Endothelin B receptor inhibition rescues aging-dependent neuronal regenerative decline

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One Sentence Summary:
Inhibition of endothelin signaling improves nerve regeneration after central and peripheral injuries and counters age-related regenerative decline.

Abstract:

Peripheral sensory neurons regenerate their axons after injury to regain function, but this ability declines with age. The mechanisms behind this decline are not fully understood. While excessive production of endothelin 1 (ET-1), a potent vasoconstrictor, is linked to many diseases that increase with age, the role of ET-1 and its receptors in axon regeneration is unknown. Using single cell RNA sequencing, we show that satellite glial cells (SGCs), which completely envelop the sensory neuron soma residing in the dorsal root ganglia (DRG), express the endothelin B receptor (ETBR), while ET-1 is expressed by endothelial cells. Inhibition of ETBR *ex-vivo* in DRG explant cultures improves axon growth in both adult and aged conditions*. In vivo,* treatment with the FDA-approved compound, Bosentan, improves axon regeneration and reverses the age-dependent decrease in axonal regenerative capacity. Single-nuclei RNA sequencing and electron microscopy analyses reveal a decreased abundance of SGCs in aged mice compared to adult mice. Additionally, the decreased expression of connexin 43 (Cx43) in SGCs in aged mice after nerve injury is partially rescued by Bosentan treatment. These results reveal that inhibiting ETBR function enhances axon regeneration and rescues the age-dependent decrease in axonal regenerative capacity, providing a potential avenue for future therapies.

Keywords:

Dorsal root ganglion (DRG), Endothelin B receptor (ETBR), Connexin 43, Bosentan, Satellite glial cells (SGCs), Axon regeneration, Nerve injury, Aging.

INTRODUCTION

Peripheral nerve injuries, resulting from traumatic injuries, lesions, degenerative diseases, and neuropathies, have a major impact on patient's functioning and quality of life (Maita et al., 2023). While neurons in the peripheral nervous system regenerate their axons after nerve injury, functional recovery remains very limited because of the slow growth rate of axons and the often long distances that growing axons face to reconnect with their initial targets (Hoke, 2006). Unfortunately, the ability of injured neurons to regenerate their axons declines with age (Pestronk et al., 1980; Vaughan, 1992; Verdu et al., 2000), contributing to increases in healthcare costs and the risk of long-term disability (Pestronk et al., 1980; Vaughan, 1992; Verdu et al., 2000; Yun, 2015). Thus, discovery of therapeutics that promote axon regeneration and counter age-related decline in regenerative capacity is vital.

Primary sensory neurons, with their cell soma located in the dorsal root ganglia (DRG), convey sensory information from peripheral tissue to the brain via the spinal cord, and represent a useful model to identify the molecular and cellular mechanisms that promote axon regeneration. After injury, successful axonal regeneration of sensory neurons requires activation of neuronal-intrinsic epigenetic, transcriptional, and translational programs (He and Jin, 2016; Mahar and Cavalli, 2018; Rishal and Fainzilber, 2014; Tedeschi and Bradke, 2017). Additionally, non-neuronal cells at the site of injury and in the DRG play an important role in axon regeneration after injury. Satellite glial cells (SGCs) surrounding the cell soma (Avraham et al., 2020; Avraham et al., 2021; Jager et al., 2020) and Schwann cells surrounding the axon (Jessen and Mirsky, 2016), undergo changes in transcriptional states that support axon regeneration. Macrophages recruited to the nerve (Ydens et al., 2020; Zigmond and Echevarria, 2019), and macrophages proliferating in the DRG (Feng et al., 2023) also contribute to axon regeneration after injury.

During aging, decreases in the efficiency of the axonal transport system (Andrews et al., 2016; Black and Lasek, 1979), mitochondrial function (Sutherland et al., 2021), and epigenetic

and transcriptional mechanisms (Li et al., 2010) limit the regenerative capacity of neurons.

Increases in pro-inflammatory cytokines and macrophage infiltration into the peripheral nerve

(Buttner et al., 2018), as well as an increased numbers of T cells in the DRG, have been shown

to contribute to the limited regenerative capacity of neurons in aged mice (Zhou et al., 2022).

Additionally, age-related decline in the de-differentiation, activation, and senescence of Schwann

cells hampers axonal re-growth in damaged peripheral nerves (Fuentes-Flores et al., 2023; Kang

and Lichtman, 2013; Painter et al., 2014). While changes in SGCs morphology (Pannese et al.,

1996), as well as changes in SGCs-neuronal coupling have been reported with age (Huang et al.,

2006; Procacci et al., 2008), the contribution of SGCs to age-dependent decreases in axonal

regenerative capacity has not been investigated.

Endothelin B receptor (ETBR), a G-protein coupled receptor, is expressed in SGCs

(Mapps et al., 2022; Pomonis et al., 2001). One of the ligands for ETBR, Endothelin- 1 (ET-1), is

a potent vasoconstrictor secreted by endothelial cells and is the predominant isoform of

endothelin in the human cardiovascular system (Luscher and Barton, 2000; Yanagisawa et al.,

1988). Previous studies in trigeminal and nodose ganglia have shown that ET-1 activates SGCs

through ETBR and reduces gap junction coupling *in vitro* (Feldman-Goriachnik and Hanani, 2017).

Studies in astrocytes, which share many functional and molecular features with SGCs (Avraham

et al., 2022; Avraham et al., 2020; Hanani and Verkhratsky, 2021) have shown that ETBR

inhibition reduces reactive astrocytes and may be a beneficial target to modulate brain diseases

(Koyama, 2021). Additional studies in astrocytes have shown that ET-1 signaling via ETBR

inhibits the expression of Connexin 43 (Cx43) and reduces gap junction mediated coupling

(Blomstrand et al., 2004; Rozyczka et al., 2005). Cx43 is the most highly expressed member of

the connexin family in SGCs (Avraham et al., 2022; Huang et al., 2005) and its expression

decreases during aging (Procacci et al., 2008). Notably, ET-1 production increases with age and

is linked to many age-associated diseases (Barton, 2014; Jankowich and Choudhary, 2020;

Stauffer et al., 2008). However, the function of ETBR in SGCs is not known, and whether

endothelin signaling contributes to axon regeneration and age-dependent axon regenerative

decline has not been examined.

First, to determine the role of endothelin signaling in axon regeneration, we performed

unbiased single-cell RNA-sequencing of lumbar DRG from mice 3 months of age (adult).

Examination of endothelins and their receptors showed enrichment of *Edn1,* the gene encoding

ET-1 in endothelial cells and *Ednrb*, the gene encoding ETBR*,* in SGCs. Inhibition of ETBR using

the selective antagonist BQ788 in DRG explant cultures enhanced axonal outgrowth in adults and

restored axonal regenerative capacity in aged conditions. Treatment of adult and aged mice with

Bosentan, an FDA-approved ETBR/ETAR antagonist (Clozel et al., 1994), improved axon

regeneration after peripheral nerve injury. To further examine the changes in SGCs induced by

aging, we performed single-nuclei RNA-sequencing (snRNA-seq) and transmission electron

microscopy of DRG cells from adult and 21-month-old mice (aged). We observed decreased

abundance of SGCs in aged conditions, together with extensive transcriptional reprogramming in

SGCs, reflecting heightened demands for structural integrity, cell junction remodeling, and glia–

neuron interactions within the aged DRG microenvironment. Mechanistically, we found that

Bosentan treatment increased expression of Cx43 in SGCs after injury in adult and age mice.

These results suggest that ETBR signaling limits axon regeneration after nerve injury and plays

a role in age-related decline in regenerative capacity. Thus, ETBR antagonism may be a potential

therapeutic avenue to enhance axon growth after nerve injury and to restore axon regenerative

capacity that declines with age.

RESULTS

***Ednrb* is highly expressed in SGCs.**

The dense vascularization of the DRG cell body area coupled with the high permeability

of these capillaries in rodents and human (Godel et al., 2016; Jimenez-Andrade et al., 2008)

suggests that neurons and their surrounding SGCs may be influenced by vascular-derived signals.

Whole mount preparation of DRG from Lycopersicon Esculentum Lectin (LEL) injected

Fabp7^CreER^::Ai14 mouse, which labels SGCs with tdTomato (Avraham et al., 2020) revealed the

dense vascularization in the neuronal soma rich area of the DRG, as previously reported

(Jimenez-Andrade et al., 2008) (Fig.1A, Figure 1 - Movie S1). Additionally, immunofluorescence

staining of neurons and SGCs in the DRG from LEL injected adult mouse demonstrated that blood

vessels are closely juxtaposed to SGCs surrounding sensory neuron somas (Fig.1B).

To understand the role of endothelin intercellular signaling on axon regeneration, we first

performed single cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) on lumbar DRGs from adult female mice (3

months of age) using the Chromium Single Cell Gene Expression Solution (10 X Genomics), as

described previously (Avraham et al., 2022; Avraham et al., 2020; Avraham et al., 2021). We

sequenced a total of 16,764 cells from two female biological replicates with an average of 3,579

genes and 12,090 transcripts detected per cell (Figure 1C, Figure 1- Figure supplement 1A-B,

see methods for filtering criteria). Following unsupervised clustering, we identified eight clusters

corresponding to the principal cell types of the mouse DRG. Examination of the cluster-specific

marker genes verified the presence of major cellular subtypes including SGCs (*Fabp7/Kcnj10*),

myelinating Schwann cells (*Ncmap/Mag*), non-myelinating Schwann cells (*Scn7a/L1cam*),

neurons (*Isl1/Prph*), endothelial cells (*Pecam1/Flt1*), fibroblasts (*Col1a1/Pdgfra*), mural cells

(*Rgs5/Notch3*), and macrophages (*C1qa/Aif1*) (Fig.1D, Figure 1- Figure supplement 1C, Figure

1- supplementary Data File 1). We then examined the expression of endothelin and their receptors.

Endothelin (*Edn1*) and endothelin-3 (*Edn3)* were expressed in endothelial cells and fibroblasts,

respectively (Fig.1 D,G,H). *Ednrb* was enriched in SGCs (Fig.1 D,F), whereas *Ednra* was

expressed mainly in Mural cells (Fig.1 D,E). *Ednrb* enrichment in SGCs is consistent with prior

studies (Mapps et al., 2022; Pomonis et al., 2001; Tasdemir-Yilmaz et al., 2021). Using a

published scRNAseq data set across species (Bhuiyan et al., 2024), we observed similar

enrichment of *Ednrb* expression in SGCs in humans (Figure 1- Figure supplement 1D). *Ednrb*

mRNA in mouse SGCs was validated by RNA *in situ* hybridization, which showed *Ednrb* co-

localized with the SGC marker *Fabp7* (Avraham et al., 2020) (Fig.1I).

Endothelin B receptor inhibition increases axonal growth *in vitro* and *ex vivo*.

To investigate the role of ETBR signaling in axonal growth, we used different compounds

to inihibit or activate endothelin receptors in dissociated L4-L5 DRG mixed cultures. In these DRG

cultures, SGCs lose their adhesive contacts with neuronal soma and adhere to the coverslip as

time progresses (Belzer et al., 2010; Valtcheva et al., 2016). Within 24 hours in culture, most

SGCs are found close to neurons and display flat morphology (Fig. 2B) (Belzer et al., 2010). In

these *in vitro* conditions, ET-1 or ET-3 may be released by endothelial cells or fibroblasts. DRG

cells were plated and treated with an ETBR antagonist (BQ788), ETBR agonist (IRL1620),

endothelin A receptor (ETAR) antagonist (BQ123), or vehicle for 24 hours (Fig 2A). Neurons were

then labeled with antibodies against beta III tubulin (TUJ1) and axonal radial length was quantified.

Antagonism of ETBR with BQ788 significantly increased axonal radial length compared to vehicle

(Fig.C,D). However, agonism of ETBR with IRL1620 or antagonism of ETAR with BQ123 had no

significant effects on axonal radial length compared to vehicle treatment (Fig. 2C,D). These

results indicate that ETBR signaling limits axonal growth in *in vitro* mixed culture conditions.

Inhibition of ETBR may alter trophic factors produced by SGCs into the culture media, leading to

axon growth promoting conditions.

To further examine the role of ETBR antagonism on axonal growth, we used DRG explants

in which L3-L5 DRGs from adult mice were seeded in matrigel and cultured for 7 days (Feng et

al., 2023). Explants were then treated with vehicle or BQ788 at days in vitro (DIV) 1 and radial

axon growth was assessed at DIV7 by measuring the length of 50 or more axons per explant (Fig

2E). Radial axon growth was significantly increased in explants treated with BQ788 compared to

vehicle treatment (Fig. 2F-G). To confirm that the *in vivo* morphology of SGCs enveloping

neuronal somas was preserved, DRG explants were immunostained with TUJ1 for neurons and

FABP7 for SGCs at DIV 7 (Fig. 2H). These results further indicate that ETBR signaling limits

axon growth capacity in an *ex-vivo* model.

Bosentan treatment improves axon regeneration after nerve injury.

To determine the potential role of ETBR in regulating nerve regeneration *in vivo*, we used

our established *in vivo* regeneration assays (Avraham et al., 2020; Cho and Cavalli, 2012; Cho et

al., 2015; Cho et al., 2013) in combination with the FDA-approved compounds that antagonize

endothelin receptors, Bosentan and Ambrisentan. These compounds have been utilized to treat

pulmonary arterial hypertension, and their safety and efficacy have been demonstrated through

various clinical trials (Chen et al., 2018; Galie et al., 2008; Peacock et al., 2015; Rubin et al.,

2002). Bosentan is an antagonist of both ETAR and ETBR (Clozel et al., 1994), while Ambrisentan

is an antagonist selective for ETAR (Humbert et al., 2004; Newman et al., 2007). Adult mice were

treated orally with vehicle, Bosentan or Ambrisentan 2 hours prior to receiving a sciatic nerve

crush (SNC) injury. Axon regeneration was assessed 24 hours after injury by measuring the

intensity of SCG10 labeled axons, a marker for regenerating axons (Shin et al., 2014) (Fig.3A-E).

Since axon growth is relatively slow 24 hours post injury (Shin et al., 2012), we first determined

whether ETBR inhibition could accelerate axon growth in the first 24 hours. (Shin et al., 2012;

Smith and Skene, 1997). SCG10 intensity was measured distal to the crush site, which was

determined according to the highest SCG10 intensity along the nerve (Avraham et al., 2020; Cho

et al., 2013; Feng et al., 2023; Shin et al., 2014) and axon elongation was quantified by

measurement of the 10 longest axons, as previously described (Carlin et al., 2019) (Fig.3B). A

50% regeneration index was quantified by normalizing the average SCG10 intensity at distances

away from the crush site to the SCG10 intensity at the crush site, to account for both the length

and number of regenerating axons past the crush site and plotting the distance at which SCG10

intensity is half of that at the crush site (Cho et al., 2013; Feng et al., 2023) (Fig.3C). Mice that

received Bosentan had significantly longer axons and a higher 50% regeneration index 1 day

after SNC compared to mice that received vehicle, whereas mice that received Ambrisentan had

no significant differences in axon regeneration compared to vehicle (Fig.3B-D). Quantification of

the percentage of SCG10 intensity normalized to the crush site at several distances from the

injury was also greater in Bosentan treated mice compared to vehicle (Fig.3E). Similarly, at 3 days

post SNC, mice that received Bosentan 2 hours before SNC, and then every 24 hours, had

improved axon regeneration compared to vehicle, whereas mice that received Ambrisentan had

no significant differences in axon regeneration compared to vehicle (Figure 3 - Figure supplement

1A-E). Examination of *Edn1, Ednra, and Ednrb* mRNA by RT-qPCR and ETBR by western blot in

non-treated mice showed no significant differences in mRNA or protein levels at 3 days post SNC

compared to control (Figure 3 - Figure supplement 1F-H). These results suggest that, although

ETBR levels do not change after injury, ETBR antagonism increases axon regeneration after

peripheral nerve injury at both 1 and 3 days. We next sought to determine whether Bosentan

treatment over the course of nerve regeneration improves target re-innervation. Regenerating

axons of sciatic nerves extend to the epidermis and start to re-innervate the skin of the hind paw

at ~2–3 weeks after injury. We administered Bosentan or vehicle 2 hours prior to SNC, then daily

for 7 days, followed by once a week for 2 weeks (Fig. 3F). Intraepidermal nerve fiber density

(IENFD) in glabrous skin of the hind paw was assessed by quantification of PGP9.5 positive nerve

fibers per millimeter of skin 24 days after SNC. Mice that received Bosentan had a trend towards

increased IENFD compared to vehicle-treated mice (Fig.3 G,H). These results suggest that

Bosentan treatment may accelerate target re-innervation after injury.

We next tested if inhibition of ETBR influences the conditioning injury paradigm, in which

a prior nerve injury increases the growth capacity of neurons (Smith and Skene, 1997). DRG

neurons from mice that received Bosentan or Ambrisentan 2 hours before SNC, and then every

24 hours for three days, were cultured and axon growth capacity was quantified by measuring the

axon radial length and TUJ1 positive area (Fig.3J-M). In uninjured condition, neurons extend short

neurites, whereas a prior nerve injury leads to neurons growing longer neurites (Fig. 3J-M), as

expected (Smith and Skene, 1997). Bosentan, but not Ambrisentan, enhanced the axon radial

length of DRG neurons cultured from uninjured adult mice, partially mimicking the conditioning

injury, and also increased the growth capacity of injured neurons (Fig.3J-M). Since the selective

ETAR antagonists, BQ123 and Ambrisentan, had no significant effects on axon regeneration after

nerve injury (Fig. 2A-C, 3A-E), our results indicate that ETBR signaling limits axon regenerative

capacity.

To determine the effects of Bosentan treatment on axon regeneration in a model with

lower regenerative capacity, axon growth after dorsal root crush (DRC) injury was assessed

(Figure 3 - Figure supplement 2A). Following DRC injury, axon growth occurs at about half the

rate of peripheral axons (Oblinger and Lasek, 1984; Wujek and Lasek, 1983) and our previous

work has shown that manipulation of SGCs after DRC improves axon regeneration (Avraham et

al., 2021). Axon regeneration at 3 days post DRC was assessed by measuring SCG10 intensity,

as described above. Mice that received Bosentan had significantly more axon regeneration along

the dorsal root compared to vehicle (Figure 3 - Figure supplement 2B-E). Together, these results

indicate that ETBR inhibition improves axon regeneration after both peripheral and central axon

injury in DRG neurons.

Inhibiting ETBR rescues aging-dependent axonal regenerative decline.

It is known that elevated tissue or plasma concentrations of ET-1 occurs with age

(Jankowich and Choudhary, 2020). We thus evaluated the expression levels of ET-1 and ETBR

in DRG of adult and aged mice by western blot. For loading controls, we used both ponceau

staining for total protein and GAPDH, as we observed lower levels of GAPDH in aged mice.

Regardless of the normalization method, we found that ET-1 levels were significantly elevated in

aged mice compared to adult (Figure 4 - Figure supplement 1A). ETBR levels were only elevated

in aged mice when normalized to the GAPDH control (Figure 4 - Figure supplement 1BB). These

results confirm that ET-1 levels are elevated in DRG tissue in aged mice.

To determine the role of ETBR signaling on axon growth during aging, DRG explants from

aged (21-month-old) mice were treated with BQ788 or vehicle (Fig.4A). Aged DRG explants

treated with BQ788 had significantly increased radial axon length compared to vehicle (Fig.4B-

C). In fact, aged explants treated with BQ788 had significantly more radial axon growth than to

that of adult (3-month old) vehicle explants (Fig 4C). *In-vivo* Bosentan pre-treatment in aged mice

also increased radial axon growth in DRG explants (Figure 4 - Figure supplement 1C-E). Axon

regeneration after peripheral nerve injury in aged mice *in vivo* was assessed by measuring

SCG10 intensity in adult and aged mice 3 days post SNC. As expected, aged vehicle-treated

mice had significantly less axon regeneration compared to adult vehicle-treated mice (Fig. 4D-G)

(Zhou et al., 2022). However, aged mice treated with Bosentan had significantly increased axon

regeneration compared to vehicle-treated aged mice. Indeed, treatment with Bosentan increased

axon regeneration in aged mice to levels similar to vehicle-treated adult mice (Fig.4D-G). These

results indicate that inhibition of ETBR rescues the age-dependent decline in axon regeneration.

Aging affects SGCs abundance, transcriptional profile, and morphology.

To examine the effect of age on the transcriptional profiles of SGCs, we isolated lumbar

DRG from adult and aged mice and performed single nucleus RNA-seq using the Illumina Single

Cell 3' RNA Prep (Illumina). We chose this microfluidics-free system for single-nuclei mRNA

capture, barcoding, and library prep because it has been shown to be gentler and capture rarer

cell populations in the brain (Frazel et al., 2023), and our initial attempt with 10X Genomics on

aged tissue yielded insufficient amount of viable cells. After quality control and filtering, we

recovered 17,852 high-quality single-nucleus transcriptomes (10,717 adult, 7,135 aged) across

three biological replicates (one adult, two aged), with an average of 2,854 genes and 9,899

transcripts detected per cell (Figure 5 - Figure supplement 1A-B). Following RPCA-based

integration by age, unsupervised clustering identified 16 distinct cell types (Fig. 5A). These

included four principal neuronal classes (PEP, NF, NP, TH), three glial cell types (SGCs, NMSC,

MSC), three previously described fibroblast subsets (EF, EM, PM) (Zhao et al., 2022) vascular

endothelial cells, mural cells, and several immune-related populations (MYEL, TC, BC, HSC) (Fig.

5A). Each cluster was distinguished by multiple unique marker genes, consistent with prior DRG

single-cell studies (Avraham et al., 2020; Avraham et al., 2021; Jung et al., 2023; Mapps et al.,

2022; Renthal et al., 2020; Usoskin et al., 2015) (Fig. 5B).

To further investigate aging-associated transcriptional changes in SGCs, we performed

differential expression analyses followed by GO (gene ontology) and KEGG (Kyoto Encyclopedia

of Genes and Genomes) pathway enrichment (Figure 5 - Figure supplement 1C,D). Many genes

were upregulated in aged SGCs, including those involved in cell junction assembly, adherens and

tight junction pathways, and focal adhesion, indicating significant alterations in cell-cell contacts.

In addition, we observed changes in pathways regulating cell projection organization, synapse

organization and structure, and supramolecular fiber organization, suggesting widespread

remodeling of SGC architecture. Several signaling pathways implicated in structural and

morphogenetic processes, such as axon guidance and Wnt signaling, were also enriched in aged

SGCs. Genes related to cellular senescence were also upregulated in aged SGCs (Figure 5 -

Figure supplement 1D). Collectively, these results suggest that aging triggers extensive

transcriptional reprogramming in SGCs, reflecting heightened demands for structural integrity,

cell junction remodeling, and glia–neuron interactions within the aged DRG microenvironment.

Comparative analysis of relative cell-type abundances between adult and aged DRG

revealed a marked decrease in SGC representation and a corresponding rise in immune cell and

neuronal populations in aged samples (Fig. 5C-E). Changes in morphology of SGCs have been

reported with age in rabbit, with a decrease in SGCs number and SGCs retracting and leaving

the neuronal soma exposed to the extra cellular DRG environment (Pannese et al., 1997;

Pannese et al., 1996). In the DRG of aged mice, neurons appeared to be enveloped by SGCs

similarly to adults (Huang et al., 2006), but quantification of SGCs number were not performed.

We thus examined the impact of age on SGCs morphology and number by transmission electron

microscopy (TEM). In adult mice, each sensory neuron was enveloped by its own SGCs sheath

as described previously (Pannese, 1981; Pannese, 2010). In aged mice however, SGCs

appeared thinner compared to adult mice (Fig 5F). Quantification of the average width of SGCs

per neuron demonstrated a significant decrease during aging (Fig.5G). Quantification of the

number of SGC nuclei per neuronal soma in TEM images revealed that 21-month-old mice had

fewer SGCs per neuron compared to 2-month-old mice (Fig.5H), indicating a decrease in SGC

number with age. These results suggest that, in addition to significant transcriptional changes,

SGCs may undergo atrophy during aging.

ETBR inhibition increases the expression of Cx43 in SGCs in adult and aged mice

Cx43 is a member of the connexin family and can form hemichannels and gap junction

channels (Mazaud et al., 2021). Several studies suggest that both Cx43 gap junctions and

hemichannels operate in SGCs and have an important role in communication between SGCs and

between SGCs and sensory neurons (Hanani and Spray, 2020; Retamal et al., 2017). Cx43 in

human SGCs was proposed to play a key role in the protection and maintenance of neurons in

spiral ganglia (Liu et al., 2014). Past studies in mice have shown that Cx43 expression in SGCs

decreases during aging (Procacci et al., 2008). In cultured SGCs and astrocytes, endothelin

signaling reduces the expression of Cx43 (Blomstrand et al., 2004; Feldman-Goriachnik and

Hanani, 2017; Rozyczka et al., 2005). We thus investigated the role of endothelin signaling and

aging in Cx43 expression in SGCs. *Gja1*, the gene for Cx43, is enriched in SGCs in both adult

and aged mice (Fig.6A), as expected (Procacci et al., 2008). Changes in *Gja1* expression level

with age were statistically difficult to assess because there were less SGCs in aged mice

compared to adult, and *Gja1* is only detected in 20% of SGCs. We therefore quantified Cx43

protein expression level in SGCs by immunofluorescence (Figure 6 - Movie S2). The level of Cx43

expression, measured by both the Cx43 expression area and the number of Cx43 puncta in Fabp7

positive SGCs surrounding neuronal soma, was significantly lower in aged mice compared to

adult mice (Fig.6C-D), consistent with prior studies (Ohara et al., 2008; Procacci et al., 2008).

Nerve injury increased Cx43 levels in both adult and aged vehicle-treated mice and Bosentan

treatment led to an increase in Cx43 expression in both adult and aged mice (Fig.6C-E).

Examination of Cx43 expression in SGCs after DRC in adult mice showed no increase in Cx43

levels compared to uninjured mice, but Bosentan-treated mice increased Cx43 levels compared

to vehicle (Figure 6 - Figure supplement 1A-C). These results reveal a correlation between Cx43

levels in SGCs and axon regenerative capacity, providing a potential mechanism by which ETBR

inhibition with Bosentan may promote axon regeneration after injury (Fig. 6F). Future experiments

will determine if Cx43 acts downstream of ETBR and how Cx43 regulates axon regeneration.

DISCUSSION

Peripheral nerve injuries have a major impact on patient's functioning and quality of life

(Maita et al., 2023). The ability of injured neurons to regenerate their axons declines with age

(Geoffroy et al., 2016; Geoffroy et al., 2017; Pestronk et al., 1980; Vaughan, 1992; Verdu et al.,

2000), contributing to an increased risk of long-term disability (Pestronk et al., 1980; Vaughan,

1992; Verdu et al., 2000; Yun, 2015). Our study shows that ETBR functions in part to limit axonal

regenerative capacity and that Bosentan, an FDA-approved ETBR/ETAR antagonist, increases

axonal regeneration after peripheral and central axon nerve injury. Furthermore, Bosentan

rescues the age-dependent decrease in axonal regenerative capacity. These results suggest that

ETBR inhibition may be a beneficial therapeutic to promote axon regeneration after injury.

Our results demonstrate that *Ednrb* is highly enriched in SGCs in the DRG, and selective

antagonism of ETBR in DRG mixed cultures and DRG explants increases axon outgrowth.

Furthermore, we show that Bosentan treatment *in vivo* increases axon growth 1 and 3 days after

nerve injury, and long-term Bosentan treatment may improve target reinnervation 3 weeks after

injury. It is important to note that in the DRG mixed cultures, SGCs, while still present, do not

envelop the neuronal soma as they do in the explant culture and *in vivo.* However, antagonism of

ETBR in DRG mixed cultures still increases axon growth. Thus, it is possible that inhibition of

ETBR alters the release of trophic factors from SGCs, stimulating the growth potential of neurons

and accelerating axon growth. Future studies will be required to unravel how ETBR signaling

influences the SGC secretome and its influence on axon growth. Additionally, orchestration of

axon regeneration in the nerve depends on multiple cell types. Polarized vascularization in the

nerve precedes Schwann cell migration (Bhat et al., 2024; Cattin et al., 2015). Since ETBR is

expressed in Schwann cells and has been shown to play a role in Schwann cell generation

(Brennan et al., 2000), we cannot rule out the possibility that Bosentan treatment *in vivo* may

affect axon regeneration through ETBR in Schwann cells in addition to SGCs. However, given

our results demonstrating that DRG explants maintain the SGC-sensory neuron morphology, and

axon outgrowth in this model does not rely on repair Schwann cells, we can conclude that blocking

ETBR signaling in SGCs contributes to increasing axon outgrowth, at least in the initial axon

growth phase. Together, these results suggest a novel molecular mechanism in peripheral nerve

regeneration.

We hypothesize that the major ligand acting on ETBR in the DRG is ET-1. This is based

on our scRNA-seq data in the DRG showing *Edn1/*ET-1 enrichment in endothelial cells, as well

as the dense vascularization in DRG. Additionally, the observation that elevated tissue or plasma

concentrations of ET-1 occurs with age (Jankowich and Choudhary, 2020) and our results

showing that ET-1 levels increase in the aged DRG support the notion that ETBR signaling in

SGCs limits axon regenerative capacity in aged mice. However, other studies have suggested

that ET-1 is also expressed by small diameter neurons in human DRG (Giaid et al., 1989), thus it

is possible that neuronally derived ET-1 may act on ETBR in SGCs. Additionally, our scRNA-seq

data shows that another ligand for ETBR, *Edn3*/ET-3, is enriched in fibroblasts in the DRG. While

ET-1 binds to ETAR and ETBR with the same affinity, ET-3 shows a higher affinity to ETBR than

to ETAR (Davenport et al., 2016). It also has been shown in cultured cortical astrocytes that

application of either ET-1 or ET-3 leads to a robust inhibition of connexin Cx43 expression

(Rozyczka et al., 2005). Thus, we cannot exclude the possibility that ET-3 may act on ETBR in

SGCs to regulate axon growth. Lastly, as our scRNA-seq data shows that *Ednra* is enriched in

mural cells (Chen et al., 2000), it is also possible that endothelin's impact on vascular permeability

through ETAR activity contributes to axon regeneration. Future experiments will be required to

test how injury and age affects vascular permeability in the DRG. Nonetheless, whether via ET-1

or ET-3, our results highlight that ETBR acts to limit spontaneous sensory axon regeneration, and

that inhibition of ETBR promotes axon regeneration.

Although a biologically intrinsic mechanism to inhibit axon regeneration appears

counterintuitive, other mechanisms limiting axon regenerative capacity have been reported.

Axonally synthesized proteins typically support nerve regeneration through retrograde signaling

and local growth mechanisms (Sahoo et al., 2018). RNA binding proteins (RBP) are needed for

this process and other aspects of post-transcriptional regulation of neuronal mRNAs. One such

RBP, the RNA binding protein KHSRP is locally translated following nerve injury, promotes decay

of other axonal mRNAs and slows axon regeneration (Patel et al., 2022). Additionally, Rho

signaling pathway is an inhibitory regulatory mechanism that slows the growth of spiral ganglion

neurite in culture (Lie et al., 2010). These mechanisms may function to limit plasticity and prevent

maladaptive neural rewiring that can happen after injury (Costigan et al., 2009), but can also

hinder beneficial recovery after injury. Whether ETBR inhibition over a longer time period has

consequences on target innervation and functional recovery will require further investigation.

Investigation of the effects of aging on sensory ganglia have shown that the number of

neurons decrease with age in different species including human, cats and rats (Aldskogius and

Risling, 1989; Nagashima and Oota, 1974; Schmalbruch, 1987). The effect of age on SGCs has

received less attention, but we know that the number of SGCs decrease with age in the rabbit

(Pannese et al., 1997; Pannese et al., 1996). In agreement with these prior studies, our snRNA-

seq and morphology data reveal a marked decrease in SGC representation in the DRG of aged

mice. Our EM data indicate that the number of SGCs surrounding each neuronal soma decreases

with age and appear thinner, suggesting SGC atrophy in addition to SGC loss. KEGG pathway

analysis also suggests that aged SGCs transition into a senescent phenotype during aging, a

state where cells no longer divide but remain viable. SGCs have the capacity to divide, although

this process is very slow (Maniglier et al., 2022). It was proposed that SGC self-renewal

maintained the SGC population through adulthood, ensuring neuronal survival throughout life

(Maniglier et al., 2022). This balance may become dysfunctional with age, leading to the

accumulation of senescent SGCs. In the nerve, senescence of Schwann cells in aged mice was

shown to undermine axonal regeneration, and systemic elimination of senescent cells with

senolytic drugs improves axonal regeneration (Fuentes-Flores et al., 2023), raising the interesting

possibility that senescent SGCs also contribute to limit axon regeneration in aged mice. Future

studies are needed to determine if aged SGCs, similarly to aged Schwann cells, secrete inhibitory

factors that limit axon regeneration. We also observed changes in pathways regulating cell

projection organization, synapse organization and structure, and supramolecular fiber

organization, suggesting widespread remodeling of SGC architecture. Several signaling

pathways implicated in structural and morphogenetic processes, such as axon guidance and Wnt

signaling, were also enriched in aged SGCs. Collectively, these results suggest that aging triggers

extensive transcriptional reprogramming in SGCs, reflecting heightened demands for structural

integrity, cell junction remodeling, and glia–neuron interactions within the aged DRG

microenvironment.

Cx43 is a transmembrane protein that performs canonical gap junction functions, such as

connecting adjacent cells and allowing the diffusion of ions and small molecules. Cx43 can also

form hemichannels that may have an important role in communication between SGCs and

sensory neurons (Retamal et al., 2017). Emerging evidence suggests that connexins can perform

non-channel functions, such as protein interaction, cell adhesion, and intracellular signaling

(Mazaud et al., 2021). Using our snRNA-seq data to compare *Gja1* levels in adult vs aged SGCs

was statistically difficult to interpret, as there were significantly fewer SGCs in aged mice. The

histology examining Cx43 protein levels was normalized to total SGCs, and showed a significant

decrease in Cx43 puncta/SGC in aged mice, consistent with previous studies and the hypothesis

that a prominent decrease in Cx43 is a marker of senescence (Procacci et al., 2008). It has also

been shown in SGCs of aged mice that that there is an increase in gap junctions and dye coupling

(Huang et al., 2006). This apparent discrepancy could be explained by expression changes in

connexin types other than Cx43 that may contribute to the gap junctions. Indeed, our snRNA-seq

data revealed changes in other connexins with age, but the percentage of cells expressing these

genes and the level of expression was not robust enough to draw meaningful conclusions. Deeper

sequencing would likely be required to verify this hypothesis. It is also important to note that, while

sequencing is a strong tool, aging has profound effects on post-translational regulation, such as

altered protein half-life, defects in protein trafficking, and increased protein degradation (Santos

and Lindner, 2017; Skariah and Todd, 2021). Thus, in conjunction with sequencing, examination

of protein levels of various connexins in SGCs will be necessary.

Our results show that Cx43 in SGCs from both adult and aged injured mice increased with

Bosentan treatment compared to vehicle treatment. Studies in cultured SGCs and astrocytes

have demonstrated that endothelin signaling reduces gap junctions coupling (Blomstrand et al.,

2004; Feldman-Goriachnik and Hanani, 2017; Rozyczka et al., 2005). Thus, we hypothesize that

ETBR inhibition in SGCs contributes to axonal regeneration by increasing Cx43 levels, gap

junction coupling or hemichannels, facilitating SGC-neuron communication. However, it is also

possible that other mechanisms downstream of ETBR signaling in SGCs contribute to axon

regeneration. For example, glutamate uptake by SGCs is regulated by glutamate transporters

GLT-1 and GLAST and is crucial for neuronal function (Berger and Hediger, 2000; Hanani and

Verkhratsky, 2021; Ohara et al., 2008). Studies in astrocytes suggest that endothelin exposure

reduces glutamate uptake by decreasing transporter expression. One of the functions of GLAST

in astrocyte is related to lesion-induced plasticity in the developing brain (Takasaki et al., 2008),

suggesting that ETBR might limit axon regeneration by influencing SGCs' glutamate reuptake. As

ETBR is a G protein-coupled receptor which interacts with Gi and Gq (but not Gs) (Ham et al.,

2024; Tani et al., 2024) its inhibition could have numerous effects on intracellular signaling

pathways and transcriptional response in SGCs. Further studies are needed to determine the

detailed molecular mechanisms by which ETBR signaling in SGCs limits axon regeneration.

Taken together, our results suggest that ETBR signaling limits axon regeneration after

nerve injury and contributes to age-related decreases in neuronal regenerative capacity.

Bosentan, an FDA approved ETBR/ETAR antagonist, significantly increased axon regeneration

in both adult and aged mice, suggesting a potential therapeutic avenue that may be used to

enhance axonal regeneration after nerve injury.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study design

The main goals of this study were to investigate the role of ETBR in axonal regeneration, explore its impact on SGCs in the DRG, and evaluate the therapeutic potential of Bosentan, an FDA-approved drug, on axon regeneration and age-related decline capacity for nerve repair. We performed scRNA-seq and snRNAseq analysis on DRG samples from adult and aged mice. We analyzed samples from mice subjected to various treatments and performed *in vitro* assays including immunofluorescence (IF), Western blotting, quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (qPCR), RNA *in situ* hybridization (RNAscope) and TEM. For *in vitro* cell assays, data were collected from at least three independent cultures, as indicated in figure legends. *In vivo* and ex-vivo experiments were conducted using biological replicates, as denoted by the 'n' values in the figure legends. The sample sizes were determined based on previous experience for each experiment, and mice were randomly assigned to the experimental groups whenever possible. No mice, outliers, or other data points were excluded. Details on animal assignment, randomization, and blinding in different experiments are found in the corresponding sections describing each experiment in Materials and Methods.

Animals

Mice of different age groups were included in the study, specifically 2-3-month-old (adult, female and male), 12-month-old (mid-age, female), and 21-month-old (aged, female). Wild-type C57BL/6 mice were purchased from Envigo (Envigo #027) and Jackson Laboratory (Stock No: 000664). Ai14 (B6.Cg-Gt(ROSA)26Sortm14(CAG-tdTomato)Hze/J, JAX Stock No: 007914) mice was obtained from The Jackson Laboratory (Madisen et al., 2010). The *Blbp*^{CreER} (*Fabp7*^{CreER}) mouse line was a generous gift from Dr. Toshihiko Hosoya (Maruoka et al., 2011). Ai14 mice were crossed with *Fabp7*^{CreER} mice to obtain *Fabp7*^{CreER}::Ai14 mice. Mice were housed in the animal facility at Washington University in St. Louis, where temperature (64-79°F) and humidity (30%-

70%) were carefully controlled. They were socially housed in individually ventilated cages, with

1-5 mice per cage, and subjected to a 12-hour light/dark cycle (6 am/6 pm). Mice had unrestricted

access to food and water throughout the study. All experimental procedures were conducted

following the approved protocol (21-0104) by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees

of Washington University in St. Louis. All experiments adhered to relevant guidelines and

regulations. The study obtained approval from the Washington University School of Medicine

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) under protocol A-3381-01. The mice were

housed and cared for in the animal care facility at Washington University School of Medicine,

which is accredited by the Association for Assessment & Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care

(AALAC) and complies with the PHS guidelines for Animal Care. The facility has been accredited

since 7/18/97, and its USDA Accreditation Registration number is 43-R-008.

Primary adult DRG culture

L4 and L5 DRGs were collected from 12-week-old mice and placed in cold dissection

medium composed of HBSS (Thermo Fisher, Gibco; Catalog#: 14175-079) with 10% 1M HEPES

(Thermo Fisher, Gibco; Catalog#: 15630080). The DRGs were then transferred to freshly

prepared pre-warmed dissociation medium containing 15U/mL Papain suspension (Worthington

Biochemical; Catalog#: LS003126), 0.3mg/mL L-cysteine (Sigma; Catalog#: C7352), 0.1mg/mL

Deoxyribonuclease I (Worthington Biochemical; Catalog#: LS002139), and 10% 1M HEPES in

HBSS. The samples were incubated at 37°C for 20 minutes. After washing the samples twice with

pre-warmed HBSS, collagenase (150µg/mL; Sigma; Catalog#: C6885) was added, and the

samples were incubated at 37°C for another 20 minutes. Following two additional washes with

pre-warmed HBSS, the resulting single-cell suspension was gently triturated and resuspended in

complete medium consisting of Neurobasal™-A Medium (Thermo Fisher, Gibco; Catalog#:

12349015) supplemented with B-27™ Plus Supplement (Thermo Fisher, Gibco; Catalog#:

A3582801) and GlutaMAX™ Supplement (Thermo Fisher, Gibco; Catalog#: 35050061). The cell

suspension was then passed through 70-micron cell strainers. The single-cell suspension was

then centrifuged at 500 × rpm at 4°C for 5 minutes, and the cell pellet was resuspended in

complete Neurobasal medium. Cells were seeded on poly-D-lysine (PDL)-coated 18mm

coverslips at a density of 1.0×10^3 cells per coverslip. For drug treatment, BQ788 (Sigma;

Catalog #B157) 1μM, BQ123 (R&D system; Catalog #: 1188) 1mM, IRL620 (Sigma; Catalog #:

SCP0135) 100nM or DMSO as vehicle control were added directly to the complete medium just

before suspending the cells and seeding them into separate culture plates and incubated for the

entire 24-hour culture period. The animals were randomized into groups and the researcher was

not blinded during the analysis.

DRG Explant culture

L3-L5 DRGs from male and female 8-wk- or 21-months- old mice were collectedinto cold

explant media [Putrescine Dihydrochloride (Sigma Aldrich, Catalog# p7505), L-Glutamine

(Thermofisher, Catalog# A2916801), Insulin Transferrin Selenium (Sigma Aldrich, Catalog#

A4034), Glucose (Sigma Aldrich, Catalog# G7021), Basal Medium Eagle (Thermofisher,

Catalog# 35050061), Bovine Serum Albumin (Sigma Aldrich, Catalog# A9430), Ham's F-12

Nutrient Media (Thermofisher, Catalog# 11765-054)]; DRG roots were trimmed to 2mm with a

sharp scalpel, then placed into a 15ul drop of a 1:1 ratio of explant media and ECM Gel from

Engelbreth-Holm-Swarm murine sarcoma (Sigma Aldrich, Catalog# E1270) in cell culture plates.

24 hours after plating, Nerve Growth Factor (NGF) (Alomone, Catalog# N-240) was added to the

media Note that NGF does not promote significant effects on axon growth in DRG explants, but

stimulates glial cell migration (Klimovich et al., 2020). We opted to included NGF in our explant

assay to increase the potential of stimulating axon regeneration with pharmacological

manipulations of ETBR. Seven days after plating, explants were fixed and stained for TUJ1 to

quantify axon length.

Sciatic nerve and dorsal root injuries

Sciatic nerve crush injuries were performed following established protocols (Avraham et al., 2021). Briefly, 12-week-old mice were anesthetized using 1.5% inhaled isoflurane. A small skin incision was made to expose the sciatic nerve at mid-thigh level, approximately 1.2 cm from the L4 dorsal root ganglion (DRG). The sciatic nerve was fully crushed for 10 seconds using 0.1mm forceps (#55). The wound was closed with wound clips, and the mice were placed on a warming pad until fully awake. At the designated time points post-surgery, L4 and L5 dorsal root ganglia were dissected for further analysis. The animals were randomized into groups.

Dorsal root crush injuries were performed as previously described (Avraham et al., 2021). Surgery was conducted on 12-week-old mice under 1.5% inhaled isoflurane anesthesia. A small midline skin incision (~1 cm) was made over the thoracic vertebrae at L2-L3, followed by paraspinal muscle release and stabilization of the vertebral column with metal clamps under the L2-L3 transverse processes. Dorsal laminectomy was performed using forceps at the L2-L3 level, and the right L3-L5 dorsal roots were crushed simultaneously for 5 seconds. The proximity between L3-L5 roots resulted in a crush distance of 1-2 mm to L3 DRG, 4-5 mm to L4 DRG, and 7-8 mm to L5 DRG. The crushing process exerted force on the roots, causing disruption of nerve fibers without interrupting the endoneurial tube. Paraspinal muscles were sutured using 6-0 sutures (Ethicon, Catalog#: J212H), and the wound was closed with clips. Mice were placed on a warming pad until fully awake, and L4 dorsal root ganglia and L4 dorsal roots were dissected at 3 days post injury. The animals were randomized into groups.

Drug Administration

To assess the *in vivo* functions of endothelin receptors, pharmacological testing was conducted. For the analysis of nerve regeneration at one day post-injury, oral gavage administration of Ambrisentan (Tocris, Catalog# 5828, 10 mg/kg body weight) (Kappes et al., 2020) and Bosentan (Sigma, Catalog#PHR2708, 10 mg/kg body weight) (Pinho-Ribeiro et al.,

2014) was performed 2 hours before the injury, with sample collection taking place 24 hours after

the injury. For the analysis of nerve regeneration after 3 days post-injury, Ambrisentan (10 mg/kg

body weight) and Bosentan (10 mg/kg body weight) were administered via oral gavage 2 hours

before the injury and once daily after the injury. The treatments were randomized within the

surgery mice group.

Western Blotting

L4-L5 DRGs were collected and lysed in RIPA Buffer (Cell Signaling, catalog #9806) and

heated at 99°C for 10 min. The protein lysates were then loaded onto an 10% Ready Gel® Tris-

HCl Precast Gels (BioRad, catalog#1611119) in running Buffer (BioRad, Catlog#1610744) and

transferred to 0.2 µm PVDF membranes (BioRad, Catalog#1620216). The membranes were

blocked in 5% non-fat dry milk (BioRad, Catalog#1706404XTU) Tris-Buffered Saline (TBS)

containing 0.1% Tween-20 at pH 7.6 for 1 h. Following blocking, the membranes were incubated

overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies Rabbit-anti-ETBR (Abcam, Catalog# ab117529, 1:500)

Mouse-anti-ET-1 1:500 (Invitrogen, Catalog# MA3-005) Rabbit-anti-GAPDH 1:5000 (Cell

Signaling, Catalog# 5174s) in blocking buffer. Afterward, the membranes were washed three

times with TBST (Tris-buffered saline with 0.1% Tween-20) and then incubated with horseradish

peroxidase-conjugated anti-rabbit (Invitrogen, Catalog# 31460,1:5000) or anti-mouse (Invitrogen,

Catalog # 31430,1:5000) antibodies in blocking buffer for 1 h at room temperature. Subsequently,

the membranes were washed three times with TBST and developed using SuperSignal™ West

Dura (Thermo Scientific, Catalog# 34075). The ChemiDoc System (Bio-Rad) was used to image

the membranes. For subsequent analysis, the membranes were stripped using a mild stripping

buffer composed of (1.5% glycine, 0.1% SDS, and 1% Tween -20, pH2.2 in ddH$_2$O). Following

stripping, the protocol was repeated for GADPH staining (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Catalog #sc-

51907, 1:8000) as the loading control. The resulting images were analyzed using Fiji software.

To quantify the protein levels, the intensity of ET-1 or ETBR was normalized to the intensity of

GADPH. The researcher was not blinded during the analysis.

Quantitative real time PCR

For qRT-PCR, L4 and L5 DRGs of each mouse were collected and total RNA was

extracted using RNeasy Mini Kit (QIAGEN, Cat# 74104). For cDNA synthesis, 500 ng of RNA

was converted into cDNA with the High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (ThermoFisher,

Catalog# 4368814) according to manufacturer's specifications. Quantitative PCR was completed

using the PowerUp™ SYBR™ Green Master Mix (ThermoFisher, Cat# A25780) using gene-

specific primers (resource table) from Primerbank (https://pga.mgh.harvard.edu/primerbank/).

qRT-PCR was performed on a QuantStudio 6 Flex System. Expression fold change for each gene

of interest was calculated using the ΔCq method and normalized to the expression fold change

of *Gadph* expression compared to controls. The researcher was not blinded during the analysis.

The detail for each primer was listed in Supplementary Table 1.

Immunohistochemistry

Mice were euthanized with CO_2 asphyxiation and transcardially perfused with PBS

followed by 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA). PFA-fixed tissues were incubated in 30% sucrose in

phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) overnight at 4 °C, specimens were embedded in optimal cutting

temperature compound (OCT) (Tissue-Tek), stored at −80 °C until further processing. Transverse

sections of DRG (L4) and longitudinal sections of sciatic nerve were cut on a cryostat at 10μm,

and stored at -20 °C until processed. Before staining, sections were warmed to room temperature

and dried on a 60 °C slide warmer for 5 mins. Sections were treated with a blocking solution

containing 4% normal donkey serum (NDS) (LAMPIRE; Catalog#7332100) with 0.5% Triton X-

100 in PBS for 1h at room temperature. Then samples were incubated in the primary antibodies,

which were diluted in 1% NDS with 0.3% Triton X-100 in PBS overnight at 4°C. After three PBS

rinses, samples were incubated with Alexa Fluor–conjugated secondary antibodies in PBS with

0.3% Triton X-100 in 1h, followed by incubation in 300nM 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI,

Sigma-Aldrich, Catalog# D9542) at room temperature for 10 mins. Samples were rinsed before

mounting with ProLong™ Gold Antifade Mountant (Invitrogen, Catalog#:P36930). For co-staining

of Cx43 and Fabp7, both of which are rabbit antibodies, the tissue sections were first blocked with

10% NDS in PBS containing 0.3% Triton X-100 at room temperature for 1h. Subsequently, the

sections were incubated overnight at 4°C with rabbit anti-Cx43 antibody diluted in 0.1% Triton X-

100 in PBS. After three rinses with PBS, the samples were incubated with an excess of conjugated

Fab Fragment secondary antibody in PBS with 0.3% Triton X-100 for one hour. Following three

washes with PBS, the sections were incubated with rabbit anti-Fabp7 antibody, diluted in 0.1%

Triton X-100 in PBS, at room temperature for 2h. After three PBS washes, the samples were

incubated with Alexa Fluor-conjugated secondary antibodies in PBS with 0.3% Triton X-100 for

one hour. Finally, the sections were incubated with DAPI at room temperature for 10 minutes,

followed by rinsing and mounting with ProLong™ Gold Antifade Mountant. DRG sections were

imaged with a confocal laser-scanning microscope (Zeiss LSM880). Figures showing large

longitudinal sciatic nerve sections were produced using EVOS™ M7000 Imaging System with

image stitching and/or stack software. For adult DRG culture staining, neurons were fixed in pre-

warmed 1%PFA in 7.5% sucrose at 37 °C for 15 mins. Then post-fixed in prewarmed 2%PFA in

15% sucrose in 30 mins. Rise with PBS 3 times, the fixed neurons were directly for

immunostaining following same staining protocol described above. Cultured neurons were

imaged with acquired using the ECLIPSE Ti2 inverted microscope.

Whole-mount DRG immunostaining was performed by injecting 0.1 µL of Lycopersicon

Esculentum Lectin (Vector, Catalog# DL-1178-1) through the tail vein to label the blood vessels

(Robertson et al., 2015). L4 DRGs were dissected after 20 minutes and fixed overnight in 4% PFA

at 4°C. Following a previously established protocol (Yang et al., 2017), DRGs underwent a series

of washing and permeabilization steps with 0.3% Triton X-100 in PBS, repeated every hour for 5

hours. Subsequently, the tissues were incubated with primary antibodies in a blocking solution

consisting of 75% 0.3% PBST, 20% DMSO, and 5% Donkey Serum for 4 days, followed by further

washing with 0.3% Triton X-100 in PBS every hour for 5 hours. The tissues were then incubated

with secondary antibodies in the blocking solution for 2 days, with subsequent washing using 0.3%

Triton X-100 in PBS every hour for 5 hours. All of these washing and incubation procedures were

carried out on a rocking platform at room temperature. The tissues were dehydrated in methanol

for 1 hour and cleared using a 1:2 mixture of Benzyl Alcohol to Benzyl Benzoate. Imaging was

carried out using an LSM880 confocal microscope, and blood vessel reconstruction was

performed with Imaris 9.7.

Primary antibodies included rabbit anti-FABP7 (Invitrogen, Catalog#:PA5-24949, 1:1000);

rabbit anti-STMN2(SCG10) (Novus a bio-techne, Catalog#:NBP1-49461, 1:1000); rabbit anti-

Connexin-43 (Cell Signaling, Catalog#: 3512s, 1:200); mouse anti TUJ1 (β-III tubulin) (Biolegend,

Catalog#:801202, 1:1000). Secondary antibodies conjugated to Alexa Fluor 488, Alexa Fluor 594

and Alexa Fluor 647 (Invitrogen), conjugated Fab Fragment Donkey anti Rabbit Alexa Fluor

(Jackson ImmunoResearch Labs) were diluted 1:500.

For intraepidermal nerve fibers density measurements, fixed, free floating 50-μm thick

sections of footpads from the hind limbs were stained with rabbit anti-Protein Gene Product 9.5

(1:500, ISBIO, Cat# LS-B5981-50), followed by AF594 conjugated secondary antibody (1:500,

Invitrogen, Cat# A-21207). Sections were mounted and coverslipped using VECTASHIELD anti-

fade mounting media with DAPI (Vector Laboratory, Cat# H-2000). PGP 9.5 positive

intraepidermal nerve fibers (IENFs) crossing into the epidermis were counted from Z-stack images

using the 20x objective on a Nikon W1 CSU SoRa. IENF densities were averaged from three to

four sections for each animal. Counting was performed with the observer blinded to the treatment

group.

RNAscope® in situ hybridization

The RNAscope® fluorescent multiplex reagent kit (Advanced Cell Diagnostics, ACD) was

used according to the manufacturer's instructions. Slides were retrieved from a -80°C freezer,

washed with PBS to remove OCT, and dried on a 60°C slide warmer for 5 minutes. Post-fixation

was performed by immersing the slides in cold (4°C) 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 15 minutes.

Tissues were dehydrated using a series of ethanol washes (50% ethanol for 5 minutes, 70%

ethanol for 5 minutes, and 100% ethanol for 10 minutes) at room temperature. Slides were air

dried briefly and then incubated in RNAscope® Target Retrieval buffer (ACD; Catalog# 322000)

at 98-100°C for 5 minutes. After rinsing in 100% ethanol, hydrophobic boundaries were drawn

around each section using a hydrophobic pen (ImmEdge PAP pen; Vector Labs). Once the

boundaries were dry, protease III reagent was added to each section and incubated for 15 minutes.

Slides were briefly washed in PBS at room temperature. Each slide was placed in a prewarmed

humidity control tray (ACD) with dampened filter paper, and a mixture of probes was pipetted onto

each section until fully submerged. The slides were then incubated in a HybEZ oven (ACD) at

40°C for 2 hours. Following the probe incubation, the slides were washed twice with 1x RNAscope

wash buffer and returned to the oven for 30 minutes after submersion in AMP-1 reagent. This

washing and amplification process was repeated using AMP-2, AMP-3, and AMP-4 reagents with

incubation periods of 15 minutes, 30 minutes, and 15 minutes, respectively. For all mouse

experiments, AMP-4 ALT A (Channel 1 = Atto 488, Channel 2 = Alexa 550, Channel 3 = Atto 647)

was used. Slides were then washed twice with 0.1M phosphate buffer (PB, pH 7.4). Subsequently,

the slides were processed with 300nM DAPI at room temperature for 10 minutes and cover-

slipped using Prolong Gold Antifade mounting medium. DRG sections were imaged using a

confocal laser-scanning microscope (Zeiss LSM880).

Transmission electron microscopy

For transmission electron microscopy (TEM), mice were perfused PBS and then with the

fixative (2.5% glutaraldehyde and 4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M Cacodylate buffer), followed by

post-fixation in same fixation 24hrs at 4C. For secondary post fixation, the samples were rinsed

in 0.15 M cacodylate buffer containing 2mM calcium chloride 3 times for 10 minutes each followed

by a secondary fixation in 1% osmium tetroxide and 1.5% potassium ferrocyanide in 0.15 M

cacodylate buffer containing 2 mM calcium chloride for 1 hour in the dark. The samples were then

rinsed 3 times for 10 minutes each in ultrapure water and en bloc stained with 2% aqueous uranyl

acetate overnight at 4 °C in the dark. After 4 washes for 10 minutes each in ultrapure water, the

samples were dehydrated in a graded acetone series (10%, 30%, 50%, 70%, 90%, 100% x3) for

10 minutes each step, infiltrated with Spurr's resin (Electron Microscopy Sciences) and embedded

and polymerized at 60 °C for 72 hours. The samples from adult mice were processed as above

except they were dehydrated in a graded ethanol series (10%, 30%, 50%, 70%, 90%, 100% x3)

for 10 minutes each step, infiltrated with Epon resin (Electron Microscopy Sciences) and

embedded and polymerized at 60 °C for 48 hours. Post curing, 70 nm thin sections were cut,

post-stained with 2% aqueous uranyl acetate and Sato's lead and imaged on a TEM (Jeol JEM-

1400 Plus) at 120 kV.

Single Cell RNA sequencing

L4 and L5 DRGs from mice were collected and placed into cold dissection medium

consisting of Hank's Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS; ThermoFisher, Gibco; Catalog#: 14175-079)

supplemented with 10% 1M HEPES (ThermoFisher, Gibco; Catalog#: 15630080). Subsequently,

the ganglia were transferred to freshly prepared pre-warmed dissociation medium composed of

15 U/mL Papain suspension (Worthington Biochemical; Catalog#: LS003126), 0.3 mg/mL L-

cysteine (Sigma; Catalog#: C7352), 0.1 mg/mL Deoxyribonuclease I (Worthington Biochemical;

Catalog#: LS002139), and 10% 1M HEPES in HBSS. The samples were then incubated at 37°C

for 20 minutes. After two washes with pre-warmed HBSS, the ganglia were incubated with

collagenase (150 µg/mL; Sigma; Catalog#: C6885) at 37°C for 20 minutes. Following an additional

two washes with pre-warmed HBSS, the resulting single cell suspension was resuspended by

gently triturating in complete medium consisting of Neurobasal™-A Medium (ThermoFisher,

Gibco; Catalog#: 12349015) supplemented with B-27™ Plus Supplement (ThermoFisher, Gibco;

Catalog#: A3582801) and GlutaMAX™ Supplement (ThermoFisher, Gibco; Catalog#: 35050061).

The cell suspension was then passed through 70-micron cell strainers. The single cell suspension

was further resuspended in HBSS containing 10% 1M HEPES and 0.1% Fetal Bovine Serum

(FBS; ThermoFisher; Catalog#: A3160401). The cells were stained with the LIVE/DEAD™ Fixable

Aqua Dead Cell Stain Kit (ThermoFisher; Catalog#: L34965) to identify live cells. Live single cells

were sorted using the MoFlo cell sorter (Beckman Coulter, Indianapolis, IN). The sorted cells were

washed with a PBS+0.04% BSA solution and manually counted using a hemocytometer. The cell

solution was adjusted to a concentration of 700-1000 cells/µL and loaded onto the 10X Chromium

system.

Single-cell RNA-Seq libraries were prepared using the Chromium Next GEM Single Cell

3' (v3.1 Kit) from 10X Genomics. Read alignment and transcript counting were performed with

the CellRanger (v7.1.0) package from 10X Genomics and 19,356 cells with >300 detected genes

were retained for downstream analysis. Sample QC, principal component analysis, clustering,

DGE, quantification, and statistical analysis were performed using the Seurat package (v5.1.0).

Following normalization with SCTransform, principal component analysis, and graph-based

clustering, four low quality and/or doublet clusters were identified and removed based on the

following characteristics: statistical enrichment (DGE $p < 0.05$) of mixed major cell type marker

genes or mitochondria-specific transcripts, and/or low average genes per cell (<1000). After

removal of low-quality clusters, cells with disproportionately high mitochondrial transcript levels

(calculated as the fraction of reads mapping to mitochondrial genes) or UMI counts were filtered

by setting a cutoff at the median plus five median absolute deviations (MAD) for each metric. The

remaining 16,764 high-quality cells were visualized using UMAP (Uniform Manifold Approximation

and Projection). Differential gene expression (DGE) analyses were performed in the Seurat

package with a Wilcoxon Rank Sum test, and genes with Bonferroni-adjusted p-values < 0.05

were considered for downstream analysis and visualization.

Single Nucleus RNA sequencing

L3, L4 and L5 DRGs were collected from mice and immediately placed on dry ice. DRG

were stored in -80 until processing. Nuclei were isolated using the Illumina Nuclei Isolation Kit

(Illumina; Catalog# 20132795). The DRG were dissociated using a KIMBLE 2mL Dounce

homogenizer (Sigma; Catalog# D8938) in Nuclei Extraction Buffer (NEB) and passed through a

40-micron cell strainer. The nuclei were briefly centrifuged and then passed through a 10-micron

cell strainer. The nuclei were resuspended in Nuclei Suspension Buffer (NSB) and counted for

intact nuclei using 7-AAD stain (Sigma; Catalog# SML1633). Nuclei were processed using the

Illumina Single Cell 3' RNA Prep, T20 Kit (Illumina; Catalog# FB0005366, FB0005373,

FB0005362, FB0005382)

Single-nuclei RNA-Seq libraries were prepared using the Illumina V Library Prep Kit

(Illumina; Catalog# 20132789, FB0005374, FB0005373). Read alignment and transcript counting

were performed with the Pipseeker (v3.3.0) package from Fluent BioSciences and 19,270 cells

with >1000 genes were retained for downstream analysis (11,521 adult, 7,749 aged). Sample QC,

integration, clustering, DGE, quantification, and statistical analysis were performed using the

Seurat package (v5.1.0). Following normalization with SCTransform, RPCA batch integration, and

graph-based clustering, five low quality and/or doublet clusters were identified and removed

based on the following characteristics: statistical enrichment (DGE p < 0.05) of mixed major cell

type marker genes or mitochondria-specific transcripts, and/or low total cell count (<50). The

remaining 17,852 high-quality cells were visualized using UMAP. Differential gene expression

(DGE) analyses were performed in the Seurat package with a Wilcoxon Rank Sum test, and

genes with Bonferroni-adjusted p-values < 0.05 were considered for downstream analysis and

visualization. KEGG pathway and GO enrichment were performed using the clusterProfiler

package in R. The researcher was not blinded during analysis.

Images acquisition and quantification

Confocal images were captured under the LSM880 confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss)

unless otherwise specified. The images were captured under following parameters: 1 × optical

zoom, scan speed 6, averaged 2 times, a pinhole of 1 AU, 1024 × 1024 pixel size. The z-stack

images were projected into overlay images using the "Maximum Intensity Projection" function in

Zen Black software (Carl Zeiss). Sciatic nerve longitudinal images, the spinal cord and brain

images were captured under the EVOS™ M7000 Imaging System (Invitrogen). The images were

captured under 10x objective in 1980 × 1080 pixel size. The stitched nerve images generated by

the EVOS imaging system. The neuronal culture images were captured under the ECLIPSE Ti2

inverted microscope (Nikon). The images were captured under 10x objective in 2304 × 2304 pixel

size. Three tissue sections were analyzed on average for each independent mouse. The

researcher performing this analysis was not blinded during analysis.

For quantifying Cx43 expression area in the DRG, the CX43$^+$ and Fabp7$^+$ area was

measured using "Analysis Particles" function in Fiji. To quantify CX43, confocal imaging with Z-

stacks (10 μm) was performed using an LSM880 microscope. The acquired images were

subsequently used for 3D reconstruction using Imaris 9.7 software. The staining area of FABP7

underwent initial surface reconstruction, while the CX43 puncta were isolated through spot

reconstruction at a resolution of 0.1 μm x 0.2 μm. The average number of CX43 puncta was

determined for each FABP7$^+$ cell (Supplementary Video S1). For quantifying the regeneration

index in the injured sciatic nerve section, the highest SCG10 intensity along the nerve was defined

as the crush site, as described (Cho et al., 2013; Feng et al., 2023). The average SCG10 intensity

at distances away from the crush site was normalized to the SCG10 intensity at the crush site

using "measure" function in Fiji. For quantifying the neuron regenerative capacity in cultured DRG

neurons, TUJ1 stained neurons were segmented by thresholding and subjected to neurite tracing

using "Simple Neurite Tracer" plug-in in Fiji. The researcher was not blinded during analysis.

DRG explant analysis was performed by creation of an ROI around each explant. The ROI

was removed for organoid contrast and the radial length was measured from the outer peripheral

section of the ROI. The 35 longest axons in each image were measured (μm) and averaged.

For TEM, SGCs width around the neuron was measured by averaging 4 individual points

that did not contain an SGCs nucleus around the neuron using Fiji/ImageJ software. Frequency

of neurons with 0,1,2, or 3 SGCs nuclei per neuron was quantified by counting each image by

eye.

Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses and graphs were conducted, organized and generated in GraphPad

Prism 9. Numerical data were presented as mean ± SD from at least three independent animals.

Group mean difference was analyzed by either two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test or one-way

ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test. For experiments including groups and multiple time-point

measurements, data were analyzed by two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test. P values

below 0.05 were considered as significant difference. The number of animals in each group is

presented in figure legends. No a priori exclusion criteria or statistical power calculations were

used.

Data and materials availability:

All data associated with this study are presented in the paper or the Supplementary

Materials. scRNA and snRNA sequencing data have been deposited at NCBI Gene Expression

Omnibus (GEO) under accession number GSE298413 (reviewer token: yjajwmuyrxytfqj) and

GSE298412 (reviewer token: mxmpsaqkpxwtdsd).

List of Supplementary Materials

Supplementary Figures S1 to S6

Supplementary Data File S1 to S5

Supplementary Movie S1 and S2

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Author contributions:

R.F. and V.C. conceptualized the study, C.G and V.C. provided study supervision. R.F., S.F.R, S.J., I.A. and O.A performed experiments and analyzed data. R.F., S.F.R, S.J. and I.A.

814   generated figures and visualizations. M.B.T performed bioinformatics analyses. R.F., S.F.R and

815   V.C. wrote the manuscript and all authors edited the manuscript.

817   **Competing interests:**

818   V. C and R.F are inventors on a patent application related to this work

 FIGURES LEGENDS
820

Figure 1: *Ednrb* is highly expressed in satellite glial cells.

A. Representative whole-mount-stained images of DRG from Lycopersicon Esculentum Lectin

(LEL) injected Fabp7CreER::Ai14 mice, labeled for TUJ1 (green), tdTomato (magenta), and LEL

(grey). 3D reconstruction of blood vessels via LEL labeling (scale bars, 200 μm)**.** Note that TUJ1

antibody staining is limited by penetration of the antibody in the whole mount.

B. Representative images of sectioned DRG from Lycopersicon Esculentum Lectin (LEL) injected

C57BL/6 mice, labeled for TUJ1 (green), Fabp7 (red), and LEL (cyan) (Scale bars, 100 μm).

C. UMAP analysis of adult DRG 10X sequencing data identified 8 cell clusters based on known

marker genes.

D. Dot plot analysis showing the average gene expression (color coded) and number of

expressing cells (dot size) for the marker genes.

E-H. UMAP overlay for expression of *Ednra* (**E**), *Ednrb* (**F**), *Edn1* (**G)** and *Edn3* (**H**).

I. Representative RNAScope *in situ* hybridization images showing *Ednrb* (red), *Fabp7* (cyan) and

DAPI (blue) of L4 DRGs from 3-month-old mice (scale bars, 50 μm).

Figure 2: Endothelin B receptor inhibition increases axonal growth *in vitro* and *ex vivo.*

A. Representative images showing TUJ1 (black) immunostaining of neurons in DRG cultures

(scale bars, 100 μm).

B. Representative image of TUJ1 (green) and FABP7 (magenta) immunostaining of neurons and

SGCs in control DRG cultures (scale bars, 50 μm).

C,D. Quantification of axonal radial length (B) and TUJ1$^+$ area (C) per neuron. Different colors

indicate biological replicates. N = 246 (Veh; 8 replicates), 318 (BQ788; 8 replicates), 320 (IRL1620;

8 replicates), and 244 (BQ123; 8 replicates). Data presented as mean ± SD.

E. Scheme of drug treatment and DRG explant model.

F. Representative images of DRG explants 7 days after drug treatment, immunostained for

TUJ1 (black) (scale bars, 1000 μm).

G. Quantification of radial length of the 35 longest axons from DRG explants from indicated

groups N=36 explants from 6 indivual mice (BQ788; 18 replicates, Veh; 18 replicates).

H. Representative images of DRG explants immunostained for TUJ1 (green), FABP7 (magenta),

and merged (scale bars, 50 μm).

Figure 3: Bosentan treatment improves axon regeneration after peripheral nerve injury in

adult mice.

A. Scheme of drug treatment and peripheral nerve injury model.

B. Quantification of the length of the 10 longest axons in indicated conditions.

C. Quantification of the regeneration index, calculated as the distance along the nerve where

the SGC10 intensity is 50% of the SCG10 intensity at crush site.

D. Representative longitudinal sections of sciatic nerves 24h after SNC, immunostained for

SCG10, from mice with the indicated treatment. Dotted line indicates the crush site, determined

as the maximal SGC10 intensity (scale bars, 200 μm).

E. Quantificaiton of SCG10 intensity at the indicated distance normalized to the intensity at the

crush site for each condition. N = 5 mice/condition.

F. Scheme of long-term Bosentan treatment.

G. Representative images of hindpaw skin after long-term Bosentan treatment immunostained

for PGP9.5 (white) and DAPI (blue) (scale bars, 50 μm).

H. Quantification of intraepidermal nerve fiber density (IENFD) 24 days after sciatic nerve crush

from the indicated groups. N=5 mice/condition.

I. Scheme of adult DRG neuronal culture and treatments.

J,L. Representative images showing TUJ1 (black) immunostaining of neurons in DRG cultures

(scale bars, 100 μm).

K,M. Quantification of axonal radial length (K) and total TUJ1$^+$ area (L). Different colors

represent different biological replicates. N (neuron number) = 177 (vehicle; three biological

replicates, naïve mice), 168 (Ambrisentan, three biological replicates, naïve mice), 183

(Bosentan; three biological replicates, naïve mice), 186 (vehicle; three biological replicates,

injured mice), 204(Ambrisentan, three biological replicates, injured mice) and 210 (Bosentan;

three biological replicates, injured mice), respectively. The data are presented as mean ± SD.

Figure 4: Bosentan treatment rescues aging-dependent neuronal regenerative decline.

A. Scheme of drug treatment and DRG explant model.

B. Representative images of DRG explants 7 days after drug treatment (scale bars, 1000 μm).

C. Quantification of radial length of the 50 longest axons from DRG explants. N=36 explants

from 6 indivual mice (BQ788; 18 replicates, Veh; 18 replicates).

D. Representative longitudinal sections of sciatic nerves 3 d after SNC immunostained for

SCG10 from mice with the indicated treatment. Dotted line indicates the crush site, determined

as the maximal SCG10 intensity (scale bars, 200 μm).

E,F. Quantification of the 10 longest axons in indicated groups (**E**). Quantificaiton of 50%

regenerative index, calculated as the disatnce along the nerve where the SCG10 intensity is

50% of the SCG10 intensity at crush site (**F**).

G. Quantification of the SCG10 intensity at the indicated distance normalized to the intensity at

the crush site for each condition. N (mouse number) = 4(adult, vehicle), 3 (Aged, vehicle) and 3

(Bosentan+Age), respectively. The data are presented as mean ± SD.

Figure 5: Aging alters SGC abundance and morphology.

A. UMAP plot of adult and aged snRNA-seq identified 16 cell clusters based on known marker

genes.

B. Dot plot analysis showing the average gene expression (color coded) and number of

expressing cells (dot size) for the marker genes.

C,D. UMAP plot of DRG cells from adult (**C**) and aged (**D**) mice.

E. Bar plot of cell proportions in DRGs of adult and aged mice.

F. Representative TEM images of DRG sections from adult (2M), middle aged (12M) and aged

(21M) mice showing neuronal cell bodies and the enveloping SGCs (SGCs are pseudo-colored

in red) (scale bars, 5 µm).

G. Quantification of the average width of SGCs sheath per neuron soma.

H. Frequency of neurons soma in TEM images with 0, 1, 2, or 3 SGCs nuclei in 2M, 12M, and

21M old mice.

Figure 6: ETBR inhibition increases the expression of Cx43 in SGCs in adult and aged

mice.

A. UMAP overlay for expression of *Gja1* in adult and aged mouse DRG.

B. Scheme of drug treatment and peripheral nerve injury model.

C. Quantification of the percentage of the Cx43/FABP7 expression area.

D. Quantification of the average number of Connexin 43 (Cx43) puncta per FABP7+ cell. The

ratio of total Cx43 puncta to the number of FABP7+ cells surrounding a TUJ1+ neuron was

measured. N(cell number) = 60(adult, uninjured), 62(aged, uninjured), 96(vehicle, adult, SNC),

117(bosentan, adult, SNC), 74(vehicle, aged, SNC) and 74(bosentan, aged, SNC), respectively.

E. Representative immunostaining images showing Connexin 43 (Cx43), FABP7 and TUJ1 in

L4 DRGs from the indicated condition (scale bars, 50 µm).

F. Proposed model for the role of ETBR in age-dependent decline in axon regenerative capacity

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

Figure 1 – Figure supplement 1.

A,B. Sample QC for 10x scRNA-Seq

C. UMAP plots of genes used for cell cluster annotations.

D. UMAP overlay for expression of *Ednrb* in SGCs in mouse and human. Images generated

from https://painseq.shinyapps.io/harmonized_painseq_v2/, related to (Bhuiyan et al., 2024).

Figure 3 – Figure supplement 1

A. Scheme of drug treatment and peripheral nerve injury model.

B. Quantification of the 10 longest axons in indicated groups.

C. Quantificaiton of 50% regenerative index, calculated as the disatnce along the nerve where

the SCG10 intensity is 50% of the SCG10 intensity at crush site.

D. Representative longitudinal sections of sciatic nerves 3 d after SNC immunostained for

SCG10 from mice with the indicated treatment. Dotted line indicates the crush site, determined

as the maximal SCG10 intensity (scale bars, 200 µm).

E. Quantificaiton of SCG10 intensity at the indicated distance normalized to the intensity at the

crush site for each condition. N = 5 mice/condition. The data are presented as mean ± SD.

F. RT-qPCR of *Atf3, Aif1, Fabp7, Edn1, Ednra* and *Ednrb* gene in contralateral (CON) and

ipsilateral DRGs at 3days post injury(SNC). N (mouse number) = 4/each group.

G. Western blot analysis and quantification of ETBR protein expression in DRGs from the mice

with/without injury.

H. Quantification of ETBR expression normalized to GAPDH expression (folder of control mice).

N (mouse number) = 8/group. The data are presented as mean ± SD.

Figure 3 – Figure supplement 2

A. Scheme of drug treatment and dorsal root crush injury model.

B. Representative longitudinal sections of sciatic nerves 3 d after DRC immunostained for

SCG10 from mice with the indicated treatment. Dotted line indicates the crush site, determined

as the maximal SCG10 intensity (scale bars, 200 µm).

C. Quantification of the 10 longest axons in indicated groups.

D. Quantificaiton of 50% regenerative index, calculated as the disatnce along the nerve where

the SCG10 intensity is 50% of the SCG10 intensity at crush site.

E. Quantificaiton of SCG10 intensity at the indicated distance normalized to the intensity at the

crush site for each condition. N = 5 mice/condition. The data are presented as mean ± SD.

Figure 4 – Figure supplement 1

A,B. Western blot analysis and quantifiction of ET1 (A) and ETBR (B) protein expression in

DRG from adult and aged mice N=3 for each age group.

C. Scheme of drug treatment and explant culture model.

D. Quantification of radial length of the 10 longest axons from DRG explants. N=20 (Bosentan;

9 replicates, Veh; 11 replicates)

E. Representative images of DRG explants 4 days after culture (scale bars, 1000 μm).

Figure 5 – Figure supplement 1

A,B. Sample QC for Illumina snRNA-Seq

C. Volcano plot of upregulated and downregulated genes in SGCs of aged vs. adult mice.

D. Gene ontology analysis of upregulated genes in SGCs in aged mice compared to adults.

Figure 6 – Figure supplement 1

A. Representative immunostaining images of connexin 43 (red), Fabp7 (gray), and TUJ1 (cyan)

in L4 DRGs from mice of the indicated ages and treatments 3 d after dorsal root crush injury

(scale bars, 50 μm).

B. Quantification of the percentage of the Cx43/FABP7 expression area in each condition.

C. Quantification of the average number of Connexin 43 (Cx43) puncta per FABP7$^+$ cell. The

ratio of total Cx43 puncta to the number of FABP7$^+$ cells surrounding a TUJ1-positive neuron

was measured. Different colors were used to indicate distinct biological replicates (mouse).

N(cell number) = 93 (uninjured), 97 (Vehicle, DRC), and 124 (Bosentan, DRC), respectively.

The data are presented as mean ± SD.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA FILES

S1: Marker genes for 10x scRNA-seq analysis

S2: Marker genes for Illumina snRNA-seq analysis

S3:DGE for SGCs in aged vs adult DRG

S4:GO pathway analysis for SGC in aged vs adult DRG

S5: KEGG pathway analysis for SGC is aged vs adult DRG

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

Supplementary Table 1: list of qPCR Primers

SUPPLEMENTARY MOVIES

Movie S1: Z-stack video of whole mount preparation of DRG from Lycopersicon Esculentum

Lectin (LEL) injected Fabp7CreER::Ai14 mouse, which labels SGCs with tdTomato,

immunostained for TUJ1 (neurons).

Movie S2: Z-stack video of DRG section immunostained for FABP7 and CX43.

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Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

A Oral Gavage: Vehicle or Ambrisentan or Bosentan

B SNC 1 d.p.i.

C SNC 1 d.p.i.

D SNC 1 d.p.i.
SCG10

Vehicle

Ambrisentan

Bosentan

200 μm

E SNC 1 d.p.i.

F Oral Gavage: Vehicle or Bosentan

G Vehicle   Bosentan
PGP9.5/DAPI
50 μm

H IENFD Day 24

I *in vivo* treatment   *in vitro*

J No injury
Vehicle   Ambrisentan   Bosentan
100 μm

K No injury   Injury

L Injury
Vehicle   Ambrisentan   Bosentan
100 μm

M No injury   Injury

Fig. 4

A Harvest DRG

21 Mo old (C57BL/6) — 24 hrs — Vehicle / NGF — Vehicle or BQ788 7 days — Fix and Stain

B Vehicle | BQ788 — 1000 μm

C Explant

Radial length (μm)

0.0033
0.0893
<0.0001

Veh Adult | Veh Aged | BQ788 Aged

D SCG10

Adult Vehicle — 500 μm

Aged Vehicle

Aged Bosentan

E SNC 3 d.p.i

10 longest axons (μm)

>0.9999
<0.0001
<0.0001

Veh Adult | Veh Aged | Bosentan Aged

F SNC 3 d.p.i

50% regeneration index

>0.9999
0.0441
0.0166

Veh Adult | Veh Aged | Bosentan Aged

G SNC 3 d.p.i

SCG10 intensity normalized to crush site (%)

- Adult+Vehicle
- Aged+Vehicle
- Aged+Bosentan

n.s.

<0.0001
<0.0001
<0.0001
<0.0001
0.0119
0.0008
0.0146

<0.0001
<0.0001
<0.0001
0.0147
0.0023

Distance from injury site (μm)

Fig.5

Fig. 6

A Adult   Aged

Gja1

B Oral Gavage
Vehicle
or Bosentan
2 hrs 24 hrs 24 hrs 24 hrs
3 months-old
(Adult)   SNC   Sacrifice
21 months-old
(Aged)

C CX43/FABP7 expression area (%)
>0.9999
0.0335
0.0379
0.1172
>0.9999   0.0431
Adult Aged Veh Bosentan Veh Bosentan
Uninjured   Adult   Aged
SNC (injured)

D # Cx43/FABP7+ Cell
<0.0001
<0.0001   <0.0001   <0.0001
<0.0001   <0.0001   <0.0001
Adult Aged Veh Bosentan Veh Bosentan
Uninjured   Adult   Aged
SNC (injured)

E   Uninjured   SNC (injured)
Adult Aged Adult+Vehicle Adult+Bosentan Aged+Vehicle Aged + Bosentan
FABP7/Connexin 43

Connexin 43

F Adult
Cx43   ET-1
ETBR   Bosentan
Axon Regeneration
Nerve Injury

Aged
Cx43   ET-1
ETBR   Bosentan
Axon Regeneration
Nerve Injury

Figure 1- Figure Supplement 1

Figure 3- Figure Supplement 1

Figure 3- Figure Supplement 2

Figure 4- Figure Supplement 1

Figure 6- Figure Supplement 1