Descending locus coeruleus noradrenergic signaling to spinal astrocyte subset is required for stress-induced pain facilitation

Riku Kawanabe-Kobayashi[1,8], Sawako Uchiyama[1,8], Kohei Yoshihara[1,8], Daiki Kojima[1], Thomas McHugh[2], Izuho Hatada[3,4], Ko Matsui[5], Kenji F. Tanaka[6], Makoto Tsuda[1,7,*]

Affiliations

[1]Department of Molecular and System Pharmacology, Graduate School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Kyushu University, 3-1-1 Maidashi, Higashi-ku, Fukuoka 812-8582, Japan

[2]Laboratory for Circuit and Behavioral Physiology, RIKEN Center for Brain Science, 2-1 Hirosawa, Wako, Saitama 351-0198, Japan

[3]Laboratory of Genome Science, Biosignal Genome Resource Center, Institute for Molecular and Cellular Regulation, Gunma University, 3-39-15 Showa-machi, Maebashi, Gunma 371-8512, Japan

[4]Viral Vector Core, Gunma University Initiative for Advanced Research (GIAR), 3-39-22, Showa-machi, Maebashi, Gunma, 371-8511, Japan

[5]Super-network Brain Physiology, Graduate School of Life Sciences, Tohoku University, 2-1-1 Katahira, Aoba-ku, Sendai, Miyagi 980-8577, Japan

[6]Division of Brain Sciences, Institute for Advanced Medical Research, Keio University School of Medicine, 35 Shinanomachi, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160-8582, Japan

[7]Kyushu University Institute for Advanced Study, 744 Motooka, Nishi-ku, Fukuoka 819-0395, Japan

[8]These authors contributed equally.

*Correspondence: Makoto Tsuda, Ph.D.; **TEL:** 81-92-642-6628, **FAX:** 81-92-642-6566, **Email:** tsuda@phar.kyushu-u.ac.jp

25   **Abstract**

26   It is known that stress powerfully alters pain, but its underlying mechanisms remain elusive.

27   Here, we identified a circuit, locus coeruleus descending noradrenergic neurons projecting to the

28   spinal dorsal horn ($LC^{\rightarrow SDH}$-NA neurons), that is activated by acute exposure to restraint stress

29   and is required for stress-induced mechanical pain hypersensitivity in mice. Interestingly, the

30   primary target of spinal NA released from descending $LC^{\rightarrow SDH}$-NAergic terminals causing the

31   stress-induced pain hypersensitivity was α_{1A}-adrenaline receptors (α_{1A}Rs) in Hes5-positive

32   ($Hes5^+$) astrocytes located in the SDH, an astrocyte subset that has an ability to induce pain

33   sensitization. Furthermore, activation of $Hes5^+$ astrocytes reduced activity of SDH-inhibitory

34   neurons (SDH-INs) that have an inhibitory role in pain processing. This astrocytic reduction of

35   IN activity was canceled by an A_1-adenosine receptor (A_1R)-knockdown in SDH-INs, and the

36 A_1R-knockdown suppressed pain hypersensitivity caused by acute restraint stress. Therefore, our

37   findings suggest that $LC^{\rightarrow SDH}$-NA neuronal signaling to $Hes5^+$ SDH astrocytes and subsequent

38   astrocytic reduction of SDH-IN activity are essential for pain facilitation caused by stress.

Introduction

Somatosensory information generated at the periphery, such as skin, is conveyed to the dorsal horn of the spinal cord (SDH) via primary afferent sensory neurons and further to the brain[1,2]. The SDH is the first region for processing the peripherally derived sensory information and thus is critical for its proper transmission to and perception in the brain[1-6]. The processing of somatosensory information is not only tightly regulated by complex neuronal circuits within the SDH but also powerfully modulated by descending neurons from the brain[7,8]. The locus coeruleus (LC), a small nucleus located in the brainstem, modulates pain information processing in the SDH via descending noradrenaline (NA) neurons[8-11]. Activation of SDH-projecting LC-NA (LC$^{\rightarrow SDH}$-NA) neurons leads to a release of NA in the SDH[12]. Spinal NA acts on α_{1A}-adrenaline receptors (α_{1A}Rs) expressed on inhibitory neurons (INs)[13,14] and facilitates γ-aminobutyric acid (GABA)-mediated inhibitory synaptic transmission[15,16]. This NA signal has been implicated in the inhibitory control of nociceptive information processing[9-11]. Besides neurons, glial cells in the SDH, such as microglia and astrocytes, also have a remarkable ability to modulate the processing and transmission of somatosensory information[17-19]. Glial modulation has been extensively studied in pathological settings[17-19], but studies using *in vivo* imaging have shown that SDH astrocytes respond to noxious stimuli applied to the periphery under normal conditions[20-23]. Furthermore, we have recently identified a subset of spinal astrocytes defined by expression of hairy and enhancer of split 5 (Hes5) as a new target of NA[22]. Astrocytes express various types of adrenaline receptors[24]; activation of LC$^{\rightarrow SDH}$-NA neurons induces an increase in intracellular Ca^{2+} ([Ca^{2+}]$_i$), an indicator of astrocyte activity[25], via α_{1A}Rs[22], which are the most abundant adrenaline receptors in astrocytes[26,27]. Hes5$^+$ astrocytes are selectively distributed in the superficial laminae of SDH where it receives primary afferent sensory fibers. Activation of α_{1A}Rs of Hes5$^+$ SDH astrocytes by intrathecal administration of NA induces pain sensitization to light mechanical stimuli applied to the skin[22]. Given that most of the varicosities of NAergic axons/terminals are located closer to astrocytic processes than to neuronal synapses[28], Hes5$^+$ astrocytes could be a critical NA target for modulating pain in the SDH.

LC-NA neurons are known to respond to several external and internal stressors[29]. In rodent models of stress, nociceptive stimuli (e.g., electric shock, animal bite, etc.) are frequently employed as stressors. LC-NA neurons respond not only to stimuli that directly excite nociceptors[30,31], but also to stressors that do not involve their direct stimulation[30,32]. Several studies using rodent stress models have shown that exposure to stressors with or without nociceptor activation induces a remarkable change in pain-associated behavior[33,34]. Despite the

impact of stress on the pain system, the mechanism underlying a link between stress and pain,

especially pain exacerbation, at the neural circuit and cellular levels remains poorly understood,

although it has been proposed that activation of enkephalinergic and GABAergic INs in the SDH

is involved in stress-induced pain inhibition[35]. Since stressful events are known to have a

significant impact on chronic pain[36,37], providing new insights into the mechanisms by which

stress modulates pain is also of clinical importance.

In this study, we investigated how stress modulates pain with a focus on LC$^{\rightarrow SDH}$-NA neurons and

their target Hes5$^+$ astrocytes in the SDH, using multiple approaches. Our experiments using *in*

vivo Ca^{2+} imaging, chemogenetics and optogenetics, cell ablation, electrophysiology, biochemical

imaging for NA release and astrocytic Ca^{2+} responses, conditional gene knockout, and behavioral

analyses demonstrate for the first time that LC$^{\rightarrow SDH}$-NA neuronal signaling to Hes5$^+$ SDH

astrocytes and subsequent astrocytic reduction of SDH-IN activity are essential for stress-induced

mechanical pain hypersensitivity.

Results

LC$^{\rightarrow SDH}$-NA neurons mediate mechanical hypersensitivity after acute restraint stress.

To investigate the mechanism underlying stress-induced pain modulation, we subjected wild-type

(WT) mice to acute restraint stress exposure (Figure 1A), a well-known and frequently used stress

model[29]. Consistent with a previous study[38], restraint stress for 30 min and 1 hour induced

hypersensitivity to light mechanical stimuli (by applying von Frey filaments) to the plantar skin

of the hindpaw (Figure 1B). However, with longer exposure (2 hours) to restraint stress,

mechanical hypersensitivity was attenuated (Figure S1). In subsequent experiments, we chose 1

hour as the exposure time to restraint stress. To analyze LC-NA neuronal activity during restraint

stress, we performed fiber photometry using *NET-Cre* mice (Cre is expressed in NAergic neurons

under the control of the promoter of NA transporter [NET])[39] with microinjection into the LC of

an adeno-associated viral (AAV) vector designed to express GCaMP6s (genetic encoded

fluorescent Ca^{2+} indicator) in a Cre-dependent manner (AAV-flex[GCaMP6s]). Three weeks after

the injection, GCaMP6s was expressed selectively in tyrosine hydroxylase$^+$ (TH$^+$) LC-NA

neurons (Figure 1C)[40]. We found that restraint stress exposure increased the number of Ca^{2+}

events in these neurons (Figure 1, D and E; Figure S2). The number of Ca^{2+} events was highest

during the first 20 min of the restraint stress exposure and gradually decreased later.

To investigate the role of LC-NA neurons in mechanical hypersensitivity, we utilized a cell

ablation approach[41]; diphtheria toxin (DTX) receptors (DTR) were specifically expressed in LC-

NA neurons by injection of AAV-flex[DTR-EGFP] into the LC of *NET-Cre* mice (Figure 1F).

DTR$^+$ neurons (detected by GFP) mainly co-expressed TH, and these neurons were ablated by

DTX administration (10 µg/kg, two injections 24-hour apart), which resulted in a loss of TH

signal in the LC and reduction of NET signal in the SDH (Figure 1G). We performed behavioral

tests in these mice and observed that ablation of LC-NA neurons abolished mechanical

hypersensitivity after restraint stress exposure (Figure 1H). To specifically ablate LC$^{\to SDH}$-NA

neurons, a retrograde AAV vector expressing Cre (AAVretro-Cre) was injected into the L4 SDH,

followed by AAV-flex[DTR-EGFP] injection into the LC (Figure 1I). In these mice, TH$^+$

LC$^{\to SDH}$-NA neurons expressing DTR (detected by EGFP) were ablated after DTX administration

(Figure 1J). These mice also failed to induce mechanical hypersensitivity after the restraint stress

(Figure 1K). These results suggest that descending LC$^{\to SDH}$-NA neurons are necessary for

mechanical pain hypersensitivity after acute restraint stress exposure. Furthermore, we tested

whether optogenetic activation of LC$^{\to SDH}$-NA neurons could induce mechanical hypersensitivity,

using ChrimsonR, a well-established red-shifted channelrhodopsin[42]. *NET-Cre* mice were

microinjected with AAV-flex[ChrimsonR-tdTomato] into the LC (Figure 1L). Three weeks later,

we confirmed expression of ChrimsonR (detected by tdTomato) in TH$^+$ neurons in the LC and

NET$^+$ axons/terminals in the SDH (Figure 1M). Optogenetic stimulation of LC$^{\to SDH}$-NA neuronal

axons/terminals in the SDH evoked mechanical hypersensitivity in these mice (Figure 1N). These

results together demonstrate that LC$^{\to SDH}$-NA neurons are activated by acute stress exposure and

are not only necessary for stress-induced mechanical pain hypersensitivity but also sufficient to

phenocopy the behavioral response.

LC$^{\to SDH}$-NAergic signaling to Hes5$^+$ SDH astrocytes is required for stress-induced

mechanical hypersensitivity.

To investigate the mechanism by which activation of LC$^{\to SDH}$-NA neurons induces mechanical

hypersensitivity, we first examined if NA is released in the SDH when these neurons are

stimulated, using the genetically encoded fluorescent NA sensor GRAB$_{NE1m}$[43]. In spinal cord

slices from *NET-Cre* mice that had been injected AAV-flex[ChrimsonR-tdTomato] into the LC

and AAV-gfaABC$_1$D-GRAB$_{NE1m}$ (expressing GRAB$_{NE1m}$ under the control of the astrocyte-

selective promoter gfaABC$_1$D[44] into the SDH) (Figure 2A), optogenetic stimulation of LC$^{\to SDH}$-

NA axons/terminals increased GRAB$_{NE1m}$ fluorescence intensity (Figure 2B), confirming NA

release from LC$^{\to SDH}$-NA neuron terminals in our slice conditions. The fluorescence intensity

increased in a stimulation period-dependent manner (Figure 2C). Next, to determine the target

cells and receptors of LC→SDH-NA neurons, we focused on α_{1A}Rs in astrocytes because our

previous study showed that NA increases $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in astrocytes via α_{1A}Rs[22]. Using spinal cord

slices from *NET-Cre* mice that had been injected with AAV-flex[ChrimsonR-tdTomato] into the

LC and AAV-gfaABC$_1$D-GCaMP6m into the SDH (Figure 2A), we found that optogenetic

stimulation of LC→SDH-NA axons/terminals evoked a rise in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in astrocytes (Figure 2, D and

E). Pretreatment with the α_{1A}R-specific antagonist silodosin (40 nM) suppressed the Ca^{2+}

responses (Figure 2F), suggesting that NA released from LC→SDH-NA neurons induces Ca^{2+}

responses in SDH astrocytes via α_{1A}Rs. Behaviorally, intrathecal injection of silodosin in *NET-*

Cre;AAV-ChrimsonR mice attenuated mechanical hypersensitivity by optogenetic stimulation of

the LC→SDH-NA neurons (Figure 2G). Consistent with our previous findings[22], intrathecal

administration of NA (0.1 nmol) evoked transient mechanical hypersensitivity, which was

completely abolished in *Hes5-CreERT2*;*Adra1a*flox/flox mice treated with tamoxifen (Hes5^{+}

astrocyte-selective conditional knockout of α_{1A}Rs: Hes5^{+} astrocyte–α_{1A}R cKO) (Figure 2H).

Moreover, mechanical hypersensitivity after acute restraint stress was abolished in Hes5^{+}

astrocyte–α_{1A}R cKO mice (Figure 2I). In addition, intrathecal administration of 5,7-

dichlorokynurenic acid (DCK; 10 nmol), an antagonist of D-serine signaling on N-methyl-D-

aspartate (NMDA) receptors, also suppressed mechanical hypersensitivity (Figure 2J). Supporting

this finding, our previous report identified D-serine as a hypersensitivity-inducing factor released

from Hes5^{+} astrocytes[22]. These results indicate that spinally-released NA from LC→SDH-NA

neurons after acute restraint stress activates α_{1A}Rs on Hes5^{+} astrocytes, which causes mechanical

pain hypersensitivity.

Hes5[+] astrocytes mask IN function via adenosine A$_1$ receptors.

Besides astrocytes, *Adra1a* mRNA is also expressed in INs in the SDH[13,14]. However, *Vgat-*

Cre;*Adra1a*flox/flox mice (Vgat[+] IN-selective conditional knockout of α_{1A}Rs: Vgat[+] IN–α_{1A}R cKO

mice)[14,16] had no effect on the NA (0.1 nmol)-induced mechanical hypersensitivity (Figure 3A). A

similar behavioral phenotype was also observed after intrathecal administration of phenylephrine

(0.05 nmol), a selective agonist for α_1Rs (Figure 3B). Furthermore, stress-induced mechanical

hypersensitivity was not affected in Vgat[+] IN–α_{1A}R cKO mice (Figure 3C). Considering previous

data that SDH-INs (including Vgat[+]) respond to NA via α_{1A}Rs at NA concentrations similar to

those that elicit Hes5^{+} astrocyte response[16,22], it remains unclear why intrathecally administered

NA and spinally released NA from LC→SDH-NA neuron terminals (after acute restraint stress)

have no suppressive effect via α_{1A}R-mediated Vgat[+] IN activation on mechanical hypersensitivity.

We then hypothesized an interaction between Hes5^{+} astrocytes and Vgat[+] INs as per a previous

report that optogenetic activation of rat SDH astrocytes leads to ATP release; ATP is converted to

adenosine extracellularly which subsequently suppresses the activity of SDH-INs via adenosine

A_1 receptors (A_1Rs)[45]. By performing whole-cell current-clamp recordings of Vgat[+] INs in spinal

cord slices from *Vgat-Cre*;*Rosa-tdTomato* mice, we found that bath application of NA (20 µM)

evoked depolarization in 22.2% (10/45 cells) of tdTomato^{+} cells (Vgat[+] INs), with 30% of these

showing action potentials (3/10 cells). The proportion of Vgat[+] INs depolarized by NA is similar

to that of *Adra1a* mRNA-expressing INs[14]. In 50% (5/10 cells) of depolarized Vgat[+] INs,

additional application of the A_1R-selective agonist N6-cyclopentyladenosine (CPA; 1 µM)

suppressed NA-induced depolarization/action potentials (Figure 3D and E). Supporting this

finding, RNAscope *in situ* hybridization detected *Adora1* mRNA fluorescence in $63.5 \pm 6.9\%$ of

Slc32a1 (*Vgat*)[+] INs ($n = 497$, from three mice) (Figure 3F). Because A_1Rs are also expressed in

the dorsal root ganglion neurons[46], excitatory neurons and microglia[47] in the SDH, we employed

the CRISPR–Cas9 system using AAV vectors to specifically knockdown A_1Rs in SDH-INs.

AAV vectors designed to express the *Staphylococcus aureus* Cas9 (SaCas9)[48] in a Cre-dependent

manner (AAV-flex[SaCas9]) and single guide RNA-expression vectors (AAV-flex[mCherry]-

U6-sgAdora1 or -flex[mCherry]-U6-sgYFP [as a control]) were co-microinjected into the SDH of

Vgat-Cre mice (Figure 3G). SaCas9 (detected by HA-tag) and mCherry-labeled cells in the SDH

were immunolabeled with paired box 2 (PAX2) (Figure 3G), a marker of INs[49]. In these SDH-

Vgat[+] IN-selective A_1R conditional knockdown mice (SDH-Vgat[+] IN–A_1R cKD mice), the

inhibitory effect of CPA on NA-induced depolarization/action potentials was completely

abolished in mCherry^{+} neurons (Figure 3, H and I). Using a chemogenetic approach with

modified human muscarinic G_q-protein-coupled receptors (hM3Dq)[50], we further examined the

effect of G_q-stimulated Hes5^{+} astrocytes on inhibitory synaptic transmission. *Hes5-CreERT2* mice

were microinjected with AAV-flex[hM3Dq-HA] into the SDH (*Hes5-CreERT2*;AAV-hM3Dq

mice). hM3Dq (detected by HA-tag) was expressed in the SDH, and these cells were double-

labeled with glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) and SRY-related high-mobility group box 9

(SOX9), markers of astrocytes (Figure 3J). Using spinal cord slices from these mice, we

performed whole-cell voltage-clamp recordings of substantia gelatinosa (SG) neurons. Bath

application of hM3Dq agonist clozapine N-oxide (CNO; 100 µM) reduced the frequency of

spontaneous inhibitory postsynaptic currents (sIPSCs) in SG neurons (Figure 3, K and L). This

effect was prevented by pretreatment with the A_1R-specific antagonist, 8-cyclopentyl-1,3-

dimethylxanthine (CPT; 1 µM) (Figure 3, M and N). These results suggest that a signaling

pathway from Hes5^{+} astrocytes suppresses the activity of Vgat[+] INs via A_1Rs in the SDH.

Hes5$^+$ astrocyte-mediated inhibitory signals to INs affect mechanical hypersensitivity.

We investigated whether A$_1$Rs in SDH-Vgat$^+$ INs contributed to the mechanical hypersensitivity elicited by intrathecal NA (0.1 nmol). Acute inhibition of spinal A$_1$Rs by intrathecal administration of CPT (3 nmol) suppressed NA-induced mechanical hypersensitivity (Figure 4A). Similarly, SDH-Vgat$^+$ IN–A$_1$R cKD mice showed a significant reduction in the behavioral hypersensitivity by NA (Figure 4B), indicating that A$_1$Rs in SDH-Vgat$^+$ INs contribute to mechanical hypersensitivity by spinal NA. Furthermore, SDH-Vgat$^+$ IN–A$_1$R cKD mice and intrathecal-CPT-pretreated mice exhibited a significant attenuation of the stress-induced mechanical hypersensitivity (Figure 4, C and D). These results suggest that Hes5$^+$ astrocyte-mediated negative control for SDH-Vgat$^+$ INs via A$_1$R-mediated signals is crucial for stress-induced mechanical hypersensitivity. Moreover, we investigated the role of this interaction in stress-induced alteration of somatosensory information processing in the SDH using phosphorylated extracellular signal-regulated kinase (pERK), a neuronal nociceptive input marker in superficial SDH neurons[51]. Consistent with the results of a previous report[52], Aβ fiber stimulation of the hindpaw alone did not increase the number of pERK$^+$ neurons in the superficial SDH (laminae I–IIi using isolectin B4 [IB4], a marker of lamina IIi) (Figure 4, E and F). Similarly, acute restraint stress alone did not change the number of pERK$^+$ neurons (Figure 4, E and F). Interestingly, Aβ fiber stimulation following acute restraint stress exposure significantly increased the number of pERK$^+$ neurons in the superficial SDH (Figure 4, E and F). Intrathecal injection of CPT prevented the stress-induced increase in pERK$^+$ neurons (Figure 4, E and F). These results suggest that the abnormal responsiveness of superficial SDH neurons to signals from Aβ fibers in mice with acute restraint stress, involves adenosine signals that are important for negatively controlling Vgat$^+$ INs by NA-stimulated Hes5$^+$ astrocytes and for mechanical hypersensitivity.

Discussion

External and internal stressors elicit a variety of biological responses including pain modulation. Acute exposure to a stressor inhibits or facilitates behavioral responses to thermal and mechanical stimuli applied to the skin[33,38,53]. While the mechanism underlying pain inhibition has been studied[33], the neural basis of pain facilitation by stress remains poorly understood. In this study, we identified a circuit, the descending LC$^{\rightarrow SDH}$-NA neurons, that is activated by acute restraint stress exposure and demonstrated that the circuit is necessary for stress-induced pain

hypersensitivity. A notable finding of this study was that Hes5^{+} astrocytes, a subpopulation of

spinal cord astrocytes[22], are the primary target of NA released from descending LC[→SDH]-NA

neurons for mechanical pain hypersensitivity caused by stress. Thus, this top-down signaling

pathway from LC[→SDH]-NA neurons to Hes5^{+} SDH astrocytes is an essential link between stress

and pain sensitization.

Spinal NA derived from LC-NA neurons has been classically implicated in pain inhibitory

control[9-11]. The suggested mechanism to this effect is its action on SDH-INs via α_{1A}Rs[9,16]. In

contrast, recent our study has unveiled another facet of spinal NA signaling, which is

pronociceptive, by identifying Hes5^{+} astrocytes in the SDH[22]. Mechanistically, spinal NA acts on

α_{1A}Rs expressed on Hes5^{+} astrocytes, increases intracellular Ca^{2+} levels via a G_q/PLC/IP_3

pathway, and causes mechanical hypersensitivity via release of D-serine[22], an activator of NMDA

receptors. This study showed that the optogenetic activation of LC[→SDH]-NA neurons produced

mechanical hypersensitivity via α_{1A}Rs in SDH-Hes5^{+} astrocytes, indicating the pronociceptive

effect of LC[→SDH]-NAergic signaling. In contrast, it has also been reported that a similar opto- or

chemogenetic activation produces an antinociceptive effect on thermal stimuli[54,55]. The reason for

the difference remains unclear; however, the stimulus modality used for the behavioral assay

(mechanical vs. thermal) may be responsible, since the SDH circuits for mechanical and thermal

information processing have been shown to be distinct[3,56-59].

Given that SDH-INs also express α_{1A}Rs[13,14], it is unclear why pain hypersensitivity is the

preferentially manifested behavioral phenotype after activation of LC[→SDH]-NAergic signal. This

study showed that NA-stimulated Hes5^{+} astrocytes negatively regulate the activity of SDH-Vgat[+]

INs. This astrocytic attenuation of SDH-Vgat[+] IN activity may involve adenosine signaling

because A_1R cKD in SDH-Vgat[+] INs canceled the suppressive effect of A_1R agonist on NA-

induced enhancement of Vgat[+]-IN activity and NA-induced mechanical hypersensitivity. The

adenosine-mediated inhibition of SDH-INs is consistent with the data from a previous study[45].

Thus, these results suggest that spinal NA acts on α_{1A}Rs expressed by both Hes5^{+} astrocytes and

Vgat[+] INs; however, NA-stimulated Hes5^{+} astrocytes suppress Vgat[+] IN activity by adenosine

signaling via A_1Rs; this induces a state where the Hes5^{+} astrocyte-derived pain-facilitating effect

predominates, causing mechanical pain hypersensitivity (Figure 4G).

While a neuronal model for gating peripherally derived sensory signals in the SDH has been

previously established by identifying several subpopulations of INs[1-5], our study proposes a new

regulatory mechanism in this model in which Hes5^{+} astrocytes act as non-neuronal gating cells in

the SDH for brain-derived NAergic signaling. This astrocytic gating control of INs may affect

processing and transmission of somatosensory information in the SDH. Indeed, a

pharmacological blockade of the adenosine signal to SDH-Vgat$^+$ INs suppressed the Aβ fiber-

mediated pERK expression in the superficial SDH of stressed mice. Preproenkephalin$^+$ IN

population may be among the SDH-Vgat$^+$ INs involved in stress-induced pain modulation[35].

Interfering with GABA/glycine signaling in the SDH results in abnormal synaptic inputs from

primary afferent Aβ fibers onto superficial SDH neurons[60]. Our view is also supported by

previous findings from *in vivo* patch-clamp recordings, which show that, in about a half of SG

neurons tested, NA enhances excitatory synaptic responses evoked by tactile stimuli (air puff to

the skin)[61]. Additionally, our hypothesis that Hes5$^+$ astrocytes co-release D-serine and

ATP/adenosine in response to α_{1A}R activation by NA is supported by previous findings in the

neocortex[62]. Aβ fiber inputs into neurokinin 1 receptor-positive projection neurons in SDH

lamina I following inhibition of GABA/glycine signaling is canceled by a pharmacological

blockade of NMDA receptors[60], supporting our data that the stress-induced mechanical

hypersensitivity was suppressed by the antagonist of D-serine site of NMDA receptors DCK.

However, the effect of astrocytic adenosine on spinal pain processing has been controversial:

both, pronociceptive (consistent with our findings)[45] and antinociceptive[63]. Such different effects

might be related in part to the regionally restricted astrocytic subpopulations and factors for their

activation. Pro- and anti-nociceptive effects have been reported to be mediated by astrocytes

located in superficial and deeper laminae and stimulated by NA (via G protein-coupled α_{1A}Rs)[22]

and ATP (via ionotropic P2X7 receptors)[63], respectively. In particular, the regional differences in

the role of astrocytes has been demonstrated by our previous study in which a selective

chemogenetic stimulation of astrocytes in deeper SDH did not cause mechanical

hypersensitivity[22]. Thus, it is conceivable that locally released adenosine from NA-stimulated

Hes5$^+$ astrocytes, following acute restraint stress, may suppress SDH-Vgat$^+$ IN function, which

results in mechanical pain hypersensitivity. The spatially restricted neuron–astrocyte

communication needs to be investigated in future studies.

In this study, we focused on the mechanisms of mechanical hypersensitivity by acute exposure to

restraint stress. Consistent with a recent study[38], acute restraint stress caused mechanical

hypersensitivity; however, there are also reports showing a reduction in behavioral responses to

thermal or mechanical stimuli upon exposure to similar restraint stress[33,35]. A precise explanation

for the bidirectional outcomes remains elusive. However, it is widely recognized that the extent

and direction of pain modulation may be due to the nature, duration, and intensity of the

stressor[33,34]. Indeed, while acute and short-term exposure (≤1 hour) to restraint stress induces

mechanical pain hypersensitivity, longer exposure (2 hours) failed to exhibit the behavioral

response (Figure S1). It has also been reported that behavioral response to nociceptive thermal

stimuli is suppressed by a 2-hour exposure to restraint stress[16]. Thus, descending $LC^{\rightarrow SDH}$-NA

neurons, $Hes5^{+}$ SDH astrocytes, or their output signals may be attenuated by unidentified

inhibitory signals evoked by longer exposure to restraint stress. In addition, a similar bidirectional

behavioral outcome on mechanical pain has also been observed with intrathecal NA; low doses of

NA induce mechanical pain hypersensitivity while higher doses do not[22]. Thus, the bidirectional

change may depend on the level of NA neuronal activity and NA content in the SDH, which is

supported by a previous report[64].

Clinically, stressor-evoked psychological and physical responses are considered critical for the

development of chronic pain[36], especially nociplastic pain, a condition that arises from altered

nociceptive signaling without actual or threatened tissue damage, or disease or lesion of the

somatosensory system[37]. In fact, patients with chronic pain have a high incidence of stress-related

psychiatric disorders, such as anxiety, fear, and depression[11,65]; stressful life events are known to

be a key factor in establishing fibromyalgia and enhance pain in patients with irritable bowel

syndrome and headaches[37]. Thus, our findings provide a mechanistic insight into the link between

stress and pain modulation and may help in understanding and developing a new strategy for

chronic pain, including nociplastic pain.

Methods

Animals: Male C57BL/6J mice (CLEA Japan), male and female *NET-Cre* mice [Tg(*Slc6a2-*

cre)#Stl] (kindly provided by Prof. Thomas McHugh, RIKEN Center for Brain Science)[39], *Hes5-*

CreERT2 mice [Tg(*Hes5-cre/ERT2*)*2Vtlr*] (kindly provided by Prof. Verdon Taylor)[66],

*Adra1a*flox/flox mice[22], *Vgat-Ires-Cre* mice [*Slc32a1*tm2(cre)Lowl/J] (Stock No: 016962, The Jackson

Laboratory)[67], and *Rosa26-tdTomato* mice [B6.Cg-*Gt(ROSA)26Sor*tm14(CAG-tdTomato)Hze/J] (Stock No:

007914, The Jackson Laboratory)[68] were used. To generate *Hes5-CreERT2*;*Adra1a*flox/flox mice[22]

or *Vgat-Cre*;*Adra1a*flox/flox mice[16], *Adra1a*flox/flox mice were crossed with *Hes5-CreERT2* mice or

Vgat-Ires-Cre (*Vgat-Cre*) mice, and the obtained *Hes5-CreERT2*;*Adra1a*flox/+ mice or *Vgat-*

Cre;*Adra1a*flox/+ mice were further crossed with *Adra1a*flox/flox mice. Cre-negative *Adra1a*flox/flox

littermate mice were used as controls. For induction of CreERT2 recombinase activity, *Hes5-*

CreERT2 mice were given an intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection of tamoxifen (#T5648, Sigma-

Aldrich; 2 mg dissolved in 100 μl corn oil [#032-17016; Wako, Saitama, Japan]) once a day for

5–10 successive days. We used tamoxifen-injected mice for further analyses 7 days or more after

the last injection. All mice used were 8–12 weeks of age at the start of each experiment and were

housed at temperature and humidity ranges of 21–23°C and 40–60%, respectively, with a 12-hour

light-dark cycle. All animals were fed food and water ad libitum. All animals were housed in

standard polycarbonate cages in groups of same-sex littermates. All animal experiments were

conducted according to relevant national and international guidelines contained in the 'Act on

Welfare and Management of Animals' (Ministry of Environment of Japan) and 'Regulation of

Laboratory Animals' (Kyushu University) and under the protocols approved by the Institutional

Animal Care and Use committee review panels at Kyushu University.

Restraint stress model: According to the methods described in our previous study[16], mice were

restrained by placing them in a Falcon® 50-ml conical tube (#352070; Corning) with a hole in the

tip. The space remaining behind the mouse was filled with a paper towel. Mice were allowed to

breathe but not turn around. Control mice were handled briefly and placed in home cages without

water or food for 1 hour.

Measurement of behavioral response to mechanical stimuli using von Frey filaments: Mice

were placed individually in an opaque plastic cylinder, which was placed on a wire mesh, and

habituated for 0.5–1 hour to allow acclimatization to the new environment. After that, calibrated

von Frey filaments (0.02–2.0 g; #NC12775; North Coast Medical) were applied to the plantar

surface of the hindpaw of mice from below the mesh floor. 50% paw withdrawal threshold was

calculated using the up-down method[69]. The basal mechanical threshold was determined by

performing von Frey test before restraint stress exposure, AAV microinjection, DTX

administration, optogenetic stimulation, intrathecal injection of several drugs and tamoxifen

administration. Mechanical sensitivity was evaluated at 30, 60, 90, 120 and 180 min after restraint

stress or optogenetic stimulation, or at 30 min after intrathecal injection of NA or Phe.

Recombinant AAV (rAAV) vector production: pAAV-CAG-flex[GCaMP6s]-WPRE

(#100842) and pAAV-synapsin (Syn)-flex[ChrimsonR-tdTomato]-WPRE (#62723) were

purchased from Addgene. The genes encoding GCaMP6m (#40754; Addgene), Cre, and

$GRAB_{NE1m}$ (#123308; Addgene) were subcloned into the pENTR plasmid (Thermo Fisher

Scientific). To produce AAV vectors, we inserted GCaMP6m and $GRAB_{NE1m}$ into pZac2.1-

gfaABC$_1$D-WPRE plasmid and Cre into pZac2.1-enhanced synapsin (ESYN)-WPRE plasmid. To

produce the AAV vector for the Cre-switch system, vectors containing the promoters encoding

EF1α were generated from pAAV-CA-FLEX (#38042; Addgene) by substituting the promoter.

We then inserted AcGFP, DTR-EGFP (kindly provided by Prof. Kenji Kohno, Nara Institute of

Science and Technology), mCherry and hM3Dq (#45547; Addgene) into pAAV-EF1α-FLEX.

The genes encoding U6-sgRNA (#61593; Addgene) and SaCas9 (#78601; Addgene) were

subcloned into the pENTR plasmid. Synthetic oligonucleotides including the targeting sequence

for *Adora1* (5'-AAGTTCCGGGTCACCTTTCTG-3') and non-targeting sequence (5'-

CCATGTGATCGCGCTTCTCGT-3') were replaced with the targeting site in the original

pENTR-U6-sgBsa1 plasmid. The resulting U6-sgRNA cassette was transferred into pAAV-

CMV-flex[mCherry]-WPRE plasmid to generate pAAV-CMV-flex[mCherry]-WPRE-U6-

sgAdora1/sgYFP (sgControl). The SaCas9 cassette was transferred into pAAV-CMV-flex-WPRE

plasmid to generate pAAV-CMV-flex[SaCas9]-WPRE. rAAV vectors were produced from

human embryonic kidney 293T (HEK293T) cells with triple transfection [pZac or pAAV, cis

plasmid; pAAV2/5 (University of Pennsylvania Gene Therapy Program Vector Core), pAAV2/9

(University of Pennsylvania Gene Therapy Program Vector Core) or pAAV2/retro (#81070;

Addgene), trans plasmid; pAd DeltaF6, adenoviral helper plasmid (University of Pennsylvania

Gene Therapy Program Vector Core)] and purified by two cesium chloride density gradient

purification steps. The vector was dialyzed against phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) containing

0.001% (v/v) Pluronic-F68 (#24040032; Thermo Fisher Scientific) using Vivaspin Turbo 15

100,000 MWCO (#VS15T41; Sartorius). The genome titer of rAAV was determined by Pico

Green fluorometric reagent (#P7589; Thermo Fisher Scientific) following denaturation of the

AAV particles. Vector were stored at −80°C until use.

Intra-SDH and intra-LC injection of rAAV vectors: Viral injection was performed in

accordance with our previously described method[22,70]. Mice were deeply anesthetized by

subcutaneous injection of ketamine (100 mg/kg) and xylazine (10 mg/kg). For intra-SDH

injection, the skin was incised at Th11–L4 vertebrae, and custom-made clamps were attached to

the caudal sites of the vertebral column. Paraspinal muscles around the left side of the interspace

between Th13 and L1 vertebrae were removed, and the dura mater and arachnoid membrane were

carefully incised using the tip of a 30-G needle to make a small window allowing a glass

microcapillary to insert directly into the SDH. The microcapillary was inserted into the unilateral

SDH (around 120–150 μm in depth from the surface of the dorsal root entry zone). rAAV

solutions (approximately 500 nl) were injected using a Micro4 Micro Syringe Pump Controller

(World Precision Instrument). After microinjection, the glass microcapillary was removed, the

skin was sutured with 5-0 silk, and the mice were kept on a heating pad until recovery. For intra-

LC injection, rAAV solutions were injected (approximately 300 nl in one site) adjacent to the LC

(anteroposterior (AP): −5.4 mm from the bregma; mediolateral (ML): ±0.9 mm; dorsoventral

(DV): −3.2 mm from the dura). Only AAV2/9-CAG-flex[GCaMP6s]-WPRE was injected

unilaterally, and the other AAV vectors were injected bilaterally. To keep the bregma and lambda

in the same horizontal plane, tolerance was maintained at <50 μm in the dorsoventral axis

between the bregma/lambda. The microcapillary was withdrawn 3 min after ending the injection.

The skin was then sutured with 5-0 silk, and the mice were kept on a heating pad until recovery.

We used virus-injected mice for further analyses 3 weeks or more after the last injection. The

following viral titers were used: AAV2/9-CAG-flex[GCaMP6s]-WPRE, AAV2/9-gfaABC$_1$D-

GCaMP6m-WPRE, AAV2/9-EF1α-flex[AcGFP]-WPRE (for *NET-Cre* mice), AAV2/9-EF1α-

flex[DTR-EGFP]-WPRE (for *NET-Cre* mice), AAV2/9-EF1α-flex[mCherry], AAV2/9-hSyn-

flex[ChrimsonR-tdTomato], AAV2/9-gfaABC$_1$D-GRAB$_{NE1m}$-WPRE, AAV2/5-EF1α-

flex[hM3Dq] and AAV2/9-CMV-flex[SaCas9]-WPRE: 1.0×10^{12} genome copies (GC)/ml;

AAV2/retro-ESYN-Cre-WPRE: 3.0×10^{12} GC/ml; AAV2/9-EF1α-flex[AcGFP] (for WT mice)

and AAV2/9-EF1α-flex[DTR-EGFP]-WPRE (for WT mice): 2.0×10^{12} GC/ml; AAV2/9-CMV-

flex[mcherry]-WPRE-U6-sgYFP and AAV2/9-CMV-flex[mcherry]-WPRE-U6-sgAdora1: $0.5 \times$

10^{12} GC/ml.

Immunohistochemistry: Mice were deeply anesthetized with an i.p. injection of pentobarbital

and transcardially perfused with PBS (#041-20211; Wako, Saitama, Japan) followed by ice-cold

4% paraformaldehyde (PFA; #162-16065; Wako, Saitama, Japan)/PBS. The transverse L4

segments of the spinal cord and brain were removed, postfixed in the same fixative for 3 hours

(spinal cord) or overnight (brain) at 4°C, and placed in 30% sucrose solution for 24–48 hours at

4°C. After incubation, the tissues were embedded in OCT compound (#4583; Sakura Finetek

Japan, Osaka, Japan) and stored at −25°C before use. Transverse spinal cord and brain sections

(30 μm) were incubated in blocking solution (3% normal goat serum [#S-1000; Vector

Laboratories] or normal donkey serum [#017-000-121; Jackson ImmunoResearch]) for 2 hours at

room temperature and then incubated for 48 hours at 4°C with primary antibodies: polyclonal

rabbit anti-tyrosine hydroxylase (TH; 1:1000; #AB152; Millipore); polyclonal sheep anti-TH

(1:1000; #AB1542; Millipore); monoclonal mouse anti-noradrenaline transporter (NET; 1:2000;

#NET05-2; Mab Technologies); polyclonal rabbit anti-green fluorescent protein (GFP; 1:1000;

#598; MBL International); monoclonal rabbit anti-hemagglutinin (HA)-tag (1:1000; #3724; Cell

Signaling); monoclonal rat anti-glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP; 1:2000; #13-0300;

Invitrogen); polyclonal goat anti-SRY-related high-mobility group box 9 (SOX9; 1:1000; #

AF3075; R&D Systems); polyclonal goat anti-paired box 2 (PAX2; 1:500; # AF3364; R&D

Systems); monoclonal rat anti-mCherry (1:2000; #M11217; Thermo Fisher Scientific); polyclonal

rabbit anti-phospho-p44/42 MAPK (ERK1/2) (Thr202/Tyr204) (pERK; 1:500; #9101; Cell

Signaling); anti-isolectin B4 (IB4)-biotin conjugate (1:1000; # I21414; Thermo Fisher Scientific).

After incubation, tissue sections were washed and incubated for 3 h at room temperature with

secondary antibodies (Alexa Fluor™ 488, 546 and/or 555; #A11001, A11008, A11035, A11056,

A11081, S32351; Thermo Fisher Scientific: #ab150178; Abcam: DyLight™ 405; #705-475-147;

Jackson ImmunoResearch). Then, tissue sections were washed, slide mounted, and subsequently

placed under coverslips with VECTASHIELD Hardmount (Vector Laboratories).

Immunofluorescence images were obtained with confocal laser microscopy (#LSM700; Carl

Zeiss).

Fiber photometry: Immediately after microinjection of AAV vectors encoding GCaMPs, the

mice were implanted with an optic cannula. Cannulae were purchased from RWD (#R-FOC-

BL400C-50NA, ø1.25 mm ferrule, ø400 μm optic fiber, 0.50 NA). The length of the optic fiber

protruding from the tip of the ferrule was 4.0 mm. Optic cannula was implanted in the unilateral

LC (AP: −5.4 mm from the bregma; ML: 0.9 mm; DV: −3.0 mm from the dura). Next, the

cannula was secured using two types of dental glues (Super-bond; Sun Medical, Shiga, Japan:

UNIFAST III; GC, Tokyo, Japan). After implantation, the skin was sutured with 5-0 silk, and the

mice were kept on a heating pad until recovery. We used cannula-implanted mice for fiber

photometry 3 weeks or more after the surgery. GCaMP fluorescent signals were obtained with the

fiber photometry apparatus from Doric Lenses, which includes a fiber photometry console

(FPC_V6), a 415-nm LED illumination (CLED_415), a 465-nm LED illumination (CLED_465),

an LED driver (LEDD_2), and a fluorescence mini cube with built-in fluorescence photodetector

amplifier (iFMC4-G2_IE(410-420)_E(460–490)_F(500–550)_S). A 415-nm light was modulated

at 208 Hz, while a 465-nm light was modulated at 572 Hz. The optic cannula implanted in mice

and fluorescence mini cube were connected by a low-autofluorescence patch cable (#MAF1L1;

Thorlabs). The power output at the fiber tip was 30–40 µW. After connecting to the patch cable,

the mice were allowed to move freely in the home cage for at least 10 min for habituation. After

habituation, fluorescence recording was started. Emitted signals from the tissue were collected

through the same fiber and sampled at 12 kHz.

Processing and analysis of fiber photometry data: To avoid the effects of photobleaching, data

from the first 5 min of recording were discarded. The raw data were then decimated to 30 Hz

(down-sampled by 400) and low-pass Butterworth-filtered at 2 Hz. The 415-nm excitation

channel served as an isosbestic, Ca^{2+}-independent control wavelength for GCaMP, allowing for

bleaching and movement artifact corrections when directly fitted to the Ca^{2+}-dependent 465-nm

channel. The Correction Baseline function from Doric Neuroscience Studio (Doric Lenses) was

used to fit the 415-nm signal to the 465-nm signal using an adaptive iterative re-weighted

Penalized Least Squares algorithm[71]. The fluorescence change was expressed as a relative

change, $\Delta F/F = (F_{465}-F_{415})/F_{415}$, where F_{465} is the 465 nm-induced Ca^{2+}-dependent signal, and

F_{415} is the 415 nm-induced Ca^{2+}-independent signal. Robust Z-scores were then calculated as Z =

$(\Delta F/F-$Median $\Delta F/F)$/NIQR, where Median $\Delta F/F$ is the median of $\Delta F/F$ during the entire

measurement period, and NIQR is the normalized interquartile range (0.7413 × interquartile

range). Ca^{2+} events were detected with a threshold of Z-score >3. The frequency of Ca^{2+} events

was calculated as the number of Ca^{2+} events per minute in the 10 min before stress, 60 min during

stress (10 min × 6 times), and 10 min after stress.

Drug administration: To ablate DTR$^+$ neurons, DTX (10 µg/kg in PBS; #048-34371; Wako,

Saitama, Japan) was administered i.p. for two successive days 3 weeks after intra-LC injection of

AAV2/9-EF1α-flex[DTR-EGFP] or [AcGFP]-WPRE. We used DTX-injected mice for further

analyses 2 weeks or more after the last injection. For intrathecal injection, a 30-G needle attached

to a Hamilton microsyringe was inserted between the L5/L6 vertebrae and then punctured

through the dura. The following drugs and doses were used for intrathecal injection experiments:

silodosin (3 nmol in 5 µl PBS; #191-17591; Wako, Saitama, Japan; injection was given 30 min

before optogenetic stimulation); L-norepinephrine hydrochloride (0.1 nmol in 5 µl saline;

#74480; Sigma-Aldrich); 5,7-dichlorokynurenic acid (DCK; 10 nmol in 5 µl saline of 2%

dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO); #0286; Tocris; injection was given immediately before the start of

exposure to restraint stress); (R)-(-)-phenylephrine hydrochloride (Phe; 0.05 nmol in 5 µl saline;

#163-11791; Wako, Saitama, Japan); 8-cyclopentyl-1,3-dimethylxanthine (CPT; 3 nmol in 5 µl

saline of 2% DMSO; #C102; Sigma-Aldrich; injection was given immediately before the start of

exposure to restraint stress or 30 min before intrathecal injection of NA).

***In vivo* optogenetic stimulation:** Immediately after microinjection of AAV vectors encoding

ChrimsonR, mice were implanted with an optic cannula. A cannula comprised a ceramic ferrule

(#CFLC230-10; Thorlabs; ø1.25 mm, 6.4 mm length) and an optic fiber (#FT200UMT; Thorlabs;

ø200 µm, 0.39 NA). The length of the optic fiber protruding from the tip of the ferrule was less

than 0.3 mm. The vertebrae were immobilized in place using a metal bar along the Th12–L1. A

small laminectomy was performed through the Th13 bone using a dental drill. The cannula was

secured above the dura mater using two types of dental glues (Super-bond; Sun Medical:

UNIFAST III; GC). In this procedure, the dura mater and spinal cord parenchyma were left intact

and unscathed. After implantation, the skin was sutured with 5-0 silk, and the mice were kept on a

heating pad until recovery. We used cannula-implanted mice for optogenetic stimulation 3 weeks

or more after the surgery. To activate ChrimsonR in $LC^{\rightarrow SDH}$-NA axons/terminals, 625-nm LED

light (#M625F2; Thorlabs) was delivered through a ferrule patch cable (#M83L01; Thorlabs).

Light stimulations (2 mW, 10 Hz, 5-ms pulse duration, 5-s light on, 15-s light off, 10 cycles) were

generated by an LED driver (#LEDD_2; Doric Lenses).

Fluorescent Ca^{2+} and NA imaging in spinal cord slices: Fluorescent imaging was performed in

accordance with our previously described method[22]. GCaMP6m- and GRAB$_{NE1m}$-expressing mice

were anesthetized with an i.p. injection of urethane (1.2–1.5 mg/kg), and lumbosacral

laminectomy was performed. The spinal cord (L1–S2) was removed and placed in a cold, high-

sucrose, artificial cerebrospinal (aCSF) fluid (27 mM $NaHCO_3$, 1.4 mM NaH_2PO_4, 2.5 mM KCl,

7.0 mM $MgSO_4$, 1.0 mM $CaCl_2$, 222 mM sucrose, and 0.5 mM ascorbic acid), which was bubbled

with 95% O_2 and 5% CO_2. After cutting all ventral and dorsal roots, transverse L4 spinal cord

slices (350 µm thick) were made using a vibrating microtome (#VT1200; Leica); the slices were

kept in oxygenated aCSF solution (125 mM NaCl, 1.25 mM NaH_2PO_4, 2.5 mM KCl, 1.0 mM

$MgCl_2$, 2.0 mM $CaCl_2$, 26 mM $NaHCO_3$, and 20 mM glucose) at room temperature (22–25°C) for

at least 30 min before use. The slices were placed in a recording chamber, and fluorescent signals

were measured using a confocal laser scanning microscope (#FV3000; Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

The chamber was perfused with aCSF saturated with 95% O_2 and 5% CO_2 at 31–32°C and at 2–3

ml/min using peristaltic pumps. A 488-nm diode laser was used for the excitation of GCaMP6m

and GRAB$_{NE1m}$. The size of the image was 509 × 509 μm^2 (512 × 512 pixels). The recordings

were acquired at a rate of 1.083 s per image. Light stimulations (1 mW, 10 Hz, 5-ms pulse

duration, 1–20 s) were generated by an LED driver (#LEDD_2; Doric Lenses) and delivered

through an optic fiber (Thorlabs, FT200UMT, ø200 μm, 0.39 NA). For an experiment on α$_{1A}$R

inhibition, optogenetic stimulations (10 s) were performed twice (at least 15-min apart) in the

same slice. Silodosin (40 nM in aCSF) was continuously applied by bath application starting 5

min before the onset of 2nd optogenetic stimulation. After optogenetic stimulation, NA (1 or 10

μM in aCSF) was applied by bath application as the positive control.

Processing and analysis of Ca^{2+} and NA imaging data: Videos were imported into ImageJ Fiji

(https://imagej.net/software/fiji/), and motion artifacts were corrected using TurboReg[72]. The

fluorescence change was expressed as a relative percentage change, $\Delta F/F = 100 \times (F_t - F_0)/F_0$,

where F_t is the fluorescence at time t, and F_0 is the baseline average for 30 frames before the start

of stimulation. For Ca^{2+} imaging using GCaMP, the size of each region of interest (ROI) was set

to a circle with a diameter of 10 μm[22]. ROIs were manually identified based on the following

criteria: located within 200 μm from the surface of gray matter and ≥30% $\Delta F/F$ fluorescence

change after optogenetic stimulation or NA application. For the experiment on α$_{1A}$R inhibition,

normalized $\Delta F/F$ was calculated as ($\Delta F/F$ in 2nd stimulation)/($\Delta F/F$ in 1st stimulation). For NA

imaging using GRAB$_{NE1m}$, the raw image was binarized, and a single ROI was detected from such

a binarized image with the following parameters: contiguous pixel number >100 and

$0 < \text{circularity} < 1$[64]. Calculation of $\Delta F/F$ in ROIs was performed using the Time Series Analyzer

V3 plugin in ImageJ.

Whole-cell patch-clamp recordings using spinal cord slices: According to our previously

described method[16], mice were deeply anesthetized with urethane (1.2–1.5 mg/kg, i.p.), and the

lumbar spinal cord was removed and placed in a cold high-sucrose aCSF (250 mM sucrose, 2.5

mM KCl, 2 mM CaCl$_2$, 2 mM MgCl$_2$, 1.2 mM NaH$_2$PO$_4$, 25 mM NaHCO$_3$, and 11 mM glucose).

Parasagittal and transverse spinal cord slices (250–300 μm thick) were made with a vibrating

microtome (VT1200, Leica) and then the slices kept in oxygenated aCSF solution (125 mM

NaCl, 2.5 mM KCl, 2 mM CaCl$_2$, 1 mM MgCl$_2$, 1.25 mM NaH$_2$PO$_4$, 26 mM NaHCO$_3$, and 20

mM glucose) at room temperature (22–25°C) for at least 30 min. The spinal cord slice was then

put into a recording chamber, where it was continuously superfused with aCSF solution at 25–

28°C at a flow rate of 4–6 ml/min. Recordings were made with the Axopatch 700B amplifier and

pCLAMP 10.4 acquisition software (Molecular Devices). Data were digitized with an analog-to-

digital converter (Digidata 1550; Molecular Devices), stored on a personal computer with a data

acquisition program (ClampeX version 10.4; Molecular Devices), and analyzed with a software

package (Clampfit version 10.7; Molecular Devices). Spontaneous inhibitory postsynaptic

currents (sIPSCs) were recorded in the voltage-clamp mode at a holding potential of 0 mV. Patch

pipettes were filled with an internal solution (120 mM $CsMeSO_4$, 15 mM CsCl, 10 mM HEPES,

5 mM QX-314, 4 mM MgATP, 0.3 mM Na_2GTP, 0.2 mM EGTA, 10 mM TEA-Cl and 8 mM

NaCl [pH 7.28] adjusted with CsOH), and whole-cell patch-clamp recordings were made from

SG neurons. Resting membrane potentials (RMPs) were recorded in current-clamp mode. Patch

pipettes were filled with an internal solution (125 mM K-gluconate, 10 mM KCl, 0.5 mM EGTA,

10 mM HEPES, 4 mM ATP-Mg, 0.3 mM NaGTP, 10 mM phosphocreatine, pH 7.28 adjusted

with KOH), and whole-cell patch-clamp recordings were made from tdTomato[+] or mCherry[+]

neurons. The following drugs were used: NA (20 µM; #74480; Sigma-Aldrich), clozapine-N-

oxide (CNO; 100 µM; #BML-NS105; Enzo Life Sciences), CPT (1 µM), N6-

Cyclopentyladenosine (CPA; 1 µM; #119135; Sigma-Aldrich), CNQX disodium salt hydrate

(CNQX; 10 µM; #C239; Sigma-Aldrich), (+)-MK-801 hydrogen maleate (MK-801; 20 µM;

#M107; Sigma-Aldrich), 1(S), 9(R)-(-)-bicuculline methiodide (10 µM; #14340; Sigma-Aldrich)

and strychnine (1 µM; #S0532; Sigma-Aldrich). All drugs were dissolved in aCSF solution. CNO

was superfused for 3 min. Bath application of CPT was continuously superfused from 4 min

before CNO application. NA was superfused with an antagonist cocktail (CNQX, MK-801,

bicuculline and strychnine) for 3–5 min. If the recording neuron was depolarized by NA

perfusion, then CPA was co-perfused with NA and an antagonist cocktail for 3 min. The

frequency of sIPSCs for 1 min of pre- and post-NA application were quantified using Clampfit

version 10.7 (Molecular Devices). We quantified averaged RMP for 1 min of pre- and post-drug

application, and a change in RMP (ΔRMP) of 5 mV or more was judged to be depolarization or

hyperpolarization.

In situ **hybridization:** Mice were deeply anesthetized with an i.p. injection of pentobarbital and

transcardially perfused with PBS followed by ice-cold 4% PFA/PBS. The L4 spinal cord was

removed and postfixed in the same fixative 24 hours at 4°C. After that, tissues were incubated

with 10%, 20% and 30% sucrose solutions at 4°C, embedded in OCT compound, and stored at

−25°C before use. The L4 segments were sectioned at a thickness of 14 µm. *In situ* hybridization

was performed using RNAscope® Multiplex Fluorescent Reagent Kit v2 (#323100; ACDbio),

according to the manufacture's protocol for fixed frozen tissue. The following probes were used:

Mm-Adora1 (#402261; ACDbio); Mm-Slc32a1-C3 (#319191-C3; ACDbio). Tissue sections were

582 analyzed using an LSM700 Imaging System. Cells were considered positive if three or more

583 punctate dots were present in the nucleus and/or cytoplasm[14].

584 **Electrical stimulation of Aβ fibers and counting of pERK$^+$ neurons in the SDH:** After

585 exposure to 1-hour restraint stress, mice were deeply anesthetized with an i.p. injection of

586 urethane (1.2–1.5 mg/kg). Thirty min after stress, Aβ fiber stimulation was performed. The

587 electrodes were attached to the plantar and dorsal surfaces of the left hindpaw. Transcutaneous

588 nerve stimuli were applied using a stimulus generator (#STG4002-16 mA; Multi Channel

589 Systems). The current intensity of the 2,000-Hz stimuli was 1,000 μA[52]. Mice were fixed at 2 min

590 after electrical stimulation. For quantification of pERK$^+$ cells, three sections from the L4 spinal

591 cord segments were randomly selected from each mouse, and the number of pERK$^+$ neurons in

592 the superficial laminae I–IIi (defined by staining of IB4) was counted. Consistent with a previous

593 study[52], we confirmed that electrical stimulation of Aδ and C fibers, but not Aβ fibers, induced

594 ERK phosphorylation in SDH neurons (data not shown).

595 **Statistical analysis:** Statistical analyses were performed using Prism (GraphPad). Quantitative

596 data were expressed as the mean ± SEM. Statistical significance of differences was determined by

597 using two-tailed paired *t*-test (Figure. S1), Mann-Whitney test (Figure. 2F), Wilcoxon signed-

598 rank test (Figure. 3L and 3N), Friedman test with Dunn's multiple comparisons test (Figure. 1E

599 and 2E), one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test (Figure. 2C), one-way

600 ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test (Figure. 4F) and repeated measures two-way

601 ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test (Figure. 1B, 1H, 1K, 1N, 2G, 2H, 2I, 2J,

602 3A, 3B, 3C, 4A, 4B, 4C and 4D). P values are indicated as *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$,

603 ****$P < 0.0001$.

Acknowledgments: We would like to thank Editage for editing a draft of this manuscript, and the

University of Pennsylvania vector core for providing pZac2.1, pAAV2/5, pAAV2/9 and pAd

DeltaF6 plasmid. Some figure elements were created with BioRender.com. This work was

supported by Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) KAKENHI Grants JP19H05658

(M.T.), JP20H05900 (M.T.) and JP24H00067 (M.T.), by the Core Research for Evolutional

Science and Technology (CREST) program from AMED under Grant Number 24gm1510013h

(M.T.), and by Research Support Project for Life Science and Drug Discovery (Basis for

Supporting Innovative Drug Discovery and Life Science Research (BINDS)) from AMED under

Grant Number JP24ama121031 (M.T.). R.K-K., S.U., and K.Y. were JSPS research fellows

(JP22KJ2471, JP23KJ1729, and JP19J21063, respectively).

Author contributions:

Conceptualization: MT

Formal analysis: RKK, SU, KY

Funding acquisition: RKK, SU, KY, MT

Investigation: RKK, SU, KY, DK

Methodology: RKK, SU, KY, KM, KFT

Project administration: MT

Resources: TM, IH

Supervision: MT

Visualization: RKK, SU, MT

Writing–original draft: RKK, SU, KY, MT

Writing–review and editing: RKK, SU, MT

Declaration of interests: The authors declare no competing interests.

Data and materials availability: All data associated with this study are present in the paper or

the Supplemental Information.

Figure 1. LC→SDH-NA neurons mediate stress-induced mechanical hypersensitivity.

(A) Schematic illustration of an experiment to investigate the effects of acute exposure to restraint stress (1

hour) on mechanosensory behavior in mice, using von Frey (vF) filaments. (B) Change in paw withdrawal

threshold (PWT) measured by vF filaments in wild-type mice after restraint stress (n = 6 mice per group;

two-way ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test; *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P <

0.001, ****P <0.0001 vs. no-restraint stress group). (C) Expression of GCaMP6s (GC; green) in the LC at

3 weeks after intra-LC injection of AAV-flex[GCaMP6s] in *NET-Cre* mice. TH immunofluorescence is

shown in magenta. Dashed line indicates the location of the implanted optic fiber. Scale bar, 100 μm. (D

and E) Representative traces and change in the frequency of GCaMP6s signals in LC-NA neurons ($n = 6$ mice; Friedman test with post hoc Dunn's multiple comparisons test; **$P < 0.01$ vs. the data of 'Before'). Traces shown at the top, middle, and bottom (D) indicate Ca^{2+} signals before, during, and after restraint stress, respectively. (F) Schematic illustration of the strategy of ablating LC-NA neurons using AAV vectors incorporating DTR (fused with EGFP) injected into the LC in *NET-Cre* mice. (G) TH immunofluorescence (magenta) and GFP (green) in the LC (left) and NET immunofluorescence (magenta) in the SDH (right) after administration of DTX (10 μg/kg, i.p., two injections 24 h-apart) in control mice (top) and DTR-expressing mice (bottom). Scale bars, 100 μm. (H) Effects of ablation of LC-NA neurons on PWT changes after acute restraint stress ($n = 7$ mice per group; two-way ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test; **$P < 0.01$ vs. control group). (I) Schematic illustration of the strategy of ablating LC$^{\rightarrow SDH}$-NA neurons using a retrograde AAV vector incorporating Cre injected into the SDH and an AAV vector incorporating DTR (fused with EGFP) injected into the LC in wild-type mice. (J) Representative images of LC$^{\rightarrow SDH}$-NA neurons in control or DTR-expressing mice treated with vehicle or DTX administration, respectively. GFP (green) and TH (magenta). Scale bar, 100 μm. (K) Effect of ablation of LC$^{\rightarrow SDH}$-NA neurons on PWT changes after restraint stress ($n = 11$ mice per group; two-way ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test; **$P < 0.01$ vs. control group). (L) Schematic illustration of the strategy for activating LC$^{\rightarrow SDH}$-NA neuronal axons/terminals using an AAV vector incorporating ChrimsonR (fused with tdTomato) injected into the LC in *NET-Cre* mice and of an optic cannula implanted in the SDH. (M) Representative images of TH (green) and tdTomato (magenta) expression in the LC (top) and NET (green) and tdTomato (magenta) expression in the SDH (bottom) at 3 weeks after intra-LC injection of AAV-flex[ChrimsonR-tdTomato] in *NET-Cre* mice. Scale bars, 100 μm (top) and 50 μm (bottom). (N) PWT before and after optogenetic stimulation (opto-stim.) in LC$^{\rightarrow SDH}$-NA axons/terminals (625 nm, 2 mW, 10 Hz, 5-ms pulse duration, 5-s light on, 15-s light off, 10 cycles) (Control, $n = 4$ mice; ChrimsonR, $n = 5$ mice; two-way ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test; ****$P < 0.0001$ vs. control group). Data represent mean ± SEM. See also Figure S1 and S2.

Figure 2. α₁ARs in Hes5⁺ SDH astrocytes are required for stress-induced mechanical hypersensitivity.

(A) Schematic illustration of intra-SDH microinjection of AAV-gfaABC₁D-GRAB_NE1m or -GCaMP6m and

intra-LC microinjection of AAV-flex[ChrimsonR-tdTomato] in *NET-Cre* mice. (B) Representative traces

of GRAB_NE1m signals by fluorescence imaging using spinal cord slices. Each trace represents the

GRAB_NE1m signal before and after optogenetic stimulation (625 nm, 1 mW, 10 Hz, 5 ms pulse duration, 1–

20 s). (C) Quantitative analysis of the peak amplitude of GRAB_NE1m $\Delta F/F$ after optogenetic stimulation in

LC→SDH-NA axons/terminals (n = 4 slices; one-way ANOVA with post hoc Dunnett's multiple

comparisons test; **P < 0.01, ****P <0.0001). (D) Representative traces of astrocytic GCaMP6m signals

by fluorescence imaging using spinal cord slices. Each trace represents the GCaMP6m signal before and

after optogenetic stimulation (as described in B). (E) Quantitative analysis of the peak amplitude of

GCaMP6m $\Delta F/F$ after optogenetic stimulation in LC→SDH-NA axons/terminals (n = 133 cells, 4 slices, 4

mice; Friedman test with post hoc Dunn's multiple comparisons test; ****P <0.0001). (F) Effect of

silodosin (40 nM) on astrocytic Ca²⁺ responses in the SDH after optogenetic stimulation (10 s) in LC→SDH-

NA axons/terminals (Control, n = 83 cells, 4 slices, 4 mice; Silodosin, n = 53 cells, 4 slices, 4 mice; Mann-

Whitney test; ****P <0.0001). (G) Effect of intrathecal silodosin (3 nmol) on mechanical hypersensitivity

induced by optogenetic stimulation in LC→SDH-NA axons/terminals (Vehicle, n = 5 mice; Silodosin, n = 6

mice; two-way ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test; *P < 0.05, ***P < 0.001 vs.

vehicle group). (H) Change in PWT at 30 min after intrathecal injection of NA (0.1 nmol) in control

(*Adra1a*flox/flox) and Hes5⁺ astrocyte-selective α₁AR conditional knockout mice [*Hes5-*

CreERT2;*Adra1a*flox/flox mice treated with tamoxifen (TAM) (Hes5⁺ astrocyte–α₁AR cKO mice) (n = 6 mice

per group; two-way ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test; ****P <0.0001). (I and

J) Stress-induced mechanical hypersensitivity in Hes5⁺ astrocyte–α₁AR cKO mice [I: Control

(*Adra1a*flox/flox), n = 7 mice; Hes5⁺ astrocyte–α₁AR cKO, n = 8 mice] or wild-type mice with intrathecal

DCK (10 nmol) (J: $n = 5$ mice per group) (two-way ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni's multiple

comparisons test; **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$ vs. control or vehicle group). Data represent mean ± SEM.

Figure 3. Activation of Hes5+ astrocytes reduces activity in Vgat+ INs in the SDH.

(A and B) Intrathecal NA (A, 0.1 nmol) or Phe (B, 0.05 nmol)-induced mechanical hypersensitivity in

control (*Adra1a*flox/flox) and Vgat+ IN-selective α1AR conditional knockout mice [*Vgat-Cre;Adra1a*flox/flox

mice (Vgat+ INs–α1AR cKO mice)] (n = 6 mice per group; two-way ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni's

multiple comparisons test; n.s., not significant). (C) Changes in PWT after acute exposure to restraint stress

in control (*Adra1a*flox/flox; *n* = 6 mice) and Vgat+ INs–α1AR cKO mice (*n* = 9 mice) (two-way ANOVA with

post hoc Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test). (D) Representative trace of membrane potentials in

tdTomato+ (Vgat+) SDH neurons after application of NA (20 μM) to spinal cord slices from *Vgat-*

Cre;Rosa-tdTomato mice. A1R agonist CPA (1 μM) was co-applied with NA. (E) Percentage of Vgat+ SDH

neurons whose NA-evoked response was inhibited by CPA (*n* = 10 cells from 7 mice). (F) Representative

images of *Adora1* (A1R) mRNA expression (green) in *Slc32a1* (Vgat)+ INs (magenta). DAPI staining is

shown in gray. Arrowheads indicate A1R-expressing Vgat+ cells. Scale bar, 25 μm. (G) SaCas9 (yellow,

detected by HA-tag) and mCherry (magenta) expression in the PAX2+ INs (cyan) at 3 weeks after intra-

SDH injection of AAV-flex[SaCas9] and AAV-flex[mCherry]-U6-sgAdora1 in *Vgat-Cre* mice.

Arrowheads indicate genome-editing Vgat+ cells. Scale bar, 25 μm. (H) Representative traces of membrane

potentials in Vgat+ INs after application of NA and CPA to spinal cord slices from *Vgat-Cre* mice with

conditional knockdown of A_1Rs in *Vgat*[+] INs (SDH-Vgat[+] IN–A_1R cKD) and their controls (Control; *Vgat-*

Cre mice with intra-SDH injection of AAV-flex[mCherry]). (I) Percentage of mCherry[+] (Vgat[+]) SDH

neurons whose NA-evoked response was inhibited by CPA (Control, $n = 10$ cells from 8 mice; SDH-Vgat[+]

IN–A_1R cKD, $n = 8$ cells from 5 mice). (J) Expression of hM3Dq (green, detected by HA-tag) in the SDH

at 3 weeks after intra-SDH injection of AAV-flex[hM3Dq] in *Hes5-CreERT2* mice treated with TAM.

Dashed line indicates an outline of the gray matter of SDH. GFAP (magenta, bottom left), SOX9 (magenta,

bottom right). Arrowheads indicate HA-tag[+] astrocytes. Scale bars, 200 μm (top) and 25 μm (bottom). (K

and L) Representative traces of sIPSCs (K) and quantitative analysis of their frequency (L) in SG neurons

in spinal cord slices from *Hes5-CreERT2*;AAV-hM3Dq mice treated with TAM [Pre and CNO: before and

after bath application of CNO (100 μM), respectively] ($n = 7$ cells from 7 mice; Wilcoxon signed-rank test;

*$P < 0.05$). (M and N) Representative traces of sIPSCs (M) and quantitative analysis of their frequency (N)

in SG neurons in spinal cord slices from *Hes5-CreERT2*;AAV-flex[hM3Dq] mice treated with TAM [Pre

and CNO: before and after bath application of CNO with CPT (1 μM), respectively] ($n = 13$ cells from 13

mice; Wilcoxon signed-rank test; n.s., not significant). Data represent mean ± SEM.

Figure 4. Hes5^{+} astrocyte-mediated inhibitory signals to SDH-Vgat[+] INs contribute to stress-induced mechanical hypersensitivity.

(A and B) PWT before and 30 min after intrathecal administration of NA (0.1 nmol) in wild-type mice pretreated intrathecally with vehicle or CPT (3 nmol) (A: $n = 5$ mice per group) or in control (*Vgat-Cre* mice with intra-SDH of AAV-flex[mCherry]) and SDH-Vgat[+] IN–A_1R cKD mice (B: $n = 9$ mice per group) (two-way ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test; ***$P < 0.001$). (C and D) PWT before and after acute restraint stress in wild-type mice pretreated intrathecally with vehicle or CPT (C: Vehicle, $n = 6$ mice; CPT, $n = 5$ mice) or in control (*Vgat-Cre* mice with intra-SDH of AAV-flex[mCherry]) and SDH-Vgat[+] IN–A_1R cKD mice (D: Control, $n = 6$ mice; SDH-Vgat[+] IN–A_1R cKD, $n = 7$ mice) (two-way ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test; *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$, ****$P < 0.0001$ vs. vehicle or control group). (E) Representative images of pERK (green) and IB4 (magenta) immunofluorescence in the SDH with or without Aβ fiber stimulation and/or restraint stress. CPT was intrathecally administered 30 min before stress exposure. (F) Quantitative analysis of the number of pERK^{+} cells in superficial laminae of the SDH in each group ($n = 4$–5 mice per group; one-way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey's multiple comparisons test; *$P < 0.05$, ***$P < 0.001$). (G) Schematic illustration of the mechanisms of stress-induced pain facilitation highlighting NA signals from LC[→SDH]-NAergic terminals to Hes5^{+} astrocytes and Vgat[+] INs. Data represent mean ± SEM.

References

746   1.   Todd, A.J. (2010). Neuronal circuitry for pain processing in the dorsal horn. Nat Rev
747   Neurosci *11*, 823-836. 10.1038/nrn2947.
748   2.   Peirs, C., and Seal, R.P. (2016). Neural circuits for pain: Recent advances and current
749   views. Science *354*, 578-584. 10.1126/science.aaf8933.
750   3.   Koch, S.C., Acton, D., and Goulding, M. (2018). Spinal Circuits for Touch, Pain, and
751   Itch. Annu Rev Physiol *80*, 189-217. 10.1146/annurev-physiol-022516-034303.
752   4.   Moehring, F., Halder, P., Seal, R.P., and Stucky, C.L. (2018). Uncovering the Cells and
753   Circuits of Touch in Normal and Pathological Settings. Neuron *100*, 349-360.
754   10.1016/j.neuron.2018.10.019.
755   5.   Peirs, C., Dallel, R., and Todd, A.J. (2020). Recent advances in our understanding of the
756   organization of dorsal horn neuron populations and their contribution to cutaneous
757   mechanical allodynia. J Neural Transm (Vienna) *127*, 505-525. 10.1007/s00702-020-
758   02159-1.
759   6.   Wang, L.H., Ding, W.Q., and Sun, Y.G. (2022). Spinal ascending pathways for
760   somatosensory information processing. Trends Neurosci *45*, 594-607.
761   10.1016/j.tins.2022.05.005.
762   7.   Mercer Lindsay, N., Chen, C., Gilam, G., Mackey, S., and Scherrer, G. (2021). Brain
763   circuits for pain and its treatment. Sci Transl Med *13*, eabj7360.
764   10.1126/scitranslmed.abj7360.
765   8.   Nguyen, E., Grajales-Reyes, J.G., Gereau, R.W.t., and Ross, S.E. (2023). Cell type-
766   specific dissection of sensory pathways involved in descending modulation. Trends
767   Neurosci *46*, 539-550. 10.1016/j.tins.2023.04.002.
768   9.   Yoshimura, M., and Furue, H. (2006). Mechanisms for the anti-nociceptive actions of the
769   descending noradrenergic and serotonergic systems in the spinal cord. J Pharmacol Sci
770   *101*, 107-117. 10.1254/jphs.crj06008x.
771   10.   Llorca-Torralba, M., Borges, G., Neto, F., Mico, J.A., and Berrocoso, E. (2016).
772   Noradrenergic Locus Coeruleus pathways in pain modulation. Neuroscience *338*, 93-113.
773   10.1016/j.neuroscience.2016.05.057.
774   11.   Suárez-Pereira, I., Llorca-Torralba, M., Bravo, L., Camarena-Delgado, C., Soriano-Mas,
775   C., and Berrocoso, E. (2022). The Role of the Locus Coeruleus in Pain and Associated
776   Stress-Related Disorders. Biol Psychiatry *91*, 786-797. 10.1016/j.biopsych.2021.11.023.
777   12.   Li, J., Wei, Y., Zhou, J., Zou, H., Ma, L., Liu, C., Xiao, Z., Liu, X., Tan, X., Yu, T., and
778   Cao, S. (2022). Activation of locus coeruleus-spinal cord noradrenergic neurons
779   alleviates neuropathic pain in mice via reducing neuroinflammation from astrocytes and
780   microglia in spinal dorsal horn. J Neuroinflammation *19*, 123. 10.1186/s12974-022-
781   02489-9.
782   13.   Häring, M., Zeisel, A., Hochgerner, H., Rinwa, P., Jakobsson, J.E.T., Lönnerberg, P., La
783   Manno, G., Sharma, N., Borgius, L., Kiehn, O., et al. (2018). Neuronal atlas of the dorsal
784   horn defines its architecture and links sensory input to transcriptional cell types. Nat
785   Neurosci *21*, 869-880. 10.1038/s41593-018-0141-1.
786   14.   Shiraishi, Y., Koga, K., Yamagata, R., Hatada, I., Shiratori-Hayashi, M., and Tsuda, M.
787   (2021). α1A-adrenaline receptors in dorsal horn inhibitory neurons have an inhibitory
788   role in the regulation of chloroquine-induced itch in mice. Mol Brain *14*, 55.
789   10.1186/s13041-021-00768-9.
790   15.   Baba, H., Goldstein, P.A., Okamoto, M., Kohno, T., Ataka, T., Yoshimura, M., and
791   Shimoji, K. (2000). Norepinephrine facilitates inhibitory transmission in substantia

gelatinosa of adult rat spinal cord (part 2): effects on somatodendritic sites of GABAergic
neurons. Anesthesiology *92*, 485-492. 10.1097/00000542-200002000-00031.

16.   Uchiyama, S., Yoshihara, K., Kawanabe, R., Hatada, I., Koga, K., and Tsuda, M. (2022).
Stress-induced antinociception to noxious heat requires α1A-adrenaline receptors of
spinal inhibitory neurons in mice. Mol Brain *15*, 6. 10.1186/s13041-021-00895-3.

17.   Inoue, K., and Tsuda, M. (2018). Microglia in neuropathic pain: cellular and molecular
mechanisms and therapeutic potential. Nat Rev Neurosci *19*, 138-152.
10.1038/nrn.2018.2.

18.   Ji, R.R., Donnelly, C.R., and Nedergaard, M. (2019). Astrocytes in chronic pain and itch.
Nat Rev Neurosci *20*, 667-685. 10.1038/s41583-019-0218-1.

19.   Tsuda, M., Masuda, T., and Kohno, K. (2023). Microglial diversity in neuropathic pain.
Trends Neurosci *46*, 597-610. 10.1016/j.tins.2023.05.001.

20.   Sekiguchi, K.J., Shekhtmeyster, P., Merten, K., Arena, A., Cook, D., Hoffman, E., Ngo,
A., and Nimmerjahn, A. (2016). Imaging large-scale cellular activity in spinal cord of
freely behaving mice. Nat Commun *7*, 11450. 10.1038/ncomms11450.

21.   Yoshihara, K., Matsuda, T., Kohro, Y., Tozaki-Saitoh, H., Inoue, K., and Tsuda, M.
(2018). Astrocytic Ca(2+) responses in the spinal dorsal horn by noxious stimuli to the
skin. J Pharmacol Sci *137*, 101-104. 10.1016/j.jphs.2018.04.007.

22.   Kohro, Y., Matsuda, T., Yoshihara, K., Kohno, K., Koga, K., Katsuragi, R., Oka, T.,
Tashima, R., Muneta, S., Yamane, T., et al. (2020). Spinal astrocytes in superficial
laminae gate brainstem descending control of mechanosensory hypersensitivity. Nat
Neurosci *23*, 1376-1387. 10.1038/s41593-020-00713-4.

23.   Kawanabe, R., Yoshihara, K., Hatada, I., and Tsuda, M. (2021). Activation of spinal
dorsal horn astrocytes by noxious stimuli involves descending noradrenergic signaling.
Mol Brain *14*, 79. 10.1186/s13041-021-00788-5.

24.   Hertz, L., Lovatt, D., Goldman, S.A., and Nedergaard, M. (2010). Adrenoceptors in
brain: cellular gene expression and effects on astrocytic metabolism and [Ca(2+)]i.
Neurochem Int *57*, 411-420. 10.1016/j.neuint.2010.03.019.

25.   Bazargani, N., and Attwell, D. (2016). Astrocyte calcium signaling: the third wave. Nat
Neurosci *19*, 182-189. 10.1038/nn.4201.

26.   Batiuk, M.Y., Martirosyan, A., Wahis, J., de Vin, F., Marneffe, C., Kusserow, C.,
Koeppen, J., Viana, J.F., Oliveira, J.F., Voet, T., et al. (2020). Identification of region-
specific astrocyte subtypes at single cell resolution. Nat Commun *11*, 1220.
10.1038/s41467-019-14198-8.

27.   Wahis, J., Akkaya, C., Kirunda, A.M., Mak, A., Zeise, K., Verhaert, J., Gasparyan, H.,
Hovhannisyan, S., and Holt, M.G. (2024). The astrocyte α1A-adrenoreceptor is a key
component of the neuromodulatory system in mouse visual cortex. Glia.
10.1002/glia.24591.

28.   Cohen, Z., Molinatti, G., and Hamel, E. (1997). Astroglial and vascular interactions of
noradrenaline terminals in the rat cerebral cortex. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab *17*, 894-
904. 10.1097/00004647-199708000-00008.

29.   Valentino, R.J., and Van Bockstaele, E. (2008). Convergent regulation of locus coeruleus
activity as an adaptive response to stress. Eur J Pharmacol *583*, 194-203.
10.1016/j.ejphar.2007.11.062.

30.   Imbe, H., Okamoto, K., Donishi, T., Kawai, S., Enoki, K., Senba, E., and Kimura, A.
(2009). Activation of ERK in the locus coeruleus following acute noxious stimulation.
Brain Res *1263*, 50-57. 10.1016/j.brainres.2009.01.052.

31.   Chen, F.J., and Sara, S.J. (2007). Locus coeruleus activation by foot shock or electrical
840   stimulation inhibits amygdala neurons. Neuroscience *144*, 472-481.
841   10.1016/j.neuroscience.2006.09.037.
842   32.   McCall, J.G., Al-Hasani, R., Siuda, E.R., Hong, D.Y., Norris, A.J., Ford, C.P., and
843   Bruchas, M.R. (2015). CRH Engagement of the Locus Coeruleus Noradrenergic System
844   Mediates Stress-Induced Anxiety. Neuron *87*, 605-620. 10.1016/j.neuron.2015.07.002.
845   33.   Butler, R.K., and Finn, D.P. (2009). Stress-induced analgesia. Prog Neurobiol *88*, 184-
846   202. 10.1016/j.pneurobio.2009.04.003.
847   34.   Jennings, E.M., Okine, B.N., Roche, M., and Finn, D.P. (2014). Stress-induced
848   hyperalgesia. Prog Neurobiol *121*, 1-18. 10.1016/j.pneurobio.2014.06.003.
849   35.   François, A., Low, S.A., Sypek, E.I., Christensen, A.J., Sotoudeh, C., Beier, K.T.,
850   Ramakrishnan, C., Ritola, K.D., Sharif-Naeini, R., Deisseroth, K., et al. (2017). A
851   Brainstem-Spinal Cord Inhibitory Circuit for Mechanical Pain Modulation by GABA and
852   Enkephalins. Neuron *93*, 822-839.e826. 10.1016/j.neuron.2017.01.008.
853   36.   Abdallah, C.G., and Geha, P. (2017). Chronic Pain and Chronic Stress: Two Sides of the
854   Same Coin? Chronic Stress (Thousand Oaks) *1*, 2470547017704763.
855   10.1177/2470547017704763.
856   37.   Fitzcharles, M.A., Cohen, S.P., Clauw, D.J., Littlejohn, G., Usui, C., and Häuser, W.
857   (2021). Nociplastic pain: towards an understanding of prevalent pain conditions. Lancet
858   *397*, 2098-2110. 10.1016/s0140-6736(21)00392-5.
859   38.   Sousa, F.S.S., Birmann, P.T., Balaguez, R., Alves, D., Brüning, C.A., and Savegnago, L.
860   (2018). α-(phenylselanyl) acetophenone abolishes acute restraint stress induced-comorbid
861   pain, depression and anxiety-related behaviors in mice. Neurochem Int *120*, 112-120.
862   10.1016/j.neuint.2018.08.006.
863   39.   Wagatsuma, A., Okuyama, T., Sun, C., Smith, L.M., Abe, K., and Tonegawa, S. (2018).
864   Locus coeruleus input to hippocampal CA3 drives single-trial learning of a novel context.
865   Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *115*, E310-E316. 10.1073/pnas.1714082115.
866   40.   Mulvey, B., Bhatti, D.L., Gyawali, S., Lake, A.M., Kriaucionis, S., Ford, C.P., Bruchas,
867   M.R., Heintz, N., and Dougherty, J.D. (2018). Molecular and Functional Sex Differences
868   of Noradrenergic Neurons in the Mouse Locus Coeruleus. Cell Rep *23*, 2225-2235.
869   10.1016/j.celrep.2018.04.054.
870   41.   Saito, M., Iwawaki, T., Taya, C., Yonekawa, H., Noda, M., Inui, Y., Mekada, E., Kimata,
871   Y., Tsuru, A., and Kohno, K. (2001). Diphtheria toxin receptor-mediated conditional and
872   targeted cell ablation in transgenic mice. Nat Biotechnol *19*, 746-750. 10.1038/90795.
873   42.   Klapoetke, N.C., Murata, Y., Kim, S.S., Pulver, S.R., Birdsey-Benson, A., Cho, Y.K.,
874   Morimoto, T.K., Chuong, A.S., Carpenter, E.J., Tian, Z., et al. (2014). Independent
875   optical excitation of distinct neural populations. Nat Methods *11*, 338-346.
876   10.1038/nmeth.2836.
877   43.   Feng, J., Zhang, C., Lischinsky, J.E., Jing, M., Zhou, J., Wang, H., Zhang, Y., Dong, A.,
878   Wu, Z., Wu, H., et al. (2019). A Genetically Encoded Fluorescent Sensor for Rapid and
879   Specific In Vivo Detection of Norepinephrine. Neuron *102*, 745-761.e748.
880   10.1016/j.neuron.2019.02.037.
881   44.   Lee, Y., Messing, A., Su, M., and Brenner, M. (2008). GFAP promoter elements required
882   for region-specific and astrocyte-specific expression. Glia *56*, 481-493.
883   10.1002/glia.20622.
884   45.   Nam, Y., Kim, J.H., Jha, M.K., Jung, J.Y., Lee, M.G., Choi, I.S., Jang, I.S., Lim, D.G.,
885   Hwang, S.H., Cho, H.J., and Suk, K. (2016). Reversible Induction of Pain
886   Hypersensitivity following Optogenetic Stimulation of Spinal Astrocytes. Cell Rep *17*,
887   3049-3061. 10.1016/j.celrep.2016.11.043.

46. Metzner, K., Gross, T., Balzulat, A., Wack, G., Lu, R., and Schmidtko, A. (2021). Lack
of efficacy of a partial adenosine A1 receptor agonist in neuropathic pain models in mice.
Purinergic Signal *17*, 503-514. 10.1007/s11302-021-09806-6.
47. Cui, X., Liu, J., Uniyal, A., Xu, Q., Zhang, C., Zhu, G., Yang, F., Sivanesan, E.,
Linderoth, B., Raja, S.N., and Guan, Y. (2024). Enhancing spinal cord stimulation-
induced pain inhibition by augmenting endogenous adenosine signalling after nerve
injury in rats. Br J Anaesth *132*, 746-757. 10.1016/j.bja.2024.01.005.
48. Ran, F.A., Cong, L., Yan, W.X., Scott, D.A., Gootenberg, J.S., Kriz, A.J., Zetsche, B.,
Shalem, O., Wu, X., Makarova, K.S., et al. (2015). In vivo genome editing using
Staphylococcus aureus Cas9. Nature *520*, 186-191. 10.1038/nature14299.
49. Cheng, L., Arata, A., Mizuguchi, R., Qian, Y., Karunaratne, A., Gray, P.A., Arata, S.,
Shirasawa, S., Bouchard, M., Luo, P., et al. (2004). Tlx3 and Tlx1 are post-mitotic
selector genes determining glutamatergic over GABAergic cell fates. Nat Neurosci *7*,
510-517. 10.1038/nn1221.
50. Roth, B.L. (2016). DREADDs for Neuroscientists. Neuron *89*, 683-694.
10.1016/j.neuron.2016.01.040.
51. Ji, R.R., Baba, H., Brenner, G.J., and Woolf, C.J. (1999). Nociceptive-specific activation
of ERK in spinal neurons contributes to pain hypersensitivity. Nat Neurosci *2*, 1114-
1119. 10.1038/16040.
52. Matsumoto, M., Xie, W., Ma, L., and Ueda, H. (2008). Pharmacological switch in Abeta-
fiber stimulation-induced spinal transmission in mice with partial sciatic nerve injury.
Mol Pain *4*, 25. 10.1186/1744-8069-4-25.
53. Kawabata, R., Yamanaka, H., Kobayashi, K., Oke, Y., Fujita, A., Oku, Y., Yao, I., and
Koga, K. (2023). The Anterior Cingulate Cortex is Critical for Acute Stress-induced
Hypersensitivity in Mice. Neuroscience *523*, 47-60. 10.1016/j.neuroscience.2023.05.010.
54. Hickey, L., Li, Y., Fyson, S.J., Watson, T.C., Perrins, R., Hewinson, J., Teschemacher,
A.G., Furue, H., Lumb, B.M., and Pickering, A.E. (2014). Optoactivation of locus
ceruleus neurons evokes bidirectional changes in thermal nociception in rats. J Neurosci
34, 4148-4160. 10.1523/jneurosci.4835-13.2014.
55. Hirschberg, S., Li, Y., Randall, A., Kremer, E.J., and Pickering, A.E. (2017). Functional
dichotomy in spinal- vs prefrontal-projecting locus coeruleus modules splits descending
noradrenergic analgesia from ascending aversion and anxiety in rats. Elife *6*, e29808.
10.7554/eLife.29808.
56. Duan, B., Cheng, L., Bourane, S., Britz, O., Padilla, C., Garcia-Campmany, L., Krashes,
M., Knowlton, W., Velasquez, T., Ren, X., et al. (2014). Identification of spinal circuits
transmitting and gating mechanical pain. Cell *159*, 1417-1432.
10.1016/j.cell.2014.11.003.
57. Petitjean, H., Pawlowski, S.A., Fraine, S.L., Sharif, B., Hamad, D., Fatima, T., Berg, J.,
Brown, C.M., Jan, L.Y., Ribeiro-da-Silva, A., et al. (2015). Dorsal Horn Parvalbumin
Neurons Are Gate-Keepers of Touch-Evoked Pain after Nerve Injury. Cell Rep *13*, 1246-
1257. 10.1016/j.celrep.2015.09.080.
58. Wang, H., Chen, W., Dong, Z., Xing, G., Cui, W., Yao, L., Zou, W.J., Robinson, H.L.,
Bian, Y., Liu, Z., et al. (2022). A novel spinal neuron connection for heat sensation.
Neuron *110*, 2315-2333.e2316. 10.1016/j.neuron.2022.04.021.
59. Warwick, C., Salsovic, J., Hachisuka, J., Smith, K.M., Sheahan, T.D., Chen, H., Ibinson,
J., Koerber, H.R., and Ross, S.E. (2022). Cell type-specific calcium imaging of central
sensitization in mouse dorsal horn. Nat Commun *13*, 5199. 10.1038/s41467-022-32608-2.

60. Torsney, C., and MacDermott, A.B. (2006). Disinhibition opens the gate to pathological
pain signaling in superficial neurokinin 1 receptor-expressing neurons in rat spinal cord. J
Neurosci *26*, 1833-1843. 10.1523/jneurosci.4584-05.2006.
61. Sonohata, M., Doi, A., Yasaka, T., Uta, D., Mawatari, M., and Yoshimura, M. (2019).
Noradrenaline modulates mechanically evoked responses in the rat spinal dorsal horn: an
in vivo patch-clamp study. J Pain Res *12*, 1269-1278. 10.2147/jpr.s181210.
62. Pankratov, Y., and Lalo, U. (2015). Role for astroglial α1-adrenoreceptors in
gliotransmission and control of synaptic plasticity in the neocortex. Front Cell Neurosci
9, 230. 10.3389/fncel.2015.00230.
63. Xu, Q., Ford, N.C., He, S., Huang, Q., Anderson, M., Chen, Z., Yang, F., Crawford, L.K.,
Caterina, M.J., Guan, Y., and Dong, X. (2021). Astrocytes contribute to pain gating in the
spinal cord. Sci Adv *7*, eabi6287. 10.1126/sciadv.abi6287.
64. Oe, Y., Wang, X., Patriarchi, T., Konno, A., Ozawa, K., Yahagi, K., Hirai, H., Tsuboi, T.,
Kitaguchi, T., Tian, L., et al. (2020). Distinct temporal integration of noradrenaline
signaling by astrocytic second messengers during vigilance. Nat Commun *11*, 471.
10.1038/s41467-020-14378-x.
65. Lerman, S.F., Rudich, Z., Brill, S., Shalev, H., and Shahar, G. (2015). Longitudinal
associations between depression, anxiety, pain, and pain-related disability in chronic pain
patients. Psychosom Med *77*, 333-341. 10.1097/psy.0000000000000158.
66. Lugert, S., Vogt, M., Tchorz, J.S., Müller, M., Giachino, C., and Taylor, V. (2012).
Homeostatic neurogenesis in the adult hippocampus does not involve amplification of
Ascl1(high) intermediate progenitors. Nat Commun *3*, 670. 10.1038/ncomms1670.
67. Vong, L., Ye, C., Yang, Z., Choi, B., Chua, S., Jr., and Lowell, B.B. (2011). Leptin
action on GABAergic neurons prevents obesity and reduces inhibitory tone to POMC
neurons. Neuron *71*, 142-154. 10.1016/j.neuron.2011.05.028.
68. Madisen, L., Zwingman, T.A., Sunkin, S.M., Oh, S.W., Zariwala, H.A., Gu, H., Ng, L.L.,
Palmiter, R.D., Hawrylycz, M.J., Jones, A.R., et al. (2010). A robust and high-throughput
Cre reporting and characterization system for the whole mouse brain. Nat Neurosci *13*,
133-140. 10.1038/nn.2467.
69. Chaplan, S.R., Bach, F.W., Pogrel, J.W., Chung, J.M., and Yaksh, T.L. (1994).
Quantitative assessment of tactile allodynia in the rat paw. J Neurosci Methods *53*, 55-63.
10.1016/0165-0270(94)90144-9.
70. Kohro, Y., Sakaguchi, E., Tashima, R., Tozaki-Saitoh, H., Okano, H., Inoue, K., and
Tsuda, M. (2015). A new minimally-invasive method for microinjection into the mouse
spinal dorsal horn. Sci Rep *5*, 14306. 10.1038/srep14306.
71. Zhang, Z.M., Chen, S., and Liang, Y.Z. (2010). Baseline correction using adaptive
iteratively reweighted penalized least squares. Analyst *135*, 1138-1146.
10.1039/b922045c.
72. Thévenaz, P., Ruttimann, U.E., and Unser, M. (1998). A pyramid approach to subpixel
registration based on intensity. IEEE Trans Image Process *7*, 27-41. 10.1109/83.650848.

Supplemental Information for

Descending locus coeruleus noradrenergic signaling to spinal astrocyte subset is required for stress-induced pain facilitation

Riku Kawanabe-Kobayashi[1,8], Sawako Uchiyama[1,8], Kohei Yoshihara[1,8], Daiki Kojima[1], Thomas McHugh[2], Izuho Hatada[3,4], Ko Matsui[5], Kenji F. Tanaka[6], Makoto Tsuda[1,7, *]

*Corresponding author:
Makoto Tsuda, Ph.D.
Email: tsuda@phar.kyushu-u.ac.jp

This PDF file includes:

Figures S1 and S2

Supplemental Figures

Figure S1. Mechanical hypersensitivity is weak in mice with longer exposure (2 hours) to restraint stress.

PWT change at 30 min after various exposure periods of restraint stress (15 min, 30 min, 1 hour, and 2 hours) in wild-type mice ($n = 5$ mice; two-tailed paired t-test; ***$P <$ 0.001; n.s., not significant vs. pre group). Data represent mean ± SEM.

Figure S2. Raw fluorescent signals in LC-NA neurons during restraint stress (in vivo fiber photometry).

Representative traces of GCaMP6s signals in LC-NA neurons during restraint stress. Traces shown at the top (blue), middle (purple), and bottom (green) indicate 465-nm, 415-nm, and corrected fluorescent signals, respectively.