

1 **Title**

2

3 **Spatiotemporal tissue maturation of thalamocortical pathways in the human fetal brain**

4

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32

33 **Abstract**

34

35 The development of connectivity between the thalamus and maturing cortex is a fundamental process  
36 in the second half of human gestation, establishing the neural circuits that are the basis for several  
37 important brain functions. In this study, we acquired high-resolution *in utero* diffusion MRI from 140

38 fetuses as part of the Developing Human Connectome Project, to examine the emergence of  
39 thalamocortical white matter over the second to third trimester. We delineate developing  
40 thalamocortical pathways and parcellate the fetal thalamus according to its cortical connectivity using  
41 diffusion tractography. We then quantify microstructural tissue components along the tracts in the fetal  
42 compartments that are critical substrates for white matter maturation, such as the subplate and  
43 intermediate zone. We identify patterns of change in the diffusion metrics that reflect critical  
44 neurobiological transitions occurring in the second to third trimester, such as the disassembly of radial  
45 glial scaffolding and the lamination of the cortical plate. These maturational trajectories of MR signal  
46 in transient fetal compartments provide a normative reference to complement histological knowledge,  
47 facilitating future studies to establish how developmental disruptions in these regions contribute to  
48 pathophysiology.

49

## 50 **Introduction**

51

52 Thalamocortical connections represent the most important inputs into the developing cortex during the  
53 second half of human gestation, where they play a key role in guiding cortical areal differentiation and  
54 establishing the circuitry responsible for sensory integration across the lifespan (Jones 2007; Price et  
55 al. 2006; Schummers, Sharma, and Sur 2005; Sharma, Angelucci, and Sur 2000; Sur and Rubenstein  
56 2005). Their importance is highlighted by previous work implicating disruptions to thalamocortical  
57 development during the perinatal period in the pathophysiology of neurodevelopmental disorders such  
58 as schizophrenia (Klingner et al. 2014; Marenco et al. 2012) bipolar disorder (Anticevic et al. 2014),  
59 and autism (Nair et al. 2013). Altered thalamocortical connectivity has also been described in preterm  
60 infants, and was used to predict cognitive outcome (Ball et al. 2013, 2015; Toulmin et al. 2021),  
61 highlighting the specific vulnerability of these pathways during the second to third trimester. Although  
62 thalamocortical development has been studied in animals (Brody et al. 1987; Ivica Kostović and  
63 Jovanov-Milošević 2006; Molnár and Blakemore 1995; Yakovlev et al. 1960) and post-mortem human  
64 tissue (Krsnik et al. 2017; Takahashi et al. 2012; Wilkinson et al. 2017) little is known about *in vivo*  
65 white matter maturation during fetal development.

66

67 White matter development in the late second and third trimesters of human gestation (between 21 and  
68 37 weeks) is characterised by a sequence of precisely timed biological processes occurring in transient  
69 compartments of the fetal brain (I. Kostović and Judaš 2015; Ivica Kostović and Judaš 2010). These  
70 processes include the migration of neurons along the radial glial scaffold, accumulation of  
71 thalamocortical axons in the superficial subplate, innervation of the target cortical area, conversion of  
72 radial glial cells into astrocytes, and ensheathment of axonal fibres (Krsnik et al 2017, Molliver et al.  
73 1973; Kostovic and Molliver 1974; Kostovic and Goldman-Rakic, 1983, 1984, 1990; Kostovic' and  
74 Judas' 2002, 2006, 2007, 2010). The challenge for *in vivo* neuroimaging studies is to disentangle the  
75 effect of these different neurobiological processes on the diffusion MRI signal, to improve mechanistic  
76 insight about the transformation of transient fetal compartments into segments of developing white  
77 matter (Kostovic 2012).

78

79 Recent advances in diffusion weighted imaging now allow *in vivo* characterization and estimation of  
80 white matter development during the fetal period. Tractography has been used to estimate the fetal  
81 brain's major white matter bundles and quantitatively characterise the evolution of the microstructure  
82 across the second half of gestation (Bui et al. 2006; Jaimes et al. 2020; Jakab et al. 2015; Keunen et al.  
83 2018; Khan et al. 2019; Lockwood Estrin et al. 2019; Machado-Rivas et al. 2021; Wilson et al. 2021;  
84 Zanin et al. 2011). Advanced acquisition and analysis methods enable the relative contribution of  
85 constituent tissue and fluid compartments to the diffusion signal to be estimated (Jeurissen et al. 2014;  
86 Pietsch et al. 2019). Using this approach, previous work has identified non-linear trends in diffusion  
87 metrics over the second to third trimester (Wilson et al., 2021). Namely, we observed an initial decrease  
88 in tissue fraction within developing white matter between 22 and 29W, which could be due to the radial  
89 glial scaffold disassembling (Rakic 2003). Subsequently, we observed an increase from 30 to 36W,  
90 potentially linked to more coherent fibre organisation, axonal outgrowth and ensheathment (Back 2002,  
91 Haynes 2005, Wimberger 1995), increasing the structural integrity of maturing white matter.  
92 Interpreting these trends is especially challenging in the rapidly developing fetal brain, because of the  
93 high sensitivity and low specificity of diffusion metrics to various co-occurring biological processes.

94

95 We hypothesise that the biological processes occurring in different fetal compartments leads to  
96 predictable changes in diffusion metrics along tracts, reflecting the appearance and resolution of these  
97 transient zones. When a mean value across the whole-tract is calculated, sensitivity to the unique  
98 neurobiological properties of each transient compartment is lost. For example, in the early prenatal and  
99 mid prenatal period, the subplate is a highly water-rich compartment containing extracellular matrix,  
100 whereas the cortical plate and the deep grey matter are relatively cell dense (Kostovic 2010). We  
101 therefore predict that the tissue fraction would be higher in the deep grey matter and the cortical plate  
102 and lower in the subplate. We investigate this by characterising the entire trajectory of tissue  
103 composition changes between the thalamus and the cortex, to explore the role of transient fetal brain  
104 developmental structures on white matter maturational trajectories.

105

106 We acquired diffusion weighted imaging from 140 fetuses over a wide gestational age (GA) range (21  
107 to 37W) and use tractography to delineate five distinct thalamocortical pathways. To investigate  
108 whether the immature axonal bundles can be traced back to specific and distinct locations within  
109 thalamus, we parcellate the thalamus according to streamline connectivity (Behrens et al., 2003). We  
110 find consistent and distinct origins of different tracts, resembling the adult topology of thalamic nuclei  
111 (Toulmin et al., 2015, Behrens et al., 2003) as early as 23W gestation. We then apply a multi-shell  
112 multi-tissue constrained spherical deconvolution (MSMT-CSD) diffusion model (Jeurissen et al, 2014)  
113 and derive tissue and fluid fraction values, charting tract-specific maturational profiles over the second  
114 to third trimester. We overlay the tracts on an atlas of transitioning fetal compartments and correlate  
115 changes in the diffusion MRI signal across time with critical neurodevelopmental processes, such as  
116 the dissolution of the subplate and lamination of the cortical plate. We demonstrate that along-tract  
117 sampling of diffusion metrics can capture temporal and compartmental differences in the second to third  
118 trimester, reflecting the maturing neurobiology of the fetal brain described in histology studies. With  
119 these methods, we provide a detailed, accurate reference of the unique developing microstructure in  
120 each tract that improves mechanistic insight about fibre maturation, bridging the gap between MRI and  
121 histology.



123 **Results**

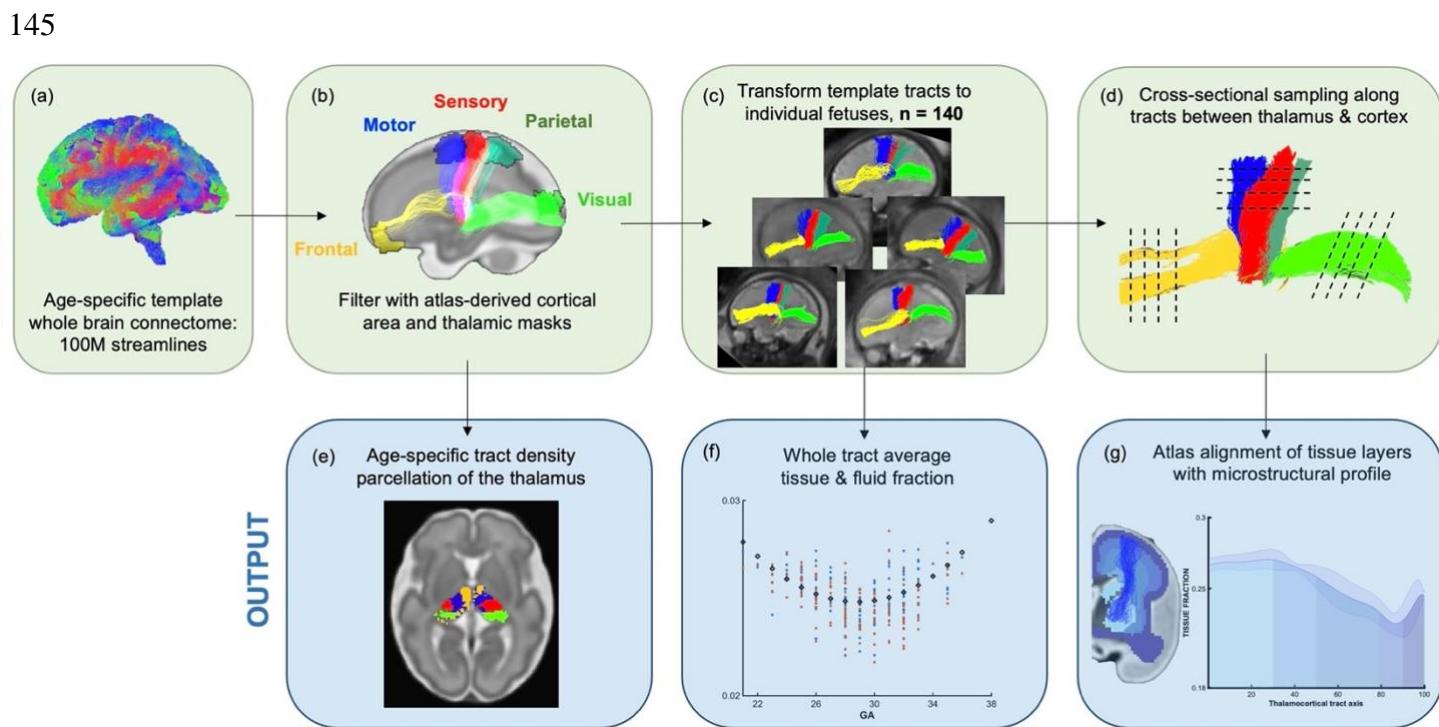
124

125 **Estimating thalamocortical pathways using probabilistic streamline tractography**

126

127 High-angular-resolution multi-shell diffusion weighted imaging (HARDI) was acquired from 140  
128 fetuses between 21 and 37 gestational weeks (70 male, 70 female) as part of the Developing Human  
129 Connectome Project (dHCP). Data were corrected for fetal head motion and other imaging artefacts  
130 (Christiaens et al, 2021). Individual subject orientation density functions (ODFs) were then computed  
131 using cohort-specific fluid and “tissue” response functions and compiled to generate weekly diffusion  
132 templates (see Methods). The diffusion templates were then registered to a T2-weighted brain atlas  
133 (Gholipour et al. 2017) of tissue segmentations, used to generate anatomically constrained whole-brain  
134 connectomes for each gestational week (Smith et al. 2012; Tournier et al. 2019). To constrain our  
135 investigation, we selected thalamocortical pathways that are at a critical stage in their development and  
136 are vulnerable to external influences in the second to third trimester (Bataille et al. 2017; Nosarti et al.  
137 2014; Raybaud et al. 2013), the anterior thalamic radiation (AT), thalamic-motor tract (TM), thalamic-  
138 sensory tract (TS), posterior parietal tract (PP) and optic radiation (OR) . The connectomes were filtered  
139 down to the pathways of interest using inclusion regions defined by the T2 atlas, including the thalamus  
140 and specific cortical areas (Figure 1). These included the primary motor cortex, primary sensory cortex,  
141 posterior parietal cortex, dorso-lateral prefrontal cortex, and the primary visual cortex. With this  
142 method, we were able to delineate five major thalamocortical pathways in each gestational week. To  
143 keep regions of interest more consistent across the cohort, we grouped all cases into two-weekly  
144 intervals, starting at 23w (Figure 2), replicating methods used previously (Wilson et al., 2021).

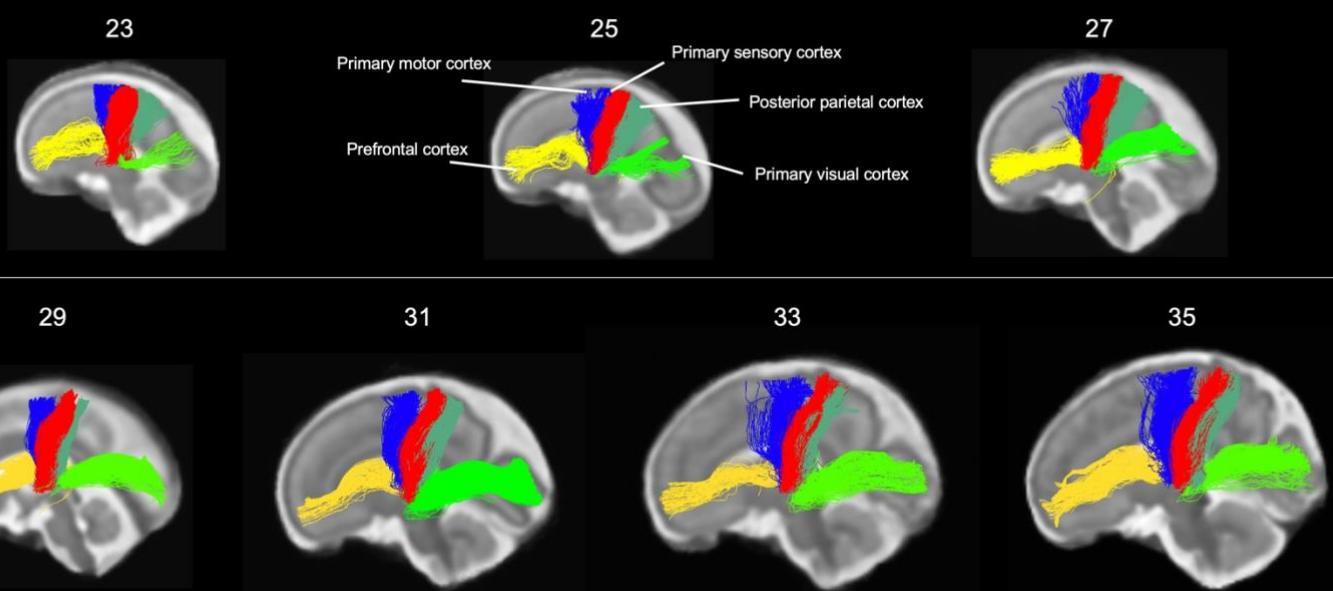
ANALYSIS PIPELINE



146 **Figure 1. Methods pipeline to estimate and quantify thalamocortical tracts development. (Top Row)**

147 (a) Whole brain connectomes generated for each gestational week template. (b) Atlas-defined masks of  
148 the thalamus and cortical areas were used to extract white matter pathways of interest from the  
149 connectomes. (c) These pathways were transformed to the native fetal diffusion space, (d) the values  
150 were sampled along the tract. (f) Whole-tract average diffusion metrics were calculated or (g) values  
151 sampled along the tract were aligned to an atlas of transient fetal compartments.

152



153

154 **Figure 2.** Tractography of thalamocortical pathways in different gestational week templates across the  
155 second to third trimester. Tracts project to 5 different cortical areas, the primary motor cortex, (blue)  
156 primary sensory cortex (red), posterior parietal cortex (teal), prefrontal cortex (yellow) and primary  
157 visual cortex (bright green).

158

159 **Structural connectivity parcellation of the fetal thalamus resembles adult topology of thalamic  
160 nuclei**

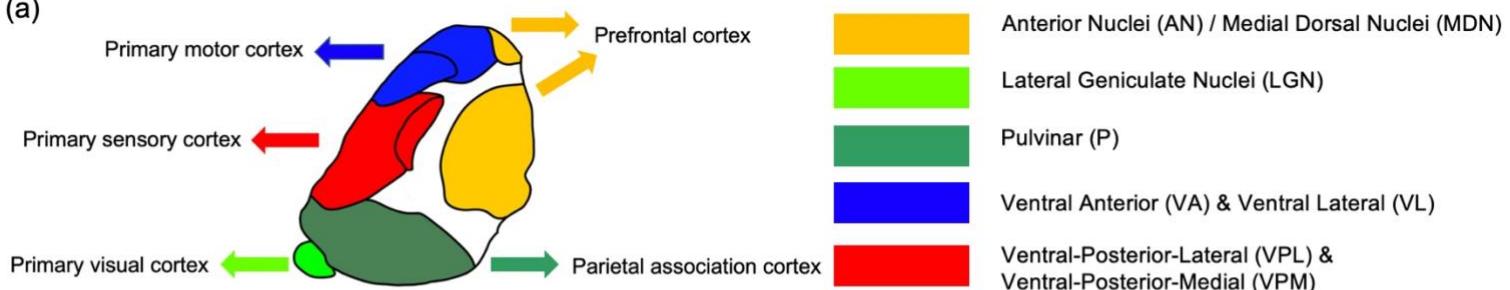
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162 Tract density imaging (Calamante 2010) was used in each ODF template to explore whether the  
163 different cortical areas were connected to distinct, specific regions of the thalamus (Figure 3a). We  
164 found that for all ages, there was symmetrical topographical representation of the cortical regions of  
165 interest in the thalamus. Furthermore, they spatially corresponded to the adult organisation of thalamic  
166 nuclei, demonstrated by the schematic (Figure 3a) which is based on Morel's thalamus and other  
167 connectivity derived parcellations from adult imaging studies (Morel, Magnin, and Jeanmonod 1997;  
168 Najdenovska et al. 2018; Niemann et al. 2000). The tract projecting to the prefrontal cortex was  
169 connected to the anterior thalamus and in the younger ages (23-29W) also to the medial thalamus. In

170 the older templates (31, 33 and 35W), frontal connectivity was more localised to the anterior thalamus  
171 and less evident in the medial area. There were distinct but neighbouring areas in the ventral thalamus  
172 connecting to the sensory and motor cortical areas, the motor-connected thalamic region being more  
173 frontal. The connectivity of the posterior parietal area was in the posterior part of the thalamus, and the  
174 most posterior voxels in the thalamic mask projected to the primary visual cortex.

175

(a)



(b) AT

TM

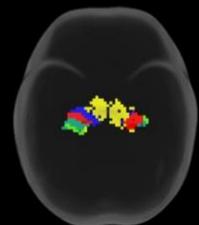
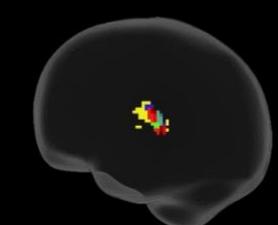
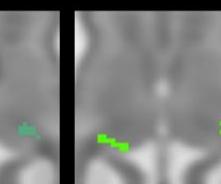
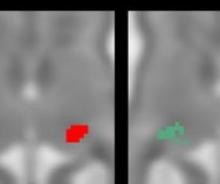
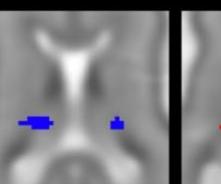
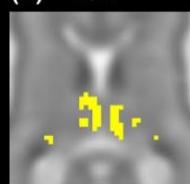
TS

PP

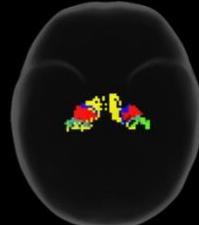
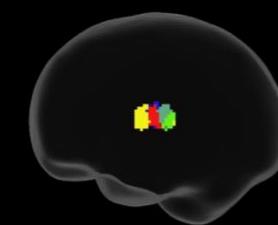
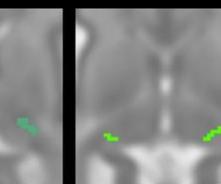
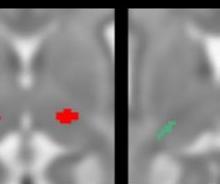
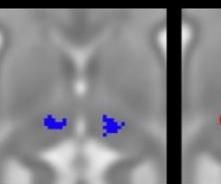
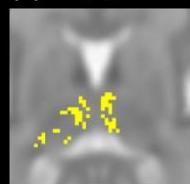
OR

3D

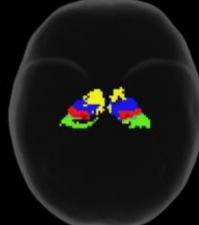
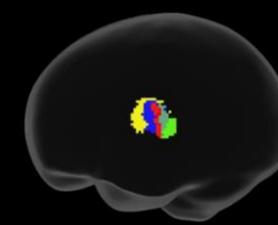
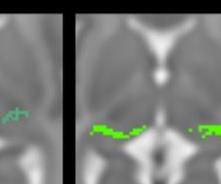
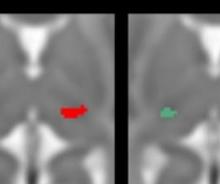
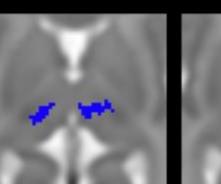
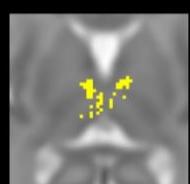
23w



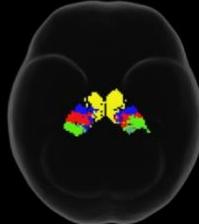
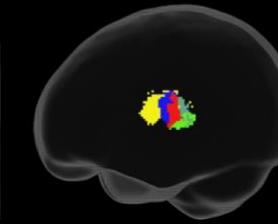
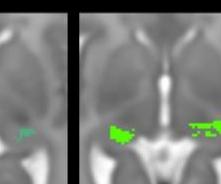
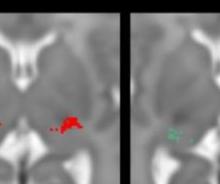
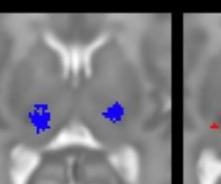
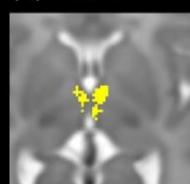
27w



31w



35w



176

177 **Figure 3. Tract-density imaging parcellation of at different fetal ages (a)** A schematic of expected  
178 cortical connectivity arrangement across the thalamus, based on Morel's parcellation of the adult  
179 thalamic nuclei (b) Axial slices of thalamic parcellation, thresholded for the top 20% of voxels, colour-  
180 coded according to streamline connectivity of different tracts at 23w, (c) 27w (d) 31w and (e) 35w.

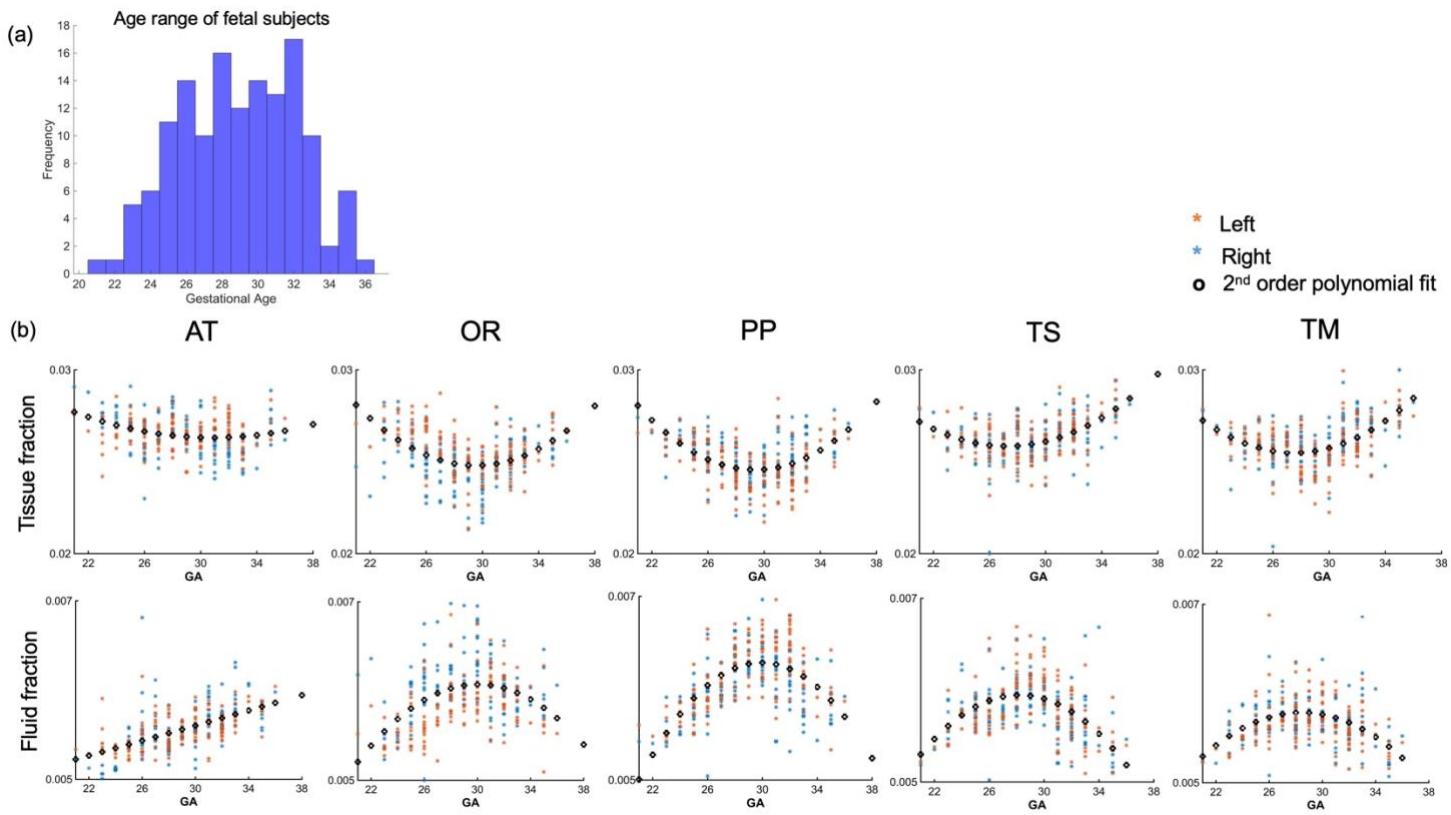
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182 **Whole-tract average diffusion metrics have a characteristic U-shaped trend across the second to**  
183 **third trimester**

184

185 The thalamocortical pathways were transformed from the age-matched templates to the native subject  
186 space for 140 fetal subjects (Figure 4a). The MSMT-CSD-derived voxel-average tissue and fluid ODF  
187 values were sampled along the warped group-average streamline tracts. Tract-specific values were  
188 derived by averaging these for each tract in each subject, replicating the approach that has been used in  
189 previous fetal studies (Wilson et al., 2021). The values for each tract were plotted against the GA of the  
190 subject. The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) suggested second order polynomial relationships for  
191 all tracts for both tissue and fluid fraction metrics, except the fluid fraction in the AT which is linear  
192 (Figure 4b).

193



194

195 **Figure 4. Diffusion metric age-trajectories for each tract** (a) Distribution of age among the fetal cohort  
196 in gestational weeks. (b) Whole-tract average tissue (top) and fluid fractions (bottom) for each subject  
197 in the left (orange) and right (blue) hemisphere, plotted against gestational age (GA) of the subject,  
198 best fit by 2<sup>nd</sup> order polynomials. (AT = anterior thalamic radiation, OR = optic radiation, PP =  
199 TS = thalamic-sensory tract, TM = thalamic-motor tract).

200

201

## 202 **Along-tract sampling reveals evolving properties of fetal brain transient compartments**

203

204 To explore the origins of these trends in diffusion metrics, the values of tissue and fluid fraction were  
205 sampled in subject-space at 100 equidistant intervals between the thalamus and the cortex. Tissue and  
206 fluid fraction are scaled jointly per scan such that they are approximately reciprocal of one another  
207 across the brain using a cubic polynomial spatial model (Pietsch et al. 2019). In each subject, we  
208 sampled the tissue and fluid fraction values beneath the streamlines from the thalamus to the cortex,

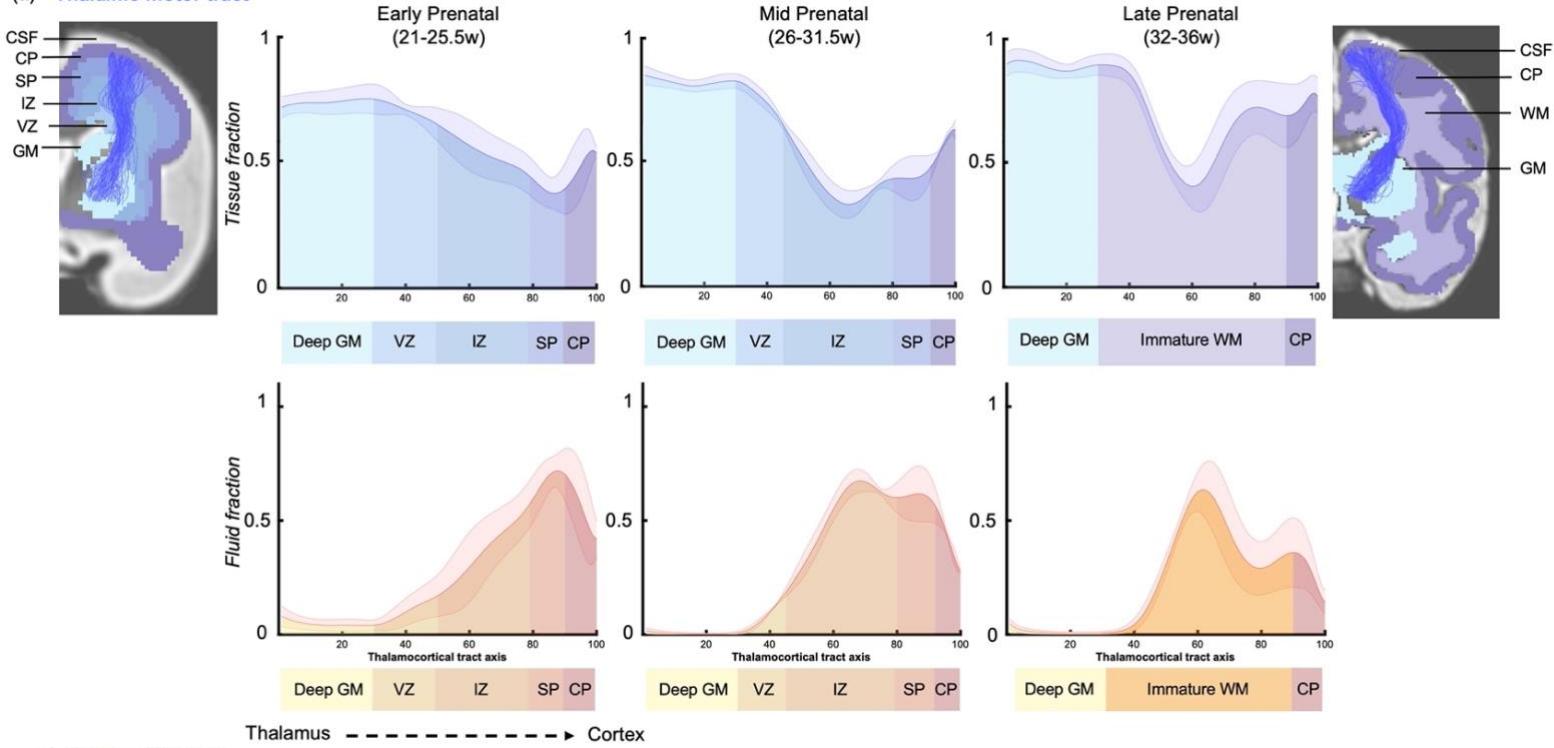
209 plotting the microstructural tissue composition against the distance from the thalamus (Figure 5). We  
210 found that trajectories changed gradually between gestational weeks, and therefore we grouped them to  
211 match previous histology studies that define this fetal period according to three developmental  
212 windows, early (21-25.5w), mid (26-31.5w) and late (32-36w) prenatal period (Kostovic, Vasung et al  
213 2020) (see supplementary info). When comparing the microstructural profiles of all the tracts in the  
214 different periods, the motor, sensory and parietal tracts shared similar trajectories, whilst those in the  
215 anterior thalamic and optic radiation tracts were more distinct (Figure 5a, b, c and Supplementary Figure  
216 1(a) and (b)).

217

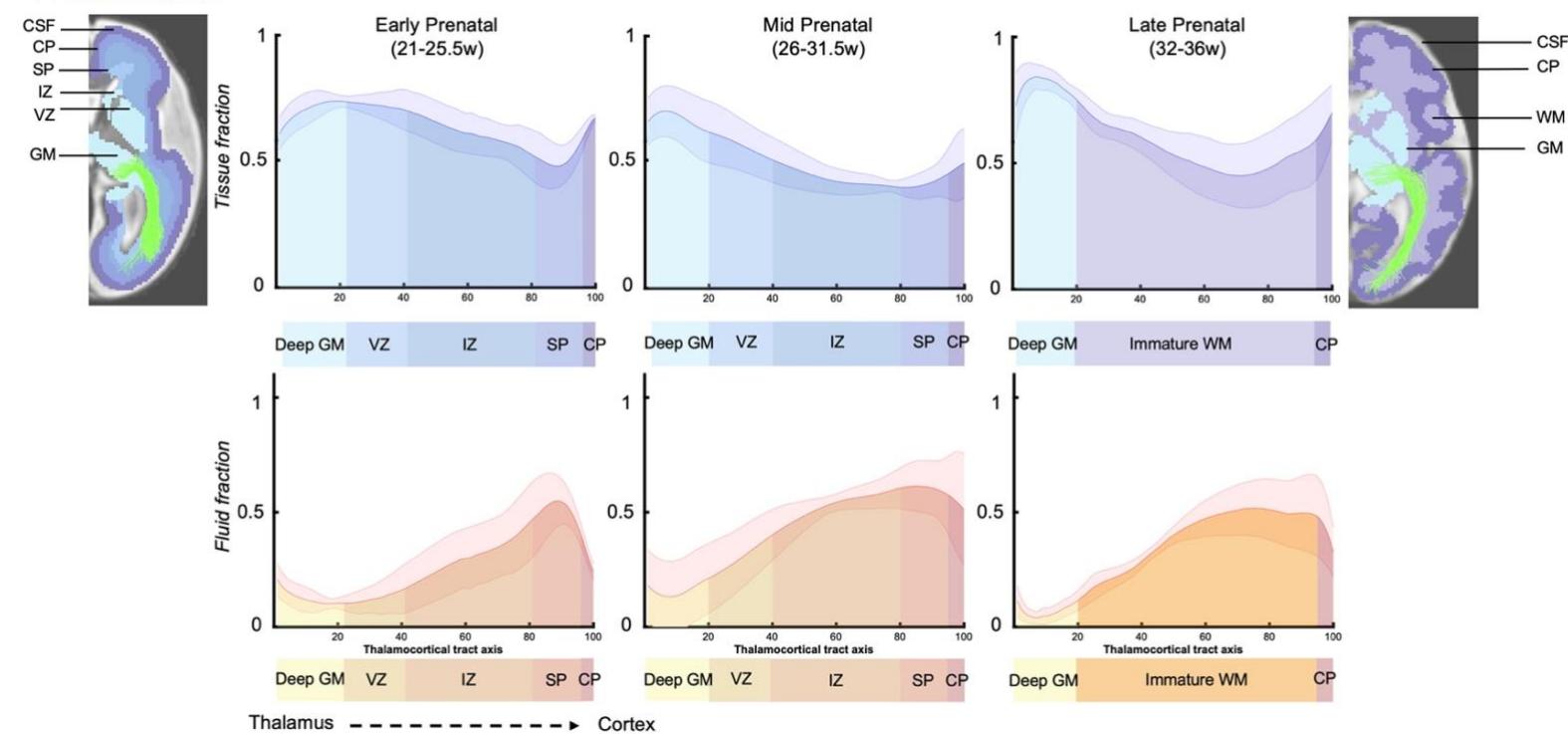
218 To improve our ability to corroborate changes in the diffusion MRI signal with observations from  
219 histological studies, we mapped the maturational trajectories to an atlas of fetal brain compartments  
220 (Gholipour et al. 2017) and overlayed the boundaries of these compartments on the tissue and fluid  
221 fraction trajectories (Figure 5). Tissue fraction values in the deep grey matter and the cortical plate areas  
222 increased with gestational age in all tracts. This increase was most marked in the tracts terminating in  
223 superior areas of the brain (motor, sensory and superior parietal cortex) (Figure 5(a) TM, Supplementary  
224 Figure 1(a) TS and (b) PP). The tissue fraction of the ventricular and intermediate zones decreased  
225 between the early and mid-prenatal period, in all tracts. This decrease was very pronounced in the motor,  
226 sensory and superior parietal tracts. The subplate tissue fraction changes were more tract specific. In  
227 the subplate of sensorimotor and parietal tracts, there was initially a very high fluid fraction and low  
228 tissue fraction, which transitions across the second to third trimester, increasing in tissue fraction from  
229 early to mid and then to late prenatal. Whereas in the anterior thalamic radiation, there was a decrease  
230 in subplate tissue fraction with GA (and a reciprocal increase in fluid fraction). In the optic radiation,  
231 the subplate tissue fraction decreases between early and mid-prenatal to then increase again in late  
232 prenatal. Highest tissue fractions were generally observed in the ventricular zone, with the lowest tissue  
233 fraction in the subplate area.

234

(a) Thalamic-motor tract



(b) Optic Radiation



235

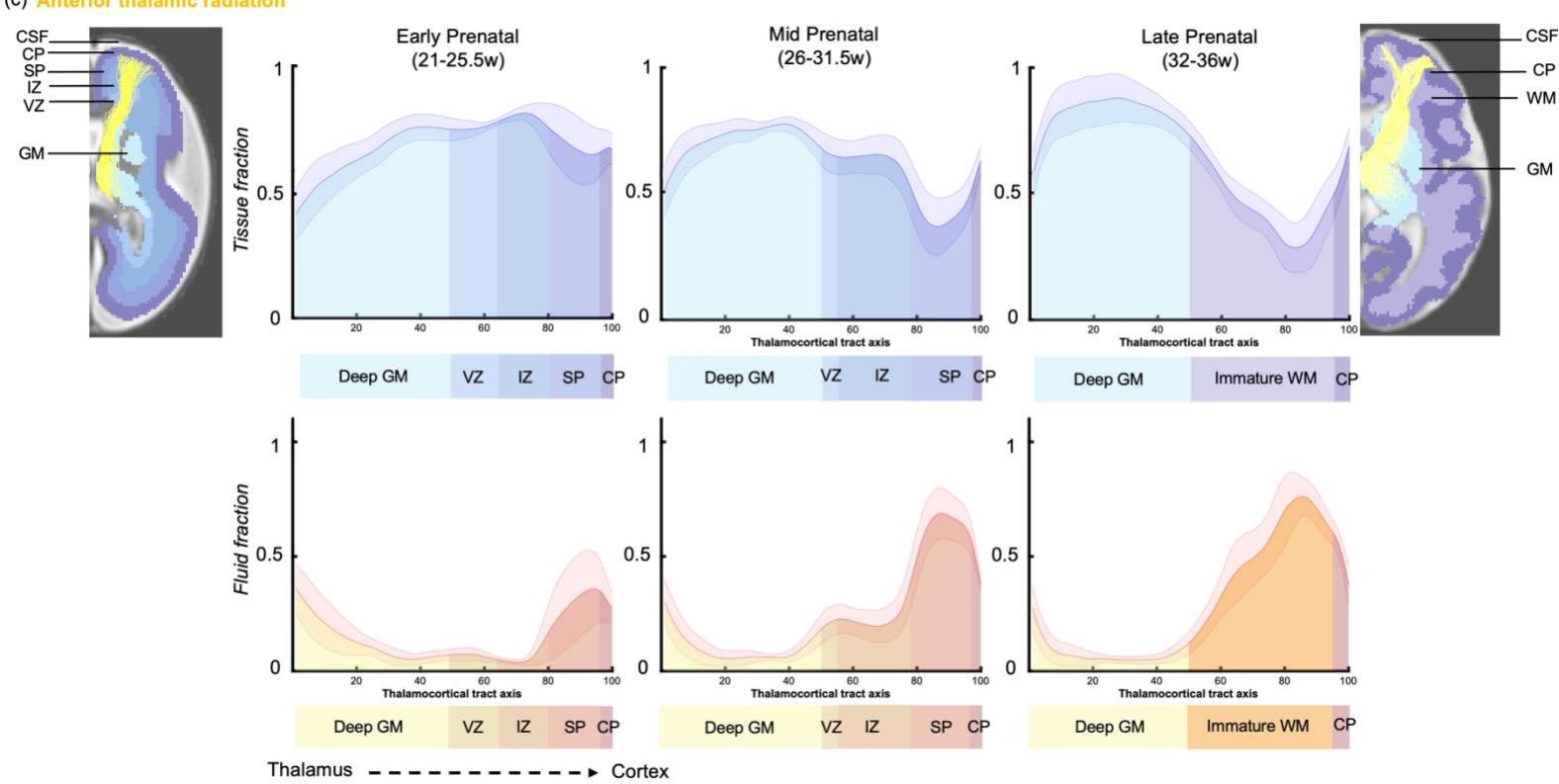
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238

239

(c) **Anterior thalamic radiation**



240

241

242 **Figure 5. Microstructural composition of fetal compartments traversed by developing thalamic white**  
 243 **matter. Tracts were overlayed on the atlas of fetal compartments (examples highlight the difference**  
 244 **between fetal brain structure in early prenatal (25w) on far left, and late prenatal (35w) on far right).**  
 245 **Tissue fraction trends (top row) and fluid fraction trends (bottom row), normalised to 1, between the**  
 246 **thalamus and cortex (thalamocortical tract axis) for the (a) Thalamic-motor tract, (b) Optic radiation**  
 247 **and (c) Anterior thalamic radiation. Subjects were grouped by age, and average trajectories plotted for**  
 248 **early prenatal (22-25.5w), mid prenatal (26-31.5w), late prenatal (32-36w). Error bars represent the**  
 249 **standard deviation among all subjects in each group. Atlas-derived tissue boundaries are marked on**  
 250 **the trajectories to reveal the changing tissue properties of each layer between early, mid and late**  
 251 **prenatal development. (Cortical spinal fluid = CSF, Cortical plate = CP, Subplate = SP, Intermediate**  
 252 **zone = IZ, Ventricular zone = VZ, Deep grey matter = GM, Immature white matter = WM).**

253

254 **Discussion**

255 In this work, we studied *in utero* development of five distinct thalamocortical pathways using state-of-  
256 the-art diffusion MR imaging methods and bespoke pre-processing pipeline (Christiaens et al. 2019;  
257 Cordero-Grande et al. 2019; Hutter, Christiaens, et al. 2018; Pietsch et al. 2019; Wilson et al. 2021) in  
258 140 fetuses aged 21 to 37 weeks gestation. We show that these pathways connect to distinct thalamic  
259 nuclei, which could be clearly defined at group level even at 23W. To disentangle the impact of different  
260 neurobiological processes on diffusion metrics, we characterized the tissue composition profile along  
261 each of the thalamocortical tracts as they traverse the different developmental tissue layers of the fetal  
262 brain. We found the spatiotemporal changes in the diffusion signal reflected known developmental  
263 processes that take place between the early, mid and late prenatal period. The early period is  
264 characterized by higher tissue fractions in the middle of the tract, where there is a radial scaffold for  
265 migrating neurons. As this scaffold dissipates in the mid prenatal period, this is accompanied by a  
266 reduction in the tissue fraction in the middle of the tract, and an increase in towards the termination of  
267 the tracts as the neurons of the cortical plate mature. Finally in the late prenatal period, we observe the  
268 highest tissue fraction values at the start and end of the axis, as the premyelination phase of white matter  
269 development commences. This study demonstrates how the diffusion MRI signal can be modelled to  
270 create *in vivo* spatiotemporal trajectories which relate to underlying neurobiological properties and are  
271 consistent with described trends from post-mortem histology (Kostovic, Progress in Neurobiology  
272 2020).

273 Early embryonic patterning of gene expression and cell division in the thalamus provide a template for  
274 specialised nuclei to emerge over the course of development, such that specific cells eventually occupy  
275 distinct locations within the thalamus (Clascá, Rubio-Garrido, and Jabaudon 2012; Nakagawa 2019)  
276 Thalamocortical tracts emerge over the same timescale as the thalamus parcellates and matures into its  
277 specialised group of nuclei (Clascá, Rubio-Garrido, and Jabaudon 2012). Although the topography of  
278 thalamic nuclei and their cortical connectivity is acquired embryonically, no *in vivo* parcellation of the  
279 thalamus in the fetal brain has been published. Using tract density imaging, we observed that the cortical  
280 areas were connected to specific thalamic regions, organised in an anterior-posterior axis. This anterior-  
281 posterior representation of cortical connectivity in the thalamus was consistent across the second to

282 third trimester and is in accordance with the topology of thalamic nuclei described in animal studies  
283 and histology (Molnar & Blakemore, 1995; Molnar et al., 1998a, b). In addition, our fetal structural  
284 connectivity parcellation resembles the functionally-derived thalamic parcellation in neonates,  
285 supporting the view that there is a strong association between structure and function in thalamocortical  
286 circuitry that begins early in life (Johansen-Berg 2005, Toulmin 2015, Alcauter 2014). It is worth noting  
287 that this thalamic parcellation is dependent on streamline count through a voxel, and in the fetal brain  
288 streamlines are prone to spurious detection. Particularly in the youngest fetuses, where we observe an  
289 extremely dense connectome (due to a fixed number of streamlines in a smaller brain) but there are very  
290 few coherent axonal bundles, tracts might be overrepresented in the thalamic parcellation.

291  
292 Recent studies characterising developing white matter pathways using human fetal MRI identified 2<sup>nd</sup>  
293 order polynomial maturational trends in diffusion metrics unique to this developmental period (Wilson  
294 et al., 2021, Machado-Riveras et al., 2021). Here we replicated these methods with a different group of  
295 tracts and found the same U-shaped trends in thalamocortical white matter development. The inflection  
296 point at around 29-30w was hypothesised to be the result of the dissipating radial glial scaffold followed  
297 by the pre-myelination phase of white matter development (Wilson et al., 2021, Machado-Riveras et  
298 al., 2021). The sensitivity of HARDI to radially organised structure in the fetal brain has been described  
299 by previous studies (Miyazaki, Song, and Takahashi 2016; Takahashi et al. 2012; Xu et al. 2014)  
300 combining it with post-mortem tissue analysis to show that radially coherent diffusion signal  
301 corresponded to radial glial fibres in the early prenatal period, transitioning to cortico-cortical fibres  
302 around 30 weeks, coinciding with the appearance of astrocytes (Takahashi et al. 2012; Xu et al. 2014).  
303 However, with whole-tract average values, it is not possible to establish the precise effect of different  
304 neurodevelopmental processes on diffusion metrics across gestation.

305  
306 To address this ambiguity, we characterised the entire trajectory of tissue composition changes between  
307 the thalamus and the cortex. We found that age-related changes in the tissue and fluid fraction along  
308 the tracts concurred with histological observations (Ivica Kostović and Judaš 2010). During the early  
309 prenatal period (22 - 25.5 GW), neuronal precursors migrate along the radial glial scaffold from

310 proliferative zones to their destination in the cortical plate and thalamocortical axons accumulate in the  
311 superficial subplate, entering a “waiting phase”, forming transient synaptic connections (Ghosh et al.  
312 1990; I. Kostovic and Rakic 1984; Ivica Kostovic and Goldman-Rakic 1983; Ivica Kostovic and Rakic  
313 1990a). In terms of the diffusion signal, this strongly aligned microstructure of the radial glia is  
314 represented in our results by a higher tissue fraction in the transient compartments containing the most  
315 migratory cells (such as the VZ, IZ) (Ivica Kostović and Judaš 2010). Conversely, we observe the lowest  
316 tissue fraction in the early prenatal SP, as this compartment predominantly contains hydrophilic  
317 extracellular matrix (Allendoerfer and Shatz 1994; Miller et al. 2014; Bakken et al. 2016; Molnár and  
318 Hoerder-Suabedissen 2016).

319

320 By the mid prenatal period (26w-31.5w), we observe increased tissue fraction in the cortical plate,  
321 coinciding with the innervation of the cortical plate by thalamocortical axons, increasing soma volume  
322 and dendritic branching of CP neurons and CP synaptogenesis (Huttenlocher and Dabholkar 1997; Peter  
323 R. 1979; zljak et al. 1992). We also observe increased tissue fraction in the SP zone in the mid prenatal  
324 period, consistent with histological observations of increased coherence of axonal fibres between  
325 cortical areas (Takahashi et al. 2012; Xu et al. 2014). The tissue fraction in the VZ and IZ decreases  
326 compared to the early prenatal period, corresponding to the timeframe when the radial glial scaffold  
327 dissipates (Back et al. 2001; Haynes et al. 2005; Kinney et al. 1988).

328

329 From the mid to late prenatal period, there is a marked increase in tissue fraction in last third of the axis  
330 between thalamus and cortex. By this point in development, the radial glia have converted into  
331 oligodendrocyte precursor cells which ensheathe the axonal fibres to commence pre-myelination,  
332 enhancing the structural integrity of the fibre pathways (Back et al. 2001, 2002; Haynes et al. 2005;  
333 Kinney et al. 1988, 1994). A previous study has shown that this oligodendrocyte lineage progression  
334 correlates with diffusion metrics (Drobyshevsky et al. 2005) suggesting it is likely to contribute to the  
335 increased tissue fraction we observe in the late prenatal period. The tissue fraction increase in the CP  
336 area is consistent in time with the lamination of the CP, the elaboration of thalamocortical terminals in  
337 layer IV and a rapid growth of basal dendrites of layer III and V pyramidal neurons (Ivica Kostovic and

338 Goldman-Rakic 1983; Ivica Kostović and Judaš 2006; Krsnik et al. 2017; Molliver, Kostović, and Van  
339 Der Loos 1973). These high tissue fraction values at the origin and termination of the tracts suggest co-  
340 maturation between ascending and descending pathways between the thalamus and cortex to eventually  
341 form continuous, structurally mature fibre bundles. This concept was proposed in the 90's by Blakemore  
342 and Molnar, termed the "handshake hypothesis". They suggested that thalamocortical pathways  
343 ascending through the internal capsule project to their cortical targets with assistance from reciprocal  
344 descending cortical pathways (Molnár and Blakemore 1995). We hypothesise that continuing this  
345 analysis over subsequent weeks into the neonatal period, would lead to an increasing tissue fraction in  
346 the middle of the axis, as fibre bundles become more uniformly structurally mature and the subplate  
347 completely resolves (Haynes et al. 2005; Kinney et al. 1988, 1994; Ivica Kostović and Judaš 2006).

348

349 We observed that tracts terminating superiorly (motor, sensory and parietal) shared very similar  
350 trajectories in the early, mid and late periods. However, the optic radiation and the anterior thalamic  
351 radiation had more distinct trajectories. The microstructural change along the anterior thalamic radiation  
352 suggests increasing tissue fraction between the deep grey matter, VZ and IZ. We hypothesise that the  
353 high tissue fraction in the IZ is due to densely packed ascending and descending bundles within the  
354 anterior limb of the internal capsule (Emos and Agarwal 2019). On the other hand, the optic radiation  
355 traverses the deep parietal lobe along the border of the lateral ventricle and has smoother transitions in  
356 tissue fraction between the fetal compartments. This is likely due to the tract area running more parallel  
357 to the tissue interfaces. Another explanation for the regional differences in microstructural properties is  
358 the variation in subplate remnants. In the late prenatal trajectories, all tracts except the optic radiation  
359 have a large dip in tissue fraction along the tract. In the primary visual cortex, the subplate disappears  
360 during the final weeks of gestation, whereas in the somatosensory cortex there are still subplate neurons  
361 present in term-born neonates (Ivica Kostovic and Rakic 1990b) and the subplate of the pre-frontal  
362 associative cortex gradually disappears over the six postnatal months. Therefore, the peaks of fluid  
363 fraction in the frontal and sensory trajectories might reflect the lasting presence of subplate in these  
364 areas (Ivica Kostović and Judaš 2006; Ivica Kostovic and Rakic 1990a).

365

366 The methods described allow the direct study of the maturational effects of the subplate and  
367 intermediate zones, which are known to represent critical substrates for early synaptogenesis and the  
368 spatial guidance of thalamocortical axons (Ghosh et al. 1990). Damage to this essential structural  
369 framework for developing cortical circuitry has been implicated in the origins of numerous  
370 developmental disorders, and is suspected to underly the altered structural and functional connectivity  
371 of the thalamus in preterm infants (Kostovic et al. 1989; Kostovic et al. 2011; Volpe 1996, 2000; Huppi  
372 et al. 2001; Kostovic and Judas 2002, 2006, 2007, 2010; Counsell et al. 2003; McQuillen and Ferriero  
373 2005; Hadders-Algra 2007; Mathur and Inder 2009; Kinney et al. 2012, Toulmin et al., 2015, Ball et  
374 al., 2012, Ball et al., 2015, Kostovic & Judas 2010, Volpe 2009, Toulmin cerebral cortex). It is therefore  
375 critical to use clinically relevant tools, such as in utero MRI, to relate the microstructural properties of  
376 these transient fetal compartments to neurobiological processes. This improves mechanistic insight  
377 about both healthy white matter maturation and the developmental origins of white-matter pathologies.  
378

379 With this study we explore the development of thalamocortical white matter by quantifying  
380 microstructure in the different layers of the fetal brain. Using diffusion metrics, we characterise the  
381 emergence of structural connectivity from the thalamus to spatially and functionally distinct cortical  
382 brain regions. We observe correlations between the transitioning tissue components and key  
383 neurobiological processes in white matter development. By providing a detailed normative reference of  
384 MR signal change during the second to third trimester, this will help future studies to identify if the  
385 tissue properties of specific compartments are affected by preterm birth or other perinatal injury. To  
386 this effect, all fetal MRI data is made available to the research community.  
387

## 388 **Materials and Methods**

### 389 **Sample**

390 The study was approved by the UK Health Research Authority (Research Ethics Committee reference  
391 number: 14/LO/1169) and written parental consent was obtained in every case for imaging and open  
392 data release of the anonymized data.

393

394 **Acquisition, pre-processing, and quality control**

395

396 GA was determined by sonography at 12 post-ovulatory weeks as part of routine clinical care. 300 fetal  
397 MRI datasets were acquired with a Philips Achieva 3T system, with a 32-channel cardiac coil in  
398 maternal supine position. dMRI data was collected with a combined spin echo and field echo (SAFE)  
399 sequence (Hutter, Slator, et al. 2018, Cordero-Grande et al., 2018) at 2 mm isotropic resolution, using  
400 a multi-shell diffusion encoding that consists of 15 volumes at  $b= 0 \text{ s/mm}^2$ , 46 volumes at  $b= 400 \text{ s/mm}^2$   
401 , and 80 volumes at  $b= 1000 \text{ s/mm}^2$  lasting 14 minutes (Christiaens et al., 2019). The protocol also  
402 included the collection of structural T2w, T1w, and fMRI data, for a total imaging time of approximately  
403 45 minutes (Price et al., 2019).

404

405 dMRI data were processed using a bespoke pipeline (Christiaens et al., 2019) that includes Generalized  
406 Singular Value Shrinkage (GSVS) image denoising and debiasing from complex data (Cordero-Grande  
407 et al., 2019), dynamic distortion correction of susceptibility-induced B0 field changes using the SAFE  
408 information (Ghiglia 1994, Cordero-Grande et al., 2018, Hutter, Slator, et al. 2018) and slice-to-volume  
409 motion correction based on a multi-shell spherical harmonics and radial decomposition (SHARD)  
410 representation (Christiaens et al., 2021). Quality control was implemented using summary metrics based  
411 on the gradient of the motion parameters over time and the percentage of slice dropouts in the data  
412 (Christiaens et al., 2021). This was followed up with expert visual assessment, which considered any  
413 residual or uncorrected artefacts. Based on the above criteria, 140 of the 300 subjects that were pre-  
414 processed were classified as high-quality reconstructions for both DWI and T2 modalities. Both DWI  
415 and T2 for each fetus were required to facilitate co-registration to template space via a structural  
416 intermediate.

417

418 **Diffusion modelling and template generation**

419

420 All diffusion processing and tractography was done using MRtrix3 (Tournier 2019). To model the tissue  
421 and fluid components of the diffusion data, WM and CSF response functions were estimated for each

422 subject using T2-based tissue segmentations as inclusion areas. WM response functions were extracted  
423 from areas of relatively mature white matter (corticospinal tract and corpus callosum) using the  
424 “tournier” algorithm and CSF responses using the “dhollander” algorithm in MRtrix3 (Jeurissen et al.  
425 2014; Tournier et al. 2019; Tournier, Calamante, and Connelly 2013, Dhollander 2019). The WM  
426 response functions of the oldest 20 subjects were averaged to obtain a group-average response function  
427 of relatively mature WM, whilst a group-average CSF response function was calculated from the whole  
428 cohort of subjects. dMRI signal of all subjects was subsequently deconvolved into tissue ODF and fluid  
429 components using MSMT-CSD and the group-average WM and CSF response functions (Jeurissen et  
430 al. 2014), and resulting components were intensity normalised for each subject (Raffelt et al. 2011).  
431 Subject ODFs warped into weekly templates through a series of coarse pose normalisation and nonlinear  
432 diffeomorphic image registration steps (Jenkinson 2002, Raffelt 2011, Pietsch 2019). These  
433 transformations were composed to obtain pairs of inverse consistent diffeomorphic subject-to-template  
434 and template-to subject warps.

435

### 436 **Connectome generation & tractography**

437

438 The ODF templates were co-registered to the Boston T2-fetal atlas (Gholipour et al. 2017) using non-  
439 linear registration (Avants, Tustison, and Johnson 2014). The tissue segmentations of the cortex, white  
440 matter and deep grey matter were used for anatomically constrained tractography to generate whole-  
441 brain structural connectomes of 100M streamlines in each gestational week (Smith et al. 2012; Tournier  
442 et al. 2019). The connectomes were filtered down to 10M streamlines using the SIFT algorithm (Smith  
443 et al. 2013; Tournier et al. 2019), so that the number of streamlines connecting the two regions are  
444 approximately proportional to the cross-sectional area of the fibres connecting them (Smith et al. 2013).  
445 In each weekly template, thalamocortical pathways of interest were defined in both hemispheres by  
446 filtering the connectome using seed regions derived from the Boston T2-fetal atlas (Gholipour et al.  
447 2017), including the thalamus, primary motor cortex, primary sensory cortex, posterior parietal cortex,  
448 dorso-lateral prefrontal cortex, and primary visual cortex. We also used additional ROIs to exclude

449 spurious streamlines that were projecting away from the expected path of the tract (for example, to  
450 exclude callosal fibres from the thalamic-motor tract).

451

#### 452 **Tract-density parcellation of thalamus**

453

454 Tckmap was used to identify which voxels in the thalamus mask were traversed by the streamlines of  
455 each tract (Calamante et al. 2010). The tract density maps were merged using FSL (Jenkinson et al.  
456 2012) and a colour-coded parcellation volume was constructed reflecting the maximum density tract  
457 for each voxel. For visualisation, the tract density maps for each tract were thresholded at 80%, only to  
458 include voxels with the highest streamline connectivity.

459

#### 460 **Extracting tissue and fluid fraction values**

461

462 To extract diffusion metrics for analysis, In parallel, tracts were transformed from the templates to  
463 age-matched subject space to be overlaid onto the normalised fluid ODF, and the normalised tissue  
464 ODF. The mean value within the segmented tracts was calculated to give the tissue and fluid  
465 fractions.

466

#### 467 **Microstructural profiling**

468

469 In each template, thalamocortical tracts were filtered so all the streamlines for each tract were the same  
470 length, to ensure even sampling intervals along them. All template tracts were then registered into a  
471 standard space and resampled to 100 points (Tournier et al. 2019), before being transformed to  
472 individual subjects and overlaid on the normalised tissue and fluid fraction maps. The average value for  
473 each sampling point was calculated to create a microstructural profile along the path between the  
474 thalamus and the cortical plate. To provide a reference for microstructural differences between fetal  
475 brain compartments, tracts were overlaid on the atlas-derived tissue parcellations. The value of the  
476 tissue labels underlying the tract were used to establish which sampling points corresponded to each

477 fetal compartment. These boundaries between compartments were then used to label the plots in Figure  
478 5.

479

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496

497 **Competing interests**

498 The authors declare no competing interests.

499

500 **References**

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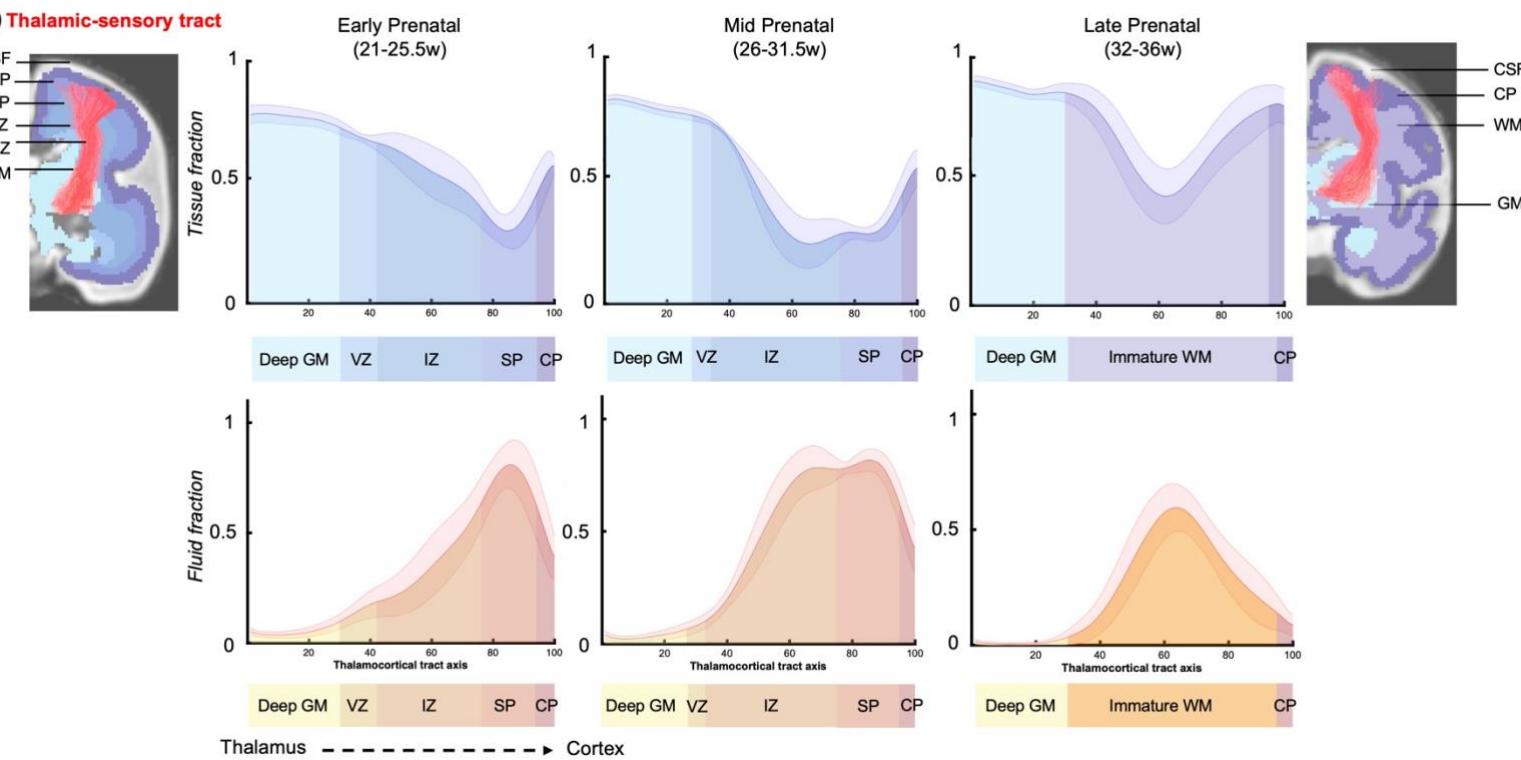
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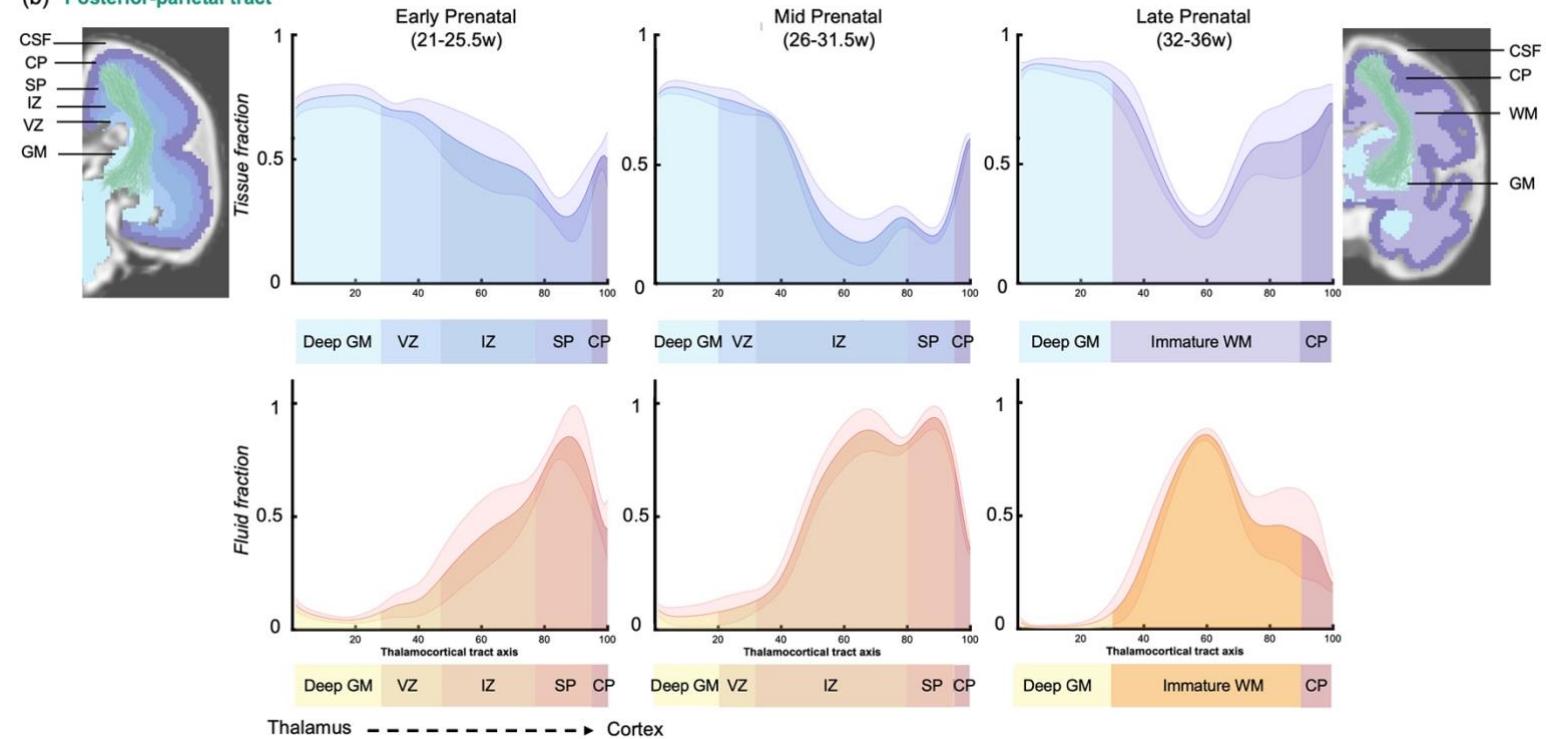
## Supplementary Information

### Supplementary Figure 1.

#### (a) Thalamic-sensory tract

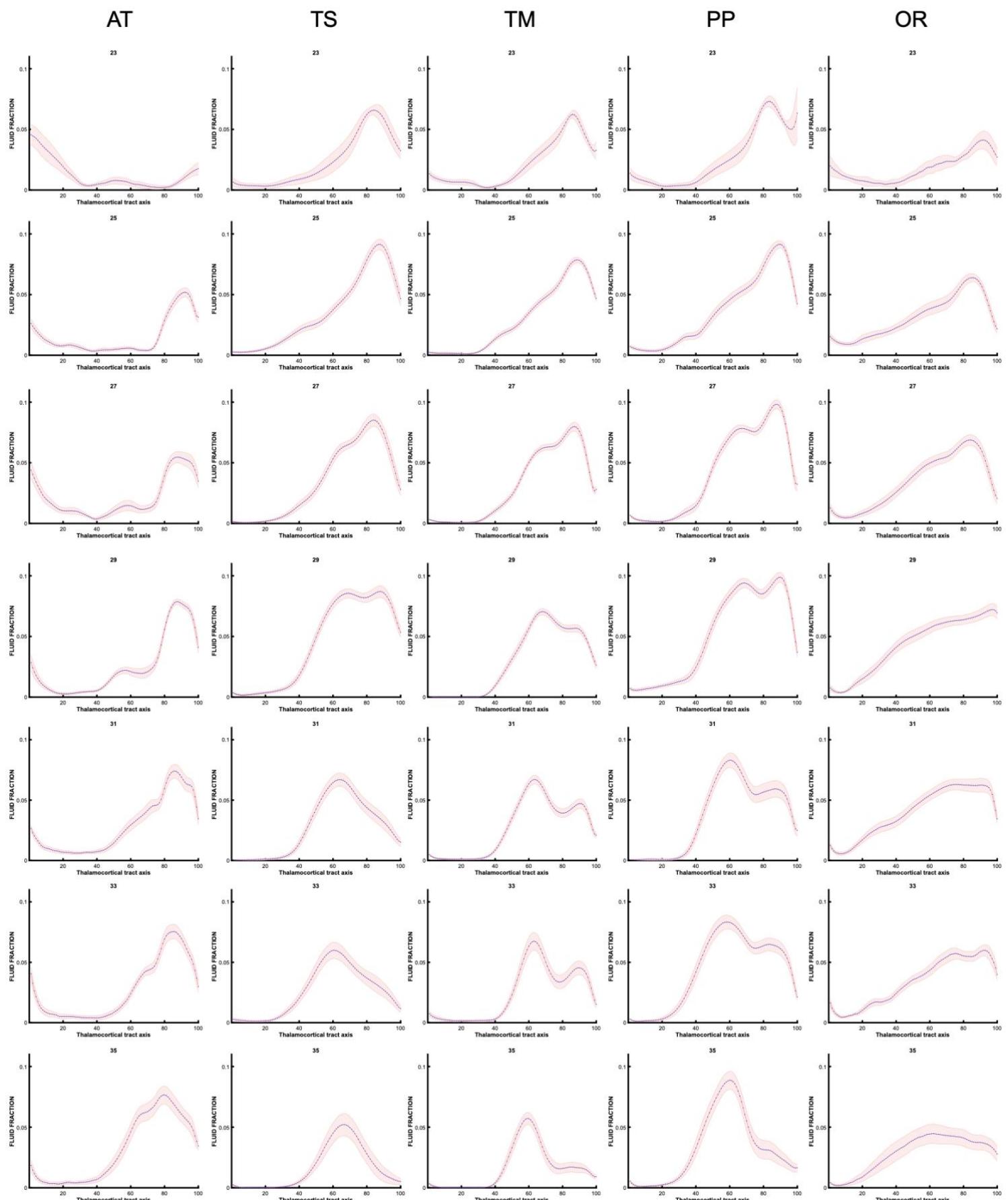


#### (b) Posterior-parietal tract

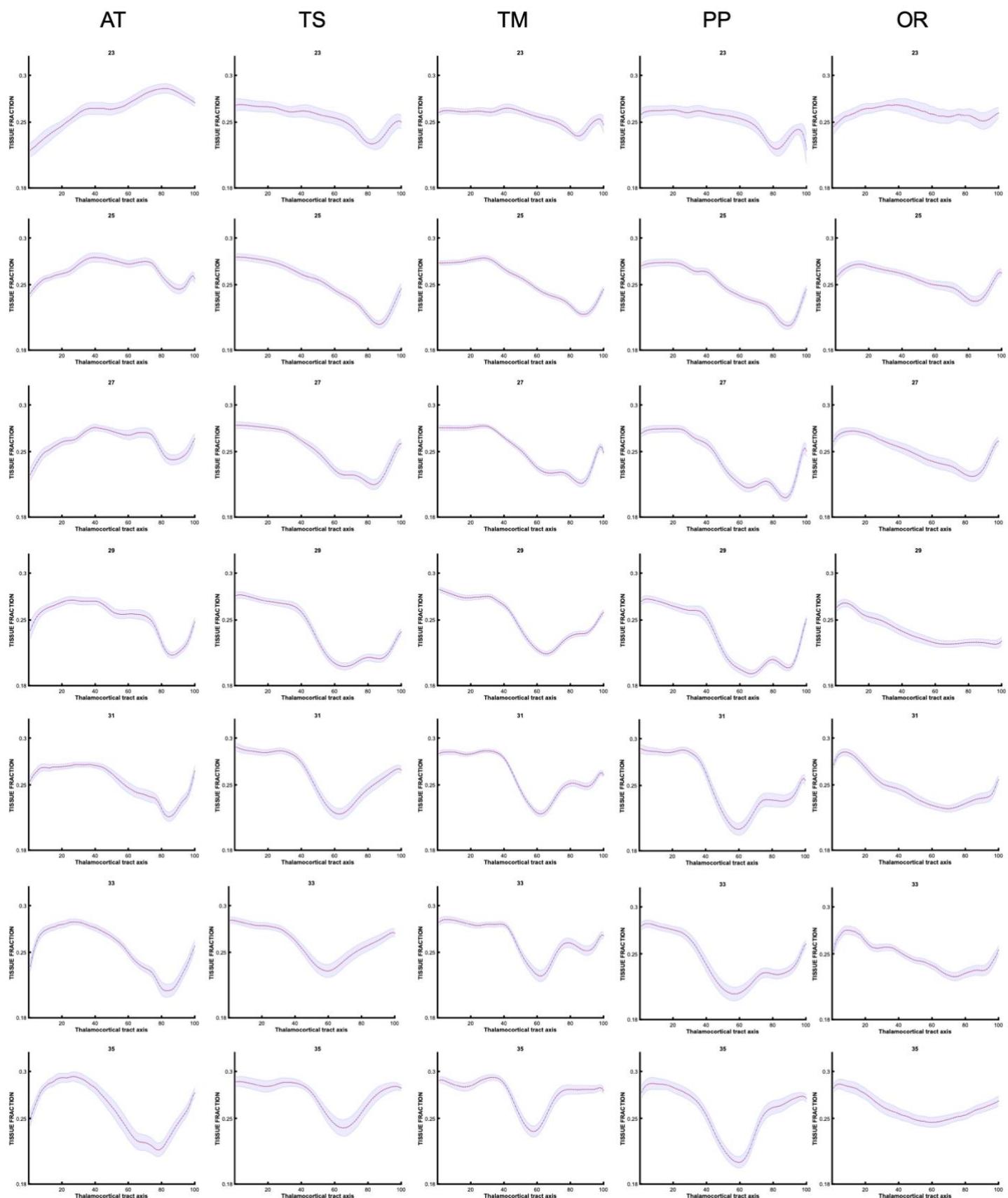


**Supplementary Figure 1. Microstructural composition of fetal compartments traversed by developing thalamic white matter.** (a) Thalamic-sensory tract & (b) Posterior- parietal tract. Tracts were overlayed on the atlas of fetal compartments (examples highlight the difference between fetal brain structure in early prenatal (25w) on far left, and late prenatal (35w) on far right). Tissue fraction trends (top row) and fluid fraction trends (bottom row), normalised to 1, between the thalamus and cortex (thalamocortical tract axis). Subjects were grouped by age, and average trajectories plotted for early prenatal (22-25.5w), mid prenatal (26-31.5w), late prenatal (32-36w). Error bars represent the standard deviation among all subjects in each group. Atlas-derived tissue boundaries are marked on the trajectories to reveal the changing tissue properties of each layer between early, mid and late prenatal development. (Cortical spinal fluid = CSF, Cortical plate = CP, Subplate = SP, Intermediate zone = IZ, Ventricular zone = VZ, Deep grey matter = GM, Immature white matter = WM).

## Supplementary Figure 2 (a)

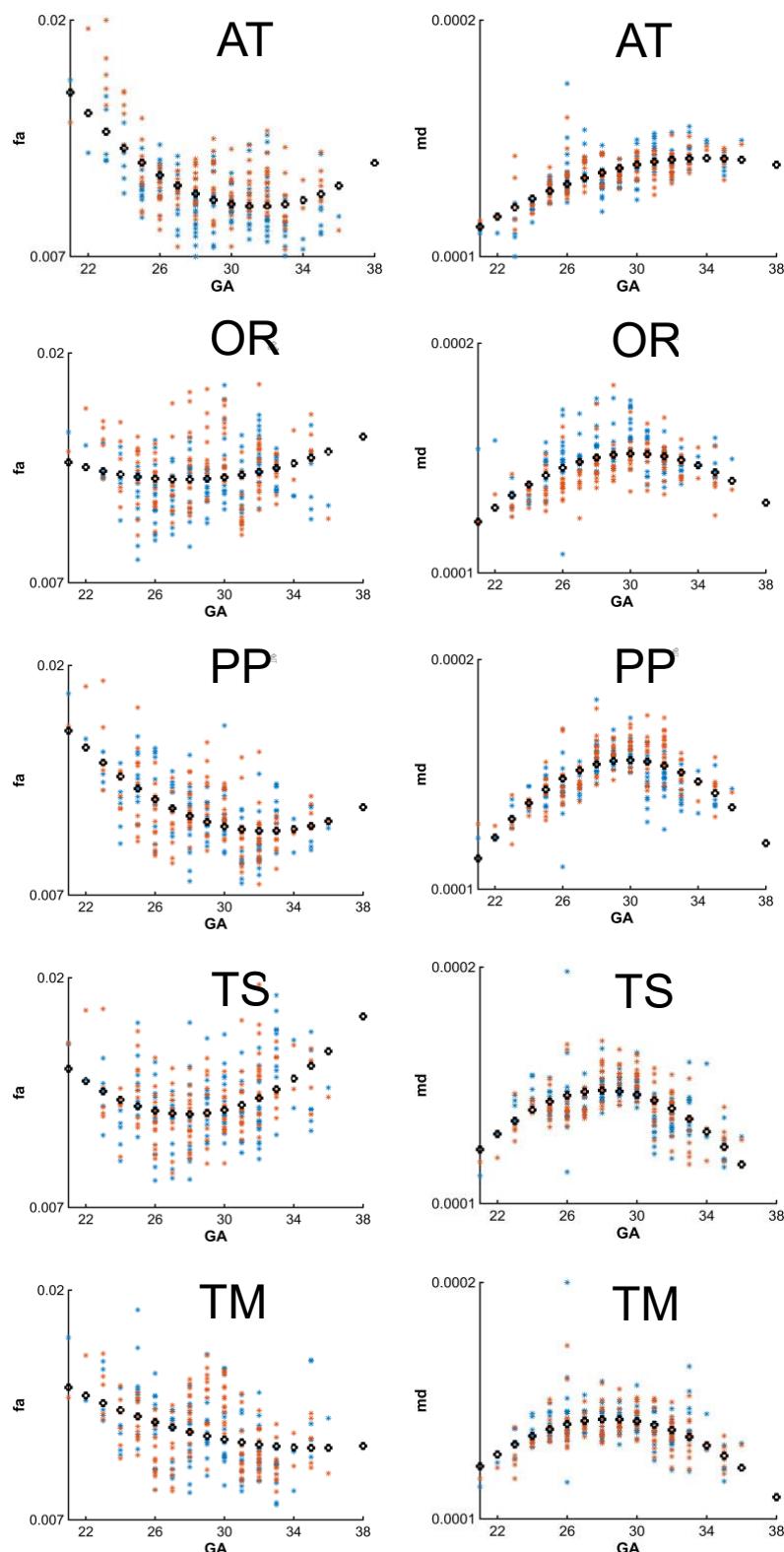


(b)



**Supplementary Figure 2.** Trajectories of fluid (a) and tissue (b) fraction along the thalamocortical axis for subjects in each gestational week (every other week shown)

**Supplementary Figure 3.**



Supplementary Figure 3.

**Diffusion tensor metric age-trajectories for each tract** (a) Whole-tract average fractional anisotropy (FA) and mean diffusivity (MD) for each subject in the left (orange) and right (blue) hemisphere, plotted against gestational age (GA) of the subject, best fit by 2<sup>nd</sup> order polynomials (AT = anterior thalamic radiation, OR = optic radiation, PP = posterior parietal tract, TS = thalamic-sensory tract, TM = thalamic-motor tract).