



## 1 **Introduction**

2 Myelinated axons play a central role in neuronal signal conduction, with large bundles of  
3 parallel axons comprising macroscopic white matter tracts(Sampaio-Baptista and Johansen-Berg,  
4 2017). These white matter tracts interconnect the human cerebral cortex, forming a complex  
5 network of structural connectivity known as the connectome(Sporns et al., 2005). Both animal  
6 studies and human neuroimaging have provided evidence that the white matter structural  
7 connectivity is refined throughout childhood and adolescence(Baum et al., 2017; Bethlehem et al.,  
8 2022; de Faria et al., 2021; Lebel et al., 2019; Riccomagno and Kolodkin, 2015). The  
9 developmental refinement of structural connectivity results from a combination of microscale  
10 changes, such as myelination and alterations of axon diameter, which occur during varying  
11 developmental periods for different white matter tracts (de Faria *et al.*, 2021; Riccomagno and  
12 Kolodkin, 2015; Sampaio-Baptista and Johansen-Berg, 2017). Elucidating how developmental  
13 changes in structural connectivity strength spatially and temporally progress across the human  
14 connectome can reveal how the brain prioritizes refining structural connectivity at specific  
15 developmental stages and how heterogeneity in connection-specific developmental refinement  
16 impacts cognitive development. This understanding provides insight into how structural  
17 connectivity is susceptible to influences such as exposure to psychopathology and interventions at  
18 distinct developmental periods.

19 Animal studies have revealed that activity- and experience-dependent plasticity in myelination  
20 and axonal remodeling are driving factors in the developmental maturation of white matter  
21 structural connectivity in youth(Chereau et al., 2017; de Faria *et al.*, 2021; Fields, 2015;  
22 Riccomagno and Kolodkin, 2015). During early development, sensorimotor connections  
23 experience high levels of neural activity transmission due to the rapid acquisition of motor skills  
24 and exposure to new sensory inputs. This heightened activity leads to increased expression of  
25 growth factors such as brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) and neuregulin-1, which  
26 subsequently promote axonal remodeling, dendritic arborization, and myelination in sensorimotor  
27 pathways(Fields, 2015). In contrast, association connections undergo a more prolonged period of  
28 development into young adulthood, which may be attributed to continued cognitive development  
29 and the capacity for more varied experiences to engage the neural circuits underlying higher-order  
30 cognitive functions(Sydnor et al., 2021). However, beyond this coarse division between  
31 sensorimotor and association connections, there is marked spatiotemporal variability in the  
32 developmental patterns of structural connectivity, particularly in the human connectome, which  
33 remains under-characterized. Moreover, it remains unclear how the spatial heterogeneity in  
34 connection-specific developmental refinement across the human connectome associates with  
35 cognitive and psychopathological outcomes during youth.

36 Recent studies support a unifying developmental framework that the asynchronous cortical  
37 maturation progresses along the sensorimotor-association (S-A) axis: a hierarchical axis of human  
38 brain organization that spans continuously from primary sensorimotor to transmodal association  
39 cortices(Sydnor et al., 2021). This framework posits that during childhood and adolescence,  
40 sensorimotor cortices tend to mature earliest, while association cortices exhibit a protracted

1 developmental trajectory, with a continuous spectrum of maturational patterns observed between  
2 them. Recent empirical data indicate that the development of regional intracortical myelin(Baum  
3 et al., 2022), intrinsic activity amplitude(Sydnor et al., 2023), and functional connectivity((Luo et  
4 al., 2024; Pines et al., 2022) unfolds along the S-A axis across the cortex during youth. In this  
5 study, we aimed to test the hypothesis that the developmental maturation of white matter structural  
6 connectivity is spatiotemporally organized along the S-A axis of the human connectome, with a  
7 spectrum of varying developmental trajectories with sensorimotor-sensorimotor and association-  
8 association connections as two ends. As brain development in youth is linked to both higher-order  
9 cognition and a variety of mental disorders(Baum et al., 2017; Insel, 2014a; Sydnor et al., 2021),  
10 we also hypothesized that the spatiotemporal heterogeneity of structural connectivity development  
11 would have implications in both cognitions and psychopathology. The asynchronous maturation  
12 of white matter structural connectivity can be studied non-invasively with diffusion MRI (dMRI)  
13 tractography, which reconstructs the connectivity of white matter tracts by tracing the diffusion of  
14 water molecules in the human brain(Le Bihan, 2003; Thiebaut de Schotten and Forkel, 2022).  
15 While challenged by limitations in resolving crossing fibers, white matter tracts derived from  
16 dMRI have been shown to be a valid approximation when compared to both classical dissections  
17 of post-mortem brain tissues and in vivo animal tract-tracing, particularly for large-scale  
18 anatomical pathways(Girard et al., 2020; Lawes et al., 2008; van den Heuvel et al., 2015; Yendiki  
19 et al., 2022).

20 Here, we employed dMRI to measure large-scale white matter connectivity to evaluate our  
21 hypothesis that the developmental program governing structural connectivity refinement is  
22 hierarchically organized along an S-A axis of the human connectome during youth. Based on the  
23 canonical S-A cortical axis(Sydnor et al., 2021), we first defined an S-A connectional axis that  
24 continuously progresses from sensorimotor-sensorimotor to association-association connections  
25 across the human connectome. We then quantified structural connectivity strength with the number  
26 of white matter streamlines, which were reconstructed with probabilistic fiber tractography,  
27 connecting pairs of large-scale cortical systems. We hypothesized that the development of  
28 structural connectivity strength would be primarily characterized by heterochronous increases that  
29 align with the S-A connectional axis. Moreover, we hypothesized that the associations between  
30 structural connectivity strength and the individual differences in higher-order cognition would also  
31 be patterned on the human connectome along the S-A connectional axis. Human neuroimaging  
32 research has shown that increased segregation of structural connectivity in association networks is  
33 related to improved performance in higher-order cognitions(Baum et al., 2017). Therefore, we  
34 predicted that large-scale structural connectivity strength declined with higher cognitive  
35 performances. We particularly expected that the effect sizes of these associations increase along  
36 the S-A connectional axis, as association connections are more strongly related to the higher-order  
37 cognitions. Finally, given that mental disorders in youth are characterized by abnormal  
38 neurodevelopment(Insel, 2014a), we hypothesized significant associations between structural  
39 connectivity strength and psychopathological symptoms, and the strength of these associations  
40 would increase along the S-A connectional axis. Altogether, this work aims to contextualize the  
41 asynchronous maturation of structural connectome and connectome-linked cognitive and

1 psychiatric phenotypes in the framework of the S-A connectional axis.

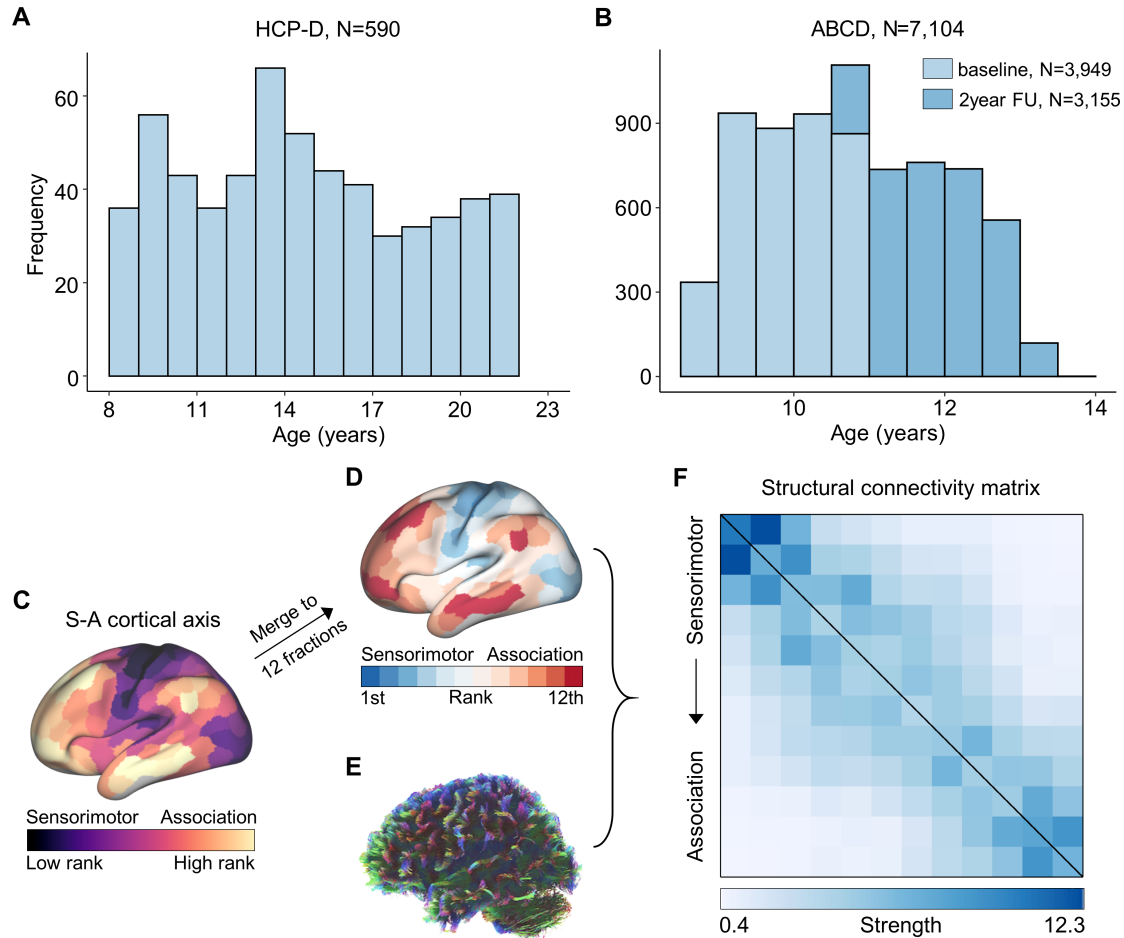
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### 3 **Results**

4 To delineate how age-related structural connectivity refinements spatiotemporally progress  
5 throughout the human connectome, we studied two independent datasets with both structural and  
6 diffusion MRI data. The first dataset consisted of 590 youths aged 8.1 to 21.9 years from the  
7 Lifespan Human Connectome Project in Development (HCP-D, **Figure 1A, Table S1**). The second  
8 data comprised children and adolescents from both baseline (N = 3,949, age 8.9–11.0 years) and  
9 two-year follow-up (N = 3,155, aged 10.6–13.8 years) within the longitudinal Adolescence Brain  
10 Cognitive Development (ABCD) study (**Figure 1B, Table S2**). See **Figure S1** and **Figure S2** for  
11 the detailed exclusion criteria of the two datasets. We constructed individuals' structural  
12 connectivity matrices using white matter tracts reconstructed from diffusion MRI data. Prior work  
13 has shown that diffusion MRI is reliable in detecting large-scale white matter tracts (Donahue et  
14 al., 2016; Girard *et al.*, 2020). Our study mainly focused on the large-scale white matter  
15 connectivity between cortical systems.

16 We partitioned the cerebral cortex into 12 large-scale distributed systems with approximately  
17 equal size according to regions' ranks in a priori defined regional sensorimotor-association (S-A)  
18 cortical axis map (**Figure 1C**), which was derived by averaging various cortical neurobiological  
19 properties (Sydnor et al., 2021). Cortical regions were ranked continuously along this axis, with  
20 sensorimotor cortices representing the lowest ranks and association cortices representing the  
21 highest. Consequently, our 12 large-scale cortical systems (**Figure 1D**) progressively spanned from  
22 primary sensorimotor to higher-order association cortices. After deriving this map of 12 cortical  
23 systems based on S-A axis rankings, we reconstructed individuals' whole-brain white matter tracts  
24 (**Figure 1E**) using probabilistic fiber tractography with multi-shell, multi-tissue constrained  
25 spherical deconvolution (Jeurissen et al., 2014). Anatomically constrained tractography  
26 (ACT) (Smith et al., 2012) and spherical deconvolution informed filtering of tractograms  
27 (SIFT) (Smith et al., 2015b) were applied to improve the biological accuracy of fiber reconstruction.  
28 We quantified the number of streamlines connecting each pair of the 12 cortical systems, scaled  
29 by their respective cortical volumes, resulting in a structural connectome of streamline counts for  
30 each participant (**Figure 1F**). The structural connectome was represented as a matrix of structural  
31 connectivity, organized into 12 rows and 12 columns based on the systems' ranking along the S-A  
32 cortical axis, progressing from the lower ranks of sensorimotor cortices to the highest ranks of  
33 association cortices.

34



1

2 **Figure 1. Distribution of participants' age and structural connectivity construction.** **A**, Age  
 3 distribution (8.1–21.9 years) of 590 participants from the HCP-D dataset. **B**, Age distribution of  
 4 participants from baseline (N = 3,949, 8.9–11.0 years) and 2-year follow-up (N = 3,155, 10.6–13.8  
 5 years) within the ABCD study. Using the Schaefer-400 atlas based S-A cortical axis map (Sydnor  
 6 et al., 2021) (**C**), a cortical atlas comprising 12 cortical systems (**D**) was generated. In the S-A  
 7 cortical axis map, cortical regions were ranked continuously along this axis, ranging from the  
 8 lowest rank in the sensorimotor cortices to the highest rank in the association cortices. The 12-  
 9 system cortical atlas was constructed by approximately equally dividing the cortex into 12  
 10 fractions according to the regions' S-A cortical axis rank. For each scan, tractography was utilized  
 11 to reconstruct the whole-brain white matter tracts with diffusion MRI dataset (**E**), and the large-  
 12 scale white matter tracts connecting each pair of the 12 cortical systems were extracted and counted  
 13 to generate the structural connectivity matrix (**F**). The connectivity matrix comprised 12 rows and  
 14 12 columns, with each element determined by the counts of white matter streamlines between  
 15 every pair of systems, scaled by their respective cortical volumes. The matrix was arranged based  
 16 on the average S-A axis cortical ranks of all regions within each system, from sensorimotor to  
 17 association systems. HCP-D: the Lifespan Human Connectome Project Development; ABCD: the  
 18 Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development; S-A: sensorimotor-association.

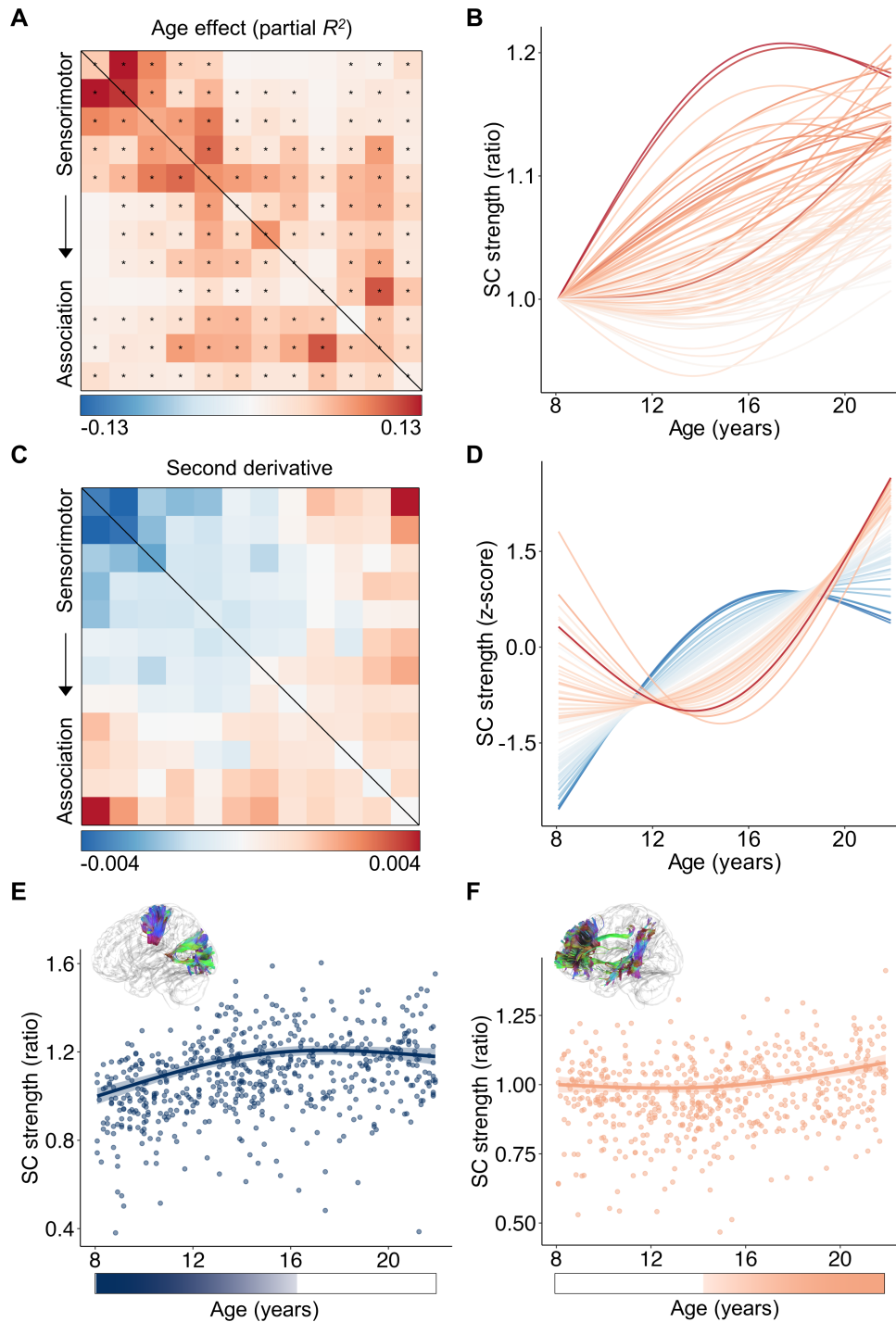
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## 2 **Developmental refinement of structural connectivity varies across the connectome**

3 We initially investigated the refinement of structural connectivity from ages 8.1 to 21.9 years  
4 using the HCP-D dataset (Somerville et al., 2018). Using a generalized additive model (GAM), we  
5 found that 70 out of 78 connectivity edges exhibited a significant age-related developmental effect  
6 (false discovery rate-corrected  $P$  value,  $P_{FDR} < 0.05$ ), while controlling for sex and head motion  
7 (**Figure 2A**). We assessed the magnitude of age effects using the variance explained by age (partial  
8  $R^2$ ) and determined their direction based on the sign of the average first derivative of the age  
9 smooth function. Our analysis revealed variations in age effects across all 78 connections, with the  
10 strongest effects observed in connections among primary sensorimotor systems, a relatively  
11 weaker effect in connections among higher-order association systems, and the lowest effect in  
12 connections between sensorimotor and association connections. By visualizing the developmental  
13 trajectories of each connection, we observed a continuous spectrum spanning connections that  
14 display an early steep increase followed by a plateau, to those exhibiting a late increase (**Figure**  
15 **2B**).

16 To capture the variations in the shapes of developmental trajectories among structural  
17 connections, we calculated the average second derivative of age fits for each connection, allowing  
18 us to quantify the curvature shape of the curves. A negative second derivative indicates a  
19 developmental curve that is concave downward characterized by an earlier strengthening and  
20 plateaus, while a positive average second derivative signifies a curve that is concave upward with  
21 a temporally delayed developmental strengthening. We found that the second derivatives displayed  
22 a substantial heterogeneity across the connectome edges. Specifically, we observed positive  
23 second derivatives in connections among association systems and negative values in connections  
24 among sensorimotor systems (**Figure 2C**). Z-scoring the developmental fits for each connection  
25 to remove the effect size variance revealed a continuous spectrum ranging from the downward  
26 concavity observed in sensorimotor connections to the upward concavity observed in association  
27 connections (**Figure 2D**). As an illustration, the structural connectivity between primary  
28 sensorimotor systems demonstrated a significant increase in connection strength during childhood,  
29 reaching its peak during mid-adolescence (**Figure 2E**). In contrast, the structural connectivity  
30 between higher-order association systems is largely stable from childhood to early adolescence,  
31 followed by a significant and prolonged increase that accelerates notably into young adulthood  
32 (**Figure 2F**). By evaluating the rate of developmental change at each age window, we found that  
33 the declines were not significant for sensorimotor connection during late period (**Figure 2E**) or for  
34 association connection during early period (**Figure 2F**). Notably, with this analysis, we did not  
35 observe any periods of significant ( $P_{FDR} < 0.05$ ) decrease among all 78 connections (**Figure S3**).

36



1

2 **Figure 2. Developmental trajectories of large-scale structural connectivity spatiotemporally**  
3 **vary across the connectome in youth.** **A**, The age effects (partial  $R^2$ ) of structural connectivity  
4 strength were heterogeneously distributed across the connectome edges. Developmental effects  
5 were modeled using generalized additive models (GAMs). The black asterisks indicate statistically  
6 significant age effects ( $P_{FDR} < 0.05$ ). **B**, The developmental trajectories of structural connectivity  
7 strength showed a continuous spectrum, ranging from an early increase to a later and prolonged

1 increase. The color of each curve was determined by the corresponding color in the effect size  
2 matrix shown in panel (A). C, The second-order derivatives of developmental curves in structural  
3 connectivity strength reveal a continuous spectrum of developmental trajectories across  
4 connectome edges. D, The z-scored developmental curves clearly illustrate that the curvature  
5 shapes of developmental trajectories continuously change along a spectrum from sensorimotor to  
6 association connections. The color of each curve was matched to the corresponding color in the  
7 matrix displayed in panel (C). E,F, Scatterplots depicting the developmental trajectories of  
8 structural connectivity between the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> systems involving primary visual and somatomotor  
9 cortices (E), and structural connectivity between the 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> systems involving higher-order  
10 frontal and temporal cortices (F). Data points in the scatter plots represent each participant (N =  
11 590), the bold line indicates the best fit from a GAM, and the shaded envelope denotes the 95%  
12 confidence interval. The color bars below the two scatter plots depict the age windows wherein  
13 structural connectivity strength significantly changed, shaded by the rate of change. Diagrams of  
14 the two white matter tracts are situated above the scatter plots. SC: structural connectivity.

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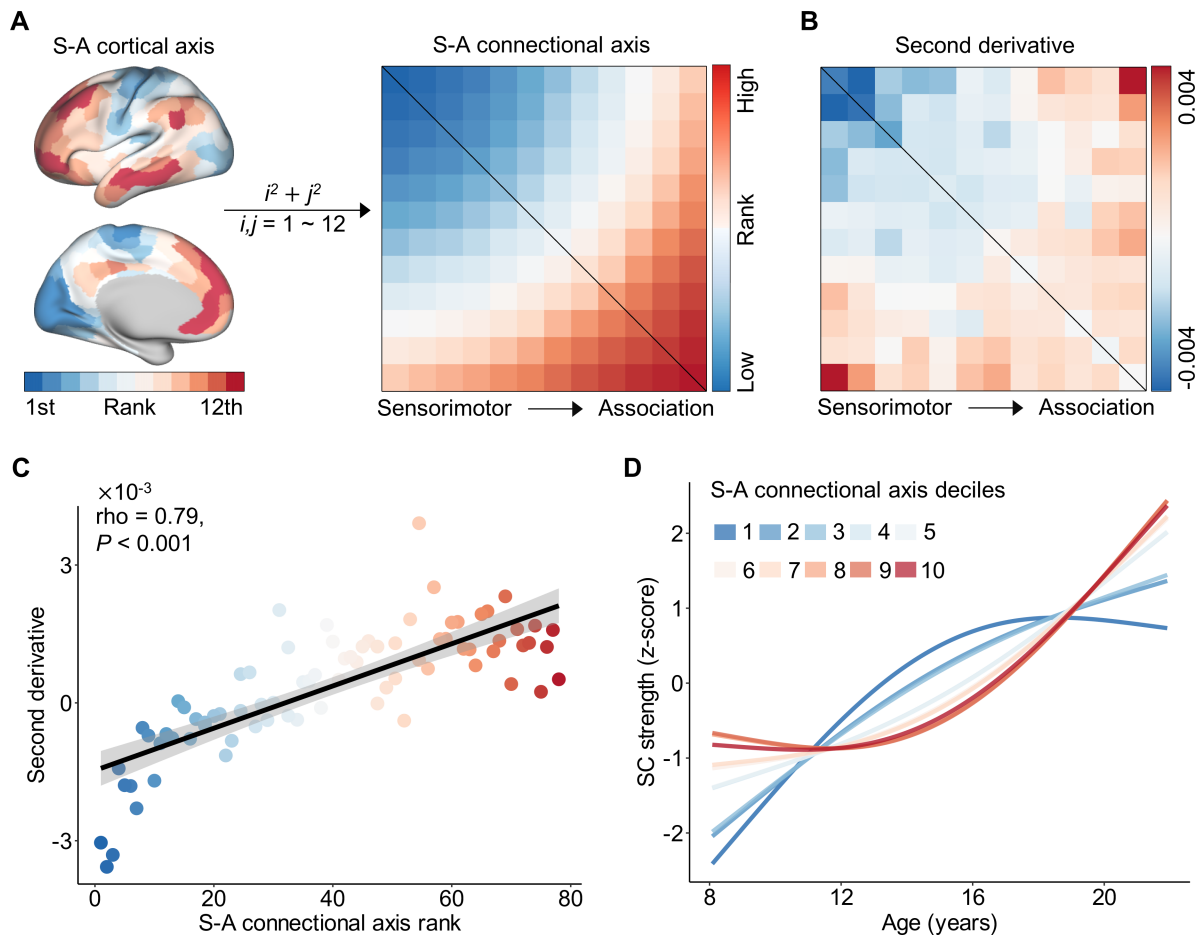
## 16 **Developmental variability of structural connectivity aligns with the S-A connective axis**

17 Having demonstrated that the curvature shapes of the developmental profiles exhibit  
18 substantial heterogeneity across the connectome edges, particularly showing divergence between  
19 sensorimotor and association connections, we next evaluated whether variability in developmental  
20 trajectories of structural connectivity spatially aligns with the S-A axis. The S-A cortical axis  
21 serves as a unifying organizing principle encompassing diverse neurobiological properties, with a  
22 continuous progression observed along the axis from primary and unimodal sensorimotor to  
23 multimodal and transmodal association cortices (Sydnor et al., 2021). To compare our connectome  
24 edge-level developmental variability to the S-A axis, we converted the S-A cortical axis map into  
25 the S-A connective axis. Specifically, we assigned a single S-A axis rank to each of the 78  
26 connections by calculating the sum of the squared S-A cortical axis ranks for each pair of regions  
27 involved. This generated a continuous spectrum of S-A connective axis ranks across the  
28 connectome, progressing from the lowest ranks in connections between sensorimotor systems to  
29 the highest ranks in connections between association systems (**Figure 3A**).

30 We next evaluated the relationship between the second derivative obtained from the age fits  
31 (**Figure 3B**, also see **Figure 2C**) and S-A connective axis rank across all connections. Using  
32 Spearman's rank correlation, we identified a highly significant positive correlation between the  
33 second derivatives and S-A connective axis ranks ( $\rho = 0.79$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , **Figure 3C**). This  
34 finding quantitatively demonstrates that connections among primary sensorimotor systems  
35 exhibited negative second derivatives in developmental trajectories, whereas connections between  
36 association networks displayed positive second derivatives. Furthermore, there is a continuous  
37 spectrum of second derivatives between these two extremes along the S-A connective axis. To  
38 visually depict the progression of developmental trajectories of structural connectivity from the  
39 sensorimotor to the association end of the S-A connective axis, we partitioned the axis into 10  
40 decile bins and computed the average age fits across all connections within each bin. We then



1 visualized the z-scores of the average age fits. The continuous spectrum of developmental  
 2 trajectories observed at the connectome level (**Figure 2D**) was mirrored by S-A connectome axis  
 3 deciles (**Figure 3D**). Particularly, the connections located at the sensorimotor end of the S-A  
 4 connectome axis displayed downward concave trajectories characterized by an early steep  
 5 developmental increase followed by a plateau, while those situated at the association end exhibited  
 6 upward concave trajectories with a late developmental increase.



8

9 **Figure 3. The heterogeneity of structural connectivity development across connectome aligns**  
 10 **with the S-A connectome axis.** **A**, The S-A connectome axis generated from the priori S-A  
 11 cortical axis. A single connectome axis rank was assigned to each connection by summing the  
 12 squares of pairwise systems' S-A cortical axis ranks. These connectome ranks were subsequently  
 13 scaled into discrete values, ranging from 1 to 78. **B**, The second-order derivative of developmental  
 14 trajectories in structural connectivity strength from **Figure 2C**. **C**, The second-order derivative is  
 15 highly correlated (Spearman's  $\rho = 0.79, P < 0.001$ ) with the connectome axis rank across all  
 16 structural connections. The color of all points was determined by the corresponding color in S-A  
 17 connectome axis matrix. **D**, Averaging model fits depicting the developmental trajectory of  
 18 structural connectivity are shown for deciles of the S-A connectome axis. To generate average

1 decile fits, the S-A connectional axis was divided into 10 bins each consisting of 7 or 8 large-scale  
2 structural connections, and age smooth functions were averaged across all connections in a bin.  
3 Subsequently, the average age fits were normalized with z-scores for visualization. The first decile  
4 (darkest blue) represents the sensorimotor pole of the S-A connectional axis, and the tenth decile  
5 (darkest red) represents the association pole of the axis. Maturation trajectories diverged most  
6 between the two connectional axis poles and varied continuously between them. SC: structural  
7 connectivity; S-A: sensorimotor-association.

8

## 9 **Developmental alignment with S-A connectional axis shifts during youth**

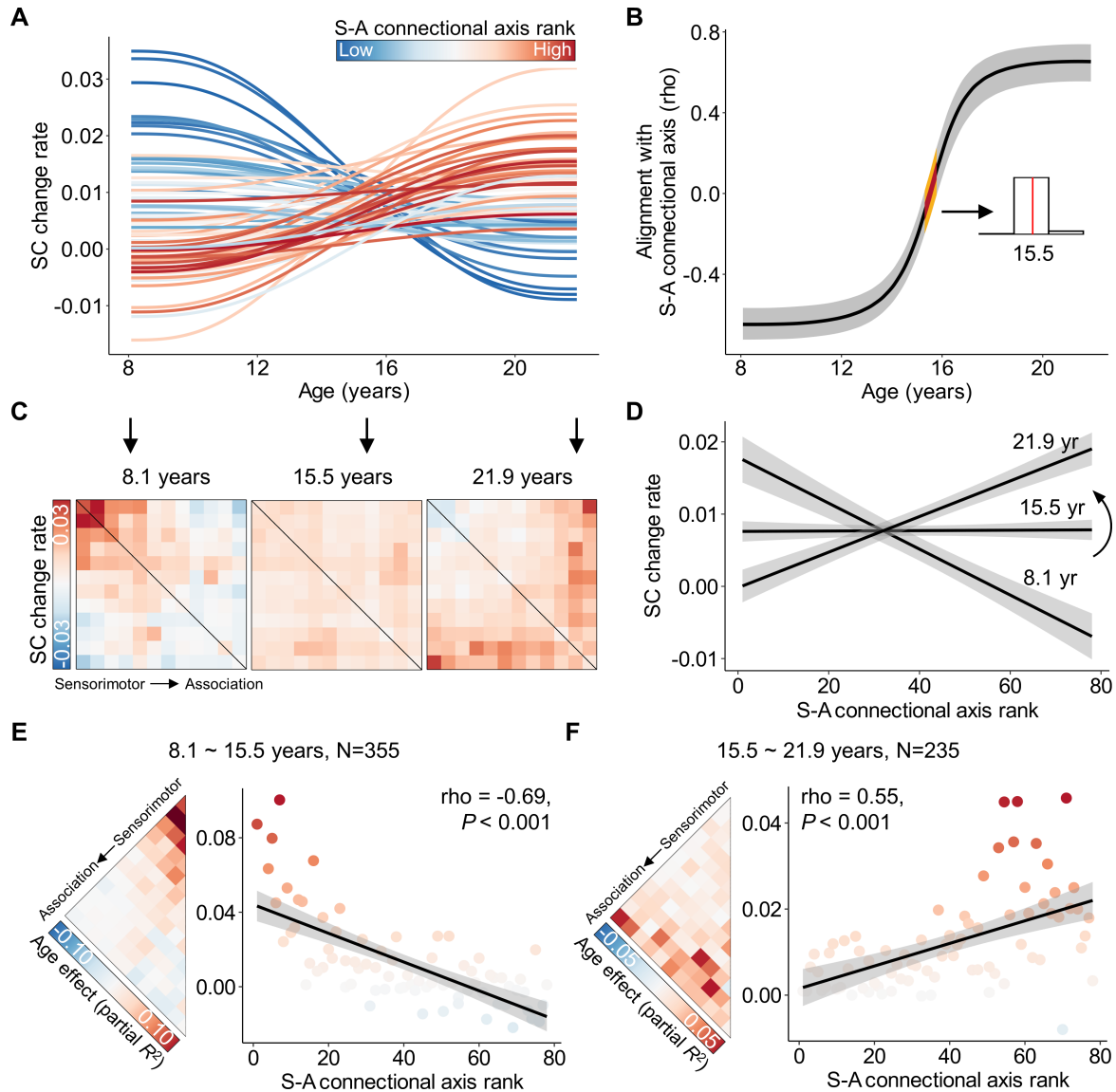
10 Having demonstrated that the developmental heterogeneity of structural connectivity across  
11 the connectome edges aligns with the S-A connectional axis, we further evaluated how this  
12 alignment evolves across the youth. For this analysis, the age range of 8.1 to 21.9 years was divided  
13 into 1,000 equally spaced intervals, within which the rate of development was assessed for each  
14 segment. Given the brevity of the interval, we assumed a linear developmental effect during this  
15 short period. We estimated the developmental rate in each segment as the first derivative to  
16 quantify the age-resolved developmental effect. By visualizing the rate of change for all structural  
17 connections across the S-A connectional axis from ages 8.1 to 21.9 years (**Figure 4A**), we observed  
18 a continuous spectrum of developmental patterns in connectivity change rates. This spectrum  
19 ranged from predominantly positive change rates during childhood and early adolescence in  
20 primary sensorimotor connections to association connections characterized by positive change  
21 rates during late adolescence and early adulthood. Notably, the negative change rates were not  
22 statistically significant for any connection (**Figure S3**).

23 We next evaluated how the alignment between the developmental change rates and S-A  
24 connectional axis ranks evolves from ages 8.1 to 21.9 years. To achieve this, we calculated the  
25 age-resolved spatial alignment between the connectome-wide change rates and S-A connectional  
26 axis for each of 1,000 age spaced intervals. This analysis revealed a continuous shift from a strong  
27 negative S-A axis alignment to a strong positive S-A axis alignment over development (**Figure**  
28 **4B**). More specifically, there was a negative correlation that slowly increased to 0 before  
29 approximately 13 years, followed by a rapid increase in the correlation value until late adolescence  
30 around 18 years, ultimately reaching a stable period during young adulthood. Notably, a zero  
31 alignment was observed at the age of 15.5 years (95% confidence interval of 15.3 to 15.8 years),  
32 indicating a switch in the direction of alignment between developmental connectivity  
33 strengthening and the S-A connectional axis at this age point. This result suggests that the largest  
34 developmental increases occurred at the S-A axis sensorimotor pole and decline in strength along  
35 the S-A axis early in childhood (i.e., **Figure 4C**, left). During mid-adolescence, there was a clear  
36 switch in the patterning of effects such that the rate of developmental strengthening started to  
37 become stronger when moving from the sensorimotor to the association pole of the axis (i.e.,  
38 **Figure 4C**, right). The matrices visualizing developmental change rates of all connections at ages  
39 8.1, 15.5, and 21.9 years illustrate this transition (**Figure 4C**): from a pattern opposing the S-A  
40 connectional axis at 8.1 years old, to uniform developmental rates across all connections at 15.5

1 years old, and finally to a pattern closely aligned with the S-A connectional axis at 21.9 years old.  
2 The scatter plots depicting the correlation between change rates and connectional axis ranks  
3 confirmed this shift from negative to positive correlation during youth (**Figure 4D**).

4 As the age of 15.5 years suggests a transition point in the alignment with the S-A connectional  
5 axis, we expected to see a different spatial pattern of structural connectivity developmental effects  
6 between preceding and succeeding this critical age. We split all participants into two subsets, with  
7 355 participants ages 8.1 to 15.5 years, and 235 participants ages 15.5 to 21.9 years old. We then  
8 re-evaluated the developmental effects of structural connectivity for the two subsets of participants  
9 separately using GAM. As with the full sample, the developmental effect was characterized by the  
10 variance explained by age (partial  $R^2$ ) while controlling for sex and head motion. We observed that  
11 age effects were predominantly positive in sensorimotor connections and were negative in  
12 association connections from 8.1 to 15.5 years old (**Figure 4E, left**). A Spearman's rank  
13 correlation analysis revealed a negative association between age effects and S-A connectional axis  
14 ranks across all connections (Spearman's  $\rho = -0.69$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , **Figure 4E, right**). As expected,  
15 the reverse pattern emerged between the ages of 15.5 and 21.9 years: the age effects of  
16 sensorimotor connections were lower compared to those of association connections (**Figure 4F,**  
17 **left**), resulting in a significant positive correlation between age effects and S-A connectional axis  
18 ranks across all connections (Spearman's  $\rho = 0.55$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , **Figure 4F, right**). Overall, our  
19 findings suggest a rapid shift in the developmental program of structural connectivity refinement  
20 during mid-adolescence, with connections to association cortex exhibiting concerted strengthening  
21 after this shift.

22



1

2 **Figure 4. The spatial alignment between structural connectivity development and the S-A**  
 3 **connective axis shifts through youth. A,** The rate (first derivative) of developmental changes  
 4 of the large-scale structural connections from ages 8.1 to 21.9 years. Each line represents an edge,  
 5 color-coded based on its rank in the S-A connective axis. The change rates of connections at the  
 6 sensorimotor pole of the S-A connective axis decline from positive in childhood to slightly  
 7 negative in young adulthood, while the connections at the association pole exhibited an opposite  
 8 pattern. A continuous spectrum of the developmental patterns in structural connectivity change  
 9 rates exists between the two S-A connective axis poles. **B,** The alignment between the spatial  
 10 patterning of structural connectivity development and S-A connective axis evolves throughout  
 11 youth. A spectrum ranging from the most pronounced negative association to zero-alignment  
 12 around the age of 15.5 years, and then progressing to the most significant positive association is  
 13 seen. To ensure the reliability of this alignment at different ages, we drew 1,000 samples from the  
 14 posterior derivative of each connection's age smooth function and then proceeded to evaluate age-

1 resolved correlations between these derivatives and S-A connective axis ranks for each sample.  
2 The black line on the plot represents the median correlation value across all samples, while the  
3 gray band indicates the 95% credible interval. Additionally, we identified the age of zero  
4 correlation between developmental changes and S-A connective axis ranks for all 1,000 samples,  
5 with the corresponding 95% credible interval depicted by the yellow band. The distribution of ages  
6 with zero alignment from all samples is illustrated in the inset histogram (aged 15.3–15.8 years),  
7 revealing a median age of 15.5. **C**, The matrices of age-specific developmental change rates (first  
8 derivative) at ages 8.1, 15.5, and 21.9 years. **D**, Age-specific alignments (at ages 8.1, 15.5, and 22)  
9 between developmental effects and S-A connective axis ranks across all edges. The plots depict  
10 a continuous transition from negative to positive alignment during development at 8.1, 15.5, and  
11 21.9 years. **E, F**, Divergent developmental pattern of structural connectivity between younger and  
12 older youths. The age effects, estimated by partial  $R^2$ , exhibit a negative correlation with  
13 connective axis ranks in younger youths (aged 8.1–15.5 years, Spearman's  $\rho = -0.69$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ,  
14 **(E)**) and a positive correlation in the older youths (aged 15.5–21.9 years, Spearman's  $\rho = 0.55$ ,  
15  $P < 0.001$ , **(F)**). The dot color is determined by the corresponding age effects in the matrix left side.  
16 Two edges with effect sizes of 0.18 and 0.16 were identified as outliers and removed in the scatter  
17 plot of panel **(E)**. SC: structural connectivity; S-A: sensorimotor-association.

18

## 19 **Independent longitudinal dataset confirmed developmental variability of structural** 20 **connectivity along the S-A connective axis**

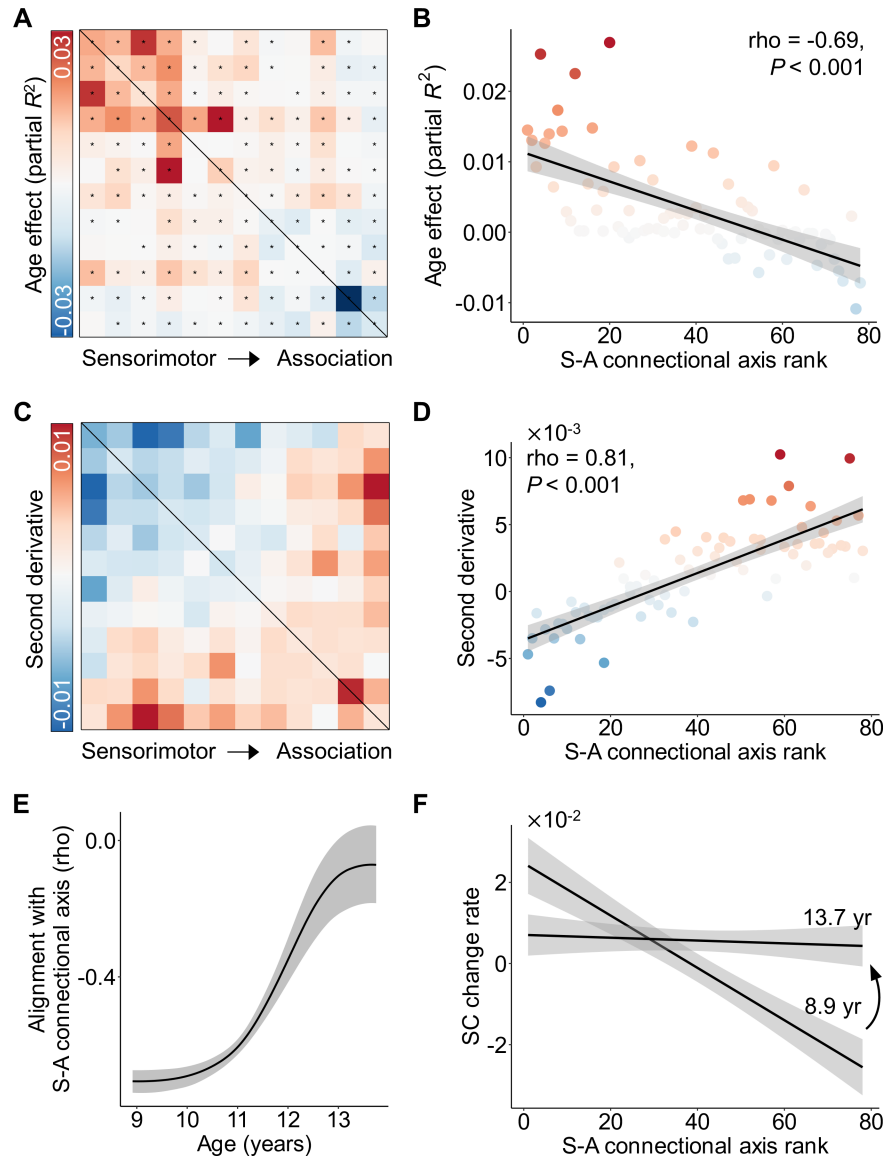
21 Using cross-sectional data from the HCP-D dataset, our results demonstrated alignment  
22 between the spatial variation of structural connectivity developmental trajectories and the S-A  
23 connective axis during youth. We endeavored to replicate this finding using independent  
24 longitudinal data from the ABCD study (Casey et al., 2018). Our analysis included both baseline  
25 and two-year follow-up data, spanning ages from 8.9 to 13.8 years (**Figure 1B**). Given that this  
26 age range did not reach 15.5 years, the critical age associated with a shift in the developmental  
27 alignments with S-A axis from negative to positive, we hypothesized that there would be a negative  
28 association between developmental effects and the S-A connective axis ranks across connectome  
29 edges in this dataset, based on our earlier findings (**Figure 4E**). We also hypothesized that the  
30 spatial variation of developmental trajectories' shape, as quantified by the second derivatives,  
31 would align with the S-A connective axis, consistent with our findings in HCP-D dataset (**Figure**  
32 **3C**).

33 To test these hypotheses, we constructed the structural connectivity matrices based on our  
34 cortical atlas with 12 systems for each participant's scans in the ABCD dataset. Using generalized  
35 additive mixed models (GAMM) to model the longitudinal development of structural connectivity  
36 strength, we evaluated the age effect of each structural connection, while controlling for sex and  
37 head motion. Our analysis revealed a spectrum of age effects across the connectome, ranging from  
38 positive effect sizes in primary sensorimotor connections to negative effect sizes in higher-order  
39 association connections (**Figure 5A**). Spearman's rank correlation revealed a significant negative  
40 correlation between age effects and S-A connective axis ranks across all structural connections

1 (rho = -0.69,  $P < 0.001$ , **Figure 5B**), suggesting the S-A connective-  
2 wide spatial heterogeneity of structural connectivity development. These results were consistent  
3 with what we observed in the HCP-D dataset at younger ages (**Figure 4E**).

4 Furthermore, the average second derivatives of developmental trajectories demonstrate a  
5 positive correlation with the S-A connective axis ranks across all connections (rho = 0.81,  $P <$   
6  $0.001$ , **Figure 5C, D**), which also aligns with the findings in HCP-D (**Figure 3C**). Next, we  
7 replicated the evolution of the age-resolved change rate in structural connectivity strength. We also  
8 observed that the correlation between the age-resolved change rate and the S-A connective axis  
9 ranks across all connections increased from a highly negative value to a near-zero correlation from  
10 8.9 to 13.8 years old (**Figure 5E**). This continuous transition was further confirmed by fitting  
11 correlation plots between change rates and S-A connective axis ranks at 8.9 and 13.8 years,  
12 respectively (**Figure 5F**). These findings align with the observed pattern in the HCP-D dataset.

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**Figure 5. Longitudinal development of structural connectivity unfolds along the S-A connective axis in an independent youth sample.** **A**, Age effects (partial  $R^2$ ) of longitudinal structural connectivity development through ages 8.9 to 13.8 years in the ABCD children. The black asterisks indicate statistically significant age effects ( $P_{FDR} < 0.05$ ). **B**, The age effects were negatively correlated with the S-A connective axis rank across all structural connections (Spearman's  $\rho = -0.69$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). The dots represent connections and were colored by the corresponding color in the age effect matrix of the panel (A). One edge with an effect size of -0.04 was identified as an outlier and removed in the correlation analysis. **C**, The second-order derivative of structural connectivity developmental trajectories. **D**, The second-order derivative was highly correlated with the connective axis rank across all structural connections (Spearman's  $\rho = 0.81$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). The color of all dots was determined by the corresponding color in the second derivative matrix of the panel (C). **E**, The spatial variation of structural connectivity developmental changes negatively align with S-A connective axis and the magnitude of this negative alignment

1 declined. **F**, Age-specific fitting of the relationship between change rates of connectivity strength  
2 and S-A connectional axis ranks shows the strongest negative correlation at the youngest age (i.e.,  
3 8.9 years) and the weakest association at mid-adolescence (i.e., 13.8 years). SC: structural  
4 connectivity; S-A: sensorimotor-association.

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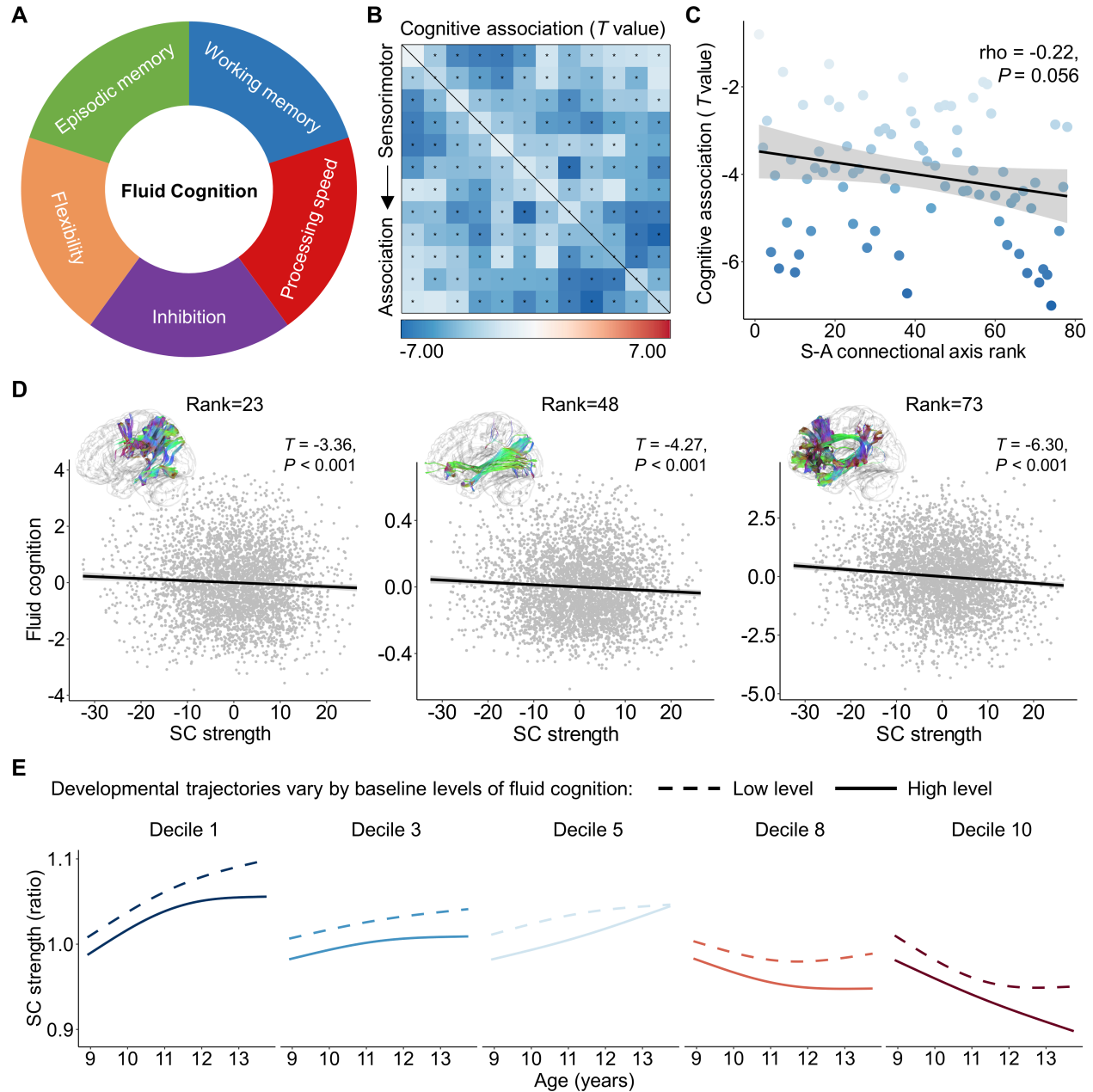
## 6 **Cognitive associations of structural connectivity vary along the S-A connectional axis in** 7 **adolescence**

8 Previous studies have shown that structural connectivity strength associates with  
9 individual differences in higher-order cognition during youth (Baum et al., 2017; Lebel *et al.*, 2019),  
10 however, the connectome-wide spatiotemporal variability of this association remains  
11 uncharacterized. Here, we proceeded to evaluate whether the associations between structural  
12 connectivity strength and cognitive performance differ along the S-A connectional axis on the  
13 human connectome. To do this, we employed the datasets from both the HCP-D and ABCD study  
14 and selected the composite score of fluid cognition to assess individuals' performance in higher-  
15 order cognitive functions (Weintraub et al., 2013). The composite score was obtained by averaging  
16 the normalized scores from several cognitive tasks, including flanker inhibition, dimensional  
17 change card sort (flexibility), list sorting working memory, picture sequence episodic memory,  
18 and pattern comparison processing speed (**Figure 6A**).

19 We employed GAM analyses to model the linear association between fluid cognition and  
20 structural connectivity strength while controlling for the spline of age, sex, and head motion as  
21 covariates, for both the HCP-D and ABCD datasets. As the 2-year follow-up data from the ABCD  
22 study did not include flexibility and working memory behaviors, our analysis focused solely on  
23 the baseline data from individuals aged 8.9 to 11.0 years for ABCD. We did not observe significant  
24 cognitive effects in the HCP-D dataset, which may be due to the limited sample size. However, in  
25 the ABCD dataset, we found that 72 out of 78 structural connections exhibited a significant  
26 association between structural connectivity strength and individual differences in higher-order  
27 cognition during childhood ( $P_{FDR} < 0.05$ , **Figure 6B**). Notably, all significant correlations were  
28 negative, indicating that weaker structural connectivity between the large-scale cortical systems  
29 was linked to stronger performance in higher-order cognition. Furthermore, the effect sizes  
30 continuously increased along an axis from edges connected to the sensorimotor systems to those  
31 connected to the association systems. Using Spearman's rank correlation, we found that the  
32 cognitive effects of structural connectivity were negatively associated with the S-A connectional  
33 axis ranks across all connections with marginal significance (**Figure 6C**). This quantitative result  
34 confirmed that sensorimotor connections at the lower end of the S-A connectional axis exhibited  
35 weaker cognitive relationships, while association connections at the upper end of the axis showed  
36 stronger cognitive effects. Exemplifying this pattern, there was a decline in fluid cognitive scores  
37 associated with stronger structural connectivity strength for the connection between the 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup>  
38 cortical systems (S-A connectional axis rank = 23), between the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> systems (S-A  
39 connectional axis rank = 48), as well as between the 10<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> systems (S-A connectional axis  
40 rank = 73) (**Figure 6D**).



1        We next evaluated if developmental trajectories of structural connectivity strength differ for  
2 youth with different levels of cognitive performance. While we only have baseline cognitive data,  
3 we included both baseline and two-year follow-up dMRI data to characterize the structural  
4 connectivity development as above. We modeled age-dependent changes in structural connectivity  
5 strength as a function of cognitive scores, while controlling for age, sex, and head motion. Using  
6 GAMs with an age by cognition interaction, we predicted the developmental trajectories of  
7 structural connectivity strength for low and high levels of cognitive performance respectively. To  
8 define these levels, we used the 10th percentile of baseline cognitive performance for the low level,  
9 and the 90th percentile for the high level. We observed that children with poorer cognitive  
10 performance exhibited a prominent and prolonged increase in connectivity strength of  
11 sensorimotor connections (deciles 1 and 3), along with an earlier inflection point and an earlier  
12 increase in the strength of association connections (deciles 8 and 10), during the age range of 8.9  
13 to 13.8 years old (**Figure 6E**). These result suggests that S-A connectional axis capture the spatial  
14 variation of relationship between structural connectivity strength and cognitive performance, and  
15 the connectivity strength developmental trajectories differ between populations with different  
16 levels of cognitive performance during childhood and adolescence.



1

2 **Figure 6. The spatial variation of the association between structural connectivity strength**  
 3 **and higher-order cognition aligns with the S-A connective axis.** **A**, Fluid cognition is a  
 4 composite score of flanker inhibition, dimensional change card sort (flexibility), list sorting  
 5 working memory, picture sequence episodic memory, and pattern comparison processing speed.  
 6 **B**, Structural connectivity strength is associated with the individual differences in fluid cognition  
 7 across 3,871 children within the ABCD baseline dataset. The black asterisks indicate statistically  
 8 significant associations ( $P_{FDR} < 0.05$ ). **C**, The effect sizes of the association between connectivity  
 9 strength and fluid cognition negatively related (Spearman's  $\rho = -0.22$ ,  $P = 0.056$ ) to the S-A  
 10 connective axis ranks across all connections. **D**, Scatterplots of the association between structural  
 11 connectivity strength and fluid cognitive performance for the three connectome edges with an S-

1 A connectional axis rank of 23, 48, and 73, respectively. The x and y axes represent the residuals  
2 of structural strength and fluid cognitive performance after regressing out age, sex and head motion.  
3 Data points in the scatter plots represent each participant, the bold line indicates the best fit from  
4 linear models, and the shaded envelope denotes the 95% confidence interval. **E**, The  
5 developmental trajectories of structural connectivity strength are displayed for populations with  
6 low (the 10<sup>th</sup> percentile) and high (the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile) cognitive performance for five deciles of the  
7 S-A connectional axis. SC: structural connectivity; S-A: sensorimotor-association.

8

## 9 **Associations between structural connectivity and general psychopathology vary along the S-** 10 **A connectional axis in adolescence**

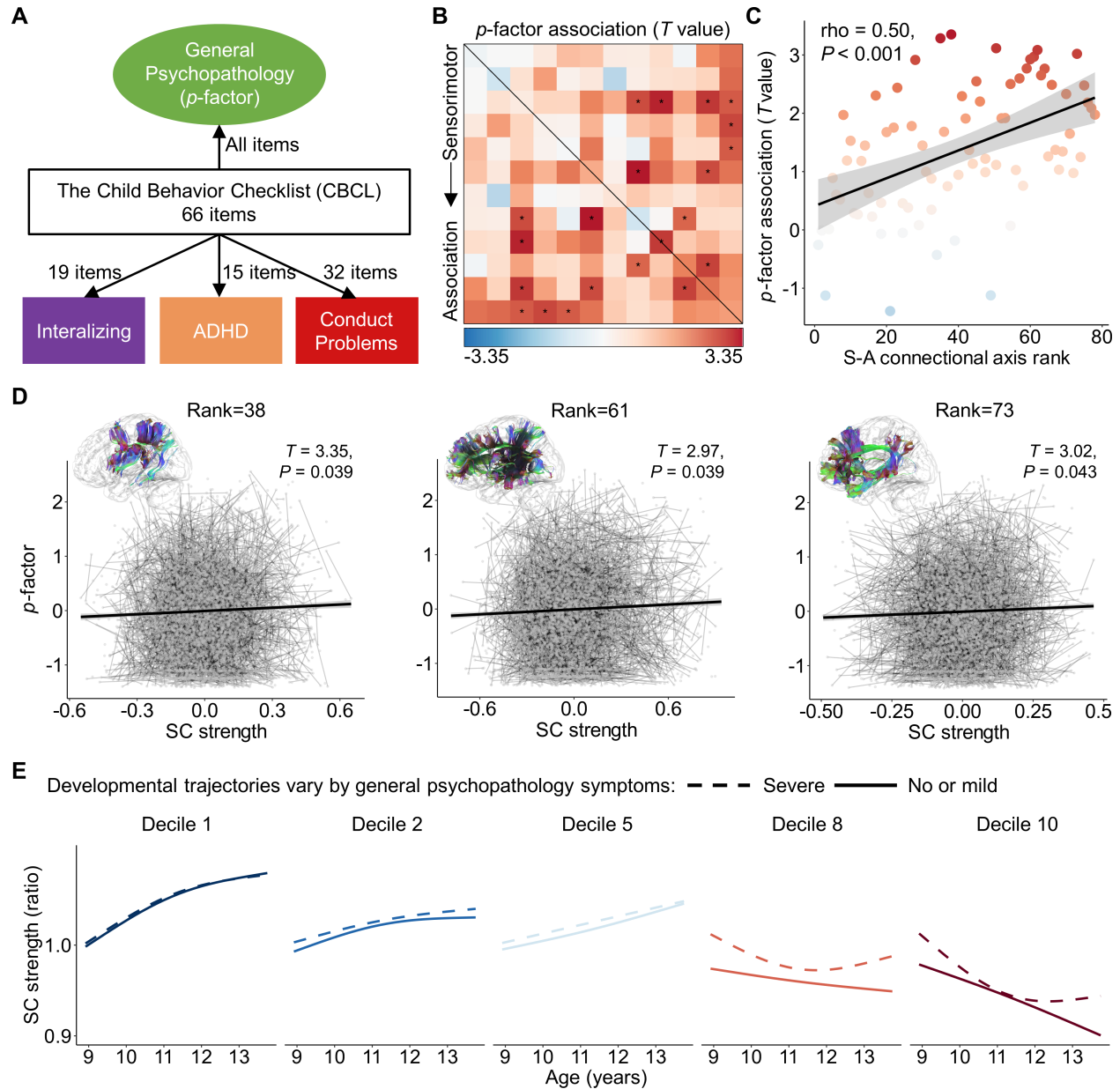
11 Psychiatric disorders have been increasingly conceptualized as neurodevelopmental  
12 disorders that involve altered maturation of higher-order association cortices that support complex  
13 cognition (Insel, 2014a; Sydnor et al., 2021). Therefore, we investigate whether there were  
14 associations between structural connectivity strength and psychiatric symptomatology during  
15 youth, and whether associations were strongest for association-association connections.  
16 Substantial comorbidity is prevalent across psychiatric disorders and recent studies have proposed  
17 that such comorbidity can be captured by a general psychopathology factor, also referred to as ‘*p*-  
18 factor’. An individual with a higher *p*-factor is susceptible to a shared vulnerability to a broad  
19 range of transdiagnostic psychiatric symptoms. We investigated whether the S-A connectional axis  
20 captures the spatial variability of relationships between structural connectivity strength and  
21 individual differences in this general psychopathology factor.

22 To do this, we employed the structural connectivity and psychiatric symptoms assessed  
23 using the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) from both the baseline and two-year follow-up data  
24 from the ABCD study. Based on a previously defined structure (Moore et al., 2020), we calculated  
25 the general psychopathology factor (‘*p*-factor’) for each participant with 66 items from the CBCL  
26 data, using confirmatory bi-factor analysis (**Figure 7A**). The general psychopathology factor  
27 summarizes the shared vulnerability across all the 66 CBCL clinical items. We next evaluated the  
28 linear association between the structural connectivity strength and general psychopathology factor  
29 using GAMMs that included per-participant random intercepts, while controlling for age, sex, and  
30 head motion. We found that the associations were mostly positive across all connections and a  
31 total of 11 connections showing statistically significant associations ( $P_{FDR} < 0.05$ ), suggesting that  
32 a higher *p*-factor was related to greater structural connectivity strength (**Figure 7B**). Moreover, we  
33 observed that effect sizes increased along a continuum from the edges connected with sensorimotor  
34 systems to those connected within association systems. Using Spearman’s rank correlation, we  
35 observed a positive relationship between the *p*-factor effects of structural connectivity strength and  
36 the S-A connectional axis ranks across all connections ( $\rho = 0.50$ ,  $P < 0.001$ , **Figure 7C**). This  
37 result indicates that, as with both developmental and cognitive effects, associations between  
38 structural connectivity strength and the general psychopathology factor were also patterned on the  
39 connectome along the canonical S-A axis. Exemplar scatter plots show how the general  
40 psychopathology factor positively associates with structural connectivity strength for the

1 connection between the 6<sup>th</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> systems (S-A connectional axis rank = 38), between the 4<sup>th</sup> and  
2 12<sup>th</sup> cortical systems (S-A connectional axis rank = 61), as well as between the 10<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup>  
3 systems (S-A connectional axis rank = 73) (**Figure 7D**).

4 We next examined whether structural connectivity developmental trajectories are  
5 predicted to differ in individuals with different levels of psychiatric symptomatology. To do so,  
6 we modeled age-dependent changes in structural connectivity strength as a function of the *p*-factor,  
7 while controlling for sex and head motion. Using the acquired model, we fitted structural  
8 connectivity strength for the participants with a low-level and high-level of *p*-factor, respectively.  
9 We used the 10th percentile of *p*-factor to represent the participants with no or mild psychiatric  
10 symptoms, and the 90th percentile for the participants with severe psychiatric symptoms. We  
11 found that the connectivity developmental trajectories primarily differed substantially between the  
12 two groups at the higher-order association connections, such as deciles 8 and 10 of the S-A  
13 connectional axis (**Figure 7E**), with a similar pattern observed in the previous part of the cognitive  
14 analysis. Particularly, we observed that the participants with a higher *p*-factor exhibited an earlier  
15 inflection point with stronger connectivity and started increasing earlier. These results suggest that  
16 psychopathology risk is differentially associated with structural connectivity across the S-A  
17 connectional axis, and also related to different developmental trajectories of structural connectivity  
18 between association regions during childhood and adolescence.

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2 **Figure 7. S-A connectional axis captures spatial variability of the association between**  
 3 **structural connectivity strength and general psychopathology factor.** **A**, A confirmatory bi-  
 4 factor analysis revealed four independent psychopathology dimensions derived from the 66  
 5 clinical items assessed by the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL). The general psychopathology  
 6 factor, also referred to as ‘*p*-factor’, captures shared vulnerability to a broad range of psychiatric  
 7 symptoms. **B**, Linear associations between structural connectivity strength and individual  
 8 differences in the general psychopathology factor. The black asterisks indicate statistically  
 9 significant associations ( $P_{FDR} < 0.05$ ). **C**, The effect sizes of the association between structural  
 10 connectivity strength and *p*-factor positively associated with S-A connectional axis ranks across  
 11 all the connections (Spearman’s  $\rho = -0.50$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). **D**, Scatterplots of the association between  
 12 structural connectivity strength and general psychopathology factor for the three connections with

1 a S-A connectional axis rank of 38, 61 and 73, respectively. The x and y axes represent the residuals  
2 of connectivity strength and  $p$ -factor after regressing out age, sex, and head motion. The pairs of  
3 points connected by thin lines represent two measurements for each participant from baseline and  
4 two-year follow-up. The bold line indicates the best fit from linear models and the shaded envelope  
5 denotes the 95% confidence interval. **E**, Developmental trajectories of structural connectivity are  
6 displayed for participants exhibiting severe psychopathological symptoms (at the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile  
7 of  $p$ -factor) and for those with no or mild symptoms (at the 10<sup>th</sup> percentile of  $p$ -factor) for five  
8 deciles of the S-A connectional axis. SC: structural connectivity; S-A: sensorimotor-association.

9

## 10 **Sensitivity Analysis**

11 We conducted several sensitivity analyses to evaluate the robustness of our findings to  
12 methodological variation including: 1) different resolutions of cortical parcellations with 7 systems  
13 (**Figure S4**) or 17 systems (**Figure S5**); 2) controlling for the effects of Euclidean distance between  
14 pairwise nodes (**Figure S6**); 3) additionally adding social-economic status (**Figure S7**) or  
15 intracranial volume (**Figure S8**) as covariates. Overall, our primary findings could be reproduced  
16 in all these analyses demonstrating the robustness of our results. See **Supplementary Text** for  
17 details of sensitivity analysis results.

## 1 Discussion

2 In this study, we leveraged non-invasive dMRI data from both cross-sectional and  
3 longitudinal developmental datasets to delineate how structural connectivity maturation  
4 spatiotemporally progresses across the human connectome during youth. We demonstrated that  
5 the structural connectivity developmental trajectories vary along a priori-defined S-A connectonal  
6 axis. Particularly, we observed a continuous spectrum ranging from early age-related increases in  
7 connectivity strength between sensorimotor regions and post-adolescence increases in connectivity  
8 strength in association-association connections at the top end of the S-A axis. This developmental  
9 alignment with the S-A connectonal axis evolved during youth, with a critical transition from  
10 negative to positive alignment occurring at approximately 15.5 years of age. Additionally, we  
11 found that the S-A connectonal axis captures connectome-wide spatial variation in relationships  
12 between structural connectivity strength and both cognitive performance and transdiagnostic  
13 psychiatric symptomatology. Taken together, these results provide evidence of hierarchical  
14 development of structural connectivity along a macroscale connectonal axis of the human  
15 connectome during youth.

16 White matter structural connectivity primarily consists of bundles of myelinated or  
17 unmyelinated axons connecting different brain regions(Sampaio-Baptista and Johansen-Berg,  
18 2017). While evaluating white matter maturation during neurodevelopment can be challenging,  
19 dMRI offers a non-invasive approach to reconstruct macroscale bundles of white matter tracts in  
20 the human brain(Le Bihan, 2003). Using this technique, we have identified sustained increases in  
21 white matter structural connectivity strength throughout childhood, adolescence, and young  
22 adulthood. This finding is consistent with prior work showing a progressive increase in white  
23 matter volume throughout early life that peaks at 28.7 years of age(Bethlehem *et al.*, 2022).  
24 Moreover, we observed substantial heterogeneity in periods of increase across connectome edges.  
25 Connection strength began to increase before the earliest age studied (i.e., 8.1 years old) and ceased  
26 around 16 years old for unimodal sensorimotor-sensorimotor connections. In contrast, higher-  
27 order association-association connections began to strengthen around 14 years of age and exhibited  
28 rapid increases until the oldest age studied (i.e., 21.9 years old). The developmental trajectories of  
29 other sensorimotor-association connections displayed an intermediate pattern between these two  
30 extremes, forming a continuous spectrum of connectivity development across the human  
31 connectome.

32 These findings align with prior work showing that the development of white matter tracts  
33 exhibits asynchronous timing. Particularly, projection and commissural tracts have been shown to  
34 mature earlier (typically by late adolescence), while association tracts continue developing through  
35 late adolescence into early adulthood(Lebel and Beaulieu, 2011). Additionally, recent evidence  
36 has shown that the inferior and posterior parts of white matter tracts mature earlier than their  
37 superior and anterior counterparts(Bagautdinova *et al.*, 2023). Expanding upon these coarse and  
38 qualitative comparisons of developmental timing among white matter tracts, our work provides a  
39 systematic description of the developmental sequence of white matter structural connectivity  
40 across the entire cortico-cortical connectome in humans. Notably, this sequence aligns with the

1 spatiotemporal progression of developmental changes in intrinsic cortical activity across the S-A  
2 cortical axis(Sydnor *et al.*, 2023), suggesting potential links between changes in the functional  
3 architecture of local cortical circuits and long-range cortico-cortical connectivity.

4 We further demonstrated that the connectome-wide spatial variation in structural connectivity  
5 development highly aligns with a pre-defined S-A connectional axis, which constitutes a  
6 continuum spanning from the sensorimotor-sensorimotor to association-association connections in  
7 the human connectome. A recent theoretical framework suggests that cortical neurodevelopmental  
8 plasticity progresses heterogeneously along the S-A cortical axis(Sydnor *et al.*, 2021), and studies  
9 have shown that this axis captures the developmental chronology of regional neurobiological  
10 properties, including intracortical myelin(Baum *et al.*, 2022), intrinsic activity(Sydnor *et al.*, 2023),  
11 and functional connectivity strength((Luo *et al.*, 2024; Pines *et al.*, 2022) in youth. Our results  
12 expand this framework to the structural connectome and provide initial evidence that the  
13 developmental sequence of structural connectivity conforms with the S-A axis throughout the  
14 human connectome. Furthermore, we identified a critical age period in mid-adolescence (15.5  
15 years) at which time the alignment between spatial variation in structural connectivity  
16 development and the S-A connectional axis shifts from a negative to a positive association. Prior  
17 to this age period, the strength of sensorimotor connectivity primarily increases, while thereafter,  
18 the strength of association connectivity rapidly increases. Consistently, previous seminal work has  
19 shown that between the ages of 14 and 16, a putative functional marker of cortical plasticity peaks  
20 in association cortices and then starts to decline(Sydnor *et al.*, 2023). We speculate that the rapid  
21 developmental strengthening of association connectivity after the age of 15 could accelerate  
22 functional maturation in association regions and help to reduce regional variation in the patterning  
23 of spontaneously-generated activity across the cortex(Sydnor *et al.*, 2023).

24 Our study reveals a hierarchical pattern of white matter structural connectivity development,  
25 continuously progressing from sensorimotor-sensorimotor to association-association connections.  
26 This developmental pattern is likely shaped by a complex interplay of molecular, cellular, and  
27 activity-dependent processes. The myelination of axonal tracts has also been demonstrated to  
28 follow a chronologic sequence, wherein fibers belonging to specific functional systems mature  
29 simultaneously(de Faria *et al.*, 2021). Sensorimotor pathways undergo early myelination during  
30 development, whereas association pathways myelinate later during adolescence(de Faria *et al.*,  
31 2021). This maturational sequence in myelination is driven by oligodendrocytes and regulated by  
32 various cellular and molecular mechanisms, such as transcription factors (Olig family), growth  
33 factors (BDNF, neuregulin-1), and hormones (T3)(Yu *et al.*, 2023). The process of myelination is  
34 strongly influenced by experience- and activity-dependent plasticity mechanisms(Chereau *et al.*,  
35 2017; Fields, 2015). For example, studies have demonstrated that signaling molecules regulated  
36 by action potential firing in axons can impact the development of myelinating glia(Fields, 2015).  
37 It is widely acknowledged that early development is primarily marked by new sensorimotor  
38 experience, whereas later developmental stages are characterized by prolonged exposure to  
39 increasingly complex cognitive and social experiences. Therefore, experience-driven and activity-



1 dependent myelin plasticity could be a primary mechanism underlying the maturational sequence  
2 of strengthening in white matter structural connectivity.

3 Our findings also revealed that structural connectivity strength was associated with higher-  
4 order cognitive performance, with the S-A connectional axis capturing the spatial variation in the  
5 strength of cognitive associations. Specifically, we first demonstrated that structural connectivity  
6 strength correlated with individual differences in higher-order cognition, assessed by a composite  
7 score comprising working memory, inhibition, flexibility, episodic memory, and pattern  
8 comparison speed(Akshoomoff et al., 2013). Notably, nearly all connections exhibited a negative  
9 relationship, indicating that weaker structural connectivity between large-scale cortical systems is  
10 related to stronger cognitive performance. This finding aligns with prior literature suggesting that  
11 enhanced segregation of brain network modules is linked to improved executive function(Baum et  
12 al., 2017; Finc et al., 2020; Keller et al., 2023b; Pines *et al.*, 2022). Furthermore, our findings  
13 revealed that the effect sizes of the negative association between connectivity strength and  
14 cognition progressively increase along the connectional axis, from sensorimotor-sensorimotor to  
15 association-association connections. This result is consistent with previous accounts emphasizing  
16 the primary role of association connections, rather than sensorimotor connections, in higher-order  
17 cognitions(Baum et al., 2017; Keller et al., 2023a; Menon and D'Esposito, 2022; Shen et al., 2020).  
18 Our study also contributes additional insight by demonstrating that the magnitudes of this  
19 relationship continuously change across the landscape of the human connectome. Importantly, we  
20 observed that populations with different levels of cognitive performance displayed distinct  
21 developmental trajectories in structural connectivity. Particularly, participants with higher  
22 cognitive abilities exhibited a more pronounced decline and lower connectivity strength in  
23 association connections compared to those with lower cognitive abilities. This relationship may be  
24 mediated by the increased structural network segregation during development(Baum et al., 2017).  
25 Together, these findings support spatially varying cognitive impacts on the maturation of structural  
26 connectivity across the human connectome, with the most significant effects observed in  
27 association connections.

28 Finally, we observed that the association between structural connectivity and  
29 psychopathology was also patterned on the human connectome along the S-A connectional axis.  
30 Traditional psychiatric diagnostic systems, such as DSM-5(Edition, 2013), typically reply on  
31 categorical diagnoses that often fail to capture the spectrum characteristic of diseases characterized  
32 by varying severity and are marked by a high degree of comorbidity(Kotov et al., 2017).  
33 Accordingly, efforts such as the Research Domain Criteria have proposed dimensional models of  
34 psychopathology(Insel, 2014b; Kotov *et al.*, 2017). Related studies have identified a general  
35 psychopathology factor, also known as the '*p*-factor', which reflects shared vulnerability to a broad  
36 range of psychiatric symptoms(Caspi and Moffitt, 2018). Our findings indicated that nearly all  
37 structural connections exhibited a positive correlation between connectivity strength and the *p*-  
38 factor score. Furthermore, the magnitude of this relationship demonstrated a significantly positive  
39 correlation with the S-A connectional axis ranks across all connectome edges. These results  
40 suggested that participants with higher *p*-factor scores tended to exhibit stronger structural

1 connectivity strength for association connections, which potentially reduced the network modules  
2 segregation. These results align with previous literature indicating that the loss of segregation  
3 between higher-order association functional networks, such as the default mode and fronto-parietal  
4 networks, represents a common deficit across psychopathology dimensions(Xia et al., 2018). We  
5 also observed that the levels of the general psychopathology factor influence the developmental  
6 trajectories in association connections. Populations with a severer  $p$ -factor exhibited earlier  
7 connectivity maturation and stronger connectivity strength. This psychopathological effect on  
8 structural connectivity development demonstrates a distinctly opposite pattern compared to the  
9 cognitive effects, suggesting that altered structural connectivity development associated with  
10 worse cognition or greater psychopathology may operate through similar mechanisms.

11 Several potential limitations of the present study should be noted. First, precisely  
12 reconstructing individuals' white matter structural connectivity is challenging; prior studies have  
13 demonstrated that dMRI-based fiber tractography may encounter false positives and  
14 negatives(Maier-Hein et al., 2017). In this study, we used state-of-the-art probabilistic fiber  
15 tractography with multi-shell, multi-tissue constrained spherical deconvolution(Jeurissen et al.,  
16 2014). Additionally, we applied anatomically constrained tractography(Smith *et al.*, 2012) and  
17 spherical deconvolution-informed filtering of tractograms(Smith et al., 2015a) to improve  
18 biological accuracy. Consistency-based thresholding was also employed to reduce the influence of  
19 false-positive connections(Baum et al., 2020). Moreover, previous studies have consistently shown  
20 the reliability of dMRI-based tracing of large-scale white matter bundles(Donahue *et al.*, 2016;  
21 Girard *et al.*, 2020). Our study focused on analyzing large-scale structural connectivity between  
22 cortical systems rather than delving into finer between-regional connectivity. This approach  
23 ensured the reliability of our structural connectivity analysis. While large-scale network analysis  
24 has been widely used in functional networks in recent years(Cui et al., 2020; Gordon et al., 2017;  
25 Wang et al., 2015; Yeo et al., 2011), it has been seldomly considered in structural networks. Our  
26 study thus offers a significant methodological contribution, potentially inspiring a shift towards a  
27 research paradigm emphasizing large-scale structural connectivity over finer between-regional  
28 structural connectivity with dMRI.

29 Second, both the cognitive and psychopathological measures were composite scores derived  
30 from aggregating a set of interrelated variables, precluding inference about specific associations  
31 between structural connectivity and individual traits. Future investigations should aim to untangle  
32 the complex interplay between structural connectivity and specific cognitive or  
33 psychopathological components. Third, it's important to acknowledge that, although statistically  
34 significant, the effect sizes observed for both cognitive and psychopathological effects on  
35 structural connectivity were relatively small. However, prior work has consistently demonstrated  
36 that effect sizes tend to be inflated in small samples(Yarkoni, 2009), whereas larger samples  
37 provide a more accurate estimate of the true effect size. Notably, our findings revealed a strong  
38 relationship between effect size and S-A connectional ranks. Forth, our study primarily focused  
39 on understanding the developmental trajectories of structural connectivity between cortical  
40 systems. Future studies should extend this research to explore how the spatiotemporal variability

1 in structural connectivity development for subcortex and cerebellum, which play crucial roles in  
2 motor control, emotional processing, and cognitive functions(McFadyen et al., 2020; Sokolov et  
3 al., 2017).

4 Notwithstanding these limitations, our study provides compelling evidence that, throughout  
5 childhood and adolescence, developmental changes in structural connectivity and associations  
6 with cognitive and clinical factors follow a distinct pattern along the hierarchical S-A axis of the  
7 human connectome. These findings suggest the importance of considering connectome-wide  
8 spatial variation in connectivity maturation in the context of cognitive development and  
9 vulnerability to psychopathology. Insights into this spatial progression of structural connectivity  
10 maturation will facilitate discerning connection-specific sensitive time windows for experiential,  
11 environmental, and interventional influences. Given the importance of the S-A connectional axis  
12 in structural connectivity development, future studies could evaluate whether this organizing axis  
13 serves as a unifying developmental principle across multi-modal and multi-scale human and non-  
14 human primate connectomes.

## 1 **Methods**

### 2 **Participants**

3 Our study utilized two independent neurodevelopmental datasets. The first one was a cross-  
4 sectional dataset from the Lifespan Human Connectome Project in Development (HCP-  
5 D)(Somerville *et al.*, 2018). The HCP-D recruited typical developing participants aged 5 to 22  
6 from four sites in the United States. We selected this dataset as the discovery dataset for  
7 developmental analyses, given its broad age range coverage. Initially, demographic, cognitive, and  
8 neuroimaging data from 653 participants were obtained from the NIMH Data Archive (NDA)  
9 Lifespan HCP-D release 2.0. From this initial pool, we excluded 20 participants due to incomplete  
10 diffusion magnetic resonance imaging (dMRI) data and 10 participants due to anatomical anomaly.  
11 Additionally, 18 participants under 8 years of age were excluded due to the small sample size and  
12 big head motion often reported in this age group (Greene *et al.*, 2018). An additional 14 participants  
13 were excluded due to excessive head motion during dMRI scanning, identified by mean framewise  
14 displacement (FD) exceeding the mean plus three standard deviations (SD)(Pines *et al.*, 2020).  
15 Ultimately, we included 590 participants (273 males, aged 8.1–21.9) from the HCP-D. Written  
16 informed consent and assent were obtained from participants over 18 years of age and parents of  
17 participants under 18 years by the WU-Minn HCP Consortium. All research procedures were  
18 approved by the institutional review boards at Washington University (IRB #201603135).

19 The second dataset was from the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD)  
20 study(Casey *et al.*, 2018). The ABCD study recruited and followed approximately 10,000 children  
21 aged 9 to 10 years across the United States. Up to the beginning of data analyses of the current  
22 study, the ABCD study had released neuroimaging data from the baseline and 2-year follow-up,  
23 covering ages 8.9 to 13.8 years. We selected this dataset as a replicated dataset for developmental  
24 analyses and also used it for cognitive analyses. Furthermore, given the ABCD dataset recruited  
25 participants with various psychiatric disorders, we performed psychopathological analyses using  
26 this dataset. We accessed neuroimaging data from the ABCD fast-tract portal in June 2022, and  
27 demographic, cognitive, and psychopathological measures from the ABCD release 5.1. The  
28 imaging data were acquired using scanners from SIEMENS, PHILIPS, or GE manufacturers. Our  
29 study exclusively utilized data from SIEMENS scanners, encompassing 5,803 scans from baseline  
30 and 4,547 scans from the 2-year follow-up, each including dMRI, associated field map, and T1-  
31 weighted imaging (T1WI). This decision aimed to mitigate bias from manufacturer variations and  
32 reduce computational costs. We selected the SIEMENS manufacturer because most data were  
33 collected by scanners from this manufacturer in the ABCD study. From these scans, we applied  
34 various exclusion criteria including: 1) not meeting the official imaging recommended inclusion  
35 criteria outlined in the release 4.0 notes (we adopted criteria from release 4.0 because release 5.1  
36 was not available when the MRI processing was conducted.); 2) incomplete dMRI data or failure  
37 in unzip or format conversion process; 3) lack of parental fluency in English or Spanish; 4) lack  
38 of proficiency in English; 5) diagnosis of severe sensory, intellectual, medical or neurological  
39 issues; 6) prematurity or low birth weight (N = 2,350); 7) having contraindications to MRI  
40 scanning; 8) invalid data regarding age and sex; 9) failure in data processing; 10) excessive head

1 motion (mean FD > Mean + 3×SD). The criteria regarding demography and healthy conditions  
2 came from a prior study(Garavan et al., 2018). After applying these criteria, we included a total of  
3 7,104 eligible scans for the subsequent analyses, comprising 3,949 from baseline (2,075 males,  
4 aged 8.9–11.0) and 3,155 from 2-year follow-up (1,701 males, aged 10.6–13.8). The study protocol  
5 was approved by the institutional review board of the University of California, San Diego (IRB#  
6 160091). Before participation, parents or legal guardians provided written informed consent, and  
7 children provided verbal assent.

8 The flow charts of HCP-D and ABCD participant inclusion and exclusion are presented in  
9 **Figure S1, S2**. Additional demographic details for the included datasets are available in **Table S1,**  
10 **S2**.

## 11 12 **Cognitive assessment**

13 Both the HCP-D and ABCD studies assessed participants' cognitive abilities using NIH  
14 Toolbox Cognition Battery. This battery evaluates five fluid cognitive functions: flanker inhibitory  
15 control and attention, list sorting working memory, dimensional change card sort, picture sequence  
16 memory, and pattern comparison processing speed. Both datasets generated a composite score  
17 from these five cognitive measurements to reflect participants' fluid cognition (Akshoomoff *et al.*,  
18 2013). Specifically, based on the NIH Toolbox national norms, raw scores from each task were  
19 converted into normally distributed standard scores, with a mean of 100 and a standard deviation  
20 of 15. These standardized scores were then averaged, and the resulting average score was re-  
21 standardized to acquire the composite score of fluid cognition (Weintraub *et al.*, 2013). We utilized  
22 the standard score without age correction in analyses of both the HCP-D and ABCD datasets.

## 23 24 **Psychopathology assessment**

25 Prior studies on dimensional psychopathology have identified a general psychopathology  
26 factor (also referred to as '*p*-factor'), which represents a shared vulnerability to broad psychiatric  
27 symptoms and accounts for the comorbidity across mental disorders(Caspi and Moffitt, 2018). The  
28 ABCD dataset constitutes a transdiagnostic dimensional sample covering a continuous spectrum,  
29 ranging from healthy participants to those at high risk for psychopathology, and participants  
30 diagnosed with at least one mental disorder. Therefore, we utilized this dataset for our  
31 psychopathological analyses. We utilized the score from the parent-report Child Behavior  
32 Checklist (CBCL) (Achenbach and Verhulst, 2009) as the psychopathological measurements for  
33 children from the ABCD study. The CBCL comprises 119 items describing emotional and  
34 behavioral symptoms in youth covering various Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental  
35 Disorders (DSM) classifications. It has exhibited strong psychometric properties, making it a  
36 widely utilized tool in both clinical and research settings(Ebesutani et al., 2010).

37 Moore and colleagues established a bifactor model for the general psychopathology factor  
38 using CBCL measurements from the ABCD study, demonstrating adequate reliability and validity

1 of this  $p$ -factor(Moore *et al.*, 2020). This model utilized a total of 66 CBCL items and generated  
2 four independent psychopathology dimensions, including a general psychopathology factor ( $p$ -  
3 factor) and three specific factors: internalizing, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD),  
4 and conduct problems (**Figure 7A**). Based on this model structure, we conducted confirmatory  
5 bifactor analyses on the entire sample from the ABCD study in release 5.1 (baseline  $N = 11,860$ ;  
6 1-year follow-up  $N = 11,201$ ; 2-year follow-up  $N = 10,895$ ; 3-year follow-up  $N = 10,095$ ) using  
7 Mplus 8.3(Muthén and Muthén, 2017). We fitted the model using the entire sample to reduce bias  
8 due to subject selection or visit time on the item loadings. The model was stratified by sites and  
9 accounted for clusters of families, while constraining factor loadings to be equal across time points.  
10 The model exhibited acceptable fitting performance: the baseline model yielded a comparative fit  
11 index (CFI) of 0.96 ( $>0.90$ ), a root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) of 0.02 ( $<0.08$ ),  
12 and a standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) of 0.06 ( $<0.08$ ) referring to Hu and Bentler  
13 (1999) (Hu and Bentler, 1999).

14

## 15 **MRI acquisition**

16 MRI data in the HCP-D dataset were acquired using the same protocol on 3T SIEMENS  
17 Prisma scanners with a 32-channel head coil from four different acquisition sites. 3D T1-weighted  
18 imaging (T1WI) data with a resolution of 0.8 mm isotropic were scanned using Magnetization  
19 Prepared Rapid Gradient Echo (MPRAGE) sequence. Two sessions of dMRI with a voxel size of  
20 1.5 mm isotropic were acquired. The sessions used opposite phase-encoding directions to facilitate  
21 the correction of distortion induced by the Echo Planar Imaging (EPI) sequence used in dMRI  
22 scanning. Each session includes 185 diffusion directions with two  $b$ -values of 1,500 and 3,000  
23  $\text{s/mm}^2$ , along with 14  $b = 0 \text{ s/mm}^2$  images. Further details about MRI acquisition of the HCP-D  
24 have been described in the previous study(Harms *et al.*, 2018).

25 The MRI data from the ABCD dataset were acquired using 3T SIEMENS scanners across 13  
26 acquisition sites, with sequences harmonized across different sites. 3D T1WI data were acquired  
27 with a 1 mm isotropic resolution. The dMRI scans were acquired at a 1.7 mm isotropic resolution  
28 comprising 7  $b = 0 \text{ s/mm}^2$  frames and 96 diffusion directions across 4 shells of  $b = 500 \text{ s/mm}^2$ ,  
29  $1,000 \text{ s/mm}^2$ ,  $2,000 \text{ s/mm}^2$  and  $3,000 \text{ s/mm}^2$ . Additionally, fieldmap scans in the opposite phase-  
30 encoding direction to dMRI were acquired for EPI distortion correction. Further details regarding  
31 MRI acquisition for the ABCD study have been provided in previous studies(Casey *et al.*, 2018;  
32 Hagler *et al.*, 2019).

33

## 34 **MRI data processing**

35 We acquired minimally processed T1WI from the HCP-D dataset and SIEMENS normalized  
36 T1WI from the ABCD dataset. Before our processing, the HCP-D T1WI underwent gradient  
37 distortion, anterior commissure-posterior commissure (ACPC) alignment, and readout distortion  
38 correction(Glasser *et al.*, 2013). The ABCD T1WI underwent SIEMENS intensity normalization.

1 Initially, we applied the anatomical pipeline embedded in QSIPrep version 0.16.0  
2 (<https://qsiprep.readthedocs.io/>)(Cieslak *et al.*, 2021) to the T1WI data from both datasets.  
3 QSIPrep is an integrative platform for preprocessing dMRI and structural imaging data and  
4 reconstructing white matter structural connectome (Cieslak *et al.*, 2021) by incorporating tools  
5 from FSL(Jenkinson *et al.*, 2012), DSI Studio (<https://dsi-studio.labsolver.org/>),  
6 DIPY(Garyfallidis *et al.*, 2014), ANTs (<https://stnava.github.io/ANTs/>), and MRtrix3(Tournier *et al.*, 2019). The anatomical pipeline conducted through ANTs included: 1) intensity non-uniformity  
7 correction; 2) removal of non-brain tissues; 3) normalization to the standard Montreal  
8 Neurological Institute (MNI) space. The skull-stripped T1WI in native space was used as the  
9 anatomical reference for the dMRI workflow. Normalization generated transformation matrices to  
10 register the atlas in MNI space to individual anatomical references. Next, the T1WI data were  
11 utilized to reconstruct surface and segment tissues through *FreeSurfer*(Fischl, 2012)  
12 (<http://surfer.nmr.mgh.harvard.edu/>). The surface pial and tissue segmentations would be used as  
13 anatomical constraints during the construction of the structural connectome. The HCP-D T1WI  
14 was processed based on the *FreeSurfer* workflow from the HCP processing pipelines(Glasser *et al.*, 2013), while the ABCD T1WI were processed using the recon-all pipeline through *FreeSurfer*  
15 version 7.1.1.  
16  
17

18 Raw dMRI data were acquired from both the HCP-D and ABCD datasets. We applied the  
19 dMRI pipeline embedded in the QSIPrep to the dMRI data from both datasets. The pipeline  
20 included: 1) aligning and concatenating runs of dMRI and associated field maps; 2) designating  
21 frames with a b-value less than  $100 \text{ s/mm}^2$  as  $b = 0$  volumes; 3) Marchenko-Pastur principal  
22 component analysis (MP-PCA) denoising through MRtrix3's *dwidenoise* function(Veraart *et al.*,  
23 2016); 4) Gibbs unringing through MRtrix3's *mrdegibbs* function(Kellner *et al.*, 2016); 5) B1 bias  
24 correction through MRtrix3's *dwibiascorrect* function(Tustison *et al.*, 2010); 6) head motion,  
25 distortion and eddy current corrections through FSL's eddy tool(Andersson *et al.*, 2016); 7)  
26 coregistration to individual T1WI and realignment to ACPC orientation. During this process,  
27 distortion correction utilized  $b = 0$  reference images with reversed phase encoding directions.  
28 Following the previous study(Power *et al.*, 2014), the mean FD was calculated as the sum of the  
29 absolute values of the differentiated realignment estimates for each volume to estimate the head  
30 motion during the dMRI scans.  
31

## 32 **Reconstruction of structural connectome**

33 For each scan, whole-brain probabilistic fiber tracking was conducted on the preprocessed  
34 dMRI using MRtrix3(Tournier *et al.*, 2019). Multi-shell multi-tissue constrained spherical  
35 deconvolution (CSD) was utilized to estimate the fiber orientation distribution (FOD) for each  
36 voxel through MRtrix3(Jeurissen *et al.*, 2014). We employed the anatomically constrained  
37 tractography (ACT) framework based on the hybrid surface and volume segmentation (HSVS)  
38 algorithm to enhance the biological accuracy of fiber reconstruction(Smith *et al.*, 2020; Smith *et al.*,  
39 2012). The surface pial and tissue segmentations constructed by *FreeSurfer* provided tissue  
40 anatomical information. Within the ACT framework, FOD-based tractography (iFOD2 algorithm)

1 was performed using the *tckgen* function(Tournier et al., 2010), generating 10 million streamlines  
2 with lengths ranging from 30 to 250 mm. To match the streamline densities with fiber densities  
3 estimated by CSD, the streamlines were filtered based on the spherical deconvolution of the  
4 diffusion signal using the *tcksift2* function(Smith *et al.*, 2015b). Next, we constructed structural  
5 connectivity matrices based on the Schaefer-400 atlas(Schaefer et al., 2018) using the  
6 *tck2connectome* function(Hagmann *et al.*, 2008). Due to the low diffusion signal-to-noise ratio  
7 reported(Concha et al., 2005), limbic regions were removed from the atlas, leaving 376 regions.

8 For the 376×376 connectomes across individuals, we applied a consistency-based  
9 thresholding method(Roberts et al., 2017) to mitigate the presence of spurious streamlines arising  
10 from probabilistic tractography. We computed the coefficient of variation (CV) for each edge  
11 across different scans from each dataset. Edge weights were determined by the streamline number  
12 scaled by pairwise nodes' volume. Following previous studies(Baum *et al.*, 2020; Ge et al., 2023),  
13 we generated a binary mask for each dataset to filter the spurious streamlines based on the  
14 threshold at the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile of CV.

15 Large-scale structural connectivity connectomes with larger-size nodes have demonstrated  
16 higher reproducibility and biological validity than connectomes with finer nodes(Cammoun et al.,  
17 2012; Chen et al., 2015; Sotiropoulos and Zalesky, 2019). Consequently, we computed large-scale  
18 structural connectivity matrices based on the 376×376 connectomes for the following statistical  
19 analyses. Previous studies on large-scale brain networks typically parcellated the cortex into 7 or  
20 17 systems (Hermosillo et al., 2024; Power et al., 2011; Yeo *et al.*, 2011). Here, we selected a  
21 resolution of 12 cortical systems as the median value of this range. We also evaluated 7 or 17  
22 systems in the sensitivity analyses to demonstrate the robustness of our findings. Particularly, we  
23 first ordered the 376 regions according to their position in the sensorimotor-association (S-A)  
24 cortical axis and then evenly partitioned the regions into 12 large-scale systems, each comprising  
25 32 or 31 regions along the S-A cortical axis. The S-A cortical axis was derived from a multitude  
26 of cortical features to capture a cortical hierarchical gradient from lower-order unimodal areas to  
27 higher-order transmodal areas(Sydnor et al., 2021). Then, we computed the structural connectivity  
28 strength as the number of streamlines connecting two large-scale systems normalized by the  
29 volume of the paired systems. During this process, the spurious streamlines were removed based  
30 on the binary mask defined by the consistency threshold. Finally, we obtained a 12×12 large-scale  
31 structural connectome matrix containing 78 structural connections for each participant.

32

### 33 **Development of structural connectivity strength in youth**

34 We first evaluated the connectome-wide spatial variation in developmental trajectories of  
35 structural connectivity strength during youth. All statistical analyses were performed in R4.1.0.  
36 We fitted the developmental models for 78 large-scale structural connections in both the HCP-D  
37 and ABCD datasets. We utilized general additive models (GAMs) for the cross-sectional HCP-D  
38 dataset and general additive mixed models (GAMMs) for the longitudinal ABCD dataset to  
39 flexibly capture linear and non-linear age-related changes in structural connectivity strength. The



1 models were fitted using *mgcv* (Wood, 2017) and *gamm4* package (Wood, 2014). For each model,  
2 we set structural connectivity strength as the dependent variable, with age as a smooth term, and  
3 sex and mean FD as covariates, as shown in equation (1). Per-participant random intercepts were  
4 additionally included in the GAMMs. Smooth plate regression splines served as the basic function  
5 of the smooth term, and the restricted maximal likelihood approach was used to estimate  
6 smoothing parameters. Based on previous neurodevelopmental studies in youth (Baum *et al.*, 2022;  
7 Sydnor *et al.*, 2023), we selected the degree of freedom of the smooth function ( $k$ ) as 3 to prevent  
8 overfitting. We additionally calculated the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) for GAMs or  
9 GAMMs with  $k$  values ranging from 3 to 6 to assess the model fitting performance. Consistent  
10 with previous studies (Baum *et al.*, 2022; Sydnor *et al.*, 2023), the optimal fits for most models  
11 were observed at a  $k$  value of 3, confirming the suitability of  $k = 3$ .

$$12 \quad \text{Structural connectivity strength} \sim s(\text{Age}, k = 3) + \text{Sex} + \text{Mean\_FD} \quad (1)$$

13 For each model, we evaluated the significance of the age effect by comparing the full model  
14 with a null model lacking the age term (Sydnor *et al.*, 2023) using parametric bootstrap testing via  
15 analysis of variance for GAMs and parametric bootstrap testing via the likelihood ratio test statistic  
16 for GAMMs with 1,000 simulations (Larsen and Luna, 2018). The model comparisons were  
17 supported by the *ecostats* (Warton, 2022) and *pbkrtest* (Halekoh and Højsgaard, 2014) packages.  
18 The  $P$  values were then adjusted using the false discovery rate (FDR) correction, with a significant  
19 threshold set at 0.05. We calculated the first derivative of the age smooth function for each model  
20 using the *gratia* package (Simpson, 2021) to assess the change rate of structural connectivity  
21 strength. The first derivatives were computed for 1,000 age points sampled at equal intervals within  
22 the age span. For derivatives at each age point, we computed the  $P$  values of the derivatives based  
23 on the 95% confidence interval and then adjusted the  $P$  values using the FDR method for 78 models.  
24 Age windows of significant development were identified when the first derivative had a  $P_{FDR} <$   
25 0.05. To assess the overall age effect, we calculated the partial  $R^2$  between the full and null models  
26 and then assigned the sign based on the average first derivative of the smooth function (Sydnor *et*  
27 *al.*, 2023).

28 To visualize the developmental trajectory of structural connectivity strength for each  
29 connection, we predicted the model fits for 1,000 age points sampled at equal intervals within the  
30 age span. Covariates were set at the median for numerical variables and the mode for categorical  
31 variables. The structural connectivity strength was normalized by dividing the initial strength at  
32 the youngest age (HCP-D: 8.1 years; ABCD: 8.9 years) within the age span for visualization,  
33 termed as structural connectivity strength ratio. As shown in **Figure 2B**, we observed heterogeneity  
34 in the curvature of the developmental trajectories. To highlight this heterogeneity, we standardized  
35 the fits (z-scored) across the age span for each connection. The fiber bundle diagrams shown in  
36 **Figure 2E, F** were generated using DSI studio (<https://dsi-studio.labsolver.org/>).

37 As we observed heterogeneity in the curvature of developmental trajectories, we computed  
38 the average second derivatives of age via central finite differences to quantify this curvature. A  
39 positive value of the average second derivative indicates a concave upward trajectory, while a  
40 negative value indicates a concave downward trajectory. The greater the absolute value, the greater

1 the degree of curvature. Notably, there is significant variability in the average weights of structural  
2 connectivity strength across the connectome, ranging from 0.4 to 12.3. It is important to recognize  
3 that a higher first or second derivative does not necessarily imply a greater change rate or curvature  
4 of trajectory relative to the connection's initial strength. For instance, a connection starting with  
5 an initial strength of 0.5 and a first derivative of 0.1 will evolve faster than a connection with an  
6 initial strength of 5 and a first derivative of 0.2, relative to their starting points. To address this  
7 issue, we normalized the structural connectivity strength of each connection by its fitted value at  
8 the youngest age within the dataset's age span, resulting in a structural connectivity strength ratio  
9 relative to its initial strength. We then computed the first and second derivatives on the models  
10 with the structural connectivity strength ratio as the dependent variable. This normalization process  
11 does not alter the significance or magnitude of the age effect.

12

### 13 **Definition of the S-A connectional axis**

14 The S-A cortical axis provided a framework to characterize the heterochrony of postnatal  
15 regional neurodevelopment, suggesting that many cortical features progress along the S-A cortical  
16 axis during childhood and adolescence (Baum *et al.*, 2022; Luo *et al.*, 2024; Sydnor *et al.*, 2023).  
17 Building upon this, we aimed to investigate whether the development of structural connectivity  
18 strength unfolds along the S-A axis in terms of connections. As shown in equation (2), we defined  
19 the element ( $C_{ij}$ ) between  $node_i$  and  $node_j$  in the matrix of the S-A connectional axis as the  
20 quadratic sum of the S-A cortical axis ranks of  $node_i$  and  $node_j$ . Next, we computed the ranks of  $C$   
21 as the S-A axis connectional rank.

$$22 \quad C_{ij} = Node\_rank_i^2 + Node\_rank_j^2 \quad (2)$$

23 This definition was based on the hypothesis that connections between high-order regions on  
24 the cortical axis occupy higher positions on the S-A connectional axis. We did not adopt  
25  $Node\_rank_i + Node\_rank_j$  because the simple addition resulted in many identical values in the  
26 ranking. In the context of a  $12 \times 12$  large-scale connectome, the S-A connectional axis rank ranges  
27 from 1 to 78.

28

### 29 **Developmental alignment with the S-A connectional axis**

30 The main goal of this study is to determine if the spatial variation of structural connectivity  
31 development aligns with the S-A connectional axis. To achieve this, we utilized Spearman's rank  
32 correlation to evaluate the concordance and its significance between the S-A connectional axis  
33 rank and both 1) the magnitude and direction of developmental effects (partial  $R^2$ ) and 2) the  
34 curvature of the developmental trajectories (average second derivative). To depict developmental  
35 trajectories along the S-A connectional axis continuously, we divided the S-A connectional axis  
36 into 10 decile bins, with each bin consisting of 7 or 8 large-scale structural connections. We then

1 calculated the average age within each bin and subsequently normalized these averages using z-  
2 scores (**Figure 3D**).

3 To comprehensively understand how alignment evolves across the youth, we performed an  
4 age-resolved analysis of the alignment between the developmental change rates of connectivity  
5 strength and the S-A connectional axis((Luo et al., 2024; Sydnor *et al.*, 2023). We calculated the  
6 first derivative to measure the developmental change rates. This approach enabled us to capture  
7 the evolving alignment of development with the S-A connectional axis across the targeted age span.  
8 To determine the correlation coefficient and 95% credible interval for these age-specific  
9 correlation values, we initially sampled 1,000 times from the specified multivariate normal  
10 distribution of the independent variables' coefficients for each connectional model. We then  
11 generated the posterior derivatives at 1,000 age points based on the posterior distribution of each  
12 connectional fitted model. Subsequently, we repeated the process of correlating the S-A  
13 connectional axis rank with 1,000 draws of the posterior derivative of the age smooth function at  
14 each of the 1,000 age points. The resultant distribution of correlation coefficients was utilized to  
15 determine the median and 95% credible interval of alignment at each age point. Additionally, we  
16 employed the sampling distribution of age-specific S-A connectional axis correlation values to  
17 identify the age at which the alignment flipped from negative to positive. This involved calculating  
18 the age at which the axis correlation was closest to zero across all 1,000 draws and reporting the  
19 median along with the 95% credible interval.

20 Based on the age-resolved analysis, we found a transition age of 15.5 years at which the  
21 alignment of developmental effects with the S-A connectional axis shifts from negative to positive  
22 in the HCP-D dataset. To test whether the overall structural connectivity developmental effects  
23 differ spatially before and after this critical age, we split all participants into two subsets (younger  
24 subset:  $N = 355$ , aged 8.1–15.5 years; older subset:  $N = 235$ , aged 15.5–21.9 years). We re-  
25 evaluated the developmental effects (partial  $R^2$ ) of structural connectivity strength for the two  
26 subsets separately using GAMs with the same parameters as those used for the full sample. Then,  
27 we utilized Spearman's rank correlation analysis to test the alignment of the overall developmental  
28 effects (partial  $R^2$ ) with the S-A connectional axis in the two subsets. Notably, we expected the  
29 replicated results from the ABCD dataset to be consistent with those found in the younger subset  
30 of the HCP-D because the age span of ABCD participants (8.9–13.8 years) was within the 8.1 to  
31 15.5 years range.

32

### 33 **Associations between structural connectivity strength and higher-order cognitions**

34 Associations between fluid cognition and structural connectivity strength were examined  
35 within both the HCP-D and ABCD datasets. Due to the lack of measurements for working memory  
36 and flexibility, which are components of fluid cognition, in the 2-year follow-up data of the ABCD  
37 study, only baseline data from the ABCD dataset were included in the cognitive analyses. We  
38 employed GAMs to assess the relationships between the structural connectivity strength and fluid  
39 cognition ability for each connection, controlling for age, sex, and mean FD. The equation for

1 GAMs is shown below (equation (3)).

$$2 \quad \text{Structural connectivity strength} \sim \text{Fluid cognition} + s(\text{Age}, k = 3) + \text{Sex} + \text{Mean\_FD} \quad (3)$$

3 The  $T$  values of the fluid cognition indicate the magnitude and direction of the association,  
4 and its significance was determined by comparing the full model with a null model lacking the  
5 cognition term. GAM comparisons utilized parametric bootstrap testing via analysis of variance  
6 with 1,000 simulations, facilitated by the *ecostats* package (Warton, 2022). The  $P$  values were then  
7 FDR corrected across all the 78 connections. We next evaluated the alignment of association  
8 magnitude and direction with the S-A connectional axis rank across all connections through  
9 Spearman's correlation analysis.

10 Furthermore, we depicted the developmental trajectories by different levels of fluid cognition  
11 to elucidate how structural connectivity strength evolved in individuals with varying cognition  
12 levels. To do this, we fitted an age-by-cognition interaction model for each connection controlling  
13 for sex, and mean FD (see equation (4) for the formula).

$$14 \quad \text{Structural connectivity strength} \sim s(\text{Age, by} = \text{Fluid cognition}, k = 3) + s(\text{Age}, k = 3) + \\ 15 \quad \text{Sex} + \text{Mean\_FD} \quad (4)$$

16 For this age-by-cognition interaction analysis, we included both the observations from  
17 baseline and 2-year follow-up of the ABCD dataset and utilized baseline fluid cognition as the by-  
18 item to fit GAMM models. Using the acquired models, we estimated structural connectivity  
19 strength by assigning cognitive performance as low and high levels respectively. To define these  
20 levels, we used the 10th percentile of baseline cognitive performance for the low level, and the  
21 90th percentile for the high level. We then averaged trajectories for low and high cognition levels  
22 independently within deciles of the S-A connectional axis for visualization purposes.

23

## 24 **Psychopathological associations with structural connectivity strength**

25 We further evaluated the associations between the general psychopathological factor,  $p$ -factor,  
26 and structural connectivity strength. These psychopathological analyses were conducted only in  
27 the ABCD dataset, as the ABCD study included participants with various psychiatric disorders  
28 diagnoses. The associations were evaluated through GAMMs while controlling age, sex, and mean  
29 FD. See below for the equation (5).

$$30 \quad \text{Structural connectivity strength} \sim p\text{-factor} + s(\text{Age}, k = 3) + \text{Sex} + \text{Mean\_FD} \quad (5)$$

31 Similar to cognitive analysis, the  $T$  value of the structural connectivity strength term indicates  
32 the magnitude and direction of the association between fluid cognition and structural connectivity,  
33 and its significance was determined by comparing the full model with a null model lacking the  $p$ -  
34 factor term. GAMM comparisons employed a parametric bootstrap method utilizing the likelihood  
35 ratio test statistic with 1,000 simulations, supported by the *pbkrtest* package (Halekoh and  
36 Højsgaard, 2014). FDR correction was utilized to adjust  $P$  values. To evaluate the alignment of  
37 psychopathological associations with the S-A connectional axis rank, we performed Spearman's

1 rank correlation analysis.

2 Subsequently, we further depicted the developmental trajectories by different levels of  $p$ -  
3 factors to elucidate how developmental trajectories of structural connectivity strength differed  
4 between individuals with varying severity of general psychiatric symptoms. To achieve this, we  
5 modeled age-dependent changes in structural connectivity strength as a function of  $p$ -factors (see  
6 equation (6)).

$$7 \quad \text{Structural connectivity strength} \sim s(\text{Age, by} = p\text{-factor, } k = 3) + s(\text{Age, } k = 3) + \\ 8 \quad \text{Sex} + \text{Mean\_FD} \quad (6)$$

9 Based on this model, we estimated structural connectivity strength by assigning  $p$ -factor as  
10 low and high levels respectively. To define these levels, we used the 10th percentile of the  $p$ -factor  
11 for the low level, which represents no or mild psychiatric symptoms, and the 90th percentile for  
12 the high level, which represents severe psychiatric symptoms. We then averaged trajectories for  
13 low and high  $p$ -factor levels independently within deciles of the S-A connectional axis for  
14 visualization purposes.

15

## 16 **Correction for multi-site batch effects**

17 Data in the HCP-D and ABCD datasets were collected from multi-acquisition sites. The  
18 ComBat harmonization technique has been shown to be effective in reducing batch effects in  
19 neuroimaging studies (Fortin et al., 2017; Middleton et al., 2023). In this study, we applied the  
20 ComBat method using an empirical Bayes framework (Johnson et al., 2007; Larsen et al., 2020) on  
21 each of the 78 connections with acquisition sites as the batch effect. Additionally, age, sex and  
22 mean FD were included as covariates, where age was modeled as a smooth term using GAM or  
23 GAMM. For cognitive and psychopathological analyses, fluid cognition and the  $p$ -factor were also  
24 included in models, so these two variables were additionally added as covariates separately in the  
25 ComBat processing for these analyses.

26

## 27 **Sensitivity analyses**

28 We performed a series of sensitivity analyses to ascertain the robustness of our findings. The  
29 first sensitive analysis aimed to test whether the resolution of large-scale structural connectome  
30 would affect the results. Rather than parcellating the cortex into 12 cortical systems, we acquired  
31 a cortical parcellation of 7 or 17 systems. We next computed the structural connectome with 28  
32 connections among 7 systems, as well the connectome with 153 connections among 17 systems,  
33 per scan. We next repeated all the analyses with the connectome of these two resolutions.

34 Second, as the Euclidean distance between regions could impact the structural connectivity  
35 strength, we evaluated whether this distance would confound our findings. To do this, we regressed  
36 the Euclidean distance of pairwise systems in the MNI space from the acquired effect size matrix  
37 of age, cognitive, and psychopathological effects of structural connectivity strength.

1 Third, we examined whether our findings were confounded by socioeconomic status (SES)  
2 or intracranial volume (ICV). SES was measured by the family income-to-needs ratio as prior  
3 research(Barch et al., 2022; King et al., 2020). The family income-to-needs ratio was computed as  
4 the annual family income divided by the federal poverty line from the Federal Register by the U.S.  
5 Department of Health and Human Services ([https://aspe.hhs.gov/topics/poverty-economic-](https://aspe.hhs.gov/topics/poverty-economic-mobility/poverty-guidelines/prior-hhs-poverty-guidelines-federal-register-references)  
6 [mobility/poverty-guidelines/prior-hhs-poverty-guidelines-federal-register-references](https://aspe.hhs.gov/topics/poverty-economic-mobility/poverty-guidelines/prior-hhs-poverty-guidelines-federal-register-references)). The  
7 intracranial volume was computed via *FreeSurfer*. Individuals' SES or ICV were added as  
8 additional covariates when evaluating the associations between structural connectivity strength  
9 and age, cognition, or psychopathology.

## 11 Data and code availability

12 The HCP-Development 2.0 Release data used in this report came from DOI:  
13 10.15154/1520708 via the NDA (<https://nda.nih.gov/ccf>). The ABCD 5.1 data release used in this  
14 report came from DOI: 10.15154/z563-zd24 via the NDA (<https://nda.nih.gov/abcd>). The fast-  
15 track data from the ABCD Study data is also available through the NDA. All analysis methods are  
16 described in the main text and supplementary materials. All codes used to perform the analyses in  
17 this study and the statistical magnitudes derived from analyses can be found at  
18 <https://github.com/CuiLabCIBR/SCDevelopment.git>. All analysis methods are described in the  
19 main text and supplementary materials.

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1 [partners.html](#). A listing of participating sites and a complete listing of the study investigators can  
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## 10 **Author contributions**

11 Z.C. and X.X. conceptualized the study. X.X., H.Y., and J.C. curated the data. X.X. conducted  
12 the formal analysis. X.X. and H.Y. created the visualizations. J.C. replicated all analyses. Z.C.  
13 managed the project administration and supervised the project. X.X. and Z.C. wrote the original  
14 draft. V.J.S. commented on analyses. Z.C., X.X., H.Y., J.C., and V.J.S. reviewed and edited the  
15 manuscript.

## 16 **Declaration of interests**

17 The authors declare no competing interests.

## 18 **Supplemental information**

19 Supplementary Text

20 Figures S1 to S8

21 Tables S1 to S2

## 22 **Materials and correspondence**

23 Further information and requests for resources should be directed to and will be fulfilled  
24 by the Contact, Zaixu Cui ([cuizaixu@cibr.ac.cn](mailto:cuizaixu@cibr.ac.cn)).

25

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