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The heterogeneity of dermal mesenchymal cells reproduced in skin equivalents

regulate barrier function and elasticity.

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Abstract

The heterogeneity of dermal mesenchymal cells, including perivascular

mesenchymal cells and papillary and reticular fibroblasts, plays critical roles in skin

homeostasis. Here, we present human skin equivalents (HSEs) in which pericytes,

papillary fibroblasts, and reticular fibroblasts are spatially organized through autonomous

three-cell interactions among epidermal keratinocytes, dermal fibroblasts, and vascular

endothelial cells. The replication of dermal mesenchymal cell heterogeneity enhances

skin functions, including epithelialization, epidermal barrier formation, and dermal

elasticity, enabling the *in vitro* evaluation of drug efficacy using methodologies identical

to those used in human clinical studies. Furthermore, we found that ascorbic acid-induced

epidermal turnover and well-aligned extracellular matrix synthesis via perivascular niche

cells play crucial roles in improving skin aging phenotypes. HSEs with heterogeneous

dermal mesenchymal cells will improve our understanding of the mechanisms underlying

skin homeostasis through cell-to-cell communication and serve as an alternative model to

animal experiments for the development of precision medicine.

Introduction

The integumentary organ system (IOS), which includes the skin, skin appendages, nerves, and blood vessels, plays essential roles in waterproofing, cushioning, protecting deeper tissues, excreting waste and thermoregulating[1]. The dermis, characterized by appropriate stiffness and elasticity, is anatomically divided into two distinct layers: the upper layer, called the papillary dermis, which is located directly beneath the epidermis and is composed of thin and poorly oriented collagen fibers, and the lower layer, called the reticular dermis, which is adjacent to the subcutaneous layer and consists of thick and directionally oriented collagen fibers[2,3]. Skin microcirculation is organized into two horizontal plexuses: one located at the boundary between the papillary and reticular dermises and the other situated at the interface between the reticular dermis and the subcutaneous layer[4]. The alignment of collagen fibers, skin appendages such as hair follicles, and the vascular system within the dermis conforms to the direction of intrinsic tensile force vectors known as tensional homeostasis, enabling the skin to function effectively as a cushion with optimal strength[5]. The dermal mesenchymal cells distributed within the dermis include not only papillary and reticular fibroblasts but also various subpopulations, such as dermal

papilla cells, arrector pili muscle cells, mesenchymal stem cells, and

pericytes[6,7]. Dermal fibroblasts not only synthesize extracellular matrix (ECM)

components such as collagen and elastin to regulate the flexibility and physical properties

of the dermis but also contribute to the structural and functional homeostasis of the IOS

through crosstalk with adjacent tissues such as the epidermis, hair follicles, and blood

vessels. This crosstalk is achieved through cell-to-cell communication mechanisms,

including the secretion of growth factors such as KGF, TGF-β, and VEGF and cell

adhesion signaling via integrins and laminins[8–10]. Analysis of cell surface marker

expression and single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) have progressively elucidated

distinct fibroblast lineages and their functional characteristics, defined by the expression

patterns of specific genes such as CD90, CD39, CD36, SFRP2, FMO1, and FAP[11,12].

Importantly, these fibroblast lineages are influenced by factors such as age, anatomical

location, and endogenous and exogenous stresses, resulting in changes that affect

physiological processes, including wound healing, fibrosis, atopic dermatitis, and

aging[13–16]. Consequently, they are considered promising mechanistic targets for next-

generation precision medicine and health care products[17].

Age-related declines in the epidermal barrier and cushioning functions lead not

only to medical issues such as senile xerosis and skin tears but also to aesthetic concerns

such as dryness, disrupted skin texture patterns, wrinkles, and sagging, all of which

diminish quality of life[18]. A reduction in proliferative Ki67-positive basal epidermal cells

with age leads to decreased turnover, resulting in epidermal thinning[19]. The epidermal

barrier function either remains unchanged or declines with age depending on the area,

increasing the risk of pruritus and dermatitis[18,20,21]. In aged skin, the papillary dermis is

relatively thinner, and the epidermal rete pegs and dermal rete ridges are shorter, resulting

in a flattened epidermal-dermal junction. This morphological change reduces epidermal

resistance to shearing forces and thereby makes the epidermis more fragile[22]. Additionally,

collagen fibers and elastic fibers, which constitute the basement membrane and dermal

layer, undergo fragmentation and reduction due to MMPs and elastase, leading to a

decrease in skin elasticity[23]. Simultaneously with the degradation of dermal collagen, the

extracellular matrix (ECM) of the vascular wall diminishes, leading to vascular atrophy,

reduction, and disruption of orientation[24]. This process is thought to destabilize not only

the nutritional supply to the skin but also the resistance to tensile loading[25,26]. *In vitro*

analyses of anatomically isolated papillary and reticular fibroblasts have revealed that,

compared with reticular fibroblasts, papillary fibroblasts exhibit high cell proliferative

activity and promote epithelialization through KGF production. Notably, these

characteristics are lost with aging or cellular senescence induced by serial passaging[27,28].

Moreover, recent scRNA-seq analyses of sun-protected human skin have shown that

specific spatial and functional transcriptomic characteristics exhibited by dermal

fibroblast subpopulations are lost with age, supporting the findings of *in vitro* studies[13].

Perivascular cells are also known for their active synthesis of ECM components,

including collagen and laminin, as well as their role in promoting epithelialization during

skin regeneration. The decline in perivascular cells associated with vascular aging is

suggested to be a potential contributor to skin aging[29]. Interestingly, aging-related changes

in dermal fibroblasts are highly sensitive to systemic metabolic shifts, and long-term

caloric restriction can reversibly prevent the senescence-associated phenotypic

transformation of dermal fibroblasts. In summary, the loss of cellular identity is a

fundamental mechanism underlying organ aging, and the development of therapeutic

strategies to delay aging through dietary and metabolic interventions holds great

promise[30,31].

Experimental models using animals with a short lifespan that allow for genetic

modification, cellular lineage tracing, and histological analysis have greatly contributed

to elucidating the mechanisms of aging. However, animal experimentation not only

requires careful consideration of interspecies differences with humans but also faces

increasing societal demands for a reduction in animal clinical studies[32–35]. Human cell-

based *in vitro* research models such as primary cultured cells, organoids, and artificial

tissues are being explored as preclinical research tools to replace animal

experimentation[36]. Primary cultured cells are fundamental tools for studying skin aging

and related diseases; however, the culture process significantly impairs the gene

expression profiles and differentiation potential of dermal mesenchymal cells such as

papillary fibroblasts, dermal papillae, and pericytes[12,29]. Organoids that replicate not only

the integumentary organ system itself, including appendages such as hair follicles, but

also its cellular heterogeneity are anticipated to advance the understanding of cell-cell

interactions within the microenvironment and to be applied in drug discovery screening

systems[37,38]. However, organoids are difficult to enlarge because of their oxygen

requirements and other reasons, making them unsuitable for tissue-scale evaluations of

functions such as the skin's barrier function and elasticity[39,40]. Human skin equivalents

(HSEs) can partially reproduce physiological skin functions such as its barrier function,

proliferative capacity, ECM synthesis, cellular signaling and responses to various stimuli,

and are utilized worldwide as alternative animal models for evaluating the efficacy and

safety of commercially available formulations essential for sustainable research and

development[41,42]. HSEs constructed using distinct dermal mesenchymal cell

subpopulations, such as fibroblasts, pericytes, and senescent cells, are ideal models for

visualizing the impact of cell-to-cell communication between target cells for research on

skin tissue organization[12,27,29]. Furthermore, HSEs enable the reproduction of

mechanobiological environments. We previously demonstrated that tissue-scale tensional

homeostasis regulates skin's structural and physiological functions, such as

epithelialization and ECM production, via myocardin-related transcription factor A

(MRTF-A) activation[43]. Based on the growing evidence linking dermal mesenchymal cell

heterogeneity and aging, generating *in vitro* research models that replicate skin's cellular

heterogeneity and allow for functional evaluation is essential for the development of

therapies to counteract the effects of skin aging[31].

In this study, we developed an HSE that replicates the heterogeneity of human

dermal mesenchymal cells, including pericytes, papillary fibroblasts, and reticular

fibroblasts, by utilizing commercially available primary cells, specifically normal human

epidermal keratinocytes (NHEKs), normal human dermal fibroblasts (NHDFs), and

human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs). We found that the cell-to-cell

communication among these three types of cells within a collagen- and fibrin-based three-

dimensional environment plays a crucial role in promoting epithelialization, dermal ECM

deposition, and the formation and stabilization of vascular structures by reproducing

dermal mesenchymal cell heterogeneity *in vitro.* Our HSEs replicated an aging skin

phenotype, including epidermal barrier disruption and reduced skin elasticity, in a 12-d

long-term culture in nutrient-poor medium, leading to epidermal thinning, an imbalance

in collagen synthesis and degradation, and a loss of vascular structural alignment. The

ability of ascorbic acid to mitigate these impairments in skin function was clearly

demonstrated via a human clinical trial protocol. This study provides an *in vitro*

evaluation platform that will contribute to the sustainable advancement of the health care

industry.

Results

Tricellular communication among epidermal keratinocytes, dermal fibroblasts, and vascular endothelial cells enhances the organization of skin and blood vessels.

In the development and regeneration of different organs, cell-to-cell communication plays an essential role in inducing and maintaining the differentiation of constituent cells[35]. Recent findings suggest that a specific subset of tissue-resident mesenchymal cells located close to blood vessels plays a key role in epidermal differentiation and ECM production[6,44,45]. Therefore, we hypothesized that by vascularizing an HSE and reproducing cell-to-cell communication on the basis of the reconstructed perivascular niche, it would be possible to construct an HSE that more faithfully replicates the *in vivo* characteristics of skin.

To investigate the role of communication among epidermal keratinocytes, dermal fibroblasts, and vascular endothelial cells in skin tissue formation, we reconstructed HSEs each incorporating one to three types of these constituent cells (Fig. 1a, b). All HSEs were constructed via the method we previously reported for reproducing tensional homeostasis in a skin model[43]. After 14 d of air lift culture, the reconstructed tissue was 12 mm in diameter and 1-2 mm in thickness. The E and EV

models were transparent and extremely soft (Fig. 1b). HE staining was used to visualize

the regulation of skin and blood vessel organization through cell-to-cell communication

(Fig. 1c). In the E and EV models, an abnormal epidermis lacking a basal cell layer

formed, whereas normal epithelialization was observed in the ED and EDV models. This

finding indicates that crosstalk between NHEKs and NHDFs is essential for

epithelialization. Endothelial tubes in the dermis were observed only sparsely in the V

and EV models but were distributed throughout the skin in the DV and EDV models. In

particular, the endothelial tubes in the EDV model tended to orient

horizontally along the skin surface and increased in number with increasing

distance from the epidermis. Sirius red staining revealed localized collagen

fiber deposition (Fig. 1d). In the ED model, collagen fiber formation was

confirmed at the epidermal-dermal junction, because of the well-known

interaction between the epidermis and dermis. In the DV and EDV models,

the collagen deposition distribution within the dermis was similar to that of

the endothelial tubes. Interestingly, collagen deposition at the epidermal-

dermal junction and around endothelial tubes appeared to be promoted in

the EDV model compared with the ED and DV models.

The morphogenesis of the epidermis, endothelial tube, and dermis in

each HSE was analyzed via immunohistological analysis. The results of

epidermal marker staining demonstrated that the epidermis of the ED and

EDV models exhibited a CK5-positive basal layer, a CLDN1-positive basal

to granular layer, FLG-positive keratohyalin granules, and a CK10-positive

stratum corneum, closely resembling the epidermis of natural human skin

(Fig. 2a). Furthermore, the number of Ki67-positive cells was greatest in the

EDV model and lower in the ED, EV, and E models (Fig. 2b). The trans-

epidermal water loss (TEWL) in the EDV model was 9.68 g/m^{2}h, and water

evaporation was significantly suppressed compared with that in the ED model (Fig. 2c).

These results indicate that dermal fibroblast-epidermal keratinocyte

communication, which promotes epithelialization and barrier function, is

enhanced by vascular endothelial cells.

Immunostaining for the endothelial cell markers CD31 and vWF

revealed active endothelial tube formation in the presence of both HUVECs

and NHDFs (Fig. 2d). In the DV and EDV models, the deposition of collagen

types 1 and 4 was observed around the endothelial tubes, suggesting that

fibroblast-endothelial cell crosstalk stabilizes the endothelial tube structure

through ECM synthesis (Fig. 2d). In the ED model, type 1 collagen fiber

formation in the dermis was stimulated around the epidermal-dermal

junction, whereas in the EDV model, additional strong type 1 collagen

expression originating from endothelial tubes was observed, resulting in the

formation of collagen fibers that spread throughout the entire dermis. In

addition, 3/4-length fragmented type 1 collagen, a product of MMP-8-

dependent type 1 collagen fiber digestion, was detected exclusively in the

dermal ECM of the E and EV models, indicating that keratinocyte-fibroblast

interactions control the balance between collagen fiber synthesis and

degradation (Fig. 2d). Natural human skin microcirculation is organized into

horizontal plexuses situated 1-1.5 mm below the skin's surface[4].

Immunostaining for CD31 and type 1 collagen revealed that the blood

vessels and collagen fiber in the EDV model were distributed in parallel to

the epidermal plane, and mathematical assessment via two-dimensional fast

Fourier transform (2D-FFT) analysis corroborated this observation (Fig. 2e).

The collagen network, which is arranged parallel to the skin surface,

functions to withstand mechanical forces acting perpendicular to the skin.

Therefore, we evaluated the elasticity of HSEs, a physical indicator of skin

aging and a correlating factor of wrinkles and sagging, using the Cutometer-

based protocol applied in human clinical studies. [46]. Skin elasticity could be

measured only in the ED and EDV models because the tissue in the other HSEs was

damaged by negative pressure loading. The ED and EDV models withstood 10 negative

pressure loading cycles (Fig. 2f). The R7 value, which is an elasticity index that is

reportedly associated with facial sagging, increased in the EDV model (Fig. 2g).

In conclusion, we have demonstrated that tricellular interactions

among epidermal keratinocytes, dermal fibroblasts, and endothelial cells

play critical roles in epidermal turnover, collagen synthesis, and

angiogenesis and are sufficient to enhance tissue-scale skin functionality,

including viscoelastic properties and the integrity of the epidermal barrier.

Cell-to-cell communication in a three-dimensional environment replicates dermal

mesenchymal cell heterogeneity that is lost in two-dimensional culture.

To evaluate the impact of vascularization on fibroblast heterogeneity in the HSEs,

we observed the spatial distribution of cells with positive markers for papillary fibroblasts

(CD39 and FAP), reticular fibroblasts (CD36 and CD90), and pericytes (NG2 and αSMA)

via immunohistochemical analysis (Fig. 3a and Supplementary Fig. 1). Fibroblasts in

the D model were positive for the pan-fibroblast marker vimentin, but the

expression of all the markers in papillary and reticular fibroblasts and

pericytes was barely detectable. CD39-positive cells were observed in the DV

and EDV models, and FAP-positive cells were observed in the ED and EDV

models. Interestingly, CD39-positive cells tended to localize around the

endothelial tubes, whereas FAP-positive cells were observed mainly near the

epidermal-dermal junction; similar patterns were also observed in natural

human skin. CD36-positive cells were distributed in the DV and EDV models,

and CD90-positive cells were widely distributed in the DV, ED, and EDV

models. NG2- and αSMA-positive pericytes were localized to the periphery of

the lumen formed by vWF-positive vascular endothelial cells.

Immunohistochemical analysis revealed that the fibroblasts

constituting the HSEs exhibited heterogeneity in terms of cell surface marker

expression, depending on the cell types included in the model. Therefore, we

conducted scRNA-seq to analyze the single-cell transcriptomes of dermal

mesenchymal cell populations within the HSEs. We profiled three samples:

the ED and EDV models cultured at the air-liquid interface for 14 d, as well

as a mixture of NHEKs, NHDFs, and HUVECs cultured separately under

two-dimensional conditions (referred to as 2D) (Fig. 3b). In an initial analysis,

we obtained an overview of the diverse cell populations by integrating the

cells from three samples. After quality filtering, a total of 23,911 cell profiles

were successfully obtained across all conditions. A uniform manifold

approximation and projection (UMAP) plot revealed three major cell

populations and 20 distinct clusters (Fig. 3c-left). Based on the existing

marker genes, we identified the four cell types (keratinocytes, fibroblasts,

vascular ECs, and pericytes) for each cell culture (Fig. 3c-right). The UMAP

plot illustrates the specific impact of each culture condition on the fibroblast

population (Supplementary Fig. 2a). The major fibroblast clusters under 2D,

#1, #6, #13, and #17, were relatively minor subpopulations in the ED and

EDV models. #0, #2, #9, #10, and #11 were major clusters in both the ED and

EDV models, but cluster #14, characterized by the expression of pericyte

marker genes (*ACTA2* and *RGS5*), was detected as a subpopulation unique to

the EDV model (Fig. 3d). We hypothesized that the formation and

maintenance of cluster #14 involves endothelial cell-fibroblast

communication and investigated this interaction via CellChat analysis[47].

Compared with cluster #9, cluster #14 showed increased signaling through

VEGFB-VEGFR1, PGF-VEGFR1, laminin-dystroglycan, and laminin-

integrin interactions (Fig. 3e). Compared with the 2D conditions, the ED and

EDV models promoted the expression of collagen fiber-related genes such as

COL1A1, COL3A1, COL4A1, COL4A2, and *COL5A3* but suppressed the

expression of elastic fiber-related genes, including *ELN* and *FBN1* (Fig. 3f).

This transcriptome change was more pronounced in the EDV model,

suggesting the contribution of cluster #14.

To investigate the biological significance of the HSEs' dermal

mesenchymal cell heterogeneity, we referred to a published *in vivo* human

skin scRNA-seq dataset from L Solé-Boldo *et al.* and integrated it with our

HSE datasets via the R Harmony data integration algorithm[13]. A UMAP plot

revealed four major cell populations and 11 distinct clusters (Fig. 4a). To

distinguish the results of this integrated analysis from those of the previous

in vitro data analysis, apostrophes were added to the cluster numbers

indicated in this analysis. The four major clusters were defined as

keratinocytes, fibroblasts, vascular endothelial cells, and pericytes according

to the expression patterns of marker genes (Fig. 4b). In the ED and EDV

models, similar to *in vivo* skin, fibroblasts were composed of mainly clusters

#0', #1', and #8'. In contrast, 2D-cultured fibroblasts contained very few cells

from clusters #0' and #8', whereas clusters #2' and #11', which are rarely found

in natural human skin, comprised their main subpopulations (Fig. 4c). Cell

cycle scoring via the Seurat scRNA-seq analysis pipeline (ccSeurat)[48]

(https://satijalab.org/seurat/v3.1/cell_cycle_vignette.html) revealed that cells

in cluster #2', characteristic of 2D-cultured fibroblasts, were in the G2/M and

S phases (Fig. 4d). L Solé-Boldo *et al.* defined four main fibroblast

subpopulations that could be spatially localized and showed differential

secretory, mesenchymal and proinflammatory functional annotations. We

reanalyzed this dataset to identify these four fibroblast subtypes as well as

pericytes (Supplementary Fig. 3). We then plotted the cells corresponding to

each subtype on the integrated UMAP plot (Fig. 4e). Next, we analyzed the

clustering ratios within the integrated UMAP plot for each of the five natural

human skin subpopulations of cells, including secretory papillary, secretory

reticular, proinflammatory, mesenchymal fibroblasts and pericytes (Fig. 4f).

The results revealed that secretory papillary fibroblasts and proinflammatory

fibroblasts corresponded to cluster #0', secretory reticular fibroblasts

corresponded to cluster #1', mesenchymal fibroblasts corresponded to cluster

#8', and pericytes corresponded to cluster #6'. We also investigated the Gene

Ontology (GO) terms enriched in cluster #0', which represents the papillary

fibroblast phenotype, and cluster #1', which represents the reticular

fibroblast phenotype. In cluster #1', GO terms related to collagen and elastic

fiber formation were particularly enriched, suggesting that the cells in cluster

#1' exhibited a phenotype closely resembling that of reticular fibroblasts (Fig.

4g).

In this study, we visualized the impact of vascularization. The results

indicated that 3D culture of keratinocytes and fibroblasts promotes the

restoration of the fibroblast subpopulations lost in 2D culture and that the

reconstitution of cell-to-cell communication with vascular endothelial cells

and skin cells is functional for the induction and maintenance of pericyte

subpopulations.

Nutrient-poor culture conditions in the HSEs induce a senescent phenotype, which

is suppressed by ascorbic acid.

Since blood vessels are central to maintaining organ homeostasis, vascular aging

is hypothesized to be a fundamental upstream factor of organismal aging[49,50]. During skin

aging, a reduction in blood vessels within the papillary layer and a decline in their

function are thought to contribute to the thinning of the epidermis and papillary dermis

due to impaired nutrient and paracrine factor supplies from vascular endothelial cells;

however, experimental evidence for this phenomenon remains limited[24–26]. To address

this limitation, we attempted to induce *in vitro a*ging in the ED and EDV models by

culturing them for 10 d in nutrient-poor medium (NP medium) with a low fetal bovine

serum concentration and depleted of bFGF and ascorbic acid. Moreover, ascorbic acid, a

well-evaluated antiaging material known for its antioxidant properties, ability to induce

epithelialization, and role as a coenzyme in collagen synthesis[51–53], was added to the NP

medium to evaluate its impact on HSE organization and skin functionality. HE staining

and immunohistological analysis revealed that skin tissue, including the epidermis,

dermis, and endothelial tubes with pericytes, was reconstructed even under NP culture

conditions (Fig. 5a). However, the number of Ki67-positive cells in the epidermal basal

cell layer was significantly lower in the EDV model than in the ED model (Fig. 5b). When

500 μM ascorbic acid was added, thickening of the CK5- and/or CK10- positive

epidermal layer and promotion of type 1 collagen deposition were observed in both the

ED and EDV models (Fig. 5a). In both the ED and EDV models, ascorbic acid increased

the number of Ki67-positive cells. Interestingly, when the ascorbic acid-treated ED and

EDV models were compared, the EDV model resulted in a significantly greater increase

in the number of Ki67-positive cells (Fig. 5b). In both the ED and EDV models, ascorbic

acid reduced TEWL and enhanced skin barrier function (Fig. 5c). 2D-FFT analysis

revealed that, compared with NP culture conditions alone, NP culture conditions with

ascorbic acid addition resulted in the CD31-positive vascular endothelial cells and the

surrounding type 1 collagen being oriented horizontally relative to the epidermal layer

(Fig. 5d). Furthermore, in the ascorbic acid-depleted EDV model, collagen fragments of

types 3 and 4 were deposited around CD31-positive endothelial tubes, suggesting

collagen degradation (Fig. 5a). NG2- and αSMA-positive pericytes were observed

surrounding the endothelial tubes regardless of the presence or absence of ascorbic acid

(Fig. 5a). Although no changes were detected in the ED model, skin elasticity was

significantly increased by ascorbic acid in the EDV model (Fig. 5e). In summary, NP

culture conditions enabled the *in vitro* replication of epidermal thinning, barrier disruption,

dermal elasticity reduction with imbalanced collagen synthesis and degradation, and

disordered vascular orientation, which are characteristics of *in vivo* human skin aging. It

was also demonstrated that ascorbic acid is effective in mitigating these aging-related

changes. These findings not only demonstrate that our HSE serves as a valuable tool for

evaluating the efficacy of functional molecules but also suggest that vascular endothelial

cells and pericytes play critical roles in the underlying mechanisms of action of these

molecules.

Discussion

Serial passaging often results in the loss of natural heterogeneous cell characteristics and functions due to selective pressures caused by the medium and the extracellular environment, representing a major obstacle to *in vitro r*esearch[29,54]. In this study, we demonstrated that the heterogeneity of dermal mesenchymal cells, such as papillary and reticular layer fibroblasts and pericytes, in natural human skin can be reproduced via the reconstruction of an HSE using NHEKs, NHDFs, and HUVECs that have undergone serial passaging. In particular, the EDV model containing a pericyte-like subpopulation significantly improved skin and vascular tissue structure, barrier function, and elasticity, enabling functional evaluation according to human clinical protocols. Furthermore, we demonstrated that nutrient depletion can partially model skin aging, making it a viable tool for evaluating the effectiveness of materials and elucidating new mechanisms of action. Our HSE, which reproduces fibroblast heterogeneity by using stably available primary culture cells, provides an alternative model to animal experiments that can be used to analyze the mechanisms controlling skin physiological functions based on cell-to-cell communication.

Fibroblast subpopulations differentiated from pluripotent fibroblasts during embryonic development have their own distinct distributions and physiological functions,

such as the potential to differentiate into dermal papilla cells, APM cells, and adipocytes[55].

Papillary fibroblasts play important roles in wound healing functions such as re-

epithelialization and collagen synthesis. Furthermore, it has been reported that papillary

fibroblasts derived from elderly donors have reduced proliferation ability and KGF

secretion levels, suggesting that this effect may involve loss of the papillary dermis, loss

of elasticity, and deformation of skin texture due to aging[27,28]. In fact, recent scRNA-seq

analyses of human skin revealed changes in fibroblast subpopulations in the skin due to

aging and disease, suggesting the possibility of developing new therapeutic strategies by

controlling fibroblast heterogeneity[11,13,56]. Animal experiments using gene modification

techniques have demonstrated that epidermal Wnt signals are involved in the induction

of differentiation of the papillary fibroblast lineage and have shown that intervention in

dermal fibroblast subpopulations controls skin morphogenesis and functionality[55].

However, due to the lack of appropriate *in vitro* research models and to ethical restrictions

to clinical *in vivo* studies, the prospects for applying *in vitro* findings for human fibroblast

heterogeneity to *in vivo* health care are unclear. In our HSE, fibroblasts induced by three-

dimensional culture were not only in the G1 phase but also differentiated into papillary,

reticular, and mesenchymal fibroblast-like populations, exhibiting properties similar to

those of native skin fibroblasts. Interestingly, cells positive for FAP, a marker for papillary

fibroblasts, were present near the epidermal-dermal junction in both the ED and EDV

models, but CD39-positive cells were observed only in the EDV model. This observation

suggests that keratinocyte-fibroblast communication is required for the induction and

maintenance of papillary fibroblast differentiation and that some subpopulations, such as

CD39-positive cells, may require interaction with vascular endothelial cells. In the future,

by elucidating the mechanisms controlling human fibroblast heterogeneity via cell

tracking and spatiotemporal gene expression control techniques, our HSE will contribute

to the development of cell therapies for wound healing and aging.

In addition to papillary and reticular fibroblasts, perivascular mesenchymal cells

such as dermal stem cells and pericytes play important roles in skin morphogenesis and

function. Pericytes play an important role as the major source of ECM production during

tissue regeneration in many organs[57,58]. Additionally, in a previous study, HSEs

reconstructed using human pericytes and fibroblasts separated by flow cytometry

promoted the proliferation of epidermal basal cells through LAMA5 expression by

pericytes[29]. In our EDV model, we also confirmed that epithelialization and dermal ECM

synthesis were promoted with the emergence of a pericyte-like population. However, our

HSE is unique in that it does not require fresh human skin and allows the construction of

a model containing NG2- and αSMA-positive pericytes in a relatively simple process

from commercially available subcultured cells. *In vivo*, pericytes are a heterogeneous cell

population, and even pericytes from the same tissue may originate from multiple

sources[59,60]. Integrative analysis of scRNA-seq data from natural human skin and our

HSEs revealed that although the pericyte-like population in HSEs clustered with human

pericytes within the same subpopulation, their distributions on the UMAP plot only

partially overlapped. At the very least, the induced pericyte-like cluster 14 replicates well-

known *in vivo* angiogenic processes through interactions with endothelial cells, such as

VEGFB and PGF signaling via VEGFR1, and basement membrane-mediated interactions

between laminins and integrins[61–63]. These results suggest that the pericytes in our HSE

partially replicate certain populations and functions of human pericytes, although the

origin of this cell lineage and the mechanisms driving its induction remain unclear. Cell

tracking experiments using fluorescent dyes or genetic modifications targeting HSE

constituent cells could contribute to elucidating the origins and differentiation

mechanisms of human pericytes.

In addition to replicating the heterogeneity of dermal mesenchymal cells, the

EDV model significantly improved dermal elasticity as well as skin barrier function.

This improvement in dermal elasticity is attributed to the active ECM synthesis

functionality of pericytes compared with other subpopulations, as well as the autonomous

recapitulation of oriented collagen fiber formation along endothelial tubes. Furthermore,

we found that culture under nutrient-poor conditions enabled the HSE model to replicate

the phenotype of aged skin, including epidermal barrier dysfunction due to reduced

proliferation of basal keratinocytes, diminished dermal elasticity due to decreased

collagen synthesis, increased collagen degradation by MMPs, and loss of vascular

orientation. In natural human skin, oxidative stress and dermal ECM degradation are

thought to cause vascular atrophy and reduced vascular density, leading to depletion of

nutrient and oxygen supplies to the papillary dermis and epidermis, which contributes to

aging. Our findings support this hypothesis. In our nutrient-poor HSEs, a reduction in

vascular density was not observed, which is likely attributed to VEGF in the medium

continuously inducing angiogenesis. Ascorbic acid, which functions as both an

antioxidant and a coenzyme for 2-oxoglutarate-dependent dioxygenases, has been

supported by substantial evidence as an effective skin antiaging agent. However, the

effects of ascorbic acid on the vascular endothelium and perivascular mesenchymal cells,

as well as its impact on skin mechanical properties, remain unclear. Our findings revealed

that ascorbic acid increased collagen synthesis in both the ED and EDV models but

significantly improved skin viscoelasticity only in the EDV model, indicating that

vascular endothelial cells and pericytes play crucial roles in regulating skin elasticity and

serve as target cells for ascorbic acid. Decreased skin elasticity not only reduces quality

of life due to skin deformation such as wrinkling and sagging[64,65] but also causes skin

tearing and is therefore a serious clinical issue in an aging society[66,67]. In summary, our

model is valuable for studying cell-to-cell communication between the vasculature and

skin, and it has the potential to contribute to societal improvements in quality of life

through the development of vascular-targeted therapies for aging and disease.

In conclusion, we reconstructed HSEs that reproduce skin fibroblast

heterogeneity, tissue structure, and physiological function in natural human skin. Further

research, such as elucidating the mechanisms controlling fibroblast heterogeneity,

evaluating the impact of each cell population on skin morphogenesis, and identifying

drugs that can control the decrease or increase in specific fibroblast populations, will

provide new insights into the fields of basic science, personalized medicine, and health

care. Our model will contribute to the reduction of animal experiments and the sustainable

growth of the health care industry as a versatile research model that can evaluate skin

functionality as an alternative to clinical research. In the future, it is expected that HSEs

that highly replicate skin cell heterogeneity and function will be developed by improving

their vascular structure through perfusion culture and providing cell-to-cell

communication via organoids such as the integumentary organ system and the nervous

system.

Methods

Cell culture

Normal human epidermal keratinocytes (NHEKs) were purchased from

KURABO Industries Ltd. (Osaka, Japan) and were maintained in HuMedia-KG2

(KURABO). Normal human dermal fibroblasts (NHDFs) were purchased from

KURABO and maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, MA, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Corning, NY, USA),

100 units ml^{-1} penicillin, and 100 µg ml^{-1} streptomycin (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs) were purchased from KURABO and

maintained in HuMedia-EG2 (KURABO). All cells were seeded into 150-mm dishes and

grown in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO_2 at 37 °C.

Reconstruction of the tension homeostatic skin (THS) model

The THS model was generated via the following procedure. A total of 24×10^5

NHDFs and 30×10^5 HUVECs were resuspended in 2.4 ml of 1.25 mg ml^{-1} bovine

dermis-derived native collagen solution (KOKEN CO. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) that was

mixed with 1× DMEM (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 15 mM HEPES (Dojindo, Kumamoto,

Japan), 10 mM $NaHCO_3$ (FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical Corporation), and 5 mg ml^{-1}

fibrinogen from bovine plasma type I-S (Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany); then, the

cells were plated in a high-density translucent-membrane cell culture insert (0.4-μm pore

size) (Corning, NY, USA) in 6-well plates. After solidification, the dermal equivalents

were held in place by a Snapwell culture insert (Corning). NHEKs were seeded at a

density of 1.1×10^6 cells/well on fixed dermal equivalents, and they were cultured in

growth medium under submersion conditions for 4 d in a humidified atmosphere at 37 °C

with 5% CO_2 and 12.5% O_2. After maintenance in a submersion culture, the HSEs were

exposed to the air-liquid interface in a humidified atmosphere at 37 °C with 5% CO_2. The

growth medium for culturing HSEs consisted of DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS,

1% penicillin/streptomycin, 5 μg ml^{-1} insulin (FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical

Corporation), 500 μM ascorbic acid (FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical Corporation), 10

ng ml^{-1} bFGF (PeproTech, NJ, USA), 1 μM hydrocortisone (FUJIFILM Wako Pure

Chemical Corporation), and 5 nM VEGF 165 Human Recombinant (PeproTech) and was

replaced with fresh medium every 48 to -72 h.

H&E staining and immunohistochemistry

For histological analysis, skin equivalents from three independent experiments

were fixed with 4% formaldehyde and embedded in paraffin or Tissue-Tek O.C.T.

compound (Sakura Finetek Japan Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). Hematoxylin-eosin staining

was performed on paraffin sections (10 µm thick). The stained sections were observed

via AxioScan.Z1 (Carl Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany). For fluorescence

immunohistochemistry, frozen sections (10 and 50 µm) and paraffin sections (10 µm)

were prepared and stained as previously described[38]. Details of the primary and secondary

antibodies and associated epitope recovery methods are included in Table 1. All

fluorescence microscopy images were captured with an AxioScan.Z1 or LSM 900

confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss).

Quantitative analysis of epidermal cell proliferation.

The proliferation rate of epidermal cells was quantified by counting

keratinocytes with Ki67-positive nuclei located at the basal or immediately suprabasal

epidermis. The measurement area was a total of 3 images obtained by randomly acquiring

three z-stack images of 1000 × 340 × 10 µm from HSE tissues that were derived from

three different wells.

Quantification of blood vessel alignment

Anisotropic alignment of endothelial tubes and collagen fibers was assessed via two-

dimensional fast Fourier transform (2D-FFT) analysis, as previously described[68]. Briefly,

uncompressed images of endothelial tubes labeled with anti-CD31 antibody and basement

membranes labeled with anti-COL1 antibody were analyzed with the FFT function of

ImageJ, and the radial summation of the FFT frequency plot was calculated via the Oval

profile plug-in. The degree of fiber alignment was reflected by the shape and height of

the major peak in the FFT alignment plot. Images with oriented blood vessels resulted in

a prominent peak centered at the principal axis of fiber alignment, whereas images with

unaligned actin fibers resulted in an alignment plot with a broad peak or no peak.

Single-cell RNA-seq library preparation

NHEKs, NHDFs, and HUVECs cultured to a subconfluent state were harvested

through trypsinization according to the product protocol. Briefly, the cells were washed

with HEPES-buffered solution (Kurabo) to remove the medium and treated with 0.025%

trypsin/EDTA solution (Kurabo) for 3–7 min, followed by the addition of a trypsin-

neutralizing solution (Kurabo) and centrifugation to obtain a cell pellet. Constituent HSE

cells were harvested through enzymatic digestion. On day 14 of air-liquid interface

culture, the epidermis and dermis of the HSE were mechanically separated using forceps.

The epidermal layer was enzymatically dissociated with 0.025% trypsin/EDTA solution,

while the dermal layer was incubated in 10% FBS-supplemented DMEM containing 5000

U/ml collagenase type 1 (Worthington Biochemical Corp., NJ, USA) in a 37 °C water

bath. The resulting cell suspension was filtered through a 70-μm cell strainer to remove

debris and centrifuged to obtain a cell pellet. Single-cell RNA sequencing was conducted

using the Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3′ Kit v3.1, Chromium Next GEM Chip G

Single Cell Kit, and Dual Index Kit TT Set A (10x Genomics) according to the

manufacturer's protocol (CG000315 Rev E). Cell viability and count were assessed using

a Countess 3 Automated Cell Counter following trypan blue staining and visual inspection.

The cell suspension was processed on a chromium controller for gel bead-in-emulsion

(GEM) generation, where polyadenylated mRNA was reverse transcribed to cDNA and

uniquely barcoded. The cDNA was subjected to amplification, quality assessment via

electrophoresis, and library preparation involving fragmentation, end-repair, A-tailing,

adaptor ligation, and PCR amplification. Library quality was evaluated using Agilent's

High Sensitivity D5000 ScreenTape system, and the DNA concentration was measured

with a Qubit 1X dsDNA HS Assay Kit on a Qubit 4 Fluorometer. Libraries were

sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 with PE150, generating approximately 120 Gb

of data per sample from ~800 million reads.

Single-cell RNA-seq data processing: *In vitro* skin data

FASTQ reads of 10× scRNA sequencing data were processed with the hg38

reference genome via Cell Ranger (v7.1.0)[69]. A total of 27,082 cells passed the quality

control steps. The processed matrices of different batches were merged, and the following

analyses were performed via SEURAT-1 (v5.0.3). Cells with 1,000 to 8,000 RNA features

and mitochondrial RNA contents of less than 7% were selected. The selected expression

matrix was normalized by the total number of UMIs per cell and was log-transformed.

The filtered dataset was split into original sample identities via the Split Object

function, followed by data log normalization of UMI counts and identification and the

identification of 2000 more variable genes per sample.

The integrated data were then used for standard cell clustering and visualization with

Seurat, which uses the 2000 most variable genes of the integrated dataset as input. Next,

we used the function FindIntegrationAnchors with default parameters and 30 canonical

correlation analysis (CCA) dimensions to identify the integration anchors between our

five datasets. These anchors were subsequently used for integration via the IntegrateData

function, again with the first 30 CCA dimensions and default parameters.

The integrated data were then used for standard cell clustering and visualization

with Seurat, which uses the 2000 most variable genes of the integrated dataset as input.

First, the data were scaled via the ScaleData function, and principal component analysis

(PCA) dimensions were calculated via the RunPCA function. Next, unsupervised

clustering of the data was performed with the FindNeighbors and FindClusters functions.

For the FindNeighbors function, we used the first 30 PCA dimensions to construct a

shared nearest neighbor (SNN) graph for our dataset. Then, we clustered the cells with

the function FindClusters via a shared nearest neighbor (SNN) modularity optimization-

based clustering algorithm with a resolution of 0.7. Finally, for visualization, we used the

RunUMAP function with default parameters and 30 PCA dimensions.

Single-cell RNA-seq data processing: *In vivo* skin data and data integration with *in*

***vitro* skin data**

In vivo skin single-cell analysis was carried out via methods described in

previous studies[13]. After mapping cell types based on the expression of marker genes for

each cell type, we further explored the correspondence between the clusters and the four

fibroblast subpopulations mentioned in the original paper. This was accomplished by

examining the expression of marker genes for papillary fibroblasts and reticular

fibroblasts, as well as the top enriched Gene Ontology (GO) terms for the four fibroblast

clusters. Consistent with previous studies, Cluster 1 was classified as secretory-reticular,

Cluster 2 as proinflammatory, Cluster 3 as secretory-papillary, and Cluster 9 as

mesenchymal.

To integrate *in vitro* and *in vivo* data, cells annotated as vascular ECs, pericytes,

keratinocytes, and fibroblasts were initially extracted from the *in vivo* dataset. The cells

from each sample were filtered under specific conditions: for *in vitro* samples, cells with

1000 to -8000 RNA features and mitochondrial RNA contents of less than 7% were

selected; for *in vivo* samples, the criteria were fewer than 7500 RNA features and

mitochondrial RNA contents of less than 5%. Following this, normalization was

performed via the SCTransform method. Using Seurat's default approach, the top 2000

genes with the most variability from each dataset were extracted. All the data were then

combined to compute principal component analysis (PCA) dimensions, and batch effects

between datasets were mitigated using the Harmony algorithm's RunHarmony unction

(parameters set to theta=1, max.iter.harmony=10). Unsupervised clustering of the data

was subsequently performed via the FindNeighbors and FindClusters functions. Finally,

for visualization purposes, the RunUMAP function was employed with default

parameters and 30 PCA dimensions.

Cell–to-cell communication analysis

To analyze the estimated intercellular interactions established by different cell

types present in artificial skin, we utilized R CellChat3 (v1.6.1)[70]. This tool can

quantitatively infer and analyze intercellular communication networks from scRNA-seq

data and contains ligand-receptor interaction databases (http://www.cellchat.org/). In our

approach, pairwise comparisons across all cell clusters present in the artificial skin dataset

were conducted, and the analysis was performed using the default parameters set by the

tool.

Evaluation of the epidermal barrier function of HSEs via TEWL measurement

Trans-epidermal water loss (TEWL) was measured in the HSEs ($n = 4$) using a

Tewameter TM HEX (Courage & Khazaka electronic, Cologne, Germany) according to

the instruction manual. Prior to collection, the skin equivalent was incubated inside the

biosafety cabinet for 15 min to allow equilibration to the ambient temperature and

humidity of the room. The measurement was repeated three times, and the average and

standard deviation of each well were calculated.

Measurements of skin elasticity

Skin elasticity was determined via a noninvasive, *in vivo* suction skin elasticity

meter, the Cutometer MPA 580 (Courage & Khazaka electronic). The measurement

conditions were the same as those used in previously reported human clinical studies[46].

Briefly, with a 2-mm probe, a negative pressure of 400 mbar was applied to the HSEs for

a period of 2 s, followed by 2 s of relaxation time, and the ratio of immediate retraction

(Ur) and the ability of redeformation of the skin (Ua) to final distension (Uf) was analyzed

(R2 = Ua/Uf, R7 = Ur/Uf).

Nutrient-poor culture of HSEs and evaluation of their responsiveness to ascorbic

acid

All HSEs were treated with nutrient-poor medium (DMEM supplemented with

1% FBS, 1% penicillin/streptomycin, 5 μg ml^{-1} insulin, and 1 μM hydrocortisone) at the

air-liquid interface on day 3 and maintained for 12 d. Then, 500 μM ascorbic acid was

added to the HSEs cultured at the air-liquid interface on day 5 and maintained for 10 d.

Statistics and reproducibility

Microsoft Excel (Microsoft, Redmond, WA, USA) and BellCurve for Excel

were used for statistical analysis. All values are expressed as the means ± standard

deviations (SDs). Analysis of the samples was performed at least in triplicate, and the

results were averaged. Differences between groups were considered significant at

$P<0.05$. All the experiments were repeated at least three times.

Data availability

scRNA-seq data from this study have been deposited into the Sequence Read

Archive (SRA) database under the BioProject ID. PRJNA1191968. All data are

available from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request.

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Figure 1 Tricellular communication regulates skin and vascular organization.

(a) Schematic representation of the construction method of HSEs. (b) Macroscopic

images of the constructed HSEs. The abbreviations for the HSE and the constituent cell

types are listed at the top of each image. Scale bars, 1 mm. (c) H&E staining images of

human skin and the HSEs at low (upper columns; scale bars, 200 µm) and high (lower

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tube. (d) Sirius Red-stained images of human skin and the HSEs; scale bars, 50 µm.

Figure 2 Tricellular communication enhances skin barrier function and elasticity

by inducing self-organization.

(a) Immunohistochemical analyses of human skin and HSEs for evaluation of

epithelialization. These samples were stained with CK5, CK10, CLDN1, FLG and Ki67

antibodies. The dotted lines indicate the boundary between the epidermis and dermis.

Scale bars, 50 µm. (b) Analysis of the Ki67-positive basal keratinocyte ratio in HSEs.

*$P < 0.001$, as assessed by Dunnett's test following two-way analysis of variance

(ANOVA; $P < 0.001$). (c) TEWL analysis of the ED and EDV models. *$P < 0.05$ and, as

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Immunohistochemical analyses of human skin and HSEs for evaluation of angiogenesis

and dermal collagen synthesis. These samples were stained with CD31, COL4, vWF,

COL1 and COL3/4 antibodies. (e) Macroscopic image of CD31 and COL1 distribution

(upper column) and FFT analysis (lower columns) of the alignment of CD31-positive

endothelial tubes and COL1-positive type 1 collagen fiber in the EDV model. Scale

bars, 500 μm. (f) Skin deformation curves obtained from the ED model (upper panel)

and EDV model. (g) R7 factor evaluation of the ED and EDV models. *$P < 0.05$ and, as

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Figure 3. The three-dimensional culture environment and cell-to-cell

communication replicate dermal mesenchymal cell heterogeneity *in vitro*.

(a) Immunohistochemical analyses of ED, EDV and human skin samples to evaluate the

existence and distribution of dermal mesenchymal cell subpopulations. These samples

were stained with the papillary fibroblast markers CD39 and FAP, the reticular

fibroblast markers CD36 and CD90, and the pericyte markers NG2 and αSMA. The

dotted lines indicate the boundary between the epidermis and dermis. Scale bars, 100

μm. (b) Illustration of the workflow for scRNA-seq data sampling and analysis. (c)

UMAP plot of scRNA-seq data for *in vitro* HSEs; the average expression of four cell-

type markers is projected onto the UMAP plot to identify cell populations. (d)

Distribution of fibroblast and pericyte cells under each of the three conditions. (e)

Cellular communication from vascular endothelial cells (ECs; Clusters #4 and #5) to

pericytes in Cluster #14 and to fibroblasts in Cluster #9. (f) Heatmap showing the

average expression levels of ECM-related genes across all fibroblasts under different

conditions.

Figure 4 Analysis of the biological significance of fibroblast heterogeneity in HSEs

through integrated analysis of human scRNA-seq data.

(a) UMAP plot of scRNA-seq data for integrating *in vitro* artificial skin and *in vivo* skin

data. (b) Average expression of established cell type markers was projected on the

UMAP plot to identify cell populations. Red indicates maximum gene expression,

whereas blue indicates low or no expression of a particular set of genes in log-

normalized UMI counts. (c) UMAP plot integrating scRNA-seq data from *in vitro* HSEs

and *in vivo* skin, showing the distribution of fibroblasts and pericytes across each of the

three *in vitro* conditions and the *in vivo* condition. (d) Cell cycle status of fibroblasts

under each condition. (e) UMAP plot showing the correspondence of the four fibroblast

subpopulations and pericytes defined by L. Solé-Boldo *et al*. (f) Proportion of cells from

each subpopulation as defined by L. Solé-Boldo *et al*. and their clustering into specific

clusters, as shown in Fig. 4e. (g) Enriched Gene Ontology (GO) terms in clusters #0'

and #1'.

Figure 5 Nutrient-poor culture conditions in the HSEs induce a senescent phenotype,

which is suppressed by ascorbic acid.

Histological analysis of skin tissue organization induced by ascorbic acid

supplementation in nutrient-poor cultured HSEs.These samples were stained with H&E,

CK5, CK10, CLDN1, FLG and Ki67 antibodies. The dotted lines indicate the boundary

between the epidermis and dermis. Scale bars, 50 μm. (b) Analysis of the Ki67-positive

basal keratinocyte ratio in HSEs. *$P < 0.001$, as assessed by two-tailed Student's t tests;

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UMAP plot of scRNA-seq for in vitro human skin data, and distribution of all cells

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a, A Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) plot presenting single-

cell transcriptomic data from whole human skin samples (n=5). Each point signifies a

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Mean expression of genes forming the papillary and reticular gene signatures applied to

predict the dermal localization of fibroblasts within the four clusters. **c**, The top 10

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arranged by p-value. **d**, The UMAP plot features the average expression of previously

established cell type markers to distinguish cell populations. Red denotes maximum

gene expression, while blue represents minimal or non-existent expression of a specific

gene set in log-normalized UMI counts.

Table 1. **Primary and secondary antibodies.**

Antibodies	Source	Cat#	Dilution ratio
Primary			
Anti-Cytokeratin 5 antibody	Abcam	Ab52635	1/200
Anti-Cytokeratin 10 antibody	Abcam	Ab9026	1/200
Anti-Claudin 1 antibody	Abcam	ab211737	1/250
Filaggrin Monoclonal Antibody (FLG01)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	MA5-13440	1/50
Anti-Ki67 antibody	Abcam	ab156956	1/150
Anti-Collagen I antibody	Abcam	ab34710	1/200
Anti-Collagen IV antibody	Abcam	ab6311	1/250
Anti-CD31 antibody	Abcam	ab9498	1/1000
Anti-CD31 antibody	Abcam	ab28364	1/50
Anti-Von Willebrand Factor antibody	Abcam	ab778	1/50
anti-Collagen Type 1 (3/4 fragment), pAb	AdipoGen	AG-25T-0113	1/50
Anti-alpha smooth muscle Actin	Abcam	ab5694	1/100
Anti-NG2 antibody	Abcam	ab139406	1/250
Anti-Fibroblast activation protein, alpha antibody	Abcam	ab207178	1/250

Anti-CD36 antibody	Abcam	ab252923	1/250
Anti-CD39 antibody	Abcam	ab223842	1/1000
Anti-CD90 / Thy1 antibody	Abcam	ab92574	1/200
Anti-Vimentin antibody	Abcam	ab8978	1/500
Secondary			
Alexa Fluor® 594 donkey anti-rabbit IgG	Thermo Fisher Scientific	A21207	1/500
Alexa Fluor® 594 donkey anti-mouse IgG (H + L) antibody	Thermo Fisher Scientific	A21203	1/500
Alexa Fluor® 488 donkey anti-rabbit IgG (H + L)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	A21206	1/500
Alexa Fluor® 488 donkey anti-mouse IgG (H + L)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	A21202	1/500

994   The table shows the commercially available antibodies which were used for

995   immunohistochemical analyses.

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