NaV1.1 is essential for proprioceptive signaling and motor behaviors

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ABSTRACT

The voltage-gated sodium channel (Na_V), $Na_V1.1$, is well-studied in the central nervous system;

conversely, its contribution to peripheral sensory neuron function is more enigmatic. Here, we

identify a new role for $Na_V1.1$ in mammalian proprioception. RNAscope analysis and *in vitro* patch

clamp recordings in genetically identified mouse proprioceptors show ubiquitously channel

expression and significant contributions to intrinsic excitability. Notably, genetic deletion of $Na_V1.1$

in sensory neurons caused profound and visible motor coordination deficits in conditional

knockout mice of both sexes, similar to conditional Piezo2-knockout animals, suggesting this

channel is a major contributor to sensory proprioceptive transmission. *Ex vivo* muscle afferent

recordings conditional knockout mice found that loss of $Na_V1.1$ leads to inconsistent and

unreliable proprioceptor firing characterized by action potential failures during static muscle

stretch; conversely, afferent responses to dynamic vibrations were unaffected. This suggests that

while a combination of Piezo2 and other Na_V isoforms are sufficient to elicit activity in response

to transient stimuli, $Na_V1.1$ is required for transmission of receptor potentials generated during

sustained muscle stretch. Impressively, recordings from afferents of heterozygous conditional

knockout animals were similarly impaired, and heterozygous conditional knockout mice also

exhibited motor behavioral deficits. Thus, $Na_V1.1$ haploinsufficiency in sensory neurons impairs

both proprioceptor function and motor behaviors. Importantly, human patients harboring $Na_V1.1$

loss-of-function mutations often present with motor delays and ataxia; therefore, our data suggest

sensory neuron dysfunction contributes to the clinical manifestations of neurological disorders in

which $Na_V1.1$ function is compromised. Collectively, we present the first evidence that $Na_V1.1$ is

essential for mammalian proprioceptive signaling and behaviors.

INTRODUCTION

Voltage gated sodium channels (Na$_V$s) are critical mediators of neuronal excitability and are responsible for action potential generation and propagation (Ahern et al., 2016; Bean, 2007) . In the mammalian nervous system there are nine isoforms (Na$_V$1.1-1.9), each with unique biophysical properties, as well as distinguishing cellular expression and subcellular localization patterns (Bennett et al., 2019; Catterall, 2017). Of these different subtypes, Na$_V$1.1 is notable for its role in brain disease (Escayg and Goldin, 2010; Mulley et al., 2005; Ogiwara et al., 2007). Indeed, *Scn1a*, the gene that encodes Na$_V$1.1, is referred to as a "super culprit" gene, with over 1,000 associated mutations that lead to abnormal brain function, resulting in brain disorders such as epilepsy and migraine, as well as neurodivergent phenotypes, such as autism spectrum disorder (Ding et al., 2021; Lossin, 2009). Homozygous *Scn1a*$^{-/-}$ global knockout mice are ataxic and die by P15, while heterozygous *Scn1a*$^{+/-}$ animals develop seizures and begin to die sporadically starting at P21 (Yu et al., 2006). In addition to the central nervous system, Na$_V$1.1 is also expressed in the peripheral nervous system (Sharma et al., 2020; Usoskin et al., 2015); yet, the prominent role this channel plays in brain function has left its physiological roles in sensory neuron populations understudied.

Peripheral sensory neurons of the dorsal root and trigeminal ganglia (DRG and TG, respectively) are tasked with encoding somatic sensations, such as touch, temperature, pain, and proprioception, and are anatomically and functionally heterogenous (Kupari et al., 2021; Nguyen et al., 2021; Oliver et al., 2021a; Wu et al., 2021). *Scn1a* transcript and protein have been observed primarily in myelinated mechanosensory DRG and TG neurons (Fukuoka et al., 2008; Ho and O'Leary, 2011; Osteen et al., 2016). Indeed, subcutaneous injection of the Na$_V$1.1 activator, Hma1, into mouse hind paw causes non-inflammatory mechanical pain and spontaneous pain behaviors (Osteen et al., 2016). Interestingly, pharmacological inhibition of Na$_V$1.1 does not affect mechanical thresholds in uninjured mice but does reduce mechanical pain

in a spared-nerve injury model (Salvatierra et al., 2018), suggesting $Na_V1.1$ may have a more

prominent role in mechanical pain as opposed to normal touch sensing. $Na_V1.1$ in TG neurons

has also been reported to mediate mechanical pain in an orbitofacial chronic constriction injury

model (Pineda-Farias et al., 2021). In addition to somatosensory neurons, $Na_V1.1$ is found in

colon-innervating vagal neurons, where it contributes to firing of colonic mechano-nociceptors

and is upregulated in a mouse model of chronic visceral hypersensitivity (Osteen et al., 2016;

Salvatierra et al., 2018). Lastly, $Na_V1.1$ contributes to action potential firing in a subset of DRG

neurons that express the cold sensitive ion channel, transient receptor potential melastatin 8

(TRPM8), suggesting the channel may also contribute to thermosensory transmission (Griffith et

al., 2019). While most data support a role for $Na_V1.1$ in pain, the limited number of studies that

have investigated $Na_V1.1$ function in sensory neurons has left gaps in our knowledge regarding

other potential roles this channel may play in somatosensation.

Given the relatively under-explored role of $Na_V1.1$ in the peripheral nervous system, we

set out to determine what other somatosensory modalities rely on $Na_V1.1$ expression in sensory

neurons. Here, we show that 100% of proprioceptors express *Scn1a* mRNA, where it makes

notable contributions to the somal whole-cell sodium current and intrinsic excitability. A functional

role for $Na_V1.1$ in proprioceptive signaling was also supported by *ex-vivo* electrophysiological

recordings from functionally identified muscle spindle afferents. Importantly, mice lacking $Na_V1.1$

in all sensory neurons display visible and profound motor deficits and ataxic-like behavior, which

were quantified in rotarod and open field assays. Surprisingly, we found $Na_V1.1$ is haploinsuffcient

for normal proprioceptor function and behavior, in *ex vivo* recordings and the open field assay,

respectively. Collectively, our data provide the first evidence that peripherally expressed $Na_V1.1$

is critical for sensory proprioceptive signaling and motor coordination.

  RESULTS

Most studies have localized Na$_V$1.1 expression primarily to myelinated sensory neurons

that transmit mechanical signals (Fukuoka et al., 2008; Ho and O'Leary, 2011; Osteen et al.,

2016b; Wang et al., 2011). In line with prior work, RNAscope analysis of DRG sections from adult

mice showed that 93% of myelinated neurons, as determined by neurofilament heavy chain (NFH)

labeling, express *Scn1a* transcripts (**Fig 1A**). RNA-sequencing datasets have consistently

identified Na$_V$1.1 expression in proprioceptors; thus, we next analyzed Na$_V$1.1 expression in these

cells using a Parvalbumin^{Cre};Rosa26^{Ai14} reporter line (*Pvalb*^{Ai14}) and found 100% of genetically

identified proprioceptors were positive for *Scn1a* message (**Fig 1B**). This contrasted with low

expression of *Scn1a* mRNA in both calcitonin gene related peptide (CGRP) expressing neurons,

which represent peptidergic nociceptors, and non-peptidergic polymodal *Mrgprd*-expressing

nociceptors (24% and 3%, respectively, **Fig 1C-D**). Frequency and cumulative distribution plots

show the spread of integrated fluorescence density measurements obtained for *Scn1a* transcripts

in proprioceptors (**Fig 1E-F**).

Figure 1. Na$_V$1.1 is ubiquitously expressed in genetically identified proprioceptors. **A-D**, Representative confocal images of cryoprotected adult DRG sections (25 μm) with pie chart quantifications indicating the percentage of *Scn1a*+ and *Scn1a* - neurons in each subpopulation (magenta and yellow, respectively). Images were acquired with a 40X, 0.9 NA water-immersion objective. Sections were hybridized using RNAscope with probes targeting *Scn1a* (*Scn1a*, magenta) and stained with the following antibodies (yellow): (**A**) anti-neurofilament heavy (NFH, n=787) (**B**) anti-DsRed to label TdTomato+ proprioceptors (n=143) (**C**) anti-calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP, n=877) and (**D**) anti-GFP to label *Mrgprd*+ neurons. DRG from C57BL/6, *Pvalb*^Cre;*Rosa*26^Ai14^, and *Mrgprd*^GFP mice of both sexes were used. Scale bar 50μm. White arrowheads indicate *Scn1a* + neurons while white arrows indicate *Scn1a* - neurons. Frequency

(**E**) and cumulative (**F**) distribution plots of integrated fluorescence density of the *Scn1a* signal in TdTomato+ proprioceptors (n=153). n = cells.

In addition to Na$_V$1.1, Na$_V$1.6 and Na$_V$1.7 expression has also been reported in proprioceptors (Carrasco et al., 2017). As with *Scn1a*, mRNA for *Scn8a* and *Scn9a* is also found in 100% of genetically identified proprioceptors (**Fig 2A-B**). Cumulative distribution plots of *Scn8a* and *Scn9a* integrated fluorescence density measurements showed higher variability as compared to Na$_V$1.1 (**Fig 2C-D**, **Fig 1E**). This was quantified using the coefficient of variation, a relative measure of the extent of variations within data. The coefficient of variation for *Scn1a* transcript expression was calculated to be 75.6, whereas this value increased to 97.3 and 88.1 for *Scn8a* and *Scn9a*, respectively. This indicates that while all three isoforms are ubiquitously expressed in proprioceptors, the relative levels differ, with Na$_V$1.1 having the most consistent level of expression across neurons analyzed. Furthermore, the average integrated density of the Na$_V$1.1 signal for a given proprioceptive DRG neuron was significantly higher than both Na$_V$1.6 and Na$_V$1.7 (**Fig 2E**, p < 0.0001).

Due to the ubiquitous expression of Na$_V$1.1, Na$_V$1.6, and Na$_V$1.7 in proprioceptors, we sought to determine the relative contributions of these isoforms to the proprioceptor whole-cell sodium current (I$_{Na}$). We performed *in vitro* voltage-clamp experiments on TdTomato+ neurons harvested from thoracic spinal levels of adult *Pvalb*[Ai14] mice (de Nooij et al., 2013) and used serial application of selective Na$_V$ channel antagonists to determine the specific contributions of Na$_V$1.1, Na$_V$1.6, and Na$_V$1.7 (**Fig 2F**). We first applied the selective Na$_V$1.1 antagonist ICA 1214314 (ICA, 500 nM), followed by 9-Anhydroustetrodoxin (AH-TTX, 300 nM), which is a selective Na$_V$1.6 blocker but also partially blocks Na$_V$1.1 (Denomme et al., 2020; Griffith et al., 2019). We reasoned that by first blocking the Na$_V$1.1 mediated current, the effect of AH-TTX should largely be due to inhibition of Na$_V$1.6. Finally, we blocked Na$_V$1.7 channels using the antagonist PF-05089771 (25 nM), followed by tetrodotoxin (TTX, 300 nM) to block any residual current, as proprioceptors do not express TTX-resistant Na$_V$s. On average, 7.8% of the current remained unblocked following serial application of these antagonists due to incomplete block by the drugs used. We found that the ICA-sensitive component of I$_{Na}$ was 44.8% of the total current. Conversely, 14.5% and 32.9%

of I_{Na} was sensitive to AH-TTX and PF-05089771, respectively (**Fig 2G**). No significant effect of

the 0.1% DMSO vehicle solution on I_{Na} amplitude was observed (**Fig 2 – figure supplement 1**).

Collectively, these data suggest that in proprioceptors $Na_V1.1$ is a dominant functional Na_V

subtype.

Figure 2. Transcriptomic and functional expression of sodium channels in proprioceptors. A-B. Representative
confocal images of cryoprotected adult DRG sections (25 µm) with quantifications indicating the percentage of Na_V+
and Na_V- neurons in TdTomato+ proprioceptors. Sections were hybridized using RNAscope with probes targeting
$Na_V1.6$ or $Na_V1.7$ (*Scn8a* and *Scn9a*, respectively, magenta) and stained with anti-DsRed (yellow). (**A**) *Snc8a*, n=298,
(**B**) *Scn9a*, n=166. Scale bar set to 50µm. White arrowheads indicate Na_V+ neurons. **C-D.** Frequency distribution plots
of integrated fluorescence density of $Na_V1.6$ and $Na_V1.7$ mRNA in TdTomato+ proprioceptors, respectively. **E**. The

average integrated density of *Scn1a*, *Scn8a*, and *Scn9a* RNAscope probe signal. Dots represent individual cells.
Statistical significance was determined using a Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's post hoc comparisons. **F.** Top,
experimental workflow of serial pharmacological blockade of Na$_V$ channels expressed in proprioceptors. We first elicited
a whole-cell sodium current in the absence of drug. We next bath applied 500nM of ICA 121431 to block current carried
by Na$_V$1.1. Subsequently, we bath applied AH-TTX (300nM) to block Na$_V$1.6 mediated current, and PF-05089771
(25nM) to block the Na$_V$1.7 mediated current. Finally, TTX (300nM) was used to block residual current and to confirm
there was no contribution of TTX-resistant Na$_V$s in proprioceptors. Bottom, representative current traces following
application of Na$_V$ selective inhibitors. All drugs were applied for 1 minute. (**G**) Quantification of the average percentage
of the whole-cell sodium current that was sensitive to the individual drugs used (n=8). n = cells. ****p<0.0001.
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182 **Figure supplement 1. 0.1% DMSO vehicle does not change I$_{Na}$ in proprioceptors.** (**A**) Representative current trace
183 before (black trace) and after (red trace) application of 0.1% DMSO to TdTomato+ proprioceptors during *in vitro*
184 electrophysiological experiments. Quantification of current density (**B**) and current decay kinetics (**C**) before (normal
185 external solution) and after DMSO application. A paired t-test was used to determine statistical significance (p = 0.0855,
186 n = 5 cells).
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We next determined the biophysical features of the whole-cell sodium current (I$_{Na}$) in

proprioceptors, which has not been previously reported (**Fig 3A-D**). The current-voltage

relationship shows the first detectable current appeared at voltages near -50 mV and was maximal

at voltages near -30 mV when evoked from a holding potential of -90 mV (**Fig 3B**). Voltage

dependence of peak conductance was best fit to a single Boltzmann function and the voltage for

half maximal activation was -38.7 mV (**Fig 3C**). The voltage-dependence of inactivation was

determined with 40 ms prepulse steps ranging from -120 mV to +10 mV. The midpoint of the

inactivation curve was -64.5 mV and was best fit to a single Boltzmann function (**Fig 3D**). To

analyze recovery from fast inactivation, TdTomato+ neurons were depolarized to -20 mV, followed

by a series of recovery periods ranging from 0.5 ms to 10 ms before a second test step to -20 mV

was given to assess sodium channel availability. I$_{Na}$ recovery was rapid (τ = 0.54 ms), with greater

than 50% of I$_{Na}$ recovered after 0.5 ms (**Fig 3E**). Finally, entry intro slow inactivation was

determined. Cells were held at 0 mV during conditioning voltage steps ranging from 10 ms to

2000 ms, separated by two 2-ms pulses to -20 mV to compare channel availability before and

after the conditioning pulse (**Fig 3F**). The tau for entry into slow inactivation was 928.6 ms, with

more than 50% of channels available after a 2000 ms conditioning pulse.

Figure 3. Biophysical analysis of the whole-cell sodium current (I_{Na}) in genetically identified proprioceptors.
(A) Representative image of a TdTomato+ proprioceptor in culture during electrophysiological recordings (scale bar set
to 50µm). **(B)** Current-voltage relationship of I_{Na} from TdTomato+ proprioceptors. Currents were elicited by 40 ms
voltage steps from -90 mV to +40 mV in 5 mV increments (n=7-9). **(C)** Top, the voltage protocol used to measure the
voltage dependence of for whole-cell sodium current activation in proprioceptors. Currents were elicited using a series
of 40 ms voltage steps from -90 mV to 40 mV at 5 mV increments from a holding potential of -90 mV. Data are expressed
as conductance over maximum conductance (n=6-9). **(D)** Top, the voltage protocol used to measure the voltage
dependence of inactivation. A 40 ms prepulse ranging from -120mV to +10mV was given followed by a test pulse to 0
mV. Data are expressed as current over maximum current (n=8-12). **(E)** Left, quantification of recovery from fast
inactivation (n=8). Line shows a monoexponential fit of the data (τ=0.54 ms). Top right, voltage-protocol to measure
recovery from fast inactivation. A 20 ms step to -20 mV from -100 mV is followed by varying durations of recovery at -
100 mV before a second test step to -20 mV. Bottom right, representative traces of currents elicited before (black trace)
and after (grey trace) a 0.5 ms recovery period. **(F)** Left, quantification of entry into slow inactivation (n=6). Line shows
a monoexponential fit of the data (τ=928.6 ms). Top right, voltage-protocol to measure entry into slow inactivation. A 3
ms test pulse to -20mV from -100mV was followed by conditioning pulses at 0 mV for varying durations before a third
test step to -20mV. 12 ms recovery periods after the first test pulse and before the second were included to remove
fast inactivation. Bottom right, representative current trace elicited before and after a 2000 ms conditioning pulse. n =
cells.
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We next asked how blocking $Na_V1.1$ channels affects proprioceptor function *in vitro*.

Similar to serial pharmacological experiments, I_{Na} density in proprioceptors was significantly

reduced from ~-140 pA/pF to ~-75 pA/pF following ICA application (**Fig 4B,** p = 0.0003). The

proprioceptor I_{Na} had an average tau of 0.6 ms, which was significantly slowed to 1.0 ms following

application of ICA (**Fig 4C,** p = 0.0007), in line with loss of a fast gating channel. Blocking $Na_V1.1$

did not change I_{Na} rise time (**Fig 4D,** p = 0.1611). Quantification of the ICA-sensitive component

found an average tau of 0.4 ms and an average current density of -96 pA/pF (**Fig 4E**). Of note,

there was a wide distribution of current densities for the ICA-sensitive component, ranging from

~-28 pA/pF to ~-263 pA/pF, suggesting some variability in the contribution of $Na_V1.1$ to

proprioceptor excitability that may be proprioceptor subtype dependent. We next used current

clamp experiments to determine the effect of ICA on proprioceptor intrinsic excitability (**Fig 4F**).

Pharmacological inhibition of $Na_V1.1$ significantly reduced the number of evoked action potentials

in most genetically identified proprioceptors (**Fig 4G**); however, 5 of the cells recorded had low

firing rates that were not inhibited by ICA. This further suggests $Na_V1.1$ is important for repetitive

firing in most proprioceptors, but some subtypes with lower intrinsic excitability instead rely on a

combination of $Na_V1.6$ and $Na_V1.7$. Action potential amplitude (**Fig 4H**, p = 0.0420) and action

potential threshold (**Fig 4I**, p = 0.0186) were also significantly reduced following ICA application,

and action potential full-width half-max was significantly increased following ICA application (**Fig**

4K, p = 0.0068), in line with loss of the fast $Na_V1.1$-mediated current.

Figure 4. $Na_V1.1$ significantly contributes to the whole-cell sodium current and intrinsic excitability in
genetically identified proprioceptors. A. Left, representative whole-cell voltage-clamp traces elicited before (black)
and after (red) application of ICA121431 (500nM). Right, the subtracted ICA-sensitive current shown in black. **B.**

Quantification of the reduction in whole-cell current density before (white) and after (magenta) ICA, p = 0.0003, n=11
cells. **C.** Quantification of rate of current decay before and after ICA, p = 0.0007, n=11 cells. **D.** Quantification of whole-
cell current rise time before and after ICA, p = 0.1611, n=10 cells. **E.** Left, current densities of ICA-sensitive sodium
currents (n=11), right, current decay taus of ICA-sensitive sodium currents (n=9 cells). **F.** Representative whole-cell
current clamp traces before (left) and after (right) application of ICA. **G-J,** Quantification of number of action potentials
in response to current injection (**G,** p = 0.0002, n=20 cells), action potential amplitude (**H,** p = 0.0420, n=20 cells), action
potential threshold (**I,** p = 0.0186, n=20 cells), and full-width half max (**J,** p = 0.0068, n=20 cells). Grey lines represent
paired observations, circles and lines represent means and standard deviations. White circles, before ICA application.
The Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test was used to determine statistical significance.

It is important to note that ICA 121431 also blocks Na$_V$1.3 channels, which could be

upregulated in our cultured DRG neuron preparations (Wangzhou et al., 2020). Indeed, a small

but significant decrease in I$_{Na}$ was observed in recordings from large-diameter DRG neurons

harvested from *Pirt*^{Cre};Scn1a-floxed mice (Scn1a-cKO), which lack Na$_V$1.1 in all sensory neurons.

Thus, inhibition of upregulated Na$_V$1.3 channels could contribute to the effect of on ICA on the

proprioceptor I$_{Na}$ **(Fig 4 - figure supplement 2)**.

Figure supplement 2. ICA121431 may inhibit upregulated Nav1.3 channels in cultured DRG neurons. (**A**) and
Representative whole-cell current trace from a large diameter DRG neurons (>60pF) from a Scn1a-cKO mouse. The
black trace represents the I$_{Na}$ recorded in external solution and the red trace represents the current following application
of 500nM of ICA121431 for 1 minute. (**C**) Quantification of the current density before and after ICA (n=9). A significant
effect of ICA was found (Paired student's t test, p = 0.0041). n = cells.
268
To clarify the importance of Na$_V$1.1 to proprioceptor function and avoid the caveats

associated with *in vitro* pharmacological studies, we took an *in vivo* approach and analyzed motor

behaviors in Scn1a-cKO mice of both sexes. We were precluded from using a *Pvalb*^{cre} driver line

to directly interrogate a role for Na$_V$1.1 in proprioceptors, as loss of Na$_V$1.1 in Pvalb-expressing

brain interneurons produces an epilepsy phenotype that prevents behavioral analyses in adult

animals (Ogiwara et al., 2007). Consistent with *in vitro* data, Scn1a-cKO animals of both sexes

displayed profound and visible motor abnormalities. These abnormalities include ataxic-like

tremors when suspended in the air (**Fig 5** - **video 1**), abnormal limb positioning (**Fig 5 -videos 2-**

3), and paw clasping, which are absent in Scn1a-floxed littermate controls and heterozygous

animals (*Pirt*^Cre;*Scn1a*^fl/+, Scn1a-Het, respectively, **Fig 5A**). We first ran animals in the open field

test for ten minutes each to quantify spontaneous locomotor behaviors (**Fig 5B**). We found that

Scn1a-cKO animals traveled significantly less (**Fig 5C**) and slower (**Fig 5D**) than Scn1a-floxed

littermate controls (p = 0.0077 and 0.0057, respectively). Surprisingly, Scn1a-Het mice also

displayed motor abnormalities in the open field test, performing similarly to Scn1a-cKO animals

(**Fig 5B-D**), demonstrating $Na_V1.1$ haploinsufficiency in sensory neurons for motor behaviors. No

genotype-dependent differences were observed in the amount of time spent moving, suggesting

gross motor function was intact (**Fig 5E**). Additionally, the amount of time spent in the center of

the open field chamber was also independent of genotype (**Fig 5F**). We next used the rotarod

assay to investigate differences in motor coordination. Mice were assayed on three consecutive

days and latency-to-fall and RPM were quantified. Unlike in the open field assay, both Scn1a-

floxed and Scn1a-Het mice performed at similar levels during the three-day period (**Fig 5G-H**).

Conversely, Scn1a-cKO animals performed significantly worse. By day 3, on average they were

only able to maintain their position on the rotarod for 41 s, falling over 50% faster Scn1a-floxed

and Scn1a-Het mice. We did not observe any sex dependent differences in performance in the

open field or rotarod tests (**Fig 5 - figure supplement 3**). We confirmed that our mouse model

selectively targeted sensory neurons by crossing a *Pirt*^Cre driver with a fluorescent reporter line

(*Pirt*^Cre;*Rosa*26^Ai14). We observed little-to-no neuronal expression of TdTomato in both dorsal and

ventral spinal cord (**Fig 5 - figure supplement 4**). In contrast, DRG somata and axons showed

strong labeling. Collectively, our behavioral data provide evidence for a new *in vivo* role of $Na_V1.1$

in sensory neurons in mammalian proprioception.

Figure 5. Loss of Na$_V$1.1 in peripheral sensory causes deficits in motor behaviors. A. Representative images showing limb positions of adult Scn1a-floxed (left), Scn1a-Het (middle), and Scn1a-cKO (right) mice. White arrows represent the direction of limbs. **B.** Representative heat maps from open field experiments between Scn1a-floxed (left), Scn1a-Het (middle), and Scn1a-cKO (right). Open Field (**C-F**), Quantification of total distance traveled during a 10-minute open-field test between Scn1a-floxed (cyan), Scn1a-Het (grey), and Scn1a-cKO (magenta) mice (**C,** Scn1a-Het p = 0.0255, Scn1a-cKO, p = 0.0077, compared to Scn1a-floxed,), average animal velocity (**D,** Scn1a-Het p = 0.00311, Scn1a cKO, p = 0.0057, compared to Scn1a-floxed), percent time moving (**E,** Scn1a-Het p = 0.1362, , p = 0.0730, compared to Scn1a-floxed), and percent time spent in center (**F,** Scn1a-Het p = 0.2297, Scn1a-cKO, p = 0.2494,

compared to Scn1a-floxed) during the test. Rotarod (**G-I**), Quantification of the latency to fall across three consecutive
training days (**G**) and the day-three (**H**). Quantification of revolutions per minute (RPM) at the moment of animal fall (**I**)
and the day-three average (**J**). Each dot represents one animal. ****$p < 0.0001$. A one-way ANOVA (Dunnett's post
hoc comparison) was used to determine statistical significance in **C-F** and **I** and **J**. A two-way mixed-design ANOVA
(Dunnett's post hoc comparison) was used to determine statistical significance in **G** and **H.** Open field: Scn1a-floxed
N=15, Scn1a-Het N=6, Scn1a-cKO N=12. Rotarod: Scn1a-floxed N=11, Scn1a-Het N=11, Scn1a-cKO N=20.

Figure supplement 3. Motor deficits in Scn1a-Het **and** Scn1a-cKO **animals are not sex dependent. A-D**.
Quantification of sex-dependent parameters during a 10-minute open field trial. Total distance moved (**A**). Velocity (**B**).
Percent time spent in center of box (**C**). Total percent time moving (**D**). Quantification of the sex-dependent differences
in rotarod day-three trial latency to fall (**E**) and RPM (**F**).

Figure supplement 4. TdTomato expression is limited to sensory neurons. A-D, Images stained using immunohistochemistry with anti-DsRed (TdTomato) (**A-C**) Representative confocal images of spinal cord sections at 10X, 0.45 NA dry objective. Scale bar 200μm. (**D**) Image was taken at 20X, 0.8 NA dry objective of the ventral horn. (**E**) Image was taken at 20X, 0.8 NA dry objective of the dorsal horn. Scale bar 50μm. (**F**) Image was taken at 40X, 1.3 NA oil-immersion objective. Arrows indicate TdTomato+ puncta. Scale bar 50μm. (N=3, n=30 sections).

Video 1. Uncoordinated movements in Scn1a-cKO **animals.** A Scn1a-cKO mouse (left) shows abnormal and spastic movements when suspended in the air. These movements are absent in Scn1a-floxed mice (right).

Video 2. Abnormal limb position in Scn1a-cKO **animals.** A Scn1a-cKO mouse has uncoordinated leg movements and makes an abnormal rotation of its hind paw to grasp its tail while suspended in the air.

Video 3. Abnormal paw position in Scn1a-cKO **animals.** A Scn1a-cKO mouse is scruffed and places hind paws with foot pads facing down. This contrasts with the normal paw positioning seen in the forepaws, in which foot pads are in the outward facing position.

Could the motor deficits observed in Scn1a-cKO mice be due to abnormal proprioceptor

development? To address this question, we performed RNAscope analysis of DRG sections from

Scn1a-floxed, Scn1a-Het, and Scn1a-cKO mice. We quantified the number of neurons per DRG

section that were positive for both *Runx3* and *Pvalb* transcript, the molecular signature of mature

proprioceptors (**Fig 6**, Oliver et al., 2021). We found no significant genotype-dependent

differences in the number of proprioceptors in Scn1a-Het and Scn1a-cKO mice compared to

Scn1a-floxed controls (p = 0.3824 and p = 0.1665, respectively), indicating that the behavioral

deficits observed in Scn1a-cKO mice are not the result of a developmental loss of proprioceptors.

We also analyzed muscle spindle morphology to determine if aberrant sensory end organ

development may contribute to the observed motor abnormalities. Similar to conditional Piezo2-

knockout animals (Woo et al., 2015), no qualitative differences were observed between genotypes

(**Fig 6 - figure supplement 5**). Thus, abnormal proprioceptor development does not contribute

to the overall phenotype of Scn1a-cKO mice.

Figure 6. Loss of Na$_V$1.1 in sensory neurons does not affect proprioceptor development. Representative images of Scn1a-floxed (**A**), Scn1a-Het (**B**), and Scn1a-cKO (**C**) adult DRG neuron sections (25 μm). Images were acquired with a 40X, 0.9 NA water-immersion objective. Sections were hybridized with probes targeting parvalbumin (*Pvalb*, yellow) and *Runx3* (magenta). (**D**) Quantification of the percentage of Pvalb+/*Runx3*+ neurons in each genotype. Each dot represents one DRG section. A Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's post hoc comparison was used to determine statistical significance (p = 0.1971, Scn1a-floxed n=17, Scn1a-Het n=17, Scn1a-cKO n=18)). Scale bar 50μm.

VGLUT1   NFH   Merge

A — fl/fl

B — Het

C — cKO

Figure supplement 5. Muscle spindle development is normal in Scn1a-Het **and** Scn1a-cKO **animals**. **A-C**, Representative confocal images of muscle spindle whole mounts. Images were acquired with a 40x, 1.3 NA oil-immersion objective. Sections were stained using immunohistochemistry with VGLUT1 (cyan) and neurofilament heavy (NFH, magenta). (**A**) Representative images from Scn1a-floxed (**B**) Scn1a-Het and (**C**) Scn1a-cKO mice. Scn1a-floxed, n=7; Scn1a-Het, n=8; Scn1a-cKO, n=9. Scale bar 50μm. n = muscle spindles.

We next asked whether the motor deficits of Scn1a-cKO mice are due to altered synaptic

connectivity between proprioceptive axons and motor neurons in the ventral spinal cord. Spinal

cord sections were harvested from Scn1a-floxed, Scn1a-Het, and Scn1a-cKO mice and stained

with antibodies against vesicular glutamate transporter 1 (VGLUT1) to label proprioceptor axons,

and choline acetyltransferase (ChAT). ChAT primarily labels α- and γ-motoneurons in the ventral

horn, which can be distinguished based on size. We analyzed the number of VGLUT1 puncta on

the somata and proximal dendrites of individual cholinergic neurons greater than 400 μm^2 to bias

our quantification towards α-motorneurons. We found no significant decrease in VGLUT puncta

density per ChAT+ neuron between Scn1a-Het or Scn1a-cKO when compared to Scn1a-floxed

littermate controls (**Fig 7,** Scn1a-Het, p>0.9999, Scn1a-cKO, p=0.4573). This suggests that general deficits in proprioceptor innervation of motor neurons do not contribute to the phenotype of Scn1a-cKO mice.

Figure 7. Loss of Na$_V$1.1 in sensory neurons does not change proprioceptor innervation of α-motoneurons. **A-C**, Representative images of Scn1a-floxed(**A**), Scn1a-Het (**B**), and Scn1a-cKO (**C**) adult spinal cord sections (30 μm). Images were acquired with a 63X, 1.4 NA water-immersion objective. Sections were stained using immunochemistry

412 with VGLUT1 (yellow) and ChAT (magenta). Nuclei (cyan) were labeled with DAPI. (**D**) Schematic of spinal cord regions
413 of interest. (**E**) Quantification of the average density of VGLUT1+ puncta per $100\mu m^2$ onto ChAT+ neurons that were
414 larger than $400\mu m^2$. A Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's post hoc comparison was used to determine statistical significance
415 Each dot represents a motor neuron. Scn1a-floxed, n=101; Scn1a-Het, n=102; Scn1a-cKO, n=92. Scale bar $20\mu m$. n =
416 cells.
417

We next asked whether proprioceptor electrical signaling is altered in Scn1a-cKO mice.

While *in vitro* patch-clamp electrophysiology can assess Na_V function at DRG somata and provide

insight as to how they contribute to intrinsic excitability, the physiological contributions of ion

channels in DRG soma to somatosensory transmission *in vivo* are not well understood. Thus, to

directly investigate how $Na_V1.1$ shapes action potential propagation down proprioceptor axons,

we used an *ex vivo* preparation to recording muscle afferent activity during ramp-and-hold stretch

and sinusoidal vibration. Afferents from both Scn1a-Het and Scn1a-cKO mice exhibited impaired

static stretch sensitivity as evidenced by a decreased likelihood of firing during rest as compared

to Scn1a-floxed mice, as well as an inability to maintain firing throughout the entire 4s stretch.

Almost all afferents from Scn1a-floxed mice could fire consistently throughout the entire 4s hold

phase (**Fig 8A**), but loss of one or both copies of $Na_V1.1$ led to either firing only near the beginning

of stretch or inconsistent firing in a high percentage of afferents lacking $Na_V1.1$ (**Fig 8B,C**). We

quantified this inconsistent firing by determining the coefficient of variation (CV) of the interspike

interval (ISI) during the plateau phase of stretch (1.5-3.5 s into the hold phase) across different

stretch lengths and found a significant effect of genotype, with the knockout afferents both having

higher ISI CV than the Scn1a-floxed afferents (**Fig 8D**; 0.074 ± 0.06, 0.313 ± 0.456, $.497 \pm .831$,

at 7.5% Lo, Scn1a-floxed, Scn1a-Het, and Scn1a-cKO afferents, respectively, Two-way ANOVA,

main effect of genotype, $p = 0.015$). In contrast to the clear deficits in static sensitivity in afferents

lacking $Na_V1.1$, dynamic sensitivity was not significantly impaired. The maximum firing frequency

during the ramp up phase (Dynamic Peak) was independent of genotype, and even trended

slightly higher in afferents lacking $Na_V1.1$ (**Fig 8E**; Two-way ANOVA, effect of genotype

p=0.0633).

Figure 8. Loss of Na$_V$1.1 reduces static muscle stretch sensitivity and reliability. A-C. Representative responses to ramp-and-hold muscle stretch at 7.5% of optimal length (Lo) from Scn1a-floxed (**A**), Scn1a-Het (**B**) and Scn1a-cKO (**C**) afferents. Afferents from Scn1a-Het and Scn1a-cKO mice were more likely to show inconsistent firing during the hold phase of stretch. The percentage of afferents from each genotype that were able to fire consistently for the entire duration of stretch at 2.5%, 5.0%, and 7.5% of Lo are shown in the pie charts next to the representative trace from their genotype (black indicates percentage with inconsistent firing). The final pie charts represent the proportion of afferents that exhibited resting discharge at Lo for every stretch for each genotype (black indicates absence of resting discharge). **D.** Inconsistency in firing was quantified as the interspike interval coefficient of variation (ISI CV) during the plateau stage of the hold phase of stretch (1.5-3.5s into stretch) for the 3 different genotypes. A significant effect of genotype was observed (two-way mixed-design ANOVA, p=0.015) **E.** The highest firing rate during the ramp up phase of stretch (dynamic peak) is a measure of dynamic sensitivity. No significant effect of genotype on dynamic peak was observed (two-way mixed-design ANOVA, p=0.0633). Each dot represents one afferent in **D** & **E** (Scn1a-floxed, n=10; Scn1a-Het, n=12; Scn1a-cKO, n=11).

We next examined the requirement of Na$_V$1.1 for proprioceptor afferent responses to

sinusoidal vibration, which is a measure of dynamic sensitivity, and found no differences with loss

of Na$_V$1.1 (**Fig 9A-C, Tables 2-4**). We characterized a unit as having entrained to vibration if it

fired at approximately the same time every cycle of the 9s vibration. In most cases, afferents

lacking Na$_V$1.1 were equally likely to entrain to vibration than Scn1a-floxed afferents (**Fig 9D-F**).

Indeed, Scn1a-cKO afferents were able to maintain firing during the entire 9 s sinusoidal vibration,

in contrast to their inability to maintain consistent firing during 4 s of static stretch. There were no

significant differences in firing rate during vibration between Scn1a-floxed, Scn1a-Het, and

Scn1a-cKO afferents (**Fig 9D-F**). Taken together, our *ex vivo* recordings suggest that behavioral

deficits in Scn1a-cKO result from abnormal proprioceptor responses to static muscle movement,

whereas afferent responsiveness to dynamic stimuli is Na$_V$1.1-independent. Furthermore,

recordings from Scn1a-Het animals support the notion that Na$_V$1.1 is haploinsufficient for

proprioceptor function at the cellular level.

Figure 9. Loss of Na$_V$1.1 does not alter muscle spindle afferent response to vibratory muscle stretch. A-C. Representative traces from afferents that were able to entrain to a 50Hz, 100µm vibration as well as graphs with the percentage of all Scn1a-floxed (cyan; **A**), Scn1a-Het (gray; **B**), and Scn1a-cKO (magenta; **C**) afferents that could entrain to the vibration shown in **A-C**. Average firing frequency during a 9 s 50 Hz vibration shown for a 25 µm (**D**), 50 µm (**E**), and 100 µm (**F**) amplitude vibration. There was no significant effect of genotype on the firing frequency during vibration (25 µm, p = 0.2398, 50 µm, p = 0.2413, 100 µm, p = 0.1276). A one-way ANOVA was used to determine statistical significance in **D** and **E**. A Kruskal-Wallis test was used to determine statistical significance in **F**. Each dot represents one afferent (Scn1a-floxed, n=9; Scn1a-Het, n=10; Scn1a-cKO,n=11).

Table 2. Afferent entrainment to 25 µm amplitude vibration

Genotype	10 Hz	25 Hz	50 Hz	100 Hz
Scn1a-floxed	33.33%	11.11%	0.00%	0.00%
Scn1a-Het	50.00%	40.00%	10.00%	10.00%
Scn1a-cKO	27.27%	9.09%	0.00%	0.00%

Table 2. The percentage of muscle spindle afferents that entrained to a 25µm amplitude sinusoidal vibration.

Table 3. Afferent entrainment to 50 μm amplitude vibration

Genotype	10 Hz	25 Hz	50 Hz	100 Hz
Scn1a-floxed	88.89%	22.22%	11.11%	11.11%
Scn1a-Het	80.00%	70.00%	30.00%	10.00%
Scn1a-cKO	45.45%	54.55%	18.18%	0.00%

Table 3. The percentage of muscle spindle afferents that entrained to a 50μm amplitude sinusoidal vibration.

Table 4. Afferent entrainment to 100 μm amplitude vibration

Genotype	10 Hz	25 Hz	50 Hz	100 Hz
Scn1a-floxed	100.00%	44.44%	33.33%	22.22%
Scn1a-Het	90.00%	90.00%	70.00%	40.00%
Scn1a-cKO	63.64%	72.73%	63.64%	18.18%

Table 4. The percentage of muscle spindle afferents that entrained to a 100μm amplitude sinusoidal vibration.

DISCUSSION

The critical role for $Na_V1.1$ in various brain disorders has overshadowed the potential contributions of this channel in peripheral signaling. The results presented in this study are the first to provide functional evidence that $Na_V1.1$ in peripheral sensory neurons is required for normal proprioception. We found that mice lacking $Na_V1.1$ in sensory neurons exhibit visible motor deficits and ataxic-like behaviors, which we propose is largely attributed to loss of $Na_V1.1$ in proprioceptors. Indeed, RNAscope analysis showed expression of $Na_V1.1$ mRNA in 100% of genetically identified proprioceptors. While $Na_V1.6$ and $Na_V1.7$ were also ubiquitously expressed in proprioceptors, $Na_V1.1$ displayed higher expression levels, consistent with a previous RNAsequencing study (Zheng et al., 2019b). There are anywhere from 5 to 8 different proprioceptor molecular subclasses (Oliver et al., 2021b; Wu et al., 2021), however, and it is possible that these distinct classes rely on different combinations of these channels for function. Nevertheless, our functional *in vitro* patch-clamp experiments found $Na_V1.1$ to be the dominant subtype across recorded neurons, comprising nearly half of the proprioceptor I_{Na}. In line with this, pharmacological inhibition of $Na_V1.1$ is sufficient to significantly attenuate action potential firing is

most proprioceptors; yet, it should be noted that 25% of the neurons we recorded fired action

potentials that were insensitive to ICA application. This suggests that some proprioceptor

subtypes rely more heavily on $Na_V1.6$ and $Na_V1.7$ for electrical activity. Interestingly, the

proprioceptors that were insensitive to ICA application also were less intrinsic excitable, firing only

1-2 action potentials in response to current injection, as opposed to the other 75% on neurons

recorded, which fired repetitively during the 100 ms injection protocol. This further supports a role

for $Na_V1.1$ in maintaining action potential firing in response to sustained stimulation. These results,

however, should be interpreted with the caveat that in these experiments ICA may also be acting

on $Na_V1.3$ channels that are upregulated during DRG neuron culturing (Wangzhou et al., 2020).

Nevertheless, at the afferent level Scn1a-cKO and Scn1a-Het animals show clear deficits in static

stretch sensitivity, but not dynamic sensitivity, and could even entrain to vibrations as fast as 100

Hz, suggesting a specific role for $Na_V1.1$ in proprioceptors responses to static muscle movement.

Finally, we found that loss of $Na_V1.1$ in sensory neurons had no effect on proprioceptor

development, muscle spindle morphology, or proprioceptive afferent innervation of ChAT+ motor

neurons in the spinal cord. Thus, the observed motor behavioral deficits are likely due to reduced

static sensitivity of proprioceptor afferents.

Our model proposes that $Na_V1.1$ is tasked with maintaining consistent firing in spindle

afferents during static muscle stretch for normal motor behaviors, whereby activation of the

mechanotransduction channel Piezo2 initiates electrical signaling, which in turn activates a

complement of tetrodotoxin-sensitive Na_V channels (Carrasco et al., 2017; Florez-Paz et al., 2016;

Woo et al., 2015, **Fig 10**). During dynamic or vibratory stimuli, Piezo2, and likely a combination of

other molecular mediators, including $Na_V1.6$ and $Na_V1.7$, are sufficient to elicit normal electrical

activity. Conversely, during prolonged muscle stretch when Piezo2 channels presumably

inactivate, $Na_V1.1$ is required for regular and reliable firing. While other signaling molecules and

channels, such as vesicle-released glutamate (Bewick et al., 2005; Than et al., 2021), and

mechanosensitive ASIC channels (Lin et al., 2016) and ENaC channels (Bewick and Banks,

2015), also contribute to mammalian proprioception, our data suggests $Na_V1.1$ is a critical for

muscle spindle afferent mechanotransduction, given the overt behavioral deficits observed in

Scn1a-cKO mice. Due to the ubiquitous expression of $Na_V1.1$ in all proprioceptors and the

importance of Golgi Tendon Organ (GTO) feedback to motor control, alterations in function in

those proprioceptors likely contribute to the behavioral deficits we observed; however, we did not

directly measure their function.

Figure 10. Proposed model of the role of $Na_V1.1$ in proprioception. Upon muscle static stretch, various channels
activate, including Piezo2 (red) which results in an influx of calcium and sodium ions, causing a depolarization that
activates $Na_V1.1$ (dark blue). $Na_V1.1$ activation drives reliable repetitive firing of proprioceptors during static stretch for
normal motor behavior. Loss of $Na_V1.1$ in sensory neurons results in inconsistent static firing at the afferent level while
maintaining dynamic firing, resulting in uncoordinated movements and abnormal limb positioning. It is possible that a
combination of Piezo2, $Na_V1.6$ (yellow), $Na_V1.7$ (pink), and/or other channels, such as glutamate receptors (dark blue),
ASIC and ENaC channels (green) mediate dynamic firing.
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To date, our knowledge of the functional contributions of $Na_V1.1$ in the PNS is limited.

Most studies have identified roles for this channel in mechanical pain signaling in DRG, TG, and

vagal sensory neurons. Intraplantar pharmacological activation of $Na_V1.1$ induces spontaneous

pain behaviors and mechanical pain, which is absent in mice lacking $Na_V1.1$ in small- and

medium-diameter sensory neurons (Osteen et al., 2016b). Inhibition of $Na_V1.1$ prevented the

development of mechanical pain in several preclinical models, including spared nerve injury

(Salvatierra et al., 2018b), an irritable bowel syndrome mouse model (Salvatierra et al., 2018),

and infraorbital nerve chronic constriction injury (Pineda-Farias et al., 2021). Additionally, blocking

$Na_V1.1$ channels inhibited firing in TRPM8-expressing neurons *in vitro*, suggesting a potential role

for this channel in thermosensation (Griffith et al., 2019). No prior studies, however, have reported

a functional role for $Na_V1.1$, or Na_Vs in general, in proprioception.

The loss of consistent firing we observed during static stretch in Scn1a-cKO and Scn1a-

Het animals is functionally similar to deletion of $Na_V1.1$ in other brain cell types. Indeed, loss of a

single copy of $Na_V1.1$ is sufficient to attenuate sustained action potential firing in parvalbumin-

positive hippocampal interneurons (Ogiwara et al., 2007; Yu et al., 2006) and cerebellar Purkinje

neurons (Yu et al., 2006). $Na_V1.1$ has been associated with persistent sodium current ($I_{Na}P$) and

resurgent sodium current ($I_{Na}R$), both of which promote repetitive firing in a wide variety of cell

types in the CNS and PNS (Barbosa et al., 2015; Kalume et al., 2007; Khaliq et al., 2003). $Na_V1.1$

also recovers rapidly from fast inactivation compared to other channel subtypes (Herzog et al.,

2003; Patel et al., 2015) and has been shown to be refractory to entry into slow inactivation in

TRPM8-expressing DRG neurons (Griffith et al., 2019). We observed similar characteristics when

analyzing the proprioceptor I_{Na}. Future studies will determine whether proprioceptors rely on these

features of $Na_V1.1$ for reliable and consistent encoding of static muscle stretch.

Loss of $Na_V1.1$ notably impacted proprioceptor afferent static sensitivity during ramp-and-

hold stretch, but not dynamic sensitivity as measured by entrainment to sinusoidal vibrations using

ex vivo muscle-nerve recordings. Afferents from Scn1a-cKO animals were more likely to have

action potential failures and thus were largely unable to fire consistently throughout the 4 s of

stretch, which was accompanied by a higher coefficient of variability in the ISI. This indicates that

$Na_V1.1$ has a critical role in transmitting static stretch information to the central nervous system.

Interestingly, however, dynamic sensitivity in these afferents appears to be unimpaired. Both

Scn1a-cKO and Scn1a-Het afferents were able to entrain throughout the entire 9 s vibration;

therefore, $Na_V1.1$ does appear to have a generalized role in maintaining high frequency firing, but

a more specific deficit in static sensitivity. $Na_V1.1$ has been localized to muscle spindle afferent

endings and has been hypothesized to help amplify receptor current (Carrasco et al., 2017) . Our

results support a model whereby current from Piezo2 and potentially other mechanically sensitive

ion channels at the start of stretch produces a sufficient receptor potential to generate firing at the

heminode, but that amplification of the receptor potential by $Na_V1.1$ is necessary to maintain firing

during held stretch.

A similar deficit in static but not dynamic sensitivity was seen following loss of synaptic-

like vesicle released glutamate from afferent endings (Than et al., 2021); however in those

afferents firing only occurred at the beginning of stretch and patchy firing was never observed.

This may indicate that glutamate plays a more general role maintaining excitability, whereas

$Na_V1.1$ is required for reliable action potential generation at heminodes during static stimuli.

Alternatively, or in addition, $Na_V1.1$ expressed along the axon could be essential for sustained

static firing. A detailed examination of $Na_V1.1$ subcellular localization along proprioceptor afferents

could shed light on how this channel contributes to signal propagation. The lack of an effect on

dynamic sensitivity could suggest the upregulation of other Na_V subtypes or other molecules as a

compensatory   mechanism   to   counteract   the   loss   of $Na_V1.1$.   Indeed,   our   *in   vitro*

electrophysiological experiments found a more pronounced effect of acute $Na_V1.1$ inhibition on

proprioceptor excitability. This could be due, however, to artificially upregulated $Na_V1.3$ channel

activity in culturing conditions, or conversely, a higher density of $Na_V1.1$ expression in

proprioceptor somata. Future studies using temporally controlled deletion of Na$_V$1.1 in sensory

neurons could tease this apart. Nevertheless, as static sensitivity is still very much impaired in

both Scn1a-cKO and Scn1a-Het afferents, Na$_V$1.1 may play a potentially unique role in

maintaining afferent firing during the sustained stretch.

Loss of Na$_V$1.1 in sensory neurons did not impact proprioceptor development, as the

number of proprioceptors in DRG sections was unchanged between genotypes, and muscle

spindles developed normally in our model. While we did not directly examine GTOs, we do not

anticipate that abnormal end organ development would be restricted to that proprioceptor

subtype. Additionally, we did not observe a general decrease in α-motor neuron innervation,

which is consistent with the findings of Mendelsohn et al., 2015, who reported loss of proprioceptor

activity does not generally reduce proprioceptive input into the spinal cord. Interestingly, however,

the authors did observe changes in heteronymous sensory-motor connectivity when proprioceptor

transmission was blocked, whereby proprioceptor innervation of motor neurons that project to

antagonistic muscles was increased. Whether loss of Na$_V$1.1 in proprioceptive afferents causes

them to "mis-wire" in our model to make connections with inappropriate motor neuron pools is

unclear. Future studies will determine if this contributes to the observed behavioral deficits.

We found effects of both pharmacological inhibition and genetic deletion of Na$_V$1.1 in *in*

vitro and *ex vivo* electrophysiological experiments, respectively (**Figs 2-3, 8-9**); however, in our

mouse model Na$_V$1.1 is deleted in all sensory neurons. Thus, we cannot rule out that loss of

Na$_V$1.1 in other mechanosenory neuron populations, such as touch receptors, contributes to the

motor deficits observed. Deletion of Na$_V$1.1 in small- and medium-diameter DRG neurons using

a peripherin-Cre driver did not produce visible motor deficits (Osteen et al., 2016b), indicating

sensory neuron populations in those categories are not involved. We did observe Na$_V$1.1

transcripts in the vast majority of myelinated DRG neurons (a combination of large- and medium-

diameter DRG neurons), consistent with its presence in different subclasses of tactile sensory

neurons (Zheng et al., 2019). However, the severe motor phenotype of Scn1a-cKO mice

precludes mechanical threshold analysis using von Frey or tactile sensitivity using tape test.

Notably, baseline mechanical thresholds were unchanged following intraplantar injection of a

selective $Na_V1.1$ inhibitor (Salvatierra et al., 2018). This suggests that while $Na_V1.1$ mRNA is

expressed in most tactile sensory neurons, functional protein may only be upregulated in these

populations during pathological states.

Despite this limitation, one noteworthy and intriguing finding from our study was the

haploinsufficiency of $Na_V1.1$ in sensory neurons for proprioceptor function and normal motor

behavior in the open field test. At the afferent level, heterozygous and homozygous loss of $Na_V1.1$

produced similar deficits in static firing, suggesting that loss of less than a quarter of the

proprioceptor I_{Na} is sufficient to impair proprioceptor responsiveness to muscle stretch. $Na_V1.1$ is

haploinsufficeint in several brain neuron cell-types for normal excitability and function (Ogiwara

et al., 2007; Yu et al., 2006), suggesting the contributions of $Na_V1.1$ to neuronal function are highly

sensitive to genetic perturbations. At the behavioral level, Scn1a-Het mice had an identical

phenotype to Scn1a-cKO mice, moving more slowly and less than controls, despite not having

the more severe and visible motor coordination deficits. Indeed, their performance on the rotarod

was identical to that of Scn1a-floxed controls (**Fig 5**). How these behavioral differences arise given

the similar transmission deficits in Scn1a-cKO and Scn1a-Het afferents is unclear. One possibility

is a presynaptic role for $Na_V1.1$ in proprioceptive terminals that is unveiled when both copies of

$Na_V1.1$ are lost. For example, loss of presynaptic $Na_V1.7$ channels in the spinal cord reduced

glutamate release from nociceptive afferents onto dorsal horn neurons (MacDonald et al., 2021).

If a similar mechanism is at play for $Na_V1.1$ in proprioceptors, reduced neurotransmitter release

from Scn1a-Het afferent terminals could be sufficient to produce quantifiable, albeit more subtle,

motor deficits. Future studies are required to test this possibility.

Notably, *Scn1a* is a super culprit gene with over one thousand associated disease-causing

mutations, most of which are linked to different forms of epilepsy. Many epilepsy patients with

hemizygous $Na_V1.1$ loss-of-function display ataxia and motor delays and deficiencies (Claes et

al., 2001; Fujiwara et al., 2003), which has traditionally been attributed to loss of $Na_V1.1$ function

in the brain, namely the cerebellum (Kalume et al., 2007). Our findings suggest that some of the

clinical manifestations associated with epilepsy are not solely due to $Na_V1.1$ loss-of-function in

the brain, but also may manifest in part as a result from unreliable coding by peripheral

proprioceptors.

Data presented in this study provide new evidence of a role for peripherally expressed

$Na_V1.1$ in motor coordination. We show that $Na_V1.1$ is ubiquitously and strongly expressed in

proprioceptors, contributes to proprioceptor excitability *in vitro* and *ex vivo,* and is haploinsufficient

in sensory neurons for normal motor behaviors. Collectively, this works identifies a new role for

$Na_V1.1$ in mammalian proprioception.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Key resources. **Table 1** contains a list of key resources and supplies used for this study.

Key Resources Table				
Reagent type or resource	**Designation**	**Source or Reference**	**Identifiers**	**Additional information**
Antibody	Rabbit polyclonal anti-DsRed	Takara Bio	Catalogue #632496	1:3000
Antibody	Chicken polyclonal GFP	Abcam	Catalogue #ab13970	1:3000
Antibody	Chicken polyclonal NFH	Abcam	Catalogue #ab4680	In muscle spindles: (1:300) In DRG: (1:3000)
Antibody	Rabbit polyclonal CGRP	Immunostar	Catalogue #24112	1:1000
Antibody	Guinea pig polyclonal VGLUT1	Zuckerman institute (Columbia University)	Catalogue #CU1706, RRID:AB_2665455	In spinal cord: (1:8000) In muscle spindles: (1:800)

Antibody	Chicken polyclonal β3-tubulin	Abcam	Catalogue #ab41489	1:500
Antibody	Rabbit polyclonal β3-tubulin	Abcam	Catalogue #ab18207	1:3000
Antibody	Rabbit polyclonal ChAT	Zuckerman institute (Columbia University)	Catalog #CU1574	1:10,000
Chemical compound, drug	VECTASHIELD ® Antifade Mounting Media with DAPI	Vector Laboratories	Catalogue #H-2000	
Chemical compound, drug	Tissue-Tek OCT compound	Sakura	Catalogue #4583	
Chemical compound, drug	Laminin	Sigma-Aldrich	Catalogue #L2020-1MG	
Chemical compound, drug	Collagenase type P	Sigma-Aldrich	Catalogue #11213865001	
Chemical compound, drug	TrypLE Express	Thermofisher	Catalogue #12605-010	
Chemical compound, drug	MEM	Thermofisher	Catalogue #11095-080	
Chemical compound, drug	Penicillin-streptomycin	Thermofisher	Catalogue #15140-122	
Chemical compound, drug	MEM vitamin solution	Thermofisher	Catalogue #11120-052	
Chemical compound, drug	B-27 supplement	Thermofisher	Catalogue #17504-044	
Chemical compound, drug	Horse serum, heat inactivated	Thermofisher	Catalogue #26050-070	
Chemical compound, drug	ICA 121431	Tocris Bioscience	Catalogue #5066/10	
Chemical compound, drug	4,9 – anhydrous tetrodotoxin	Tocris Bioscience	Catalogue #6159	

Chemical compound, drug	PF- 05089771	Tocris Bioscience	Catalogue #5931	
Chemical compound, drug	Tetrodotoxin	Abcam	Catalogue ab120054	
Assay Kit	RNAscope Fluorescence Multiplex Kit	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	Catalogue #320851	
Oligonucleotide	*Pvalb* probe channel 1	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	Catalogue #421931	
Oligonucleotide	*Scn1a* probe channel 2	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	Catalogue #556181-C2	
Oligonucleotide	*Scn8a* probe channel 2	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	Catalogue #313341-C2	
Oligonucleotide	*Scn9a* probe channel 2	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	Catalogue #434191-C2	
Oligonucleotide	*Runx3* probe channel 3	Advanced Cell Diagnostics	Catalogue #451271-C3	
Mouse Strain	*Pirt*cre	Dr. Xinzhong Dong		
Mouse Strain	*Rosa26*Ai14	Jackson Laboratories	Stock #007914	
Mouse Strain	*Pvalb*cre	Jackson Laboratories	Stock #008069	
Mouse Strain	Scn1a-floxed	UC Davis MMRRC	Stock # 041829-UCD	
Mouse Strain	*Mrgprd*GFP	Zheng et al., 2019		
Software/ Algorithms	pClamp 11.2 Software Suite	Molecular Devices	https://www.moleculardevices.com	
Software/ Algorithms	Image J	Schneider et al. (2012)	https://imagej.nih.gov	
Software/ Algorithms	Prism 9	Graphpad	https://www.graphpad.com	
Software/ Algorithms	LabChart	ADInstruments	https://www.adinstruments.com/products/labchart	

Software/ Algorithms	MATLAB	MathWorks	https://www.mathworks.com	
Software/ Algorithms	Software, algorithm, custom (MATLAB)	This study	https://github.com/docth eagrif/Current-Clamp-Matlab-Code_O-Neil-DA	Current clamp experiments were analyzed with a custom written Matlab Script that is available on Github

Animals. *Pirt*[cre] mice were a kind gift from Dr. Xinzhong Dong (Johns Hopkins University).

Rosa26[Ai14] (stock #007914; (Madisen et al., 2010)) and *Pvalb*[cre] (stock # 008069) were obtained

from Jackson Laboratories. Scn1a-floxed (stock # 041829-UCD) mice were purchased from the

UC Davis MMRRC. *Mrgprd* mice were originally published in Zheng et al., 2019. All mice used

were on a mixed C57BL/6 background (non-congenic) Genotyping was outsourced to Transnetyx.

Animal use was conducted according to guidelines from the National Institutes of Health's Guide

for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and was approved by the Institutional Animal Care

and Use Committee of Rutgers University-Newark (PROTO201900161), UC Davis (#21947 and

#22438) and San José State University (#990, ex vivo muscle recordings). Mice were maintained

on a 12 h light/dark cycle, and food and water was provided *ad libitum*.

Rotarod. To assess motor coordination, a rotarod machine (IITC Life Sciences, Woodland Hills,

CA) that has an accelerating rotating cylinder was used. 8-10 week old mice of both sexes were

acclimated to the behavior room for 2 h prior to testing. Mice were assayed on the rotarod for 3

consecutive days, with 3 trials per day and an intertrial interval of at least 15 min. The average of

the three trials per day was used. The experimenter was blind to genotype.

Open field test. 8-10 week old mice of both sexes were acclimated to the behavior room for 2 h

prior to testing. The open field apparatus consisted of a black square sound attenuating box of

dimensions 40.6 cm × 40.6 cm. A camera suspended above the arena was connected to a

computer running Ethovision XT software, which tracked animal movement and velocity. An

animal was placed in the center of the arena and allowed to freely explore for a 10 min trial. The

experimenter was blind to genotype.

Tissue processing. For spinal cord immunolabeling experiments, whole spinal columns from

adult (8-15 weeks) *Pirt*[Cre];*Rosa26*[Ai14] and *Pirt*[Cre];Scn1a-floxed animals of both sexes were

harvested on ice. For Tdtomato IHC, spinal columns were fixed overnight at 4°C in 4%

paraformaldehyde. For vesicular glutamate transporter 1 (VGLUT1) and choline acetyltransferase

(ChAT) co-labeling experiments, spinal columns were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 1 h on

ice. Tissue was then placed in 30% sucrose solution overnight at 4°C. Following cryoprotection,

tissue was embedded in optimal cutting temperature compound (OCT, Tissue-Tek® Sakura) and

stored at -80ºC until sectioning. DRG from adult (8-15 weeks) animals of both sexes were

harvested from thoracic spinal levels and fixed in 4% formaldehyde for 15 min at 4°C and were

then incubated in 30% sucrose for 2-4 h at 4°C. DRG were embedded in OCT and stored at -

80°C until sectioning.

Immunohistochemistry. Immunohistochemistry of spinal cord cryostat sections (30μm) was

performed using the following primary antibodies: Rabbit anti-DsRed (1:3000, Takara Bio,

632496), guinea pig anti-VGLUT1 (1:8000, Zuckerman Institute, 1705), and rabbit anti-ChAT

(1:10,000, Zuckerman Institute, 1574). Secondary antibodies used were as follows: anti-rabbit

594 (1:1000, ThermoFisher, A32740), anti-guinea pig 488 (1:1000, ThermoFisher, A11073), and

anti-chicken 647 (ThermoFisher, A32733). Specimens were mounted with Fluoromount-G with

DAPI (SouthernBiotech, 0100-20). EDL muscles used in *ex vivo* muscle afferent recordings were

placed in ice cold 4% paraformaldehyde for 1 h followed by ice cold methanol for 15 min. Muscles

were incubated in blocking solution (0.3% PBS-T and 1% BSA) followed by incubation in primary

antibodies (guinea pig anti-VGLUT1 1:800 and chicken anti-NFH 1:300, ThermoFisher ab4680)

for 3-6 days at 4ºC. After primary antibody treatment, tissue was washed in blocking solution and

treated with secondary antibody (anti-guinea pig 488 1:50 and anti-chicken 594 1:300, Invitrogen,

WA316328) for 2-3 days. Specimens were mounted with VECTASHIELD® with DAPI (H-2000,

Vector Laboratories). All specimens were imaged in three dimensions on a on a Zeiss LSM880

Airyscan confocal microscope. Images were analyzed using ImageJ software.

***Multiplex* in situ *hybridization*.** Fixed-frozen DRG tissue from 8-15 week old mice of both sexes

was cut in 25μm sections and placed on electrostatically coated slides. Sections were processed

for RNA *in situ* detection using a modified version of the manufacturer's protocol ((Griffith et al.,

2019), Advanced Cell Diagnostics) and the following probes: *Pvalb* (421931- C1, mouse)*, Runx3*

(451271-C3, mouse)*, Scn1a* (556181-C2, mouse), *Scn8a* (313341-C2, mouse), and *Scn9a*

(434191-C2, mouse)*.* Following *in situ* hybridization, sections were incubated in blocking solution

(5% normal goat serum, 0.1% PBS-T) for 1 h at RT. Tissue was then incubated in primary

antibodies overnight at 4°C. The following antibodies were used: rabbit DsRed (1:3000, Takara

Bio, 632496), rabbit β3-tubulin (1:3000, Abcam, ab18207), chicken β3-tubulin (1:500, Abcam,

ab41489), rabbit CGRP (1:1000, Immunostar, 24112), chicken GFP (1:3000, Abcam, ab13970),

and chicken NFH (1:3000, Abcam, ab4680). Tissue was treated with the following secondary

antibodies for 45 min at RT: anti-rabbit 448 (1:1000, Invitrogen, A32731), 594 (1:1000, Invitrogen,

A11037) and 647 (1:1000, Invitrogen, A32733), anti-chicken 488 (1:1000, Invitrogen, A32931)

and 594 (1:1000, Invitrogen, A32740). Sections were washed and mounted with Fluoromount-G

with DAPI and imaged in three dimensions (2μm axial steps) on an Olympus confocal (LV3000)

using a 40X 0.90 NA water objective lens. Images were auto-thresholded and the probe signal

integrated density for individual neurons was analyzed using ImageJ software. The coefficients

of variation for *Scn1a*, *Scn8a*, and *Scn9a* integrated densities were calculated in Prism 9.0

(GraphPad Software) using the following formula: $CV = \mu/\sigma *100$.

DRG culture preparation. DRG were harvested from thoracic spinal levels of adult

Pvalb^{cre};*Rosa*26^{Ai14} and *Pirt^{cre}*;Scn1a-floxed (6-16 weeks) mice of both sexes and transferred to

Ca^{2+}-free and Mg^{2+}-free HBSS solution (Invitrogen, 14170-112). Upon isolation, processes were

trimmed, and ganglia were transferred into collagenase (1.5 mg/mL; Type P, Sigma-Aldrich,

11213865001) in HBSS for 20 min at 37°C followed by TrypLE Express (ThermoFisher, 12605-

010) for 3 min with gentle rotation. TrypLE was neutralized with 10% horse serum (heat-

inactivated; Invitrogen, 26050-070) and supplemented with culture media (MEM with L-glutamine,

Phenol Red, without sodium pyruvate, ThermoFisher, 11095-080), containing 10,000 U/mL

Penicillin-streptomycin (ThermoFisher, 15140-122), MEM Vitamin Solution (Invitrogen, 11120-

052), and B-27 supplement (ThermoFisher, 17504-044). Serum containing media was decanted

and cells were triturated using a fire-polished Pasteur pipette in the MEM culture media described

above. Cells were resuspended and triturated using a plastic pipette tip. Cells were plated on

glass coverslips that had been washed in 2M NaOH for at least 4 h, rinsed with 70% ethanol, UV-

sterilized, and treated with laminin (0.05 mg/mL, Sigma-Aldrich, L2020-1MG) for 1 hour prior to

plating. Cells were then incubated at 37°C in 5% CO_2. Cells were used for electrophysiology

experiments 14-36 h post-plating.

In Vitro *Electrophysiology.* Whole-cell voltage-clamp recordings were made from dissociated

DRG neurons using patch pipettes pulled from Model P-1000 (Sutter Instruments). Patch pipettes

had a resistance of 3-5MΩ when filled with an internal solution containing the following (in mM):

140 CsF, 10 NaCl, 1.1 EGTA, .1 $CaCl_2$, 10 HEPES, and 2.5 MgATP, pH with CsOH to 7.2. Seals

and whole-cell configuration were obtained in an external solution containing the following (in

mM): 145 NaCl, 5 KCl, 10 HEPES, 10 Glucose, 2 $CaCl_2$, 2 $MgCl_2$, pH 7.3 with NaOH, osmolarity

~320mOsm. Series resistance ranged from 6-11MΩ and was compensated by 70-80%. To isolate

whole-cell sodium currents during voltage clamp experiments, a modified external solution was

applied containing the following (in mM): 15 NaCl, 130 TEA-Cl, 10 HEPES, 2 $BaCl_2$, 13 glucose,

0.03 $CdCl_2$, pH 7.3 with NaOH, Osmolarity ~320mOsm. Voltage clamp recordings were performed

at room temperature and current clamp recordings were conducted at 37ºC. Bath temperature

was controlled and monitored using CL-100 (Warner Instruments).

Ex vivo *electrophysiology*. The effect of the loss of $Na_V1.1$ on muscle spindle afferent firing

rates during muscle stretch and sinusoidal vibration was determined using an isolated muscle

nerve preparation. The extensor digitorum longus muscle and innervating peroneal branch of the

sciatic nerve were dissected from adult (2-4 month old) mice of both sexes. Muscles were held at

optimal length (Lo), or the length of the muscle that maximal force of twitch contraction occurred.

A series of nine 4 s ramp-and-hold stretches were given to 3 different stretch lengths repeated 3

times each (2.5%, 5%, and 7.5% Lo; ramp speed 40% Lo/s). A series of twelve 9 s sinusoidal

vibrations were given (25, 50, and 100 µm amplitude; 10, 25, 50, and 100 Hz frequency). A one-

minute rest was given between each length change. Firing rates during a 10 s baseline before

stretch (resting discharge or RD) and the maximal firing rate during the ramp up phase of stretch

(dynamic peak or DP) were calculated for all animals. We determined whether the response to

static stretch was maintained consistently throughout the 4s stretch, as well as the coefficient of

variability of the interspike interval (ISI) during the plateau phase of stretch (CV = Std Dev/Mean

of ISI over the time period of 1.5-3.5s after end of ramp up). Average firing rate during the 9 s of

vibration and whether the unit could entrain in a 1:1 fashion to vibration was also determined.

Detailed methods can be found in Wilkinson et al., 2012.

Pharmacology. ICA 121431 (#5066), 4,9-Anhydrotetrodotoxin (AH-TTX, #6159), and PF-

05089771 (#5931) was purchased from Tocris Bioscience. Tetrodotoxin (TTX, ab120054) was

purchased from abcam. All other chemicals were from Sigma-Aldrich and Fisher Chemical.

Data acquisition and analysis. Currents and voltages were acquired using pClamp software

v11.2 (Molecular Devices). Recordings were obtained using an AxoPatch 200b patch-clamp

amplifier and a Digidata 1550B and filtered at 5 kHz and digitized at 10 kHz. For biophysical

analysis of whole-cell sodium currents, conductance (G) was calculated as $G = I / (V - E_{Na})$, in

which I is the peak current, V is the voltage step, and E_{Na} is the reversal potential for sodium

calculated from Nernst equation based on the intracellular and extracellular sodium

concentrations in our recording solutions (10.38mV). Conductance data were normalized by the

maximum conductance value, G_{max}, and data was fit with the Boltzmann equation: Fraction

available = Minimum + ([Maximum-Minimum]/[1+exp(V50 Vm)/k]), where V_{50} denotes the

membrane potential at which half the channels are inactivated and k denotes the Boltzmann

constant/slope factor. For voltage dependence of steady state inactivation, peak current data

were normalized based on the maximum current, I_{max}. Analysis of action potential amplitude, full-

width half max, and threshold were performed on the first action potential elicited in response to

a 100 pA current injection (100 ms). Action potential threshold was calculated as the membrane

potential at which the first derivative of the somatic membrane potential (dV/dT) reached 10 mV

ms^{-1} (Griffith et al., 2019; Kress et al., 2008). Tau values were calculated from 20 ms voltage

steps from -90 mV to -30 mV and analyzed with single exponential curve fits. Voltage-clamp and

current-clamp experiments were analyzed with Clampfit software v11.2 (Molecular Devices) and

custom MatLab Scripts. _Ex vivo_ recordings were obtained using an A-M Systems Model 1800

extracellular amplifier with headstage and digitized using an ADInstruments PowerLab. Data was

analyzed using ADInstruments LabChart software using the Spike Histogram function.

Experimental design and statistical analysis. Summary data are presented as mean ± SEM,

from *n* cells or afferents, or *N* animals. For quantitative analysis of *in situ* hybridization data, at

least 3 biological replicates per condition were used and the investigator was blinded to genotype

for analysis. Behavioral experiments and analysis were also performed genotype-blind. Statistical

differences were determine using parametric tests for normally distributed data and non-

parametric tests for data that did not conform to Gaussian distributions or had different variances.

Statistical tests are listed in *Results* and/or figure legends. Statistical significance in each case is

denoted as follows: $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, and $****p < 0.0001$. Statistical tests and

curve fits were performed using Prism 9.0 (GraphPad Software). All data generated or analyzed

during this study are included in the manuscript and supporting file; Source Data files have been

uploaded to Mendeley for all figures. Code has been uploaded to GitHub. A key resources table

with specific organism and reagent information has been included in the method section.

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