Aging disrupts spatiotemporal coordination in the cycling ovary

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Summary

Throughout the female reproductive lifespan, the ovary completes hundreds of cycles of follicle development,

ovulation, and tissue regeneration[1–3]. These processes rely on the precise coordination of intricate multicellular

interactions across time and space[4]. How aging disrupts these interactions, leading to the overall decline in

reproductive and endocrine functions, remains understudied. To understand the multicellular dynamics that underlie

ovarian function and their changes with age, here we use Slide-seq, a near-cellular spatial transcriptomics method,

to profile 21 ovaries across reproductive cycles and chronological age, representing 601,831 near-cellular spots

across 68 spatial transcriptomic profiles[5,6]. We develop a segmentation analysis to identify static snapshots of spatial

niches that capture folliculogenesis *in situ*, allowing us to examine the multicellular dynamics of 345 oocytes, 653

follicles, and 234 corpora lutea. We find that aging disrupts both the spatial organization and temporal coordination

of folliculogenesis before the cessation of cycling, leading to dysregulation of hormone production and signaling.

These disruptions are marked by altered immune cell dynamics, inflammatory signaling, and global tissue

disorganization that impair the cyclic remodeling required for ovarian function. Our findings reveal how

multicellular niches orchestrate the reproductive and endocrine functions of the ovary and demonstrate how age-

related breakdown of tissue organization across time and space precedes reproductive decline.

Main Text

The ovary is a dynamic organ comprising diverse cell types that undergo continuous remodeling to regulate reproductive and endocrine function throughout the female lifespan. During the female reproductive period, ovarian cells undergo a repetitive cycle of phenotypic switching to collectively orchestrate oocyte maturation, ovulation, and hormone production throughout the estrous or menstrual cycle[4,7]. This process of "homeostatic cycling" occurs approximately 150–650 times in mice and 300–400 times in humans over the course of the female reproductive lifespan[1,2]. During chronological aging, overall reproductive function declines and culminates in the cessation of cycling. Here, we investigate the molecular interactions underlying this process, including the progressive depletion of the ovarian reserve, the decline in the precision of cellular interactions, and the increase in tissue-wide inflammation and fibrosis[8–13].

Central to ovarian function are spatially organized dynamic multicellular structures – primarily follicles, which develop in distinct stages before transforming into corpora (CL) lutea after ovulation. Folliculogenesis begins with a primordial follicle consisting of a dormant oocyte encased by flattened granulosa cells (GCs). Activation, the awakening of the follicle from its dormant phase, triggers GCs to adopt a cuboidal shape and begin proliferation, forming the preantral follicle where they coordinate morphological and functional changes to support oocyte growth. As the follicle transitions to the antral stage, a fluid-filled cavity (antrum) forms, and the follicle becomes gonadotropin-dependent for growth and begins producing steroid hormones[14,15]. Spatial complexity further increases as theca cells create an outer layer and respond to gonadotropin hormones by producing steroids[16,17]. Ultimately, less than 1% of follicles recruited to grow successfully progress to ovulation[18], while the remainder undergo atresia, a form of apoptosis[18]. Though atresia claims most follicles during their maturation process – which spans approximately two weeks in mice and more than a year in humans – the dominant surviving follicle releases a mature oocyte at ovulation. After oocyte ejection, the remaining follicular cells transform into the CL, a transient hormone-producing structure essential for pregnancy and critical in regulating the complex cycle of ovulation[15,19]. This creates an extraordinarily complex tissue environment where, at any given time, dozens (mice) or thousands (humans) of follicles at different developmental stages share the same physical space with multiple CLs. The molecular mechanisms coordinating this intricate asynchronous spatiotemporal organization remain unclear, highlighting the need for spatially resolved profiling to better understand the dynamics of these cellular ecosystems.

Understanding ovarian aging requires studying the interplay between oocytes and their surrounding cells, but current tools are limited in their ability to capture the complexity of these interactions. Previous studies of ovarian aging focused primarily on follicle depletion and decline in oocyte-intrinsic properties such as aneuploidy[20,21]. However, mounting evidence suggests that dysfunction across the entire ovarian tissue environment contributes significantly to reproductive aging through dysregulation of these multicellular ecosystems[12,21–23], particularly through disruptions in granulosa cell signaling[24–26], extracellular matrix remodeling[27–30], and immune infiltration[12,31–33], underscoring the need to investigate how multicellular dysregulation drives ovarian aging. Single-

cell RNA sequencing is a powerful tool to profile cellular heterogeneity and uncover novel regulatory mechanisms,

but it faces limitations in studying ovarian tissue. Droplet-based single-cell methods are limited in their ability to

profile large cells like oocytes, which exceed 100 μm in diameter[34–37] and do not resolve interacting cell types in

the follicular niche, while coarse spatial transcriptomics approaches lack the resolution to characterize follicular

architecture[23,38] and often rely on predetermined gene panels that constrain discovery of novel regulatory patterns

within and across niches[39].

Here we present a spatiotemporal atlas of the cycling murine ovary across chronological aging at near-single cell

resolution using Slide-seq[5,6]. Our study comprises n=601,831 spots at 10 μm resolution spanning 68 spatial

transcriptomic profiles from 21 biological samples collected during the estrus and metestrus stages of the estrous

cycle, across three age groups. By developing a segmentation pipeline that specifically captures multicellular

structures of the ovary, we identified 345 oocytes, 653 follicles, and 234 CLs, enabling detailed analysis of

folliculogenesis and CL dynamics. Comparing profiles between young and aged mice revealed that aging disrupts

temporal dynamics of hormone-responsive and hormone-producing processes during the estrous cycle. This

disruption coincides with inflammatory processes, global tissue disorganization, and altered dynamics of cyclical

remodeling essential for maintaining ovarian function. Our work demonstrates how multicellular niches cooperate

to regulate both reproductive and endocrine functions of the ovary and how these interactions become dysregulated

with age.

Spatial transcriptomics reveals multicellular organization of the cycling and aging ovary

We used Slide-seq to generate 68 spatial transcriptomics profiles from 21 mice harvested during ovulatory (estrus)

and post-ovulatory (metestrus) stages across three age groups, young (10-12 weeks), reproductively middle aged

(36-40 weeks), and reproductively old (52-54 weeks)[40] (**Fig. 1a**; **Extended Table 1, 2**; **Methods**). This design

enabled us to examine the dramatic post-ovulatory tissue-wide remodeling across the aging trajectory. Unsupervised

clustering and *post hoc* annotation of 601,831 high-quality 10 μm spot transcriptomes identified all major ovarian

cell types, including oocytes (*Gdf9*), multiple granulosa cell (GC) subtypes, two distinct luteal cell populations,

theca cells (*Col1a2*), epithelial cells (*Epcam*), fibroblasts (*Pdgfra*), muscle (*Tagln*), immune (*Lyz2*), endothelial

(*Flt1*), and stromal cells (*Aldh1a1*), and others (**Fig. 1b**; **Extended Table 3**). Spatially visualizing cell types revealed

spot-level patterns corresponding to the expected histological and morphological organization of the parenchyma,

with diverse GCs forming a follicle around an oocyte (**Fig. 1c**).

To analyze anatomically related groups of spots representing meaningful tissue units, we developed a segmentation

pipeline that identified oocytes, follicles, and corpora lutea (CL). As large oocytes often exceed 70 μm in diameter[41],

thereby spanning multiple Slide-seq spots, we clustered spatially adjacent putative oocyte spots into segments to

create composite oocyte expression profiles for further analysis (**Methods**). In contrast, oocytes in primordial

follicles typically span a single spot, which we identified through a separate segmentation pipeline. Spots labeled

as 'Oocyte' or expressing *Sohlh1* that were not already assigned to oocyte segments were used to build spatial

neighborhood graphs, and segments composed of 2 or more spots with at least one spot expressing *Sohlh1* were

assigned as primordial oocytes (**Methods**). We segmented larger structures, including developing follicles and CL,

using unsupervised clustering of the spatial neighborhood graph (**Fig. 1d,** left; **Methods**).

Altogether, we identified 345 oocytes, 653 follicles, and 234 CL *in situ* (**Fig. 1d,** right). Classification of follicle

and CL segments based on their GC and luteal composition revealed distinct stages of follicular development,

including preantral (N=238), antral mitotic (N=191), antral luteinizing (N=43), and atretic (N=181) follicles, as well

as early (N=87) and late (N=147) CL states (**Extended Data Fig. 1a,b; Methods**). Follicle classifications captured

the progression of GC function that drives folliculogenesis (**Fig. 1e**), supported by stage-specific expression of key

hormone receptors including the anti-Müllerian hormone receptor *Amhr2* in gonadotropin-independent preantral

follicles[31] and *Fshr* and *Lhcgr* in gonadotropin-dependent antral follicles[42,43] (**Fig. 1f**). Notably, we identified two

distinct luteal cell types that were spatially segregated across two types of CL regulating opposing aspects of

progesterone levels[44], the early luteal cells (*Parm1*) promoting progesterone synthesis and late luteal cells (*Akr1c18*)

that actively metabolize it (**Fig. 1c,** left, **Fig. 1f; Extended Data Fig. 1c**). These luteal types were labeled 'early'

and 'late' according to their temporal function in progesterone regulation throughout the estrous cycle[44].

Interestingly, these marker genes of early and late luteal cells corresponded to those previously reported to reflect

their presumed cell of origin based on size[45,46], i.e. small luteal cells from theca cells and large luteal cells from

GCs[47]. However, our spatially resolved data revealed that these two types generally did not co-localize within the

same CL structure (**Extended Data Fig. 1c**), suggesting that this transcriptomic diversity of luteal cells is temporally

driven by phenotypic switching, rather than pre-determined by cell-of-origin.

Oocytes follow coordinated transcriptional programs during follicular development

Despite the traditional characterization of oocytes as transcriptionally silent maternal RNA storage units[48], recent

studies demonstrate active transcriptional regulation during their maturation[41,49–51]. During each cycle, a subset of

primordial oocytes is activated to grow approximately 7-fold in size, progressing from prophase I to arrested

metaphase II[52]. We examined the average expression profiles of oocyte segments in their native tissue context,

identifying stage-specific expression patterns[34,53–55] defined by their enclosing follicle type, with elevated expression

of *Sohlh1* in primordial oocytes[56], *Figla* and *Kit* in preantral follicles, and *Gdf9* and *H1f8* in antral follicles (**Fig.**

1g). We next identified distinct gene programs that differ across oocyte maturation by using nonnegative matrix

factorization (**Fig. 1h**; **Methods; Extended Data Fig. 1d-f**). Oocyte program 2, characterized by zona pellucida

glycoproteins *Zp2* and *Zp3*, indicates upregulation of extracellular matrix components necessary for follicular

assembly immediately after primordial follicle activation[47,57]. Oocyte program 4, enriched in F-box proteins

(*Fbxw19, Fbxw21, Fbxw24*) that are critical components of the SCF ubiquitin E3 ligase complex controlling cell

cycle progression[58,59], emerges in maturing *Bmp15+* oocytes, reflecting the dynamic transcriptional shifts necessary

for meiotic progression. Oocyte program 0 which contains the regulator of meiosis resumption, *Bcl2l10*, and early

embryonic development genes *Btg4* and *Tcl1* is upregulated in mature follicles preparing to respond to the

gonadotropin surge (**Extended Data Fig. 1e**; *P*<0.0001 preantral vs antral; t-test)[60–62]. Altogether, our findings

reveal that oocytes undergo dynamic transcriptional regulation throughout folliculogenesis, switching from

processes required to maintain oocyte dormancy to proliferative programs upon follicle activation.

Spatial organization of granulosa cells (GCs) balances proliferation and differentiation

We next investigated how GC states are maintained within follicles throughout folliculogenesis. To systematically

compare the spatial organization of GCs across follicles, we devised an analysis to quantify changes in GC

characteristics as a function of their scaled radial distance from their follicular center (**Extended Data Fig. 2a**;

Methods). First, we observed that luteinizing and atretic GCs were most frequently localized to the outer edge of

the follicle (**Fig. 1c**). To quantify how this spatial organization emerges during folliculogenesis, we reconstructed a

stereotypical differentiation trajectory for GCs using diffusion pseudotime[63] (dpt), based on the coexistence of

diverse follicle states captured by our static tissue snapshots (**Extended Data Fig. 2b, c; Methods**). This trajectory

captured their maturation paths toward either luteinization or atresia (**Fig. 1e**). Examining GC states in space

revealed a striking pattern: GCs at the follicular edge exhibited a non-proliferative state (based on cell cycle scores)

and were more differentiated (higher dpt), whereas inner GCs were highly proliferative and less mature, suggesting

that follicles grow from the inside out (**Fig. 2a-c; Methods**)[64].

To uncover the molecular features underlying the spatial organization of follicular function, we applied non-

negative matrix factorization (NMF)[65] to identify GC gene programs and analyzed their spatial usage distribution

within follicle segments. We found, among others, two key programs related to hormone sensing and production

(**Extended Data Fig. 2d-f**; **Methods**). In non-atretic antral follicles, the FSH-regulating program (*Inhbb*, *Inhba*,

Inha, *Fst*)[43,66] was significantly more active toward the follicular center while the steroidogenesis program

(*Cyp19a1*, *Hsd3b1*, *Lhcgr*, *Prlr*)[15,43] was enriched at the follicular edge, where GCs interface with androgen-

producing theca cells required for estrogen biosynthesis (**Fig. 2d**, purple lines; Spearman ρ, **P*<0.05). However,

atretic follicles deviate from this spatial pattern, showing reduced FSH program activity at the center and uniformly

low steroidogenesis expression throughout the follicle (**Fig. 2d**, orange lines). We thus propose that this spatial

compartmentalization establishes a division of labor, with GCs closer to the oocyte initially sensing FSH to regulate

oocyte activation and follicle growth, while peripheral GCs synthesize hormones in coordination with theca cells.

In atretic follicles, this coordination appears to break down, suggesting a loss of spatially guided functional

organization during follicular atresia.

Multicellular dynamics drive folliculogenesis progression

To understand how multiple cell types coordinate during follicle development, we ordered follicle segments along

a computationally inferred folliculogenesis trajectory in reproductively young mice. Using the core cell types of

follicles, namely oocytes, granulosa, and theca cells, we computed the distributional pairwise distance between all

segments using the Wasserstein distance[67] (**Fig. 2e**). We then used this representation of segment dissimilarity to

cluster follicles and corpora lutea and computed their UMAP embedding (**Fig. 2f**; **Methods**). To interpolate

folliculogenesis events based on this representation, we computed a diffusion pseudotime across follicles, which

revealed the expected sequential trajectory from preantral to antral follicles, or atretic follicles (**Fig. 2g**). Analyzing

cell type composition along this trajectory highlighted gradual shifts in cell type composition (**Fig. 2i**). While the

total proportion of immune cells remained stable across follicle types, their spatial distribution varied significantly,

showing increased infiltration near the center of atretic follicles; this observation held true even after accounting for

variations in slicing by limiting analyses to follicles containing an oocyte, ensuring that sections captured the follicle

center (**Fig. 2j**; *P*<0.001 antral *vs* atretic follicles; Tukey's test, **Extended Data Fig. 2g**). In contrast, the spatial

distribution of endothelial cells was indistinguishable across follicle types (**Extended Data Fig. 2h**). The

observation that immune infiltration is specific to atretic follicles validates our classification of atretic follicles

based on GC expression, which has lacked supporting evidence[35], and aligns with prior observations that immune

cells infiltrate dying follicles for tissue clearance[12]. Altogether, our results show that folliculogenesis can be

recovered from spatial snapshots of ovarian tissue slices, and that the follicular niche exhibits complex spatial

coordination of multicellular patterns along the folliculogenesis trajectory.

Cell-cell interactions drive follicle maturation

Based on our observations that follicles undergo significant compositional changes across folliculogenesis, we next

sought to understand molecular interactions that mediate changes in cell-cell communication within each follicular

type. To investigate interactions between cell types regulating folliculogenesis, we used MultiNicheNet[68] to analyze

receptor-ligand pairs among oocytes, granulosa (GC), theca, and immune cells across preantral, antral, and atretic

follicles, treating each follicle as a sample (**Methods; Extended Data Fig. 2i**). Interactions specific to each follicle

type included *Gdf9-Fxyd6* between oocytes and GCs in preantral follicles, *Fst-Bmpr1b* between GCs and theca cells

in antral follicles, and *Apoa4-Lrp1* within GCs in atretic follicles. Scores for these interactions varied smoothly

across the folliculogenesis trajectory (**Fig. 2k, Methods**). The candidate atretic interaction, *Apoa4-Lrp1*, suggests

a role for metabolic shifts within the follicle, as *Lrp1* (low-density lipoprotein receptor-related protein 1) regulates

lipid transport, glucose metabolism, and energy homeostasis[69–71], while *Apoa4* promotes lipid transport and

metabolism, and their interaction facilitates glucose uptake[72]. Notably, a recent genome-wide association study

linked *LRP1* with polycystic ovarian syndrome (PCOS), an ovarian disorder characterized by metabolic and

hormonal dysfunction[72].

Temporal variation in follicle activation, maturation, and hormone sensing

Although all follicles in the ovary experience the same systemic hormone environment, diverse follicle states coexist

across the estrous cycle in young mice. In reproductively young animals, we found fewer preantral follicles in

metestrus than in estrus, suggesting that a new pool of preantral follicles may develop into a gonadotropin-

independent state right after ovulation (**Fig. 3a**; *P*=0.001, two-tailed t-test). We next compared characteristics of

antral follicles between the estrus and metestrus stages to further understand how gonadotropins affect follicle states

across the cycle in reproductively young mice. Immediately before estrus, a surge in follicle-stimulating hormone

(FSH) and luteinizing hormone (LH) initiates competition among antral follicles for dominance, leading them to

either ovulation or atresia, such that mature antral follicles are typically absent by estrus[73]. Consistently, within

reproductively young mice we observed significantly smaller antral mitotic follicles in estrus than in metestrus

(**Extended Data Fig. 3a;** P=0.001, two-tailed t-test). Follicles in estrus overall exhibited a lower average

pseudotime, suggesting a less mature follicle state (**Fig. 3b**; **Extended Data Fig. 3c;** P=0.002, two-tailed t-test).

Functionally, all antral follicles at estrus showed significantly lower expression of the gonadotropin receptors *Lhcgr*

and *Fshr* (**Fig. 3c**; *P<0.01, **P<0.001, two-tailed t-test), implying that antral follicles at estrus are in an immature

and non-hormone-responsive state, possibly due to their recent transition from the gonadotropin-independent

preantral state[14].

Aging disrupts homeostatic folliculogenesis

A hallmark of ovarian aging is the onset of irregular cycling, as observed during perimenopause in humans,

indicating disrupted temporal regulation of endocrine signaling and ovarian function[74,75]. Although we confirmed

that reproductively old mice in our study were cycling at the time of tissue harvest, we investigated whether our

molecular measurements in these mice exhibited signs of temporal dysregulation and loss of the homeostatic

features that we identified in young mice. First, in old mice, we no longer found evidence of a shift in the

composition of preantral follicles nor the sizes of antral follicles across stages (**Fig. 3d**; P=0.942, two-tailed t-test;

Extended Data Fig. 3b). To compare follicle dynamics across estrus and metestrus in aged ovaries, we projected

follicles from old mice into the reference trajectory of young mice, again using the distributional distance

(**Methods**), and used this projection to assign pseudotime to follicles in old mice. In old mice, the distribution of

this pseudotime was distorted, showing no significant distinction between estrus and metestrus (**Fig. 3e**; P=0.677,

two-tailed t-test; **Extended Data Fig. 3c**). Furthermore, *Fshr* and *Lhcgr* expression within all antral follicle types

did not differ across estrus and metestrus in old mice, unlike in young mice (**Fig. 3f**). These findings suggest that

the decoupling of folliculogenesis, estrous cycle, and follicular hormone sensing occurs with age and precedes the

cessation of cycling.

Aging leads to both depletion and dysfunction of maturing oocytes across follicle stages (**Fig. 3g**). The quality of

oocytes decreases with age, in part due to dysregulation of the follicle niche[76–78]. To understand how oocytes are

affected by this dysregulation, we performed differential expression analysis in maturing oocytes of young and old

animals and identified a set of genes that undergo monotonic changes across aging (**Fig. 3h, Extended Data Fig.**

3d; Methods). In particular, the expression of the nuclear androgen receptor *Ar* and hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase

Akr1c18, known to metabolize progesterone, increased in aging oocytes. These genes are known to be involved in

oocyte maturation and meiosis progression[79,80], and their upregulation may reflect an adaptive shift by oocytes to

changing hormone levels in the aging ovarian environment[68]. Furthermore, we observed decreased expression of

the insulin-degrading enzyme *Ide*, which attenuates insulin signaling in healthy folliculogenesis[69,70]. Insulin

signaling regulates the final stages of oocyte maturation, although high insulin levels can reduce oocyte quality,

underscoring the need for balanced signaling[81,82]. Interestingly, aging oocytes show dysregulation of the *Nlrp9b*

family genes (*Nlrp9a/b/c*), which normally increases during late maturation in young oocytes[83] (**Extended Data**

Fig. 3e). These NOD-like receptor homologs localize to the subcortical maternal complex and are thought to

regulate the oocyte-to-embryo transition[82,84], though their role is under debate[84]. Together, our results demonstrate

that aging disrupts the integration of external signals that guide oocyte maturation, suggesting a potential

mechanistic basis for age-related decline in oocyte quality.

Temporal dysregulation of corpus luteum (CL) clearance in aged ovaries

We found that aging not only impacted folliculogenesis towards ovulation, but also significantly altered the

dynamics of CL progression. Young ovaries maintained a distinct temporal pattern of dominating presence of early

CLs at estrus and late CLs at metestrus, which supports the synthesis and upregulation of progesterone in the luteal

phase immediately after ovulation, followed by a timely decrease in progesterone levels to allow the next cycle to

progress. By contrast, the estrus stage of aged ovaries exhibited an accumulation of late CLs, which metabolize

progesterone (**Fig. 3i**, *P=0.006,* two-tailed t-test). We hypothesize that this accumulation would disrupt the

regulation of progesterone levels, potentially impacting the hormonal response of future cycles[4,14].

We leveraged our spatial data to understand how CLs interact with their tissue environment during the estrous cycle

and found that during their homeostatic progression, late CLs recruit immune cells required for tissue clearance

during luteolysis[12] (**Fig. 3j**). We examined immune infiltration across CL types by age and stage, which revealed

their significant accumulation in late CLs in the metestrus stage of old ovaries (**Fig. 3k; Extended Data Fig. 3f;**

P<0.005, two-tailed t-test), supporting the hypothesis that the failure to clear late CLs from the preceding cycle

leads to chronic immune recruitment[85]. Further supporting this observation, aged ovaries exhibited downregulation

of the luteolysis-triggering prostaglandin receptor *Ptgfr,* essential for CL breakdown (**Fig. 3l;** *P*=0.03, two tailed t-

test) and increased expression of immune-recruiting chemokine *Ccl2*, along with pro-inflammatory cytokines *Il1b,*

Ccl3, and *Tnf*[31,36,37] (**Fig. 3l**). Altogether, our findings show that impaired clearance of late CLs contributes to

chronic immune recruitment, inflammation, and declining endocrine function with age.

In summary, we observe that aging disrupts the temporal coordination between spatial niches of the ovary and their

response to external regulatory cues. In young ovaries, gonadotropins pace growing follicle cohorts, ensuring

appropriate progression towards ovulation or atresia, with immature follicles emerging at estrus. In old animals,

this pacing becomes dysregulated, with larger and more mature follicles present in estrus (**Fig. 3m**). Similarly, aged

CLs exhibit decreased expression for prolactin and prostaglandin receptors, cueing regression, which may delay

regression and increase immune cell recruitment (**Fig. 3n**).

Global inflammatory changes mark ovarian aging

Ovarian aging is marked by a global change in tissue function, including increased inflammation, which may broadly disrupt tissue homeostasis[11,86]. To examine how aging alters the stroma that may contribute to this decline, we analyzed age-related changes in stromal cell composition and function. Compositional analysis revealed an age-associated increase in surface epithelium and immune cells, alongside a reduction in steroidogenic stromal cells, occurring monotonically over young, reproductively middle-aged, and old mice[86–89] (**Fig. 4a;** compositional test with scCODA[90]; **Extended Data Fig. 4a**; **Methods**). This shift coincided with significant changes in several molecular signatures, including reduced extracellular matrix deposition genes, increased metalloproteases required for tissue remodeling, increased fibrosis, and increased inflammation[86] (**Fig. 4b; Extended Data Fig. 4b**). To further understand the spatial maintenance of inflammation, we analyzed immune gene program usage across spatial compartments and found two programs of note, program 2 (*Cd74* and *Ccl22*) that suggested a possible role in wound healing[87–89,91], and program 3, characterized by pro-inflammatory markers *Lyz2* (lysozyme 2), *Gpnmb* (glycoprotein NMB)*, and *Lgals3* (galactin-3)[92–97] (**Methods; Extended Data Fig. 4c**). While the expression of immune program 2 did not change with age (**Fig. 4c**; $P>0.05$ (ns), two-tailed t-test), immune program 3 was upregulated across all spatial compartments in older mice (**Fig. 4c**; ***$P<0.0005$, t-test), suggesting that inflammatory processes are globally upregulated with aging.

A defining feature of the aging ovary is the accumulation of multinucleated giant cells (MNGCs), derived from macrophage fusion in the stroma, which reflects global inflammation and is associated with fibrosis[11,31,98,99]. We observed MNGCs in our histological analysis of adjacent sections accompanying each Slide-seq tile, visible as masses of cellular fusion events on hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) stains, whose presence increased with age (**Fig. 4d,e**). To identify the transcriptomic features of MNGCs, we conducted image registration between adjacent pairs of H&E images and Slide-seq puck using manually selected anatomic hallmarks, then segmented MNGCs (**Fig. 4f; Methods; Extended Data Fig. 4e**). This segmentation allowed us to stratify immune cells that lie within *vs* outside of MNGCs, which we then leveraged to identify differentially expressed genes between those two compartments of the ovarian stroma. Immune spots in MNGCs showed significant upregulation of *Fth1, Lyz2, Gpnmb, Ctsd, Lgals3* (**Fig. 4g**). Notably, these genes coincide with immune program 3, whose expression is highly elevated across all spatial compartments, thereby suggesting a possible link between the accumulation of tissue-wide inflammatory processes and those in MNGCs. Taken together, these changes indicate a decreased ability of immune cells to maintain homeostasis during the cyclical remodeling that occurs within the stromal compartment of the ovary, instead compounding inflammation and fibrosis.

A model for global tissue disorganization in ovarian aging

We hypothesized that multicellular changes in the ovarian stroma during aging collectively disrupt coordination between follicles. To test this, we analyzed the spatial organization of entire niches by assessing the co-localization of homotypic follicles. At smaller length scales (neighborhood radius <500 µm), both preantral and atretic follicles

were highly co-localized amongst themselves in young but not in aged mice (**Fig. 4h; Methods**). These findings

align with prior studies highlighting the importance of follicle crowding, particularly during early follicle activation

and among preantral follicles[100,101]. Decreased preantral clustering with age is hypothesized to result in part due to

the increased rigidity of the ovarian extracellular matrix[51,86]. The observed co-localization of atretic follicles in

young mice suggests a role for spatially regulated paracrine signaling during follicle selection, potentially mediated

by the dominant follicle. In contrast, antral follicles did not co-localize at small length scales in either young or old

mice, supporting the hypothesis that dominant follicles act as isolated "islands" during follicle selection. However,

the co-localization of antral follicles at larger spatial scales (neighborhood radius > 2000 μm) in both young and

old mice may simply reflect the overall larger size of the ovary in young mice (~3000 μm in total diameter). These

results highlight the changing landscape of follicular crowding and global tissue organization with aging, in

particular, the decreased density of preantral follicles that may impact interfollicular communication and

coordinated follicular dynamics.

The loss of global spatial organization in aged ovaries suggests that inflammatory changes disrupt both individual

follicle function and their coordinated development, thereby indicating molecular hallmarks of ovarian aging at the

level of cells, niches and the full tissue (**Fig. 4j**). At the level of the oocyte, reproductive function is impaired as the

total number of maturing oocytes per tissue declines and the gene expression state of the remaining oocytes changes

with age. These changes in oocytes interact with alterations in their surrounding niches: within individual follicles,

inflammatory gene expression shifts, and entire niches become less responsive to the estrous cycle. This is

demonstrated by the fraction of preantral follicles that no longer vary with stage in old mice and by the accumulation

of late CLs in ovaries of old mice due to impaired clearing. Meanwhile, at the level of the organ, the surface

epithelium thickens, and the stroma becomes dominated by aberrant inflammation that includes the build-up of

MNGCs. In summary, age-related inflammation progressively compromises tissue organization and remodeling

across multiple spatial scales, from cellular composition to multicellular structure arrangements.

Discussion

Using spatial transcriptomics with near cellular spot resolution, we analyzed 310 oocytes, 653 total follicles, and

234 corpora lutea (CL) in their native tissue context to reveal fundamental principles of ovarian tissue organization

and their age-related dysregulation. We used spatially contextualized gene expression profiles to map out transitions

of entire spatial niches during folliculogenesis, leveraging static tissue snapshots that capture asynchronous stages

of a dynamic process. Our findings highlight the governing principles of homeostatic remodeling of the ovary driven

by temporally fluctuating hormone functions of granulosa cells (GCs), changes in cell-cell communication between

the oocyte and its surrounding cells, and hormonal features of entire follicles. By examining entire multicellular

structures rather than isolated cells, we uncovered key principles of ovarian organization: radial specialization

within follicles, local coordination between neighboring structures, and tissue-wide patterns of immune function

that become dysregulated with age.

The spatial organization of GCs within follicles represents an elegant solution to competing metabolic demands. By segregating proliferative activity to inner GCs while outer cells specialize in hormone sensing and production, follicles can simultaneously maintain growth while developing distinct endocrine functions[64,102]. As hormone signaling and production are energy and resource-intensive processes, it may be advantageous to limit these functions to a subset of cells within follicles. Localizing GC hormone functions to the follicle edge likely promotes rapid signaling exchange with the vasculature and stroma, enabling swift endocrine responses critical for follicular maturation. This spatial arrangement allows peripheral GCs to differentiate and support steroidogenesis without compromising the proliferative capacity of less mature, inner GCs. Furthermore, this radial organization of hormone signaling components suggests a potential mechanism for signal propagation via a gradient from the follicular periphery to the oocyte to coordinate maturation, and that dysregulation in such spatial coordination of GCs may contribute to atresia. Our observations identify multiple features of atresia: atretic signals are at the outer edge of the follicles, the spatial division of labor between hormone sensing and synthesis in GCs is lost, and immune cells infiltrate follicles. However, cues of and trajectories to atresia are not yet fully elucidated[17,103–105].

Our findings reshape our understanding of temporal coordination in ovarian function. While the ovulation cycle is often viewed primarily as a mechanism for oocyte release, our results highlight the extensive tissue-wide remodeling of the entire ovary required for successful cycling. The precise temporal patterns we observed in young mice, from follicle activation to CL clearance, suggest that local tissue organization plays a crucial role in cycle progression. For example, global neuroendocrine signals governing follicle selection synchronize the development of antral follicles within specific temporal windows of the estrous cycle. The breakdown of this temporal coordination with age, even before cycle cessation, indicates that spatial organization and temporal progression are intricately linked. We note that these multicellular features of reproductive function in young mice and their progressive dysfunction in old mice are exceptionally dynamic with an estrous cycle length of only four days. On this time scale, spatial transcriptomics is a useful method to capture snapshots of meaningful niche transitions and has allowed us here to describe changes across scales, from radial heterogeneity within follicles, to variation across follicles, and spatial patterns of follicle co-localization that underscore the importance of interfollicular coordination.

The age-related changes we observed suggest a model where disruption of tissue organization triggers a cascade of dysfunction. The extended presence of late CLs that fail to clear from the prior cycle may also contribute to the age-related decline in systemic progesterone levels[106]. Failed clearance of CL appears to trigger chronic immune recruitment, evidenced by elevated levels of *Ccl2* expression in the luteal cells of the aged ovary, while the emergence of multinucleated giant cells signals a shift from homeostatic to inflammatory immune function. The loss of spatial correlation between neighboring follicles suggests that age-related stromal changes disrupt extracellular matrix remodeling and paracrine signaling necessary for coordinated development. These changes precede the end of cycling, suggesting they may represent early events in reproductive aging.

These results have potential implications for understanding and mitigating human reproductive aging, which
remains challenging to profile at scale and high temporal resolution. The observation that spatial and temporal
coordination break down before cycle cessation suggests new approaches for detecting and potentially intervening
in age-related fertility decline. Additionally, the role of tissue-wide organization in maintaining function suggests
that therapeutic strategies may need to target the entire ovarian environment rather than focusing solely on oocytes
or follicles.

Several key questions emerge from our findings. First, how do GCs maintain distinct functional zones despite their
high proliferation rate? Second, what signals coordinate states between neighboring follicles? Understanding these
mechanisms could reveal new principles of tissue organization. Third, where do regressed CLs go? Fourth, how
does the relationship between immune function and tissue organization change during aging? Immune cells play
critical functions in maintaining tissue homeostasis in the ovary, particularly during the clearance of atretic follicles
and regressing CLs[107]. Aging disrupts the homeostatic tissue remodeling that governs the organ-intrinsic "clock"
regulating ovulatory cycles. Whether interventions targeting inflammatory pathways could preserve ovarian
function with age is an open question.

We acknowledge several limitations in our study. While spatial transcriptomics provides unprecedented insights
into tissue organization, we lack direct observation of fate decisions, for example pinpointing the exact step in our
molecular representation of folliculogenesis at which atresia begins or which follicles contain successfully ovulated
oocytes. Future studies combining this approach with lineage tracing could reveal how spatial patterns influence
developmental trajectories. Additionally, consistent with previous observations, our studies in C57BL/6 mice
showed increased inflammation during aging, but the role of fibrosis remains unclear[108]. We did not observe a
decline in the vascularization of CLs in aged ovaries, which may reflect a strain-specific difference as well as the
impact of superovulation used in a prior study[109]. Additionally, validation in human tissue will be important for
translating these findings into clinical applications.

Here we demonstrate that ovarian function requires precisely coordinated spatial and temporal organization across
multiple scales, from cell-type specific patterning within follicles to tissue-wide immune function and that spatial
transcriptomics technologies have the chance to capture meaningful multicellular transitions if carefully analyzed,
positioning this methodology as a key instrument to derive mechanistic insights into reproductive function.
Understanding how this organization fails with age opens new avenues for preserving fertility and ovarian endocrine
function.

Figure 1. A spatiotemporal map of the cycling and aging ovary identifies spatial niches driving folliculogenesis.

a. Overview of experimental design and workflow. Profiling the cycling and aging murine ovary using near-single-cell resolution spatial transcriptomics. Mice were staged using vaginal cytology and harvested at the estrus and metestrus stages, totaling n=21 mice sampled across young (10-12 weeks), middle (36-40 weeks), and old (52-54 weeks) age groups. Multiple non-adjacent sections were sampled from each ovary with a minimum gap of 200 μm to reduce resampling of the same follicle or corpus luteum (CL) structure. Tissue sections (10 μm thickness) were profiled with Slide-seq and adjacent sections were taken for histological analysis.

b. Cell types of the mouse ovary identified by unsupervised clustering of gene expression profiles obtained from Slide-seq spots. UMAP embedding of RNA profiles captured by Slide-seq spots (n=601,831; each at 10 μm resolution) across all 68 Slide-seq pucks (**Methods**). Spots are colored by cluster and post hoc annotation (color legend). "GC": granulosa cell clusters. Right: Mean expression (log normalized counts, dot color) and proportion of expressing cells (dot size) of marker genes (columns) in each group used for annotating cell type clusters (rows).

c. Spatial projection of cell type labels of spots on a representative Slide-seq puck. Spots corresponding to select cell types that delineate the parenchyma (follicles, CL) are shown; all other cell types are shown in gray. The corresponding adjacent H&E section is shown below. Right: deconstruction of multiple cell types that comprise an example follicle.

d. Segmentation pipeline for the identification of key morphological and functional structures of the ovary. Left: Large oocyte (pink) transcriptomes sampled across multiple spots were combined to reflect their single-cell origin (dark blue), while presumed primordial oocytes (light blue) were detected using a separate pipeline (**Methods**). Large multicellular segments of follicles and CL were detected by unsupervised clustering on the spatial neighborhood graph of core cell types (pink: oocyte, green: GC, orange: theca, blue: luteal) (**Methods**). Right: Summary of all detected follicle and CL segments.

e. Schematic overview of folliculogenesis and CL formation. GCs form a single layer around a dormant oocyte in primordial follicles. Activation triggers GCs to proliferate, forming the preantral follicle. The follicle then transitions to the gonadotropin-dependent antral stage during which a fluid-filled cavity forms the antrum. Theca cells are recruited to create an outer layer, and GCs differentiate into multiple subtypes. Follicle atresia can occur during any stage of folliculogenesis. After ovulation, GCs luteinize into luteal cells that form the CL, which is subsequently cleared from the tissue.

f. Mean expression (log normalized counts and variance-scaled) of key hormone receptors and synthesis genes (columns) across each segment type (rows). Genes are arranged based on their involvement in gonadotropin-independent, gonadotropin-dependent growth, and luteinization.

g. Mean expression (log normalized counts and variance-scaled) of marker genes (columns) within composite oocytes organized by the enclosing follicle at different stages of folliculogenesis (rows).

h. Transcriptomic diversity of oocytes measured *in situ*. Left: Principal component (PC) embedding of *n*=345 composite oocyte RNA profiles (dot) indicating the stage of its enclosing follicle (color). Center: Example spatial

477   plots of two pucks showing oocytes (colored dots) in their native tissue context depicting the stage of its enclosing

478   follicle (color), with surrounding GC spots (dark gray). Right: expression (color) of oocyte gene programs identified

479   via non-negative matrix factorization (**Methods**). Top genes contributing to each oocyte gene program, gray text

480   box.

Figure 2. Spatiotemporal coordination within follicular niches across folliculogenesis.

a. Top: spatial plot of an example puck showing follicular cell types (colors), including preantral, antral early mitotic, antral mitotic, antral luteinizing, and atretic granulosa cell (GC) subtypes, and oocyte and theca. Bottom: Mean proportion of each GC subtype (colored lines, y axis) within each follicle type (panels) as a function of the relative radial distance from the follicle center (x axis), scaled from 0 (follicle center) to 1 (follicle edge) across 10 uniform bins. Shaded lines represent the standard error of the mean (SEM) fraction across follicles within each radial bin. Monotonically significant radial trends are indicated (*P<0.05, Spearman correlation coefficient).

b. Diffusion pseudotime (dpt) trajectory analysis of GCs. Left: Spatial plot of an example puck showing GC dpt values (colorbar) calculated separately across two follicle fates, non-atretic (purple) and atretic (orange). Right: Mean dpt of GCs (y axis) across the relative radial distance from the follicle center (x axis), scaled from 0 to 1 as before; shaded lines represent the SEM across follicles within each radial bin. Monotonically significant radial trends are indicated (*P<0.05, Spearman correlation coefficient).

c. Cell cycle analysis of GCs. Left: spatial plot of an example puck showing the cell cycle state (cycling, G2M/S, pink; non-cycling, G1, gray; **Methods**). Right: Mean proportion of GCs in cycling or noncycling state (y axis) across the relative radial distance from the follicle center (x axis), scaled from 0 to 1 as before; shaded lines represent the SEM across follicles within each radial bin. Monotonically significant radial trends are indicated (*P<0.05, Spearman correlation coefficient).

d. GC gene programs identified by cNMF (**Methods**). Left: Spatial plot of an example puck showing the expression of two distinct programs (colorbar) related to hormone regulation, FSH regulation (top) and steroid hormone synthesis (bottom). Top contributing genes of each program are shown in the gray box. Right: Mean usage score of each program in GCs (y axis) across the relative radial distance from the follicle center (x axis), scaled from 0 to 1 as before; shaded lines represent the SEM across follicles within each radial bin. For each program (FSH regulation, top; steroidogenesis, bottom), its radial usage is shown among non-atretic antral follicles (purple) and atretic follicles (orange). Non-atretic follicles: FSH regulation program, Spearman ρ=-0.61, *P<0.05; steroidogenesis program, Spearman ρ=0.91, **P<0.01.

e. Schematic of inferring multicellular transitions between follicles using optimal transport, by aligning pairs of follicles based on their distributional distance. Pairing of transcriptionally similar cells (e.g. GC to GC) incurs a low distance, while pairing transcriptionally different cells (e.g. theca to GC) incurs a high distance.

f. Result from optimal transport-based calculation of segment-segment similarity. Left: Pairwise transition matrix between all segments (rows, columns) of young mice showing the transport cost (color, blue gradient) organized by unsupervised hierarchical clustering (dendrogram, axes). Segment type is annotated by their corresponding color in **g**. Right: UMAP embedding of all segments (dots) based on their transport cost matrix, follicles (pale green) and corpora lutea (yellow and purple).

g,h. Interpolation of the folliculogenesis trajectory. UMAP embedding of follicles only (dots) based on their transport cost matrix, colored by their segment type (**g**) and the inferred folliculogenesis a diffusion pseudotime progression (dpt, colorscale) of each follicle (dot) (**h**).

i. Cell type composition (colors, y axis) of each follicle (bars, x axis) ordered by their folliculogenesis diffusion
pseudotime as in **h**.
j. Mean proportion of immune cells within follicles (y axis), by follicle type (color, lines), across the relative radial
distance from the follicle center (x axis), scaled from 0 to 1 as before; shaded lines represent the SEM across
follicles within each radial bin. Comparison of the immune fraction between atretic *vs* aggregated non-atretic
follicles, based on the distribution of immune fraction across individual follicles within each radial bin
(***P<0.0005, Tukey's test; **Methods**).
k. UMAPs of inferred folliculogenesis trajectory showing mean ligand-receptor expression scores (color) in each
follicle (dot), based on significant interactions identified by MultiNicheNet (**Methods**). The ligand (panel title, left)
and its corresponding receptor (panel title, right) are colored by the cell type expressing each component (legend).
527

Figure 3. Aging disrupts the temporal variation in folliculogenesis and corpus luteum (CL) clearance.

a-f. Follicle characteristics in young (**a-c**) and old mice (**d-f**). **a,d.** Fraction of each follicle type per puck (y axis) across samples from estrus and metestrus (x axis; **$P<0.005$, ns – not significant, two-tailed t test). **b,e.** Boxplot of diffusion pseudotime of follicles (dpt; y axis) by stage (x axis, bar shading) (**$P<0.005$, ns – not significant; two-tailed t-test of means). Center line indicates median, box bounds represent first and third quartiles, whiskers span from each quartile to the minimum or the maximum (1.5 interquartile range below 25% or above 75% quartiles). **c,f.** Mean expression of key hormone receptor genes (x axis) of individual follicles grouped by follicle type (color) and across stages (bar shading). Error bars: SEM of gene expression of individual follicles across follicle types (*$P<0.05$, ***$P<0.01$, two-tailed t-test; all other bar groups, not significant).

g. Total composite oocyte count (y axis) by enclosing follicle type (color) across age groups (x axis).

h. Differentially expressed genes of oocytes across age. Select genes whose composite expression patterns (y axis) in maturing oocytes (dots) significantly changed across age (color; *$P<0.05$, **$P<0.005$, ***$P<0.0005$, two-tailed t-test, Benjamini-Hochberg correction; **Methods**). Significant genes were first identified by comparing young and old oocytes, then tested pairwise between young, middle, and old to identify monotonic trends.

i. Fraction of each CL type within estrus stage, calculated per puck (y axis) and grouped by age (x axis). Error bars: standard deviation of the CL fraction across pucks.

j. Composition of major cell types in CL subtypes. Boxplot showing distribution of spot (y axis, $\log_{10}$ scale) core cell types (luteal (early and late combined), immune, vascular; color) across the two types of corpora lutea, CL – early and CL – late (***$P<0.001$, ****$P<0.0001$, ns – not significant; two tailed t-test of means). Boxplot elements same as in **b,e**.

k. Spatial plots of four example pucks, shown across stage (estrus *vs.* metestrus) and age (young *vs.* old). Cell types (color) shown: luteal (blues) and immune (yellow); all other cell types, gray.

l. Mean expression (log normalized counts, dot color) and proportion of CL - late segments (dot size) expressing selected genes (x-axis) involved in CL clearance and immune cell recruitment, grouped by age and stage (rows).

m. Schematic overview of age-related changes in folliculogenesis across the estrous cycle. Maturation state of follicles in old and young animals. Relative levels of pituitary gonadotropins FSH (blue) and LH (pink) across estrus stages (diestrus (D), proestrus (P), estrus (E), metestrus (M)), and their corresponding receptor expression in antral follicles.

n. Schematic overview of age-related changes in CL clearance across the estrous cycle. CL formation, immune recruitment, and clearance in young and old animals. Relative levels of CL-derived progesterone (P4) and CL-maintenance signal prolactin (PRL) across estrus and metestrus.

Figure 4. Loss of tissue-wide homeostatic remodeling with aging.

a. Compositional changes of select stroma cell types across aging. Left: Proportion (y axis) of each cell type (x axis) for individual pucks (points) and averaged across pucks (bars). Credible and significant changes in composition with age was determined using scCODA using all cell types (**Extended Data Fig. 4a)** with "Epithelial – oviduct" as the reference (**Methods**; black bars). Right: Mean proportion of all other cell types within individual pucks (y bars) across ages (x axis); full distribution shown in **Extended Data Fig. 4a**.

b. Mean expression (log normalized counts and variance-scaled) of genes differentially expressed across ages involved in extracellular matrix remodeling and inflammation (columns) in stromal cells ("stromal – non-steroidogenic", "stromal – steroidogenic", "fibroblast") across age groups (rows). Genes were identified through differential expression analysis across young and old stromal spots (**Methods**).

c. Changes in immune gene program usage across spatial niches and age. Mean expression of immune programs 2 and 3 (y axis) determined by NMF within immune spots, grouped by segment assignment (x axis) and age (color). Top gene correlates of each program are shown in the gray box. Comparison of program scores in young *vs* old (***P<0.0005, two tailed t-test). Error bars: standard error of mean expression across segments.

d. Identification of multi-nucleated giant cells (MNGCs) from histology sections. Example of hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) stained section of an aged ovary. Masks were manually drawn around MNGCs (**Methods**).

e. Distribution of histology sections (y axis) annotated with MNGC content across age groups (x axis). All puck-adjacent histology sections were stained with H&E and manually annotated for MNGC content and labelled as 'MNGC high' or 'MNGC low' (**Methods**).

f. Example registration of MNGC masks from H&E images to Slide-seq spots from adjacent sections using Napari (**Methods**). Slide-seq spots are annotated by their annotated cell type (colors) as described above.

g. Marker genes of stromal immune cells in old mice that contrast immune cell spots within MNGCs with those outside of MNGCs. Mean expression (log normalized counts, dot color) and proportion of expressing immune cells (dot size) of differentially expressed genes (rows) in MNGCs *vs* stromal (rows). Genes were identified by differential expression analysis (**Methods**).

h. Spatial neighborhood analysis of co-localization patterns among homotypic follicles. Z-scores of follicle co-localization (y axis) as a function of increasing spatial radius (x axis) on the spatial neighborhood graph, tested across step sizes of 200 μm, compared to the null (z-score 0, black dotted line). Co-localization test was conducted across three follicle types (from top to bottom: preantral, antral, atretic) and within each age group (colors).

i. Schematic overview of hallmarks of the aging ovary. Aging impacts key processes underlying tissue-wide homeostasis, impacting both the reproductive and endocrine functions of the ovary. In young ovaries (green), temporal regulation of folliculogenesis, spatial domain integrity, immune homeostasis, and healthy stromal remodeling are preserved, supporting proper ovarian function. In contrast, aged ovaries (blue) exhibit loss of temporal regulation, delayed corpus luteum clearance, tissue disorganization, follicle depletion, accumulation of MNGCs, inflammation, fibrosis, and thickened surface epithelium, contributing to functional decline.

Extended Data Figure 1. Classification and characteristics of segments driving folliculogenesis.

a. Boxplot showing the distribution of spot-level cell type composition (y axis, colors) across segment labels (x

axis). Boxplot: center line indicates median, box bounds represent first and third quartiles, whiskers span from each

quartile to the minimum or the maximum (1.5 interquartile range below 25% or above 75% quartiles).

b. Principal component analysis (PCA) of segments based on cell type composition. Left: PCA representation of

segments labeled by their assigned type (color). Right: PCA of segments by spot counts.

c. Spatial visualization of luteal cell markers of an example puck. Top: cluster annotation showing early (light blue)

and late (dark blue) luteal cells. Middle and bottom: expression of luteal subtype markers *Parm1* and *Akr1c18*

shown as normalized expression values (blue intensity scale bars, right). All other cell types shown as gray spots.

d. Pearson correlation coefficient (red/blue colorbar) of pairwise gene expression across oocytes (rows and

columns) using the top 12 genes of each program identified by consensus non-negative matrix factorization (cNMF),

ordered by hierarchical clustering.

e. Mean expression (color) and distribution (shape, kernel density estimate) of oocyte gene programs (x axis) by the

enclosing follicle type (y axis). Comparison of program scores across enclosing follicle types (*$P<0.05$, **$P<0.01$,

***$P<0.001$, ****$P<0.0001$, ns – not significant; two-tailed t-test).

f. Visualization of oocyte gene program usage on a principal component analysis (PCA) embedding of oocyte

composite transcriptomes.

Extended Data Figure 2. Spatial and molecular determinants of coordination in follicular niches.

a. Schematic depicting the radial analysis of follicles. The scaled radial distance (r) from the follicular center

(centroid, "x") of each granulosa (GC) spot was used for all radial analyses. Radially concentric bins, in increments

of 10 uniformly spaced bins, were used to aggregate spot-level characteristics.

b,c. Diffusion map embedding (DC2, DC3) of GCs (spots) across the luteinizing (**b**) and atretic (**c**) lineages, colored

by their two terminal fates ("GC – antral luteinizing", "GC – atretic"), annotated with the spot used as root (black

dot) for inferring the diffusion pseudotime (dpt).

d. Stability and error metrics for the selection of the optimal number of components (k) in cNMF analysis. Stability

(y axis, blue) and reconstruction error (y axis, red) were computed across k=3-24 (x axis) during factorization using

cNMF.

e. Top contributing genes to the 16 GC gene programs identified through consensus non-negative matrix

factorization (cNMF). Each subplot represents one of the 16 gene programs, showing the top contributing genes (x-

axis) and their contribution scores (y-axis). Contribution scores reflect the weight of each gene in their

corresponding program, highlighting genes with key roles in the biological processes captured by each program.

Programs 2 and 3 are annotated with functional descriptions related to FSH regulation and steroidogenesis,

respectively.

f. Mean expression (red colorscale; log normalized counts and variance-scaled) of GC programs (rows, columns).

GCs were grouped by their dominant program, defined as the program with the highest usage, then calculated for

their within-group mean program score.

g. Mean proportion of immune cells within follicles (y axis) by follicle type (color, lines) across the relative distance

from the follicle center (x axis), scaled from 0 to 1 as before; shaded lines represent the standard error of the mean

across follicles within each radial bin. Comparison of the immune fraction between atretic *vs* aggregated non-atretic

follicles containing an oocyte, based on the distribution of immune fraction across individual follicles within each

radial bin (P<0.005, Tukey HSDMann-Whitney U test; **Methods**).

h. Mean proportion of endothelial cells within follicles (y axis) by follicle type (color, lines) across the relative

radial distance from the follicle center (x axis), scaled from 0 to 1 as before; shaded lines represent the standard

error of the mean across follicles within each radial bin.

i. Circos plot of the top receptor-ligand interactions enriched in preantral (left), antral (center), and atretic (right)

follicles from MultiNicheNet. Interactions significantly enriched in each follicle type are shown by arrows starting

from ligands (bottom half) of a "sender" cell type (color) to the corresponding receptor (top half) of a

"receiver" cell type (color).

Extended Data Figure 3. Age-associated temporal dysregulation of folliculogenesis and corpus luteum (CL)

progression.

a,b. Distribution of follicle sizes in young (**a**) and old (**b**) mice. Boxplot of the follicle size (number of granulosa

spots; y axis) by follicle type (x axis) and stage (bar shading) (**$P<0.005$, two-tailed t-test of means). Boxplot:

center line indicates the median, box bounds represent the first and third quartiles, and whiskers span from each

quartile to the minimum or the maximum (1.5 interquartile range below 25% or above 75% quartiles).

c. Distribution of follicle pseudotime in young and old mice. Boxplot of follicle pseudotime in old and young

across stages. Boxplot elements: same as in **a,b**.

d. Differentially expressed genes in aging oocytes. Significance (y axis, $-\log_{10}$(P-value)) and effect size as $\log_2$fold

change (x axis) for genes (dots) that are differentially expressed between young and old. Significant genes (color;

Benjamini-Hochberg FDR<5%, log2FC>1) are annotated with select genes.

e. Mean expression in oocytes (log normalized counts and variance-scaled) of *Nlrp9*-family genes (columns)

grouped by the enclosing follicle type (rows), in young (left) and old (right) mice.

f. Distribution of immune spot proportion in CL segments. Boxplot of percentage of immune spots calculated per

segment (y axis) by stage (x axis) and CL segment ytpe (bar shading) (**$P<0.005$, ***$P<0.0005$; two-tailed t-test

of means). Boxplot elements: same as in **a,b**.

Extended Data Figure 4. Global changes in aged ovaries.

a. Distribution of cell type composition (y axis) across pucks (dot) and the mean composition across pucks (bars) within each age group (color). Credible and significant changes determined by scCODA indicated by black bars (**Methods**).

b. Differentially expressed genes in aging stromal cells (fibroblasts, stromal – nonsteroidogenic, stromal – steroidogenic). Significance (y axis, -$\log_{10}$(P-value)) and effect size as $\log_2$-fold change (x axis) for genes (dots) that are differentially expressed between young and old. Significant genes (color; Benjamini-Hochberg FDR<5%, log2FC>1) are annotated with select genes.

c. Pearson correlation coefficient (colorbar) of pairwise gene expression across immune spots (rows and columns) using the top genes of each program identified by consensus non-negative matrix factorization (cNMF), ordered by hierarchical clustering.

d. Mean expression of immune program 3 (y axis) associated with pro-inflammatory signatures across the relative distance from the follicle center (x axis), scaled from 0 to 1. Shaded line: standard error of the mean across follicles within each radial bin. Expression bins are separated by follicle type (color) among young mice (left) and old mice (right).

e. Transcriptional signatures of multi-nucleated giant cells (MNGCs). Stromal immune spots were separated into four categories based on age (young *vs* old) and MNGC content (low *vs* high), then examined for differentially expressed genes across these four categories. Mean expression (log normalized counts, dot color) and proportion of expressing stromal immune cells (dot size) of differentially expressed genes (columns) in each age-MNGC category (rows).

Extended Data Figure 5. Identifying contaminated oocyte spots using non-negative matrix factorization
(NMF).
Two iterations of oocyte spot decontamination.
a-d. Identifying contaminated oocyte spots through a two-step iteration, with the first iteration in **a,b** to remove
contaminant spots, followed by a second iteration in **c,d** to further remove residual contaminants.
a,c. Gene programs identified through NMF on oocyte spots using k=8 programs. Correlation scores (left, x axis)
of the top 12 genes (left, y axis) and their program usage on a UMAP projection (right) of oocyte spots. Programs
identified as contamination based on the expression of known cumulus and granulosa marker genes are labeled as
'Contaminant' (first iteration: programs 1, 2, 4, and 6; second iteration: program 1).
b,d. Distribution of program scores (y axis, kernel density estimate) grouped by the top gene program (x axis) for
each spot (dots). Distributions were used to manually set program-specific thresholds for removing contaminants.
First iteration thresholds: Program 1: > 0.4, Program 2: > 0.3, Program 4: > 0.3, Program 6: > 0.4. Second iteration
thresholds: Program 1: > 0.3.

METHODS

Mice.

Buck mice. Female C57BL/6J (Jax 000664) mice were bred at the University of San Francisco (UCSF). All mice

were maintained under SPF conditions on a 12-hour light-dark cycle, at ambient temperature $21.5 + 1\degree C$ and relative

humidity between 30% and 70% and provided food and water ad libitum. All mouse experiments were approved

by and performed in accordance with the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee guidelines at UCSF on a

mouse protocol under Zachary Knight.

Broad mice. Female C57BL/6J (Jax 000664) mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory at ages 10, 36,

and 50 weeks. Mice were acclimated to the vivarium for 2 days ("Broad cohort 1") or 2 weeks ("Broad cohort 2")

upon arrival. All mice were maintained under SPF conditions on a 12-hour light-dark cycle, at ambient temperature

$21.5 \pm 1\degree C$ and relative humidity between 30% and 70% and provided food and water ad libitum. All mouse

experiments were approved by and performed in accordance with the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee

guidelines at the Broad Institute on a mouse protocol under H.C. and F.C.

Estrous cycle staging mice by vaginal cytology.

Buck mice. Mice collected at UCSF were staged near-daily for 8 consecutive days using vaginal cytology, as

previously described[110,111]. A total volume of 100 μL sterile saline (in 20-50 μL increments) was expelled 5-10

times with a P200 pipette into the vaginal canal, taking care to avoid touching the vaginal opening with the pipette

tip then expelled onto a glass slide and imaged immediately using Nikon Eclipse Ts2 (10X objective) and a Nikon

DS Qi2 camera.

Broad mice. Female mice were staged near-daily for 8 consecutive days using vaginal cytology, as previously

described[110,111]. Briefly, mini-tip flocked nasopharyngeal swabs (VWR SLIN501CS01) were moistened with sterile

PBS, and ~1/4th of the flocked tip was inserted into the vaginal canal of manually restrained mice. Swabs were

rotated 5 times clockwise, 5 times counterclockwise, and then smeared onto a non-treated glass slide (VWR #16004-

422). Slides were air-dried and stained with a 0.1% crystal violet solution (Jorgenson #J0322) for 1–2 minutes.

Excess stain was rinsed with PBS and sterile water, and the slides were counterstained with 1% eosin (Jorgenson

#J0322A) for 10–20 seconds. Following the counterstaining step, slides were rinsed again, air-dried completely,

examined under a light microscope, and imaged with a Leica Aperio VERSA Brightfield, Fluorescence & FISH

Digital Pathology Scanner, using the 20x objective.

Cytology evaluation identified the predominant cell types (epithelial cells, cornified cells, and leukocytes), enabling

the classification of the estrous cycle stages (proestrus, estrus, metestrus, and diestrus) as previously described[110,111].

In brief, proestrus, estrus, and diestrus are characterized by a predominance of nucleated epithelial cells, cornified

epithelial cells, or leukocytes, respectively, while metestrus is identified by a mixture of cornified epithelial cells

and leukocytes[112,113]. The time course of the estrous cycle is in **Extended Data Table 1**.

Tissue collection.

Once identified to be in the appropriate estrous stage for collection, mice were placed under anesthesia with 3%

isoflurane for 1 minute and maintained via a nose cone flowing 1% isoflurane. Anesthesia was confirmed by the

absence of a pedal reflex. Transcardial perfusion was performed with PBS through the left ventricle to remove blood

from tissues before entire ovaries were removed and immediately frozen on dry ice in a cryomold containing

Optimal Cutting Temperature (OCT) compound. Tissues were then either processed immediately or stored at -80°C

for storage.

In situ **transcriptome processing via Slide-seq.**

Tissue sections were processed and sequenced using Slide-seq v2 as previously described[5]. Slide-seq arrays were

purchased from Curio Biosciences (Curio Seeker) or prepared in-house using custom-synthesized barcoded beads

functionalized   with   the   sequence[28]

(5'TTT_PC_GCCGGTAATACGACTCACTATAGGGCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTJJJJJJJTCTTCAGC

GTTCCCGAGAJJJJJJNNNNNNNNVVT30-3') with a photocleavable linker (PC), a bead barcode sequence (J, 14

bp), a UMI sequence (NNNNNNNVV, 9 bp), and a poly dT tail. The sample table of all Slide-seq data, denoting

the puck origin and other metadata, is in **Extended Data Table 2**.

OCT-embedded frozen tissue samples were warmed to -20°C, sectioned to 10 μm on a cryostat (Leica CM3050S),

placed on a pre-cooled Slide-seq array and melted onto the array by warming it briefly. For each sample, 2-3 sections

for Slide-seq were collected >200 μm to maximize sampling diversity of tissue sub-structures and consecutive

sections were collected for hematoxylin and eosin staining. The affixed tissue section and array was moved into a

1.5 mL Eppendorf tube for tissue digestion and transcriptomic library preparation as previously described[5,6]. The

last library amplification was performed in a final volume of 200 μL of PCR mix, divided into four 0.2 ml tubes

and cycled with the following program: 1 cycle of 98°C for 2 min, 4 cycles of 98°C for 20 s, 65°C for 45 s, 72°C

for 3 min, 9 cycles of 98°C for 20 s, 67°C for 20 s, 72°C for 3 min, and 1 cycle of 72°C for 5 min. Libraries were

sequenced using the following read structure on a NextSeq 1000/2000 (P2; Illumina) or NovaSeq (S4 or X;

Illumina): Read1: 42 bp; Read2: 50bp; Index1: 8 bp, and sequences were processed as previously described[5] using

the pipeline available at (https://github.com/MacoskoLab/slideseq-tools).

Hematoxylin and eosin stain of adjacent histology sections.

Serial sections of 10 μm thickness were obtained from the frozen tissue samples and mounted onto glass microscope

slides (VWR SuperForst 48311-703). Using a Leica ST5010 Autostainer XL (Leica Biosystems), sections were

immersed in xylene, sequentially processed through a graded ethanol series (100% and 95%), and then stained with

hematoxylin (Leica Biosystems 3801571). The nuclei were differentiated with mild acid treatment (Leica

Biosystems 3803598), followed by "bluing" through exposure to a weakly alkaline solution (Leica Biosystems

3802918) and subsequent water washing. Sections were then stained with Eosin (Leica Biosystems 3801616),

processed through a graded ethanol series (100% and 95%), xylene, dehydrated, and finally coverslipped using the

Leica CV5030 Fully Automated Glass Coverslipper. Brightfield images were captured with the Leica Aperio

VERSA Brightfield, Fluorescence & FISH Digital Pathology Scanner, using the 20x objective.

Pre-processing of spatial transcriptomics data.

Raw sequencing reads were demultiplexed using Cellranger (v.6.1.2) mkfastq (10x Genomics)[114] and aligned to

the mouse mm10 reference genome using STAR v2.7.8a with default parameters[115]. Spatial barcode assignment

and bead-based feature extraction were performed using the Slide-seq pipeline (v2022-01-01) and represented as

a gene-by-spot expression matrix directly within the Slide-seq pipeline for downstream analyses[5,6].

Initial data processing.

Gene expression data of individual pucks were concatenated using an outer join. Spatial coordinates were assigned

by matching barcodes from puck-specific barcode matching files. Metadata, including puck and sample IDs, estrous

stage, and animal age category, were appended to the AnnData object. The combined dataset was filtered to retain

spots with at least 50 detected genes and 150 UMI counts. For spot clustering and embeddings, all gene expression

values were scaled and centered. The top 5,000 highly variable genes were identified from log-normalized counts

across all batches using Scanpy's highly_variable_genes function (batch key=puck)[116]. Dimensionality reduction

was conducted by first regressing out total UMI counts on log-normalized counts, then conducting principal

component analysis (PCA) on highly variable genes, followed by correcting for puck-specific batch effects using a

PyTorch implementation of Harmony[117], then constructing a nearest-neighbor graph with k=10 neighbors using the

top 40 principal components. Unsupervised clusters of spots were identified with the Leiden algorithm[94]

(resolution=1.5) and visualized using UMAP[118], all implemented in Scanpy[116] (v1.10.1).

Smear removal.

Smearing artifacts were manually identified and removed using an interactive selection tool. Spatial scatter plots

were generated using Squidpy to visualize cell spots color-coded by cluster identity[97]. Using an interactive

LassoSelector widget, regions of spots suspected of containing technical artifacts were removed and excluded from

further analyses. This process was repeated for each puck, resulting in refined AnnData objects free from smear

artifacts. Following smear removal, the dataset was re-processed to refine dimensionality reduction and clustering

as described above, resulting in a total of n=601,831 spots from 68 spatial transcriptomes.

Unsupervised clustering and cell type annotation.

Cell types were annotated using top differentially expressed genes (DEG) identified for each Leiden cluster and

cross-referenced with established marker genes from literature[35,38,66,103,109,119–123]. DEGs were identified using

Scanpy's rank_genes_groups function with the Wilcoxon rank-sum test to detect cluster-specific marker genes.

Spatial scatter plots and UMAP embeddings were used to visualize marker gene expression and confirm cluster-

specific identities. Granulosa cells (GCs) were further subclustered by re-running Leiden clustering on GC subsets,

followed by DEG analysis and marker-based assignment. The top 50 marker genes identified for each cluster are in

Extended Data Table 3.

Spatial segmentation of oocytes, follicles, and corpora lutea (CL).

Code underlying these analyses can be found in II.2_segmentation.ipynb and II.3_segment_extension.ipynb.

Oocyte segmentation.

We defined spots in the 'Oocyte' or the 'Oocyte - cumulus' spot cluster as putative oocyte spots. 'Oocyte - cumulus'

spots were included in initial segmentation to ensure robustness against variations in cluster boundaries between

'Oocyte' and 'Oocyte - cumulus' spots but were subsequently removed from the final oocyte segments as described

below. For each puck, a spatial neighborhood graph of putative oocyte spots (radius=50) was constructed and

clustered with the Leiden algorithm[124] (resolution=0.1) to define preliminary oocyte segments. 'Oocyte - cumulus'

spots were then removed from these segments. Segments containing fewer than three spots were also discarded.

Final oocyte segments were further refined through subclustering, merging, and manual curation based on tissue

context. Details of these curation choices are documented in the supplementary code.

Additional decontamination of cumulus spots from oocyte spots.

Non-negative matrix factorization (NMF)[125] was used to identify gene programs corresponding to cumulus cell

contamination in spots labeled as oocyte from Leiden clustering. scikit-learn[126] was used to perform NMF with k=8

programs on log1p normalized counts. Programs 1 (*Kctd14, Slc18a2, Wt1*), 2 (*Lars2, Hexb, Cdk8*), 4 (*Inhba, Inhbb,*

Nap1l5), and 6 (*Col1a2, Col3a1, Cfh*) were identified as contaminating signals based on their constituent genes

(**Extended Data Fig. 5a**). Spots were annotated as contaminants if they either had these programs as their top

utilized program or if the program scores reached the following thresholds: Program 1: > 0.4, Program 2: > 0.3,

Program 4: > 0.3, Program 6: > 0.4 (**Extended Data Fig. 5b**). Spots annotated as contaminants were removed from

the object before a second round of decontamination was performed on remaining spots using NMF with k=8

programs. Program 1 (*Serpine2, Ccnd2, Kctd14*) was identified as a contaminating signal based on its constituent

genes (**Extended Data Fig. 5c**). Spots that had this program as the top utilized program, or had a program score

>0.3 were annotated as contaminants (**Extended Data Fig. 5d**) and removed from the oocyte segments for the

computation of these averages.

Identifying primordial oocytes.

To identify any remaining small, putatively primordial, oocytes, unassigned spots labeled as 'Oocyte' or expressing

primordial oocyte marker gene *Sohlh1*[34,56] that were at least 200 from an oocyte segment center were selected. A

spatial neighborhood graph of these putative primordial oocyte spots for pucks containing at least two such spots

using a radius of 20 µm to account for the expected small size of these primordial oocytes. Oocyte segments were

identified after Leiden[124] clustering (resolution=0.1). Spots labelled as 'Oocyte - cumulus' were removed from these

segments. Segments containing less than 2 spots or lacking *Sohlh1* expression were excluded.

Segmentation of follicles and corpora lutea (CL).

Spots in the 'Cumulus – oocyte', 'GC – preantral', 'GC - antral early mitotic', 'GC - antral luteinizing', 'GC - antral

mitotic', 'GC – atretic' clusters were defined as putative follicle spots, while spots in the 'Luteal - early', 'Luteal -

late' clusters were defined as putative CL spots. A spatial neighborhood graph of the putative follicle and CL spots

(radius 50 µm) was constructed and clustered with Leiden[124] (resolution=0.1 for follicles and a smaller

resolution=0.001 for CLs because they tended to be larger) for each puck, yielding segments. Segments with less

than 20 spots were removed, the remaining were then subclustered and merged as appropriate based on manual

inspection. These curation choices are documented in the supplementary code. Segments were then extended to

include additional spots from the selected GC or luteal cell types, respectively, within 50 µm of a spot already

assigned to a segment or the next closest segment if multiple were within 50 µm.

In a few cases, oocyte segments had been identified by the above oocyte segmentationbut the corresponding follicle

was either too small or irregular, resulting in partial or complete omission by this follicle segmentation pipeline. To

address these cases, unassigned spots from the above selection of follicle cell types within 50 µm of an oocyte

segment were assigned as follicle segments and grouped based on the closest oocyte segment. If these new follicle

segments were closer than 100 µm (minimal spotspot distance across a segment pair) to existing follicle segments,

the segments were merged.

To capture remaining small follicles, unassigned spots in the 'Cumulus – oocyte', 'GC – preantral', 'GC - antral

early mitotic', and 'GC – atretic' spot clusters were defined as mapping to putative small follicles. Within each

puck, one spatial neighborhood graph was each constructed for these putative follicle and CL spots (radius 20 µm)

and clustered with Leiden (resolution=0.1), resulting in additional segments. Segments with less than 5 spots

assigned were removed. Remaining segments were merged with existing follicle segments if they were within 50

µm of existing segments (minimal spot-spot distance across segment pair). The final segments were further

subclustered, merged, and reassigned to proximal oocytes as appropriate. These curation choices are documented

in the supplementary code.

Assigning proximal spots to segments.

Immune ('Immune'), endothelial (all 'Endothelial' types), theca ('Theca' and 'Stromal - steroidogenic'), and

mesenchyme ('Adipocyte', 'Stromal - nonsteroidogenic') spots were assigned to follicle or CL segments that were

less than 100 μm away.

Assigning oocytes to follicles.

Oocyte segments were assigned to the closest follicle segment if it was less than 100 μm away. These assignments

were manually curated where appropriate based on manual inspection of the segmentation results and the

surrounding tissue; these curation choices are documented in the supplementary code.

Follicles and corpora lutea (CL) segments labeling.

First, segments were assigned as follicle or CL: CL segments were classified as those in which the most frequent

spot type was a luteal type, or where the sum of the fraction of luteal types out of above granulosa (GC) and luteal

types was larger than 50%; all remaining segments were classified as follicles. (**Extended Data Fig. 1a, b**). Note

that this classification was performed on all segments from both the follicle and CL segmentation above to recover

exceptional cases in this initial segmentation. Second, more specific state labels were assigned to the resulting

follicle and CL segments. Follicle segments were labelled as 'Follicle – atretic' if more than 20% of their assigned

spots were classified as 'GC – atretic'. All other follicle segments were classified based on their most abundant GC

type ('GC – preantral' as 'Follicle – preantral', 'GC – antral luteinizing' as 'Follicle – antral luteinizing', 'GC –

antral early mitotic' and 'GC – antral mitotic' as 'Follicle – antral mitotic'). CL segments were classified as 'CL -

early' and 'CL – late' based on their majority luteal cell type.

Calculating mean expression profiles of oocyte, follicle and corpus luteum (CL) segments.

Raw (unfiltered and un-normalized) counts of spots assigned to a segment (either oocyte, follicle, or CL were

normalized per spot to 10,000, then averaged within each segment. Where appropriate, the resulting segment

expression profiles were log1p transformed for downstream analyses.

Identifying gene programs with non-negative factorization.

Oocytes.

Gene programs in composite oocytes were identified using scikit-learn[126] to perform non-negative matrix

factorization (NMF)[125]. Log-normalized counts were used for NMF (k=5 programs) to reduce the noise of highly

expressed genes in composite oocytes that were composed of few oocyte spots. To interpret the biological relevance

of the gene programs, genes were ranked for each program by their contributions to the gene weight matrix. Program

usage across oocytes were visualized using PCA embeddings.

Granulosa cells (GCs).

Gene programs in GCs were identified using consensus non-negative matrix factorization (cNMF), following the
workflow described by Kotliar et al[65]. Using raw gene expression counts as input, 5,000 highly variable genes
(HVGs) were identified by calculating gene variance across spots during preprocessing with the top 5,000 HVGs
retained for downstream analyses. Batch correction was incorporated directly into the cNMF pipeline using an
adapted version of Harmony[117] and the resulting corrected matrix, with negative values set to zero, resulting in the
batch-corrected matrix used for factorization. cNMF was run on the corrected matrix to factorize the expression
data into two components: a gene weight matrix, in which each gene is associated with specific programs, and a
usage matrix, in which each spot is assigned a score reflecting its degree of program activity. The number of
programs (k) was set to 16, determined by running cNMF over a range of program numbers (k = 3 to 24) and
selecting the k with maximal program stability, calculated as the Pearson correlation between factorization results
across 20 replicates for each k (**Extended data Fig. 2d**). For the selected k, cNMF was re-run with 200 replicates
to generate final consensus matrices and extract robust and biologically meaningful programs.

To interpret the biological relevance of the gene programs, genes were ranked for each program by their
contributions to the gene weight matrix (**Extended data Fig. 2e**). Program activity scores were normalized per spot
by dividing the raw usage matrix values by the total program activity per spot. Spots were grouped by their dominant
GC program, defined as the program with the highest normalized usage score, to assess program separation and
overlap (**Extended data Fig. 2f**). Gene programs were annotated by comparing the top contributing genes against
known GC markers and enriched functional pathways from the literature[14,17,23,127,128].

Immune.
To identify gene programs in immune cells, the same workflow for consensus non-matrix factorization (cNMF) as
described for GCs was followed. Long non-coding RNAs genes with the prefix 'Gm' were filtered out to remove
noise, removing 6933 genes, resulting in an input matrix of 41879 immune cells x 20370 genes. After filtering the
raw gene expression counts were used as input for cNMF. Highly variable genes (HVGs) were identified the same
way as with GCs, through the calculation of gene variance. For further downstream analysis the top 5000 HVGs
were retained. After running cNMF, the number of programs (k) was set to 14, as it balanced stability and error
from the range of k values from 5-25. Overall error decreases as the number of programs increases but stability was
found to be variable throughout program values, resulting in a need to balance the two metrics.

Similar to the analysis conducted with the GCs, genes with the highest contribution to the gene weight matrix were
investigated. Programs with top genes not known as canonical immune markers were not used for downstream
analysis, and were assumed as noise, resulting in the first 6 programs being established as immune programs.

Compositional analysis of cell and segment types.
Cell-type composition within segments analysis.

For each relevant predicted cell type, the fractional composition was computed as the proportion of spots assigned

to that cell type within each segment. The mean and standard error of these fractions were calculated across

segments and grouped by distinct segment types. These results were used to analyze patterns in cell type

composition and visualize the relative contributions of different cell types and segments.

Segment type composition analysis.

The relative abundances of different segment types, including follicular and corpus luteum segments, was

analyzed across estrous stage and animal age. The proportions of each segment type (e.g., preantral, antral mitotic,

antral luteinizing, and atretic segments) were calculated as the fraction of individual segments of the same

segment type within each sample (puck). Mean fractions and standard errors were computed across pucks for each

experimental condition, grouped by estrous stage and animal age. Statistical differences between the fraction of a

particular segment type across different groups of pucks were assessed with t-tests, and significant differences

were highlighted in visualizations.

Trajectory inference of granulosa cells (GCs).

Trajectory inference of GCs was performed using diffusion pseudotime (dpt), a graph-based method that models

cellular transitions along a continuum, as described in previous single-cell RNA-seq studies[63]. Dpt analysis was

conducted on annotated GCs after dimensionality reduction using principal component analysis (PCA). A k-nearest

neighbor (k-NN) graph was constructed using the top 40 principal components, with k set to 10, to define local

cellular neighborhoods. Diffusion components (DCs) were computed from the neighborhood graph to capture the

structure of cellular transitions in high-dimensional space. The root of the trajectory was manually selected based

on inspection of DC embedding. Dpt values were calculated separately for two GC subsets: (1) all spots within

antral mitotic and antral luteinizing follicles, and (2) all spots within atretic follicles. This allowed for separate

modeling of GC trajectories under different follicular conditions. The inferred trajectories captured the progression

of GC states from early mitotic stages to luteinization and atresia, consistent with known GC maturation pathways.

Calculation of cell cycle scores.

To assess cell cycle dynamics in annotated granulosa cell spots in young mice, canonical markers of S-phase and

G2/M-phase, as previously described[129], were used to calculate cell cycle phase scores. Based on these scores, spots

were classified into three phases: G1, S, or G2/M. Spots classified as G1 were further categorized as "Non-Cycling,"

while spots in S or G2/M phases were categorized as "Cycling." This classification was integrated with spatial

transcriptomic data to map the cycling status of annotated granulosa spots. Dimensionality reduction methods were

applied to visualize cell cycle phases in relation to spatial organization in tissues, enabling an analysis of

proliferative activity within granulosa cell-associated regions of the ovary.

Radial distance analysis within segments.

To examine spatial trends in our analysis, radial distances for spots within follicular segments were computed. The

radial distance for each spot was calculated as the Euclidean distance from the centroid of the segment, scaled by

the maximum segment radius. This normalized distance, referred to as the "scaled radial distance," enabled a

standardized comparison of spatial patterns across segments of varying sizes. Spots were binned along the scaled

radial distance into equal intervals of 10 spanning the range [0, 1] (**Extended Data Fig. 2a**).

For each radial bin, the mean and standard error of the mean (SEM) of various features such as cell type

composition, dpt and cell cycle scores, cNMF-derived gene program usage were first calculated across individual

bins. Each mean and SEM were then aggregated for each distance bin within the same segment type. Segment-

specific trends were then visualized by plotting the mean proportions or cNMF program scores for each distance

bin, with shaded regions representing the SEMs.

To evaluate spatial trends in various features across scaled radial distance bins, the monotonic relationship between

the radial bin index (independent variable) and the mean values of the feature of interest (e.g., cell type composition,

cell cycle state, dpt, or cNMF program usage) for each segment type was assessed using Spearman rank correlation.

For each segment type, the mean feature values within each radial distance bin were calculated as described above

and correlated with the corresponding radial distance bins to determine whether the feature of interest varied

systematically with distance from the segment centroid. Spearman correlation was chosen for its robustness in

detecting monotonic relationships, regardless of the underlying distribution or linearity. The Spearman correlation

coefficient (ρ) and associated p-value were calculated using the SciPy library. Bins with fewer than two data points

were excluded from the analysis.

Follicle embedding and trajectory inference using optimal transport.

Code underlying these analyses can be found in III_segment_OT_1_pca_coretypes.ipynb and

III_segment_OT_2_plot_results.ipynb.

1002

Segment-to-segment distance matrix computation.

A distance matrix was computed between any pair of segments of all follicle and corpus luteum (CL) segments in

young mice. For each segment, oocyte, granulosa or luteal spots, and theca spots were considered. A transport

matrix from spots in any pair of segments was calculated with optimal transport, using the Sinkhorn algorithm

implemented in moscot[67] (epsilon=0, tau_a=1., tau_b=1., rank=20, initializer=k-means, min_iterations=5,

max_iterations=200). This transport matrix was multiplied elementwise with the cost matrix of the optimal transport

problem and the sum over all elements in this resulting matrix was used as a distance measure between the two

segments.

1011

1012   *Segment embedding and follicle pseudotime.*

1013 This segment-to-segment distance matrix was treated as a segment feature space. The k-nearest neighbor graph of

1014 segments (k=15) was built from the top 50 PCAs computed and embedded as a UMAP. This embedding was

1015 generated both for the union of all follicle and CL segments in young mice, and for follicles in young mice alone.

1016 Diffusion pseudotime[112] was then computed for follicles in young mice based on a manually defined root segment.

1017

1018 *Trajectory projection of follicles from middle-aged and old mice.*

1019 A distance matrix was calculated between all follicle and CL segments in young mice and middle and old mice,

1020 using the same optimal transport approach as above. Each segment from middle and old mice was then assigned to

1021 its closest neighbor in young mice based on this distance. Follicles from middle and old mice were then assigned

1022 the pseudotime coordinates from their closest neighbor follicle in young mice.

1023

1024 **Cell–cell communication analysis.**

1025 Code   underlying   these   analyses   can   be   found   in

1026 III.5_nichenet_ageYoung_stageAll_segmentFollicle_withOocyte_byCluster.Rmd   and

1027 III_segment_OT_2_plot_results_v0.3.ipynb.

1028

Cell-cell communication analysis was performed with MultiNicheNet[68] on data from young mice, with follicle

segments considered as samples for the purpose of the algorithm. Comparisons were performed between different

follicle labels, using coarse cell type labels (preantral, antral, atretic). Oocyte, granulosa, theca, and immune spots

were included in this analysis. Ligand-receptor pairs and receiver-sender cell type pairs specific to each follicle

label were prioritized accordingly. Follicles that did not meet default cell type compositional thresholds were

discarded (at least 5% of spots per segment mapping to each cell type). To characterize the communication states

across all follicles, a summarized ligand-receptor score was calculated for each segment. This score was derived

first by calculating the mean of normalized expression of receptor and ligand pairs for all cell types within a

segment, log1p transforming, and then summed to generate the final segment specific ligand and receptor score.

1038

Immune infiltration analysis.

To compare the infiltration of immune cells across segment types, immune spot composition was analyzed relative

to distance from the segment center. For each scaled radial distance bin (calculated as described above) within

individual segments, the proportion of immune spots was calculated by dividing the number of immune spots by

the total number of spots within each bin. The average immune composition and standard error of the mean (SEM)

for each distance bin were determined for every segment type to assess systematic variation with distance from the

segment center. Tukey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD) test was applied to evaluate the monotonic

relationship between the radial bin index (independent variable) and the mean values of the feature of interest

(dependent variable) for each segment type. To address potential bias from tissue sectioning, additional analysis

was conducted on oocyte-containing follicles to confirm that slicing artifacts did not affect the evaluation of radial

infiltration (**Extended Data Fig. 2g**). Statistical comparisons and p-values were calculated using the SciPy library.

Radial bins with fewer than two data points were excluded from both statistical and visualization analyses.

1051

Age-associated differential gene expression analysis.

Follicles.

To analyze key hormone gene changes across young and old follicles, mean gene expression was calculated as

described above. For each segment type (preantral, antral mitotic, antral luteinizing, and atretic follicles), stage

(Estrus, Metestrus) and age, mean and SEM of gene expression were calculated for the hormone-related genes

Amhr2, *Fshr*, *and Lhcgr*[43]. Differential expression analysis between estrous stages was performed using two-sided

t-test.

1059

Oocytes.

Primordial oocytes were removed from analysis due to the low representation in old animals. Genes were filtered

to remove those expressed in less than 10% of oocytes. Differential expression analysis was performed using Scanpy

on young and old oocytes, using log1p normalized data using t-test with overestimated variance and using the

Benjamini-Hochberg correction method. Genes with a p-value <0.05 and a log2 fold change >1 were used for further

analysis.

1066

Stromal cells.

Stromal cells including spots labeled as fibroblasts, stromal – nonsteroidogenic, and stromal – steroidogenic were

used for differential expression analysis. Genes were filtered to remove those expressed in less than 10% of spots.

Differential expression analysis was performed using Scanpy on young and old spots, using raw counts using t-test

with overestimated variance and using the Benjamini-Hochberg correction method. Genes with a p-value <0.05 and

a log2 fold change >1 were used for further analysis.

1073

Cell-type compositional analysis.

The spot composition for each cell type was calculated for each puck. Mean composition was then calculated for

young, middle, and old ages for each cell type. To determine significance of cell composition changes with age, the

scCODA package was used[90], with young used as the control group, and epithelial – oviduct as the reference cell

type, as its composition has low variation across conditions. Subsets of immune spots were created based on their

segment assignments to follicles or corpora lutea (CL), or stroma if unassigned. Endothelial spots localized to CL

were subset from other endothelial spots.

1081

1082   **Identifying multi-nucleated giant cells (MNGCs).**

1083   Code underlying these analyses can   be   found   in   II.5_registration_v0.8_all_pucks.ipynb   and

1084   III_MNGC_dotplot_v0.1.ipynb.

1085

Annotation of MNGCs in histology sections.

1086

Manual annotation of histology sections adjacent to sections used for Slide-seq analysis were used to classify the

presence of multi-nucleated giant cells (MNGCs) based on pigmentation, size, and proximity to a growing follicle

as previously described[11,31,91,98,99]. H&E stains with a high density of light brown clusters, generally surrounding

growing follicles, were categorized as "visible MNGCs" (19 samples). Sections with lighter pigmentation and a

lower density of clusters were categorized as "possible MNGCs" (13 samples). Samples lacking visible

pigmentation were labeled as "no MNGCs."

1093

Segmentation of MNGCs in H&E and registration with spatial transcriptomics data.

Samples deemed to contain MNGCs upon visual inspection of the H&E images were selected for segmentation.

H&E images and spot transcriptomics were registered using a napari plugin in squidpy[130], with anchor points

manually defined at tissue features clearly visible in both (such as large oocytes or points on the edges of the tissue

section). In this registered space, spots within MNGC regions were segmented based on histology and spot

transcriptomics. For the analysis of immune cells in stroma and MNGC, all immune spots outside of follicle or

corpus luteum segments were selected and classified as "stromal" (outside of MNGC segments) and "MNGC"

(inside of MNGC segments).

1102

1103 **Co-localization analysis of segmented tissue structures.**

1104 Code underlying these analyses can be found in III_segment_colocalization.ipynb. Within each puck, a spatial

1105 neighborhood graph of follicles was constructed to represent each follicle by the spatial center point of its constituent

1106 spots. Neighborhood enrichment was performed on this graph with Squidpy[130] within homotypic follicles (preantral,

1107 antral, and atretic) with varying radius from 200 μm to 2000 μm in steps of 200 μm.

1108

1109 **Lead contact.** Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled

1110 by the lead contact, Hattie Chung (hattie.chung@yale.edu)

1111

1112 **Data availability.** All sequencing data (Slide-seq) and expression count matrices (Slide-seq) will be deposited in

1113 Gene Expression Omnibus and the cellxgene portal prior to publication.

1114

1115 **Code availability.** All code is available at https://github.com/HattieChungLab/ovarian_aging

1116

1117 **Author contributions**

1118 H.C. and J.G. designed the study. H.C., A.K., I.B., and S.M. conducted the pilot experiment and analysis. A.K.,

1119 H.C., and T.C.T.L. conducted the mouse work. G.M. created in-house Slide-seq tiles with supervision from F.C.

1120 R.R., T.C.T.L., and H.C. conducted Slide-seq experiments. R.R. and T.C.T.L conducted histology experiments and

imaging. R.R. processed all Slide-seq data. T.C.T.L. and A.K. conducted cell type clustering analyses and annotation under supervision by H.C., D.S.F., A.K.S., and P.C.S. D.S.F. designed and implemented the segmentation pipeline, optimal transport, and cell-cell interaction analyses. D.S.F., R.R., and R.S. conducted computational histology analyses. H.C. and D.S.F. designed and supervised all other analyses conducted by T.C.T.L., A.K., S.S., A.M., and H.T. H.C. and J.G. supervised the overall project. T.C.T.L., D.S.F., A.K., R.R., S.S., and H.C. interpreted the results with input from all authors. H.C., D.S.F., A.K., J.G., and T.C.T.L. wrote the paper with input from all authors. All co-first authors contributed equally.

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Competing interest declaration

A.K.S. reports compensation for consulting and/or scientific advisory board (SAB) membership from Honeycomb Biotechnologies, Cellarity, Danaher, Ochre Bio, Bio-Rad Laboratories, Relation Therapeutics, IntrECate biotherapeutics, Parabalis Medicines, Passkey Therapeutics and Dahlia Biosciences unrelated to this work. P.C.S. is a co-founder of Sherlock Biosciences and Delve Biosciences, a board member of Polaris Genomics, a former board member of Danaher Corporation, and a former scientific advisory board member of NextJenGane, and holds equity in the companies unrelated to this work. F.C. is a founder of Curio Bioscience and Doppler Bio. All other authors report no potential conflicts.

Supplemental Information

Extended Data Figures 1-5

Extended Data Tables 1-3

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Figure 1