Interleukin-4 induces CD11c+ microglia leading to amelioration of neuropathic pain in mice

Keita Kohno[1], Ryoji Shirasaka[1], Keita Hirose[1], Takahiro Masuda[2], Makoto Tsuda[1,3,4]*

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] Division of Molecular Neuroimmunology, Medical Institute of Bioregulation, Kyushu University, 3-1-1 Maidashi, Higashi-ku, Fukuoka 812-8582, Japan

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

[4] Lead contract

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

Abstract

Neuropathic pain, a debilitating chronic pain condition, is a major clinical challenge. The pleiotropic cytokine interleukin-4 (IL-4) has been shown to suppress neuropathic pain in rodent models, but its underlying mechanism remains unclear. Here, we show that intrathecal administration of IL-4 to mice with spinal nerve transection (SpNT) increased the number of CD11c$^+$ microglia (a microglia subset important for pain remission) in the spinal dorsal horn (SDH) and that this effect of IL-4 was essential for its ameliorating effect on SpNT-induced pain hypersensitivity. Furthermore, in mice with spared nerve injury (SNI), another model in which pain remission does not occur, the emergence of CD11c$^+$ SDH microglia was curtailed, but intrathecal IL-4 increased their emergence and ameliorated pain hypersensitivity in a CD11c$^+$ microglia-dependent manner. Our study reveals a mechanism by which intrathecal IL-4 ameliorates pain hypersensitivity after nerve injury and provides evidence that IL-4 increases CD11c$^+$ microglia with a function that ameliorates neuropathic pain.

Introduction

Neuropathic pain is a debilitating chronic pain condition that results from injury or

disease of the somatosensory system. Since chronic pain is refractory to currently

available treatments, the development of effective treatments is a major clinical

challenge [1,2]. Accumulating evidence from studies using models of neuropathic pain

indicates that peripheral nerve injury causes various inflammatory responses in the

nervous system that critically contribute to the development of neuropathic pain [3,4].

Especially, pro-inflammatory cytokines [e.g., interleukin-1β (IL-1β), IL-6 and tumor

necrosis factor α (TNFα)] produced by various non-neuronal cells such as macrophages

at injured nerves and dorsal root ganglion (DRG), and glial cells (mainly microglia and

astrocytes) in the spinal dorsal horn (SDH) modulate function of primary afferent sensory

neurons and SDH neurons, leading to an increase in the excitability of pain signaling

neural pathway [3–6]. Along with these findings, much attention has been paid to the pain-

relieving role of anti-inflammatory cytokines [7]. These include IL-10, the role of which in

chronic pain has been extensively studied [7]. Another anti-inflammatory cytokine with

pain-relieving effects in diverse models, including neuropathic pain, is IL-4. Intraplantar

or systemic administration of IL-4 has been shown to attenuate pain behavioral

responses to bradykinin [8], carrageenin [8], TNFα [8], zymosan [9] and acetic acid [9] in normal

animals. In models of neuropathic pain, single or repeated administration of IL-4 around

the injured sciatic nerve reduced behavioral pain hypersensitivity [10–12]. These effects of

IL-4 have been proposed to involve a decrease in the production of inflammatory

mediators [11], polarization of macrophages toward an anti-inflammatory phenotype at

injured nerves [10,11], increases in the production and release of IL-10 [11] and opioid

peptides [10,12] from macrophages, and inhibition of the increased action potentials of DRG

neurons [13]. In addition to the diverse actions of IL-4 at the peripheral level, the central

nervous system, including the spinal cord, is recognized as an important locus of action

of IL-4 in pain control. Intrathecal administration of IL-4 prevents the development of

mechanical pain hypersensitivity in several neuropathic pain models [13,14]. The target

cells for the action of IL-4 intrathecally administered could be microglia since, within the

SDH of nerve-injured rats, IL-4 receptor α chain (IL-4Rα) is predominantly expressed in

microglia [14]. In line with this, intrathecal IL-4 activates signal transducer and activator of

transcription 6 (STAT6; an intracellular signal transduction molecule downstream of IL-

4Rα) in SDH microglia [14]. Intrathecal IL-4 or other manipulation to increase spinal IL-4

during early phase after nerve injury suppresses cellular indexes for reactive microglia

[14], IL-1β and Prostaglandin E2 release, and microglial p38 phosphorylation [15], all of

which are required to develop pain hypersensitivity [4]. In addition to the effect of IL-4 on

pain development, it is noteworthy that intrathecal administration of IL-4 during the late

phase (e.g., 2 weeks or later after nerve injury) leads to recovery from a behavioral pain-

hypersensitive state that develops following nerve injury [14]. Despite the remarkable

therapeutic potential of spinal IL-4 for ameliorating established neuropathic pain, little is

known about its mechanism of action. Given that the reactive states of microglia occur

early after nerve injury (e.g., cell number and expression of proinflammatory genes) and

subside in the late phase [4,16,17], it is possible that the pain-resolving effect of IL-4

involves a mechanism other than the previously reported suppression of inflammatory

responses in activated microglia.

In this study, using two different models of neuropathic pain, we demonstrated that

intrathecally administered IL-4 during the late phase changes microglia to a CD11c^{+}

state, which has recently been shown to be necessary for the spontaneous remission of

behavioral hypersensitivity associated with neuropathic pain [18], and, importantly, that this

is required for the pain-relieving effect of intrathecal IL-4. Consequently, our findings

uncover a mechanism for the ameliorating effect of spinal IL-4 on already-developed

neuropathic pain and provide evidence at a preclinical level that IL-4 could induce the

emergence of CD11c^{+} microglia with a function that resolves neuropathic pain.

Results

Intrathecal treatment of IL-4 increases CD11c^{+} microglia in the SDH and alleviates

pain hypersensitivity after SpNT

To examine the effect of IL-4 on the behavioral remission of neuropathic pain, we used

mice with spinal nerve transection (SpNT; a model of neuropathic pain [19,20]) and

repeated the administration of IL-4 to their intrathecal spaces from day 14 post-SpNT,

when the paw withdrawal threshold (PWT) decreased (indicating that mechanical pain

hypersensitivity had been developed) (Fig. 1*A*). Intrathecal treatment with IL-4 increased

the PWT in the hindpaw ipsilateral (but not contralateral) to the SpNT (Fig. 1*A*). Notably,

this behavioral remission of neuropathic mechanical hypersensitivity persisted for at

least 5 days after the last intrathecal injection of IL-4. Because we previously showed

that CD11c^{+} microglia emerging in the SDH after SpNT are necessary for the

spontaneous remission of pain behavior that gradually occurs around 3 weeks after

nerve injury [18], we explored the mechanism of action of spinal IL-4 with a focus on

CD11c+ microglia in the SDH. In *Itgax-Venus* mice, in which CD11c+ cells are visualized

using the fluorescent protein Venus [18,21], SpNT increased the number of Venus+

(CD11c+) cells in the SDH ipsilateral to the injury (Fig. 1*B*). Consistent with our previous

data [18], almost all CD11c+ cells were immunohistochemically positive for ionized

calcium-binding adapter molecule 1 (IBA1) and the purinergic P2Y12 receptor (P2Y12R)

(Fig. 1*B* and *C*), which are markers for myeloid cells and microglia, respectively [22,23]. We

found that intrathecal administration of IL-4 to SpNT mice enhanced the increase in

CD11c+ cells in the SDH (Fig. 1*B-D*). These cells also expressed both IBA1 and P2Y12R

(Fig. 1*B* and *C*), indicating that CD11c+ cells increased by intrathecal IL-4 were microglia.

Quantitative flow cytometry analysis revealed a significant increase in CD11c+ microglia

in the SDH of IL-4-treated SpNT mice (Fig. 1*D*). In contrast, IL-4 did not significantly

change the total number of microglia in the SDH (Fig. 1*D*). In addition, intrathecal IL-4

did not induce infiltration of CD169+ monocytes/macrophages into the SDH (Figure 1—

figure supplement 1A). These findings suggest that CD11c+ microglia may be involved in

the mechanism by which intrathecal treatment with IL-4 attenuates pain hypersensitivity.

IL-4-induced remission of pain hypersensitivity requires spinal CD11c+ microglia

To determine whether CD11c+ microglia are required for pain remission induced by IL-4,

we used *Itgax-DTR-EGFP* mice in which the diphtheria toxin (DTX) receptor (DTR) and

enhanced green fluorescence protein (EGFP) are expressed on CD11c+ cells [18,24], and

administered DTX intrathecally to these mice to deplete CD11c+ microglia in the spinal

cord. Intrathecal IL-4 also induced behavioral remission of mechanical hypersensitivity in

Itgax-DTR-EGFP mice, but the pain-reducing effect was eliminated by intrathecal

injection of DTX on day 17 post-SpNT (Fig. 2*A*). The depletion of EGFP$^+$ (CD11c$^+$)

microglia in the SDH by DTX injection was confirmed (Fig. 2*B*), indicating the necessity

of spinal CD11c$^+$ microglia for the pain-relieving effect of intrathecal IL-4. IL-4 also

alleviated pain hypersensitivity in female mice, which was also dependent on CD11c$^+$

microglia (Fig. 3). In addition to SDH, CD11c$^+$ cells have been shown to be present at

the site of injury and in the DRG [18]. Thus, we examined the involvement of CD11c$^+$ cells

in the DRG in the pain-relieving effect of intrathecal IL-4 using our previously reported

strategy that enables the selective depletion of CD11c$^+$ cells in the periphery [18]. The

intraperitoneal administration of DTX at a low dose (2 ng/g mouse) in SpNT mice treated

with IL-4 on day 17 efficiently eliminated CD11c$^+$ cells (also positive for IBA1) in the

DRG on day 18 (Fig. 4*A*). However, the number of CD11c$^+$ microglia in the SDH were

not significantly different between the PBS- and DTX-treated groups (Fig. 4B). Under

these conditions, we found that the elevated PWT observed in IL-4-treated mice on day

17 did not change 1 day after intraperitoneal administration of DTX (day 18) (Fig. 4C),

suggesting that CD11c$^+$ cells in the DRG are not involved in the IL-4-induced alleviating

effect on neuropathic pain. Altogether, these data indicate that intrathecally administered

IL-4 induces spinal microglia to be in a CD11c$^+$ state, and that this induction is necessary

for the ameliorating effect of IL-4 on neuropathic pain.

CD11c$^+$ microglia appearance in the SDH is blunted in SNI model

To extend the therapeutic potential of CD11c$^+$ microglia induced by IL-4 in neuropathic

pain, we employed another model of neuropathic pain [speared nerve injury (SNI);

transection of tibial and common peroneal nerves] [25]. Consistent with previous data [25],

SNI induced a long-lasting pain-hypersensitive state without spontaneous remission, at

least until the last day of testing (day 56 post-SNI) (Fig. 5*A*), which was in stark contrast

to the time course of pain hypersensitivity in the SpNT model. We found that the number

of CD11c$^+$ microglia in the SDH at 14 days after nerve injury was lower in the SNI model

than in the SpNT model (Fig. 5*B*). Quantitative analysis by flow cytometry confirmed that

there were fewer CD11c$^+$ SDH microglia in the SNI mice (Fig. 5*C*). A blunted

appearance was also observed on days 35 and 56 post-SNI. In contrast, the total

number of microglia in the SDH was comparable between the two models at all time

points tested, suggesting an impairment of the nerve injury-induced appearance of

CD11c$^+$ microglia in the SNI model. Furthermore, insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF1) has

been identified as a factor that is highly expressed in CD11c$^+$ microglia and is necessary

for their pain-remitting effect [18]. We quantified *Igf1* mRNA expression in the spinal tissue

or fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS)-isolated SDH microglia from nerve-injured

mice (Fig. 6). While *Igf1* expression in sorted microglia increased in both models after

injury, its levels were lower in microglia from SNI mice than in those from SpNT mice

(Fig. 6*D*). In addition, an increase in *Igf1* mRNA expression in the tissue homogenate of

the upper half of the SDH, where CD11c$^+$ microglia accumulate [18], was not observed in

tissues from the SNI model (Fig. 6*E*). Moreover, in FACS-isolated CD11c^{high} SDH

microglia that highly expressed IGF1, the expression of *Igf1* mRNA was significantly

lower in the SNI model (Fig. 6*F*). Thus, given that either the depletion of CD11c$^+$

microglia or knockout of their IGF1 prevents the spontaneous remission of pain in the

SpNT model [18], the long-lasting pain-hypersensitive state in the SNI model could be

related to the blunted increase in CD11c$^+$ microglia in the SDH and their lower

expression of IGF1.

IL-4 alleviates SNI-induced pain hypersensitivity in CD11c$^+$ microglia- and IGF1-

dependent manners

Based on the above findings, we tested whether IL-4 could increase the number of

CD11c$^+$ microglia and resolve pain hypersensitivity in the SNI model. Intrathecal

treatment with IL-4 in SNI mice from day 14 to day 16 significantly increased the number

of CD11c$^+$ microglia on day 21, almost all of which were positive for IBA1 and P2Y12R

(Fig. 7*A-C*). Similar to the data obtained for SpNT mice, the total number of microglia in

the SDH were not significantly different between PBS- and IL-4-treated SNI mice (Fig.

7*C*). Behaviorally, intrathecal IL-4 treatment alleviated the SNI-induced mechanical

hypersensitivity (Fig. 7*D*). Furthermore, the depletion of CD11c$^+$ microglia in the SDH of

IL-4-treated SNI mice by intrathecal administration of DTX on day 17 negated the

ameliorating effect of IL-4 on pain hypersensitivity (Fig. 8*A* and *B*). Moreover, the IL-4's

effect was not observed in *Cx3cr1*$^{CreERT2/+}$;*Igf1*$^{flox/flox}$ mice treated with tamoxifen (Fig. 8*C*),

a treatment that enables selective knockout of the *Igf1* gene in tissue-resident *Cx3cr1*$^+$

cells [26], the majority of which are microglia in the SDH [18]. Overall, intrathecally

administered IL-4 exhibited a pain-remitting effect in the SNI model, which was

dependent on CD11c$^+$ microglia and IGF1.

Discussion

Increasing evidence indicates that following peripheral nerve injury microglia in the SDH

causes significant changes in morphology, cell number, transcriptional and translational

activities, and function [4,17,27–29]. Numerous studies have shown that these changes

occurring in the early phase after nerve injury are necessary for the development of

neuropathic pain [4,28–31]. In contrast to their role, we have recently shown that some SDH

microglia in the later phase are changed into CD11c$^+$ states with different transcriptional

and functional profiles and that these microglia are required for spontaneous remission

of neuropathic pain [18]. Thus, CD11c$^+$ microglia are attracting attention as a potential

target for future analgesics [32,33]. In this study, we demonstrated for the first time that

CD11c$^+$ microglia are an essential target of IL-4 administered intrathecally to induce the

behavioral remission of pain hypersensitivity. The pharmacological effect of intrathecal

IL-4 appears to be mediated by its direct action on spinal microglia, as the expression of

IL-4Rα in the SDH has been shown to be predominant in microglia after nerve injury [14].

This is also supported by the data that activation of STAT6 (the downstream molecule of

IL-4Rα) after intrathecal IL-4 selectively occurs in spinal microglia [14] and that primary

cultured microglia treated with IL-4 become CD11c$^+$ and express IGF1 [34–36].

Furthermore, based on our data showing that IL-4 increased the number of CD11c$^+$

microglia without affecting the total number of microglia, it is conceivable that IL-4 acts

on microglia and changes their state to CD11c$^+$ microglia (rather than the proliferation of

CD11c$^+$ microglia themselves), leading to behavioral remission of neuropathic pain.

Intrathecal IL-4 administration also increased CD11c$^+$ microglia in the SDH

contralateral to SpNT but did not change the PWT in the contralateral hindpaw. This gap

seems to be related to the selective effect of CD11c$^+$ microglia and their factors

(especially IGF1) on pathologically heightened pain sensitivity. In fact, depletion of

CD11c^{+} spinal microglia and intrathecal administration of IGF1 do not elevate pain

threshold of the contralateral hindpaw [18].

In addition to SDH, the peripheral effects of IL-4 on neuropathic pain have been

reported in several pain models. IL-4 applied to injured peripheral nerves, such as sciatic

nerves, ameliorates neuropathic mechanical hypersensitivity [11]. In sciatic nerves, IL-4Rα

expression is upregulated in macrophages that accumulate in injured nerves [11].

Intrathecally administered IL-4 may affect cells in the DRG, since chemokine (C-C motif)

receptor 2 (CCR2)[+] monocytes were increased in the capsule of the DRG after IL-4

treatment (Figure 1—figure supplement 1B). The involvement of these monocytes in the

DRG in IL-4-induced alleviation of neuropathic pain is unclear and warrants further

investigation. However, our findings obtained from mice with depletion of CD11c^{+} IBA1^{+}

cells (presumably macrophages) in the DRG (but not SDH) suggest that the cells

required for intrathecal IL-4 to ameliorate pain hypersensitivity are CD11c^{+} microglia in

the SDH, but not peripheral CD11c^{+} macrophages. Furthermore, perineurally

administered IL-4 can act on macrophages, which leads to a change in their state from

pro- to anti-inflammatory via a STAT6-dependent mechanism [11] and further to a release

of opioid peptides that are key factors in the suppression of neuropathic pain [10]. In the

SDH, IGF1 appears to be necessary for the pain-relieving effect of CD11c^{+} microglia

induced by IL-4. This is supported by data obtained from microglia-selective IGF1-

knockout mice (*Cx3cr1*[CreERT2/+];*Igf1*[flox/flox] mice treated with tamoxifen). Although *Cx3cr1*^{+}

cells, other than CD11c^{+} microglia, also lack *Igf1* in these mice, given *Igf1* expression is

much higher in CD11c^{+} microglia than in CD11c^{neg} microglia [18], IGF1 from CD11c^{+}

microglia would play an important role in IL-4-induced pain remission. Thus, while IL-4

acts on macrophages and microglia in the DRG/injured nerves and the SDH,

respectively, the molecular basis of its ameliorating effects on neuropathic pain

hypersensitivity is different.

Another notable finding of this study was that the emergence of CD11c$^+$ spinal

microglia following nerve injury was impaired in the SNI model, which did not exhibit

spontaneous remission of behavioral pain hypersensitivity. This raises the possibility that

the reduced ability of spinal microglia to shift toward the CD11c$^+$ state in the SNI model

contributes, at least in part, to long-lasting pain hypersensitivity because SpNT mice with

depleted CD11c$^+$ spinal microglia have been shown to exhibit persistent pain

hypersensitivity [18]. Considering our finding that the total number of spinal microglia was

comparable between the SpNT and SNI models, the signal(s) for microglia to transition

to the CD11c$^+$ state, rather than to the initial activation after nerve injury, could be

different in these models. The mechanisms underlying this difference require further

investigation, but we highlight that even under such conditions, IL-4 administered

intrathecally induces the appearance of CD11c$^+$ microglia in the SDH and exerts a pain-

remitting effect in a manner that dependent on CD11c$^+$ microglia. These data suggest

that spinal microglia in the SNI model retain the ability to respond to IL-4, allowing

microglia to be in a CD11c$^+$ state that remits neuropathic pain and broadly extends their

therapeutic potential to neuropathic pain.

In this study, we showed an ability of IL-4, known as a T-cell-derived factor, to

increase CD11c$^+$ microglia and to control neuropathic pain. Recent studies have also

indicated that immune cells such as CD8$^+$ T cells infiltrating into spinal cord [37], and

regulatory T cells [38,39] and MRC1$^+$ macrophages [40] in the spinal meninges have important

roles in controlling microglial states and neuropathic pain. Thus, these findings provide

new insights into the mechanisms of the neuro-immune interactions that regulate

neuropathic pain. Furthermore, our data, demonstrating that IL-4 increases CD11c$^+$

microglia without affecting the total number of microglia, could open a new avenue for

developing strategies to modulate microglial subpopulations through molecular targeting,

which may lead to new analgesics. However, given IL-4's association with allergic

responses, further investigation of the specific signaling pathways and molecular

processes by which IL-4 induces a transition of spinal microglia to the CD11c$^+$ state may

provide clues to discovering new targets that offer more selective and safer therapeutic

approaches. Moreover, since CD11c$^+$ microglia have been implicated in other CNS

diseases (e.g., Alzheimer disease [41], amyotrophic lateral sclerosis [42], and multiple

sclerosis [43]), further investigations into the mechanisms driving CD11c$^+$ microglia

induction could provide insights into novel therapeutic strategies not only for neuropathic

pain but also for other CNS diseases.

Acknowledgments: We would like to thank Editage for editing a draft of this

manuscript. 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 25gm1510013h (M.T.) 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

JP254ama121031 (M.T.). T.M. was supported by AMED (JP20gm6310016,

JP21wm0425001, JP23gm1910004, JP23jf0126004, 24zf0127012), JSPS (KAKENHI

JP21H02752, JP22H05062, JP25H01009), The Mitsubishi Foundation, Daiichi Sankyo

Foundation of Life Science, Mochida Memorial Foundation for Medical and

Pharmaceutical Research, Astellas Foundation for Research on Metabolic disorders,

Ono Pharmaceutical Foundation for Oncology, Immunology and Neurology, The

Nakajima Foundation, The Uehara Memorial Foundation and Takeda Science

Foundation. K.K. was supported by JSPS (KAKENHI JP23K19403, JP24K18621), JST

(ACT-X Grant Number JPMJAX232B), Chugai Foundation for Innovative Drug Discovery

Science, and The Ichiro Kanehara Foundation. This work was supported in part by the

MEXT Cooperative Research Project Program, Medical Research Center Initiative for

High Depth Omics, and CURE:JPMXP1323015486 for MIB, Kyushu University.

Author Contributions: K.K. designed experiments, performed almost all experiments,

analyzed the data, and wrote the manuscript. R.S. performed some experiments and

analyzed the data. K.H. assisted some experiments. T.M. provided advice for some

experiments. M.T. conceived this project, designed experiments, supervised the overall

project, and wrote the manuscript. All of the authors read and discussed the manuscript.

Declaration of interests: The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure titles and legends

Figure 1. IL-4 increases CD11c⁺ microglia in the SDH and ameliorates pain

hypersensitivity in the SpNT mice.

(*A*) Paw withdrawal threshold (PWT) of *Itgax-Venus* mice before (Pre) and after SpNT (n

= 7–8 mice). IL-4 or PBS was intrathecally administrated from day 14 to day 16 post-

SpNT (once a day for three days). ****$P < 0.0001$ versus the ipsilateral side of PBS-

treated group, two-way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey multiple comparison test. (*B*) Venus

fluorescence (yellow) and P2Y12R and IBA1 immunostaining (magenta and cyan,

respectively) in the SDH of *Itgax-Venus* mice with SpNT 21 days after PBS or IL-4

treatment (from day 14 to 16). Scale bars, 200 μm (middle), 100 μm (right). (*C*)

Colocalization of Venus, P2Y12R and IBA1. Scale bar, 20 μm. (*D*) Flow cytometric

quantification for the number of CD11c$^+$ (CD11b$^+$CD45$^+$Venus$^+$) and total

(CD11b$^+$CD45$^+$) microglia in the 3–4th lumbar SDH contralateral (*C*) and ipsilateral (I) to

SpNT (n = 6–7 mice). One-way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey multiple comparison test.

Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Figure 1—figure supplement 1. Monocytes/macrophages in the SDH and DRG

after intrathecal administration of IL-4.

Immunohistochemical analysis of the SDH (*A*) and the DRG (*B*) of naive WT mice and

SpNT-WT mice with intrathecal injection of PBS or IL-4 (from day 14 to 16 post-SpNT).

Immunofluorescence of CD169, CD11b, P2Y12R, and IBA1 in the SDH (L4) ipsilateral to

the SpNT (day 17) (*A*) and of CCR2 and IBA1 in the DRG (L4) ipsilateral to the SpNT

(day 17) (*B*). Scale bars, 100 μm (*A*) and 40 μm (*B*).

Figure 2. IL-4-induced remission of pain hypersensitivity requires spinal CD11c$^+$

microglia.

(*A*) Paw withdrawal threshold (PWT) of *Itgax-DTR-EGFP* mice before (Pre) and after

SpNT (n = 6 –7 mice). IL-4 or PBS was intrathecally administrated from days 14 to 16

post-SpNT (once a day for three days). On day 17, DTX (0.5 ng/mouse) or PBS was

intrathecally injected. ****P < 0.0001 versus the ipsilateral side of PBS-PBS group, [††††]P

< 0.0001 versus the ipsilateral side of IL-4-PBS group, two-way ANOVA with post hoc

Tukey multiple comparison test. (*B*) Flow cytometric quantification for the number of

$CD11c^+$ microglia ($CD11b^+CD45^+EGFP^+$) in the 3–4th lumbar SDH contralateral (C) and

ipsilateral (I) to SpNT in *Itgax-DTR-EGFP* mice treated with PBS/PBS, IL-4/PBS, or IL-

4/DTX (n = 4–5 mice). One-way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey multiple comparison test.

Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Figure 3. IL-4 alleviates pain hypersensitivity in female mice.

Paw withdrawal threshold (PWT) of *Itgax-DTR-EGFP* mice before (Pre) and after SpNT

(n = 6 female mice). IL-4 or PBS was intrathecally administrated from days 14 to 16

post-SpNT (once a day for three days). On day 17, DTX (0.5 ng/mouse) or PBS was

intrathecally injected. ****P < 0.0001 versus the ipsilateral side of PBS-PBS group, [†††]P <

0.001 versus the ipsilateral side of IL-4-PBS group, two-way ANOVA with post hoc

Tukey multiple comparison test. Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Figure 4. $CD11c^+$ cells in the DRG are involved in IL-4-induced remission of pain

hypersensitivity.

(*A* and *B*) Immunohistochemical analyses of $CD11c^+$ cells ($EGFP^+$ $IBA1^+$) in the DRG (*A*)

and SDH (*B*) on day 18 post-SpNT of *Itgax-DTR-EGFP* mice treated intrathecally with

IL-4 (from day 14 to 16) (n = 4–5 mice). DTX (2 ng/g) or PBS was intraperitoneally

injected on day 17. The myeloid marker IBA1 was also stained in the SDH (*B*). Scale

bars, 100 µm. Unpaired t-test. (*C*) Effect of DTX (2 ng/g) intraperitoneally injected (on

day 17) on PWT of SpNT mice treated intrathecally with PBS or IL-4 (from day 14 to 16)

(n = 5 mice). Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Figure 5. Blunted appearance of CD11c$^+$ microglia in the SDH after SNI.

(*A*) PWT of wild-type (WT) mice before (Pre) and after SpNT and SNI (n = 5 mice). (*B*)

Venus (yellow) and IBA1 immunostaining (magenta) in the SDH of SpNT and SNI mice

on day 14. Scale bar, 200 µm. (*C*) Flow cytometric quantification of the number of

CD11c$^+$ (CD11b$^+$CD45$^+$Venus$^+$) and total (CD11b$^+$CD45$^+$) microglia in the 3–4th lumbar

SDH of *Itgax-Venus* mice after SpNT and SNI (n = 3–5 mice). ****P < 0.0001 versus the

ipsilateral side of SNI group, two-way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey multiple comparison

test. Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Figure 6. Expression of Igf1 is lower in the SNI model.

(*A-C*) *Igf1* mRNA in total RNA extracted from sorted SDH microglia (*A*; n = 4 mice), from

tissue homogenate of the upper half of the SDH (*B*; n = 3–4 mice), or from the sorted

CD11c^{high} microglia (*C*; n = 5–6 mice) in *Itgax-Venus* mice was quantified by qPCR on

day 36 post-SpNT or SNI. Cells and tissues were collected from the contralateral (C)

and ipsilateral (I) side to the SpNT or SNI. Values represent the relative ratio of *Igf1*

mRNA (normalized to the value for *Actb* mRNA) to the ipsilateral (*A* and *C*) or

contralateral (*B*) side of SpNT mice. One-way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey multiple

comparison test (*A* and *B*). Unpaired t-test (*C*). Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Figure 7. IL-4 increases CD11c$^+$ microglia in the SDH and ameliorates pain

hypersensitivity in the SNI mice.

(*A*) Venus fluorescence (yellow) and P2Y12R and IBA1 immunostaining (magenta and

cyan, respectively) in the SDH of *Itgax-Venus* mice with SpNT after PBS or IL-4

treatment. Scale bar, 200 μm. (*B*) Colocalization of Venus, P2Y12R and IBA1. Scale bar,

20 μm. (*C*) Flow cytometric quantification for the number of CD11c$^+$

(CD11b$^+$CD45$^+$Venus$^+$) and total (CD11b$^+$CD45$^+$) microglia in the 3–4th lumbar SDH

contralateral (C) and ipsilateral (I) to SNI (n = 7 mice). One-way ANOVA with post hoc

Tukey multiple comparison test. (*D*) Paw withdrawal threshold (PWT) of *Itgax-Venus*

mice before (Pre) and after SNI (n = 6–8 mice). IL-4 or PBS was intrathecally

administrated from day 14 to 16 post-SNI (once a day for three days). *P < 0.05, ***P <

0.001 versus the ipsilateral side of PBS group, two-way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey

multiple comparison test. Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Figure 8. IL-4 alleviates SNI-induced pain hypersensitivity in CD11c$^+$ microglia-

and IGF1- dependent manners.

(*A*) Flow cytometric quantification for the number of CD11c$^+$ microglia

(CD11b$^+$CD45$^+$EGFP$^+$) in the 3–4th lumbar SDH contralateral (*C*) and ipsilateral (I) to

SNI in *Itgax-DTR-EGFP* mice treated with IL-4/PBS or IL-4/DTX (n = 6 mice). One-way

ANOVA with post hoc Tukey multiple comparison test. (*B*) PWT of *Itgax-DTR-EGFP*

mice before (Pre) and after SNI (n = 6 mice). IL-4 was intrathecally administrated from

day 14 to 16 post-SNI (once a day for three days). On day 17, DTX (0.5 ng/mouse) or

PBS was intrathecally injected. **$P < 0.01$ versus the ipsilateral side of IL-4-PBS group,

two-way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey multiple comparison test. (C) PWT of

$Cx3cr1^{CreERT2/+}$;$Igf1^{flox/flox}$ mice before (Pre) and after SNI (n = 5–7 mice). Tamoxifen or

vehicle were administered 4 weeks before SNI to induce recombination. IL-4 was

intrathecally administrated from day 14 to 16 post-SNI (once a day for three days). ***P

< 0.001 versus the ipsilateral side of Corn oil group, two-way ANOVA with post hoc

Tukey multiple comparison test. Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Materials and Methods

Key Resources Table				
Reagent type (species) or resource	Designation	Source or reference	Identifiers	Additional information
strain, strain background (include species and sex here)	C57BL/6J	The Jackson Laboratory Japan	NA	
genetic reagent (include species here)	B6.Cg-Tg(Itgax-Venus)Mnz/J	Jackson Laboratory	RRID:IMSR_JAX:008829	

genetic reagent (include species here)	B6.FVB-1700016L21RikTg(Itgax-DTR/EGFP)57Lan/J	Jackson Laboratory	RRID:IMSR_JAX:004509	
genetic reagent (include species here)	B6.129P2(Cg)-Cx3cr1tm2.1(cre/ERT2)Litt/WganJ	Jackson Laboratory	RRID:IMSR_JAX:021160	
genetic reagent (include species here)	B6.129(FVB)-Igf1tm1Dlr/J	Jackson Laboratory	RRID:IMSR_JAX:016831	
antibody	Guinea pig anti-IBA1	Synaptic Systems	RRID:AB_2924932	1:2000
antibody	Rabbit anti-P2Y12R	AnaSpec	RRID:AB_2298886	1:2000
antibody	Rabbit anti-GFP	MBL International	RRID:AB_591819	1:1000
antibody	APC anti-mouse CD169	Biolegend	RRID:AB_2565640	1:500
antibody	Rabbit anti-CCR2	Abcam	RRID:AB_2893307	1:500
antibody	Goat Anti-Guinea pig IgG H&L (Alexa Fluor® 405)	Abcam	RRID:AB_2827755	1:1000
antibody	Goat anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) Highly Cross-Adsorbed Secondary Antibody, Alexa Fluor™ 488	Thermo Fisher Scientific	RRID:AB_2576217	1:1000
antibody	Goat anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) Highly Cross-Adsorbed Secondary Antibody, Alexa Fluor™ 546	Thermo Fisher Scientific	RRID:AB_2534093	1:1000
antibody	Rat Anti-CD16 / CD32 Monoclonal Antibody, Unconjugated, Clone 2.4G2	BD Biosciences	RRID:AB_394657	1:200

antibody	Rat Anti-CD11b Monoclonal Antibody, Alexa Fluor™ 647 Conjugated, Clone M1/70	BD Biosciences	RRID:AB_396796	1:1000
antibody	PE anti-mouse CD45	BioLegend	RRID:AB_312971	1:1000
antibody	Brilliant Violet 785(TM) anti-mouse/human CD11b	BioLegend	RRID:AB_2561373	1:1000
antibody	APC anti-mouse CD206 (MMR)	BioLegend	RRID:AB_10900231	1:200
peptide, recombinant protein	Recombinant Murine IL-4	PeproTech	214-14	
commercial assay or kit	Myelin Removal Beads II	Miltenyi Biotec	130-096-433	
commercial assay or kit	MACS LS column	Miltenyi Biotec	130-042-401	
commercial assay or kit	Quick-RNA Micro-Prep kit	ZYMO	R1051	
commercial assay or kit	Trisure	Bioline	BIO-38032	
commercial assay or kit	Prime Script reverse transcriptase	Takara	2680B	
commercial assay or kit	Premix Ex Taq™ (Probe qPCR)	Takara	RR390B	
chemical compound, drug	tamoxifen	SIGMA	T5648	
chemical compound, drug	Diphtheria Toxin Solution	Wako	048-34371	
chemical compound, drug	collagenase D	Roche	11088866001	
chemical compound, drug	dispase	GIBCO	17105041	

chemical compound, drug	RNAlater	Invitrogen	AM7021	
chemical compound, drug	7-aminoactinomycin D	Miltenyi Biotec	170-081-088	
software, algorithm	LSM700 Imaging System	Carl Zeiss	NA	
software, algorithm	CytoFLEX SRT	Beckman Coulter	NA	
software, algorithm	FlowJo	BD	RRID:SCR_008520	
software, algorithm	FACSAria III	BD Biosciences	NA	
software, algorithm	QuantStudio® 3	Applied Biosystems	NA	
software, algorithm	Prism 7	GraphPad	NA	

Mice. C57BL/6 mice were purchased from Charles River Japan (Kanagawa, Japan).

Itgax-Venus mice (B6.Cg-Tg(*Itgax-Venus*)Mnz/J) [21], *Itgax-DTR-EGFP* mice (B6.FVB-

1700016L21Rik$^{Tg(Itgax-DTR/EGFP)57Lan/J}$) [24], *Cx3cr1*$^{CreERT2/+}$ mice (B6.129P2(Cg)-

Cx3cr1$^{tm2.1(cre/ERT2)Litt}$/WganJ) [26], *Igf1*$^{flox/flox}$ mice (B6.129(FVB)-*Igf1*^{tm1Dlr}/J) [44] were

purchased from Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME). The data were obtained from

male mice except for the data shown in Figures 1D, 3, and 7C. For induction of Cre

recombinase, *Cx3cr1*$^{CreERT2/+}$; *Igf1*$^{flox/flox}$ mice were injected subcutaneously with 4 mg of

tamoxifen (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) dissolved in 200 μL corn oil (Wako, Osaka, Japan)

twice with a 48-hr interval. Four weeks later when gene-deleting CX3CR1$^+$ cells in

peripheral tissues including the DRG has been shown to be replaced by non-deleting

cells [26,45], the mice were subjected to nerve injury. All mice used were aged 5–14 weeks

at the start of each experiment, and were housed individually or in groups at a

temperature of 22±1°C with a 12-hr light–dark cycle, and were fed food and water ad

libitum. 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.

Peripheral nerve injury. We used two injury models, spinal nerve transection (SpNT)

[18,46], which is a modified spinal nerve injury model [19], and spared nerve injury (SNI) [25].

For the SpNT model, under isoflurane (2%) anesthesia, a small incision at L3–S1 was

made. The paraspinal muscle and fat were removed from the L5 traverse process, which

exposed the parallel-lying L3 and L4 spinal nerves. The L4 nerve was then carefully

isolated and cut while leaving the L3 spinal nerve intact. The wound and the surrounding

skin were sutured with 5-0 silk. For the SNI model, according to a previously reported

method [47], under isoflurane (2%) anesthesia, the skin on the left thigh was open, and

terminal branches of the sciatic nerve were exposed by separating the thigh muscle

layer using scissors and blunt forceps. Two of the three branches, the tibial and common

peroneal nerves, were tightly ligated with 7-0 Nylon (NM-01, WASHIESU MEDICAL) and

a small portion of the nerves distal to the ligation were removed while leaving the sural

nerve intact. The wound and the surrounding skin were sutured with 5-0 silk.

Immunohistochemistry. According to our previously reported method [18], mice were

deeply anesthetized by i.p. injection of pentobarbital and perfused transcardially with

phosphate buffered saline (PBS) followed by ice-cold 4% paraformaldehyde/PBS.

Transverse L4 spinal cord sections (30 µm) or L4 dorsal root ganglion (DRG) sections

(20 µm) were incubated for 48 hrs at 4 °C with primary antibody for IBA1 (1:2000; Cat#

234 308, Synaptic Systems), P2Y12R (1:2000; Cat# AS-55043A, AnaSpec), CCR2

(1:500; Cat# ab273050, Abcam), APC-conjugated CD169 (1:500, Cat# 142417,

Biolegend), PE-conjugated CD11b (1:1000, Cat# 101207, Biolegend) or GFP (1:1000;

Cat# 598, MBL Life science). Tissue sections were incubated with secondary antibodies

conjugated to Alexa Fluor 405 (1:1000, Abcam), 488, or 546 (1:1000, Molecular Probes)

and mounted with Vectashield. Three to five sections from one tissue were randomly

selected and analyzed using an LSM700 Imaging System (Carl Zeiss, Japan).

Behavioral test. To assess mechanical sensitivity, calibrated von Frey filaments (0.02–

2.0 g, North Coast Medical, USA) were applied to the plantar surfaces of the hindpaws

of mice with or without PNI [18] and the 50% PWT was determined using the up–down

method [48].

Intrathecal injection. Under 2% isoflurane anesthesia, a 30G needle attached to a 25-

µL Hamilton syringe was inserted into the intervertebral space between L5 and L6 spinal

vertebrae in mice, as previously described [18,49]. Recombinant Murine IL-4 was

purchased from Peprotech (Cat# 214-14). IL-4 (40 ng/µL in PBS, 5 µL/mouse) or PBS

as a control were intrathecally injected once a day for 3 days from day 14 post-PNI. DTX

was purchased from Wako (Cat# 048-34371) and was injected intrathecally (0.1 ng/µL in

PBS, 5 µL/mouse) or intraperitoneally (2 ng/g mouse) into *Itgax-DTR-EGFP* mice. Only

mice whose hypersensitivity was attenuated by IL-4 treatment were used for the DTX-

induced cell depletion experiment shown in Figure 4C (10 out of 12 mice were included)

and Figure 8B (12 out of 15 mice were included).

Flow cytometry. As previously described [18], mice were deeply anesthetized by i.p.

injection of pentobarbital and perfused transcardially with PBS to remove the circulating

blood from the vasculature. The spinal cord was rapidly and carefully removed from the

vertebral column and placed into ice-cold Hanks' balanced salt solution (HBSS). The

3th–4th lumbar (L3/4) segments (2 mm long) of the spinal dorsal horn (SDH) ipsilateral

and contralateral to nerve injury were separated. Unilateral spinal tissue pieces were

treated with pre-warmed 0.8-mL enzymatic solution [0.2 U/mL collagenase D (Cat#

11088866001; Roche) and 4.3 U/mL dispase (Cat# 17105041; GIBCO)] in HBSS

containing 2% fetal bovine serum (FBS) for 30 min at 37 °C. The tissues were

homogenized by passing through a 23G needle attached with a 1-mL syringe and were

further incubated for 15 min at 37 °C. After that, the tissues were homogenized by

passing twice through a 26G needle, and the enzymatic reaction was stopped by adding

EDTA (0.5 M). To count the number of $CD11c^+$ ($Venus^+$ or $EGFP^+$) microglia, cell

suspension was blocked by incubating with Fc Block (Cat# 553142; BD Biosciences) for

5 min at 4 °C and immunostained with CD11b-AlexaFluor 647 (M1/70; 1:1000; Cat#

557686, BD Biosciences) and CD45-PE (1:1000; Cat# 103106, Biolegend) for 30 min at

4 °C in the dark. After washing, the pellet was resuspended in ice-cold HBSS-FBS and

filtered through a 35-µm nylon cell strainer (BD Biosciences) to isolate tissue debris from

the cell suspension. The total number of microglia ($CD11b^+$ $CD45^+$ cells) in the L3/4

spinal cord or SDH was analyzed using CytoFLEX SRT (Beckman Coulter) and FlowJo

software (TreeStar). Microglia with Venus fluorescence higher in intensity than that

observed in microglia of wild-type mice were analyzed as CD11c$^+$ microglia.

Fluorescent activated cell sorting (FACS). Spinal tissues were removed and

homogenized as described above. Myelin debris was removed from the cell suspension

using Myelin Removal Beads II and a MACS LS column (Miltenyi Biotec, Bergisch-

Gladbach, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocol and our previously

reported method [18]. After centrifugation (300 × g, 10 min, 4 °C), the cells were

resuspended in HBSS containing 10% FBS. The cell suspension was blocked by

incubating with Fc Block and immunostained with CD11b-Brilliant Violet 785 (1:1000;

Cat# 101243, BioLegend), CD206-APC (1:200; Cat# 141708, BioLegend), and CD45-PE

(1:1000; Cat# 103105, BioLegend) for 30 min at 4 °C in the dark. After washing, cell

suspension was treated with 7-aminoactinomycin D (7-AAD; Miltenyi Biotec) and

incubate for 10 min on ice for viability staining prior to cell sorting. CD11b$^+$CD45$^+$

CD206^{neg}7-AAD^{neg}-singlet cells are gated as live microglia and sorted using FACSAria III

(BD Biosciences) or CytoFLEX SRT. The sorted cells were directly collected in lysis

buffer for total RNA extraction using the Quick-RNA Micro-Prep kit (ZYMO). CD11c^{high}

microglia were collected as cells with Venus fluorescence higher than the median Venus

fluorescence of all CD11c$^+$ microglia [18]

mRNA extraction from spinal cord homogenates. Mice were deeply anesthetized by

pentobarbital and perfused transcardially with ice-cold PBS followed by RNAlater™

Stabilization Solution (Cat# AM7021, Invitrogen). The isolated SDH tissue around the

boundary between L3 and L4 segments was isolated and separated into the ipsilateral

and contralateral sides, and the upper half portion of the SDH of each side was

dissected as described previously [18]. Total RNA was extracted from tissue homogenates

using Trisure (CAT# BIO-38032, Bioline, USA) according to manufacturer's protocol and

purified with the Quick-RNA Micro-Prep kit (ZYMO).

qPCR. As described previously [18], the extracted RNA from the sorted cells or the tissue

was transferred to reverse transcriptional reaction with Prime Script reverse

transcriptase (2680B, Takara, Japan). Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed with

Premix Ex Taq™ (Cat# RR390B, Takara, Japan) using QuantStudio® 3 (Applied

Biosystems, USA). Expression levels were normalized to the values for *Actb*. The

sequences of TaqMan primer pairs and probe are described below: *Actb*: 5'-FAM-

CCTGGCCTCACTGTCCACCTTCCA-TAMRA-3' (probe), 5'-

CCTGAGCGCAAGTACTCTGTGT-3' (forward primer), 5'-

CTGCTTGCTGATCCACATCTG-3' (reverse primer); *Igf1*: 5'- /56-

FAM/TCCGGAAGC/ZEN/AACACTCACATCCACAA/3IABkFQ/-3' (probe), 5'-

AGTACATCTCCAGTCTCCTCA-3' (forward primer), 5'- ATGCTCTTCAGTTCGTGTGT-

3' (reverse primer).

Quantification and statistical analysis. All data are shown as mean ± s.e.m. Statistical

significance was determined using the unpaired t-test, two-way ANOVA with post hoc

Tukey's multiple comparison test or one-way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey's multiple

comparison test using GraphPad Prism 7 software. Differences were considered

significant at $P<0.05$.

References

1.   Colloca, L., Ludman, T., Bouhassira, D., Baron, R., Dickenson, A.H., Yarnitsky, D.,

Freeman, R., Truini, A., Attal, N., Finnerup, N.B., et al. (2017). Neuropathic pain.

Nat Rev Dis Primers *3*, 17002. https://doi.org/10.1038/nrdp.2017.2.

2.   Finnerup, N.B., Kuner, R., and Jensen, T.S. (2021). Neuropathic pain: From

mechanisms to treatment. Physiol. Rev. *101*, 259–301.

https://doi.org/10.1152/physrev.00045.2019.

3.   Ji, R.-R., Chamessian, A., and Zhang, Y.-Q. (2016). Pain regulation by non-

neuronal cells and inflammation. Science *354*, 572–577.

https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aaf8924.

4.   Inoue, K., and Tsuda, M. (2018). Microglia in neuropathic pain: cellular and

molecular mechanisms and therapeutic potential. Nat. Rev. Neurosci. *19*, 138–152.

https://doi.org/10.1038/nrn.2018.2.

5.   Ji, R.-R., Donnelly, C.R., and Nedergaard, M. (2019). Astrocytes in chronic pain and

itch. Nat. Rev. Neurosci. *20*, 667–685. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41583-019-0218-1.

6.   Grace, P.M., Hutchinson, M.R., Maier, S.F., and Watkins, L.R. (2014). Pathological

pain and the neuroimmune interface. Nat. Rev. Immunol. *14*, 217–231.

https://doi.org/10.1038/nri3621.

7.   Vanderwall, A.G., and Milligan, E.D. (2019). Cytokines in Pain: Harnessing

Endogenous Anti-Inflammatory Signaling for Improved Pain Management. Front.

Immunol. *10*, 3009. https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2019.03009.

8.   Cunha, F.Q., Poole, S., Lorenzetti, B.B., Veiga, F.H., and Ferreira, S.H. (1999).

Cytokine-mediated inflammatory hyperalgesia limited by interleukin-4. Br. J.

Pharmacol. *126*, 45–50. https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.bjp.0702266.

9. Vale, M.L., Marques, J.B., Moreira, C.A., Rocha, F.A.C., Ferreira, S.H., Poole, S.,

Cunha, F.Q., and Ribeiro, R.A. (2003). Antinociceptive effects of interleukin-4, -10,

and -13 on the writhing response in mice and zymosan-induced knee joint

incapacitation in rats. J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther. *304*, 102–108.

https://doi.org/10.1124/jpet.102.038703.

10. Celik, M.Ö., Labuz, D., Keye, J., Glauben, R., and Machelska, H. (2020). IL-4

induces M2 macrophages to produce sustained analgesia via opioids. JCI Insight *5*.

https://doi.org/10.1172/jci.insight.133093.

11. Kiguchi, N., Kobayashi, Y., Saika, F., Sakaguchi, H., Maeda, T., and Kishioka, S.

(2015). Peripheral interleukin-4 ameliorates inflammatory macrophage-dependent

neuropathic pain. Pain *156*, 684–693.

https://doi.org/10.1097/j.pain.0000000000000097.

12. Labuz, D., Celik, M.Ö., Seitz, V., and Machelska, H. (2021). Interleukin-4 Induces

the Release of Opioid Peptides from M1 Macrophages in Pathological Pain. J.

Neurosci. *41*, 2870–2882. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3040-20.2021.

13. Nie, B., Liu, C., Bai, X., Chen, X., Wu, S., Zhang, S., Huang, Z., Xie, M., Xu, T., Xin,

W., et al. (2018). AKAP150 involved in paclitaxel-induced neuropathic pain via

inhibiting CN/NFAT2 pathway and downregulating IL-4. Brain Behav. Immun. *68*,

158–168. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbi.2017.10.015.

14. Okutani, H., Yamanaka, H., Kobayashi, K., Okubo, M., and Noguchi, K. (2018).

Recombinant interleukin-4 alleviates mechanical allodynia via injury-induced

interleukin-4 receptor alpha in spinal microglia in a rat model of neuropathic pain.

Glia *66*, 1775–1787. https://doi.org/10.1002/glia.23340.

15. Hao, S., Mata, M., Glorioso, J.C., and Fink, D.J. (2006). HSV-mediated expression

of interleukin-4 in dorsal root ganglion neurons reduces neuropathic pain. Mol. Pain

2, 6. https://doi.org/10.1186/1744-8069-2-6.

16. Kohno, K., Kitano, J., Kohro, Y., Tozaki-Saitoh, H., Inoue, K., and Tsuda, M. (2018).

Temporal Kinetics of Microgliosis in the Spinal Dorsal Horn after Peripheral Nerve

Injury in Rodents. Biol. Pharm. Bull. *41*, 1096–1102.

https://doi.org/10.1248/bpb.b18-00278.

17. Tansley, S., Uttam, S., Ureña Guzmán, A., Yaqubi, M., Pacis, A., Parisien, M.,

Deamond, H., Wong, C., Rabau, O., Brown, N., et al. (2022). Single-cell RNA

sequencing reveals time- and sex-specific responses of mouse spinal cord microglia

to peripheral nerve injury and links ApoE to chronic pain. Nat. Commun. *13*, 843.

https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-022-28473-8.

18. Kohno, K., Shirasaka, R., Yoshihara, K., Mikuriya, S., Tanaka, K., Takanami, K.,

Inoue, K., Sakamoto, H., Ohkawa, Y., Masuda, T., et al. (2022). A spinal microglia

population involved in remitting and relapsing neuropathic pain. Science *376*, 86–

90. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.abf6805.

19. Ho Kim, S., and Mo Chung, J. (1992). An experimental model for peripheral

neuropathy produced by segmental spinal nerve ligation in the rat. Pain *50*, 355–

363. https://doi.org/10.1016/0304-3959(92)90041-9.

20. Rigaud, M., Gemes, G., Barabas, M.-E., Chernoff, D.I., Abram, S.E., Stucky, C.L.,

and Hogan, Q.H. (2008). Species and strain differences in rodent sciatic nerve

anatomy: implications for studies of neuropathic pain. Pain *136*, 188–201.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pain.2008.01.016.

21. Lindquist, R.L., Shakhar, G., Dudziak, D., Wardemann, H., Eisenreich, T., Dustin,

M.L., and Nussenzweig, M.C. (2004). Visualizing dendritic cell networks in vivo. Nat.

Immunol. *5*, 1243–1250. https://doi.org/10.1038/ni1139.

22. Butovsky, O., Jedrychowski, M.P., Moore, C.S., Cialic, R., Lanser, A.J., Gabriely,

G., Koeglsperger, T., Dake, B., Wu, P.M., Doykan, C.E., et al. (2014). Identification

of a unique TGF-β-dependent molecular and functional signature in microglia. Nat.

Neurosci. *17*, 131–143. https://doi.org/10.1038/nn.3599.

23. Ito, D., Imai, Y., Ohsawa, K., Nakajima, K., Fukuuchi, Y., and Kohsaka, S. (1998).

Microglia-specific localisation of a novel calcium binding protein, Iba1. Brain Res.

Mol. Brain Res. *57*, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0169-328x(98)00040-0.

24. Jung, S., Unutmaz, D., Wong, P., Sano, G.-I., De los Santos, K., Sparwasser, T.,

Wu, S., Vuthoori, S., Ko, K., Zavala, F., et al. (2002). In vivo depletion of CD11c+

dendritic cells abrogates priming of CD8+ T cells by exogenous cell-associated

antigens. Immunity *17*, 211–220. https://doi.org/10.1016/s1074-7613(02)00365-5.

25. Decosterd, I., and Woolf, C.J. (2000). Spared nerve injury: an animal model of

persistent peripheral neuropathic pain. Pain *87*, 149–158.

https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-3959(00)00276-1.

26. Parkhurst, C.N., Yang, G., Ninan, I., Savas, J.N., Yates, J.R., 3rd, Lafaille, J.J.,

Hempstead, B.L., Littman, D.R., and Gan, W.-B. (2013). Microglia promote learning-

dependent synapse formation through brain-derived neurotrophic factor. Cell *155*,

1596–1609. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2013.11.030.

27. Shibata, Y., Matsumoto, Y., Kohno, K., Nakashima, Y., and Tsuda, M. (2025).

Microgliosis in the spinal dorsal horn early after peripheral nerve injury is associated

with damage to primary afferent Aβ-fibers. Cells *14*, 666.

https://doi.org/10.3390/cells14090666.

28. Masuda, T., Tsuda, M., Yoshinaga, R., Tozaki-Saitoh, H., Ozato, K., Tamura, T.,

and Inoue, K. (2012). IRF8 is a critical transcription factor for transforming microglia

into a reactive phenotype. Cell Rep. *1*, 334–340.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2012.02.014.

29. Masuda, T., Iwamoto, S., Yoshinaga, R., Tozaki-Saitoh, H., Nishiyama, A., Mak,

T.W., Tamura, T., Tsuda, M., and Inoue, K. (2014). Transcription factor IRF5 drives

P2X4R+-reactive microglia gating neuropathic pain. Nat. Commun. *5*, 3771.

https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms4771.

30. Tsuda, M., Shigemoto-Mogami, Y., Koizumi, S., Mizokoshi, A., Kohsaka, S., Salter,

M.W., and Inoue, K. (2003). P2X4 receptors induced in spinal microglia gate tactile

allodynia after nerve injury. Nature *424*, 778–783.

https://doi.org/10.1038/nature01786.

31. Coull, J.A.M., Beggs, S., Boudreau, D., Boivin, D., Tsuda, M., Inoue, K., Gravel, C.,

Salter, M.W., and De Koninck, Y. (2005). BDNF from microglia causes the shift in

neuronal anion gradient underlying neuropathic pain. Nature *438*, 1017–1021.

https://doi.org/10.1038/nature04223.

32. Sideris-Lampretsas, G., and Malcangio, M. (2022). Pain-resolving microglia.

Science *376*, 33–34. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.abo5592.

33. Tsuda, M., Masuda, T., and Kohno, K. (2023). Microglial diversity in neuropathic

pain. Trends Neurosci. *46*, 597–610. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tins.2023.05.001.

34. Butovsky, O., Koronyo-Hamaoui, M., Kunis, G., Ophir, E., Landa, G., Cohen, H.,

and Schwartz, M. (2006). Glatiramer acetate fights against Alzheimer's disease by

inducing dendritic-like microglia expressing insulin-like growth factor 1. Proceedings

of the National Academy of Sciences *103*, 11784–11789.

https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0604681103.

35. Chiu, I.M., Chen, A., Zheng, Y., Kosaras, B., Tsiftsoglou, S.A., Vartanian, T.K.,

Brown, R.H., Jr, and Carroll, M.C. (2008). T lymphocytes potentiate endogenous

neuroprotective inflammation in a mouse model of ALS. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S.

A. *105*, 17913–17918. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0804610105.

36. Butovsky, O., Talpalar, A.E., Ben-Yaakov, K., and Schwartz, M. (2005). Activation of

microglia by aggregated β-amyloid or lipopolysaccharide impairs MHC-II expression

and renders them cytotoxic whereas IFN-γ and IL-4 render them protective. Mol.

Cell. Neurosci. *29*, 381–393. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mcn.2005.03.005.

37. Fan, C.Y., McAllister, B.B., Stokes-Heck, S., Harding, E.K., Pereira de Vasconcelos,

A., Mah, L.K., Lima, L.V., van den Hoogen, N.J., Rosen, S.F., Ham, B., et al. (2025).

Divergent sex-specific pannexin-1 mechanisms in microglia and T cells underlie

neuropathic pain. Neuron *113*, 896-911.e9.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2025.01.005.

38. Kuhn, J.A., Vainchtein, I.D., Braz, J., Hamel, K., Bernstein, M., Craik, V., Dahlgren,

M.W., Ortiz-Carpena, J., Molofsky, A.B., Molofsky, A.V., et al. (2021). Regulatory T-

cells inhibit microglia-induced pain hypersensitivity in female mice. Elife *10*.

https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.69056.

39. Midavaine, É., Moraes, B.C., Benitez, J., Rodriguez, S.R., Braz, J.M., Kochhar,

665 N.P., Eckalbar, W.L., Tian, L., Domingos, A.I., Pintar, J.E., et al. (2025). Meningeal

666 regulatory T cells inhibit nociception in female mice. Science *388*, 96–104.

667 https://doi.org/10.1126/science.adq6531.

668 40. Niehaus, J.K., Taylor-Blake, B., Loo, L., Simon, J.M., and Zylka, M.J. (2021). Spinal

669 macrophages resolve nociceptive hypersensitivity after peripheral injury. Neuron

670 *109*, 1274-1282.e6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2021.02.018.

671 41. Keren-Shaul, H., Spinrad, A., Weiner, A., Matcovitch-Natan, O., Dvir-Szternfeld, R.,

672 Ulland, T.K., David, E., Baruch, K., Lara-Astaiso, D., Toth, B., et al. (2017). A unique

673 microglia type associated with restricting development of Alzheimer's disease. Cell

674 *169*, 1276-1290.e17. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2017.05.018.

675 42. Xie, M., Liu, Y.U., Zhao, S., Zhang, L., Bosco, D.B., Pang, Y.-P., Zhong, J., Sheth,

676 U., Martens, Y.A., Zhao, N., et al. (2022). TREM2 interacts with TDP-43 and

677 mediates microglial neuroprotection against TDP-43-related neurodegeneration.

678 Nat. Neurosci. *25*, 26–38. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41593-021-00975-6.

679 43. Wlodarczyk, A., Benmamar-Badel, A., Cédile, O., Jensen, K.N., Kramer, I., Elsborg,

680 N.B., and Owens, T. (2018). CSF1R stimulation promotes increased

681 neuroprotection by CD11c+ microglia in EAE. Front. Cell. Neurosci. *12*, 523.

682 https://doi.org/10.3389/fncel.2018.00523.

683 44. Liu, J.L., Grinberg, A., Westphal, H., Sauer, B., Accili, D., Karas, M., and LeRoith, D.

684 (1998). Insulin-like growth factor-I affects perinatal lethality and postnatal

685 development in a gene dosage-dependent manner: manipulation using the Cre/loxP

686 system in transgenic mice. Mol. Endocrinol. *12*, 1452–1462.

687 https://doi.org/10.1210/mend.12.9.0162.

45. Peng, J., Gu, N., Zhou, L., B Eyo, U., Murugan, M., Gan, W.-B., and Wu, L.-J.

(2016). Microglia and monocytes synergistically promote the transition from acute to

chronic pain after nerve injury. Nat. Commun. *7*, 12029.

https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms12029.

46. Masuda, T., Kohro, Y., Inoue, K., and Tsuda, M. (2017). Peripheral Nerve Injury: a

Mouse Model of Neuropathic Pain. Bio Protoc *7*, e2252.

https://doi.org/10.21769/BioProtoc.2252.

47. Cichon, J., Sun, L., and Yang, G. (2018). Spared Nerve Injury Model of Neuropathic

Pain in Mice. Bio Protoc *8*. https://doi.org/10.21769/bioprotoc.2777.

48. 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. https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-0270(94)90144-9.

49. Hylden, J.L., and Wilcox, G.L. (1980). Intrathecal morphine in mice: a new

technique. Eur. J. Pharmacol. *67*, 313–316. https://doi.org/10.1016/0014-

2999(80)90515-4.

A

Itgax-Venus mice

	Contra	Ipsi
PBS	○	●(grey)
IL-4	●(light blue)	●(blue)

PWT (g)

PBS or IL-4 (i.t.)

Pre   14   17   21

Post-SpNT (days)

**** ****

B

Venus

PBS

Venus P2Y12R IBA1

Contra   Ipsi   Ipsi

IL-4

Contra   Ipsi   Ipsi

C

Venus   P2Y12R   Venus P2Y12R IBA1

PBS

IL-4

D

CD11c⁺ microglia
(CD11b⁺ CD45⁺ Venus⁺)

Cells in the SDH (×100)

p=0.0006

C   I   C   I
PBS   IL-4

Total microglia
(CD11b⁺ CD45⁺)

Cells in the SDH (×100)

C   I   C   I
PBS   IL-4

○ Male   ○ Female

A *Itgax-DTR-EGFP* mice (male)

Contra | Ipsi
PBS – PBS
IL-4 – PBS
IL-4 – DTX

PWT (g)

**** ††††

PBS or IL-4 (i.t.)   PBS or DTX (i.t.)

Pre   14   17   18

Post-SpNT (days)

B **CD11c⁺ microglia**
(CD11b⁺ CD45⁺ EGFP⁺)

Cells in the SDH (x100)

$p<0.0001$

C   I   C   I   C   I
PBS – PBS   IL-4 – PBS   IL-4 – DTX

A

CD11c (EGFP)   CD11c (EGFP) IBA1

IL-4 - PBS

IL-4 - DTX

p<0.0001

EGFP⁺IBA⁺ cells / mm² in L4 DRG

PBS   DTX
IL-4

B

IL-4 - PBS

IL-4 - DTX

CD11c (EGFP)

p=0.230

EGFP⁺IBA⁺ cells / mm² in L4 SDH

PBS   DTX
IL-4

C

Itgax-DTR-EGFP mice

Contra   Ipsi
○ IL-4 - PBS   ● IL-4 - PBS
○ IL-4 - DTX   ● IL-4 - DTX

PWT (g)

Pre   14   17   18

IL-4 (i.t.)   PBS or DTX (i.p.)

Post-SpNT (days)

A **Sorted microglia**
(CD11b⁺CD45⁺)

B **Upper half of SDH**

C **Sorted CD11cʰⁱᵍʰ microglia**
(CD11b⁺ CD45⁺ Venusʰⁱᵍʰ)

A

PBS   IL-4

Venus

Venus P2Y12R IBA1

Contra   Ipsi   Contra   Ipsi

B

PBS   IL-4

Venus

P2Y12R

Venus P2Y12R IBA1

C

CD11c⁺ microglia
(CD11b⁺ CD45⁺ Venus⁺)

p=0.0031

Cells in the SDH (x100)

C   I   C   I
PBS   IL-4

Total microglia
(CD11b⁺ CD45⁺)

Cells in the SDH (x100)

C   I   C   I
PBS   IL-4

◇ Male   ◇ Female

D

Contra Ipsi
Itgax-Venus ◇ ◆ PBS
mice ◇ ◆ IL-4

PWT (g)

2.0

1.5

1.0

0.5

0.0

*   ***

PBS or IL-4 (i.t.)

Pre   14   17   21
Post-SNI (days)

A **CD11c+ microglia**
(CD11b+ CD45+ EGFP+)

B Itgax-DTR-EGFP mice
- IL-4 – PBS (Contra, Ipsi light blue/dark blue)
- IL-4 – DTX (Contra, Ipsi pink/red)

C Cx3cr1^CreERT2/+; Igf1^fl/fl mice
- Corn oil +IL-4 (Contra, Ipsi light blue/dark blue)
- Tamoxifen +IL-4 (Contra, Ipsi light green/green)