1   **Title**
2   Uncovering the transcriptomic heterogeneity of pancreatic endothelial cells using integrative and
3   comparative single cell gene expression analysis
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Abstract
The pancreatic islet vasculature displays tissue-specific physiological and functional adaptations
that support rapid glucose sensing and insulin response by β-cells. To uncover the transcriptomic
basis of this specialization, we performed a meta-analysis of multi-organ single cell RNA
sequencing atlases employing a unique strategy to avoid transcriptomic contamination. We
identified biologically relevant genes involved in sphingosine-1-phosphate-mediated insulin-
secretion (*PLPP1, RDX, CDC42*), islet basement membrane formation (*SPARC, COL15A1*),
endothelial cell (EC) permeability (*PLVAP, EHD4*), membrane transporters (*CD320, SLCO2A1*)
and developmental transcription factors (*NKX2-3, AHR*). These were validated *in silico* in an
independent dataset. We further established the first integrated transcriptomic atlas of human
pancreatic ECs and described two unique capillary subpopulations: exocrine and endocrine
pancreas ECs. We validated the spatial localization of key markers using RNAscope™ and
immunofluorescence staining on mouse pancreatic tissue cross-sections. Our findings provide
novel insights into pancreatic EC heterogeneity and islet EC function with potential implications
in therapeutic strategies.

Teaser
Introduction of a biologically relevant pancreas-specific endothelial cell (EC) gene signature and
integrated atlas of human pancreatic ECs.

MAIN TEXT

The manuscript should be a maximum of 15,000 words.

Introduction

Endothelial cells (ECs) are the interface for tissue-blood exchange of oxygen, nutrients, and metabolic waste products. ECs also secrete soluble factors, known as angiocrine factors, that are important for tissue morphogenesis, repair and homeostasis(*1*). Furthermore, ECs adopt unique tissue-specific characteristics to meet the functional needs of the surrounding parenchyma such as in the brain(*2*) and liver(*3*). Similarly, the pancreatic Islets of Langerhans are made up of several hormone-secreting cell-types, such as insulin-secreting β-cells and glucagon-secreting α-cells(*4*), which directly regulate blood glucose levels and are thus intimately connected to the vasculature. In fact, despite making up only 1-2% of the pancreatic mass(*5*), islets are densely vascularized and receive up to 10-20% of the blood volume to the pancreas(*6, 7*). Pancreatic ECs also display pore-like structures, where the endothelium tapers off into a thin diaphragm, called fenestrations, which increase the permeability of small molecules across the endothelium and facilitate the exchange of factors between the blood and extravascular tissue. Compared to exocrine vasculature, the islet vasculature is known to have ~10 times the number of fenestrations(*5*). Importantly, an intricate cellular-cross talk between ECs and β-cells that is imperative for proper β-cell development, proliferation and insulin secretion has also been demonstrated *in vivo*(*8, 9*). Furthermore, endothelial abberations in the islets has been implicated in the pathophysiology of both type 1 and type 2 diabetes mellitus(*10, 11*). However, the specific mechanism whereby islet fenestrations are formed, how islet ECs mediate insulin-glucose transport and their role in diabetes is not well understood.

The recent use of single cell/nucleus RNA sequencing (scRNAseq/snRNAseq) technologies, has allowed major advances in the characterization of tissue-specific endothelial signatures for various organs (*12, 13*). However, there is limited data available for islet ECs. This is because the exocrine pancreas is primarily composed of acinar cells, which secrete high levels of hydrolytic enzymes. When the whole pancreas is dissociated into single cells/nuclei, these enzymes interfere with sequencing data. As a result, the majority of the pancreas datasets have sequenced isolated, *in vitro* cultured islets(*14–19*) and the ECs do not survive this process(*20*). Altogether pancreas/pancreatic islet datasets with a substantial, viable EC population is difficult to obtain.

Furthermore, comparison of the gene expression of pancreatic ECs to other pancreas cells, does not allow for extracting information regarding endothelial specialization. For this purpose, it is more relevant to compare pancreatic ECs to ECs in other tissues and identify differences within pancreatic ECs, i.e. between exocrine and endocrine (islet) ECs.

Integrating EC data from numerous publically available studies that have sequenced different organs is challenging. This is because any downstream analysis is highly susceptible to the sequencing library preparation technique(*21*) making it difficult to ascertain actual biological gene expression differences from that conjured by batch-effects. Therefore, for an unbiased comparison between different tissue EC sequencing data, they must be acquired using the same methodology. As such, we have looked towards multi-organ gene expression atlases, which sequenced and aligned all tissues under a standardized workflow.

Kalucka et al.(*22*) has generated one such comprehensive EC-specific murine gene expression atlas, unfortunately it does not contain pancreas ECs. Other studies(*23, 24*) have also generated organotypic signatures for ECs by subsetting only ECs from the Tabula Muris atlas(*25*), which contains scRNAseq data on ~ 100,000 adult mouse cells generated using the FACS-based SmartSeq2 assay. However, they identified acinar-specific genes as top pancreas-specific EC

genes, including genes such as *CPA1, CLPS, CEL, CELA3B, CTRBB1* and *PNLIP*. This highlights an issue of RNA contamination, which likely results from the aforementioned lysis of acinar cells during single cell dissociation.

Therefore, to define a biologically relevant pancreas-specific EC gene signature we have analyzed ECs subsetted from two different multi-organ atlases, the aforementioned adult mouse Tabula Muris and the human fetal Descartes (*26*). We use these two multi-organ atlases to generate their respective EC-only atlases and then determine a cross-atlas conserved pancreas-specific EC gene signature. We validate this signature *in silico* on a third EC atlas, obtained from the Tabula Sapiens(*27*). Further, to avoid misidentifying ambient contaminant genes as pancreas-specific EC genes, we curated a list of endothelial-specific genes by analyzing four pancreas scRNAseq/snRNAseq datasets, which we then use to cross-reference discovered gene lists with. Using our analysis pipeline, we identify genes that are enriched in pancreas ECs compared to other tissue ECs, across three different multi-organ gene expression atlases. Top genes of interest identified are involved in processes coherent with islet endothelial functions, such as sphingosine-1-phosphate mediated insulin secretion (*PLPP1, RDX, CDC42)*, islet basement formation (*SPARC, COL15A1)*, endothelial barrier integrity *(HEG1)*, vascular permeability *(PLVAP, EHD4)* and membrane transport *(CD320, SLCO2A1)*. In addition, we introduce the first integrated human pancreatic EC atlas derived from three human datasets and dissect pancreatic EC heterogeneity. Using this integrated atlas, we described and valiated *in situ* the existence of transcriptomically distinct endocrine-specific and exocrine-specific capillary subpopulations. Our approach provides a comprehensive overview of the inter and intra-tissue transcriptomic landscape of pancreatic ECs. This will help us better understand the role of islet microvessels in regulating glucose homeostasis and advance research in diabetes therapy.

Results

Comparative analysis of multi-organ gene expression atlases to define a pancreas-specific gene signature for endothelial cells.

To generate a transcriptomic profile of pancreatic ECs, we have conducted comparative analysis against other tissue ECs using multi-organ gene expression atlases and integrated human pancreatic EC sequencing data to dissect the inter and intra-tissue pancreatic endothelial heterogeneity respectively (Figure 1). To define a pancreas-specific endothelial gene signature, we subsetted and pooled all cells previously annotated as endothelial by the studies' respective authors, from all available organs from the Tabula Muris and Descartes atlases (Table 1). This generated an EC atlas for fetal human tissue and adult mouse tissue (Descardes and Tabula Muris), respectively(Figure 2 A-F). We then identified differentially expressed genes (DEGs) (log2FoldChange > 0.25) enriched in pancreas ECs compared to ECs from all other tissues for each atlas (Figure 2C and 2F). This generated a list of pancreas-enriched DEGs from the Descartes and the Tabula Muris EC atlases (Supplementary Table 1 and 2). However, closer inspection of these DEGs revealed a significant number of acinar and endocrine-specific genes, likely resulting from ambient RNA contamination from surrounding exocrine and endocrine genes(*28*). While there have been notable tools developed that can tease out ambient RNA expression such as SoupX(*29*) and DecontX(*30*), their methodologies depend on detecting ambient RNA that is expressed in all cell-types obtained from the same sample. However, when comparing ECs across tissues that were isolated and sequenced tissue-by-tissue, the ambient RNA contamination present in pancreatic ECs is not present in the other tissue ECs. As such, the contamination DEGs could be identified as *de novo* genes. Therefore, we chose to not use *SoupX* or *DecontX*.

Instead, to avoid selecting these contaminant genes in downstream analyses, we sought to curate a list of endothelial-specific genes with which to cross-reference the pancreas-enriched DEGs from Descartes and Tabula Muris EC atlases. To do so, we analyzed four different pancreas datasets.

These include the scRNAseq pancreas dataset from the Descartes and Tabula Muris gene expression atlases as well as a human adult and a human neonatal snRNAseq pancreas datasets generated by Tosti et al.(*31*) (henceforth referred to as Tosti-Adult and Tosti-Neonatal, respectively) (Table 1, Supplementary Figure 1 and 2). For each dataset, we identified the significant DEGs (log2FoldChange > 0.25, Bonferroni-adjusted p-value < 0.05) enriched in the pancreatic vascular EC populations against all other non-vascular pancreatic populations, such as β-cells or acinar cells, excluding lymphatic ECs and perivascular cells, which could have overlapping gene expression with ECs (Supplementary Table 3).

We reasoned that any remaining DEGs that are upregulated in ECs cannot be contaminating genes from other populations, as the contaminating genes should have a higher expression in the cell-type it originates from. We observed limited overlap in the endothelial genes discovered in the four datasets. This highlights both biological variability, as well as technical variability in generating these datasets. However, it also highlights the ability of each dataset to detect unique endothelial genes in the pancreas that cannot be detected in the sample type or by the methodology used in the other datasets. As such, to ensure our list does not exclude potential endothelial genes, we merged all 1,996 unique DEGs identified from the four datasets into one list (Figure 2G). We refered to these DEGs as the list of endothelial-enriched DEGs.

Next, we cross referenced the pancreas-enriched DEGs from the EC atlases (Descartes and Tabula Muris) with the list of endothelial-enriched DEGs (Figure 2F) (Supplementary Table 4 and 5) and removed any genes that did not overlap with this list. This demonstrated that most of the top EC DEGs, are contamination in both atlases (Figure 3A and B). Among the remaining DEGs, we identify 87 genes which were common between all three lists. This indicates that they are highly conserved and potentially relevant, as they were identified irrespective of species (mouse and human), sequencing method (FACS-based and droplet-based) and age (adult and fetal). We refer to these 87 genes as the 'pancreas-specific EC gene signature' (Table 2). Hierarchical clustering of the different organ ECs based on the expression of signature DEGs allowed pancreas ECs to cluster separately, in its own branch, in both the Descartes and Tabula Muris EC atlas (Figure 3C and D). To further increase confidence in the biological relevance of this gene signature, we assessed its expression in an independent, third multi-organ atlas, i.e. not used to derive this signature.

Validation of pancreas-specific EC gene signature in an independent multi-organ atlas

For this purpose, we analyzed the adult human Tabula Sapiens gene expression atlas. Its corresponding EC atlas was generated by subsetting all annotated ECs, similarly to the Descartes and Tabula Muris EC atlases (Figure 4A-B). We then assessed the collective expression of the pancreas-specific EC signature genes using Seurat's module score(*32*), which employs the scoring strategy described by Tirosh, et al(*33*). We showed that the module score for the pancreas-specific EC signature was highest in the EC population in the pancreas, compared to other EC populations in all other tissues (Figure 4C), confirming pancreas specificity of the gene signature. Hierarchical clustering based on average scaled expression of the signature DEGs, also clustered pancreas ECs separately from all other organ ECs (Figure 4D). Additionally, individual gene expression patterns demonstrated that not all signature genes were uniquely expressed in pancreatic ECs. In fact, single cell omics analysis has revealed many genes previously assumed to have organ-specific endothelial expression are still expressed in EC in other tissues but to a lesser extent(*22*). We found that it is a unique collective gene expression signature that is specific to pancreas ECs, rather than the expression of individual genes. Here we validated *in silico* several genes in our list of signature genes to be highly enriched in pancreas ECs compared to other tissue ECs in the Tabula Sapiens EC atlas. We have also confirmed the vascular expression of several of these genes (*Nkx2-3, Plcb1, Clec14a, Heg1*) *in situ* in the pancreas of E18.5 mouse pancreas (Figure 4E).

When we sorted the signature genes based on fold-change in percentage of pancreas ECs expressing the gene against other tissue ECs, the homeobox sequence containing *NKX2-3* was the top differentiative gene. *NKX2-3* is a developmental transcription factor (TF) that has been shown to regulate the expression of several key endothelial genes(*34*). This gene was also one of the top differentiative gene in both the Descartes and Tabula Muris EC atlas (Figure 3C and D). Another TF validated *in silico* to be enriched in pancreatic ECs is Aryl hydrocarbon receptor (*AHR*), which is involved in vascular development(*35*) and angiogenesis(*36*). *AHR* is also and involved in S1P signalling(*37*), which in turn has been shown to be involved in glucose-stimulated insulin secretion(*38*, *39*).

Importantly, we also observe several genes potentially involved in S1P-mediated regulation of endothelial barrier integrity via the Rho GTPase signalling pathway. For example, there is enrichment of the Cdc42 effector protein (*CDC42EP1*), which binds to Cdc42 a member of the Rho family of GTPases. We also see enrichment of Radixin (*RDX*) which is part of the ERM (Ezrin-Radixin-Moesin) family of actin-binding proteins and integral for S1P-mediated endothelial barrier integrity(*40*). We also observe other cytoskeletal genes such Synaptopodin (*SYNPO*) and Refilin B (*RFNLB* or *FAM101B*) enriched in pancreas ECs, which is consistent with cytoskeletal alterations induced by S1P. Other genes related to S1P-mediated endothelial barrier regulation, which were not expressed in the Tabula Sapiens but were still present in our signature gene list, i.e. they were pancreas-specific in Tabula Muris and Descartes EC atlas include; moesin (*MSN*), another ERM actin-binding protein(*40*) and *SPNS2*, a S1P transporter protein.

We further assessed the expression of other proteins directly involved with S1P-signalling across all ECs and across all cell-types in the pancreas in the Tabula Sapiens (Figure 5A). This include sphingosine kinases (*SPHK1, SPHK2*), which phosphorylate sphingosine to form S1P, all S1P-receptors (*S1PR1-5*) and phospholipid phosphatases (*PLPP1-3*), which dephosphorylates S1P back to sphingosine(*41*). Interstingly, β-cells do not notably express any of these genes directly, while pancreatic ECs highly express *S1PR1* and *PLPP1* . In fact, *PLPP1* had the highest expression in pancreas ECs across all tissue ECs. *S1PR1*, was also highly expressed in pancreatic ECs however, it had the highest expression in heart ECs.

CDC42 is also involved in insulin-signaling mediated glucose transport(*42*) and protein kinase N1 (*PKN1*), which is a key Rho-mediated kinase involved in transmitting insulin signaling to the actin cytoskeleton, was also enriched in ECs of the pancreas(*43*, *44*). Other genes of interest that were validated *in silico* include; heart-of-glass protein (*HEG1*) involved in vascular junctional integrity(*45*); plasmalemma vesicle associated protein (*PLVAP*), the widely used marker of endothelial fenestration(*46*); EH-domain containing 4 (*EHD4*), which is involved in the formation of caveolae(*47*), which are invaginations on the endothelial wall involved in transport; *COL15A1*, which has been shown to be expressed in a novel venous population, specific to the visceral pleura in the lung(*12*, *48*); and *CLEC14A*, which is an important endothelial cell-cell adhesion molecule(*47*).

We further analyze all pancreas-enriched EC genes in the Tabula Sapiens EC atlas. Similar to the other EC atlases, the top DEGs were contaminating genes (Figure 5B, Supplementar Table 6). As before, to avoid contaminating genes, we cross-referenced these DEGs with the curated list of endothelial-enriched DEGs. In total, among all the pancreas-enriched DEGs from the Tabula Sapiens EC atlas, 366 DEGs were also endothelial-enriched (Figure 5C). We then compared these with the DEGs from the Descartes and Tabula Muris EC atlases. Overall, 36 DEGs overlapped across all 3 lists (Table 2, Figure 5D) and include the genes described previously.

Beyond these genes of interest, there were also genes that only overlaped between the human Descartes and Tabula Sapiens EC atlases, but not the mouse Tabula Muris EC atlas. This may constitute human-specific pancreas-enriched EC genes. In total 105 genes, uniquely overlapped between pancreas-enriched DEGs from the Descartes EC atlas and the Tabula Sapiens EC atlas (Figure 5D and E). The top 10 DEGs by log2FC in pancreas ECs against other pancreatic cells from this list in the Tabula Sapiens EC atlas include; a transcobalamin transporter (*CD320*), which is involved in the transcytosis of vitamin B12(*49*); a prostaglandin transporter (*SLCO2A1*)(*50*); insulin-like growth factor binding protein 4 (*IGFBP4*); transmembrane Protein 88 (*TMEM88)*, an inhibitor of the Wnt/β-catenin signaling pathway implicated in proper cardiovascular development (*51*); thioredoxin interacting protein (*TXNIP*), which is involved in *VEGF* signalling(*52*); a member of the major histone compatibility (MHC) complex, *HLA-C*; *SPARCL1* or Hevin, a member of the SPARC family of matricellular proteins(*53*), involved in angiogenesis, vessel integrity(*54*), vascular permeability(*55*) and glucose homoestasis(*56*); a member of the SOX-family of TF (*SOX18*), which is integral in vascular development(*57*); and *FAM13C*, which is an understudied protein.

Potentially identifying adult-specific pancreas EC genes, we found 59 DEGs also overlapped uniquely between the two adult atlases, Tabula Sapiens EC atlas and Tabula Muris EC atlas, but not the fetal Descartes EC atlas. The top 10 DEGs by log2FC in pancreas ECs against other pancreatic cells from this list in the Tabula Sapiens EC atlas include; TGFβ Type 2 receptor protein (*TGFB2R*), which binds TGFβ, an important regulator of endothelial function(*58*); *PLPP1*, which, as we describe previously, dephosphorylates S1P to sphingosine(*41*); integrin alpha-1 (*ITGA1)*, an important islet basement membrane protein(*59*); growth arrest-specific protein 6 (*GAS6)* involved in angiogenesis(*60*); G protein-coupled receptor 146 (*GPR146)*, involved in vascular remodelling(*61*); cellular communication network factor 2 (*CCN2)* an ECM protein important for pericyte adhesion(*62*); atonal BHLH TF 8 (*ATOH8*), which is an important TF for endothelial cells(*63*) and embryonic pancreas development(*64*); VEGF receptor 2 (*KDR*); and *FAM167B*, another understudied protein. The remaining 166 DEGs that are only specific to Tabula Sapiens are also of interest, as these could include novel genes that cannot be detected due to the limitations of the other two atlases (Supplementar Table 6).

Defining the intra-tissue endothelial heterogeneity in the pancreas

Next, we assessed the intratissue EC heterogeneity in the pancreas. To maximize our transcriptomic resolution, we used Harmony(*65*) to integrate the pancreatic ECs across the 3 human datasets. These include the fetal pancreas EC data from Descartes (Descartes-Fetal), Tosti-Adult and Tosti-Neonatal (Figure 6A). Read count matrices for ECs from each dataset were preprocessed, log-normalized and clustered as described in the methods section. Unsupervised clustering revealed several contaminating clusters within each pancreatic EC dataset, which did not express canonical endothelial genes (*CDH5, KDR, VWF*) or had co-expression of non-endothelial contaminating genes. To ensure these populations did not interfere with proper integration of pancreatic ECs across datasets, the contaminating clusters were removed prior to integration. As a result, 3,857 ECs, 1,023 ECs and 576 ECs were used for integration from the Descartes-Fetal, Tosti-Adult and Tosti-Neonatal datasets, respectively.

This produced an atlas of human pancreatic ECs with 6 different subpopulations. These unique populations were present in approximately equal proportions across the individual datasets (Figure 6B and C). Based on gene expression patterns, we discovered that these populations corresponded to the topographical location of ECs along the vascular tree (Figure 6D). Three arterial populations were identified by the expression of *GJA5*(*66*) *GJA4* (*67*) and *EFNB2* (*68*). Artery 1 population

was additionally enriched for elastin (*ELN*) and *SULF1*, which are involved in artery extracellular
matrix (ECM) formation(*69*). The arteriole population had co-expression of arterial markers and
CD36, which has also been shown to be differentially expressed in capillary ECs in the lung(*12*).
CD36 was also highly expressed in the two capillary populations, capillary 1 and capillary 2,
alongiside *PLVAP* and *COL15A1*. We also annotate one venule population based on the expression
of the venule marker *DARC* (*70*). When we calculated module scores based on the collective
expression of the pancreas-specific EC signature genes derived previously, we saw that capillary
1, had the highest module score for this signature, followed by the arteriole population
(Supplementary Figure 4).

DE analysis (Supplementary Table 7) between the different subpopulations revealed genes
involved in caveolae and fenestrae formation, ECM production, insulin-like growth factor (IGF)
signalling, SOXF transcription factors, immune-activity, and membrane transport. Therefore, we
assessed other genes in these families, to identify potential trends that correspond to the vascular
hierarchy (Figure 6E). Notably, compared to capillary 2, capillary 1 had higher expression of
several caveolae and fenestrae associated genes such as *PLVAP*(*71*), *SDPR* (or *CAVIN2*)(*72*) and
EHD4(*73*). It also had higher expression of several immune-related genes, including *FABP5*(*74*)
and *CD74*(*75*), which are involved in inflammation in macrophages and several major
histocompatibility complex (MHC) proteins such as *ITM2A, B2M, HLA-C, HLA-B*. Higher
immunological activity and presence of fenestrae are characteristics that have previously been
attributed in literature to intra-islet capillaires in comparison to exocrine capillaries(*76*). This
suggests that capillary 1 and capillary 2 subpopulations are islet capillary ECs and exocrine
capillary ECs, respectively. Other genes highly enriched in capillary 1 included *SPARC,* and its
structurally similar counterpart *SPARCL1*, which are matricellular proteins involved in
angiogenesis(*54*), vascular permeability(*55*) and implicated in glucose homeostasis(*56*); *IGFBP7*,
a secreted factor stored in Weibel-Palade bodies(*77*), which has been implicated in angiogenesis
and vascular permeability(*78*); the prostaglandin transporter, *SLCO2A1*; vitamin B12 transporter
CD320, and the glucose transporter, *SLC2A3*. Importantly, many of these genes overlapped with
the pancreas-enriched EC genes identified previously (Table 2, Supplementary Table 4 and 5). By
contrast, capillary 2 displayed a more generic expression pattern with no significantly enriched
genes compared to capillary 1. The arteriole population also had an interesting gene expression
pattern, as it had the highest expression of *HEG1*, which is involved in barrier integrity(*45*); *SOX7*,
which is another SOX-TF involved in vascular development and shown to be highly expressed in
arterioles(*79*); insulin-like growth factor binding protein 3 (*IGFBP3*) and insulin receptor (*INSR)*,
which are major components of the insulin and IGF signalling pathways.

We also performed pseudotime trajectory inference of the integrated pancreatic EC map on the
UMAP space using SCORPIUS, a machine learning tool which has been benchmarked to be one
of the best trajectory methods based on overall performance(*80*) (Figure 6F). The analysis
predicted a trajectory from the venule population to the artery populations, through the capillary
populations. This further supports the capillary annotation. Gene expression of top markers
(Supplementary Table 7) for each vacular bed subpopulation across pseudotime also demonstrated
a continuous gene expression pattern across the vascular topography rather than discrete endothelial
subpopulations (Figure 6G). We also identify genes that predict the ordering of the cells along
pseudotime, ranked by an importance score derived using a Random Forests algorithm employed
by SCORPIUS (Figure 6H). This allowed us to identify the expression pattern of both established
(*GJA4, GJA5, DARC*) and under studied arterio-venous markers for differentiating ECs along the
vascular tree. Of these genes, we found that capillaries have peak expression of *PLVAP* and *APLNR*,
which has been implicated in apelin-mediated glucose control. Another gene of interest is *UNC5B*,
which shows peak expression in the arteriole ECs, and has been recently shown to regulate blood-

brain barrier integrity through interaction with netrin-1(*81*). Several other genes (*POSTN, GPR126*
and *ZNF385D*) match the expression pattern of *DARC*, which peaks specifically in Venule ECs,
suggesting these could be novel marker genes for venous ECs, at least in the pancreas.

Validation of an islet-specific EC cell population

Next, we applied a cell-type annotation transfer mapping method on the Tabula Sapiens pancreas
ECs, using the integrated pancreatic EC atlas as the reference (Supplementary Figure 5). Three
different subpopulations were identified in the Tabula Sapiens: artery 2, capillary 1 (islet capillary)
and the venule subpopulations. These annotations were corroborated by assessing the expression
of marker genes *GJA4, CD36* and *DARC* (or *ACKR1*) in these clusters. The majority of the cells
were annotated as capillary 1. No capillary 2 ECs were annotated. This is still consistent with our
annotation of capillary 2 as exocrine capillary endothelial cells, which are likely to be damaged
during the enzymatic digestion process used to sequence pancreas tissue in the Tabula Sapiens.

Finally, to validate that th transcriptomic signature for capillary 1 and capillary 2 in the integrated
map correspond to EC populations in the endocrine (or intra-islet) and exocrine capillaries
respectively, *in vivo*, we assessed the expression of 3 DEGs, *PLVAP, SPARC*, and *NKX2-3*, which
were enriched in capillary 1 against all other subpopulations, including capillary 2, in the integrated
atlas (Figure 7C). We conducted RNAscope™ and IF staining of these genes *in situ* on E18.5
mouse pancreatic tissue (Figure 7D). RNAscope™ data demonstrated that a large portion of the
probes, 70.1% (± 3.44 %) for *Sparc* and 49.6% (± 5.44 %) for *Nkx2-3*, were co-localized within the
vessels (Figure 7E). This is consistent with our analysis that demonstrate NKX2-3 is also expressed
by stellate cells (Supplementary Figure 3). IF staining and quantification of *Plvap* showed that it
had over 2 times as higher fluorescence intensity (3970AU ± 571) in endocrine
Pecam1/Endomucin+ capillaries compared to exocrine capillaries (1513 AU ± 268) (Figure 7F).
Further, *Sparc* in the endocrine vessels had over 3 times as much RNA expression level as measured
by area of bound probe (0.0416 μm^2 ± 0.0086) compared to the exocrine vessels (0.01234 μm^2 ±
0.0012) (Figure 7F). RNAscope™ of *Nkx2-3* did not show any statistical difference in endocrine vs
exocrine vessels, however, the mean area of probe binding was higher within the islets. Overall the
expression pattern of endocrine and exocrine capillary ECs, further corroborate our capillary
annotation for the integrated pancreatic EC map.

Discussion

Endothelial cells demonstrate a remarkable extent of intra and inter-tissue heterogeneity in
structure, function, and molecular characteristics. With the advent of omics technologies, it is now
possible to dissect this organotypic heterogeneity down to the single cell resolution. Here we have
analyzed different multi-organ gene expression atlases and have established a unique, cross-species
conserved, *in silico* and *in situ* validated pancreas-specific EC gene signature. This signature
included genes involved in insulin-secretion, fenestrae and caveolae formation, islet basement
membrane components, endothelial barrier integrity, vascular permeability and key developmental
TFs. Furthermore, we have established the first integrated atlas of human pancreatic ECs using
three recently published human pancreatic EC datasets from fetal, adult and neonatal human
samples. This is similar to previously generated integrated atlases for ECs in the brain(*13*) and
lung(*12*) and allowed us to identify distinct subpopulations with unique gene expression patterns,
corresponding to the topographical location of ECs along the vascular tree. Specifically, we
describe two unique capillary subpopulations, which we validated *in situ* to correspond to endocrine
(intra-islet) and exocrine capillary endothelial populations.

The importance of profiling the transcriptomics of pancreatic ECs is clear when considering the
integral nature of ECs in β-cell development and function, and its relevance in diabetes. The

pancreas-specific EC gene signature can shed insight into the development of specialization in glucose homeostasis and insulin transport within the islet microvasculature. Further, owing to the tissue-specific roles of ECs, there is a recent push towards generating induced pluripotent-stem cell (iPSC)-derived organotypic ECs for tissue-specific vascular regeneration, and building physiologically relevant 3D vascularized tissue models *in vitro*, which remains an outstanding challenge in regenerative medicine(*82, 83*).

Past attempts at generating a transcriptomic signature of pancreatic ECs have inadvertently introduced bias(*23, 24*) from contaminating/ambient RNA from lysed acinar cells, which skewed the differential expression analysis. To circumvent this issue and uncover a contaminant-free, gene signature for pancreatic ECs, we have cross-referenced the pancreas-specific EC genes with a list of endothelial-enriched markers in the pancreas, i.e. they are expressed in ECs and not by possible contaminating populations such as endocrine and exocrine cells. It is worth mentioning that two different endothelial gene expression atlases (Descartes and Tabula Muris EC atlas) were used to derive the pancreatic EC-specific signature, which was then *in silico* validated on a third, independent gene expression atlas, the Tabula Sapiens EC atlas. We also validated gene expression *in situ*, confirming the expression of several of the signature genes within the ECs of the pancreas. Altogether, this increased the confidence that the observed gene expression patterns are representative of genuine biological processes in the pancreatic microvasculature.

Specifically, we identified and validated *PLVAP*, which encodes for plasmalemma vesicle-associated protein that is present in the the diaphragms of endothelial fenestrae and in caveolae (*71*), as being highly enriched in pancreatic ECs. This is true even when comparing to other fenestrated ECs such as of the kidney. *PLVAP* was also enriched in capillary 1 ECs compared to all other EC populations in the integrated atlas, including capillary 2. Consistent with this, PLVAP protein expression was validated *in situ* to be significantly higher in endocrine capillaries compared to exocrine capillaries. This indicated that capillary 1 was the endocrine population and capillary 2 was the exocrine population. In the integrated atlas, *SDPR* (or *CAVIN2*) and *EHD4* were also enriched in capillary 1 ECs compared to all other EC populations. *EHD4* was also identified in our pancreas-specific EC gene-signature. *SDPR* directly regulates caveolae formation and morphology (*72*) and *EHD4* colocalizes on the surface of caveolae(*73*). Altogether, this data shows higher concentration of caveolae and fenestrae in endocrine pancreatic ECs compared to exocrine ECs as well as other tissue ECs. This is functionally consistent with previous reports implicating caveolaes in insulin and glucose transport(*84–86*).

Importantly, one of the top genes of interest across all three EC atlases was *NKX2-3* – which we validated *in situ* and showed that it was indeed expressed in the EC in the pancreas. *NKX2-3* also had higher expression in endocrine capillary ECs compared to exocrine capillary ECs in the integrated pancreas EC atlas. However, we were unable to confirm that *NKX2-3* was enriched in endocrine capillaries using *in situ* hybridization. This could be due to the fact that only a fraction of ECs in the capillary 1 population express high levels of *NKX2-3*, making it difficult to tease out differences *in situ* between exocrine and endocrine vessels.

NKX2-3 is a member of the NK2 family of homeobox-domain containing TFs. These are critical organ-specific developmental TFs(*87, 88*). *NKX2-3* in particular is involved in the development of the spleen and gut(*89*), both of which arise from the endoderm, which also gives rise to the pancreas. Specifically, *NKX2-3* has been shown to be integral for proper vascular specification in these organs(*90, 91*). Primarily, *NKX2-3* is involved in regulating the expression of mucosal vascular addressin cell adhesion molecule 1 (MAdCAM-1)(*92*). MAdCAM-1 is a tissue-specific adhesion molecule that facilitates the homing of leukocytes in vascular segments involved in immune surveillance and inflammation, such as the high endothelial venules found in lymph nodes and Peyer's patches of the small intestine(*93, 94*). Interestingly, in this study MAdCAM-1 expression was also highly enriched in pancreas ECs in the fetal human Descartes EC atlas.

Beyond, MAdCAM-1, *NKX2-3* has also been shown to be involved in regulating expression of other important angiocrine factors such as endothelin-1, VEGF-A, adrenomedullin and endothelial nitric oxide synthase(*34, 95*). Therefore, the identification of *NKX2-3* as a top DEG enriched in pancreas-ECs compared to all other tissue ECs across all three EC atlases, as well as the potential higher expression in islet capillary ECs compared to exocrine capillary ECs, makes *NKX2-3* TF an exciting target to study. Specifically, its role in pancreatic vascular specification should be further investigated.

We also see numerous genes enriched in pancreas ECs that are related to S1P signalling. S1P is a bioactive lipid, which is secreted by platelets, red blood cells and ECs(*95*), that has garnered much research interest due to its multifaceted role in embryonic development, organ homeostasis and disease pathogenesis(*96*). In the pancreas, vascular derived S1P is involved in pancreas development(*97*). Further, evidence suggests that extracellular S1P may induce glucose-stimulated insulin secretion in β-cells(*38, 39*). In fact, exogenous S1P has been shown to improve β-cell proliferation in a type 2 diabetic mouse model(*98*). In this study, we highlight several genes involved in S1P signalling, such as *AHR* and *RDX*, which were pancreas enriched across all three EC atlases, and *MSN, SPNS2* and *PLPP1*, which were pancreas enriched across at least two EC atlases. *AHR*, which encodes the Aryl Hydrocarbon Receptor, is a TF that has been implicated in regulating S1P bioavailability(*37, 99*). *RDX* (Radixin) and *MSN* (Moesin), are members of the ERM-actin binding complex and are integral in S1P-mediated endothelial barrier permeability(*40*). *SPNS2*, is a S1P transporter(*41*) and *PLPP1* dephosphorylates S1P. Taken together, these findings suggest that pancreatic ECs play a critical role in the production, transport, and metabolism of S1P. Notably, S1P receptor genes (S1PR1-5) were not detected in β-cells across all pancreas datasets, whereas pancreas ECs highly expressed *S1PR1* compared to other pancreas cell-types. Thus, we hypothesize that S1P signaling primarily involves the islet ECs, which then propagates its effects to β-cells through other means to regulate their function. Further research is needed to fully elucidate the role of S1P and its associated proteins in the β-cell/EC axis.

Another pancreas EC enriched gene of interest is *SPARC*, also known as osteonectin, which is a member of the SPARC-family of matricellular proteins. Unlike conventional ECM proteins, matricellular proteins are non-scaffolding components of the ECM that are involved in a myriad of diverse and complex biological functions(*100*) such as regulating ECM remodelling, cell-matrix interactions and growth-factor activity. Importantly, it has been demonstrated *in vivo* that SPARC may regulate β cell growth(*101*) and insulin secretion(*102*) and is essential for proper glucose homeostasis in a type 2 diabetic mouse model(*56*). Further, *SPARC* expression was found to be differentially expressed in the islets and in the plasma of diabetic patients(*103, 104*). Here, we demonstrated that *SPARC*, and another member of the family, SPARC-like protein 1 (*SPARCL1),* also known as hevin, are enriched in pancreatic ECs in the Tabula Sapiens EC atlas. *SPARC* and *SPARCL1* expression were also enriched in pancreas vascular ECs compared to all other pancreas cell-types, although stromal cells also expressed both genes as previously reported(*101*). Further, in the integrated pancreatic EC atlas, we observed enrichment of *SPARC* in endocrine capillary ECs compared to the exocrine capillary ECs. *In situ* validation in E18.5 mouse pancreatic tissue confirmed that islet capillaires had significantly higher *Sparc* expression.

Further, according to the integrated atlas, islet capillary ECs had higher expression of the vitamin B12 transporter *CD320*, prostaglandin transporter, *SLCO2A1* and glucose transporter *SLC2A3* (or *GLUT3*). *CD320* was also enriched in pancreas ECs in both human atlases. Therefore, the role of vitamin B12 and prostaglandin should be further investigated in pancreatic ECs. As these genes encode for membrane associated proteins, they could also act as potential biomarkers for islet capillary ECs along with the caveolae and fenestrae associated genes *PLVAP, EHD4* and *SDPR*.

475	Finally, we identified an arteriole population, which had enrichment of *IGFBP3* and *INSR*
476	compared to the other EC populations in the integrated atlas. This indicated potentialy important
477	roles in insulin-signalling in the arterioles in the pancreas. This is in line with a previously reported
478	role for insulin signaling in promoting vasodilation via nitric-oxide(*105*). Recently, it was
479	established that pericytes can also regulate blood flow in islet capillaries in response to changes in
480	blood glycemic levels(*106*). Therefore, a mechanism whereby pre-capillary arterioles are
481	regulating blood flow along with pericytes through interstitial insulin signaling from β-cells is
482	likely.
483	
484	Our study has limitations that need to be acknowledged. To relate genes of interest identified in
485	this study to notable biological pathways, we examined the top genes throughout our analysis and
486	then consulted the literature to determine relevant processes. A more comprehensive approach
487	would be to use enrichment analysis with a curated pathway database specific for ECs. However,
488	current databases for gene set and pathway enrichment analysis such as REACTOME, KEGG,
489	Gene Ontology have limited processes involved in vascular functions. Therefore, gene set
490	enrichment using these databases may overlook important biological information present in the
491	data. We also used Harmony to integrate pancreatic EC data from fetal, adult and neonatal datasets.
492	Harmony corrects the principle components obtained from dimensionality reduction techniques. It
493	does not make any changes to the underlying raw count matrix of gene expression values.
494	Therefore, it is not feasible to find DEGs between fetal, neonatal and adult pancreatic EC datasets,
495	as we cannot be sure whether the differences are due to batch effects. However, we can still
496	compare gene expression across different populations found in all three datasets. Developing a
497	normalization or transformation method that removes batch-effects in scRNAseq/snRNAseq gene
498	expression is an ongoing area of intensive research. Finally, we did not conduct *in situ* validation
499	on adult pancreatic tissue. This is because of the high-levels of hydrolytic enzymes in the exocrine
500	pancreas, which we found caused both tissue and RNA probe degradation, as well as
501	autofluorescence, leading to nonspecific background staining that interfered with the accuracy and
502	sensitivity of the staining.
503	
504	Despite these limitation, we have succeeded in tuning out the transcriptomic noise that is inherent
505	in pancreatic endothelial scRNAseq/snRNAseq data and determined a biologically relevant and
506	accurate portrayal of the vascular transcriptomic architecture in the pancreas. Genes of interest and
507	transcriptomic phenomenons highlighted in this study reveal important functional roles of
508	pancreatic ECs in glucose homeostasis and diabetes pathophysiology and also identify important
509	TFs that can aid future endeavours at recapitulating pancreatic islet ECs for regenerative medicine
510	applications.
511	

Materials and Methods

Data Acquisition

515	Raw counts matrices and meta data for the scRNA-seq/snRNA-seq datasets used in this paper were
516	derived from their respective online databases/repositories. For the Descartes gene expression atlas
517	(https://descartes.brotmanbaty.org/), sparse gene (row) by cell (column) matrices along with cell
518	annotation were downloaded for pancreatic and endothelial cells. For the Tabula Muris gene
519	expression atlas, processed Seurat Robjects for all FACS-sequenced organ datasets were
520	downloaded and the raw count matrices and meta data available for the cells were extracted
521	(https://figshare.com/projects/Tabula_Muris_Transcriptomic_characterization_of_20_organs_and
522	_tissues_from_Mus_musculus_at_single_cell_resolution/27733). Similarly, for the adult and
523	neonatal pancreas data from Tosti et al., processed Seurat Robjects were downloaded
524	(http://singlecell.charite.de/cellbrowser/pancreas/) and the raw count matrices and available meta
525	data were extracted from the objects. For the Tabula Sapiens atlas, processed Seurat Objects

containing all tissue endothelial cell data and pancreas cell data were downloaded and (https://figshare.com/articles/dataset/Tabula_Sapiens_release_1_0/14267219) the raw count matrices and available meta data were pulled from the objects .

Single cell analysis pipeline
Datasets were analyzed using Seurat (v4.0.1). Low quality cells with less than 200 unique genes and genes with 0 counts across all cells were removed. Cells with high unique feature counts (potential doublets or multiplets) above a certain threshold were omitted. The thresholds was determined for each dataset individually based on distribution of feature counts. Cells with high mitochondrial content were filtered out. Data was normalized using log normalization and highly variable genes were detected using variance-stabilizing transformation (vst). The normalized data was centered and scaled and cell cycle scores were generated for each cell using lists of genes expressed in S Phase and G2M Phase. Scoring followed the strategy outlined by Tirosh et at. This data was re-scaled with regression of cell cycle scores and percentage of mitochondrial genes using the vars.to.regress parameter. Dimensionality reduction was performed using the "RunPCA" function, the top 30 principle components were used for non-linear dimension reduction using Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP), with the RunUMAP function. The first 10 principle components were used for Seurat's default graph-based clustering using the FindNeigbhors and FindCluster function.

Differential expression analysis and comparison of differentially expressed genes

Differential expression (DE) analysis was done between cells of interest with the FindMarkers function using the Wilcoxon Rank Sum test. Dissociation induced stress genes (van den Brin, SC, et al. Nat Meth. 2017) were removed from the list. For comparison between mouse genes and human genes, all mouse genes were converted to their human homologues using the R homologene package (1.4.68.19.3.27), for genes that did not have a human homologue, the case of the gene name was converted to capital. For comparisons between genes using different versions of the same gene name, gene lists were updated to their latest approved symbols by comparing to the Hugo Gene Nomenclature Committee (HGNC) database as of April, 2023.

Integrating datasets
To generate the integrated endothelial map, the pancreatic endothelial population from the Descartes fetal pancreas dataset, and the adult and neonatal pancreas dataset from Tosti at al. were merged. The endothelial cell subpopulation from the pancreas datasets were individually processed using the Seurat pipeline detailed above. After clustering, contaminating clusters were identified by comparing differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between clusters. Clusters with differentially upregulated non-vascular markers such as endocrine and exocrine pancreas cell markers were considered contaminating clusters. Once contaminating cells were removed, remaining endothelial cells from the different datasets were merged into one Seurat object using the merge function. The merged object was processed using the Seurat pipeline as detailed above, except the source of the dataset was regressed out while scaling the second time. The data was integrated with Harmony (v1.0) to remove variability from the source of the dataset (Descartes database or from Tosti. et. al.) followed by the individual donor. The resulting integrated or 'harmonized' principal components were used for UMAP dimension reduction and clustering as detailed above.

Scorpius trajectory analysis
Pseudotime trajectory analysis was performed using the R package SCORPIUS. (v1.0.8). Trajectory inference was conducted on UMAP embeddings using the infer_trajectory function. For determining top genes involved in the ordering of the cells along pseudotime, top 50 markers were identified in each cluster in the integrated pancreas EC atlas through DE analysis as described

578 above. Only the log-normalized counts matrix for these genes were retained to form a truncated
579 expression matrix. SCORPIUS's gene_importances function nwas then matrix was then used to
580 determine genes, whose expression level across the pseudotime best matches the time order using
581 the gene_importances function.
582
Data visualization
UMAPs, dot plots and volcano plots were generated using SCPubr (v1.1.2)(*107*). Hierchical
clustering were generated using ggtree(*108*) (v3.4.4) except for the heatmap for pseudotime
trajectory analysis, which was generated using SCORPIUS's draw_trajectory_heatmap function.
Venn diagrams were plotted using ggvenn (0.1.9). Scatterplots were generated using ggplot2
(3.4.1). Breaks in violin plots were created using ggbreak (0.1.1)(*109*).
589
590 **Reference Mapping**
591 To map a query dataset to the reference dataset, anchors were identified using Seurat's
592 FindTransferAnchors function and then the annotations from the reference dataset was projected
593 onto the query using MapQuery
594
***In situ* immunofluorescence staining**
Tissue cross-sections were obtained from E18.5 mouse pancreatic tissue. Pregnant CD1 dams were
euthanized via CO2 asphyxiation, in accordance with IACUC procedures at UT Southwestern
Medical Center (UTSW). Embryos were dissected in ice cold -PBS, and pancreata were obtained
for fresh-frozen embedding. Pancreata were briefly dabbed on a kimwipe, and washed 1x in
Opitimal Cutting Temperature (OCT) media. Pancreata were then placed in OCT-filled embedding
and held over liquid nitrogen until frozen. Samples were then stored at -80C. Samples were
cryosectioned by UTSW's histology core. Briefly, slides were placed in 4% PFA at room
temperature for an hour, and then wash 3X in PBS for 5 minutes per wash. Slides were
permebalized with 0.3% Triton for 12 minutes, and then placed in Cas Block (ThermoFisher Cat#
008120). The following primary antibodies were used: Insulin (Cell signaling technology Cat#
4590), Glucagon (Millipore Cat# 4030-01F), VE-Cadherin (Santa Cruz Cat# sc-6458), Pecam1
(Santa Cruz Cat# c-1506), Plvap(BD Pharmingen Cat# 550563). All antibodies were used at a
1:100 dilution, and slides were incubated in primary antibody overnight at 4C. Secondary
antibodies conjugated to AlexaFlour were used for visualization.
610
611
***In situ* RNAscope™ HiPlex v2 assay**
Tissue cross-sections were obtained from E18.5 mouse pancreatic tissue. Pregnant CD1 dams were
euthanized via CO2 asphyxiation, in accordance with IACUC procedures at UT Southwestern
Medical Center (UTSW). For RNAscope™ HiPlex v2 assay (Advanced Cell Diagnostics), tissue
was processed according to manufacture's instructions. Briefly, slides were fixed in 4% PFA for an
hour. Slides were then washed 2x in PBS, and dehydrated to 100% Ethanol. Slides were
permeabilized with 12 minutes of protease III treatment. Target probes were applied at 1x
concentration, and incubated at 40 degrees for 2 hours. Amplification, fluorophore conjugation,
and cleavage was done in accordance with manufacturers protocol. After all probes were imaged,
slides were then cleaved 1 more time, washed three times in PBS for 5 minutes per wash. 150 uL
of Cas Block was placed in on each slide for 1 hour at room temp, and then primary antibodies
were added at a dilution of 1:100. Slides were then incubated in primary antibody overnight at 4°C
Secondary antibodies conjugated to AlexaFlour were used for visualization.
625
626 ***In situ* Visualization**
627 Images were taken on a nikon a1r confocal, a laser scanning system using the 40x objective
628 (resolution of 3.2 pixels/ 1 μm). For RNA scope images, tile-scan images coupled with zstacks

were taken to obtain large images of the pancreas section. Max Intensity projections were created
in ImageJ, and then images were registered using ACD Hiplex Registration software.

In situ image quantification

Images were quantified in a single-blind manner. 10 representative images were taken from the
endocrine and exocrine region (based on staining of Insulin/Glucagon) of the capillary vessels
based on size. Afterwards these images were analzyed on Fiji by a blinded researcher. RNA Probe
channels for *Pecam1* and genes of interest were thresholded using the 'MaxEntropy' option and
adjusted accordingly to remove background. Then regions of interest (ROI) was outlined manually
based on the Pecam1/Endomucin staining channel. Afterwards, the area of probe was quantified
and divided by the area of the ROIs to obtain normalized ratios of RNA probe to area of vessel.

Statistical analysis

Differential expression analysis was conducted using the Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test. Afterwards
the p-values obtained were adjusted using the the Bonferroni correction method. For quantification
of immunofluorescence staining and RNA probe binding, sample variances were tested for equality
using var.equal function in R. If variances were equal then a one-tailed two-sample t-test was
conducted, if variances were unequal then a Welch's t-test was conducted.

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1072   performed the sample collection, staining, imaging and acquisition of all *in situ* data. ST quantified
1073   all *in situ* data. SSN supervised the study. STK and SSN wrote the original manuscript. ST, SV,
1074   NA, OC were involved in reviewing and editing the manuscript.
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1078   **Data and materials availability:** Available upon request.
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1080   **Tables and Figures**
1081   **Table 1. Summary of datasets used in this study**

Dataset	Citation	Assay	Sequencing Method	Age
Descartes (Human)	Cao et al., Science, 2020(*26*)	Single Cell	Sci-RNA-seq3	Fetal
Tabula Muris (Mouse)	Tabula Muris Consortium (*25*)	Single Cell	SmartSeq2	Adult
Tosti – Adult (Human)	Tosti et al., Gastroenterology, 2021 (*31*)	Single Nuclei	10X Genomics	Adult

Tosti – Neonatal (Human)	Tosti et al., Gastroenterology, 2021 (*31*)	Single Nuclei	10X Genomics	Neonatal
Tabula Sapiens (Human)	Tabula Sapiens Consortium (*27*)	Single Cell	10X Genomics	Adult

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Table 2. Relevant gene lists

Description	Genes[+]
Pancreas-specific EC gene signature derived from the overlap of *pancreas-enriched genes from the Tabula Muris and Descartes EC atlas and #endothelial-enriched genes from four pancreas datasets (Descartes, Tabula Muris, Tosti-Adult, Tosti-Neonatal)	*COL15A1*, *PLVAP*, APLNR, GJA4 IGFBP3, *HSPG2*, *RFLNB*, BCAM, SOX4 *CD34*, MEOX1, *ROBO4*, *NKX2-3* BHLHE40, *CDC42EP1*, *AHR*, ADAM15 CD81, *EHD4*, FAM129B, *PDGFB*, EBF3, ITGA6, *PCDH17*, MCAM, VWF, *CLEC14A*, MYO1C, JUP, TNFRSF1B, NEDD9 RNASE1, ACTN4, *ITM2B*, DCHS1, *SYNPO*, TIMP3, *ENG*, EGLN2, VAT1, NEURL1B *MGAT1*, MYH9, MMP15, CAVIN3, *VAMP5* *TBC1D1*, CARD10, COL4A2, NID2 *PODXL*, AHNAK, *HLA-E*, MSN, GIT1 ARHGEF15, COL4A1, STOM, *RAMP3*, *SHE*, FKBP9, MGLL, *SPRY1*, *TNFSF10*, NFE2L1, GRN, *HEG1*, ITGA5, HDAC5, MMRN2, *EFNA1*, CASKIN2, *LPAR6* , SPNS2, *VCP*, *SNTB2*, FMNL3, *PKN1*, *RDX* , RPS6KA2, *NDST1*, *NOTCH1*, *SERINC3*, TLN1, MCF2L, *PLCB1*, PXN

1086   * Wilcoxon-rank sum test, log2FC > 0.25
1087   # Wilcoxon-rank sum test, log2FC > 0.25, Bonferroni-adjusted p-value <0.05
1088   + Genes in red also overlapped with significantly upregulated endothelial-specific,
1089   pancreas-enriched genes from the Tabula Sapiens EC atlas

Figure 1. Analysis strategy to uncover a transcriptomic profile of pancreatic endothelial cells. This schematic summarizes the analysis conducted to obtain a biologically relevant pancreas-specific EC gene signature and a human pancreatic integrated atlas. Pancreas-specific EC signature genes lie at the overlap between pancreas-enriched differentially expressed genes (DEGs) derived from EC atlases and endothelial-enriched DEGS derived from pancreas datasets. Endothelial only atlases were derived from the human fetal Descartes and the adult mouse Tabula Muris multi-organ

gene expression atlases (1) by subsetting and pooling all vascular ECs from different organs (2). After preprocessing, normalizing and clustering (3), DEGs are identified between pancreas ECs against other tissue ECs (4) for each atlas (5). Next, two pancreas only datasets from Tosti et al (6) and all pancreas cells from the multi organ atlases were subsetted (7). After individually preprocessing, normalizing and clustering these pancreas datasets, DEGs were identified between pancreas ECs and other pancreas cells (8). These DEGs were merged (9) to produce a list of endothelial-enriched DEGs derived from pancreas datasets (10). The overlap of this list and the pancreas-enriched DEGs from the EC atlases produced the pancreas-specific EC genes (11). Next, to create an integrated atlas of pancreatic ECs, all pancreatic vascular ECs were subsetted (12) from the human pancreas dataset sources (Descartes and Tosti). These ECs were individually preprocessed, normalized and clustered. After which, contaminating clusters were removed (13). The remaining ECs were then merged and renormalized (14). The normalized counts were then integrated using Harmony (15), which produced the integrated pancreatic EC atlas (16). This atlas was used for further downstream analysis including DEG analysis within pancreatic EC subclusters and pseudotime trajectory analysis (17). Finally, the pancreas-specific EC gene signature (9) and populations of interest identified from the integrated atlas using Harmony (16) were validated *in silico* using the adult human Tabula Sapiens multi-organ gene expression atlas and *in situ* using RNAScope™ on embryonic day 18.5 (E18.5) mouse pancreatic tissue (18).

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Figure 2. Determining a biologically relevant pancreas-specific endothelial cell (EC) gene
signature . A-F) shows the summary of EC atlases derived from the Tabula Muris (A-C) Descartes
(D-F). A) and D) shows the UMAP visualization of single cell sequencing data for the ECs from
all available organs. B and E) Highlight the tissue/organ ratios in the EC atlases and the colors
correspond to the labelling in the preceding UMAPs. C and F) are volcano plots demonstrating
differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in pancreas ECs against other organ/tissue ECs. Enriched
DEGs (log2FoldChange > 0.25; Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test) are shown in red and the rest of the
DEGs in blue. Further, the top 5 significant DEGs are labeled. G) shows the overlap of significant
endothelial marker DEGs (log2FoldChange > 0.25; Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test, Bonferroni-adjusted
p-value < 0.05) derived from four different pancreas single cell/nuclei gene expression datasets
(Tabula Muris, Descartes, adult and neonatal pancreas from Tosti et al.). Endothelial marker DEGs
are defined as DEGs upregulated in vascular ECs in the pancreas compared to all other pancreas
cell-types. Merging all unique DEGs from the different datasets produced the list of "endothelial-
enriched DEGs". H) shows the overlap of pancreas-enriched DEGs (log2FoldChange > 0.25;
Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test, Bonferroni-adjusted p-value < 0.05) derived from EC atlases obtained
from the human fetal Descartes and adult mouse Tabula Muris gene expression atlas, and the
previously derived merged list of endothelial-enriched DEGs. The overlap of all these sets produces
the "pancreas-specific EC gene signature".

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Figure 3. Assessment of the pancreas-enriched DEGs in the Descartes and Tabula Muris endothelial cell (EC) atlases. A) and B) demonstrate a scatterplot for all significant (log2FoldChange > 0.25; Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test, Bonferroni-adjusted p-value < 0.05) pancreas-enriched DEGs identified from the Descartes and Tabula Muris EC atlases. The y-axis is average log2FC of gene expression in the pancreas ECs vs other tissue ECs and the x-axis is percentage of ECs expressing the gene. Potential contaminating genes, are colored in red, pancreas-specific EC signature genes are in blue and the rest of the endothelial-enriched genes are in green. C) and D) demonstrates the individual average scaled log-normalized expression of the pancreas-specific EC signature genes in the Descartes and Tabula Muris EC gene expression atlas, respectively. Genes

1147 are ordered in decreasing order based on the fold-change in percentage of ECs expressing gene in
1148 the pancreas against other tissues/organs. Pancreas-specificity of this signature is demonstrated
1149 using hierarchical clustering of genes based on Euclidian distances between the average scaled
1150 expression of the DEGs across the different tissues/organs.

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Figure 4. Validating the pancreas-specific endothelial cell (EC) gene signature in a third independent endothelial atlas obtained from the Tabula Sapiens gene expression atlas. A) shows a UMAP of all organ ECs in the Tabula Sapiens atlas (left) and also highlights only the pancreas ECs within this UMAP (right). B) shows the ratios of ECs from each organ/tissue and is colored corresponding to the preceding UMAP legend. C) demonstrates the module scores derived by assessing the collective expression of the pancreas-specific endothelial cell (EC) gene signature using Seurat's AddModuleScore function in the different EC populations of the Tabula Sapiens EC atlas. Each violin is colored based on the average scaled module score for that cluster. D) demonstrates the individual log-normalized average scaled expression of the pancreas-specific EC signature genes in the Tabula Sapiens EC atlas. Hierarchical clustering based on Euclidian distances between the average scaled expression of the DEGs across the different tissues demonstrates specificity to the pancreas. E) demonstrates *in situ* images of E18.5 mouse pancreas tissue bound by RNAscope™ probes (red) for selected pancreas-specific EC genes. Endocrine and exocrine regions are identified by immunofluorescence (IF) co-staining of insulin and glucagon (pink), which stains cells of the islets; vasculature is identified by co-staining of pecam-1 and endomucin (neon); all other epithelial cells are stained by e-cadherin (yellow); and the nuclei are stained by DAPI (blue). The white dotted outline demonstrates manually outlined regions rich in pecam1-endomucin co-staining. Scale bars correspond to 5 μm.

Figure 5. Assessment of the pancreas-enriched differentially expressed genes in the Tabula Sapiens atlas. A) demonstrates the average expression of key sphingosine-1-phosphate associated molecules in the Tabula Sapiens EC atlas (top) and in the the Tabula Sapiens pancreas dataset (bottom). B) demonstrates volcano plots for the Tabula Sapiens atlas, highlighting only upregulated significant (log2FoldChange > 0.25; Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test, Bonferroni-adjusted p-value <

0.05) differentially expressed genes (DEGs) enriched in pancreas ECs against other tissue ECs. The
x-axis is average log2FC of the gene and the y-axis is –log10 of adjusted p-value. Top 5 DEGs are
highlighted. C) demonstrates overlap of all pancreas-enriched significant DEGs derived from the
Tabula Sapiens EC atlas and a list of endothelial-enriched DEGs curated for this study from four
different pancreas datasets across different age and species. D) demonstrates the overlap of all
pancreas-enriched DEGs obtained from the Tabula Sapiens EC atlas with the curated list of
endothelial-enriched DEGs. E) demonstrate a scatterplot for all significant (log2FoldChange >
0.25; Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test, Bonferroni-adjusted p-value < 0.05) pancreas-enriched DEGs
identified from the Tabula Sapiens EC atlas. The y-axis is average log2FC of gene expression in
the pancreas ECs vs other tissue ECs and the x-axis is percentage of ECs expressing the gene.

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Figure 6. Integrated map of human pancreatic endothelial cells (ECs). Three different human pancreatic EC datasets were derived from their parent data and integrated using Harmony. This includes the fetal human pancreas dataset from the Descartes gene expression atlas and the neonatal and adult pancreas dataset from Tosti et al. A) shows the resulting integrated UMAP using the harmony transformed principle component values. B) Shows the percentage distribution of different subpopulations in each dataset colored according to the labelling of the preceding UMAP. C) shows the UMAP of the integrated map split by dataset (Descartes-Fetal, Tosti-Adult, Tosti-Neonatal). D) demonstrates violin plots showing expression of markers used to annotate different clusters in the integrated atlas. F) shows the UMAP of the integrated map colored by pseudotime inferred through trajectory analysis using SCORPIUS. The trajectory is colored in blue. G) shows the heatmap demonstrating the change in average scaled expression of the top 50 unique markers determined by Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test for each subcluster across pseudotime. Genes are hierarchically clustered based on the Euclidian distance between the average scaled expression of the genes. H) Shows the expression of the top 12 genes across pseudotime ranked by importance to trajectory interference using SCORPIUS.

Figure 7. *In situ* validation of islet-specific EC capillary population. A) demonstrates the expression of 3 different DEGs that were enriched in the capillary 1 population of the integrated EC atlas. These genes include *PLVAP* (left), *SPARC* (middle) and *NKX2-3* (right). D-F)

demonstrate *in situ* validation of the 3 selected capillary 1 DEGs on E18.5 mouse pancreatic tissue cross-sections using RNAScope™ and Immunofluorescence (IF) staining. D) demonstrates representative images taken of microvessels in exocrine and endocrine regions for IF staining (green) of Plvap (left) and RNAscope™ probe staining (red) for *Sparc* (middle) and *Nkx2-3* (right) in tissue cross-sections. Pink shows IF co-stain of glucagon and insulin, which highlights the islets from the exocrine tissue for all images; green for Plvap IF and red for *Sparc* and *Nkx2-3* RNA probes. Images highlight microvessels co-stained with Pecam1 and endomucin; yellow shows E-cadherin staining. The scale bar represents 5 μm. E) shows the average percentage of probe bound within microvessels outlined by a blinded researcher based on only Pecam1/endomucin IF staining across all tissue cross-sections. F) Demonstrates quantification of fluorescence intensity in arbitrary units (AU) for Plvap and RNAscope™ area of probe binding (μm^2) for *Sparc* and *Nkx2-3* in endocrine and exocrine microvessels, where each vessel was considered 1n. One-tailed t-test statistics was used to calculate significance (* - p-value <0.05, ** - p-value <0.01, *** - p-value <0.001).