A cell and transcriptome atlas of the human arterial vasculature reveals roles of developmental master regulators in health and disease

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Summary:

Contiguous arterial segments show different propensities for different vascular pathologies, yet mechanisms explaining these fundamental differences remain unknown. We sought to build a transcriptomic, cellular, and spatial atlas of human arterial cells across multiple different arterial segments to understand these phenomena.

Analysis of multiple isogenic arterial segments from healthy donors revealed a significant stereotyped pattern of cell type-specific segmental heterogeneity in healthy arteries. Combining single cell with spatial transcriptomic revealed cellular heterogeneity not captured by commonly used cell-type marker genes. Determinants of arterial transcriptomic identity are predominantly encoded in fibroblasts and smooth muscle cells (SMC), and their differentially expressed genes are particularly enriched for different vascular disease-associated genetic risk-loci and risk-genes. Adventitial fibroblast-specific heterogeneity in gene expression coincides with a disproportionally large number of vascular disease genetic signals, suggesting a previously unrecognized role for this cell type in disease risk. Adult arterial cells from different segments cluster not by anatomical proximity but by embryonic origin. Global regulon analysis of disease related segment-specific gene expression program in fibroblast and SMC enriches for binding sites of transcription factors that are developmental master regulators whose expression persists into adulthood, suggesting an important functional role of the same developmental master regulators in adult gene expression and disease. Lastly, non-coding transcriptomes across arterial cells contain extensive variation in lncRNAs expressed in cell type- and segment-specific patterns, rivaling heterogeneity in protein coding transcriptomes. Differentially expressed LncRNA demonstrate enrichment for non-coding genetic signals for vascular diseases, suggesting a potential global role of segmental specific LncRNAs in regulating inherited human vascular disease risk.

Keywords
single-cell, vascular development, vascular cell populations, arterial segments, non-coding RNA, vascular diseases

Introduction:

Human vascular diseases are the leading cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide[1]. Different segments of the human aorta and its branches have seemingly identical morphology and structures, yet have dramatically distinct propensity for different vascular diseases[2-4]. Atherosclerotic disease frequently influences coronaries and carotids, while relatively sparing the descending thoracic aorta[5,6]. Hereditary aneurysmal diseases frequently affect the aortic root and ascending aorta but not other aortic segments[7,8]. Environmental triggers such as tobacco smoking and methamphetamine abuse disproportionally bring on pathologies in the infra-renal segments of the aorta and pulmonary arteries respectively[9,10]. Even inflammatory or infectious aortopathies, such as Takayasu's vasculitis, Kawasaki's diseases, or syphilis aortitis, have well documented segmental preferences[11-13]. While the differences in disease propensity are well documented, the underlying causal mechanisms are less clear. Prevalent hypotheses include differential exposure to life-long hemodynamic forces, along with distinct cellular lineages from different embryonic origins[14,15]. Understanding the cellular and molecular basis for the differences between these arteries may open the door to therapies for a variety of vascular diseases.

Lineage tracing data primarily from several animal models suggest a distinct pattern of embryonic origins for the different arteries that appears conserved through vertebrates[15-18]. The coronary artery is thought to derive from several sources[19,20]. The endothelium from coronary arteries can be traced to two distinct origins, the sinus venosus and the endocardium. Coronary endothelium is thought to instruct the surrounding mesenchyme, which consists of cells originating from the proepicardial organ, to turn into smooth muscle cells.[21,22]. The ascending aorta is thought to be made primarily of at least two populations of embryonic progenitor cells, arising from both the second heart field as well as the neural crest[21,23]. The two populations of cells mix in a distinct pattern, ending before the arch, where most smooth muscle cells are thought to come from neural crest cells of the 4th pharyngeal arch. The carotid artery arises from the 3rd pharyngeal arch. The pulmonary artery (PA) arises from the 6th pharyngeal arch, the thoracic descending aorta is thought to arise from the somitic mesoderm, and splenic mesoderm thought to be responsible for the iliac and femoral arteries. These distinct developmental origins have long been postulated to be causal for risk related to various diseases, as different segments have been shown to have differential expression of selected genes as studied with bulk RNA isolation[24,25]. Transplantation experiments in mammals have suggested arterial segments retain the disease propensities of their original site, suggesting intrinsic behavior of segments accounts for their disease propensity[26,27]. However, whether the same embryological developmental pattern exists in humans is unknown. In addition, the extent to which developmental origin influences cellular gene expression and behavior of adult vessels remains elusive.

To gain insight into these fundamental observations on differential arterial disease risk, we generated a human arterial cellular atlas spanning multiple segments of the arterial circulation. Single cell transcriptomic analysis revealed that different arterial segments exhibit distinct gene expression patterns in the adult. The distinct transcriptomic signatures were most discrepant between fibroblast and smooth muscle cells (SMC) from different vascular beds, while gene expression was relatively similar between endothelial cells and residential

108 inflammatory cells between the vascular beds. Taken together, these data suggest that vascular
109 identity is encoded mostly in the vascular fibroblast and smooth muscle cell populations.
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Results:

To generate a baseline human vascular cellular atlas simultaneously from multiple arterial sites
from the same person, we collaborated with the organ donor network to collect arterial tissues
from organ donors. Up to 9 distinct arterial sites (ascending thoracic aorta (ASC), aortic arch
(ARCH), descending thoracic aorta (DESC), infra-renal abdominal aorta (INFRARENAL), iliac
artery (ILIAC), coronary artery (RCA), carotid artery (CAROTID), pulmonary artery (PA), and
aortic root (ROOT)) were chosen to be evaluated due to their different embryonic origins and
disease propensities. Available segments were collected using identical surgical techniques by
a dedicated team of cardiothoracic surgeons to minimalize surgical variability (Figure 1A) and
processed in an identical manner from 6 different patients. Tissues were dissociated into single
cells using an enzymatic digestion approach we developed to overcome the dense vascular
connective tissue (See STAR Methods) [28-30]. This method provided for vascular smooth muscle
cells to be the predominant population captured, matching histological cellular composition
ratios, while preserving single-cell RNA (scRNA) quality and library complexity. Not all sites
were collected from each patient as certain segments were retained along with organs that were
utilized for patient care. The digested cells were then sorted for viability and then loaded onto
the 10x Genomics platform to perform single-cell transcriptomic capture. Libraries that were
made were then sequenced at a targeted depth of at least 50,000 reads per cell, and the
resultant data processed using the Seurat platform. The dataset was then filtered to remove
poor quality cells and doublets. The overall dataset contained 187,958 cells. Individual cell gene
expression was then normalized based on read depth and mitochondrial/ribosomal fraction of
reads, to allow for comparison between datasets. The resultant data was then dimensionally
reduced onto a 2D representation using uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP)
for ease of visualization.
The cell type identities were then identified first via unsupervised low dimensional
clustering of the transcriptomic data. To avoid over-clustering, we initiated the analysis using
very low-resolution clustering, which enables the identification of known distinct cell types, such
as endothelial cells and smooth muscle cells. Visualization of the combined scRNA data
revealed the presence of all the expected major cell types in the human arteries, namely
endothelial cells (EC), smooth muscle cells (SMC), fibroblasts, microvascular cells and immune
cells. These cell types are represented using existing canonical markers of each population
(Figures 1B and S1A). The largest component of the variance in the dataset came from markers
of different cell types, though the data contained a small level of expected inter-person variation
such as gender-specific differences (Figure S1B). For ease of visualization and to focus on
biology that exists between vascular beds instead of inter-person variations, we performed
batch correction between different donors using Single-cell-transform (SCT)-based integration.
These batch corrections allow us to better visualize the biology in question[31]. The resultant data
are presented here (Figures 1C and S1C), and will be used as the main dimensional-reduction
framework for data visualization.
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Cells of the Human Arteries

We proceeded to identify each of these specific populations of cells found in our scRNAseq data.
Currently, the cellular populations in the vessels are often defined by positive staining of one or
two marker genes (i.e. *CDH5* for endothelial cells), which relies on the intrinsic assumption of
"marker genes" being specific, and can fail to capture unexpected heterogeneity[17,32-35]. This had
led to significant debate regarding the presence and identity of certain cell types, such as
vascular mesenchymal stem cells, endothelial progenitor cells, adventitial progenitor cells,
pericytes, fibrocytes, fibromyocytes, modulated smooth muscle cells, fibroblasts etc[17,28,32-36].
Discrete populations of cells should have distinct transcriptomic signatures that can be identified
a priori utilizing only gene expression data. Thus, we started with a very conservative clustering
resolution to identify principal cell types. We then identified cluster specific gene markers, and
contrasted them with the canonical "cell type markers" classically utilized to identify SMC, EC,
immune cells, fibroblast, pericytes, and various progenitor cells (Figure 1B) to contrast the
specificity of historical and empirically determined cell type markers. This preliminary analysis
demonstrated high fidelity of canonical endothelial (*CDH5, VWF*) and immune cell markers
(*CD3D, CD68*), but poor specificity of several frequently utilized "pericyte" (*RGS5, CSPG4,*
PDGFRB) and "fibroblast" markers (*COL1A1, FSP1/S100A4, PDGFRA*), with robust expression
seen in multiple populations (Figure S1A). To further confirm the fidelity of different cell clusters,
we then mapped each clusters spatially with Slideseq (Figures 1D and S1D). Each of these
distinct clusters have spatially distinct locations, with fibroblast being found mostly in the
adventitia, whereas two clusters expressing canonical SMC markers (MYH11) are naturally
divided into two populations that spans intima/media (termed "Smooth muscle cells' in figure)
and adventitia (termed "microvascular cells" in figure). Each of the clusters are represented in all
the donor and site samples (Figures S1E and S1F). The relative proportion of each population
of cells across the different arterial segments appears to be mostly constant, with SMCs making
up (30%), Fibroblasts (20%), Endo (16%), Microvascular (14%), Macrophage (18%) (Figure 1E;
Table S1). No sites had statistically significantly more of one cell type compared to another.
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Smooth Muscle Cells of Great Arteries
Histologically, the largest population of cells in the great arteries are SMCs. These cells make
up the majority of the arterial wall[28,36,37], and accounts for ~50% (47-54%) of the cells identified
on our spatial transcriptomics. While existing scRNA datasets of arteries in the past have
demonstrated inflammatory cells being the most numerous populations of isolated cells[28,38,39],
our more vigorous tissue digestion protocol allowed for identification and isolation of SMC as by
far the most numerous cell type, matching histological observations. SMC were classically
identified using expression of mature smooth muscle contractile apparatus genes such as SMC
heavy chain (*MYH11*) or calponin 1 (*CNN1*) (Figures 2A and 2B). Visualizing the population
using several canonical SMC marker genes revealed a continuous gradient of SMC maturity in
healthy vessels as marked by a gradient of expression of each of these "SMC-specific" markers.
SMCs (as evidenced by RNAscope and spatial transcriptome), exist in a distinct gradient of
hierarchical cell-states, $MYOCD^+>CNN1^+>MYH11^+>ACTA2^+>TAGLN^+$ population. (Figure 2A). It
is important to note that a subset of commonly applied smooth muscle markers (smooth muscle
actin/*ACTA2*, and transgelin/*TAGLN*/SM22α) are expressed quite broadly, including very robust
expression of *ACTA2* and *TAGLN* in fibroblast and a subset of endothelial cells. This has

significant implications regarding lineage tracing models using *Tagln* or *Acta2* loci as the driver
for Cre-recombinase lineage labeling, and perhaps explains the distinct results obtained using
different Cre-recombinase in the existing literature[40].
The high depth of sequencing allowed for the identification of two large transcriptomically
distinct populations ("SMC" and "Microvascular" in Figure 1C). Both populations express
canonical SMC markers *MYH11/CNN1* (Figure 2A). However, they both consist of subgroup of
a more "contractile" population and a more "phenotypically modulated" population whereby the
contractile markers are lost. The presence of MYH11-negative cells clustering with smooth
muscle populations, rather than fibroblast or other cell types, may indicate phenotypic
modulation of SMCs, a process documented in murine vascular smooth muscle cells (vSMC)
using lineage tracing models. Alternatively, it could be a mathematical artifact from gene-
expression-based clustering. To distinguish the two possibilities, we leveraged murine
scRNAseq data that contained Myh11-Cre lineage tracing[28] to identify SMC and non-SMC
progenies. Mapping the transcriptomes of these SMC progenies onto the human scRNAseq
data revealed that both the "SMC" and "Microvascular" clusters correspond to murine Myh11-
lineage traced cells, including those lacking contractile SMC gene expression (Figure S2A). This
suggests that cellular lineage relationships may be captured through unbiased clustering
methods. We subsequently performed more detailed analysis of the two SMC populations.
We first investigated the smaller population of cells expressing contractile SMC markers.
Beyond medial arterial SMC, the other cell population that has been described previously to
express contractile SMC markers in the vessel wall are SMC -like cells associated with
arterioles and pericytes, which are thought to represent mural cells of the microvasculature.
Indeed, staining for specific contractile SMC marker *CNN1* revealed positive cells in both the
media and small vessels in adventitia (Figure 2B). Pericytes are a heterogenous population of
cells classically identified using expression of markers *RGS5* and *NG2/CSPG4*[34,41]. Interestingly,
these "canonical pericyte markers" are not confined to one transcriptomically distinct population,
and are frequently non-overlapping (Figures 2C and S1A), suggesting that cells previously
thought to be pericytes in different studies may represent heterogeneous populations of cells,
including contractile SMC. Markers more specific to this population include *COX4I2* and
OR51E1. Differentially expressed gene analysis across these two large SMC populations
revealed 587 significantly differentially expressed genes between these two clusters of SMC
populations (Figure 2D; Table S2), with pathway analysis demonstrating distinct biological
functions (Figures 2E and S2B). For example, these data suggest very distinct pattern of
expression of adrenergic receptors, with alpha adrenergic receptor 2A (*ADRA2A*) (Figure 2F)
found only in the microvascular population whereas *ADRA2C* is found more in the medial SMC)
(Figure S2C). Leveraging RNA in situ hybridization and spatial transcriptome with Slideseq, for
markers unique for this microvascular populations identified with scRNAseq, revealed that this
population of cells resides exclusively in the adventitia (Figures 2F and S2D). While these cells
do express some of the classical "pericyte" markers, due to the potential imprecise nature of
these markers as described above, we will refer to this population of cells as "adventitial
microvasculature" cells. Given the diversity of transcriptome that was observed in the
microvascular population, we performed further sub-clustering of this population into two distinct
clusters. Transcriptomically, these two clusters have unique markers including *CCL21*, *OR51E1*
(Figures S2E and S2F). Spatially both of these clusters reside in the adventitia by RNAscope

and Slideseq (Figures 2F and S2G). Pathway analysis revealed these two population of
microvascular cells likely have distinct function, with one population more enriched for "vascular
development", while the other more enriched for "signal transduction" and "cellular migration"
processes. These data suggest at least two or more populations of microvascular cells exist in
the adventitia with distinct function.
We then turn our attention to the largest SMC cluster, which is the most abundant cell
type in the arteries. This population of SMC can be further divided into two subclusters whereby
one subcluster express high level of mature SMC markers, and another subcluster where the
expression of contractile genes such as *MYH11* or *CNN1* are absent. To identify where these
cells were located, we performed spatial transcriptomic profiling using Slideseq in conjunction
with RNAscope for specific markers for this population. Consistent with previous work[28,42], one
of the most specifically expressed genes in these SMC subclusters included *TNFRSF11B* and
FN1. The less "contractile SMC" cells localized to the intima (Figures 2G, 2H and S2H). Again
leveraging existing murine scRNAseq data with lineage tracing, we found that the less
contractile subcluster of SMC transcriptomically map to "phenotyptically modulated SMC" in
Myh11 lineage tracing models. Previously identified markers for murine modulated SMC[28] are
found in the same intimal cluster (Figure S2I), including rare cells that express "chondrogenic
SMC" markers such as *IBSP1* and *HAPLN1* (Figure S2J). Applying lineage inference tool using
pseudotime, a similar de-differentiation timeline can be constructed using human medial/intimal
SMC (Figure S2K). These findings suggest that the majority of the cells that makes up the
human healthy arterial intima shares significant transcriptomic similarity to phenotypically
modulated SMC observed in murine models (Figure S2A). The human data, in conjunction with
Myh11-cre SMC lineage tracing in murine models[28,42], lend further evidence to the notion that
arterial intima, which is present in human but not mice, are likely smooth muscle derived, arising
from media SMC in a process analogous to neointimal formation in murine atherosclerosis and
intimal hyperplasia models.
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Adventitial Fibroblast in Human Arteries
The second most abundant population of cells isolated in our dataset are adventitial fibroblasts,
which form a continuum in the transcriptomic space with smooth muscle cells. This population of
cells did not express contractile SMC markers (Figures 1C and 2A), but did express high levels
of extracellular matrix components and modifiers (Figure 3A). Marker gene RNAscope studies
for this population, along with spatial transcriptomics, localized this population exclusively to the
adventitia (Figures 3B and 1D). Based on marker gene expression, we termed this population
vascular adventitial fibroblast.
Commonly used canonical fibroblast marker genes[32,43], including fibroblast specific
protein (FSP1/*S100A4*), *PDGFRA*, *COL1A1*, *GLI1,* were expressed relatively diffusely in several
different populations of non-fibroblast cells (Figure 3C). This likely explains part of the
heterogeneity of results that comes from different fibroblast lineage tracing / manipulation Cre
models in murine studies[44-46]. Using the scRNAseq data, we additionally identified *PI16*, *SFRP2*,
and *MFAP5* as the most specific marker genes for this adventitial fibroblast population (Figures
3C and 3D; Table S3). Of note, genes highly expressed specifically in the adventitial fibroblast
population were enriched for genes known to cause genetic aortopathies[47-49], including *FBN1*,

TGFBR2, *LOX*, *FBLN1*, and *MFAP5* (Figure 3E). This suggests a potentially prominent role for
this population of cells in the etiology of aortopathies and other vasculopathies.

286   Surprisingly, while it has been described that the adventitial fibroblast is a
heterogeneous population, they appeared to be relatively homogenous in transcriptomic space
within the same vascular segments. There were additional endothelial cells and other
microvascular cells that are in the adventitia, which makes it more heterogenous than other
layers, but the fibroblast themselves within each segment appeared to be mostly one large
continuous population across a spectrum. However, there did appear to be significant
heterogeneity across the adventitial fibroblasts among the different vascular beds (Figure S3A).
Focusing on the transcriptomic heterogeneity across the adventitial fibroblast population, three
distinct clusters highlighted by different biological processes can be found (Figures S3B and
S3C). Pathway analysis of differentially expressed genes across these clusters revealed
particular sensitivity of each of these clusters to different signaling pathway (Figure S3D). One
cluster has particular enrichment in Fibroblast Growth Factor and pro-migration signal (we
termed "FGF-avid"), another has higher TGFB pathway and ossification signals (we termed
"TGFB-avid"), and the third has enrichment for BMP signals and microfilaments such as MFAP5
and FBN1 (we termed "BMP-avid") cluster (Figures S3C, S3D and S3E). While fibroblast
carrying each of these subsets exist in each vascular segments, the "TGFB-avid" fibroblast are
particularly enriched in the root, ascending, and arch, and PA, corresponding to those with
neural crest origin, whereas "BMP-avid" cluster is particularly enriched in the descending, infra-
renal, and iliac arteries, corresponding to those with paraxial/splenic mesodermal origin (Figure
S3A).

Endothelial Cells
Endothelial cells heterogeneity across different types of vessels has been well described,
including at the single cell level in the organ specific endothelial atlases[35,50,51]. Even at a specific
arterial site, there is evidence of different populations of endothelial cells as determined by
single cell RNA sequencing of murine aorta[35]. Well established markers for endothelial cells
(*CDH5*, *VWF, CD31*) fall within two large distinct clusters (Figures 4A and S4A). A single layer
of endothelial cells is found in the intimal surface of the arteries, but frequently many more are
found in the adventitia associated with the adventitial micro-vasculature. In our data, the
microvascular endothelial cells appear to be the most abundant population of endothelial cells
(Figure 4B). The biggest determinant of the transcriptome of the endothelial cells appears to be
which region of the vascular wall (intima/adventitia) these cells occupy (Figure S4B). The larger
of the two clusters constitutes the majority of the endothelial cells ("Endo1"), and can be further
subdivided into additional subclusters (Figure 4C). One subcluster expresses markers
previously found to be associated with venous and capillary endothelium, (for example, *ACKR1*),
whereas another subcluster expresses *HEY1*, a Notch signaling responsive gene previously
associated with arterial endothelium (Figure 4D). Consistent with existing literature, the cluster
that expresses *ACKR1* is found exclusively in the microvasculature in the adventitia, whereas
the cluster that expresses *HEY1*, a key gene associated with arterial endothelial specification[52],
is found both in the adventitia as well as on the luminal surfaces. These data suggest that these

EC reside in arterioles in the adventitia as well as on the vascular surfaces (Figures 4E and
S4C). Arterial endothelial cells have been implicated in endothelial to mesenchymal transition
(EndoMT), whereby these cells start to express mesenchymal genes[53,54]. We did find rare
endothelial cell populations that express *TAGLN* and *ACTA2,* but total incidence is (0.57% total
cells), which is below the doublet rate. While these cells are not flagged by computational
doublet removal tools[55], we cannot entirely eliminate that these may simply be doublets (Figure
S4D). Lastly, using existing markers for lymphatic endothelial cells (*PROX1*, *LYVE1*)[56,57], we
can observe a small population in the adventitial EC as well, though they consist of a very small
minority (Figure 4F).
The second cluster of endothelial cells ("Endo2") are notably transcriptomically distinct
from the remaining endothelial cells. Interestingly, even within the same segment, this
population of cells appears to express different *HOX* genes compared to the other larger
endothelial population, suggesting they likely come from distinct origins (Figure 4G). This
endothelial cell population expresses a large number of distinct markers, many with known
biological function and vascular disease relevance, including *ITLN1*, *NRG1*[58-60] (Figure 4H). The
Endo2 population is found in all the different vascular territories, and accounts for a ~10% of the
total endothelial population and does not appear to significantly vary in proportion across
different vascular beds (Figure S4E). Interestingly, one of the most specific markers, *ITLN1*, is
known to be upregulated after large vascular ischemic events[61-63]. RNAscope using *ITLN1*
revealed that this population exists exclusively on the luminal surface, and are not found in the
adventitia similar to the other endothelial (Endo1) population (Figures 4I and 4J). Compared to
previously reported data, the marker gene for this population appears distinct from the different
endothelial populations reported in murine aortic endothelial cells[35,51]. However, the same
distinct population of endothelial cells appears to be present in other human large artery single
cell datasets[38,64]. Differentially expressed (DE) gene comparison between the two endothelial
cell populations (Table S4) revealed that they likely have distinct functions. Compared to the
numerically more abundant Endo1 population, the Endo2 population enriches for genes
associated with TGFb/BMP signaling, angiogenesis and SMC crosstalk, as well as a strong
disease association with atherosclerosis (Figures 4K and S4F). These findings suggest this
Endo2 population may be uniquely involved in human vascular diseases.
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Macrophages And Lymphocytes:
While classically not considered part of the vessel wall, emerging evidence suggests that
inflammatory cells play an important part in vascular homeostasis[11,33,64-66]. Our data further
supports this notion, as even though these donor samples were obtained from relatively healthy
vessels without clinically overt diseases, there is a significant number of macrophages and
lymphocytes present in all the vascular beds. There is a trend towards a slight increase in the
total fraction of immune cells in the atherosclerosis prone arterial beds (coronary, infra-renal
aorta) (Figure S5A) but does not reach statistical significance. There was also no significant
inter-person difference in proportion of immune cells. (Figure S1E) The majority of the
macrophages and lymphocytes are found in the adventitia. Clusters of B and T cells can also
occasionally be found in organized centers of what appears to be tertiary lymphoid organs that
abut the adventitia (Figure 1D). Putative computational analysis of cell-to-cell crosstalk using
CellChat[67] demonstrates significant cross talk between the adventitial fibroblast, smooth muscle,

and the immune cell populations (Figure S5B). These findings suggest a potential role for
resident vascular mural cells in coordinating the vascular immune response.
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Determinants of Arterial Identity
To understand differences between arterial segments, we first tried to determine whether there
was a consistent relative composition of different cell types within different arteries. Using the
low clustering resolution which identified the canonical populations of vascular cells, we
discovered that with identical digestion protocols, the relative proportion of cell populations were
mostly similar across different arterial beds (Figure S6A). There is a slight increase in
inflammatory cells in the vascular beds that are more prone to atherosclerosis, such as the
coronary artery, and infra-renal segment of the aorta (Figure 5A). However, there were no large
differences in cellular composition across arterial segments, similar to histological studies.
383    Visualization of a large dataset using UMAP accentuates the drivers of the variance
within the dataset[68,69]. Thus, visualization of the data in this manner also enables us to get a
sense of relative heterogeneity of each population of cells across the different vascular beds.
Simply visualizing this dataset coded by segmental origins, it became readily apparent that
there is significant heterogeneity between adventitial fibroblasts and smooth muscle cells
among the different vascular beds. However, there were relatively fewer differences between
the microvascular, inflammatory and endothelial populations across different vessel beds, as
demonstrated on the UMAP (Figure 5B). Because dimensional reduction such as UMAP can
distort true distances between populations[68,70], we repeated the analysis by looking at the
number of differentially expressed genes between the ascending and descending arteries, and
between the coronary and descending pairs (Figures S6B and S6C), as well as the mean
Euclidean distance[71] between the average global gene expression of each cell population
across the vascular beds (Figures S6D and S6E). Consistent with the UMAP visualization, both
of these analyses revealed fewer differences between endothelial cells and macrophages
across different vascular beds compared to fibroblast and smooth muscle cells. Interestingly,
the same analysis comparing Endo1 and Endo2 population showed much smaller difference
between Endo1 population but significantly more difference in the Endo2 population across
vascular beds (Figure S6E). These data suggest that the main determinant of arterial identities,
at least transcriptomically, appears to be held mostly by fibroblast, smooth muscle cells, and
possibly the smaller subset of intimal endothelial cells, Endo2 population, and much less so in
the remaining endothelial cells, microvasculature, and inflammatory cells.
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Prominent Roles of Embryonic Origin in Adult Vascular Identity
We next investigated the main differences between SMC and fibroblasts from different vascular
beds. Examination of the differentially expressed genes across SMC and Fibroblasts of different
vascular beds revealed a large number of developmentally important transcription factors[28,72-77],
including *HOX* family genes, *ISL1*, *MEF2C*, *TCF21, HAND2, GATA4* etc. (Figure 5C). We
hypothesize, therefore, that embryonic origins are the dominant factor in vascular identity. We
regenerated a UMAP visualization focusing on the top transcriptomic variances that exist in
each individual population. This UMAP readily revealed distinct transcriptomic sub-clusters of
Fibroblast and SMC (Figures S3B and S7A). Consistent with our hypothesis, the proximity of
different populations of fibroblast by either Euclidean distance or visualization in UMAP space

appears to correspond to each segments presumed embryonic origin reported in animal models
(Figures 5D, 5E and S7B). Cells from arteries of different caliber and flow with similar embryonic
origins (i.e.aortic arch, and ascending aorta/carotid arteries) cluster closer together than their
connected counterparts (such as descending thoracic artery to aortic arch). This suggests that
embryonic origins of each of these arterial segments play a dominant role in adult gene
expression. Curiously, this developmental pattern is less preserved in identical analysis of
macrophage, microvasculature, and Endo1, suggesting that in these cells the resting gene
expression may be less influenced by their embryonic origin (Figures S7C, S7D and S7E).
Many of the differentially regulated genes found on the list has been known to be
regulated by these transcription factors in different processes. To unbiasedly determine if these
lowly expressed developmental master-regulators continue to play an important role in adult
gene expression globally, we investigated whether the binding sites for these transcription
factors are enriched in differentially expressed genes between segments compared to other
variable genes in the dataset, focusing on the ascending and descending thoracic aorta as the
main test case. Transcription factors *ISL1*, *HAND2*, *MEF2C* are expressed in the second heart
field and neural crest cells which give rise to the ascending aorta, whereas *HOX* genes are
expressed in the somitic mesoderm which gives rise to the descending thoracic aorta (Figures
5F and S7F). Consistent with these transcription factors playing an important role, we saw a
very strong enrichment of ISL1, HAND2, MEF2C, and HOX binding sites in the regulatory
regions of differentially expressed genes in fibroblast and SMC across these vessel beds of
distinct embryonic origin (Figures 5G and S7G; Table S5). These data suggest the embryonic
origin and the persistent expression of these critical transcription factors into adulthood plays a
critical role in arterial identity and their global gene expression in adult.
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Adult Vascular Hox Gene Expression Patterns
While *HOX* genes' roles are best elucidated in development, as one of the most potent cell fate
and patterning signals[72,78], their role in adult tissue identity and disease is less well understood.
It has been shown that different arterial segments express different *HOX* genes by bulk
RNAseq[25]. Given the impressive enrichment of *HOX* gene binding motifs in regulatory regions of
most differentially expressed genes, we leveraged our dataset to better understand *HOX* gene
expression across the different cell types within each segment of the aorta.
It appears that adult *HOX* gene expression patterns from the same vessel segment are
conserved in adulthood and thus mirror their embryonic origin (Figures 5H and S8A).
Descending thoracic aorta, abdominal aorta, and iliac arteries each expresses distinct subsets
of *HOX* genes that are conserved from one person to the next (Figure S8B). However, we
observed that within the different cell types of a segment, each cell type expresses a different
subset of *HOX* genes. For example, in descending thoracic aorta, *HOXD8* is most highly
expressed only by Endo1, *HOX A4/A5* predominantly by Endo2, and *HOXA3* in SMC, and *HOX*
A5/B7 in fibroblast. While smooth muscle and microvasculature are transcriptionally and
phenotypically similar, and AdvFib and microvasculature are geographically close, they express
very distinct *HOX* genes patterns (Figures 5H and S8C). On the other hand, adventitial
fibroblast *HOX* gene expression is quite similar to those of the medial SMC. This potentially
reflects these two populations of cells (medial SMC and AdvFib) have more closely shared
embryonic origins compared to those of microvasculature in the adventitia. As further evidence

that the *HOX* genes likely play an important role in adult arterial identity, we clustered the cells
and segments based on *HOX* genes alone. Hierarchical clustering of SMC and fibroblast based
on *HOX* genes alone mirrors hierarchical clustering of whole transcriptomes, and readily reflects
each segment's developmental origin (Figures 5I and 5J). Given that most immune cells are
likely formed uniformly in the marrow and migrate into each segment, unsurprisingly there is
less distinction between them. While the endothelial cells are some of the earliest to form during
embryonic development of the great vessels, with each segments' endothelial cells having
distinct origins, they are significantly less heterogeneous compared to neighboring segments of
different embryonic origin, with the potential exception of the Endo2 population (Figure S8D).
Those populations that differ from one vascular bed to another tend to have a very distinct
pattern of *HOX* gene expression, whereas cell types with similar *HOX* gene expressions tend to
have globally more similar transcriptomes. The persistence of this very distinct pattern of *HOX*
gene expression across individuals suggests that conserved transcriptomic regulation of these
genes in adulthood, along with enrichment in HOX binding motifs in differentially expressed
genes noted above suggests critical roles for *HOX* genes in cell type specific adult segmental
specific gene expression.
475
Enrichment of Vascular Disease Rare and Common Variant Genetic Signals in Segmental
Transcriptomic Differences
Our original hypothesis was that the transcriptomic differences between these vascular beds are
important for differences in disease propensities, and that the single cell atlas will help identify
novel pathologic populations and genetic programs. To determine if these identified
transcriptomic differences play a role in adult diseases, we then asked whether the differentially
regulated genes were enriched in human signals of genetic diseases. We again focused our
attention on the difference between ascending and descending thoracic aortic segments, which
have a known strong propensity for aortic aneurysms[79,80]. While these disease segments are
subject to changes in flow, there was relatively few differences between the global endothelial
cell expression of cells from these two vessel beds (Table S6). However, there were
significantly more transcriptomic differences between fibroblast and SMC from these different
connected arterial segments. Most notably, there were a large number of differentially regulated
genes in the fibroblast population that have known roles in inherited aortopathies[81]. A number of
mendelian aortopathies involve haploinsufficiency of critical ECM components, including fibrilin
1 (*FBN1*), lysyl oxidase (*LOX*), microfibril associated protein 4 (*MFAP4*), microfibril associated
protein 5 (*MFAP5*), and collagen 3A1 (*COL3A1*). Loss of function alleles in these genes are
associated with thoracic aortic aneurysms, with a strong preference for affecting the root and
ascending aorta. Interestingly, the expression of each of these genes is significantly lower in the
ascending than the descending aorta (Figure 6A). Closer examination revealed that differences
in expression were seen nearly exclusively in the adventitial fibroblasts, and not in the medial
SMC (Figure 6B). Conversely, *PRKG1* is a gene whose gain of function is known to increase
the risk of aneurysm[82-84], also has higher expression in the aortic root and ascending compared
to descending (Figure 6C).
To determine if other arterial segment specific vascular traits showed segregation of
genetic signals, we subsequently performed the same analysis on common genetic variants
associated with human aortic diameter. Most GWAS lead variants are located in non-coding

regions of the genome, likely exerting its effect on gene dosages. Thus, GWAS "hits" enrich for
genes whose dose are likely to contribute to pathology, with the added benefit that GWAS "hits"
do not hold bias towards known pathways. We leveraged recently published GWAS on aortic
diameter[85], and asked how often GWAS genes for aortic diameter are differentially expressed in
different populations of cells in aneurysm prone (i.e. ascending) vs resistant (i.e. descending)
segments. For those within the non-coding region of the genome, we used the putative target
gene suggested in the original manuscript, which mostly reflected the closest gene. From the list
of GWAS genes, we then determined how often these dose sensitive genes were differentially
expressed at the individual cell level in ascending and descending aorta. After Bonferroni
correction for multiple hypothesis testing, our analysis revealed 31 diameter sensitive genes are
differentially expressed in ascending vs descending fibroblasts, and 18 diameter sensitive
genes are differentially expressed in smooth muscle cells, and 5, 3, and 4 genes are
differentially expressed in microvasculature, macrophage, and endothelial cells, respectively
(Table S7). These analyses suggest a large proportion of segment-specific modifiers of aortic
propensity for aneurysm act through fibroblast and SMC, with surprisingly little transcriptomic
differences in the endothelial cells (Figures S9A and S9B). These findings confirm the known
role of SMC in aneurysms, while suggesting a prominent unrecognized role of AdvFib in the
same disease process.
We subsequently performed the same analysis in atherosclerotic disease and observed
a similar pattern. Coronary artery and carotid arteries are known to be more prone to
atherosclerosis whereas descending thoracic aorta is less so[86]. Thus, these vessel beds are
used for the atherosclerosis disease propensity comparisons to identify causal cells and causal
genes for the reasons for the differences in disease propensity. A significant subset of common
variant associated genes for atherosclerotic disease (in this case, coronary artery disease) are
differentially expressed in the different population of cells in the vessel wall (Figures 6D, 6E,
S9B and S9C). Our analysis revealed 45 CAD GWAS genes differentially expressed in
fibroblast, 30 in SMC, 11 in microvasculature, 15 in Endo1, 7 in Endo2, and 27 in macrophages
(Table S8). Functional analysis of enriched genes in each population of cells revealed
angiogenesis related biological processes are significantly enriched in SMC, and PDGF and
VEGF signaling enriched in the fibroblast population (Figure 6F). These analyses suggest that
segment specific differences in vascular disease propensities appears to be mostly encoded in
fibroblast and SMC, and much less so in endothelial cells.
535
Sex-specific differences
At a population level, there is a distinct difference in the susceptibility for vascular diseases
between patients of different biological sex[87-90]. Coronary artery disease and Marfan syndrome,
for example, are known to have worse vascular manifestation in men compared to women[91,92],
whereas Takayasu arteritis or spontaneous coronary artery dissections are much more common
in women than men[93,94]. The underlying cause of these sex specific differences is poorly
understood. While many of the causes of the sex specific differences may be related to
numerous systemic and other confounding factors that are unrelated to the cell biology at the
vessel wall, this dataset containing an equal number of men versus women, offers an
opportunity to explore potential differences between male and female arteries. We performed
differential expression analysis comparing different cellular populations in our dataset. This

analysis revealed different cell-type specific transcriptomes between male and female sex.
Unsurprisingly, many sex chromosome specific genes, such as *XIST*, were differentially
regulated in all cells. The analysis revealed 119, 176, 201, 79, 196, 281, 172 sex-specific
differentially expressed (DE) genes between SMC, fibroblast, macrophage, Endo1,
microvasculature, Endo2, and lymphocytes respectively (Table S9). Unlike cross-segmental
identities that appears to lie more in fibroblast and SMC, sex-specific differences were seen
across all cell types and are more profound in endothelial and immune cells. This parallels the
observations of sex specific differences observed in incidence of vasculitis and vascular
endothelial dysfunction. Sex differences in different populations appears to govern different
aspects of vascular biology and different diseases. Pathway analysis with the GO biological
process performed on each of these DE genes revealed distinct biological process enrichments
(Table S10). Different cell type DE gene overlap with OMIM data revealed distinct vascular
disease associations with known sex preferences (i.e. SMC association with Ehler-Danlos, and
EC association with macular degeneration) (Table S11).
561

Of mice and men
Our dataset enables us to compare cellular transcriptomes and cell populations of healthy
human arteries with murine ones. One of the biggest differences observed between human and
murine arteries is the presence of an intima at baseline. It is well-established that even a healthy
human has a significant layer of intimal cells as early as the second or third decade of life[95-97].
This is well reflected in this dataset. While healthy murine vessels do not contain a population
contiguous with the fibroblast population[28-30], we see a population of cells in healthy human
vessels that appears to be correspond to "phenotypically modulated smooth muscle cells" in
mice (Figure S2I). These modulated SMC are found almost exclusively in the human arterial
intima, and appear to comprise the majority of healthy intimal cells (Figure 2H). Beyond the
differences in the intimal cells that exist in the resting vessel, a comparison of the human and
mouse single cell RNA datasets processed in a similar manner reveals notable differences in a
few cellular populations. There is a significantly larger population of microvascular cells,
associated with the vaso-vasorum in human arteries compared to murine tissue. This finding is
expected given the increased thickness of human arterial tissues. As a result, the majority of
endothelial cells isolated from human arteries actually lines the microvasculature that supplies
the vessels instead of those on the luminal surface. In addition, there appears to be two
transcriptionally distinct subsets of endothelial cells in the human data, whereas the endothelial
populations appear less distinct in mice. While heterogeneity in endothelial cells in murine
arteries has also been described, no previously described population of endothelial cells in mice
matches the "Endo2" population found in humans[28,29,35].
A larger number of immune cells (both monocyte/macrophages and lymphocytes) are
present in donor human vasculature without overt disease compared to young/healthy mice.
This may reflect subclinical disease in these donors after decades of hyperlipidemia and
hypertension or rather fundamental differences between murine and human vasculature[29,30].
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Cell type- and Segment- Specific Non-coding Transcriptome
While existing analysis of scRNAseq data has mostly focused on protein coding genes, there is
an increasing recognition that non-coding transcripts such as long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs)

play an important role in health and disease[98-100]. Taking advantage of the fact that a significant
portion of lncRNAs is poly-adenylated and thus captured by the 10x platform, we asked whether
lncRNAs also follow segmental and cell-type specific expression by aligning these sequencing
data to a library of known lncRNAs. Given the library preparation of 10x does not allow for
strand specific capture, one cannot readily determine if a read is from the coding or antisense
strand of a transcript. To remove any potential confounding reads from protein coding genes,
we leveraged a reference lncRNA transcriptome that eliminated any segments of overlap with
any protein coding mRNAs. We will refer to this as the sc-lncRNA transcriptome.
This dataset contains 53,247 unique non-coding transcripts that are found in the
vascular cells (compared to 18,088 protein coding genes). Despite our stringent filtering, on
average, ~1601 (median 1284) non-coding transcripts were detected in each cell, encoding an
average of ~397 (median 323) lncRNAs per cell. This represents ~10% in number of genes or
reads compared to the protein coding genome. Differential gene expression analysis of these
data comparing cells across different segments found that a significant portion of the sc-lncRNA
transcriptome also exhibited cell-type and segmental specific expression (Figures 7A and 7B).
Employing these data, we investigated how much of the cell type specific identities are
encoded in this limited subset of the non-coding transcriptome. To accomplish this, we
performed unbiased clustering of the sc-lncRNA transcriptome using standard methods, along
with UMAP based visualization. Utilizing no protein coding gene data, analyzing sc-lncRNA
transcriptome alone, standard unbiased expression clustering approach could readily segregate
the dataset into cell type specific clusters that recapitulate those identified using the entire
transcriptome (Figure 7C). Comparison of cell type identities assigned via unsupervised low-
resolution clustering to those identified by protein coding transcriptome demonstrated that ~92%
of the cells were clustered in identical ways using sc-lncRNA data alone without any protein
coding transcripts. The cells exhibiting discordance were primarily situated at the interfaces
between distinct cell types as visualized on the UMAP (Figure S10A). Hierarchical clustering
based on sc-lncRNA data itself in SMC and fibroblast could recapitulate the developmental
origin (Figure 8D). This suggests that a significant portion of the identities of each cell types,
behavior, and embryological origin are embedded within the non-coding transcriptome.
The majority of common variants that are identified in humans that carry heritable risk of
vascular diseases lie within the non-coding region of the genome[101-103]. One hypothesis has
been that some of these non-coding regions of the genome may overlap with functional
lncRNAs and alter their function. To test this hypothesis, we asked whether these vascular
lncRNAs enriched for genome-wide significant GWAS SNPs for different vascular conditions.
Interestingly, there appears to be a significant enrichment of GWAS SNPs for coronary artery
diseases that lie within the exons of lncRNAs compared to expected (18 lncRNAs with 158 MVP
SNPs) (Figure 7E; Table S12). We subsequently intersected the differentially expressed
lncRNAs across segments within major cell clusters with the loci from the GWAS catalog,
revealing a significant intersection of these lncRNAs with loci associated with coronary artery
disease (CAD) and heart disease (Figure S10B). Repeat analysis using more updated SNPs
from recent GWAS from Million Veterans Program CAD obtained similar enrichments (Figure
S10C)[102]. Many of these GWAS-loci associated lncRNA have distinct expression between
intimal and medial SMC populations. Intimal SMC express higher number of lncRNA transcripts
than medial SMC (Figure S10D). Beyond GWAS loci, a large number of lncRNA has been

associated with altered vascular disease risk[104]. Interestingly a significant portion of these
previously reported vascular-disease associated lncRNA also demonstrate distinct
intimal/medial SMC expression levels (Figure S10E). These findings provide potential functional
context for lncRNAs implicated in vascular diseases.
639
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Discussion
By performing cellular transcriptomic and spatial localization of donor arteries across a variety of
arterial segments, we created a resource for the vascular and genetics research community to
better understand the cellular composition and distribution of gene expression programs across
human arteries to better link causal genes to causal cells. We identified major cellular
populations characterized not by in
dividual markers, but by entire transcriptomic profiles and spatial localizations. We contribute to
the existing literature of single cell characterization of human arteries by improving optimal
digestion of highly fibrous arterial tissue to obtain high quality single cell RNAseq data superior
to the cellular populations and ratios observed by histology[28,30]. These techniques also enabled
us to achieve deeper characterization of vascular cell transcriptomes, including lowly expressed
transcription factors, to better elucidate their biology. We hope this dataset can serve as a
useful reference to aid the cardiovascular research community in future single cell
characterization of vascular conditions.
Utilizing entire cellular transcriptomes instead of specific marker genes to define cellular
heterogeneity, this dataset both validates and challenges existing approaches to study vascular
diseases in murine and cellular models. One immediate benefit of this approach is the ability to
identify specific markers empirically in an unbiased manner for populations of cells that are
transcriptomically distinct. This large number of cell-type specific markers can then be utilized to
enable other vascular discoveries, including generating more specific murine Cre-lox models to
understand individual cell populations. Furthermore, our data can help reconcile seemingly
paradoxical findings of existing cellular and lineage tracing models. For example, our analyses
have revealed surprising heterogeneity and limitations of many commonly used vascular
population markers (*RGS5*, *TAGLN*, *GLI1*, *ACTA2* etc), which may explain some of the
contradictory findings in animal models that arise from modification using different "marker"
genes[40]. This specific issue is best studied in the vascular SMC field, in which heterogeneous
findings using different "SMC-specific" Cre-recombinase models have been well-documented[40].
While Acta2 and Tagln-Cre were previously frequently employed to study SMC lineage tracing
and gene perturbation, meticulous studies by multiple groups have documented its activation in
non-SMCs including fibroblasts[105,106] and endothelial cells[107]. While the non-SMC labeling was
previously attributed to "leaky" expression of these Cre-alleles, our scRNAseq data suggest that
the issue may be underappreciated endogenous expression of these genes. Indeed, more
specific SMC and vascular SMC Cres (Myh11 and Itga8[108]) have been recently widely utilized
due to their specificity, which is also recapitulated in the scRNAseq data. What remains most
concerning is the poor specificity of fibroblast and microvascular/pericyte markers, which is
marked in our scRNAseq data as multiple populations. More dedicated markers and reagents
for these populations may be needed to optimally study their biology. Similarly, by combining
single cell RNAseq data with complementary spatial transcriptomic techniques, we were able to

localize transcriptomically unique populations that reside in different parts of the vessel wall.
This includes identification of multiple "smooth muscle marker" positive populations, and
multiple subsets of endothelial cells with distinct transcriptomes and localizations. This
extensive heterogeneity that exists in healthy vessels may help explain conflicting findings that
sometimes occur from in vitro studies of primary human arterial cells, as in vitro "arterial SMC"
or "arterial endothelial" cells using canonical markers may be isolated from one or multiple
populations of cells. Our dataset may also be used to deconvolute the population(s) of vascular
endothelial cells or SMC[109,110].

One of our main goals with this dataset was to identify underlying differences in the
biology and disease propensities across different human arterial segments. Current
understanding of such differences mainly attributes them to flow characteristics and
hemodynamics[111-113]. Indeed, turbulent flow, laminar flow, and static flow are known to create
significant alterations in transcriptomic profiles of endothelial cells that are relevant to
diseases[114,115]. On the other hand, numerous pieces of evidence also exist suggesting that
developmental influences may alter vascular disease propensity[116-118], such as the frequently
observed changes in atherosclerotic disease lesion quality and severity near junctions of
vessels segments deriving from distinct developmental origins[119]. This nature vs nurture debate
of vascular disease remains unsettled. Our analysis of healthy vessels prior to initiation of
disease, yet still subjected to decades of differential flow patterns, reveals relatively few
differences between the transcriptomes of endothelial cells across different vascular segments.
However, adventitial fibroblasts and medial smooth muscle cells are clearly responsible for the
main transcriptomic differences across different vascular beds. Differentially expressed genes in
these populations of cells enrich for both common and rare variants of vascular diseases.
Furthermore, the regulatory regions of these differentially regulated genes significantly enrich for
transcription factor binding sites of developmentally critical master regulators. These findings
suggest that developmental origins of these vessels play a large role in different disease
propensities at least equally and maybe more so than decades of differences in vascular flow
and pressure. Developmental master regulators may therefore possess key pathogenic roles.
Given the clinical observation of strong associations of different arterial segments for diseases
within the same person[5,80,95,120], modulation of these developmental master regulators' function
may be sufficient to alter disease development or progression. Lessons learned from
developmental biology and additional discoveries aimed to better understand these factors'
exact functions are attractive targets for future therapies.

One of the largest populations of cells identified from this dataset are adventitial
fibroblasts. This population of cells carries remarkable heterogeneity across vascular segments
with different disease predilections, including a large number of genetic signals for aneurysmal
diseases and atherosclerosis. Yet, this population of cells has traditionally not been the focus of
pathogenesis of vascular diseases. Further evaluation of this population of cells and their roles
in vascular pathologies are warranted.

Analysis of the human endothelial population reveals significant heterogeneity as
previously demonstrated in murine vascular single cell analysis. However, unlike murine
models[35,51], the majority of human endothelial cells in the vessel walls reside in the
microvasculature of the adventitia. Consistent with distinct developmental origins and early
arterial/venous/lymphatic endothelial fate commitment demonstrated in animal

models[14,15,18,35,51,56,57], the most significant determinant of the endothelial transcriptome is the
type of vessel it covers. A distinct population of relatively rare endothelial cells is located at the
luminal surface of the great arteries. The lack of an equivalent endothelial cell population in
murine single cell vascular data suggests the function of this endothelial population may not be
accurately measured in murine models. Given the enrichment of this population of cells for
distinct disease-related transcriptomic programs, further dedicated studies of this population of
cells may yield distinct insight into their pathophysiological function.
Murine disease models with SMC lineage tracing have identified "de-differentiated" and
"phenotypically-modulated" SMC as key pathogenic cells in a variety of vascular
conditions[17,28,36,37]. The importance of this population of cells is well-established through a
variety of lineage tracing and manipulation models of different diseases[28,42,121,122]. However, in
macroscopically healthy vessels as obtained in these studies, an apparent de-differentiated
SMC subset is universally present across all vascular segments and populates the intima. This
population of cells expresses a similar global transcriptomic program as those SMC-lineage
traced cells that have lost their contractile genes in murine models. This potentially reflects the
presence of subclinical diseases in all these donors given years of relative hyperlipidemia due to
exposure to a western diet[123]. Alternatively, another explanation for this observation is that SMC
phenotypic modulation itself is part of the normal physiological spectrum and not necessarily
pathologic. Instead, the specific ways which seemingly similar SMC populations phenotypically
modulate in different ways may govern the quality and burden of disease. This notion is further
supported by the fact that there appears to be particularly large global transcriptomic differences
in the "modulated" /intimal SMC population observed across the vascular beds, more so than
"contractile" smooth muscle cells. This modulated SMC population also carries more genetic
signals of vascular diseases than all other cell populations (Figures S9B and S9C). Existing
data are unfortunately inadequate to discern these two possibilities. Additional characterization
of a larger number of healthy and diseased vascular tissues at different ages may help elucidate
the answer.
Lastly, while the focus of pathogenic factors for vascular disease is often on protein
coding genes[85,101-103], analysis of non-protein-coding transcriptomes of the vascular beds
reveals surprisingly rich information and heterogeneity. Global analysis of lncRNAs alone can
readily identify the main vascular wall cell types and differentially expressed lncRNA across
vascular beds disproportionally enrich for non-coding variants that influence vascular disease
risk. While the analysis is preliminary, the enrichment of genetic signals suggests these
differentially enriched lncRNAs may contain critical regulators of disease risk. This finding add
on to growing literature of pathogenic LncRNA in different human cardiovascular diseases[104],
and points to new potential disease modifying lncRNAs that may be targeted for cardiovascular
diseases.
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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

P.C., T.Q., and A.K conceived and supervised the study. Q.Z., D.S., and P.C performed bioinformatic analyses. P.C., A.P., W.G., A.D., C.W., W.J., A.B. and R.W. performed single cell captures, spatial transcriptomics, histology, and IHC. D.Y.L., H.S., and R.W. helped analyses. A.P., A.D., R.S. L.L. M.F. performed human tissue collection, D.Y.L., Y.R., T.N., R.S., B.T.P., J.P.M., M.W., A.B., M.I., R.K., L.L., helped conducting experiments. P.C., T.Q., and Q.Z. interpreted data and wrote the manuscript. R.W., M.F., and J.B.K contributed to experiments and manuscript. The authors read and approved the final manuscript.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

A.K. is on the scientific advisory board of SerImmune, AINovo, TensorBio, Arcadia, Inari and OpenTargets; and has financial stake in Illumina, DeepGenomics, Immunai and Freenome.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Figures S1–S10, Word file containing additional figure.
Figure S1. Canonical marker expression, donor variation, and spatial mapping of human arterial single-cell transcriptomes, related to Figure 1.
Figure S2. Smooth muscle cell (SMC) lineage heterogeneity, and characterization of microvasculature and SMC subtypes, related to Figure 2.
Figure S3. Fibroblast heterogeneity, subclustering, and functional divergence across vascular segments, related to Figure 3.
Figure S4. Characterization of endothelial cell identity, regional heterogeneity, lineage features, and disease associations, related to Figure 4.
Figure S5. Immune cell distribution and intercellular communication across human arterial segments.
Figure S6. Figure S6. Determinants of arterial identity across vascular territories.
Figure S7. The roles of embryonic origin in shaping transcriptomic diversity across arterial cell types, related to Figure 5.
Figure S8. Segment and cell type-specific patterns of vascular HOX gene expressions, related to Figure 5.
Figure S9. Cell type-specific enrichment of aortic aneurysm-associated and GWAS signals, related to Figure 6.

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829
830 **FIGURE LEGENDS**
831
Figure 1. Single cell RNA and spatial landscape of human arteries.
(A) Schematic illustration depicting the strategy for sampling eight anatomically distinct human
arterial sites, to capture the heterogeneity of vascular cell populations across the arterial tree.
(B) Heatmap showing the expression patterns of canonical markers and cluster-specific genes
across all identified cell populations. Representative markers for major vascular and immune
cell types are included to validate the cell type annotations.
(C) Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) plot of single-cell RNA-sequencing
data, demonstrating distinct clustering of cells according to transcriptional profiles. Clusters are
annotated by inferred cell types, including endothelial cells, smooth muscle cells, fibroblasts,
immune cells, and others.
(D) Spatial transcriptomics analysis of the right coronary artery (RCA). The left panel shows
spatially resolved cell type annotations overlaid on tissue morphology, while the right panel
presents a split-channel view, highlighting the distribution of individual cell types within the same
tissue section.
(E) Pie chart summarizing the overall composition of cell types in the entire single-cell RNA-seq
dataset, indicating relative abundance and diversity of arterial cell populations.

Abbreviations: ascending thoracic aorta (ASC), aortic arch (ARCH), descending thoracic aorta
(DESC), infra-renal abdominal aorta (INFRARENAL), iliac artery (ILIAC), coronary artery (RCA),
carotid artery (CAROTID), pulmonary artery (PA), and aortic root (ROOT)
See also Figure S1.
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Figure 2. Smooth muscle cells of great arteries.
(A) UMAP visualization of single-cell transcriptomes showing the expression levels of key
mature contractile smooth muscle markers, including *MYOCD, CNN1, MYH11, ACTA2*, and
TAGLN. These genes highlight the identity and maturation state of SMC populations.
(B) Immunofluorescence staining of the ascending aorta tissue, visualizing the localization of
CNN1 (green) as a marker of contractile SMCs, with nuclear counterstaining using DAPI (blue),
confirming the spatial identity of SMCs in situ.
(C) UMAP plot illustrating the expression of *RGS5*, a known marker of pericytes and a subset of
SMCs, further delineating subpopulations within the smooth muscle lineage.
(D) Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) ranking between the two major smooth muscle cell
clusters, based on average $\log_2$ fold change, indicating transcriptional divergence and potential
functional specialization.
(E) Dot plot summarizing Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis of DEGs between the two
SMC clusters, with dot size representing gene set size and color indicating normalized
enrichment (z-score), highlighting distinct biological pathways.
(F) UMAPs showing marker gene expression specific to adventitial microvasculature cells (left
panels). RNAscope in situ hybridization on artery tissue sections validated the expression of
these markers at the spatial level (right panels), confirming the molecular identity of this rare
vascular niche.
(G) UMAP visualization of the expression of *MYH11*, *FN1*, and *TNFRSF11B*, genes associated
with medial and intimal SMCs, suggesting spatial or functional heterogeneity among SMC
subtypes.
(H) Spatial transcriptomics maps showing the localization of cells expressing *MYH11* and *FN1*
within the right coronary artery (RCA) (left and middle panels), coupled with RNAscope
validation of *TNFRSF11B* expression (right panel), providing high-resolution spatial validation of
gene expression patterns.
Abbreviation: Adventitial (Adv)
See also Figure S2 and Table S2.
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Figure 3. Adventitial fibroblast in human arteries.
(A) UMAP plots showing composite scores derived from the expression of collagen-related
genes (middle) and broader extracellular matrix (ECM) gene signatures (right), highlighting their
enrichment in specific cell populations. Cell type annotations are shown on the left for reference,
indicating that fibroblasts are the predominant ECM-producing cells.
(B) *PI16* RNA expression visualized on the RNA-seq UMAP (left) and Slide-seq spatial
transcriptomics map (middle), revealing specific enrichment of PI16-positive fibroblasts in the
adventitial region of the right coronary artery (RCA). This localization was further validated by
RNAscope in situ hybridization using gene-specific probes (right), confirming the spatial identity
of PI16-expressing fibroblasts.

(C) UMAP visualization showing RNA expression levels of canonical fibroblast marker genes,
including S100A4, PDGFRA, COL1A1, GLI1, SFRP2, and MFAP5.
(D) Differential gene expression analysis between fibroblasts and all other arterial cell types.
Each gene is plotted by its average $\log_2$ fold change and the percentage of cells expressing it,
highlighting fibroblast-enriched transcripts involved in extracellular matrix organization and
tissue remodeling.
(E) Violin plots showing the selective expression of key adventitial fibroblast genes, including
FBN1, TGFBR2, LOX, FBLN1, and *MFAP5*, which are associated with matrix assembly, TGF-β
signaling, and vascular structural integrity. These markers reinforce the functional identity of
fibroblasts as essential ECM-regulatory cells within the arterial wall.
Abbreviation: Adventitial (Adv)
See also Figure S3 and Table S3.
904
Figure 4. Distinct endothelial cell populations across vessels.
(A) UMAP visualization of single-cell transcriptomes revealing two major, transcriptionally
distinct clusters of endothelial cells, indicating the presence of heterogeneous endothelial
subpopulations within the human arterial system.
(B) Validation of endothelial cell identity using RNAscope in situ hybridization for the canonical
marker *CDH5* in the ascending aorta (left), alongside spatial transcriptomics (Slide-seq)
mapping of endothelial cells in the aortic wall (right), confirming their vascular localization.
(C) Sub-clustering analysis of the Endothelial 1 population, revealing finer substructures
suggestive of functional or anatomical specialization within this cluster.
(D) UMAP plots (top) and violin plots (bottom) depicting the expression of representative cluster-
specific genes within Endothelial 1 cells: *ACKR1* (left) and *HEY1* (right), indicating divergent
functional programs among subpopulations.
(E) Spatial validation of *ACKR1* (top) and *HEY1* (bottom) expression in the ascending aorta
using RNAscope probes, confirming the localization of transcriptionally distinct endothelial
subtypes in situ.
(F) UMAP (top) and violin plots (bottom) showing the expression of non-endothelial lineage
genes within Endothelial 1 cells: *PROX1* and *LYVE1*.
(G) Heatmap showing the expression z-scores of *HOX* genes across different vessel segments,
stratified by Endothelial 1 and Endothelial 2 clusters. The distinct expression patterns reflect
segmental identity and positional memory encoded by *HOX* gene signatures.
(H) UMAP plots displaying expression of Endothelial 2-specific genes *ITLN1* and *NRG1*,
highlighting their restricted expression pattern and suggesting specialized endothelial functions.
(I) RNAscope staining of *ITLN1* expression in the ascending aorta, validating the RNA-seq
findings and confirming spatial localization of the Endothelial 2 subtype.
(J) Dual RNAscope staining of *ITLN1* (blue) and *CDH5* (red) in the ascending aorta,
demonstrating co-localization of general and subtype-specific endothelial markers, with double
positive cells found only on the luminal/intimal endothelium.
(K) Dot plot showing the enrichment of biological processes based on differentially expressed
genes between Endothelial 1 and Endothelial 2. Dot size reflects gene set size, and color
indicates normalized enrichment scores (z-scores), emphasizing functional divergence between
these arterial endothelial subtypes.

Abbreviation: Adventitial (Adv)
See also Figure S4 and Table S4.
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Figure 5. Prominent roles of embryonic origin in adult vascular identity.
(A) UMAP visualization showing the transcriptional heterogeneity of major vascular cell
populations—smooth muscle cells (SMCs), fibroblasts, endothelial cells, microvascular cells,
and macrophages—across distinct vascular beds, indicating segment-specific cell states.
(B) Split-view UMAP plots displaying the segmental origins of each cell, revealing that within
each major cell type, transcriptomic profiles vary substantially across different arterial regions,
underscoring spatially encoded identities.
(C) Heatmap showing the z-score–normalized expression of *HOX* genes across multiple
vascular segments, in both SMCs and fibroblasts. The segment-specific expression patterns
indicate the preservation of developmental *HOX* code into adult vasculature.
(D) Hierarchical dendrogram clustering of fibroblast transcriptomes across vascular segments,
using *Euclidean* distances computed from global gene expression profiles. Segments are
grouped according to transcriptional similarity, which aligns closely with known embryonic
origins (e.g., neural crest vs. mesoderm).
(E) Heatmap quantifying the relative representation (percentage) of each arterial segment within
transcriptionally defined UMAP clusters, highlighting regional bias and the compartmentalization
of cell states.
(F) Violin plots depicting the expression of key transcription factors and developmental
regulators—*ISL1, HAND2, MEF2C*, and representative *HOX* genes—in fibroblasts from
ascending versus descending vascular regions. These patterns support region-specific
regulatory programs.
(G) Transcription factor binding motif enrichment analysis showing overrepresentation of ISL1,
HAND2, MEF2C, and HOX motifs in the promoter regions of differentially expressed genes
between ascending and descending fibroblasts. Macrophages were used as a negative control,
demonstrating fibroblast-specific enrichment.
(H) Heatmap showing log_{10}-transformed normalized expression values of *HOX* genes across
multiple vascular segments in six major cell types: fibroblasts, SMCs, Endothelial 1, Endothelial
2, microvascular cells, and macrophages. The distribution reveals cell type– and segment–
specific *HOX* gene signatures.
(I) Dendrograms displaying hierarchical clustering of vascular segments in fibroblasts (top) and
SMCs (bottom), based on the expression of *HOX* genes. Clusters reflect developmental lineage
relationships and segmental positional memory.
(J) Pearson correlation heatmap showing inter-segmental transcriptional similarity based on
HOX gene expression in SMCs (left) and fibroblasts (right). Segments are organized by
Euclidean distance clustering, revealing conserved spatial transcriptional identities within and
across lineages.
Abbreviations: ascending thoracic aorta (ASC), aortic arch (ARCH), descending thoracic aorta
(DESC), infra-renal abdominal aorta (INFRARENAL), iliac artery (ILIAC), coronary artery (RCA),
carotid artery (CAROTID), pulmonary artery (PA), and aortic root (ROOT), Neural crest (NC),
Second heart field (SHF)
See also Figure S7 and S8; Table S5.

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Figure 6. Enrichment of vascular disease variants in segmental transcriptomic
differences.
(A) Dot plot depicting the expression patterns of Mendelian aortopathy-related genes—*FBN1,*
FBNL1, LOX, MFAP4, MFAP5, and *COL3A1*—in fibroblasts derived from ascending (ASC) and
descending (DESC) aortic regions. Dot size reflects the percentage of expressing cells, and
color represents scaled average expression levels, revealing regionally enriched gene programs.
(B) Bar plot summarizing the statistical significance of expression differences for the same set of
Mendelian aortopathy genes between fibroblasts (FB) and smooth muscle cells (SMC) from
ascending and descending aortic sites, highlighting key regulators associated with thoracic
aortic disease.
(C) Violin plots showing the expression levels of selected aneurysm-risk genes in fibroblasts
(left) and smooth muscle cells (right), stratified by ascending versus descending vascular origins.
The distinct expression patterns suggest site-specific vulnerability to aneurysmal remodeling.
(D) Bar graph showing the number of differentially expressed genes in each cell type that
overlap with genome-wide significant loci identified in the Million Veteran Program (MVP)
genome-wide association studies (GWAS). Comparisons were made between coronary artery
or carotid segments versus the descending aorta, reflecting spatially distinct genetic risk profiles.
(E) Summary plot ranking the genetic overlap between MVP GWAS hits and differentially
expressed genes across coronary, carotid, and descending arterial segments within each major
cell type. Bars represent the number of overlapping genes, suggesting potential cell type– and
region–specific contributions to vascular disease susceptibility.
(F) Heatmap displaying z-score–normalized fold enrichment of Gene Ontology biological
processes in differentially expressed genes across coronary artery, carotid, and descending
segments, stratified by cell type. Enriched pathways highlight functional divergences driven by
both anatomical location and cellular identity.
See also Figure S9 and Table S6, S7, S8.
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Figure 7. Cell type and segment specific non-coding transcriptome.
(A) Heatmap showing the z-score–normalized expression profiles of long non-coding RNAs
(lncRNAs) across major vascular cell types, including fibroblasts, smooth muscle cells (SMCs),
endothelial cells, and immune populations. Distinct lncRNA signatures delineate cell-type–
specific transcriptional programs beyond protein-coding genes.
(B) Heatmap depicting the z-score–normalized expression of lncRNAs across different vascular
segments, highlighting regional variation and the potential involvement of lncRNAs in positional
identity.
(C) UMAP projections showing single-cell clustering based solely on lncRNA transcriptomes.
Left panel: clusters annotated using cell type identities derived from whole-transcriptome
analysis. Right panel: clusters annotated based on unsupervised lncRNA-only clustering. The
concordance and divergence between these two approaches reveal both shared and lncRNA-
specific cellular features.
(D) Hierarchical dendrogram clustering of arterial segments based on lncRNA expression
profiles, using *Euclidean* distances in SMCs (top) and fibroblasts (bottom). Clustering patterns

align with developmental origins, suggesting that lncRNAs retain positional memory reflective of
embryonic lineage.
(E) Top panel: Dot plot showing the overlap between MVP GWAS-identified SNPs and the loci
of differentially expressed lncRNAs, indicating direct genetic association. Bottom panel: Violin
plots illustrating the expression levels of these genetically associated lncRNAs, suggesting their
potential role as mediators of vascular trait susceptibility.
Abbreviations: ascending thoracic aorta (ASC), aortic arch (ARCH), descending thoracic aorta
(DESC), infra-renal abdominal aorta (INFRARENAL), iliac artery (ILIAC), coronary artery (RCA),
carotid artery (CAROTID), pulmonary artery (PA), and aortic root (ROOT), Million Veteran
Program (MVP), Coronary artery diseases (CAD), Single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP).
See also Figure S10 and Table S12.
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STAR★METHODS
Detailed methods are provided in the online version of this paper and include the following:

● **KEY RESOURCES TABLE**

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○ Functional and Motif Analyses

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○   Cell-cell Communications

○   Lnc-RNA Analyses

●   **QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

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Figure 1. Single cell RNA and spatial landscape of human arteries.
(A) Schematic illustration depicting the strategy for sampling eight anatomically distinct human
arterial sites, to capture the heterogeneity of vascular cell populations across the arterial tree.
(B) Heatmap showing the expression patterns of canonical markers and cluster-specific genes
across all identified cell populations. Representative markers for major vascular and immune
cell types are included to validate the cell type annotations.
(C) Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) plot of single-cell RNA-sequencing
data, demonstrating distinct clustering of cells according to transcriptional profiles. Clusters are
annotated by inferred cell types, including endothelial cells, smooth muscle cells, fibroblasts,
immune cells, and others.
(D) Spatial transcriptomics analysis of the right coronary artery (RCA). The left panel shows
spatially resolved cell type annotations overlaid on tissue morphology, while the right panel
presents a split-channel view, highlighting the distribution of individual cell types within the same
tissue section.
(E) Pie chart summarizing the overall composition of cell types in the entire single-cell RNA-seq
dataset, indicating relative abundance and diversity of arterial cell populations.

Abbreviations: ascending thoracic aorta (ASC), aortic arch (ARCH), descending thoracic aorta
(DESC), infra-renal abdominal aorta (INFRARENAL), iliac artery (ILIAC), coronary artery (RCA),
carotid artery (CAROTID), pulmonary artery (PA), and aortic root (ROOT)
See also Figure S1.
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Figure 2

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Figure 2. Smooth muscle cells of great arteries.
(A) UMAP visualization of single-cell transcriptomes showing the expression levels of key
mature contractile smooth muscle markers, including *MYOCD, CNN1, MYH11, ACTA2*, and
TAGLN. These genes highlight the identity and maturation state of SMC populations.
(B) Immunofluorescence staining of the ascending aorta tissue, visualizing the localization of
CNN1 (green) as a marker of contractile SMCs, with nuclear counterstaining using DAPI (blue),
confirming the spatial identity of SMCs in situ.
(C) UMAP plot illustrating the expression of *RGS5*, a known marker of pericytes and a subset of
SMCs, further delineating subpopulations within the smooth muscle lineage.

(D) Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) ranking between the two major smooth muscle cell
clusters, based on average log$_2$ fold change, indicating transcriptional divergence and potential
functional specialization.
(E) Dot plot summarizing Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis of DEGs between the two
SMC clusters, with dot size representing gene set size and color indicating normalized
enrichment (z-score), highlighting distinct biological pathways.
(F) UMAPs showing marker gene expression specific to adventitial microvasculature cells (left
panels). RNAscope in situ hybridization on artery tissue sections validated the expression of
these markers at the spatial level (right panels), confirming the molecular identity of this rare
vascular niche.
(G) UMAP visualization of the expression of *MYH11*, *FN1*, and *TNFRSF11B*, genes associated
with medial and intimal SMCs, suggesting spatial or functional heterogeneity among SMC
subtypes.
(H) Spatial transcriptomics maps showing the localization of cells expressing *MYH11* and *FN1*
within the right coronary artery (RCA) (left and middle panels), coupled with RNAscope
validation of *TNFRSF11B* expression (right panel), providing high-resolution spatial validation of
gene expression patterns.
Abbreviation: Adventitial (Adv)
See also Figure S2 and Table S2.
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Figure 3. Adventitial fibroblast in human arteries.
(A) UMAP plots showing composite scores derived from the expression of collagen-related
genes (middle) and broader extracellular matrix (ECM) gene signatures (right), highlighting their
enrichment in specific cell populations. Cell type annotations are shown on the left for reference,
indicating that fibroblasts are the predominant ECM-producing cells.
(B) *PI16* RNA expression visualized on the RNA-seq UMAP (left) and Slide-seq spatial
transcriptomics map (middle), revealing specific enrichment of PI16-positive fibroblasts in the
adventitial region of the right coronary artery (RCA). This localization was further validated by

RNAscope in situ hybridization using gene-specific probes (right), confirming the spatial identity
of PI16-expressing fibroblasts.
(C) UMAP visualization showing RNA expression levels of canonical fibroblast marker genes,
including S100A4, PDGFRA, COL1A1, GLI1, SFRP2, and MFAP5.
(D) Differential gene expression analysis between fibroblasts and all other arterial cell types.
Each gene is plotted by its average $\log_2$ fold change and the percentage of cells expressing it,
highlighting fibroblast-enriched transcripts involved in extracellular matrix organization and
tissue remodeling.
(E) Violin plots showing the selective expression of key adventitial fibroblast genes, including
FBN1, TGFBR2, LOX, FBLN1, and *MFAP5*, which are associated with matrix assembly, TGF-β
signaling, and vascular structural integrity. These markers reinforce the functional identity of
fibroblasts as essential ECM-regulatory cells within the arterial wall.
Abbreviation: Adventitial (Adv)
See also Figure S3 and Table S3.

Figure 4

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Figure 4. Distinct endothelial cell populations across vessels.
(A) UMAP visualization of single-cell transcriptomes revealing two major, transcriptionally
distinct clusters of endothelial cells, indicating the presence of heterogeneous endothelial
subpopulations within the human arterial system.
(B) Validation of endothelial cell identity using RNAscope in situ hybridization for the canonical
marker *CDH5* in the ascending aorta (left), alongside spatial transcriptomics (Slide-seq)
mapping of endothelial cells in the aortic wall (right), confirming their vascular localization.
(C) Sub-clustering analysis of the Endothelial 1 population, revealing finer substructures
suggestive of functional or anatomical specialization within this cluster.
(D) UMAP plots (top) and violin plots (bottom) depicting the expression of representative cluster-
specific genes within Endothelial 1 cells: *ACKR1* (left) and *HEY1* (right), indicating divergent
functional programs among subpopulations.

(E) Spatial validation of *ACKR1* (top) and *HEY1* (bottom) expression in the ascending aorta
using RNAscope probes, confirming the localization of transcriptionally distinct endothelial
subtypes in situ.
(F) UMAP (top) and violin plots (bottom) showing the expression of non-endothelial lineage
genes within Endothelial 1 cells: *PROX1* and *LYVE1*.
(G) Heatmap showing the expression z-scores of *HOX* genes across different vessel segments,
stratified by Endothelial 1 and Endothelial 2 clusters. The distinct expression patterns reflect
segmental identity and positional memory encoded by *HOX* gene signatures.
(H) UMAP plots displaying expression of Endothelial 2-specific genes *ITLN1* and *NRG1*,
highlighting their restricted expression pattern and suggesting specialized endothelial functions.
(I) RNAscope staining of *ITLN1* expression in the ascending aorta, validating the RNA-seq
findings and confirming spatial localization of the Endothelial 2 subtype.
(J) Dual RNAscope staining of *ITLN1* (blue) and *CDH5* (red) in the ascending aorta,
demonstrating co-localization of general and subtype-specific endothelial markers, with double
positive cells found only on the luminal/intimal endothelium
(K) Dot plot showing the enrichment of biological processes based on differentially expressed
genes between Endothelial 1 and Endothelial 2. Dot size reflects gene set size, and color
indicates normalized enrichment scores (z-scores), emphasizing functional divergence between
these arterial endothelial subtypes.
Abbreviation: Adventitial (Adv)
See also Figure S4 and Table S4.
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Figure 5

Figure 5. Prominent roles of embryonic origin in adult vascular identity.

(A) UMAP visualization showing the transcriptional heterogeneity of major vascular cell populations—smooth muscle cells (SMCs), fibroblasts, endothelial cells, microvascular cells, and macrophages—across distinct vascular beds, indicating segment-specific cell states.

(B) Split-view UMAP plots displaying the segmental origins of each cell, revealing that within each major cell type, transcriptomic profiles vary substantially across different arterial regions, underscoring spatially encoded identities.

(C) Heatmap showing the z-score–normalized expression of *HOX* genes across multiple vascular segments, in both SMCs and fibroblasts. The segment-specific expression patterns indicate the preservation of developmental *HOX* code into adult vasculature.

(D) Hierarchical dendrogram clustering of fibroblast transcriptomes across vascular segments, using *Euclidean* distances computed from global gene expression profiles. Segments are grouped according to transcriptional similarity, which aligns closely with known embryonic origins (e.g., neural crest vs. mesoderm).

(E) Heatmap quantifying the relative representation (percentage) of each arterial segment within transcriptionally defined UMAP clusters, highlighting regional bias and the compartmentalization of cell states.

(F) Violin plots depicting the expression of key transcription factors and developmental regulators—*ISL1, HAND2, MEF2C*, and representative *HOX* genes—in fibroblasts from ascending versus descending vascular regions. These patterns support region-specific regulatory programs.

(G) Transcription factor binding motif enrichment analysis showing overrepresentation of ISL1, HAND2, MEF2C, and HOX motifs in the promoter regions of differentially expressed genes between ascending and descending fibroblasts. Macrophages were used as a negative control, demonstrating fibroblast-specific enrichment.

(H) Heatmap showing $\log_{10}$-transformed normalized expression values of *HOX* genes across multiple vascular segments in six major cell types: fibroblasts, SMCs, Endothelial 1, Endothelial 2, microvascular cells, and macrophages. The distribution reveals cell type– and segment– specific *HOX* gene signatures.

(I) Dendrograms displaying hierarchical clustering of vascular segments in fibroblasts (top) and SMCs (bottom), based on the expression of *HOX* genes. Clusters reflect developmental lineage relationships and segmental positional memory.

(J) Pearson correlation heatmap showing inter-segmental transcriptional similarity based on *HOX* gene expression in SMCs (left) and fibroblasts (right). Segments are organized by Euclidean distance clustering, revealing conserved spatial transcriptional identities within and across lineages.

Abbreviations: ascending thoracic aorta (ASC), aortic arch (ARCH), descending thoracic aorta (DESC), infra-renal abdominal aorta (INFRARENAL), iliac artery (ILIAC), coronary artery (RCA), carotid artery (CAROTID), pulmonary artery (PA), and aortic root (ROOT), Neural crest (NC), Second heart field (SHF)

See also Figure S7 and S8.

Figure 6

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Figure 6. Enrichment of vascular disease variants in segmental transcriptomic
differences.
(A) Dot plot depicting the expression patterns of Mendelian aortopathy-related genes—*FBN1,*
FBNL1, LOX, MFAP4, MFAP5, and *COL3A1*—in fibroblasts derived from ascending (ASC) and
descending (DESC) aortic regions. Dot size reflects the percentage of expressing cells, and
color represents scaled average expression levels, revealing regionally enriched gene programs.
(B) Bar plot summarizing the statistical significance of expression differences for the same set of
Mendelian aortopathy genes between fibroblasts (FB) and smooth muscle cells (SMC) from
ascending and descending aortic sites, highlighting key regulators associated with thoracic
aortic disease.
(C) Violin plots showing the expression levels of selected aneurysm-risk genes in fibroblasts
(left) and smooth muscle cells (right), stratified by ascending versus descending vascular origins.
The distinct expression patterns suggest site-specific vulnerability to aneurysmal remodeling.
(D) Bar graph showing the number of differentially expressed genes in each cell type that
overlap with genome-wide significant loci identified in the Million Veteran Program (MVP)
genome-wide association studies (GWAS). Comparisons were made between coronary artery
or carotid segments versus the descending aorta, reflecting spatially distinct genetic risk profiles.
(E) Summary plot ranking the genetic overlap between MVP GWAS hits and differentially
expressed genes across coronary, carotid, and descending arterial segments within each major

cell type. Bars represent the number of overlapping genes, suggesting potential cell type– and
region–specific contributions to vascular disease susceptibility.
(F) Heatmap displaying z-score–normalized fold enrichment of Gene Ontology biological
processes in differentially expressed genes across coronary artery, carotid, and descending
segments, stratified by cell type. Enriched pathways highlight functional divergences driven by
both anatomical location and cellular identity.
See also Figure S9 and Table S5, S6, S7.
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Figure 7

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Figure 7. Cell type and segment specific non-coding transcriptome.
(A) Heatmap showing the z-score–normalized expression profiles of long non-coding RNAs
(lncRNAs) across major vascular cell types, including fibroblasts, smooth muscle cells (SMCs),
endothelial cells, and immune populations. Distinct lncRNA signatures delineate cell-type–
specific transcriptional programs beyond protein-coding genes.
(B) Heatmap depicting the z-score–normalized expression of lncRNAs across different vascular
segments, highlighting regional variation and the potential involvement of lncRNAs in positional
identity.
(C) UMAP projections showing single-cell clustering based solely on lncRNA transcriptomes.
Left panel: clusters annotated using cell type identities derived from whole-transcriptome
analysis. Right panel: clusters annotated based on unsupervised lncRNA-only clustering. The
concordance and divergence between these two approaches reveal both shared and lncRNA-
specific cellular features.
(D) Hierarchical dendrogram clustering of arterial segments based on lncRNA expression
profiles, using *Euclidean* distances in SMCs (top) and fibroblasts (bottom). Clustering patterns
align with developmental origins, suggesting that lncRNAs retain positional memory reflective of
embryonic lineage.
(E) Top panel: Dot plot showing the overlap between MVP GWAS-identified SNPs and the loci
of differentially expressed lncRNAs, indicating direct genetic association. Bottom panel: Violin
plots illustrating the expression levels of these genetically associated lncRNAs, suggesting their
potential role as mediators of vascular trait susceptibility.

1664 Abbreviations: ascending thoracic aorta (ASC), aortic arch (ARCH), descending thoracic aorta
1665 (DESC), infra-renal abdominal aorta (INFRARENAL), iliac artery (ILIAC), coronary artery (RCA),
1666 carotid artery (CAROTID), pulmonary artery (PA), and aortic root (ROOT), Million Veteran
1667 Program (MVP), Coronary artery diseases (CAD), Single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP).
1668 See also Figure S10 and Table S11.
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Figure 1

Figure 5

Figure 7