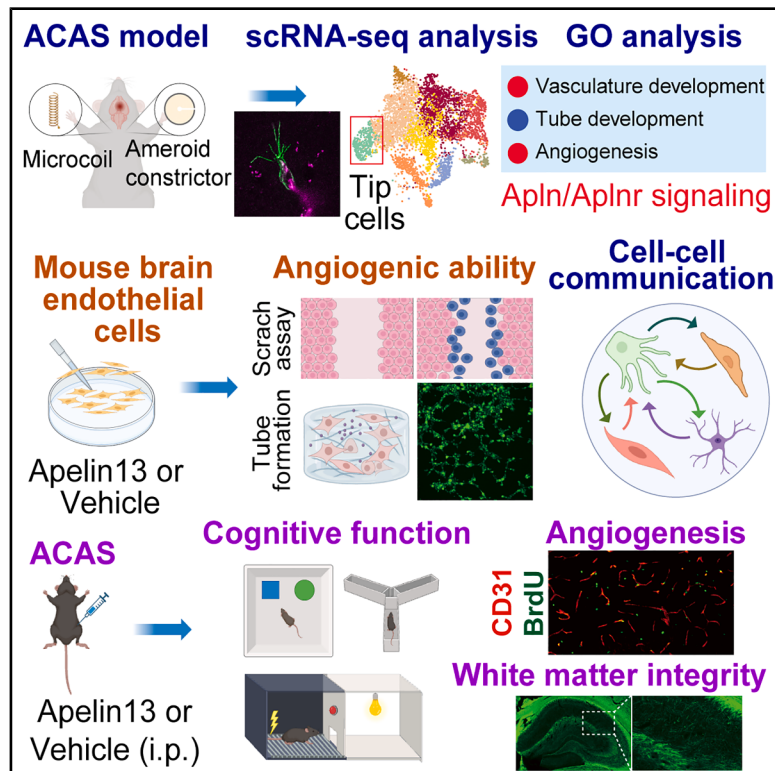


Single-cell transcriptomic analyses reveal angiogenic vascular responses to chronic cerebral hypoperfusion

Graphical abstract



Authors

Jiajing Shan, Ruyu Shi, Liyuan Jiang, ..., Rehana K. Leak, Jun Chen, Xiaoming Hu

Correspondence

hux2@upmc.edu

In brief

Integrative aspects of cell biology; Transcriptomics; Vascular remodeling

Highlights

- An endothelial tip cell subset appears in brain after chronic cerebral hypoperfusion
- Apelin/Aplnr signaling is enriched in tip cells and is associated with angiogenesis
- Apelin-13 improves angiogenesis and cognitive function after chronic hypoperfusion
- Apelin-13 enhances endothelial cell proliferation, migration, and tube formation



Article

Single-cell transcriptomic analyses reveal angiogenic vascular responses to chronic cerebral hypoperfusion

Jiajing Shan,^{1,2,6} Ruyu Shi,^{3,6} Liyuan Jiang,¹ Connor Dufort,¹ Wanying Miao,¹ Ting-wei Mai,¹ Junxuan Lyu,^{1,2} Julieta Barreiro,¹ Kong Chen,⁴ Rehana K. Leak,⁵ Jun Chen,^{1,2} and Xiaoming Hu^{1,2,7,*}

¹Department of Neurology, School of Medicine, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA

²Geriatric Research, Education and Clinical Center, Veterans Affairs Pittsburgh Health Care System, Pittsburgh, PA, USA

³Department of Human Genetics, School of Public Health, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA

⁴Department of Medicine, School of Medicine, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA

⁵Graduate School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Duquesne University, Pittsburgh, PA, USA

⁶These authors contributed equally

⁷Lead contact

*Correspondence: hux2@upmc.edu

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isci.2026.115331>

SUMMARY

Elucidating the mechanisms underlying vascular injury and repair may guide development of therapies against vascular cognitive impairment and dementia (VD). We employed single-cell RNA sequencing to map cell populations and explore vascular responses in mouse brains collected 42 days after asymmetric common carotid artery stenosis (ACAS)-induced chronic cerebral hypoperfusion. A unique tip cell type was identified among endothelial cell (EC) clusters and validated by immunostaining. Gene Ontology analyses suggested tip cell enrichment in angiogenesis and the involvement of *Apln/Aplnr* signaling. Immunoblotting confirmed an increase in apelin (*Apln*) protein after ACAS. In EC cultures, [Pyr1]-Apelin-13 (*Apln13*), a selective endogenous apelin receptor agonist, enhanced EC proliferation, migration, and tube formation. Treatment with *Apln13* also improved angiogenesis, white matter integrity, and cognitive functions in ACAS mice. Cell-cell interaction analyses highlighted astrocyte-tip cell crosstalk via *Vegfa-Vegfr* interactions.

INTRODUCTION

Vascular cognitive impairment and dementia (VD) is the second most common type of dementia after Alzheimer's disease (AD), comprising approximately 15%–20% of clinically diagnosed dementia cases in North America and Europe.¹ VD emerges under various conditions, such as aging, hypertension, diabetes, and hypercholesterolemia, which can interrupt cerebral blood flow (CBF) and induce hypoperfusion of the central nervous system (CNS).² Hypoperfusion initiates a cascade of toxic events in the brain, as it has limited energy storage capacities, and relies on oxygen and glucose from the bloodstream to meet its high energetic demands.³

The neurovascular unit (NVU) is a network of cellular and matrix components that regulate CBF and maintain brain functions.⁴ The NVU is composed of neural elements (neurons and astrocytes [ASCs]), vascular elements (endothelial cells [ECs], pericytes [PCs], and smooth muscle cells [SMCs]), and the basal lamina.⁵ Disruption of intercellular communication in the damaged NVU contributes to the onset and progression of various types of dementia, including VD and AD.^{5,6} As a key structural component of the entire circulatory system, ECs often lie at the root of vascular dysfunction.⁷ Cerebral hy-

poperefusion leads to oxidative stress and compromises EC integrity,⁸ which is followed by CBF dysregulation, blood-brain barrier (BBB) disruption, and decreased capillary density.⁷ In addition, EC dysfunction triggers the activation of surrounding cells, including pericytes, ASCs, and SMCs.⁷ This cascade of events compromises neuronal function and white matter integrity, ultimately impairing cognition.^{2,7,9} Aside from these adverse events, chronic cerebral hypoperfusion also triggers cellular responses that repair or regenerate damaged vessels, in a natural attempt to regain the blood supply and reestablish brain homeostasis. For example, angiogenesis, or the creation and growth of new vessels, has been reported in patients with VD or AD.¹⁰ Thus, a better understanding of EC responses and intercellular crosstalk in the NVU will elucidate molecular mechanisms driving vascular damage and repair after chronic cerebral hypoperfusion and facilitate the development of therapeutic interventions for VD.

In the present study, we employed single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) analyses to explore vascular responses to chronic hypoperfusion in a mouse model of VD. A distinct cluster of tip ECs with prominent angiogenic properties was identified. Further functional analysis suggested the importance of tip cells in angiogenesis and involvement of the



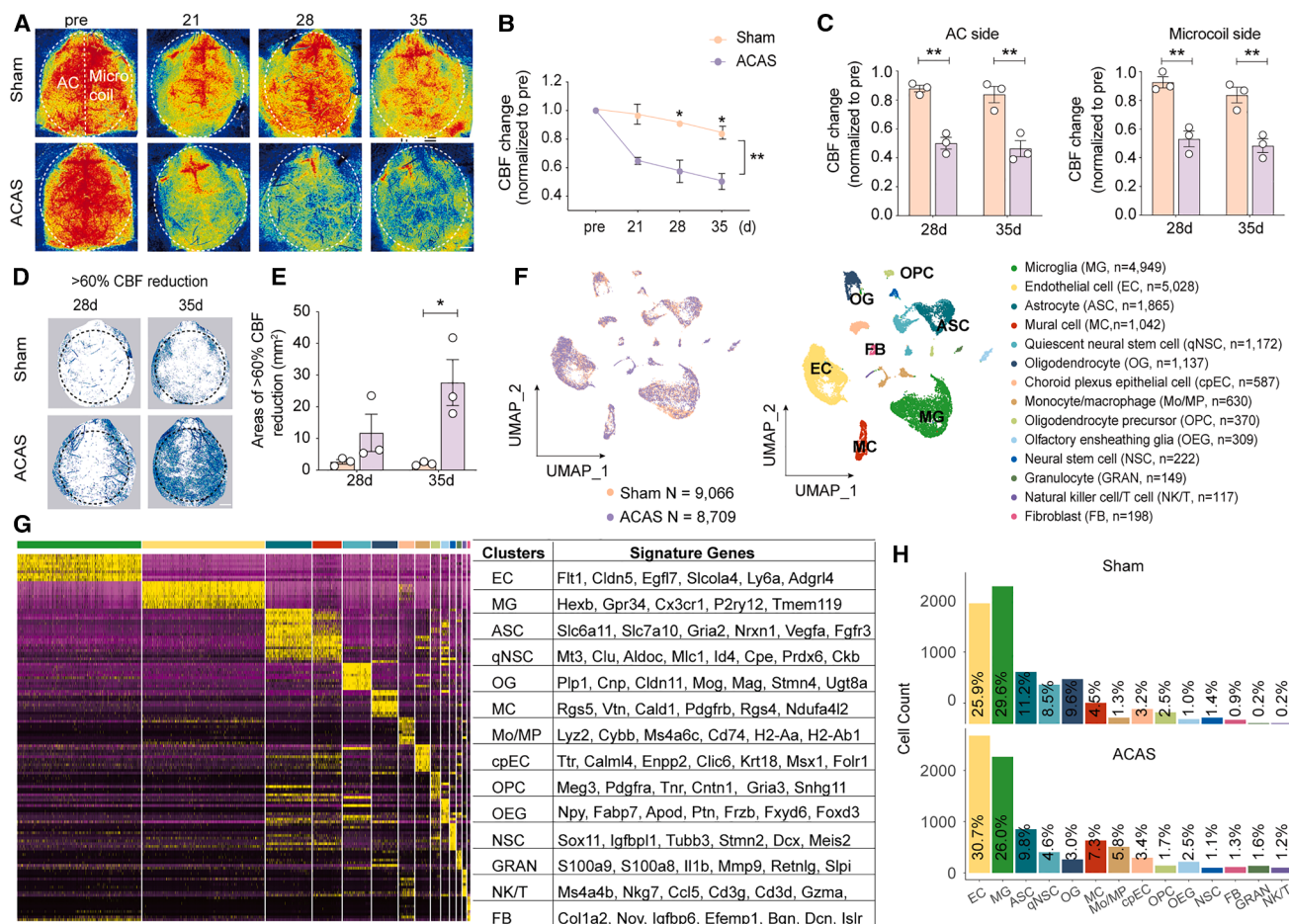


Figure 1. A chronic reduction in cerebral blood flow is associated with changes in brain cell composition

(A and B) Representative images (A) and quantification (B) of cerebral blood flow (CBF) before (Pre) and at different time points after asymmetric common carotid artery stenosis (ACAS). $n = 3/\text{group}$. Two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni test.

(C) Quantification of CBF on ameroind constrictor (AC) side or microcoil side of the brain 28 and 35 days after ACAS. $n = 3/\text{group}$. Student's t test.

(D–E) Representative images (D) and quantification (E) of surface areas wherein CBF decreased by more than 60% (blue) of baseline (white) values 28 and 35 days after ACAS. Student's t test.

(F) UMAP plots showing clusters and cluster annotations of brain cells obtained 42 days after sham or ACAS operation. The numbers of cells are in parentheses.

(G) Heatmap showing the top 20 markers for each cluster.

(H) Bar graph showing the numbers and percentages of cells in each cluster among total numbers of cells.

Data are shown as mean $\pm$ SEM. $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$. Scale bars: 1 mm.

apelin/apelin receptor (Apln/Aplnr) signaling pathway. We discovered that [Pyr1]-Apelin-13 (Apln13), a selective endogenous apelin receptor (APJ) agonist, enhanced angiogenesis, improved white matter integrity, and promoted functional recovery after chronic cerebral hypoperfusion-induced VD.

RESULTS

A chronic reduction in CBF alters the composition of brain cells

An asymmetric common carotid artery stenosis (ACAS) mouse model was used to explore the cellular responses to chronic cerebral hypoperfusion and investigate the mechanisms underlying VD. The reduction of CBF after ACAS was monitored by laser speckle imaging. A progressive drop in CBF was observed start-

ing at 28 days after ACAS in both the AC and microcoil sides of the brain (Figures 1A–1C). The area with severe (>60%) CBF reduction was also quantified 28 and 35 days after ACAS (Figure 1D) and was dramatically higher than sham conditions by 35 days after ACAS (Figure 1E).

Single-cell suspensions were isolated from mouse brains 42 days after ACAS or from mouse brains with sham operation and processed for droplet-based scRNA-seq. After quality control steps (Figure S1), 9,066 (51.0%) cells from two sham mice and 8,709 (49.0%) cells from two ACAS mice were jointly analyzed. Unsupervised clustering identified distinct cell clusters that were visualized using uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) (Figure 1F) and annotated into 14 major cell types: EC, microglia (MG), ASC, mural cell (MC), quiescent neural stem cell (qNSC), oligodendrocyte (OG), choroid plexus epithelial cell (cpEC), OPC, OEG, NSC, FB, GRAN, NK/T, and Fibroblast (FB, n=198).



epithelial cell (cpEC), monocyte/macrophage (Mo/MP), oligodendrocyte precursor cell (OPC), olfactory ensheathing glia (OEG), neural stem cell (NSC), granulocyte (GRAN), natural killer cell/T cell (NK/T), and fibroblast (FB). Each cell cluster was annotated by significantly enriched markers, such as *Cldn5* for EC, *Cx3cr1* for MG, *Vegfa* for ASC, *Plp1* for OG, and *Rgs5* for MC (Figure 1G; Table S1). The percentages of cells in each cluster among total cells demonstrated enrichment in vascular components of the NVU, including EC, MG, ASC, and MC, in both sham and ACAS brains (Figure 1H). The percentages of OG were markedly decreased, whereas the percentages of infiltrating immune cells (Mo/MP, GRAN, and NK/T) were higher in the ACAS brain compared to sham brain (Figure 1H).

A distinct endothelial tip cell population emerges in the hypoperfused brain

As the main cellular component of vasculature, ECs exhibit diverse but distinct phenotypic and functional properties. We re-clustered the 4,907 ECs (sham $N = 2,300$; ACAS $N = 2,607$) into subclusters and annotated them based on their expression of marker genes (Figures 2A–2C; Table S2). Five EC subclusters were annotated as EC in different blood vessel segments, including capillary vein (EC0, capV), capillary artery (EC1, capA), artery (EC2), vein (EC8), and tip cells (EC5) (Figures 2B and 2C). Two subclusters were identified as OG-like EC (EC6) and MC-like EC (EC7) because of expression of some marker genes for OGs and MCs, respectively. The identities of EC3 and EC4 clusters remained unclear due to the absence of distinctly highly expressed marker genes. One cluster was excluded from further analysis because it appeared to be a mixture with microglia, with high expression of microglia marker genes (not shown). Trajectory analysis indicates a tip cell axis (Tip) closely associated with capillary venous subpopulations (capV, Figure 2D). Transcriptional perturbations emerged across all EC subclusters after ACAS (Figure 2E; Table S3). For example, genes related to endothelial dysfunction (*Vwf*¹¹), EC apoptosis and survival (*Igfbp3*¹²), and cell senescence (*Cdkn1a*¹³) were significantly upregulated after ACAS in ECs from different vessel segments. Genes that regulate blood vessel remodeling (*Angpt2*¹⁴ and *Cxcr4*¹⁵) were upregulated in capV EC and tip ECs. Genes mediating paracellular junction and vascular integrity (*TJP1*,¹⁶ *Klf4*,¹⁷ and *ocln*), and anti-inflammatory factors (*Tgfb2*) were downregulated in capV, capA, and artery ECs. Expression of multiple transporter genes (*Trt*,¹⁸ *SLC6A6*,¹⁹ and *Slc7a5*²⁰) was also downregulated in different clusters of ECs.

Changes in EC composition were noted after ACAS (Figure 2B). Most prominently, the tip EC population (EC5) is highly present after ACAS but low in the sham brain (ACAS $n = 258$ in total; sham $n = 34$ in total; Figure 2B). These tip ECs are readily distinguished by their transcriptome, such as the high expression of *Cd93* and *Mcam* (Figure 2F). Kinetic plots of relative expression of venous to arterial marker genes across pseudotime reveal a phenotypic continuum of arterial-to-venous gene expression (Figures S2A–S2C). The proximity of tip ECs to the capV cluster is consistent with previous findings that the tip cells emerge from veins^{21,22} (Figures 2D and S2A–S2C).

Isolectin B4 immunostaining was then performed to visualize tip EC morphology in the brain 35 days after ACAS. High-resolution imaging of isolectin B4-stained cells revealed tip ECs with extended filopodia (Figure 2G). These cells were immunonegative for Iba1 signal, indicating that they are unlikely to be microglia/macrophages. We then double stained tip EC marker CD93 with the endothelial marker CD31 and observed CD93⁺ endothelial filopodia in CD31⁺ cells 14, 35, and 56 days after ACAS (Figures 2H and S3). As expected, the number of CD93⁺CD31⁺ tip ECs was significantly higher in the ACAS compared to sham brain in both the hippocampus (Figure 2I) and striatum (Figure 2J) across all time points.

Endothelial tip cells are related to angiogenesis and apelin signaling in the hypoperfused brain

To further characterize tip cells, we performed a differential expression gene (DEG) analysis comparing tip cells to other ECs, focusing specifically on ACAS brains (Figure 3A; Table S4). Gene Ontology (GO) analysis of upregulated DEGs in tip ECs compared to other ECs revealed significant enrichment in biological processes related to angiogenesis and developmental morphogenesis (Figures 3B; Table S5), suggesting a potential function of tip EC in new vessel generation under chronic hypoperfusion. In addition, we observed enriched terms related to the extracellular space and the basement collagen-containing structural matrix, suggesting a role for tip ECs in remodeling vascular structure. We also noted the involvement of *Apln*, which encodes apelin, and *Aplnr*, which encodes apelin receptor signaling, in these biological terms (Figure 3B). Expression of both *Apln* and *Aplnr* was highly enriched in tip ECs (Figure 3C). *Apln* and *Aplnr* mediate multiple biological processes, including vasculature development, angiogenesis, circulatory system development, and tube morphogenesis (Figures 3B and S2D). There was little colocalization of *Apln* with *Aplnr* within individual tip cells (Figure 3D),

(D) Pseudotime trajectory analysis of five major EC subclusters.

(E) Horizontal volcano plots showing up- (top) and downregulated (bottom) genes in each EC subcluster ($|\log_2 \text{FC}| > 0.25$ and Bonferroni-adjusted $p < 0.05$).

(F) UMAP visualization showing the distinct color-coded tip cell subcluster in ACAS and sham conditions (left) and joint density plot showing the co-expression visualization of *Mcam* and *Cd93* (right).

(G) Representative image of immunostaining for Isolectin B4 (red) and microglia marker Iba1 (green) in the brain 35 days after ACAS, with DAPI nuclear staining (blue). White arrowheads indicate Isolectin⁺Iba1[−] tip cells.

(H) Representative immunostaining images of EC marker CD31 (magenta) and tip cell marker CD93 (green) in the brain 35 days after ACAS. White dashed rectangles in a low power image indicate individual tip cells (No. 1–4). High power images of cell No. 2 and No. 3 were displayed in the right image.

(I and J) Quantification of the numbers of CD93⁺CD31⁺ tip ECs in the hippocampus (I) and striatum (J) of the brain 14, 35, and 56 days after ACAS. $n = 5$ –7/group. One-way ANOVA test.

Data are shown as mean $\pm$ SEM. *** $p < 0.001$. Scale bars are indicated in images.

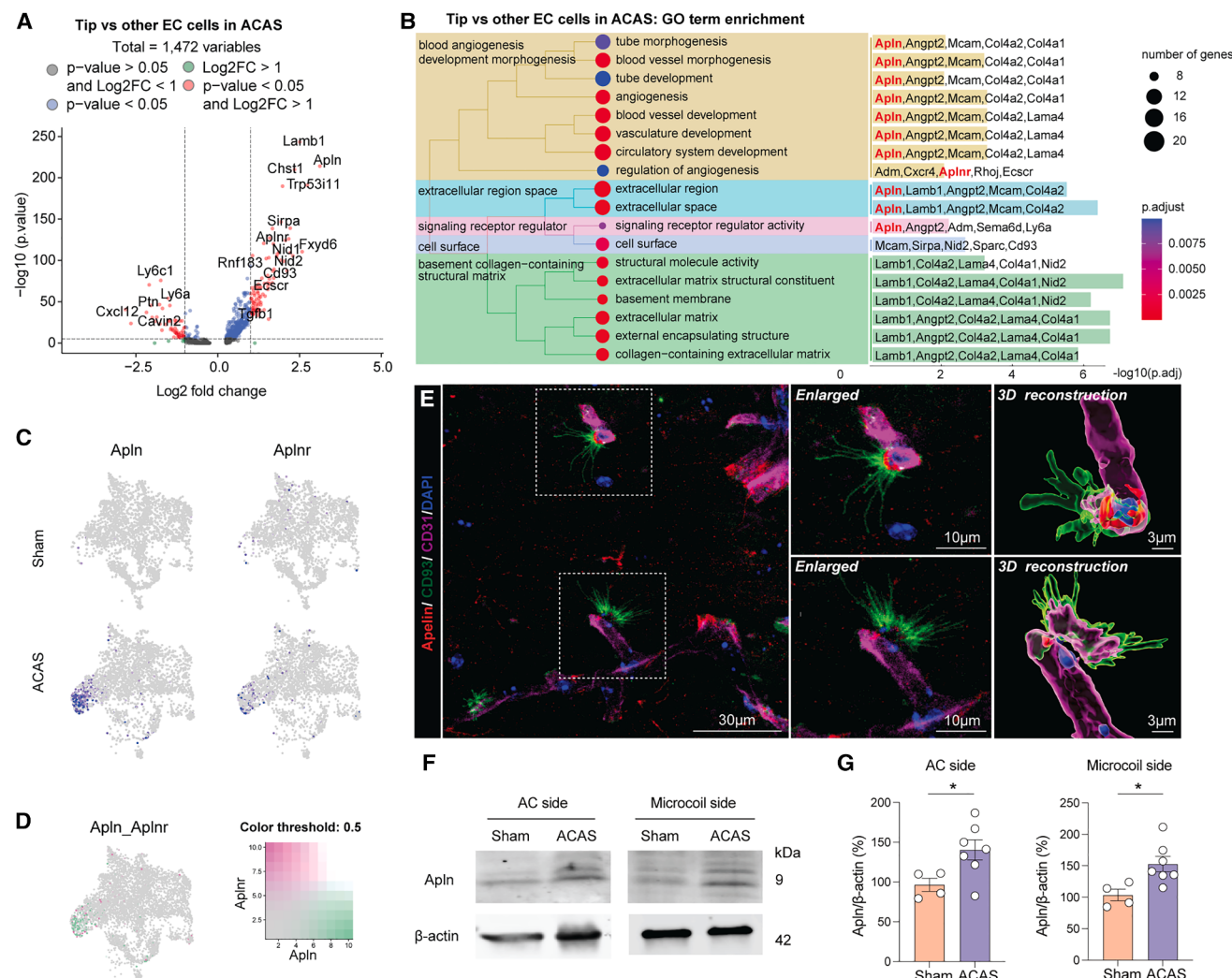


Figure 3. Tip cells show enhanced function in angiogenesis with an upregulation in *Apln* after VD

(A) Volcano plot showing a total of 1,472 up- (right) and downregulated (left) DEGs ($|\log_2 \text{FC}| > 1$ and Bonferroni-adjusted p value < 0.05) of tip cells versus other EC subclusters in ACAS brains.

(B) Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis of DEGs identified in (A). Five major classes of GO terms were identified. Top genes of each plotted GO term are shown in the right. Dot colors representing the significance level ($-\log_{10}(\text{adjusted } p \text{ value})$) and dot sizes indicating the number of genes in each category.

(C) UMAP plot showing expression of *Apln* and *Aplnr* in ACAS and sham cells.

(D) UMAP plots depicting the co-expression visualization of *Apln* and *Aplnr* in ECs. The colors represent scaled expression levels.

(E) Representative immunostaining images of *Apln* (red), tip cell marker CD93 (green), endothelial cell marker CD31 (magenta), and DAPI nuclear staining (blue) in the brain 35 days after ACAS. The *Apln*⁺CD93⁺CD31⁺ tip cells in white squares are enlarged and 3D reconstructed to show colocalization.

(F) Representative images of western blots for *Apln* in brain 35 days after ACAS or sham operation.

(G) Quantification of protein levels of *Apln*. β -actin was used as a loading control. $n = 4$ –7/group.

Student's t test. Data are shown as mean $\pm$ SEM. * $p < 0.05$. Scale bars are indicated in images.

suggesting that *Apln* may act on other tip cells through paracrine rather than autocrine signaling. Immunostaining confirmed *Apln* expression within CD93⁺CD31⁺ tip cells in the ACAS brain (Figure 3E). Western blotting was performed on brain lysates collected 35 days after ACAS or sham operation. Several *Apln* bands were observed, which are consistent with the multi-isoforms of *Apln*.²³ *Apln* expression increased in both the AC and microcoil hemispheres of the brain after ACAS (Figures 3F–3G and S4). Together, these data suggest

a role for tip ECs in angiogenesis after ACAS and point to potential involvement of apelin/APJ signaling in angiogenesis after chronic hypoperfusion.

The endogenous apelin receptor ligand, *Apln13*, promotes angiogenesis in cultured brain microvascular endothelial cells

Next, we investigated the effects of *Apln13*, a highly potent pyroglutamyl form of APJ agonist, on EC proliferation and

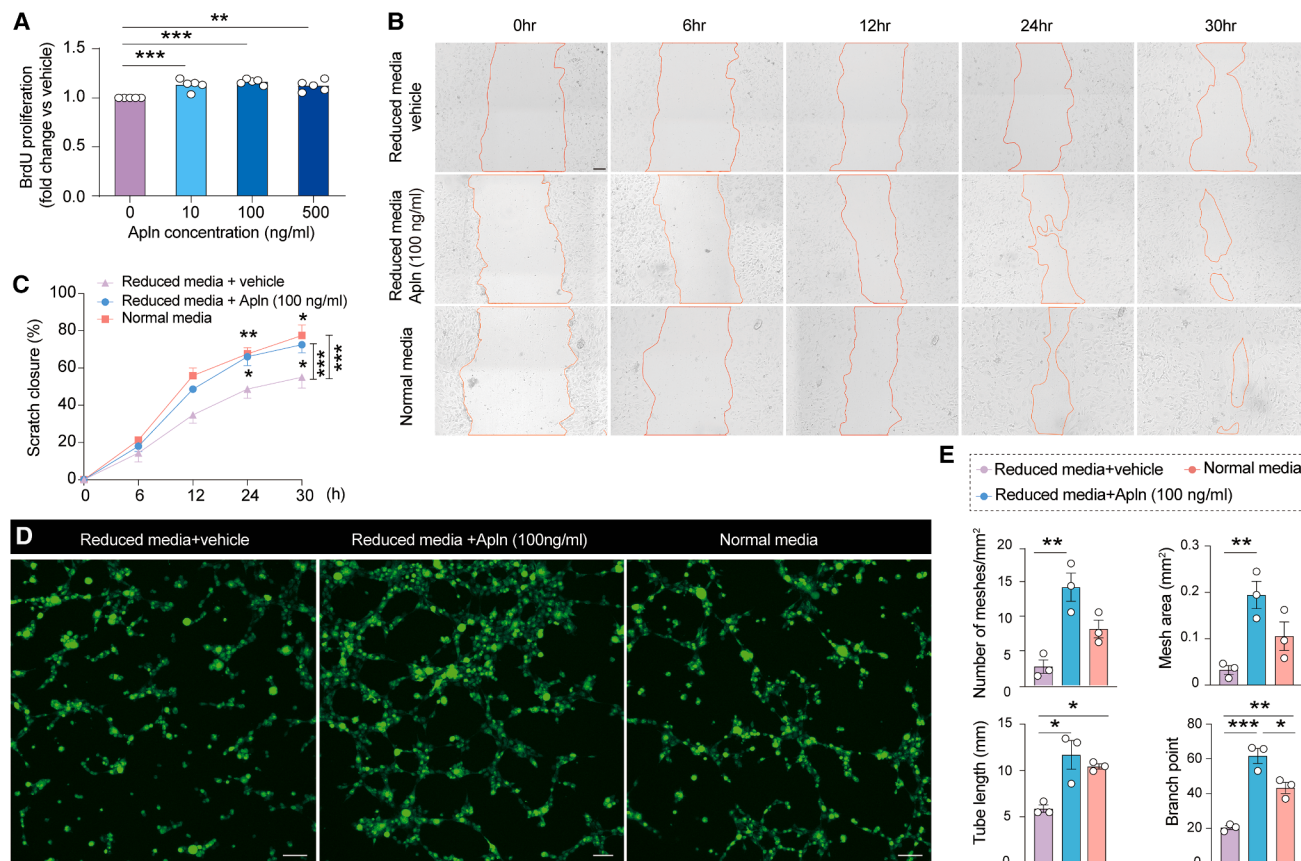


Figure 4. Apelin treatment promotes *in vitro* angiogenesis in cultures of mouse brain microvascular ECs

(A) Proliferation analysis under different concentrations of Apelin treatment (0, 10, 100, and 500 ng/mL) for 20 h. $n = 5$ /group. One-way ANOVA and Dunnett. (B and C) *In vitro* scratch assay in mBMEC cultures in reduced growth media (2% FBS) with vehicle or Apelin treatment (100 ng/mL). Normal growth media (5% FBS) was used as a positive control. Scratch area closure was assessed after 0, 6, 12, 24, and 30 h. (B) Representative images showing the scratched area (red outline). Scale bars: 100 μ m. (C) Quantitative analysis of scratch closure at indicated time points. $n = 3$ –4/group. two-way ANOVA and Dunnett. (D and E) Tube formation experiment. The mBMECs in matrix gels were treated with vehicle or Apelin (100 ng/mL) in reduced growth media (2% FBS) or cultured in normal growth media (5% FBS) for 4 h. (D) Representative images of tubular-like structures. Scale bars: 100 μ m. (E) Quantitative analysis of mesh numbers, mesh covered area, total tube length, and branchpoints in the culture. One-way ANOVA and Tukey. $n = 3$ /group. Data are shown as mean $\pm$ SEM. * $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

angiogenic activities in mouse brain microvascular ECs (mBMECs). Apelin treatment at 10, 100, or 500 ng/mL without VEGF in culture media enhanced EC proliferation, as shown by increased BrdU incorporation, with similar efficacies (Figure 4A). Interestingly, although Apelin or VEGF alone promoted mBMEC proliferation, no robust synergetic or additive effect was observed when mBMECs were treated with VEGF and Apelin together (Figure S5A).

The scratch assay demonstrated that Apelin treatment at 100 ng/mL increased EC migration and facilitated *in vitro* wound closure compared to vehicle-treated ECs (Figures 4B–4C). Moreover, the tube formation assay revealed that Apelin increased the formation of EC tubular structures in the matrix gel, with more meshes, higher mesh-covered areas, longer tube lengths, and an increased number of branchpoints (Figures 4D and 4E). No synergetic or additive effects were observed in scratch assay or tube formation assay with VEGF and Apelin cotreatment (Figures S5B and S5C). Collectively,

these results demonstrate that Apelin treatment promotes *in vitro* angiogenic activities in mBMECs.

Apelin enhances angiogenesis, white matter integrity, and cognitive functions in mice subjected to chronic cerebral hypoperfusion

To further elucidate the function of apelin in angiogenesis after chronic hypoperfusion-induced VD, we administered Apelin to ACAS mice. C57BL/6 mice received Apelin (300 μ g/kg body weight)²⁴ or an equal volume of vehicle, starting at 14 days after surgery and repeated three times a week for 4 weeks (Figure 5A). BrdU (50 mg/kg) was injected once a day on day 14–17 and day 29–32 after ACAS to label newly generated cells. Mice were sacrificed 42 days after ACAS. We found that ACAS impaired cognitive functions, as detected by less time spent exploring a novel object (Figure 5B), fewer successful alternations in the Y maze (Figure 5C), and faster entry into a room associated with electric shock in the passive avoidance test (Figure 5D).

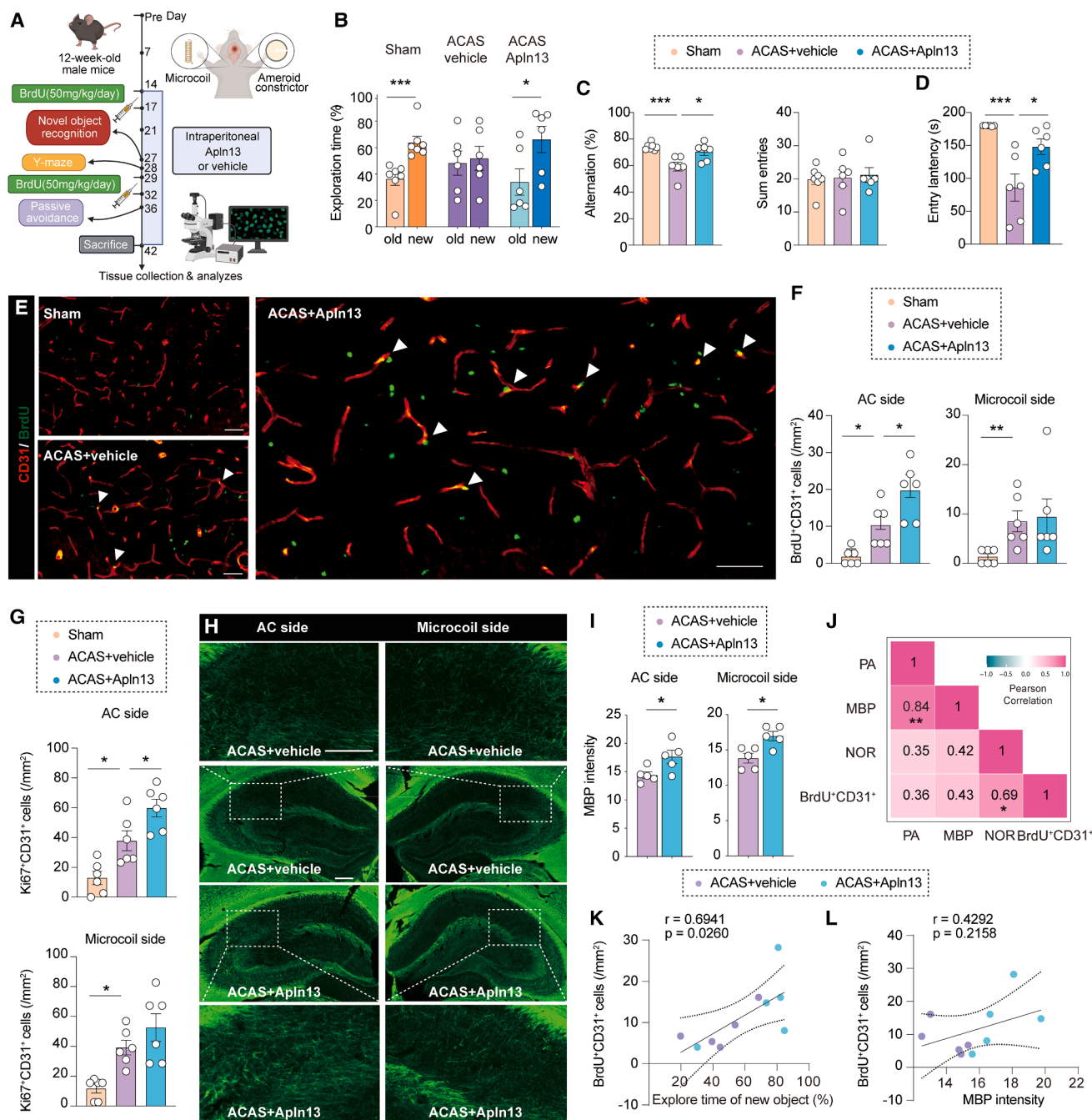


Figure 5. Aplin13 treatment promotes angiogenesis and improves cognitive functions after ACAS

(A) Experimental design (created with [BioRender.com](#)).

(B) Novel object recognition (NOR) test 27 days after ACAS. Percentages of exploration time for familiar (old) versus novel (new) objects were recorded. $n = 6-7$ /group. Student's t test between the percentages of time spent on the old object and time spent on the new object.

(C) Y-maze. Percentages of successful alternation and total numbers of entries were recorded 28 days after ACAS. $n = 6-7$ /group. One-way ANOVA and Dunnett.

(D) Passive avoidance. The latency to enter the dark chamber was recorded 36 days after ACAS. $n = 6-7$ /group. One-way ANOVA and Dunnett.

(E and F) Representative immunostaining images (E) and quantification (F) of BrdU (green) and CD31 (red) positive cells in the hippocampal area 42 days after ACAS. $n = 6-7$ /group. One-way ANOVA and Dunnett for AC side. Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn for microcoil side. Scale bars: 50 μ m. White arrow heads indicate the BrdU⁺CD31⁺ cells.

(G) Quantification of Ki67⁺CD31⁺ cells in the hippocampal area 42 days after ACAS. $n = 6$ /group. One-way ANOVA and Dunnett for AC side. Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn for microcoil side.

(legend continued on next page)

Furthermore, APln13 treatment reduced each of these cognitive deficits compared to vehicle (Figures 5B–5D).

We assessed angiogenesis in APln13- and vehicle-treated mice 42 days after ACAS. ECs were recognized by immunostaining for CD31 (Figure 5E). An increase in newly generated (BrdU⁺CD31⁺) EC numbers was observed in the AC hemisphere of APln13-treated mice compared to vehicle-treated mice (Figure 5F). Additionally, an increase in proliferating (Ki67⁺CD31⁺) EC numbers was found in the AC hemisphere after APln13 treatment (Figure 5G).

White matter is vulnerable to vascular impairment because its major blood supply arises in the terminals of long arterioles.^{2,25} Immunostaining for myelin basic protein (MBP), a protein marker of the myelin sheath, was then performed to evaluate white matter lesions 42 days after ACAS (Figure 5H). APln13-treated mice displayed significant recovery of hippocampal MBP signal compared to vehicle-treated mice (Figure 5I).

Next, Pearson correlation analyses were performed between behavioral performances, white matter integrity, and angiogenesis (Figure 5J). Positive correlation between the number of BrdU⁺CD31⁺ ECs and time exploring the new object in the novel object recognition test was observed (Figure 5K). There was no correlation between the number of BrdU⁺CD31⁺ ECs and MBP intensity (Figure 5L). Positive correlation was also observed between MBP intensity and the latency to enter a room associated with electric shock in the passive avoidance test (Figure 5J).

Mapping of the intercellular communication between ASCs and tip cells

Following similar methodologies, we identified ACS0 and ACS1 subclusters within the ASCs (Figures 6A–6C; Table S6). DEG and GO enrichment analyses revealed that the ACS0 cluster is linked to ASC structural integrity and homeostatic functions, including neurotransmitter transport, regulation of cell differentiation and development, and maintenance of cell structure (Figures 6D; Table S7). The ACS1 cluster is associated with an inhibition of cell proliferation and upregulation of secretion-related processes (Figures 6D; Table S7). The ACS0 subcluster fraction was reduced while the ACS1 cluster increased following VD (Figure 6A), suggesting a potential shift of cellular responses to combat vascular injury. To validate ASC state changes after ACAS, we performed double immunostaining for GFAP and Aqp4. We observed a decreased number of GFAP⁺ cells while the area of Aqp4⁺ cells unchanged in the hippocampi in the brain 35 days after ACAS compared with sham brains (Figures 6E and 6F), suggesting that there is a shift of ASC states upon chronic hypoperfusion.

We explored cell-cell interaction to gain insight into the communication patterns between EC and ASC clusters (Figures 6G; Table S8). Vegfa-Vegfr signaling interactions were highlighted for communication from ASCs to ECs, under both

sham and ACAS conditions. Specifically, the Vegfa-Vegfr1 interaction was preferred by ASCs (ASC0 and ASC1) as a signal sent to EC cells under normal and hypoperfusion conditions, while Vegfa-Vegfr2 and Vegfa-Vegfr1r2 crosstalk was activated between ASC0/ASC1 and tip cells under hypoperfusion conditions (Figure 6G, left). For the EC-to-ASC communication patterns, Ptn-Sdc3 signaling was dominant in the other EC to ASC0/ASC1 crosstalk (Figure 6G, right). The communication from tip cells to ASCs appeared to be less specific and involved multiple signals. We used circle plots for an overview of the probabilities of interactions between tip cells and other ECs, ASCs, as well as MCs. Of all the major pathways, VEGF signaling between tip cells and ASCs showed the highest probability of interactions (Figure 6H). This signaling pathway also became evident between tip cells and vascular smooth muscle cells (vSMCs) but with lower probabilities (Figure 6H). A heatmap matrix further highlighted the VEGF signaling network between ASC0/ASC1 (as sources) and tip cells and other ECs (as targets) (Figure 6I).

To visualize cell-cell interactions in the brain, VEGF and VEGFR2 expression were examined by immunostaining together with the ASC marker GFAP and the tip EC marker CD93 in brain tissue 35 days after ACAS. Three-dimensional reconstruction of the immunostaining revealed VEGFR2 expression on CD93⁺ tip cells and close spatial proximity of VEGFR2⁺CD93⁺ tip cells with VEGF⁺GFAP⁺ ASCs (Figure 6J), consistent with the findings from the cell-cell interaction analysis.

DISCUSSION

Patients with VD typically have multiple cerebrovascular pathologies at autopsy, including atherosclerosis, small vessel disease, and cerebral amyloid angiopathy.²⁶ These vascular abnormalities cause chronic cerebral hypoperfusion, which reciprocally exacerbates endothelial damage.²⁷ Elucidating the vascular responses to chronic hypoperfusion may therefore provide insights into the mechanisms of VD progression and identify therapeutic targets to treat or prevent VD. The present study employed scRNA-seq to map cellular changes in the mouse brains after chronic cerebral hypoperfusion induced by ACAS. The results reveal significant alterations in EC subpopulations following ACAS. We observed alterations in endothelial expression of genes related to apoptosis, survival, cell senescence, blood vessel morphogenesis, regulation of angiogenesis, vascular integrity, and inflammation. Pseudotime trajectory analyses highlighted a gradual progression from capV to TipEC, underscoring the dynamic nature of endothelial responses in VD. These findings support a pivotal role for ECs in vascular integrity and remodeling under chronic cerebral hypoperfusion.

One prominent alteration in the EC population is the emergence of a tip cell subtype after ACAS. Tip cells are known to mediate angiogenic sprouting during development, a dynamic

(H and I) Representative immunostaining images (H) and quantification (I) of MBP (green) intensity in the hippocampus 42 days after ACAS. *n* = 5/group. Student's *t* test. Scale bars: 200 μ m

(J) Heatmap of correlation analysis between behavioral performance, white matter integrity, and angiogenesis.

(K) Pearson correlation analysis between the number of BrdU⁺CD31⁺ cells in the hippocampal area and the novel object exploration ratio in the NOR.

(L) Pearson correlation analysis between the number of BrdU⁺CD31⁺ cells and MBP intensity in the hippocampal area.

Data are mean $\pm$ SEM. **p* < 0.05. ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < 0.001.

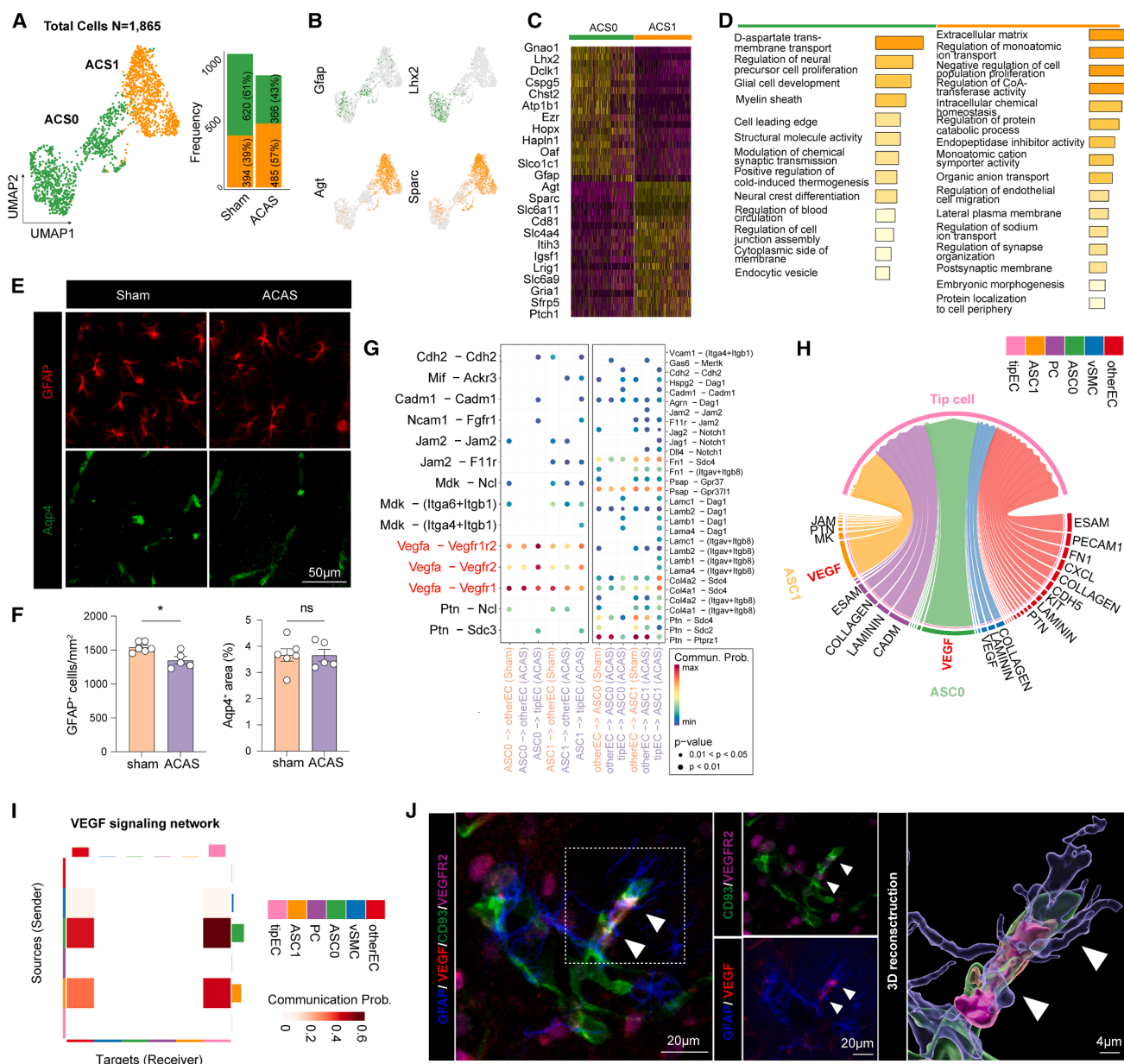


Figure 6. Mapping of intercellular molecular communication between astrocytes and ECs

(A) UMAP visualization of 1,865 astrocytes (ASCs) from sham and ACAS brains (left). Stacked bar plots (right) showing the proportions of the two major subsets, ACS0 and ACS1, in each group.

(B) UMAP visualization of subset-specific marker expression.

(C) Heatmap displaying the top 12 markers for each subset.

(D) Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis based on significant differentially expressed genes (DEGs) using Metascape.

(E) Representative immunostaining images of GFAP (red) and Aqp4 (green) in the hippocampal area 35 days after ACAS.

(F) Quantification of the numbers of GFAP⁺ and the areas of Aqp4⁺ astrocytes in the hippocampus of the brain 35 days after ACAS. $n = 5-6/\text{group}$. Student's t test. Data are shown as mean $\pm$ SEM. $*p < 0.05$.

(G) Cell-cell interaction analysis illustrating interactions between EC cells (tip and other ECs) and astrocytes, inferred by the CellChat R package. All predicted ligand-receptor pairs are shown, with dot colors representing interaction probability (red: high, blue: low) and dot sizes indicating the significance level. The VEGF category exhibits a significantly high probability of interactions between ECs and astrocytes in both ACAS and sham.

(H) Visualization of signaling pathways in key cell populations. Each segment of the circular diagram corresponds to a cell type, with colored arcs indicating communication between source and target cells. The strength of interactions is represented by the width of the connecting lines, with key signaling molecules (e.g., VEGF, ESAM, and PECAM1) labeled.

(legend continued on next page)

and complex process that involves the hierarchical organization of ECs into tip and stalk cells.²⁸ The specialized tip cells are usually located at the forefront of the sprouting vessel and guide the direction of its growth.²⁹ Tip cells exhibit distinct morphologies with numerous elongated and dynamic filopodia.³⁰ Using immunofluorescent staining, we confirmed the appearance of tip cells with high expression of tip cell marker CD93 and characteristic finger-like slender filopodia in the brain after ACAS. In the CNS, the consistent and organized differentiation of tip cells during vascular development is essential to ensure normal vascularization and barrier function.^{31,32} Following CNS injury in adults, tip cells appear early at the injury site but gradually decrease as the vascular regeneration stabilizes.³³ In our study, we observed tip cells from 14 to 56 days after ACAS. Consistent with their roles in assembling the vascular lining,³⁴ we found that the tip cell subcluster highly expresses a group of genes related to angiogenesis. Therefore, the increased number of tip cells may represent an endogenous effort of neovascularization through sprouting angiogenesis. However, whether and how angiogenic tip cells regenerate functional new vessels and reperfusion in the injured brain remain unclear and warrant further studies. A tip cell cluster was also identified in the human vessel isolation and nuclei extraction from normal and AD brain cells using single-nuclear RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq).³⁵ It would be interesting for future studies to compare the transcriptomic signature of mouse tip cells and human tip cells, which requires special methodology and careful computational integration to handle batch effects, difference in transcriptomic capture methods (human snRNA-seq and mouse scRNA-seq), and species-specific gene expression.

In the tip cell cluster that formed after ACAS, we noted enriched *Apln/Aplnr* expression, which was associated with angiogenic functions. Previously, *Apln* was identified as one of the tip cell-enriched gene markers in the retina.³⁶ *Apln* signaling has been shown to maintain tip cell morphology, inducing ECs into an angiogenic state and promoting vascular sprouting.³⁷ Our *in vitro* studies demonstrated that treatment with Apln13, an endogenous apelin agonist, promoted angiogenic responses in mouse brain microvascular ECs, including proliferation, migration, and tube formation. Consistent with our findings, Yang et al. reported that Apln13 promotes angiogenic responses in myocardial microvascular ECs (MMVECs).³⁸ In human stroke victims, the degree of angiogenesis in the hypoperfused penumbra is positively correlated with survival.³⁹ As would be expected from the role of angiogenesis in redelivering oxygen and nutrients to hypoperfused brain tissues,^{40,41} increased angiogenesis following Apln13 treatment was also correlated with cognitive improvements in our study. Accordingly, others have noted that increased angiogenesis during chronic hypoperfusion due to bilateral carotid artery stenosis improves cognitive performance and white matter integrity.⁴² Intranasal delivery of Apln13 is also neuroprotective and promotes angiogenesis

following ischemic stroke in mice.⁴³ However, one concern is that an absence of vascular guidance signals after nerve injury will result in sustained activation of tip cells, leading to chaotic revascularization that is detrimental to nerve repair.^{44–46} CNS inflammatory conditions such as multiple sclerosis (MS) can also induce improper neoangiogenesis and formation of abnormally leaky cerebral blood vessels.⁴⁷ In the experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE) model of MS, the leaky neovessels arise from proliferative *venous* ECs but not from capillary ECs in response to VEGF-A signaling.⁴⁸ However, our trajectory analysis suggests the proximity of tip ECs to capV ECs after ACAS, rather than veins, suggesting that they may not be related to leaky neovessels. Nevertheless, future studies are required to determine if augmenting angiogenesis with Apln13 improves brain perfusion without impairing BBB integrity after VD.

In this study, we noted that Apln13 enhanced white matter integrity compared to the vehicle-treated group, which was correlated with behavioral improvements. However, white matter protection was not correlated with angiogenesis, suggesting that the white matter improvement and angiogenesis may contribute independently to cognitive improvements after ACAS. Indeed, many other mechanisms may lead to the salutary effects of apelin on white matter. For example, apelin can promote cell viability in neurons and OGs and influence microglia/macrophage activity, thereby preserving myelin content in a model of EAE.⁴⁹ APJ expression in myelin-forming cells promotes remyelination through the translocation of myelin regulatory factor and is correlated with age-associated changes in remyelination efficiency.⁵⁰ In addition, apelin-APJ signaling exerts other key functions including anti-inflammation,^{43,51} neuroprotection,^{43,52} and BBB preservation or reconstruction.⁵³ These collective mechanisms may culminate in superior neurological functions under conditions of chronic hypoperfusion.

Our immunoblotting revealed increased apelin expression in the brain after ACAS. Although scRNA-seq data indicate that *Apln* is largely expressed in tip cells of the brain after ACAS, apelin has been reported to be produced by other CNS cells such as neurons⁵² and neural progenitor cells.⁵⁴ In addition, apelin is highly expressed and released by adipocytes and other peripheral tissues⁵⁵ and may leak into the injured brain through a compromised BBB. Interestingly, the expression of APJ, the apelin receptor, did not show a significant increase after ACAS (not shown). Inconsistent changes in apelin and APJ levels have also been reported in other disease models,⁵⁶ and apelin may have APJ-independent biological activities.⁵⁷ Interestingly, APJ expression has been shown to be upregulated in an EC cluster after ischemic stroke,⁵⁸ suggesting that the severity of hypoperfusion may differentially impact APJ expression. Further investigations are warranted to elucidate the complexity of Apln/APJ signaling and its multifaceted roles in VD.

The hierarchical organization of tip versus stalk cells is driven by a balance between VEGF and Notch signaling.⁵⁹ A gradient in

(I) The heatmap matrix represents the communication probability between source and target cell populations through the VEGF signaling network. The color intensity indicates the interaction strength, with darker shades reflecting higher communication probability. Cell types are color-coded for easy identification. (J) Representative immunostaining images and 3D reconstruction of astrocyte marker GFAP (blue), VEGF (red), tip cell marker CD93 (green), and VEGFR2 (magenta) in the hippocampus 35 days after ACAS. White arrow heads indicate the proximity of VEGFR2⁺CD93⁺ tip cells and VEGF⁺GFAP⁺ astrocytes. Scale bars are indicated in images.

VEGF concentration promotes the formation of endothelial tip cells and extension of their filopodia, enabling them to migrate at the forefront of the nascent vascular tree.³⁰ Stalk cells then participate in the formation of the vascular lumen.⁶⁰ In response to hypoxia, VEGF is produced by various cell types, including ASCs, macrophages, pericytes, vSMCs, and neurons.^{61,62} Our scRNA-seq showed that ASCs were the primary source of VEGF after chronic hypoperfusion, and Vegfa-Vegfr crosstalk appeared to be important for ASC communication with tip cells as well as other ECs. In the early postnatal retina, all tip cells are closely attached to ASCs, and the tip cell filopodia orientate toward and alongside VEGF-expressing ASCs.³⁰ These data support the importance of ASC-derived VEGF in guiding vessel patterning during angiogenesis. Our ligand-receptor analyses further suggest that Vegfr2 was used preferably by tip cells to receive astrocytic signals, while Vegfr1 appeared to be more important for ASC communication with other ECs. In line with our data, VEGFR2 expression on EC filopodia in the postnatal mouse retina mediates VEGF-dependent tip cell sprouting.^{30,63,64} Apelin and VEGF signaling are both crucial regulators of angiogenesis, and potential interactions between these two pathways have been explored. Our results showed that treatment with Apln13 alone was effective in inducing EC proliferation, migration, and tube formation, indicating at least some VEGF-independent roles. Furthermore, we did not collect evidence for robust synergistic or additive effects when combining VEGF with Apln13. Further parsing out subtle synergistic versus additive effects would require isobolograms or other types of curve fitting analyses in which the dose ratios are critical⁶⁵ and are out of the scope of the present work. In line with the VEGF-independent role of apelin in angiogenesis, knockout or inhibition of apelin or APJ reduces pathological retinal angiogenesis *without* decreasing VEGF or VEGFR expression when modeling oxygen-induced retinopathy *in vivo*.^{66,67} In addition, apelin and VEGF signaling have been shown to independently promote lymphatic development by stimulating a nonredundant activation of the serine-threonine kinase Akt/protein kinase B signaling axis.⁶⁸ In contrast, studies using human umbilical vein endothelial cells have demonstrated that apelin-induced proliferation of ECs is VEGF dependent.⁶⁹ Thus, there is evidence for both independent and dependent roles for apelin and VEGF in angiogenesis but in highly context-specific manners.

Limitations of this study and implications for future studies

Our scRNA-seq analyses included the minimum number of biological replicates ($n = 2$ per group), which potentially compromised statistical power for rare cell populations. Therefore, we focused our analyses on main cell clusters with large numbers of cells. Although our scRNA-seq analysis picked only one time point after ACAS, we validated the presence of endothelial tip cell subset at multiple time points using brain sections collected from day 14, 35, and 56 after ACAS, suggesting that the increase in the number of tip cells is a persistent reparative response in the brain upon hypoperfusion. As we did not observe a significant difference between 14, 35, and 56 days after ACAS, we selected 35 days as a representative time point for further validation of Apln signaling and cell-cell interactions. Future

studies with extended time points are warranted to delineate the dynamics of these molecular events at different stages of VD. In addition, all results in the current study are based exclusively on the ACAS model. Future studies using other VD models, such as bilateral carotid artery stenosis, should be performed to verify the generalizability of our conclusions and raise the probability of translation.

The current study did not identify the mechanisms whereby Apln/Aplnr signaling impacts tip cell behavior and regulates angiogenesis. It has been reported that apelin signaling maintains endothelial tip cell morphology and sprouting by enhancing endothelial metabolic activity during angiogenic sprouting.³⁷ A recent study shows that neural progenitor cell-derived apelin promotes sprouting angiogenesis by regulating tip cell behaviors such as filopodia formation, tip-stalk cell shuffling, and tip cell migration along Apln-expressing cells.⁵⁴ Most of these mechanistic studies, however, were carried out using zebrafish models. Whether these mechanisms are also valid in adult mammalian brain endothelium under chronic hypoperfusion needs to be further explored.

This study tested a single dose of Apln13 in ACAS model. It also remains unclear whether systemically applied Apln13 can cross the BBB or induce angiogenic effects without BBB penetration through its direct effects on ECs. Further studies are warranted to test the pharmacokinetics and a dose response of Apln13 to establish optimal dosing and strengthen translational credibility.

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead contact

Requests for further information and resources should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Xiaoming Hu (hux2@upmc.edu).

Materials availability

This study did not generate new unique reagents.

Data and code availability

The authors confirm that the data supporting the findings of this study are available within the article and its supplemental material. Raw fastq file digital gene expression matrixes of VD samples are in the NIH GEO database: GSE319275. Sham data were provided by Dr. Jun Chen.⁵⁸ scRNA-seq gene expression matrixes, processed data, and analysis scripts are in <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.28851971>. This paper does not report original code. Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in the paper is available from the [lead contact](#) upon reasonable request.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the NIH grants R01NS131169 (to X.H.) and R01NS124673 (to X.H. and J.C.). This work is the result of NIH funding, in part, and is subject to the NIH Public Access Policy. Through acceptance of this federal funding, the NIH has been given a right to make the work publicly available in PubMed Central. X.H. is supported by a VA grant (I01 BX006534). J.C. is supported by a VA grant (I01 BX005290) and is a recipient of the VA Senior Research Career Scientist Award. J.S. is supported by an American Heart Association fellowship (25POST1372422).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

J.S. performed surgery, experiments, and data analyses in [Figures 1A–1E, 2G–2J, 3E–3H, 4, 5, and S3](#). R.S. performed the data analyses in [Figures 1F–1H, 2A–2F, 3A–3D, 6, S1, and S2](#). L.J. performed animal surgery and participated in scRNA-seq analysis. C.D. participated in experiments in [Figure 2G](#). W.M.

and J.L. participated in experiments in Figure 1. T.-w.M. and J.B. performed data analyses in Figures 4 and 5. K.C. performed scRNA-seq experiments. X.H. designed the experiments. J.S., R.S., and X.H. prepared figures. J.S., R.S., J.L., C.D., and X.H. wrote the manuscript. R.K.L. and J.C. provided scientific feedback and revised the manuscript.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

STAR★METHODS

Detailed methods are provided in the online version of this paper and include the following:

- **KEY RESOURCES TABLE**
- **EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND STUDY PARTICIPANT DETAILS**
 - Ethics statement
 - Experimental animals
 - Murine models of ACAS
 - Cell cultures
- **METHOD DETAILS**
 - BrdU injections
 - Apelin13 treatment
 - Two-dimensional laser speckle imaging
 - Novel object recognition (NOR)
 - Y-maze spontaneous alternations
 - Passive avoidance test
 - Immunohistochemistry and image analysis
 - Imaris 3D rendering
 - Western blot
 - BrdU cell proliferation assay
 - Scratch migration assay
 - Tube formation assay
 - Single cell RNA sequencing
 - Single-cell RNA sequencing data processing
 - Quality control, filtering, and integration
 - Normalization, integration, and dimensionality reduction
 - Differentially expression gene (DEG) and gene-ontology (GO) enrichment analysis
 - Pseudo-time trajectory analysis
 - RNA velocity analysis
 - Cell-cell communication analysis
- **QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental information can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.isci.2026.115331>.

Received: June 12, 2025

Revised: October 8, 2025

Accepted: March 9, 2026

Published: March 11, 2026

REFERENCES

1. Rizzi, L., Rosset, I., and Roriz-Cruz, M. (2014). Global epidemiology of dementia: Alzheimer's and vascular types. *BioMed Res. Int.* 2014, 908915. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/908915>.
2. Iadecola, C. (2013). The pathobiology of vascular dementia. *Neuron* 80, 844–866. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2013.10.008>.
3. Andreone, B.J., Lacoste, B., and Gu, C. (2015). Neuronal and vascular interactions. *Annu. Rev. Neurosci.* 38, 25–46. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-neuro-071714-033835>.
4. Kisler, K., Nelson, A.R., Montagne, A., and Zlokovic, B.V. (2017). Cerebral blood flow regulation and neurovascular dysfunction in Alzheimer disease. *Nat. Rev. Neurosci.* 18, 419–434. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrn.2017.48>.
5. Iadecola, C. (2017). The Neurovascular Unit Coming of Age: A Journey through Neurovascular Coupling in Health and Disease. *Neuron* 96, 17–42. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2017.07.030>.
6. Nelson, A.R., Sweeney, M.D., Sagare, A.P., and Zlokovic, B.V. (2016). Neurovascular dysfunction and neurodegeneration in dementia and Alzheimer's disease. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1862, 887–900. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbadis.2015.12.016>.
7. Wang, F., Cao, Y., Ma, L., Pei, H., Rausch, W.D., and Li, H. (2018). Dysfunction of Cerebrovascular Endothelial Cells: Prelude to Vascular Dementia. *Front. Aging Neurosci.* 10, 376. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnagi.2018.00376>.
8. Hu, X., De Silva, T.M., Chen, J., and Faraci, F.M. (2017). Cerebral Vascular Disease and Neurovascular Injury in Ischemic Stroke. *Circ. Res.* 120, 449–471. <https://doi.org/10.1161/circresaha.116.308427>.
9. Rajeev, V., Fann, D.Y., Dinh, Q.N., Kim, H.A., De Silva, T.M., Lai, M.K.P., Chen, C.L.H., Drummond, G.R., Sobey, C.G., and Arumugam, T.V. (2022). Pathophysiology of blood brain barrier dysfunction during chronic cerebral hypoperfusion in vascular cognitive impairment. *Theranostics* 12, 1639–1658. <https://doi.org/10.7150/thno.68304>.
10. Carmeliet, P., and Jain, R.K. (2011). Molecular mechanisms and clinical applications of angiogenesis. *Nature* 473, 298–307. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature10144>.
11. Lip, G.Y., and Blann, A. (1997). von Willebrand factor: a marker of endothelial dysfunction in vascular disorders? *Cardiovasc. Res.* 34, 255–265. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0008-6363\(97\)00039-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0008-6363(97)00039-4).
12. Granata, R., Trovato, L., Garbarino, G., Taliano, M., Ponti, R., Sala, G., Ghidoni, R., and Ghigo, E. (2004). Dual effects of IGFBP-3 on endothelial cell apoptosis and survival: involvement of the sphingolipid signaling pathways. *FASEB J.* 18, 1456–1458. <https://doi.org/10.1096/fj.04-1618fje>.
13. Mühleder, S., Fernández-Chacón, M., García-González, I., and Benedito, R. (2021). Endothelial sprouting, proliferation, or senescence: tipping the balance from physiology to pathology. *Cell. Mol. Life Sci.* 78, 1329–1354. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00018-020-03664-y>.
14. Kim, M., Allen, B., Korhonen, E.A., Nitschké, M., Yang, H.W., Baluk, P., Saharinen, P., Alitalo, K., Daly, C., Thurston, G., and McDonald, D.M. (2016). Opposing actions of angiotensin-2 on Tie2 signaling and FOXO1 activation. *J. Clin. Invest.* 126, 3511–3525. <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI84871>.
15. Bianchi, M.E., and Mezzapelle, R. (2020). The Chemokine Receptor CXCR4 in Cell Proliferation and Tissue Regeneration. *Front. Immunol.* 11, 2109. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2020.02109>.
16. Hashimoto, Y., and Campbell, M. (2020). Tight junction modulation at the blood-brain barrier: Current and future perspectives. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta. Biomembr.* 1862, 183298. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbamem.2020.183298>.
17. Sangwung, P., Zhou, G., Nayak, L., Chan, E.R., Kumar, S., Kang, D.W., Zhang, R., Liao, X., Lu, Y., Sugi, K., et al. (2017). KLF2 and KLF4 control endothelial identity and vascular integrity. *JCI Insight* 2, e91700. <https://doi.org/10.1172/jci.insight.91700>.
18. Liz, M.A., Coelho, T., Bellotti, V., Fernandez-Arias, M.I., Mallaina, P., and Obici, L. (2020). A narrative review of the role of transthyretin in health and disease. *Neurol. Ther.* 9, 395–402. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40120-020-00217-0>.
19. Kubo, Y., Ishizuka, S., Ito, T., Yoneyama, D., Akanuma, S.I., and Hosoya, K.I. (2022). Involvement of TauT/SLC6A6 in taurine transport at the blood-testis barrier. *Metabolites* 12, 66. <https://doi.org/10.3390/metabo12010066>.
20. Bay, C., Bajraktari-Sylejmani, G., Haefeli, W.E., Burhenne, J., Weiss, J., and Sauter, M. (2022). Functional characterization of the solute carrier LAT-1 (SLC7A5/SLC2A3) in human brain capillary endothelial cells with rapid UPLC-MS/MS quantification of intracellular isotopically labelled L-leucine. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 23, 3637. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms23073637>.

21. Pitulescu, M.E., Schmidt, I., Giaimo, B.D., Antoine, T., Berkenfeld, F., Ferrante, F., Park, H., Ehling, M., Biljes, D., Rocha, S.F., et al. (2017). Dll4 and Notch signalling couples sprouting angiogenesis and artery formation. *Nat. Cell Biol.* 19, 915–927. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ncb3555>.
22. Xu, C., Hasan, S.S., Schmidt, I., Rocha, S.F., Pitulescu, M.E., Bussmann, J., Meyen, D., Raz, E., Adams, R.H., and Siekmann, A.F. (2014). Arteries are formed by vein-derived endothelial tip cells. *Nat. Commun.* 5, 5758. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms6758>.
23. Janssens, P., de Loor, H., Decuyper, J.P., Vennekens, R., Llorens-Cortes, C., Mekahli, D., and Bammens, B. (2022). On methods for the measurement of the apelin receptor ligand apelin. *Sci. Rep.* 12, 7763. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-11835-z>.
24. Canpolat, S., Ozcan, M., Saral, S., Kalkan, O.F., and Ayar, A. (2016). Effects of apelin-13 in mice model of experimental pain and peripheral nociceptive signaling in rat sensory neurons. *J. Recept. Signal Transduct. Res.* 36, 243–247. <https://doi.org/10.3109/10799893.2015.1080274>.
25. Moody, D.M., Bell, M.A., and Challa, V.R. (1990). Features of the cerebral vascular pattern that predict vulnerability to perfusion or oxygenation deficiency: an anatomic study. *AJNR. Am. J. Neuroradiol.* 11, 431–439.
26. van Veluw, S.J., Arfanakis, K., and Schneider, J.A. (2022). Neuropathology of vascular brain health: insights from ex vivo magnetic resonance imaging-histopathology studies in cerebral small vessel disease. *Stroke* 53, 404–415. <https://doi.org/10.1161/strokeaha.121.032608>.
27. Rajeev, V., Chai, Y.L., Poh, L., Selvaraj, S., Fann, D.Y., Jo, D.G., De Silva, T.M., Drummond, G.R., Sobey, C.G., Arumugam, T.V., et al. (2023). Chronic cerebral hypoperfusion: a critical feature in unravelling the etiology of vascular cognitive impairment. *Acta Neuropathol. Commun.* 11, 93. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40478-023-01590-1>.
28. Kondrychyn, I., He, L., Wint, H., Betsholtz, C., and Phng, L.K. (2025). Combined forces of hydrostatic pressure and actin polymerization drive endothelial tip cell migration and sprouting angiogenesis. *eLife* 13. <https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.98612>.
29. Gerhardt, H. (2008). VEGF and endothelial guidance in angiogenic sprouting. *Organogenesis* 4, 241–246. <https://doi.org/10.4161/org.4.4.7414>.
30. Gerhardt, H., Golding, M., Fruttiger, M., Ruhrberg, C., Lundkvist, A., Abramsson, A., Jeltsch, M., Mitchell, C., Alitalo, K., Shima, D., and Betsholtz, C. (2003). VEGF guides angiogenic sprouting utilizing endothelial tip cell filopodia. *J. Cell Biol.* 161, 1163–1177. <https://doi.org/10.1083/jcb.200302047>.
31. Zarkada, G., Howard, J.P., Xiao, X., Park, H., Bizou, M., Leclerc, S., Künzel, S.E., Boisseau, B., Li, J., Cagnone, G., et al. (2021). Specialized endothelial tip cells guide neuroretina vascularization and blood-retina-barrier formation. *Dev. Cell* 56, 2237–2251.e6. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.devcel.2021.06.021>.
32. Crouch, E.E., Bhaduri, A., Andrews, M.G., Cebrian-Silla, A., Diafos, L.N., Birrueta, J.O., Wedderburn-Pugh, K., Valenzuela, E.J., Bennett, N.K., Eze, U.C., et al. (2022). Ensembles of endothelial and mural cells promote angiogenesis in prenatal human brain. *Cell* 185, 3753–3769.e18. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2022.09.004>.
33. Milich, L.M., Choi, J.S., Ryan, C., Cerqueira, S.R., Benavides, S., Yahn, S.L., Tsoulfas, P., and Lee, J.K. (2021). Single-cell analysis of the cellular heterogeneity and interactions in the injured mouse spinal cord. *J. Exp. Med.* 218, e20210040. <https://doi.org/10.1084/jem.20210040>.
34. Yetkin-Arik, B., Vogels, I.M.C., Nowak-Sliwinski, P., Weiss, A., Houtkooper, R.H., Van Noorden, C.J.F., Klaassen, I., and Schlingemann, R.O. (2019). The role of glycolysis and mitochondrial respiration in the formation and functioning of endothelial tip cells during angiogenesis. *Sci. Rep.* 9, 12608. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-48676-2>.
35. Yang, A.C., Vest, R.T., Kern, F., Lee, D.P., Agam, M., Maat, C.A., Losada, P.M., Chen, M.B., Schaum, N., Khoury, N., et al. (2022). A human brain vascular atlas reveals diverse mediators of Alzheimer's risk. *Nature* 603, 885–892. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-021-04369-3>.
36. del Toro, R., Prahst, C., Mathivet, T., Siegfried, G., Kaminker, J.S., Larri-vee, B., Breant, C., Duarte, A., Takakura, N., Fukamizu, A., et al. (2010). Identification and functional analysis of endothelial tip cell-enriched genes. *Blood* 116, 4025–4033. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2010-02-270819>.
37. Helker, C.S., Eberlein, J., Wilhelm, K., Sugino, T., Malchow, J., Schuermann, A., Baumeister, S., Kwon, H.B., Maischein, H.M., Potente, M., et al. (2020). Apelin signaling drives vascular endothelial cells toward a pro-angiogenic state. *eLife* 9, e55589. <https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.55589>.
38. Yang, X., Zhu, W., Zhang, P., Chen, K., Zhao, L., Li, J., Wei, M., and Liu, M. (2014). Apelin-13 stimulates angiogenesis by promoting cross-talk between AMP-activated protein kinase and Akt signaling in myocardial microvascular endothelial cells. *Mol. Med. Rep.* 9, 1590–1596. <https://doi.org/10.3892/mmr.2014.1984>.
39. Krupinski, J., Kaluza, J., Kumar, P., Kumar, S., and Wang, J.M. (1994). Role of angiogenesis in patients with cerebral ischemic stroke. *Stroke* 25, 1794–1798. <https://doi.org/10.1161/01.str.25.9.1794>.
40. Peng, L., Li, K., Li, D., Zuo, X., Zhan, L., Chen, M., Gong, M., Sun, W., and Xu, E. (2024). The p75 neurotrophin receptor attenuates secondary thalamic damage after cortical infarction by promoting angiogenesis. *CNS Neurosci. Ther.* 30, e14875. <https://doi.org/10.1111/cns.14875>.
41. Guan, Y., Gu, Y., Shao, H., Ma, W., Li, G., Guo, M., Shao, Q., Li, Y., Liu, Y., Wang, C., et al. (2023). Intermittent hypoxia protects against hypoxic-ischemic brain damage by inducing functional angiogenesis. *J. Cereb. Blood Flow Metab.* 43, 1656–1671. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0271678X231185507>.
42. Maki, T., Ihara, M., Fujita, Y., Nambu, T., Miyashita, K., Yamada, M., Washida, K., Nishio, K., Ito, H., Harada, H., et al. (2011). Angiogenic and vaso-protective effects of adrenomedullin on prevention of cognitive decline after chronic cerebral hypoperfusion in mice. *Stroke* 42, 1122–1128. <https://doi.org/10.1161/STROKEAHA.110.603399>.
43. Chen, D., Lee, J., Gu, X., Wei, L., and Yu, S.P. (2015). Intranasal delivery of apelin-13 is neuroprotective and promotes angiogenesis after ischemic stroke in mice. *ASN Neuro* 7, 1759091415605114. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1759091415605114>.
44. Bhat, G.P., Maurizio, A., Motta, A., Podini, P., Diprima, S., Malpighi, C., Brambilla, I., Martins, L., Badaloni, A., Boselli, D., et al. (2024). Structured wound angiogenesis instructs mesenchymal barrier compartments in the regenerating nerve. *Neuron* 112, 209–229.e11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2023.10.025>.
45. Dray, C., Rougon, G., and Debarbieux, F. (2009). Quantitative analysis by in vivo imaging of the dynamics of vascular and axonal networks in injured mouse spinal cord. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 106, 9459–9464. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0900222106>.
46. Ma, L., Zhu, X., Tang, C., Pan, P., Yadav, A., Liang, R., Press, K., Nelson, J., and Su, H. (2024). CNS resident macrophages enhance dysfunctional angiogenesis and circulating monocytes infiltration in brain arteriovenous malformation. *J. Cereb. Blood Flow Metab.* 44, 925–937. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0271678X241236008>.
47. Holley, J.E., Newcombe, J., Whatmore, J.L., and Gutowski, N.J. (2010). Increased blood vessel density and endothelial cell proliferation in multiple sclerosis cerebral white matter. *Neurosci. Lett.* 470, 65–70. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neulet.2009.12.059>.
48. Shahriar, S., Biswas, S., Zhao, K., Akcan, U., Tuohy, M.C., Glendinning, M.D., Kurt, A., Wayne, C.R., Prochilo, G., Price, M.Z., et al. (2024). VEGF-A-mediated venous endothelial cell proliferation results in neoangiogenesis during neuroinflammation. *Nat. Neurosci.* 27, 1904–1917. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41593-024-01746-9>.
49. Birmipili, D., Charnaké-Askar, I., Spenlé, C., Riché, S., Pham-Van, L.D., Kuntzel, T., Khurxhi, T., Riou, A., Bonnet, D., and Bagnard, D. (2024). Fluorinated apelin-13 mediates neuroprotective effects in multiple sclerosis models. *Neurobiol. Dis.* 198, 106552. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nbd.2024.106552>.
50. Ito, M., Muramatsu, R., Kato, Y., Sharma, B., Uyeda, A., Tanabe, S., Fujimura, H., Kidoya, H., Takakura, N., Kawahara, Y., et al. (2021). Age-dependent decline in remyelination capacity is mediated by apelin-APJ

- signaling. *Nat. Aging* 1, 284–294. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43587-021-00041-7>.
51. Wei, Y.F., Yin, P., Liu, L., Wu, S.S., Jia, L., and Sun, S. (2019). Effects of APELIN-13 on the expression of IL-6, TNF- α , and IFN- γ in rats with experimental autoimmune neuritis. *J. Biol. Regul. Homeost. Agents* 33, 1369–1376. <https://doi.org/10.23812/19-161-a>.
52. O'Donnell, L.A., Agrawal, A., Sabnekar, P., Dichter, M.A., Lynch, D.R., and Kolson, D.L. (2007). Apelin, an endogenous neuronal peptide, protects hippocampal neurons against excitotoxic injury. *J. Neurochem.* 102, 1905–1917. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-4159.2007.04645.x>.
53. Gholamzadeh, R., Ramezani, F., Tehrani, P.M., and Aboutaleb, N. (2021). Apelin-13 attenuates injury following ischemic stroke by targeting matrix metalloproteinases (MMP), endothelin-B receptor, occludin/claudin-5 and oxidative stress. *J. Chem. Neuroanat.* 118, 102015. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jchemneu.2021.102015>.
54. Malchow, J., Eberlein, J., Li, W., Hogan, B.M., Okuda, K.S., and Helker, C.S.M. (2024). Neural progenitor-derived Apelin controls tip cell behavior and vascular patterning. *Sci. Adv.* 10, eadk1174. <https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.adk1174>.
55. Loukas, N., Vrachnis, D., Antonakopoulos, N., Stavros, S., Machairiotis, N., Fotiou, A., Christodoulaki, C., Lolos, M., Maroudias, G., Potiris, A., et al. (2024). Decoding apelin: its role in metabolic programming, fetal growth, and gestational complications. *Children* 11, 1270. <https://doi.org/10.3390/children11101270>.
56. Avci, S., Golal, E., and Acar, N. (2023). Evaluation of changes of apelin and apelin receptor (APJ) expression in cervix-uterus and placental axis in an LPS-induced preterm labor model. *Int. J. Dev. Biol.* 67, 91–100. <https://doi.org/10.1387/ijdb.230156sa>.
57. Galon-Tilleman, H., Yang, H., Bednarek, M.A., Spurlock, S.M., Paavola, K.J., Ko, B., To, C., Luo, J., Tian, H., Jeremut, L., et al. (2017). Apelin-36 modulates blood glucose and body weight independently of canonical APJ receptor signaling. *J. Biol. Chem.* 292, 1925–1933. <https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M116.748103>.
58. Jin, C., Shi, Y., Shi, L., Leak, R.K., Zhang, W., Chen, K., Ye, Q., Hassan, S., Lyu, J., Hu, X., et al. (2023). Leveraging single-cell RNA sequencing to unravel the impact of aging on stroke recovery mechanisms in mice. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 120, e2300012120. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2300012120>.
59. Blanco, R., and Gerhardt, H. (2013). VEGF and Notch in tip and stalk cell selection. *Cold Spring Harb. Perspect. Med.* 3, a006569. <https://doi.org/10.1101/cshperspect.a006569>.
60. De Smet, F., Segura, I., De Bock, K., Hohensinner, P.J., and Carmeliet, P. (2009). Mechanisms of vessel branching: filopodia on endothelial tip cells lead the way. *Arterioscler. Thromb. Vasc. Biol.* 29, 639–649. <https://doi.org/10.1161/atvbaha.109.185165>.
61. Chow, J., Ogunshola, O., Fan, S.Y., Li, Y., Ment, L.R., and Madri, J.A. (2001). Astrocyte-derived VEGF mediates survival and tube stabilization of hypoxic brain microvascular endothelial cells in vitro. *Brain Res. Dev. Brain Res.* 130, 123–132. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0165-3806\(01\)00220-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0165-3806(01)00220-6).
62. Ogunshola, O.O., Stewart, W.B., Mihalcik, V., Solli, T., Madri, J.A., and Ment, L.R. (2000). Neuronal VEGF expression correlates with angiogenesis in postnatal developing rat brain. *Brain Res. Dev. Brain Res.* 119, 139–153. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0165-3806\(99\)00125-x](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0165-3806(99)00125-x).
63. Suchting, S., Freitas, C., le Noble, F., Bénédicto, R., Bréant, C., Duarte, A., and Eichmann, A. (2007). The Notch ligand Delta-like 4 negatively regulates endothelial tip cell formation and vessel branching. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 104, 3225–3230. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0611177104>.
64. Zarkada, G., Heinolainen, K., Makinen, T., Kubota, Y., and Alitalo, K. (2015). VEGFR3 does not sustain retinal angiogenesis without VEGFR2. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 112, 761–766. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1423278112>.
65. Huang, R.Y., Pei, L., Liu, Q., Chen, S., Dou, H., Shu, G., Yuan, Z.X., Lin, J., Peng, G., Zhang, W., and Fu, H. (2019). Isobologram analysis: a comprehensive review of methodology and current research. *Front. Pharmacol.* 10, 1222. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fphar.2019.01222>.
66. Ishimaru, Y., Shibagaki, F., Yamamuro, A., Yoshioka, Y., and Maeda, S. (2017). An apelin receptor antagonist prevents pathological retinal angiogenesis with ischemic retinopathy in mice. *Sci. Rep.* 7, 15062. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-15602-3>.
67. Kasai, A., Ishimaru, Y., Kinjo, T., Satooka, T., Matsumoto, N., Yoshioka, Y., Yamamuro, A., Gomi, F., Shintani, N., Baba, A., and Maeda, S. (2010). Apelin is a crucial factor for hypoxia-induced retinal angiogenesis. *Arterioscler. Thromb. Vasc. Biol.* 30, 2182–2187. <https://doi.org/10.1161/ATVBAHA.110.209775>.
68. Kim, J.D., Kang, Y., Kim, J., Papangeli, I., Kang, H., Wu, J., Park, H., Nadelmann, E., Rockson, S.G., Chun, H.J., and Jin, S.W. (2014). Essential role of Apelin signaling during lymphatic development in zebrafish. *Arterioscler. Thromb. Vasc. Biol.* 34, 338–345. <https://doi.org/10.1161/ATVBAHA.113.302785>.
69. Kidoya, H., Ueno, M., Yamada, Y., Mochizuki, N., Nakata, M., Yano, T., Fujii, R., and Takakura, N. (2008). Spatial and temporal role of the apelin/APJ system in the caliber size regulation of blood vessels during angiogenesis. *EMBO J* 27, 522–534. <https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.emboj.7601982>.
70. McQuin, C., Goodman, A., Chernyshev, V., Kamentsky, L., Cimini, B.A., Karhohs, K.W., Doan, M., Ding, L., Rafelski, S.M., Thirstrup, D., et al. (2018). CellProfiler 3.0: Next-generation image processing for biology. *PLoS Biol.* 16, e2005970. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.2005970>.
71. Stuart, T., Butler, A., Hoffman, P., Hafemeister, C., Papalexi, E., Mauck, W.M., 3rd, Hao, Y., Stoeckius, M., Smibert, P., and Satija, R. (2019). Comprehensive Integration of Single-Cell Data. *Cell* 177, 1888–1902.e21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2019.05.031>.
72. Andrews, S. (2010). FastQC: A Quality Control Tool for High Throughput Sequence Data. <https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/>.
73. Szklarczyk, D., Gable, A.L., Lyon, D., Junge, A., Wyder, S., Huerta-Cepas, J., Simonovic, M., Doncheva, N.T., Morris, J.H., Bork, P., et al. (2019). STRING v11: protein-protein association networks with increased coverage, supporting functional discovery in genome-wide experimental datasets. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 47, D607–D613. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gky1131>.
74. R Core Team (2018). R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing (R Foundation for Statistical Computing).
75. Love, M.I., Huber, W., and Anders, S. (2014). Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol.* 15, 550. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13059-014-0550-8>.
76. Jin, S., Plikus, M.V., and Nie, Q. (2025). CellChat for systematic analysis of cell-cell communication from single-cell transcriptomics. *Nat. Protoc.* 20, 180–219. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41596-024-01045-4>.
77. Trapnell, C., Cacchiarelli, D., Grimsby, J., Pokharel, P., Li, S., Morse, M., Lennon, N.J., Livak, K.J., Mikkelsen, T.S., and Rinn, J.L. (2014). The dynamics and regulators of cell fate decisions are revealed by pseudotemporal ordering of single cells. *Nat. Biotechnol.* 32, 381–386. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt.2859>.
78. Zappia, L., and Oshlack, A. (2018). Clustering trees: a visualization for evaluating clusterings at multiple resolutions. *GigaScience* 7, giy083. <https://doi.org/10.1093/gigascience/gyi083>.
79. Yu, G., Wang, L.G., Han, Y., and He, Q.Y. (2012). clusterProfiler: an R package for comparing biological themes among gene clusters. *OMICS* 16, 284–287. <https://doi.org/10.1089/omi.2011.0118>.
80. Zhou, Y., Zhou, B., Pache, L., Chang, M., Khodabakhshi, A.H., Tanaseichuk, O., Benner, C., and Chanda, S.K. (2019). Metascape provides a biologist-oriented resource for the analysis of systems-level datasets. *Nat. Commun.* 10, 1523. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-019-09234-6>.

81. Subramanian, A., Tamayo, P., Mootha, V.K., Mukherjee, S., Ebert, B.L., Gillette, M.A., Paulovich, A., Pomeroy, S.L., Golub, T.R., Lander, E.S., and Mesirov, J.P. (2005). Gene set enrichment analysis: a knowledge-based approach for interpreting genome-wide expression profiles. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 102, 15545–15550. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0506580102>.
82. Krämer, A., Green, J., Pollard, J., Jr., and Tugendreich, S. (2014). Causal analysis approaches in ingenuity pathway analysis. *Bioinformatics* 30, 523–530. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btt703>.
83. Hattori, Y., Enmi, J.I., Kitamura, A., Yamamoto, Y., Saito, S., Takahashi, Y., Iguchi, S., Tsuji, M., Yamahara, K., Nagatsuka, K., et al. (2015). A novel mouse model of subcortical infarcts with dementia. *J. Neurosci.* 35, 3915–3928. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3970-14.2015>.
84. Yang, Y., Liu, H., Zhang, H., Ye, Q., Wang, J., Yang, B., Mao, L., Zhu, W., Leak, R.K., Xiao, B., et al. (2017). ST2/IL-33-dependent microglial response limits acute ischemic brain injury. *J. Neurosci.* 37, 4692–4704. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3233-16.2017>.
85. Kraeuter, A.K., Guest, P.C., and Sarthy, Z. (2019). The Y-maze for assessment of spatial working and reference memory in mice. *Methods Mol. Biol.* 1916, 105–111. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4939-8994-2_10.
86. Zhang, Q., Zhu, W., Xu, F., Dai, X., Shi, L., Cai, W., Mu, H., Hitchens, T.K., Foley, L.M., Liu, X., et al. (2019). The interleukin-4/PPARgamma signaling axis promotes oligodendrocyte differentiation and remyelination after brain injury. *PLoS Biol.* 17, e3000330. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.3000330>.
87. Liang, C.C., Park, A.Y., and Guan, J.L. (2007). In vitro scratch assay: a convenient and inexpensive method for analysis of cell migration in vitro. *Nat. Protoc.* 2, 329–333. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nprot.2007.30>.
88. DeCicco-Skinner, K.L., Henry, G.H., Cataisson, C., Tabib, T., Gwilliam, J.C., Watson, N.J., Bullwinkle, E.M., Falkenburg, L., O'Neill, R.C., Morin, A., and Wiest, J.S. (2014). Endothelial cell tube formation assay for the in vitro study of angiogenesis. *J. Vis. Exp.* 91, e51312. <https://doi.org/10.3791/51312>.
89. Shi, L., Sun, Z., Su, W., Xu, F., Xie, D., Zhang, Q., Dai, X., Iyer, K., Hitchens, T.K., Foley, L.M., et al. (2021). Treg cell-derived osteopontin promotes microglia-mediated white matter repair after ischemic stroke. *Immunity* 54, 1527–1542.e8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.immuni.2021.04.022>.
90. Dulken, B.W., Buckley, M.T., Navarro Negredo, P., Saligrama, N., Cayrol, R., Leeman, D.S., George, B.M., Boutet, S.C., Hebestreit, K., Pluvina, J.V., et al. (2019). Single-cell analysis reveals T cell infiltration in old neurogenic niches. *Nature* 571, 205–210. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-019-1362-5>.
91. Ximerakis, M., Lipnick, S.L., Innes, B.T., Simmons, S.K., Adiconis, X., Dionne, D., Mayweather, B.A., Nguyen, L., Niziolek, Z., Ozek, C., et al. (2019). Single-cell transcriptomic profiling of the aging mouse brain. *Nat. Neurosci.* 22, 1696–1708. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41593-019-0491-3>.

STAR★METHODS

KEY RESOURCES TABLE

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
Anti-apln Antibody	Invitrogen	Cat# PA5-114860; RRID: AB_2899496
Anti-Aqp4 Antibody	Millipore Sigma	Cat# AB3594; RRID: AB_91530
Anti-β-actin Antibody	R&D systems	Cat# MAB8929; RRID: AB_3076436
Anti-BrdU antibody	Abcam	Cat#ab6326; RRID: AB_305426
Anti-CD31 Antibody	BD Biosciences	Cat# 550274; RRID: AB_393571
Anti-CD93 Antibody	R&D systems	Cat# AF1696; RRID: AB_354937
Anti-GFAP Antibody	Invitrogen	Cat# 13-0300; RRID: AB_2532994
Anti-Iba1 Antibody	Wako Chemicals	Cat# 019-19741; RRID: AB_839504
Anti-isolectin B4 Antibody	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# L2140; RRID: AB_2313663
Anti-MBP Antibody	Abcam	Cat# ab40390; RRID:AB_1141521
Anti-Ki67 Antibody	Abcam	Cat# ab16667; RRID: AB_302459
Anti-VEGFa Antibody	Proteintech	Cat# 81323-2-RR; RRID: AB_3086457
Anti-VEGFR2 Antibody	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat# 2479T; RRID: AB_2212507
Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins		
10x Tris/Glycine Buffer	BIO-RAD	Cat#1610771
10x Tris/Glycine/SDS Buffer	BIO-RAD	Cat#1610772
[Pyr1]-Apelin-13	MedChemExpress	Cat# HY-P1033
BrdU	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#59-14-3
Cell Lysis Buffer	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat#9803
DPBS	Gibco	Cat#14190144
Fetal Bovine Serum	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat#12306C
Fluoromount G®	SouthernBiotech	Cat#0100-01
Intercept® Blocking Buffer	LI-COR	Cat#927-70001
ISOTHESIA™ Isoflurane, USP	Henry Schein	Cat#NDC:11695-6776-2
Normal Donkey Serum	Jackson Immuno Research	Cat#017-000-121; RRID:AB_2337258
Paraformaldehyde Solution, 4% in PBS	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat#J19943K2
Tris Buffered Saline with Tween® 20	Cell Signaling Technology	Cat#9997S
Critical commercial assays		
Cell Proliferation ELISA, BrdU	Millipore Sigma	Cat#11647229001
Mouse on Mouse (M.O.M.) Basic Kit	Vector	Cat#BMK-2202
Neural Tissue Dissociation Kit (T)	Miltenyi Biotec	Cat#130-093-231
Nextera XT DNA Library Prep Kit	Illumina	Cat#15031942
SMART-Seq HT Kit	Takara Bio	Cat#634456
Experimental models: organisms/strains		
Primary mouse brain microvascular EC	Cell Biologics	Cat# C57-6023
C57BL/6J(WT)	The Jackson Laboratory	Stock No: 000664
Deposited data		
Raw data files for RNA-seq	NIH GEO	GSE319275

(Continued on next page)

Continued

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Software and algorithms		
ANY-maze system	Stoelting	https://www.anymaze.co.uk/index.htm
Cell Ranger9.0 (10x)	10XGENOMICS	www.affero.org/oagpl.html
CellProfiler v 4.2.8	CellProfiler ⁷⁰	https://cellprofiler.org/
Seurat v5.2.1	Stuart et al. ⁷¹	https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/Seurat
FastQC	Andrews ⁷²	http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/
STRING v11.0	Szklarczyk et al. ⁷³	https://string-db.org/
R v4.4.1	R Core Team ⁷⁴	https://www.r-project.org/
DESeq2 v2.13	Love et al. ⁷⁵	http://bioconductor.org/packages/DESeq2/
CellChat v2.1.2	Jin et al. ⁷⁶	https://github.com/sqjin/CellChat
Monocle v3.0	Trapnell et al. ⁷⁷	https://cole-trapnell-lab.github.io/monocle3/
clustree v0.5.1	Zappia and Oshlack ⁷⁸	https://github.com/lazappi/clustree
clusterProfiler v3.20	Yu et al. ⁷⁹	https://guangchuangyu.github.io/software/clusterProfiler/
Metascape v3.5	Zhou et al. ⁸⁰	https://metascape.org/gp/index.html#/main/step1
GSEA	UC San Diego and Broad Institute ⁸¹	http://gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/index.jsp
Ingenuity Pathway Analysis	QIAGEN ⁸²	http://qiagen.force.com/KnowledgeBase/KnowledgeBPAPage
FlowJo™ v10	FlowJo, LLC	https://www.flowjo.com/
ImageJ	NIH	https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/index.html
Imaris 9.0.1	Bitplane	https://imaris.oxinst.com/
Prism 10	GraphPad	https://www.graphpad.com/

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND STUDY PARTICIPANT DETAILS

Ethics statement

All animal experiments were approved by the University of Pittsburgh Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (protocol number: 24024655), carried out in accordance with the NIH Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals, and reported in accordance with the ARRIVE guidelines (*Animal Research: Reporting In Vivo Experiments*). All animals were housed in a temperature and humidity-controlled facility with a 12-h light/dark cycle. Food and water were available *ad libitum*. All treatments and analyses were performed by blinded investigators wherever feasible. All efforts were made to minimize animal suffering and the number of animals used.

Experimental animals

Male C57BL/6J WT mice were purchased from the Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME). Animals were assigned randomly to different treatment groups using a lottery drawing box. All assessments were performed by investigators who were blinded to experimental group assignments.

Murine models of ACAS

Asymmetric common carotid artery stenosis surgeries (ACAS) were performed on 12-week-old male mice as described.⁸³ In brief, animals were anesthetized with 1.5 % isoflurane, and both common carotid arteries (CCAs) were exposed and isolated from carotid sheaths through a midline cervical incision. The right CCA was gently lifted and a microcoil (inner diameter 0.18 mm, Wuxi Samini Spring Co. Ltd, China) was looped below the carotid bifurcation. An ameroid constrictor (AC, inner diameter, 0.5 mm, Research Instruments SW, CA) was implanted on the left CCA. The AC had a titanium casing surrounding a hygroscopic casein material with an internal lumen. The casein component swelled after absorbing water, resulting in gradual narrowing and occlusion of the left CCA. Rectal temperature was maintained at 37 ± 0.5°C during surgery with a temperature-regulated heating pad. Animals that died before the end of observation period were excluded from the final analysis.

Cell cultures

Primary mouse brain microvascular endothelial cells (mBMECs) were purchased from Cell Biologics (Cat# C57-6023, Cell Biologics, Chicago, IL). These cells were cultured between 2 and 9 passages as recommended on gelatin-coated plates in endothelial cell growth media containing 0.1% VEGF, 0.1% ECGS, 0.1% heparin, 0.1% EGF, 0.1% Hydrocortisone, 1% Antibiotic-Antimycotic Solution, and 5% FBS (Cat# M1168, Cell Biologics, Chicago, IL). In some experiments, cells were maintained in reduced growth media

containing 0.1% ECGS, 0.1% heparin, 0.1% EGF, 0.1% Hydrocortisone, 1% Antibiotic-Antimycotic Solution, and 2% FBS. Cells were maintained at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO₂, and cell medium was changed every 2-3 days.

METHOD DETAILS

BrdU injections

To label proliferating cells, animals were intraperitoneally injected with the thymidine analog 5-bromo-2-deoxyuridine (BrdU, Sigma-Aldrich, Cat# 59-14-3, 50 mg/kg) once a day at 14-17 days and 29-32 days after ACAS.

Apelin13 treatment

[Pyr1]-Apelin-13 (Cat# HY-P1033, MedChemExpress, Monmouth Junction, NJ) was dissolved in PBS. Animals were randomly assigned to receive intraperitoneal injections of Apln13 (300 µg/kg body weight) or an equal volume of vehicle, starting at 14 days after ACAS and repeated three times a week until sacrifice. All treatments were administered in the afternoon (between 3:00 PM and 5:00 PM).

Two-dimensional laser speckle imaging

Regional cerebral blood flow (CBF) was monitored by the laser speckle contrast imager (PeriCam PSI system; Perimed) as we described.⁸⁴ Briefly, mice were anesthetized with 1.5 % isoflurane. Recordings were performed through the intact skull surface by a laser diode (785 nm). Two-dimensional CBF images were obtained before and at different time points after ACAS. The CBF was measured in identically sized ROIs from both sides of the brain by two investigators blinded to experimental group assignments. CBF value was expressed as a percentage of the pre-operation baseline.

Novel object recognition (NOR)

The hippocampus-dependent NOR test was conducted to evaluate short-term memory deficits. Before the task, mice were habituated in a plastic chamber (40 cm long × 40 cm wide × 35 cm high) for 5 min. After habituation, mice were presented with two identical objects and allowed to explore freely for 10 min before being returned to their home cages (familiarization phase). The box and the objects were cleaned with 70 % ethanol after each trial. After 1 h, mice were placed back in the box, in which one object was replaced by a novel object. The animals were allowed to explore the testing area once again for 10 min (test phase). All trials were recorded and analyzed with ANY-maze software. Object recognition was defined as time spent oriented toward the object within 5 cm or less, touching the object, or sniffing the object with the snout. Percentages of exploration time for familiar (old) versus novel (new) objects in the total exploration time were recorded.

Y-maze spontaneous alternations

Working memory was assessed using the spontaneous alternation Y-maze test (continuous trials) as previously described.⁸⁵ The arms contained no rewards and no internal or external cues. Mice were placed at the end of one arm of a symmetric Y maze (arm dimensions: 37 × 6 × 17 cm, L×W×H) and allowed to freely explore all three arms during a single trial lasting 5 minutes. The sequence of arm entries was recorded using an overhead camera. A correct alternation was scored when the mouse entered three different arms in a triad of overlapping triplet sets (e.g., the sequence ABCACBABCA contains six correct alternations). Spontaneous alternations (%) were calculated as correct alternations/(total entries–2) × 100.

Passive avoidance test

Passive avoidance was assessed over two consecutive days. A chamber was divided into light and dark compartments, with a gate between the two. Stainless steel grids were placed on the floor of the dark compartment to produce a mild foot shock. In the training phase (day 1), the gate was opened. The mouse was placed in the light compartment and allowed to enter the dark compartment. Once the mouse was entirely in the dark compartment, the gate was closed, and an electric shock (0.25 mA, 2 seconds) was delivered. After a 15-min inter-trial interval, the mouse was placed in the light compartment again, and the procedure was repeated. The training was complete when the animal did not enter the dark compartment for 2 min. The mouse was returned to its home cage. On day 2 (memory retrieval, 24 h later), each mouse was placed in the light compartment with the gate open, and the latency to enter the dark compartment was recorded. The session ended when the mouse entered the dark compartment or remained in the light compartment for 3 min. No electrical stimulation was applied in the test period. The test was repeated three times, and the average entry latency was used for statistical analysis.

Immunohistochemistry and image analysis

Mice were deeply anesthetized and perfused through the heart with 0.9% NaCl followed by 4% (wt/vol) paraformaldehyde in PBS. Brains were collected for immunofluorescent staining as we described.⁸⁶ Primary antibodies used were listed in the key resources Table. Secondary antibodies were purchased from Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories (West Grove, PA) and were diluted 1:1000 after reconstitution per the manufacturer's instructions. The EVOS M7000 imaging system (Invitrogen) and a confocal microscopy (Nikon A1) were used to capture images. Image analyses were performed on one or two randomly selected microscopic fields

in the hippocampus of each section, and three sections were assessed for each mouse brain. Images were coded and analyzed using ImageJ/Fiji (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD) by an investigator blinded to experimental groups.

Imaris 3D rendering

The software Imaris (Bitplane, v.9.0.1) was used to reconstruct 3D images. Briefly, image stacks obtained by confocal microscopy were imported into Imaris, and the Surfaces or Spots module was used to generate 3D structures of immunofluorescence signals. After a region of interest was selected, the absolute intensity of each source channel was used for reconstruction.

Western blot

Protein was isolated from the mouse brain. Western blots were performed using the standard SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) method. Immunoreactivity was semi-quantitatively measured by gel densitometric scanning and analyzed with the ImageJ software. The primary antibodies used include Apln (1:500, Cat# PA5-114860; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) and β -actin (1:5000, Cat# MAB8929; R&D systems, Minneapolis, MN). Polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes were blocked in blocking buffer for 1 h at room temperature and then incubated with primary antibodies at 4 °C overnight. The membrane was incubated with secondary antibodies for 1 h at room temperature (1:10,000, LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA) and scanned with LI-COR Odyssey Infrared Imaging System 9201-550U (LI-COR Biotechnology, Lincoln, NE, USA). The results were normalized to β -actin expression.

BrdU cell proliferation assay

A BrdU cell proliferation kit (Cat# 11647229001, Roche, Indianapolis, IN) was used to assess cell proliferation according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, primary mBMECs seeded in a 96-well plate in reduced growth media were treated with Apln13 or vehicle and then pulsed with BrdU reagent at 37°C for 20 h. Cells were fixed for 30 min and then incubated with mouse anti-BrdU antibody at room temperature (RT) for 1.5 h. After incubation with the tetramethylbenzidine substrate in the dark for 30 min, the stop solution was added. The absorbance was measured spectrophotometrically at 370nm using a microplate reader (SpectraMax i3x, Molecular Device).

Scratch migration assay

The scratch migration assay was performed as described previously.⁸⁷ In brief, mBMECs were seeded in a 24-well plate and incubated for 24 hours with endothelial cell growth media (Cat# M1168, Cell Biologics, Chicago, IL). A wound was created in the mBMEC monolayer using a 200 μ L pipette tip. The cells were then replaced with fresh reduced growth medium with vehicle or Apln13 (100 ng/mL) treatment or normal growth media and incubated at 37°C for a total of 30 hours. Images were captured at the start and at 6, 12, 24 and 30 hours. Cell migration was assessed using the EVOS M7000 imaging system (Invitrogen) and analyzed with ImageJ software. Relative scratch closure was calculated as (wound area at 0 h – wound area at each time point)/(wound area at 0 h).

Tube formation assay

Tube formation assay was performed as described.⁸⁸ Briefly, a 48-well plate was coated with Cultrex Basement Membrane Extract (BME, Cat# 3470-096-K, Bio-Techne, Minneapolis, MN) at 37°C for 1 hour. mBMECs were stained with Calcein AM solution for 30 mins at 37°C. After staining, the cells were seeded in the Cultrex BME-coated 48-well plates (5×10^4 cells/well) in endothelial cell reduced growth media with or without Apln13 (100 ng/mL) treatment or normal growth media and incubated at 37°C for 4 hours. Tubular structures were imaged using an EVOS™ XL Core Imaging System and quantified by counting the number of branch points, the number of meshes, and by measuring the total mesh coverage area, and total tube length using ImageJ software.

Single cell RNA sequencing

Brains were perfused with ice-cold saline and freshly harvested 42 d after ACAS or after Sham operation. Single cell suspensions were isolated as described.⁸⁹ Cell viability were checked by Cellometer Auto 2000 Automatic Cell Viability Counter system (Nexcelom). The samples with > 85% viability were proceeded to single cell RNA sequencing library preparation. Single live cells were separated into Gel bead in emulsion (GEM)s formed by oil micro-droplets by the Chromium instrument (10X Genomics) using Single Cell 3' v3 reagents. Each GEM contains a gel bead and a cell. A greater than 1,000-fold excess of partitions compared to cells assured that most GEMs were only one cell/GEM. The reaction mixture/emulsion with captured and barcoded mRNAs were removed from the Chromium instrument followed by reverse transcription. The cDNA samples were fragmented and amplified per 10X protocol. The libraries were then purified, quantified, and sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq in the UPMC Genome center.

Single-cell RNA sequencing data processing

Single-cell RNA-seq expression profiles of two ACAS and two sham-operated mouse brains were generated as described previously.⁸⁹ The library for each sample was prepared per individual and integrated computationally. Raw base calls were processed with Cell Ranger (v9.0, 10x Genomics), which performed demultiplexing, STAR-based alignment to the [mm10/GRCm38] reference genome, and UMI-based gene quantification to generate filtered feature–barcode matrices (outs filtered_feature_bc_matrix).

Quality control, filtering, and integration

Raw count matrices were imported into R version 4.4.1 programming environment using R package Seurat v5.2.1. Initial quality control (QC) metrics were visualized separately for each of the four samples to evaluate sample-specific distributions of sequencing depth and cell quality. For each cell, we computed the total UMI count (nUMI), the number of detected genes (nGene), the fraction of reads mapping to mitochondrial genes (percent.mt; genes matching `^mt-`), and library complexity ($\log_{10}[\text{genes per UMI}]$).

To account for systematic differences between experimental conditions, samples were merged based on conditions (ACAS vs sham) before QC filtering, and condition-specific thresholds were applied. Cells were retained if they had >500 UMIs, $<35\%$ mitochondrial transcripts and $\log_{10}(\text{genes per UMI}) > 0.8$. Gene-count thresholds were determined at the condition level due to the different distribution. ACAS cells with 200–2,500 detected genes, and sham cells with 200–4,000 detected genes were included. At the gene level, genes expressed in fewer than 10 cells were excluded. QC thresholds were determined by visual inspection of QC metric distributions within each condition. No explicit doublet-detection algorithm was applied; instead, we relied on stringent QC thresholds on UMI counts, detected genes, mitochondrial fraction, and library complexity to remove low-quality cells and extreme outliers consistent with potential multiplets.

After QC filtering, the ACAS and sham datasets were merged into a single Seurat object for normalization and integration. Potential batch covariates included sequencing/library origin (encoded in `orig.ident` as `vd1`, `vd2`, `sham1`, and `sham2`), sequencing depth-related QC metrics, and mitochondrial transcript proportion. To mitigate technical variation between experimental conditions, we performed SCTransform-based integration following the standard Seurat workflow. The merged object was split by condition, normalized using SCTransform with regression of `percent.mt`, and 3,000 integration features were selected. Integration anchors were identified using SCT normalization, followed by data integration. Dimension reduction (PCA/UMAP) and downstream analyses were performed on the integrated object.

Integration controls were applied to evaluate the effectiveness of batch correction. Low-dimensional embeddings were inspected after integration by coloring cells according to experimental condition and library of origin to assess mixing across libraries. In addition, expression patterns of canonical endothelial marker genes were examined in both SCT-normalized and integrated assays to confirm preservation of cell identity following integration. Only technical covariates, including mitochondrial transcript proportion, were regressed during normalization, and no biological variables were regressed. To assess potential confounding effects of cell cycle, cell cycle phase scores were computed using canonical S-phase and G2/M-phase marker genes and examined in downstream dimensionality reduction analyses. Cell cycle scores were not regressed out during normalization or integration. The final integrated dataset comprised high-quality cells from four samples (ACAS1: 2,578 cells; ACAS2: 2,237 cells; sham1: 4,827 cells; sham2: 4,429 cells).

Normalization, integration, and dimensionality reduction

For downstream analyses, the integrated dataset was subjected to principal component analysis (PCA), followed by UMAP and t-SNE for visualization and clustering. All subsequent analyses were performed using the batch-corrected integrated expression space. The integrated dataset was projected onto its first 40 principal components (PCs) using the `RunPCA()` function and further visualized in two dimensions using `RunUMAP()` and `RunTSNE()`. For clustering, we explored resolutions between 0.1 and 1, incrementing by 0.1 each time, and determined an optimal resolution of 0.2 based on the `clustree` visualization tool. At this resolution, 20 clusters were identified and annotated using previously described cell-specific or enriched marker genes.^{90,91} Marker genes were selected with a minimum fractional expression threshold (`min.pct = 0.25`).

For further downstream analysis, we isolated specific clusters, including endothelial cell (EC) and astrocyte (ASC) clusters. The entire workflow—from normalization to cell-type annotation—was repeated for each subcluster to ensure accurate classification and analysis.

Differentially expression gene (DEG) and gene-ontology (GO) enrichment analysis

Differential expression analyses were performed to identify marker genes for different cell clusters. The analysis focused on two identified cell types of interest: endothelial cells (ECs) and astrocytes (ASCs). We isolated Seurat objects of these corresponding cell types for all samples combined and for ACAS samples specifically. Differential gene expression analyses in scRNA-seq data were performed using the Wilcoxon rank-sum test as implemented in Seurat (`FindMarkers`, `test.use = "wilcox"`). This non-parametric test does not assume normality or homoscedasticity of gene expression distributions and is therefore appropriate for sparse single-cell count data. P-values were adjusted for multiple testing across all genes using the Benjamini–Hochberg false discovery rate (FDR) procedure, as implemented by default in Seurat. Genes were considered differentially expressed based on an adjusted p-value threshold (FDR) and a minimum $\log_2$ fold-change cutoff. GO enrichment analysis and gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) were performed using R Bioconductor package `clusterProfiler` v3.20 and the online tool METASCAPE. GO enrichment analysis was based on the Bioconductor annotation database `GO.db`, with the mouse genome annotation database `org.Mm.eg.db` serving as the enrichment background. The `enrichGO()` function was used to perform hypergeometric tests for GO term enrichment based on the pre-identified DEGs. Multiple testing across GO terms was controlled using the Benjamini–Hochberg FDR method, and enriched terms were reported based on FDR-adjusted p-values. Additionally, KEGG GSEA was performed to identify cellular pathways and processes, as well as to assess statistically significant differences between ACAS and sham samples for predefined gene sets. We visualized the enriched KEGG pathway using the R package `pathview`.

Pseudo-time trajectory analysis

We performed pseudo-time analysis using the R package Monocle3⁷⁷ to explore the developmental trajectory of subclusters within the EC cluster. We ordered genes using default settings and applied the DDRTree algorithm through the `reduceDimension()` function to construct the cell trajectory. The `plot_cell_trajectory()` function is used to generate the two-dimensional diffusion map. Gene expressions across pseudotime trajectory were visualized using `plot_pseudotime_heatmap()` and `plot_genes_in_pseudotime()` functions.

RNA velocity analysis

To provide independent and kinetic support for the directionality of the inferred endothelial pseudotime trajectory, spliced, unspliced, and ambiguous transcript count matrices were generated for each sample using velocityto.R v0.6 package. Loom files corresponding to individual libraries were processed separately, and cell barcodes were standardized to ensure consistency with Seurat object. Only endothelial cells retained after QC were included in downstream velocity analyses.

For each sample, spliced, unspliced, and ambiguous count matrices were subset to endothelial cells and subsequently merged across samples, ensuring identical gene ordering across matrices. Cells were further restricted to those shared between the merged loom matrices and the Seurat object used for downstream analyses. RNA velocity was estimated using the `gene.relative.velocity.estimate()` function in velocityto.R, with default parameters set to $\Delta T = 1$, $k_{\text{Cells}} = 25$, and $\text{fit.quantile} = 0.02$. This approach estimates gene-wise RNA velocity by modeling the relationship between spliced and unspliced transcript abundances across local cell neighborhoods.

Velocity vectors were projected onto the two-dimensional UMAP embedding derived from the Seurat object using `show.velocity.on.embedding.cor()`, enabling visualization of predicted future transcriptional states in the context of endothelial subcluster structure. Velocity fields were smoothed and visualized using a square-root scaling of vector lengths ($\text{scale} = \text{"sqrt"}$), with grid-based flow visualization enabled (`show.grid.flow = TRUE`, `grid.n = 40`, `min.grid.cell.mass = 0.5`). Cells were colored according to endothelial subcluster identity to facilitate interpretation of directional transitions between EC states.

To validate velocity estimates at the gene level, phase portraits comparing spliced versus unspliced transcript abundances were examined for representative endothelial and angiogenic genes, including *Apln*, *Angpt2*, and *Pecam1*. Together, RNA velocity patterns were consistent with the pseudotime ordering and supported a directional transition from capillary vein-like endothelial cells toward tip-cell and arterial states.

Cell-cell communication analysis

Cell-cell communication analysis was performed through the R package CellChat v2.1.2 with built-in CellChatDB.mouse ligand-receptor reference database bundled to this version.⁷⁶ Analyses were conducted in single-cell RNA mode using raw RNA counts as input. CellChat infers putative cell-cell interactions by integrating prior biological knowledge of ligand-receptor pairs with gene expression data, identifying differentially expressed ligands and receptors across cell groups and estimating the probability of inter-cellular communication using a mass action-based model.

Communication probabilities were calculated using a robust Tukey trimean aggregator, which integrates the average expression of ligands in sender cell populations and the corresponding receptors in receiver populations. To assess robustness, interaction probabilities were estimated using 100 bootstrap resamples with the default kernel bandwidth ($K_h = 0.5$). No explicit spatial or contact-dependent constraints were imposed (`contact.dependent = FALSE`), and population size weighting was not applied (`population.size = FALSE`).

CellChat objects were generated from Seurat objects restricted to EC, ASC, and vSMC clusters. To better understand communication patterns between cell clusters, we performed two sets of complementary analysis: 1) cell-cell communication analysis limited to ACAS samples only; and 2) comparison analysis between ACAS and sham conditions using a merged CellChat object. We identified and visualized conserved and context-specific signaling pathways as well as up-regulated and down-regulated signaling ligand-receptor pairs. Multiple visualization approaches were used to visually compare the signaling gene expression distribution between ACAS and sham. Edges in the inferred cell-cell communication networks were retained only if both ligand and receptor genes were expressed in at least 10 cells within their respective sender and receiver populations (`filterCommunication(min.cells = 10)`). No additional hard thresholding on interaction probabilities was applied beyond CellChat's intrinsic bootstrap-based significance estimation.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Sample sizes for all animal studies were determined by power analyses, allowing us to detect differences with 80% power at the expected effect sizes (range from 1.5 to 8). Effect sizes were estimated from pilot studies or our previously published work. The Type I error rate was limited using an α level of 5%, with the Bonferroni adjustment according to the number of pairwise comparisons. Results are presented as scatterdot plots with mean $\pm$ standard error of the mean (SEM). GraphPad Prism software (version 10.0.0, La Jolla, CA) was used for statistical analyses. The Student's t-test was used for comparison of two groups for continuous variables with normal distributions. The differences in means among multiple groups were analyzed using one-way or two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) or its nonparametric version, the Kruskal-Wallis test. Differences in means across groups with repeated measurements over time were analyzed using the repeated measures ANOVA. When the ANOVA showed significant differences, pairwise comparisons between means were tested by *post hoc* Dunnett or Dunn's (all conditions compared with an indicated group) or Bonferroni or Tukey (comparisons between all conditions) tests. The correlation analyses between continuous data with normal distributions were performed using Pearson correlation analyses. In all analyses, $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.