Descending inhibition of itch by neurokinin 1 receptor (Tacr1) -expressing ON cells in the rostral ventromedial medulla

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Abstract

The rostral ventromedial medulla (RVM) is important in descending modulation of spinal nociceptive transmission, but it is unclear if these descending pathways also modulate spinal pruriceptive transmission. RVM ON cells are activated by noxious algesic and pruritic stimuli and are pronociceptive. Many RVM-spinal projection neurons express the neurokinin-1 receptor (Tacr1), and ON-cells are excited by local administration of substance P (SP). We hypothesized that Tacr1-expressing RVM ON cells exert an inhibitory effect on itch opposite to their pronociceptive action. Intramedullary microinjection of SP significantly potentiated RVM ON cells and reduced pruritogen-evoked scratching while facilitating mechanical nociception. Chemogenetic activation of RVM Tacr1-expressing RVM neurons also reduced acute pruritogen-evoked scratching behavior while enhancing mechanonociception. Optotagging experiments confirmed RVM Tacr1-expressing neurons to be ON cells. We conclude that Tacr1-expressing ON cells in RVM play a significant role in the descending inhibition of spinal pruriceptive transmission.

Introduction

The transmission of somatosensory information in the spinal cord is under top-down modulation and has been extensively studied in the context of pain signaling. Descending modulation of pain is reflected by phenomena such as expectation (placebo and nocebo), diffuse noxious inhibitory control (DNIC) and conditioned pain modulation (CPM)[1–5]. Descending modulation is also thought to underlie stress mediated changes in pain threshold, with acute stress inhibiting and chronic stress facilitating nociceptive transmission[6–9]. Recent studies indicate that the spinal transmission of pruriceptive information is also under descending modulatory influences. However, it is not known whether itch is modulated in the same way as pain[10–12].

The rostral ventromedial medulla (RVM) contains neurons with descending projections to the spinal cord which bidirectionally modulate spinal nociceptive transmission[9,13–17]. RVM ON cells are excited and OFF cells are inhibited by noxious stimulation just prior to a nocifensive withdrawal reflex, and respectively facilitate and inhibit spinal nociceptive transmission[18,19]. Increased ON cell and decreased OFF cell firing are thought to contribute to the chronification of pain[16]. NEUTRAL cells do not exhibit any significant response to noxious stimulation[20]. RVM neurons project to the spinal cord via the dorsolateral funiculus (DLF), terminating in layers I, II and V, and are implicated in the analgesic effects of opioids. It is still unknown whether the RVM ON and OFF cells are involved in the modulation of itch transmission.

A recent study reported that neurons in the periaqueductal gray (PAG) expressing Tac1, the gene for substance P (SP), project to and make an excitatory glutamatergic connection with neurons in the RVM[10]. Activation of these PAG neurons promotes scratching. A population of GABAergic neurons originating in the RVM synapse onto spinal neurons that express the gastrin releasing peptide receptor (GRPR)[11], which are considered to be essential for spinal pruriceptive transmission[21]. Activation of GABAergic and inhibition of glutamatergic neurons in PAG reduced scratching behavior in both acute and chronic itch conditions[12]. Furthermore,

pruritogens were shown to excite ON and inhibit OFF cells[22]. Cervical cold block, which diminishes activity in descending modulatory pathways, decreased pruritogen-evoked activity and facilitated algogen-evoked activity of spinal cord neurons implying opposing effects of descending modulatory pathways on nociceptive and pruriceptive transmission[23]. The current evidence suggests that at least two classes of PAG neurons, via connections to RVM cells, exert bimodal effects on the spinal pain and itch signaling pathways. Since activation of PAG *tac1r* neurons facilitates itch this implies that activation of RVM Tacr1-expressing neurons may likewise facilitate itch. However, RVM ON cells are known to facilitate pain, and thus may have an opposing effect on itch transmission.

Here we investigated the role of Tacr1-expressing RVM neurons in itch modulation. In the present study, we used pharmacological and opto/chemogenetic methods to selectively activate RVM Tacr1-expressing cells, which we hypothesize represent a population of RVM ON cells, and assessed the effects on pruritogen-evoked scratching, and thermal and mechanical nociceptive behavior. When RVM Tacr1-expressings cells were activated we observed that itch related behaviors were inhibited, while mechanical nociception was facilitated. We used optotagging to characterize these RVM Tacr1-expressing neurons as RVM ON cells. These results are the first to demonstrate an inhibitory effect of RVM ON cells on spinal itch transmission, contrary to their known pronociceptive function.

Methods

Animals

Experiments were performed used wild type mice (c57BL/6j, Jackson Labs, Bar Harbor ME), Tacr1 cre^{+/-} (courtesy of Dr. X. Dong, Johns Hopkins University), Tacr1 cre [+/-] mice[24] and fev-cre (5-HT-expressing, Jackson Labs) of both sexes, 8-10 weeks of age, all on a C57Bl6 background. Mice were given free access to food and water and housed under standard

laboratory conditions.   All procedures were approved by the University of California, Davis and University of Pittsburgh Animal Care and Use Committees and followed the ARRIVE guidelines to the extent possible.

Pharmacologic agents

Clozapine was dissolved in saline and administered intraperitoneally (ip) at concentrations of 0.01 and 0.1 mg/kg. Clozapine-N-oxide (CNO;Tocris, Bristol UK) was dissolved in phosphate-buffered saline and administered ip (5 mg/kg). In clozapine and CNO treated mice, experiments were conducted 30 minutes following their administration. Histamine HCl (Sigma, St. Louis MO; 0.5% in 10 μl) or chloroquine diphosphate salt (Sigma; 1% in 10 μl) were dissolved in physiological saline and administered intradermally via a 30 g needle in the nape of the neck. Imiquimod cream (5%; Aldara, 50 mg; 3 M Health Care Limited, UK) was administered topically once per day to shaved skin on the rostral back for 5 days.

Stereotaxic injections and cannula implantation

Animals were anesthetized with 2% isoflurane and placed in a stereotaxic head frame. A burr hole was made in the calvarium and a Hamilton microsyringe loaded with virus was stereotaxically placed such that the tip was at the injection site in RVM (RC: -5.5 to -5.8 mm, ML: 0.0, DV: -4.2 to -6 mm). Virus (0.25-1 μl) containing either AAV5: hSyn-DIO-hM3Dq-mCherry (excitatory DREADD; Addgene, Watertown MA), AAV5: hSyn-DIO-mCherry (control vector, Addgene), AAV5: hSyn-DIO-hM4Di-mCherry (inhibitory DREADD; Addgene) or AAV5: hSyn-DIO-ChR2-eYFP (Addgene) was injected into the RVM. Virus was infused at an approximate rate of 100 nL/min. The injection needle was left in place for an additional 15 min post-injection and then slowly withdrawn. The incision was closed using Vetbond and animals were given ketofen (10 mg/kg ip) or buprenorphine (0.05 mg/kg ip) and allowed to recover on a heating pad. A 4 week recovery period ensured prior to experimentation.

For intracranial drug injections, an injection cannula (Plastics One, Roanoke VA) was implanted stereotaxically with the tip targeted 1-2 mm above the RVM. For optogenetic stimulation, following microinjection of AAV5: hSyn-DIO-ChR2-eYFP into RVM, an optic fiber (Doric Lenses, Quebec Canada) was stereotaxically implanted at the target site. Dental cement was used to affix the injection cannula or optic fiber to the skull. Post-implantation mice received buprenorphine (0.05 mg/kg ip). Mice recovered for at least 4 weeks prior to experimentation.

Intracranial Drug Microinjection

Mice were habituated for 15 minutes prior to intracranial drug injection in clear cylindrical glass enclosures and videotaped from above. Saline (0.5 µl) or Substance P (SP, 0.5 µl, 10 nmol, Tocris, Minneapolis MN) was microinjected. Fifteen minutes post-injection mice were tested for itch or pain behaviors as described below. Both male and female mice were used.

Chemogenetics and Optogenetics

Thirty minutes after ip administration of saline clozapine or CNO, behavioral testing commenced. For optogenetic stimulation, optic pulses (up to 5 mW, 473 nm, 5-20 hz, 10 ms pulse duration) from a laser (Laserglow R471003GX, 10 mW output) or LED (Doric Lenses, FRJ-BA-FC, 2 mW output) were delivered via an optic fiber and were applied during the 20 minute period following pruritogen injection or during acute nociceptive testing.

Behavior

Scratching behavior: Scratch bouts were defined as back-and-forth hindpaw movements directed to the rostral back, followed by biting the toes and/or placement of the hindpaw on the floor. Scratch bouts elicited by histamine, chloroquine or saline vehicle were videotaped and counts made by at least two blinded observers. Nociceptive behavioral assays (von Frey; Hargreaves) were conducted by investigators blinded as to treatment. Successive behavioral tests were conducted in pseudorandom order and spaced 1 week apart.

Von Frey: Mechanical sensitivity was measured in two ways. Mice stood on a mesh floor allowing access to the plantar surface from below. Using the Chaplan up-down method[25]. calibrated von Frey filaments (North Coast Medical Inc.) were applied to the plantar surface. Paw lifting, shaking, and licking were scored as positive responses. Averaged responses were obtained from each hindpaw, with 3 min between trials on opposite paws, and 5 min between trials on the same paw. Alternatively, the force at the moment of hindpaw withdrawal was measured using an electronic von Frey device (2390; IITC, Woodland Hills CA). Measurements were again taken from each hindpaw with 3 and 5 min between trials on the same or opposite paw.

Hargreaves: Animals were acclimated on a glass plate held at 30°C (Model 390 Series 8, IITC Life Science Inc.). A radiant heat source was applied to the hindpaw and latency to paw withdrawal was recorded (Hargreaves et al., 1988). Two trials were conducted on each paw, with at least 5 min between tests of opposite paws and at least 10 min between tests of the same paw. To avoid tissue damage, a cut off latency of 20 sec was set. Values from both paws were averaged.

<u>In vivo single-unit recording</u>

 Adult mice (6 wk) mice were anesthetized with pentobarbital sodium (60 mg/kg, ip). The head was secured in a stereotaxic frame and an opening was made in the occipital bone. The animal's body temperature was maintained with a heating pad and external heating source. Teflon coated silver wires were inserted into the biceps femoris to record electromyographic (EMG) activity. A single-unit recording microelectrode (10 MOhm, Frederick Haer Inc., Bowdoin ME) was coupled to a 33-gauge injection cannula such that the tip of the recording microelectrode extended several μm beyond the tip of the injection cannula and was inserted into the RVM. ON cells were identified by a hindpaw pinch-evoked increase in firing that preceded the hindlimb withdraw reflex measured as EMG activity from fine wires inserted in the

biceps femoris. Once an ON cell was identified, either saline or SP (0.5 µl, 10 nmol) was microinjected and changes in firing rate to repeated consistent pinch stimuli were recorded. Responses to pinch stimuli were normalized to the initial response for each unit. Electrode voltages were amplified and digitized (CED 1401, CED, Cambridge UK) and analyzed with Spike2 (CED). At the end of the recording, a lesion was produced at the last recording site by passing direct current through the microelectrode, the brain was harvested postmortem and postfixed in 10% formalin.

Optotagging

At least 4 weeks following injection of AAV5: hSyn-DIO-ChR2-eYFP into RVM, single-unit recordings were made from RVM as described above using a Tungsten microelectrode attached to an optic fiber. In most experiments ON cells were functionally characterized as described above, and OFF cells were characterized by a pinch-evoked pause in ongoing activity that preceded the withdrawal reflex. ON and OFF cells were then tested for entrainment to optic stimulation at 473 nm wavelength and <5 mW light output. In some experiments, optic stimulation was used as to isolate light-sensitive neurons, which were then identified as ON, OFF or NEUTRAL based on their response to pinch. Efficiency indices were calculated as the number of action potentials firing within a 20 ms window following the onset of the optic stimulus divided by the total number of optic stimulus pulses, and were used to determine whether a neuron was entrained to the optic stimulus. Both male and female mice were used for all electrophysiological experiments.

Imiquimod Treatment

Imiquimod cream was applied topically to the shaved area on the rostral back once per day for 5 consecutive days. Treatment groups consisted of age-matched male and female NK-1-cre mice that had received intra-RVM injection of AAV5: DIO-hM3Dq-mCherry or the control vector

AAV5: hSyn-DIO-mCherry. Imiquimod treatment induced signs of skin pathology including skin scaling and erythema. As measures of chronic itch, we assessed spontaneous scratching, and alloknesis, 23 hours following imiquimod treatment. Mice were videotaped and tested between 10 AM and 5 PM, with each individual mouse tested at the same time each day. The mice were habituated to glass cylinders for 3 successive days prior to recording. Animals were videotaped from above for 30 min. Behavioral videos were analyzed by two blinded observers. Only discrete bouts of spontaneous hindlimb scratches directed towards the application site were counted, as described previously[26] and summed over the 30 min period. Alloknesis was assessed as previously described[27]. The mouse was placed in an enclosed area and a 0.07g von Frey monofilament was applied to the perimeter of the imiquimod application area 5 consecutive times. The alloknesis score consisted of the number of immediately-occurring hindlimb scratch bouts directed to the stimulus site.

Immunofluorescence

Four weeks after intra-RVM injection of AAV5:hSyn-DIO-hM3Dq-mCherry or the control vector (AAV5:hSyn-DIO-mCherry) in Tacr1 cre mice, clozapine (0.01 mg/kg, i.p.) was injected, followed 1 hr later by perfusion (4% paraformaldehyde), harvesting of brains and post-fixation overnight in 4% paraformaldehyde. Brains were sectioned (20 μm) on a freezing microtome and stained as free floating sections. DREADDs-expressing neurons were counterstained for Tacr1 expression with a conjugated Tacr1 antibody (D-11, sc-365091, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas TX) at 1:50 overnight at 4°C. c-fos was stained with a primary c-fos antibody (ab190289, Abcam, Cambridge UK) at 1:10,000 overnight at room temperature. Alexa Fluor 488 (ab15077, Abcam) was applied at 1:2000 for 2 hours at room temperature. All slides were mounted with vectashield and imaged with confocal microscopy. Staining intensity was measured relative to the red fluorescence (from DREADDs) and was quantified using FIJI[28].

RNAscope in situ hybridization

Multiplex fluorescent in situ hybridization was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions (Advanced Cell Diagnostics #320850). Sixteen μm-thick fresh-frozen sections containing the RVM were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde, dehydrated, treated with protease for 15 minutes, and hybridized with gene-specific probes to mouse. Probes were used to detect *Mm-TacR1-C1* (#428781) and *Mm-Slc32a1-C3* (#319191). DAPI (#320858) was used to visualize nuclei. 3-plex positive (#320881) and negative (#320871) control probes were tested. Three to four z-stacked sections were quantified for a given mouse, and 3-4 mice were used per experiment. To quantify images in RNAscope in situ hybridization experiments, images of tissue samples (3-4 sections per mouse over 3 mice) were imaged and only cells whose nuclei were clearly visible by DAPI staining and exhibited fluorescent signal were counted.

Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism. Values are presented as mean +/- SEM. Statistical significance was assessed using students t-test or a two-way, repeated measures ANOVA with Bonferroni's correction, unless otherwise specified. Significance was indicated by $p < 0.05$. Sample sizes were based on pilot data and are similar to those typically used in the field.

For analysis of effects of intracranial microinjections, a paired students t-test was used to compare the effects of intracranial injection of saline versus SP on behavioral measures. Two-way ANOVA determined a lack of significant sex x SP microinjection interaction, so the data from both sexes were pooled. For chemogenetic experiments, a paired t-test was used to compare scratch counts and nociceptive measures following vehicle vs. clozapine or CNO injection, or between vector controls and DREADDs mice following clozapine or CNO. For optogenetic experiments a paired t-test was similarly used to compare behavioral measures during and in the absence of optic stimulation.

For experiments with imiquimod, paired students t-tests compared the effects of ip injection of saline versus clozapine on spontaneous scratch bouts and alloknesis scores. A two-way ANOVA revealed no interaction for sex x clozapine administration, so the data were pooled for further analysis.

For single-unit recordings, a 2-way repeated measures ANOVA with bonferroni post-hoc test was used to compare the neuronal responses to pinch following intra-RVM injection of saline or SP for 60 minutes post-injection.

For immunohistochemical staining for c-fos, students t-test compared the staining intensity of c-fos and the proportion of c-fos positive neurons in Tacr1-expressing neurons following administration of clozapine, in mice receiving DREADDs or control vector injections.

Results

<u>SP enhances RVM ON-cell responses to pinch</u>

In rats, responses of RVM ON cells were potentiated by intramedullary microinjection of the Tacr1 agonist SP[29] and we wished to determine whether this is true in mouse. We identified RVM ON cells with the criterion that noxious pinch elicited a > 30% increase in firing that preceded the onset of the hindpaw withdrawal. Using a microinjection cannula attached to a recording microelectrode (Fig. 1A), SP or saline was microinjected while recording from an ON cell. Microinjection of SP potentiated pinch-evoked responses (Fig.1B). Following SP microinjection, normalized responses of ON cells to repeated pinch stimuli were significantly increased (Fig. 1C). The enhancement of responses lasted > 1 hr. Histologically recovered recording sites were located within the RVM and adjacent regions of the medullary reticular formation (Fig. 1D). These results show that, similar to rats, RVM ON cells in the mouse are potentiated following localized injection of SP.

<u>Intramedullary SP inhibits scratching</u>

Since RVM ON cells are potentiated following injection of SP, we next tested if intramedullary microinjection of SP affected itch and pain related behaviors. Mice were implanted with an intramedullary microinjection cannula dorsal to the RVM to allow microinjection of SP or vehicle (Fig. 1E). The number of scratch bouts elicited by intradermal injection of histamine was significantly lower following intramedullary microinjection of SP compared to saline vehicle (Fig. 1F). Scratching elicited by intradermal injection of chloroquine was also significantly reduced following intramedullary injection of SP compared to saline (Fig. 1G).

There was a significant decrease in mechanical force to elicit a hindlimb withdrawal following intramedullary SP compared to vehicle injection (Fig. 1H), indicating mechanical allodynia. There was no significant effect of intramedullary SP injection on thermal hindpaw withdrawal latency (Fig. 1I). Thus, activation of RVM Tacr1, through intramedullary injection of SP, resulted in facilitation of mechanical nociceptive behavior and inhibition of pruritogen-evoked scratching behavior.

Targeted expression of DREADDs in RVM Tacr1 expressing neurons

We next wanted to determine whether activation of RVM Tacr1 expressing neurons, would modulate itch related behaviors. To selectively target Tacr1-expressing neurons in the RVM we employed a chemogenetic approach. AAV-DIO-hM3dq-mCherry was injected into the RVM of Tacr1 cre mice, resulting in selective expression of hM3Dq in Tacr1-expressing neurons (84% expression of DREADDs in Tacr1 positive cells, Fig. 2A-C).

To activate the DREADDs (hM3Dq), clozapine was injected at a dose 0.01 mg/kg[30]. This dose of clozapine was sufficient to produce increased activity of DREADDs-expressing neurons measured by c-fos staining intensity and total number of c-fos positive DREADDs neurons when compared with clozapine injection in mice that received an injection of a control viral vector containing only mCherry. Following clozapine administration, the c-fos staining intensity of

neurons in DREADDs (hM3Dq-mCherry) mice was significantly greater than in neurons from control vector (mCherry) mice (Fig. 2E-H). The number of c-fos positive mCherry-expressing cells were counted, and those in DREADDs (hM3Dq-mCherry) mice exhibited significantly greater co-expression (68.98% +/- 11.83%) compared with neurons from control vector (mCherry) mice (36.02% +/- 5.96%; Fig. 3 I-L, p = 0.0158). These results show that injection of clozapine activates hM3Dq, which is expressed by RVM Tacr1 neurons.

RVM Tacr1 expressing neurons are GABAergic

Recent reports have shown that RVM GABAergic neurons descend to the spinal cord and can facilitate mechanical nociception[31] and synapse onto spinal neurons expressing GRPR[11]. We next wanted to determine whether RVM Tacr1 expressing neurons are GABAergic. In situ hybridization experiments revealed that 75.26% of RVM neurons expressing the *Tac1r* (Fig. 2M) co-expressed a marker of GABAergic neurons (*Slc32a1*, Fig. 2N-P) and 26.01% of RVM GABAergic neurons co-expressed *Tac1r* (Fig. 2P). Our results are consistent with an earlier publication[32], and suggest that RVM neurons that express Tacr1 are GABAergic.

Activation of RVM Tacr1 expressing neurons inhibits acute itch

To test the functional role of the RVM Tacr1-expressing population of neurons in itch modulation, we used DREADDs (hM3dq) to activate these neurons during pruritogen-evoked scratching behaviors. Activation of DREADD-expressing RVM neurons in Tacr1 cre mice using clozapine significantly attenuated pruritogen-evoked scratching behavior. After clozapine administration (0.01 mg/kg, ip) there was a significant reduction in scratch bouts elicited by intradermal histamine as compared to systemic administration of saline vehicle (Fig. 3C). Similarly, there was a significant reduction in chloroquine-evoked scratching (Fig. 4D). In contrast, clozapine administration had no significant effect on withdrawal threshold to mechanical von Frey stimuli (Fig. 4E) or withdrawal latency to thermal stimulation (Fig. 3F).

Administration of clozapine in control vector (Tacr1-mCherry) mice had no significant effect on scratching behavior elicited by intradermal injection of histamine (Fig. 3C) or chloroquine (Fig. 3D). Likewise, clozapine administration had no significant effect on mechanical (Fig. 3E) or thermal hindpaw withdrawals in vector controls (Fig. 3F). Finally, neither the low (0.01 mg/kg) nor a higher dose (0.1 mg/kg) of clozapine had any significant effect on histamine- or chloroquine-evoked scratching behavior or on mechanically- or thermally-evoked paw withdrawals in wildtype mice (Supplemental Fig. 1).

We verified our results using a separate line of tac1Rcre-ER mice (Huang et al. 2016) that also received intra-RVM microinjection of the excitatory DREADD AAV2-DIO-hM3dq-mCherry. In DREADDs mice chemogenetic activation using CNO significantly reduced chloroquine evoked scratch bouts (Fig. 4A) and spontaneous scratching behavior (Fig. 4B), and also significantly reduced the von Frey mechanical withdrawal threshold (Fig. 4C) with no effect on thermal withdrawal latency (Fig. 4D). CNO had no effect in the control vector mice. In the DREADDs mice there was abundant mCherry expression in the RVM (Fig. 4E) as well as descending axons in the spinal dorsolateral funiculus (Fig. 4F). We conclude that activation of RVM Tacr1 expressing neurons inhibits pruritogen evoked scratching behavior.

RVM Tacr1 expressing neurons inhibit chronic itch

Since activation of RVM Tacr1-expressing neurons inhibited acute pruritogen-evoked scratching behavior, we next wanted to determine whether chronic itch related behaviors would be affected. We used the imiquimod model of psoriasisiform dermatitis in NK-R1 cre mice receiving intra-RVM injection of hM3Dq or control vector. Mice were treated daily with topical application of 5% imiquimod cream for 5 days. This resulted in a significant increase in spontaneous scratching on treatment day 3 (Fig. 5A, dark blue) and significantly increased alloknesis scores on treatment days 1, 3 and 5 (Fig. 5D, dark blue). Application of vehicle (Vanicream) had no effect on spontaneous scratching or alloknesis[33]. Following administration of clozapine on day

5, there was a significant reduction in the number of spontaneous scratch bouts (Fig. 5A, light

blue). Fig. 5B shows that scratch bouts in individual animals were significantly reduced after the

administration of clozapine. Clozapine administered on days 3 and 5 also significantly reduced

alloknesis scores (Fig. 5D, light blue). Fig. 5E shows significant reductions in alloknesis scores

of individual animals after as compared to before clozapine. Mice that received intra-RVM

microinjection of control vector also showed significant increases in spontaneous scratching

(Fig. 5A, dark green) and alloknesis scores (Fig. 5D, dark green) following imiquimod treatment.

Administration of clozapine did not significantly affect spontaneous scratching (Fig. 5C) or

alloknesis scores (Fig. 5F) in these mice. These results show that activation of RVM Tacr1-

expressing neurons reduces itch related behaviors in a model of chronic itch in addition to acute

pruritogen-evoked scratch bouts.

RVM ON cells express Tacr1

Previous reports had shown, in rats, that RVM ON cells were facilitated by local microinjection

of SP[29,34] and ablation of RVM neurons which express Tacr1, was antihyperalgesic[35], consistent

with a pronociceptive role for RVM ON cells.

We used Tacr1 cre mice which were injected with an AAV encoding channelrhodopsin

(AAV5:DIO-ChR2-eYFP). Four weeks later, the mice were anesthetized with sodium

pentobarbital for single-unit recording with a microelectrode whose tip extended a few

millimeters beyond the tip of an optic fiber it was affixed to (Fig. 6A). Injected mice exhibited

robust expression of eYFP in the RVM (Fig. 6B). ON and OFF cells were identified based on

their response to a pinch stimulus. Once identified, blue light (473 nm, <5 mW) was applied and

the cell was tested for entrainment to the light. Fig. 6C shows an example of an ON cell in RVM

that responded to pinch prior to the onset of EMG activity and was faithfully entrained to 10 hz

light stimulation (Fig. 6D). This neuron received a total of 37 light pulses at 2 hz and fired 32

action potentials within 20 ms of the light onset (Fig. 6E) with a calculated efficiency index of

0.86 (see below), and an average latency of 8.14 ms. The latencies measured presently compare favorably with those reported previously for hippocampal neurons[36]. The latency, or on rate, of neuronal activation differs by cell type[37] and increases with diminishing light density[38]. Out of 22 identified ON cells, 17 were entrained to the light stimulus, 1 was inhibited and 4 were not affected (Fig. 6F). It is possible that our estimate is an under representation since viral transduction was not completely efficacious. Since the majority of RVM ON cells were entrained to light stimulation, we conclude that the majority of ON cells likewise express Tacr1.

While our primary interest was RVM ON cells, we wanted to determine whether Tacr1 is also expressed in other cell types, such as RVM OFF cells. During our recordings we often found RVM OFF cells. Out of 14 identified OFF cells, 7 showed a clear inhibitory response to the light stimulation and 7 were unaffected (Fig. 6F). Often the inhibition of the OFF cell increased proportionately to the stimulation frequency (Fig. 6G-I). These results support the hypothesis that RVM ON cells provide an inhibitory input onto RVM OFF cells[39] and may underlie the RVM OFF cell mediated pause during noxious stimulation.

Occasionally NEUTRAL cells were identified by their response to optic stimulation (n = 3), and each was strongly entrained (Fig. 6F). We thus conclude that while most presently-recorded light-sensitive cells were ON cells, other cell types including NEUTRAL cells also expresses Tacr1.

To validate our results from optotagging, we used several metrics to determine whether a light-sensitive neuron was truly entrained to the optic stimulus. We assumed that each optic stimulus was likely to directly excite a neuron expressing ChR2 and tested this in different ways. An efficiency index was calculated to determine whether a neuron was entrained to the optic stimulus, by counting the number of evoked action potentials divided by the number of optic stimuli (Supplemental Fig. 2). NEUTRAL cells had the highest efficiency index (>1), which was

due to occasional firing of "doublet" action potentials in response to the optic stimulus (Supplemental Fig. 2). ON cells classified as light sensitive also had a high efficiency index, which decreased with increasing optic stimulation frequency most likely due to desensitization of ChR2. We additionally assumed that the neuronal firing rate would reflect the number of optic stimuli. Indeed, the neuronal firing rate in light sensitive neurons increased with the stimulation frequency, while non-light sensitive neurons showed no change (Supplemental Fig. 3). In neurons which were inhibited by optic stimulation, there was a decrease in firing rate following light stimulation (Supplemental Fig. 3, OFF cells). Finally, we assumed that the light-evoked latency of neuronal action potentials would be consistent (Fig. 4). For the population of light-sensitive ON cells, the average latency of responses to the optic stimuli delivered at 2 hz was 7.6 (+/- 1.12) ms (Supplemental Fig. 4). Thus, these experiments strongly support the hypothesis that the majority of RVM ON cells express Tacr1.

Sex Differences: Sex is known to influence nociceptive and pruriceptive responses. We used both male and female mice to determine whether there were sex differences in our behavioral experiments. We found only a few instances of significant sex differences. For groups receiving intramedullary saline, males exhibited a significantly higher von Frey withdrawal force than females (Supplemental Fig. 5D). Histamine-evoked scratching was significantly reduced following clozapine in both sexes, with males exhibiting stronger suppression than females (Supplemental Fig. 5E). During optogenetic activation of RVM 5-HT neurons there was a significant increase in histamine-evoked scratch bouts in males but not females, and males exhibited significantly more scratch bouts than females (Supplemental Fig. 5Q). These results demonstrate that role of RVM Tacr1-expressing neurons on the descending modulation of the nociceptive and pruriceptive pathways are consistent across sex.

Serotonergic RVM cells: Serotonergic neurons in the RVM have also been implicated in the modulation of itch transmission. Application of serotonin to the spinal cord neurons facilitates

responses of GRPR- expressing spinal neurons, and depletion of brainstem 5-HT reduces pruritogen-evoked scratching[40]. We therefore tested the descending modulatory effect of opto- and chemogenetic activation of RVM serotonergic neurons in fev-cre mice on acute itch and pain behavior. Fev-cre mice received intra-RVM injection of AAV5: DIO-ChR2-eYFP and implantation of an optic fiber. At least 4 weeks later, optogenetic stimulation with blue light pulses (473 nm wavelength, <5 mW, 10 hz) did not significantly affect the number of histamine or chloroquine-evoked scratch bouts (Supplemental Fig. 6A, B) or thermal paw withdrawal latency (Supplemental Fig. 7C). eYFP expression was robust and localized to the RVM (Supplemental Fig. 6K). Additional fev-cre mice received intra-RVM injection of AAV5: DIO-hM3Dq-mCherry (excitatory DREADD) or AAV5: DIO-hM4Di-mCherry (inhibitory DREADD). At least 4 weeks later, mice were tested for itch and pain behavior with administration of clozapine or saline (vehicle control). In mice receiving the excitatory DREADD, clozapine administration had no effect on acute histamine or chloroquine-evoked scratching behavior (Supplemental Fig. 6D,E) or von Frey-evoked paw withdrawal thresholds (Supplemental Fig. 6F) although there was robust mCherry expression in RVM (Supplemental Fig. 6L). In mice receiving the inhibitory DREADD, clozapine administration resulted in a small but statistically significant facilitation of histamine-evoked scratch bouts (Supplemental Fig. 6G) as well as a significant increase in threshold for mechanically-evoked paw withdrawal (Supplemental Fig. 6J) with no significant effect on chloroquine-evoked scratching or thermal paw withdrawal latency (Supplemental Fig. 6H-I). Our results showed that activation of RVM 5-HT-expressing neurons had little or no effect on pruritogen-evoked scratching behaviors, while inhibition of 5-HT-expressing neurons facilitated pruritogen evoked scratching, in contrast to prior studies supporting a tonic descending facilitatory effect of brainstem serotonergic neurons on itch behavior. The discrepancy between our data showing disinhibition of histamine-evoked scratching, and data from depletion/ablation of RVM serotonergic neurons showing disfacilitation of itch behavior, might reflect acute vs. long term effects of reduced brainstem serotonergic activity.

Discussion

Previous studies indicate a pronociceptive role for SP acting at Tacr1 expressing neurons in RVM[29], many of which have descending spinal projections[41]. A novel finding of the present study is that pharmacological and chemogenetic activation of Tacr1-expressing RVM neurons inhibited itch-related scratching behavior, with weaker facilitation of mechanical nociception and no effect on thermal nociception. Our optotagging experiments provide evidence that Tacr1-expressing RVM cells are ON cells. These results argue for a causal role of a subpopulation of Tacr1-expressing ON cells in the descending inhibition of spinal pruriceptive transmission, in contrast to their pronociceptive role.

Role of SP in RVM in descending modulation

SP[42] and Tacr1[43] are present within the RVM. SP acting in the RVM potentiated ON cells, induced pronociceptive behavioral effects and sensitized spinal wide dynamic range dorsal horn neurons[29,44]. SP appears not to be released in the RVM in the absence of injury, but is released under inflammatory conditions elicited by CFA or capsaicin to induce Tacr1-dependent hyperalgesia[44–46]. The present study expands on this work in important ways. Firstly, we confirm that SP potentiates noxious pinch-evoked responses of mouse RVM ON cells. Secondly, our optotagging data provide evidence that the Tacr1-expressing neurons are ON cells. Importantly, our results support a role for these neurons in descending inhibition of acute and chronic itch. Intra-RVM microinjection of SP or chemogenetic activation of Tacr1-expressing neurons in two different Tacr1 cre lines significantly decreased pruritogen-evoked as well as chronic itch related scratching behavior, while facilitating mechanical nociception in most experiments with no effect on thermal nociception. This latter observation contrasts with a previous report that intra-RVM microinjection of a SP agonist enhanced thermal nociceptive behavior in rats[44] a discrepancy that might be attributed to a species difference.

Descending Modulation of Itch

Optogenetic activation of GABAergic neurons in RVM facilitated mechanical, but not thermal nociception in mice[31], consistent with our data. The latter authors suggested that the GABAergic RVM neurons might represent ON cells, which descend to presynaptically inhibit mechanonociceptor input onto spinal inhibitory enkephalinergic interneurons that in turn contact the spinal mechanonociceptive pathway. Thus, activation of the descending GABAergic neurons would facilitate mechanical nociception via disinhibition. We presently report that a large proportion of Tacr1-expressing neurons in RVM co-express GABA (Fig. 4), consistent with a previous study[32]. Thus, it is likely that some Tacr1-expressing RVM neurons with descending spinal projections use GABA as a neurotransmitter (Fig. 7). If so, our results are consistent with GABAergic modulation of mechanical but not thermal nociception[31]. GABAergic RVM-spinal projection neurons were also shown to synaptically contact GRPR-expressing neurons in the spinal cord[11], potentially consistent with the present results showing inhibition of scratching by activation of RVM neurons co-expressing Tacr1 and GABA (Fig. 7).

Electrical stimulation of the PAG inhibited nocifensive behavior in rats[47,48], and the PAG projects directly to the RVM[49]. Activation of PAG GABAergic neurons, and inhibition of glutamatergic neurons, reduced scratching behavior under both acute and chronic itch conditions [12] but facilitated nocifensive behaviors[50]. Activation of TAC1 (SP-expressing) neurons in the PAG was shown to facilitate pruritogen-evoked scratching via release of glutamate onto neurons in the RVM[10]. In contrast, our results indicate that activation of RVM Tacr1 neurons inhibited pruritogen-evoked scratching behavior. This potentially represents a difference in the synaptic connections of PAG Tac1-expressing neurons with glutamate- and/or Tacr1-expressing RVM neurons (Fig. 7). Previous studies have reported projections to RVM from SP-expressing neurons located in dorsolateral PAG, dorsal raphe nucleus, cuneiform nucleus, and lateral hypothalamus[32,51,52]. It is thus possible that Tacr1-expressing RVM neurons that inhibit

scratching are activated by different SP inputs than the RVM neurons activated by PAG TAc1-expressing neurons that facilitate scratching (Fig. 7).

Modality specific role of RVM ON cells

For decades, the role of RVM ON cells has been considered faciliatory for spinal nociceptive transmission. Our results suggest that the role of RVM ON cells is modality specific, with RVM ON cells facilitating spinal nociceptive while inhibiting pruriceptive transmission. Pruritogens and algogens similarly excited RVM ON and inhibited OFF cells, implying that the opposing modulatory effects of ON cells on spinal nociceptive vs. pruriceptive transmission likely occurs via separate spinal circuits. RVM ON cells have a GABA-mediated inhibitory connection to spinal enkephalinergic neurons[31], raising the possibility that spinal enkephalinergic tone accounts for the opposing effects on spinal nociceptive and pruriceptive transmission.

RVM ON and OFF cell connectivity

RVM OFF cells exhibited a characteristic pinch-evoked decrease in firing which preceded the onset of paw withdrawal[20,39] (Figure 6G). The pause in OFF cell firing is mediated through GABAergic inhibition, and morphine application can block GABAergic inhibition via presynaptic mu-opioid receptors [53,54]. In the present study, optogenetic stimulation inhibited 50% of the recorded OFF cells, presumably by exciting ON cells that postsynaptically inhibit OFF cells. This supports an older model which posited that RVM ON and OFF cells shared a mutual inhibitory connection[39].

Treatment of chronic itch with Tacr1 antagonists

The Tacr1 antagonists aprepitant and serlopitant were recently shown to be partially effective in reducing chronic itch of various etiologies. Tacr1 antagonists might act at Tacr1 that is expressed by spinothalamic and spinoparabrachial neurons[55] to reduce pruriceptive transmission. Indeed, ablation of Tacr1-expressing spinal and medullary neurons reduces

pruritogen evoked scratching behavior[56]. The present results suggest that Tacr1 antagonists also have an opposite effect to block Tacr1-mediated descending inhibition of itch. Systemic administration of Tacr1 antagonists thus appear to have offsetting supraspinal and spinal effects, explaining the limited efficacy of Tacr1 antagonists for chronic itch.

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Figure 1: Effects of intramedullary microinjection of SP on RVM ON cells and itch and pain behavior. (A) SP or saline was microinjected while recording from single ON cells. (B) Peristimulus-time histogram of ON cell response to pinch before (left) and 5 min after local microinjection of SP (right). (C) Averaged normalized firing rate of ON cells following local microinjection of saline (blue, n = 8) or SP (red, n = 8) at time indicated by arrow. ON cells showed a significant increase in evoked firing following SP injection compared with saline (*; p = 0.0133, 2-way ANOVA). Male mice were used in these experiments. (D) Lesion sites from the RVM ON cell recordings. Numbers to right indicate Bregma coordinates. (E) An implanted intramedullary microinjection cannula allowed assessment of itch and pain behavior after injection of SP into RVM. (F, G) Graphs plot number of scratch bouts elicited by intradermal injection of histamine (F) or chloroquine (G) for each mouse (red dots and lines), and mean scratch bouts (blue line; error bars: SEM), following intramedullary microinjection of saline or SP. Experiments with saline and SP microinjections were conducted at least 7 days apart. Microinjection of SP significantly attenuated histamine- and choloroquine-evoked scratching (F, G). (H) Mechanical withdrawal thresholds were reduced by intramedullary SP. (I) Thermal withdrawal latency was not significantly affected by intramedullary SP. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001. n = 5-7 males, 3 females/ group.

Figure 2: In mice receiving AAV-DIO-hM3Dq-mCherry injections in the RVM of Tacr1 cre $^{+/-}$ mice, mCherry strongly colocalized with Tacr1 expression and clozapine strongly increased Tacr1 cellular activity. (A-C): images of RVM cells expressing mCherry (A), anti-Tacr1 antibody (B), and double-labeled cells (C). (D): 84% of cells exhibited co-localization of Tacr1 and mCherry. (E-G): images of RVM neurons expressing mCherry (E), c-fos (F) and double-labeled cells (G) after clozapine administration in mice that had received AAV-DIO-hM3Dq-mCherry injections in RVM. (H). Following administration of clozapine, the mean intensity of c-fos staining of RVM neurons was significantly greater in mice receiving hM3Dq compared to control vector mice. (I-K) Images of RVM cells expressing mCherry (I), c-fos (J) and double-labeled cells (K) following clozapine administration in mice that had received AAV-DIO-hM3Dq-mCherry injections in RVM. (L) Following administration of clozapine, the mean number of c-fos+ neuerons in RVM was significantly greater in mice receiving hM3Dq compared to control vector mice. N = 7-10/group, *p < 0.05. (M-P) in situ hybridization experiments revealed that expression of *Tacr1* (M) co-localized with *Slc32a*, a GABA transporter (N,O). (P) Graph plots percentages of *Slc32a* positive neurons in RVM that coexpressed *Tacr1* and of *Tacr1* positive neurons that coexpressed *Slc32a*.

Figure 3: Chemogenetic activation of RVM Tacr1 expressing neurons inhibits itch related behavior. (A) AAV5-DIO-hM3Dq-mCherry or AAV5-DIO-mCherry was injected into the RVM of Tacr1 cre mice. (B) Expression of hM3Dq-mCherry was limited to the RVM. (C) Administration of clozapine caused a significant reduction in histamine-evoked scratching (n = 7 males, 7 females) in hM3Dq expressing mice, but not in control vector mice 6 males, 3 females). (D) Administration of caused a significant reduction in chloroquine-evoked scratching in hM3Dq mice (7 males, 8 females) but not in control vector mice (6 males, 4 females). (E) Clozapine administration did not significantly change mechanical withdrawal thresholds in hM3Dq (7 males, 8 females) or control vector mice (6 males, 4 females). (F) Clozapine administration did not significantly change thermal withdrawal thresholds in hM3Dq (7 males, 8 females) or control vector mice (6 males, 4 females). *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, Two-way ANOVA with Sidaks multiple comparison test.

Fig. 4. Chemogenetic activation of RVM *tacr1* expressing neurons inhibits itch related behavior. *Tacr1*creER mice were injected with AAV2-DIO-hM3Dq-mCherry. (A) CNO administration significantly reduced chloroquine evoked scratch bouts in DREADDs but not control vector mice (n = 5-7 males, 5-7 females). (B) CNO reduced spontaneous scratching in hM3Dq-expressing but not control vector mice (n = 5 males, 5 females). (C) CNO administration significantly reduced mechanical withdrawal thresholds in DREADDs but not control vector mice (n = 5-7 males, 5-7 females). (D) CNO did not affect thermal withdrawal latency in any group (n = 5-7 males, 5-7 females). (E) mCherry expression (red) was robust at the site of injection in the RVM. (F) mCherry expression was observed in axonal projections in the dorsolateral funiculus. Scale bar: 100 μm for E and F.

Figure 5: Chemogenetic activation of RVM Tacr1 neurons reduces spontaneous scratching and alloknesis in the imiquimod model of chronic psoriasisiform itch. (A) Application of imiquimod (1%, 0.05 g, Taro) once per day produced a significant increase in spontaneous scratching at day 3 for both DREADDs (dark blue) and control vector (dark green) mice (n = 4 males, 4 females/group). Following clozapine, there was a significant reduction in spontaneous scratching on day 5 for the DREADDs mice (light blue). (B) Graph shows individual DREADDs animals' spontaneous scratch bouts pre- and post-clozapine. Following clozapine there was a significant reduction in scratching. Blue: individual counts; red: mean +/- SEM. (C) Graph as in B for mice in vector control group, in which clozapine had no significant effect. Green: individual counts; red: mean +/- SEM. (D) Imiquimod induced significant increases in alloknesis scores on day 1, 3 and 5 of treatment in DREADDs (dark blue) and vector control (dark green) mice. Following clozapine administration on days 3 and 5 there were significant reductions in alloknesis scores for the DREADDs mice (light blue) but not control vector groups (light green). (E) Clozapine resulted in a significant reduction in alloknesis scores (format as in B). (F) Clozapine had no effect on alloknesis scores in vector controls (format as in C). $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$.

Figure 6: Optotagging of RVM Tacr1 neurons. (A) RVM cells were recorded with a microelectrode coupled to an optic fiber.   (B) Injection of AAV-ChR2-eYFP in the RVM of Tacr1 cre$^{+/-}$ mice caused strong expression of eYFP. (C) ON cells were identified based on their pinch-evoked response that preceded the hindlimb withdrawal as monitored by EMG in biceps femoris. (D) Cells identified as RVM ON cells were optically stimulated (5 mW, 472nm). This neuron faithfully responded to each pulse in a 5 hz train. (E) Light entrainment was analyzed by creating peristimulus-time histograms of action potentials that occurred within a 20 msec window following the onset of each light pulse. This neuron responded consistently at a latency of approximately 8.14 msec with a calculated efficiency index of 0.86. (F) Distribution of RVM ON, OFF and Neutral cells which were excited (red), inhibited (blue), or not affected (yellow) by optic stimulation. (G) Application of a pinch stimulus elicits a hindlimb withdrawal (dotted line) and a pause in firing that is typical of OFF cells. (H) There is an intermittent decrease in OFF cell firing during 5 hz optic stimulation and a (I) total cessation of firing during 20 hz optic stimulation. (J) Lesion sites from the optotagging recordings of RVM ON (red circles), OFF (blue triangles) and NEUTRAL cells (green squares). Numbers to right indicate Bregma coordinates.

Figure 7: Summary diagram of RVM mediated modulation of spinal itch (blue) and pain (red) transmitting pathways. +, excitatory synapse; -, inhibitory synapse. Magenta indicates inhibitory enkephalinergic interneuron. Abbreviations: Cnf, cuneiform nucleus; DR, dorsal raphe nucleus; GABA, gamma aminobutyric acid; Glut, glutamate; Tacr1, neurokinin-1 receptor; PAG, periaqueductal gray; SP, substance P; Tac1, tachykinin 1.

Supplemental Figure 1: Clozapine administration does not affect acute itch or pain behavior. Saline, low dose clozapine (0.01 mg/kg) or high dose clozapine (0.1 mg/kg) was administered systemically, followed by tests for acute itch and pain behaviors. (A, B) Clozapine did not significantly affect the number of scratch bouts elicited by intradermal injection of histamine (A) or chloroquine (B). (C, D) Clozapine also did not significantly affect the respective latency or threshold of hindlimb withdrawals elicited by acute thermal (C) or mechanical (D) stimuli. (A,C and D) n = 6 males, 6 females; (B) n = 5 males, 3 females. P>0.05, 1-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post hoc test.

a ON Cells

b OFF Cells

c Neutral Cells

Supplemental Figure 2: Efficiency index of classified RVM neurons. (A-C) Identified ON (A), OFF (B), and NEUTRAL (C) cells were tested for efficiency to respond within 20 msec following the onset of an optic stimulus. Neurons which were excited by optic stimulation had a robust efficiency index (approaching or >1) compared to neurons inhibited or unaffected (none) by optic stimulation.

Supplemental Figure 3: Firing rates of classified RVM neurons in response to optic stimulation.

Supplemental Figure 4: Response latency of ON cells to optic stimulation. RVM neurons (n = 17) which responded to optic stimulation at 2 hz, had averaged response latencies of approximately 7.6 +/- 1.12 msec.

Supplemental Figure 5: Sex differences. Graphs are replotted with data sorted into male (red) and females (blue). (A-C) There were no significant sex differences following intramedullary microinjection of saline or SP for histamine- (A) or chloroquine-evoked scratching (B), or for thermal withdrawal latencies (C). (D) Males exhibited a significantly higher mechanical withdrawal threshold following intramedullary saline ($; p<0.001), while both sexes showed a significant reduction in withdrawal threshold following intramedullary SP. (E) Suppression of histamine-evoked scratching following clozapine was significantly greater in males (#; p<0.01) . (F-H) There were no sex differences for chloroquine-evoked scratching (F), thermal withdrawal latency (K) or mechanical withdrawal threshold (H). (I-L) There were no sex difference for histamine-(I) or chloroquine- evoked scratch bouts (J), thermal withdrawal latency (K), or mechanical withdrawal threshold (L). (M-P) There was no sex difference in chemogenetic inhibition of RVM 5-HT-expressing neurons for histamine- (M) or chloroquine- (N) evoked scratch bouts, thermal withdrawal latency (O), or mechanical withdrawal threshold (P). (Q) Optogenetic activation of RVM 5-HT-expressing neurons significantly facilitated histamine-evoked scratch bouts in males but not females ($; p<0.05). Histamine-evoked scratch bouts were significantly higher in males compared to females (#, p<0.001). (R, S) There was no significant sex difference for chloroquine-evoked scratching (R) or thermal withdrawal latency (S).

Supplemental Figure 6: Effect of optogenetic and chemogenetic activation or inhibition of serotonergic RVM neurons on itch and pain behaviors. (A-C) Optogenetic excitation did not affect histamine- or chloroquine-evoked scratching or thermal nociception (A-C). (D-F). Chemogenetic excitation did not affect histamine or chloroquine-evoked scratching or mechanical withdrawal threshold. (G-J) Chemogenetic inhibition facilitated histamine-evoked scratching and increased mechanical paw withdrawal thresholds (G and J, respectively) while having no effect on chloroquine-evoked scratching or thermal withdrawal latency (H and I respectively). (K) Expression of eYFP was robust localized to the RVM. (L). mCherry expression was robust throughout the RVM. Mean change and SEM is in red. (A-C) n = 8 males, 4 females; (D-F) n = 5-6 males;(G-J) n = 4 males, 4 females. $p < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.01^{**}$, students paired t-test.