples quality control

892 **Extended Data Figure 2: Aging brain samples quality control.**
893

894 **a-e**, Distribution of percentage of mitochondrial reads (top left), total number of UMIs (top
895 right), number of detected gene features (bottom left) and spot complexity (bottom right), per
896 cleaned high-quality sample and experimental group, for brain1 (**a**), brain2 (**b**), brain3 (**c**),
897 brain4 (**d**), and brain5 (**e**).

Extended Data Figure 2: Aging brain samples quality control

Extended Data Figure 3: Integrated annotations and DEG analysis for the aging peripheral organs.

a-e, H&E-stained image slices (left) ordered by age (top row: young, middle row: middle, bottom row: old) with annotated spot clusters overlaid for all high-quality samples from heart (**a**), kidney (**b**), liver (**c**), lung (**d**), and spleen (**e**). Pie charts (right) showing the proportion of spot clusters per age group.

f-j, Volcano plots of aging DEGs (old vs. young) colored by spot cluster for heart (**f**), kidney (**g**), liver (**h**), lung (**i**), and spleen (**j**).

Extended Data Figure 3: Integrated annotations and DEG analysis for the aging peripheral organs

908 **Extended Data Figure 4: SVG analysis and neighborhood enrichments for aging**
909 **peripheral organs.**
910
911 **a**, Bar plots showing the number of significant SVGs (y-axis) by the minimum number of
912 replicate samples (x-axis) per age group and peripheral organ as determined with SPARK-X.
913
914 **b**, Histogram showing the adjusted and -log10 scaled p-value distribution by age and
915 peripheral organ for all significant spatially variables genes determined with SPARK-X.
916
917 **c**, Venn diagram comparing the significant aging DEGs (old vs. young) and significant SVGs
918 per peripheral organ.
919
920 **d-g**, Like in **Fig. 1j** but for kidney (**d**), liver (**e**), lung (**f**), and spleen (**g**).

Extended Data Figure 4: SVG analysis and neighborhood enrichments for aging peripheral organs

Extended Data Figure 5: Integrated annotations and DEG analysis for the aging brain slices.

a-e, As in **Extended Data Fig. 3a-e** but for the aging brain slices.

f-j, As in **Extended Data Fig. 3f-j** but for the aging brain samples.

Extended Data Figure 5: Integrated annotations and DEG analysis for the aging brain slices

927 **Extended Data Figure 6: SVG analysis for aging brain slices.**

929 **a**, As in **Extended Data Fig. 4a** but for the aging brain samples.

931 **b**, As in **Extended Data Fig. 4b** but for the aging brain samples.

933 **c**, As in **Extended Data Fig. 4c** but for the aging brain samples.

Extended Data Figure 6: SVG analysis for aging brain slices

Extended Data Figure 7: Quality control and annotations for STOmics aging brain slices.

a, Illustration of the five different brain bregma used for STOmics Stereo-seq in accordance with the Visium data set. Representative H&E stains are shown for each Bregma. Since Stereo-seq does not support H&E stains directly from the sequenced tissue slices, an adjacent (directly before or after) tissue slice was prepared and stained before running the spatial transcriptomics experiments.

b, From left to right and per brain bregma (top to bottom): integrated UMAP representation of all cleaned Stereo-seq spot clusters using the bin200 resolution, pie charts and per replicate spatial projections of the final annotated spot clusters. Cluster names and colors were assigned in accordance with the Visium data set (cf. Methods).

c, Distribution of four main quality control features across the cleaned spots and per Stereo-seq brain replicate at bin200 resolution.

Extended Data Figure 7: Quality control and annotations for STOmics aging brain slices

950   **Extended Data Figure 8: Quality control for organ samples of the infection cohort.**

952   **a-e**, Like in **Extended Data Fig. 1a-e** but for all organs from the infection cohort.

Extended Data Figure 8: Quality control for organ samples of the infection cohort

 Extended Data Figure 9: Integrated organ annotations and DEG analysis for the
infection cohort.

a-e, As in **Extended Data Fig. 3a-e** but for all the organs from the infection cohort, split by
experimental group.

f, Like in **Fig. 1g**, but for all tissue-cluster DEGs from the infection cohort.

g-k, As in **Extended Data Fig. 3f-j** but for all the organs from the infection cohort, comparing
day6 post-infection against healthy controls.

Extended Data Figure 9: Integrated organ annotations and DEG analysis for the infection cohort

963 **Extended Data Figure 10: SVG analysis and neighborhood enrichments for the**
964 **infection cohort.**
965
966 **a**, As in **Extended Data Fig. 4a** but for all the infection cohort organs, split by experimental
967 group.
968
969 **b**, As in **Extended Data Fig. 4b** but for all the infection cohort organs, split by experimental
970 group.
971
972 **c**, As in **Extended Data Fig. 4c** but for all the infection cohort organs, comparing SVGs
973 against day6 post-infection vs. healthy control DEGs.
974
975 **d-f**, Like in **Fig. 1j** but for kidney (**d**), liver (**e**), and lung (**f**) from the infection cohort.

Extended Data Figure 10: SVG analysis and neighborhood enrichments for the infection cohort

Extended Data Figure 11: ANKA genome read detection analysis for the infection cohort.

a, Heatmap showing the scaled pseudobulk expression by brain sample and experimental group of the top 50 most variable genes from the *P. berghei* (ANKA) genome.

b, Distribution of the percentage of ANKA-related read counts per spot across all annotated spot clusters of the brain and split by experimental group.

c, **d**, As in (**a**,**b**) but for olfactory bulb.

e, **f**, As in (**a**,**b**) but for kidney.

g, **h**, As in (**a**,**b**) but for liver.

i, **j**, As in (**a**,**b**) but for lung.

Extended Data Figure 11: ANKA genome read detection analysis for the infection cohort

Extended Data Figure 12: Validation of C4b and Serpina3n upregulation in the aging mouse brain.

a, Combined analysis of C4b and Serpina3n by per-spot multiplication of normalized expression values across four groups of samples (young, old, control, infected). Shown are the combined expression values for Astrocyte assigned spots from the cell binning resolved brain1 Stereo-seq samples (left), and the Astrocyte marker enriched spots from the aging (middle) and malaria disease (right) mouse brain Visium samples.

b, As in (**a**) but for the Oligodendrocyte assigned spots (Stereo-seq) and Oligodendrocyte marker enriched spots (Visium).

c, Normalized protein expression intensities of C4b and Serpina3n in young (3 month), adult middle aged (15 month), and old (24 month) mouse brain cortex (left) and hippocampus (right), as originally obtained by Tsumagari *et al*[22].

Extended Data Figure 12: Validation of C4b and Serpina3n upregulation in the aging mouse brain

a   Astrocytes

b   Oligodendrocytes

c

Extended Data Figure 13: Summarized findings on complement and protease inhibitor activation.

Members of the Serine protease inhibitor family regulate the expression of the classical and lectin complement pathways by interacting with individual proteases. We found a wide-spread and strong upregulation of these genes in the aging and malaria diseased mouse within different spatial compartments of several peripheral organs and the central nervous system (e.g. white matter tract), a gene signature which can also be traced down to individual cell types.

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