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The fronto-temporal cortex has increased subcortical connectivity *in utero* and plasticity in adulthood

Gabriela Epihova^{1*}, Dimitar Z. Epihov², Danyal Akarca^{1,3}, Duncan E. Astle^{1,4}

¹MRC Cognition and Brain Sciences Unit, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK

²Plants, Photosynthesis and Soil Cluster, School of Biosciences, University of Sheffield, UK

³Electrical & Electronic Engineering, Imperial College London, London, UK

⁴Department of Psychiatry, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK

*Corresponding author: gabriela.epihova@mrc-cbu.cam.ac.uk

Abstract

The adult cerebral cortex is a heterogenous structure with prominent functional differences between regions. However, less is known about how different regions acquire and maintain their functionality. Here, we leveraged connectomes and brain transcriptomes from human foetal and adult brains of both sexes to investigate early and late differences between cortical regions. We show that at 24 post-gestational weeks fronto-temporal regions are disproportionately connected to subcortical regions, highlighting their role in early integrative cortical-subcortical communication. In adulthood, fronto-temporal cortex has lower myelin content and exhibits lower expression of marker genes of perineuronal nets, while showing higher expression of undifferentiated progenitor cells markers. These results suggest that in the adult brain the function of fronto-temporal regions reflects a heightened state of plasticity, possibly to maximise flexible neural responses. In contrast, the function of parietal and occipital regions aligns with decreased plasticity needed to support stable neural dynamics. Linking physiology to pathology, we show that the greater plasticity of the fronto-temporal cortex is coupled to higher oncogenic vulnerability - frontal and temporal regions have greater incidence of gliomas and express higher levels of genes upregulated in glioma even in the absence of malignancy, suggesting a greater glioma-like normative expression state. Together, these findings highlight the divergent patterns of connectivity *in utero*, and plasticity in adulthood between cortical regions and provide a framework in which functional differences across cortical regions reflect differences in connectivity and plasticity.

38

39 **Significance statement**

40 Here we leveraged foetal neuroimaging and adult brain transcriptomes to investigate
41 early and late differences between cortical regions. We present new evidence that
42 already at mid-prenatal development, the fronto-temporal lobes are disproportionately
43 connected to subcortical regions, potentially reflecting an early route to their
44 establishment as integrative cortical centres. In adulthood, the fronto-temporal cortex
45 had increased plasticity of its connections and cellular state which was coupled to
46 greater oncogenic vulnerability. The combination of increased early connectivity and
47 long-term plasticity might serve to maximise flexible neural representations and
48 support the domain-general function of fronto-temporal regions.

49

50 **Introduction**

51 The adult cerebral cortex exhibits marked functional heterogeneity. High-level
52 cortical regions support complex, integrative computations enabling flexible cognition,
53 and context-dependent behaviour, whereas low-level sensory regions support stability
54 by faithfully mapping to the source of their activation (Mesulam, 1998),(Margulies et
55 al., 2016). However, we know less about *how* these regions acquire and maintain their
56 distinctive functionality. A simple principle is that the functional properties of different
57 cortical regions will be, to some extent, a consequence of the pattern of their structural
58 connections laid early in development. However, little is known about the
59 developmental mechanisms guiding the early divergence of cortical regions, and in
60 particular, whether particular regions are connectivity hubs already during early brain
61 development. In network neuroscience a connectivity hub is a brain region that exhibits
62 a disproportionately large number of connections and thus plays a central integrative
63 role in the organization of the brain network. Understanding the early signatures of
64 divergent *in utero* development across cortical regions has widespread implications
65 for their functional properties in the adult brain.

66 In addition to early developmental differences, the remarkable integrative
67 properties of the higher order regions likely reflect differences in postnatal plasticity
68 mechanisms that enable these regions to flexibly integrate information. Throughout
69 postnatal development there are two main processes that contribute to the reduction

70 of neural plasticity: myelination (McGee et al., 2005),(Xin et al., 2024) and the
71 formation of perineuronal nets (PNNs) (Fawcett et al., 2019),(Reichelt et al., 2019).
72 The well-established consequence of myelination is that it increases the speed of
73 neural signals, thus supporting fast and stable communication. However, it also
74 decreases neural plasticity and contributes to the closure of critical periods (McGee et
75 al., 2005),(Xin et al., 2024). This is caused by the dual role of fast communication: fast
76 conduction times support stable signals, but the lack of delay in signal transduction
77 inherently impedes flexibility as it prevents a region to recognise and integrate signal
78 patterns across longer periods of time. Interestingly, association regions are the last
79 one to myelinate (Sydnor et al., 2023),(Baum et al., 2022) and even when fully
80 myelinated have less myelin than sensorimotor regions (Glasser & van Essen, 2011).

81 The second main plasticity-repressing mechanism is PNNs. PNNs are extracellular
82 matrix structures that preferentially surround parvalbumin-positive GABAergic
83 inhibitory neurons and are responsible for synaptic stabilization by acting as
84 electrostatic insulators (Fawcett et al., 2019),(Reichelt et al., 2019). Similarly to myelin,
85 PNNs limit plasticity by decreasing the ability of a neuron to store electrical charge
86 across its membrane, thus forcing it to fire rapidly. In contrast to myelination, much
87 less is known about differences between cortical regions in the abundance of PNNs in
88 the human brain, likely due to the lack of imaging correlates via standard neuroimaging
89 techniques. In the rat cortex association regions have fewer PNNs compared to
90 sensorimotor regions (Galtrey & Fawcett, 2007). It is not known whether this pattern
91 is evident in the human brain and when during development this difference emerges.

92 Here we asked: how do high-level cortical regions achieve its remarkable ability to
93 integrate information, allowing it to support increasingly abstract levels of
94 representation? We reasoned that an integrative region must have the following
95 properties: 1) have more connections early in development to provide greater source
96 of inputs, 2) keep these connections plastic for longer to maximise integrative
97 communication and, 3) harbour an intrinsically more plastic cellular state. To that end,
98 we first characterised foetal structural connectivity and gene expression to quantify
99 regional differences in number of early connections and cell type markers. With
100 respect to the second and third properties, we combined cortical myelin maps derived
101 from T1w/T2w with brain transcriptomics to investigate whether in adulthood fronto-
temporal regions maintain heightened state of plasticity. Finally, we linked physiology

103 to pathology by exploring whether regions with heightened plasticity in adulthood
104 harbour a higher oncogenic potential.

105

106 **Materials and Methods**

107 **Diffusion-weighted imaging (DWI), fibre tracking and connectome construction**

108 Human foetal diffusion data was taken from the Developing Human Connectome
109 Project (dHCP). The dHCP is a collaborative effort between King's College London,
110 Imperial College London, and Oxford University that collects foetal and neonatal
111 neuroimaging data. Detailed description of acquisition parameters and pre-processing
112 steps is provided in Price et al., 2019 and Wilson et al., 2023). We restricted our
113 analyses on foetal brains aged 23-25 post-gestational weeks ($n = 22$) to avoid the
114 effect of myelination on connectivity estimates in older subjects. The earliest that
115 myelination has been microscopically observed is at 25 p.g. weeks with the first myelin
116 sheaths appearing in the globus pallidus, pallido-thalamic fibres of the posterior
117 internal capsule, and ventral lateral nucleus of the thalamus (Hasegawa et al., 1992).
118 *In-utero* imaging of foetuses of that age presents challenges, such as reduced
119 anisotropy, however, unmyelinated white-matter tracts still show signal intensity
120 changes consistent with anisotropic water diffusion et al, 1998). Using dMRI previous
121 work has successfully reconstructed major white matter tracts as early as 22 post-
122 gestational weeks (Wilson et al., 2021),(Calixto et al., 2025). We validated anatomical
123 tracts that are expected to be present at this developmental stage (**Supp Fig 1a, 1b**)
124 and compared their fractional anisotropy (FA) values to published values for similarly
125 aged foetal samples. Our FA values were comparable to published FA values in that
126 developmental period (**Supp Fig 1c**).

127 Pre-processed scans were reconstructed in DSI studio (Yeh et al., 2010) via
128 generalized q-sampling imaging using a sampling length ratio of 1.25 in native space.
129 Deterministic fibre tracking was performed in DSI Studio with 1000000 seeds.
130 Visualisation of whole-brain fibre tractography across all subjects is shown in **Supp**
131 **Fig 1d**. To prevent radial glia and spurious short fibres being incorrectly included in
132 the connectivity estimates we restricted the minimum fibre length to 30mm.
133 Streamlines resulting from the fibre tracking were parcellated with a foetal volumetric
134 atlas that corresponded to the gestational age of the subject (either 23, 24 or 25 post-

135 gestational weeks) taken from http://crl.med.harvard.edu/research/fetal_brain_atlas/
136 (Gholipour et al., 2017). This atlas contains 78 distinct cortical parcellations. As short-
137 range local connectivity between regions within the same lobe may not be reliable at
138 the foetal stage of brain development, we modified the atlas by grouping all regions
139 within their respective lobes into a single mask, which resulted in 4 cortical regions:
140 frontal, temporal, parietal, and occipital. The subcortical regions included in the foetal
141 atlas were the left and right, hippocampus, parahippocampal region, amygdala,
142 caudate, putamen, and thalamus.

143 After manual inspection 8 foetal scans were removed from the analyses for incorrect
144 reconstruction and fitting of the atlas parcels to the anatomical structures/brain
145 orientation. The remaining 14 foetuses had a mean age of 23.92 pgwk (range: 23.43
146 – 24.71), 8 male, 6 female.

147 The structural connectome of each subject was constructed by parcellating the whole-
148 brain tractography with 16 regions (4 cortical + 12 subcortical regions) derived from
149 the foetal atlas. The connectivity matrix was calculated by using the fibre density which
150 represents the number of streamlines connecting each pair of regions. All connections
151 within the same regions were excluded.

152

153 **Human foetal transcriptomics data and cell type enrichment analysis**

154 RNAseq data was obtained from the publicly available BrainSpan Developing Brain
155 atlas (<https://www.brainspan.org>), covering the period from 12 post-gestational weeks
156 to adulthood. The data used in the current analyses included gene expression from 11
157 cortical: dorsal frontal cortex (DFC), medial frontal cortex (MFC), orbito-frontal cortex
158 (OFC), ventral frontal cortex (VFC), motor cortex (M1C), somato-sensory cortex
159 (S1C), auditory cortex (A1C), inferior parietal cortex (IPC), superior temporal cortex
160 (STC), inferior temporal cortex (ITC), visual cortex (V1C). Data from corresponding
161 regions in the left and right hemispheres were pooled together. The obtained gene
162 expression data were in reads per kilobase per million (RPKM) values. To allow
163 normalized comparisons across regions and timepoints, RPKM values were converted
164 to transcripts per million (TPM) according to the formula:

165
$$\text{TPM} = 10^6 * \frac{\text{RPKM}}{\text{sum (RPKM)}}$$

166

167 A Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) across the expression of
168 all genes was performed for dimensionality reduction. The UMAP results indicated that
169 at 37 weeks the expression patterns transition to a distinct state compared to earlier
170 foetal and *ex utero* expression, replicating the previously reported transcriptomic
171 transition beginning during late foetal development (10). As a result, and to facilitate
172 for compatibility between our connectivity and transcriptomics analyses, we excluded
173 data from 37 pgwk and constrained our analyses on the remaining early-to-mid foetal
174 samples from 12 to 24 post-gestational weeks (pgwk). This resulted in 13 donor
175 samples (6 female, 7 male): 3 donors at 12 pgwk, 3 donors at 13 pgwk, 3 donors at
176 16 pgwk, 1 donor at 17 pgwk, 1 donor at 19 pgwk, 1 donor at 21 pgwk, 1 donor at 24
177 pgwk. As there was only one region to represent the expression in the occipital lobe
178 (V1) donors without expression data from V1 cortex were removed from the analysis
179 to ensure no individual differences bias in expression.

180 First, we cross-referenced known brain cell type marker genes with a developmentally-
181 relevant single-cell RNAseq data which were derived from frontal cortex tissue across
182 developmental timepoints from early foetal to adulthood (K. Zhu et al., 2023).
183 Expression of marker genes were referenced across a set of pre-defined neuronal cell
184 types: early foetal excitatory neurons (EN foetal early), late foetal excitatory neurons
185 (EN foetal late), postnatal excitatory neurons (EN), foetal inhibitory neurons (IN foetal),
186 medial ganglionic eminence-derived inhibitory neurons (IN-MGE), caudal ganglionic
187 eminence-derived inhibitory neurons (IN-CGE), oligodendrocyte progenitor cells
188 (OPC), oligodendrocytes, astrocytes, microglia, radial glia, intermittent progenitor cells
189 (IPC), endothelial cells, pericytes, and vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMC). After
190 ensuring that the marker genes are expressed uniquely in a cell-type, we investigated
191 whether expression of these markers in the bulk RNA samples from the BrainSpan
192 Developing Brain atlas differed between the cortical lobes.

193

194 **Cortical myelin map, plasticity-related, and glioma-upregulated gene expression
195 in adulthood**

196 T1w/T2w cortical myelin maps were taken from the Human Connectome Project
197 (Glasser et al., 2016) and parcellated with the Desikan-Killiany (DK) cortical atlas

198 (Desikan et al., 2006) to derive a cortical myelination value for each region of the
199 atlas. Normalized gene expression maps were taken from The Allen Human Brain
200 Atlas (AHBA) using the *abagen* toolbox (Markello et al., 2021) and were also
201 parcellated with the DK cortical atlas.

202 When comparing the 4 cortical lobes, the following DK regions were included in each
203 lobe: 1) frontal: caudal anterior cingulate, caudal middle frontal, frontal pole, lateral
204 orbito-frontal, medial orbito-frontal, pars opercularis, pars orbitalis, pars triangularis,
205 rostral anterior cingulate, rostral middle frontal, superior frontal; 2) temporal: bankssts,
206 entorhinal, fusiform, inferior temporal, middle temporal, parahippocampal, superior
207 temporal, temporal pole, transverse temporal; 3) parietal: inferior parietal, isthmus
208 cingulate, paracentral, posterior cingulate, precuneus, superior parietal,
209 supramarginal; 4) occipital: cuneus, lateral occipital, lingual, pericalcarine, inferior
210 parietal, isthmus cingulate, paracentral, posterior cingulate, precuneus, superior
211 parietal, supramarginal. Regions from the atlas not included in the cortical lobe
212 classification were the insula, precentral, and postcentral.

213 There were 451 upregulated genes in glioblastoma identified in (Neftel et al., 2019).
214 325 of these genes matched to genes in the AHBA transcriptome, and 221 matched
215 to genes in the BrainSpan atlas after removing the genes with low average expression
216 values (<1 TPM). For each of the matching genes, we z-scored the expression levels
217 across the cortical regions and then averaged the z scores of regions across the 4
218 cortical lobes.

219

220

221 **Results**

222 **Structural connectivity differences across the cortex in the mid-prenatal period**

223 A simple first step towards understanding very early differences in connectivity
224 between cortical regions is to look at differences in connection numbers early in
225 development. We measured *in utero* brain connectivity from foetal diffusion MRI scans
226 (dMRI) in 14 healthy foetuses from the Developing Human Connectome Project
227 (dHCP). To avoid the potential effect of myelination beginning after 25 post-gestational
228 weeks (p.g. wks) we focused on the youngest available foetal brains scan aged 23-25

229 p.g. wks: mean age of 23.92 p.g. wks. For each individual we performed whole-brain
230 fibre tracking and constructed individual connectomes by parcellating the whole-brain
231 tractography with a foetal atlas of the corresponding age. The pattern of connectivity
232 between regions was consistent across individuals as indicated by an average
233 between-participants correlation of connectomes of $r = 0.77$ (**Supp Fig 2a, 2b**). We
234 averaged the individual connectivity matrices and compared the connections between
235 each cortical lobe with the rest of the lobes and subcortical regions in the atlas (**Fig**
236 **1a**). Next, to statistically compare the number of connections between the 4 lobes, for
237 each individual we calculated the total number of connections, the cortical (between-
238 lobe) connections, and the subcortical connections of each cortical lobe.

239 The frontal and temporal lobes had significantly more total connections than the
240 parietal and occipital (ANOVA with FDR-corrected multiple comparisons: $F (3, 52) =$
241 18.61 , $p < 0.001$), (**Fig 1b**). This pattern was primarily driven by the higher number of
242 subcortical connections to the frontal and temporal lobes (ANOVA with FDR-corrected
243 multiple comparisons: $F(3, 52) = 54.30$, $p < 0.001$, (**Fig 1d**). The increased connectivity
244 of the frontal and temporal lobes to the subcortex was evident across all subcortical
245 regions in the atlas and cannot be attributed to a single strong subcortical connection
246 (**Fig 1a**) or the physical distance between the lobes and subcortical structures (**Supp**
247 **Fig 3e, 3f**). The increased fronto-temporal connectivity to subcortical regions was
248 consistent in all of the 14 individual subjects (**Supp Fig 2c**), and present when the
249 number of subcortical connections to each lobe was normalized by the voxel size of
250 each cortical mask (**Supp Fig 3**). However, although both the frontal and temporal
251 lobes were enriched in subcortical connections, there were some differences in their
252 pattern of subcortical connectivity. The increased fronto-subcortical connectivity was
253 driven by a higher number of connections with the basal ganglia (caudate and
254 putamen), whereas the increased temporo-subcortical connectivity was driven by
255 connection between the temporal cortex and hippocampus (**Fig 1a**).

256 There was also a significant difference between the lobes in the number of
257 connections to cortical regions, with the highest cortical connectivity in the temporal
258 and parietal lobes ANOVA with FDR-corrected multiple comparisons: $F (3, 52) = 4.83$,
259 $p = 0.005$ (**Fig 1b**), but this effect was not as strong and consistent across all subjects
260 (**Supp Fig 2c**).

261

262 **Frontal and temporal cortices were enriched in inhibitory neurons in the mid-**
263 **prenatal period**

264 Next, we investigated whether the observed increased connectivity between the
265 fronto-temporal cortex and subcortical regions covaries with differences in abundance
266 of specific cell types. We contrasted the expression levels of marker genes for different
267 cell types between cortical regions (see Materials and Methods). As gene expression
268 from only a limited number of cortical regions was available, and to facilitate the
269 comparison with our connectivity analysis, we grouped all cortical regions into lobes
270 before statistically comparing them. Marker genes are a set of genes with highly
271 enriched expression in a particular cell type (**Fig 2a**), and relative differences in their
272 expression can be used to estimate differences in cell types across bulk RNAseq
273 samples taken from different regions (Jew et al., 2020),(Seidlitz et al., 2020),(Mandal
274 et al., 2021a). Specifically, we explored expression differences in marker genes in the
275 bulk RNA samples from the BrainSpan Developing Brain atlas for radial glia,
276 astrocytes, inhibitory neurons, excitatory neurons, microglia, oligodendrocyte
277 progenitor cells (OPCs) and oligodendrocytes.

278 We observed consistently higher expression across all inhibitory neuron markers
279 (*GAD1*, *GAD2*, *DLX1*, *DLX2*, *SST*, *LHX6*), in regions within the frontal and temporal
280 cortex relative to regions within the parietal, occipital and motor cortex, ANOVA with
281 FDR-corrected multiple comparisons: $F(3,20) = 146.8$, $p<0.001$, (**Fig 2b, 2c**). As we
282 had a limited number of regions across the lobes, it is difficult to ascertain with certainty
283 whether the results reflect lobar differences or sensorimotor-association differences.
284 However, the pattern of results may herald the early emergence of sensorimotor-
285 association gradient: for example, anatomically the motor cortex is part of the frontal
286 lobe, yet, the expression levels of inhibitory neuron markers align with that of
287 sensorimotor regions. Similarly, across temporal regions (ITC, STC, A1C) the A1C
288 (which is sensorimotor in adulthood in contrast to ITC) showed lower expression of
289 inhibitory markers comparable to other sensorimotor regions (M1, S1, V1). The higher
290 expression in the frontal regions of marker genes for inhibitory neurons was confined
291 to the foetal period when inhibitory neurons have an excitatory function (Murata &
292 Colonnese, 2020),(Ben-Ari, 2002),(D. D. Wang & Kriegstein, 2009),(Owens et al.,

1996), with little differences in postnatal expression (except *SST*) (**Fig 2d**). The pattern
294 of higher expression in fronto-temporal regions holds valid both for markers whose
295 expression was highest postnatally (*GAD1*, *GAD2* and *SST*) as well as inhibitory
296 markers with highest expression in the foetal period (*DLX1*, *DLX2* and *LHX6*). There
297 was also a statistically significant difference in expression levels across
298 oligodendrocyte marker genes at $p < 0.05$, but the absolute levels of expression, as well
299 as the differences, were very low (**Supp Fig 4**).

300

301 **Increased plasticity in fronto-temporal cortical regions in adulthood**

302 To be an integrative hub, a region does not only need to be well connected, but also
303 to process the incoming information flexibly. Flexibility is a function of the plasticity of
304 connections, as well as the collective functional properties of the cells comprising the
305 region. To that end, we next investigated whether in adulthood high-level association
306 regions maintain heightened state of plasticity to maximise integrative communication.
307 Specifically, we explored differences across cortical regions in three processes directly
308 related to plasticity: myelination and formation of PNNs - which repress plasticity, and
309 markers of progenitor cells (stem cell-like states), which promote plasticity. We
310 parcellated the brain with the Desikan-Killiany atlas and compared cortical myelination
311 (T1w/T2w) and the expression levels of Myelin Basic Protein (*MBP*) as markers of
312 mature myelin content across the adult cortex. PNNs are composed of the chondroitin
313 sulfate proteoglycans neurocan, versican, brevican, and aggrecan which bond to
314 hyaluronan (Fawcett et al., 2019). For assessing abundance of PNNs, we used the
315 expression level of the gene *ACAN* encoding the proteoglycan aggrecan which is
316 selectively expressed in PNNs (Rowlands et al., 2018). We focused on two broad
317 categories of undifferentiated cell marker genes: 1) oligodendrocyte progenitor cells
318 (OPCs) markers, and 2) neural stem cells (NSCs) markers. The OPCs marker genes
319 *ID4*, *SOX5*, *SOX6* and *PDGFRA* have been shown to maintain OPCs in their
320 undifferentiated state and repress myelin gene expression (Li et al., 2009),(S. Wang
321 et al., 2001),(Kondo & Raff, 2000),(Stolt et al., 2006),(Q. Zhu et al., 2014). The NSCs
322 marker genes *SOX2*, *PAX6*, *HES1*, *HES5*, *VIM*, *NES*, *GLI3* are expressed by
323 immature progenitor cells of the nervous system (Zhang & Jiao, 2015),(Vinci et al.,
324 2016).

325 We show that cortical myelin content (T1w/T2w) and *MBP* expression were positively
326 correlated (**Fig 3c**) and both were lower in the frontal lobe relative to the rest of the
327 cortex (**Fig 3a, 3b**), while *ACAN* expression was significantly lower in the frontal and
328 temporal compared to the parietal and occipital lobes (**Fig 3a, 3b**). We further
329 compared expression levels of genes promoting plasticity. Expression levels of the
330 genes *ID4*, *SOX5*, *SOX6* and *PDGFRA*, which are expressed by OPCs to maintain an
331 undifferentiated state and suppress myelin production were enriched in the frontal and
332 temporal, relative to parietal and occipital regions (**Fig 3a, 3b**). To assess whether the
333 variation in cortical myelin (T1w/T2w) values across brain regions (DK atlas parcels)
334 is related to the gene expression patterns for *MBP*, *ID4*, *SOX5*, *SOX6* and *PDGFRA*,
335 we performed a series of Pearson's correlations. There was a significant negative
336 correlation between the level of expression of these myelin-suppressing genes and
337 the cortical myelin content across the adult cortex (**Fig 3c**). Finally, the expression of
338 NSCs marker genes was also increased in frontal and temporal cortex (**3a, 3b**).
339 Overall, across all plasticity-related mechanisms analysed here, with the exception of
340 myelin content and *MBP* expression (which were highest in the frontal cortex), the
341 frontal and temporal cortex were equally enriched in plasticity markers.

342 To investigate when during development do these differences in plasticity emerge, we
343 used the developmentally-enriched BrainSpan transcriptome atlas. We first replicated
344 our findings of higher expression of plasticity-related processes in the frontal and
345 temporal cortex in the samples of adult brains with the BrainSpan transcriptome atlas
346 (**Fig 3d**). Next, we grouped the regions into association (frontal cortex: MFC, OFC,
347 DFC, VFC; inferior temporal cortex: ITC) and sensorimotor (M1C, S1C, V1C) and
348 compared the expression across the lifespan for *MBP* and *ACAN* as marker for
349 plasticity-repressing myelination and PNNs, respectively. Expression of *MBP* was
350 higher in association relative to sensorimotor regions soon after birth (4 months old
351 sample) and continued to differ during childhood through adolescence (until 19 years
352 old), after which expression levels were similar (**Fig 3e**). This is consistent with prior
353 work showing that postnatally myelination proceeds along a sensorimotor –
354 association gradient (Sydnor et al., 2023). In contrast, differences in expression of
355 *ACAN* between association and sensorimotor regions emerged in late
356 childhood/adolescence and were most pronounced in adulthood (**Fig 3f**).

357

358 **Increased plasticity confers increased vulnerability to glioma**

359 We found that the frontal and temporal cortex are enriched in expression of NSCs and
360 OPCs markers. This increased state of cellular plasticity led us to postulate that these
361 regions will hold higher oncogenic potential and thus be more vulnerable to
362 carcinogenesis as stems cells are the putative cells of origin in glioma (Altmann et al.,
363 2019),(Lee et al., 2018),(Alcantara Llaguno et al., 2009). To that end, we compared
364 the frequency of adult glioma across the cortex by collating previously published data
365 ($n = 317$ cases) (Larjavaara et al., 2007),(Neftel et al., 2019),(Scarpace L, 2019). The
366 distribution of gliomas across the cortex revealed an extraordinary imbalance: ~45%
367 of gliomas were found in the frontal cortex, ~37% in temporal, ~14% in parietal and
368 only ~3% in the occipital lobe (**Fig 4a**). To check whether the higher glioma frequency
369 in frontal and temporal cortex remains after adjustment for the volume difference
370 across lobes, we calculated a normalized glioma frequency by dividing the %
371 frequency of glioma in each lobe by the number of voxels in that lobe. The frequency
372 of gliomas per voxel in each lobe was: frontal: 0.0016, temporal: 0.0023, parietal:
373 0.001, occipital: 0.0004, indicating that the higher glioma frequency in frontal and
374 temporal cortex remained after adjustment for their volume difference. The higher
375 oncogenic potential of the fronto-temporal suggests that they might have a higher
376 expression of genes typically expressed in gliomas. To test this, we used an existing
377 database of genes which were upregulated in glioblastoma samples relative to normal
378 brain tissue (Neftel et al., 2019), (see Materials and Methods). Next, we mapped the
379 expression of these glioma-upregulated genes across the cortex of adult brain
380 samples using two brain transcriptomic atlases – the Allen Human Brain Atlas and
381 (AHBA) and the adult samples from the BrainSpan Atlas. Across the two independent
382 brain transcriptome atlases, the expression of glioma-upregulated genes was
383 constantly higher in the frontal and temporal cortex relative to parietal and occipital
384 cortical regions (**Fig 4b, 4c, 4d**), (AHBA: $F(3, 1296) = 23.18$, $p < 0.0001$; BrainSpan:
385 $F(10, 2310) = 20.96$, $p < 0.0001$). This suggest that expression levels of glioma-
386 upregulated genes across the cortex in the absence of glioma mirrors the cortical
387 pattern of glioma frequency and underlying plasticity.

388

389 **Discussion**

390 Here we leveraged foetal neuroimaging prior to myelination to investigate the
391 connectivity signatures of cortical lobes. The frontal and temporal cortex were enriched
392 in connections with the subcortex, potentially reflecting an early route to their
393 establishment as integrative cortical centres. In adulthood, the fronto-temporal regions
394 showed lower levels of myelination and expression of perineuronal nets markers, and
395 increased expression of progenitor cells markers, suggesting a heightened state of
396 plasticity. Together, our results suggest that the early establishment of subcortical
397 connections and prolonged maturation might enable the association fronto-temporal
398 cortex to flexibly integrate information and support increasingly abstract
399 representations.

400 What are the mechanisms leading to the higher subcortical connectivity of the
401 fronto-temporal cortex? A possible mechanism might be through GABA signalling.
402 Using gene expression from foetal brains, we report higher expression of inhibitory
403 neuron marker genes in regions of frontal and temporal cortex compared to parietal
404 and occipital regions. This finding has been demonstrated previously (Al-Jaberi et al.,
405 (Molnár et al., 2019) and is thought to reflect a genetically determined
406 preferential inhibitory neuron generation in the fronto-temporal cortex (Al-Jaberi et al.,
407 2015). GABA is the main inhibitory neurotransmitter in the brain and acts primarily by
408 binding to GABA_A or GABA_B receptors which is critical for the development of cortical
409 circuits (Peerboom & Wierenga, 2021). While GABA neurons are inhibitory in the
410 postnatal brain, they have an excitatory function during foetal cortical development
411 (Murata & Colonnese, 2020),(Ben-Ari, 2002),(D. D. Wang & Kriegstein, 2009),(Owens
412 et al., 1996), with a shift towards their established inhibitory function at around the first
413 postnatal week in humans (Kilb, 2012). Crucially, GABA inhibitory neurons have been
414 demonstrated to preferentially generate action potentials in pyramidal neurons of
415 layers V and VI of the immature cortex (Rheims et al., 2008), which are the layers that
416 form corticofugal projections to subcortical regions such as the basal ganglia and
417 thalamus (Usrey & Sherman, 2019),(Baker et al., 2018), providing a potential
418 mechanism for the covariance between subcortical connections and the number of
419 inhibitory neurons across the developing cortex.

420 We restricted the connectivity analysis only to the narrow 22-25 p.g. weeks age
421 range in order to avoid the effect of myelination on connectivity estimates in older
422 subjects and thus, derive a measure of connectivity based solely on axonal tracts.

423 Connectivity strength of a given region after the start of myelination likely reflects a
424 combination between the number of axonal connections and their myelination levels,
425 however, their relative contribution to the strength of connectivity measured is unclear
426 (Oldham & Fornito, 2019). As such, determining which cortical regions are connectivity
427 “hubs” throughout the lifespan would be influenced by the relative prevalence of axonal
428 connections and myelination in these regions, which itself varies temporally and
429 spatially. For example, the occipital lobe does not have as many early connections as
430 the frontal lobe however, it is one of the first cortical regions to myelinate which would
431 overestimate its connectivity in the early post-natal period. In contrast, association
432 regions tend to be the last ones to myelinate which would overestimate their relative
433 gain of connections during the adolescence-adulthood transition. Indeed, a shift in
434 “hubness” of regions between primary and association regions has been documented
435 during the transition from neonatal to childhood/adolescence periods (Oldham &
436 Fornito, 2019). However, we recognise that the structural connectivity we measured
437 during 22-25 p.g. weeks window may not necessarily be representative of future
438 connectivity as there are both further extension of axons as well as retraction of
439 exuberant axons during the late gestational and early postnatal periods (Innocenti &
440 Price, 2005),(LaMantia & Rakic, 1990).

441 The finding that the frontal lobe has more connections in the 24-week foetal
442 brain is somewhat counterintuitive to the fact that its connections are the *last* to
443 myelinate (see also (Sydnor et al., 2023),(Baum et al., 2022),(Lebel et al., 2008)). We
444 propose that it is precisely the combination of early over-connectivity and later
445 myelination that enables the frontal cortex to serve its function as an integrative hub
446 supporting increasingly abstract levels of representation throughout the human
447 lifespan. There are two main properties that a cortical region needs to satisfy in order
448 to perform flexible integration of information: 1) connect to multiple regions and 2) keep
449 long-term plasticity of these connections to incorporate changing inputs at differing
450 rates from other regions as they mature. To this end, our results demonstrate that the
451 frontal cortex is particularly enriched in connections to the subcortical regions, which
452 are hubs in the brain (Oldham & Fornito, 2019). This is consistent with the previously
453 reported increased functional connectivity of the frontal cortex during foetal
454 development (Karolis et al., 2023). In line with the second property, the frontal cortex
455 develops myelination of its connections last and has less myelin compared to other

456 cortical regions even when fully matured in adulthood. Although, myelination
457 contributes to faster information transfer and therefore serves a more efficient
458 communication, it is also one of the processes that inhibits brain plasticity and closes
459 critical periods (McGee et al., 2005),(Hübener & Bonhoeffer, 2014). Thus, by setting
460 up early connections and allowing for these connections to be plastic (less myelinated)
461 over a longer time, the frontal cortex may flexibly integrate information. The question
462 of what factors delay the formation of myelin to the frontal region postnatally, and more
463 broadly, what factors underly the extraordinary postnatal neoteny of the frontal cortex,
464 constitutes a most promising field for future investigations.

465 Over two independent transcriptome datasets we found that in adulthood the
466 association fronto-temporal cortex remain more plastic as it harboured the lowest
467 levels of marker genes for PNNs. Although much less is known about differences
468 between cortical regions in the abundance of PNNs in the human brain, prior work in
469 the adult rat cortex suggests that association regions have less PNNs compared to
470 sensorimotor region (Galtrey & Fawcett, 2007). Our transcriptomic results suggest that
471 this spatial pattern might be conserved in the adult human brain and that differences
472 between sensorimotor – association regions become most prominent in
473 adolescence/adulthood, although histological verification would be required.
474 Consistent with the idea of increased plasticity, the fronto-temporal cortex also
475 expressed higher levels of marker genes for undifferentiated progenitor cells (OPCs
476 and NSCs). Here we want to emphasize that our results are agnostic to the exact
477 process contributing to the increased gene markers for progenitor cells. Unlike
478 neurons, OPCs continue to differentiate throughout adulthood (Crawford et al., 2014),
479 thus the OPCs markers likely reflect yet undifferentiated oligodendrocyte progenitors.
480 However, it is well established that there is no neurogenesis in the adult cortex (Rakic,
481 1985),(Kornack & Rakic, 2001),(Spalding et al., 2005) suggesting that the NSCs
482 markers expression does not stem from *bona fide* neuron progenitors. As cells can
483 exist in different “states” (Trapnell, 2015), one possibility is that the NSCs markers are
484 expressed by mature, differentiated neurons to drive a more plastic cellular state.
485 Another alternative is that the increased expression of NSCs markers captures a state
486 of dedifferentiation where mature cells gradually lose their differentiation and transform
487 into stem cells (Mills et al., 2019),(Corti et al., 2012),(Yang et al., 2010). The blurred
488 borders between cell types and cell states have been discussed extensively elsewhere

489 (Trapnell, 2015),(Mills et al., 2019). Here, we seek to highlight that whether the
490 increased cellular plasticity is attributed to truly undifferentiated progenitor cells, or
491 mature cells acquiring more plastic stem-like cellular states, our results, nevertheless,
492 suggest that the association cortex harbours more plastic cellular *potential*.

493 When observing regional differences in plasticity across the cortex, one
494 specious conclusion is to view the regions with higher plasticity in some sense as
495 exceptional or “high-level”. This is particularly tempting in light of the well-established
496 association between the frontal cortex and complex cognitive abilities, as well as its
497 disproportional evolutionary expansion in humans (Miller et al., 2002). We want to
498 stress that the appropriate development and functionality of the association cortex, as
499 well as the execution of complex cognitive tasks, necessarily relies on stable inputs
500 from less plastic regions. In this view, plastic responses could be maladaptive when
501 stable signals are required. In other words, to support intelligent (adaptive) behaviour,
502 both stable and plastic neural responses are of equal value. Differences between
503 individuals in the developmental timing and extent of processes driving plasticity
504 (myelination, PNNs formation) are propitious candidate mechanisms for investigating
505 individual differences in cognition and behaviour.

506 Finally, we linked typical physiology to pathology by showing that greater
507 plasticity confers greater oncogenic vulnerability. Our analysis, as well as extensive
508 previous work (Larjavaara et al., 2007),(Mandal et al., 2021b),(Romero-Garcia et al.,
509 2023),(Altmann et al., 2019) demonstrated that glioma involving the cortex is
510 preferentially located in the fronto-temporal regions relative to other cortical regions.
511 This pattern is specific to gliomas as metastases to the cortex from non-neural primary
512 cancers do not show the same cortical distribution (Cardinal et al., 2022),(Kwon et al.,
513 2020),(Bonert et al., 2023). Stem cells are the likely cells of origin in glioma (Altmann
514 et al., 2019),(Lee et al., 2018),(Alcantara Llaguno et al., 2009), and differences in their
515 abundance across the cortex has been linked to the different rates of gliomas across
516 the cortex (Mandal et al., 2021b),(Romero-Garcia et al., 2023). As gliomagenesis is a
517 probabilistic event, the observation that the frequency is higher in fronto-temporal
518 regions suggests that stem cells might be disproportionately supplied in those regions
519 in adulthood, relative to regions in the parietal and occipital lobes, which is in line with
520 our findings of increased stem cell-like expression. However, if gliomagenesis was
521 only a function of the abundance of stem cells, one would expect higher glioma rates

522 *in utero* and early postnatal life. Given that the peak incidence of glioma is between
523 45-75 years of age (Altmann et al., 2019), the higher glioma frequency in the
524 association cortex would likely involve immune and inflammation factors (which may
525 themselves be higher in frontal cortex due to the increased metabolic rate there
526 (Castrillon et al., 2023)), independent of stem cells abundance. Our results contribute
527 to the literature by showing that fronto-temporal cortical regions express higher levels
528 of genes upregulated in glioma even in the absence of malignancy, suggesting that
529 their higher oncogenic potential is, at least in part, due to greater glioma-like normative
530 expression state, potentially providing more conductive environment for
531 gliomagenesis, progression, and survival.

532 In conclusion, we demonstrated that at 24 post-gestational weeks fronto-
533 temporal regions are disproportionately connected to subcortical regions, highlighting
534 their role in early integrative cortical-subcortical communication. In adulthood, the
535 fronto-temporal cortex had lower myelin content, lower markers of perineuronal nets,
536 and increased markers of undifferentiated progenitor cells, suggesting heightened
537 plasticity of its connections and cellular state. However, the association regions
538 showed an increased incidence of gliomas, as well as expression of glioma-associated
539 genes in the absence of disease, suggesting that the heightened plasticity confers
540 greater oncogenic vulnerability. Together, our results provide evidence of divergent
541 patterns of connectivity *in utero*, and plasticity in adulthood between cortical lobes and
542 support a framework which views functional differences across cortical regions as
543 manifestations of differences in connectivity and their plasticity.

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546 **Declaration of competing interests**

547 The authors declare no competing interests. For the purpose of open access, the
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550

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567 **Data availability**

568 Codes and results from the current analyses are publicly available at
569 <https://osf.io/s4qb2/>

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825

826 **Figure legends**

827

828 **Figure 1. Structural brain connectivity at 24 post-gestational weeks.** **a.** Average
829 number of connections between each cortical lobe with the other lobes and subcortical
830 regions. **b.** Number of connections between each cortical lobe and all regions in the
831 atlas. **c.** Number of connections between each cortical lobe and the other 3 cortical
832 lobes. **e.** Number of connections between each cortical lobe and all subcortical regions
833 in the atlas. Error bars represent ± 1 SEM.

834

835 **Figure 2. a.** Marker genes show distinct expression for specific cell types; **b and c.**
836 Higher expression of marker genes for inhibitory neurons (*GAD1*, *GAD2*, *DLX1*, *DLX2*,
837 *SST*, *LHX6*) in frontal and temporal regions relative to parietal and occipital regions
838 during early-to-mid foetal development (12-24 p.g. wks); **d.** Normalized expression
839 levels (TPM) of inhibitory neuron marker genes from 12 p.g. wks to adulthood (40
840 years) in the frontal + temporal (MFC, OFC, DFC, VFC, ITC, STC, A1C) versus parietal
841 + occipital cortex (IPC, M1C, S1C, V1C). Inhibitory markers had higher expression

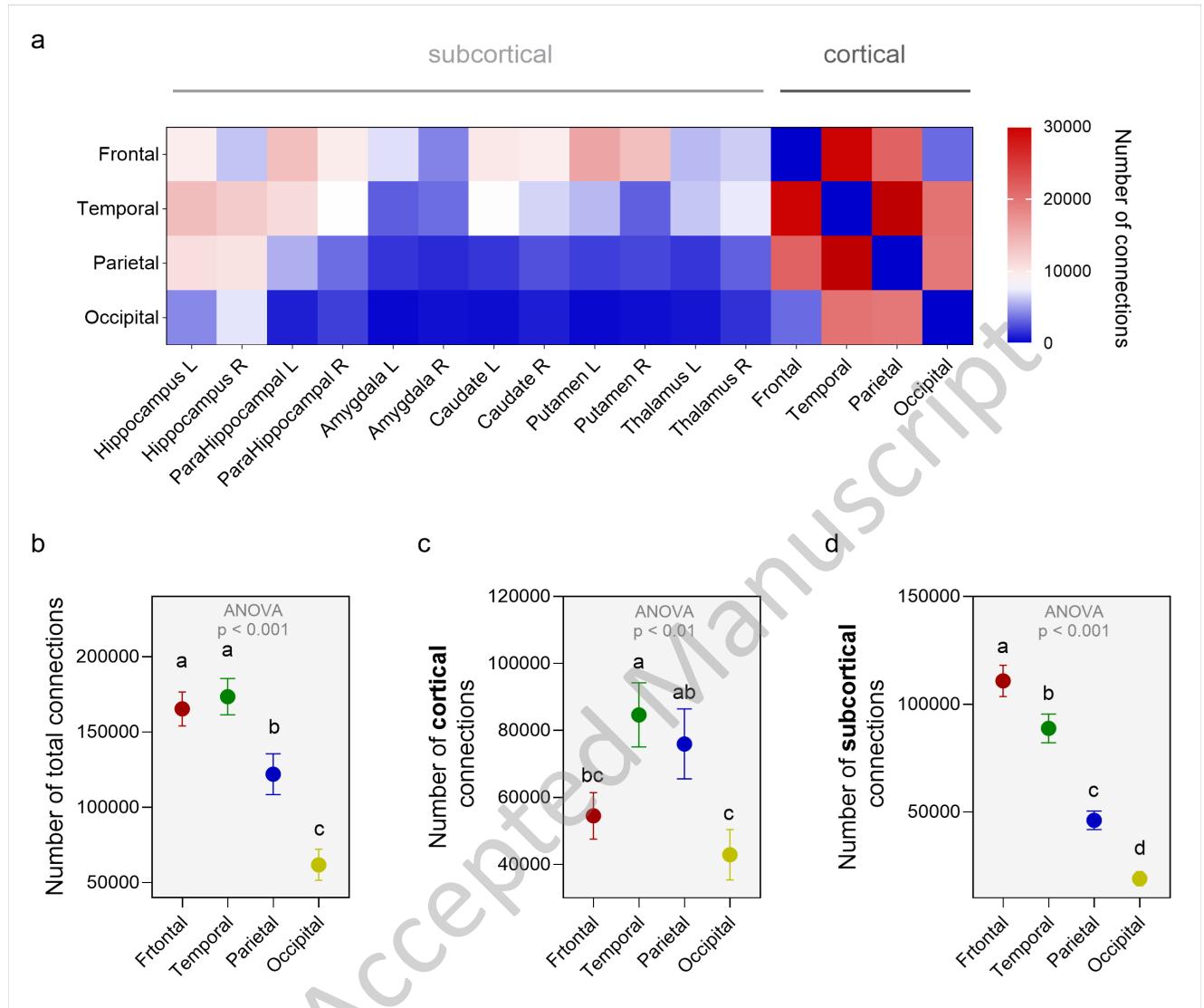
842 levels in the frontal and temporal cortex during early-to-mid foetal development (12-24
843 p.g. wks), and this was limited to the foetal period, with no difference in expression in
844 postnatal development (except *SST*).

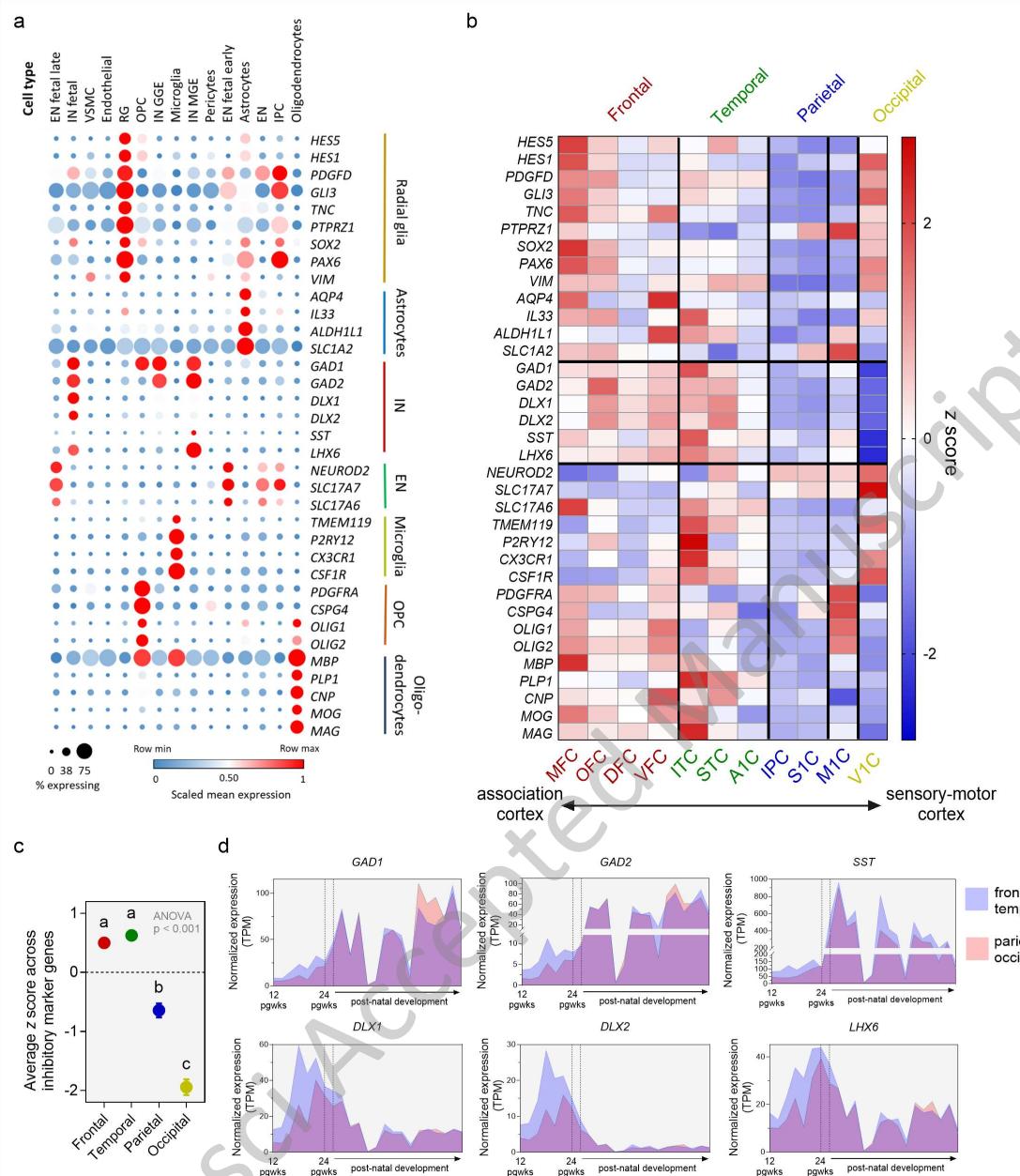
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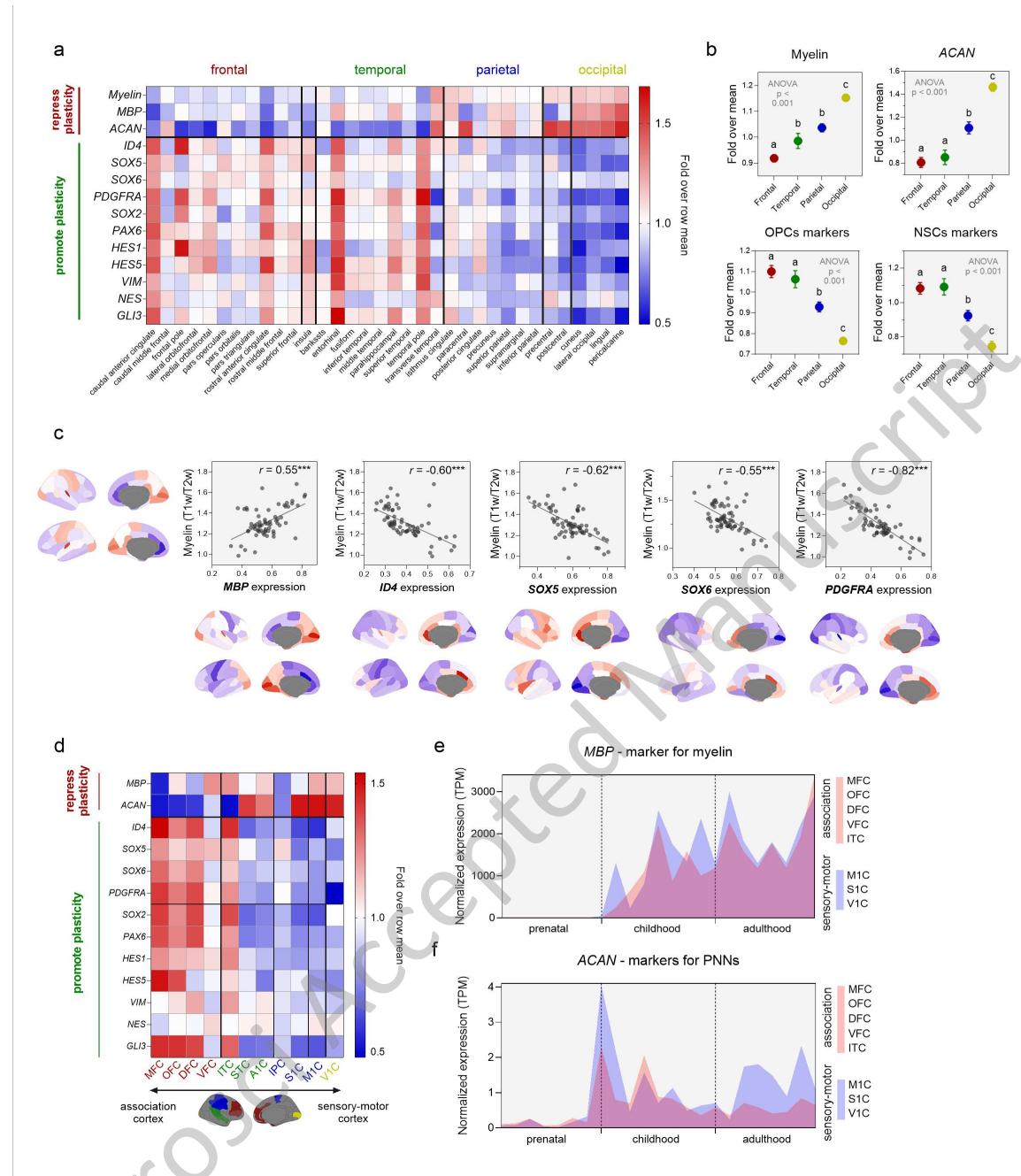
846 **Figure 3. a.** Cortical myelin content and relative gene expression levels across cortical
847 regions (Desikan-Killiany atlas) of markers for myelin (*MBP*), perineuronal nets
848 (*ACAN*), oligodendrocyte progenitor cells (OPCs) (*ID4*, *SOX5*, *SOX6*, *PDGFRA*),
849 neural stem cells (NSCs) (*SOX2*, *PAX6*, *HES1*, *HES5*, *VIM*, *NES*, *GLI3*), and myelin
850 abundance (top row). Values represent fold over row mean; **b.** Regions across the
851 frontal and temporal cortex have significantly lower myelin and expression of PNNs
852 markers (which repress plasticity) but are enriched in processes promoting plasticity
853 (OPCs and NSCs markers); **c.** *MBP* expression positively correlates with cortical
854 myelin content (T1w/T2w) across the cortex, whereas genes suppressing myelination
855 (*ID4*, *SOX5*, *SOX6*, *PDGFRA*) correlate negatively; **d.** Replication with an independent
856 gene expression dataset (BrainSpan) in adult brains (18-40 years old). Association
857 regions (frontal and inferior temporal cortex) are enriched in plasticity-promoting
858 genes; **e.** Normalized expression (TPM) of *MBP* as a marker for active myelination
859 shows that association - sensorimotor difference emerges soon after birth and is most
860 prominent during childhood; **f.** In contrast, difference in PNNs (*ACAN* expression) was
861 most pronounced in adulthood.

862

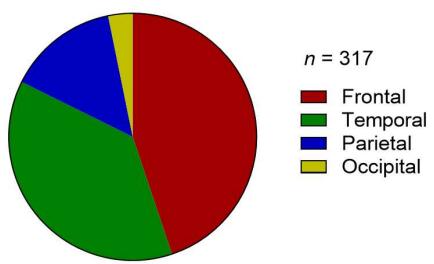
863 **Figure 4. a.** Frequency of glioma occurrences in adults across the four cortical lobes;
864 **b.** Relative expression levels of glioma-upregulated genes across cortical regions
865 (Desikan-Killiany atlas); **c.** The frontal and temporal cortex show significantly higher
866 expression of glioma-upregulated genes in adult brains in the absence of glioma (Allen
867 Human Brain Atlas); **d.** Replication of results with 6 adults brain samples from the
868 BrainSpan transcriptomic atlas.



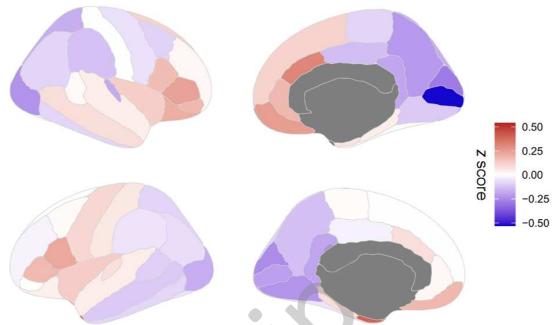




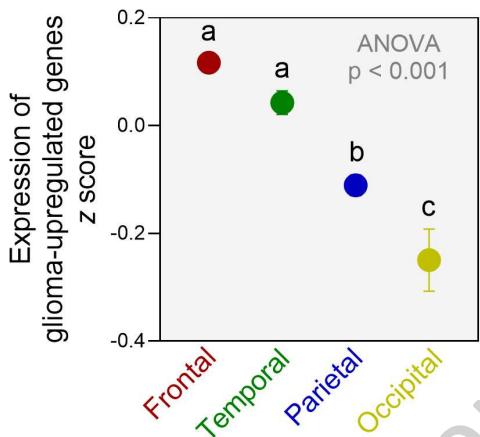
a Frequency of glioma across cortical lobes



b Expression of glioma-enriched genes



c Allen Brain Atlas



d BrainSpan Atlas

