Single cell compendium of muscle microenvironment in peripheral artery disease reveals altered endothelial diversity and LYVE1+ macrophage activation

Short title: scRNAseq of human skeletal muscle in PAD

Guillermo Turiel[1], Thibaut Desgeorges[1], Evi Masschelein[1], Zheng Fan[1,2], David Lussi[1], Christophe M. Capelle[3], Giulia Bernardini[4], Raphaela Ardicoglu[1], Katharina Schönberger[1], Manuela Birrer[5], Sandro F. Fucentese[6], Jing Zhang[1], Daniela Latorre[3,7], Stephan Engelberger[5], Katrien De Bock[1]

Affiliations: (1) Laboratory of Exercise and Health, Department of Health Sciences and Technology, Swiss Federal Institute of Technology (ETH), Zurich (Schwerzenbach), Switzerland; (2) Institute of Anatomy, University of Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland; (3) Institute of Microbiology, Department of Biology, Swiss Federal Institute of Technology (ETH), Zurich, Switzerland; (4) Zentrum für Gefässchirurgie, Kantonsspital Aarau, Aarau, Switzerland; (5) Vascular Center, Department for General, Visceral and Vascular Surgery, Kantonsspital Baden, Baden, Switzerland; (6) Department of Orthopedics, University Hospital Balgrist, University of Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland. (7) Institute of Experimental Neurology, Division of Neuroscience, IRCCS Ospedale San Raffaele (OSR), Milan, Italy.

Corresponding author:

Katrien De Bock

Email: katrien-debock@ethz.ch

Laboratory of Exercise and Health

      Institute of Movement Sciences (D-HEST)

      ETH Zürich - Swiss Federal Institute of Technology

      ETH Zürich, SLA C7

      Schorenstrasse 16

      CH-8603 Schwerzenbach

      Switzerland

      Tel. +41 44 655 7389

ABSTRACT

Peripheral artery disease (PAD) results from atherosclerosis and chronic narrowing of lower limb arteries leading to decreased muscle perfusion. Current treatments are suboptimal, partly due to limited understanding of PAD muscle pathology. Here we use scRNAseq and spatial transcriptomics to analyze the composition of the muscle microenvironment in non-ischemic and PAD patients. We identified *ATF3/4*$^{+}$ endothelial cells (ECs) that exhibit altered angiogenic and immune regulatory profiles during PAD and confirmed that ATF4 signaling in ECs is required for effective ischemia recovery. Also, capillary ECs display features of endothelial-to-mesenchymal transition. Furthermore, *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII^{low} macrophages are the dominant macrophage population in human muscle, adopting a more pro-inflammatory profile during PAD. Finally, we analyzed alterations in intercellular communication within the muscle microenvironment during PAD and confirmed that EC-derived factors can influence macrophage polarization. This dataset deeply characterizes the PAD muscle microenvironment and provides a resource for exploration of targeted therapies.

Introduction

Peripheral artery disease (PAD) is caused by atherosclerosis and chronic narrowing of lower limb arteries leading to decreased muscle perfusion and oxygenation. Cardiovascular risk factors, such as hypertension, hyperlipidemia and diabetes mellitus are important driving risk factors of PAD and patients often present other cardiovascular diseases[1]. PAD patients suffer from pain and fatigue in the limb muscles due to exercise-induced ischemia which resolves after a short period of rest, a syndrome termed intermittent claudication (IC)[2,3]. If left untreated or in more severe stages, persistent lack of limb perfusion can lead to critical limb ischemia (CLI), which comprises rest pain, tissue loss and necrosis, and ulcerations, which often progresses to amputation[1]. Current guidelines for treating PAD target large atherosclerotic lesions in the feeding arteries, but long-term clinical outcomes have been suboptimal, and many patients suffer from adverse events[4].

One potential reason for this might be that there is underlying skeletal muscle and vascular pathology in PAD[3]. Indeed, microvascular dysfunction has been reported, with abnormal microvascular architecture and fibrosis and few studies recently reported partial endothelial-to-mesenchymal (EndoMT) transition in PAD patients[5,6] and capillaries of end-stage patients[6]. Also, impaired vasoreactive responses might impair oxygen and nutrient delivery into the ischemic muscle[7]. Interestingly, some[8–11] but not all[12,13] studies observed increased vascular density. While the discrepancy underlying these conflicting observations is unclear, persistent ischemia in PAD patients despite increased vascularization nonetheless suggests that an active angiogenic response does not resolve tissue ischemia.

Studies using preclinical muscle injury models showed that microvascular endothelial cells (ECs) are not only essential for inducing muscle revascularization, ECs also steer muscle regeneration by interacting with other cells in their microenvironment. ECs activate muscle stem cells[14], control vascular tone through interaction with smooth muscle cells[15] and control the entry of immune cells into the tissue, their differentiation into specialized immune effectors as well as (co-)define their functional properties[16,17]. However, our understanding on how ECs interact with other cell types and might contribute to skeletal muscle pathology in PAD, remains largely unknown.

Macrophages are key regulators of muscle regeneration[18] but also stimulate muscle angiogenesis as well as arteriogenesis in preclinical PAD models[16,19]. The genetic and functional contribution of macrophages to skeletal muscle pathology in PAD are however unclear. Higher levels of inflammatory cytokines correlated with shorter onset claudication pain[20], but assessments of macrophage numbers and properties in skeletal muscle showed conflicting results with one manuscript showing a majority of pro-inflammatory CD80^{+} macrophages[21], while others reported higher CD11b^{+}CD206^{+} regenerative macrophages[22]

49   In this study, we performed a thorough transcriptomic and functional characterization of the

50   mononuclear cell composition in skeletal muscle during PAD. We aimed to better understand the

51   contribution of the muscle microenvironment to PAD.

Results

scRNAseq reveals a high degree of cellular heterogeneity in human skeletal muscle

To investigate the cellular landscape of PAD patients, we collected *gastrocnemius* muscle samples from individuals undergoing either PAD bypass surgery (PAD) or co-morbidity matched non-ischemic individuals undergoing lower limb aneurysm surgery (non-ischemic) (see Methods, Fig. 1a, Table 1). Non-ischemic patients had a normal ankle-brachial index (ABI) and no clinical symptoms of PAD (no claudication symptoms, Fontaine classification = I) (Table 1). Pre-operative angiographic imaging revealed that only PAD patients presented severe popliteal occlusions (GLASS grade III).

Myofiber size nor diameter was affected in PAD patients (Fig. 1b-d). Also, we did not observe muscle necrosis but noticed a small non-significant increase in the percentage of regenerating fibers (Extended Data Fig. 1a) and increased $CD31^+$ capillary (Fig. 1e-f) and arteriole densities (Extended Data Fig. 1b). We next performed scRNAseq in a subset of patients (Table 1) and generated a dataset comprising 106,566 cells (2359 genes/cell). Clustering revealed 9 major cell populations (Fig. 1g) that we manually annotated based on the expression of well-known marker genes[23] (Fig. 1h, Fibro-adipogenic progenitors (FAPs), Natural killer (NK), Monocytes/Macrophages (MoMac), Smooth muscle cells (SMCs), Muscle stem cells (MuSCs)). We identified the main cell types in skeletal muscle (Fig. 1g-h) and did not detect obvious differences in cell proportions between groups (Fig. 1i and Extended Data Fig. 1c).

We additionally performed single-cell spatial transcriptomics to directly localize scRNAseq populations (Table 1). We identified muscle fibers and mononuclear cells by combining transcript detection with cell segmentation (Extended Data Fig. 1d) and annotated each cell through integration with the scRNAseq dataset (Extended Data Fig. 1e). Approximately 75% of the detected cells were fiber-derived (Extended Data Fig. 1f), reflecting the predominance of myonuclei in skeletal muscle. Despite these expected differences with the scRNAseq data, ECs, FAPs and SMCs/Pericytes still constituted most of the mononuclear fraction.

We first compared the scRNAseq patients by pseudobulk analysis, which showed different transcriptomic signatures between groups (Fig. 1j and Supplementary Data 1). Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) revealed increased TNFA and IL6 signaling, as well as inflammatory activation, unfolded protein response and metabolic pathways, while WNT signaling and bile acid metabolism were repressed (Fig. 1k). Additionally, GSEA using a geneset collection from Human Phenotype Ontology (*Abnormality of muscle physiology, HP:0011804*) revealed increased PAD-like clinical symptoms while no term was enriched in non-ischemic patients (Extended Data Fig. 1g).

84   Next, we performed a comprehensive analysis on ECs, macrophages and SMCs/Pericytes

85   because of their crucial role in angiogenesis, inflammation, and tissue repair[21]. The data including all

86   identified   cell   populations   can   be   interactively   explored   at

87   https://shiny.debocklab.hest.ethz.ch/Turiel-et-al/.

88   Human skeletal muscle contains *ATF3/4*[+] endothelial subpopulations with

89   immunoregulatory signatures

We selected ECs from the complete dataset and detected 6 different populations, which we

annotated using described marker genes[24,25] (Fig. 2a-b). Each population presented specific

signatures, demonstrating clustering robustness (Fig. 2c and Supplementary Data 1). We identified

two distinct populations of venous and capillary ECs that expressed similar markers (Fig. 2b) but

showed different transcriptomic signatures (Fig. 2a,c). Differential expression analysis between both

venous clusters detected a set of genes specifically enriched in venous 1 and capillary 1 populations

(Extended Data Fig. 2a). Over-representation analysis (ORA)[26] revealed that these genes are

associated with recruitment and functional modulation of immune cells by ECs including TNF, IL-17

and NF-kappa B pathways[17,27,28] as well as a lipid and atherosclerosis signaling (Fig. 2d). A deeper

analysis of these pathways revealed that they are involved in leukocyte recruitment and activation,

cell adhesion and cytokine signaling (Extended Data Fig. 2b-c). Recent studies[29] have identified

immunomodulatory ECs (IMECs), and the genes that define IMECs[29] were enriched in venous 1 ECs

(Extended Data Fig. 2d). We also observed higher expression in capillary 1 than in capillary 2

(Extended Data Fig. 2d, bottom panel), suggesting that both populations are ECs with

immunoregulatory features.

ORA for transcription factor (TF) motif enrichment identified c-Rel, ZNF557 and ATF4 as top

TFs regulating the genes enriched in both venous 1 and capillary 1 populations (Fig. 2e and Extended

Data Fig. 2a). We also applied SCENIC[30], which generates a *TF regulon activity score* based on the

coexpression of TFs and their target genes. SCENIC did not detect ZNF557 as an active TF, due to its

few detected target genes (intersection size in Fig. 2e), and c-Rel activity was relatively weak

(Extended Data Fig. 2e). In contrast, ATF4-dependent TFs factors showed high and specific activity in

venous 1 and capillary 1 clusters (Extended Data Fig. 2e), so we focused on *ATF3/4*. We previously

identified *Atf3/4*[+] muscle ECs in mouse that control exercise-induced angiogenesis[24]. The marker

genes defining *Atf3/4*[+] ECs were highly enriched in both venous 1 and capillary 1 human clusters

(Extended Data Fig. 2f). Conversely, the marker genes from the human populations (Extended Data

Fig. 2a) were also controlled by ATF4 in ECs (Extended Data Fig. 2g). We also used an ATF4-

dependent gene signature to perform gene set variation analysis (GSVA)[31] which calculates a score

for each cell based on the expression levels of an input gene signature. The ATF4-dependent GSVA

score was enriched in venous 1 and capillary 1 clusters (Fig. 2f) and we therefore annotated these

populations as *ATF3/4*[+] venous ECs and *ATF3/4*[+] capillary ECs. The fraction of *ATF3/4*[+] capillaries was

reduced in PAD when compared to non-ischemic samples (Fig. 2g). We also identified all EC subtypes

in the spatial dataset and found very consistent cluster proportions between both technologies

(Extended Data Fig. 2h-i).

123   We next analyzed the functional contribution of *ATF3/4*[+] ECs in PAD by using a preclinical

mouse model. We assessed muscle reperfusion following hindlimb ischemia (HLI) in wild-type (WT)

and EC-specific inducible ATF4 knockout mice (*Atf4*[ECKO]). HLI efficiently reduced blood flow in both

genotypes leading to similar levels of ischemia-induced damage 3 days after surgery (Extended Data

Fig. 3a,b), characterized by large degenerative areas with cell infiltration and regenerating fibers.

Atf4[ECKO] mice exhibited impaired blood flow recovery starting 7 days after HLI (Extended Data Fig.

3c,d), which coincided with reduced vessel diameter and density (Extended Data Fig. 3e-g) and lower

EC proliferation (Extended Data Fig. 3h). As a result, *Atf4*[ECKO] mice showed larger damaged muscles 7

and 14 days after surgery (Extended Data Fig. 3a,b), illustrating the functional importance of *ATF3/4*[+]

ECs to ischemia-induced revascularization in a preclinical model of PAD.

ECs undergo profound transcriptomic rewiring during PAD

134   Next, we assessed the transcriptional differences between conditions by calculating the

number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) that are specific for each EC population (Fig. 2h and

Supplementary Data 1). *ATF3/4*[+] venous and *ATF3/4*[+] capillary ECs showed the highest number of

DEGs between non-ischemic and PAD samples (Fig. 2i). ORA on the DEGs in *ATF3/4*[+] venous or

ATF3/4[+] capillary ECs (Extended Data Fig. 4a and Supplementary Data 1) revealed that few enriched

processes were activated in PAD (Extended Data Fig. 4b and Supplementary Data 1), while most of

them were downregulated indicating that many functions exerted by these populations are

repressed, including angiogenesis, immune regulation, leukocyte interactions as well as metabolism

(Fig. 2j and Extended Data Fig. 4c). Conversely, few gene sets related to epithelial-to-mesenchymal

transition (EMT), platelet activation, wound healing, and cellular responses to metal ions were

activated in PAD (Fig. 2j).

145   The activation of EMT in *ATF3/4*[+] capillary ECs (Fig. 2j) prompted us to EndoMT. Focusing on

capillary ECs, we noticed EndoMT features[32], including repressed fatty acid metabolism genes and

partial mesenchymal activation (Fig. 2k). Some 'canonical' EndoMT genes like *SNAI1*, *S100A4* and

SERPINE1 were not affected in PAD while several extracellular matrix (ECM) components, such as

COL1A1, *COL1A2* and *FN1* were highly upregulated (Fig. 2k). This phenotype was present in both

capillary subpopulations and they also lowered *CDH5* expression but did not completely lose it

(Extended Data Fig. 4d), suggesting partial EndoMT. We then investigated how ECs rewire their

matrisome, a set of genes that define ECM composition and function[33]. Capillary ECs in PAD only

changed 11.7% (32/274) of the core matrisome genes but showed significant activation of ECM

components such as collagens, *FN1, FBN1,* as well as alterations in components of the basement

membrane such as laminins, *HSPG2*, and *NID2* (Fig. 2l). Immunohistological analysis confirmed

increased expression of the mesenchymal marker fibronectin (FN1) by CD31^{+} ECs in PAD (Extended

Data Fig. 4e,f). Taken together, ECs in PAD undergo profound transcriptomic alterations that impair

angiogenesis and immunoregulatory functions but promote EndoMT.

Finally, we used DEGs between PAD and non-ischemic ECs to predict drugs[34] that can reverse

the PAD EC phenotype. This analysis predicted a set of compounds with this therapeutic potential

(Fig. 3a), including withaferin-a or saracatinib, drugs that target inflammation and endothelial

dysfunction[35,36]. We focused on celastrol for its ability to improve vascular remodeling and to reduce

endothelial dysfunction[37]. We treated primary isolated muscle ECs (Extended Data Fig. 4g, see

Methods) from 3 PAD patients for 24h with vehicle (DMSO) or celastrol (125 or 250 nM[38]). RNAseq

analysis showed a dose-dependent effect across patients (Fig. 3b-c and Supplementary Data 1),

including upregulated (C1 in Fig. 3c) and downregulated genes (C2 and C3). ORA (Fig. 3d) confirmed

celastrol-dependent upregulation of processes related to cellular homeostasis, detoxification and

response to metal ions (C1) while downregulating EMT, response to wounding (C2), leukocyte

migration and inflammation (C2 and C3), indicating the ability of celastrol to partially reverse the PAD

phenotype observed in the scRNAseq dataset (Fig. 2j). Celastrol also activated ATF4 or glucosamine

signatures (Fig. 3e), which improves perfusion recovery in PAD preclinical models by activating

ATF4[39]. These findings suggest the potential of our dataset for identifying compounds that could

potentially revert PAD phenotypes.

LYVE1[hi]MHCII[low] macrophages are the dominant macrophage population in PAD

In   experimental   PAD   models,   monocyte-derived   macrophages   contribute   to

vascularization[16,19,21,40–42]. However, acute mouse models do not reflect chronic scenarios, so the

contribution of macrophages to human PAD is poorly understood. We decided to further investigate

the Monocytes/Macrophages cluster (MoMac), selecting these cells from the complete dataset

where we identified and annotated 5 distinct populations[43,44] (Fig. 4a-c and Supplementary Data 1).

This dataset included classical monocytes (cMonocytes), *CD16*(*FCGR3A*)[+] monocytes, dendritic cells

(DCs) and two macrophage populations. Alternatively, we could also classify the populations as

CCR2[+]*CX3CR1*[low]*CD14*^{hi}*CD16*^{low} (cMonocytes and DCs) and *CCR2*^{-}*CX3CR1*[hi]*CD14*^{low}*CD16*^{hi} (*CD16*^{+}

Monocytes)(Extended Data Fig. 5a).

Macrophage   subpopulations   were   annotated   as   *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII^{low}*CX3CR1*^{low}   and

LYVE1^{low}MHCII^{hi}*CX3CR1*^{hi} (Extended Data Fig. 5b), matching previous characterization[45]. In mouse,

LYVE1^{hi}MHCII^{low} macrophages often have a perivascular location and a distinct ontology, phenotype

and function compared to monocyte-derived macrophages[45]. *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII^{low} macrophages in our

dataset expressed high levels of tissue-resident macrophage markers including *LYVE1*, *FOLR2*, *CD209*,

MERTK, *SELENOP*, *STAB1* and *MAF*[44,46,47] (Fig. 4b). *LYVE1*^{hi} macrophages were the largest macrophage

population, even though their percentage was lower in PAD (70±6% and 40±3%, respectively, Fig.

4d). LYVE1/CD68 co-staining confirmed the predominance of *LYVE1*^{hi} macrophages in both conditions

(Fig. 4e,f), despite a significant increase in CD68⁺ monocyte/macrophages in PAD muscle (Fig. 4g),

consistent with previous work[21]. The spatial dataset also showed *LYVE1*^{hi} macrophages as the main

MoMac population in human muscle (Supplementary Fig. 5c). Notably, the percentage of *LYVE1*⁺

macrophages over the total fraction of MoMac cells (CD68⁺) was similar in both spatial and

immunofluorescence approaches (≈80-85%, Extended Data Fig. 5c and Fig. 4f) and was not affected

in PAD in none of them. Since the scRNAseq dataset could include (due to residual blood in the

sample) circulating MoMac populations such as cMonocytes and DCs, the proportional reduction in

LYVE1⁺ macrophages was likely secondary to increased presence of those populations in PAD (Fig.

4d). Moreover, the increase of cMonocytes (Fig. 4d), but not monocyte-derived *LYVE1*^{low}MHCII^{hi}

macrophages, suggests impaired monocyte-to-macrophage differentiation in PAD, which was

confirmed using ORA (Extended Data Fig. 5d), or could be secondary to increased cMonocyte

numbers (Fig. 4d).

To evaluate whether perivascular *LYVE1*^{hi} macrophages[45] preferentially localize to specific

vessels, we calculated a proximity score using spatial transcriptomics, defined as the ratio of

observed versus expected *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII^{low} macrophages closest to a given EC subtype. A score >1

indicates that *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII^{low} macrophages are usually closer to a specific EC subtype than expected

by chance. In non-ischemic samples, we did not observe any spatial enrichment of *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII^{low}

macrophages (Fig 4h). However, in PAD, they exhibited a significant proximity score to *ATF3/4*⁺

Venous (Fig. 4h), indicating a preferential localization to these ECs.

MoMacs exert many functions depending on the biological context. Sanin et al[48] categorized

macrophage activation into four functional pathways: phagocytic, oxidative stress, inflammatory and

remodeling (regenerative). We utilized this framework to characterize the functional differences

between the MoMac populations in our dataset. *CD16*⁺ Monocytes, cMonocytes and DCs were

characterized by processes related to early stage activation (ECM/cytoskeleton regulation) and

inflammatory/oxidative paths (innate immune response and phagosome) (Fig. 4i). *LYVE1*^{low}

macrophages and DCs, showed a profile of antigen presentation, consistent with their higher MHCII

levels (Extended Data Fig. 5b) and with their previous characterization[45]. Both *LYVE1*^{hi} and *LYVE1*^{low}

macrophages were characterized by a specific phagocytic profile as they were enriched in processes

related to complement signaling, phagocytosis and regulation of leukocyte differentiation.

The differential and overlapping functions of *LYVE1*^{hi} versus *LYVE1*^{low} macrophages upon loss

of muscle homeostasis, including PAD, are poorly understood, so we explored whether they present

pro-inflammatory (M1) or anti-inflammatory, pro-regenerative (M2)[49] macrophage signatures. We

used published genesets associated with M1 or M2 macrophages[50] under *in vitro* stimulation as well

as *in vivo* states of macrophages isolated from cardiotoxin-injured muscles (Ly6C^{+} macrophages at

day 2 after injury (pro-inflammatory) and Ly6C^{-} at day 4 after injury (pro-regenerative)). *LYVE1*^{hi}

macrophages expressed lower levels of both M1/inflammatory and M2/regenerative signatures (Fig.

4j), consistent with their proposed 'homeostatic' function. Additionally, *LYVE1*^{low} macrophages

showed higher expression of both signatures, although they exhibited a more pronounced pro-

inflammatory signature (Fig. 4j). Thus, *LYVE1*^{hi} macrophages do not reflect the genetic fingerprint of

M1/inflammatory nor M2/regenerative macrophages.

232   *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII[low] macrophages get activated during PAD

To assess whether MoMac populations are altered upon PAD, we detected DEGs for every

individual population and observed alterations across all MoMac populations (Fig. 4k,l and

Supplementary Data 1). Although cMonocytes showed the highest number of DEGs, most of their

biological processes were downregulated in PAD, including terms related to leukocyte/macrophage

differentiation (Extended Data Fig. 5d). Since *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII[low] macrophages are the dominant

population, and their role in muscle is poorly understood, we focused on those. Most DEGs in

LYVE1[hi]MHCII[low] macrophages were upregulated during PAD (Extended Data Fig. 5e and

Supplementary Data 1) and associated to inflammatory and immune responses, cytokine production

and macrophage activation (Extended Data Fig. 5f-g and Supplementary Data 1). The top repressed

processes in PAD were related to heat responses and protein folding (Extended Data Fig. 5g)

including genes such as *HSPA1A* and *HSPA1B,* which have been associated with atheroprotective and

anti-inflammatory roles in macrophages[51,52]. Altogether, *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII[low] macrophages get activated

and acquire pro-inflammatory properties during PAD.

246   Disruption of cellular communication networks in the muscle microenvironment

247   during PAD

To study cell-cell communication, we applied CellChat[53] to the complete scRNAseq dataset.

During PAD, the number of interactions slightly increased (Fig. 5a), although the strength of these

interactions was generally reduced (Fig. 5b). The increased number of interactions was mainly

mediated by ECs, SMcs/Pericytes, FAPs and MuSCs (Fig. 5c). Only neutrophils showed an increase in

interaction strength with MoMac populations during PAD (Fig. 5d). FAPs were the main signal

senders in the non-ischemic muscle microenvironment whereas MoMac populations were the main

receptors (Fig. 5e). In PAD, most populations reduced their interaction strength (Fig. 5e), suggesting

disrupted communication in the PAD muscle microenvironment. Indeed, most pathways were

reduced in PAD (Fig. 5f). MHC-II signaling was one of the top reduced communications (Fig. 5f) with

MoMac and ECs as they main cell types involved (Extended Data Fig. 6a). ECs reduced VEGF signaling

in PAD (Extended Data Fig. 6b). MuSCs showed reduced NCAM, a cell adhesion molecule that marks

MuSCs, interactions with FAPs (Extended Data Fig. 6c). ECs and *LYVE1*^{+} macrophages reduced PDGF

signaling with FAPs (Extended Data Fig. 6d), a pathway involved in muscle hypertrophy and

regeneration[54]. *ATF3/4*[+] Venous showed reduced TRAIL signaling (Extended Data Fig. 6e), a key

mediator in generating stable vessels in preclinical PAD models[55]. ECs also reduced interactions of

several tight and adherens junctional genes including JAM, ESAM and CDH5 (Extended Data Fig. 6f-h).

On the other hand, pro-inflammatory IL1 and IL6 were enriched in PAD, with the latter being

specifically produced by *ATF3/4*[+] Venous ECs (Extended Data Fig. 6i,j). All detected interactions and

ligand-receptor pairs are available in Supplementary Data 1.

Altered SMC/Pericyte-Endothelium interactions suggest impaired vessel

homeostasis during PAD

SMCs/Pericytes are essential for proper vessel function and stability. We therefore

investigated how they interact with ECs during PAD. First, we annotated them based on well-known

marker genes of both populations[56] (Fig. 6a). Although they were present in similar proportions in

non-ischemic samples (Fig. 6b), SMCs comprised around 75% of mural cells in PAD. Most DEGs were

downregulated during PAD (Fig. 6c and Supplementary Data 1) but they increased pathways related

to muscle development and contractility (Fig. 6d,e) while downregulating blood vessel and

vasculature development processes.

CellChat to study capillary-pericyte and artery/venous-SMC interactions revealed that ECs

mainly increased FN1 signaling to both pericytes and SMCs populations (Fig. 6f), while capillaries and

arteries reduced PDGFB-PDGFRB and JAG2/DLL4-NOTCH3 signaling, key mediators of recruitment

and attachment to the endothelium[57,58]. Conversely, SMCs/Pericytes increased NAMPT signaling to

ECs during PAD (Fig. 6g) but reduced THBS4 (pericytes) and *PTN*, *CCL2* and *ANGPTL4* (SMCs)

communication (Fig. 6g). Together, these changes suggest a reduced capacity of SMC/Pericytes to

maintain vessel homeostasis and endothelial attachment in PAD.

Endothelial-macrophage crosstalk alters signaling networks driving inflammation

and immune modulation in *LYVE*[hi]MHCII[low] macrophages during PAD

Finally, we analyzed EC-MoMac reciprocal communication, including Neutrophils due to their

increased interaction strength with MoMacs during PAD (Fig. 5d). ECs upregulated FN1 interactions

with all MoMacs while reducing MHCII signaling (Extended Data Fig. 7a). MoMacs increased *NAMPT*,

linked to pro-inflammatory markers in CAD patients[59], and *THBS1* (cMonocyte-specific) signaling,

elevated in PAD patients and with anti-angiogenic effects in ECs[60]. Conversely, they downregulated

VEGFA and *ANXA1* signaling (important for inflammatory resolution in muscle[61]) with ECs and

Neutrophils, respectively (Extended Data Fig. 7b). Neutrophils upregulated *NAMPT* and *OSM*, a

cytokine promoting EC inflammation and neutrophil recruitment[62,63], while downregulating MHCII

genes and *ANXA1*, further suggesting impaired inflammatory resolution (Extended Data Fig. 7c).

Next, we applied NicheNet[64], which can additionally link ligand-receptor pairs to their

downstream signaling networks, to further study EC-macrophage interactions in PAD. Since *ATF3/4*[+]

ECs present an immunomodulatory profile, and *ATF3/4*[+] Venous were the closest to *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII[low]

macrophages in PAD (Fig. 4h), we focused on the communication between those populations.

NicheNet identified different ligand-receptor pairs specifically downregulated (Fig. 7a) or upregulated

(Fig. 7b) in PAD samples, indicating a profound rewiring of the communication network between

ATF3/4[+] ECs and *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII[low] macrophages. Some of the top reduced signals during PAD were

related to *GAS6* and *CSF1* signaling (Fig. 7a), while *IL6* signaling was enriched (Fig. 7b). We also used

NicheNet to detect which upregulated genes in *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII[low] macrophages during PAD could be

downstream targets of ligands produced by *ATF3/4*[+] ECs (Fig. 7c). These target genes included *CCL18*,

SGK1, *PLAUR*, *CCL3*, *LMNA*, *HBEGF*, *IGFS6*, *FTH1* and *CTSB* (Fig. 7c) and are associated with migration,

cytokine response, inflammatory response, and immune related processes (Fig. 7d).

To explore the ability of ECs to influence *in vitro* monocyte to macrophage differentiation in

PAD, we generated conditioned media (CM) from primary muscle ECs from non-ischemic (n=3) and

PAD patients (n=5) and exposed it to CD14^{+} blood cells from healthy donors (n=6). FACS analysis

showed that PAD-derived CM reduced CD206 expression (M2/regenerative) while increasing CD80

and HLA-DR (M1/inflammatory) in CD14^{+} cells (Fig. 7e), indicating that PAD EC-derived factors skew

CD14^{+} cells toward a pro-inflammatory profile. Although these experiments used blood CD14^{+} cells

rather than specific subtypes from our scRNAseq dataset, they provide supportive evidence that

altered crosstalk in muscle ECs during PAD could influence immune cell behavior.

Discussion

We generated a comprehensive scRNAseq dataset with over 100'000 cells from the muscle microenvironment of patients with PAD as well as non-ischemic co-morbidity matched controls (undergoing bypass surgery for an aneurysm). Pseudobulk analysis revealed increased TNFA and IL6 signaling, both associated with walking impairments in PAD patients[65,66]. Other upregulated processes such as inflammation, unfolded protein response and metabolism were also reported in previously bulk RNAseq studies of PAD muscle[67,68]. In contrast to our approach, those bulk studies are dominated by myonuclear transcripts, suggesting common pathway alterations across cell types. Our dataset provides a resource for cell-type-specific analysis of transcriptomics changes in PAD. While here we focused on specific cell types, other cell (sub)populations may also critically contribute to PAD progression.

Besides identifying common EC subpopulations, we also found $ATF3/4^+$ venous and capillary ECs in human skeletal muscle, confirming earlier work in mice which showed that $ATF3/4^+$ ECs are functionally required for exercise-induced angiogenesis[24]. A venous population, transcriptionally equivalent to $ATF3/4^+$ venous, is specifically enriched in human skeletal muscle, adipose tissue and lymph nodes[69]. Also, glucosamine-driven stimulation of ATF4 signalling improves perfusion recovery in preclinical models of PAD[39]. Using this preclinical model, we showed that ATF4 deletion in ECs prevents ischemia recovery, further underscoring the critical contribution of ATF4 in ECs. Our scRNAseq and spatial data revealed fewer $ATF3/4^+$ ECs in PAD, while also reducing their angiogenic and immune regulatory pathways. ECs in PAD upregulated genes related to EndoMT and cellular responses to metal ions. Elevated levels of these ions have been described in patients with PAD and atherosclerotic lesions[70–73], and have been linked to endothelial dysfunction[74,75]. These results suggest that ECs undergo maladaptive adaptations that impair their functions in PAD. Through *in-silico* drug repurposing, we identified celastrol as a promising candidate to reprogram PAD ECs toward a healthier phenotype which highlights the potential of our scRNAseq data for therapeutic discovery.

Blood vessel formation and remodeling is heavily influenced by resident and recruited cells. In experimental models of PAD, monocyte-derived macrophages play a role in vascularization[16,19,21,40–42] and muscle repair. After acute muscle ischemia or injury, macrophages adopt a pro-inflammatory/M1-like phenotype. Rapidly thereafter, M1 macrophages repolarize to anti-inflammatory (regenerative)/M2-like phenotype[76,77], which is required for optimal muscle regeneration[77–79]. M2-like macrophages also have an important pro-angiogenic role since they are a source of VEGF. Nonetheless, acute mouse models differ from chronic PAD, so the contribution of macrophages in PAD remains unclear. We measured an almost 2-fold increase in $CD68^+$ cells,

predominantly *LYVE1*^{hi} macrophages and not monocyte-derived *LYVE1*^{low} macrophages. This

observation is interesting since preclinical mouse models for muscle ischemia have unequivocally

supported the requirement of monocyte-derived macrophages for muscle regeneration[80,81]. It is

unclear whether the failed accumulation of these cells in PAD patients is a result of the chronic

nature of PAD or contributing to the impaired regenerative response.

LYVE1[hi]MHCII[low] macrophages were the dominant muscle macrophage population, even

under a setting of chronic inflammation such as PAD. These cells were previously identified as

embryonically-derived, locally self-renewing tissue resident macrophages[44,82]. They cloak

microlesions to prevent widespread neutrophil recruitment[83] or clear damage-induced apoptotic

cells[47], but their contribution to PAD muscle pathology is not known. Consistent with mouse

literature, *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII[low] macrophages in our human muscle samples expressed tissue-resident

markers including *FOLR2* and other M2/regenerative marker genes such as *CD163* and *MRC1*

(CD206). However, during PAD, *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII[low] macrophages also activated a pro-inflammatory gene

program. The co-expression of genes that are typically associated with an M1 as well as M2-like state

might explain the contrasting findings reported in literature. Recently, TIMD4 was proposed as a

marker for resident mouse muscle macrophages, but we could not detect *TIMD4* expression in

human macrophages. Also, we found that *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII[low] macrophages preferentially localize close

to *ATF3/4*[+] ECs in PAD and showed altered (more pro-inflammatory) crosstalk with ECs. Whether

these altered EC-macrophage communication drives PAD muscle pathology or reflects a failed

homeostatic response still needs further research.

Analysis of the transcriptomic changes in microvascular capillary ECs revealed partial EndoMT

in PAD. EndoMT has been observed in atherosclerotic[84] and PAD patients[5], and ischemia promotes

the activation of EndoMT in several pathological settings[85]. Also, partial EndoMT is required for

optimal angiogenesis in myocardial infarction[32]. It is possible that persistent hypoxia contributed to a

partial, and chronic EndoMT. While we did observe activation of some, but not all, markers of

EndoMT in PAD capillary ECs, ECM genes were significantly activated. Also, the endothelial marker

CDH5 was reduced, but not lost, in PAD. Interestingly, this state of partial EndoMT might be

reversible[32].

We detected strong cellular crosstalk between different cell types that was significantly

altered in PAD, with downregulated signaling networks related to muscle regeneration, angiogenesis

and vessel junctions and upregulated pro-inflammatory pathways such as *IL1B* or *IL6*. IL1B is a known

regulator of EndoMT[86], and IL1B inhibitors improved maximum and pain-free walking distance in

patients with symptomatic PAD[87], although muscle pathology was not further investigated in this

study. Analyzing SMCs/Pericytes-EC interactions revealed a reduction in *PGDFRB* and *NOTCH3*

signaling in PAD, which control mural cells recruitment and attachment to the endothelium. Also,

mural cells increased *NAMPT* signaling, which is associated with pro-inflammatory markers in CAD

patients[59]. Both SMCs and pericytes upregulated contractility genes such as *ACTA2*, *TAGLN*, *MYH11*

and *CNN1*, in line with increased contraction of vessels by pericytes under ischemia[88,89].This

phenotype might contribute to reduced perfusion in pathologies such as PAD[90]. Finally, we found

that LYVE1^{hi}MHCII^{low} macrophage activation could be EC-dependent. During PAD, ECs reduced *CSF1*

and *GAS6* signaling with LYVE1^{hi}MHCII^{low} macrophages. CSF1 is the primary growth factor responsible

for macrophage differentiation and survival[91], and endothelial CSF1 contributes to this[92]. Inhibition of

GAS6 signaling in macrophages increases their inflammatory responses[93], which would be consistent

with the activated state of *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII^{low} macrophages and their increased cytokine production

(Extended Data Fig. 5g). The EC ligands upregulated in PAD furthermore seem to control downstream

genes in *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII^{low} macrophages related to inflammation, migration and cytokine response.

We experimentally showed that secreted factors from ECs during PAD increased the expression of

M1 markers while reducing M2 markers in human CD14^{+} immune cells, further supporting a more

pro-inflammatory profile of ECs during PAD. Beyond having a perivascular localization, these data

imply that ECs might control the fate of *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII^{low} macrophages, an exciting hypothesis that

requires further investigation.

Our study has limitations. We included a non-ischemic control group with similar

demographic and clinical risk factors as PAD patients to ensure that we detect PAD-specific

differences rather than co-morbidity related effects. Patients with aneurysms have a similar clinical

background of hypertension and hyperlipidemia, and a similar treatment of statins, anti-platelet

therapy and antihypertensive drugs (Table 1). The non-ischemic patients had a normal ABI, did not

show claudication symptoms during the walking test, therefore excluding the clinical manifestation

of PAD, and did not show occluded vessels as reported by GLASS Stage. Additionally, popliteal

aneurysm patients underwent a similar surgical procedure, which allowed us to standardize sample

harvesting. We are confident that this strategy dissected differences between both groups as

evidenced by the enrichment of gene sets related to abnormal muscle physiology. This said, we

cannot exclude that vascular aneurysms affected the composition and genetic fingerprint of the non-

ischemic samples. Our patient cohort was relatively small and, therefore, may be subjected to some

inadvertent selection bias. Our study only included male participants, so potential sex-based

differences could not be assessed.

In conclusion, we used scRNAseq to characterize the composition and transcriptional changes

of the muscle microenvironment in ischemic PAD compared to non-ischemic co-morbidity matched

patients. We identified profound transcriptomic alterations in ECs promoting EC dysfunction features

(such as EndoMT) while acquiring a more pro-inflammatory phenotype. $LYVE1^{hi}MHCII^{low}$

macrophages are the main macrophage population in ischemic PAD muscle and get activated during

the disease, a phenotype that may be driven by ECs. We propose that unravelling the impaired

cellular crosstalk in PAD muscle could potentially offer novel targets for therapeutic intervention.

Methods

Patients and study design

Non-ischemic and PAD patients were recruited from the Department of Angiology, Cantonal Hospital Baden, Baden, Switzerland. The general **inclusion criteria for both non-ischemic and PAD patients** were: scheduled for surgery (bypass surgery in PAD patients or lower limb aneurysm surgery in non-ischemic samples); Age ≥45 years; ability to understand German; signed informed consent to participate in the study and received no compensation. **Inclusion criteria specific for PAD patients**: diagnosis of PAD ranging from exercised limited claudication (Fontaine classification: IIa or IIb) to CLI (Fontaine III-IV); ankle-brachial index (ABI) ≤ 0.90 at rest unless diagnosed with media sclerosis; stable medicament regimen (i.e., statin, anti-platelet, anti-hypertensive regimen). **Inclusion criteria specific for non-ischemic patients**: diagnosis lower limb aneurysm; ABI > 1 at rest. The general **exclusion criteria for both non-ischemic and PAD patients** were: severe peripheral neuropathy (Total Neuropathy Score ≥3); unstable angina or severe (>70%) three coronary vessel disease; significant liver dysfunction (Model for End-Stage Liver Disease Score) or known liver cirrhosis (Child-Turcotte-Pugh score >6 points); treated for cancer in the last 2 years; diagnosis of Parkinson's disease. **Exclusion criteria specific for PAD patients**: above/below-knee amputation. **Exclusion criteria specific for non-ischemic patients**: peripheral artery disease diagnosed as described before (inclusion criteria specific for PAD patients). GLASS Stage: preoperative angiographic imaging (iodine contrast CT angiography or digital subtraction angiography) was performed. Then, for GLASS Stage calculation, the target arterial path (TAP) was identified and the femoropopliteal (FP) GLASS grade (NA, I, II, III) and the infrapopliteal (IP) GLASS grade (NA, I, II, III) were determined. FP and IP scores were combined to determine the final GLASS Stage. The study was conducted according to the Declaration of Helsinki, the Human Research Act (HRA) and the Human Research Ordinance (HRO) and the protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Canton of Zurich (KEK number: 2020-01393). Remaining sample material is available upon formal request to the corresponding author (katrien-debock@ethz.ch).

Muscle samples from the peripheral region of the medial head of *gastrocnemius* muscle (1/3 of the distance between the tibial plateau and the malleolus medialis) were collected during lower limb aneurysm surgery (non-ischemic samples) or bypass surgery (PAD samples) and immediately transferred to an ice-cold hypothermic preservation solution (HypoThermosol® FRS Preservation Solution, H4416 Sigma-Aldrich) for optimal transport and conservation until further processing. From 4 PAD and 4 non-ischemic samples, samples were processed for scRNAseq analysis, while part of the tissue was also used for histology. A set of samples (n= 11 for PAD; n= 8 for non-ischemic) was

embedded in optimal cutting temperature medium, frozen in liquid nitrogen-cooled isopentane and
stored at -80°C for histological analysis. Transversal 10-μm cryosections of the samples were
prepared at -20°C, air dried for ~30 min and stored at -80°C until further processing. A subset of
histology samples (n = 3 for PAD; n = 3 for non-ischemic) was used for CosMx single-cell spatial
transcriptomics (see below). A set of 8 independent samples (3 non-ischemic vs 5 PAD) was used for
isolation and culture of primary muscle ECs (see below).

Isolation of cells from human skeletal muscle for single cell RNA sequencing

For isolation of cells for scRNAseq, and in less than 2 hours after collection and preservation
in ice-cold hypothermic preservation solution (HypoThermosol® FRS Preservation Solution, H4416
Sigma-Aldrich), samples were minced in a petri dish on ice using scissors and a surgical blade. Minced
samples were transferred into a digestion buffer (4 mL digestion buffer per 100 mg of muscle)
containing 2 mg/ml Dispase II (D4693 Sigma-Aldrich) and 2 mg/ml Collagenase IV (17104019 Thermo
Fisher Scientific) in HBSS buffer (14025100 Thermo Fisher Scientific) at 37°C for 25-30 minutes, with
gentle shaking every 3-5 minutes. After digestion, the reaction was stopped by adding an equal
volume of 20% heat inactivated FBS (10500064 Thermo Fisher Scientific) 1mM EDTA (E177 VWR Life
Science) in HBSS (14025100 Thermo Fisher Scientific) and the suspension was passed through a 100-
μm cell strainer (800100 Bioswisstec) and a 40-μm cell strainer (352340 Falcon). Cell suspension was
centrifuged at 500 g for 5 minutes at 4°C and the supernatant discarded. The pellet was resuspended
in 1 mL of ACK Lysing Buffer (A1049201 Thermo Fisher Scientific) for red blood cell lysis for 2 minutes
at room temperature. After incubation, the reaction was stopped with 4 mL of 10% heat inactivated
FBS (10500064 Thermo Fisher Scientific) in HBSS buffer (14025100 Thermo Fisher Scientific). Cell
suspension was centrifuged at 500 g for 5 minutes at 4°C and the pellet resuspended in 0.5% BSA
(A1391 PanReac AppliChem) in DPBS (14190250 Thermo Fisher Scientific) containing 1mM EDTA
(E177 VWR Life Science) for FACS. Calcein Violet (65-0854-39 Thermo Fisher Scientific) for
metabolically active live cells selection was added directly to the cell suspension at 1:1000 dilution 10
minutes before sorting.

Human scRNAseq analysis

Metabolically active (Calcein$^+$) human muscle mononuclear cells were FACS sorted and
loaded into the 10X Chromium Next GEM Chip G, aiming the recovery of ~10000 cells per sample.
scRNAseq libraries were generated according to 10X Chromium Next Gem Single Cell 3' Reagent Kits
v3.1 (CG000204 Rev D) and sequenced on the Illumina Novaseq 6000 system. We sequenced a total
of 13 samples from 8 different patients (Table 1). Sequencing reads were aligned to the human

genome using CellRanger v5.0.0-7.0.0 and the genome assembly GENCODE GRCh38.p13 Annotation

Release 37. Intron reads were not included during the alignment. Each individual sample was

independently processed for quality control (QC) and log-normalization using *scran* 1.24.1 and *scater*

1.24.0 packages in R (version 4.2.0). High quality cells were selected based on library size, number of

detected genes and percentage of reads mapped to mitochondrial genes, independently adjusting

the thresholds for each sample. Raw UMI counts were log-normalized based on library size factors.

Doublets were detected and removed in every individual sample using the default parameters of the

function *runDoubletFinder* from *singleCellTK* 2.6.0 package. After individual QC and log-

normalization, all samples were batch-corrected and merged using *Harmony* 0.1.1 package.

Dimensionality reduction by t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (TSNE) was performed

based on the dimensions generated by *Harmony* integration. Clustering was performed by building a

nearest neighbor graph ($k = 20$) and then applying the Louvain algorithm as implemented in *Seurat*

4.1.1 package. For individual analysis and reclustering of the EC, monocyte/macrophage and

SMC/Pericytes populations, cells were selected by tracing back the clustering of the complete dataset

in every individual sample. Raw counts from selected cells, either ECs, monocyte/macrophage and

SMC/Pericytes were log-normalized in every individual sample and batch-corrected and merged as

described above for the complete dataset. All dotplots showing gene expression were generated

using the *plotDots()* function as implemented in scater 1.24.0 package. Cell type proportions in each

condition were calculated by dividing the number of cells in each cluster by the total number of cells

in that respective condition.

Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were detected by performing a Wilcoxon Rank Sum

test as implemented in *Seurat* 4.1.1 package. DEGs were selected based on a minimum $\log_2$ fold

change of 0.25 and an adjusted p-value < 0.05. For over-representation analysis (ORA), selected DEGs

were ordered based on increasing adjusted p-value and given as an input in the web-based

implementation of g:Profiler[26], selecting the option "Ordered query" before running the analysis.

ORA results were represented as the -log10 of the p-values obtained for each process. ORA analysis

results were simplified by using *rrvgo* 1.10.0 package. Redundant terms were grouped and only the

most significant term of each group was conserved. Schematic visualization of KEGG pathways from

ORA results were generated using *pathview* 1.38.0 package.

For pseudobulk analysis, lowly expressed genes were removed if they were not detected in at

least 10 cells. Raw UMI counts were aggregated per patient (total sum of counts for every gene from

all cells in every patient). For differential expression analysis in the pseudobulk dataset, we applied

DESeq2 1.38.3 package and performed the comparison between non-ischemic and PAD patients. All

significant DEGs (adjusted p-value <0.05) were reported in a heatmap (Fig. 1j) by using the

normalized counts (by size factors) in each patient and scaled and centered based on gene
expression per patient. For Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) in the pseudobulk dataset we
applied *fgsea* 1.24.0 package. From the differential expression analysis results performed with
DESeq2 we selected the *stat* value (Wald statistic: the log2FoldChange divided by lfcSE) for each gene
and performed GSEA analysis using the default settings of *fgsea()* function from *fgsea* 1.24.0
package. Significant pathways were selected based on an adjusted p-value < 0.05. Human Hallmark
pathways from MsigDB[94] were used for this analysis.

Gene Set Variation Analysis was performed using *GSVA* 1.46.0 package. Log-normalized
counts from the corresponding scRNAseq dataset (either ECs or Monocytes/Macrophages) were
given as an input for the *gsva()* function as implemented in GSVA 1.46.0 package. The gene sets to
perform GSVA were obtained from Fan et al[24] (ATF4 dependent genes as defined by genes with logFC
< -0.1 and adjusted p-value < 0.05 after comparing mouse muscle ECs in wild-type and EC-specific
inducible ATF4 knockout mice) or Sanin et al[48] (macrophage activation processes). For GSVA of M1-
M2 signatures, we obtained the genesets from Varga et al[50], which reported a set of M1-M2 genes
derived from *in vitro* stimulation and generated genesets for pro-inflammatory (Ly6C$^+$) and pro-
regenerative (Ly6C$^-$) macrophages at different timepoints after cardiotoxin-induced muscle injury.

Bulk RNAseq data from muscle ECs in WT and EC-specific ATF4 KO mice were obtained from
Fan et al[24] and processed as described by the authors. Only WT and ATF4 KO red muscle ECs (RmECs)
were used in this study.

Transcription factor inference analysis was performed using the Python implementation of
SCENIC package (pySCENIC)[30] and following the script provided by the authors in their GitHub
repository (https://github.com/aertslab/pySCENIC). Cell communication analysis on the complete
dataset (all cell types in non-ischemic and PAD samples) was performed using *CellChat* 1.6.1
package[53] following the script provided by the authors in their GitHub repository (*Full tutorial for*
comparison analysis of multiple datasets section in https://github.com/sqjin/CellChat). Cell
communication analysis between *ATF3/4*$^+$ ECs and *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII^{low} macrophages was performed
using *nichenetr* 1.1.0 package[64] following the script provided by the authors in their GitHub
repository (*Differential NicheNet analysis between conditions of interest* section in
https://github.com/saeyslab/nichenetr).

All raw and processed (10X CellRanger output files) sequencing data are available at
GSE235143.

Isolation and culture of endothelial cells from human skeletal muscle

We isolated muscle ECs from 8 independent samples (3 non-ischemic vs 5 PAD) using an

established protocol[95], yielding high-purity (>95%) EC cultures (Extended Data Fig. 4g). As

recommended in the original publication[95], we performed several rounds of CD31$^+$ magnetic beads

sorting until we achieved the desired purity. Cells were cultured in EGM^{TM}-2 MV Microvascular

Endothelial Cell Growth Medium-2 BulletKit^{TM} (CC-3202, Lonza). Subsequently, confluent EC cultures

from 3 PAD patients were treated for 24h with vehicle (DMSO, A994.1, Carl Roth) or celastrol (C0869,

Sigma-Aldrich) (125 or 250 nM), doses that are consistent with literature and do not affect cell

viability of HUVECs[38]. Celastrol powder was dissolved in DMSO at 2 mg/mL (stock concentration) and

later diluted to experimental doses (125 or 250 nM) directly into EGM-2 media right before use.

Control samples (Vehicle) were given the same volume of DMSO as used to dilute celastrol in the 250

nM condition. After 24h incubation, RNA was extracted for bulk RNA sequencing using RNeasy Plus

Micro Kit (74034, Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's protocol. RNA integrity was assessed by

using Agilent High Sensitivity RNA ScreenTape System. Only samples with RNA Integrity Number (RIN)

≥ 8.0 were further processed.

For conditioned media experiments, confluent ECs were cultured for 48h with fresh EGM^{TM}-2

Medium. Then, media was collected, filtered through a 0.2 μm filter (83.1826.001, Sarstedt) and

cryopreserved at -80°C until further use. Cells were routinely cultured at 37°C in 21% O_2 and 5% CO_2.

Macrophage polarization *in vitro* using conditioned media

In vitro macrophage polarization using conditioned media was performed with an adapted

protocol from George et al[96]. PBMCs were obtained from buffy coats (Swiss Blood Donation Center of

Lugano) by density gradient centrifugation using Ficoll® Paque Plus (17-1440-02, Cytiva). CD14$^+$ cells

were isolated using human CD14 MicroBeads (130-050-201, Miltenyi Biotec) following the

manufacturer's recommendations. The purity of CD14$^+$ cells was assessed by flow cytometry (>98%,

except from 1 donor, >90%) (see antibodies below). 5x10^5 CD14$^+$ cells per well were seeded in a 48-

well plate (TPP92148, TPP) in 250 μl of varying concentrations (0%, 6.25%, 12.5%, 25%, 50%) of

conditioned media (3 non-ischemic, 5 PAD). On day 3, the cells were harvested, stained for flow

cytometry and acquired on a BD Fortessa. The following antibodies were used: Human TruStain FcX

(used for Fc blocking; 422302, BioLegend), Zombie NIR™ Fixable Viability Kit (dilution 1:500, used for

Live/Dead staining; 423106, BioLegend), CD14 (APC-Cy7, dilution 1:200, used for purity assessment;

325620, BioLegend), CD19 (FITC, dilution 1:20, used for purity assessment; 555412, BD Biosciences),

CD3 (BV650, dilution 1:200, used for purity assessment; 300468, BioLegend), CD56 (PC5, dilution

1:50, used for purity assessment; A07789, Beckman Coulter), HLA-DR (BV605, dilution 1:100, used for

polarization assessment; 562845, BD Biosciences), CD80 (FITC, dilution 1:50, used for polarization

assessment; 557226, BD Biosciences), and CD206 (PE, dilution 1:50, used for polarization assessment;

321106, BioLegend).The data was analyzed using FlowJo v10. The experiment was performed twice

with CD14^{+} cells from 3 buffy coats, respectively (total of 6 different donors).

Bulk RNA sequencing of celastrol-treated ECs

Libraries were generated using TruSeq Stranded mRNA Library Kit (Illumina) and sequenced

on the Illumina NovaSeq X plus. Sequencing reads were processed using Kallisto and the human

genome assembly GENCODE GRCh38.p13 Annotation release 42 to generate a count file matrix for

each individual sample. Samples were pooled together into a single matrix and analyzed following

DESeq2 pipeline. Differential expression analysis was performed after correcting for patient and

sequencing plate effect. Gene signatures for GSEA were obtained from Fan et al[24] (ATF4, see "Human

scRNAseq analysis" section) and Alhusban et al[39] (Glucosamine, after analyzing bulk RNAseq data

from original publication, HUVECs treated with glucosamine (5 mM) vs L-glucose (5 mM) for 6 hours

under hypoxia and serum starvation (HSS) conditions).

Raw and processed (Kallisto aligned) sequencing files are available at GSE287300.

CosMx single-cell spatial transcriptomics of muscle tissue

Transversal 10-μm cryosections of the samples were prepared at -20°C, air dried for ~30 min

and shipped to Nanostring (Seattle, WA, USA) under optimal storage conditions using dry ice to

ensure sample integrity. Samples were processed by Nanostring for CosMx SMI through the

Technology Access Program (TAP, project ID: SMI0364). For transcript detection, CosMx Human

Universal Cell Characterization Panel (RNA, 1000 Plex; CMX-H-USCP-1KP-R) was used. Cell detection

(cell segmentation) was performed using a combination of DAPI (nuclei) staining and laminin

staining, which marks the basal lamina surrounding individual muscle fibers to provide additional

structural context and facilitate accurate segmentation of mononuclear cells located between fibers.

Data processing was performed using Giotto package. Each sample was individually processed for

quality control and log-normalization and then integrated together using Harmony, following the

instructions from Giotto developers (https://github.com/drieslab/Giotto). To integrate spatial

samples with scRNAseq data and transfer cluster labels, spatial samples were treated as scRNAseq-

like datasets (cell-by-gene expression matrices). These were integrated with scRNAseq samples using

the same Harmony pipeline described in the "Human scRNAseq analysis" section. After integration,

all cells were projected into a shared dimensionality reduction space. We then used TSNE

coordinates to identify the 10 closest scRNAseq cells for each spatial cell, using Euclidean distance:

616   $\sqrt{((x_2-x_1)^2 + (y_2-y_1)^2)}$. The most frequent cluster label among the 10 nearest scRNAseq cells was

617   assigned to the corresponding spatial cell. For proximity analysis between LYVE1^{hi}MHCII^{low}

618   macrophages and EC subtypes a similar approach was followed. Briefly, after transferring cluster

619   labels to the spatial dataset, we identified the nearest EC for each LYVE^{hi}MHCII^{low} macrophage based

620   on the shortest Euclidean distance in the spatial coordinates.

Mice

622   Inducible EC-specific Atf4 knockout (*Pdgfb*-Cre^{ERT2} x *Atf4*$^{\Delta EC/\Delta EC}$) mice were generated as

623   described before[24]. Recombination was induced in 8-10 weeks old mice by daily intraperitoneal (IP)

624   administration of 1 mg tamoxifen (T5648, Sigma-Aldrich) dissolved in 1:10 ethanol:corn oil solution

625   for 5 consecutive days. A wash out period of at least 7 days was allowed before starting the

626   experiments. Tamoxifen-treated Cre-negative littermates were used as control for all experiments.

627   All mice were maintained on a C57BL/6N background. To label proliferating cells, an IP injection of 5-

628   ethynyl-2'-deoxyuridine (EdU) (E10187, Thermo Fischer Scientific) solution (5 mg/ml in saline) was

629   performed 7 hours before sacrificing the mice.

630   Mice were randomly allocated to different treatment groups, and the investigator was

631   blinded to the group allocation during the experiment as well as during the analysis. Mice were

632   housed at standard housing conditions (22℃, 12 h light/dark cycle), with ad libitum access to chow

633   diet (18% proteins, 4.5% fibers, 4.5% fat, 6.3% ashes, Provimi Kliba SA) and water. Health status of all

634   mice was regularly monitored according to FELASA guidelines. All animal experiments were approved

635   by the local animal ethics committee (Kantonales Veterinärsamt Zürich, license ZH050/2021), and

636   performed according to local guidelines (TschV, Zurich) and the Swiss animal protection law (TschG).

637   All mice in this study were male.

Hindlimb ischemia model

639   Hindlimb ischemia experiments were performed as described before[42]. Mice were

640   anesthetized with isofluorane, the hindlimbs were shaved, and, following a small incision in the skin,

641   both the proximal end of the femoral artery and the distal portion of the saphenous artery were

642   ligated. The artery and all side-branches were dissected free; after this, the femoral artery and

643   attached side-branches were excised. Immediately after surgery, perfusion was measured by Laser

644   Doppler Imaging of plantar regions of interest (Moor Instruments Ltd, Axminster, Devon, England)

645   and calculated as ratio of left (ligated) versus right (unligated) values. Perfusion was measured again

646   at different timepoints following the same procedure.

Tissue Immunofluorescence and Histology

Human muscles were harvested and embedded in OCT embedding matrix (6478.1, Carl Roth)
and frozen in liquid N_2-cooled isopentane. Frozen sections (10 µm) were made using a cryostat (Leica
CM 1950). The following antibodies were used: anti-LYVE1 (1:200 dilution, ab33682, Abcam), anti-
CD68 (1:100 dilution, ab955, Abcam), anti-CD31 (1:200 dilution, M082329-2, Dako), anti-Fibronectin
(1:1000 dilution, ab23750, Abcam), Goat anti-Rabbit IgG Cross-Adsorbed Secondary Antibody, Alexa
Fluor 568 (1:200 dilution, A-11001, Thermofisher), Goat anti-Mouse IgG Cross-Adsorbed Secondary
Antibody, Alexa Fluor 488 (1:200 dilution, A-1101, Thermofisher), Alexa Fluor 647 conjugated wheat
germ agglutinin (WGA, 1:50 dilution, W32466, ThermoFisher). Muscle sections were fixed in 4%
paraformaldehyde (PFA) followed by epitope retrieval using sodium citrate (10 mM, pH 6.5) at 92 °C
for 20 min. Endogenous peroxidase activity was blocked with 3% hydrogen peroxide in phosphate-
buffered saline followed by 10 min of permeabilization (PBS + 0.5% Triton X-100) and 60 min of
blocking at room temperature in blocking buffer (PBS + 1% BSA). After blocking, sections were
stained overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies, followed by 1 hour incubation of secondary
antibodies at room temperature. Extracellular matrix was stained using wheat germ agglutinin
(WGA). Nuclei were detected using Hoechst diluted 1:5000 in PBS and for 5 minutes at room
temperature. Slides were then washed with PBS and mounted using Immu-Mount (9990412,
Thermofisher). Slides were imaged on an AxioObserver.Z1 fluorescence microscope using a 20x and
40x objective (Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany). For the LYVE1 and CD68 staining, 315 ± 106 (mean
± standard deviation [SD]) fibers were counted per patients, and for the CD31 staining, 409 ± 80
(mean ± SD) fibers were counted. Different regions over the whole tilescan muscle section were
analyzed with the Zen software (ZEN 2011 imaging software, Zeiss) and Fiji. General tissue
morphology was evaluated using haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining. H&E images were acquired
with an Eclipse Ti2 inverted microscope (Nikon) using a 20x objective.

Mouse muscles were harvested and embedded in OCT embedding matrix (6478.1, Carl Roth)
and frozen in liquid N_2-cooled isopentane. Frozen sections (10 µm) were made using a cryostat (Leica
CM 1950). For EdU detection combined with CD31, EdU was first visualized using the EdU Click-iT Cell
Reaction Buffer Kit (C10269, ThermoFisher) according to manufacturer's instructions, and
subsequently incubated for 1h in blocking buffer (PBS with 1% BSA) at room temperature.
Thereafter, sections were incubated overnight at 4°C with goat anti-Mouse/Rat CD31/PECAM-1
antibody (1:250, 3628, R&D Systems) diluted in blocking buffer with 0.1% Triton X-100.

Statistics

The histology images presented in the manuscript are representative of the data
(quantification of images is approximately the group average) and the staining quality. All human
imaging data are represented as violin plots, where the three horizontal lines represents the median
and quartiles, and the width of the plot indicates the distribution of the data. GraphPad Prism
software (version 9.2.0) was used for statistical analyses. Shapiro-Wilk test was performed to analyze
data distribution. Non-normally distributed data were analyzed by non-parametric Mann-Whitney U
test to compare two groups. Normally distributed data were analyzed using Student's t-test in an
unpaired two-tailed fashion to compare two groups. For experiments evaluating more than one
variable, a two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison was used. For experiments evaluating
more than one variable with a repeated measures design, a two-way ANOVA with Šidák's multiple
comparison test was used. Each figure legend indicates the statistical approach for each experiment
displayed in the figure. $p > 0.05$ is considered non-significant (ns). Asterisks in figures denote
statistical significance. R and related packages were used for RNA-seq statistical analysis. Unless
otherwise indicated, the default statistical test (e.g., Wilcoxon Rank Sum test for differential
expression) from each package function was used. No animals or data points were excluded from the
analysis.

Data availability

The RNA sequencing data underlying this article can be fully explored at
https://shiny.debocklab.hest.ethz.ch/Turiel-et-al/. Additionally, raw data are available in Gene
Expression Omnibus (GEO) at https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/ and can be accessed with
accession number GSE235143 (scRNAseq) and GSE287300 (celastrol bulk RNAseq). Processed data
(scRNAseq datasets after QC, normalization, integration and clustering) can be accessed at Figshare[97]
(https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.29493215).

Code availability

703   The following codes were used: SCENIC (https://github.com/aertslab/pySCENIC), CellChat
704   (https://github.com/sqjin/CellChat), NicheNet (https://github.com/saeyslab/nichenetr) and Giotto
705   (https://github.com/drieslab/Giotto). Any additional code required to reproduce the results from this
706   manuscript is available from the corresponding author upon request (katrien-debock@ethz.ch).

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Contributions

G.T. conceptualized the study, designed and performed the experiments and bioinformatic
analyses, and wrote the paper. T.D. performed human sample processing and FACS sorting for
scRNAseq. E.M. and D.Lussi performed and analyzed the histological experiments. Z.F. performed
and analyzed the mouse experiments. C.M.C and D.Latorre performed and supervised the
conditioned media experiments. G.B. performed the GLASS scoring. R.A., K.S., M.B. and J.Z.
contributed to data analysis, interpretation, and the performance of experiments. S.F.F provided
human muscle samples. S.E. conceptualized the study, recruited the patients, and performed the
surgeries for human sample collection. K.D.B. conceptualized the study, supervised the experiments,
acquired funding, and wrote the paper. All authors approved the final version of the paper.

Competing interests

727   The authors declare no competing interests.

Tables

	non-ischemic	PAD
Number of subjects	11	16
Average age (years)	73.36±2.16	73.88±2.12
Average height (cm)	175±2.04	174.69±1.78
Average weight (kg)	78.96±5.52	79.75±3.27
Average BMI	25.65±1.55	26.06±0.85
Ankle Brachial Index	1.12±0.06	0.75±0.08**
Fontaine classification I/IIa/IIb/III/IV	11/0/0/0/0	0/0/9/3/4
GLASS Stage NA/I/II/III	10/1/0/0	0/0/0/16
scRNAseq/Histology/Spatial/In vitro	4/8/3/3[†]	4/11/3/5[†]
Gender (male/female)	11/0	16/0
Smoking (never/current/former)	3/4/4	5/8/3
Obesity (BMI > 30 kg/m^2)	1 (9.1%)	2 (12.5%)
Diabetes Mellitus	3 (27.3%)	7 (43.8%)
Hypertension	9 (81.8%)	13 (81.3%)

Hyperlipidemia	8 (72.7%)	14 (87.5%)
Statins	7 (63.6%)	13 (81.3%)
Anti-platelet agents	10 (90.9%)	11 (68.8%)
Antihypertensive drugs	10 (90.9%)	12 (75.0%)
Antidiabetic agents	3 (27.3%)	7 (43.8%)
Involved side (left/right)	5/6	8/8

729   *Table 1.Patient demographics. Continuous values are presented as mean ± standard error of the mean. BMI indicates Body*
730   *Mass Index.* **$p < 0.01$, Student's t test (unpaired, two-tailed).* †*A subset of histology samples was used for scRNAseq and/or*
731   *spatial experiments; In vitro experiments were performed with 3 PAD samples for bulk RNAseq and 3 vs 5 for conditioned*
732   *media experiments.*

Figure Legends

Fig. 1: scRNAseq reveals cell heterogeneity in PAD. a, Graphical abstract of the experimental
approach used in this study. **b**, Representative images of haematoxylin and eosin (H&E)-stained
sections of gastrocnemius muscle from non-ischemic (n=8) and PAD (n=11) patients (Scale bar: 50
μm). **c,d**, Quantification of fiber size in $μm^2$ (**c**) and minimum feret diameter in μm (**d**) from panel b.
e, Representative images of gastrocnemius muscle from non-ischemic (n=8) and PAD (n=11) stained
for the EC marker (CD31, green) and WGA (white) (Scale bar: 50 μm). **f**, Quantification of capillary
density from panel e measured as the number of CD31$^+$ cells per mm^2. **g**, TSNE plot of cell
populations identified from human gastrocnemius muscle, color-coded by the identified populations.
h, Dot plot of centered logcounts values from cell type-specific marker genes. Color and size of the
dots indicate the centered logcount value and the proportion of cells that express the gene,
respectively. **i**, Stacked bar plots showing cluster percentage from non-ischemic (n=4) and PAD (n=4)
patients, color-coded by cluster. Each stack represents mean - SEM. **j**, Heatmap of centered
normalized values from top high variable genes (adjusted p-value < 0.05) in each patient based on
pseudobulk analysis between non-ischemic and PAD conditions, color indicates the centered
normalized values. **k**, Bar plots showing Normalized Enrichment Score of significant (adjusted p-value
< 0.05) Hallmark pathways (MsigDB) from GSEA analysis on the pseudobulk dataset, color indicates
the condition. Each dot represents a single patient in panels c,d and f. Student's t test (two-tailed,
unpaired, parametric, ns > 0.05, **$p < 0.01$) was used in c,d and f. Wald test (as implemented in
DESeq2 package) was used in j. Adaptive multi-level Monte-Carlo scheme (as implemented in fgsea
package) was used in k. P = 0.4535 (**c**), P = 0.4585 (**d**), P = 0.0012 (**f**). Panel **a** created with
BioRender.com.

Fig. 2: Human skeletal muscle contains several EC subtypes with different functional properties. a,
TSNE plot of EC subtypes identified from human gastrocnemius muscle, color-coded by the identified
subtypes. **b**, Dot plot of centered logcounts values from EC subtype-specific marker genes. Color and
size of the dots indicate the centered logcount value and the proportion of cells that express the
gene, respectively. **c**, Heatmap of centered logcounts of DEGs (adjusted p-value <0.05) between EC
subtypes, color indicates the centered logcount value. **d,e**, ORA analysis from genes upregulated in

Venous 1 compared to Venous 2 (see Extended Data Fig. 2a) using KEGG pathways (**d**) or TF motif

enrichment (**e**), color and size of the dots indicates the -log10 adjusted p-value and the number of

genes in each category (intersection size), respectively. **f**, TSNE plot of GSVA scores using the ATF4

dependent geneset from Fan et al (see Methods), color-coded by the GSVA score. **g**, Stacked bar

plots showing cluster percentage from non-ischemic (n=4) and PAD (n=4) patients, color-coded by

cluster. Each stack represents mean - SEM. **h**, Heatmap of centered logcounts of DEGs (adjusted p-

value < 0.05) specific for each EC subtype in each condition, color indicates the centered logcount

value. **i**, Bar plots showing the number of DEGs for each EC subtype in each condition, color indicates

the condition. **j**, Heatmap of centered values from ORA analysis over the DEGs in *ATF3/4*[+] venous and

capillary ECs between conditions, color indicates the centered values. **k,l**, Heatmap of centered

logcounts values of fatty acid metabolism and mesenchymal markers as defined in Tombor et al (**k**)

and core matrisome genes as defined in Hynes et al. (**l**), color indicates the centered values. Wilcoxon

Rank Sum test (as implemented in Seurat package) was used in c and h. Fisher's one-tailed test (as

implemented in g:Profiler) was used in d and e.

Fig. 3: Celastrol partially reverses the EC PAD signature. a, Dot plot of prediction scores (derived

from L1000CDS[2] search engine) from different compounds with the potential to reverse EC PAD

signature. Color and size of the dots indicate the rank and the prediction score, respectively. **b,**

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) showing sample distances between different ECs (isolated from

PAD patients) treated with Vehicle (DMSO) or celastrol (125 or 250 nM). Color and shape indicate

treatment and patient of origin, respectively. **c,** Heatmap showing centered normalized values of

DEGs (adjusted p-value < 0.05) between Vehicle and celastrol 250 nM, color indicates the centered

normalized value. Genes (rows) are organized and color-coded based on clustering of gene

expression profiles. **d,** ORA analysis of the gene clusters from panel c, color and size indicates

adjusted p-values. **e,** Bar plot (top panel) showing Normalized Enrichment Score (adjusted p-value <

0.05) from GSEA using ATF4 (Fan et al) and glucosamine signatures (Alhusban et al). Heatmap

(bottom panel) showing centered normalized values of top enriched genes from each signature, color

indicates the centered normalized value. Wald test (as implemented in DESeq2 package) was used in

c. Fisher's one-tailed test (as implemented in g:Profiler) was used in d. Adaptive multi-level Monte-

Carlo scheme (as implemented in fgsea package) was used in e.

Fig. 4: *LYVE1*^{hi}**MHCII**[low] **macrophages are the dominant macrophage population in PAD. a,** TSNE plot

of Monocytes/Macrophages subtypes identified from human gastrocnemius muscle, color-coded by

the identified subtypes. **b,** Dot plot of centered logcounts values from MoMac subtype-specific

marker genes. Dot color indicates centered logcounts, and size reflects the proportion of cells

expressing the gene. **c,** Heatmap of centered logcounts of DEGs (adjusted p-value <0.05) between

MoMac subtypes, color indicates the centered logcount value. **d**, Stacked bar plots showing cluster

percentage from non-ischemic (n=4) and PAD (n=4) patients, color-coded by cluster. Each stack

shows mean - SEM. **e**, Representative images of gastrocnemius muscle from non-ischemic (n=8) and

PAD (n=11) stained for a pan-macrophage marker (CD68, green), LYVE1 (magenta), cell nuclei

(Hoechst, blue) and WGA (white). Top left panel has a lower magnification compared to the other 3

pictures. White rectangle indicates the zoomed area displayed in the remaining panels (Scale bar: 50

μm). **f-g**, Quantification of the percentage of LYVE1$^+$CD68$^+$ cells from the total of CD68$^+$ cells (**f**) and

the total number of macrophages measured as the number of CD68$^+$ cells/mm^2 (**g**). **h**, Bar plot

showing proximity scores (see Methods) of *LYVE1*^{hi}MHCII^{low} macrophages to each EC subtype in the

spatial dataset from non-ischemic (n=3) and PAD (n=3) patients. Color coded by condition. Each bar

represents mean ± SEM. **i,** TSNE plots showing GSVA scores for different macrophage activation

processes as defined by Sanin et al, color-coded by GSVA score. **j**, GSVA scores from different pro-

inflammatory and pro-regenerative signatures as defined by Varga et al between *LYVE1*^{hi} and *LYVE*^{low}

macrophages, color-coded by cluster. **k**, Heatmap of centered logcounts of DEGs (adjusted p-value <

0.05) specific for each MoMac subtype in each condition, color indicates the centered logcount

value. **l**, Bar plot showing the number of DEGs for each MoMac subtype in each condition, color

indicates the condition. Each dot represents a single patient in panels f, g and h. Wilcoxon Rank Sum

test (as implemented in Seurat package) was used in c and k. Student's t test (two-tailed, unpaired,

parametric, ns > 0.05) was used in f and Mann-Whitney U test (two-tailed, unpaired, non-parametric,

$^*p$ < 0.05). was used in g. Binomial test (one-tailed, observed vs expected, $^*p$ < 0.05) was used in h. P

= 0.3511 (**f**), P = 0.0473 (**g**), P = 0.0066 (**h**, PAD Capillary), P = 0.0007 (**h**, PAD *ATF3/4*$^+$ Venous).

Fig. 5: Cellular communication in human skeletal muscle is disrupted in PAD. a-b, Circle plots

showing the number (**a**) and weight (**b**) of inferred interactions between cell types in non-ischemic

and PAD (left and middle plots) and bar plots quantifying these parameters (right plots). Color and

width of the edges indicates the sender and number or weight of interactions, respectively. **c-d**,

Heatmaps showing increased (red) or decreased (blue) number (**c**) and weight (**d**) of inferred

interactions in PAD. Labels on the left side indicate the cell type expressing the ligands and bottom

labels the cell types receiving them. **e**, Scatter plots showing the strength of the outgoing (x-axis) and

incoming (y-axis) interactions for each cell type in non-ischemic (left) and PAD (right). Color and size

of the dots indicate the cell type and the number of inferred interactions, respectively. **f**, Bar plots

showing the relative information flow for significant communication pathways between non-

ischemic and PAD

Fig. 6: Cellular communication between mural cells and ECs indicates reduced vessel homeostasis.

a, Dot plot of centered logcounts values from SMCs and Pericytes marker genes. Color and size of the

dots indicate the centered logcounts values and the proportion of cells that express the gene,

respectively. **b,** Stacked bar plots showing cluster percentage in each condition, color-coded by

cluster. Each stack represents mean – SEM. **c,** Heatmap of centered logcounts of DEGs (adjusted p-

value <0.05) from SMCs (top) and Pericytes (bottom) between conditions, color indicates the

centered logcount value. **d-e,** ORA analysis of top biological processes of DEGs from panel c in SMCs

(**d**) and Pericytes (**e**), color indicates in which condition the process is significant (adjusted p-value <

0.05). **f-g,** Circle plots of ligand and receptors up/downregulated in PAD from ECs to mural cells (**f**)

and from mural cells to ECs (**g**). Color and width of the edges indicates the sender and weight of

interactions, respectively. Wilcoxon Rank Sum test (as implemented in Seurat package) was used in c.

Fisher's one-tailed test (as implemented in g:Profiler) was used in d and e.

Fig. 7: Cellular communication between $ATF3/4^+$ ECs and $LYVE1^{hi}MHCII^{low}$ macrophages is altered

during PAD. a-b, Heatmaps showing downregulated (**a**) and upregulated (**b**) ligand-receptor (LR)

pairs in PAD. In each panel, left part indicates the ligand log fold change (LFC) in $ATF3/4^+$ ECs and

right part the receptor LFC in $LYVE1^{hi}MHCII^{low}$ macrophages from each LR pair. Color indicates the

LFC. **c,** Heatmap showing the regulatory potential of $ATF3/4^+$ ECs ligands upregulated in PAD (left

labels) over the downstream target genes upregulated in $LYVE1^{hi}MHCII^{low}$ macrophages (top labels).

Color indicates the regulatory potential. **d,** Dot plot showing ORA results from the predicted targets

in panel c. Color and size of the dots indicate -log10 adjusted p-value and number of genes in each

category (intersection size), respectively. **e,** Graphs showing the geomean expression ± SEM of the

markers CD206, CD80 and HLA-DR on human $CD14^+$ cells cultured *in vitro* with increasing

concentrations of ECs-derived conditioned media (CM). Non-ischemic CM (grey, n=3) and PAD CM

(blue, n=5). Fisher's one-tailed test (as implemented in g:Profiler) was used in d. Two-way ANOVA (*

p-value < 0.05, *** p-value < 0.001) was used in e. P = 0.0002 (**e**, CD206), P = 0.0001 (**e**, CD80), P =

0.0414 (**e**, HLA-DR).

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1079

1080

a

% Expressed: 0 25 50 75 100

Average: 1, 0.5, 0, -0.5, -1

SMCs / Pericytes

ACTA2, *TAGLN*, *MYH11*, *MYL9*, *MCAM*, *CNN1*, *DES*, *NDUFA4L2*, *NOTCH3*, *KCNJ8*, *HIGD1B*, *PDGFRB*, *ABCC9*, *RGS5*

b

non-ischemic / PAD

% of cells: 0 25 50 75 100

SMCs, Pericytes

c

SMCs — non-ischemic, PAD

Pericytes — non-ischemic, PAD

0.6, 0.3, -0.3, -0.6

d

SMCs

- muscle structure development
- muscle system process
- muscle contraction
- myofibril assembly
- actin filament−based process
- positive regulation of intracellular signal transduction
- response to unfolded protein
- vasculature development
- muscle contraction
- blood vessel development

−log10(adjusted p−value): 10, 0, 10

e

Pericytes

- muscle system process
- muscle contraction
- muscle tissue development
- muscle structure development
- myofibril assembly
- tube morphogenesis
- blood vessel morphogenesis
- regulation of cell migration
- vasculature development
- blood vessel development

−log10(adjusted p−value): 10, 0, 10, 20, 30

non-ischemic, PAD

f

Capillaries → Pericytes

Upregulated in PAD: CD44, COL1A2, COL6A1, COL6A3, FN1, EDN1, FN1, EDNRB, EDNRA, ITGA1_ITGB1

Downregulated in PAD: PDGFRB, NOTCH3, PDGFB, DLL4, DLL4, PDGFB, ESAM

Artery/Venous → SMCs

Upregulated in PAD: ITGA8_ITGB1, ITGA3_ITGB1, ITGAV_ITGB1, EDNRA, ITGAV_ITGB5, INSR, FN1, EDN1, NAMPT, EDN1, EDN1, NAMPT, POSTN, FN1

Downregulated in PAD: NOTCH3, ITGA3_ITGB1, ITGAV_ITGB1, PDGFRB, JAM3, DAG1, NOTCH2, IGE2R, IGF1R, JAG2, ESAM, PDGFB, DLL4, HSPG2, IGF2, JAM2

g

Pericytes → Capillaries

Upregulated in PAD: ITGA5_ITGB1, NAMPT

Downregulated in PAD: CD36, CD36, THBS4

SMCs → Artery/Venous

Upregulated in PAD: ITGA5_ITGB1, ITGAV_ITGB3, ITGA5_ITGB1, ITGA5_ITGB1, ITGA5_ITGB1, FN1, NAMPT

Downregulated in PAD: ACKR1, NCL, CDH5, ITGA5_ITGB1, ACKR1, CDH5, NCL, NCL, CDH5, ITGA5_ITGB1, ANGPTL4, PTN, CCL2

Artery, ATF3/4+ Capillary, Capillary, ATF3/4+ Venous, Venous, SMCs, Pericytes